Precision Machine Design

Topic 8

Sensor systems

Purpose:

Machine designers must be aware of the types of sensor systems at their disposal. This lecture discusses selection of sensors, and how they are used which can have a large impact on system performance.

Outline:

- Sensors and Transducers
- Sensor performance characteristics
- Common analog output sensors
- Common optical sensors

"Experience is the name everyone gives to their mistakes"

Oscar Wilde

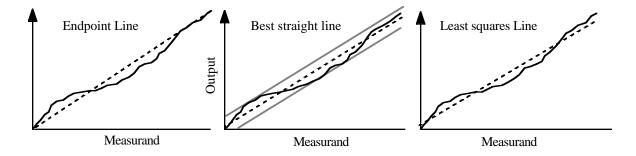
Sensors and Transducers

- A sensor is a device that responds to or detects a physical quantity and transmits the resulting signal to a controller.
- A transducer is a sensor that converts (transduces) one form of energy to another form.
- Basic types of sensors:
 - Absolute The output is always relative to a fixed reference, regardless of the initial conditions.
 - Analog The output is continuous and proportional to the physical quantity being measured.
 - Digital The output can only change by an incremental value given a change in the measured physical quantity.
 - Incremental The output is a series of binary pulses.
 - Each pulse represents a change in the physical quantity by one resolution unit of the sensor.
 - The pulses must be counted.

Sensor performance characteristics

- Accuracy All sensors are accurate in that an input causes an output. The trick is to figure out what the sensor is saying.
- Averaged output Random errors can be reduced by the square root of the number of averages taken.
- Frequency Response is the effect of the physical quantity being measured as it varies in time, on the output of the sensor.
- Hysteresis is the maximum difference in sensor output between measurements made from 0-100% full scale output (FSO), and 100-0% FSO.

- Linearity is the variation in the constant of proportionality between the output signal and the measured physical quantity.
 - There are three different ways of fitting a straight line to the sensor's output verses input graph:
 - End point line.
 - Best straight line.
 - Least squares line.



- The *end point line* connects the endpoints of the sensor's response curve.
- The *best straight line* is the line midway between the two parallel lines that completely envelop the sensor's response curve.
- The *least squares line* is the line drawn through the sensor's response curve such that the sum of the squares of the deviations from the straight line is minimized.
- Mapping involves measuring the response of a sensor to a known input under known conditions.
 - The results are then expressed in tabular or analytical form.

- Most sensors' frequency responses are given in terms of the -3 db point.
- If a sensor detects motion of a part and the output from the sensor used to control an axis to correct for the error:
 - The sensor should probably be operated well before its -3 db frequency response point.
- The justification for this is:

Decibels (db)	Error
-0.0000087	1 ppm
-0.000087	10 ppm
-0.000869	100 ppm
-0.008690	1000 ppm
-0.087	1%
-0.915	10%
-3.0	30%

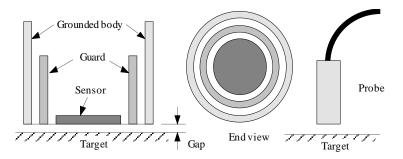
- The phase angle portion of the dynamic response:
 - Affects whether a sensor can be effectively used in a control system for a machine.
- If there is too much lag:
 - It may not be possible for the mechanism to correct for errors sensed.
 - The error may have already irreversibly affected the process.

Common analog output sensors

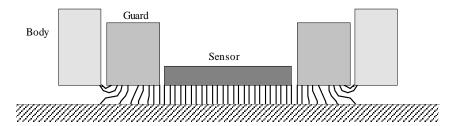
- Capacitance sensors
- Hall effect sensors
- Inductive digital on/off proximity sensors
- Inductive distance measuring sensors
- InductosynsTM
- Linear & rotary variable differential transformers
- Magnetic scales
- Magnetostrictive sensors
- Potentiometers
- Velocity sensors

