

SENSORS, INSTRUMENTS AND EXPERIMENTATION

Introduction by Ashok Ranade

Syllabus

Introduction to construction and characteristics of sensors. Experiments involving application of sensors for physical quantities like temperature, pressure, force, torque, strain, velocity, acceleration, linear and angular speed and displacement, volumetric and mass flow rates, illumination, and sound level etc. Introduction to calibration of sensors and data acquisition system

Basic Mechanical measuring instruments: Vernier caliper: Micrometer: Coordinate Measuring Machine: Pressure

Books

- Principles and applications of Electrical Engineering
Fifth Edition
By Giorgio Rizzoni
McGraw-Hill (India)
- References on the net

Examination scheme

- Quiz 1 : 11%
- Mid term test: 22%
- Quiz 2 : 6%
- Assignments : 11%
- Project: 15%
- Final examination open book and on LMS 35%

Grade Rubric

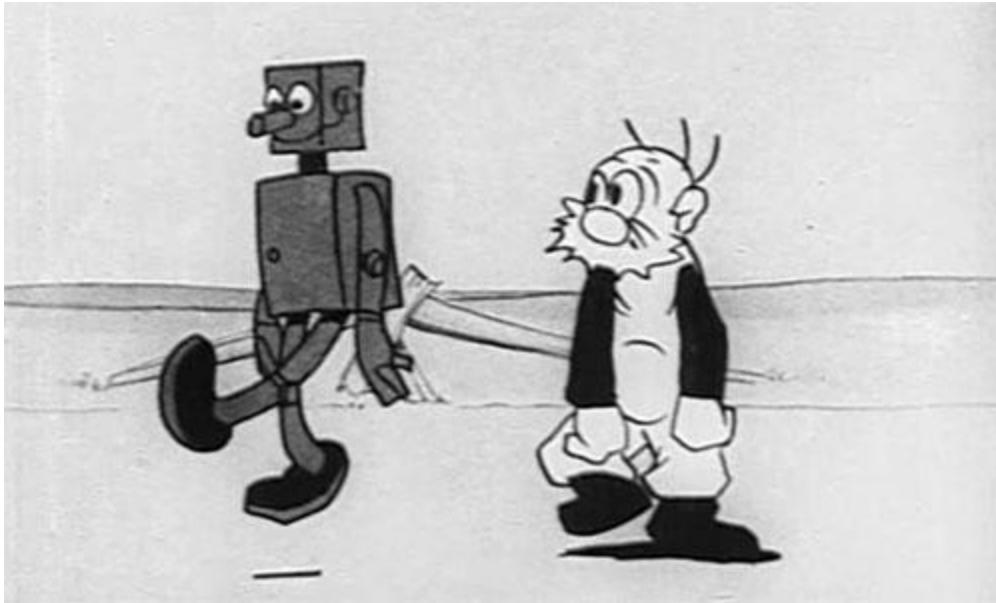
Absolute grading

Measurement and control systems

- Engineering applications require measurement and control of physical quantities
- ❖ Satellite communications
- ❖ Antenna position



Robot position



Other Examples

- Measurement and control of temperature of oven



- Control of Flow in flood control



Transducers

- Capable of converting one physical quantity into another type of physical quantity
- The device which converts a non-electrical quantity into an electric quantity is called a sensor
- Examples

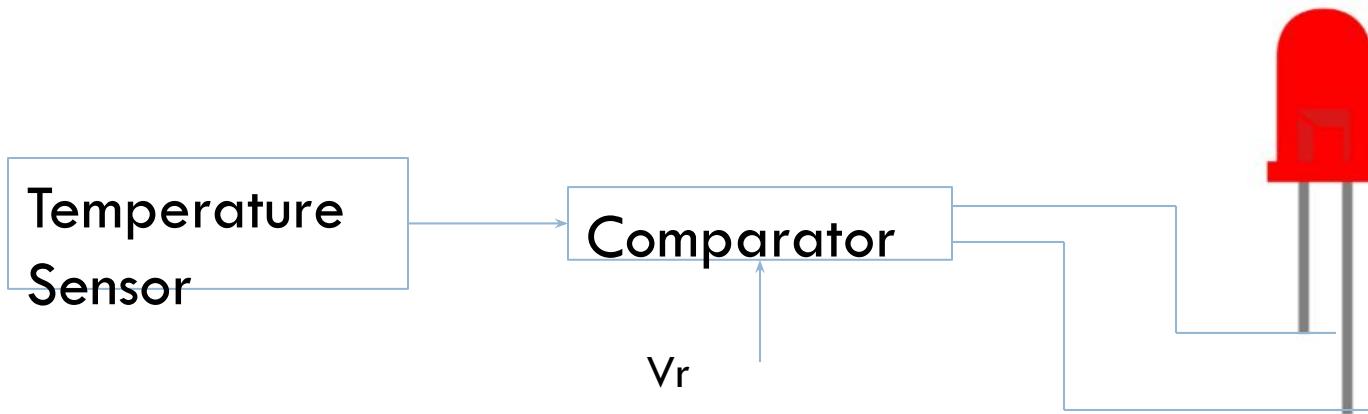
Thermocouple

Microphone

- The device which converts an electrical quantity into a non electrical quantity is called actuator
- Heater

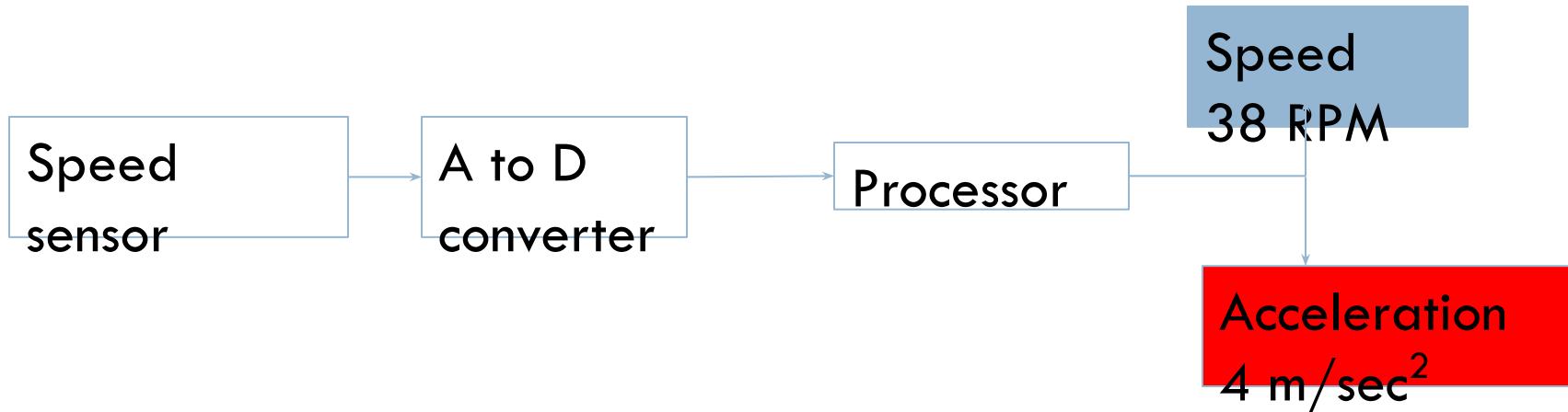
An application

- Temperature alarm



One more application

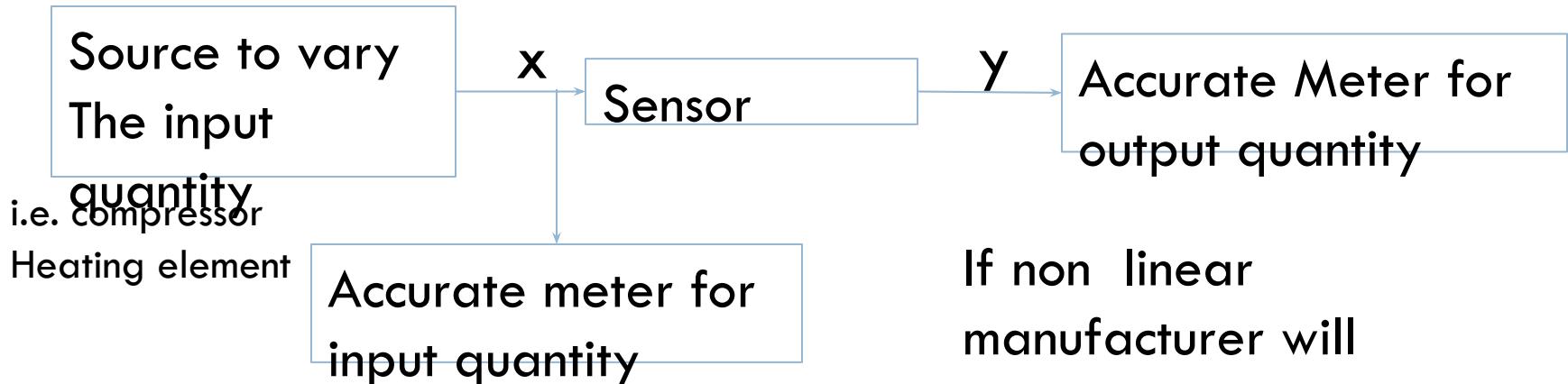
- Speed and acceleration measurement



Input output characteristics of a sensor

- Manufacturers specify the sensor characteristics
- x is the input
- y is the output
- $y = f(x)$

Sensor calibration



often a graph is provided by the manufacturer

If non linear
manufacturer will
also provide
polynomial equation
If approximately linear,
best fit line is given.

Curve fitting

- This is the process of finding a suitable equation between y and x when table of values of x and y is known.

- Often a polynomial is found

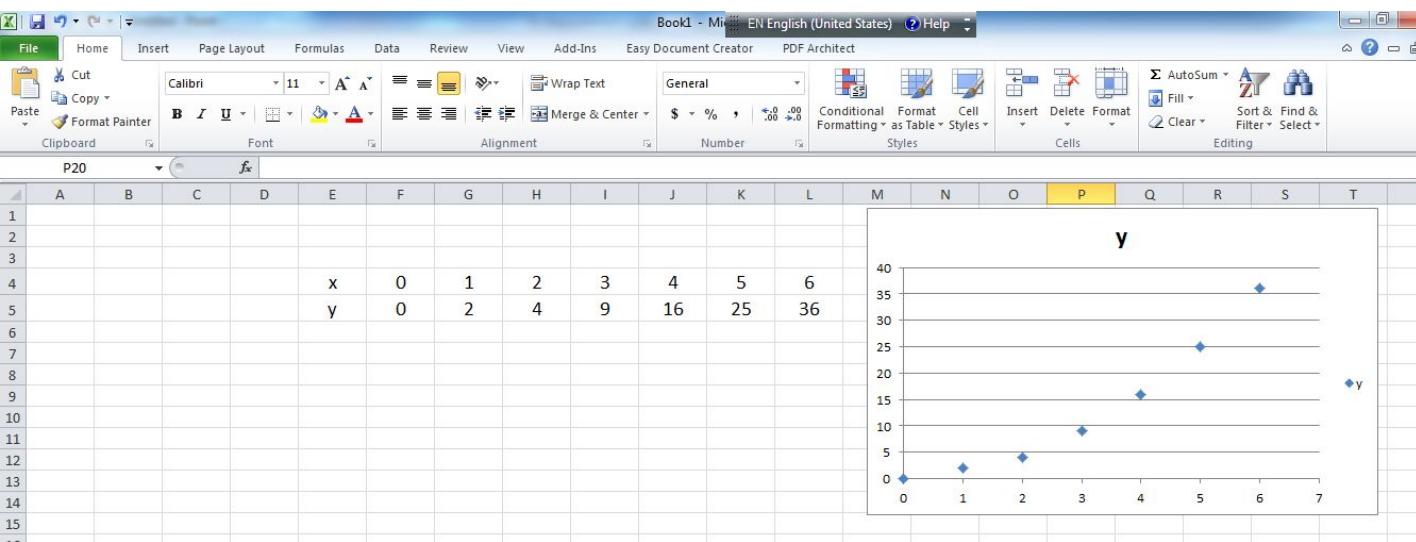
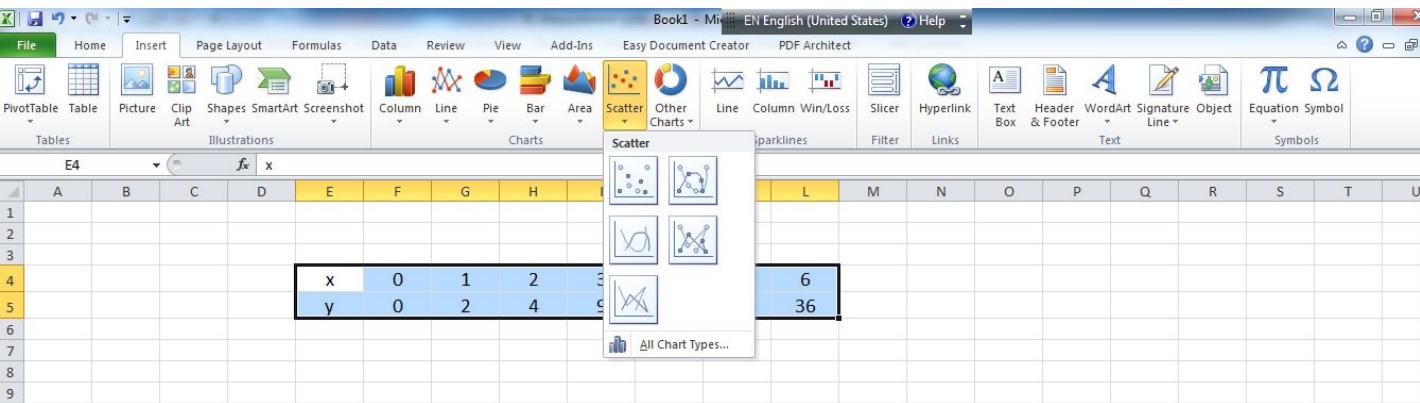
$$y = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + \dots + a_nx^n$$

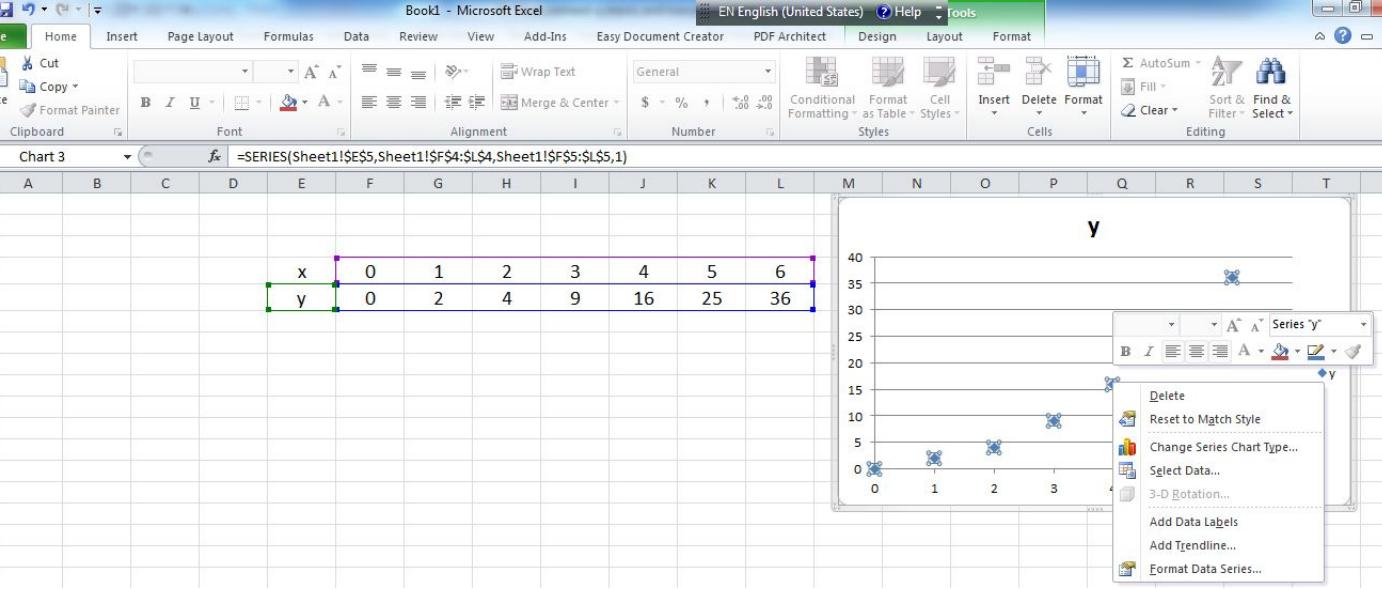
- The curve fitting will give the values of constants a_0, a_1 etc
- Other equations are also possible
- Many programming languages have the function for curve fitting
- Excel also has the facility

A screenshot of Microsoft Excel showing a 2x7 grid of numbers. The grid is defined by a selection handle in the bottom-right corner. The data is as follows:

	x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
y	0	2	4	9	16	25	36	

	x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
	y	0	2	4	9	16	25	36





Format Trendline

Trendline Options

Line Color
Line Style
Shadow
Glow and Soft Edges

Trendline Options

Trend/Regression Type

Exponential
 Linear
 Logarithmic
 Polynomial Order: 2
 Power
 Moving Average Period: 2

Trendline Name

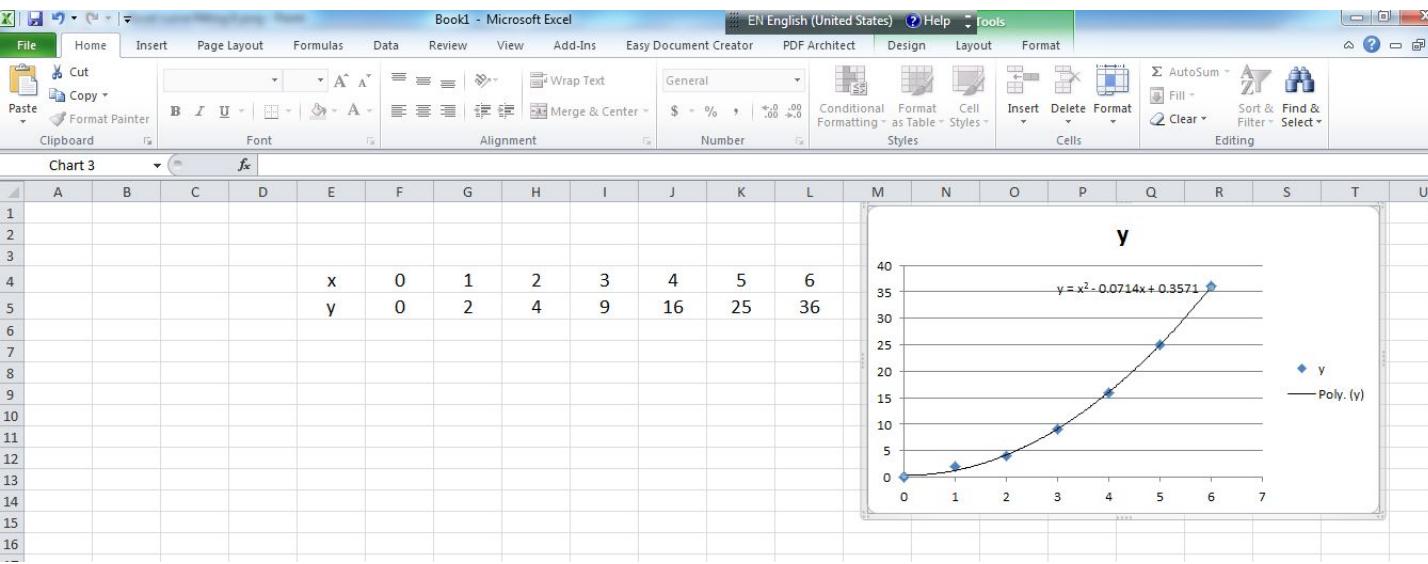
Automatic : Poly. (y)
 Custom:

Forecast

Forward: periods
Backward: periods

Set Intercept =
 Display Equation on chart
 Display R-squared value on chart

Close



Class Exercise 1

Let x vary from 0 to 1 with increment of 0.1

$$\text{Let } y = x^3$$

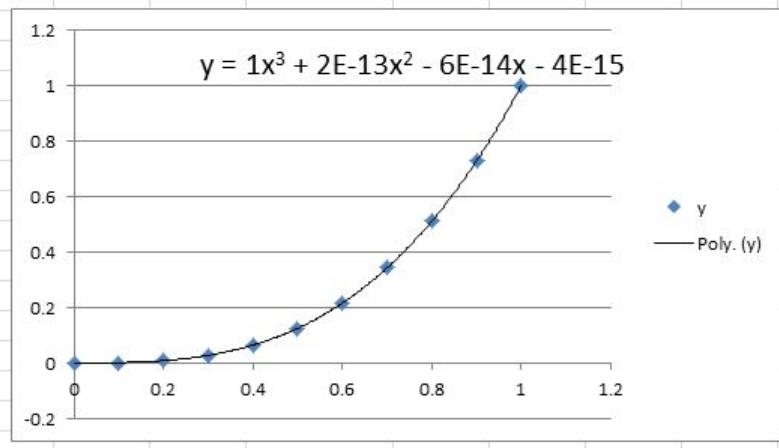
In Excel calculate y for each value of x and find the polynomial for y in terms of x . It will be close to x^3 .

Calculate y using the polynomial and compare with original values

Solution to Exercise 1

Class Exercise 1 Lecture 1

x	0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1
y	0	0.001	0.008	0.027	0.064	0.125	0.216	0.343	0.512	0.729	1
y calculated	-4E-15	1E-03	0.008	0.027	0.064	0.125	0.216	0.343	0.512	0.729	1



Class Exercise 2

Let x vary from 0 to 1 with increment of 0.1

Let $y = \sqrt{x}$

In Excel calculate y for each value of x and find
the polynomial for y in terms of x . Calculate y using
the polynomial and compare with original values.

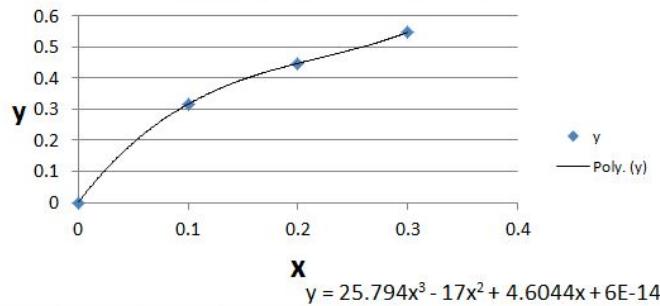
Experiment with two or more trend-lines for more
accurate results

Solution to Exercise 2

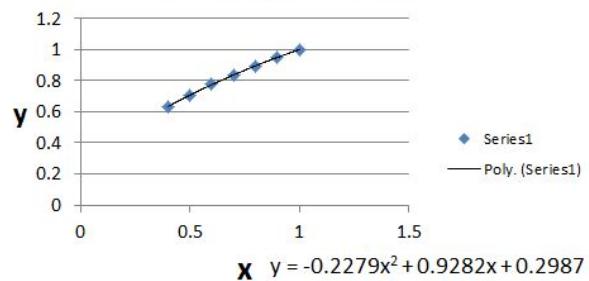
Solution for Class assignment 2 Lecture 1

x	0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1
y	0	0.316	0.447	0.548	0.632	0.707	0.775	0.837	0.894	0.949	1
y calculated	6E-14	0.316	0.447	0.548	0.634	0.706	0.774	0.837	0.895	0.949	0.999

Trendline for $x = 0$ to $x = 0.3$



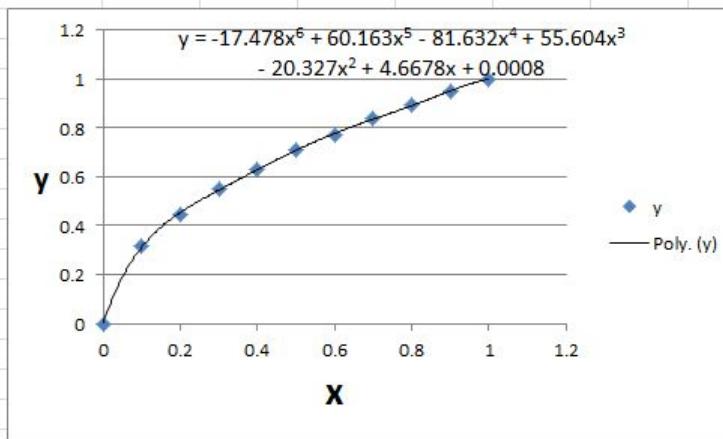
Trendline for $x = 0.4$ to $x = 1$



More error with single trendline

A single trend line with 6th order polynomial

x	0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	1
y	0	0.316	0.447	0.548	0.632	0.707	0.775	0.837	0.894	0.949	1
y calculated	0.0008	0.312	0.454	0.545	0.629	0.708	0.778	0.836	0.891	0.951	0.999



SENSORS INSTRUMENTS AND EXPERIMENTATION

02 Some aspects of
instrument design and errors
in measurements

By Ashok Ranade

Analog Instrument

- Suppose we want to build an analog temperature measuring instrument with range of 0 to 100 degree C, using a given sensor and a voltmeter
- Sensor characteristics are 10mV/degree C
- Output of sensor is 1 volt at 100 degrees so for full scale deflection the amplifier with gain 5 is required



Calibrating the meter



$$V_o = 0.05T$$

$$T = V_o / 0.05$$

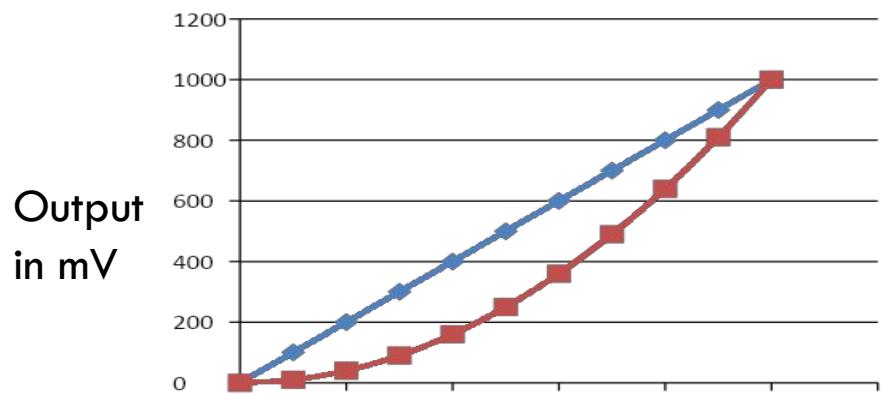
V _o	T
0	0
1	20
2	40
3	60
4	80
5	100

Linear and non linear

x	Temp	y ₁ (mV)	y ₂ (mV)
0	0	0	0
10	100	100	10
20	200	200	40
30	300	300	90
40	400	400	160
50	500	500	250
60	600	600	360
70	700	700	490
80	800	800	640
90	900	900	810
100	1000	1000	1000

$$y_1 = 10x$$

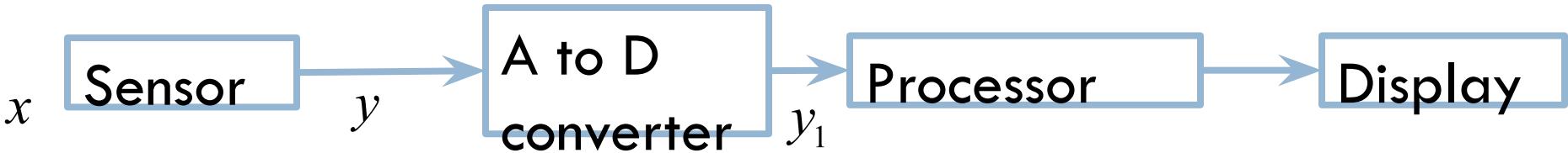
$$y_2 = 0.1x^2$$



Temperature in
degrees Centigrade

Scale is crowded at low temperatures for non
linear sensor for analog display

Digital Instrument



$$y_1 = kx$$

$$x = \frac{y_1}{k}$$

Easy calculation
for linear sensor

$$y_1 = k x^2$$

$$x = \sqrt{\frac{y_1}{k}}$$

Difficult calculation
for non-linear sensor

In general

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= f(x) \\ x &= f^{-1}(y_1) \end{aligned}$$

Table look up can
be used instead
of solving the
equation. Will
need memory.

Algorithm for the Digital instrument

- (1) Read y_1
- (2) calculate $x = f^{-1}(y_1)$ or get x from look up table
- (3) Send to display
- (4) Delay
- (5) Go to (1)

Class Exercise 2.1

A force sensor has input output characteristics given by

$$V = 2\sqrt{F}$$

Where V is the output voltage and F is the force in Newtons

We wish to build an analog Force meter which uses a voltmeter of the range 0-10 volts. The calibration should be valid for the force range from 0 to 10 Newtons. (Full scale). So in your block diagram you have Force sensor and 0 – 10 dc voltmeter. What else you need? Think and design the complete block diagram for the meter . Show the calibration so that you get one decimal digit accuracy.

