
**Measurement of fluid flow in closed
conduits — Ultrasonic transit-time
meters for liquid**

*Mesurage de débit des fluides dans les conduites fermées —
Compteurs ultrasoniques pour liquides*





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Foreword

ISO (the International Organization for Standardization) is a worldwide federation of national standards bodies (ISO member bodies). The work of preparing International Standards is normally carried out through ISO technical committees. Each member body interested in a subject for which a technical committee has been established has the right to be represented on that committee. International organizations, governmental and non-governmental, in liaison with ISO, also take part in the work. ISO collaborates closely with the International Electrotechnical Commission (IEC) on all matters of electrotechnical standardization.

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The main task of technical committees is to prepare International Standards. Draft International Standards adopted by the technical committees are circulated to the member bodies for voting. Publication as an International Standard requires approval by at least 75 % of the member bodies casting a vote.

Attention is drawn to the possibility that some of the elements of this document may be the subject of patent rights. ISO shall not be held responsible for identifying any or all such patent rights.

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Introduction

Ultrasonic meters (USMs) have become one of the accepted flow measurement technologies for a wide range of liquid applications, including custody-transfer and allocation measurement. Ultrasonic technology has inherent features such as no pressure loss and wide rangeability.

USMs can deliver diagnostic information through which it may be possible to demonstrate that an ultrasonic liquid flowmeter is performing in accordance with specification. Owing to the extended diagnostic capabilities, this International Standard advocates the addition and use of automated diagnostics instead of labour-intensive quality checks. The use of automated diagnostics makes possible a condition-based maintenance system.

Measurement of fluid flow in closed conduits — Ultrasonic transit-time meters for liquid

1 Scope

This International Standard specifies requirements and recommendations for ultrasonic liquid flowmeters, which utilize the transit time of ultrasonic signals to measure the flow of single-phase homogenous liquids in closed conduits.

There are no limits on the minimum or maximum sizes of the meter.

This International Standard specifies performance, calibration and output characteristics of ultrasonic meters (USMs) for liquid flow measurement and deals with installation conditions. It covers installation with and without a dedicated proving (calibration) system. It covers both in-line and clamp-on transducers (used in configurations in which the beam is non-refracted and in those in which it is refracted). Included are both meters incorporating meter bodies and meters with field-mounted transducers.

2 Normative references

The following referenced documents are indispensable for the application of this document. For dated references, only the edition cited applies. For undated references, the latest edition of the referenced document (including any amendments) applies.

ISO 4006, *Measurement of fluid flow in closed conduits — Vocabulary and symbols*

3 Terms and definitions

For the purposes of this document, the terms and definitions given in ISO 4006 and the following apply.

3.1 Quantities

3.1.1 volume flowrate

q_V

$$q_V = \frac{dV}{dt}$$

where

V is volume;

t is time

NOTE Adapted from ISO 80000-4:2006,^[42] 4-30.

3.1.2 metering pressure

absolute fluid pressure in a meter under flowing conditions to which the indicated volume of liquid is related

3.1.3 mean velocity in the meter body

v

fluid flowrate divided by the cross-sectional area of the meter body

3.1.4

mean pipe velocity

v_p

fluid flowrate divided by the cross-sectional area of the upstream pipe

NOTE Where a meter has a reduced bore, the mean velocities in the upstream pipe and within the meter body itself differ.

3.1.5

path velocity

average fluid velocity on an ultrasonic path

3.1.6

Reynolds number

dimensionless parameter expressing the ratio between the inertia and viscous forces

3.1.7

pipe Reynolds number

Re_D

dimensionless parameter expressing the ratio between the inertia and viscous forces in the pipe

$$Re_D = \frac{\rho v_p D}{\mu} = \frac{v_p D}{\nu_{kv}}$$

where

ρ is mass density;

v_p is the mean pipe velocity;

D is the pipe internal diameter;

μ is the dynamic viscosity;

ν_{kv} is the kinematic viscosity

NOTE Where a meter has a reduced bore, it is possible also to define the throat Reynolds number, in whose definition the mean velocity in the meter body, the meter internal diameter and the kinematic viscosity are used.

3.2 Meter design

3.2.1

meter body

pressure-containing structure of the meter

3.2.2

ultrasonic path

path travelled by an ultrasonic signal between a pair of ultrasonic transducers

3.2.3

axial path

path travelled by an ultrasonic signal either on or parallel to the axis of the pipe

3.2.4

diametrical path

ultrasonic path whereby the ultrasonic signal travels through the centre-line or long axis of the pipe

3.2.5

chordal path

ultrasonic path whereby the ultrasonic signal travels parallel to the diametrical path

3.2.6**field mounted**

external to the pipe, attached on site, not prior to a laboratory calibration

3.3 Thermodynamic conditions**3.3.1****metering conditions**

conditions, at the point of measurement, of the fluid of which the volume is to be measured

NOTE Also known as operating conditions or actual conditions.

3.3.2**standard conditions**

defined temperature and pressure conditions used in the measurement of fluid quantity so that the standard volume is the volume that would be occupied by a quantity of fluid if it were at standard temperature and pressure

NOTE 1 Standard conditions may be defined by regulation or contract.

NOTE 2 Not preferred alternatives: reference conditions, base conditions, normal conditions, etc.

NOTE 3 Metering and standard conditions relate only to the volume of the liquid to be measured or indicated, and should not be confused with rated operating conditions or reference conditions (see ISO/IEC Guide 99:2007,^[44] 4.9 and 4.11), which refer to influence quantities (see ISO/IEC Guide 99:2007,^[44] 2.52).

