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<td>As Published</td>
<td><a href="http://dx.doi.org/10.1063/1.3065094">http://dx.doi.org/10.1063/1.3065094</a></td>
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<tr>
<td>Publisher</td>
<td>American Institute of Physics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Version</td>
<td>Final published version</td>
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<tr>
<td>Citable Link</td>
<td><a href="http://hdl.handle.net/1721.1/51858">http://hdl.handle.net/1721.1/51858</a></td>
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Localized measurement of short wavelength plasma fluctuations with the DIII-D phase contrast imaging diagnostic

J. R. Dorris,a J. C. Rost, and M. Porkolab
Plasma Science and Fusion Center, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139, USA

(Received 2 June 2008; accepted 15 December 2008; published online 18 February 2009)

A novel rotating mask system has been designed and implemented on the DIII-D phase contrast imaging (PCI) diagnostic to produce the first spatially localized PCI measurements of a tokamak plasma. The localization technique makes use of the variation in the magnetic field component perpendicular to the viewing chord as a function of chord height. This new capability provides measurements in the range of 2<k<30 cm−1, 10 kHz<f<10 MHz, and 0.7<r/a<1. This technique provides a spatial resolution of 10 cm at k=15 cm−1 and can realistically provide measurements at a rate of 10 profiles/s. Calibration measurements show accurate characterization of the system transfer function making feasible a time dependent analysis that results in improved localization. Initial measurements show turbulence to peak near the plasma edge. This upgrade is part of a broader program to operate the DIII-D PCI at wave numbers up to 40 cm−1 to probe electron scale turbulence in the plasma core. © 2009 American Institute of Physics.

[DOI: 10.1063/1.3065094]

I. INTRODUCTION

Universally, tokamak experiments show particle and energy transport that is large compared to that predicted by collisional theories. This so-called anomalous transport is generally thought to arise from turbulent processes generated by microinstabilities. Understanding the fundamental physics that govern these instabilities is a major focus of the international fusion community. These instabilities include drift-wave turbulence, the ion temperature gradient (ITG) mode (k⊥ρi<−0.1), the trapped electron mode (TEM) (k⊥ρi<1), and the electron temperature gradient (ETG) mode (kρi>1). Here k⊥ is the component of the fluctuating wave vector perpendicular to the local magnetic field, ρi=cs/ωci is the ion sound gyroradius, and cs is the plasma sound speed. Simulations and measurements of long wavelength (ITG/TEM) turbulence generally agree that these modes drive ion thermal and particle transport. However, there is still controversy over the importance of short wavelength (ETG) modes. Some simulations of short wavelength turbulence show substantial electron thermal transport due to ETG modes, while other simulations show essentially none. The simulations differ in computational technique (e.g., fluid versus particle in cell) as well as physics effects included (e.g., adiabatic ions versus kinetic ions). These electron scale simulations are computationally expensive and are in various stages of maturity; however, none has been rigorously compared to experimental measurements. Confinement losses through the electron channel will be especially important in reactor-relevant plasmas due to strong thermal coupling between electrons and ions and because fusion energy will be transferred from fast alpha particles to electrons. Understanding and subsequently controlling electron transport is therefore a major thrust in tokamak physics. The upgraded phase contrast imaging (PCI) is a complementary diagnostic to the DIII-D set of high-k measurements. While the microwave scattering diagnostics provide single wave number measurements in three regions k=0–2 cm−1, 7–12 cm−1, 35–40 cm−1, the PCI provides continuous measurements over the wave number region k=2–30 cm−1. The work described in this article is focused toward a comparison between experiment and simulation of electron scale turbulence by describing a technique to add localization capability to the DIII-D PCI diagnostic in the short wavelength (high-k) regime.

When initially developed, the DIII-D PCI measured density fluctuations in the outboard midplane region near the last closed flux surface (LCFS). The beam path was moved to the current phase I geometry to cover the region r/a>0.7, as shown in Fig. 1. Measurements were integrated along the beam chord and no spatial resolution was available. In these configurations, the PCI was responsible for making the first time-resolved measurements of correlation length and decorrelation time across the L-mode to H-mode transition. The differences between type I and type III edge localized modes were studied initially in DIII-D by the PCI system, and the time resolution was improved with wavelet analysis. The PCI measurements suggesting zonal flows were cited as early evidence for this phenomenon. The PCI was the first diagnostic to measure the density fluctuation component of the edge harmonic oscillation coincident with the quiescent H-mode.

