

- Learning Outcomes
 - Sensors
 - Resolution, Sensitivity, Operating Range
 - Displacement Sensors
 - Potentiometers
 - Strain Gauges
 - Capacitive Sensors
 - Inductive Sensors
 - Temperature Sensors
 - Thermistors
 - Thermocouples

Sensors

Slide 07B.2

Sensors

Sensor: device which detects changes in quantities of interest and provides a readable output

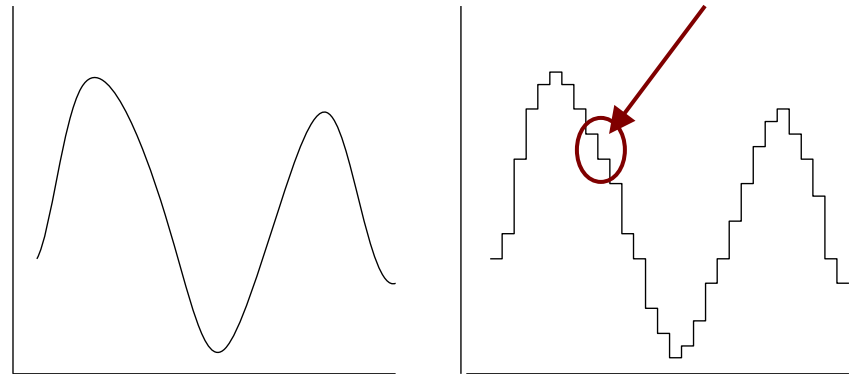
Examples

- Thermocouple converts temperature to voltage.
- Mercury thermometer converts temperature to a reading on a calibrated glass tube.

Instrument Characteristics: Resolution and Sensitivity

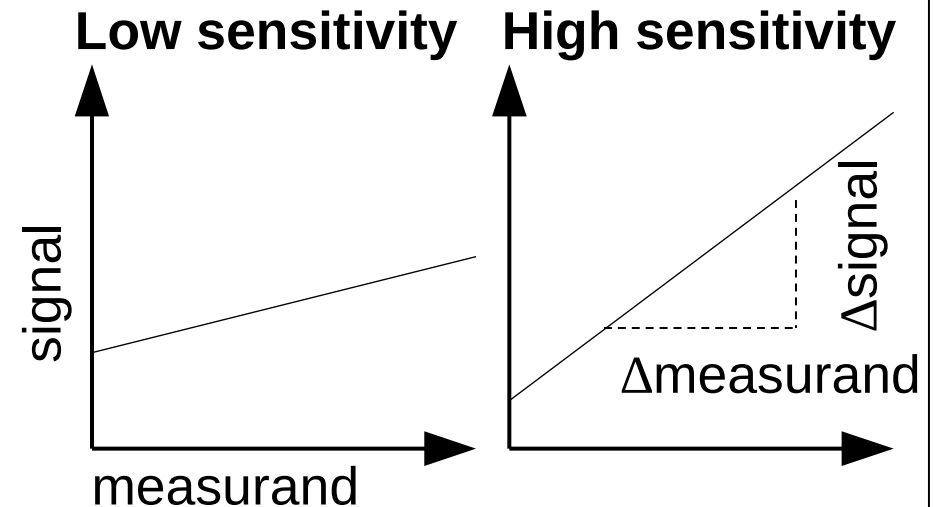
Resolution

- Smallest change measurable



Sensitivity

$$= (\Delta \text{signal}) / (\Delta \text{measurand})$$

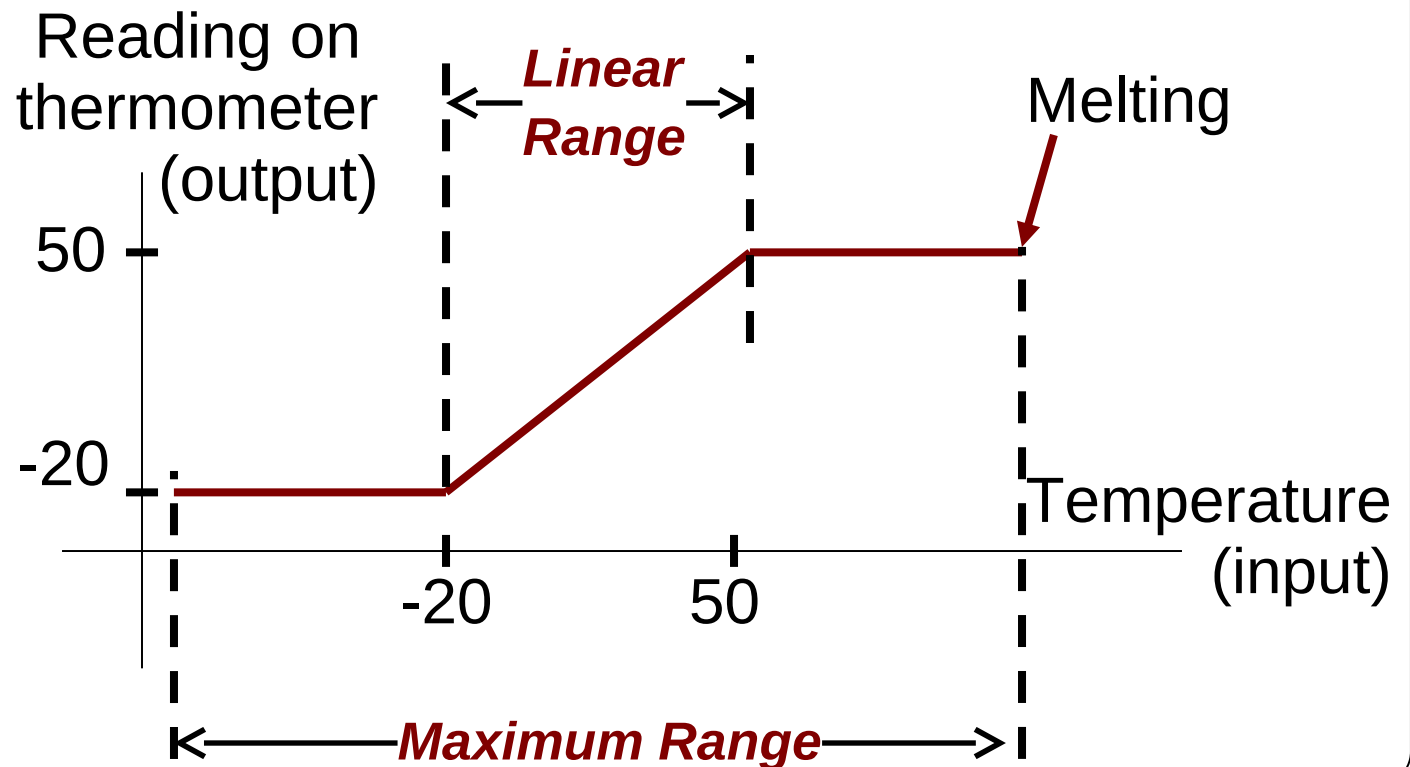
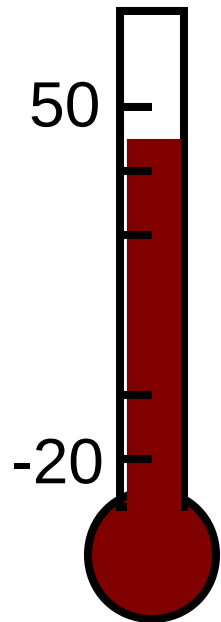


Sensitivity and operating range

Many sensors have a **linear operating range**.