Capacitance sensors

• General construction

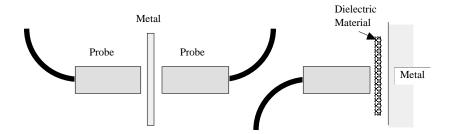


• Field properties

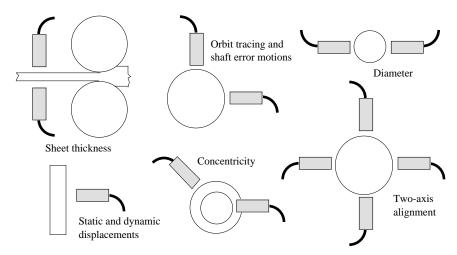


• Generally regarded as the most accurate type of analog limited range of motion sensor.

- Typical applications:
 - Position sensor for micropositioners.
 - Material thickness sensing:

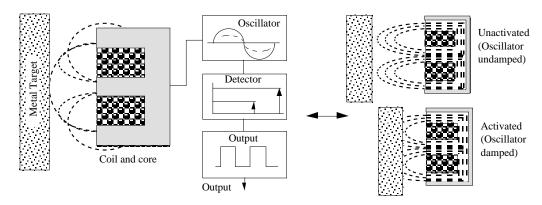


• Metrology equipment (e.g. spindle error analyzers):



Inductive digital on/off proximity sensors

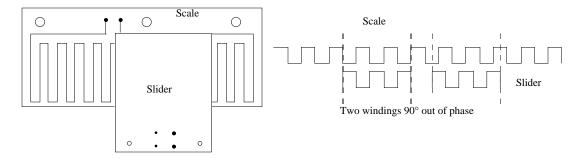
• General operating principle (Courtesy of Turck Inc.):



- Typical applications:
 - Industrial limit switches.
 - "Coarse" home position sensor for machine tools (fine home position via encoder home pulse).

$Inductosyns^{TM} \\$

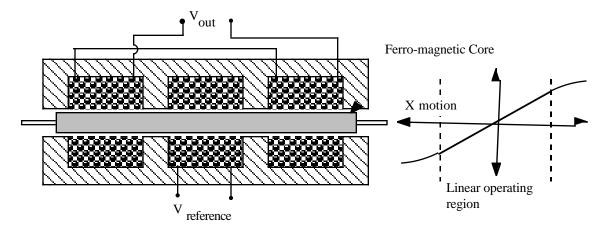
• General operating principle:



- Rotary InductosynsTM operate on a similar principle.
- InductosynsTM were used on machine tools before robust encoders and magnetic scales were developed.
- Typical applications:
 - Rotary tables.
 - · linear motion machine tool axes.

Linear and rotary variable differential transformers

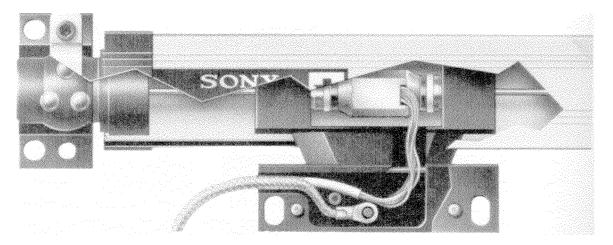
• General operating principle (Courtesy of Lucas Schaevitz):



- Typical applications:
 - Metrology equipment.
 - · Small range of motion servo controlled devices.

Magnetic scales

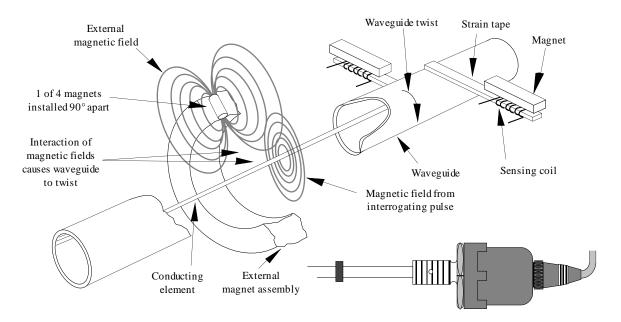
- Operates on same principle that allows a disk drive to locate stored information.
- More robust then linear optical encoders.
- Magnetically encoded linear scale and sliding read head (Courtesy of Sony Magnescale Inc.):



• Becoming more and more common sensor for measuring linear motion of machine tool axes.

