

Simulations in AC Tokamak Ramp Downs

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For George, Paul, Ringo and John.



Declaration

The work in this thesis is my own except where otherwise stated.

Thomas Malcolm.

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Abstract

One of the biggest unsolved problems of the modern day is that of plasma confinement in fusion reactors; a challenge undertaken with the expressed intent of providing a safe, clean, reliable source of renewable energy. Various approaches to tackling this problem have emerged since the field's inception in 1946, but the most prominent design that has persisted through to modern day is the familiar donut-shaped Tokamak fusion reactor design. As equally as familiar as the quest for fusion power, are the challenges that face its achievement. The problem at the heart of plasma science is that of confinement, and one of the larger antagonists to this goal is the presence of runaway electron (RE) populations. These, if managed, can wreak havoc on the reactor, and disrupt the plasma - not conducive to confinement, and thus stability.

While most fusion reactors operate in what's known as "DC" mode, where the plasma current is oriented in a single direction, we focus our investigations instead on "AC" Tokamak operating modes, where the plasma current is allowed to oscillate back and forth. This, however, introduces its own set of problems - namely that of the observed presence of "anti-parallel" currents, characterised by excess populations of runaway electrons.

Governing the behaviour of a plasma within the confines of a Tokamak's geometry is the Grad-Shafranov equation; a nonlinear, elliptic PDE derived from the principles of magnetohydrodynamics (MHD) - the union of Maxwell's equations and fluid dynamics. Solutions to this PDE provide magnetic flux information, and are instrumental to understanding the dynamics of a plasma, and thus, help inform answers to many of the challenging questions we face in fusion science. In this thesis we investigate a variation of the Grad-Shafranov equation specifically catering to current reversals, and seek to test whether we can simulate the ramp down phase of a current cycle, with the intent of identifying behaviour that might support the existence of anti-parallel currents, and/or provide explanation for the increased population of runaway electrons. We initially simulate this with

emulated data, and then attempt to apply our model to data provided by the ISTTOK reactor.

In attempting to use our model on data from ISTTOK we found that, while there are some difficulties in fitting our parameters to the data that is available, initial results show promise that the model can be used to make observations about the problems described above. We conclude with some potential avenues for further research that could see the model improved.

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Notation and terminology

Notation

$L^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$	Space of L^2 integrable functions on \mathbb{R}^n
B_0	On-axis magnetic field (Toroidal magnetic field strength)
R_0	Major radius (Tokamak)
a	Minor radius (Tokamak)
ψ	Poloidal magnetic flux function
j_ϕ	Toroidal current density
J_ϕ	Normalised toroidal current density (normalised w.r.t. B_0)
p	Plasma pressure density

Terminology

GS / GSE	Grad-Shafranov equation
GSH	Grad-Shafranov-Helmholtz equation
MHD	Magnetohydrodynamics

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Plasma Science

This thesis is multidisciplinary by nature, incorporating aspects of mathematics, physics and computer science throughout the various challenges faced in reaching the conclusions we have.

Before burying ourselves in the thick of our results we will cover the requisite knowledge for working in the plasma science simulation space. First we'll discuss what the physical object of our attention ("plasma") actually is, with a brief discussion on the design of fusion reactors, where we will emphasise the structures that specifically relate to our interests. In the background chapter we will expound on this by building the mathematical theory underpinning physical processes within the fusion reactor, providing us a way to reason about the behaviour of plasma (and related processes) inside a fusion reactor, or, more accurately, approximate their behaviour via simulation.

1.1.1 I'm a Mathematician... what is "plasma"?

While an initially daunting topic, fear not fearful mathematician, for many of the inherently physical behaviours in plasma science we require can be expressed in terms of our dearest mathematical expressions – differential equations! But first, what actually is "plasma"? Webster's dictionary defines plasma to be "a green faintly translucent quartz" [16]. While I'm sure there isn't no relation between crystals and our investigations, this is unfortunately, not the recipient of our affection.

When plasma is referred to in everyday conversation it is often noted as be-

ing the “4th state of matter”. To introduce slightly more rigour, plasma is an extension of the gaseous state of matter, where its energy (read: temperature) is increased sufficiently high that the electrons are no longer bound by the electromagnetic force to the atom’s nucleus [4]. The resulting substance is a “pool” of cations (the positively charged nuclei), and electrons (negatively charged), that exhibits interesting properties. It is these properties that we seek to exploit in the search of controlled, sustained fusion reactions.

Plasma is abundant in nature – just not in many places that we as Humans commonly look. Stars are the most immediate example of matter in a plasma state, and are readily viewable (at least for half the day). Lightning strikes are paths through the atmosphere which are ionised, and neon signs work by heating Neon gas within a tube to ionise it [6].

The question then is, what is “fusion”, and how does this relate to plasma? The answer comes back to energy. Analogously to a fission reaction, where energy is released through the division of atoms, one can also fuse two separate atoms together and have large amounts of energy emitted as a bi-product of that fusion. It is (essentially) this extra energy that we wish to harness when harvesting energy from a fusion reactor.

While there are no shortages of elements that can theoretically be used to fuel a fusion reactor, the one most commonly associated with fusion is Deuterium – a stable isotope of Hydrogen that has a neutron in its nucleus (whereas a ‘standard’ Hydrogen atom contains only a single proton). Analogously, Tritium is an isotope of Hydrogen that has two neutrons in its nucleus (though is much less stable). Consider the fusion of a Deuterium atom with a Tritium atom:



Here two Hydrogen isotopes fuse together to form a single Helium-4 atom, and in the process of doing so release a single neutron and 17.59 MeV of energy. This excess energy is what is so attractive about fusion processes as a sustainable energy source – for such little input we receive a substantial amount of energy, and at that, using one of the most abundant resources available on Earth; water.

The question then becomes, how do we drive this fusion process? If two atoms can fuse as such, why do we not see atoms fusing everywhere around us accompanied by violent explosions destroying all that we’ve come to know and love? The answer is that we kind of do – just not normally in the places that humans expect to be inhabiting. In fact, we see this happening everyday – for

those of us fortunate enough to be able to see the sun that is. Our sun is a large ball of plasma where an estimated 9.3×10^{37} fusion reactions are expected to occur every second [17], and is one of the easiest examples of both plasma as a state of matter, and of a self-sustaining fusion reaction.

How then do two hydrogen atoms fuse – how can we create a sun on Earth? The nucleus of an atom (consisting of positively charged protons, and neutral neutrons) is positively charged, and so two atoms’ nuclei will repel each other due to the Coulomb force when pushed together. This is the force we have to overcome to enable a fusion reaction to take place (and what stops the world around us burning!). To overcome this the process is relatively “simple” – we just increase the energy of our atoms so that when they collide they collide with enough energy to overcome this force, allowing the strong force to become dominant, fusing the two atoms. When we energise a mass (take a gas here) of atoms enough, they become ionised however, which is exactly the state of plasma we described earlier. In other words, if we want to reason about the creation, sustainment, and effects of fusion reactions, we need first to understand the dynamics of plasma, the medium in which the fusion reactions take place. From this comes a plethora of questions, ranging from “how do we generate such a plasma?” to “how do we reliably control such a plasma” and “how do we harness such a plasma”? Alas, we digress however, as we do not seek to solve the big problems in fusion science in this here mere mortal thesis. Instead, now equipped with at least a passing knowledge of what constitutes a “plasma” state and what it means for a fusion reaction to take place, we will humbly delve into the inner workings of fusion reactor terminology and design.

1.1.2 Fusion Reactor Design 101

Here we will discuss the important structural aspects of a tokamak fusion reactor. The term “tokamak” is a Russian acronym which translates as “toroidal chamber with magnetic coils” [12]. Aptly, a tokamak is a toroidal object which is used as a vessel for plasma which is driven via external magnetic coils. There are two main angular components to a tokamak - components working in the “toroidal” (around the major radius, R , of the tokamak), and those working in the “poloidal” direction (around the minor radius, a , of a cross section of the tokamak). Thus, we will often reason about various physical concepts (such as magnetic fields, current densities) in terms of one of these. Though, in fact, we will often ignore the toroidal component - these are often abstracted away under the guise of an

axisymmetry assumption, which assumes that any partials with respect to the toroidal angle are diminishing, i.e., $\frac{\partial}{\partial\phi} = 0$. We let ϕ denote poloidal angles, and θ the toroidal angles. When we refer to (x, z) , we will be referring to offsets within a poloidal cross section. Refer to figure 1.1 for a graphic distinguishing toroidal from poloidal components.

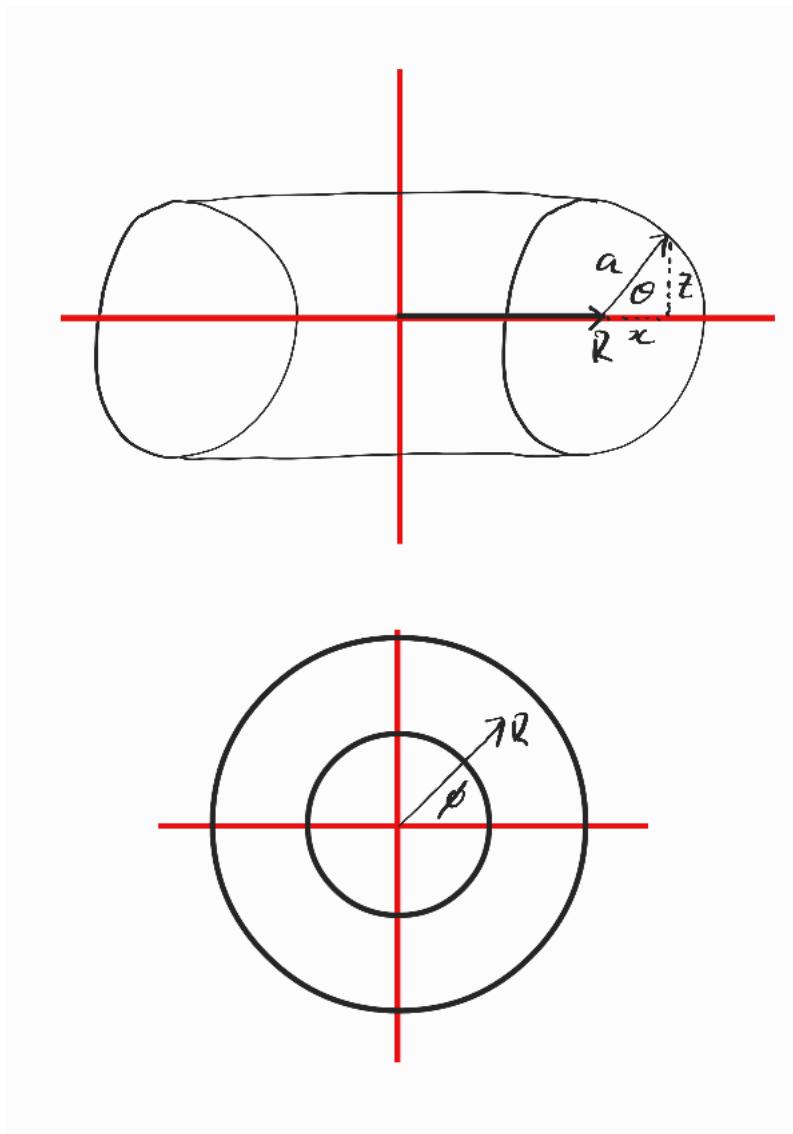


Figure 1.1: The top half depicts poloidal cross section factors, whereas the bottom shows toroidal components.

We draw specific attention to the difference between poloidal and toroidal magnetic flux. In this thesis we will concern ourselves primarily with poloidal magnetic flux, which is what controls lateral “movement” of plasma within the tokamak - which is central to the problem of confinement (pun intended). See

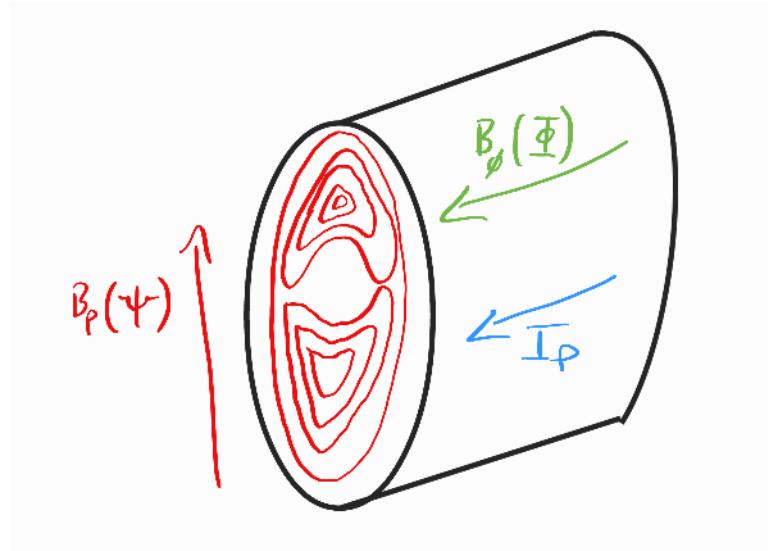


Figure 1.2: Emphasising the difference between the poloidal and magnetic fields. The flux function symbols associated with each are also provided. Alongside this we show the plasma current flow for good measure.

figure 1.2 for a comparison.

We control fusion reactors via a series of (meticulously!) places solenoids around the external of the reactor. These are positioned such that certain solenoids can be used to shape either the toroidal or poloidal magnetic field. Current is passed through these, the strength of which drives the strength of the resultant magnetic field, and the direction of which is determined by the “right hand rule” if you recall high school physics exams with everyone staring at their hands. We see a depiction of these solenoids and their effect on the poloidal and toroidal magnetic fields. Note that we have ignored one set of solenoids which accompany these, which are placed following the contours of the toroidal direction, and are used for more fine grained control of the poloidal magnetic flux, but these are largely irrelevant for our purposes, and are annoying to draw.

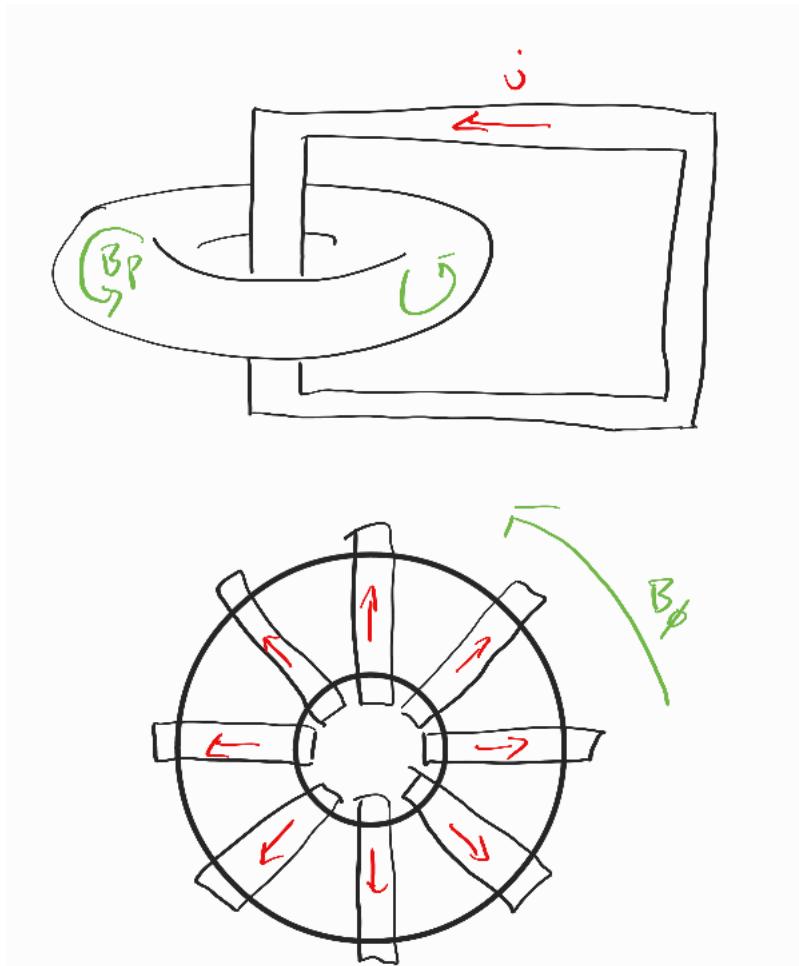


Figure 1.3: Solenoids which control the poloidal and toroidal magnetic fields.

