

List of Figures

- Fig. 1.1:** Schematic of a generic instrument. — 5
- Fig. 1.2:** (a), (b), (c) Distinction between precision and accuracy, and (d) between systematic and random errors. — 6
- Fig. 1.3:** (Left) Both metal bars are at the reference temperature, showing the same length. When they are welded at the reference temperature they are flat. (Right) The temperature is different from reference and because the bars tend to have different lengths the ensemble bends. — 9
- Fig. 1.4:** The bimetallic bar associated with a needle, a lever arm and a scale becomes a thermometer when calibrated. — 10
- Fig. 2.1:** (a) A transducer generates electrical energy from a physical stimulus. (b) A sensor “modifies” the electrical energy provided by the power supply. — 12
- Fig. 2.2:** Transfer functions: (a) linear transfer; (b) low sensitivity for small inputs; (c) low sensitivity for large inputs, (d) low sensitivity for middle inputs. — 13
- Fig. 2.3:** In the upper part, the electronics’ transference is designed to compensate the non-linear sensor’s transference, giving as a result a complete linear transference (lower part). — 15
- Fig. 2.4:** Hysteresis. Upscale and downscale transferences; h_{\max} is the maximum variation between both. — 16
- Fig. 2.5:** Non-linear transfer curve with TSL and BFSL linear approximations. $D1 \neq D2$ shows that the definition of linearity depends on the linear approximation method. — 18
- Fig. 2.6:** Actual transfer function with offset and gain errors; ideal transfer function; and transfer function with offset error removed. At null and full input, offset and gain errors are indicated. — 19
- Fig. 2.7:** The output voltage of a sensor as a function of the direction the stimulus comes from represented in the horizontal plane. The scale shown on the perimeter must be multiplied by 10. — 24
- Fig. 2.8:** Horizontal plane beamwidth for -3 dB ($P_2/P_1 \approx 0.5$), is $-25^\circ + 25^\circ$. — 25
- Fig. 2.9:** Vertical plane directivity pattern. — 25
- Fig. 2.10:** The beamwidth of an acoustic wave sensor takes information of the sea surface averaged over the base of the cone. — 26
- Fig. 2.11:** The input signal (left) is modified by the sensor frequency response giving a different signal at the output (right). — 28
- Fig. 2.12a:** Wavemeter gain as a function of frequency. As modified from Datawell (1980). — 29
- Fig. 2.12b:** Wavemeter phase output relative to the input, as a function of frequency. As modified from Datawell (1980). — 30
- Fig. 2.13:** Gain as a function of frequency showing a constant gain (G_0) over a certain range of frequencies. Lower and upper frequency points (f_1 and f_2 , respectively) and the bandwidth are also shown. — 31
- Fig. 2.14a:** G_{UP} and G_{DOWN} are the gains in the upper and lower frequencies, respectively, as a function of $N = N_1 = N_2$. — 32
- Fig. 2.14b:** Φ_{UP} and Φ_{DOWN} are the phases in the upper and lower frequencies, respectively, as a function of $N = N_1 = N_2$. — 33
- Fig. 2.15a:** A block of mass m pushed with force $U(t)$ and sliding at a velocity $x(t)$ on an oil layer. It experiences a viscous friction force proportional to the velocity. The friction coefficient is b . — 35
- Fig. 2.15b:** Solutions to Eq. (2.10a) when $U(t)$ is the step function. $y_1 = x(t)/C_1$ and $y_2 = -x(t)/C_1$ as functions of $z = t/\tau$. — 35

