

ROCO222: Intro to sensors and actuators

Lecture 1

Measuring position

Digital incremental encoder

Cover and Connector

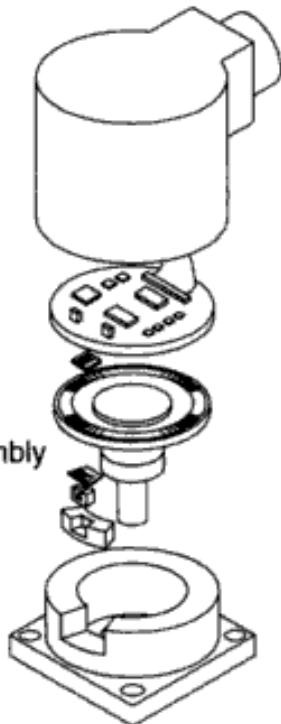
Electronics Assembly

Photodetector Array

Code Disc and Spindle Assembly

Light Source and Mask

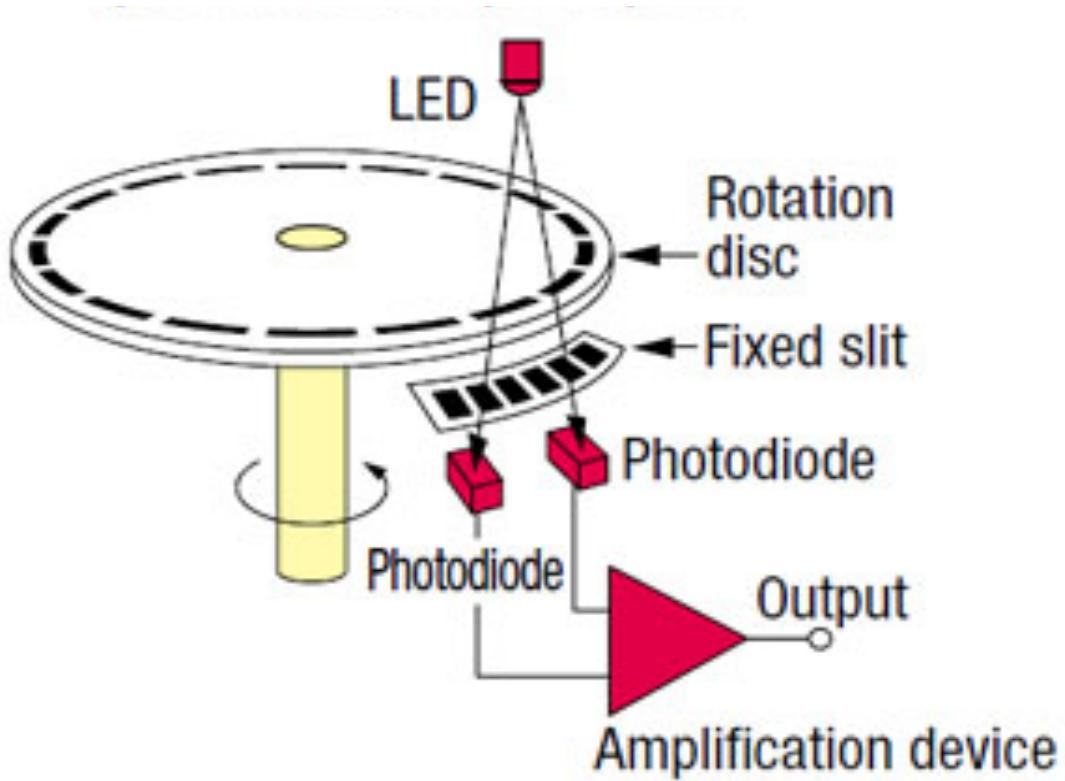
Bearing Housing Assembly



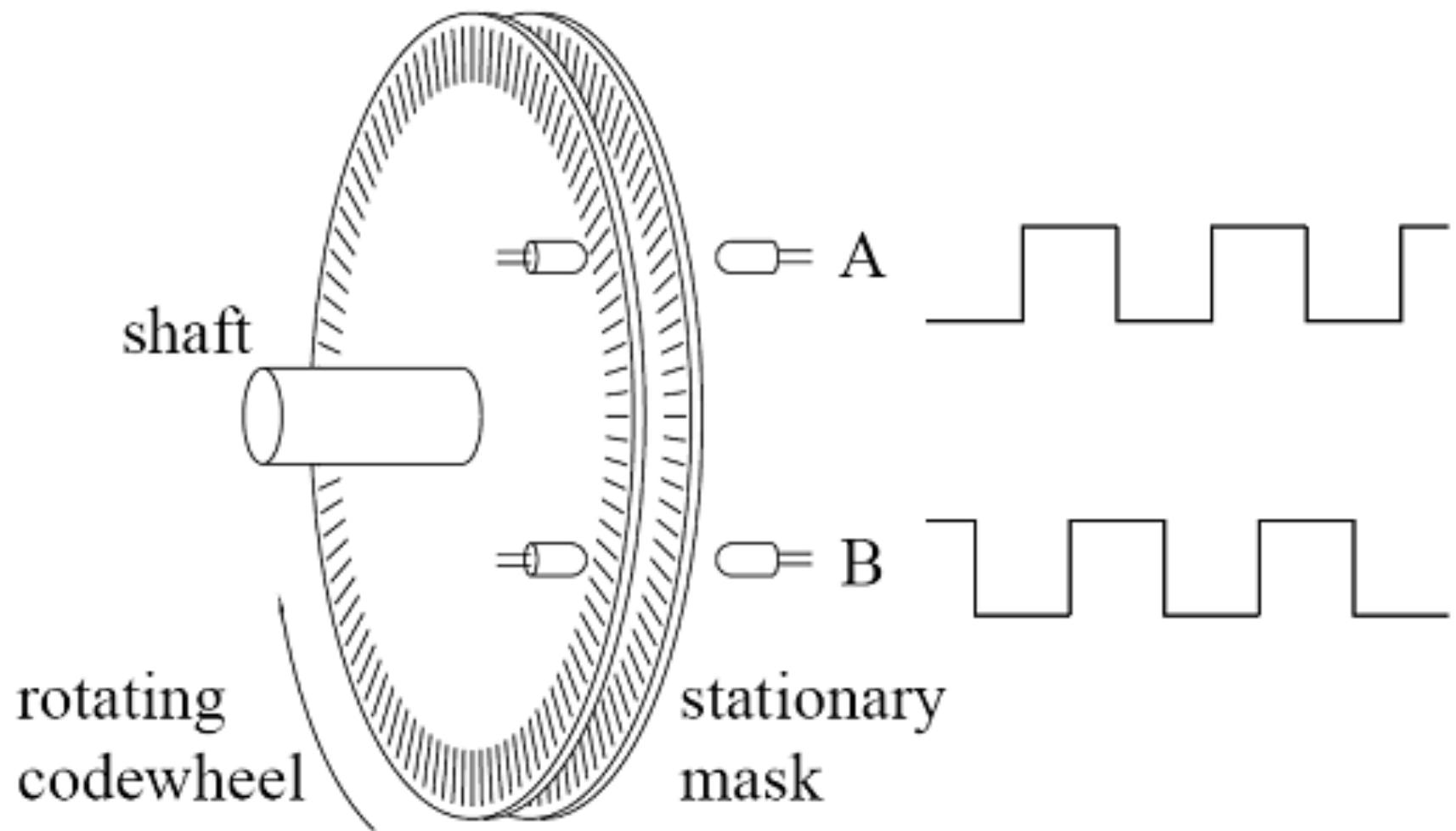
- Generates a relative position signal suitable for positioning tasks
- Rotation direction recognition
- Speed information from number of pulses per time unit
- Standard solution for many applications
- Single output types only used to determining the speed

Optical incremental encoder

- Slotted discs interrupt the light beam
- Photo emitter-detector pair detect pulses of light
- Amplifier then generates output pulses as slot passes light path
- Pulses counted to provide a position estimate
- Secondary LED photo emitter-detector pair provide direction of rotation
- Quadrature encoder generates two square wave pulses 90 degrees apart

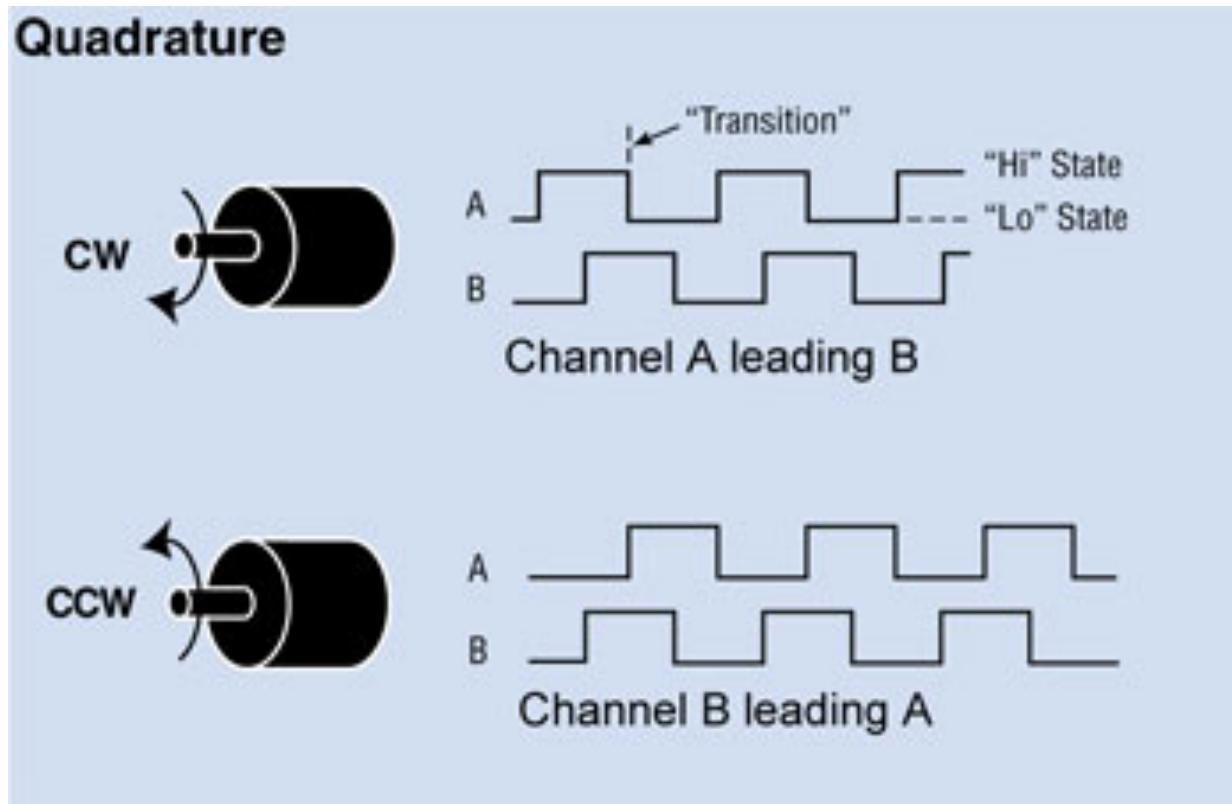


Quadrature output signal generation



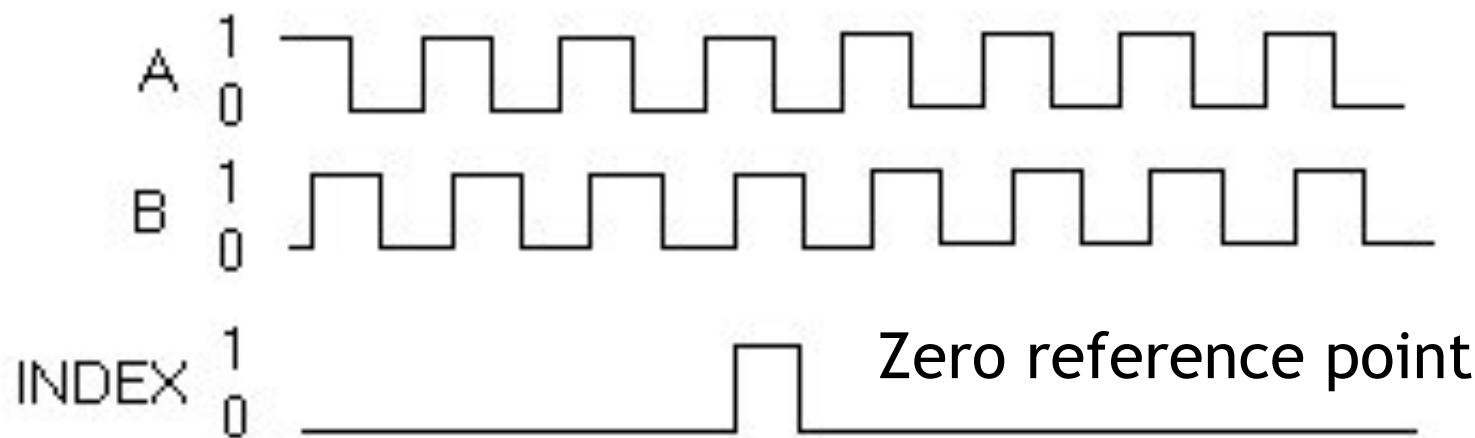
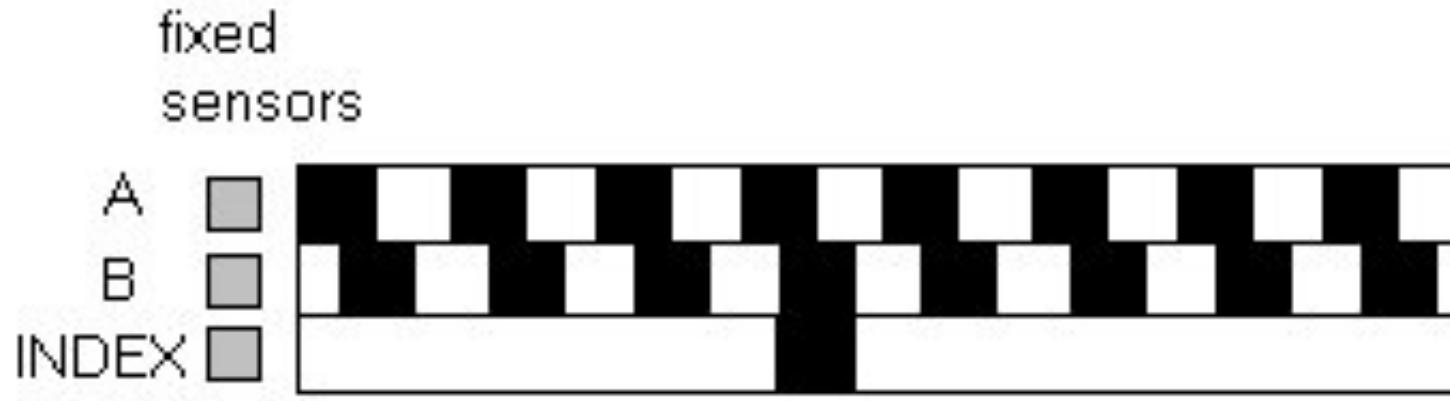
Output of two photo detectors are phase shifted by 90 degrees³⁵

