

# Measurements of Temperature and Flow Fields with Sub-Millimeter Spatial Resolution Using Two-Color Laser Induced Fluorescence (LIF) and Micro-Particle Image Velocimetry (PIV)

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Comprehensive measurements for velocity and temperature fields have been conducted. A Micro PIV 2-color LIF system have been setup to measure the buoyancy driven fields in a 1-mm heated channel with low Grashof-Prandtl numbers [ $86 < Gr_w Pr < 301$ ]. Fluorescence microscopy is combined with an MPIV system to obtain enough intensity images and clear pictures from nano-scale fluorescence particles. The spatial resolution of the Micro PIV system is  $75 \mu\text{m}$  by  $67 \mu\text{m}$  and error due to Brownian motion is estimated 1.05%. Temperature measurements have achieved the  $4.7 \mu\text{m}$  spatial resolution with relatively large data uncertainties the present experiment. The measurement uncertainties have been decreased down to less than  $\pm 1.0 \text{ C}^\circ$  when measurement resolution is equivalent to  $76 \mu\text{m}$ . Measured velocity and temperature fields will be compared with numerical results to examine the feasibility of development as a diagnostic technique.

**Key Words :** Fluorescence, Laser, Micro PIV, Temperature Measurement

## 1. Introduction

Recently, micro-electromechanical system (MEMS) is being developed to respond to an increasing demand of industry and research problems. Meanwhile, micro-channel flows, having characteristic dimensions in the range of 1-1000  $\mu\text{m}$  are frequently occurring in a wide range of MEMS devices. Being different from macro-scale devices, micro-fluidic systems prefer to use different pumping mechanisms instead of pressure pumping. In pressure driven systems of the micro-fluidics, the frictional forces at the wall result in radical velocity gradients throughout the micro-channel.

As a result, fluid velocity is greatest in the middle of the micro-channel and a substantial pressure drop along micro-channel occurs. In other words, it has limitations in applying it to MEMS devices. Therefore, MEMS devices are frequently using electro-osmosis, thermally-driven forces, thermo-capillary forces and so on as alternative driving forces.

Although some researchers (Kim et al 2001, Cummings et al 1999) measured the electro-osmosis and pressure driven flow in a micro-channel, the measurement of velocity fields in thermally-driven flows have not been reported. Since the dimension of micro-channel has length scale on the order 1-1000  $\mu\text{m}$ , the intrusive technique such as a hot wire can not be used. In recent years, Particle Image Velocimetry (PIV) has been developed and modified to be applied to micro-scale.

Among the available means of temperature measurement probes, there is no question regard-

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ing the extensiveness and rigorousness of thermocouple (TC) probes for a wide range of heat transfer applications. A carefully calibrated TC probe is capable of measuring temperatures with better than  $\pm 0.1$  K precision (Eckert and Goldstein, 1970). Two primary limitations of TC probes, however, are their relatively large spatial resolution, on the order of a few hundred microns at the smallest, and their physical intrusiveness in the flow. These limitations diminish the possibility of using TC probes for micro-scale heat transfer applications. In addition, their point measurement nature makes full-field temperature mapping very cumbersome as a large number of probes must be placed and monitored simultaneously.

The thermo-chromic liquid crystals (TLC) technique is based on the temperature dependence of their optical properties in a predictable and repeatable manner (Dabiri and Gharib, 1990, 1991). When TLC is illuminated, TLC selectively reflects light at a visible wave length characterized by the local temperature. This relationship of color to temperature has allowed researchers to quantitatively map temperature distributions (Richard, 1998, Pehl, 2000).

A major shortcoming in using TLC is that one has to calibrate each point of the test field to compensate for the influence of the illuminating light variations (Sabatino, 2000). Since the color change of the TLC may also depend on its location in the test field, the temperature calibration has to be tediously repeated at each different test section. The color bias, occurring from the wall reflection and scattering, is another obstacle in applying the TLC technique to full-field mapping. Another major drawback of the TLC technique for considering micro-scale field-of-view measurements is the relatively large size of microencapsulated TLC beads, typically on the order of  $10 \mu\text{m}$  or larger.

Sakakibara and Adrian (1997, 1999) recently proposed an innovative two-color LIF technique where they used a second temperature-insensitive fluorescence dye as a reference to compensate for the variation of incident light and the spatial imaging nonuniformity. The ratio of the two

fluorescence dyes intensity provides a formidable correlation with temperature that does not depend on the laser illumination intensity variation and is free from the possible bias occurring from background noise. They applied this ratiometric LIF technique to measure a thermal convection field above a heated horizontal surface of  $40 \text{ mm}$  square in dimension, showing a calibration uncertainties of  $\pm 1.5$  K over  $25$  K temperature range.

In this paper, comprehensive measurements of velocity and temperature fields will be conducted. The present work uses a similar ratiometric LIF technique to quantitatively examine the measurement accuracy, in conjunction with its spatial resolution, for the feasibility as a microscale temperature field-mapping tool. A  $10 \text{ mm}$  wide cuvette is heated differentially on opposite vertical sides so as to generate a natural convection thermal field, with relatively lower  $Gr_w Pr < 300$ , and the resulting steady temperature field has been measured by the ratiometric LIF technique. Also, a micro PIV system will be set up to measure thermal driven velocity fields in the same heated channel. Fluorescence microscopy will be combined with an MPIV system to get enough intensity images and clear pictures from nano-scale fluorescence particles. The measurement accuracy is assessed by comparing the measured temperature and velocity field with computational predictions, which can be considered accurate for the near-conduction regime of low  $Gr_w Pr$ , and the measurement uncertainties are determined for different spatial resolutions ranging from  $4.2 \mu\text{m}$  to  $76 \mu\text{m}$ .

