Effects of molecular transport in LES/PDF of piloted turbulent dimethyl ether/air jet flames

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Abstract

We report large-eddy simulation (LES)/probability density function (PDF) modeling of piloted turbulent dimethyl ether (DME)/air jet flames with a skeletal chemical mechanism. The modeled PDF transport equation with three different implementations of molecular transport in the interaction-by-exchange-with-the-mean (IEM) mixing model is solved using the NGA/HPDF code in order to assess the *a posteriori* performance of these LES/PDF methodologies applied to the DME flames D and F proposed in the TNF Workshop. The three implementations considered are the classical random-walk model (IEM-RW), the mean-drift model with a single molecular diffusivity (IEM-MD), and the mean-drift model with differential diffusion (IEM-

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DD). Better quantitative agreement with experimental data for the mean and root-mean-square profiles of mixture fraction, temperature and major species mole fractions and conditional means on mixture fraction are obtained with the IEM-MD model than with the IEM-RW model. In LES of the DME flame series, the molecular diffusivity dominates the turbulent diffusivity in the centerline region, so the accurate modeling of molecular transport plays a significant role in LES/PDF of these jet flames. Nevertheless, the IEM-DD model shows only minor effects on the model predictions compared to IEM-MD in these DME flames.

Keywords:

Large-eddy simulation, PDF method, Dimethyl ether, Molecular transport, Differential diffusion

1. Introduction

Dimethyl ether (DME) is considered to be promising as an alternative diesel fuel candidate because of its low tendency to form soot, low emission levels of nitrogen oxides, and good auto-ignition performance [1]. It is a chemically more complex fuel than methane and involves a wider range of time scales in its chemical kinetics. Investigations on turbulence–chemistry interactions are crucial for the use of complex fuels such as DME in practical applications. Considering that piloted turbulent partially-premixed CH_4 /air jet flames have been a paradigm for the investigation on turbulence–chemistry interactions, the DME flame series was proposed as new benchmark flames

for international collaborations on the validation of combustion models owing to the increased complexity of its chemistry (from C1 to C2) [2].

The experimental studies on DME jet flames carried out by Coriton *et al.* [3] and Fuest *et al.* [4] provide a well-documented set of velocity fields and multi-scalar data, which serves as a testbed for developing accurate, tractable, and predictive models for turbulent combustion. Recently, several numerical approaches, such as direct numerical simulation (DNS) [5], LES/conditional moment closure [3], and LES/flamelet-progress variable [6] have been used to study turbulence–chemistry interactions and scalar structures in DME jet flames.

The hybrid LES/PDF method has been proven to be successful in simulations of turbulent combustion owing to its exact treatment of the non-linear chemical source terms [7–10]. In PDF modeling, the closure of the conditional molecular diffusion term, including molecular mixing in composition space and molecular transport in physical space, in the PDF evolution equation is a major challenge. The modeling of mixing is critical in non-premixed combustion as it controls small-scale mixing and subsequent chemical reactions. In contrast, the effect of molecular transport is often neglected in existing Reynolds averaged Navier–Stokes (RANS)/PDF calculations [11, 12], because the magnitude of molecular transport is presumed much smaller than that of turbulent transport in high-Reynolds-number flows. Nevertheless, in the LES context, molecular transport may dominate over the sub grid scale turbulent transport in the regions of high temperature or low turbulent inten-

sity. Kemenov and Pope [13] demonstrated that molecular transport plays an important role in the further downstream jet development and continues to be dominant in regions near the centerline. More recently, Wang and Kim [14] showed that in some cases molecular transport can reach the same or even higher order of the magnitude as turbulent transport and affects the robustness of mixing models in RANS/PDF simulations. Therefore, it is necessary to represent molecular transport accurately in LES/PDF studies of turbulent reacting flows.

In the classical IEM model, the effect of molecular transport is incorporated as a random-walk term in the particle transport equation, which is referred to as IEM-RW below. As noted by McDermott and Pope [15], this treatment gives rise to a spurious production of scalar variance in the DNS limit, so an alternative approach was proposed to model molecular transport as a mean-drift term in the scalar equation, and it was then implemented numerically in simple scalar transport cases [16]. This implementation is referred to as IEM-MD below. It is noted that the IEM-MD model can incorporate differential diffusion [17, 18] that can have a first-order effect on combustion processes [19–22]. For the DME-D flame, Popp *et al.* [6] showed that the effects of differential diffusion are not dominant by indirectly incorporating the non-unity-Lewis number into the tabulation of flamelets, which can also be investigated using LES/PDF.

Therefore, the DME flame series, with different Reynolds numbers and local-extinction levels, can serve as a good candidate case to evaluate the ef-

fects of molecular transport and differential diffusion on the predicability of combustion models. In this paper, the capabilities of different implementations of the IEM mixing model to predict turbulent jet flames with complex chemistry are assessed, and differential diffusion is directly incorporated into the PDF modeling. We remark that this is the first study of piloted turbulent DME jet flames using LES/PDF.

