

Influence of fuel fraction gradient on triple flame velocity in plain and axis-symmetrical channels

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Abstract

Dynamics of laminar triple flame investigated numerically for the different mixture degrees. One-step methane–air chemistry adequate to reach and lean mixture combustion was accepted. Velocity of triple flame is determined as a function of methane concentration logarithm gradients $\mu = d(\ln Y_1)/dx$ (characterizing mixing degree). It is found that maximum velocity of the triple flames correspond to the value of the methane concentration logarithm gradients $\mu \approx 1000 \text{ m}^{-1}$ for plain and $\mu \approx 2000 \text{ m}^{-1}$ for axis-symmetrical channels. The maximum velocity of triple flame in plain and axis-symmetrical channels in the case of non-gradient incoming gas flow is about twice bigger than normal laminar flame velocity $S_f \approx 2.1S_1$.

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1. Introduction

Combustion of partially premixed or non-premixed fuels is widely spread in burners, engines, turbines and other technological devices. The leading edge of the non-premixed flames has two-dimensional structure where three branches of heat release can be distinguished, two of them spread to reach and lean areas and third – along the stoichiometric line. Existence of triple structure of heat release was first pointed out in the Philips work [1] where flame propagation along the interface between a layer of methane and air has been investigated experimentally. In later investigations it was called tribrachial. Estimation of the tribrachial flame (TF) propagation velocity as function of different parameters of the system is principal and practically important problem. The intrinsic TF velocity defines parameters of flame liftoff and blowout in the torch burners, burning velocity of partially premixed fuel in the com-

bustion chambers. It is also necessary for combustion safety analysis.

Various factors affect the TF speed, including flame stretch, preferential diffusion, heat losses [2] etc., nevertheless the dominant factor is fuel concentration gradient or the mixture fraction gradient in front of flame edge [3]. The mixture fraction gradient determines the thickness of flammable region and thereby the hydrodynamics of ambient flow. Principally, the TF velocity increases relatively to normal stoichiometric flame speed S_1 due to flow lines redirection before the flame and decreases due to flame front stretch and energy loss [4,5]. These two trends determine the nonmonotonous character of velocity dependence on mixture fraction gradient.

Dold [6] and Hartley and Dold [7] studied the effect of mixture fraction gradients in the region of the triple point by assuming activation energy asymptotics, small concentration gradient in upstream direction (the last omitted in [7]) and by neglecting the gas thermal expansion. For a moderately curved flame the velocity is determined as solution of an integral equation.

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Nomenclature

D	diffusion coefficient	Y_i	mass concentration of i th component
d	width of the channel and simulation domain	y	longitude coordinate
d_{sat}	characteristic width of channel when influence of the walls is negligible	y_{max}	coordinate of first local maximum of χ
E	activation energy	Δy	space interval for S_0 evaluation
H	gas enthalpy	z	reaction rate preexponent factor
h_i	specific enthalpy of i th gaseous component	<i>Greek symbols</i>	
L	length of the channel and simulation domain	β	Zel'dovich number, $\beta = E(T_{\text{ad}} - T_0)/T_{\text{ad}}^2$
l_f	flame front width	χ	dimensionless mixing degree
M	mean molecular mass	χ_{max}	local maximum of χ
M_i	molecular mass of i th gaseous component	φ	fuel–air equivalence ratio
N_r	normalization parameter for reaction rate	λ	coefficient of heat conductivity
\mathbf{n}	normal vector	μ	relative fuel concentration gradient
p_0	gas pressure	ν	coefficient of dynamic viscosity
p_n	normalization parameter for reaction rate	ρ	gas density
r	radial coordinate	σ'	viscous tensions tensor
r_m	radial coordinate of concentration boundary	<i>Superscript</i>	
S_0	flame velocity in the laboratory system of coordinates	n	time layer number
S_f	flame speed	<i>Subscripts</i>	
S_1	normal laminar stoichiometric flame speed	0	input or entrance to system
S_{loc}	local flame speed	1	fuel
R	universal gas constant	2	oxidizer
\mathbf{R}	reference point.	ad	adiabatic
T	temperature	b	burned
t	time	f	flame or front of the flame
u	gas velocity	R	value at reference point
X_i	molar concentration of i th component	st	stoichiometry
x	transverse coordinate	u	unburned
x_m	coordinate of concentration boundary		
Δx	spatial mesh step		

Ruetsch et al. [8] studied the effect of heat release on flame speed. They showed that heat release play decisive role in TF propagation. Due to flow redirection the axial velocity along the stoichiometric line reaches a minimum in front of the flame edge. This minimum velocity was found to be close to the stoichiometric laminar burning velocity. Expression $\frac{S_f}{S_1} \propto \sqrt{\frac{\rho_u}{\rho_{b,st}}}$ for the TF asymptotic propagation speed S_f can be derived based on conservation relations [8]. According to the formula S_f can be considerably larger than normal laminar velocity (for $\rho_u/\rho_b = 7$, $S_f/S_1 \approx 2.6$). This velocity increase was observed experimentally by Lee and Chung [9].