Magnetostrictive sensors

• General operating principle for position sensing (Courtesy of MTS Systems Corp.):

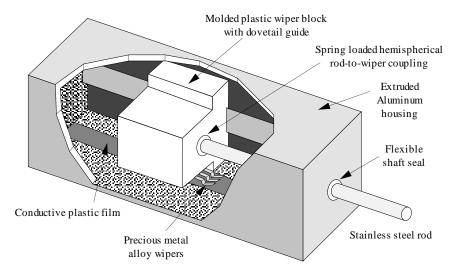


Typical applications:

- Moderate accuracy linear position sensing.
- Position sensing of hydraulic pistons (sensor can be placed inside the cylinder).

Potentiometers

• General operating principle (Courtesy of Vernitech Corp.):



- Typical applications:
 - · As a sensor in a high reliability all analog servo system.
 - Short range of motion servo systems.

Velocity sensors

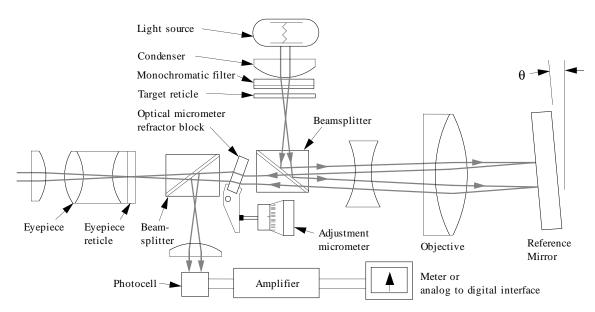
- Linear velocity sensors tend to act like antennas, so they pick up EMI easily; thus their use should be avoided.
- Rotary velocity sensors (tachometers) are essentially driven DC motors.
- Typical applications:
 - Speed control.
 - Analog velocity feedback.

Common optical sensors

- Autocollimators
- Optical encoders
- Fiber optic sensors
- Interferometric sensors
- Laser triangulation sensors
- Vision systems

Autocollimators

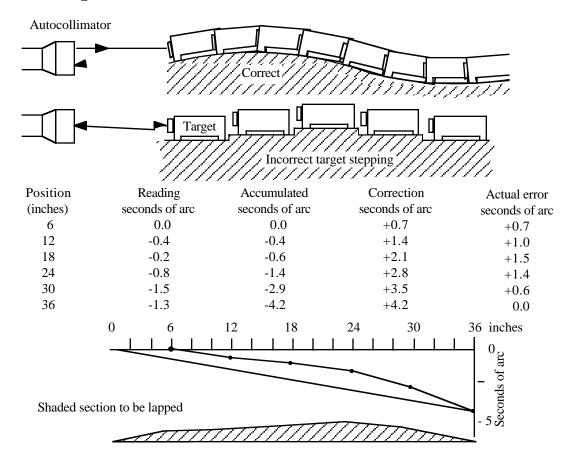
- Used to measure the change in angle of a target mirror.
- General construction (Courtesy of Rank Taylor Hobson):



• The measured angle is independant of the distance of the target.

• Typical applications:

- Small angle servo systems.
- Straightness measurement (after Moore):

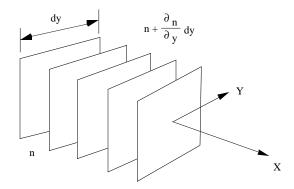


As with many optical systems, changes in the index of refraction affect sensor output

• Edlen's equation:

(n-1) x
$$10^7 = (n_{nominal} - 1) \times 10^7 \times \frac{Pressure}{760 \text{ mm}} \times \frac{293^{\circ} \text{K}}{\text{T}(^{\circ}\text{K})}$$

• Effect of an index of refraction gradient (e.g., caused by a temperature gradient) on the propagation of a plane of light:



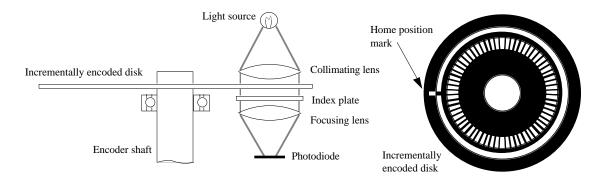
• For small gradients dT/dy in air

$$\frac{d\theta}{dx} \approx \frac{K}{nT^2} \left(\frac{dT}{dy} \right)$$

Optical encoders

- Common types:
 - Incremental position encoders.
 - Interpolation (E.G., Moire fringe) encoders.
 - Absolute position encoders.
 - Diffraction encoders.
- Quadrature logic.
- Typical characteristics of optical encoders.

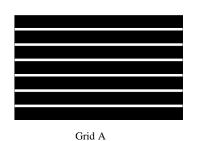
Incremental position encoders

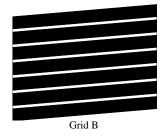


- Most commonly used type.
- Reasonable resolution.
- Inexpensive and widely available.
- Quality is typically proportional to price.
 - Poor gratings and poor electronics lead to output signal orthogonality errors.
 - Quadrature signals are 900±N0, which cause velocity calculation errors in control loops.

Interpolation encoders

- Output is a sine wave and a cosine wave:
 - Can be used to interpolate (typically 25x) beyond the resolution provided by the slits.
- The resulting signal can still be used with quadrature logic to gain a 4x increase in resolution.
- Example, Moire fringes:

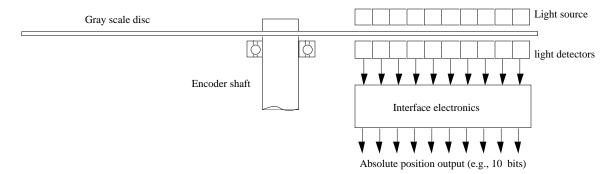






Grid B on top of Grid A

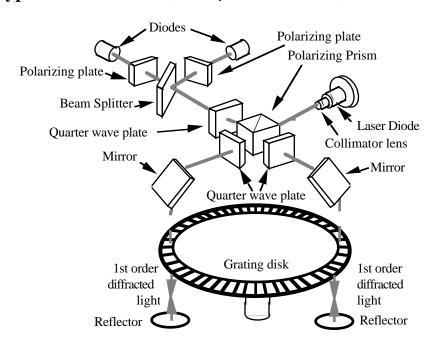
Absolute position encoders



- Not commonly used on machine tools because most have to be reset upon startup anyway.
- Moderate resolution for a price.

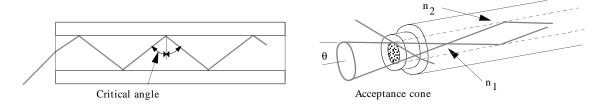
Diffraction encoders

- With conventional encoders, slit width and hence resolution is limited by diffraction.
- Diffraction encoders use diffracted light to create interference patterns.
 - These are used to generate very high resolution sine and cosine waveforms for interpolation.
 - Sine and cosine waveforms are assumed to be of equal amplitude.
 - This is a spurce of error that limits accuracy.
- Typical construction (Courtesy of Canon USA Inc.):

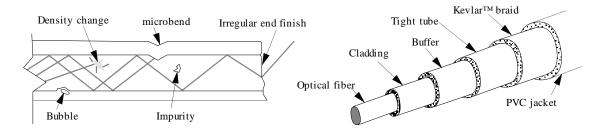


Fiber optic sensors

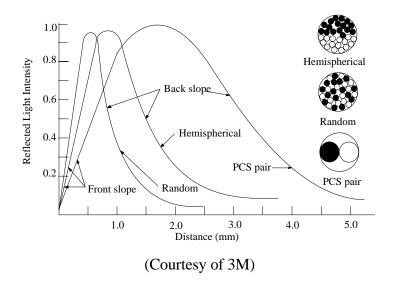
• Condition for low loss propagation of light through a fiber (Courtesy of 3M):



