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Two- and three-dimensional simulation code for radiation-hydrodynamics in ICF

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Abstract

A multi-dimensional radiation hydrodynamic code is developed and is applied to the interaction of intense ion beam with plasmas. The hydrocode is based on a newly developed, highly-accurate scheme CIP (Cubic-Interpolated Pseudoparticle). The radiation transport is solved with the SSI (Symmetrical Semi-Implicit) scheme, which is quite easily implemented and is 4-5 times faster than the ICCG. The Thomas-Fermi EOS (equation of state) is used for the atomic data and the Tsakiris and Eidmann formula for the Roseland mean-free path. This newly developed two-dimensional code is used to design an extraction method of the radiation from the high temperature region heated by ion beam. The ion beam of 3 TW/cm^2 is converted into the soft X-ray of 40 TW/cm^2 at the surface of the radiation emitter.

Key words : Ion-beam amplification, Ion-beam-driven fusion, multi-dimensions, radiation transport, hydrodynamics

1. Introduction

We have proposed a scheme to compress and amplify an ion beam pulse¹⁾ through soft X-ray conversion. This is so because a slowly propagating radiation wave acts as an accumulator of ion beam energy. Since the propagation speed of radiation heat wave is relatively slow, the energy flux from incident ion beam can be temporally stored within heat wave and hence the radiation power is amplified owing to this effect.

Recently, Honrubia²⁾ presented a calculation with a multi-group radiation transport. Although he observed a moderate power amplification, it is still not sufficient for fusion application. We can expect more effective amplification when a special configuration is used. For this purpose, we need high-speed algorithm for multidimensional hydrodynamics and radiation transport. In this paper, we propose a new and efficient algorithm and apply the method to the topic of x-ray conversion. In sections 2-4, we describe multidimensional hydrodynamic code and radiation transport code. By using this code, ion beam amplification is examined in sections 5-6.

2. Multi-Dimensional Hydrodynamic Code

Numerical methods for multi-dimensional hyperbolic equations are still a topic of considerable interest. Although many modern schemes based on an approximate Riemann solution have been proposed, they must be entirely modified in order to include various terms other than hydrodynamic processes. Adding to this, since they use a limiter function or switching function, real physical phenomena such as oscillations of high wave number are sometimes suppressed.

We have developed a new numerical method CIP (Cubic Interpolated Pseudoparticle) as a general solver for hyperbolic equations

coupled with source, diffusion, or any other terms. This scheme has been tested with cylindrically converging shock waves, two-dimensional shock tube problem, the Rayleigh-Taylor instability, soliton formation in the KdV equation and so on. Since details are available in open literature,³⁻⁶⁾ we will not discuss it here. Some of the results are shown in Figs.1 and 2.

Figures 1a and 1b show the two- and three-dimensional R-T instabilities. This comparison indicates that the mushroom structure in the three dimensions is much smaller than that in two dimensions. The reason for this is attributed to the geometric nature.⁶⁾ Because of this difference in structure, the growing speed in nonlinear phase has a dependence on the geometry. This difference may cast a shadow on two-dimensional simulations frequently used, since the R-T instability is widely recognized as a source of mixing in implosion processes. The details appear in Ref.6)

These calculations are extended to the interaction of two waves in the R-T instability, where initial perturbations with two different wave numbers are imposed. The time evolution of density is given in Fig.2. This result agrees qualitatively with the result given by Anisimov⁷⁾.

3. Multi-Dimensional Radiative Heat Transfer

In simulating the ion beam amplification, we need to solve the diffusion equation :

$$\rho c_v \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \nabla(D \nabla T) + Q, \quad (1)$$

for radiation, where Q is the source term and/or hydrodynamic terms. In most simulation codes, a matrix solver such as the ICCG has been used. However, the ICCG is not convenient for extension to nonorthogonal grids and complex boundaries. We have proposed to

use the SSI (Symmetrical Semi-Implicit) method for this solution,^{8,9} since the SSI need not use a matrix solver but is explicitly solved with a large time step.

Let us first briefly describe the basic principle of the SSI by using a linear diffusion equation :

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \nabla^2 T, \quad (2)$$

In the semi-implicit scheme, Eq.(2) is put into a finite difference form

$$\frac{T_i^{n+1} - T_i^n}{\Delta t} = \frac{T_{i+1}^n - 2T_i^{n+1} + T_{i-1}^n}{\Delta x^2}, \quad (3)$$

This scheme is unconditionally stable. This can be illustrated as follows. If $\Delta t \rightarrow \infty$, then Eq.(3) gives simply $T_i^{n+1} = (T_{i+1}^n + T_{i-1}^n)/2$. As easily understood, the profile at $n+2$ is the same as that at n . Therefore, the small scale perturbation given at n will not be amplified.

Although the scheme is stable, however, answer given by Eq.(3) is completely wrong. In order to show this, let us write down finite difference forms on the neighbouring points.

$$T_i^{n+1} - T_i^n = \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x^2} [(T_{i+1}^n - T_i^{n+1}) - (T_i^{n+1} - T_{i-1}^n)], \quad (4)$$

$$T_{i+1}^{n+1} - T_{i+1}^n = \frac{\Delta t}{\Delta x^2} [(T_{i+2}^n - T_{i+1}^{n+1}) - (T_{i+1}^{n+1} - T_i^n)], \quad (5)$$

The first half $(T_{i+1}^n - T_i^{n+1})$ on the right-hand side (r.h.s.) of Eq.(4) is the flux transported from the grid $i+1$ and hence should be the same as the second half $(T_{i+1}^{n+1} - T_i^n)$ on the r.h.s. of Eq.(5). Unfortunately, however, these two fluxes are not the same, because of the difference of the superscript n . Therefore, $\delta_{i+1/2}^{n+1} = (T_{i+1}^n - T_i^{n+1}) - (T_{i+1}^{n+1} - T_i^n)$ flows into the system. The error should be

subtracted from the system. In the SSI, $-\delta_{i+1/2}^{n+1}\Delta t/2\Delta x^2$ is added to both Eqs.(4) and (5). It is illustrating to rewrite this δ^{n+1} as $\delta_{i+1/2}^{n+1} = (T_{i+1} + T_i)^n - (T_{i+1} + T_i)^{n+1}$. This means the error depends on the time evolution of the average temperature at $i + 1/2$. In some cases, this error correction may proceed further to accelerate the change. In reality, if we make the correction after T^{n+1} is obtained such as $T^{n+1} = T^{n+1} - \delta^{n+1}\Delta t/2\Delta x^2$, this leads to an instability, especially when the heat is input from outside.

