

# Numerical study on Rayleigh-Taylor effect on cylindrically converging Richtmyer-Meshkov instability

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Evolution of a two-dimensional air/SF<sub>6</sub> single-mode interface is numerically investigated by an upwind CE/SE method under a cylindrically converging circumstance. The Rayleigh-Taylor effect caused by the flow deceleration on the phase inversion (RTPI) is highlighted. The RTPI was firstly observed in our previous experiment, but the related mechanism remains unclear. By isolating the three-dimensional effect, it is found here that the initial amplitude ( $a_0$ ), the azimuthal mode number ( $k_0$ ) and the re-shocking moment are the three major parameters which determine the RTPI occurrence. In the variable space of ( $k_0$ ,  $a_0$ ), a critical  $a_0$  for the RTPI occurrence is solved for each  $k_0$ , and there exists a threshold value of  $k_0$  below which the RTPI will not occur no matter what  $a_0$  is. There exists a special  $k_0$  corresponding to the largest critical  $a_0$ , and the reduction rule of critical  $a_0$  with  $k_0$  can be well described by an exponential decay function. The results show that the occurrence of the RTPI requires a small  $a_0$  which should be less than a critical value, a large  $k_0$  which should exceed a threshold, and a right impinging moment of the re-shock which should be later than the RTPI occurrence. Finally, the effects of the incident shock strength, the density ratio and the initial position of the interface on the threshold value of  $k_0$  and on the maximum critical  $a_0$  are examined. These new findings would facilitate the understanding of the converging Richtmyer-Meshkov instability and would be helpful for designing an optimal structure of the inertia confinement fusion capsule.

**converging shock wave, Rayleigh-Taylor effect, Richtmyer-Meshkov instability**

## 1 Introduction

Richtmyer-Meshkov (RM) instability occurs when an initially perturbed interface separating two different fluids is accelerated by a shock wave [1, 2], and plays a central role in understanding the hydrodynamic processes involved in inertial confinement fusion (ICF) [3], supersonic combustion [4] and supernova explosions [5]. The RM instability primarily results from the baroclinic vorticity caused by the misalign-

ment of the pressure gradient across the shock with the density gradient across the interface. The induction of the baroclinic forces also dominates the Rayleigh-Taylor (RT) instability [6] in which the pressure gradient is caused by a force field. Unlike the RT instability where the perturbation can be either unstable or stable depending on whether the acceleration is directed from the lighter fluid to the heavier one or vice versa, the perturbation in RM instability is always unstable, regardless of the direction of the shock impact.

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During past few decades, the interaction of a planar shock with a two-dimensional (2D) single-mode interface was studied extensively [7-10]. However, the physical background of ICF cares more about the interaction of a converging shock with a disturbed interface. As a result, the converging RM instability has become an imperative [11, 12]. Compared with the planar RM instability in which only the spanwise direction is involved, the converging RM instability is much more complicated because both the radial and angular directions need to be considered. Based on the linear model of small disturbance proposed by Taylor [6] for the planar RT stability, Bell [13] and Plesset [14] respectively extended the linear model to cylindrical and spherical cases following the incompressible hypothesis. In the cylindrical geometry, the development of a single-mode disturbance is described by

$$a_{tt} + 2\frac{R_t}{R}a_t + (k_0A + 1)\frac{R_{tt}}{R}a = 0, \quad (1)$$

where  $a$  is the perturbation amplitude,  $k_0$  is the azimuthal mode number,  $A$  is Atwood number defined as  $A = (\rho_2 - \rho_1)/(\rho_2 + \rho_1)$  with  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$  being the densities of the incident and transmitted fluids, respectively,  $R$  is mean cylindrical radius of the moving interface and is usually defined as the radius of an unperturbed interface. The subscript ‘ $t$ ’ represents the derivative of quantity with respect to time, and similarly hereinafter. In this formula, the interface radius  $R$  varies with time, which is the major difference from the planar RT instability. This geometrical effect is called Bell-Plesset (BP) effect and it disappears when  $R$  tends to infinity. To deal with the compressible case, Bell suggested that a uniform compression term  $\rho_t/\rho$ , which satisfies the potential equation  $\nabla^2\Phi = -\rho_t/\rho$  with  $\Phi$  the potential function and  $\rho$  the average value of  $\rho_1$  and  $\rho_2$ , stands for the compressibility. Thus, the formula is re-derived here as:

$$a_{tt} + \left(2\frac{R_t}{R} + \frac{\rho_t}{\rho}\right)a_t + \left[(k_0A + 1)\frac{R_{tt}}{R} + \frac{\rho_t R_t}{\rho R} + \frac{\rho\rho_{tt} - \rho_t^2}{\rho^2}\right]a = 0. \quad (2)$$

In the converging RM instability, the impact of imploding shock will result in an instantaneous increment for the convection velocity of interface  $R_t(0^+)$  and the growth rate of perturbation  $a_t(0^+)$ . Following the impulsive model by Richtmyer [1], Mikaelian [15] put forward an incompressible equation by regarding the shock as an impulsive acceleration ( $g = R_{tt} = \Delta v\delta t$ ) with  $\Delta v$  the interface velocity jump induced by the shock and neglecting the weak change of the convection velocity in the early stage,

$$a(t) = (0^+) \left[ 1 + (k_0A^+ + 1) \left( \frac{R_0}{R} - 1 \right) \right], \\ a_t = a(0^+) (k_0A^+ + 1) \Delta v \frac{R_0}{R^2}, \quad (3)$$

with  $R_0$  the initial interface radius and  $A^+$  the post-shock Atwood number. Recently, some simplifications have been implemented to analyze the coupled features between nonlinear effect and BP effect in the nonlinear stage [16-19]. A common feature of these models is that the BP effect offsets a part of the feedback from high-order nonlinearity to the fundamental mode, which extends the linear stage compared with the planar RM instability, coinciding with the result of laser driven experiment [20]. Some numerical work [21-23] focused on the effect of the reflected shock which is inevitable in the converging RM instability. Actually, before the reshock (the interaction of the reflected shock from center with the interface), the convection velocity of the shocked interface is unsteady. Therefore, the third term  $R_{tt}$  in eq. (1) will continuously contribute to the interface development compared with the planar RM instability. This additional effect in converging geometry will cause RT instability or stability depended on whether the lighter fluid accelerates heavier fluid or vice versa. Therefore, the coupling of BP effect, RT effect, RM instability and reshock greatly complicates the converging RM instability.