Direct numerical simulation with detailed chemical reactions mechanisms [10–12] demonstrated that S_f growth is mainly due to the flow redirection effect and the contributions of the differential diffusion and strain were quite small. In the DNS investigations of methanol–air [10] and hydrogen–air [11] non-premixed flames it was also demonstrated that Luis number effect on the flame velocity is negligibly small.

The up to date state of the TF dynamic investigations are presented in Chung's overview [3]. Thus considerable

progress in TF physical understanding description was achieved in the recent years. Nevertheless a set of problems are left for further investigation among which is the quantitative characteristics of flow divergence, although the distance of the flow redirection and other parameters of the flow field are utilized for qualitative analysis [5,13]. Direct numerical simulation of practical combustion devices is too complicated task for modern computers. However sufficiently detailed numerical simulation can shed light on most theoretical and practical aspects of TF.

In this work methane–air triple flame velocity is determined numerically as a function of mixture fraction gradient or premixing degree. The results illustrate gas dynamics of triple flames and may be utilized for study of flames lift-off and blowout.

2. Problem statement

Consider diffusion flame propagating in constant velocity flow of partially premixed methane and air, Fig. 1. Methane and air flow rates are in stoichiometric propor-

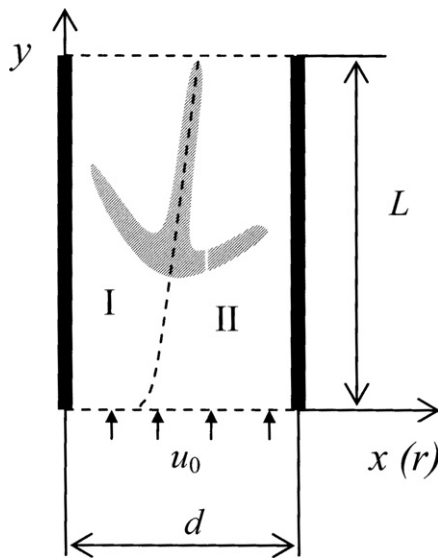


Fig. 1. Scheme of simulated system (plain and axis-symmetrical). Dashed line – stoichiometric line, grey – TF heat release zone. I – fuel rich area, II – fuel lean area.

tion. Flame propagation velocity relative to incoming gas (effective velocity) will be the function of mixing degree and geometry of the system. Evidently in the limiting case of premixed combustible and non-perturbed flow flame velocity is equal to normal laminar flame velocity S_1 . Simulated systems are plain channel with width d and length L and axis-symmetrical system of diameter d . Adiabatic walls condition was used for simulations. Gas velocity at the entrance cross-section ($y = 0$) is constant. Hydrodynamic slip condition at the walls was applied.

Thus the described model system is characterized by variable geometry parameters of the combustion chamber and mixture fraction gradient in vicinity of the flame edge. Other parameters – reaction rate constants, diffusivity, conductivity etc. are fixed.

For unique and physically adequate definition of the concentration field at the entrance cross-section the following method was used. One-dimensional diffusion problem was solved with initial conditions:

$$\begin{cases} Y_1 = 1; & Y_2 = 0, & 0 \leq x < x_m, \\ Y_1 = 0; & Y_2 = 1, & x_m \leq x \leq d. \end{cases}$$

Here coordinates of boundary x_m (r_m for axis-symmetrical channel) are defined by width (or radius) of the system and stoichiometric ratio φ_{st} .

$$\frac{x_m}{d - x_m} = \varphi_{st} \text{ - for plain symmetry channel,}$$

$$\frac{4r_m^2}{d^2 - 4r_m^2} = \varphi_{st} \text{ - for axis-symmetrical channel.}$$

Both 1-D mixing and following 2-D combustion problem were solved by the same 2DBurner software.

