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Implosion hydrodynamics of fast ignition targets


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The fast ignition (FI) concept requires the generation of a compact, dense, pure fuel mass accessible to an external ignition source. The current base line FI target is a shell fitted with a reentrant cone extending to near its center. Conventional direct- or indirect-drive collapses the shell near the tip of the cone and then an ultraintense laser pulse focused to the inside cone tip generates high-energy electrons to ignite the dense fuel. A theoretical and experimental investigation was undertaken of the collapse of such targets, validating modeling, and exploring the trade-offs available, in such an asymmetric geometry, to optimize compaction of the fuel and maintain the integrity of the cone. The collapse is complex. Away from the cone, the shell collapses much as does a conventional implosion, generating a hot, low-density inner core. But because of the open side, hot plasma exhausts out toward the tip of the cone. This hot plasma is advantageous for implosion diagnostics; it can provide protons for angular dependent measurements of the shell wall, neutrons for temperature measurements, and self-emission for contamination measurements. But for FI it is a liability; the hot, low-density inner core impedes the compaction of the cold fuel, lowering the implosion/burn efficiency and the gain. Approaches to optimizing this shell design are discussed. © 2005 American Institute of Physics. [DOI: 10.1063/1.1896952]

I. BACKGROUND

The physical outlines of fast ignition (FI) fusion have been known for at least ten years, and the basic requirements are well known. It differs from the conventional central-hot-spot (CHS) approach in using separate drivers for the compression and ignition steps. This eliminates the need for a shock-heated low-density ignition spot surrounded by a high-density core and allows compression of the target to a uniform density ~1/3 and an ignition mass ~1/10 that required by the CHS approach; the consequent reduced energy input results in a very attractive improvement in target gain.

In the initial concept the ignition pulse is provided by an ultrahigh-intensity laser that bores into the lower density plasma surrounding the assembled target as far as the relativistic critical density surface. There its energy is converted into electrons that travel the rest of the distance to the dense (~300 g cm⁻³) core of the target. Since the critical surface, from which these electrons would be launched, is located many hundreds of microns from the core, a variant target design containing a reentrant cone was introduced to allow electron generation closer to the core. Small-scale integrated experiments have shown short-pulse laser heating efficiency of ~25%. But the details of the collapse, particularly modifications caused by possible interactions between cone and shell, were unknown.

We have carried out a series of combined experiments and simulations designed to establish a detailed understanding of the compression of a reentrant cone fast ignition target. There were three major questions to address: (1) Do the hydrodynamics codes, which have been exhaustively tested on spherically symmetric targets, properly capture all of the physics in these extremely asymmetric cases? (2) Do shell-cone interactions interfere with efficient assembly of a dense core? (3) Does the design space allow simultaneous core assembly and ignition access?

Initial modeling (Sec. II) showed that the generation of the desired uniformly dense blob of fuel was difficult; the hot central core is a robust feature. Then several combined experimental/modeling campaigns (Sec. III) showed not only reasonable efficiency in assembling a core but also a number of shell-cone interactions that must be accounted for during optimization. We discuss the various interactions in Sec. IV. Using this information, we then describe requirements regarding FI target optimization (Sec. V). We conclude (Sec. VI) that though the simulations are qualitatively accurate, mixing—which is omitted—is an important process shaping the collapse properties, and that there are substantial cone-shell interactions that considerably complicate the problem of developing an optimized target. Our modeling has, however, established promising directions as the foundation of a concerted design effort.

