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Role of Microtearing Turbulence in DIII-D High Bootstrap Current Fraction Plasmas

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1	On the Role of Microtearing Turbulence in DIII-D High Bootstrap
2	Current Fraction Plasmas
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8	Abstract. We report the first direct comparisons of microtearing turbulence simulations to
9	experimental measurements in a representative high bootstrap current fraction (fbs) plasma.
10	Previous studies of high fBs plasmas carried out in DIII-D with large radius internal transport
11	barriers (ITBs) have found that while the ion energy transport is accurately reproduced by
12	neoclassical theory, the electron transport remains anomalous, and not well-described by existing
13	quasilinear transport models. A key feature of these plasmas is the large value of normalized
14	pressure gradient, which is shown to completely stabilize conventional drift-wave and kinetic
15	ballooning mode instabilities in the ITB, but destabilizes the microtearing mode. Nonlinear
16	gyrokinetic simulations of the ITB region performed with the CGYRO code demonstrate that the
17	microtearing modes are robustly unstable and capable of driving electron energy transport levels
18	comparable to experimental levels for input parameters consistent with the experimental
19	measurements. These simulations uniformly predict that the microtearing mode fluctuation and
20	flux spectra extend to significantly shorter wavelengths than the range of linear instability,
21	representing significantly different nonlinear dynamics and saturation mechanisms than
22	conventional drift-wave turbulence, also consistent with the fundamental tearing nature of the
23	instability. The predicted transport levels are found to be most sensitive to the magnetic shear,
24	rather than the temperature gradients more typically identified as driving turbulent plasma
25	transport.

Electron energy transport in a magnetized plasma is still not a fully understood subject in 1 magnetic fusion research. Experimentally observed energy transport levels are far larger than that 2 3 induced by collisional processes described by neoclassical theory₂. Various drift wave instabilities, such as the ion temperature gradient mode (ITG), trapped electron mode (TEM) and electron 4 temperature gradient mode (ETG), have been proposed as mechanisms for driving the observed 5 transport levels. Gyrofluid and gyrokinetic simulations of these instabilities have yielded 6 7 impressive agreement with experimental observations for many3-9, but not all10, cases. More 8 recently, multiscale simulations11-13 have shown that strong nonlinear interactions may occur between different scale components of the turbulent system (ranging from $k_y \rho_s \sim 0.1$ to $k_y \rho_s$ 9 ~100 where $k_v = nq/r$, n, q and r are the toroidal mode number, safety factor, and outboard 10 midplane minor radius, respectively, and ρ_s the ion sound speed gyroradius) in the 11 DIII-D ITER-baseline14, Alcator C-Mod15, and JET16 plasmas. Specifically, it was found that the 12 experimental fluxes could be reproduced only when cross-scale interactions among ITG, TEM and 13 ETG are included. In addition, it has been shown that microtearing modes (MTM) can also drive 14 substantial electron thermal transport in both spherical17-19 and conventional tokamaks4,20,21, and 15 also exhibit multiscale interactions with ETG modes 13. 16

17 DIII-D is a conventional aspect ratio tokamak that aims to help establish the scientific basis for the optimization of tokamak approach to fusion energy production. Scenarios with high 18 bootstrap current22 fraction ($f_{BS} = I_{BS} / I_p$), where I_{BS} is the spontaneously generated toroidal 19 current induced by the pressure gradient under toroidal geometry₂₃ and I_p is the total plasma 20 current, are desirable for steady-state or long-pulse operation of future reactors24 as they can reduce 21 the cost for auxiliary heating power. Building upon on the high f_{BS} scenario pioneered in JT-60U 22 and other machines24-29, the high f_{BS} scenario currently being developed in DIII-D30-32 as an 23 attractive candidate for future burning plasmas is characterized by a strong internal transport 24 barrier (ITB) in almost all the kinetic channels and a relatively high safety factor q ($q_{95} > 6$, where 25 q95 denotes the value at the 95% poloidal flux surface). 26

