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# Divertor IR Thermography on Alcator C-Mod

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Alcator C-Mod is a particularly challenging environment for thermography, presenting issues that will similarly face ITER, including: low-emissivity metal targets, low-Z surface films, and closed divertor geometry. In order to make measurements of the incident divertor heat-flux using IR thermography, the C-Mod divertor has been modified and instrumented. A 6° toroidal sector has been given a 2° toroidal ramp in order to eliminate magnetic field-line shadowing by imperfectly aligned divertor tiles. This sector is viewed from above by a toroidally displaced IR camera and is instrumented with thermocouples and calorimeters. The camera provides time-histories of surface temperatures that are used to compute incident heat-flux profiles. The camera sensitivity is calibrated *in-situ* using the embedded thermocouples, thus correcting for changes and non-uniformities in surface emissivity due to surface coatings.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Power handling is one of the primary functions - and most challenging problems - for a tokamak divertor. IR thermography is an important tool that can quantify heat-flux “footprints” at divertor targets<sup>1-5</sup>. On ITER, IR thermography is to be used as the primary diagnostic for a number of important measurements, including

- heat-load profiles on the divertor target plates
- maximum divertor surface temperature
- first-wall surface temperatures

To make the divertor measurements, IR diagnostics within a divertor cassette<sup>6</sup>, as well as divertor imaging by IR and visible systems from the upper vacuum chamber ports are planned. Six of the upper ports are to hold periscope modules that view target sections that are displaced toroidally from the periscopes. An initial design<sup>7</sup> for this “top-viewing” system has been performed. C-Mod has recently upgraded its divertor IR thermography and its capabilities for measuring the divertor heat loads and heat-flux profiles on the targets. In the process we found a number of challenging issues that will also be faced when making similar measurements on ITER. These issues and our experience in addressing them are the primary subject of this report. The shared issues include:

- grazing angles of incidence for magnetic field lines intersecting the targets
- closed divertor geometry with near vertical targets
- oblique observation angles when viewing from above
- shiny, low emissivity refractory targets (W for ITER, Mo & W for C-Mod)
- possible movement or shaking of the image during operation
- low-Z surface films, changing with time
- extremely high peak heat fluxes

## II. IR CAMERA AND PERISCOPE

The IR camera used for the divertor thermography on C-Mod (FLIR Titanium SC7000<sup>8</sup>) detects emission in the 3-5 μm bandpass with 320x256 pixel resolution. The InSb-based detector is cooled to 73° K, and full-frames can be read out at a rate of up

to 383 fr/s, with integration times,  $\tau_{\text{int}}$ , that are set independently of the frame rate. The camera is housed in soft-iron magnetic shield box mounted on the top of a concrete “igloo” that surrounds C-Mod. The box is water-cooled to a temperature of 12-15° C. The camera-body is thermally connected to the box using thermal gel packs, and thus it and its input lens are provided with a stable cool environment. The camera-body temperature is monitored and reported with each data acquisition cycle. This is important because a small, but non-negligible, amount of detected emission comes from the body and input optics.

Laboratory “bench” calibrations with the camera show that clean heated Mo target tiles emit as graybodies. We assume that the tiles of both the viewed first-wall and divertor surfaces remain graybodies. We also assume that the camera-body/lens/periscope system emits as a graybody. Thus the detected signal,  $S$ , is parameterized as

$$S(T_{\text{surf}}, T_{\text{body}}, \tau_{\text{int}}) = \text{Offset}(\tau_{\text{int}}) + \alpha(\tau_{\text{int}})B(T_{\text{body}}) + \beta(\tau_{\text{int}})B(T_{\text{surf}}) \quad (1)$$

where  $B(T)$  is the blackbody emission<sup>9</sup> within the spectral bandpass of the camera for a temperature  $T$ ,  $\alpha$  is a constant times  $\tau_{\text{int}}$ , (determined by varying  $T_{\text{body}}$  while viewing a cold plate), and  $\beta$  is a calibration parameter (also linear in  $\tau_{\text{int}}$ ) that depends on the viewed surface emissivity, the periscope transmission, the detector sensitivity, and the angle with which the surface is viewed. It can be different for each pixel and is determined as described in Section III. “Offset( $\tau_{\text{int}}$ )” is an experimentally-determined parameter dependent only upon  $\tau_{\text{int}}$ . Since the temperature of the viewed surface,  $T_{\text{surf}}$ , is the desired quantity, Eq. (1) is recast as

$$T_{\text{surf}} = B^{-1} \{ [S(T_{\text{surf}}, T_{\text{body}}, \tau_{\text{int}}) - \text{Offset}(\tau_{\text{int}}) - \alpha(\tau_{\text{int}})B(T_{\text{body}})] / \beta(\tau_{\text{int}}) \} \quad (2)$$

where  $B^{-1}$  is the inverse of the blackbody function and all quantities on the right-hand-side are known.

