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Detailed Terms
Turbulent Transport and Heating of Trace Heavy Ions in Hot Magnetized Plasmas

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Scaling laws for the transport and heating of trace heavy ions in low-frequency magnetized plasma turbulence are derived and compared with direct numerical simulations. The predicted dependences of turbulent fluxes and heating on ion charge and mass number are found to agree with numerical results for both stationary and differentially rotating plasmas. Heavy ion momentum transport is found to increase with mass, and heavy ions are found to be preferentially heated, implying a mass-dependent ion temperature for very weakly collisional plasmas and for partially ionized heavy ions in strongly rotating plasmas.

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Introduction.—Heavy ions are present in hot magnetized plasmas both in laboratory experiments and in nature. These heavy ions are often trace; i.e., their densities are small enough that they only have a small direct effect on the bulk plasma dynamics. Nonetheless, trace heavy ions are important in numerous contexts: main ion properties are often inferred from heavy ion measurements because heavy ions radiate more readily [1], accumulation of heavy ions leads to dilution and increased radiative energy losses in magnetic confinement fusion [2,3], and temperature measurements of minority ions in space and astrophysical plasmas indicate the existence of a novel heating mechanism [4–6].

Considerable effort has gone into understanding the particle transport of trace heavy ions, or impurities, in the context of magnetized toroidal plasmas for fusion. In particular, the scaling with charge number Z and mass number A of the impurity particle flux were predicted with a quasilinear fluid model and found to be in relatively good agreement with numerical and experimental results [7,8]. However, little to no work has been done on impurity momentum and energy fluxes or for turbulent heating of impurities. The latter may play a role not only in fusion plasmas but also in the context of astrophysical plasmas, where the temperature of minority ions has been observed to increase with increasing ion mass [4–6]. Cyclotron heating [9] and stochastic heating via large-amplitude fluctuations [10] have been proposed as possible explanations for this mass dependence. The turbulent heating mechanism described here provides an alternative explanation for the mass dependence of the minority ion temperature that is present even for low-frequency, low-amplitude fluctuations.

In this Letter, we use local, nonlinear, δf gyrokinetic theory [11–13] to provide scaling predictions for trace heavy ion particle, momentum, and energy fluxes as well as turbulent heating in hot magnetized plasmas. This approach has proven successful in determining scalings of temperature-gradient-driven turbulence in tokamaks [14]. We consider an inhomogeneous, axisymmetric plasma rotating toroidally at angular frequency ωa immersed in a curved inhomogeneous magnetic field. To simplify our analysis, we restrict our attention to a region of plasma with rotation speed well below the ion sound speed but with a strong rotation gradient. We also consider only moderate values of β = 8πp/B2 ≤ 1, where p is the mean plasma pressure and B is the mean magnetic field magnitude. This is directly applicable to toroidal confinement experiments in magnetic confinement fusion, but the scaling laws we obtain are general: they do not change for a stationary, homogeneous plasma slab and therefore also pertain to various space and astrophysical plasmas.

Gyrokinetic turbulence.—The δf gyrokinetic theory is obtained by performing an asymptotic expansion in the small ratio of the Larmor radius, ρ, to system size, L, and averaging over the fast Larmor motion of particles. It is valid for low-amplitude turbulence with sub-Larmor frequencies and spatial scales comparable to ρ and L in the directions across and along the mean magnetic field, respectively. Initially developed for magnetic confinement fusion plasmas, δf gyrokinetics can also be applied to small-scale turbulence in the solar wind, the solar corona, accretion disks, and galaxy clusters [15,16].

