

#### Advanced Experimental Methods : Fluid

# Velocimetry

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# Why measuring the velocity?

Reveal "structures" in the flow.

- $R = 3^{2}$   $R = 3^{2}$   $R = 3^{2}$   $R = 5^{2}$   $R = 10^{2}$   $R = 10^{2}$
- Solution of the Navier-Stokes equations.

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## How to measure the velocity?

• Concept of *fluid particle*.

• Seeding :

Ink

Bubles or smokes

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# Different techniques of velocimetry

	Ditat tuba	Hot wire	Laser Doppler	Particle Image	
	Filot tube	anemometry	Velocimetry	Velocimetry	
		(HWA)	(LDV)	(PIV)	
Scheme	U $r_0 P_1$			Laser Camera	
Principle	Bernoulli's equation ba- sed on the static and dy- namic pressures $U = \sqrt{2(p_T - p_s)/\rho}$	based on the power dissipated $RI^2$ by a heated wire	Interferometric measure of the Doppler shift on a scattering particle	Correlation between two images of seeding par- ticles	
Advantages	Simple to implement. Cheap $(\mathcal{O}(1  \text{ke}))$ . Ideal for mean velocity profiles.	Excellent spatial & temporal resolutions. Rather simple to implement. Reasonably expensive $(\mathcal{O}(3-5k\in))$	Non intrusive. Linear calibration. Very good spatial & temporal resolutions. Possibility for more than one velocity component.	Non intrusive. Instantaneous 2D field.	
Drawbacks	Very intrusive. Weak spatial & tempo- ral resolution	Intrusive. Fragile. Non-linear calibration. Contaminations (tempe- rature fluctuations)	Optical access and transparent fluid. Seeding particles. Fine adjustments. Expensive $\mathcal{O}(10\text{-}50\mathrm{k}\oplus)$ .	Optical access and transparent fluid. Seeding particles. Weak temporal resolu- tion (standard PIV). Very expensive $O(50-100 \text{ ke})$ .	

# Outline

#### Introduction

#### Hot wire anemometry

Principle CCA and CTA Limitations

#### Laser Doppler Anemometry : the fringe model

Principle About light Measurement volume

#### Laser Doppler Anemometry : the Doppler effect

Seeding particles Refinements LDV signal analysis

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#### Hot wire anemometry

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# Hot wire anemometry : how does it look like?



platinium or tungstene thin wire (few microns thick, few mm long) welded to the prongs of the probe support

# Range of devices



"lab" model (instantaneous velocity)



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# Hot wire anemometry : how does it work?



- Heat is generated when a current passes through the wire, balanced by heat loss (primarily convective) to the surroundings in equilibrium.
- If velocity changes, convective heat transfer coefficient will change, wire temperature will change and eventually reach a new equilibrium.

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# Governing Equations

If E is the thermal energy stored in the wire

$$\frac{dE}{dt} = \dot{W} - \dot{Q}$$

- $\dot{W} = R_w I^2$  is the power generated by Joule heating,
- $-\dot{Q}$  the heat transferred to surroundings via
  - $\rightarrow$  Convection to the fluid :

$$\dot{Q}_{cnv} = h\mathcal{A}(T_w - T_0) = \pi \ell k_f N u (T_w - T_0)$$

with  $Nu = h\phi/k_f$  the Nusselt number,  $\phi$  the wire diameter,  $A = 2\pi \ell(\phi/2)$  the wire area,

h heat transfer coefficient,

 $k_f$  heat conductivity of the fluid

- $\rightarrow$  Conduction to the fluid and to supports;
- $\rightarrow$  Radiation to surroundings :

$$\dot{Q}_{rad} = \sigma \mathcal{A}(T_w^4 - T_0^4),$$

with the Stefan constant  $\sigma = 5.7 \times 10^{-8} \, \mathrm{W} \cdot \mathrm{m}^{-2} \cdot \mathrm{K}^{-4}$ 

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# The King's law

The Nusselt number is function of many parameters

$$Nu = f(Re_w; Pr, Ma, \ell/\phi, R_w/R_0)$$

where  $Re_w = U\phi/\nu_f$  is the Reynolds number associated with the wire diameter and U the velocity a few  $\phi$  upstream of the wire,  $\nu_f$  the fluid viscosity at  $T_f = (T_w + T_0)/2$ .

