

Process automation

Sensing and Actuating Systems

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Octavian M. Machidon

octavian.machidon@fri.uni-lj.si

Outline

- Introduction to Sensing Systems
- Types of Sensors
- Signal Processing in Sensors
- Industrial Sensor Requirements
- Wiring and Interfacing Sensors
- Position Measurement Systems
- Introduction to Actuating Systems
- Types of Actuators
- Control and Safety
- Practical Applications

Sensing systems

- The basic element of a sensing (measurement) system is a sensor or transducer.
- **Examples:**
 - Position, speed, acceleration
 - Force, torque
 - Pressure
 - Temperature
 - Level
 - Flow
 - Material properties

Actuating systems

- **Structure:**

- **Actuator**

- Uses additional power supply to create mechanical movement, depending on the control signal.

- **Final control element**

- Mechanical movement causes a change in energy or mass flow in the system, carried out by the final control element (valve, damper).

- **Position feedback**

- Response to the control signal depending on the current position of the actuator.

- **Examples:**

- Valve (fluid flow)
 - Damper (material flow)
 - Electric motor
 - Electro-hydraulic actuating system
 - Electro-pneumatic actuating system

Industrial conditions

- Easy installation and replacement
- Robust connections
- Temperature range:
 - **Commercial:** 0°C to +70°C
 - **Industrial:** -40°C to +85°C
 - **More demanding industrial:** -40°C to +125°C
- Mechanical resistance to shocks and vibrations
- Protection against electromagnetic interference
- Water protection

Industrial Conditions

- **IP Protection Levels (Ingress Protection)**

- Standard EN60529
- Two digits
- Example: IP20, IP55, IP67



Level	Protection from contact with solid foreign objects	Protection from water
0	No protection	No protection
1	Ingress of solid foreign objects, diameter > 50 mm	Vertically falling water
2	Ingress of solid foreign objects, diameter > 12.5 mm	Vertically falling water (15° tilt)
3	Ingress of solid foreign objects, diameter > 2.5 mm	Against spraying water
4	Ingress of solid foreign objects, diameter > 1 mm	Against splashing water
5	Harmful dust deposition inside	Against water jets
6	Dustproof, complete protection against contact	Against powerful water jets
7		Short-term immersion
8		Long-term immersion

Sensor Characteristics

- **Accuracy**
 - How well the measurement matches the actual value of the quantity.
- **Precision**
 - Deviation of the measurement from the average value.
 - The measuring range of the instrument should be as well-suited to the range of measured quantities as possible.
- **Sensitivity**
 - Change in the reading due to a change in the quantity.
- **Resolution**
 - The smallest change in the input quantity that the sensor can detect.
- **Response Time**
- **Hysteresis**
- **Constant Deviation, Drift**
 - Uniform across the entire measuring range, can be corrected by calibration.
- **Scale**
 - Linear dependence of the measured quantity is preferred.
 - It can be quadratic, root-based, logarithmic.
 - Nonlinearity: deviation from the expected dependence (expressed as a percentage of the scale).

Signal processing

Digital Sensors

- **Data Acquisition**

- Setting the operating range
- Standard levels:
 - 24V relay contacts
 - Output 0..24V, 100mA

- **Processing**

- Filtering 0..8ms filter

- **Reliability**

- Deviations are rare

Analog Sensors

- **Data Acquisition**

- Standardized signals:
 - 0/2..10V, 0/4..20mA
 - Resistive elements

- **Processing**

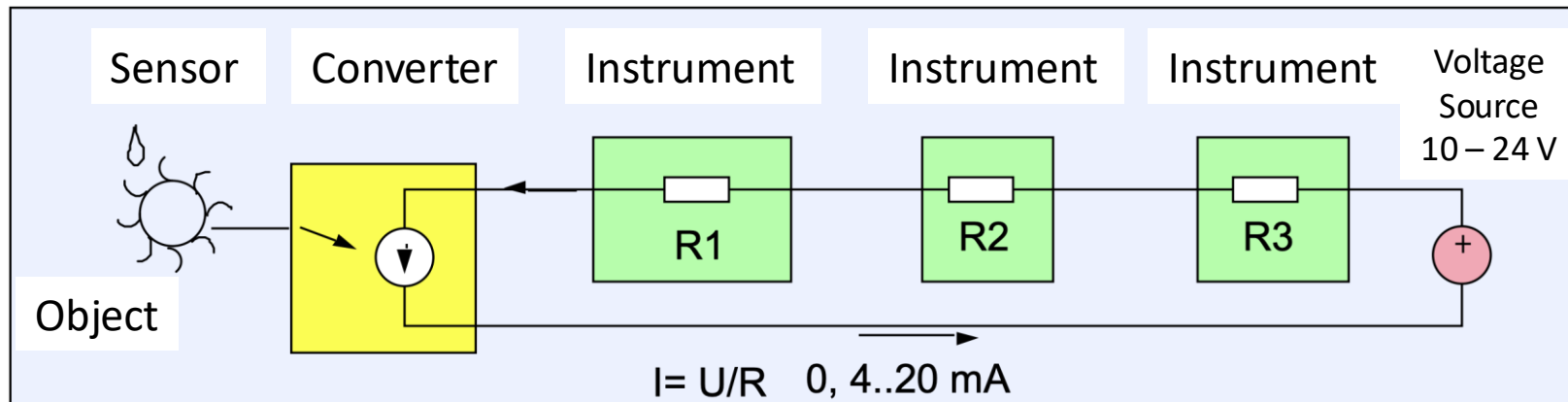
- Filtering against 50-60Hz interference and higher harmonics
- Scaling, linearization, averaging
- Analog-to-digital conversion

- **Reliability**

- Interval, limits, integrity
- Error reporting, diagnostics

Wiring

- Why use 4 to 20 mA measurements?
 - Converters act as current sources, sending currents between 4 and 20 mA, proportional to the measured quantity.
 - The information is transmitted via current, so voltage drop on the wires does not cause errors.
 - Current < 4 mA signals a fault.
 - The number of series-connected loads is limited by the supply voltage.
 - Simple devices can be powered directly via the signal wires.



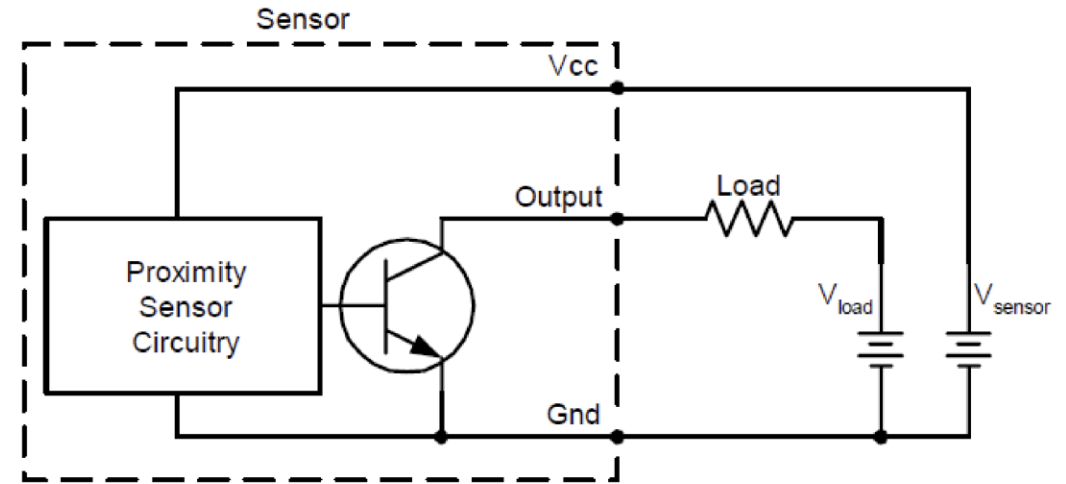
Wiring

- **Sensor output:**
 - **Normally Open (NO) contact**
 - When the sensor is active, we have a logical 1 at the output.
 - **Normally Closed (NC) contact**
 - The output is always logical 1, which is lost when the sensor becomes active.
- **Type of sensor:**
 - Depends on the type of transistor used: **NPN** or **PNP**.
 - The sensor must be compatible with the input-output card.

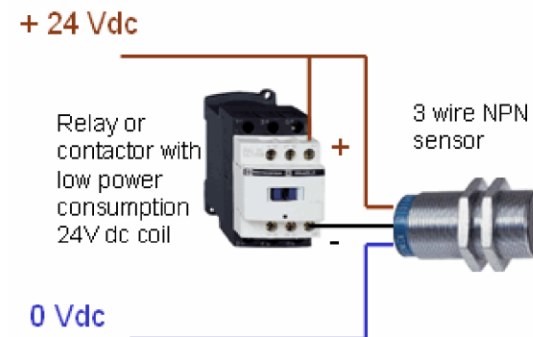
Wiring

NPN Type:

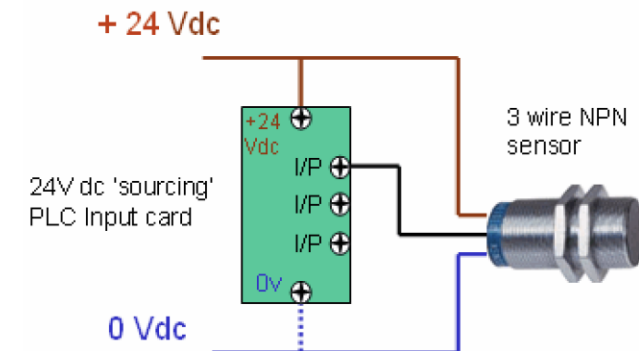
- With voltage at the base, we control the current from the collector to the emitter (indicated by the arrow).
- If the base is at a higher voltage than the emitter, current flows from the collector to the emitter.
- A small amount of current also flows from the base to the emitter.
- **System advantage:** The switching element can operate at a higher voltage than the sensor.
- **Less commonly used.**