## 2. Micro PIV Systems

The micro PIV experimental apparatus uses  $500 \text{ nm}$  fluorescence seeding particles which have an excitation peak at  $490 \text{ nm}$  and an emission peak at  $515 \text{ nm}$ . These absorption and emission bandwidths partially overlap each other. To detect fluorescence signals more exclusively, the fluorescence detection band must be separated from the emission and absorption bandwidths, to the extent possible. The selection is made for the

long pass filter (Edmund Industrial Optics) that transmits wavelengths longer than 530 nm. This filtering process passes a pure fluorescence image of seeding particles without accepting scattering of the background illumination of the excitation light.

In addition, Mie scattering intensity decreases as the diameter of the seeding particles decreases while the fluorescence signal is much stronger than the Mie scattering for sub-micron seeding particles. Therefore, using fluorescence seeding particles is almost essential to get an high image intensity for micro PIV. The interline transfer 640×480 CCD camera (Sony XC-75) with 5× objective lens (Mitutoyo) was used for recording particle images. The sensing area of the CCD chip has a 6.4 mm×4.8 mm dimensions and the size of each pixel is approximately 8.4×9.8 μm. A thin laser sheet is constructed from a 50 mW argon-ion laser using a combination of one concave and one spherical lens.

### 2.1 Lasers and optics

An Argon-ion laser can be commonly used for micro-scale experiments. The reason is that a continuous wave laser such as the Argon-ion laser is sufficient for slow flows that usually happen in microfluidic applications. Another reason is that fluorescence particles of which the absorption wave length band ranges around Argon-ion laser emission wave length are easy to be obtained commercially.

In micro PIV, measurement domain in the out of plane can not be defined by thickness of laser sheet because it is hardly possible to get the order of micron thickness of laser sheet in micro system with the severe restriction on spacing. Therefore, depth of field of the microscope is an important factor. Inoue and Spring (1997) reported the formulation for depth of field, considering diffraction and geometric affects as

$$\delta z = \frac{n\lambda}{NA^2} + \frac{ne}{M \cdot NA} \quad (1)$$

where the index of refraction of medium is  $n=1.0$ , the wavelength of illuminating light is  $\lambda=488$  nm, the numerical aperture is  $NA=0.14$ , the

magnification is  $M=5$  and pixel size is  $e \approx 9$  μm. Thus, the depth of field in the current experiment is estimated to  $\delta z=14.29$  μm.

### 2.2 Measurement error from Brownian motion

Brownian motion must be considered when submicron particles are used. Brownian motion is known to be the thermal motion of a particle in a fluid. This motion results from collisions between fluid molecules and the suspended micro-scale particles. Santiago et al (1998) demonstrated the effect of Brownian motion on microfluidics measurement where the Brownian motion error is derived as

$$\varepsilon_B = \frac{1}{u} \sqrt{\frac{2D}{\Delta t}} \quad (2)$$

where  $u$  is the characteristic velocity,  $\Delta t$  is the measurement time interval and  $D$  is the diffusion coefficient.

For a single PIV realization,  $\varepsilon_B$  is calculated to be 7.4% in that  $u$  is 10 μm/s,  $T$  is 20°C and  $\Delta t$  is 1/30s. This error means the ratio of Brownian motion to the measured flow velocity.

Because the Brownian motion error is considered having the same effect in all directions statistically, the error by the Brownian diffusion can be reduced by use of averaging technique (Santiago et al, 1998). If one assumes that each particle has equal influence on average velocity vector in the interrogation window, can be reduced by averaging over several particle images (at least 5 pairs in the current experiment) and ensemble averaging over several realizations (at least 10 realizations). Therefore, the Brownian motion error is reduced to  $\varepsilon_F = \frac{\varepsilon_B}{\sqrt{50}} = 1.05\%$ .

## 3. Two-Color LIF Systems

### 3.1 Principles of fluorescence and ratiometric LIF techniques

Fluorescent intensity is proportional to the incident light intensity and quantum efficiency. As the temperature increases, the quenching effect increases and the quantum efficiency decreases. The temperature dependence of quantum efficiency

is usually small in most fluorescent molecules. However, for some fluorescence dyes such as Rhodamine-B, the temperature dependence of quantum efficiency is noticeably high, about 2%/K. Therefore, if the incident light intensity is constant and homogeneous with temperature sensitive fluorescence dye, the correlation between temperature and fluorescence intensity can be expected to be obtained. But incident light is likely to be inhomogeneous, spatially as well as temporally, because of the laser beam or sheet divergence, scattering by small particles in the beam path, and time-dependent lasing efficiency (Sakakibara and Adrain, 1999). In order to compensate the measurement bias caused by the incident light variation, Rhodamine-110 is used for the reference dye whose photo-thermal sensitivity is known to be less than 0.05%/K.