In a regime of forced convection where  $Pr = \nu/\kappa \approx 1$ ,  $\ell/d \gg 1$ , the **King's law** (1914) for an apparent potential stationary 2D flow reads

 $Nu = 1 + \sqrt{2\pi Re_w}.$ 

The law in  $Re_w^{1/2}$  is typical of heat transfers in laminar flows!

Stationarity is satisfied if the time scale of the turbulent fluctuations  $\tau \ll \phi/U$ , where the time of advection along the wire  $\phi/U \approx 0.5 \,\mu s$  ( $U/\phi \approx 2 \,\text{MHz}$ ).

In practice,

$$Nu = a_0(Pr, Ma, \ell/d, \ldots) + b_0(Pr, Ma, \ell/d, \ldots)\sqrt{Re_w}$$

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#### Probe resistance

The wire resistance  $R_w$  changes with  $T_w$ .

$$R_w = R_0 \left( 1 + \beta (T_w - T_0) \right)$$

where

$$\beta = \frac{1}{R_w} \frac{\partial R_w}{\partial T}$$

is reasonably constant over a large range of T.

For Pt or tungstene, 
$$\beta \approx 5 \times 10^{-3} \,\mathrm{K}^{-1}$$
.

The King's law becomes

$$\frac{R_w I^2}{R_w - R_0} = a + b\sqrt{U}.$$

i.e., with  $e = R_w I$ 

$$\frac{e^2}{R_w(R_w-R_0)}=a+b\sqrt{U}.$$

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#### Two strategies

— Keep the current I constant and measure U through the fluctuations of  $R_w$  only

Constant Current Anemometer (CCA) : today obsolete.

— Keep the resistance  $R_w$  constant, and thus the wire temperature  $T_w$  constant, and measure U through the fluctuations of I

Constant Temperature Anemometer (CTA).

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# Constant Current Anemometer (CCA)



The bridge is initially balanced ( $\delta e = 0$  when U = 0), unbalanced when  $R_w$  varies because of the flow, with  $I_O$  constant

$$\delta e = (R_w - R_{eq})I = I\delta R_w, \qquad E_s = G\delta e, \qquad G \approx 10^3$$

Drawback : frequency range limited to  $\approx$  700 Hz as the time scale to thermal equilibrium due to  $T_w$  variations should be much shorter than the time scales of the flow fluctuations.

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# Constant Temperature Anemometer (CTA)



The bridge is initially unbalanced  $(R_{eq} \neq R_w)$  with an **overheat coefficient** 

 $\alpha = R_w/R_{eq} > 1$ 

 $R_w$  is kept constant at  $T_w = T_0 + (\alpha - 1)/\beta$  through a negative feedback loop ( $E_s = -\delta e$ ), where

$$\delta e = \sqrt{R_w(R_w - R_0)(a + b\sqrt{U})}$$

$$E_s=\sqrt{A+B\sqrt{U}}.$$

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#### Calibration

The King's law is non-linear, which requires a careful calibration of the probe



A modified King's law is usually better suited

$$E_s^2(U) = A + BU^n$$

with n usually between 0.4 and 0.6. The coefficients are determined as

$$A=E_s^2(0)$$

$$n \log U + \log B = \log(E_s^2(U) - A)$$

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# Empirical relation

Collis & Williams (1959)'s empirical relation

 $\begin{array}{ll} n = 0.45 & \mbox{for} & 0.02 < Re_w < 44, \\ n = 0.51 & \mbox{for} & 44 < Re_w < 140. \end{array}$ 

Why so?

The wire can be seen as a cylinder in a cross-flow

- $Re_w < 44$ , the wake is steady and symmetric.
- $Re_w > 44$ , the wake becomes non-symmetric and unsteady with the cyclic release of vortices : heat transfers are enhanced.
- $Re_w > 140$ , the wake becomes disordered, heat transfers become even better.

