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# The Comparison of Air Flow LDA Measurement in Simple Cylindical and Cylindrical Tube with Flat External Wall 


#### Abstract

The application of 2D laser Doppler anemometry systems is considered, in the case of fluid flow confined in simple cylindrical and in cylindrical tube with flat external surface of the wall. Geometric optics laws are applied to the central lines of laser beams. Measurement volume dislocations, calibration angles and distances of measurement volume centre from the photo-detector field of view centre are expressed. The expressions derived in this paper were applied to specific turbulent swirl flow in pipe. That revealed several advantages of use of a simple cylindrical tube over nowadays favored use of cylindrical tube with flat external surface. Those results suggest that current avoiding of laser Doppler anemometry measurements with simple cylindrical tubes should be reconsidered.


Keywords: laser Doppler anemometry, Snell`s law, measurement volume dislocation, decalibration

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Fluid flow researchers warmly welcomed laser Doppler anemometry (LDA) as nonintrusive and absolute velocity measurement technique (requires no calibration) that has high temporal resolution, providing enough data to generate reliable statistics for local turbulences. Its development towards two and three velocity component measurements promised even better view of complex flows. All those benefits are thoroughly verified in the case of open fluid flows. Confined flows, however, apart from requiring transparent sections of vessels and tubes, suffered the refraction of both laser beams that produce measurement volume and scattered light that provides the velocity data. Any type of transparent wall, even the plan-parallel one, might generate some unwanted phenomena that must be taken into account: measurement volume dislocation, decalibration of a system, digression of measurement volumes for different velocity components (astigmatism), interference fringe distortion due to beam waist dislocation, etc. The degree of those unwanted phenomena depends on experimental settings and especially on its geometry.

As for cylindrical tube flows, among the first analytical approaches is one of Gardavsky et al. [1] that suggested the method of calculating the position of measurement volume and calibration angle along the diameter that overlaps the LDA system axis. Later, in order to minimize the wall curvature effects, flat external wall surfaces were applied [2-4]. Most of them considered liquid flows. More recently Zhang et al. performed several thorough analyses of the water flow within the tube of cylindrical internal and flat external wall [5,6]. Our attempts of experiments with LDA

Received: June 2012, Accepted: July 2013
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application in air flows in simple cylindrical and in tube with cylindrical internal and flat external wall showed the severe problems, especially in the second configuration. That incited the detailed analysis exposed in this paper.

The propagation of LDA incident laser beams and scattered light, in the case of a simple cylindrical tube, are analysed by means of geometric optics in Section 2. The same but in a tube with cylindrical internal and flat external wall is analysed in Section 3. The intention is to measure the flow velocities along the diameter of a tube cross-section parallel to the lens, using two component LDA system.

Theoretical analysis of this paper explains how to find: 1. the dislocation of measurement volume in $x$ and y direction $\Delta \mathrm{x}$ and $\Delta \mathrm{y}$, respectively, as well as the resultant calibration angle in the measurement of radial (Sections 2.1 and 3.1), and axial (Sections 2.2 and 3.2) velocity components; 2 . how far the measurement volume centre is from the centre of the field of view of the photo-detector of the LDA system, placed in the centre of the lens (the beginnings of Sections 2 and 3).

Optical aberrations, beam waist dislocations and fringe distortions were not taken into account and will be subject of further research. Still, the results of calculations according to the theory exposed in Sections 2 and 3 show several advantages of the use of simple cylindrical tubes over the use of flat external wall tube in the case of air flow (Section 4).

## 2. THE ANALYSIS IN A CASE OF A SIMPLE CYLINDRICAL TUBE

In turbulent swirl flow experiment that is the subject of this paper, the system enables only vertical traversing of a probe i.e. along the $y$ axis (Fig. 1). There are two pairs of laser beams: one pair with vertical intersecting angle of $2 \theta$ (thick gray intersecting lines), measuring radial (vertical) velocity component $\vec{v}$; and another pair with horizontal intersecting angle of $2 \theta$, too (thick gray dashed intersecting lines), that measures axial
(horizontal) velocity component $\vec{u}$. The beam separation of both pairs of beams at lens is $d$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
d=2 f \tan \theta \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $f$ is the focal length of the lens.


Figure 1. The definition of the geometry of a system with simple cylindrical tube

If there had not been a tube wall, the measurement volume would have been at focal length f distance from the lens (Fig. 1). However, due to refraction of laser beams on a tube wall, the dislocation of beam intersection point, i.e. measurement volume, appears.

It is supposed that the perfect transparent cylindrical tube, of internal radius $R_{\mathrm{i}}$ and external radius $R_{\mathrm{e}}$, is horizontal, while lens is traversing in vertical direction. The lens position is defined by $h$ which is the height of the lens centre with respect to the height of the centre of the tube cross-section (Fig. 1). The distance between the lens and the vertical diameter of the tube cross-section is supposed to be constant and equals the focal length $f$. Refraction indices of a fluid within a tube, tube glass, and external fluid are $n_{\mathrm{f}}, n_{\mathrm{g}}$ and no, respectively. In this paper it is assumed that the refraction index of glass $n_{g}$ is higher than refraction index of internal flowing fluid $n_{\mathrm{f}}$, which is greater than or equal to that of external fluid (usually air) $n_{0}$.


