



# MEASUREMENT

# Measurement Basics

- Measuring is the experimental determination of a measured value by quantitative comparison of the measurand with a comparison value in a direct or indirect manner
- Measured value obtained by this procedure is given as a product of a **numeric value** and a **dimensional unit**
- It can be recorded continuously as a temporal variation of a physical value or discontinuously at particular moments
- Deviation of measured value from the measurand is the **measurement error**
  - ▣ Depends on measurement procedure, measurement device, and environmental effects
  - ▣ Systematic and random errors are distinguished

# Gross (Human) Errors

- Reading the instrument before it has reached its steady state.
- Parallax error when reading an analog meter scale.
- Mistakes in recording measured data and in calculating a derived measurand
- Misuse of the instrument



Viewing from the left



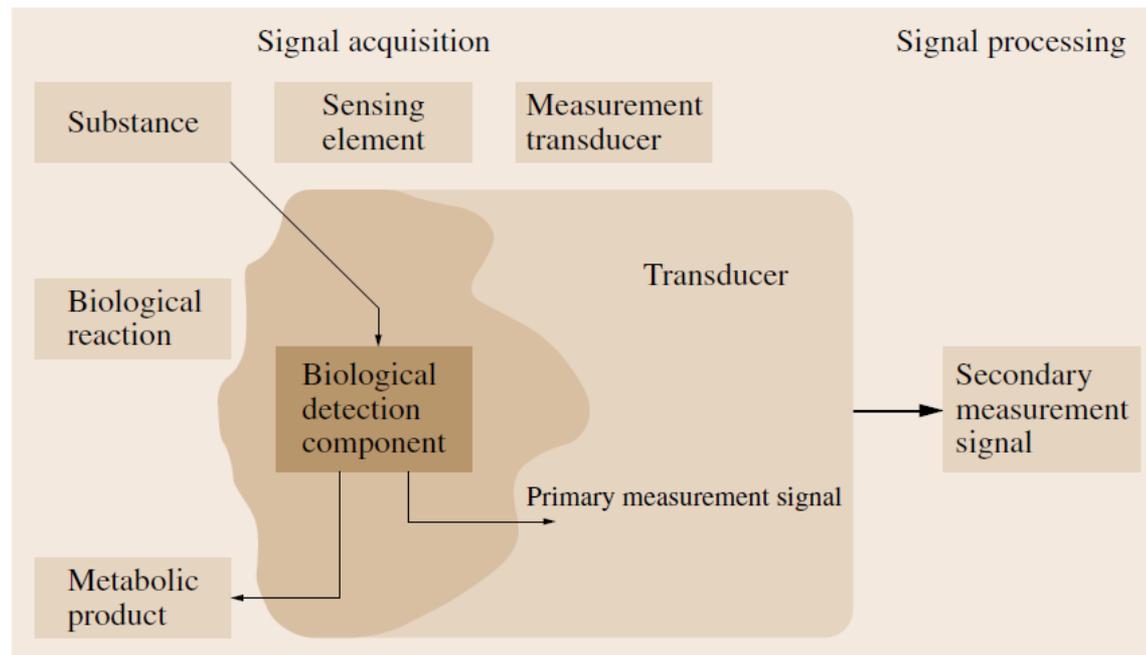
Viewing from the right

# Systematic Error

- Method of measurement has an error
- Instrument is not calibrated or has an offset
  - ▣ Loss of calibration and zero error can occur because of long term component value changes due to aging, or changes associated with temperature rise
- Reading uncertainty due to presence of random noise
  - ▣ External noise from *environmental noise* can be reduced by appropriate electric and magnetic shielding/grounding
  - ▣ Internal noise (e.g., from an instrument's signal conditioning)
- Reading uncertainty due to slow, or long term drift in the system
  - ▣ Drifts can cause slow changes in system sensitivity and/or zero. Drift may arise as the result of a slow temperature change as a system warms up. Drift or system offset can also arise from dc static charges.

