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Generation of Radio Frequency Radiation by Femtosecond Filaments

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Recent experiments have shown that femtosecond filamentation plasmas generate ultra-broadband RF radiation. We show that a novel physical process is responsible for the RF: a plasma wake field develops behind the laser pulse, and this wake excites (and copropagates with) a surface wave on the plasma column. The surface wave proceeds to detach from the end of the plasma and propagates forward as the RF pulse. We have developed a four stage model of these plasma wake surface waves and find that it accurately predicts the RF from a wide range of experiments, including both 800 nm and 3.9 μm laser systems.

The development of chirped pulse amplification [1] has enabled an array of exotic physics [2–4], including atmospheric filamentation [5]. Filamentation in turn produces interesting and useful effects, from supercontinuum generation [6, 7], broadband THz radiation [8, 9], and RF pulses, which have recently been explored in great detail [10–15]. We have discovered that a novel combination of a plasma wake field and a surface wave is responsible for this filament RF. Femtosecond lasers are becoming important spectroscopic tools (both in the lab [16] and for remote sensing [17]), and the added production of pulsed RF promises to expand the utility of these systems [18–20], and to provide insight into the physics of filamentation.

During typical $\lambda = 800$ nm filamentation Kerr self-focusing and plasma defocusing are in rough balance, resulting a plasma column with a density of $n_e \sim 10^{22}$ m^{-3} [21, 22]. This electron density corresponds to a plasma frequency of $\omega_{pl} \simeq 6 \times 10^{12}$ rad/s, which is closely linked to the generation of THz radiation. In the single color THz theory of [8] the freshly ionized electrons receive a ponderomotive push from the laser pulse, thus exciting a coherent longitudinal current I_z in the plasma (which is quickly damped by the high collision frequency). This short current pulse translates at c behind the laser pulse, thereby producing a conical shell of radially polarized THz radiation.

The RF resembles the THz radiation in some ways, and differs critically in others. It has a similar conical shell spatial profile and radial polarization, which indicates that a GHz scale longitudinal current pulse is also generated within the plasma. However it also has a well defined broadband peak in the 5-15 GHz range (and is not the tail of the THz radiation [11, 13, 14]) and the RF amplitude grows strongly with decreasing pressure [11, 13], in contrast to the THz which falls off sharply [23]. A distinct physical mechanism thus must be responsible for the RF.

Exploratory Particle In Cell (PIC) simulations [24–30] (see section 1 in [31] for more details) provided the key insights that explain the RF generation. They revealed that a hot shell of electrons expands off the plasma surface into the surrounding atmosphere over roughly 50 ps (as anticipated by [32]), and that the corresponding current density J_r depends strongly on the electron-neutral collision frequency. Subsequent simulations demonstrated that this Plasma Wake field (PW) excites a Surface Wave (SW) on the outer boundary of the plasma (namely, a long wavelength Surface Plasmon Polariton (SPP)[33, 34], with a speed approaching c). Finally the SW was found to effectively detach from the end of the plasma, with most of the energy being then converted into a broadband RF pulse.

The PWSW numerical model is split into 4 stages, as length scales spanning 7 orders of magnitude need to be resolved. First the initial electron distribution function $\mathcal{N}_e$ is determined. In a typical $\lambda = 800$ nm experiment a linearly polarized, single color, 40 mJ pulse is focused into a quartz cell with a $f/60$ mirror, which sets the beam waist ω_0 to 30 μm (10 mJ and $f/15$ focusing are common for $\lambda = 3.9$ μm). The resulting Keldysh parameter $\gamma = \omega_{laser}\sqrt{2m_e I_{pot}}/(q_e E)$ is close to 1, so we use the general ionization rate $\mathcal{W}$ from [35], which is supported by experimental data [36] near atmospheric pressure (other ionization mechanisms will likely be needed for 10 μm lasers [37]). A laser intensity of $I \sim 5 \times 10^{17}$ W/m^2 generates enough plasma at 1 atm for intensity clamping [21] to occur (with $\mathcal{W} \sim 10^{12}$ s^{-1}), which leads to an estimated plasma length L_{pl} of 25 cm, and a radius r_{pl} of $\sim$ 1 mm (see section 2 of [31] for more details). At 1 Torr I increases to $\sim 2 \times 10^{18}$ W/m^2, which ionizes much of the O_2, and the plasma is reduced to $L_{pl} \simeq 13$ cm and $r_{pl} \simeq 0.5$ mm. In turn, the lower energy 3.9 μm laser plasmas are shorter, with L_{pl} ranging from about 1 to 2 cm.