Two parameters were used to characterize mixing degree: dimensionless premixing degree χ and gradient of

concentration logarithm μ [4]. The first is defined as follows:

$$\chi = \frac{\frac{1}{d} \int_0^d \rho \sqrt{Y_1(x)Y_2(x)} dx}{\sqrt{(\rho Y_1)_{\max}(\rho Y_2)_{\max}}},$$

where $Y_1(x)$, $Y_2(x)$ – local mass fractions of fuel and oxidizer. The second is:

$$\mu = \frac{1}{Y_1} \frac{dY_1}{dx},$$

where Y_1 – fuel mass concentration. For the channel with $d = 3.2$ mm width relationship between parameters χ and μ is presented on the Fig. 2.

Distribution of the main components fractions corresponding to $\chi = 0.1$ and channel width $d = 3.2$ mm is presented on the Fig. 3.

To determine effective combustion velocity and other parameters of TF we looked for stationary solution for TF. As far as in general case flame is unsteady we accepted the following procedure of obtaining the stable steady-state solution. The coordinate of the flame stabilization y_f was fixed (in most calculations $y_f = 1.6$ mm). At each time step y coordinate of front was determined. Then gas velocity at the entrance u_0^n was changed to u_0^{n+1} to satisfy stabilization

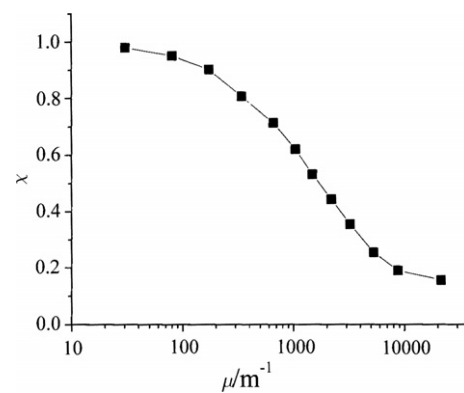


Fig. 2. Correlation between mixing characteristics χ and μ ($d = 3.2$ mm).

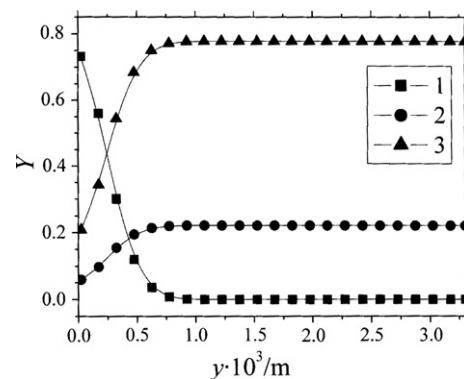


Fig. 3. Distribution of the main components at $y = 0$ cross-section, $\chi_0 = 0.1$ ($d = 3.2$ mm).

of the front at fixed y_f position according to the following formulas:

$$S_0 = \frac{1}{\rho_{y_f-\Delta y} - \rho_{y_f+\Delta y}} \int_{y_f-\Delta y}^{y_f+\Delta y} \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} dy,$$

$$u_0^{n+1} = \begin{cases} 0, & u_0^n - S_0 < 0, \\ u_0^n - S_0, & u_0^n - S_0 \geq 0. \end{cases}$$

Combustion front position was defined by maximum heat release.

3. Governing equations

Mathematical model included non-steady equations of continuity, Navier-Stokes, mass conservation for gas components and energy conservation:

$$\frac{d\rho}{dt} = -\rho \nabla \mathbf{u}, \tag{1}$$

$$\rho \frac{d\mathbf{u}}{dt} = -\nabla p + \nabla \sigma', \tag{2}$$

$$\rho \frac{dY_i}{dt} = \dot{\rho}_i + \nabla \cdot (\rho D \nabla Y_i), \quad i = \overline{1, N}, \tag{3}$$

here $\dot{\rho}_i$ – i th component mass generating rate due to chemical reaction (5), $\sum_i \dot{\rho}_i = 0$; D – diffusion coefficient, σ' – viscous tensions tensor with components: $(\sigma')_{ik} = \nu \left(\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial x_k} + \frac{\partial u_k}{\partial x_i} - \frac{2}{3} \delta_{ik} \frac{\partial u_l}{\partial x_l} \right)$. Energy conservation equation is written in form of enthalpy conservation with regard to diffusion and heat conductivity processes:

$$\rho \frac{dH}{dt} = \nabla \cdot \left(\rho \sum_i h_i D \nabla Y_i + \lambda \nabla T \right), \tag{4}$$

where h_i – mass enthalpy of i th gaseous component, λ – heat conductivity coefficient. Speed of sound is assumed to be infinitely high.

