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OPTICAL DIAGNOSTICS FOR PLASMA-FOCUS DEVICE

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1. INTRODUCTION

One of the most useful diagnostic methods for plasma investigations uses an electromagnetic wave propagating across the plasma as a source of informations about plasma parameters. These methods are generally referred as "optical methods" and they include:

- optical interferometry which enables to measure the plasma density,
- Schlieren and shadowgraphy which give information on the first and second derivatives of the plasma density,
- Faraday rotation methods based on the measurement of the rotation of the polarization plane of the wave crossing the plasma which enables to measure distribution of the magnetic field in plasma,
- scattering methods giving density, temperature and turbulence structure.

The first and the second of these methods are very well established in several areas of investigations especially in aerodynamics, for more than half century. Actually the optical methods of interferometry and Schlieren and shadowgraph photography are widely used in laboratory plasmas whose configuration can be reasonably assumed to have one or two-dimensional symmetry.

The progress in high-brightness light sources particularly the invention and development of lasers originated a rapid growth of interest in these methods. The monochromaticity, collimation, high brightness and short duration of the laser pulse have greatly simplified the inherent difficulties of the standard interferometric set-ups. Additionally feasible measurements of the Faraday rotation became feasible in the optical region after the discovery of the laser sources.

Great efforts are being made in the development of the scattering

methods as they could be helpful in understanding of the microscopic behaviour of the plasma. Although the discovery of the lasers made such measurement conceivable on laboratory plasmas, the requirements on the power, monochromaticity of the light and precision of detecting and analysing of a very low scattered signals are so serious that the method is very difficult in application. Nevertheless there are numerous examples of successful utilization of scattering methods in plasma investigations 1), 2) etc.

Let us consider an electromagnetic wave propagating across a plasma (Fig.1).

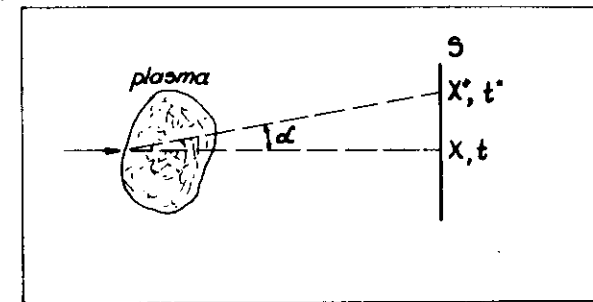


Fig.1. Propagation of a light ray through a density inhomogeneity.

An individual ray which in the absence of any disturbance would reach the screen S at the point X at the time t, if there is a plasma on its way it would reach the screen at point X^* at time t^* . The insertion of appropriate optical equipment into the light path will furnish on S a record of the following:

-) the phase lag $\tau = t^* - t$
-) the deflection α
-) the displacement $d = x^* - x$

If an electromagnetic wave is initially polarized and the plasma is magnetized with nonzero component of B field parallel to the ray direction, the rotation of the polarization plane will occur.

An interferometer is a device which is able to record time lag, a schlieren is that which records deflections, a shadowgraph records displacements and a polarimeter measures changes of the polarization plane of the wave.

2. PLASMA REFRACTIVITY

The effects of the phase lag and a ray deflection are manifestation of changes of the refractivity index. The index of refraction n is defined as:

$$n = \frac{c}{V_p} = \frac{c \cdot k(\omega)}{\omega} \quad \begin{array}{l} V_p - \text{phase velocity} \\ k - \text{wave number} \end{array} \quad (1)$$

Although the term "plasma" describes a fully ionized gas of zero net charge density, in general one deals with gaseous mixture of: free electrons, residual neutral atoms, atoms once, twice ... or completely ionized etc. The refractivity of the gaseous mixture (here including neutral and charged particles) can be considered as the sum of the refractivities of the various components. Therefore we can write, for the refractivity of the plasma.

$$n = 1 + \sum_i K_i N_i$$

where N_i is the density of the i -th component of the mixture and K_i is the specific refractivity.

The problem of plasma and wave interaction has been wide investigated. The most complete description of wave phenomena is obtained by solving the Boltzman transport equations and the complete set of Maxwell equations. Detailed description of this problem and various forms of dispersion relations can be found in basic plasma handbooks and review papers 3), 4).

In the most simple case of fully ionized plasma, neglecting the ion plasma frequency which is much lower than the electron one the expression for the refractive index can be approximated as:

$$n^2 = 1 - \frac{\omega_{pe}^2}{\omega^2} \quad \omega_{pe} - \text{electron plasma frequency} \quad (2)$$

This formula shows that the propagation of an electromagnetic wave is possible only if $\omega > \omega_{pe}$.

To prevent intense absorption, reflection and deflection the wave frequency should be much greater than the plasma one. Thus the condition the electromagnetic wave length should fulfil can be written as:

$$\lambda^2 \ll \frac{1 \cdot 12 \cdot 10^{22}}{N_e} \quad \begin{array}{l} N_e [\text{cm}^{-3}] \\ \lambda [\mu\text{m}] \end{array} \quad (3)$$

for $\omega \gg \omega_{pe}$ the expression of the refractive index (2) can be approximated to the first order by:

$$n \approx 1 - \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{\omega_{pe}^2}{\omega^2} \quad (4)$$

This is the formula commonly used in practice.