# Frequency response



The bandwidth is defined as the inverse of the time at which the signal amplitude is damped by  $-3 \, dB$ ,

$$f_c = 1/1.3\tau$$

 $\begin{array}{ll} \mathsf{CCA} &\approx \mathsf{700}\,\mathsf{Hz} \\ \mathsf{CTA} &\approx 1\,\mathsf{MHz} \\ & \mathsf{reduced to 10-100\,\mathsf{kHz} \,\mathsf{by}} \\ & \mathsf{the spatial resolution}\,\,(\ell) \end{array}$ 





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too high gain

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## Finite length effect

Conduction by support  $\Rightarrow$  non-uniform temperature distribution along the wire



A usual compromise is  $\ell \approx 1 \text{ mm}, \phi \approx 5 \mu \text{m}$ 

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# Directional sensitivity



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# Different probes



- X Anemometers : two (or more) crossed anemometers to measure two (or more) velocity components (a,c,e)
- Anemometers with cold probe to compensate temperature fluctuations in the flow (d)
- Hot film anemometers with nickel coating on a quartz support (f).

# Hot wire anemometry : main features

- Time-resolved "point" measurement (0D).
- Intrusive and fragile.
- Mainstream flow.
- Non-linear law in the convective regime (modified King's law) :

$$E_s^2(U) = A + BU^n$$

• Directional ambiguity.

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# Laser Doppler Velocimetry



Inventeurs : Yeh & Cummins (1964)

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# Laser Doppler Velocimetry / hot wire comparison

Hot wire	LDV
0D	0D
Time-resolved	Time-resolved
Intrusive	Non-intrusive
Fragile	Robust
Non-linear law	Linear law
Directional ambiguity	Directional ambiguity manageable
Reasonably expensive	Expensive

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# Laser Doppler Anemometry : the fringe model

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# Principle





# Transmitting optics



# Measurement line



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# Detection system



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# Why a laser?

- Monochromatic
- Coherent
- Linearly polarised
- Collimated
- Gaussian intensity distribution

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## Some usual laser

• Argon laser

Continuous power; one of the four green-blue colors can be used : 514.5 nm, 496.5 nm, 488.0 nm 476.5 nm

• Helium laser

Continuous He laser emitting in the red at 632.8 nm.

• YAG Laser

Pulse emission in the infrared, providing, after doubling the frequency, a wavelength at 532 nm.

LASER	$\lambda$	color	power	diameter
	(nm)		(mW)	(mm)
He-Ne (gas)	632.8	red	1-15	0.65
	476.5	violet	1-600	1.5
Ar <sup>2+</sup> (gas)	488	blue	1-1500	1.5
	514.5	green	1-2000	1.5
doubled YAG (solid)	532	green	20-2000	1

#### The electro-magnetic vibration



$$\boldsymbol{E}(\boldsymbol{r},t) = \boldsymbol{p} \boldsymbol{E}_0 \cos\left(\omega t - \boldsymbol{k} \cdot \boldsymbol{r} + \varphi\right) \equiv \boldsymbol{p} \, \Re\left(\boldsymbol{E}_0 e^{i(\omega t - \boldsymbol{k} \cdot \boldsymbol{r})}\right)$$

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#### One spectrum, many colors



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#### Why does light interfere?

Both vibrations sum up, intensity is measured

$$I(\mathbf{r},t) = |\mathbf{E}_{1}(\mathbf{r},t) + \mathbf{E}_{2}(\mathbf{r},t)|^{2} = |E_{1}\mathbf{p}_{1}\cos(\omega_{1}t - \mathbf{k}_{1}\cdot\mathbf{r}) + E_{2}\mathbf{p}_{2}\cos(\omega_{2}t - \mathbf{k}_{2}\cdot\mathbf{r})|^{2}$$

