IoT Sensing and Actuation: Introduction, Sensors, Sensor Characteristics, Sensorial Deviations, Sensing Types, Sensing Considerations, Actuators, Actuator Types, Actuator Characteristics.

5.1 Introduction to IoT Sensing and Actuation

• Importance in IoT:

Sensing is the first step across various IoT applications (consumer, industrial, hobby-based),
 and actuation typically forms the final step in these processes.

• Concept of Transduction:

- o **Transduction**: The process of converting one form of energy into another.
- o **Transducers**: Physical devices that enable this conversion, designed to handle energy types like electrical, mechanical, chemical, light, and sound.

• Sensors and Actuators as Transducers:

- o Sensors: Convert various forms of energy (like heat or pressure) into electrical signals.
- o **Actuators**: Take electrical signals and convert them into other energy forms, typically mechanical.

• Example - Public Announcement System:

- o Microphone (Sensor): Converts sound waves into electrical signals.
- Amplifier: Processes the signals.
- o Loudspeaker (Actuator): Converts processed electrical signals back into sound.

Table 5.1: Differences Between Transducers, Sensors, and Actuators

Parameter	Transducers	Sensors	Actuators
Definition	Converts energy from one form to another.	Converts various forms of energy into electrical signals.	Converts electrical signals into other energy forms, typically mechanical.
Domain	Can represent either a sensor or actuator	Serves as an input transducer.	Serves as an output transducer.
Function	Can work as a sensor or actuator, not both simultaneously	Measures environmental stimuli and converts them into signals.	Converts signals into proportional mechanical or electrical outputs.
Examples	Any sensor or actuator	Humidity, temperature sensors, anemometers (flow velocity), manometers (fluid pressure), etc.	Motors, force heads, pumps (rotary motion to pressure or fluid velocity).

5.2 Definition and Role of Sensors

• **Function**: Sensors are devices that detect environmental changes (temperature, pressure, light, etc.) within their intended area and convert these changes into electrical signals. This enables IoT systems to sense and respond to the physical world.

• Key Qualities:

- Sensitivity to a Specific Property: Each sensor is designed to measure one specific property (e.g., temperature, pressure). It ignores other properties to avoid interference, ensuring accurate readings.
- Non-influence on Measured Property: Sensors do not alter the properties they measure. For
 instance, a temperature sensor does not change the ambient temperature while measuring it.
- **Example**: In fire detection, a temperature sensor constantly monitors the environment for heat. When a fire occurs, it detects the rise in temperature and sends this information to a processor, which alerts a remote monitor or triggers an alarm.

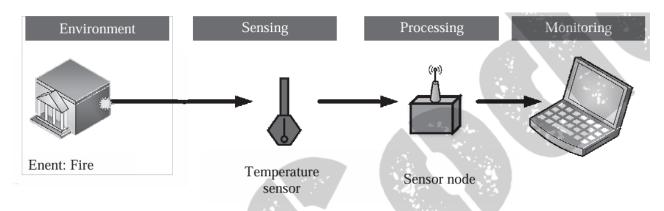


Figure 5.1 The outline of a simple sensing operation

Classification of Sensors

Sensors are classified based on three main factors: power requirements, output type, and the property they measure.

1. Power Requirements

The power needs of a sensor determine how it will operate within an IoT system. Sensors are either **active** or **passive**.

• Active Sensors:

- o **Description**: These sensors operate without an external power source; they automatically respond to environmental stimuli and generate an output signal directly.
- Working Mechanism: Active sensors work by converting energy from one form to another upon detecting a stimulus.
- Example: A photodiode converts light directly into electrical impulses without needing an additional power source. It can be used in light-sensing applications, like adjusting screen brightness in devices.

• Passive Sensors:

- Description: Passive sensors require an external power source to operate. They depend on external energy to detect changes and generate corresponding signals.
- Working Mechanism: Passive sensors need power to sense changes and adjust their properties to produce a measurable response.

 Example: A thermistor (used for measuring temperature changes) requires an external voltage to sense temperature. The thermistor's resistance varies based on the temperature, which can be detected by applying a voltage across it.

2. Output Type

Sensors produce two types of outputs: **analog** and **digital**, depending on the way they encode information about the measured property.