At early stages of the converging RM instability, the convection velocity of interface varies little, and eq. (3) provides a fairly good description of the perturbation evolution. When the interface approaches the focusing point, the pressure gradient in the radial direction is so notable that the RT effect cannot be ignored any more. Lombardini et al. [24, 25] performed large-eddy simulations of turbulent mixing about spherically converging RM instability, and indicated that the RT instability appears during the circulatory velocity-variation process and the baroclinic instabilities (RM and RT) dominate the perturbation growth on the whole evolutionary process when the convergence ratio is far less than 30. In our previous work [26], the interaction of a cylindrically converging shock with an air/SF<sub>6</sub> interface was experimentally studied, and the interface amplitude was found to decrease continuously and even to be negative before the reshock, which was ascribed to the strong and long-term effect of RT stabilization (RT-induced phase inversion, RTPI). Here we should point out that for a single shock impact, the “normal phase inversion” generally occurs for a heavy/light interface, and the “RTPI” generally occurs for a light/heavy interface with small initial amplitude and high wave number. The RTPI will be helpful to find a freezing interface in ICF, and needs further investigations. Unfortunately, the soap film technique created a three-dimensional (3D) interface in our experiment, and it was difficult to discriminate the RT stabilization effect from the 3D effect on the RTPI since both of them contribute to the decline of the amplitude growth. Meanwhile, it was concluded that this RTPI occurs only when the initial perturbation amplitude is small enough. However,

the mechanism and the dominant parameters of the RTPI such as how small the initial perturbation can trigger the RTPI remain unclear. In this work, we aim to numerically investigate the evolution of a 2D single-mode interface in a cylindrical geometry to eliminate the 3D effect such that the RT stabilization effect on the RTPI is emphasized. The first step is to find whether a critical state exists for the RTPI emergence in a large range of initial wavenumber and initial amplitude, and then the influences of other initial parameters such as the incident shock strength, Atwood number and initial location of the interface on the RTPI will be examined.

## 2 Numerical method

To describe the compressible multi-component flow problem, we employ a quasi-conservative five-equation model [27]. The governing equations of the volume fraction-based five-equation model [28] can then be expressed as:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \alpha_i}{\partial t} + \mathbf{V} \cdot \nabla \alpha_i &= 0, \quad i = 1 \text{ or } 2, \\ \frac{\partial \rho_i \alpha_i}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho_i \alpha_i \mathbf{V}) &= 0, \quad i = 1 \text{ and } 2, \\ \frac{\partial \rho \mathbf{V}}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{V} \otimes \mathbf{V} + p \mathbf{I}) &= 0, \quad \otimes \text{ is the Kronecker product,} \\ \frac{\partial E}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot [\mathbf{V}(E + p)] &= 0, \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where  $\alpha_i$  denotes the volume fraction of fluid  $i$ ,  $\rho_i$  the density of fluid  $i$ ,  $\rho$  the density of the mixture,  $\mathbf{V}$  the velocity vector,  $p$  the pressure,  $E$  the total energy and  $\mathbf{I}$  the unit matrix. The equation of state of perfect gas is employed to close the system,

$$p = (\gamma - 1)(E - \frac{1}{2}\rho \mathbf{V} \cdot \mathbf{V}), \quad (5)$$

where

$$\frac{1}{\gamma - 1} = \sum \frac{\alpha_i}{\gamma_i - 1}. \quad (6)$$

The total density and the sound speed of the mixture can be respectively calculated as:

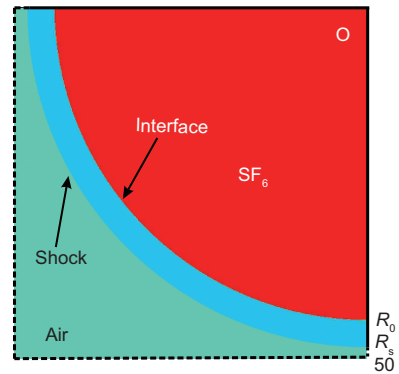
$$\rho = \sum \alpha_i \rho_i, \quad c = \sqrt{\gamma(p)/\rho}. \quad (7)$$

We note that this model can prevent pressure oscillation across an interface separating two materials.

The five-equation model is solved by an upwind space-time conservation element and solution element (CE/SE) scheme with second-order accuracy in both temporal and spatial scales [29, 30]. The upwind CE/SE scheme is a minor modification of the centered CE/SE scheme originally proposed by Chang [31] such that it inherits most properties

of the central scheme and significantly improves the calculation accuracy of the contact discontinuities by introducing an upwind flux in the evaluation of spatial derivatives. The rotated HLLC flux which can sharply capture the interfaces and achieve carbuncle-free results is adopted in this study. Furthermore, a simple limiter is employed to strictly preserve the positivity of volume fractions without loss of accuracy and conservativeness [32]. The detailed descriptions and extensive verifications and applications on complex flow can be found in the references [29, 30, 32-34].

We first perform a validation of the numerical method by comparing numerical results with our previous experiments [35], in which a cylindrically converging shock interacting with unperturbed and perturbed cylindrical interfaces was investigated. These experiments present nice 2D feature. In numerical configuration, a  $90^\circ$  computational domain with the dimensions of  $50 \text{ mm} \times 50 \text{ mm}$ , as sketched in Figure 1, is adopted. As a result, if an initial perturbed interface is involved, the interface must be perpendicular to the upper and right walls (crest or trough) to avoid the reflection from the walls, i.e., the azimuthal mode number adopted in the computational domain should be an even number. The initial discontinuous interface sharply separates  $\text{SF}_6$  inside from air outside, and both gases are assumed to be perfect gases at initial temperature and pressure of 298 K and 101325 Pa, respectively. A uniform state behind the initially imploding shock is considered, in which the density, pressure and radial velocity are calculated from Rankine-Hugoniot relation. The reflection conditions are applied to right and top boundaries, while non-reflection conditions to left and bottom boundaries. To avoid the possible singularity of two different boundary conditions on the left-top and right-bottom corners, the virtual mesh points on top and right boundaries close to the corners are specified as inflow condition. In this way, the meshes at the corners are dealt with the same boundary condition in both  $x$  and  $y$  directions, which eliminates the singularity. Note



**Figure 1** (Color online) The schematic of the computational domain and boundary condition of unperturbed case. The solid and dashed lines represent the reflective and non-reflective boundaries, respectively.

that this treatment produces a negligible influence on the whole instability development.

