

Sensor Design III – Other sensors

ME490A/B

Dr. C. Alex Simpkins

SDSU

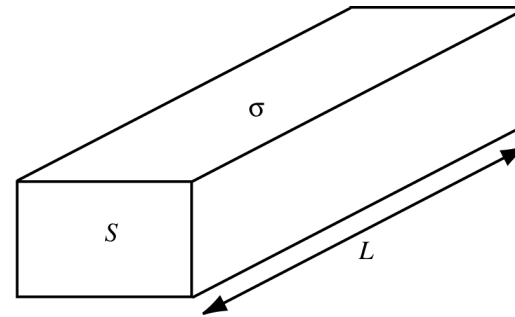
Dept. of Mechanical Engineering





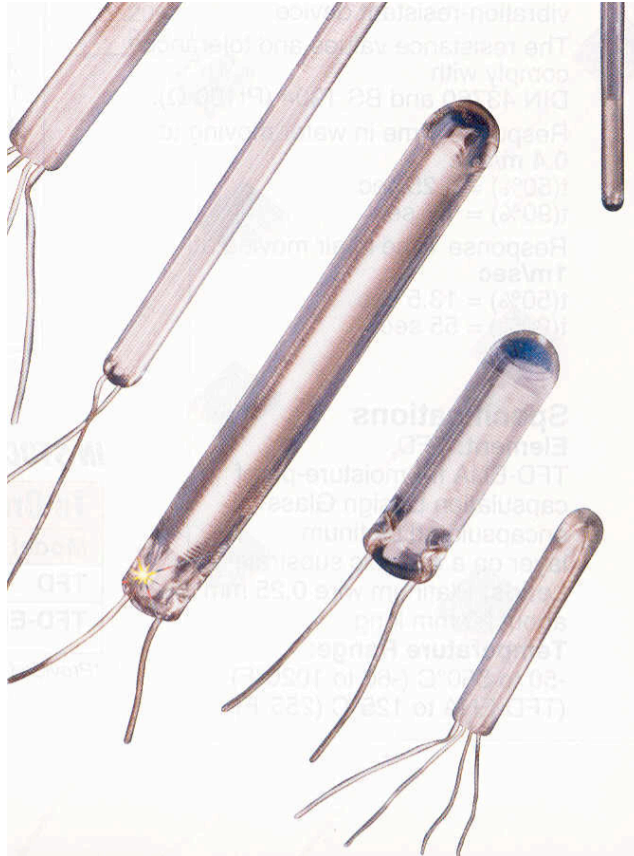
Thermoresistive effect

- Conductivity depends on temperature
- Conductors and semiconductors
- Resistance is measured, all other parameters must stay constant.



$$R = \frac{L}{\sigma S}$$

Glass encapsulated RTDs



Construction (cont.)

- Materials:
- Platinum - used for precision applications
 - Chemically stable at high temperatures
 - Resists oxidation
 - Can be made into thin wires of high chemical purity
 - Resists corrosion
 - Can withstand severe environmental conditions.
 - Useful to about 800 °C and down to below -250°C.
 - Very sensitive to strain
 - Sensitive to chemical contaminants
 - Wire length needed is long (high conductivity)

Construction (cont.)

- Materials:
- Nickel and Copper
 - Less expensive
 - Reduced temperature range (copper only works up to about 300°C)
 - Can be made into thin wires of high chemical purity
 - Wire length needed is long (high conductivity)
 - Copper is not suitable for corrosive environments (unless properly protected)
 - At higher temperatures evaporation increases resistance

Silicon Resistive Sensors

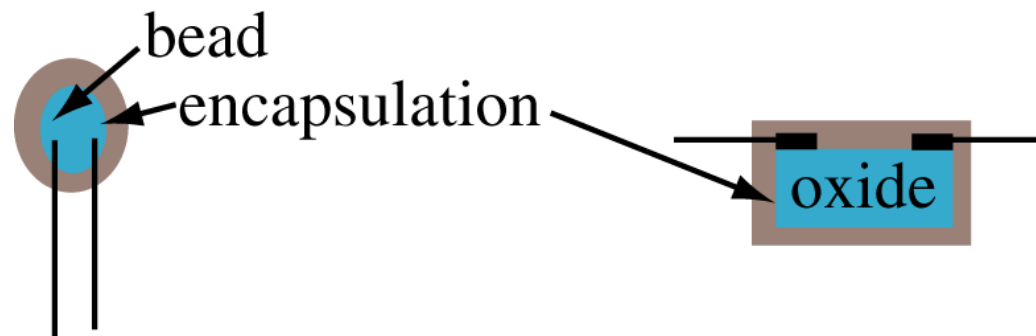
- Conduction in semiconductors
- Valence electrons
 - Bound to atoms in outer layers (most electrons in pure semiconductors)
 - Can be removed through heat (band gap energy)
 - When removed they become conducting electrons (conduction band)
 - A pair is always released - electron and hole
- Conductivity of semiconductors is temperature dependent
 - Conductivity increases with temperature
 - Limited to a relatively small temperature range

Thermistors

- Thermistor: **Thermal resistor**
- Became available: early 1960' s
- Based on oxides of semiconductors
 - High temperature coefficients
 - NTC
 - High resistances (typically)

Construction

- Beads
- Chips
- Deposition on substrate



Epoxy encapsulated bead thermistors



Thermistors - properties

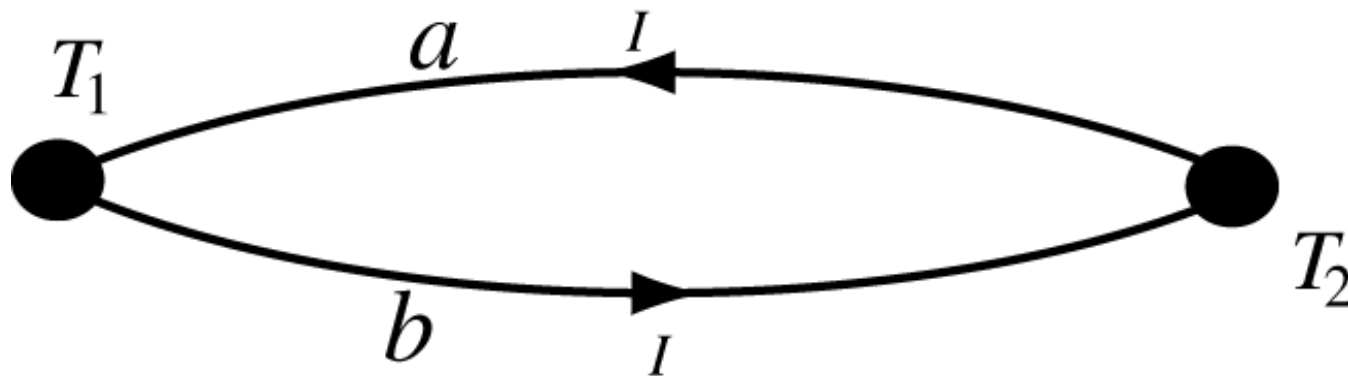
- Self heating errors as in RTDs but:
 - Usually lower because resistance is higher
 - Current very low (R high)
 - Typical values: $0.01^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{mW}$ in water to $1^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{mW}$ in air
- Wide range of resistances up to a few $\text{M}\Omega$
- Can be used in self heating mode
 - To raise its temperature to a fixed value
 - As a reference temperature in measuring flow
- Repeatability and accuracy:
 - 0.1% or 0.25°C for good thermistors

Thermistors - properties

- Temperature range:
 - $-50\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ to about $600\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$
 - Ratings and properties vary along the range
- Linearity
 - Very linear for narrow range applications
 - Slightly nonlinear for wide temperature ranges
- Available in a wide range of sizes, shapes and also as probes of various dimensions and shapes
- Some inexpensive thermistors have poor repeatability - these must be calibrated before use.

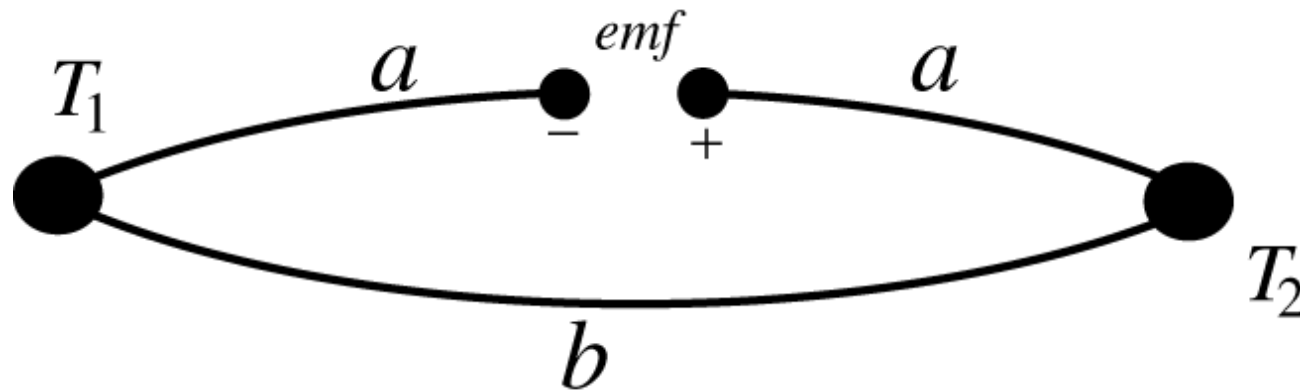
The Seebeck effect

- If both ends of the two conductors are connected and a temperature difference is maintained between the two junctions, a thermoelectric current will flow through the closed circuit (generation mode)



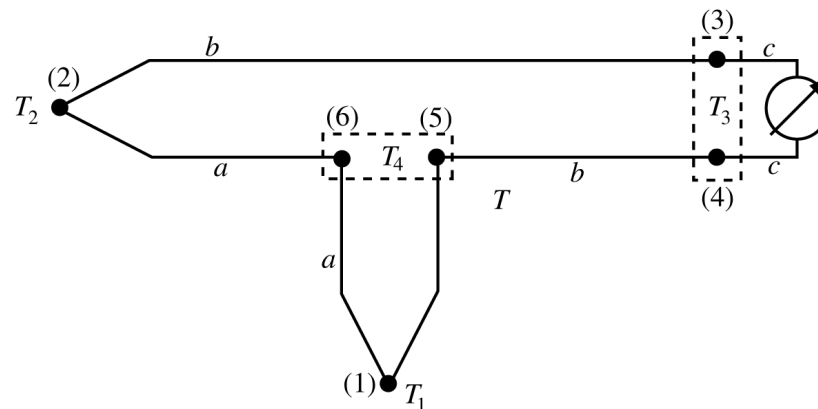
The Seebeck effect

- If the circuit is opened an emf will appear across the open circuit (sensing mode). It is this emf that is measured in a thermocouple sensor.