Reactor Geometry

In reality, reactors do not have such nice geometry as the above diagrams (if we take shaky hand-drawn pictures to have “nice” geometry). Figure 1.4 shows a 3D model of the EAST reactor, showing the irregularities in the shape of the cross section that appears in a real reactor. These engineering decisions made here are interesting and could be (and have been) the subject of their own research! For our purposes however, we will assume that our tokamak is either a torus with an elliptic cross section, or even simpler, a cylinder with elliptic cross section. These act as approximations to a real tokamak’s design to make simulation simpler - it

is the “spherical cow” model for fusion reactors.

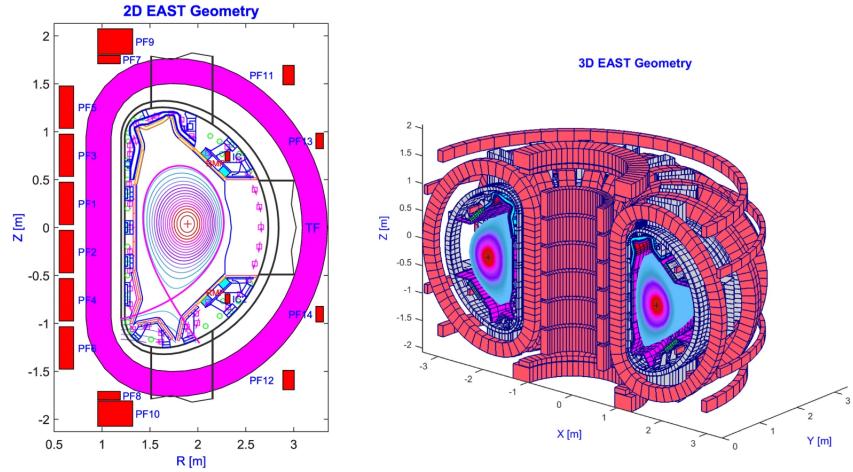


Figure 1.4: EAST fusion reactor geometry. This is a 3D model of its cross section, highlighting the irregular shape [3]

Runaway Electrons

We make one last note on runaway electrons. If tokamaks were Hamilton, then runaway electrons would be Burr. Or Hamilton. Or time? Whatever your interpretation of Lin Manuel-Miranda's musical epic suggests is the enemy. These high energy particles have the potential to be highly damaging to a reactor. They have the ability to directly damage equipment within the reactor (such as instruments that are plasma-facing), can erode the inside protective layers of the tokamak, can disrupt the dynamics of the plasma, and more. In fact it is runaway electron mitigation techniques which are at least part of the reasoning for having such an irregularly shaped cross section as that adopted by the EAST reactor (and many more "modern" reactors). We will talk more about runaway electrons in chapter 2.

Now that we are experts in fusion reactor design (who needs a physics degree, right?), we can proceed to talk about the afflictions that modern day fusion reactors face and what this humble thesis attempts to tackle.

1.2 What problem does this thesis address?

The core problem that this thesis is built around is introduced by Hole and Malaquias in [13]. In a tokamak, external solenoids along with heating elements within the reactor are what drive the primary current within a plasma. In a reactor operating in the DC regime, this is characterised by being a constant, unidirectional current. However, when operating in AC mode, this naturally becomes oscillatory. At every current reversal there is necessarily a quiescent phase for the plasma current, where $I_p = 0$. At this point we would anticipate there to be no plasma density as a result of this lack of a driving current, however, experiment in ISTTOK disagrees with this sentiment. Notably, reactors such as the CT-6B tokamak identify through experiment the presence of coexisting anti-parallel currents in the ramp down phase - directly contradicting ISTTOK's observations [10]. Summarily, there is no consensus in the community surrounding three central issues:

- Why does there exist a residual plasma density when there is seemingly nothing to drive it? (i.e. $I_p = 0$)
- Why do we see an increase in runaway electron generation during the ramp down phase (and partly during ramp up, though we will note on this missing

data in chapter 2)

- There is experimental evidence that both supports and discounts the existence of anti-parallel current formation during the ramp down phase. What could drive this, and is there theoretical support for either side?

It is hypothesised by Hole and Malaquias that this residual plasma density is the result of persistent runaway electron populations in the plasma. It is further suggested that these populations are driven by some mechanism resulting from the ramp down phase - we discuss runaway electron generation mechanisms in chapter 2. As we noted however, experiment is inconsistent on the question of the existence of anti-parallel current channels in the plasma (both positive and negative current densities in the plasma density). In ISTTOK we note that the potential difference of the plasma is vanishing as the plasma current approaches $I_p = 0$. This combined with the observation that the pressure density profile, as measured by the ISTTOK heavy ion beam diagnostics team, show non-vanishing pressures within the plasma, indicating the presence of a residual plasma even as the plasma current vanishes. This same pressure density profile also shows no evidence of the coexistence of anti-parallel currents.

What results do we seek?

Our broad scope goal is to simulate the behaviour of a current reversal within a tokamak, with the intent of identifying indicators of runaway electron generation, or support for the presence of anti-parallel current formation - in effect, to provide some insight into the answers behind any of the three points raised above. More specifically, however, we will develop theory around simulating the behaviour of a ramp down phase, necessarily a time evolution, when the tools we have available to us are characteristically time independent. From this we will develop a model which targets specifically the scenario that we have access to current density profile data, and from this derive information about the pressure density profile and the poloidal magnetic flux. We will run simulations for a contrived tokamak to observe some theoretical results, before applying what we've learned to data made available by the ISTTOK project. From this we will attempt to draw inference about the behaviours listed above, and note any limitations that may exist on our model.

1.3 Project Progression

This project being inspired by work done by Hole and Malaquias and the scope for the project defined explicitly, we first begun with a review of existing theoretical work done in simulating current reversals in tokamaks. These efforts led to the discovery of Wang’s paper [22], which provided an analytic solution to a variation of the Grad-Shafranov equation constructed specifically for the modelling of equilibrium in current reversal tokamak configurations. While the presence of equilibria for AC regime tokamaks is the subject of ongoing research (with theoretical work supporting their existence, but limited experimental support yet), we can nevertheless sought to use their model to simulate a ramp down phase. We first showed that equilibrium solutions to the Grad-Shafranov equation could be perturbed by some small time dependent ε term to simulate the effect of a time evolution. For some small (undetermined) perturbation this would still be an accurate model of the physical effects within a reactor. We were able to simulate the ramp down phase for a contrived reactor using the Helmholtz variation of the Grad-Shafranov equation as proposed by Wang. However, when applying our model to data available from ISTTOK, we see difficulties in achieving an accurate model. Initial efforts suggest some resistance of the system to be accurately represented by our model, however there is a question on whether enough information exists to make statements about the poloidal magnetic field topology, which itself can provide insight into anti-parallel current channels and some runaway electron generation mechanisms. There are a plethora of ways to extend upon the work we’ve done in this thesis, some of which are suggested in chapter 6.

Without further adieu, we will begin.

Chapter 2

Background

2.1 Magnetohydrodynamics

The term “magnetohydrodynamics” (MHD) is a portmanteau of two physical concepts which are used to model plasmas inside fusion reactors (among other things): the “magneto” term comes from “magnetic field”, and “hydrodynamics” indicates a fluid dynamics component. Put together, magnetohydrodynamics is the study of electrically conductive materials that behave like fluids. Essentially it provides a way to model the behaviour of a (considerably volumous!) mass of conductive particles, and their electrodynamic forces, as if it were a fluid, as opposed to having to model individual particle interactions. This idea was first introduced by Hannes Alfvén in 1970, for which he earned the Nobel prize [1]!

Much modern research in Tokamak plasma simulation uses some variation of an MHD model (and the derived Grad-Shafranov Equation, which we will soon be introduced to) for a number of reasons, not least being its comparative computational efficiency. One primary benefit of treating our plasma as a fluid being that we avoid modelling the behaviour of each individual particle in said plasma, a simplification which becomes especially important when we consider the order of number of particles we would have to simulate is of order $\sim 10^{20}$ - far too much for the author’s ThinkPad T440p to even contemplate!

Here we will build the relevant MHD background for this thesis, deriving the MHD equations from first principles, and explaining the assumptions we make to reduce them to a simplified state known as “ideal MHD”. From there we will look at the PDE which models the behaviour of a plasma inside a Tokamak, the “Grad-Shafranov Equation”. We will then note some pitfalls of using this model to describe AC configuration Tokamaks (as we are investigating), and finish with

a discussion on runaway electrons (RE).

2.1.1 MHD Theory

Given MHD is the marriage of fluid dynamics with electrodynamics, it is only natural to begin our study looking at the equations which describe electrodynamic behaviour — Maxwell's equations describe the interaction between magnetic fields $\vec{B}(\vec{r}, t)$, electric fields $\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t)$, and the current density $j(\vec{r}, t)$ which induces them, where $\vec{r} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ is a position vector and $t \in \mathbb{R}$ describes time. Thus, we introduce Maxwell's equations:

Definition 2.1. Maxwell's equations are given [23]:

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 j + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \quad (2.1)$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \quad (2.2)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \quad (2.3)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho_c}{\varepsilon_0} \quad (2.4)$$

The functions driving change in this system are $\rho_c(\vec{r}, t)$, the electric charge density, and $j(\vec{r}, t)$, the electric current density. We also have μ_0 , the free-space magnetic permeability (in henry m^{-1}); ε_0 , the free-space permittivity; and c , the speed of light.

These equations give us a way to reason about the electric and magnetic fields if we're given some descriptor for the current we're passing through some medium. We are now to introduce the fluid dynamics component to our system. A fluid's mass density can be given by summing over the effects of individual "species" of particles (e.g. electrons) in the fluid:

$$\rho_c = \sum_{\sigma} m_{\sigma} n_{\sigma}$$

and its current density similarly:

$$\vec{j}(\vec{r}, t) = \sum_{\sigma} n_{\sigma} q_{\sigma} \vec{u}_{\sigma}$$

where σ describes a particle species, m_{σ} describes its mass, n_{σ} its number density (a measurement of concentration for the given particle species in a pre-defined

volume – akin to Avogadro’s constant), q_σ describes its electric charge, and \vec{u}_σ the mean velocity of this species of particle in the fluid.

Fluid Dynamics

Notation 2.2. A common simplification in notation for fluids is made in using the *Lagrangian derivative*, given:

$$\frac{D}{Dt} = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \vec{u} \cdot \nabla \right)$$

It describes the total change in a volume within a fluid as it moves throughout said fluid. It is essentially a change in reference frame for a derivative - where a regular derivative might describe, for example, how a particle moves with respect to time in its surroundings, its Lagrangian will take into account the motion of the fluid the particle is immersed in as well.

We begin with conservation of mass, also known as the “continuity equation”.

Definition 2.3 (The continuity equation). The below relates how mass density, ρ , changes with respect to the motion of a fluid element.

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{u}) \quad (2.5)$$

The derivation of the above comes from a surface integral over a volume with an outward and inward flux, and an application of Gauss’ flux law. For a full derivation, see pg. 19 - 21 of [19].

Remark 2.4. The above is a PDE with four variables: ρ , the mass density of the medium, and \vec{u} , the velocity of the fluid. This renders the system not closed, and thus too general for an analytic solution - we have more unknowns than we have equations [19]. Later we will introduce other equations to our system to apply more restrictions, and make assumptions about the physicality of the system which will reduce these dependencies, and make it determined (“closed”).

Remark 2.5. We can rewrite (2.5) with a Lagrangian frame of reference, as

$$\frac{D}{Dt} \rho = -\rho \nabla \cdot \vec{u} \quad (2.6)$$

$$\iff \frac{D}{Dt} \rho + \rho \nabla \cdot \vec{u} = 0 \quad (2.7)$$

Equation (2.5) (and equivalently (2.7)) tells us that the mass of our fluid is conserved for motion of a volume element of our fluid - one assumption we make for our model. Next we'll discuss fluid motion as described by Newton for a fluid element:

Definition 2.6 (Newtonian Fluid Motion). Newton's law for a fluid specifies:

$$\rho \frac{D}{Dt} \vec{u} = \vec{F} \quad (2.8)$$

where $\rho(\vec{r}, t)$ is the mass density of the fluid, $\vec{u}(\vec{r}, t)$ describes the velocity of the fluid element, and $\vec{F}(\vec{r}, t)$ describes the force per unit volume acting on the fluid element [19].

The forces acting on particles within a fluid can be split into two types

- Gravitational

Here, $\vec{F}_g = \rho \vec{g}$, where \vec{g} is the gravitational acceleration. This should hark back to high school physics, though note this is a vector here as we care about the direction gravity accelerates the fluid element in, and relativistic effects can be an important consideration for high mass systems. This is more relevant for cases that you are using the MHD equations to describe the dynamics of large systems, such as a star. Unsurprisingly, this is less relevant for our case of plasmas within relatively minuscule Tokamaks.

- Electromagnetic

This is the interesting part for us. As we assume our fluid is capable of conducting electricity (it's a plasma after all), there are electromagnetic forces operating within the fluid that affect the behaviour of the particles that the fluid consists of. The electromagnetic forces themselves can be split into two types, the **electric force** given by $\vec{F}_q = \rho_c \vec{E}$, and the **Lorentz force**, given $\vec{F}_L = \vec{j} \times \vec{B}$ (where $\vec{B}(\vec{r}, t)$ describes the magnetic field)

Taking these forces into account, we can describe the motion of an element of our fluid moving with velocity \vec{u} via:

$$\rho \frac{D}{Dt} \vec{u} = \vec{j} \times \vec{B} + \rho_c \vec{E} - \nabla p + \rho \vec{g} \quad (2.9)$$

Remark 2.7. Here the $\rho \vec{g}$ term could be abstracted further away into a stress tensor, as described by equation 4.20 of [19]. These pressures are largely negligible

when dealing with the scale we do in Tokamak plasmas however, and are thus ignored. We will soon drop the gravitational consideration as well anyway, but include it here now for completeness.

Remark 2.8. The equation we have introduced is a function of six variables in its complete form (with stress tensor included), though even in this form we still have more variables than we do equations (1). Similar to before, this is thus not constrained sufficiently to consider it a closed system.