3 wire NPN wiring



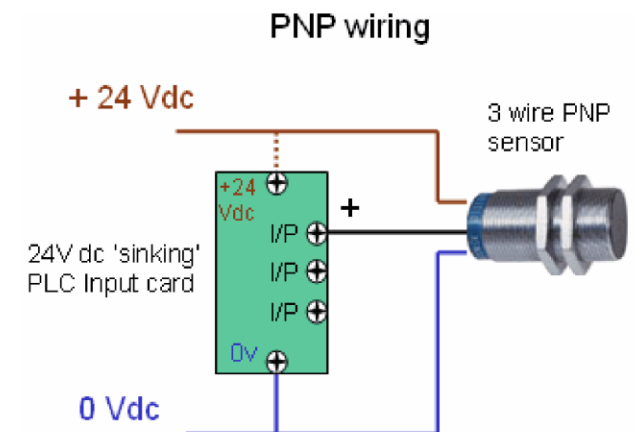
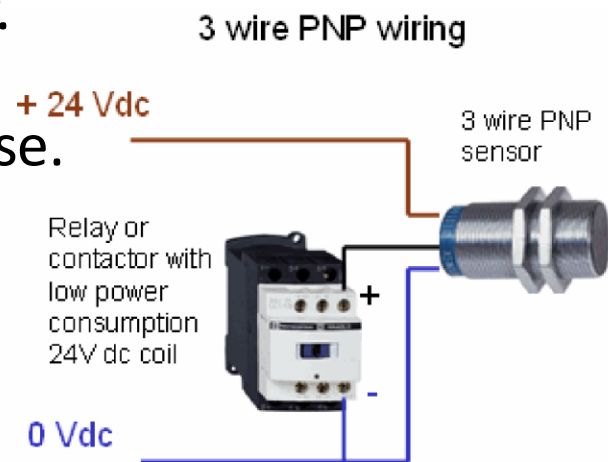
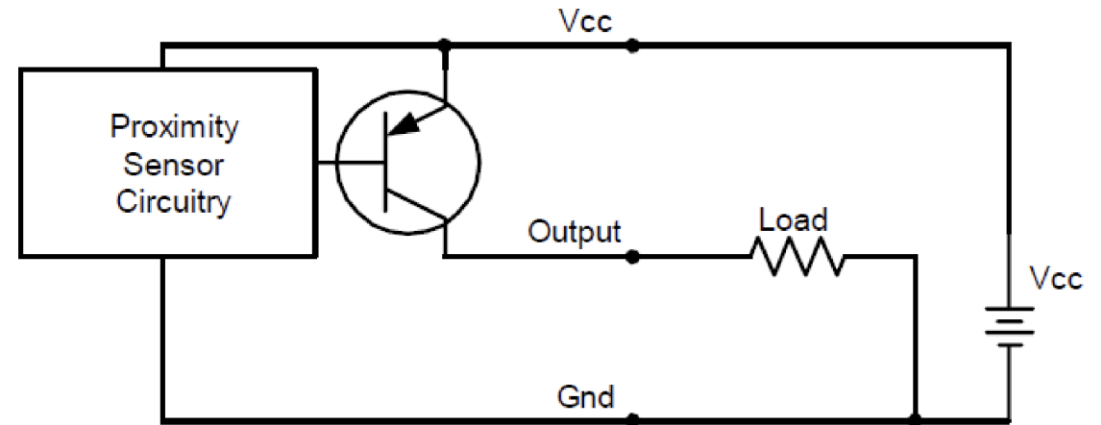
NPN wiring



Wiring

PNP Type:

- With voltage at the base, we control the current from the **emitter** to the **collector** (indicated by the arrow).
- If the base is at a lower voltage than the emitter, the current flows from the emitter to the collector.
- A small amount of current also flows from the emitter to the base.
- **Simpler wiring**
- **Most commonly used**



Position sensors

- **Digital Sensors:**

- Mechanical sensors (limit switches)
- Optical sensors
- Magnetic sensors
- Inductive sensors
- Capacitive sensors
- Ultrasonic sensors

- **Analog Sensors:**

- Potentiometric
- Capacitive
- Ultrasonic
- Transformer-based measurement
- Optical encoder
- Resistive strips
- Piezoelectric sensors



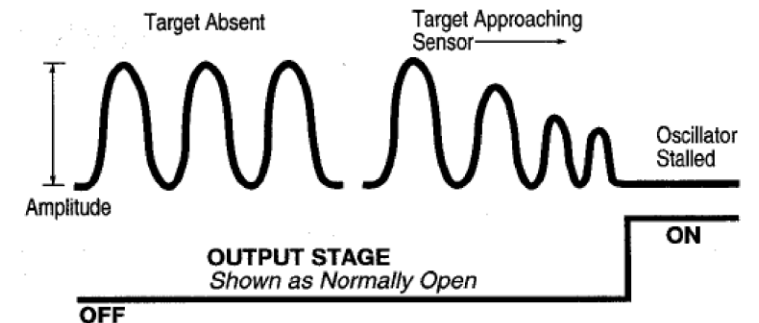
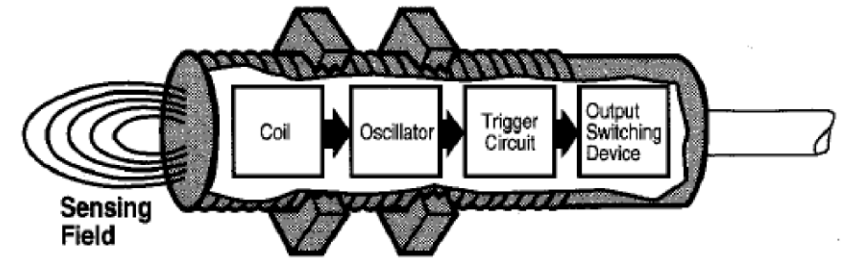
Inductive Sensors

- **Idea:**

- The inductance of the coil and electrical losses change when metal approaches the sensor.

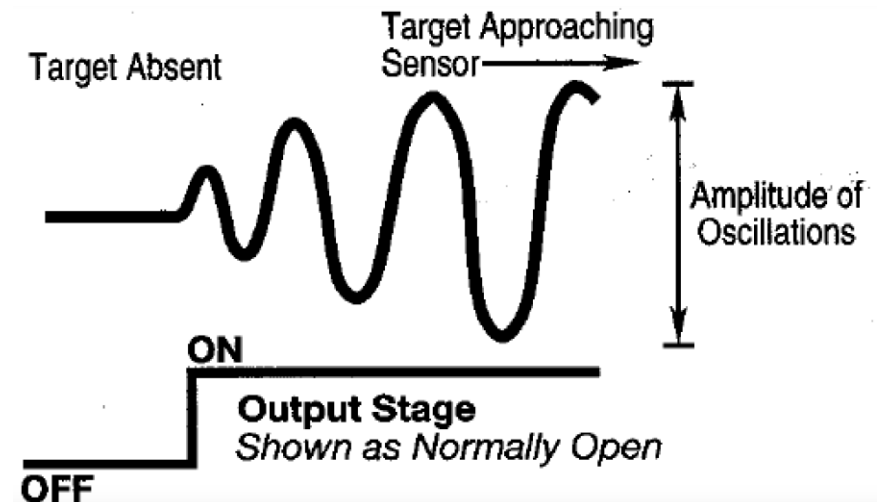
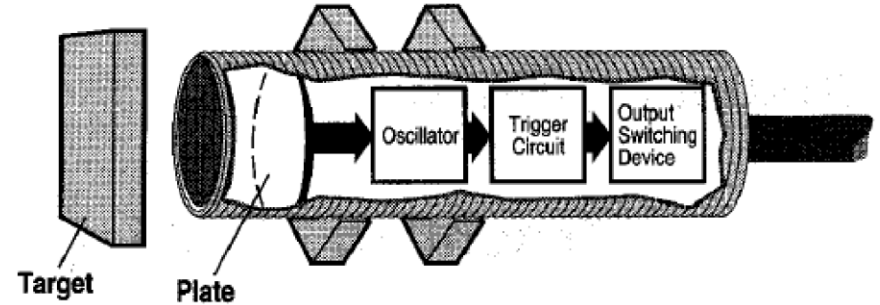
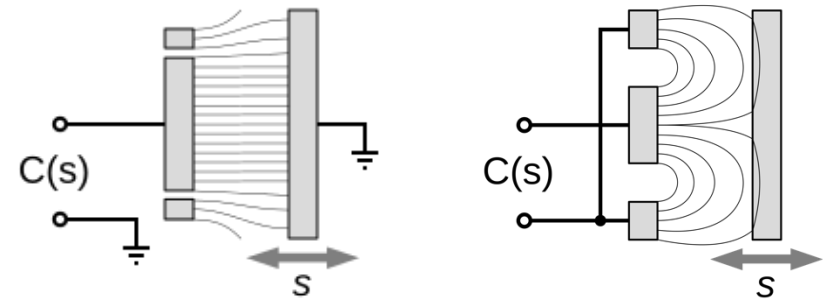
- **Operating Principle:**

- Oscillator vibrations create an alternating magnetic field (sensing field) on the coil.
- The magnetic field extends from the plastic housing of the sensor.
- When the sensor approaches a metallic object, the alternating magnetic field induces currents in the metal. These currents load the oscillator, reducing its amplitude.
- When the amplitude drops below a certain threshold, the sensor output switches.



Capacitive sensors

- **Detect changes in the capacitance** of the capacitor in the sensor
 - Suitable for materials with high density
- **Two Types of Capacitive Sensors:**
 - **Conductive (Top Left)**
 - A single capacitor plate is in the sensor, while the object represents the other.
 - The object must be an electrically conductive material.
 - **Dielectric (Top Right)**
 - Two capacitor plates are placed side by side (open capacitor).
 - When an object approaches the capacitor, the change in dielectric increases the capacitance, which increases the amplitude of the oscillator.



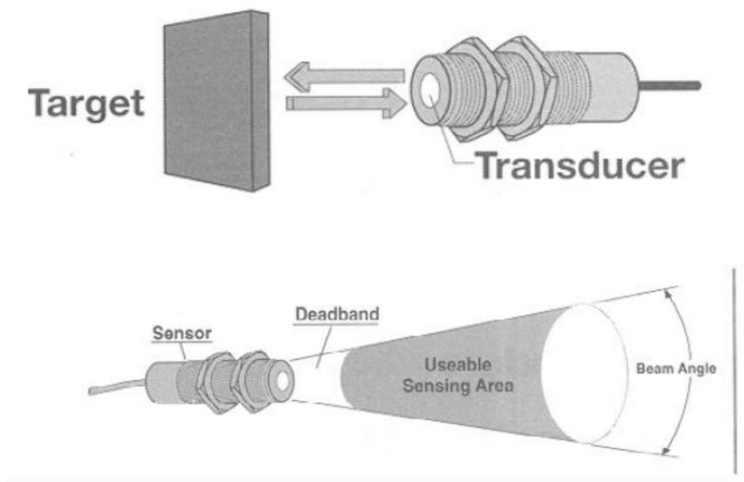
Ultrasonic Sensors

- **Operation:**

- The sensor emits an ultrasonic signal.
- If an object is in front of the sensor and within its range, the signal will bounce back to the sensor.
- When the sensor detects the echo, it can calculate the distance to the object by measuring the time from emission to reception of the signal.

- **Limitations:**

- **Dead zone at the beginning:** Until the signal is emitted, the receiver cannot start detecting.
- **Wide angle:** As the object moves away from the sensor, the energy in the echo diminishes, limiting the sensor's maximum range.



Optical sensors

- **Very popular**
- They detect light, allowing them to sense a wide variety of objects, except for transparent ones.
- Unlike ultrasonic sensors, they work in a vacuum and have a much narrower beam.
- **Different wavelengths of light:**
 - Bulbs with red filters, red LEDs, infrared LEDs, laser beams.
- Emit light in pulses at high frequency; the receiver is tuned to this frequency, eliminating any potential interference from sunlight on the sensor's operation.