Analog Sensors:

- o **Description**: These sensors generate a continuous output signal that varies proportionally (linearly or non-linearly) with the property being measured.
- Example: A thermocouple measures temperature by generating a voltage that corresponds to temperature changes, such as monitoring water temperature in a heater.
- Applications: Analog sensors are ideal for measurements that are continuous and do not require digitization, like ambient temperature and pressure.
- o **Characteristics**: Analog sensors respond to changes continuously, which allows them to measure properties that vary smoothly over time, like the speed of a moving object.

• Digital Sensors:

- Description: Digital sensors provide a discrete output, typically in the form of binary signals (e.g., 1 for ON, 0 for OFF). They work well with digital systems, including modern IoT processors.
- Example: A digital temperature sensor outputs data in bits or bytes, representing temperature levels in discrete steps.
- o **Applications**: Ideal for systems that require precise, stepwise outputs, like digital thermometers or motion sensors in security systems.
- o **Characteristics**: Digital sensors convert continuous data into discrete signals, making them suitable for processors that require binary input.

3. Measured Property

The specific property a sensor measures influences the type of sensor used, as some properties vary in both spatial and temporal dimensions, while others do not.

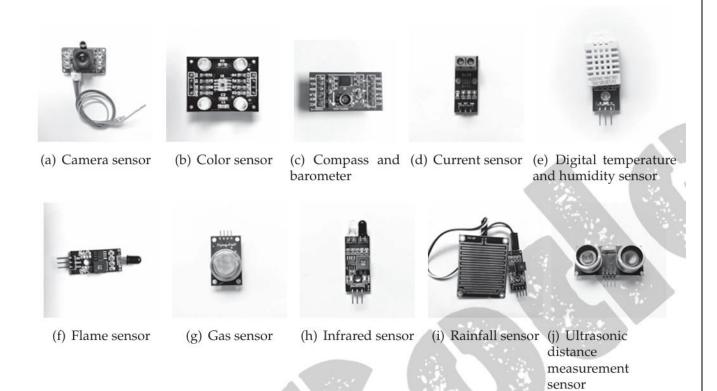
• Scalar Sensors:

- Description: Scalar sensors measure properties that are only defined by their magnitude, without direction or orientation.
- **Example**: A **thermometer** detects temperature, which is only a magnitude-based property; orientation or direction does not affect the temperature measurement.
- o Common Properties Measured: Temperature, pressure, color, and strain.
- o **Application**: Scalar sensors are widely used in fields where only the size of the change is necessary, like ambient temperature monitoring in smart homes.

• Vector Sensors:

- Description: Vector sensors measure properties that require both magnitude and direction for a complete understanding.
- Example: An electronic gyroscope detects orientation along all three axes, making it useful
 in devices like smartphones and aircraft for orientation tracking.
- o Common Properties Measured: Velocity, image, and acceleration.
- Application: Vector sensors are useful in fields like robotics and aeronautics, where both the size and direction of a force or movement are critical for accurate monitoring and control.

Figure 5.3 shows some commercially available sensors used for sensing applications.



Sensor Characteristics

1. Sensor Resolution

- The smallest change in the measurable quantity that a sensor can detect is called its resolution. For digital sensors, this refers to the smallest detectable change in the digital output. A higher resolution allows the sensor to detect finer changes in the measured phenomenon. However, a sensor's accuracy does not necessarily depend on its resolution.
- Example: If Temperature Sensor A detects up to 0.5°C changes, but Sensor B can detect up to 0.25°C, Sensor B has higher resolution.

2. Sensor Accuracy

- This is the degree to which a sensor's measurement matches the true value of the quantity.
 Accuracy is crucial for sensors that require high precision, especially in sensitive applications like healthcare.
- o *Example*: A weight sensor that reads 99.98 kg for a 100 kg mass is 99.98% accurate, with an error rate of 0.02%.

3. Sensor Precision

- o Precision refers to the repeatability of the sensor's measurements. If a sensor produces nearly the same reading upon multiple measurements of the same quantity, it is considered precise.
- Example: If a weight sensor reads 98.28 kg, 100.34 kg, and 101.11 kg on three attempts for a
 100 kg mass, it lacks precision due to significant variation.

4. Sensitivity

- Sensitivity is a sensor's ability to detect small changes in the measured parameter, making it responsive to minor variations.
- o *Importance*: High sensitivity is essential for quick detection, especially in environments where small changes can have significant impacts.

