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Paul R. Medwell, Qing N. Chan, Bassam B. Dally, Saleh Mahmoud, Zeyad T. Alwahabi, Graham J. Nathan

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# Temperature measurements in turbulent non-premixed flames by two-line atomic fluorescence

Paul R. Medwell<sup>a,b</sup>, Qing N. Chan<sup>a,b</sup>, Bassam B. Dally<sup>a,b</sup>, Saleh Mahmoud<sup>a,b</sup>, Zeyad T. Alwahabi<sup>a,c</sup>, Graham J. Nathan<sup>a,b</sup>

<sup>a</sup>*Centre for Energy Technology,*

<sup>b</sup>*School of Mechanical Engineering, and*

<sup>c</sup>*School of Chemical Engineering, The University of Adelaide, S.A. 5005, AUSTRALIA*

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## Abstract

The temperature measured by non-linear excitation regime two-line atomic fluorescence, NTLAF, is compared with previous data in a well characterised turbulent non-premixed flame, known as the TNF DLR-A flame. The comparison of the previous detailed single-point measurements with the NTLAF measurements is used to assess the accuracy, and limitations, of the NTLAF technique. The NTLAF measurements were obtained using two different seeding methods, both separately and together, namely by seeding the indium as a solution of indium chloride conveyed as a fine mist with the fuel and by directly seeding neutral indium atoms into the fuel stream by laser ablation of an indium rod. Both instantaneous images and radial profiles of the mean and RMS data are reported for the different techniques. The calculated inter-pixel uncertainty of the measurements is estimated to be  $\sim 50$  K in the mean, and 8% uncertainty on an instantaneous basis. The comparison is performed on a conditional basis, given that the NTLAF measurements are limited to a lower temperature threshold and to the stoichiometric and rich regions of the flame. On this basis, the NTLAF method is found to generally agree with the TNF DLR-A data to within approximately 100 K.

*Keywords:* Temperature, Two-line atomic fluorescence (TLAF), Turbulent non-premixed flames

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## 1. Introduction

Laser-based measurement techniques are established as the leading experimental research tool in turbulent reacting flows because of their unrivalled capacity to provide high temporal and spatial resolution, while also being able to target particular species [1]. Notwithstanding filtered Rayleigh scattering and NO LIF imaging (which both have limitations [2]) and the many other advances in laser diagnostic techniques, a planar technique providing well spatially resolved measurement of temperature is yet to be demonstrated in the reaction zone of turbulent sooty flames, which are encountered in many practical flames [3]. For example, Raman-Rayleigh scattering [4] is unable to provide measurements in the presence of the scattered interference from soot and its precursors, while Coherent Anti-stokes Raman Spectroscopy (CARS) [5] is limited to single point measurements [3]. Planar measurements are needed to resolve gradients in two dimensions, which control mixing rates in turbulent environments, and also to provide spatially correlated information about flow structure. A planar technique is also desirable to capitalise on other established planar techniques such as particle image velocimetry (PIV) for velocity, laser-induced incandescence (LII) for soot volume fraction and planar laser-induced fluorescence (PLIF) for OH and other species [3]. To this end, two-line atomic fluorescence (TLAF) has recently emerged as the technique with potential to provide planar measurement of temperature in turbulent flames containing soot [3]. To achieve high signal-to-noise ratio, the TLAF technique has been extended to operate beyond the linear excitation regime, which has been termed non-linear excitation regime TLAF (NTLAF) [2]. However, this is yet to be demonstrated in a turbulent environment. The overall aim of the present paper is therefore to demonstrate such a measurement.

The TLAF technique involves seeding into the flame a metal tracer, of which indium is the preferred species for thermometry [6] owing to its good sensitivity over the temperature range 800 to 2800 K [7, 8, 9]. The indium tracer is then excited from its neutral atomic state at two wavelengths, 410 nm and 450 nm, where interferences are less pronounced than in the UV range, and collected at 450 nm and 410 nm, respectively. This allows the signal to be separated from scattered interference, making it suitable for measurements in sooting flames [10]. It is also insensitive to collisional quenching [11]. For the seeding density selected in this study, attenuation was not observed. Furthermore, although beam steering is wavelength dependent, both

