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Analysis of trends in experimental observables: Reconstruction of the implosion dynamics and implications for fusion yield extrapolation for direct-drive cryogenic targets on OMEGA

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This paper describes a technique for identifying trends in performance degradation for inertial confinement fusion implosion experiments. It is based on reconstruction of the implosion core with a combination of low- and mid-mode asymmetries. This technique was applied to an ensemble of hydro-equivalent deuterium–tritium implosions on OMEGA which achieved inferred hot-spot pressures ≈56 ± 7 Gbar [Regan et al., Phys. Rev. Lett. 117, 025001 (2016)]. All the experimental observables pertaining to the core could be reconstructed simultaneously with the same combination of low and mid-modes. This suggests that in addition to low modes, which can cause a degradation of the stagnation pressure, mid-modes are present which reduce the size of the neutron and x-ray producing volume. The systematic analysis shows that asymmetries can cause an overestimation of the total areal density in these implosions. It is also found that an improvement in implosion symmetry resulting from correction of either the systematic mid or low modes would result in an increase in the hot-spot pressure from 56 Gbar to ≈ 80 Gbar and could produce a burning plasma when the implosion core is extrapolated to an equivalent 1.9 MJ symmetric direct illumination [Bose et al., Phys. Rev. E 94, 011201(R) (2016)]. Published by AIP Publishing. https://doi.org/10.1063/1.5026780

I. INTRODUCTION

In inertial confinement fusion (ICF),1,2 a shell of cryogenic deuterium (D) and tritium (T) filled with DT gas is imploded with either direct laser illumination (direct drive)3,4 or an x-ray bath produced inside a laser-irradiated hohlraum (indirect drive).5 Energy from the laser or x-rays is absorbed near the outer surface of the shell, causing mass ablation. The shell is imploded to velocities of 300–500 km/s to compress the DT gas to high pressures. The shell decelerates6 during the compression, transferring its kinetic energy to the internal energy of the hot spot. This heats up the low-density (30–100 g/cm³) plasma to high central temperatures (~5 keV) for fusion of D and T nuclei. The hot spot is surrounded and confined by a cold (200–500 eV), near-Fermi-degenerate, dense (300–1000 g/cm³) fuel layer; the stagnated shell and the hot spot are collectively referred to as the implosion core.

In this paper, we present a systematic analysis of the experimental results for direct-drive implosions and discuss a technique to reconstruct the experimental observables using numerical simulations. The observables are from several cryogenic (DT) implosions on OMEGA.7 The diagnostics of the implosion core include neutron and x-ray detectors. Neutrons are produced from the hot spot by DT fusion reactions; the neutron diagnostics infer the conditions of the hot spot from measurements of the neutron flux, the neutron time of flight, and the neutron energy spectrum. High-energy x-ray self-emission from the hot spot, in the 2–8 keV range, is imaged using x-ray cameras to infer the shape of the core.

Observation of repeatable data trends in the direct-drive experiments motivated the development of this analysis technique. As the cause of performance degradation for direct-drive implosions is not yet fully identified, we use trends from simulations of the deceleration phase to infer the degradation mechanisms involved. It is known that Rayleigh–Taylor instability (RTI)–induced distortion of the implosion core is a likely cause of degradation; the asymmetries are categorized into low and mid-modes, as in Ref. 8; for low modes (ℓ < 6), the RTI wavelength is longer than the hot-spot radius, whereas for mid-modes (6 < ℓ < 40), the asymmetry wavelength is shorter than the hot-spot radius. It was also shown in Ref. 8 that the two types of asymmetries have different effects on the neutron-averaged quantities. This paper focuses on trends in the experimental observables arising from asymmetries of the implosion core. The two types of asymmetries are used as the independent basis to approximately reproduce all of the experimental observables. Trends arising from an
effective 1-D like degradation, which may be due to shortcomings in the physical models used in hydrocodes, are also documented in this paper for future investigations of 1-D degradation.

It is important to emphasize that the experimental observables cannot be explained by using low or mid-modes alone, and the comprehensive analysis presented here shows that a combination of the two is necessary for the core reconstruction. The exact mode numbers degrading the experiments have not been determined in this paper; other combinations of modes could also produce the observables. However, it is shown that in order to reconstruct all the observables simultaneously, the overall balance between the degradation by low modes and the degradation by mid-modes must be preserved.

The experimental data used in the analysis are summarized in Sec. II. The reconstruction technique is described in Sec. III. The trends in the stagnation observables—the inferred pressure, volume, shape, temperature, areal density, neutron burnwidth, and bang time—arising from the various degradation mechanisms are also discussed in Sec. III. Our conclusions, along with energy extrapolation of direct-drive implosions and future applications for this analysis technique, are presented in Sec. IV.

II. TRENDS IN CRYOGENIC IMPLOSION EXPERIMENTS

It has been shown by Regan et al.7 that direct-drive cryogenic implosions on OMEGA have achieved hot-spot pressures exceeding 50 Gbar—a performance that surpassed all previous implosions on OMEGA. The implosion performance was estimated based on the experimental observables: neutron yield, areal density, ion temperature, hot-spot volume, and neutron burnwidth. The “50 Gbar” implosions used standardized pulse shapes (either a single-picket pulse or a triple-picket pulse) and standardized targets (shown in Fig. 1). The 1-D performance is estimated from simulations using the hydrodynamic code LILAC.9 It must be noted that the laser deposition models in LILAC were optimized to reproduce inflight observables such as laser-energy deposition and shell trajectory.10,11 The estimated implosion adiabat for this design is \( a \approx 3.5-4 \) [the adiabat is defined as the ratio of the hydrodynamic pressure \( P \) and the Fermi pressure of a degenerate electron gas \( P_F \) at the interface of the hot spot and shell at the time when the laser-driven shocks reach this interface, i.e., \( a \equiv P/P_F \)]. This is considered to be a mid-adiabat implosion design, with an adiabat higher than the indirect-drive “high foot” design.12–14 The peak hot-spot pressure in 1-D is estimated to be \( \sim 100 \) Gbar, close to the \( \sim 120 \) Gbar required to demonstrate hydro-equivalent ignition (the hydro-equivalent scaling15 of the implosion core has been discussed in Refs. 7, 16, and 17). Notice that the pressure required for ignition with 1.9 MJ direct illumination is lower than the 350–400 Gbar required for ignition with the indirect drive approach with the same laser energy. This is because for a direct drive, the conversion efficiency of laser energy to kinetic energy of the imploding shell is much higher, therefore allowing the implosion of greater DT fuel mass (i.e., larger target radius) which results in longer confinement times \( \tau \). Since the Lawson ignition condition scales as \( P_{\text{ign}} \tau \), the pressure required for ignition \( (P_{\text{ign}}) \) is lower with respect to that required for an indirect drive.