In experiments, the gas inside is not pure SF<sub>6</sub> but a mixture of SF<sub>6</sub> and air. Based on the velocities of the incident shock wave and the transmitted shock waves, the properties of the mixture inside the interface will be firstly determined according to one-dimensional gas dynamics theory. The comparison of the experiments with the numerical simulations will provide more accurate values of the properties. The properties of the mixture and the numerical parameters are listed in Table 1, which are the same as those in experiments [35]. Before computations, the grid convergence is checked. The density profiles for different rectangular mesh sizes along the radius direction at  $t = 50 \mu\text{s}$  after a converging shock impinging an unperturbed cylindrical air/SF<sub>6</sub> interface are considered. The initial conditions are the same as those in unperturbed case in our previous experiments. As presented in Figure 2, the density profiles are convergent as the mesh size reduces. To save the computational cost, the mesh size of 0.1 mm is chosen. However, for the cases with high wave numbers, the mesh size is refined to 0.05 or 0.025 mm. Qualitative and quantitative comparisons of movements of shock waves and interface during the interaction of a converging shock with an unperturbed interface are given in Figures 3 and 4. Generally a good agreement is achieved. Further, the shock behaviors and interface morphologies after a converging shock interacting with a perturbed interface with three different initial amplitudes ( $a_0 = 1, 2$  and  $3$  mm) are compared. Take the experiment ( $a_0 = 1$  mm) as an example for comparing the interface morphology and wave pattern. As shown in Figure 5, the numerical method nicely captures the evolution of the interface and waves. The interface amplitudes for three cases from numerical simulations are shown in Figure 6, which presents a very good agreement with the experimental measurements at all stages, including the reshock stage.

### 3 Results and discussion

Previous work [26, 35] showed that after the passage of a cylindrically converging shock, the movement of an unperturbed interface will experience three stages: a nearly steady

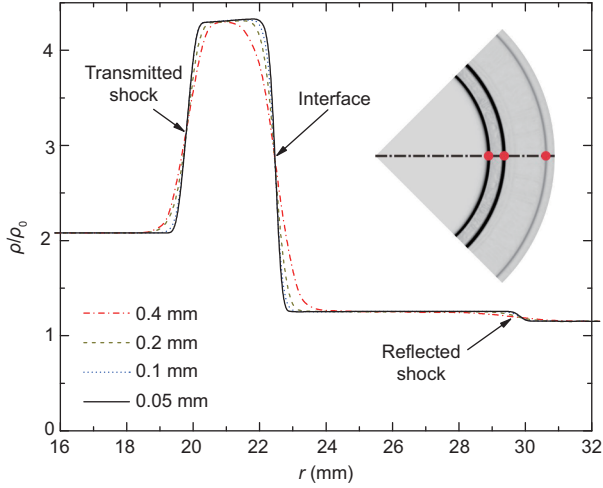
phase with a constant velocity at first, an inward-moving decelerating phase before reshock, and an outward-moving decelerating phase after reshock. If the initial interface is disturbed, the RT stabilization effect (heavier fluid accelerates lighter one) during the inward-moving deceleration phase before reshock will suppress the perturbation growth, possibly causing the occurrence of phase inversion, and RT instability (lighter fluid accelerates heavier one) coupled with RM instability will dominate the flow after reshock. The physical parameters which may influence the existence of phase inversion before the reshock include the initial amplitude  $a_0$ , azimuthal mode number  $k_0$ , initial Atwood number  $A$ , shock Mach number  $M_0$  when incident shock impacts interface, and initial interface radius  $R_0$ . In this work, the influence of  $a_0$  on the RTPI is first under consideration while keeping other parameters fixed. Subsequently, how other parameters affect the RTPI will be discussed. In numerical setup, a 90° computational domain with the dimensions of 220 mm × 220 mm is adopted. The initial stationary cylindrical interface and imploding shock are positioned at  $R_0 = 195$  mm and  $R_s = 212$  mm, respectively, which are the same as those in our experiment [26]. Besides, both gases are regarded as pure in computation, differing from the experimental settings where the gas contamination must be considered. Also, nitrogen is chosen as an ambient gas in computation instead of air in experiment. The initially converging shock with an intensity of  $Ma = 1.25$  moves inward and when it meets the interface, the intensity increases to 1.26 calculated by the CCW relation [36-38]. The other numerical settings are the same as those described in sect. 2.

#### 3.1 Evolution of perturbed interface with different initial amplitudes

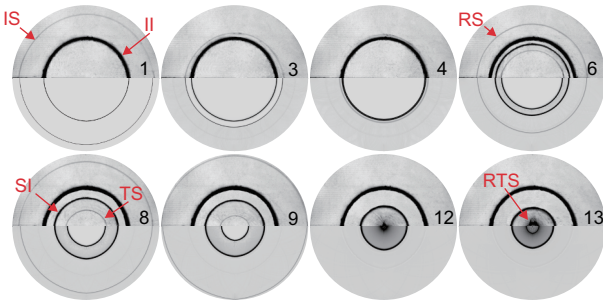
For a single-mode interface, the equation of interface shape can be described as  $r = R_0 + a_0 \cos(k_0\theta)$ . Here we will first discuss the influence of  $a_0$  on the RTPI by keeping other parameters ( $M_0, A, R_0, k_0$ ) = (1.26, 0.68, 195 mm, 20) unchanged. The development of three disturbed interfaces (Cases I1, I2 and I3 with  $a_0 = 1.0, 1.65$  and  $2.0$  mm, respectively) is representatively shown in Figure 7 for the detail of the interface morphology. Time-variation of interface ampli-

**Table 1** Physical parameters of mixture inside for unperturbed interface and perturbed interface at temperature  $T_0 = 298$  K and pressure  $p_0 = 101325$  Pa. The ambient air is considered as pure.  $a_0$ , initial amplitude;  $Ma$ , initial shock Mach number;  $\gamma$ , specific heat ratio;  $\rho$ , density of gas;  $R_s$ , initial position of shock from the origin;  $R_0$ , initial position of interface from the origin

