

FLOW VISUALIZATION II



Wolfgang Merzkirch

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Wolfgang Merzkirch

Institut für Thermo- und Fluidodynamik
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Preface

The methods of flow visualization are being used by engineers and scientists working in quite different fields of fluid flow research and development. Therefore, flow visualization has the character of an interdisciplinary experimental tool. The International Symposia on Flow Visualization reflect the need for an exchange of information on the development and application of these tools. The scope of this Second International Symposium was to emphasize the applicability of the methods for a great number of different problems and to point out the progress that has been made in various fields of flow research because of visualization.

The call for papers had resulted in a wide response. The Symposium was attended by 250 participants coming from 30 different countries. Because of the large number of contributed papers the authors were asked to restrict the length of their manuscripts to 5 or 6 pages. It is obvious that a paper of this length cannot provide all the information that a scientist would like to communicate of his or her work. The editor was grateful that almost all authors were kind enough to follow this suggestion for a reduction of the written text and so contributed to the possibility of producing these proceedings.

The Second International Symposium on Flow Visualization was organized by Institut für Thermo- und Fluidodynamik der Ruhr-Universität Bochum in cooperation with Verein Deutscher Ingenieure (VDI), the International Measurement Confederation (IMEKO), the American Society of Mechanical Engineers (ASME), the American Society of Civil Engineers (ASCE), and Unikontakt-University/Industry Liaison Bureau Bochum.

The organizers are grateful to Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG), Minister für Wissenschaft und Forschung des Landes Nordrhein, Westfalen, and Gesellschaft der Freunde, Ruhr-Universität Bochum for financial support of the symposium, and to all members of the Institut für Thermo- und Fluidodynamik who helped beyond the call of duty to make the symposium successful and informative.

W. Merzkirch

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Contents

Preface **xi**

GENERAL LECTURES

- Optical Methods in Combustion Research, F. J. Weinberg **3**
Flow Visualization Techniques in Medical and Biological Applications, W.-J. Yang **15**

1. APPLICATION OF FLOW VISUALIZATION TECHNIQUES

1.1. Combustion, Furnace Models

- Visualization of Propellant Gas Flow inside a Gun Barrel, U. Hornemann **31**
Application of Schlieren Photography in Flame Propagation Studies in Turbulent Flows, U. S. P. Shet, M. C. Gupta, and R. Pritchard **37**
Study of Disintegrating Liquid Jets Using Photoelectric Schlieren Method, R. Reznicek **45**
Flow Visualization Studies on Swirling Flames, V. M. Domkundwar, V. Sriramulu, and M. C. Gupta **51**
Visualization of Recirculating Flows in Reversed-flow Furnace Models, T. M. Sallam, M. Kaji, S. Nakanishi, and S. Ishigai **57**
Quantitative Interpretation of Recirculated Flow Visualization by the Analysis of Video Pictures, P. Calvet, A. Giovannini, P. Hebrard, and G. Toulouse **63**

1.2. Heat Transfer, Heat Exchangers

- Visualization of Thermal Convection, H. Oertel, Jr. **71**
Application of Flow and Surface Temperature Visualization Techniques to a Study of Heat Transfer in Recirculating Flow Regions, Y. Kang, J. Nishino, K. Suzuki, and T. Sato **77**
Examination of Three Dimensional Free Convection Analysis by Experimental Results of Wall Frictionlines Visualizations, A. Suwono and M. Taftazani **83**
Natural Convection Flow in Inclined Air-filled Enclosures of Small and Moderate Aspect Ratio, S. J. M. Linthorst, W. M. M. Schinkel, and C. J. Hoogendoorn **93**
Characteristics of Vortex Shedding in Plate Arrays, S. Mochizuki, and Y. Yagi **99**

