



23 and alternative fuels due to its impact on surface coking, pollutant emissions, combustion  
24 instabilities, overall efficiency, and component reliability [2–4].

25 The current state-of-the-art optical techniques for *in situ* measurement of the temperature of  
26 droplets and sprays during fuel injection has been reviewed by Lemoine and Castanet [5], and  
27 include: elastic scattering methods [6,7], laser-induced fluorescence (LIF) and laser-induced  
28 exciplex fluorescence (LIEF) [8–12], laser-induced phosphorescence [13,14], thermographic  
29 phosphors [15], inelastic Raman scattering [16] and infrared thermometry [17].

30 The use of X-rays is an alternative to these optical techniques, which are susceptible to refraction  
31 and multiple scattering events in optically dense sprays and may require tracers. Because X-ray  
32 attenuation via photoelectric absorption and molecular scattering dominate over interfacial  
33 scattering in the X-ray area of interest (5–100 keV), accurate measurements of liquid mass  
34 distribution can be made even in the presence of complex liquid structures. Such measurements  
35 have been developed using both laboratory scale tube sources [21,22] and synchrotron sources  
36 [23–28]. Various measurement modalities have been explored including radiography [21–24],  
37 computed tomography [22], X-ray fluorescence [23,25], phase contrast imaging [23,26], and small  
38 angle scattering [27].

39 Recently, X-ray elastic scattering and diffraction have also been used to measure the short-range  
40 order and molecular spacing in a supercooled water droplet stream [33]. Ice crystals demonstrate  
41 powder diffraction patterns due to the long-range order in the ice crystals. However, liquid water  
42 lacks this long-range order. Instead, liquid water demonstrates a diffuse ring of scattering at a  
43 scattering vector magnitude of  $q = 1.5\text{--}3.5 \text{ \AA}^{-1}$ . As the scattering pattern depends on the  
44 intermolecular spacing between water molecules and, hence, temperature, it is of interest to  
45 determine the feasibility of utilizing this phenomenon for thermometry in liquid fuels. The use of

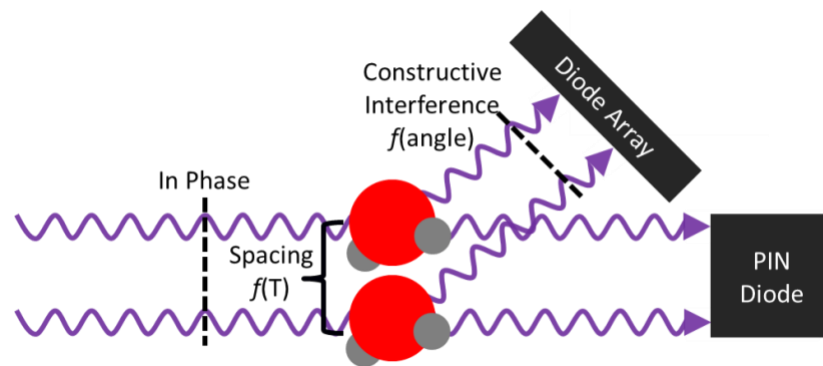
46 X-rays enables the application of this approach in chaotic multiphase flows (intact liquid or droplet  
47 fields) where high levels of attenuation and multiple scattering events can inhibit visible light  
48 diagnostics, particularly in the spray formation region. The expected SNR is a function of the  
49 liquid mass within the probe volume and the integration time. Therefore, this approach is well  
50 suited for optically complex and/or dense sprays rather than in dilute regions where the spray is  
51 more broadly dispersed. As the X-ray scattering patterns are unique to the fluid present and no tracers  
52 or dopants are required, the signals could also be used to isolate certain liquids from surrounding  
53 gases and coflows.