In the case of a magnetized plasma the problem is more complicated and the formula for the refractive index depends on the value of a magnetic field, plasma density and the angle between a magnetic field and wave number.

The various effects of an external magnetic field are practically negligible if $\omega \gg \Omega_e$ (Ω_e - electron gyro-frequency) that is if 3):

$$B \ll \frac{1.07 \cdot 10^2}{\lambda} [\text{MGs}], \quad \lambda [\mu\text{m}] \quad (5)$$

In the case of noncomplete ionization, the refractive index is influenced by the presence of neutral atoms. The refractivity of the neutral gas can be approximated by Cauchy's formula of the form:

$$n = 1 + A + \frac{B}{\lambda^2} \quad (6)$$

where the values of the coefficients A and B can be found in 5) for several gases.

The condition for the refractive effect of the residual neutral atoms neglectation is 3):

$$\frac{N_e}{N} \gg 0.83 \cdot 10^3 \frac{A}{\lambda^2} \quad (7)$$

A - first coefficient of the Cauchy formula

N_e, N - electron and neutral atoms density [cm^{-3}]

It should be noticed that the refractive index of neutral atoms is greater than unity and has an inverse square dependence on

In case that all previous inequalities are satisfied, the refractivity of the plasma can be expressed by formula (4). However, we wish to emphasize the fact that a careful inquiry into the actual existing experimental conditions is required each time one uses approximation (4) 3).

3. INTERFEROMETRY

Interferometry is conceptually the most direct technique for measurements exploiting plasma refractivity. It leads directly to a density determination by comparing the optical path length through a plasma with the equivalent optical path length in the absence of the plasma.

Two different approaches to the interferometric density measurements are possible:

- spatial coverage (line-of-sight integrated) at one instant in time - used for plasma-focus and z-pinch investigations (pulse lasers in visible range),
- temporal coverage integrated along one line of sight - applied for instance in tokamaks (CW - lasers in submillimeter range).

Although the theoretical basis of the two approaches is the same, but they are realized in different ways. The following text is limited to the former of these methods.

3.1. Interference of Two Monochromatic Waves.

The electric field of the monochromatic wave may be expressed as:

$$E = A \exp[i\omega(t - \frac{z}{v})] \quad (8)$$

One can transform this expression to obtain the product of spatially and temporally varying factors

$$E = A \exp(-i\phi) \exp(i\omega t) \quad (9)$$

where: $\phi = \omega z/v = 2\pi n z/\lambda$ phase n - refractive index

The product $p = nz$ - is the optical path between the origin and the point z

We can then rewrite (9) as:

$$E = a \exp(i\omega t) \quad \text{where: } a = A \exp(-i\phi) \quad (10)$$

Because of extremely high frequencies of visible light waves direct observations of the electric field are not normally possible. The only measurable quantity is the intensity, which is the time average of the amount of energy which, in unit time, crosses a unit area normal to the

direction of the energy flow. This is proportional to the time average of the square of the electric field.

$$\langle E^2 \rangle = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T E^2 dt = \frac{A^2}{2} \quad (11)$$

Since we are not interested in the absolute value of the intensity but only in relative values, we can ignore this factor of 1/2, as well as any other factors of proportionality, and define the optical intensity as:

$$I = A^2 = |a|^2 \quad (12)$$

If two monochromatic waves propagating in the same direction and polarized in the same plane are superposed at a point P, the total electric field at this point is:

$$E = E_1 + E_2 \quad (13)$$

where E_1 and E_2 are the electric fields due to the two waves. If the two waves have the same frequency, the intensity at this point is:

$$I = |A_1 + A_2|^2 \quad \text{where } A_1 = a_1 \exp(-i\phi) \quad (14)$$

$$A_2 = a_2 \exp(-i\phi)$$

Accordingly

$$I = A_1^2 + A_2^2 + A_1 A_2^* + A_1^* A_2 = I_1 + I_2 + 2(I_1 I_2)^{1/2} \cos(\Delta\phi) \quad (15)$$

where I_1 and I_2 are the intensities at P due to two waves acting separately, and $\Delta\phi = \phi_1 - \phi_2$ is the phase difference between them.

If Δp is the corresponding difference in the optical paths, the order of interference is $k = \Delta p/\lambda$. The intensity has its maximum value I_{\max} when:

$$k = m, \quad p = m\lambda, \quad \Delta\phi = 2\pi m$$

where m is an integer, and its minimum value I_{\min} when:

$$k = (2m + 1)/2, \quad p = (2m + 1)/2 \cdot \lambda, \quad \Delta\phi = (2m + 1)/2 \cdot \pi$$

A convenient measure of the contrast of the interference phenomenon is the visibility which is defined by the relation:

$$V = \frac{I_{\max} - I_{\min}}{I_{\max} + I_{\min}}$$

For two monochromatic waves polarized in the same plane with equal amplitudes the visibility may be equal to unity.

The superimposition of two beams may be achieved in several ways. Fig.2 presents some of these possibilities realized in : the Michelson, Mach-Zehnder, Sagnac and Jamin interferometers.