Quadrature output signal usage



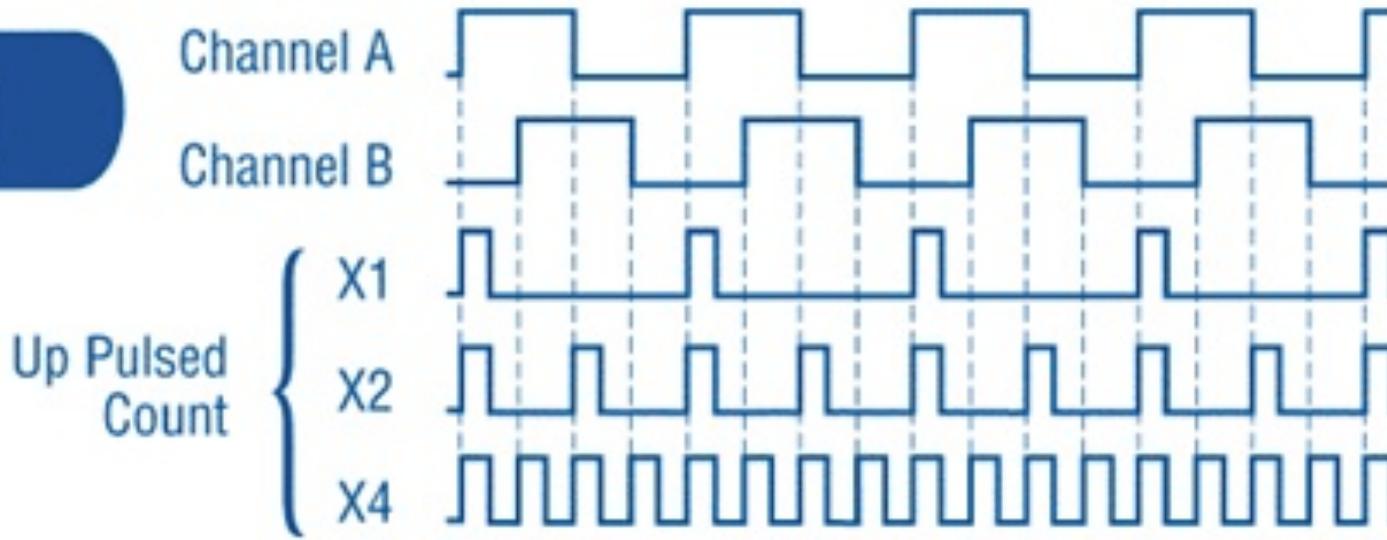
- A quadrature encoder generates two pulse streams that are 90° out of phase with one another
- It is possible to determine directionality by monitoring which channel leads in phase

Incremental encoder index signal



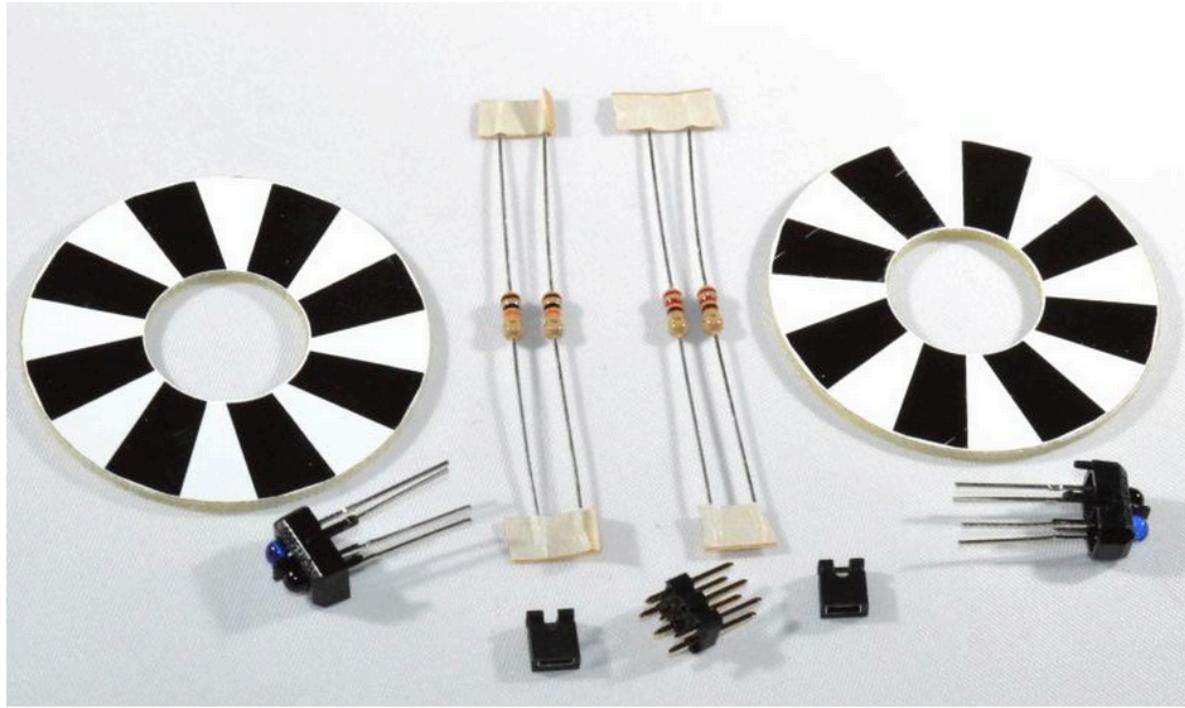
- Gives an absolute position signal at a single reference location
- Can be used to assist calibration

Using all edges can increase resolution



- Triggering off of the leading and or trailing edges of the pulses can increase resolution by up to four times
- More transition to count if use all edges!
- But more sensitive to noise

Budget wheel encoders/sensors



- 2 wheel encoder discs for fitting inside the wheel drive
- 2 optical reflectance sensors
- Count 16 pulses per revolution
- very cheap - £5
- Use with Arduino systems

Typical datasheet for encoder

CONNECTIONS

FUNCTION CABLE PLUG

0 Volts	Black	Pin 1
+ Volts	Red	Pin 2
A Channel	White	Pin 3
B Channel	Blue	Pin 4
Z Channel	Yellow	Pin 5
A Channel	Green	Pin 6
B Channel	Violet	Pin 7
Z Channel	Brown	Pin 8

ACCESSORIES AVAILABLE

- COUPLINGS

- BRACKETS & FLANGES

- MEASURING WHEELS

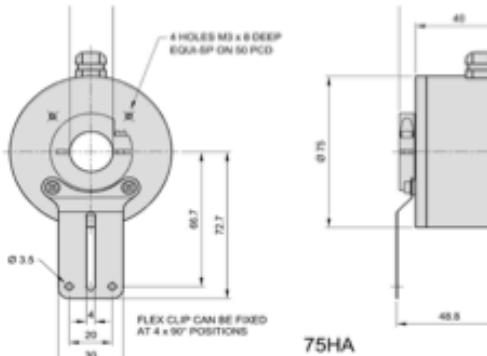
SERIES



75HA LUMINIUM

ROTARY INCREMENTAL SHAFT ENCODER

The 75HA Series is a precision, yet versatile hollow shaft encoder, machined from solid aluminium. Its choice of versatile spring mounting clip or front face mounting holes, makes the encoder compatible with many industrial formats.



SPECIFICATIONS

Body:
Precision Machined
Aluminium

Cover:
Precision Machined
Aluminium
(Powder Coated)

Shaft:
Stainless Steel

Bearings:
Ballraces

Shaft Sealing:
Front: Sealed bearing
Rear: Single lip seal on
rear of cover

Protection:
IP65

Operating Temp:
-20 to +60°C
(higher on request)

Maximum Speed:
3000 RPM
(Higher on request)

Torque:
2Ncm (typical)

Inertia:
100gcm² (typical)

Shaft Loading:
Designed to support its own
weight

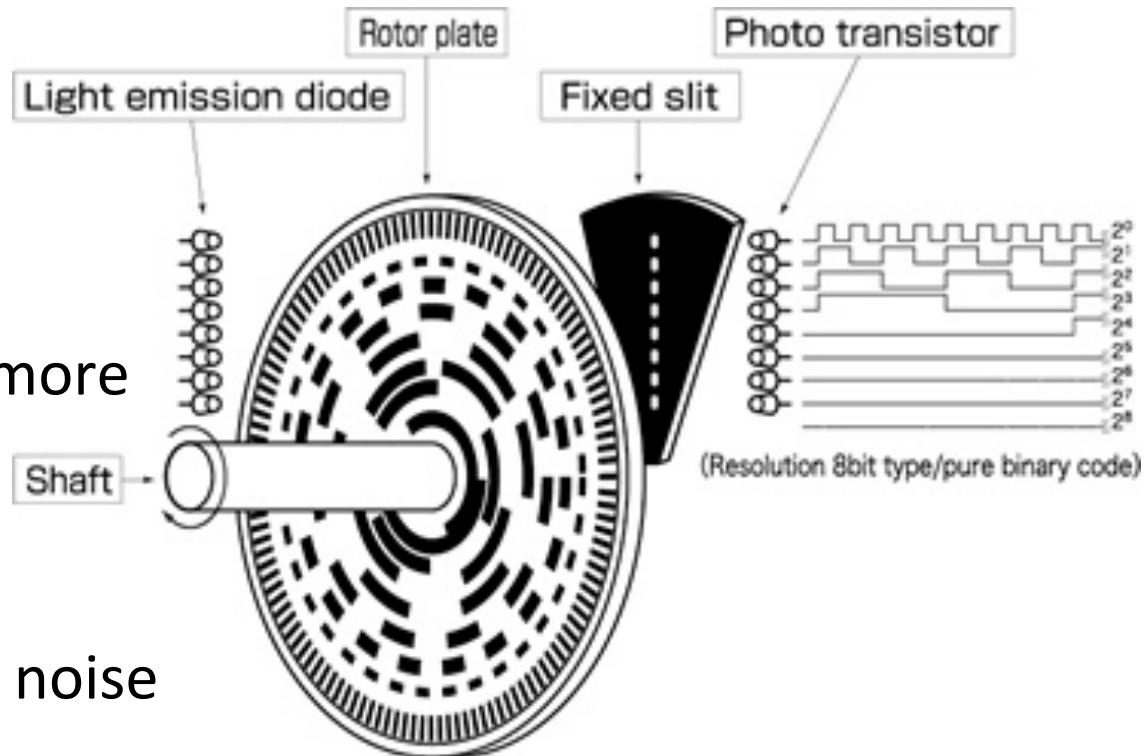
Cable:
Screened, oil and salt water
proof

Impulse Frequency:
Up to 300KHz
(depending on model)