We use (R, μ, ϵ) as our coordinate system, where R is the position of the center of a particle’s Larmor orbit, ϵ = mv2/2 is its kinetic energy, and μ = mv⊥2/B is its magnetic moment, with m its mass and v its speed. The subscripts ⊥ and || are used to denote the components perpendicular and parallel to the mean magnetic field, respectively, with the magnetic field magnitude given by B. With this choice of coordinates, the electromagnetic gyrokinetic equation governing the evolution of the fluctuating piece of the distribution function δf is
\[
\frac{Dg_s}{Dt} + \mathbf{R}_s \cdot \nabla \left( g_s + \frac{Z_s e(\chi_3)}{T_s} F_{M,s} \right) - \langle C[\delta f_s] \rangle_s
\]
\[
= -\langle \nabla f_{s,M,s} \rangle \cdot \left( \nabla F_{M,s} + R \nabla \omega_\phi \right) \frac{m_v n_v}{T_s} F_{M,s}, \tag{1}
\]
where \( g_s = \delta f_s + Z_s eF_{M,s} / T_s \), \( \langle \chi_3 \rangle_s \) is an average over Larmor angle at fixed \( \mathbf{R}_s \), \( \langle \chi_3 \rangle_s = \langle \Phi - \nu [\delta A_{||}/c + f_0^2 \cdot d\mu_x \delta B_{||}/Z_s e] \rangle_s \). \( \Phi \) is the fluctuating electrostatic potential, \( \delta A_{||} \) and \( \delta B_{||} \) are the parallel components of the fluctuating magnetic vector potential and magnetic field, respectively, \( Z_s \) is the charge number, \( e \) is the speed of light, \( T_s \) is the mean temperature, \( F_{M,s} \) is a stationary Maxwellian distribution of velocities in the frame rotating with velocity \( \mathbf{u} = R^2 \omega_\phi \nabla \phi \), \( \phi \) is the toroidal angle, \( R \) is the plasma major radius, \( D/Dr = \partial \delta t + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{R}_s = \mathbf{v}_\parallel + \mathbf{v}_{M,s} + \langle \chi_3 \rangle_s \), with \( \mathbf{v}_{M,s} = \mathbf{b}/\Omega_s \times (\mathbf{v}_\parallel \cdot \nabla \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{v}_\parallel^2 \nabla B/2B) \) the drift velocity due to a converging inhomogeneous magnetic field and \( \langle \chi_3 \rangle_s = \mathbf{c} \times \nabla \phi / \mathbf{b} \) the drift due to the fluctuating fields, \( \mathbf{b} \) the unit vector along the mean magnetic field, \( \Omega_s = Z_s eB/m_ec \), and \( C \) descriptive of two-particle Coulomb interactions. Plasma species is indicated by the subscript \( s \), which henceforth drop where possible.

Note that the fields \( \Phi, \delta A_{||}, \text{ and } \delta B_{||} \) are independent of Larmor angle at fixed particle position \( \mathbf{r} \) but not at fixed \( \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{r} + \mathbf{v}_\perp \times \mathbf{b}/\Omega_s \). Thus, care must be taken to specify which spatial coordinate is held fixed for velocity integration. The \( \mu \) integral contained in \( \langle \chi_3 \rangle_s \) is performed at fixed \( \mathbf{R} \), but all other velocity integrals in this Letter are performed at fixed \( \mathbf{r} \).

By definition, the trace ions considered here do not contribute to the fields. They are instead determined solely by the electron and main ion dynamics through the low-frequency Maxwell equations, supplemented by the quasi-neutrality constraint,
\[
0 = \sum_s Z_s \int d^3v \delta f_s, \tag{2}
\]
\[
\nabla_\perp^2 \delta A_{||} = -\frac{4\pi}{c} \sum_s Z_s e \int d^3v \mathbf{b} \cdot \delta f_s, \tag{3}
\]
\[
\nabla_\perp \delta B_{||} = \frac{4\pi}{c} \sum_s Z_s e \int d^3v (\mathbf{b} \times \mathbf{v}_\perp) \delta f_s, \tag{4}
\]
where \( \Phi \) enters Eqs. (2)–(4) through the definition for \( \delta f \) given below Eq. (1).

With \( g \) and \( \langle \Phi, \delta A_{||}, \delta B_{||} \rangle \) specified by Eqs. (1)–(4), one can evaluate the turbulent heating and fluxes,
\[
H = Z e \langle \chi_3(\mathbf{v}_\parallel + \mathbf{v}_\parallel) \cdot \nabla g - \langle C[\delta f_3] \rangle \rangle \Lambda - \Pi \frac{\partial \omega_\phi}{\partial r}, \tag{5}
\]
\[
\Gamma = \langle \delta f(\chi_3) \cdot \nabla r \rangle \Lambda, \tag{6}
\]
where \( r \) labels surfaces of constant mean pressure, \( \langle \alpha \rangle_\Lambda = \int d^3r \int d^3v \alpha / \int d^3r \), and \( g = g_0 + g_1 + \ldots \) in powers of \( A^{1/2} \). Here, \( A \) is the heavy ion to proton mass ratio and \( v_i \) is the main ion thermal speed. We assume the ratio of the ion–ion collision time, \( \tau_{ii} \), to the fluctuation time, \( \tau_s \), is sufficiently long \( \tau_{ii}/\tau_s \gg Z^2/A^{1/2} \) that collisions may be neglected in our analysis. In what follows, we keep \( Z \) and \( A \) dependences separate so that we can consider the subsidiary expansion \( A^{1/2} \ll Z \ll A \).