State of gas in arbitrary point is defined by pressure p_0 , temperature T , gas velocity \mathbf{u} , gas components mass fractions Y_i together with gas state equations $\rho = \frac{p_0 M}{RT}$ and $H(T, Y_1, \dots, Y_N) = \sum_i Y_i h_i(T)$, where $h_i(T)$ is expressed via polynomials according to CHEMKIN thermodynamics database [14] $\frac{M_i h_i}{RT} = \sum_{j=1}^5 \frac{a_{ij}}{j} T^{j-1} + \frac{a_{6i}}{T}$. Mean molar mass of the gas M is expressed via component concentrations and mass $\frac{1}{M} = \sum_i \frac{Y_i}{M_i}$.

As far as velocity field is determined by pressure field (according to simulation method) boundary conditions applied to the pressure field as follows. Impermeability and slip condition at the tube's walls:

$$\begin{cases} (\mathbf{n} \cdot \nabla) p = 0, \\ \partial v_z / \partial r |_{\text{wall}} = 0, \\ v_r |_{x=0} = 0, \end{cases}$$

constant pressure condition at the open end cross-section:

$$p = p_0 \text{ at } (y = L).$$

Impermeability of walls to gas components

$$(\mathbf{n} \cdot \nabla) Y_i = 0,$$

adiabatic boundaries conditions

$$\lambda \frac{\partial T}{\partial T} \Big|_{\text{wall}} = 0.$$

Reasonably simplified models of diffusion, heat conductivity and viscosity were used. The following approximations with characteristics accuracy 5% in all temperature range were utilized: $\lambda = 1.4 \times 10^{-2} + 4.8 \times 10^{-5} T$, $\frac{W}{m \cdot K}$; $\nu = 4.4 \times 10^{-7} T^{0.65}$, $\frac{kg}{m \cdot s}$; $D = 1.13 \times 10^{-4} \frac{T^{1.7}}{p_0}$, $\frac{m^2}{s}$.

One-step chemical kinetics was used to simulate methane combustion:



The reaction rate was fitted to satisfy experimental data on normal flame velocity for lean, stoichiometric and rich mixtures and had the following form:

$$\frac{dX_1}{dt} = - \frac{X_1 X_2^{p_n}}{(X_1 + X_2)^{N_T}} z \exp(-E/T), \tag{6}$$

where X_1, X_2 – molar fractions of methane and oxygen correspondingly, p_n and N_T – fixed parameters, z – preexponent factor, $E = 15,640$ K – activation energy. Normal flame velocity as a function of the equivalence ratio ϕ calculated by the model (5), (6) for $p_n = 2$, $N_T = 2$, $z = 7.74 \times 10^8 \text{ s}^{-1}$ together with experimental data [15–19] is presented on the Fig. 4. One can see that the kinetics model describes satisfactorily minor shift of the $S_f(\phi)$ maximum to the reach mixture area and general shape of the $S_f(\phi)$ curve.

Adiabatic combustion temperature for stoichiometric methane–air mixture was $T_{ad} = 2256$ K, normal laminar flame velocity was $S_f = 0.406$ m/s for this chemical kinetics model. Flame front width l_f , calculated by formula $(\lambda/c\rho)/S_f$ at the temperature of the chemical heat release ignition was $l_f = 0.3$ mm. This value was used as characteristic length scale of the problem.

2DBurner software application package was used for simulation [20]. Analogue of the MAC method generalized for calculating of a compressible gas slow flow taking into consideration thermal conductivity, mass diffusion and viscosity force was used for prediction of the gas motion. A

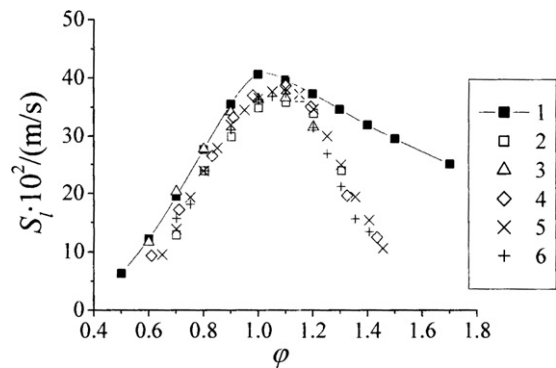


Fig. 4. Normal laminar flame velocity as a function of equivalence ratio. 1 – calculation by the model (5), (6); experimental data: 2 – Hassan et al. [15], 3 – Gu et al. [16], 4 – Vagelopoulos et al. [17], 5 – Van Maaren et al. [18] and 6 – Vagelopoulos and Egolfopoulos [19].

similar method for gas free convection is delineated in [21]. Implicit time integration method based on Newton iterations was used for solving kinetic equations system (1)–(3) simultaneously with energy Eq. (4).