We next relate a plasma's pressure to its motion. We will simply present it here, though important notes in its derivation are that we assume the plasma behaves as an ideal gas (which is to say the only interaction between particles within the plasma are via elastic collisions with each other, or the boundaries of the container it is contained within). This is equivalent to saying that energy in the system depends only on the pressure. Thus, the energy equation is given:

Definition 2.9 (Energy Equation). Where $\vec{p}(\vec{r}, t)$ describes the pressure of our fluid:

$$\frac{D}{Dt} p = -\gamma p \nabla \cdot \vec{u} + (\gamma - 1) \left[-\nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \vec{\Pi} : \nabla \vec{u} + \eta \vec{J}^2 \right] \quad (2.10)$$

where γ describes “adiabatic index” (a known constant for plasmas), \vec{q} is the heat flux through the boundary of the volume; η is the electrical resistivity of the fluid; and $\vec{\Pi}$ is the viscous stress tensor (the component which we replaced with $\rho \vec{g}$ earlier), and will soon ignore again.

The equations we've looked at constitute what are known as the fluid equations:

Definition 2.10 (Fluid Equations).

$$\frac{D}{Dt} \rho + \nabla \cdot \rho \vec{u} = 0 \quad (2.11)$$

$$\rho \frac{D}{Dt} \vec{u} = \vec{j} \times \vec{B} + \rho_c \vec{E} - \nabla p + \rho \vec{g} \quad (2.12)$$

$$\frac{D}{Dt} p = -\gamma p \nabla \cdot \vec{u} + (\gamma - 1) \left[-\nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \vec{\Pi} : \nabla \vec{u} + \eta \vec{j}^2 \right] \quad (2.13)$$

As reiterated a couple times now, these equations form an unclosed system, and are thus undetermined. To resolve this we introduce some constraints that come from electrodynamic forces, and a couple other relations that lead to a closed system.

Electrodynamics

As it currently stands, the input variables for the fluid equations are $\rho(\vec{r}, t)$ and $p(\vec{r}, t)$. We note that the electric field \vec{E} and the magnetic field \vec{B} are generated by the electric charge density, ρ_c , and the current density \vec{j} . This is where Maxwell's equations come into play. By combining Maxwell's equations with the fluid equation given above, we achieve the MHD model. The only piece to our puzzle missing is to tie the motion of the fluid (through \vec{u}) to the behaviour of the electric and magnetic fields. This is done via *Ohm's law*:

$$\vec{E} + \vec{u} \times \vec{B} = \eta \vec{j} \quad (2.14)$$

Remark 2.11. Note that the above is technically a lie, as it does not take into account relativistic effects, though for simplicity our MHD model ignores these.

Definition 2.12 (MHD Equations). The MHD equations can then be summarised:

$$\frac{D}{Dt} \rho = -\rho \nabla \cdot \vec{u} \quad (2.15)$$

$$\rho \frac{D}{Dt} \vec{u} = -\nabla p + \vec{j} \times \vec{B} + \nabla \cdot \Pi \quad (2.16)$$

$$\frac{D}{Dt} p = -\gamma p \nabla \cdot \vec{u} + (\gamma - 1) \left[-\nabla \cdot \vec{q} + \vec{\Pi} : \nabla \vec{u} + \eta \vec{j}^2 \right] \quad (2.17)$$

$$\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = -\nabla \times \vec{E} \quad (2.18)$$

$$\mu_0 \vec{j} = \nabla \times \vec{B} \quad (2.19)$$

$$\vec{E} + \vec{u} \times \vec{B} = \eta \vec{j} \quad (2.20)$$

Remark 2.13. The MHD equations as presented above constitute 14 equations with 27 unknowns. The breakdown is as such:

- ρ : 1 unknown
- \vec{u} : 3 unknowns
- p : 1 unknown
- $\vec{\Pi}$: 9 unknowns
- \vec{j} : 3 unknowns
- \vec{B} : 3 unknowns

- \vec{E} : 3 unknowns
- \vec{q} : 3 unknowns
- η : 1 unknown

The above is obviously insufficiently constrained for purposes of identifying a solution. We will skip a large amount of the work required to reduce the above to a closed system, though for details see lecture 7 of [19]. For now, we will comment on two reduced MHD models:

Resistive MHD

The resistive MHD model comes about by setting $\vec{q} = 0$ and $\vec{\Pi} = 0$, in other words saying that we have no external source for current, and . Here, we have $\eta \neq 0$ notably. The model is given:

Definition 2.14 (Resistive MHD).

$$\frac{D}{Dt}\rho = -\rho \nabla \cdot \vec{u} \quad (2.21)$$

$$\rho \frac{D}{Dt}\vec{u} = -\nabla p + \vec{j} \times \vec{B} \quad (2.22)$$

$$\frac{D}{Dt}p = -\gamma p \nabla \cdot \vec{u} \quad (2.23)$$

$$\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = -\nabla \times \vec{E} \quad (2.24)$$

$$\mu_0 \vec{j} = \nabla \times \vec{B} \quad (2.25)$$

$$\vec{E} + \vec{u} \times \vec{B} = \eta \vec{j} \quad (2.26)$$

Remark 2.15. The most notable effect of resistive MHD is that allowing for electrons to diffuse allows the resulting magnetic field lines to reconnect, which leads to breaks in the magnetic field line topology. This can lead to the generation of fast particles, i.e., runaway electrons.

Ideal MHD

The ideal MHD equations are one step removed from the resistive MHD model — in fact they are equivalent, only for the ideal MHD case we also ignore resistivity. Thus, set $\eta = 0$, and we obtain the ideal MHD equations:

Definition 2.16 (Ideal MHD).

$$\frac{D}{Dt}\rho = -\rho \nabla \cdot \vec{u} \quad (2.27)$$

$$\rho \frac{D}{Dt}\vec{u} = -\nabla p + \vec{j} \times \vec{B} \quad (2.28)$$

$$\frac{D}{Dt}p = -\gamma p \nabla \cdot \vec{u} \quad (2.29)$$

$$\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = -\nabla \times \vec{E} \quad (2.30)$$

$$\mu_0 \vec{j} = \nabla \times \vec{B} \quad (2.31)$$

$$\vec{E} + \vec{u} \times \vec{B} = 0 \quad (2.32)$$

Remark 2.17. In doing this, we have removed the dependency on $\vec{\Pi}$, η and \vec{q} , which accounts for 13 unknowns. This brings the total number of equations to 14 (or 8 if you make a substitution for Ohm's law) with 14 (8) unknowns. Thus, under the ideal MHD model, the system is closed.

Remark 2.18. Equation (2.32) is the reduced Ohm's law equation. This presentation of it is a result known as the *frozen flux condition*. Nominally, it tells us that $\frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = 0$ (we will introduce Ψ shortly, but for now take it to be the “magnetic flux function” (which it is) without any context). This is to say that the magnetic flux through any co-moving closed circuit is constant, in other words, field lines are to some extent “attached” to the fluid they are in (read: plasma), and similarly the plasma cannot move across the magnetic field (but the fluid can move along the field lines).

We'll present the ideal MHD equations here again but with their associated names for ease of reference:

Continuity Equation $\frac{D}{Dt}\rho = -\rho \nabla \cdot \vec{u}$	Momentum Equation $\rho \frac{D}{Dt}\vec{u} = -\nabla p + \vec{j} \times \vec{B}$	Energy Equation $\frac{D}{Dt}p = -\gamma p \nabla \cdot \vec{u}$
Maxwell-Faraday Equation $\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} = -\nabla \times \vec{E}$	Ampere's Law $\mu_0 \vec{j} = \nabla \times \vec{B}$	Ohm's Law $\vec{E} + \vec{u} \times \vec{B} = 0$

Resistivity Note: There is one specific assumption made in ideal MHD that we wish to highlight, and that is the assumption of negligible resistivity within the plasma. In a real plasma we would expect imperfections in the way it conducts, and would expect collisions between particles in the plasma to generate a type of “friction” between each other that inhibits conductivity. When this

occurs, the magnetic field lines that are driven by the current will perturb with respect to some diffusion law, leading to changes in magnetic field line topology. These effects occur over some period of time that is dependent on the plasma's composition and geometry of the plasma - thus any plasma model which wishes to accurately represent the dynamics of the electric and magnetic field as a function of time will do well to take these effects into account, especially when it is over a "sufficient" time scale (with special consideration for what "sufficient" actually entails here). It is possible that the timescales on which a simulation is run are too small for resistive effects to meaningfully change field line topology, though this is more a question of acceptable error and initial conditions. In this thesis (as we'll see) we seek to approximate a time evolution, but do so with a series of equilibria, which as such do not take into account resistive effects. We will make note on this again when we come to discuss of our perturbation approach, and similarly when we present our simulated current reversals.

The ideal MHD equations as we stated are what govern many approximations to behaviour of plasmas in general. These in their current form of course make no assumptions about the geometry of the medium in which a plasma exists, nor any properties which may be associated with such a scenario. Next we will take these equations and confine them to the geometry of an axisymmetric Tokamak "reactor", and derive the Grad-Shafranov equation, a model which will let us reason about the poloidal magnetic field structure given some prescribed geometry and conditions.

2.2 Grad-Shafranov Equation

The Grad-Shafranov Equation (GSE) concerns a two-dimensional, axisymmetric toroidal plasma under the assumptions of ideal MHD. It is a nonlinear, elliptic partial differential equation (PDE) which presents with a cylindrical coordinate system [20]. We will first begin with some basic definitions surrounding PDEs, partly because the author is not formally educated in them and wishes to demonstrate the amount they have learned over this last year, but largely, realistically, for the obligatory Evans citation. We will then introduce GSE, and explore some of its properties.

Definition 2.19 (Partial Differential Equation). An expression of the form

$$F(D^k u(x), D^{k-1} u(x), \dots, Du(x), u(x), x) = 0 \quad (x \in U) \quad (2.33)$$

is called a k^{th} -order Partial Differential Equation where

$$F : \mathbb{R}^{n^k} \times \mathbb{R}^{n^{k-1}} \times \cdots \times \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R} \times U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

is provided, and the function

$$u : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

is an unknown [8].

To “solve” a PDE is to find such a function u , subject to any boundary conditions Γ in ∂U that may exist. A common exercise in the study of PDEs is to simply show existence and uniqueness of a solution to a PDE, with no intention of actually identifying the function itself. In our case, luckily, the GSE has identified solutions for certain assumptions (boundary conditions) imposed on it, one of which we will exploit later in the Grad-Shafranov-Helmholtz equation. Before that however, we’ll look at definitions for PDE properties that are associated with the GSE:

Notation 2.20. Evans uses the notation $D^k u$ to mean the $k \times k$ matrix of k^{th} order partial derivatives of u . While we use this when presenting the definitions below, we do not follow this convention for the rest of the thesis, reserving D for the Lagrangian derivative instead.

Definition 2.21 (PDE Linearity Classifications). Let a_α be a function such that $|\alpha| \leq k$, where k is the order of a system of PDEs. Let f be another function. Then:

1. “Linear”

A PDE as given by (2.33) is said to be “linear” if it is of the form

$$\sum_{|\alpha| \leq k} a_\alpha(x) D^\alpha u = f(x)$$

2. “Semilinear”

A PDE is said to be “semilinear” if it is of the form

$$\sum_{|\alpha|=k} a_\alpha(x) D^\alpha u + a_0(D^{k-1}u, \dots, Du, u, x) = 0$$

3. “Quasilinear”

A PDE is said to be “quasilinear” if it is of the form

$$\sum_{|\alpha|=k} a_\alpha (D^{k-1}u, \dots, Du, u, x) D^\alpha u + a_0 (D^{k-1}u, \dots, Du, u, x) = 0$$

4. “Nonlinear”

A PDE is said to be “nonlinear” if it depends nonlinearly on the highest order derivatives, i.e. it is of the form

$$\sum_{|\alpha|=k} a_\alpha (D^\alpha u, D^{k-1}u, \dots, Du, x) = 0$$

where the D^α term introduces nonlinearity by a_α .

Definition 2.22 (Elliptic PDE). A second-order PDE with presentation

$$F[u] = F(\cdot, u, Du, D^2u)$$

where $\Gamma = U \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{S}^n$, $F : \Gamma \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and u is a solution to $F[u] = 0$ is said to be elliptic at the point $\gamma = (x, z, p, r) \in \Gamma$ if the matrix

$$F_r(\gamma) = [F_{ij}(\gamma)] := [F_{r_{ij}}] > 0$$

is true, i.e., that the matrix $F_r(\gamma)$ is positive definite for $r \in U$ [21]. Furthermore, the operator F is said to be *elliptic* if this holds true for the set

$$\Gamma_u = \{(x, u(x), Du(x), D^2u(x)) : x \in U\}$$

Remark 2.23. Note that the above representation of a second-order PDE, while not how Evans presents it, is a more abstract way of depicting the same thing. Here we can define an operator F to be in terms of our solution u and its first and second order derivatives, instead of as a decoupled statement of otherwise disconnected expressions. This lets us reason about the PDE as a whole more directly, as we have above by using the positive definiteness of the resulting matrix at a point to define ellipticity, instead of having to separately define the form of a second-order PDE and reason about a matrix explicitly in terms of the solution.

Often in our efforts we will deal not with a single PDE, but rather a system of PDEs, and so we formalise this concept as well:

Definition 2.24 (System of PDEs). An expression of the form

$$\mathbf{F}(D^k u(x), D^{k-1} u(x), \dots, Du(x), x) = 0 \quad (x \in U) \quad (2.34)$$

is called a k^{th} -order system of Partial Differential Equations where

$$\mathbf{F} : \mathbb{R}^{mn^k} \times \mathbb{R}^{mn^{k-1}} \times \dots \times \mathbb{R}^{mn} \times \mathbb{R}^m \times U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

is provided, and the function

$$\mathbf{u} : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m, \quad \mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_m)$$

In fact we have already seen an example of the above in our derivation of the MHD equations ((2.15) - (2.20)), the result of which was a system of PDEs; a system which was determined by virtue of there being as many unknown functions (u_i) as there were PDEs in the system.

We are now armed with the necessary tools to introduce the Grad-Shafranov Equation. Here we present the definition of the GSE as given by Wesson [23].

Definition 2.25 (Grad-Shafranov Equation). Let (R, ϕ, z) be the cylindrical coordinate system we take, where R is the major radial offset, ϕ is the toroidal angle, and z is the poloidal vertical offset from the centre of the cross section. $p(\Psi)$ and $f(\Psi)$ are two flux functions of Ψ , the poloidal magnetic flux function, and μ_0 is the vacuum magnetic permeability constant. Then the Grad-Shafranov Equation is given:

$$R \frac{\partial}{\partial R} \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial R} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial z^2} = -\mu_0 R^2 \frac{\partial p(\Psi)}{\partial \Psi} - \mu_0^2 f(\Psi) \frac{\partial f(\Psi)}{\partial \Psi} \quad (2.35)$$

Remark 2.26. The equation can be restated more concisely in terms of the elliptic operator

$$\Delta^* \Psi = R \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{1}{R} \nabla \Psi \right)$$

as:

$$\Delta^* \Psi = -\mu_0 R^2 p'(\Psi) - f(\Psi) f'(\Psi)$$

where prime notation denotes partial derivative with respect to Ψ .

