

# IN 221 (AUG) 3:0

## Sensors and Transducers

### Lecture 2

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## Example: Gains of Popular Bridge Amplifiers

- Proper use of strain gauges requires using them as parts of a *Wheatstone Bridge*.
- The output with strain gauge elements is quite small.
- Usually, it needs to be amplified before any other use.
- HX710 and HX711 are two popular amplifier/digitizer integrated circuits for use with *load cells* having strain gauges.
- HX710: Fixed gain of 128.
- HX711: Selectable gain of 32, 64, or 128.

# Gauge Factor

$$GF = \frac{\Delta R / R_G}{\epsilon} \quad (1)$$

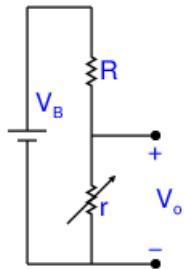
$\Delta R$ : Change in resistance caused by strain

$R_G$ : Resistance of the strain gauge when there is no deformation

$\epsilon$ : Strain = (Change in length) / (Length)

For metallic foil gauges, GF is a little over 2.

# Strain Gauge: Voltage Divider Arrangement

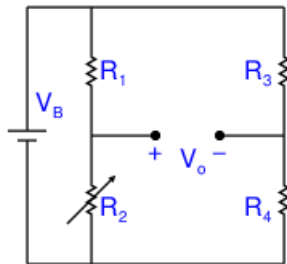


Disadvantages: Too much offset!

Let the battery voltage be 5 V, and both  $R$  and  $r$  be 100 ohms. The change in  $r$  may at most be 1 ohm. Then the change in output is 12.44 mV over a base value of 2.5 V. Very hard to use.

**Not used.**

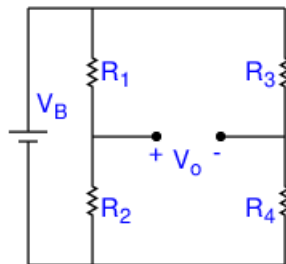
# Strain Gauge: Bridge Arrangement



Advantage: No offset output. With minor adjustment, one can make the output nearly proportional to the input.

**Much used.**

# Wheatstone Bridge Arrangement



One or more of the bridge arms can be a strain gauge.

Example Usage with a Beam:

$R_1$ , or  $R_4$ , or both can be mounted above the beam.  $R_2$ , or  $R_3$ , or both can be mounted below the beam.

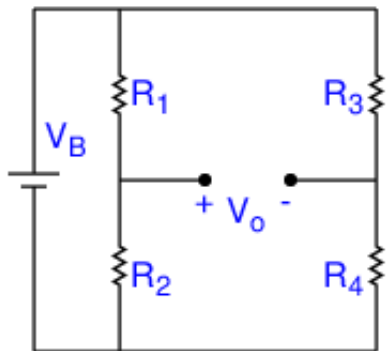
If all resistors in this diagram are strain gauges, then the output will not be affected by a change in the temperature.

# Examples where Wheatstone Bridge is used

- Strain Gauge
- Many types of Pressure Sensors
- RTD Temperature Sensor
- Some types of Accelerometers

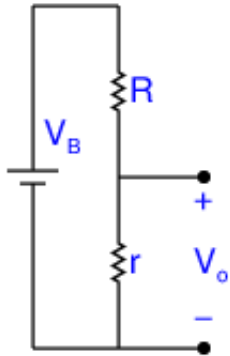


# Wheatstone Bridge Output



$$V_o = V_B \left( \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} - \frac{R_4}{R_3 + R_4} \right) \quad (2)$$

# Voltage Divider



$$V_o = V_B \frac{r}{R + r}$$

# Voltage Divider Analysis

$$V_o = V_B \frac{r}{R + r} \quad (3)$$

- The resistance  $r$  is a function of some physical input such as temperature or strain.
- The change in  $r$  is small and is usually proportional to the reference value of  $r$ .
- So it is the fractional change in  $r$  that is determined by the change in the physical quantity that is being sensed.
- Fractional change in common language: Percentage change or per unit change

Question: What value of  $R$  maximizes the change in the output for a given fractional change in  $r$ ?

