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PAPER

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Advances in the physics studies for the JT-60SA tokamak exploitation and research plan

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Abstract

JT-60SA, the largest tokamak that will operate before ITER, has been designed and built jointly by Japan and Europe, and is due to start operation in 2020. Its main missions are to support ITER exploitation and to contribute to the demonstration fusion reactor machine and scenario design. Peculiar properties of JT-60SA are its capability to produce long-pulse, high- β , and highly shaped plasmas. The preparation of the JT-60SA Research Plan, plasma scenarios, and exploitation are producing physics results that are not only relevant to future JT-60SA experiments, but often constitute original contributions to plasma physics and fusion research. Results of this kind are presented in this paper, in particular in the areas of fast ion physics, high-beta plasma properties and control, and non-linear edge localised mode stability studies.

Keywords: JT-60SA tokamak, high beta scenarios, fast ions, MHD

(Some figures may appear in colour only in the online journal)

1. Introduction

JT-60SA is a fully superconducting tokamak device jointly designed, built, and in the near future exploited by Japan and Europe under the Broader Approach Satellite Tokamak Programme, and under the Japanese national programme. It is the largest tokamak ever built before ITER and due to start operation in 2020 [1]. Both before and during the D-T phase of ITER, it will exploit and extend the legacy both of JET and of the superconducting tokamaks presently in operation (WEST, EAST, KSTAR). The main missions of JT-60SA are: (i) to support the ITER experimental programme as a satellite machine; (ii) at the same time, to pave the way to the next step of the international fusion programme, i.e., the demonstration fusion reactor (DEMO). More specifically, JT-60SA should provide key elements for the choice of DEMO parameters and the design of DEMO scenarios, in particular for a steady-state, advanced performance design option. In addition to the large size (allowing high current and energy confinement), JT-60SA has been conceived with the main capabilities required to accomplish these missions: high β (the ratio of kinetic to magnetic pressure), high shaping, long pulse, a high-power and flexible heating and current drive (H&CD) system, and dedicated magnetic coils to provide adequate control of scenarios close to the performance limits.

The construction and assembly phase of the machine has been accompanied by the preparation of an extensive research plan [2], describing the various phases of the exploitation of the machine, in line with its progressive upgrades. This elaboration has included a number of coherent physics studies aimed at preparing a sound basis for the scientific exploitation of the

machine [3]. They involve advanced modelling connected with the priorities of the scientific programme; conceptual studies of diagnostics and other sub-systems to improve the quality of the experiments; and development and validation of operation oriented tools. The preparation of the exploitation of JT-60SA has served as a catalyst leading to the production of physics results that are not only relevant to future JT-60SA experiments, but often constitute original contributions to plasma physics and fusion research, which are summarised and briefly described in this paper. The focus of these studies can be defined as the sustainment and control of high- β long-pulse discharges in various plasma regimes. This requires a number of tools that have been studied and developed systematically:

- global discharge simulation and integrated scenario modelling of its phases
- wall conditioning (preparatory and inter-pulse)
- breakdown and current ramp-up
- flat-top sustainment and control (core and edge profiles, fast ions, power loads)
- control and mitigation of instabilities and disruptions

For each one of these elements, modelling studies have been carried out, but also specific projects of new machine sub-systems have been launched and are being carried out by EU and Japanese teams for use in the commissioning and/or in the subsequent experimental campaigns. In some cases, preparatory experiments and tests have been carried out in EU devices. In this paper the ensemble of these studies and the contribution they give to the sustainment and control of high- β long-pulse discharges in JT-60SA will be summarised, but specific highlights will be given on the most recent and advanced results.

Table 1. Nominal parameters of the JT-60SA tokamak. From top to bottom: toroidal magnetic field, plasma current, major and minor radii, aspect ratio, elongation and triangularity, plasma volume, flat-top duration, total H&CD power, negative-ion based neutral beam power (and injection energy), positive-ion based neutral beam power (and injection energy), and EC heating power (and wave frequencies).

B_t	2.25 T
I_p	5.5 MA
R/a	2.96/1.18 m
A	2.5
κ/δ	1.93/0.5
V_p	133 m ³
t (flat-top)	100 s
H&CD power	41 MW
N-NBI (500 keV)	10 MW
P-NBI (85 keV)	24 MW
ECRH (82, 110, 138 GHz)	7 MW

The paper is organized as follows: in section 2, the characteristics of the JT-60SA tokamak and the main elements of its experimental programme are briefly presented. In section 3, research advances towards controllable high- β , long-pulse scenarios in JT-60SA are described. Conclusions and prospects are presented in section 4.

2. The JT-60SA tokamak and experimental programme

An extensive description of the JT-60SA device and actuator characteristics can be found in [1–4] and they are briefly summarised here. The machine has been conceived in order to attain high plasma performance and fully non-inductive discharges, not only through large size and high H&CD systems, but also through a high and flexible shaping capability. The main parameters are shown in table 1. Optimisation of the aspect ratio ($A \sim 2.5$) and shaping factor $S = q_{95}I_p/(aB_t) \sim 7$ (where I_p is the plasma current, B_t the toroidal magnetic field, a the minor radius, and q_{95} the safety factor at 95% of the magnetic flux), in connection with the machine missions, have been key elements of the design, as well as the possibility of varying the plasma shape, from single null to double null, including an ITER-like shape. The machine's characteristics allow performing discharges in the three main ITER regimes, i.e., H-mode at high current (5.5 MA), advanced inductive (hybrid), and steady state at lower current. A set of reference scenarios has been developed and is described in [2]. Their main parameters are displayed in table 2.

A non-inductive current drive (CD) is provided by the 10 MW negative-ion based neutral beam system (N-NBI) and by the 7 MW electron cyclotron (EC) wave system. Strong plasma heating by the 24 MW positive-ion based neutral beam system (P-NBI) is of course also an essential ingredient of the CD capabilities, via the bootstrap current associated to the pressure gradient. Part of the P-NBI power is injected tangentially, in the co-current (4 MW) and in the counter-current (4 MW) directions,

allowing toroidal rotation control, which has a significant impact on plasma confinement and performance. The heating system also allows flexible sharing of the ion and electron heating, a crucial parameter for plasma transport properties. For power loads and density control, several generations of plasma facing components (PFCs) and in particular of divertors, are foreseen, with increasing capabilities of power flux (up to 15 MW m⁻²) and energy removal, eventually allowing full power discharges for 100 s current flat-top duration. The transition from carbon based to tungsten based PFC is foreseen after ~ 10 years of machine operation.

Control of plasma shape, position, error fields, and main magnetohydrodynamic (MHD) instabilities will be ensured by the characteristics of the equilibrium field coils, by an extensive set of in-vessel coils and by the electron cyclotron current drive (ECCD) system. In particular, control of the instabilities peculiar to high- β regimes, i.e., neoclassical tearing modes (NTMs) and resistive wall modes (RWMs) will be crucial for machine missions. Density control is essential for long pulse regimes and will be provided by a divertor cryopump system [5] for pumping, and for matter injection, by gas puff and pellet injection [6], which is also used for edge localised mode (ELM) pacing. An extensive set of diagnostics, for both control and scientific exploitation purposes, will be available and upgraded in the various phases of the exploitation of the machine, as described in appendix D of [2].

JT-60SA is now in an advanced phase of assembly, as shown by figure 1, and is due to start operation in 2020. The various research phases of the machine life are extensively discussed in [2]: the machine integrated commissioning will be carried out with hydrogen plasmas; this part of the initial research phase will also include experiments aiming at risk mitigation for the hydrogen phase of ITER. The following initial research phase in deuterium will explore the main ITER scenarios (H-mode and hybrid) and the advanced high- β scenario at progressively increasing heating power (up to 80% of the nominal power), but for relatively short pulses (~ 5 s), compatible with the initial C-coated divertor set. Installation of a new divertor made of carbon fibre reinforced monoblocks will allow the start of the integrated research phase, in which all the high-performance scenarios will be investigated for long pulses (~ 100 s flat-top duration) and heating power close to the nominal value, using active cooling. Extensive studies of high- β steady-state plasmas with optimum control strategies will be the main target of this phase. At this point, a major upgrade of the machine will be carried out, in which JT-60SA will become a fully metallic machine, with tungsten as the plasma facing material. High-performance scenarios combining high-density, high- β , little or no-ELMs, and a highly radiative divertor will be developed in this new configuration, in direct support of the contemporary ITER D-T experiments. Full exploitation of these scenarios (completely relevant to DEMO) will take place in the following extended research phase, in which further optimisation of the divertor shape will be attempted and the double-null configuration will be explored. Disruption management strategies, essential for

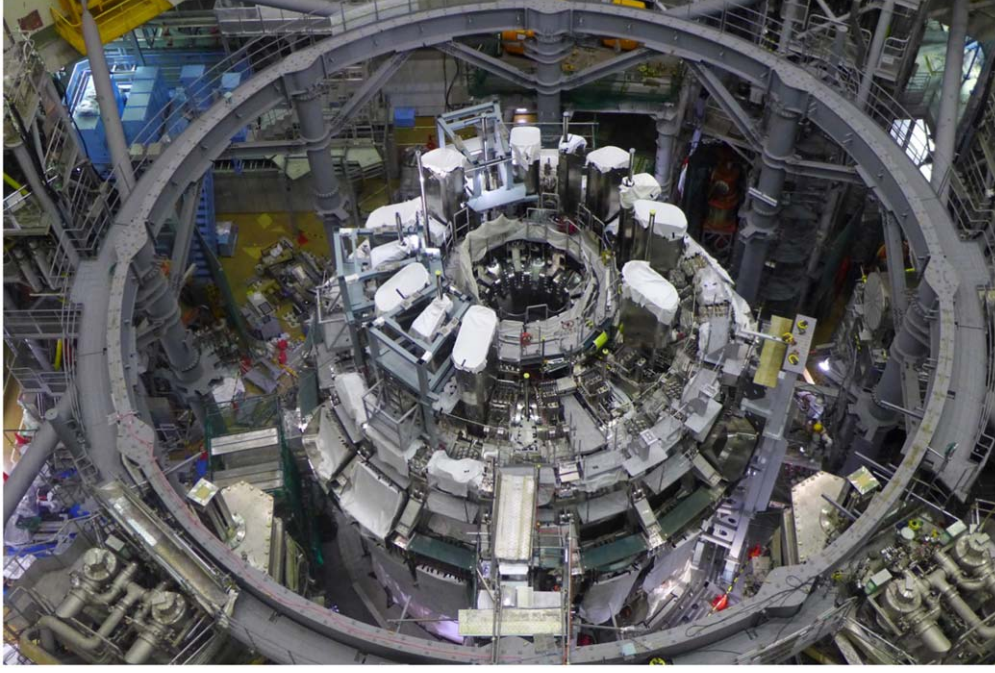


Figure 1. Photograph of JT-60SA, showing the state of assembly in spring 2019. Reproduced with permission from Yutaka Kamada, Deputy Director General of the Naka Fusion Institute.

