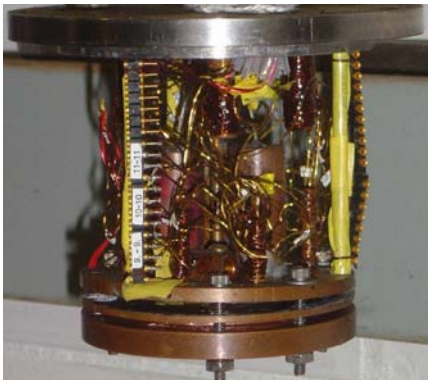


4.1 Instrumentation: Thermometry



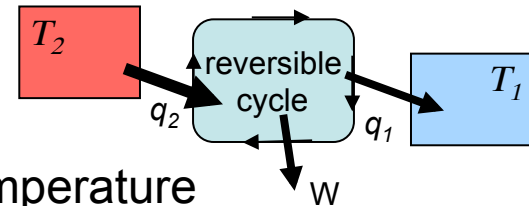
Outline

- Temperature measurement
 - ITS 90
 - Thermocouples
 - Fundamentals
 - Commercial configurations
 - Thermopiles
 - Resistance thermometers
 - Considerations & Options
 - Uncertainties
 - Do's and don'ts
 - Transient calibration
 - Vapor pressure thermometers

International Temperature Scale 1990

- Temperature is defined in relation to physical (thermodynamic) quantities:

- Heat flow in a cyclic process: $T_2/T_1 = q_2/q_1$
 - Provided concept of absolute (and zero) temperature
- associated with 'ideal gas' behavior $PV = nRT$
 - For a closed constant volume, $T \propto P$ (gas bulb thermometers)



- Definition:

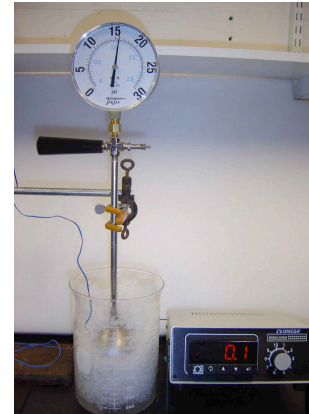
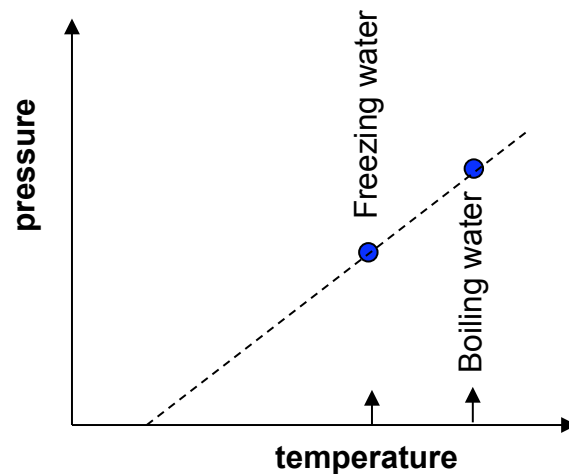
- Unit of 1 Kelvin = $\frac{1}{273.16}$ of the thermodynamic temperature of the triple point of water
- $T(^{\circ}\text{C}) = T(\text{K}) - 273.15 \Leftarrow$ (ice point)
- *So far it has proved advantageous to define an empirical scale which can be reproduced accurately and is internationally agreed upon. The best estimate of its difference from the thermodynamic scale is supplied*

Temperature Scales - History

- Guillaume Amontons – 1703: gas thermometer

For a fixed volume
near room
temperature
 $T = \text{const} \times P$

Suggestion of
coldest possible
temperature, T_0 at
zero gas pressure



- Anders Celcius – 1744: defines $T = 0^\circ$ and $T = 100^\circ$
- John Dalton, Guy-Lussac – 1802: *if we continue the fixed-volume 1°C step decrease in temperature below 0°C , 273.15 steps will bring us to zero pressure*

Temperature Scales - History

- William Thomson – 1848: absolute temperature scale, in the sense that it would be independent of any material properties

$$W = Q\mu(T_1 - T_2)$$

- Thomson considers Q as constant (water wheel)
- 1851 – James Joule convinces Thomson that

$$W = Q_{hot} - Q_{cold}$$

- 1854 – Joule suggests that $\mu = \frac{1}{T_{gas}} \Rightarrow \frac{Q_H}{Q_C} = \frac{T_H}{T_C}$

$$T_{gas} = \frac{Pv}{R} \quad (\text{absolute temperature})$$



ITS 90

- Between 0.65 K and 5.0 K T_{90} is defined by vapor pressure relations of ^3He and ^4He

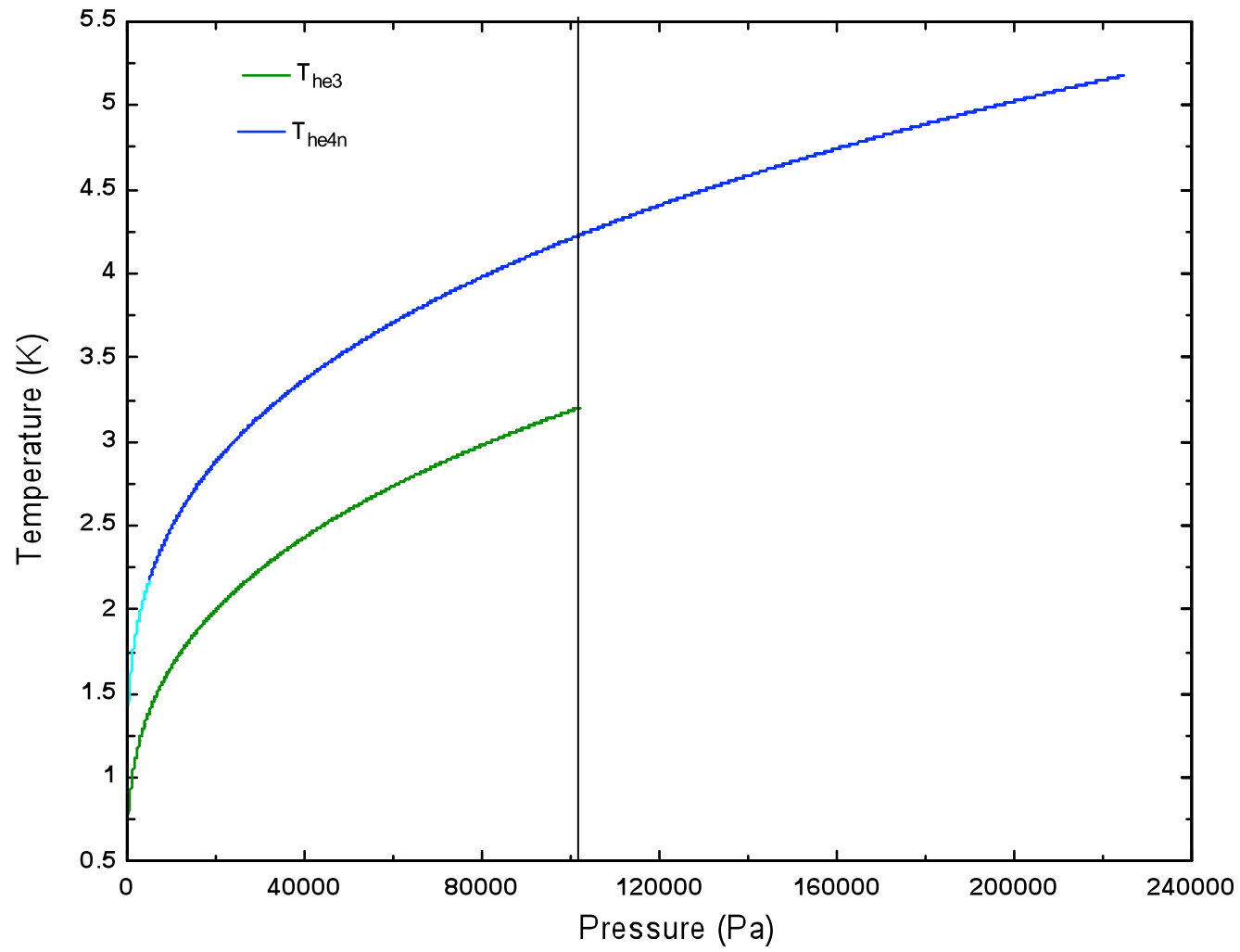
$$T_{90} (K) = A_0 + \sum_{i=1}^9 A_i \left\{ \frac{\ln [P(Pa)] - B}{C} \right\}^i$$