This article describes a new capability of the DIII-D PCI that takes advantage of the vertical variation in radial magnetic field to make localized measurements along the PCI chord. With this localization technique, the DIII-D PCI is
The entire beam is sent through the plasma; the reference is the fluctuation is small then its effect on the incident beam can be neglected and we can ignore the phase shift from propagation through the system and the background plasma density. The incident wave number \(k_0\) is chosen to produce far-forward scattering \(k_0 \gg k\) where \(k\) is the wave number of plasma fluctuation. Integration along the PCI beam implies that the incident beam is only affected by plasma fluctuations that propagate nearly perpendicular to the incident beam. Taking this density fluctuation to be a single Fourier mode with wave number \(k\) in the plasma, the acquired phase shift can be expressed as \(\Phi = \xi \cos(kx)\) where \(x\)-direction is perpendicular to incident beam. The phase shift is small \((\xi \ll 1)\) and the resulting field in the plasma (object plane) can then be seen to consist of a sum of the reference and scattered components,

\[
E_{\text{plasma}} = E_0 e^{i\Phi} = E_0 [1 + i\xi \cos(kx)] .
\]

The reference and scattered beams are focused with an off-axis parabolic mirror that spatially separates the scattered from the reference beam in the mirror’s focal plane as shown in Fig. 2. The reference beam is then given an extra \(\pi/2\) phase shift by centering it on the \(\lambda/8\) deep groove of the
phase plate; thus it traverses a longer path to acquire the prescribed phase shift. When interfered at the detector (image plane), the resulting field is then of the form

$$E_2^{detector} = E_0[i + i\xi \cos(kx)],$$

and the spatially varying component of the imaged intensity is then directly proportional to the original density variation in the plasma

$$I_2^{detector} = E_0^2[1 + 2\xi \cos(kx)].$$

In practice, this intensity profile is sampled in space by a linear array of detector elements. The detector elements thus measure line integrated density fluctuations across the PCI chord; these data can be Fourier analyzed to provide spectral measurements of fluctuations propagating perpendicular to the viewing chord.

If the incident laser follows well governed Gaussian optics then the focus size and beam separation are (see Fig. 2)

$$w_0 = \frac{2f}{k_0w} \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta = \frac{kf}{k_0},$$

where $f$ is the focal length of the parabolic mirror and $w$ is the beam radius in the plasma. The phase plate groove width $d$ is chosen to give an appropriate low-$k$ cutoff $k_{\text{min}} = dk_0/2f$. This prevents low-$k$ spectral pollution by wave numbers that are unresolved due to the finite length of the detector array.

### B. Localization

When a scattering diagnostic is used to diagnose tokamak turbulence, we can exploit the magnetic geometry to gain localized measurements along the viewing chord.\textsuperscript{18} This is possible because the component of the magnetic field perpendicular to the viewing chord varies as a function of chord height. As described in Sec. II A, PCI is only sensitive to fluctuations propagating perpendicular to the viewing chord.

For electrostatic tokamak turbulence such as ITG and ETG modes, transport along field lines is large compared to cross-field transport. This means that locally $k_\perp \gg k_i$ and turbulent fluctuations propagate nearly perpendicular to the local magnetic field. These two constraints imply that PCI measures scattering from fluctuations that propagate perpendicular to both the viewing chord and the local magnetic field. Therefore, fluctuations from different plasma heights scatter at rotationally different angles about the PCI chord (see Fig. 3). This angle is a projection of the magnetic pitch angle onto a plane perpendicular to the PCI chord. This PCI chord-projected pitch angle ($\alpha$) is then given by

$$\tan(\alpha) = \frac{B_{\perp}(z)}{B_{\phi}(z)},$$

where $B_{\perp}$ is the component of the poloidal magnetic field perpendicular to the PCI chord and $B_{\phi}$ is the toroidal magnetic field.

