## Scaling in magnetohydrodynamic convection at high Rayleigh number

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The theory of Grossmann and Lohse [J. Fluid Mech. **407**, 27 (2000)] is extended to include the effect of a magnetic field on convection of an electrically conducting fluid. Different scaling laws are obtained depending on whether the bulk or the boundary layers make the major contribution to the dissipation. Scalings are obtained for both weak and strong magnetic fields. The predictions are shown to be in better agreement with experimental data than earlier theoretical models.

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A horizontal layer of fluid, when heated from below, be-  
comes unstable when the Rayleigh number Ra exceeds a  
critical value Ra<sub>c</sub>. Beyond this value convection sets in lead-  
ing to enhancement in heat transport, which is measured by  
the Nusselt number Nu. For Ra > Ra<sub>c</sub> the convective motion  
becomes turbulent and there has been considerable interest in  
trying to predict the dependence of Nu on Ra for very high  
values of Ra. Experimental studies [1–11] show a power-law  
dependence Nu ~ Ra<sup>$$\beta$$</sup> with values of  $\beta$  between 1/4 and  
1/2. These experimental observations have been compared  
with available theoretical models [12–23]. One of the most  
comprehensive of these is the Grossmann and Lohse (GL)  
model [20], further extended in [21–23], which considers  
different regimes and seems to explain well the 1/4, 2/7,  
and 1/3 power laws observed at relatively low, intermediate,  
and very high values of Ra. In a more recent study,  
Grossmann and Lohse [24] considered the role of plumes  
and used a decomposition for the thermal dissipation rate  
into the plume and the background contributions instead of  
that into the boundary layer and the bulk contributions [20].  
This was motivated by numerical studies of high Ra convec-  
tion, although there was no disagreement between the earlier  
theory [20] and experiments as far as the scaling laws were  
concerned. Further, even with the new theory the scaling  
laws remained unchanged. At present there is not enough  
numerical or experimental data to decide whether plumes  
play a significant role in high-Ra magnetohydrodynamic  
convection.

One reason for interest in high-Ra convection is that in astrophysics and geophysics we often have convection occurring at extremely high values of Ra. Usually a magnetic field is present and it is known that a magnetic field can suppress convection when the fluid is electrically conducting. Therefore, it would be of interest to study the effect of a magnetic field on high-Ra convection of an electrically conducting fluid. Some theoretical and experimental work on this has been reported [25-28]; however, there is still not very good agreement between theoretical models and experimental data. The numerical results show very good agreement with the experimental data but these computations are time consuming and, therefore, there is need for simple theoretical models to explain the experimental results. With that aim, in this study, we generalize the GL model [20] to include the effect of an imposed vertical magnetic field.

The governing equations for an electrically conducting fluid in a magnetic field, using the Boussinesq approximation, are

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} = -\frac{1}{\rho} \nabla p + \frac{1}{\rho} \mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B} + g \alpha \theta \mathbf{k} + \nu \nabla^2 \mathbf{u}, \quad (1)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0, \tag{2}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{B} = \mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} - \frac{1}{\sigma} \nabla \times \mathbf{J}, \qquad (3)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\nabla} \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0, \tag{4}$$

$$\mu \mathbf{J} = \boldsymbol{\nabla} \times \mathbf{B},\tag{5}$$

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \theta = \kappa \nabla^2 \theta, \tag{6}$$

where  $\mathbf{u}$  is the fluid velocity,  $\mathbf{B}$  is the magnetic field,  $\mathbf{J}$  is the current density,  $\theta$  and p are the temperature and pressure,  $\rho$ ,  $\alpha$ ,  $\nu$ ,  $\sigma$ , and  $\kappa$  are the density, coefficient of thermal expansion, kinematic viscosity, electrical conductivity, and thermal diffusivity of the fluid, g is the acceleration due to gravity, and  $\mu$  is the permeability, assumed to be that of vacuum. SI units are used so that the units of  $\mu$ , B, J, and  $\sigma$  are T m/A, T,  $A/m^2$ , and  $ohm^{-1}/m$ . Here temperature is measured with respect to a reference temperature and pressure with respect to the hydrostatic pressure field corresponding to this reference temperature. We have used a Cartesian coordinate system (x, y, z) with unit vectors  $(\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{j}, \mathbf{k})$  along the coordinate axes. The fluid is assumed to occupy the region  $-\infty < x, y$  $<\infty$ , 0 < z < L. Gravity is in the direction -**k**. We assume that the boundaries at z=0 and L are rigid and have infinite thermal and electrical conductivity. Each of the boundaries is assumed to be maintained at constant temperature. Choosing the temperature of the upper boundary as the reference temperature and assuming that a temperature difference  $\Delta$  is imposed across the layer to drive convection, the appropriate boundary conditions are [29]

