

Technical Note

# On the role of heat and mass transport during the mutual annihilation of two premixed propane–air flames

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## Abstract

The unsteady process of mutual annihilation of two stoichiometric propane–air flames in one dimension is investigated numerically in the presence of preferential (the diffusion of heat relative to mass diffusion of species) and differential diffusion (the relative mass diffusions of species) effects. These effects are found during the early stages of mutual annihilation, corresponding to preheat layers' interactions, as well as during the merger of the reaction layers. The diffusive mobility of heat relative to the reactants results in the preheating of the reactants and associated increases in the rates of reactants' consumption. These rates are sustained during the merger of the reaction layers due to the relative mobility of the secondary fuels, especially  $H_2$ , which results in the build-up of radicals in the reaction zone prior to the completion of the mutual annihilation process. Preferential and differential diffusion effects also result in the formation of products of incomplete combustion at the end of this process.

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## 1. Introduction

In turbulent flows, flames are continuously wrinkled and strained by the unsteady flow field. This wrinkling and straining process results in increased turbulent flame area, and accordingly in increased rate of volumetric heat release. Another competing process that becomes important with increased turbulence intensity is the increased rate of flame–flame interactions, which results in mutual flame annihilation and decreased flame area or flame shortening. While the statistics of this process are associated with turbulent transport, the actual process of flame–flame interactions is governed primarily by the coupling of molecular processes, reaction and diffusion. An understanding of the transient process of mutual annihilation can provide insight into improved models of turbulent combustion, as mutual annihilation is expected to be an important mechanism for flame shortening [1].

The present study is concerned with the evolution of the overall rate of reaction during the upstream interaction of propane–air flames in the presence of preferential (heat vs. mass) and differential (mass vs. mass) diffusion. Pertinent questions for turbulent combustion models are related to (1) the time scales associated with the interaction relative to turbulence and chemical time scales, (2) the role of mutual annihilation in the formation of products of incomplete combustion, and (3) the effects of preferential and differential diffusion on the mutual annihilation process.

The study is implemented numerically in 1D for two identical stoichiometric propane–air flames propagating into the space of reactants separating the two flames, and finally merging at the symmetry line. Similar transient simulations and analytical studies have been implemented for other flames in the past two decades [2–7]. Earlier studies also considered the interactions of premixed flames under steady conditions using the counterflow geometry [8–12]. However, transient studies provide direct assessments of the time scales of the mutual annihilation process. Although, the process of mutual annihilation occurs under curvature and straining conditions in turbulent flames, a

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## Nomenclature

$h^s$	sensible enthalpy
$\Delta h_f^\circ$	species heat of formation
$Le$	species Lewis number
$S_C$	flame consumption speed
$S_L$	laminar flame speed
$t$	time
$t_f$	flame time
$T$	temperature
$x$	distance along the flame normal

<i>Greek symbols</i>	
$\alpha$	species index
$\delta_f$	flame thermal thickness
$\dot{\omega}$	species reaction rate
$\rho$	density

<i>Subscripts</i>	
b	burned gases state
u	unburned gases state

simplified computation is used here to identify the coupling of molecular transport (for heat and mass) and chemistry in 1D. Preferential and differential diffusion effects are found to play important roles on the transient process of annihilation in methane–air and butane–air premixed flames [2–5]. These effects are found on the reactants' side [3,5] as well as within the reaction zone [2,4]. The recent study by Ranganath and Echehki [5] over a range of equivalence ratios from lean to rich hydrogen–air flames shows an overall consistent shift of chemistry during the initial stages of flame–flame interactions to leaner conditions due to the important differential diffusion of the fuel,  $H_2$ , in the reaction zone. Traditional theories based on the Lewis number of the deficient reactant, resulting in the ‘flip’ of the effective Lewis number of the mixture from lean to rich conditions, and vice-versa, are not applicable to the transient mutual annihilation process. The present study based on a less mobile fuel, propane, will confirm the contribution of a shift, in this case to rich mixture conditions, in equivalence ratio to the process of mutual flame annihilation. In comparison with the earlier study by Echehki et al. [4] based on methane we will attempt to identify the role of this shift on processes within the reaction zone. Methane has a comparable diffusive mobility to the oxidizer,  $O_2$ , and heat in contrast to  $H_2$  and  $C_3H_8$ .

