From solar-like to anti-solar differential rotation in cool stars

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\textbf{ABSTRACT}

Stellar differential rotation can be separated into two main regimes: solar-like when the equator rotates faster than the poles and anti-solar when the polar regions rotate faster than the equator. We investigate the transition between these two regimes with 3-D numerical simulations of rotating spherical shells. We conduct a systematic parameter study which also includes models from different research groups. We find that the direction of the differential rotation is governed by the contribution of the Coriolis force in the force balance, independently of the model setup (presence of a magnetic field, thickness of the convective layer, density stratification). Rapidly-rotating cases with a small Rossby number yield solar-like differential rotation, while weakly-rotating models sustain anti-solar differential rotation. Close to the transition, the two kinds of differential rotation are two possible bistable states. This study provides theoretical support for the existence of anti-solar differential rotation in cool stars with large Rossby numbers.

\textbf{Key words:} convection - turbulence - MHD - stars: rotation - Sun: rotation

\section{Introduction}

The solar surface rotates differentially with the equatorial regions rotating faster than the poles. In addition, helioseismic measurements revealed the internal rotation profile of the Sun: (i) the outer convective region exhibits significant latitudinal gradients of shear; (ii) a strong radial differential rotation is observed at the bottom of the convective zone forming the tachocline; (iii) and the radiative core rotates nearly uniformly (e.g. Thompson et al. 2003). In cool stars other than the Sun, the surface differential rotation can be inferred from different measurements techniques encompassing Doppler imaging (e.g. Collier Cameron et al. 2002), Fourier transform of the spectral lines (e.g. Reiners & Schmitt 2002) or period detection in the photometric measurements (e.g. Reinhold et al. 2013). The latitudinal differential rotation in stars is usually described by a single-parameter law of the form \( \Omega(\theta) = \Omega_0(1 - \alpha \sin^2 \theta) \), \( \theta \) being the latitude and \( \Omega_0 \) the angular velocity at the equator. Differential rotation is then usually categorised as “solar-like” when \( \alpha > 0 \) (\( \alpha_0 = 0.2 \)), or as “anti-solar” when the polar regions rotate faster than the equator (i.e. \( \alpha < 0 \)). For main and pre-main sequence stars, observations of absolute surface shear show some dependence on rotation period and effective temperature (Barnes et al. 2005; Ammler-von Eiff & Reiners 2012; Reinhold et al. 2013). Information on the sign of differential rotation is very sparse because observational signatures are very subtle (Fourier technique) or only the absolute value is obtained (photometric technique). Up to now, anti-solar differential rotation has only been reported for a handful of K giant stars observed with the Doppler imaging technique (e.g. Strassmeier et al. 2003; Weber et al. 2005; Kovári et al. 2007). We may thus wonder what determines the sign of differential rotation in cool stars?

The first theoretical approach to model stellar differential rotation relies on hydrodynamical mean-field models (e.g. Rüdiger 1989). In a similar way as in the mean-field dynamo models, the velocity components \( u_i \) are therefore decomposed into a mean-field contribution \( \bar{u}_i \) and a fluctuating part \( u'_i \). The quadratic correlations of the fluctuating quantities, such as Reynolds stresses \( Q_{ij} = \bar{u}_i \bar{u}_j \), are then parametrised as functions of the mean-field quantities only. Reynolds stresses are for instance expanded assuming \( Q_{ij} = \Lambda_{ijk} \bar{\Omega}_k - N_{ijl} \partial \bar{u}_k / \partial x_l \), where \( \Lambda_{ijk} \) and \( N_{ijl} \) are third and fourth order tensors, respectively. The parametrisation of the velocity correlations \( Q_{ij} \) thus involves some free coefficients (turbulent viscosity for instance) that need to be set to ensure the closure of the mean-field model. Despite these approximations, mean-field approaches were quite successful in predicting a weak dependence of the surface shear on the rotation rate and a strong correlation with the effective temperature as observed on the main sequence stars (Küker & Rüdiger 2011). In addition, these models have a strong prediction concerning the sense of the differential rotation and predominantly yield solar-like \( \Omega(\theta) \) profiles (Kitchatinov & Rüdiger 1999). Anti-solar differential rotation can only be maintained in case of very strong meridional circulation (Kitchatinov & Rüdiger 2004).