It is important to know that the solution of Eq.(3) is given by

$$T_i^{n+1} = \frac{(T_{i+1}^n + T_{i-1}^n + \alpha)(\Delta t/\Delta x^2)}{1 + \Delta t/\Delta x^2}. \quad (6)$$

If we can add the correction δ on the r.h.s. of Eq.(3), then $\alpha = -(\delta_{i+1/2}^{n+1} + \delta_{i-1/2}^{n+1})\Delta t/2\Delta x^2$ and the temperature change given by Eq.(6) is not simply proportional to δ but to $\delta/(1 + \Delta t/\Delta x^2)$. If $\Delta t/\Delta x^2$ becomes quite large, this way of correction guarantees the stability because of the reduction of feedback by a factor of $1/(1 + \Delta t/\Delta x^2)$. It is not possible to add the correction at $n + 1$ to Eq.(6) because T^{n+1} is not yet calculated. Therefore, the SSI proposes to add the correction with the time lag, that is, $\alpha = -(\delta_{i+1/2}^n + \delta_{i-1/2}^n)(\Delta t)^{old}/2\Delta x^2$. The superscript "old" in Δt means the time increment at n -th step. This time lag can also cause the time lag of the energy conservation, which means that the energy from the error correction is not correctly added to the current time step although the error does not accumulate in time. In the case shown later, this error is only a few percent even for $D\Delta t/\Delta x^2 \sim 1000$.

Here, we present a benchmark test for the SSI. Figure 3 shows the time evolution of radiation wave. 20×20 grids are used with $\Delta x = \Delta y = 1$. Initially, $T = 1.0$ for $8 \leq i \leq 12$ and $8 \leq j \leq 12$ and $T = 0.01$ for the other region. Top and bottom figures, respectively, show the results with the SSI and ICCG. Here, the time step is

controlled by

$$\Delta t^{new} = \epsilon \times \Delta t^{old} \frac{T^{n+1} + T^n}{T^{n+1} - T^n}, \quad (7)$$

$$0.5\Delta t^{old} \leq \Delta t^{new} \leq 1.2\Delta t^{old}, \quad (8)$$

where $\epsilon = 0.4$ in Fig.3. Equation (8) is used in order to avoid an abrupt change of Δt in time. Initially, the time step is set to be quite small ($\Delta t = 0.01$) and then becomes larger later on. In Fig.4, normalized time step ($\Delta t/\Delta x^2$) is plotted versus time step. In these tests, the computation time required by the SSI is 4-5 times shorter than that by the ICCG.

Since the original SSI⁸⁾ is given only for one-dimensional case, it is of use to show its three-dimensional finite difference form of Eq.(1).

$$T_{i,j,k}^{n+1} = (Q_{i,j,k}^n + \rho c_v T_{i,j,k}^n / \Delta t + B1 + B2 + B3) / B4$$

where $B1 - B4$ are defined as

$$\begin{aligned} B1 &= [D_{i+1/2,j,k} T_{i+1,j,k}^n + D_{i-1/2,j,k} T_{i-1,j,k}^n + (\delta_{i+1/2,j,k}^x + \delta_{i-1/2,j,k}^x) / 2] / \Delta x^2 \\ B2 &= [D_{i,j+1/2,k} T_{i,j+1,k}^n + D_{i,j-1/2,k} T_{i,j-1,k}^n + (\delta_{i,j+1/2,k}^y + \delta_{i,j-1/2,k}^y) / 2] / \Delta y^2 \\ B3 &= [D_{i,j,k+1/2} T_{i,j,k+1}^n + D_{i,j,k-1/2} T_{i,j,k-1}^n + (\delta_{i,j,k+1/2}^z + \delta_{i,j,k-1/2}^z) / 2] / \Delta z^2 \\ B4 &= \rho c_v / \Delta t + (D_{i+1/2,j,k} + D_{i-1/2,j,k}) / \Delta x^2 + (D_{i,j+1/2,k} + D_{i,j-1/2,k}) / \Delta y^2 \\ &\quad + (D_{i,j,k+1/2} + D_{i,j,k-1/2}) / \Delta z^2, \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\delta_{i+1/2,j,k}^x = DO_{i+1/2,j,k} [(T_{i+1,j,k}^n + T_{i,j,k}^n) - (T_{i+1,j,k}^{n-1} + T_{i,j,k}^{n-1})]$$

$$\delta_{i,j+1/2,k}^y = DO_{i,j+1/2,k} [(T_{i,j+1,k}^n + T_{i,j,k}^n) - (T_{i,j+1,k}^{n-1} + T_{i,j,k}^{n-1})]$$

$$\delta_{i,j,k+1/2}^z = DO_{i,j,k+1/2}[(T_{i,j,k+1}^n + T_{i,j,k}^n) - (T_{i,j,k+1}^{n-1} + T_{i,j,k}^{n-1})]$$

We have introduced $D_{i+1/2,j}$, which is calculated by $T_{i+1/2,j,k} = (T_{i+1,j,k} + T_{i,j,k})/2$ and $\rho_{i+1/2,j,k} = (\rho_{i+1,j,k} + \rho_{i,j,k})/2$, and similar definition is used for the subscripts j and k . D is given at the time step n . DO means D at the previous time step multiplied by $\Delta t^{old}/\Delta t$, Δt^{old} being the time increment at the previous time step.

4. Atomic Model and Beam-Energy Deposition

There have been a strong interest in the non-LTE (Local Thermodynamic Equilibrium) atomic model, because of high rate of radiation from high-Z material. In these plasmas, the non-LTE is a key issue in determining the radiation flux from the surface irradiated by intense laser light. However, the calculation time required for this process becomes a large fraction of complete calculation. This gives a serious constraint in extending the code to multi-dimensions. We use, instead, the Thomas-Fermi atomic model because most parameter regime in ion-beam-driven fusion is in LTE.