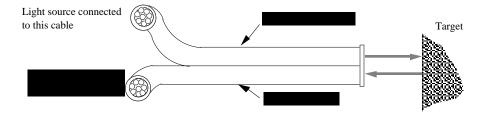
• Construction of a fiber optic cable and typical defects (Courtesy of 3M):



• Generalized performance characteristics for three types of reflective fiber optic probes (Courtesy of 3M):



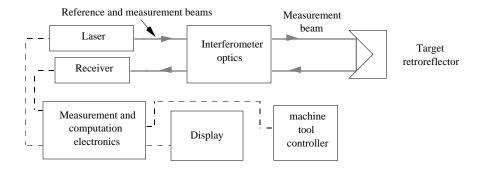
• Bifurcate probe used in a reflective scanning mode (Courtesy of 3M):



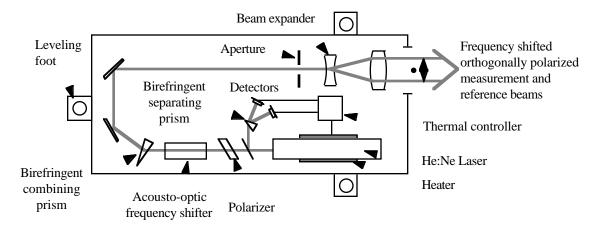
- Typical applications of fiber optics in precision machines:
 - To carry light to or from a sensor (e.g. interferometer).
 - To carry light to and from a surface for measuring the position of the surface.

Optical Heterodyne Interferometers

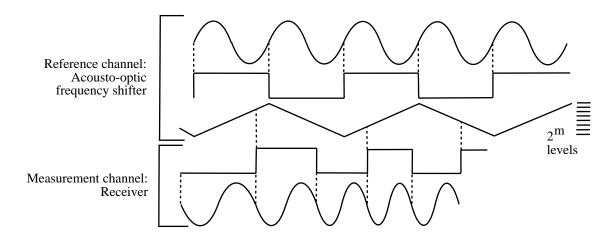
- Michelson interferometers count fringes which limits the resolution to about 1/8.
- Heterodyne techniques can be used to achieve two orders of magnitude greater resolution:



• Construction of a laser head used with an Optical Heterodyne Interferometer (Courtesy of Zygo Corp.):

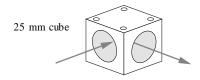


• One of many processes for determining optical path change using phase measurement (Courtesy of Zygo Corp.):

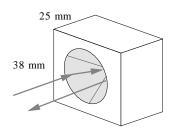


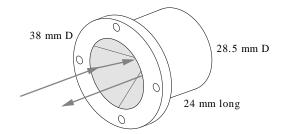
Beam handling components

• Beambender: A plane mittor:

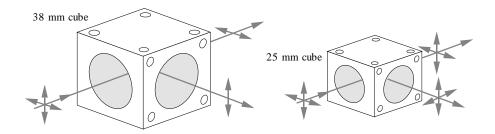


- Careful to make the bend 90° to avoid polarization leakage problems
- Linear retroreflectors: Return light parallel to its incoming path:

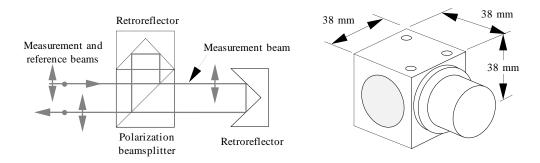




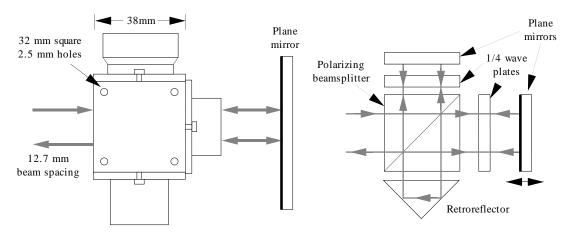
• Beamsplitter: Separates orthogonally polarized beams into two components:



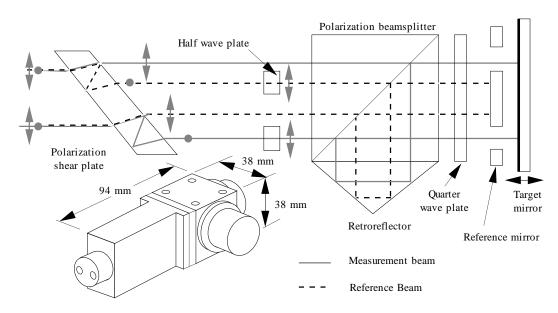
• Linear displacement interferometer: Combines polarization beamsplitter and a retroreflector:



• Plane mirror interferometer (Courtesy of Zygo Corp.):

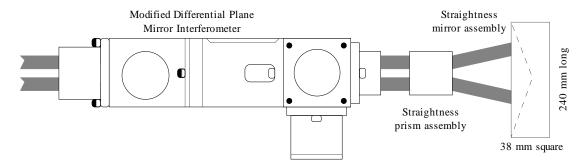


• Differential plane mirror interferometer for linear or angular motion measurements (Courtesy of Zygo Corp.):



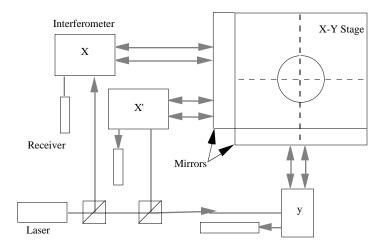
- For linear measurements, the reference mirror lets beams pass through diagonally opposite holes.
- For angular measurements:
 - The reference mirror lets beams pass through holes aligned on an axis parallel to the axis of rotation.

• Straightness interferometer and reflector (Courtesy of Zygo Corp.):

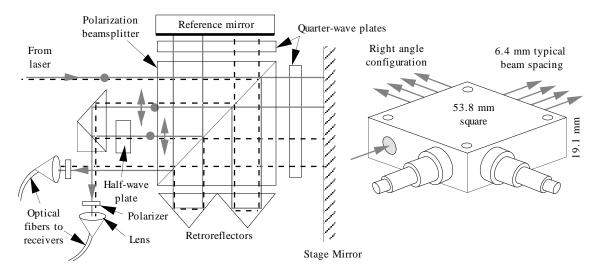


- Straightness motion of the prism or the mirror causes the pathlength to change.
- Errors in a or flatness of mirror cause straightness measurement accuracy to be limited to about 1/4 μm.
- Greatest straightness accuracy is obtained by:
 - Achieved by using a plane mirror interferometer to measure motions with respect to a precision straightedge.

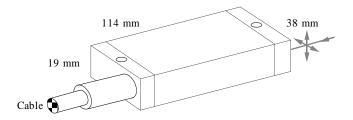
• Typical wafer stage metrology using a laser measurement system (Courtesy of Zygo Corp.):



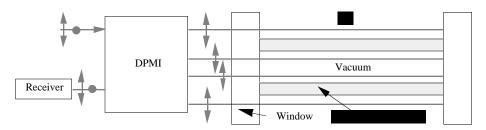
• Linear/angular displacement interferometer (Courtesy of Zygo Corp.):



• Measurement receiver:



- Some systems replace the reciever with a lens-pickup and fiber optic cable which plugs into the interferometer's electronics board.
- Refractometer for measuring changes in the refractive index of air (Courtesy of Zygo Corp.):



Sources of error

• Refractive index errors'magnitudes can be estimated from a modified form of Edlen's equation:

$$n\text{-}1 = \frac{2.879294 \times 10^{\text{-}9} \ (1 + 0.54 \times 10^{\text{-}6} \ (\text{C} - 300))P}{1 + 0.003671 \times \text{T}} - 0.42063 \times 10^{\text{-}9} \times \text{F}$$

