# Effect of volumetric heat-loss on triple flame propagation

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#### Abstract

We present a numerical study of the effect of volumetric heat-loss on the propagation of triple flames in the strained mixing layer formed between two opposed streams of fuel and air. The propagation speed of the triple flame is computed for a wide range of values of two non-dimensional parameters: a normalised flame thickness  $\epsilon$ , proportional to the square root of the strain rate, and a heat-loss parameter  $\kappa$ . It is shown that for relatively small values of  $\kappa$ , the propagation speed U is decreased by heat loss, and its dependence on  $\epsilon$  is similar to the adiabatic case, known in the literature; in particular a monotonic decrease in the speed from positive to negative values is observed as  $\epsilon$ is increased. However, for  $\kappa$  larger than a critical value, this monotonic behaviour is lost. It is shown that the more complex behaviour obtained is mainly associated with the fact that, in the presence of heat loss, the trailing planar diffusion flame is extinguished both for sufficiently large and sufficiently small values of the strain rate. Moreover, for sufficiently small values of  $\epsilon$ , the dependence of U on  $\kappa$  is similar to that of the non-adiabatic planar premixed flame, with total extinction occuring for a finite positive value of U. On the other hand, for larger values of  $\epsilon$ , negative speeds, corresponding to extinction fronts, appear before total extinction is brought about by an increase in  $\kappa$ . A summary of the main results is provided by delimiting the different combustion regimes observed in the  $\kappa$  -  $\epsilon$  plane.

### Introduction

The importance of triple flames is now well established, in applications involving combustion phenomena, such as flame spread over solid or liquid fuel surfaces, flame propagation in mixing layers, dynamic extinction of diffusion flames and flame stabilisation in reactive streams. Early experimental observation of this structure was made by Phillips [1] and an early analytical description appears in Ohki and Tsuge [2]. Detailed analysis of triple flames and their propagation regimes was undertaken by Dold and collaborators [3, 4]. Several aspects of the problem have since been investigated, including the effect of gas expansion, the influence of non-unit Lewis numbers and the stability of triple flames (see [5]–[11] and references therein).

The aim of this work is to extend current knowledge of triple flames by taking into account the influence of volumetric heat loss. This aspect of the problem seems to have received no attention, at least as far as the prototypical counterflow configuration is concerned. The aim of this paper is to investigate how triple flames, and their propagation regimes, are affected by volumetric heat loss in this configuration. The paper is structured as follows: the problem is first formulated in the context of a thermo-diffusive approximation, with constant density and constant transport properties and a single Arrhenius reaction; this is followed by presentation and discussion of the numerical findings, in terms of two main parameters related to the strain rate and the rate of heat loss.

#### Formulation

The study is carried out in the familiar counterflow configuration, illustrated in Fig. 1, with the upper stream carrying oxidizer and the lower stream carrying fuel. The flow components are given by  $v_X = 0$ ,  $v_Y = -aY$  and  $v_Z = aZ$ , in the X, Y and Z directions, respectively, with a denoting the strain-rate. We shall address the steady propagation of triple flames in the mixing layer along the X-axis, with the propagation speed  $\hat{U}$  being positive if the fronts are moving along the negative X-direction. The chemistry is modelled by a single irreversible



Figure 1: The counterflow configuration.

one-step reaction of the form  $F + s \text{ Ox} \rightarrow P + q$  where F denotes the fuel, Ox the oxidizer and P the products. The quantities s and q represent the proportion of oxidizer consumed, to fuel consumed, and the heat released per unit mass of fuel. The reaction rate,  $\hat{\omega}$ , is assumed to follow an Arrhenius law of the form  $\hat{\omega} = B\rho^2 Y_F Y_O \exp(-E/RT)$ , where B,  $\rho$ ,  $Y_F$ ,  $Y_O$ and E/R represent the pre-exponential factor, the (constant) density, the mass fractions of fuel and oxidizer and the activation temperature, respectively. The stretching of the flow in the Z direction tends to make the system uniform in Z, so that, in a reference frame attached to the flame, the governing equations become