3.3.3**specified conditions**

conditions of the fluid at which performance specifications of the meter are given

3.4 Statistics**3.4.1****error**

measured quantity value minus a reference quantity value

[ISO/IEC Guide 99:2007,^[44] 2.16]

3.4.2**repeatability (of results of measurements)**

closeness of the agreement between the results of successive measurements of the same measurand carried out under the same conditions of measurement

NOTE 1 These conditions are called repeatability conditions.

NOTE 2 Repeatability conditions include:

- the same measurement procedure;
- the same observer;
- the same measuring instrument, used under the same conditions;
- the same location;
- repetition over a short period of time.

NOTE 3 Repeatability may be expressed quantitatively in terms of the dispersion characteristics of the results.

[ISO/IEC Guide 98-3:2008,^[43] B.2.15]

3.4.3

reproducibility (of results of measurements)

closeness of the agreement between the results of measurements of the same measurand carried out under changed conditions of measurement

NOTE 1 A valid statement of reproducibility requires specification of the conditions changed.

NOTE 2 The changed conditions may include:

- principle of measurement;
- method of measurement;
- observer;
- measuring instrument;
- reference standard;
- location;
- conditions of use;
- time.

NOTE 3 Reproducibility may be expressed quantitatively in terms of the dispersion characteristics of the results.

NOTE 4 Results are here usually understood to be corrected results.

[ISO/IEC Guide 98-3:2008,^[43] B.2.16]

3.4.4

resolution

smallest difference between indications of a meter that can be meaningfully distinguished

3.4.5

zero flow reading

flowmeter reading when the liquid is at rest, i.e. both axial and non-axial velocity components are essentially zero

3.4.6

linearization

way of reducing the non-linearity of an ultrasonic meter, by applying correction factors

NOTE The linearization can be applied in the electronics of the meter or in a flow computer connected to the USM. The correction can be, for example, piece-wise linearization or polynomial linearization.

3.4.7

uncertainty (of measurement)

parameter, associated with the result of a measurement, that characterizes the dispersion of the values that could reasonably be attributed to the measurand

NOTE 1 The parameter may be, for example, a standard deviation (or a given multiple of it), or the half-width of an interval having a stated level of confidence.

NOTE 2 Uncertainty of measurement comprises, in general, many components. Some of these components may be evaluated from the statistical distribution of the results of series of measurements and can be characterized by experimental standard deviations. The other components, which can also be characterized by standard deviations, are evaluated from assumed probability distributions based on experience or other information.

NOTE 3 It is understood that the result of the measurement is the best estimate of the value of the measurand, and that all components of uncertainty, including those arising from systematic effects, such as components associated with corrections and reference standards, contribute to the dispersion.

[ISO/IEC Guide 98-3:2008,^[43] B.2.18]

3.4.8 standard uncertainty

u

uncertainty of the result of a measurement expressed as a standard deviation

[ISO/IEC Guide 98-3:2008,^[43] 2.3.1]

3.4.9 expanded uncertainty

U

quantity defining an interval about the result of a measurement that may be expected to encompass a large fraction of the distribution of values that could reasonably be attributed to the measurand

[ISO/IEC Guide 98-3:2008,^[43] 2.3.5]

NOTE 1 The large fraction is normally 95 % and is generally associated with a coverage factor $k = 2$.

NOTE 2 The expanded uncertainty is often referred to as the uncertainty.

3.4.10 coverage factor

numerical factor used as a multiplier of the standard uncertainty in order to obtain an expanded uncertainty

NOTE Adapted from ISO/IEC Guide 98-3:2008,^[43] 2.3.6.

3.5 Calibration

3.5.1 flow calibration

calibration in which fluid flows through the meter

3.5.2 theoretical prediction procedure

procedure by which the performance of a meter is theoretically predicted, without liquid flowing through the meter

3.5.3 performance testing

testing of a representative sample of meters to determine, for example, reproducibility and installation requirements for meters geometrically similar to themselves

3.6 Symbols and subscripts

The symbols and subscripts used in this International Standard are given in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1 — Symbols

Quantity	Symbol	Dimensions ^a	SI unit
Cross-sectional area of meter body	A	L^2	m^2
Speed of sound in fluid	c	LT^{-1}	m/s
Internal diameter of the meter body	d	L	m
Internal pipe diameter	D	L	m
Young's modulus	E	$ML^{-1}T^{-2}$	Pa
Function of path velocities	f	—	1
Integers (1,2,3, ...)	i,j,n	—	1
Calibration factor	K	—	1
Body end correction factor	K_E	—	1
Path-geometry factor	K_g	L^b or $LT^{-1}{}^c$	m^b or m/s^c
Velocity profile correction factor	K_p	—	1
Body style correction factor	K_S	—	1
Minimum distance to a specified upstream flow disturbance	l_{min}	L	m
Path length	l_p	L	m
Absolute pressure	p	$ML^{-1}T^{-2}$	Pa
Volume flowrate	q_V	L^3T^{-1}	m^3/s
Internal pipe radius	r	L	m
External pipe radius	R	L	m
Throat Reynolds number	Re_d	—	1
Pipe Reynolds number	Re_D	—	1
Percentage maximum deviation in measured flowrate due to upstream fittings	S	—	1
Absolute temperature of the liquid	T	Θ	K
Transit time	t	T	s
Time delay	t_0	T	s
Mean axial fluid velocity in the meter body	v	LT^{-1}	m/s
Mean axial fluid velocity on ultrasonic path, i	v_i	LT^{-1}	m/s
Mean axial fluid velocity in the upstream pipe	v_p	LT^{-1}	m/s
Transducer axial separation	X	L	m
Thermal expansion coefficient	α	Θ^{-1}	K^{-1}
Pipe wall thickness	δ	L	m
Dynamic viscosity	μ	$ML^{-1}T^{-1}$	Pa s
Kinematic viscosity	ν_{kv}	L^2T^{-1}	m^2/s
Density of the liquid	ρ	ML^{-3}	kg/m^3
Poisson's ratio	σ	—	1
Angle between ultrasonic path and pipe axis	ϕ	—	rad
^a M ≡ mass; L ≡ length; T ≡ time ; Θ ≡ temperature.			
^b Non-refracting configuration.			
^c Refracting configuration.			