Alternatively, stellar differential rotation can be modelled using 3-D hydrodynamical and dynamo models of rotating convection in spherical geometry. In that case, the differential rotation...
is maintained by the interaction of turbulent convection with rotation. Despite their own limitations (high diffusivities and moderate density contrasts), 3-D models allow to fully take into account the nonlinearities involved in the angular momentum transport. In contrast with mean-field approaches, no parametrisation of Reynolds stresses is required in 3-D simulations. Although a large number of such simulations yield solar-like differential rotation, they have also frequently produced anti-solar differential rotation over a broad range of parameters and model setups (e.g. Gilman 1977; Glatzmaier & Gilman 1982; Aurnou et al. 2007; Steffen & Freytag 2007; Matt et al. 2011; Käpylä et al. 2011; Bessolaz & Brun 2011; Gastine et al. 2013). The differential rotation direction is suspected to be controlled by the relative contribution of buoyancy and Coriolis force in the global force balance (Gilman 1977; Aurnou et al. 2007). Cases where rotation dominates the force balance yield prograde equatorial azimuthal flows, while a weak rotational influence leads to anti-solar differential rotation. As shown in previous parameter studies, these two regimes can be well separated by a critical convective Rossby number of unity (Gilman 1977), independently of the background density stratification (Gastine & Wicht 2012; Gastine et al. 2013, hereafter GW12, GWA13).

The present work extends these studies to a broader range of parameters to investigate the zonal flow transition in 3-D models in a systematic way. For the sake of generality, we also incorporate data of different research groups who reported anti-solar differential rotation in their models.

2 HYDRODYNAMICAL MODEL

We consider numerical simulations of an anelastic ideal gas in spherical shells rotating at a constant rotation rate \( \Omega_0 \). A fixed entropy contrast \( \Delta s \) between the inner and the outer boundary drives the convective motions. Our numerical models are computed using the anelastic spectral code MagIC (Wicht 2002, GW12) that has been validated against hydrodynamical and dynamo benchmarks (Jones et al. 2011). We non-dimensionalise the MHD equations using \( \Omega_0^{-1} \) as the time unit and the shell thickness \( d = r_o - r_i \) as the reference lengthscale. The anelastic system of equations is then governed by four dimensionless parameters

\[
E = \frac{\nu}{\Omega_0 d^2}, \quad Ra = \frac{g_o d^3 \Delta s}{\nu \kappa \lambda}, \quad Pr = \frac{\nu}{\kappa}, \quad Pr_m = \frac{\nu}{\lambda}, \quad (1)
\]

where \( \nu, \kappa, \) and \( \lambda \) are the constant kinematic, thermal and magnetic diffusivities and \( g_o \) is the gravity at the outer boundary. Details of the numerical implementation are extensively discussed by Jones et al. (2011) and GW12. Differential rotation maintained in 3-D models is suspected to be sensitive to the relative contribution of buoyancy and Coriolis force in the force balance. The ratio between these two forces can be roughly assessed by the so-called convective Rossby number, defined by \( Ro_c = \sqrt{Ra E^2/Pr} \).

