Photo-Ionized Lithium Source for Plasma Accelerator Applications

P. Muggli, K. A. Marsh, S. Wang, C. E. Clayton, S. Lee, T. C. Katsouleas, and C. Joshi

Abstract—A photo-ionized lithium source is developed for plasma acceleration applications. A homogeneous column of lithium neutral vapor with a density of $2 \times 10^{15}$ cm$^{-3}$ is confined by helium gas in a heat-pipe oven. A UV laser pulse ionizes the vapor. In this device, the length of the neutral vapor and plasma column is 25 cm. The plasma density was measured by laser interferometry in the visible on the lithium neutrals and by CO$_2$ laser interferometry on the plasma electrons. The maximum measured plasma density was $2.9 \times 10^{14}$ cm$^{-3}$, limited by the available UV fluence ($\approx 83$ mJ/cm$^2$), corresponding to a 15% ionization fraction. After ionization, the plasma density decreases by a factor of two in about 12 ps. These results show that such a plasma source is scaleable to lengths of the order of 1 m and should satisfy all the requirements for demonstrating the acceleration of electrons by 1 GeV in a 1-GeV/m amplitude plasma wake.

Index Terms—Alkali plasma, electron acceleration, heat-pipe oven, plasma accelerator, wakefield.

I. INTRODUCTION

RECENT experimental results on electron acceleration in relativistic plasma waves demonstrate energy gains up to 100 MeV [1], [2]. The maximum energy observed in these experiments is limited by the length over which the large amplitude coherent plasma waves (wakes) can be excited or by phase slippage between the accelerated electrons and the wake. In the laser wakefield acceleration (LWFA) scheme [1], [3] accelerating gradients greater than 100 GeV/m have been excited over a distance of approximately 1 mm with a plasma density $n_e$ in the $10^{19}$ cm$^{-3}$ range. In the plasma beat-wave acceleration (PBA) scheme [2], gradients of the order of 3 GeV/m are excited over 1 cm ($n_e \approx 10^{16}$ cm$^{-3}$). In all these experiments, the energy gain $W$ can be estimated from a simple scaling law resulting from the product of the accelerating wake amplitude obtained from Poisson’s equation times the accelerating length

$$W[\text{MeV}] = 96eL[\text{cm}] \sqrt{n_e[\text{cm}^{-3}]/10^{16}}$$

where $\varepsilon = \delta n_e/n_e$ is the wake amplitude ($\varepsilon \leq 1$, typically $0.3 < \varepsilon < 0.5$), and $L$ is the shorter of the length over which the wake is excited or the dephasing length, i.e., the length in the laboratory frame in which the accelerating electrons slip by 90° in phase with respect to the plasma wave. Future experiments will aim at demonstrating energy gains of the order of 1 GeV. This can be achieved in an $n_e \approx 10^{18}$ cm$^{-3}$ plasma with a length $L \approx 1$ cm, in an $n_e \approx 10^{16}$ cm$^{-3}$ plasma with $L \approx 10$ cm, or in an $n_e \approx 10^{14}$ cm$^{-3}$ plasma with a length $L \approx 1$ m. Although in the latter case the gradient is not as high as already achieved in other plasma-based acceleration experiments, the 1-GeV/m gradient is much larger than that achieved in any accelerating metallic structure.

Recently, a plasma-wakefield acceleration (PWFA) [4] experiment has been proposed at the final focus test beam (FFTB) of Stanford Linear Accelerator Center (SLAC) in which the goal is to demonstrate electron acceleration by 1 GeV in a 1-m long plasma [5]. In that experiment, known as E-157, the bulk of a 30-GeV SLAC-FFTB electron bunch drives a 1-GeV/m plasma wake, while the trailing electrons of the same bunch act as witness particles and experience the acceleration by the electric field of this wake. An energy gain of 1 GeV is, in principle, possible if a wake is excited over a distance of 1 m in an $n_e \approx 2-4 \times 10^{14}$ cm$^{-3}$ plasma. The high energy of the driving/witness electron bunch makes it insensitive to instabilities and energy depletion over the length of the experiment. Over the 1 m, the accelerated particles will not significantly phase slip since the dephasing length for the $\approx 30$ GeV electrons, defined as $L_d = \pi \gamma_m^2 \nu_{ph}/\omega_{pe}$ (where $\gamma_m$ is the relativistic factor of the electrons driving the wake and $\omega_{pe}$ is the plasma frequency) is $\approx 4 \times 10^6$ m.

