

Numerical Study of Surface Tension Driven Convection in Thermal Magnetic Fluids

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Abstract

Microgravity conditions pose unique challenges for fluid handling and heat transfer applications. By controlling (curtailing or augmenting) the buoyant and thermocapillary convection, the latter being the dominant convective flow in a microgravity environment, significant advantages can be achieved in space based processing. The control of this surface tension gradient driven flow is sought using a magnetic field, and the effects of these are studied computationally. A two-fluid layer system, with the lower fluid being a non-conducting ferrofluid, is considered under the influence of a horizontal temperature gradient. To capture the deformable interface, a numerical method to solve the Navier-Stokes equations, Heat equations and Maxwell's equations was developed using a hybrid Level Set/ Volume-of-Fluid technique. The convective velocities and heat fluxes were studied under various regimes of the thermal Marangoni number Ma , the external field represented by the magnetic Bond number Bo_m , and various gravity levels, Fr . Regimes where the convection were either curtailed or augmented were identified. It was found that the surface force due to the step change in the magnetic permeability at the interface could be suitably utilized to control the instability at the interface.

Symbols

CHT_x or y : Convective heat Transfer, x and y direction

Ma : Marangoni Number

Bo_m : Magnetic Bond Number

Fr : Froude Number

Gr : Grashof Number

Re : Reynolds number

We : Weber Number

L : Length scale

u, v : velocity in the x- and y- direction

ρ : Density
Cp: Coefficient of Heat
T: Temperature
 σ : constant of surface tension
B: External magnetic field
H: Magnetization
 μ : Magnetic permeability
 ϕ : Level Set function

1 Introduction

Systems of immiscible fluid layers can be found in a number of applications in areas such as materials processing and convective heat and mass transfer. In the area of materials processing we can provide examples such as use of encapsulants in float zone crystal growth process and a buffer layer in industrial Czochralski crystal growth process to prevent convection due to the surface tension gradient force. In the microgravity and space-processing realm, the exploration of other planets requires the development of enabling technologies in several fronts. The reduction in the gravity level poses unique challenges for fluid handling and heat transfer applications. By controlling (curtailing or augmenting) the buoyant and thermocapillary convection, the latter is the dominant convective flow in a microgravity environment, significant advantages can be achieved by pursuing space based processing.

The study considers thermal convective flow and its control using magnetic fluids and magnetic fields in a two immiscible fluid-layer system subjected to an imposed temperature gradient, which is assumed to be parallel to the averaged location of the interface between the two layers. Using an external magnetic field one can essentially dial in a volumetric force – gravity level, on the magnetic fluid and thereby affect the system thermo-fluid behavior.

Convection control (flow reduction or enhancement) is an important problem with many practical applications; In terrestrial applications such as heat exchanges where augmented heat transfer is desirable in order to achieve higher efficiencies, gravity induced convection due to thermal buoyancy force assists fluid flow and heat transfer. In reduced-gravity situations heat transfer enhancement is important and is solely achieved using forced flow configurations; In semiconductor crystal growth applications, however, convection can cause undesirable motions in the melt resulting in higher defect densities, improper mixing resulting in reduced inhomogeneity (dopant distribution) and therefore non uniform properties (electrical) of the grown crystals. Experiments conducted in space have yielded promising results for alloy-semiconductors that are traditionally difficult to grown on Earth because of wide disparities in the material properties (densities) of the components; (iv) In containerless processing of materials that is used to significantly reduce the thermal and contact stresses and impurity incorporation in the grown crystal, significant flows due to Marangoni (thermocapillary) and solutocapillary convection plaque the growth process and the resulting crystal quality. Again different methods of convection control such as liquid encapsulation, static and dynamic magnetic field approaches have been used to reduce the so-called convective contamination in the system. The encapsulant also serves to reduce the evaporation of a volatile component in the crystal growth, for example, Boron oxide encapsulant is used in GaAs crystal growth to reduce the volatile As from escaping the system and thereby affecting the crystal stoichiometry.

While a level of convection control can be realized by using magnetic means, usually through Lorentz dissipation, the force reduces as the system flow reduces so that in order to approach diffusion limited conditions ($Pe < 1$, where Pe is the Peclet number, a ratio of the system thermal to viscous transport), large magnetic fields (~ 1 Tesla) are required. Dynamic magnetic fields such as rotating magnetic fields (rmf) and traveling magnetic fields (tmf) are also being studied for this purpose. It has been shown that significantly reduced magnetic field strengths (~ 3 orders of magnitude smaller) are required for rmf damping than a static one. Magnetic damping is non-intrusive and its intensity can be controlled externally. A few studies are ongoing that utilize a magnetic field gradient and the variation of the material susceptibility with temperature to control fluid flow in a system. In this approach, the magnetic field-field gradient product acts as a body force similar to gravity and can be tailored to either curtail or enhance the fluid flow. This can be likened to prescribing a desired gravity-level on the system and is a powerful experimental tool for simulating variable and reduced gravity environments.

The main objectives of the study are briefly as follows. For pure buoyancy driven flow studies, we will utilize a working fluid that is magnetically responsive (ferrofluid). For working fluids that are not magnetically responsive (weak diamagnetic properties) we propose the use of an additional fluid, such as a ferrofluid, to form an immiscible double-layer system configuration. For the latter, we would like to determine the flow solutions in both layers for deformed interface cases. We would like to carry out stability analysis to determine the range of the parameter values under which steady and time dependent solutions are stable and thus preferred. We want to determine conditions under which such solutions are most realistic and search for the conditions on the magnetic fields and fluids where convection is maximally reduced (halt condition). For the deformed interface cases, we would like to examine the interface dynamics and the roles played by the magnetic fields with different strength and orientation on the flow intensity, flow patterns, convective instability, surface tension, due to interface and free surface, and fluid viscosity.

1.1 Immiscible Fluid Layers

There have been a number of studies on the effects of convection in systems of immiscible fluid layers subjected to imposed temperature gradients (Szekely and Todd 1971; Simanovskii 1979; Bourde and Simonovskii 1979; Knight and Palmer 1983; Kimura *et al.* 1985; Sparrow *et al.* 1986; Myrum *et al.* 1986; Nepomnyashchy and Simanovskii 1990; Simonovskii *et al.* 1992; Liu and Roux 1992; Georis *et al.* 1993; Ramachandran 1993; Doi and Koster 1993; Prakash and Koster 1993, 1994a, 1994b, 1994c; Georis *et al.* 1994; Georis and Legros 1995; Kats-Demianets *et al.* 1997a,b; Georis *et al.* 1997; Nepomnyashchy and Simanovskii 1997; Kliakhandler *et al.* 1998; Xu and Zebib 1998; Nepomnyashchy and Simanovskii 1999; Georis *et al.* 1999; Kliakhandler and Nepomnyashchy 1999; Hamed and Florian 2000; Monti 2001; Velarde and Nepomnyashchy 2001; Smith *et al.* 2002). Ramachandran (1993) investigated numerically the effects of buoyancy and surface tension gradient forces on thermal convection in a system with two horizontal immiscible fluids subjected to an imposed lateral temperature gradient. The investigated flow system consisted of a lighter fluid layer on top of a heavier fluid layer, and both layers were contained in a two-dimensional open cavity. Both upper free surface and the interface between the two fluid layers were assumed to be flat and undeformable in his calculations. Ramachandran (1993) solved the governing system of equations and boundary

conditions by using a control volume-based finite difference scheme for two cases of immiscible fluids. The main results were that steady-state calculations predicted dramatically different flows when interfacial tension effects were included, and complex flow patterns, with induced secondary flows, were found in both of the fluid layers. Doi and Koster (1993) investigated analytically and numerically two-dimensional pure thermocapillary convection in two immiscible fluid layers with an upper free surface. Both the free surface and the interface were assumed to be horizontal flat with zero deformation. Their results are briefly as follows. First, based on some approximations, they found an analytical solution in the steady state for infinite horizontal extent of the layers. Under a zero gravity environment, four different flow profiles exist which are controlled by a parameter, λ . This parameter is ratio of the temperature rate of change of the interfacial tension between the two layers to the temperature rate of change of the surface tension of the upper layer. They found three 'halt conditions' which stop the flow motion in the lower layer. They identified the technologically relevant halt condition as $\lambda = 0.5$. Next, they studied numerically the effects of the vertical end walls on the flow. They determined conditions on the flow parameters under which the above halt condition can be valid, and they showed that for $0 < \lambda < 0.2$, thermocapillary convection can greatly be suppressed in the encapsulated liquid layer at some higher Marangoni number. A direct numerical simulation of thermal convection in an enclosed cavity filled by three immiscible fluid layers and subjected to an imposed temperature gradient parallel to the interfaces were carried out by Georis *et al.*(1997), where the deformations of the interfaces were neglected. These authors found, in particular, an essential influence of the nonlinear effects for particular range of the parameters, such as Rayleigh and Marangoni numbers, and that depending on the value of the Rayleigh number, the flow intensity was observed in different layers

In regard to the investigated cases of convective flows in systems with deformed interface and/or deformed free surface, kinematic and dynamic conditions need to be satisfied on the deformed surfaces (Davis 1987), which were treated either by applying some approximations or by numerical means (Sen and Davis 1982; Smith 1986; Hjellming and Walker 1987; Riahi and Walker 1989; Lie, Riahi & Walker 1989; Hamed & Florian 2000). Sen and Davis (1982) studied steady thermocapillary flows in two-dimensional slot with an imposed temperature gradient along the free surface. They used an asymptotic theory in the limit of small aspect ratio A of the slot to determine the fluid and thermal field and the interfacial shapes and found that deformation of an interface between the liquid flow in the slot and the ambient passive gas was small of order A . Hjellming and Walker (1987) investigated analytically the melt motion due to buoyancy and thermocapillarity in a Czochralski crystal puller with an axial magnetic field. They found, in particular, that thermocapillarity, which becomes progressively more dominant as the crystal grows and the melt depth decreases, is sensitive to changes in the amount of heat lost through the part of the deformed free surface adjacent to the crystal. Riahi and Walker (1989) investigated the deformed free surface stability and shape of the melt during the float zone crystal growth process with the presence of the electromagnetic body force due to a radio-frequency induction coil. They found that this force pinches the float zone and produces a smaller minimum radius, relative to the feed rod and crystal radii, and for coil, which is close to the free surface, a sufficiently strong electromagnetic force destabilizes the free surface of the zone. Lie, Riahi and Walker (1989) investigated buoyancy driven flow, which was due to the temperature gradient in the melt of a float zone, and the surface tension driven flow, which was

due to the non-uniform temperature distribution along the deformed free surface of the zone, in the presence of a strong axial magnetic field. The non-cylindrical deformed shape of the free surface of the zone was found to have a profound effect on the melt motion. Their results indicated that the regions near the free surface were controlled mainly by the thermocapillarity, while the inner region was dominated by the buoyancy driven flow. Hamed and Florian (2000) investigated computationally two-dimensional Marangoni convection in a cavity with differentially heated sidewalls. Their study took into account the complete effects of the deformed interface between the liquid layer and a passive gas. They found that under certain parameter regime, multiple states with steady and oscillatory flows were possible and transition between the steady and the oscillatory states appeared to involve a nonlinear instability process.