Solution to Exercise 2.1

We have $V = 2\sqrt{F}$

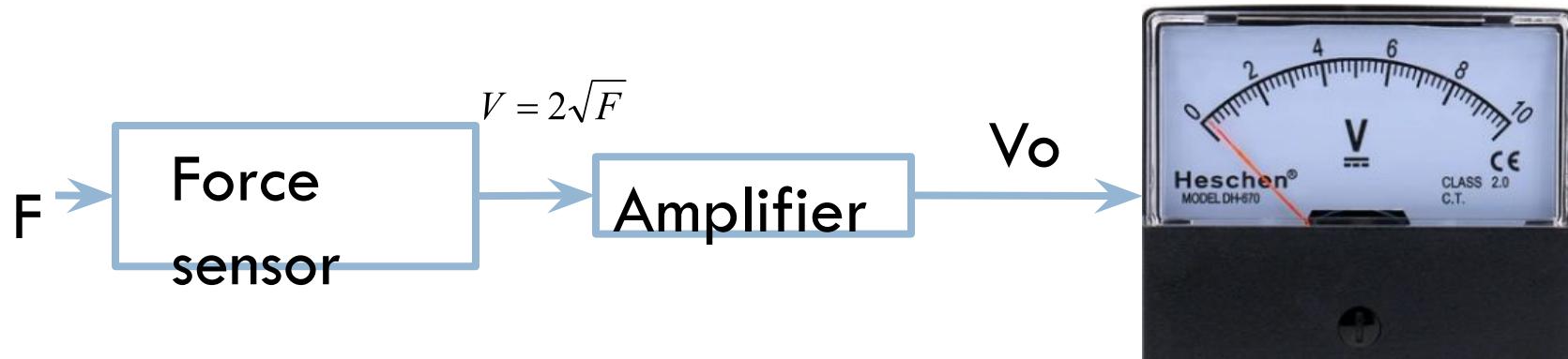
So when $F = 10$ Newtons

$$V = 6.324555 \text{ volts}$$

Clearly we can not get full scale deflection if we connect the output of sensor to the voltmeter. So we need an amplifier with gain = $10/6.324555$

$$= 1.581139$$

Block diagram



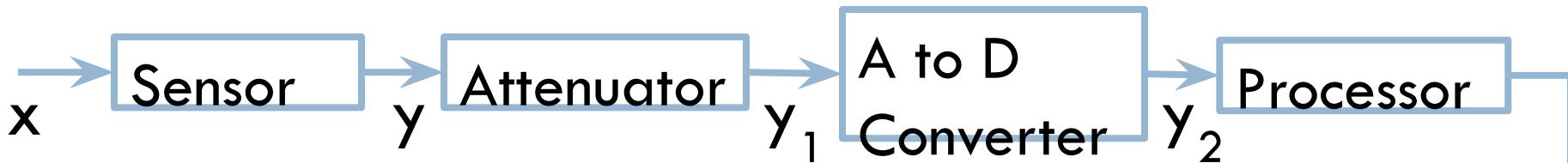
Calibration

F	V	Vo
0	0	0
0.1	0.632	1
0.5	1.414	2.2
1	2	3.2
2	2.828	4.5
3	3.464	5.5
4	4	6.3
5	4.472	7.1
6	4.899	7.7
7	5.292	8.4
8	5.657	8.9
9	6	9.5
10	6.325	10



Exercise 2.2

Consider the block diagram below



x	Y(Volts)
0	15
3	2

8 bit A to D converter is used and range of input voltage to ADC is 0 to 5 volts. Obtain the expression for x in terms of y_2 that processor will use

Display x

Solution to Exercise 2.2

$$y = mx + C$$

$$m = \frac{-(15-2)}{3-0} = \frac{-13}{3}$$

$$y = \frac{-13}{3}x + C$$

At $x = 0$ $y = 15$

Hence $C = 15$

$$y = \frac{-13}{3}x + 15$$

Since ADC accepts the maximum input of 5 volts $y_1 = y/3$

$$y_1 = \frac{-13}{9}x + 5$$

Since ADC is 8 bit its output ranges from 0 to 255. And 255 corresponds to $y_1 = 5$. Also ADC is linear so Substituting for y_1 and rearranging we get the

$$x = \frac{(y_2 - 255) \times 45}{-255 \times 13}$$

Error in measurements

- What is Error ?

Difference between measured and true value

usually in % of full scale reading

$$Error = \frac{\text{Measured value} - \text{True value}}{\text{True value}} \times 100$$

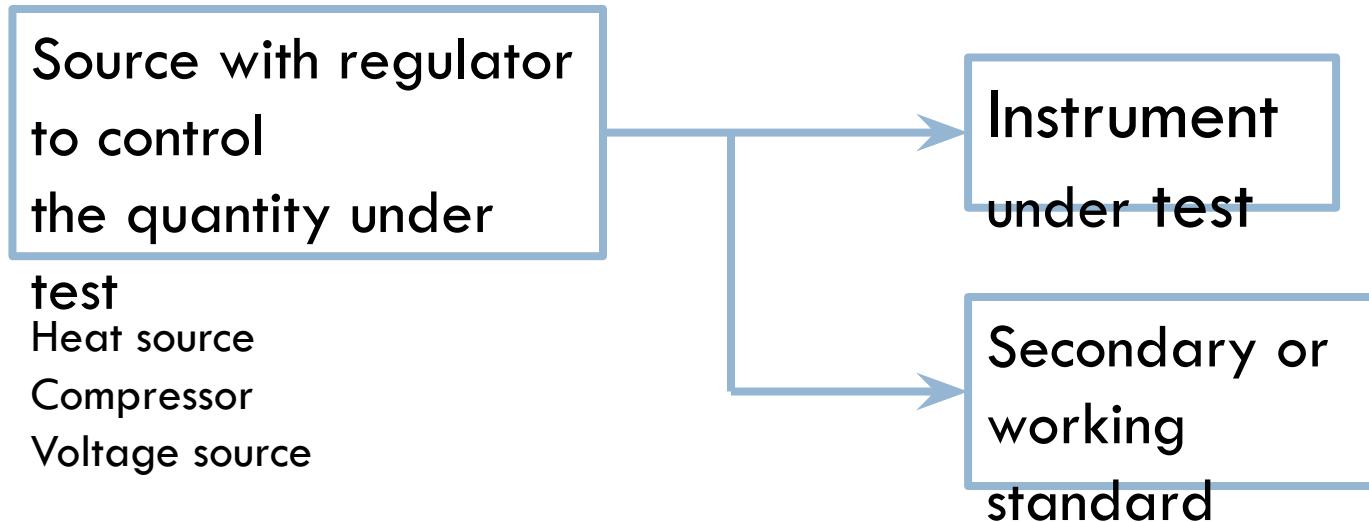
$$Error = \frac{8.2 - 8}{8} \times 100 = 2.5\%$$

- Accuracy

What is a true value ?

- As measured by an instrument without error
This does not exist
- However highly accurate instruments called Primary standards are available
- These are available in International and National laboratories
- Less accurate instruments are calibrated using Primary standards
- These are secondary standards more often used
- Working standards

Calibration procedure



Types of Measurement errors

- Two types of errors

Systematic errors

Due to instrument inaccuracies

Faulty design of an experiment

Repeatable

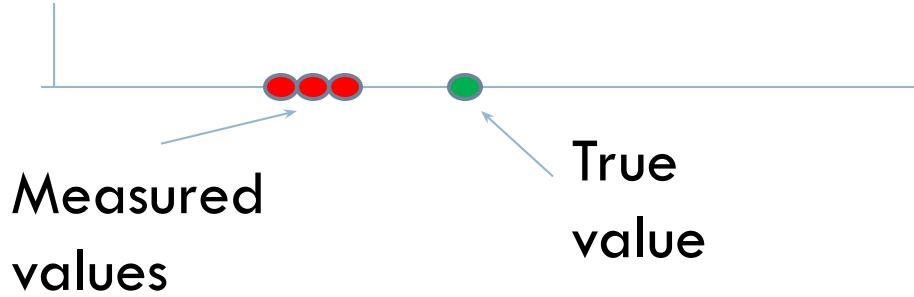
Random errors

Human errors

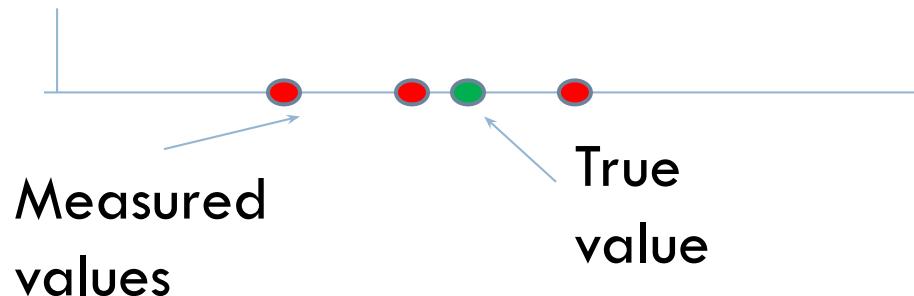
Noise

Not repeatable

Error distributions (Magnitude)

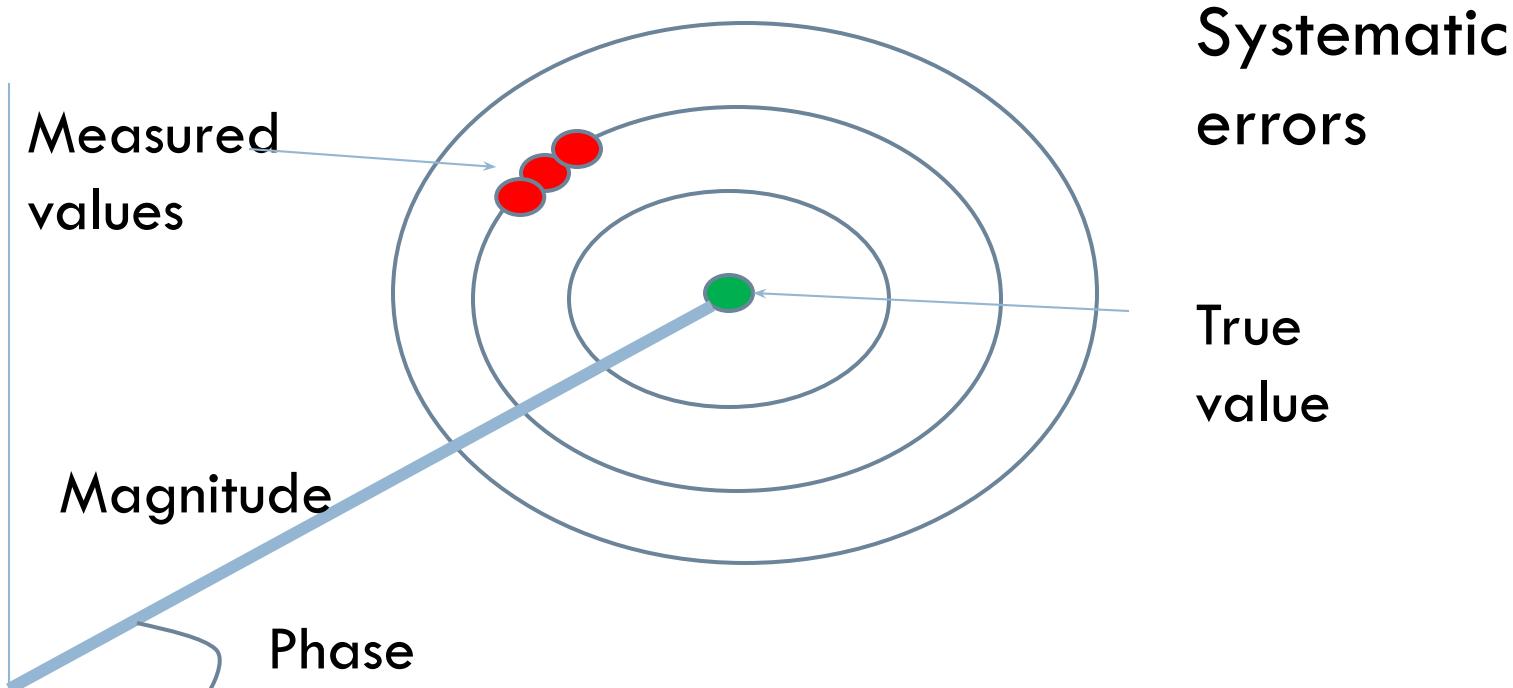


Systematic errors
(Magnitude
measurement)

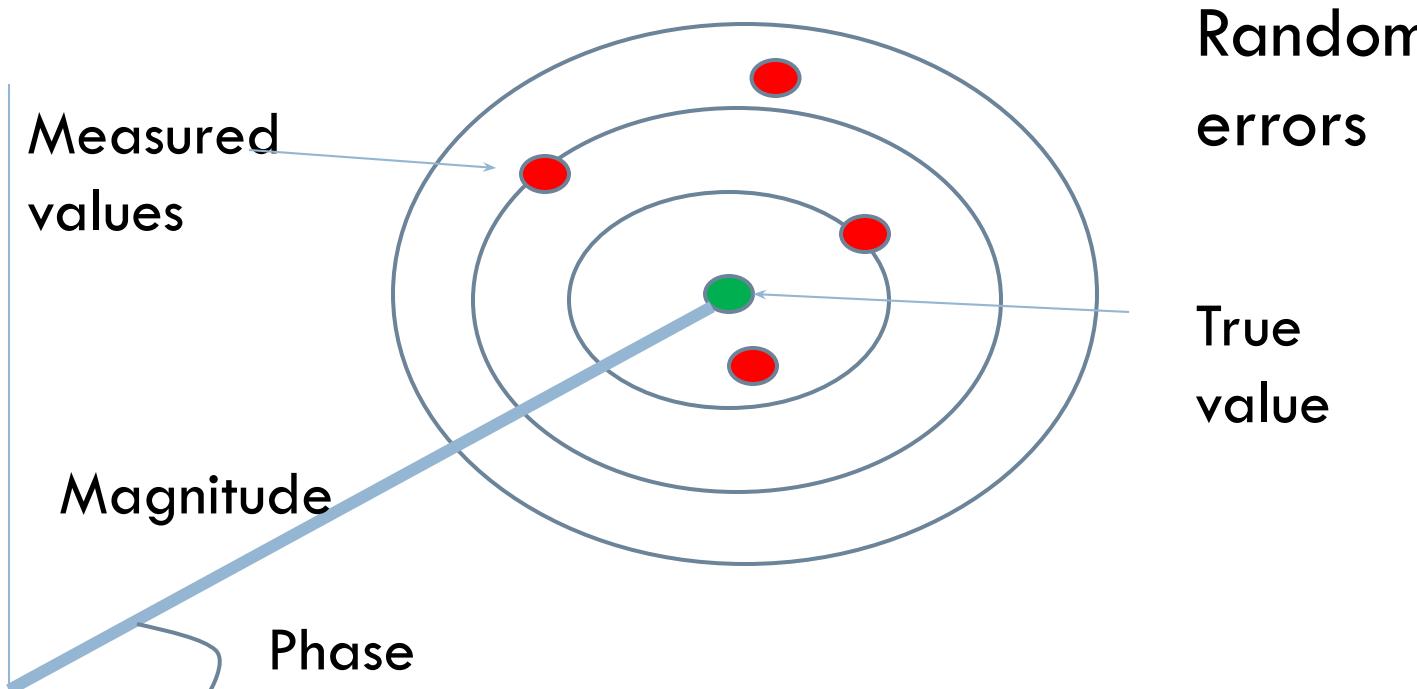


Random Errors

Error distribution (Magnitude and phase)



Error distribution (Magnitude and phase)



Average of many readings

- We will take two examples
 - (1) An object is to be weighed. Then to get better accuracy , it will be weighed many times. Let us say the readings are W_1, W_2, \dots, W_n . And we will take average of these readings

Measuring input-Output Characteristics

(2) We wish to find input – Output characteristics of a device (i.e. Sensor).

Let us say input is denoted by x and output is denoted by y . There is a regulator to set x and we adjust the regulator to set x from x_1 to x_n and measure corresponding y_1 to y_n values.

However for better accuracy , each regulator setting is repeated for , say, n_x times and average of each x and y value is taken.

Average of many measurements

- Many values of the variable, say x , are measured

$$x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$$

x_1 is the average of n_x number of measurements

x_{11}, x_{12} etc are measured values

$$x_1 = \frac{x_{11} + x_{12} + \dots + x_{1n_x}}{n_x}$$

Similar equations
apply for y values

$$x_2 = \frac{x_{21} + x_{22} + \dots + x_{2n_x}}{n_x}$$

$$x_n = \frac{x_{n1} + x_{n2} + \dots + x_{nn_x}}{n_x}$$

Standard Error

- Standard error measures how much discrepancy is likely to be in the sample mean and the population mean.
- Standard deviation measures dispersion of the data set relative to its mean.

$$SD = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_{1i} - \bar{x}_1)^2}{n_x - 1}}$$

is used because \bar{x}_1 is not a true mean but an estimate. So spread is likely to be more

Standard error formula

- It is expected to depend on SD and n. Larger the n closer will be the mean to the true value.

$$SE = \frac{SD}{\sqrt{n_x}}$$

Drill Exercise 2.2

- An object is weighed 7 times. The measured values are shown below. Clearly there are errors. Find the mean value of the weight and the standard error using Excel

Object weight(in KG)
9.9
10.1
10.4
9.8
9.7
10
9.6

Answers

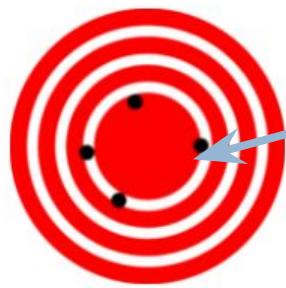
Object weight(in KG)
9.9
10.1
10.4
9.8
9.7
10
9.6

Mean	9.929
Std Dev	0.269
Std Dev (n-1)	0.291
Std Error	0.11

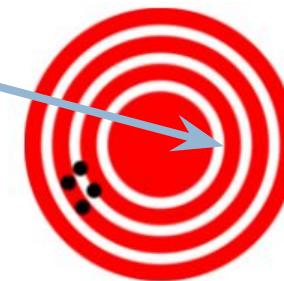
Accuracy and precision

- Precision

degree of reproducibility of a measurement.



Target
location
in GPS



More accurate, Less
precise

Less accurate,
more precise

Resolution

- Smallest measurable increment
A voltmeter capable of measuring minimum value of 1mV has more resolution than the one capable measuring minimum value of 10 mV considering same full scale value for both.

Span and range

- Span : Linear operating range

A temperature transducer may have a linear relation between temperature and output voltage over a temperature range of 0 to 150 degrees centigrade

- Range : The range of measurable values
- Linearity : Conformity to an ideal linear calibration

Non-linearity

- Deviation from the linearity over a specified range

Best fit line

- A practical sensor will have some non-linearity
- Manufacturers specify the best fit line

Linearization of sensor

Data pairs $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$

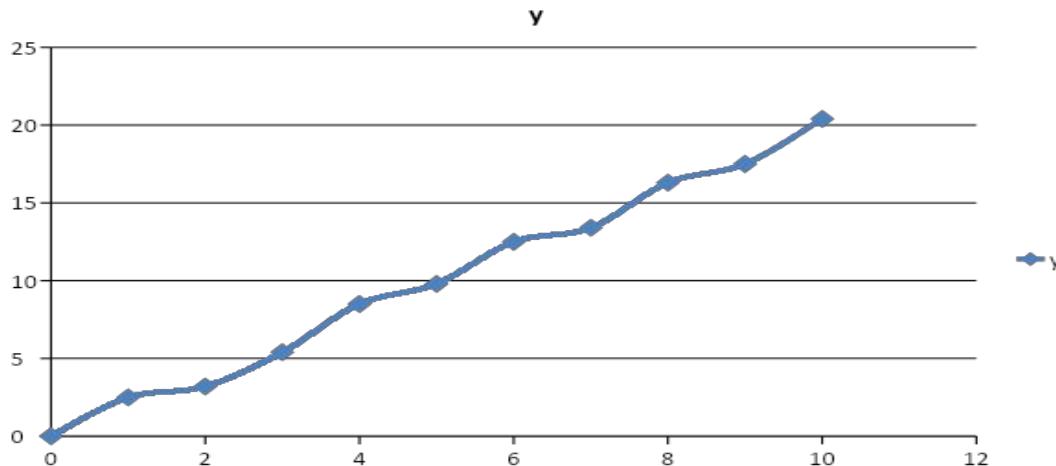
- Least square method

$$y = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{X})(y_i - \bar{Y})}{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{X})^2}$$

$$b = \bar{Y} - m \bar{X}$$

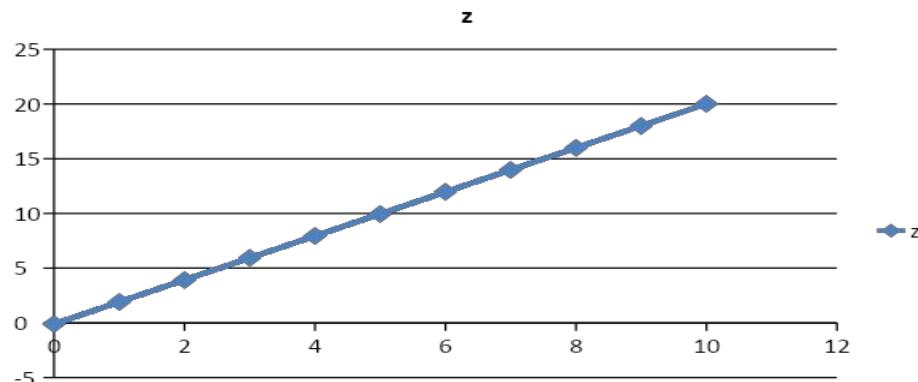
An Example

x	y
0	0
1	2.5
2	3.2
3	5.4
4	8.5
5	9.8
6	12.5
7	13.4
8	16.3
9	17.5
10	20.4

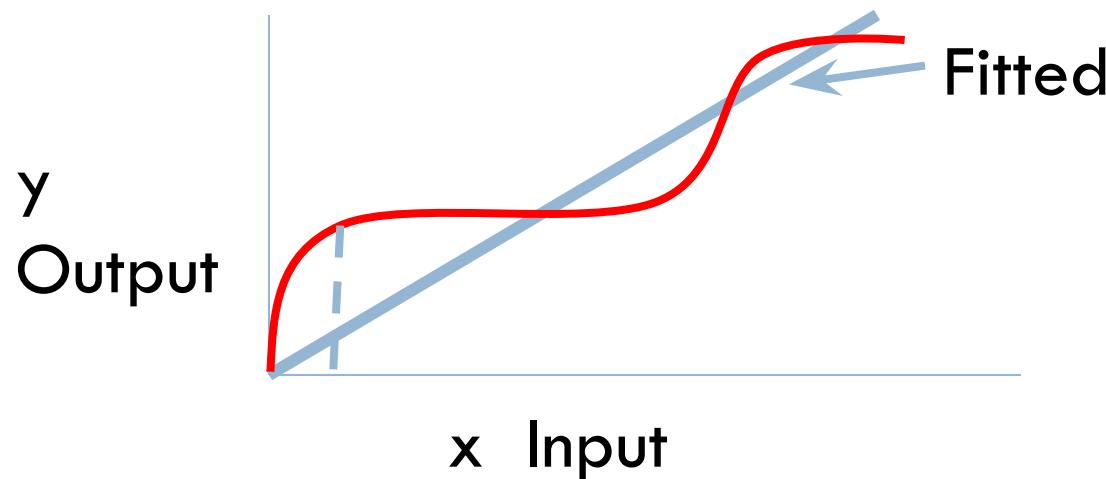


The best fit line

x	y	z
0	0	-0.105
1	2.5	1.907
2	3.2	3.919
3	5.4	5.931
4	8.5	7.943
5	9.8	9.955
6	12.5	11.97
7	13.4	13.98
8	16.3	15.99
9	17.5	18
10	20.4	20.01



Worst case



Max Deviation = Max $|y_{mi} - y_{fi}| : i = 1 \text{ to } n$

y_m is y measured and y_f is y fitted

Most likely deviation

$$\sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_{mi} - y_{fi})^2}{n-2}}$$

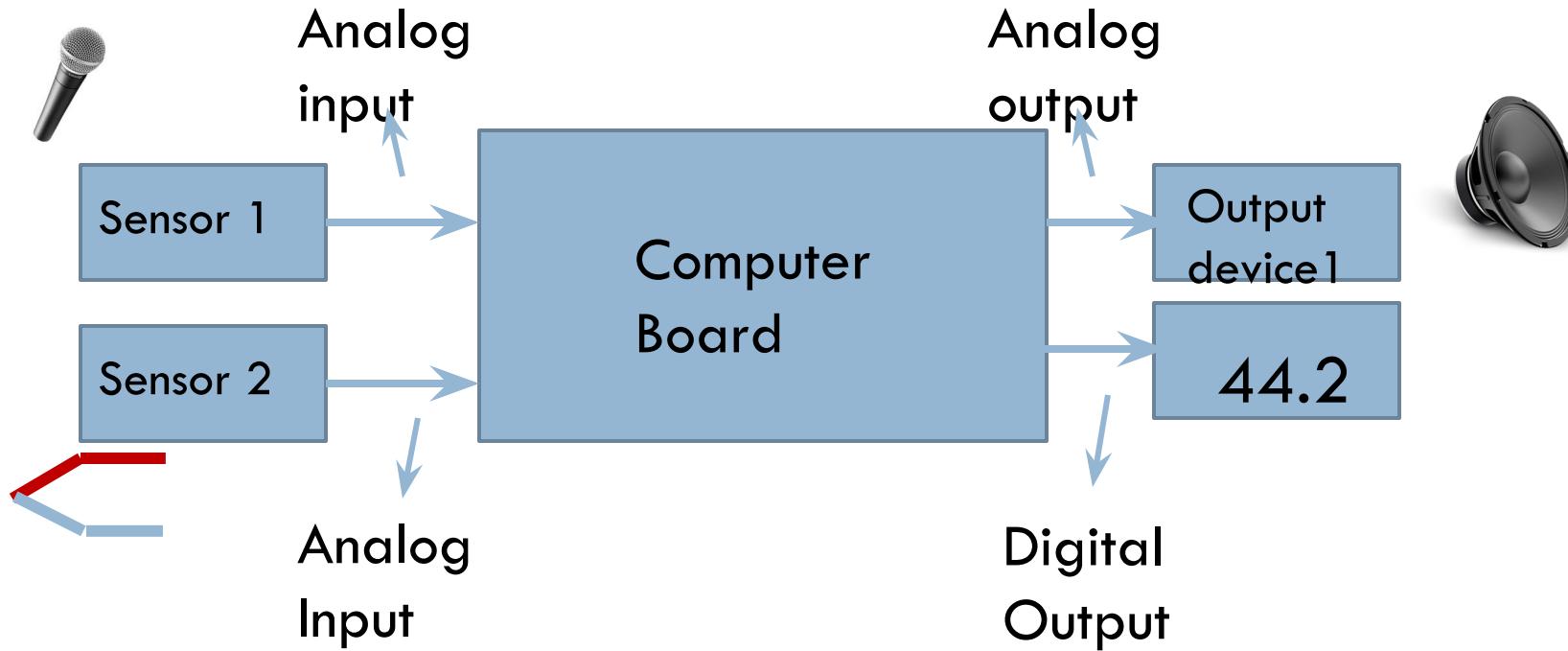
n-2 is used due to two reasons
Measured values are mean of samples and not true values
Two variables are involved in measurement , x and y

SENSORS, INSTRUMENTS AND EXPERIMENTATION

03 Computerized
measurement and control
systems

By Ashok Ranade

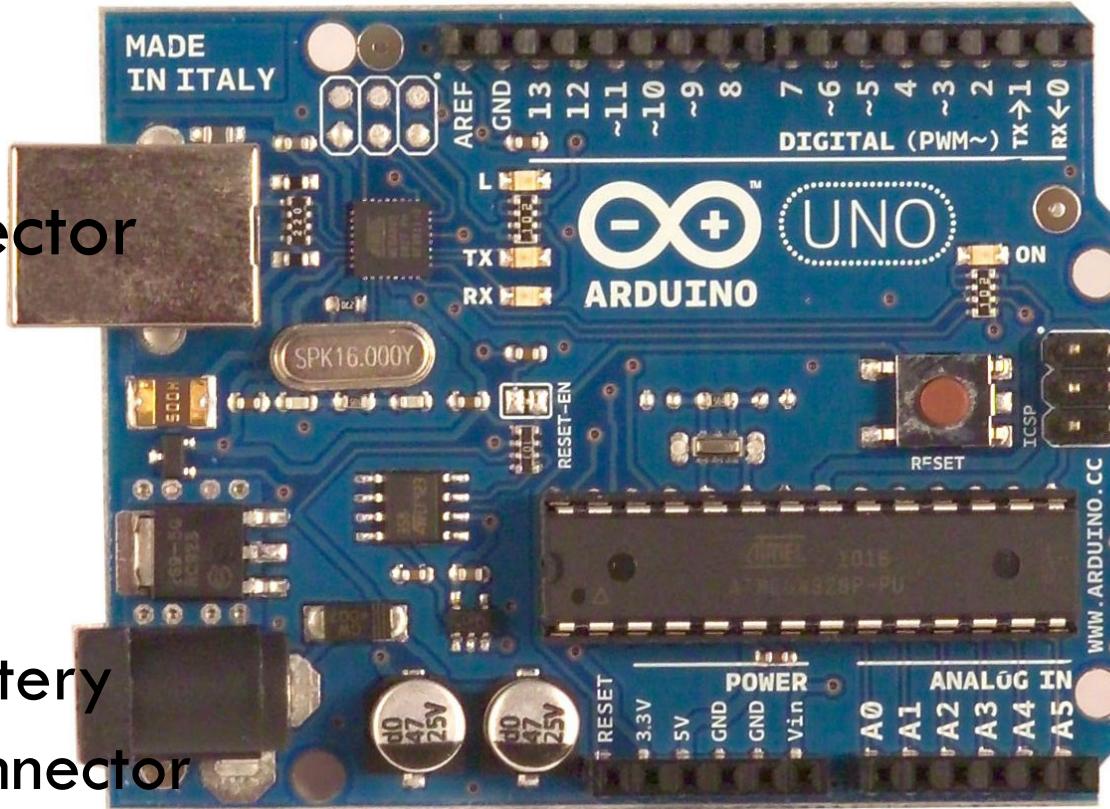
BLOCK DIAGRAM



Development of software

- Software written on a general purpose computer
- Uploaded on the control board
- After this the control board can be used as a stand alone board for some application