## 2. Numerical implementation

The computations are implemented in 1D using Sandia's S3D code. S3D is a compressible direct numerical simulation (DNS) flow code with a conservative formulation for the three components of the momentum, the density, the energy and the species mass densities. Transport properties are temperature and composition-dependent. The numerical scheme is based on an explicit eighth order finite difference scheme in space [13] and a fourth order accurate Range-Kutta temporal integration [14]. The non-reflecting boundary conditions are based on the NSCBC boundary conditions, which were originally developed by Poinso and Lele [15] and modified for the present formulation by Mahalingam [16].

Temperature dependent properties are employed for the simulation using the formulation proposed by Smooke and

Giovangigli [17] for the thermal conductivity, temperature dependent species specific heats using the CHEMKIN thermodynamic database [18]. A Lewis number formulation for species mass transport [17] is also adopted. It is based on assigning a constant Lewis number for different transport species relating its mass diffusivity to the thermal diffusivity. These Lewis numbers are evaluated using a least-square fit of the species diffusive fluxes for a range of temperatures between 500 and 2500 K using the PREMIX code [19]. The Lewis numbers of the species considered are  $C_3H_8$ (1.81),  $CO$ (1.07),  $CO_2$ (1.36),  $O_2$ (1.06),  $H_2O$ (0.79),  $H_2$ (0.29),  $OH$ (0.70),  $O$ (0.68),  $H$ (0.17),  $HO_2$ (1.06),  $CH_4$ (0.97),  $CH_3$ (0.96),  $CH$ (0.64),  $CH_2$ (0.94),  $CH_2O$ (1.24),  $HCO$ (1.23),  $C_2H_6$ (1.41),  $C_2H_5$ (1.39),  $C_2H_4$ (1.28),  $C_2H_3$ (1.28),  $C_2H_2$ (1.27),  $CH_3CHO$ (1.47),  $CH_3CO$ (1.46),  $CH_2CO$ (1.46),  $IC_3H_7$ (1.80),  $C_3H_6$ (1.79),  $H_2O_2$ (1.07) and  $N_2$ (1.02). Similarly, the Prandtl number relating the kinematic viscosity to the thermal diffusivity is set to a constant value of 0.708. Propane chemistry is based on the detailed propane mechanism M5 of Haworth et al. [20] with 28 species and 73 reversible elementary reactions. Initial profiles of the flames are obtained using the PREMIX code [19]; these profiles are allowed to reach steady-state in the S3D code prior to interactions between the two flames. The reactants' temperature is 300 K and the pressure is 1 atm. The domain length is 10.5 cm with 10,504 spatially-uniform grid points used.

The numerical results are presented in terms of global quantities and centerline values for key scalars. Global quantities include the consumption speed,  $S_C$ , which is the integrated reaction rate for the reactants or products normalized to yield units of speed. It corresponds exactly to the laminar 1D flame speed,  $S_L$ , at steady-state. Consumption speeds based on reactants or products are expressed as follows:  $S_{C,\alpha} = \left[ \int_{x=0}^L \dot{\omega}_\alpha dx \right] / [\rho_u (Y_{\alpha,u} - Y_{\alpha,b})]$ , where  $\dot{\omega}_\alpha$  is the production rate for species  $\alpha$ ;  $Y$ 's are the mass fractions; the subscripts u and b correspond to unburnt and burnt gas conditions; and  $\rho_u$  is the unburnt gas density. The consumption speed based on the heat release rate is expressed as follows:  $S_{C,T} = \left[ \int_{x=0}^L \left( -\sum_{\alpha=1}^N \Delta h_{f,\alpha}^\circ \dot{\omega}_\alpha \right) dx \right] / [\rho_u (h_b^s - h_u^s)]$ . Here,  $\Delta h_{f,\alpha}^\circ$ ,  $h_u^s$ , and  $h_b^s$  are the standard heat of formation of species  $\alpha$ ,

and the sensible enthalpies of the mixture at unburnt and burnt gas conditions, respectively.

Two additional scales based on the 1D steady flame are used to normalize our results. They are the thermal thickness,  $\delta_f$ , which is defined as the ratio of the temperature difference across the flame to the maximum temperature gradient,  $\delta_f = (T_b - T_u)/(dT/dx)_{\max}$ . The laminar flame speed,  $S_L$ , is also computed from steady laminar flame profiles. A characteristic flame time,  $t_f$ , may be derived from the ratio of the flame thickness to the laminar flame speed at steady-state conditions,  $t_f = \delta_f/S_L$ . The quantities,  $\delta_f$  and  $t_f$ , are used to normalize length and time scales, respectively.