These estimates match well (within 25%) with photographic measurements of the plasma taken at different pressures (available in section 2 of [31]). Simulations of filamentation with these parameters have also been performed using a Unidirectional Pulse Propagation Equa-

tions (UPPE) solver [38]. These agree with the overall dimensions of the plasma column, but also indicate that there is rich fine scale structure throughout the plasma (as expected as we are in the multifilamentary regime [39–41]). For this letter we simplify and do not include fine scale plasma perturbations. The plasma column is approximated as having a constant density central core due to intensity clamping, and then a 100 μm radial ramp down to zero density at the outer radius r_{pl}.

The velocity distribution is determined by our PIC code: given $E(\vec{x},t)$ the air is ionized at the $\mathcal{W}$ rate [35] and the new electrons are accelerated through the remainder of the pulse [28] (code to perform these calculations is included in [31]). In general the velocity distribution is influenced by both the details of strong field ionization near $\gamma = 1$ (e.g. [42]), and by the deformation of the laser pulse during filamentation. For this work we further simplify and assume that the electrons are ionized with zero initial velocity and are then accelerated by the remainder of a Gaussian pulse (with $\hat{x}$ polarization and propagating in $+z$). As a whole the initial $\mathcal{N}_e$ is highly non-Maxwellian, and at 100 Torr has a peak kinetic energy $K_{tail} \simeq 5$ eV, and an average kinetic energy $K_{avg} \simeq 0.6$ eV, while these increase at 1 Torr to $K_{tail} \simeq 16$ eV and $K_{avg} \simeq 2$ eV. For 3.9 μm lasers the kinetic energy is ~ 25 times larger, as the laser intensities are comparable and the energy scales as λ^2.

We next consider the evolution of the plasma column. We construct thin transverse slices of plasma given $\mathcal{N}_e$, with periodic boundary conditions used in the longitudinal direction $\hat{z}$ (which is valid to leading order as the electron velocities are a small fraction of c) and simulate the radial evolution with our PIC code. The Debye length is quite small: $\lambda_{Debye} \simeq 10$ nm, so we use an energy conserving method [43] to calculate the Lorentz force. The electron-neutral elastic collision frequency ν_{eN} depends on the cross sections for O_2 and N_2, which for our energies is roughly 10 Å^2 [44]. In turn the electron-ion momentum-transfer collision frequency is given by $\nu_{ei} = 7.7{\times}10^{-12} n_e \ln(\Lambda_C)/K_{eV}^{3/2}$, where $\Lambda_C = 6\pi n_e \lambda_{Debye}^3$ [45]. The resulting radial current density J_r and electron density n_e are then recorded as functions of radius and time (more detail can be found in section 3 of [31]). These are well resolved with a mesh resolution of $\Delta x = \Delta y = 2$ μm, and a macro-particle weight of $\sim$10 on the outer edge of the plasma.

The electron number density for $\lambda = 800$ nm simulations of the PW at 100, 10, and 1 Torr can be seen in Fig. 1. The outer edge of the plasma at $t = 0$ has a simplified step function profile, with $n_e = 10^{20}$ m^{-3} at radius $r_{pl} = 0.5$ mm. Thus, in addition to the PW being launched off of the edge of this plasma, a coherent radial plasma frequency oscillation of $\sim$90 GHz is stimulated in the interior [46] and a SPP at $\sim$63 GHz is excited on the surface [33, 34, 47]. The PW that expands out into the neutral atmosphere ($r > r_{pl}$) is insensitive to the density

