#### Relativistic Electron Beam Microinstabilities in the Fast-Ignition Regime

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- Previous work on Weibel, two-stream, and related instabilities in relativistic electron beams has employed assumptions and approximations that limit applicability.
- More reliable determination of plasma and beam temperature effects is obtained using Maxwell–Boltzman–Jüttner distribution functions (or suitable approximations) rather than delta-function or waterbag distributions.
- Inclusion of off-diagonal elements in the dielectric tensor incorporates the electrostatic component of beam filamentation, an important diagnostic signature which can affect growth rates.
- The generalization to complex wave vectors in arbitrary directions allows calculations of spatial growth rates and investigations of absolute versus convective instability.

## Most fast-ignition scenarios require propagation of a relativistic electron beam through a plasma

- Large-scale beam instabilities (kinking, pinching) develop slowly on the FI timescale.
- Microinstabilities grow faster and include beam-plasma (electrostatic) and filamentation (electromagnetic or mixed) instabilities.

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- These instabilities require impedance.
  - Reactive (electron inertia, Weibel and beam–plasma instability): dominant at low densities (few × critical).
  - Resisitive (collisional, resistive filamentation): dominant at high densities (compressed core).
  - A FI beam will transit both regions (reactive first.)
- A fully relativistic treatment of the collisionless case can be carried out analytically; the collisional case is more difficult.

#### Instabilities can be treated as a perturbed equilibrium provided the growth times are shorter than the beam slowing time

- Assume that, in equilibrium, the charge densities, currents, and fields vanish and that all perturbed quantities have the space and time dependence  $e^{i(k \cdot x \omega t)}$
- Maxwell's equations relate the current to the perturbed electric field.

$$\mathbf{j} = \mathbf{j}_{\mathbf{b}} + \mathbf{j}_{\mathbf{p}} = -\frac{\mathbf{i}\mathbf{c}^{2}}{4\pi\omega} \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{k}^{2}\mathbf{I} & -\mathbf{k}\mathbf{k} & -\frac{\omega^{2}}{\mathbf{c}^{2}}\mathbf{I} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \mathbf{E}$$
Longitudinal From

(electrostatic) displacement term current

• The rest of the problem consists of using the plasma properties to derive the perturbed current as a response to E (the dielectric tensor).

### The simplest model treats the return current as purely resistive

- The beam current  $J_b$  is assumed collisionless and, in equilibrium, is balanced by a return current  $J_p = -J_b$ .
- In the resistive model (Gremillet *et al.*, 2002), the perturbed current is related to the field by  $J_p = 1/\eta E$ , where  $\eta$  is the resistivity.
- When the frequencies (real or growth rate) become comparable to  $\eta$ , inertial effects can be included using the result from a fluid treatment  $\frac{1}{\eta}I \rightarrow \frac{\omega_{p0}^2 \left[ \left(1 \frac{k \cdot v_0}{\omega}\right)I + \frac{kv_0}{\omega}\right] + 3v_T^2 kk}{\omega_{p0}^2 \eta 4\pi i (\omega k \cdot v_0)} + \frac{i}{4\pi}v_0 k \text{, where } v_0 \text{ is the}$

equilibrium beam velocity.

• At low densities, inertial effects dominate the perturbed return current, and a collisionless kinetic treatment is appropriate.

### The relativistic electron beam can be represented as a Maxwell–Boltzmann–Jüttner distribution

• The MBJ distribution is a relativistic generalization of the Maxwellian

$$f_{0}(w) = \frac{\xi n_{0}}{4\pi\Gamma K_{2}(\xi)} e^{-\xi\Gamma(\gamma - \beta \cdot w)}, \text{ where } \xi \equiv \frac{mc^{2}}{k_{B}T_{R}} = \frac{c^{2}}{\upsilon_{T}^{2}}, w \equiv \frac{p}{mc} = \gamma \frac{v}{c}, \beta$$
  
is the average  $\beta$ , and  $\Gamma \equiv (1 - \beta^{2})^{-1/2} = \sqrt{1 + w^{2}}$ .