Because the heavy ions are trace, their space and time scales are those of the bulk plasma turbulence. Thus, \( Z \) and \( A \) only enter Eq. (1) through explicit factors of \( m, v, v_{i}, T_s \), and as well as through \( g \) itself. In what follows, we assume the ratio of the heavy ion to proton temperature is much smaller than \( A \), giving \( v_i \sim A^{-1/2} \). The two lowest-order equations in our expansion are thus
\[
\frac{Dg_0}{Dt} + \langle \mathbf{v}_E \rangle \cdot \nabla g_0 = -\frac{Ze}{T} F_{M} \mathbf{v}_\parallel \cdot \nabla \langle \Phi \rangle
\]
\[
-\frac{m_v n_v}{T} F_{M} \langle \mathbf{v}_E \rangle \cdot R \nabla \omega_\phi, \tag{9}
\]
\[
\frac{Dg_1}{Dt} + \langle \mathbf{v}_E \rangle \cdot \nabla g_1 + \mathbf{v}_\parallel (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{b}_1) \cdot \nabla g_0
\]
\[
= -\frac{ZeF_{M}}{T} \left[ \mathbf{v}_\parallel \cdot \nabla \langle \Phi \rangle + \frac{v_i}{c} \mathbf{b} \cdot \nabla (\langle \delta A_{||} \rangle) \right]
\]
\[
-\frac{m_v^2}{T} F_{M} \langle \mathbf{b}_1 \rangle \cdot R \nabla \omega_\phi - \langle \mathbf{v}_E \rangle \cdot \nabla F_{M}, \tag{10}
\]
where \( \mathbf{v}_E = c \mathbf{b} \times \nabla \Phi / B \) and \( \mathbf{b}_1 = \mathbf{b} \times \nabla \delta A_{||} / B \).

There are two possible scalings for both \( g_0 \) and \( g_1 \) due to a competition between terms with different \( A \) and \( Z \) dependences in Eqs. (9) and (10). In particular, \( g_0 \simeq Z/A^{1/2} \) or \( A^{1/2} \), with the two scalings coming from the parallel electric field and rotation gradient source terms in Eq. (9), respectively. Using these scalings in Eq. (10) gives \( g_1 \simeq 1 \) or \( Z/A \). The number of such possible scalings is reduced by considering the cases where either the parallel electric field or rotation gradient source terms dominate in Eq. (9), corresponding to \( |d \omega_\phi / dr| \ll (Z/A) v_{i} / R^2 \) and
Our scalings indicate that \( g_0(\nu) \) is a solution to Eq. (9), then \( -g_0(-\nu) \) is also a solution. Thus, \( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\nu \left[ g_0(\Phi, \delta A_i, \delta B_\parallel) \right] = 0 \), where the overline denotes a statistical average. As a result, \( g_0 \) does not contribute to the lowest-order heating or particle and heat fluxes, Eqs. (5)–(7), whose integrands are otherwise even functions of \( \nu \). Conversely, the lowest-order momentum flux integrand has a component proportional to \( m\nu^2 \), so \( \Pi \sim m\nu^2 g_0 \approx A^{1/2}g_0 \). Using our scalings for \( g_0 \), we see that \( \Pi \) has competing terms scaling as \( Z/A \) and \( A \).

Note that Eq. (10) has a \( \nu \parallel \) symmetry opposite that of Eq. (9): if \( g_1(\nu) \) is a solution, then \( g_1(-\nu) \) is also a solution. For all higher-order equations, one can show that the symmetry in \( \nu \parallel \) alternates between that of Eqs. (9) and (10). As a result, the only components of \( g \) that contribute to the particle and heat fluxes and heating are \( g_1, g_3 \), etc. Using Eqs. (6) and (7), we have \( \{ F, Q \} \sim g_1 \), which in the general case has competing terms scaling as \( Z/A \) and 1 (no \( Z \) or \( A \) dependence), respectively.

The first term in the heating expression, (5), is the Joule heating and is scaled up by an explicit factor of \( Z/A \). The viscous heating is proportional to \( \Pi \), which in the general case has competing terms scaling as \( Z^2/A \). For all higher-order equations, one can show that \( v \) is also a solution to Eq. (11), \( H \) becomes comparable to the heat flux \( Q \) so that \( H \) is no longer required to be positive definite. Our theory thus predicts that heavy ions will be hotter than light ions by a factor of \( A \sim Z \) but only if turbulent heating is greater than collisional temperature equilibration.

The collisional temperature equilibration of the main ions, \( i \), and a trace heavy ion species, \( s \), is \( \mathcal{E}_s = 2\sqrt{2}(Z_s^2/A_i)n_i\Delta T_s/\tau_{i,i} \), where \( \Delta T_s = T_s - T_i \). From Eq. (5), we estimate \( H_s \sim S_n T_s (\delta n_i/n_i)^2/\tau_s \), where \( S \) is the scaling of \( H \) with \( A \) and \( Z \) given in Table I, and we have assumed \( \mathcal{E}_s = e\Phi/T_i - \delta n_i/n_i - \delta n_s/n_s \). Balancing \( H_s \) and \( \mathcal{E}_s \) gives \( \Delta T_s/T_i \sim S(A/Z)^2(\tau_{i,i}/\tau_i)(\delta n_i/n_i)^2 \sim S(A/Z^2)\tau_{i,i}/\tau_E \), with \( \tau_E \) the characteristic time scale over which the equilibrium density and temperature vary.