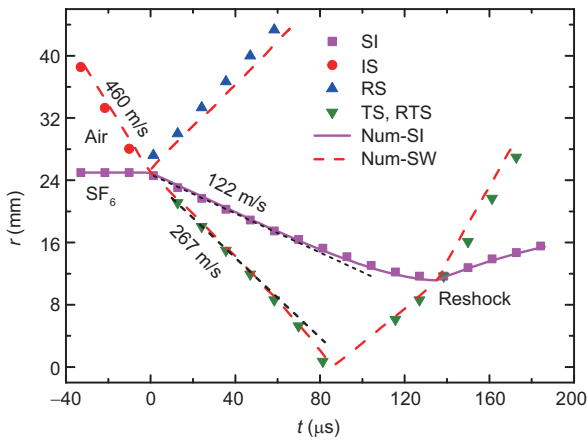
Case	$a_0$ (mm)	$Ma$	$\gamma$	$\rho$ (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	$R_s$ (mm)	$R_0$ (mm)
Unperturbed	0	1.27	1.152	3.611	38.6	25
Perturbed-Case1	1	1.23	1.157	3.49	41.9	24.2
Perturbed-Case2	2	1.26	1.135	4.09	41.1	24.3
Perturbed-Case3	3	1.27	1.164	3.32	42.5	24.6



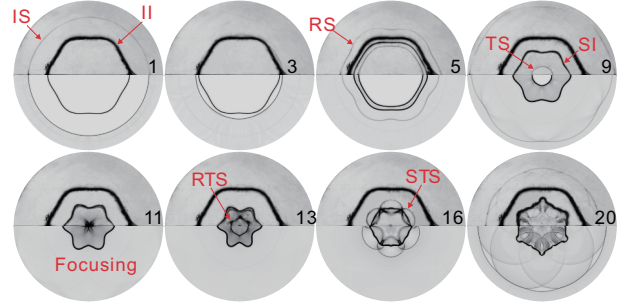
**Figure 2** (Color online) The density profiles for different mesh sizes along the radius direction at  $t = 50 \mu\text{s}$  after a cylindrically converging shock wave impacting a cylindrical air/SF<sub>6</sub> interface.



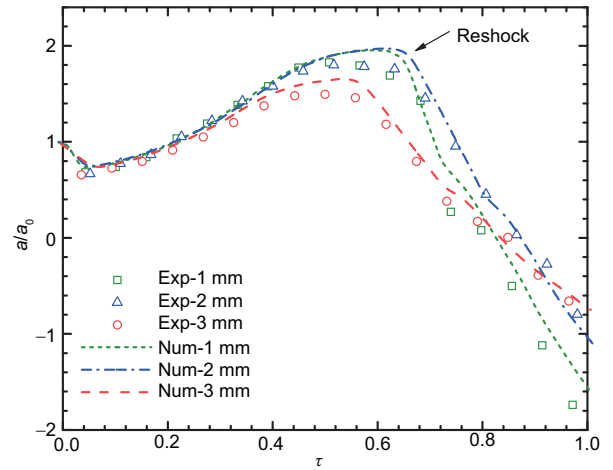
**Figure 3** (Color online) Evolution of an unperturbed cylindrical air/SF<sub>6</sub> interface impacted by a cylindrically converging shock wave. IS, incident shock; II, initial interface; TS, transmitted shock; RS, reflected shock; SI, shocked interface; RTS, reflected transmitted-shock. Interval:  $11.43 \mu\text{s}$ . Upper: experimental schlieren image; Lower: numerical schlieren image at the same instant.



**Figure 4** (Color online) Time variations of the interface displacement and shock positions. Symbols are the same as those in Figure 3. The dashed lines are used to determine the waves speeds.

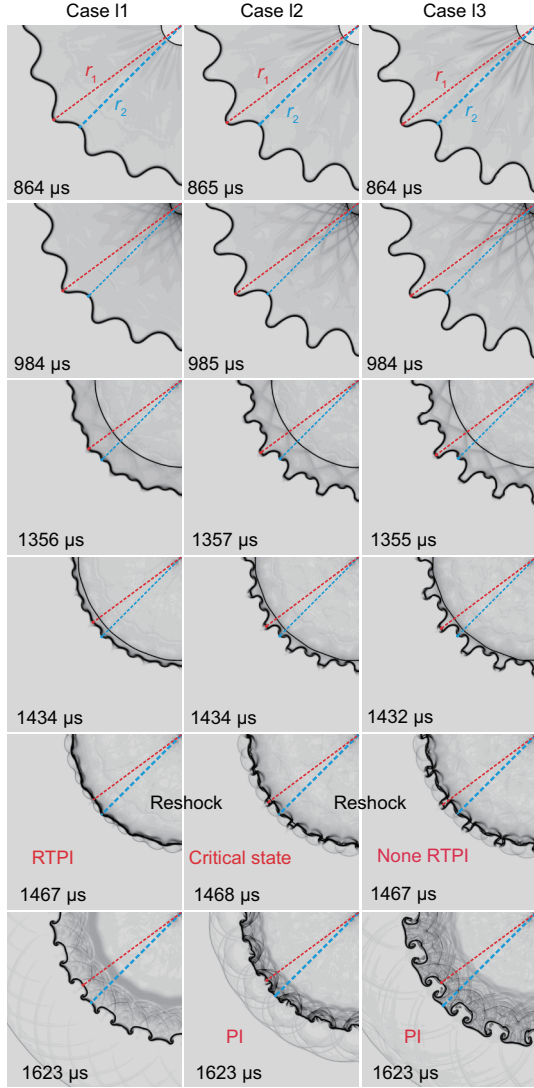


**Figure 5** (Color online) The evolution of the single-mode interface for Perturbed-Case1 as listed in Table 1. Upper: experimental schlieren image; lower: numerical schlieren image at the same instant. STS, secondary transmitted shock. Other symbols have the same meaning as those in Figure 3.



**Figure 6** (Color online) Comparison of interface amplitudes between the experiments and computations for the three cases listed in Table 1.