- Fig. 2.16:** Time response of a temperature sensor when a temperature step of 26 °C is applied to it. The delay from the beginning of the step until the temperature of the sensor reaches 63.2 % of the step amplitude is the time constant of the sensor. — 37
- Fig. 2.17:** An artificial wave was synthesized by adding four sine waves of frequencies 0.1, 0.2, 0.3 and 0.4 Hz and applied to the wavemeter dynamic transfer function of Figs. 2.12a and 2.12b. Output shows how the shape of the wave is distorted due to the phase shift introduced by the meter. — 40
- Fig. 2.18:** An instrument has lower frequency $f_1 = 10$ Hz and upper frequency $f_2 = 1000$ Hz, and the measurand signal is the sum of three sine waves whose frequencies are: 10 Hz, 100 Hz and 1000 Hz. Output signal is different than the input due to attenuation and phase shift introduced by the instrument. — 41
- Fig. 2.19:** HPF (high pass filter), LPF (low pass filter), BPF (band pass filter), NF (notch filter). — 43
- Fig. 3.1:** A sinusoidal wave as a function of x . The amplitude (A) and the wavelength (λ) are shown. — 51
- Fig. 3.2:** (Top): Compression and rarefaction zones for a wave traveling through the air. (Bottom): The associated displacement and pressure waveforms. — 52
- Fig. 3.3:** Two-dimensional waves propagating on the surface of a water body. — 53
- Fig. 3.4:** The Doppler effect. The observer walks towards a fixed sound source and perceives a higher frequency. — 54
- Fig. 3.5:** The Doppler effect. A moving sound source moves towards a fixed observer, who perceives a higher frequency — 54
- Fig. 3.6:** A fixed sound source emits towards a cloud moving with velocity v^* . The cloud returns a frequency shifted signal. — 56
- Fig. 3.7:** Schematic of X-ray scattering by the atoms of a crystal lattice — 58
- Fig. 3.8:** A linear array of transducers receives energy scattered by a particle. The distances between the particle and the transducers are d_1 , d_2 , d_3 and d_4 . — 60
- Fig. 3.9:** Each transducer receives the scattered signal with different amplitude and at a different time. Because the attenuation and delay of the propagating signal is known, they may be compensated by the Delay and Gain circuits. — 61
- Fig. 3.10:** The signal produced by the Signal Generator is delayed and amplified in a differential way such that the wavefronts are summed in a resulting wavefront with the desired particular direction. — 62
- Fig. 3.11:** Attenuation and phase of the Signal Generator is processed (in amplitude and phase) to focus the energy on the target. — 63
- Fig. 3.12:** The analog original signal is sampled at periods T during a sampling time w , which results in a pulsed signal. — 65
- Fig. 3.13:** The blue (dashed line) signal is sampled with fewer samples per second than required by the sampling theorem. The black bars with the dots symbolize the acquired samples. When reconstructing a sinusoidal signal from the samples, the red (continuous line) signal will be obtained which is of lower frequency than the original one. — 66
- Fig. 3.14:** Surface porosity is modified at regular intervals. When regularly sampled at a rate less than two samples per furrow, aliasing could appear in the results. — 67
- Fig. 3.15:** The analog signal is the red (continuous sinusoid); the bars with dots are the acquired samples. Numbers from 0 to 7 are the values that the samples adopted in the quantization process. The steps in blue are the individual values assigned to each sample. — 68
- Fig. 3.16:** Schematic of a data logger. — 71
- Fig. 3.17:** An electronic thermometer produces a voltage output proportional to the input temperature, its sensitivity being K_1 . The data logger converts input voltage to digital numbers with sensitivity K_2 . The total sensitivity is the product of both. — 71

- Fig. 3.18:** A resistor has a resistance that depends on its geometrical properties and on the material it is made of. — 74
- Fig. 3.19:** (a) Two resistors in series: the current is the same for both. (b) Two resistors in parallel: the voltage is the same for both. — 75
- Fig. 3.20:** (a) Capacitance. (b) Inductance. — 77
- Fig. 3.21:** (a) When a magnet moves towards the coil, the galvanometer will deflect indicating that current flows through the coil. (b) A coil through which a current flows behaves as a magnet and it is called an electromagnet. — 79
- Fig. 3.22:** A magnet produces a variable magnetic flux which induces an emf on a coil. Coil output shows pulsed voltage. — 80
- Fig. 3.23:** A conductive “c-shaped” wire and a cylindrical metal rod forming a one turn coil are placed in a uniform magnetic field \mathbf{B} . The rod can slide on the conductive wire varying the coil area, thus the flux Φ changes generating an emf on the coil that originates a current i which produces \mathbf{B}_1 . — 81
- Fig. 3.24:** A conductive loop placed in a magnetic field \mathbf{B} carries a current I , appearing a force on the vertical wires. θ is the angle between \mathbf{B} and the plane of the loop. — 83
- Fig. 3.25:** Voltage source v_1 produces a current i_1 in the primary coil which generates a variable \mathbf{B}_1 . The flux change generates an emf in the secondary coil which produces a current i_2 and a voltage v_2 . — 84
- Fig. 3.26:** A homemade transformer allows the laminated magnetic core and the coils to be appreciated. — 85
- Fig. 3.27:** A toroidal transformer. — 85
- Fig. 3.28:** A current I flows through a bar made of metal or semiconductor and placed in a magnetic field \mathbf{B} . Carriers are deflected due to the magnetic force, thus generating an electric field \mathbf{E} . A voltage can be measured at the output electrodes. — 86
- Fig. 3.29:** A reed switch. — 87
- Fig. 3.30:** (Top drawings) At the center a piezoelectric bar with electrical contact on top and bottom is shown; the black arrow indicates the polar axis. On the left, the bar is compressed generating a voltage with the same polarity than the polar axis. On the right, the bar is stretched and the voltage polarity changes. (Bottom drawings) A voltage is applied to the bars which compress and stretches them depending on the voltage polarity. Applying an alternating voltage to the bar it vibrates at the voltage frequency; conversely if a vibration compresses and stretches the bar an alternating voltage appears on the electrical contacts. — 89
- Fig. 3.31:** A ferromagnetic cylindrical bar is inserted in a coil. When the coil is connected to a power supply V the magnetic field generated by the coil will change the length of the bar. Conversely, when the bar is biased by a magnetic field \mathbf{B} and stressed by forces \mathbf{F} , the permeability of the material changes and the magnetic flux varies producing an induced voltage in the coil. — 91
- Fig. 3.32:** Strain as a result of applied current. An alternating current will produce a strain always positive regardless of the direction of the current. — 91
- Fig. 3.33:** A working point in the linear part of the transferences must be chosen to have the maximum sensitivity and linearity by adding a constant magnetic field to the rod. — 92
- Fig. 3.34:** (a) and (b) A person standing at the center of a platform rotating with angular velocity ω throws an object with velocity \mathbf{V} towards B_1 . An observer from outside the platform will see the object describing a straight trajectory from A to B_2 . (c) A person standing on the platform at B_1 will see a curved trajectory from A to B_2 . Then, for Newton's second law to still be valid for the observer on the platform, it is required to add a fictitious force F_c , the Coriolis force, given by Eq. (3.31) and perpendicular to the plane determined by ω and \mathbf{V} . — 94
- Fig. 3.35:** (a) The tangential velocity U_1 at the top of the imaginary very tall building is higher than U_2 at its base, thus the object will impact at B_2 , which is to the east of B_1 . (b) If a flexible tube is

placed on the wall of the building, the object falling within the tube would apply a force on the tube. — 96

