

## COURSE OUTLINE

- Introduction
- Signals and Noise
- Filtering
- Sensors: Temperature Sensors

- Metallic RTDs: principle and fabrication
- RTD Electrical Signal
- Circuits for measurements
- Thermistors

## Principle:

- Resistance  $R_S$  of metal conductors **increases monotonically with temperature T**
- Calibration of resistance versus temperature  $R_S(T)$  is accurate and stable
- By measuring resistance variation  $\Delta R_S$  we get the temperature variation  $\Delta T$

**Linear behavior** of  $R_S(T)$  is a good approximation on wide T range for various metals

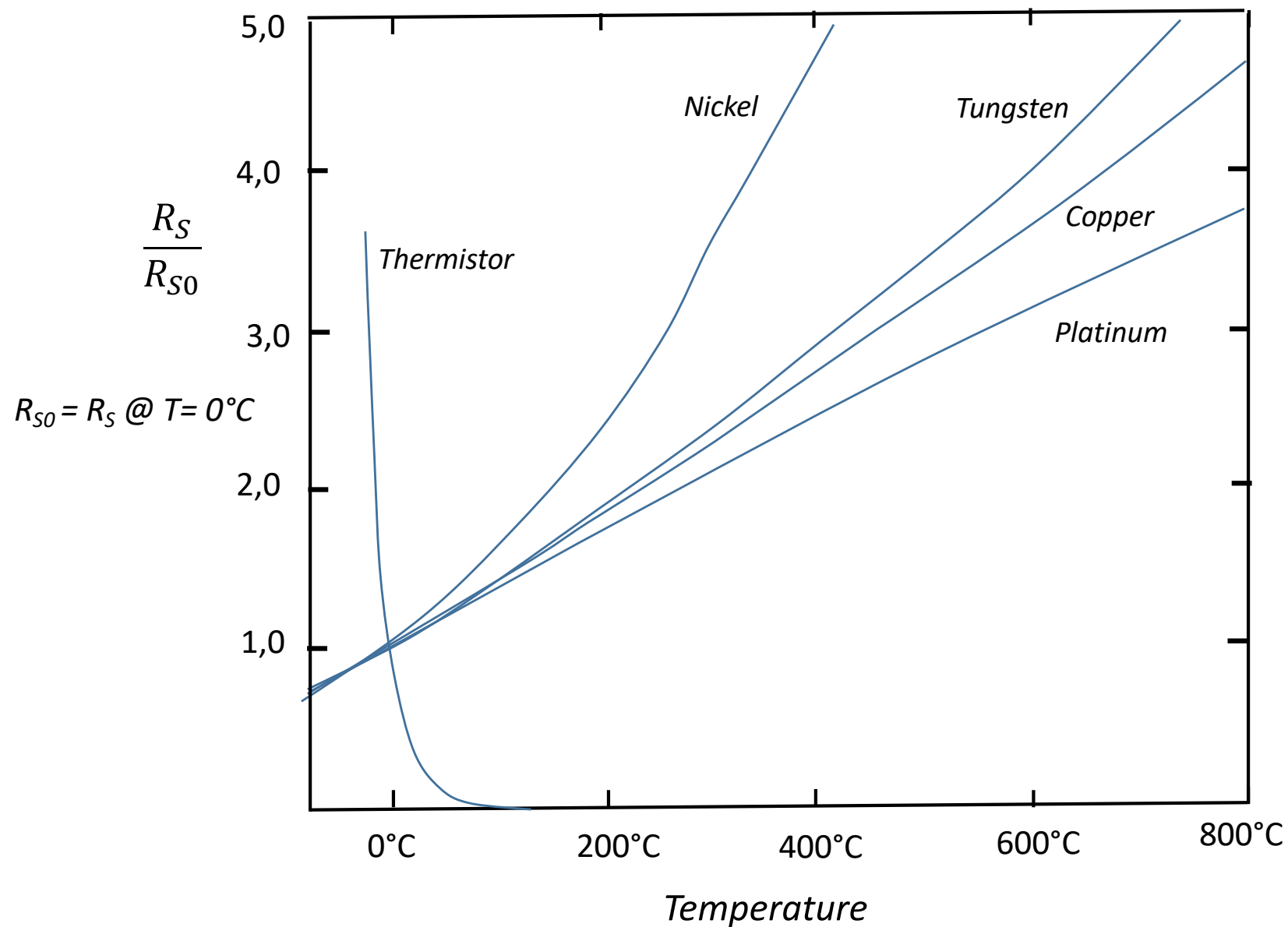
$$R_S = R_0(1 + \alpha\Delta T) \quad T_0 = \text{reference temperature}; R_0 = R_S(T_0);$$