• When the thermal spread is small compared to the beam velocity, this can be approximated as a drifting Maxwellian

$$\mathbf{f_0}\left(\mathbf{p}\right) = \frac{1}{\left(2\pi\right)^{3/2}} \frac{1}{\left(\mathbf{mv_T}\right)^3 \Gamma} \mathbf{n_b} \, \mathbf{e}^{-\frac{\left(\frac{\mathbf{p_z}}{\Gamma} - \mathbf{mc}\beta\right)^2 + \mathbf{p}_{\perp}^2}{2\left(\mathbf{m}\upsilon_{\mathsf{T}}\right)^2}}$$

• These forms are also used to represent the return current in the collisionless case.

### In the collisionless case, the perturbed currents are calculated from the relativistic Vlasov equation

- The linearized relativistic Vlasov equation can be written as  $\frac{\partial f_{1\alpha}}{\partial t} + \frac{cw}{\gamma} \cdot \frac{\partial f_{1\alpha}}{\partial x} = -\frac{q_{\alpha}}{m_{\alpha}c} \Big( \mathsf{E} + \frac{w}{\gamma} \times \mathsf{B} \Big) \cdot \frac{\partial f_{0\alpha}}{\partial w}.$
- Solving for the perturbed current gives  $j_{b} = \frac{-ie^{2}}{m\omega} \Biggl[ \int \frac{p}{\gamma} \frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial p} d^{3}p + \int \frac{\left(k \cdot \frac{\partial f_{0}}{\partial p}\right)pp}{\gamma(\gamma m\omega - k \cdot p)} d^{3}p \Biggr] \cdot E.$
- In the drifting Maxwellian approximation, the integrals can be expressed in terms of the usual plasma Z-function.
- The exact relativistic integrals can be expressed in terms of integrals

of the form 
$$\int_{-1}^{1} ds \frac{\gamma}{\omega - cks} \frac{K_{n/2}(z)}{z^{n/2}}$$
, where  $\gamma = (1 - s^2)^{-1/2}$  and  $z \equiv \xi \Gamma \sqrt{(1 - \beta_3 s)^2 \gamma^2 - (\beta_1^2 + \beta_2^2)}$ .

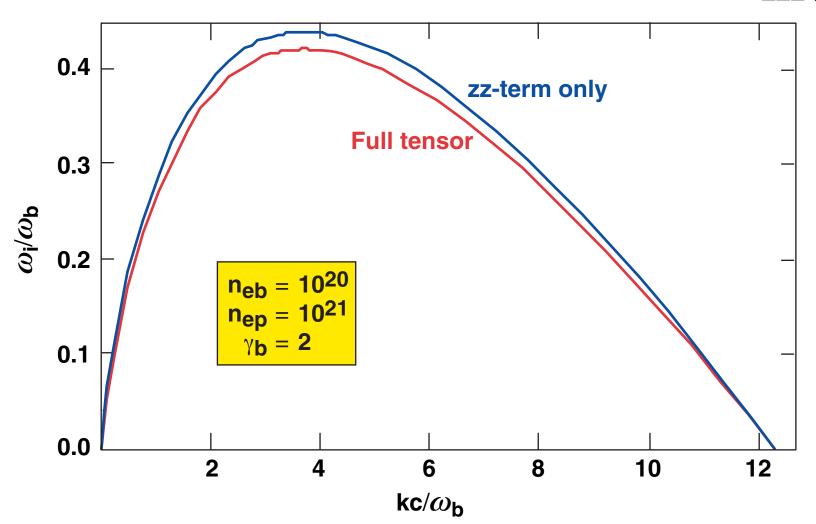
### The resulting dispersion relations are complicated algebraically but readily evaluated numerically

- The dispersion relation is obtained from  $\left[ \left( \mathbf{c}^{2}\mathbf{k}^{2} - \omega^{2} + \frac{\omega_{\mathbf{p}}^{2}}{\Gamma} - \frac{4\pi i\omega}{\eta} \right) \mathbf{I} - \mathbf{c}^{2}\mathbf{k}\mathbf{k} - \frac{\omega_{\mathbf{p}}^{2}}{\Gamma} \mathbf{R} \right] \cdot \mathbf{E} = \mathbf{0}.$ 
  - A typical R-component in the drifting Maxwellian approximation with the beam propagating in the z-direction:  $R_{zz} \equiv \left(k_y^2 v_{T\perp}^2 + \Gamma^2 k_z^2 v_{Tz}^2\right)^{-2}$

