

## Part B

Typical Measurement System Elements (CH8→CH11).

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## Recap of part A

General Principles (CH2→CH7):

### Recap of part A

General Principles (CH2→CH7):

- Mathematical and Statistical Tools.
- Definitions.
- Notations.

### Recap of part A: CH2

Static Elements:

2



3



## Recap of part A: CH2

Static Elements:

$$O = \tilde{K}I + \tilde{a}$$

- Ideal (linear) output.

3 L

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- Hysteresis:  $H(I) = O(I)_{I\downarrow} - O(I)_{I\uparrow}$ .
- Resolution, wear and aging...

3



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Typical Problems:

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- Estimate the parameters for the linear (or ideal) part:  $K, K_M, a, K_I$ .
- Predict the output given  $I, I_M, I_I$ , and your estimated parameter...

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## Recap of part A: CH3

Static elements: Statistical representations:

5



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- What happens if we have **uncertain** elements or **noisy** measurements?

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- Accuracy ( $E$ ) and repeatability ( $\sigma_E$ )
- Error propagation for an element:

$$\sigma_O^2 = \left(\frac{\partial O}{\partial I}\right)^2 \sigma_I^2 + \left(\frac{\partial O}{\partial K}\right)^2 \sigma_K^2 + \dots$$

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- Error propagation for  $n$  elements in series:

$$\sigma_{O_n}^2 = \left(\frac{\partial O_n}{\partial I_n}\right)^2 \sigma_{I_n}^2 + \left(\frac{\partial O_n}{\partial K_n}\right)^2 \sigma_{K_n}^2 + \dots,$$

where

$$\sigma_{I_n}^2 = \sigma_{O_{n-1}}^2.$$

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6



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- Differential systems (reduce interfering inputs).
- High-gain negative feedback (reduce modifying inputs), problem 3.4.

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## Recap of part A: CH4

Dynamic elements:

7 L

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The static element in CH2 and CH3



7 L

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is extended by a dynamic part



where  $G(s)$  is the transfer function.

7



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where  $G(s)$  is the transfer function.

- Basically, all elements are more or less dynamic.

- However, for "slow" changing inputs (low-frequency  $s = j\omega \rightarrow 0$ ), a dynamic element gives ( $G(0) = 1$ ) a static behavior.

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8



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## Recap of part A: CH5

Two-port networks:

9



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- Perfect for describing *inter-element loading*, where  $i$ :th element changes the characteristics of the  $i - 1$ :th (for example: by eating current, adding a mass, or preventing a flow).

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- Perfect for describing *inter-element loading*, where  $i$ :th element changes the characteristics of the  $i - 1$ :th (for example: by eating current, adding a mass, or preventing a flow).
- Basically, it makes life easier...

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## Recap of part A: CH6

Noise and signals:

10



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Noise and signals:

- When noise and uncertainties propagated through static (linear) elements, as in CP2 and CP3, the PDF is the same, but the **mean value** and **standard deviation** was changed

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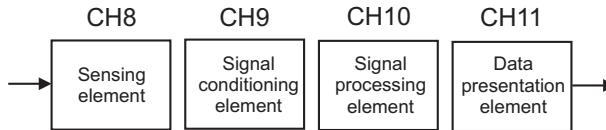
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- Noise Sources.
- Coupling Mechanisms.

10



## Part B

Typical Measurement System Elements:



Today's menu

- Beginning of CH8: Resistive sensing elements:
  - Displacement sensors (potentiometers).
  - Temperature sensors
  - Strain gauges.
- Beginning of CH9: Signal Conditioning Elements:
  - Deflection bridges.

What you need to work with LAB2!

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## Recap of part A: CH6

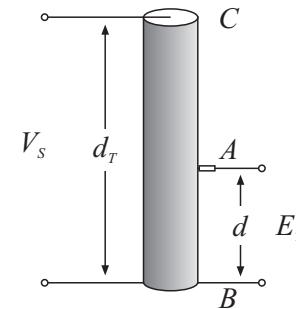
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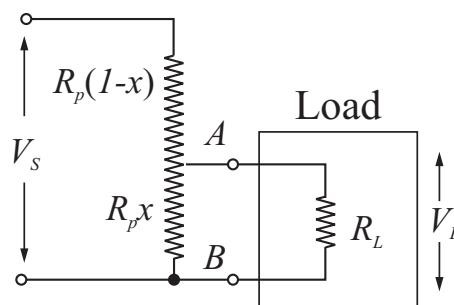
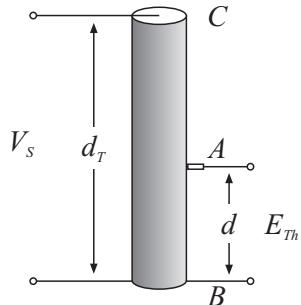
## Displacement sensors