For the mixture of Rhodamine-B and Rhodamine-110, the intensity ratio of the two fluorescence emissions can be directly given from Eq. (3) as:

$$\frac{F_{rhb}}{F_{rh110}} = \frac{I_{0rhb} \epsilon_{rhb} [c]_{rhb} Q_{rhb}}{I_{0rh110} \epsilon_{rh110} [c]_{rh110} Q_{rh110}} \quad (3)$$

where molar absorptivity is nearly independent of temperature (Andrews, 1986), and the ratio of the absorption spectral intensity,  $I_{0rhb}/I_{0rh110}$ , is invariant when a single illumination source is used for both dyes. In addition, if the concentration ratio,  $[c]_{rhb}/[c]_{rh110}$ , remains unchanged, the fluorescence intensity ratio,  $F_{rhb}/F_{rh110}$ , is solely dependent on the quantum efficiency ratio of the two dyes,  $Q_{rhb}/Q_{rh110}$ . Since the ratio of the quantum efficiency depends on temperature, the resulting intensity ratio of Eq. (3) can now be considered solely dependent on temperature.

### 3.2 Calibration process

Figure 1 shows the semi-quantitative absorption and emission spectra of Rhodamine-B and Rhodamine-110. The wavelength of maximum absorption and emission for Rhodamine-110 (Molecular Probes) is at 496 nm and 520 nm, respectively. Rhodamine-B (Baker, Inc.) has an absorption band peaked at 554 nm and an emission band peaked at 575 nm. These four band-

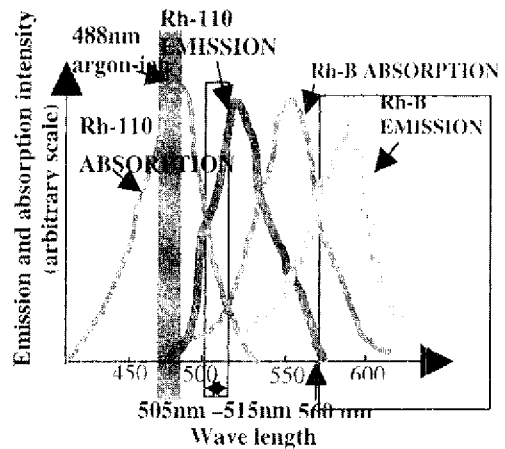


Fig. 1 Absorption and fluorescence spectra of Rhodamine-110 and Rhodamine-B

widths partially overlap each other. To minimize signal errors due to the cross-talk, the fluorescence detection band for each dye must be segregated from the other emission and absorption bandwidths, to the extent possible. For the Rhodamine-B detection bands, selection is made for the long pass filter (Edmund Industrial Optics) that transmits wavelengths only longer than 560 nm. This filter has a mere 0.001% transmission of shorter wavelengths than 560 nm. Since Rhodamine-110 emission band is placed between the Rh-110 absorption band and Rh-B absorption band, a narrow band-pass filter (505 nm~515 nm) is selected to effectively separate the Rh-110 emissions. The spectral band of an argon-ion laser, peaked at 488 nm (blue), is used to excite both dyes.

The correlation between fluorescence intensity and temperature is necessary to use a LIF technique for temperature measurement. To obtain a correlation between the measured fluorescence intensity and the water temperature, an elaborate calibration system is devised using a constant thermobath as schematically illustrated in Fig. 2. The thermobath circulates constant-temperature water through a 15 cm cubic chamber which is made of 0.6 cm thick plexiglass walls covered with ample insulation material to minimize the ambient thermal effect. A 3.5 cm square glass window has been installed on the front wall for optical access. The test cuvette (Cole Parmer)

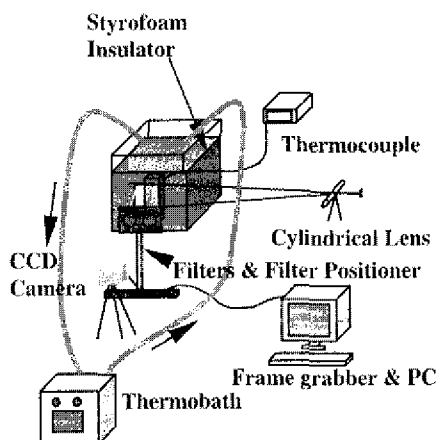


Fig. 2 Schematic layout of the calibration setup for two-color LIF technique

contains a 6 mg/liter concentration of Rh-B and 1 mg/liter concentration of Rh-110, and the cuvette is placed in the midst of the cubic chamber. The water temperature surrounding the cuvette is monitored using a thermocouple probe placed in the chamber.

A Sony XC-75 CCD camera with  $5\times$  objective lens records fluorescence images from Rh-B and Rh-110 by alternating the two filters and an approximately 1.5 mm by 1.0 mm field-of-view is used for calibration, corresponding to 320 by 240 pixel dimensions. A thin laser sheet is constructed from the same lens combination and Ar-ion laser with above micro PIV system. Captured images from the CCD camera are digitized for successive gray-level analysis. Although 2-color LIF system uses the similar optical system to micro PIV, the diameter of fluorescence dyes is much smaller than one of fluorescence seeding particle. The diameter of fluorescence molecule dyes is much smaller than 10 nm. So each fluorescence molecule can't be detected by pixel of CCD camera. One pixel may present the average intensity of above 100,000 dye molecules. Because fluorescence dyes are resolved homogeneously into water, the number of dye molecules in each pixel is considered consistent. Also due to the random motion of Brownian motion, the average intensity of each pixel is expected not to be influenced statistically. The key to success in calibration is to ensure the repeatability of the calibration curves and the

persistence in dye concentrations for each calibration process. Due to chemical and photochemical decomposition, the intensity of fluorescence dye may degrade during excitation and emission transitions (Sakakibara and Adrian 1997). Therefore, a fresh mixture of fluorescence dyes has to be used for each run of the calibration experiment.