38 Stokes and anti-Stokes excitations are similar in wavelength. Thus any in-  
39 fluences of attenuation and beam steering affect both images approximately  
40 equally, and have negligible effect on measurement accuracy. Early devel-  
41 opments of the method were limited to low fluences, where the relationship  
42 between the excitation beam and the signal is linear. With some notable  
43 exceptions (*e.g.* [7]) linear-regime TLAF has been predominately limited to  
44 laminar flames. Extension to higher fluxes, where the relationship between  
45 the excitation beam and signal is non-linear, was developed by Medwell *et*  
46 *al.* [2] to allow single-shot measurements with and without the presence of  
47 soot. This has been termed non-linear excitation regime TLAF, or NTLAF,  
48 and has been demonstrated in both premixed and non-premixed flames [12].  
49 Although operation in the non-linear excitation regime is susceptible to the  
50 effects of differing composition, the small amount of uncertainty associated  
51 with the determination of the constants is far outweighed by the ability to  
52 collect large dimension single-shot images with superior signal [2, 12]. More  
53 recently Chan *et al.* [13] demonstrated the simultaneous imaging of temper-  
54 ature with NTLAF and soot volume fraction by LII, with a reported mea-  
55 surement accuracy of  $\sim 60$  K. Nevertheless, all of these measurements have  
56 been performed in laminar (or wrinkled laminar) flames, where the seeding  
57 process is much simpler than in a turbulent flame. Since the concentration  
58 of any seeded species will decrease with distance from the nozzle, this will  
59 lead to a commensurate reduction in signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) with both  
60 axial distance from the nozzle and radial distance from the centre line. Hence  
61 the range of conditions over which useful measurements can be obtained in  
62 a turbulent flame is as yet unknown, as is the resolution of the measurement  
63 that can be achieved in practice. Finally, the indium marker is reactive,  
64 which not only limits its range of operation to fuel-rich conditions, but also  
65 raises questions as to the extent to which it will survive as a useful tracer in a  
66 turbulent environment. Hence, it is necessary to directly assess the range of  
67 conditions over which useful measurements can be obtained and the accuracy  
68 and uncertainty of the data.

69 A further issue has also arisen with the recent demonstration of laser  
70 ablation as a novel method to directly seed indium atoms at ambient tem-  
71 perature into a flow or flame [14]. This contrasts the seeding method reported  
72 previously, in which the indium was seeded into the flame as indium chlo-  
73 ride dissolved in a solvent, and dispersed into the flame as small droplets.  
74 The requirement for a solvent using this approach will influence the flame  
75 temperature, either through heat of vapourisation or heat of combustion. A

76 comparison of solvents in the context of TLAF has been presented previously  
77 by Chan *et al.* [15], where it was shown that methanol provides the optimal  
78 signal (for the solvents considered). The ablation method therefore offers  
79 several potential advantages over the solvent-based seeding method. Not  
80 only does it avoid the need to evaporate the solvent, which may introduce  
81 local temperature gradients into the flame, but it also allows neutral indium  
82 to be detected at lower temperatures in the fuel-rich regions, which is not  
83 possible with nebuliser seeding that requires the reaction zone to initiate a  
84 conversion from the indium chloride salt [13]. In addition, the Stokes signal  
85 from the seeded indium has been shown to be a potential tracer for mixture  
86 fraction at ambient temperature [14, 16]. While further work is required  
87 to fully assess its accuracy as a scalar tracer at ambient conditions and to  
88 develop corrections for quenching at high temperature, even a qualitative  
89 marker will be useful. Nevertheless, the SNR of the ablation method is yet  
90 to be assessed in a turbulent environment. Hence, the recent development  
91 of the ablation seeding method for indium leads to the additional need to  
92 compare its effectiveness with that of the better established solvent-based  
93 method for the measurement of temperature in turbulent flames.

94 In light of the background described above, the aim of the present pa-  
95 per is to determine the range and accuracy over which NTLAF can provide  
96 measurements of temperature in a turbulent flame (i) by seeding with the  
97 established solvent-based method and/or by the new ablation method; and  
98 (ii) by direct comparison with established Raman-Rayleigh measurements in  
99 an identical flame. The chosen turbulent non-premixed flame for the com-  
100 parison purposes of this study is the DLR-A flame [17]. Detailed data is  
101 available for this flame through the International Workshop on Measurement  
102 and Computation of Turbulent Non-premixed Flames (TNF) [18]. The NT-  
103 LAF measurements are compared against the well-established TNF data to  
104 assess the accuracy and limitations of the NTLAF technique.

## 105 2. Experimental

### 106 2.1. Seeding System

107 Figure 1 shows a schematic diagram of the two types of seeding systems  
108 used to introduce indium into the flame. The fuel stream, which is also  
109 employed as the carrier gas for the indium, can be directed through either  
110 the nebuliser seeder or the ablation seeder. Alternatively, with both needle  
111 valves opened, the fuel flows simultaneously through both the nebuliser and

112 ablation seeders. The nebuliser method is operated with methanol as the  
113 solvent, because it has been demonstrated to yield the highest signal of the  
114 solvents considered [15]. The concentration of the methanol solution has been  
115 chosen to try and minimise any differences in adiabatic flame temperature  
116 (refer to §2.3).