Fig. 4.1: (a) The sensor resistance is much larger than the ammeter resistance, thus almost all the measured current is due to the sensor variations. (b) The voltmeter resistance is much larger than the sensor resistance then the measured voltage is due to sensor variations. — 100

Fig. 4.2: (a) Wheatstone bridge, (b) The resistor R_v is used to measure R_x . — 101

Fig. 4.3: An ammeter A and a voltmeter V are used to measure the sensor resistance. The cable resistance appears in series with the sensor, thus cable variations are indistinguishable from sensor variations, which are the signal we want to measure. — 102

Fig. 4.4: The cables w_1 and w_2 separate the current supply (I_e) circuit from the voltmeter circuit. Because the voltmeter has a high internal resistance, the current I_m is much lower than I_e , thus proportionally decreasing the voltage drops in series with the voltmeter. Therefore, the voltmeter measures approximately the resistive sensor voltage. — 102

Fig. 4.5: The triangle with five connections indicates the OA; V is a voltage input signal, and REF an electrical potential adopted as a reference potential. In (a) the OA is connected in non-inverted mode and in (b) in inverted mode. In the first mode the output is an amplified version of the input with the same shape; in the second is also amplified but the waveform is inverted. — 104

Fig. 4.6: Fully-differential Operational Amplifier. — 105

Fig. 4.7: The ammeter of Figure 4.1a is replaced by a low resistance and a differential amplifier. — 105

Fig. 4.8: Schematic general diagram of an INA 111. — 106

Fig. 4.9: Schematic general diagram for two application cases of an INA 111. In (a) R_s is large and two R_p are needed. In (b) R_s is small and only one R_p is required. For selecting R_p values see the text — 107

Fig. 4.10: (a) A potentiometer used as a voltage divider. (b) A potentiometer used as a variable resistor. — 109

Fig. 4.11: A variable capacitor. (a) The facing surface varies. (b) The distance between plates varies. (c) The dielectric varies. — 111

Fig. 4.12: A movable piece attached to a magnetic core displaces it inside a coil, changing the coil inductance as D varies. — 112

Fig. 4.13: A coil with a magnetic core is excited by an alternating voltage source thus generating a magnetic field. A conductive piece passing through the field takes energy from it “reflecting” this energy change in the coil current. Thus by measuring the coil current the conductive piece can be detected. — 112

Fig. 4.14: An electromagnet is comprised of a coil wound on a magnetic core and a voltage source (V) which can be DC, AC or pulsed. The electromagnetic force moves the ferromagnetic piece a distance D . According to the application, the ferromagnetic piece may represent a part of a mechanical actuator or several tons of steel; the theory behind both is the same. — 113

Fig. 4.15: A Linear Variable Differential Transformer (LVDT). (a) The primary coil P generates a flux Φ which is coupled equally to both secondary coils (S1 and S2) through the magnetic movable core, thus the output is null. (b) The displacement of the core to the right increases the coupling with S2, decreasing it with S1. The differential voltage (algebraic sum of both coil outputs) reflects this change. (c) The shift to the left produces the opposite effect and the differential voltage changes sign. — 114

Fig. 4.16: When excited by a stroke a tuning fork oscillates at its own oscillating frequency. To keep it oscillating the pick up coil takes information about the oscillation as an inductive sensor can do. This information is used to compensate the energy lost by friction through the excitation coil which works as an electromagnet. — 116

