

## Supernova Hydrodynamics Experiments on Nova

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### Abstract.

We are developing experiments using the Nova laser to investigate (1) compressible nonlinear hydrodynamic mixing relevant to the first few hours of the supernova (SN) explosion and (2) ejecta-ambient plasma interactions relevant to the early SN remnant phase. The experiments and astrophysical implications are discussed. We discuss additional experiments possible with ultra-high-intensity lasers.

Two phases of core-collapse supernova (SN) evolution, the core hydrodynamic mixing in the first few hours and colliding plasmas during early SN remnant formation, (Arnett et al. 1989; McCray 1993) are areas rich with possibilities for supporting laboratory experiments. We report here on two experiments utilizing the Nova laser (Kilkenny 1992) to create the relevant plasma environment. We conclude with a discussion of a new class of astrophysical experiment – radiative fireball relevant to gamma-ray bursts (GRB) – potentially possible with ultra-intense, short-pulse lasers.

We start with a progenitor for SN1987A similar to that shown in Fig. 1a from Arnett (1996), and calculate the hydrodynamic evolution using the SN hydrodynamics code PROMETHEUS (Fryxell et al. 1991; Müller et al. 1991). We will focus on the instabilities at the He-H interface. To economize on computing time, we model only  $M_r/M_o \geq 5$ , depositing the explosion energy,  $E = 1.5 \times 10^{51}$  ergs at  $M_r/M_o = 5$ . This launches a strong radial shock that reaches the He-H interface ( $M_r/M_o = 6$ ) after a transit time of about 100 sec. We show

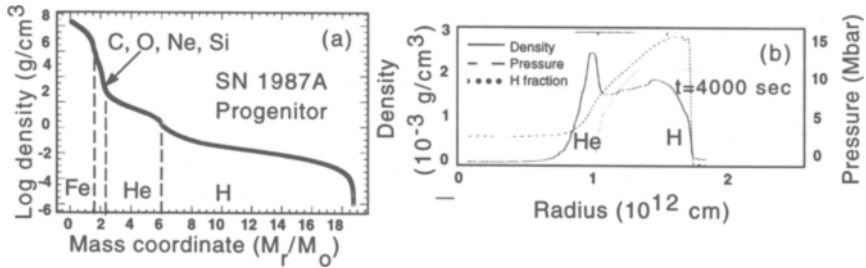


Figure 1. Supernova simulations in 1D of SN1987A.

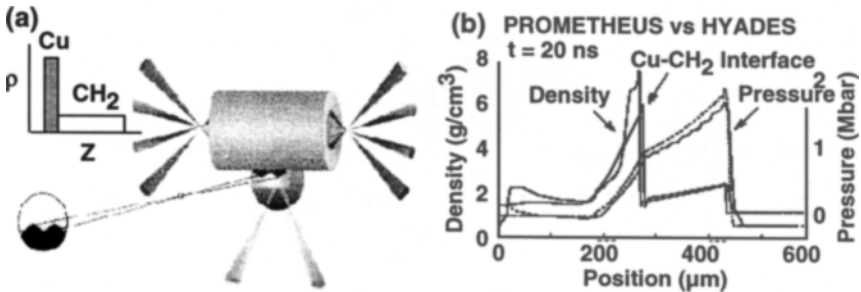


Figure 2. Supernova hydrodynamics experiment.

the density and pressure profiles at a time of 4000 sec in Fig. 1b. Note that at the He-H interface ( $R \approx 1.0 \times 10^{12}$  cm), the pressure and density gradients are crossed, that is,  $\nabla\rho \cdot \nabla P < 0$ , such that the He layer is being decelerated by the lower density H layer. This situation is unstable to the Rayleigh-Taylor (RT) instability and perturbations at the interface grow in time. (Fryxell et al. 1991; Müller et al. 1991)