Rectangular homogeneous mesh was used for the problem discretization with spatial step $\Delta x = 0.05$ mm. The spatial step was considered enough fine as far as double reduction of spatial step resulted in not more than 2% variation of normal laminar flame velocity in all range of equivalence ratios for accepted mechanism of chemical kinetics.

Combustion ignition is simulated by setting a heat release spot at the stoichiometric line at some fixed distance from the entrance cross-section. At the initial time instant gas has temperature $T_0 = 300$ K. Heat release is switched off after burning started.

4. Results and discussion

The stationary solution being obtained for the model combustion system let one determine effective TF velocity which is equal to velocity of incoming gas $S_f = -u_0$. Local gas velocity thus determines flame propagation speed relatively to given reference point. Typical stationary solution

for TF is presented in the Fig. 5. To determine local flame velocity $S_{loc} = -u_R$ in vicinity of flame leading edge, a corresponding reference point **R** should be uniquely defined. We determined reference point by using the fact that mixing parameters χ and μ are monotonous functions of the y coordinate in the case of non-reacting flow. They have extremum in vicinity of the combustion front (coordinate y_{max}) Fig. 6. Physically the extremum corresponds to coordinate where concentration field perturbation caused by combustion takes place. Crossing of the stoichiometric line and y_{max} coordinate line gives one possible reference point **R** for local front velocity determination, Fig. 5. The value of mixing degree parameter in the extremum point χ_{max} and fuel gradient parameter in the **R** point μ_{max} were used as characteristic values to determine dependences $S_{loc}(\chi)$, $S_{loc}(\mu)$ and $S_f(\chi)$, $S_f(\mu)$ which are of primary interest in this investigation.

A set of runs with different initial mixing degree χ_0 was performed. TF velocity dependence on mixing degree in vicinity of the front was determined, Fig. 7. Flame velocity was normalized by normal laminar flame velocity S_l . The graphs demonstrate that TF propagation speed may considerably exceed normal laminar flame velocity. The function $S_f/S_l = f(\chi)$ has rounded convex