A prototype for a 1-m plasma source that should fulfill the requirements for the proposed experiment is described in this paper. In Section II, the plasma parameters required for the E-157 experiment are given. The heat-pipe oven in which the lithium vapor is produced is described in Section III. Temperature profile measurements taken along the oven axis are presented in Section IV. The results of three different methods used to measure the line-integrated lithium neutral density are compared in Section V. Section VI discusses plasma density measurement results obtained by interferometry at three different wavelengths and by UV laser light absorption. The implications for scaling this source to a 1-m long plasma...
TABLE I
PARAMETERS FOR THE SLAC-FFTB DRIVING ELECTRON BEAM [5]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of Electrons</td>
<td>( N_e )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial Energy</td>
<td>( E_0 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bunch Length</td>
<td>( \sigma_z )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bunch Size (@ ( 1 \times 10^{10} , \text{e}^- ))</td>
<td>( \sigma_z )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emittance</td>
<td>( \gamma_{ph} )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( 3.5-4.0 \times 10^{10} \)

30 GeV

0.6 mm

23 \( \mu \)m

37 \( \mu \)m

60 mm-mrad

15mm-mrad

TABLE II
PLASMA PARAMETERS REQUIRED FOR THE E-157 EXPERIMENT [5]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plasma Density</td>
<td>( n_e )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plasma Length</td>
<td>( L )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Density Uniformity</td>
<td>( \Delta n_e/n_e )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ionization Fraction</td>
<td>( n_e/n_0 )</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radius</td>
<td>( r )</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2-4 \times 10^{14} \, \text{cm}^{-3}

1 m

< 25%

> 15%

> 400 \( \mu \)m

Fig. 1. Peak accelerating gradient (circles) and number of particles experiencing more than 70% of the gradient (squares) versus plasma density as obtained from PIC simulations for an electron bunch \( \sigma_z = 0.6 \, \text{mm} \) with \( N = 4 \times 10^{10} \) electrons. The lines are added to guide the eye.

Fig. 2. Peak accelerating gradient as a function of the plasma radius as obtained from PIC simulations. For \( r < 400 \, \mu \)m, the electrons of the plasma are blown out of the plasma by the electron bunch. Parameters: \( N = 4 \times 10^{10} \) electrons, \( \sigma_z = 0.6 \, \text{mm} \), beam radius 75 \( \mu \)m, \( n_0 = 2 \times 10^{14} \, \text{cm}^{-3} \). The line is added to guide the eye.

A minimum plasma density variation \( \Delta n_e/n_e \) over 1 m is required to avoid substantial dephasing between the accelerated particles and the plasma wake. A variation \( \Delta n_e/n_e \) of 25% leads to a 12% variation in the wavelength of the plasma accelerating structure or 45° of phase slip for the accelerating electrons. For a linear gradient over the 1-m long plasma, the corresponding average reduction in the maximum energy gain is 15%.

A minimum plasma radius of 400 \( \mu \)m is needed to avoid the degradation of the wake amplitude caused by the excursion of the plasma electrons outside of the plasma when blown out by the electron bunch, as shown on Fig. 2.

An adjustable plasma length \( L \) and sharp plasma/neutral boundaries are desired in order to match the electron bunch betatron wavelength [6] to a submultiple of \( L \). When the electron beam enters the plasma and expels all the plasma electrons (blowout regime), the resultant plasma ion column generates a focusing force on the beam electrons. The transverse spot size of the beam oscillates at the betatron frequency with a corresponding longitudinal wavelength \( \lambda_L = 2\pi(2\gamma_{ph})^{1/2}/\omega_{ph} \approx 80 \, \text{cm} \) with \( n_e = 2 \times 10^{14} \, \text{cm}^{-3} \). At each plasma density, the length of the plasma column (i.e., that of the neutral column) has to be adjusted to \( 2L/\lambda_L = m \) \( (m = 2 \, 3) \) for \( L \approx 1 \, \text{m} \). \( n_e = 2 - 4 \times 10^{14} \, \text{cm}^{-3} \) for the electron beam to have the same divergence angle at the exit as at the entrance of the plasma.

A low atomic number \( Z \) for the gas/plasma nuclei and a large fractional ionization \( (n_e/n_0 > 15\%, \, n_0 \) is the neutral density) will minimize the influence of impact ionization of the neutrals by the driving electron bunch. The ionization cross section being proportional to the atom size, i.e., its atomic number \( Z \), the lowest possible \( Z \) is desired. The additional plasma density due to impact ionization is proportional to the product of the neutral density and the electron beam density. The beam density varies inside the plasma column as the beam executes betatron oscillations. Estimates [7] show that with a beam of \( N_e = 3 \times 10^{10} \) electrons, an additional ionization fraction of about 1.6% for \( Z = 2 \) (He), and 4.5% for \( Z = 10 \) (Ne), could be generated by this process in the partially ionized plasma.

are briefly discussed in Section VII, and a summary and conclusions are given in Section VIII.

II. PLASMA REQUIREMENTS

The plasma parameters required for the E-157 experiments can be deduced for the SLAC-FFTB beam parameters (Table I) and from numerical particle in cell (PIC) computer simulations [5]. The deduced parameters are listed in Table II.

An electron plasma density \( n_e \) adjustable between 2 and \( 4 \times 10^{14} \, \text{cm}^{-3} \) over 1 m is needed to optimize the energy gain and the number of accelerated particles. Fig. 1 shows that the maximum gradient (900±100 MeV/m) is reached with \( n_e = 2.1 \times 10^{14} \, \text{cm}^{-3} \). However, in the experiment, the plasma density may have to be increased in order to accelerate a number of particles sufficient for the detection system. Fig. 1 shows that, although the accelerating gradient monotonically decreases once the plasma density is increased beyond its optimum value of \( 2 \times 10^{14} \, \text{cm}^{-3} \), the number of accelerated particles increases with the plasma density as more and more electrons in the tail of that bunch are accelerated by the wakefield of shorter and shorter wavelength.
plasma at the locations where the beam pinches to its minimum spotsize (≤0.5 μm). However, numerical simulations are under way to estimate the amount of ionization directly caused by the beam electrons and by the plasma electrons blown outside of the electron beam radius with kilovolts of kinetic energy.