Table 2. Main parameters of the JT-60SA reference scenarios. DN, SN: double-null, single-null configurations. I_p : plasma current; B_T : toroidal magnetic field; q_{95} : safety factor at 95% of the poloidal magnetic flux; P_{add} : additional heating power; P_{NNB} : negative neutral beams power; P_{PNB} : positive neutral beams power; P_{EC} : EC power; \bar{n}_e : line-averaged electron density; f_G : ratio of the line-averaged electron density to the Greenwald density; and β_N : normalised plasma beta.

	#1	#2	#3	#4-1	#4-2	#5-1	#5-2	#6
	Inductive	Inductive	High density	ITER-like	Advanced inductive	High β full-CD	High β, f_G full-CD	300 s high β
Configuration	DN	SN	SN	SN	SN	SN	SN	SN
I_p (MA)	5.5	5.5	5.5	4.6	3.5	2.3	2.1	2.0
B_T (T)	2.25	2.25	2.25	2.28	2.28	1.72	1.62	1.41
q_{95}	3.2	3	3	3.2	4.4	5.8	6	4
P_{add} (MW)	41	41	30	34	37	37	30	13.2
$P_{NNB}/P_{PNB}/P_{EC}$	10/24/7	10/24/7	10/20/0	10/24/0	10/20/7	10/20/7	6/17/7	3.2/6/4
\bar{n}_e (10^{19} m^{-3}) / f_G	6.3/0.5	6.3/0.5	10/0.8	9.1/0.8	6.9/0.8	5.0/0.85	5.3/1.0	2.0/0.39
β_N	3.1	3.1	2.6	2.8	3.0	4.3	4.3	3.0

ITER, DEMO, and future tokamak reactors, will be developed and tested during the whole machine exploitation.

3. Research towards controllable high- β , long-pulse scenarios

Systematic studies have been conducted with the main goal of preparing for the scientific exploitation of JT-60SA, but also for identifying the characteristics of diagnostics and actuators that should be developed in view of an efficient research programme. Discussion of the research results obtained can be organised around the typical sequence of items that have to be considered for the realisation of a successful high- β , long-pulse discharge: from global discharge preparation via simulation, to wall conditioning, breakdown, ramp-up, flat-top sustainment, MHD, and disruption control. Highlights of

the main recent results in these areas are described in the following sub-sections.

3.1. Discharge simulation and integrated scenario modelling

Predictive simulation of plasma discharges is the basis of the preparation of the experiment and the preliminary step for other analyses: MHD stability, sub-systems performance, and control strategies. Extensive scenario evaluation and preparation have been done using free-boundary equilibrium codes, such as ACCOME [7] (including NBI sources) and TOSCA [8]. Global discharge simulations, producing time evolution of all the physical quantities, including magnetic equilibrium and radial profiles, are better done by fast simulators and indeed systematic analyses have been carried out with the METIS code [9] and reported in [2]. A much more accurate evaluation can be done if limited to particular phases

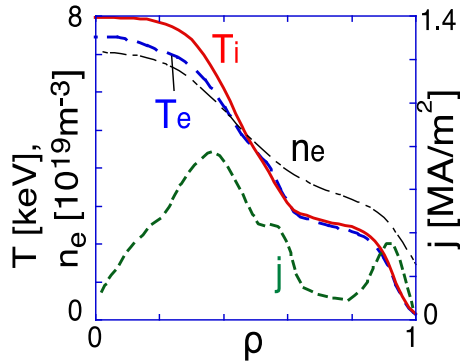


Figure 2. Simulations by the TOPICS code of the stationary phase of Scenario 5-1, but at reduced heating power (26 MW). Profiles of electron density (prescribed), current density, and ion and electron temperatures versus radial coordinate ρ (square root of normalised toroidal flux).

of the discharge, for instance the flat-top stationary phase, by integrated modelling codes, such as TOPICS [10], CRONOS [11], and JINTRAC [12]. In order to make such predictions as reliable as possible, a procedure for the validation of models and benchmark of integrated modelling codes has been employed, based on a set of reference JT-60U and JET discharges, representing the main scenarios (H-mode, hybrid, advanced). These discharges have been predictively simulated using both Japanese and EU codes, with a variety of transport, pedestal, rotation models, and scalings, with the aim of finding a unified modelling framework that works for the set of reference discharges of both machines, which are the most similar in size and characteristics to JT-60SA. In addition, this work has provided a benchmark of the integrated modelling suites of codes employed, with satisfactory results, as reported in [13–15]. Various transport models have been tested and can be used with comparable accuracy for predictive simulation of most of the reference discharges. In particular, the current diffusive ballooning mode (CDBM) heat transport model [16] provided accurate, or in some cases, conservative estimates of the electron and ion temperatures. A similar procedure is now being used for the current ramp-up phase [17].

On this basis, more complex phenomena can be analysed with the validated modelling framework, for instance, the formation of an internal transport barrier (ITB), its compatibility and alignment with non-inductively driven currents, and its controllability, which are basic ingredients of the steady-state high- β scenario 5 [2]. The CDBM transport model naturally allows ITB formation when the current density profile is peaked off-axis, as shown by the TOPICS simulation presented in figure 2. The strength of the ITB is found to be sensitive to the precise modelling of the N-NBI CD, in this case performed by means of the orbit-following Monte Carlo (OFMC) code [18] and including finite orbit width effects. Control of the ITB location and strength can be performed by small variations of the N-NBI power and/or by additional ECCD, and evaluated by means of this type of simulation [19].

Another phenomenon that is going to play a relevant role in integrated scenario modelling is plasma rotation, because of the impact of rotation shear on heat transport and generally plasma performance. JT-60SA has a flexible tool to control toroidal rotation, i.e., the torque due to co- and counter-injected P-NBI at 85 keV. However, the plasma response has to be evaluated taking into account braking due to non-axisymmetric perturbations of the toroidal field, owing to ripple, error fields, and intentionally applied resonant magnetic perturbations (RMP) that will be used for ELM control. In JT-60SA, these RMPs can be produced by the same system of coils that corrects error fields (error field correction coils (EFCCs)), aimed at suppressing locked modes. The ensemble of these perturbations give rise to the so-called neoclassical toroidal viscosity (NTV), an effect that is not usually included in integrated scenario modelling. This has been accomplished by an advanced modelling framework [20] combining in an iterative way: TOPICS [10] and OFMC [18] for the evaluation of the NBI induced torque, and the 3D neoclassical code FORTEC-3D [21] and the 3D equilibrium code VMEC [22]. An example of the toroidal rotation computed by means of this modelling framework for a high-current (5.5 MA) H-mode scenario of JT-60SA is shown in figure 3. In the left panel, red, green, and blue curves respectively display the profiles of toroidal rotation velocity without the NTV effect, with the NTV due to magnetic ripple and also including the effect of an $n = 3$ RMP induced by 10 kA current in each of the EFCC, with even parity. In the right panel, the NTV torque (with and without RMP) is shown, together with the radial electric field. It is shown that significant braking is caused by the ripple and should be taken into account in integrated modelling simulations. On the other hand, the $n = 3$ RMP at 10 kA (which is typically used for ELM control) has a modest effect on the toroidal velocity, meaning that ELM control will not be detrimental to plasma rotation. However, higher applied currents in the EFCC (~ 30 kA) will have a stronger impact and could be effectively used for rotation control, as discussed in [20].

3.2. Wall conditioning, breakdown, and current ramp-up

It is well known that plasma performance and discharge reproducibility in fusion machines strongly depend on the state of the walls, because of the impact of both main ion and impurity recycling. Recovery after disruptions usually needs particular care in order to have a broad enough operation window for breakdown. Because of the superconducting magnetic field, glow discharge cleaning will not be usable in JT-60SA between shots (as in ITER) and electron cyclotron wall conditioning (ECWC) is envisaged, a technique that has been tested but not fully validated yet, in particular at the 2nd EC harmonic. In order to improve the knowledge of this technique, dedicated experiments [23] have been performed on the TCV tokamak, demonstrating that after dedicated helium discharges with ECWC at the 2nd EC harmonic (extraordinary mode, X2), standard ohmic deuterium plasmas could then be sustained, whereas it would not have been possible without adequate wall conditioning. The discharge