Optical sensors

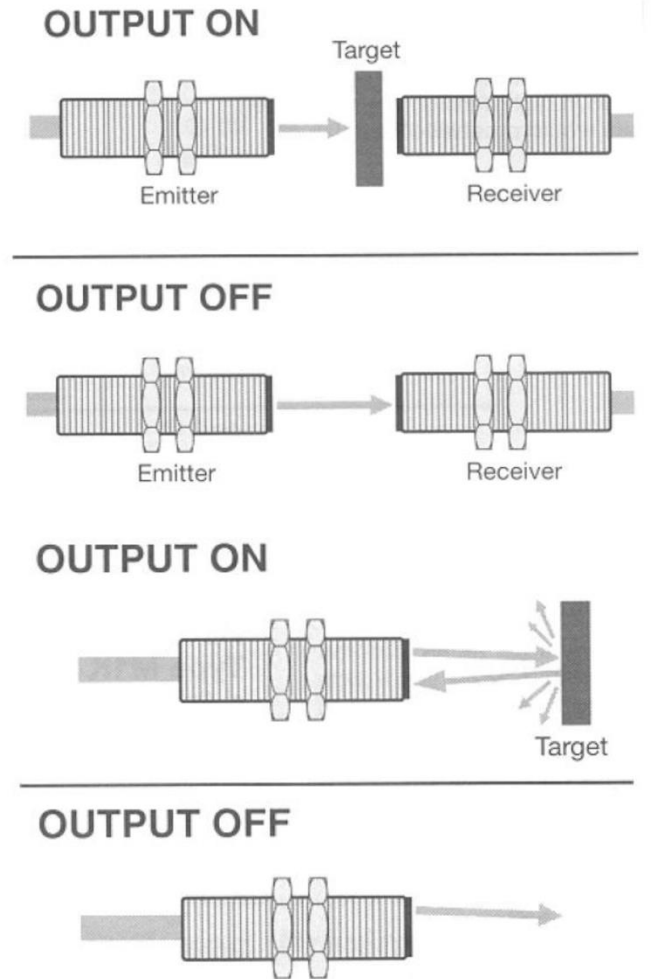
- **Three types:**

- **Separate emitter and receiver:**

- Wide operational range.
 - The receiver and emitter are wired separately.

- **Emitter and receiver in the same housing (diffuse-reflective):**

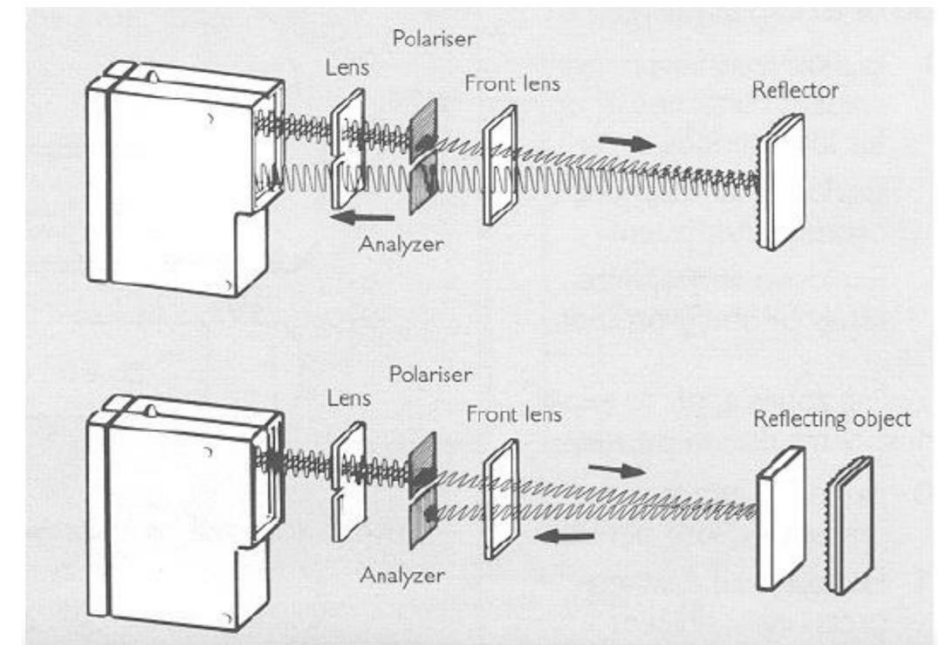
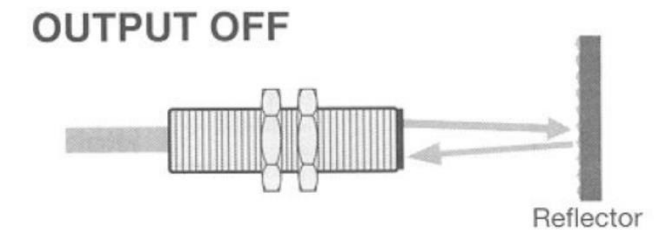
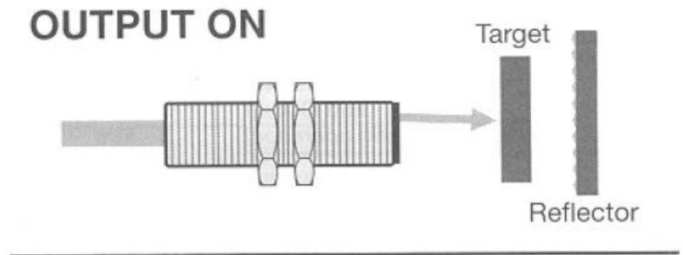
- Responds to light reflected from the object.
 - Performs poorly on transparent objects or objects where light reflects poorly (e.g., black surfaces).
 - Objects should not have holes, and the surface should be as smooth as possible.
 - **Background suppression:** By adjusting the lens position, we can limit the sensing range.



Optical sensors

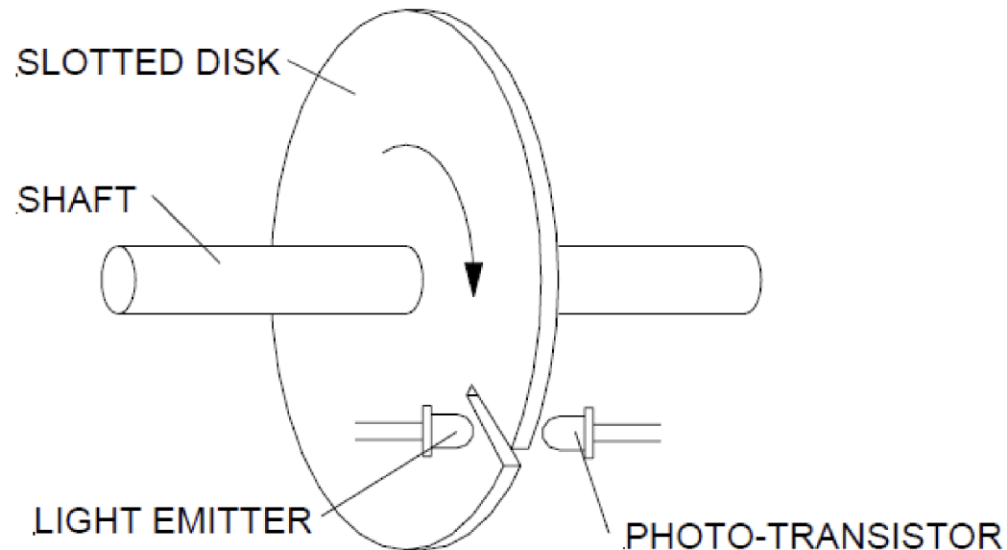
Three types:

- **Emitter and receiver in the same housing, with a reflector on the opposite side (retro-reflective):**
 - Only the reflector is on the other side.
 - Most complex – ensures no issues with highly reflective objects, as the light is polarized.
 - The receiver and emitter use polarization filters, rotated 90 degrees. The reflector is designed to rotate the light's polarization direction by 90 degrees.
 - **If the light reflects off an object**, the polarization does not change, and the polarized light does not reach the receiver.



Position: optical encoder

- **Optical pulse generator or encoder**
- **Basic idea: a disk with a slot**
 - Can be used to set the basic position of the machine (homing).
 - Only one measurement per rotation.



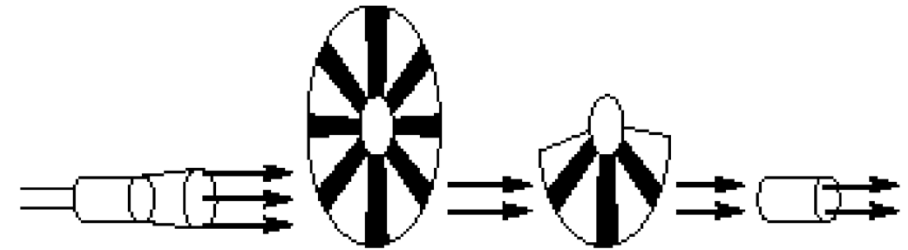
Position: optical encoder

Principle:

- **Components:**

- Directed light source,
- Slotted disk (transparent | non-transparent),
- Mask with an inverse pattern,
- Detector.

- The disk rotates and interrupts the light beam.
- The directed light source and mask are designed for more accurate readings.
 - Only when the transparent areas of the disk and mask align does the light beam reach the detector.



Types:

- **Incremental Encoder:**

- Generates a pulse for a specific movement, the total movement is determined by summing the pulses.
- System referencing is necessary during power-up.

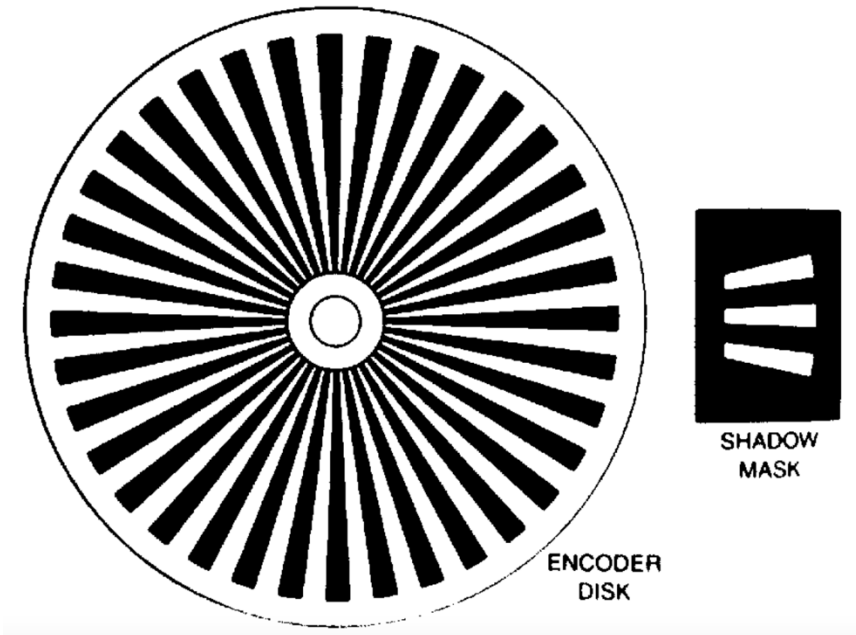
- **Absolute Encoder:**

- The encoder remembers its position even after the system is turned off.

Position: optical encoder

Incremental Optical Encoder

- A disk where dark and transparent areas alternate frequently.
- Since the areas are very close together, it's difficult to accurately align the optical receiver and transmitter, so a mask is used.
- It can generate between **1024 to around 10,000 pulses per revolution**.
- It only detects **relative changes** and not the **absolute position**.
- It can determine the **direction of rotation** (next slide).