Lithium (Li) is chosen (Table III) because it has the lowest ionization potential, and can thus be photo-ionized by UV light (1-photon process), and the lowest atomic number (Z = 3) simultaneously. The photo-ionized plasma is expected to have a very uniform transverse profile (over millimeters in radius with a smooth laser pulse profile), and a small longitudinal gradient (Δn_e/n_e < 10% over the 1 m) when double passed by the ionizing laser beam. Lithium vapor pressures corresponding to neutral densities in the 10^15 cm^-3 range—sufficient to satisfy the above-mentioned requirements—can be obtained in a heat-pipe oven at temperatures around 750 °C.

### III. HEAT-PIPE OVEN

The heat-pipe oven, shown schematically in Fig. 3, consists of a stainless steel tube heated along its central part with water-cooled jackets at both ends and a stainless steel mesh “wick” encircling the inner wall of the tube [8]. The cold oven is filled with a given pressure P_{buffer} of helium buffer gas (≈200 mT in this experiment) and contains a 30-g ingot of Li. When heated, the Li melts and its vapor pressure increases. The Li vapor transports away from this evaporation zone and eventually condenses onto the wick some distance away. Condensation heats the wick through release of the Li heat of evaporation (19 J/g), while the transport of the vapor away from the center of the oven expels the helium buffer gas through lithium–helium collisions. As the heating power is increased, the evaporation rate of the liquid Li on the wick increases, as do the temperature and pressure of the Li vapor. At some heating power, the oven reaches a temperature such that the vapor pressure of the liquid Li is equal to P_{buffer}.

The evaporation zone of the oven now contains a column of pure Li with P_{Li} = P_{buffer} (assuming the Li flow velocity from the evaporation to the condensation zone of the oven is substantially subsonic). Collisional diffusion of the Li vapor at the helium boundary ensures that the Li condenses onto the wick (where it returns to the evaporation zone through capillary action) and does not penetrate more than a few collisional mean-free paths into the helium, thus forming sharp boundaries. Further increasing the heating power increases the evaporation rate but not the Li temperature. Instead, the column of Li vapor increases in length until the room-temperature boundary condition imposed by the water jackets ultimately limits the length of this column. The Li pressure and temperature (i.e., density n_0) are fixed by the buffer pressure, while the Li column length is proportional to the heating power.

The device described here has an inner diameter of 25.2 mm. It is heated over 40 cm, the insulation is 46 cm long, while the distance between the cooling jackets is 52 cm. Optical windows (quartz or BaF2) are located at the ends of the oven and are in contact only with the room temperature buffer gas. They provide access for the ionizing laser pulse and for optical diagnostics of the Li vapor and the plasma.

### IV. TEMPERATURE PROFILE MEASUREMENTS

The length over which the Li vapor extends is estimated from temperature profiles measured with a thermocouple probe inserted along the axis of the heat-pipe oven. The profile without Li in the oven (Fig. 4) shows that the temperature is decreasing away from the oven center due to heat conduction along the oven. In contrast, the profiles measured with Li in the oven and with comparable heating power exhibit a
V. Neutral Density Measurements

In this section, three diagnostics for measuring the line-integrated Li neutral density \( n_0L \) are presented. With \( L = 25 \) cm when \( T_{\text{ext}} = 750^\circ \text{C} \) (see Section IV), and assuming that the neutral Li density is fixed by the buffer gas pressure, i.e., that only \( L \) changes when \( T_{\text{ext}} > 700^\circ \text{C} \), estimates for the average neutral density \( n_0 \) are obtained.

A. UV Absorption

A low energy (<100 \( \mu \text{J} \)) laser pulse of 5.83 eV (UV) photons (frequency quintupled Nd:YAG, nanosecond laser pulse) is sent along the heat-pipe oven axis. It ionizes the Li vapor through a single-photon process (Li ionization potential: 5.392 eV). The line-integrated neutral density \( n_0L \) is obtained by measuring the ratio of the transmitted to incident UV energy

\[
\frac{n_0L}{\sigma} = \frac{1}{\ln(E_{\text{transmitted}}/E_{\text{incident}})} \quad (2)
\]

where \( \sigma = 1.8 \times 10^{-38} \text{ cm}^{-2} \) is the ionization cross section for \( h\nu = 5.83 \text{ eV} \) [9]. For this measurement, the incident and transmitted energies were monitored by photodiodes and their ratio calculated for each shot. Many shots were acquired at each oven external temperature and the ratios averaged. Fig. 5 shows the values of \( n_0L \) measured as a function of the oven external temperature. A value of \( 5.29 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-2} \) is obtained with \( T_{\text{ext}} = 749^\circ \text{C} \), corresponding to \( n_0 = 2.1 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3} \) for \( L = 25 \) cm. At this temperature (or neutral density), the fractional UV energy absorbed is only 9.5%.