1.2 Hele-Shaw cell systems

There have been a number of studies of flow of two immiscible fluids in a Hele-Shaw cell (Saffman and Taylor 1958; Zeybek and Yortsos 1991; McCloud and Maher 1995; Gondret and Rabaud 1997; Miranda and Widom 2000), which provides a simple mathematical and experimental model for theoretical and experimental studies of the two-layer systems in order to hopefully gain further physical understanding of the qualitative aspects of related but more complex flow pattern-evolution problems. Most of the studies of the two-layer flow in the Hele-Shaw cell have been focused on viscous fingering that was first studied by Saffman and Taylor (1958) who considered two immiscible viscous fluids moving in the narrow space between two parallel plates of a Hele-Shaw cell. They demonstrated that air driven into glycerin in such a cell could form a steady pattern in the form of a single finger of air, and the flow equations admit a family of solutions one of which agrees well with the experimental observation. McCloud and Maher (1995) reviewed experimental perturbations to Saffman-Taylor (S-T) flow problem, which provides a simple case of nonlinear interfacial pattern formation. In a number of experiments perturbations have been added to the S-T problem in order to learn more about interface dynamics and about the roles played by the material properties on the dynamical evolution of the resulting flow patterns. Zeybek and Yortsos (1991) studied theoretically and experimentally the long waves in parallel flow in Hele-Shaw

cells. To study interface dynamics, they first derived the linear dispersion relation using normal mode approach (Drazin and Reid 1981) and then determined the solutions. Next, they used asymptotic analysis to determine the nonlinear evolution of small amplitude and long wave disturbances. They found that such disturbances are governed by Kortweg-de-Vries and Airy equations (Whitham 1974; Drazin and Reid 1981). For a symmetric case, experimental evidence supported the theory, including the propagation of solitary waves (Whitham 1974). Gondret and Rabaud (1997) studied experimentally the parallel flow in a Hele-Shaw cell of two immiscible fluids, a gas and a liquid layer, driven by an imposed pressure gradient. They observed that the interface destabilized above a critical value of the gas flow at which waves grew and propagated along the cell. Their theoretical prediction based on a linear stability analysis agreed with their experimental results.

1.3 Flow Instability

We already referred to a number of investigations for the deformed interface or deformed free surface effects on the convective flow, which involved flow instabilities under certain

conditions. Here some other notable studies in the past that involved flow instabilities are briefly described. Smith and Davis (1983a) investigated instabilities in thermocapillary liquid layers by considering a horizontal liquid layer subjected to an imposed temperature gradient along the layer, which led to the flow motion due to thermocapillarity. They carried out linear stability analysis of disturbances superimposed on their detected basic flow solutions and found, in particular, that the dynamic state of the flow is then susceptible to two types of thermal-convective instabilities of either stationary longitudinal rolls, which involve the classical Marangoni instability (Pearson 1958), or unsteady hydrothermal waves, which derive their energy from the horizontal temperature gradient. In the second part of this study (Smith and Davis 1983b) the authors found, in particular, that for a particular linearized case, the thermal field decoupled from the hydrodynamic field and the instability of the basic flow set up by the thermocapillarity is a purely isothermal one. Xu and Zebib (1998) investigated numerically oscillatory two- and three-dimensional thermocapillary convective flows in a rectangular cavity and in a box, respectively, and determined, in particular, the character and stability of such flows. For two-dimensional cases, they used a finite-volume based scheme to determine the solutions, while in three-dimensional cases a finite-volume-based primitive variable solver was used. Kliakhandler and Nepomnyashchy (1999) investigated theoretically and numerically instabilities of thermocapillary flow in three-layer systems. They derived linear and weakly nonlinear equations for the evolution of the interface and carried out linear stability analysis. They found, in particular, new types of long-wavelength instabilities, which persisted at arbitrary small Reynolds number. Hoyas *et al.* (2002) investigated thermo-convective instabilities in a fluid within a cylindrical annulus heated laterally. They considered a particular domain in the parameter space where buoyancy force dominated over the surface tension gradient force. They found a nonlinear basic flow computationally and carried out a linear stability calculation of the base flow. They found, in particular, that there existed stationary bifurcations to radial rolls and oscillatory bifurcations to hydrothermal waves.

1.4 Effects of magnetic fields and fluids

There have been a number of studies on the application of the effect of a magnetic field on the flow in a liquid layer (Hjellming and Walker 1987; Riahi and Walker 1989; Lie, Riahi and Walker 1989; Lie, Walker and Riahi 1990; Morthland and Walker 1996, 1997a, 1997b) or in a ferrofluid layer (Miranda and Widom 2000; Zahn 2001; Leslie and Ramachandran 2001). Applications of a strong magnetic field on flow of melt in Czochralski or float zone crystal growth processes (Hjellming and Walker 1996; Lie, Riahi and Walker 1989; Lie, Walker and Riahi 1989, 1991) led to significantly reduced effects of the inertial terms in the momentum equation and consequently the fluid flow was significantly weakened. Miranda and Widom (2000) carried out a linear stability analysis for parallel flow in a Hele-Shaw cell when one fluid was ferrofluid and a magnetic field was applied. They found that the magnetic field may provide a new mechanism for destabilizing the interface in the absence of the inertial effects. They determined the magnetic correction to the dispersion relation and suggested that parallel flow of ferrofluids can be a novel system for investigating soliton interactions. Leslie and Ramachandran (2001) pointed out the importance of establishing a solute concentration gradient in a magnetic field under microgravity conditions. In particular, an appropriate magnetic field gradient acting on the ferrofluid flow can counteract the effect of Earth's gravity effectively producing suitable low gravity conditions in an experimental laboratory. Ramachandran and

Leslie (2001) investigated numerically magnetic susceptibility effects and Lorentz force damping in diamagnetic fluids. They found, in particular, that convection damping of 50% observed in the experiment can be attributed to Lorentz force damping effects and higher level of flow reduction was possible by exploiting the fluid diamagnetic susceptibility variations.

1.5 Moving interface capturing

In dealing with moving surfaces a variety of computational methods have been developed, which can be classified basically into two categories: moving-grid and fixed-grid methods. The moving-grid method is a Lagrange-type method for treating the free surface as the boundary of a moving surface-fitted grid (Floryan and Rasmussen 1989). However, when the grids are highly distorted because of strongly deformed free surface, then rezoning or re-meshing becomes necessary, which could lead to excessive numerical diffusion if frequent rezoning is done. An important fixed-grid type method, which is based on the surface capturing approach is the so-called Level set method (LSM) (Osher and Sethian 1988), which has been used in a number of problems in applications including those in solidification and crystal growth areas (Kim *et al.* 2000; Smereka 2000). In this method one defines a function $\phi(x, y, z, t)$, called level set, with some degree of smoothness (Yue *et al.* 2003) that represents the interface at $\phi = 0$. The level sets are advected by the local velocity field. The interface can be captured at any time by locating the zero level set, which alleviates the burden of increasing grid resolution at the interface in many other numerical methods. The LSM provides convenient features for handling topological merging, breaking and self-intersecting of interfaces, and information about the interface, such as orientation and curvature can be conveniently obtained as well, so that surface tension can be accurately estimated (Yue *et al.* 2003). In addition, using LSM, extension from two to three dimensions can be done easily.

2 Equations of motion of the magnetic fluid

The Governing Equations consisting of conservation of mass, x-momentum, y-momentum and heat solved are presented below in the non-conservative form.

$$\text{Continuity : } \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0 \quad (2.1)$$

$$\text{x - Momentum : } \rho \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \rho u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \rho v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\eta \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\eta \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) + f_m^x + f_{surf}^x \quad (2.2)$$

$$\text{y - Momentum : } \rho \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + \rho u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \rho v \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\eta \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\eta \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) + f_m^y + f_{surf}^y + f^s \quad (2.3)$$

$$\text{Heat : } \frac{\partial \rho C_p T}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial \rho C_p T}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial \rho C_p T}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\kappa \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\kappa \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \right) \quad (2.4)$$

$$\text{Maxwell's Eq.1 : } \frac{\partial B}{\partial t} = \text{rot}[v \times B] - \frac{1}{\omega} \text{rot}[\text{rot}H] \quad (2.5)$$

$$\text{Maxwell's Eq.2 : } \text{div}B = 0 \quad (2.6)$$

$$\text{Maxwell's Eq.3 : } \text{rot}H = j \quad (2.7)$$

$$\text{Maxwell's Eq.4 : } j = \omega[E + v \times B] \quad (2.8)$$

These basic equations will be expanded to a form which is suitable for discretization.

2.1.1 Magnetic body force

The magnetic body force per unit volume can be written as per Rosensweig (1985) as:

$$f_m = -\nabla \left[\mu_0 \int_0^H \left(\frac{\partial M \vartheta}{\partial \vartheta} \right)_{H,T} dH \right] + \mu_0 M \nabla H \quad (2.9)$$

This contains many pressure-like variables which are obtained by expanding as follows:

$$f_m = -\nabla \left[\mu_0 \int_0^H M dH + \mu_0 \int_0^H \vartheta \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial \vartheta} \right)_{H,T} dH \right] + \mu_0 M \nabla H, \text{ or} \quad (2.10)$$

$$f_m = -\nabla p_m - \nabla p_s + \mu_0 M \nabla H, \text{ where}$$

$$p_m = \mu_0 \int_0^H M dH, \text{ the fluid - magnetic pressure}$$

$$p_s = \mu_0 \int_0^H \vartheta \left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial \vartheta} \right)_{H,T} dH, \text{ the magnetostrictive pressure} \quad (2.11-12)$$

The fluid-magnetic force term

Generally considering that $M = M(\mu, H, T)$, then

$$-\nabla p_m = -\mu_0 \nabla \int_0^H M dH = -\underbrace{\mu_0 \int_0^H \frac{\partial M}{\partial T} \nabla T dH}_{I1} - \underbrace{\mu_0 \int_0^H \frac{\partial M}{\partial \mu} \nabla \mu dH}_{I2} - \mu_0 M \nabla H \quad (2.13)$$

Considering each term separately,

Term *I1*: Although in the study, the flow is non-isothermal (i.e. $\nabla T \neq 0$), we have $\frac{\partial M}{\partial T} = 0$ as the operating conditions are within the Curie temperature limit (i.e. the temperature beyond which $\frac{\partial M}{\partial T} \neq 0$). Thus this term drops off.

Term *I2*: Linearly magnetizable fluids are considered in this study, therefore the Magnetization is written as:

$$M = \frac{(\mu - \mu_0)}{\mu_0} H \quad (2.14)$$

the term becomes:

$$-\mu_0 \int_0^H \frac{1}{\mu_0} H \nabla \mu dH = -\nabla \mu \int_0^H H dH = -\nabla \mu \frac{H^2}{2} \quad (2.15)$$

Therefore the fluid-magnetic force per unit volume:

$$-\nabla p_m = -\nabla \mu \frac{H^2}{2} - \mu_0 M \nabla H \quad (2.16)$$

The magentostriuctive force term

Substituting (2.14) into (2.12)

$$\begin{aligned} -\nabla p_s &= -\nabla \int_0^H \vartheta \left(\frac{\partial(\mu - \mu_0)H}{\partial \vartheta} \right)_{H,T} dH . \text{ Substituting } \rho = 1/\vartheta \\ -\nabla p_s &= \nabla \left[\int_0^H \rho \left(\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \rho} \right)_T H dH \right] = \nabla \left[\rho \left(\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \rho} \right)_T \frac{H^2}{2} \right] = 0 \text{ as } \left(\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial \rho} \right)_T = 0 \end{aligned} \quad (2.17)$$

Thus, substituting into (2.10)

$$f_m = -\nabla \mu \frac{H^2}{2} - \mu_0 M \nabla H + \mu_0 M \nabla H = -\nabla \mu \frac{H^2}{2} \quad (2.18)$$

The expressions for the magnetic force term is then ,

$$f_{m,x} = -\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial x} \frac{H^2}{2}; f_{m,y} = -\frac{\partial \mu}{\partial y} \frac{H^2}{2} \quad (2.19)$$

It is seen that the magnetic body force for the case considered is attributable to the step change in μ at the interface.