2. Simulation overview

2.1. Experimental setup

The DME flame series, including piloted partially-premixed flames at different Reynolds numbers, is developed from the canonical Sydney/Sandia piloted jet flame series. The central diluted DME jet consists of a mixture of DME and air in a volumetric ratio of 1:4 with a stoichiometric mixture fraction of $\xi_{st} = 0.353$. The pilot stream is a burnt lean mixture of C_2H_2 , H_2 , air, CO_2 , and N_2 at 1800 K, corresponding to an equilibrium composition with an equivalence ratio $\phi = 0.6$. The jet nozzle has a diameter of $D = 7.45$ mm, surrounded by the pilot, whose annulus inner and outer diameters are 8 mm and 18.2 mm, respectively.

Table 1: Bulk velocities and Reynolds numbers of the DME-D and DME-F flames [4].

	U_j [m/s]	U_{pilot} [m/s]	U_{coflow} [m/s]	$Re = U_j D / \nu$
DME-D	45.9	1.1	0.9	29,300
DME-F	91.8	2.1	0.9	58,600

Two target flames DME-D and DME-F with different levels of local extinction are selected for *a posteriori* tests based on the availability of the corresponding experimental data. The flame parameters are summarized in Table 1, and more details about this flame series are available in [4, 23].

2.2. LES/PDF modeling

In reacting flows, the composition variable ϕ consists of n_s species mass fractions $\mathbf{Y} = \{Y_\alpha, \alpha = 1, \dots, n_s\}$ and enthalpy h . Using the new framework of the self-conditioned PDF [24], we define $\tilde{f}(\boldsymbol{\psi}; \mathbf{x}, t)$ as the one-point, one-time density-weighted joint PDF of composition conditioned on the resolved velocity $\tilde{\mathbf{u}}$, where $\boldsymbol{\psi}$ denotes the composition sample space for ϕ . The LES mean composition is $\tilde{\phi} = \int \boldsymbol{\psi} \tilde{f} d\boldsymbol{\psi}$ and the LES mean density is $\bar{\rho} = 1 / \int \tilde{f} / \rho(\boldsymbol{\psi}) d\boldsymbol{\psi}$, where integration is over the whole composition space. Practically, the self-conditioned framework and the filtering approach [25] for LES/PDF are different only on the conceptual level, and thus do not lead to substantially different partial differential equations to be solved.

The composition PDF method accounts for the evolution of $\tilde{f}(\boldsymbol{\psi}; \mathbf{x}, t)$ by solving a modeled PDF transport equation [24]

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\bar{\rho} \tilde{f}) + \nabla \cdot [\bar{\rho} (\tilde{\mathbf{u}} + \widetilde{\mathbf{u}' | \boldsymbol{\psi}}) \tilde{f}] = - \frac{\partial}{\partial \psi_\alpha} \left[\bar{\rho} \left(\frac{1}{\bar{\rho}} \overline{(\rho \Gamma_{(\alpha)} \nabla \phi_\alpha + \rho \phi_\alpha \mathbf{V}_c)} | \boldsymbol{\psi} + S_\alpha(\boldsymbol{\psi}) \right) \tilde{f} \right], \quad (1)$$

where $\mathbf{u}'$ is the residual velocity fluctuation, $\Gamma_{(\alpha)}$ is the molecular diffusivity of species α , S_α is the chemical reaction source term, $\mathbf{V}_c \equiv - \sum_{\alpha=1}^{n_s} \Gamma_{(\alpha)} \nabla \phi_\alpha$ is a correction velocity, which is non-zero only if there is differential diffusion, and

the summation convention applies over the subscript “ α ”, except to suffice in brackets. On the right-hand-side of Eq. (1), the conditional diffusion term is approximated by mixing models as

$$\frac{1}{\bar{\rho}} \overline{(\rho \Gamma_{(\alpha)} \nabla \phi_{\alpha} + \rho \phi_{\alpha} \mathbf{V}_c) | \boldsymbol{\psi}} = \gamma_{\alpha}(\boldsymbol{\psi}, \mathbf{x}, t) + \tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{\alpha}(\boldsymbol{\psi}, \mathbf{x}, t), \quad (2)$$

where γ_{α} and $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{\alpha}$ are referred to as mixing and transport, respectively. The mixing term γ_{α} is the IEM model [26, 27]

$$\gamma_{\alpha}(\boldsymbol{\psi}, \mathbf{x}, t) = -\Omega_m(\psi_{\alpha} - \tilde{\phi}_{\alpha}), \quad (3)$$

where $\tilde{\phi}_{\alpha}$ is the density-weighted mean composition of species α and Ω_m is the mixing rate defined below (Eq. (10)). It is noted that all the LES mean quantities are calculated by the Particle-in-Cell estimation from the particles in each LES cell with a smoothing technique [16], which can reduce statistical noises before taking derivatives of the LES mean quantities.