Table 2 — Subscripts

Subscript	Meaning
cal	under calibration conditions
meas	measured (uncorrected)
op	under operational conditions
true	actual (corrected)

3.7 Abbreviated terms

AGC	automatic gain control
FAT	factory acceptance test
MSOS	measured speed of sound
SNR	signal to noise ratio
SOS	speed of sound
RSOS	reference speed of sound
USM	ultrasonic meter
USMP	USM package, including meter tubes, flow conditioner, flow computer and thermowell

4 Principles of measurement

4.1 Description

The ultrasonic transit-time flowmeter is a sampling device that measures discrete path velocities using one or more pairs of transducers. Each pair of transducers is located a known distance, l_p , apart such that one is upstream of the other (see Figure 1). The upstream and downstream transducers send and receive pulses of ultrasound alternately, referred to as contra-propagating transmission, and the times of arrival are used in the calculation of average axial velocity, v . At any given instant, the difference between the apparent speed of sound in a moving liquid and the speed of sound in that same liquid at rest is directly proportional to the instantaneous velocity of the liquid. As a consequence, a measure of the average axial velocity of the liquid along a path can be obtained by transmitting an ultrasonic signal along the path in both directions and subsequently measuring the transit time difference.

The volume flowrate of a liquid flowing in a completely filled closed conduit is defined as the average velocity of the liquid over a cross-section multiplied by the area of the cross-section. Thus, by measuring the average velocity of a liquid along one or more ultrasonic paths (i.e. lines, not the area) and combining the measurements with knowledge of the cross-sectional area and the velocity profile over the cross-section, it is possible to obtain an estimate of the volume flowrate of the liquid in the conduit.

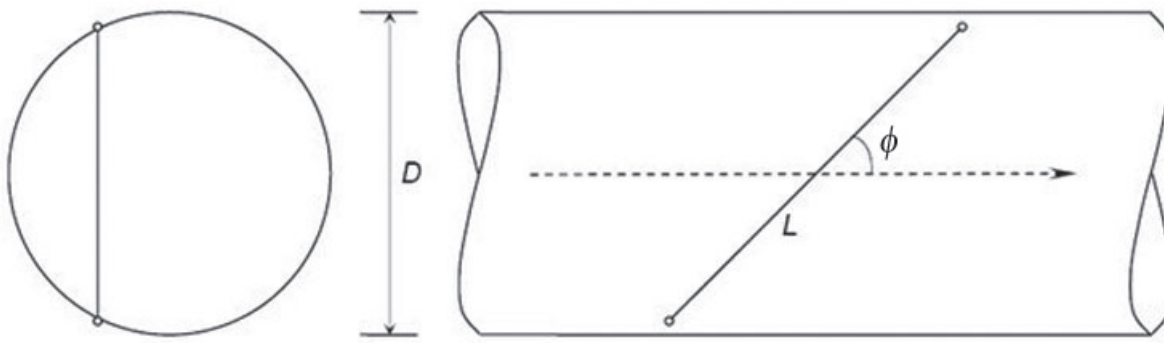


Figure 1 — Measurement principle

Several techniques can be used to obtain a measure of the average effective speed of propagation of an ultrasonic signal in a moving liquid in order to determine the average axial flow velocity along an ultrasonic path line. However, the normal technique applied in modern USMs is the direct time differential technique.

The basis of this technique is the measurement of the transit time of ultrasonic signals as they propagate between a transmitter and a receiver. The velocity of propagation of the ultrasonic signal is the sum of the speed of sound, c , and the flow velocity in the direction of propagation. Therefore the transit time upstream and downstream can be expressed as:

$$t_{fl_up/dn} \approx \int_{l=0}^{l_p} \frac{1}{c + v_l \cdot n} \cdot dl \quad (1)$$

where

- c is the speed of sound in the fluid;
- n is the unit normal vector to the wave front;
- v_l is the flow velocity vector at location, l , on the path l_p .

NOTE This is correct whether the transmitter is upstream or downstream.

With the assumptions that the flow velocity is in the axial direction only and that $v_i \ll c$, where v_i is the mean axial flow velocity on ultrasonic path line i , then the upstream and downstream transit times can be written as

$$t_{fl_up} = \frac{l_p}{c - v_i \cos \phi} \quad (2)$$

$$t_{fl_dn} = \frac{l_p}{c + v_i \cos \phi} \quad (3)$$

Rearranging terms and solving for v_i gives

$$\frac{1}{t_{fl_dn}} - \frac{1}{t_{fl_up}} = \frac{t_{fl_up} - t_{fl_dn}}{t_{fl_up} t_{fl_dn}} = \frac{2v_i \cos \phi}{l_p} \quad (4)$$

$$v_i = \frac{l_p}{2 \cos \phi} \frac{\Delta t}{t_{fl_up} t_{fl_dn}} \quad (5)$$

where

l_p is the distance between the transducers;

Δt is the difference in transit times;

ϕ is the angle of inclination of the ultrasonic signal with respect to the axial direction of the flow.