An approximately 36° toroidal section of the outer divertor structure is viewed through a ~5 m long periscope<sup>10</sup>. One length of periscope optics is inserted into a ~2 m long re-entrant tube secured to the tokamak structure. The other section of periscope

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and the camera are securely mounted on the C-Mod “igloo”. The periscope presents an image to the IR camera. Because of small relative motions between the tokamak and camera during the time the magnetic field coils are energized (and especially during plasma disruptions), the image measured by the camera shakes frame-to-frame. ( $\tau_{\text{int}}$  is typically 150  $\mu\text{s}$ , and there is no frame-smearing. Typical frame-to-frame times are 10 ms.) The camera image shakes by tens of pixels during this time. Since stabilization and registration of the image at the single pixel level are crucial for quantitative thermography, image-stabilization algorithms have been developed and are run between shots. These algorithms depend on maximizing the cross-correlation between edge-detecting<sup>11</sup> filtered images and a reference image that has also been filtered with the edge-detecting operator. Most of the edges in the C-Mod images are provided by the target tiles themselves. However, for future campaigns we are modifying a few of the viewed tiles by cutting a simple pattern on them, thus providing a unique pattern of edges in the images to “lock” onto. Registration of view is accomplished by constructing a wire-mesh computer representation of the objects that are visible in the field-of-view (e.g., the target tiles) and by projecting it onto the camera’s image plane. Typical spatial resolution at the divertor target ranges from 1 to 3 mm/pixel, and features (e.g. tiles gaps) of  $\sim 2$  mm size are evident in the images.

### III. THERMOGRAPHY ISSUES

#### A. Grazing field line angles

The field lines striking perfectly aligned outer divertor targets in C-Mod would do so at angles between 0.5 and 1.5 degrees. However, the outer divertor sections are not perfectly aligned, and the combination of grazing field line angles and imperfectly aligned targets results in strong heating of leading edges, asymmetric heat loads, and shadowing of some target surfaces. In order to make valid measurements of the parallel heat flux onto the targets, we have installed, within the field-of-view of the IR periscope, a  $6^\circ$  toroidal section of the outer divertor that has a  $2^\circ$  toroidal ramp. Thus by construction, this ramped section is not shadowed. The ramped section has been instrumented with calorimeters, surface thermocouples, and thermocouples embedded within the target tiles.

#### B. Viewing Issues

A cross-section of C-Mod’s outer divertor target is shown in Fig. 1. When the targets are viewed from above, the closed divertor geometry and near-vertical plate necessitate that the view from above be displaced toroidally. In C-Mod the viewing angles of the target are large, ranging from 35 to 80 degrees away from normal to the target surfaces. Our “bench” calibrations show that the emissivity from a clean Mo divertor tile increases sharply as the view angle increases beyond about 55 degrees. While this effect is present in the measurements on the tokamak, another source for significant variation in surface emissivity is also present, i.e., changing low-Z surface coatings (e.g., boron). A clean Mo target surface has a low emissivity ( $\sim 0.1-0.2$ ), and the coatings increase the emissivity significantly, making *in-situ* calibrations necessary. Additionally, we observe non-thermal emissions (both from the plasma and as a result of reflections from the relatively shiny Mo surfaces) that sometimes contaminate the measurement of surface emission. To correct for these effects, we subtract the non-thermal emission by measuring emission from target regions that are shadowed (by the toroidally ramped section) from the plasma heat flux.

#### C. Calibration and Surface Coatings

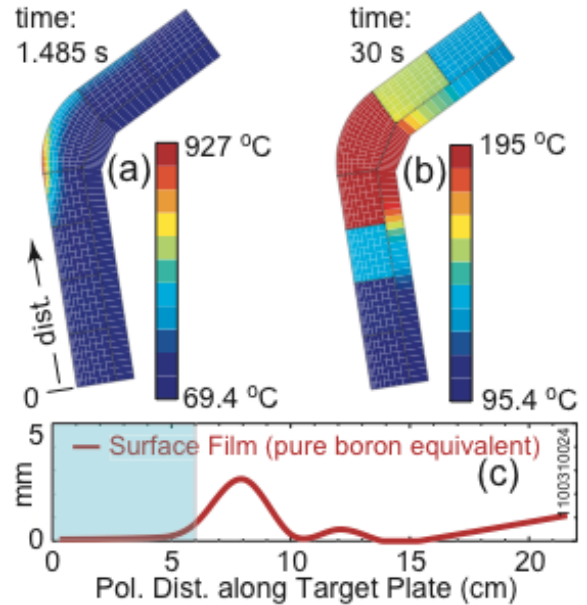


FIG. 1(a) Cross-section of the outer target with temperatures, as modeled by a 2D heat-transport code using IR thermography inputs, 1.485 s into the discharge. (b) Same as (a) but  $\sim 28$ s after discharge termination. (c) Effective surface coating “thickness” of B needed to eliminate negative heat-fluxes. (In the shaded region, the heat-fluxes are too small to derive an effective thickness.)