Table A.3. Values of the Constants for the Helium Vapor Pressure Eqs. (A.3a) and (A.3b), and the Temperature Range for Which Each Equation, Identified by Its Set of Constants, Is Valid

	^3He 0.65 K to 3.2 K	^4He 1.25 K to 2.1768 K	^4He 2.1768 K to 5.0 K
A_0	1.053447	1.392408	3.146631
A_1	0.980106	0.527153	1.357655
A_2	0.676380	0.166756	0.413923
A_3	0.372692	0.050988	0.091159
A_4	0.151656	0.026514	0.016349
A_5	-0.002263	0.001975	0.001826
A_6	0.006596	-0.017976	-0.004325
A_7	0.088966	0.005409	-0.004973
A_8	-0.004770	0.013259	0
A_9	-0.054943	0	0
B	7.3	5.6	10.3
C	4.3	2.9	1.9

From Modern Gas-Based Temperature and Pressure Measurements by F. Pavese & G. Molinar
Plenum Press, NY 1992

Helium Vapor Pressure Curves



ITS 90

- Between 3.0 K and the triple point of neon, T_{90} is defined by means of a helium gas thermometer calibrated at three temperatures:
 - Triple point of neon: 24.5561 K
 - Triple point of equilibrium hydrogen: 13.8033 K
 - A temperature between 3.0 K and 5.0 K determined via a ^3He or ^4He vapor pressure thermometer

$$T_{90} = \frac{a + bp + cp^2}{1 + B_x(T_{90})n/V}$$

- Between the triple point of equilibrium hydrogen and the freezing point of silver (961.78 K) T_{90} is defined by means of platinum resistance thermometers calibrated at specified sets of defining fixed points and using specified interpolations procedures.
- Above the freezing point of silver, T_{90} is defined in terms of a defining fixed point and the Planck radiation law.



ITS 90 – fixed points

Table A.1. Defining Fixed Points of the ITS-90*

Number	Temperature		Substance ^a	State ^b	$W_r(T_{90})$
	T_{90}/K	$t_{90}/^{\circ}\text{C}$			
1	3–5	– 270.15 to – 268.15	He	V	
2	13.8033	– 259.3467	<i>e</i> -H ₂	T	0.00119007
3	≈ 17	≈ – 256.15	<i>e</i> -H ₂ (or He)	V (or G)	
4	≈ 20.3	≈ – 252.85	<i>e</i> -H ₂ (or He)	V (or G)	
5	24.5561	– 248.5939	Ne	T	0.00844974
6	54.3584	– 218.7916	O ₂	T	0.09171804
7	83.8058	– 189.3442	Ar	T	0.2158597
8	234.3156	– 38.8344	Hg	T	0.84414211
9	273.16	0.01	H ₂ O	T	1.00000000
10	<i>302.9146</i>	<i>29.7646</i>	<i>Ga</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>1.11813889</i>
11	<i>429.7485</i>	<i>156.5985</i>	<i>In</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>1.60980185</i>
12	<i>505.078</i>	<i>231.928</i>	<i>Sn</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>1.89279768</i>
13	<i>692.677</i>	<i>419.527</i>	<i>Zn</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>2.56891730</i>
14	<i>933.473</i>	<i>660.323</i>	<i>Al</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>3.37600860</i>
15	<i>123.93</i>	<i>961.78</i>	<i>Ag</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>4.28642053</i>
16	<i>1337.33</i>	<i>1064.18</i>	<i>Au</i>		
17	<i>1357.77</i>	<i>1084.62</i>	<i>Cu</i>		

^a All substances except ³He are of natural isotopic composition. *e*-H₂ is hydrogen at the equilibrium concentration of the ortho and para molecular forms.

^b For complete definitions and advice on the realization of these various states, see “Supplementary Information for the ITS-90.” The symbols have the following meanings: V: vapor pressure point. T: triple point (temperature at which the solid, liquid, and vapor phases are in equilibrium). G: gas thermometer point. M, F: melting point, freezing point (temperature, at a pressure of 101 325 Pa, at which the solid and liquid phases are in equilibrium).

* [Entries in italic are beyond the scope of this book.]

From Modern Gas-Based Temperature and Pressure Measurements by F. Pavese & G. Molinar
Plenum Press, NY 1992

Thermocouples - Fundamentals

- *Seebeck, 1821: Two wires of dissimilar metals joined at both ends display a continuous current if one end is heated. If the circuit is broken, a voltage is established which is a function of the junction temperature and the composition of the metals.*

- *Because temperature measurements via thermocouples are common and deceptively simple, many errors in their use and interpretation are also common. To avoid these, it is helpful to understand the physical principles behind the signal generated by a thermocouple ...*



Thermocouples - Fundamentals

- The electric current, J , associated with the flow of electrons is given by:

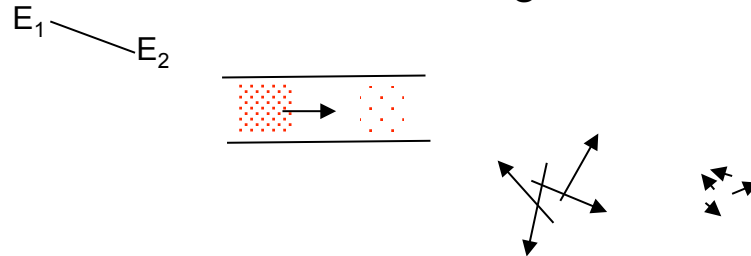
$$J = \sigma (\nabla \tilde{\mu} / e - \alpha \nabla T)$$