$$\hat{U}\frac{\partial T}{\partial X} = D_T \left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial X^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial Y^2}\right) + \frac{q}{c_p}\frac{\hat{\omega}}{\rho} + aY\frac{\partial T}{\partial Y} - \hat{\kappa}(T - T_0)$$
(1)

$$\hat{U}\frac{\partial Y_{\rm F}}{\partial X} = D_{\rm F} \left(\frac{\partial^2 Y_{\rm F}}{\partial X^2} + \frac{\partial^2 Y_{\rm F}}{\partial Y^2}\right) - \frac{\hat{\omega}}{\rho} + aY\frac{\partial Y_{\rm F}}{\partial Y}$$
(2)

$$\hat{U}\frac{\partial Y_{\rm O}}{\partial X} = D_{\rm O}\left(\frac{\partial^2 Y_{\rm O}}{\partial X^2} + \frac{\partial^2 Y_{\rm O}}{\partial Y^2}\right) - s\frac{\hat{\omega}}{\rho} + aY\frac{\partial Y_{\rm O}}{\partial Y}.$$
(3)

Here,  $D_{\rm F}$ ,  $D_{\rm O}$  and  $D_T$  are constant diffusion coefficients. The last term on the right of equation (1) is included to account for a linear volumetric heat-loss with coefficient  $\hat{\kappa}$ , the temperature in both incoming streams being  $T_0$ . The boundary conditions for (1)–(3), given in non-dimensional form below, correspond to the planar Y-dependent frozen solution as  $X \to -\infty$  or  $Y \to \pm \infty$ , and to vanishing X-derivatives as  $X \to +\infty$ .

The non-dimensional formulation of the problem follows [9] with the scaled dependent

variables being defined by

$$y_{\rm F} = \frac{Y_{\rm F}}{Y_{\rm F,st}}, \quad y_{\rm O} = \frac{Y_{\rm O}}{Y_{\rm O,st}} \quad \text{and} \quad \theta = \frac{T - T_0}{T_{\rm ad} - T_0}.$$

Here the subscript 'st' refers to values at  $(X = -\infty, Y = Y_{st})$ , where  $Y_{st}$  is the location of the upstream stoichiometric surface defined by  $Y_{O} = sY_{F}$ , or

$$S \operatorname{erf}(Y_{\mathrm{st}}/(2D_{\mathrm{F}}/a)^{1/2}) + \operatorname{erf}(Y_{\mathrm{st}}/(2D_{\mathrm{O}}/a)^{1/2}) = S - 1,$$

with  $S \equiv s(Y_{\rm F}|_{y=\infty})/(Y_{\rm O}|_{y=-\infty})$ . The quantity  $T_{\rm ad}$  is defined by  $T_{\rm ad} \equiv T_0 + qY_{{\rm F},{\rm st}}/c_p$ . As unit length, we select  $L/\beta$ , where  $L \equiv (2D_T/a)^{1/2}$  is the (thermal) mixing layer thickness and  $\beta \equiv E(T_{\rm ad} - T_0)/RT_{\rm ad}^2$  is the Zeldovich number; the unit of length is then a typical radius of curvature of a triple flame. As unit speed, we adopt the laminar speed of a stoichiometric planar flame, or more precisely its asymptotic value for large  $\beta$  under adiabatic equidiffusional conditions, namely  $S_L^0 = (4\beta^{-3}Y_{{\rm O},{\rm st}}\rho D_T B \exp(-E/RT_{\rm ad}))^{1/2}$ .