The specific heat c_v in the T-F approximation is given by Latter¹⁰⁾ and put into a formula by Bell¹¹⁾. The program list is given in Fig.5. The average charge state is used in the ion-beam stopping power, whose program list is given in Fig.6 according to Mehlhorn's paper¹²⁾. The result with the T-F model is calculated by More¹³⁾ and is put into a convenient form. The result is also given in Fig.5.

The diffusion coefficient D for the radiation in Eq.(1) is given by

$$D = \frac{16\sigma\lambda_R T^3}{3}, \quad (9)$$

where $\sigma (= 5.6705 \times 10^{-5} \text{ erg/cm}^2 \cdot \text{sec} \cdot \text{deg}^4)$ is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant. λ_R is the Rosseland mean free path and its approximate formula is given by Tsakiris and Eidmann¹⁴⁾. Here, we repeat the

formula

$$\frac{1}{\rho\lambda_R} = aT^s\rho^r \quad (10)$$

where the values of a, s, r are given in Ref.14).

5. Analysis of Ion Beam Amplification

If the ion beam is incident on high-Z material that is optically thick, the energy propagates through it like a diffusion wave. In the diffusion process, the size of a heated region expands in proportion to $t^{1/2}$, while the ion beam energy is injected in proportion to t . Thus, the energy is accumulated in this region causing high temperature. Since the radiation power is proportional to σT^4 , small increase of temperature largely enhances the radiation power.

The equation for the propagation of radiation is given by Eqs.(1) and (9) for nearly equilibrium situation. If we estimate the propagation length L of the radiation wave within a time t such as $\partial T/\partial t \sim T/t$ and $\nabla T \sim T/L$, then we have $L = [(16\sigma\lambda_R T^3 t)/(\rho c_v)]^{1/2}$ from Eqs.(1) and (9). The thermal energy accumulated in this region L is $\epsilon = \rho c_v T L$ and this energy must be supplied from the ion beam $I t$. This balance determines the evolution of temperature. The black body radiation flux σT^4 from this plasma is given by^{1,15)}

$$\frac{\sigma T^4}{I} = \frac{3L}{16\lambda_R}. \quad (11)$$

or in an explicit form

$$T^4 = \left(\frac{9}{16} \frac{I^2 t \rho^r a}{\sigma c_v} \right)^{4/(5-s)}. \quad (12)$$

Equation (12) suggests the converter material having larger a and smaller s . Therefore, we will use gold as a converter in the simulation given in the next section. The above relation implies that the

radiation intensity can be larger than the incident ion beam intensity if the length of amplifier is sufficiently longer than the radiation mean free path. Equation (11) also raises another problem on how to extract the radiation energy from such an optically thick plasma. In some case, the amplifier and the target may be the same¹⁾ or fused shutter²⁾ may be necessary. In the next section, we will discuss this point more clearly.

The above-mentioned scaling has been investigated in detail¹⁾ using the one-dimensional hydrocode HIMICO coupled with average ion model and multi-group radiation transport as well as the ion beam stopping calculation similar to that given by Mehlhorn.¹²⁾ In the next section, we will show one- and two-dimensional simulations but with a simplified physics included as stated in sections 2-4.

6. Simulation of Ion Beam Amplification

The important point in ion-beam-driven fusion is how to use the radiation from the region of the highest temperature. When the ion beam is injected from the righthand side and the radiation wave propagates leftward, the temperature decreases to the left. This decrease is not much for the radiation because of large nonlinearity of the diffusion coefficient. However, since the radiation power is proportional to σT^4 , it is sensitive to this decrease. Therefore, it is important to find a way to extract the radiation from high temperature region. In this section, we propose some possible methods to do this.

In the simulation shown in Fig.7, the two proton beams are incident from both sides, where the proton beam is 1.5 MeV, 3TW/cm² at peak, which is triangular in time and linearly rises in time until 30 ns and decreases linearly until 60 ns. The material of the x-ray converter is a low-density gold of 0.1 g/cm². The figure shows the

time evolution of the temperature profile for every 2 ns up to 80 ns.

Four different cases are compared. In Fig.7a, 7b, 7c, two sides are open for radiation to escape, whereas two-sided boundaries are mirror in Fig.7d. Only one beam is incident in Fig.7a and two beams are incident in other figures. In Fig.7c high-density gold layer is placed outside the converter, where the ion beam is put into only the converter passing through this high-density tamper. In any case except for Fig.7a, however, the temperature at the center behaves very similarly. This means the effect of radiation escape is quite small in these configuration as already pointed out by our previous papers¹⁾. By changing the length of layer, we compared the maximum temperature up to 80 ns obtained for 4 different configurations and show it in Fig.7.

It is surprising that a peak temperature of ~ 160 eV is attained even with such a low intensity beam. The flux of the thermal radiation corresponding to 160 eV is 67 TW/cm^2 . In Fig.7c, we can use a special configuration for the beam to pass through a high-density gold layer. For example, magnetic fields can be used to pinch the beam at a hole placed on the high-density gold layer. After passing this hole, the beam may expands and illuminates the converter with a wide and low intensity. It is of use to note, however, even in the open geometry like in Fig.7b, sufficiently high temperature can be attained.

It seems curious that the temperature increase with two colliding beam is not twice as large as that with one beam. Since the ion beam stopping length becomes shorter when the temperature increases, two ion beams do not overlap with each other in later phase and therefore the situation becomes quite similar to one-sided beam.

One possibility to extract this radiation is to use a configuration shown in Fig.9. The radiation waves propagate through the tube and collide in the middle of the tube, where the radiation is extracted in

a perpendicular direction through a hole on the wall of the tube.

Another method is to use the focusing of the radiation. Since the propagation speed of the radiation is inversely proportional to the density, the radiation wave directs towards the high-density region. By properly changing the gold gas density, the two radiation waves can collide at any place we like. Variable-density foam layers of this kind have already been demonstrated by the target fabrication group at ILE, Osaka University. Figure 10 shows the configuration used in the simulation, whose results are shown in Fig.11. Here, the increment of the contour is 5 eV. The gold density linearly varies from 0.05 g/cm^3 (top) to 0.15 g/cm^3 (center). Since the ion beam stopping length is also inversely proportional to the density, the radiation wave is driven obliquely from the beginning.