Outside this range we have the **maximum operating range**
(that doesn't damage the instrument)

Thermometer



Sensor Types:

- Displacement Sensors:
 - Resistive
 - Inductive
 - Capacitive
- Temperature Measurement
 - Thermistors
 - Thermocouples
- Also: time, light, chemical, electromagnetic ...

Potentiometers

Construction

- Wire wound
- Carbon film
- Ceramic
- Conducting plastic

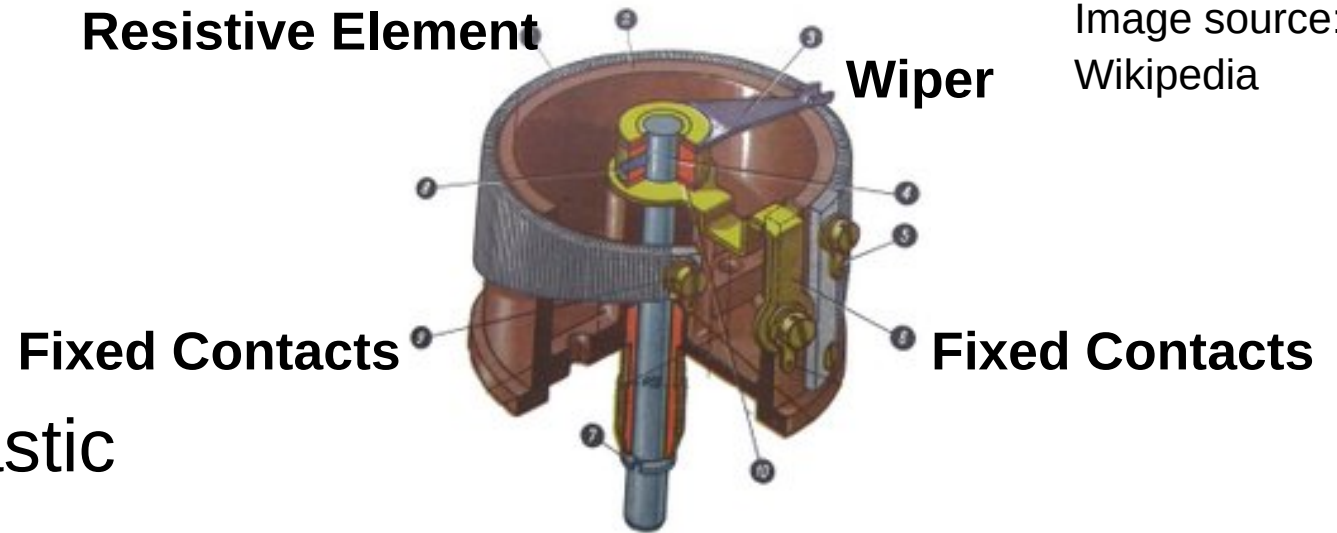
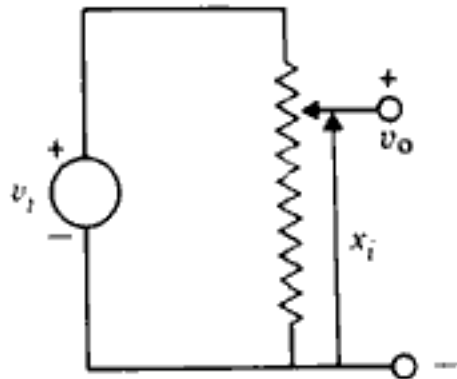
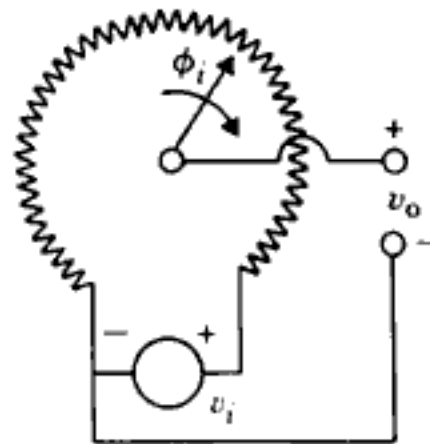


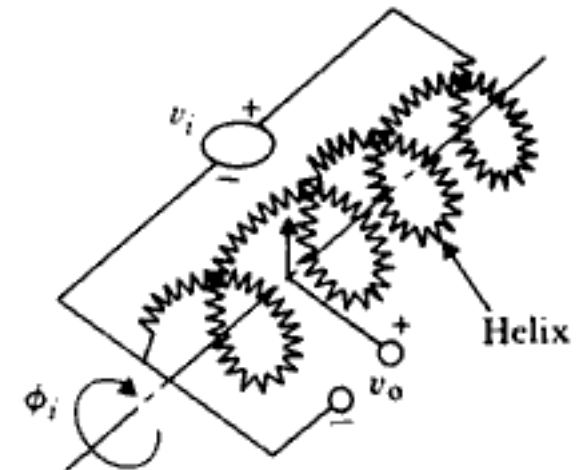
Image source:
Wikipedia



(a) Translational



(b) Single-turn

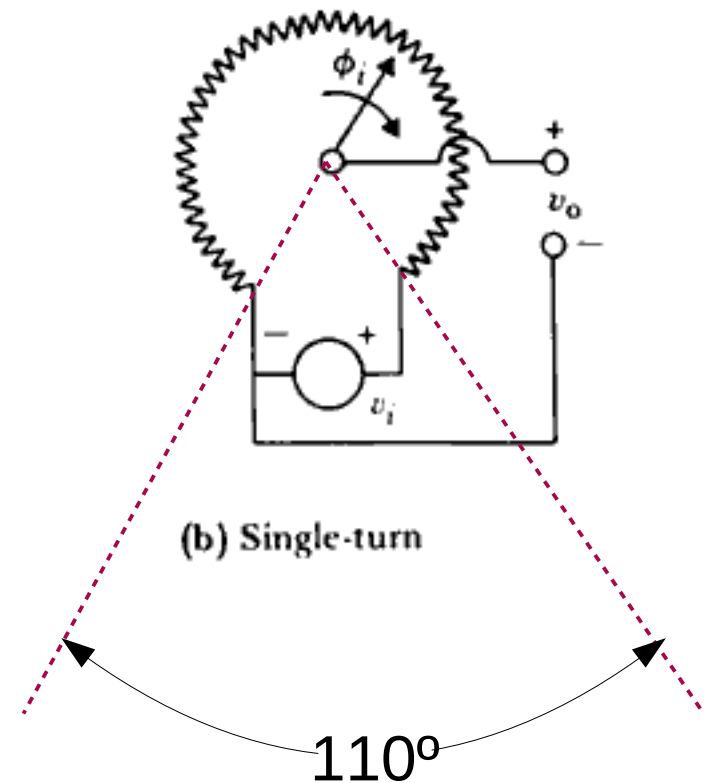


(c) Multi-turn

Question:

If we apply 10V across a single turn potentiometer with 50 wire turns covering 250° .