The speed of sound can be calculated as follows:

$$\frac{1}{t_{fl_dn}} + \frac{1}{t_{fl_up}} = \frac{t_{fl_up} + t_{fl_dn}}{t_{fl_up} t_{fl_dn}} = \frac{2c}{l_p} \quad (6)$$

$$c = \frac{l_p}{2} \frac{(t_{fl_up} + t_{fl_dn})}{t_{fl_up} t_{fl_dn}} \quad (7)$$

4.2 Volume flow

The individual path velocity measurements are combined by a mathematical function to yield an estimate of the mean velocity in the meter body:

$$v = f(v_1, \dots, v_n) \quad (8)$$

where n is the total number of paths.

Owing to variations in path configuration and different proprietary approaches of solving Formula (8), even for a given number of paths, the exact form of $f(v_1, \dots, v_n)$ can vary.

The relationship between the mean pipe velocity and the measured path velocities depends on the flow profile. In fully developed flow, the flow profile depends only on the Reynolds number and the pipe roughness.

One possible solution is to calculate the mean velocity as a weighted sum of the path velocities and to apply a velocity profile factor, K_p , to compensate for profile changes. The value of K_p is calculated by an algorithm that takes into account flow regime (laminar, transitional, and turbulent), as well as other process variables, as required.

$$v = K_p \sum_{i=1}^n w_i v_i \quad (9)$$

The volume flowrate, q_V , is given by:

$$q_V = A v \quad (10)$$

where

v is the estimate of the mean pipe velocity;

A is the cross-sectional area of the measurement section.

Note that increasing n may reduce the uncertainty associated with flow profile variations.

4.3 Generic description

4.3.1 General

This sub-clause is a generic description of USMs for liquids. It recognizes the scope for variation within commercial designs and the potential for new developments. For the purpose of description, USMs are considered to consist of several components, namely:

- a) transducers;
- b) meter body with ultrasonic path configuration;
- c) electronic data processing and presentation unit.

NOTE In a meter with externally mounted transducers, the meter body is the pipe to which the transducers are fixed.

4.3.2 Transducers

Transducers are the transmitters and receivers of the ultrasonic signal. They can be supplied in various forms. Typically they comprise a piezoelectric element with electrode connections and a supporting mechanical structure with which the process connection is made.

Typical arrangements are shown in Figures 2 and 3. To measure the axial velocity, the transducer transmits ultrasonic waves at a non-perpendicular angle to the meter body axis in the direction of a second transducer or reflection point in the meter body interior. There are two methods of mounting the transducers:

- a) external to the pressure-retaining boundary;
- b) internal to the pressure-retaining boundary.

The beam of the USM may be

- 1) refracted;
- 2) non-refracted.

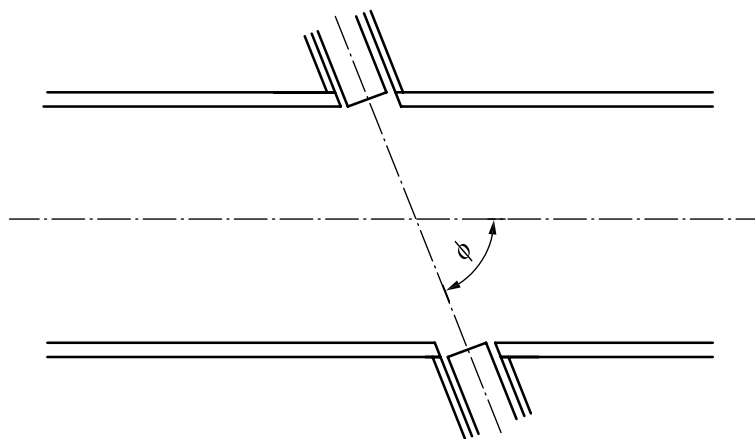


Figure 2 — Non-refracted configuration

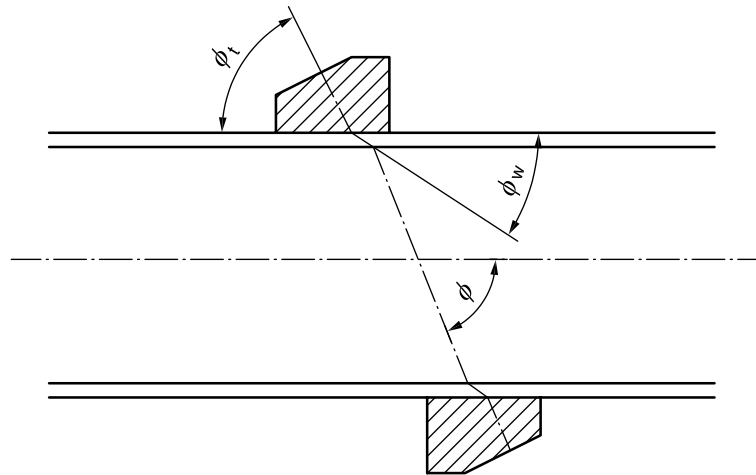


Figure 3 — Refracted configuration with an external mount

If the transducers are external to the pipe wall boundary, then the beam is always refracted; this configuration is typically referred to as clamp-on or field mounted. The geometry of a refracted beam is a function of, among other things, the liquid sound velocity (and thus temperature). The beam geometry determines the optimal transducer position. If the transducers are not placed at their optimal position, the measurement uncertainty increases.