$$\times \begin{bmatrix} \left[1 + \Omega \mathbf{Z}(\Omega)\right] & \left\{ \Gamma^{2} \left(\mathbf{k}_{y}^{2} + \mathbf{k}_{z}^{2}\right) \left[ \left(\sqrt{2\Gamma k_{z}} \upsilon_{\mathsf{Tz}}^{2} \Omega + \beta c \sqrt{\mathbf{k}_{y}^{2}} \upsilon_{\mathsf{T\perp}}^{2} + \Gamma^{2} \mathbf{k}_{z}^{2}} \upsilon_{\mathsf{Tz}}^{2}\right)^{2} + \mathbf{k}_{y}^{2} \upsilon_{\mathsf{Tz}}^{2} \upsilon_{\mathsf{T\perp}}^{2} \right] \\ + 2\mathbf{k}_{y}^{2} \mathbf{k}_{z}^{2} \upsilon_{\mathsf{Tz}}^{2} \left(\upsilon_{\mathsf{T\perp}}^{2} - \Gamma^{2} \upsilon_{\mathsf{Tz}}^{2}\right) \\ + \mathbf{k}_{z} \Gamma \left[\sqrt{2} \beta c \mathbf{k}_{y}^{2} \sqrt{\mathbf{k}_{y}^{2}} \upsilon_{\mathsf{T\perp}}^{2} + \Gamma^{2} \mathbf{k}_{z}^{2}} \upsilon_{\mathsf{Tz}}^{2} \left(\upsilon_{\mathsf{T\perp}}^{2} - \Gamma^{2} \upsilon_{\mathsf{Tz}}^{2}\right) \mathbf{Z}(\Omega) + \Gamma^{3} \left(\mathbf{k}_{y}^{2} + \mathbf{k}_{z}^{2}\right) \mathbf{k}_{z} \upsilon_{\mathsf{Tz}}^{4} \end{bmatrix} \\ \text{where } \Omega \equiv \frac{\gamma \omega - \Gamma \beta c \mathbf{k}_{z}}{\sqrt{2} \sqrt{(\mathbf{k}_{y}} \upsilon_{\mathsf{T\perp}})^{2} + (\Gamma \mathbf{k}_{z}} \upsilon_{\mathsf{Tz}})^{2}}$$

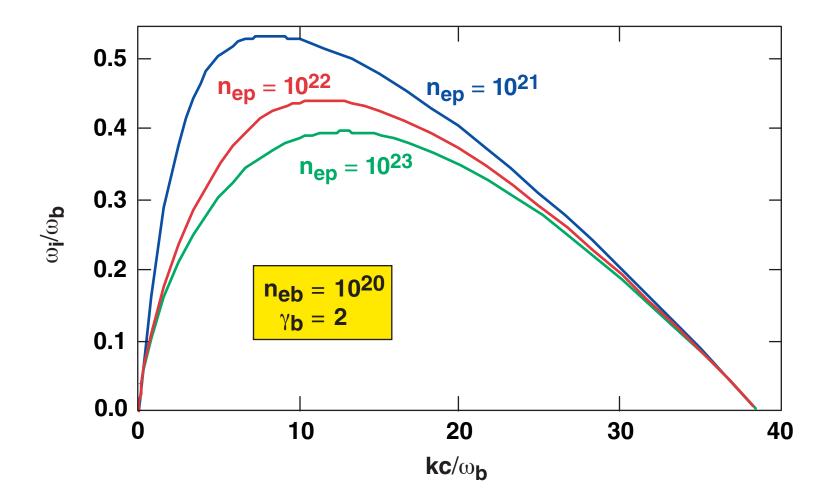
The electrostatic component typically has little effect on filamentation growth rates, but is responsible for density perturbations seen in experiments

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#### Inertial terms increase the growth rates at lower ratios of background to beam densities



# The general dispersion relation can be used to address several further problems of interest in FI experiments

- Using real ω and complex k spatial growth rates can be calculated, which are of greater relevance to FI than the temporal growth rates.
- The transition from convective to absolute intabilities can be studied; this requires both  $\omega$  and k to be complex.
- Arbitrary wave-vector directions allow the comparison of two-stream and filamentation instabilities and the identification of the most unstable mode, which may lie between these instabilities
   [A. Brett et al., PRL <u>94</u> (2005).]
- The analytic theory can be used to benchmark simulation codes such as LSP and optimize simulation parameters.

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