The experimental configuration adopted for these laser experiments is illustrated in Fig. 2a and is described in more depth elsewhere (Remington et al. 1995; Kane et al. 1997; Peyser et al. 1995). Eight of the ten Nova laser beams at a duration of 1 ns and total energy of 12 kJ are focused into a 3.0 mm long, 1.6 mm diameter Au hohlraum (cylindrical radiation cavity) converting to a  $\sim 190$  eV thermal x-ray drive. The experimental package is planar, a  $85 \mu\text{m}$  Cu ( $\rho = 8.9 \text{ g/cm}^3$ ) foil backed by  $500 \mu\text{m}$  of  $\text{CH}_2$  ( $\rho = 0.95 \text{ g/cm}^3$ ). A  $\lambda = 200 \mu\text{m}$  wavelength,  $\eta_o = 20 \mu\text{m}$  amplitude sinusoidal ripple is imposed at this embedded interface. The package is mounted across a hole in the hohlraum wall, so that the inner (smooth) side of the Cu sees the x-ray drive. Diagnosis of the interface is through side-on x-ray radiography, using the remaining two Nova beams focused onto an Fe backlighter disk to generate a 5 ns pulse of He- $\alpha$  x-rays at 6.7 keV. In this side-on view, the opaque Cu appears as a shadow, and the  $\text{CH}_2$  is essentially transparent.

In Fig. 2b we show the results of modeling in 1D with HYADES, (Larsen & Lane 1994) and PROMETHEUS. (Fryxell et al. 1991; Müller et al. 1991) HYADES is a 1D Lagrangian code with multigroup radiation transport and tabular equation of state (EOS), and PROMETHEUS is a 3D Eulerian Piecewise Parabolic Method (PPM) code using (here) an ideal gas EOS. We use a measured radiation temperature,  $T_r(t)$ , as the source input to HYADES, and achieve an impulsive shock acceleration, followed by a protracted deceleration, qualitatively similar to the He-H interface in the SN. We do a high resolution HYADES run, including multigroup radiation transport, for the first 2.45 ns, at which time the shock is approaching the Cu-CH<sub>2</sub> interface. We then map the results to 1D or 2D PROMETHEUS. We compare the results for pressure and density at 20 ns from a continuous 1D HYADES run including radiation transport versus that from PROMETHEUS (Fig. 2b). The mapping works well. Note, the pressures for the Nova experiment, 1-2 Mbar, are not too different from those of the SN (10-15 Mbar), as shown in Fig. 1b, though the SN densities are lower by a factor of about  $10^3$ .

We consider the difference of scales between the SN and the Nova experiment. If we assume that the mixing is dominated by the RT instability, then in the nonlinear regime, the fluid flow can be characterized by a spatial scale of order the perturbation wavelength  $\lambda$  and velocity of order the perturbation terminal bubble velocity  $v_B \propto (g\lambda)^{1/2}$ . Here  $g$  corresponds to the acceleration and we have assumed constant Atwood number. A hydrodynamic time scale is then given by  $\tau = \lambda/v_B \propto (\lambda/g)^{1/2}$ , and the hydrodynamics equations are invariant under the scale transformation (Hecht et al. 1994; Alon et al. 1995)  $\lambda \rightarrow a_1\lambda$ ,  $g \rightarrow a_2g$ , and  $\tau \rightarrow (a_1/a_2)^{1/2}\tau$ . We illustrate this transformation, using characteristic scales taken from the simulations shown in Figs. 1 and 2. At 4000 sec for the SN, the deceleration of the He-H interface is  $g_{SN} = -1.5 \times 10^4 \text{cm/s}^2$ , the density gradient scale length is  $L_{SN} = \rho/\nabla\rho = 8 \times 10^{10} \text{cm}$ , and the dominant perturbation wavelength is approximated to be  $\lambda_{SN} \approx 10L_{SN} = 8 \times 10^{11} \text{cm}$ . For the Nova experiment at 20 ns we have  $g_{Nova} = -2.5 \times 10^{13} \text{cm/s}^2$ ,  $\lambda_{Nova} = 2 \times 10^{-2} \text{cm}$ , and a characteristic time interval of  $\tau_{Nova} = 5 \text{ns}$ . The scale transformation is given by  $a_1 = \lambda_{SN}/\lambda_{Nova} = 4 \times 10^{13}$ , and  $a_2 = g_{SN}/g_{Nova} = 6 \times 10^{-10}$ . The corresponding hydrodynamically equivalent time interval for the SN is then given by  $\tau_{SN} = (a_1/a_2)^{1/2}\tau_{Nova} = 1.3 \times 10^3 \text{sec}$ , which is a reasonable time scale for the SN instability evolution that we are investigating. This scale transformation is not precisely correct, because we have not taken into account the effects of decompression, finite layer thickness, and shocks. Nevertheless, the Nova experiment appears to address the nonlinear compressible hydrodynamics similar to that at the He-H interface of a Type II SN during the first few hours.