In order to ensure the repeatability, the calibration was repeated on three different test days for the same temperature range from 16°C to 40°C. Figure 3 presents the same calibration data in terms of the intensity ratio of Rh-B over Rh-110. Each symbol represents a pixel-averaged intensity for the entire 1.5 mm by 1.0 mm field-of-view (320 by 240 pixels). The day-to-day variations are smaller than 3%. It is important that the mixture of dye is contained in the closed system to maintain the given dye concentration. Otherwise, the different calibration curve is obtained due to the change of dye concentration as the day of calibration change. The average of the three sets of calibration data, shown by the solid curve, can now be used as a resulting calibration curve for temperature measurement. The day-to-day variations of the intensity ratio show a decrease with increasing temperatures.

To examine the effect of spatial resolution on the intensity variations, statistical analysis of the calibration data has been conducted as the interrogation cell size is increased from a single pixel

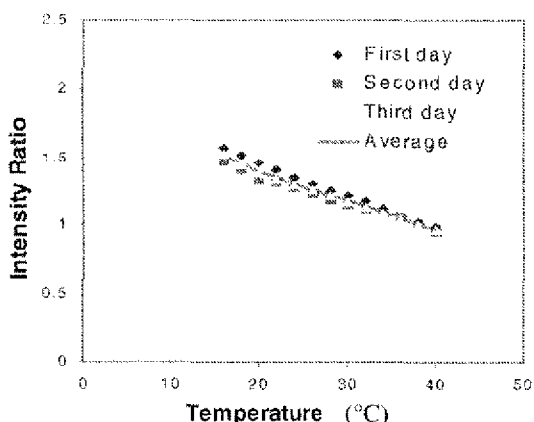
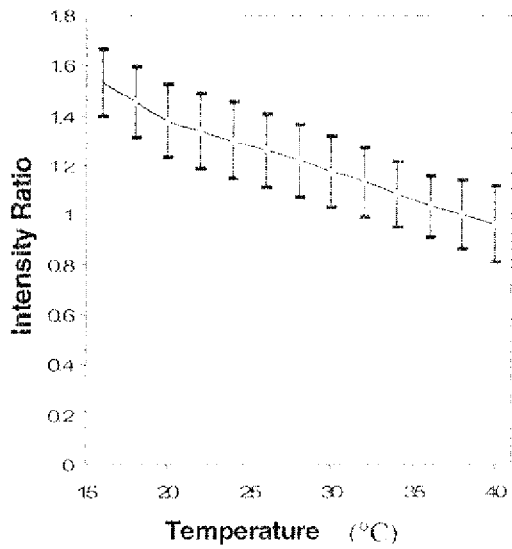
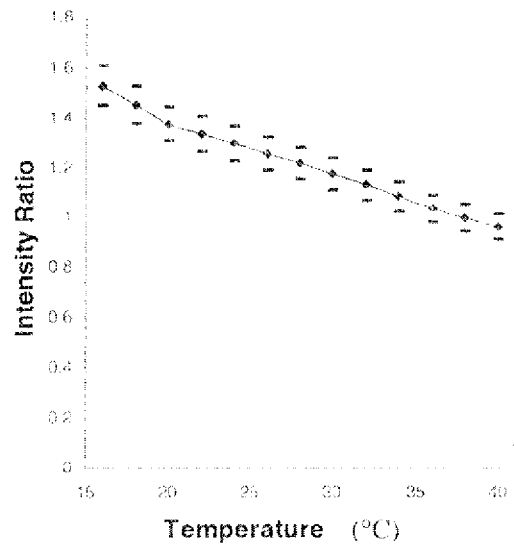


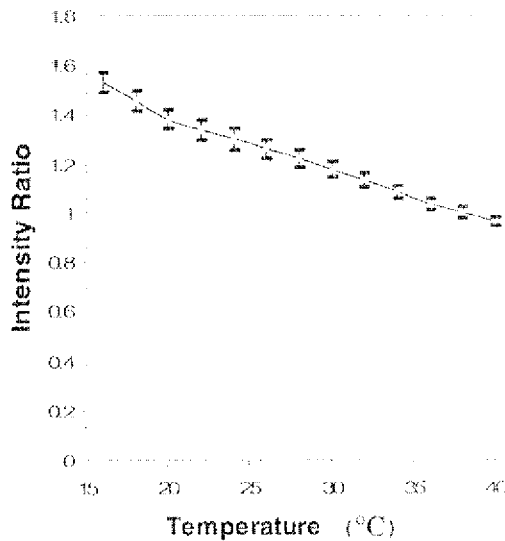
Fig. 3 Temperature dependence of the ratiometric fluorescence intensities of RhB and Rh110



(a) Interrogation window dimension of 1 by 1 pixel ( $4.7 \mu\text{m} \times 4.2 \mu\text{m}$ )



(b) Interrogation window dimension of 10 by 10 pixels ( $47 \mu\text{m} \times 42 \mu\text{m}$ )



(c) Interrogation window dimension of 64 by 48 pixels ( $300 \mu\text{m} \times 200 \mu\text{m}$ )

