# **Strain Gauges**





#### Strain

 In many aerospace applications it is useful to measure strain

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

From it we can also derive;

- Displacement
  - by knowing the geometric relationship between strain and displacement for a structure
- Force
  - by knowing the stiffness of the structure





#### General applications



 A load cell is a structure designed such that forces in a particular axis can be inferred from the measured strain a part of that structure. Used for electronic balances



 Strain gauges are also extensively used to monitor civil structures, monitoring loading and/or cracking





# Aerospace applications





www.hbm.com

• Strain gauges mounted on propellers to monitor loads in flight





### Aerospace applications

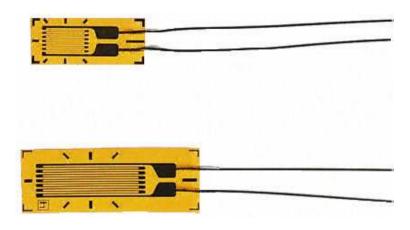


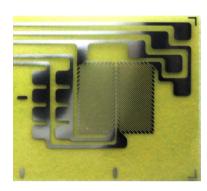
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#### Metallic strain gauges





- The most common strain gauge is the metallic foil gauge.
- A thin metallic strip, encapsulated in a polymer sheath, is tightly bonded to the host structure such that as the structure elongates or contracts so will the gauge.
- The resistance of the gauge is related to its geometry and so as the structure moves, the resistance changes.
- Converts change in length into a change in resistance



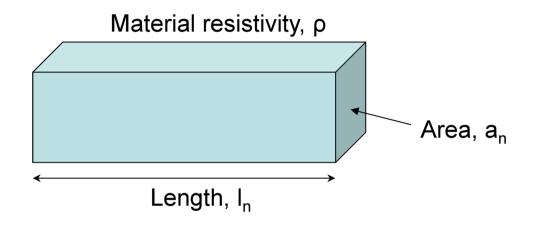


#### Metallic foil gauges – simplistic physics

- Metallic materials have free electrons in their atomic structure electrons that are not caught in covalent bonds with neighbouring atoms.
- These electrons are free to travel and conduct charge when exposed to an electric field.
- However the electrons must negotiate the lattice structure of the conductor.
  The structure impedes the progress of the electrons and gives rise to the
  phenomena of resistance (it's a bit more complex than this but lets not open
  that can of worms!).
- If the path is made longer resistance increases. Conversely if the cross section of the path is increased, resistance decreases.
- Temperature also has an effect. In metals the increased vibrations of the lattice structure at higher temperatures increases resistance. More of this later.





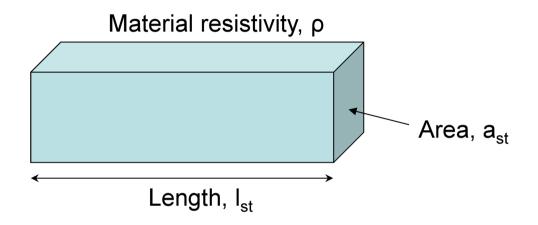


$$R_n = \rho \frac{l_n}{a_n}$$

 Resistance of a simple prism is given by the resistivity of the material, ρ, multiplied by length, *l*, divided by area, a. (Where current flows along the length)





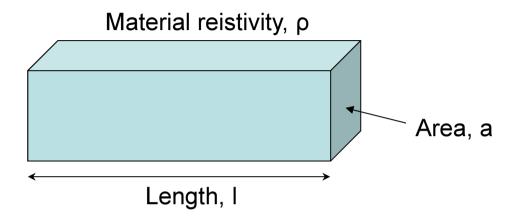


$$R_{st} = \rho \frac{l_{st}}{a_{st}}$$

 After stretching the resistivity of the material is normally the same. The new length and area are used to calculate new resistance.