The converged solution of a numerical simulation is then characterised by several diagnostic parameters. The rms flow velocity is given in units of the Rossby number \( Ro' = u'_{rms}/\Omega_0 d \), where primed quantities correspond to the non-axisymmetric contribution. The typical flow lengthscale \( \ell \) is defined as \( \ell = \pi d/\bar{u}_m \), where \( \bar{u}_m \) is the mean spherical harmonic degree obtained from the kinetic energy spectrum (e.g. Christensen & Aubert 2006; Schrinner et al. 2012). A local Rossby number \( Ro_l = u'_{rms}/\Omega_0 \ell \) can then be used to evaluate the relative contribution of inertia and Coriolis force to the global force balance. Differential rotation is quantified by the amplitude of the equatorial surface zonal flow:

\[
\alpha_e = \frac{\bar{u}_e(r = r_o, \theta = 0)}{\Omega_o r_o} = \frac{d\Omega(r = r_o, \theta = 0)}{\Omega_o}, \quad (2)
\]

where overbars denote axisymmetric quantities.

Our previous parameter studies were dedicated to the effects of the density stratification on the differential rotation (GW12, GWA13). They assumed \( Pr = 1 \) and covered a limited range of Ekman numbers (\( E = 10^{-3}-10^{-4} \)). To extend the coverage of the parameter space, we have computed here 150 new cases which span the range of \( 10^{-5} < E < 10^{-2} \), \( 10^3 < Ra < 5 \times 10^9 \) and \( Pr \in [0.1, 1, 10] \). We consider here non-magnetic nearly Boussinesq models (i.e. \( N_p = \ln(\rho_o/\rho_p) = 10^{-5} \)) in a thin spherical shell of aspect ratio \( \eta = r_i/r_o = 0.6 \). To investigate how the magnetic field influences differential rotation, we also consider a few Boussinesq dynamo models with \( \eta = 0.35 \) and \( Pr_m = 1 \).

Furthermore, we include additional data from published studies which encompasses Boussinesq (e.g. Aurnou et al. 2007), anelastic (e.g. Gilman 1977, ASH) and fully compressible 3-D models (Käpylä et al. 2011). To our knowledge, all the data reporting anti-solar differential rotation have been gathered in Fig. 1, provided control and relevant diagnostic parameters (i.e. \( \alpha_e \)) were accessible. Note that to ease the comparison between the different setups, the Rayleigh numbers have been rescaled in Fig. 1 to use the entropy gradient at mid-depth, i.e. \( Ra = g_o d^3 |ds/dr|_{rms}/\nu \kappa \). This provides a better way of comparing different reference state models (see Kaspi et al. 2009, GWA13).

3 RESULTS
3.1 Differential rotation regimes

Figure 2 shows the surface differential rotation amplitude \( \alpha_e \) as a function of \( Ro_c \) for the Fig. 1 dataset. When Coriolis forces dominate the force balance (i.e. \( Ro_c \ll 1 \), regime I), the equatorial zonal flow is prograde and its amplitude increases with \( Ro_c \). A relatively sharp transition to retrograde zonal winds (or anti-solar differential rotation) then occurs close to \( Ro_c \sim 1 \). Although the dataset
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Figure 2. Amplitude of the surface zonal flows at the equator in units of $\alpha_e = \bar{u}_r/\Omega_0 r_o$, as a function of $Ro_c$ for the numerical models of Fig. 1.

Figure 3. Left panels: radial velocity at $r = 0.95 \ell_o$. Right panels: time-averaged zonal velocity (colored levels) and meridional circulation (solid and dashed lines). Case (a) corresponds to $N_p = 3$, $\eta = 0.6$, $E = 10^{-4}$, $Ro = 9 \times 10^6$, $Pr = 1$, case (b) to $N_p = 3$, $\eta = 0.6$, $E = 10^{-3}$, $Ro = 4 \times 10^6$, $Pr = 1$. Radial velocity is given in Reynolds number units ($u_r/d/\nu$) while zonal flows are expressed in Rossby number units.

is scattered, the retrograde equatorial flow is on average stronger than in regime I and reaches values of $\alpha_e \approx -0.4$ for $Ro_c \approx 1$. When buoyancy starts to dominate the force balance (i.e. $Ro_c \gg 1$, regime II), the differential rotation decreases suggesting a possible third regime where turbulent motion gradually suppress the mean flows ($Ro_c > 10$, see GWA13 and Brummell et al. 1998).