II. INITIAL MODELING

The first simulation (Fig. 1) used a typical CHS shell and drive with a cone added (the hyperboloidal tip offset from
the shell center by $\sim 40 \mu m$) and with minimal central gas ($r_{gas}=5 \times 10^{-5} \text{ g cm}^{-3}$). This target collapses to a hollow shell around a low-density core. The gas is generated by the shock from the laser drive and then, because the shell collapses faster than it can escape, is heated to $\sim 400 \text{ eV}$ by compression. Although the maximum areal density of this target ($\rho R \sim 2.2 \text{ g cm}^{-2}$) is satisfactory, the extended form it takes at stagnation is undesirable. Unlike a CHS target, a FI target does not burn from the center out starting at the low-density core. Rather ignition occurs in the dense shell and the resulting nuclear burn, limited to dense fuel, must travel along the thin shell. Improved collapses can be formed by generating a larger collapse velocity from the side away from the cone, but it neglects scattering and all self-consistent-field effects on the transport. The collimation or divergence used for injection is intended to include such effects. An electron energy of about $1.6 \pm 0.1 \text{ MeV}$ was found to minimize the total beam energy required for this capsule. Injection of such ad hoc electron beams suggest this mass has a reasonable chance of being ignited, yielding $\gtrsim 20 \text{ MJ}$ after ignition with between 30 and 150 kJ of 1 MeV electrons, for electron beam divergence of $0^\circ$ and $50^\circ$, respectively (Fig. 4). Capsules tuned for lower drive temperature or energy produced $\rho R s$ less than 2 g cm$^{-2}$. Although these could be “ignited,” they produced much lower burn-up fractions than might have been expected. In conventional hot-spot ignited capsules the fuel burn-up fraction $\phi$ may be estimated as:

$$\phi = \frac{\langle \rho R \rangle}{\langle \rho R \rangle + 6 \text{ g cm}^{-2}}$$

where $\langle \rho R \rangle$ is the full, hot-spot plus main fuel, column density. This formula derives from the competition between fuel burning at a temperature that saturates near 40 keV, and an inrushing rarefaction that disassembles the fuel and stops the burning, and was determined for a hollow shell geometry. We found that the burn-up fractions for implosions producing blob ($\rho R s$'s less than $\sim 2$ g cm$^{-2}$ fell off much faster than naive application of the above formula would suggest. Presumably this is because confinement in spherical or effectively spherical geometry simply lasts longer, but a fuller understanding of the confinement process in the three-dimensional 3D geometry of FI is certainly warranted.
III. EXPERIMENTAL TESTS

The cryoignition target in Fig. 1 was then resized to Omega drive energy, first for x-ray drive and then for direct laser drive, to test the model predictions. X-ray drive targets were driven exactly as a 1/2 mm diameter CHS shell in a scale Hohlraum using 14 kJ of drive power. The reentrant cone (dimensions as in the model: Opening angle 70°, the tip 40 μm from the center of the shell) was notched outside the shell to prevent an excessive x-ray flux on the cone near the shell. The direct-drive targets had a ~1 mm diameter shell. The cone base blocked one set of beams entirely. The shell was driven with 11 kJ from 15 half power and 20 full power beams. In the cases illustrated here the targets were backlit with He-like Fe Kα radiation (6.7 keV) from a film hit with delayed beams (8 beams delayed 1.4 ns on the outside of a 7 μm foil for x-ray drive and 15 beams delayed 1.8 ns on both sides of a 10 μm foil for direct). The sensitivity of the framing camera was determined by reference to a calibrated time integrating x-ray spectrometer. The emitted spectrum, convoluted with the camera filter transmission and the spectral sensitivity of the camera, was compared to the backlighter intensity integrated over backlighter area (a vertical and horizontal super-Gaussian fit was used to account for the part of the backlighter hidden behind the target) and summed over the camera frames. An identical framing camera on the other side of the chamber observed the self-emission (se) of the target without any backlighter.

The tests were made with nominally symmetric targets and symmetric drives, so we expected a collapsed geometry as in Fig. 1. Images of a collapsing x-ray drive target are shown in Fig. 6 and of a direct-drive target in Fig. 7. Targets were either empty or filled with 5–10 atm of D₂ or D³He. In all cases the cone [with an initially sharp, hyperboloidal tip Fig. 6(b)] appears distorted. For the x-ray drive case (Fig. 6) there appears to be no separation between the shell and the cone. For direct drive (Fig. 7) there is a clear separation, but since the interstitial area is brighter than the backlighter, that intensity must include some se, which could be masking absorption from vapor. Gas-filled targets showed obvious self-emission near stagnation. Detailed investigation of these images revealed a number of shell-cone interactions occurring in fast ignition targets that must be taken into account in their design.