If the transducers are internal to the pipe wall boundary, this configuration is typically referred to as in-line; the beam is almost always non-refracted.

4.3.3 Meter body and ultrasonic path configurations

The meter body is essentially a pipe to which the transducers are attached. Temperature and pressure have an effect on the pipe area (see 4.7 and Annex A). In a reduced-bore meter, the area of the measurement section is smaller than that of the pipe.

USMs are available in a variety of path configurations. The numbers of measurement paths are generally chosen based on a requirement with respect to variations in velocity distribution and required accuracy.

As well as variations in the radial position of the measurement paths in the cross-section, the path configuration can be varied in orientation to the pipe axis. By utilizing reflection of the ultrasonic wave from the interior of the meter body or from a fabricated reflector, the path can traverse the cross-section several times.

Some ultrasonic path types are illustrated in Figures 4 and 5. Figure 4 shows examples of single-path meters, Figure 5 examples of multipath meters.

Velocity measurements made on multiple paths are typically less susceptible to changes in flow profile than those made on a single path. Double traverses in a single plane are much less sensitive to non-axial velocity components than single traverse paths. Other configurations, e.g. the triple traverse mid-radius path, may be sensitive to non-axial components but can be used in combination to eliminate or to reduce the effects of swirl and cross-flow. Direct paths can be single, double or crossed.

4.3.4 Time measurement

All USMs contain an electronic part that generates and receives signals and performs time measurement.

4.4 Time delay considerations

In 4.1 it is assumed that the ultrasonic signal spends all of the transit time in the fluid and that the direction of propagation is at an angle, ϕ , to the pipe wall. In a real system, the measured time between the ultrasonic signal

leaving the transmitter and being received at the receiver includes a time delay, t_0 , due to intervening materials, electronics, signal processing, cable lengths, etc.:

$$t_{me_up/dn} = t_{fl_up/dn} + t_0 \quad (11)$$

Here it is assumed that the difference between the delay times t_{0_up} and t_{0_dn} is small compared with the transit times $t_{me_up/dn}$. Any difference between t_{0_up} and t_{0_dn} results in a zero offset.

Formulae (5) and (7) then take the form

$$v_i = \frac{l_p}{2 \cos \phi} \frac{\Delta t}{(t_{me_up} - t_0)(t_{me_dn} - t_0)} \quad (12)$$

$$c = \frac{l_p}{2} \frac{(t_{me_up} + t_{me_dn} - 2t_0)}{(t_{me_up} - t_0)(t_{me_dn} - t_0)} \quad (13)$$