In terms of the coordinates  $y \equiv \beta (Y - Y_{st})/L$  and  $x \equiv \beta X/L$ , equations (1)–(3) now assume the non-dimensional form

$$U\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial x} = \epsilon \left(\frac{\partial^2\theta}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2\theta}{\partial y^2}\right) + \epsilon^{-1}\omega + \frac{2\epsilon}{\beta} \left(\eta_s + \frac{y}{\beta}\right) \frac{\partial\theta}{\partial y} - \frac{\epsilon^{-1}}{\beta}\kappa\theta \tag{4}$$

$$U\frac{\partial y_{\rm F}}{\partial x} = \frac{\epsilon}{\rm Le_{\rm F}} \left(\frac{\partial^2 y_{\rm F}}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 y_{\rm F}}{\partial y^2}\right) - \epsilon^{-1}\omega + \frac{2\epsilon}{\beta} \left(\eta_s + \frac{y}{\beta}\right) \frac{\partial y_{\rm F}}{\partial y} \tag{5}$$

$$U\frac{\partial y_{\rm O}}{\partial x} = \frac{\epsilon}{\rm Le_{\rm O}} \left(\frac{\partial^2 y_{\rm O}}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 y_{\rm O}}{\partial y^2}\right) - \epsilon^{-1}\omega + \frac{2\epsilon}{\beta} \left(\eta_s + \frac{y}{\beta}\right) \frac{\partial y_{\rm O}}{\partial y} \,. \tag{6}$$

Here, the parameter  $\epsilon$ , the square of which is the inverse of the Damköhler number, is defined by

$$\epsilon \equiv \frac{l_{\rm Fl}^0}{L/\beta} \equiv \frac{\beta (D_T/2)^{1/2}}{S_L^0} a^{1/2}.$$

It represents the thickness of the laminar stoichiometric flame  $l_{\rm Fl}^0 = D_T/S_L^0$ , measured in terms of our standard unit length  $L/\beta$ . The Lewis numbers of fuel and oxidizer are Le<sub>F</sub>  $\equiv$  $D_T/D_{\rm F}$  and Le<sub>O</sub>  $\equiv D_T/D_{\rm O}$ , and  $\eta_s \equiv Y_{\rm st}/(2D_T/a)^{1/2}$  characterizes the location of the upstream stoichiometric surface. The nondimensional heat loss coefficient is  $\kappa \equiv \beta (D_T/S_L^{0.2})\hat{\kappa}$ and  $\omega$  is given by

$$\omega \equiv \frac{\beta^3}{4} y_{\rm F} y_{\rm O} \exp\left(\frac{\beta(\theta-1)}{1+\alpha(\theta-1)}\right) \tag{7}$$

with  $\alpha \equiv (T_{\rm ad} - T_0)/T_{\rm ad}$ .

In terms of the new variables, the boundary conditions as  $x \to -\infty$  or  $y \to \pm \infty$  are

$$\theta = 0, y_{\rm F} = \frac{1 - \operatorname{erf}((\eta_s + y/\beta)\operatorname{Le}_{\rm F}^{1/2})}{1 - \operatorname{erf}(\eta_s \operatorname{Le}_{\rm F}^{1/2})}, y_{\rm O} = \frac{1 + \operatorname{erf}((\eta_s + y/\beta)\operatorname{Le}_{\rm O}^{1/2})}{1 + \operatorname{erf}(\eta_s \operatorname{Le}_{\rm O}^{1/2})}$$
(8)

and as  $x \to +\infty$ 

$$\frac{\partial\theta}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial y_{\rm F}}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial y_{\rm O}}{\partial x} = 0.$$
(9)

In solving this problem, the main aim is to determine the (scaled) propagation speed U in terms of the non dimensional parameters  $\epsilon$ ,  $\kappa$ , Le<sub>F</sub>, Le<sub>O</sub> and  $\eta_s$  (as well as  $\beta$  and  $\alpha$ ). In this study we provide detailed numerical results in terms of the parameters  $\epsilon$  and  $\kappa$ .