- What is sensitivity (in volts/degree)?
- What is resolution?



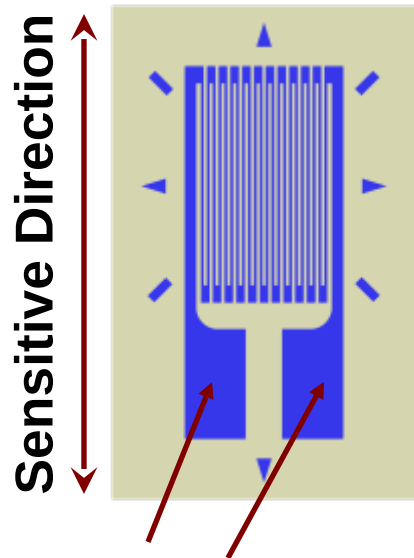
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Strain Gauges

Strain gauge measures strain (deformation) by a change in resistance.

- Measurement circuits typically use Wheatstone bridge



Connecting Pads

Gauge Factor: measure of gauge sensitivity

$$GF = (\Delta R / R) / \text{strain}$$

R: undeformed resistance

ΔR : change in R due to strain

strain: fractional change in length ($\Delta L / L$)

Strain Gauge: analysis

Gauge Factor

$$G = \frac{\partial R/R}{\partial L/L} = \underbrace{1 + 2\mu}_{\text{Dimensional Effect}} + \underbrace{\frac{\partial \rho/\rho}{\partial L/L}}_{\text{Piezoresistive Effect}}$$

Dimensional
Effect

Piezoresistive Effect

- Metals ≈ 0

- Ceramics / Semiconductors
have large effect

Examples:

- Metals $G = 1 + 2(0.3) = 1.6$

- n-Si $G \approx 100$

- p-Si $G \approx -100$

(large temperature drift in semis)

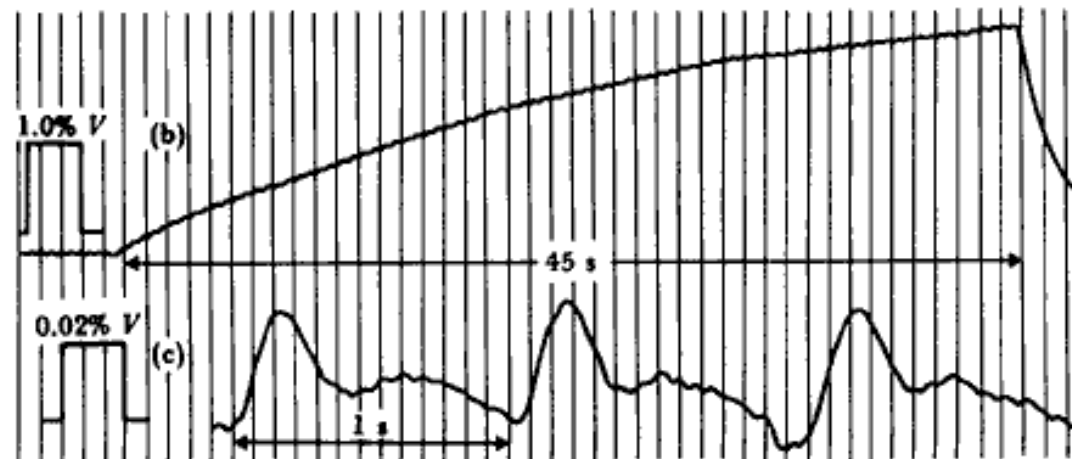
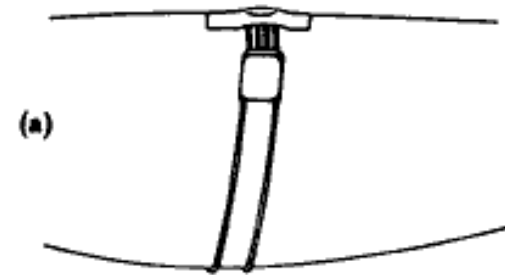
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Question

Mercury plethysmograph measures change in leg blood volume after pressure cuff applied (venous occlusion)

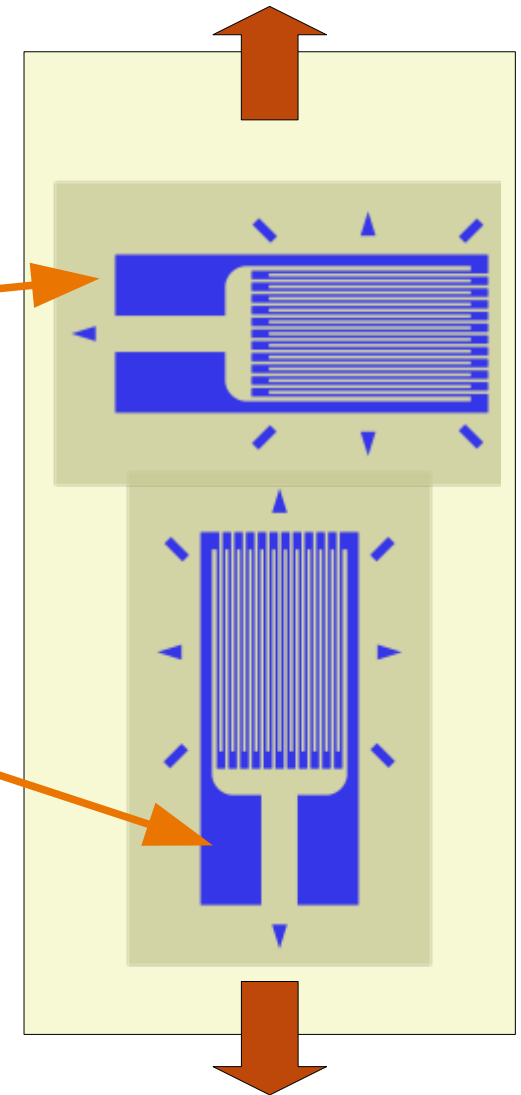
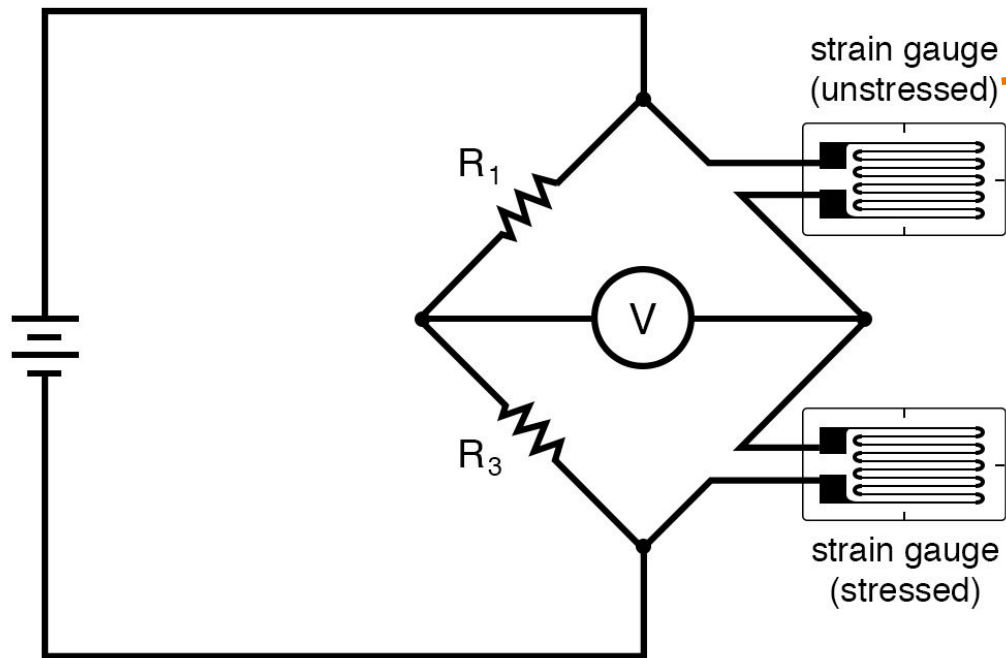
- μ for Hg is 0.5
- Calculate $\Delta R/R$ if blood makes 10% increase in diameter
- $G = 1 + 2 \times 0.5 = 2$
- $\Delta R/R = G \times (\Delta R/R) = 0.2$