The transport term $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_{\alpha}$ is implemented by three different models that are described in detail below and are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2: Summary of the three different models

Model name	IEM-RW	IEM-MD	IEM-DD
Model equations	(4) and (5)	(6)–(8)	(7)–(9)
Molecular-transport model	Random walk	Mean drift	Mean drift
Incorporate differential diffusion	No	No	Yes
Satisfy the DNS limit	No	Yes	Yes
Relative computational cost	1.0	1.3	1.4

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106 1. In the IEM model with the random-walk implementation (IEM-RW)
107 [28], Eq. (1) with the model Eq. (3) is solved by a particle method

$$d\mathbf{X}^*(t) = \left(\tilde{\mathbf{u}} + \frac{\nabla \bar{\rho}(\tilde{\Gamma} + \tilde{\Gamma}_T)}{\bar{\rho}} \right)^* dt + (2\tilde{\Gamma}^* + 2\tilde{\Gamma}_T^*)^{1/2} d\mathbf{W}, \quad (4)$$

$$\frac{d\phi_\alpha^*(t)}{dt} = -\Omega_m^*(\phi_\alpha^* - \tilde{\phi}_\alpha^*) + S_\alpha(\phi^*), \quad (5)$$

22 where $\mathbf{X}^*(t)$ is the particle position, $\tilde{\Gamma}_T$ is the turbulent diffusivity,
23
24 $\mathbf{W}$ is an isotropic, vector-valued Wiener process and the superscript
25
26 “*” on mean quantities denotes evaluating those quantities at $\mathbf{X}^*(t)$ by
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28 interpolation. The assumption of unity Lewis number, i.e., $\Gamma_{(\alpha)} = \Gamma$,
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30 is made for IEM-RW, where Γ is assumed to be equal to the thermal
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32 diffusivity of the mixture that is calculated from CHEMKIN’s trans-
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34 port library [29]. Note that the transport term $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_\alpha$ in Eq. (2) is given
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36 implicitly by the random-walk model $(2\tilde{\Gamma}^*)^{1/2} d\mathbf{W}$ in Eq. (4).
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- 39 2. In the IEM model with the mean-drift implementation and the unity
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41 Lewis number (IEM-MD) [15, 16], the transport term $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_\alpha$ in Eq. (2) is
42
43 represented as a mean drift term
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45

$$\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_\alpha \equiv \frac{1}{\bar{\rho}} \nabla \cdot (\bar{\rho} \Gamma \nabla \tilde{\phi}_\alpha). \quad (6)$$

Using the particle method, Eq. (1) is solved as

$$d\mathbf{X}^*(t) = \left(\tilde{\mathbf{u}} + \frac{\nabla \tilde{\rho} \tilde{\Gamma}_T}{\tilde{\rho}} \right)^* dt + (2\tilde{\Gamma}_T^*)^{1/2} d\mathbf{W}, \quad (7)$$

$$\frac{d\phi_\alpha^*(t)}{dt} = -\Omega_m^*(\phi_\alpha^* - \tilde{\phi}_\alpha^*) + \tilde{\mathcal{D}}_\alpha^* + S_\alpha(\phi^*). \quad (8)$$

In Eq. (7), the random walk is due solely to the turbulent diffusivity, in contrast to Eq. (4) for IEM-RW. Additionally, a physically motivated lower limit is imposed on the mixing rate Ω_m^* [15] to ensure that each composition remains within its own bounds as $\min(\phi_\alpha^*(t)) \leq \phi_\alpha^*(t + \Delta t) \leq \max(\phi_\alpha^*(t))$.

3. In the IEM model with the mean-drift implementation and differential diffusion (IEM-DD)[15, 16], differential diffusion is incorporated as

$$\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_\alpha \equiv \frac{1}{\tilde{\rho}} \nabla \cdot (\tilde{\rho} \Gamma_{(\alpha)} \nabla \tilde{\phi}_\alpha) - \frac{1}{\tilde{\rho}} \nabla \cdot (\tilde{\rho} \tilde{\phi}_\alpha \mathbf{V}_c). \quad (9)$$

The corresponding particle equations are the same as those for IEM-MD, but with $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_\alpha$ defined by Eq. (9). In order to reduce the computational cost, molecular diffusivities are obtained with Le_α assumed to be constant throughout the flame, i.e., $\Gamma_{(\alpha)} = \Gamma Le_\alpha$, where Le_α are obtained in the burnt gas of a one-dimensional, laminar flame with full transport properties, using CHEMKIN [30]. Their values are given in Table 3.

In all the implementations of the IEM model, the particle composition

Table 3: Constant species Lewis numbers.

Species	Le	Species	Le	Species	Le
H	0.16	HCO	1.20	CH ₃ OCH ₃	1.65
H ₂	0.27	C ₂ H ₅	1.36	HOCH ₂ O	1.34
CH ₂	0.90	CH ₂ O	1.21	CH ₃ OCO	1.80
CH ₂ (S)	0.90	C ₂ H ₆	1.37	CH ₃ OCHO	1.81
CH ₃	0.92	CH ₂ OH	1.23	CH ₃ OCH ₂ O	1.91
O	0.66	CH ₃ O	1.23	CH ₃ OCH ₂ OH	1.74
CH ₄	0.93	O ₂	1.04	OCH ₂ OCHO	1.79
OH	0.67	HO ₂	1.04	HOCH ₂ OCO	1.79
H ₂ O	0.79	H ₂ O ₂	1.03	CH ₃ OCH ₂ O ₂	1.79
C ₂ H ₂	1.13	CO ₂	1.28	CH ₂ OCH ₂ O ₂ H	1.79
C ₂ H ₃	1.14	CH ₃ HCO	1.44	HO ₂ CH ₂ OCHO	1.83
CO	1.03	CH ₃ OCH ₂	1.65	O ₂ CH ₂ OCH ₂ O ₂ H	1.86
C ₂ H ₄	1.07	HCOOH	1.63	N ₂	1.01

ϕ^* relaxes to the mean composition $\tilde{\phi}^*$ interpolated onto the particle at a specified mixing rate

$$\Omega_m = C_M \frac{\tilde{\Gamma} + \tilde{\Gamma}_T}{\Delta^2} \quad (10)$$

with a model constant $C_M = 15$ for all the species, where Δ is the LES filter width. The optimal value of C_M is determined by a sensitivity study on the statistics (see Appendix A).