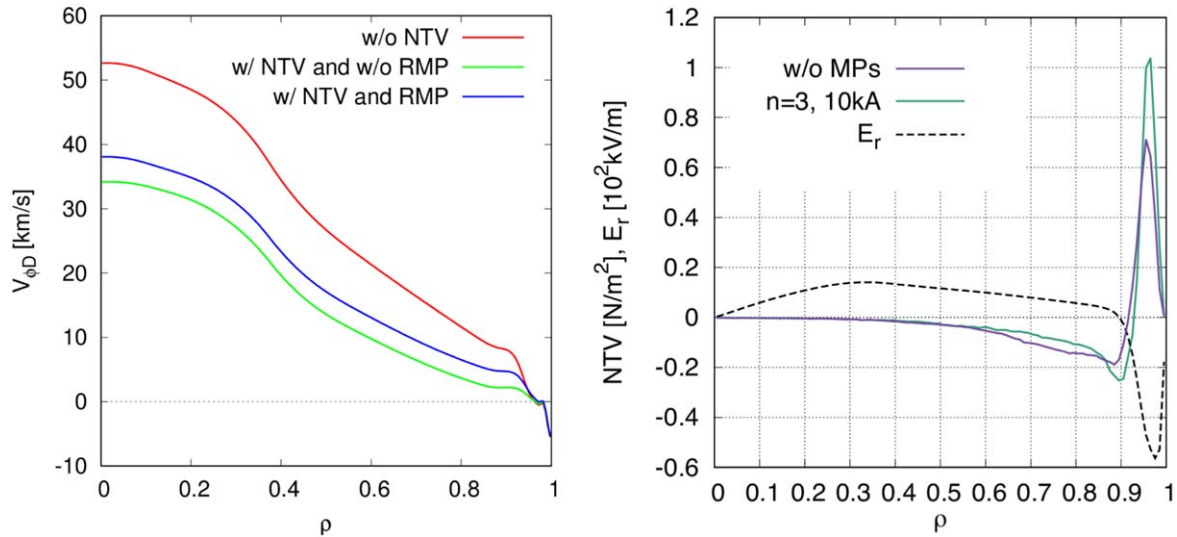


Figure 3. Simulation by means of an integrated modelling framework including the codes TOPICS, OFMC, FORTEC-3D, and VMEC for H-mode high current and the high-density Scenario 3. Left: deuterium ion toroidal velocity profile; all the curves correspond to simulations with the NBI torque; the green curve also includes NTV and the blue curve NTV and RMP ($n = 3$, 10 kA current in each of the EFCC coils). Right: NTV torque, with and without RMP ($n = 3$, 10 kA), and radial electric field.

parameters on TCV were optimised to (i) minimise the absorption of EC stray radiation by in-vessel components by minimising the plasma breakdown time and maximising the absorption of power over the duration of the conditioning discharge, and to (ii) improve the discharge homogeneity and wall coverage, in particular towards the inboard surfaces where JT-60SA plasmas will be initiated. The main control parameters in this study are the addition of a poloidal magnetic field to the nominal toroidal field, the discharge pressure, and the EC power. In order to extrapolate these results to future JT-60SA ECWC experiments and routine use, modelling has been carried out by means of the TOMATOR-1D code [24]. This one-dimensional reaction-diffusion-convection code has been developed to simulate plasma production by radio-frequency waves inside a tokamak, using the Braginskii continuity and heat balance equations. In this algorithm, the evolution of the radial density and temperature profiles is documented for nine species for H₂/He/C plasma mixtures from a transient to a steady-state condition. The plasma simulator is used to study EC absorption and transport properties as a function of the applied vertical magnetic field component. Figure 4 shows the experimental electron density measured by Thomson scattering on TCV at $\omega = 2\omega_{c,e}$ and the simulated density by TOMATOR-1D for X2-ECRH plasma at 1.5 T, 400 kW of launched power, toroidal, and poloidal injection angles of 19.3° and 7.0°, respectively. The simulations, reproducing the experimental data, predict Bohm-like diffusion transport, convection losses of the order of 10–100 m s⁻¹, and an EC absorption scaling proportional to $P_{abs}/P_{in} \propto n_e T_e$ as predicted by the quasi-optical beam-tracing code GRAY [25]. The dependence of transport processes on the vessel dimensions via a multi-machine study is required to arrive at predictive capabilities for ECWC plasma on JT-60SA.

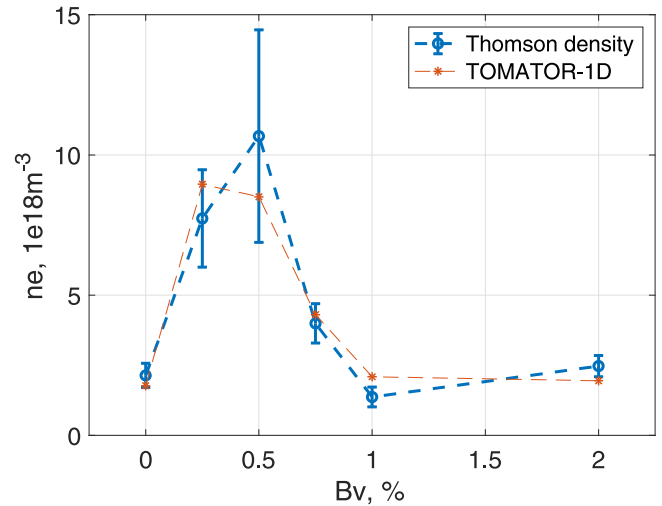


Figure 4. Electron density measured by Thomson scattering and the same quantity simulated by TOMATOR-1D versus vertical magnetic field (in percentage of toroidal field) at $\omega = 2\omega_{c,e}$ for X2-ECRH plasma on TCV at $B_t = 1.5$ T, 400 kW of launched power.

Breakdown and plasma initiation is a particularly delicate phase in a new machine, operating with a new control system. Assistance by EC waves for pre-ionisation and plasma heating to burnthrough can prove essential to improving the efficiency of this task and will be mandatory in ITER [26]. Predictive modelling of EC-assisted breakdown could significantly speed up the search for optimised breakdown configurations, however it requires a complex simulation framework, combining free-boundary equilibrium equations, balance equations for the time evolution of energy, particles (with ionisation/recombination terms and impurities) together with the circuit equation for the plasma current, and EC wave propagation equations, including at least the first wall reflection. To this end, a dedicated modelling workflow has

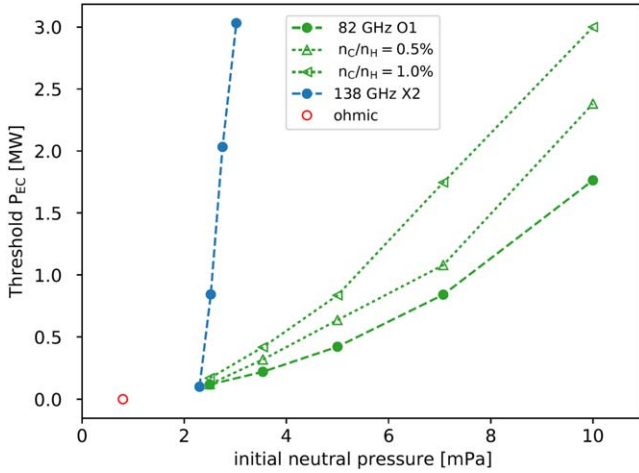


Figure 5. EC-assisted breakdown simulation with BKD0, GRAY, and CREATE-BD. EC power threshold for successful breakdown as a function of the initial neutral H_2 pressure for 1st harmonic O-mode (optimised injection angles and two passes within the breakdown region) and 2nd harmonic X-mode (fixed angles, single pass), at different initial C content and $n_O/n_H = 0.1\%$. The red dot represents the ohmic breakdown case.

been developed and is being validated on experiments [27]. It combines the breakdown code BKD0 [28], the beam-tracing code GRAY [25] and CREATE-BD, a specific version of the free-boundary equilibrium code CREATE [29], which integrates and optimises the active circuit currents, taking into account eddy currents in the passive structures for developing the plasma breakdown scenario. Furthermore, the BKD0 impurity model, consistent with the code DYON [30] for carbon wall machines, has been validated on TCV experiments. Several cases have been treated, for the two main frequencies of the JT-60SA gyrotrons: 110 GHz and 138 GHz [31], the additional operation frequency of 82 GHz, and various injection angles. The electron temperature and plasma current depend on ECRH power and present a threshold for successful start-up. Figure 5 shows this computed EC power threshold as a function of the initial neutral H_2 pressure for two cases: (i) 138 GHz (2nd harmonic) X-mode, injection perpendicular to the magnetic field and at fixed poloidal angle 35.5° with respect to the horizontal direction (blue curve) and (ii) 82 GHz (1st harmonic) O-mode, optimised injection angles (green), i.e., poloidal angle 21° and toroidal angle (with respect to the perpendicular) of 20° . For this second case, two different values of the initial C content and oxygen fraction $n_O/n_H = 0.1\%$ have been considered. As the initial pressure increases, more power is required to overcome the radiation barrier. The steerable launcher that will equip JT-60SA after the commissioning phase will allow optimising the absorption and increase the operational space even in the presence of impurities: the main difference between the two cases is related to the fact that injection angle optimisation by means of a steerable launcher allows for a second pass after the first reflection through the initial small plasma, with the change of polarisation from the O- to X-mode, which greatly increases the EC wave effect owing to substantial increase in the second pass absorption.

In order to monitor this delicate phase (as well as for general plasma overview) a wide-angle version of the EDI-CAM visible camera [32] has been designed and manufactured as a direct European contribution to JT-60SA diagnostics. It will be an important tool for the detection of dangerous events, such as hot-spots, plasma boundary identification with a temporal resolution up to 1 kHz (comparable to magnetic equilibrium reconstruction), disruptions, scrape-off layer (SOL) statistical properties etc. Moreover, this will be the phase in which the machine could be more likely prone to risks connected with EC stray radiation, owing to incomplete absorption of the EC wave beams. This has motivated specific studies [33, 34], in which an analysis of the residual non-absorbed ECRF power fraction expected in the various applications and plasma scenarios has been carried out, studying its dependence on the steering angle and on the plasma's main parameters such temperature and density. Both transient conditions, such as plasma start-up and flat-top scenarios have been taken into consideration. Moreover, the expected stray power density distribution in the vessel and particularly around the potentially critical areas such as diagnostics windows or pumping ducts has been evaluated. An adequate detection system to limit the risks related to stray radiation is presently considered.