Note: Hg no longer used.

Strain Gauges + Bridge Circuits

Quarter-bridge strain gauge circuit
with temperature compensation



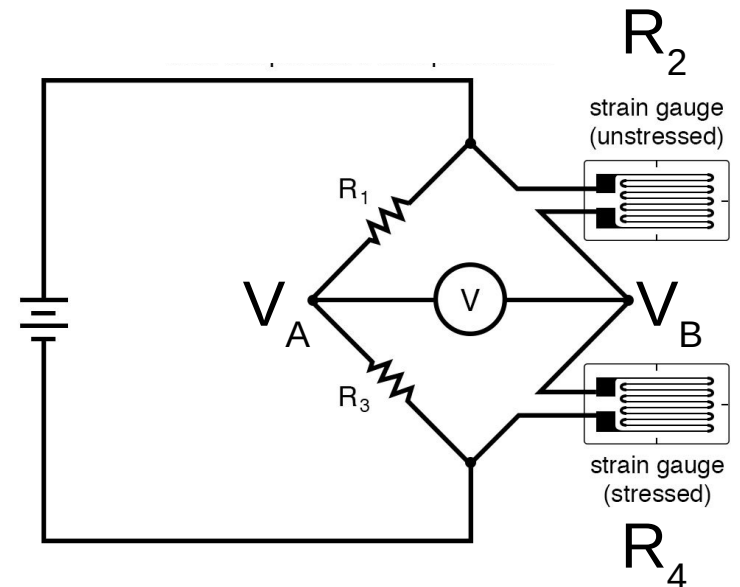
Source: <https://www.allaboutcircuits.com/textbook/direct-current/chpt-9/strain-gauges/>

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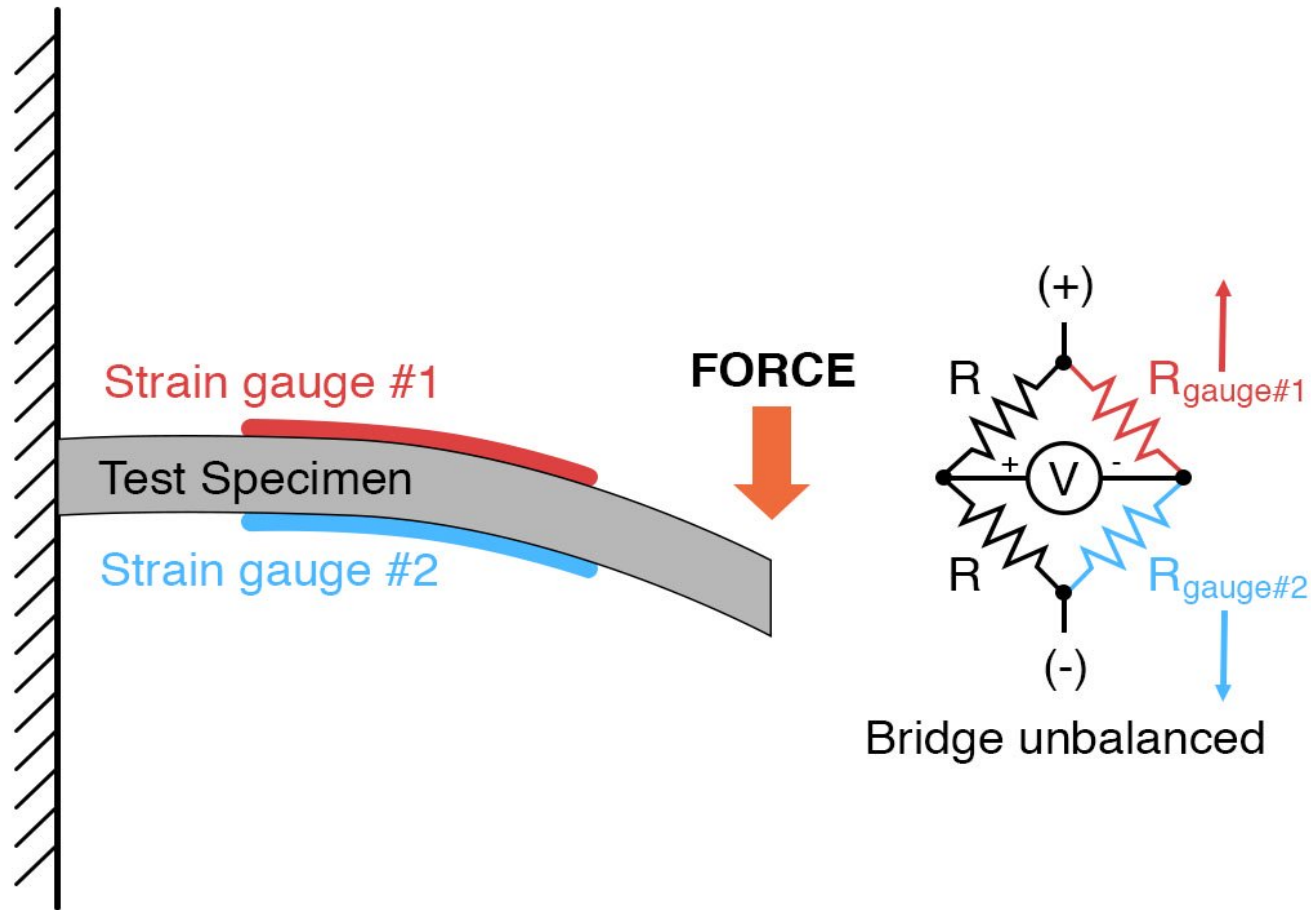
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Question

- Initially $R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R_4 = 1\text{k}$
- Source $V = 10\text{V}$
- Strain makes R_4 increase to 1.1k
- Strain makes R_2 increase to 1.01k
- What is V ?
 - $V_A = 5\text{V}$
 - $V_B = 10\text{V} \times R_4 / (R_2 + R_4) = 5.21\text{V}$
 - $V = V_A - V_B = -0.21\text{V}$
- Temperature increase makes both R_4 and R_2 decrease by 5%. What is V ?