- The thermal current, q , associated with the same flow of electrons is:

$$q = T\alpha J - k\nabla T = \frac{T\sigma\alpha}{e} \nabla \tilde{\mu} - (T\sigma\alpha^2 + k) \nabla T$$

Here

- α , the Seebeck coefficient, is a measure of the tendency of electric currents to carry heat and for heat currents to induce electrical currents.
 - $\tilde{\mu} = \mu - e\phi$, where e is the electric charge, ϕ the electric potential, and μ is the chemical potential (which is a function of composition and temperature).
 - σ and k are the electric and thermal conductivity respectively
- The net motion of the electrons arises from three different gradients:
 - $\nabla\phi$ (voltage)
 - $\nabla\mu$ (concentration gradient)
 - ∇T (thermal energy gradient)



Thermocouples - Fundamentals

- Consider the circuit as shown connected to a potentiometer: the two 'leads' have the same composition and temperature, therefore they have the same chemical potential

$$\mu(l_5) = \mu(l_0) \quad \text{or} \quad \tilde{\mu}(l_5) - \tilde{\mu}(l_0) = -e[\phi(l_5) - \phi(l_0)]$$

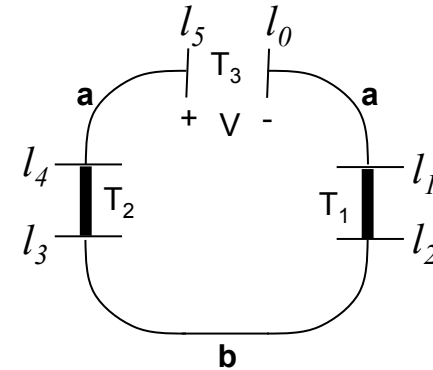
- With zero current flow, $J = 0$, we have for any position along the path from l_0 to l_5 :

$$\tilde{\mu}(l) = \tilde{\mu}(l_0) + e \int_0^l \alpha(l, T) \frac{dT}{dl} dl$$

- Combining the above two equations, we have:

$$\phi(l_5) - \phi(l_0) = - \int_{l_0}^{l_5} \alpha(l, T) \frac{dT}{dl} dl$$

- Note that an open circuit voltage arises from regions where $\frac{dT}{dl} \neq 0$



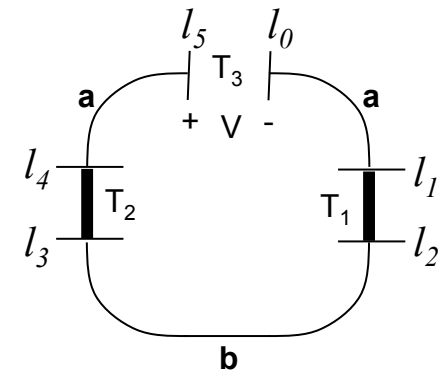
Thermocouples

- Voltage difference between points 0 and 5:

$$\phi(l_5) - \phi(l_0) = -\int_0^{l_5} \alpha(l, T) \frac{dT}{dl} dl$$

- open circuit voltage arises from regions of $dT/dl \neq 0$

$$\phi(l_5) - \phi(l_0) = -\left[\int_0^{l_1} \alpha_a(T) \frac{dT}{dl} dl + \int_{l_1}^{l_2} \alpha(l, T) \frac{dT}{dl} dl + \int_{l_2}^{l_3} \alpha_b(T) \frac{dT}{dl} dl + \int_{l_3}^{l_4} \alpha(l, T) \frac{dT}{dl} dl + \int_{l_4}^{l_5} \alpha_a(T) \frac{dT}{dl} dl \right]$$



Note that

$$\int_{T_3}^{T_1} \alpha_a dT + \int_{T_2}^{T_3} \alpha_a dT = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} -\alpha_a dT$$

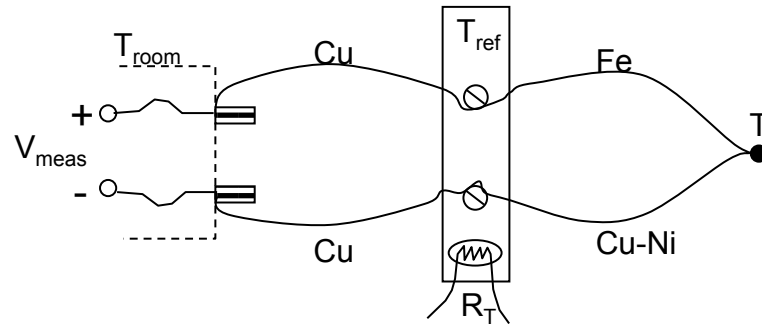
- Note that although α_a and α_b are known, $\alpha(l, T)$ in the joint is unknown. Thus, the joints must be in regions where $dT/dl = 0$. Then:

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(l_5) - \phi(l_0) &= -\int_{T_1}^{T_2} [\alpha_b(T) - \alpha_a(T)] dT \\ &= \int_{T_1}^{T_2} [\alpha_a(T) - \alpha_b(T)] dT = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \alpha_{ab}(T) dT \end{aligned}$$

- $\int_0^{T_2} \alpha_{ab}(T) dT$ is found in the tables! It represents the difference in the voltage generated by material a and material b, both spanning the temperatures 0°C and T_2 .

Commercial Configurations

- Software compensation:



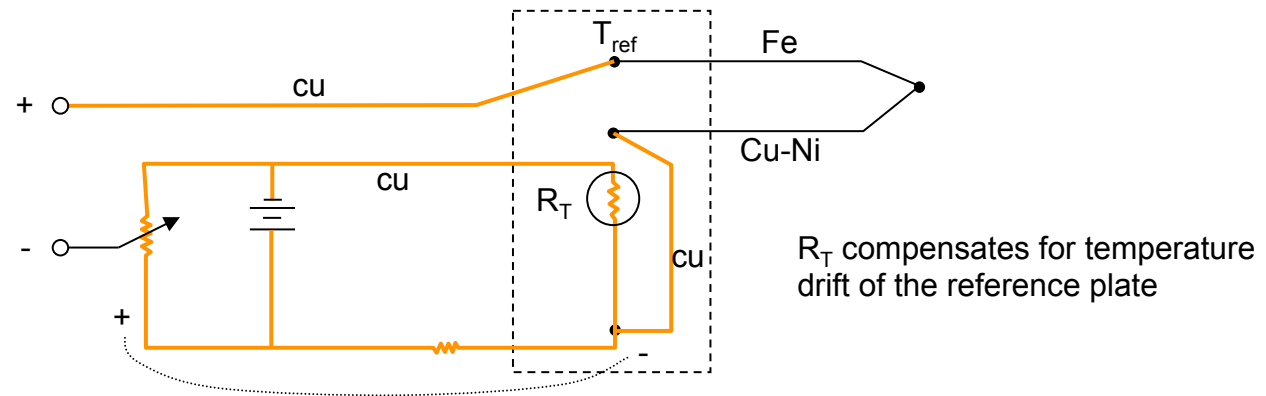
$$V_{meas} = \int_{T_{room}}^{T_{ref}} \alpha_{cu} dT + \int_{T_{ref}}^T \alpha_{Fe,C} dT + \int_{T_{ref}}^{T_{room}} \alpha_{cu} dT = \int_{T_{ref}}^T \alpha_{Fe,C} dT$$

$$\underbrace{\int_{T_{ref}}^T \alpha_{Fe,C} dT}_{V_{meas}} = \underbrace{\int_{T_o}^T \alpha_{Fe,C} dT}_{V(T)} - \underbrace{\int_{T_o}^{T_{ref}} \alpha_{Fe,C} dT}_{V_{ref} \text{ (known)}}$$

