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#### Tidal instability in stellar and planetary binary systems

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#### Abstract

In this paper, we combine theoretical and experimental approaches to study the tidal instability in planetary liquid cores and stars. We demonstrate that numerous complex modes can be excited depending on the relative values of the orbital angular velocity  $\Omega_{orbit}$  and of the spinning angular velocity  $\Omega_{spin}$ , except in a stable range characterized by  $\Omega_{spin}/\Omega_{orbit} \in [-1; 1/3]$ . Even if the tidal deformation is small, its subsequent instability - coming from a resonance process - may induce motions with large amplitude, which play a fundamental role at the planetary scale. This general conclusion is illustrated in the case of Jupiter's moon Io by a coupled model of synchronization, demonstrating the importance of energy dissipation by elliptical instability. *Key words:* tides, tidal/elliptical instability, synchronization, binary systems

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#### 1 1. Introduction

The fundamental role of tides in geo- and astrophysics has been the sub-2 ject of multiple studies for more than four centuries. Beyond the well-known 3 quasi-periodic flow of ocean water on our shores, tides are also responsible for 4 phenomena as varied as the intense volcanism on Io or the synchronization 5 of the Moon on Earth. In stars and liquid planetary cores, tides may also 6 excite an hydrodynamic "elliptical" instability, whose consequences are not vet fully understood. The purpose of the present work is twofold: we shall 8 first systematically characterize the excited modes of the elliptical (or tidal) 9 instability in a rotating spheroid depending on its orbital and spinning veloc-10 ities, and then demonstrate the importance of this instability in stellar and 11 planetary binary systems using a simplified but illustrative model of tidal 12 synchronization. 13

The elliptical instability, whose existence is related to a parametric reso-14 nance of inertial waves, is well-known in aeronautics, and more generally in 15 the field of vortex dynamics: it actually affects any rotating fluid, as soon as 16 its streamlines are elliptically deformed. Since its discovery in the mid-1970s, 17 the elliptical instability has received considerable attention, theoretically, ex-18 perimentally and numerically (see for instance the review by Kerswell, 2002). 19 Its presence in planetary and stellar systems, elliptically deformed by gravi-20 tational tides, has been suggested for several years. It could for instance be 21 responsible for the surprising existence of a magnetic field in Io (Kerswell and 22 Malkus, 1998; Lacaze et al., 2006; Herreman et al., 2009) and for fluctuations 23 in the Earth's magnetic field on a typical timescale of 10,000 years (Aldridge 24 et al., 1997). It may also have a significant influence on the evolution of 25

<sup>26</sup> binary stars (e.g. Rieutord, 2003).

In all these studies, it is assumed that the tidal deformation is fixed and 27 that the excited resonance is the so-called spin-over mode, which corresponds 28 to a solid body rotation around an axis inclined compare to the spin axis of 29 the system. This is indeed the only perfect resonance in spherical geometry 30 in the absence of rotation of the elliptical deformation (Lacaze et al., 2004). 31 But in all natural configurations such as binary stars, moon-planet systems 32 or planet-star systems, orbital motions are also present, which means that 33 the gravitational interaction responsible for the tidal deformation is rotating 34 with an angular velocity and/or a direction different from the spin of the 35 considered body. This significantly changes the conditions for resonance 36 and the mode selection process, as recently demonstrated in the cylindrical 37 geometry (Le Bars et al., 2007). 38

The paper is organized as follow. In section 2, in complement to the 30 trends presented in Le Bars et al. (2007), we systematically characterize the 40 excited modes of the elliptical instability in a rotating spheroid depending on 41 its orbital and spinning velocities, using both theoretical and experimental 42 approaches. We then describe in section 3 a fully coupled simplified model of 43 synchronization of stellar and planetary binary systems, demonstrating the 44 importance of energy dissipation by elliptical instability. In the last section, 45 the main results of the paper are summarized and general conclusions for 46 geo- and astrophysical systems are briefly discussed. 47