# Sensor

- Sensor is a probe to register measured events
- Often, it is directly connected to a transducer, or it transduces the primary measurement signal into a secondary signal itself



# Ideal Sensor Requirements

- Feedback-free registration of the signals
- Provide reproducible measurement results
- Transmission behavior has to remain constant for a long time
- Narrow production tolerances
- Small mass and small volume
- Application should be simple and manageable
  
- (BME) High biocompatibility
- (BME) Low stress to patient
- (BME) Allow cleaning, disinfection and possibly sterilization

# Sensor Classification

- Active or passive
- Passive sensor does not need any additional energy source
  - ▣ Directly generates electric signal in response to external stimulus
  - ▣ Examples: thermocouple, photodiode, piezoelectric transducer
- Active sensors require external power for their operation, called excitation signal.
  - ▣ Excitation signal is modified by sensor to produce the output signal
  - ▣ Examples: thermistor and resistive strain gauge

# Sensor Classification

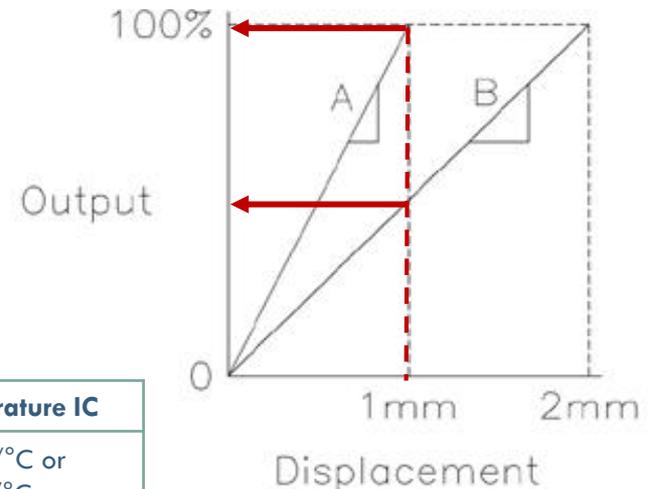
- Absolute or relative
- Absolute sensor detects a stimulus in reference to an absolute physical scale that is independent of the measurement conditions
  - ▣ Example: thermistor – electrical resistance directly related to absolute temperature scale of Kelvin
- Relative sensor produces a signal that relates to some special case
  - ▣ Example: thermocouple – produces electric voltage that is function of temperature gradient across the thermocouple wires

# Sensor Specifications

|                                 |                          |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------|
| Sensitivity                     | Stimulus range (span)    |
| Stability (short and long term) | Resolution               |
| Accuracy                        | Selectivity              |
| Speed of response               | Environmental conditions |
| Overload characteristics        | Linearity                |
| Hysteresis                      | Dead band                |
| Operating life                  | Output format            |
| Cost, size, weight              | Other                    |

# Sensor Sensitivity

- Sensitivity is typically defined as the ratio of output change for a given change in input
  - ▣ Another definition can be given as the slope of the calibration line relating the input to the output (i.e.,  $\Delta\text{Output}/\Delta\text{Input}$ )
- Example: Sensor A is more sensitive than sensor B
  - ▣ Same displacement, higher output from A
- Example: Temperature sensors



| Characteristic | Platinum RTD | Thermistor | Thermocouple | Temperature IC          |
|----------------|--------------|------------|--------------|-------------------------|
| Sensitivity    | 2 mV/°C      | 40 mV/°C   | 0.05 mV/°C   | ~1 mV/°C or<br>~1 uA/°C |

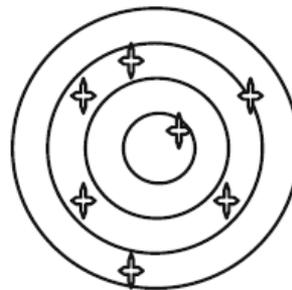
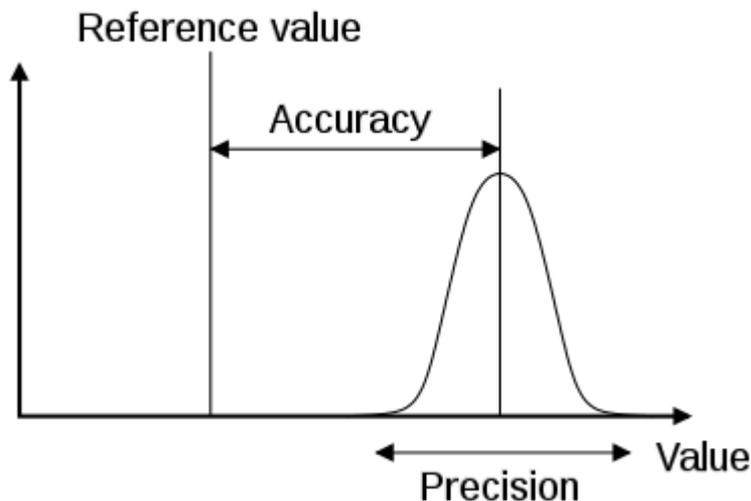
# Sensor Dynamic Range