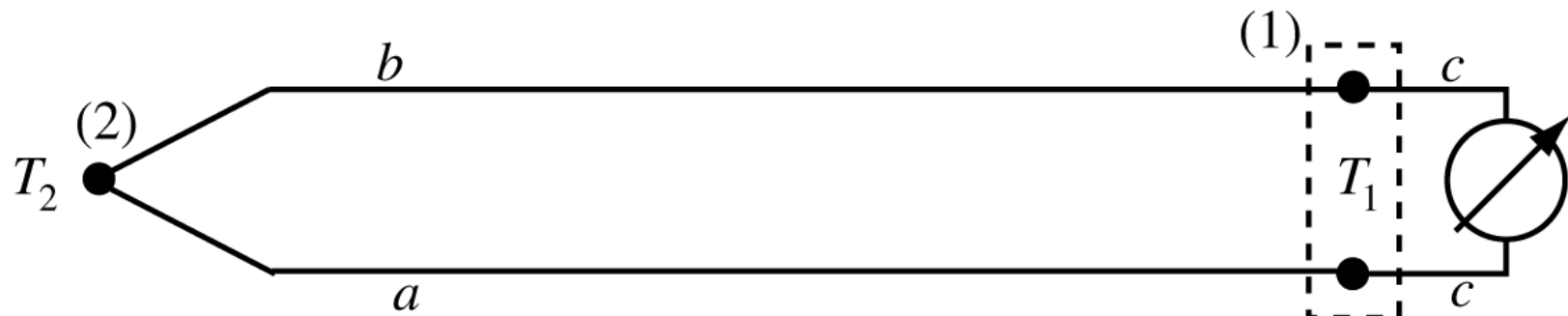
Thermocouples: connection

- Based on the thermoelectric laws:
- Usually connected in pairs
 - One junction for sensing
 - One junction for reference
 - Reference temperature can be lower or higher than sensing temperature



Connection without reference

- The connection to a voltmeter creates two junctions
 - Both are kept at temperature T_1
 - Net emf due to these junctions is zero
 - Net emf sensed is that due to junction (2)
 - This is commonly the method used



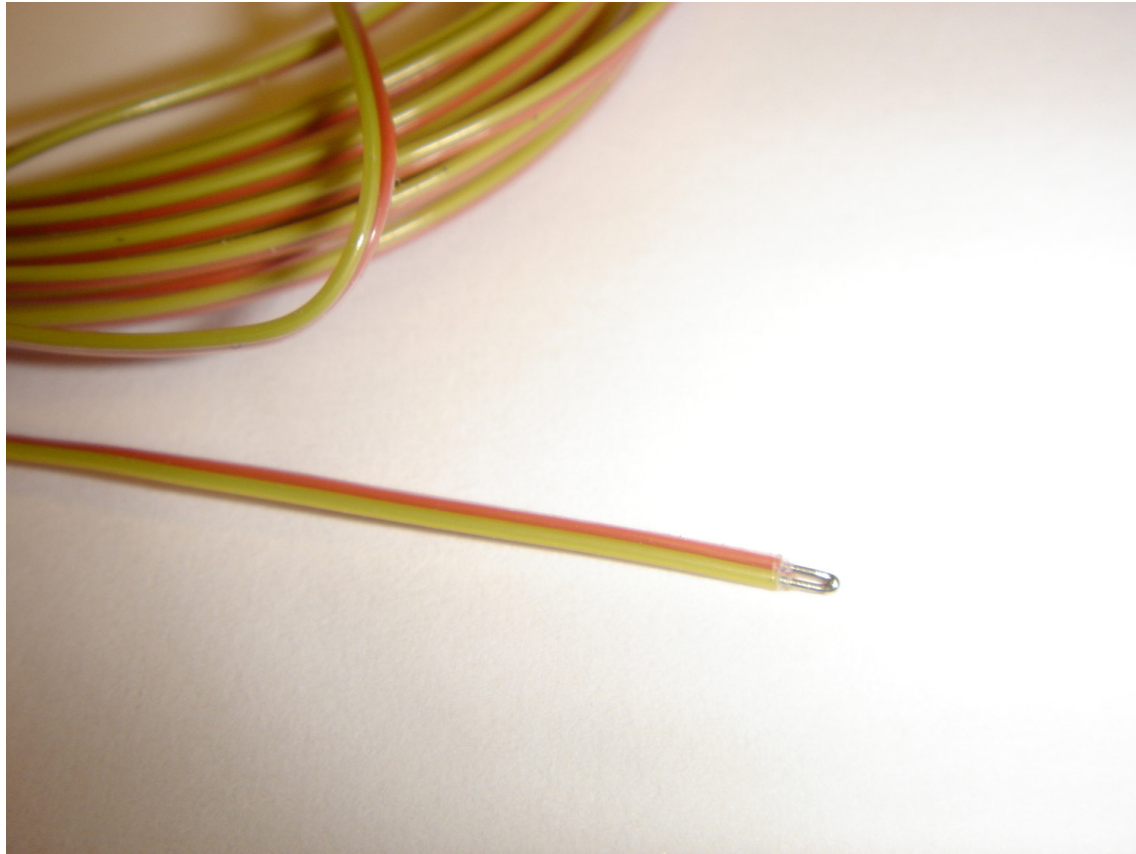
Reference junctions

- Reference junctions must be at constant, known temperatures. Examples:
- Water-ice bath (0°C)
- Boiling water (100°C)
- Any other temperature if measured
 - A separate, non-thermocouple sensor
 - The output compensated based on this temperature from Seebeck coefficients

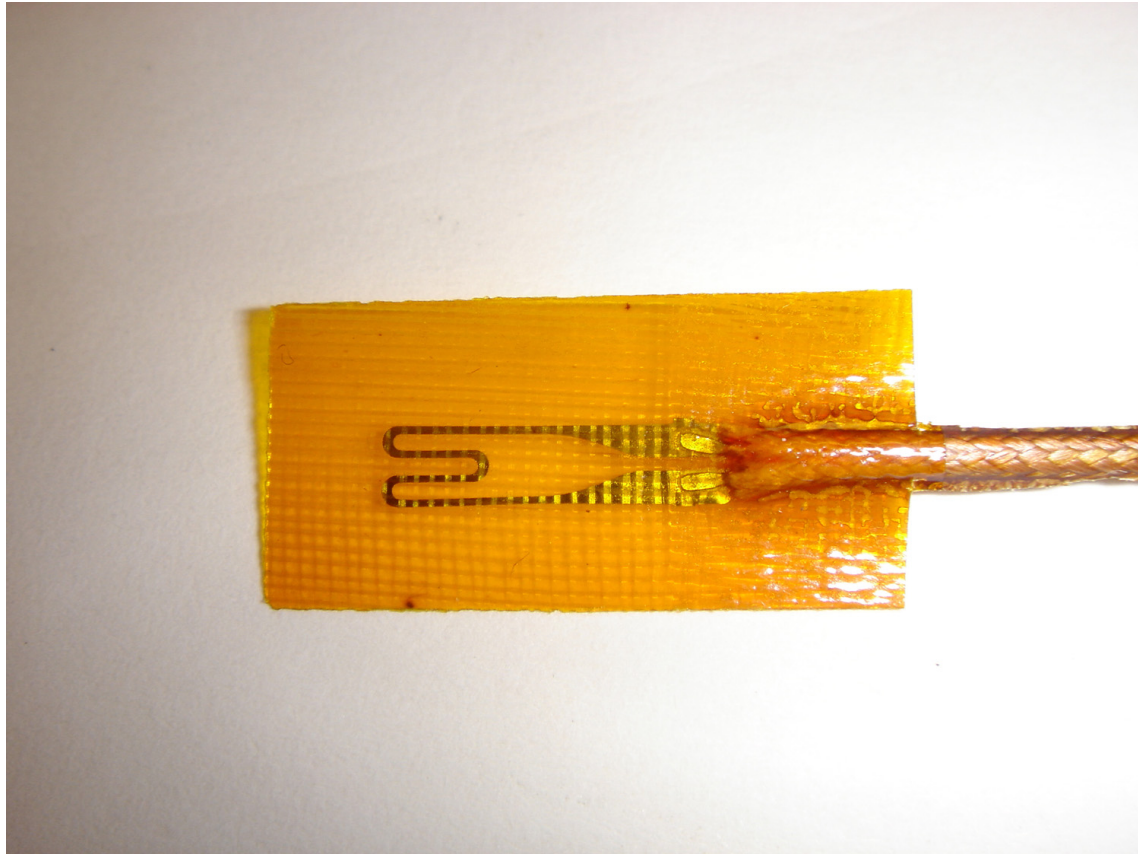
Thermocouples - practical considerations