B. White Light Absorption

Lithium, as do other alkali metals, exhibits a strong transition line in the visible frequency range from its ground state to the first excited state (2s to 2p state, \( J = 1/2 \rightarrow J' = 3/2 \) at \( \lambda = 670.78 \text{ nm} \), and \( J = 1/2 \rightarrow J' = 1/2 \) at \( \lambda = 670.79 \text{ nm} \)). However, for the experiments described here, the two Li transitions can be considered as one at \( \lambda_{ij} = 670.785 \text{ nm} \). Assuming that all of the Li atoms are in their ground state, the electronic susceptibility \( \chi_e \) at a frequency \( \omega_0 \) associated with this \( i \rightarrow j \) atomic transition is given by

\[
\chi_e = \frac{N_i e^2}{\varepsilon_0 m_e} \sum_{j \neq i} f_{ij}(\omega_0^2 - \omega_0^2 - i\omega/\tau_{ij})^{-1} \quad (3)
\]

where \( \tau_{ij} \) is the natural lifetime of the upper state \( j \). \( f_{ij} \) is the absorption oscillator strength of the transition, \( N_i \) is the population density of the lower level, and the sum runs over all the possible upper states \( j \). In this case, only the transition at \( \lambda_{ij} = 670.785 \text{ nm} \) needs to be considered for \( \lambda \approx \lambda_{ij} \) since the closest other transition from the ground state is at \( \lambda = 323.3 \text{ nm} \). The relative dielectric constant \( \varepsilon_r \) is given by \( \varepsilon_r = (1 + \chi_e) \). The corresponding dispersion is used to measure the neutral vapor density. Line-broadening effects can be included in (3) by replacing \( 1/\tau_{ij} \) by an effective line width \( \Delta \omega \) that would include these effects. However, these effects are important only for the calculation of the imaginary part of \( \chi_e \) or at frequencies very close to \( \omega_{ij} \) (within a few line widths).

The imaginary part of \( \chi_e \) is used to calculate the energy absorption coefficient \( \gamma \)

\[
\gamma = \frac{-2\Delta \omega}{c^2} = \frac{-1}{k^2} \frac{e^2}{c^2} \chi'' \quad (4)
\]

where the prime (') and double prime ("") stand for the real and imaginary part of the variable, and \( k^2 = \varepsilon_0 \omega_0^2/c^2 \). Assuming \( \omega_0 \approx \omega_{ij} \), and \( \chi' \ll 1 \), \( \gamma \) can be written as

\[
\gamma(\omega) \approx \frac{-1}{2c \varepsilon_0 m_e} \frac{f_{ij} \Delta \omega/2}{(\omega_{ij} - \omega)^2 + (\Delta \omega/2)^2}. \quad (5)
\]

The sum in (3) has been dropped since the absorption of a single line is measured. Away from line center, the line shape is Lorentzian, and only the natural lifetime width and the self-broadening pressure term contribute to the effective line width \( \Delta \omega \)

\[
\Delta \omega = \Delta \omega_{\text{natural}} + \delta \omega = \frac{N_i}{N_0} \quad (6)
\]
where $\Delta \omega_{\text{natural}} = 1/\tau_{ij}$, $\tau_{ij} = 26.9$ ns, and $\Delta \omega_{\lambda} = 36.8$ cm$^{-1}$ [10] for the $2p$ level of Li, and $N_0 = 2.69 \times 10^{10}$ cm$^{-3}$ is the number of atoms in 1 cm$^{-3}$ of gas at room temperature and 1 atm.

A white light beam is sent along the axis of the oven and dispersed is a spectrograph to observe the absorption ($\approx e^{(-\Delta \omega/L)}$) as a function of $\lambda$ around $\lambda_{ij} = 670.785$ nm. Using (5) and (6), the absorption curve can be fitted to the measured data to deduce $n_0 = N_i$ assuming a given length $L$. Fig. 6 shows that with $T_{\text{ext}} = 750$ °C, and assuming $L = 25$ cm, the experimental absorption curve is bracketed by the $n_0 = 4 \times 10^{15}$ cm$^{-3}$ and the $n_0 = 6 \times 10^{15}$ cm$^{-3}$ curves. Note that the absorption at line center is not used because it would require a precise measurement of the light transmission ($<10^{-6}$) within the absorption line width. The numerical fit is thus applied to the Lorentzian wings of the absorption curve. This method seems to overestimate the value of $n_0$ when compared to the results obtained using other methods (Paragraph A and C). The value of $n_0$ depends critically on the estimate of the line width [$\Delta \omega$ appearing in the numerator of (5)], a quantity not measured in this experiment. Methods that rely only on the real part of the relative dielectric constant of the Li vapor or plasma (independent of $\Delta \omega$ away from line center) are therefore used from now on.