In Fig. 3 we show a 2D image from the experiment at 33 ns (Fig. 3a) compared with results from the 2D simulations at 30 ns (Fig. 3b). The experimentally observed perturbation has evolved into the classic nonlinear RT bubble-and-spike shape with peak-to-valley amplitude  $\eta_{P/V} \approx 1$ , and there are faint indications of Kelvin-Helmholtz roll-ups at the tip of the spike and along its sides. For the simulations, we use the same mapping scheme in 2D as we did in 1D, only now the Cu-CH<sub>2</sub> interface has a  $\lambda = 200 \mu\text{m}$  wavelength,  $\eta_o = 20 \mu\text{m}$  amplitude sinusoidal ripple. By 30 ns the perturbation has grown with the opposite phase to an overall peak-to-valley amplitude of  $\eta_{P/V} \approx 180 \mu\text{m} \approx \lambda$ ,

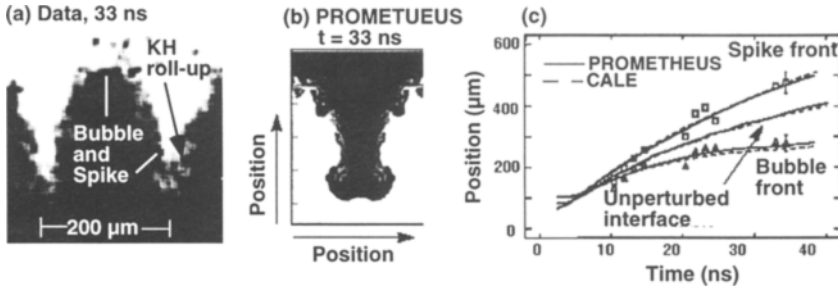


Figure 3. Comparison of data with the simulations.

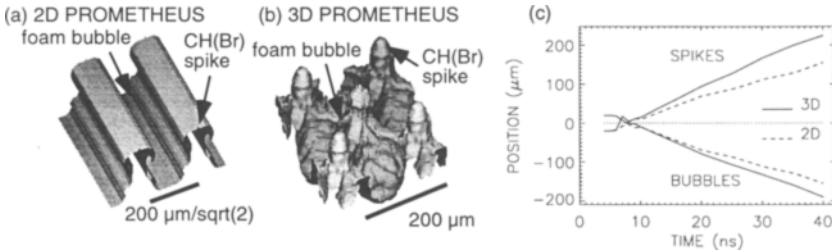


Figure 4. Simulation of RT growth in the nonlinear regime of a 2D versus 3D single mode perturbation. (2D=dotted, 3D=solid).

as shown in Fig. 3b. The shape of the perturbation has changed from sinusoidal to bubble-and-spike, indicating that the interface has evolved well into the nonlinear regime. In Fig. 3c we show the evolution of the spike and bubble fronts, compared with the predictions from both PROMETHEUS and CALE, a 2D ALE code (Tipton 1996). The locations of the 2D bubble front and spike front are reproduced very well by both hydrodynamics codes.

We have very recently designed an experiment to illustrate the differences in single-mode RT growth between 2D and 3D, as illustrated in Fig. 4. For target fabrication reasons, the target materials used were changed to CH(Br) for the dense material ( $\rho = 1.53 \text{ g/cm}^3$ ) and  $\text{CH}_{1.1}\text{O}_{0.33}$  foam for the lower density material ( $\rho = 0.07 \text{ g/cm}^3$ ). These densities were chosen to maintain the same inflight Atwood number ( $\sim 0.6$ ). The 2D perturbation was a single sinusoid,  $\eta = \eta_o \cos(kx)$ , with  $k=2\pi/\lambda$ , and  $\lambda = 200 \mu\text{m}/\sqrt{2} = 141 \mu\text{m}$  and  $\eta_o = 20 \mu\text{m}$ . The 3D perturbation corresponded to crossed sinusoids,  $\eta = \eta_o \cos(k_x x) \cos(k_y y)$ , with  $k_{x,y} = 2\pi/\lambda_{x,y}$ , where  $\lambda_x = \lambda_y = 200 \mu\text{m}$  and  $\eta_o = 20 \mu\text{m}$ . Results from the simulations in the nonlinear regime ( $t = 30 \text{ ns}$ ) for the 2D case are shown in Fig. 4a and for the 3D case in Fig. 4b. The spike and bubble front trajectories are juxtaposed in Fig. 4c, showing that the perturbation spike grows  $\sim 50\%$  more in 3D. The effect for the bubble is less, but again the bubble grows more in 3D. Similar effects have been observed by a number of other groups doing 3D simulations (Tryggvason & Unverdi 1990; Dahlburg et al. 1993, 1995; Hecht et