2.1.3 Buoyancy term

To include the effect of gravity, the body force is given by:

$$f^g = -\rho g ,$$

where g is acting in the negative y direction. The Boussinesq approximation is applied, i.e. the density variation to temperature is neglected everywhere except where it appears as the buoyancy term. Thus:

$$\begin{aligned}\rho &= \rho(1 - \beta(T - T_0)), \text{ or} \\ f^s &= -\rho(1 - \beta(T - T_0))g\end{aligned}\tag{2.24}$$

Substituting the body force terms, we obtain:

2.1.4 The Maxwell's equations

At this stage, for simplicity the study will cover non-conducting ferrofluids. For such fluids we have $\omega = 0$. The Maxwell's equations reduce to:

$$\begin{aligned}\text{div}B &= 0 \\ \text{rot}H &= 0\end{aligned}\tag{2.25}$$

The magnetic induction B , the magnetic intensity H and the magnetization M are related by

$$B = \mu_0(H + M)\tag{2.26}$$

Substituting (2.14) into (2.26)

$$B = \mu H\tag{2.27}$$

$$\text{One can define a magnetic potential } \Phi \text{ which satisfies } H = \nabla\Phi\tag{2.28}$$

Substituting (2.28), (2.27) into (2.25), the Maxwell's equation is obtained

$$\nabla \cdot \mu \nabla \Phi = 0\tag{2.29}$$

The boundary conditions on the Maxwell's equation are:

$$(B_1 - B_2) \cdot n = 0$$

$$(H_1 - H_2) \times n = 0, \text{ where } n \text{ is the normal at the interface}$$

Substituting the various terms into the original Governing equations of (2.1-2.8)

2.2 Two-layer fluid problem

The application considered mainly is the two immiscible fluid layers contained in a square box, subjected to a temperature gradient applied in the horizontal direction. The lower fluid is a ferrofluid (water based) while the upper fluid is a diamagnetic fluid, oil. The system is subjected to an external magnetic field gradient. The aspect ratio is kept constant, and the wall boundaries are solid. A schematic of the setup is shown in Fig. [2.1]

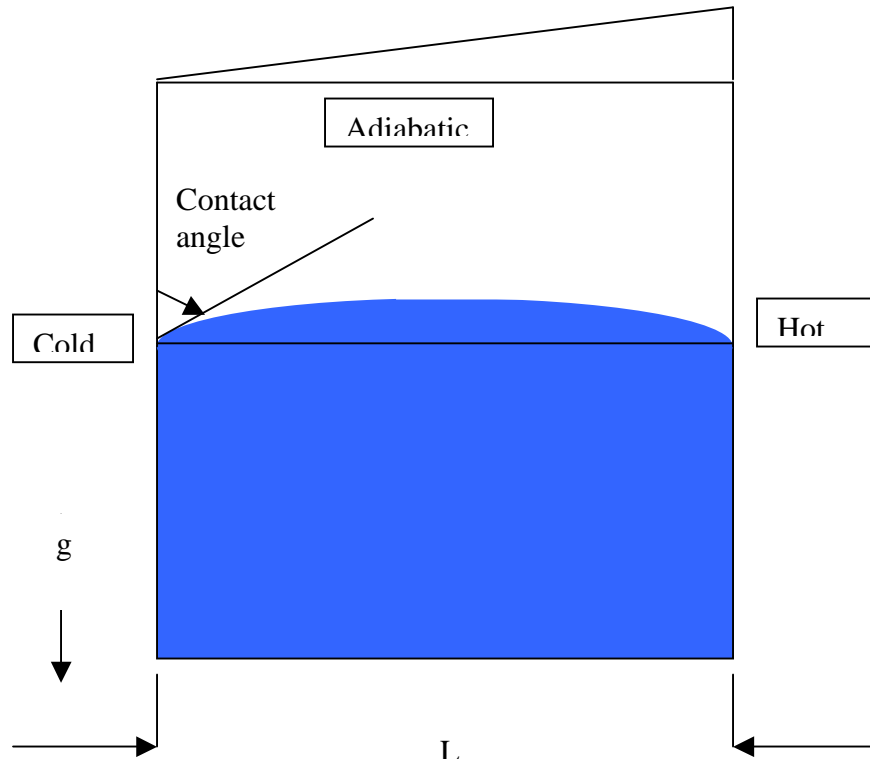


Fig. [1] A Schematic of the Two-layer problem

The non-dimensionalization is as follows

ρ	x	y	u	v	t	p	g	k	H	$T-T_0$	σ
ρ_{ref}	L	L	U	U	L/U	$\rho_{ref}U^2$	g_{ref}	$1/L$	H_0	∇T_{ref}	σ_{ref}

Table [1] non-dimensionalizing parameters

The final resulting equations (2.46-2.52) are then:

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = & -\frac{1}{\rho(\phi)} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{\mathbf{Re}} \frac{1}{\rho(\phi)} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\eta(\phi) \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{1}{\mathbf{Re}} \frac{1}{\rho(\phi)} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\eta(\phi) \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) \\ & - \frac{\mathbf{Bo}_m}{\mathbf{We}} \frac{1}{\rho(\phi)} \left(\frac{\mu_2}{\mu_0} - \frac{\mu_1}{\mu_0} \right) \delta(\phi) \frac{d\phi}{dx} H^2 - \frac{1}{\mathbf{We}} \frac{1}{\rho(\phi)} \left(\nabla \cdot \frac{\nabla \phi}{|\nabla \phi|} \Big|_{\phi=0} \right) \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \delta(\phi) \\ & + \frac{\mathbf{Ma}}{\mathbf{Pr} \mathbf{Re}^2} \frac{T}{\rho(\phi)} \left(\nabla \cdot \frac{\nabla \phi}{|\nabla \phi|} \Big|_{\phi=0} \right) \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \delta(\phi) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial v}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = & -\frac{1}{\rho(\phi)} \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} + \frac{1}{\mathbf{Re}} \frac{1}{\rho(\phi)} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\eta(\phi) \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{1}{\mathbf{Re}} \frac{1}{\rho(\phi)} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\eta(\phi) \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) \\ & - \frac{\mathbf{Bo}_m}{\mathbf{We}} \frac{1}{\rho(\phi)} \left(\frac{\mu_2}{\mu_0} - \frac{\mu_1}{\mu_0} \right) \delta(\phi) \frac{d\phi}{dy} H^2 - \frac{1}{\mathbf{We}} \frac{1}{\rho(\phi)} \left(\nabla \cdot \frac{\nabla \phi}{|\nabla \phi|} \Big|_{\phi=0} \right) \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \delta(\phi) \\ & + \frac{\mathbf{Ma}}{\mathbf{Pr} \mathbf{Re}^2} \frac{T}{\rho(\phi)} \left(\nabla \cdot \frac{\nabla \phi}{|\nabla \phi|} \Big|_{\phi=0} \right) \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \delta(\phi) - \frac{1}{\mathbf{Fr}} + \frac{\mathbf{Gr}}{\mathbf{Re}^2} \beta(\phi) T \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial q}{\partial y} = \frac{1}{\mathbf{Pe}} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\kappa \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\kappa \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \right) \right]$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\mu \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\mu \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} \right) = 0$$

$$H = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} i + \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} j$$

where,

$$\mathbf{Re} = \frac{\rho_{ref} U L}{\eta_{ref}}; \mathbf{We} = \frac{\rho_{ref} U^2 L}{\sigma_{ref}}; \mathbf{Gr} = \frac{\rho_{ref}^2 g_{ref} \beta \Delta T L^3}{\eta_{ref}^2}; \mathbf{Bo}_m = \frac{\mu_0 H_0^2 L}{2 \sigma_{ref}};$$

$$\mathbf{Pr} = \frac{\eta_{ref} C_p}{\kappa}; \mathbf{Fr} = \frac{U^2}{g_{ref} L}; \mathbf{Ma} = \frac{\rho_{ref} C_p \lambda \Delta T L}{\eta_{ref} \kappa}, \text{ and}$$

$$\rho(\phi) = 1 + (1 - \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1})He(\phi);$$

$$\mu(\phi) = \frac{\mu_1}{\mu_0} + (\frac{\mu_1}{\mu_0} - \frac{\mu_2}{\mu_0})He(\phi); \quad \beta(\phi) = 1 + (1 - \frac{\beta_2}{\beta_1})He(\phi)$$

Typical Material properties

	1-Ferrofluid (water based)	2- Shell Oil
ρ	1380 kg/m ³	800 kg/m ³
κ	2.7 W/m K	0.122 W/m K
C_p	3000 J/kg K	2038 J/kg K
η	0.00664 kg/ms	0.00381 kg/ms
σ	0.00307 kg/s ²	0.00307 kg/s ²
β	0.000260 (1/K)	0.000717 (1/K)
μ / μ_0	3.2	1.0

Table [2] Typical material properties of Ferrofluid and diamagnetic fluid

The velocity scale is chosen to be $U = \frac{\gamma \Delta T}{\eta_{ref}}$;

$$L = .005m; \quad g_{ref} = 9.81m/s^2; \quad H_0 = 2400Amp/m; \quad \Delta T = 100^\circ K$$

Taking the material properties of the ferrofluid as the reference, the non-dimensional parameters are obtained follows for the typical base solution:

	Re	We	Gr	Bo_m	Pr	Fr	Ma
Two-layer	135.542	33.3979	1805.22	5.89415	7.3778	0.2646	1000.0

Table [3] Typical values of Non-dimensional parameters

The boundary conditions:

Isothermal boundary conditions on the left and right walls
($T=0$ & $T=1$ respectively)

and adiabatic upper and lower walls ($T_n=0$).

The boundary conditions on Φ derived from (2.25) are:

$$\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} = 0; \quad \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} = \frac{\mu_0}{\mu_1} H_0; \quad \text{Upper wall}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} = 0; \quad \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} = H_0; \quad \text{Left \& Right wall}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x} = 0; \quad \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial y} = \frac{\mu_0}{\mu_2} H_0; \quad \text{Lower wall}$$

Finally, a contact angle is specified at the intersection of the interface and the sidewalls, to complete the boundary conditions for the problem.

3 Results

The results from the two-fluid layer described in Section 2, is now presented. The first effect studied is that of, the magnetic field on the thermo-capillary flow. Thus, the Magnetic field is increased over different Marangoni numbers, and the behavior of the two-fluid system is studied, in particular we track:

- The maximum velocity in the system
- The maximum local velocity near the interface.
- The heat diffusion across the interface per unit volume.

The gravity is completely eliminated as the thermo-capillary effects are particularly sought out. Thus $Fr = \text{infinity}$ and $Gr = 0$. The other non-dimensional parameters are:

$$Ar=1, Pr=7.37, Re=200, We=33, \text{Contact angle}=67.5$$

The Marangoni number is varied from 10,100,1000. Bo_m is varied from 0 to 0.5.