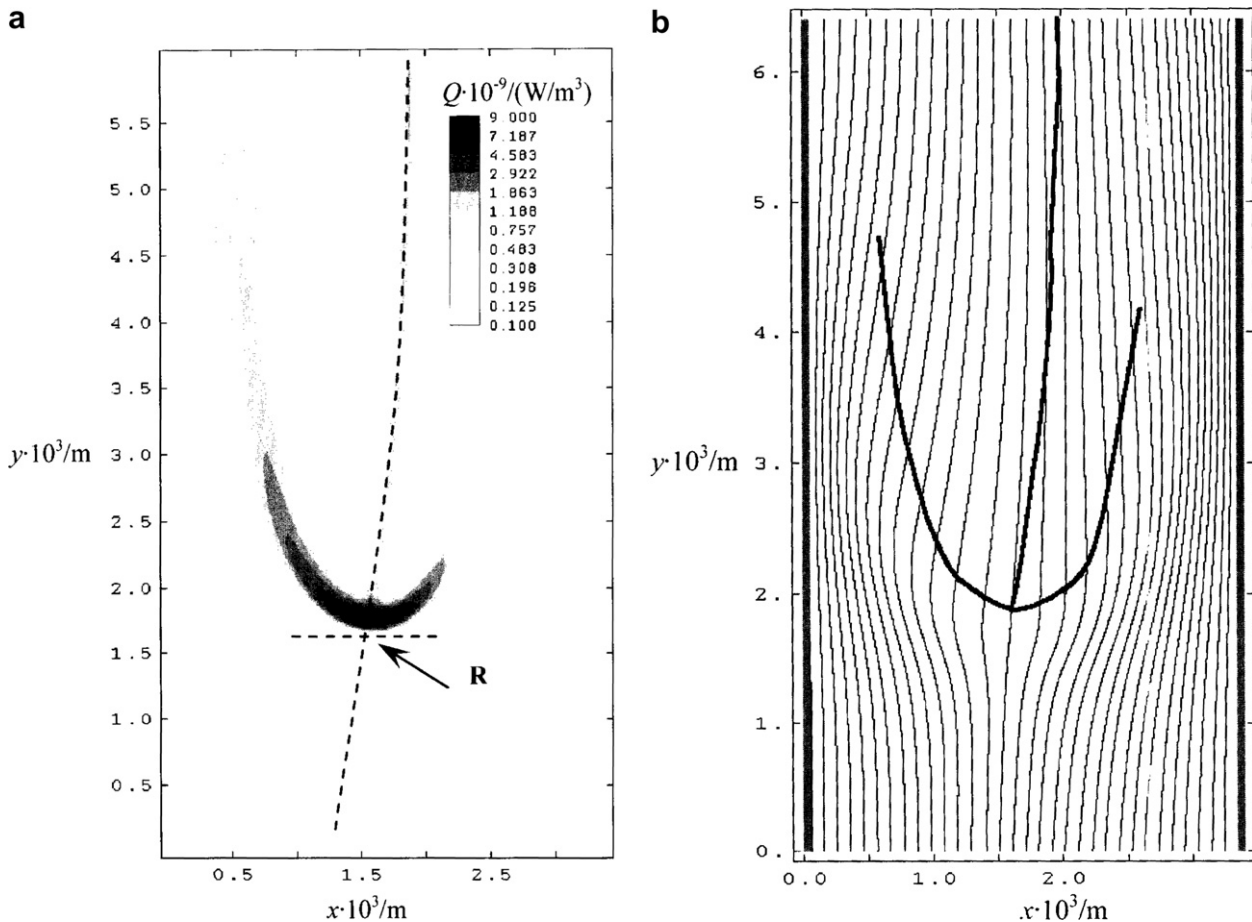


Fig. 5. Heat release field – (a) and flow lines – (b) in stationary triple flame. Mixing at the entrance cross-section $\chi_0 = 0.5$, $d = 3.2$ mm, $L = 6.4$ mm. Dot line – stoichiometric line, dashed line – y_{max} coordinate. **R** – reference point for local flame velocity evaluation.

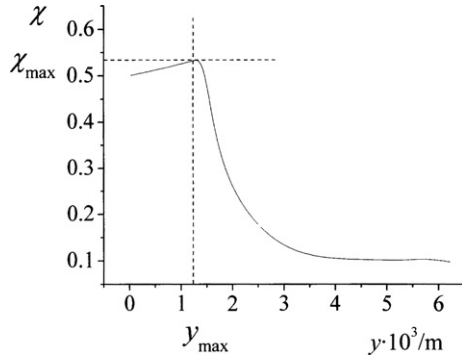


Fig. 6. Mixing degree χ dependence on length along the channel $z(y)$. Initial mixing $\chi_0 = 0.5$, $d = 3.2$ mm, $L = 6.4$ mm.

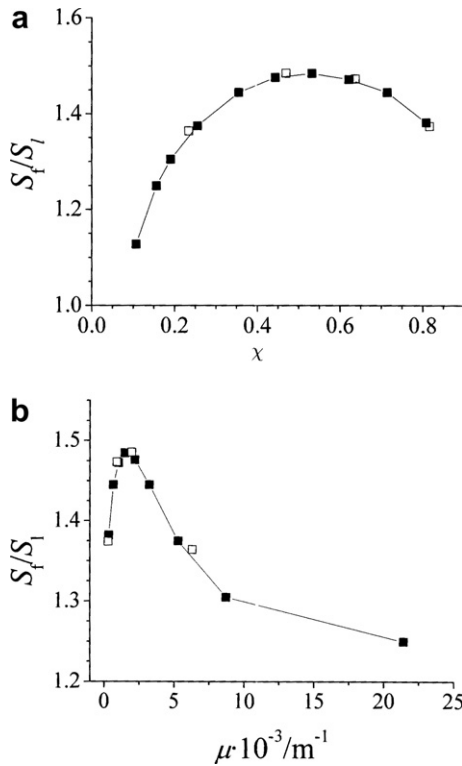


Fig. 7. Dimensionless flame velocity dependence on dimensionless mixing parameters χ – (a), gradient of concentration logarithm μ – (b), $d = 3.2$ mm. ■ – correspond to $L = 6.4$ mm, $y_f = 1.6$ mm; □ – $L = 9.6$ mm, $y_f = 3.2$ mm.

shape with maximum near $\chi = 0.5$ for channel width $d = 3.2$ mm.