5. Response Time

The time taken by the sensor to respond to a change in input. A sensor with a quick response time can rapidly react to changing conditions, useful in dynamic settings like alarms.

6. Range

- The minimum to maximum limits of values a sensor can measure. A wide range makes a sensor versatile for various applications.
- o *Example*: A temperature sensor with a range of -50°C to 150°C can be used in diverse environments.

7. Stability

 Stability is the sensor's ability to maintain its accuracy over time despite environmental changes, such as fluctuations in temperature or pressure. High stability ensures reliable performance over extended use.

5.4 Sensorial Deviations

In IoT, sensor deviations (or errors) are variations from expected sensor outputs, which can impact the quality of measurement. These deviations are often minor and may not affect non-critical applications, but they are crucial in areas like healthcare and industrial monitoring where high precision is needed. Here's a breakdown of key sensorial deviations in IoT sensors:

1. Sensitivity Error

- **Definition**: Sensitivity error occurs when a sensor's response deviates from the specified sensitivity.
- Cause: Often due to manufacturing defects or miscalibration.
- **Example**: If a sensor's response to a specific stimulus is lower or higher than expected, it results in inaccurate readings.

2. Offset Error (Bias)

- **Definition**: Offset error occurs when a sensor consistently measures values that differ by a constant amount from the actual value.
- **Example**: If a temperature sensor reads 1.1°C at 0°C consistently, it has an offset error (or bias) of 1.1°C.

3. Non-Linearity

• **Definition**: Non-linearity occurs when a sensor's transfer function (TF) deviates from a straight line, meaning the sensor does not respond proportionally across its range.

- Cause: Inherent sensor characteristics; it's often quantified as a percentage of the full measurement range.
- **Example**: A sensor that should respond linearly to pressure changes might have a non-linear response at higher pressures, leading to errors in reading.

4. Drift

- **Definition**: Drift is a slow, long-term deviation in a sensor's output over time, unrelated to the measured property.
- Cause: Physical or material changes in the sensor; can accumulate over months or years.
- **Example**: A sensor might gradually show increasing temperature values over time due to material aging.

5. Hysteresis Error

- **Definition**: Hysteresis error is when a sensor's output depends not only on the current stimulus but also on previous inputs, meaning it can "remember" previous conditions.
- Cause: Common in analog and magnetic sensors; also occurs in materials that change shape or properties with temperature.
- **Example**: In a metal-based temperature sensor, if the temperature is first increased and then decreased, the readings might not match, showing a history-based error.

6. Quantization Error

- **Definition**: Quantization error is the difference between an analog signal and its closest digital approximation, which happens during analog-to-digital conversion.
- Cause: Digital sensors approximate continuous analog values into discrete digital values, creating small deviations.
- Example: When a temperature sensor outputs 22.7°C, the digital system might register it as 23°C, resulting in a quantization error of 0.3°C.

7. Aliasing Error

- **Definition**: Aliasing error arises when sampling frequency is too low, causing signals of different frequencies to appear similar or "aliased."
- Cause: Occurs due to improper sampling frequency, which fails to capture the actual signal frequency accurately.

• **Example**: If a sensor reads vibrations and samples too slowly, it might register different frequencies as the same value, misrepresenting actual vibrations.

8. Environmental Influence

- **Definition**: Environmental factors, like temperature, can affect sensors even when they are not directly related to the measured property.
- Cause: Environmental changes that influence sensor components, especially in semiconductor-based sensors.
- **Example**: A humidity sensor's accuracy may vary in extreme temperatures, as the semiconductor materials in the sensor might behave differently under these conditions.

5.5 Sensing Types

In IoT, sensing can be divided into four types based on the characteristics of the environment and the sensors used. These types include Scalar Sensing, Multimedia Sensing, Hybrid Sensing, and Virtual Sensing.

5.5.1 Scalar Sensing

- **Definition**: Scalar sensing focuses on measuring quantities that do not involve direction or spatial variation, but rather only magnitude (e.g., temperature, humidity, pressure).
- How It Works: Scalar sensors quantify these properties by measuring changes in their amplitude over time. Since these quantities are independent of direction, simple amplitude measurements are sufficient.
- Examples of Scalar Quantities: Ambient temperature, atmospheric pressure, rainfall, light intensity, and current.
- **Applications**: Scalar sensing is common in environmental monitoring, such as tracking temperature changes for fire detection or monitoring humidity levels.
- Example of Usage: In a fire detection system, a temperature sensor continuously monitors room temperature. When it detects an unusual increase, it sends an alert, indicating a possible fire.