117 The laser ablation method employs a pulsed and focused laser beam to  
118 remove metal from a surface by rapid heating, to release free atoms [19]. In  
119 addition, laser ablation also generates cations, anions, electrons, molecules,  
120 particles and particle clusters. In contrast to earlier work, which has gener-  
121 ally been performed in low-pressure environments [20] with reduced collision  
122 rates, the present seeder operates at nominally atmospheric pressure.

123 The indium ablation system consists of a 10 mm diameter indium rod  
124 that is placed within an ‘ablation chamber’. The rod is mounted on a motor-  
125 ized rotating shaft to provide a combined rotational and translational motion  
126 that exposes a “fresh” region of the rod to each ablating pulse. The rod was  
127 irradiated at 10 Hz by a focused, second harmonic output (532 nm) of a Q-  
128 switched Nd:YAG laser. The resulting ablation products were transported  
129 from the chamber by the fuel carrier gas, through a ballast volume with a mo-  
130 torized stirrer to damp the pulse-to-pulse variation in the generated indium,  
131 as a result of the pulsed ablation laser source. In addition, this arrangement  
132 generates velocities through the ballast volume that are sufficiently low to  
133 cause the larger particles to be removed by settling.

## 134 2.2. Optical Arrangement

135 The optical layout, shown schematically in Figure 2, consists of two dis-  
136 tinct systems. The ablation seeding system utilises the 532 nm output from  
137 an Nd:YAG laser, in conjunction with beam steering and shaping optics to  
138 irradiate the indium rod within the ablation chamber to generate indium.  
139 The remainder of the optical system is dedicated to the generation of the  
140 laser pulses for indium fluorescence excitation and detection, namely at 410  
141 and 450 nm.

142 The NTLAF process involves the Stokes ( $5^2P_{1/2} \rightarrow 6^2S_{1/2}$ ) and anti-  
143 Stokes ( $5^2P_{3/2} \rightarrow 6^2S_{1/2}$ ) excitation transitions, at 410nm and 450nm, re-  
144 spectively. Both the Stokes and anti-Stokes excitation beams are delivered  
145 at 3.5 mJ/pulse and combined into a co-planar sheet of 0.3 mm thickness  
146 and 12 mm height. The beams are directed through two glass slides and  
147 the diffuse scattering from the slides are directed through interference filters

148 onto a CCD camera to provide shot-to-shot corrections of spatial variations  
149 in the laser energy profile across the sheet height.

150 The fluorescence from the flame was detected through interference filters  
151 (10 nm bandwidth) by two intensified CCD (ICCD) cameras with f-number  
152 1.4 lenses. The resultant images from the two cameras were spatially matched  
153 using a four-point matching algorithm and then morphed using an in-house  
154 cross-correlation algorithm to ensure sub-pixel matching and overlapping of  
155 the images. Determination of the temperature with the NTLAF technique  
156 requires calibration using a laminar premixed flame. For the present study,  
157 calibration constants were derived experimentally with a natural gas / air  
158 flame, seeded with indium using the ablation seeder. It has previously been  
159 shown that the calibration constants are independent of the fuel type and  
160 flame composition, within the uncertainty of the measurement [2, 12]. Fur-  
161 ther details on the optical arrangement are similar to those presented previ-  
162 ously [2, 13]. No fluorescence was observed at any height when the seeders  
163 were switched off.

### 164 2.3. Burner Details

165 A simple jet burner is used to stabilise a previously reported turbulent  
166 jet non-premixed flame, DLR-A flame [17]. The burner consists of a 350 mm  
167 long straight stainless steel tube with an internal diameter of 8mm and a  
168 tapered end at the exit. The tube was placed at the centre of a co-flowing  
169 square jet of air with sides of 150mm, with an exit velocity of 0.5 m/s. The  
170 entire burner and co-flow system is translated axially through the fixed laser  
171 sheet to span the entire length of the flame.