One question of great interest is understanding what physical mechanism controls the ITB 27 strength in this scenario. Transport analysis of high f_{BS} discharges on DIII-D shows that 28 neoclassical transport often dominates the ion energy channel₃₀ while the mechanism(s) 29 responsible for electron energy transport, which is far larger than predicted by neoclassical theory, 30 remains unclear. Analysis of earlier high f_{BS} discharges in JT-60U33,34 and other machines relied 31 upon older reduced transport models such as the CDBM35 and GLF2336 models, which assume the 32 transport is driven by local ballooning-type instabilities but have a wide variety of restrictive 33 simplifying assumptions and limitations regarding physics such as flow shear33. More recent 34 transport modeling of DIII-D high f_{BS} discharges which used the TGLF37 model was unable to 35

reproduce the inferred electron energy transport levels within the ITB38, particularly at high safety 1 factor q₃₂. The DIII-D scenario typically has high toroidal $b_r = 2m_0 p / B_r^2$ and normalized value 2 $\beta_N = \beta_t / (I_p / aB)_{30}$ (2.5% and 3.3, respectively, for the case considered here), larger than the 3 earlier JT-60U plasmas_{26,39} and closer to the values expected in a future reactor. Here, p, B_t and 4 a are the plasma pressure, toroidal magnetic field and the value of r at the separatrix, respectively. 5 In NSTX plasmas with dominant neoclassical ion transport and electron ITBs (but significantly 6 lower q values than the high fbs scenario of interest here), gyrokinetic modeling predicted short-7 wavelength ETG turbulence should dominate40. 8

In order to resolve this question, a systematic gyrokinetic stability and transport analysis 9 of the ITB region from a representative high f_{BS} discharge (shot number #176125@2600ms) was 10 performed. The specific radius considered is $\rho = 0.6$ (Fig. 1), which has $a/L_{Te} = 4.1$ and 11 s = -0.8. Here, ρ is the normalized toroidal flux, $a / L_{T_e} = -aT_e / \nabla T_e$, and s is the magnetic shear 12 defined as $s = \frac{r}{a} \frac{dq}{dr}$. The kinetic profiles come from a dedicated profile fitting tool41,42. Additional 13 parameters are listed in Table I, where R is the plasma torus major radius, v_{e} is the collisionality 14 defined as $v_e = \frac{a}{c_e} \frac{\sqrt{2\pi e^4 n_e}}{m_e^{1/2} T_e^{3/2}} \ln \Lambda_{43}$, and c_s , m_e and e is the ion sound speed, electron mass and 15 electron charge, respectively. $\beta_{e,unit} = 8\pi n_e T_e / B_{unit}^2$, with B_{unit} the effective field strength44, and 16 $\alpha = -q^2 (\partial_r V / 2\pi^2) (V / 2\pi^2 R_0)^{1/2} 4\pi \partial_r P / (r B_{unit}^2)^2 \approx -q^2 R \beta_e \nabla p / p \text{ in an infinite aspect-ratio}$ 17 shifted circle geometry₄₅, where V is the plasma volume. γ_E is the shearing rate of radial electrical 18 field (E_r) defined as $\gamma_E = -\frac{a}{c_c} \frac{r}{q} \frac{\partial \omega_0}{\partial r}$ where ω_0 is the toroidal rotation frequency contributed by the 19 E_r . 20

Table I. Parameters of $\rho = 0.6$

r / a	R/a	a / L_{Te}	a / L_{T_i}	a / L_{n_e}	T_e / T_i
0.62	3.05	4.1	2.7	3.4	0.73
S	q	$eta_{_{E,unit}}$	α	${\gamma}_{\scriptscriptstyle E}$	V _e
-0.80	4.3	5.9e-3	3.9	0.082	0.14

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FIG. 1. Profiles of safety factor $\frac{q}{q}$ and electron temperature $\frac{T_e}{T_e}$. The uncertainties of the $\frac{q}{q}$ profile (indicated by the shaded region) are evaluated using a Monte Carlo analysis based upon diagnostic uncertainties.