### 3. Results and discussion

To understand the mechanism of mutual annihilation in premixed propane–air flames, it is useful to briefly discuss the overall flame structure at steady-state. Fig. 1 a schematic of the overall structure of a stoichiometric premixed propane–air flame. The profiles are generated using steady-state solutions from DNS prior to the onset of mutual annihilation. The figure illustrates the typical asymptotic structure of hydrocarbon flames, which can be described in terms of distinct layers: (a) a preheat layer, (b) an inner or fuel consumption layer, (c) CO and H<sub>2</sub> oxidation layers, and post-flame layers. The vertical lines on the figure delineate the approximate limits of the layers. In the thin inner layer, the fuel and radicals are consumed to form secondary fuels, CO and H<sub>2</sub>. The primary fuel, C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>, does not reach beyond this layer; while, the oxidizer, O<sub>2</sub>, continues to exist beyond it. In the oxidation layers CO and H<sub>2</sub> formed in the inner layer are oxidized to form CO<sub>2</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>O. The profiles of H<sub>2</sub> and CO extend towards the product side, and similarly the temperature profiles approach slowly the adiabatic value in the post-flame. The overall structure of the propane–air flame is similar to that of methane–air flames [4], and is fundamentally different from the hydrogen flame [5]. The presence of a two-zone reaction structure and the formation of secondary fuels are found to

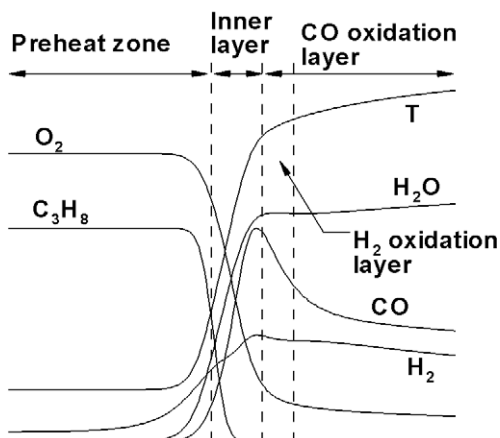


Fig. 1. Schematic of the overall structure of premixed propane–air flames.

play important roles during the intermediate stages of mutual annihilation in methane–air premixed flames [4], and are expected to play important roles in propane–air premixed flames as well. In methane–air flames, this role is characterized by the selective diffusion of the more mobile, H<sub>2</sub>, relative to CO towards the reactants' side, which significantly enhances the rates of radical build-up and secondary fuels consumption prior to mutual annihilation. During the upstream interaction process between two premixed flames, preheat layers merge first, followed by the merger of the fuel consumption layers, and the CO and H<sub>2</sub> oxidation layers. Note in Fig. 1 the presence of a 'dip' or change of curvature in the profile of H<sub>2</sub>O past the H<sub>2</sub> oxidation layer, which results from the presence of a thin layer of consumption for H<sub>2</sub>O in the reaction zone.

#### 3.1. Preheat layers' interactions

The stage of preheat layers' interactions corresponds to the merger of the preheat zone, which features primarily the coupling of convection and diffusion without chemistry or heat release. Fig. 2 shows the temporal evolution of the temperature and the reactants' mass fractions at the symmetry line between the flames. The species mass fractions are normalized by their initial values at the centerline prior to the onset of any interactions; the normalized temperature shown in the figure is expressed as  $(T_b - T)/(T_b - T_u)$ , where  $T_u$  and  $T_b$  are the steady-state flame unburnt and burnt gas temperatures, respectively. The onset of mergers of the diffusive and temperature layers is characterized by a departure from these initial values; while the order with which reactants and temperature layers merge depends on their rates of diffusion. In a manner consistent with the value of their Lewis numbers, which are both greater than one and therefore less diffusive, the reactants' diffusive layers lag the merger of the temperature layers. This merger