5.5.2 Multimedia Sensing

• **Definition**: Multimedia sensing involves measuring features that vary in both spatial and temporal dimensions, meaning they depend on both location and time.

- **How It Works**: Multimedia sensors capture properties like direction, speed, acceleration, sound, or force, which have both magnitude and directional components (vector quantities).
- Examples of Vector Quantities: Images, direction, flow, acceleration, sound, and energy.
- **Applications**: Multimedia sensing is often used in surveillance, where cameras (multimedia sensors) capture time-stamped images or videos to monitor activity within a spatial area.
- **Example of Usage**: In a surveillance system, a camera captures images over time and space, allowing the system to detect movement and activity across different areas.

5.5.3 Hybrid Sensing

- **Definition**: Hybrid sensing combines scalar and multimedia sensing to measure multiple types of environmental properties simultaneously.
- **How It Works**: Hybrid sensing systems employ a range of sensors to capture various properties, then map and analyze this data collectively for a more comprehensive view of the environment.
- **Applications**: Often used in complex systems that require monitoring of multiple factors, such as smart farming or wildlife monitoring.

• Example of Usage in Agriculture:

- In an agricultural field, sensors measure soil moisture and soil temperature to determine water availability. A camera sensor may also be included to observe the color of plant leaves, which indicates plant health.
- o By combining data from soil sensors and the camera, the system can provide a more holistic view of plant health, considering both soil conditions and visual indicators.

5.5.4 Virtual Sensing

- **Definition**: Virtual sensing uses extrapolated data to estimate measurements across large areas without deploying sensors in every location.
- **How It Works**: In areas with minimal spatial variation (like temperature or moisture across adjacent fields), data from one set of sensors can approximate measurements in neighboring areas. This reduces the need for dense sensor deployment.

• **Applications**: Agriculture, where the conditions in one part of a field are likely to be similar to adjacent parts.

• Example of Usage:

o If Farmer A has sensors measuring soil moisture and temperature, the data from these sensors can be used to estimate conditions in neighboring fields, such as Farmer B's field. This shared data can advise both farmers on watering and fertilizing schedules without requiring sensors in both locations.

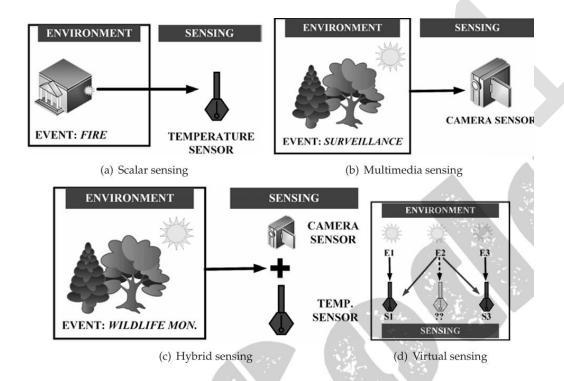


Figure 5.4 The different sensing types commonly encountered in IoT

5.6 Sensing Considerations

Selecting the right sensors for an IoT system is crucial for both performance and feasibility. The following four main factors are critical in choosing sensors for IoT-based applications: **Sensing Range**, **Accuracy and Precision**, **Energy Consumption**, and **Device Size**.

1. Sensing Range

- **Definition**: The sensing range defines how far or close a sensor can effectively detect or measure a target property.
- Types of Coverage:

- Fixed k-Coverage: Uses a pre-determined, fixed number of sensors to cover an area, which
 can lead to redundancy as sensors may overlap in coverage.
- o **Dynamic k-Coverage**: Deploys mobile sensors that adjust based on detected events, which increases flexibility but is costly and challenging to deploy in all terrains.

• Examples:

- o A **proximity sensor** typically has a short sensing range of a few meters.
- A camera sensor can have a sensing range spanning tens to hundreds of meters, but higher ranges and complexity increase the cost.
- **Impact**: A sensor with a broader range generally costs more, making it necessary to balance range and budget in deployment.

2. Accuracy and Precision

• Definition:

- Accuracy: How close a sensor's reading is to the true value.
- Precision: The sensor's consistency in providing the same output under the same conditions over time.