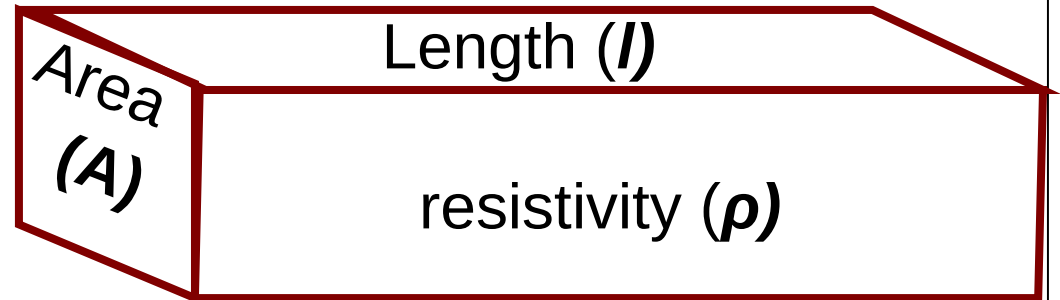
Strain Gauges + Bridge Circuits



Source: <https://www.allaboutcircuits.com/textbook/direct-current/chpt-9/strain-gauges/>

Gauge Factor: analysis

Analysis of SG



$$R = \frac{\rho L}{A}$$

$$\partial R = \frac{L}{A} \partial \rho + \frac{\rho}{A} \partial L - \frac{L}{A^2} \partial A$$

$$\frac{\partial R}{R} = \frac{\partial \rho}{\rho} + \frac{\partial L}{L} - \frac{\partial A}{A}$$

$$\frac{\partial R}{R} = \frac{\partial \rho}{\rho} + (1 + 2\mu) \frac{\partial L}{L}$$

$$G = \frac{\partial R/R}{\partial L/L} = 1 + 2\mu + \frac{\partial \rho/\rho}{\partial L/L}$$

Poisson's Ratio (μ)

$$\frac{\partial A}{2A} = -\mu \frac{\partial L}{L}$$

For incompressible media $\mu=0.5$.

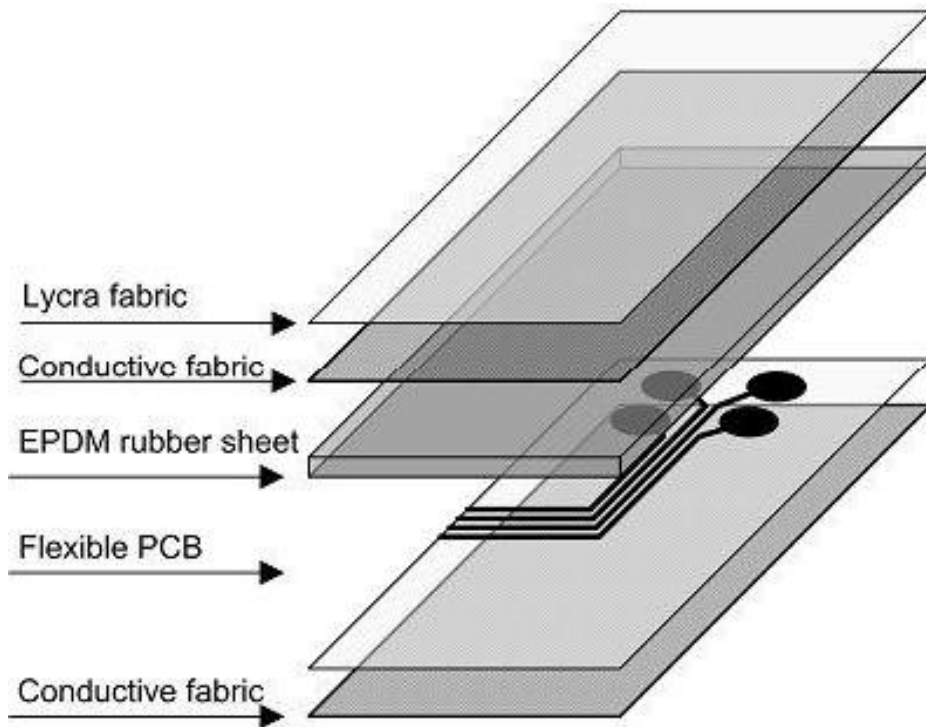
Calculate from
Vol = D^2L is const

Sensors
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Capacitive sensors

Capacitive sensors

- Low cost, small, mechanically strong
- Quite non-linear, better to indicate contact



Source: Salpavaara, et al., 2008.

Capacitive sensors

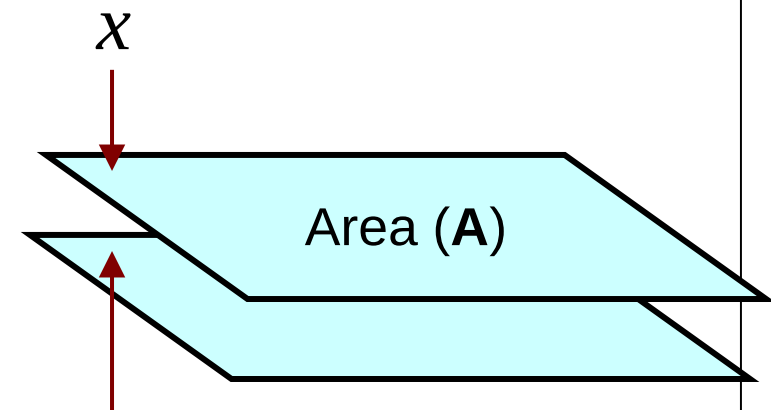
Electromagnetic analysis

$$C = \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r \frac{A}{x}, \quad \epsilon_0 = 8.86 \times 10^{-12} \frac{F}{m}$$

