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Theory of the formation of a collisionless Weibel shock: pair vs. electron/proton plasmas

Antoine Bret\textsuperscript{1,2}, Anne Stockem-Novo\textsuperscript{3}, Ramesh Narayan\textsuperscript{4}, Charles Ruyer\textsuperscript{5}, Mark Eric Dieckmann\textsuperscript{6}, Luís O. Silva\textsuperscript{7}

\textsuperscript{1} ETSI Industriales, Universidad de Castilla-La Mancha, 13071 Ciudad Real, Spain
\textsuperscript{2} Instituto de Investigaciones Energéticas y Aplicaciones Industriales, Campus Universitario de Ciudad Real, 13071 Ciudad Real, Spain
\textsuperscript{3} Institut für Theoretische Physik, Lehrstuhl IV: Weltraum- and Astrophysik, Ruhr-Universität, 44801 Bochum, Germany
\textsuperscript{4} Harvard-Smithsonian Center for Astrophysics, 60 Garden Street, MS-51 Cambridge, MA 02138, USA
\textsuperscript{5} High Energy Density Science Division, SLAC National Accelerator Laboratory, Menlo Park, CA 94025, USA
\textsuperscript{6} Department of Science and Technology, Linköping University, SE-60174 Norrköping, Sweden
\textsuperscript{7} GoLP/Instituto de Plasmas e Fusão Nuclear - Laboratório Associado, Instituto Superior Técnico, Lisboa, Portugal
Abstract

Collisionless shocks are shocks in which the mean free path is much larger than the shock front. They are ubiquitous in astrophysics and the object of much current attention as they are known to be excellent particle accelerators that could be the key to the cosmic rays enigma. While the scenario leading to the formation of a fluid shock is well known, less is known about the formation of a collisionless shock. We present theoretical and numerical results on the formation of such shocks when two relativistic and symmetric plasma shells (pair or electron/proton) collide. As the two shells start to interpenetrate, the overlapping region turns Weibel unstable. A key concept is the one of trapping time $\tau_p$, which is the time when the turbulence in the central region has grown enough to trap the incoming flow. For the pair case, this time is simply the saturation time of the Weibel instability. For the electron/proton case, the filaments resulting from the growth of the electronic and protonic Weibel instabilities, need to grow further for the trapping time to be reached. In either case, the shock formation time is $2\tau_p$ in 2D, and $3\tau_p$ in 3D. Our results are successfully checked by PIC simulations and may help designing experiments aiming at producing such shocks in the lab.
1 Introduction

Shockwaves constitute one of the most basic concept in fluid mechanic. Already in 1808, Poisson derived the non-linear equation for the evolution of a large amplitude sound wave (Poisson 1808). Few years later, in 1848, Stokes understood that the solutions of the equation derived by Poisson necessarily evolve a discontinuity, i.e., what we now call a “shockwave” (Stokes 1848, Salas 2007).

Shockwaves can also be generated when two media move with respect to each other at a velocity larger than the speed of sound in one of them. Due to such a large amount of potential, and mundane, generators, shockwaves are ubiquitous in fluid mechanic. Of course, the shock front is not a mathematical discontinuity. In order to slow down at the front, an upstream particle can only collide more often with the others. The shock front is therefore a few mean free path thick, that is, a discontinuity in the fluid limit. Here, the front size is of the order of the mean free path (Zel’dovich & Raizer 2002).

Let us now turn to the Earth bow shock, namely, the shock of the Earth magnetosphere within the solar wind. In situ measurements by the 4 “Cluster” satellites indicate a shock front some 100 km thick (Bale et al. 2003, Schwartz et al. 2011). Yet, the proton mean free path at this location is about $10^8$ km (Kasper et al. 2008). Here, the shock front is 6 orders of magnitude smaller than the mean free path. How can this be?

Starting with the pioneering works of Sagdeev (Sagdeev 1966), such shocks have been studied from the 1960’s and dubbed “collisionless shocks”. A number of review paper are now available, where the reader will find about our current knowledge regarding their characteristics, both macroscopic and
microscopic (Treumann 2009, Marcowith et al. 2016). Among the various aspects of these shocks that are currently under investigation, the way they are formed is of significant importance, be it to guide experimental efforts aiming at producing them in the lab (Fiuza et al. 2012, Chen et al. 2013, Sarri et al. 2015). Such is the topic of this article.

Beside their ubiquity in astrophysics, collisionless shocks have been under scrutiny for decades (Bell 1978, Blandford & Ostriker 1978), because they could hold the key to two of the most intriguing contemporary enigmas: high energy cosmic-rays and gamma-ray-bursts (Vietri et al. 2003, Piran 2005).