1.3. Fluid Engines

- Expanded Application Programs of the Spark Tracer Method with Regard to Centrifugal Compressor Impellers, W. Fister, J. Eikermann, and U. Witzel **107**
- Nonsteady Computing Model for the Motion of Vortex Paths in an Axial Turbomachine Stage, P. Krammer **121**
- Fundamental Experiments of Oil Films on a Rotating Disk, C. Arakawa and T. Tagori **127**
- Flow Visualization in a New Type of Radial Impeller at Zero Flow, A. Díaz **133**
- Leading-edge Separating Vortex and Pressure Distributions on Propeller Blades, H. Yuasa and N. Ishii **141**
- Visualization of Some Phenomena Connected with Non-potentiality of the Flow in Steam Turbines, M. Štastný **147**
- Flow Visualization in Diesel Engine Cylinder by Spark Tracing Method, K. Kajiyama, N. Moro, and S. Kano **153**
- Improved Two-cycle Engine Scavenging by Flow Visualization, M. Berchtold and W. Güller **159**
- Visualization of Vortex Sound in Cascade Plates, Y. Tanida and T. Nagashima **165**

1.4. Industrial Problems

- Flow Visualization in Continuous Steel-Casting, J. Ježek **173**
- Examples of Flow Visualization in Food Technology, V. Denk and R. Stern **179**
- Practical Application of Fluid-dynamic Models on Power and Process Engineering in the Iron and Steel Industry, D. Sucker and H. Boenecke **185**
- Visualization of Mixing and Removing Methane Layerings—Problems of Mine Ventilation, K. Renner and R. Wesely **193**

1.5. Pipe and Channel Flow

- Oscillating Functioning of Safety Valves Generated by Their Inlet Geometry, B. Föllmer **203**
- Visualization of Unsteady Pipe Flows Using Hydrogen Bubble Technique, E. Kato, M. Suita, and M. Kawamata **209**
- Measurement of Non-stationary Flow by the Pulse-Luminescence Method Using N₂ Pulse-Laser and Polystyrene Microcapsules, N. Nakatani and T. Yamada **215**
- Flow Visualization of the Entrance Region for Steady Viscous Flow in Coiled Circular Pipes, M. Akiyama, S.-I. Takamura, M. Suzuki, I. Nishiwaki, J. Nakayama, and K. C. Cheng **221**
- Wall Streamline Visualization by Electrochemical Method, G. Cognet, J. Mallet, and M. Wolff **227**
- On the Mechanism of Secondary Flow in Prismatic Open Channel Flow, T. Utami, T. Ueno, H. Imamoto, and K. Ohtoshi **233**

1.6. Flow Separation

- Flow Visualization of Laminar Leading Edge Separation Bubbles (Long Bubble), C. Gleyzes, J. Cousteix, and J. L. Bonnet **241**
- A Visual Study of a Separation Bubble, A. J. Smits **247**
- Visualization of Unsteady Flow Separation, S. Taneda **253**
- Visualization of Separating Oscillatory Laminar Flow, T. M. Mezaris, D. P. Telionis, and G. S. Jones **259**

- Intermittent Flow Separation from Flat Plate Induced by a Nearby Circular Cylinder, M. M. Zdravkovich **265**
- Visualization of Flow Separation and Separated Flows with the Aid of Hydrogen Bubbles, H. Bippes **271**
- A Visualized Study of Flow Pattern and Pressure Distribution in a Fluidic Device, Y. Nakayama, K. Ohta, K. Aoki, H. Ohta, and M. Oki **277**
- Visualization of Laminar Separation by Oil Film Method, T. Ishihara, T. Kobayashi, M. Iwanaga **283**
- Large Scale Structures in Driven Unsteady Diffuser Flows, H. Viets, M. Ball, and D. Bouginé **289**
- Flow Field around an Oscillating Airfoil, Y. Oshima and A. Natsume **295**
- Flow about the Model of an Oscillating Cantilever Roof, H. Mankau **301**
- Flow Visualization of Ship Model in Towing Tank, T. Fujita **307**
- Smoke Tunnel Development at VFW, B. Ewald **313**