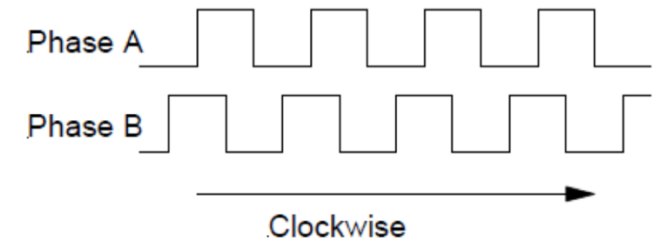
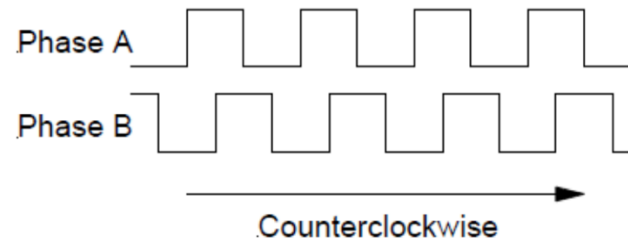
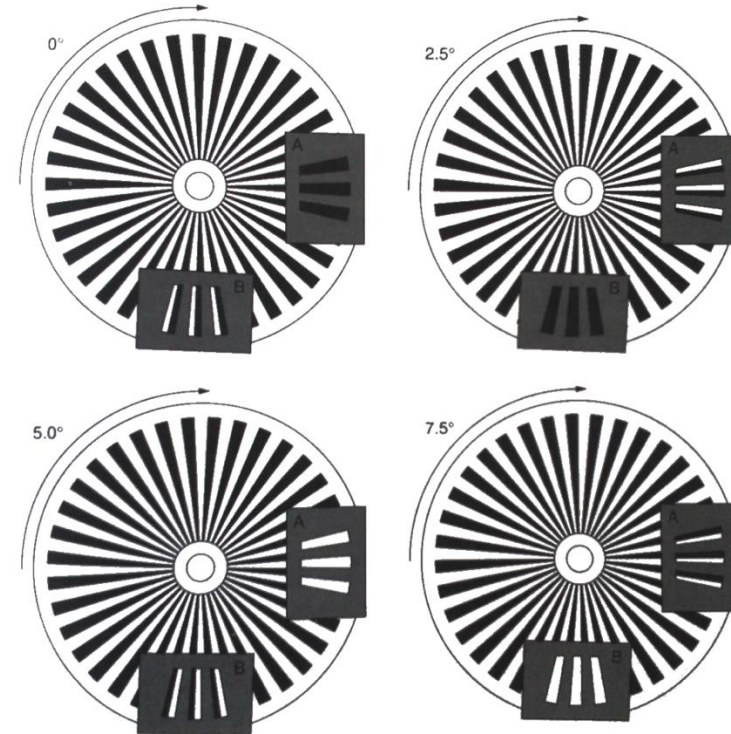
Position: optical encoder

- **Incremental Optical Encoder**

- Typically, two masks are used, shifted by $\frac{1}{4}$ of a period – when mask A is fully covered, mask B is half covered.

- **The direction of rotation:**

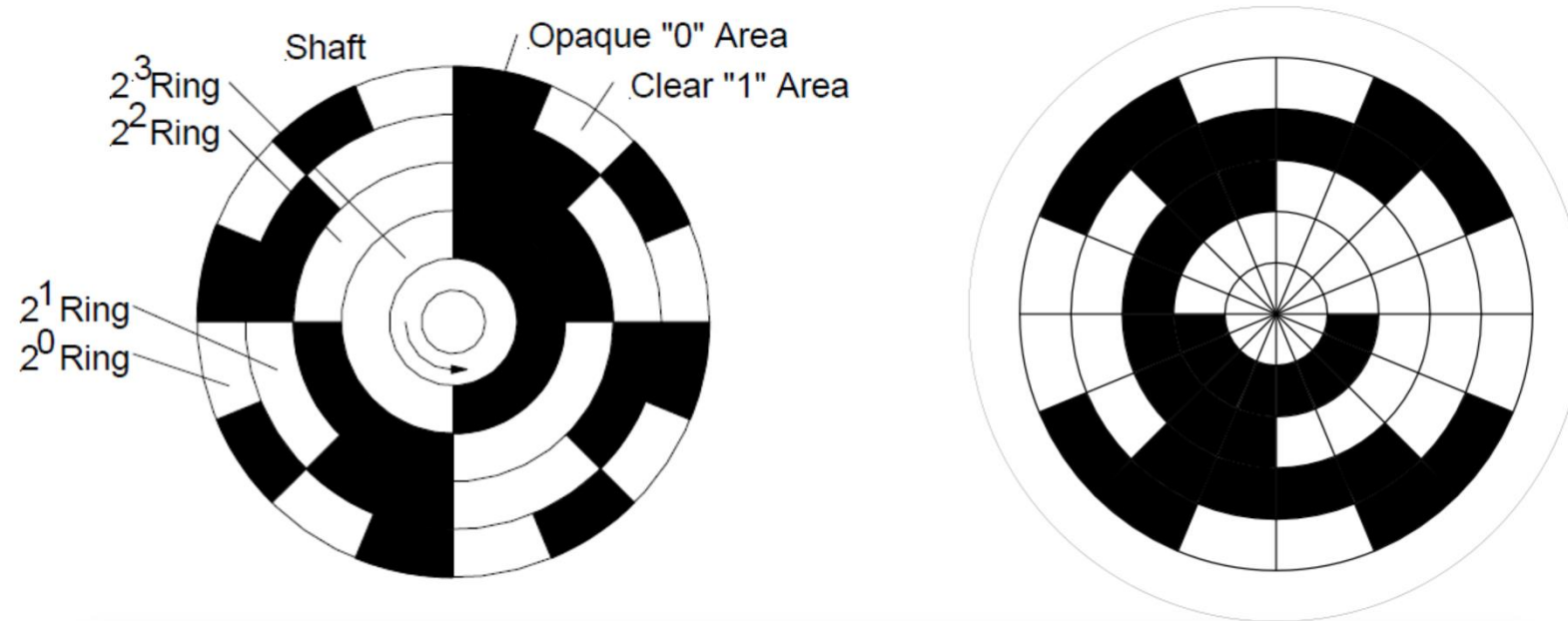
- **A overtakes B**
(rotation counterclockwise)
- **B overtakes A**
(rotation clockwise)



Position: optical encoder

- **Absolute Encoder**

- Remembers its position even when powered off.
- Encoding pattern on the disk: binary or Gray code.



Position: optical encoder

- **Absolute Encoder**

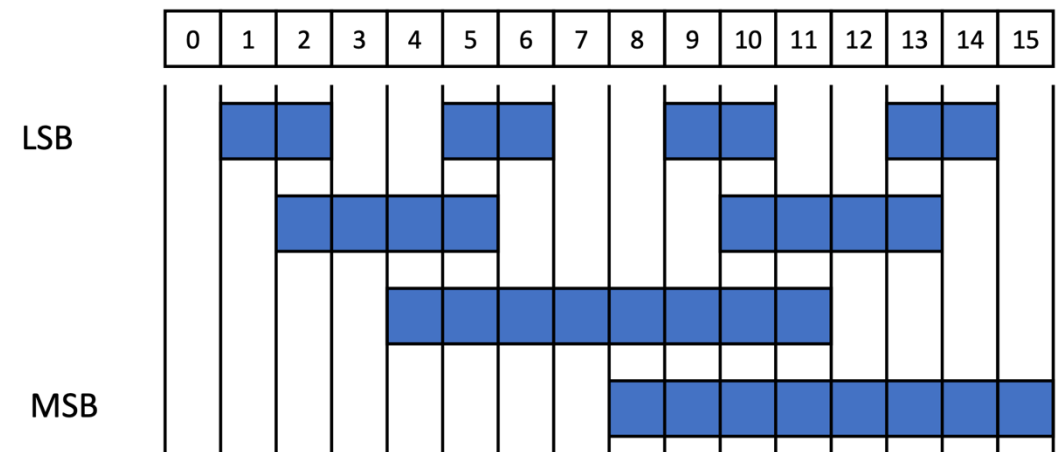
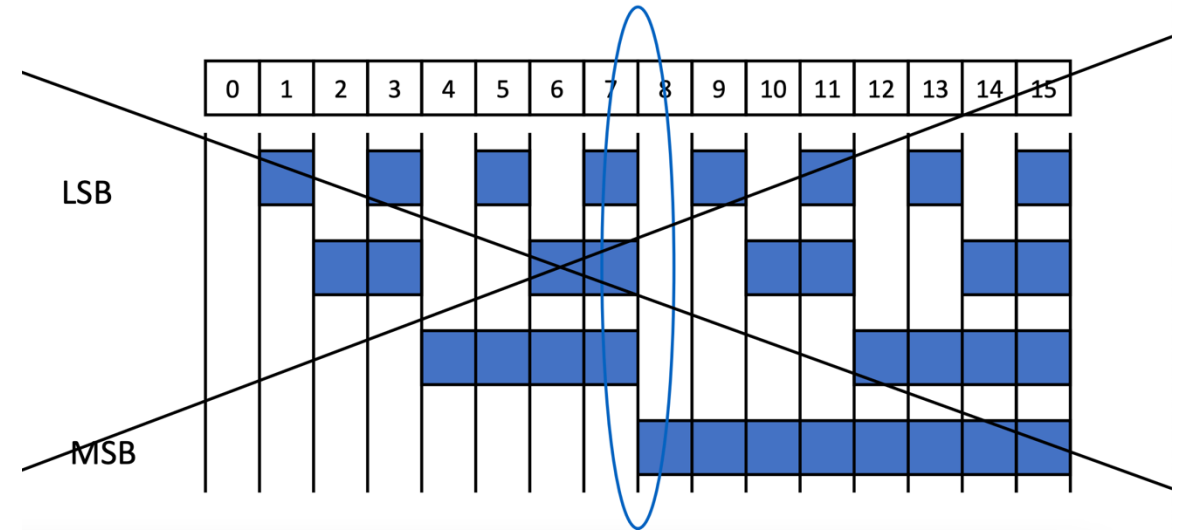
- Encoding pattern on the disk: binary or Gray code

- **Binary Code**

- We cannot ensure the simultaneous switching of all sensors.
- During transitions between states, the value may jump to an unintended intermediate state.
- Example: 7 → 15 → 8
- An additional signal is needed to indicate when the value is unreliable.

- **Gray Code**

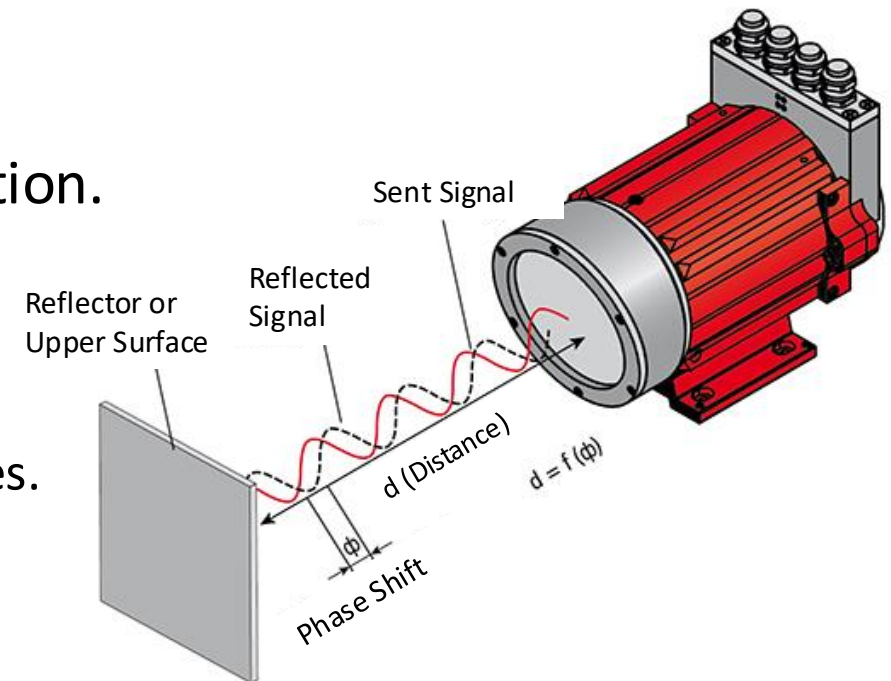
- Only one bit changes, values do not jump.