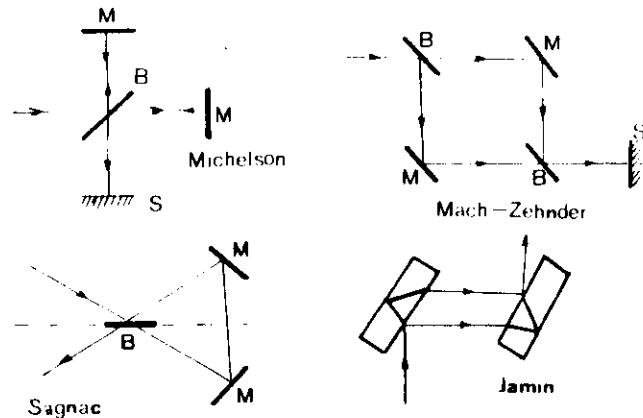


Fig.2 Interferometer systems.

In these interferometers the two beams are obtained from a single source by division of the amplitude over the same section of the wave front. A surface which reflect part of the incident light and transmits part of it is commonly used.

If in one of the arms of the interferometer a transparent object is placed the interference fringe pattern will change according to the changes of the optical paths caused by the object.

3.2. Some problems of interferometer designing.

In this paragraph some problems of designing of the interferometer system will be presented, taking as an example the arrangement used on the PF-150 Plasma-Focus device in IPPLM.

Among a variety of possible interferometer schemes, the Mach-Zehnder type seems to be the most useful, as it has several advantages:

- it enables to easily separate the two beams,
- the fringes in Mach-Zehnder interferometer can be localized in arbitrary position,
- this kind of interferometer is manoeuvrable and versatile,
- the interferograms obtained are relatively easy in interpretation and processing (contrary to shearing and grating interferometers).

The scheme of the Mach-Zehnder interferometer is presented in Fig.3.

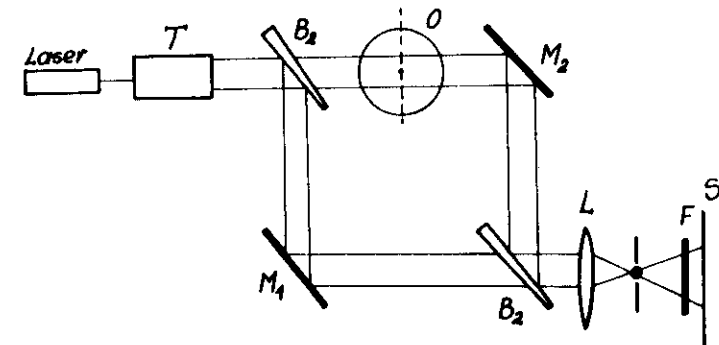


Fig.3. The Mach-Zehnder interferometer.

The laser beam passes through the telescope (**T**) and its diameter grows from initially 8 mm up to 100 mm. Then the beam is divided at the semireflecting surface **B₁** into two beams, which after reflection at the mirrors **M₁** and **M₂** are recombined at the semireflecting surface **B₂**. Between the beam splitter **B₂** and the screen **S** there is a lens **L** placed in such position that the symmetry plane of a plasma is at the object plane of the lens and the screen at the image one.

In our interferometer the mirror **M₂** and the beam splitter **B₂** are adjusted in such a way that two beams meet at the point **O** placed at the axis of the plasma. Because of two wave fronts make a small angle with each other (see fig.4) at the **O** plane, the interference pattern of parallel equidistant straight lines is created on the screen in the

absence of the plasma (fig.4b). This pattern forms the reference for recording the fringes shift in the presence of the plasma.

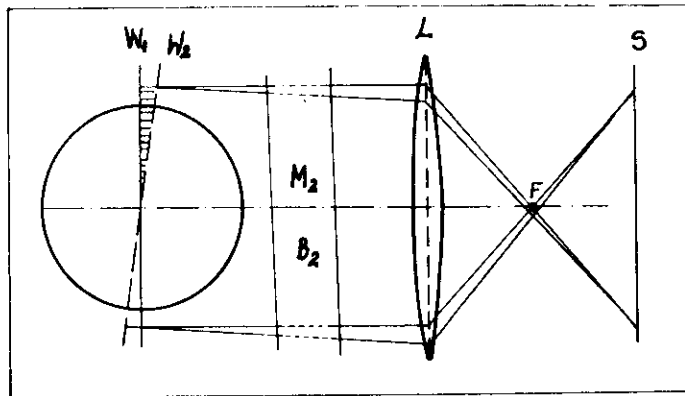


Fig.4 The geometry of wave fronts.

There are several demands the laser used in the interferometer should fulfil:

- the wave length λ of the laser should satisfy conditions (3), (5) to prevent intense absorption and reflection,
- the energy of the pulse should be high enough to ensure possibility of the fringes registration in the presence of the residual plasma radiation,
- the laser beam should be spatially uniform and have coherence length long enough to create good interference patterns,
- the pulse should be short enough to prevent the fringes structure disturbance by the measured density field changes during the pulse duration.