172 The fuel composition for the flame was chosen to mimic the DLR-A mix-  
173 ture of 22.1% CH<sub>4</sub>, 33.2% H<sub>2</sub>, and 44.7% N<sub>2</sub> (by volume). In this study,  
174 natural gas was used instead of CH<sub>4</sub> so that small changes to the flowrates  
175 were required to compensate for the different composition. Specifically, the  
176 exit velocity of the present fuel jet was 42 m/s (*c.f.* 42.2 m/s), and the resul-  
177 tant Reynolds number was 15,750 (*c.f.* 15,200). Furthermore, when using the  
178 nebuliser seeding system, the addition of a small amount ( $\lesssim$  1% vol./vol.) of  
179 methanol into the fuel stream was also compensated by a small reduction in  
180 the flow rate of natural gas to maintain a fixed heat input. In both cases the  
181 visible flame length remained constant, while the jet momentum was within  
182 1% of that reported by Meier *et al.* [17]. In addition the present co-flow  
183 velocity was introduced at 0.8 m/s, set by the lower limit of the fan, through  
184 a 150 mm square section nozzle, while the co-flow for the TNF DLR-A flame

185 measurements was introduced at 0.3 m/s through a 300mm square section  
186 nozzle.

### 187 **3. Results and Discussion**

#### 188 *3.1. Instantaneous Images*

189 Figure 3 shows a series of typical raw (unprocessed) instantaneous indium  
190 fluorescence images at a range of heights above the jet exit plane ( $x/d$ ), for  
191 the three seeding approaches. The Stokes image is on the left-hand side of  
192 the centreline, and the corresponding anti-Stokes image, which was collected  
193 simultaneously, is mirrored on the right-hand side. The images at each  $x/d$   
194 are time independent, and are chosen to provide a direct comparison at each  
195 measurement height. Each image is 8 mm high and 32 mm wide. The colour-  
196 scale is constant for all images at each  $x/d$  and for all of the different seeding  
197 approaches.

198 Figure 3a presents the case where the indium is seeded in the form of  
199 indium chloride dissolved in methanol, with the use of the ultrasonic nebu-  
200 liser. The signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) of the Stokes and anti-Stokes images  
201 are  $\sim 15:1$  and  $\sim 5:1$ , respectively. The values for the SNR are approximately  
202 independent of  $x/d$  and are comparable with those reported previously in  
203 laminar flames [13]. This shows that, despite a  $\sim 15$ -fold increase in the vol-  
204 umetric flowrate through the nebuliser seeding chamber, the same nebuliser  
205 seeding arrangement provides effective seeding for the turbulent flames con-  
206 sidered in this study. Importantly, dilution of the seeded indium with the  
207 surrounding air at the downstream locations does not lead to a reduction in  
208 the absolute signal level. This observation suggests either that the indium  
209 atoms, once formed, tend to survive significant distances (and/or residence  
210 times), and in some cases, that neutral indium atoms may be generated  
211 within the flame, either by reduction of ions and/or from the vapourisation  
212 of solid particles.

213 Figure 3b shows the analogous series of typical raw (unprocessed) instan-  
214 tantaneous indium fluorescence images for the case where the indium has been  
215 introduced into the flame with the ablation seeder. The colour-scale in Fig-  
216 ure 3b is also constant at each  $x/d$ , and consistent with the images presented  
217 in Figure 3a. As with the nebuliser seeder, signal is observed at all measure-  
218 ment heights when using ablation seeding and, as with the nebuliser seeding,  
219 the values of the SNR are approximately independent of  $x/d$ . However, the  
220 SNR of the Stokes and anti-Stokes images is slightly lower at  $\sim 12:1$  and  $\sim 3:1$ ,



221 respectively, and the absolute signal intensity is also lower. Nonetheless, this  
222 reduction is attributed to the design of the respective seeders, rather than  
223 an inherent limitation of the ablation seeding technique. Furthermore, the  
224 ablation seeder has previously been demonstrated to have the advantage of  
225 signal in the unreacted regions of the flow [14] by generating stable indium  
226 atoms at ambient temperature and so avoiding the need to solvent evapora-  
227 tion. Worth noting, however, is that the intensity of the fluorescence in the  
228 unreacted region of the flow is lower than in the reaction zone, which is at-  
229 tributed to the generation of free indium atoms from other ablation products  
230 within the flame zone.

231 Figure 3c presents the corresponding series of typical raw (unprocessed)  
232 instantaneous indium fluorescence images for case with the indium intro-  
233 duced into the flame using both the nebuliser and ablation seeders simulta-  
234 neously. This approach offers the advantages of both techniques. The SNR  
235 of the combined seeding is comparable to the nebuliser-only seeding (*viz.*  
236  $\sim 15:1$  for Stokes and  $\sim 5:1$  for anti-Stokes) yet the total fluorescence inten-  
237 sity is increased. Most importantly, from Figure 3c it is determined that the  
238 two seeding approaches may be used concurrently without adversely affecting  
239 each other.