- Choice of materials for thermocouples. Materials affect:
 - The output emf,
 - Temperature range
 - Resistance of the thermocouple.
- Selection of materials is done with the aid of three tables:
 - Thermoelectric series table
 - Seebeck coefficients of standard types
 - Thermoelectric reference table

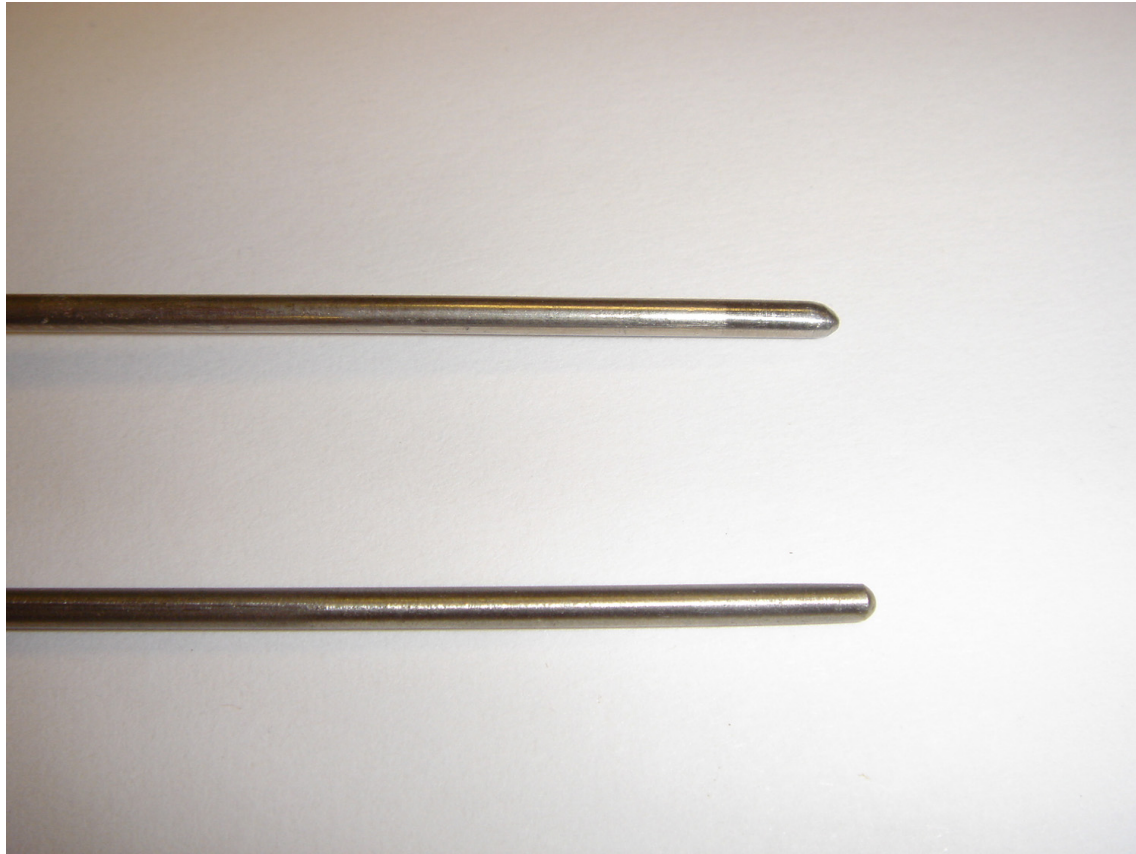
Thermocouple (exposed junction)



Thermocouple (flexible, to be cemented to surface)



Thermocouple (protected junction)

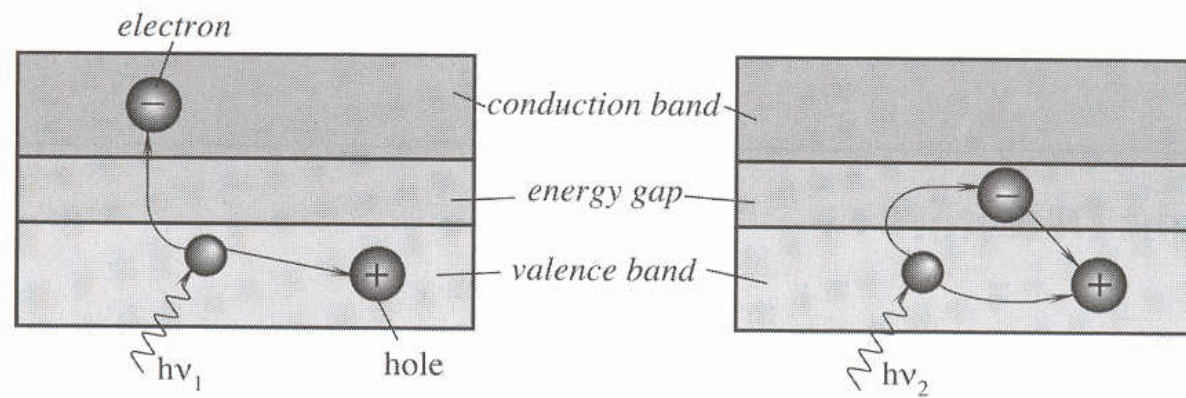


Semiconductor thermocouples

- Semiconductors have highest Seebeck coefficients
- Typical values are about $1\text{mV}/^{\circ}\text{C}$
- Junctions between n or p type semiconductors with a metal (aluminum) are most common
- Smaller temperature ranges (usually -55°C to about 150°C).
- Some materials - up to 225°C
- Newer devices - up to about 800°C

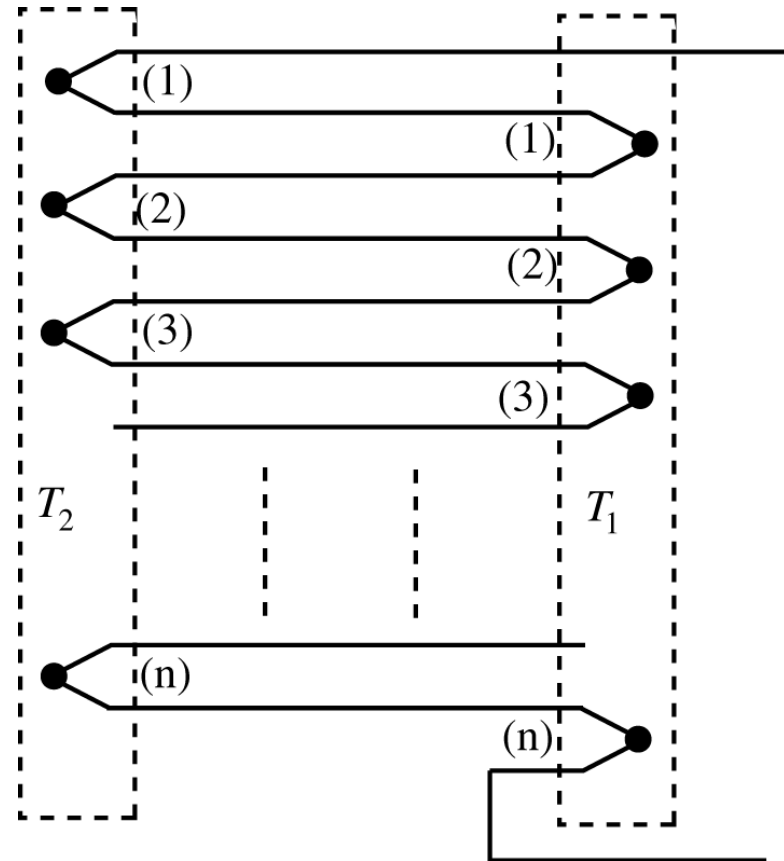
Semiconductor thermocouples: operation

- Pure semiconductor: electrons in valence/covalence bonds
- Few electrons are available for conduction
- Adding heat moves them across the energy gap into the conduction band
- To increase number of electrons - need to dope the material



Thermopile

- n thermocouples in series electrically
- In parallel thermally
- Output is n times the output of a single thermocouple



Thermopiles (cont.)

- Used to increase output
- Sometimes done with metal thermocouples
- Example: pilot flame detector: 750 mV at temperature difference of about 120°C. about 100 metal thermocouples.

Semiconductor thermopiles

- Each thermocouple has higher output than metal based devices
- A few thermocouples in series can produce relatively high voltage
- Used to produce thermoelectric generators.
- Outputs upwards of 15V are available
- Known as Peltier cells