Table I lists the performance of several of these 50 Gbar implosions. The performance parameters are similar for all the shots. The neutron yields are \( \sim 4 \times 10^{13} \) at a yield degradation level \( (Y/Y_{1D}) \) of \( \sim 0.3 \), where \( Y_{1D} \) represents the post-shot 1-D simulation yield, calculated using LILAC. The hot-spot radii for all the shots are \( \sim 22 \) \( \mu \)m; they were estimated using time-resolved x-ray images18 (discussed in Sec. III B). The ion temperatures \( (T_i \approx 3.5 \text{ keV}) \) are comparable to the temperatures from 1-D simulations, to within the 10% degradation level. \( T_i \) were measured using three different detectors—the chemical vapor deposition (CVD) detector19 and the 12-m and 15-m neutron time-of-flight (nTOF) detectors20,21—positioned along different implosion lines of sight; the minimum temperature is listed in Table I. The variation in \( T_i \) measurement \( \Delta T_i \), which is the difference between the maximum and minimum measured temperatures, is considerable for majority of the shots, ranging between 150 eV and 1.1 keV. It is observed that the measured areal densities are comparable to the 1-D estimates, \( sR \) is measured using the nTOF and magnetic recoil spectrometer (MRS)22 detectors. The measured burnwidths are slightly longer than the 1-D estimate. The burnwidths are measured using the neutron temporal diagnostic (NTD).23

For direct-drive implosions on OMEGA, it is anticipated that the core is degraded by a combination of low and intermediate modes. Although the origin of the asymmetries is uncertain, low modes can arise from several factors, including long-wavelength target defects, target positioning, laser beam balance, and laser beam pointing.24–26 In addition, the superposition of all 60 laser beams on OMEGA can produce overlap intensity variations, which is expected to introduce intermediate-mode nonuniformities, similar to the mode \( \ell =10 \) in 2-D geometry. The cross-beam energy transfer (CBET) calculations by Edgell et al.,28 shown in Fig. 2, represent the variation in laser-energy absorption at the target surface. When CBET is included, the nonuniformity is higher by \( 10 \times \). These variations may be associated with the origin of mid-mode asymmetry in direct-drive implosions.

III. THE RECONSTRUCTION TECHNIQUE AND ITS APPLICATION

Unlike the conventional approach that involves full simulations of the implosions including nonuniformities from
TABLE I. This table lists the experimental observable and the corresponding 1-D estimate from simulations [in brackets] for the ensemble of cryogenic implosions on OMEGA which produced $\sim$50 Gbar pressure. In the column showing areal density ($\rho R$), both NTOF and MRS (second) measurements are listed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shot</th>
<th>$Y(\times10^{14})$</th>
<th>x-ray $R_{75%}$ (µm)</th>
<th>$T_e$ (keV)$^2$</th>
<th>$\Delta T_e$ (keV)</th>
<th>$\rho R$ (mg/cm²)</th>
<th>Burnwidth (ps)</th>
<th>$t_b - t_{b-1D}$ (ps)</th>
<th>$P_{inferred}$ (Gbar)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>78959</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>213, 203</td>
<td>71</td>
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<td>52</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(13.8)</td>
<td>(20.9)</td>
<td>[3.6]</td>
<td>[0.88]</td>
<td>[232]</td>
<td>[54.1]</td>
<td>[109]</td>
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<td>78963</td>
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<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>204, 208</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>-20</td>
<td>49</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(16.3)</td>
<td>(19.8)</td>
<td>[3.74]</td>
<td>[1.2]</td>
<td>[242]</td>
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<tr>
<td>78967</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>21.4</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>179, 195</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>-46</td>
<td>50</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(15.3)</td>
<td>(20.4)</td>
<td>[3.69]</td>
<td>[1.06]</td>
<td>[238]</td>
<td>[51.1]</td>
<td>[120]</td>
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<td>78969</td>
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<td>3.7</td>
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<td>204, 197</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>-19</td>
<td>55</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(14.1)</td>
<td>(21.4)</td>
<td>[3.66]</td>
<td>[1.45]</td>
<td>[216]</td>
<td>[54.7]</td>
<td>[104]</td>
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<td>22.1</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>220, 208</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>-27</td>
<td>44</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(14.4)</td>
<td>(21.4)</td>
<td>[3.64]</td>
<td>[1.87]</td>
<td>[222]</td>
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<td>[107]</td>
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<td>77064</td>
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<td>22.0</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>211, 191</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>-26</td>
<td>54</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(12.5)</td>
<td>(20.4)</td>
<td>[3.48]</td>
<td>[0.8]</td>
<td>[219]</td>
<td>[57.4]</td>
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<td>[108]</td>
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<td>3.18</td>
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<td>221, 193</td>
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<td>-20</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(16.1)</td>
<td>(21.4)</td>
<td>[3.66]</td>
<td>[1.1]</td>
<td>[228]</td>
<td>[52.9]</td>
<td></td>
<td>[112]</td>
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<td>77068</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>211, 194</td>
<td>66</td>
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<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(17.)</td>
<td>(22.)</td>
<td>[3.82]</td>
<td>[0.45]</td>
<td>[211]</td>
<td>[61]</td>
<td></td>
<td>[97]</td>
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<tr>
<td>77070</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>20.3</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>220, 229</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>-11</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(13.3)</td>
<td>(20.4)</td>
<td>[3.55]</td>
<td>[0.5]</td>
<td>[239]</td>
<td>[52.6]</td>
<td></td>
<td>[114]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$The ion temperatures were inferred using the instrument response function that was used before 2017; currently, an updated response function is being investigated, and this would result in temperatures that are $\sim300$ eV lower than stated and are within the experimental error.

n numerous sources, our technique focuses only on the final phase of an implosion. The final phase consists of the deceleration phase followed by stagnation and disassembly, which are critical in the production of fusion reaction neutrons detected by the nuclear diagnostics and bremsstrahlung emission detected by the x-ray imaging diagnostics. Performance degradation results from a combination of nonuniformities: they are amplified by the RTI during the acceleration phase and can feed through to the inner surface, where they are further amplified during the deceleration phase by the RTI.