$$\Delta R / R = GF \Delta l / l$$

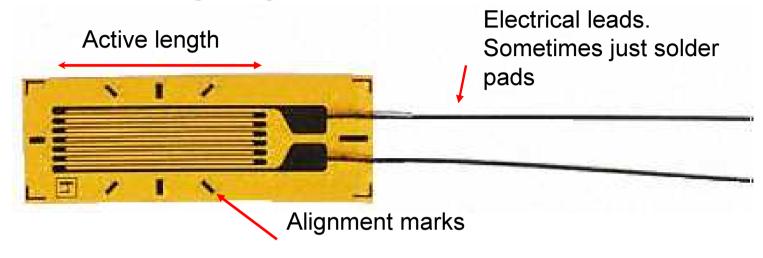
$$\Delta R/R = GF * strain$$

- The gauge factor is defined as the ratio between the relative change in resistance and the strain (It incorporates Poisson ratio).
- Most foil gauges have GF~2
- I is the unstrained length; R is the unstrained resistance





#### Metallic strain gauges



- A practical strain gauge is made up of many 'strips' of an alloyed metal folded back upon each other to increase the effective length.
- The nominal resistance can be standardised to one of several values.  $120\Omega$  is the most common but they can be higher or lower.
- Typical strain measuring range is ~ +-3%
- They are normally temperature compensated for a particular substrate i.e. they are designed to match the thermal expansion of the material, with differing gauges for steel and aluminium.





- The input variable (length) modulates a parameter (resistance) in the electrical domain.
- We need a additional system to convert resistance to voltage.

$$V = IR$$

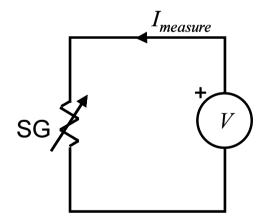
 From Ohms law we know that resistance is the constant that relates Voltage and Current.

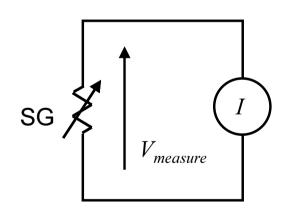




## Metallic foil gauges – direct measurement

- The input variable (length) modulates a parameter (resistance) in the electrical domain.
- We need a additional system to convert resistance to something we can measure.
- We could apply a voltage and measure current, or apply a current and measure voltage

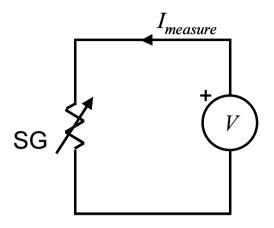








## Metallic foil gauges – direct measurement



$$I = \frac{V}{R_n + \Delta R}$$

$$\varepsilon = \frac{1}{GF} \left( \frac{V}{IR_n} - 1 \right)$$

- Let's consider this measuring system and its output over a modest +/-2% maximum strain.
- V=12V, GF=2,  $R_n$ =120 $\Omega$

$$I_{\varepsilon=0} = \frac{12}{120} = 0.1A$$

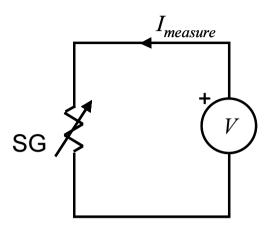
$$I_{\varepsilon=2\%} = \frac{12}{120 + 4.8} = 0.096A$$

$$I_{\varepsilon=-2\%} = \frac{12}{120 - 4.8} = 0.104A$$





## Metallic foil gauges – direct measurement



- Let's consider this measuring system and its output over a modest +/-2% maximum strain.
- V=12V, GF=2,  $R_n$ =120 $\Omega$

- Max value to be measured = 0.104 A
- Resolution of 1% in each direction = 0.004/100 = 0.00004A
- Resolution as percentage of max = 0.038%
- This is can be challenging!





#### Important idea

 It is difficult to design a system to achieve a high resolution over a large range.

Why?





