Plasma Physics with Applications David Hambræus & Ida Ekmark

What is a plasma

A plasma is defined via the ionization degree α defined as the fraction of ionized particles. At $\alpha > 0.01$ we say it is fully ionized, while for smaller α :s its weakly / partially ionized. One important property of a plasma is the ability to quickly screen out changes in the electric potential, so called Debye Screening. Debye screening is described by the Debye Length and Debye potential

$$\begin{split} \lambda_{\mathrm{D}} &= \sqrt{\frac{\varepsilon_{0}k_{\mathrm{B}}T}{n_{0}e^{2}}}\\ \phi_{\mathrm{D}} &= \frac{q}{4\pi\varepsilon_{0}r}\exp\left(-\frac{r}{\lambda_{\mathrm{D}}}\right), \end{split}$$

(p. 4-5). With the plasma frequency $\omega_{\rm p} = n_0 e^2/m_e \varepsilon_0$, the collision frequency ν and the macroscopic dimension of the plasma L, the definition of a plasma requires

$$\lambda_{\rm D} \ll L$$

$$\frac{4\pi}{3} \lambda_{\rm D}^3 n_0 \gg 1$$

$$\nu \ll \omega_{\rm p}.$$

Single particles in EM-field

The most fundamental equation of motion for a charged particle in an EM-field is the Lorentz Force Equation:

$$m\frac{\mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{v}}{\mathrm{d}t} = q(\boldsymbol{E} + \boldsymbol{v} \times \boldsymbol{B})$$

A constant, nonzero E-field with no B-field gives constant acceleration along E. A constant, nonzero B-field with no Efield gives rise to helical motion with cyclotron frequency $\omega_{\rm c} = |q|B/m$ and Larmor radius $r_{\rm L} = v_{\perp}/\omega_{\rm c}$ (p. 8 – 9, trick is to divide velocity into one component parallel and one perpendicular to B). In this circular orbit we have the current and magnetic moment

$$I = \frac{|q|\omega_{\rm c}}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{q^2 B}{m}$$
$$\mu = I\pi r_{\rm L}^2 = \frac{mv_{\perp}^2}{2B} = \left|\frac{qr_{\rm L}v_{\perp}}{2}\right|, \ \boldsymbol{\mu} = \frac{q\boldsymbol{r}_{\rm L}\times\boldsymbol{v}_{\perp}}{2}.$$

A constant, nonzero B-field with a constant force F gives a invariant (p. 44-45). The second adiabatic invariant is the constant acceleration from the component of F along the B- integral field, while the component perpendicular to \boldsymbol{B} gives rise to a constant drift velocity

$$oldsymbol{v}_D = rac{1}{q} rac{oldsymbol{F}_\perp imes oldsymbol{B}}{B^2}$$

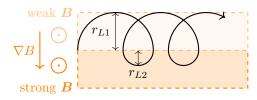
(p. 11, trick is to divide v_{\perp} into a constant drift velocity $v_{\rm D}$ and a varying component u which solves the case without a force). An inhomogeneous B-field gives rise to the so called grad B drift. The motion parallel to the B-field lines is governed by

$$m\frac{\mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{v}_{\parallel}}{\mathrm{d}t} = -\mu\nabla_{\parallel}B,$$

and for the motion perpendicular we get a drift velocity

$$\boldsymbol{v}_{\nabla B} = \frac{\mu}{q} \frac{\boldsymbol{B} \times \nabla B}{B^2} = \frac{m v_{\perp}^2}{2q B^2} \frac{\boldsymbol{B} \times \nabla B}{B}$$

in addition to the Larmor rotation, just like before (p. 13 – 16).



When the magnetic field lines are curved, |B| cannot be constant according to Maxwell's equations. Thus this such a magnetic field must be inhomogenous and this gives rise both to a grad B drift and a curvature drift

$$egin{aligned} oldsymbol{v}_{
m c} &= rac{m v_{\parallel}^2}{q B^2} rac{oldsymbol{B} imes
abla B}{B} \ \implies oldsymbol{v}_{
abla B} + oldsymbol{v}_{
m c} &= rac{m}{q B^2} \left(rac{1}{2} v_{\perp}^2 + v_{\parallel}^2
ight) rac{oldsymbol{B} imes
abla B}{B}, \end{aligned}$$

(p. 19). The final relevant drift velocity is the polarization drift occurring in a slowly varying electric field

$$\mathbf{v}_{\mathrm{p}} = \frac{m}{qB^2} \frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{E}}{\mathrm{d}t}.$$

For a inhomogeneous magnetic field constant in time the magnetic moment is invariant (p. 23). For a slowly varying magnetic field, this is also true which is called the first adiabatic

$$J=\oint v_\parallel ds$$

(p. 46 - 47).