Figure 2. The path of the light that reaches the centre of the photo-detector through simple cylindrical tube wall

In Fig. 2, full black broken line presents the path of the light that reaches the centre of the photo-detector. It enters the photo-detector in the horizontal direction, but it does not come from the horizontal direction in the internal fluid, but at angle $\delta_{A}=\gamma_{A}-\varphi_{i A}$ to the horizontal where $\varphi_{\mathrm{iA}}=\varphi_{\mathrm{eA}}+\beta_{\mathrm{BA}}-\beta_{\text {eA }}$ and

$$
\begin{gather*}
\sin \varphi_{e A}=\frac{h}{R_{e}}, \sin \gamma_{A}=\frac{n_{0} h}{n_{f} R_{i}}, \\
\sin \beta_{e A}=\frac{n_{0} h}{n_{g} R_{e}}, \sin \beta_{i A}=\frac{n_{0} h}{n_{g} R_{i}} \tag{2}
\end{gather*}
$$

After calculating those angles and $\Delta x$ and $\Delta y$, the distance of a centre of measurement volume from the centre of the viewing field of the photo-detector can be obtained as

$$
\Delta c=R_{i} \sin \left(\varphi_{i A}+\delta_{A}\right)-\Delta x \sin \delta_{A}-(h+\Delta y) \cos \delta_{A}(3)
$$

### 2.1 Vertical LDA optical plane

Measurement volume dislocation is calculated according to Fig. 3. Each laser beam intersects the tube wall at two points: external (e) and internal (i). Higher beam intersects the external surface of the tube wall at point $H_{e}$, and the internal surface of the tube wall at point $H_{\mathrm{i}}$. Lower beam intersects the external surface of the tube wall at point $L_{\mathrm{e}}$, and the internal surface of the tube wall at point $L_{\mathrm{i}}$. The positions of these four points with respect to the centre of the tube cross-section $O$ and horizontal line (double dot - dash line) are defined by angles $\varphi_{\mathrm{He}}, \varphi_{\mathrm{Hi}}, \varphi_{\mathrm{Le}}$ and $\varphi_{\mathrm{Li}}$, respectively.


Figure 3. The propagation of LDA laser beams intersecting in vertical plane

In Fig. 3, it can be seen that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{e} \sin \varphi_{(H / L) e} \pm\left(f-R_{e} \cos \varphi_{(H / L) e}\right) \tan \theta=h \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

With (1), by solving the (4), we obtain

$$
\begin{align*}
& \sin \varphi_{(H / L) e}=\frac{h}{R_{e}}(\cos \theta)^{2} \pm \\
& \pm \sin \theta \sqrt{1-\left(\frac{h}{R_{e}}\right)^{2}(\cos \theta)^{2}} \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

where sign + refers to $\varphi_{\mathrm{He}}$, and sign - refers to $\varphi_{\mathrm{te}}$. The angles of incidence at glass surface of laser beams are

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha_{H / L}=\varphi_{(H / L) e} \mp \theta, \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where - refers to $\alpha_{\mathrm{H}}$, and + refers to the $\alpha_{\mathrm{L}}$. According to Snell`s law, the angles of refraction at the external surface are $\sin \beta_{(H / L) e}=n_{0} \sin \left(\varphi_{(H / L) e} \mp \theta\right) / n_{g}$. The law of sines applied to triangles $O H_{\mathrm{e}} H_{\mathrm{i}}$ and $O L_{\mathrm{e}} L_{\mathrm{i}}$ gives

$$
\begin{align*}
& \sin \beta_{(H / L) i}=\frac{R_{e} \sin \beta_{(H / L) e}}{R_{i}}=  \tag{7}\\
& =\frac{R_{e}}{R_{i}} \frac{n_{0}}{n_{g}} \sin \left(\varphi_{(H / L) e} \mp \theta\right)
\end{align*}
$$

which defines angles of incidence of beams at the internal tube surface (Fig. 3). Snell's law applied at that surface and (7) lead to internal angles of refraction $\gamma_{\mathrm{H} / \mathrm{L}}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sin \gamma_{H / L}=\frac{n_{0}}{n_{f}} \frac{R_{e}}{R_{i}} \sin \left(\varphi_{(H / L) e} \mp \theta\right) . \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Laser beams in fluid (within the tube) are inclined to the horizontal (double dot - dash) lines at angles

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta_{H}=\varphi_{H i}-\gamma_{H} \text { and } \theta_{L}=\gamma_{L}-\varphi_{L i} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

( $\theta_{\mathrm{H}}$ is the angle between the higher beam and the horizontal line, and $\theta_{\mathrm{L}}$ is the angle between the lower beam and the horizontal line in the internal fluid). Fig. 3 shows that $\beta_{(H / L) i}=\beta_{(H / L) e}+\Delta \varphi_{H / L}\left(\Delta \varphi_{H / L}=\Delta \varphi_{(H / L) i}-\Delta \varphi_{(H / L) e}\right)$.