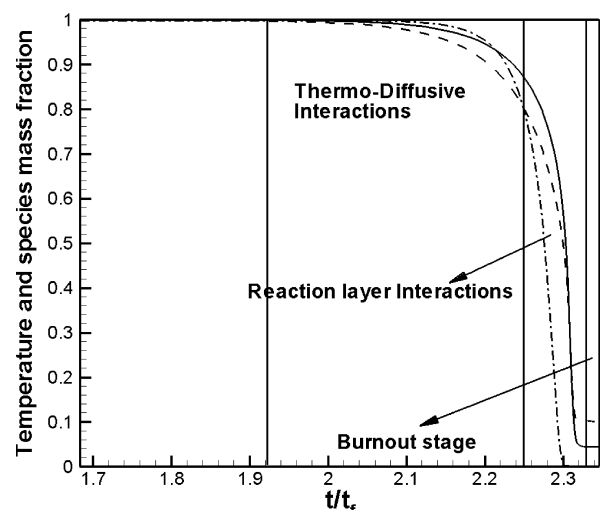


Fig. 2. Evolution of normalized propane and oxygen species mass fraction and temperature at the symmetry line during the various stages of mutual annihilation.  $T$ : (---),  $Y_{C_3H_8}$ : (-·-·-),  $Y_{O_2}$ : (—).

results in the preheating of the reactants. Also, consistent with the value of the  $O_2$  Lewis number, the  $O_2$  diffusion layer is the second layer to merge; while, propane, which has the highest Lewis number merges last. The order based on the value of the Lewis number is consistent with the order observed for  $H_2$ –air flames (see Fig. 2 in Ref. [5]); but, in contrast to these flames, it is the propane profile, owing to its lower diffusive mobility, that lags during the merger of the preheat layers. Therefore, the preheat layers, interactions, which occur in the absence of chemical reactions, are entirely governed by preferential diffusion (heat ahead of mass) and differential diffusion (oxygen ahead of propane) effects. Despite the fuel lag, the normalized value for  $C_3H_8$  mass fraction decays afterward more rapidly due to the merger of the reaction layers and the depletion of  $C_3H_8$  in the fuel consumption layer. This trend is seen in Fig. 2 and is shown by the rapid decay of the  $C_3H_8$  mass fraction. This decay is accompanied by the formation of the secondary fuels CO and  $H_2$  as discussed earlier. The higher diffusive mobility of  $O_2$  compared to  $C_3H_8$  during the preheat layers' interactions result in an initial shift of the effective equivalence ratio at the centerline to lean conditions in the reaction zone, followed by a shift to richer conditions towards the end of the mutual annihilation process. These shifts, although not explicitly shown here, and which are associated with differential diffusion play key roles in the generation of products of incomplete combustion or dissociation products at the end of the process.

The vertical lines in the figure delimit the approximate times corresponding to the onset of the various stages of mutual annihilation. The time period associated with preheat layers' interactions is relatively longer than the corresponding period for the reaction layers' interactions. The burnout stage lasts the longest and past the period shown in the figure. The preheat layers' interactions lasts approximately  $0.3 t_f$ ; while, the reaction layers' interactions last less than 10% of  $t_f$ . These fractions illustrate the rapid process of mutual annihilation. While these time scales appear to be consistent with the relative time scales of diffusion and reaction, it is evident from these scales that an accelerated merger of the preheat and the reaction layers is occurring during the mutual annihilation process. Although not shown here, the accelerated merger of the preheat layers is primarily a result of changes in the balance of reaction and diffusion in the reaction zone [4]. As discussed below, the acceleration of the merger of the reaction layers is governed by a rapid increase in the rates of consumption of the primary ( $C_3H_8$ ) and secondary (CO and  $H_2$ ) fuels during the reaction layers' interactions.

### 3.2. Reaction layers' interactions

Fig. 3 shows the evolution of the consumption speeds for the reactants,  $C_3H_8$  and  $O_2$ , the products,  $H_2O$  and  $CO_2$ , and the temperature-related consumption speed, associated with the heat release rate. These are the inte-