### 240 3.2. Temperature Profiles Deduced from Mean Images

241 The temperature has been calculated from the 500-shot ensemble aver-  
242 aged Stokes and anti-Stokes images. To avoid the influence on SNR of the  
243 low signal intensity values, a threshold was imposed to ensure that only pix-  
244 els with an intensity corresponding to a temperature of 800 K were included  
245 in the calculations. The uncertainty in the temperature measurements is  
246  $\sim 50$  K for each of the seeding techniques, and is primarily a result of laser  
247 energy correction uncertainty. It should be noted that calculating the tem-  
248 perature from the ensemble-averaged images can introduce a bias to the  
249 deduced temperature. The effect of this bias is highly dependent on the  
250 NTLAF calibration constants. For the measurements presented, the effect  
251 of this bias is within experimental uncertainty over the region of interest.  
252 The effect does, however, become more pronounced towards the boundaries  
253 of the measurement region, where other factors also reduce the measurement  
254 accuracy.

255 The mean NTLAF measurement radial profiles at  $x/d = 5, 10, 20$  and  
256  $40$  for each of the various seeding techniques are shown in Figure 4. In  
257 interpreting these results it is important to recall the conditional nature of the

258 method. Firstly, the NTLAF method has a minimum temperature threshold  
259 of 800 K, which results from the anti-Stokes ground-state Boltzmann fraction  
260 being  $\lesssim 3\%$  at this temperature. Furthermore, the surrounding air co-flow  
261 was not seeded because indium has been found not to survive far into the lean  
262 side of a reaction zone [15]. However, the indium is not completely consumed  
263 at the local stoichiometric contour, so that some indium fluorescence will be  
264 generated from the lean side. Hence, while the conditional requirement that  
265  $T \geq 800$  K can be strictly applied for both measurement techniques, the  
266 condition on mixture fraction is only approximately  $\xi \geq \xi_{st}$  for the NTLAF  
267 measurement, while it has been applied strictly for the processing of the  
268 DLR-A dataset.

269 In each of the mean radial profile figures (Figure 4) both the uncondi-  
270 tional mean temperature and a conditional mean measurement from the TNF  
271 DLR-A dataset has also been presented. The unconditional mean has been  
272 calculated from all of the available temperature points, while the conditional  
273 average has also been calculated for the TNF DLR-A dataset, from those  
274 points where  $T \geq 800$  K and  $\xi \geq \xi_{st}$ . Since these conditions will reduce the  
275 number of available data points available from the TNF DLR-A dataset, a  
276 further limit is placed on the values used to determine the conditional average  
277 — namely there must be a minimum of 30 valid data points to be displayed  
278 in the radial profile to avoid the influence of intermittent data values.

279 Figure 4 shows that, on the rich-side of the flame, both the conditional  
280 and unconditional mean temperature for the TNF DLR-A dataset have very  
281 similar profiles. Thus, in this region, the conditional mean is insensitive to  
282 the exact thresholds chosen for the conditioning process, making this region  
283 ideal for comparing the two methods. Significantly, this region is also of  
284 greatest interest in the study of flames containing soot. Comparison of the  
285 NTLAF measurements with the conditional average from the TNF DLR-A  
286 dataset shows good agreement in general, particularly for  $x/d \leq 10$ . At  
287 these locations, the typical agreement is better than 50 K over the range of  
288 interest. It is only nearer the lower temperature limit where more significant  
289 variations occur — though these typically remain  $\lesssim 100$  K. On the lean side  
290 of the flame the unconditional data is consistently lower than the conditional  
291 data, as is expected due to the presence of cold ambient air. Similarly, at  
292  $x/d = 40$ , the agreement between the NTLAF measurements and the TNF  
293 DLR-A data are within 100 K, with the best agreement found for the ablation  
294 seeder and the greatest differences on the fuel-rich side, close to the axis.

295 At the location  $x/d = 20$ , there is good agreement between the ablation-

296 seeded NTLAF measurements and the TNF DLR-A data set in the high  
297 temperature region of the flame, corresponding to  $r/d \geq 1$ . The disagree-  
298 ment in the central core is considered to be attributable to the differences  
299 in operating conditions between the present flame and DLR flame, notably  
300 to the substitution of methane with natural gas, the slightly lower jet veloc-  
301 ity, the significantly higher co-flow velocity and the much smaller dimension  
302 of the co-flow nozzle. The height of  $x/d = 20$  corresponds to the region  
303 of interaction between the end of the potential core of the co-flow jet and  
304 the flame for our case, while this region is further downstream for the TNF  
305 DLR-A flame measurements. In addition, at this height, the radial profiles  
306 are strongly sensitive to axial height, owing to the convergence of the flame  
307 from the outer to the central regions of the flame. This sensitivity contrasts  
308 to the much flatter profiles further downstream, at  $x/d = 40$ , where good  
309 agreement is found.