Corollary 2.27. Associated with the GSE are explicit forms for the magnetic



Figure 2.1: This should say something meaningful...

field \vec{B} and current \vec{j} :

$$\vec{B} = \frac{1}{R} (\nabla\Psi \times \hat{e}_\phi) + \frac{f(\Psi)}{R} \hat{e}_\phi \quad (2.36)$$

$$\mu_0 \vec{j} = \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial f(\Psi)}{\partial \Psi} (\nabla\Psi \times \hat{e}_\phi) - \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial R} \left(\frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial R} + \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial z^2} \right) \right] \hat{e}_\phi \quad (2.37)$$

where here \hat{e}_d is the unit vector in the direction d , as is convention. In their poloidal (subscript p) and toroidal (subscript ϕ) components, these are then explicitly just:

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{B}_p &= \frac{1}{R} (\nabla\Psi \times \hat{e}_\phi) \\ \vec{B}_\phi &= \frac{f(\Psi)}{R} \\ \vec{j}_p &= \frac{1}{\mu_0 R} (\nabla f(\Psi) \times \hat{e}_\phi) \\ \vec{j}_\phi &= -\frac{1}{\mu_0 R} \Delta^* \Psi \end{aligned}$$

Remark 2.28. The flux function $f(\Psi)$ describes the poloidal flux per radian in ϕ . Of note, for an axisymmetric torus the total flux function would then simply be $2\pi\Psi$. The other flux function here, $p(\Psi)$, simply describes pressure inside the Tokamak [7].

Remark 2.29. We noted in our introduction of the PDE theory that the GSE was an elliptic, nonlinear PDE. We can see the ellipticity immediately by virtue

of there being an elliptic operator present in Δ^* , and the nonlinearity we can gather from the fact there are non-linear coefficients of partial derivatives with respect to Ψ , for example, the $-f(\Psi)f'(\Psi)$ in the elliptic operator form of the GSE.

The GSE equation is not without its faults, and is, in large, a considerable simplification of the actual physical behaviour of a plasma within a Tokamak – as my supervisor Matthew would say, it is very much so a spherical cow model. To explore why this is so, we'll explain the components of the GSE and the assumptions that are made in reaching it through a derivation with accompanying annotations below.

2.2.1 Derivation

Here we present a derivation of the Grad-Shafranov Equation. We begin by assuming the ideal MHD conditions, which immediately gives us that, in our plasma model:

- The plasma particle distribution approximately abides a Maxwellian distribution
- Resistivity is negligible
- There is no external (to the system) current source
- The topology of the magnetic field is fixed relative to the fluid, i.e., the magnetic field and fluid move together (the frozen-in flux theorem)
- Any velocities considered are non-relativistic (notably, this includes electron velocities)

TODO

can use graphics here as well

2.3 Runaway Electrons

Runaway electrons describe electrons with energy such that they are “relativistic” - when their velocity is comparable to the speed of light. At such high speeds, these electrons move freely from the confines of the magnetic field, making them

difficult to control, and unwieldy. They can have destructive effects on our ability to confine a plasma, both in terms of the dynamics that are introduced by their presence, and in the destruction of the medium we rely on to perform such confinement - the reactor itself. One of the problems this seeks to address is the presence of runaway electrons in AC mode tokamaks,

In ISTTOK, it is noted that runaway electron populations can contribute a substantial amount to the plasma we have present. It is estimated that up to 30% of the plasma current can be attributed to runaway electron current, and that up to 1% of the plasma's density itself can be composed of runaway electrons [18].

2.3.1 Regular Electron Movement

In the presence of a magnetic field, a charged particle experiences a force and thus moves [23]. Specifically, for a particle of mass m_j and charge e_j moving through a magnetic field \vec{B} , its motion can be described

$$m_j \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = e_j \vec{v} \times \vec{B}$$

In a uniform magnetic field with no electric field, a charged particle will move through its medium with an oscillatory, but consistent, motion. The radius of this oscillatory movement is referred to as the “Lamor radius”, r_L . However, any change in the uniformity of the magnetic field will induce forces on the electron which remove this force balance, and will cause the electron to start to drift.

Remark 2.30. Note that the above statement for particle drift is not just applicable to electrons, but generally to charged particles in the presence of a magnetic field. This thus also affects the positively charged ions in our plasma, which also experience a drifting effect. Here, we are more concerned about these effects on electrons however.

There are two primary drift types that concern us: that purely with respect to the divergence of the magnetic field, and that for which we have perpendicular electric and magnetic fields.

Electric Field drift

Here, we have our motion equation (similar to above)

$$m_j \frac{d\vec{v}}{dt} = e_j (\vec{E} + \vec{v} \times \vec{B})$$

if we make the choice that the z is parallel to the magnetic field, and the y axis parallel to the electric field, then we can separate this into

$$\begin{aligned} m_j \frac{dv_x}{dt} &= e_j v_y \vec{B} \\ m_j \frac{dv_y}{dt} &= e_j (\vec{E} - v_x \vec{B}) \end{aligned}$$

This set of equations have readily available solutions, telling us

$$\begin{aligned} v_x &= v_{\perp} \sin(\omega_{cj} t) + \frac{E}{B} \\ v_y &= v_{\perp} \cos(\omega_{cj} t) \end{aligned}$$

From this we gather that there is a drift component to our electron, and that it still travels with a circular motion.

$\nabla \vec{B}$ drift

Here, a changing magnetic field induces a drift velocity on charged particles within its effect. It accelerates a particle in the direction perpendicular to both the magnetic field itself, and the direction in which the magnetic field is drifting. Thus, as a charged particle moves through a magnetic field that is not uniform (i.e. $\nabla \vec{B} \neq 0$), then its motion will be affected as the strength of the magnetic field changes [9]. The general drift due to this force is commonly given:

$$\vec{v}_d = \pm \frac{1}{2} v_{\perp} r_L \frac{\vec{B} \times (\nabla \vec{B})}{B^2}$$

where r_L describes the Lamor radius, and the sign out front is dependent on the charge of the particle (as the drift effect is opposite for electrons and cations).

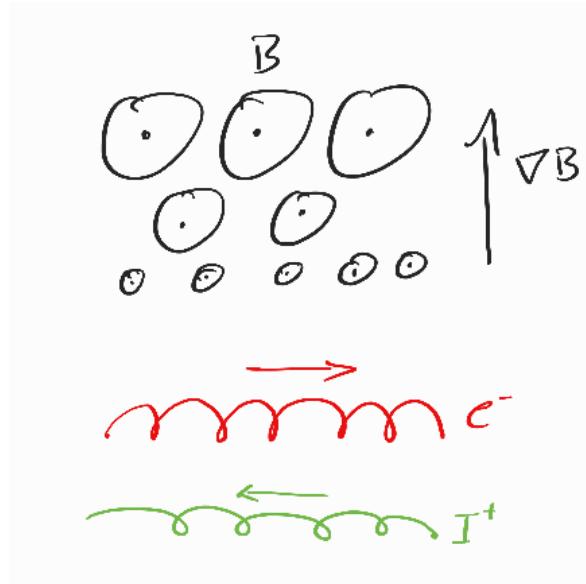


Figure 2.2: Circles with dots indicate the magnetic field \vec{B} is orientated into the page. This shows the effect of $\nabla \vec{B}$ drift on oppositely charged particles.

2.3.2 Generation

There are a number of mechanisms by which runaway electrons can be generated in a tokamak.

The simplest case is one we induce ourselves - in the warm up routine of a reactor such as ISTTOK a heating element is applied to the gas, which ionises it. The heating of the gas follows a Maxwellian distribution, which gives probability that some portion of the resulting plasma will consist of electrons which have been energised to relativistic states [2]. The Maxwellian distribution for electron energy densities can be given:

$$f_M(v) = \frac{n}{\sqrt{\pi} v_{th}} e^{-\frac{v^2}{v_{th}^2}}$$

where $v_{text{th}}$ describes the barrier for an electron being described thermal or not, and n is the number of electrons present. Velocities past this barrier are referred to as being in the “hot tail”, and are considered candidates for being runaway. Using this we can define an electric field for which all thermal electrons will be accelerated into becoming runaway electrons:

Definition 2.31 (Dreicer field). A Dreicer field is an electric field for which all thermal electrons, defined to have at least velocity v_{th} , will be accelerated into

runaway electrons.

$$E_D = \frac{4\pi e^3 n \ln(\Lambda)}{mv_{\text{th}}^2}$$

The heating element which is the causation of this is affectionately titled a “heating lamp”, though one should likely hesitate to leave it on after you go to bed. As such, no matter our efforts in dampening REs, and in eliminating other processes which generate them, we will necessarily have some background population of runaway electrons. Notably, this will also increase in magnitude for reactors which have longer

A connected idea to this is that of runaway avalanches. If a collision takes place within the plasma between a high energy electron and another particle, then an avalanche can occur if that collision results in the production of another high energy (relativistic) electron. This avalanche effect is characterised by an exponential growth, which can be given:

$$\ln \frac{n_{\text{re}}}{n_{\text{seed}}} = \frac{e}{m_e \ln \Lambda} \frac{\Delta\psi/(2\pi R)}{\sqrt{5 + Z_{\text{eff}}}}$$

where n_{re} is the number of resulting relativistic electrons, n_{seed} describes the number of incident runaway electrons, and Z_{eff} describes the effective background ion charge. Note that ISTTOK observes a presence of these “seed” runaway electrons after a ramp-down [13].

Another contribution is that of magnetic field topology. When there are “breaks” in the magnetic field line topology that form, electrons within the influence of these breaks can be accelerated to relativistic speeds. While the dynamics of this are more complicated than simply “topology changes, runaway electrons generated”, the occurrence of such a change in topology can be considered a type of runaway electron generation, and can be used to infer / support their generation if observed [2]. This change in topology could, for example, be characterised by the formation of an “X-point”, which is a point at which two previously distinct magnetic field regions join together to share a single point of flux density in common, which mathematically presents as a singularity, though physically acts as an unstable accelerator.

2.3.3 Detection

It’s all well and good to be know that runaway electrons are a possibility, but equally as important is being able to identify if you actually have runaway elec-

trons. Unfortunately, we cannot just ask the plasma. As such, we must resort to a series of clever tricks to infer the existence of REs.

The first and most obvious of these tricks is to recall that, being electrons that are moving, RE populations form a current. As we are able to measure current density profiles in our reactors, if we do so and observe there to be a significant, unexpected increase in current density, we could infer that this is the consequence of an RE population.

TODO

v_{loop} spikes

Hard x-rays

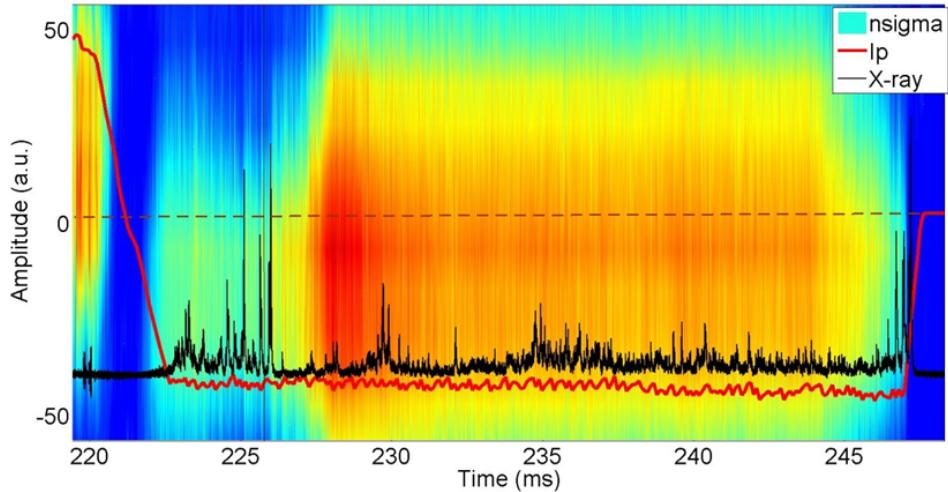


Figure 2.3: ISTTOK plasma pressure density profile with plasma current (I_p) and X-rays detected. As X-rays are an indicator of runaway electrons, this indicates an jump in RE presence during the ramp down phase, and also at the start of the next ramp up phase [13].

Plasma density fluctuation

Notable instrument limitation: some sensors are directional in reactor (such as x-ray detector), which means they can only track half the AC cycles, as half will travel in the wrong direction.

Chapter 3

Current Reversal Theory

3.1 Perturbation Methods

3.1.1 What is a Perturbation Treatment?

When it comes to solving differential equations, the ideal scenario is that you find an analytic solution, ψ . This, however, is generally a difficult problem, and especially so in the case of differential equations. A great deal of research goes into trying to find analytic solutions to PDEs, which is no less true for the Grad-Shafranov equation and its variations. Though such efforts are often futile, or require making assumptions about properties of your solution which may not be representative of what you're trying to show, other means of obtaining the $\Psi(\vec{x})$ for $\vec{x} \in \Omega$ have been developed.

A traditional approach to this is to use some numerical code to approximate solution values. There are various codes which exist for this purpose specifically with regards to the GSE equation, such as SPEC [11]. These codes come in many flavours - some implement a particle simulation, which can provide precision with simulation, though are computationally costly. Others exploit various properties of the variant of GSE they target and may be computationally more feasible, but are restricted in scope, application, and/or reliability because of their assumptions.

A common problem that numerical methods seek to solve is that of time evolution. Simulations which evolve a system through time, for obvious reasons, do not discard the time dependency component in their derivation of the GSE. A common problem that numerical methods are employed to solve is that of time evolution. Simulations which evolve a system through time however often require

time dependence in the system they are trying to solve – something, if you recall from our derivation of the GSE, is not present in our model. This introduces a difficulty for us, as solutions to the GSE explicitly represent plasma equilibria, and so we expect no variation of the system with respect to time.

For this thesis, given the availability of an analytic solution to a variation of the GSE that specifically relates to current reversals, we employ a hybrid approach. In our simulation we wish to observe changes in the system through a current ramp down - this necessitates a time dependency component to our solution. However, there are a couple points to note:

- Time evolution simulations are expensive
- Existing literature on time evolution GSE do not take into account the possibility for current reversal
- The GSH variant we utilise (which has yet to be introduced) is not time dependent, i.e., was not derived taking into account a time component

There are a couple possible avenues we could explore from here. We could implement a numerical code for the time evolution, for example a particle simulation, however this is for all intents and purposes computationally infeasible given the hardware available (a beloved but dilapidated Thinkpad T440p). We could attempt to find an analytic solution to the GSE with time dependence (or an approximation to one), but given the mountain of research existing in this space and the relative inexperience of the author, this would likely be a futile task. The third, and most lucrative option, is to use an existing analytic solution to a variation of the GSE that accounts for current reversal, and explore if small changes to its state are sufficiently “good enough” approximations of our system that it can be used to make statements about experimental data.

This is where perturbation theory comes in. Intuitively we would expect a plasma to vary “smoothly” - nature rarely behaves in instantaneous ways. The analytic solution we will soon have describes the instantaneous state (a slice in time) of our plasma’s state. We may anticipate then that if we were to change something in our system by a “sufficiently small amount” (we will later comment on what exactly is meant by sufficiently small), that our system may react to that change of state in a way that approximates how it would if it were really varying through time.

Resistivity Note

When we derived the ideal MHD equations we compared them to the resistive MHD model, noting that the removal of resistivity would be an important simplification to note. Here we see its importance, as we are now allowing our system to vary with respect to time, which means that there exists some time scale for which resistive effects will begin to impact the behaviour of our plasma.