# Rates of Change

Rate of change of  $V_o$  with respect to  $r$ :

$$\frac{\partial V_o}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial \left( V_B \frac{r}{R+r} \right)}{\partial r} = V_B \frac{R}{(R+r)^2} \quad (4)$$

Rate of change of  $V_o$  with respect to fractional change in  $r$ :

$$\frac{\partial V_o}{\frac{1}{r} \partial r} = r \frac{\partial V_o}{\partial r} = V_B \frac{Rr}{(R+r)^2} = \frac{1}{4} V_B \left[ 1 - \frac{(R-r)^2}{(R+r)^2} \right] \quad (5)$$

This is maximized when  $R = r$ .

# Best Operating Conditions

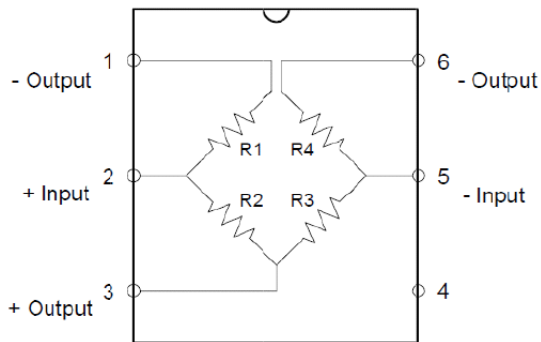
- So the best value of  $R$  is the nominal reference value of  $r$ .
- Note that even though the output is proportional to  $V_B$ , to keep the components safe,  $V_B$  cannot be made too high.
- Using higher  $V_B$  values may cause heating of the strain gauge elements.

# Example: Pressure Sensor MPS20N0040D

40 kPa differential pressure sensor

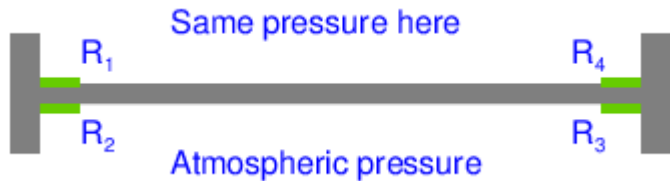


# Pressure Sensor MPS20N0040D Diagram



Note: This is the *bottom* view of the sensor. Also, the resistor symbols are different to those of the Wheatstone bridge diagram we have shown earlier. We do NOT use this convention in our discussion.

# Piezo-resistive pressure sensor arrangement

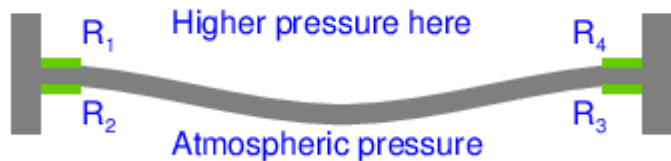


$$R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R_4 = R_0.$$

$R_0$  is approximately 5 k $\Omega$  in MPS20N0040D.

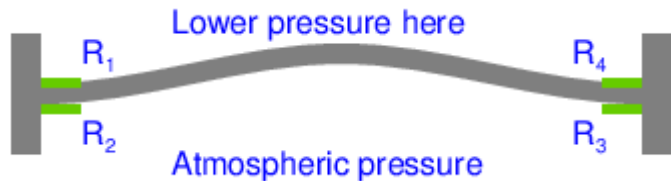


# Piezo-resistive pressure sensor: Higher pressure



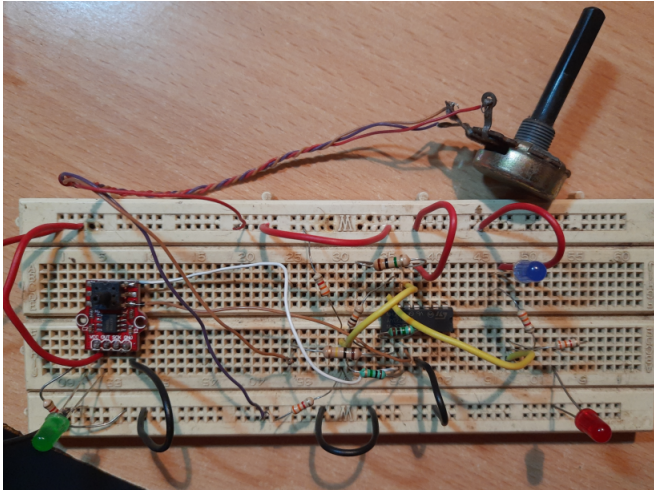
$R_1$  and  $R_4$  increase due to tension.  $R_2$  and  $R_3$  decrease due to compression.

# Piezo-resistive pressure sensor: Lower pressure



$R_1$  and  $R_4$  decrease due to compression.  $R_2$  and  $R_3$  increase due to tension.