**C. Hook Method**

The oven is placed in one arm of a Mach–Zehnder white light interferometer. The interferometer light is sent to a stigmatic, f/4, 27-cm spectrograph to observe the dispersion $(n(\lambda_0) = [\varepsilon_1(\lambda_0)]^{1/2}$, see Section V-B) in the vicinity of the neutral Li line at 670.785 nm (hook method [11]) as shown on Fig. 7. The line-integrated neutral density is obtained from the hook interferograms using the following formula:

$$n_0L = N_iL - \frac{\pi K}{n_0 \sqrt{f_{ij}}} \Delta \omega_{ij}^2$$

where $N_i$ is the population of the lower level $i$, $K$ is the hook-interferogram constant [11], $n_0 = 2.82 \times 10^{15}$ m is the classical electron radius, and $\Delta \omega_{ij}$ is the hook separation of the $i \to j$ transition (see Fig. 7). Note that $n_0L$ does not depend on the linewidth $\Delta \omega$. The transition originates from the ground state of the Li atom with $f_{ij} = 0.75$. The thermal energy of the Li atoms is low ($k_B T_{Li} \leq h \nu_{ij}$), and the population of the ground state is therefore a very good approximation for the vapor density ($n_0 = N_i$). The measured values of $n_0L$ obtained by this method are shown in Fig. 5 as a function of the oven external temperature. A value of $4.27 \times 10^{16}$ cm$^{-2}$ is obtained with $T_{\text{ext}} = 736$ °C. In Fig. 7, the vertical axis corresponds to the distance along a vertical cord in the heat-pipe oven. The actual interferograms cover a distance of $\approx 6.8$ mm and exhibit no variation of $n_0L$ over at least that distance. The values of $n_0L$ obtained by the hook method are in very good agreement with the values obtained by the UV absorption method; see Fig. 5.

The buffer gas pressure for all the measurements presented here is 200 mT. Assuming that the Li vapor is an ideal gas, and assuming that the Li flow in the oven is slow as compared to the sonic speed, $n_0$ would be $2.0 \times 10^{15}$ cm$^{-3}$ at 963 K of internal temperature ($T_{\text{ext}} = 750$ °C). This density value agrees very well with the values of $n_0$ obtained assuming $L = 25$ cm. For the following measurements, ($T_{\text{ext}} > 700$ °C), the column length can be deduced from Fig. 5 with the density assumed to be constant at $n_0 = 2 \times 10^{15}$ cm$^{-3}$. For the case of Fig. 7(d) ($T_{\text{ext}} = 737$ °C), $n_0L = 4.27 \times 10^{16}$ cm$^{-2}$ corresponds to $L = 23.4$ cm, in excellent agreement with the length estimated from the temperature profile measurements described here above.

**VI. LITHIUM PLASMA**

Changes in the neutral and/or plasma density modify the dielectric constant of the Li vapor and are measured by interferometry. The relative dielectric constant $\varepsilon_1$ at frequency $\omega_0$ near an atomic transition at frequency $\omega_{ij}$ of a partially
The neutral gas susceptibility, \( \varepsilon_r = 1 + \chi_n + \chi_{pe} \approx 1 + \frac{N_e^2}{\varepsilon_0 m_e} \sum_{j=1}^{N_j} \frac{f_{ij}}{\omega_{e,j}^2 - \omega_0^2} - \frac{\omega_{pe}^2}{\omega_0^2} \) (8)

where \( \chi_n \) is the neutral gas susceptibility, \( \chi_{pe} \) the plasma electron susceptibility, and \( \omega_{pe}^2 = n_e e^2/\varepsilon_0 m_e \) is the electron plasma frequency squared. It includes a contribution from the resonant transitions (change in \( N_j \)) from the lower state \( i \) of the neutral atoms to the possible upper states \( j \) of the transition (see Section V-C) and a contribution from the electron plasma density \( n_e \). Upon ionization, the plasma density \( n_e \) is created, whereas a fraction \( \Delta N_j \) of the neutral population density \( N_j \) disappears. Depending on \( \omega_0 \), one or both of the contributions need to be retained. The change in index of refraction in one arm of the interferometer arising from the change in \( \varepsilon_r \), creates a phase difference \( \Delta \Phi \) between the two arms and is given by

\[ \Delta \Phi = 2\pi(n - 1) \frac{L}{\lambda_0} \] (9)

where \( n = (\varepsilon_r)^{1/2} \). Interferometry can resolve density evolution during both the ionization and plasma disappearance (by recombination and/or diffusion) when these processes are slow. In the case of laser-ionized plasmas, the ionization process is often too fast (a few nanoseconds) to be resolved in time. Only the “unwinding” of the fringes resulting from plasma recombination or diffusion (or a combination of both) can be observed. However, when the interferometer wavelength and the maximum plasma density are such that the phase shift \( \Delta \Phi \) is smaller than \( \pi \) (fraction of a fringe), the maximum \( n_e \) can be measured from the step in the interferometer trace corresponding to the unresolved, “instantaneous” ionization.

In this experiment, the plasma is created by ionizing the Li vapor with a 20-ns UV light pulse of an ArF excimer laser at 193 nm (\( h\nu_{ArF} = 6.43 \) eV) with a rectangular spot shape of area \( A = 1.0 \times 0.067 \) cm². The length of the Li plasma is equal to the length \( L \) of the Li vapor.