Our model assumes the ideal MHD assumptions however, which includes dropping resistivity, and so the effect of these resistive instabilities is lost in our model. The question of whether these effects are significant enough to affect the accuracy of our time evolution is one we hope to answer when we come to reviewing our simulations in chapter 5.

A perhaps more intuitive analogy is that of swimming. Imagine you are stationary sitting at the bottom of a pool, and you are looking at your arm extended out in front of you. Focus on the feeling of the water moving around your arm - this will emulate the resistivity that electrons would feel. If you move your arm abruptly, perhaps in a cutting motion, then you will feel the pressure of the water push against your arm, and that might affect how quickly you can move your arm, or if the current of the water is particularly strong, perhaps you notice your arm move not in the direction you intended. Perhaps you also have to use more energy to move your arm than you intended, so it doesn't go as far. Now imagine instead that you don't abruptly cut, but instead, very slowly, almost imperceptibly, move your arm through the water. In this case you may not be aware of any resistance at all - there is no sensation of resistance, your arm moves exactly as fast as you expect it to, and you use exactly the amount of energy to move it as you expected. However, if you do this for long enough, perhaps you will begin to notice the effects more and more. Or maybe by now you'll realise you're out of breath and need to resurface. An instructive graphic is below.



Figure 3.1: Demonstrative graphic for conducting a resistivity experiment at the bottom of a pool.

We will have the ability to determine the state of our system for some given parameters, and so the question becomes: can we vary our input in a way such that the behaviour of the analytic solution to the GSH is an approximation of a time evolution of the plasma. We are able to compare our results to experimental data, and then exploit our work to answer further questions.

3.1.2 Regular Perturbation Theory

<https://jmahaffy.sdsu.edu/courses/f19/math537/beamer/perturb.pdf> <https://www.ucl.ac.uk/~ucahhwi/LTCC/section2-3-perturb-regular.pdf> <https://math.byu.edu/~bakker/Math521/Lectures/M521Lec15.pdf>

3.1.3 Ideal MHD Perturbation

At the beginning of this thesis we introduced it as being interdisciplinary in nature. Keeping in that spirit, at times here we will put on our physicists cap and seemingly arbitrarily remove terms we no longer wish to have. We kindly ask that any mathematicians reading these sections avert their gaze in such times so as to maintain sanity.

In Chapter 2 we derived the ideal MHD equations, and their subsequent re-

duction, used in GSE, given:

$$\vec{j} \times \vec{B} = \nabla p \quad (3.1)$$

$$\mu_0 \vec{j} = \nabla \times \vec{B} \quad (3.2)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \quad (3.3)$$

These by note are time independent. We wish to look at the effect of some small ($\varepsilon > 0$) time perturbation to the original system however, and so will return to their derivation, this time without discarding the time component. Consider the pre-GSE ideal MHD equations again, as given in ((2.27) - (2.32))

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{D}{Dt} \rho &= -\rho \nabla \cdot \vec{u} \\ \rho \frac{D}{Dt} \vec{u} &= -\nabla p + \vec{j} \times \vec{B} \\ \frac{D}{Dt} p &= -\gamma p \nabla \cdot \vec{u} \end{aligned}$$

with the assumptions

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} &= -\nabla \times \vec{E} \\ \mu_0 \vec{j} &= \nabla \times \vec{B} \\ \vec{E} + \vec{u} \times \vec{B} &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

We will apply our perturbation treatment to the first three equations of these (the continuity equation, momentum equation, and energy equation), using the assumptions to aid us. We will begin with the continuity equation.

Continuity Equation Time Perturbation

We restate the continuity equation:

$$\frac{D}{Dt} \rho = -\rho \nabla \cdot \vec{u}$$

Here we have two functions, ρ and \vec{u} , which are both functions of three dimension in space and one of time, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &:= \rho(\vec{r}, t) \\ \vec{u} &:= \vec{u}(\vec{r}, t) \end{aligned}$$

where $\vec{r} \in \mathbb{R}^3, t \in \mathbb{R}$. Here (and throughout these perturbation treatments) we will decouple the time dependency by assuming it to be some epsilon perturbation from an initial state. For example, for mass density (ρ), we can let ρ_0 describe some initial state that is only dependent on space, and ρ_1 a perturbation component similarly dependent only on space. Let $\varepsilon_\rho < 0$ be some small perturbation factor for mass density, and t be the time evolved. Then we prescribe a time-linear perturbation expansion as such:

$$\rho(\vec{r}, t) = \rho_0(\vec{r}) + \varepsilon_\rho t \rho_1(\vec{r}) + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon_\rho^2)$$

and analogously:

$$\vec{u}(\vec{r}, t) = \vec{u}_0(\vec{r}) + \varepsilon_u t \vec{u}_1(\vec{r}) + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon_u^2)$$

Here the t term effectively acts as a scaling factor on top of ε . We have also dropped any ε terms of order greater than 1 in our approximation, that is to say, if we were to be accurate our expansion would actually be:

$$\begin{aligned}\rho(\vec{r}, t) &= \rho_0(\vec{r}) + \varepsilon_\rho t \rho_1(\vec{r}) + \varepsilon_\rho^2 t \rho_2(\vec{r}) + \dots \\ \vec{u}(\vec{r}, t) &= \vec{u}_0(\vec{r}) + \varepsilon_u t \vec{u}_1(\vec{r}) + \varepsilon_u^2 t \vec{u}_2(\vec{r}) + \dots\end{aligned}$$

As we said at the start of this chapter however, this is an interdisciplinary thesis, and the above is an example of us putting on our physicist cap and deciding to remove “unnecessary” complexity. Physically we can justify this dropping of terms as we would expect terms of greater order to contribute diminishingly to our system. That is to say, on the time scales we are considering, an approximation of up to ε should be sufficient for experimental comparisons. As such, we need only to reason about that, and drop any terms on order of $\mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^2)$. We substitute these perturbation expansions into our equation. For brevity we will drop function parameters in our notation, and first begin with an expansion of the ρ term:

LHS:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{D}{Dt} \rho &= \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \vec{u} \cdot \nabla \right) \rho \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \rho + \vec{u} \cdot (\nabla \rho) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\rho_0 + \varepsilon_\rho t \rho_1) + \vec{u} \cdot (\nabla (\rho_0 + \varepsilon_\rho t \rho_1)) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \rho_0 + \varepsilon_\rho \rho_1 + \vec{u} \cdot (\nabla \rho_0) + \varepsilon_\rho t \vec{u} \cdot (\nabla \rho_1)\end{aligned}$$

noting that ρ_0 is not a function of time

$$= \varepsilon_\rho \rho_1 + \vec{u} \cdot (\nabla \rho_0) + \varepsilon_\rho t \vec{u} \cdot (\nabla \rho_1)$$

RHS:

$$\begin{aligned} -\rho \nabla \cdot \vec{u} &= -(\rho_0 + \varepsilon_\rho t \rho_1) (\nabla \cdot \vec{u}) \\ &= -\rho_0 (\nabla \cdot \vec{u}) - \varepsilon_\rho t \rho_1 (\nabla \cdot \vec{u}) \end{aligned}$$

Combined:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{D}{Dt} \rho &= -\rho \nabla \cdot \vec{u} \\ \varepsilon_\rho \rho_1 + \vec{u} \cdot (\nabla \rho_0) + \varepsilon_\rho t \vec{u} \cdot (\nabla \rho_1) &= -\rho_0 (\nabla \cdot \vec{u}) - \varepsilon_\rho t \rho_1 (\nabla \cdot \vec{u}) \\ \varepsilon_\rho \rho_1 + \varepsilon_\rho t [\vec{u} \cdot (\nabla \rho_1) + \rho_1 (\nabla \cdot \vec{u})] + [\rho_0 (\nabla \cdot \vec{u}) + \vec{u} \cdot (\nabla \rho_0)] &= 0 \\ \varepsilon_\rho \rho_1 + \nabla \cdot (\rho_0 \vec{u}) + \varepsilon_\rho t [\nabla \cdot (\rho_1 \vec{u})] &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Here we have used the divergence property $\nabla \cdot (f \vec{v}) = (\nabla f) \cdot \vec{v} + f(\nabla \cdot \vec{v})$. Note that for the Grad-Shafranov equation we usually (and we shall) assume an incompressible fluid, which mathematically is significant as it gives us the property that $\nabla \cdot (\rho \vec{u}) = 0$. From the above we immediately get that $\varepsilon_\rho \rho_1 = 0$, which just tells us that the time component we introduced has no effect on the system, given the assumptions we make. This is excellent news for us, as it means that small perturbations in our system in a manner that emulates a time evolution should not affect the accuracy of our model, at least insofar as the effects of the continuity equation are concerned, and up to a term of $\mathcal{O}(\varepsilon^2)$. To be confident that we can do this for the Grad-Shafranov equation on a whole, we need to repeat this process for the other ideal MHD equations. Next we'll look at the momentum equation.

Momentum Equation

We restate the momentum equation here:

$$\rho \frac{D}{Dt} \vec{u} = -\nabla \rho + \vec{j} \times \vec{B}$$

We will follow the same process as we did for the continuity equation. Here we have four equations, however, by introducing one of our GSE assumptions we can reduce this to three immediately. For GSE we assume that our fluid has no velocity, i.e. $\vec{u} = 0$, which gives us that $\frac{D}{Dt} \vec{u} = 0$. Thus the equation we actually

have to expand is:

$$0 = -\nabla\rho + \vec{j} \times \vec{B}$$

The three equations we have are each functions of $\vec{r} \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$, and can be linearly perturbed in time as we did earlier. As such:

$$\begin{aligned}\rho(\vec{r}, t) &:= \rho_0(\vec{r}) + \varepsilon_\rho t \rho_1(\vec{r}) + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon_\rho^2) \\ \vec{B}(\vec{r}, t) &:= \vec{B}_0(\vec{r}) + \varepsilon_B t \vec{B}_1(\vec{r}) + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon_B^2) \\ \vec{j}(\vec{r}, t) &:= \vec{j}_0(\vec{r}) + \varepsilon_j t \vec{j}_1(\vec{r}) + \mathcal{O}(\varepsilon_j^2)\end{aligned}$$

Making these substitutions into the momentum equation:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla\rho &= \vec{j} \times \vec{B} \\ \nabla(\rho_0 + \varepsilon_\rho t \rho_1) &= \vec{j} \times (\vec{B}_0 + \varepsilon_B t \vec{B}_1) \\ (\nabla\rho_0) + \varepsilon_\rho t (\nabla\rho_1) &= (\vec{j} \times \vec{B}_0) + \varepsilon_B t (\vec{j} \times \vec{B}_1) \\ (\nabla\rho_0) + \varepsilon_\rho t (\nabla\rho_1) &= [(\vec{j}_0 \times \vec{B}_0) + \varepsilon_j t (\vec{j}_1 \times \vec{B}_0)] + \varepsilon_B t [(\vec{j}_0 \times \vec{B}_1) + \varepsilon_j t (\vec{j}_1 \times \vec{B}_1)] \\ (\nabla\rho_0) + \varepsilon_\rho t (\nabla\rho_1) &= \vec{j}_0 \times \vec{B}_0 + \varepsilon_j \varepsilon_B t^2 (\vec{j}_1 \times \vec{B}_1)\end{aligned}$$

If we collate terms of like order, we get

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla\rho_0 &= \vec{j}_0 \times \vec{B}_0 \\ \varepsilon_\rho t (\nabla\rho_1) &= \varepsilon_j \varepsilon_B t^2 (\vec{j}_1 \times \vec{B}_1)\end{aligned}$$

both of which look remarkably like the original momentum equation, which is not to be mistaken for coincidence. Notably, when we take our evolution over “small enough” time scales, the perturbation components here disappear entirely, and we are left with the version of the momentum equation which is used in the regular equilibrium-state derivation of the Grad-Shafranov equation. As such, we would anticipate that small time perturbations associated with the effects of the momentum equation will introduce “small” errors in the resulting GSE solution, though (and as we hope to observe through experiment), hopefully imperceptibly so - as the above expansion seems to suggest.

The Other Ideal MHD Equations

Isaac Newton is quoted as saying “it causeth my head to ache”, which he is claimed to have said in reference to perturbation expansions in trying to determine the orbit of the Moon [5]. Hopefully understandably, we ask that the reader excuse

our omitting the working for the more involved of the ideal MHD equations, as to write it all down here would be to commit an expositionary crime. The expansion of the remaining equations however leads to a similar outcome as we found with the continuity equation and the momentum equation - that, up to an ε factor, the ideal MHD equations do not show significant deviation from their equilibrium counterparts.

Significance

The purpose of this exercise was to provide some theoretical justification for the simulations we will later run. By showing that we can approximate a linear time evolution of the ideal MHD equations using states of equilibrium, we have shown that the GSE will be resistant to such a treatment itself. What we have not done is show that GSE itself can be evolved through time in an accurate manner. We are, knowingly, introducing errors into our system – but the hope is that the errors introduced will be insignificant with respect to the measurements we seek to make. This is the nature of mathematical modelling.

It is important to remark that the GSE is an equilibrium model - it is constructed under the assumptions of plasma equilibrium, and as we've already remarked on for resistivity, essentially “wishes away” many of the physical effects that would otherwise be introduced by some plasma which actually does change with respect to time. To that extent, it could be considered tomfoolery (which, for what it's worth, does befit the author) to assume that the work we've done is a guarantee that we can simply take equilibrium solutions to the GSE and assume that one is an evolution of the other in time, while still maintaining physicality.

While this may seem rather bleak / unpromising (after all, we are conceding that the model we have is not an entirely accurate physical representation of what's going on), the question we concern ourselves with is whether it is good enough to explain the observed runaway electron phenomena. To that extent, we will next introduce a variation of the Grad-Shafranov equation, solutions for which describe current reversal equilibrium configurations (CREC). We posit then that, if we take a solution to this system and perturb the current density profile by some small ε in time, then the resulting change in the GSH solution will be a sufficiently accurate representation of a physical system so as to explain the presence of excess runaway electrons.

3.2 Grad-Shafranov-Helmholtz Equation

3.2.1 Helmholtz Equations

What is a Helmholtz equation

3.2.2 GSH Equation

How do we apply it to the Grad-Shafranov equation

The work here will largely follow the paper by Wang and Yu REFERENCE, with some key notes and modifications. We are by now familiar with the GSE:

INSERT GSE

Wang provide a slightly different (though equivalent) formulation:

Proposition 3.1. *First, we will introduce some normalisation terms. Let $j_\phi = \frac{J_\phi \mu_0 a}{B_0}$ be the toroidal current density normalised with respect to the magnetic field, where we let J_ϕ be the toroidal current density, μ_0 is free-space magnetic permeability, and B_0 is the on-axis magnetic field strength (here, the strength of the magnetic field evaluated at the centre of the cross section, where $x = a$. This is not physically correct, but is what the model asserts).*

The GSE can then equivalently be stated:

$$\left(x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{1}{x} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) \psi = -\frac{1}{2} x^2 \frac{d\beta}{d\psi} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{dg^2}{d\psi} = -x j_\phi \quad (3.4)$$

where

$$a_1 = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d\beta}{d\psi} \quad (3.5)$$

$$a_2 - \alpha^2 \psi = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{dg^2}{d\psi} \quad (3.6)$$

Here, we have some normalised terms: $\psi(x, z) = \frac{\Psi(x, z)}{B_0 a^2}$ is the normalised poloidal magnetic flux function. The β function is given $\beta(\psi) = \frac{2\mu_0 p(\psi)}{B_0^2}$, and $g(\psi) = \frac{F(\psi)}{B_0 a}$.