- Measure R_T to obtain T_{ref} , and then, V_{ref}
- Solve for $V(T)$, use tables to determine T

Commercial Configurations

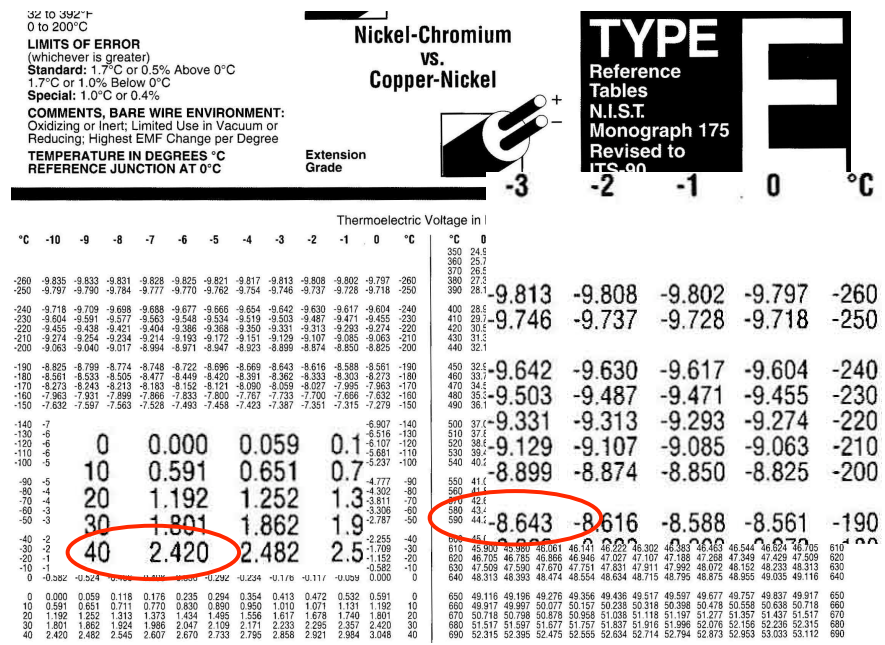
- Hardware compensation



- A specific voltage is created to buck, or cancel, V_{ref} allowing $V(T)$ to be read directly
 - Advantage: faster than software compensation
 - Disadvantage: compensation voltage is specific to only one type of thermocouple wire at a time

Thermocouple - Example

- A type E thermocouple is used to measure $T = 80 \text{ K}$ with $T_{\text{ref}} = 40 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$, (313 K)
 - What voltage is measured at the meter?
 - What is the reference voltage?
 - If the voltage resolution is 0.01 mV, what is the temperature resolution?



$$T = 80 \text{ K} = -193 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$$

$$V_{\text{meas}} = V(T) - V_{\text{ref}} = -8.643 - 2.420 = -11.063 \text{ mV}$$

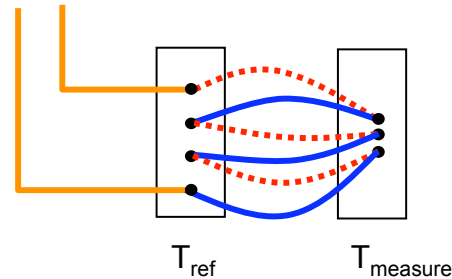
$$V_{\text{ref}} = 2.420 \text{ mV}$$

$$@ 80 \text{ K}, dV/dT = 26.8 \text{ } \mu\text{V/K}$$

$$\text{With } dV = 10 \text{ } \mu\text{V}, \text{ then } dT = 0.37 \text{ K}$$

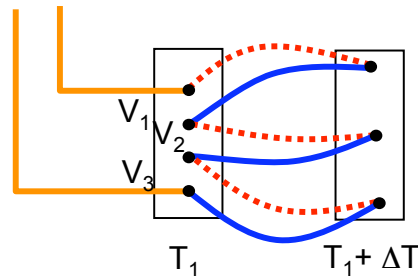
Thermopiles

- To increase signal:



- A series connection of 'n' pairs
 - produces n times the emf
 - Reduces temperature error by $\sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$

- To determine a spatially averaged temperature



$$V_1 = \alpha [(T_1 + \Delta T - \delta) - T_1]$$

$$V_2 = \alpha [(T_1 + \Delta T) - T_1]$$

$$V_3 = \alpha [(T_1 + \Delta T + \delta) - T_1]$$

$$V_{total} = 3\alpha\Delta T$$

Cryogenic Thermocouples

- Commonly used types for cryogenic temperatures:
 - Type E: Ni-Cr, Cu-Ni (constantan)
 - Highest α of types E, K, T (best down to 40 K)
 - Low thermal conductivity
 - Type K: Ni-Cr, Ni-Al
 - 8.5 $\mu\text{V/K}$ @ 20 K (vs. 4.1 $\mu\text{V/K}$ for type E)
 - Type T: Cu, Cu-Ni
 - Ag-Fe: high thermal power, but power decreases with time if stored at room temperature
- Important notes regarding use of thermocouples:
 - Voltage arises from region where $dT/dl \neq 0$
 - Joints must be made in regions where $dT/dl = 0$
 - If used in presence of magnetic fields, ensure that along the TC path, temperature is constant in regions of changing field, or field is constant in regions of changing temperature. ($\alpha = \alpha(H, T)$)
 - Minimize number of joints
 - Avoid dissimilar material joints at instrumentation feed-thru's
 - Heat sink TC wire before reaching the point of measurement



Thermometers - Considerations

- Temperature range
- Type of signal: voltage, capacitance
- Temperature sensitivity: change in signal per change in temperature
- Response time: size, thermal mass
- Mounting package
- Magnetic field sensitivity
- Strain sensitivity
- Repeatability (thermal cycling)
- Long term stability
- Radiation resistance
- Calibration
- Excitation requirement
- Cost



Thermometers - options

- Diodes (semiconductors): Si, Gas, GAIAs
 - Temperature dependent forward bias voltage
 - Small, fast response
 - Constant current source (10 μ A)
 - Very field dependent
 - Moderate sensitivity over large T-range
- PTC resistors (metal): Pt, Rh-Fe
 - Positive temperature coefficient
 - Very stable
 - Large size, slow response
 - Sensitive to magnetic fields
 - Fairly good sensitivity
 - Strain sensitive
- NTC resistors (semiconductors): CGR, GR, CR, RuO₂, Cernox™
 - Negative temperature coefficient
 - High sensitivity over limited temperature range (CGR, GR, CR)
 - Negligible field dependence (CGR, Cernox™, RuO₂), large field dependence (GR)
 - Strain sensitive, thus encapsulated, with thermal sensing through the leads
 - Moderate response
- Capacitors
 - Insensitive to magnetic field
 - Sensing circuit requires care and attention