After breakdown and burnthrough are obtained, the current and density ramp-up is a crucial phase for the establishment of high-performance scenarios while saving central solenoid flux: X-point formation, high shaping control, H-mode transition, and in particular the access to the safety factor profiles typical of JT-60SA advanced regimes (hybrid and steady state). Earlier simulations of this phase have been performed with the MECS code [35, 36] and benchmarked [37] with the CREATE-NL code [38]. A way to improve the accuracy of this type of simulation is to couple a free-boundary equilibrium code with a plasma model including the main ingredients of integrated modelling, i.e., heat and particle transport, current diffusion, and H&CD modules. Although some examples of such a combination of codes exist in the literature, the required computation time is usually extremely large. In order to keep it at a level that makes this type of modelling practical and useful for preparing experimental scenarios, the fast integrated modelling code METIS [9] is used as plasma module and has been coupled to two different free-boundary equilibrium codes, for alternative uses: CREATE-NL [38] and FEEQS [39]. FEEQS is used in inverse mode in conjunction with METIS to compute the pre-magnetisation phase and to initialise and optimise the plasma scenario, verifying the coil limits. An example is given in figure 6, showing three snapshots of free-boundary equilibria computed by FEEQS (top) and the self-consistent evolutions of the poloidal beta β_{pol} , internal inductance l_i , electron temperature, and current density profiles computed by METIS (bottom). A full simulation including controllers can be performed by means of CREATE-NL exchanging equilibrium and profiles data with METIS in the framework of a SIMU-LINK scheme.

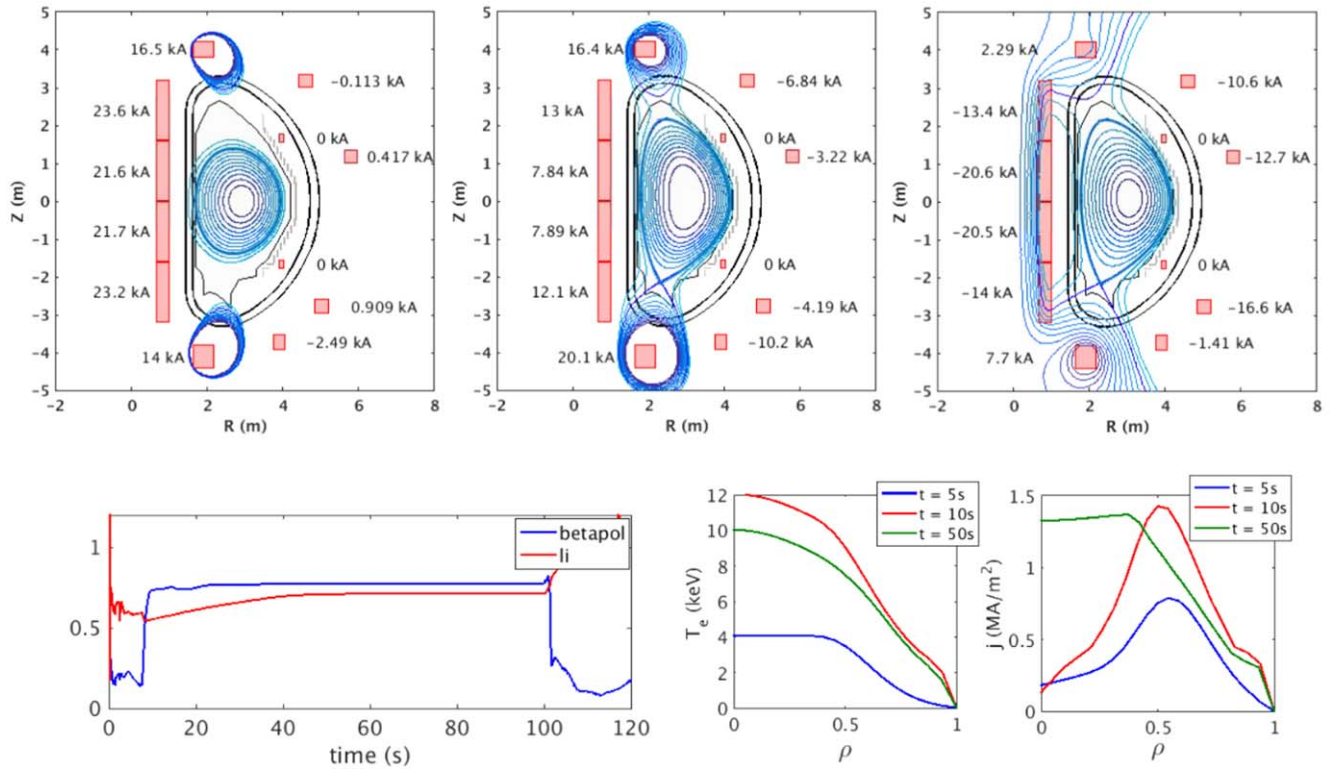


Figure 6. Results of simulations for Scenario 2 (H-mode at plasma current 5.5 MA) combining FEEQS and METIS. Top: snapshots of free-boundary equilibria at three different times, from left to right: in the initial phase of the current ramp-up ($t = 0.6$ s, $I_p = 0.5$ MA), during the ramp-up ($t = 5$ s, $I_p = 3$ MA) and in the flat-top phase ($t = 50$ s, $I_p = 5.5$ MA). Bottom: time evolution of β_{pol} and li ; electron temperature and current density profiles at different times.

3.3. Flat-top plasma sustainment: density, power loads, and radiation

Density control is a key ingredient for long pulse regimes and in particular for access to high-density scenarios, close to the Greenwald limit. The two main actuators of such control will be the divertor cryopump system [5] and the pellet fuelling system, which is being designed [6]. This will be an advanced system, conceived for combined fuelling and ELM pacing using two extruders. Detailed modelling of pellet ablation, using the HPI2 code [40], has been carried out in order to determine the optimum pellet injection location and parameters for all the reference scenarios and optimise the system design. The same code has been used in conjunction with the integrated modelling suite JINTRAC, appropriately set up for JT-60SA simulations [15], in order to assess the feasibility of combined fuelling and ELM pacing. The JINTRAC simulation starts from parameters typical of Scenario 2 (see table 2) and models the growth of the density due to the injection of trains of pellets with frequency 12.5, 11.1, 10.0, 9.1, 8.3, and 7.7 Hz, respectively. The pellets are injected every 5 s, which allows attaining nearly stationary densities. In addition, ELM pacing pellets at 50 Hz are injected between fuelling pellets. This corresponds to the injection patterns of two centrifuge arms rotating at 50 Hz with a fuelling pellet injected every 4, 4.5, 5, 5.5, 6, and 6.5 rotations respectively. The pellet injection velocity was set to 400 m s^{-1} and the masses of the fuelling and ELM pacing pellets are $6.5 \cdot 10^{20}$ atoms and 0.8

10^{20} atoms, respectively. The results for the case with fuelling pellets only are shown in figure 7. The electron density profile versus time and normalised radius is shown in the top panel and the electron temperature in the bottom panel. It can be seen that it is possible to increase the density from the level characteristic of Scenario 2 to significantly higher density (typical of Scenario 3) within a few seconds. After the fast initial transient, a slow decrease of the average density is also seen as the pellet injection frequency is gradually reduced. In the corresponding case with simultaneous fuelling and ELM pacing pellets, there is an additional contribution by the pacing pellets that increases the density by 25%–30% [6], as shown in table 3. This contributes significantly to the fuelling of high-density scenarios and should be taken into account in the global control strategy of the discharge.

The second key element for long pulse regimes is the control of power loads on the divertor during the strong heating phase, which can be attained by divertor radiation associated with controlled impurity seeding strategies. Systematic studies of the relevant scenarios, but in a simplified geometry, have been performed by means of the COREDIV code, both for C-PFC [41–43] and W-PFC [42, 44]. Simulations combining the core, SOL, and divertor have been performed for a scenario similar to Scenario 5-1, but at reduced heating power, using JINTRAC coupled to the edge code EDGE2D and the Monte Carlo code for the neutrals EIRENE [45]. A comparison of COREDIV and EDGE2D carbon radiation patterns for Scenario 3 (high density) are

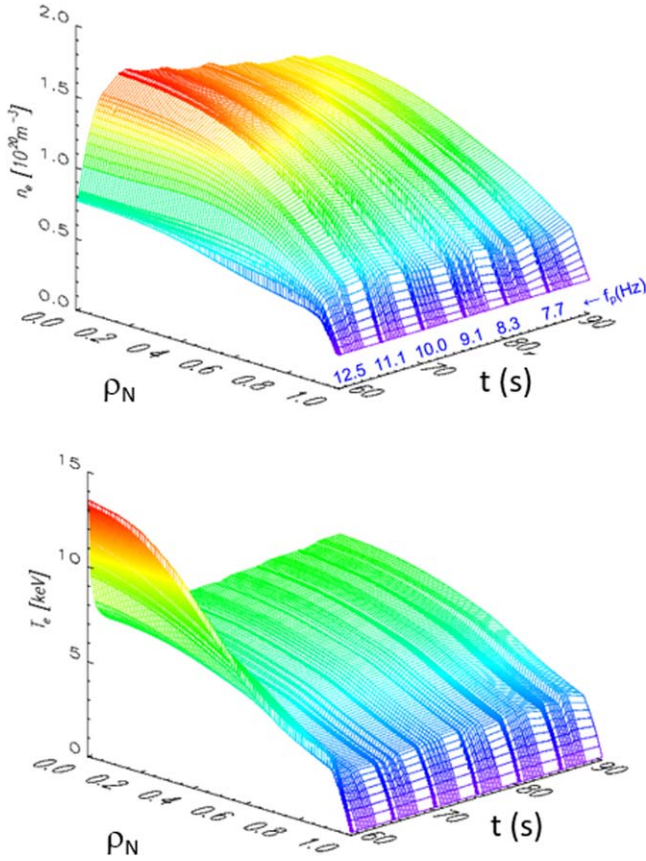


Figure 7. Simulations with JINTRAC and pellet ablation module HPI2 of discharge evolution during pellet injection for six different values of the fuelling pellet frequency (case with fuelling pellets only). Top: electron density profile versus time and normalised radius. Bottom: electron temperature. The pellets are injected at different frequencies every 5 s, starting from $t = 60$ s.