#### 54 **Experimental Setup**

55 The X-ray scattering measurements were conducted in the 7-BM beamline at the Advanced Photon  
56 Source (APS) at Argonne National Laboratory. The 7-BM white beam was filtered with a double  
57 multilayer monochromator (1.2%  $\Delta E/E$ ) at 15 keV mean photon energy. This beam was focused  
58 with a pair of Kirkpatrick-Baez focusing mirrors to a  $5 \times 6 \mu\text{m}^2$  full width at half maximum  
59 (FWHM) focus, with a convergence angle of less than 3 mrad [34]. More information on the 7-  
60 BM beamline can be found in Kastengren and Powell, 2014 [28].

61 Figure 1 shows a schematic of the experimental concept, which relies on the interference pattern  
62 generated by elastic scattering from the electrons in the atomic shell. The pattern depends on the  
63 spacing of the molecules, which is influenced by temperature. To test this concept, the 15 keV X-  
64 ray beam intersected the center of a 0.5 mm diameter liquid jet at a known temperature placed at  
65 the incident beam focus. The transmitted X-ray beam was collected with a 300  $\mu\text{m}$  thick Si PIN  
66 diode and transimpedance amplifier. The scattered X-rays were collected with a photon counting  
67 pixel array detector (Dectris, Pilatus 100K, 487 x 195 pixels, 172 x 172  $\mu\text{m}^2$  pixel size) placed  
68 downstream and offset from the transmitted beam. Shielding and guard slits were used to minimize

69 illumination of the pixel array detector by the scattering from beamline optics and air. The liquid  
70 jet was translated through the beam to map out the mass distribution (using NIST coefficients [35])  
71 and temperature via radiography and scattering, respectively. The spatial resolution along the  
72 scanned horizontal axis was determined by the scan spacing of  $50\ \mu\text{m}$ . The scattering signal was  
73 averaged for 10 seconds at each temperature and the image on the detector was binned on lines of  
74 constant scattering angle. The noise in the scattering pattern (measured at the peak intensity) was  
75 approximately 4%, which after filtering was reduced to less than 0.1% and did not play a  
76 significant role in the analysis.