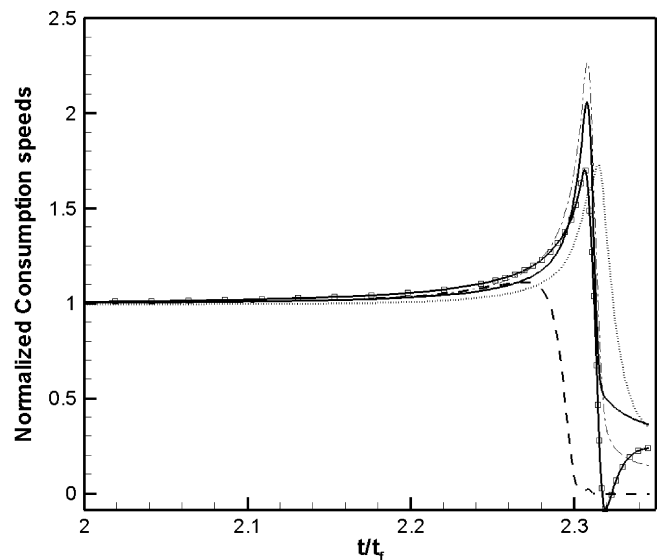


Fig. 3. Evolution of normalized temperature related consumption speed and consumption speeds for  $C_3H_8$ ,  $O_2$ ,  $CO_2$  and  $H_2O$ . Heat Release Rate: (—),  $C_3H_8$ ; (---);  $O_2$ ; (— · —);  $CO_2$ ; (· · · · ·);  $H_2O$ : (—□—□—).

grated reaction rates over the entire domain, and are normalized by the corresponding value at steady-state. The figure shows that the consumption speed increases at the initial stages of the reaction layers' interactions for both reactants and products, albeit at different rates. Propane exhibits an earlier decay associated with the complete consumption of the fuel in the fuel consumption layer; beyond the merger of this layer,  $O_2$  continues to be consumed in the  $H_2$  and CO oxidation layers. The peaks of  $H_2O$  and  $CO_2$  follow. The reaction layers' interactions process results in an increase of the  $O_2$  consumption speeds and consumption speed associated with heat release by approximately a factor of 2, and approximately 1.7 times for  $H_2O$  and  $CO_2$ ; while, the consumption speed of  $C_3H_8$  increases by a factor of only 10%, approximately. The moderate increase in  $C_3H_8$  consumption speed can be attributed primarily to the preheating effect resulting from the merger of the temperature layers first. The increases associated with the heat release rate,  $O_2$  consumption and products consumption is associated with the CO and  $H_2$  oxidation layers, and can be attributed mainly to the secondary fuels, CO and  $H_2$ . The consequences of these increases are also closely related to an increase in the radical pool and the peak temperature in the reaction zone. Fig. 3 also shows that towards the completion of the merger of the reaction layers, the consumption speed associated with  $H_2O$  decreases below zero prior to recovering a positive value. The negative value is associated with the contribution of a consumption layer for  $H_2O$  in the absence of the dominant contribution of the production layers that has merged. Evidence of this consumption layer can also be seen in the profiles of  $H_2O$  at steady-state (Fig. 1).

The reaction layers' interactions start with the merger of the thin fuel consumption layer, which results in the emer-

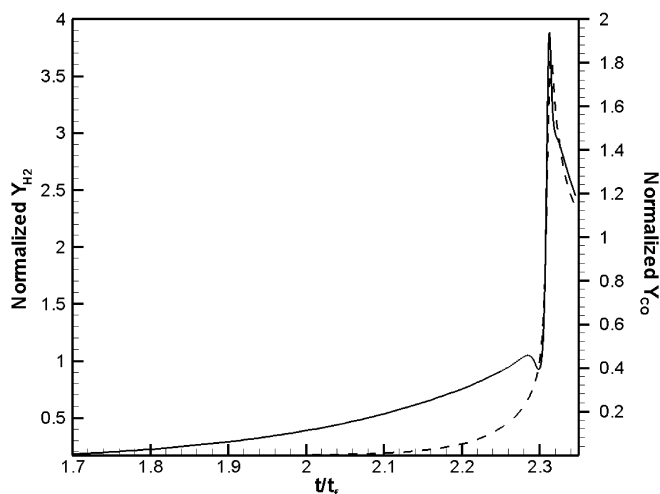


Fig. 4. Evolution of normalized  $H_2$  and CO species mass fractions at the symmetry line.  $H_2$ : (—); CO: (----).

gence of  $H_2$  ( $Le = 0.29$ ) and CO ( $Le = 1.07$ ) as the primary fuels during the later stages of the interactions. Because these two fuels have different mass diffusive properties, with respect to each others, and heat and the oxidizer, important differential diffusion effects are observed.