As previously noted, a fluid shock can be launched by colliding two media at a velocity larger than the speed of sound in one of them. Yet, if both media are collisionless plasmas shells, there is no “collision”, as the two shells will start interpenetrating instead. At low energy, the interaction between them can be mediated by the potential jump originating from the Debye sheets at their borders (if any) (Stockem et al. 2014). But at high energies, each shell seamlessly runs over the Debye sheet of the other, and the region where the two shells overlap features a counter-streaming plasma system. This counter-streaming system is the key to the shock formation.

Counter-streaming plasma systems are notoriously unstable. Consider Figure 1, with symmetric, initially cold shells, heading toward each other with a Lorentz factor $\gamma_0$. The dominant instability in the overlapping region is the Weibel one as soon as $\gamma_0 > \sqrt{3/2}$ (Bret et al. 2013). It grows unstable modes with a wave vector normal to the flow.

Although the unstable “history” differs whether one deals with pair or electron/proton plasmas, the outcome is the same in both cases: after a
time $\tau_p$ that we shall call the “trapping time”, the flow which keeps entering the overlapping region is trapped inside. The growth of one, or various, instabilities generated enough turbulence to block the incoming flow. From the macroscopic point of view, we thus have a region of space, the overlapping region at $t = \tau_p$, where the bulk velocity is 0. This is the onset of the shock formation.

As already hinted, the saturation time is not reached the same way whether the system consists in pair, or electron/proton plasmas. This is why the rest of the article is divided into two main parts. In section 2, the case of pair plasmas is examined. We also explain there how the system evolves from the trapping time to the shock formation time. Then in section 3, we turn to the slightly more involved case of electron/proton plasmas. Finally, the validity of the Rankine-Hugoniot relations for a collisionless shock is discussed in section 4.

2 Pair plasmas

The encounter of two relativistic, symmetric, un-magnetized, and cold pair plasmas shells, is the simplest possible setting in various respects. The absence of mass difference between species renders PIC simulations easier. In the cold un-magnetized regime, we have exact analytical expressions for the growth rates of the instabilities involved (Bludman et al. 1960, Faïnberg et al. 1970, Bret et al. 2010a). Finally, the dominant instability (Weibel) is always the same in the relativistic regime (Bret & Deutsch 2006, Bret et al. 2005, Bret et al. 2008).

The setup considered is pictured in Figure 1. In the present case of two
Figure 1: Setup considered. Two plasma shells are heading toward each other. As they overlap, the overlapping region turns Weibel unstable. After the trapping time $\tau_p$, the turbulence in the central region has become strong enough to trap the incoming flow. The shock formation follows. In section 2, two pair plasma shells are considered. In section 3, these are two electron/proton plasmas.
pair plasmas, both electrons and positrons turn unstable when the shells start to overlap. All kinds of unstable modes grow out of the interaction, but the fastest growing ones are the Weibel modes. There are found for a wave vector normal to the flow, which is why they form filaments (Huntington et al. 2015). In the relativistic regime, their growth rate is (Bret et al. 2010b),

\[ \delta = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\gamma_0} \omega_p^{-1}}, \]

where \( \omega_p^2 = 4\pi n_0 e^2/m_e \) is the electronic, or positronic, plasma frequency of the shells.

We thus have the Weibel instability growing, until it saturates at the saturation time \( \tau_s \) which can be determined in terms of the growth rate (1), the field at saturation, and the spontaneous fluctuations of the shells before they collide (Bret et al. 2013). When Weibel reaches saturation, the density in the overlapping region is still the sum of the two shells’ density. The reason for this is that just before saturation, the linear regime was still valid, imposing only slight density perturbations. If, then, the density in the central region was still \( \sim 2n_0 \) at \( \tau_s - \epsilon \), it cannot be otherwise at \( \tau_s \). At this stage, the density “jump” is therefore only 2, far from the one expected from the Rankine-Hugoniot relation (see section 4).

How then is a shock formed from this point? By trapping the incoming flow in the overlapping region. Indeed, this region of space is now occupied by magnetic filaments which peak field value and characteristic length are known (Davidson et al. 1972). From these data, one can compute the distance \( L \) the incoming flow can cover before being randomized (Lyubarsky & Eichler 2006, Bret 2015). As it turns, \( L \) is always smaller than the size of the overlapping
region at saturation (Bret et al. 2013, Bret et al. 2014). As a consequence, this region no longer expands after saturation, and the bulk velocity inside is 0. Here, the trapping time is therefore identical to the saturation time, $\tau_p = \tau_s$.