The radiation wave should be designed to collide at the inner surface of the amplifier which is the outer surface of the target placed at the center, where we placed a solid gold sphere in the present calculation. Although the calculation shown in Fig.11 is not yet optimized, the temperature of 140 eV at this surface is already attained. The radiation from plasmas of 140 eV is about 40 TW/cm^2 . Therefore, the intensity of incident ion beam is amplified by more than 10 times even in this low intensity beam of 3 TW/cm^2 .

7. Summary

We have developed a new two-dimensional hydrodynamic code including radiation transport which is solved with the SSI method with high efficiency. Implementatin of this code is quite easy compared with the preceding schemes. This code is applied to the ion beam amplification. A new extraction method of the radiation from the region of the highest temperature has been proposed and more than 10 times amplification has been demonstrated even in the case

of 3 TW/cm² ion beam, which is available at present and is a parameter close to PBFA II at SNL. The amplification will increase in proportion to the incident power.

The important point in this paper is that the amplification of the power is of no doubt but the radiation power which can be effectively used depends on the extraction method. For the latter, there may be a variety of schemes. We have proposed only two schemes. In such a design, two and three dimensional code is quite effective. More effective schemes are under consideration.

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Figure Captions

- Fig.1: Density contours in the R-T instability at $t = 0.51$ when $g = 1.0$. Initial velocity perturbation V is 0.8. (a)-(c) Two-dimensional results. (d)-(f) Three-dimensional results. The mesh size is $\Delta x = \Delta y = 0.01(60 \times 30)$ in (a), $\Delta x = \Delta y = 0.01/2(120 \times 60)$ in (b), $\Delta x = \Delta y = 0.01/3(180 \times 90)$ in (c), $\Delta x = 0.01$ and $\Delta y = \Delta z = 0.01 \times 2^{1/2}(60 \times 30 \times 30)$ in (d), $\Delta x = 0.01/2$ and $\Delta y = \Delta z = 0.01/2 \times 2^{1/2}(120 \times 60 \times 60)$ in (e), $\Delta x = 0.01/3$ and $\Delta y = \Delta z = 0.01/3 \times 2^{1/2}(180 \times 90 \times 90)$ in (f).
- Fig.2: The same run as the two-dimensional case in Fig.1 but with two different initial perturbations.
- Fig.3: Time evolution of radiation wave. (Top) SSI, (Bottom) ICCG. The profiles of every time step are shown.
- Fig.4: Change of normalized time step ($D\Delta t/\Delta x^2$, $D = 1$ in this example) used in the calculation of Fig.3.

- Fig.5: Program list of the Thomas-Fermi EOS.
- Fig.6: Program list of ion beam stopping.
- Fig.7: One-dimensional simulation of ion-beam-energy conversion into X-ray. (a) One beam, open boundary, (b) Two beams, open boundary, (c) Two beams, with tamper, (d) Two beams, mirror boundary.
- Fig.8: Maximum temperature up to 80 ns in Fig.7. Closed circles, open squares, closed squares and open circles correspond to Figs.7a, 7b, 7c and 7d, respectively.
- Fig.9: If the tube has a hole in the middle, radiation from the colliding thermal waves can be extracted.
- Fig.10: Alternative scheme with uses the focusing of thermal waves. Density changes vertically but not horizontally. This density change has already been demonstrated by ILE target group at Osaka University using foam layered target.
- Fig.11: Time evolution of temperature in the amplifier proposed in Fig. 10. Time proceeds from top to bottom as 30, 40, 50, 60 nsec. The increment of the contour is 5 eV.