As a source of the light for our interferometer we have chosen the ruby laser ($\lambda = 0.694 \mu\text{m}$) with pulse duration about 1 ns and pulse energy 100 mJ.

For the peak plasma density $2 \cdot 10^{19} \text{ cm}^{-3}$ and the magnetic field below 1 MGs observed in the plasma-focus devices, relations (3), (5) are fulfilled, so the simplified formula for the refractivity index (4) may be used.

There are some limitations on the interferometer device equipped with the ruby laser used in plasma-focus phenomenon investigations. They are caused by the effect of the ray bending on the steep density gradients. This problem will be analysed below in more detailed way. Now we can say that this kind of interferometer allowed us to investigate the plasma-focus phenomenon for initial pressure within the range 1 - 7 Torr.

The optical path difference between two arms of the interferometer caused by the presence of the plasma in one of its arms may be expressed as (Fig.5):

$$\Delta p(x) = \int_A^B (1 - n) dl \quad (16)$$

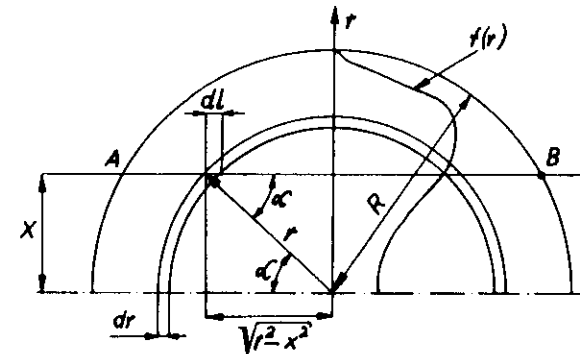


Fig.5. Geometry of a ray path leading to the Abel integral.

For the axially symmetric density distribution $f(r)$ and the refractivity index:

$$n(r) \approx 1 - \frac{N_e}{2N_{cr}} = 1 - \frac{N_{e \max}}{2N_{cr}} f(r) \quad (17)$$

where: N_e - electron density [cm^{-3}] ($N_e = N_{e \max} \cdot f(r)$)
 N_{cr} - critical density for ruby laser [cm^{-3}]

one can obtain following expression for optical path difference:

$$\Delta p(x) = \frac{N_{e \max}}{N_{cr}} \int_x^R \frac{d(r) r dr}{\sqrt{r^2 - x^2}} \quad (18)$$

and for the phase difference:

$$\phi(x) = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \Delta p(x) \quad (19)$$

The value of $\phi(x)$ can be determined from the interferograms obtained and then, after solving the equation (18) the density distribution can be found. The problem how to solve the equation (18) will be described in the last paragraph.

The sensitivity of the interferometer can be appreciated in the following way: for the plasma of the length L the optical path difference between two arms is equal to:

$$\Delta p = (n-1)L \quad (20)$$

if the critical density is expressed in terms of λ ($N_{cr} = 1.12 \cdot 10^{13} \lambda^{-2}$) from (17) one can find that:

$$\Delta p = 4.46 \cdot 10^{-14} N_e \cdot L \cdot \lambda^2 \quad N_e [cm^{-3}], L [cm], \lambda [cm] \quad (21)$$

For the minimum detectable phase shift assumed to be $\Delta p = 0.1 \cdot \lambda$ it is possible to obtain expression for minimum plasma density measurable by the interferometer:

$$N_{e \min} = \frac{2.24 \cdot 10^{12}}{\lambda \cdot L} \quad (22)$$

For the ruby laser and $L = 1$ cm, $N_{e \min} = 3.2 \cdot 10^{16} [cm^{-3}]$

Now, let us appreciate the capability of our interferometer arrangement to measure the plasma density in the plasma focus device. We will analyse:

- the fringes density and the resolution of the interferometer,
- the problem of the ray deflection caused by the density gradients and demands on aperture diameters,
- the time resolution of the interferometer for fast phenomena.

ad a) Spatial resolution of the interference fringes registration is determined by several factors:

- the aberration of optical elements used (windows of the PF chamber, lenses, mirrors etc.),
- resolution of the registering device (photographic film in our case).

It is difficult to appreciate the total resolution of the whole optical arrangement but it is possible to determine this resolution by means of special optical tests. In this manner we have found that our interferometric system is capable to record 10 lines per millimeter.

The order of interference for the x coordinate is equal to

$$k = \Delta p / \lambda$$

thus from (18):

$$\frac{dk}{dx} = \frac{\lambda N_{e \max}}{1.12 \cdot 10^{13}} \frac{dS(x)}{dx} \quad \text{where} \quad S(x) = \int_x^R d(r) (r^2 - x^2)^{1/2} r dr \quad (23)$$

has a sense of the fringes density.

To check whether the fringes density connected with the presence of the plasma sheath during collapse phase of PF discharge is not greater than the resolution of the system, let us assume that the plasma density distribution has the form of parabola characterized by two parameters: $N_{e \max}$ and the thickness Δ (Fig.6). With this assumption (reasonable for the outer edge of the sheath as confirmed by our measurements) the fringes density can be found numerically from eq. (23).

