Atomic Physics and Radiation Transport in Inertial **Confinement Fusion Simulations**

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31L



Indirect-drive Inertial Confinement Fusion (ICF) at the National Ignition Facility (NIF)



NIF uses 192 laser beams to deliver 1-2 MJ of energy over several ns

- ~75% of the energy is converted to X-rays in the hohlraum
- Radiation field inside the hohlraum is ~thermal at T_r ~ 300 eV

NIF also provides a platform for High Energy Density (HED) experiments

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NIF target chamber + positioner



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Representative parameters

Wall

- T ~ 0-300 eV, ρ ~ 0.1-20 g/cm³
- 7 = 79 hy ~ 1 keV

Ablated plasma (bubble)

T ~ 1-3 keV, n_e ~ 10²¹⁻²² cm⁻³ Z = 79, hv ~ 1-3 keV

- Capsule
- T ~ 100-300 eV, ρ ~ 1-200 g/cm^3 Z = [6,32], hv ~ 1-3 keV, 10 keV

- Fuel Impurities T ~ 1-3 keV, n_e ~ 10²⁴⁻²⁶ cm⁻³
- Z = 32, hv ~ 10 keV
- Edge plasma
- $T \sim 1 \text{ eV}, n_e \sim 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3}$.
- Z = 1, hv ~ 10 eV



Outline

- ICF basics
- · Examples of radiation transport effects
- Radiation transport basics
- Solution methods
- · Requirements
- · Examples

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Laser beams (48 guads)

Cryo-cooling ring

igh-Z hohlraum wall

Solid DT fuel layer

Fill tube Mid-Z-doped plastic capsule

er Entrance Hole (LEH)

National Ignition Facility (NIF) overview



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Hohlraums and radiation are central to indirect-drive ICF

Radiation effects

- Wall
- Energy balance Provides smooth X-ray drive on capsule .

Ablated material in hohlraum

- Hohlraum energy balance
- M-band radiation (preheats fuel)

Capsule shell

Absorption > ablative drive

Fuel impurities

Emission provides diagnostic information

Radiation transport is a critical part of simulations

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Perturbation growth brings Ge dopant into the hot spot

2D high-resolution HYDRA simulation Perturbation due to fill tube ~4 ps before peak compression 50 ∏m СН

density

(1000 g/cm3)



temperature

(6 keV)

B. A. Hammel, et al, Phys. Plasmas 18, 056310 (2011)

electron density

(2.5 x 10²⁶ cm⁻³)

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material

The spectrum reflects emission over a wide range of conditions and the effects of radiation transport

- K-shell emission from hot Ge (>2 keV) .
- 1s→2p absorption from warm Ge (300 eV) .



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Radiation transport basics

Radiation transport equation:

 $\frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial I_{v}}{\partial I_{v}} + \vec{\Omega} \bullet \nabla I_{u} = -(\alpha_{v}I_{v})$ $c \partial t$

$$+\vec{\Omega} \bullet \nabla I_{v} = -(\alpha_{v}I_{v} - \eta_{v}) \qquad \qquad \alpha_{v} = \text{absorption coefficient} \\ n = \text{amissivity}$$

 $\eta_v =$ emissivity • Equivalent to a Boltzmann equation for the photon distribution function, f

 $I_v =$ specific intensity



- The LHS describes the flow of radiation in phase space Conserves photon number
- The RHS describes absorption and emission
 - · Absorption & emission coefficients depend on atomic physics
 - · Photon # is not conserved (except for scattering)
- Photon mean free path $\lambda_v = 1 / \alpha_v$



Absorption / emission coefficients

Macroscopic description - energy changes

• Energy removed from radiation passing through material of area dA, depth ds, over time dt

 $dE = -\alpha_v I_v dA ds d\Omega dv dt$

· Energy emitted by material

$$dE = \eta_{v} I_{v} dA ds d\Omega dv dt$$

- Microscopic description radiative transitions
- · Absorption and emission coefficients are constructed from atomic populations y_i and





Formal solution along characteristics:

Define the source function S_{v} and optical depth τ_{v} : $S_v = \eta_v / \alpha_v$ (= B_v in LTE) $d\tau_v = \alpha_v ds$