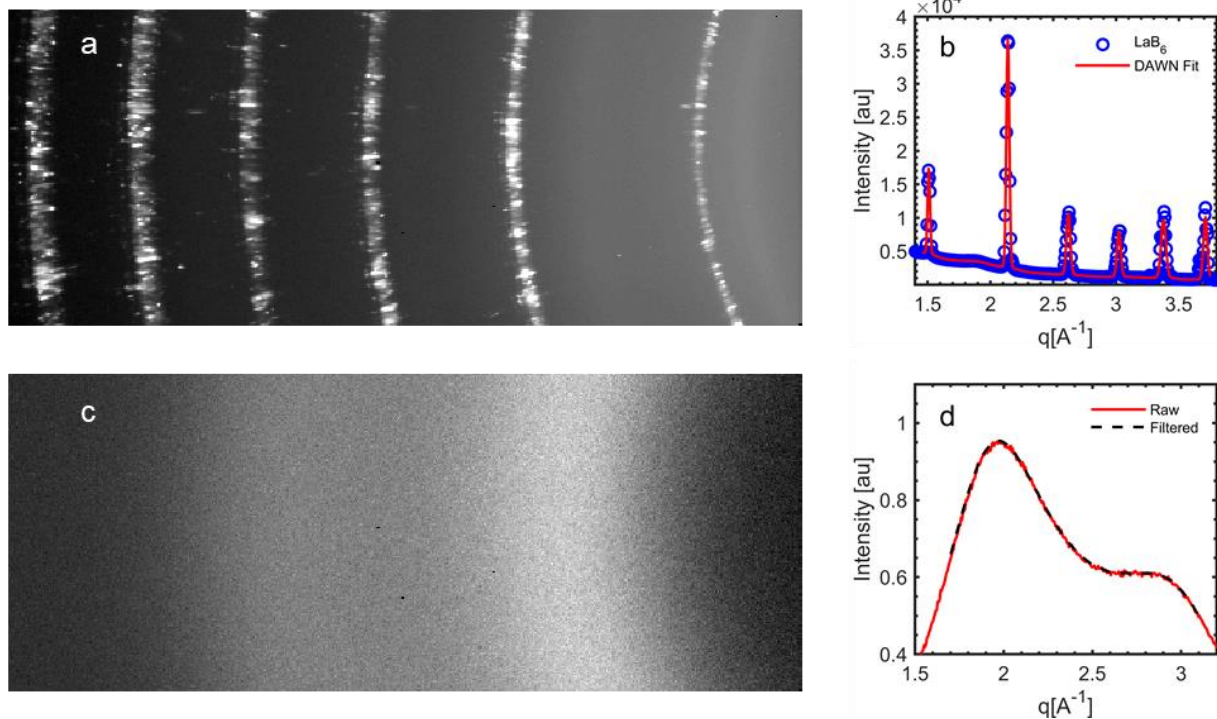
77

78 Fig. 1. Experimental concept of the interaction between the X-rays and liquid molecules.  
79 The out-of-phase scattered photons form interference patterns on the diode array detector  
80 as a function of the molecular spacing and scattering angle. Transmitted photons are  
81 collected by a PIN diode to measure the equivalent path length of liquid.

82 This approach was applied to water, a common surrogate in spray measurements and a component  
83 in fuel icing studies; ethanol, which is a common alcohol solvent and fuel additive; and *n*-  
84 dodecane, a high molecular weight alkane fuel component in transportation, power generation, and  
85 industrial processing. The temperature of the liquids prior to injection was controlled via a water  
86 bath with heat exchanger (limiting the lower range of temperatures to just above that of freezing  
87 water) and monitored with a thermocouple mounted close to the injection nozzle. Each liquid was

88 measured at approximately 100 temperature increments over various ranges, including water from  
89 276 to 360 K (2.5–87 °C), ethanol from 279 K to 338 K (5.9–65 °C), and *n*-dodecane from 280 K  
90 to 341 K (7–68 °C). The liquid was injected into air at room temperature and ambient pressure at  
91 relatively low upstream pressure such that little atomization or droplet breakup occurred in the  
92 liquid jets. The largest estimated temperature drop of the liquid from the thermocouple to the  
93 measurement region was less than 1 K, and the estimated temperature increase from the X-ray  
94 beam was estimated to be less than 0.01 K, based on the liquid flow rate, beam size, and X-ray  
95 absorption in the liquid.

96 The X-ray scattering pattern is properly given as a function of the scattering vector magnitude  $q$ ,  
97 defined as:  $q = 4\pi\lambda \sin(\theta/2)$ , where  $\lambda$  is the X-ray wavelength and  $\theta$  is the full scattering angle.  
98 Powder diffraction imaging of lanthanum hexaboride (LaB<sub>6</sub>) as a reference material with a known  
99 powder diffraction pattern was used to calibrate the detector, as shown in Fig 2(a). The rings are  
100 compared against reference values after azimuthal integration, as seen in Fig. 2(b), with <0.3%  
101 error in the fits of each peak. Figure 2(c) shows the scattering intensity distribution collected by  
102 the detector of liquid water at 4 K, along with the azimuthal integration of this image in Fig. 2(d)  
103 showing line plots in its raw form (after background subtraction) and filtered form. A Savitzky-  
104 Golay 3<sup>rd</sup> order filter of window length 49 pixels was also applied to each of the scattering patterns  
105 to reduce the noise in Fig 2(d). The background scattering (no liquid jet present) was then  
106 subtracted. The intensity vs.  $q$  scattering patterns were normalized by their respective areas within  
107 the inspected  $q$  range and integrated across all points at the same  $q$ .