Resistance Thermometers

- Which thermometers would you choose for the following situations?
 - Winding of Tevatron magnet:
Cernox™, CGR, Rox™
 - Fluids experiment in helium II:
CGR, GR, Cernox™
 - Characterize performance of LH₂ liquefier:
GR, Rh-Fe, Cernox™
 - Cool-down study of an 80 K cryocooler:
Pt, TC, Si-diode, Cernox™

Thermometers

- Factors contributing to uncertainty:

- Sensor sensitivity:

$$S_T = \frac{\% \text{ change in signal}}{\% \text{ change in } T} \equiv \text{dimensionless sensitivity}$$

- Voltmeter uncertainty

$$\frac{U_{T,V}}{T} = \frac{U_V/V}{S_T} = \% \text{ uncertainty in } V \cdot \frac{\% \text{ change in } T}{\% \text{ change in } V}$$

- Current source uncertainty

$$\frac{U_{T,I}}{T} = \frac{(U_I/I)}{S_T}$$

- Calibration uncertainty – see mfc.

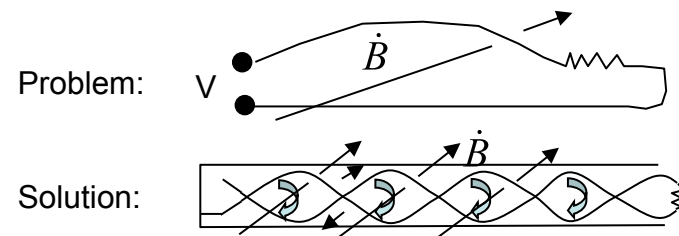
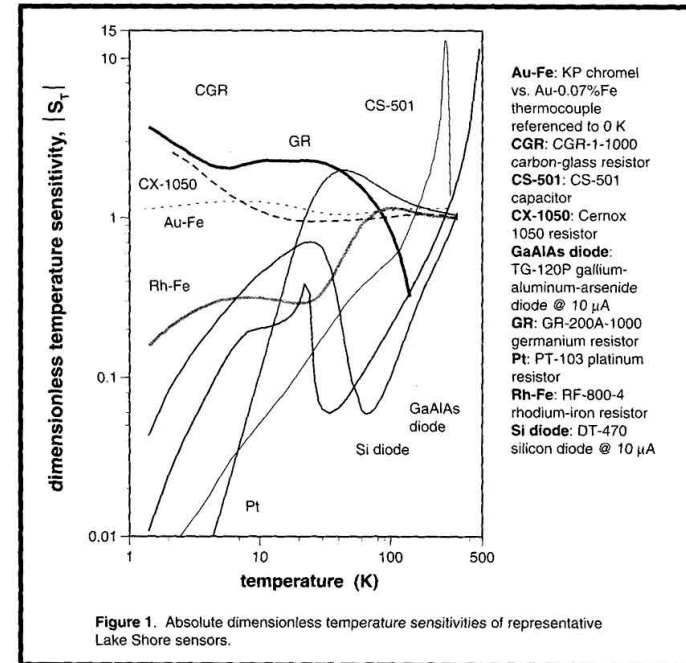
- Thermal noise – usually negligible

- Electromagnetic noise: $emf = \frac{dB}{dt} \cdot A$

- Twisted pairs

- Shielding – connect shield at one end only – preferably at signal source

- Combined total uncertainty: $U_T = \left[(U_{T,V})^2 + (U_{T,I})^2 + (U_{T,Cal})^2 + (U_{T,therm_noise})^2 \right]^{1/2}$

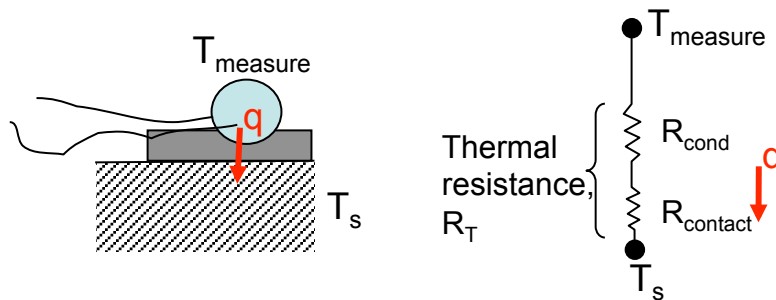


Thermometers

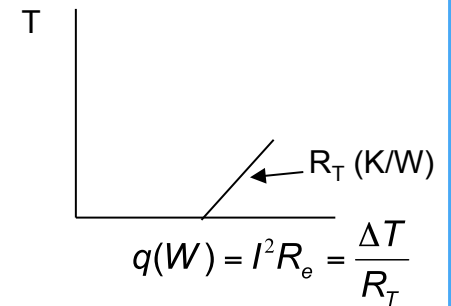
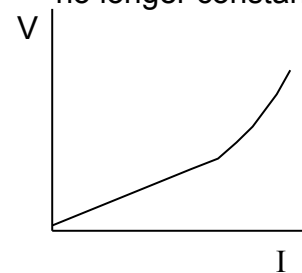
- Factors contributing to error (i.e. bias)

“A thermometer always indicates a temperature intermediate between that of the region being investigated and any other environment with which the thermometer has thermal communication.”

- Self heating



As the current is increased, if T is no longer constant, then ρ is no longer constant



A compromise must be made between signal uncertainty and self-heating error

Low I: $U_{T,I} = T \frac{U_I/I}{S_T}$

A diagram showing a point x surrounded by a cloud of dots. A vertical double-headed arrow indicates the uncertainty $U_{T,I}$.

High I: ΔT_{SH}

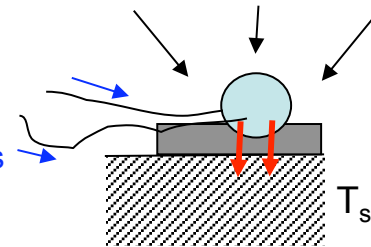
A diagram showing a point x surrounded by a cloud of dots. A vertical double-headed arrow indicates the uncertainty $U_{T,I}$. A larger vertical double-headed arrow indicates the self-heating error ΔT_{SH} .