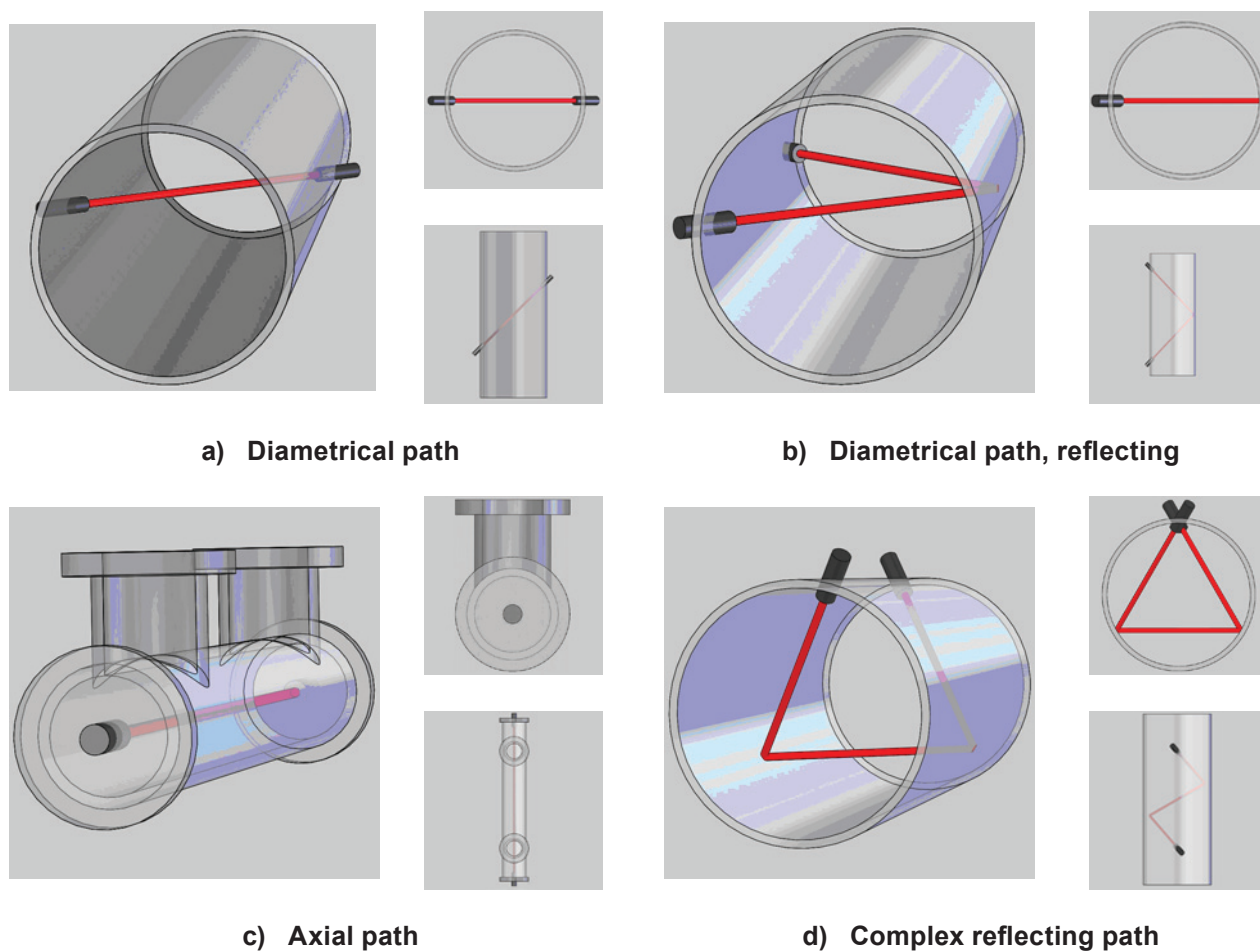


Figure 4 — Some Ultrasonic path types for single-path meters

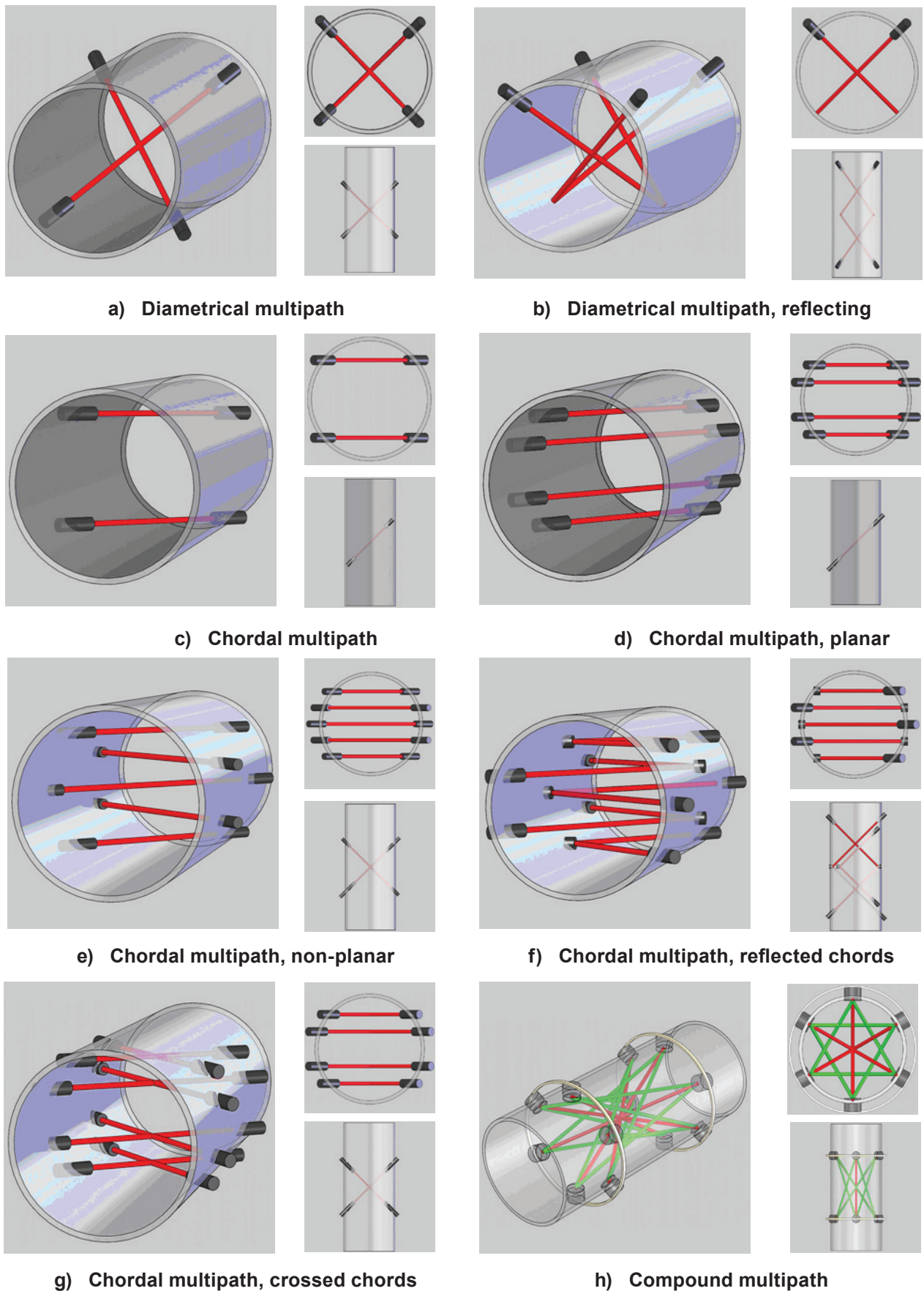


Figure 5 — Some ultrasonic path types for multipath meters

4.5 Refraction considerations

It is necessary for USMs that utilize externally mounted transducer arrangements (see Figure 3) to compensate for refraction in order to operate properly and accurately. When a sound wave passes through an interface between two materials at oblique angles and the materials have different acoustic impedances, both reflected and refracted waves are produced. Sound-wave refraction takes place as the sound passes from the transducer into the pipe wall, from the pipe wall into pipe lining (if present), and from the pipe or pipe lining into the liquid. This is due to the different velocities of the acoustic waves within these materials. With externally mounted transducer arrangements, Formula (5) is usually rearranged into a different form, which is derived in this subclause.