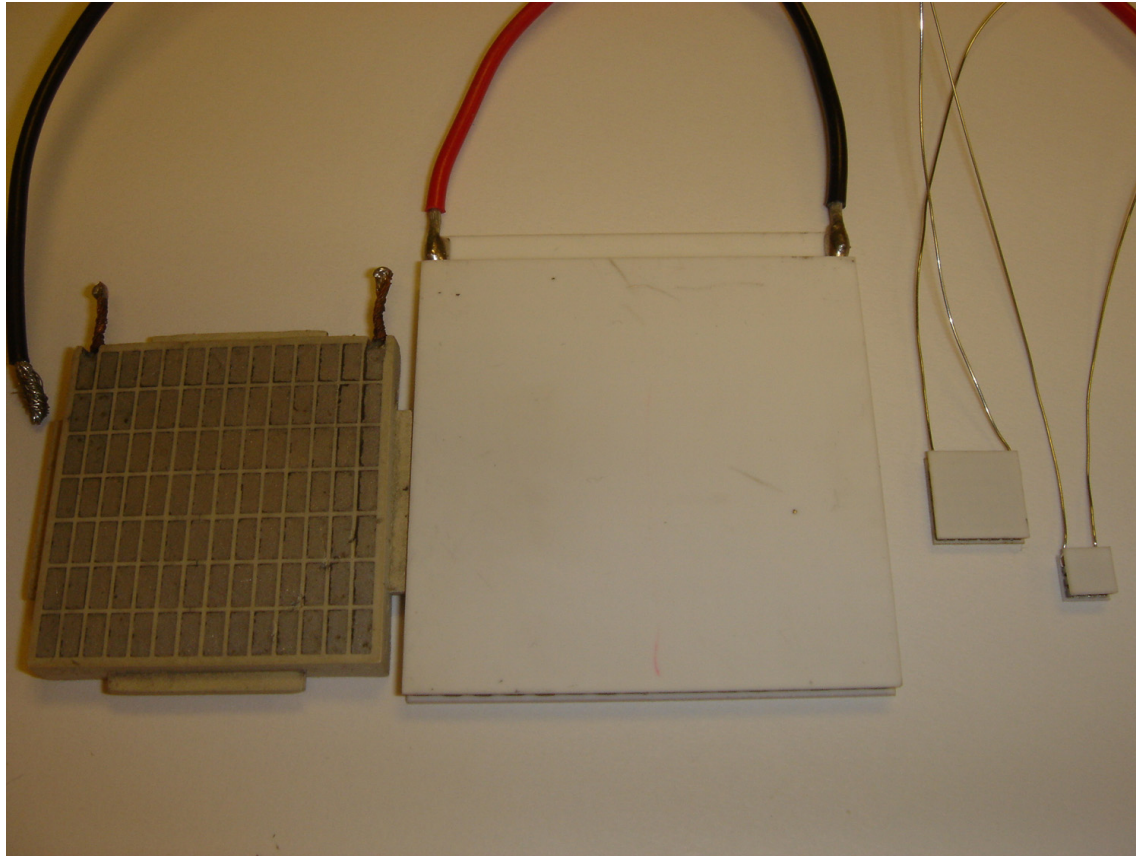
Peltier cells

- Made of crystalline semiconductor materials such as bismuth telluride (Bi_2Te_3) (n-p junctions)
- Peltier Cells are often used for cooling and heating in dual purpose refrigerators,
- Can also be used as sensors and can have output voltages of a few volts (any voltage can be achieved)
- Also used as power generators for small remote installations

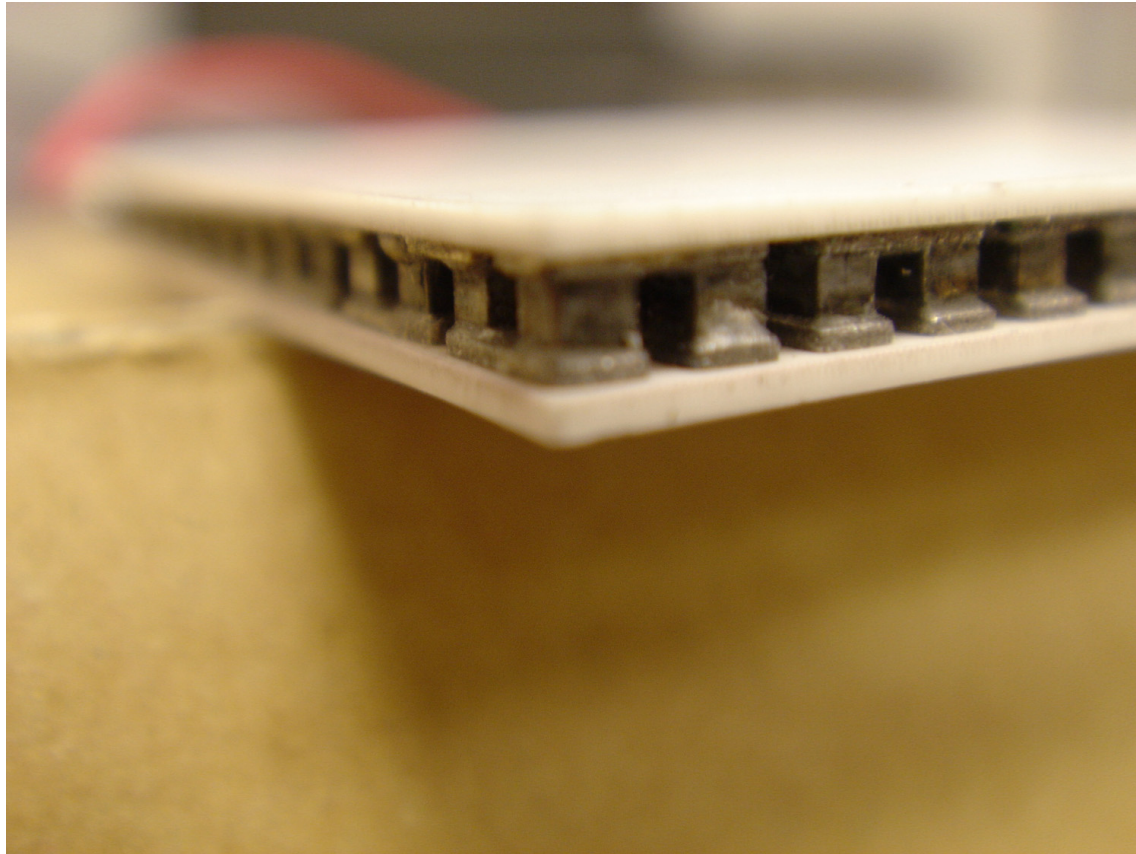
Peltier cells (cont.)

- Junctions are sandwiched between two ceramic plates
- Standard sizes are 15, 31, 63, 127 and 255 junctions
- May be connected in series or parallel, electrically and/or thermally.
- Maximum temperature difference of about 100°C
- Maximum operating temperatures of about 225°C
- Also used as power generators for small remote installations

Some thermopiles (Peltier TEGs)



Details of the TEG construction

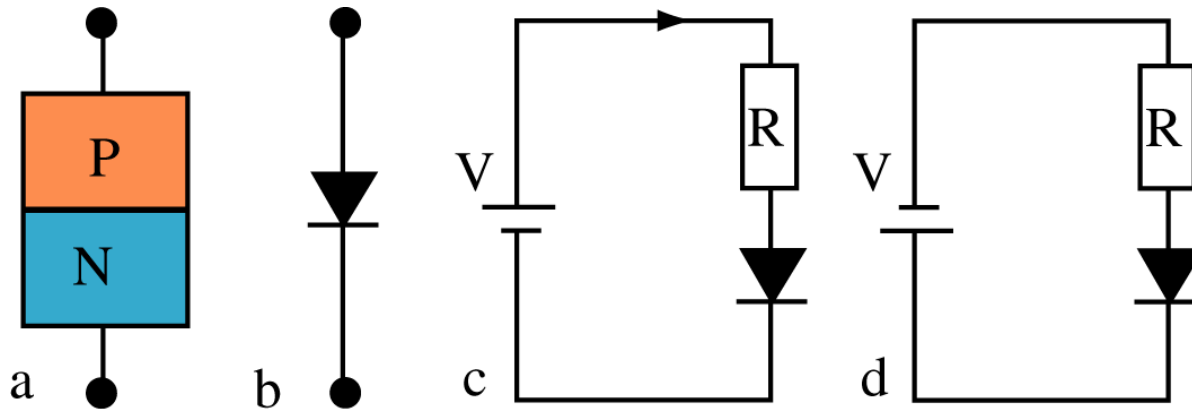


P-N Junction temperature sensors

- A junction between a p and an n-doped semiconductor
- Usually silicon (also germanium, gallium-arsenide, etc.)
- This is a simple diode
- Forward biased

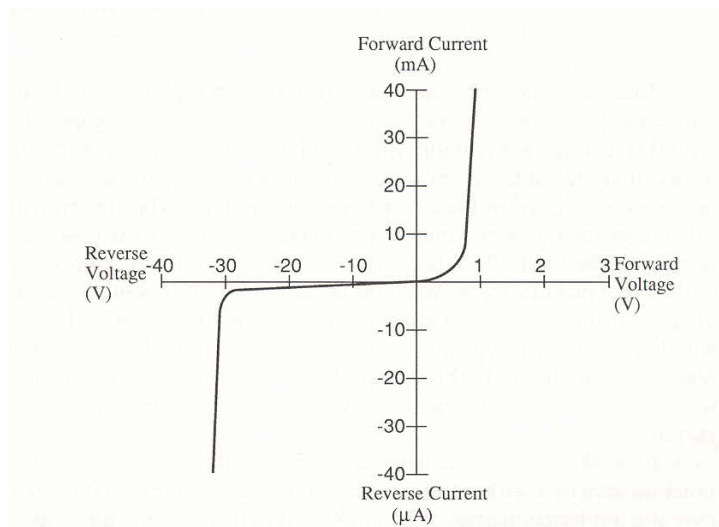
P-N junction sensor (cont.)

- Construction of the sensor



P-N junction sensor (cont.)

- Forward current is temperature dependent
- Any semiconductor diode will work
- Usually the voltage across the diode is sensed



P-N junction sensor (cont.)

- Forward current through diode

$$I = I_0 e^{qV/2kT}$$

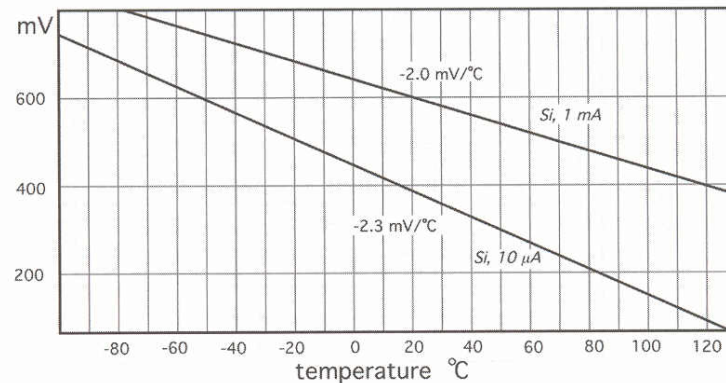
- Voltage across diode

- I_0 - saturation current
- E_g - band gap energy
- q - charge of electron
- k - Boltzman' s constant
- C - a temp. independent constant
- T - temperature ($^{\circ}$ K)

$$V_f = \frac{E_g}{q} - \frac{2kT}{q} \ln\left(\frac{C}{I}\right)$$

P-N junction sensor (cont.)