A. \( \text{CO}_2 \) Laser Interferometry and UV Absorption

The line-integrated plasma density \( n_e L \) is directly measured by \( \text{CO}_2 \) laser interferometry (\( \lambda_0 = 10.6 \mu \text{m} \)). At this wavelength, only the plasma electron contribution to \( \varepsilon_r \) needs to be retained. The relative contributions of the neutrals and the plasma to \( \varepsilon_r \) are about 1:355 and have the same sign. The plasma source is placed in one arm of a Mach–Zehnder interferometer. The product \( n_e L \) is obtained by measuring the phase shift of the interferometer signal resulting from the change in index of refraction of the recombining plasma

\[ n_e L \approx -\frac{\Delta \Phi}{\pi \lambda_0 n_{crk}} \text{ for } n_e \ll n_{crk} \] (10)

where \( n_{crk} = (2\pi/e/\lambda_0)^2 \varepsilon_0 m_e/e^2 = 9.9 \times 10^{38} \) cm⁻³ is the critical plasma density for \( \lambda_0 \). A \( \Delta \Phi = \pi \) corresponds to \( n_e L = 1.0 \times 10^{16} \) cm⁻². Fig. 8 shows the plasma density measured by \( \text{CO}_2 \) interferometry with \( T_{\text{exl}} = 720 \) °C and \( L = 19 \) cm, as a function of the UV fluence incident upon the Li vapor. The maximum density of \( \approx 1.5 \times 10^{14} \) cm⁻³ is limited by the UV energy reaching the Li vapor. The \( \text{CO}_2 \) laser pulse was coupled into the oven by grazing reflection (70°) from a quartz window. When traversing this window, about half of the ionizing laser pulse energy was lost by reflection. The fractional ionization was about 7.5% in this case. The time for the plasma to drop by a factor of two, because of recombination and possible diffusion, is about 12 \( \mu \text{s} \).

The average plasma density \( n_e \) is also estimated from the absorbed UV energy and from the illuminated volume since every photon absorbed by an atom creates one free electron. About 6.6% of the UV energy is absorbed over the 0.67 cm² beam cross-sectional area \( A \) and length \( L = 19 \) cm. The average plasma density calculated by this method is also plotted on Fig. 8 and shows a good agreement with the interferometry results. For a given initial neutral density \( n_0 \), the plasma density is expected to vary linearly with the incident UV energy

\[ n_e \approx \frac{1}{\lambda_0 h \nu_{ArF}} (1 - \sigma n_0 L) \] (11)

for \( \sigma n_0 L \ll 1 \). Note that for this measurement, the UV energies are averaged over a large number of laser pulses by a calorimeter. Shot-to-shot variation of the UV energy (±10%) is responsible for the variations in the plasma density observed by interferometry.

B. Helium-Neon Interferometry at \( \lambda_0 = 633 \text{ nm} \) and \( \text{CO}_2 \) Laser Interferometry

Since the plasma is obtained by ionization of the neutrals, the plasma density can be inferred from the variation of the neutral Li density (change in \( N_j \)), i.e., by interferometry on the Li neutrals near \( \lambda_j = 670.785 \) nm (see Section V-C). The wavelength at which interferometry is performed can be chosen to observe a suitable number of fringes. At \( \lambda_0 = 10.6 \mu \text{m} \), only the plasma electron contribution to \( \varepsilon_r \) needs to be retained, whereas at \( \lambda_0 = 633 \) nm, the wavelength of the red helium–neon laser, both the neutrals and the plasma electron contribute to \( \varepsilon_r \). The relative respective contributions to \( \Delta \phi \) are about 6:1 assuming that \( \Delta N_j = n_e \). Note that at
this wavelength the neutral contribution has a sign opposite to the plasma contribution. The average plasma density obtained at these two wavelengths are 1.2 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3} and 4.0 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3}, respectively, for a neutral density of 2.0 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3} over \( L = 9 \text{ cm} \) (\( T_{\text{ext}} = 600 ^\circ \text{C} \)) and an incident UV fluence of 30 \text{ mJ/cm}^2. The value of \( n_e \) obtained from the UV absorption (3.1\%) is 1.1 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3} and is in good agreement with the CO2 interferometry value. Note that the UV pulse spot shape is not uniform and may account for the discrepancy between the interferometry results. The UV absorption and the CO2 interferometry yield volume-integrated values of the plasma density, whereas the helium–neon pencil beam only samples a cord along the oven axis. Interferometry on the Li neutrals at the helium–neon laser wavelength is a simple on-line diagnostic for \( n_e \), suitable for a much longer plasma source such as the one that will be used in the actual acceleration experiment (\( n_e \approx 2-4 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3} \)). The plasma density measurement can be calibrated against the UV absorption and/or the CO2 measurement.