$$\Delta R_S = \alpha\Delta T R_0 \quad \Delta T = T - T_0; \quad \Delta R_S = R_S - R_0$$

$\alpha$  is called **temperature coefficient of resistance**.

$\alpha$  is around  $\approx 4 \cdot 10^{-3}$  for metals currently employed in RTDs

<i>Metal</i>	$\alpha$
<i>Platinum Pt</i>	$3,9 \cdot 10^{-3}$
<i>Copper Cu</i>	$4,3 \cdot 10^{-3}$
<i>Tungsten W</i>	$4,6 \cdot 10^{-3}$
<i>Nickel Ni</i>	$6,8 \cdot 10^{-3}$



**Platinum** has useful qualities:

- **Chemically inert and resistant to contamination**, hence stable properties
- $R_S(T)$  **linear with very good approximation** from  $-200^{\circ}\text{C}$  to about  $500^{\circ}\text{C}$  and with small deviation from linearity up to  $800^{\circ}\text{C}$
- **small quantity of Pt necessary** in a RTD, cost is not high

Pt is the material of choice in many cases and is used in official metrology to define the International Practical Temperature Scale (from 13,81 K to 903,89 K).

Because of requirements for correct operation, the **RTD fabrication technology is not so simple** :

- The package must be compact and ensure good **thermal contact** of the resistor to the object measured and good **electrical isolation** from it
- **Small size is required with  $R_0 > \text{some } 10\ \Omega$  , typically  $R_0 = 100\ \Omega$** , in order to have to measure not very small  $\Delta R_S$ . Thin wire wrapped in spiral on a support is used
- The mechanical structure must **avoid strain** of the metal wire due to thermal expansion or contraction: the **piezoresistive effect** would cause unwanted resistance variations and consequent errors in  $\Delta T$

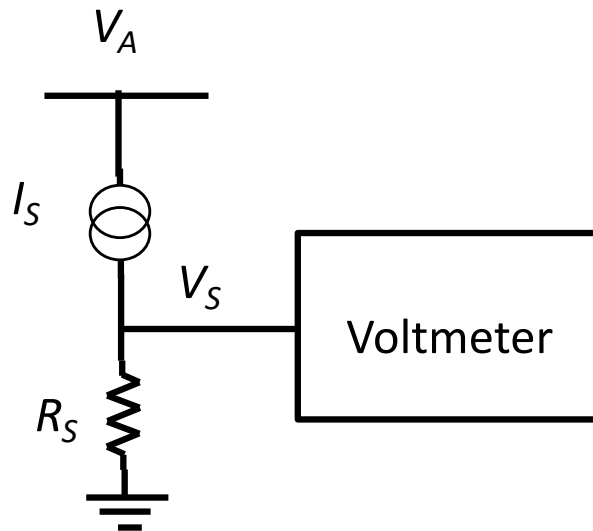
- RTD do not generate an electrical signal, a **power supply is necessary** to get current and voltage in the RTD
- Joule **self-heating** makes the RTD temperature  $T_S$  higher than the temperature  $T_a$  of the object measured; the difference  $\Delta T_S = T_S - T_a$  increases with power dissipation  $P_S$  and sensor-to-object thermal resistance  $R_{th}$ .
- The maximum tolerable  $\Delta T_S$  in a given RTD configuration sets a limit  $P_{Smax}$  to the power dissipated in the RTD, hence to the **maximum voltage  $V_S$**  on the RTD