Along a characteristic, the radiation transport equation becomes

$$\frac{dI_{v}}{d\tau_{v}} = -I_{v} + S_{v} \implies I_{v}(\tau_{v}) = I_{v}(0)e^{-\tau_{v}} + \int_{0}^{\tau_{v}} e^{-(\tau_{v} - \tau_{v}')}S_{v}(\tau_{v}')d\tau_{v}'$$

This solution is useful when material properties are fixed, e.g. postprocessing for diagnostics

Important features:

- Explicit non-local relationship between I_v and S_v
- Escaping radiation comes from depth $\tau_v \sim 1$
- Implicit $\tilde{S}_{\nu}(I_{\nu})$ dependence comes from radiation / material coupling

Self-consistently determining S_v and I_v is the hard part of radiation transport

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Example – Hydrogen Ly-α

Ly- α emission from a uniform plasma

T_e = 1 eV, n_e = 10¹⁴ cm⁻³

Self-consistent solution displays effects of • Radiation trapping / pumping Non-uniformity due to boundaries



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Population distribution

LTE: Saha-Boltzmann equation

 $\frac{y_i}{z_i} = \frac{g_i}{e} e^{-(\varepsilon_i - \varepsilon_j)/T_e} \quad \varepsilon_i = \text{energy of state } i$ Excited states follow a Boltzmann distribution 8, T_e = electron temperature Ionization stages obey the Saha equation $\frac{N_q}{N_{q+1}} = \frac{1}{2} n_e \frac{U_q}{U_{q+1}} \left(\frac{h^2}{2\pi m_e T_e} \right)^{3/2} e^{-(e_0^{q+1} - e_0^{q})/T_e}$ $N_q = \sum_{i \in q} y_i e^{-(x_i - x_0^4) T_s}$ number density of charge state q $U_q = \sum g_i e^{-(\varepsilon_i - \varepsilon_0^2) T_e} \quad \text{partition function of charge state } q$

NLTE: Collisional-radiative model

Calculate populations by integrating a rate equation

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\mathbf{y}}{dt} &= \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} \quad A_{ij} = C_{ij} + R_{ij} + (other)_{ij} \qquad C_{ij} = n_e \int \mathbf{v} \,\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{ij}(\mathbf{v}) \, f(\mathbf{v}) \, d\mathbf{v} \\ R_{ij} &= \int \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{ij}(\mathbf{v}) J(\mathbf{v}) \frac{d\mathbf{v}}{h\mathbf{v}}, \quad R_{ji} = \int \boldsymbol{\sigma}_{ij}(\mathbf{v}) \left[J(\mathbf{v}) + \frac{2hv^3}{c^2} \right] e^{-hv/\lambda \tau} \frac{dv}{hv} \end{aligned}$$

cross sections σ_{ii}

15

Timescales for strong atomic transitions



Coupled equations

$$\frac{\partial I_v}{\partial t} + \vec{\Omega} \bullet \nabla I_v = -\alpha_v (I_v - S_v), \quad J_v = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int I_v d\Omega$$

LTE :

Coupled to energy balance

 $\frac{dE_m}{dt} = 4\pi \int \alpha_v (J_v - S_v) dv$ $\alpha_v = \alpha_v (T_e), S_v = B_v (T_e)$

- Indirect radiation-material coupling through energy/temperature
- Collisions couple all frequencies locally, independent of J_{v}
- Solution methods concentrate on nonlocal aspects

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Hydrogen Ly-α revisited

- · Source iteration (green curves) approaches self-consistent solution slowly
- Linearization achieves convergence in 1 iteration



Solution method 3 – Discrete Ordinates (S_N)

Discretization in angle converts integro-differential equations into a set of coupled differential equations

- Effective solution algorithms exist for both LTE and NLTE versions [6] -
- e.g. LTE synthetic grey transport (or diffusion) NLTE complete linearization, accelerated lambda iteration

Advantages

Handles regions with $\tau <<1$ and $\tau >>1$ equally well Modern spatial discretizations achieve the diffusion limit Deterministic methods can be iterated to convergence

Disadvantages -

Ray effects due to preferred directions angular profiles become inaccurate well before angular integrals Required # of angles in 2D/3D can become enormous Discretization in 7 dimensions requires large computational resources