2.3. LES/PDF solver

The recently developed “NGA/HPDF” code [10] is implemented for LES/PDF of piloted turbulent jet flames. In order to solve the LES transport equations for mass and momentum, the low Mach-number, variable-density Navier–Stokes equation solver (the “NGA” code) [31] is applied on a structured

145 grid in a cylindrical coordinate system (x, r, θ) . The resolved velocity field
 146 $\tilde{\mathbf{u}}$ in LES is computed with second-order accuracy in space and time, where
 147 the tilde “ $\sim$ ” denotes density-weighted filtering with the LES filter width
 148 $\Delta = (\Delta x \Delta r (r \Delta \theta))^{1/3}$, where Δx , Δr and $\Delta \theta$ are the mesh spacing in axial,
 149 radial and azimuthal directions, respectively. The pressure Poisson equation
 150 is solved to enforce continuity. In LES, the eddy-viscosity and gradient-
 151 diffusion assumptions are employed for subgrid stresses and scalar fluxes,
 152 respectively. The model coefficients for the turbulent viscosity and diffusiv-
 153 ity are evaluated by the Lagrangian dynamic sub-grid scale model [32]. The
 154 major resolved fields in LES are the resolved velocity $\tilde{\mathbf{u}}(\mathbf{x}, t)$, the density
 155 $\bar{\rho}(\mathbf{x}, t)$ and the turbulent diffusivity $\tilde{\Gamma}_T(\mathbf{x}, t)$, which are also used in the PDF
 156 calculations.

157 The hybrid mesh/particle, highly-scalable PDF code “HPDF” [33] is em-
 158 ployed to evolve the position and composition of each particle by solving a
 159 set of stochastic differential equations with second-order accuracy in space
 160 and time. In the present PDF calculations, nominally $N_{pc} = 25$ particles are
 161 used in each cell. This is less than $N_{pc} = 40 \sim 50$ typically used in previous
 162 LES/PDF studies [33, 34], because the statistical error with smoothing on
 163 a length scale greater than the grid size is demonstrated to scale as $N_{tot}^{-1/2}$,
 164 where N_{tot} is the total number of particles as the product of $N_{pc} \sim O(10)$ and
 165 the number of LES cells [16], whereas the error only scales as $N_{pc}^{-1/2}$ with-
 166 out smoothing. Our sensitivity studies also validate that the results with
 167 $N_{pc} = 25$ are almost identical to those with $N_{pc} = 40$ (not shown). The

39-species DME/air skeletal mechanism [35] is adopted for the computation of combustion chemistry, and the *in situ* adaptive tabulation (ISAT) algorithm is applied to accelerate the time integration of the reaction rate $\mathcal{S}(\phi)$ in Eq. (5) or (8) [36, 37].

The Monte Carlo PDF particle solver and the finite-volume LES solver are fully coupled based on the transported specific volume approach [38]. An auxiliary scalar transport equation for the resolved specific volume $\tilde{v}$, the inverse of $\bar{\rho}$, is evolved by the LES solver with a third-order bounded QUICK scheme [31]. This two-way coupling algorithm is verified by examining the consistency of the mean densities from the LES and PDF solvers in Appendix B.

The relative computational costs of three IEM implementations are summarized in Table 2. The IEM-MD calculation involves the evaluation of the mean-drift term $\tilde{\mathcal{D}}_\alpha$ from n_ϕ resolved compositions, which adds 30% computational cost more than that with IEM-RW. Compared with IEM-MD, the IEM-DD calculation adds the evaluation of mixture-averaged transport properties $\Gamma_{(\alpha)}$ and the correction velocity $\mathbf{V}_c$, and its total computational cost is 40% more than that of IEM-RW.

2.4. Grids and boundary conditions

The computational domain is specified to be $L_x \times L_r \times L_\theta = 60D \times 30D \times 2\pi$ in the axial, radial and azimuthal directions. Three non-uniform structured grids are tested to determine if the LES grid resolution is adequate. The grid

sizes are $96 \times 64 \times 16$, $128 \times 72 \times 32$, and $192 \times 108 \times 64$ in the axial, radial, and azimuthal directions with the grid points at

$$x_i = L_x \frac{e^{i\alpha_x/N_x} - 1}{e^{\alpha_x} - 1}, \quad i = 0, \dots, N_x, \quad (11)$$

$$r_j = L_r \frac{e^{j\alpha_r/N_r} - 1}{e^{\alpha_r} - 1}, \quad j = 0, \dots, N_r, \quad (12)$$

where $\alpha_x = \log \beta_x / (1 - 1/N_x)$ and $\alpha_r = \log \beta_r / (1 - 1/N_r)$ with the stretching ratios $\beta_x = 2.0$ and $\beta_r = 6.0$ in the axial and radial directions, respectively. In the grid sensitivity study in Appendix C, the statistical results from two fine grids $128 \times 72 \times 32$ and $192 \times 108 \times 64$ are almost converged, so the grid $128 \times 72 \times 32$ is utilized in further calculations. The average grid size within the flame zone is around 1.5mm at $x/D = 20$.