**C. Visible Interferometry at \( \lambda_0 = 674 \text{ nm} \)**

The interferometric trace at \( \lambda_0 = 633 \text{ nm} \) showed only a phase shift of a fraction of a fringe (\( \Delta \phi \approx \pi /10 \)), making it difficult to quantitatively reconstruct the unwinding of the fringe. However, a larger number of fringes are observed at a wavelength \( \lambda_0 \) closer to \( \lambda_{ij} \). Fig. 9 shows the time evolution of the Li neutral density after ionization as measured by interferometry at \( \lambda_0 = 674 \text{ nm} \) using a diode laser. At this wavelength, the relative respective contributions to \( \Delta \phi \) are about 78 : 1 (assuming that \( \Delta N_i = n_e \)) and have the same sign. Each \( \Delta \phi = \pi \) corresponds to a plasma density of 0.82 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3} (according to (8) and (9), \( L = 23 \text{ cm} \)). The maximum density deduced from Fig. 9 is \( n_e \approx 1.3 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3} \). However, the heat-pipe temperature is \( T_{\text{ext}} = 734 ^\circ \text{C} \) (\( n_0 \approx 2.0 \times 10^{15} \text{ cm}^{-3} \) over \( L = 23 \text{ cm} \), Fig. 5) and the UV fluence 83 mJ/cm², leading to an average plasma density of 2.9 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^{-3}, and a fractional ionization \( n_e/n_0 \) of 14.5\%, according to the UV absorption measurement.

The expression (8) for \( \varepsilon_p \) assumes that all the atoms are in their ground state (\( N_j = 0 \)), and that only one resonant transition contributed to \( \varepsilon_p \). These assumptions are well suited for the Li vapor prior to ionization: the thermal energy of the Li atoms is low (\( k_b T_L \ll \hbar \omega_{ij} \)), and the other possible transitions from the ground state are at wavelengths shorter than 324 nm. After ionization, however, the electrons recombine with the ions and populate all the levels of the Li atoms according to their respective recombination cross sections and according to the evolution to the electron temperature. The electrons are born with an excess energy of 1 eV. They thermalize with the neutrals and recombine with the ions. For low electron energies, calculated cross sections [12] show that \( np \) states have the largest recombination cross section. The recombination rate to the ground state is negligible compared to that of the upper states. The population of all the relevant levels and the transitions to and from them contribute to \( \varepsilon_p \). In particular, the \( 2p \) state (the upper level for the 670.785-nm transition) can be populated either by direct recombination or by transitions from upper states. That would require the inclusion of a fourth term of the form (\( N_i c^2/\varepsilon_0 n_e f_{ij}(\omega_{ij}^2 - \omega_0^2)^{-1} \)) in (8) where \( f_{ij} = - (g_i/g_j) f_{ij} \), and \( g_{ij} \) is the statistical weight of the \( i(j) \) state. This term has a sign opposite to that of the second term on the right-hand side of (8). Populating the upper state of the 670.785-nm transition would reduce \( \varepsilon_p \) and lead to an overestimation of the change in \( n_e (n_e \neq \Delta N_i) \). The time evolution of the population of the levels can, in principle, be described in a detailed analysis of these processes (rewriting (8) with a double sum on the \( i \) and \( j \) indexes). This is beyond the scope of this paper. Note that these atomic processes should affect only the interferometry at 674 nm, in which the interference fringes observed correspond to the plasma disappearance. The 633-nm interferometry relies on fringe shift corresponding to the “instantaneous” creation of the plasma, and so its interpretation is not complicated by the atomic physics in the “afterglow”.

The plasma disappears from the probed volume because of recombination and/or ambipolar diffusion (Debye length \( \lambda_D \approx 0.5 \mu\text{m} \) for \( T_e = 1 \text{ eV} \) and \( n_e = 2 \times 10^{12} \text{ cm}^{-3} \)). Plasma diffusion would lead to an exponential decay of \( n_e \) with time. Therefore, assuming that recombination is the dominant process as suggested by Fig. 9 (nonexponential decay for \( n_e \)), the time evolution of \( n_e \) is given by

\[
\frac{\partial n_e}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial n_i}{\partial t} = - \alpha n_e n_i = - \alpha n_e^2 \tag{12}
\]

where \( \alpha \) is the recombination rate in \text{cm}^3/s. The solution to this recombination equation is

\[
\frac{1}{n_e(t)} = \frac{1}{n_{e0}} + \alpha t \tag{13}
\]

where \( n_{e0} \) is the initial electron density. A least square fit of this solution to the data of Fig. 9 leads to \( \alpha = 6 \times 10^{14} \text{ cm}^3/\text{s} \). In this experiment, the electrons are born with an excess energy of 1 eV. The value of \( \alpha \) calculated for Li assuming an initial Maxwellian distribution function for the free electrons.
with a temperature $T_e = 10^4$ K is $25.8 \times 10^{14}$ cm$^3$/s [12]. However, the electrons rapidly thermalize with the ions and neutral at $\approx 10^3$ K. The calculated values for $\alpha$ at this temperature is $\approx 150 \times 10^{14}$ cm$^3$/s, which brings the measured values in good agreement with the calculated one. Estimation of the coefficients relevant for ambipolar diffusion yields a typical diffusion time of $\approx 1$ ms.