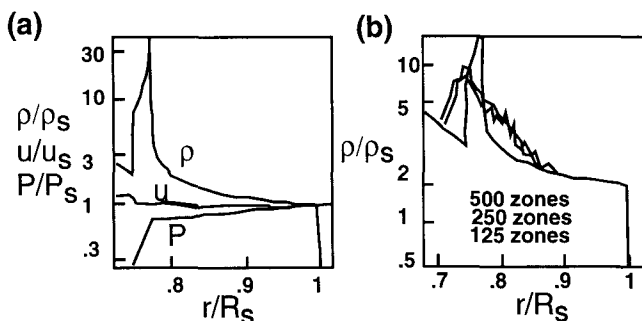


Figure 5. The density, velocity, and pressure profiles for a supernova ejecta-stellar wind interaction. (Reproduced from Chevalier et al. 1992)

al. 1995). Experiments will be conducted on the Nova laser in the near future to test this prediction. We are now doing simulations to investigate whether a similar effect occurs in the supernova.

Supernovae remnant formation is one of the classic problems of astrophysics. With SN1987A, we have for the first time the opportunity to watch the time-dependent dynamics of the early stages of SN remnant as it evolves. High-velocity supernova ejecta sweep up the surrounding ambient plasma, left over from the stellar wind of the SN progenitor. At the contact discontinuity (the place where the two plasmas meet), shocks are launched forward into the ambient plasma (“forward shock”) and backward into the SN ejecta (“reverse shock”), as illustrated with the 1D profiles of density, velocity, and pressure shown in Fig. 5a (from Chevalier et al. 1992). At the contact discontinuity (at  $r/R_S = 0.77$  in Fig. 5a), the pressure and density gradients have opposite signs, that is,  $\nabla P \cdot \nabla \rho < 0$ . Consequently, the shocked circumstellar plasma (of lower density but higher pressure) acts to decelerate the shocked SN ejecta (of higher density but lower pressure). Such a situation is hydrodynamically unstable due to the Rayleigh-Taylor instability, with strong RT growth at the contact discontinuity predicted from 2D simulations (Chevalier et al. 1992; Chevalier & Blondin 1995; Borkowski et al. 1997). This mixing at the contact discontinuity smears out the density profile, as illustrated in Fig. 5b (reproduced from Chevalier et al. 1992). The details of what to expect when the SN1987A ejecta impacts the ring nebula will depend on the structure of both the projectile assembly and the ring. It would be highly beneficial to be able to test these models experimentally prior to the awaited collision.

Hence, our second experiment is focused on testing our understanding of the colliding plasma dynamics in a situation qualitatively similar to that of the ejecta of SN1987A. Our goal is to develop the experiment and model it with the astrophysics codes used to make the predictions of the upcoming ejecta-circumstellar ring collision expected for shortly after the year 2000.

Our initial approach to experimentally simulate the ejecta-wind interaction hydrodynamics is shown in Figure 6a. We use about 20 kJ of laser energy at  $0.35 \mu\text{m}$  laser wavelength, in a 1 ns pulse, to heat a 3 mm long by 1.6 mm

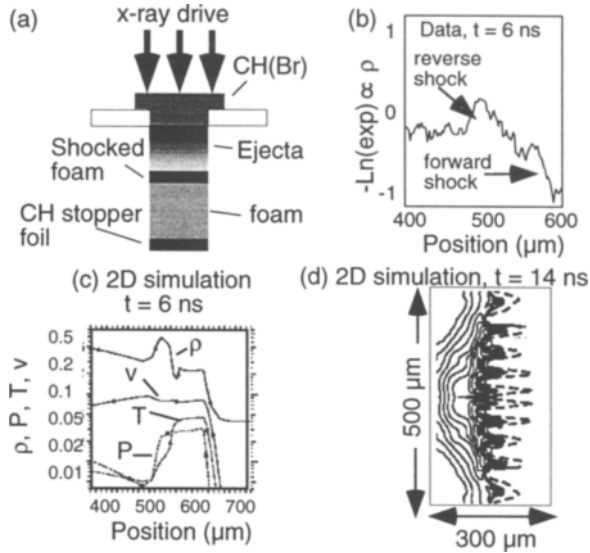


Figure 6. (a) A schematic of the laser experiment. (b) A lineout at 6 ns from the data showing a 1D density profiles at 6 ns. (c) Profiles from the 1D LASNEX simulation at 6 ns showing density ( $\text{g}/\text{cm}^3$ ), pressure/100 (Mbar), ion temperature (keV), and velocity ( $\times 10^8$  cm/s). (d) Isodensity contours at 14 ns from a 2D LASNEX simulation. The ejecta is flowing into the foam from left to right.