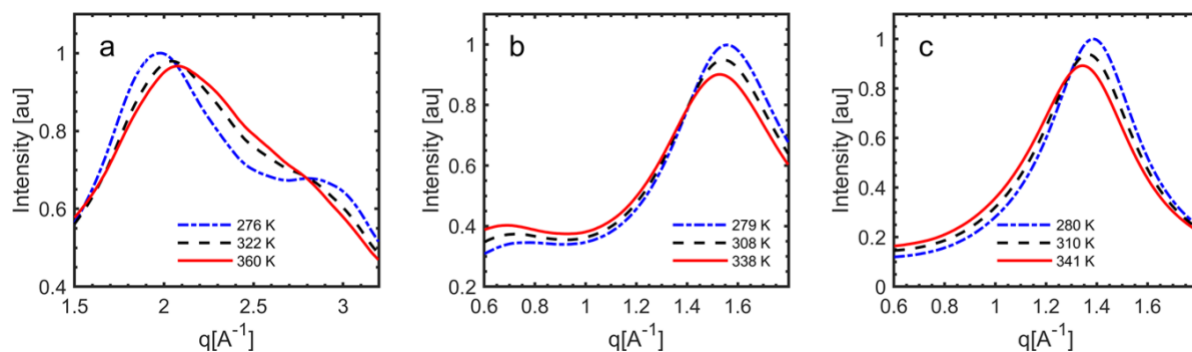


108

109 Fig. 2. (a) Powder diffraction image of  $\text{LaB}_6$  for reference and (b) line plot after azimuthal  
 110 integration. (c) Scattering intensity distribution of liquid water at 4 K, and (d) line plot after  
 111 azimuthal integration in its raw form (after background subtraction) and filtered form.

112 **Results and Discussion**

113 Several characteristics of the scattering patterns vary with liquid temperature and were investigated  
 114 as potential approaches for thermometry. These approaches include measurement of the intensity  
 115 and location of the peak; higher order statistical moments of variance, skewness, and kurtosis of  
 116 the patterns; and partial least squares (PLS) regression. Due to challenges with noise and  
 117 measurement uncertainty, PLS was selected as the method for analysis. The scattering patterns and  
 118 an appropriate statistical fit of water, ethanol, and *n*-dodecane are shown in Fig. 3.



119

120

Fig. 3. Scattering patterns of (a) water, (b) ethanol, and (c) *n*-dodecane plotted in  $q$  space.

121 The scattering patterns in Fig. 3 show the change in scattering profile as a function of temperature.

122 PLS regression on the scattering patterns was used to remove the collinearity and more easily

123 construct a thermometer [37–38].

124 A PLS model was developed in Python using the PLS Regression module from the scikit-learn

125 package [39] to extract the temperature from a given scattering profile. Training datasets of

126 scattering profiles were individually collected for each of the liquids while the temperature was

127 ramped up to higher levels. To remove experimental bias, the training datasets were standardized

128 by centering the mean to zero and scaling by the standard deviation of the intensity values at each

129  $q$ . The PLS model was then constructed from the standardized training datasets, with the first few

130 components explaining most of the variation with temperature.

131 A second visit to the APS was made to collect an independent set of X-ray scattering data to

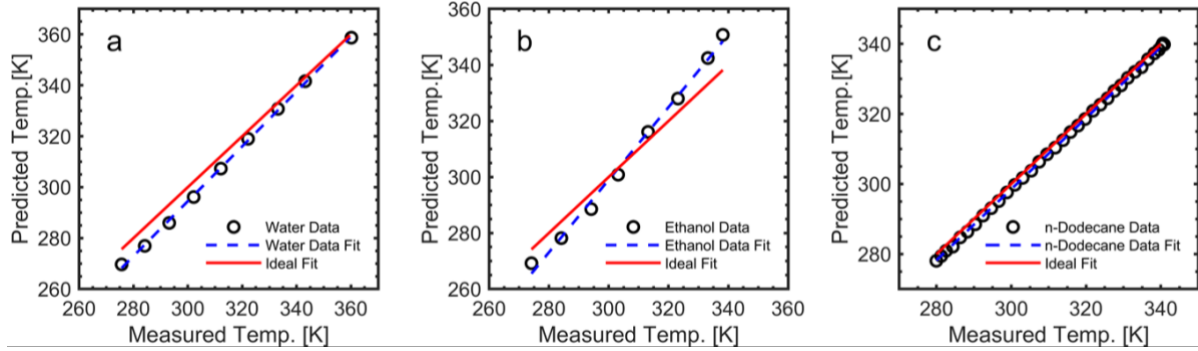
132 validate the results of the initial measurements. The data set was standardized in the same way as