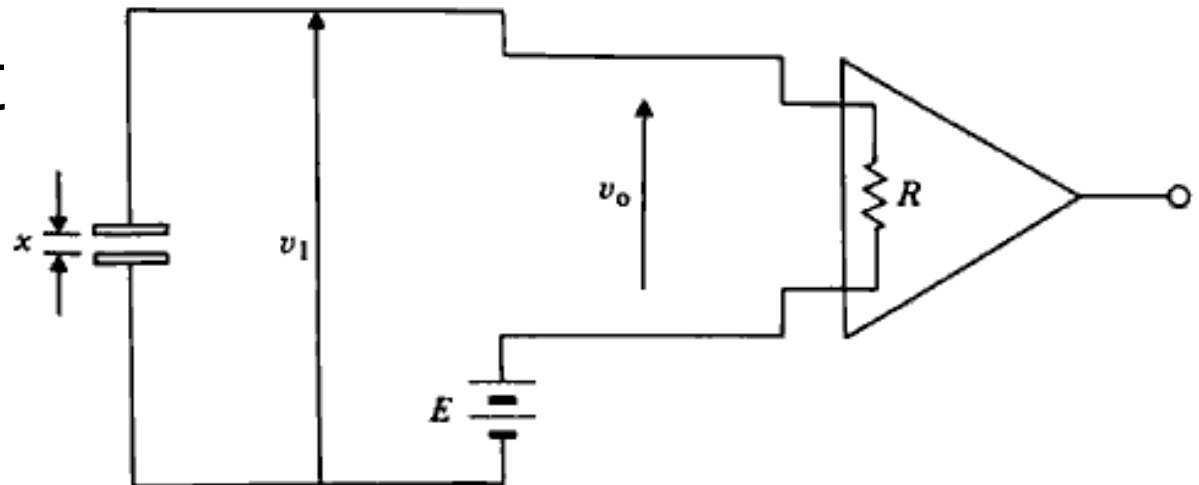
Relative Permittivity

Permittivity of free space

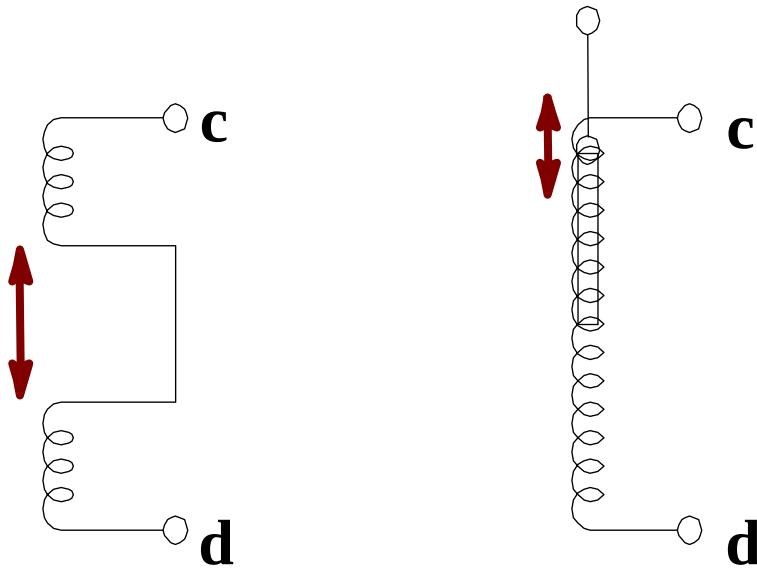
$$K = \frac{dC}{dx} = -\epsilon_0 \epsilon_r \frac{A}{x^2}$$

Non-linear
Sensitivity

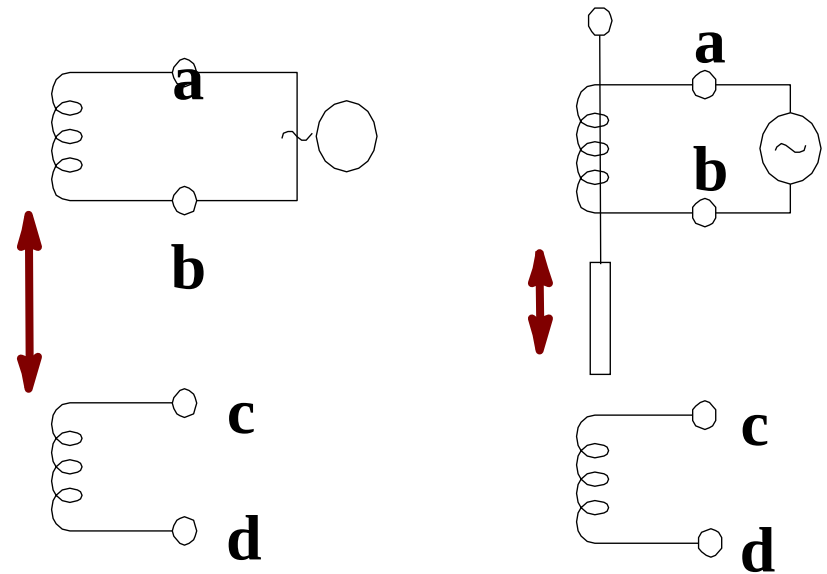
Electronic Circuit



Inductive Sensors



Self-inductance



Mutual inductance

- Inductance sensor measures displacement by changes in geometry.
- Tend to be non-linear, since geometry to inductance relationship is non-linear
- Many applications: metal detectors, proximity detector, traffic light car presence detector

Sensors

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Questions

- What is the Gauge factor? What kinds of materials have large G ? When is this useful?
- Why is temperature variation in R of a strain gauge a problem? What strategies can be used to help deal with it?
- Name some applications for inductive sensors?
- Since capacitive sensors are highly non-linear, what kinds of applications are they useful for?

Temperature Measurement

Why measure temperature

- Body is a heat engine. We burn food + oxygen to get energy for life. Temperature monitors the functioning of the engine
- Temperature increase – hyperthermia
 - typical cause: infection
- Temperature decrease – hypothermia
 - typical cause: shock

Instruments

- Thermistors
- Thermocouples
- Radiation (hot objects emit IR radiation – not included)

Sensors

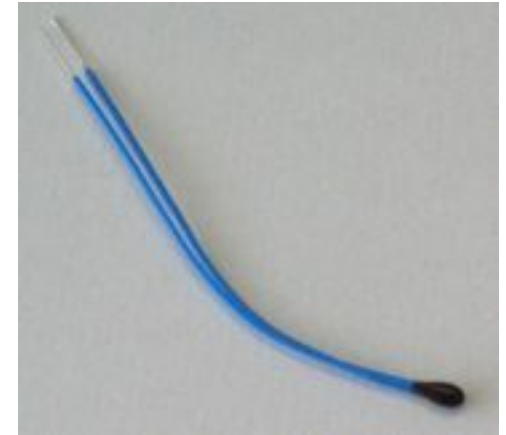
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Thermistors

thermistor is a type of resistor with resistance varying according to its temperature.