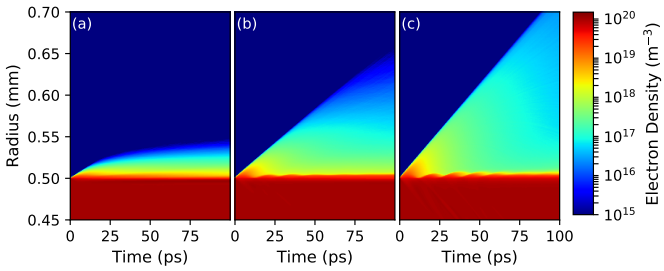


FIG. 1. Log plots of the electron density $n_e(r,t)$ showing the plasma wake variation at pressures of 100 (a), 10 (b), and 1 Torr (c) for a $\lambda = 800$ nm laser pulse. The plasma outer radius has been set to $r_{pl} = 0.5$ mm for all 3 pressures for comparison purposes.

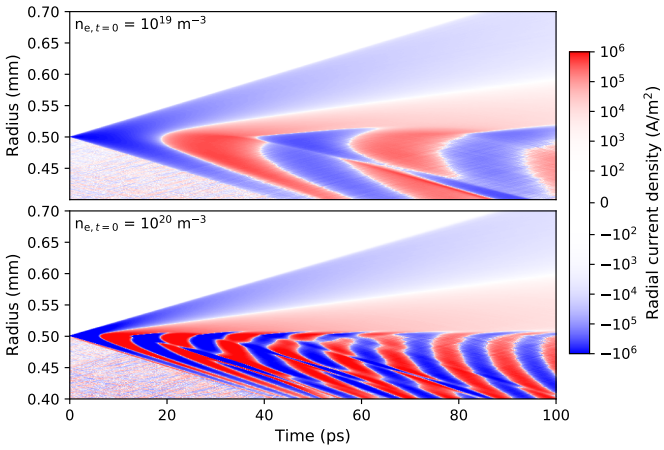


FIG. 2. Log plots of the radial current density $J_r(r,t)$ at 1 Torr (800 nm source), as it evolves in a transverse slice of plasma. The initial density at the edge of the plasma has been given a step function profile, with a value of $n_e = 10^{19}$ m^{-3} in the top plot and $n_e = 10^{20}$ m^{-3} on the bottom. The profiles of the plasma wakes outside the column ($r > r_{pl} = 0.5$ mm) are quite similar, while at the surface SPPs are excited at roughly $\sim$20 and $\sim$60 GHz respectively, along with higher frequency volume plasmons in the interior.

of the outer edge of the plasma (see Fig. 2), as opposed to the excited surface and volume plasmons.

Analytic approximations provide a useful complement to the simulations. Consider the late time electron density at a small distance r_Δ off the surface of the plasma at radius r_{pl}. Using Gauss's law and approximating $\ln((r_{pl}+r_\Delta)/r_{pl})$ as r_Δ/r_{pl} for $r_\Delta \ll r_{pl}$ we find the that the number of electrons per unit length n_L that escape to r_Δ scales as:

$$n_L(r_\Delta) \simeq \frac{2\pi\epsilon_0 K_{eV}}{q_e}\frac{r_{pl}}{r_\Delta}, \tag{1}$$

where $K_{eV} \simeq K_{tail}$ is the kinetic energy of the hot electrons that lead the escape. The radial electrostatic field $E_{r,stat}$ that corresponds to n_L has a simple form: $E_{r,stat}(r_\Delta) = K_{eV}/r_\Delta$. At $\lambda = 800$ nm and 1 Torr

$K_{tail} \simeq 16$ eV and $r_\Delta \simeq 60$ μm, giving $E_{r,stat} \simeq 2.7\times10^5$ V/m. This allows for an estimate of the PW evolution timescale: an electron with energy $K_{tail} = 16$ eV in an electric field of this magnitude follows a parabolic trajectory over 100 ps. This compares well with the spread of electrons seen in Fig. 1. The magnitude of the radial current density can likewise be approximated as:

$$J_r \simeq v_{eff}(t)\frac{q_e n_L}{2\pi r_{pl} r_\Delta}; v_{eff}(t) = \min\begin{cases} v_{tail} \\ v_{diff}(t) \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

where the effective velocity $v_{eff}(t)$ is the minimum of the tail velocity and the Fickian diffusion speed $v_{diff}(t) = (K_{tail}/(m_e\nu t))^{1/2}$. At 1 Torr this gives $J_r \simeq 1\times10^5$ A/m^2. Finally we note that caution is needed for small r_Δ values: Eq.s (1) and (2) only hold up to densities that are comparable to the original plasma edge density.