A shock has just been formed in velocity space. From this moment, the density in the central region is going to increase until it meets the expected density jump, namely 3 in 2 dimensions, and 4 in 3 dimensions (Blandford & McKee 1976, Stockem et al. 2012). If it took one saturation time $\tau_s$ to bring the central density from 1 to 2, and assuming the same region no longer expands after saturation, then we shall need to wait another saturation time to raise the density jump to 3 (in 2D), and yet another saturation time to raise it to 4 (in 3D). The shock formation time is therefore given by,

$$\tau_f = d \tau_p,$$

where $d$ is the dimension of the problem. Note that this line of reasoning holds regardless of the shells’ composition. It only relies on the expected density jump, and on the flow being trapped at trapping time. Hence, Equation (1) is also valid for the case we now turn to, namely, electron/proton plasmas shells.

3 Electron/proton plasmas

This case can still be pictured by Figure 1, where each shell is now made of protons and electrons. Due to their smaller inertia, electrons turn Weibel unstable first, and grow magnetic filaments of size $\lambda_e$ and peak field $B_e$. Meanwhile, protons keep ploughing through the resulting bath of hot electrons,
and in turn get unstable. Here also, a number of unstable modes grow, but investigations of the full unstable spectrum showed that the fastest growing modes are, again, the Weibel’s ones (Shaisultanov et al. 2012).

As it is triggered, the protons’ Weibel instability does not start from a perfectly clean medium, but from a plasma where magnetic filaments of size $\lambda_e$ can already be found. Simply put, an unstable mode is already seeded, and it is further grown by the protons’ Weibel instability. When it reaches saturation, the peak field in the filaments in now

$$B_i = \sqrt{\frac{m_p}{m_e}} B_e$$

(3)

where $m_p$ is the proton mass. But their size is still the same, since the linear regime leaves unchanged the $k$ it grows.

Can magnetic filaments of size $\lambda_e$ and peak field $B_i$ efficiently trap the incoming ions? The answer is no. The main problem is that $\lambda_e$ is of the order of the electronic Larmor radius in the field $B_e$. In order to block the protons, $\lambda_e$ should also be the Larmor radius of the protons in the field $B_i$ (Bret 2015). Considering Eq. (3), one finds $\lambda_e$ is $\sqrt{m_e/m_p}$ too short for this. Therefore, at this stage, protons keep streaming through the overlapping region.

Fortunately, another process, widely studied in relation with the non-linear evolution of the Weibel instability, allows reaching the trapping time. It has been known for long that in this regime, the magnetic filaments originated by the growth of the instability, progressively merged and increase in size. A model for this growth, backed up by 2 and 3D PIC simulations, found that the size of the filaments grows linearly with time (Medvedev et al. 2005). The same model allows therefore to compute the time it takes
Figure 2: Comparison of the shock formation time given by the theory with the results of PIC simulations.

for the filaments to reach the correct size. Summing up this merging time to the saturation time of the protons’ Weibel instability (that of the electrons can be neglected), we find for the trapping time (Stockem Novo et al. 2015),

\[ \tau_p = 4.43 \sqrt{\lambda_0 \ln \frac{m_p}{m_e} \omega_{pp}^{-1}}, \]  

(4)

where \( \omega_{pp}^2 = 4\pi n_0 e^2/m_p \) is the protonic plasma frequency of the shells. Following the reasoning explained at the end of the previous section, the shock formation time is now,

\[ \tau_f = 4.43 d \sqrt{\lambda_0 \ln \frac{m_p}{m_e} \omega_{pp}^{-1}}. \]  

(5)

Note that if \( m_p = m_e \), this equation does not reduce to the shock formation time for pair plasmas since the electronic Weibel phase has been neglected. A series of 2D PIC simulations has been performed with the code OSIRIS to test our result (Fonseca et al. 2002). The result can be found on
Figure 3: Plot of Eq. (6) in terms of $m_p/m_e$ and $\Pi$. For a mass ratio of 1836, a shock in electron-proton plasma takes 100-200 more time to form than in pair plasmas.

Figure 2, evidencing a very good agreement theory-PIC.