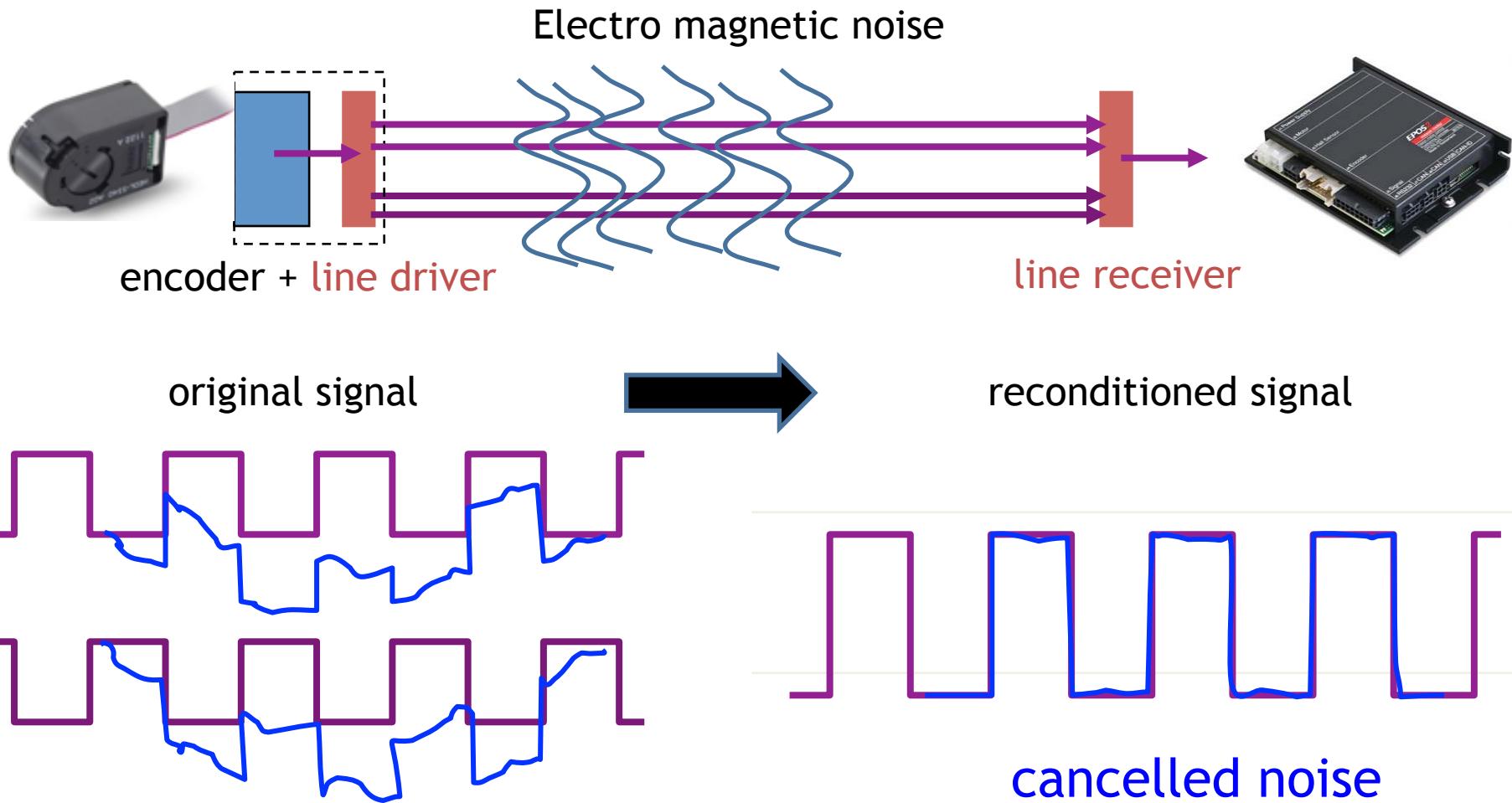
Current Consumption:
60mA
(typical - without load)

Absolute Optical Encoders

- Absolute encoders record the unique values of each shaft position
- Especially important in the event of a power failure
- Gray and binary codes most common
- Incremental rotary encoders more common
- Low cost
- Provides easy to use signals
- More susceptible to electrical noise



Encoder signal conditioning



- Use differential output drivers
- Twisted pairs suppress interference better than single wires

Interface to encoders

- E.g. Sensoray 626
- Interfacing encoder signals e.g. to a PC

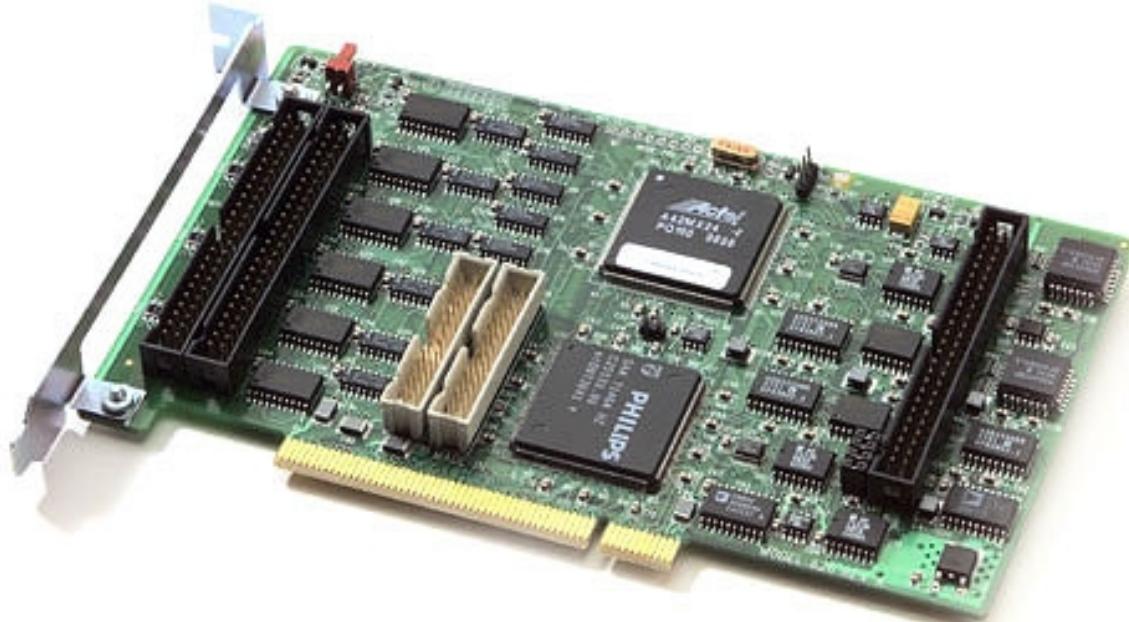
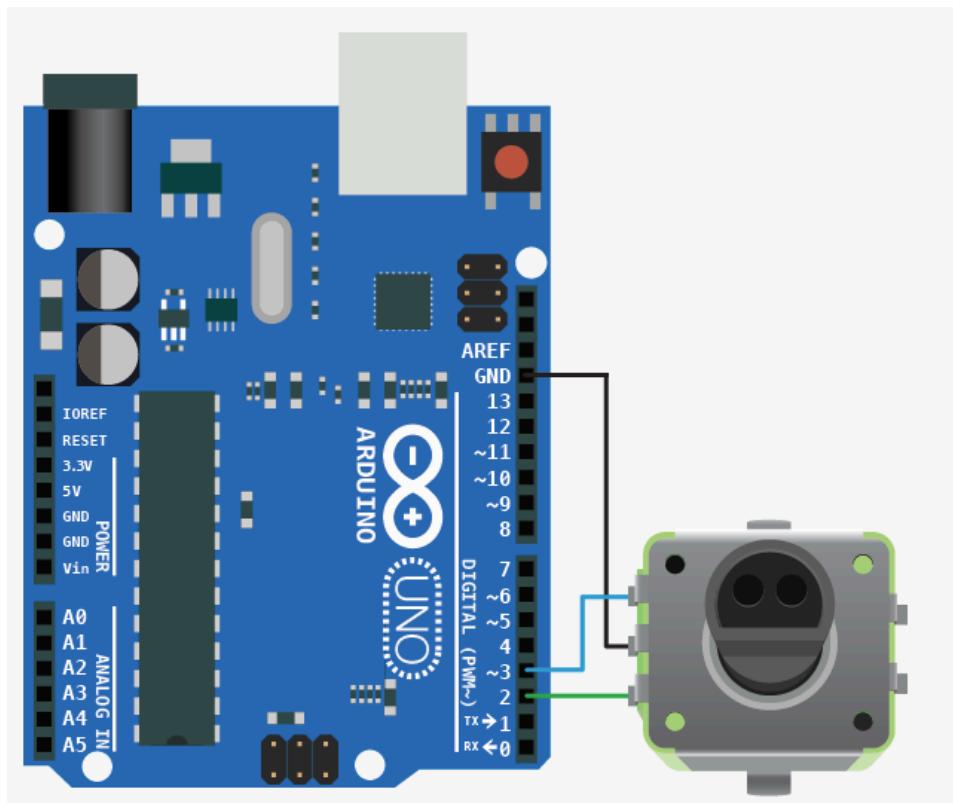


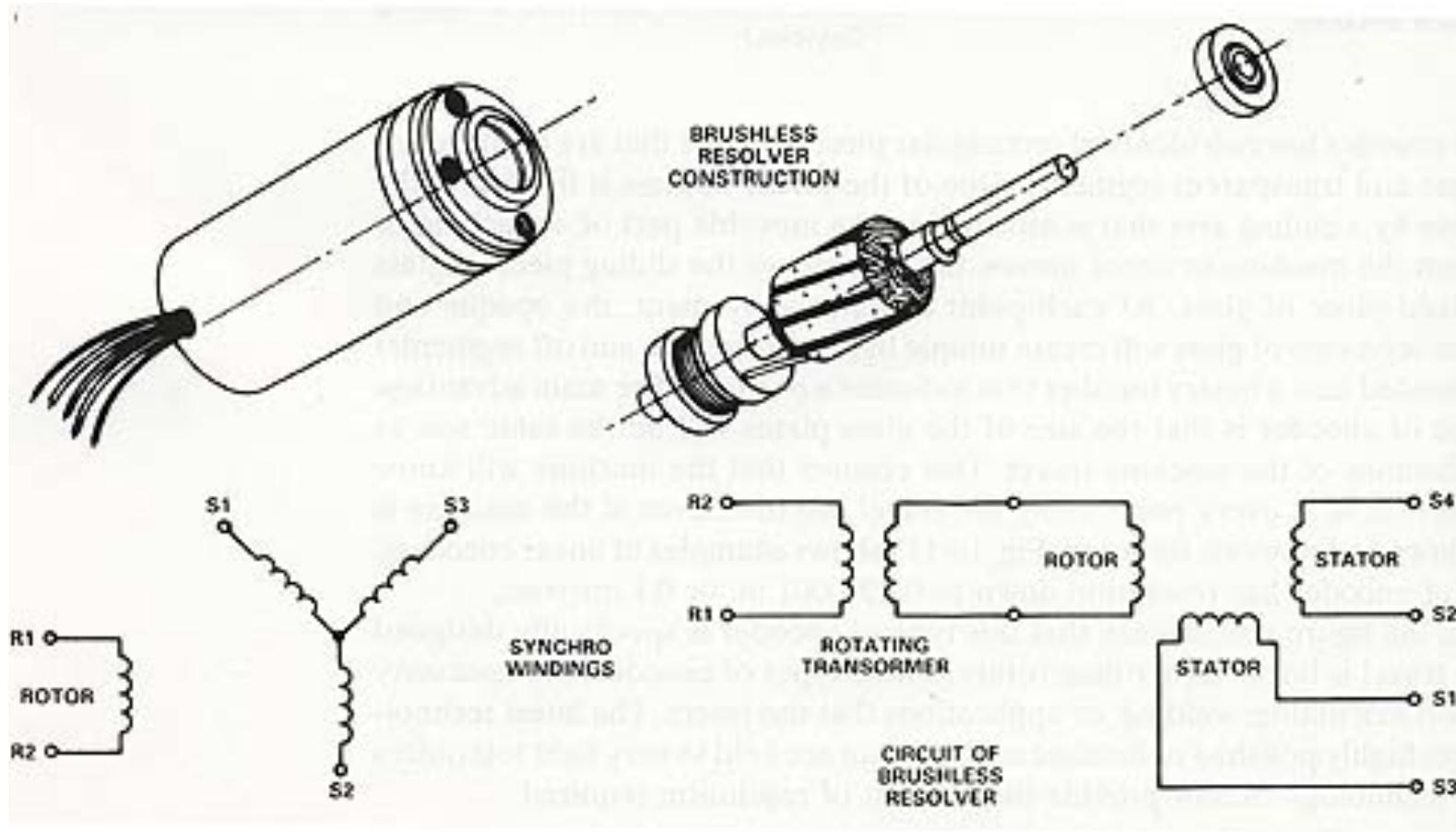
Table 24 Encoder Connectors					
J5					
26 pin IDC ribbon connector					
Encoder 1A – 3A					
Pin	Function	User Designation	Pin	Function	User Designation
1	Encoder (0A) A-		2	Encoder (0A) A+	
3	GND		4	Encoder (0A) B-	
5	Encoder (0A) B+		6	5V	
7	Encoder (0A) I-		8	Encoder (0A) I+	
9	GND		10	Encoder (1A) A-	
11	Encoder (1A) A+		12	5V	
13	Encoder (1A) B-		14	Encoder (1A) B+	
15	GND		16	Encoder (1A) I-	
17	Encoder (1A) I+		18	5V	
19	Encoder (2A) A-		20	Encoder (2A) A+	
21	GND		22	Encoder (2A) B-	
23	Encoder (2A) B+		24	5V	
25	Encoder (2A) I-		26	Encoder (2A) I+	