A component of the scattered radiation can be described in terms of the wave number $k$ of the plasma mode and the height in the vessel $z$ at which the scattering occurs. By combining Eq. (5) with Eq. (6), it can be seen that such a component is focused on the phase plate at a location $[\Delta(k), \alpha(z)]$ in polar coordinates. This spatial separation of focal spots can be utilized by rotating a thin masking slit in the focal plane to selectively pass scattering events from a given height.

It is useful to introduce a figure of merit ($\mathcal{L}$) to estimate the effectiveness of a masking system for localized measurements. The minimum achievable resolution can be estimated by calculating the separation between points in the plasma that map to distinguishable points in the focal plane (e.g., are separated by at least the diameter of the focused beam spot). The pitch angle separating distinguishable points on the phase plate is simply

$$\delta \alpha = 2w_0/\Delta \simeq 4/B_0/kw$$

and thus

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{dz}{d\alpha} \simeq 4B_0 \left[ \frac{dB_{\perp}}{kw} \right]^{-1},$$

where $z$ is the distance along the PCI chord, and we have assumed an optimal slit width and tokamak magnetic field geometry. It can immediately be seen that PCI localization
improves for higher $k$ fluctuations. For a given plasma configuration, the only adjustment to the PCI that improves localization is to increase the size of the probe beam in the plasma. An optimum probe beam diameter can be determined for the desired high-$k$ cutoff given the various apertures in the optical path.

The figure of merit described above is a good approximation of the localization capability of a PCI with a static masking slit. It is the plasma chord length scale at which one can consider measurements separated by $\mathcal{L}$ (or equivalently $\partial z \alpha$ in the focal plane) as independent. However, when the masking slit is rotated in time, a more rigorous analysis yields improved localization. A continuous spectrum as a function of mask angle can be related to the spectrum as a function of $z$ as

$$S(z;k) \left| \frac{dz}{d\alpha} \right| = S(\alpha;k), \quad (8)$$

$$\hat{S}(\alpha';k) = \int S(z;k) \left| \frac{dz}{d\alpha} \right| \mathcal{M}(\alpha' - \alpha;k)d\alpha, \quad (9)$$

where $S(z;k)$ is the turbulence power per unit $z$ in the plasma chord, $S(\alpha;k)$ is the turbulence power per unit pitch angle mapped to the focal plane, and $|dz/d\alpha|$ is the chord mapping density. In practice, the mapping density tends to peak at the plasma chord edges resulting in an artificial enhancement of edge turbulence. The mask response function $\mathcal{M}$ is the rotating mask transfer function. The plasma fluctuation power spectra measured at the detector array is given by $\hat{S}(\alpha';k)$, and $\alpha'$ is the mask slit angle. Note that the pitch angle $\alpha$ is limited in domain by tokamak magnetic geometry, while $\alpha'$ represents the mask spin angle, which is free to rotate through an entire revolution.

With this framework, it can be seen that interpretation of localized PCI measurements depends on accurate knowledge of plasma magnetic geometry and the mask response function. The mask response $\mathcal{M}$ can be understood as the system response to a single plane wave mode in the plasma. In this formulation, it represents the actual response of the system, including all physical effects such as diffraction of the beam through the narrow mask slit. Details of the model and experimental verification of $\mathcal{M}$ will be discussed further in Sec. IV A; however, the basic form is a peak at $\alpha=\alpha'$ falling to zero in both directions with a width proportional to $1/k$. Thus, the contribution from a small region in $z$ is broadened out into a finite range in mask angle, limiting the resolution of the reconstruction. Equivalently, the convolution integral in Eq. (9) can be expressed as a multiplication in transform space, and thus the mask response function can also be thought of as a form of low-pass filter. The goal is then to deconvolve the measured spectra and map to plasma chord coordinates, yielding a localized measurement of turbulence power spectra. When interpreting these results, we must note that localized PCI measurements are not only spatially localized along the PCI chord but also in $k$ space. This follows from the observation that the PCI measures fluctuations propagating perpendicular to the chord (e.g., $k_z$ has finite components in both $k_\perp$, $k_\parallel$ at the plasma edge but $k_z=k_z$ where the chord is tangent to flux surfaces). It should be noted that this localization technique assumes turbulence with correlation lengths that are small compared to the localized chord segment $\mathcal{L}$. In the range of wave numbers of interest for high-$k$ measurements, $\mathcal{L} < 1$ cm and $\mathcal{L} > 5$ cm. This ensures that fluctuation spectral power will add incoherently, which is a reasonable assumption for high-$k$ drift wave turbulence. It should be noted that for longer wavelength fluctuations (where the localization technique is not used), $L_C$ can become longer than 1 cm.