# Pressure Sensor MPS20N0040D in use

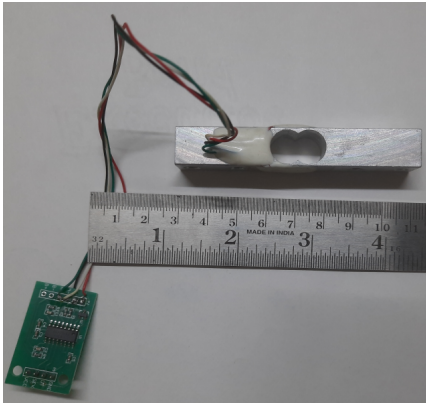


A demonstration will be given later.

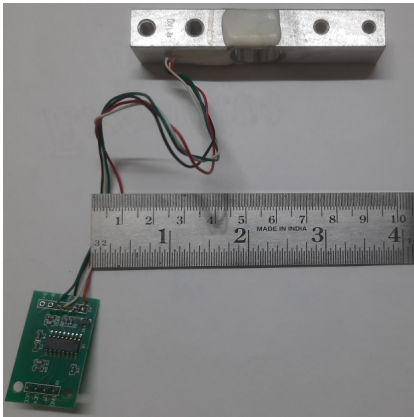
# Load Cells

- Converts **force** to **electrical signal**.
- Most load cells use strain gauges attached to metal structures.
- Aluminium and steel are the metals most used.
- Widely used for force and weight measurement.
- Amplification is required for digitization.

# Load Cell: Side View

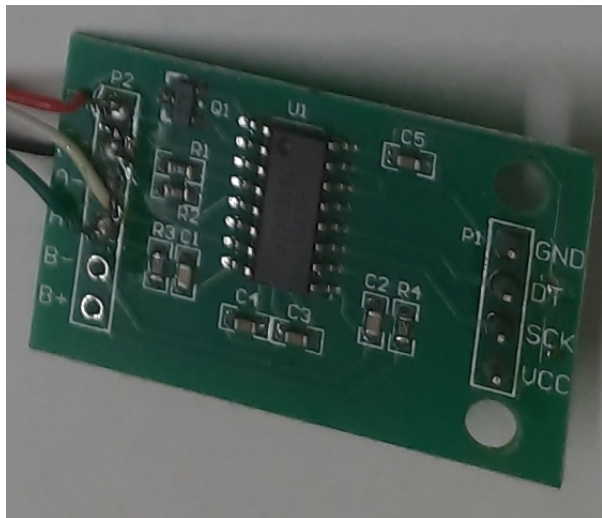


# Load Cell: Top View



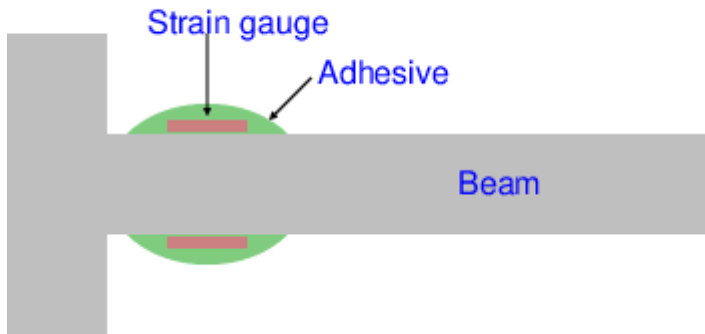
Note the white adhesive used to attach the strain gauge.  
The HX711 amplifier/digitizer board is also visible.

# Load Cell Amplifier and Digitizer



The HX711 amplifier/digitizer board uses the I<sup>2</sup>C interface.

# Attaching Strain Gauges to a Beam



If the upper strain gauge is in the tension, the lower one will be in compression and vice versa.



# Temperature Sensors

- Thermistor
- Thermocouple
- Resistance Thermometer
- Silicon Diode Sensor
- Silicon Bandgap Temperature Sensor
- Infrared Temperature Sensor

# Thermistor

- Resistor whose resistance changes with temperature.
- Usually made of semiconductors.
- Change of resistance is more than that in metal resistors.
- Usually nonlinear.
- Limited range of use:  $-90\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $130\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$
- Two types: NTC and PTC
- NTC: Negative Temperature Coefficient, resistance decreases with increase in temperature
- PTC: Positive Temperature Coefficient, resistance increases with increase in temperature
- NTC type is more commonly used.
- Can be quite sensitive, but not as accurate as other types of temperature sensors.
- Also used to limit starting current.