#### Results

The problem consisting of equations (4)–(6) with the boundary conditions (8)–(9) is solved numerically. The numerical method is the same as the one used in [9] and is based on a finite volume discretization combined with an algebraic multigrid solver [12]. The computational domain dimensions are typically 10 times the mixing layer thickness in the *y*-direction and 100 times the planar laminar flame thickness in the *x*-direction. The grid is non-uniform with typically 200 000 points. We report results describing the dependence on the parameters  $\epsilon$  and  $\kappa$ , with the other parameters being assigned fixed values, namely  $\beta = 8$ ,  $\alpha = 0.85$ ,  $\eta_s = 0$  and Le<sub>F</sub> = Le<sub>O</sub> = 1.

We begin by presenting a reference case corresponding to the familiar adiabatic situation  $\kappa = 0$ . Shown in Fig. 2 are reaction rate contours (left) and corresponding temperature contours (right). The subfigures correspond to  $\epsilon = 0.2$ , 1.2 and 2.7, from top to bottom, with the last value characterizing near-extinction conditions. The contours are equidistributed between zero and the maximum value of the field, which is indicated in each subfigure. The



Figure 2: Contours of the reaction rate (left) and temperature (right) for the cases  $\kappa = 0$  with  $\epsilon = 0.2$  (top),  $\epsilon = 1.2$  (middle) and  $\epsilon = 2.7$  (bottom).

dimensionless leading front becomes thicker for larger values of  $\epsilon$  (or strain rate) which is accompanied by a decrease in the propagation speed from positive to negative values (see later, in Fig. 4). Of course, in the limit  $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ , corresponding to large Damköhler numbers, the temperature of the trailing diffusion flame increases to unity, its adiabatic value, while the corresponding reaction rate  $\omega$  decreases to zero (due to a vanishing rate of supply of the reactants to the reaction zone); as  $\epsilon$  is increased this trend is reversed, at least up to near-extinction conditions (obtained for sufficiently high strain rates).

To illustrate the influence of heat-loss on the triple flame, Fig. 3 depicts the same situation as Fig. 2, with  $\kappa = 0.04$ , for  $\epsilon = 0.2$ , 1.2 and 2.4; the final value again characterizes near-extinction conditions and is smaller than in the adiabatic case. An important feature associated with the presence of heat-loss is the extinction of the trailing diffusion flame for small values of  $\epsilon$ , as can be observed in the top subfigures. Otherwise, the behaviour of



Figure 3: Contours of the reaction rate (left) and temperature (right) for the cases  $\kappa = 0.04$  with  $\epsilon = 0.2$  (top),  $\epsilon = 1.2$  (middle) and  $\epsilon = 2.4$  (bottom).

the triple flame as  $\epsilon$  is increased is similar to the adiabatic case, with the fronts evolving continuously from propagating fronts to retreating fronts until total extinction occurs.

However, it is important to note that the last remark is valid only for sufficiently small values of  $\kappa$ . For  $\kappa$  larger than some critical value, more complex behaviour is obtained. This is best illustrated by plotting the propagation speed U versus  $\epsilon$  for selected values of  $\kappa$ , as done in Fig. 4. The curve labelled  $\kappa = 0$  in this figure is the well-known adiabatic case. This curve has a vertical slope for a critical value of  $\epsilon$  which characterises the total extinction of the triple flame structure. As explained in [13], this critical value is associated with the quenching of the planar diffusion flame by an excessively high strain rate. We note that the curve labelled  $\kappa = 0.04$  displays a similar trend, in line with the observations above, but that the cases corresponding to higher values of  $\kappa$  exhibit a markedly different behaviour. In particular, the dependence of U on  $\epsilon$  is no longer monotonic and, in fact, the  $\epsilon$ -domain



Figure 4: Plots of U versus  $\epsilon$  for selected values of  $\kappa$ .