IV. CONE-SHELL INTERACTIONS

A. Cone heating/Au contamination

The fuzziness of the cone outlines in the backlit images (especially in x-ray drive, Fig. 6) is caused by a surrounding cloud of Au vapor. An unintentional high-photon-energy component of the drive spectrum is boiling away the Au surface. The origin of the x rays, in the x-ray drive case, comes from the nonthermal Au-M lines in the emission from the Au Hohlraum (~6% of the total incident energy for our targets), and from thermal emission of the laser heated CH shell in the direct-drive case. In a CHS target these weakly absorbed spectral components cause a mild preheating of the imploding shell. In a reentrant cone FI target, such penetrating radiation (~1.5–4.5 keV with peak at 2–2.5 keV) is absorbed by the surface of the cone. LASNEX (Ref. 15) calculations suggest that the energy incident on the cone is ~40 kJ cm⁻² in the x-ray drive case and ~9 kJ cm⁻² for direct drive. In neither case is that flux easily eliminated. For x-ray drive, all of the possible Hohlraum materials emit nonthermal lines in the same energy band. For direct drive the bremsstrahlung induced by the laser-generated-hot-electrons scales with Z² of the shell material; it would be reduced somewhat with a Be:Cu shell.
and considerably more using a cryofoam target (that reduces the C density by nearly an order of magnitude).

This incident energy, absorbed in <1 μm of the Au, generates a dense vapor layer (~0.5 g cm⁻³—clearly seen in the first images of Fig. 8) that is Rayleigh–Taylor unstable against the pressures exerted by the lower density gas escaping the collapsing shell, so mixes with it. In the x-ray drive case a filament of Au vapor can be seen to escape into the low-density core [Fig. 6(b)]. The apparent contamination is much more limited in our direct-drive experiments. The extent of that contamination cannot be measured with opacity, as in indirect-drive, because of se from the hot core. This se is as bright as the backlighter in some cases and gives the illusion of a complete separation between cone and collapsed shell [as in Fig. 7(a)] unless a whole sequence is examined (Fig. 8).

Within the collapsing shell, LASNEX simulations qualitatively replicate the time evolution and shape of the se as well as the evolving shape of the target, but overestimate the absolute value of both se and opacity. The maximum se intensity varies at least a factor of 2 from shot to shot. Since the framing camera only detects hv > 2 keV ~ kT, the measured intensity is extremely sensitive to the gas temperature; a reasonable assumption is that mixing, varying with laser drive, target surface, and axial symmetry deviations, is the cause of both the low se intensity and the variability [Figs. 7(b) and 7(c)].

Near the cone, the simulations are not so accurate. They predict a sharply defined Au vapor layer that is not pushed back until near the stagnation time, and no se; we observe no boundary and rather bright se (Fig. 8). As noted above, the Au vapor boundary is hydrodynamically unstable against the CH gas stream, so the Au would be expected to mix and could diffuse into the core of the collapsing target. Any Au contamination increases the opacity of the gas in that vicinity (H is invisible and the C is ionized enough to lower its normal absorption by orders of magnitude in the low density exhaust gas), and thus the se brightness. It is possible to make an estimate of the amount of Au that could be mixing into that region using the se observed (from the opposite side) by a separate framing camera (Fig. 9). Lineouts of these se images (summed 60 μm transversely) show that the minimum intensity between the peaks located on the core and cone is about 1/3 of the core peak. The backlight images at those times show a core brightness about equal to the backlighter. In that region, the core is nearly opaque, so this intensity is almost entirely se. In between the core and cone the image is still about as bright as the backlighter. The shell is expected to be partially transparent here, so this intensity is the sum of transmitted backlighter radiation and se. But we expect the se there to be about a third as bright as at the peak, so ~1/3 the backlighter emission is absorbed in that area. A column of Au vapor ~0.15 g cm⁻³ and 100 μm diameter could cause such absorption. But absorption from the low-density plasma surrounding the collapsing shell should be about that value [that absorption is visible in Fig. 9(a) on either side of the cone tip] so Au, if there is any in that area, must be at a much lower concentration. In any case, the Au doping of the core is much less than observed using x-ray drive.