Thermometers: error factors (cont)

- Parasitic heat leak

Thermal radiation

Conduction along
Instrumentation leads



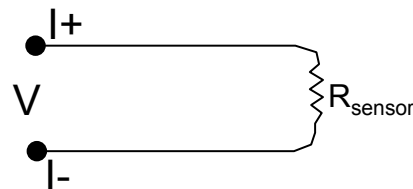
Example: 1 pair of 26 AWG (d=0.4 mm) copper wire, L = 1 m, $\Delta T = 220$ K

$$q_{cond} = \frac{A}{L} \int k(T) dT = 2 \frac{\pi (4 \times 10^{-4})^2}{4} 92 \times 10^3 = 23 \text{ mW}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta T = 230 \text{ mK, when } R_T \sim 10 \text{ K/W}$$

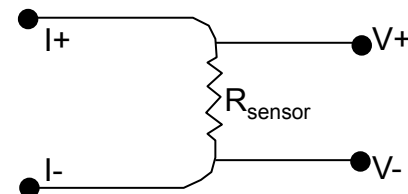
- Lead resistance

Problem:



$$V = I(R_{sensor} + R_{leads})$$

Solution: 4-wire connection



Thermometers: error factors (cont)

- Thermal emf

Problem: the Seebeck coefficient of different materials, in regions of ΔT produces a thermal emf, even when no current is flowing

Solution: reversing polarity, or multiple current levels

$$V = [(V_1 + V_{emf}) - (-V_1 + V_{emf})] / 2 \quad (\text{reverse polarity})$$

$$V = [(I_1 R + V_{emf}) - (I_2 R + V_{emf})] \quad (\text{known values of } I)$$

$$R = \frac{(V)}{(I_1 - I_2)}$$

Thermometers: Do's & Don'ts

- Thermally anchor leads as close to measurement temperature as possible (5 -10 cm length)
- Use twisted, shielded leads to minimize electromagnetic noise (connect shield at one end only)
- Minimize conduction heat load by using long lengths, small diameters, low thermal conductivity materials
- Follow recommended excitation levels to avoid self heating
- Isolate low-level signal leads from high-level signal leads
- Reverse polarity to cancel thermal emf components



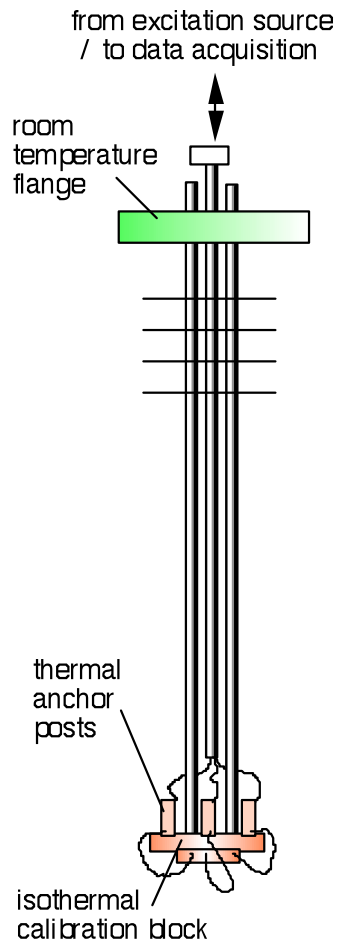
Transient Calibration

- Motivation
 - Calibration via multiple ‘steady state’ reference temperature points requires significant time (and cryogen resources)
 - For some applications extreme temperature resolution is not required
- Idea
 - Match resistance of un-calibrated sensors with temperatures determined from calibrated sensors through matched transient temperature sweep
- Theoretical foundation
 - Solids undergoing a transient temperature change may be modeled as an isothermal mass under the “lumped capacitance” approximation if $Bi \ll 0.1$.

h = convective heat transfer coefficient
k = thermal conductivity
L = length scale = volume/surface area
 - The time dependence of the temperature change is governed by $\tau = mC/hA$, but the spatial dependence of temperature at any instant in time is governed by the Biot number alone.

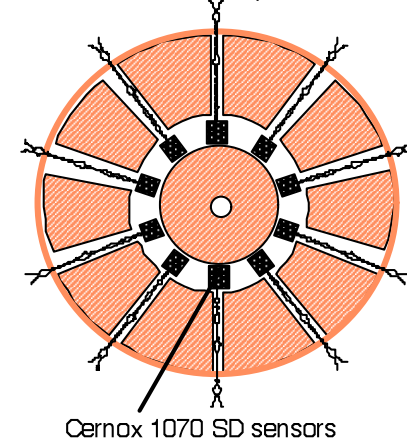


Transient Calibration: Procedure



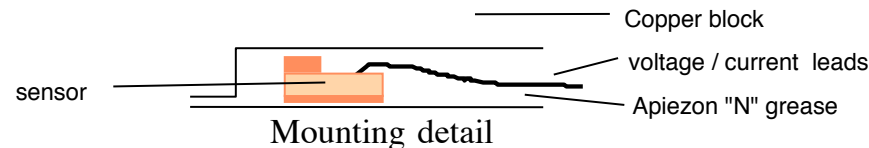
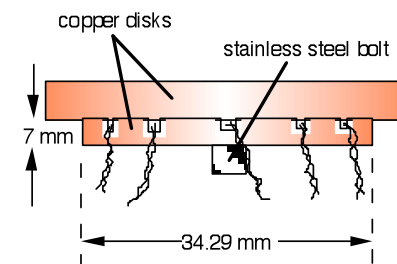
- Mount calibrated and uncalibrated sensors in an “isothermal” copper block.
- Cool to cryogenic (liquid helium) temperature.
- Apply 0 - 10 μ A square wave excitation signal and begin data acquisition.
- Extract calibration rig from dewar smoothly over ~ 60 minute time span.