#### Direct measurement - problems

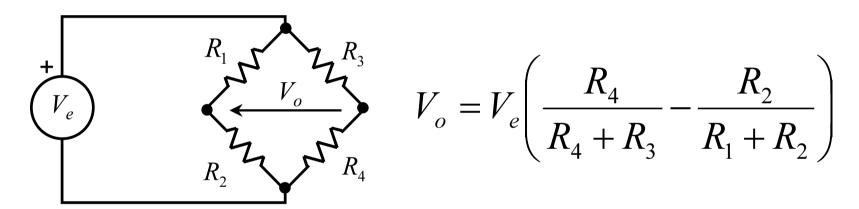
- Direct measurement has several potential problems.
- Accurate current/voltage sources and measurement are possible (within limits), although not always convenient.
- Accuracy problems are being exacerbated because we really want to measure *change* rather than *absolute* resistance.





#### The Wheatstone bridge

- This type of measurement problem is common place and hence solutions exist.
- Using a 'bridge' we can measure resistance relative to a known value.



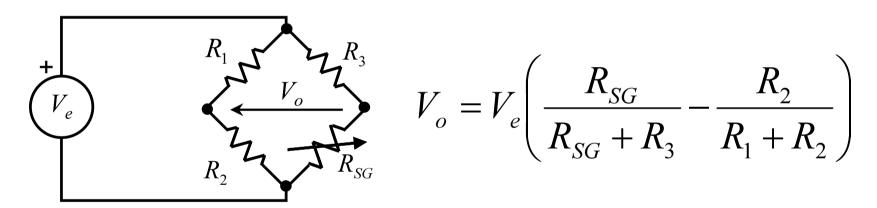
 This type of circuit was popularised by Sir Charles Wheatstone, hence the common name 'Wheatstone bridge'





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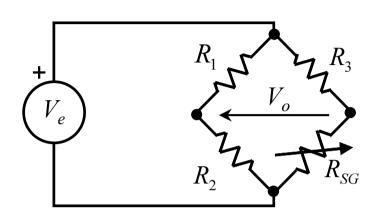


This circuit will measure the difference between R<sub>2</sub> and R<sub>SG</sub>.





#### The Bridge



$$V_{o} = V_{e} \left( \frac{R_{SG}}{R_{SG} + R_{3}} - \frac{R_{2}}{R_{1} + R_{2}} \right)$$

$$V_{o} = V_{e} \left( \frac{R_{n} + \Delta R}{(R_{n} + \Delta R) + R_{n}} - \frac{R_{n}}{R_{n} + R_{n}} \right)$$

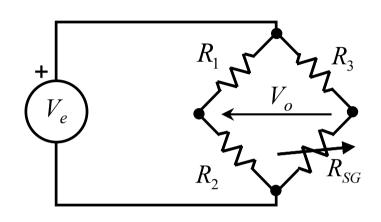
• Set  $R_1 R_2 R_3 = R_n$  (unstrained)

$$V_o \approx \frac{V_e}{4} \left( GF \frac{\Delta l}{l} \right)$$





#### The Bridge



$$V_o \approx \frac{V_e}{4} \left( GF \frac{\Delta l}{l} \right)$$

$$V_{o,\epsilon=0.02} = 0$$

$$V_{o,\epsilon=0.02} = 0.01V_e$$

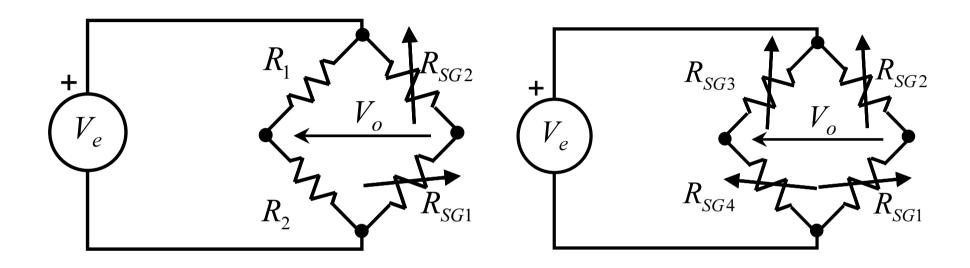
$$V_{o,\epsilon=-0.02} = -0.01V_e$$

- Max to be measured = 0.01V<sub>e</sub>
- Resolution of  $1\% = 0.01/100 = 0.0001 V_e$
- Resolution as percentage of range = 1%
- Now we have removed the offset, if we want to measure with 1/100<sup>th</sup> of full range of strain we only need a meter capable of 1% resolution much easier than before. (resolution is 26 times less than required in our previous example)