Remark 3.2. We highlight here the parameter tuple (a_1, a_2, α) . We will see soon that these parameters can be used to determine our system. For now we simply note their significance so that the reader (that's you!) may pay them special attention through the rest of the following working.

At the boundary of a fusion reactor we expect there to be no / minimal poloidal magnetic flux, i.e. that the field strength dissipates as we approach the edge of the reactor. This justifies the boundary condition we will impose: $\psi|_b = 0$.

3.2.3 Analytic Solution and Derivation

From Wang, but with the fixes added in. Should I highlight the fixes I made, or is that being an asshole?

Emphasise cylindrical coordinate system, and rectangular cross section

3.3 Current Reversal Systems

SECTION IS CANDIDATE FOR REMOVAL GIVEN TIME CONSTRAINTS

if this is kept, could it go before the section on the GSH equation?

<https://www.teses.usp.br/teses/disponiveis/43/43134/tde-11032013-131439/publico/taborc>

Talk about difficulties with regular GSE in modelling systems where current can be reversed

Is important because experiment shows anti-parallel currents could exist; need to support negative currents

3.3.1 Current and Pressure Density Profiles

Short derivation of the current and pressure density profiles, how they relate to a_1, a_2 and α . Maybe this section doesn't need to be too long

3.3.2 Example Configurations

Present our replication of Wang's paper results, plus a couple more for good measure. Could include a few snippets of code maybe?

Chapter 4

Numerical Model Fitting

4.1 Non-Linear Optimisation

4.1.1 Least Squares

Standard L_2 norm explanation and stuff

4.1.2 Optimisation Algorithms

Minimising least squares. Motivate optimisation algorithms

The Usual Suspects

Newton's method

Gradient descent

Bounded vs non-bounded optimisation

MMA Algorithm

just summarise below more or less <https://fab.cba.mit.edu/classes/865.18/design/optimization/>

Method of Moving Asymptotes (MMA)

Provide explanation of LD-MMA algorithm.

4.2 GSH Parameter Fitting

Talk about why we want to find a_1, a_2 and α , and how we could go about doing that

4.2.1 Optimisation Function

Talk about data we have available

Construct the objective function

Bounds for the objective function and justification

4.2.2 Parameter Space

Parameter space a bit cooked

Show for various zooms

Talk about asymptotic behaviour with α (justifies MMA usage)

Graphs showing effect of different parameters

Non-reliance on α (with exception of $\frac{1}{\alpha}$ where $\alpha = 0$ thing)

4.2.3 Convergence Difficulties

Could be merged with above?

Initial difficulties with normalisation.

4.3 Simulated Current Reversals

Have ability to solve for a_1, a_2 and α , so next step is the “time perturbation” - hark back to chapter 3 here

4.3.1 Method of Reversal

Linearly vary current. Could talk about alternatives - i.e. if our time perturbation had not been linear but had been trigonometric (to fit with a larger scope AC simulation) then our current reversal method here could be different

Feed solved parameters into guess for next. Emphasise problem of not knowing the initial ones nonetheless

4.3.2 Results and Explanations

Have still frame shots of the result of that (3x3 tiles?)

Show the slow version, then the ‘zoomed’ in version

Highlight magnetic field topology breaking - suggests RE population generation

Comment on feasibility of the behaviour - e.g. pressure density profile follows magnetic field axis, but then there are things like current densities at the edge of the reactor

Chapter 5

Comparison with Experiment

5.1 ISTTOK

The ISTTOK project is a reactor based in Lisbon, Portugal, used for plasma science research by the University of Lisbon. It is this reactor which found no evidence for the existence of anti-parallel currents in the ramp down phase, contradicting the hypothesis put forward to explain the presence of a residual plasma during the quiescent current cycle, as we discussed in the introduction [13]. This hypothesis was initially supported by data from the CT-6B Tokamak by Huang et. al [10] however, and so no consensus exists on whether these currents exist, and what the cause of the runaway electrons is in cases of AC Tokamak ramp downs. In this chapter we attempt to use our model to describe the current density profile, pressure density profile, and poloidal magnetic field topology, given some data provided by ISTTOK.

5.1.1 Heavy Ion Beam Diagnostics

The data we have available to us is time slices of current density profile, pressure density profile, and v_{loop} data for the ramp down phase of a run of the ISTTOK reactor. Before we “plug and play” with this data though, it’s important to understand where it has come from.

One of the flagship features of the ISTTOK reactor is its heavy ion beam probe, which enables the measurement of the plasma temperature, electron density, and plasma potential (v_{loop}) data. Theoretically it is able to produce a one dimensional profile of each of these components - these can then be used to infer the value of other plasma properties, such as the current density profile [14].

We will stave off delving too deep into the physics here, and will instead seek to provide an intuition for the functioning of the beam. A heavy ion beam is a measurement tool that works by injecting heavy charged particles (ions) into a charged medium, at speed. The charged medium in our case is the plasma. For a Tokamak, a beam of positively charged ions (specifically, atoms with one extra electron) are injected into the plasma, known as the “primary beam”, and commonly consists of one of Cs^+ , Rb^+ . These ions are injected perpendicular to the toroidal magnetic field (that is to say, in line with the poloidal magnetic field). The idea behind this is that these positively charged atoms (I^+) will interact with the negatively charged electrons in our plasma in a way that we can measure, which will provide us insight into the properties of electron populations in our plasma. When I^+ interacts (collides) with an electron in the plasma, it is likely to become ionised further, becoming I^{2+} . The property in our plasma that we then exploit to measure this change is the Lorentz force, which, to recall, states

$$\vec{F} = q(\vec{E} + \vec{u} \times \vec{B})$$

where, crucially, q represents a particle’s charge as it moves through an magnetic field B with velocity \vec{u} , and an electric field E present. From this we can infer that the forces acting on a particle will increase as the charge increases. The effects of this increased ionisation of our heavy ions thus increases their Larmor radius (oscillatory movement of charged particles in a magnetic field) relative to their single-ionised counterparts, which changes their trajectory in the plasma. In our Tokamak we then position a charged particle detector on the opposite side of our heavy ion beam’s injection point, which we use to measure distributions of received charged particles. Form this we can infer information about the presence of negatively charged particles (predominantly electrons) in the $1D$ profile that our primary beam follows by measuring the quantity of charged particles detected at different positions on our detector. Ingenious! A graphic depicting this is given in figure 5.1.

While here we’ve provided what is hopefully an intuitive understanding for how a heavy ion beam is utilised for data collection in a Tokamak, we have skipped much of the nitty-gritty details for actual data derivation. Most importantly for us to note however, is that ISTTOK does not directly measure the current or pressure density profiles, but instead infers this data from poloidal magnetic field profile information afforded to us by the heavy ion beam. As one might expect, there is a large margin for error introduced in these measurements (and

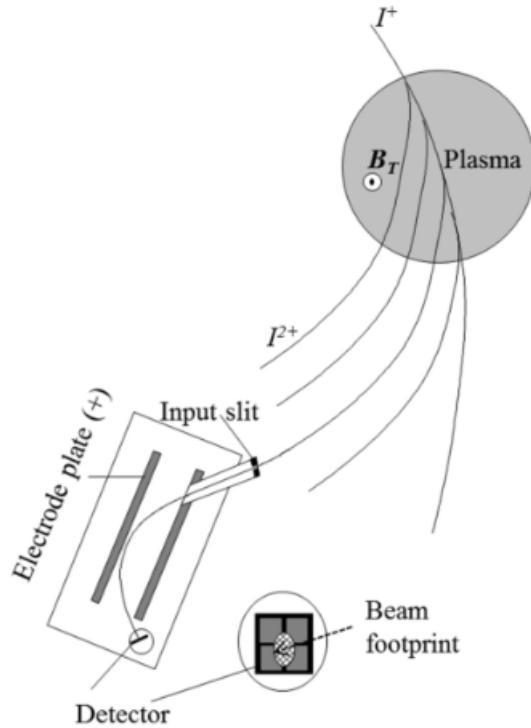


Figure 5.1: Simplified depiction of an ion beam's injected ions having their trajectories manipulated by the plasma they travel through, and how that is subsequently detected. Diagram taken from [14].

subsequent calculations) when doing so. Quoted unofficially, we can expect errors in current density profile data to be up to an order of $\pm 30\%$. While we don't have access to the explicit uncertainty in our data, we can keep this in mind when fitting our parameters (a_1, a_2, α) to the ISTTOK data, and justify some decisions we make further down.

5.1.2 Reactor Specification and Data

Reactor Specification

The ISTTOK reactor specification is given below:

Property	Value
Major Radius (a)	0.46m
Minor Radius (R_0)	0.085m
Plasma Current (I_p)	4 – 6kA

Table 5.1: Relevant ISTTOK reactor parameters [13]

Of particular emphasis, this configuration satisfies the requirement for a large

aspect Tokamak as required for our Grad-Shafranov-Helmholtz model, with $A = R/a = 5.4 \gg 1$.

Available Data

The data we have is for a series of 20 time slices from 30.53ms – 31.93ms of a run of ISTTOK. Of interest, the average confinement time for a plasma in ISTTOK is approximately 0.4ms [13]. For each of these time slices there are 18 measurements at uniformly distributed discrete intervals across the cross section of the reactor; for $x \in [-8.5\text{cm}, 8.5\text{cm}]$ and $z = 0$. For this domain we have data for the current density profile, and the pressure density profile. From this data, we additionally have inferred I_p and V_{loop} data for each time slice.

In our simulations we will use the current density profile data to fit our parameters (a_1, a_2, α) . In the work that we did we did not initially seek to additionally use the pressure density profile data in fitting these parameters for two reasons:

1. We wish to have some data to compare our results to. From the (a_1, a_2, α) we get from our minimisation algorithm we can calculate a pressure density profile and compare it to the experimental data for accuracy
2. In our simulations we explored the case of having limited current density profile data and attempting to fit parameters to that, and found that we were able to determine parameters sufficiently accurate to represent the system.

While we will make comparisons with the pressure density profile data, another avenue we could have explored was to incorporate the pressure density profile into the data fitting. Initial testing with this did not improve convergence of the optimisation algorithm for those cases in which it struggled, however our testing was also not exhaustive in this manner, and the inclusion of this data combined with some changes in the approach to fitting our model to the data, could well result in a more accurate result. Ideas for further work around this are discussed in chapter 6.

A representative time slice is provided in figure 5.2

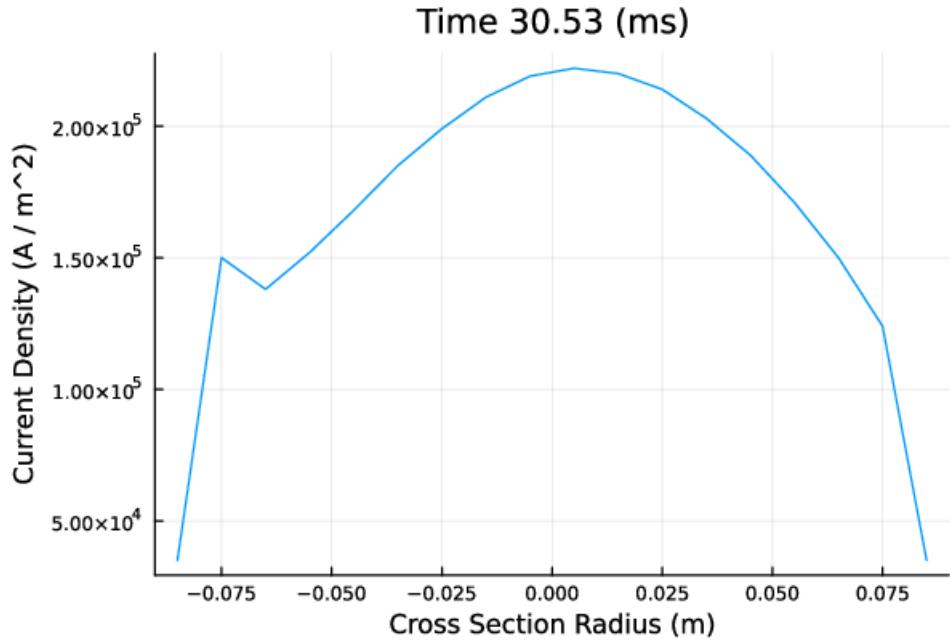


Figure 5.2: Current density profile for the beginning of a ramp down in ISTTOK. The cross section radius is centred with respect to the major radius.

The I_p time evolution is also provided for reference in figure 5.3. This showcases how the plasma's current changes during the ramp down phase.

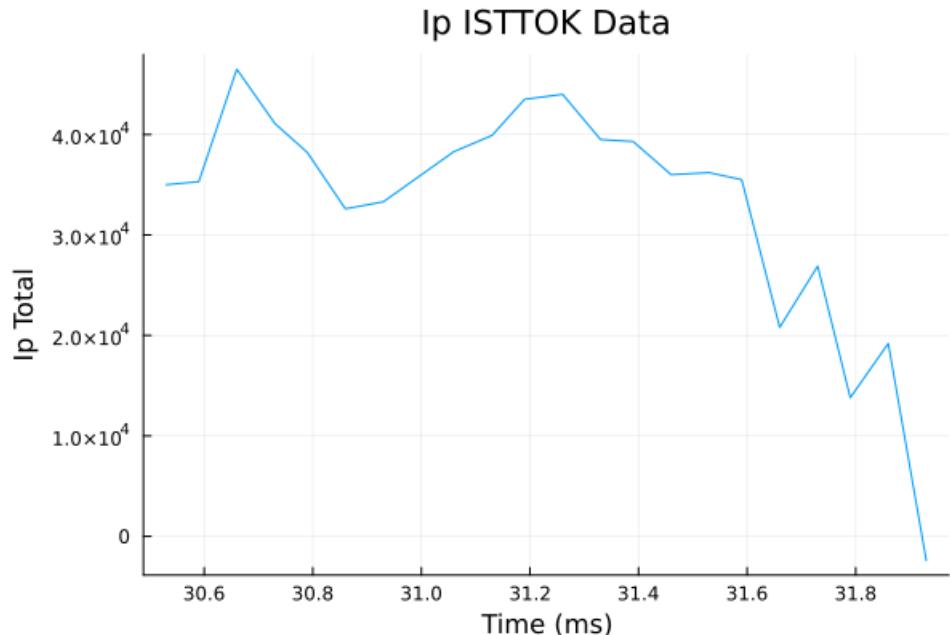


Figure 5.3: Plasma current (I_p) during the ramp down phase of a run of the ISTTOK reactor in AC operating mode.

5.2 Parameter Fitting

5.2.1 Results

Initial Attempts

We use the same process as we did when initially fitting the parameters (a_1, a_2, α) to data, though instead of contrived current inversion data we of course use the data we have from ISTTOK here. Our initial results showed a resistance of our model to fitting to the data, as can be seen by the poor fit for the current density profile in figure 5.4. All of our results are available in the source code under under the “experiments/isttok/current_solving_comparison/graphs/” directory [15]. Here we will highlight a couple representative examples, but will discuss the general trend of all our results.