133 stated previously and converted to temperature using the same beta coefficient vector. Results of

134 the temperature interpolation using the established PLS model is shown in Fig. 4. The calculated

135  $R^2$  indicates the model captures 92% of the variation in the measured temperatures, whereas the

136 calculated root-mean-square error (RMSE) gives a prediction of ~6 K or less for water,  
137 ethanol, and *n*-dodecane.



138  
139 Fig. 4. Predicted temperatures (black symbols) of the (a) water, (b) ethanol, and (c) *n*-  
140 dodecane jets from scattering data collected during a second visit to APS using the PLS  
141 model constructed from the first trip, as compared with measured temperatures using an  
142 in-line thermocouple. The blue line is a linear fit to the predicted temperatures. The red  
143 line is the ideal scenario where the predicted and measured temperatures are equal.

144 This validation shows the repeatability of the method. Through application of PLS on the initial  
145 487 data points in *q* space, only 2 components for water and ethanol and 3 components for *n*-  
146 dodecane were necessary to build the linear model. The use of additional components did not  
147 increase the accuracy of the measurements. The largest error of ~2% could be reduced with a more  
148 thorough calibration dataset for use in future measurements.

## 149 Conclusions

150 The feasibility of a novel X-ray diagnostic approach for tracer-free, liquid-phase temperature  
151 measurements in optically complex multiphase flows is described. The temperature sensitivity of  
152 X-ray scattering patterns in several liquids of interest for transportation and industrial processing  
153 applications was characterized. PLS regression was used to infer temperature from an unknown



154 scattering profile enabling measurements within ~2%. A potential drawback of a diagnostic  
155 technique relying on X-rays is that the method may be path integrated, which does not lend itself  
156 to planar imaging but may be extended to tomography. Future work includes exploring spatio-  
157 temporal features of sprays using point-wise raster scanning, investigating applicability in more  
158 dilute regions of the spray, collection of improved calibration data sets, testing and optimization  
159 in specific applications, and potential extension for use in liquid mixtures.

## 160 **Funding**

161 Benjamin Halls worked for the Air Force Research Laboratory (AFRL) when this data was  
162 collected. This manuscript has been cleared for public release by the AFRL (88ABW-2020-3228).  
163 A portion of this research was performed at the 7-BM beamline of the Advanced Photon Source,  
164 Argonne National Laboratory. Use of the APS is supported by the U. S. Department of Energy  
165 under Contract No. DE-AC02-06CH11357. This paper describes objective technical results and  
166 analysis. Any subjective views or opinions that might be expressed in the paper do not necessarily  
167 represent the views of the U.S. Department of Energy or the United States Government. Sandia  
168 National Laboratories is a multimission laboratory managed and operated by National Technology  
169 & Engineering Solutions of Sandia, LLC, a wholly owned subsidiary of Honeywell International  
170 Inc., for the U.S. Department of Energy's National Nuclear Security Administration under contract  
171 DE-NA0003525. SAND 2020-XXX

## 172 **References**

- 173 1. Epstein AH. "Aircraft engine's needs from combustion science and engineering. *Combust Flame*  
174 2012; 159:1791–1792.
- 175 2. Lefebvre AH, McDonell VG. *Atomization and Sprays*, New York: Taylor and Francis; 1989.
- 176 3. Meyer TR, Brear M, Jin SH, Gord JR. *Formation and Diagnostics of Sprays in Combustion*. In:  
177 *Handbook of Combustion*. New York: Wiley; 2010.
- 178 4. Ashgriz N. *Handbook of Atomization and Sprays*. New York: Springer; 2011.

