SEP 1 3 1971

A SMALL, FAST-RESPONSE PROBE

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AD73595

TO MEASURE DENSITY

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A probe to measure the concentration of one component in a binary mixture of gases is described. The probe is simple to construct and quite rugged. It samples from a very small volume, has a fast time response and can very easily detect 1% of helium in nitrogen. The explanation of the principle of operation is a good example of the power of dimensional analysis when applied to what may seem to be quite a complicated and unfamiliar problem. The analysis suggests several experiments which in turn lead to a more detailed understanding of the probe and improvements in its design.

ACCESSION NUMBER)	(THRU)	FOX
PAGES)	(CODE)	DDC
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(Fscuela Tec	nica Superior de Ingenier	os Aeronoticas, Madrid)
	NATIONAL TECHNIC INFORMATION SERV Springfield, Va 22151	CAL Distribution IM.N. A Approved for public roleuse; Distribution Unlimited 19

Nomenclature

	velocity of sound
°p, °v	specific heats
d	hot wire diameter
k	thermal conductivity
Kn _∞	Knudsen number = $(\lambda_{\infty}/d) = (\gamma \pi/2)^{\frac{1}{2}} (M_{\infty}/Re_{\infty})$
м	Mach number
MW	molecular weight
Nuo	Nusselt number = $\frac{\left[q/T_w - T_r\right] d}{k_o}$
P	pressure
Pd	downstream pressure
q	convective heat transfer rate
Q	additional power required to keep wire at T_w when
	probe is placed in a gas
R	gas constant
Rw	hot wire resistance at T_w
Reo	Reynolds number = $\rho_{\infty} u_{\infty} d/\mu_{o}$
T	temperature
T.w	temperature of the wire
Tr	recovery temperature of the wire
u	velocity
U	sampled gas velocity relative to the probe
v	bridge voltage
v _o	bridge voltage for probe in vacuum
α	energy accommodation coefficient
7	specific heat ratio = c_p/c_v

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ρ	density
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 λ molecular mean free path

μ viscosity

Subscripts and Superscripts

- ()₀ stagnation conditions
- $()_{\infty}$ free stream conditions
- ()* sonic conditions

Introduction

This work was stimulated by a need to measure density in a variable density plane turbulent mixing layer between two different gas streams. In our case these gases are usually nitrogen and helium. A small sampling volume, an output independent of the velocity of the fluid relative to the probe, and a response time of milli-seconds or less were essential requirements to be met. As it happened, independently, we arrived at a probe which has some features in common with the "heat flux probe for high temperature gases" of Blackshear and Lingerson⁽¹⁾, and the aspirating probe used by D'Souza, Montealegre and Weinstein⁽²⁾. Figure 1 is an illustration of the success with which the probe to be described meets the above requirements. In a plane turbulent mixing layer between helium and nitrogen streams, measurements of the density were made every one thousandth of an inch across the layer. The probe traversed $l\frac{1}{2}$ " in 3 seconds. All 1500 measurements have been plotted in figure 1. The ripple at each end of the traverse corresponds to changes in the least significant bit of the A/D converter. It is noted that at no point is the recorded density greater than the density of N₂ or less than that of He; such a point would imply a sensitivity to velocity as well as to concentration. (A study of this mixing region is nearing completion and some of the results will be published shortly $^{(8)}$.)

1. Description

The probe is sketched in figure 2. Its construction is simple, particularly with the assistance of a glass-blower. The tip is 2mm glass tubing drawn to a point and then polished to expose a fine hole.

-1-

In our case the effective diameter of this hole is 0.001", determined from the measurements described in section 5. Two holes approximately.010" in diameter and as near as practicable to the tip were made opposite each other in the walls of the tubing with a hot tungsten wire. Bared copper leads were then glued to the outside of the tubing and an unetched Wollaston wire poked through the holes in the tubing walls and soldered at each end to the copper leads. The soldered joints and the holes were then covered with epoxy, care being taken to prevent the epoxy running along the Wollaston wire. When the glue was well cured, nitric acid was sucked into the tube and allowed to etch the wire up to the epoxy and expose the thin (0.0005 in.) platinum wire. The tubing was then slipped into the brass holder and sealed in place with shrinkable tubing.

2. Principle of Operation

The probe is attached to a vacuum pump and the platinum wire maintained at some fixed temperature T_w (i.e., resistance R_w) above its surroundings with the usual feed-back bridge. If the probe is placed in a vacuum some electrical power V_o^2/R_w is required to maintain the wire at the temperature T_w because of heat conduction losses. The additional power $Q = (V^2 - V_o^2)/R_w$ required to keep the wire at this temperature when the probe is placed in a gas (or gas mixture) is then a function of the following variables