Fig. 4 shows the temporal evolution of the normalized species mass fractions of  $H_2$  and CO at the symmetry line. The values are normalized by the peak mass fractions corresponding to the steady-state flame. The figure shows that both species mass fractions increase significantly beyond the peak value of the steady-flame, indicating that this increase is not only due to the presence of chemistry, but also to important couplings of differential diffusion and chemistry effects at the centerline. The different trends of  $H_2$  and CO are also illustrated by the different degrees of 'leakages' of these two species into the preheat layers as shown by steady-state profiles. The basic consequence of the  $H_2$  higher mobility is the accumulation of  $H_2$  concentration at the symmetry line during intermediate stages of the reaction layers' interactions. The figure also shows excess CO and  $H_2$  remaining at the symmetry line towards the end of burnout stage; the excess is associated with the depletion of the oxidizer,  $O_2$ . Once radicals are depleted at the final stages of mutual annihilation, these unburnt reactants also constitute products of incomplete combustion.

Fig. 5 shows the temporal evolution of the spatial integrals of the reaction rates for each consumption and production layer evaluated individually for the OH radical; the behavior of this radical is consistent with that of H and O as well. The integrated reaction rates are normalized by their steady-state values prior to the onset of any interactions. The reaction zone structure for OH production and consumption is relatively complex, and is made up of two production layers and three consumption layers. The sequence of the reaction layers with respect to their proximity to the reactants is as follows: consumption layer I,

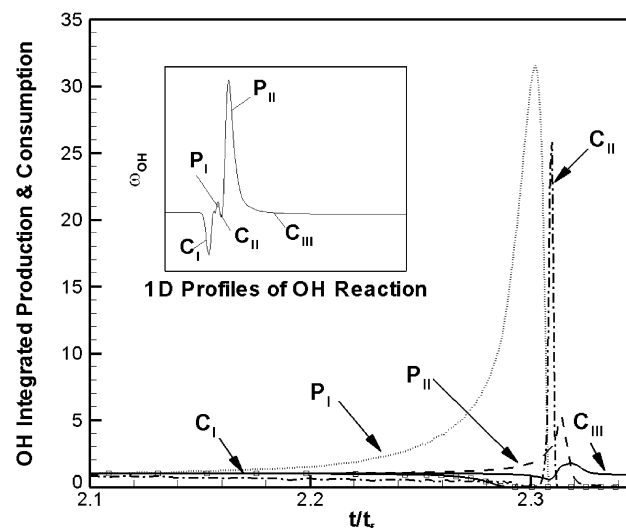


Fig. 5. Evolution of the normalized integrated production and consumption rates for species OH. Consumption layer I: (---); Production layer I: (.....); Consumption layer II: (-.-.-); Production layer II: (----); Consumption layer III: (—).

production layer I, consumption layer II, production layer II, and finally consumption layer III. The merger of the first production and consumption layers result in steady decays of their corresponding integrated values relative to the steady-state values. Although, more details can be discussed in the figure, we point out two main observations. During the merger of the inner layer, which is completed at approximately  $t/t_f = 2.3$  (as shown in Fig. 2), consumption layer I continues to decrease, while production layer I steadily increases. This decrease in OH consumption is associated with the depletion of available fuel,  $C_3H_8$ , during the merger of the inner layer; while, the production is associated with the same mechanism, which leaves more radicals unconsumed by the fuel, and an enhancement of the chain-branching process. After the merger of the inner layer, the maximum value of the integrated reaction in production layer I increases to values above thirty times the steady value. This represents a continuation of the above-described process; however, this time, this process is accelerated by the availability of excess  $H_2$  in the reaction zone (as seen in Fig. 4). OH production and consumption layers towards the products' side (consumption and production II, and consumption III) experience similar trends behind the peak in production layer I. Although not shown here, rates of production and consumption of  $H_2$  and CO are significantly increased at this time due to the increased radical pool. These dramatic increases contribute to the accelerated rates of merger of the reaction zones during the mutual annihilation process of propane-air flames.

#### 4. Conclusions

The main findings of the present study may be summarized as follows:

- The process of mutual annihilation resulting from upstream interaction in propane–air flames occurs over relatively short time scales compared to characteristic flame times.
- The process is further accelerated by preferential and differential diffusion. During the merger of preheat layers, the preferential diffusion of heat results in the preheat of the reactants, while the differential diffusion of the reactants results in shifts in the equivalence ratios in the reaction zone. During the merger of the reaction layers, the differential diffusion of the secondary fuel, H<sub>2</sub>, into the symmetry plane results in the build-up of radicals, and subsequent acceleration of the consumption and production rates of secondary fuels and products.
- Differential diffusion also results in the incomplete burning of the secondary fuels, H<sub>2</sub> and CO.

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