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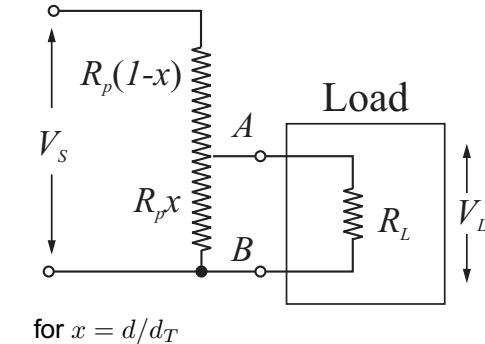
## Displacement sensors



## Displacement sensors

From the previous lecture:

$$\begin{aligned} E_{Th} &= V_s x \\ R_{Th} &= R_p x (1 - x) \\ V_L &= \frac{V_s x}{x (1 - x) R_p / R_L + 1} \\ N(x) &= \frac{V_s R_p / R_L (x^2 - x^3)}{R_p / R_L x (1 - x) + 1} \end{aligned}$$



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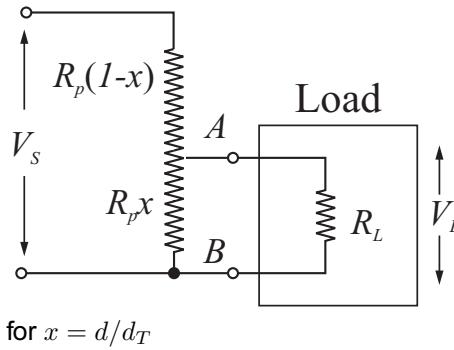
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## Displacement sensors

This leads to some design choices:

- Maximum displacement  $d_T$ .
- Supply voltage  $V_s$ .
- Resistance  $R_p$  ( $R_L \gg R_p$ ).
- Power rating  $W_{MAX}$   
( $W_{MAX} > V_s^2 / R_p$ ).



## Potentiometers (cont'd...)

### Types of potentiometers

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## Potentiometers (cont'd...)

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- Wire wound: The resistive track consists of  $n$  discrete turns of wire. This means that the output can only take on  $n$  different discrete values, even though the displacement is continuous. The results in a resolution (or quantization) error.

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- Conductive plastic film: The track is continuous. One problem is, however, that the temperature dependence of the resistance is higher than for wire wound potentiometers.
- Hybrid: Combination of the two above. Consists of a plastic film deposited on a wire.

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## Temperature sensors

The resistance of most **metals** increases reasonably linear with temperature, in a wide temperature range.

The general relationship between resistance and temperature is of the form

$$R_T = R_0 (1 + \alpha T + \beta T^2 + \gamma T^3 + \dots),$$

where  $R_0$  is the resistance at  $0^\circ\text{C}$  and  $\alpha, \beta$ , and  $\gamma$  are temperature coefficients.

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## Temperature sensors (cont'd...)

### Metals used in temperature sensors

- Platinum is the most commonly used metal. The temperature/resistance characteristics are linear and highly repeatable. However, platinum is expensive.
- For less demanding applications, copper or nickel can be used.

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## Temperature sensors (cont'd...)

### Other types of temperature sensors

- Thermistor: Resistive element made of semiconductor materials. Highly non-linear temperature/resistance characteristics.
- Thick film polymer: Can be used for both temperature and humidity measurements. The polymer absorbs water vapor, which causes the volume to change. This increases the resistance of the material.

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## Resistive strain gauges

### Some definitions

- Stress:** Defined as *force/area*. Positive values is called **tensile stress** and causes the length of the body to increase. **Compressive stress** has negative.
- Strain:** The resulting change in length of a body, caused by applying stress, i.e.  $e = \Delta l/l$ .
- Elastic modulus:** The relationship between strain and stress is linear over a certain range. The slope of this line is the elastic modulus, i.e.

$$\text{Elastic modulus} = \frac{\text{stress}}{\text{strain}}$$

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## Resistive strain gauges (cont'd...)