of existence of the flame fronts separates into two disjoint intervals; this is clearly seen in the curves corresponding to  $\kappa = 0.05$  and 0.06. For yet larger values of  $\kappa$ , no solutions are found for small values of  $\epsilon$ , as seen in the curve for  $\kappa = 0.08$ . This can be explained by the fact that, as  $\epsilon \to 0$ , the propagation speed tends to that of the stoichiometric planar flame, but the latter ceases to exist for excessive heat losses even though a narrower flame edge can still exist at higher values of  $\epsilon$  (according to numerical experiments). For larger values of  $\kappa$ , approximately  $\kappa > 0.1$  in this example, we found no burning solutions for any value of  $\epsilon$ .

Another instructive way of examining the results just presented is to plot U versus  $\kappa$  for selected values  $\epsilon$ , as in Fig. 5. For small values of  $\epsilon$ , the dependence of U on  $\kappa$  is similar to that of the non-adiabatic planar flame, with extinction occuring at a finite positive speed. This can be confirmed by an asymptotic analysis in the limit  $\epsilon \to 0$ , which is not included



Figure 5: Plots of U versus  $\kappa$  for selected values of  $\epsilon$ 



Figure 6: Maximum temperature versus  $\epsilon$  for selected values of  $\kappa$  for the planar diffusion flame.

here due to space limitations. From the figure we can also conclude that retreating triple flames (or extinction fronts, having U < 0) can be obtained by increasing the intensity of the heat loss only if  $\epsilon$  (or the strain rate) is above a critical value.

In order to understand better the dependence of U on  $\epsilon$ , in the presence of heat-loss, it is useful to compare it with a numerical description of the planar diffusion flame over the same ranges of parameters. The latter is presented in Fig. 6, where the maximum temperature of the planar diffusion flame is plotted against  $\epsilon$  for several values of  $\kappa$ . We note that for any non-zero value of  $\kappa$ , there are two extinction values of  $\epsilon$ , a fact that is known in the literature (see for example [14]–[17]). The larger extinction limit, which is also encountered in the adiabatic case is due to flame quenching by an excessively high strain rate. The lower extinction limit is partly associated with the fact that the rate of heat generation by the chemical reaction decreases as the strain rate (or reactant supply) is decreased, leading to extinction for any non-zero value of  $\kappa$ ; moreover, the total size of the region of hot gas also increases, which increases the total heat-loss and lowers the flame temperature. The fact that extinction must occur can be seen from the following simple, order of magnitude argument.

From the diffusive-reactive balance in the thin reaction zone, of typical (nondimensional) thickness  $\delta_{\rm r}$ , say, we have from the one-dimensional *y*-dependent version of equations (5)

and (6)

$$\frac{\bar{y}_{\rm F}}{\delta_{\rm r}^2} \sim \frac{\bar{y}_{\rm O}}{\delta_{\rm r}^2} \sim \epsilon^{-2} \bar{\omega}$$

where the bars indicate typical values in the reaction zone. From (7), supposing that  $\theta$  is close to unity

$$\bar{\omega} \sim \beta^3 \bar{y}_{\rm F} \bar{y}_{\rm O}$$

Since the order of magnitude of the gradients of  $y_{\rm F}$  and  $y_{\rm O}$  in the reaction zone,  $\bar{y}_{\rm F}/\delta_{\rm r}$  and  $\bar{y}_{\rm O}/\delta_{\rm r}$ , respectively, are the same as in the mixing layer (whose non-dimensional thickness is  $\beta$ , given our choice of unit length) we may write

$$\frac{\bar{y}_{\rm F}}{\delta_{\rm r}} \sim \frac{\bar{y}_{\rm O}}{\delta_{\rm r}} \sim \frac{1}{\beta} \,.$$

From the last three equations, it follows that  $\delta_{\rm r} \sim \beta^{-2/3} \epsilon^{2/3}$ , and

$$\bar{\omega} \sim \beta^{-1/3} \epsilon^{4/3}$$
.