Position: laser

Principle of Phase Shift

- The strength of the emitted signal is sinusoidally modulated.
- Measurement of the phase difference between the received and emitted signals.
- Phase shift: $\phi \propto d \cdot f$ Modulation
 - The higher the frequency, the greater the resolution.
 - Periodic change in phase shift:
 - The phase shift period is large.
 - The range is increased by taking two measurements at different modulation frequencies.



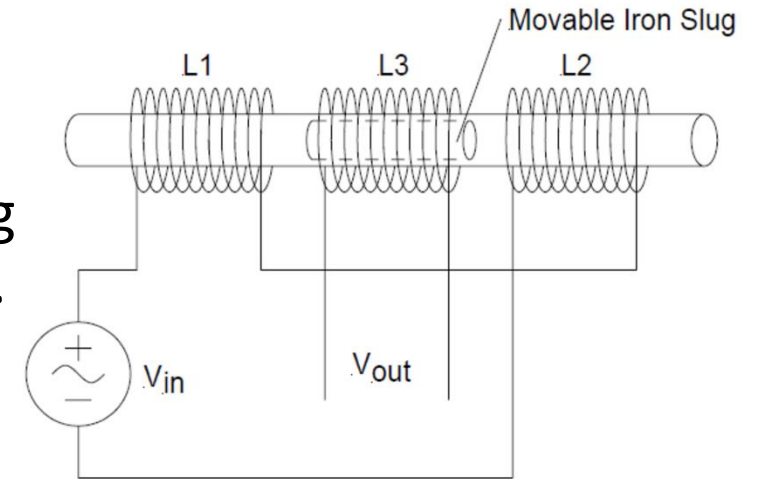
Position: transformer-based measurement

- **Three Coils**

- **Primary (L1, L2):** They are fixed, and an alternating current flows through them in opposite directions.
- **Secondary (L3):** It moves.

- **Idea**

- **L1 and L2** create an equally strong magnetic field, but in opposite directions. As a result, the magnetic field cancels out in L3, which means there is no voltage in L3.
- If **L3** is slightly moved toward **L2**, due to the change in the magnetic field in L3, a voltage is induced that is in phase with the voltage on L2.
- Any further movement toward **L2** linearly increases the voltage in **L3**.



Force

- **Force, Torque, Weight, Pressure**

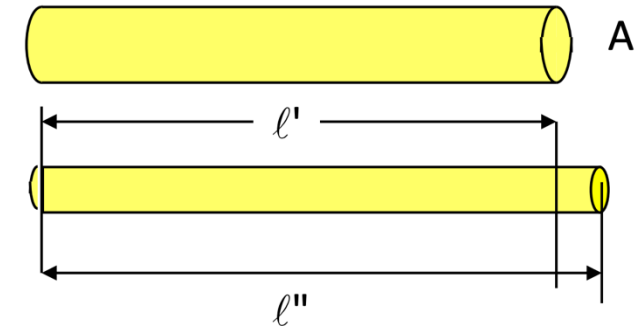
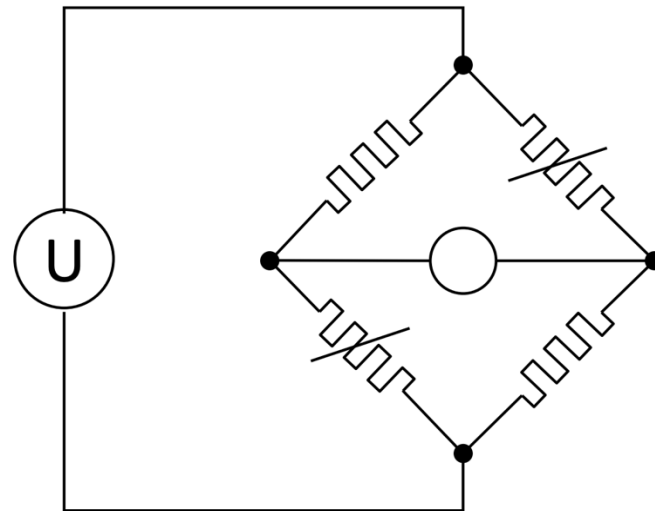
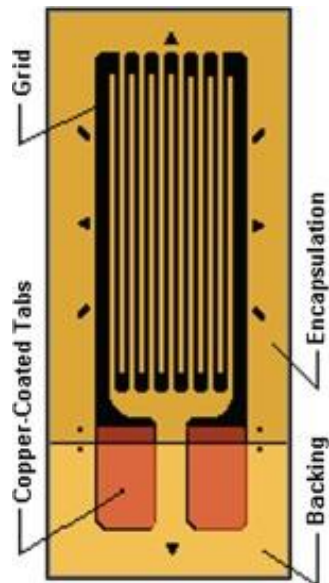
- **Measurement of small displacements, $F=k \cdot x$**
- Strain gauges
- Piezo-electric transducers

- **Accelerations**

- Similar to force, measuring small displacements of mass, $F=m \cdot a$

Force: strain gauges

- The resistance of the wire increases with stretching
- Temperature compensation
 - Wheatstone bridge
- Common usage: buildings, bridges, dams



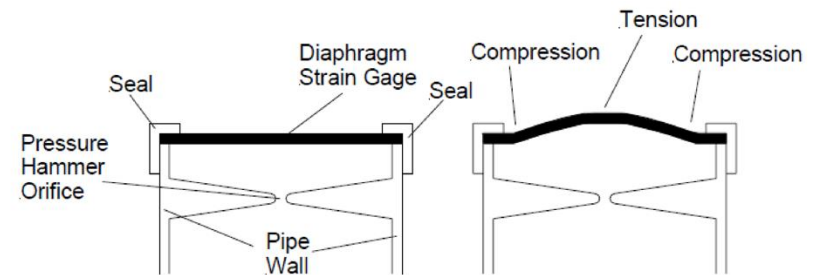
$$R = \rho \frac{l}{A} = \rho \frac{l^2}{V}$$

V - volume, ρ - constant

Force: strain gauges

- **Measuring Diaphragm**

- Cyclically shaped strain gauges
- When force (pressure) acts on the diaphragm, it stretches in the center and contracts at the edges
- Connecting the edge and central parts to different points in a Wheatstone bridge strengthens the signal and improves measurements



Force: piezoelectric converters

- **Main Concept:**

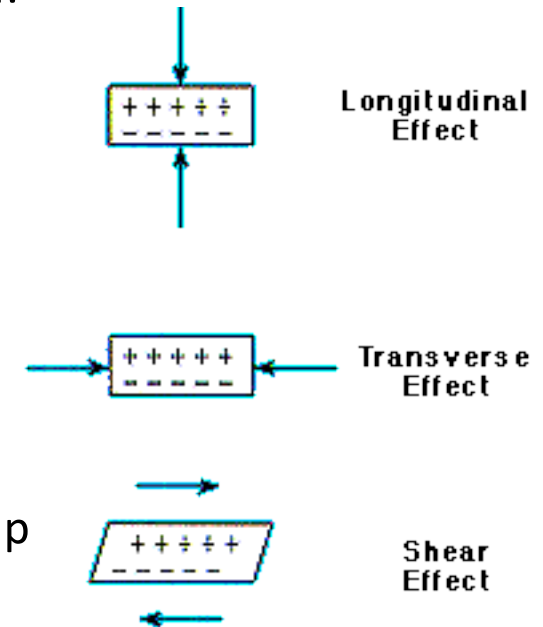
- **Piezoelectric crystals** generate an electric field when they undergo deformation. This can occur through various types of strain, such as:
 - **Longitudinal** (along the axis of force)
 - **Transversal** (perpendicular to the force)
 - **Shear** (sliding force).

- **Static Measurements:**

- For static measurements, **charge loss** results in a **drop in voltage** over time, which is a characteristic of piezoelectric materials when subject to a constant force.

- **Exceptional Properties:**

- **High-pressure resistance:** The piezoelectric materials can withstand pressures up to **100 MPa**.
- **Temperature resistance:** These materials remain functional in environments up to **500°C**.
- **Nearly constant scale:** They maintain a consistent response across a wide range of temperatures, making them highly reliable for precision measurements.



Temperature

The most frequently measured quantity in industry

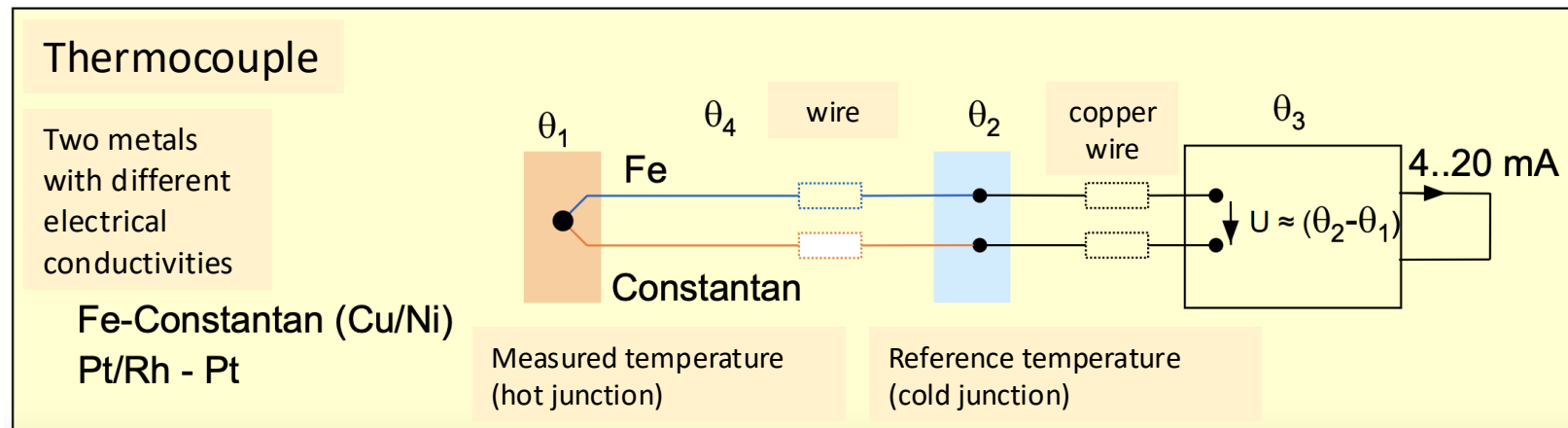
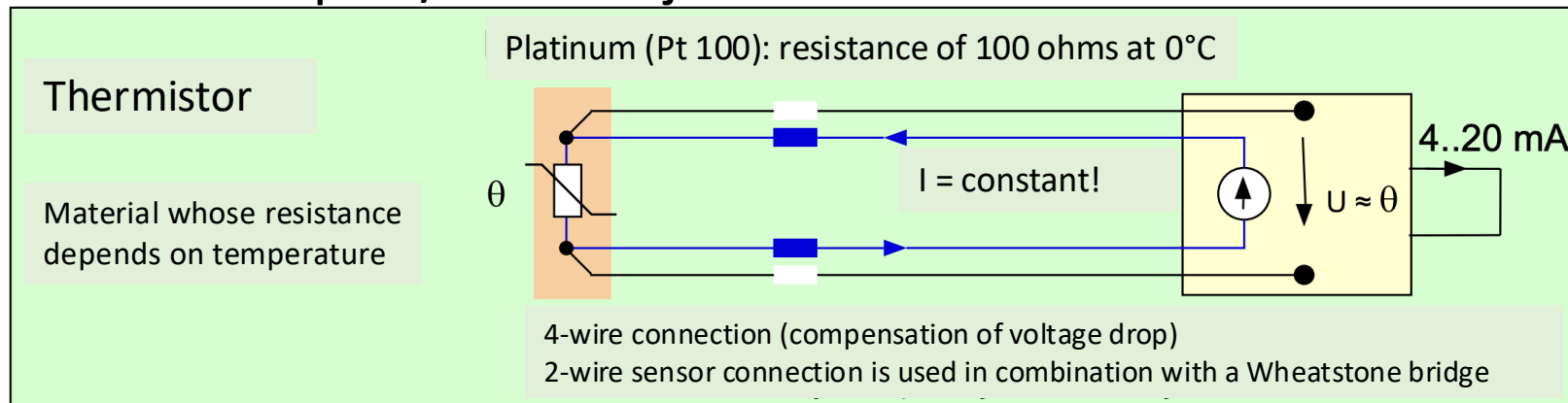
Methods of measurement:

- **Bimetal:**
 - Mechanical, discrete, exploits the different thermal expansion of two metals
 - + Very cheap, widely used
- **Resistance Temperature Detector (RTD):**
 - The resistance of the metal increases with temperature
 - + Price, robustness, wide temperature range
 - - Requires a current source, linearization
- **Thermistor:**
 - The resistance of a semiconductor depends on the temperature
 - + Price, sensitivity, wide range, current source
 - - Nonlinearity
- **Thermocouple:**
 - Different metals, the voltage is proportional to the temperature difference between the hot and cold junctions
 - + Accuracy, high temperatures, point measurement
 - - Low voltage, linearization
- **Spectrometer:**
 - Measures IR radiation from appropriate surfaces
 - + Highest temperatures, surface temperature, non-contact
 - - Price



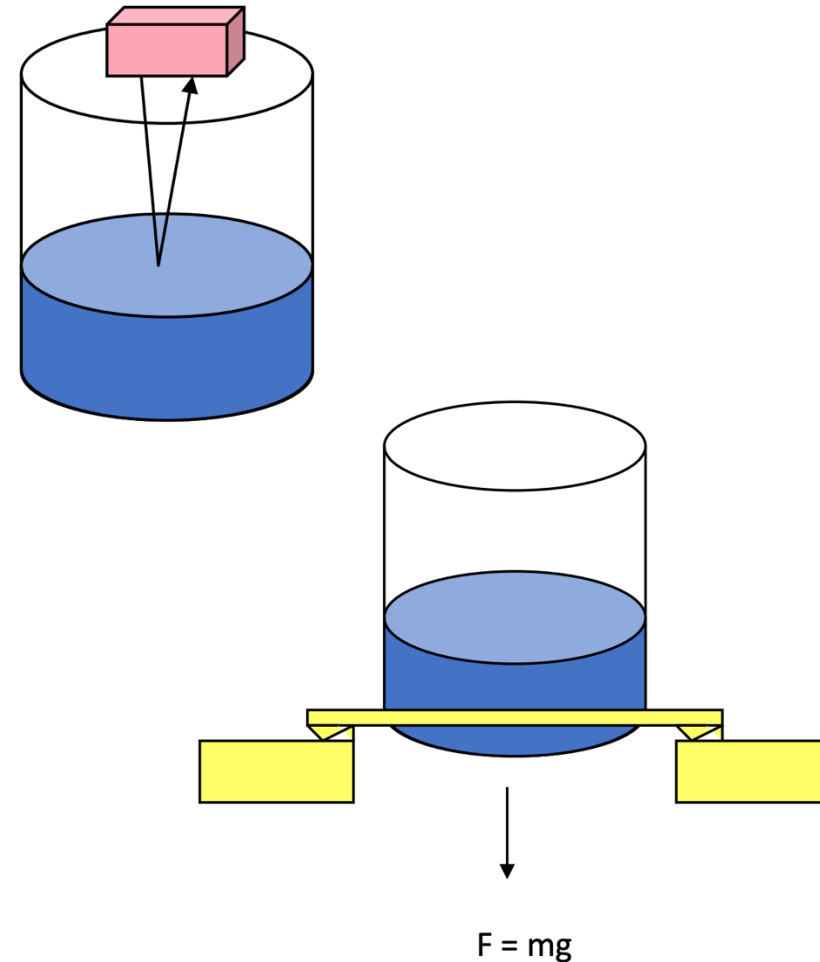
Temperature

- Connection of thermoresistor/thermistor and thermoelement



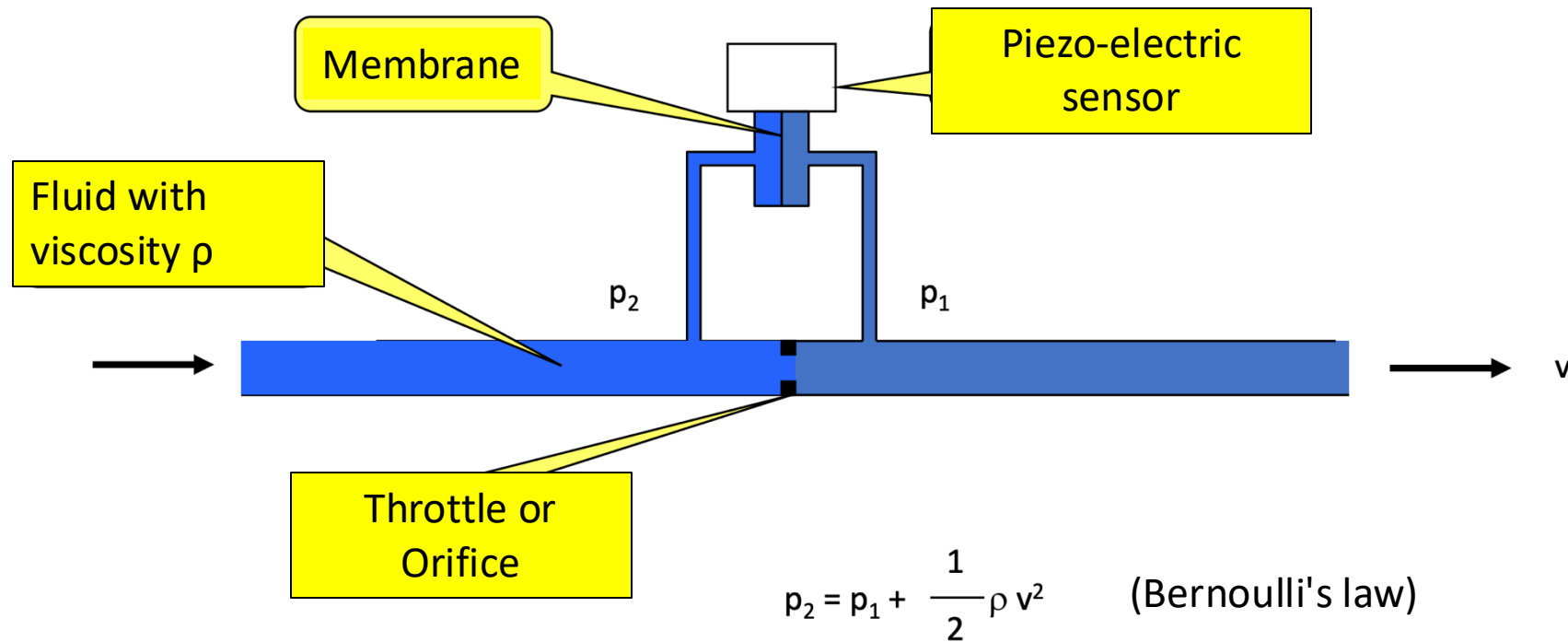
Liquid level

- Pulsed Laser
- Pulsed with Microwaves
- Ultrasonic
- Load Cell (Strain Gauge)
- Capacitive (Non-conductive Liquid)
- Mechanical: Float