The 2-D radiation–hydrodynamic code DEC2D is used to simulate the deceleration phase of implosions. The details of the code have been discussed in Ref. 16. Figure 3 provides an outline to our technique. The acceleration phase was simulated using LILAC,9 and it includes the laser drive with models for CBET10 and nonlocal thermal transport.11 The hydrodynamic profiles at the end of the laser pulse were used as initial conditions for the deceleration-phase simulations in 2-D. Initial perturbations for the deceleration-phase RTI were introduced at the interface of the shell and the hot spot through the angular variation of the velocity field.

Here, we consider three categories of degradation: low-mode asymmetry, mid-mode asymmetry, and 1-D degradation. The low-mode trends are represented using mode 1 ("$\ell = 1$"), mode 2 ("$\ell = 2$"), and phase reversed mode 2 ("$\ell = 2$ phase reversed"); the RTI spike axis coincides with the simulation axis of symmetry for the $\ell = 2$ case, and they are orthogonal for the phase reversed case. The mid-mode trends are represented using mode 10 ("$\ell = 10$") and a multimode spectrum referred to as "Mid-modes." $\ell = 10$ consists of central mode 10 along with sideband modes 8 and 12 at 20% of central mode amplitude. The Mid-modes consist of a spectrum of modes given by $\ell = 20$ at the same amplitude and a $1/\ell^2$ roll-off spectrum for higher modes $20 \leq \ell \leq 100$, and the latter was motivated by the DT ice inner surface roughness spectrum. In simulations, the implosion performance was degraded by increasing the peak amplitude of the velocity perturbation spectrum. The 1-D degradation is incorporated as a degradation in the implosion velocity of the target, i.e., degradation in the initial condition of the deceleration-phase simulations; this has been denoted using "1-D $V_{imp}$." The scaling of the implosion observables with $V_{imp}$ will be shown in Secs. III A-III F, and they are in reasonable agreement with Ref. 27 which instead uses a set of optimally performing LILAC simulations.

FIG. 2. The laser power absorbed at the target surface is shown for calculations: (a) without considering cross-beam energy transfer (CBET) between the interacting laser beams and (b) with CBET. Reproduced with permission from Phys. Plasmas 24, 062706 (2017). Copyright 2017 AIP Publishing LLC.
experimental observables such as yield and areal density. The target was driven with a laser energy of 26.18 kJ to an implosion velocity of 380 km/s. The experimental observables, the 1-D simulation parameters, and the reconstructed observables for this shot are shown in Table II. Notice that the experimental observables were reproduced using a combination of the Mid-mode component (1) and the low mode component (2); a degradation of the simulated 1-D performance with either the low mode or mid-modes alone would not produce the estimated results (this can be shown using the last two columns of Table II). The velocity perturbation used for the reconstruction of the shot 77068 is shown in Fig. 4; it consists of a combination of low-mode ($\ell = 2$) and mid-mode (a spectrum of Mid-modes) asymmetries. Figure 5 shows the shape of the hot spot and shell at the time of peak neutron production (i.e., bang time, $t_b$); the final shape resembles a combination of a low-mode $\ell = 2$ and a dominant mid-mode $\ell = 10$. We emphasize that the exact mode numbers degrading the experimental performance cannot be inferred from this analysis technique, and other combinations

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**TABLE II.** Comparison of measurements with 1-D simulations (using LILAC and DEC2D) and 2-D simulations (using DEC2D).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Observables</th>
<th>Experiment shot 77068</th>
<th>1-D simulation</th>
<th>Reconstructed shot 77068</th>
<th>Mid-modes Component (1)</th>
<th>Mid-modes Component (2)</th>
<th>Mid-modes $Y/Y_{1D} = 0.3$</th>
<th>Mid-modes $Y/Y_{1D} \approx 0.3$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yield</td>
<td>$5.3 \times 10^{13}$ ($\pm$ 5%)</td>
<td>$1.7 \times 10^{14}$</td>
<td>$5.3 \times 10^{14}$</td>
<td>$7.9 \times 10^{13}$</td>
<td>$9.8 \times 10^{13}$</td>
<td>$5.3 \times 10^{13}$</td>
<td>$5.3 \times 10^{13}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$P^r$ (Gbar)</td>
<td>$56 \pm 7$</td>
<td>$97$</td>
<td>$57$</td>
<td>$77$</td>
<td>$73$</td>
<td>$66$</td>
<td>$50$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$T_i$ (keV)</td>
<td>$3.6 (\pm 0.3)$</td>
<td>$3.82$</td>
<td>$3.7$</td>
<td>$3.78$</td>
<td>$3.71$</td>
<td>$3.64$</td>
<td>$3.42$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$R_{hs}$ ($\mu$m)</td>
<td>$22 (\pm 1)$</td>
<td>$22$</td>
<td>$22$</td>
<td>$20.9$</td>
<td>$23.4$</td>
<td>$21$</td>
<td>$25.3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\tau$ (ps)</td>
<td>$66 (\pm 6)$</td>
<td>$61$</td>
<td>$54$</td>
<td>$55$</td>
<td>$56$</td>
<td>$53$</td>
<td>$59$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\rho R$ (g/cm$^2$)</td>
<td>$0.194 (\pm 0.018)$</td>
<td>$0.211$</td>
<td>$0.194$</td>
<td>$0.222$</td>
<td>$0.193$</td>
<td>$0.211$</td>
<td>$0.180$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**FIG. 3.** The procedure involved in the reconstruction technique. The target (a) and pulse shape (b) are used as initial conditions for the 1-D hydrodynamic code LILAC, which is used to (c) simulate the acceleration phase of implosions. The hydrodynamic profiles from the (d) in-flight target simulation are transferred to DEC2D; single- or multimode velocity perturbations are (e) introduced at the inner surface of the shell. (f) The deceleration phase of the implosion is simulated in 2-D. (g) The stagnation parameters are extracted from these simulations.

**FIG. 4.** The initial velocity perturbation spectrum $\Delta V/V_{imp}\% (\ell)$ that was used to synthetically reconstruct shot 77068 observables.

**FIG. 5.** Plots illustrating that a combination of low and mid-modes was used to reconstruct the core conditions of the shot 77068. The density profiles at the time of peak neutron production are shown for (a) the reproduced shot 77068 with $Y/Y_{1D} = 0.3$, (b) the low-mode $\ell = 2$ component at $Y/Y_{1D} \approx 0.6$, and (c) an equivalent mid-mode $\ell = 10$ component at $Y/Y_{1D} \approx 0.6$. 
of modes could also lead to the same reconstructed observables. However, the overall balance between the degradation by low modes and the degradation by mid-modes on all of the observables must be preserved. To illustrate this, we also show trends from different low modes: the $\ell = 1$ mode and the $\ell = 2$ asymmetry with a reversed phase. Although these modes are structurally different, the resulting trends are the same; for example, see trends in pressure and volume degradation in Figs. 6, 8, 12, 14, and 15. A discussion on the mode $\ell = 1$ asymmetry and an alternative reconstruction is shown in the Appendix. Similarly, the Mid-modes (of the spectrum in Fig. 4) produce very similar degradation trends as the mode $\ell = 10^7$.