We next switch from these transverse PIC simulations to a continuum FDTD-Drude model in a 2D axisymmetric coordinate system [26] that spans the length of the plasma. The Drude model: $\partial_t \vec{J}_{pl} + \nu_{pl}\vec{J}_{pl} = \epsilon_0\omega_{pl}^2\vec{E}$ is integrated into the code via an auxiliary differential equation [48]. A mixed resolution of $\Delta r = 2$ μm and $\Delta z = 50$ μm suffices to resolve the SWs. The PW current profile J_r is driven across the surface of the plasma column in the longitudinal direction at the speed of light. In this work only the external radial currents $J_{r>r_{pl}}$ are used to drive the SW and subsequent RF (see section 4 of [31] for more detail). The higher frequency volume plasmons can also excite waves in neighboring lower density plasma, but we suspect that including fine scale plasma structure will act as surface roughness [49] and cause these to continuously detach.

As expected the PW current excites a broadband surface wave with similar frequency content. The frequency ω of the wave is considerably lower than the limit SPP frequency and it thus travels at velocity $c((2\omega^2-\omega_{pl}^2)/(\omega^2-\omega_{pl}^2))^{1/2}$ which approaches the speed of light. The resulting phase-matched copropagation leads to a steady growth in the surface wave intensity (see also [50, 51]).

The SW is well approximated by the Sommerfeld-Goubau [52, 53] solution for SPPs on a cylinder of finite conductivity. The external radial component of the electric field E_r has the form:

$$E_r(r,z,t) = -\frac{\pi r_{pl} E_0}{2r_{outer}} e^{i(\omega t - hz)} H_1^{(1)}(r\sqrt{k^2-h^2}), \quad (3)$$

for waves of frequency ω propagating in the $+z$ direction, with an amplitude of E_0 at the surface. The complex h wavenumber describes the SW wavelength and attenuation length scale, k is the free space wavenumber $k = \omega/c$, $H_1^{(1)}$ is a Hankel function of the first kind with order 1, and $r_{outer} = 1/|\sqrt{k^2-h^2}|$. For radii $r_{pl} < r < r_{outer}$ the Hankel function with complex argument is approximately $H_1^{(1)} \simeq -2r_{outer}/(\pi r)$, and for larger radii it falls off exponentially (as is typical for SPPs).

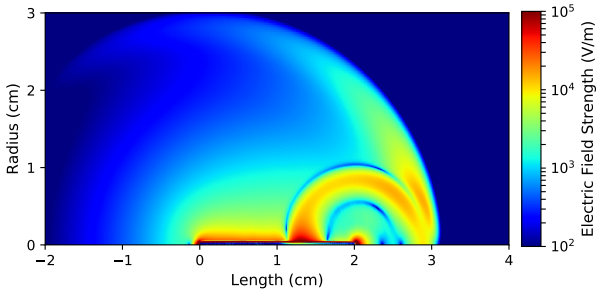


FIG. 3. Log plot of electric field strength shortly after the detachment of a $\lambda = 3.9$ μm, 10 Torr surface wave from a 2 cm plasma column, as simulated by the axisymmetric FDTD-Drude model.

Recent work [54, 55] has simplified the calculation of h through the use of the Lambert W function. Given a typical plasma conductivity σ a complex ξ can be defined:

$$\xi = -\frac{ke^{-2\gamma_{euler}}}{2}\sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_0\omega}{2\sigma}} r_{pl}(1+i), \quad (4)$$

(where γ_{euler} is the Euler-Mascheroni constant), and h is then given by:

$$h = \sqrt{k^2 + \frac{4\xi e^{-2\gamma_{euler}}}{r_{pl}^2 W_1(\xi)}}, \quad (5)$$

where the first branch of W is used. At 1 Torr the plasma has a radius $r_{pl} \simeq 0.5$ mm and conductivity $\sigma \simeq 2\times10^3$ S/m, and thus for a 10 GHz SW we find $h \simeq 210 + 3.2i$. The dispersive SW thus travels at about $0.988c$, attenuates by a factor of $1/e$ every 30 cm (if not being actively excited), and has a $1/r$ transverse envelope out to $r_{outer} \simeq 2.4$ cm, all of which compares well with simulations.