$$P_S = \frac{V_S^2}{R_S}$$

$$P_S \leq P_{S,max}$$

$$V_S \leq \sqrt{R_S \cdot P_S}$$

- The allowed voltage  $V_S$  on the RTD is fairly small: e.g. with  $R_S \approx 100 \Omega$  and limit  $P_{Smax} = 100\mu W$ , the voltage is limited to  $V_S < 100mV$ .
- The **voltage variations** to be measured for small variations of temperature are a small fraction of  $V_S$ , i.e. they are **definitely small**.



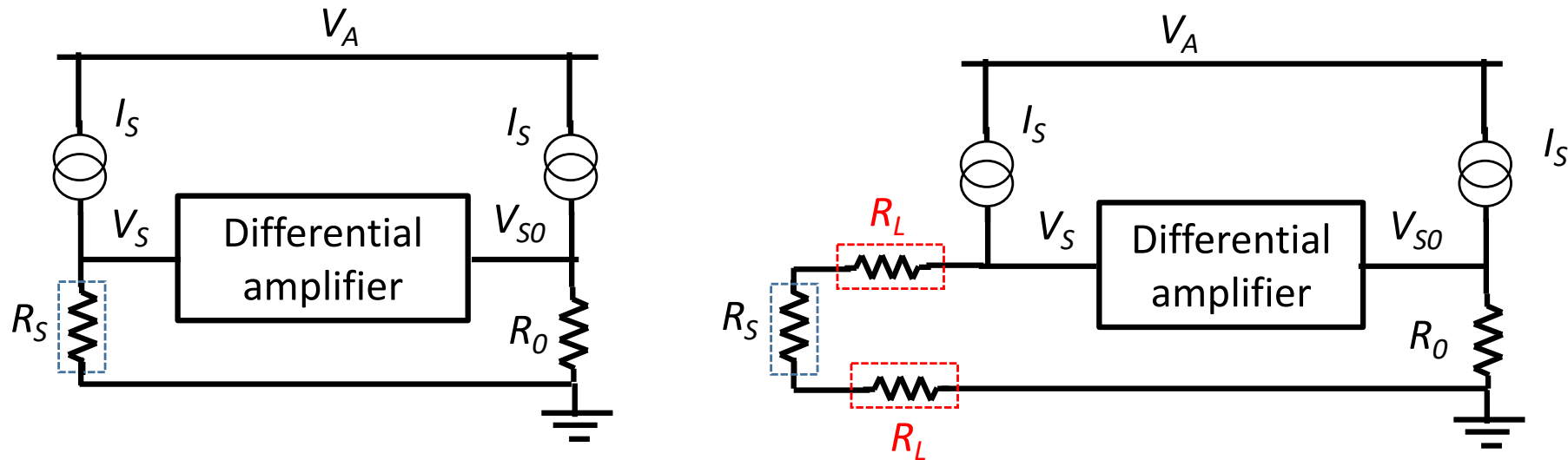
$$\Delta R_S = f(\Delta T) \approx \alpha R_0 \cdot \Delta T$$

$$V_{S0} = I_S R_0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta V_S &= V_S - V_{S0} = I_S \cdot \Delta R_S = \\ &= V_{S0} \frac{\Delta R_S}{R_0} \approx V_{S0} \alpha \Delta T \end{aligned}$$