3

# 48 2. Excited modes of the elliptical instability in an orbiting spinning 49 spheroid

Our study is based on the laboratory experiment shown in figure 1a. 50 The set-up consists in a deformable and transparent hollow sphere of radius 51 R = 2.175 cm, set in rotation about its axis (Oz) with an angular velocity 52  $\Omega_F$  up to  $\pm 300$  rpm, simultaneously deformed elliptically by two fixed rollers 53 parallel to (Oz). The container is filled with water seeded with anisotropic 54 particles (Kalliroscope). For visualization, a light sheet is formed in a plane 55 coinciding with the rotation axis, allowing the measurement of wavelengths 56 and frequencies of excited modes. The whole set-up is placed on a 0.5m-57 diameter rotating table allowing rotation with an angular velocity  $\Omega_{orbit}$  up 58 to 60rpm. Such a system is fully defined by three dimensionless numbers: 59  $\varepsilon$ , the eccentricity of the tidal deformation,  $\Omega = \Omega_{orbit}/\Omega_F$ , the ratio be-60 tween the orbital and the fluid angular velocities, and  $E = \nu/\Omega_F R^2$ , and 61 Ekman number, where  $\nu$  is the kinematic viscosity of the fluid. In geo- and 62 astrophysical terms, this toy model mimics a tidally deformed fluid body 63 spinning at  $\Omega_{spin} = \Omega_F + \Omega_{orbit}$  with a tidal deformation rotating at the or-64 bital velocity  $\Omega_{orbit}$  (see figure 1b). Note that in natural configurations, the 65 gravitational interactions responsible for the boundary deformation of the 66 considered planet or star also act over the whole depth of the system. This 67 feature cannot be taken into account in our toy model. However, it touches 68 another side of the problem, namely the role of compressibility and stratifica-69 tion which we leave for subsequent studies. We focus here on incompressible 70 effects only, considering a fluid of uniform density. 71

#### 72 2.1. Linear global analysis

As previously mentioned, the elliptical instability is generated by the 73 parametric resonance of two normal modes of the undistorted circular flow 74 with the underlying strain field (e.g. Waleffe, 1990; Kerswell, 2002). We have 75 thus performed a so-called "global" analysis of the instability, which consists 76 in (i) determining the normal modes of the sphere, (ii) calculating explicitly 77 the conditions for resonance, which immediately provides information on the 78 structure of the selected instability and (iii) determining the growth rate of 79 this instability. In the following, we work in the frame rotating with the ro-80 tating table (i.e. in the frame where the elliptical deformation is stationary), 81 and variables are nondimensionalized using the characteristic lengthscale R82 and the characteristic timescale  $1/\Omega_F$  (i.e. the relevant timescale for the 83 elliptical instability, corresponding to the differential rotation of the fluid 84 compared to the elliptical deformation). 85

As explained in Le Bars et al. (2007), inviscid normal modes in a rotating container submitted to a global rotation  $\Omega$  are related to inviscid normal modes without global rotation through the relation

$$\{\mathbf{u}, p\}(\omega, \Omega, m, l) = \{\frac{\mathbf{u}}{1+\Omega}, p\}(\tilde{\omega}, 0, m, l)$$
(1)

where **u** and *p* stand for the velocity and the pressure respectively. Here,  $\omega$  is the mode frequency in the frame rotating with the elliptical deformation,  $\tilde{\omega} = (\omega + m\Omega)/(1 + \Omega)$ , and *m* and *l* are azimuthal and "meridional" wavenumbers respectively (see Lacaze et al., 2004, for details). Due to this property, the dispersion relation solutions in the sphere with global rotation are the same as the ones given by Lacaze et al. (2004) without global rotation

when  $\omega$  is replaced by  $\tilde{\omega}$ . The linear analysis of the elliptical instability in 95 the rotating frame can thus be expressed from the results obtained without 96 global rotation. The condition for resonance between two waves is simply 97 given by  $(m_2, \omega_2) = (m_1 + 2, \omega_1)$ , and the corresponding excited resonance is 98 labeled by  $(m_1, m_2)$ . Note that as frequencies of normal modes are confined 99 to the interval  $m-2 < \tilde{\omega} < m+2$ , resonances are only possible for  $\Omega$  outside 100 the range [-3/2; -1/2]. There, the growth rate  $\sigma_1 = \sigma/\varepsilon$  is solution of the 101 equation (see again Lacaze et al., 2004, for details) 102

$$\begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 \tilde{\mathcal{J}}_{1|1} - \sqrt{E}\nu_s^1 (1+\Omega)^2 / \varepsilon - \tilde{\mathcal{C}}_{1|1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 \tilde{\mathcal{J}}_{2|2} - \sqrt{E}\nu_s^2 (1+\Omega)^2 / \varepsilon - \tilde{\mathcal{C}}_{2|2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \left( \tilde{\mathcal{N}}_{1|2} - (1+\Omega)\tilde{I}_1 \right) \left( \tilde{\mathcal{N}}_{2|1} - (1+\Omega)\tilde{I}_2 \right),$$

$$(2)$$

where  $\tilde{\mathcal{J}}_{i|i}$  corresponds to the norm of mode i,  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}}_{i|j}$  to the coupling coefficient between modes i and j,  $\nu_s^i$  to the viscous damping induced by the no-slip boundary condition on each mode derived from the work of Kudlick (1966)<sup>1</sup>, and  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_{i|i}$  to the possible detuning of the instability when  $\Omega$  is slightly off the perfect resonance condition. The exact expressions of all these coefficients are given in appendix A.