USB
Connector



Battery
Connector

Input/Output Pins

- Analog Input (6 pins)

Any value between Vmin to Vmax

For Arduino : 0 to 5 volts

- Digital pins (14)

Digital Input : 0 or 5 volts

Digital Output : 0 or 5 volts

PWM output (6)

Analog output

Analog to digital converter

- Computer uses numbers in binary form
- A/D converter converts analog input into a multibit binary number
- In Arduino it is 10 bit number
- So 0 volts Corresponds to binary 0000000000

decimal 0

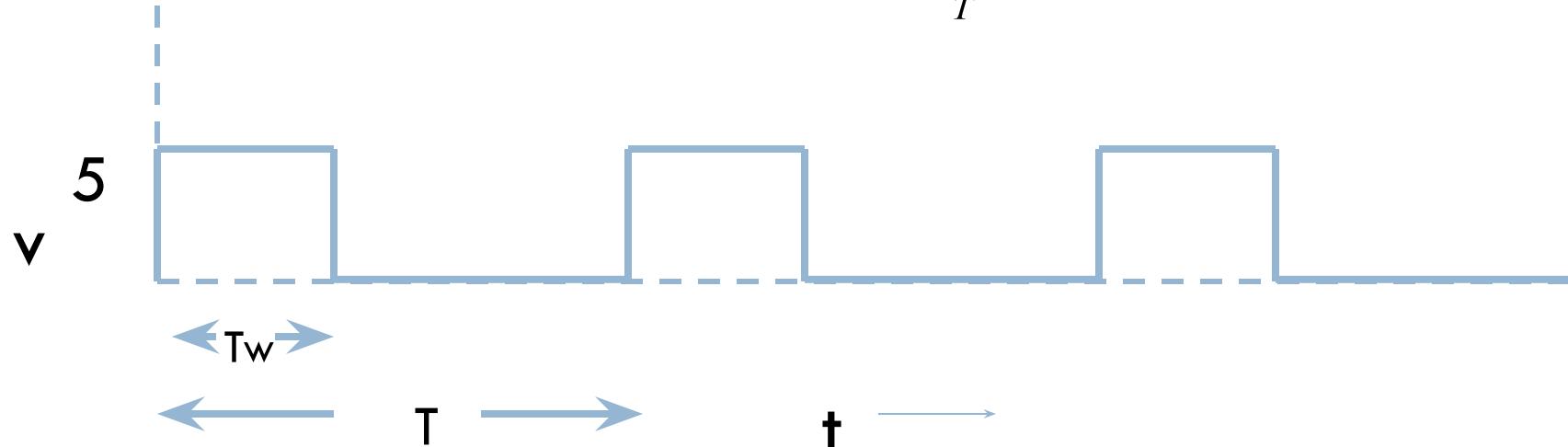
5 volts correspond to binary 1111111111

decimal 1023

Sampling rate of ADC in Arduino

- Sampling rate = 9650 samples/Sec
- Maximum theoretical frequency of the input analog signal is half of this
- Other rates are also possible with advanced programming

PWM waveform



$$Average\ Value = \frac{5 \times T_w}{T}$$

$$Duty\ Cycle = \frac{T_w}{T} \times 100 \quad \%$$

$$Frequency = \frac{1}{T} = 480 \text{ Hz.}$$

Other values are also possible

Control of duty cycle

- PWM : Duty cycle
 - 0% for 00000000 (Decimal 0)
 - 100 % for 11111111 (Decimal 255)

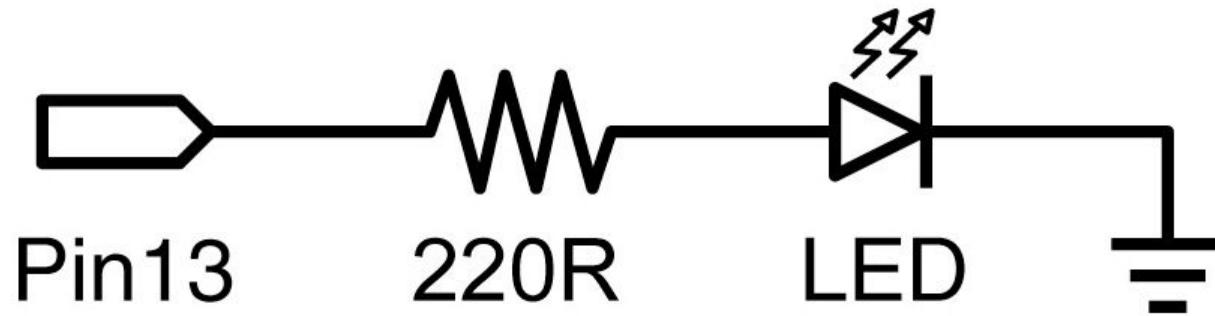
Program structure

Declarations

```
void setup()
{
    statements;
}
```

```
void loop()
{
    statements;
}
```

Program 1 (Blinking LED)



Write a program to blink the LED. Turn it on for 1 second and turn it off for 1 second.

Program 1

```
int ledPin = 13;          // LED on digital pin 13

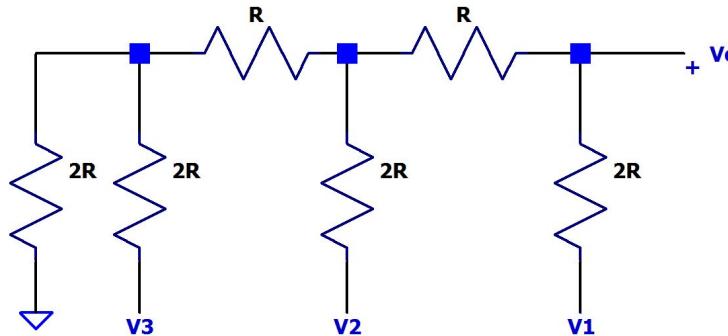
void setup()             // run once
{
    pinMode(ledPin, OUTPUT); // sets pin 13 as output
}

void loop()              // run over and over again
{
    digitalWrite(ledPin, HIGH); // turns the LED on
    delay(1000);           // pauses for 1 second
    digitalWrite(ledPin, LOW); // turns the LED off
    delay(1000);           // pauses for 1 second
}
```

Tinkercad Demo

Class Exercise 3.1

3 Bit D to A converter



$$V_o = V_1/2 + V_2/4 + V_3/8$$

Build in Tinkercad and test. Choose
 $R = 1\text{Kohms}$

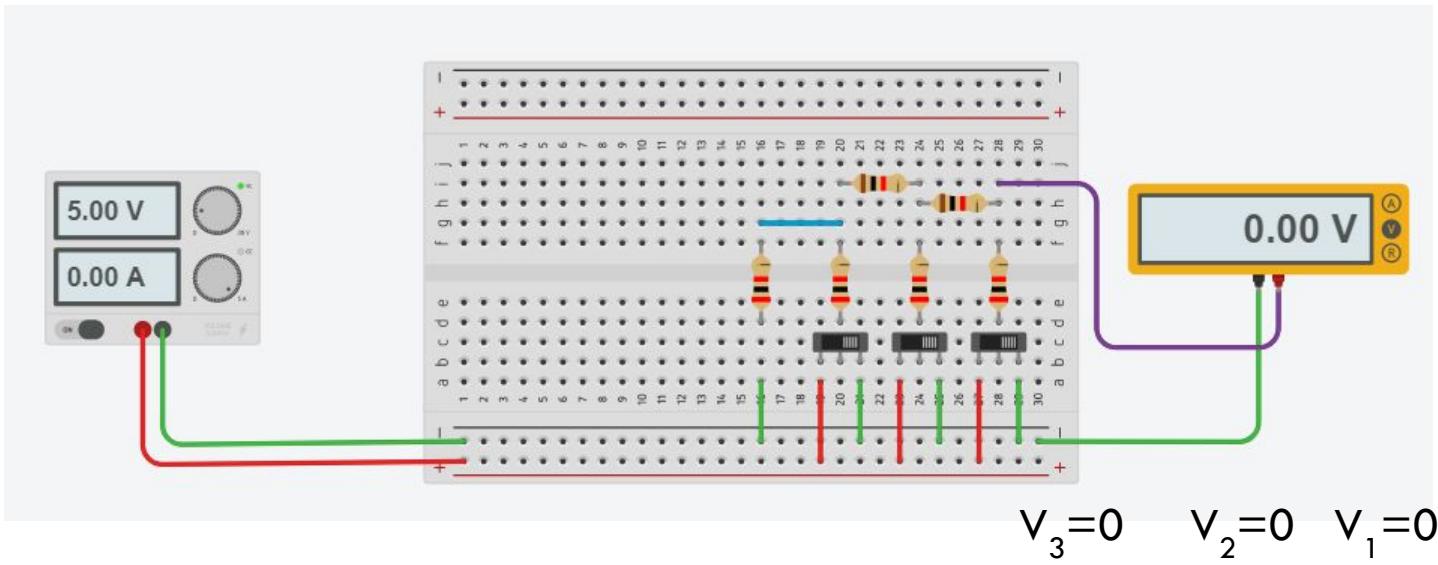
(Other values are also possible).

Use three slide switches to give
digital inputs. Use a multimeter to

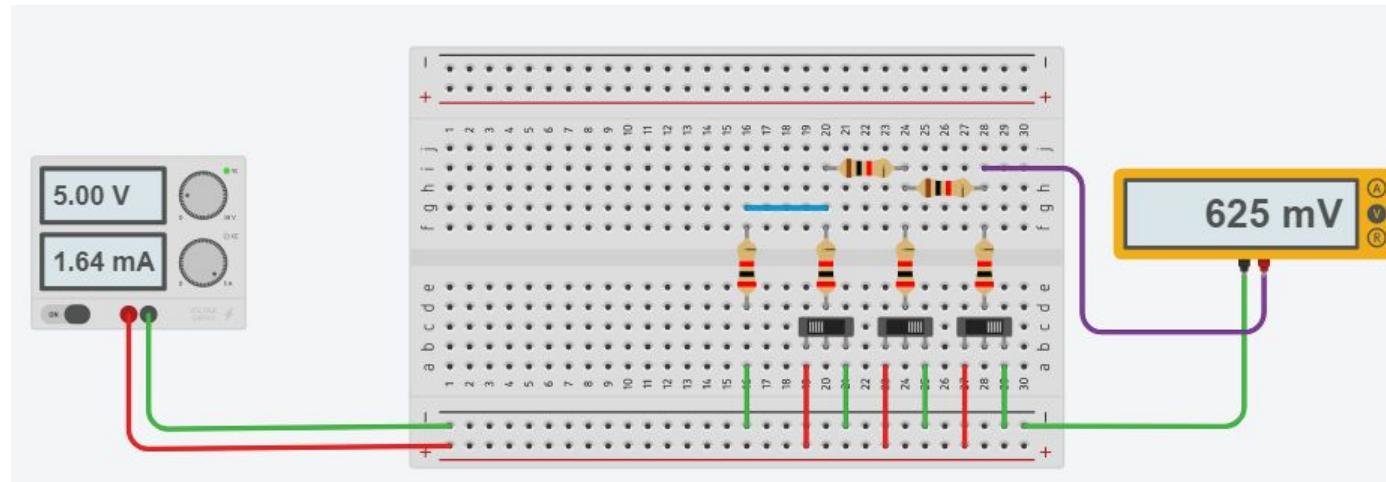
V1	V2	V3	V _o
0	0	0	0
0	0	V	V/8
0	V	0	V/4
0	V	V	3V/8
V	0	0	V/2
V	0	V	5V/8
V	V	0	6V/8
V	V	V	7V/8

Solution follows

All inputs zero

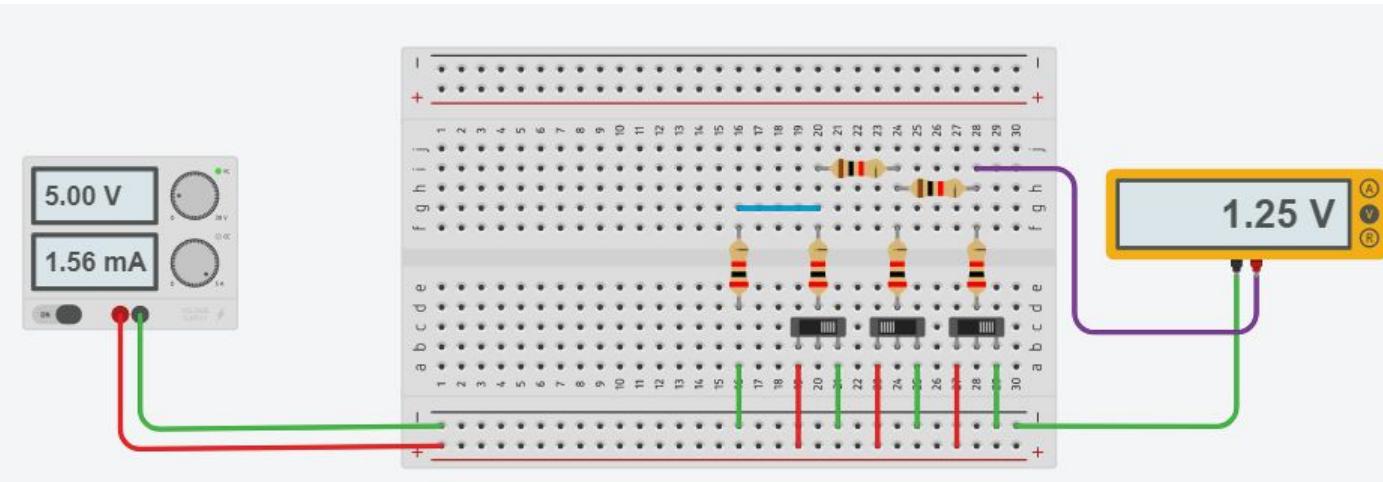


Input 00V



$$V_o = V/8 = 5/8 = 0.625 \text{ volts} = 625 \text{ mVolts}$$

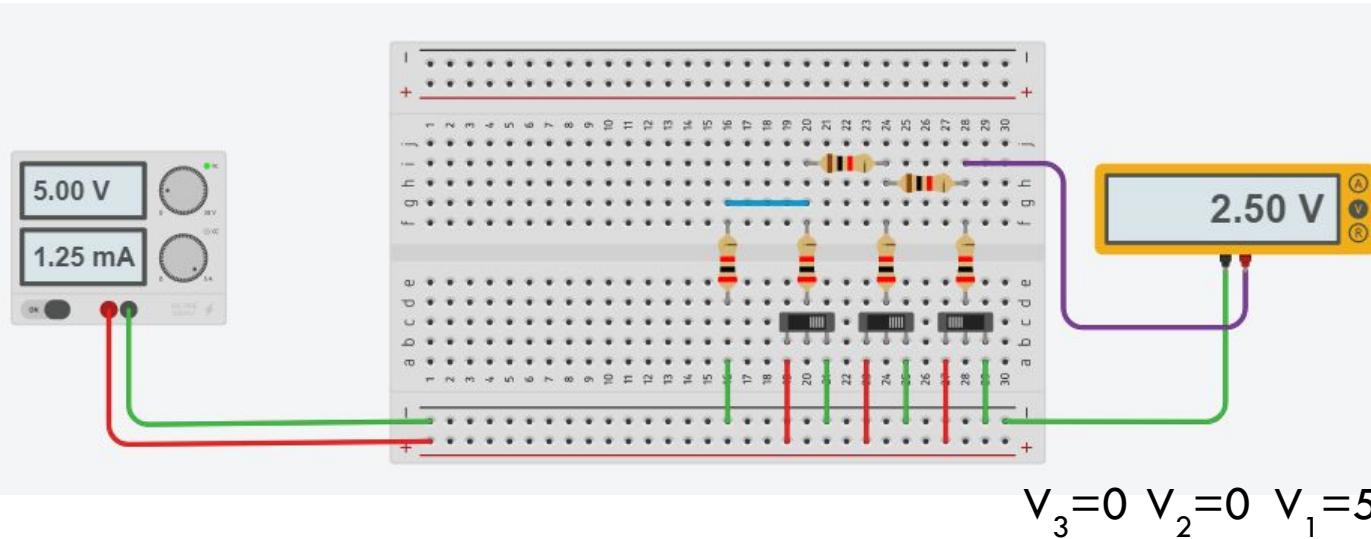
Input OVO



$$V_3 = 0 \quad V_2 = 5 \quad V_1 = 0$$

$$V_o = V/4 = 5/4 = 1.25 \text{ volts}$$

Input V₀₀



$$V_o = V/2 = 5/2 = 2.5 \text{ volts}$$

SENSORS, INSTRUMENTS AND EXPERIMENTATION

04 Arduino exercises

By Ashok Ranade

Digital Read function

- Syntax

`digitalRead(pin)`

- Description

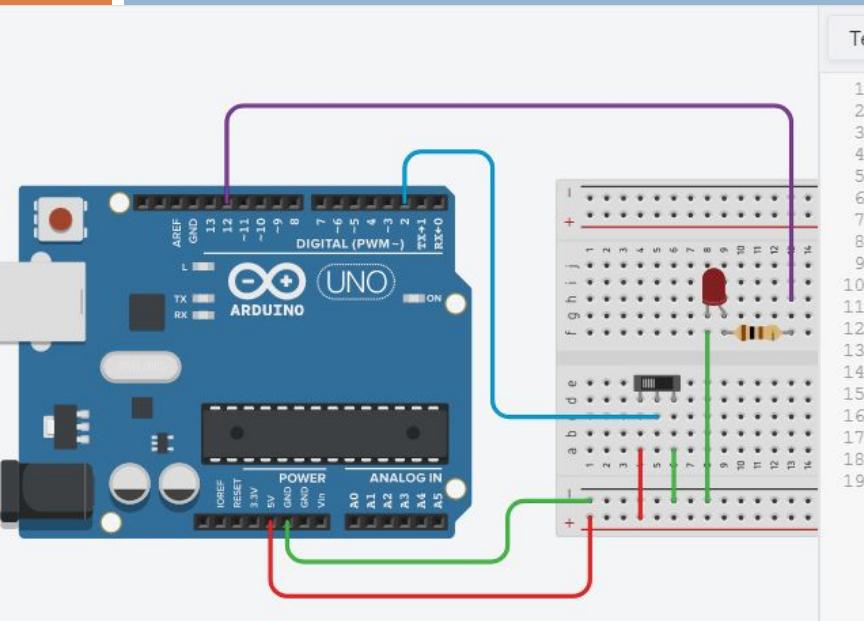
Reads the value from a specified digital pin,
either HIGH or LOW.

- `x = digitalRead(lnpin)`

Class Exercise 4.1

- Write a program to sense a slide switch. If it is connected to +5 , led connected to pin 12 flashes periodically. Otherwise the led remains off.

Tinkercad simulator



The image shows a breadboard setup connected to an Arduino Uno. The breadboard has four columns labeled a, b, c, d and five rows labeled 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. A red wire connects pin 13 of the Arduino to column a1. A blue wire connects pin 8 to column a2. A green wire connects pin 5 to column a3. A black wire connects pin 9 to column a4. A red wire connects pin 12 to column b1. A blue wire connects pin 11 to column b2. A green wire connects pin 10 to column b3. A black wire connects pin 13 to column b4. A red wire connects pin 12 to column c1. A blue wire connects pin 11 to column c2. A green wire connects pin 10 to column c3. A black wire connects pin 9 to column c4. A red wire connects pin 12 to column d1. A blue wire connects pin 11 to column d2. A green wire connects pin 10 to column d3. A black wire connects pin 9 to column d4. A red wire connects pin 12 to column e1. A blue wire connects pin 11 to column e2. A green wire connects pin 10 to column e3. A black wire connects pin 9 to column e4.

Text

```
// C++ code
// 
3 int inPin = 2;
4 void setup()
{
6   pinMode(12, OUTPUT);
7   pinMode(inPin, INPUT);
8 }
9
10 void loop()
11 {
12   if (digitalRead(inPin) == HIGH)
13   {
14     digitalWrite(12, HIGH);
15     delay(1000); // Wait for 1000 millisecond(s)
16     digitalWrite(12, LOW);
17     delay(1000); // Wait for 1000 millisecond(s)
18   }
19 }
```

Analog Read and Serial Communication

- `analogRead(potPin)`
`x = analogRead(potPin);`
`x ranges from 0 to 1023`

This will read the analog voltage from the input pin

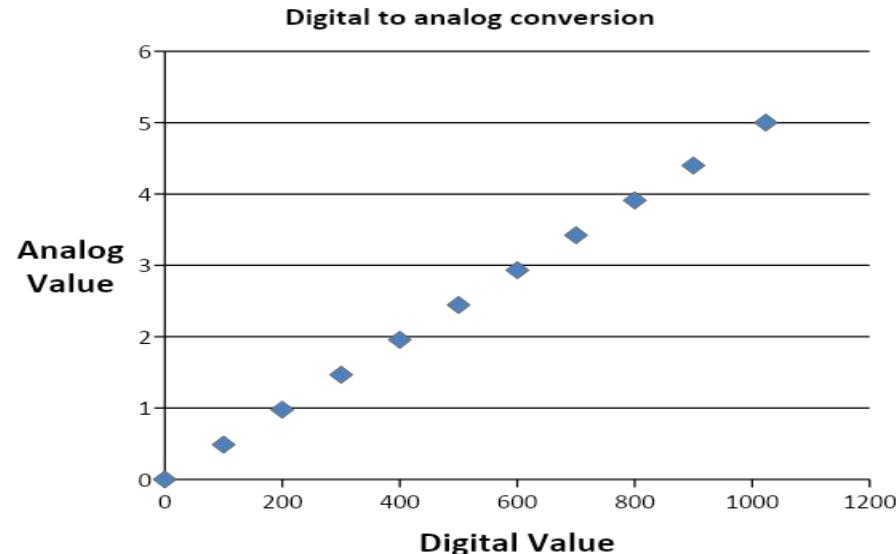
- `Serial.begin(9600)`
This will establish serial communication between computer monitor and Arduino. This is in the set up section.

- `Serial.println("ADC output");`
`Serial.println(x);`

Digital to Analog Conversion calculation

$$\text{Analog Value} = \frac{5}{1023} \times \text{Digital value}$$

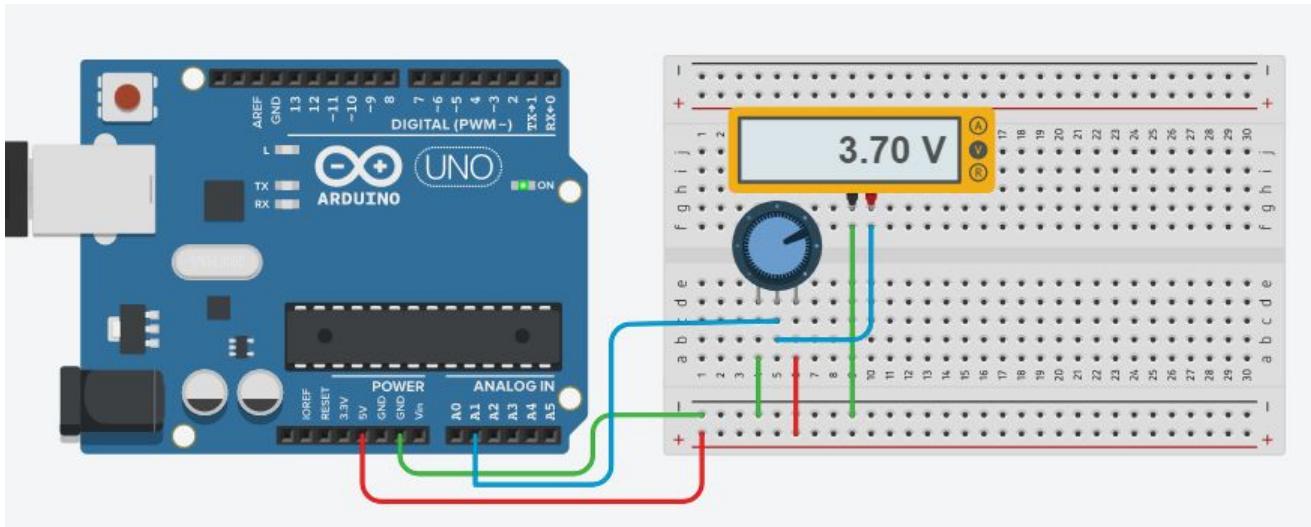
Digital Value	Analog Value
0	0
100	0.488758553
200	0.977517107
300	1.46627566
400	1.955034213
500	2.443792766
600	2.93255132
700	3.421309873
800	3.910068426
900	4.398826979
1023	5



An Exercise 4.2

- A potentiometer is used to generate a voltage varying between 0 and 5 volts.
- The output of the potentiometer is connected to one analog input pin of Arduino. This voltage is measured by a meter.
- Write a program to read the output of the potentiometer. As pot output is varied from 0 to 5 volts, the value read varies from 0 to 1023.
- Next the digital value is converted to analog by using the equation. Both values are displayed on monitor.

Circuit and program



Program

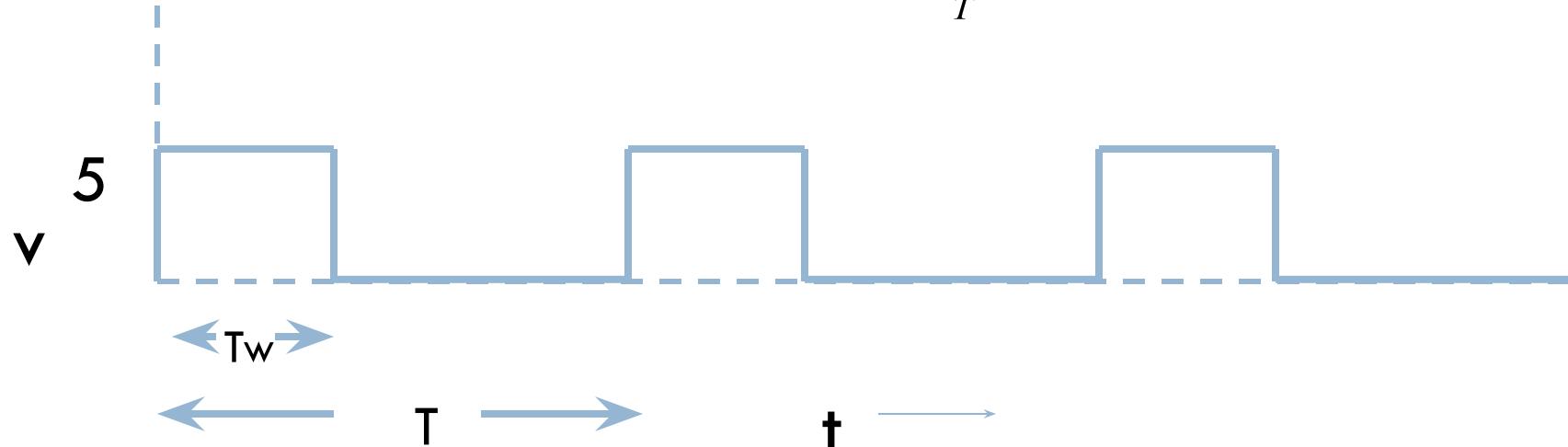
```
int Vi;  
float Vo;  
void setup()  
{  
    Serial.begin(9600);  
}  
}
```

```
void loop()  
{  
    Vi = analogRead(A1);  
    Vo = (5.0/1023.0)*Vi;  
    Serial.println("Digital Value");  
    Serial.println(Vi);  
    Serial.println();  
    Serial.println("Analog Value");  
    Serial.println(Vo);  
    Serial.println();  
    delay(2000);  
}
```

analogWrite function

- Certain digital pins can be used as PWM pins
- `analogWrite(pin number, value);`
 - value is an integer from 0 to 255
 - Decides the duty cycle of the PWM waveform
 - value 0 means 0% duty cycle
 - 255 means 100% duty cycle

PWM waveform



$$Average\ Value = \frac{5 \times T_w}{T}$$

$$Duty\ Cycle = \frac{T_w}{T} \times 100 \quad \%$$

$$Frequency = \frac{1}{T} = 480 \text{ Hz.}$$

Other values are also possible

Average value

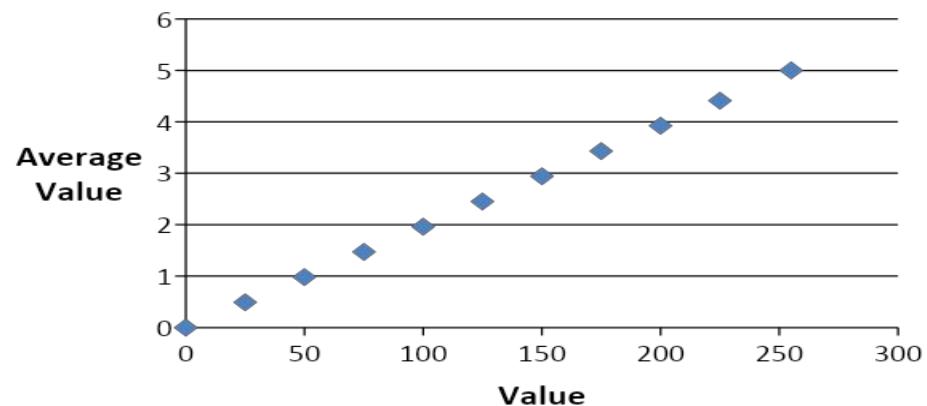
`analogWrite(pin number, value);`

$$\text{Average value} = \frac{5 \times T_w}{T}$$

$$\text{Average value} = \frac{5 \times \text{value}}{255}$$

Value and average value

Value	Average Value
0	0
25	0.490196078
50	0.980392157
75	1.470588235
100	1.960784314
125	2.450980392
150	2.941176471
175	3.431372549
200	3.921568627
225	4.411764706
255	5



Average calculation

`analogWrite(pin number, value);`

$$\text{Average value} = \frac{5}{255} \times \text{value}$$

Examples

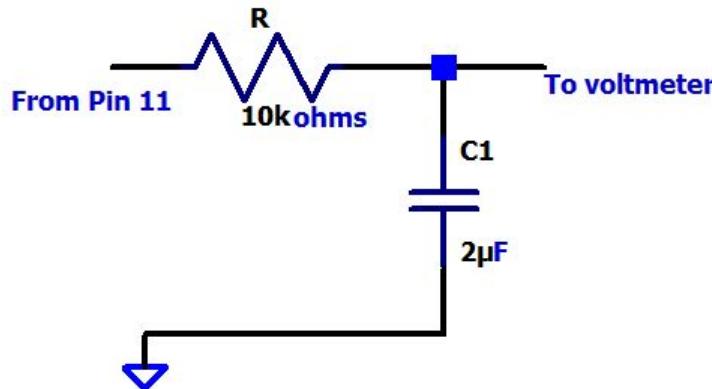
$$\text{Average value} = \frac{5}{255} \times 31 = 0.6 \text{ volt}$$

$$\text{Average value} = \frac{5}{255} \times 127 = 2.49 \text{ volts}$$

Class Exercise 4.3

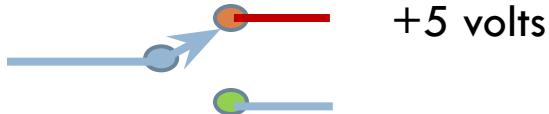
- This exercise will demonstrate how the average value from a PWM output can be extracted by using a low pass first order filter
- Use pin no 11 as output pin. Connect the output of pin no 11 to the R-C low pass filter
- Use pin no 2 as the digital input pin. And use a slide switch which will enable you to connect either +5 or Ground to the input pin no 2.
- Write a program to generate two different average values from pin no 11 for two settings of the slide switch.