1.7. Wakes and Vortices

- Secondary Phenomena in the Unsteady Wake of a Cylindrical Bluff Body Pointed out by Means of a Visualization Technique, M. Coutanceau and R. Bouard **325**
- High Speed Visualization of Rapidly Varying Flows, A. Dymont, J. P. Flodrops, and P. Gryson **331**
- Interaction Effects on Base Drag of a Blunt Based Body of Revolution and Another Body in the Wake, S. L. Gai **337**
- Flow Past an Elliptic Cylinder Started Impulsively, K. Izumi, K. Kuwahara, K. Horiuti, and K. Oshima **343**
- Methods for Simultaneous Visualization of Vortex Impingement and Pressure/Force Measurement, D. Rockwell, C. Knisely, and S. Ziada **349**
- Visualization of Vortex Interaction Using Smoke-Wire Technique, H. Yamada and T. Matsui **355**
- Sudden Transition to Turbulence Demonstrated by Impinging Laminar Smoke Rings, F. Schultz-Grunow **361**
- Visualized Flow Pattern around a Circular Cylinder with Tangential Blowing, R. Waka, F. Yoshino, and Y. Furuya **367**
- Hydrodynamic Visualization on Streamlined Bodies of Vortex Flows, Particular to High Angles of Attack, H. Werlé **373**
- Observations of Confined Vortices, M. P. Escudier **379**

1.8. Boundary Layers

- Application of the Photochromic Tracer Technique for Flow Visualization near the Wall Region, H. M. Kondratas and R. L. Hummel **387**
- Hydrodynamic Visualizations of Some Turbulent Flow Structures, R. Dumas, C. Domptail, E. Daien **393**
- Flow Visualization in Cambridge University Engineering Department, M. R. Head **399**
- Video Flow Visualization of Turbulent Boundary Layer Streak Structure, C. R. Smith, S. P. Schwartz, S. D. Metzler, A. W. Cerra **405**
- Boundary Layer on a Shock Tube Wall and at a Leading Edge Using Schlieren, B. E. L. Deckker **413**

1.9. Supersonic Flow and Shock Waves

- Two Methods for Low Density Flow Visualization, W. San and Y. Ge **421**
Visualization of Hypersonic Micro-jets by Laser-induced Fluorescence, W. J. Hiller and J. Hägele
427
Supersonic Flow Visualization by Light Scattering, R. Porcar and J. P. Prenel **433**
High Speed Smoke Flow Visualization, S. M. Batill, R. C. Nelson, T. J. Mueller **439**
Air Blast Loading of a Cylindrical Body, W. Heilig **445**
Visualization of Underwater Explosions, F. Higashino and S. Kawamata **451**

1.10. Stratified Flow and Oceanography

- Laboratory Observation of Gravity Waves Breaking on Deep Water, P. Bonmarin **459**
Internal Solitary Wave Generation in the Thermocline, H. P. Pao and T. W. Kao **465**
Interferometric Study of Internal Gravity Waves in a Density-stratified Liquid, F. Peters and
W. Merzkirch **471**
Investigation of the Flow to a Point Sink in a Stratified Flow by Holographic Interferometry,
H. Kronewetter and W. V. Meyerinck **477**
Flow Visualization of Underwater Avalanches, H. Honji **483**
Fast Measurements of Fluorescent Tracers in Flows and Their Turbidity, F. Früngel and C. Koch
489

1.11. Multiphase Flow

- Freezing Mechanism in Some Solification Problems, K. C. Cheng and R. R. Gilpin **497**
Transition of Liquid Carbon Dioxide to Gas-Solid Mixture, N. A. Fomin, S. A. Labuda, O. G. Lysenko,
R. I. Soloukhin, and R. J. Emrich **503**
Photographic Determination of Transport Rate Effects in Blowing Sand and Snow, J. D. Iversen
509
Volcanic Lava Flow Visualization by Model Studies of Mauna Loa Volcano, Hawaii, J. Neudecker and
R. Widdicombe **515**
Flow Visualization Combinations at "Institut de Mécanique des Fluides de Toulouse," C. Truchasson
521
In-line Holography for Flow and Cavitation Visualization on Hydrofoils and for Nuclei Measurements,
R. L. van Renesse and J. H. J. van der Meulen **527**
The Investigation of Transport Phenomena by Applied Holography, J. J. Timkó **535**
Laser Method of Particles Distribution Measurements in the Flow of Suspensions, T. A. J. Kowalewski
541
Interaction of a Coal Dust-Bed with Shock-induced Air Stream, C. C. Hwang **547**
Visual Investigation of Coal Dust Streams Behavior in a Model Cyclone Reactor, J. Stašek **553**