III. DIII-D EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

A. DIII-D tokamak

DIII-D is a medium-sized ($R=1.66$ m, $a=0.67$ m) diverted tokamak with a carbon first wall. Auxiliary heating is provided by neutral beams ($P_{\text{inj}} < 16$ MW), ICRF ($P_{\text{source}} < 6$ MW), and ECH ($P_{\text{source}} < 4$ MW). Typical ranges for plasma parameters are $B_0=1.5–2$ T, $I_p=1–2$ MA, $\bar{n}_e=(1-5)\times10^{19}$ m$^{-3}$, $T_{\text{e}}=2–10$ keV, and $T_{\text{i}}=1–4$ keV. To estimate the regime of high-$k$ ETG modes on DIII-D, we take $T_e=1$ keV, $L_n=L_T=a=0.67$ m, and $B_0=1.5$ T. Thus $v_\perp=1.3\times10^7$ m/s and $\rho_s=0.05$ mm. The strongest ETG growth is expected near $k_z\rho_s,\sim0.2$, which corresponds to roughly $k_z\sim40$ cm$^{-1}$ at $T_e=1$ keV, though the parameters vary widely between different plasma discharges. Modeling predicts a frequency for ETG modes of $f=0.2(k_z\rho_s)v_{\perp}/(2\pi L_T)^2$. This is about 100 kHz near the peak growth, again assuming $L_T=a$. However, given that the high $k$ spectrum peaks near the edge, $L_T$ may be 0.1a or less, and the frequency would be 1 MHz even without Doppler shift.

B. PCI hardware

The DIII-D PCI uses a 20 W, 10.6 $\mu$m CO$_2$ laser as its probe beam (see Fig. 1). The reflective phase plate consists of a ZnSe substrate with a gold reflective coating that has a groove of depth $\lambda/8$ cut through the plate diameter. The majority of the PCI system is located on an optics table in the machine hall. On this table, the PCI beam is expanded to a diameter of 5 cm and is collimated. It then leaves the optics of a ZnSe substrate with a gold reflective coating.
and 2.0 mm) that provide flexibility in system magnification, beam size in the plasma, and mask placement.

The PCI uses a two lens imaging system that consists of 1.5 in. diameter planoconvex ZnSe optics. The optics must be large enough to accommodate the larger scattering angles of high-k fluctuations. The image system layout determines the overall magnification and thus the effective spacing of detector elements in the plasma. This provides the Nyquist wave number $k_{\text{Nyquist}}$ and is chosen to select the region in wave number space to diagnose. The PCI detector is a photovoltaic array of 16 HgMnTe elements with bandwidth greater than 10 MHz. The detector operates well within its saturation limits as the central uncoated strip of the phase plate acts as a partial reflector with a reflection coefficient of 17%. Additionally, the cylindrical lenses (described in more detail in Sec. III C) are only used for high-$k$ measurements where the increased system magnification results in decreased laser intensity at the detector plane.

The current PCI chord is in phase I geometry as shown in Fig. 1. However, an upgrade is planned that will move the chord into phase II geometry using the R-2 port, shown by the dashed line in Fig. 1. This will give the PCI access to $r/a \sim 0.4$ and thus the foot of the internal transport barrier (ITB). It has been suggested by recent theoretical work that to observe pure ETG modes one should look in the shear stabilized ITG regimes, such as in ITBs where the nonlinearly upshifted ITG cascade modes would be stabilized by the strong $E_r$, shear.