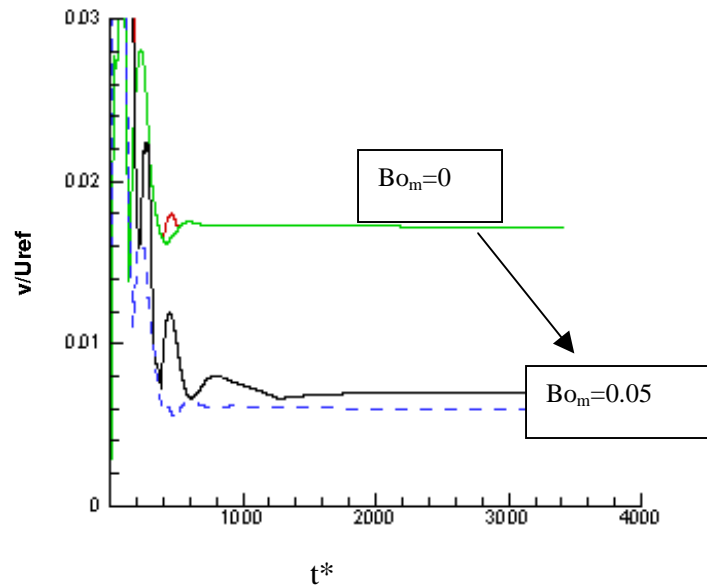


Fig. 2 The maximum velocities globally and locally vs. t^* for (a) $Bo_m=0$ and (b) $Bo_m=0.05$ for $Ma=100$

The benefit of the magnetic field is seen instantly from Fig.2. On the application of a $Bo_m=0.05$, both the global and local and velocities fall by almost 50%. This indicates immense potential for the use of magnetic fields in curbing the convective velocities due to thermo-capillary effects. The applicability range is now studied.

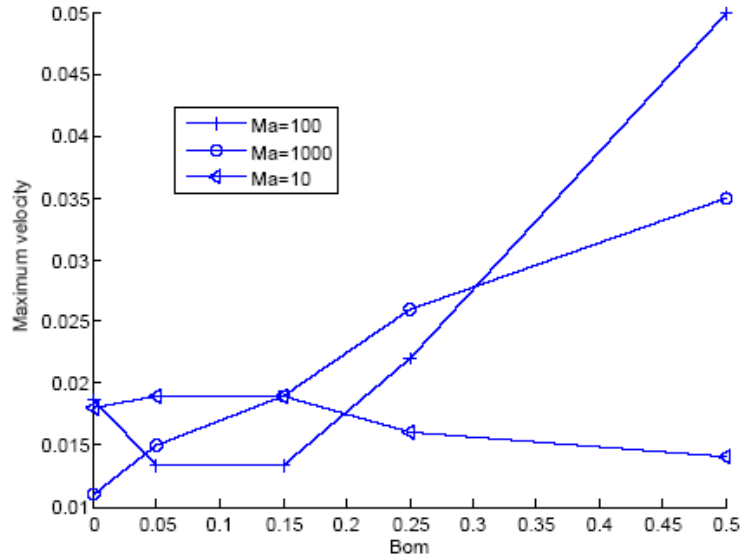


Fig. 3 The maximum velocities globally vs. Bo_m for $Ma=10,100,1000$

From the parameter space chosen, a number of effects can be seen from Fig. 3. Firstly, for the lowest Marangoni number, the maximum velocity actually increases and then decreases with increasing Bo_m , indicating that it takes more magnetic field strength for the stabilizing effect of the magnetic field to register. However, for a higher Marangoni number of 100, the velocity immediately decreases and reaches an optimum at $Bo_m=0.15$, after which the magnetic field stabilizing effect begins to wane. For higher Marangoni numbers (1000 or more) the maximum velocity almost monotonically increases with the magnetic field, having no stabilizing effect whatsoever. It would appear that applying an external magnetic field would have no role to play in stabilizing thermocapillary flows of $Ma>1000$, However more interesting patterns are seen from the local velocity variation in Fig.4.

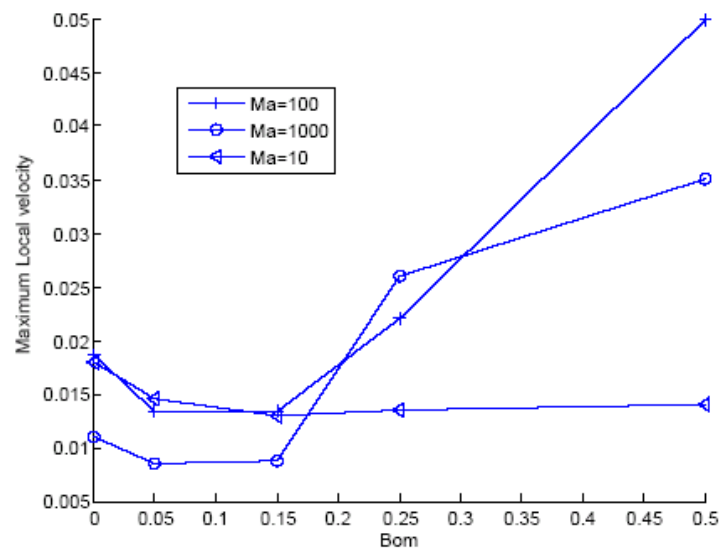


Fig. 4: The maximum velocities locally vs. Bo_m for $Ma=10,100,1000$

The effect seen is that for almost all the Ma , the local velocity decreases with increasing Bo_m . This suggests that velocities away from the local area of interest play a major role in increasing the convective velocities. However in cases where the velocities away from the area of interest are not significant, the application of the magnetic field could render beneficial results. From Fig.5, there are even more beneficial results seen from the application of the magnetic field. For all the Ma chosen, the heat flux across the interface dramatically decreases. In crystal growth applications, this is a highly desirable feature.

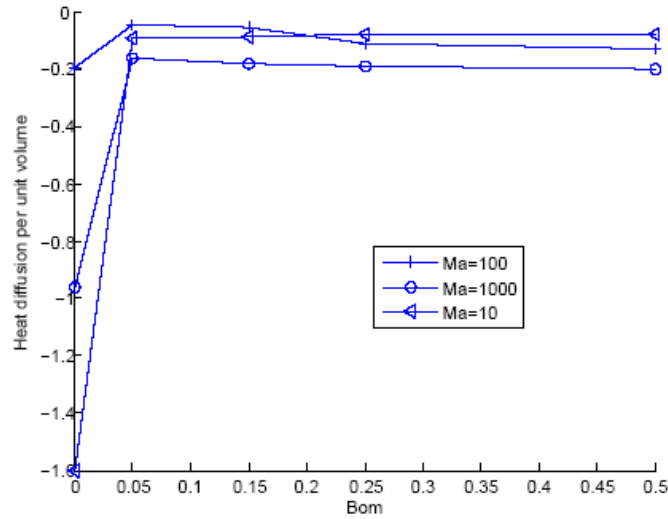


Fig. 5: The maximum velocities locally vs. Bo_m for $Ma=10, 100, 1000$

In summary, the magnetic field coupled with the ferrofluid has a very significant effect in reducing the convective velocities of the system, and there is indeed immense potential of using such a technique, based on the simulations conducted in this study.

To gain further insight into the mechanism of the convective velocities, the velocity contours are studied next.

Figure 6a-c shows u -velocity contours for $Ma=10$ at 3 different Bo_m 's. The temperature contours are neglected as it is almost identical to the conduction solution for all these cases. For $Bo_m=0$, if the interface, as indicated in Fig. 6-a is noticed, there are some roll structures seen in the upper diamagnetic fluid phase, while in the lower ferrofluid there are well defined cellular structures.

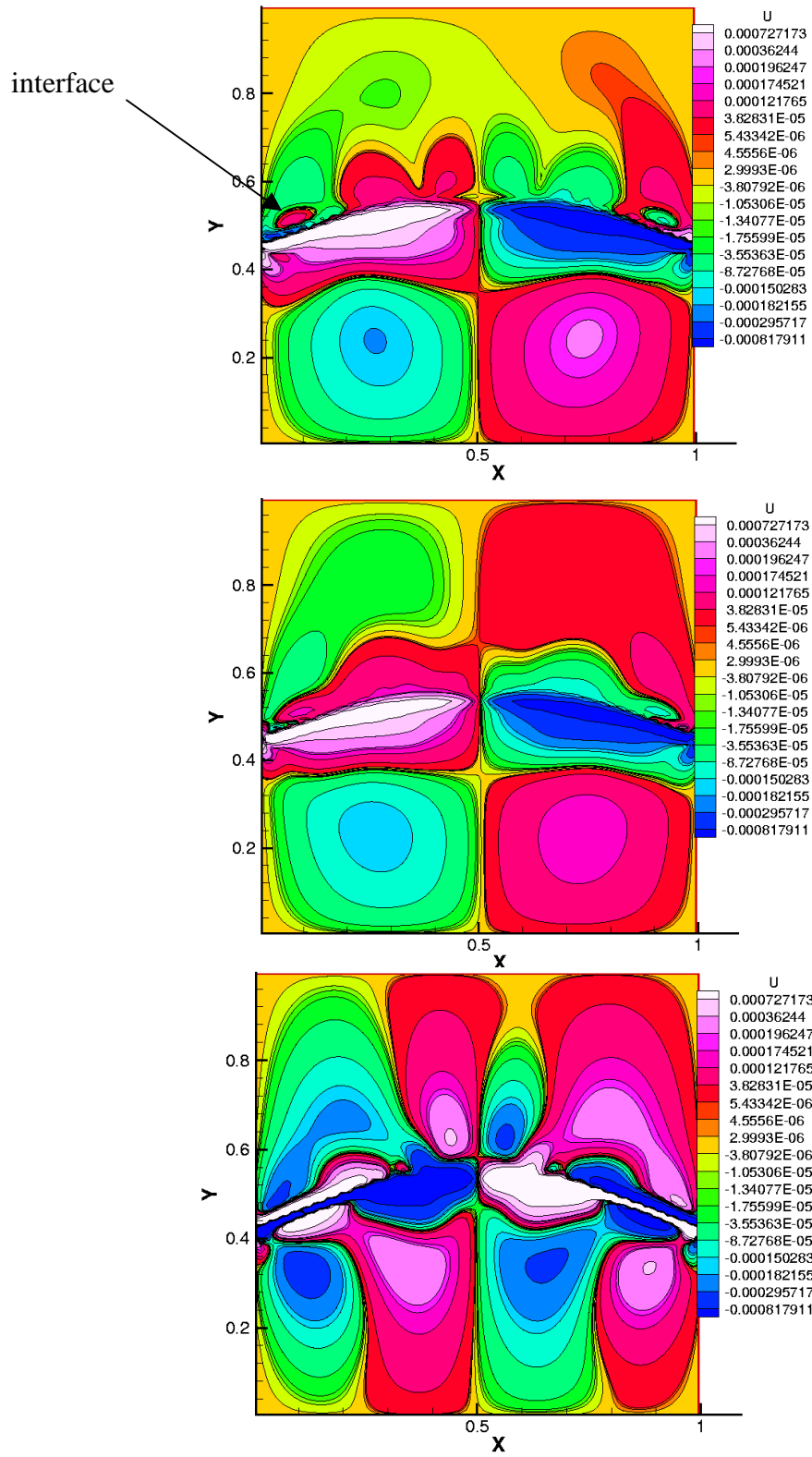


Fig.6a-c: Streamwise velocity contours for $Ma=10$, (a) $Bo_m = 0$, (b) $Bo_m = 0.05$, (c) $Bo_m = 0.5$

The interface consists of fluids having different properties with a constant shear force acting on it, which is why the irregular patterns are seen. However, with the addition of the magnetic field, we see the disappearance of these irregularities in Fig. 6-b and see well defined cellular structures even in the diamagnetic fluid.

Recalling Equation (2.37-38) the force due to the magnetic field is a surface force due to the step change in the magnetic permeability. It is proposed here that it is this surface density force which is primarily responsible for suppressing the instabilities, for the given configuration.

On further increasing Bo_m , we see in Fig. 6-c the flow went through an instability to bifurcate into multi-cellular structures. This is accompanied by an increased curvature of the interface. A similar behavior is witness for the $Ma=100$ case in Fig. 7a-c

For $Ma=1000$, the existence temperature gradients at the interface are seen for the first time. For the $Bo_m = 0$ case, the gradients are sufficiently discernable. On increasing the magnetic field, we see the temperature contours “straightening out”. This helps understanding how the heat flux gets so dramatically reduced with increased magnetic field. It is also noticed that at $Bo_m = 0.5$ the cell has not bifurcated into cellular structures. Thus the Marangoni number has an important role to play in this phenomenon.