1.12. Rheology

- Application of the Elastic Gel Birefringence Method to the Stress Analysis about a Bluff Body in a
Uniform Flow, T. Arai **561**

Anomalous Jet Effects of Polymer Solutions, A. Ouibrahim, P. Galivel, M. Barigah, and D. H. Fruman
567

Flow Visualization of Newtonian and Non-Newtonian Media through Contractions by Photochromic
Dyes, G. Dembek **573**

Visualization of Flow Patterns in Plastic Injection Molds, J. C. Han and W.-J. Yang **579**

1.13. Medical Problems

Visualization of Stationary and Pulsating Flow in Artery Models, D. Liepsch, St. Moravec, and
R. Zimmer **587**

Flow Visualization Studies with Starr-Edwards Heart Valve Prosthesis, V. J. Modi and T. Akutsu
593

The Use of Flow Visualization Techniques in the Design of Blood Pumps, G. Heuser and J. Köhler
599

Streaming Birefringent Flow Qualitative Evaluation of Prosthetic Heart Valves, W. M. Swanson and
R. E. Clark **605**

2. METHODS OF FLOW VISUALIZATION

2.1. Surface Flow

Surface Flow Visualization and Measurement by Oil Film Interferometry, L. H. Tanner **613**

More than Meets the Eye: The Oil Dot Technique, E. Atraghji **619**

Visual Investigation of Formation Process of Oil-Flow Pattern, H. Murai, A. Ihara, and T. Narasaka
629

A Dry-surface Coating Method for Visualization of Separation, W. Z. Sadeh, H. J. Brauer, and
J. R. Durgin **635**

Study of the Wall Streamlines inside an Annular Cavity with Two Rotating Walls, J.-L. Bousgarbies
and A. Renaud **641**

Hydrodynamic Flow Visualization by an Electrochemical Method, M. M. Jaksic and C. W. Tobias
647

A Chemical Method for Flow Visualization and Determination of Local Mass Transfer, V. Kottke
657

Fluorescent Minitufts for Nonintrusive Surface Flow Visualization, J. P. Crowder **663**

Visualization of Pressure Distribution by Applying Moiré Topography to Free-surface Water Table,
K. Yamamoto, A. Nomoto, and H. Yamashita **669**

2.2. Tracers

Ozone Flow Visualization Techniques, R. R. Dickerson and D. H. Stedman **677**

Flow Visualization Using the "Floc" Technique, J. W. Hoyt and J. J. Taylor **683**

Reacting Flow Visualization of a Turbulent Shear Layer and Wake, R. Breidenthal **689**

Air Entrainment for Liquid Flow Visualization, Zhou Shan-Sheng **695**

Three-dimensional Visualization of Flow and Its Application to the Investigation of Turbulent Flow,
K. Ayukawa and M. Kuroiwa **699**

The Effect of a Temperature Gradient at the Visualization of Gas Flow, W. Bez and A. Frohn	705
Relaxation of Small Solid Particles in Shock Tube, G. König and A. Frohn	711

2.3. Optical Methods

Improved Holographic Method for the Measurement of Velocity in Water Flow, M. Yano	719
On the Use of Fabry-Perot-Interferometer for Flow Visualization and Flow Measurement, G. E. A. Meier and M. Willms	725
A New Method to Determine Small Density Gradients, W. Frank	731
Quantitative Experimental Investigation of Three-dimensional Flow Fields around Bodies of Arbitrary Shapes in Supersonic Flow with Optical Methods, G. Schwarz and H. Knauss	737
Holographic Interferometer for Aerodynamic Flow Analysis, J. Surget	743
Color Schlieren Optics—A review of Techniques and Applications, G. S. Settles	749