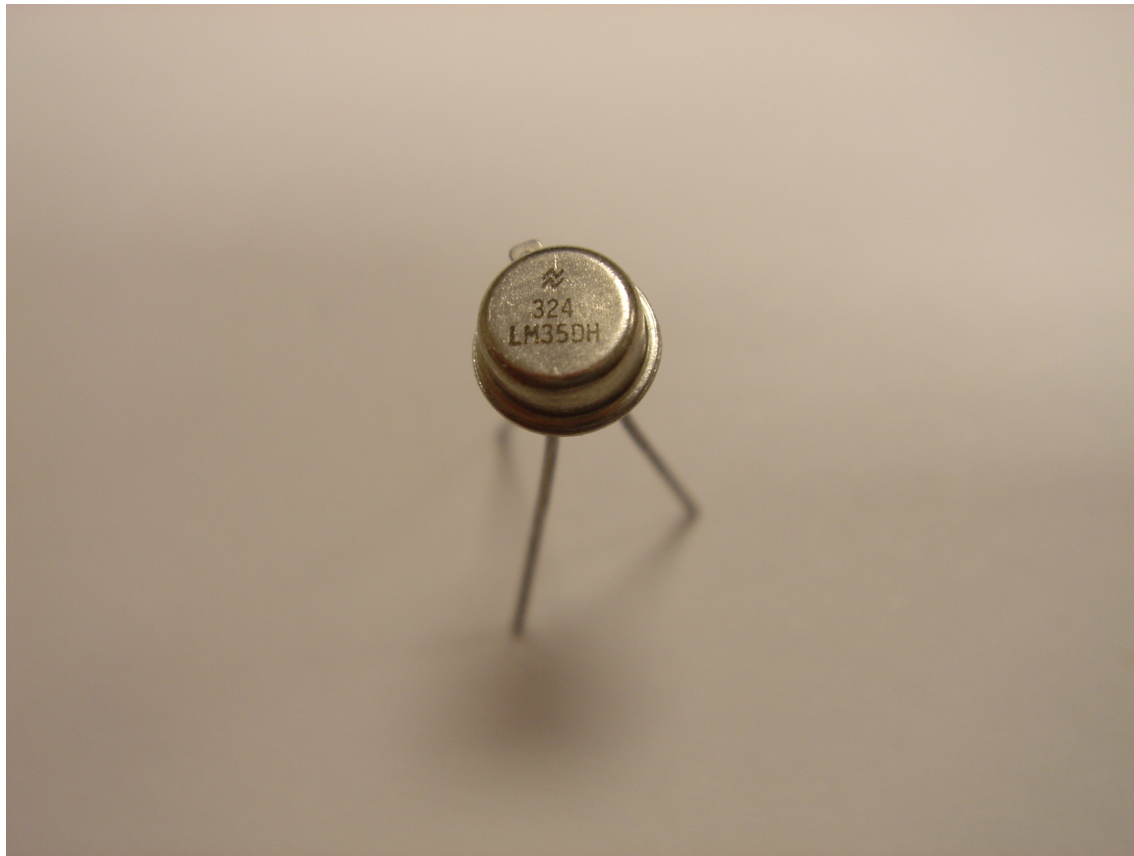
- If C and I are constant, V_f is linear with temperature
- Diode is an NTC device
- Sensitivity: $1\text{-}10\text{mV}/^\circ\text{C}$ (current dependent)



P-N junction - operation parameters

- Forward biased with a current source
- 10-100 μ A typically (low currents - higher sensitivity)
- Maximum range (silicon) -55 to 150°C
- Accuracy: $\pm 0.1^{\circ}\text{C}$ typical
- Self heating error: $0.5\text{ mW}/^{\circ}\text{C}$
- Packaging: as a diode or as a transistor (with additional circuitry)

The LM35 sensor



Other temperature sensors

- Optical
- Acoustical
- Thermomechanical sensors
- Thermomechanical actuators

Optical temperature sensors

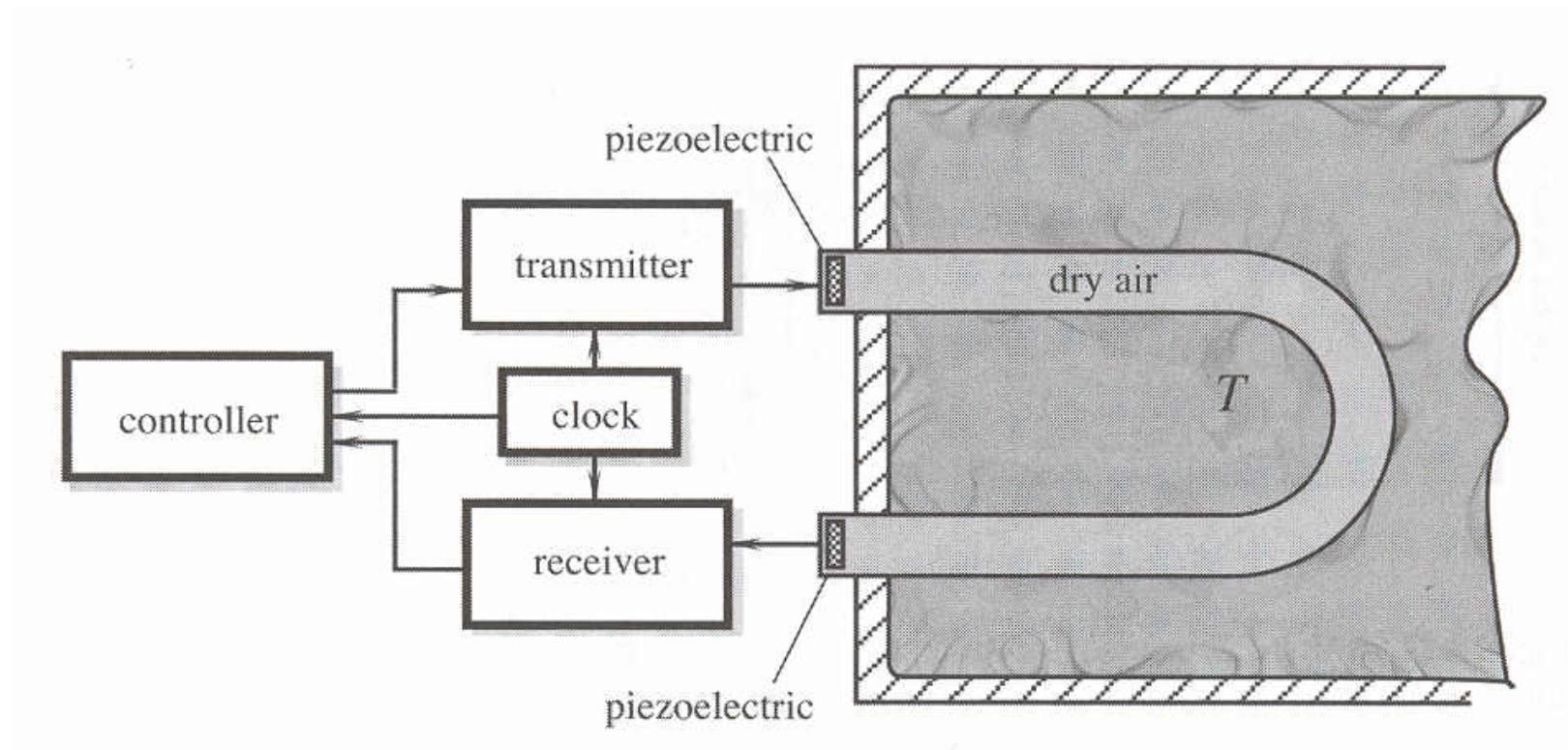
- Noncontact
- Conversion of optical radiation into heat
- Most useful in infrared temperature sensing
- Relies on quantum effects - discussed in the following chapter
- Other sensors rely on phase difference in propagation
 - Light propagates through a silicon optical fiber
 - Index of refraction is temperature sensitive
 - Phase of detected light is a measure of temperature

Acoustical temperature sensor

- Speed of sound is temperature dependent
- Measure the time it takes to travel through the heated medium
- Most sensors use ultrasonic sensors for this purpose.

$$v_s = 331.5 \sqrt{\frac{T}{273.15}} \quad \left[\frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \right]$$