C. Recent upgrades

As previously described, the PCI localization improves with the increasing wave number. Empirical data show that PCI turbulence amplitude spectra fall as $1/k$. Therefore, it is necessary that the diagnostic have adequate signal-to-noise ratio for the full time dependent analysis to improve resolution beyond that defined by Eq. (7). Although the PCI technique is inherently very sensitive (it is used to measure density perturbations from rf waves on Alcator C–Mod) electron-scale fluctuations appear to be one to two orders of magnitude smaller in amplitude than the ion-scale counterparts. The DIII-D PCI has therefore received hardware upgrades over the past 2 years to improve system signal-to-noise ratio. New low noise amplifier/filter circuits were designed using modern components and fabrication techniques. These high-pass filters eliminate large amplitude, low frequency noise caused by mirror vibration. The PCI data transmission system, which sends output from the system detectors to digitizers located in the DIII-D annex, was upgraded using fiber optic links designed by Analog Modules of Longwood, FL. These links increase dynamic range to 55 dB over a bandwidth of 10 MHz. The system-wide noise floor is now at the thermal limit of the HgMnTe detectors.

To further improve system signal-to-noise ratio, cylindrical lenses are used in the imaging system to compress the beam along the axis perpendicular to the detector array, increasing signal intensity by a factor of 2–5 without affecting the imaging properties. This signal enhancing optical setup requires dual cylindrical lenses to break the imaging into independent orthogonal systems parallel and perpendicular to the detector array. Both axes must have image planes coincident with the detector array. This setup can be configured with a cylindrical lens focusing along each axis or with both cylindrical lenses focusing along the same axis. By using the configuration with both lenses focusing along the same axis, the lenses may be removed without the need to readjust the rest of the system optics to return to a traditional imaging configuration.

D. Mapping

An understanding of the chord mapping is needed to translate between scattered pitch angle and plasma location, to calculate $|dz/d\alpha|$, and to represent the PCI measured wave vector (perpendicular to the chord) in terms of the more physically relevant $(k_r, k_\theta)$ components. The mapping from PCI chord height to scattering pitch angle $\alpha(z)$ depends on the specific magnetic geometry and is not always a monotonic function. Nonmonotonic mappings are more pronounced as the PCI chord passes closer to the plasma core.

Figure 5(a) shows PCI chord mappings for two PCI chord locations in a lower single null (LSN) L-mode plasma with $q_{95}=5.5$. Here, $q_{95}$ is the tokamak safety factor evaluated at the 95% flux surface. Currently in use is the PCI phase I geometry, which is restricted to the outer plasma region, while the planned phase II geometry reaches the plasma interior [see Fig. 5(c)].

From the mappings shown in Fig. 5(b), it is clear that phase II geometry suffers from nonmonotonic mappings near the chord edges. This feature is worse for large $q_{95}$ where the poloidal field becomes relatively weak due to peaked current profiles. However, even at $q_{95}=5.5$, the mapping in the inner region of the PCI chord $0.4 < r/a < 0.55$ is single valued and the localization technique will be particularly useful in isolating turbulence from the shear regions of the ITB.

In the current phase I geometry, the mapping is generally well behaved for the lower portion of the PCI chord while the upper portion of the chord ($z > 0.3$) can become difficult to resolve and even nonmonotonic [see Fig. 6(a)]. The best localization will be achieved where the PCI chord is tangent.
to flux surfaces and thus at the closest approach to the plasma core. As can be seen in Fig. 6(b), the ability to localize fluctuations is better for lower \( q_{95} \) due to fluctuations being spread over a larger range in scattered pitch angle in the focal plane. Here we define \( \Delta \alpha \) as the full range of scattered pitch angle,

\[
\Delta \alpha = \alpha_{\text{max}} - \alpha_{\text{min}}. \tag{10}
\]

In the current geometry, the upper edge of the PCI chord suffers from large chord mapping density per unit mask pitch angle \( |dz/d\alpha| \) for many magnetic geometries. This feature is one reason the proper analysis based on Eq. (9) is essential to determining the spatial variation in the turbulence from the PCI data. Care is thus needed when interpreting localized spectral measurements, as will be discussed further in Sec. IV B.

E. Mask focal plane

Conceptually, the mask is imagined as coincident with the surface of the phase plate. Practically, this cannot be realized because the mask must be slightly separated from the phase plate to allow rotation. This small offset would cause the mask to block all radiation because of the narrowness of the slit and the angle of reflection off the phase plate. However, any optical system obeying geometric optics has multiple focal planes (i.e., locations where a perfectly collimated PCI laser would form a waist). The mask is placed at one of the secondary focal planes, which is optically equivalent to placement at the phase plate focal plane. The placement, shown in Fig. 7, permits proper operation of the mask and also provides an arbitrary magnification, allowing the beam focus spot size to be optimized for a given mask slit width. Placing the mask very close to the phase plate may be possible on systems that use a transmissive phase plate, but this is probably not practical on a tokamak PCI due to the small range in scattered pitch angle [see Eq. (6)] and hence tight tolerances.

