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Calculation of the Kolmogorov Entropy for Motion Along a Stochastic Magnetic Field

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An expression for the Kolmogorov entropy has been derived. Excellent agreement between a probability description and direct dynamical computations has been found.

A typical magnetic field of interest to magnetic confinement physics may be taken to be of the form

$$\vec{B} = B_0 \hat{z} + B_y(x) \hat{y} + \delta \vec{B}, \quad (1)$$

where $|\delta \vec{B}| \ll B_y, B_0$ might result from any short-wavelength plasma microinstabilities. When δB exceeds a very small value such that neighboring magnetic islands overlap, the field structure becomes stochastic, and can be characterized by two geometrical properties.¹ First, a given field line diffuses in x , and, second, two neighboring field lines diverge from each other—the mean distance between them increasing as $d \sim \exp(z/L_c)$. The diffusion of a field line has obvious implications for the confinement of particles orbiting along the field and has been calculated using quasilinear theory.² However, the divergence of field lines is also important in calculating transport since it prevents the reversible wandering of a particle back and forth along a single field line as velocity is reversed by collisions.¹

The value $1/L_c$ is called the Kolmogorov entropy and is defined by the formula³

$$h = \lim_{z \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{d_0 \rightarrow 0} \left[\frac{1}{L_c} \ln \left(\frac{d(z)}{d_0} \right) \right]. \quad (2)$$

Since exponential divergence is a statistical property, one expects that averaging along trajectories ($z \rightarrow \infty$) can be replaced by phase-space averaging with a proper distribution function. It is our purpose in this note to introduce such a statistical description and to give a derivation of the dependence of h on the properties of the fields given by Eq. (1). Our main result, Eq. (19), is similar to that already obtained by Krommes, Kleva, and Oberman,⁴ but we have tried to make the basic assumptions more transparent and the derivation more quantitative. We have also developed a simplified model of a stochastic field for which we have computed h directly using Eq. (2). This model allows detailed numerical study which agrees very well with the theoretical predictions.

Consider a magnetic field given by Eq. (1). In order to model poloidal and toroidal periodicity we assume that the system is periodic in the y direction with period $2\pi a$ and in the z direction with period $2\pi R$. Then $\delta\vec{B}$ can be written in the form

$$\delta\vec{B} = B_0 \sum_{m,n} \vec{b}_{mn}(x) \exp[i(my/a - nz/R)] + \text{c.c.} \quad (3)$$

The turbulent nature of \vec{b}_{mn} is introduced by assuming that they have random phases but constant, saturated, amplitudes. Equations for the coordinates of the field lines are

$$dx/dz = B_x/B_0; \quad dy/dz = B_y/B_0. \quad (4)$$

Assuming shear, $L_s^{-1} = B_0^{-1} dB_y/dx$, being constant, we can write (4) in the dimensionless form

$$dx'/dz' = b; \quad dy'/dz' = x'. \quad (5)$$

Here $b = \delta B_x/B_0$ is a small parameter in our problem and $x' = x/L_s$, $y' = y/L_s$, $z' = z/L_s$. We will omit primes in the following. In order to calculate h we have to find the divergence rate of two arbitrarily close particle trajectories. Equations for the differences in position $X = x_2 - x_1$ and $Y = y_2 - y_1$ can be easily written using Eq. (5):

$$dX/dz = (\partial b/\partial x)X + (\partial b/\partial y)Y, \quad dY/dz = X. \quad (6)$$

It is convenient to put $X = \Lambda Y$ so that

$$d\Lambda/dz = -\Lambda^2 + (\partial b/\partial x)\Lambda + \partial b/\partial y; \quad dY/dz = \Lambda Y. \quad (7)$$

Since it will turn out later that the characteristic width of all functions with respect to Λ is $\Lambda \sim h \sim b^{2/3}$, we may neglect the term $\Lambda \partial b/\partial x$ if $h \ll 1$. The same condition allows us to neglect the contribution from the term δB_y in comparison with the shear term in Eq. (6). The case of zero shear has been recently considered by Kadomtsev and Pogutse.⁵ Thus the basic limitation of our theory is determined by the condition $h \ll 1$. Note that we use here dimensionless h appropriate to Eq. (5).