Acoustical temperature sensor



Acoustical temperature sensor

UT transmitter



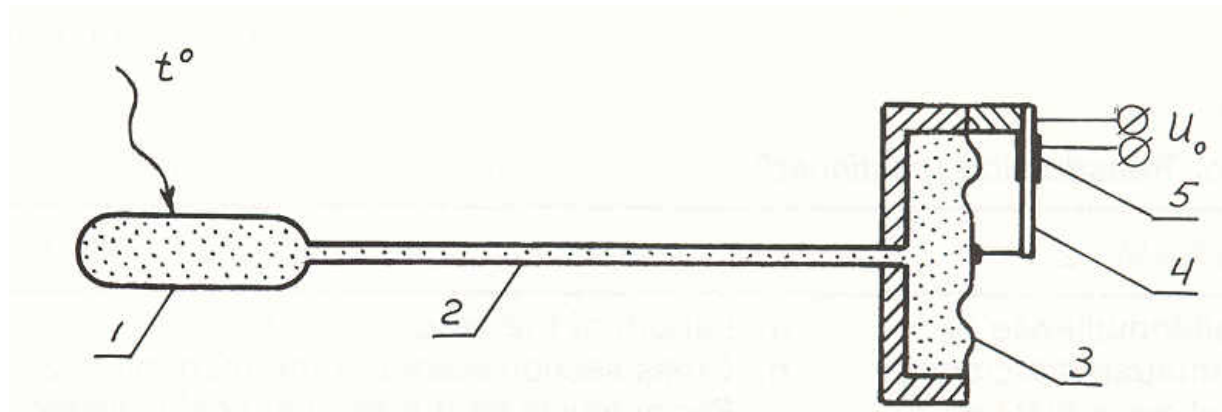
UT receiver

Thermo-mechanical sensors

- Changes of physical properties due to temperature
 - Length
 - Volume
 - Pressure, etc.
- Expansion of gasses and fluids (thermometers)
- Expansion of conductors (thermometers, thermostats)
- Many have a direct reading (graduation, dials)
- Some activate switches directly (thermostats)
- Examples:

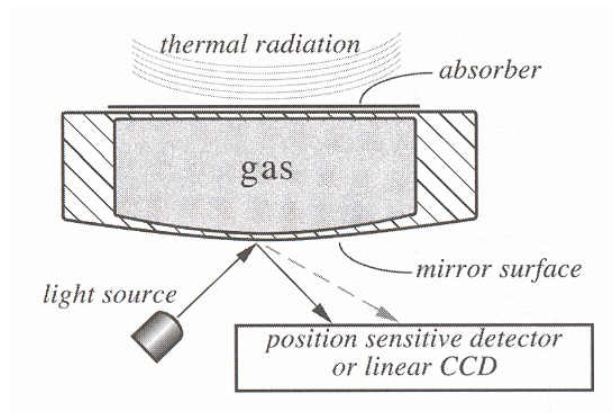
Gas expansion temperature sensor

- Rise in temperature expands the gas
- Diaphragm pushes on a “sensor” (strain gauge, potentiometer) or even a switch
- The sensor’s output is graduated in temperature



Thermo-pneumatic sensor

- Called a Golay cell
- Gas expands in a flexible cell
- Motion moves a mirror and deflects light
- Extremely sensitive device



Thermal expansion of metals

- All metals expand with temperature
- Volume stays constant - length changes
- Each metal has a coefficient of linear expansion α .
- α is usually given at T_1 , temperatures in $^{\circ}\text{C}$.

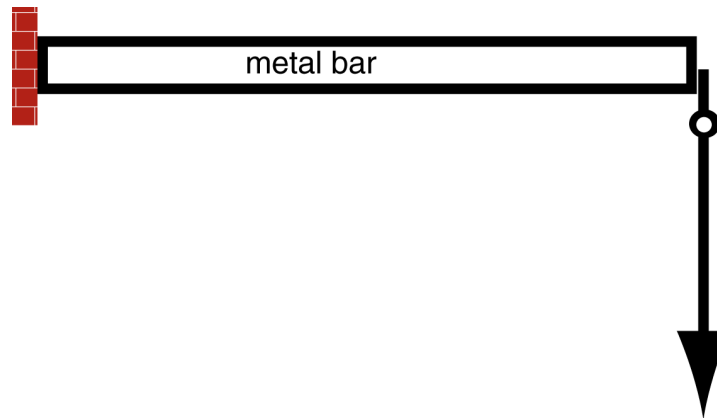
$$l_2 = l_1[1 + \alpha(T_2 - T_1)] \quad [\text{m}]$$

Thermal expansion of metals

- Coefficients of linear expansion are small
- They are however measurable
- Can be used to directly operate a lever to indicate temperature
- Can be used to rotate a shaft
- In most cases the bimetal configuration is used
- Serve as sensors and as actuators

Example: direct dial indication

- Metal bar expands as temperature increases
- Dial arrow moves to the left as temperature rises
- Very small motion
- The dial can be replaced to a pressure sensor or a strain gauge

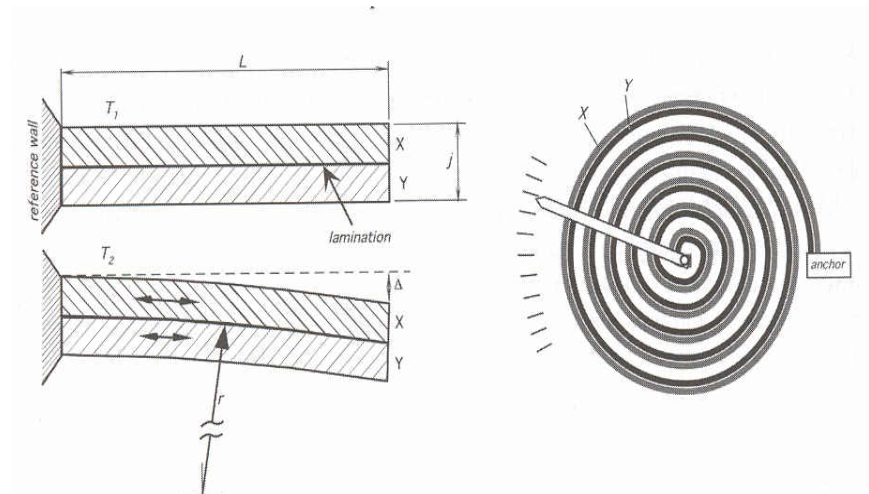


Bimetal sensors

- Two metal strips welded together
- Each metal strip has different coefficient of expansion
- As they expand, the two strips bend. This motion can then be used to:
 - move a dial
 - actuate a sensor (pressure sensor for example)
 - rotate a potentiometer
 - close a switch

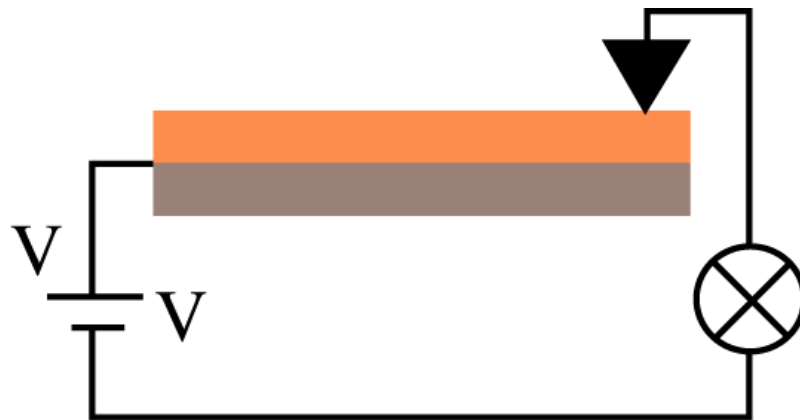
Bimetal sensors (cont.)

- To extend motion, the bimetal strip is bent into a coil. The dial rotates as the coil expands/contracts

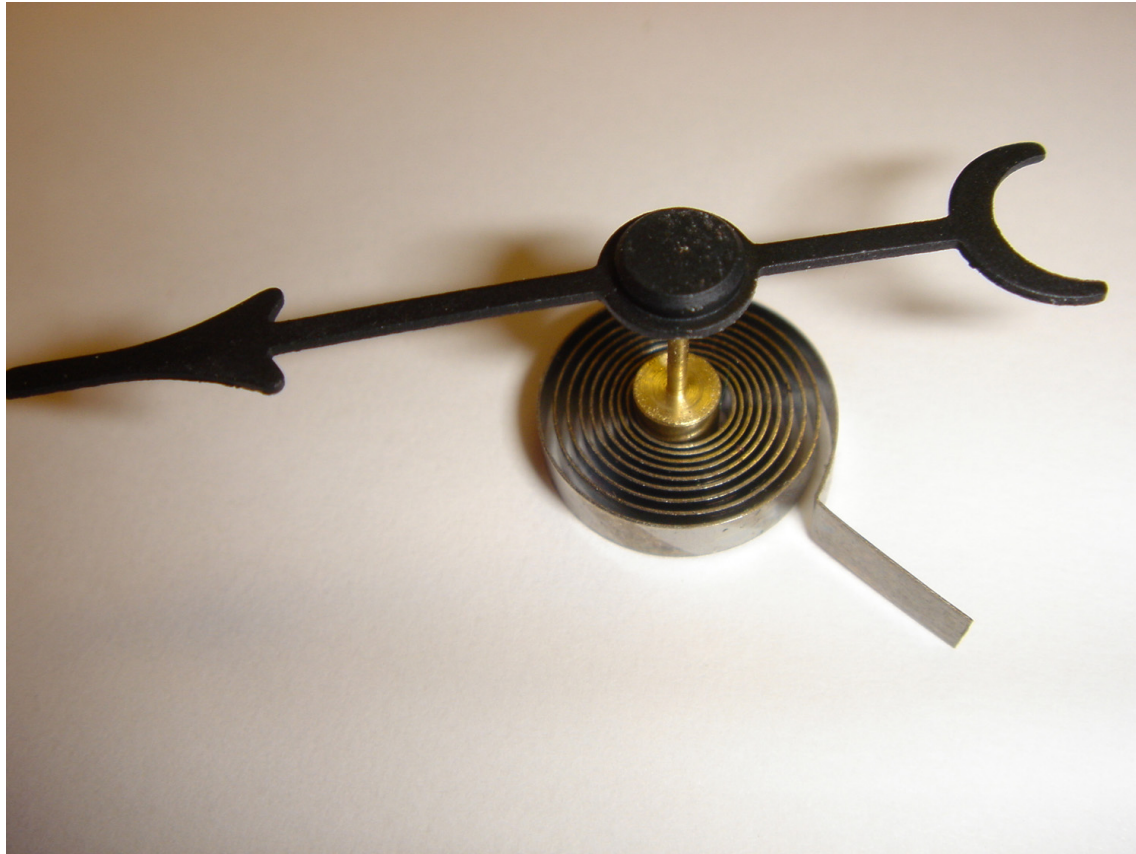


Bimetal switch (example)