Fig.7 presents results of these computations and one can see that the maximum fringes density is lower than 10 lines per millimeter for plasma density and sheath thicknesses chosen.

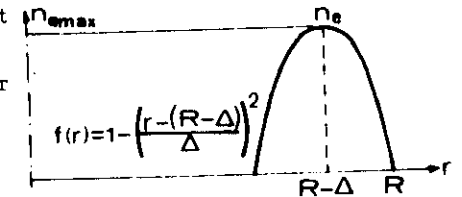


Fig.6 Assumed plasma density distribution.

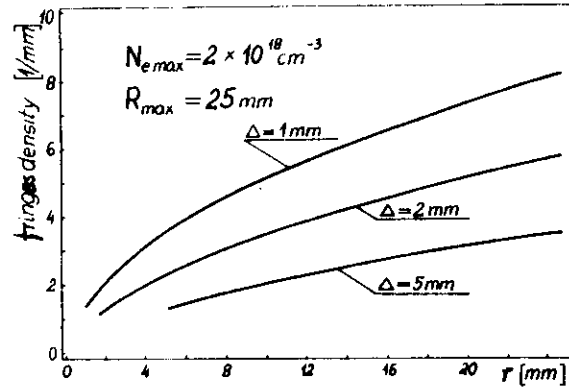


Fig.7. Maximum fringes density vs. radius of the sheath.

ad b) The deflection of a ray caused by the density gradient can be determined from the formula:

$$\alpha(x) = \int_a^c \frac{1}{n} \frac{dn}{dx} dl \quad (24)$$

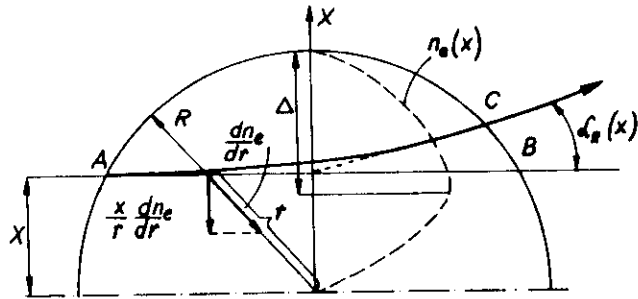


Fig.8. Ray deflection on density gradient.

If the angle α is small:

$$\alpha(x) = \frac{1}{N_{cr}} \int_x^R \frac{x}{r} \frac{dN_e}{dx} \frac{r dr}{\sqrt{r^2 - x^2}} \quad (25)$$

For parabolic density distribution (Fig.6) one can obtain:

$$\alpha(x) = \frac{\lambda^2 N_{e max}}{1.12 \cdot 10^{13}} \frac{dS(x)}{dx} \quad \text{thus } d(x) = \lambda \frac{dk}{dx} \quad (26)$$

It was assumed that the maximum deflection angle recorded by our interferometer should be equal to $\alpha_{max} = 7 \text{ mrad}$.

From this assumption and relation:

$$X_{max} + S \alpha_{max} < 0.5 \phi_L \quad (27)$$

we have obtained diameters of optical elements (lenses, mirrors etc.).

X_{max} = inner electrode radius = 2.5 cm (PF-150 device).

S - distance from object plane to the lens (mirror).

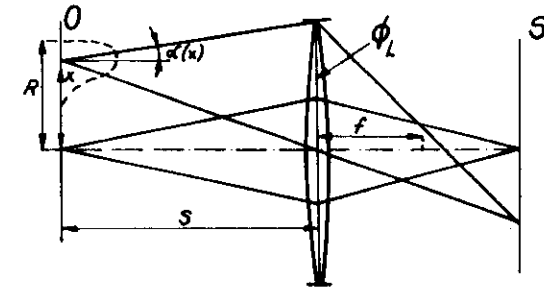


Fig.9. Ray traces in the recording system.

ad c) Let us assume that during the exposure time $\tau = 1 \text{ ns}$ the fring pattern changes only due to displacement of the plasma sheath as a whole with a velocity V . If the fring shift caused by this movement was smaller than the half distance between two neighbouring maxima, the pattern would be legible. The following condition should be fulfilled:

$$V \cdot \tau < 0.5 \left(\frac{dk}{dx} \right)^{-1} \quad (28)$$

Figure 10 illustrates the limitations of the plasma sheath density measurement due to spatial and time resolution and ray deflection.

The sheath velocity V dependence on the radius $V(r) = 2.2 \cdot 10^7 - 0.7 \cdot 10^7 \cdot r$ was taken from experimental measurements.

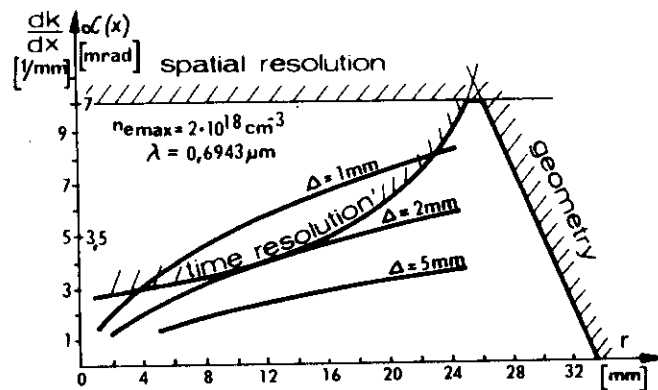


Fig.10. The limitations of the density measurement.