A separate pipe flow simulation is performed to generate the velocity inflow boundary conditions at the jet inlet. The pilot and coflow streams are represented as laminar with different bulk velocities to match those of the experiments. The mole fractions of inlet compositions in the jet, pilot, and coflow streams are the same as those in experiments [4]. The convective condition is used for the velocity and scalars at the outflow boundary [31] in the streamwise direction. The Dirichlet boundary condition is specified at the outer boundary in the radial direction. The stretched grid in the radial direction moves the transverse boundary far enough from the central turbulent jet, which can avoid the artifact of the Dirichlet boundary condition on entrainment near the jet.

3. Results and discussion

The LES/PDF calculations of two piloted partially-premixed turbulent DME jet flames are performed. The simulation results for DME-D and DME-F flames are presented and discussed. The statistics are collected by time averaging over 15 flow-through times $T_j = L_x/U_j$ after the jet flame reaches a statistically steady state. The total CPU time of a LES/PDF run with IEM-MD model is around four days on 192 Intel Xeon E5 processor cores on the TH-2A supercomputer in Guangzhou, China (i.e., less than 20,000 core hours). The PDF and LES parts account for about 85% and 15% of the computational cost, respectively.

3.1. Mean profiles

In non-premixed combustion, the mixture fraction is essential to characterize mixing. The definition of the mixture fraction in the present study is the same as that in the DME flame experiments [4, 23]. It is based on the adapted Bilger's formulation as

$$\xi = \frac{2(Y_C^* - Y_{C,2})/w_C + (Y_H^* - Y_{H,2})/2w_H}{2(Y_{C,1} - Y_{C,2})/w_C + (Y_{H,1} - Y_{H,2})/2w_H}. \quad (13)$$

Here, the adapted mass fractions Y_C^* and Y_H^* , which are slightly different from the ordinary elemental mass fractions Y_C and Y_H , are introduced in experimental data post-processing [23], considering that species concentrations of some intermediate hydrocarbons are not available from practical Raman/Rayleigh measurements. Moreover, w_C , w_H are atomic masses, and

subscripts 1 and 2 refer to the inflow conditions of the central jet and coflow, respectively.

For quantitative studies, we first compare the radial profiles at four axial locations $x/D = 5, 10, 20$ and 40 in the experiment and LES/PDF. The first row of Fig. 1 shows the mean and the resolved root-mean-square (rms) mixture fraction $\xi'' = \left(\langle (\tilde{\xi})^2 \rangle - \langle \tilde{\xi} \rangle^2 \right)^{1/2}$ from the experiment and from LES/PDF using IEM-RW and IEM-MD models for flame DME-D. Here angled brackets denote time averages. It is found that the results from the IEM-DD model are very close to those from IEM-MD, so they are omitted for clarity. The mean mixture fraction obtained by the IEM-MD model is in excellent agreement with the experimental measurements, but the IEM-RW model underpredicts the mean mixture fraction, slightly at $x/D = 20$ and significantly at $x/D = 40$ in the centerline region. In addition, the rms mixture fraction obtained by the IEM-MD model generally agrees well with the experimental data, whereas the rms from the IEM-RW model shows a slight over-prediction near the maximum rms mixture fraction at $x/D = 5$ and in the centerline region at $x/D = 10$. The discrepancies between the results from IEM-RW and IEM-MD are explained and discussed in detail in section 3.3.

For flame DME-F, the mean and rms mixture fraction profiles from the IEM-MD model, shown in the third row of Fig. 1, also generally agree well with the experimental data, and they are only slightly underestimated at $x/D = 40$. In contrast, with the IEM-RW model the mean and rms mixture

Figure 1: Mean and rms profiles of ξ and T at $x/D = 5, 10, 20$ and 40 from experiment and LES/PDF for DME-D (upper two rows) and DME-F (bottom two rows) flames ($\circ$: mean in experiment; dashed lines: mean in IEM-RW; solid lines: mean in IEM-MD; $\square$: rms in experiment; dash-dotted lines: rms in IEM-RW; long-dashed lines: rms in IEM-MD).

fractions are notably underpredicted and overpredicted, respectively. The discrepancies, in particular, those close to the centerline region, are partially attributed to the faster jet spreading rate, which appears to be caused by the random-walk representation of molecular transport in the particle transport equation in the IEM-RW model.

Compared with the temperatures from the experiment, the IEM-RW model overpredicts the mean temperature for DME-D, and also yields a wider distribution for DME-F. On the other hand, the IEM-MD model exhibits good agreement with the experiment, except for slight underpredictions of temperature at $x/D = 5$ and 10 for DME-D and slightly overpredictions of temperature at $x/D = 20$ and 40 for DME-F, as shown in the second and fourth rows of Fig. 1. In addition, the rms temperature from the IEM-MD model also shows much better agreement with the experimental data than that from the IEM-RW model for flame DME-F.