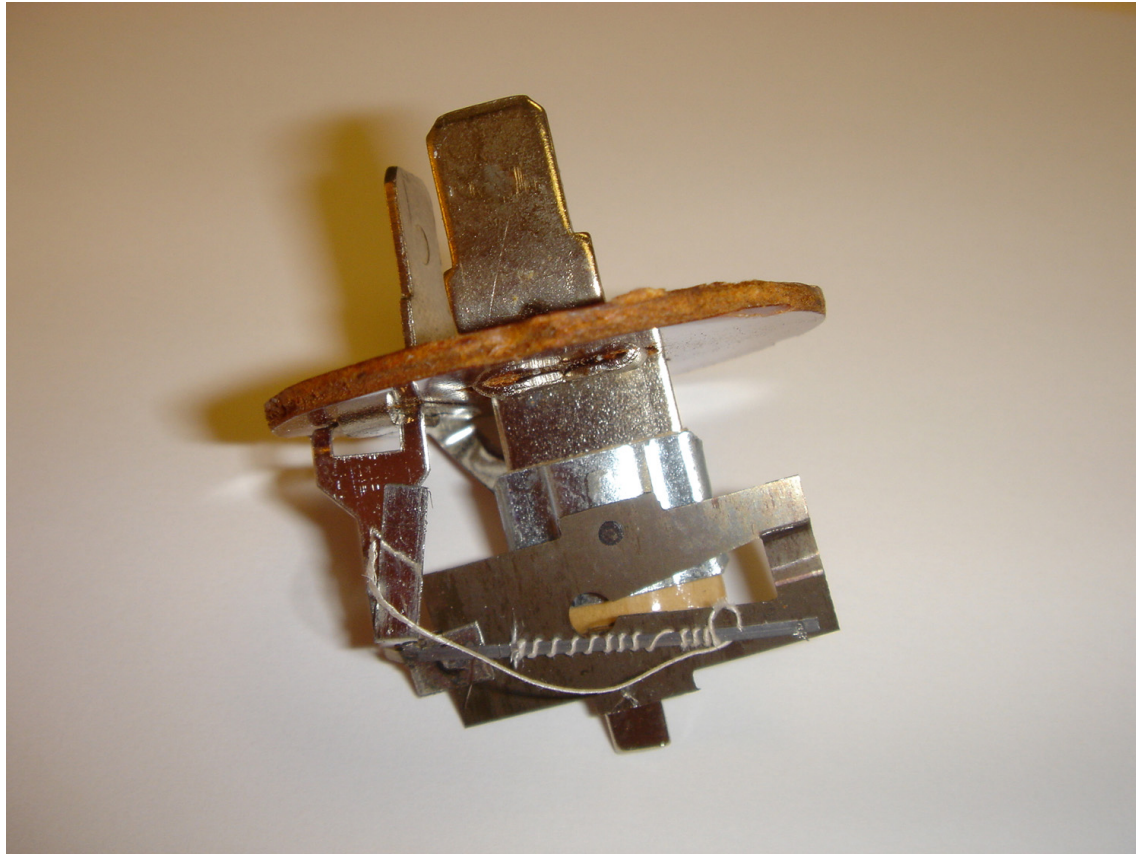
- Typical uses: flashers in cars, thermostats)
- Operation
 - Left side is fixed
 - Right side moves down when heated
 - Cooling reverses the operation



Bimetal coil thermometer



Bimetal switch (car flasher)

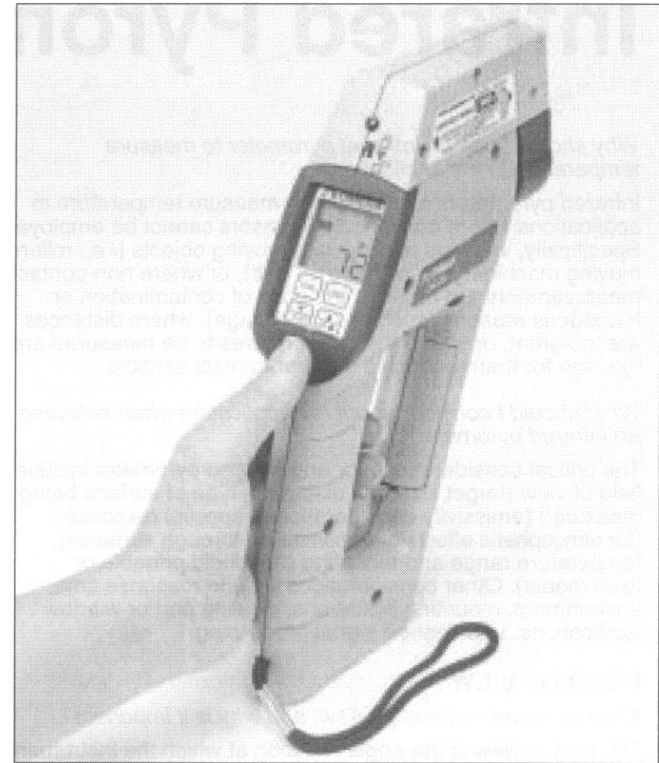


Infrared Thermometry

- Infrared thermometers measure the amount of radiation emitted by an object.
- Peak magnitude is often in the infrared region.
- Surface emissivity must be known. This can add a lot of error.
- Reflection from other objects can introduce error as well.
- Surface whose temp you're measuring must fill the field of view of your camera.

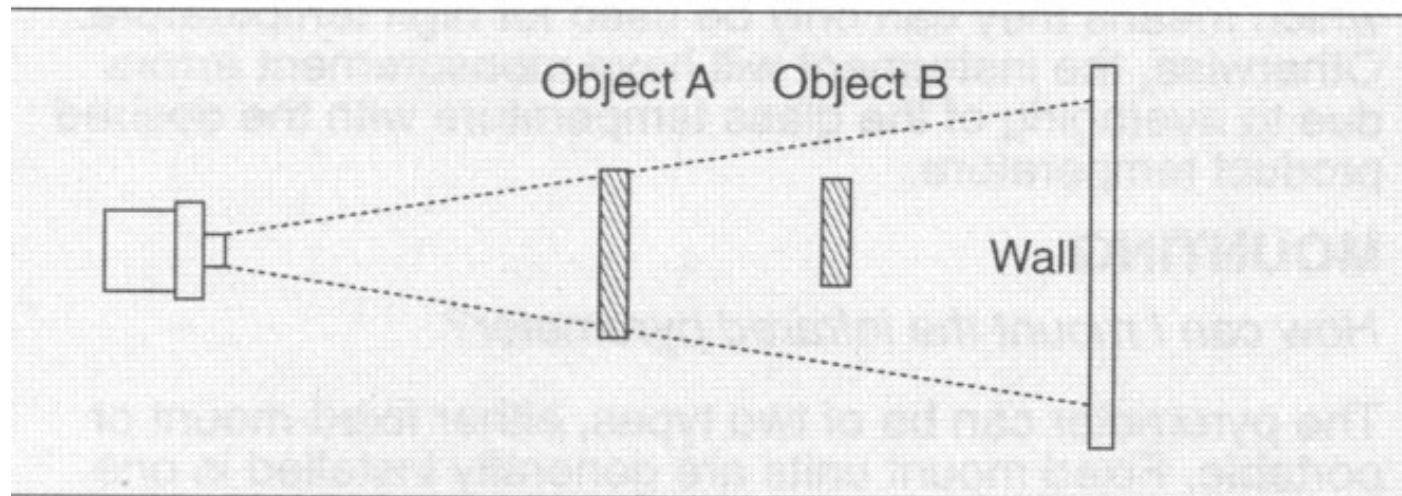
Benefits of Infrared Thermometry

- Can be used for
 - Moving objects
 - Non-contact applications where sensors would affect results or be difficult to insert or conditions are hazardous
 - Large distances
 - Very high temperatures



Field of View

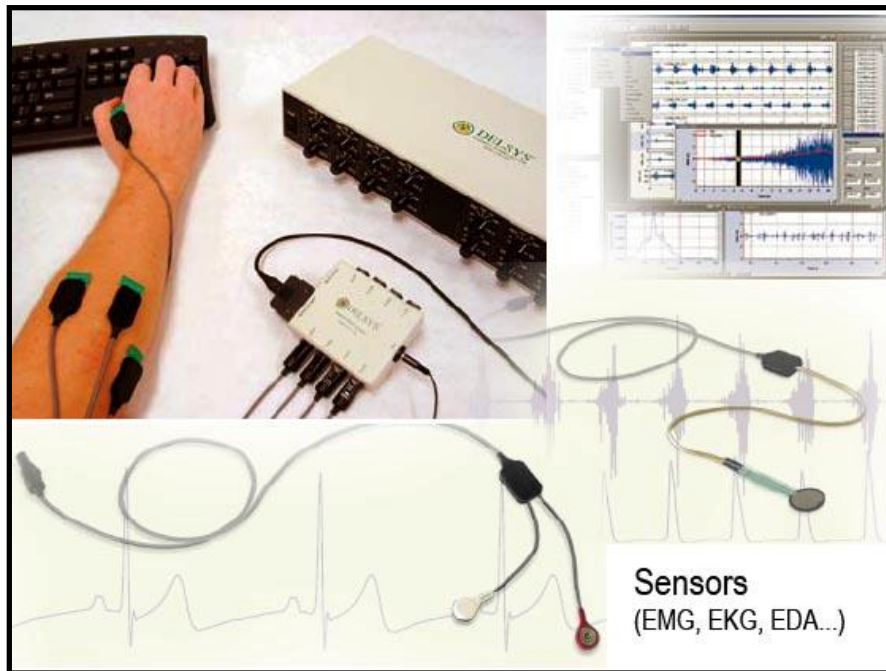
- On some infrared thermometers, FOV is adjustable.