5 Linear calculation using CGYRO43 shows that the most common turbulent transport instability candidates, i.e. electrostatic drift waves ranging from $k_v \rho_s = 0.1$ to 100, which includes 6 7 the typical ITG, TEM and ETG modes, are all fully stabilized by the strong local Shafranov shift, 8 which is proportional to α (hence also called α stabilization₄₆). By systematically scaling the value of α in electrostatic stability analysis, it is found that by 70% of the experimental α value, 9 the TEM and ETG instabilities at this radius are stabilized (Fig 2(a)), while the ITG mode is 10 predicted to always be stable. More realistic electromagnetic calculations (which include both the 11 perpendicular and transverse magnetic field fluctuations) find that the kinetic ballooning mode 12 (KBM) is unstable for small values of α at long wavelengths, but can similarly be fully stabilized 13 14 at about half of the experimental α , leaving a stable gap at larger α . Interestingly, if we continue to increase α towards the experimental level, the MTM is eventually destabilized (Fig. 2(b) and 15 Fig. 2(c)). An additional test was performed in which $\frac{a}{L_n}$ and $\frac{a}{L_T}$ were respectively scaled 16 down and up simultaneously while keeping the pressure gradient fixed, and found that the ITG 17 and ETG modes are not destabilized until η_i and $\eta_e \sim 4$ ($\eta_{i,e} = L_{n_e} / L_{T_{i,e}}$), respectively, far larger 18 than the experimental values ($\eta_{i,exp} = 0.8$ and $\eta_{e,exp} = 1.2$). We note that (i) only the magnetic drift 19 velocity (geometry effect) is changed when the α scaling is performed while the a/L_T and $\beta_{e,unit}$ 20 21 are kept fixed, and (ii) non-local effects which might destabilize the KBM are not included.

In order to verify that the unstable mode is in fact a MTM, the scaling of the linear frequency, growth rate and eigenfunction with key driving and damping parameters are shown in Fig. 3. The frequency is shown to be very close to $W_{p_e}^* = k_y \Gamma_s(a/L_{p_e})$ (Fig. 3(a)), consistent with

MTM theory47,48, and the mode is found to be unstable over the range of $k_v \rho_s = [0.1, 0.3]$ (Fig. 1 3(b)). The eigenfunction of the parallel magnetic potential A_{\parallel} of $k_{\nu}\rho_s = 0.2$ is of tearing parity 2 3 (Fig. 3(c)), which is another strong indication of MTM. The existence of a strong A_{μ} peak at θ = 0 (where θ is the ballooning angle) has been carefully checked using a very high poloidal 4 resolution to eliminate possible numerical errors. It is shown that both higher q (Fig. 3(d)) and 5 lower |s| (Fig. 3(e)) are efficient for MTM destabilization since they are favorable in expanding 6 the current channel width, which both makes magnetic shielding more difficult as first shown by 7 Drake *et al*⁴⁹ and reduces k_{\parallel} (» $k_{v}s/q$) so that field line bending stabilization is weakened. In 8 addition, if α is varied self-consistently with q while the pressure gradient is kept fixed, the MTM 9 can be more sensitive to the value of q (Fig. 3(d) black line). In addition, the mode's growth rate 10 depends non-monotonically 50,51 on the collisionality, achieving a maximum value at $v_e \sim 1 \frac{c_s}{a}$ 11 (Fig. 3(f)), which is comparable to the real frequency and consistent with theoretical expectations 12 13 for MTMs48. Most notably, our analysis indicates that at these parameters, the magnetic shear has the largest impact on MTM growth rate (in terms of fractional change in γ for fractional change 14 in physics parameter). 15