Table 3. Simulations with JINTRAC and pellet ablation module HPI2 of discharge evolution during pellet injection for six different values of the fuelling pellet frequency f_p (column 1). Volume averaged electron density with pellet fuelling (column 2) and with pellet fuelling and pacing at 50 Hz (column 3).

f_p (Hz)	$\langle n_e \rangle$ (10^{20} m^{-3}) fuelling only	$\langle n_e \rangle$ (10^{20} m^{-3}) fuelling + pacing
12.5	1.08	1.20
11.1	1.02	1.15
10.0	0.96	1.10
9.1	0.91	1.05
8.3	0.87	1.02
7.7	0.85	1.00

shown in figure 8. In the case of EDGE2D-EIRENE the boundary conditions on the core side are taken from the COREDIV results. Beside the employment of real geometry, EDGE2D-EIRENE treats neutrals with a Monte Carlo approach whereas COREDIV assumes the shape of neutrals distribution by analytical formulas, described by several parameters, such as ionisation length or recycling coefficient. The starting parameters were set as similar as possible for both codes: transport coefficients in the SOL (and around

the pedestal) are the same ($\chi_{e,\text{SOL}} = 0.5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$, $\chi_{i,\text{SOL}} = 1.0 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$, all particle diffusion coefficients $0.5 \text{ m}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$). With these benchmark conditions, the total C radiation in the SOL and the remaining power delivered to the divertor target computed by the two codes are found to agree within 10%. The codes also agree on the overall C radiation distribution, both showing that the C SOL radiation will be concentrated in a region in the vicinity of the target plate. The reason underlying the differences in the radiation patterns are the aforementioned simplifications of COREDIV. The radiation pattern in figure 8 for EDGE2D-EIRENE follows the shape of a divertor leg (inner and outer), which obviously cannot be found in COREDIV due to the rectangular grid with a single target. However, as the figure uses a logarithmic colour scale, the differences in the areas ‘below’ yellow are irrelevant. Importantly, the different plasma conditions close to the targets (n_e and T_e , not shown) have a severe impact on detachment, whereas COREDIV cannot correctly assess detachment and does not predict it. Indeed, EDGE2D-EIRENE exhibits full detachment when the electron density at the separatrix is increased to $3.6 \times 10^{19} \text{ m}^{-3}$. Here, the dominant factor is the employed neutral model.

More sophisticated edge/SOL/divertor simulations have been performed by means of the SONIC code [46], extended to include multiple impurity species and impurity–impurity interaction, such as the physical sputtering of C by seeding impurities [47]. This allowed comparative simulations of the radiation patterns with C and injected Ne, Ar, or mixtures. Simulations for the future JT-60SA phase with W-PFC using the highly sophisticated SOLPS-ITER code [48] are presented in [49]. In order to monitor the impurity levels in the divertor region, a new VUV spectrometer with imaging capability is under development [50].

3.4. Flat-top plasma sustainment: fast ions

Once the flat-top phase is attained, its sustainment for long pulses requires adequate current drive systems. On JT-60SA, non-inductive current will be mainly provided by the 500 keV N-NBI system (10 MW), with a limited additional contribution by the EC waves (7 MW). Of course, a substantial fraction of non-inductive current will be provided by the bootstrap current (estimated at 25 to 80%, depending on the reference scenario [2]) which is in turn mainly sustained by the ensemble of the heating systems, of which the most powerful is the 85 keV P-NBI one (24 MW). As a consequence, all the reference JT-60SA scenarios will be characterised by two substantial populations of fast ions, with different energy and pitch-angle parameters, driving different sets of Alfvénic instabilities. This is the most distinctive feature of the physics that will be accessible on this tokamak, not only for its potential interest for ITER and DEMO, but for the control and sustainment itself of the scenarios. In particular, the super-Alfvénic speed of the N-NBI driven fast ion population will be a unique feature before operation of the N-NBI system of ITER (1 MeV). The distribution functions of fast ion populations are accurately computed by means of Monte Carlo codes for various JT-60SA scenarios [51, 52], as

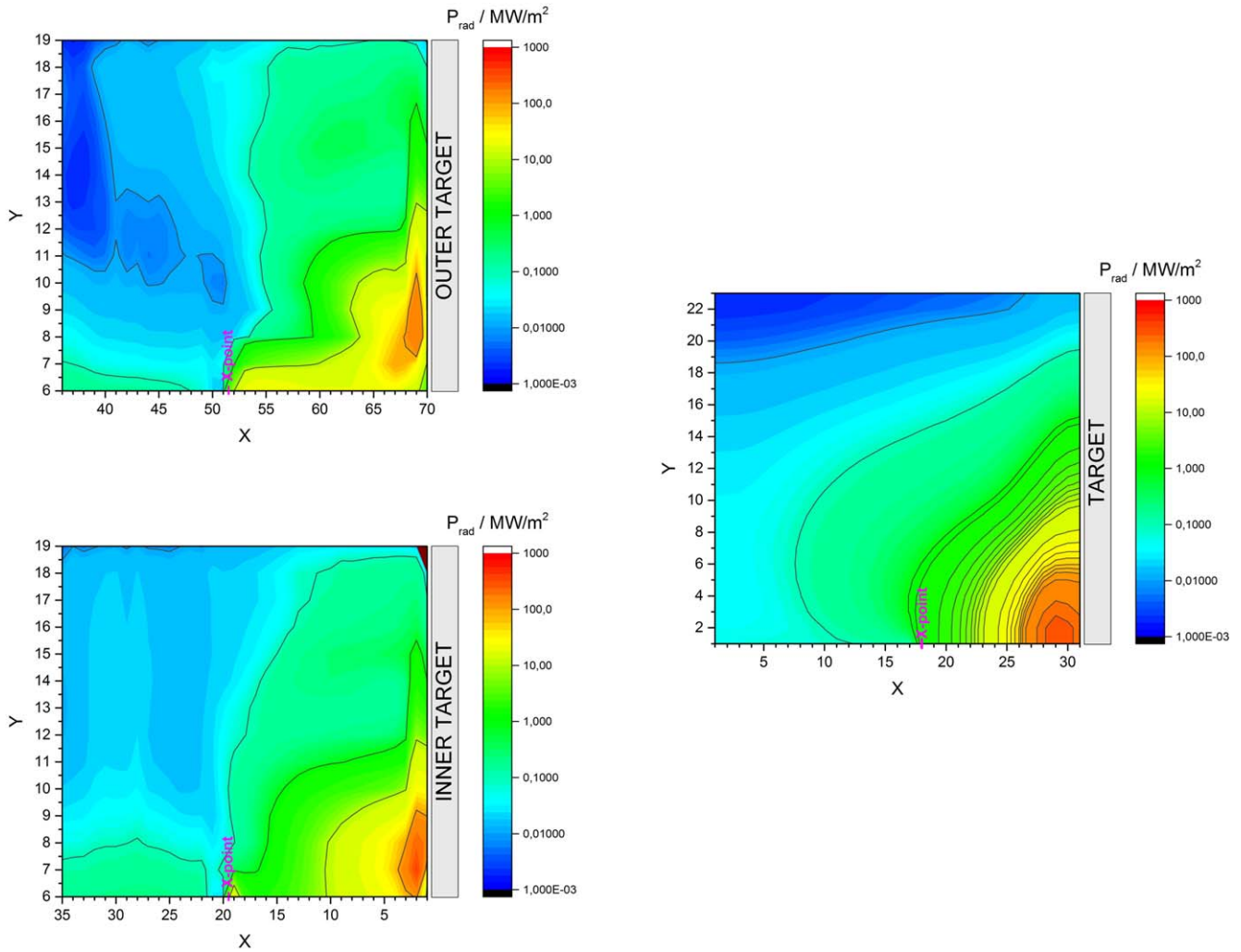


Figure 8. 2D maps of carbon radiation for Scenario 3 with $n_{e,sep} = 2.7 \times 10^{19} \text{ m}^{-3}$. Left: EDGE2D-EIRENE; right: COREDIV. The wall is situated at the top of each graph and the separatrix is at the bottom. The coordinates used are the simulation grid row and column numbers, to facilitate comparison between the two codes, which have different geometries. Note, that in the case of the EDGE2D-EIRENE inner target the image is mirrored along column no. 35.

they can affect the global MHD stability of the discharge [53, 54], turbulence properties [55], and therefore, non-linearly, the establishment of pressure and current density profiles. Measurement of the energy and pitch-angle distribution of the lost fast ions is particularly important in order to understand the physics mechanisms governing such a loss, which is also of key importance for the alpha particle confinement in ITER and DEMO. This has motivated the development of a fast ion loss detection system for JT-60SA, which is being designed [56, 57] and will be installed for the high-power phase of the machine programme.