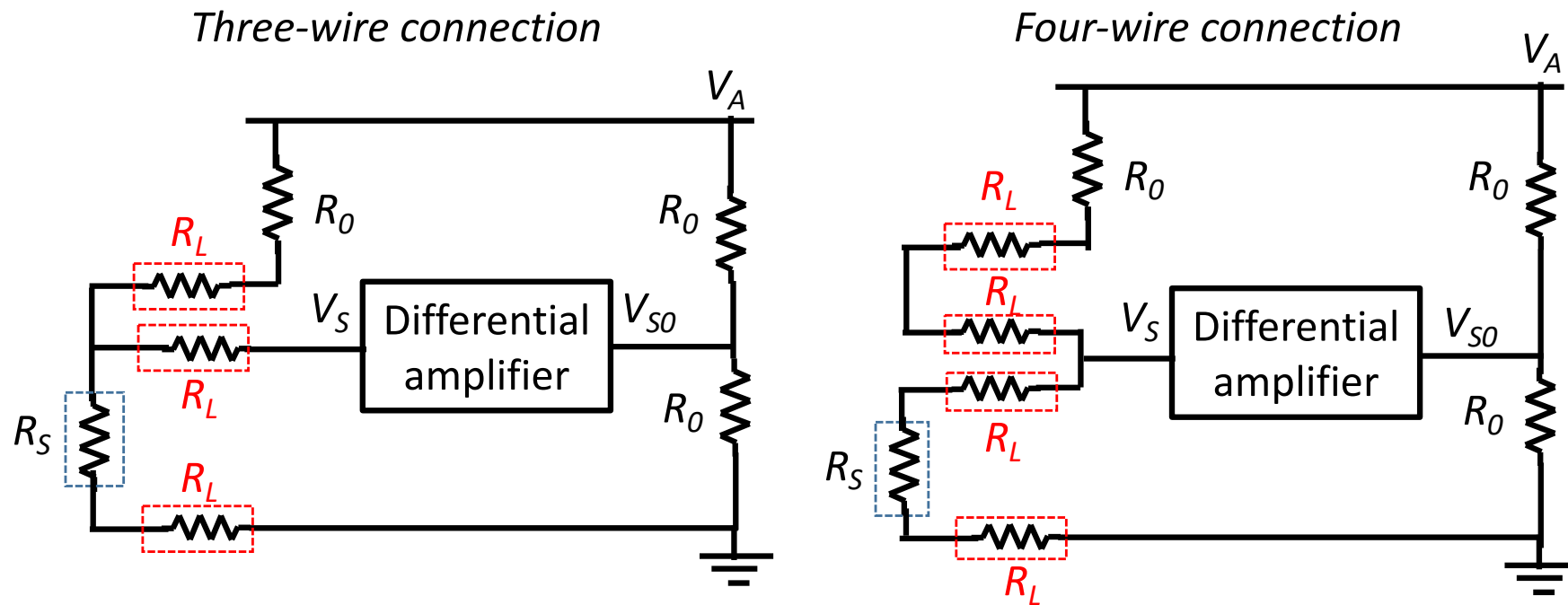
In modern electronics **a simple approach is possible** and practical thanks to the routine availability of current generators :

- $R_S$  is biased with a **constant current** generator  $I_S$
- Voltage  $V_S$  on  $R_S$  is measured
- At any T,  **$V_S$  is exactly proportional to  $R_S$**  : the difference  $\Delta V_S$  from measured  $V_S$  to reference voltage  $V_{S0}$  gives an accurate measure of  $\Delta R_S$