$$\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0} \quad \text{at } z = 0 \text{ and } L, \tag{7}$$

$$\theta = \Delta$$
 at  $z = 0$ ,  $\theta = 0$  at  $z = L$ , (8)

$$B_z = B_0, \quad J_x = J_y = 0 \quad \text{at } z = 0 \text{ and } L,$$
 (9)

where  $B_0$  is the imposed uniform vertical magnetic field.

Following Ref. [20] the starting point for our analysis is the dissipation rates

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{u} = \boldsymbol{\nu} \langle |\boldsymbol{\nabla} \mathbf{u}|^{2} \rangle, \quad \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{J} = \frac{1}{\rho \sigma} \langle |\mathbf{J}|^{2} \rangle, \quad \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{\theta} = \boldsymbol{\kappa} \langle |\boldsymbol{\nabla} \theta|^{2} \rangle, \quad (10)$$

where angular brackets denote volume averages over the fluid layer. Here  $\epsilon_u$  and  $\epsilon_{\theta}$  are same as in Ref. [20] while  $\epsilon_J$ 

is the averaged Ohmic dissipation rate per unit mass. We assume a stationary state where all volume averages are time independent. Using the governing equations these can be shown to obey certain rigorous relations. Scalar-multiplying Eq. (1) by **u** and averaging over the fluid layer, we obtain

$$0 = \frac{1}{\rho\mu} \langle \mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{B}) \rangle + \alpha g \langle w \theta \rangle - \nu \langle |\nabla \mathbf{u}|^2 \rangle, \qquad (11)$$

where w is the z component of **u**. Again scalar-multiplying Eq. (3) by **B** and averaging over the fluid layer, it can be readily shown using Eq. (9) that

$$0 = \langle \mathbf{B} \cdot (\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u}) \rangle - \frac{\mu}{\sigma} \langle |\mathbf{J}|^2 \rangle.$$
(12)

From Eqs. (11) and (12) we obtain [25]

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{u} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{J} = \alpha g \langle w \theta \rangle. \tag{13}$$

This equation states that the sum of the viscous and Ohmic dissipation rates is equal to the rate of energy released due to buoyancy force. From Eq. (6) it can be shown that [16]

$$\langle w\theta \rangle = \frac{\kappa\Delta}{L}(\mathrm{Nu}-1),$$
 (14)

where the Nusselt number is defined by  $Nu = (L/\Delta) \times (-d\overline{\theta}/dz)_{z=0}$ , the overbar on  $\theta$  denotes an average over a horizontal plane, and it is assumed that horizontal averages again are time independent. From Eqs. (13) and (14) we obtain

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{u} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{J} = \frac{\nu^{3}}{L^{4}} \frac{\text{Ra}}{\text{Pr}^{2}} (\text{Nu} - 1), \qquad (15)$$

where the Rayleigh number  $\operatorname{Ra}=g\alpha\Delta L^3/\kappa\nu$  and the Prandtl number  $\operatorname{Pr}=\nu/\kappa$ . Multiplying Eq. (6) by  $\theta$  and averaging over the fluid layer, we obtain [16]

$$\kappa \langle |\boldsymbol{\nabla} \theta|^2 \rangle = -\frac{\kappa \Delta}{L} \left( \frac{d\overline{\theta}}{dz} \right)_{z=0}.$$
 (16)

It readily follows that

$$\epsilon_{\theta} = \kappa \frac{\Delta^2}{L^2} \text{Nu.}$$
(17)