Interface circuit



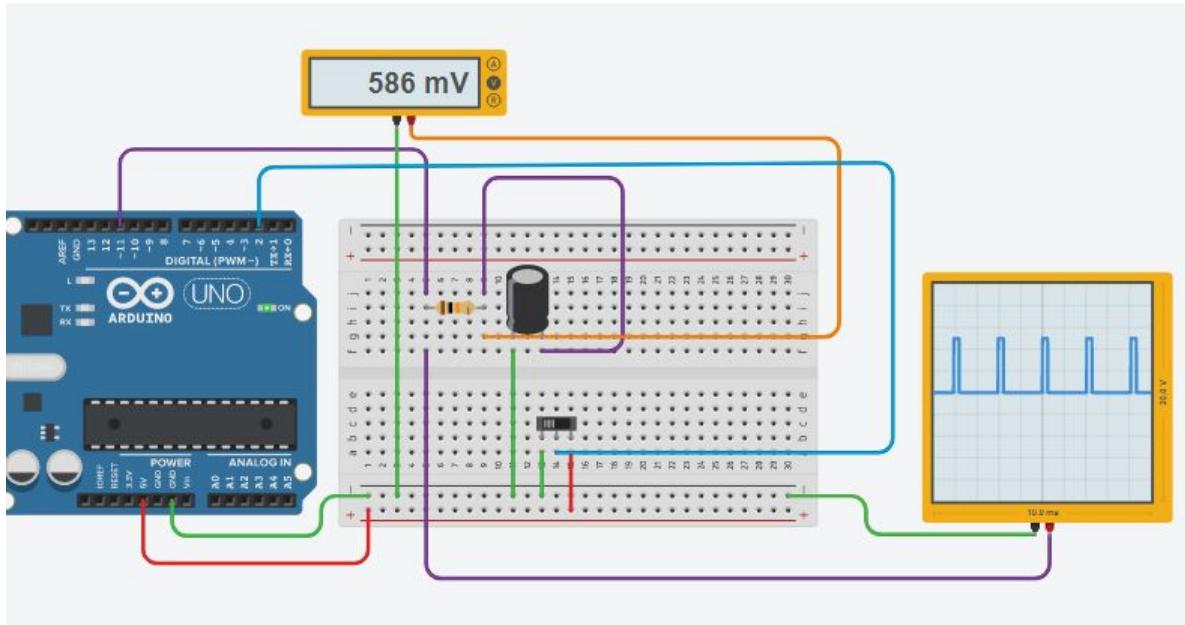
Time constant 20 mS

From Digital pin 2



Ground

Connections



Program

```
bool x;  
void setup()  
{  
    pinMode(11, OUTPUT);  
}
```

```
void loop()  
{  
    x = digitalRead(2);  
    if (x == 1)  
    {  
        analogWrite(11,127);  
    }  
    else  
    {  
        analogWrite(11, 31);  
    }
```

CONTROL SYSTEMS

Ashok Ranade

Control system

- What is a control system ?
- It is a system which controls a physical quantity such as temperature or position
- An example

Toaster

Function is to bring the bread slices to a desired temperature so that they are nice golden brown.
Next : Parts of a control system

Set the timer and put the supply on

Parts of a control system

- Control element

- Timer

- Plant

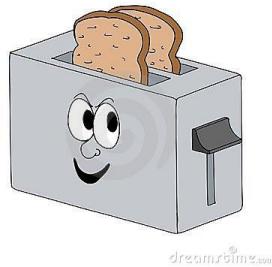
- Heating coil

- Control element

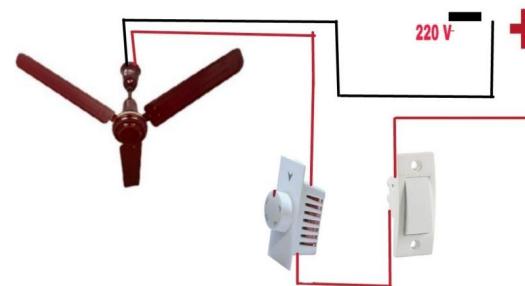
- Regulator

- Plant

- Next : Open loop control

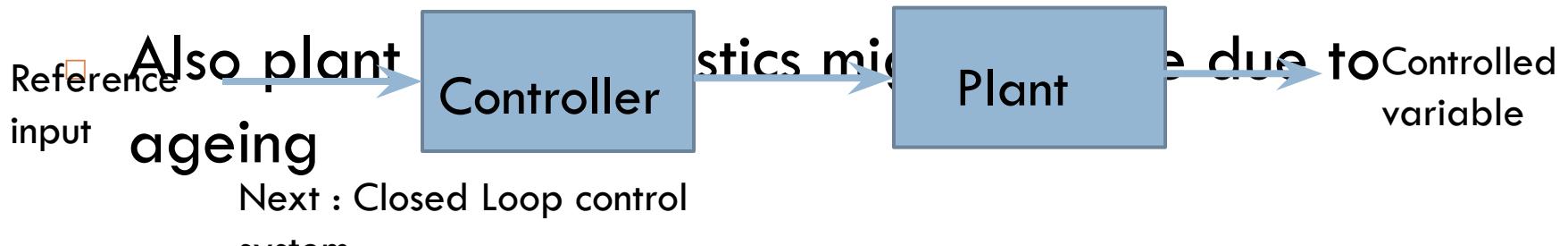


dreamstime.com



Open loop control systems

- The control action is independent of the controlled variable
- Timer setting is assumed to be correct
But it may have to be different in winter compared to summer



Closed loop control system

- Manual control

- User adjusts a small time on timer

- The user inspects the slices at the end of time

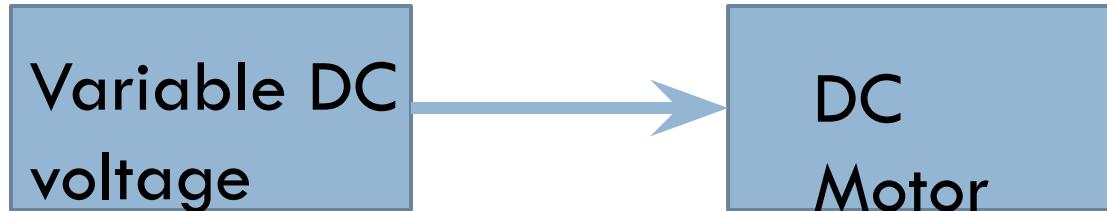
- If not done he/she sets the time again and repeats until done

- Control action now depends on the output variable

- Next : Speed control of DC

- Feedback is used in automatic control systems

Speed control of a DC Motor



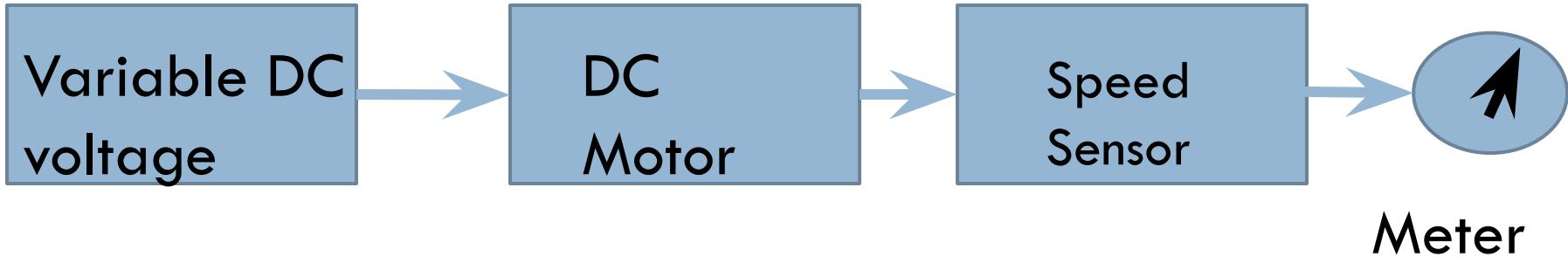
Speed is proportional to DC voltage.

Input DC source can be calibrated in terms of speed.

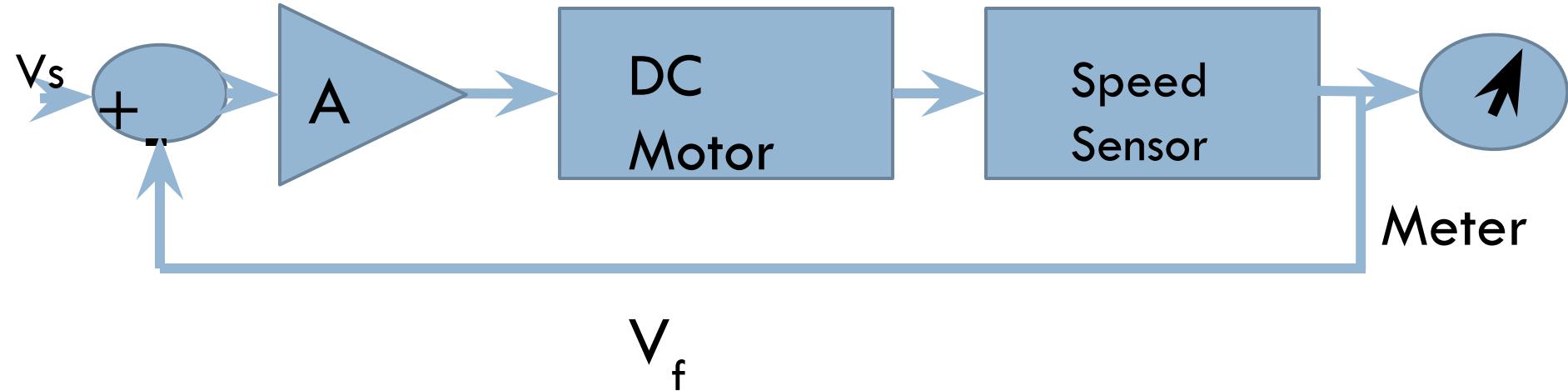
The knob is set to the desired speed

Speed might change due to change in the load or ageing

Manual Control

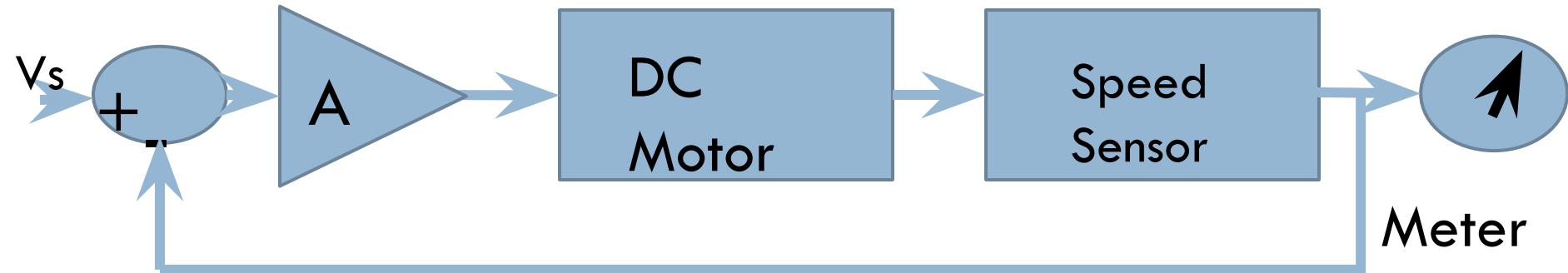


Automatic control



Sensor Characteristics	
Speed	V_f
1000 rpm	1 volt
2000 rpm	2 volt

Steady state calculation



$$V_f$$

$$(V_s - V_f)AK_mK_s = V_f$$

$$V_f = \frac{V_s AK_m K_s}{1 + AK_m K_s}$$

$$K_s = V_f / N$$

Exercise 5.1

- A dc motor has linear characteristics between input voltage and speed. Two points on this characteristics are
 $N = 600 \text{ rpm}$ when $V = 15 \text{ volts}$
 $N = 800 \text{ rpm}$ when $V = 20 \text{ volts}$
- (1) Find the equation between speed and the voltage.
- (2) when loaded the proportionality constant between speed and voltage becomes $1/3$ of the no load value. Find the new speed at $V = 15 \text{ volts}$ and find the % change in the speed compared to no load

Solution

(1)

$$N = K_m V + C$$

$$600 = K_m \times 15 + C$$

$$800 = K_m \times 20 + C$$

$$800 - 600 = K_m(20 - 15)$$

$$K_m = \frac{200}{5} = 40$$

$$C = 0$$

$$N = 40 \times V$$

(2)

When loaded

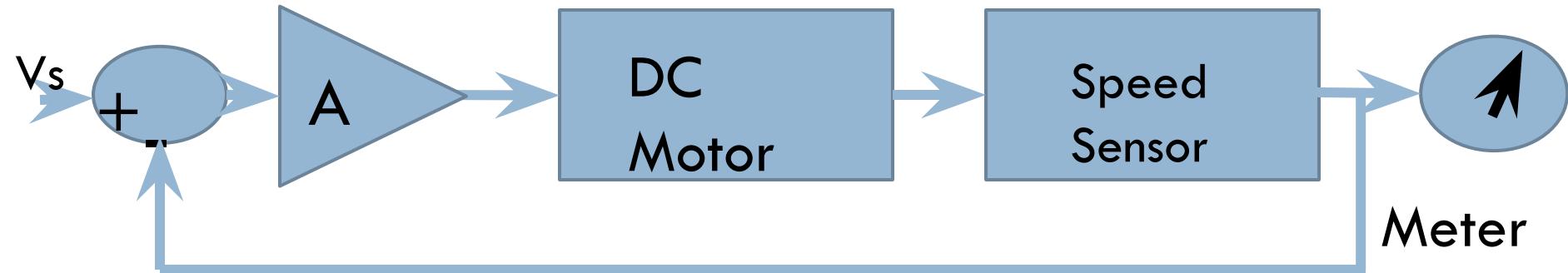
$$K_m = \frac{40}{3}$$

$$N = \frac{40}{3} \times V$$

$$N = \frac{40}{3} \times 15 = 200 \text{ rpm}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\% \text{change in speed} &= \frac{200 - 600}{600} \times 100 \\ &= -66.66\%\end{aligned}$$

Exercise 5.2



$$V_f = \frac{V_s A K_m K_s}{1 + A K_m K_s}$$

$$V_f$$

Consider the above closed loop system.
 $K_m = 40$ and $K_s = 1/160$. Find the speed of the motor when

- (1) $V_s = 5$ volts and $A = 10$
- (2) the motor is loaded and K_m drops to $40/3$

Also find % change in speed

Solution to Exercise 5.2

$$(1) V_f = \frac{V_s A K_m K_s}{1 + A K_m K_s} = \frac{5 \times 10 \times 40 \times 1/160}{1 + 10 \times 40 \times 1/160} = 3.571429$$

$$N = \frac{V_f}{K_s} = \frac{3.571429}{1/160} = 571.4286 \text{ rpm}$$

$$(2) V_f = \frac{V_s A K_m K_s}{1 + A K_m K_s} = \frac{5 \times 10 \times (40/3) \times 1/160}{1 + 10 \times (40/3) \times 1/160} = 2.272727$$

$$N = \frac{V_f}{K_s} = \frac{2.272727}{1/160} = 363.6364 \text{ rpm}$$

%change in speed

$$= \frac{363.6364 - 571.4286}{571.4286} \times 100 = -36.3636\%$$

Exercise 5.3

- Repeat Exercise 5.2 but with $A = 100$.

Answers

With A =100	
On No load	
Vf	4.807692
N	769.2308
With load	
Vf	4.464286
N	714.2857
% Change	-7.14286

Specification of control systems

- Accuracy of the output in steady state

Suppose desired temperature is 50 degrees

In a certain system the output could be within 1 %

- Speed of response

- How fast the desired output is achieved ?

One system : 5 minutes

Another system : 10 minutes

Next : An example of

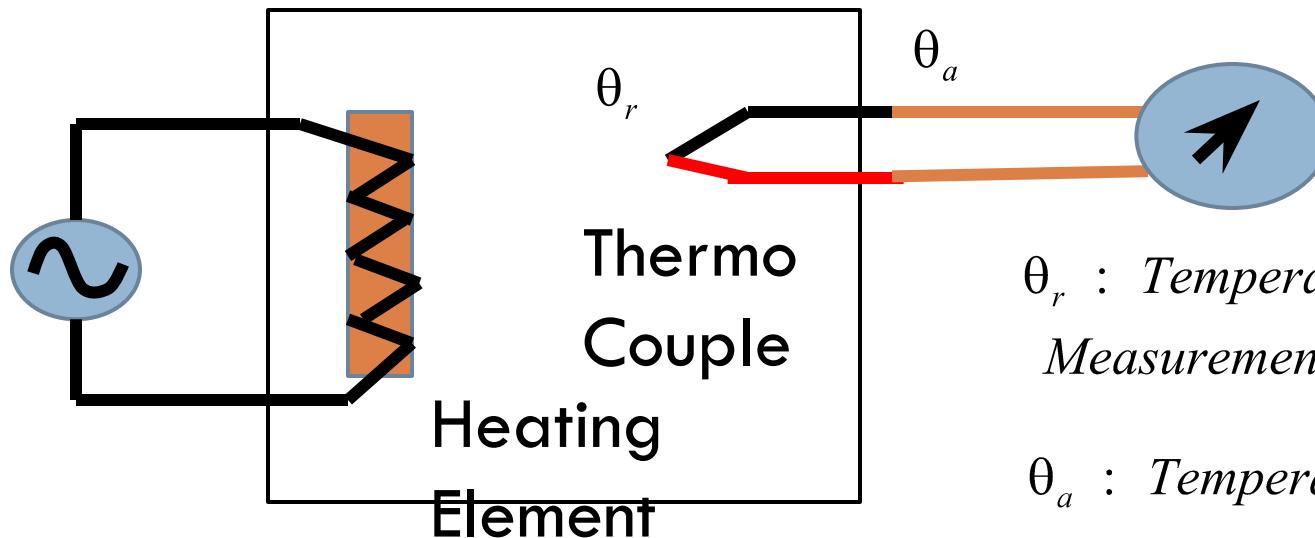
modelling

- Feedback will help improve both

Steps in analysis of control systems

- From the block diagram set up the differential equation for the system
- Solve the differential equation
- Find the steady state error
- Find the speed of response
- The differential equation can be
 - First order
 - Second order or higher order

Block diagram of an oven



Next : Thermal resistance

θ_r : Temperature at
Measurement Junction

θ_a : Temperature at
Reference Junction
(Ambient temperature)

Thermal resistance and capacitance

- When the power is supplied the temperature in the oven increases
- The rate of increase depends on thermal resistance and thermal capacitance
- Thermal resistance

This impedes the heat flow(Energy/unit time) from

oven to outside

Depends^R on the materials and geometry

Thermal capacitance

- Consider an oven with no leakage

The temperature in the oven will start with ambient temperature and increase as the heat energy increases with time. Thus the heat energy is being stored.

- Larger the volume , smaller will be the rate of increase of temperature
$$\theta_r = \frac{C}{Q} dt + \theta_a$$

$$Q \text{ is heat flow supplied}$$

and stored

C is the thermal capacitance

$$Q = C \frac{d(\theta_r - \theta_a)}{dt}$$

C is in watt-sec/degree

Mathematical model of the oven

Heat in = Heat out + Heat Stored

$$q = \frac{\theta_r - \theta_a}{R} + C \frac{d(\theta_r - \theta_a)}{dt}$$

$$q = \frac{\theta}{R} + C \frac{d\theta}{dt}$$

$$qR = \theta + RC \frac{d\theta}{dt}$$

$$\theta = \theta_r - \theta_a$$

$$\theta = qR \left(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{RC}} \right)$$

Dimensions of $R \times C$

$$\frac{\text{Degrees}}{\text{Watt}} \times \frac{\text{Watt} \times \text{Seconds}}{\text{Degrees}} = \text{Seconds}$$

Next : An example of
steady state calculations

Steady state calculations

- In steady state , the temperature in the oven becomes constant and the equation is

$$q = \frac{\theta_r - \theta_a}{R}$$

- A sample calculation $\theta_r = 60^0$ $\theta_a = 20^0$

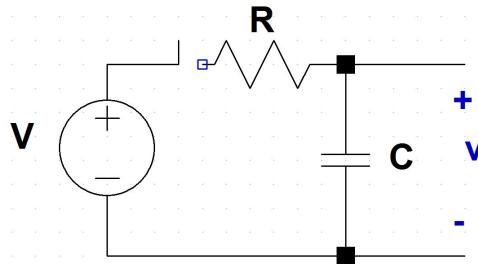
Suppose we want and .

Also R = 0.05 Degrees/ Watt

Coil wattage $q = 40 / 0.05 = 800$ watts

Electrical Equivalent circuit

- Temperature : Voltage
- Thermal resistance : Electrical resistance
- Thermal capacitance : Electrical capacitance



*Applying Kirchoff's current law
at the output node*

$$\frac{V - v}{R} = C \frac{dv}{dt}$$

$$V = v + RC \frac{dv}{dt}$$

$$qR = \theta + RC \frac{d\theta}{dt}$$

$$\theta = qR \left(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{RC}} \right)$$

$$v = V \left(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{RC}} \right)$$

Set point

$$\theta = qR \left(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{RC}} \right)$$

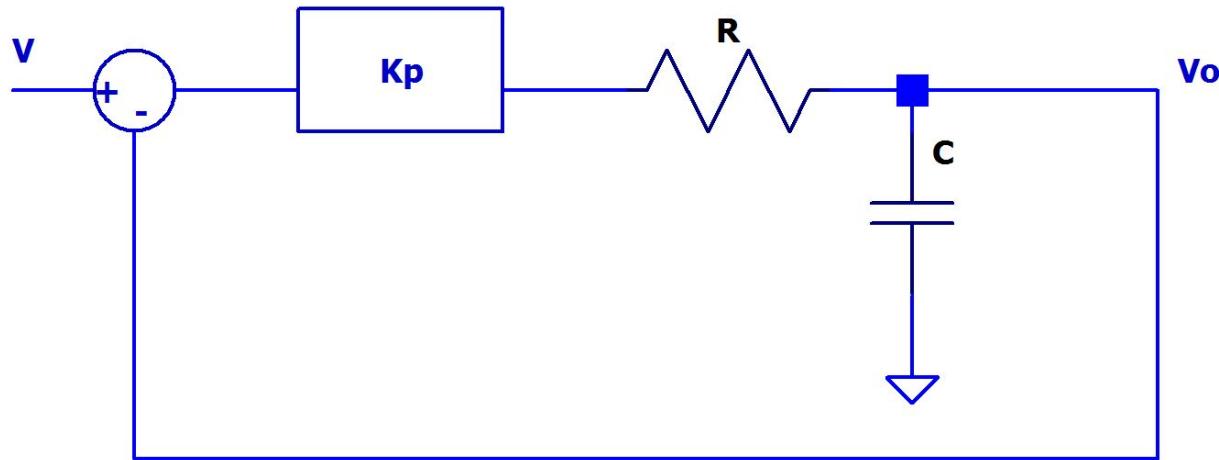
Note that θ reaches qR in steady state. This is the desired temperature. Hence qR is called the set point

$$v = V \left(1 - e^{-\frac{t}{RC}} \right)$$

In the electrical Analog V is the set point

Next : Closed loop system

Closed Loop System



$$\frac{(V - V_o)K_p - V_o}{R} = C \frac{dV_o}{dt}$$

Effect of proportional control

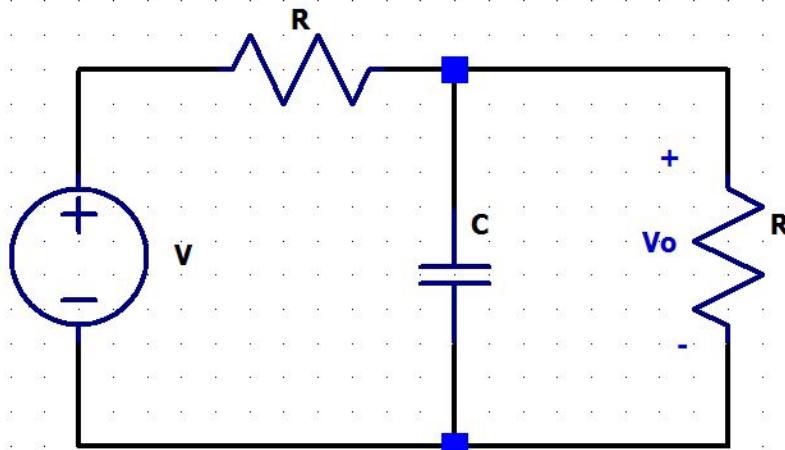
$$\frac{(V - V_o)K_p - V_o}{R} = C \frac{dV_o}{dt}$$

$$\frac{VK_p}{K_p + 1} = V_o + \frac{RC}{K_p + 1} \frac{dV_o}{dt}$$

Time constant is reduced. Faster Response

Steady state error

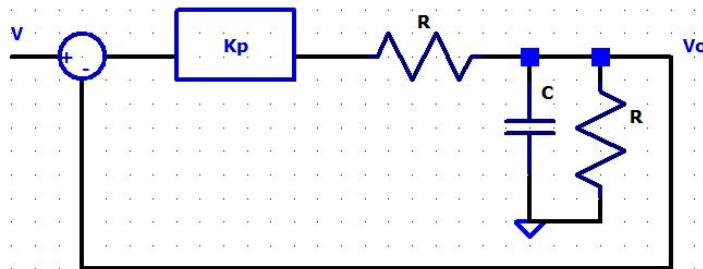
Loading effect in Open loop System



$$V_o = \frac{V}{2} \left(1 - e^{\frac{-t}{RC/2}} \right)$$

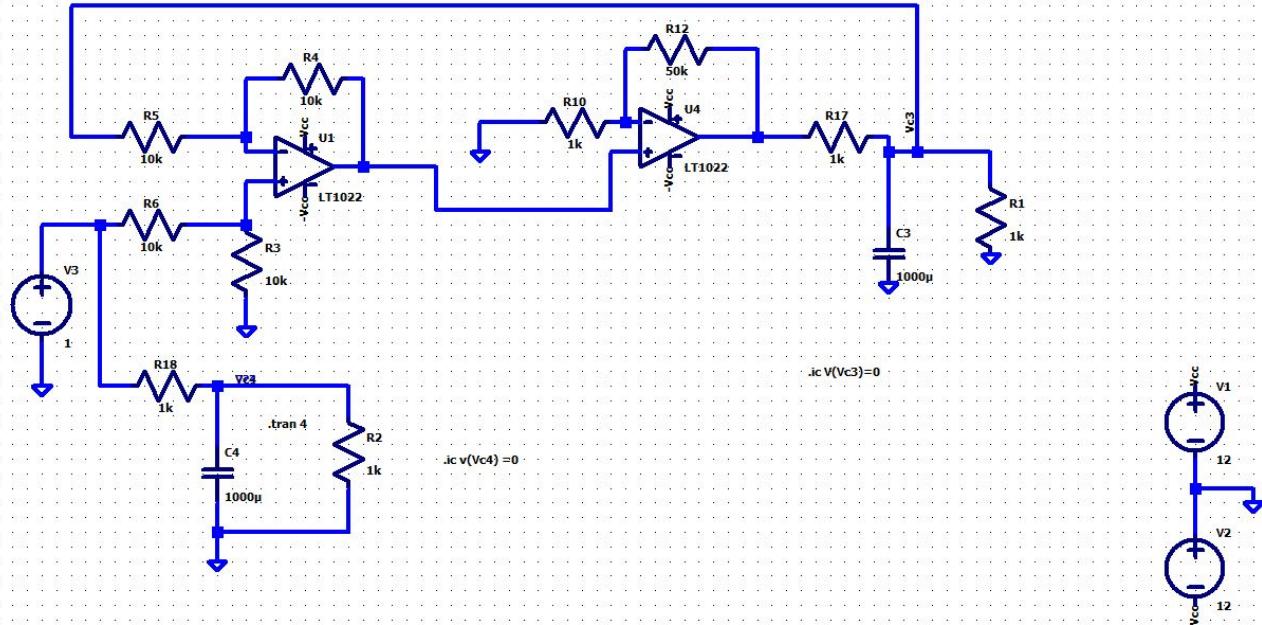
Steady state
voltage is
reduced to half
the value.