Sections III A–III F show the analysis of the 50 Gbar implosion results using this technique. The effect of low and mid-modes on each of the implosion observables is discussed.

**A. Inferred hot-spot pressure**

The hot-spot pressure is not directly measurable, but it is inferred from other experimental observables using

$$P_{\text{inferred}} = \frac{P_{\text{inferred} \ 1D}}{V_{\text{imp} \ 1D}} \left[ \frac{V}{V_{\text{imp} \ 1D}} \right]^{-1} \left[ \frac{\langle \Delta v \rangle / T_{\text{imp}}^2}{\langle \Delta v \rangle / T_i^2} \right]_{\text{ID}}^{-1} \left[ \frac{V}{V_{\text{imp} \ 1D}} \right]^{-1} \tau^{-1},$$

where $Y$ is the implosion yield obtained from experiments or simulations and is normalized with the 1-D yield ($Y_{\text{ID}}$) from simulations. $V/V_{\text{ID}}$ is the normalized volume of the hot spot, calculated from the x-ray images of experiments or simulations. The fusion reactivity is a function of temperature only,

$$\langle \Delta v \rangle / T_i^2 \sim T_i^2,$$

with $\sigma \approx 1–2$ for the temperature range of interest to ICF. The neutron burnwidth $\tau$ is the full width at half maximum of the neutron rate. The degradation trends for each of these observables will be shown in Secs. III B–III F.

The degradation in pressure corresponding to a given degradation in yield is shown in Fig. 6. The degradation in inferred pressure is an outcome of the degradation in all of the measurable parameters shown in Eq. (1). For any yield degradation level, the low modes (in blue) result in a greater degradation of the hot-spot pressure as compared to mid-modes (in red). The $\ell = 1$, $\ell = 2$, and $\ell = 2 \text{ phase reversed}$ modes produce nearly identical pressure degradation curves; also, the $\ell = 10^7$ and Mid-modes produce similar curves. This is because for implosions with mid-mode asymmetries, the hot-spot volume is smaller as a result of cooling by penetration of the RTI spikes, but for low modes, the volume is larger (see Sec. III B). The gray-shaded region represents an ensemble of simulations using different amplitude combinations of $\ell = 2$ and Mid-modes, with the $\ell = 2$ amplitude varying between 4% and 7% of $V_{\text{imp}}$ and the Mid-mode amplitude varying between 2% and 4% of $V_{\text{imp}}$. The initial velocity perturbation spectrum of Fig. 4 could be used to reproduce the experimental pressure for shot 77068. The dashed black line in Fig. 6 shows the 1-D pressure scaling with implosion velocity; it follows $P_{\text{inferred}} \sim V_{\text{imp}}^{3.72}$. The corresponding yield scaling with implosion velocity follows $Y \sim V_{\text{imp}}^{0.62}$. The implosion velocity degradation is a simplistic method to model the degradation in implosion convergence; it is useful only for comparison of trends. In experiments, degradation in implosion convergence can be caused by the following: very short scale nonuniformities arising from laser imprinting or the reduced laser-to-capsule drive with respect to simulation and preheating caused by superthermal electrons (which decrease the implosion convergence by increasing the implosion adiabat $\chi$).

Notice that in Fig. 6, the pressure degradation curve for the 1-D $V_{\text{imp}}$ coincides with the low-mode curves ($\ell = 1$, $\ell = 2$, and $\ell = 2 \text{ phase reversed}$) but is different from the mid-mode curves ($\ell = 10^7$ and Mid-modes). This can be explained based on Ref. 8. It is so because, first, the hot-spot is not isobaric for implosions with mid-mode asymmetries, and second, the inferred pressure for mid-modes is the average pressure of the x-ray–producing region of the hot spot. The x-ray–producing volume, however, larger than the neutron-producing volume, is still smaller than the total hot-spot volume including the bubbles (i.e., $V_{\text{hot}}$ of Ref. 8). As a result, the inferred pressure for implosions with mid-mode asymmetry using the x-ray volume is higher than the average hot-spot pressure. However, for the low mode asymmetry or 1-D $V_{\text{imp}}$ degradation curves (Fig. 6), the hot spot is approximately isobaric and the neutron and x-ray volumes are comparable to the total hot-spot volume ($V_{\text{hot}}$), see Fig. 7 of Ref. 8, and therefore, the inferred pressure are similar. If the neutron producing volume is used instead of the x-ray volume, the inferred pressure for mid-modes would be similar to the clean (1-D) value irrespective of the yield, which is also shown in Fig. 7 of Ref. 8. In summary, the inferred pressure for implosions with mid-mode asymmetry is higher than that of low modes at the same yield degradation level, and this results from a non-isobaric hot spot and a smaller hot-spot volume for the former.
B. Estimation of the hot-spot size: Using time-gated self-emission images

Time-resolved images of the core x-ray self-emission, as shown in Fig. 7, have been used to estimate the hot-spot volume. Here, $R_{17}$ is the radius at 17% of peak intensity and $V_{x-ray}/V_{x-ray-1D} = (R_{17}/R_{1D-1D})^3$. The effect of asymmetries on the hot-spot volume is shown in Fig. 8. It is shown that with increasing mode amplitude, the x-ray volume increases for low modes and decreases for mid-modes. By cooling the plasma within the RTI bubbles, mid-mode asymmetries cause a reduction in the x-ray–emitting volume. The gray-shaded region (representing the ensemble of simulations) shows that the volume estimated using a combination of low and mid-modes is in agreement with the measured volume for the 50 Gbar shots, illustrating that the experiments can be reconstructed using such combinations of low and mid-modes. The effect of an implosion velocity degradation on the x-ray volume has been shown using the dashed black line (1-D Vimp), and it follows the scaling $V_{x-ray} \sim V_{imp}^{-2.14}$. Notice that this curve coincides with the low-mode curves, but it is different from the mid-mode asymmetry curves for the same reasons as previously explained.