The distance of flame stabilization y_f and simulation domain length L may influence TF parameters as far as hydrodynamic field generated by flame (Fig. 5b) may interact with walls and entrance cross-section velocity field. To estimate influence of the distance of flame stabilization on flame velocity a set of numerical experiments was run with increased length of the simulation domain L and flame stabilization length y_f . The data calculated with $L = 9.6$ mm and $y_f = 3.2$ mm parameters are presented on the Fig. 7 with empty boxes and practically coincide with data calcu-

lated with $L = 6.4$ mm and $y_f = 1.6$ mm. This confirms that stabilization distance $y_f = 1.6$ mm is enough for adequate simulation of flow field for the given parameters of the system.

The width of the channel is another parameter which can considerably influence TF velocity. Calculations of the flame velocity performed, for several channel widths ($d = 3.3, 6.6, 9.9$ mm), show that channel width growth leads to monotonous growth of the flame velocity. For fixed μ ($\mu = 1000$ m⁻¹) flame velocity grows monotonously with the tendency to saturation, Fig. 8.

The data presented on Fig. 8 may be approximated by exponential function:

$$S_f/S_1 = 2.17 \left[1 - \exp\left(-\frac{d/l_f}{14.8}\right) \right], \quad (7)$$

with accuracy better than 1% (mean squares minimization was used). This gives quantitative estimation of TF maximum velocity: $S_f \approx 2.2S_1$ for $d \gg l_f$.

Characteristic width of the channel d_{sat} when influence of the walls is negligible and TF velocity is close to maximum depends on mixing degree. Exponential approximation (7) may be utilized for quantitative estimation of this parameter by definition $(d_{sat}/l_f)/14.8 = 3$ or other similar definition. Basing on numerical simulation the following relationship for d_{sat} can be recommended: $d_{sat} \approx 100l_f\chi$.

The same simulations were performed for axis-symmetric system for different radii of the channel. Fuel was fed in the center and air in the peripheral part of cross-section, Fig. 1.

Flame velocity dependence on the radius of the channel remains the same for axis-symmetrical system, Fig. 9. Tendency to saturation is observed. The following exponential approximations for the data presented in the Fig. 9, were obtained by mean square root method:

$$S_f/S_1 = 2.13 \{ 1 - \exp[-(r/l_f)/18.3] \}. \quad (8)$$

The local propagation velocity of TF was evaluated for the reference point **R** in vicinity of the flame leading edge, Fig. 10. Calculations show that dimensionless local flame

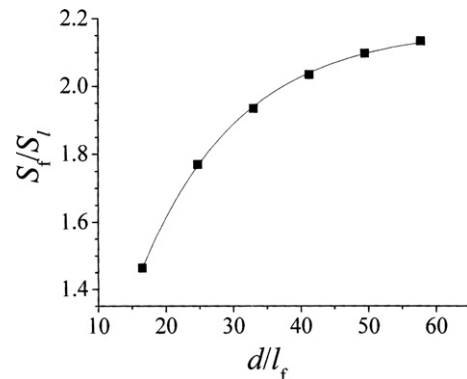


Fig. 8. Dimensionless flame velocity at different channel width ($\mu = 1000$ m⁻¹). Solid line – approximation (7).

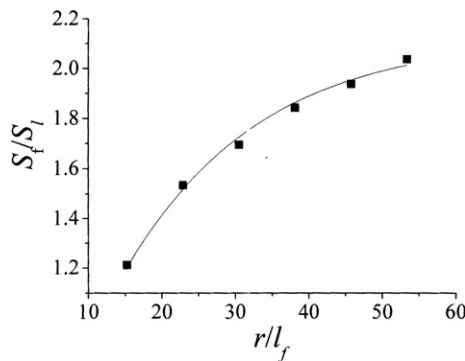


Fig. 9. Dimensionless flame velocity dependence on dimensionless radius of the system ($\mu = 1000 \text{ m}^{-1}$). Solid line – approximation (8).

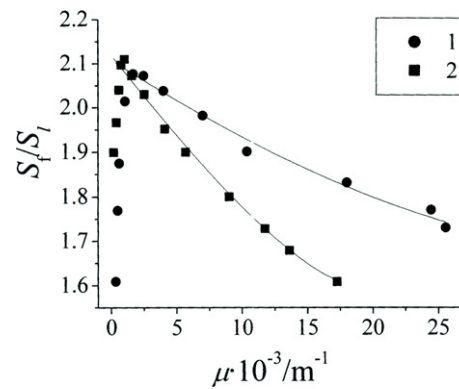


Fig. 11. Dimensionless flame velocity dependence on μ . 1 – plain channel, $d = 3.2 \text{ mm}$, 2 – axis-symmetrical channel, $r = 3.2 \text{ mm}$.