Dissipation takes place both in the bulk and in the boundary layers which form near the walls. In the absence of a magnetic field a hydrodynamic boundary layer of thickness  $\lambda_u$  and a thermal boundary layer of thickness  $\lambda_\theta$  form, with

$$\lambda_u \sim L/\text{Re}^{1/2}, \quad \lambda_\theta \sim L/\text{Nu},$$
 (18)

where it has been assumed that flow inside the boundary layers is laminar. In the presence of a strong magnetic field both the velocity and the magnetic field vary rapidly inside a Hartmann boundary layer of thickness  $\lambda_H$  [30], while the temperature varies rapidly in the thermal boundary layer of thickness  $\lambda_{\theta}$ . Again assuming laminar flow inside the boundary layers it can be shown that

$$\lambda_H \sim L/Q^{1/2}, \quad \lambda_\theta \sim L/\mathrm{Nu},$$
 (19)

where  $Q = B_0^2 \sigma L^2 / \rho \nu$  is the Chandrasekhar number. The derivation of  $\lambda_H$  is similar to that for  $\lambda_u$  and involves ordering of

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the terms in the governing equations. Following Ref. [20] we decompose the globally averaged dissipation rates into their boundary layer (BL) and bulk contributions

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{u} = \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{u,\mathrm{BL}} + \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{u,\mathrm{bulk}},\tag{20}$$

with similar expressions for  $\epsilon_J$  and  $\epsilon_{\theta}$ .

In the bulk Grossmann and Lohse [20] assumed that there is a balance between the dissipation and the large-scale convective term. In the absence of a magnetic field this leads to

$$\epsilon_{u,\text{bulk}} \sim \frac{U^3}{L} \sim \frac{\nu^3}{L^4} \text{Re}^3,$$
 (21)

where the Reynolds number is defined by  $\text{Re}=UL/\nu$ . Here U is the mean large-scale velocity near the boundaries of the cell, the "thermal wind" first observed by Krishnamurti and Howard [31]. When a magnetic field is present, we assume that in the magnetic induction equation the balance is between the dissipation term, which can also be written as  $\eta \nabla^2 \mathbf{B}$ , where the magnetic diffusivity  $\eta = 1/\mu\sigma$ , and the term  $\mathbf{B} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u}$ . Assuming that the induced magnetic field is  $\sim \Delta B$ , this requires  $\eta \Delta B/L^2 \sim B_0 U/L$ . Consequently

$$\epsilon_{J,\text{bulk}} \sim \frac{1}{\rho\sigma} \frac{(\Delta B)^2}{\mu^2 L^2} \sim \frac{B_0^2 U^2}{\rho\mu\eta} = \frac{\nu^3}{L^4} \text{Re}^3 \frac{Q}{\text{Re}}.$$
 (22)

Therefore, when  $Q \gg \text{Re}$ ,  $\epsilon_{u,\text{bulk}} \ll \epsilon_{J,\text{bulk}}$  and consequently  $\epsilon_{u,\text{bulk}}$  can be neglected compared to  $\epsilon_{J,\text{bulk}}$ . The ordering for  $\Delta B$  would seem to lead to a contradiction in the momentum equation since

$$\left| \frac{1}{\rho} \mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B} \right| \sim \frac{B_0 \Delta B}{\rho \mu L} \sim \frac{B_0^2 U}{\rho \mu \eta} \sim \frac{U^2}{L} \frac{Q}{\mathrm{Re}},$$
$$\left| \mathbf{u} \cdot \nabla \mathbf{u} \right| \sim \frac{U^2}{L}.$$

For  $Q \ge \text{Re}$  it is not clear what balances the  $\mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B}$  force. However, it is known [32,33] that in strongly magnetized plasmas the magnetic field relaxes to a force-free state so that  $|\mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B}| \ll |\mathbf{J}||\mathbf{B}|$ . Then the  $|\mathbf{J} \times \mathbf{B}|$  term can be small enough to be balanced by the other terms in the momentum equation. In the temperature equation again we assume a balance between the dissipation and the large-scale convective term. When  $\lambda_u, \lambda_H < \lambda_{\theta}$ , the appropriate velocity scale is *U* and we have

$$\epsilon_{\theta,\text{bulk}} \sim \frac{U\Delta^2}{L} = \kappa \frac{\Delta^2}{L^2} \text{Pr Re.}$$
 (23)