diameter cylindrical gold cavity (a hohlraum) to a temperature of about 220 eV. The x-ray flux ablates a CH plug (doped with Br to reduce the transmission of higher-energy x-rays) which is mounted in a  $700\ \mu\text{m}$  diameter hole in the hohlraum. The ablation drives a very strong ( $\sim 50$  Mbar) shock through the CH(Br), ejecting plasma at about 30 eV from the rear of the plug. This plasma (the ejecta) expands and cools. The leading edge of the expansion is a high-Mach-number plasma flow (about Mach 10), although it is at well below solid density. The ejecta impacts a  $700\ \mu\text{m}$  diameter cylinder of  $\text{SiO}_2$  aerogel foam located  $150\ \mu\text{m}$  away and having a density of  $40\ \text{mg}/\text{cm}^3$ . In response, the flowing ejecta stagnates and a shock is driven forward into the foam (forward shock), as well as back into the ejecta (reverse shock).

We diagnose these experiments by x-ray backlighting at 4.3 keV ( $\text{Sc He}_\alpha$ ) to obtain radiographs of the shocked matter. We show a profile of  $-\ln(\text{exposure}) \propto \text{density}$  from the data in Fig. 6b and from a LASNEX (Zimmerman & Krueger 1975) simulation in Fig. 6c, both at  $t = 6$  ns. In both the data and simulation, we observe a clear forward shock in the foam, a reverse shock in the ejecta, and a contact discontinuity in between. From the simulations, we see that the shock breaks out of the CH(Br) at about 2 ns, at which time the back edge of the CH(Br) is at a density of about  $2\ \text{g}/\text{cm}^3$  (compression of  $\sim 2$ ), pressure of 45 Mbar, and temperature of 30 eV. The foam is impacted by the ejecta about 1

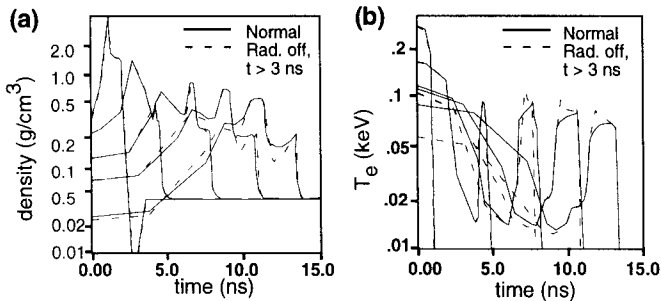


Figure 7. Look-ahead simulations of a similar ejecta-ambient plasma interaction experiment at a higher drive of  $T_r = 300$  eV.

ns later, suggesting that the high velocity tail of the ejecta is moving at  $\sim 150$   $\mu\text{m/ns} = 150$  km/s. We also show in Figure 6c the pressure, temperature, and velocity of the ejecta-foam assembly from the LASNEX simulation at 6 ns, that is, about 3 ns after the ejecta first starts sweeping up the foam. The contact discontinuity is located at a position of about  $560$   $\mu\text{m}$  in both the data and the simulation, and the peak densities from the simulation on either side of the contact discontinuity in the ejecta (foam) are  $0.65$   $\text{g/cm}^3$  ( $0.25$   $\text{g/cm}^3$ ). The pressure is continuous across the contact discontinuity at a peak value of  $3.5$  Mbar, the peak temperature is about  $50$  eV, and the velocity of the projectile assembly is about  $1 \times 10^7$  cm/sec.