#### The Bridge – combining gauges



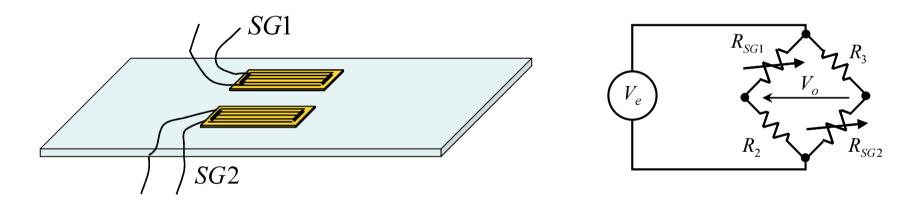
- The bridge can be made up with more than one 'active' element.
- A bridge with one active element is a 'quarter'; two active elements make a half bridge; four a full bridge





#### Useful strain gauge connections

 Strain gauges can be combined - on the subject and in the bridge – to give a variety of useful behaviours.

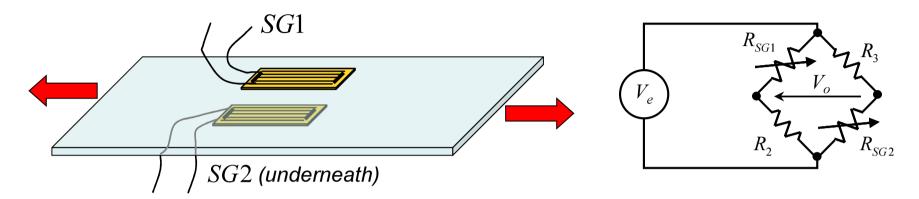


SGs combined to double sensitivity

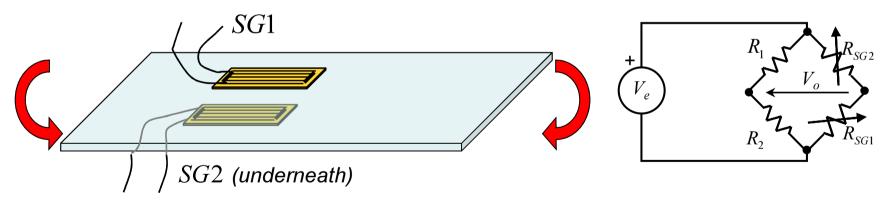




#### More useful strain gauge connections



• Doubles sensitivity, measures tensile strain, eliminates bending strain

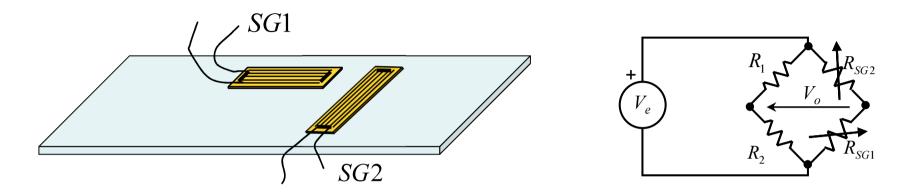


• Doubles sensitivity, measures bending strain, eliminates tensile strain





#### More useful strain gauge connections



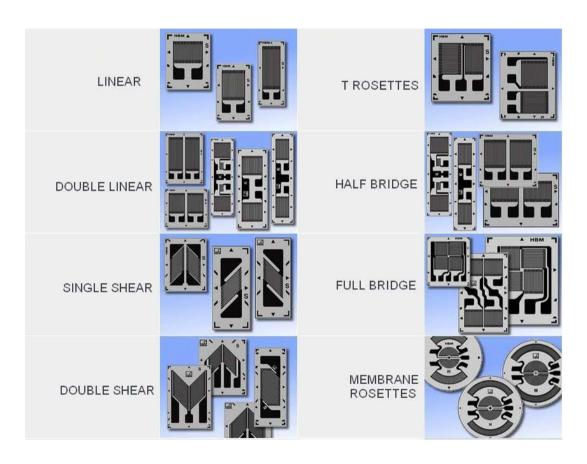
#### Provides temperature compensation

- Most materials expand as they heat up.
- Where the temperature change is modest, the SG may be sufficiently compensated through its design.
- Alternatively, further SG are used which are positioned such that they only respond to strain due to temperature effects.
- The output is combined in the bridge to cancel temperature-induced strain measurements

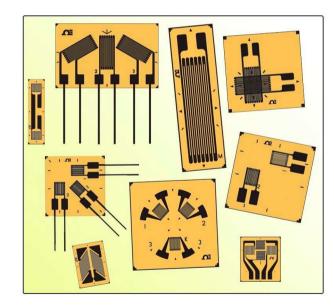




#### **SG** Rosettes



SG's are often packaged with multiple elements to aid sensing in multiple axes and/or to provide isolation from unwanted strain components or temperature effects.







#### Bridge problems

 The ¼ bridge with voltage excitation doesn't quite measure strain.

We want:

But we get:

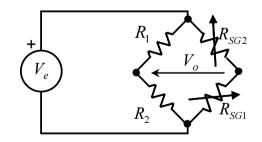
$$V_o \propto \frac{\Delta R}{R}$$

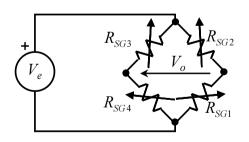
$$V_o \propto \left(\frac{\Delta R + R_n}{\Delta R + 2R_n} - 0.5\right)$$

• Error is about 0.5% of indicated strain value, so absolute error is low for low strains and worse at higher levels.