As noted above, the divertor target surfaces do not remain clean Mo in the tokamak environment. Different surface coatings are produced by periodic boronizations and by plasma surface interactions with both tokamak plasmas and daily pre-operation “discharge cleaning” plasmas. As a result, the “bench” calibrations using clean, heated Mo tiles that relate detected IR intensity to Mo tile surface temperature and viewing angle (i.e. that determine the  $\beta$ s of Eq. 1) did *not* produce accurate target temperatures. Thus the needed sensitivity calibrations are produced after each tokamak pulse by taking IR camera data and tile thermocouple data for at least 25 sec after the discharge termination, at which time the individual tiles have thermally equilibrated as shown in Fig. 1(b). 25-30 sec after the discharge the tiles are still hot and values for  $\beta$  (Eq. 1) are chosen such that the intensity-derived temperatures are those measured by the thermocouples<sup>12</sup>. Thus, although the spatial density and time resolution of the thermocouples is not large enough to provide detailed heat-flux footprints and time histories, they are *crucial* for the thermography, since they provide *in-situ* intensity-sensitivity calibrations for the IR system, which does have the spatial and temporal resolution needed for the surface-temperature and heat-flux profile measurements. To illustrate the importance of the *in-situ* calibration and the effects of changing surface coatings, we plot (Fig. 2) the ratio of the *in-situ*  $\beta$  calibration factors to the clean-Mo bench-calibration factors at four points on the ramped target tiles as a function of the number of tokamak discharges after a typical overnight boronization. (Boronization<sup>13</sup> applies surface coatings of boron to the vacuum surfaces.) Three important effects are evident: 1) the clean-Mo calibration cannot be relied upon to yield accurate surface temperatures after boronization and exposures to tokamak plasmas; 2) the boronization coatings on the targets increase the emissivity of the surfaces and the coatings are changed by exposure to tokamak plasmas; and 3) in the high heat-flux/strike point regions, the coating appears to be removed rapidly, whereas in regions of lower heat flux the coating removal never appears to

be complete, but yields a steady-state emissivity 5-10 discharges after boronization. Note that the *in-situ* calibration also

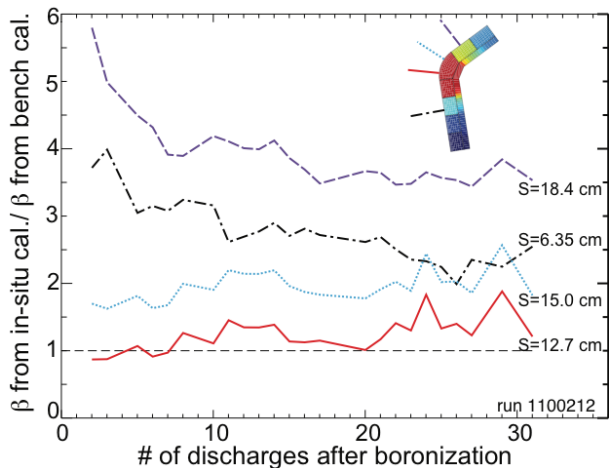


FIG. 2 Changes in the  $\beta$  calibration factors (Eq. 1) for different points up the divertor target as a function of the number of tokamak discharges after a boronization. The *in-situ*  $\beta$ s are compared to the clean-Mo “bench” calibrations. S is the poloidal distance up along the surface – locations noted on inset.

compensates for any changes in vacuum-window transmission or first-mirror reflectivity.

The surface emission is not the only thing complicated by changing surface coatings. The thermal conductivity of the coating is important for modeling the thermal transport and producing heat-flux footprints. Following references<sup>14,3</sup>, this effect is included in the two-dimensional (2D) heat-transport model by adjusting the thickness of an assumed “boron” coating until physically unrealistic negative heat-fluxes in response to changing measured surface temperatures are eliminated. The assumption that the coating is “boron” is irrelevant for the resulting heat-fluxes. A typical result for the coating “thickness” needed in the model is shown in Fig 1c. For this and most other plasmas during the run campaign of this investigation, the strike point was maintained (during the high-power heating times) between 10 and 15 cm up the plate, where the implied coating “thickness” is small. Qualitatively, the results for the increases in the *in-situ*  $\beta$  calibration factors above the clean-Mo calibrations (Fig. 2) trend with the coating “thicknesses” needed to eliminate the negative heat-fluxes.