Can easily interface encoder to Arduino

- Use interrupt inputs
- Count the pulses



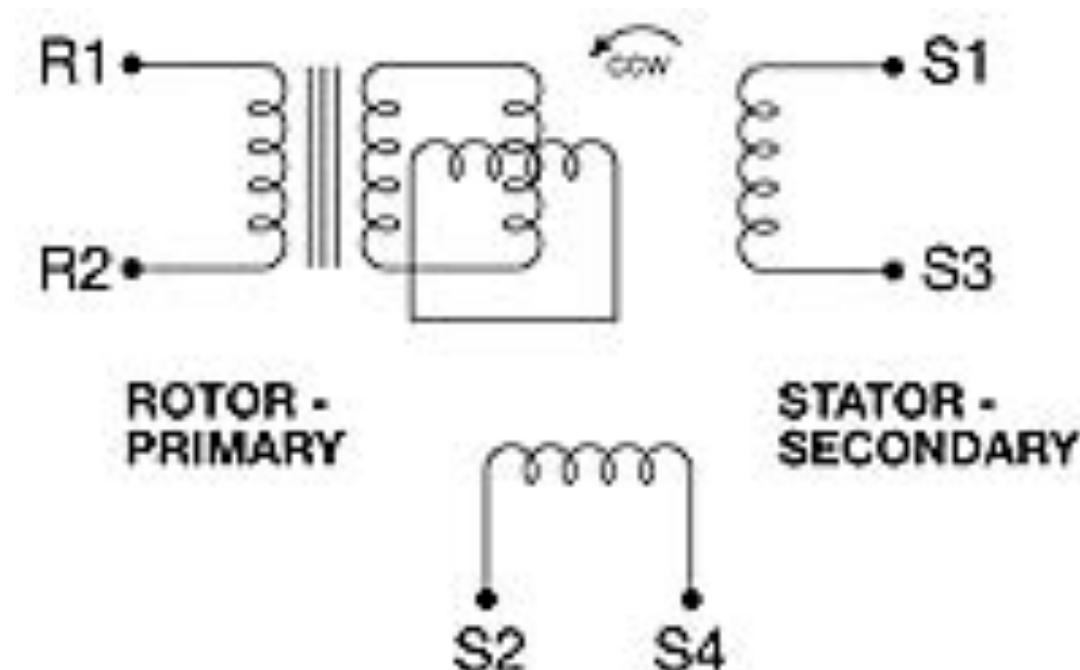
Resolver position measurement



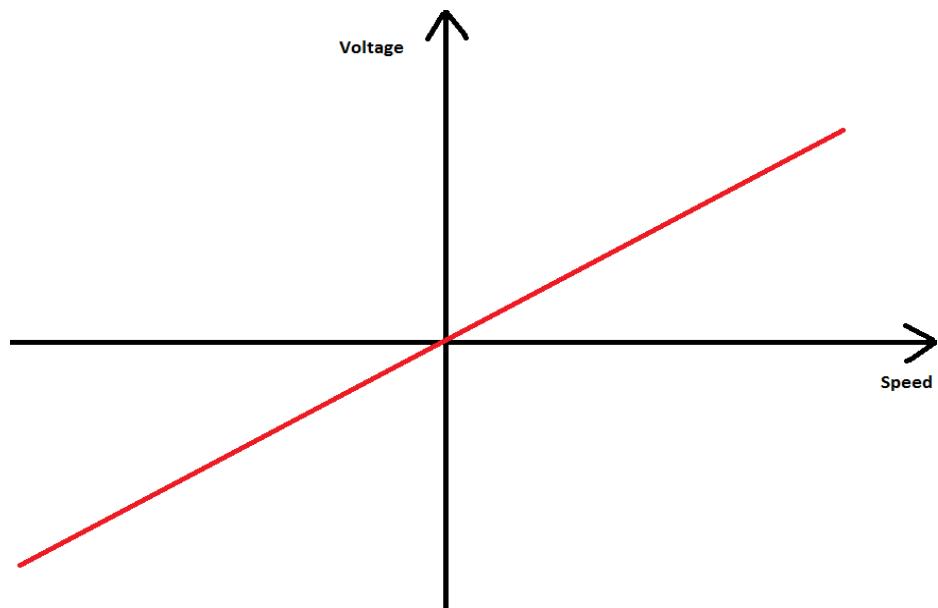
- Electromechanical device with a mechanical design similar to a motor

Resolver position measurement

- Analog rotor position signal
- Indicating absolute position within a single revolution
- Very rugged
- Need for interfacing electronics
- Resolvers are "excited" by an AC reference sine wave



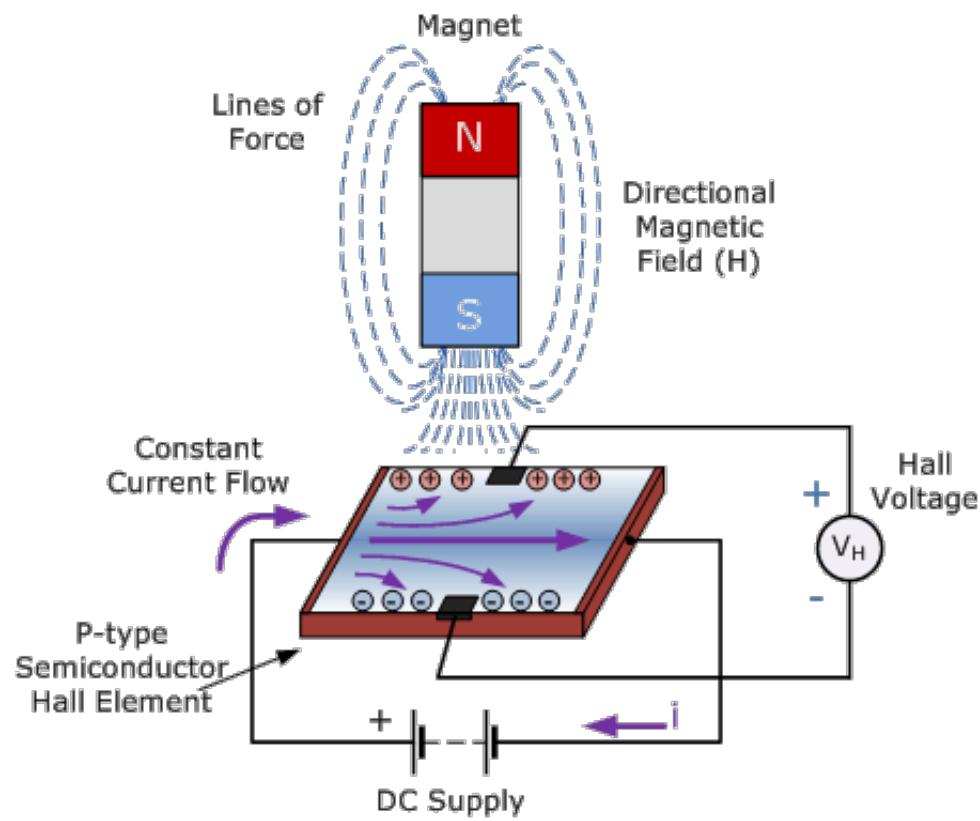
Tachometer velocity measurement



- A tacho is a small generator
- A coil that revolves about a magnet.
- Much like the motor it too has a speed constant
- Measures velocity not position and therefore not an encoder
- Analog speed signal
- Rotation direction recognition
- Not suitable for positioning tasks

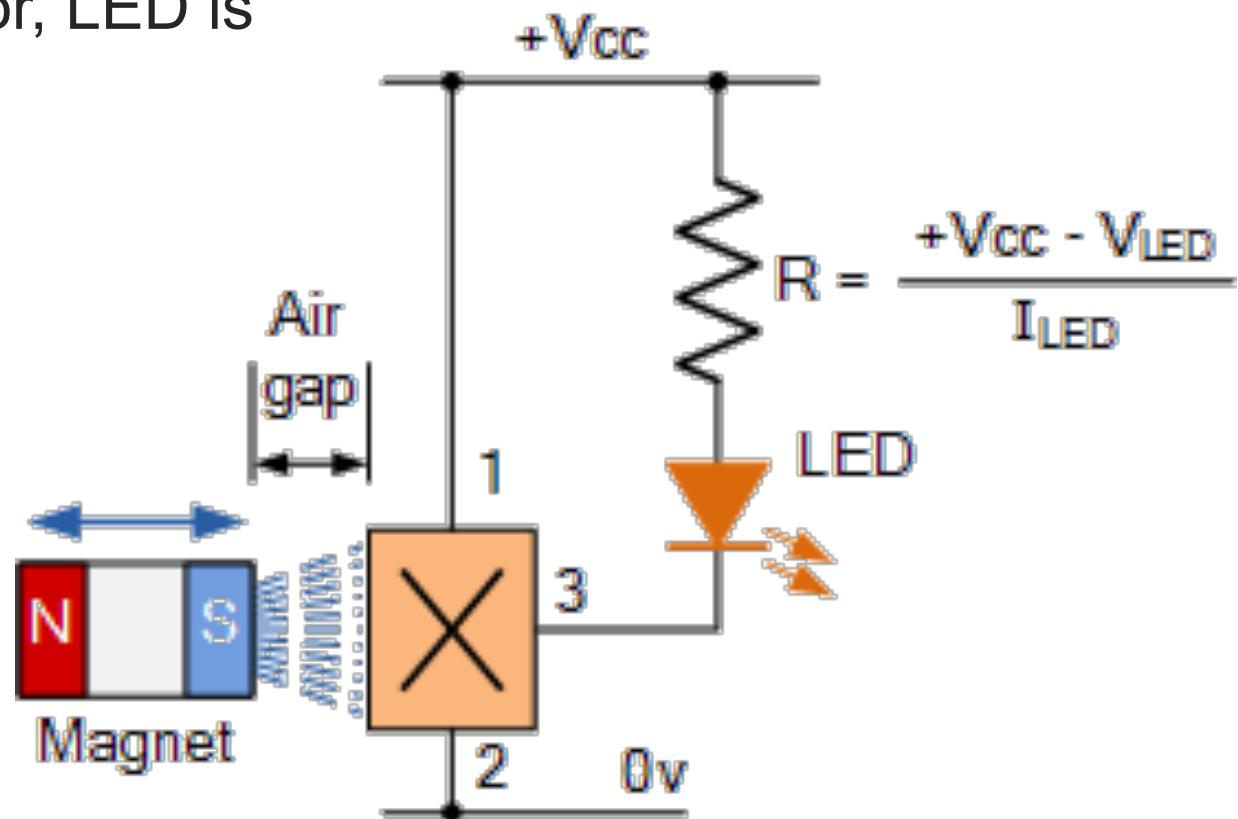
Hall effect magnetic sensor

- The Hall effect is the production of a potential difference across an electrical conductor when a magnetic field is applied in a direction perpendicular to that of the flow of current
- Can be taken advantage of in semiconductor devices to implement a switch activated by the application of a magnetic field
- Hall effect sensors can be used for proximity switching

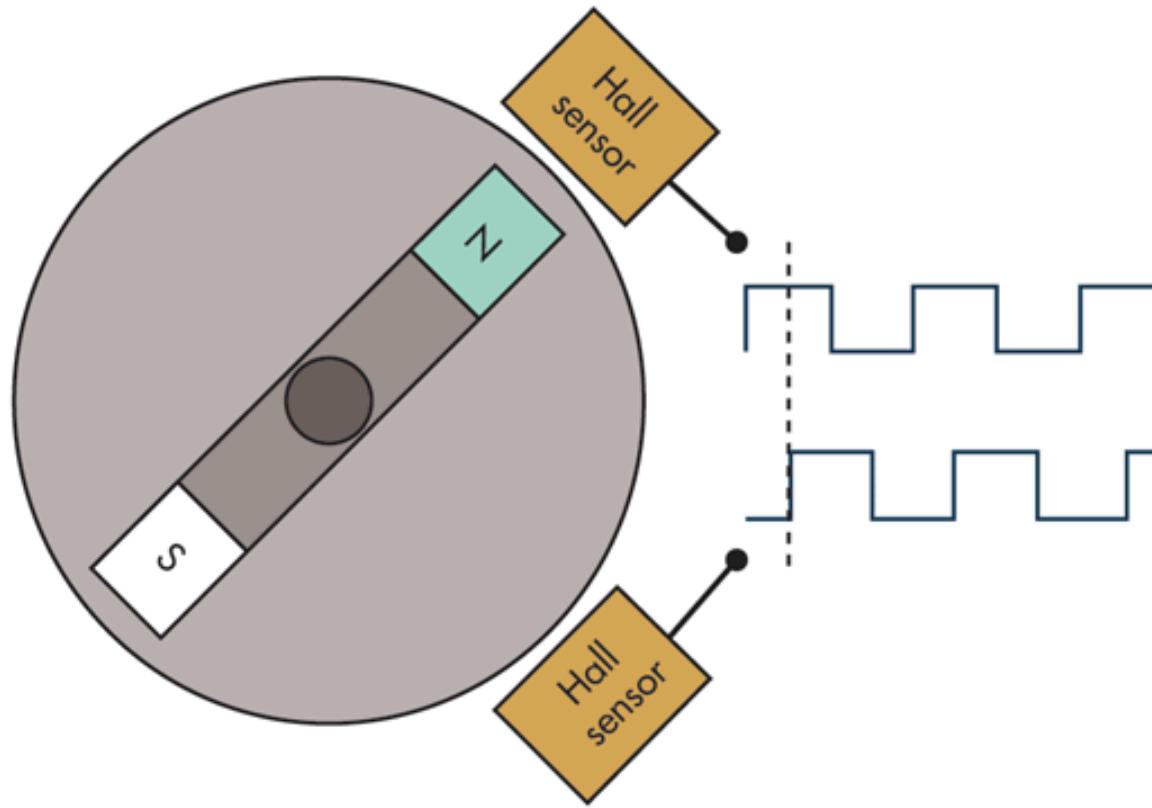


Hall effect magnetic sensor circuit

- Simple switch activated by the application of a magnetic field
- When south pole of magnet brought up to this sensor, LED is switched on