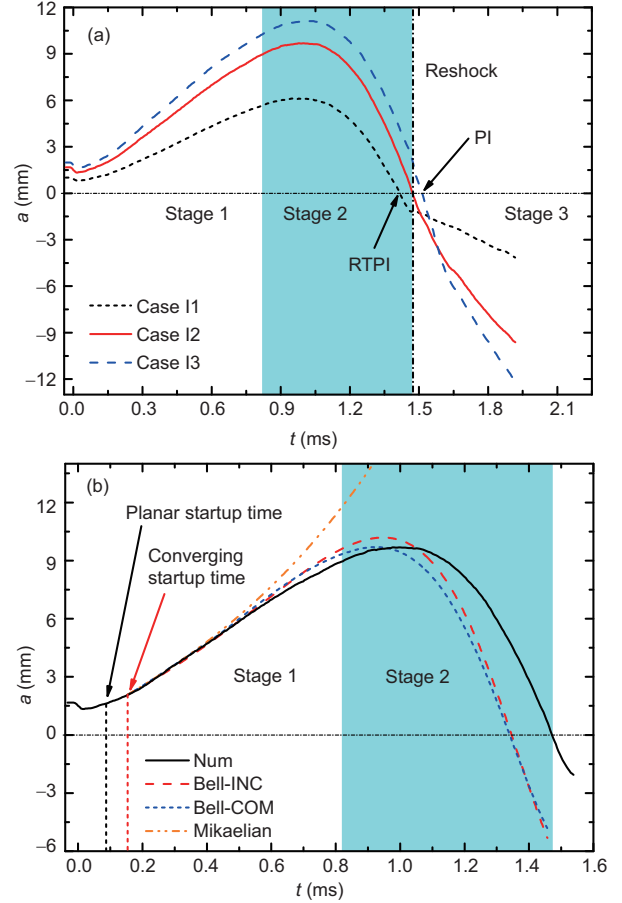
tude, defined as  $a = (r_1 - r_2)/2$  where  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are respectively the varying radii of crest and trough near the diagonal as shown in Figure 7, is plotted in Figure 8(a). The amplitude evolution can also be divided into three stages after the compression, corresponding to the counterparts in undisturbed case. At the first stage, the amplitude increases because of the RM instability, and the weak convergence effect has a limited influence on the linear growth of perturbation before  $t_1 \approx 820 \mu\text{s}$ . During the second stage before reshock, the amplitude reduces for all cases owing to the RT stabilization effect which is caused by the stronger adverse pressure gradient near the geometry origin. It is observed that the amplitude in Case I1 reduces to be negative before reshock, indicating the RTP1 occurrence ( $t = 1356\text{-}1434 \mu\text{s}$ ). The amplitude in Case I3 is still positive before reshock, and thus the RTP1 does not occur. In Case I2, the amplitude is decreased to nearly zero at reshock-time, which means that the initial amplitude in Case I2 is almost the critical value for the RTP1 occurrence with other fixed initial parameters. As a result, a RTP1 only occurs with small initial amplitudes, verifying our experimental



**Figure 7** (Color online) The schlieren pictures showing the evolution of the single-mode interface for Cases I1, I2 and I3. PI: phase inversion.

work. After reshock, the reflected shock facilitates the occurrence of a normal phase inversion (PI) for an SF<sub>6</sub>/air interface in Cases I2 and I3 ( $t = 1467$ - $1623 \mu\text{s}$ ), while a normal PI is absent in Case I1. The RM instability caused by the reflected shock coupled with the RT instability greatly promotes the perturbation growth.

For the satisfactory of small perturbation hypothesis, three models (eqs. (1)-(3)) are applicable to predict the amplitude growth in Case I2. The numerical result shows that a startup time is needed to achieve the linear growth because the ripples from the transmitted shock and reflected shock need some times to be settled down. In a planar geometry, Lombardini and Pullin [39] regarded the transmitted and reflected shocks as moving boundaries and considered the flow field between them as an incompressible one, putting forward a startup time as:



**Figure 8** (Color online) Time-variation of interface amplitude in three perturbed cases (a), and comparison of amplitude growth between the numerical result and theoretical predictions from models for Case I2 (b). Bell-INC means the prediction by the incompressible Bell theory; Bell-COM means the prediction by the compressible Bell theory; Mikaelian means the prediction by the theory proposed by Mikaelian.

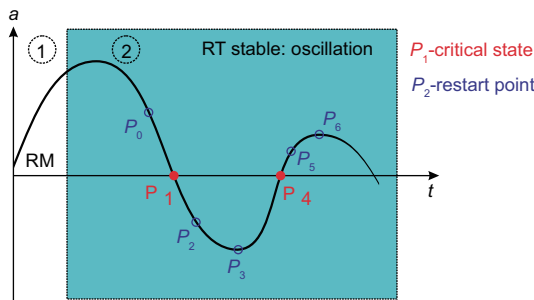
$$\tau = \frac{1}{2k} \left[ \frac{1 - A^+}{U_{s2}} + \frac{1 + A^+}{-U_{s1}} \right], \quad (8)$$

where  $k$  is wave number in the planar geometry,  $U_{s2}$  and  $-U_{s1}$  are speeds of reflected shock and transmitted shock relative to the interface, respectively. The prediction of startup time in the planar geometry has already been verified [39]. Similarly, we can transform the wave number in the converging geometry to that in planar geometry as  $k = k_0/R_0$ , and then the startup time in the converging case is estimated to be  $86.5 \mu\text{s}$ . However, the numerical result reveals that a startup time of  $\tau \approx 152 \mu\text{s}$  is needed to achieve the linear growth, which is about twice over the theoretical estimation. Based on the numerical startup time in the converging case, the predictions of amplitude growth for Case I2 are shown in Figure 8(b), together with the numerical result. In the theoretical predictions, the impulsive growth rate is considered as an initial value, and the growth rates are calculated by dis-

cretely numerical integration with  $R$ , the convection velocity  $R_t$  and the acceleration  $R_{tt}$  at each discrete step. The impulsive model gives a good prediction of the linear growth rate, while the predictions from three models deviate from the numerical result before the end of stage 1. The divergence of two Bell models from the numerical result is believed to be caused by weak nonlinearity. The estimation by Mikaelian's model deviates most from the numerical result because  $R_t$  is ignored in this model. In stage 2, although both Bell models provide a correct tendency of amplitude growth, the divergence between them is amplified, which may be caused by the flow compressibility. Although a uniform compression term  $\rho_t/\rho$  around the interface is adopted to describe the compressibility in eq. (2), the real  $\rho_t/\rho$  near the geometry center or the shock is quite different from the value near the interface. It is thought that this uniform compressible assumption is inappropriate to predict the amplitude development at late stages.