In the absence of a strong magnetic field if  $\lambda_u > \lambda_{\theta}$ , where the thermal BL meets the bulk, the velocity is  $U\lambda_{\theta}/\lambda_u$  and this provides the appropriate velocity scale. Consequently

$$\epsilon_{\theta,\text{bulk}} \sim \frac{\lambda_{\theta}}{\lambda_{u}} \frac{U\Delta^{2}}{L} = \kappa \frac{\Delta^{2}}{L^{2}} \frac{\text{Pr Re}^{3/2}}{\text{Nu}}.$$
 (24)

Similarly, in the presence of a strong magnetic field if  $\lambda_H > \lambda_{\theta}$  the appropriate velocity scale is  $U\lambda_{\theta}/\lambda_H$  and consequently

$$\epsilon_{\theta,\text{bulk}} \sim \frac{\lambda_{\theta}}{\lambda_{H}} \frac{U\Delta^{2}}{L} = \kappa \frac{\Delta^{2}}{L^{2}} \frac{\text{Pr Re}Q^{1/2}}{\text{Nu}}.$$
 (25)

We next derive estimates for dissipation rates in the boundary layers. In the absence of a magnetic field we have [20]

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_{u,\mathrm{BL}} \sim \frac{\nu^3}{L^4} \mathrm{Re}^{5/2}.$$
 (26)

In the presence of a strong magnetic field we have

$$\epsilon_{u,\mathrm{BL}} \sim \nu \frac{U^2}{\lambda_H^2} \frac{\lambda_H}{L} \sim \frac{\nu^3}{L^4} \mathrm{Re}^2 Q^{1/2}, \qquad (27)$$

$$\epsilon_{J,\text{BL}} \sim \frac{1}{\rho\sigma} \frac{(\Delta B)^2}{\mu^2 \lambda_H^2} \frac{\lambda_H}{L} \sim \frac{\nu^3}{L^4} \text{Re}^2 Q^{1/2}.$$
 (28)

Estimating  $\epsilon_{\theta,BL}$  again leads to the same expression as in Eq. (17). So Grossmann and Lohse [20] went back and did an ordering of the terms in Eq. (6) to derive certain relations. Following that procedure, for  $\lambda_u, \lambda_H < \lambda_\theta$  we obtain

Nu ~ 
$$Re^{1/2}$$
Pr<sup>1/2</sup>, (29)

while, in the absence of a magnetic field, for 
$$\lambda_u > \lambda_{\theta}$$
  
Nu ~  $Re^{1/2} Pr^{1/3}$ , (30)

and in the presence of a strong magnetic field, for  $\lambda_H > \lambda_{\theta}$ , Nu ~ Re<sup>1/3</sup>Pr<sup>1/3</sup>O<sup>1/6</sup>. (31)

We now derive scaling laws following the procedure of Ref. [20]. As in Ref. [20] we consider the four regimes (I) both  $\epsilon_u + \epsilon_J$  and  $\epsilon_{\theta}$  are dominated by their BL contributions; (II)  $\epsilon_{\theta}$  is dominated by  $\epsilon_{\theta,BL}$  and  $\epsilon_u + \epsilon_J$  is dominated by  $\epsilon_{u,bulk} + \epsilon_{J,bulk}$ ; (III)  $\epsilon_u + \epsilon_J$  is dominated by  $\epsilon_{u,BL} + \epsilon_{J,BL}$  and  $\epsilon_{\theta}$  is dominated by  $\epsilon_{\theta,bulk}$ ; and (IV) both  $\epsilon_u + \epsilon_J$  and  $\epsilon_{\theta}$  are bulk dominated. Grossmann and Lohse [20] further use subscripts l and u to distinguish the situations  $\lambda_u < \lambda_{\theta}$  and  $\lambda_u > \lambda_{\theta}$  which, in the absence of a magnetic field, correspond to low and high Pr.