The resultant beam intersection angle, which defines calibration constant of a system, is

$$
\begin{align*}
& \theta_{r}=\frac{\theta_{H}+\theta_{L}}{2}= \\
& =\frac{1}{2}\left(\Delta \varphi_{e}+\Delta \beta_{i}-\Delta \beta_{e}-\Delta \gamma\right) \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\Delta \varphi_{e}=\Delta \varphi_{\text {He }}-\Delta \varphi_{\text {Le }}, \Delta \beta_{i}=\beta_{\text {Hi }}-\beta_{\text {Li }}, \Delta \beta_{e}=\beta_{\text {He }}-\beta_{\text {Le }}$ and $\Delta \gamma=\gamma_{H}-\gamma_{L}$.

Since the bisector of the beam intersection angle is no more horizontal, measured velocity component inclines to the vertical axes at angle

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta=\left(\theta_{H}-\theta_{L}\right) / 2 \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Between the lens and intersecting point, each beam is broken into three line segments, due to refraction: the first in external fluid, the second in glass, and the third in internal flowing fluid. It can be noted that the sum of the projections of those three line segments upon a horizontal line for one laser beam is equal to that of another laser beam i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{H}+a_{H}=x_{L}+a_{L} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

$x_{\mathrm{H}}$ is horizontal distance between $H_{\mathrm{i}}$ and the actual beam intersection point, and $x_{\mathrm{L}}$ is horizontal distance between $L_{\mathrm{i}}$ and actual beam intersection point (Fig. 3). $a_{\mathrm{H}}$ is horizontal distance between lens and $H_{\mathrm{i}}$, and $a_{\mathrm{L}}$ is horizontal distance between lens and $L_{\mathrm{i}}$. They can be expressed as

$$
\begin{align*}
& a_{H}=\left|H_{i} H_{e}\right| \cos \left(\varphi_{H i}-\beta_{H i}\right)+ \\
& +\left(f-R_{e} \cos \varphi_{H e}\right) \\
& a_{L}=\left|L_{i} L_{e}\right| \cos \left(\beta_{L i}-\varphi_{L i}\right)+  \tag{13}\\
& +\left(f-R_{e} \cos \varphi_{L e}\right)
\end{align*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left|H_{i} H_{e}\right|= \\
& =\sqrt{R_{e}^{2}+R_{i}^{2}-2 R_{e} R_{i} \cos \left(\varphi_{H i}-\varphi_{H e}\right)}  \tag{13a}\\
& \left|L_{i} L_{e}\right|= \\
& =\sqrt{R_{e}^{2}+R_{i}^{2}-2 R_{e} R_{i} \cos \left(\varphi_{L i}-\varphi_{L e}\right)} \tag{13b}
\end{align*}
$$

Also, the sum of the projections of those three line segments upon a vertical line for one laser beam plus that of another laser beam equals beam separation at the lens $d$ i.e.

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{H} \tan \theta_{H}+b_{H}+x_{L} \tan \theta_{L}+b_{L}=d \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

$b_{\mathrm{H}}$ is vertical distance between the position of higher beam at lens and $H_{\mathrm{i}}$, and $b_{\mathrm{L}}$ is vertical distance between the position of lower beam at lens and $L_{\mathrm{i}}$. They can be expressed as

$$
\begin{align*}
& b_{H}=\left|H_{i} H_{e}\right| \sin \left(\varphi_{H i}-\beta_{H i}\right)+ \\
& +\left(f-R_{e} \cos \varphi_{H e}\right) \tan \theta \\
& b_{L}=\left|L_{i} L_{e}\right| \sin \left(\beta_{L i}-\varphi_{L i}\right)+ \\
& \quad+\left(f-R_{e} \cos \varphi_{L e}\right) \tan \theta \tag{15}
\end{align*}
$$

Finding $x_{H}$ and $x_{L}$ from the system (12) and (14), enables calculating the horizontal and vertical displacement of measurement volume $\Delta x$ and $\Delta y$, respectively (Fig. 3):

$$
\Delta x=f-x_{H}-a_{H}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta y=f \tan \theta-x_{H} \tan \theta_{H}-b_{H} \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 2.2 Horizontal LDA optical plane

In this case laser beams are in horizontal plane between the lens and the tube wall. Unlike the previous case, where both laser beams and all their segments were in the same plane - vertical plane, here the refractions on each side of the tube wall force laser beams to change the plane in which they propagate. The symmetry of considered geometry allows analysing the refraction of only one laser beam, because another beam undergoes exactly the same changes until the point of intersection.

The first task is to find out the angle of incidence of a laser beam (thick grey line) at the external surface of a tube - angle $\alpha$. Laser beam reaches the external surface of a tube at point $E$ (Fig. 4). The angle $\varphi_{\mathrm{e}}$ between the ray $O E$ and horizontal lines (double dot - dash lines) is related to the height of the centre of a lens $h$ as follows:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sin \varphi_{e}=h / R_{e} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

The plane $A B C$ perpendicular to the laser beam at point A, helps in finding the angle $\alpha$. Noting the right angles in Fig. 4, it can be concluded that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cos \alpha=\cos \varphi_{e} \cos \theta \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

The angle of incidence $\alpha$ lies in plane $A C E$ which is inclined to the horizontal plane $A B E$ at angle $\gamma$. Among other expressions for angle $\gamma$, one that avoids sign ambiguity and division by zero, is following expression:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tan \gamma=\frac{\tan \varphi_{g}}{\sin \theta} . \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$



Figure 4. The incidence of a laser beam at the external surface of a tube wall and the propagation direction of a laser beam (thick grey line) within the glass of a tube wall

Applying the Snell's law, the angle $\beta$ at which laser beam enters the glass is determined as $\sin \beta=n_{0} \sin \alpha / n_{g}$.