In addition to the detailed analysis of the Alfvén eigenmode stability and related energetic particles (EPs) transport of single time slices [53], faster tools for a survey-type analysis are needed for scenario modelling and optimisation. An automated workflow wrapper around the linear-gyrokinetic code LIGKA [58, 59] has been developed in order to process many different equilibria in a reasonably short computation time (typically 1–3 min per equilibrium for ten toroidal mode numbers, trivially parallelisable). A hierarchy of reduced

models can be chosen (local/global, analytical/numerical coefficients for velocity-space integrals). In figure 9 the local damping rates of all toroidal Alfvén eigenmodes (TAE) with mode numbers $n = 1$ –10 (colour code), including Landau damping and a model for radiative damping, are shown as function of the on-axis safety factor q_0 (as a model for current profile evolution during current ramp-up). Due to off-axis NB heating, the steepest EP gradients are expected between $\rho = 0.2$ –0.4 (positive EP gradient) and $\rho = 0.5$ –0.6 (negative EP gradient) [2]. Clearly, inner core TAEs are less damped compared to outer core TAEs, and different q -profiles favour the stability of different toroidal mode numbers. Adding energetic ions (modelled as a hot Maxwellian with an equivalent EP pressure) leads to the stability diagram plotted in figure 10. Here the scenario parameters are taken from the CRONOS simulation of the hybrid scenario presented in [13], in which the EP distribution has been computed by the NEMO/SPOT Monte Carlo module. According to these simulations, for the hot Maxwellian a ratio of the EP to the thermal ion pressure ~ 5 is assumed. Again inner core (left)

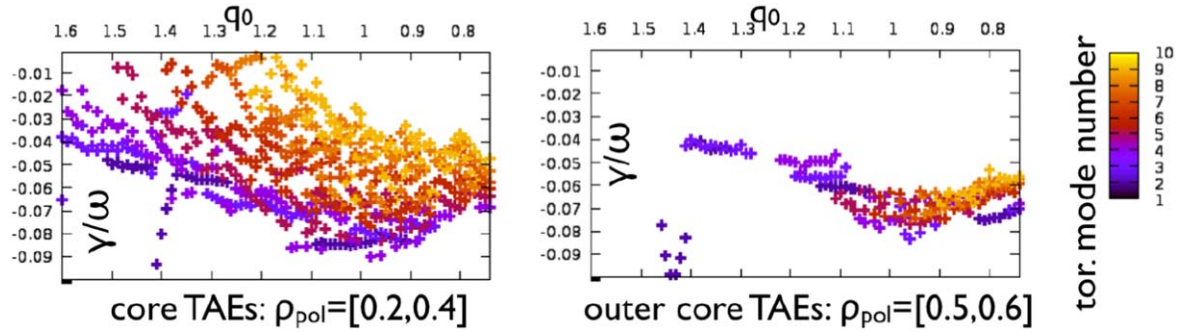


Figure 9. Damping rates of core (left) and outer core (right) TAEs as a function of q_0 as obtained with the local LIGKA model without EPs. The colours indicate different toroidal mode numbers $n = 1-10$.

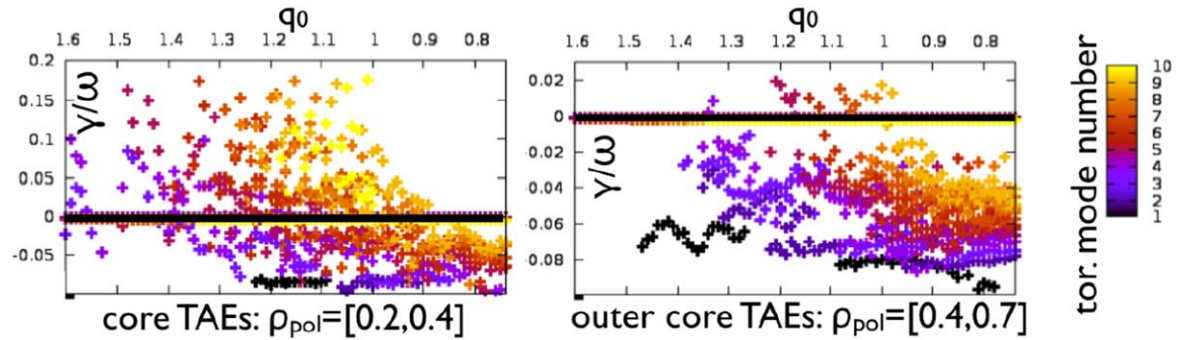


Figure 10. Growth/damping rates of core (left) and outer core (right) TAEs as a function of q_0 as obtained with the local LIGKA model including EPs. The colours indicate different toroidal mode numbers $n = 1-10$.

and outer core (right) TAEs are separated. For many values of q_0 , no unstable modes are predicted in the outer core, and all growth rates are small. Moreover, typically only one toroidal mode number is unstable for a certain q_0 leading to the conclusion that the radially outward EP transport is negligible in this case. The core TAEs are more unstable (note that the local model tends to overestimate the growth rates), but depending on q_0 , equilibria with either many unstable TAEs ($q_0 \sim 1.22$), or a few marginally unstable TAEs ($q_0 \sim 1.4$) or only stable TAEs ($q_0 \sim 1.5$) can be found. This sensitivity with respect to q_0 has been found in many present-day experiments [60–62] and is reproduced by the LIGKA model. Based on this fast analysis, a set of profiles can be chosen for in-depth analysis in order to guide the experimental and numerical search for stable, marginally stable, or unstable (EP transport studies) TAE regimes.

3.5. MHD instabilities and transient events control

Controllability of JT-60SA scenarios will require avoidance or prompt reaction to a number of MHD instabilities and transient events, both in the stationary and in the ramp-up, ramp-down phases. Preparation of adequate control strategies has to be supported by deep understanding of the physical phenomena involved, in view of future application to ITER and DEMO. A distinctive example is the issue of disruptions, which should be accurately predicted, if possible avoided, and otherwise mitigated. This motivated the development of a disruption predictor for JT-60SA, which has undergone first tests on JT-60U data [63] and of a two-valve massive gas

injection system [64] procured by EU and that will be available after the machine commissioning phase.

3.6. ELM studies

Not only disruptions should be avoided or mitigated in ITER and DEMO, but also in ELMs: the search for no-ELM or small-ELM regimes is one of the main objectives of the JT-60SA programme. Such regimes have been found empirically, but first-principle simulation of the non-linear ELM dynamics is fundamental to gain insight into the conditions for the access to these regimes or for active ELM control. To this end, the 3D non-linear MHD code JOREK [65, 66] has been applied to H-mode JT-60SA scenarios. The model contains all pedestal-relevant plasma flows, including two-fluid diamagnetic effects, neoclassical poloidal velocity, and toroidal rotation. Linear stability was first benchmarked with the linear MINERVA-DI code [67], then non-linear simulations were performed for ballooning mode numbers $n = 4-22$ and various values of the plasma resistivity. Simulations start with a collapsed pedestal, which then builds on, until a ballooning mode becomes unstable and the ELM crash is produced. The obtained 2D pattern of the density for Scenario 4-1 is shown in figure 11. The filamentary structures observed display the crash of a large ELM, corresponding to an energy loss $\sim 12\%$ of the total plasma energy content.

A method to limit the ELM size and make their crashes less harmful for the PFC is to induce ELMs of smaller amplitude on purpose, but more frequently (ELM pacing). This can be done by injecting pellets at a frequency higher

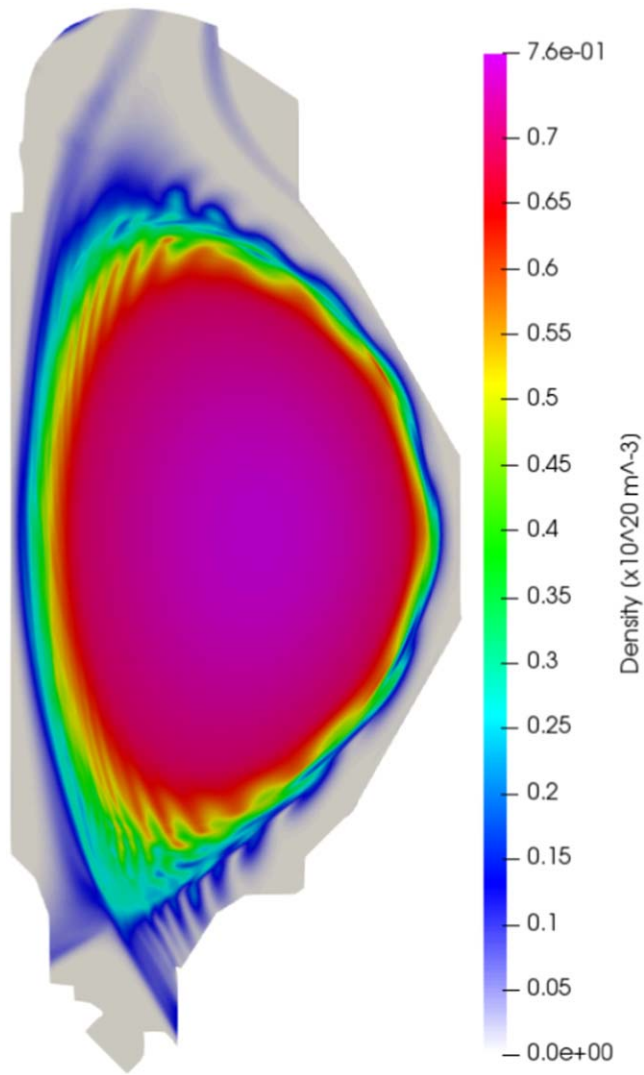


Figure 11. Non-linear MHD simulations by the JOREK code for JT-60SA Scenario 4-1. Colour contour plot of the density pattern perturbed by an ELM crash.

than that required for plasma fuelling, as discussed in section 3.3. The JOREK code has been used in the past to simulate the 3D density structures generated by pellet injection, e.g., for DIII-D and ITER [68], using the NGS code [69] as a module to compute the pellet ablation process. The same codes have been applied to simulate the effect of pellet injection on the 4-1 scenario of JT-60SA. Figure 12 shows the density contour plot in the poloidal cross section during the injection of a 0.8×10^{20} deuterium pellet with a velocity of 470 m s^{-1} (pacing pellet). The localisation of the density perturbation caused by the pellet injection is observed close to the injection point. Then the pellet cloud propagates along the magnetic field lines and reaches the top and the bottom of the plasma. Therefore, density perturbations in those regions are also observed, with filaments due to the ballooning mode structures. Considering that the mechanism of the pellet triggered ELM is due to the three-dimensionally localised pressure perturbation, it is important to study the pellet triggered ELM with a non-linear 3D MHD code such as JOREK. Another

proven way of mitigating or suppressing ELMs is the use of resonant magnetic perturbation by magnetic coils. This can be done on JT-60SA by using the EFCCs, as mentioned in section 3.1.