With the definition of the angles according to Figure 3, Snell's law can be expressed as Formula (14):

$$\frac{\cos \phi_t}{c_t} = \frac{\cos \phi_w}{c_w} = \frac{\cos \phi}{c} \quad (14)$$

where

c_t is the speed of sound in the transducer's coupling wedge;

c_w is the speed of sound in the wall;

c is the speed of sound in the liquid.

As a consequence, ϕ and l_p in Formulae (5) and (12) become functions of the speeds of sound, c_t , c_w , and c and hence in general, of the temperature, pressure, and composition of the process fluid and intervening materials.

Using the assumption (already made in 4.1) that the velocity is much smaller than the speed of sound in the fluid, the product of the transit times in the fluid measured upstream and downstream approximately equals the square of the transit time t_{fl} in the fluid with no flow:

$$t_{fl_up} t_{fl_dn} = \left(t_{fl} + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \right) \left(t_{fl} - \frac{\Delta t}{2} \right) = t_{fl}^2 - \frac{\Delta t^2}{4} \approx t_{fl}^2 \quad (15)$$

Formula (5) becomes:

$$v_i = \frac{l_p}{2 \cos \phi} \frac{\Delta t}{t_{fl}^2} \quad (16)$$

The speed of sound in the fluid can be substituted for the path length and the transit time in the fluid. Then from Formula (14) the speed of sound and angle in the coupling wedge are substituted for the speed of sound and angle in the fluid:

$$v_i = \frac{l_p}{\cos \phi} \frac{\Delta t}{2 t_{fl}} = \frac{c}{\cos \phi} \frac{\Delta t}{2 t_{fl}} = \frac{c_t}{\cos \phi_t} \frac{\Delta t}{2 t_{fl}} \quad (17)$$

The sum of the transit times in the fluid measured upstream and downstream equals twice the transit time in the fluid:

$$v_i = \frac{c_t}{\cos \phi_t} \frac{\Delta t}{t_{fl_up} + t_{fl_dn}} \quad (18)$$

Just as in 4.4 the transit times t_{fl_up} and t_{fl_dn} in the fluid are replaced by the measured transit times t_{me_up} , t_{me_dn} , and the delay time t_0 :

$$v_i = \frac{c_t}{\cos \phi_t} \frac{\Delta t}{(t_{me_up} + t_{me_dn} - 2t_0)} \quad (19)$$

Thus the measured flow velocity is not directly dependent on the speed of sound in the fluid.

4.6 Reynolds number

The pipe Reynolds number is given by:

$$Re_D = \frac{v_p D \rho}{\mu} \quad (20)$$

where

- D is the internal diameter of the pipe;
- v_p is the mean axial liquid velocity in the pipe;
- ρ is the actual density;
- μ is the dynamic viscosity.

The effect of the Reynolds number on the uncertainty of a USM is discussed in 6.2.3.

4.7 Temperature and pressure correction

During flow calibration, the meter flow calibration factor is determined and applied. Any subsequent change in pressure or temperature from that encountered during the flow calibration alters the physical dimensions of the meter and, if not corrected for, introduces a systematic flow measurement error. In general, the temperature and pressure during calibration are different from those encountered under operating conditions. Temperature and pressure correction is not always necessary for process applications. For many instruments, the influence of pressure and temperature is typically negligible compared with the total uncertainty. For high accuracy applications (e.g. custody transfer) and extreme temperatures or pressures, this may no longer be the case.

In A.1 to A.4, a simple approach is given to allow an initial estimate to be made of the flow error caused by temperature and pressure conditions that differ from the calibration reference condition. If this error is significant relative to the uncertainty required for custody transfer or allocation purposes, a more detailed assessment of flow error has to be performed as described in A.5. ISO 17089-1:2010,^[41] Annex E provides an extensive and detailed explanation of the process and readers are advised to consult that document for the background to many of the statements made in Annex A.

5 Performance requirements

The selection of the USM depends on its required performance. There are many different applications. The performance is normally specified in terms of uncertainty in measured volume flowrate over a working range of Reynolds number (or flowrate). For control purposes, any value of uncertainty may be specified. For custody-transfer measurement, users usually refer to the performance criteria described in relevant application standards, such as those of the International Organization for Standardization (ISO), the Organisation Internationale de Métrologie Légale (OIML), the American Petroleum Institute (API) *Manual of petroleum measurement standards*, or others where uncertainty, repeatability and linearity are specified.

The uncertainty is derived in Clause 6 using the equations derived in Clause 4. Clause 7 covers installation effects (on both the calibration and the use of the USM). Clause 8 describes calibration. Clause 9 covers the components of uncertainty that need only be evaluated once for a design of USM. Clause 11 covers how to deliver the performance in Clause 5 through the audit trail, and how to maintain it through the use of diagnostics and recalibration in the field (using a prover) and in the laboratory. Clause 10 covers meter characteristics, especially in terms of design, manufacture and markings.

6 Uncertainty in measurement

6.1 Introduction

Following ISO/IEC Guide 98-3:2008,^[43] this analysis is based on the mathematical relationship between the measured volume flow and all input quantities on which it depends. The standard uncertainty of each input quantity is evaluated and the combined uncertainty is derived by propagation of uncertainty.