Angle $\beta$ belongs to the plane $A C E$ which can also be designated as plane EDG, as well (Fig. 4). The projection of refracted laser beam upon horizontal plane $E D F$ (or $A B E$ ) is ray $E F$ presented as grey double dot dash line. Its deviation from the initial direction of laser beam (i.e. ray $E D$ ) is angle $\delta_{\text {hg }}$, and its deviation from the direction of refracted laser beam (i.e. ray $E G$ ) is angle $\delta_{\mathrm{vg}}$. In order to express angles $\delta_{\text {hg }}$ and $\delta_{\mathrm{vg}}$, plane $D F G$ parallel to the plane $A B C$ should be noted. The analysis of a tetrahedron EDFG shows that

$$
\begin{gather*}
\sin \delta_{v g}=\sin (\alpha-\beta) \sin \gamma \\
\cos \delta_{h g}=\cos (\alpha-\beta) / \cos \delta_{v g} \tag{20}
\end{gather*}
$$

and

Again, exactly the same changes undergoes the other beam but at the opposite side with respect to the plane perpendicular to the tube axis. Therefore, entering the glass, laser beams propagate in plane EHG which is inclined at angle $\delta_{\mathrm{rg}}$ to the horizontal plane (plane EHF - Fig. 5).


Figure 5. The spatial position of a laser beam GE within the glass of a tube wall

Note that triangles $E F G$ and $H F G$ are right angled triangles with right angle at point $F$, and triangles $E H G$ and $E H F$ are right angled triangles with right angle at point $H$. It helps in expressing angle $\delta_{\mathrm{rg}}$ as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tan \delta_{r g}=\frac{\tan \delta_{v g}}{\cos \left(\theta-\delta_{h g}\right)} \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$



Figure 6. The incidence of a laser beam at the internal surface of a tube wall
If laser beams have been intersecting within the glass, they would intersect at angle $\theta_{\mathrm{g}}$ (Figs. 5, 6), which can be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sin \theta_{g}=\cos \delta_{v g} \sin \left(\theta-\delta_{h g}\right) \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

At point $G$, the laser beam reaches the internal surface of a tube wall, and suffers another refraction. In order to find the angle of incidence at point $G$, the angle $\varphi_{\mathrm{i}}$, defining its position with respect to the centre of a tube cross - section and horizontal line, should be discovered (Fig. 6). (While point $E$ belongs to the cross - section with centre in point $O$, points $H$ and $G$ belong to the cross-section with centre in point $O^{\prime}$ shifted along the tube axis $O O^{\prime}$ for the same length as it is the length of line segment $E H$.) Applying the law of sines to the triangle $O^{\prime} H G$, we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi_{i}=\delta_{r g}+\sin ^{-1}\left(\frac{R_{e}}{R_{i}} \sin \left(\phi_{e}-\delta_{r g}\right)\right) \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

The angle of incidence $\alpha_{\mathrm{g}}$ can be found in a way similar to that in the case of the incidence of laser beam at the external surface of a tube wall - instead of $\varphi_{\mathrm{e}}$, here it is $\varphi_{\mathrm{i}}-\delta_{\mathrm{rg}}$, and instead of $\theta$, here it is $\theta_{\mathrm{g}}$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cos \alpha_{g}=\cos \left(\phi_{i}-\delta_{r g}\right) \cos \theta_{g} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Applying the Snell's law, the angle of refraction in the internal fluid $\beta_{\mathrm{f}}$ is obtained as $\sin \beta_{f}=n_{g} \sin \alpha_{g} / n_{f}$.


Figure 7. The refraction of a laser beam at the internal surface of a tube wall

To get better view at propagation of the laser beam after the second refraction, Fig. 7 could be useful. Note that it resembles Fig. 4: as if all rays emerging from point $E$ were translated to the point $G$ and then rotated around the horizontal GJ (parallel to the tube axis) counter clockwise for angle $\delta_{\mathrm{rg}}$. That is why the expressions for angles in Fig. 7 resemble the expressions for angles in Fig. 4. The difference is in a fact that here refracted laser beam goes above the plane of angle $\theta_{\mathrm{g}}\left(n_{\mathrm{g}}>n_{\mathrm{f}}\right)$, while in previous refraction refracted beam went under the plane of angle $\theta_{\mathrm{g}}\left(n_{\mathrm{g}}>n_{\mathrm{o}}\right)$. Thus the angle between the plane containing angle $\alpha_{\mathrm{g}}$ and the plane containing angle $\theta_{\mathrm{g}}$ is angle $\gamma_{\mathrm{g}}$ that could be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tan \gamma_{g}=\frac{\tan \left(\varphi_{i}-\delta_{r g}\right)}{\sin \theta_{g}} . \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