3.6.1. RWM studies. High β_N scenarios are on one hand desirable for plasma performance but on the other hand challenging from the point of view of stability. In the JT-60SA Scenario 5 in particular, RWMs are predicted to be simultaneously unstable by ideal MHD modelling [70]. It is foreseen that synergetic contributions from passive (i.e. drift-kinetic resonances) and active means shall be exploited for RWM stabilisation. In JT-60SA, feedback control of RWMs will be possible thanks to a set of 18 active coils located on the inner side (i.e. the plasma facing side) of the stabilising plate (SP), shown in figure 13 (left panel). A plasma response mode provided by the CarMa code [71] has been implemented for simulations of RWM feedback control with the most unstable $n = 1$ and $n = 2$ modes, where n is the toroidal mode number [72]. This model includes a realistic description of the active coils, with both RWM control coils (RWMCC) and EFCC represented as single turn conductors. The stabilising plate is also described with all its 3D features, while an axisymmetric vacuum vessel is assumed. This is enough to introduce a significant degree of realistic detail, since the stabilising plate is the closest conducting structure interacting with the RWMs ($r/a \sim 1.2$, where a is the minor radius). The structure of an $n = 1$ eigenmode computed by the CarMa code on an axisymmetric surface in the stabilising plate position is shown in figure 13 (right panel). The 3D features of the stabilising plate however introduce a destabilising effect and a splitting of the modes into multiple unstable eigenvectors. For this reason, ongoing work is aiming at developing a multimodal simulator for RWM control [72].

EPs, an ubiquitous element of the JT-60SA high-performance scenarios, are also expected to have an impact on RWM dynamics. In order to study these effects, a hybrid kinetic-MHD model has been developed and extended to include both EPs and toroidal plasma rotation in the MINERVA/RWMAc code [73]. The case of Scenario 5-1 (high beta steady state) has been considered, in particular to analyse the effect of the NBI parameters on the RWM stability: the injected beam energy E_a and the ratio of the parallel to the total velocity of the injected beam v_{\parallel}/v (pitch-angle parameter). Computed growth rates normalised to the wall decay time versus pitch-angle parameter of the injected neutral beam are shown in figure 14, with and without an EP rotation effect. The top panel shows the case of a low-energy beam ($E_a = 100 \text{ keV}$), whereas the case of a high-energy beam ($E_a = 500 \text{ keV}$) is shown in the bottom panel. In general, the EP rotation effect causes a significant reduction of the mode growth rate, with the formation of new stable regions. This stabilising effect is attributed to non-resonant interaction between the rotating EPs and the mode.

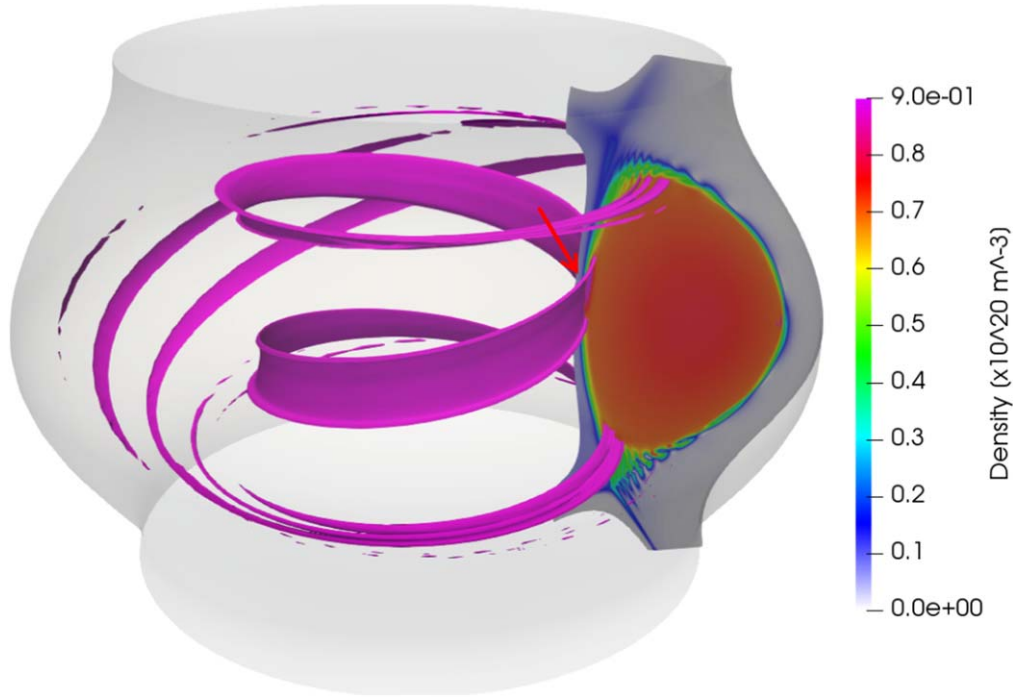


Figure 12. Non-linear MHD simulations by the JOREK code for JT-60SA Scenario 4-1: effect of a pellet injection. Colour contour plot of the density pattern perturbed by high field side (HFS) injected pacing pellet. The red arrow indicates the location of pellet injection.

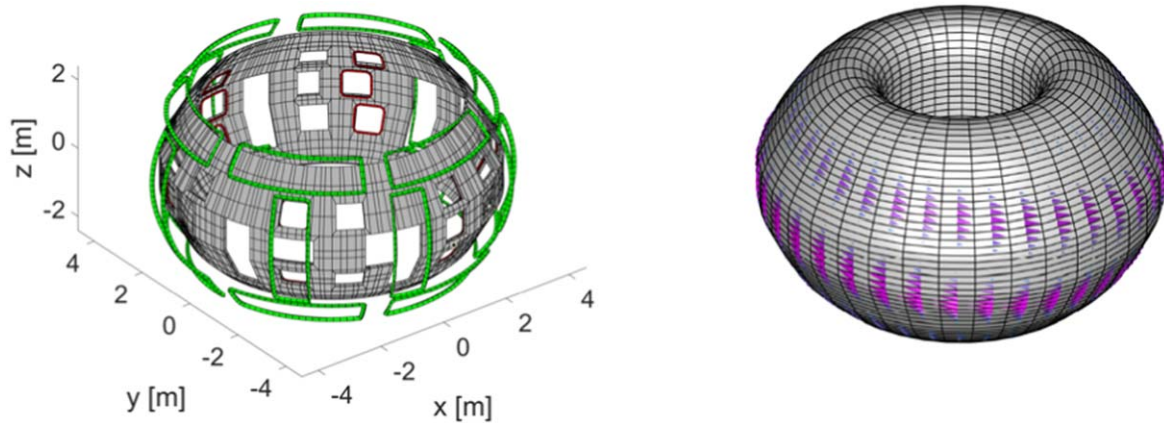


Figure 13. Left: 3D geometry of the stabilising plate (grey), RWMCCs (red) and EFCCs (green). Right: CarMa computation of RWM in 3D. Image of the $n = 1$ eigenmode on an axisymmetric surface in the stabilising plate position.

3.6.2. NTM studies. NTMs are expected to be excited in virtually all the JT-60SA scenarios at nominal heating power, because JT-60SA reference scenarios will naturally attain high normalised β values (see β_N in table 2). Their active control is one of the main functions of the ECCD system, which has been designed with the capability of providing the two main ingredients for NTM control: (i) capability of driving localised currents at the main rational surfaces locations where NTMs are expected (i.e. $q = 3/2$ and $q = 2$); (ii) modulation capability in the kHz range. In order to predict the EC power required for NTM reduction or suppression, the effect of ECCD with the actual design of the antenna configuration has been investigated by solving the generalised Rutherford equation [74], where several terms affecting NTM stability (such as bootstrap, curvature, polarisation, non-inductive driven current, heating,

wall, etc.) are included. Equations for the time evolution of the mode phase and frequency [75] are also solved and the wave propagation, absorption and driven current are computed by the beam-tracing code GRAY [25]. All these elements are combined in a workflow [76] allowing systematic evaluation of the JT-60SA scenarios, as reported elsewhere [77]. Here the case of the $2/1$ mode for Scenario 2 is illustrated in figure 15. The top panel shows the time evolution of the mode island width and rotation frequency with no EC power. Different saturation levels can be attained, depending on details of the equilibrium and profiles, therefore two values are displayed. It appears that large $2/1$ islands can lock in a few seconds (rotation frequency going to zero). In the bottom panel, the impact of 3 MW EC waves of frequency 138 GHz, injected at a toroidal angle of 14° , is shown for the case of an island which would saturate at $w \sim 0.08$ m.

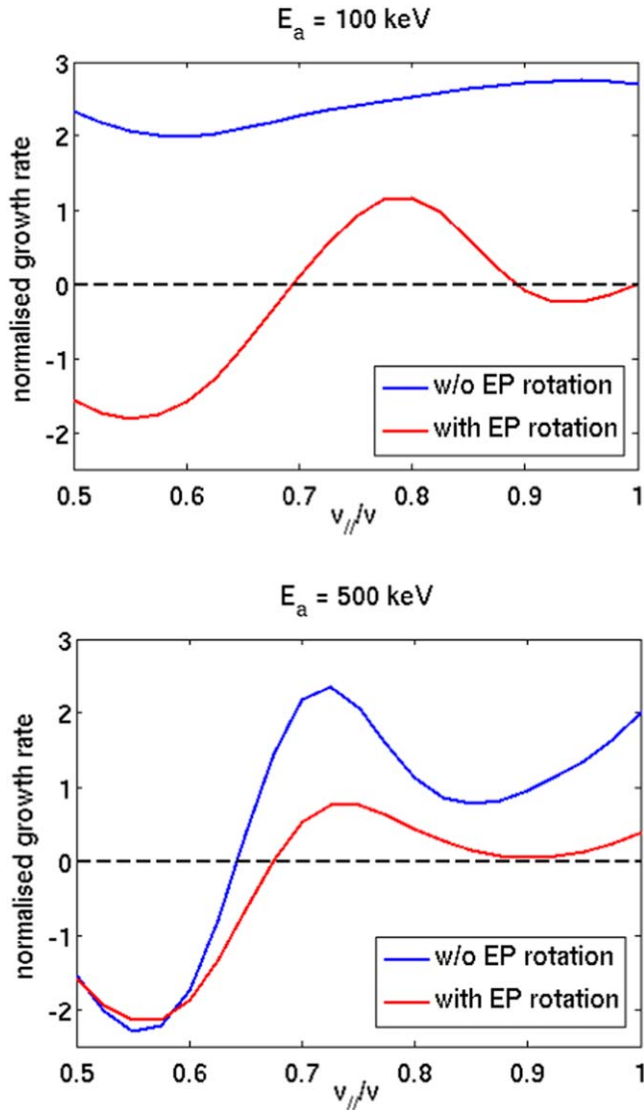


Figure 14. Computation of RWM stability by hybrid kinetic-MHD model (MINERVA/RWMaC). Growth rate normalised to the wall decay time versus pitch-angle parameter of the injected neutral beam, with and without the EP rotation effect. Top: energy of the injected beam $E_a = 100$ keV. Bottom: $E_a = 500$ keV.