The Vlaslov and Boltzmann equations

Firstly we define a distribution function, f(r, v, t). This gives the expected number of particles occupying the volume in phase space $d\mathbf{r}d\mathbf{v}$ around the point (\mathbf{r},\mathbf{v}) at time t. To understand how this f evolves argue that the rate of change of the number of particles inside some volume in phase space Ω must be the flux of particles through the walls.

$$rac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{\Omega} f \mathrm{d} m{r} \mathrm{d} m{v} = - \int_{\partial_r \Omega} f m{v} \cdot \hat{n}_r \mathrm{d} S_r - \int_{\partial_v \Omega} f m{a} \cdot \hat{n}_v \mathrm{d} S_v.$$

 $\partial_r \Omega$ means the boundry of Ω in r-space. Plopping the $\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$ into the integral and using Gauss' theorem to make the surface integral a volume integral we obtain

$$\mathrm{d}\mathbf{r}\mathrm{d}\mathbf{v}\left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{r}} \cdot \mathbf{v}f + \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{v}} \cdot \mathbf{a}f\right] = 0,$$

which has to be true for all volumes, meaning that the integrand has to be 0 everywhere. Further noting that $\frac{\partial}{\partial r} \cdot \boldsymbol{v} = 0$ and plugging in the Lorentz force for the acceleration we get the Vlaslov equation

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{r}} + \frac{q}{m} (\boldsymbol{E} + \boldsymbol{v} \times \boldsymbol{B}) \cdot \frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{v}} = 0.$$

The LHS is really the change of f along a particle trajectory (if you let r(t) and v(t) be the particle position and velocity at time t), so you can let f be the sum of a bunch of delta functions and reduce this to the particle description of the plasma. But this would not be very useful, instead we let f be some smooth distribution. This is okay if the collective effect of far away particles are more important than the effects of collisions. If we want to include the effects of collisions, we add a mysterious term called the collision operator to obtain the Boltzmann equation

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \boldsymbol{v} \cdot \frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{r}} + \frac{q}{m} (\boldsymbol{E} + \boldsymbol{v} \times \boldsymbol{B}) \cdot \frac{\partial f}{\partial \boldsymbol{v}} = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}\right)_{c}$$

The $\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}\right)$ is interpreted as the rate of change of f that is due to collisions, and in general we don't have closed form for it. For plasmas in equilibrium, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = 0$ since they are by that is what they meant), then $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{\Pi}$ becomes the gradient tinuity equations by the masses / charges to get definition stationary in time, and $\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}\right) = 0$ as well since the rate of change due to collisions must also be 0.

The two fluid model

In this model, we try to simplify the equations above by not caring about the true f, but rather we treat the plasma as a fluid and only care about some of its moments. A moment $\langle \psi \rangle$ is defined as the velocity average of the function ψ :

$$\langle \psi \rangle = \frac{1}{n} \int \psi f \mathrm{d} \boldsymbol{v},$$

where n is the density of particles $n(\mathbf{r}) = \int f d\mathbf{v}$. Using the Boltzmann equation we can derive the **general moment** equation

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(n\langle\psi\rangle) + \nabla \cdot (n\langle\boldsymbol{v}\psi\rangle) - \frac{nq}{m} \left\langle (\boldsymbol{E} + \boldsymbol{v} \times \boldsymbol{B}) \cdot \frac{\partial\psi}{\partial\boldsymbol{v}} \right\rangle
= \frac{\partial}{\partial t}(n\langle\psi\rangle)_{c}$$

This gives a way of solving the time evolution of these microscopic properties instead of dealing with f directly. However, the problem as you can see in the second term is that the equation for the order k moment contains the order k+1moment.