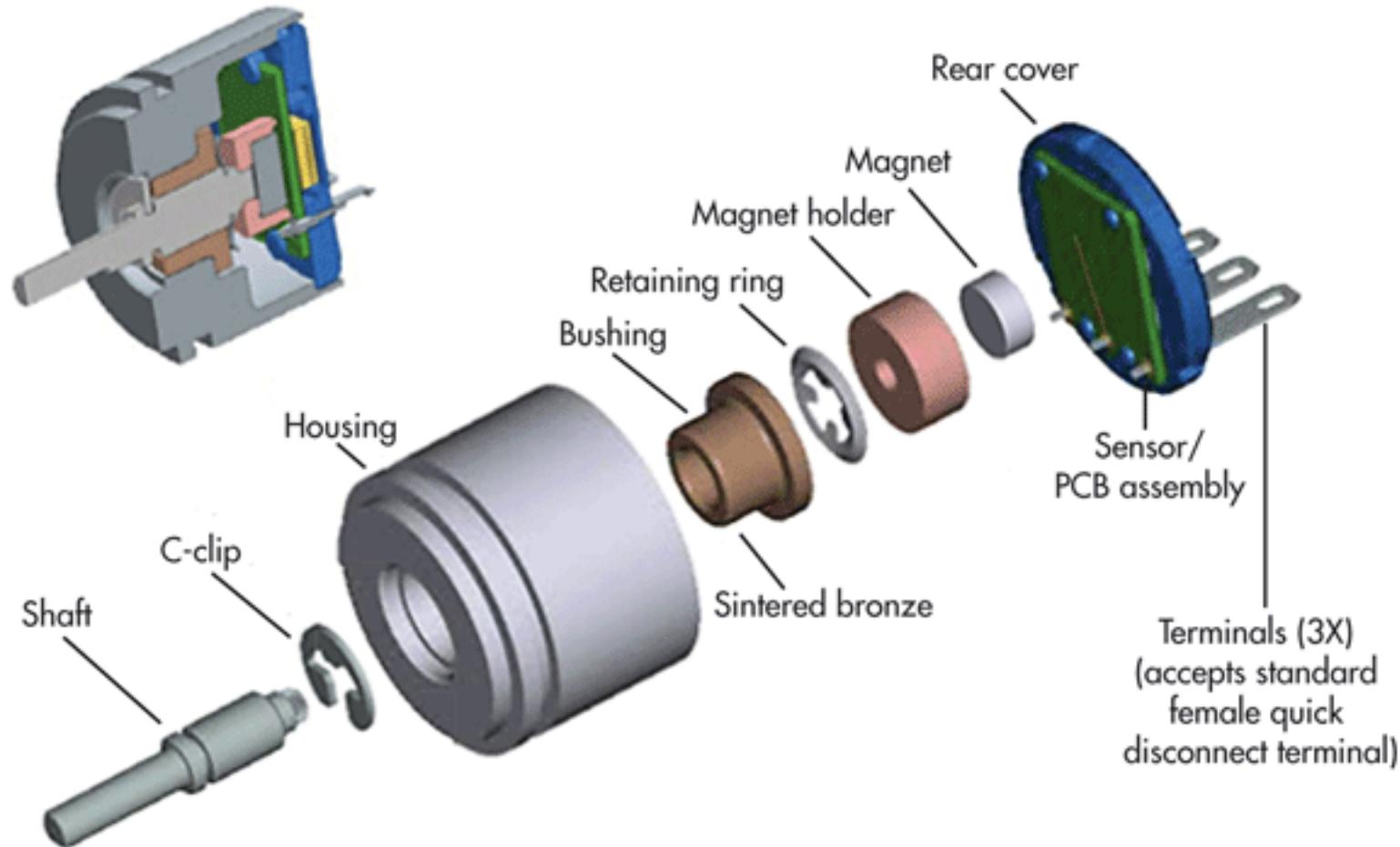


Hall effect magnetic rotary encoder



- Magnetic rotary encoder that comprises two poles and two sensors
- The second sensor makes it possible to not only detect the direction of rotation but also to interpolate the absolute position of the shaft

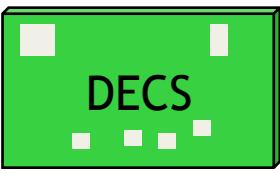
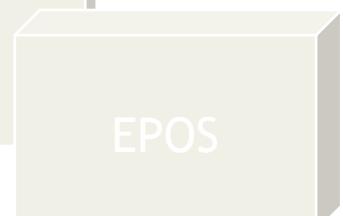
Magnetic rotary encoder



- Construction of a typical magnetic rotary encoder
- This type of encoder is often more robust than an optical encoder

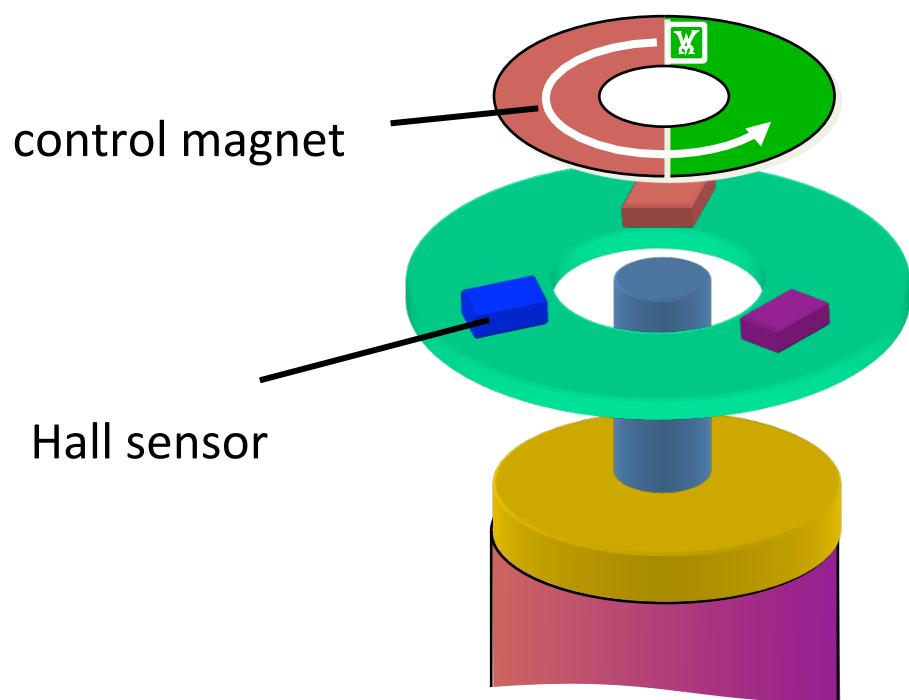
Electronic commutation systems

- Goal of commutation: applying the current to get the maximum torque
- Optimize perpendicular magnetic field orientation of rotor (permanent magnet) and stator (winding)
- Need knowledge of rotor position with respect to winding

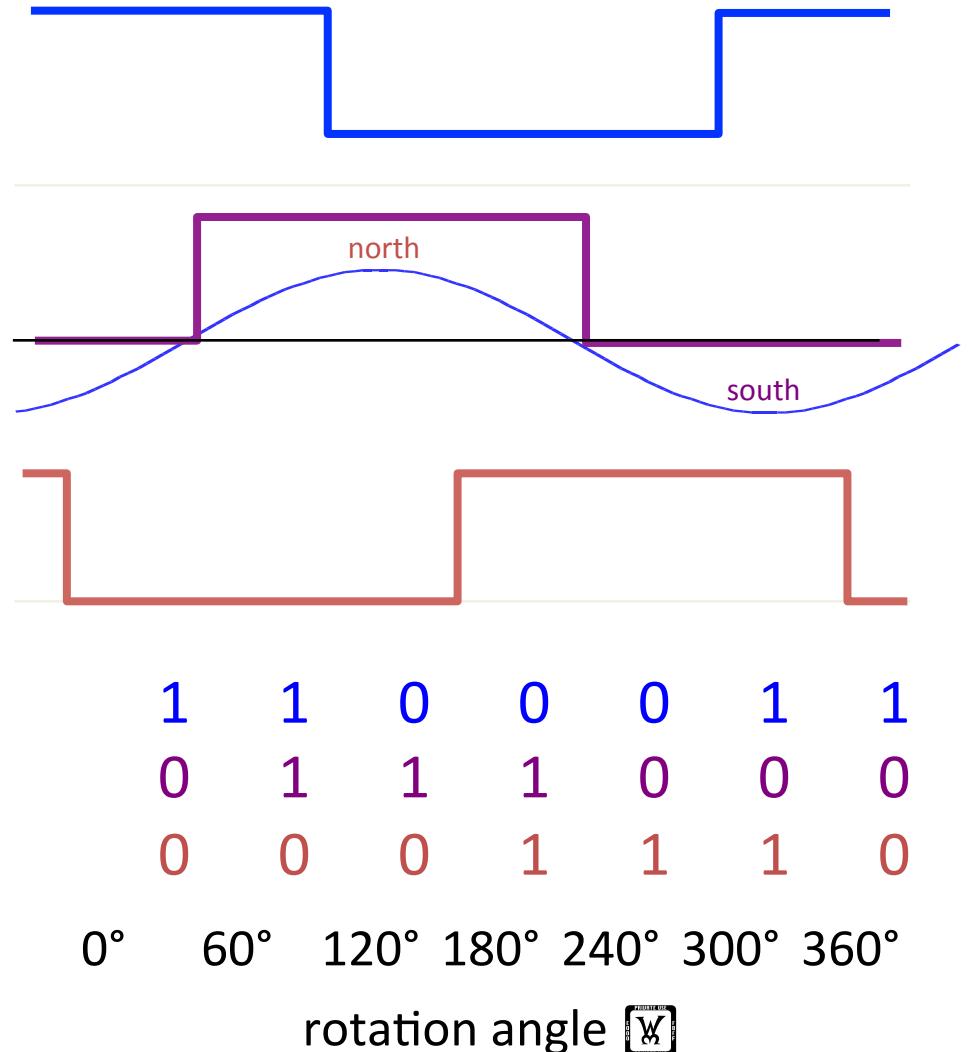
		commutation type	
sensorless			
Hall sensors			
		rotor position feedback maxon controller families	 encoder (+ HS)
			
			

Block commutation

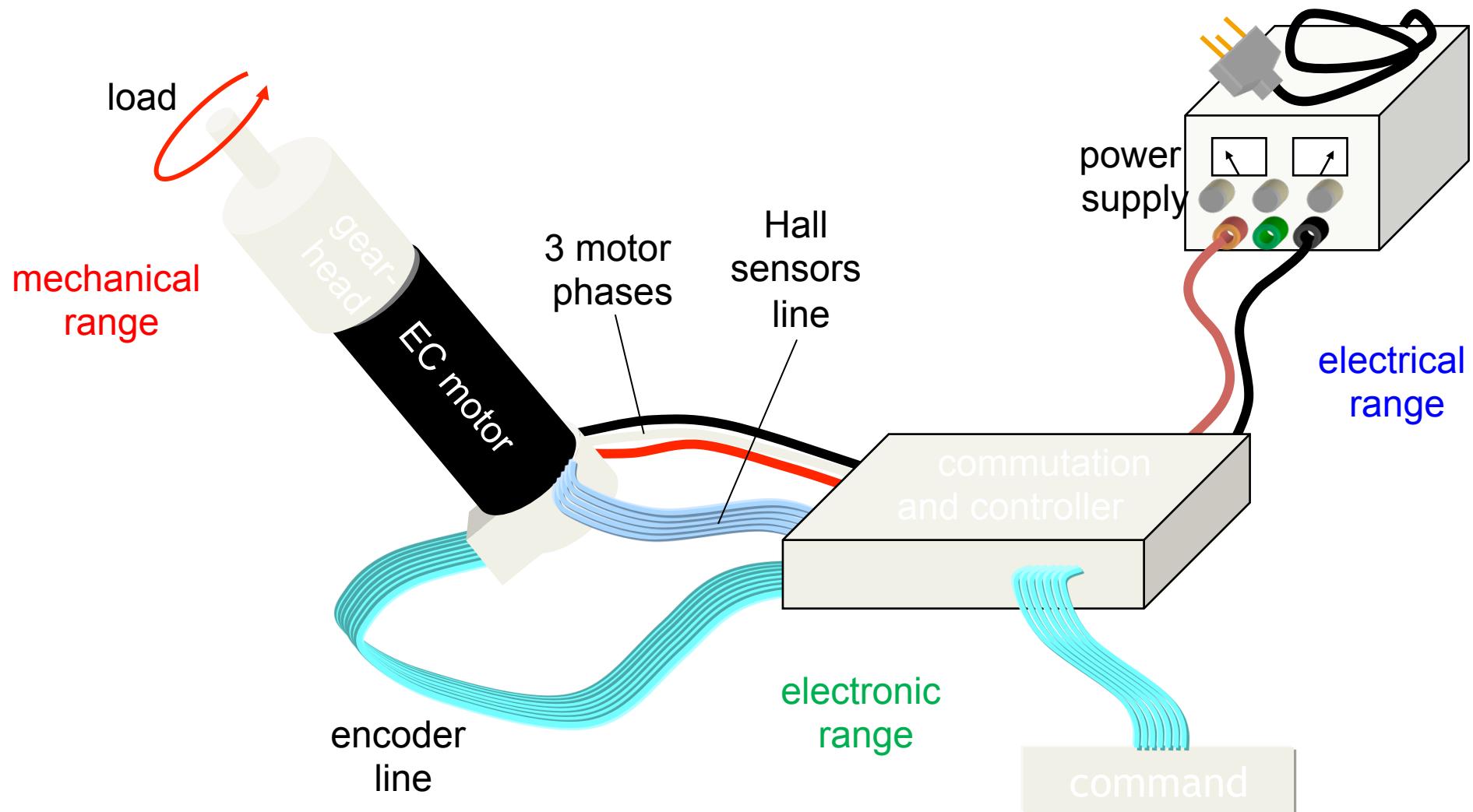
Rotor position from Hall sensor signals



EC-max and EC flat:
Power magnet is probed directly



Components of an EC drive system



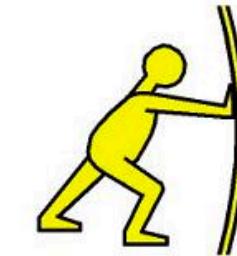
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Lecture 1

Measuring force

Definition of force

- A push or a pull
- The ability to do work
- Is a vector quantity
- Has magnitude and direction
- Measured in Newtons (N)
- **Newton's Second Law**
- A force acting on a mass will accelerate or decelerate it
- $F = ma$
where F is Force (N), m is mass (Kg), a is acceleration (ms^{-2})