We next consider the excitation of the surface wave by the plasma wake currents. An isolated Hertzian dipole with uniform current I along an antenna of length L will radiate electromagnetic waves at a wavelength λ_{Dipole} with power: $P_{Dipole} = (\pi\eta_0/3)I^2L^2/\lambda_{Dipole}^2$. In our case we have a radial current distribution of approximate length r_Δ that is normal to a conducting cylinder of radius r_{pl}. When there is a separation of length scales $r_\Delta \ll r_{pl} \ll \lambda_{SW}$ and an overall radial current of I_r then the power that is primarily radiated into SWs is:

$$P_{SW} \simeq \frac{\pi\eta_0}{60} I_r^2 \frac{r_\Delta^2}{r_{pl}^{5/3}\lambda_{SW}^{1/3}}, \quad (6)$$

(where we have simplified with $\lambda_{SW} = 2\pi/\,\mathbb{R}\mathrm{e}(h)$). We note that the dimensionless term $r_\Delta^2/(r_{pl}^{5/3}\lambda_{SW}^{1/3})$ (compare to L^2/λ_{Dipole}^2 for the Hertzian dipole), has different

asymptotic scalings in other length scale regimes. Equation (6) applies both to a stationary radial antenna and the $\pm z$ wavetrains it emits, and to our case, where the antenna translates at c with its comoving SW pulse.

The total effective current $I_r(z)$ is found by integrating the current density J_r from 0 to z, and absent dissipation the amplitude E_0 of the SW in (3) would grow linearly (for constant J_r). However there is dissipation due to the finite conductivity of the plasma, and the attenuation coefficient $\alpha = \mathbb{I}\mathrm{m}(h)$ is similar in magnitude to $1/L_{pl}$. The SW thus grows linearly initially and then saturates after several $1/\alpha$, and the effective total radial current after propagating a distance z is:

$$I_r(z) = 2\pi r_{pl} J_r \frac{1 - e^{-\alpha z}}{\alpha}. \quad (7)$$

We express the amplitude of the final SW in terms of its longitudinal current, as $I_z = 2\pi r_{pl} E_0/\eta_0$. Integrating (3) to find the SW peak power and setting this equal to (6) we find:

$$I_z(z) = \frac{2\pi^2 r_\Delta J_r (1 - e^{-\alpha z})}{\alpha (30 \ln(r_{outer}/r_{pl}))^{1/2}} \left(\frac{r_{pl}}{\lambda_{SW}}\right)^{1/6}. \quad (8)$$

For the $\lambda = 800$ nm laser this gives $I_z \simeq 0.6$ A at the end of the plasma at 1 Torr, a current of $I_z \simeq 0.2$ A at 10 Torr, and $I_z \simeq 0.05$ A at 100 Torr, which are close to the measured currents in the corresponding simulations.

When the surface wave reaches the end of plasma the majority of the energy detaches and propagates forward as the RF pulse, with the reflected wave decaying as it travels back down the plasma. Fig. 3 shows an example of this, where the SW has just detached from a 2 cm plasma column produced by a $\lambda = 3.9$ μm laser source at 10 Torr. In this way the system resembles a surface wave end-fire antenna [56, 57]. The second half of the primarily one cycle RF pulse forms as the SW separates from the plasma, with some variation in the profile dependent on the abruptness of the detachment. The recorded $I_z(z,t)$ currents from the SW simulation are used in a $\sim$1 m^2 laboratory scale axisymmetric FDTD model, with resolution $\Delta r = \Delta z = 0.5$ mm. Plots of the resulting Fourier transformed RF field strengths at 10 Torr for both $\lambda = 800$ nm and $\lambda = 3.9$ μm simulations can be seen in Fig. 4 (see section 5 of [31] for more detail).