In Case II, the perturbation amplitude of the basic frequency  $a(k_0)$  does not undergo a normal PI during reshock. If we focus only on the perturbation of basic frequency, a sketch of the coupling between reshock and RT stabilization effect, as shown in Figure 9, can facilitate to understand why the normal PI does not occur in Case II. According to the model proposed by Taylor [6] with small perturbations, the classical RT stabilization effect owns an essentially periodic oscillatory behavior, i.e., the initial positive amplitude will reduce to negative and then reversely to positive again, behaving as an infinite loop if viscosity is neglected. In the converging case, however, the period would be shortening with time because the adverse pressure gradient becomes larger and larger.

As demonstrated by experiment and computation, the amplitude may reduce to negative induced by the RT stabilization effect in a light/heavy imploding configuration. Whether the normal PI occurs after reshock is dependent on the reshock-time. For small initial amplitudes, a critical state, i.e., the amplitude reduces to zero, denoted by  $P_1$  in Figure 9 exists before the RTPI occurs. If the reflected shock impinges the evolving interface before the critical state, such as  $P_0$  mo-



**Figure 9** (Color online) RT periodic phase diagram without considering the reshock.

ment in the first decline stage, the reflected shock will add a negative growth rate ( $-v_{RE}$  which is approximately proportional to the amplitude at the reshock-time) to the negative growth rate caused by the RT stabilization effect ( $-v_{RT}$ ), resulting in a quickly normal PI. Under this condition, a RTPI will not occur. Coincidentally, if the reflected shock encounters the interface at  $P_1$  moment, the reflected shock will not affect the perturbation growth rate, while the amplitude will continuously reduce to negative because of the RT stabilization effect. At this moment, the perturbation amplitude is zero, but the negative growth rate caused by the RT stabilization effect ( $-v_{RT}$ ) is the largest. If the reflected shock arrives at the interface after the critical moment, the RTPI will first occur. An additional critical state, as denoted by  $P_3$  where the amplitude is maximal and the growth rate induced by the RT stabilization effect is zero, exists theoretically. If the reflected shock reaches at  $P_3$  moment, the positive growth rate induced by the reflected shock ( $+v_{RE}$ ) is maximum, and will entirely dominate the interface because  $v_{RT}$  is zero. Finally, the reflected shock will result in occurrence of a normal PI. From  $P_1$  to  $P_3$  moments, the growth rate caused by the RT stabilization effect changes from the maximum to zero, while the growth rate caused by the reflected shock varies from zero to the maximum. When the reflected shock collides with the interface at the moment between  $P_1$  and  $P_3$ , the reflected shock will add a positive  $v_{RE}$  to the negative  $v_{RT}$ . There will be a balanced state as indicated by  $P_2$  at which the positive  $v_{RE}$  will exactly offset the negative  $v_{RT}$ . At the moments between  $P_1$  and  $P_2$ , the positive  $v_{RE}$  cannot offset the negative  $v_{RT}$ , but only decays the negative growth rate. As a result, a normal PI will not occur. At the moments between  $P_2$  and  $P_3$ , the positive  $v_{RE}$  exceeds the negative  $v_{RT}$ , and will lead to the emergence of a normal PI. Further, if the reflected shock reaches at the moments between  $P_3$  and  $P_4$ , where  $P_4$  is also a critical state with the maximum positive  $v_{RT}$  and zero amplitude, the reflected shock will add a positive  $v_{RE}$  to the positive  $v_{RT}$ , leading to occurrence of a normal PI quickly. If the periodic oscillation can develop to further stage before reshock, different types of the coupling between periodic RT stabilization effect and reflected shock may occur. In the present work, the state between  $P_0$  and  $P_1$ , the critical state  $P_1$ , and the state between  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  are found in the Cases I3, I2 and I1, respectively. Features of the interface at different reshock times are summarized in Table 2.

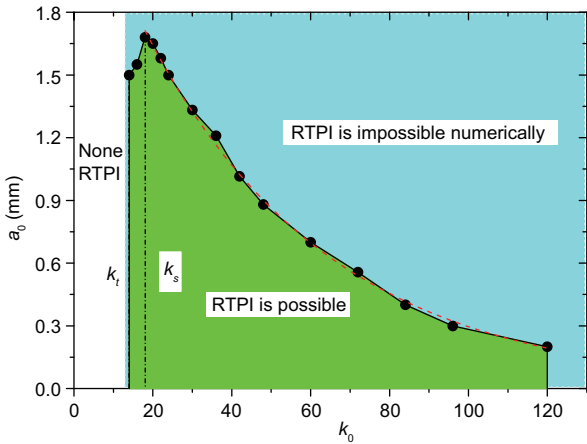
### 3.2 Effect of azimuthal mode number on critical initial amplitude

The critical state before reshock is a competitive result between the RT stabilization effect and the RM instability. Note that the increase of azimuthal mode number  $k_0$  promotes both

**Table 2** Features of the interface at different reshock times

Reshock time	$v_{RT}$	$v_{RE}$	State
$\langle P_0, P_1 \rangle$	–	–	Normal PI
$P_1$	MAX –	0	First critical
$\langle P_1, P_2 \rangle$	–	+	RTPI
$\langle P_2, P_3 \rangle$	–	+	Double PI
$\langle P_3, P_4 \rangle$	+	+	Double PI
$P_4$	MAX +	0	Second critical
...	...	...	...

RM instability and RT stabilization effect. The influence of  $k_0$  on the critical state can be assessed by finding the critical  $a_0$  for different  $k_0$ . Other parameters of  $(M_0, A, R_0) = (1.26, 0.68, 195 \text{ mm})$  are unvaried. Here keeping the parameters of  $(M_0, A, R_0)$  unchanged is categorized as Case I for the following discussion. The variation of critical  $a_0$  with  $k_0$ , termed as critical line, is given in Figure 10. Although the amplitude of the basic mode  $a(k_0)$  cannot thoroughly describe the interface morphology when  $k_0$  is large because of the strong nonlinearity, it can also be regarded as a meaningful assessment of the competition between the RM instability and the RT stabilization effect. One can find that a higher  $k_0$  generally needs a smaller  $a_0$  to achieve the critical state. For the same  $a_0$ , a higher  $k_0$  strengthens the contribution to the RM instability more than to the RT stabilization effect provided that the time scales of RM instability and RT stabilization effect are the same. Besides, once  $k_0$  is smaller than 14, a RTPI will not occur no matter what  $a_0$  is. Therefore,  $k_t = 14$  is defined as the threshold  $k_0$  for Case I. Further, a special  $k_0$  (named  $k_s$ ) corresponding to a maximum critical  $a_0$  ( $a_{0p}$ ) exists. The critical  $a_0$  increases (decreases) with  $k_0$  growing when  $k_0$  is smaller (larger) than  $k_s$ . The reason of existing this maximum critical value may lie in the different response of the RM



**Figure 10** (Color online) The effect of azimuthal mode number  $k_0$  on critical initial amplitude  $a_0$ .  $k_t$  and  $k_s$  are truncation and special azimuthal mode numbers, respectively. The dashed line represents fitting curve from attenuation function, and similarly hereinafter.

instability and the RT stabilization effect for different mode numbers. The RM instability favors the growth of the fundamental mode since it dominates in the linear stage, and the RT stabilization effect reduces higher modes more significantly because it is exerted on an involving interface. Therefore, the maximum critical  $a_{0p}$  ( $k_s$ ) represents the balance of the RM instability and the RT stabilization effect.