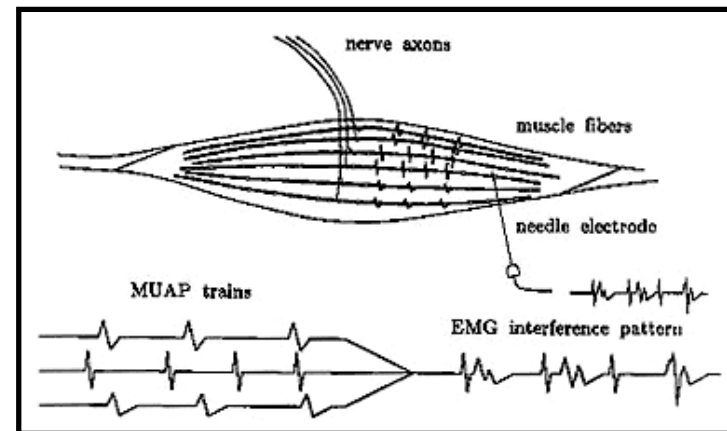
Electromyogram (EMG)

- Electromyogram (EMG) is a technique for evaluating and recording the activation signal of muscles.
- EMG is performed by an **electromyograph**, which records an **electromyogram**.
- Electromyograph detects the electrical potential generated by muscle cells when these cells contract and relax.

Electromyogram (EMG)



EMG Apparatus



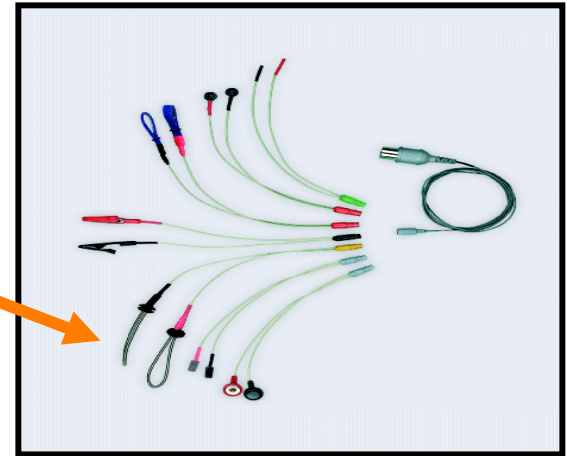
Muscle Structure/EMG

Electromyogram (EMG)

- The electrical source is the muscle membrane potential of about -70mV.
- Measured EMG potentials range between $< 50 \mu\text{V}$ up to 20 to 30 mV, depending on the muscle under observation.
- Typical repetition rate of muscle unit firing is about 7–20 Hz.
- Damage to motor units can be expected at ranges between 450 and 780 mV

Electromyogram (EMG)

Intramuscular -
Needle Electrodes

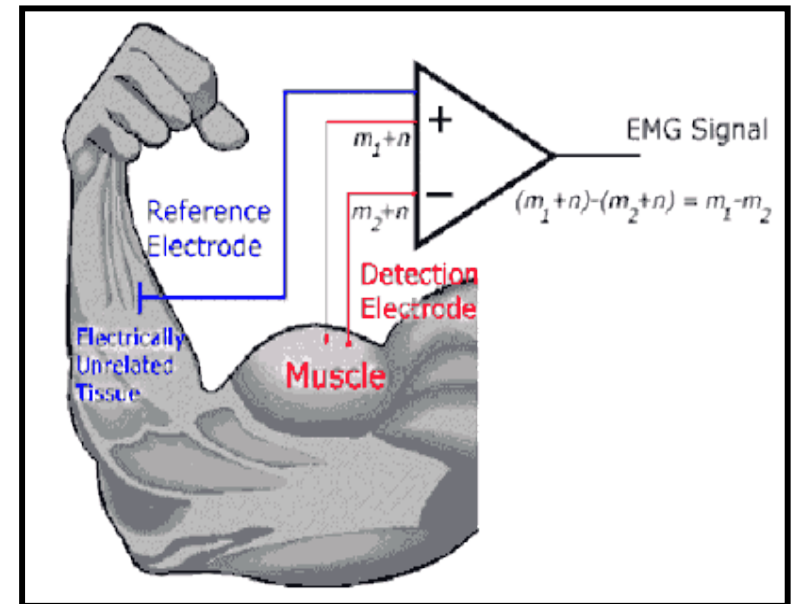


Extramuscular - Surface
Electrodes



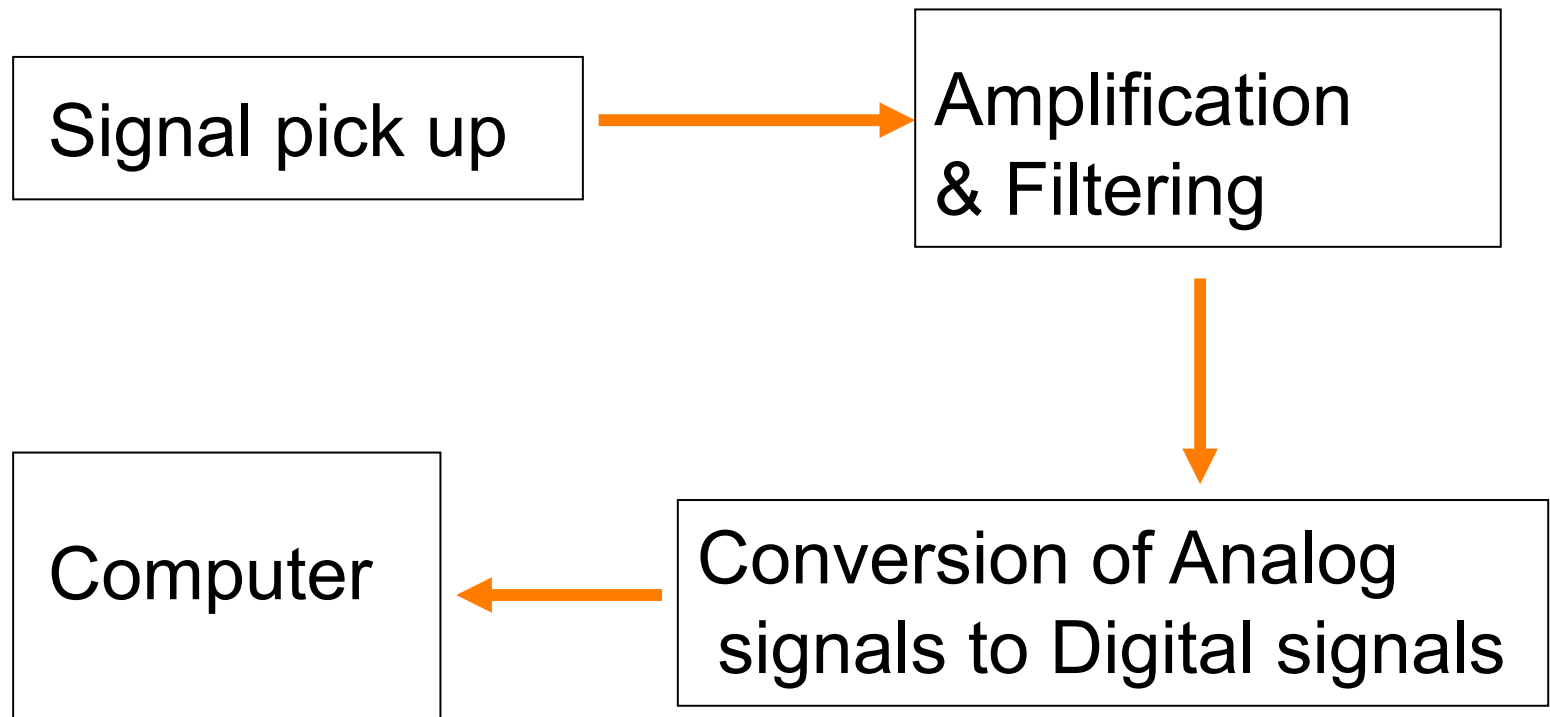
Electromyogram (EMG)

- Clean the site of application of electrode;
- Insert needle/place surface electrodes at muscle belly;
- Record muscle activity at rest;
- Record muscle activity upon voluntary contraction of the muscle.



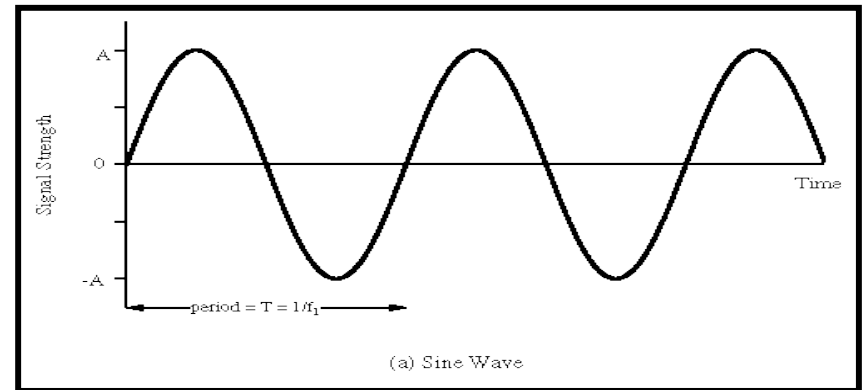
Electromyogram (EMG)

EMG processing:



Electromyogram (EMG)

- Muscle Signals are Analog in nature.
- EMG signals are also collected over a specific period of time.



Analog Signal