If  $\omega_1 = \omega_2$  then  $k_1 = k_2$  but  $k_1 \neq k_2$ 

$$I(\mathbf{r}, t) = E_1^2 \cos^2(\omega t - \mathbf{k}_1 \cdot \mathbf{r}) + E_2^2 \cos^2(\omega t - \mathbf{k}_2 \cdot \mathbf{r}) + E_1 E_2 \mathbf{p}_1 \cdot \mathbf{p}_2 (\cos((\mathbf{k}_2 - \mathbf{k}_1) \cdot \mathbf{r}) + \cos(2\omega t - (\mathbf{k}_2 + \mathbf{k}_1) \cdot \mathbf{r}))$$

At the scale of the sensor time response au

$$\langle I(\mathbf{r},t) \rangle_{\tau} = I_0 + \gamma \underbrace{\cos\left((\mathbf{k}_2 - \mathbf{k}_1) \cdot \mathbf{r}\right)}_{\tau}$$

interference network

Spatially structured, independent of time.  $\gamma$  max when  $p_1 = \pm p_2$ 

# Interfringe of the interference network $\langle I(\mathbf{r}, t) \rangle_{\tau} = I_0 + \gamma \cos((\mathbf{k}_2 - \mathbf{k}_1) \cdot \mathbf{r})$





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Exercise : determine the interfringe d.

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#### Interfringe of the interference network $\langle I(\mathbf{r}, t) \rangle_{\tau} = I_0 + \gamma \cos((\mathbf{k}_2 - \mathbf{k}_1) \cdot \mathbf{r})$





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Exercise : determine the interfringe d.

$$(\mathbf{k}_2 - \mathbf{k}_1) \cdot \mathbf{r} = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} (\mathbf{e}_2 - \mathbf{e}_1) \cdot \mathbf{r} = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} 2x \sin\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right) \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad 2\pi = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} 2d \sin\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right)$$
$$d = \frac{\lambda}{2\sin\frac{\alpha}{2}}$$

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## What do we measure?

Seeding particles pass through the fringes with velocity  $\boldsymbol{v}$ .





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The light scattered by the seeding particles is modulated in time with period

$$T_D = rac{d}{m{v} \cdot m{e}_x}$$

or frequency

$$f_D = rac{2V_x}{\lambda}\sinrac{lpha}{2}.$$

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# The measurement point in fact is a volume



Limit of diffraction of a gaussian beam



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# Characteristics of the measurement volume



Volume dimensions

$$\delta_z = \frac{4f\lambda}{\pi D_L \sin \frac{\alpha}{2}}, \qquad \delta_y = \frac{4f\lambda}{\pi D_L}, \qquad \delta_x = \frac{4f\lambda}{\pi D_L \cos \frac{\alpha}{2}}$$

Interfringe

$$d = rac{\lambda}{2\sinrac{lpha}{2}}$$

Number of fringes

$$N = \frac{8f \tan \frac{\alpha}{2}}{\pi D_L}$$

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#### Residing time in the measurement volume

$$\Delta t = rac{\delta_x}{V_x} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad f_s = 1/\Delta t$$

 $V_x$  particle velocity and  $\delta_x$  measurement volume dimension along x. For  $V_x$  fixed, the sampling frequency  $f_s$  is increased when  $\delta_x$  is decreased

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#### Laser Doppler Anemometry : the Doppler effect

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# With a single beam...

... it would also works!

What is the Doppler effect?



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# Doppler effect

• Still source, moving particle (observer)



$$\Rightarrow \quad T'\left(1-\frac{\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{e}}{c}\right)=T \quad \text{and} \quad f'=\left(1-\frac{\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{e}}{c}\right)f$$

• Moving source (particle), still receptor



# The Doppler shift

Emission/reception relation

$$f'' = \left(1 - \frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{e}}{c}\right) \left(1 + \frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{e}'}{c}\right) f$$

Doppler shift

$$f_D = f'' - f \simeq f \frac{\mathbf{v}}{c} \cdot (\mathbf{e}' - \mathbf{e}) \quad \text{if} \quad \frac{\mathbf{v}}{c} \ll 1$$