16 With linear analysis showing that all the ballooning type modes (including the ITG, TEM, ETG, and KBM) are stable and far from instability boundaries, only the MTM survives at the 17 experimental parameters. These results indicate a clear inability of previously discussed reduced 18 19 transport models to accurately predict the electron transport in the ITB region of these plasmas, as 20 they rely upon ballooning-type modes being locally unstable. Furthermore, these plasma conditions provide an ideal setting for evaluating the capability of MTMs to drive experimentally 21 relevant electron energy flux (Q_e) levels in the core of conventional aspect-ratio tokamaks. As 22 noted in the introduction, this question is particularly relevant for assessing our ability to accurately 23 24 predict the structure of ITBs in future steady-state scenarios, where bootstrap currents driven by strong pressure gradients will play a much larger role in setting confinement and performance 25 levels than inductive scenarios. 26





FIG. 2. (a) $\gamma / k_y \rho_s$ (where γ is the linear growth) of the electrostatic drift waves for different scaling factors of experimental α . The frequency (b) and growth rate (c) of dominant electromagnetic instability of $k_y \rho_s = 0.2$ versus α_{scale} .



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FIG. 3. The (a) frequency and (b) growth rate spectrum of MTM. (c) The eigenfunction of $A_{\parallel}(k_{y}\rho_{s} = 0.2)$ in the ballooning space. The growth rate of $k_{y}\rho_{s} = 0.2$ versus (d) q, (e) s and (f) v_{e} . α_{exp} and α_{cons} in (d) mean that α is fixed to the experimental value and varies with q selfconsistently, respectively.

In order to assess the ability of MTMs to actually drive electron transport at levels 1 2 consistent with experiment (as inferred via power balance analysis performed with the TRANSP 3 codes₂), a series of nonlinear spectral gyrokinetic simulations including extensive convergence tests were performed with the CGYRO code. Only key results of the simulations are reported in 4 this Letter, with more extensive discussion deferred to a future publication. Our simulations used 5 a 128-point velocity space grid (8 energies and 16 pitch angles). In configuration space, we use up 6 7 to 48 poloidal grid points and a 5th order differencing scheme in the parallel direction, combined 8 with 120 radial modes and 24 binormal modes. The mode numbers are chosen to have resolutions of $\Delta k_x \rho_s = 0.2$ and $\Delta k_y \rho_s = 0.08$ such that $(L_x, L_y) = (31 \rho_s, 78 \rho_s)$, where L_x and L_y are the 9 radial and binormal length, respectively. $\Delta x / \rho_s \sim 0.25$ and $k_{x,max} \rho_s$ is 11.8, which is enough to 10 resolve the fine structure of MTM turbulence. Three charged species (deuterium and carbon ions 11 as well as electrons) are included, and magnetic shaping via a generalized Miller 12 parameterization₅₃ is employed. Both the perpendicular and transverse magnetic perturbations are 13 included. We use the Sugama model to describe collisional effects54. All simulations were 14 15 performed on the CORI machine at NERSC, with 9216 cores used for a typical simulation. Each simulation required 24 – 48 hours to complete, and approximately eight million core hours were 16 used in total. 17