310 The final point to note is that the NTLAF measurements obtained with  
311 the nebuliser seeder are somewhat lower than those obtained by the ablation  
312 seeder in several regions of the flame. For example, it is  $\sim 250$  K lower at  
313  $x/d = 40$ . It is possible that the latent heat of vaporisation of the methanol  
314 may be a contributing factor, but this is not expected to be the main cause.

### 315 *3.3. Temperature Profiles from Instantaneous Images*

316 Figure 5 presents the radial temperature profiles, where the NTLAF data  
317 have been calculated from each of the 500 instantaneous Stokes and anti-  
318 Stokes image pairs and with a higher temperature threshold of 1200 K in the  
319 conditional mean data. (In contrast, the data in Figure 4 were calculated  
320 from the ensemble mean images.) The higher threshold used here was chosen  
321 to reduce the inter-pixel noise, and corresponds to an anti-Stokes threshold  
322 of 30% of the peak signal. The uncertainty in the temperature images (as  
323 determined from the inter-pixel noise) is approximately 8%. In contrast,  
324 the lower threshold of 800 K, which equates to 10% of the peak anti-Stokes  
325 signal, was found to be too prone to extraneous noise on a single-shot basis.  
326 It should be noted that improvements with the seeding and optical system  
327 could improve the SNR, and enable a lower temperature limit.

328 Figure 5 includes the NTLAF results for the combined ablation and neb-  
329 uliser seeding technique. Only a single technique is presented for a clear  
330 comparison of the NTLAF and TNF DLR-A datasets. The combined seed-  
331 ing approach yields the strongest signal, and has already been shown to give

332 similar results to the other seeding techniques, as presented in Figure 4.  
333 Other techniques show similar results to those presented in Figure 5.

334 Comparison with the conditionally averaged TNF DLR-A dataset reveals  
335 excellent agreement at  $x/d = 5$  and 10. The agreement with the conditional  
336 mean and the RMS profiles is excellent over the range presented, and better  
337 than that obtained with the ensemble-averaged data and 800 K threshold  
338 (Figure 4). Radial profiles at  $x/d = 20$  and 40 (not included for brevity)  
339 show similar differences between the NTLAF and the TNF DLR-A datasets  
340 as were observed in Figure 4, as reported in §3.2. That is, the TNF data  
341 are increasingly lower than the NTLAF data as the radial profile approaches  
342 the centre line at this downstream location, while that at  $x/d = 40$ , the  
343 agreement is better, with the NTLAF measurements being consistently lower.

344 A slight difference between the NTLAF data points and the TNF DLR-  
345 A dataset is found closest to the jet centreline. This is consistent with the  
346 trends observed in §3.2. Although the temperature threshold was set at  
347 1200 K, the lowest mean temperature from NTLAF in Figure 5 is  $\sim 1500$  K.  
348 This difference is attributed to a combination of the threshold imposed on the  
349 anti-Stokes image (such that pixels with low signal intensity are discarded),  
350 and also the limitation that only data points are shown where there are  
351 greater than 30 samples.

## 352 4. Conclusions

353 The comparison of the NTLAF measurements with the previous TNF  
354 DLR-A measurements provides a means of assessing the accuracy of the  
355 NTLAF technique and supports the conclusion that the NTLAF method  
356 provides reliable measurements of temperature in a turbulent, non-premixed  
357 flame within its range of applicability. However, given that the technique is  
358 conditional on both a lower temperature threshold and on the instantaneous  
359 mixture fraction, care must be taken in interpreting the data.

360 In general, the NTLAF method was found to agree very well with the  
361 TNF data, and to be everywhere within 100 K except for the region near  
362 to  $x/d = 20$ , where the differences are attributable to differences in the  
363 dimensions of the co-flow nozzle and to slight differences in velocities and  
364 composition. It is notable that the agreement was excellent in the high  
365 temperature regions of the flame, near to stoichiometric.

366 The temperature measurements obtained with NTLAF by ablation seed-  
367 ing and by seeding with the nebuliser were found to exhibit good agreement

368 close to the burner in the regions of the flame close to stoichiometric. How-  
369 ever, away from the near-stoichiometric zone and in the regions further down-  
370 stream, the temperature measured with the nebuliser is  $\sim 250$  K lower than  
371 that with the ablator, which in turn yields better agreement with the TNF  
372 data. Since the calibration was performed with the ablation seeder, this sug-  
373 gests that the calibration may be sensitive to the method of seeding. Both  
374 seeding techniques, either separately or in combination, resulted in reason-  
375 able signal at all measurement locations above the burner. The SNR for the  
376 Stokes and anti-Stokes signals were found to vary slightly with the seeding  
377 technique, and to be in the order of 15:1 and 5:1, respectively.