thermal and *resistor* = thermistor

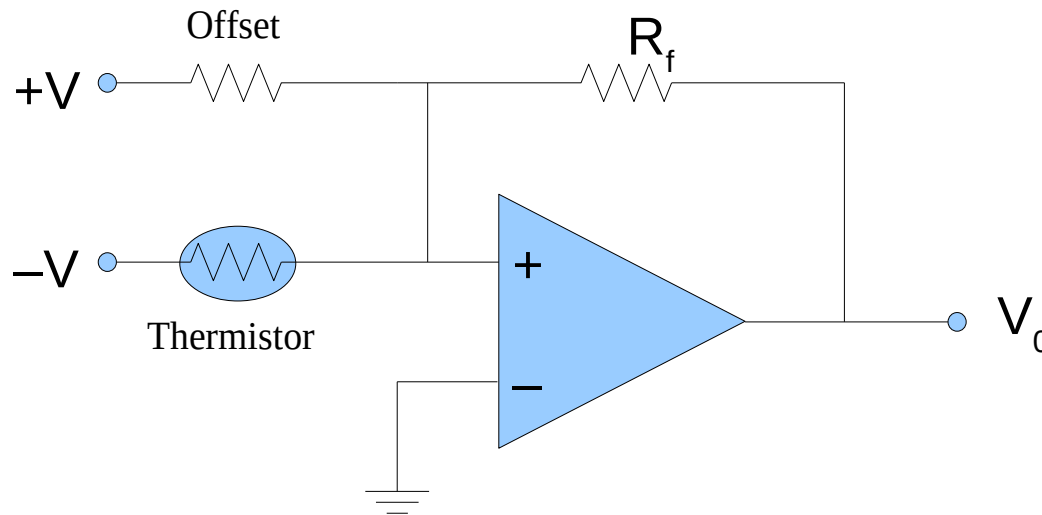
- Many applications for thermistors: current-sensing, thermal protectors, self-regulating heaters.
- Biomedical applications: thermometers, flow sensing, breathing (nasal thermistor)
- All resistors have some temperature variation. Thermistors have large tempco (%change/°C)
- material is generally a ceramic or polymer



Sensors

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Thermistor: circuit



As temperature increases, the thermistor resistance decreases, yielding more current that flows through R_f , thus V_0 increases.

Many different sizes:

- Small Thermistors are more fragile, faster (2s)
- Larger Thermistors respond slowly (10s)

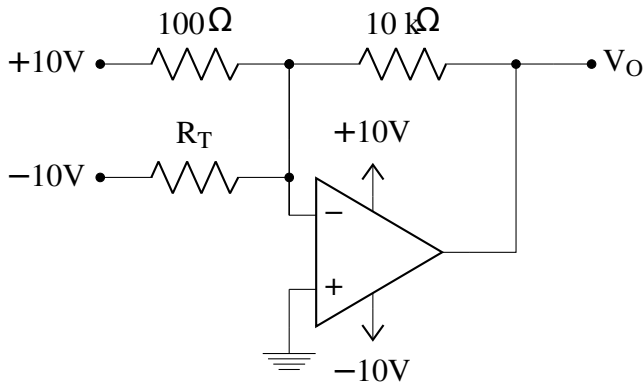
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Thermistors

Midterm#2 2016

- 1B. (5 points) A thermistor, R_T is used in the circuit below. At 35°C , $R_T = 100\Omega$ and at 36°C , $R_T = 101\Omega$. **What is V_O for** at 35°C and 36°C ?
- 1C. (5 points) **What is the sensitivity** of at the output of the sensor, V_O , in $\text{V}/^\circ\text{C}$ over the range from 35°C to 36°C ?



The circuit is a summing inverting amplifier, whose output we can therefore write as

$$V_O = -10 \text{ k}\Omega \left(\frac{10\text{V}}{100\Omega} - \frac{10\text{V}}{R_T} \right)$$

At 35°C , $R_T = 100\Omega$ and so $V_O = 0\text{V}$, while at 36°C , $R_T = 101\Omega$ and so

$$V_O = -\frac{10 \text{ k}\Omega}{100 \Omega} \left(1 - \frac{1}{1.01} \right) (10\text{V}) = -9.90\text{V}$$

from which the sensitivity is seen to be $-9.90 \text{ V}/^\circ\text{C}$.

Sensors

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Thermistor: sensitivity model

Typical thermistor temperature characteristics for various materials.

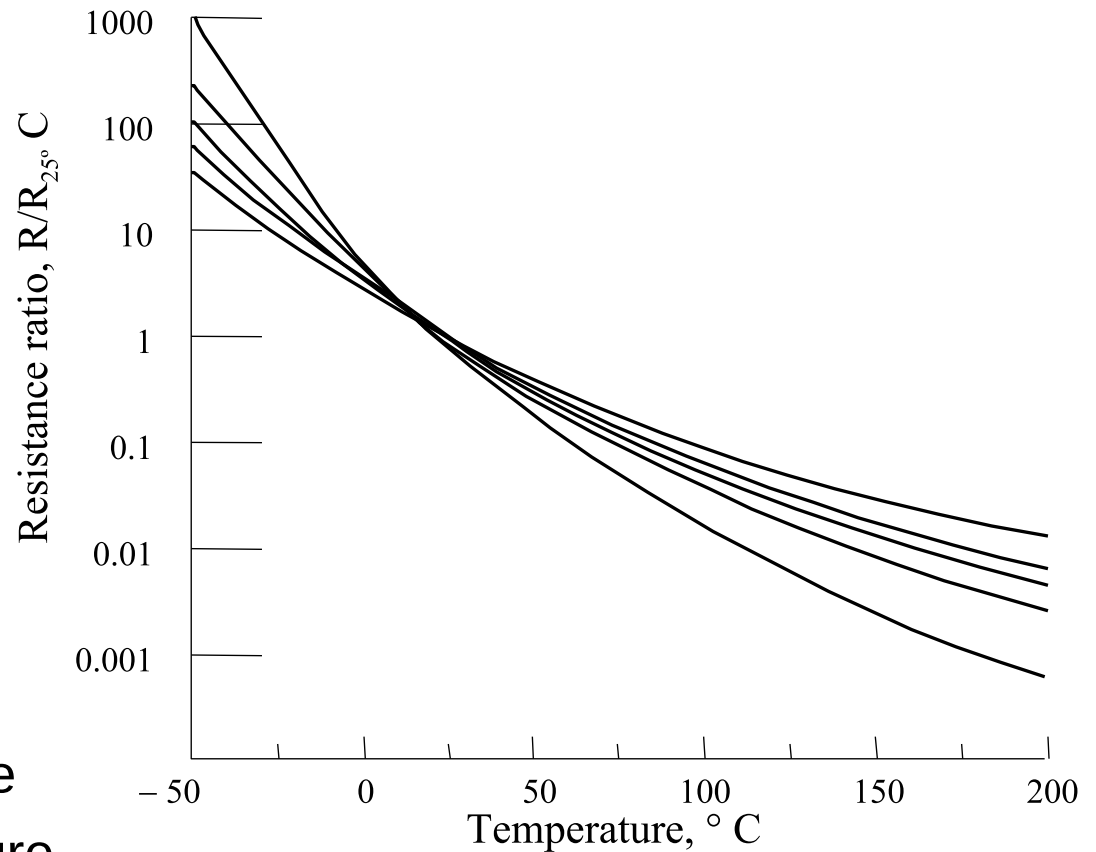
Linear model:

$$\Delta R = k\Delta T$$

where

- ΔR = change in resistance
- ΔT = change in temperature
- k = first-order temperature coefficient of resistance