PUSH



PULL

push pull signs.com ©

Four fundamental forces in nature

1. Gravity

Dominates at large distances



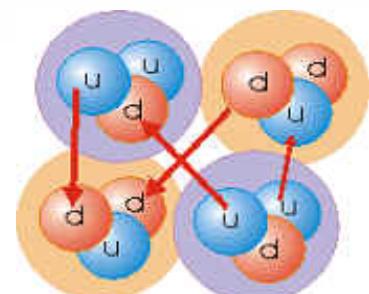
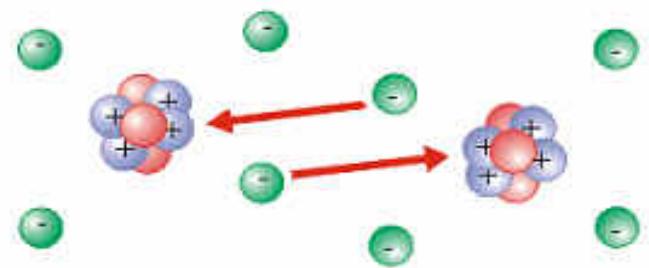
2. Electromagnetic forces

Observed in the interactions between atoms

3 . & 4. Nuclear forces

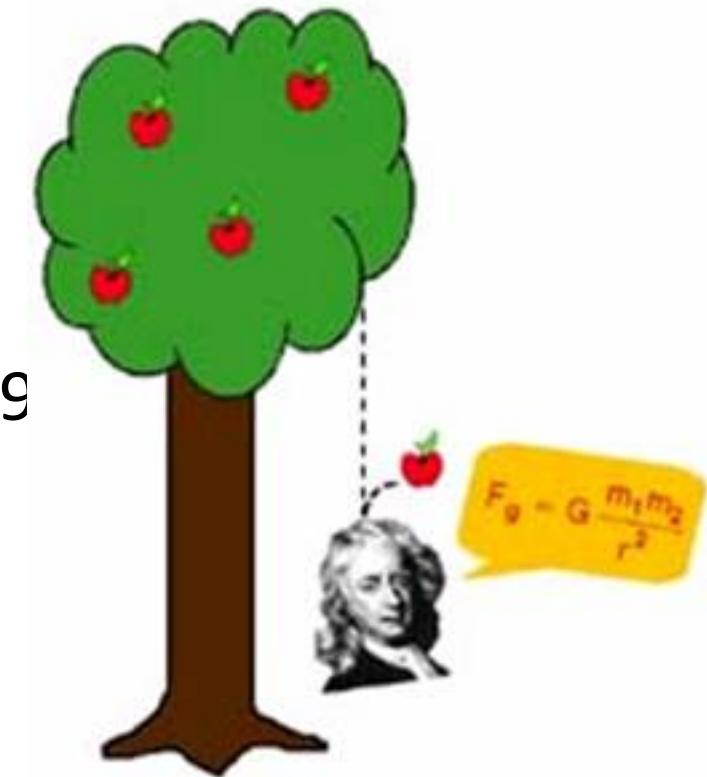
Strong & weak

Both very short range



Force arises from gravity acting on a mass

- Force arises from gravity acting on a mass
- $F = mg$
 - where F is Force (N),
 - m is mass (Kg),
 - g is acceleration due to gravity ≈ 9



Measuring force by balancing known force

- Use gravity acting on a known mass as source of known force



- Search for equilibrium position to find gravitational mass of test object

Measuring force by measuring strain

- Stress defined as "force per area"
- Strain is defined as: "deformation of a solid due to stress"
- When we apply force
- Induced stress results in a strain

$$E = \text{stress} / \text{strain} = (F / A_0) / (\Delta L / L_0)$$

Where

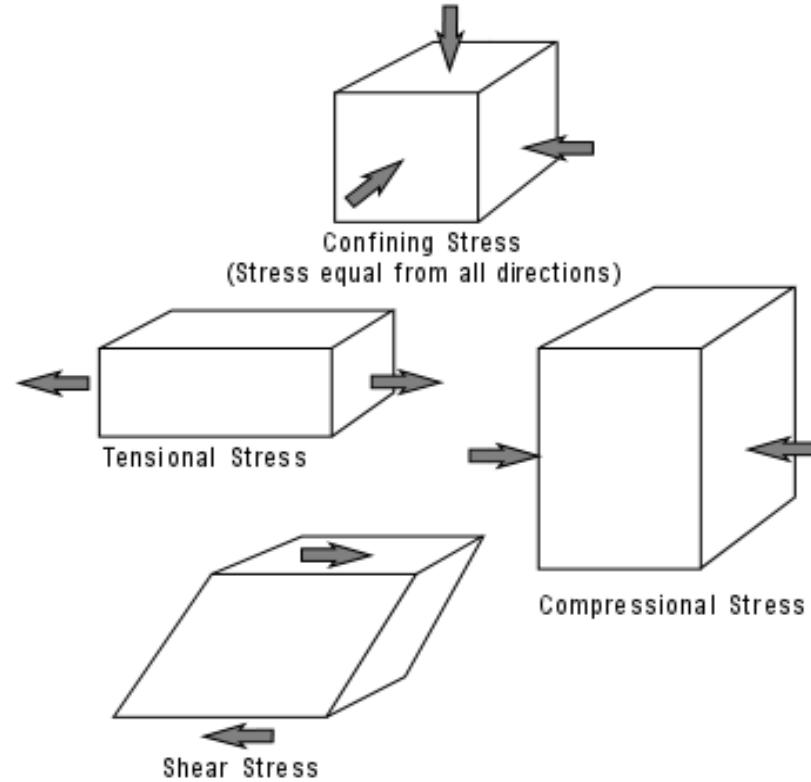
E is the Young's modulus (modulus of elasticity)

F is the force exerted on an object under tension

A_0 is the cross-sectional area

ΔL is the amount by which object length changes

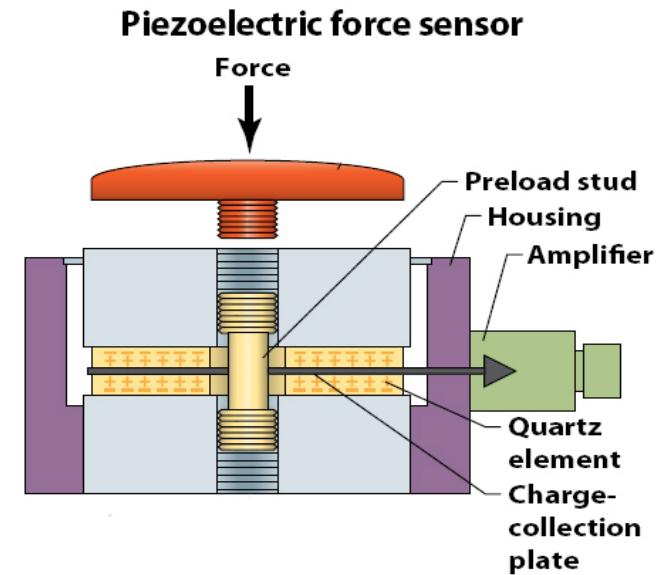
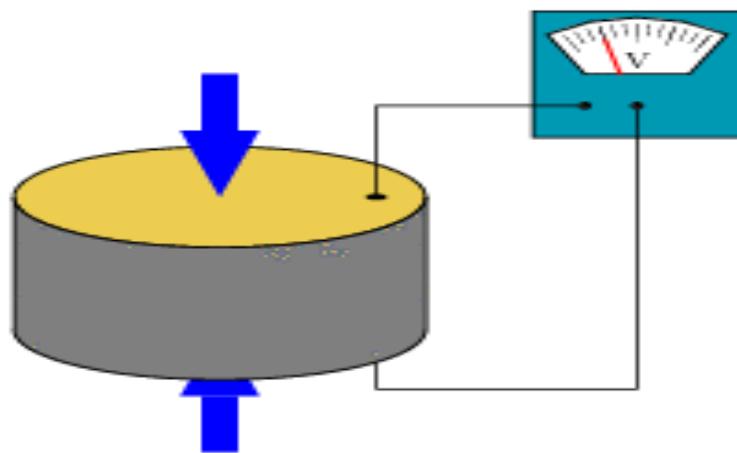
L_0 is the original length of the object



- By measuring strain of a material of known properties can estimate force

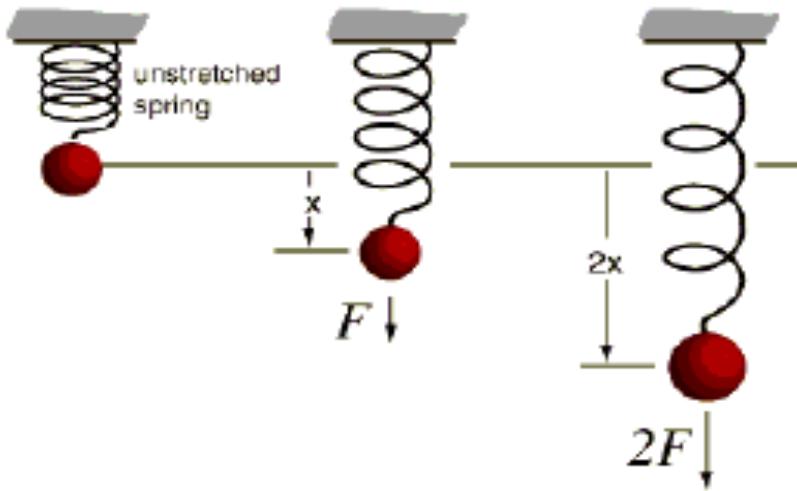
Piezo-electric effect

- Some materials generate electric charge under mechanical stress

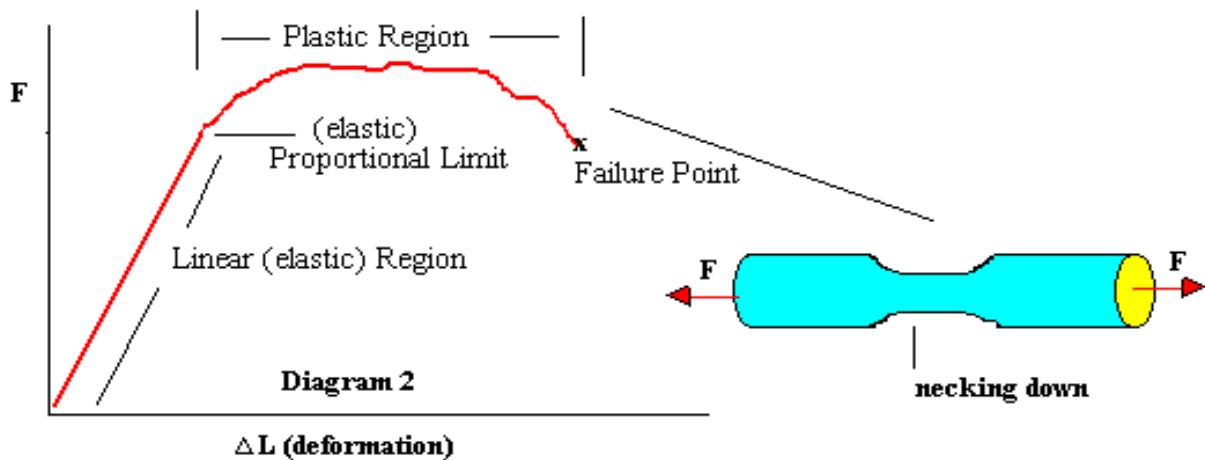


- Force results in a separation of charges within structure
- Capacitive effect generates output voltage.
- Leakage causes charge dissipation and voltage decay over time
- Suitable for dynamic measurements

Measurement of elastic deformation

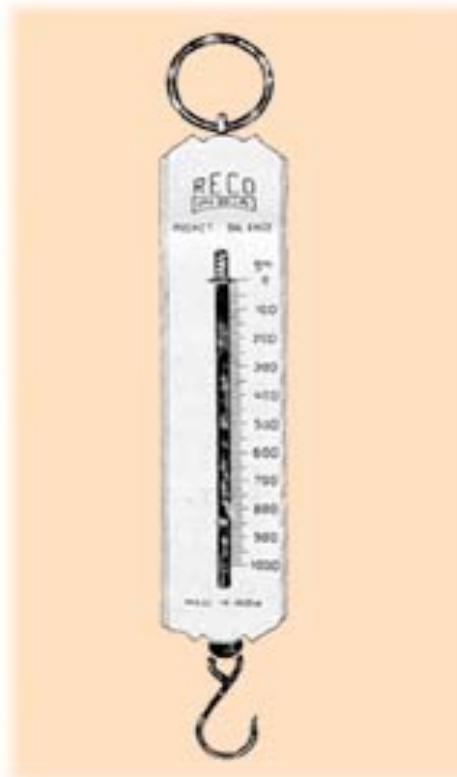


Hooke's law: $F = -kx$



Hooke's law only holds over the elastic region

Direct measurement of elastic deformation



Can simply observe extension
to estimate force

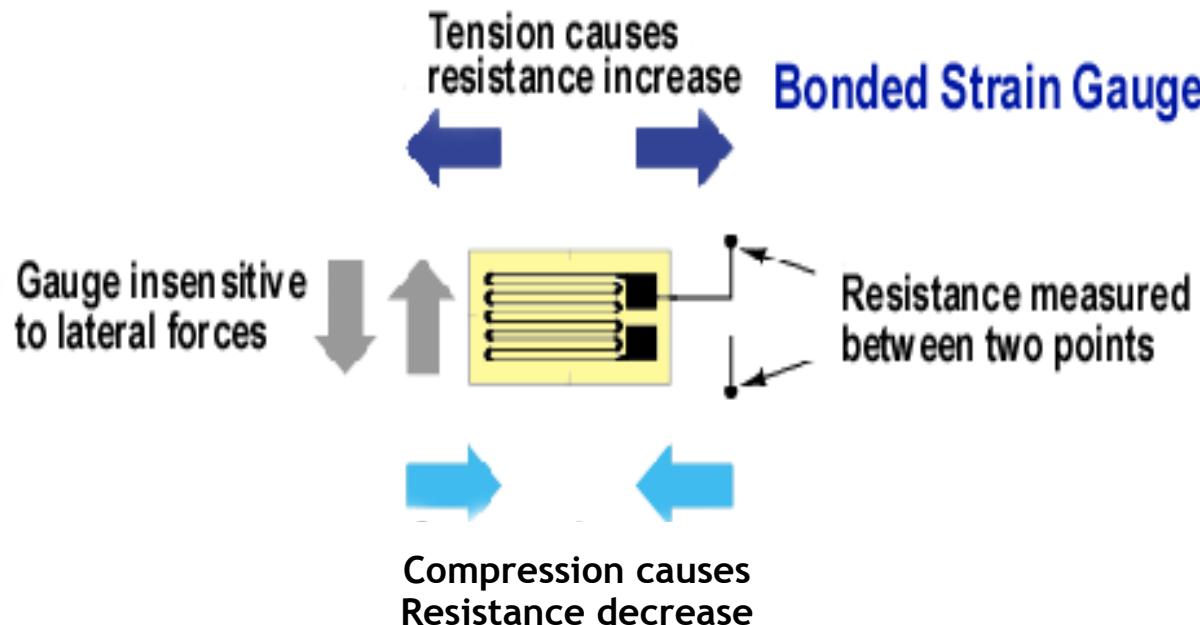


+



Other mechanical methods
Proving ring - Displacement
measured directly using
micrometer or dial gauge