**Fig. 4** Deviation of intensity Ratio vs. Temperature

to the whole field-of-view. Figures 4(a), (b) and (c) show the average and standard variation of the intensity ratio as functions of temperature for the selected three different interrogating window dimensions of 1 by 1 pixels ( $4.7 \mu\text{m} \times 4.2 \mu\text{m}$ ), 10 by 10 pixels ( $47 \mu\text{m} \times 42 \mu\text{m}$ ), and 64 by 48 pixels ( $300 \mu\text{m} \times 200 \mu\text{m}$ ), respectively. The corresponding pixel-to-pixel temperature variation is estimated as  $\pm 5.64^\circ\text{C}$  for 1 by 1 pixel, approxi-

mately  $\pm 3.0^\circ\text{C}$  for 10 by 10 pixels,  $2.0^\circ\text{C}$  for 32 by 24 pixels, and  $\pm 1.5^\circ\text{C}$  for 64 by 48 pixels with  $300 \mu\text{m} \times 200 \mu\text{m}$  spatial resolution. While the standard variations of intensity ratios, for a given temperature, persistently increase with decreasing window dimensions, note that the average intensity ratio remains constant for a given temperature regardless of the spatial resolution.

**Table 1** Spatial-resolution dependency of the calibration uncertainties of two-color LIF technique

| Interrogation window Dimension (pixels) | Spatial Resolution ( $\mu\text{m}$ ) | Intensity Ratio Deviation | Temperature Deviation |
|---|--------------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|
| 1 by 1                                  | $4.7 \times 4.2$                     | $\pm 0.143$               | $\pm 5.635$           |
| 10 by 10                                | $47 \times 42$                       | $\pm 0.056$               | $\pm 2.964$           |
| 32 by 24                                | $150 \times 100$                     | $\pm 0.043$               | $\pm 1.967$           |
| 64 by 48                                | $300 \times 200$                     | $\pm 0.033$               | $\pm 1.496$           |
| 128 by 96                               | $600 \times 400$                     | $\pm 0.022$               | $\pm 1.006$           |
| 256 by 192                              | $1200 \times 800$                    | $\pm 0.009$               | $\pm 1.496$           |
| 320 by 240                              | $1500 \times 1000$                   | $\pm 0.000$               | $\pm 0.000$           |

Table 1 summarizes the results where the standard deviation is calculated for each calibration temperature with 95% confidence interval for a given interrogation cell size and listed deviations are the average values for the tested temperature range from 16 to 40°C. The intensity ratio deviations are presented in the third column and the corresponding temperature deviations are shown in the fourth column. As the interrogating window dimension increases, the variation of intensity ratio decreases and diminishes ultimately to zero when the whole field-of-view is considered as a single interrogation window.

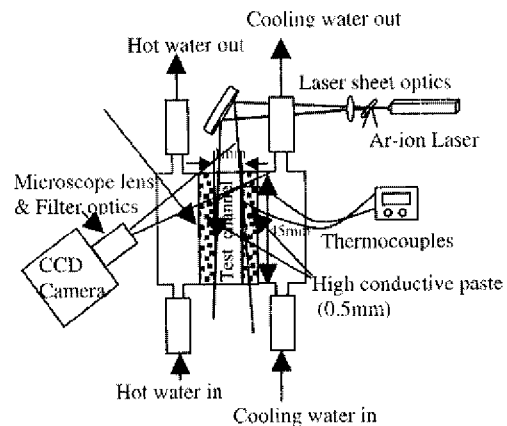
Once the calibration data is obtained, a test section can be positioned instead of cubic chamber for the temperature measurement.

#### 4. Experiment

A 1 mm wide, 10 mm deep, and 45 mm long cuvette (Nova Biotech Inc.) is used for the 1 mm channel configuration.

To establish a thermal field inside the 1 mm cuvette, an elaborate system is devised using constant thermobaths as schematically illustrated in Fig. 5.

The constant-temperature water wall condition was provided by two separate thermal baths circulating hot and cold water through copper pipelines. The copper pipelines are attached to side walls. Hot water flows through the right wall pipe line and cool water flows through the left one to induce the thermally buoyancy driven flow in the channel. To ensure a more homogeneous



**Fig. 5** Experimental Apparatus for MPIV and 2-color LIF

thermal contact, the copper pipelines and cuvette are bonded by a high thermal-conductivity paste. A K-type thermocouple probe is attached to both sides of the channel wall using thermal-conductivity epoxy. The temperature is monitored as a feedback signal to ensure if both walls are heated and cooled at specified temperatures. Typically it takes up to 30 minutes for both walls to reach the required steady state temperature conditions within  $\pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$ .

Captured images from the identical imaging system in previous chapter are digitized for PIV and 2-color LIF analysis at 30 frame per second. In Fig. 5, the test channel for micro PIV system contains a mixture of 500 nm fluorescence particles and water. The test channel for 2-color LIF system contains a mixture of fluorescence dyes and water at a typical concentration of 6 mg/liter for Rh-B and 1-mg/liter for Rh-110. The

measured imaging area is approximately 1.5 mm by 1.0 mm. As explained previously, appropriate filters are positioned in front of CCD camera in both systems.

Numerical predictions for temperature and velocity fields are also carried out for the same parametric condition as the experiment.