<sup>109</sup> Numerical resolution of equation (2) determines the growth rate of any <sup>110</sup> given resonance depending on the dimensionless parameters ( $\varepsilon, \Omega, E$ ). Our <sup>111</sup> computations demonstrate that only principal resonances characterized by <sup>112</sup> the same meridional wavenumber (i.e.  $l_1 = l_2$ ) lead to a significant posi-<sup>113</sup> tive growth rate, as already noted for non-rotating cases by Kerswell (1993)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Note that only boundary layer effects are considered here, and that damping due to inner shear layers are neglected. This assumption has been fully justified by numerical computation for the spin-over mode (Hollerbach and Kerswell, 1995), and is supposed to remain valid here.

and Lacaze et al. (2004). An example of the resolution of equation (2) as a 114 function of  $\Omega$  is shown in figure 2(a) for the parameter range relevant to our 115 experimental configuration. Each mode can be excited inside a resonance 116 band in  $\Omega$  where the growth rate is positive. When several resonances are 117 possible at a given value of  $\Omega$ , one expect the most unstable mode (i.e. the 118 one with the largest growth rate) to be the first one excited. We also show 119 in figures 2(b) and 2(c) the effects of eccentricity and Ekman number: de-120 creasing  $\varepsilon$  implies narrower resonance bands, whereas decreasing the Ekman 121 number allows the excitation of more resonances. In the limit of small Ekman 122 numbers relevant to planetary and stellar systems, we find that there always 123 exists an excitable resonance, except in the stable range  $\Omega \in [-3/2; -1/2]$ , 124 corresponding in astrophysical terms to  $\Omega_{spin}/\Omega_{orbit} \in [-1; 1/3]$ . Besides, as 125 shown in figure 2(c), its growth rate is correctly approximated by 126

$$\sigma_1 = \frac{(3+2\Omega)^2}{16(1+\Omega)^2} - c\frac{\sqrt{E}}{\varepsilon},\tag{3}$$

where the first term on the right-hand side comes from the inviscid local analysis (Le Dizès, 2000) and where c is a constant of order 1, which can be explicitly computed for each resonance using equation (2).

#### 130 2.2. Experimental results

A series of experiments was performed with a fixed eccentricity  $\varepsilon = 0.16$ and various Ekman numbers in the range  $[10^{-5}; 10^{-4}]$ , systematically changing  $\Omega_{orbit}$  and  $\Omega_F$  to excite various resonances. Starting from rest, we first set the table's rotation to its assigned value  $\Omega_{orbit}$ . Once solid body rotation is reached, the second motor controlling the fluid rotation is turned on. We

then observe the potential development of an instability using a video cam-136 era embedded on the table. As illustrated in figure 2(a), good agreement 137 with the global analysis is found regarding the selected resonance: outside 138 the stable range  $\Omega \in [-3/2; -1/2]$ , stationary (-1, 1) mode with a sinusoidal 139 rotation axis and various wavelengths as well as other more exotic modes rec-140 ognized by their complex radial structure and/or by their periodic behavior 141 (see figures 3 and 4) can be selected by changing the dimensionless ratio  $\Omega$ 142 only, providing the Ekman number is small enough. For each selected value 143 of  $\Omega$ , the first observed mode of instability corresponds to the most unstable 144 mode by the theory (i.e. the one with the largest growth rate). In the vicin-145 ity of the threshold, the excited resonance induces a flow whose saturation 146 amplitude rapidly grows with  $\varepsilon$  and  $\Omega_F$ , until reaching a value comparable 147 to the imposed rotation velocity  $\Omega_F R$  (see for instance figure 5). At slightly 148 smaller Ekman numbers or slightly larger  $\varepsilon$ , we then observe disordered pat-149 terns superimposed on the selected main flow (figure 5c,d). These patterns 150 may induce the collapse of the selected mode on a very rapid timescale com-151 parable to the rotation rate, and an intermittent behavior takes place. When 152 several theoretical resonances are close to each other, we observed complex 153 patterns originating from the superimposition or the succession in time of 154 the different modes. 155

Note again that in the absence of global rotation, the only perfect resonance and the first destabilized mode in the vicinity of threshold is the spin-over mode. This is the first time that oscillatory modes such as the (0, 2) one shown in figures 3 and 4a and the (1, 3) one shown in figure 4b are experimentally observed in a sphere.