The region near the contact surface at the front of the ejecta is RT unstable (Chevalier et al. 1992; Chevalier & Blondin 1995; Borkowski et al 1997). This is illustrated in Fig. 6d for a 2D simulation of the laser experiment. In the latter, a seed perturbation of wavelength  $\lambda = 50$   $\mu\text{m}$  and initial amplitude  $\eta_o = 1$   $\mu\text{m}$  was imposed on the surface of the foam. By 14 ns, strong RT growth of the perturbation well into the nonlinear regime is visible, due to the  $\nabla P \cdot \nabla \rho < 0$  configuration at the contact discontinuity (which is indicated by the dashed curve). Comparing Fig. 6d with Fig. 10 from Chevalier et al. (1992), we conclude that both the Nova experiment and the early SN remnant evolution access roughly similar levels of nonlinear RT hydrodynamics. A similar conclusion can be arrived at by comparing linear regime RT growth rates,  $\sigma_{\text{linear}}$  (e.g. Eq. 6 of Müller et al. 1991), with total duration  $\Delta t_{\text{tot}}$  of the growth:  $1/\sigma_{\text{linear}} \ll \Delta t_{\text{tot}}$  for both cases. We intend to use this experiment to test the theories and models being used to predict the behavior of SN 1987A, well in advance of the upcoming SN ejecta-ring nebula impact.

As a “look-ahead” exercise, we have done simulations where the drive radiation temperature was increased from  $220$  eV to  $T_r = 300$  eV. Such a drive should be routine on the National Ignition Facility (NIF) laser currently being constructed at LLNL (Paisner et al. 1994; Lindl 1995). Density profiles are shown at 2 ns intervals in Fig. 7a for a nominal simulation (solid) compared to a simulation where radiation is turned off after 3 ns (dashed curve). The corresponding temperature profiles are shown in Fig. 7b. The radiation serves to distribute the heat more evenly behind the forward shock, smoothing out the

density valley at the contact discontinuity. The effects of the radiation on the ensuing hydrodynamics will become more prominent at higher drive temperatures, lower target densities, and upon the multiple shock reflections that will occur when the forward shock impacts a surrogate higher density ring. Experiments where the hydrodynamics depends on correct treatment of radiation transport should be possible on the larger NIF laser currently being built.

As impressive as they seem, supernovae no longer occupy the status of most enigmatic phenomena of the universe. That title almost surely belongs to the mysterious gamma-ray bursts (GRB) (Fishman and Hartmann, 1997; Tavani, 1997; Meszaros and Rees, 1997). As described by Fishman and Hartmann, on the average of about 3 times a day, powerful pulses of gamma rays can be observed, each corresponding to the emission in the span of seconds or minutes more energy our sun will emit in its entire lifetime. The phenomenon has resisted study, since the flashes come from random directions in space and seemingly vanish without a trace. This all changed on Feb. 28, 1997. The Italian-Dutch Beppo-SAX satellite detected GRB 970228, which lasted some 80 seconds. Within 8 hrs, the same spacecraft trained an x-ray telescope to that location in the sky and found a source of x-rays that was fading fast. Thereafter, ground based, and eventually the Hubble Space Telescope turned to this location, finding a rapidly fading source. If GRBs are extragalactic, as most currently believe, they represent the most powerful explosions in the universe, eclipsing even supernovae. Not surprisingly, GRBs are the hottest topic in the astrophysics community.

Data is sparse, and theories and models abound (Tavani, 1997). Possibilities include the coalescence of compact stars, neutron stars, or black holes; failed supernovae; newborn spinars; or special jet phenomena in distant galaxies. But at the heart of essentially all models is a rapidly expanding relativistic, fireball dissipating its energy in internal (reverse) and external (forward) radiative shocks. The GRBs are initially observed with the bulk of the radiation in the 0.1 - 1 MeV range, and cool subsequently through the x-ray into the UV and optical regimes. Such high initial photon energies carrying the bulk of the radiation energy is most easily explained by a small, exceedingly hot source,  $T \sim 0.1-1$  MeV. Lasers such as the PetaWatt laser (Perry reference) are observed to produce such temperatures by focusing 0.5 kJ down to a  $\sim 30 \mu\text{m}$  spot in a 1/2 ps pulse. Simulations of the interaction lead to a strong hemispherical blast wave being launched in the first 100 ps after the laser pulse that propagates radially outwards. Such a blast wave may be observable in current experiments, and bear the generic characteristics of the external and internal shock models proposed to explain gamma-ray bursts. This presents an exciting opportunity to employ state-of-the-art laser facilities such as the PetaWatt laser to investigate one of the most enigmatic events of current high energy astrophysics, gamma-ray bursts.

In conclusion, we are developing experiments to investigate (1) hydrodynamic instabilities relevant to core collapse supernovae in the first few hours, and (2) ejecta-ambient plasma interaction experiments relevant to the early stages of SN remnant formation. Initial results from both experiments look promising.



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