#### Bridge problems

- The ¼ bridge with voltage excitation doesn't quite measure strain.
- Apply a pre-determined correction factor.
- Use current source to excite bridge (reduces but does not eliminate error)
- Use a bridge topology that maintains a constant current in each leg, e.g. arrangements of;



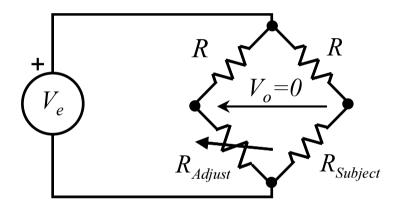






#### Null sensing

 When the bridge was first invented it wasn't used in the way we have described so far....



- The resistance of the subject was determined by adjusting a resistance on the opposing leg so that the measured voltage was equal to zero.
- With zero measured voltage, the adjustable resistance must be of equal value to the subject.





#### Important idea

- Null sensing where we 'force' some variable to zero and measure the effort required; the value of effort is then used as a proxy for what we want to actually measure - is used in many applications.
- Some measurements may not be possible to do directly
- It can shift the requirement for high accuracy onto parts of the measurement system that are easier to make accurate,
- It reduces the range required by some sensors, i.e. in the previous example only accurate indication of zero volts is required, it is the adjustable resistor that must be accurate.





#### Other strain gauges

- Although foil strain gauges are by far the most common way to measure strain, other techniques exist.
- Using a totally different approach, vibrating wire strain gauges measure the frequency of vibration of a wire under tension – like a guitar string.
- Semiconductor SGs exploit a similar effect to metallic foil gauges (resistance of material changing due to deformation) but have much higher gauge factors (~200). The gauge factor varies with strain so extensive calibration is required. They are much cheaper to produce than foil gauges.





# **Strain Gauges**