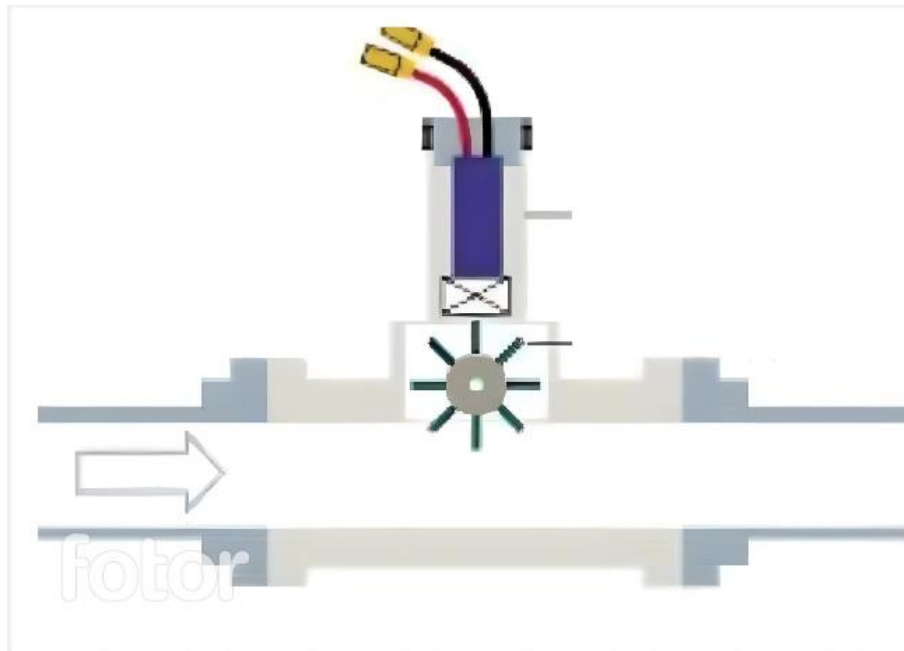
Fluid Flow Rate

- Measurement of pressure difference

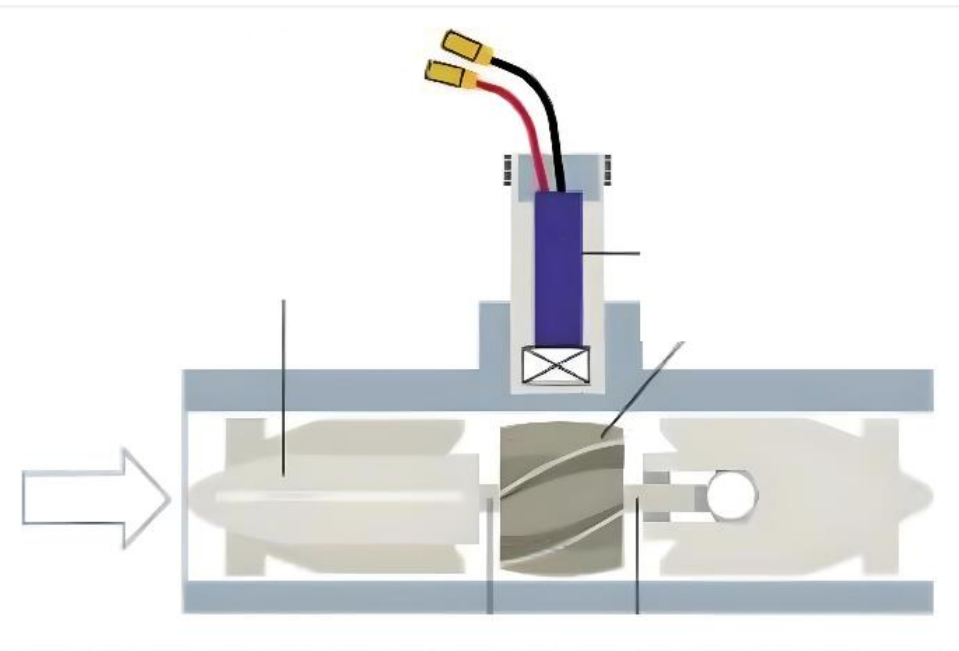


Fluid Flow Rate

Water Wheel

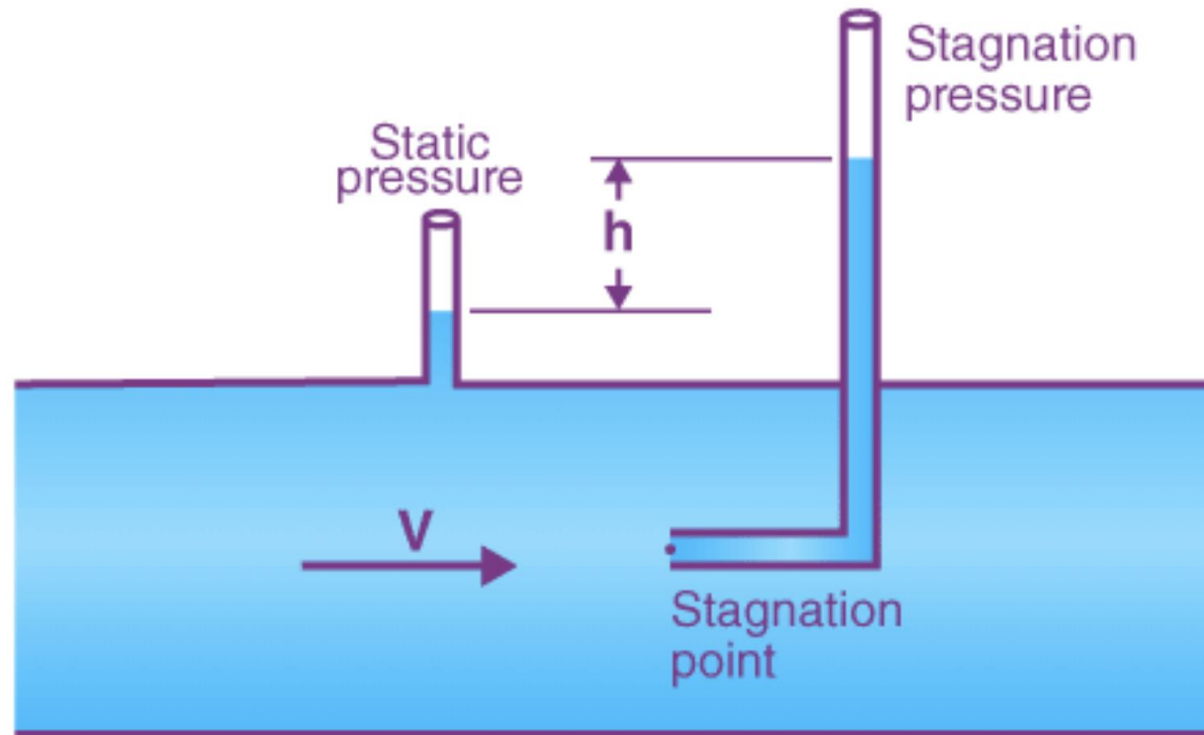


Turbine Meter



Fluid Flow Rate

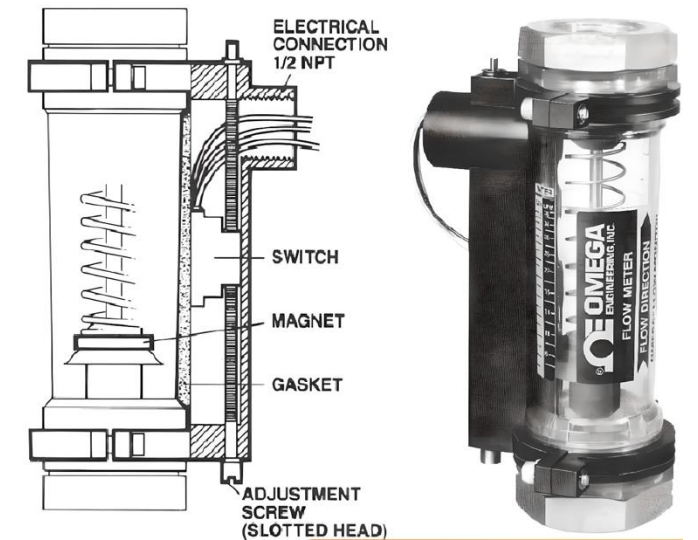
- Pitot Tube



Fluid Flow Rate

- **Flow Sensor with Magnetic Switch**

- It activates when the set value is reached.
- An obstacle is placed inside the pipe.
- If the fluid deflects the obstacle enough, the sensor is activated.



- **Thermal Flow Sensor**

- Measures how much heat the fluid removes from the heater placed in the pipe.
- Two probes:
 - One is not heated – **reference**, for temperature compensation of the fluid.
 - The other is heated – for determining the speed.
- Great: no mechanical parts, it doesn't get dirty, suitable for impure fluids.

Actuating Systems

- “Hands” of the control system:
 - Cause changes in energy or material flow in the process.
 - Convert information in the form of standardized signals into appropriate changes in the process.
- Represent 10% of elements in the field.
- Can be binary or analog.
- Controlled by the same electrical signals as sensors, but with much higher power:
 - 4..20 mA, 0..10 V, 0..24 V, ...
- Typical representatives:
 - Electrical contactors and relays
 - Heating elements
 - Pneumatic and hydraulic elements
 - Electric motors

Contactors and Relays

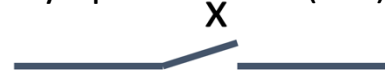
- Electric current flowing through the relay moves the core in the electromagnet, and with the core, also the contacts.
- Difference:
 - Relays are smaller, suitable for lower currents.
 - Contactors have more secondary contacts.
- The oldest method for executing logical functions.
- Today, they are mainly used to adjust voltage and current levels.



Contactors and Relays

- Labelling of relays in diagrams:

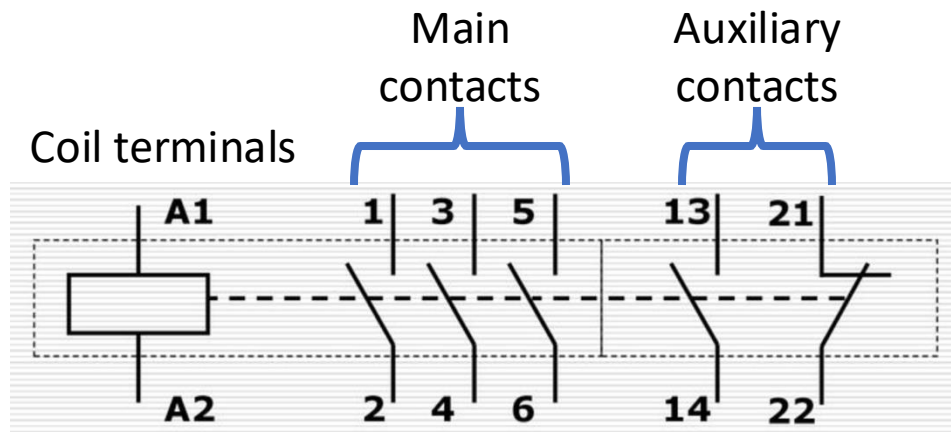
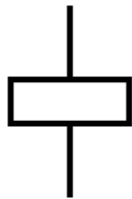
- Normally open contact (NO)



- Normally closed contact (NC)

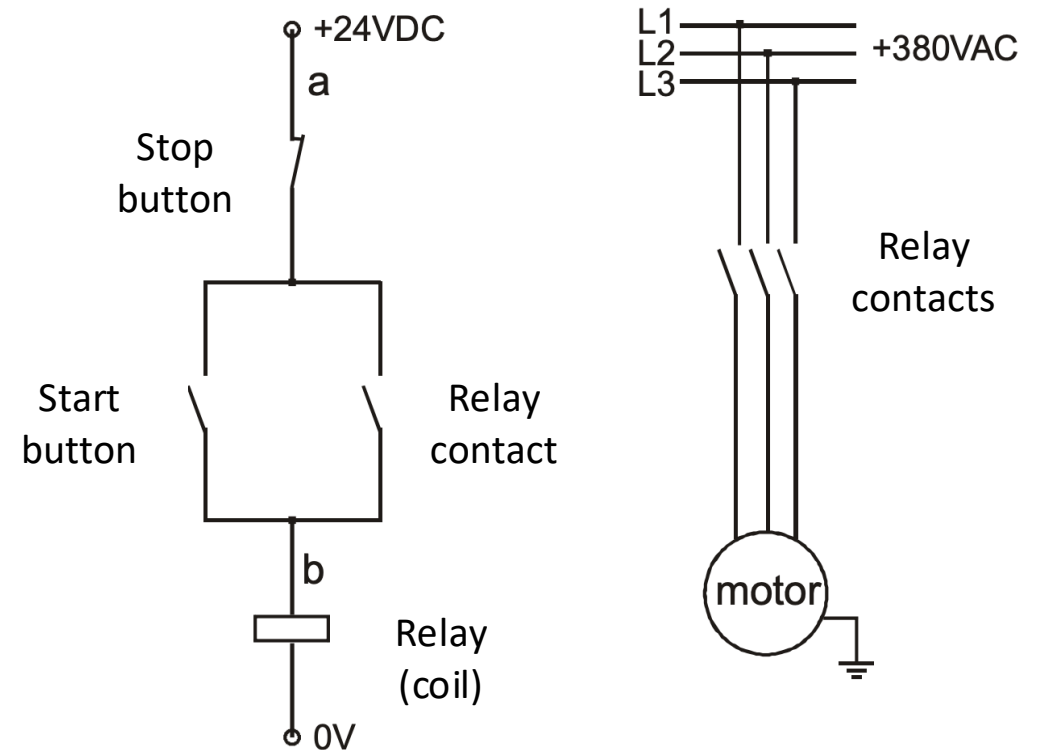


- Coil



Example of usage:

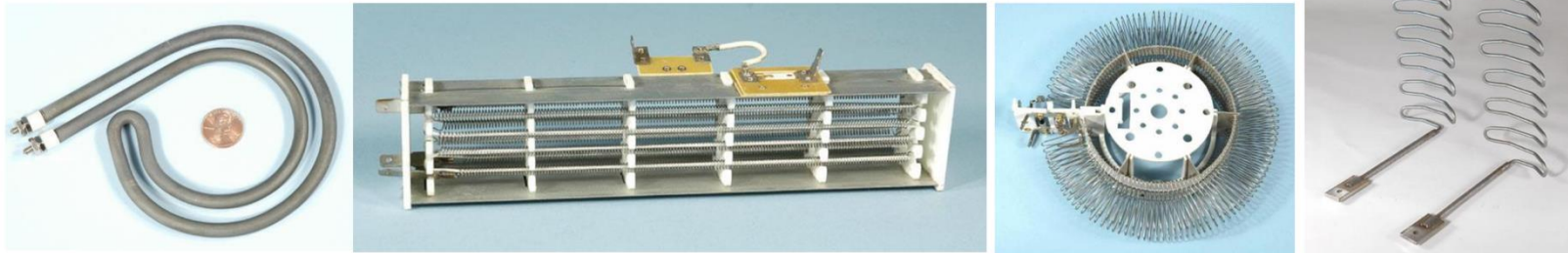
- The motor starts running when the "start" button is briefly pressed.
- The motor stops when the "stop" button is briefly pressed.