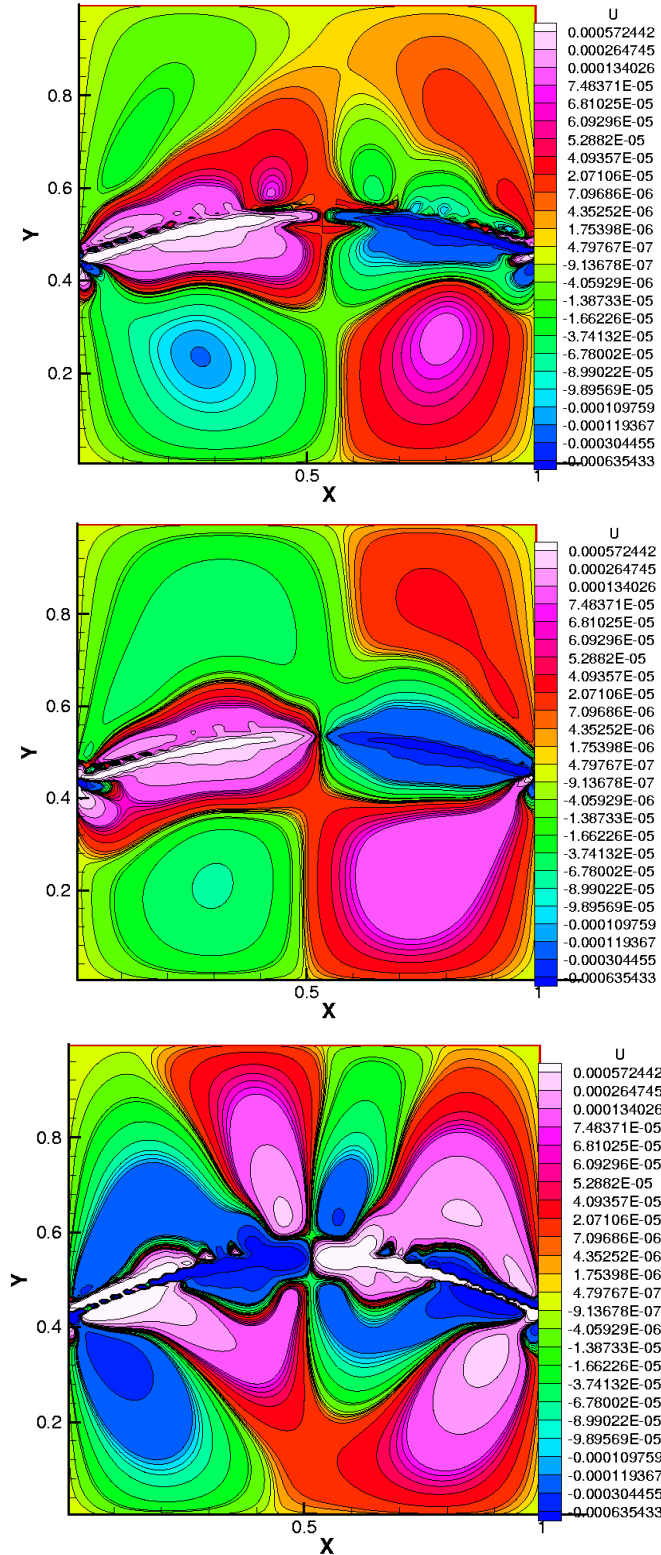


Fig.7-a-c: Streamwise velocity contours for $Ma=100$, (a) $Bo_m = 0$, (b) $Bo_m = 0.05$, (c) $Bo_m = 0.5$

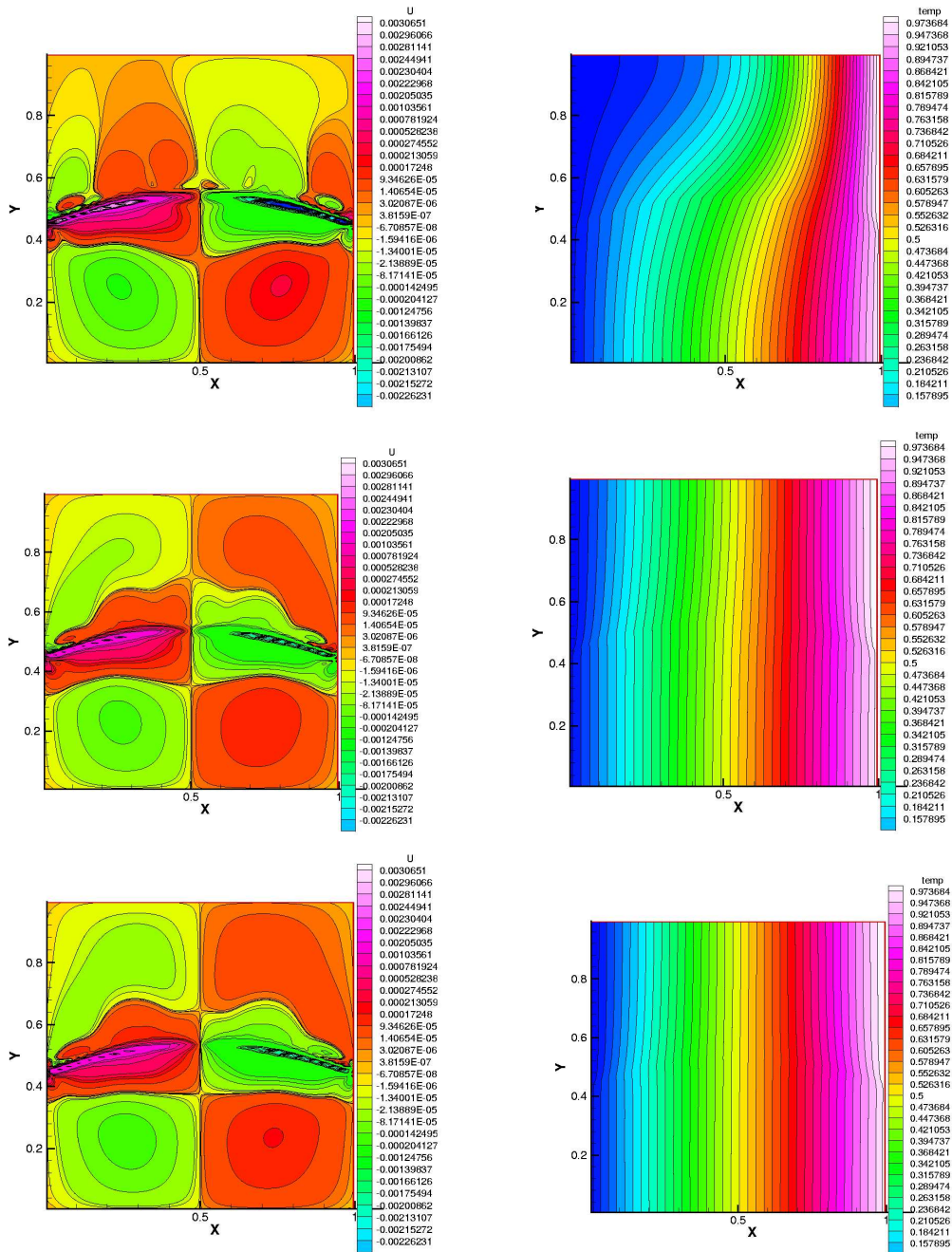


Fig. 8a-c: Streamwise velocity contours for $Ma=1000$, (a) $Bo_m = 0$, (b) $Bo_m = 0.05$, (c) $Bo_m = 0.5$

3.2 Two fluid-layer, Mixed Thermo-capillary Buoyancy effects

In the next set of simulations, the effect of gravity of 3 levels are investigated and it is to be seen whether the magnetic field has any effect on the velocities in such cases. This is in addition to the thermo-capillary effect.

The parameters chosen are:

Aspect ratio=1, Gr=1805, Pr=7.37, Re=135, We=33, Ma=1000, alpha=67.5
(Fr = 100000, 1000, 10)

$Bo_m=0 - 0.5$

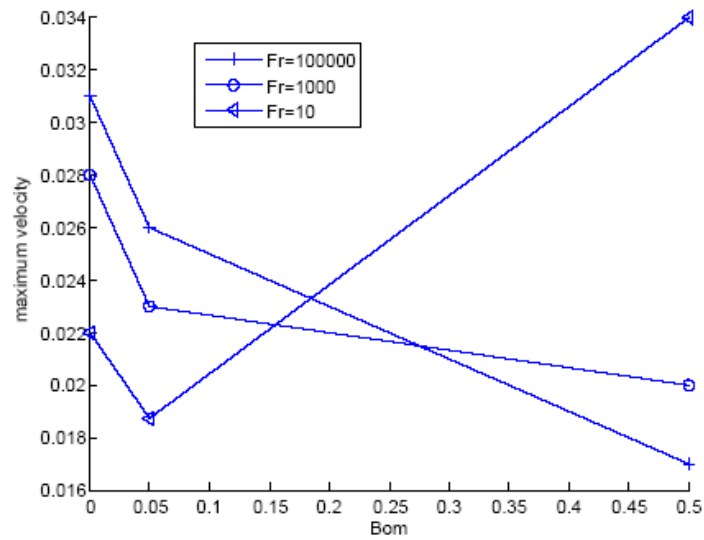


Fig. 9 Maximum global velocity vs. Bo_m , Fr = 100000, 1000, 10

From Fig. 9, 10, once again the maximum velocity is found to decrease with increasing Bo_m . However the mechanism which causes this is different from that in the thermo-capillary case.

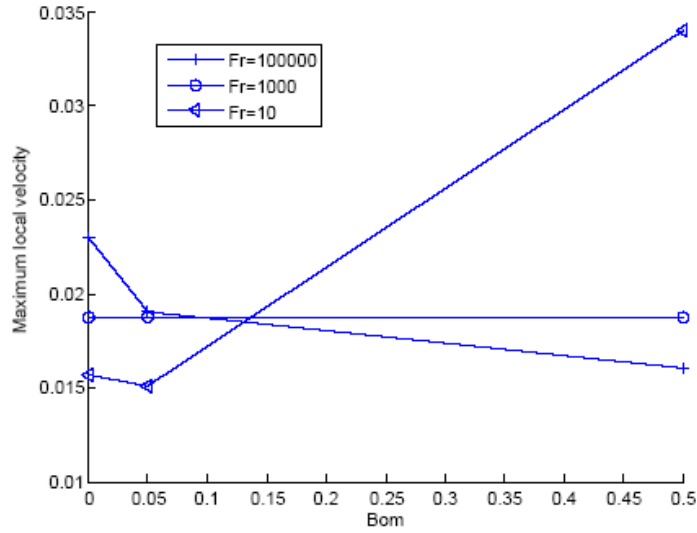


Fig. 10: Maximum local velocity vs. Bo_m , Fr = 100000, 1000, 10

Unlike in the thermo-capillary case, the velocity contours show a smooth pattern in the upper and lower phases. Figure 11 shows the u-velocity contours for Fr=1000,

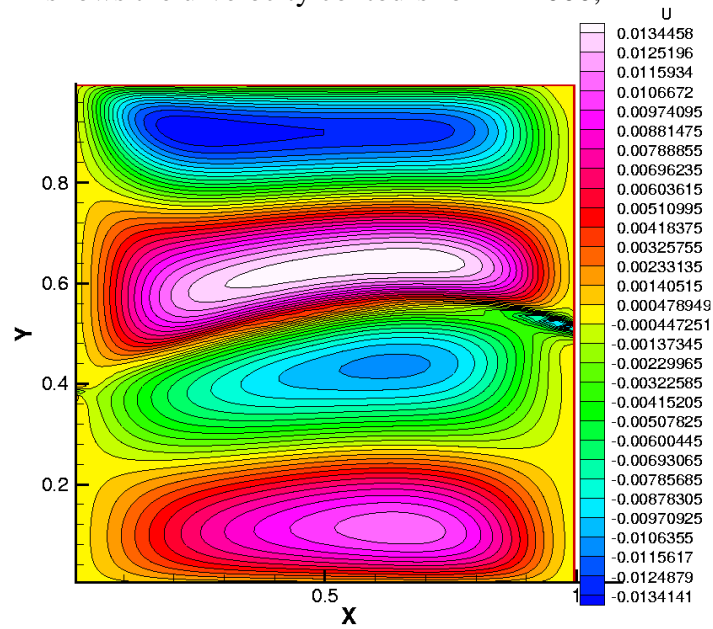


Fig. 11: U velocity contours, Fr=1000

The effect of the magnetic field can be best understood by seeing it's effect on the interface shape. Fig 12a-c show the interfaces and it's adjoining temperature contours.