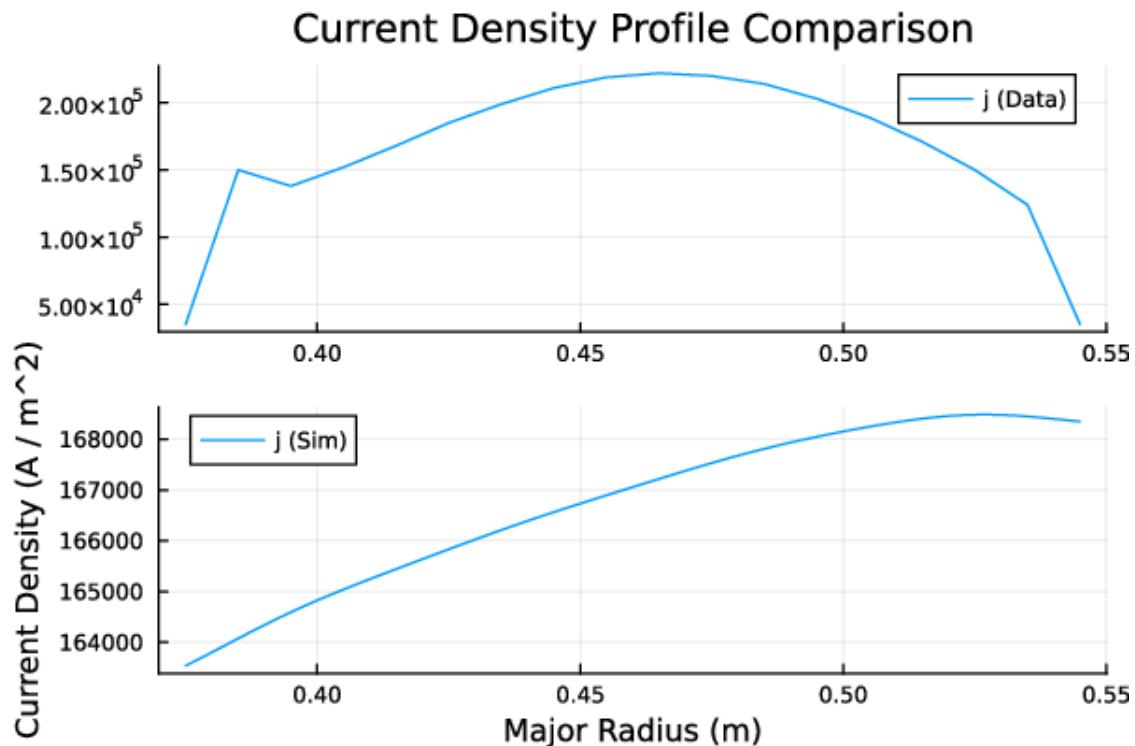


Figure 5.4: ISTTOK current density profile contrasted with our simulated current density profile after fitting against the former in order to derive (a_1, a_2, α) . This is the first time slice, i.e. at the start of the ramp down.

Purely by visual inspection we can see this is not a close fit, however this discrepancy becomes more pronounced as we progress through the remainder of our time slices. This effect can be seen in figure 5.5, where our simulation is even

more considerably differentiated from the data.

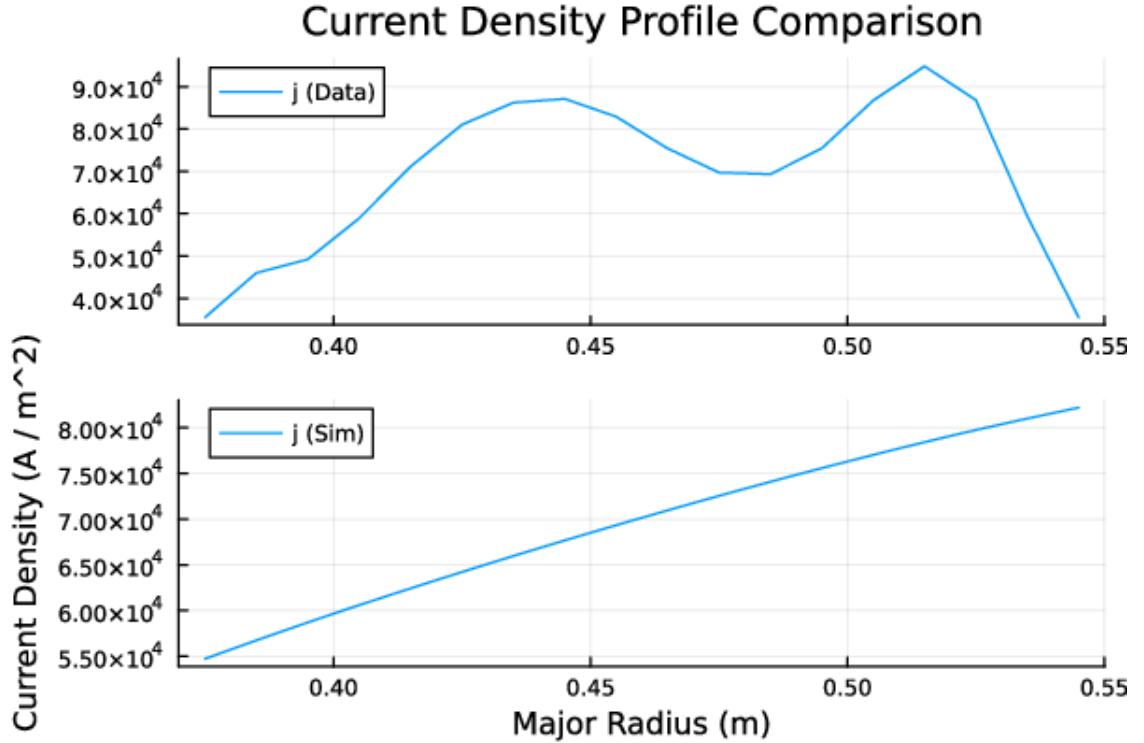


Figure 5.5: ISTTOK current density profile contrasted with our simulated current density profile after fitting against the former in order to derive (a_1, a_2, α) . This is the 15th time slice, i.e. approximately half way through the transition.

Here we begin to see a current hole develop at (what we for now presume, but will later observe) the position of the on-axis magnetic island. This is an important feature to be able to characterise in our simulations, however is clearly missed in our simulated current. In fact, it seems that the general features of our simulated current density profile remain largely unchanged from our initial results - we will comment on why this is so in a minute.

We can also (for completeness here) compare the last time slice, which is the first and only data entry we have showing the start of the ramp up phase, or in other words, the period immediately proceeding the conclusion of the ramp down phase we are investigating. This comparison is shown in figure 5.6.

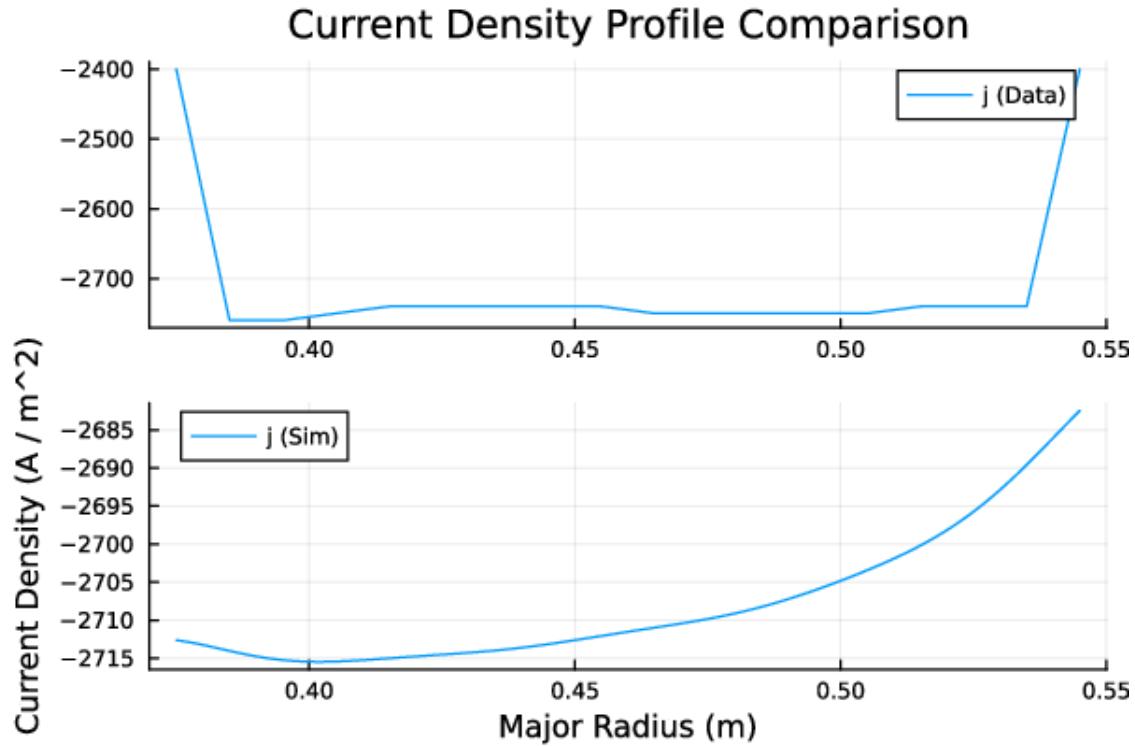


Figure 5.6: ISTTOK current density profile contrasted with our simulated current density profile after fitting against the former in order to derive (a_1, a_2, α) . This is the last time series data entry we have, and is after the ramp down phase has concluded / the start of the next cycle's ramp up phase.

Recall that, while the initial parameter guess is currently hand picked (with note on alternatives proposed in chapter 6), parameter guesses for subsequent iterations of our simulation are informed by the previously solved-for parameters. This means any initial error in choice of parameters will be detrimental to all following simulations.

We can see the effects of this more prominently by also observing the change in magnetic field topology as the current and pressure data vary. Or rather, we should say, the lack thereof. Figures 5.7 - 5.9 show the poloidal magnetic field topology for the representative time slices we've picked. Note again that results for all time slices can be found in the open sourced GitHub repository in [15].

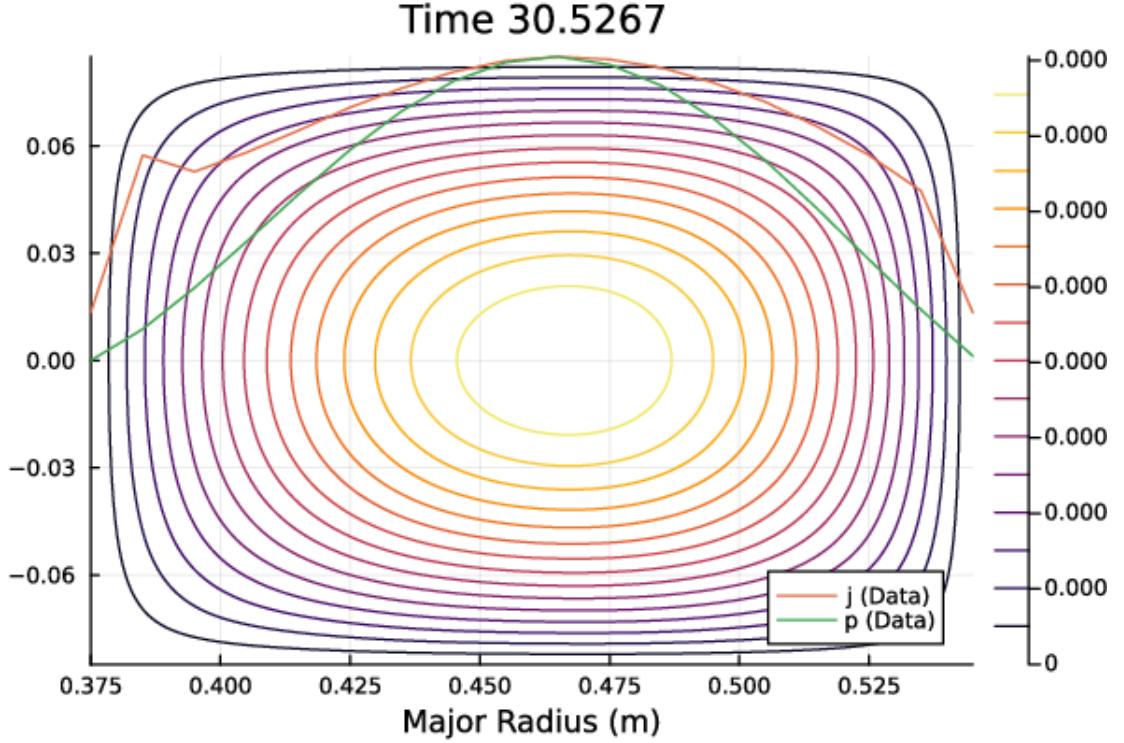


Figure 5.7: Poloidal magnetic field (simulated) for a given (a_1, a_2, α) parameter set which is derived from the current density profile data present in the graph. The pressure profile is similarly given. Both current and pressure density profiles are normalised.

We find there is minimal variation in magnetic field line topology between all the time slices, with exception of the last slice, which sees a drastic change. There is a slight drift tendency towards the external wall of the reactor (rightwards in our graphs), which might suggest some Shafranov shift of the plasma - though, given the misrepresentative nature of the simulated magnetic field lines generally, it is unlikely this is an actual result. We can further support the argument that this is not an accurate magnetic field topology as time progresses, as the pressure density profile in figure 5.8 suggests the formation of two distinct, or at least a partially split single, plasma, with two distinct current densities (i.e., that there are at least two magnetic islands present). However, the simulated magnetic field (which remains largely unchanged from the initial simulation iteration) suggests only the existence of a single magnetic island. We should note though, that figure 5.7 shows a magnetic field line topology which is consistent with where the data suggests the primary plasma density should be - this being despite a seemingly large discrepancy between our simulated current density and the provided data.

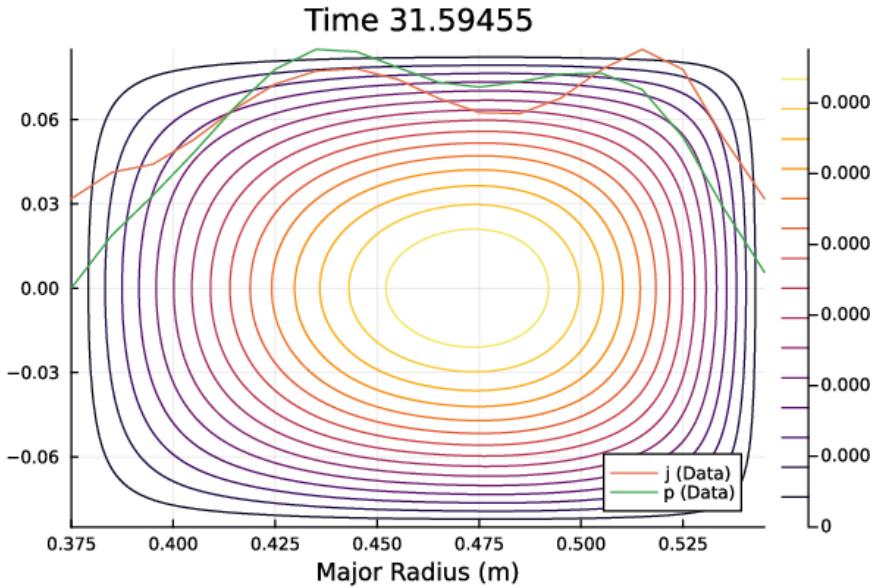


Figure 5.8: Poloidal magnetic field (simulated) for a given (a_1, a_2, α) parameter set which is derived from the current density profile data present in the graph. The pressure profile is similarly given. Both current and pressure density profiles are normalised.