The mean mole fractions of the major species CO and CO₂ are also compared in Fig. 2. The radial distributions of X_{CO_2} are similar to temperature in Fig. 1 owing to the strong temperature dependency for CO₂. The relatively accurate mean radial distributions of X_{CO} are also achieved using IEM-MD, especially close to the centerline. In contrast, the calculations with IEM-RW show some significant discrepancies compared to the experimental data. Furthermore, the CO prediction in the present LES/PDF is better than that obtained using the LES/flamelet-progress variable approach in [6], which can be caused by different modeling methods or different reaction mechanisms

Figure 2: Mean profiles of the mean mole fractions X_{CO} and X_{CO_2} at locations $x/D = 5, 10, 20$ and 40 from experiment and LES/PDF for DME-D (upper two rows) and DME-F (bottom two rows) flames ($\circ$: experiment; dash lines: IEM-RW; solid lines: IEM-MD).

used in these two studies.

3.2. Conditional mean profiles

In order to assess the combustion model for turbulence–chemistry interactions, averaged temperature and mole fraction of CO conditioned on

the mixture fraction are compared between LES/PDF and experimental results in Fig. 3 for flame DME-D. The IEM-RW model overpredicts the conditional mean temperature around the stoichiometric mixture fraction at $x/D = 10$ and 40, and globally overpredicts the temperature by about 200K at $x/D = 40$. Moreover, the IEM-RW model significantly overpredicts X_{CO} on the fuel-rich side at $x/D = 10$ and underestimates X_{CO} on the fuel-lean side at $x/D = 40$, which are consistent with the results in Figs. 1 and 2. By comparison, the results from both IEM-MD and IEM-DD show very good agreement with the experimental data, but the difference is minor between these two IEM implementations.

Figure 3: Mean profiles of T and X_{CO} conditioned on ξ -space at axial locations $x/D = 10$ and 40 from experiment and LES/PDF in DME-D flame ($\circ$: experiment; dashed lines: IEM-RW; solid lines: IEM-MD; dash-dotted lines: IEM-DD).

Figure 4: Snapshots of the contour of T (upper half) and X_{OH} (lower half) on the $x-r$ plane cut from LES/PDF of DME-D and DME-F flames with the IEM-MD model.

Figure 5: Mean profiles of T (left) (symbols: experiment, lines: LES/PDF) and scatters of particle temperature conditioned on ξ -space from LES/PDF for DME-D (middle) and DME-F (right) flames with IEM-MD at $x/D = 10$.

290 Snapshots of the instantaneous contours of temperature and mole fraction
 291 of OH for two flames are shown in Fig. 4. Flame DME-D shows continuous
 292 sheet-like structures without notable local extinctions, whereas DME-F ex-

hibits extinction pockets (visible in the OH contours) that typically extend over several diameters of the jet and re-ignite further downstream. For quantitative comparisons between the two flames, conditional mean profiles and instantaneous scatter points of temperature from LES/PDF against the mixture fraction at $x/D = 10$ are plotted in Fig. 5. The mean profiles yield very good agreement with the experiment results in both flames. The maximum conditional mean temperature close to the stoichiometric mixture fraction in DME-D are approximately 100 K higher than that in DME-F, which also indicates more local extinctions in DME-F characterized by more scatter points of low temperatures than those in DME-D.

In general, the observations above suggest that IEM-MD is superior to IEM-RW in the model predictions in LES/PDF of DME jet flames. Additionally, the effect of differential diffusion is directly incorporated into the PDF equation in IEM-DD model, but the statistical results indicate that its effects are not significant in these two DME jet flames, which is consistent with the previous LES study using the flamelet/progress-variable model [6]. Detailed analysis about the differential diffusion is presented in section 3.4.

3.3. *Effects of molecular transport*

Previous LES studies of turbulent jet flames showed that the effect of molecular transport can be important [13] and the accurate representation of molecular transport is necessary in combustion LES models. The comparisons between the IEM-RW and IEM-MD model predictions in Figs. 1 and

3 confirm that the accurate treatment of molecular transport is crucial in
LES/PDF.

The averaged molecular diffusivities conditioned on temperature from
LES/PDF in DME-D and DME-F flames at different locations $x/D = 5, 10, 20$
and 40 are almost identical and are approximated by an empirical fit as

$$\bar{\rho}\tilde{\Gamma} = A + B \left(\frac{T}{T_0} \right) + C \left(\frac{T}{T_0} \right)^2 \quad (14)$$

where the constants $A = 2.5 \times 10^{-5}$, $B = 1.55 \times 10^{-5}$, $C = -4.5 \times 10^{-7}$ (kg/m ·
s) and the reference temperature is $T_0 = 292$ K. To assess the effects of molec-
ular transport, we first compare the radial profiles of molecular diffusivity $\bar{\rho}\tilde{\Gamma}$
and turbulent diffusivity $\bar{\rho}\tilde{\Gamma}_T$ at different axial positions $x/D = 10, 20$ and 40
in Fig. 6. In the centerline region, the turbulent diffusivity is relatively small
owing to the small grid size. For flame DME-D, the averaged molecular dif-
fusivity is consistently larger than the turbulent diffusivity in the centerline
region. Although the turbulent diffusivity increases further downstream with
increasing turbulent intensity, the molecular diffusivity is still comparable to
that of the turbulent diffusivity so its effect cannot be neglected. We remark
that the molecular diffusivity particularly dominates over turbulent diffusiv-
ity on the centerline, and it continues to be dominant in the centerline region
throughout the flow field. Thus the effect of molecular transport is expected
to be significant in the centerline region, which is consistent with the results
in Fig. 1.