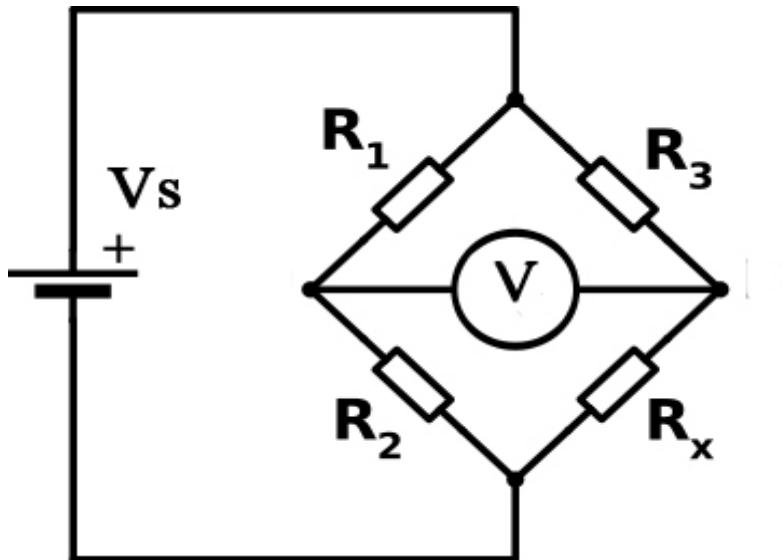
Strain gauge



- This is an electrical method of force measurement
- The gauge measures strain of substrate to which it is attached
- Provided substrate load operated in elastic region of the material, this is linearly relates to the applied force by Young's modulus

- Strain gauge measures strain because when film stretches it becomes narrower and longer and this increases its resistance
- Gauge is much more sensitive to strain in direction along the longer thin regions
- Overall during use such a sensor delivers only a fraction of percent change in resistance
- Resistance change is usually measured using a Wheatstone bridge

Wheatstone bridge circuit



$$I_{LeftBranch} = \frac{V_s}{R_1 + R_2}$$

$$V_{R2} = \frac{V_s R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

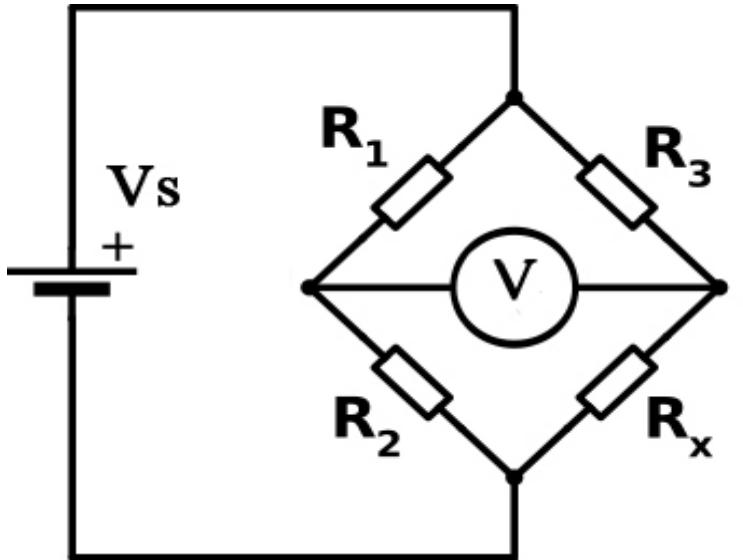
$$I_{RightBranch} = \frac{V_s}{R_3 + R_x}$$

- Wheatstone bridge converts change in resistance to change in voltage

$$V_{Rx} = \frac{V_s R_x}{R_3 + R_x}$$

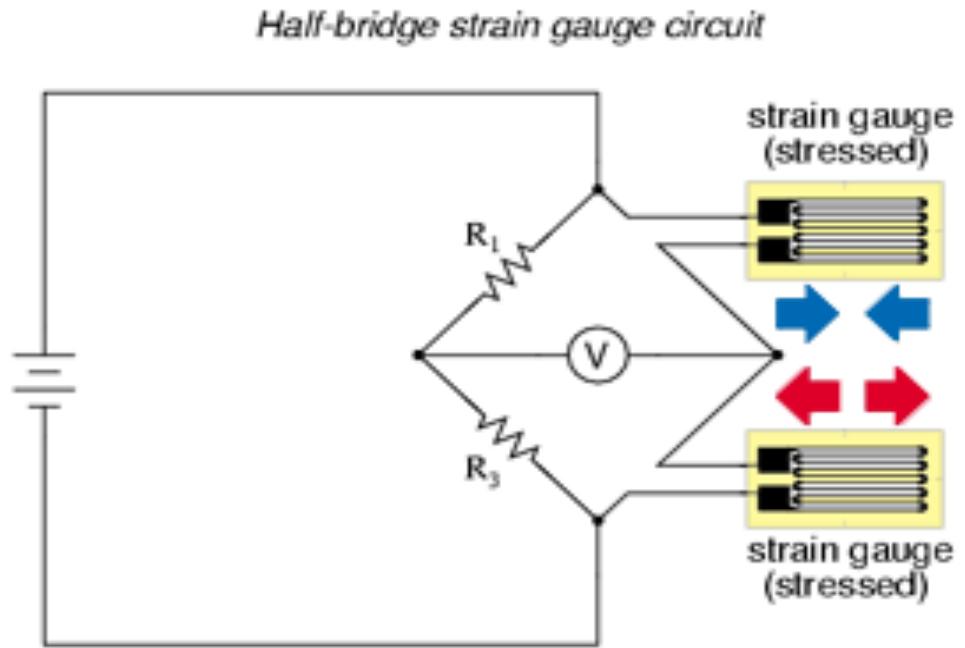
$$V = \left(\frac{R_x}{R_3 + R_x} - \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right) V_s$$

Wheatstone bridge circuit



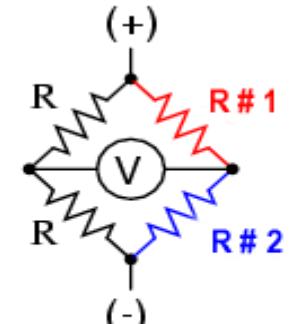
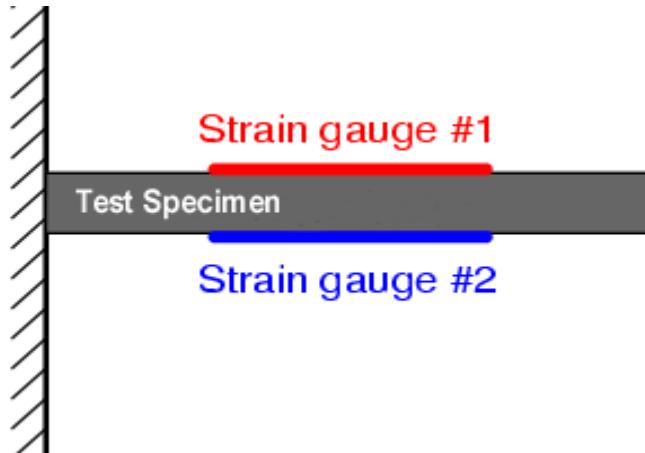
$$V = \left(\frac{R_x}{R_3 + R_x} - \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \right) V_s$$

- By placing strain gauges into the bridge, changes in their resistance resulting from the strain in the substrate gives rise to changes in voltage that can be measured

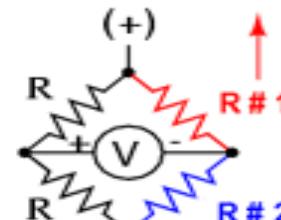
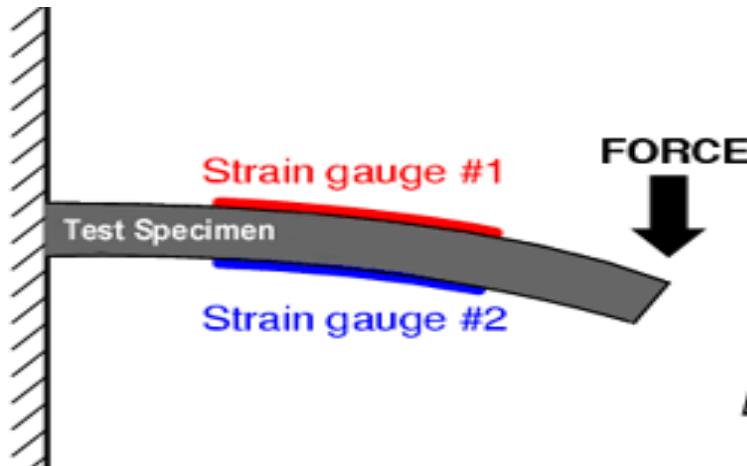


- Bridge arrangement cancels out changes that occur in all the resistive elements
- This compensates for resistance changes due to changes on temperature and also for strains in unwanted directions

Simple cantilever load cell



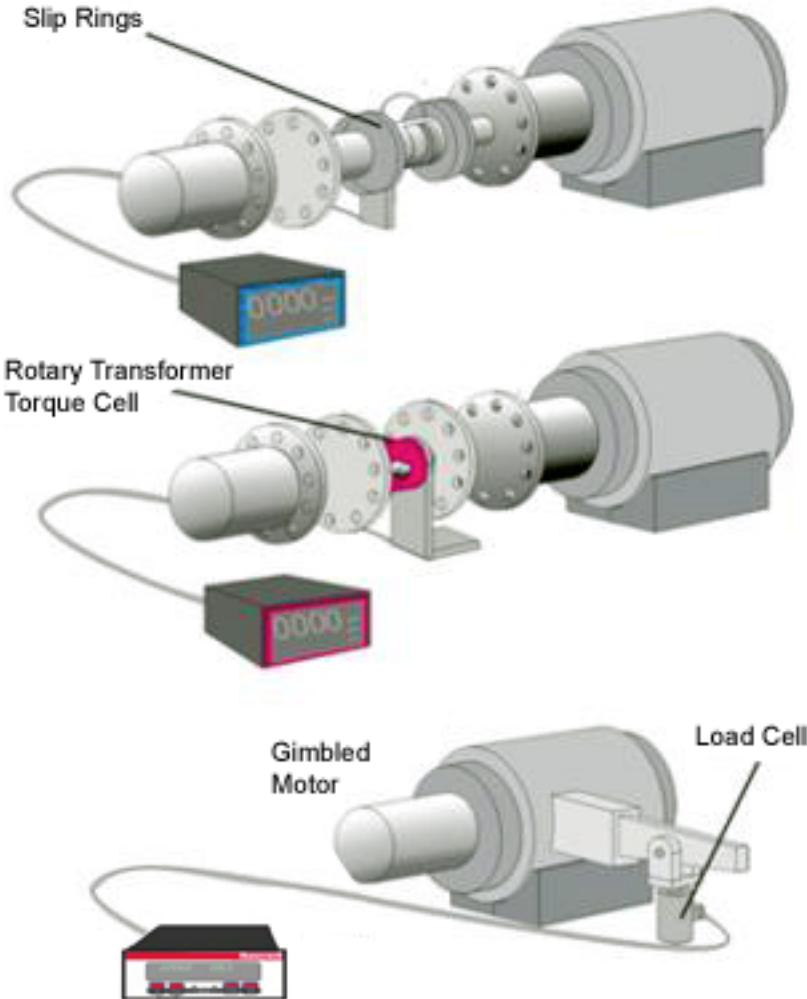
Bridge balanced



Bridge unbalanced

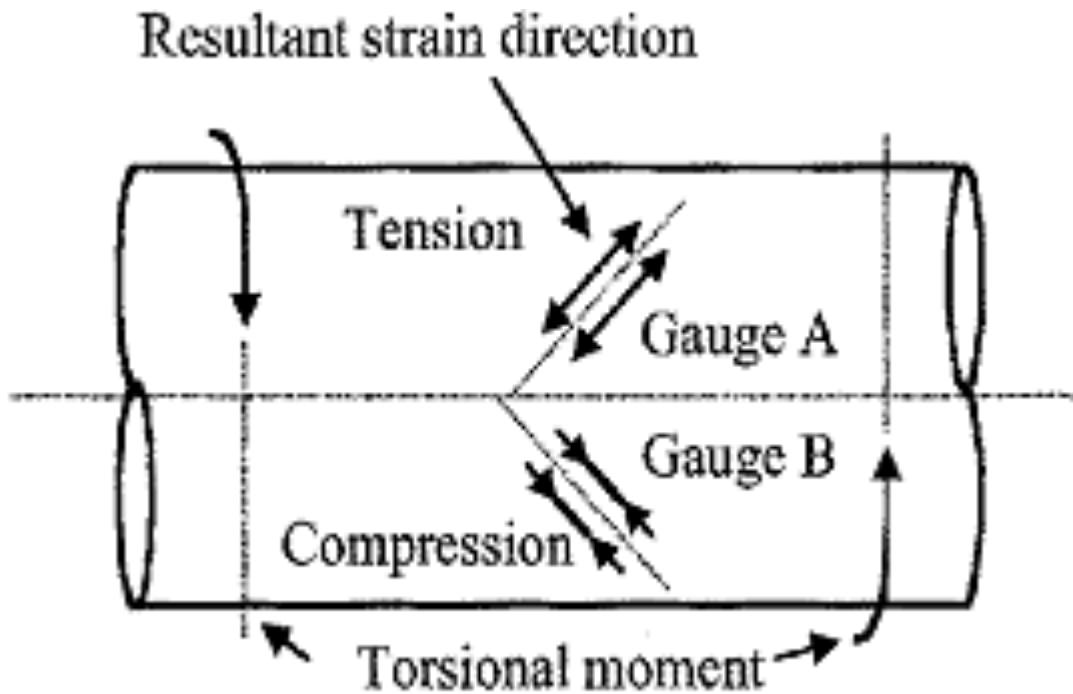
- If gauges are centrally mounted then
- no change in output voltage due to a side load

Measuring torque



- Two common ways to obtain torque measurements are by strain-gauging the shaft and by using in-line torque cells.
- Both have two technical obstacles: getting power to the gauges over the stationary/rotating gap and getting the signal back.