378 Finally, a threshold was found in which the inter-pixel noise is sufficiently  
379 low to allow accurate measurements from the instantaneous images. For  
380 the present technique, this threshold was found to be 1200 K, but further  
381 developments in the seeding method are expected to allow this threshold  
382 to be lowered. This demonstration of the method paves the way for future  
383 application of the technique in the presence of soot, droplets and particulate  
384 fuels.

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457 **List of Figures**

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485  $\xi \geq \xi_{st}$ .

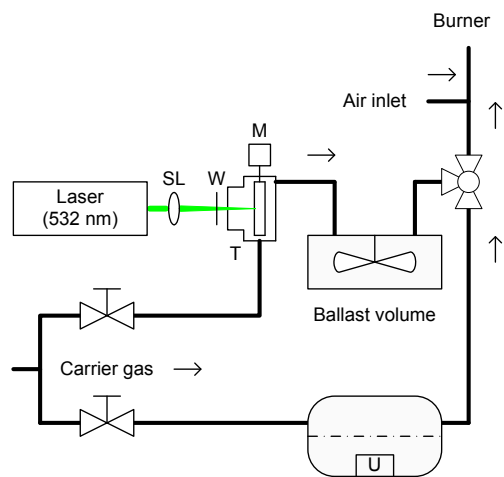


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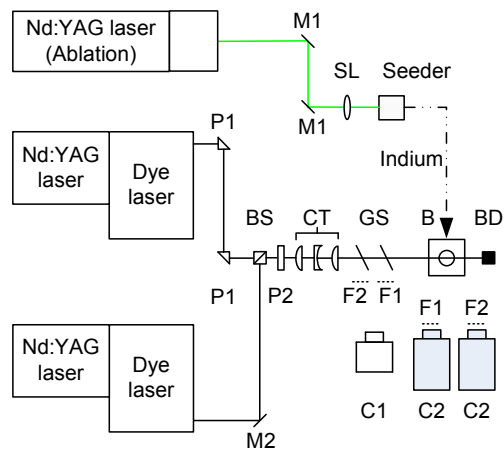
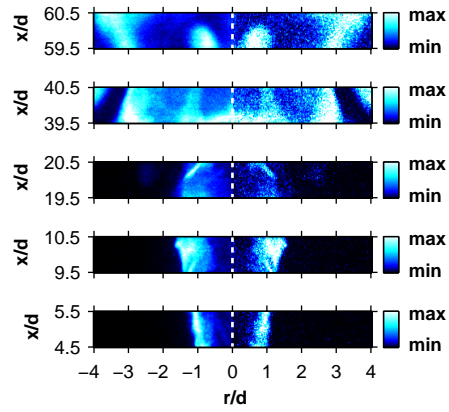
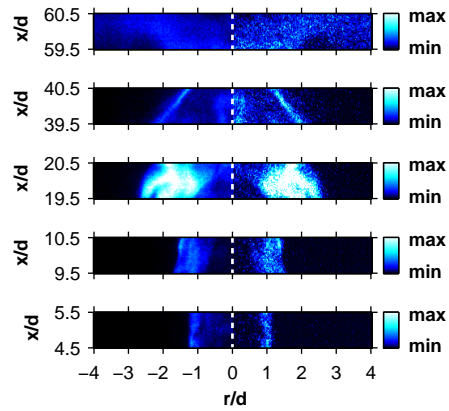


Figure 2: Schematic diagram of the optical arrangement. B, burner; BD, beam dump; C, camera; CT, cylindrical telescope; F, optical filter; GS, glass slide; M, mirror; P1, prism; P2, circular polariser; SL, spherical lens.