# Thermocouple

- Involves junctions of two different metals.
- Generates a small voltage that is roughly proportional to the temperature difference of the two junctions.
- Based on Seebeck effect
- Many types available: Types K, J, N, R, S, B, T, E, and others.
- Advantage: Wide range (from  $-270\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $1700\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ )
- Advantage: Requires no external power
- Disadvantage: Output is quite small, usually requires amplification
- Disadvantage: Amplification can be challenging

# Resistance Thermometer

## Resistance Temperature Detector (RTD)

- The resistivity of metals is a linear function of temperature over a wide range of temperatures.
- Usually a very pure form of the metal is used.
- A resistor made of the metal is enclosed in some form of protective housing.
- Commonly used metals: Platinum, Copper, Nickel
- Platinum can work till 600 °C.

# Temperature Coefficient of Resistance (TCR)

Let the resistance of a resistor be  $R_{\text{ref}}$  at temperature  $T_{\text{ref}}$  and  $R$  at temperature  $T$ . Then for metal resistors over a wide range of temperatures,

$$R = R_{\text{ref}}[1 + \alpha(T - T_{\text{ref}})] \quad (6)$$

where  $\alpha$  is called the temperature coefficient of resistance (TCR).  $T_{\text{ref}}$  is usually 20 °C.

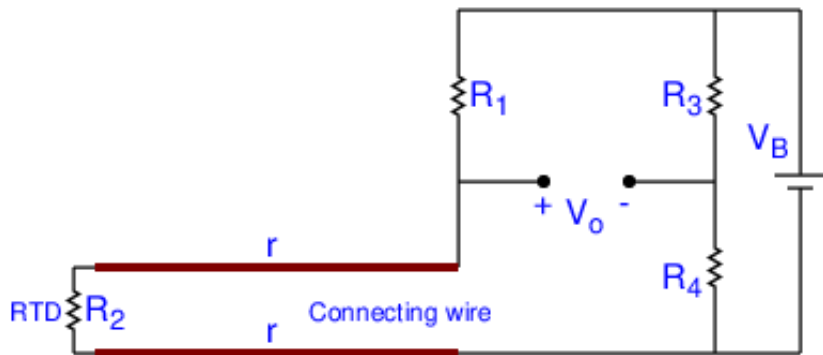
$$\alpha = \frac{R - R_{\text{ref}}}{R_{\text{ref}}(T - T_{\text{ref}})} = \frac{\Delta R}{R_{\text{ref}}\Delta T} \quad (7)$$

Units: per °C

# TCR of Commonly Used Metals

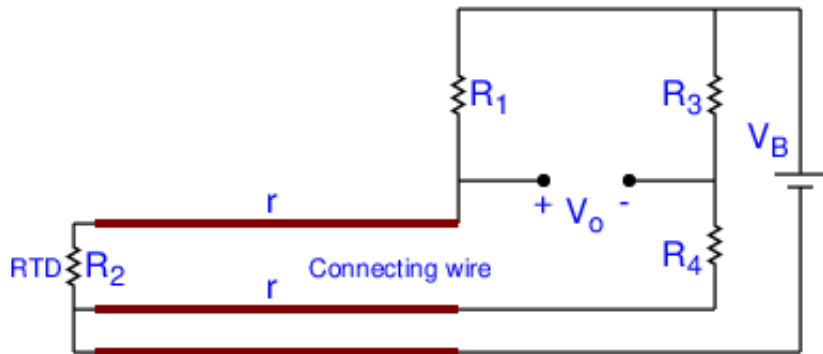
Metal	$\alpha$
Platinum	$3.925 \times 10^{-3} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$
Copper	$3.9 \times 10^{-3} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$
Aluminium	$3.9 \times 10^{-3} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$
Gold	$3.4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$
Silver	$3.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$
Tungsten	$4.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$
Iron	$5.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$
Nickel	$6.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$
Tin	$4.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$
Lead	$3.9 \times 10^{-3} \text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$

# Two-wire Configuration



Disadvantage:  $r$  depends on the length of the connecting wire and only affects  $R_2$ .

# Three-wire Configuration



Advantage:  $r$  affects both  $R_2$  and  $R_4$  equally.