Despite differences in size of the convective layer, values of the control parameters, definition of the Rayleigh number, choice of thermal boundary conditions and so on, the transition between regimes I and II is well captured by $Ro_c$, with all the data points concentrating in the top-left and bottom-right quadrants.

To illustrate the differences in the differential rotation patterns in the two regimes, Fig. 3 shows radial velocity and zonal flows for two selected models. In the rotation-dominated regime ($Ro_c = 0.09$, upper panels) convective columns aligned with the rotation axis are visible at low latitudes. They are accompanied at higher latitudes by small-scale time-dependent convective cells. Due to the curvature of the spherical shell, the convective columns are slightly tilted in the prograde direction and give rise to Reynolds stresses (a statistical correlation between the convective flow components, see Busse 1983; Christensen 2002). Reynolds stresses maintain a positive flux of angular momentum away from the rotation axis which is responsible for the observed differential rotation.

The pair of geostrophic zonal flows with an eastward equator and westward poles is typical in this regime (e.g. Käpylä et al. 2011, GW12). In contrast, when buoyancy becomes a first-order contribution in the force balance ($Ro_c = 4$, lower panels), the convective features lose their preferred alignment with the rotation axis and the zonal flow direction reverses. The equatorial jet becomes retrograde and is flanked by two prograde zonal winds inside the tangent cylinder. The anti-solar differential rotation observed here can be attributed to the mixing of angular momentum by the turbulent convective motions (e.g. Gilman & Foukal 1979; Aurnou et al. 2007). As demonstrated by GWA13, the angular momentum per unit mass $\mathcal{M}$ is thus a conserved quantity such that

$$\mathcal{M} = \bar{u}_s s + \Omega_0 s^2 = \text{const.} = \zeta(\eta, N_p) \Omega_0 s^2,$$

where $s$ is the cylindrical radius and $0 < \zeta(\eta, N_p) < 1$ depends on the background density stratification, the size of the convective zone and the efficiency of the angular momentum mixing. Using $\Omega_0 R_o$ to non-dimensionalise this equation leads to the following formulation of the differential rotation in regime II:

$$R_o = \frac{\bar{u}_s}{\Omega_0 \ell_o} = \zeta(\eta, N_p) \frac{r_o}{s} + \frac{s}{r_o}. \quad (4)$$

Comparisons between the zonal flow profiles and this theoretical prediction give a good agreement for models with $Ro_c \gtrsim 1$ (Aurnou et al. 2007, GWA13).

Meridional circulation patterns change when differential rotation changes sign (e.g. Matt et al. 2011; Bessolaz & Brun 2011). In the upper panel of Fig. 3, multiple small-scale meridional circulation cells are observed, while the second model shows only one large-scale cell in each hemisphere. This transition results from a change in the spatial variations of the azimuthal force balance between viscous and Reynolds stresses (a mechanism sometimes known as “gyroscopic pumping”, e.g. Miesch & Hindman 2011).