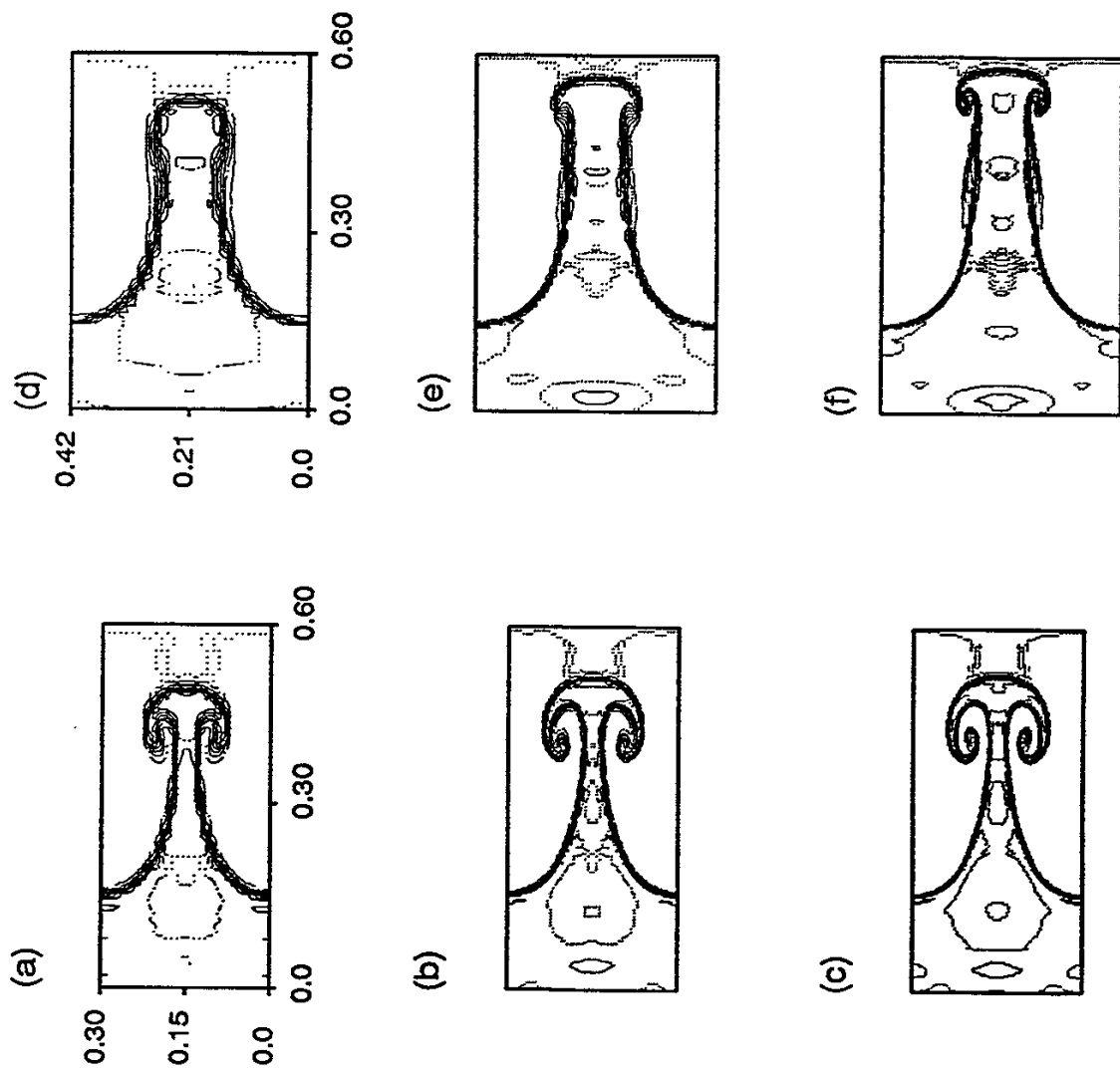


Fig.1

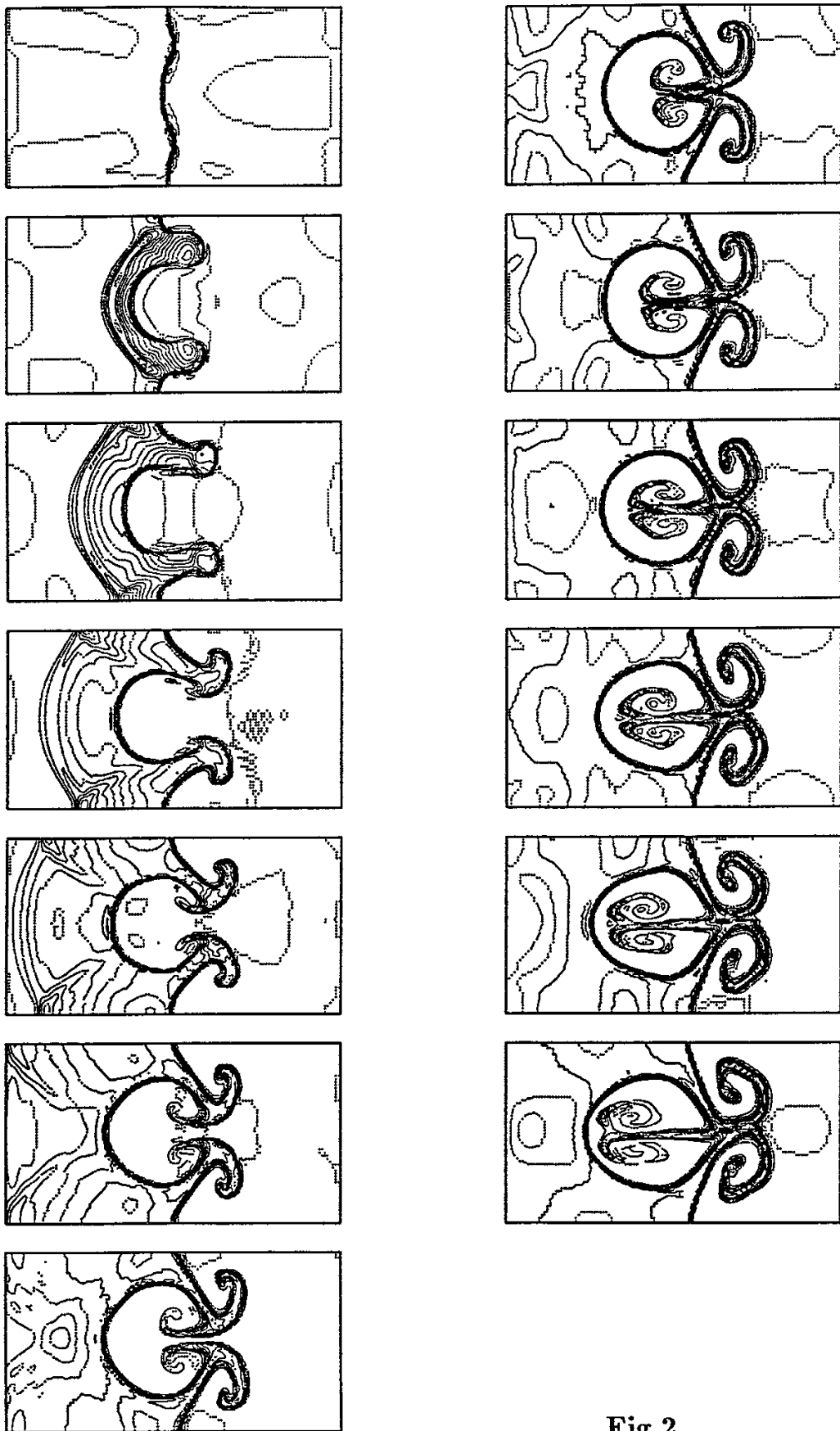


Fig.2

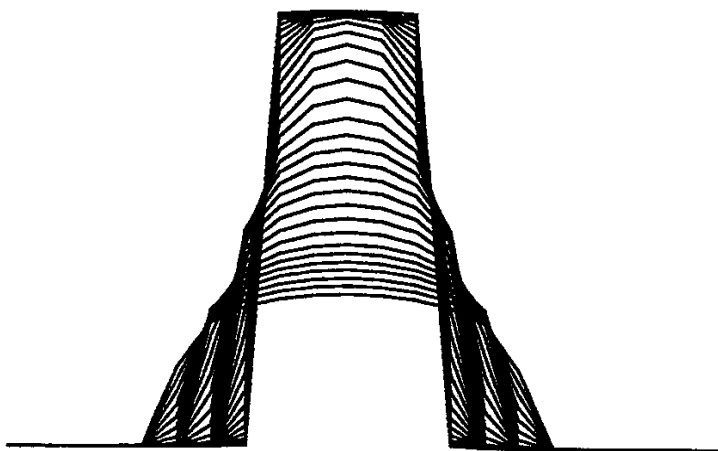
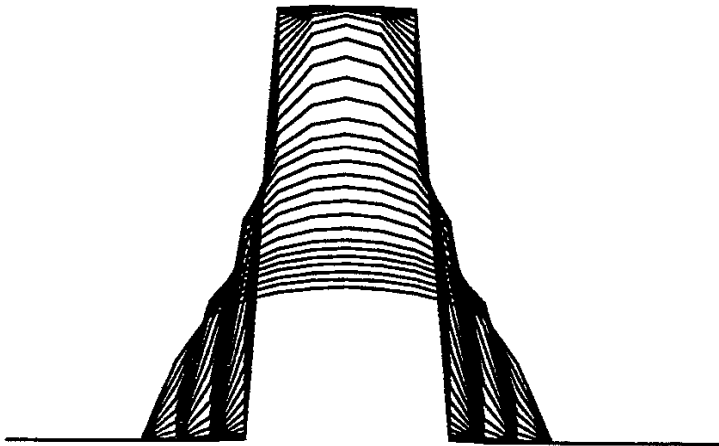