#### Estimate the value of $f_D$

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## The Doppler shift

Emission/reception relation

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#### Estimate the value of $f_D$

$$f\sim 10^{14}~\text{Hz}, \qquad f_D\sim 10^6-10^7~\text{Hz}$$

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## The Doppler shift

Emission/reception relation

$$f'' = \left(1 - \frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{e}}{c}\right) \left(1 + \frac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{e}'}{c}\right) f$$

Doppler shift

$$f_D = f'' - f \simeq f \frac{\mathbf{v}}{c} \cdot (\mathbf{e}' - \mathbf{e}) \quad \text{if} \quad \frac{\mathbf{v}}{c} \ll 1$$

#### Estimate the value of $f_D$

$$f \sim 10^{14}~\text{Hz}, \qquad f_D \sim 10^6 - 10^7~\text{Hz}$$

- $\Rightarrow\,$  a direct measurement of  $f^{\prime\prime}$  would require a device of resolution  $10^{-8}$  for a precision of only 10%.
- $\Rightarrow$  a direct measurement of  $f_D$  is preferred with a interference system.

# Doppler shift on crossed beams



$$\begin{aligned} f_1 &\simeq f\left(1-\frac{\pmb{v}}{c}\cdot(\pmb{e}_1-\pmb{e}')\right) \\ f_2 &\simeq f\left(1-\frac{\pmb{v}}{c}\cdot(\pmb{e}_2-\pmb{e}')\right) \end{aligned}$$

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#### Recombination of crossed beams

Intensity at the sensor :  $I(t) = |\boldsymbol{E}_1(t) + \boldsymbol{E}_2(t)|^2$ 

Detected intensity : 
$$i(\tau) = \langle I(t) \rangle_{\tau} = \frac{E_1^2}{2} + \frac{E_2^2}{2} + E_1 E_2 \cos((\omega_1 - \omega_2)\tau)$$
  
Doppler shift :

$$\omega_1 - \omega_2 = 2\pi (f_1 - f_2) = 2\pi f\left(\frac{\mathbf{v}}{c} \cdot (\mathbf{e}_2 - \mathbf{e}_1)\right) = 2\pi \frac{f}{c}\left(2V_x \sin\frac{\alpha}{2}\right) = 2\pi f_D$$
$$\Rightarrow \quad f_D = f_1 - f_2 = f\left(\frac{\mathbf{v}}{c} \cdot (\mathbf{e}_2 - \mathbf{e}_1)\right)$$

- one component detected :  $\frac{\mathbf{v}}{c} \cdot (\mathbf{e}_2 \mathbf{e}_1) = \frac{V_x}{c} 2 \sin \frac{\alpha}{2}$
- no Doppler shift if **v** has no component along x
- measurement independent of the direction of detection  $oldsymbol{e}'$

# Seeding particles

#### For liquids

State	Material	Mean diameter ( $\mu$ m)
Solid	polystyrene	10-100
	Aluminium	2-7
	hollow glass sphere	10-100
	granules for synthetic coating	10-500
Liquid	oils	50-500
Gas	bubles of $O_2$ , $H_2$ , etc	50-1000

#### For gas

State	Material	Mean diameter ( $\mu$ m)
Solid	polystyrène	0.5-10
	Aluminium	2-7
	Magnesium	2-5
	synthetic granules	1-10
	glass microbeads	30-100
Liquid	oils	0.5-10
	dioctylphathalate	< 1

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#### Particle dynamics in the flow

Diluted spherical particles (negligible effect on the flow)

$$\frac{\frac{\pi}{6}\phi^{3}\rho_{p}\frac{d_{p}}{dt}\mathbf{v}_{p}}{\underset{\text{inertial force}}{\underbrace{=}}=\underbrace{-3\pi\mu\phi(\mathbf{v}_{p}-\mathbf{v}_{f})}_{\text{Stokes force}}-\frac{\pi\phi^{3}}{6}\underbrace{\nabla P}_{\rho\frac{d\mathbf{v}_{f}}{dt}}$$
$$-\underbrace{\frac{1}{2}\frac{\pi}{6}\phi^{3}\rho_{f}\left(\frac{d\mathbf{v}_{f}}{dt}-\frac{d_{p}\mathbf{v}_{p}}{dt}\right)}_{\text{fluid resistance to sphere acceleration}}$$
$$+\underbrace{\frac{3}{2}\phi^{2}\sqrt{\pi\rho_{f}\mu}\int_{0}^{t}\frac{1}{\sqrt{t-t'}}\left(\frac{d\mathbf{v}_{f}}{dt}-\frac{d_{p}\mathbf{v}_{p}}{dt}\right)}_{\mathbf{v}_{f}}dt'+\mathbf{f}_{ext}}$$