The projection of refracted laser beam upon the plane that contains angle $\theta_{\mathrm{g}}$ is ray $G K$ presented as grey dashed line. Its deviation from the direction of laser beam in glass tube wall (i.e. ray $E G$ ) is angle $\delta_{\text {hf }}$, and its deviation from the direction of refracted laser beam (i.e. ray $G I$ ) is angle $\delta_{\mathrm{vf}}$. Those angles could be expressed as

$$
\begin{gather*}
\sin \delta_{v f}=\sin \left(\beta_{f}-\alpha_{g}\right) \sin \gamma_{g}, \\
\cos \delta_{h f}=\frac{\cos \left(\beta_{f}-\alpha_{g}\right)}{\cos \delta_{v f}} . \tag{26}
\end{gather*}
$$

Triangles $K G I$ and $K J I$ (Fig. 8) are right angled triangles with right angle at point $K$, and triangles $K G J$ and $I G J$ are right angled triangles with right angle at point $J$. Therefore, in the internal fluid, laser beam propagates in the plane IGJ, that is inclined to the plane of incidence at point $G$ at angle $\delta_{\mathrm{ff}}$ which can be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tan \delta_{r f}=\frac{\tan \delta_{v f}}{\sin \left(\theta_{g}+\delta_{h f}\right)} \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

The analysis of same triangles leads to the resultant half-angle of laser beam intersection $\theta_{\mathrm{r}}$ - the angle that defines the calibration constant of the LDA system:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sin \theta_{r}=\cos \delta_{v f} \sin \left(\theta_{g}+\delta_{h f}\right) \tag{28}
\end{equation*}
$$



Figure 8. The spatial position of a laser beam in the internal fluid


Figure 9. Frontal view of laser beams (big picture) and view from above (small picture at the right up)

In order to find the dislocation of measurement volume the lengths of line segments $G H$ and $I J$ are required. The length of line segment $G H$ could be found by applying the law of cosines to the triangle $O^{\prime} H G$, as follows

$$
\begin{equation*}
|G H|=\sqrt{R_{e}^{2}+R_{i}^{2}-2 R_{e} R_{i} \cos \left(\varphi_{i}-\varphi_{e}\right)} \tag{29}
\end{equation*}
$$

Observing the Figs. 5 and 8, it can be concluded that

$$
\begin{equation*}
|I J| \tan \theta_{r}+|G H| \tan \theta_{g}=R_{e} \cos \varphi_{e} \tan \theta \tag{30}
\end{equation*}
$$

It gives the length of line segment $I J$.
Finally, analysing the frontal view of a system (Fig. 9) the dislocations of measurement volume centre in $x$ and $y$ direction can be expressed as

$$
\begin{gather*}
\Delta x=R_{e} \cos \varphi_{e}-|G H| \cos \delta_{r g}-|I J| \cos \left(\delta_{r f}-\delta_{r g}\right) \\
\Delta y=|I J| \sin \left(\delta_{r f}-\delta_{r g}\right)-|G H| \sin \delta_{r g} \tag{31}
\end{gather*}
$$

Unlike the case of vertical laser beam intersecting angle, here the direction of measured velocity component does not change - axial velocity component is measured, always.

## 3. THE CASE OF A CYLINDRICAL INTERNAL AND FLAT EXTERNAL TUBE WALL

Frequently used way of LDA measurement is presented in Fig. 10. The internal surface of a tube is cylindrical with radius of cross-section $R$, but external surface of a tube wall is flat, at least at the side that faces the lens. The least thickness of wall is $d_{\mathrm{w}}$. Again, the pair of laser beams, whose intersecting angle $2 \theta$ is vertical, is presented by full thick grey line, and that, whose intersecting angle $2 \theta$ is horizontal, is presented by dashed thick grey line. The real refraction of laser beams is not presented in Fig. 10 due to complexity.

Three chosen horizontal positions of lens are considered: Case 1 when the distance between the lens and the external tube wall is $l=f-\left(R+d_{w}\right)$; Case 2 when vertical pair of laser beams intersects in the centre of a circular cross section (as in Fig. 10), and the distance between the lens and the external surface of a tube $l$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
l=f-\left(R+d_{w}\right) \frac{\tan \theta_{g}}{\tan \theta} \tag{32}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\theta_{\mathrm{g}}$ is the angle of refraction in glass that can be expressed as $\sin \theta_{g}=n_{0} \sin \theta / n_{g}$; and Case 3 when horizontal pair of laser beams intersects at the centre of a circular cross-section, and $l$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
l=f-R \frac{\tan \left(\sin ^{-1}\left(n_{g} \sin \theta_{g} / n_{f}\right)\right)}{\tan \theta}-d_{w} \frac{\tan \theta_{g}}{\tan \theta} \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$



Figure 10. The definition of the geometry of a system with cylindrical tube having flat external surface of the wall

For flat external wall, the distance of the centre of the measurement volume from the centre of the viewing field of a photo-detector should be calculated, too.