-2-

$$Q = f(p_0, \rho_0, T_0, R, C_p, \mu_0, k_0, d, T_w, p_d)$$
(1)

where R is the gas constant, p_d the downstream vacuum pressure, d a characteristic dimension of geometrically similar probes (e.g., wire diameter) and the other symbols have their usual meanings. (The o subscript refers to stagnation conditions in the gas being sampled.) Dimensional analysis then requires that

$$\frac{Q}{kT_od} = f\left(\frac{p_o}{\rho_oRT_o}, \frac{\rho_o\sqrt{RT_od}}{\mu_o}, \frac{\mu_oc_p}{k_o}, \frac{c_p}{R}, \frac{T_w}{T_o}, \frac{p_d}{p_o}\right)$$
(2)

Ideally the parameter p_d/p_o can be made arbitrarily small and negligible with a vacuum pump of sufficient capacity, in which case the output Q depends only on stagnation variables. If the sampled gas moves relative to the probe with a velocity U then, to order $(U/a_o)^2$ (a_o is the stagnation velocity of sound), all of the above parameters have the same value if evaluated at static conditions as they do at stagnation conditions. That is, for the same static temperature in the gas being sampled, the output of the probe depends on the gas and not on the velocity of the gas relative to the probe if $U << a_o$. The experiment described in the following sections makes it possible to state this a little more precisely. It should be noted that for perfect gases having the same Prandtl number (2) may be reduced to

$$\frac{Q}{k(T_w - T_o)d} = f\left(\gamma, \frac{\rho_o a_o d}{\mu_o}, \frac{T_w - T_o}{T_o}\right)$$
(3)

or, if T is constant,

$$\frac{Q}{k(T_w - T_o)d} = f\left(\gamma, \frac{\rho_o a_o d}{\mu_o}\right)$$
(4)

For a given flow at the wire and small values of $(T_w - T_r)/T_r$ (where T_r is the recovery temperature of the unheated wire) one expects the equation for the additional temperature field (due to the heating of the wire) to be linear, that is for Q to be proportional to $(T_w - T_r)$. Since the recovery temperature is very nearly the stagnation temperature for circular cylinders, over a very large Reynolds number and Mach number range (Baldwin, Sandborn, Laurence⁽³⁾), T_r is approximately T_o (assuming adiabatic flow up to the wire) so that one expects equation (4) to apply even if there are small variations in T_o .

3. Calibration Experiment

The probe was placed in various gases and gas mixtures contained in a 500 cubic inch volume.

In the case of mixtures, the order in which the gases were added was varied and measurements recorded when the results were independent of this order. The volume was filled to about 105 p. s. i. a. and then bled slowly, measurements being made at various pressures down to 1/2 p. s. i. a. During this process, the temperature of the gas mixture in the volume did not differ perceptibly from room temperature. It is worth noting that at any one pressure the voltmeter reading was steady within about 1 milli-volt (cf. fig. 3). A cross plot of bridge output in volts against molar concentration of helium in nitrogen for various pressures is shown in figure 3.

- 4-

4. Accommodation Effects

While the calibration curves (fig. 3) were sufficient for using the probe to measure concentration, they defied correlation in terms of equation (4) and we were prompted to look particularly at gases having the same γ .

Again, by varying the pressure in the volume, results for He, Ar, and Kr were obtained (fig. 4). It is clear from this figure that equation (4) does not correlate the measurements and it is shown in section 6 that the parameter p_d/p_0 , assumed insignificant, was sufficiently small for its variation to be unimportant. Evidently variables which are significant have been ignored in the dimensional analysis, Those most likely overlooked would seem to be those needed to describe accommodation effects at the wire surface, particularly the properties of the surface itself since the atomic cross-section of the gas (and therefore the Knudsen number) is not an independent variable but is determined by ρ_0 , a_0 and μ_0 . Such effects have been observed previously with hot wires in helium (Aihara, Kassoy, Libby⁽⁴⁾).

If the energy accommodation coefficient at the wire surface is a, then it is expected that a plot of $Nu_0/a^{(5)}$ against $\rho_{0a} d/\mu_0$ should correlate the data. Values of a were chosen to give the best collapse of the data for argon and helium (shaded points in figure 4) onto the data for krypton. In effect, this meant choosing a ratio for the accommodation coefficients of helium and krypton and a ratio for those of argon and krypton. These ratios are 0.43 for helium and 0.87 for argon. The absolute value of a for krypton is expected to be near unity. Although the accommodation coefficients of inert gases

-5-

depend strongly on surface conditions⁽⁶⁾ and surface temperature these values for the ratios are not atypical.

5. Mass Flow in the Probe

The Reynolds number at the orifice, assuming sonic conditions, is quite large (150 to 3000) but downstream of the tip as the crosssectional area increases it becomes correspondingly much smaller and it is perhaps not obvious that the flow is in fact choked at the tip. The following experiment answered this question and also led to conclusions about the flow conditions at the wire.

A volume was filled with gas to 105 p. s. i. a. and then bled through the probe orifice to approximately 40 p. s. i. a. The temperature in the volume remained essentially constant. Measurements were made of the decay in gas pressure as a function of time and the results for argon and helium are plotted in figure 5. Evidently the rate of pressure decay is directly proportional to gas pressure (i. e., pressure is an exponential function of time) down to pressures in helium of, say, 25 p. s. i. g. Above this pressure the mass flow rate (proportional to dp/dt for constant temperature in the volume) is therefore proportional to gas density and in fact the ratio of the proportionality constant for these two gases is the same as the ratio of their sound velocities. Assuming choked conditions the calculated effective orifice diameter (. 0011") was as near the physical diameter as we could determine with a microscope. The flow was therefore choked at the tip and the mass flow rate independent of viscosity for throat Reynolds numbers greater than, say, 300.