- 179 5. Lemoine F, Castanet G. Temperature and chemical composition of droplets by optical  
180 measurement techniques: a state-of-the-art review. *Exp Fluids* 2013; 54:1572.
- 181 6. Massoli P, Beretta F, D'Alessio A, Lazzaro M. Temperature and size of single transparent  
182 droplets by light scattering in the forward and rainbow regions. *Appl Opt* 1993; 32(18):3295–  
183 3301.
- 184 7. van Beeck JPAJ, Giannoulis D, Zimmer L, Riethmuller ML. Global rainbow thermometry for  
185 droplet-temperature measurement. *Opt Lett* 1999; 24(23):1696–1698.
- 186 8. Murray AM, Melton LA. Fluorescence methods for determination of temperature in fuel spray.  
187 *Appl Opt* 1985; 24(17):2783–2787.
- 188 9. Wells MR, Melton LA. Temperature Measurements of Falling Droplets. *J Heat Trans* 1990;  
189 112(4):1008–1013.
- 190 10. Hanlon TR, Melton LA, Exciplex Fluorescence Thermometry of Falling Hexadecane Droplets. *J*  
191 *Heat Trans* 1992; 114(2):450–457.
- 192 11. Coppeta J, Rogers C. Dual emission laser induced fluorescence for direct planar scalar behavior  
193 measurements. *Exp Fluids* 1998; 25(1):1–15.
- 194 12. Lavieille P, Lemoine F, Lavergne G, Lebouché M. Evaporating and combusting droplet  
195 temperature measurements using two-color laser-induced fluorescence. *Exp Fluids* 2001;  
196 31(1):45–55.
- 197 13. Maqua C, Castanet G, Lemoine F, Bicomponent droplets evaporation: Temperature  
198 measurements and modelling. *Fuel* 2008; 87(13–14):2932–2942.
- 199 14. Mishra YN, Nada FA, Polster S, Kristensson E, Berrocal E. Thermometry in aqueous solutions  
200 and sprays using two-color LIF and structured illumination. *Opt Express* 2016; 24(5):4949–4963.
- 201 15. Labergue A, Delconte A, Lemoine F. Study of the thermal mixing between two non-isothermal  
202 sprays using combined three-color LIF thermometry and phase Doppler analyzer. *Exp Fluids*  
203 2013; 54:1527.
- 204 16. Hu H, Koochesfahani MM. A novel technique for quantitative temperature mapping in liquid by  
205 measuring the lifetime of laser induced phosphorescence. *J Visualization* 2003; 6(2):143–153.
- 206 17. Omrane A, Juhlin G, Ossler F, Aldén M. Temperature measurements of single droplets by use of  
207 laser-induced phosphorescence. *Appl Opt* 2004; 43(17):3523–3529.
- 208 18. Brübach J, Patt A, Dreizler A. Spray thermometry using thermographic phosphors. *Appl Phy B*  
209 2006; 83:499.
- 210 19. Tropea C, Yarin AL, Foss JF. Temperature measurement via absorption, light scattering and  
211 laser-induced fluorescence. In: *Experimental fluid mechanics*. Berlin, 2007.
- 212 20. Wulsten E, Lee G. Surface temperature of acoustically levitated water microdroplets measured  
213 using infra-red thermography. *Chem Eng Sci* 2008; 63(22):5420–5424.
- 214 21. Akafuah NK, Salazar AJ, Saito K. Infrared thermography-based visualization of droplet transport  
215 in liquid sprays. *Infrared Physics & Technology* 2010; 53(3):218–226.
- 216 22. Saha A, Basu S, Kumar R. Particle image velocimetry and infrared thermography in a levitated  
217 droplet with nanosilica suspensions. *Exp Fluids* 2012; 52(3):795–807.
- 218 23. Talley DG, Thamban ATS, McDonell VG, Samuelsen GS. Laser sheet visualization of spray  
219 structure. In: *Recent Advances in Spray Combustion: Spray Atomization and Drop Burning*  
220 *Phenomena*. AIAA. 1995.
- 221 24. Sick V, Stojkovic B. Attenuation effects on imaging diagnostics of hollow-cone sprays. *Appl Opt*  
222 2001; 40(15):2435–2442.
- 223 25. Linne MA. Imaging in the Optically Dense Regions of a Spray: A Review of Developing  
224 Techniques. *Prog Energ Combust Sci* 2013; 39(5):403–440.