For very high Ra the boundary layers are very thin and we expect the dissipation rates to be dominated by contributions from the bulk. Therefore, this is in regime IV and if we assume  $\lambda_u, \lambda_H < \lambda_\theta$  it is regime IV<sub>1</sub>. Substituting for  $\epsilon_u$  and  $\epsilon_J$  from Eqs. (21) and (22) in Eq. (15) and for  $\epsilon_\theta$  from Eq. (23) in Eq. (17) we obtain

$$\frac{\mathrm{Ra}}{\mathrm{Pr}^2}\mathrm{Nu} \sim \mathrm{Re}^3 \left(1 + C\frac{Q}{\mathrm{Re}}\right),\tag{32}$$

$$Nu \sim Pr Re,$$
 (33)

where C is a constant that depends on the ratio of Ohmic to viscous dissipation. From Eqs. (32) and (33) it readily follows that

Nu ~ 
$$\frac{\text{Ra}^{1/2}\text{Pr}^{1/2}}{(1 + CORe^{-1})^{1/2}}$$
. (34)

For Q=0 this reduces to Nu ~ Ra<sup>1/2</sup>Pr<sup>1/2</sup> as in Ref. [20]. For Q=0 we also obtain Re ~ Ra<sup>1/2</sup>Pr<sup>-1/2</sup>. For small values of Q we can use this expression in the term involving Q to obtain

Nu ~ 
$$\frac{\text{Ra}^{1/2}\text{Pr}^{1/2}}{(1 + C_1 Q \text{Ra}^{-1/2} \text{Pr}^{1/2})^{1/2}},$$
 (35)

where  $C_1$  is a constant. This shows that Nu decreases with increase in Q, as expected. When a strong magnetic field is

present so that  $Q/\text{Re} \ge 1$ ,  $\epsilon_u$  can be neglected in comparison with  $\epsilon_J$ , and Eq. (32) can be approximated by

$$\frac{\mathrm{Ra}}{\mathrm{Pr}^2}\mathrm{Nu} \sim \mathrm{Re}^2 Q. \tag{36}$$

From Eqs. (33) and (36) we readily obtain

$$\mathrm{Nu} \sim \frac{\mathrm{Ra}}{Q}.$$
 (37)

This is identical with the relation derived in Ref. [26] using a local stability criterion for the boundary layer. We now consider regime IV<sub>u</sub> where  $\lambda_u, \lambda_H > \lambda_\theta$ . Equation (32) still remains valid. In the presence of a weak magnetic field, substituting for  $\epsilon_\theta$  from Eq. (24) in Eq. (17), we obtain in place of Eq. (33)

$$Nu \sim \frac{\Pr \operatorname{Re}^{3/2}}{\operatorname{Nu}}.$$
(38)

Following a procedure similar to that for regime  $IV_l$ , in the presence of a weak magnetic field we obtain

Nu ~ 
$$\frac{\text{Ra}^{1/3}}{(1 + C_2 Q \text{Ra}^{-4/9} \text{Pr}^{2/3})^{1/3}},$$
 (39)

where  $C_2$  is again a constant. When a strong magnetic field is present  $\lambda_H$  is very small and we do not expect the condition  $\lambda_H > \lambda_{\theta}$ , required for the configuration to be in regime IV<sub>u</sub>, to be satisfied.

In laboratory experiments using mercury we have  $\lambda_u, \lambda_H < \lambda_{\theta}$ . Therefore, as Ra is reduced we expect to go from regime IV<sub>l</sub> to regime II<sub>l</sub>. In this regime Eq. (32) still holds, together with Eq. (29). From these two equations it can be readily shown that in the presence of a weak magnetic field we have

Nu ~ 
$$\frac{\text{Ra}^{1/5}\text{Pr}^{1/5}}{(1 + C_3 Q \text{Ra}^{-2/5}\text{Pr}^{3/5})^{1/5}},$$
 (40)

where  $C_3$  is a constant, while in the presence of a strong magnetic field Eq. (32) is replaced by Eq. (36) and we have