Figure 11. The path of the light that reaches the centre of the photo-detector though tube wall with flat external wall

Inside the tube (Fig. 11), the path of the light that reaches the centre of the photo-detector is inclined to the horizontal at angle $\delta_{A}=\gamma_{A}-\varphi$, where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sin \varphi=\frac{h}{R} \quad \text { and } \sin \gamma_{A}=\frac{n_{g} h}{n_{f} R} . \tag{34}
\end{equation*}
$$

With this and $\Delta x$ and $\Delta y$ calculated, the distance between the centre of the measurement volume and the centre of the viewing field is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta c_{A}=\left(R_{i} \cos \varphi-\Delta x\right) \sin \delta_{A}-\Delta y \cos \delta_{A} \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 3.1 Vertical LDA optical plane

After the refraction of laser beams at the external surface of a glass tube, they reach the internal surface of a tube at points that can be defined by $\varphi_{\mathrm{H}}$ for higher, and $\varphi_{\mathrm{L}}$ for lower laser beam. Those angles can be found as

$$
\begin{align*}
& \sin \varphi_{H / L}=t_{H / L}\left(\cos \theta_{g}\right)^{2} \pm \\
& \pm \sin \theta_{g} \sqrt{1-t_{H / L}{ }^{2}\left(\cos \theta_{g}\right)^{2}} \tag{36}
\end{align*}
$$

where sign + refers to the higher, sign - refers to the lower beam, and parameter $t_{\mathrm{H}}$ and $t_{\mathrm{L}}$ are $t_{H / L}=\left(h \pm t_{1}\right) / R$.

Again, sign + refers to the higher, sign - refers to the lower beam, and parameter $t_{1}$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
t_{1}=d / 2-\left(l \tan \theta+R_{e} \tan \theta_{g}\right) \tag{37}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, laser beams refract at the internal surface of a glass tube with the angle of refraction, defined as $\sin \beta_{H / L}=n_{g} \sin \left(\varphi_{H / L} \mp \theta_{g}\right) / n_{f}$. Now, sign - refers to the higher, sign + refers to the lower beam. After that refraction, the directions of higher and lower laser beam, with respect to the horizontal lines, are at angles

$$
\begin{equation*}
\theta_{H}=\varphi_{H}-\beta_{H} \text { and } \theta_{L}=\beta_{L}-\varphi_{L} \tag{38}
\end{equation*}
$$



Figure 12. The propagation of laser beams in the case of vertical LDA optical plane and flat external wall of a tube

The horizontal distances between the point of intersection of the beams and points at which beams
reach the internal surface of a tube are $x_{\mathrm{L}}$ for lower, and $x_{\mathrm{H}}$ for higher beam (Fig. 12). They can be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{L}=\frac{t_{2} \tan \theta_{H}+t_{3}}{\tan \theta_{H}+\tan \theta_{L}} \text { and } x_{H}=x_{L}-t_{2} \tag{39}
\end{equation*}
$$

where parameters $t_{2}$ and $t_{3}$ are

$$
\begin{equation*}
t_{2}=R\left(\cos \varphi_{L}-\cos \varphi_{H}\right), \tag{40}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
t_{3}=2 t_{1}+R\left(\cos \varphi_{L}+\cos \varphi_{H}\right) \tan \theta_{g} . \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
$$

The dislocations of measurement volume $x$ and $y$ directions are

$$
\begin{gather*}
\Delta x=R \cos \varphi_{H}-x_{H} \text { and } \\
\Delta y=R \sin \varphi_{H}-x_{H} \tan \theta_{H}-h \tag{42}
\end{gather*}
$$

### 3.2 Horizontal LDA optical plane

Laser beams paths are symmetrical with respect to the vertical plane normal to the tube axis. Therefore, it is enough to consider the propagation of only one beam e.g. the one closer to the viewing point. First, this beam refracts at the external fluid-glass interface. Both, the angle of incidence $\theta$ and the angle of refraction $\theta_{\mathrm{g}}$ (defined by Snell's law) are in horizontal plane. Then the beam reaches the internal surface of a tube at point $A$. Its position with respect to the centre of the tube cross-section and horizontal line $\varphi$ is defined by $\sin \varphi=h / R$. The angle of incidence at point $A$ is $\alpha$ (Fig. 13), and it can be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\cos \alpha=\cos \varphi \cos \theta_{g} \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

Angle $\alpha$ lies in the plane AIC that is inclined to the horizontal plane at angle $\gamma$ for which it stands that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tan \gamma=\frac{\tan \varphi}{\sin \theta_{g}} \tag{44}
\end{equation*}
$$

The angle of refraction at point $A$ is $\beta$ determined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sin \beta=\frac{n_{g} \sin \alpha}{n_{0}} \tag{45}
\end{equation*}
$$



Figure 13. The propagation of laser beams in the case of vertical LDA optical plane and flat external wall of a tube

Observed laser beam propagates in the internal fluid along the ray $A I$. Its projection on a horizontal plane is ray $A B$, whose deviation from ray $A I$ is angle $\delta_{v}$, and deviation from ray $A C$ is $\delta_{\mathrm{h}}$, defined as

$$
\begin{gather*}
\sin \delta_{v}=\sin (\beta-\alpha) \sin \gamma  \tag{and}\\
\cos \delta_{h}=\cos (\beta-\alpha) / \cos \delta_{v} \tag{46}
\end{gather*}
$$