Isothermal block: top view cutaway



Cernox 1070 SD sensors

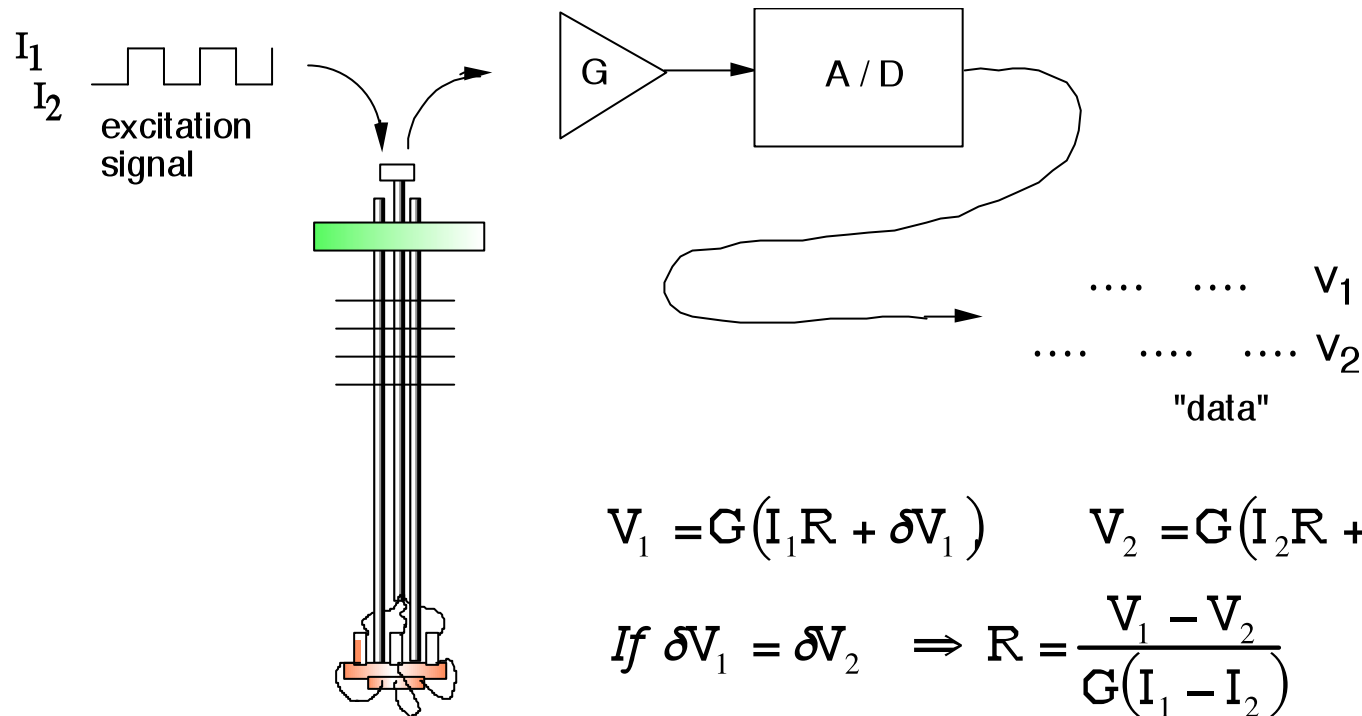
Isothermal block side view



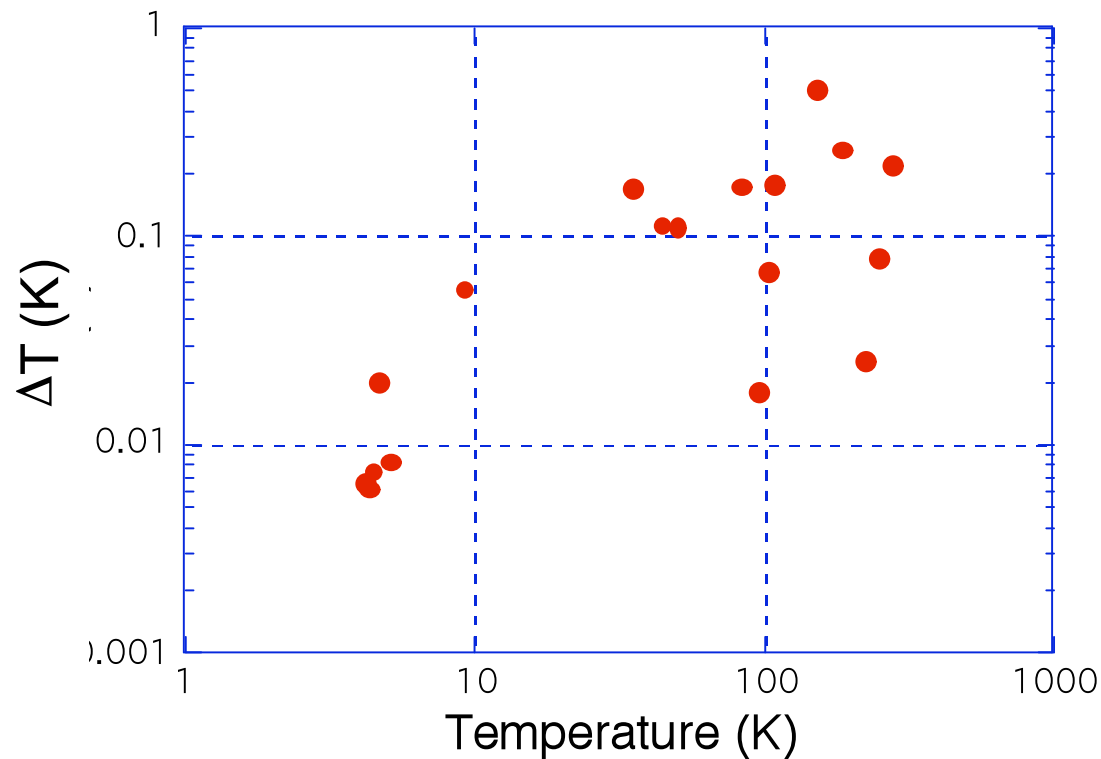
In the case of the Cernox TM 1070 SD sensor, the primary heat transfer is through the base, rather than through the leads

Transient Calibration: Eliminating Parasitic Voltages

- Apply square wave excitation signal: 0 - 10 μA , 0.1 Hz
 - self heating test w/ 10 μA revealed temperature offset at 4.2K is < 1 mK
 - Frequency must be large enough to avoid changes in δV over one period