### Some more definitions

- For linear tensile or compressive stress, the elastic modulus is called **Young's modulus**,  $E$ .
- For shear stress, the elastic modulus is called the **shear modulus**,  $S$ .
- If the length of a body increases, then the thickness and width must decrease. Thus, a longitudinal tensile strain  $e_L$  is accompanied by a transverse compressive strain  $e_T$ . The relationship is

$$e_T = -\nu e_L,$$

where  $\nu$  is the **Poisson's ratio** (a material constant).

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## Resistive strain gauges (cont'd...)

A **strain gauge** is a metal or semiconductor whose resistance changes with strain.

The **gauge factor**,  $G$  is defined as

$$G = \frac{\Delta R/R_0}{e},$$

where  $R$  is the resistance when the strain  $e$  is applied, and  $R_0$  is the unstrained resistance.

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## Resistive strain gauges (cont'd...)

A typical gauge has:

- Gauge factor 2.0 to 2.2
- Unstrained resistance  $120 \pm 1 \Omega$ .
- Linearity within  $\pm 0.3\%$ .
- Maximum tensile strain  $+2 \times 10^{-2}$ .
- Maximum compressive strain  $-1 \times 10^{-2}$ .
- Maximum operating temperature  $150^\circ\text{C}$ .

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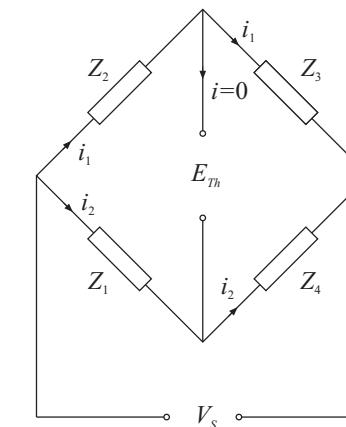
## Deflection bridges

Deflection bridges are used to convert the output of resistive, capacitive, and inductive sensors into a voltage signal.

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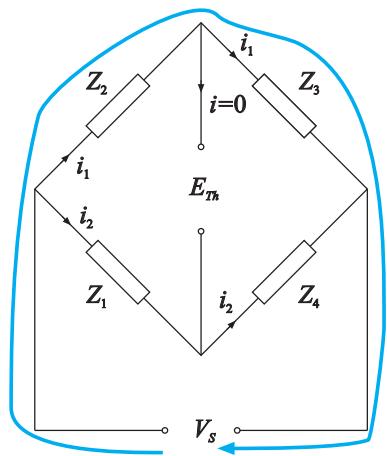
## Deflection bridges (cont'd...)



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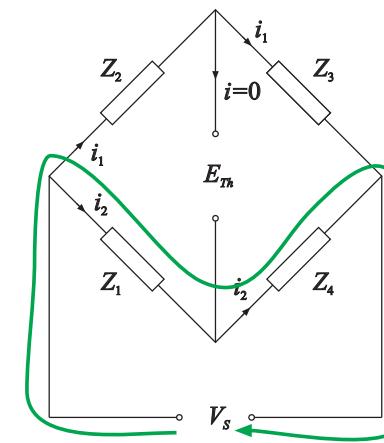
## Deflection bridges (cont'd...)



22



## Deflection bridges (cont'd...)



22



## Deflection bridges (cont'd...)

After some calculations we get

$$E_{Th} = V_S \left( \frac{Z_1}{Z_1 + Z_4} - \frac{Z_2}{Z_2 + Z_3} \right)$$

$$Z_{Th} = \frac{Z_2 Z_3}{Z_2 + Z_3} + \frac{Z_1 Z_4}{Z_1 + Z_4}$$

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## Deflection bridges (cont'd...)

Normally, we want to design the deflection bridge so that:

24



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- Constraints and limitations from the signal processing element.

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## Summary

- Resistive sensing elements:
  - Displacement sensors (potentiometers).
  - Temperature sensors.
  - Strain gauges.
- Deflection bridges.

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## Next lecture

- The remainder of chapter 8.

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## Recommended exercises

- Homework assignments in Lab 2.

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