(a) Nebuliser Seeding



(b) Ablation Seeding



(c) Combined Seeding

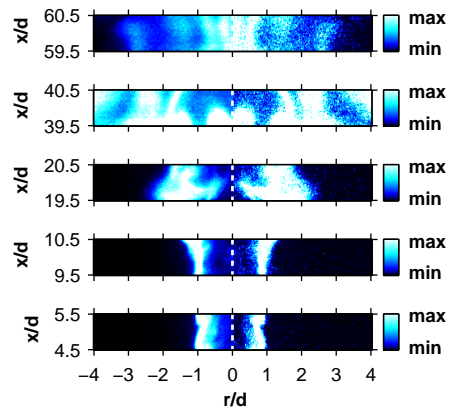
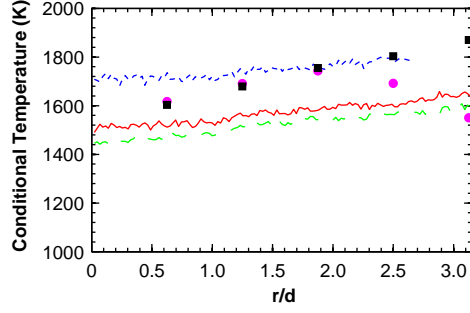
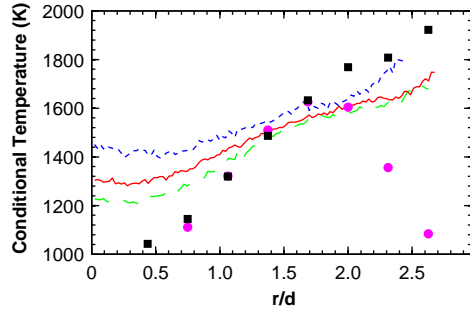


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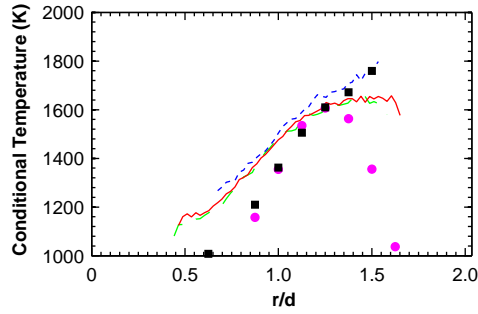
(a)  $x/d = 40$



(b)  $x/d = 20$



(c)  $x/d = 10$



(d)  $x/d = 5$

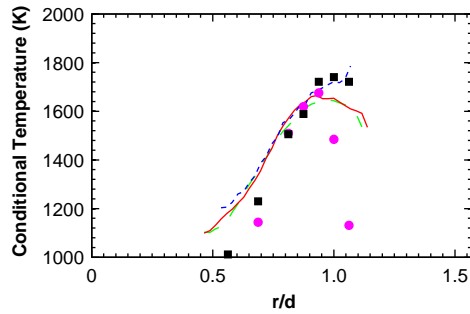
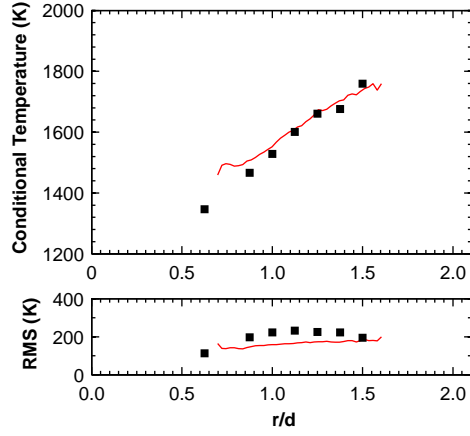


Figure 4: Mean radial temperature profiles of the DLR-A flame calculated from the mean of 500 image pairs for three seeding methods at (a)  $x/d = 40$ , (b)  $x/d = 20$ , (c)  $x/d = 10$ , and (d)  $x/d = 5$ . *Blue dotted line*: mean NTLAF measurements for ablation seeding. *Green dashed line*: mean NTLAF measurements for nebuliser seeding. *Red solid line*: mean NTLAF measurements for combined ablation and nebuliser seeding. *Magenta dots*: unconditional mean temperature from TNF DLR-A dataset. *Black squares*: conditional mean temperature from TNF DLR-A dataset, where  $T \geq 800 K$  and  $\xi \geq \xi_{st}$ .

(a)  $x/d = 10$



(b)  $x/d = 5$

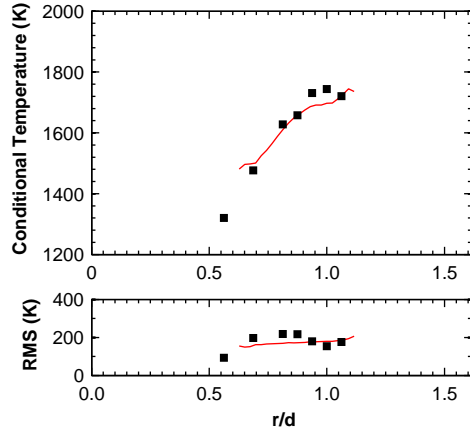


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