The exemplary interferograms obtained with our interferometer are presented on Fig.11.

3.3. The Schlieren method and shadowgraph.

The Schlieren methods are all those optical methods which record the deviations suffered by a light ray crossing a spatially nonuniform medium (the plasma in our case). If φ is the angle between the refractive gradient and the direction of the incident light, the deviation can be expressed by:

$$\alpha \approx \int_0^L \frac{1}{n} \frac{dn}{ds} \sin \varphi ds. \quad (29)$$

These angular displacements of the light rays can be recorded by various means, which can lead to quantitative or qualitative representation of the phenomenon. For the plasma-focus investigations, where the angle α is not very small, the quantitative methods are difficult in application. Nevertheless the Schlieren like methods may be very useful for qualitative description of the plasma dynamics. They enable to obtain

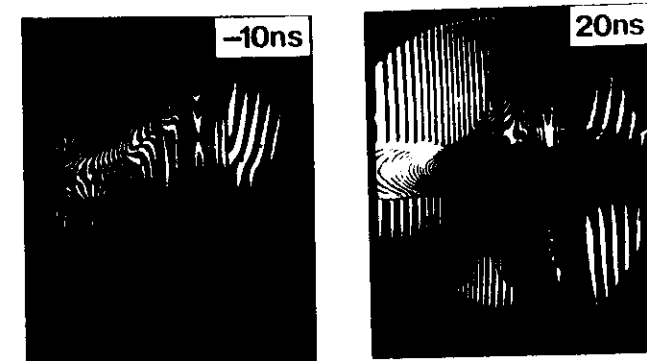


Fig.11. Interferograms of the plasma in PF device.

sharp pictures of the geometry and position of the sheath and for multi-frame arrangements, the changes of this position.

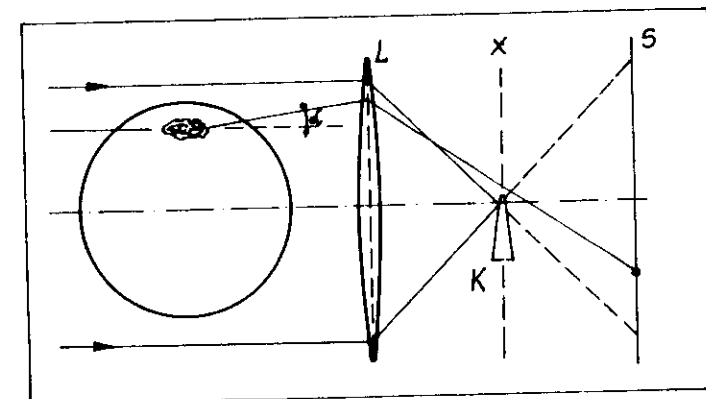


Fig.12. The Schlieren method for recording density gradients.

In the absence of the refractive index gradients the collimated laser light after passing through the lens L (fig.12) forms the bright

ring on the screen S. When the knife (named the ~~knife~~ ^{Foucault} knife) is moved along X plane (focal plane of the lens), the brightness of the ring drops gradually and for some position of the knife the ring vanishes. It takes place for focus spot completely covered by the knife.

Now let us assume that in the transparent object O there is an area of the refractive index gradient. Thus the ray passing accros this area will be bended and as it is shown on fig.12 it will pass by the knife edge creating a bright point on the screen S.

If the object is placed at the object plane of the lens and the screen S is placed in its image plane, one can obtain the picture of the refractive index gradients (density gradients) location within the object. The value of the density gradients recorded may be controlled by the position of the knife. The higher position of the knife (fig.12) the move deflected rays will reach the screen only.

The shadowgraph photography in its classic form described in literature is not very useful for PF phenomena investigations, but the change of this method which may be called an inverse Schlieren method gives the possibility to obtain a picture of the plasma sheath shape.

If in the focal plane of the lens L (Fig.13) insted of the knife the small apperture was placed, rays of the collimated laser light, deflected on the refractivity index gradients would be stopped. Thus in opposite to the Schlieren method the areas of the refractive index gradient would be black at the screen plane. When the method is used for PF investigations the shade of the plasma sheath can be recorded on the screen (Fig.13).



Fig.13. The shade of the plasma sheath in PF.