-6-

6. Flow Conditions at the Wire

While it is not required for using the calibrated probe, it is of interest to try to understand flow conditions at the wire. This is not simple to determine theoretically; although viscosity has no effect on the mass flow, it will have a considerable effect on the flow up to the wire, which is in a section of the channel of much larger area. There exists the possibility of expansion to supersonic velocities, the existence of diffuser shock waves, the possibility of reaching rarefied flow conditions, etc., all of these dependent on area ratio, pressure ratio and effects of viscosity.

Knowing the mass flow, the heat transfer rate and wire temperature, we can estimate a Nusselt number by assuming an effective length for the wire and a wire Reynolds number $(\frac{\rho u d}{\mu_0})$ by assuming this length is the effective diameter of the mass flow. Given a plot of Nu against Re for various Mach numbers (Refs. 7 and 3), an iteration leads to an estimate of the Mach number. For the probe described above this was found to be a low value, about 0.1 with Reynolds number varying with pressure from about 1.0 to 10. In this range, the slope of the Nu-Re curve on a log-log plot is closer to 1/2 than 1, as indeed we observe (fig. 4).

That the flow at the wire was evidently subsonic raised the question of whether or not the output of the wire was independent of the vacuum pump and plumbing (expressed simply by the parameter p_d/p_o). The iteration described leads to an estimate for the pressure at the wire, namely 50 mm Hg, typically. The measured pressure at the pump in this case was 15 µHg which agreed well with the

manufacturer's claim of 20 μ Hg for the measured mass flow. Changing the pressure at the pump from 15 μ Hg to 3.5 mmHg produced no change in probe output. It appears then that from the tip to the pump there may be a number of sonic throats before which there is viscous compressible flow and an acceleration from subsonic to sonic velocity. This conclusion was further supported by measurements of the pressure downstream of the wire (pressure typically 1 mm Hg). The ratio of this pressure to the stagnation pressure was the same for the same throat Reynolds number in helium and argon (quite different stagnation pressures), as dimensional analysis demands if p_d/p_o is negligible.

The estimated Knudsen number at the wire is less than 0.1. It is interesting that accommodation effects occur even at these low values, as has indeed been observed by other investigators.

7. Sensitivity to Velocity

To test the probe sensitivity to velocity we placed it in a uniform stream of helium at three different velocities (270 cm/sec, 1000 cm/sec and 1770 cm/sec). The output was unaffected by velocity; the relative error in bridge output voltage was smaller than $\frac{1}{2}$ % at the highest velocity.

With the information that we have, one can estimate the error made if one determines the concentration of a moving gas with a probe that has been calibrated in stationary mixtures, the static temperatures being the same in both cases. If the Mach number of the moving gas (i. e., U/a) is M then the relative error in the determined apparent

-8-

molecular weight MW is, roughly, for small Mach number

$$\frac{\Delta(MW)}{MW} \simeq \left(\frac{T_o}{T_w^{-T_o}} - 2\right) M^2$$
(5)

or less, if γ and a vary with concentration.

8. Time Response

As the distance from the orifice in the tip to the wire is small and the gas velocity is of the order of the speed of sound, a time response of microseconds might be expected, unless the size of the hot wire and the electronics limit it to a longer time.

A new probe with a smaller wire diameter (. 0001") and a less rapid area expansion (based on the findings in section 6) was constructed and placed in the end wall of a shock tube. The gas in the tube was nitrogen, initially at atmospheric pressure. A shock wave passing by the probe produced an instantaneous change in the stagnation conditions of the sampled gas and the corresponding change in probe output was photographed, (fig. 6), (time scale = 100 microseconds/cm, vertical scale = 0.05 volts/cm). The response time is evidently about 200 microseconds. The experiment was repeated using helium instead of nitrogen and, as expected, the rise time was faster.

It is noted that a much longer time response is associated with the warming up of the glass.

-9-

Acknowledgements

The authors gratefully acknowledge many profitable discussions with Dr. A. Roshko and Dr. J. E. Broadwell. We are indebted to the Department of the Navy, Office of Naval Research, who supported this work.

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Figures

- Figure 1. Density traverse across shear layer
- Figure 2. Sketch of the probe

Figure 3. Bridge voltage vs. concentration of He in N₂

Figure 4.
$$\left(\frac{Q}{k_{o}\Delta T}\right)$$
 cm vs. $(\rho_{o}a_{o}/\mu_{o})$ cm⁻¹

- Figure 5. Pressure vs. time for Ar and He
- Figure 6. Rise time output: Oscilloscope photo of response of probe to passage of shock wave. Horizontal scale: 100 µsec/div Vertical scale: 0.05 volts/div