Nu ~ 
$$\frac{\text{Ra}^{1/3}}{O^{1/3}}$$
. (41)

As we decrease Ra further we expect to go to regime I. Substituting for  $\epsilon_u$  and  $\epsilon_J$  from Eqs. (27) and (28) in Eq. (15), we obtain

$$\frac{\mathrm{Ra}}{\mathrm{Pr}^2}\mathrm{Nu} \sim \mathrm{Re}^2 Q^{1/2}.$$
(42)

Further, assuming that  $\lambda_H < \lambda_{\theta}$ , Eq. (29) is applicable. From these two equations we readily obtain

Nu ~ 
$$\frac{\text{Ra}^{1/3}}{Q^{1/6}}$$
. (43)

The relative weight of the two dissipation terms in Eq. (15) does introduce an additional parameter. However, in the limiting cases where one of the terms is assumed negligible this additional parameter does not appear. One limiting case is the original GL model [20] where  $\epsilon_J$  is not present; the other is the strong magnetic field regime where  $\epsilon_{\mu}$  is consid-

ered negligible compared to  $\epsilon_J$ . However, in general, an additional parameter is present as seen in Eqs. (35), (39), and (40). This parameter, like the prefactors in the GL model, will have to be determined from experiments.

Bhattacharjee et al. [26] provide the scaling laws Nu ~ Ra/Q and Nu~ Ra<sup>1/2</sup>/ $Q^{3/4}$  in two different regimes. The experimental data of Cioni et al. [27] show very good agreement with their predictions in the first regime but in the second regime their data show a much weaker dependence on O, which is better approximated by  $Nu \sim Ra^{0.43}/Q^{0.25}$ . This is quite close to our predictions in regimes I and II. Grossmann and Lohse [20] had also shown that some empirical fits to experimental data can be explained by superposing two scalings. We have derived the scalings in Eqs. (37) and (43) by neglecting the dissipation in the boundary layers and in the bulk. Taking into account that both contributions are present we can use a superposition of these two scalings. Since the power-law exponents for Ra and Q in these two scalings bracket the values 0.43 and -0.25 of the fit to experimental data it appears that a suitable superposition can approximate the experimental data well. However, it should be pointed out that agreement between theory and experiment, in the absence of a magnetic field, was demonstrated using data spanning several decades in Ra. The experimental data for convection in the presence of a magnetic field do not span even one decade in Q while the numerical results reported consist of just five data points. Therefore, more data are required before the question of quantitative agreement can be settled. In the absence of a magnetic field there have been theoretical predictions supported by some experimental observations that the power-law exponent goes up for very high values of Ra. The experimental observations in the presence of a magnetic field show just the opposite

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trend. However, for very high values of Ra our model predicts a linear increase of Nu with Ra in the presence of a strong magnetic field. Thus the power-law exponent is twice what it is in the absence of a magnetic field, assuming that  $\lambda_{\mu}, \lambda_{H} < \lambda_{\theta}$ . A similar trend was obtained by Montgomery [25] who found bounds for Nu which scale as Ra<sup>3/8</sup> when the magnetic field is weak but as Ra<sup>3/4</sup> in the presence of a strong magnetic field. The bounds also contain a numerical factor which again depends on Ra but even when this is taken into account we expect the effective power-law exponent to be higher when a strong magnetic field is present. Since the experiments of Cioni *et al.* [27] did not go to very high values of Ra it is difficult to say what the trend would be in higher ranges of Ra. One limitation of the present study is that for high values of Ra the boundary layers can become turbulent and this has not been considered in our model. Also since our model assumes fully turbulent flow it cannot predict the scalings just beyond the onset of instability where the experimental findings are explained well by the local stability theory [26]. In conclusion our model shows better agreement with experimental data especially in predicting the Q dependence of Nu but more experimental data and numerical results and further refinement of theory are needed before a firm statement about quantitative agreement can be made. We have also provided scalings that show the effect of a weak magnetic field which has not been done earlier to our knowledge, and these are of practical importance since convection in stars is usually in the kinetic regime [34] where the magnetic field is weak.

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