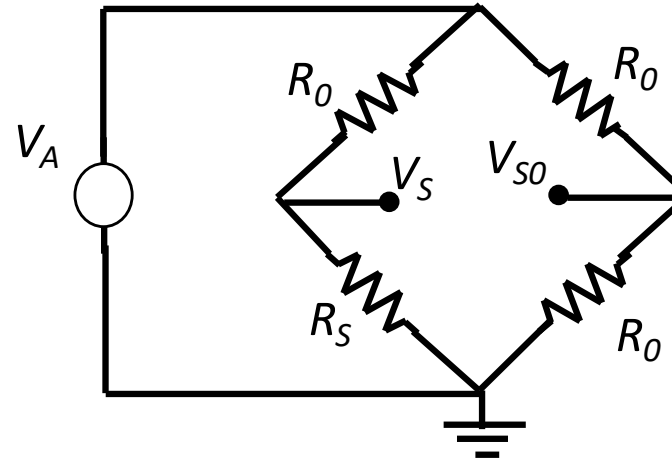
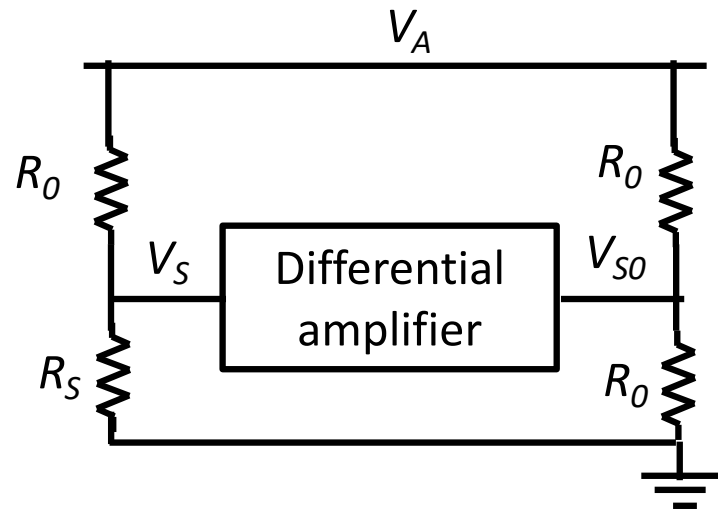


- Since  $\Delta V_S$  is much smaller than  $V_S$ , it is advisable to include in the circuit a reference  $V_{S0}$  and take **directly differential measurements of  $\Delta V_S$** , instead of measuring  $V_S$  and then subtracting  $V_{S0}$
- However, in various cases the RTD is placed on a measured object not near to the circuit, the **long connecting wires** have resistance  $R_L$  not negligible with respect to  $R_S$  and their **effect is significant** and must be taken into account
- In the simplest configuration, called «**Two-wire-connection**», the two wire resistances are in series with  $R_S$  and their voltage drop  $2I_S R_L$  is added to  $V_S$ , thus causing a significant error in the measured  $\Delta V_S$





- «**Three-wire-connection**» adds one  $R_L$  to the RTD and one to the balancing resistance  $R_0$ . The  $R_L$  of the connection to the differential amplifier is not compensated, but its effect is negligible because the current in it is negligible
- «**Four-wire-connection**» achieves complete symmetry between RTD arm and balancing arm, with complete cancellation of the errors due to wire resistances

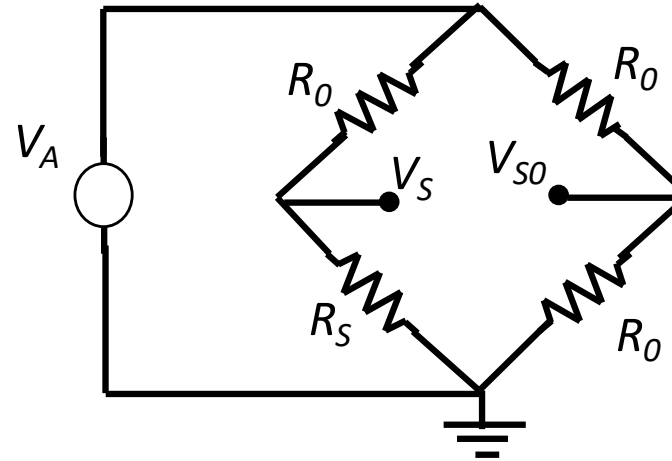


- An alternative configuration, devised when current generators were not available, requires only resistors and due to its simplicity is still widely exploited
- A **voltage divider** is implemented by the  **$R_S$  of the RTD** in series with a **reference resistor  $R_0$**  and the variations of the divider output voltage corresponding to the variations of  $R_S$  are measured
- This is the principle of the **Wheatstone bridge**, invented in 1833 by Samuel Hunter Christie and popularized by Charles Wheatstone and usually drawn as sketched above at right