Measuring torque using gauge on shaft



- The gauges lie perpendicular to one another at 45 deg to the plane about which the tensional moment is applied.

1- 6 DOF load cells



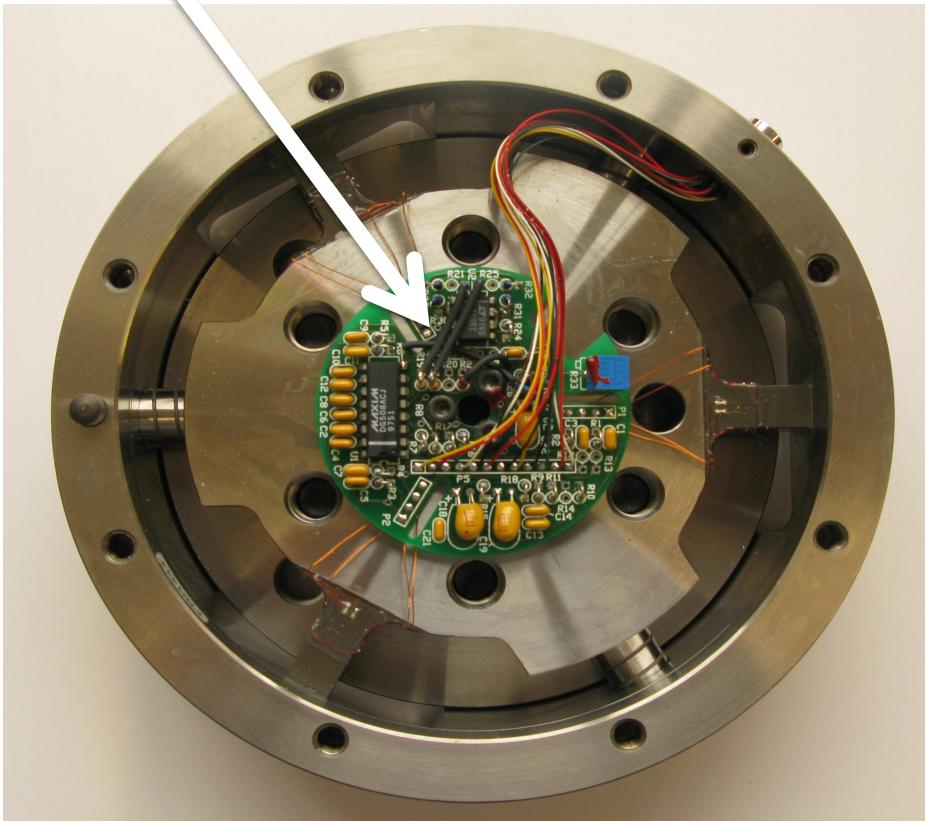
1 translational DOF



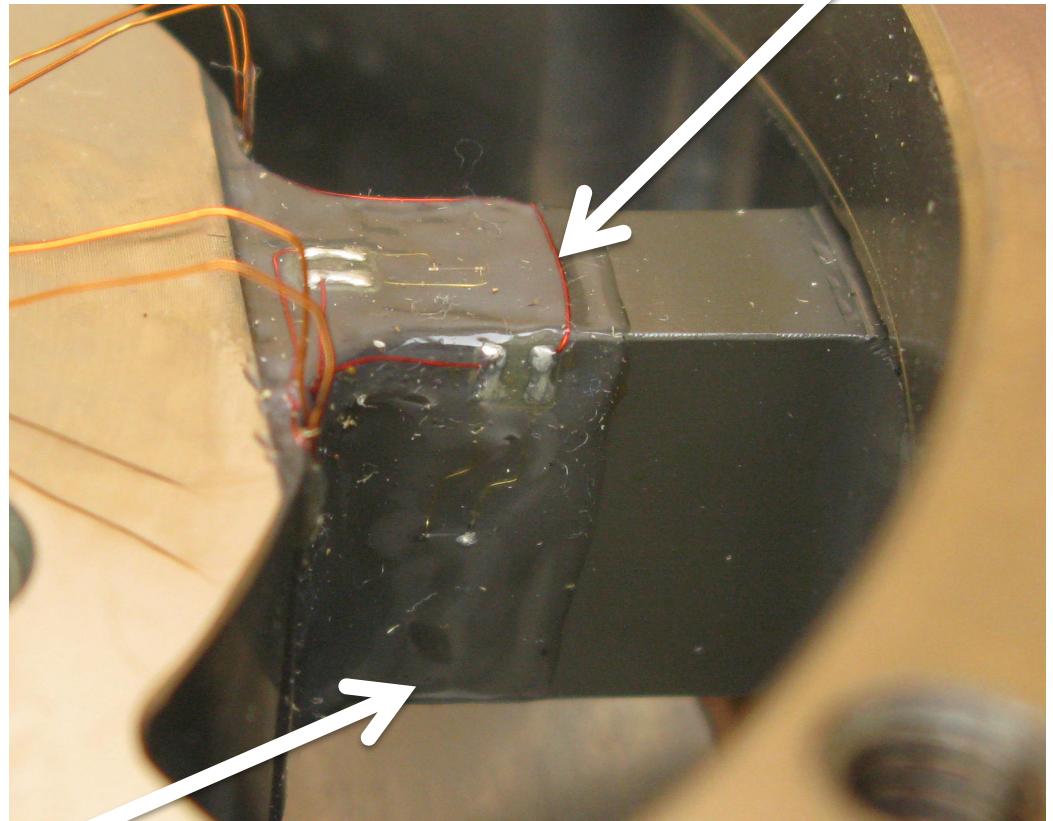
3 translational & 3 rotational DOFs

Inside a large 6DOF FT

Signal conditioning circuitry

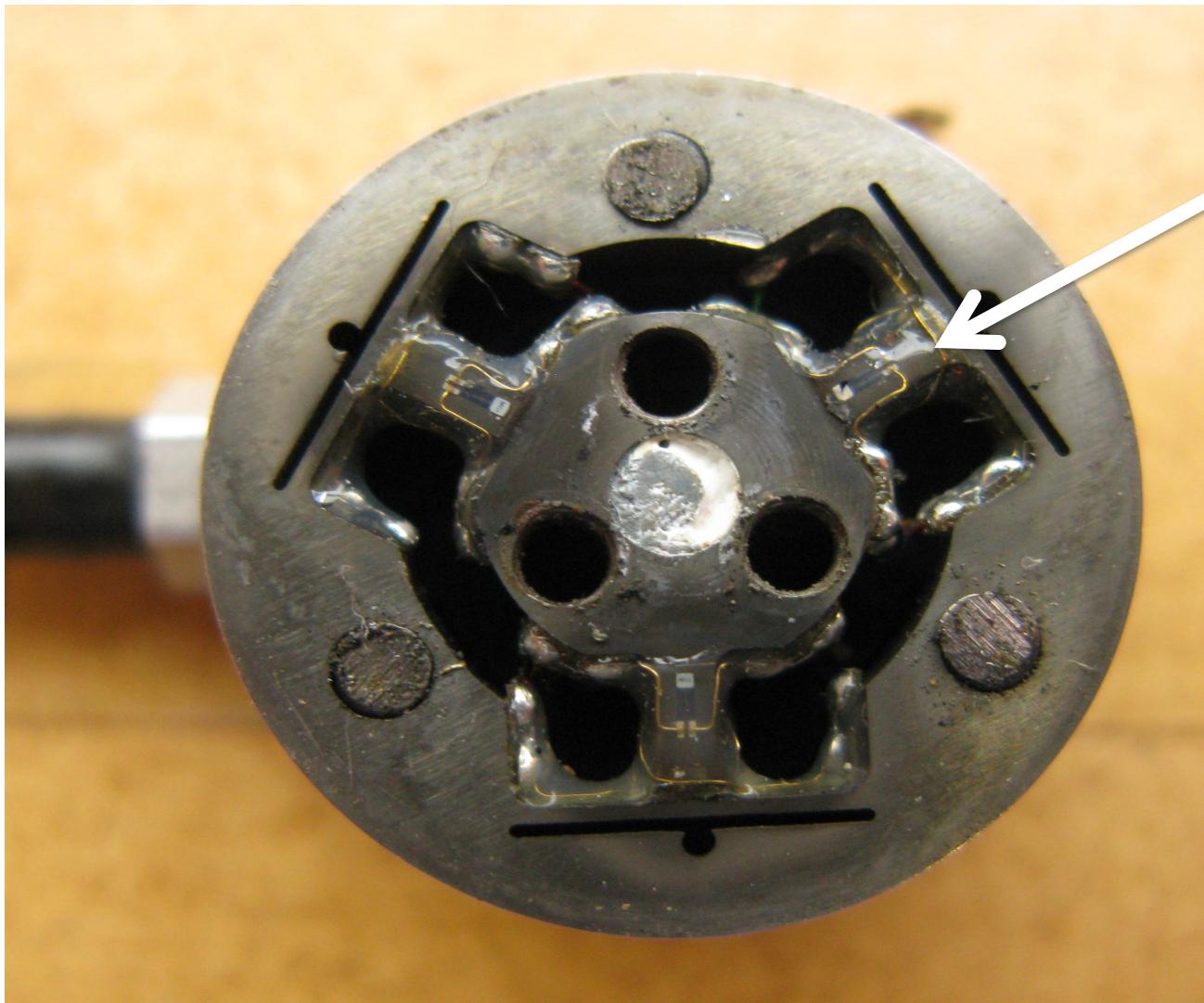


Silicon strain gauges



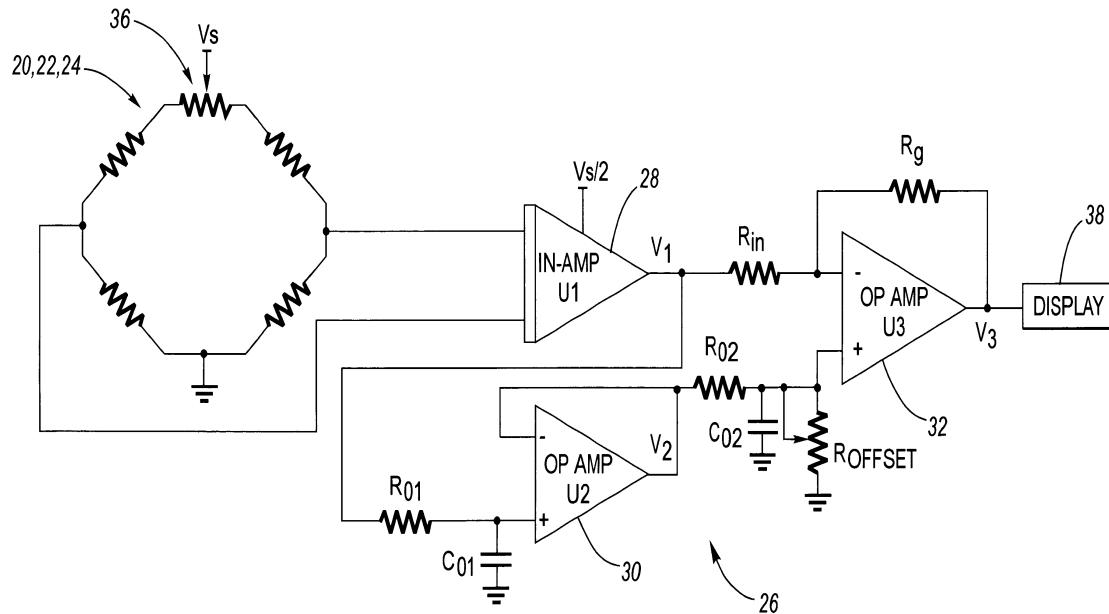
Massive structure which deforms under stress

Inside a small 6DOF FT



Silicon strain gauges

A signal conditioning amplifier is needed



- The amplifier needed because voltage changes generated by Wheatstone bridge are small
- Need differential input to cancel interference
- Also it can filter unwanted signal outside the bandwidth of interest