More attempts of two Bell models for predicting the amplitude growth are implemented by varying  $(k_0, a_0)$ . It is surprising that for  $k_0 = 20$ , the RTPI will always occur for any  $a_0$ , which is not true obviously. Moreover, a  $k_t$  is predicted according to the models of Bell, and the RTPI will (will not) occur for any  $a_0$  when  $k_0 > k_t$  ( $k_0 < k_t$ ). For finding the  $k_t$ , three situations with different startup times are adopted to initiate the calculation: (1) the startup time is ignored and the  $0^+$  moment is adopted; (2) the startup time of  $152 \mu\text{s}$  for  $k_0 = 20$  is adopted; (3) the variation of startup time with inverse ratio of  $k_0$  is adopted. For varying  $(k_0, a_0)$ , the  $k_t$  for three startup times are calculated to be 12.99, 12.75 and 13.11, respectively, according to the incompressible model, and 12.58, 12.50 and 12.62, respectively, based on the compressible model. As a result, although the Bell models cannot correctly predict the interface development for a long time and the RTPI, they can give a reasonable prediction of  $k_t$ . For simplicity, the startup time is ignored in following calculations.

### 3.3 Parametric study of the critical line

We shall examine the variation of critical  $a_0$  with  $k_0$  by changing other initial parameters  $(M_0, A, R_0)$  and discuss the influences of initial parameters on  $k_t$  and  $k_s$ . As listed in Table 3, only one parameter will change in Cases II-VII compared with Case I. For all cases, the pure  $\text{N}_2$  with a density of  $1.18 \text{ kg/m}^3$  and the specific heat ratio of 1.4 at initial  $T_0 = 288 \text{ K}$  and  $p_0 = 101325 \text{ Pa}$  is chosen as the ambient gas.

In Cases II and III, the heavy gas is changed to pure  $\text{R}_{22}$  and a mixture of  $\text{SF}_6$  and  $\text{N}_2$  (30% $\text{SF}_6$ +70% $\text{N}_2$ , volume fraction), respectively. Inevitably, both the specific heat ratio  $\gamma_2$  and the density of the heavy gas  $\rho_2$  will be changed when us-

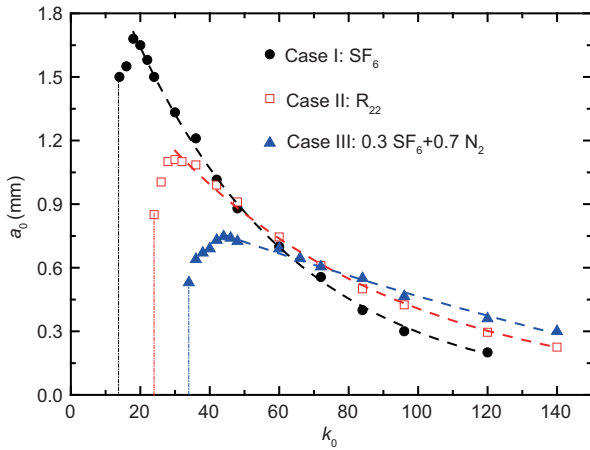
**Table 3** The physical parameters in each case

Case	Gas 2	$\gamma_2$	$\rho_2$ (kg/m <sup>3</sup> )	A	$R_0$ (mm)	$M_0$
I	$\text{SF}_6$	1.094	6.177	0.68	195	1.259
II	$\text{R}_{22}$	1.172	3.657	0.512	195	1.259
III	30% $\text{SF}_6$ +70% $\text{N}_2$	1.2024	2.682	0.389	195	1.259
IV	$\text{SF}_6$	1.094	6.177	0.68	195	1.156
V	$\text{SF}_6$	1.094	6.177	0.68	195	1.515
VI	$\text{SF}_6$	1.094	6.177	0.68	295	1.259
VII	$\text{SF}_6$	1.094	6.177	0.68	97.5	1.259

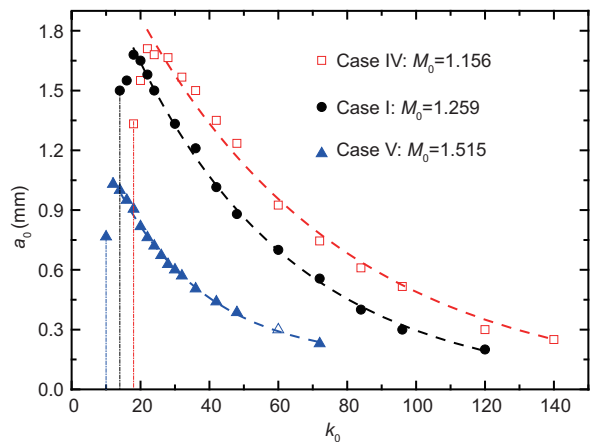


ing a different heavy gas. Nevertheless, the Atwood number  $A$  is believed to dominate the whole process. The comparison of critical lines among Cases I, II and III is shown in Figure 11. It is obvious that the case with a smaller  $A$  owns a larger  $k_t$  ( $k_t = 24$  in Case II and 34 in Case III). Besides, for Cases II and III,  $k_t$  are estimated to be 22.75 and 35.43, respectively, from Bell's incompressible model, and to be 21.57 and 32.98, respectively, from Bell's compressible model. Again, the theoretical predictions match well with the numerical results. Furthermore, a smaller  $A$  corresponds to a smaller  $a_{0p}$ , and the critical line reduces more slowly as  $k_0$  increases.