At this junction, it is interesting to compare the shock formation time in pair and electron-proton plasmas. From Eqs. (2,5), we get (Bret et al. 2013),

$$\frac{\tau_{f,ep}}{\tau_{f,pairs}} = \frac{6.2}{\Pi} \ln \frac{m_p}{m_e} \sqrt{\frac{m_p}{m_e}},$$  

(6)

where $\Pi \sim 10$ to 20, is the number of exponentiations of the electronic Weibel instability. The function so defined is plotted on Figure 3 in terms of $\Pi$ and $m_p/m_e$. For a mass ratio of 1836, a shock in electron-proton plasmas requires 100-200 more time to form than in pair plasmas.
4 Rankine-Hugoniot

As evidenced previously, our determination of the shock formation hinges on the validity of the Rankine-Hugoniot (RH) jump condition. Within the relativistic regime where we operate, the expected RH density jump is 3 in 2D, and 4 in 3D (Stockem et al. 2012). To which extent should we expect its fulfillment for a collisionless shock?

These density jumps rely on the conservation of matter, momentum and energy across the shock front. If matter carries all the energy and momentum, then these jumps are correct, provided all the matter upstream goes downstream. In a collisionless shock this latter assumption may be challenged, for at least 2 reasons,

1. With a mean free path much larger than the shock front, some particles may bounce back from the upstream, or even come back upstream from the downstream (the shock front only goes at \( c/2 \) in 2D, and \( c/3 \) in 3D).

2. Collisionless shocks are known to accelerate particles and grow a high energy, non-Maxwellian tail (Krymskii 1977, Spitkovsky 2008). These high energy particles may go back and forth near the shock front, before escaping upstream or downstream.

In either case, part of the initial upstream energy and momentum escapes the RH budget, blurring the jump condition. Regarding the accelerated particles, the high energy tail grows with time like \( \sqrt{t} \), gathering more and more energy (Sironi et al. 2013). As a result, downstream temperatures of only 80% of the RH one have been observed in simulations (Caprioli & Spitkovsky 2014).

Yet, the present shock formation time relies, by definition, on the RH
density jump at the very beginning of the shock history. At this stage, no particles have been accelerated yet, and we are left with the first population above. To our knowledge, there is no theory of the amount of particles departing from a pure “upstream → downstream” trajectory. For the pair case, numerical explorations of this problem found that the deviation from the RH expected jump is initially of the order of the spontaneous density fluctuations behind the front (Stockem et al. 2012).

5 Conclusion

We have presented a theory for the formation of a collisionless Weibel shock, both in pair and electron/proton plasmas. The setup investigated consists in the generation of a shock from the encounter of two identical, cold, relativistic and un-magnetized plasma shells.

When the two shells start overlapping, the overlapping region turns unstable to the Weibel instability. A key concept related to the formation scenario is the one of trapping time $\tau_p$, which is the time at which the instability-generated turbulence in the overlapping region is able to trap the incoming flow. Once trapping have been achieved, the shock formation time is simply $2\tau_p$ in 2D, and $3\tau_p$ in 3D, namely $d\tau_p$ where $d$ is the dimension of the problem.

For pair plasmas, the trapping time equals the saturation time $\tau_s$ of the Weibel instability. By the time Weibel saturates, the magnetic filaments and the peak field are large enough to efficiently trap the incoming flow in the central region. Shock formation ensues at $2\tau_p$ or $3\tau_p$, depending of the geometry.

For electron/proton, the scenario leading to the shock formation is sig-
nificantly longer. As the two plasma shells overlap, electrons turn Weibel unstable first. When this instability saturates, it has seeded an unstable mode that is further grown by the proton Weibel instability. This later instability then saturates in turn, but the filaments it grew are too small to trap the incoming ion flow. We must then wait for the filaments to merge, until they are big enough to trap the ion flow. This is when the trapping time $\tau_p$ is reached. As was the case for the pair plasmas, shock formation follows at $2\tau_p$ or $3\tau_p$, depending on the geometry. Equations (2) and (5) for the shock formation time in pair and electron/proton plasmas have been successfully checked by means of PIC simulations.

The ratio of the formation time in pair to the formation time in electron/proton plasmas is an interesting quantity, in particular when it comes to designing an experiment aiming at producing such shocks in the lab. Depending on the number of exponentiations of the electronic Weibel instability, and for a realistic proton to electron mass ratio, Eq. (6) shows that a shock in electron/proton plasmas requires 100 to 200 more time to form than in pairs. This, in turn, translates into the interaction length required between the two shells.

Although more work would be needed to determine more precisely the range of application of the Rankine-Hugoniot jump conditions, simulations show they are tightly fulfilled at the beginning of the shock history. The reason for this is that the high energy tail the shock grows with time, has not developed yet. Future works may also contemplate the effect of a non-zero temperature in the shells before they collide, or that of a external magnetic field.
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