The disassembly phase of implosions is different for low- and mid-mode asymmetries, and the physical mechanism involved has been discussed in Ref. 8. In this section, we discuss signatures in time resolved x-ray images that could aid the detection of mid-modes, see Fig. 9. Time-resolved x-ray images (i.e., with 10 ps gate width) were produced from the simulations using the atomic physics code Spect3D.32,33 These images were normalized with the maximum intensity for each image and fit with the following function:

$$f(x,y) = e^{-[(x/a)^2 + (y/b)^2]^{\eta/2}}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

The $R_{17}$ was obtained from the fit using $R_{17} = \sqrt{\alpha \times b \times \log(0.17)}$. The index $\eta$ represents the index of the super-Gaussian fit, with $\eta = 2$ representing a Gaussian function. During the disassembly (i.e., for $t > t_0$), the $R_{17}$ decreases with time for mid-modes, whereas it increases for low modes with respect to the 1-D. A similar trend was also observed for other arbitrary definitions of the radius, i.e., radius at 37%, 50%, and 75% of peak intensity. Since detection of mid-modes in experiments is challenging, because of the limited spatial resolution of the detectors, the above time-evolution trends in the x-ray images could motivate future experiments.

C. Shape analysis of time-integrated self-emission images

In this section, we discuss how asymmetries influence the time-integrated x-ray images. Since the photon statistics (i.e., determined by the number of incident photons) are insufficient for the 10–15 ps time-gated images (in Sec. III B), we do not use those images to infer the shape of the hot spot; instead, we use the time-integrated images

\begin{figure}
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{fig7}
\caption{(a) An x-ray image of the hot spot at stagnation for shot 77068, obtained using a time-resolved Kirkpatrick–Baez (KB) framed camera with a 4–8 keV photon energy range and an ~6 um spatial resolution. The measured and fit x-ray profiles along the dashed line are shown in (b).}
\end{figure}

\begin{figure}
\centering
\includegraphics[width=\textwidth]{fig9}
\caption{Plot showing the time evolution of the x-ray $R_{17}$ obtained from simulations. This is shown for the symmetric case (black line), the low-mode $\ell = 2$ case with $Y/Y_{1D} = 0.6$ (blue line), the mid-mode $\ell = 10$ case with $Y/Y_{1D} = 0.6$ (red line), and the reproduced case with $Y/Y_{1D} \approx 0.3$ (green line) for simulations of shot 77068.}
\end{figure}
obtained using the gated monochromatic x-ray imaging (GMXI) module.\textsuperscript{34} In Fig. 10, the first column shows the density profile and flow pattern at bang time. The corresponding synthetic self-emission images along with lineouts across a different axis are shown in the second and third columns, respectively. The cross sections were taken through the center of the image; they are marked on the contour plot with the same color as on the intensity plot. The x-ray images were reconstructed with the same filter, point spread function (PSF), and detector response as the experimental shot 77068, i.e., filtered with 6.5 mil of Be and 2 mil of Al, which transmit x rays in the 4–8 keV range and a 7.5 $\mu$m PSF. The images were fit using the function shown in Eq. (2). The $R_{17}$ of the time-integrated images, the ellipticity parameter ($a/b$), and the super-Gaussian exponent $\eta$ are calculated from the fit. It is found that low modes cause an increase in the $a/b$ and $R_{17}$, with the index $\eta$ comparable or larger than the 1-D case. In comparison, mid-modes cause a reduction in the index $\eta$ because the mid-modes exhibit several low-temperature bubbles surrounding the hot center, producing a more-gradual intensity variation with the radius. The mid-modes have negligible effects on the calculated $a/b$ and $R_{17}$.

Table III shows the properties of the time-integrated x-ray images for the 50 Gbar shots. It is observed that for all of the shots, the time-integrated $R_{17}$ is larger than the time-resolved images by $\sim 3–4\mu$m (see Table I), and this is in consistent agreement with our analysis showing that the time integrated radius ($R_{17}$) is larger than the radius at bang time for low modes ($\ell = 2$) in simulations. $\eta < \eta_{1D}$ indicates the presence of mid-modes, and the $a/b > 1$ indicates the presence of low modes in the implosions.

Figure 11 shows the time-integrated image for shot 77068 and the reconstructed image. The agreement in shape and other parameters ($R_{17}$, $a/b$, and $\eta$) supports the presence of systematic mid-modes along with low modes in the 50 Gbar implosions. In summary, low modes increase the ellipticity parameter ($a/b$) and radius ($R_{17}$) with respect to 1-D from the time-integrated x-ray images, and mid-modes produce a lower super-Gaussian index $\eta$. A combination of low- and mid-mode asymmetries can be used to reproduce the experimental images.

FIG. 10. Contour plots of the density profile and plasma flow pattern at bang time (first column), time-integrated synthetic x-ray emission images (second column), and image lineouts (third column). The black dashed line represents the lineout of the symmetric image; it is shown on all plots of the third column for reference. The lineouts along the three different axes are labeled with different colors (red, blue, and green). The 2-D super-Gaussian fit parameters have been included. The images for (a) symmetric implosion, (b) $\ell = 2$ at $Y/Y_{1D} = 0.6$, (c) $\ell = 10$ at $Y/Y_{1D} = 0.6$, (d) Mid-modes (spectrum) with 2 \% $\Delta V$ at $Y/Y_{1D} = 0.47$, and (e) reconstructed shot 77068 are shown.
D. Neutron-averaged ion temperature

Figure 12 shows the degradation in ion temperature ($T_i/T_{i,1D}$) with degradation in yield ($Y/Y_{1D}$). It is observed that asymmetries cause a small degradation in $T_i/T_{i,1D}$, within $10\%$–$15\%$ of the 1-D value, for all yield degradation levels above $Y/Y_{1D} > 0.2$. This is because the temperature of the region of the hot spot that produces fusion neutrons, i.e., the hot region, is only marginally affected by asymmetries (see Ref. 8). Marked in gray are the results from simulations with a combination of low- and mid-mode asymmetries. The points in green, representing the 50 Gbar experiments, fall within the gray region. In 1-D, the temperature scaling with implosion velocity follows $T_i \sim V_{imp}$, which is estimated from the dashed black line. It is observed that at the same yield degradation ($Y/Y_{1D}$) level, the temperature is lower for the curve representing implosion velocity degradation (1-D $V_{imp}$) as compared to asymmetries.