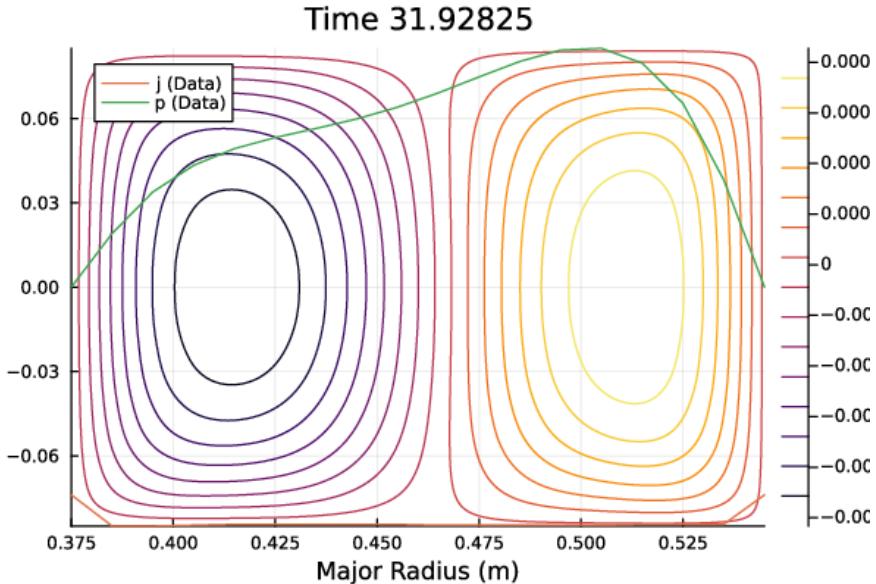


Figure 5.9: Poloidal magnetic field (simulated) for a given (a_1, a_2, α) parameter set which is derived from the current density profile data present in the graph. The pressure profile is similarly given. Both current and pressure density profiles are normalised.

Nevertheless, the result is clear - the simulation, in this form, is insufficient in modelling accurately the behaviour of the plasma, at least with respect to what

is expected from the data we have available.

Our initial efforts seem fleeting in their attempt to accurately model the system. However, that does not mean that our efforts should stop there. Whereas previously we politely requested any mathematicians avert their gaze at the crimes we were committing, it is only fair that we also at some point request any scientists to turn a blind eye to the crimes we will momentarily commit. This is that point. In the previous section we noted that there is a considerable uncertainty accompanying our data (see, for instance, figure 5.3, which intuitively we expect to be a smooth function of radial distance, yet is quite nonsmooth). We thus have some (limited) agency to manipulate our data to be more aligned with what we would expect.

Data Cleanup and Second Attempt

With the note that our data has considerably uncertainty in it, and considering the relatively few data entries we have, we might make some observations about the data we do have available, and the general physical properties we would expect it to exhibit with relation to the other data points we have available.

First, we'll note the (accusedly) extraneous data entries in the first time slice. Refer again to figure 5.2. There are two irregularities we can note:

- There is a sharp increase in current density at the -0.065m offset. Physically, unless there was anomalous behaviour inside the reactor, we would not expect this measurement, while the general behaviour of the rest of the profile relative to this entry is consistent with a plasma density being confined to the magnetic axis within the reactor. Thus, we can (to test) make an assumption that this entry is a result of imprecision in the data collection, and remove it from our fitting data.
- At the bounds of the reactor the current density decreases significantly faster than the general trend of the rest of the data. Physically this is consistent with what we would expect - that as we approach the edge of our reactor there is less plasma density and less current. However, we also know our analytic current density profile to be C^2 continuous, and such sharp jumps will affect our ability to fit to this data. Thus by removing this information we can potentially increase the performance of our data fitting.

We see the resulting current density profile in figure 5.10. It is clear that the

general behaviour of our current density profile is more consistent with that of the data now. We can observe that the magnitude of the densities is still, however, quite distinct. There are a couple considerations we could make here. First is that, this is evidence that our model is not fitting to the data as closely as we'd like yet, and so extra work can be done to attempt to improve this. The second would be that, while the scale of the current density is inconsistent with the data, it may be that we can still sufficiently make statements about the generation of runaway electron populations, and so it perhaps is (for our intended purposes) irrelevant whether the scale is precise or not. More important to us is the topology of the poloidal magnetic field, which in our model is informed more by the radial positioning of current density masses than the strength of those densities (as we highlighted in our simulations section). We can see in figure 5.11 that the magnetic field topology for the manually edited data is consistent with where the pressure and current density profiles suggest the primary magnetic island should be. Additionally, it appears this is more in agreement than the pre-processed data, as the positioning of the primary magnetic island is more accurate to what we expect than we observed in figure 5.7.

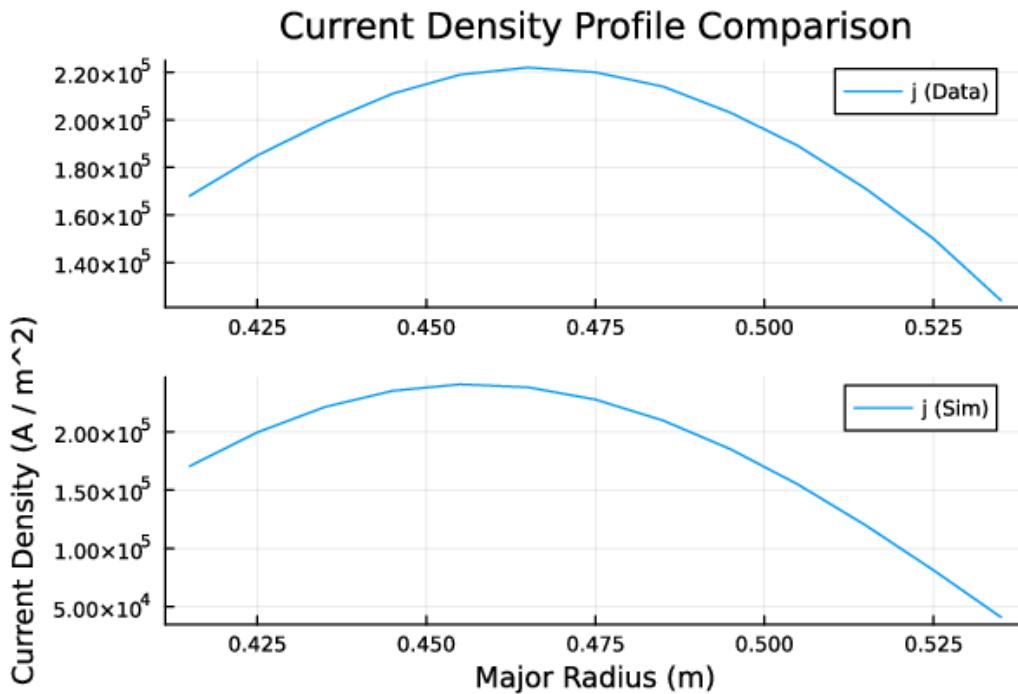


Figure 5.10: Comparison of simulated and data current density profiles, after we rid the data of potentially erroneous data entries.

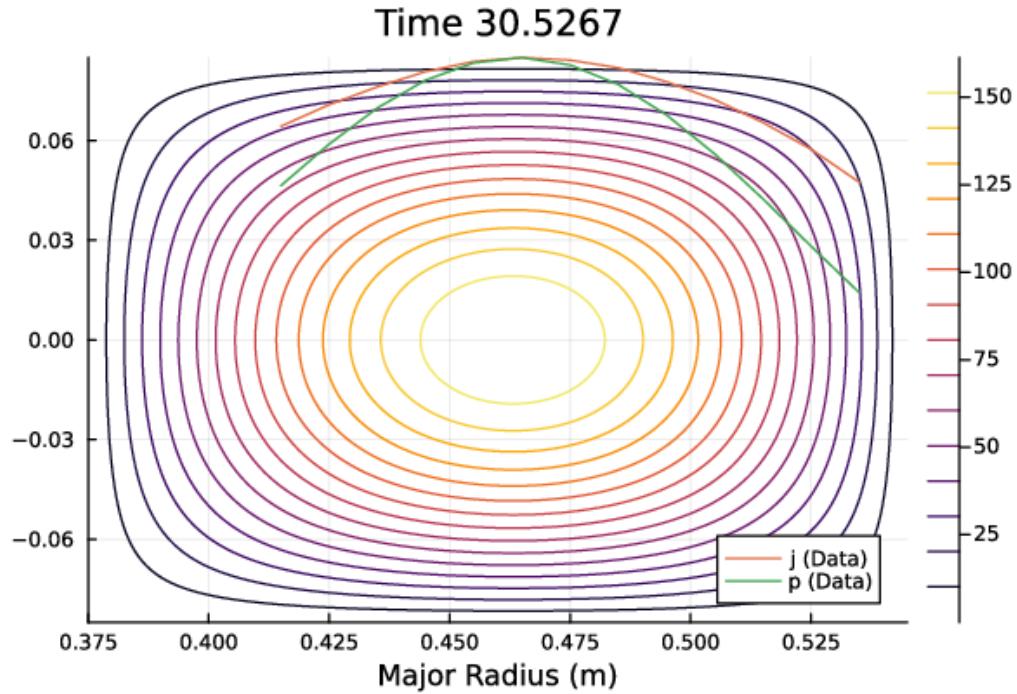


Figure 5.11: Simulated magnetic field topology for the stripped data. Current and pressure density profiles given are normalised, and provided by the data.

These (albeit preliminary) results would seem to suggest that, after some “cleaning” of the data, our model is able to produce results that are at least consistent with how we would expect our system to behave given the data.

Nevertheless we face another problem which, as of writing, remains unresolved. While we are able to clean our data for the first time slice as what we deemed “erroneous” data entries were easy to identify, this is not the case for the majority of the remaining data we have. This is partly a problem of labour, more problematic is the that of correctly determining which data points to classify as erroneous - if any can even be deemed so.

Alternative Data Coddling Methods and Steps Forward

Here we have simply removed potentially erroneous data points from our set, and continued on as if they never existed. However, especially as we don’t have access to a great many discrete measurements, this is not an ideal situation. There are alternative approaches to post-processing the data that could be used, and comparisons made to deem which is most suitable for our data fitting purposes. For example, it could be prudent to, after removing these erroneous data points, perform an interpolation using the remaining points. This would have the benefit

of providing a data set with data that was 1. more volumous, and 2. smoother.

We could also interpolate in another dimension - time. One potential explanation for the difficulty our model has in moving between time slices in the data is that the time variation between them is too large with respect to the time perturbation expansion we performed in chapter 3. As such, we could take two consecutive time slices of data and linearly interpolate them, introducing many more time slices in between. This would restrict our parameter space further, improving our optimisation, and, combined with the previous point about interpolating between data points, could see an improvement on the accuracy of our model.

Additionally, we face the issue that the simulation is very sensitive to the initial parameters chosen. This is directly related to the parameter space issue we identified in the chapter 4, which is that discontinuities introduced by the α parameter lead to a high false positive rate. For the above simulations we have achieved some results by hand picking an initial parameter guess via manual inspection of the parameter space - this, however, is obviously insufficient for more general simulations. A potential resolution for this is proposed in the next chapter, and is the subject of ongoing work.

Chapter 6

Blue Skies and Horizons

6.1 Conclusions

In this thesis we've built up an ability to reason about perturbations in time about equilibrium solutions to a variant of the Grad-Shafranov Equation. We did this with the intent of modelling the ISTTOK reactor's ramp down phase as a tool for identifying causal mechanisms for the generation of runaway electrons. Our model, using current density profile data provided by the ISTTOK project, is able to infer the topology of the poloidal magnetic field, with accompanying pressure density profile, though the accuracy of the model as it stands with respect to inputted data is in question. Our efforts in simulating the change in poloidal magnetic field topology as the current density profile varies nevertheless suggests there are mechanisms induced by the current inversion that can generate runaway electrons, providing one potential theoretical explanation for the observed spikes in runaway electron populations as observed by ISTTOK [13]. However, we can make no concrete statements in relation to the presence of two anti-parallel currents in the plasma.

There is still a lot of work that could be done to improve this model and compare it to literature in a more robust fashion. Some of the efforts that could be made to improve upon the work in this thesis are now presented.

6.2 Further Work

6.2.1 Simulated Electric Field via Fake Solenoids

In a meeting while presenting my findings to the Plasma Science group, I posed the question of extracting electric field information from the data we had available. There are many benefits to being able to describe the electric field for the confinement time of a plasma, however the most significant to our purpose is to positively identify the birth of runaway electrons. This information however is not readily available with the system we worked with.

David Pfefferle proposed a method of simulating the presence of an electric field instead. His idea was to introduce infinitesimal solenoids at the centre of magnetic islands, which would each contribute produce their own electric field. These would then interact, with the idea that the product would be an approximation to the expected electric field for a given state.

The physical justification for this is that the solenoid's magnetic field is emulating the magnetic field produced by current densities, which are themselves informed by magnetic islands. A toroidal current will produce an electric field, including a poloidal component, which will influence the behaviour of runaway electrons. Thus, this approach effectively emulates the presence of a poloidal electric field using position and strength information of current densities.

This approach could utilise work done by Nicholas Bohlsen in using topological data analysis to identify the presence of magnetic islands from poloidal magnetic flux data in his thesis.

6.2.2 Comparison with ISTTOK v_{loop} data

In the appendix of Wang's paper there are small extensions to their results if some slightly different assumptions are made about the model [22]. If these assumptions are made, we are presented with the ability to both derive information about the electric field, and calculate v_{loop} values. Both of these are of particular interest to us; if we are able to retrieve information about the electric field then we can use that to reason about the generation of runaway electrons directly by inspecting the strength of the electric field under certain conditions. Additionally, with the ability to calculate v_{loop} data, we would have another metric by which to test the accuracy of our simulation against experiment, as the ISTTOK data we have contained v_{loop} information, inferred from the raw data provided. This would more justify us in using pressure density profile data

6.2.3 Grid Based Initial Parameter Guessing

One of the identified problems with our model, at both the simulation stage and the data fitting, was that the initial parameter guess is just that; a guess. Due to the parameter space we are dealing with the system is very sensitive to this initial choice, and so it is crucial that a suitable initial guess is chosen for the optimisation algorithm to not fall into false positives. As calculating residuals is relatively cheap to perform, and we know our objective function has a smooth parameter space (with exception for $(\alpha^2 - \lambda_{n,l}^2)^{-1} = 0$ cases), we can utilise a grid-based search approach for identifying what could potentially be a good initial guess. If we describe some domain $\Sigma := \Sigma_1 \times \Sigma_2 \times \Sigma_3$ such that $(a_1, a_2, a) \in \Sigma$, then we can segment this cuboid into smaller, uniformly sized cuboids. We could then pick a “representative point” from these smaller cuboids (for simplicity, say the centre), and calculate the residual for that specific parameter set with respect to the provided data. Then we pick the parameter set that has the smallest residual, and use that parameter set as the initial guess for our optimisation algorithm.

Appendix A

Appendix title goes here

Blah blah blah...

Blah blah blah...

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