# Silicon Bandgap Temperature Sensor

The difference in voltage drop across two identical diodes or base to emitter junctions:

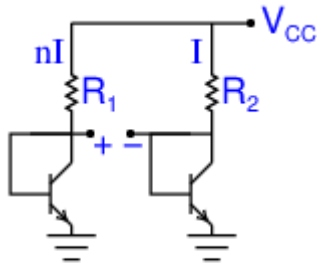
$$\Delta V_{BE} = \frac{kT}{q} \ln \left( \frac{I_{C1}}{I_{C2}} \right) \quad (8)$$

Here  $I_{C1}$  and  $I_{C2}$  are the diode or the collector currents.

- Can be part of an integrated circuit
- Reasonably accurate
- Inexpensive
- Example: LM35 temperature sensor IC

# PTAT Temperature Sensor

**PTAT: Proportional to Absolute Temperature**

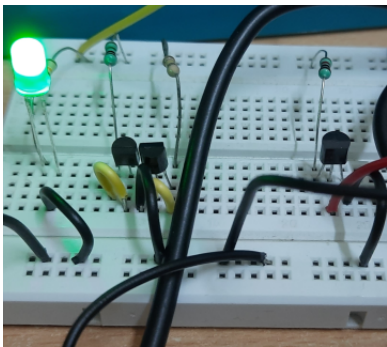


Output proportional to T

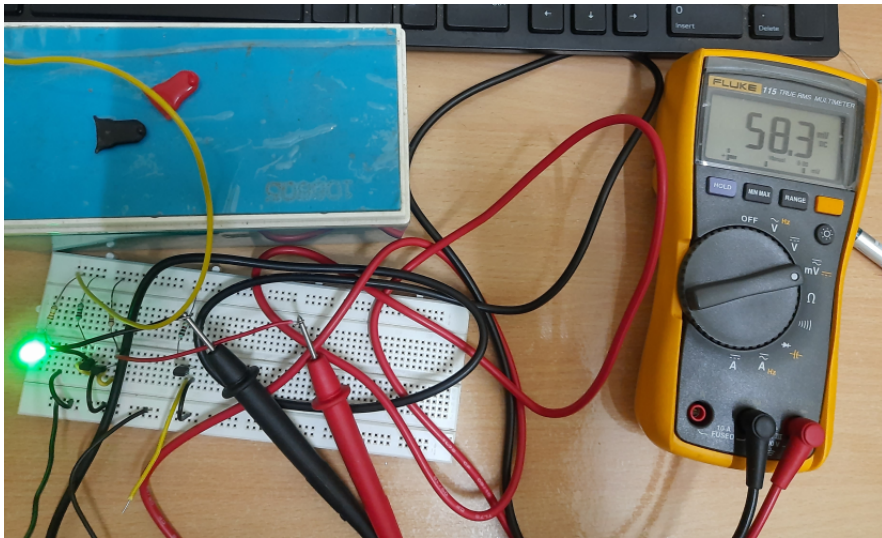
PTAT Circuit

$$\Delta V_{BE} = \frac{kT}{q} \ln \left( \frac{I_{C1}}{I_{C2}} \right) = \frac{kT}{q} \ln n \quad (9)$$

# PTAT Circuit



# PTAT Output



# LM35 Output



# Example PTAT Calculation

In the PTAT constructed,  $\frac{I_{C1}}{I_{C2}} = n \approx 10$ .

From the LM35 reading,  $T$  is 27.72 celsius or  $27.72 + 273.15$  kelvin.

## Calculation:

$$n = 10.$$

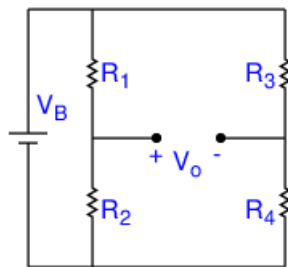
$$T = 300.87 \text{ K}.$$

$$\text{Boltzmann constant: } k = 1.380\,649 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J K}^{-1}.$$

$$\text{Elementary charge: } q = 1.602\,176\,634 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}.$$

$$\frac{kT}{q} \ln n = 59.699 \text{ mV which is close to the } 58.3 \text{ mV reading.}$$

# Problem: Wheatstone Bridge



$$V_o = V_B \left( \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} - \frac{R_4}{R_3 + R_4} \right) \quad (10)$$

Let  $n$  be the decimal number formed by the last two digits of your SR number.

Let  $R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = 100 \, \Omega$ , and  $R_4 = (100 + n/100) \, \Omega$ .

Calculate  $V_o$ .