- Fig. 4.17:** Schematic of a tuning-fork or a piezoelectric oscillator circuit with an amplifier and a power supply. — 117
- Fig. 4.18:** A strain gauge. A long wire of small diameter is disposed such that most of its length is located in the horizontal direction. It is bonded on an elastic support which, when stretched horizontally, changes the length and diameter of the wire, changing its resistance. — 119
- Fig. 4.19:** NTC thermistor transfer function. — 123
- Fig. 4.20:** Two types of thermistors (the scale is given by the pen). — 124
- Fig. 4.21:** A constantan-copper thermocouple subjected to a temperature difference between both junctions. — 125
- Fig. 4.22:** (Right) An analog I.C. sensor. (Center) A digital I.C. sensor (the scale is given by the pen). — 127
- Fig. 4.23:** Schematic of a generic IRT — 129
- Fig. 4.24:** (a) Photography of a drying leave. (b) The same leave as seen in a thermographic image. — 130
- Fig. 4.25:** Schematic of a device for converting an applied pressure into a voltage signal. — 132
- Fig. 4.26:** (a) Two similar beams with two mounting pads on which stress is applied; beams are electrically excited by a pair of electrodes. (b) Aneroid bellows transform pressure into a deformation, such that a force is applied to the sensor. — 136
- Fig. 4.27:** Installation of a pressure sensor in a drainage channel. — 137
- Fig. 4.28:** Water level measured in the drainage channel of Figure 4.27. — 138
- Fig. 4.29:** Humidity sensor. Two electrodes are embedded in a porous material. When water replaces air in the porous material the electrical conductivity of the material changes. A voltage source, a resistor and an OA give an output voltage proportional to conductivity. — 139
- Fig. 4.30:** Conductivity cell. The size and separation of the electrodes are fixed, but the conductivity is variable. — 141
- Fig. 4.31:** Inductive probe. The primary toroid generates an electric current in the fluid proportional to fluid conductivity and the secondary measure a voltage proportional to the fluid current. — 143
- Fig. 4.32:** Accelerometer: the mechanical set is composed of a mass, springs and a frame. The electrical sensor that measures the relative motion between the frame and the mass is a capacitor whose plates are attached to the frame and the mass. — 145
- Fig. 4.33:** An accelerometer is composed of a mechanical part depicted on the left, and an electrical one depicted on the right. Dashed box shows the capacitors in both schematics. — 146
- Fig. 4.34:** Another kind of accelerometer. The cantilever plays simultaneously the role of mass and spring. In air, the cantilever and the fixed electrodes form two capacitors. In conductive fluid they form a potentiometer. — 146
- Fig. 4.35:** Micro-electro-mechanical accelerometer. — 148
- Fig. 4.36:** Piezoelectric accelerometer. The preloaded spring stresses the piezoelectric crystal; when the acceleration moves the seismic mass, the stress changes and the crystal generates a voltage. — 149
- Fig. 4.37:** Geophone. A coil is suspended from a frame by springs. When the frame moves, a relative motion appears between the magnet and the coil generating a voltage at its output. — 151
- Fig. 4.38:** Generic geophone transference indicating its low sensitivity at low frequencies. — 151
- Fig. 4.39:** A generic bidirectional inductive transducer — 153
- Fig. 4.40:** Piezoelectric disc with electrodes. Voltage on the electrodes deforms the ceramic. Stress on the ceramic generates voltage between electrodes. — 154
- Fig. 4.41:** Piezoelectric ceramic discs are stacked to increase the transducer power. Their polar axe directions are alternated to reduce the number of electrodes. The symbols $-E$ and $+E$ should be considered as instantaneous values; half a cycle later the polarities are exactly the opposite. — 155

- Fig. 4.42:** The sound generator is composed of a tail mass, a head mass and the piezoelectric active elements. These elements move the head with respect to the tail generating a pressure wave. — 156
- Fig. 4.43:** Sound transducer for high frequency. Usually low power is needed and a single piezoelectric element may be used. The backing material contributes to define the transducer beamwidth. — 157
- Fig. 4.44:** Hydrophone. A stack of piezoelectric rings connected to sum up the voltage generated by each one. The electrical output is conducted through the submersible cable to the amplifier. The set is sealed by a rubber cover. — 158
- Fig. 4.45:** A magnetostrictive transducer formed by plates of magnetostrictive material and a coil. Voltage power supply generates the magnetic field which makes the plates vibrate and change their length as shown by the arrows. — 159
- Fig. 4.46:** The voltage applied to the coil produces a magnetic field that is disturbed by the rotating protrusions. The alteration of the magnetic field produces current changes in the coil. Counting the current changes permits protrusions passes and shaft rotation to be determined. — 160
- Fig. 4.47:** A disc is attached to the shaft and magnets are placed on the disc. The magnetic field detector may be a coil, a Hall effect switch or a reed switch. — 161
- Fig. 4.48:** A chopper disc attached to the shaft interrupts a light beam. The amount of pulses received in a know period is counted and it is proportional to the shaft speed. — 162
- Fig. 4.49:** A three bit coded disc. The squares are the light beams perpendicular to the disc plane. The binary code for each position is illustrated below each disc. For example the bottom left disc shows 0-1-0 which indicates that the first and the last beam are in dark zones, then, they are interrupted and the output at the receiver is “0”. The central beam passes by the disk and is detected by the receiver giving as a result a digit “1”. — 163
- Fig. 4.50:** A circular potentiometer with the sliding terminal attached to the shaft and the end terminals to the voltage supply. Voltage at the sliding terminal is proportional to the shaft angle. — 164
- Fig. 5.1:** Sectional view of a Vortex flowmeter. The shedder bar generates alternating vortices which are detected by means of piezoelectric sensors. — 171
- Fig. 5.2:** Strouhal number as a function of Reynolds number. Nowadays instruments are able to correct the transfer function in the non linear lower range. — 171
- Fig. 5.3:** Principle of operation of an electromagnetic flow meter. A current I flows through a coil generating a magnetic field B in a fluid moving with velocity V . Two electrodes separated a distance L measure the emf (ϵ). — 172
- Fig. 5.4:** EMCM used to measure the velocity of water on the horizontal plane. The coil generates the magnetic field B on the sensing head. The sensing head has two pairs of electrodes $E_1 - E_2$ and $E_3 - E_4$ arranged in perpendicular directions. They measure two components of the flow velocity based on voltage differences along their respective axes. — 173
- Fig. 5.5:** EMFM used to measure the speed of water in pipes. Coils generate a uniform B inside the pipe. One pair of electrodes $E_1 - E_2$ is placed perpendicularly to the pipe direction. It measures a voltage difference proportional to the fluid velocity. Only E_2 can be seen in the figure. — 175
- Fig. 5.6:** When it is not possible to install the flow meter in upward sections of the line it could be installed in horizontal pipes provided that there exists a length of five diameters (Φ) of straight pipe upstream and two diameters downstream the flow meter. Installation of electrodes at the top or the bottom of the pipe should be avoided in these cases. — 176
- Fig. 5.7:** Typical current waveforms in the coils to reduce electrochemical noise effects. — 177
- Fig. 5.8:** Schematic to introduce the basic concepts on acoustic flowmeters. It represents a pipe full of fluid. A and B are acoustic transducers that send and receive ultra sound pulses. The flow v^* has a component v in the direction of the wave propagation; θ is the angle between both directions. — 178