The variation in ion temperature measurements between detectors is shown using the red bars in Fig. 12; the length of the red bar represents the maximum variation $\Delta T_{max} = T_{i,max} - T_{i,min}$ between measurements along different lines of sight for the shot. It is known that flows $^{35-37}$ in the neutron-producing region of the hot spot, marked with arrows in Fig. 10 (first column), can affect the temperature measurements. This results in a higher apparent temperature, depending on the detector line of sight. The 50 Gbar implosions exhibit a considerable variation in ion temperature measurements. The maximum variation in neutron-averaged ion temperature ($\Delta T_{max}$) versus yield degradation level is also shown in Fig. 13. The experiments (represented by the points) exhibit a shot-to-shot variation in $\Delta T_{max}$, and this is possibly because of differences in flow effects along different lines of sight. For the simulations, the apparent temperatures (i.e., including flow effects) were calculated using the Murphy $^{38}$ formulation [see Eq. (20) of Ref. 38]

$$T^{app}_{sp/bub} (keV) = T_i [keV] + (m_a + m_b) \langle v^2_{sp/bub} \rangle / [keV],$$  \hspace{1cm} (3)

with

$$T_{1} = \left( \int n_D T(\sigma v) dV dr \right) / \left( \int n_D dV dr \right),$$  \hspace{1cm} (4)

$$\langle v^2_{sp/bub} \rangle = \left( \int v^2_{sp/bub} n_D T(\sigma v) dV dr \right) / \left( \int n_D dV dr \right),$$  \hspace{1cm} (5)

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<th>$R_{17}$ ($\mu m$)</th>
<th>$\eta$</th>
<th>$a/b$</th>
<th>Filter</th>
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</thead>
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<td>1.16</td>
<td>3 mil Al</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>28.1</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>3 mil Al</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>26.7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>3 mil Al</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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Table III. The properties for the time-integrated GMXI$^{34}$ x-ray images from experiments.

FIG. 11. A comparison between time-integrated x-ray images for shot 77068 obtained from [(a) and (b)] experiments and [(c) and (d)] the reconstructed simulation. The lineouts along the different axes are labeled with different colors (red, blue, green, and purple), the lineouts for the experimental image are represented using solid lines [in (b) and (d)], and the simulations are represented using dashed lines [in (d)]. The lineout for the symmetric case is shown with a black dashed line [in (b) and (d)] for reference. The super-Gaussian fit parameters for both experiment (b) and simulation (d) are listed.

FIG. 12. Plot showing degradation in neutron-averaged ion temperature ($T_i/T_{i,1D}$) versus the degradation in yield ($Y/Y_{1D}$). The points in green represent the minimum ion temperature measured for the 50 Gbar shots; the red bar associated with each data point extends to the maximum ion temperature measurement. The reconstructed shot 77068 is shown in orange (overlapping with data); the points (1) and (2) represent degradation caused by the mid-mode and low-mode components separately. The gray-shaded region represents an ensemble of simulations using different amplitude combinations of $\ell = 2$ and Mid-modes; it is observed that these reproduce the experiments.
variation possible is estimated using the following:

\[
\Delta T_{\text{max}} = \max \left( T_{\text{sp}}^{\text{(app)}} - T_{\text{bub}}^{\text{(app)}} \right) - T_{i},
\]

where \( T_{\text{sp}}^{\text{(app)}} \) or \( T_{\text{bub}}^{\text{(app)}} \) is the apparent temperature measured by a detector sitting on the spike axis or the bubble axis and \( T_{i} \) is the neutron-averaged ion temperature calculated without including the flow effects (as expected, the variation in ion temperature is negligible for symmetric implosions). We find that \( \Delta T_{\text{max}} \) from experiments and the calculated \( \Delta T_{\text{max}} \) are comparable for implosions with \( \ell = 2 \) and mid-modes. The \( \ell = 1 \) mode and the phase-reversed low mode \( (\ell = 2 \text{ phase reversed}) \) produce a higher variation in apparent temperature than others, and in the simulations, this is because these implosions are influenced by significant bulk flow motion within the relatively large neutron producing volume.

Our technique which uses a combination of low and mid-modes can be used to consistently reproduce the neutron-averaged temperature measurements and estimate the variation in temperature for the 50 Gbar experiments.

E. Implosion areal density

The effect of asymmetries on the areal density \((\rho R)\) is discussed in this section. The \( \rho R \)s estimated from the down scattered ratio (DSR) of the neutron spectrum obtained from experiments and simulations are shown in Fig. 14. It is observed that the measured \( \rho R \)s are comparable to the corresponding 1-D estimated values (from LILAC) although the yields are heavily degraded \((Y/Y_{1-D} \sim 0.3)\) in the experiments. In Fig. 14, the \( \rho R \) scaling with symmetric yield (produced by decreasing the implosion velocity) is shown by the dashed black line (1-D \( V_{\text{imp}} \)), and it follows \( \rho R \sim Y_{\text{1-D}}^{1.42} \). In the simulations, the \( \rho R \)s are calculated using the Monte Carlo neutron tracking post-processor code IRIS3D. Notice that the \( \rho R \) for implosions with asymmetries is always higher than the 1-D \( V_{\text{imp}} \) curve. The \( \rho R \) is a parameter dependent on the implosion convergence; for symmetric implosions, the yield and \( \rho R \) decrease with decreasing convergence according to the 1-D \( V_{\text{imp}} \) curve of Fig. 14. Instead, for distorted implosions, the convergence of the spikes can be high, producing a relatively higher \( \rho R \), but this does not increase the yield (see Ref. 8). The \( \rho R \) for implosions with mid-mode asymmetry (represented by the \( \ell = 10^7 \) and Mid-mode curves) is comparable to the estimated \( \rho R_{1-D} \). This is because for mid-modes, multiple RTI spikes approach the implosion center, producing a compressed plasma with a higher \( \rho R \). For the low mode cases \((\ell = 1, \ell = 2, \text{and} \ell = 2 \text{ phase reversed})\), this effect is relatively small, and nevertheless, the \( \rho R \)s at any given \( Y/Y_{1-D} \) are higher than the 1-D \( \rho R \) versus yield scaling (represented by the 1-D \( V_{\text{imp}} \)).

A combination of low and mid-modes (shown by the gray region) could be used to reconstruct the \( \rho R \) for the
50 Gbar shots (shown in green). The measurements along with consideration of the asymmetry trends suggest that a fraction of the measured $\rho R$ is provided by the cold spikes and ablated mass accumulated in the bubbles surrounding the burn volume; therefore, they do not contribute in fusion-yield production but augment the areal density.