The time traces of the energy flux of each species for experimental parameters are shown 18 in Fig. 4(a). A large electron energy flux Q_e but near-zero ion energy flux Q_i is observed, which 19 is consistent with the experimental analysis, after accounting for neoclassical transport. In addition, 20 it is found that almost all of Q_e is driven by magnetic flutter (A_{\parallel} , Fig. 4(b)), in accordance with 21 the linear analysis depicted in Fig. 2 and fitting expected MTM characteristics. Although the 22 equilibrium E_r shearing rate is far larger than the MTM growth rate, it is found to have no effect 23 on the predicted flux, as shown in Fig 4(a) and consistent with the previous work4,20. An increase 24 of the radial grid number by ~60% ($k_{x,max}\rho_s$ of 19.0 in Fig 4) yields a similar predicted flux 25 spectrum, indicating good convergence in $k_{x,\max}\rho_s$. As described above, the MTM is the only 26 linearly unstable mode for these parameters, and is itself only unstable over the range $k_v \rho_s = 0.1$ -27 0.3 (Fig. 3b), whereas the Q_e spectrum extends well-beyond $k_v \rho_s = 1$. A similar phenomenon was 28 observed in earlier MTM simulations by Doerk et al21. We also note the nonlinear excitation of 29 linearly stable MTMs by linearly unstable ITG modes has been previously studied by Hatch et 30 al.55, although the ITG (and other ballooning modes) are stable in this case. Developing a physics-31 based understanding of what sets the saturated MTM flux spectrum is crucial if a reliable reduced 32 model of MTM transport suitable for use in future predictive transport modeling studies is to be 33 34 developed. In this context, it remains to be determined whether the model of Rafig et al 56.57 can reproduce the predicted MTM flux and fluctuation spectra. 35





FIG. 4. (a) The trace traces of the gyroBohm normalized energy flux of different species; 'D', 'C'
and 'e' represent deuterium, carbon, and electrons, respectively. (b) The energy spectrum of Q_e induced
by different fields. The results of k_{x,max} ρ_s equal to 11.8 and 19.0 are shown.

5 While this simulation demonstrates that the MTM drives finite values of Q_e but negligible values of Q_i for the experimental parameters, the predicted value $Q_{e,sim}/Q_{gB} = 0.32$ is several times 6 lower than the experimentally inferred value of $Q_{e,expt}/Q_{gB} = 1.2$. Here, $Q_{gB} = n_e T_e c_s (r_s / a)^2 43$. 7 However, experimental uncertainties must be accounted for in any meaningful comparisons 8 9 between experiment and simulation, particularly gradient-driven turbulence simulations such as these. In this Letter, we focus on assessing the impact of experimental uncertainties in the magnetic 10 shear s on the results, motivated by the linear stability analysis shown in Fig. 3. The uncertainties 11 of s corresponding to the nominal experimental q profile shown in Fig. 1 are shown in Fig. 5(a) 12 and the corresponding variation in the linear growth rate spectra in Fig. 5(b). The fractional 13 uncertainties in s are significantly larger than q due to the radial derivative inherent in the definition 14 of s. Specifically, at $\rho = 0.6$, s is predicted to lie between -1.2 and -0.3. The corresponding values 15 of Q_e predicted by CGYRO for different values of s are shown in Fig. 5(c). Consistent with the 16 linear analysis, Q_e significantly increases with weaker magnetic shear. In particular, the 17 simulations match the experimentally inferred Q_e at s = -0.3, which is (barely) within the 18 19 experimental uncertainties, although we also note that all other parameters have been held fixed, including key MTM drivers such as a/L_{Te} and ve. In addition, we note that all local ballooning type 20 21 instabilities are stable for the entire range of s considered due to the strong α stabilization and 22 therefore all the fluxes shown in Fig. 5(c) are driven purely by MTMs.

Examination of the Q_e spectrum in Fig. 4(c) shows that significant contributions to the total flux come from values of $k_y \rho_s \le 0.1$, where the MTMs are also linearly stable, consistent with some previous MTM theorys8 and modeling18 studies. Additional studies in which the binormal simulation domain size L_y is increased (corresponding to a decrease in the minimum

 $k_{y}\rho_{s}$ value denoted by $\Delta k_{y}\rho_{s}$) find that the predicted values of Q_{e} increase as well but with a 1 minimum value of $Q_{e}/Q_{gB} \sim 0.3$, as shown in Fig. 5(c). We note that a value of $k_y \rho_s = 0.04$ 2 corresponds to toroidal mode number n = 1, and so further increases in L_y would not be physical. 3 Moreover, we find that the Q_e magnitude and spectral shape depends sensitively upon the value 4 of s used, likely reflecting the strong dependence of the linear growth rate spectrum on s (Fig. 5(d)). 5 In particular, at s = -0.3, where the $Dk_{\mu}r_{s} = 0.08$ simulations best match the experimental flux, the 6 Q_e spectrum peaks at $k_v r_s = 0.4$. A fuller exploration of this issue will be presented in future 7 work; here we seek only to emphasize that only the MTMs generate electron energy fluxes 8 consistent with the experimentally inferred levels and parameters. 9