Figure 4a shows the same quantities as Fig. 2 for a consistent subset of nearly Boussinesq numerical models ($N_p = 10^{-2}$) with $\eta = 0.6$. This subset is partly composed by the Boussinesq models of GW12 and GWA13 and partly by the additional cases computed for the present study. Considering the same reference model for the whole subset allows to more accurately scrutinise the zonal flow transition. While the regime change occurs in the range $0.8 < R_o < 2$, some parameter dependence is still noticeable. For instance, the transition is rather gradual for large Ekman numbers ($E = 10^{-2}$, magenta symbols) and becomes sharper when the Ekman number is lowered. Moreover, the Prandtl number dependence does not seem to be perfectly captured by $Ro_c$. In fact, the zonal flow transition in the numerical models with $Pr = 10$ ($Pr = 0.1$) takes place at higher (lower) values of $R_o$ than the $Pr = 1$ cases. As our dataset is limited to relatively large Ekman numbers for $Pr \neq 1$, we might however speculate that such $Pr$ dependence vanishes at low Ekman numbers. As shown in Fig. 4b, the zonal flow transition is better captured when $\alpha_e$ is plotted against the local Rossby number $\bar{R}_o$. This reduction of the dispersion is expected as $\bar{R}_o$ is only a rough proxy of the convective Rossby number, while $Ro_c$ is a measure of the actual local Rossby number of a numerical model. A precise estimate of $Ro_c$ for the whole dataset of models shown in Fig. 2 would thus also help to reduce the observed dispersion.
shows that in both cases
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E = 10\(^{-4}\) becomes numerically too demanding to further investigate the
extent of the two branches. Hence, an Ekman number dependence
cannot be completely ruled out and the extent of the bistability re-
region might increase further when
E is lowered.
3.2 Zonal flow bistability
We find several cases of bistability where the two kinds of differential
rotation are stable at identical parameters (i.e. Ra, E and Pr) when
Ro, \(\sim\) Ro, \(\sim\) 1. The initial condition then selects which differential rotation profile will be adopted by the converged solution. As shown on Fig. 5, starting from a model with a solar-like differential rotation and increasing Ro, (or Ro) maintains a solution with the same kind of differential rotation for \(0.5 < Ro < 1.3\) before falling on the other branch at higher Ro. Alternatively, if one initiates this model with \(\alpha_e < 0\) and decreases Ro, the solution may remain on that branch. Once again, the Pr dependence on the bistability region seems to be better captured when one considers Ro instead of Ro. The hysteresis loop is relatively narrow for \(E = 10^{-3}\) and becomes wider at \(E = 3 \times 10^{-4}\). At \(E = 10^{-4}\), it becomes numerically too demanding to further investigate the extent of the two branches. Hence, an Ekman number dependence
cannot be completely ruled out and the extent of the bistability re-
region might increase further when \(E\) is lowered.
3.3 Magnetic field influence
To investigate if the zonal flow transition is affected by the presence
of magnetic field, we compute two sets of Boussinesq models with
\(\eta = 0.35\): one consists of non-magnetic cases, while the other con-
tains their dynamo counterparts. Figure 6 shows that in both cases the transition between regimes I and II occurs around Ro \(\sim\) 1. Due to the influence of the magnetic field on the convective flow velocity and lengthscale, the exact value of Ro at the transition is slightly lower in the dynamo models. In the rotation-dominated regime, the magnetic cases have significantly weaker zonal flows than the non-magnetic ones. In contrast, hydrodynamical and dy-
namo models yield similar zonal flow amplitude in regime II, con-
firming the previous findings by Soderlund et al. (2013). These differ-
ences can be attributed to the relative efficiency of the mag-
netic braking. The quenching of the differential rotation by Lorentz forces is indeed more pronounced when the magnetic field has a significant large-scale contribution (Ro \(\sim\) 1, Yadav et al. 2013).

4 DISCUSSION
We investigate the transition between solar-like and anti-solar differen-
tial rotation in rotating spherical shells. We extend previous
studies (Gastine & Wicht 2012; Gastine et al. 2013) with a new set of
models which covers a broader range of control parameters. We also include models published by various groups in our analysis.

From this set of simulations we confirm previous findings that the
direction of differential rotation is determined by the value of
the convective Rossby number defined as \(Ro_c = \sqrt{Ra E^2/Pr}\).
In the rotation-dominated regime (regime I, $\text{Ro}_c < 1$), the differential rotation is solar-like, i.e. the equator rotates faster than the poles. When buoyancy dominates the force balance ($\text{Ro}_c > 1$), the turbulent convective motions homogenise the angular momentum, which leads to anti-solar differential rotation profiles. The regime transition takes place at $\text{Ro}_c \sim 1$, independently of the details of the model (density stratification, thickness of the convective layer and so on). We show that the local Rossby number $\text{Ro}_c$ – a good proxy of the relative contribution of Coriolis force and inertia in the force balance (Christensen & Aubert 2006) – helps to better separate the two regimes. Close to the transition ($0.5 < \text{Ro}_c < 1.5$), the two kinds of differential rotation are two possible stable states at the same parameter values, forming a bistable region. The presence of a magnetic field reduces the amplitude of differential rotation in regime I without affecting the regime change at $\text{Ro}_c \sim 1$.