B. Shell-cone asymmetry

The addition of a reentrant cone put a new requirement that the shell collapse to a predetermined point in front of the cone tip. A cone offset more than ±10 μm causes turbulent mixing of the core with the wall and prevents an optimum collapse [Figs. 7(c) and 7(d)]. Such an offset can be caused by asymmetric drive, or shell, misplacement or misorienta-

![Fig. 6. Backlit x-radiograph images of x-ray drive targets at stagnation with (a) linear and (b) log gray scale, and (c) simulation using linear gray scale. The experiment, unlike the simulation, shows a thread of opaque material leaking from the cone into a dense shell center. In (b) the thin gray line shows the original shape of the cone, the thick white line shows the border of the completely opaque region. All the images are to the same scale.](https://example.com/fig6.png)

![Fig. 7. Backlit x-radiograph images of direct-drive targets at stagnation (a) with only V filter to show self-emission, (b) with an Fe filter to (largely) eliminate self-emission, (c) with same filter and off-center collapse. Each contained ~5 atm D₃. Cone and core centerlines are drawn in (b) and (c) as guides to show the ~25μm offset in (c). (d) Lineouts across the images in (b) and (c) showing that the offset limited the compression (FWHM, increased from 80 to 120 μm), and reduced core gas self-emission (the apparent absorbed fraction increased from 0.65 to 0.75).](https://example.com/fig7.png)
tion in the target chamber. It appears, in this case, that the cone axis was tilted \( \sim 5^\circ \) from nominal. Since the beams under the cone are not used, this turned part of the shell toward lower intensity drive and shifted the center of collapse.

C. Cone collapse

The cone seen in indirect-drive experiments (the opaque region in Fig. 6) appears considerably blunted compared to its original shape. That is to be expected; the central gas (simulations show a density of \( \sim 10\)–\(20 \) g cm\(^{-3}\), heated to \(\sim 400 \) eV, and moving at \(\sim 10^7\) cm s\(^{-1}\) for an initially empty shell; the density is doubled and the velocity \(\sim\) halved for a filled shell) is flowing directly toward the tip, eventually punching it in, as seen in Fig. 2 (in simulations that collapse starts later for a filled shell). Since it is through that tip that the ignition energy is transmitted, the timing of that collapse is of vital interest. The simulated backlight images show that qualitatively through the position of the Au vapor; the boundary is not pushed down against the tip until just before stagnation. Experimentally, that layer vanishes somewhat earlier (Fig. 8 simulation image 3 and experimental image 1, respectively). This was investigated quantitatively using the shadow of a ledge partway down the cone as a stable reference point [Fig. 10(a)]. Fitting all the images in each shot to a 3D model allowed determination of the fixed parameters in a sequence (cone axis tilt and ledge radius), and the height of each cone tip above its ledge as a function of time [Fig. 10(b)]. The measured collapse rate agrees quite well with that predicted by simulation. Both indicate that the tip thickness \(\sim 50 \) \(\mu\)m thick) collapses by \(20\)–\(30 \) \(\mu\)m before stagnation—about the cone tip thickness one would use in an ignition target—so the tip would be destroyed before the shell mass is assembled and the ignition pulse can be delivered.

D. Collapse density

\(\rho R_{\text{max}}\) was determined experimentally from backlighter absorption and with proton energy loss spectroscopy.\(^{10,16}\) The backlight images used an Fe backlight \((h\nu \sim 6.7 \) keV\) and filter to discriminate against se. Absorption was determined using lineouts perpendicular to the cone axis and compared to a fit to the nonuniform backlighter intensity. The results were fitting to a uniformly dense solid sphere. X-ray drive targets appeared much more dense than direct-laser drive targets \((\sim 100 \) mg cm\(^{-2}\)); possibly the result of mixed-in Au. D\(^3\)He filled direct-drive targets could also be evaluated using proton energy loss spectroscopy. Detectors placed on a line of sight away from the cone gave similar density \((\sim 60 \) mg cm\(^{-2}\)) as the absorption measurements \((\sim 80 \) mg cm\(^{-2}\)).

Comparison of \(\rho R_{\text{max}}\) obtained and modeled is a measure of the success in achieving a clean compression (Table I). For CHS shells, the standard of comparison is a 1D calculation. On that basis these shells achieve \(\geq 50\%\) of 1D; a respectable number. A 2D LASNEX calculation shows that in a reentrant cone target a substantial part of the core gas can escape (the cone tip “punctures” the target), allowing the shell to collapse to a more compact shape. So experimentally these FI targets should perform better than CHS shells on this measure.