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FIG. 5. (a) The *s* profile with uncertainties evaluated from Monte Carlo analysis; (b) linear MTM spectra of different magnetic shear; (c) Comparison between the CGYRO predicted Q_e and experimental one; (d) variation of $Q_e(k_y)$ with *s* for $Dk_y r_s = 0.08$.

Additional linear analysis indicates the MTM dominates across the whole ITB region, from 14 $\rho = 0.45$ to $\rho = 0.65$, with maximum growth rate vs. radius plotted in Fig. 6(a). The remarkable 15 increase in growth rate at $\rho = 0.65$ compared to $\rho = 0.6$ mainly comes from the weaker magnetic 16 shear there while all the other background parameters are similar, consistent with Fig. 3(e). So-17 called nonlocal effects could alter the linear growth rates, although the size and magnitude of their 18 impact are difficult to quantify. In order to identify the conditions under which MTM would 19 dominate, a linear scan of $k_y \rho_s = 0.2$ over the q and a/L_T space was performed (assuming 20 $L_{T_e} = L_{T_i}$) based on the background parameters of $\rho = 0.6$ (Fig. 6(b)). As can be seen, the DW 21 22 and MTM instabilities separately dominate in low and high q, respectively. The reason is that higher q leads to a strong Shafranov shift, which is favorable for α stabilization of DW; while 23 increasing α and weakening k_{\parallel} due to higher q contribute to MTM destabilization, consistent 24

with Fig. 3(d). Findings shown in Fig. 6 indicate that MTM may be routinely destabilized in the high f_{BS} scenario and would likely be responsible for regulating the electron pressure profile in the ITB region. Future work will extend this analysis to scenarios currently being developed for next-generation devices such as ITER.





6 FIG. 6. (a) Maximum growth rate of MTM in the ITB region. (b) Contour plot of the growth 7 rate of $k_y \rho_s = 0.2$ in the q and a/L_T space.

8 *Conclusion*. Identifying the mechanism(s) driving electron transport in core ITBs when the ion thermal transport is neoclassical remains an important open question in tokamak research. In 9 this paper, we have demonstrated convincingly for the first time that MTMs are uniquely able to 10 drive the inferred levels of electron transport in the ITB region of a typical high f_{BS} DIII-D plasma, 11 which is a candidate scenario for future tokamak reactors. Gyrokinetic analysis finds that all other 12 local ballooning-type instabilities, including such as the ITG, TEM, ETG, and KBM modes, are 13 strongly stabilized for these conditions by the large local Shafranov shift α which, on the other 14 hand, destabilizes the MTMs. Relative to previous studies of high f_{BS} plasmas in machines such 15 as JT-60U₃₉, the DIII-D plasmas have higher $\frac{b}{\alpha}$ and $\frac{a}{\alpha}$, which we have shown here can 16 significantly impact the dominant instability. These results present a strong challenge for 17 predictive core transport models based purely upon conventional ballooning instabilities and 18 motivate the further development and validation of such models to include MTM physics. In 19 20 particular, these simulations predict significantly different fluctuation characteristics should be observed than would be expected if local ballooning modes are responsible for driving the 21 transport. More broadly, these findings generalize the conclusions of other recent transport 22 studies4,59, which identify MTMs as a "mode of last resort" in controlling the structure of transport 23 barriers from edge to core, and therefore, to the whole plasma, when conventional instabilities are 24 suppressed by mechanisms such as α stabilization or E_r shear. 25

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18 agency thereof.

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