- Fig. 5.9:** Emitted and received pulses. The received pulse is smaller and noisier; its slope is not well defined, which makes it difficult for the time of flight to be measured. — 179
- Fig. 5.10:** A more complete schematic of a flowmeter shows the pressure (P) and temperature (T) sensors together with the electrical parts. In this flowmeter the acoustic wave rebounds on the opposite wall of the pipe traveling a longer distance. — 181
- Fig. 5.11:** (a) Scattering of sound waves by a particle of size much smaller than a wavelength. (b) Reflection of sound waves by a particle of size comparable to a wavelength. — 182
- Fig. 5.12:** Flow in a pipe. The emitter and receiver transducers are installed such that their beams form an angle θ with the pipe direction. Emitted pulses are scattered by suspended particles that move at velocity v . The scatters are received by the opposite transducer. — 183
- Fig. 5.13:** Three piezoelectric transducers emit acoustic waves of the same frequency. Water carries particles in suspension or bubbles at a velocity V^* . Particles U (upstream) and D (downstream) produce different frequency shifts; M (in the vertical) scatters the same sent frequency without shift. — 185
- Fig. 5.14:** The transducer beam of the piezoelectric transducer is divided into equal length fractions called cells. Average velocities in each cell are measured. No velocity can be measured in the portion of the beam called the blanking distance. — 187
- Fig. 5.15:** The ADCP is installed at the bottom of a natural channel. The plane containing the three transducer's beams is aligned with the stream. — 187
- Fig. 5.16:** Photography of a two-dimensional profiler installed at the bottom of a concrete channel. The discs are acoustic transducers mounted such the stream velocity is aligned with the plane containing the transducers. Protection to the cable is provided by a pipe. A metal U-shaped mounting device, bolt to the floor, is used to avoid sediment deposition on the transducers. — 188
- Fig. 5.17:** ADCP mounted on the lateral wall of a channel, it measures the horizontal profile with two beams. The third beam points upward to measure the water height. This arrangement could be used when the flow to be measured carries solids that could damage the instrument if mounted on the bottom. — 189
- Fig. 5.18:** Three-dimensional ADCP, four transducers are placed on two orthogonal planes pointing up with their beams at a certain angle from the vertical. They measure the water velocity profiles on two perpendicular planes. — 190
- Fig. 5.19:** Photography of an Acoustic Doppler Velocimeter. It shows the central emitter and the four receivers forming a cross around the emitter. — 192
- Fig. 5.20:** The central emitter and only two receivers of the ADV are schematized. The emitter has a vertical beam that is intersected by the receivers' beams; this spatial intersection defines a "sampling volume". Acoustic signal scattered by the particles in that specific volume arrive at the receivers. The emitter sends short pulses, and the receivers open a sampling time windows to catch the emitted pulse scattered in that volume. — 193
- Fig. 5.21:** Records of velocity measured with an ADV. (a) Increasing particle concentration improves data quality. (b) Low particle concentration produces noisy records. (Courtesy of Juan Parravicini and Mariano De Dios, Laboratory of Hydromechanics, Hydraulics Department, Faculty of Engineering, National University of La Plata, Argentina). — 195
- Fig. 5.22:** Flow through a tube is heated at the midpoint between two temperature sensors (T_1 and T_2). Fluid transports heat from point 1 to point 2. — 198
- Fig. 5.23:** Two heated temperature sensors are used to heat the fluid and to measure its temperature at two points. Sensors may be resistance temperature detectors (RTD). — 198
- Fig. 5.24:** The technique is modified to be used in larger pipe diameters. The flow straightener converts turbulent flow into a laminar one. A flow splitter produces a differential pressure ($\Delta P = P_1 - P_2$) which derives the fluid into the by-pass where the measuring system is installed. Flow through the by-pass is proportional to that passing through the main tube. — 199