A similar localization technique is currently in use on the large helical device (LHD) heliotron, which has a poloidal field much larger than that in a tokamak. Rather than a mask, they use a two-dimensional detector to record the data and then fit the data to estimate \( S(\zeta, k) \). While LHD has a scattering pitch angle full range \( \Delta \alpha \sim 80^\circ \), this adaptation can operate in a region of smaller \( \Delta \alpha \) using asymmetric magnification (the so-called “zoom” mode technique) making it potentially tractable for a tokamak device. However, the spatial resolution and wave number resolution are directly related to the number of detector channels. For a tokamak with much smaller \( \Delta \alpha \) (typically 12°), the rotating mask technique has the potential to achieve greater spatial resolution at high wave number with more modest detector and digitizer requirements.

IV. TESTS AND CHARACTERIZATION

A. Laboratory tests

As described in Sec. II B, the ability to properly interpret localized measurements made by a rotating mask system requires accurate knowledge of the mask response function \( M \) in Eq. (9). The mask response function is defined as the system response to a single plane wave mode in the plasma. This response is dependent on the focused beam structure.
(e.g., presence of higher order modes), the mask slit width, and the diffraction of both the scattered and unscattered beams through the mask slit.

The model used for computing $\mathcal{M}$ consists of the following assumptions. Gaussian electric field profiles incident on the mask plane for both the scattered and unscattered beams, the mask acts to zero the electric field where the incident beam profile is blocked by the mask plate, and that the mask plate is infinitely thin and the unblocked portion of the beam is not affected. With this as a starting point, the electric field at the detector plane for both the scattered and unscattered beams, the mask acts to zero the electric field where the beam is not affected. With this as a starting point, the electric field at the detector plane is the interference of the propagated scattered and unscattered beams, the mask acts to zero the electric field where the beam is not blocked and $\mathcal{M}=0$ where the beam is blocked by the mask plate.

Ignoring diffraction effects, the mask function is then simply the ratio of two Gaussian electric field profiles incident on the mask plate for both the scattered and unscattered beams, the mask acts to zero the electric field where the beam is blocked by the mask plate. Thus the total electric field at the detector plane is the interference of the propagated scattered and unscattered beams, the mask acts to zero the electric field where the beam is not blocked and $\mathcal{M}=0$ where the beam is blocked by the mask plate.

Ignoring diffraction effects, the mask function is then simply the ratio of two Gaussian electric field profiles incident on the mask plate for both the scattered and unscattered beams, the mask acts to zero the electric field where the beam is blocked by the mask plate. Thus the total electric field at the detector plane is the interference of the propagated scattered and unscattered beams, the mask acts to zero the electric field where the beam is not blocked and $\mathcal{M}=0$ where the beam is blocked by the mask plate.

We introduce the clipping function $K(x; \alpha', l)$ where $\alpha'$ is the mask plate angle (see Fig. 3) and $l$ is the mask slit width. The value of the function $K$ is unity over the region of the mask slit where the beam is not blocked and $K=0$ where the beam is blocked by the mask plate.

The scalar diffraction model agrees well with measurements of the mask response structure as shown in Fig. 8 where the symbols are the measured mask response function using the cw ultrasound loudspeaker and the solid line is the calculated response using the scalar diffraction model. The scalar diffraction model shown as solid lines.

Measurements of the mask response were obtained by using an ultrasonic loudspeaker provided by Ultra Sound Advice, UK. Originally developed for bat research, this loudspeaker is a broadband cw ultrasound device capable of 85 dB sound pressure level from 30 kHz to greater than 150 kHz. Using ultrasound in air at these frequencies allows the launching of single wave number modes from 6 to 40 cm$^{-1}$. If the 5 cm loudspeaker membrane is placed within 3 cm of the PCI laser beam, then the sound wave front radius of curvature is large and the wave fronts are sufficiently planar to use for mask response function measurements. These data were obtained over a range in wave numbers from 6 to 27 cm$^{-1}$.