4. FARADAY ROTATION MEASUREMENTS

After traveling the length L of the magnetized plasma re linearly polarized wave suffers a rotation of the polarization given by:

$$\varphi = \frac{\omega(n_L - n_R)}{2c} L$$

where ω is the frequency of the light and n_L , n_R , are the ref indices of the left-hand and right-hand components. By substit appropriate formulas for n_L and n_R we obtain:

$$\varphi = 2.63 \cdot 10^{-22} \lambda^2 N_e B \cdot L$$

where: λ [μm], N_e [cm^{-3}], B [kGs], L [cm]

For axially symmetric object with B_z field the rotation be expressed by the Abel integral of the form:

$$\varphi(x) \sim \int_x^R \frac{N_e(r) \cdot B(r) r dr}{\sqrt{r^2 - x^2}}$$

The maximum value of φ for plasma-focus conditions ($N_e \text{ max} \sim 10^{20} \text{ cm}^{-3}$, $R \sim 0.2 \text{ cm}$, B - some hundreds kGs) is of the order of $1 - 2^\circ$, precise method for measuring small rotation angles is necessary. Figure 14 shows the scheme of the diagnostic system. It consis

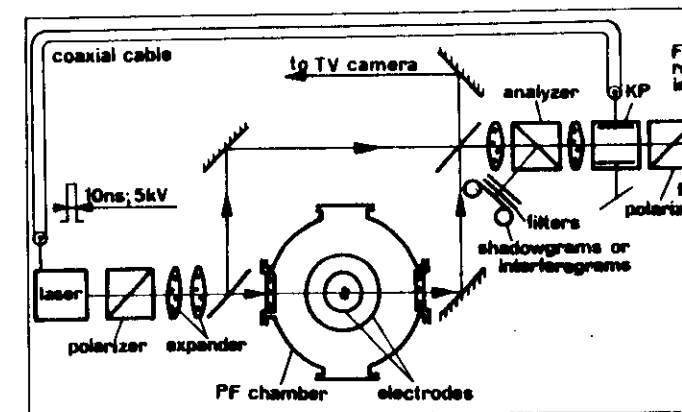


Fig.14. Experimental system for magnetic field measurements.

following subsystems:

- a pulsed ruby laser (100 mJ per 2 ns pulse),
- a system for diagnostic beam formation (Glan-Thompson polarizer and beam expander),
- a Mach-Zehnder interferometer,
- a polarimeter.

To analyse the FR angle the Glan-Thompson polarizer had a contrast ratio better than 10^{-5} . Two separate diagnostic paths can be distinguished: one for FR measurement and one for shadow picture registration, each was equipped with an identical optical system of magnification 0.7, consisting of two lenses ($f_1 = 225$ mm, $f_2 = 158$ mm). Additionally, a beam splitter was placed in the "shadow" path, which attenuates the light intensity 10 times to adjust it to the characteristic of photographic film used (IZOPANCHROM-17, made in the U.S.S.R.).

The polarimeter consists of the following elements: the analyser (Glan-Thompson), the electro-optical filter and the photographic camera. An important element of the polarimeter is the electro-optical filter which is composed of a Pockels cell and an additional Glan-Thompson polarizer. It is used for gating of both the exposure time and the spectrum of parasitic plasma luminescence. Filter control was achieved by applying a voltage pulse of half-wave amplitude (for a ruby laser wavelength) of 10 ns duration to the Pockels cell. The synchronization with the diagnostic laser was achieved by means of a coaxial cable of suitable length.

The use of the electro-optical filter in the polarimeter increases the signal-to-noise ratio to $E_1/E_p \approx 10^3$ (where E_1 is the laser beam energy and E_p is the energy of parasitic luminescence of the plasma). The polarimeter provided the registration of FR images with a spatial resolution better than 20 lines per mm. The polarimeter-interferometer system allowed the registration of either FR picture and shadowgraphs or interferograms.

The magnetic field measurement by means of the polarimeter system described here consists of two essential steps, i.e. determination of the FR angle and the electron density distribution. Uncertainty of the result depends on errors connected with these two independent measurements.

A FR angle is derived from the registered FR pictures and may be read with large error. The errors are usually caused by the nonhomogeneous intensity distribution within the probing beam and its dumping in plasma. In order to minimize the errors the data acquisition was done on the basis of sets of calibration curves. These were constructed by successive exposures of the polarimeter by laser radiation of different intensities for the fixed turn-angle of the analyser. Thus, for any selected angle there was a relationship between the optical density in the Faraday channel and in the shadow channel. This is why the absolute value of the FR angle in the plasma does not depend on the absolute intensity of radiation entering the polarimeter. Thus the error of FR angle readout is minimized (in our experiment its value does not exceed 5 angle-minutes). Some calibration curves and the way to determine the FR angle readout are shown in Fig.15.

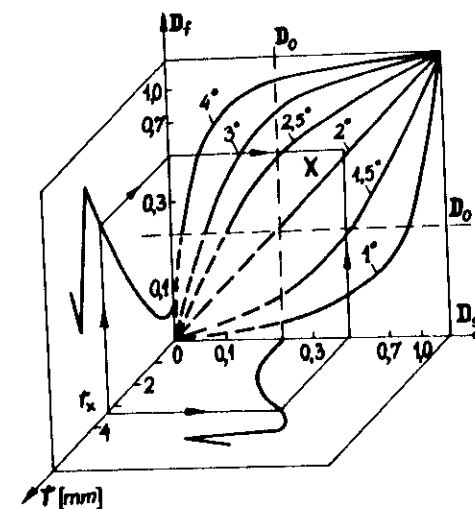


Fig.15. The calibration curves.

Fig.16 presents a FR picture and magnetic field distribution obtained by means of the polarimeter system described. The measurements were carried out plasma-focus PF-360 device. More detailed description of the polarimeter system and results achieved using it can be found in 5).