- Fig. 5.25:** Two precision temperature sensors are immersed into the flow stream. One sensor measures the temperature of the fluid and the other is heated. D and L are the sensor diameter and length respectively. — 200
- Fig. 5.26:** (a) A hot wire probe. (b) A hot film probe. — 202
- Fig. 5.27:** (a) Coriolis Flowmeters. (Courtesy of Emerson Process Management - Micro Motion, Inc.). (b) Schematic of the flowmeter; arrows indicate flow path. — 204
- Fig. 5.28:** (a) The U tube is horizontally placed and vibrated up and down about the rotation axis. Flow is null. (b) Flow circulates as indicated by the arrows; forces F_c appear. (c) Forces F_c create an oscillating momentum. The detectors permit the difference in time between the tubes to be known. — 205
- Fig. 5.29:** The flow to be measured is driven into two vibrating tubes. The magnetic driver makes the tubes vibrate 180° out of phase. Detectors measure the differential time between crossings of both arms of each tube. — 207
- Fig. 6.1:** A buoy that follows wave movement is being deployed in the sea. The top white pole is the transmitting antenna. — 212
- Fig. 6.2:** Acoustic sensor measuring ocean waves (Courtesy of General Acoustics) — 215
- Fig. 6.3:** Acoustic sensors measuring small waves (Courtesy of General Acoustics) — 215
- Fig. 6.4:** Schematic of a resistive probe — 218
- Fig. 6.5:** Schematic of a capacitive probe — 220
- Fig. 6.6:** (a) Laser and camera setup. (b) Camera registers. Water surface in dashed and continuous line corresponds to two different instants. The same goes for the upper and lower spot showed on the camera register. When the spot on the surface at both instants is obtained by statistical analysis from the register, the change in water level (h) can be estimated. — 222
- Fig. 6.7:** (a) Schematic of heater and sensors. (b) Sensor heat pulse response showing the instant when the electric pulse is applied. — 227
- Fig. 6.8:** Scanning colloidal borescope flowmeter (SCBFM). — 228
- Fig. 6.9:** The groundwater laser velocimeter illuminates a volume of water with interference fringes. — 229
- Fig. 6.10:** Horizontal heat pulse flowmeter. The instrument is shown inside a slotted screened borehole and the space between the screen and the heater/thermistor array is filled with glass beads which create a saturated porous media around them. — 230
- Fig. 6.11:** (a) Rotary Device Probe. (b) Temperature waveform. — 231
- Fig. 6.12:** Thermal seepage meter. A funnel buried in the sediment collects the seepage water from the bottom discharge. Heater and sensors measure the flow. — 233
- Fig. 6.13:** In Situ Permeable Flow Sensor. Photography courtesy of Stanford Ballard, Sandia National Laboratories, Albuquerque, New Mexico, USA. — 235
- Fig. 6.14:** Point Velocity Probe. This instrument is used in unconsolidated non cohesive media such as sand. — 236
- Fig. 6.15:** Advection – Dispersion Velocity Meter. — 237
- Fig. 7.1:** Aerovane anemometer. (Photograph courtesy of Ricardo Zuazquita, Naval Hydrographic Service of Argentina). — 244
- Fig. 7.2:** (Left) Cup anemometer. (Right) Wind vane. (Photograph courtesy of Ricardo Zuazquita, Naval Hydrographic Service of Argentina). — 246
- Fig. 7.3:** Robust cup anemometer for use in Antarctica made of metallic parts. (Photograph courtesy of Ricardo Zuazquita, Naval Hydrographic Service of Argentina). — 246
- Fig. 7.4:** The mounting bar holds the three transducer's supports. Each support keeps two faced acoustic transducers. The mounting bar is horizontal, Z and X are in a vertical plane, and Y is in other vertical plane, perpendicular to the first. The instrument's axis measuring the vertical component of wind is Z. — 248

- Fig. 7.5:** The transducer's supports minimize the horizontal flow distortion. Each of the upper transducers faces one lower transducer. — 249
- Fig. 7.6:** Two faced transducers forming a measuring axis. A pulse is sent from A and received at B and vice-versa. The times of flight in both directions are measured. L is the distance between transducers and v is the component of the wind velocity V along the axis direction. θ is the angle between wind velocity and the axis direction. — 250
- Fig. 7.7:** A simple rain gauge or pluviometer — 252
- Fig. 7.8:** Tipping bucket rain gauge. — 253
- Fig. 7.9:** Schematic of the bucket with the sensor (magnet and reed switch). Calibration is performed by adjusting the counterweight and the calibration screws. — 254
- Fig. 7.10:** Rain precipitation of about 10 mm in 15 minutes. The water arrives at a discharge channel whose level rises 2 m in 20 minutes. — 255
- Fig. 7.11:** Internal funnel obstructed by insects. It causes the overflow of the funnel and the distortion of measurements. — 256
- Fig. 7.12:** Siphon rain gauge. — 257
- Fig. 7.13:** Optical Rain Gauge with scintillation and forward scatter sensors. (Photograph courtesy of Optical Scientific, Inc. Gaithersburg, MD, USA). — 258
- Fig. 7.14:** Joss-Waldvogel disdrometer. — 260
- Fig. 7.15:** Piezoelectric disdrometer — 261
- Fig. 7.16:** Radiation to temperature conversion with a thermal resistor — 264
- Fig. 7.17:** A pyrliometer — 266
- Fig. 7.18:** Two models of pyranometers. (a) Lateral cross section view of a model which uses a sensor similar to that of a pyrliometer and requires two domes. (b) Top view of the model which uses a disc divided into 12 circular sectors; it requires only one dome. In both models temperature is measured by a thermopile. — 269
- Fig. 8.1:** Fiber optic components. — 274
- Fig. 8.2:** A Bragg grating is "impressed" on the fiber core by deliberately increasing the refractive index along its length. Light of a particular wavelength is backscattered by the grating. — 275
- Fig. 8.3:** Simplified DTS equipment measuring on an optical fiber coiled on two separate reels which are at different temperatures T_1 and T_2 . — 279
- Fig. 8.4:** The radar antenna rotates at the top of a tower. Fixed targets reflect the same emitted frequency. Moving targets reflect a frequency shifted with respect to the emitted one. — 283
- Fig. 8.5:** A PPI display: the antenna beam direction is shown by the radial bar which rotates in synchronism with the antenna. Dots represent target positions. Numbers on the circles indicate their radial distances from the antenna. — 284
- Fig. 8.6:** Range resolution. The vertical parallel lines represent the radar wave fronts; the first wave front is shown thicker and a pulse is represented by six lines. In the upper part of the figure, the pulse is completely backscattered by the first target before the pulse arrives at the second target. In the lower figure the targets are closer to each other and the first target is scattering the fifth wave front while the second target is already scattering the second wave front. — 285
- Fig. 8.7:** The range resolution and the beamwidth of the antenna define a volume that we will call the resolution cell. The shorter the pulse width τ and the narrower the beamwidth the smaller is the volume of the cell and the higher the ability to detect smaller targets. Thus smaller cells result in higher spatial resolution. — 286
- Fig. 8.8:** Resulting sound beams selected one at a time. — 289
- Fig. 8.9:** Schematic of a three-beam configuration SODAR. — 290
- Fig. 8.10:** An example of a RWP. The hexagon represents the antenna array and the circles the individual antennas. Each antenna is an electrical device which produces an electromagnetic