#### 161 2.3. Estimates of power dissipation

Energy dissipated by tides in a planet is traditionally related to the dis-162 sipation of the induced shear flow by viscosity in its fluid part(s) and by 163 anelasticity in its solid part(s): it is thus typically proportional to the square 164 of the (small) tidal deformation  $\varepsilon$ . With the exception of Earth, where the 165 prevalent source of dissipation is due to viscous friction of water tides on 166 ocean floor (estimated power  $2 \times 10^{12} W$ ), the fluid component of tidal dis-167 sipation usually remains negligible. However, we observe in our experiments 168 that even if the tidal deformation is very small, its subsequent instability 160 induces a flow over the whole system with a typical velocity comparable to 170 the imposed rotation velocity  $\Omega_F R$ , as soon as  $\varepsilon/\sqrt{E}$  is about 10 (see for 171 instance figure 5 and the analytical model by Lacaze et al. (2004)). This is 172 especially important when trying to estimate the energy dissipated by the 173 elliptical instability. 174

Schematically, the intermittent behavior observed at small Ekman num-175 bers in our experiment can be characterized by three stages. First, starting 176 from the base flow (which can be either a laminar solid body rotation or a 177 more turbulent state induced for instance by convection or differential ro-178 tation), the instability grows continuously on a typical time given by the 179 growth rate, until it saturates to a typical velocity. Then, the selected mode 180 breaks down into small scales in a very short timescale, comparable to some 181 fluid's rotations and significantly smaller than the typical growth time of the 182 instability (see also Lacaze et al., 2004). A new cycle then begins. Note that 183 the energy dissipation related to this collapse has already been evaluated by 184 several authors (Malkus, 1968; Vanyo, 1991; Kerswell, 1996; Kerswell and 185

<sup>186</sup> Malkus, 1998) and leads to the estimate  $P_{dissip} \sim \rho R^5 \Omega_F^3$  (this would corre-<sup>187</sup> spond to an unrealistically huge amount of dissipation during the collapse <sup>188</sup> breakdown, e.g.  $P_{dissip} \sim 2 \times 10^{24} W$  in the Earth, but see the relevant dis-<sup>189</sup> cussion in Kerswell and Malkus (1998)). In the context of this paper, we <sup>190</sup> focus on the continuous viscous dissipation during growth and saturation of <sup>191</sup> the instability.

The energy necessary to excite and maintain the selected mode is supplied 192 by the tidal deformation and by the relative angular velocity of the spherical 193 container (i.e. the rigid mantle in the case of a planet) compared to tides. 194 Following the model of Vanyo and Likins (1972) developed in the closely 195 related case of precession, one may consider that this energy is transmitted 196 to the fluid (i.e. the liquid core in the case of a planet) through a thin 197 viscous boundary layer at the solid-liquid interface. In the absence of orbital 198 velocity, the spin-over mode takes place, similarly to the case of precession, 199 and we may consider the "rigid sphere approximation" introduced in Vanyo 200 and Likins (1972): the interior portion of the fluid is assumed to behave as 201 a perfectly rigid sphere rotating at  $\Omega_{spin} + \Omega_{SO}$ , where  $\Omega_{SO}$  is the spin-over 202 mode. The moment of the container acting on the fluid can then be expressed 203 as204

$$\mathbf{C}^{\mathbf{m/c}} = -2M\nu \frac{R}{h} \mathbf{\Omega}_{\mathbf{SO}},\tag{4}$$

where M is the mass of the fluid and h the size of the viscous boundary layer, taken as  $h = \sqrt{\nu/\Omega_{SO}}$ . The power dissipated by the whole system (i.e. the container rotating at  $\Omega_{spin}$  plus the fluid rotating at  $\Omega_{spin} + \Omega_{SO}$ ) is then simply given by

$$P_{ell} = \mathbf{\Omega}_{\mathbf{SO}} \cdot \mathbf{C}^{\mathbf{m/c}} = -2M\nu \frac{R}{h} \Omega_{SO}^2, \tag{5}$$

Replacing  $\Omega_{SO}$  by  $\Omega_{spin}\omega_{SO}$ , where  $\omega_{SO}$  is the dimensionless spin-over mode amplitude which typically ranges between 0 (below threshold of the tidal instability) and 1 (far from threshold of the tidal instability), the dissipated power is written

$$P_{ell} = -2MR\sqrt{\nu}|\Omega_{spin}|^{5/2}|\omega_{SO}|^{5/2}.$$
 (6)

The non-linear evolution of  $\omega_{SO}$  as a function of time and its dependence 213 on  $\varepsilon$  and E have been modeled theoretically by Lacaze et al. (2004) for the 214 laminar mode, in close agreement with experimental results. We are thus in 215 position to evaluate the energy dissipation  $P_{ell}$  for the spin-over mode. In 216 the more general case where orbital velocity is present, the energy necessary 217 for the instability comes from the difference between the spin velocity and 218 the rotation velocity of the tides (i.e. the orbital velocity) and one may 219 reasonably expect the dissipated power to be 220

$$P_{ell} = -2M\sqrt{\nu}|\Omega_{spin} - \Omega_{orbit}|^{5/2}|\omega_{ell}|^{5/2}.$$
(7)

Here,  $\omega_{ell}$  is the dimensionless amplitude of the selected resonance, which should be comparable to the amplitude of the spin-over mode for the same values of eccentricity and Ekman number. Note that at large value of  $\varepsilon$  or small value of E, this calculation will represent a lower bound, since it does not take into account the additional turbulent dissipation coming from the chaotic motions superimposed on the large scale mode (see figure 5).