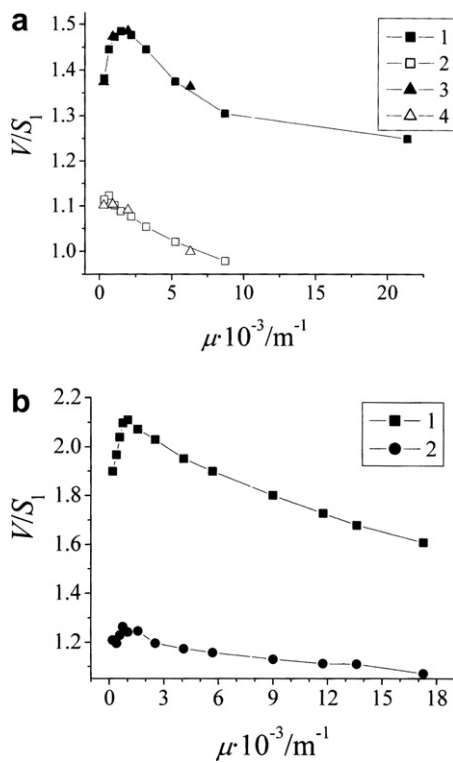


Fig. 10. Flame velocity and local gas velocity before front as a function of mixing parameter μ . (a) 1 – S_f $L = 6.4 \text{ mm}$, $y_f = 1.6 \text{ mm}$; 2 – S_f $L = 9.6 \text{ mm}$, $y_f = 3.2 \text{ mm}$; 3 – S_{loc} $L = 6.4 \text{ mm}$, $y_f = 1.6 \text{ mm}$; 4 – S_{loc} $L = 9.6 \text{ mm}$, $y_f = 3.2 \text{ mm}$; (b) 1 – S_f $L = 6.4 \text{ mm}$, $y_f = 1.6 \text{ mm}$; 2 – S_{loc} $L = 6.4 \text{ mm}$, $y_f = 1.6 \text{ mm}$.

velocity S_{loc}/S_1 , is close to unity and considerably lower than flame velocity S_f/S_1 . Similarity of the shape of the curves $S_f(\mu)$ and $S_{loc}(\mu)$ supposes that streamlines divergence may also affect local velocity S_{loc} although to less extent than S_f , Fig. 10. Relatively small local velocity confirms idea that effective flame velocity doesn't determined by high local speed of the flame edge, but by the hydrodynamic reorganization of the flow field at relatively high distances around flame front.

Series of calculations were performed for maximal channel width and for different concentration gradients. Depen-

dence of the flame velocity on the fuel logarithm gradient for the plain ($d = 9.6 \text{ mm}$) and axis-symmetrical ($r = 9.6 \text{ mm}$) channels is presented on the Fig. 11. They have been approximated according following formulas:

$$\frac{S_f}{S_1} = 0.427 \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{3.77 \cdot 10^5} \right)^{1.7} + 1.68,$$

for plain channel,

$$\frac{S_f}{S_1} = 0.506 \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{1.73 \cdot 10^4} \right)^{1.3} + 1.61,$$

for axis-symmetrical channel.

Asymptotic flame front velocities for $\mu = 0$ are close to but less then $\sqrt{\frac{\rho_u}{\rho_{b,st}}}$. For plain channel $\frac{S_f}{S_1} = 2.11$ for axis-symmetrical channel $\frac{S_f}{S_1} = 2.12$ and $\sqrt{\frac{\rho_u}{\rho_{b,st}}} = 2.74$.

5. Conclusions

Velocity of triple flames propagation in plain and axis-symmetrical channel is evaluated numerically. It is shown that velocity of triple flame depends on fuel-oxidizer mixing degree, channel width and symmetry and considerably exceeds normal laminar flame velocity. Flame velocity dependence on concentration logarithm gradients and mixing degree exhibit non-monotonous behavior with maximum. The maximum velocity of the triple flames in plain and axis-symmetrical systems are close and $S_f \approx 2.1S_1$. The values of the methane concentration logarithm gradients corresponding to the maximum velocity are: $\mu \approx 1000 \text{ m}^{-1}$ for plain and $\mu \approx 2000 \text{ m}^{-1}$ for axis-symmetrical system.

The main mechanism of flame propagation with velocity higher then laminar flame one is gas flow field redirection in front of flame base. At the same time local velocity of the flame front header is relatively close to the normal laminar flame velocity S_1 .

Flame velocity increases with the width (or radius) of the channel and comes to saturation at the width estimated as $d_{sat} \sim 100l_f\chi$.

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