- wave. The beamforming of these individual waves produces the five sequential beams. — 293
- Fig. 8.11:** Schematic of a RASS with its two components: the acoustic wave generator and the electromagnetic wave generator. — 298
- Fig. 8.12:** Schematic of a RASS with an acoustic wave generator and bi-static type radar. — 300
- Fig. 8.13:** Another type of RASS with a transmitting and receiving radar antenna and four fixed acoustic sources. — 302
- Fig. 8.14:** (Left) The elements composing the lidar. (Right) How the laser signal is scattered and captured by the optical system. — 305
- Fig. 8.15:** The system shown in Figure 8.14 is rotated for the beam to describe an inverted cone with a vertical axis. The small dots represent the range gates (spatial cells) where the wind radial components are measured to be later converted into wind components along the x , y and z directions. — 307
- Fig. 8.16:** The antenna rotates and the beam scans the atmosphere. After the first complete rotation the antenna is tilted and a second rotation begins. Each scan of the beam is shown with a different color. — 310
- Fig. 8.17:** Schematic of HF radar beams impinging sea waves. — 312
- Fig. 8.18:** The circles A and B indicate the shore installation of two radar (A and B). The dashed lines indicate the sea surface area covered by both radar systems. The arrows indicate currents measured by each of the radar. They must be composed to obtain the final current velocity field. — 314
- Fig. 8.19:** Example of an array of transmitting and receiving antennas for measuring ocean currents (Laws, 2001). — 316
- Fig. 8.20:** Pole with CODAR antennas (Courtesy of Andrea Mazzoldi CNR, Italy). — 317
- Fig. 8.21:** A pulse is radiated by the transmitting antenna (T_A); the receiving antenna (R_A) will collect pulses (D) and (R). The first travels directly through the air; the second corresponds to waves reflected or scattered by subsurface objects. — 319
- Fig. 8.22:** Pulses arriving at the receiving antenna produce a time-dependent record called a trace. — 320
- Fig. 8.23:** TA and RA are at a fixed relative distance and are displaced from position P_1 to P_5 . At each position a pulse is emitted and its scatter from the buried object is recorded — 320
- Fig. 8.24:** (a) Traces from the buried object. (b) Scans from the buried object. — 321
- Fig. 9.1:** Network topologies. (a) bus, (b) star, (c) ring, (d) mesh, (e) tree. Topologies (b) and (e) have central nodes which organize the network. — 332
- Fig. 9.2:** Two instruments with their own internal clock. The data stored in each internal data logger are thus not synchronized. The analog outputs are acquired by an external data logger with a unique internal clock which permits the samples to be synchronized. — 334
- Fig. 9.3:** Digital data is converted into a physical signal by the Digital Communication Equipment and vice versa. The physical medium conveys the signal between both DCE. — 335
- Fig. 9.4:** (a) Digital symbols at the DCE input are converted into output levels on the physical medium; (b) NRZ code; (c) bipolar code. — 337
- Fig. 9.5:** Transmission modes: (a) Simplex; (b) Half-duplex; (c) Full-duplex. — 338
- Fig. 9.6:** A parallel connection of 8 channels (one byte) allows transmitting 8 bits simultaneously. — 341
- Fig. 9.7:** (a) Parallel to serial converter. The parallel input is loaded into the shift register by the switch. The clock shifts the bits to the right, one at a time, into the communication channel. (b) On leaving the channel, the bits enter the serial to parallel converter and the clock accommodates them into the shift register. Once all the bits have arrived they are switched to the parallel output. — 342