**F. Burnwidth and bang time**

Figure 15(a) shows a plot of burnwidth degradation ($\tau/\tau_{1D}$) with yield degradation ($Y/Y_{1D}$). It is observed that the burnwidths from NTD measurements are longer than the 1-D values (from LILAC), i.e., $\tau/\tau_{1D} > 1$; however, the estimated error in the NTD burnwidths is $\sim \pm 7$ ps. The scaling of burnwidth with implosion velocity is represented using the 1-D $V_{imp}$ curve; it follows $\tau \sim V_{imp}^{-1.2}$.

In simulations with asymmetries, the burnwidth shows a modest reduction with degradation in yield. However, for very large low-mode asymmetries (i.e., $Y/Y_{1D} < 0.4$), the burnwidth increases with decreasing yield, and this phenomenon has been described in Ref. 8. A combination of low and mid-modes (shown with gray) produce burnwidths that are comparable to the 1-D estimated burnwidth (from LILAC) to within 30%, but, on average, they are shorter than the burnwidths for the 50 Gbar experiments.

Figure 15(b) shows a shift in bang time compared to the 1-D estimated values ($t_b - t_{b,1D}$) with degradation in yield ($Y/Y_{1D}$). The bang time from experiments (measured using the NTD) is shifted earlier in time; however, the estimated error in the NTD bang times is considerable ($\approx \pm 25$ ps). Notice that unlike burnwidths, this is in agreement with the asymmetry trends, which also shift the bang time forward, but it is opposite to what an implosion velocity (i.e., 1-D) degradation would do, as shown by the 1-D $V_{imp}$ curve for which the bang time occurs later, i.e., ($t_b - t_{b,1D}$) > 0.

We propose two possible explanations for the discrepancy between burnwidth and bang time. One possibility is the inaccuracy of the measurements. The NTD measurements for the burnwidth and bang time have large error bars and probably are influenced by systematic effects that are not being considered here. It is possible that the actual burnwidths are 10–15 ps shorter, and the actual bang time times are 10–15 ps later than what are measured. 10–15 ps in both the burnwidth and bang time are within the measurement error. This would mean that both are consistent with the trends arising from asymmetries.

The second possible explanation is that in addition to a low mode (like $\ell = 1$ or $\ell = 2$) and a mid-mode (like $\ell = 10$), there is a 1-D degradation in implosion convergence. This would mean that there is a systematic difference in the laser drive that is not accounted for by the laser–plasma coupling models (or equation of state model) in the LILAC simulations. Therefore, the burnwidths are indeed longer, as measured by the NTD and predicted by the 1-D $V_{imp}$ scaling curves. However, the bang time which depends on the history of the acceleration phase is not correctly captured by the simplistic deceleration-phase scaling (represented by the 1-D $V_{imp}$ curves). In experiments, a degradation in implosion convergence can be caused by the following: very short scale nonuniformities arising from laser imprinting or reduced laser-to-capsule drive with respect to simulation and preheating caused by super-thermal electrons (which decrease the implosion convergence by increasing the implosion adiabat $\alpha$).

**IV. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE APPLICATION**

In this paper, a technique to investigate the implosion performance degradation mechanisms was discussed, based on trends in the experimental observables. This was applied to an ensemble of DT cryogenic implosions on OMEGA which achieved hot-spot pressures of $\sim 50$ Gbar.7

It was shown that a combination of low- and mid-mode asymmetries could be used to reconstruct the implosion core.17 In addition to the presence of low modes, which cause a degradation of the stagnation pressure, it was shown that mid-mode asymmetries have a significant impact on the implosion performance. While it is challenging to image mid-mode asymmetries in implosions, this technique can be used to infer the effect of mid-modes on the observables. It was shown that mid-modes decrease the hot-spot size (i.e., time-resolved x-ray $R(\gamma)$) and lead to center-peaked time-integrated x-ray images (i.e., a smaller super-Gaussian exponent $\eta$.)
compared to a symmetric implosion). This occurs because the region of mid-mode bubbles surrounding the hot center introduces a gradual variation in the x-ray intensity. A consistent explanation for the ion-temperature, areal-density, volume, and pressure measurements for the 50 Gbar shots was described. The possible reasons behind the modest discrepancies between burnwidth and bang time were discussed based on the measurements and the predicted degradation trends.

Determining the exact mode numbers degrading the experiments is not the goal of this paper; other combination of modes could also produce the observables (see the Appendix). However, it was shown that in order to reconstruct all the observables simultaneously, the overall balance between the degradation by low modes and the degradation by mid-modes must be preserved. It was also shown that the trends in the implosion observables arising from an \( \ell = 1 \) asymmetry \(^{26,40,41} \) are similar to the other low modes such as \( \ell = 2 \) or \( \ell = 2 \) with a reversed phase; only the ion temperature variation introduced by the \( \ell = 1 \) mode or the \( \ell = 2 \) mode with a reversed phase is higher than the \( \ell = 2 \) mode (or all other higher modes) and the experiments. In principle, it is challenging to distinguish between these modes given the quality of the experimental images.

This paper complements the more detailed analysis of asymmetries provided in Ref. 8 with the analysis of experiments. It was shown in Ref. 8 that the neutron-averaged observables can differ from the hot-spot volume-averaged quantities; the differences, although small for low modes, are more pronounced for mid-mode asymmetries. In other words, the energy distribution at stagnation is similar for both asymmetry types; however, the fusion reaction distribution is different. This paper described an analysis technique which ventures a consistent correlation between all the experimental observables of the implosion core, based on studies of asymmetries and 1-D degradation. It must be emphasized that this prescription for analyzing cryogenic implosions takes into account trends in all of the experimental observables simultaneously, therefore leading to the investigation of systematic errors in measurements.

The analysis of several repeats of the cryogenic implosion experiments suggests a systematic degradation mechanism affecting the implosions. A combination of low and mid-modes was used to reconstruct all the experimental observables pertaining to the core. It was shown that the experimental observables cannot be explained using either low- or mid-mode asymmetries separately, and therefore, a combination was necessary for the reconstruction.

Quantitative measurements and mitigation of asymmetries in direct drive implosions constitute a major component of the ongoing and future research at the OMEGA laser facility. To mention a few, a monochromatic back-lighter using the short pulse from the OMEGA EP has been developed to radiograph the cryogenic implosions on OMEGA.\(^{42} \) Systematic low mode asymmetries were observed using narrow band self-emission x-ray images from a titanium tracer layer placed at the fuel shell interface.\(^{43} \) Laser plate design is being investigated to improve laser coupling and drive symmetry.\(^{44} \) Multiple self-emission x-ray images are being used to measure asymmetry modes up to the end of the laser drive, followed by adjustments of the laser beam energy-balance to correct the asymmetry modes.\(^{45} \) In order to motivate this effort, we provide an estimate of the implosion performance with improved implosion symmetry, i.e., by correcting the systematic and repeatedly occurring asymmetries. It is estimated that mitigation of both low- or mid-mode asymmetries would result in an increase in the fusion yield, however, through an increase in the hot-spot pressure (from 56 Gbar to 80 Gbar) for low modes and by an increase in the burn volume for mid-modes.