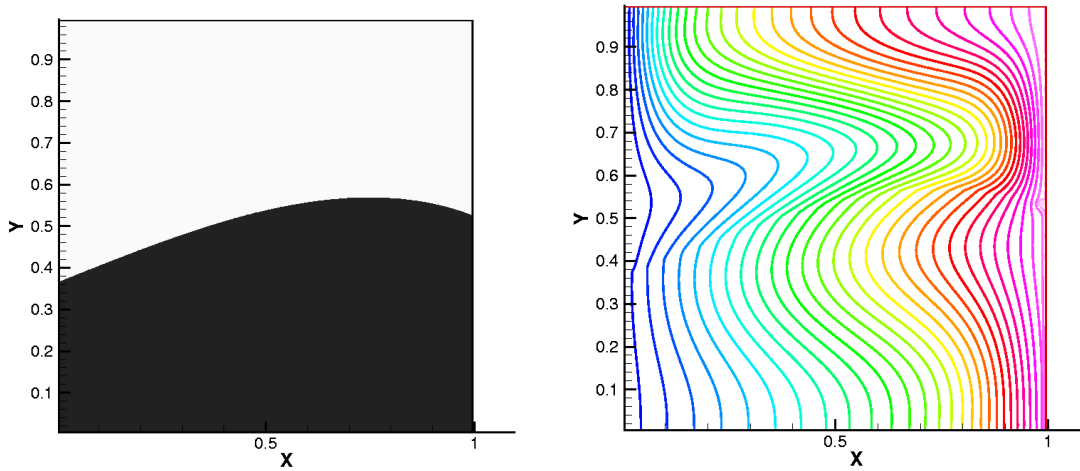


Fig. 12-a Interface and temperature contours, $Bo_m=0$, $Fr=1000$

In Fig 12-a above, $Bo_m = 0$. This is the base state solution. Due to the effect of the gravity and Grashof number, the interface is no longer symmetrical as there is buoyancy driven convection going on the cell.

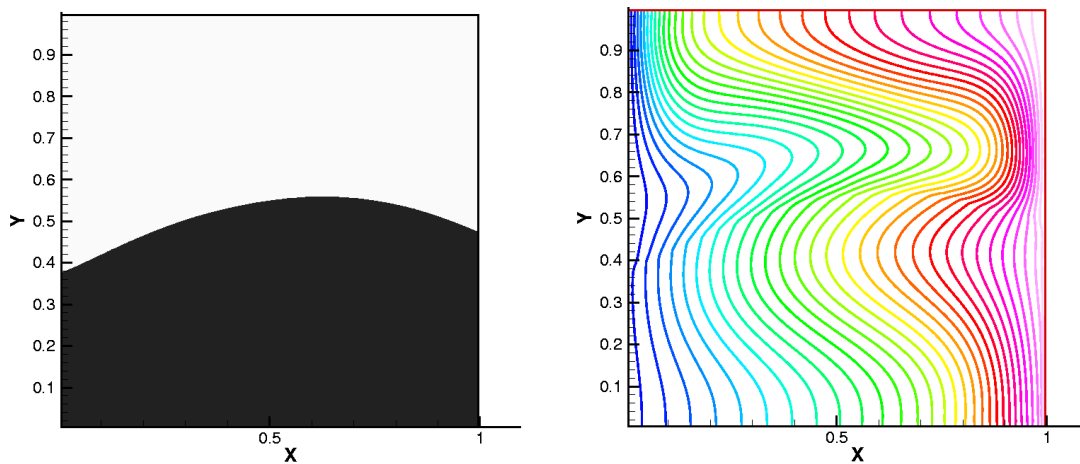


Fig. [5.21b] Interface and temperature contours, $Bo_m=0.05$, $Fr=1000$

In Fig. 12-b above, $Bo_m = 0.05$. The effect of the magnetic field is to shift the maxima of the interface towards the center. This affects the curvature of the interface which consequently changes the interface region velocities. This is the stabilizing effect of the magnetic field in this case.

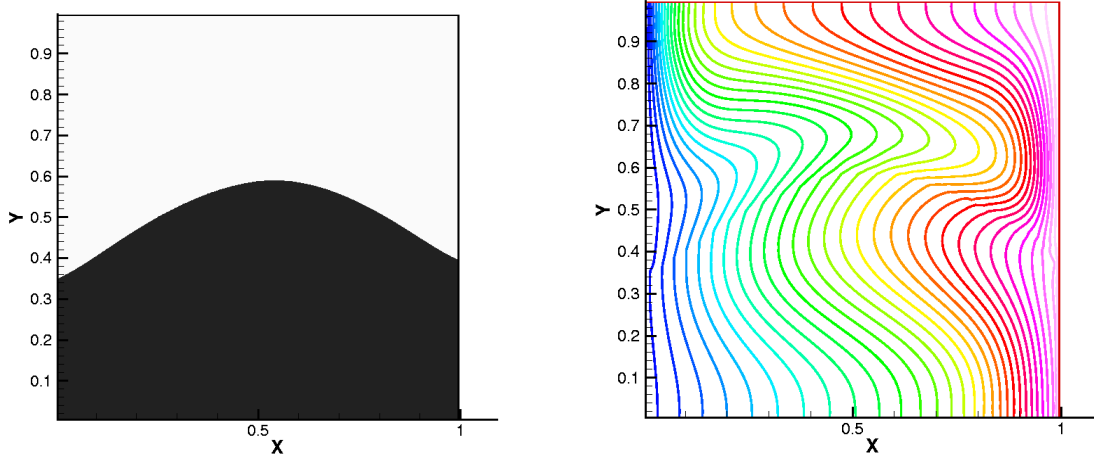


Fig. 12-c: Interface and temperature contours, $Bo_m=0.5$, $Fr=1000$

However this may not always hold true. In the Fig. 12-c above, the curvature has significantly changed to increase the convective velocities. This could be the effect of the significant temperature gradients which were virtually absent in the thermo-capillary case. It is also to be seen that due to these significant temperature gradients, the diffusive fluxes are not much affected by the magnetic field as seen in Fig. 13.

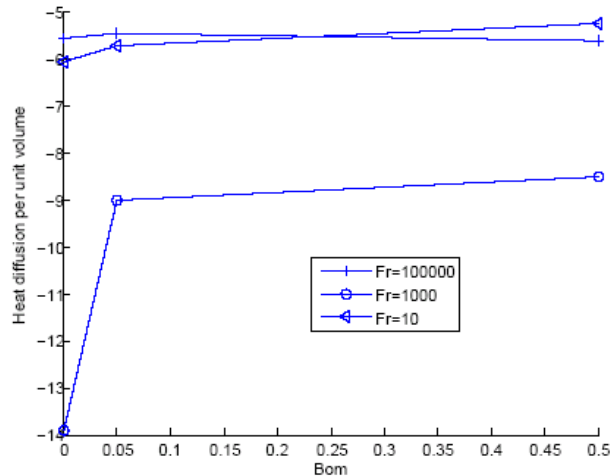


Fig. 13: Heat diffusion vs. Bo_m , $Fr = 100000, 1000, 10$

3.3 Two-fluid layer Instability

Noticing in Fig. 12-a the significant angle that the steady state interface makes with the horizontal, it was found that on increasing the Grashof number, the angle the interface makes with the horizontal keeps increasing. Fig. 14-a shows the steady state interface at for $Fr=1000$ at

$Gr=6305$. This was found to be the critical Grashof number at this Fr . On increasing Gr , the flow was found to undertake revolutions and thus become unstable, as in Fig. 14-b. A Stability curves is thus constructed in the Gr vs. Fr space and shown in Fig. 15. The critical Gr number falls rapidly with the increasing Fr number upto 100, after which there is less effect of Fr .

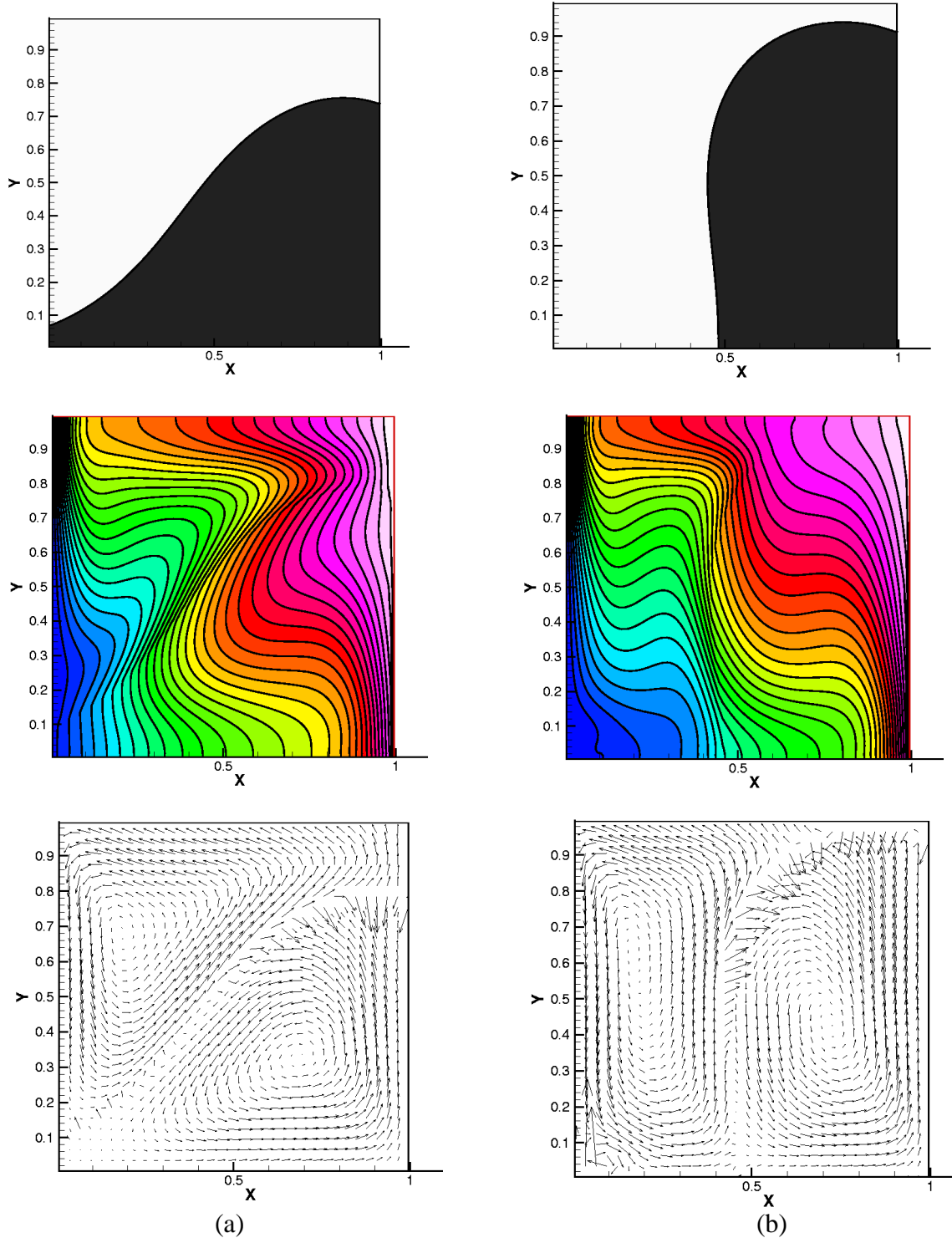


Fig. 14: Oscillating Two-layer flow: Temperature and velocity vectors at (a) $Fr=1000$, $Gr=6305$; (b) $Gr>6305$