As an easy example, consider the equation for the zero order moment ($\psi = 1$). It becomes

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}n_{\alpha}}{\mathrm{d}t} + \nabla \cdot (n_{\alpha} \boldsymbol{u}_{\alpha}) = 0.$$

 \boldsymbol{u}_{α} is here the average velocity of the particles of species α at r. The is basically the continuity equation. As you can see, it does depend on the average velocity. The equation for the velocity (first order moment, $\psi = v$) becomes

$$n_{\alpha} m_{\alpha} \left[\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{u}_{\alpha}}{\partial t} + (\boldsymbol{u}_{\alpha} \cdot \nabla) \boldsymbol{u}_{\alpha} \right]$$

$$= n_{\alpha} q_{\alpha} (\boldsymbol{E} + \boldsymbol{u}_{\alpha} \times \boldsymbol{B}) - \underbrace{\nabla \cdot \boldsymbol{\Pi}_{\alpha}}_{= \nabla p \text{ if isotropic}} + \sum_{\beta \neq \alpha} P_{\alpha\beta},$$

after a bit of massaging. Here $P_{\alpha\beta}$ is the effect of collisions between particles of different species on the average velocity and $\Pi_{\alpha} \equiv n_{\alpha} m_{\alpha} \langle (\boldsymbol{v}_{\alpha} - \boldsymbol{u}_{\alpha}) (\boldsymbol{v}_{\alpha} - \boldsymbol{u}_{\alpha}) \rangle$ is the pressure tensor (a central second order moment). If f is isotropic (I think even if just the velocity distribution is isotropic, but maybe

of the scalar pressure $p = k_B T n$.

An aside: wtf is a pressure tensor?

If the pressure tensor of a fluid is Π , then $\Pi \hat{n}$ is the force per unit area on a surface oriented normal to \hat{n} . It is the same as the negative of the expectation value of the stress tensor: $-\langle \boldsymbol{\sigma} \rangle$. Why is $\mathbf{\Pi} = nm \langle \boldsymbol{w} \boldsymbol{w} \rangle$, where $w = v - \langle v \rangle$? Idk. It's kinda the Irvingkirkwood formula, but I don't know where that comes from either.

In deriving the second order moment $\langle mv^2/2 \rangle$ (p. 67 – 69) we get a Big Boring $Expression^{TM}$. If we ignore the heat exchange between different fluids, and the heat conduction vector $Q \equiv nm \langle ww^2 \rangle / 2$ where w is the deviation from the mean velocity, then some shuffling around gives

$$\frac{p_{\alpha}}{n_{\alpha}^{5/3}} = \text{const.}$$

The full equation for the second order moments contain a third order moment and, for the third a forth and so on. Somewhere we have to cut it, and here we chose to ignore the third, thus stopping the chain.

The reason for calling it the two fluid model is that we the proceed to model the plasma using two species: electrons and ions.

MHD / Single fluid model

In magnetohydrodynamics (MHD) we treat the plasma as a single conducting fluid characterized by quantities like the mass density ρ_m , the charge density ρ , the center of mass velocity V and the current density j. These are gotten from the two fluid model in a straight forward manner like

$$ho_m \equiv \sum_{lpha} m_{lpha} n_{lpha} \
ho \equiv \sum_{lpha} q_{lpha} n_{lpha} \ oldsymbol{V} \equiv rac{1}{
ho_m} \sum_{lpha} m_{lpha} n_{lpha} oldsymbol{u}_{lpha} \ oldsymbol{j} \equiv \sum_{lpha} q_{lpha} n_{lpha} oldsymbol{u}_{lpha}$$

The one-fluid equations are then gotten from the two-fluid equations by clever manipulations, e.g. multiplying the con-

$$\frac{\partial \rho_m}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho_m \mathbf{V}) = 0$$
$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\mathbf{j}) = 0$$

or conservation of mass and charge.

Similar manipulations of the two-fluid momentum equations vield

$$ho_m \left(rac{\partial}{\partial t} + oldsymbol{V} \cdot
abla
ight) \, oldsymbol{V} = oldsymbol{j} imes oldsymbol{B} -
abla \cdot oldsymbol{\Pi}^*$$

and the Generalized Ohms law

blehdoweevenneedtowritethis?

Waves

What is a wave? Simply put, when we derive the waves we assume them to be small perturbations in the underlying equilibrium state. We also usually look at monochromatic waves: waves where all of the variables (density, electric field, mean velocity) vary with the same frequency: $X \sim \exp[i(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega t)]$.

Maxwells Equations

Just for reference, I keep forgetting them all of the time...

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho}{\varepsilon_0}$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \mu_0 \left(J + \varepsilon_0 \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} \right)$$