V. FAST IGNITION TARGET OPTIMIZATION

A. High-Z doping of core gas

High-Z doping of the core gas might do no harm, since the low-density fuel is not burned in a FI target, and might actually do some good by allowing the core to radiatively cool, lowering its pressure, and allowing the surrounding shell to collapse to a smaller, more compact core. Allowing such doping puts a premium on minimizing the mixing between the hot core and collapsing shell of dense fuel (which is sensitive to such doping; adding \(\sim 0.1 \) at \% Au doubles the required ignition energy\(^{15}\), so the specifications on the drive and shell for a FI target could be nearly as rigorous as those for a CHS target. If necessary, such doping could be suppressed by tamping the high-Z cone surface with a thin plastic or low-Z metal covering.

B. Shell-cone asymmetry

Simulations suggested that offsets \(< \pm 10 \) \(\mu\)m were acceptable. All targets were built to that specification, and most collapsed cores were satisfactorily aligned to their cone. Most potential sources of offset (drive imbalance and target placement) are also potential problems in standard CHS shells and well enough controlled that they are not a problem.\(^{16}\) There is a new requirement for FI targets; apparently the cone axis alignment must be controlled to \(\sim \pm 1^\circ\); that is not difficult to achieve. However building the target with sufficient accuracy is and will remain a challenge; again nearly as rigorous as a CHS x-ray drive target.
C. Cone collapse

The observed cone tip collapse $\approx 30 \mu m$ starting before stagnation is a serious problem as it is large enough to destroy the tip before the ignition pulse can be employed, strongly affecting the conditions in which the electron or proton beam is produced. It is a direct consequence of the formation of a hot, (relatively) low-density core in the collapsing target (even in an initially empty shell). The amount and timing of the collapse depends sensitively on details of the drive. Using an asymmetric drive to compress it away from the cone stretches the dense shell into an extended shape that is not conducive to an efficient burn; compressing it toward the cone makes a more compact fuel core, but impacts the cone even more strongly [Fig. 3(b)]. A study of the cone collapse as a function of drive symmetry is necessary to establish the optimum configuration.

D. Collapse density

During optimization $\rho R_{\text{max}}$ cannot be the entire measure of performance for reentrant cone shells; compactness must also be considered. Unlike CHS, a FI target does not burn the low-density fuel in the center. A burn front must travel through dense fuel. The simulated collapses shown in Figs. 1, 2(b), and 2(c) all have $\rho R_{\text{max}} \sim 2.2 \text{ g cm}^{-2}$, but the shell-shaped collapse in Fig. 1 should be less efficient than the compact one in Fig. 2(c). Unfortunately, accurately evaluating those differences will be difficult.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

Reentrant cone FI targets have been collapsed with around half the $\rho R_{\text{max}}$ of a 1D simulation. The disparity is presumably the result of mix—an important process in cone targets—not included in the simulations. Mix of the cone material with the collapsed core is much smaller for direct laser drive targets than for x-ray drive and is possibly inconsequential. However, exhaust from that core strongly impacts the cone tip before the target is fully assembled; minimizing this effect, or designing the ignition pulse to accommodate it, will be critical.

The requirements for optimizing such a target are rather different and perhaps not much less stringent than for CHS. Targets must be assembled with high precision. High mode asymmetries must be controlled to limit mixing of contaminated core gas with the dense fuel to be burned. Low mode

FIG. 9. (a) Backlit and (b) self-emission radiographs of a cone target. The pictures were taken at about the same time ($\sim 2.2$ ns after the drive pulse) from opposite sides. (b) has been horizontally flipped. (c) Shows the relative self-emission intensity from (b) along the cone axis, averaged over $\pm 30 \mu m$ from the cone axis.

FIG. 10. (a) The actual tip height was calculated by fitting the shadow of the ledge to an ellipse whose orientation and size was held fixed for all images in a sequence and assumed to be centered under the tip. (b) Calculated tip height vs time for filled (triangles) and empty capsules (squares and Xs), and from LASNEX simulation of a gas filled capsule (smooth line). The LASNEX curve shows the “observed” tip collapse. The simulation shows the initial collapse starting $\sim 0.2$ ns earlier but being hidden from view by the region around it [as in Fig. 3(b)].
asymmetries must be controlled to place the compressed fuel at the correct place ±10 μm and to control the strength of gas flows impacting the cone tip. However, the design space available to FI target design is huge, and we have just begun to explore the possibilities.

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