Figure 6: Radial profiles of the molecular diffusivity and the turbulent diffusivity at $x/D = 10, 20$ and 40 for DME-D and DME-F flames (solid lines: molecular diffusivity in DME-D; $\circ$: turbulent diffusivity in DME-D; dash lines: molecular diffusivity in DME-F; $\square$: turbulent diffusivity in DME-F).

In order to illustrate the spatial distribution of the relative magnitude of the two viscosities, the contour plots of the time-averaged ratio and the instantaneous ratio of the turbulent viscosity to the molecular viscosity on the x - r plane cut from LES/PDF of two flames are shown in Fig. 7. The peak time-averaged and instantaneous ratios are about 5 and 10 respectively for flame DME-D, and about 8 and 15 respectively for flame DME-F. The turbulent viscosity is significantly larger than the molecular viscosity in the shear layer between the central jet and pilot owing to the high turbulent intensity and potentially low grid resolution, and it is relatively small in the centerline region owing to the small grid size.

Moreover, the molecular diffusivity in DME-F is close to that in DME-D, while the turbulent diffusivity is much larger in DME-F than that in DME-D. Therefore, the effect of molecular transport is expected to be suppressed in DME-F compared with DME-D, which is partially supported by the results in Fig. 1. The discrepancies of temperature profiles at $x/D = 5$ and 10 between

Figure 7: Contour plots of the time-averaged ratio (upper half) and the instantaneous ratio (lower half) of the turbulent viscosity to the molecular viscosity on the $x-r$ plane from LES/PDF of DME-D and DME-F flames with the IEM-MD model. The dashed lines on each upper half denote the isoline of $\langle \nu_T / \nu \rangle = 1$.

IEM-RW and IEM-MD in DME-F flame are less than those in DME-D. On the other hand, the discrepancies of statistics between IEM-RW and IEM-MD are still notable downstream in DME-F flame, which is possibly due to the nonlinear coupling between transport and reactions.

It is noted that the equations for $\tilde{\phi}$ deduced from IEM-RW and IEM-MD are identical, but the equation for the composition variance deduced from the IEM-RW model contains a spurious production term. The evolution equation for the scalar variance reads [39]

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \widetilde{\phi''^2_\alpha} + \tilde{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \nabla \widetilde{\phi''^2_\alpha} = \frac{1}{\bar{\rho}} \nabla \cdot (\bar{\rho} \tilde{\Gamma}_e \nabla \widetilde{\phi''^2_\alpha}) + 2 \tilde{\Gamma}_e |\nabla \tilde{\phi}_\alpha|^2 - 2 \Omega_m \widetilde{\phi''^2_\alpha} + 2 \widetilde{\phi''_\alpha S_\alpha}, \quad (15)$$

with $\tilde{\Gamma}_e = \tilde{\Gamma} + \tilde{\Gamma}_T$ for IEM-RW and $\tilde{\Gamma}_e = \tilde{\Gamma}_T$ for IEM-MD. In the DNS limit, the scalar variance $\widetilde{\phi''^2_\alpha}$ and $\tilde{\Gamma}_T$ should vanish, and Eq. (15) for IEM-MD satisfies this criterion. In contrast, the second term on the right-hand-side of Eq. (15) for IEM-RW contains a nonvanishing molecular diffusivity in the DNS limit, so it yields the spurious production term $2\tilde{\Gamma}|\nabla\tilde{\phi}_\alpha|^2$. As a result of this spurious production of fluctuations, the rms mixture fraction and temperature from IEM-RW are generally larger than those from IEM-MD in Fig. 1. Furthermore, the differences of the mean quantities between IEM-RW and IEM-MD may be due to indirect effects caused by the resulting increased composition fluctuations in the IEM-RW calculations.

3.4. Differential diffusion

Differential diffusion, in general, has a first-order effect on combustion processes [20, 22], and it can be characterized by the difference $\xi_H - \xi_C$, where ξ_H and ξ_C are the elementary mass fractions of the elements H and C.

Figure 8: Mean profiles of $\xi_H - \xi_C$ conditioned on ξ -space from experiment (circles: DME-D, squares: DME-F) and LES/PDF (solid lines: DME-D, dashed lines: DME-F) with the IEM-DD model at $x/D = 10, 20$ and 40 .

This difference $\xi_H - \xi_C$ is non-zero only when different diffusivities are

incorporated. Mean profiles of $\xi_H - \xi_C$ conditioned on mixture fraction at $x/D = 10, 20$ and 40 are shown in Fig. 8 for flame DME-D and DME-F. The results obtained using IEM-DD show overall good agreement with the experimental data, indicating that the differential diffusion effect is appropriately incorporated into the LES/PDF modeling. The decrease of the maximum difference implies that the influence of differential diffusion is diminished along the axial direction and the unity-Lewis-number assumption appears to be valid for the flames further downstream.