Linear model only works over small range



Sensors

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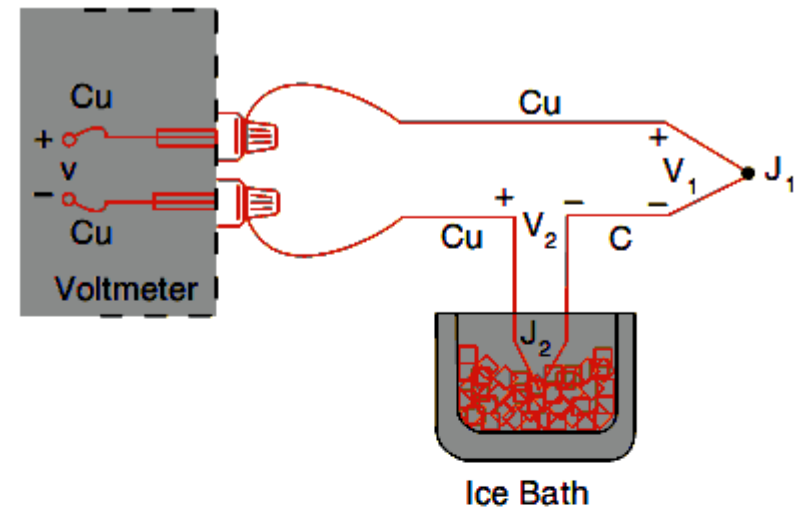
Thermocouples

Based on Seebeck effect: when a conductor (such as a metal) is subjected to a thermal gradient, it will generate a voltage.

Thermocouples measure the temperature difference, not absolute temperature.

Traditionally, one of the junctions—the cold junction—was maintained at a known (reference) temperature, while the other end was attached to a probe.

Thermocouples are faster, smaller, more robust, more linear than thermistors



EXTERNAL REFERENCE JUNCTION
Figure 5

One way to determine the temperature of J_2 is to physically put the junction into an ice bath, forcing its temperature to be 0°C and establishing J_2 as the *Reference Junction*. Since both voltmeter terminal junctions are now copper-copper, they create no thermal emf and the reading V on the voltmeter is proportional to the temperature difference between J_1 and J_2 .

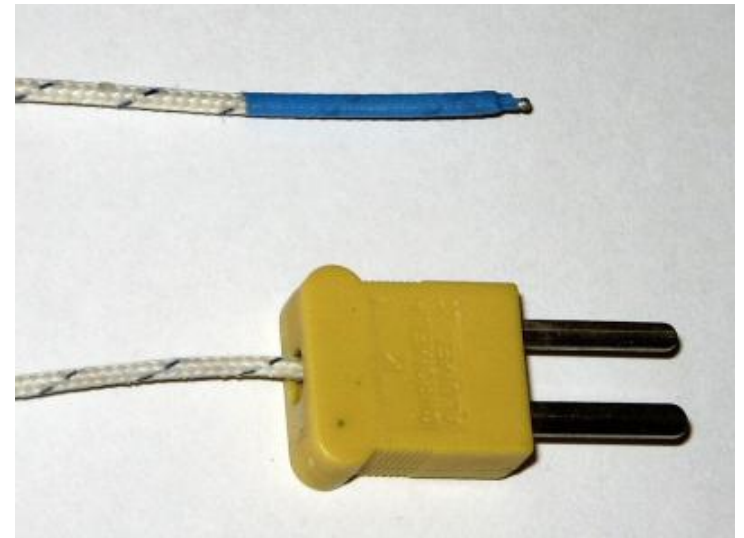
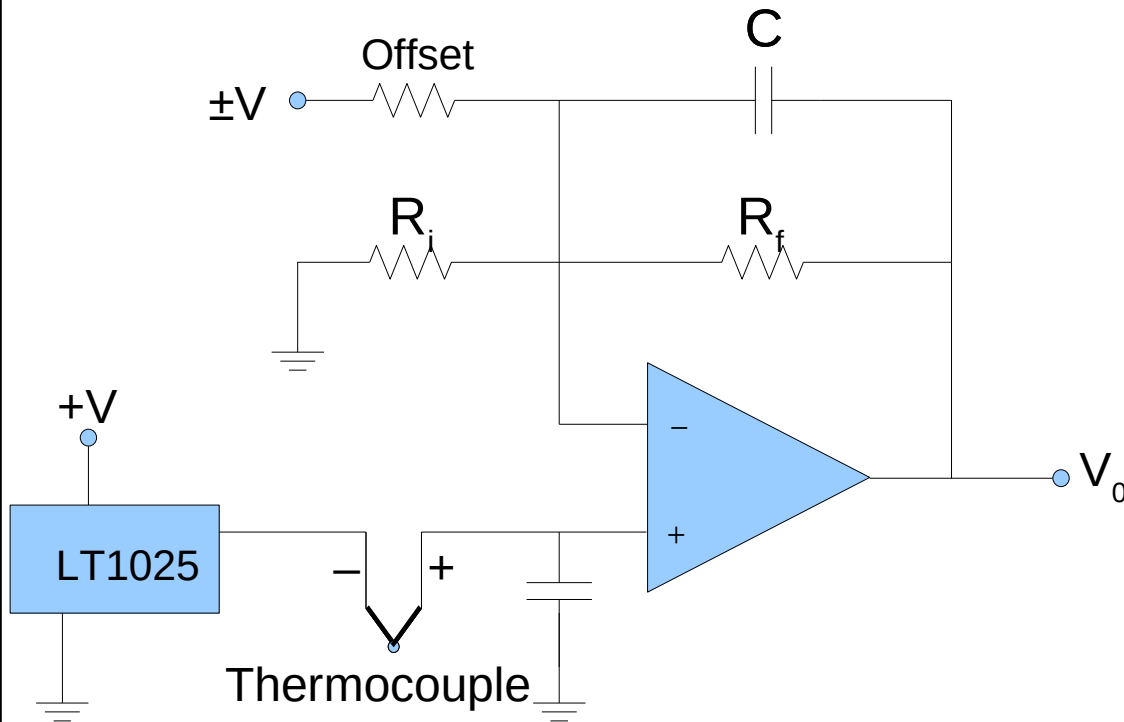
Now the voltmeter reading is (see Figure 5):

$$V = (V_1 - V_2) \cong \alpha(t_{J_1} - t_{J_2})$$

Source: Omega.com

Sensors
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Thermocouples: Usage



The hot junction is at the thermocouple. The LT1025 electronic cold junction compensates for ambient temperature changes. The noninverting amplifier provides a high input impedance and high gain.

Type K (chromel–alumel) commonly used general purpose thermocouple. Inexpensive. Available in the -200°C to $+1350^{\circ}\text{C}$ range. Sensitivity $\approx 41 \mu\text{V}/^{\circ}\text{C}$.

Sensors

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Questions

Thermocouple or thermistor?

- Cheap
- Mechanically strong
- Simplest electrical circuit
- Capable of high temperatures
- Fastest response

Sensors

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Questions

- How does a thermistor differ from a thermocouple? Which is more linear? Which is less brittle? Which can have the fastest response?
- What would you build the temperature cut-off switch in a computer from?
- Why does a thermocouple need a reference circuit?
- What strategies are used to help reduce drift in radiation thermal detectors?