Consider a number of test particles which are distributed initially with the probability $P(x_i, 0)$ (two-point distribution function which is assumed to be a smooth function) in a cross section $z = 0$, x_i is a vector with the components (x, y, Λ, Y) . If these particles are moving freely along the field lines remaining in the same cross section z , then the evolution of their distribution function $P(x_i, z)$ is described by the continuity equation

$$\partial P/\partial z + \sum_{i=1}^4 \partial(v_i P)/\partial x_i = 0, \quad (8)$$

where v_i is a generalized velocity with components $(b, x, -\Lambda^2 + \partial b/\partial y, \Lambda Y)$ and z coordinate plays the role of time. With the use of a statistical description, the Kolmogorov entropy can be defined by the formula

$$h = (\partial/\partial z) \left[\frac{1}{2} \int \ln(X^2 + Y^2) \langle P \rangle d\Lambda dY \right], \quad (9)$$

where $\langle P \rangle$, which is a function only of Λ , Y , and z , is a probability averaged over x and y which varies slowly in z . It satisfies the equation

$$\frac{\partial \langle P \rangle}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial}{\partial \Lambda} (\Lambda^2 P) + \left\langle \frac{\partial b}{\partial y} \frac{\partial P}{\partial \Lambda} \right\rangle + \frac{\partial}{\partial Y} (\Lambda Y \langle P \rangle) = 0. \quad (10)$$

We derive this equation by averaging Eq. (8). The fluctuating part $\tilde{P} = P - \langle P \rangle$ is small and satisfies a first-order equation

$$\frac{\partial \tilde{P}}{\partial z} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (x \tilde{P}) - \frac{\partial}{\partial \Lambda} (\Lambda^2 \tilde{P}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial Y} (\Lambda Y \tilde{P}) = -\frac{\partial b}{\partial x} \langle P \rangle - \frac{\partial b}{\partial y} \frac{\partial \langle P \rangle}{\partial \Lambda}. \quad (11)$$

We may neglect the third and fourth terms in this equation because $\Lambda \ll 1$. We can now solve Eq. (11) taking $\partial \langle P \rangle / \partial \Lambda$ to be slowly varying because of the smallness of b and substitute \tilde{P} into (10) to get

$$\frac{\partial \langle P \rangle}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial}{\partial \Lambda} (\Lambda^2 \langle P \rangle) + \frac{\partial}{\partial Y} (\Lambda Y \langle P \rangle) - D_{ef} \frac{\partial^2 \langle P \rangle}{\partial \Lambda^2} = 0, \quad (12)$$

$$D_{ef} = \pi \frac{RL_s}{a^2} \sum_{m,n} \langle |mb_{mnx}(x)|^2 \delta(mxR/a - n) \rangle. \quad (13)$$

These calculations are very similar to the derivation of the magnetic diffusion coefficient in quasi-linear theory.² Notice that the first term on the right-hand side of Eq. (11) averages to zero. We will deal later only with $\langle P \rangle$ and suppress the angular brackets hereafter.

A general initial-value solution for $P(\Lambda, Y, z)$ is impractical to obtain. It is sufficient to look for moments. Let us define

$$P_0(\Lambda, z) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P dY$$

and

$$P_e(\Lambda, z) = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (\ln Y^2) P dY;$$

then

$$\frac{\partial P_0}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial}{\partial \Lambda} (\Lambda^2 P_0) - D_{ef} \frac{\partial^2 P_0}{\partial \Lambda^2} = 0 \quad (14)$$

and

$$\frac{\partial P_e}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial}{\partial \Lambda} (\Lambda^2 P_e) - D_{ef} \frac{\partial^2 P_e}{\partial \Lambda^2} = \Lambda P_0. \quad (15)$$

The steady-state solution of Eq. (14) valid for large z , and well behaved at $\Lambda = \pm\infty$, is

$$P_0(\Lambda) = C \exp(-\Lambda^3/3D_{ef}) \times \int_{-\infty}^{\Lambda} \exp(\Lambda'^3/3D_{ef}) d\Lambda', \quad (16)$$

where C is a normalization constant determined from the condition $\int P_0 d\Lambda = 1$. We may now solve for

$$P_e = hzP_0(\Lambda) + Q(\Lambda), \quad (17)$$

where Q obeys

$$\frac{d}{d\Lambda} (\Lambda^2 Q) + D_{ef} \frac{d^2 Q}{d\Lambda^2} = (h - \Lambda)P_0, \quad (18)$$

with the boundary conditions $Q(\pm\infty) = 0$. We note that the constant h is just the Kolmogorov entropy as defined by Eq. (9). It can be determined by the solvability condition for Eq. (18). This may be obtained by integrating Eq. (18) over Λ from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$. The left-hand side of Eq. (18) is a full derivative and gives zero. Hence we deduce that h is given by

$$h = \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{2}{3} \right)! (3D_{ef})^{1/3}. \quad (19)$$

We should mention here that in all previous formulas we have to use a cutoff parameter $\pm\Lambda_0$ ($1 \gg \Lambda_0 \gg h$) instead of $\pm\infty$. But because all integrals are rapidly converging within region of $|\Lambda| \leq h$ we can formally extend the integration to $\pm\infty$. Going back to dimensional units we can write $L_c = L_s/h$. The basic approximation in our theory can also be written as $L_s/L_c \ll 1$.