$$R_S = R_0 + \Delta R_S$$

$$V_{S0} = V_A \frac{R_0}{R_0 + R_0} = \frac{V_A}{2}$$

$$V_S = V_A \frac{R_S}{R_0 + R_S}$$



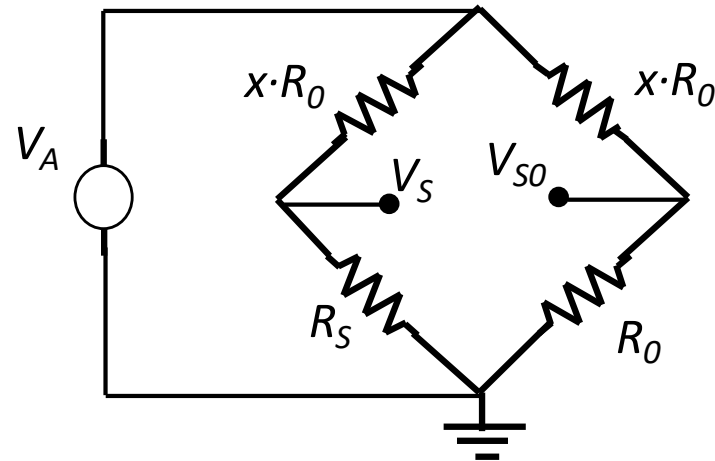
For **small resistance variation**  $\Delta R_S < 0,05 R_0$  the voltage variation  $\Delta V_S$  is **approximately linear** with  $\Delta R_S$  and can be computed by first-order development

$$\Delta V_S = \Delta R_S \left( \frac{dV_S}{dR_S} \right)_{R_S=R_0} = \frac{V_A}{4} \frac{\Delta R_S}{R_0} = \frac{V_A}{4} \alpha \Delta T$$