Two-dimensional steady state momentum and energy equations are solved with imposed flow and thermal conditions as used in the experiments using standard Finite Volume Method (FVM (Patankar, 1980)). The  $v$ -momentum equation includes the buoyancy term using the Boussinesq approximation to model the density gradient driven flow (Chuichi, 1994). The SIMPLE (Semi-Implicit Method for Pressure-Linked Equation) algorithm is adopted to obtain the pressure field. The grid dimension was set to  $19 \times 380$  for the entire calculations. Around 3,000 iterations were required to reach an acceptable convergence that usually takes approximately 5 CPU minutes on the Pentium 4 1.2 GHz PC platform. The relaxation factor for all the variables was set to be 0.5.

Measured velocity and temperature fields are compared with numerical results to examine the accuracy of development to a diagnostic technique.

### 5. Results and discussion

PIV measurements are conducted for two representative of the top region of the 1-mm vertical channel. Four different wall temperature differentials, 16–20°C, 18–24°C, 20–30°C and 23–37°C are considered with their corresponding Rayleigh number,  $Gr_w Pr = 86, 129, 215$  and  $301$ , respectively. The Rayleigh numbers are well below the critical value of  $10^9$ , all test conditions are under laminar flows (Incropera, 2002).

Figure 6 shows flow fields for the top region of channel. An interrogation window of  $32 \times 32$  pixels was taken, with a 50% overlap rate using direct cross correlation and velocity fields from 150 images were averaged. This corresponds to a vector spatial resolution of 75 by 67  $\mu m$ . The left column shows the calculated flow results and the right column shows the measured ones. Fairly

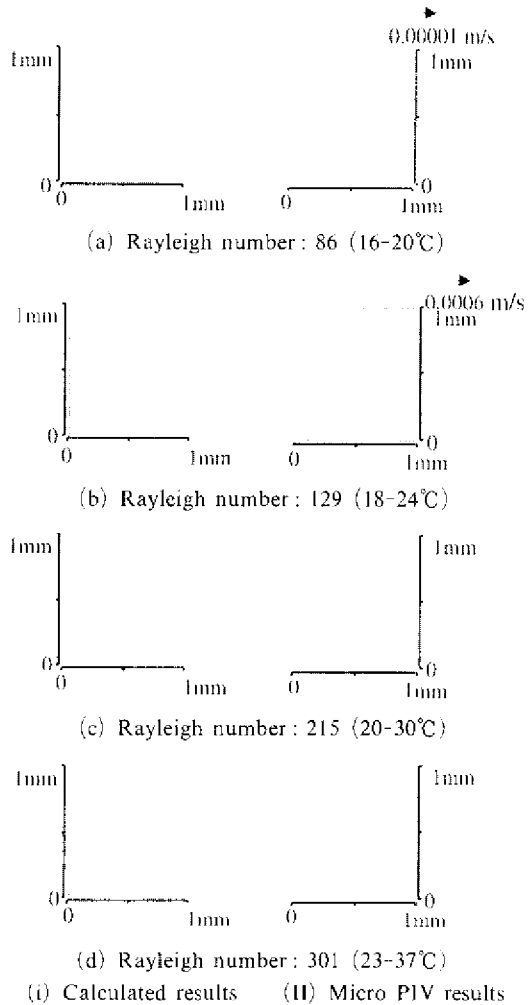


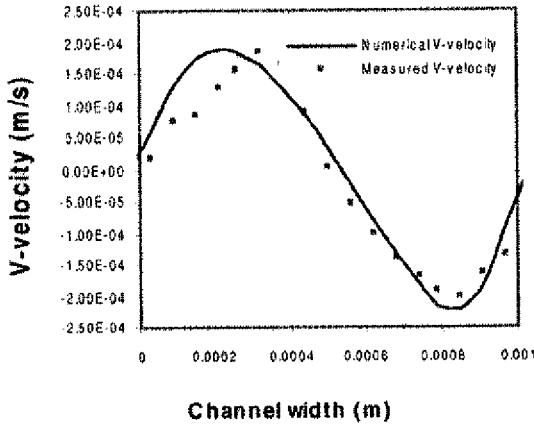
Fig. 6 Velocity field for the top region of a heated channel

good agreements are observed between numerical and the PIV results. The magnitudes of velocity increase as the temperature difference increases while the qualitative flow patterns remain unchanged for all four conditions. The heated liquid rises up along the left wall and circulates against the top wall, and then descends along the right wall.

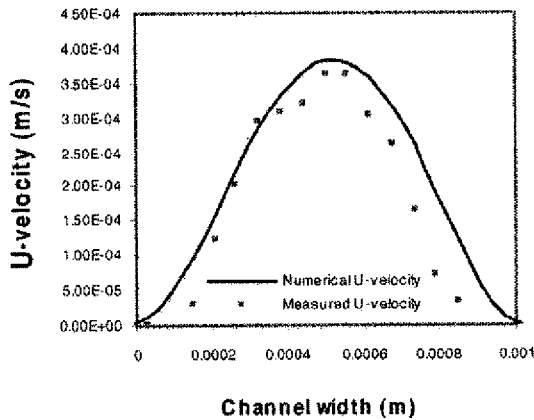
For a quantitative comparison between calculated and measured velocity, velocities on the horizontal line below 0.15 mm and 0.85 mm from the top of the channel is plotted in Fig. 7 for 20°C and 30°C temperature difference conditions. PIV velocity has a good agreement with calculated velocity. As we identified it for below 0.15 mm