#### IV. HEAT-FLUX PROFILES

The goal of C-Mod’s IR thermography is to measure surface temperature profiles, and from those, derive heat-flux profiles. After addressing the issues discussed above, this is now being done routinely on C-Mod. Examples of these profiles are shown in Fig 3. Peak surface-normal heat fluxes greater than 15 MW/m<sup>2</sup>, corresponding to parallel heat-fluxes > 300 MW/m<sup>2</sup>, are typical in both high confinement H-modes and RF-heated, low-confinement L-modes. Surface temperatures in excess of 1000 °C are often measured on the ramped tiles. The heating of the targets at the same time of the profiles of Fig. 3 as modeled by the heat-transport code is shown in Fig 1a). These profiles illustrate the last of the issues listed in the Introduction, i.e., the high parallel (to the magnetic field) heat-fluxes on C-Mod. Other important physical quantities are evident in the profiles. For example, the measured widths of the main peak of the heat-flux profiles (full-width-half-maximum=2.0 mm in the Fig. 3 profile) constrain the

major radius and magnetic field dependencies of multi-machine empirical scaling relations for the Scrape-Off-Layer (SOL) heat-flux widths<sup>15,16</sup>. Also evident in the heat-flux profiles is a far-

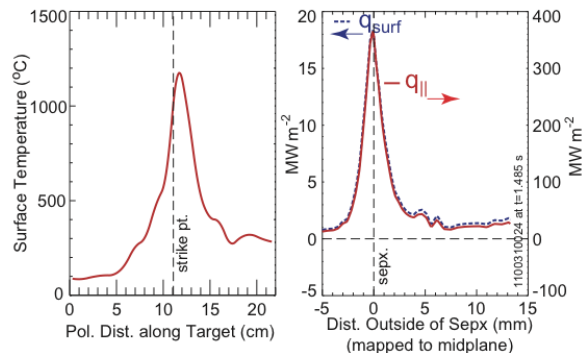


FIG 3. (left) Profiles of surface temperature profiles and (right) derived parallel heat-flux and surface-normal heat-flux (mapped to the midplane) during a period of H-mode confinement.

SOL “tail” with constant or slowly decreasing heat-flux. The existence of this tail has been confirmed Langmuir probes mounted in other divertor tiles.

The calorimeters and thermocouples embedded in the viewed ramped tiles also provide important checks on the

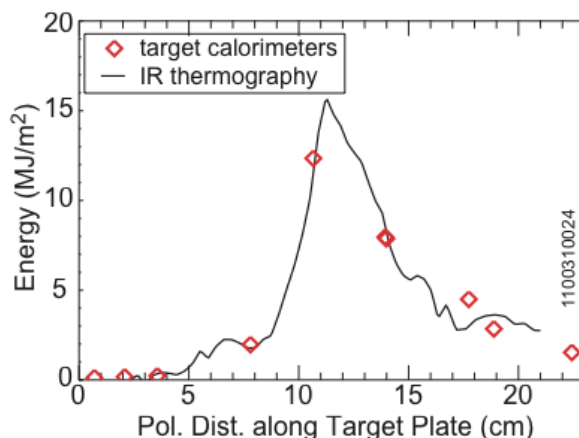


FIG. 4 Comparison of the energy deposited on the target as measured using thermography and as measured by the calorimeters mounted in the target tiles.

surface-temperature time-history inputs to the heat-transport analysis of the target (including the assumption that the target surfaces are gray bodies), as well as checks on the analysis itself. The incident energies associated with the IR temperature time-histories are compared to those measured by the calorimeters. Typically agreement between the two measurements is good, as is shown in Fig. 4. Another check is provided when the measured IR surface-temperatures are imposed in the 2D heat-transport model *only for the plasma pulse duration*. Then, after continuing the model calculation past the time needed for the individual tiles to equilibrate, the computed tile temperature rise is compared to (and should equal) the rise measured by the embedded thermocouples. We find in performing this check that the target heat-transport model typically underestimates the temperature rise (~30 s after the discharge) for the tile(s) that received the peak heat-flux by 10-20%. For the other target tiles the agreement is good. The reason for the disagreement on the peak-heat-flux tiles is still under investigation.

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