$$R_S = R_0 + \Delta R_S$$

$$V_{S0} = V_A \frac{R_0}{R_0 + xR_0} = \frac{V_A}{1+x}$$

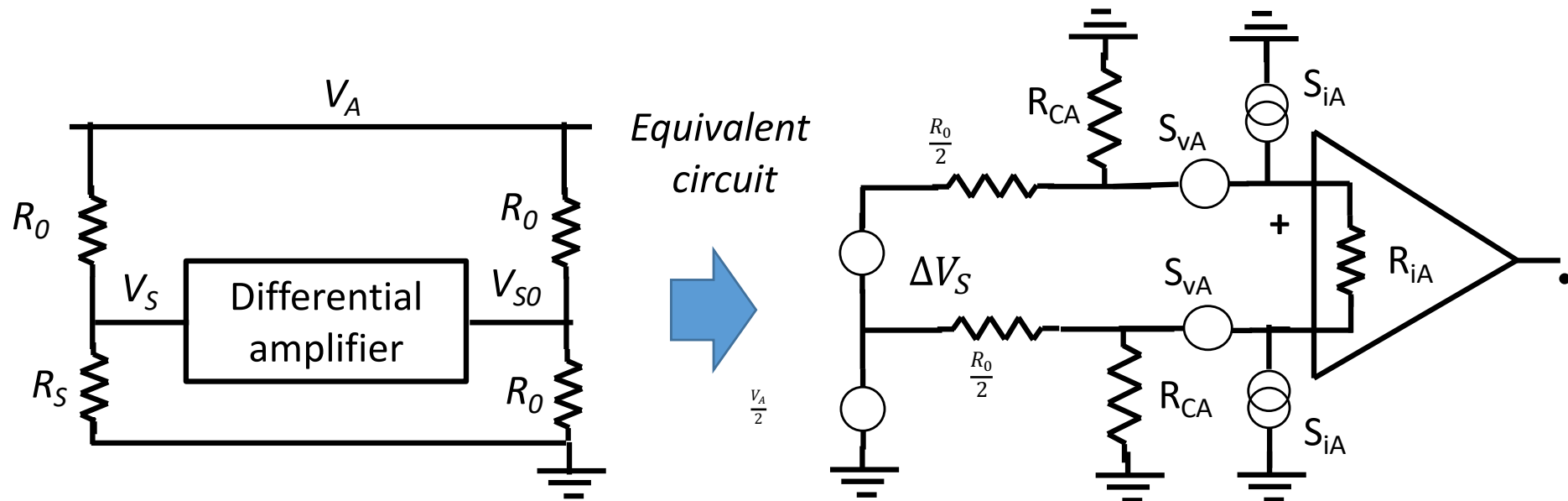
$$V_S = V_A \frac{R_S}{xR_0 + R_S}$$



The Wheatstone bridge can be employed with **any ratio  $x$**  of the voltage divider, i.e.  $R_S$  can be in series with a resistor  $x \cdot R_0$  with any value of the factor  $x$ . However, it is intuitive and readily verified that **with  $x=1$  the highest output  $\Delta V_S$**  is obtained

$$\Delta V_S = \left( \frac{dV_S}{dR_S} \right)_{R_S=R_0} \Rightarrow \Delta R_S = V_A \frac{x}{(1+x)^2} \frac{\Delta R_S}{R_0}$$

$$\max \left[ \frac{x}{(1+x)^2} \right] = \frac{1}{4} \quad \text{for } x = 1$$



Since the **source resistance is low**, typically  $R_0=100\ \Omega$ :

- for the input differential resistance  $R_{iA}$  and the input-to-ground resistance  $R_{CA}$  **moderately high** values are sufficient
- the contribution of the input current noise generators is reduced, the input **voltage noise generators are dominant**

Since the differential signal  $\Delta V_S$  is accompanied by a **high common mode signal  $V_A/2$**  :

- adequate **CMRR** is required **at the frequency of the supply  $V_A$**  , which can be selected at several kHz for reducing the 1/f noise contribution

- **Commonly used temperature transducers called Thermistors** are made of semiconductor ceramic materials, oxides of Cr, Mn, Fe, Co, Ni
- The dependence of thermistor resistance  $R$  on temperature is strikingly different from RTDs (see the plot in slide 29): strongly **nonlinear, decreases with increasing temperature** and the  $R$  values are **much larger** (some 100 k $\Omega$  at room temperature) and have much **greater relative variation**
- The resistance-temperature relationship can be described by the equation

$$R = \exp\left(\frac{B}{T}\right)$$

- where  **$T$  is the absolute temperature** in Kelvin degrees,  $B$  is constant.  $B$  is called characteristic temperature of the termistor and usually ranges from 2000 K to 4000 K.
- Making reference to the resistance value  $R_0$  at a known reference temperature  $T_0$  we get

$$R = R_0 \exp\left[B\left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T_0}\right)\right]$$

- Thermistors can be made **much smaller** than RTDs.
- The smaller mass enables them to respond **more quickly** to temperature variations
- The **smaller size**, however, makes **less efficient the dispersion of the self-heating** power, which must be limited to low level
- The basic advantage of thermistors with respect to RTDs is **higher sensitivity**, i.e. larger relative variation  $\Delta R/R$  for a given  $\Delta T$ , which eases measurements of very small  $\Delta T$
- The main disadvantages are **lower accuracy and lower reproducibility** and strongly nonlinear characteristics, which limit the application of thermistors in automatic control systems