Fig.3

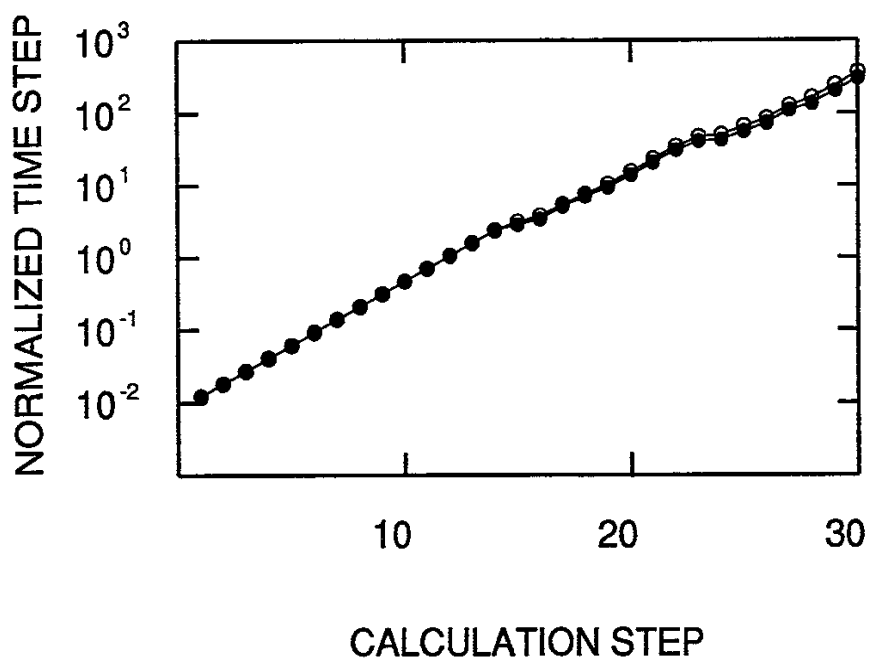


Fig.4

```

C*****
C*      THOMAS-FERMI EOS
C*      YT --- TEMPRETURE (eV)      YR --- DENSITY (g/cm^3)
C*      Z0 --- ATMIC NUMBER          AM --- ATOMIC MASS
C*****
      A( 1 ) = 4.486D+10
      A( 2 ) = 0.0
      A( 3 ) = 8.5383D+17
      A( 4 ) = 1.3811D+21
      A( 5 ) = 5.5707D+24
      A( 6 ) = 1.585D-12
      A( 7 ) = 6.760D-13
      A( 8 ) = 3.333D+9
      A( 9 ) = 7.627D+20
      A(10 ) = 13.172
      A(11 ) = 1.7562
      A(12 ) = 3.283D+7
      A(13 ) = 1.805D+8
      ZTFT0 = YT(I,J,K)/ Z0(I,J,K)**1.33333D0
      ZTFR  = YR(I,J,K)/AM(I,J,K)/ Z0(I,J,K)
      ZTFTF = ZTFT0 / ( 1.0D0 + ZTFT0 )
      ZTFA  = 0.003323D0 * ZTFT0 ** 0.971832D0
&      + 9.26148D-5 * ZTFT0 ** 3.10165D0
      ZTFB  = - DEXP( - 1.7630D0 +1.43175D0*ZTFTF
&      +0.315463D0*ZTFTF **7 )
      ZTFC  = - 0.366667D0 * ZTFTF + 0.983333
      ZTFQ1 = ZTFA * ZTFR ** ZTFB