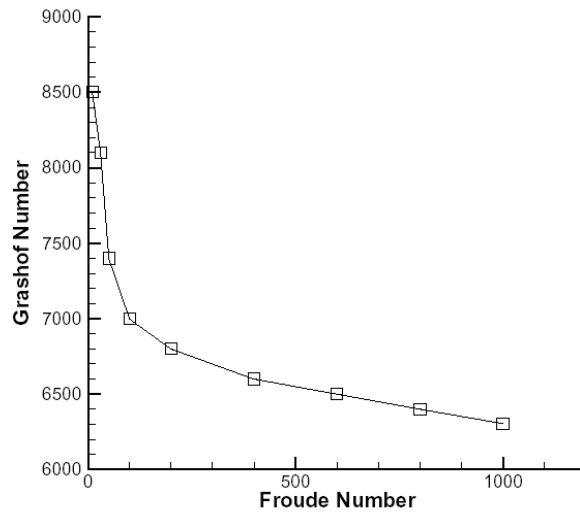


Fig. 15: Neutral stability curve in the Gr vs. Fr number space.

3.4 Weber Number Effect

Figure 16 shows the effect of increasing the magnetic field on the local velocity, for different Weber numbers, indicative of varying magnitudes of the surface tension between the participating fluids. It is uniformly seen that the magnetic field decreases the convective velocities. However, from the Fig. 16 it is noticed that there is more significant drop in the velocities at lower We (higher surface tension) that at higher We. Thus the effect of the magnetic field is best seen at lower We (0~40).

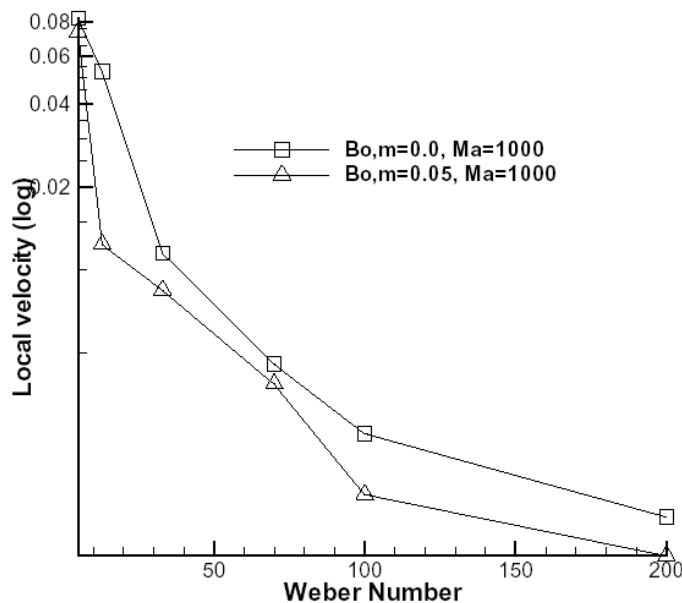


Fig. 16: Weber number effect

3.5 Convective Heat Transfer

Figures 17-20 show the change of the Convective Heat transfer over a parameter space of the Marangoni, Froude and Grashof Numbers. Since CHT is a vector, the values in the x- direction and y-direction are separately shown. The variation of CHT is found to be non-trivial, for example in Fig. 17, while for 0 Grashof number, over a range of Ma the CHT in the x-direction is uniformly and monotonically increasing, it is seen that for non-zero Gr, there is a slight dip in the CHT and then it increases with magnetic field. The same effect is noticed for the CHT in the y-direction (Fig. 18). The Froude number effect Figs. 19-20 is found to dampen the effect of the magnetic field. Thus it is seen that for very high Fr, the magnetic field has less of an effect on curbing/enhancing the Convective Heat Transfer.

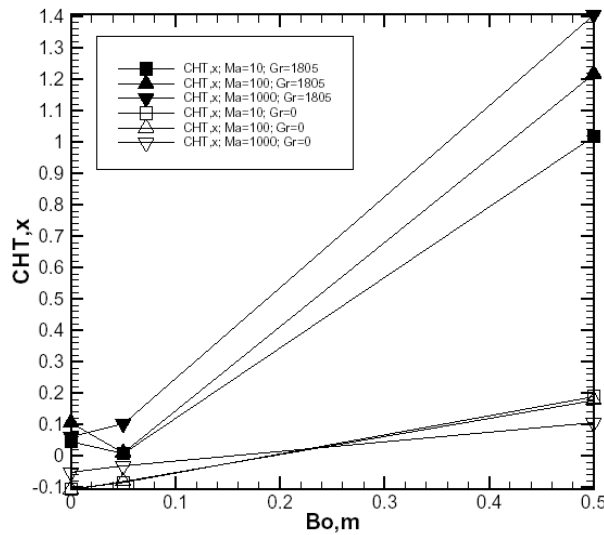


Fig. 17: Convective Heat transfer in the x- direction as a function of Magnetic Bond number for Gr=0; Gr=1805 over a range of Marangoni numbers.

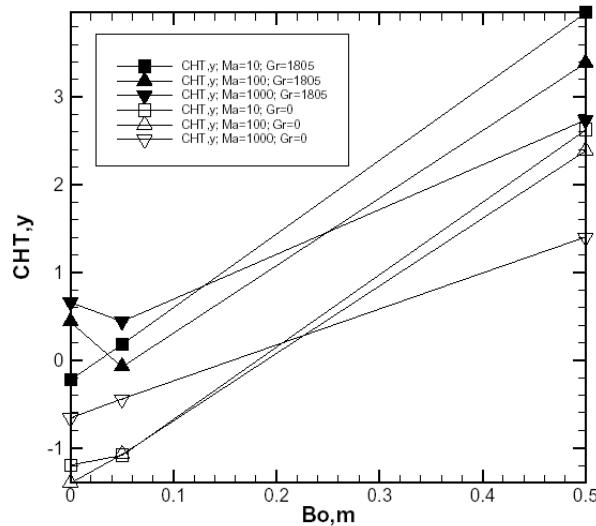


Fig. 18: Convective Heat transfer in the y- direction as a function of Magnetic Bond number for Gr=0; Gr=1805 over a range of Marangoni numbers.

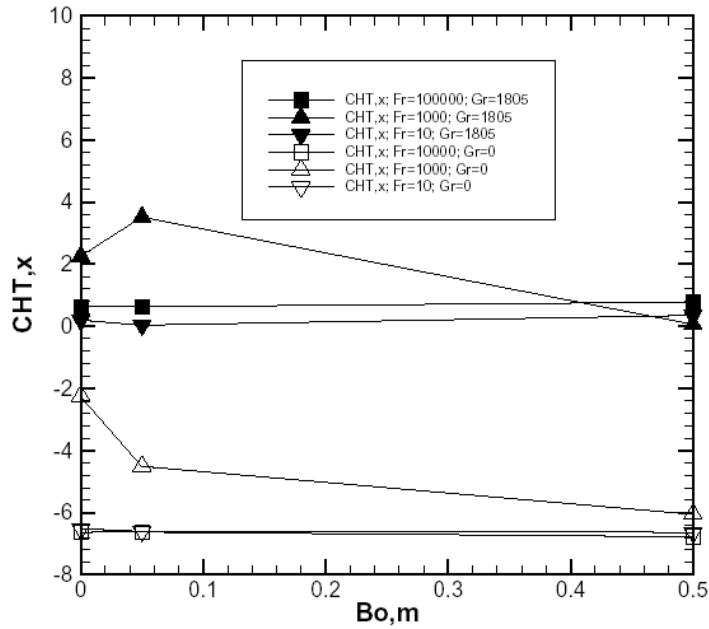


Fig. 19: Convective Heat transfer in the x- direction as a function of Magnetic Bond number for Gr=0; Gr=1805 over a range of Froude numbers.

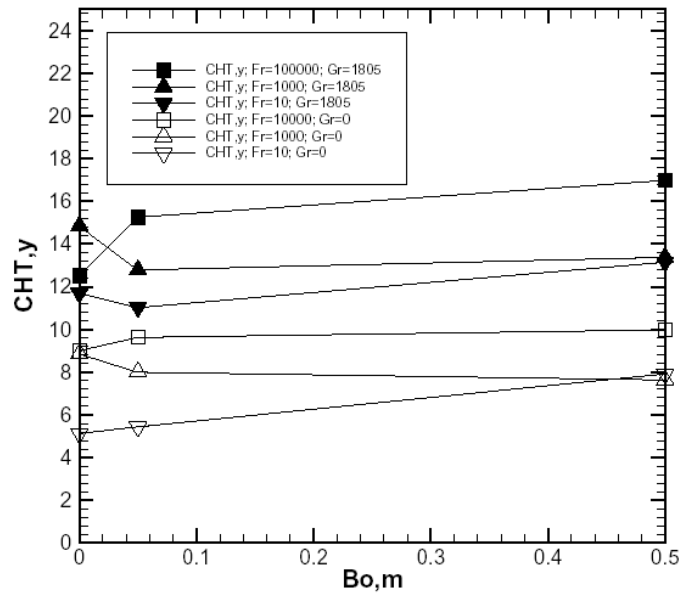


Fig. 20: Convective Heat transfer in the y- direction as a function of Magnetic Bond number for Gr=0; Gr=1805 over a range of Froude numbers.

3.6 Contact Angle Effect

The simulations presented so far have been done assuming a constant contact angle at the wall to be 67.5° . It is to be seen whether for different contact angles there is a change in the beneficial effects of magnetic field. Interesting phenomenon are noticed in Fig. 21. where the global velocity is varied for different contact angles and different Bo, m . It is seen that at higher Gr , the magnetic field still has a beneficial effect, but this is valid only for a concave interface (i.e contact angle $> 90^\circ$). For a convex interface, increasing the magnetic field increases the velocity. This trend is noticed even at non-zero Gr . In Fig 22, higher Ma tend to give a lower velocity for certain magnetic fields. This trend was seen initially in Fig 2. The reduced effect of magnetic field for convex interfaces is once again seen from Fig. 22. Thus there is strong dependence on the contact angle. Figure 23 shows that with increasing Gr , at a constant magnetic field, the convective velocities increase significantly. However it is interesting to see that these velocities reduce with increasing Marangoni number when the interface is concave (and vice versa when convex). The velocities are further reduced as the contact angle tends to 90° , and the effect of the Marangoni number seems to be more pronounced at such contact angles. Figure 24 shows that uniformly the velocities decrease with increasing Froude number, whether a concave or a convex interface. The effect of the contact angle on the convective heat transfer is next seen. In Figure 25, it seen that the CHT is reduced only slightly with increasing magnetic field for the $Gr=0$ and concave interface. For all other cases the CHT was seen to increase.