2.4. Instrumentation

STROBUL, a New Impulse Light Source for Stroboscopic Lighting Flow Visualization, J. Driviere, J.-P. Henry	763
The Repetitively Pulsed Argon Laser and Its Application in a Hypersonic Shock Tunnel, Shu Ji-Zu and Liu Fang	769
Flow Visualization Using a Computerized Data Acquisition System, R. Gallington and G. Sisson	777
Flow Visualization Using Hot-Wire Anemometry, A. R. Perry, J. H. Watmuff, and M. S. Chong	785

Index	791
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GENERAL LECTURES

Optical Methods in Combustion Research

F. J. WEINBERG

Imperial College, London SW 7, England

The presentation is structured around applications to combustion systems rather than reviewing the methods themselves. The special constraints and opportunities which apply to flow visualisation in the vicinity of flames and in flammable mixtures are discussed. Combustion systems are then broadly classified into major categories, in terms of their structure and refractive index fields. The use of optical methods for elucidating the underlying fundamental phenomena, for the measurement of their propagation velocities and for the detailed study of their temperature and velocity fields is illustrated by drawing on an extensive range of examples.

Introduction

Professor Merzkirch, who is himself doing some interesting work in this field, requested particularly that attention should be focused on applications rather than methods. My talk * can therefore in no sense be regarded as a review of optical methods but will concentrate instead on their uses in combustion and the particular constraints and opportunities which arise in the study of flame processes. Since specific systems are mentioned only by way of illustrations, I hope I may be forgiven if I appear to lean too heavily on examples chosen from my own work.

In the present context, the term "optical methods" excludes spectroscopy and all forms of excitation. We shall be confining our attention in the main to

* Because of the necessary restrictions on length, this article is little more than an abstract of the opening address. Space does not permit any of the large number of slides shown to be reproduced here.

methods based on light from external sources interacting with phase objects - i.e. refractive index fields - and small particles. Even so, the number of optical systems, which range from the earliest applications of shadow-graphy to sophisticated laser Doppler anemometry signal processing is so large that it would be perfectly possible to take up all the available space with an incomplete list of references. A short-list of some relevant reviews and texts is appended {1 - 13}.

Constraints and Opportunities

It is of course possible to carry out certain studies relevant to combustion in cold flow models. Methods of this kind also have a venerable history {e.g. see ref.14} but will not be further discussed here because they do not differ in essence from other forms of flow visualisation.

Some constraints become immediately obvious as soon as we consider standard flow visualisation methods {15} in relation to flammable mixtures. Thus methods based on the addition of energy to premixed reactants are likely to result in premature ignition. For example the use of electric sparks for flow tracing will ignite a stoichiometric hydrocarbon air mixture as soon as the energy dissipated approaches 0.2 mJ - and less than $1/10$ of that amount for more vigorous mixtures (e.g. H_2/O_2). These energy levels are sufficient to produce a continuously propagating flame ; much smaller amounts suffice to produce local perturbations. In general, flames are exceedingly sensitive to interference. Probes, for example, should not be used in the vicinity of flame reaction zones because they interact with them thermally, aerodynamically and chemically. Even smokes and fine particles are not above suspicion if they are not used with appropriate precautions. Indeed, smokes which dissociate at a particular temperature (e.g. ammonium chloride) as they approach the flame front have been used to record its instantaneous shape during turbulent fluctuations by photography of scattered light at short exposure times. Flames also interact with small particles by way of thermo-mechanical effects engendered by the steep temperature gradients encountered in combustion zones {16}. It is therefore necessary, when selecting the size of particle tracers for burning velocities within a given range, to take into account the thermo-mechanical error limit in addition to the accelerational lag limit {17}.