- 225 26. Birk A, McQuaid M, Gross M. Liquid core structure of evaporating sprays at high pressures –  
226 Flash X-ray Studies. Report from the Army Research Lab. Aberdeen Proving Ground-TR-901  
227 1995.
- 228 27. Halls BR, Heindel TJ, Meyer TR, Kastengren AL. Evaluation of X-ray sources for quantitative  
229 two- and three-dimensional imaging of liquid mass distribution in atomizing sprays. *Int J*  
230 *Multiphas Flow* 2014; 59:113–120.
- 231 28. Kastengren AL, Powell CF. Synchrotron X-ray techniques for fluid dynamics. *Exp Fluids* 2014;  
232 55(3):1–15.
- 233 29. Halls BR, Radke CD, Reuter BJ, Kastengren AL, Gord JR, Meyer TR. High-Speed, Two-  
234 Dimensional Synchrotron White-Beam X-ray Radiography of Spray Breakup and Atomization.  
235 *Opt Express* 2017; 25(2):1605–1617.
- 236 30. Halls BR, Meyer TR, Kastengren AL. Quantitative Measurement of Binary Liquid Distributions  
237 Using Multiple-Tracer X-ray Fluorescence and Radiography. *Opt Express* 2015; 23(2):1730–  
238 1739.
- 239 31. Lin K-C, Rajniecek C, McCall J, Carter C, Fezzaa K. Investigation of pure- and aerated-liquid jets  
240 using ultra-fast X-ray phase contrast imaging. *Nucl Instrum Meth A* 2011; 649(1):194–496.
- 241 32. Lin K-C, Ryan M, Carter C, Sandy, A, Narayanan S, Ilavsky J, Wang J. Investigation of  
242 condensed supercritical ethylene jets using Small Angle X-ray Scattering (SAXS) technique. *J*  
243 *Nucl Instrum Methods Phys Res A* 2011; 649(1):219–221.
- 244 33. Sellberg JA, Huang C, McQueen TA, Loh ND, Laksmono H, Schlesinger D, et al. Ultrafast X-ray  
245 probing of water structure below the homogeneous ice nucleation temperature. *Nature* 2014; 510:  
246 381–384.
- 247 34. Eng PJ, Newville M, Rivers ML, Sutton SR. Dynamically figured Kirkpatrick Baez x-ray micro-  
248 focusing optics. *P Soc Photo-Opt Ins* 1998; 3449:145–156.
- 249 35. Hubbell JH, Seltzer SM. 2004. Tables of X-Ray Mass Attenuation Coefficients and Mass Energy-  
250 Absorption Coefficients (version 1.4). [Retrieved 02, 20, 2013, from  
251 <http://physics.nist.gov/xaamdi>].
- 252 36. Filik, J, Ashton, AW, Chang, PCY, Chater, PA, Day, SJ, Drakopoulos, M, Gerring, MW, Hart,  
253 ML, Magdysyuk, OV, Michalik, S, Smith, A, Tang, CC, Terrill, NJ, Wharmby, MT, and  
254 Wilhelm, H, Processing two-dimensional X-ray diffraction and small-angle scattering data in  
255 DAWN 2, *J. Appl. Crystallography* 2017, 50(3), pp. 959–966.
- 256 37. Wold S, Sjöström M, Eriksson L. PLS-regression: a basic tool of chemometrics. *Chemometrics*  
257 *and Intelligent Laboratory Systems* 2001; 58:109–130.
- 258 38. Mevik B, Wehrens R. The pls Package: Principal Component and Partial Least Squares  
259 Regression in R. *J Stat Softwar* 2007, 18(2).
- 260 39. Scikit-learn: Machine Learning in Python, Pedregosa et al., *JMLR* 12, pp. 2825-2830, 201