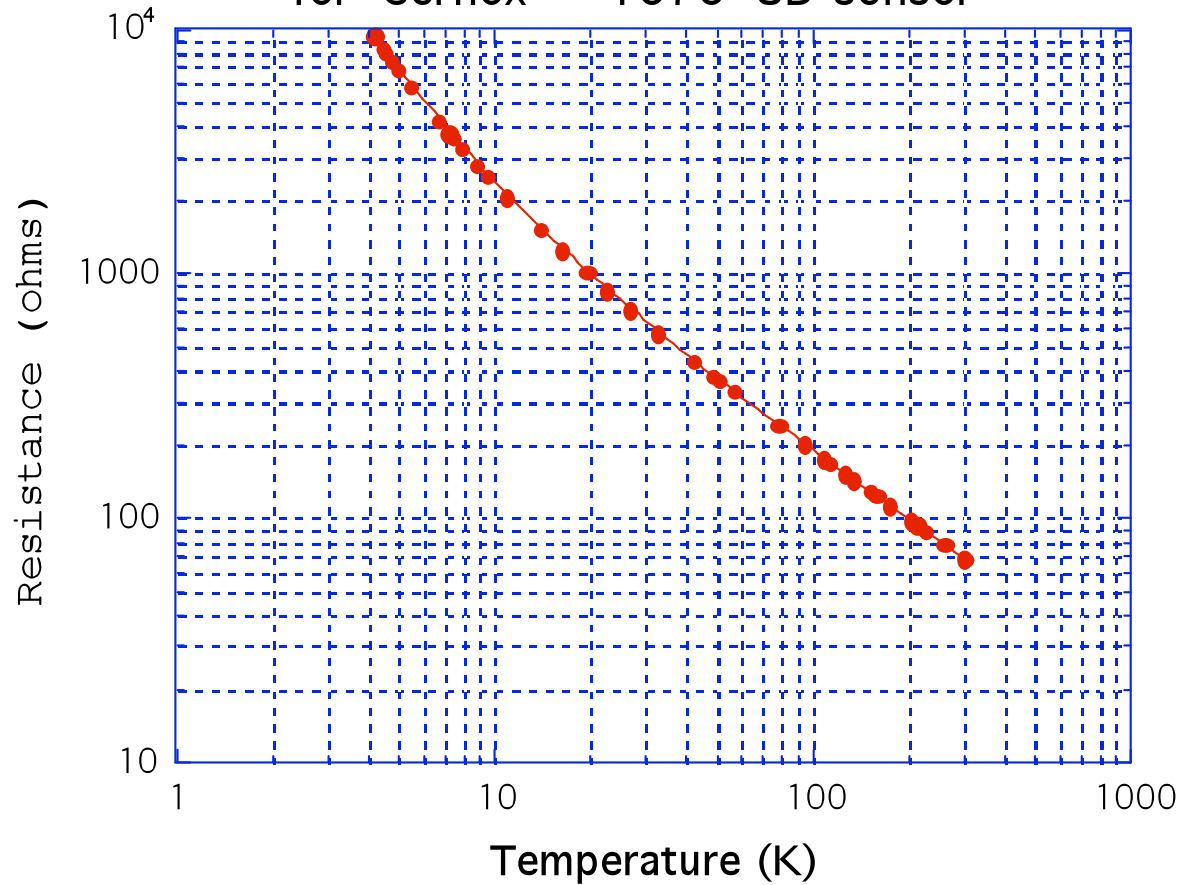


Transient Calibration: Measured ΔT between calibrated sensors

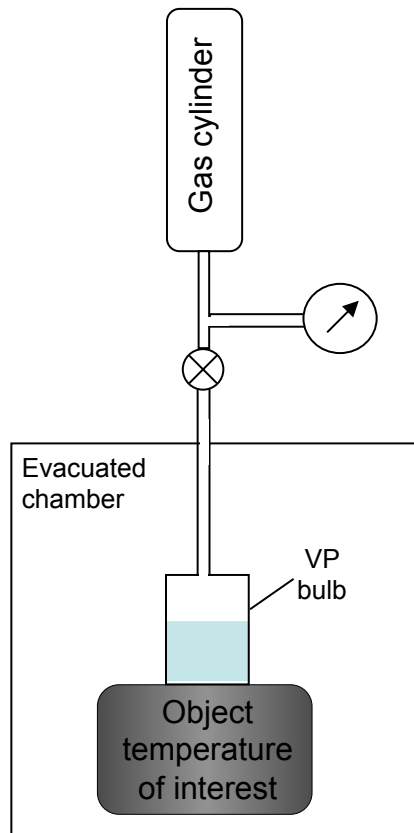


Transient Calibration: Sample Results

Thermometer Calibration Results
for Cernox™ 1070 SD sensor



Vapor Pressure Thermometry



- Condense gas into bulb (maintain free surface)
- Measure pressure at room temperature (pressure is determined by coldest location)
- Use vapor pressure relationship to determine temperature
- Problems to avoid:
 - Loss of free surface
 - Cold-spots along capillary
 - Thermo-molecular pressure gradient in capillary



Vapor Pressure Thermometry

- Ensure free surface:

- Maintain more than $\sim 10\%$ fill at T_{\max} (P_{\max}): *the problem to avoid is that at some $T' < T_{\max}$ the saturated pressure will be such that all moles of the liquid will evaporate to produce the saturated pressure. Above this temperature the bulb will behave as a 'gas bulb' rather than as a vapor pressure bulb.*

- Let $N_t = N_a + N_b + N_c + N_L =$ total # of moles in the system (1)

- $N_a =$ # moles in ambient plumbing, storage vessel

$$N_a = (P_{\max} V_a) / (RT_a)$$

- $N_b =$ # moles of gas in the vapor pressure bulb

$$N_b = 0.9 * (P_{\max} V_b) / [RT_{\max} (1 + B(T)P_{\max})] \quad \text{or} \quad 0.9 * (\rho_{\text{gas}} V_b) / M$$

- $B =$ 1st virial coefficient, $M =$ molecular weight

- $N_c =$ # moles of gas in the capillary

$$N_c = (P_{\max} V_c) / (RT_{c,ave})$$

- $N_L =$ # moles of liquid in the vapor pressure bulb

$$N_L = 0.1 * [\rho_{\text{liquid}} (T_{\max}) V] / M$$



Vapor Pressure Thermometry

- Ensure free surface (cont.)
 - Must also ensure that at $T_{\min}(P_{\min})$, the bulb is not full of liquid

$$N_t - \frac{P_{\min}}{R} \left(\frac{V_a}{T_a} + \frac{V_c}{T_{c,ave}} \right) < \frac{\rho_L(T_{\min})V_b}{M} \quad (2)$$

- Conditions (1) and (2) define allowable range for N_t and P_{charge}
- Before cooldown, $N_t = (P_{\text{charge}} V_t)/(RT_a)$

- Size of capillary

- It is usually desirable to make the capillary small (heat leak, uncertainty with $T_{c,ave}$)
- But, the mean free path length $\lambda = \frac{kT_a}{\sqrt{2\pi}\delta^2 P_{\min}} \ll D_{\text{capillary}}$ to avoid the molecular flow regime.
- Rarely a problem. At 1.5 K, $P_{\text{sat},4\text{He}} \sim 500 \text{ Pa}$

$$\lambda = \frac{1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J}}{\sqrt{2\pi} \text{ K}} \frac{300 \text{ K}}{(2.18 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m})^2} \frac{\text{m}^3}{500 \text{ J}} = 4 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m} \approx 0.0015''$$

High Resolution Thermometry (JPL)

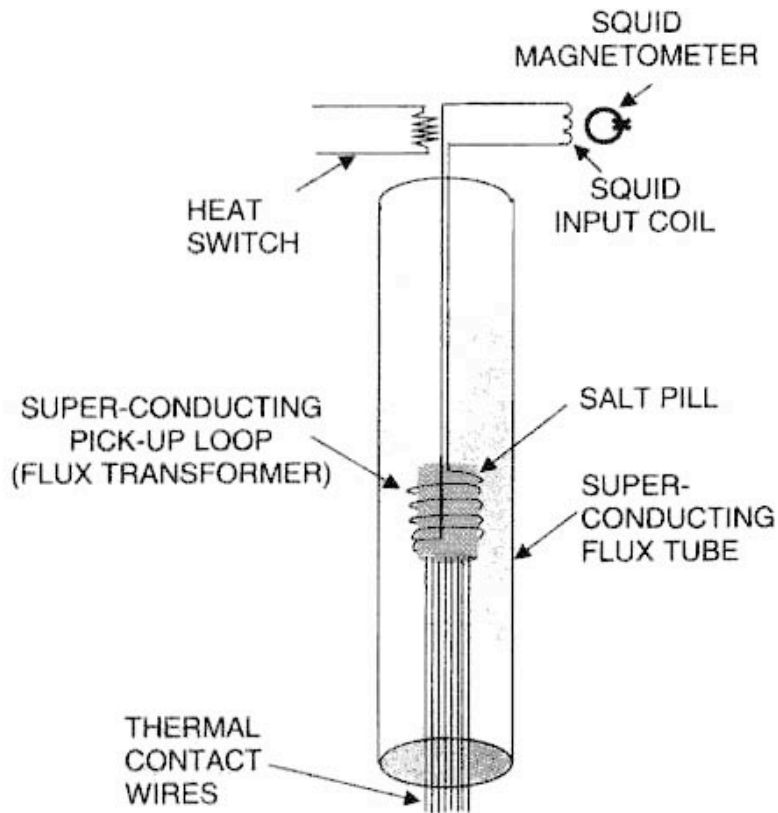


Fig. 1. Components of a high-resolution thermometer.