The critical lines of Cases I, IV and V are numerically calculated and compared in Figure 12 to illustrate the effect of initial imploding shock strength  $M_0$ . It is found that a stronger imploding shock will lead to a smaller  $k_t$  ( $k_t = 18$  in Case IV and 10 in Case V) and a lower  $a_{0p}$ . For Cases IV and V,  $k_t$  predicted by the two Bell models are 18.12 and



**Figure 11** (Color online) Comparison of the critical lines among Cases I, II and III, showing the effect of initial Atwood number.



**Figure 12** (Color online) Comparison of the critical lines among Case I, IV and V, showing the effect of initial imploding shock intensity.

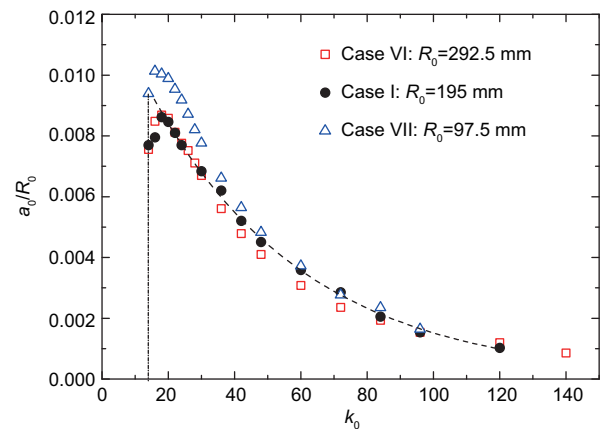
10.13, respectively, based on incompressible assumption, and 17.75 and 9.44, respectively, according to compressible simplification. Similarly, the theoretical predictions coincide well with the numerical results.

As shown in Figure 13, the comparison of critical lines among Cases I, VI and VII is given for demonstrating the effect of initial interface radius  $R_0$ . Obviously,  $k_t$  is independent on the interface radius  $R_0$ . The ratios of  $a_{0p}$  in Cases VI and VII over  $a_{0p}$  in Case I are calculated to be 1.511 and 0.588, approximately corresponding to the ratios of initial interface radius of 1.5 and 0.5, showing an approximately proportional relation of  $a_{0p}$  to  $R_0$ . Similarly,  $k_t$  predicted by the two Bell models are 13.05 and 12.48, respectively, based on incompressible assumption, and 12.61 and 12.11, respectively, based on compressible simplification.

From discussion above, similarities can be found among the critical lines for different conditions, including the existence of a  $k_t$  and a maximum critical amplitude  $a_{0p}$  at  $k_s$ . Besides, the critical amplitude experiences a slow attenuation after  $k_s$ . According to the exponential attenuation function,  $a_0 = B \exp(-k_0/d) = B_1 \exp[(k_s - k_0)/d]$ , where  $B_1 = B \exp(-k_s/d) \approx a_{0p}$ , the variations of critical amplitude with  $k_0$  are obtained, as shown in Figures 11-13 by dashed lines. The parameters of  $B_1$  and  $d$  are listed in Table 4, together with other parameters. From the comparison, one can conclude that the reduction rule of critical amplitude with  $k_0$  conforms to an exponential attenuation function.

## 4 Summary

A series of numerical simulations on the converging Richtmyer-Meshkov (RM) instability are carried out based on an upwind CE/SE method to investigate the Rayleigh-Taylor effect on phase inversion (RTPI), which was firstly observed in our previous experiment. The previous experi-



**Figure 13** (Color online) Comparison of the critical lines among Case I, VI and VII, showing the effect of initial interface radius.

**Table 4** Key values on the critical lines for all cases, and the coefficients of the exponential decay function

Case	$k_t$	$k_s$	$a_{0p}$ (mm)	$B_1$ (mm)	$d$
I	14	18	1.68	1.712	46.738
II	24	30	1.11	1.152	67.309
III	34	44	0.747	0.767	107.766
IV	18	22	1.71	1.803	59.833
V	10	12	1.03	1.035	35.136
VI	14	18	2.54	2.593	42.015
VII	14	16	0.988	1.042	42.742

ment proved that the 3D effect of interface strongly suppresses the amplitude growth, and facilitates the RTPI occurrence. In this work, a 2D single-mode interface is adopted to eliminate the 3D effect, and the RT stabilization effect on the RTPI can be highlighted.

Firstly, the influence of the initial amplitude on the RTPI is investigated. The evolution of interface with different initial amplitudes indicates that a small initial amplitude favors the RTPI emergence, and, interestingly, a critical state with a zero-amplitude of the interface at the reshock exists for a special initial amplitude. For the critical case, three models are adopted to estimate the amplitude growth, and the models are found to be invalid at late stages possibly because of the flow compressibility. After reshock, a normal phase inversion does not occur for the case in which the RTPI occurs, and a periodic RT phase diagram is adopted to interpret the mechanism. It is concluded that whether a normal phase inversion occurs or not is dependent on the competition between RT stabilization effect and RM instability caused by reflected shock.

Then the variation of critical amplitude with the azimuthal mode number, termed as critical line, is numerically solved. The results show that there is a threshold azimuthal mode number ( $k_t$ ) below which the RTPI will not occur for any initial amplitude, and there is also a special azimuthal mode number ( $k_s$ ) at which the critical amplitude is the largest. It is observed that the critical line first increases and subsequently declines separated by  $k_s$ , and the reduction rule can be well described by an exponential decay function. Though the (incompressible or compressible) Bell models cannot describe the amplitude growth for a long period, they both provide a reasonable prediction of  $k_t$ . Further, a parametric study is performed to evaluate the influences of Atwood number  $A$ , shock Mach number  $M_0$  and initial radius of the interface  $R_0$  on the critical line. It is found that the  $k_t$  is significantly affected by  $A$  and  $M_0$ , but is insensitive to  $R_0$ . Specifically, a larger  $A$  will result in a smaller  $k_t$  and a larger peak of the critical amplitude, while a stronger shock contributes to the decline of both  $k_t$  and peak of the critical amplitude. Moreover, the peak of

the critical amplitude is approximately proportional to  $R_0$ . As a result, a larger  $R_0$  not only results in a long-term RT stabilization effect, but also owns a larger critical amplitude. In most previous converging RM instability studies, the initial amplitude is generally large enough compared with the critical amplitude, and, therefore, the RTPI phenomenon cannot be observed.

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