Neutral Li has no metastable level, and the natural lifetimes of its excited state are shorter than a few hundreds of nanoseconds [12]. It is thus reasonable to assume that the relative time evolution of the plasma density inferred from Fig. 9, if not its absolute value, is governed by the recombination dynamics and not by the cascade decay once the electron has recombined with the ion.

The plasma density decreases by a factor of two in about 12 $\mu$s. This value is confirmed by CO$_2$ interferometry traces. This relatively slow time scale allows for the tuning of the plasma density in a wakefield experiment, such as the E-157, on a shot-to-shot basis by varying the delay between the laser ionizing pulse and the electron beam.

VII. SCALING TO A 1-M LONG PLASMA SOURCE

In scaling the 25-mm diameter, 25-cm long device described here to longer lengths, the concern is a possible pressure drop from the central section of the oven to its edges due to the finite flow velocity of the Li vapor. The Li vapor density profile would be nonhomogeneous and would not be fixed by the buffer gas pressure [13]. The conductance of the 1-m long oven is increased by going to an inner diameter of 38 mm. As in the case of the prototype device, the heater covers most of the oven length to minimize the length of the condensation zone of the oven and ensure a uniform longitudinal temperature profile. A heat shield is added between the heater and the thermal insulation to minimize the radial radiative losses, which dominate over conduction losses at high temperature. The thermal losses at the ends of the heat pipe will play a lesser role in the longer oven since the heat region is much longer than the typical distance over which the temperature is observed to drop with the prototype ($\approx 10$ cm, see Fig. 4). A uniform vapor density is, of course, a prerequisite condition to obtain a uniform plasma density.

The average plasma density is proportional to the number of absorbed photons, which is proportional to the incident UV or photon fluence $N_{UV}/A = E_{UV}/N_{e0}/A$ [(11)] and to $n_0/n_e = (\sigma \epsilon_T) \cdot (N_{o0}/A)$. The fractional ionization is given by $n_e/n_0 = \alpha N_{UV}/A$, and the plasma density gradient by $[\Delta n_e/n_e] = (\sigma n_0)^2 \cdot (N_{UV}/A)$. These expressions show that in order to maximize the plasma density and the fractional ionization, while minimizing the plasma density gradient, $N_{UV}/A$ (\% UV energy fluence) rather than $n_0$ has to be increased.

At a given Li density, the total UV absorption is about four times larger in the 1-m long heat pipe than in the 25-cm prototype. The density variation from one end to the other of the heat pipe also increases in the same proportion. The density variation can be significantly reduced, from $\Delta n_e/n_e = 30\%$ to $8\%$ with $n_0 = 2 \times 10^{45}$ cm$^{-3}$ with 100 mJ/cm$^2$.

VIII. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

A lithium plasma source suitable for beam-driven plasma wakefield experiments is developed. A lithium vapor column with a density in the $2 \times 10^{15}$ cm$^{-3}$ range is obtained in a heat-pipe oven. The maximum length of the neutral Li column is about 25 cm. The values for the vapor density and column length obtained by the UV absorption and the hook method are in very good agreement. The white light absorption method overestimates $n_0 L$. The vapor is ionized by $6.43$ eV UV photons through a 1-photon process. The line-integrated plasma density is measured by CO$_2$ laser interferometry on the plasma electrons, by visible interferometry on the Li neutrals (near the $\lambda_{70.785}$ nm transition from the Li ground state), and by UV absorption. An excellent agreement is found between the UV absorption and the CO$_2$ interferometry results. The maximum plasma density is $2.9 \times 10^{14}$ cm$^{-3}$, limited only by the maximum UV fluence available ($83$ mJ/cm$^2$). The time for the plasma density to drop by a factor of two is about 12 $\mu$s. Visible interferometry on the neutrals (helium-neon laser, $\lambda_{nm} = 633$ nm) provides a simple diagnostic for $n_e$ and will be implemented in the SLAC E-157 experiment.

The present device has reached parameters desired in the 1-m long oven ($n_0$, $n_e$, and $n_e/n_0$). The results obtained with this plasma source device extrapolated to the 1-m long source

![Fig. 10: Calculated transmission of the ionizing UV fluence (thin lines) and resulting fractional ionization $n_e/n_0$ (thick lines) along the 1-m long oven for the single pass case (solid lines) and the double pass case (dashed lines). In this example ($n_0 = 2 \times 10^{15}$ cm$^{-3}$ and 100 mJ/cm$^2$), the average $n_e$ is $3.0 \times 10^{14}$ cm$^{-3}$ ($n_e/n_0 = 15\%$) and $\Delta n_e/n_e = 36\%$ for a single pass, and the average $n_e$ is $4.8 \times 10^{14}$ cm$^{-3}$ ($n_e/n_0 = 24\%$) and $\Delta n_e/n_e = 8\%$ for a double pass. Note that in the single- and double-pass case, the density gradient is negative along the single-pass laser beam path.](image)
show that the source should satisfy the requirements (Table II) for the E-157 experiment. A 1-m source ($2L/\lambda_g \approx 3$) is being built in collaboration with the Berkeley National Laboratory, and a 1.5-m ($2L/\lambda_g \approx 5$) source is developed at UCLA for further experiments.

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