The volume flow measured by a USM is given by Formulae (9) and (10). When the meter is calibrated, a calibration factor K is included. Thus the volume flow is:

$$q_V = K K_p A \sum_{i=1}^n w_i v_i \quad (21)$$

So the uncertainty depends on

- a) the uncertainty $u(K)$ in the calibration factor K ;
- b) the uncertainty $u(K_p)$ in K_p due to the velocity profile;
- c) the uncertainty $u(A)$ in the area of the measurement cross-section;
- d) the uncertainty $u(v)$ due to the path-velocity measurement.

The evaluation of $u(v)$ is based on Formula (12) or Formula (19), as appropriate. The first factor on the right hand side of Formula (12) and Formula (19) can be referred to as the path geometry factor, K_g . It determines what transit time difference is caused by a certain path velocity and transit time. The dimensions of K_g depend on whether Formula (12) or Formula (19) is used. The total uncertainty in the measurement of the path velocity thus includes the following three components:

- 1) the uncertainty $u(K_g)$ in the path geometry factor;
- 2) the uncertainty $u(t)$ in the time measurement;
- 3) the uncertainty $u(t_0)$ in the delay time compensation.

If temperature and pressure influences have to be considered, the appropriate expressions need to be included in Formulae (12) and (21). The uncertainties of the temperature and pressure measurement are added as additional uncertainty components.

The standard uncertainty of the flow measurement is derived from the components by propagation of uncertainty. The level of confidence of the standard uncertainty is 68 %, assuming a normal distribution (see ISO/IEC Guide 98-3:2008,^[43] 4.3.6). A coverage factor can be applied to report an expanded uncertainty with a higher level of confidence; usually the coverage factor is $k = 2$, resulting in a level of confidence of approximately 95 % (see ISO/IEC Guide 98-3:2008,^[43] 6.3.3).

Examples of uncertainty calculations are given in Annex C.

6.2 Evaluation of the uncertainty components

6.2.1 Introduction

The evaluation of the uncertainty components depends, among other things, on how the meter is calibrated.

Calibration methods are

- a) theoretical prediction procedure only;
- b) flow calibration in a laboratory (no *in situ* use of a prover or a master meter);

- c) *in situ* calibration, at certain time intervals, against a master meter which is itself calibrated in a flow laboratory at certain time intervals;
- d) *in situ* calibration against a prover, at certain time intervals;
- e) *in situ* calibration, at certain time intervals, against a master meter which is itself calibrated against a prover at certain time intervals.

When the meter is calibrated, a calibration factor derived from the calibration result removes some of the sources of error. Thus, the uncertainties of all input quantities that are assumed to be constant are removed and replaced by the uncertainty in the calibration factor which is identical to the uncertainty of the calibration. This may apply to uncertainties $u(A)$, $u(K_g)$, and $u(t_0)$ when a meter is flow calibrated on the same meter body to be installed in the field. A field calibration by means of a prover also reduces the contribution of uncertainty in $u(K_p)$ that is caused by flow profile disturbances.

One way of evaluating the uncertainty of an input quantity is performance testing. This applies, for example, to the flow-profile uncertainty caused by perturbations and to the path geometry factor with externally mounted transducers.

It is possible that some input quantities that are considered constant at calibration do not stay constant after the meter is installed in the field. An evaluation of the long-term uncertainty, therefore, requires all components to be considered.

The evaluation of the individual uncertainty components is described in 6.2.2 to 6.2.7.

NOTE See also 7.4.2, 7.4.3, 7.4.4, and 7.4.1. Damage increases the uncertainty.

6.2.2 Uncertainty $u(K)$ in the calibration factor (see Clause 8)

After the meter has been calibrated, the uncertainty of the calibration factor K is identical to the uncertainty of the calibration.

If a meter is not flow-calibrated, but its performance is predicted by a theoretical prediction procedure, the uncertainty as measured under 9.3 and 9.4 is regarded as an uncertainty in K_g .

For calibration in the field, see 11.5.3.2.

6.2.3 Uncertainty $u(K_p)$ in velocity profile (see Clause 7)

In the case of a fully developed turbulent flow, the effect of velocity profile on K_p can be estimated using the pipe Reynolds number and the roughness of the pipe wall (see Annex B).

In the Reynolds number range between approximately 2 000 and 10 000, the flow changes from laminar to turbulent conditions. In the region between laminar and turbulent conditions, transitional flow occurs, and the velocity profile switches rapidly back and forth between shapes that are approximately equal to laminar and turbulent profiles. In the process of switching back and forth, more complex velocity profiles also occur. The Reynolds number at which transitional flow occurs and the exact nature of the transitional flow is dependent on numerous factors, including the pipe geometry and the prevailing thermal conditions. The range of 2 000 to 10 000 is given as a general guide to the maximum and minimum limits for transitional flow, but within that range, transition normally occupies a narrower range of Reynolds number.

The impact of transitional flow on the measurement uncertainty depends on the meter design. Meters employing only diameter paths are very sensitive to the transition from laminar to turbulent flow, and for these meters the value of K_p changes from 0,75 for laminar flow to more than 0,9 in turbulent flow. Therefore if K_p is incorrectly applied because of uncertainty regarding a critical Reynolds number, large errors could be incurred. Multipath meters that employ additional paths that are not on the diameter can reduce these effects and may also be able to evaluate the shape of the profile and therefore detect whether the flow is laminar, transitional or turbulent.

If the USM requires a manual input to characterize the flowing liquid condition and to determine K_p , e.g. liquid density and viscosity, the actual values for the density and the dynamic viscosity shall be entered in the USM computer during calibration as well as during operation; moreover, the sensitivity of the USM to these parameters shall be calculated so that the user can determine the need to change these parameters