Evaluation of  $P_{ell}$  for the Earth is difficult because its core is just at the vicinity of the threshold for instability, where  $\omega_{ell}$  rapidly changes from 0 to 1 (Lacaze et al., 2006). Following Aldridge et al. (1997), if we suppose that the growth rate of the instability is correctly approximated by the classical

formula  $\sigma = 0.5\varepsilon - 2.62\sqrt{E}$  and that the typical growth rate of the instability 231 in the Earth ranges between  $10^3$  and  $10^6$  years, the dissipation due to the 232 (laminar) tidal instability ranges between  $P_{ell} \sim 10^9 W$  and  $P_{ell} \sim 2 \times 10^5 W$ 233 respectively. It thus remains relatively small compared to the viscous dissipa-234 tion by water tides on ocean floor (typically  $2 \times 10^{12} W$ ), which is supposed to 235 be the dominant effect in the case of the Earth. Let us now look at Jupiter's 236 moon Io. As explained for instance in Kerswell and Malkus (1998), Io is 237 almost synchronized in its revolution around Jupiter, but orbital resonances 238 with Europa and Ganymede force it to follow a slightly elliptical orbit of 239 eccentricity  $\beta = 0.004$ . As a result, the tidal bulge raised by Jupiter, of 240 magnitude  $\epsilon \sim 6 \times 10^{-3}$ , oscillates back and forth across Io's body with a 241 typical angular velocity  $\Omega_{orbit} = \Omega_{spin}(1 - 2\beta \cos(\Omega_{spin}t))$ . With the charac-242 teristic values for Io tides given by Kerswell and Malkus (1998), one then 243 finds that the elliptical instability almost saturates at its maximum value 244 (i.e.  $\omega_{ell} = 0.99$ ) and  $P_{ell} \sim 4 \times 10^9 W$  at saturation, i.e. a large dissipation 245 for fluid motion, but negligible compared to the estimated tidal dissipation in 246 Io's mantle (i.e.  $O(10^{14})W$ ). However this value corresponds to the present 247 state of Io (i.e. almost synchronized) and does not preclude that tidal dissi-248 pation may have had a first order influence in the past, especially during its 249 evolution towards synchronization. 250

# 3. A fully coupled model of synchronization of stellar and planetary binary systems

Our theoretical study, confirmed by laboratory experiments, highlights several points directly relevant to synchronizing stellar and planetary binary

systems. Provided that  $\sqrt{E}/\varepsilon \ll 1$  (which is usually the case for moons 255 and close binary stars, and which may be the case for some planetary cores), 256 we conclude from the previous section that (i) a mode of the elliptical insta-257 bility will always be excited, except when  $\Omega_{spin}/\Omega_{orbit} \in [-1; 1/3]$ , that (ii) 258 its growth rate is correctly approximated by equation (3) with a constant 259 1 < c < 10, that (iii) the induced fluid motion may take various and complex 260 forms, and that (iv) the tidal instability may generate first order motions. 261 As opposed to our experiments where spinning and orbital angular velocities 262 are imposed by two motors, the energy dissipation related to these motions 263 in natural configuration implies an evolution of the binary system towards 264 synchronization. To further illustrate and quantify this effect, we now exam-265 ine a fully coupled model of tidal synchronization based on our theoretical 266 and experimental results. Note again that in the limit  $\sqrt{E}/\varepsilon$  << 1, reso-267 nance bands are dense in the  $\Omega_{spin}/\Omega_{orbit}$  space, except in the stable range 268  $\Omega_{spin}/\Omega_{orbit} \in [-1; 1/3]$ . We thus suppose that during the evolution, the in-269 stability jumps from one resonance band to the following one while always 270 remaining at saturation. In particular, we do not consider any cyclic behav-271 ior with growing and breakdown phases of the instability, as observed in our 272 experiments with unaltered forcing. 273

We consider two spinning bodies of radius  $R_i$  and mass  $M_i$  orbiting on a circular trajectory of radius a. We note  $I_i$  and  $\Omega_{spin,i}$  the moment of inertia and the angular velocity of the mantle of body i, and  $I_{core,i}$  and  $\Omega_{core,i}$  the moment of inertia and the angular velocity of the core of body i. The tidal deformation of body 1 by body 2 is given in the limit of hydrostatic equilibrium by  $\epsilon = \frac{3}{2} \frac{M_2}{M_1} (\frac{R_1}{a})^3$ . The evolution of this system is described by

two coupled equations, corresponding to the conservation of total angularmomentum

$$L = \frac{M_1 M_2}{M_1 + M_2} a^2 \Omega_{orbit} + I_1 \Omega_{spin,1} + I_{core,1} \Omega_{core,1} + I_2 \Omega_{spin,2} + I_{core,2} \Omega_{core,2}, \quad (8)$$