      ZTFI  = 1.D0 / ZTFC
      ZTFQ  = ( ZTFR **ZTFC + ZTFQ1 ** ZTFC ) ** ZTFI
      ZTFX  = 14.3139 * ZTFQ ** 0.6624D0

C
C<<<<<< THOMAS-FERMI EFFECTIVE CHARGE >>>>>>
      ZZ(I,J,K) = Z0(I,J,K)*ZTFX/(1.D0+ZTFX+DSQRT(1.D0+2.D0*ZTFX))

C
      ZT = YT(I,J,K)/Z0(I,J,K)**(4./3.)
      ZV = Z0(I,J,K)*AM(I,J,K)*1.673E-24/YR(I,J,K)
      P1 = 1.602D-12*ZT/ZV
      P2 = 0.0D0
      DO 100 N = 1 , 5
      Z110 = FLOAT( N ) / 6.0 + 0.5
100      P2 = P2 + A(N)*ZV**Z110
      P2 = P2 ** (-2.5)
      P4 = A(6) * ZT
      P5 = A(7) * ZT ** 1.61
      P3 = ( 1.D0/ZV - 0.75D-18*ZV**(-1.75) )
&      *( P4**(-2.0) + P5**(-2.0) ) ** (-0.5)
&      + 0.75D-18*ZV**(-1.75)*P5

C
C<<<<<< THOMAS-FERMI PRESSURE (IN CGS UNIT) >>>>>>
      PRE(I,J) = ( 0.2*P1 + P2 +0.8*P3 ) * Z0(I,J)**(10./3.)

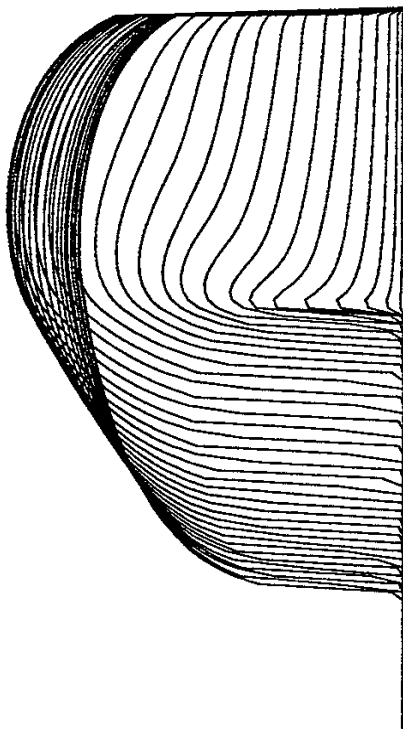
C
      DUT1 = 1.5
      DUT3 = ( 1.D-18*ZV**(-0.75) + DLOG(ZV*1.D22) )
&      *( 1.61*A(13)*ZT**(-2.0733333)