Let us turn now to the results of our numerical computations. We used the following dimensionless units: $2\pi a = 1$, $2\pi R = 1$, $L_s = 1$, and took $b_{mnx} = \epsilon \exp(i2\pi m \varphi_{mp})/2i$, $m = 1, \dots, M$, $p = n \bmod N$, $n = 0 \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$, where phases φ_{mp} are randomly chosen numbers between 0 and 1. Summing over n with fixed p in Eq. (3) gives us δ functions, allowing differential Eq. (5) to be reduced to a simple mapping:

$$\begin{aligned} y_{i+1} &= y_i + x_i/N, \\ x_{i+1} &= x_i + f(y_{i+1})/N. \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

Here

$$\begin{aligned} f(y_{i+1}) &= \epsilon \sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{p=0}^{n-1} \sin 2\pi [m(y_{i+1} + \varphi_{mp}) - (i+1)p/N] \end{aligned}$$

and one step corresponds to $\Delta z = 1/N$. Equations (13) and (19), applied to this specific model, give

$$D_{ef} = \pi^2 \epsilon^2 \sum_{m=1}^M m^2 \approx \pi^2 \epsilon^2 M^3/3, \quad M \gg 1,$$

and

$$h_{th} = 0.54 M \epsilon^{2/3}. \quad (21)$$

On the other hand, h has been calculated directly using Eqs. (20) and the numerical method described by Casartelli *et al.*⁶ To obtain reasonable accuracy approximately 10^4 steps were necessary. The results of these computations are presented in Fig. 1. One can see a remarkable agreement with the theoretical formula (21). We have found that h is equal to zero below the stochastic transition (where there exist good magnetic surfaces) and has a well-defined positive value above the stochasticity threshold. This value is independent of initial conditions, that is, it appears numerically that h has the same value for almost all trajectories. Stochastic transition takes place at $\epsilon_M \approx 2/M^3$, in good agreement with the resonance overlapping criterion.^{1,3} The results do not depend on the step size $\Delta z = 1/N$ in the region $h < N$, but h does depend on N when $h > N$, and scales in a completely different way with ϵ and M in this region⁷: $h \sim \ln(M^3 \epsilon^2)$. In order to derive a formula for h in this case, let us consider eigenvalues of tangential transformation for the mapping (20),³

$$\lambda^{\pm} = 1 + K/2 \pm (K^2/4 + K)^{1/2}, \quad (22)$$

where $K = f'(y_{i+1})/N^2$. If $|K| \gg 1$ then $\lambda^+ \approx K$ and

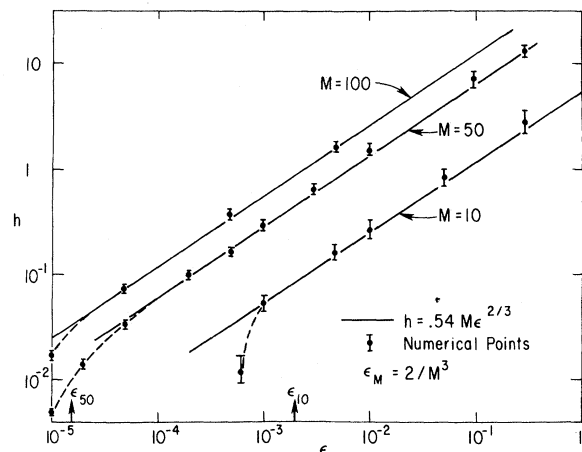


FIG. 1. The numerically obtained Kolmogorov entropy. The solid curve is the theoretical result. Also shown are the stochastic transition points ϵ_M .

divergence takes place preferentially in the x direction. The Kolmogorov entropy can be easily written in this case³

$$\dot{h} = \frac{1}{2}N \langle \ln K^2 \rangle_{\text{trajectory}}, \quad (23)$$

The angular brackets here mean averaging along the trajectory. Because $M \gg 1$ and φ_{mp} are random we can make use of a central-limit theorem and perform averaging in Eq. (23) with the Gaussian distribution

$$P(K) = \exp(-K^2/2\langle K^2 \rangle_{\text{trajectory}} / (2\pi\langle K^2 \rangle_{\text{trajectory}})^{1/2}),$$

where $\langle K^2 \rangle_{\text{trajectory}} = (2/3)\pi^2\epsilon^2(M/N)^3$. After a simple calculation we can get from (23)

$$\dot{h} = \frac{1}{2}N \ln \left[\frac{1}{3}(\pi^2)e^{-c}(M/N)^3\epsilon^2 \right]. \quad (24)$$

Here $c = 0.577$ is the Euler constant. This formula is also in very good agreement with computer calculations.⁷ Using Eq. (21), we can rewrite Eq. (24) as $\dot{h} = \frac{3}{2}N \ln(2.3h_{\text{th}}/N)$, applicable when $h_{\text{th}} > h > N$. But in the region $h_{\text{th}} < N$ we have to use Eq. (21).

We believe that our results have some general interest: They illustrate how a statistical de-

scription can be introduced in a deterministic but stochastically unstable system.

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⁷More detailed results of these computations will be published elsewhere.