Loaded system with feedback

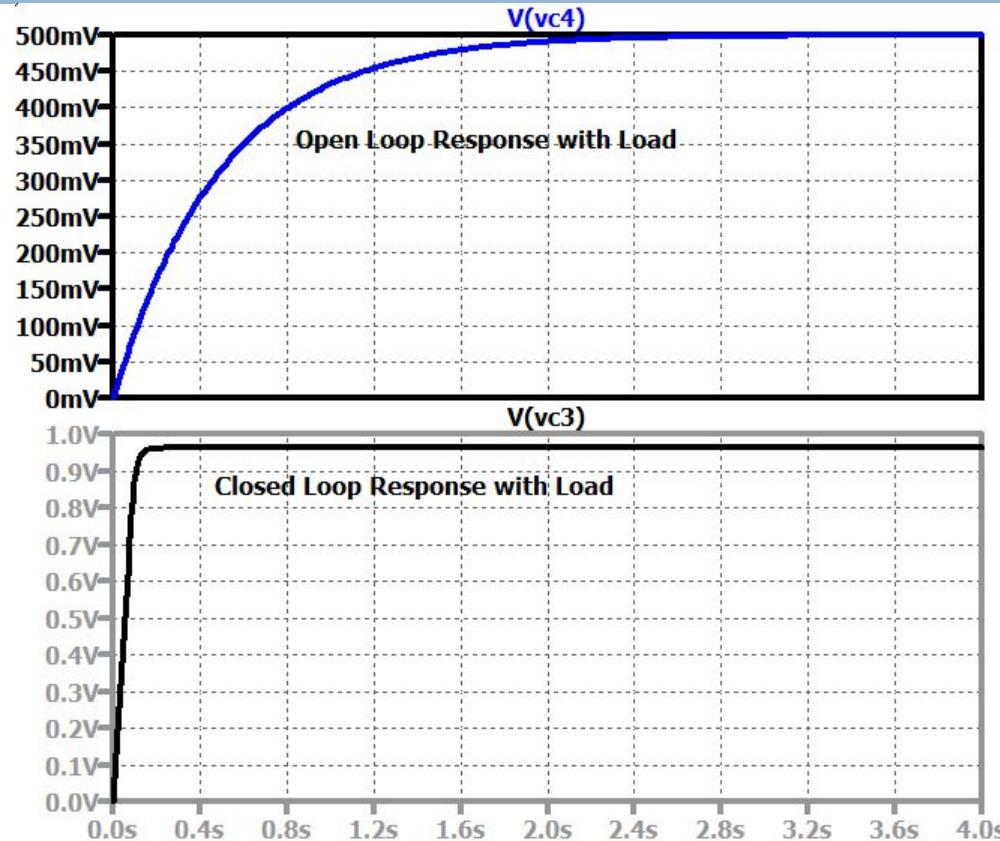


$$\frac{VK_p}{2+K_p} = V_o + \frac{RC}{2+K_p} \frac{dV_o}{dt}$$

LTspice simulation



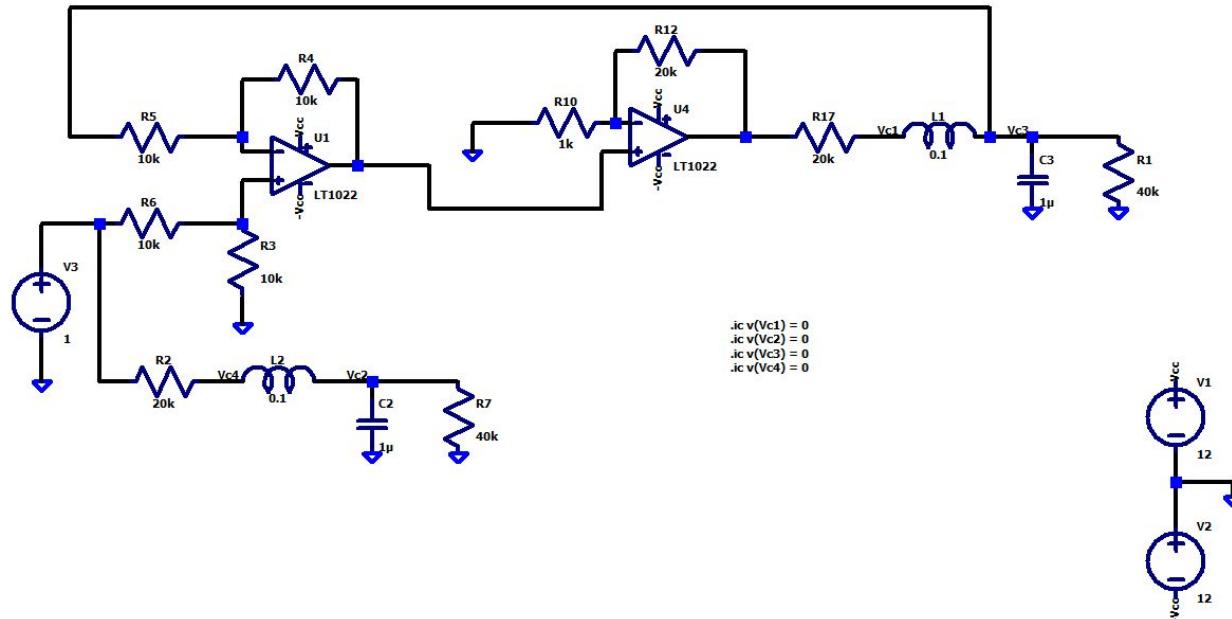
Step response



Exercise 5.4

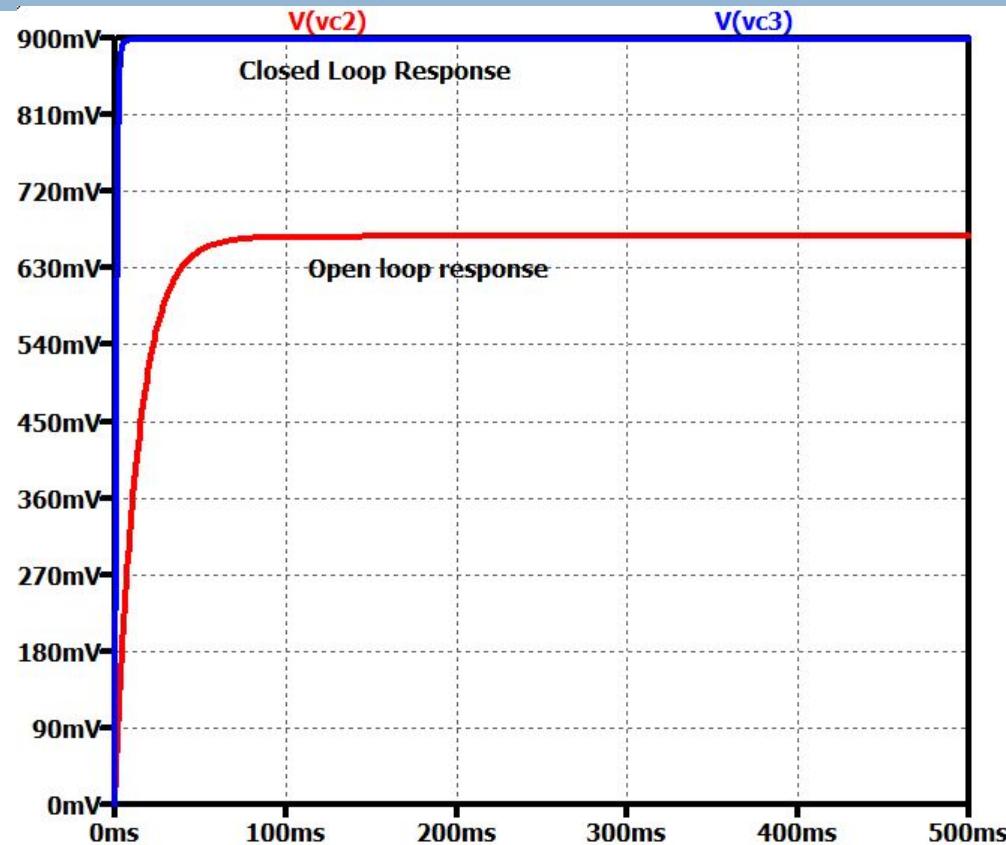
- In the Ltspice simulation shown the load is the first order low pass filter consisting of 1kohms resistor, $1000 \mu\text{F}$ capacitor and the load of 1 kohms resistor
- Replace this load by a second order low pass filter consisting of 20 kohms resistor, 0.1 H inductor and $1 \mu\text{F}$ capacitor. Use a load of 40 kohms resistor and plot the transient response for open loop and closed loop circuit and compare.

Solution to Exercise 5.4



.tran 0.5

Open loop and closed loop outputs



SENSORS, INSTRUMENTS AND EXPERIMENTATION

07 Concepts of Stress and Strain

By Ashok Ranade

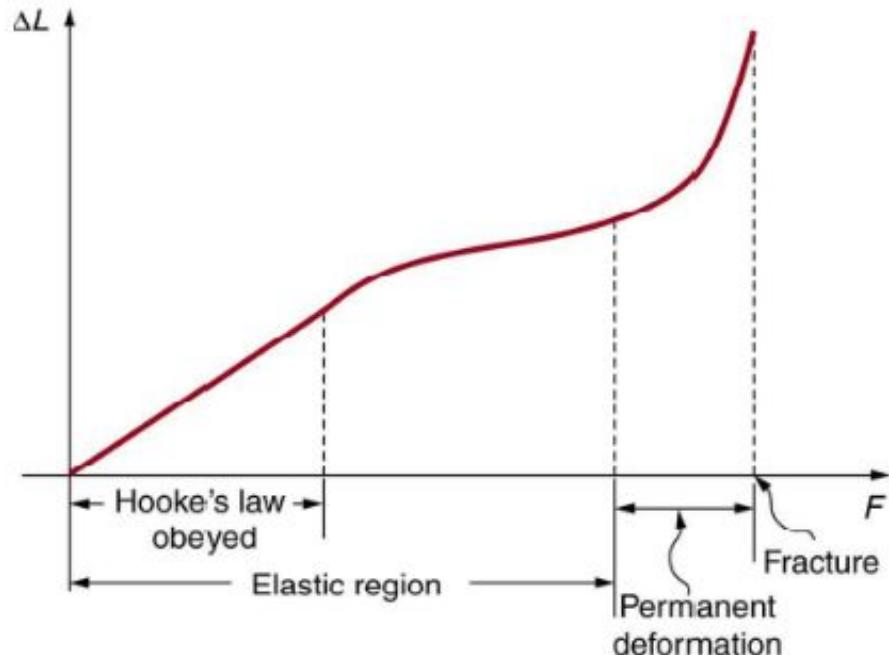
Hook's Law

- When you apply a Force to an object, it moves if free to move
- If it is not free to move, it gets deformed.
- $F = k\Delta L$ law (Applies when deformation is small)

F is the force applied

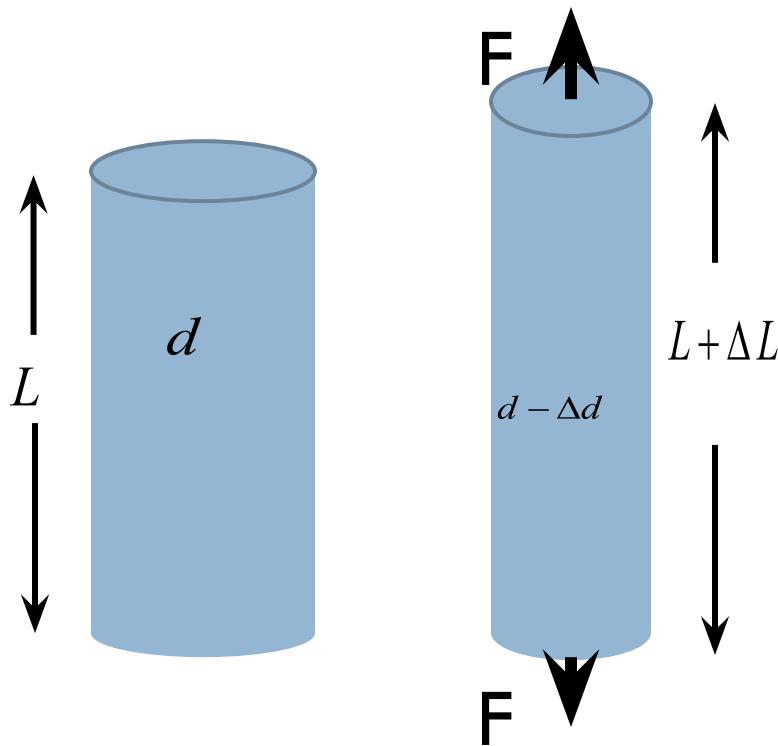
k constant depending on shape and composition of the object and the direction of the force

Deformation vs Force



Axial and transverse strain

Tensile force



Axial strain

$$\varepsilon_l = \frac{\Delta L}{L}$$

Transverse strain

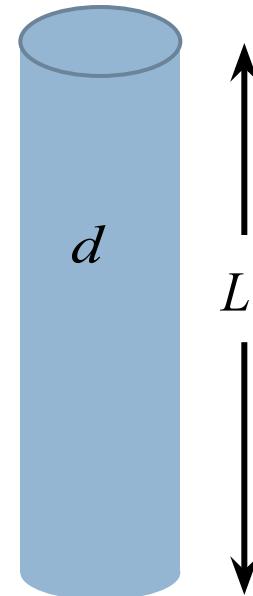
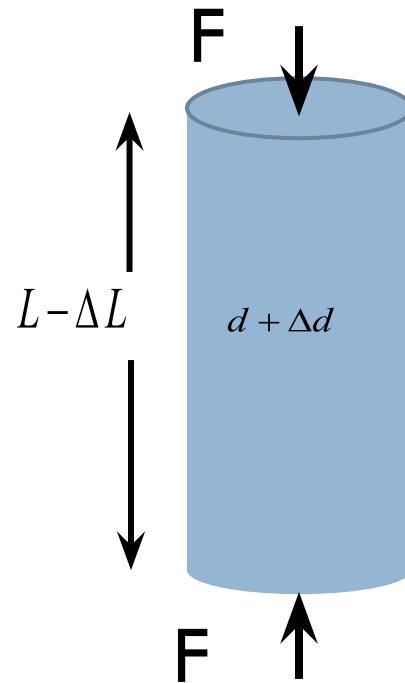
$$\varepsilon_t = \frac{\Delta d}{d}$$

Poisson's Ratio

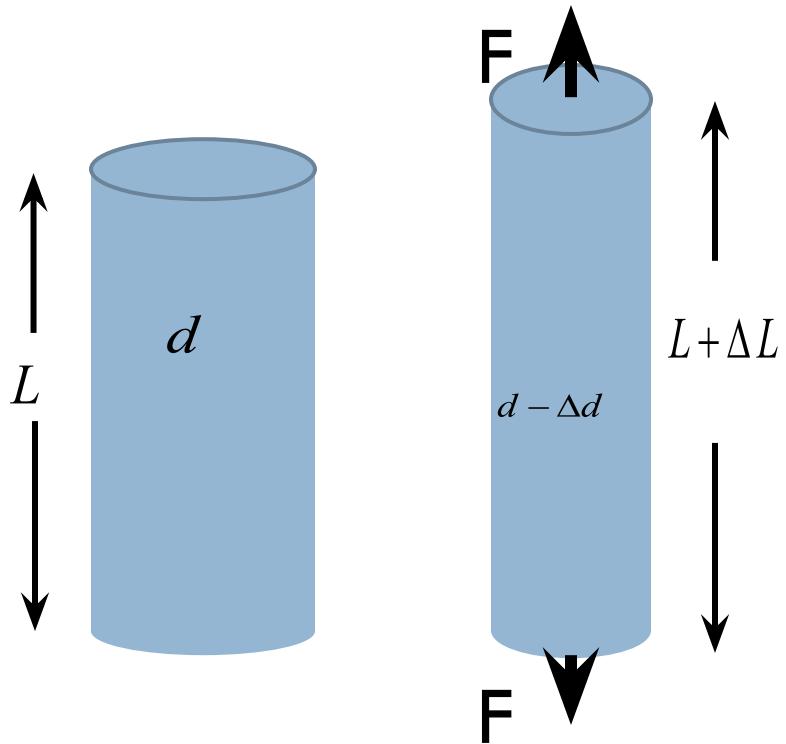
$$\mu = \frac{\varepsilon_t}{\varepsilon_l}$$

Typically
Lies
between
0 to 0.5

Compressive Force



Young's modulus



$$\Delta L = \frac{1}{Y} \frac{F}{A} L$$

A : Cross sectional area

Y : Young's Modulus

$$\frac{F}{A} = Y \frac{\Delta L}{L}$$

Stress = Y x Strain

$$F = YA \frac{\Delta L}{L}$$

$$F = k \times \text{Strain}$$

Young's modulus for various materials

Material	Young's modulus (tension-compression) $Y(10^9\text{N/m}^2)$	Shear modulus $S(10^9\text{N/m}^2)$	Bulk modulus $B(10^9\text{N/m}^2)$
Aluminum	70	25	75
Bone – tension	16	80	8
Bone – compression	9		
Brass	90	35	75
Brick	15		
Concrete	20		
Glass	70	20	30
Granite	45	20	45
Hair (human)	10		
Hardwood	15	10	
Iron, cast	100	40	90
Lead	16	5	50

Exercise 7.1

A sculpture weighing 10,000 N rests on a horizontal surface at the top of a 6.0-m-tall vertical pillar. The pillar's cross-sectional area is 0.20 m^2 and it is made of granite with a mass density of 2700 kg/m^3 . Find the compressive stress at the cross-section located 3.0 m below the top of the pillar and the value of the compressive strain of the top



Solution

The volume of the pillar segment with height $h = 3.0\text{ m}$ and cross-sectional area $A = 0.20\text{ m}^2$ is

$$V = Ah = 0.6\text{ m}^3$$

With the density of granite $= 2.7 \times 10^3\text{kg/m}^3$, the mass of the pillar segment is

$$m = \rho V = 1.6 \times 10^3\text{ Kg}$$

The weight of the pillar segment is

$$w = mg = 1.568 \times 10^4\text{ N}$$

Solution continued

The weight of the sculpture is $w = 1.0 \times 10^4 \text{ N}$

So the normal force acting

$$w_p + w_s = 2.568 \times 10^4 \text{ N}$$

$$\text{Stress} = F/A = 2.568 \times 10^4 / 0.2 = 128.4 \text{ kPa}$$

$$Y \text{ for granite} = 4.5 \times 10^7 \text{ kPa}$$

$$\text{Strain} = \text{Stress}/Y = 2.85 \times 10^{-6}$$

Note that the stress will be maximum at base

Exercise 7.2

- A 2.0-m-long steel rod has a cross-sectional area of 0.30cm^2 . The rod is a part of a vertical support that holds a heavy 550-kg platform that hangs attached to the rod's lower end. Ignoring the weight of the rod, what is the tensile stress in the rod and the elongation of the rod under the stress?

Answers

- **Procedure**

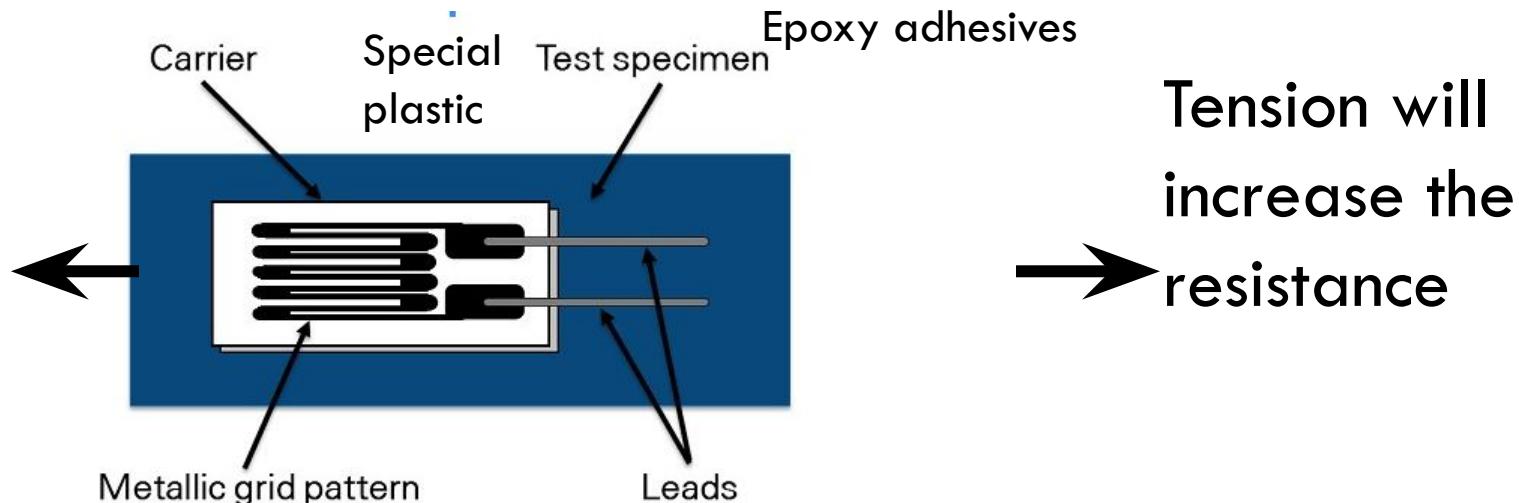
Calculate F/A

- **Young's modulus for steel is $Y = 2.0 \times 10^{11} \text{ Pa}$.**

- **Calculate ΔL**

$$\Delta L = \frac{F}{A} \times \frac{L}{Y} = 1.8 \text{ mm}$$

Strain gauge



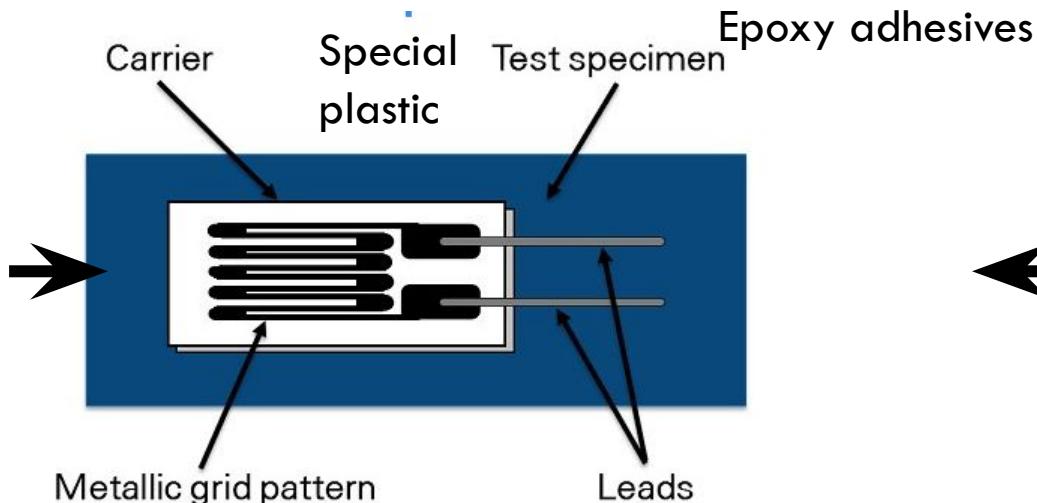
$$R = \frac{\rho l}{A}$$

$$\text{strain : } \varepsilon = \frac{\Delta L}{L}$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{\Delta R}{R} \times \frac{1}{GF}$$

$$GF = \frac{\Delta R / R}{\Delta L / L}$$

Strain gauge



Compression will
decrease the
resistance

$$R = \frac{\rho l}{A} \quad \text{strain : } \varepsilon = \frac{\Delta L}{L}$$

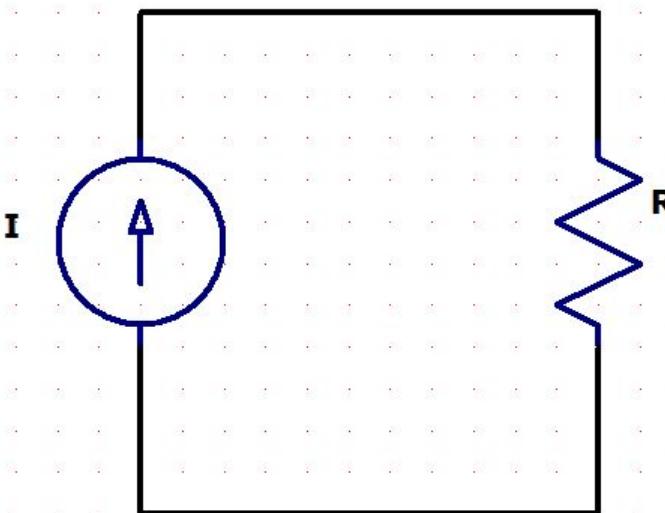
$$\varepsilon = \frac{\Delta R}{R} \times \frac{1}{GF}$$

$$GF = \frac{\Delta R / R}{\Delta L / L}$$

Various gage factors

Material	Gauge Factor
Metal foil strain gauge	2-5
Thin-film metal (e.g. constantan)	2
Single crystal silicon	-125 to + 200
Polysilicon	± 30
Thick-film resistors	100
p-type Ge	102

Simple method of strain measurement



Voltage across the
strain gauge is
 $V = I(R + \Delta R)$

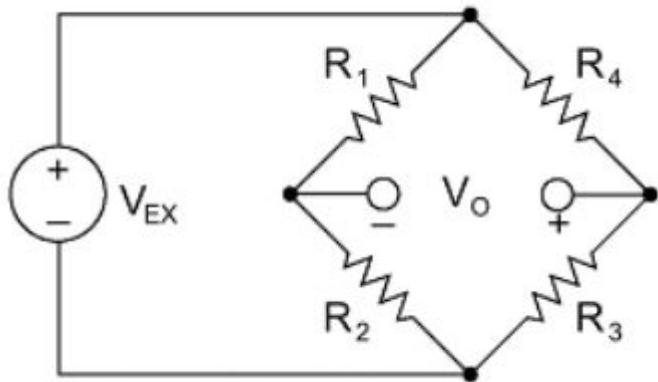
$$V = IR \left(1 + \frac{\Delta R}{R} \right)$$

+ ΔR Voltage can be calibrated in
Strain terms of strain. But
gage measurement will be very
difficult since $\Delta R/R$ is very
small compared to one.
Since $\frac{\Delta R}{R}$

We need a circuit where

$$V = k \frac{\Delta R}{R}$$

Bridge circuit

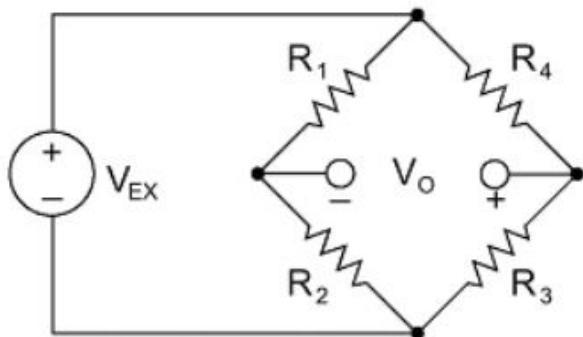


$$V_o = \left(\frac{R_3}{R_3 + R_4} - \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right) \times V_{EX}$$

Quarter Bridge

Configuration 1

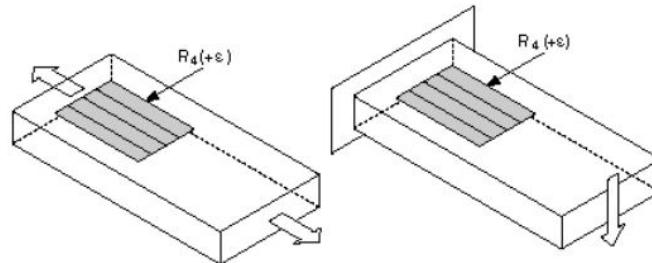
Axial or bending strain



$$R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R$$

$$R_4 = R + \Delta R$$

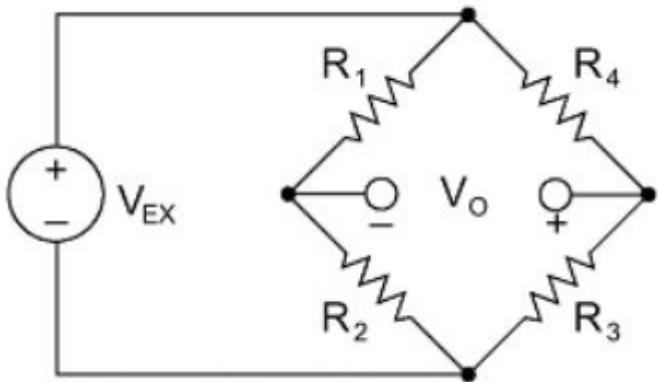
R_4 : Strain gauge



$$V_o = \left(\frac{R_3}{R_3 + R_4} - \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right) \times V_{EX}$$

Quarter bridge

Configuration 1



$$R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R$$

$$R_4 = R + \Delta R$$

$$V_o = \left(\frac{R_3}{R_3 + R_4} - \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right) \times V_{EX}$$

$$V_o = \left(\frac{R}{R + R + \Delta R} - \frac{R}{R + R} \right) V_{EX}$$

$$V_o = \left(\frac{R}{2R + \Delta R} - \frac{1}{2} \right) V_{EX}$$

$$V_o = \left(\frac{-\Delta R}{4R + 2\Delta R} \right) V_{EX}$$

Calculation for strain

$$V_o = \left(\frac{-\Delta R}{4R + 2\Delta R} \right) V_{EX}$$

$$V_o = \left(\frac{-GF \times \varepsilon}{(4 + 2 \times GF \times \varepsilon)} \right) V_{EX}$$

$$V_o = \left(\frac{-\Delta R}{R \left(4 + \frac{2\Delta R}{R} \right)} \right) V_{EX}$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{-4V_o}{GF(V_{EX} + 2V_o)}$$

$$V_o = \left(\frac{-\Delta R / R}{\left(4 + \frac{2\Delta R}{R} \right)} \right) V_{EX}$$

Exercise 7.3

- Assume a quarter bridge driven by a 9 volt battery
- Gauge factor has the value of 3
- Next assume that a variable tensile force is applied
This force is adjusted to get the output voltage from 0 to -130 mvolts in steps of -10 mVolts
- Using a spreadsheet calculate the strain values for each of the output observed

Answers

Vo	Strain(%)
0	0
-10	0.148478099
-20	0.297619048
-30	0.447427293
-40	0.597907324
-50	0.74906367
-60	0.900900901
-70	1.053423627
-80	1.206636501
-90	1.360544218
-100	1.515151515
-110	1.670463174
-120	1.826484018
-130	1.983218917

$$\varepsilon = \frac{-4V_o}{GF(V_{EX} + 2V_o)}$$

Exercise 7.4

- Next set up a quarter bridge circuit in Tinkercad to measure the output voltage from the bridge. Use 100 ohms bridge resistors and a 9 volt battery.
- Since Tinkercad does not have strain gage use a variable resistance varying from 0 to 6 ohms to represent the strain gauge.
- Use an identical resistance in the other arm to compensate for a possible offset.