drag force due to an unsteady flow

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# Dynamics of relaxation

$$\frac{d_p}{dt} \boldsymbol{v}_p = 18 \frac{\mu}{\phi^2 \rho_p} (\boldsymbol{v}_f - \boldsymbol{v}_p)$$

$$\mathbf{v}_{p} = \mathbf{v}_{f} \left( 1 - e^{-t/\tau_{p}} \right) \qquad \text{with} \qquad \tau_{p} = rac{
ho_{p}\phi^{2}}{18\mu}$$

Particle	Fluid	Diameter (µm)	
			10 kHz
Silicone oil	atmospheric air	2.8	0.8
TiO <sub>2</sub>	atmospheric air	1.3	0.4
MgO	methane-air flame	2.6	0.8
	(1800 K)		
TiO <sub>2</sub>	oxygen plasma	3.2	0.8
	(2800 K)		



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# Regimes of diffusion



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# Light diffusion by the particles



 $\rm FIGURE$  – Polar representation of diffracted light intensity (on a logarithmic scale)  $\it vs$  angle of diffraction.

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# Forward and backward diffusion



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#### Backscatter configuration



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# Reference beam mounting



- Historically first operating mode
- Doppler frequency extracted by optical heterodyne detection
- Photodetector must be aligned with the reference beam
- Only detect a small amount of diffused light (the fringe setup allows to collect diffused light with a wide solid angle)
- Requires high concentrations of diffused light
- Backscattering not allowed

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# Bragg cell

Problem

- particles moving at the same velocity in two opposite directions will produce the same frequency shift !
- Motionless particules are not detected.

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# Bragg cell

Problem

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Solution

- Scrolling fringes thanks to the Bragg cell (acousto-optical modulator)
- Shift frequencies of the order of 40 MHz





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- When  $V_x = 0$ ,  $f_D = \Delta f \neq 0$
- Negative velocities  $\rightarrow f_D < \Delta f$
- Positive velocities  $\rightarrow f_D > \Delta f$

The interference fringes scroll with the velocity

$$U_f = d\Delta f$$

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# Two-component LDV



(laser Ar++,  $\lambda = 488$  nm et 514,5 nm)

# Three-component LDV



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# Compact probes

Fiber Flow probes (60 & 85 mm)



Small integrated 3D FiberFlow probe



# Signal example



- $\phi$  sufficiently large to increase the scattered light intensity
- targeted if possible in the direction of a diffraction lobe
- $\phi \gg d \Rightarrow$  no optical contrast

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# Sources of noise

- Detection noise.
- Electronic and thermal noises of the pre-amplifying line.
- High order laser modes (optical noise).
- Diffused light out of the control volume, dirts, damaged window, ambient light, multiple particles, etc.
- Stray reflections (windows, lens, mirors, etc).

 $\rightarrow\,$  Laser power selection, seeding, optical parameters, etc, in order to optimise the signal over noise ratio.

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# Fourier analysis



$$\begin{split} I(t) &= a \left( 1 + \sin(2\pi f_D t) \right) \cdot G(t) \\ &\downarrow \\ |\hat{I}(f)| &= a \hat{G}(f) + a \, \delta(f - f_D) \star \hat{G}(f) \end{split}$$

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# Electronic of detection



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# LDV main features

- Time-resolved point measurement
- The point measurement is a small ellipsoid (spatial coarsening)
- Non-uniform sampling frequency
- The flow must be seeded
- Linear law
- Expensive

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