In general, flames are characterised by large changes in temperature, composition and velocity occurring over exceedingly small distances - fractions of

millimetres in the case of laminar premixed flames (see below). Hence very small errors in the location of a point measurement can correspond to very large variations in velocity, temperature or composition. The problem is compounded by the difficulty of arranging for even a burner-stabilised flame to be absolutely stationary on that magnitude of distance scale. For example the mapping out of a velocity field, one point at a time, by laser Doppler anemometry can be made all but impossible by quite slow flame fluctuations which cause the point of measurement to move through different parts of the flame structure. This confers advantages on methods such as photographing particle tracks by temporally interrupted illumination, which yield an almost instantaneous record of velocity vectors. Freezing flame movement in such a manner does not omit any essential information as the front is merely drifting along or fluctuating slowly in a quasi steady state. In order to obviate the complementary limitations of velocimetry by laser fringe anemometry and by photographic particle tracking, a family of optical systems has recently been developed [18] which allows both types of measurement to be obtained simultaneously over extended test regions. It uses an array of cylindrical lenses and a simple beam splitter to produce a thin sheet of light from a powerful CW laser which is broken into fine interference fringes in its plane whilst being interrupted at a known frequency by a chopper.

Additional problems can arise in turbulent flames. Thus in laser Doppler anemometry the outer flame can act as a fluctuating convoluted phase object which interacts with the test beams. This has been illustrated experimentally by Hong et al. [19] who recorded an apparent velocity of a particle held stationary at the point of intersection of the two beams within a turbulent flame. There are in fact two effects responsible for such errors, one due to the changing differential phase difference between the two beams, the other due to varying deflections, both of which cause the fringe grid to move in response to the velocity of the boundary. The authors provide a theoretical analysis of these effects and suggest methods of correction, where necessary.

On the asset side, a flame can be regarded as "its own energy source for flow tracing". A few special methods are based on some particular exploitation of the high temperature - e.g. the use of sodium tracers which provide photographable yellow flashes or streaks beyond the flame front. More generally, most of our insight into the basic processes which underlie flame phenomena is due to our ability to visualise, by optical methods the otherwise,

invisible changes in transparent gases which accompany the evolution of heat and combustion products. Here the extremely steep refractive index gradients become our greatest ally. Very often we do not have to use tracers because nature provides its own in the form of pockets of hot product gases or the flame front itself. Only in the related fields of plasma phenomena and shock and detonation waves do the objects of study provide their own phase boundaries. Unlike in these, however, the effects of free electrons and of pressure changes are not important parameters in the refractive index fields associated with the structure of most combustion phenomena. It may be helpful to classify flames into their major categories.

Flame Processes and their Optical Structure

The similarity in appearance of flames disguises some profound differences in mechanism. The major types are the four permutations between initially premixed and initially separate reactants with the two conditions of laminar and turbulent flow. The flames in initially separate reactants occur in the interface between fuel and oxidant. The reactants have to mix by diffusion (laminar or turbulent) before they can react. The mixing process, being much slower than the rate of reaction, therefore controls the whole phenomenon and such flames are accordingly termed "diffusion flames". The flame surface occurs close to the stoichiometric contour and the temperature there approaches the value corresponding to stoichiometric fuel/air ratio. In traversing the flame orthogonally, the refractive index profile therefore moves from its value in the cold oxidant to that in the cold fuel via a steep valley in between. Since the deflection of a light beam parallel to the flame is proportional to the refractive index gradient, there are two positions in the flame giving rise to maximum deflection. These deflections occur in opposite directions - each towards its cold reactant reservoir. Accordingly there are two "schlieren images" (unless the optical system suppresses one) and four positions of maximum marking in shadowgraphy {3}. Although temperature tends to be the dominant variable, refractive index is of course also affected by composition. In the case of diffusion flames it is generally assumed that fractional change in composition corresponds to fractional change in temperature. Such an approximation, which reduces the variation to a single parameter, cannot be absolutely correct since it presupposes a single overall reaction, constant specific heat and diffusion coefficients equal to one another and to thermal diffusivity. However it is often acceptable because of the dominance of thermal effects. In the case of heterogeneous