Exercise 7.3 continued

- What is the value of output voltage you expect when the resistance is set to 6 ohms? Explain your answer.

Solution

For offset adjustment

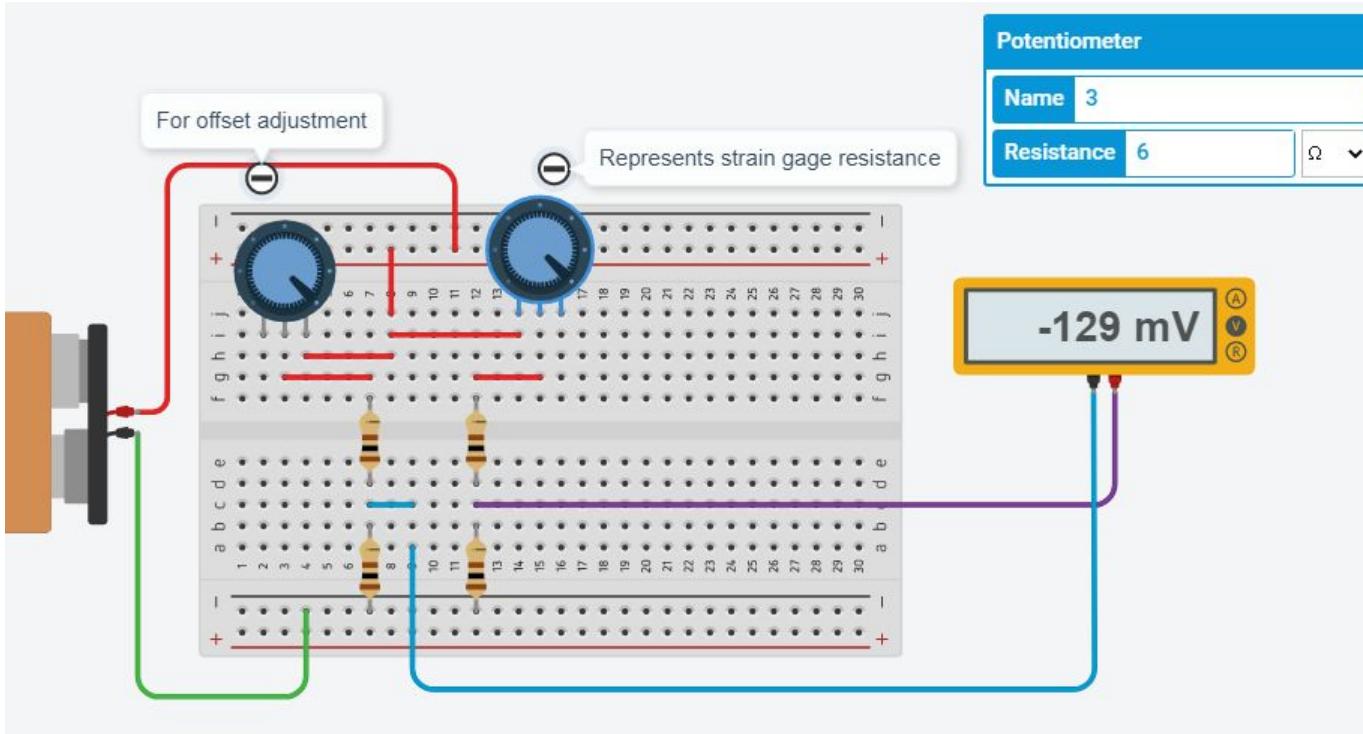
Represents strain gage resistance

Potentiometer

Name 3

Resistance 6

-129 mV



Solution continued

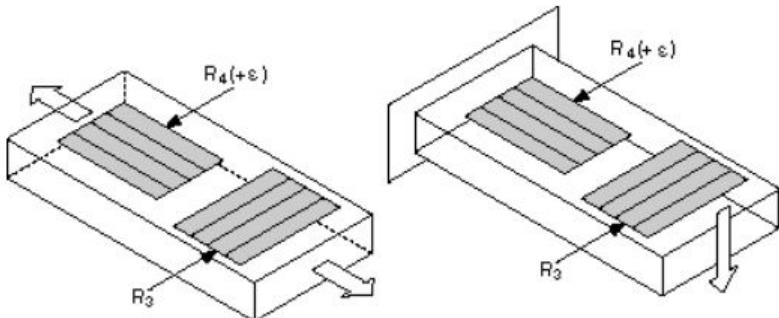
$$\varepsilon(\%) = \frac{\Delta R}{GF \times R} \times 100$$

$$\varepsilon(\%) = \frac{6}{3 \times 100} \times 100 = 2$$

From the table in the spreadsheet we expect the output of about -130 mV. We get -129 mV

Quarter Bridge configuration 2

Axial or Bending strain

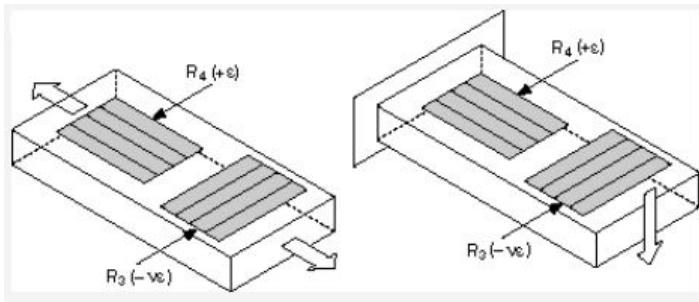


R_3 is mounted in close thermal contact
but not bonded to the specimen.
So strain does not affect R_3 but temperature
Effects are cancelled since ratio of R_3 to R_4
becomes independent of temperature

$$\varepsilon = \frac{-4V_o}{GF(V_{EX} + 2V_o)}$$

Half bridge Strain gage

Axial or bending strain



R3 is mounted in close thermal contact
and bonded to the specimen.

Temp effects are cancelled since ratio of R3 to R4
becomes independent of temperature

v is the Poisson ratio

$$V_o = \left(\frac{R_3}{R_3 + R_4} - \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right) \times V_{EX}$$

$$R_1 = R_2 = R$$

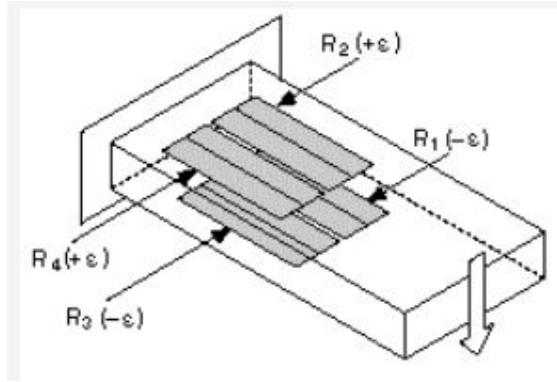
$$R_4 = R + \Delta R$$

$$R_3 = R - v\Delta R$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{-4V_o}{GF(2V_o(1-v) + V_{EX}(1+v))}$$

Full Bridge

(Bending strain only)



$$R_2 = R_4 = R + \Delta R$$

$$R_1 = R_3 = R - \Delta R$$

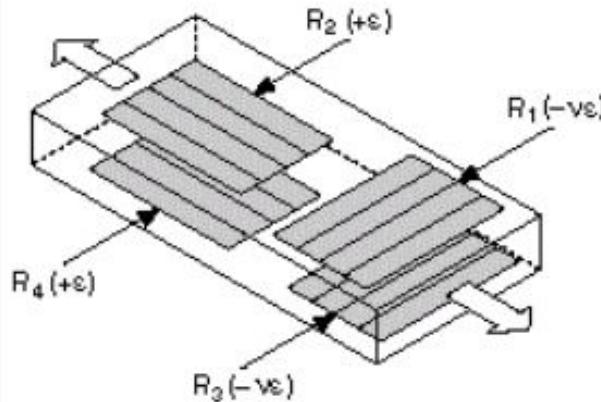
$$V_o = -\frac{\Delta R}{R} V_{EX}$$

$$V_o = -GF \times \varepsilon \times V_{EX}$$

$$\varepsilon = -\frac{V_o}{GF \times V_{EX}}$$

$$V_o = \left(\frac{R_3}{R_3 + R_4} - \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right) \times V_{EX}$$

Full Bridge (Axial strain)



$$\varepsilon = -\frac{2V_o}{GF(\nu+1)V_{EX}}$$

$$V_o = \left(\frac{R_3}{R_3 + R_4} - \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right) \times V_{EX}$$

SENSORS, INSTRUMENTS AND EXPERIMENTATION

17 Force sensing Resistance

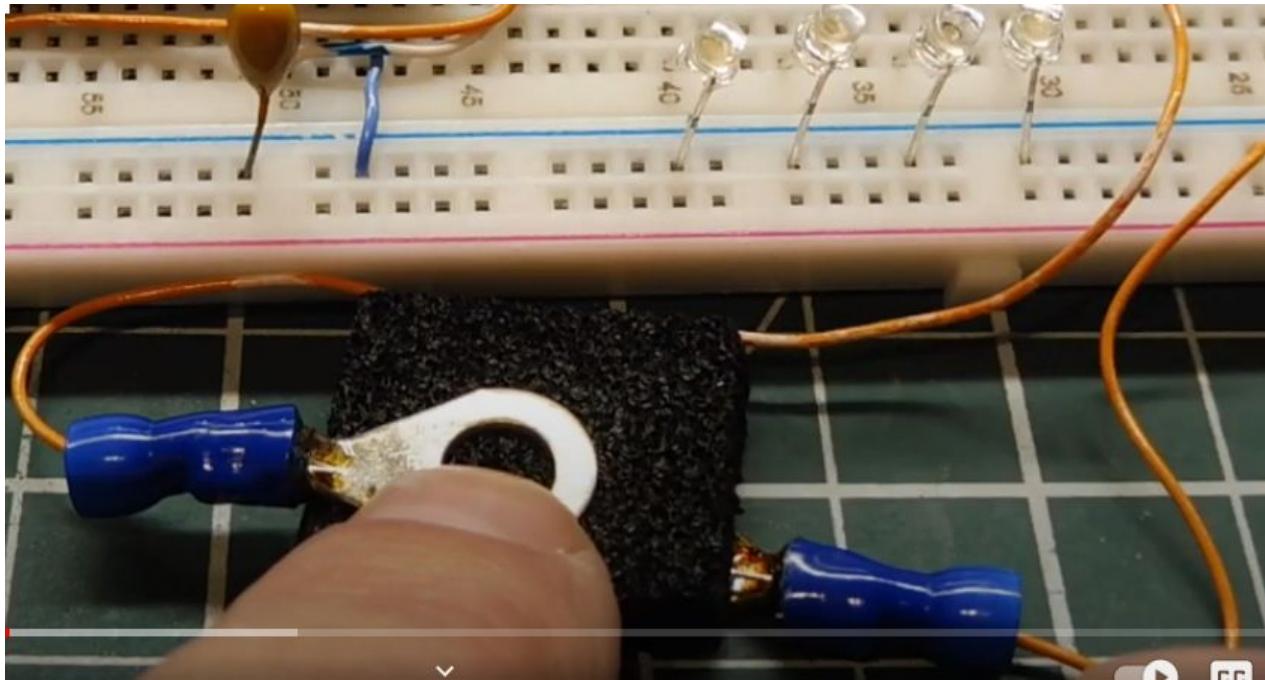
By Ashok Ranade

Principles of Force sense resistor

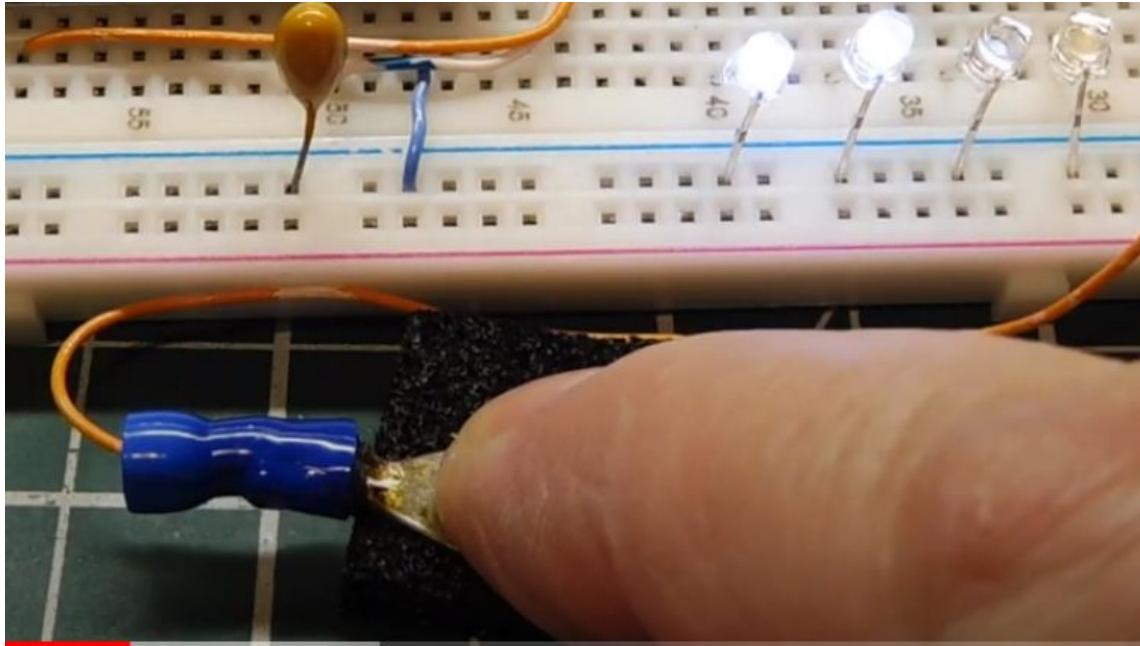


Conducting
foam.
Polyethylene
foam filled with
carbon.
When pressed
the contact
resistance will
decrease.

Foam used as resistor



Resistance change detected



Conducting grid

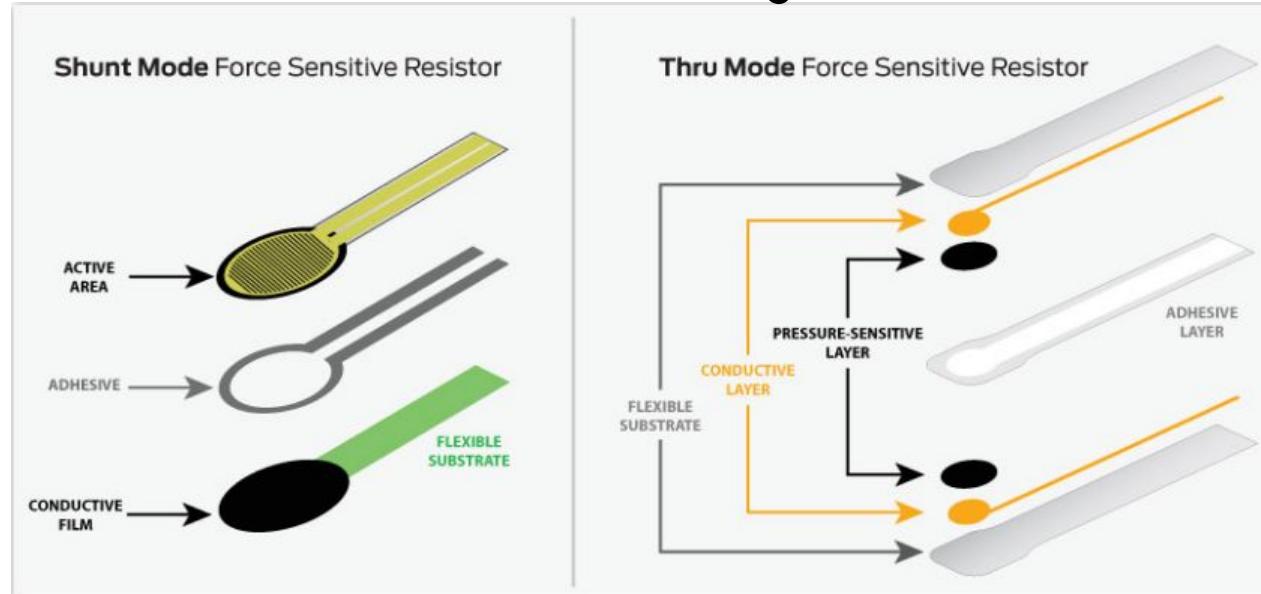


A polyester
film with
printed
circuit

Conducting
fingers

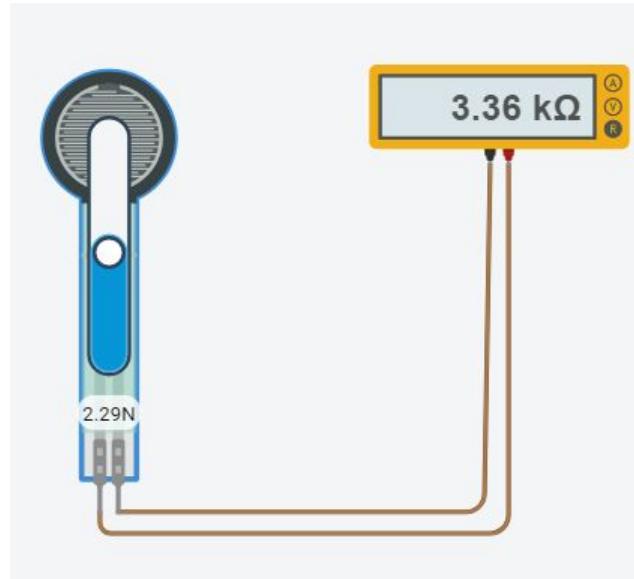
Two types of FSR

Thru mode more sensitive to light forces and more linear. Costlier



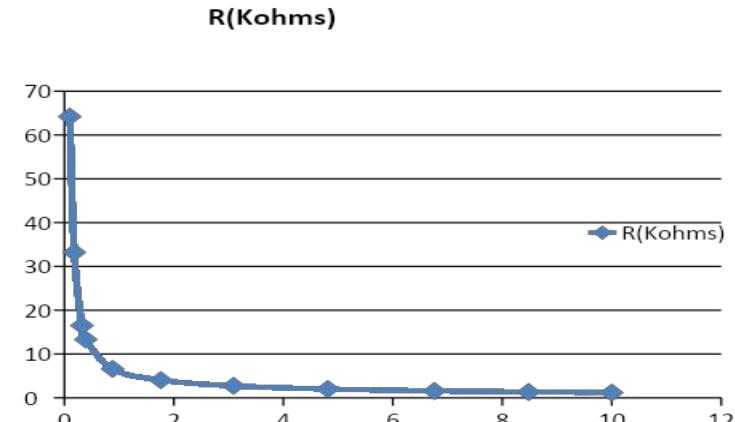
Conducting sheet is polymer sheet with carbon ink

Tinkercad simulation

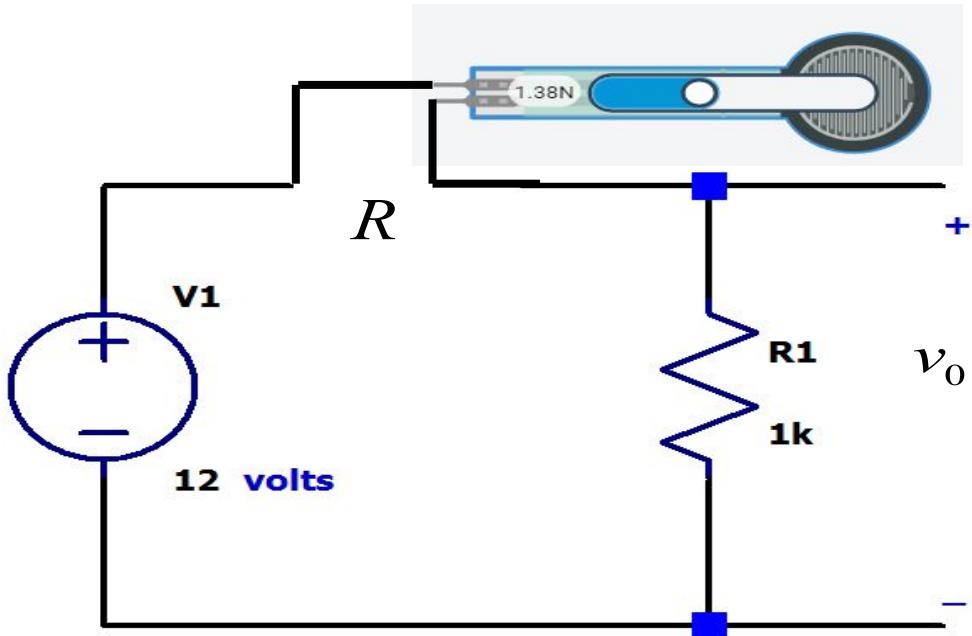


Force vs Resistance characteristics

F(Newtons)	R(Kohms)
0.1	64.2
0.18	33.2
0.32	16.5
0.39	13.3
0.88	6.58
1.76	4.03
3.09	2.72
4.81	2
6.76	1.58
8.48	1.34
10	1.2



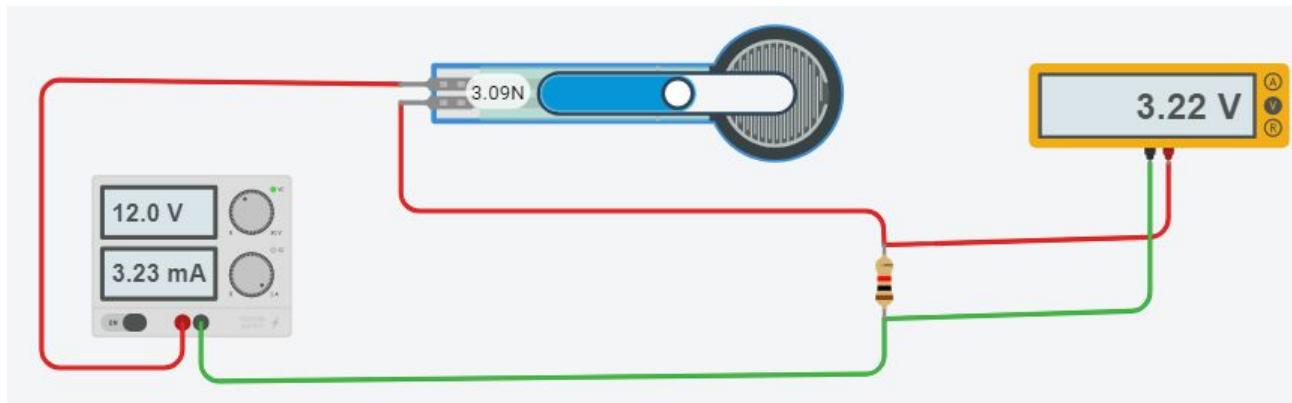
Force vs voltage



$$v_0 = \frac{V_1 R_1}{R + R_1}$$

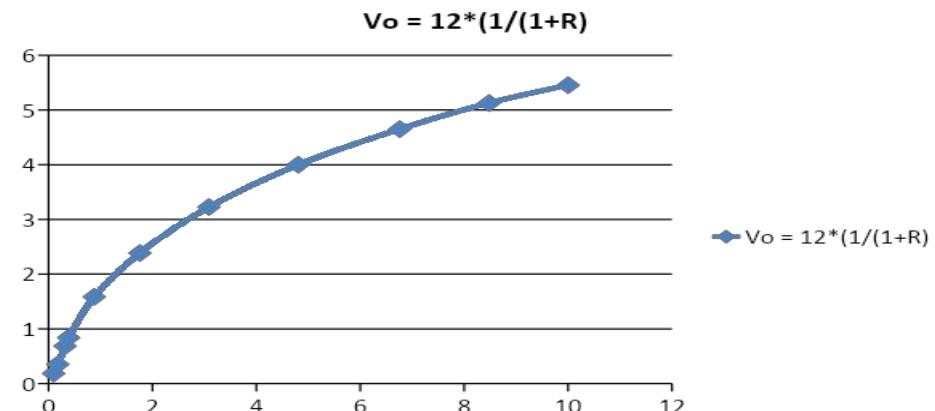
If $R_1 \gg R$ the output is almost independent of the sensor
Not a good choice

Tinkercad simulation



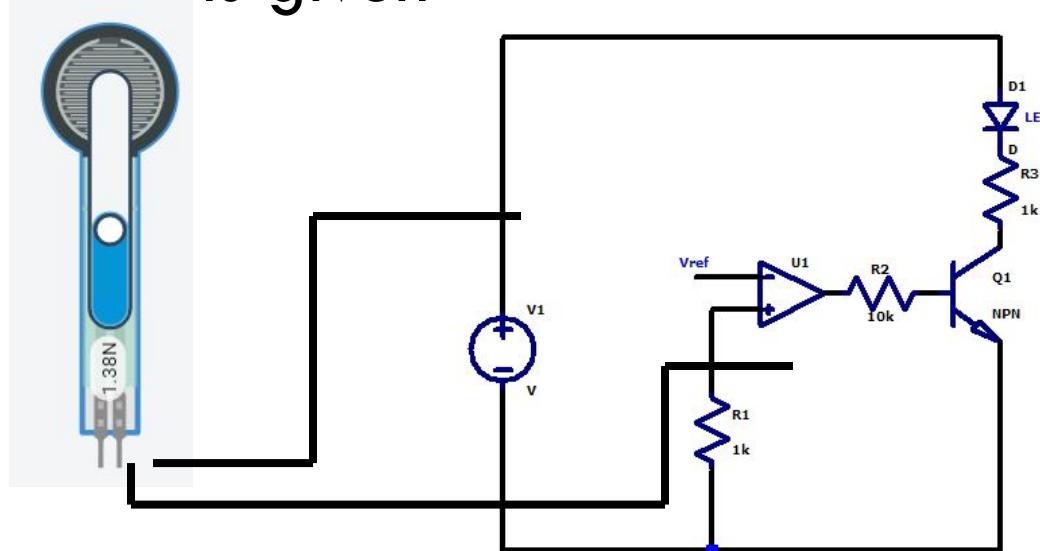
Force vs output voltage

F(Newtons)	R(Kohms)	$V_o = 12 * (1 / (1 + R))$
0.1	64.2	0.18404908
0.18	33.2	0.350877193
0.32	16.5	0.685714286
0.39	13.3	0.839160839
0.88	6.58	1.583113456
1.76	4.03	2.385685885
3.09	2.72	3.225806452
4.81	2	4
6.76	1.58	4.651162791
8.48	1.34	5.128205128
10	1.2	5.454545455