The projection of angle $\delta_{\mathrm{v}}$ on the tube cross-section plane is angle $\delta_{\mathrm{r}}$ that presents resultant deviation of laser beam from the horizontal in the fluid, and it can be expressed as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\tan \delta_{r}=\frac{\tan \delta_{v}}{\cos \left(\theta_{g}+\delta_{h}\right)} \tag{47}
\end{equation*}
$$

The resultant calibration angle $\theta \mathrm{r}$ (i.e. half of the angle of intersection of laser beams) is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sin \theta_{r}=\cos \delta_{v} \sin \left(\theta_{g}+\delta_{h}\right) \tag{48}
\end{equation*}
$$

The horizontal penetration of the laser beam until the intersecting point $I$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
x=|D E|=\frac{t_{1}+R_{i} \cos \varphi \tan \theta_{g}}{\tan \left(\theta_{g}+\delta_{h}\right)} \tag{49}
\end{equation*}
$$

Finally, the distance of measurement volume from the vertical diameter of circular cross-section of a tube $\Delta x$, and from the horizontal $y=h$ are

$$
\begin{gather*}
\Delta x=R_{i} \cos \varphi-x  \tag{and}\\
\Delta y=x \tan \delta_{r} \tag{50}
\end{gather*}
$$

## 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The calculations explained in previous section are applied to the case of already performed LDA measurements with two component system (red $\lambda_{1}=660 \mathrm{~nm}$ and infrared $\lambda_{2}=785 \mathrm{~nm}$ ). External fluid as well as internal fluid is air $\left(n_{0}=n_{\mathrm{f}}=1\right)$. The tube is made of acrylic glass. The indices of refraction of tube wall glass are $n_{\mathrm{g}}=1.4878$ for red light and $n_{\mathrm{g}}=1.48452$ for infrared (IR) light [7]. The focal length of applied transmitting lens is $f=0.3 \mathrm{~m}$, and the beam separation in the lens is $d=0.06 \mathrm{~m}$. Thus, the calibration angle of this system in open air is $\theta=5.7106^{\circ}$. Measurement volume in open air is $1.267 \times 0.127 \times 0.121 \mathrm{~mm}$ for red light, and $1.507 \times 0.1507 \times 0.1499 \mathrm{~mm}$ for infrared light. Therefore, approximate diameter of viewing field of the photodetector is supposed to be 0.121 mm for red, and 0.1499 mm for infra red light,. Internal radius of a tube is $R_{\mathrm{i}}=R=0.2 \mathrm{~m}$ and external radius is $R_{\mathrm{e}}=0.2055 \mathrm{~m}$. In the case of flat external wall, the least wall thickness is $d_{\mathrm{w}}=11 \mathrm{~mm}$ (Fig. 10).

The influence of the thickness of the wall on LDA measurement could be analyzed in further research. The discussion and conclusions in this paper refer to the thicknesses and materials mentioned in previous paragraph. Performed calculations indicated at least five advantages of measurement with simple cylindrical tube over the measurement with the flat external wall tube.

1. In the case of simple cylindrical tube, calibration angle $\theta_{\mathrm{r}}$, is constant and the same as one in the open air (Table 1, the first data column). This means that, in this case, no corrections of the values of measured velocities are required. On the other hand, calibration angle, in the case of flat external wall, is smaller than that in the open air (which, among other issues, makes the measurement volume shorter), and the decalibration must be taken into account. In the case of radial velocity component measurement at lens positions 1 and 3 it is even not constant (Fig. 14). The change of the calibration angle presented in Fig. 14 is for infrared beams and it is almost the same in the case of infrared beams.
2. Measurement range, the range for which the measurement system gives any result, is shown in the second data column of Table 1. It is restricted by three phenomena: total reflection at the glass - internal fluid interface, laser beam intersection is outside the internal fluid and measurement volume is outside the viewing field of photo-detector. For simple cylindrical tube, measurement range encompasses almost the entire diameter $(0-0.99 R)$, whereas in Cases 1, 2 and 3, they are considerably smaller. In Case 1 , when the distance between the lens and vertical diameter of the circular cross-section is $f$, vertical pair of laser beams does not intersect inside the tube at all.
3. The linearity of relation between the relative heights of lens centre $h / R_{\mathrm{i}}$ and measurement volume height $(h+\Delta y) / R_{\mathrm{i}}$, is analyzed through the slope of linear regression $a$ and its relative standard uncertainty $u_{\text {rel }}-$ type A (last two data columns in Table 1). The slopes for simple cylindrical tube are close to 1 , which means that vertical displacements of lens approximately equal the displacements of measurement volumes. The same does not stand for the flat external wall tube. Though the analysed regressions are very close to linear, values of $u_{\text {rel }}$ show that the linearity of measurement with simple cylindrical tube is better than that for flat external wall for one order of magnitude in the case of axial velocity measurement, and for two orders of magnitudes in the case of radial velocity component measurement.