> This is our preferred method for NLTE systems using detailed post-processing of rad-hydro simulations

NLTE : · Coupled to rate equations
$$\begin{split} \frac{d\mathbf{y}}{dt} &= \mathbf{A}\mathbf{y} \;, \; \mathbf{A}_{ij} \!=\! \mathbf{A}_{ij}(T_e, n_e, J_v) \\ S_v \!=\! \frac{2\hbar v^2}{c^2} S_{ij} \;, \; S_{ij} \approx a \!+\! b \overline{J}_{ij} \end{split}$$
 Direct coupling of radiation to material Collisions couple frequencies over narrow band (line profiles) Solution methods concentrate on local

material-radiation coupling Non-local aspects are less critical

Transport methods need to fulfill 2 requirements

- 1. Accurate formal transport solution which is
- conservative.
 - non-negative
 - 2^{nd} order (spatial) accuracy (diffusion limit as $\tau >> 1$) causal (+ efficient)

Many options are available - each has advantages and disadvantages

2. Method to converge solution of coupled implicit equations

- Multiple methods fall into a few classes Full nonlinear system solution
- · Accelerated transport solution
- · Incorporate transport information into other physics
- Optimized methods are available for specific regimes, but no single method works well across all regimes

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Solution method 1 – source iteration



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20

18

Solution method 2 – Monte Carlo

Implicit Monte Carlo (IMC) for LTE systems [4] provides a semi-implicit solution to the radiation transport + energy balance equation

Parameter $\beta = \frac{4aT^3}{\rho C_v}$ characterizes linearized radiation/material coupling

→ fraction β of absorptions treated as effective scatterings also reduces cost

Advantages -Works well for complicated geometries Not overly constrained by discretizations \rightarrow does details very well

Disadvantages -

Statistical noise improves slowly with # of particles Expense increases with optical depth Iterative evaluation of coupled system is not possible / advisable Semi-implicit nature requires careful timestep control

Notes -

Equivalent procedures for NLTE systems have been used for strong lines Symbolic IMC [5] provides a fully-implicit NLTE solution at the cost of a solving a single mesh-wide nonlinear equation

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Solution method 4 – Escape factors (NLTE)

Escape probability [7] averaged over line profile, p_e , is used to eliminate radiation field from net radiativ

e rate
$$y_j R_{ji} - y_i R_{ij} = y_j A_{ji} p_e$$

Equivalent to incorporating a (partial) transport operator into the rate equations

Advantages

Verv fast - no transport equation solution required Can be combined with other physics with no (or minimal) changes

Disadvantages -

Details of transport solution are absent Escape factors depend on line profiles, system geometry Iterative improvement is possible, but usually not worthwhile

Notes -

23

Evaluating p_e can be complicated by overlapping lines, Doppler shifts, etc. Many variations and extensions exist in a large literature

22



Radiation transport effects with plasma transport [8]

- Plasma transport model explicitly treats ion and (ground state) neutral atoms
- Excited states are assumed to be in equilibrium on transport timescales:

 $n_x = f_x^g n_g + f_x^i n_i , f_x^{g,i} = f_x^{g,i} (n_e, T_e)$

 Transport model uses effective ionization / recombination and energy loss coefficients which account for excited state distributions, e.g.

 $\frac{\partial n_i}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (n_i \mathbf{V}_i) = P_i n_n - P_r n_i \quad , \quad \frac{\partial n_n}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (n_n \mathbf{V}_n) = -P_i n_n + P_r n_i$

Tabulated coefficients are evaluated with a collisional-radiative code in the optically thin limit

Optically thin data depend only on n_e and T_e

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Detached divertor simulations exhibit large radiation effects

Specifications: L=2 m, n=10²⁰ m⁻³, q_{in}=10 MW/m², β=0.1



Excited state populations are critical for spectroscopic diagnostics



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Radiation effects are incorporated into the effective ionization and heating rates



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25





Summary

- Radiation transport effects are important to
- Energy balance
- Ionization balance
- Diagnostics
- Self-consistency is important for simulations when $\tau \ge 1$
- · Acceleration methods can speed up convergence dramatically
- · Details can usually come from post-processing
- Many numerical approaches are possible

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26