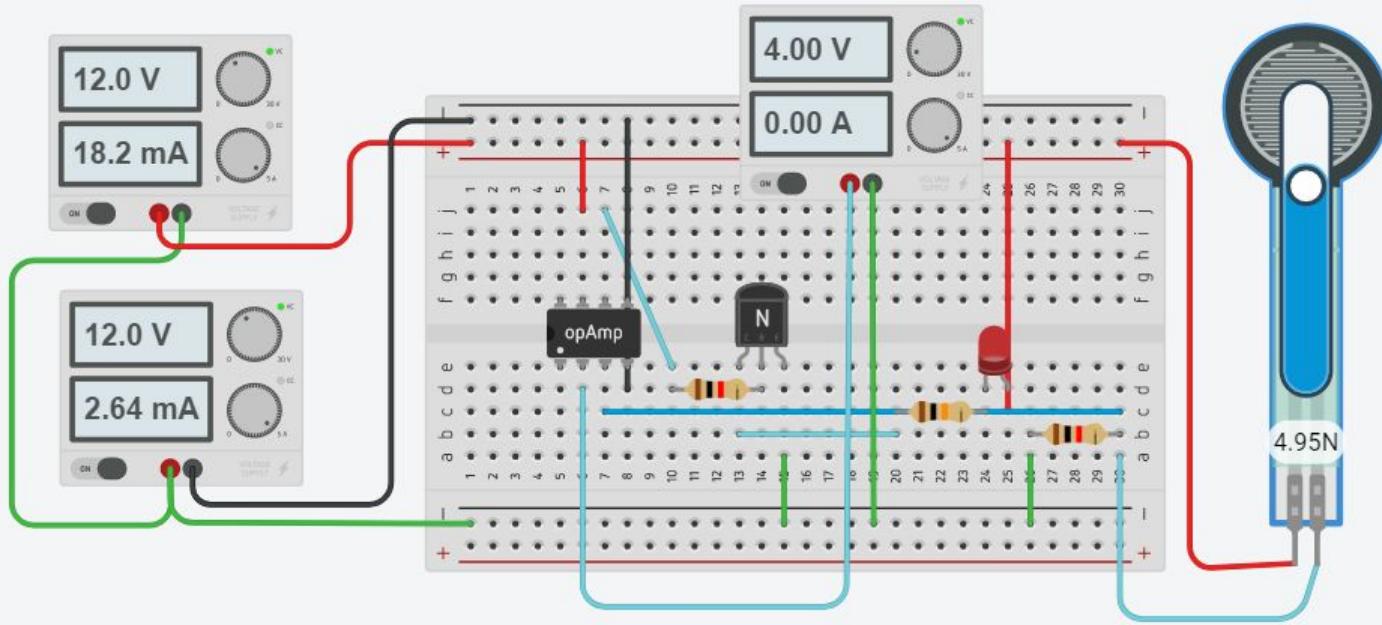
Force alarm

- In this circuit if Force exceeds a certain value an alarm is given in the form of lighting the LED



$$V_{ref} = 4 \text{ volts}$$
$$4.81 \text{ Newtons}$$

Tinkercad Simulation



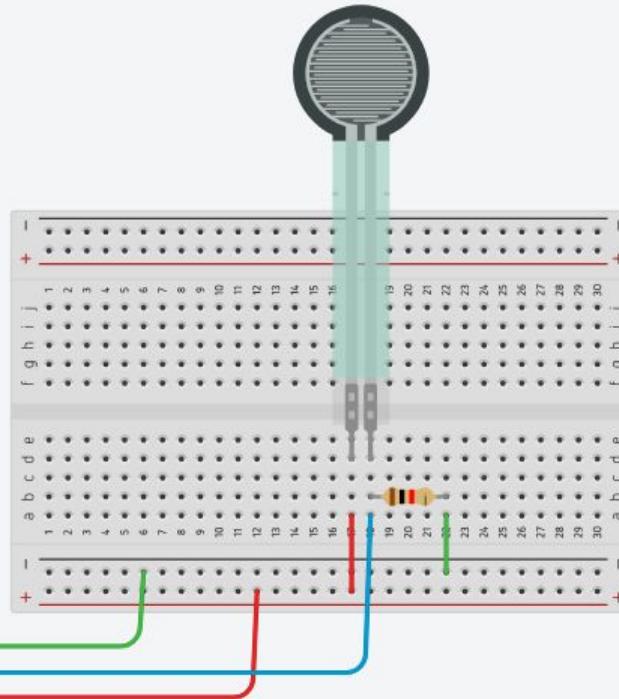
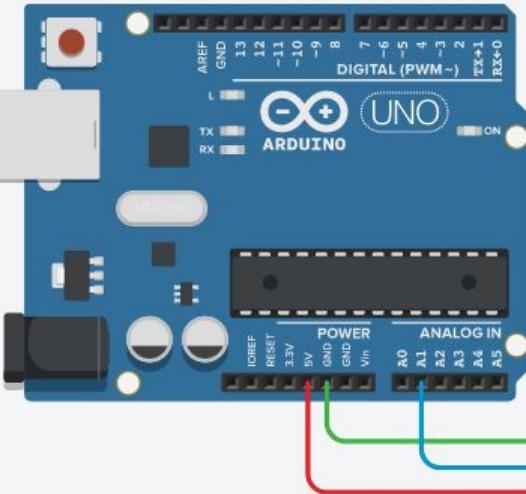
Exercise

- Design and build a force-meter
- Use the suggested circuit for sensing the force
- Use an analog pin to read the input
- Use curve-fitting to convert the input into force in Newtons.

Solution

- A crude solution is given in the next few slides.
- The calibration is good only for larger values of Force
- Students are expected to do better curve fitting

Force-meter circuit

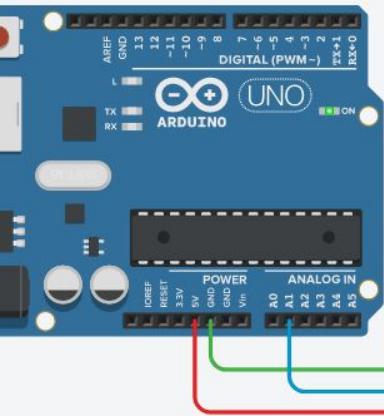


Program

```
float(F);
float(V);
void setup()
{
    Serial.begin(9600);
}
```

```
void loop()
{
    V = analogRead(1);
    if (V < 145)
    {
        F = 0.000018* V*V + 0.0042122*V;
    }
    else if(V >= 145 && V <= 260)
    {
        F = 0.0000417*V*V+0.0013314*V +0.30588 ;
    }
    else
    {
        F = 0.0000832*V*V-0.0256711*V+3.8517;
    }
}
```

Output



Force Sensor
Name 1

The circuit diagram shows a force sensor connected to an Arduino Uno. The sensor has three terminals: red (+), black (GND), and blue (Vcc). The red terminal is connected to digital pin 11 (ANALOG IN), the black terminal is connected to ground (GND), and the blue terminal is connected to power (POWER). A 10kΩ resistor is connected between digital pin 10 (GND) and the red terminal of the force sensor. The Arduino Uno board is shown with its pins labeled: AREF, GND, 1.3, 12, -11, -10, -9, 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, 3, 2, TX+O, RX-O. The digital pins are labeled: DIGITAL (PWM-) and TX/RX. The analog pins are labeled: ANALOG IN and A0, A1, A2, A3, A4, A5. The power pins are labeled: POWER, 3.3V, GND, Vin, and IOREF. The reset pin is labeled: RESET.

```
9
10    v = analogRead(1);
11    if (v < 145)
12    {
13        F = 0.000018*v*v + 0.0042122*v;
14    }
15    else if(v >= 145 && v <= 260)
16    {
17        F = 0.0000417*v*v+0.0013314*v +0.30588 ;
18    }
19    else
20    {
21        F = 0.0000832*v*v-0.0256711*v+3.8517;
22    }
23
24    Serial.println(F);
25 }
```

Serial Monitor

7.10
7.10
7.10
7.10
7.10
7.10
7.10
7.10
7.

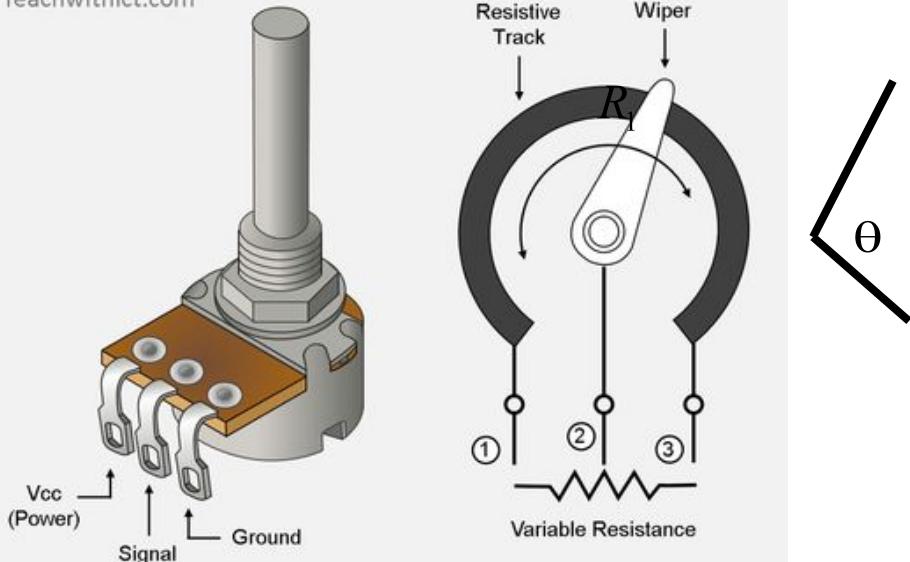
SENSORS, INSTRUMENTS AND EXPERIMENTATION

14 Potentiometer as position transducer

By Ashok Ranade

Potentiometer

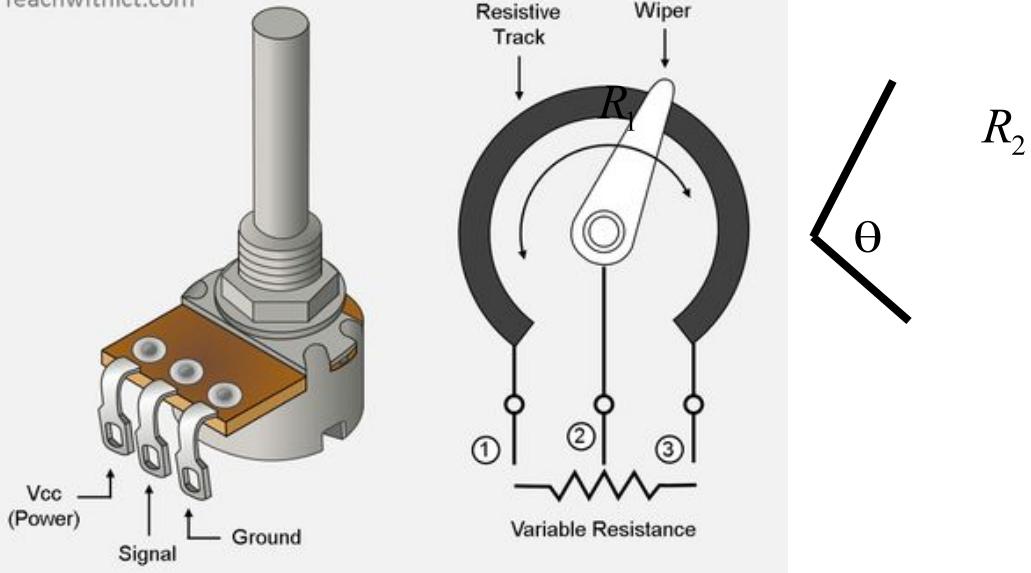
Teachwithict.com



The resistance between 1 and 2 is R_1 , and that between 2 and 3 is R_2 . The resistance between 1 and 3 is constant and is given by $R = R_1 + R_2$. As the wiper is rotated from extreme right (Angle zero) to extreme left (Angle θ_{max}) R_2 changes from 0 to R and R_1 changes from R to 0.

Potentiometer constant

Teachwithict.com



$$R_2 = k\theta$$

*k depends on the radius
and resistive track
properties*

*If θ_{\max} is specified
and R is known
 k can be calculated*

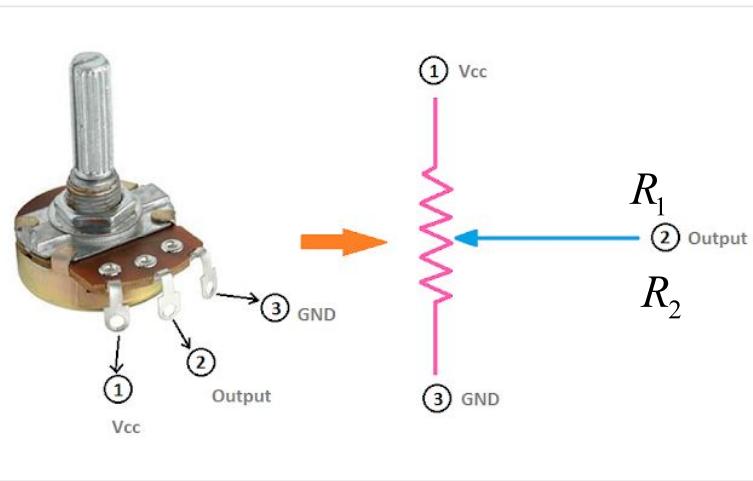
$$R_2 = R \text{ when } \theta = \theta_{\max}$$

$$k = \frac{R}{\theta_{\max}}$$

*if $\theta_{\max} = 300^{\circ}$
for a $10\text{k}\Omega$ pot*

$$k = \frac{1}{30} \text{ k}\Omega/\text{degree}$$

Converting change of resistance into a change of voltage



$$V_{out} = \frac{V_{cc} R_2}{R}$$

$$R = R_1 + R_2$$

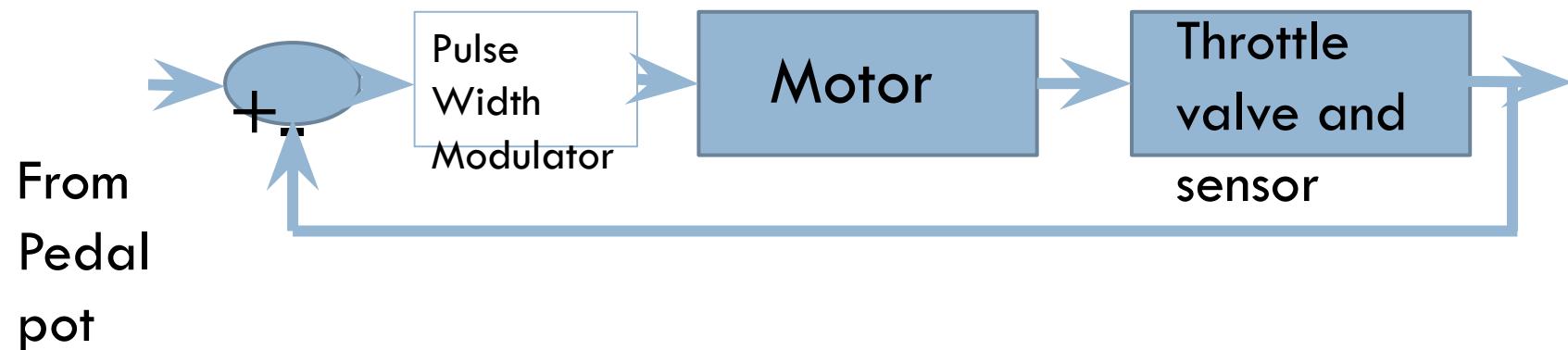
$$V_{out} = \frac{V_{cc} k\theta}{R}$$

$$V_{out} = \frac{V_{cc} \theta}{\theta_{max}}$$

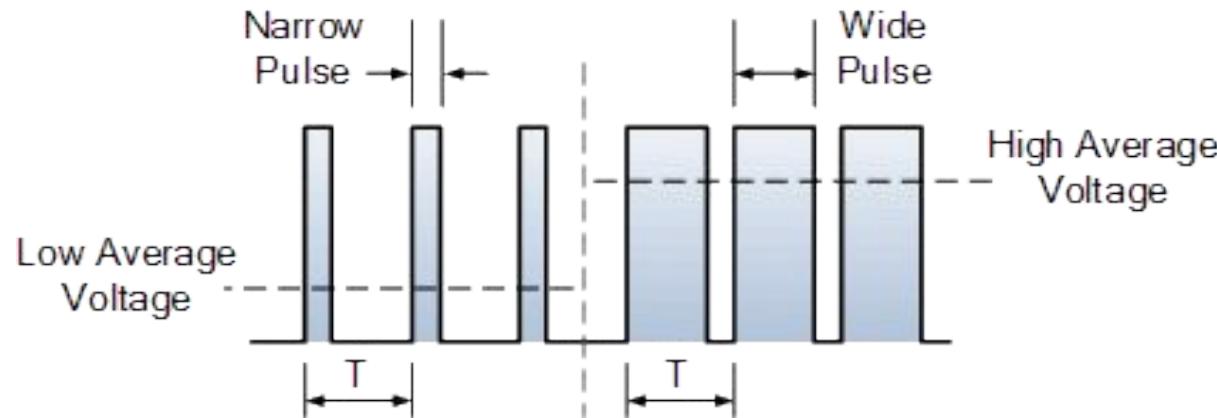
Application in an automobile

- When accelerator pedal is pressed in an automobile throttle valve opens wider allowing more air to go in the engine providing larger energy.
- Precise control of throttle valve can be obtained by using feedback
- Two potentiometers are used. One to sense the pedal position and the other to sense throttle valve ..

Feedback control



Pulse width modulation



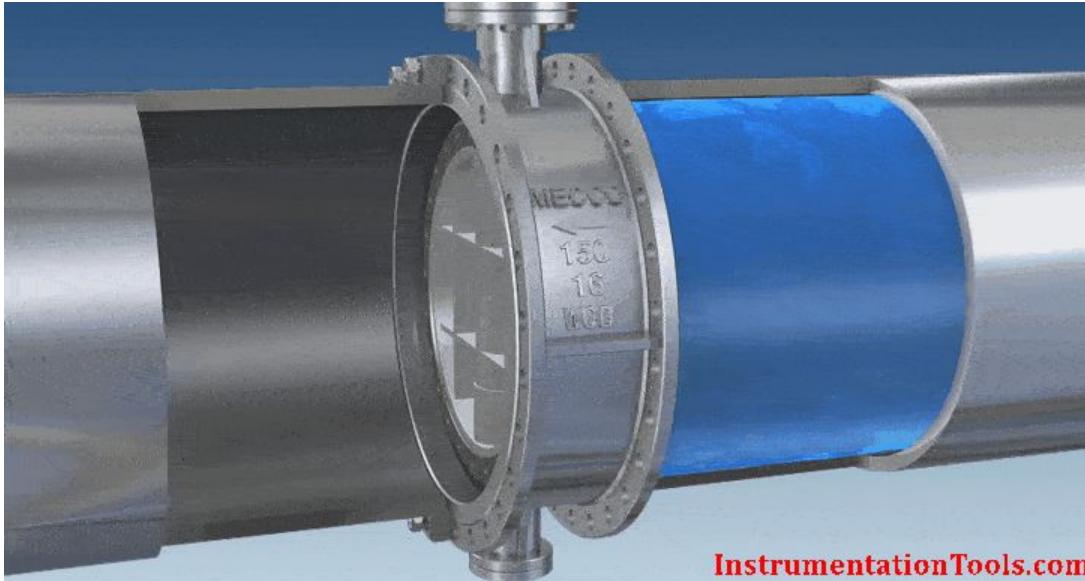
More efficient than using a DC amplifier

$$f = \frac{1}{T}$$

Typical values

from 200 Hz to 500 Hz

Throttle valve



InstrumentationTools.com

Throttle valve angle and Potentiometer output

$$V_{out} = \frac{V_{cc} \times \theta}{\theta_{max}}$$

At 0 degrees the throttle valve is closed. At 90 degrees it is fully open.

$$V_{out} \text{ ranges from } 0 \text{ to } \frac{V_{cc} \times 90}{\theta_{max}}$$

Pedal angle and Potentiometer output

$$V_{out} = \frac{V_{cc} \times \theta}{\theta_{max}}$$

At 0 degrees the accelerator is un-pressed. At 45 degrees it is fully pressed.

$$V_{out} \text{ ranges from } 0 \text{ to } \frac{V_{cc} \times 45}{\theta_{max}}$$

So if θ_{max} is same for throttle valve pot and Pedal pot, for zero error you need twice the supply voltage for Pedal Potentiometer

Angle measurement using arduino

Exercise 9.1

- Interface a potentiometer to Arduino in Tinkercad using analog input pin.
- Note that potentiometer goes from zero degrees to 270 degrees.
- Write the program to read the input from the potentiometer and display the angle on serial monitor

Angle measurement

The diagram illustrates a breadboard setup for measuring the angle of a potentiometer using an Arduino Uno. The breadboard has a blue track and red and green wires connecting the Uno pins A0, GND, and 5V to a potentiometer. The potentiometer's wiper is connected to pin A0. The breadboard also shows a digital output pin connected to a blue LED.

```
// C++ code
//
3 float (A);
4 float (V);
5 void setup()
{
    Serial.begin(9600);
}
10 void loop()
11 {
    V = analogRead(1);
    A = (270*V/1023);
    Serial.println(A);
}
```

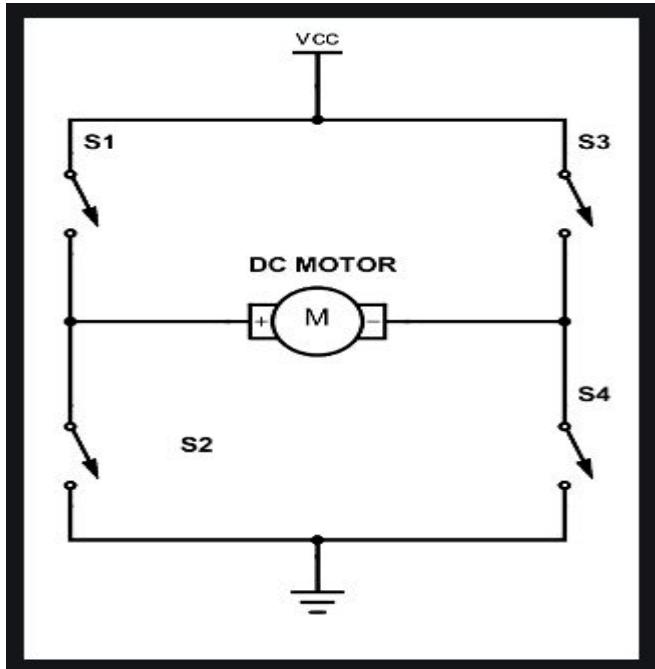
Serial Monitor

134.87
134.87
134.87
134.87
134.87
134.87
134.87

DC motor control using Arduino

- A dc motor is interfaced to Arduino
- The speed of the dc motor will depend on the applied voltage
- Direction of the rotation will depend on the direction of current through the winding.
- Direction of rotation can be reversed using a H bridge

H bridge



S₂, S₃ open

S₁, S₄ closed

Current flows from left to right

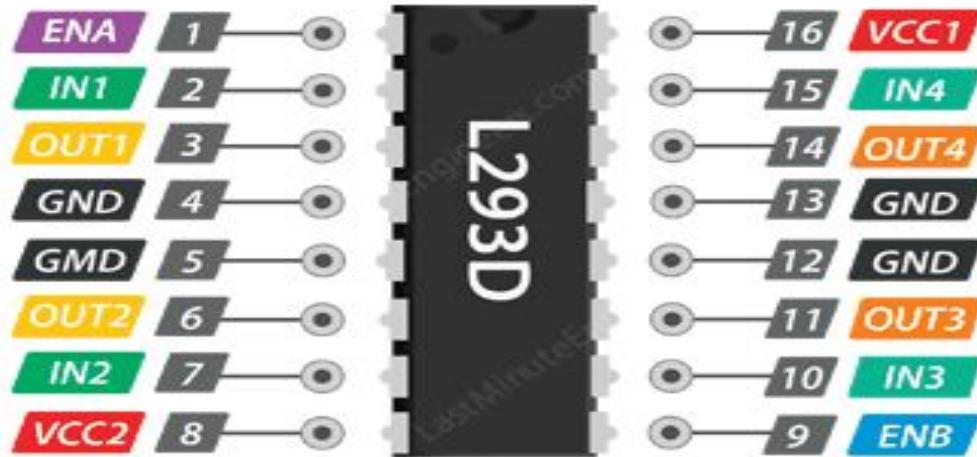
S₂, S₃ closed

S₁, S₄ open

Current flows from right to left

reversing the direction of rotation

H Bridge IC



The spinning direction of a motor can be controlled by applying either a logic HIGH(5 Volts) or logic LOW(Ground) to these pins. The below chart illustrates how this is done.