&      - 0.22*A(12)*ZT**(-0.853333) )
&      *( A(12)*ZT**0.146666 + A(13)*ZT**(-1.073333) )**(-2.5)
      DUT4 = 1.5*ZT*( 2.2 + ZT )*( 1.1 + ZT ) ** (-2.0)

C
C<<<<<< THOMAS-FERMI SPECIFIC HEAT C_v*m_1/k_B=CVE >>>>>>
      CVE(I,J,K) = ( 0.2*DUT1 + 0.8*( DUT3+DUT4 ) ) * Z0(I,J,K)

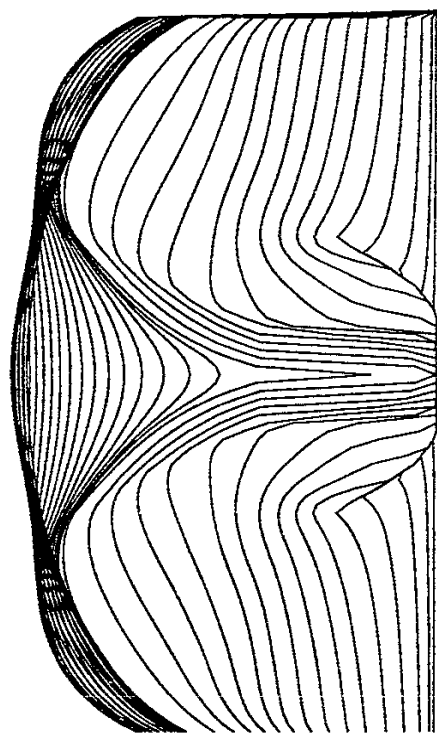
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Fig.5

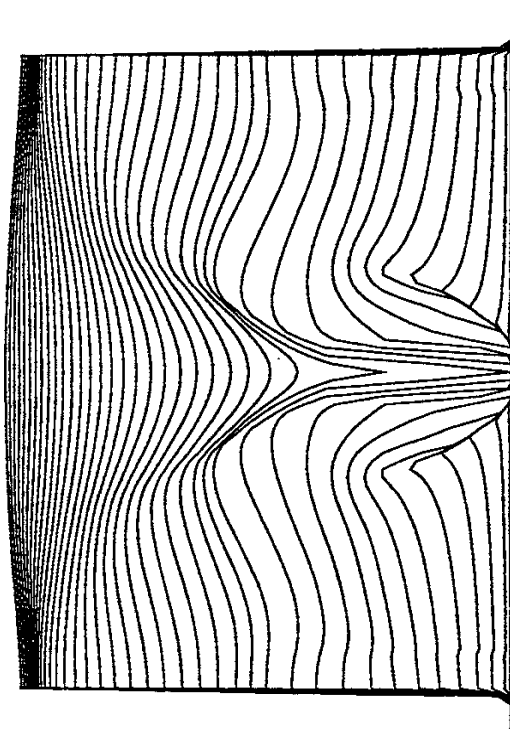
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

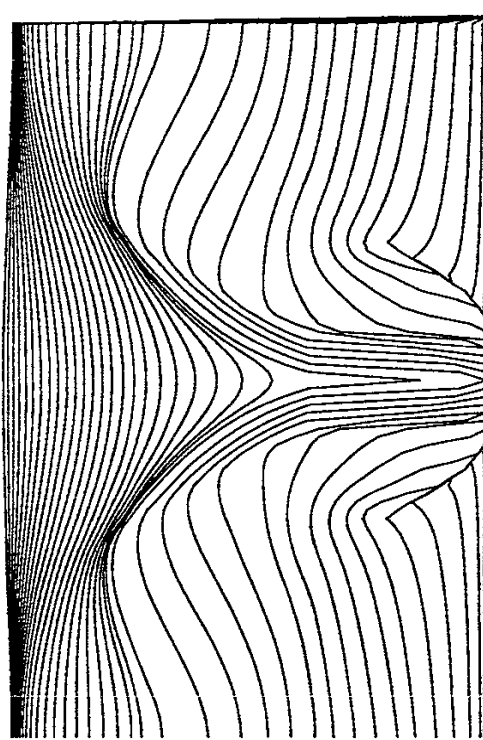


Fig. 7

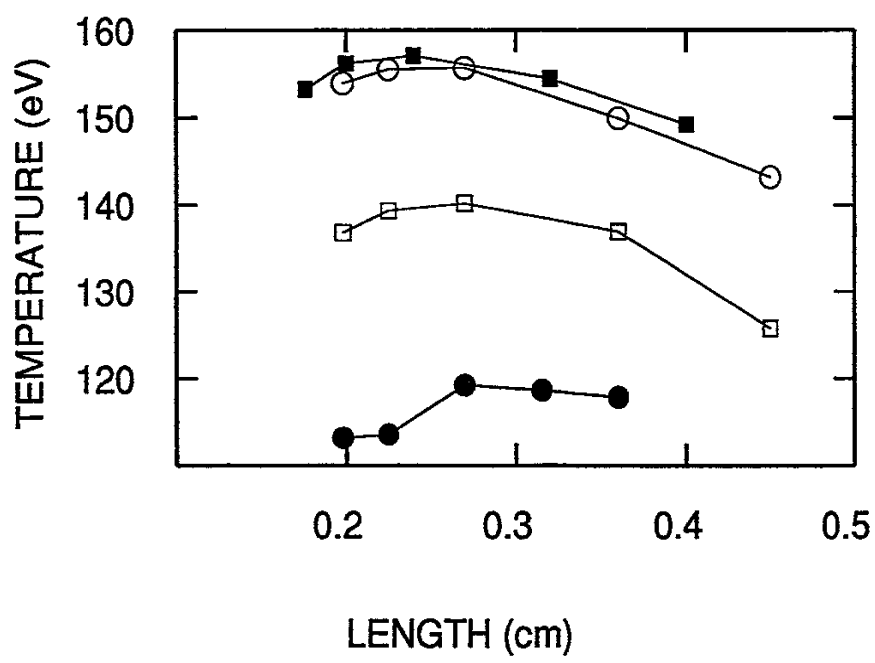


Fig.8

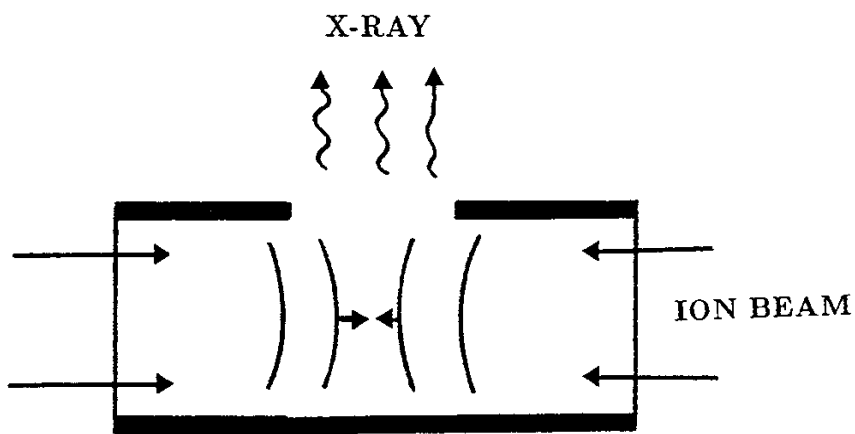


Fig.9

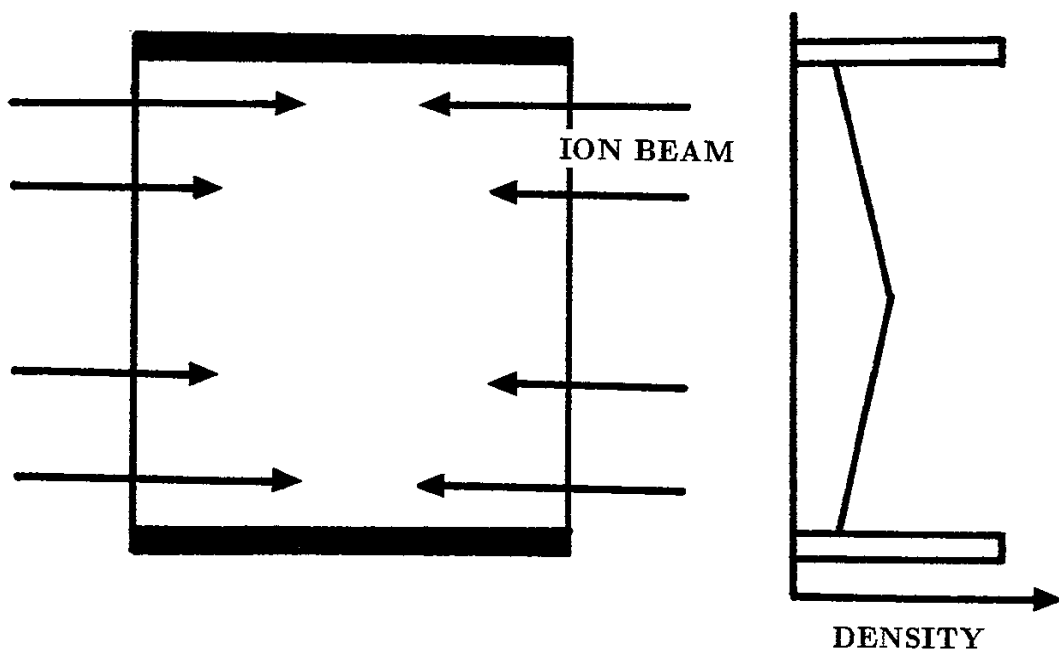


Fig.10

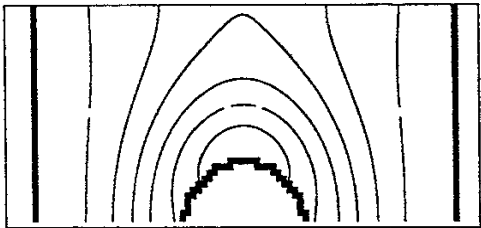
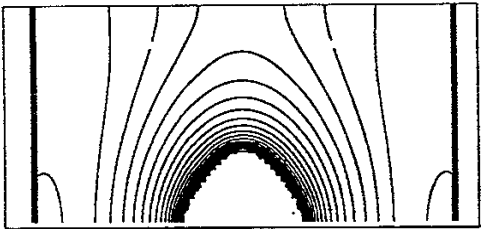
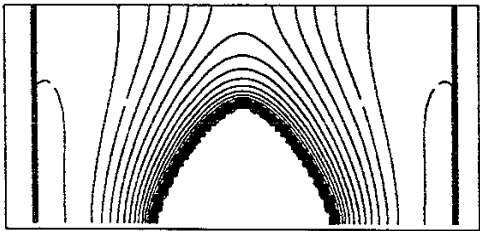
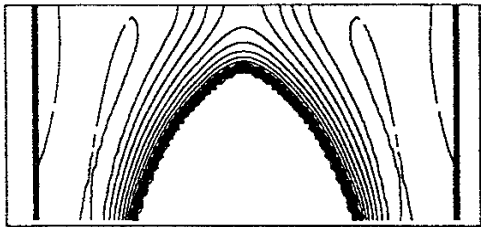


Fig.11

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