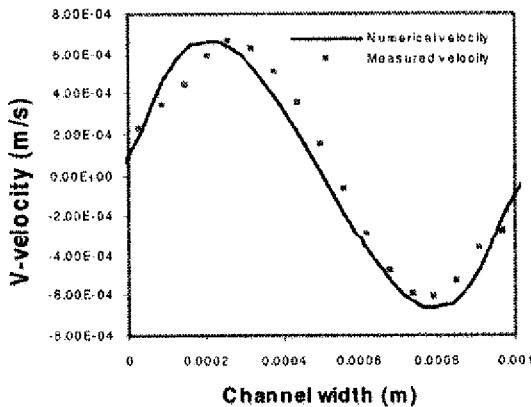
from the top in Fig. 7, U-velocity has a maximum



(a) V-velocity for below 0.15 mm from the top



(b) U-velocity for below 0.15 mm from the top

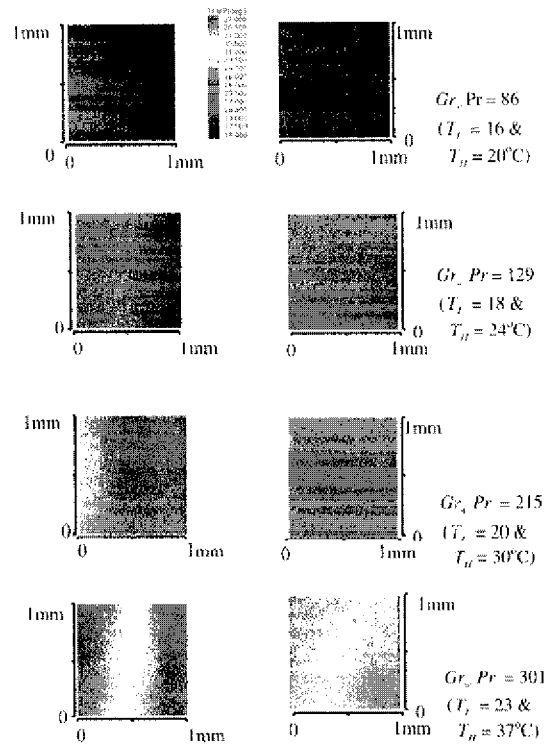


(c) V-velocity for below 0.85 mm from the top

**Fig. 7** The comparison of numerical and micro PIV velocity values below 0.15 mm and 0.85 mm from the top ( $Gr_w=Pr=215$ ,  $T_L=20^\circ\text{C}$  and  $T_H=30^\circ\text{C}$ )

value in a center of the horizontal line. U-velocity goes to a zero value near walls due to viscous from the wall. V-velocity has positive values in the right side and negative values in the left side, indicating the clockwise-direction flow circulation. For below 0.85 mm from the top, positive V-velocity indicates rising flow from the heated wall and negative V-velocity shows the returning flow, making the clockwise-direction flow circulation. The slight deviation between calculated and measured velocity is considered to result from the existence of three dimensional flows. Although the particles should be circulated on the 2-dimensional focal plane, there might exist small amount of 3-dimensional flow in practical which caused to underestimate the displacement of particles from the cross correlation process.

Figure 8 show the numerical and 2-color LIF experimental results for temperature field of the top region of the 1 mm channel. Also, the left and