Full suppression is obtained both with continuous and modulated EC wave injection. Modulated ECCD is more efficient, because it allows localising the interaction at the island O-point, where the co-CD is stabilising. Larger islands will require higher EC power, still within the 7 MW available on JT-60SA (3 MW is the power available in the initial research phase). These cases are extensively discussed in [77].

3.6.3. Disruption studies. If some of the operational limits are exceeded, a rapid growth of an MHD instability makes the plasma lose most of its thermal energy—the so-called thermal quench (TQ), during which a current density profile flattening takes place. Consequently, the plasma current increases, experiencing a spike, so that the magnetic energy in the plasma keeps approximately constant. Immediately after, the plasma cools down and its resistivity increases, so that the plasma current drops to zero (current quench (CQ)) and this may cause

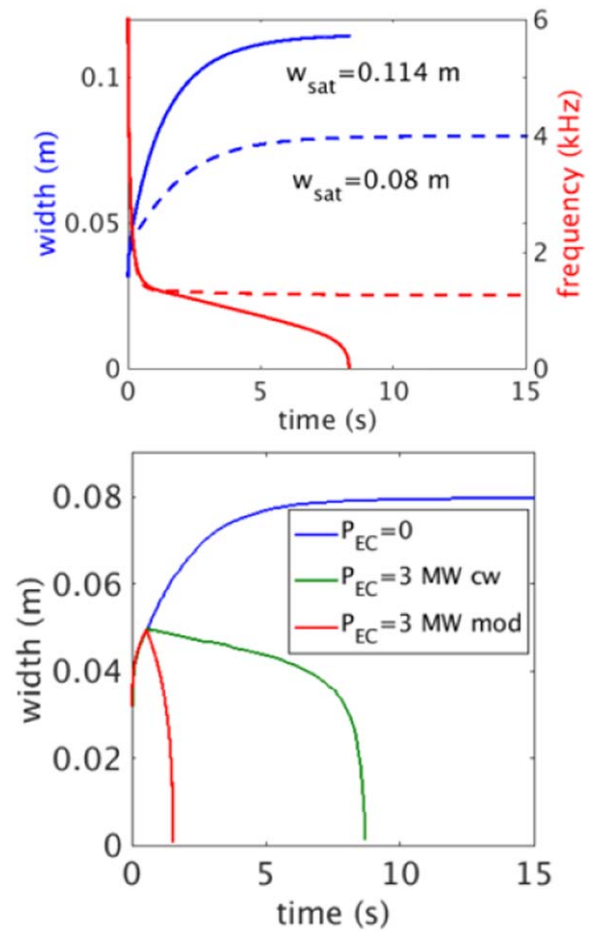


Figure 15. Computation of NTM 2/1 time evolution for Scenario 2 parameters. Top: mode width and frequency for generalised Rutherford equation parameters corresponding to two different mode saturation widths. Bottom: effect on mode width ($w_{\text{sat}} = 0.08$ case) of 3 MW ECCD, injected continuously (cw) and modulated (mod).

the vertical position feedback to lose control of plasma, giving rise to a vertical displacement event (VDE): this is also called ‘cold VDE’, since the plasma has lost its thermal energy. Due to this vertical motion, the plasma eventually hits the wall, injecting currents directly in the structures (halo currents). In other cases, the VDE takes place at full thermal energy content (‘hot VDE’) and the TQ occurs later, when the plasma hits the wall. This type of event has been modelled using the CarMa0NL code [78], capable of treating an axisymmetric plasma under the evolutionary equilibrium assumption, in the presence of three-dimensional conducting structures surrounding the plasma itself. In particular, to complete previous results [79], a case with no stabilising plate has been considered; the plasma is forced to move downwards with a 1 kA step in the in-vessel coil current, until it hits the wall, when the TQ occurs: the poloidal beta drops to negligible values in 3 ms. Immediately after, the CQ takes place, with a linear decay of plasma current to 0 in 12 ms. Figure 16 shows two snapshots of this event. With respect to previous results [79], due to the lack of the effect of the stabilising plates, larger plasma displacements take place on short time scales.

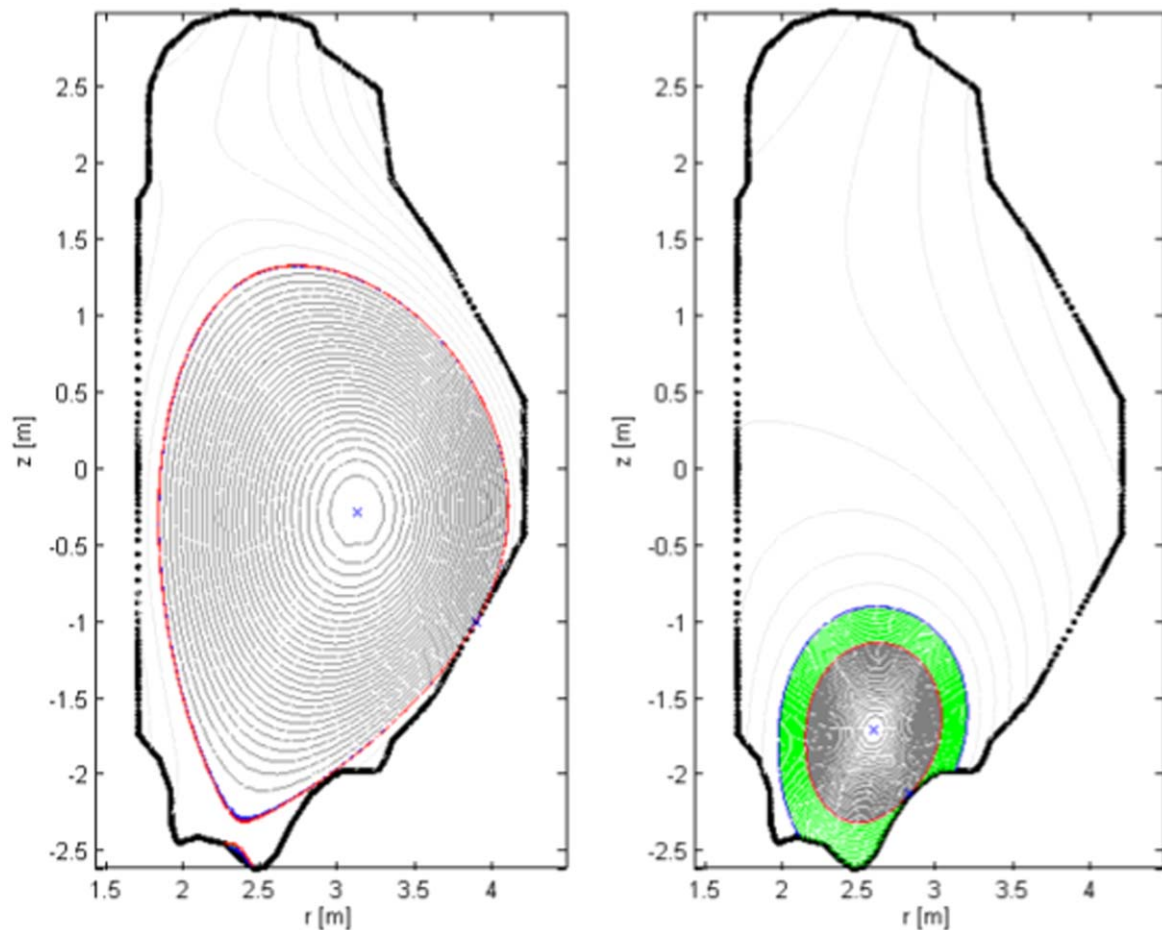


Figure 16. Disruption simulation by the CarMa0NL code. Plasma equilibrium configurations during a disruption (downwards VDE); halo currents are shown in green. Left: time at which the plasma hits the wall; right: configuration 5 ms after the start of the CQ. The maximum halo current reaches about 25% of the initial plasma current.

4. Conclusions and prospects

The JT-60SA scientific programme is both broad and ambitious, as appropriate to a large and international experimental device that will be at the forefront of the international fusion programme for many years. The physics studies presented in this paper, although not an exhaustive description, provide relevant examples of the efforts necessary to build a physics basis for realising the main research objectives defined in the research plan [2]. Such studies will accompany the machine enhancement programme that will be developed in parallel with the operation and scientific exploitation phase. The most significant enhancement will be the transition to W-PFC, for which R&D is in progress, including tests of specifically developed W coatings [80]. Ideas of advanced diagnostics are being developed for possible application in the integrated and extended research phases. For instance, in connection with the key objective of current profile control, conceptual design of a polarimetry system has been carried out [81]. In connection with turbulence studies, as, for instance, those reported in [82], turbulence diagnostics for both the core and edge have been proposed and are being designed [83, 84]. The forthcoming start of the machine operation (2020) is expected to further intensify these prospective studies.

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