- Fig. 9.8:** (a) One start bit and one stop bit are added at the beginning and at the end of an ASCII character. (b) Idle periods between characters are at binary “1”. The first “0” after an idle period indicates that the next bit is the start of a new character. — 343
- Fig. 9.9:** A parity bit “1” is added at the end of the word to be protected to complete an odd number of “ones”. — 344
- Fig. 9.10:** Remote stations 1 and 2 have transmitters TX1 and TX2 and receivers RX1 and RX2. The CS has also transmitters and receivers at the same frequencies as the remote stations in such a way that, for example, TX1 at the RS1 sends data to RX1C at the CS, and TX1C sends data from the CS to RX1 at the RS1. TXs and RXs linked by a solid line indicate that they work in the same frequency. CS switch permits the dialog between RS1 and RS2 to be established. — 348
- Fig. 9.11:** Letters inside the hexagons [(a) to (e)] indicate the group of frequencies used in each cell. Same group should be separated a certain distance to avoid interference. MTSO manages all the functions of the network. It allows communication to be established between mobiles and with the fixed telephone network through the links to the PSTN. — 349
- Fig. 9.12:** Smallest dots (red) indicate field instruments; R2 and R3 (yellow ones) are Earth stations, and the MS (green one) is the master station. Those instruments on the footprint of the satellite are able to send and receive messages through the satellite when it is passing by. In this example it is assumed that in the next pass the footprint moves to the left passing over T3, T4 and R3. — 352
- Fig. 9.13:** Pseudo random sequences. (a) Sent by the satellite. (b) Receiver generated. Δt is the time needed to travel from satellite to receiver. — 357
- Fig. 9.14:** Schematic of a memory — 359
- Fig. 10.1:** The beamwidth of the instrument and the orbit of the satellite define a swath on the Earth’s surface. — 370
- Fig. 10.2:** Nomenclature used in satellite’s geometry — 371
- Fig. 10.3:** Across-track scanning — 374
- Fig. 10.4:** Along-track scanning — 375
- Fig. 10.5:** An array of antennas receiving electromagnetic energy scattered by a particle (source). The distances between the particle and the antennas are d_1 , d_2 , d_3 and d_4 . — 385
- Fig. 10.6:** The scattering source is irradiated by the transmitting antenna from four different positions. The scattered signals are received back by the receiving antenna at its successive positions. — 387
- Fig. 10.7:** The emitted pulse is an array of consecutive pulses of time length T_d and different frequencies. The received signal enters the Network Delay, which retards each frequency a time T_d . — 389
- Fig. 10.8:** The emitted pulse is a signal linearly modulated in frequency whose central frequency is f_0 and the bandwidth is Δf . The Network Delay produces a linear retard as a function of frequency. — 389
- Fig. 10.9:** Tx is the transmitted chirp, B is the chirp bandwidth and T the chirp length. Reference is a replica of the transmitted signal delayed a deramp time D. The received echo is delayed t_d with respect to Reference. The time t_d can be obtained from Δf . — 390
- Fig. 10.10:** Schematic of the sea surface backscatter coefficient as a function of wind direction for several wind speeds (different letters A-E) and for a fixed incidence angle. — 392
- Fig. 10.11:** (a) A curved wave front arriving at the Earth’s surface. As the pulse hits a plane surface (b) the footprint changes as a function of time (c). The shape of the echo is, up to some point, proportional to the footprint area (d). — 396
- Fig. 10.12:** The along-track synthetic beams increase resolution in the satellite track direction, whereas in the cross-track the resolution remains the same. — 397
- Fig. 11.1:** Some failures beginning at FDI are observed in the data recorded: (a) the instrument begins to record a constant value; (b) data alternates between zero and out of scale; (c) noise appears

preventing the signal from being rescued; (d) the instrument measures intermittently because of random failures; (e) there is a circumstantial cause producing a partial loss of data. — 404

Fig. 11.2: Different ways in which instruments pass from correct operating condition to fault condition. The top horizontal line on the left indicates proper operating condition, and the low line on the right indicates fault condition. (a) The instrument passes abruptly from one condition to the other at FDI. (b) Some failure begins at FDI but the instrument alternates correct operation and fault condition. (c) The data quality suffers from a gradual deterioration until the instrument stops working at FDI. — 406

Fig. 11.3: Record of an instrument in a correct working condition that produces a time series with areas in which the signal to noise ratio is very low. In those sections, indicated by a gray rectangle, it is not possible to recover the signal and these pieces of the record must be removed. — 407

Fig. 11.4: Level outputs as recorded by the five data loggers with pressure sensors (Data courtesy of Leandro Rodrigues Capitulo and Eduardo E. Kruse, Faculty of Natural Sciences, National University of La Plata). — 411

Fig. 11.5: Outputs of the four data loggers selected for field work when the measured average level is subtracted. All instruments have quite stable outputs. Manufacturer calibration was used. L2 and L5 measured closer to the average than the others. — 411

Fig. 11.6: Water level recorded by the sensors at the moment they were submerged in water. — 415

Fig. 11.7: Setup for testing a pressure sensor dynamically. An elastic cylinder (orange balloon) was connected to the sensor (top right) and to a valve (top left). The balloon is inflated through the valve by means of a manual pump. — 417

Fig. 11.8: Oscilloscope record of the sensor output when the balloon blows up. — 418