It should be however noted that global numerical models always operate in a parameter regime far from the stellar values due to their large diffusivities (i.e. small Rayleigh and large Ekman numbers). Hence, the existence of additional dynamical regimes cannot be ruled out at realistic parameters. Nonetheless, anti-solar differential rotation is systematically found in weakly-rotating 3-D simulations in contrast with the mean-field results. A closer comparison between mean-field predictions and 3-D simulations is therefore desirable to better establish the limits of validity of such mean-field approaches (e.g. Käpylä et al. 2011).

Our results provide theoretical support for the existence of slowly rotating cool stars exhibiting anti-solar differential rotation. A further validation of our prediction requires to estimate $\text{Ro}_c$ in stellar convective zones. We adopt $\text{Ro}_\text{emp}$, the ratio of the rotation period $P_{\text{rot}}$ and the turnover time of convection $\tau_{\text{conv}}$, as our best available proxy for $\text{Ro}_c$ (e.g. Gastine et al. 2013). With $P_{\text{rot}} = 25$ d and $\tau_{\text{conv}} = 12 - 50$ d (Reiners 2012), the solar Rossby number lies in the range $0.5 < \text{Ro}_\text{emp} < 2$. This suggests that the Sun might be at the limit of the rotation-dominated regime and that stars with Rossby number just above the solar value could exhibit strong anti-solar differential rotation. Claims of anti-solar differential rotation are so far restricted to K giants. Most of these stars are in binary systems where tidal effects likely have an impact on the surface shear (e.g. Kovář et al. 2007). The K giant HD 31993 is the only single giant for which a significant anti-solar differential rotation is reported ($\alpha = -0.125$, Strassmeier et al. 2003). For this star $P_{\text{rot}} = 25.3$ d and $\tau_{\text{conv}} \approx 25$ d (Gunn et al. 1998) yield $\text{Ro}_\text{emp} \approx 1$, a value close to the threshold but compatible with $\alpha < 0$.

Measuring differential rotation for stars clearly in the $\text{Ro} > 1$ regime remains challenging. Doppler imaging or line profile analysis is sensitive to the sign of differential rotation but suffer from some limitations. Doppler imaging indeed relies on the presence of large spots at the stellar photosphere which is not expected for $\text{Ro}_\text{emp} > 1$. Line profile analysis requires a minimum rotational velocity $v \sin i_{\text{min}} \sim 10 - 20$ km.s$^{-1}$. This is incompatible with $\text{Ro}_\text{emp} > 1$ for cool main sequence stars. Although Ammler-von Eiff & Reiners (2012) observed line profile shapes attributable to $\alpha \lesssim 0$ for dwarf stars with $\text{Ro}_\text{emp} < 1$, they attributed these signatures to the presence of cool polar spots. With their larger radii, weakly active evolved giant stars might be more suitable targets. Space missions CoRoT and Kepler collect high-precision photometric data for a vast sample of stars. Although this technique cannot directly determine the sign of $\alpha$, a regime change in the differential rotation might still be captured. Our numerical models indeed suggest a relatively sharp rise in $|\alpha|$ at the transition between solar and anti-solar differential rotation. Latest results based on moderate to fast rotators ($P_{\text{rot}} < 45$ d) by Reinhold et al. (2013) suggest a possible increase of $|\alpha|$ with the Rossby number stressing the need for further analysis of slowly-rotating Kepler stars.

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