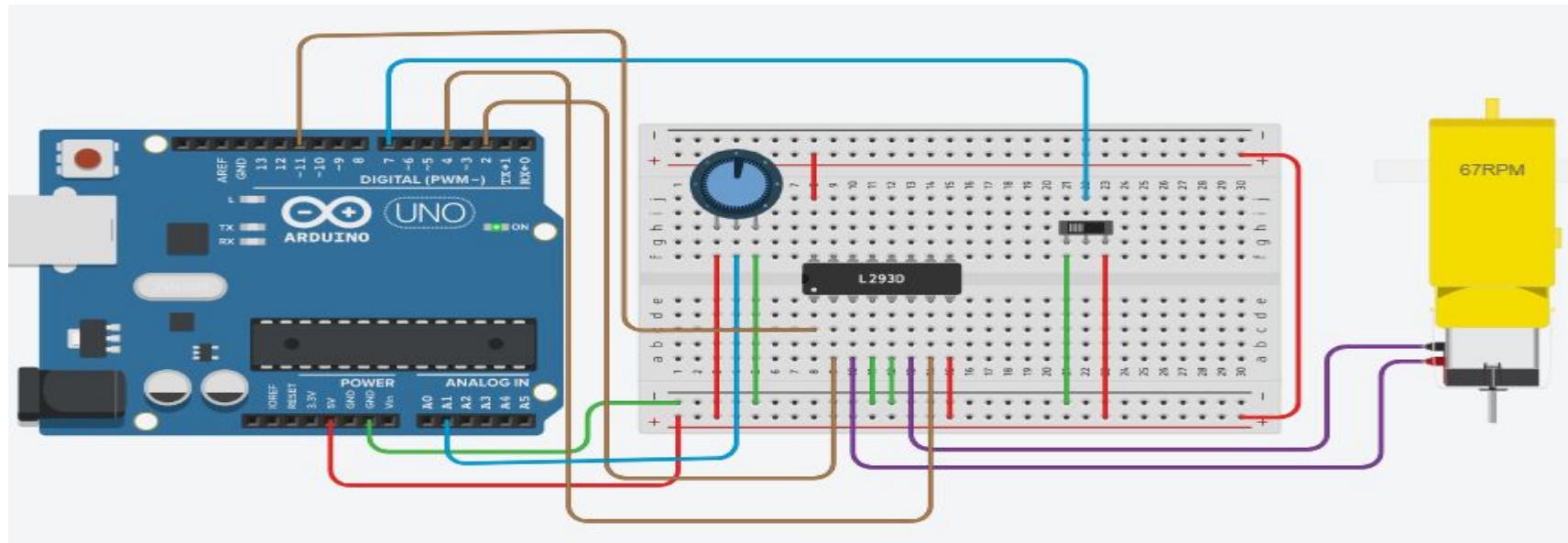
IN1	IN2	Spinning Direction
Low(0)	Low(0)	Motor OFF
High(1)	Low(0)	Forward
Low(0)	High(1)	Backward
High(1)	High(1)	Motor OFF

This can control two motors
Vcc1 should be +5 volts. This is used for logic circuits.
Voltage to Vcc2 is for the motor.
This can have values from 4.5 volts to 36 volts.
Out1 and Out2 go to motor terminals.
IN1 and IN2 control direction of rotation as follows
When ENA is high the motor runs. When it is low the motor stops. So if a PWM waveform is connected to ENA speed can be

Exercise 9.2

- Design the hardware and software interface to arduino for direction and speed control of a dc motor. (Use hobby gear-motor in Tinkercad)
- Use a potentiometer and an analog input pin to provide a variable voltage to the Arduino. In the program scale this so as to generate a PWM signal of variable duty cycle to be connected to Enable pin.
- Use a slide switch to generate a digital input. If this is high motor should run in one direction. Otherwise in the

Hardware interface



```
float x; float y;

void setup()
{
    pinMode(11, OUTPUT);

    pinMode(4, OUTPUT);
    pinMode(2, OUTPUT);
}

void loop()
{
    if (digitalRead(7) == HIGH)
    {
        digitalWrite(4,HIGH);
        digitalWrite(2,LOW);
    }
    else
    {
        digitalWrite(4,LOW);
        digitalWrite(2,HIGH);
    }
    x = analogRead(A1);
    y = x*255/1023 ;
    analogWrite(11,y);
}
```

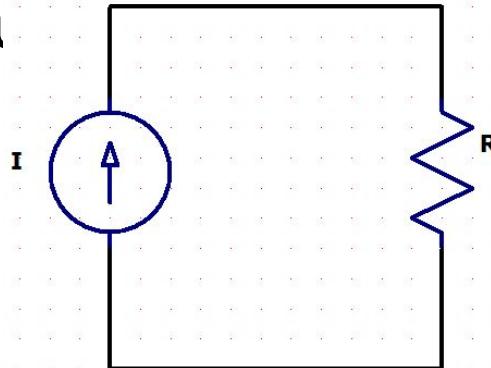
SENSORS, INSTRUMENTS AND EXPERIMENTATION

10 Temperature Detectors

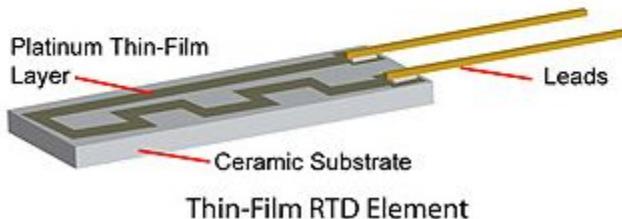
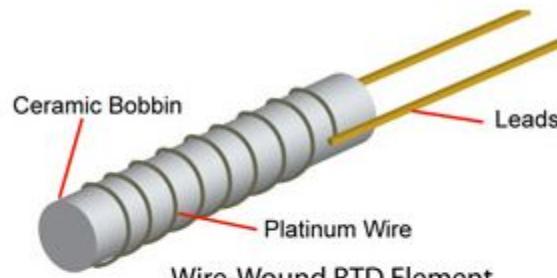
By Ashok Ranade

Resistance temperature detectors (RTD)

- RTD is a resistance which depends on temperature
- RTDs can be made with both positive and negative temperature coefficients.
- To develop a voltage proportional to temperature a circuit is required



Platinum RTDs



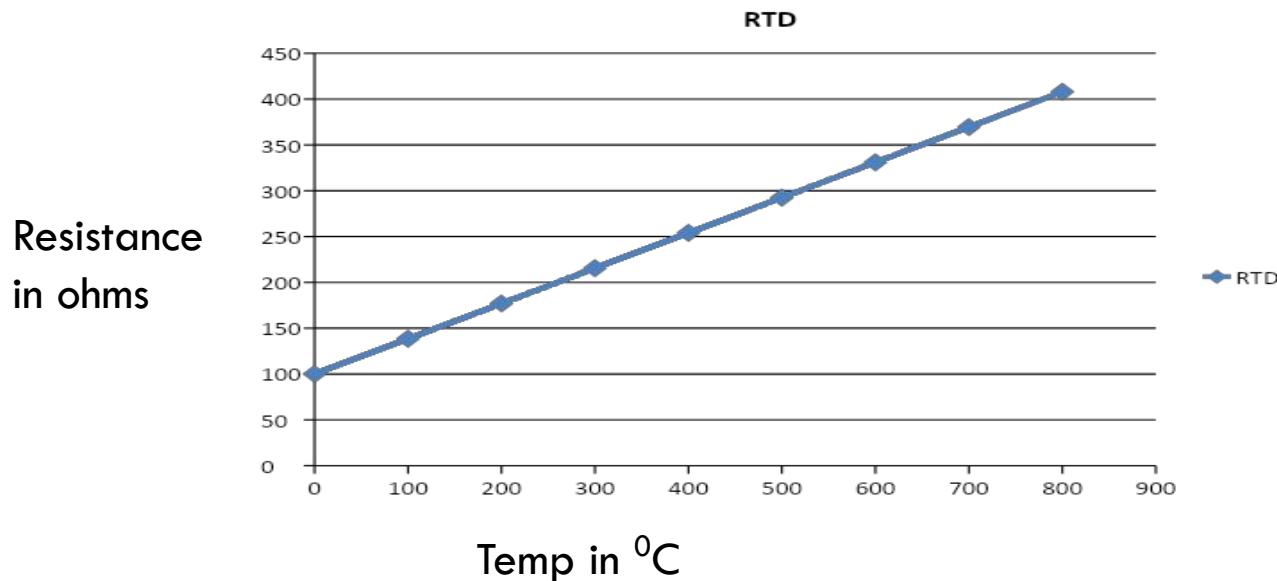
Platinum has high resistivity
 1.06×10^{-7} ohm-meter at 20°C

$$R_T = [R_0 + (\alpha R_0 \Delta T)]$$
$$\alpha = 0.00385 \Omega/\Omega/^\circ\text{C}$$
 at 0°C

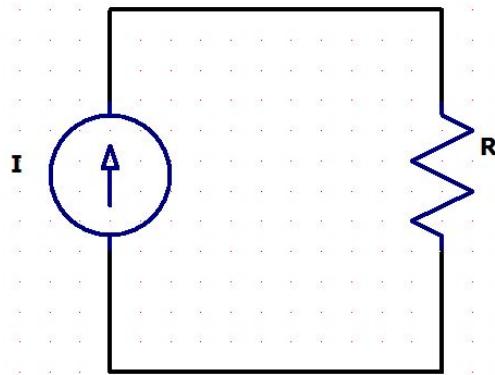
A typical value $R_0 = 100$ ohms

Approximate relationship

T	0	100	200	300	400	500	600	700	800
RTD	100	138.5	177	215.5	254	292.5	331	369.5	408



Temperature calculation



T

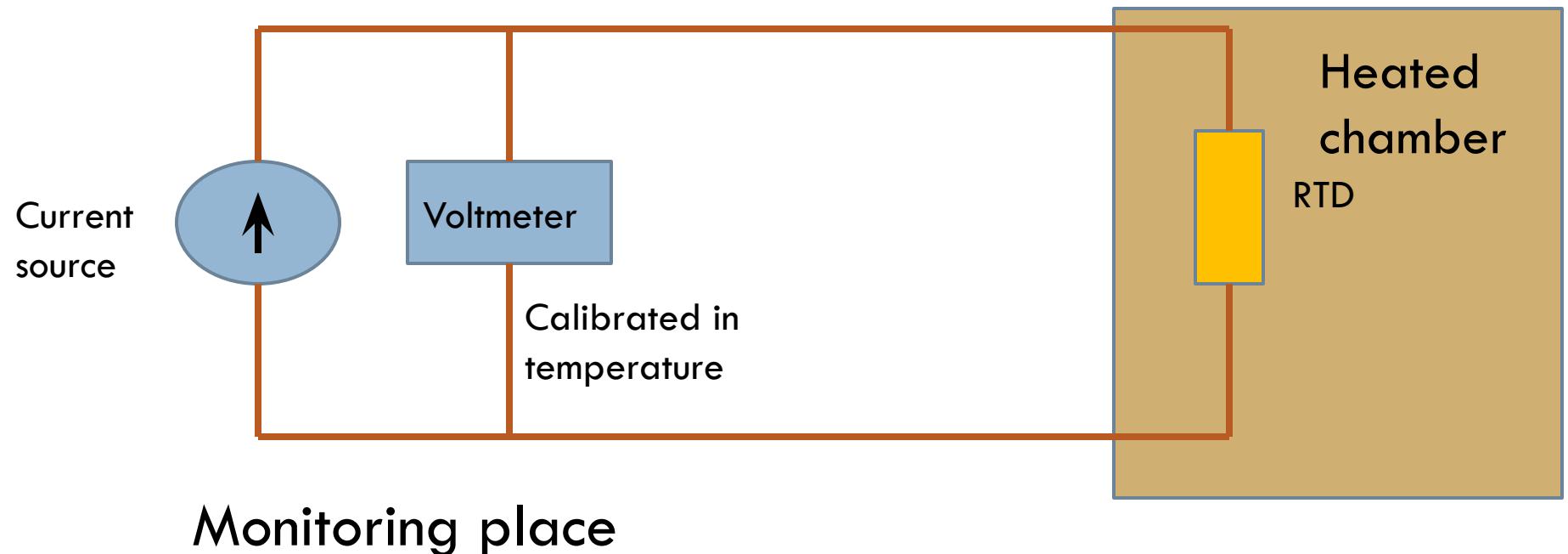
RTD

$$R_T = R_0 + R_0 \times \alpha \times T$$

$$V_T = IR_T = IR_0 + IR_0\alpha T$$

$$T = \frac{1}{\alpha} \left(\frac{V_T}{IR_0} - 1 \right)$$

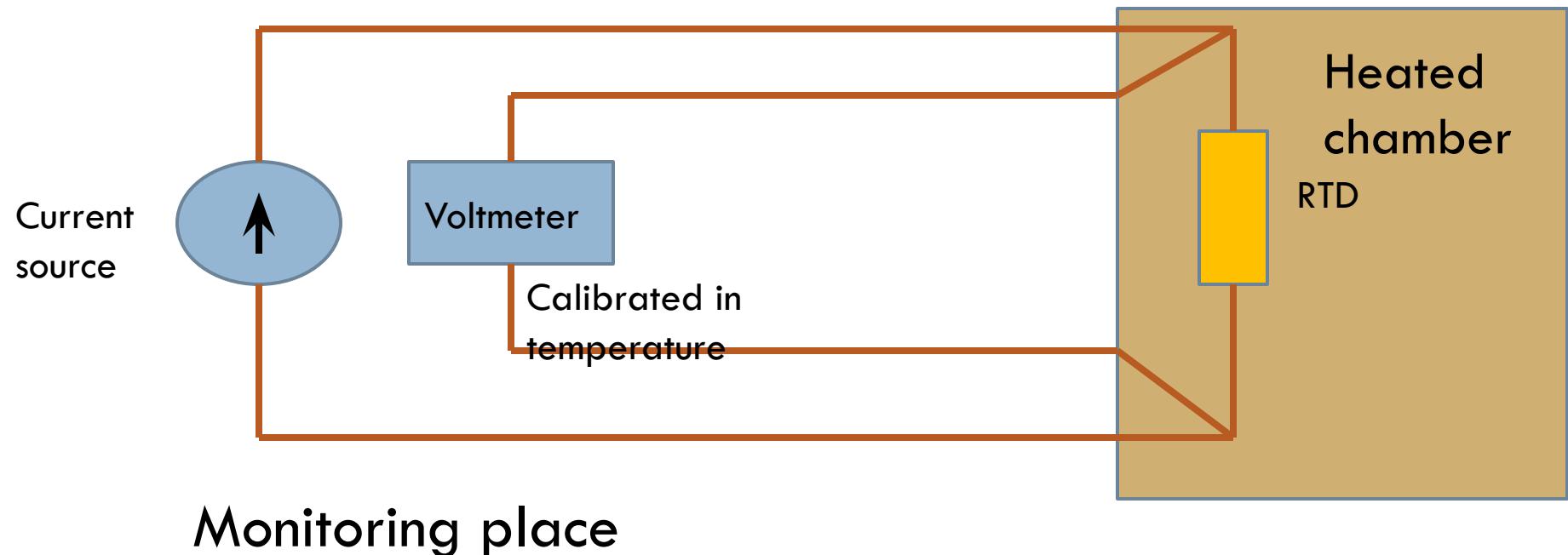
Line resistance effect



If the distance between monitoring place and the chamber is large line resistances will cause error

4-Wire RTD

measurement



Voltmeter has large resistance so very little current flows through measurement wires

Resistance as a function of temperature

- A better approximation is

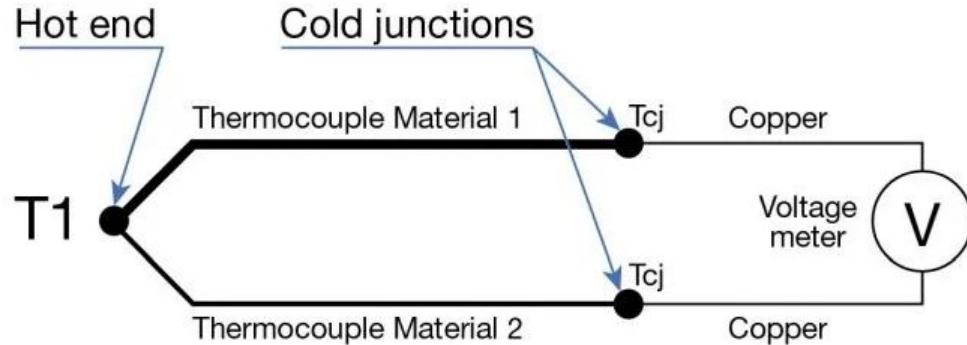
$$R = R_0(1 + AT - BT^2 - CT^3)$$

$$A = 3.6962 \times 10^{-3} : B = 5.8494 \times 10^{-7}$$

$$C = 4.2325 \times 10^{-12}$$

Thermocouples

- Thermocouple is basically a junction of two dissimilar metals and gives a voltage depending on the temperature of the junction
- Discovered by Thomas Seebeck in 1821



Types

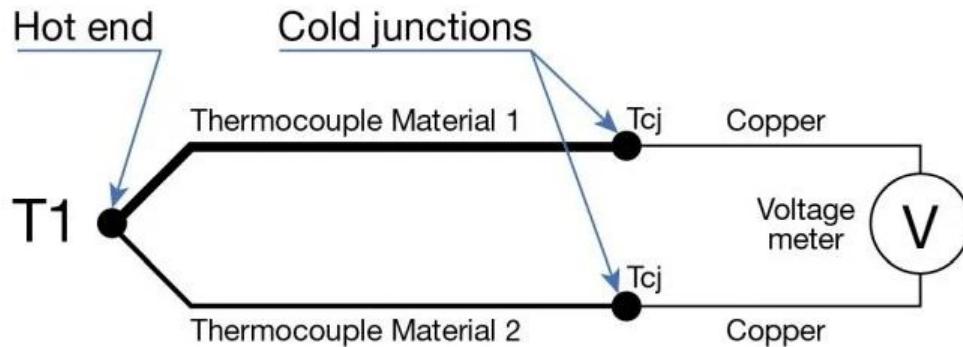
Thermocouple Types			
Type	Conductor Combination	Temperature Range	
		°F	°C
B	Platinum 30% Rhodium / Platinum 6% Rhodium	2500 to 3100	1370 to 1700
E	Nickel-chromium / Constantan	32 to 1600	0 to 870
J	Iron / Constantan	32 to 1400	0 to 760
K	Nickel-chromium / Nickel-aluminium	32 to 2300	0 to 1260
N	Nicrosil / Nisil	32 to 2300	0 to 1260
R	Platinum 13% Rhodium / Platinum	1600 to 2640	870 to 1450
S	Platinum 10% Rhodium / Platinum	1800 to 2640	980 to 1450
T	Copper / Constantan	-75 to +700	-59 to +370

The first metal has +ve polarity

Merits and demerits

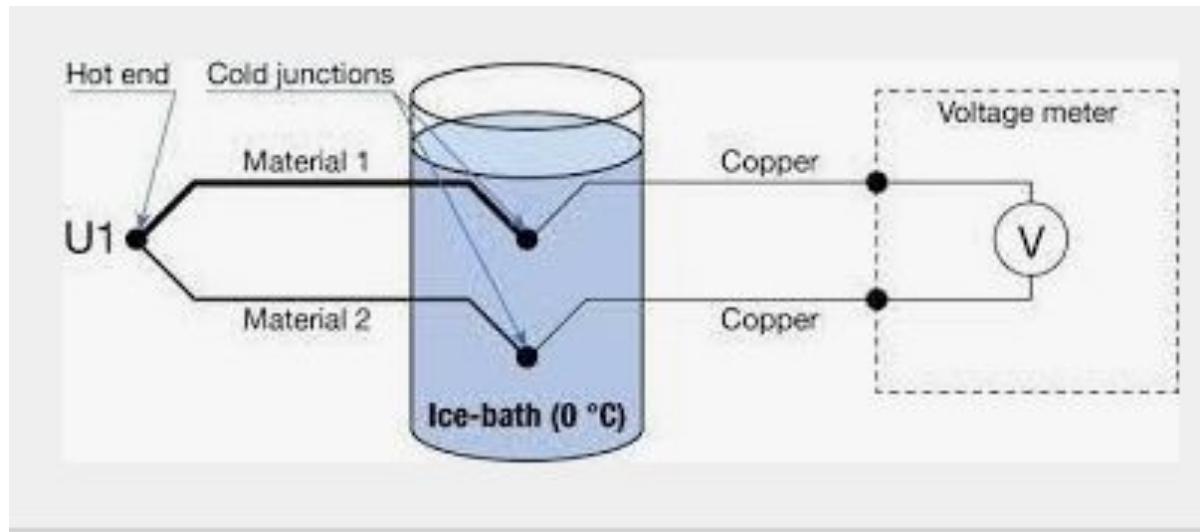
- Much higher temperature range compared to RTD
- Much more rugged
- Non-linear characteristics
- Less accurate.

Reference(Cold) junction



There is one hot junction and two cold junctions. The output voltage is the resultant of all the voltages produced. But if the reference junctions are kept at zero degree centigrade their voltages are zero and the output voltage corresponds to the temperature of hot junction.

Calibration



Polynomial for J thermocouple

$$T = a_0 + a_1v + a_2v^2 + a_3v^3 + a_4v^4 + a_5v^5$$

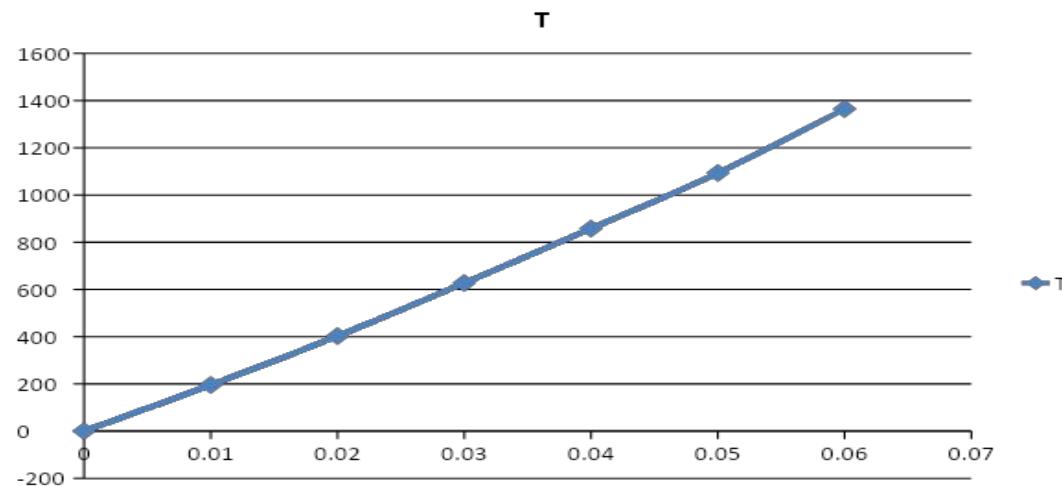
$$T = -0.048868252 + 19873.14503 v - 128614.5353 v^2 + 11569199.78 v^3 - 264917531.4 v^4 + 2018441314 v^5$$

Polynomial for J thermocouple

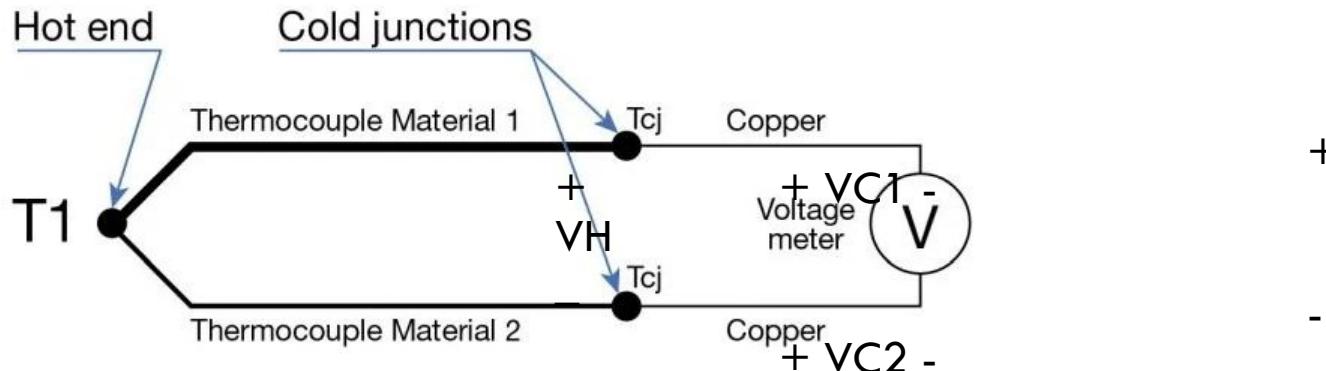
$$T = a_0 + a_1v + a_2v^2 + a_3v^3 + a_4v^4 + a_5v^5$$

v	0	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.06
T	-0.05	194.9	402.6	627.2	858	1093	1364

V in volts
T in degrees C



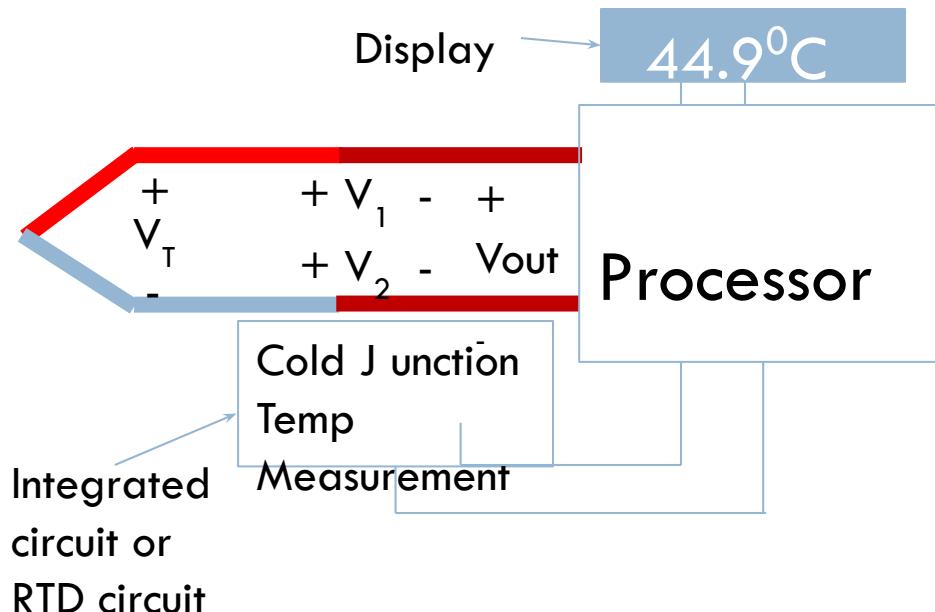
Reference junction compensation



The temperature of the reference junction is regulated at some convenient value. Hence VC_1 and VC_2 are known. V is measured. Note that polarities shown are assumed polarities. They ~~would be different~~ for different type of junctions.

From the characteristics of the thermocouple T_1 can be calculated

Automatic junction compensation



The polarities of V_T , V_1 and V_2 depend on the metals

Algorithm

- (1) Read V_{out} through an ADC
- (2) Read cold junction temperature
- (3) Calculate V_1 and V_2
- (4) Calculate
$$V_T = V_1 + V_{out} - V_2$$
- (5) Calculate the hot junction temperature
- (6) Display temperature
- (7) Delay
- (8) Go to (1)

Temperature sensor TMP 36

Low voltage operation (2.7 V to 5.5 V)

Calibrated directly in °C

10 mV/°C scale factor (20 mV/°C on TMP37)

±2°C accuracy over temperature (typ)

±0.5°C linearity (typ)

Stable with large capacitive loads

Specified -40°C to +125°C, operation to +150°C

Less than 50 µA quiescent current

Shutdown current 0.5 µA max

Low self-heating

Qualified for automotive applications

Temp in °C : V_o in millivolts

When Temp = -40°C V_o = 100 mV

When Temp = 125°C V_o = 1750 mV

Exercise 10.1

- Interface the IC TMP 36 to arduino in Tinkercad
- IC has three terminals. Vcc, Ground and Vout
- Use an analog pin to read the output of TMP 36
- Perform necessary calculation to obtain the temperature
- Display the temperature on the serial monitor
- Note that you will see a slider on top of the IC once the simulation has started. This can be used to change the temperature.
- In actual application the temperature is decided by the

Calculation required

- The value read (say, V_d) by the analogRead command will be the digital value ranging from 0 to 1023. And it will be 1023 when the input voltage is 5 volts. So the relation between V_d and V_o is given

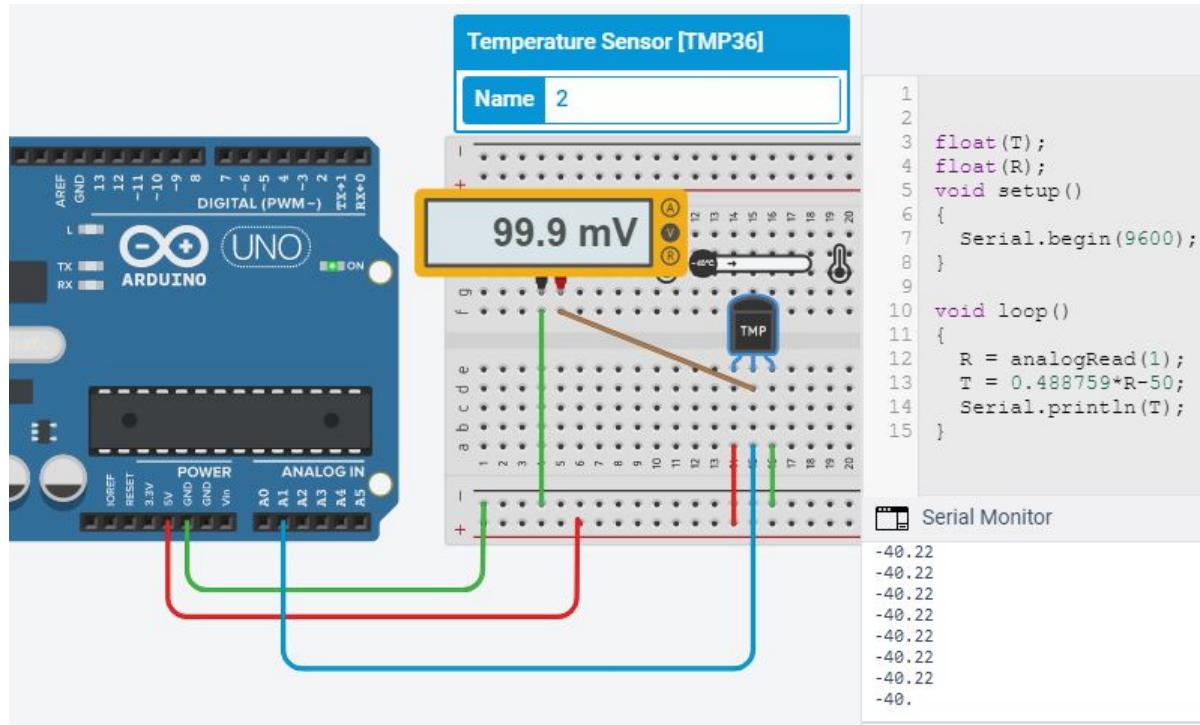
by
$$\frac{V_d}{5000} \times 5000 : Voltages\ in\ mvolts$$

$$V_o = \frac{V_d \times 5000}{1023} = 4.88759 \times V_d$$

$$T = \frac{V_o - 500}{10}$$

$$T = \frac{4.88759 \times V_d - 500}{10} = 0.488759V_d - 50$$

Solution (Minimum Temperature)



Highest temperature

The image shows a breadboard setup connected to an Arduino Uno. The breadboard has a digital display module showing "1.75 V". A TMP36 temperature sensor is connected to the breadboard. The circuit connections are as follows:

- V_{DD} (red wire) is connected to 5V on the Arduino.
- GND (green wire) is connected to GND on the Arduino.
- OUT (blue wire) is connected to A0 on the Arduino.
- 3.3V (red wire) is connected to Vin on the breadboard.
- GND (green wire) is connected to GND on the breadboard.
- OUT (blue wire) is connected to the positive terminal of the digital display.
- 3.3V (red wire) is connected to the negative terminal of the digital display.

A screenshot of the Arduino IDE Serial Monitor shows the following data:

```
124.98  
124.98  
124.98  
124.98  
124.98  
124.98  
124.98  
124.98
```

The code for the Arduino sketch is:

```
1 float(T);  
2 float(R);  
3 void setup()  
4 {  
5   Serial.begin(9600);  
6 }  
7  
8 void loop()  
9 {  
10   R = analogRead(1);  
11   T = 0.488759*R-50;  
12   Serial.println(T);  
13 }  
14  
15 }
```