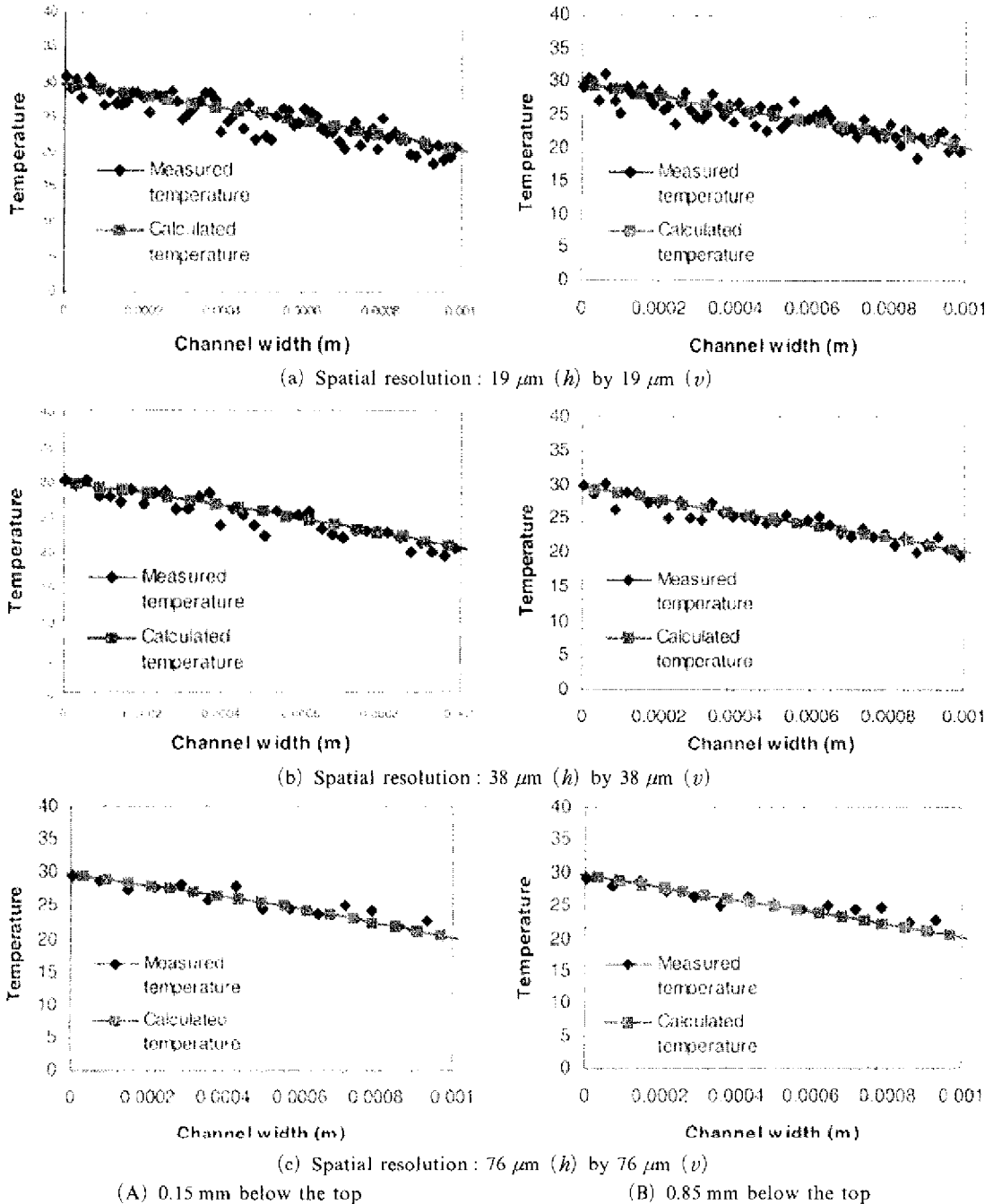


(i) Calculated results (ii) LIF results

**Fig. 8** Temperature field for the top region of a heated channel

right column shows the calculated and the measured results, respectively. The temperature contours for 16–20°C and 18–24°C cases show nearly vertically stratified profiles. The reason is that the very slow flow circulation due to the small

Raleigh numbers is not sufficient to deform the temperature contours. As such low Rayleigh numbers, there exists little free-convection current and the heat transfer occurs mainly by conduction across the fluid layer (McGregor, 1969). The



**Fig. 9** The comparison of numerical and 2-color LIF temperature values below 0.15 mm and 0.85 mm from the top ( $Gr_w Pr = 215$ ,  $T_L = 20^\circ\text{C}$  and  $T_H = 30^\circ\text{C}$ )

horizontal variation in temperature should remain largely linear when the flow remains in the conduction regime of  $Gr_w Pr \leq 10^3$  as long as  $h/w \geq 10$ . However, with increasing the Rayleigh number, the temperature contour starts deforming as seen for cases of 20–30°C and 23–37°C. The clockwise circulation more aggressively moves hotter fluid from the left wall to the cooler right wall region. Therefore, the temperature contour deforms to the right side reflecting the stronger thermal convection. This fact can also be identified in PIV results which show that the magnitudes of velocity increase as the temperature difference increases. Figure 9 shows local and more quantitative comparisons between the measured and calculated temperature profiles at 0.15 mm and 0.85 mm below the top, for a representative case of  $Gr_w Pr = 215$ . To examine the measurement uncertainties as a function of the spatial measurement resolution, the original pixel-by-pixel data are combined to  $4 \times 4$ ,  $8 \times 8$ , and  $16 \times 16$  - pixelated interrogation cells, corresponding to the spatial resolution of  $19 \mu\text{m}$  (H) by  $19 \mu\text{m}$  (V),  $38 \mu\text{m}$  by  $38 \mu\text{m}$ , and  $76 \mu\text{m}$  by  $76 \mu\text{m}$ , respectively.

The data fluctuations should decrease with increasing number of the spatial samplings and the uncertainties are proportional to  $1/\sqrt{N}$ , for the case of multiple ( $N$ ) samplings with  $N$  approaching to infinity. The root-mean-square (r.m.s) fluctuations of the measured temperature data, from the calculated predictions, show persistent reduction from over 2°C to below 1°C, with increasing spatial resolution from  $19 \mu\text{m}$  square to  $76 \mu\text{m}$  square.

## 6. Conclusions

Micro Particle Image Velocimetry (PIV) and Two-color Laser Induced Fluorescence (LIF) technique has been developed and examined for the comprehensive measurements for velocity and temperature fields. The measurements have been accomplished for buoyancy driven velocity and temperature fields in a 1 mm heated channel. The spatial resolution of the Micro PIV system is  $75 \mu\text{m}$  by  $67 \mu\text{m}$  and the error due to Brownian

motion is estimated 1.05%. In 2-color LIF system, detection of the fluorescence intensity ratio of the temperature-sensitive Rh-B to the temperature-insensitive Rh-110 enables temperature measurements that are free from the background noise occurring primarily from the nonuniformity of incident laser sheet. It is shown that the intensity ration of fluorescence follow the thermal-driven flow faithfully in the 1 mm channel. The r.m.s fluctuations of the measured temperature from the computational predictions show persistent decrease from 2.3°C for  $19 \mu\text{m}$  spatial measurement resolution to 0.92°C for  $76 \mu\text{m}$  resolution. Measured velocity and temperature fields have fairly good agreement with numerical results, showing the feasibility of development as a diagnostic technique.

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