Figure 16 shows that an improvement in implosion core symmetry by correcting either the systematic mid or low modes, included in the reconstruction of shot 77068 (and other 50 Gbar shots), can produce a burning plasma (i.e., \( Q_x \geq 1 \), see Ref. 29) when extrapolated to a NIF scale implosion core, i.e., an equivalent 1.9 MJ implosion with symmetric direct illumination (see Ref. 17). Note that the pressure values shown in Fig. 16 are relevant for the targets discussed in this paper and serve only as an approximate gauge, and in fact, implosion performance must be estimated using a Lawson type metric like \( Y_{\text{no-a}} \). For the extrapolated shot 77068, it is estimated that multidimensional effects produce a small uncertainty in the performance metric and in the yield amplification factor. It was reported in Ref. 17 that \( Y_{\text{no-a}} = 0.61 \) produces an amplification in yield of 2× in the simulation, and this is in agreement with the 1-D alpha heating model \( ^{29,46} \) and the following fit formula: yield amplification

\[
Y_{\text{imp}} = Y_{\text{no-a}} \times \left(1 + \frac{Q_x - 1}{Q_x - 1}ight)
\]

FIG. 16. Plot of yield amplification versus \( Y_{\text{no-a}} \) where \( Y_{\text{no-a}} \) is estimated using Eq. (3) of Ref. 17. 1-D and 2-D simulation results are shown in red, and the curve \( Y_{\text{imp}} = Y_{\text{no-a}} \times \left(1 + \frac{Q_x - 1}{Q_x - 1}ight) \) is shown in blue. The Lawson ignition condition \( Q_x \geq 1 \) and the burning plasma regime \( Q_x \geq 1 \) are shown by the gray and blue shaded regions, respectively. The OMEGA shot 77068 (with 26 kJ laser energy) and its equivalent implosion extrapolated to a 1.9 MJ driver are shown in yellow, and they exhibit an inferred core pressure of 57 Gbar. Correcting either the low-mode or mid-mode component of this implosion can produce \( \approx 80 \) Gbar pressure (see Table II), with its performance approaching the burning plasma regime (simulation results are shown in black); improving the asymmetry sources by \( \approx 0.1 \) produces 90 Gbar pressure, and the 1-D design has a hot-spot pressure of \( \approx 100 \) Gbar with \( Y_{\text{no-a}} = 0.95 \) and a yield amplification \( Y_{\text{imp}} = 40 \). The fusion energy output corresponding to each of the extrapolated simulations is shown in blue; the current shot 77068 when extrapolated to 1.9 MJ is estimated to produce 125 kJ of fusion energy, much \((\approx 5 \times)\) higher than indirect drive implosions at the same \( Y_{\text{no-a}} \). Improving the asymmetry sources by \( \approx 0.01 \) is estimated to produce 1.9 MJ fusion energy (the same as the laser driver). The relatively higher fusion energy output results from the larger DT fuel mass that can be imploded using direct illumination, therefore accentuating the advantage of the direct-drive approach over the indirect drive with the same laser energy.
In addition, it must be noted that in Fig. 16, $\chi_{\text{an-t}}$ for the other representative points (in black) is increasingly accurate, and this is because they are obtained by improving the implosion symmetry as can be observed from the proximity of the simulation points (in black) to the 1-D fit curve in blue. In summary, this paper shows the current standing and the future potential of the 100 Gbar direct-drive program on OMEGA.

In the future, this analysis technique will be applied to different 1-D implosion designs (i.e., with different implosion adiabats, obtained from optimization of pulse shape and target dimensions), which would enhance the understanding and possibly lead to identification of the degradation sources for OMEGA direct-drive implosions.

Another possible application of this technique would be to train computers to apply this analysis recipe, i.e., apply advanced machine learning/regression techniques to a database of trends in implosion observables, which guided by the understanding of the effects of single low- or mid-mode asymmetries on the implosion observables could be used to produce combinations of degradation modes that replicate the experiments more accurately. However, the applicability of such techniques is currently restricted by the quality of experimental measurements, as illustrated in this paper.

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APPENDIX: THE MODE $\ell = 1$ ASYMMETRY OF ICF IMPLOSION CORE

It is found that the $\ell = 1$ asymmetry [see Fig. 17(a)] is similar to the other low mode asymmetries of the core. In particular, the implosion observables can also be reconstructed with the mode $\ell = 1$ [using a 5.5% $\Delta V/V_{imp}$ perturbation, shown in Fig. 17(a)] instead of the mode $\ell = 2$ (at 5% $\Delta V/V_{imp}$), along with the remaining spectrum of mid-modes (illustrated in Fig. 4). The reconstructed simulation is shown in Fig. 17(b). Since the trends in the implosion observables for $\ell = 1$ are similar to the other low modes (see Figs. 6, 8, 12, 14, and 15), the new reconstruction is also similar to the reconstructed shot 77068 of Table II. Only the maximum ion temperature variation for this ($\ell = 1$) reconstruction is high ($\Delta T_{\text{max}} = 3.5$ keV) as compared to the measurements (see Fig. 6); the higher ion temperature variation is due to large bulk flow motion introduced by the longest wavelength. The neutron averaged pressure and volume trends for the $\ell = 1$ case [shown in Figs. 18(a) and 18(b)] are almost identical to the $\ell = 2$ case [see analogous Figs. 7(b-i) and 7(b-ii) of Ref. 8]. Moreover, the total residual energy$^8$ [i.e., degradation in $\rho V^2$ compression of the hot-spot by the shell or degradation in internal energy of the hot-spot with respect to the 1-D, $\Delta IE_h = E_{h,1D} - E_{h}$; see Eq. (24) of Ref. 8] versus yield degradation for the $\ell = 1$ case is almost identical to other low modes, and this is shown in Fig. 18(c) and is analogous to Figs. 14 and 19(i) of Ref. 8. In general, for all the analysis and figures of Ref. 8, the low mode could have been alternatively represented by the $\ell = 1$
mode. Therefore, considering both compression energetics and neutron dynamics, the $\ell = 1$ mode is similar to other low mode asymmetries.