<sup>282</sup> and to the decrease of mechanical energy

$$E = -\frac{GM_1M_2}{2a} + \frac{1}{2}I_1\Omega_{spin,1}^2 + \frac{1}{2}I_{core,1}\Omega_{core,1}^2 + \frac{1}{2}I_2\Omega_{spin,2}^2 + \frac{1}{2}I_{core,2}\Omega_{core,2}^2$$
(9)

because of tidal dissipation (see for instance Rieutord, 2003). As opposed to our experiments, the synchronizing system evolves from one resonance to another as the spin and orbital velocities continuously change. We suppose that the mode remains at saturation during this evolution, and thus approximate the tidal dissipation in the core of each body by (7) at saturation. The amplitude of the mode is given by the corresponding value of the spin-over mode determined by Lacaze et al. (2004).

Let's now assume that body 1 corresponds to a typical moon with a 290 50% core orbiting a large planet (for instance Io in the vicinity of Jupiter). 291 Then, the much heavier body 2 evolves on a much longer timescale, and 292 the spin and core velocities of body 2 in equations (8) and (9) can be taken 293 as constant. Besides, the angular momentum of the moon core typically 294 corresponds to 10% of the angular momentum of its mantle, and core terms 295 can be neglected in equations (8) and (9) to keep the problem simple. Then, 296 using equation (8) and the third Kepler law (i.e.  $\Omega_{orbit}^2 a^3 = G(M_1 + M_2)$ , 297 where G is the gravitational constant) to eliminate the orbital velocity and 298 radius, the energy equation  $dE/dt = -P_{ell}$  can easily be reduced to a single 299 equation for the spin angular velocity 300

$$\frac{d\Omega_{spin,1}}{dt} = -\frac{2M_c\nu^{1/2}}{I_1}|\omega_{ell}|^{5/2}|\Omega_{spin,1} - \Omega_{orbit}|^{1/2}(\Omega_{spin,1} - \Omega_{orbit}), \quad (10)$$

and 
$$a = \left(a_0^{1/2} + \frac{I_1(\Omega_{spin,1}^{init} - \Omega_{spin,1})}{M_1(GM_2)^{1/2}}\right)^2$$
,  $\Omega_{orbit} = \left(\frac{GM_2}{a^3}\right)^{1/2}$ , (11)

where  $M_c$  is the mass of the liquid core of body 1,  $\Omega_{spin,1}^{init}$  its initial spinning angular velocity and  $a_0$  the initial orbital radius. The  $(\Omega_{spin,1} - \Omega_{orbit})$ factor on the right-hand side of equation (10) implies that the system systematically evolves towards the equilibrium state of synchronization (i.e.  $\Omega_{spin,1} = \Omega_{orbit}$ ).

The evolution of a typical body equivalent to Jupiter's moon Io is shown 306 in figure 6 for three different initial conditions. When the tidal instability is 307 present, the evolution takes place on very short time scales of 10000 years, and 308 comes from energy dissipation as large as 100 times the present dissipation by 309 Io's mantle. Besides, figure 6 illustrates the following general rules. A slow or 310 moderately fast prograde moon (i.e.  $\Omega_{spin,1}^{init}/\Omega_{orbit}^{init} > 1/3$ , solid line) always 311 excites elliptical instability and thus evolves rapidly towards synchronization. 312 A slow retrograde moon (i.e.  $\Omega_{spin,1}^{init}/\Omega_{orbit}^{init} < -1$ , dashed line) initially ex-313 cites a resonance and thus evolves rapidly towards antisynchronization (i.e. 314  $\Omega_{spin,1} = -\Omega_{orbit}$ , where no resonance is possible anymore. Finally, a fast 315 retrograde or very fast prograde moon (i.e.  $-1 < \Omega_{spin,1}^{init} / \Omega_{orbit}^{init} < 1/3$ , dotted 316 line) cannot excite any resonance. Note that in the last two cases, the sys-317 tem should evolve because of other processes not considered here (e.g. solid 318 dissipation, viscous diffusion of the tidal shear, ...) and will ultimately reach 319 the domain of elliptical instability. However, it would be very interesting 320 to perform a systematic analysis of the ratio  $\Omega_{spin}/\Omega_{orbit}$  for all moons and 321 planets in planetary systems, in order to verify the potential impact of the 322 zone of slow evolution  $\Omega_{spin}/\Omega_{orbit} \in [-1; 1/3].$ 323