In PDF modeling, the effects of differential diffusion can be incorporated in mixing models through molecular transport, as in the present study, or through micro-mixing [40]. Although the effects of differential diffusion in Figs. 3 and 8 are not very significant in these DME jet flames, the implementation and validation of the IEM-DD model are still meaningful, because it can be directly utilized in turbulent premixed flames where differential diffusion can be significant. In such cases it would be interesting to explore whether the effects of differential diffusion are represented by molecular transport or micro-mixing at resolved or unresolved scales.

4. Conclusions

We report LES/PDF calculations of the piloted turbulent jet flames DME-D and DME-F with a skeletal chemical mechanism. The LES/PDF methodology is implemented using the highly-scalable NGA/HPDF code with three different models of molecular transport, namely IEM-RW, IEM-

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395 MD, and IEM-DD. The performance of the different models is analyzed
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11 through detailed *a posteriori* comparisons with the experimental data of
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14 397 the two target flames. The effects of molecular transport and differential
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16 398 diffusion are assessed.

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18 399 In the LES of DME jet flames, molecular transport is comparable to tur-
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20 400 bulent transport near the jet exit and the centerline region, so it can play an
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22 401 important role in the evolution of the PDF equations. Better quantitative
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28 404 with the IEM-MD model compared to the IEM-RW model.

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30 405 Using the IEM-DD model, mean profiles of the difference between mixture
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43 411 Based on the successful implementations of IEM-MD and IEM-DD with
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45 412 detailed *a posteriori* validations in LES/PDF, it would be interesting to
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47 413 explore the performance of LES/PDF in turbulent premixed flames where
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49 414 differential diffusion may be more important than in partially-premixed jet
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51 415 flames.

Acknowledgments

The authors thank F. Fuest and J. A. Sutton for sharing the experimental data. We also gratefully acknowledge Caltech, the University of Colorado Boulder and Stanford University for licensing the NGA code used in this work. This work has been supported in part by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (Grant Nos. 11521091 and 91541204) and the Thousand Young Talents Program of China, and the work at Cornell is supported by the U. S. Department of Energy Office of Science, Office of Basic Energy Sciences under Award Number DE-FG02-90ER14128.

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Appendix A. Sensitivity study of C_M in the IEM mixing model

In PDF calculations, the scalar mixing rate is not known *a priori* and must be modeled. In the present study, a constant mechanical-to-scalar timescale ratio C_M is applied in Eq. (10). This constant is a key model parameter and its value typically varies from 2 to 10 [33, 34], but larger values up to 100 were used some in previous LES/PDF calculations [41]. To determine the optimal value of C_M , the results of mixture fraction and

temperature profiles with different values of C_M are shown in Fig. 9. As may be seen, for flame DME-D and for flame DME-F at $x/D = 5$ and 10, there is little sensitivity to the value of C_M . Further downstream in flame DME-F, there is more sensitivity, and the value $C_M = 15$ yields the best agreement with the experimental data. Consequently, this value ($C_M = 15$) is used in all of the other calculations reported.

Appendix B. Consistency of the mean densities from the LES and PDF solvers

In the LES/PDF context, the very different algorithms in the LES and PDF solvers pose challenges for the coupling of LES and PDF through the density or specific volume. The specific volume contains considerable random noise due to the nature of the Monte-Carlo PDF solution, so the feedback of the specific volume from the PDF solver to the LES pressure solver needs careful treatment. In the present study, the transported specific volume approach is employed, and this two-way coupling algorithm has been verified in several flames [38, 42]. The radial profiles of mean density at different axial locations for DME-D flame with the IEM-MD model are shown in Fig. 10. We observe that the mean densities evaluated from the LES and PDF solvers are in good agreement with very slight discrepancy owing to the numerical errors involved in LES and PDF implementations [33].

Figure 9: Mean and rms profiles of ξ and T at locations $x/D = 5, 10, 20$ and 40 from experiment and LES/PDF with IEM-MD model for DME-D (upper two rows) and DME-F (bottom two rows) flames ($\circ$: mean in experiment; $\square$: rms in experiment; dash-dotted line: $C_M = 5$; dashed line: $C_M = 10$; solid line: $C_M = 15$).

Appendix C. Grid sensitivity study

Three non-uniform structured grids are tested to determine if the LES grid resolution is adequate. The grid sizes are $96 \times 64 \times 16$, $128 \times 72 \times 32$, and $192 \times 108 \times 64$ in the axial, radial, and azimuthal directions. It is observed

Figure 10: Radial profiles of mean density at different axial locations $x/D = 5, 10$ and 40 for DME-D flame (solid lines: LES; dashed lines: PDF).

in Fig. 11 that the statistical results from the two finest grids ($128 \times 72 \times 32$ and $192 \times 108 \times 64$) are almost converged. Thus, the grid $128 \times 72 \times 32$ is utilized in the other calculations reported in this paper.

Figure 11: Mean and rms profiles of ξ and T at locations $x/D = 5, 10, 20$ and 40 from experiment and LES/PDF with IEM-MD model for DME-D (upper two rows) and DME-F (bottom two rows) flames ($\circ$: mean in experiment; $\square$: rms in experiment; blue lines: $96 \times 64 \times 16$ grid; red lines: $128 \times 72 \times 32$ grid; black lines: $192 \times 108 \times 64$ grid). (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)