To directly compare with lab results the simulated electric fields are converted to peak to peak voltages V_{pp} via a frequency dependent calibration factor $C_{E/V}(f_{GHz}) \simeq 50 + 10 f_{GHz}$ (which captures the horn antenna response [11]). We adapt an equation for energy spectral density radiated per unit solid angle derived for THz radiation [8]:

$$\frac{d^2U}{d\omega d\Omega} = \frac{|I_z(\omega)|^2 \sin^2\theta}{4\pi\epsilon_0 c(1-\cos\theta)^2} \sin^2\left(\frac{L_{pl}\omega}{2c}(1-\cos\theta)\right), \quad (9)$$

to construct voltage profiles for our analytic approximations. The average amplitude of I_z (8) over the length

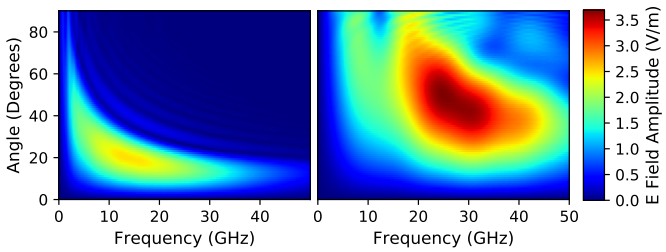


FIG. 4. Plots of simulated electric field strength as a function of frequency and angle for RF pulses from a 40 mJ, $f_N = 60$, 800 nm laser source (left, [11]) and a 12 mJ, $f_N = 15$, 3.9 μm source (right, [13]), with both cases run at 10 Torr. The numerical profiles and amplitudes closely match the experimental results.

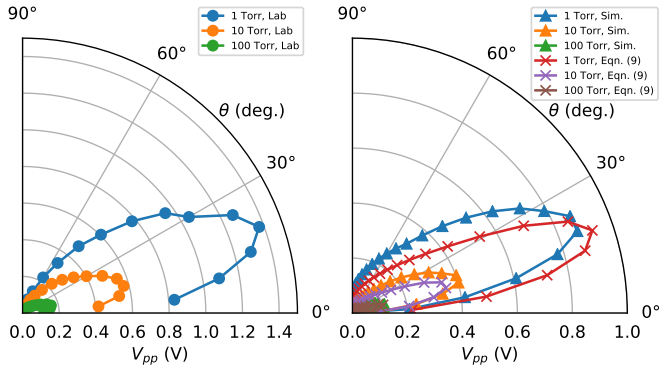


FIG. 5. Polar plots of the detector peak to peak Voltage V_{pp} for the $\lambda = 800$ nm laser source as a function of angle and pressure as measured in the lab (left), and as calculated by both the simulation framework (right, triangles), and by the associated analytic approximations (right, $\times$ ticks) that culminate in (9).

of the plasma is applied to a $\sim$10 GHz pulse, which is Fourier transformed for use with (9) (along with the calibration factor), and then converted back to an effective V_{pp} (code that implements all of these analytic approximations is available in [31]).

In general simulations with varying pressures, focal geometries, and laser pulse energies and wavelengths all produce RF that nicely matches recent experimental results [11–14]. The magnitude of the simulated RF is a bit lower than the lab data for the runs shown in Fig. 5, but is within the errors for both the simulations and in the experimental data. Subtle changes in Ti:Sapphire laser alignment generates $\pm$50% amplitude variations at a given pressure (with the spatial and frequency content being much more stable). It is suspected that the slight laser pulse variations are amplified during filamentation, leading to fine scale changes in the plasma radius, density, and electron velocities. Plausible variations in the same parameters lead to comparable changes in the simulated RF amplitude as well.

We have demonstrated that a plasma wake field that excites a surface wave is responsible for the generation of filament RF. The rich internal dynamics of the plasma merits further research: we expect that stochastic higher frequency RF may inform on the fine scale structure of the plasma and the nonlinear optics that generate it. The ionization model needs to be expanded to include more physical effects (e.g. [37, 42, 58]), and strong field ionization can be further explored with noble gas filament RF. The plasma can also be driven into the strongly coupled regime with harder focusing, and we intend to model resulting RF with the use of [59, 60]. Finally we note that it may be possible to recreate the core mechanism – an antenna that copropagates with the wave that it excites – in other settings and thereby drive strong coherent radiation.

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