The scalar diffraction model agrees well with measurements of the mask response structure as shown in Fig. 8 where the symbols are the measured mask response function using the cw ultrasound loudspeaker and the solid line is the calculated response using the scalar diffraction model. While the calculated response scale is absolute, the data are fit using an arbitrary amplitude factor to account for the variations in response of the cw loudspeaker. The peak response of the 0.5 mm mask slit is $\sim 60\%$ of that of the 1.0 mm slit because the laser focal spot size ($w_0$) at the mask plane has a $1/e$ electric field radius of 0.28 mm. Thus, even when the response is maximum ($\alpha=\alpha'$), the smaller 0.5 mm mask slit provides substantial clipping and diffraction that results in a lower system signal-to-noise ratio.

Figure 9 plots the measured and modeled full width at half maximum (FWHM) of the mask response function versus wave number range shows good agreement for all mask slit widths. Measurements using cw ultrasound loudspeaker shown as symbols and scalar diffraction model shown as solid lines.
sus wave number for three different mask slit widths (2.0, 1.0, and 0.5 mm). As expected, the measured widths for each wave number scale as 1/k. Solid lines are the calculated FWHM from the scalar diffraction model. Agreement is good with a relative error generally less than 5%. At higher frequencies, the loudspeaker membrane appears to vibrate in modes other than the fundamental making mask response measurements at high k difficult. The 2.0 mm mask slit provides poor resolution due to its broad response shown by the large FWHM measurements. While the 0.5 mm mask slit has the narrowest FWHM and therefore the best resolution, it causes an undesirable amount of diffraction and signal-to-noise ratio is degraded as previously described. The 1.0 mm mask slit is generally used as it provides a good compromise between resolution and signal-to-noise ratio.

B. Plasma tests

While calibration data can be collected under ideal conditions, plasma turbulence measurements have the contradictory requirements of long time averaging for improved signal-to-noise ratio and short time averaging for responsiveness to changing plasma conditions. The rotating mask analysis technique thus requires a balancing of integration times to yield quality localized measurements. The practical rate at which localized measurements can be recorded is less than the hardware limitation of 100 profiles/s and is set by system noise, the desired spatial resolution, and the desired frequency resolution.

The analysis procedure consists of computing power spectra every 2/δf seconds where δf is the desired frequency resolution. These power spectra are then averaged over multiple realizations, typically 2<N<16. Sampling in the mask angle domain is therefore α_{i+1}−α_i=2πNF/δf, where F is the mask rotation rate in profiles/s. This sets the grid on which Eq. (9) is inverted, and ultimately the maximum spatial resolution Δz=(α_{i+1})−(α_i). Further averaging can be performed over multiple mask profiles provided the plasma conditions remain stationary. The parameters δf and F are varied to optimize the analysis for each experiment so better spatial and frequency resolution are produced for plasmas with long steady-state periods.

Measurements during various plasma conditions have been made with the new rotating mask system. Plasma data have been obtained that show S/N>1 for k≤25 cm⁻¹ and calibrations using ultrasonic waves have confirmed proper operation of the PCI to at least k=37 cm⁻¹. While system signal-to-noise ratio is the current limiting factor in spatial resolution of the localization technique, the DIII-D PCI shows unmistakable structure in the measured spectrum as a function of mask angle. The following data are presented to best illustrate the analysis procedure of this localization technique.

Figure 10 plots a measured fluctuation power spectrum [S(α′;k)] as in Eq. (9)] during ECH heating of an L-mode discharge showing PCI signal integrated from 150 to 300 kHz, and S/N>1 for k≤20 cm⁻¹. The vertical lines represent the edges of the plasma. Two distinct features are immediately apparent. (1) The mask response does indeed get narrower as k increases and (2) turbulence is highly asymmetric with respect to inward/outward propagation. The measured power spectrum extends beyond the LCFS (shown by vertical lines in Fig. 10) due to the finite width of the mask response function. Recall that PCI measures wave vectors perpendicular to the viewing chord and that the PCI beam is nearly vertical (+z direction); by convention we define positive k as approximately radially outward (+R̂) and negative k as radially inward (−R̂). Inward propagating modes are particularly strong at the bottom of the PCI chord (negative mask angle edge). These features were verified by rotating the mask in the opposite direction during a repeat shot, thus instead of sweeping through the plasma from bottom to top of the PCI chord, the localized volume sweeps from top to bottom; the measured fluctuation power as a function of time reversed as expected.