**Numerical results.**—To test our predictions for the scalings of turbulent transport and heating, we employ the local \( \delta f \) gyrokinetic code GS2 [23]. We consider an axisymmetric system with sheared magnetic field lines mapping out nested toroidal surfaces with circular cross sections (the Cyclone base case [24], parametrized with the Miller local equilibrium model [25]). Each simulation is electrostatic and includes kinetic electrons as well as kinetic main and trace heavy ions with a wide range of \( Z \) and \( A \) values. The turbulence is driven by gradients in the mean ion and electron densities and temperatures, with \( R_0 (d\ln n/d\rho) = 2.2 \) for the electrons and main ions, \( R_0 (d\ln T/\rho) = 6.9 \) for all species, and \( R_0 \) the major radius at the center of the constant pressure surface. The collision frequency is chosen small, \( \tau_{i,i}^{-1}(a/v_{is}) = 0.001 \), so that heavy ion collisions do not affect our scalings.

Two sets of simulations were carried out: one with a stationary plasma \( (d\omega_\phi/d\rho = 0) \) and one with a differentially rotating plasma \( (d\omega_\phi/d\rho = 4.67v_{is}/R^2) \). The simulation results are shown in Figs. 1–4. Data points for fluxes and heating at various \( Z \) and \( A \) values are plotted as solid circles and fit using a least-squares analysis with the predicted lowest-order \( Z \) and \( A \) dependences, as well as the

### TABLE I. Scalings, \( S \), for turbulent fluxes and heating.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>( \frac{d\omega_\phi}{d\rho} )</th>
<th>( \sim Z )</th>
<th>( \frac{\omega_\phi}{A} )</th>
<th>( \sim Z )</th>
<th>( \frac{\omega_\phi}{A} )</th>
<th>( \gg Z )</th>
<th>( \frac{\omega_\phi}{A} )</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>( g_0 )</td>
<td>( A^{1/2} ) or ( Z/A^{1/2} )</td>
<td>( Z/A )</td>
<td>( A^{1/2} )</td>
<td>( A )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( g_1 )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Gamma )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( Q )</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( \Pi )</td>
<td>( A ) or ( Z )</td>
<td>( Z )</td>
<td>( A )</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>( H )</td>
<td>( Z^2/A ), ( A ), or ( Z )</td>
<td>( Z^2/A )</td>
<td>( A ) or ( Z )</td>
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</table>
first-order correction. In each case, the predicted scalings fit the data well. Note that the momentum flux for $d\omega_\phi/dr = 0$ is zero for all species due to a fundamental symmetry of the $\delta f$ gyrokinetic equation [26].

Discussion.—We now discuss the implications of the trace heavy ion scalings derived in this Letter. First, the preferential heating of heavy ions should lead to large temperature disparities between different ion species in nearly collisionless plasmas. In many space and astrophysical plasmas, turbulent heating dominates over collisional equilibration because collisions are rare ($\tau_i/\tau_{ii} \ll \delta n_i^2/n_i^2$), and preferential heating of heavy ions is indeed observed [4,5]. However, for such low collisionalities the equilibrium can deviate strongly from the isotropic Maxwellian assumed in our analysis, which cannot consequently address the large $T_i/T_e$ values observed in coronal holes and the fast solar wind [6].

Using typical parameters for current fusion experiments ($n \sim 3 \times 10^{19} \text{ m}^{-3}$, $T_i \sim 5 \text{ keV}$, and $\tau_E \sim 0.1 \text{ s}$) [27], we estimate turbulent heating to produce the impurity–ion temperature difference $\Delta T_i/T_i \sim 0.15(A/Z^2)$. For rotating plasmas with $S \sim A$, our results indicate that the temperature of fully ionized impurities could differ from the main ions by several tens of percent; heavy ions such as tungsten will be only partially ionized at fusion temperatures, possibly leading to order unity temperature differences [28].

The increased densities and global confinement times expected for future fusion devices should reduce the average temperature difference to $\Delta T_i/T_i \sim 0.015(A/Z^2)$, though this ratio may be larger in localized regions of the plasma.

Because the momentum transport of heavy ions is enhanced by $A$, heavy ions could significantly alter plasma momentum transport for densities as small as $n_i/A$. At this density level impurities cannot be modeled as a trace species, but the trace scalings presented here suggest that...
nontrace impurities may play an important role in determining bulk plasma rotation.

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[28] Note that $\tau_{\text{j}}^{-1}$ is sufficiently small for fusion-relevant temperatures and densities that even impurity—ion collisions, which are more frequent than ion—ion collisions by a factor of $\sim Z^2/A^{1/2}$, are negligible when the heavy ions are only partially ionized.