Now, using the temperature equation (4), we see that the effective rate of heat generation (accounting for heat loss) is given, in order of magnitude by  $\bar{\omega} - \kappa/\beta$ . This quantity becomes negative in the limit  $\epsilon \to 0$ , indicating that the temperature decreases, leading to extinction, whenever  $\kappa > 0$ . It also indicates that extinction must occur at least when  $\kappa = O(\beta^{2/3} \epsilon^{4/3})$ , or larger. For the adiabatic case,  $\kappa = 0$ , extinction is impossible as  $\epsilon \to 0$ , since the net rate of heat generation remains positive, although it becomes vanishingly small. This is the classical Burke-Schumann limit.

We now return to Figs. 4 and 6, where it is seen, by comparing, for example, the curves labelled  $\kappa = 0.06$ , that the more complex dependence of U on  $\epsilon$  when  $\kappa \neq 0$  is directly linked to the behaviour of the planar diffusion flame. This explains, when  $\kappa$  is not too small, both the monotonic variation of U with  $\epsilon$  and the fact that the  $\epsilon$ -domain of existence of the flame fronts consists of two disjoint intervals. For small values of  $\kappa$ , for example  $\kappa = 0.04$ , the lower extinction limit of the diffusion flame occurs at values of  $\epsilon$  which are sufficiently small to have a negligible effect on the propagation speed. This is because, for sufficiently small



Figure 7: Regimes of triple-flame propagation, with and without an associated diffusion flame, in the presence of heat-loss.

values of  $\epsilon$ , the leading premixed front is negligibly affected by the properties of the fields downstream, and hence by the trailing diffusion flame.

Finally, a summary of the main results is presented in Fig. 7 in the space of  $\kappa$  and  $\epsilon$ . The dashed-line characterises the extinction limits of the planar diffusion flame extracted from the previous figure. The squares correspond to the complete extinction of the triple-flame structure, and are (partially) extracted from Fig. 5. The triangles describe conditions with zero propagation speeds. Four combustion regimes can thus be delimited in the  $\kappa$ - $\epsilon$  plane.

- (a) In the domain labelled A, to the right of the squares, the triple-flame structure is extinguished. We note that the extinction in this case is dictated by the extinction of the diffusion flame in situations where the squares lie on the dashed line. This occurs for  $\epsilon$  larger than a critical value  $\epsilon^*$  which is seen to be close to 0.7. For small values of the strain rate (more precisely for  $\epsilon < \epsilon^*$ ), the triple-flame structure survives in situations where the planar diffusion flame is extinguished.
- (b) In the domain labelled B, to the left of the squares and below the lower branch of the dashed curve, the triple flames have positive speeds and no trailing diffusion-flame tail (far downstream), as exemplified in the top subfigure of Fig. 3. We could call these tailless triple flames. More generally, such structures arise in situations where

the flame behind a flame edge is extinguished but the edge itself continues to survive. Such structures share some similarities with those encountered in low Lewis number triple-flame studies (see [18]) where oscillatory propagation arises.

- (c) In the domain C, below the triangles and above the domain B, triple flames with positive speeds and trailing diffusion-flame tails are encountered. These may be referred to as ignition fronts of the diffusion flame, as in the familiar adiabatic situation.
- (d) In the remaining domain D, negatively propagating triple flames (retreating fronts) are obtained, again as found in the adiabatic situation.

### Conclusion

We have presented a numerical description of triple-flame propagation in a strained mixing layer under nonadiabatic conditions. The results indicate that various combustion regimes arise, due to the difference in sensitivity to heat-loss of the premixed leading front and trailing diffusion flame. In particular, a synthesis of the main findings has been given in terms of the heat-loss intensity and the strain rate. It is worth pointing out that the solutions presented have been obtained by solving the steady state governing equations. Their stability, which has not been addressed in this work, will be checked in future studies by solving the corresponding time-dependent problem.

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