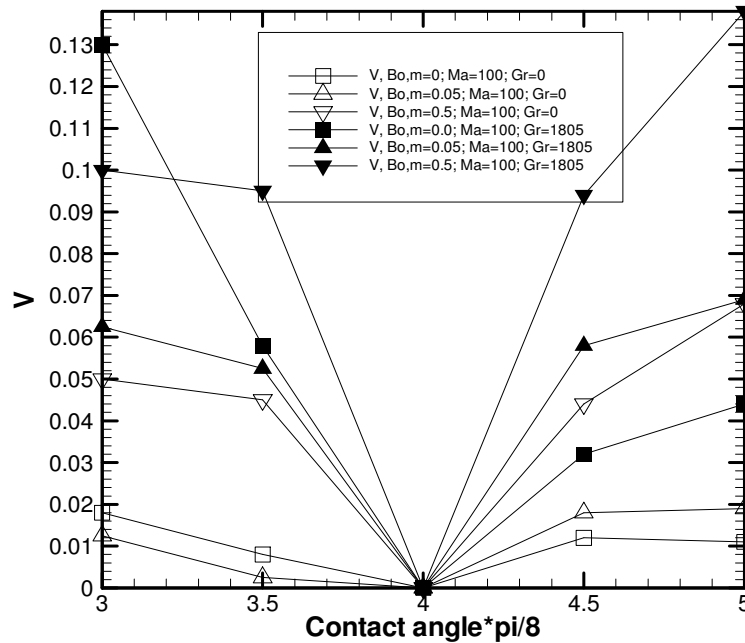


Fig. 21: Global velocity vs. Contact angle at constant Ma , and 2 different Gr .

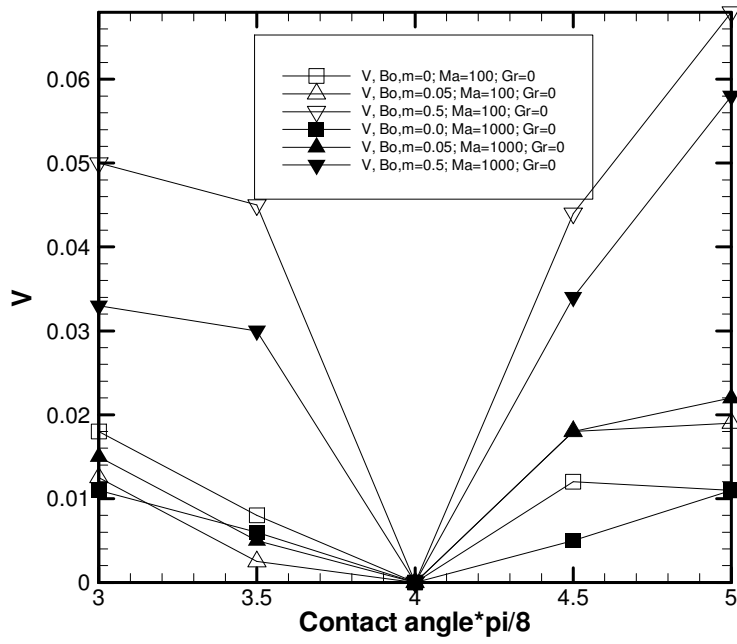


Fig. 22: Global velocity vs. Contact angle at constant $Gr=0$, and 2 different Ma .

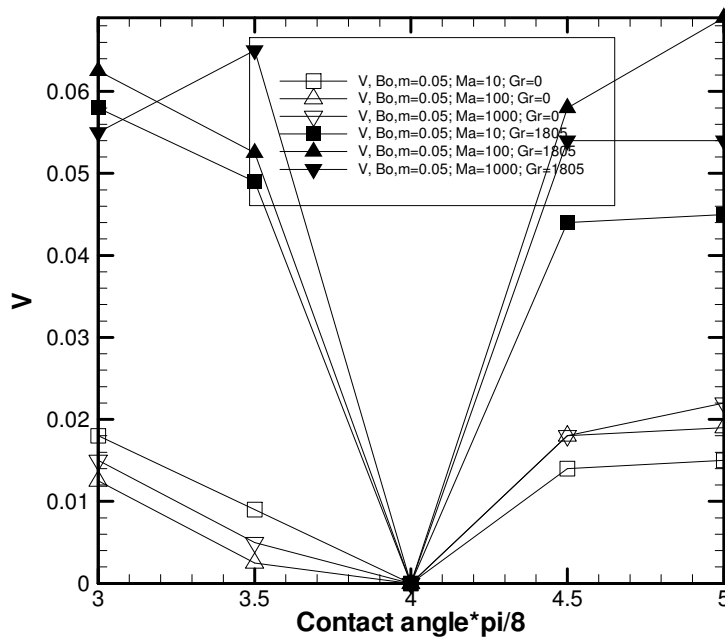


Fig. 23: Global velocity vs. Contact angle over a range of Marangoni numbers and at constant External Magnetic Field, and 2 different Gr .

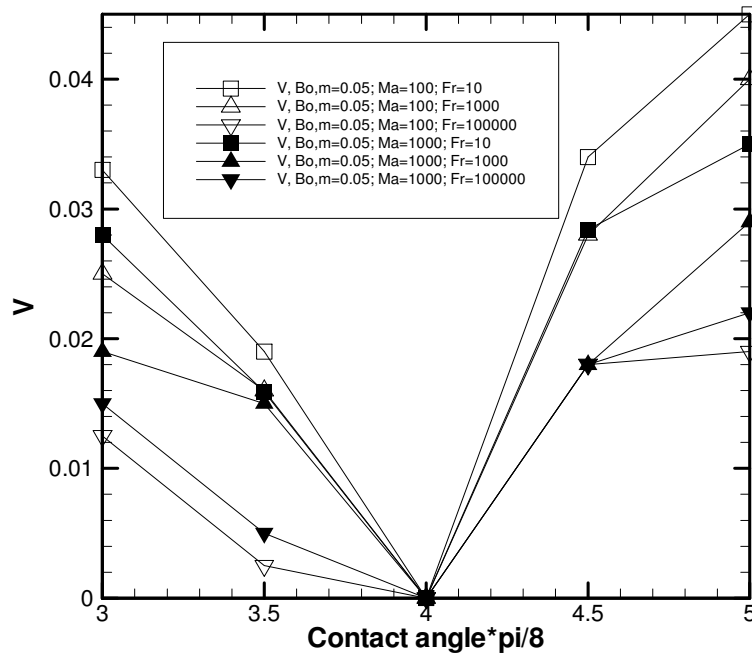


Fig 24: Global velocity vs. Contact angle over a range of Froude numbers and at constant External Magnetic Field, and 2 different Ma.

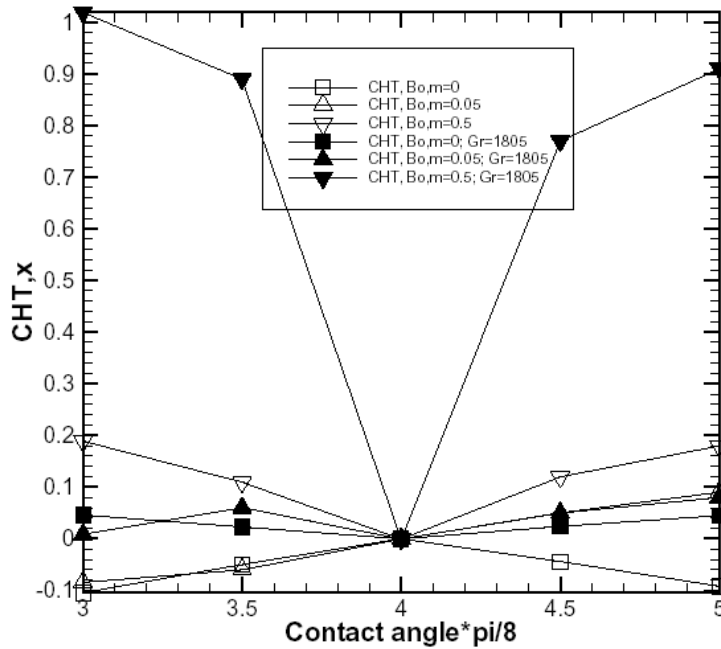


Fig. 25: Convective velocity vs. Contact angle over a range of magnetic field and at constant Ma=10, and 2 different Gr.

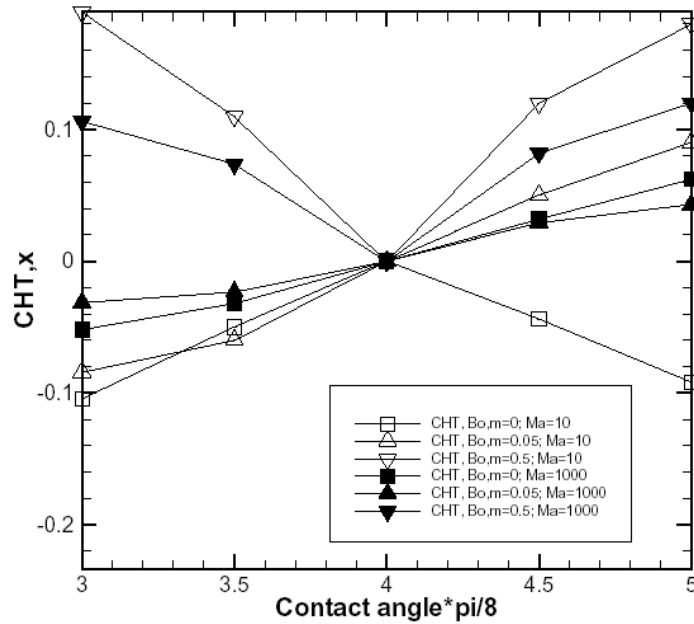


Fig. 26: Convective velocity vs. Contact angle over a range of magnetic field and at constant $Gr=0$, and 2 different Ma .

4. Concluding remarks

In this study, a novel numerical framework using state-of-the-art interface capturing numerical techniques, has been used to simulate a two-layer fluid problem and very interesting physical properties were demonstrated pertinent to the application of interest. It was found that the interface properties of a magnetic fluid can be used to reduce and control the convection in a fluid system under the influence of a magnetic field inside certain regimes of the Magnetic Bond number and the Marangoni number.

The results of the present investigation on reduction or otherwise of the convective flow velocity and heat transfer under certain conditions and certain values of the parameters indicates that the present method of approach and the associated modeling and numerical calculation can be useful to be employed or extended in the problems in crystal growth applications for control of convective flows, in particular, where convection can cause undesirable motions in the melt resulting in higher defect densities, improper mixing and non-uniform properties of the produced crystals.

A reader may get an impression that the results presented in the present paper are strictly applicable to situations where the fluid flows lack three dimensionality, as in the case of flow in a Hele-Shaw cell, for example. Although this can be true, it should be noted that the present model can also model many quasi-three dimensional flow cases where the flow depends weakly in a third dimension z and flow velocity is quite small in the z -direction. In addition, it should be noted that the present investigation of such two-dimensional model was needed as a first step in understanding the roles plays by the magnetic fluids and fields in flow controls aspects, which may be needed in the practical and technological applications. The presents two-dimensional

results can also stimulate future three-dimensional development of similar numerical techniques and subsequent three-dimensional studies in problems in various applications.

Other possible extensions of the present problem, which can be left to future work, include flow optimum control studies using a combination of vertical and transverse magnetic fields in static and dynamic states acting on multi-layer systems composed of ferrofluid and working fluid layers. It would be of interest to search for the most effective possible ways in three-dimensional systems where convective flow could be controlled especially in a microgravity environment, which could help to produce high quality materials, for example.

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