• Applications:

- Basic sensors used in consumer electronics may prioritize cost and have lower accuracy and precision, suitable for general applications.
- Industrial Applications: Require high precision (up to 3-4 decimal places) for processes like manufacturing or medical monitoring, which typically necessitates sophisticated, high-cost sensors.

• Example:

 A consumer temperature sensor might suffice for a home thermostat but lacks the precision needed for high-stakes industrial applications where consistent, minute variations are critical.

3. Energy Consumption

• **Definition**: The energy a sensor requires impacts both its operational life and maintenance frequency.

• **Importance**: In scenarios where sensor maintenance is difficult, such as in remote or extreme environments, low-energy sensors are crucial for sustaining operations.

• Example:

- Sensors deployed on glaciers or in remote locations must be energy-efficient since frequent access to recharge or replace batteries is impractical.
- Impact: High energy consumption increases maintenance costs and can make a deployment impractical if frequent power source replenishment is needed.

4. Device Size

• **Definition**: The physical size of the sensor is important, especially in IoT applications where unobtrusiveness and mobility are prioritized.

Considerations:

- o **Smaller Sensors**: Preferred in wearables and portable devices where minimal interference with regular activities is necessary.
- o **Larger Sensors**: May offer higher capacity or range but can be obtrusive, making them less ideal for applications where movement or compactness is essential.

• Example:

- o A wearable sensor must be small, lightweight, and energy-efficient to integrate seamlessly with the user's daily activities.
- Impact: Smaller devices are generally more in demand in IoT applications due to their lower obstruction, reduced energy needs, and higher usability.

5.7 Actuators

An **actuator** is a device component in machines or systems that converts control signals into physical action. It allows systems to perform tasks by moving or manipulating objects based on input commands. Actuators can be activated by control signals that are either digital (e.g., ON/OFF) or analog (e.g., variable voltage). The control system that drives an actuator can be mechanical, electronic, software-based, or human-operated.

• **Example of Actuation**: In a factory automation setup, a remote operator sends commands to a processor. The processor translates these commands into machine-readable instructions, directing a motor-driven robotic arm to move designated boxes to specific locations.

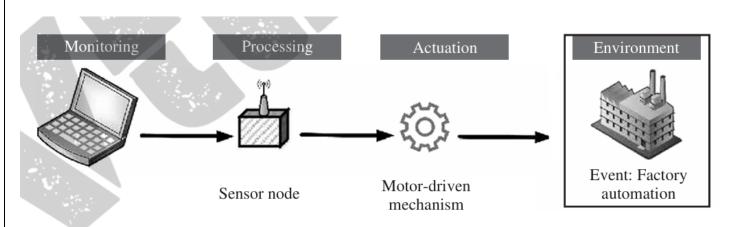


Figure 5.5 The outline of a simple actuation mechanism

5.8 Types of Actuators

Actuators come in various types, each with unique properties suitable for different IoT applications. The seven main classes are Hydraulic, Pneumatic, Electric, Thermal/Magnetic, Mechanical, Soft, and Shape Memory Polymers.

5.8.1 Hydraulic Actuators

- **Principle**: Operates using the compression and decompression of fluids.
- **How It Works**: Fluid is moved in cylinders or motors to generate significant force for linear, rotary, or oscillatory motion.
- Characteristics: Known for their stiffness and ability to exert high force due to the incompressible nature of liquids. However, they have limited acceleration.
- Example: Used in heavy machinery for tasks like lifting or applying pressure.

5.8.2 Pneumatic Actuators

- Principle: Works on the compression and decompression of gases, typically air.
- How It Works: High-pressure air generates motion—either linear or rotary.
- Characteristics: Pneumatic actuators are compliant (flexible) systems, known for rapid response to signals. Small pressure changes create large force outputs.
- **Example**: Pneumatic brakes, where small air pressure changes create enough force to slow down or stop a vehicle.

5.8.3 Electric Actuators

• Principle: Powered by electric motors to generate mechanical torque.

- **How It Works**: Torque produced by the motor creates motion or triggers switching actions (e.g., relays).
- Characteristics: One of the most affordable, clean, and fast actuator types; widely used in various applications.
- Example: Solenoid valves, which control water flow in pipes in response to electric signals.