Heating elements

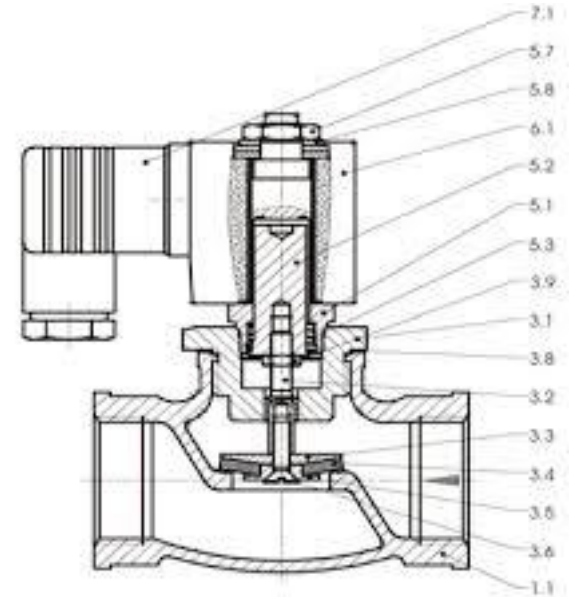
Conversion of electrical energy into heat

- Heating wire
 - Due to the resistance of the material, it heats up when electrical current flows through it.
- Indirect system: heating of a medium, which then heats the devices.



Pneumatic and Hydraulic Elements

- Electromagnetic Valve
- Opening the valve:
 - Electric current flows through the coil winding (6.1), creating a magnetic field.
 - The magnetic field pulls the core (5.2), and along with it, the seal (3.4) moves into the coil.
 - The fluid is free to flow.
- Closing the valve:
 - When the electric current stops flowing through the winding, the fluid itself pushes the seal down and blocks the path.



Electric Motors

Direct Current (DC) Motors (1832):

- Simple change of rotation speed by varying voltage or current.
- Today used where high torques are needed.

Alternating Current (AC) Motors (1888):

- In the past: rotation frequency was determined by the network frequency, for example, 50 Hz → 2900 rotations per minute.
- Today: increasingly popular, especially with frequency converters that allow the frequency to be changed at will.
- Asynchronous | Synchronous Motors:
 - **A**: Rotor rotates asynchronously with the magnetic field, intentionally lags behind.
 - **S**: Rotor is powered, and the magnetic field matches, with no lag behind the field.

Servo Motors:

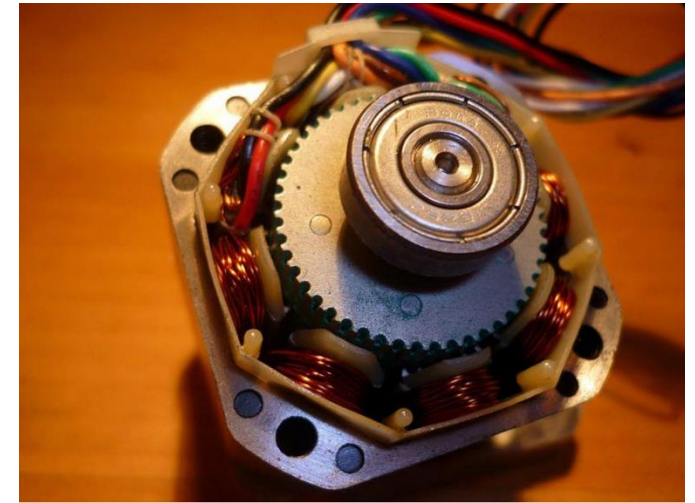
- Have an added optical encoder for feedback loops.
- Designed for precise positioning.
- Low rotor inertia → rapid changes in dynamics.



Electric Motors

- Stepper Motors

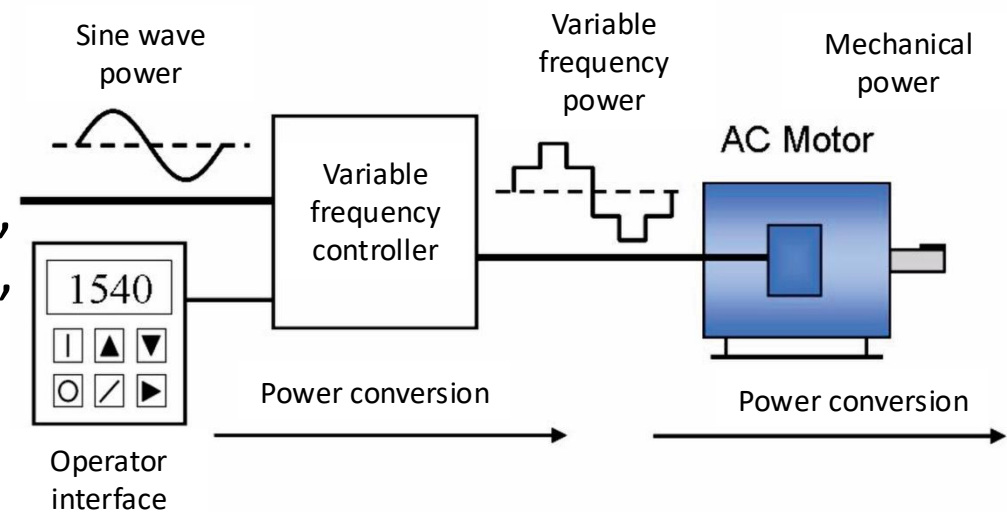
- The rotor only rotates once when the excitation in the stator is changed.
- Used in Robotics.
- Operation
 - The rotor is shaped like a gear.
 - Surrounding it is a set of magnets.
 - When an individual magnet is activated, it pulls the rotor and aligns it with the magnet, causing the rotor to rotate slightly.
 - The magnets are slightly offset, so the activation of the next magnet rotates the rotor slightly again...



Electric Motors

- Asynchronous Motors
 - Shaft Frequency [1/min]
 - f – frequency of the supply voltage [1/s]
 - p – number of poles
 - $f=50$ Hz, $p=4$ (2 pairs), $f_{osi}=1500$ rpm
 - Shaft speed can be changed by adjusting the supply frequency.
- Frequency Converter
 - Converts alternating voltage to direct current, then based on the required speed of rotation, torque, or power, determines the frequency of the supply voltage.

$$f_{osi} = \frac{60 \times f}{p/2}$$

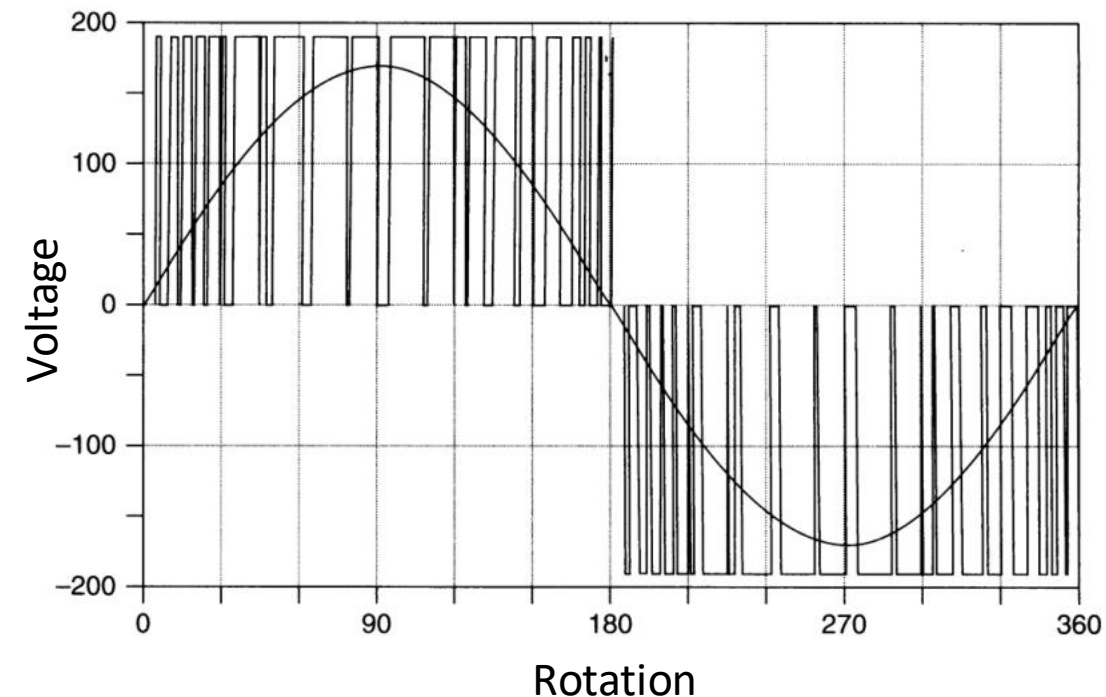
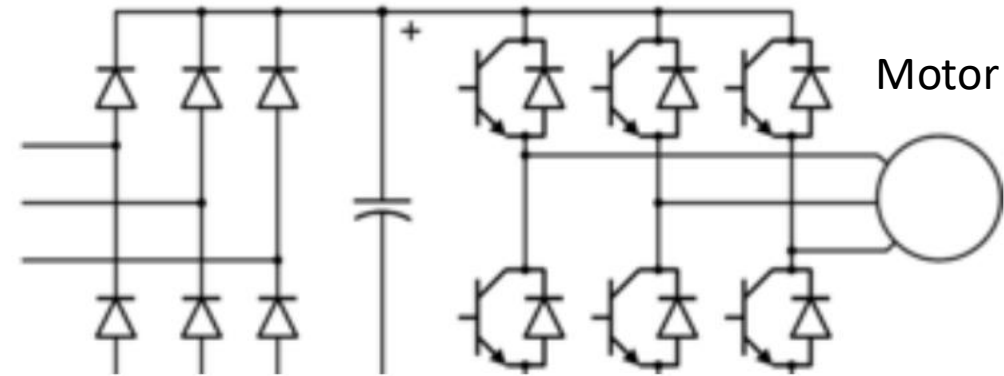


Electric Motors

- Frequency Converter
- Structure:
 - DC -> AC
 - IGBT Technology (Insulated Gate Bipolar Transistor)
- Principle of Operation:
 - IGBT switches turn the DC voltage on and off at specific intervals, with pulses of varying length.
 - This generates a variable AC voltage at the output.
 - The voltage must change linearly with the frequency to ensure constant motor power.

Rectifier AC -> DC

Converter DC -> AC



Electric motors

- Frequency Converter
 - *Typical control signals and response (motor speed)*