#### 324 4. Conclusion

In this paper, combining theoretical and experimental approaches, we 325 have systematically characterized the various and complex resonances excited 326 by tidal instability in planetary liquid cores and stars, depending on their 327 relative orbital and spinning angular velocities. We have also demonstrated 328 that tidal instability may play a dominant role in the synchronization process 329 of stellar and planetary binary systems. Of course, our approach is highly 330 simplified, regarding both the structural model of the binary system as well 331 as the estimated power dissipated by tides. Moreover, the elliptical insta-332 bility studied here will compete in natural configurations with various other 333 phenomena, such as stable stratification and convection (see for instance the 334 study of the interaction between the elliptical instability and thermal effects 335 in Le Bars and Le Dizès, 2006), or solidification (a solid inner core ampli-336 fies the viscous dissipation by the generation of detached shear layers, e.g. 337 Rieutord et al., 2001, but should appear on a longer time scale according 338 to the orders of magnitude found here). One should also notice that our 339 present study focus on hydrodynamical aspects of the tidal instability only, 340 neglecting Lorentz forces related to planetary or stellar magnetic fields. This 341 simplification is fully justified in the case of Io (see Herreman et al., 2009), 342 but magnetic effects may be predominant in other situations. Anyway, the 343 key point demonstrated here is that even if the tidal deformation is very 344 small, its subsequent instability may have a velocity amplitude of first order 345 over the whole domain and takes various and complex forms. As a result, 346 it appears that its influence should not be neglected or oversimplified when 347 describing the dynamics of planetary cores and stars, or when tackling other 348

<sup>349</sup> problems relevant at the planetary and stellar scales, such as core cooling<sup>350</sup> and dynamo process.

351

#### 352 Appendix A : notations.

The operators appearing in equation (2) are defined as follows.

Volume terms  $\tilde{\mathcal{J}}_{i|i}$ ,  $\tilde{\mathcal{N}}_{i|j}$  and  $\tilde{\mathcal{C}}_{i|i}$  respectively correspond to the norm of mode *i*, to the coupling coefficient between modes *i* and *j*, and to the detuning of the instability when  $\Omega$  is slightly off the perfect resonance condition. They are computed using the scalar product

$$\tilde{\mathcal{X}}_{i|j} = \int \int \bar{\mathbf{u}}_i^0 \cdot \tilde{\mathcal{X}} \mathbf{u}_j^0 r dr dz$$

<sup>358</sup> applied respectively to the operators

Here,  $D = -\frac{\partial}{\partial r} - I \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}$ ,  $I^2 = -1$ , and the vectors  $\mathbf{u}^0$  are defined as

$$\mathbf{u}^0 = \begin{pmatrix} u^0 \\ v^0 \\ w^0 \\ p^0 \end{pmatrix}$$

and correspond to the configuration without global rotation (see Lacaze et al.,
 2004).

Surface terms  $\nu_s^j$  and  $\tilde{I}_j$  respectively correspond to the viscous dissipation close to the solid boundary estimated using the work of Kudlick (1966) and to surface effect induced by the elliptic shape of the boundary. They are given by

$$\begin{split} \tilde{I}_1 &= \int_{-1}^1 p_1^0 \left( -I \frac{(1-z^2)}{4} \frac{\partial u_2^0}{\partial r} + \frac{(1-z^2)^{1/2}}{2} v_2^0 - I \frac{z(1-z^2)}{4} \frac{\partial w_2^0}{\partial r} - I \frac{z}{4} w_2^0 \right) dz, \\ \tilde{I}_2 &= \int_{-1}^1 p_2^0 \left( I \frac{(1-z^2)}{4} \frac{\partial u_1^0}{\partial r} + \frac{(1-z^2)^{1/2}}{2} v_1^0 + I \frac{z(1-z^2)}{4} \frac{\partial w_1^0}{\partial r} + I \frac{z}{4} w_1^0 \right) dz, \end{split}$$

366

and 
$$\nu_s^j = \int_{Sphere} \nabla^* p_j^0 \cdot \mathcal{L} dS$$
,

367 where  $\nabla^* = (\partial/\partial r, -Im/r, \partial/\partial z),$ 

$$\mathcal{L} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{Q_{+}}{-p_{+}} + \frac{Q_{-}}{-p_{-}} \right) \\ -\frac{I}{2\cos\phi} \left( \frac{Q_{+}}{-p_{+}} - \frac{Q_{-}}{-p_{-}} \right) \\ -\frac{\tan\phi}{2} \left( \frac{Q_{+}}{-p_{+}} + \frac{Q_{-}}{-p_{-}} \right) \end{pmatrix},$$

368

$$p_{\pm} = \frac{1 + I \operatorname{sign} \left( (1 + \Omega) \left( -\frac{\omega - m}{1 + \Omega} \pm 2 \cos \phi \right) \right)}{\sqrt{2}} \sqrt{\left| (1 + \Omega) \left( -\frac{\omega - m}{1 + \Omega} \pm 2 \cos \phi \right) \right|},$$
  
and  $Q_{\pm} = u^0 \pm I v^0 \cos \phi$ 

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Figure 1: (a) Sketch of the experimental set-up and (b) correspondence with the geophysical configuration (top view).