Figure 5.6 Some common commercially available actuators used for IoT-based control applications

5.8.4 Thermal or Magnetic Actuators

- **Principle**: Uses thermal or magnetic energy for activation.
- **How It Works**: Shape memory materials (SMMs) like Shape Memory Alloys (SMAs) respond to temperature changes by changing shape.
- Characteristics: High power density, compact, lightweight, and not impacted by vibration; they can operate in both liquids and gases without electricity.
- Example: Magnetic Shape Memory Alloys (MSMAs) are used for fine-tuned movements in magnetic actuators.

5.8.5 Mechanical Actuators

- **Principle**: Converts rotary motion into linear motion using mechanical components.
- **How It Works**: Gears, pulleys, or chains move to create a specific motion.

- Characteristics: Can work independently or alongside hydraulic, pneumatic, or electric systems.
- **Example**: Rack and pinion mechanisms, which convert rotational force into linear motion.

5.8.6 Soft Actuators

- **Principle**: Composed of elastomeric polymers embedded in flexible materials (like cloth or paper).
- How It Works: Molecular-level changes in soft materials create visible deformations.
- Characteristics: Used in robotics for handling delicate tasks like harvesting or medical procedures.
- Example: Robotic arms in surgeries, designed to manipulate fragile tissues without damage.

5.8.7 Shape Memory Polymers (SMP)

- **Principle**: Smart materials that respond to external stimuli by changing shape, then revert to their original form when the stimulus is removed.
- **How It Works**: SMPs are engineered to respond to triggers like light, heat, pH, or magnetic fields, allowing shape transformation.
- Characteristics: Highly responsive, with features like high strain recovery, biocompatibility, and biodegradability.
- **Example**: Light-activated polymers (LAPs) change shape in response to specific light frequencies and can be remotely controlled without physical contact.

5.9 Actuator Characteristics

Selecting the right actuator in an IoT system is crucial, as actuators perform the physically demanding tasks necessary to move, rotate, or alter the state of objects. The long-term success and reliability of an IoT deployment can be impacted by the characteristics of the actuators used. Four key characteristics define actuators and influence their selection: Weight, Power Rating, Torque-to-Weight Ratio, and Stiffness and Compliance.

1. Weight

- Impact: The physical weight of an actuator affects its applicability and usability in different scenarios.
- Use Cases:

- o **Heavier Actuators**: Preferred for stationary industrial applications where mobility is not required. Heavier systems provide stability and are often used for tasks involving high forces.
- Lightweight Actuators: Ideal for portable or mobile systems such as drones, vehicles, or consumer IoT devices. Lightweight actuators reduce power consumption and increase portability.
- **Special Cases**: There are instances where heavier actuators are used in mobile applications, like aircraft landing gears or engine motors, due to the specific requirements of those applications.

2. Power Rating

- **Definition**: The power rating indicates the range of operating power an actuator can handle without damage. This rating is usually expressed as the power-to-weight ratio.
- **Application**: The power rating determines an actuator's suitability for specific applications and whether it can be powered by typical IoT energy sources.
 - Low Power Rating: Small servomotors with ratings around 5VDC, 500mA are common in hobby projects and can be powered by battery sources.
 - High Power Rating: Industrial-grade servomotors might have ratings like 460VAC, 25A, requiring a standalone power supply.
- Consideration: Exceeding an actuator's power rating can lead to performance issues or even motor burnout, so power requirements must match the actuator's rating for reliable operation.

3. Torque-to-Weight Ratio

- **Definition**: This ratio is the torque (rotational force) produced relative to the actuator's weight.
- **Significance**: The torque-to-weight ratio provides insight into the sensitivity and efficiency of an actuator. A higher ratio generally implies greater sensitivity.
 - Higher Weight of Moving Parts: Results in a lower torque-to-weight ratio for a given power, making the actuator less sensitive.
- **Application**: Actuators with higher torque-to-weight ratios are often needed in precision applications where slight movements or adjustments are required.

4. Stiffness and Compliance

- Definition:
 - Stiffness: The resistance of a material or actuator against deformation.

o **Compliance**: The opposite of stiffness, indicating flexibility or the ability to deform under load.

• Implications:

- o **Stiff Systems**: More accurate and have faster response times, often used in high-precision applications. Hydraulic systems are an example of stiff, non-compliant systems.
- o **Compliant Systems**: More flexible and can absorb more force, making them suitable for applications where adaptability is more critical than rigidity, such as pneumatic systems.
- **Applications**: Stiffness and compliance determine the actuator's appropriateness in environments that demand either precision (stiffness) or flexibility (compliance).