The DIII-D PCI has previously measured turbulence amplitude spectra to scale as 1/k. Since the localization becomes better at high k, analysis of the rotating mask data is limited by low signal-to-noise ratio at high k. Currently, analysis is being performed by choosing a parametrized trial function for S(α;k) and varying the parameters to minimize the error between S(α;k) calculated from the trial function [via Eq. (9)] and the observed S(α′;k). This process is necessary because the inversion of Eq. (9) is ill-conditioned; the spectral structure of M will lead to erroneous noise amplification even under a Weiner LTI filtering approach. The trial function S(α;k) used in the initial analysis is chosen to be a sum of N Gaussians uniformly spaced in α (i.e., α_i = α_{min} + i δα where δα=(α_{max}−α_{min})/N and i=0,...,N−1). The Gaussian widths scale to be smaller as more Gaussians are introduced (by increasing N), allowing the widths to scale proportional to the width of the mask response function M(α−α;k). The Gaussians located at i=0 and i=N−1 are “clipped” such that no fluctuation power is allowed beyond the mapping extrema α_{min} and α_{max}. Each Gaussian’s amplitude β_i is a parameter used in the fitting process. Therefore, the parameterized trial function can be written as

![](image)
This trial function is continuous over the valid domain in \( \alpha \)-space and has structure characteristic of the width of the mask response function. Figure 11 shows that \( \hat{S}(\alpha';k) \) reconstructed from the trial function accurately reproduces the observed \( \hat{S}(\alpha';k) \).

Examples of the turbulence power spectrum \( S(z;k) \) calculated using this technique are shown in Fig. 12. It is clear that the peaking of power spectra at the mapping extrema \( (\alpha_{\text{min}}, \alpha_{\text{max}}) \) is not solely due to peaking in the chord mapping density \( d\alpha/\alpha \). Figure 12 shows PCI turbulence power for \( k = \pm 9.6 \text{ cm}^{-1} \) with and without ECH heating from the same discharge as Fig. 10. In both heating regimes, turbulence peaks at the plasma chord edges. ECH heating increases the outward propagating modes at both edges while marginally altering the inward propagating turbulence modes.

V. SUMMARY

Modifications to the DIII-D PCI diagnostic have been designed and implemented to make the first spatially localized PCI measurements of a tokamak plasma. The difficulties in applying this technique to the small \( B_\theta/B_\phi \) plasmas in a tokamak required a novel version of the pitch angle masking technique. Calibrations show operation of the system to be very close to the theoretical expectations.

Spatial localization is improved at higher wave numbers, and this is part of a general program to operate the DIII-D PCI diagnostic with the goal of measuring plasma fluctuations with wave numbers up to 40 cm\(^{-1}\). Initial results show that the PCI can provide localized measurements with \( S/N > 1 \) for \( k \leq 25 \text{ cm}^{-1} \); the example shown provides an instance of turbulence near 10 cm\(^{-1}\) peaking at the plasma edge.

Calibrations using ultrasonic waves in air confirm that this new capability provides measurements in the range of \( 2 < k < 30 \text{ cm}^{-1}, \ 10 \text{ kHz} < f < 10 \text{ MHz} \), and analysis of magnetic field mappings generally result in a radial range of \( 0.7 < r/a < 1 \). Localized PCI measurements will be a valuable tool for measuring short wavelength turbulence in order to understand electron scale heat transport as well as testing the validity of various theoretical models of turbulent transport.

The implementation of PCI as a turbulence diagnostic is comparatively simple. The requirements for in-vessel equipment are minimal; it operates over a wide range of plasma parameters, it provides continuous measurements over a range of wave numbers, and the diagnostic is completely nonperturbative. These factors make PCI ideal for measuring turbulence in future reactor-relevant machines.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This is a report of work supported by the U.S. Department of Energy under Grant Nos. DE-FC02-04ER54698 and DE-FG02-94ER54235. The authors would also like to thank General Atomics and the DIII-D team for their support.

5 W. M. Nevins, J. Candy, S. Cowley, T. Dannert, A. Dimits, W. Dorland,