C is the CO₂ content in ppm

F is the water vapor pressure in Pa

P is the air pressure in Pa

T is the air temperature in ^oC

$$\frac{\partial n}{\partial C} = \frac{1.55482 \times 10^{-15} \times P}{1 + 0.003671 \times T} \text{ ppm}^{-1} \approx 1.45 \times 10^{-10} \text{ ppm}^{-1}$$
$$\frac{\partial n}{\partial F} = -4.2063 \times 10^{-10} \times Pa^{-1}$$

$$\frac{\partial n}{\partial P} = \frac{2.87929 \times 10^{-10} (1 + 5.4 \times 10^{-7} (C-300))}{1 + 0.003671 \times T} Pa^{-1} \approx 2.67 \times 10^{-9} \times Pa^{-1}$$

$$\frac{\partial n}{\partial T} = \frac{-1.05699 \times 10^{-11} (1 + 5.4 \times 10^{-7}) (C-300)) P}{(1 + 0.003671 \times T)^2} K^{-1} \approx -9.20 \times 10^{-7} \times K^{-1}$$

Thermal effects clearly dominate.

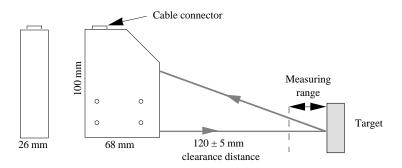
Other sources of error

• Air turbulence:

Beam path condition	rms optical path fluctuation (Å) over 175 mm path
Enclosed	4
Unenclosed	15
0.5 m/s	24
1.0 m/s	45
0.5 m/s nozzle	24
1.0 m/s nozzle	45

- Light wavelength errors.
- Electrical noise errors.
- Alignment errors:
 - Cosine errors.
- Optical component errors:
 - Shape of the optics.
 - Nonuniformity of refractive index.
 - Nonuniformity of coatings on the optics.

Laser triangulation sensors

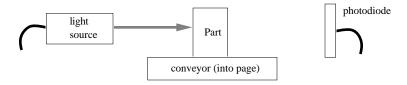


(Courtesy of Candid Logic Inc.)

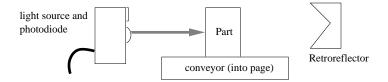
- · Typically used as non-contact displacement sesnors.
- Very useful for gauging applications

Photoelectric transducers

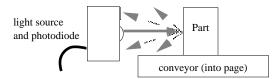
• Opposed mode (interrupted beam) operation of a photoelectric proximity sensor:



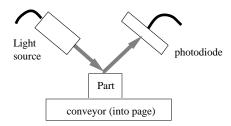
Retroreflective mode operation of a photoelectric proximity sensor:



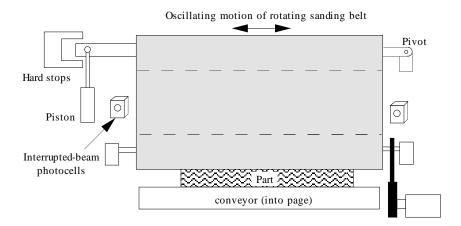
• Diffuse reflection mode operation of a photoelectric proximity sensor.



• Specular reflection mode operation of a photoelectric proximity sensor:

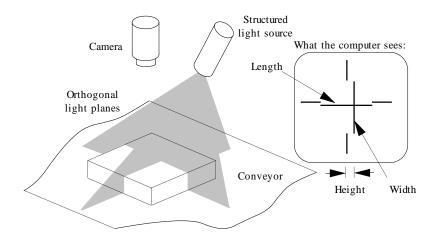


 Photoelectric proximity sensor used to control oscillating motion of a sanding machine's belt:



Vision systems

- Perform well if they know what they are looking for:
 - Optical comparators.
 - Mapping the shape of a tool.
 - Measuring part dimensions using structured light (After Landman):



• Use in unstructured environments is still expensive and generally does not pertain to precision engineering applications.

- Vision systems for high speed 100% part inspection. Clockwise from upper left (Courtesy of Sperry Rail Inc.):
 - Sequence interruption
 - Shadowed signals
 - Transmitted signals
 - Circular scanning using reflected signals