Figure 2: (a) Viscous growth rate as a function of  $\Omega$ , determined analytically for the first 21 principal resonances of the (-1, 1) mode (continuous lines), of the (0, 2) mode (dashed lines) and of the (1, 3) mode (dotted lines), for fixed values of eccentricity  $\varepsilon = 0.16$ and Ekman number  $E = 1.7 \times 10^{-4}$ . Symbols stand for the location of experimentally observed resonances, with triangles corresponding to (-1, 1) modes, stars to (0, 2) modes and squares to (1, 3) modes. (b) The same for  $\varepsilon = 0.16$ ,  $E = 1.7 \times 10^{-8}$  and (c)  $\varepsilon = 0.016$ ,  $E = 1.7 \times 10^{-8}$ . Also shown in (c) is the approximated growth rate given by equation (3), using two extreme values c = 0 and c = 10. Note that in the limit  $\sqrt{E}/\varepsilon << 1$ , resonance bands are dense in the  $\Omega$  space, except in the stable range  $\Omega \in [-3/2; -1/2]$ . The false impression that holes without resonance could be created in (c) only comes from the fact that we restrain our computations to the first 63 resonances.

Figure 3: Time sequence of the periodic (0,2) mode excited in our experiment for  $\varepsilon = 0.16$ ,  $E = 4.5 \times 10^{-4}$  and  $\Omega = -0.20$  (i.e.  $\Omega_F = 4.7 rad/s$  and  $\Omega_{orbit} = -0.94 rad/s$ ).

Figure 4: Spatiotemporal diagrams obtained by extracting the same line parallel to the rotation axis in each image of a given video sequence: (a) (0,2) mode excited in our experiment for  $\varepsilon = 0.16$ ,  $E = 4.5 \times 10^{-4}$  and  $\Omega = -0.20$  (i.e.  $\Omega_F = 4.7 rad/s$  and  $\Omega_{orbit} = -0.94 rad/s$ ) and (b) (1,3) mode excited in our experiment for  $\varepsilon = 0.16$ ,  $E = 3.4 \times 10^{-4}$  and  $\Omega = -0.11$  (i.e.  $\Omega_F = 6.2 rad/s$  and  $\Omega_{orbit} = -0.68 rad/s$ ). The measured mode pulsations are respectively  $\omega = 4.4 rad/s$  and  $\omega = 12.6 rad/s$ , in good agreement with the theoretical predictions.

Figure 5: Kalliroscope visualization of the elliptical instability for a fixed Ekman number  $E = 10^{-5}$  and increasing values of  $\varepsilon$  (note that these four pictures were obtained in a 20cm in diameter sphere). The effective rotation axis of the fluid is clearly visible, coming from the superimposition of the imposed vertical rotation and the spin-over mode. Hence, the inclination angle is an indication of the ratio between the mode amplitude and the imposed rotation. It seems to saturate for  $\varepsilon/\sqrt{E} > 0(10)$ , where the instability induces velocity perturbations comparable to the imposed rotation velocity. Further increasing  $\varepsilon$ , the flow becomes more and more complex at small scale where disordered motions take place. However, the spin-over mode remains present at large scale. The same behavior is observed when decreasing the Ekman number. Such an organization of the flow with a large scale excited mode with first order velocities and superimposed three dimensional turbulence is expected at the planetary scale, for instance in Io's core.

Figure 6: Evolution of a typical moon corresponding to Io under the influence of Jupiter's tides (i.e.  $M_1 = 8.93 \times 10^{22} kg$ ,  $M_2 = 1.90 \times 10^{27} kg$ ,  $a_0 = 421800 km$ ,  $R_1 = 1840 km$  with a 50% core,  $I_1 = 1.2 \times 10^{35} kg.m^2$ ,  $\nu = 10^{-6} m^2 s^{-1}$ ) for three different initial spinning angular velocities, corresponding to a slow prograde moon  $(\Omega_{spin,1}^{init}/\Omega_{orbit}^{init} = 4$ , solid line), to a slow retrograde moon  $(\Omega_{spin,1}^{init}/\Omega_{orbit}^{init} = -4$ , dashed line) and to a rapid moon  $(\Omega_{spin,1}^{init}/\Omega_{orbit}^{init} = 1/4$ , dotted line): (a) evolution of the distance between Io and Jupiter in comparison with the initial distance  $a_0 = 421800 km$ , (b) evolution of the ratio between the spin and orbital angular velocities and (c) dissipated power by the elliptical instability.



Figure 1



Figure 2



Figure 3





(**c**) ε=0.05









Figure 6