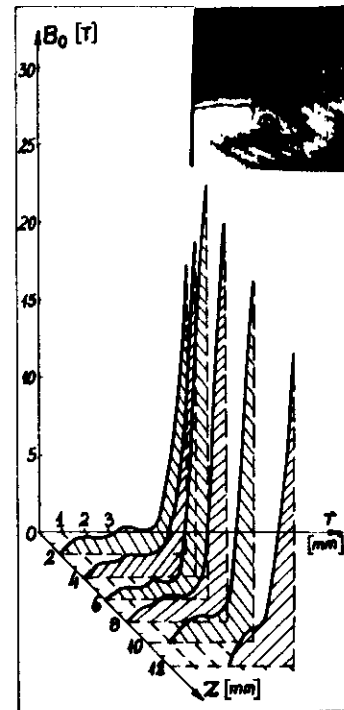


Fig.16 Magnetic field distribution in the pinch phase.

5. NUMERICAL SOLUTION TO ABEL INTEGRAL EQUATION.

The Abel integral equation:

$$y(x) = 2 \int_x^1 \frac{f(r) r dr}{\sqrt{r^2 - x^2}} \quad 0 \leq x \leq 1 \quad 0 \leq r \leq 1 \quad (33)$$

permits the radial distribution (the function $f(r)$) to be determined by knowing, e.g. from measurements, the distribution function $y(x)$ observed perpendicular to the axis of the object. The physical example may be the search for the radial distribution of the refractive index of the plasma from the distribution of the interference fringes $y(x)$.

The solution to eq (33), known under the name of the Abel integral inversion, has the form:

$$f(r) = -\frac{1}{\pi} \int_r^1 \frac{y'(x) dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - r^2}} \quad (34)$$

or

$$f(r) = -\frac{1}{\pi r} \frac{d}{dr} \int_r^1 \frac{y(x) x dx}{\sqrt{x^2 - r^2}} \quad (35)$$

The result of measurements of the function $y(x)$ is the discrete set of the values y_k at the points x_k ($k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, N$). A tabulated form of the function $y(x)$ makes it impossible to solve analytically the Abel equation, which makes the application of the numerical methods necessary.

The great variety of methods have been developed up to now for solving this equation 6).

The first step when solving numerically the Abel equation is the choice of the form of the function approximating the values y_k (in the case of the equation (34) and (35) or values f_k (in the case of the equation (33)). Among the known methods of approximation the interpolation and the quadratic mean approximation are used, while the polynomials are employed as the approximating functions in view of their being easily integrated. After approximation of the values y_k or f_k the problem reduces to solving of the algebraic equations set. The detailed description of methods useful for the Abel equation solving can be found e.g. in 6).

We would like to point out to two problems: testing of the methods and sensitivity of methods to measuring errors.

It is necessary to test the numerical methods to be used for solving Abel equation. The known analytical solutions of the Abel equation presented on Fig.6 may be useful in this aim.

In order to illustrate the effect of the measuring errors upon the quality of the reproduction of the function $f(r)$ by different methods of the Abel equation solving, the calculations have been performed for the first test function (Fig.16), with a superimposed "noise". The results of the calculation are reproduced in Fig.17.

One can see that there is a great difference of this quality and careful testing of the method is necessary before utilisation.

the methods making use of the least-squares approximation give better results in this situation.

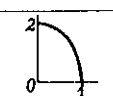
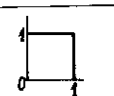
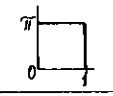

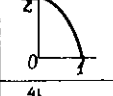
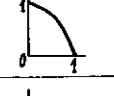
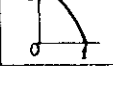
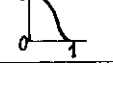
$y(x)$	$f(r)$
 $y(x) = 2\sqrt{1-x^2}$	 $f(r) = 1$
 $y(x) = \pi$	 $f(r) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$
 $y(x) = \frac{\pi}{2}(1-x^2)$	 $f(r) = \sqrt{1-r^2}$
 $y(x) = \frac{4}{3}\sqrt{1-x^2}^3$	 $f(r) = 1-r^2$

Fig.16 Formulas and graphs of test functions.

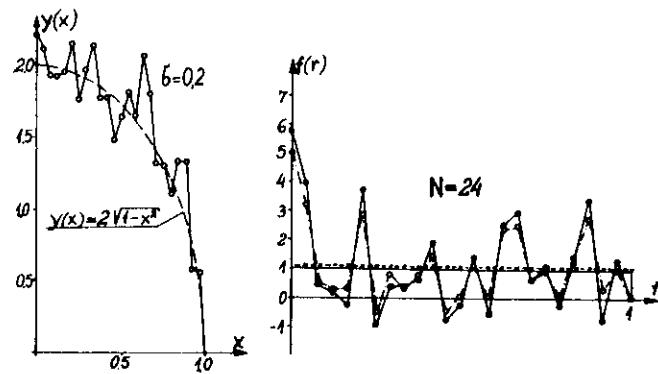


Fig.17 Effect of measuring errors upon reproduction quality of function $f(r)$.

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