Table 1. The comparison of measurement in simple cylindrical and flat external - cylindrical internal wall tube

| Tube type | Measured velocity componen t | Calibra- <br> tion angle $\theta$ (o) | Measure <br> -ment <br> range | Linearity |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  | Slope <br> a | urel <br> (\%) |
| Simple cylindrical | Red/IR <br> Radial | 5.7106 | 0-0.99Ri | 0.999 | 0.073 |
|  | Red/IR <br> Axial | 5.7106 | 0-0.99Ri | 1.001 | 0.079 |
| Cylin- <br> drical <br> inter- <br> nal <br> and <br> flat <br> exter- <br> nal <br> sur- <br> face | 1 Radial | Fig. 14 | 0-0R | - | - |
|  | 1 Red/IR Axial | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 5.7098 / \\ & 5.6972 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline 0-0.22 \mathrm{R} / \\ 0-0.26 \mathrm{R} \end{gathered}$ | 1.50 | $\begin{gathered} \hline 0.15 / \\ 0.25 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
|  | $\begin{gathered} 2 \mathrm{Red} / \mathrm{IR} \\ \text { Radial } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{gathered} 3.835 / \\ 3.843 \end{gathered}$ | 0-0.81R | 1.4 | $\begin{aligned} & 3.34 / \\ & 3.43 \end{aligned}$ |
|  | $\begin{gathered} 2 \mathrm{Red} / \mathrm{IR} \\ \text { Axial } \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 5.7098 / \\ & 5.6972 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline 0-0.28 \mathrm{R} / \\ 0-0.35 \mathrm{R} \end{gathered}$ | 1.33 | $\begin{gathered} \hline 0.13 / \\ 0.17 \\ \hline \end{gathered}$ |
|  | 3 Red/IR <br> Radial | Fig. 14 | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 0-0.81 \mathrm{R} \\ & 0-0.86 \mathrm{R} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.02 / \\ & 2.05 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 2.10 \\ & 2.36 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |
|  | 3 Red/IR <br> Axial | $\begin{aligned} & \hline 5.7098 / \\ & 5.6972 \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \hline 0-0.22 \mathrm{R} / \\ 0-0.27 \mathrm{R} \end{gathered}$ | 1.49 | $\begin{gathered} \hline 0.15 / \\ 0.21 \end{gathered}$ |



Figure 14. Calibration angle $\theta_{\mathrm{r}}$ - the resultant half angle of the intersection of beams - versus vertical relative position of transmitting lens for the case of infrared laser beams and horizontal positions 1 and 3 for flat external tube wall
4. The dislocation of measurement volume from the desired points along the vertical diameter of a tube cross-section and mutual measurement volume distances can be seen in Figs. 15 -17. In Figs. 16 and 17, crosses represent positions of measurement volumes for axial velocity component in lens positions 2 and 3, but squares represent only those of them that are within the viewing field of photo-detector. Thus, for flat external tube wall and horizontal positions 2 and 3, the measurement volumes for the two components are simultaneously visible only within the central $25 \%$ of internal radius $R_{\mathrm{i}}$. Furthermore, the measurement volume distances are greater than $0.3 R$ for Case 2 and greater than 0.9 R for Case 3 . With simple cylindrical tube, for $h$ up to $0.99 R$, measurement volumes for different velocity components are simultaneously visible in photo-detector. They are no more than $0.01 R$ apart in half of the radius closer to tube centre, and rises only up to $0.055 R$ near the tube wall. Smaller mutual distances of measurement volumes for different velocity components might also indicate smaller optical aberration of the beams in simple cylindrical tube.


Figure 15. Simple cylindrical tube: Positions of IR measurement volume for radial velocity component, and red measurement volume for axial velocity component


Figure 16. Cylindrical tube with flat external wall: Positions of IR measurement volume for radial velocity component, and red measurement volume for axial velocity component at position 2


Figure 17. Cylindrical tube with flat external wall: Positions of IR measurement volume for radial velocity component and red measurement volume for axial velocity component at position 3


Figure 18. The angle of deviation of direction of measured radial velocity component, in simple cylindrical tube


Figure 19. The angle of deviation of direction of measured radial velocity component, in a tube with flat external wall
5. In order to measure radial velocity component along the vertical diameter of a tube cross section, the bisector of beam intersecting angle must be horizontal. Its deviation from horizontal $\delta$ in simple cylindrical tube (Fig. 18) is negligible with respect to that in flat external wall tube (Fig. 19).

## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This paper is part of the research project TR35046 supported by the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Serbia.

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# ПОРЕЂЕЊЕ ЛДА МЕРЕЊА КОД ВАЗДУШНОГ ТОКА У ОБИЧНОЈ ЦИЛИНДРИЧНОЈ И ЦИЛИНДРИЧНОЈ ЦЕВИ СА РАВНИМ СПОЉАШЊИМ ЗИДОМ 

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Примена 2D ласер Доплер анемометарских система је разматрана за случај затвореног тока флуида у обичној цилиндричној и у цилиндричној цеви са равним спољашњим зидом. Закони геометријске оптике су примењени на централне линије ласерских снопова. Изведени су изрази за дислокације мерних запремина, углове калибрације и растојања центра мерне запремине од центра видног поља фотодетектора. Изрази изведени у овом раду су преимењени на одређени вртложни ток у цеви. То је показало неколико предности коришћења обичне цилиндричне цеви у односу на данас омиљеније коришћење цилиндричне цеви са равним спољашњим зидом. Ови резултати указују на то да би се садашње избегавање ЛДА мерења код обичне цилиндричне цеви требало преиспитати.