- Dynamic range of a sensor corresponds to the minimum and maximum operating limits that the sensor is expected to measure accurately
  - ▣ Also called stimulus range or span
- Example: Temperature sensors have very different ranges that suit different applications
  - ▣ From measuring human temperature to measuring temperature in steam sterilizers

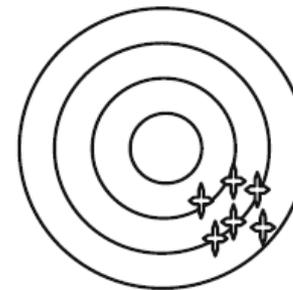
| Characteristic    | Platinum RTD    | Thermistor     | Thermocouple     | Temperature IC |
|-------------------|-----------------|----------------|------------------|----------------|
| Temperature Range | -200°C to 500°C | -40°C to 260°C | -270°C to 1750°C | -55°C to 150°C |

# Sensor Accuracy and Precision

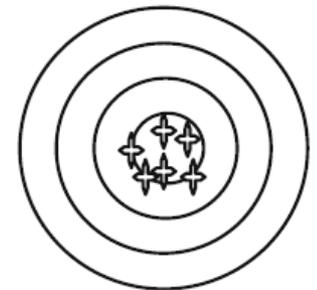
- Accuracy refers to the difference between the true value and the actual value measured by the sensor
- Precision refers to degree of measurement reproducibility
  - ▣ Very reproducible readings indicate a high precision
- Precision should not be confused with accuracy
  - ▣ Measurements may be highly precise but not necessary accurate



Low precision -  
low accuracy



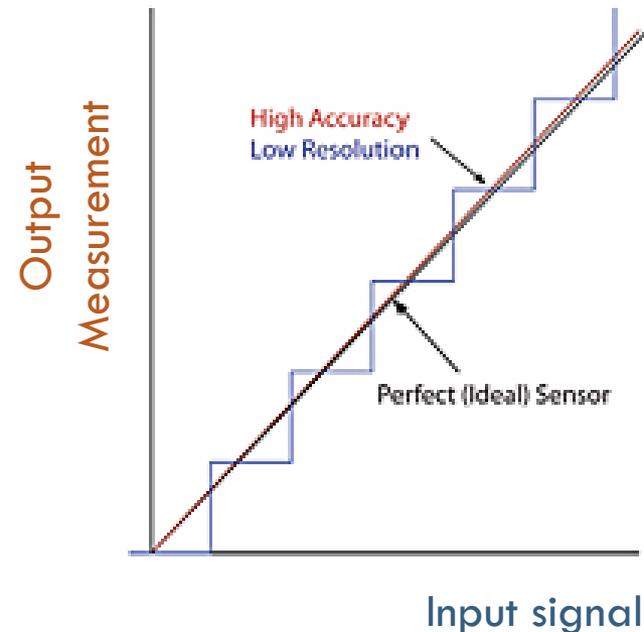
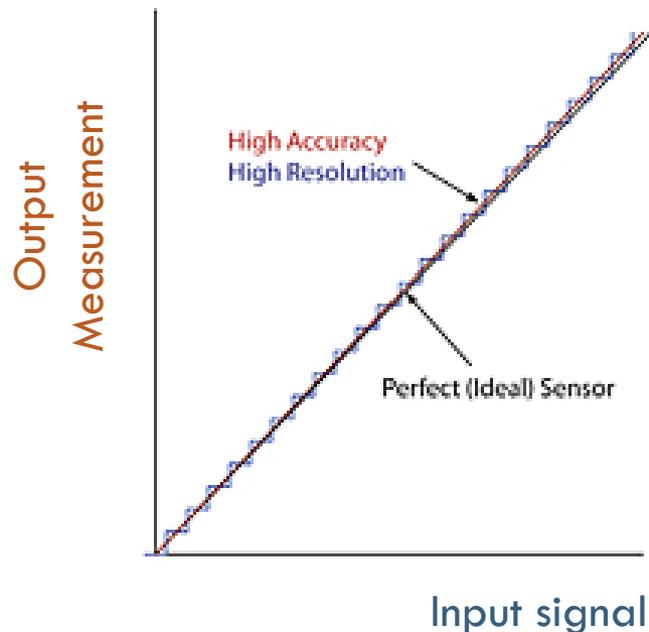
High precision -  
low accuracy



High precision -  
high accuracy

# Sensor Resolution

- Resolution is defined as the smallest change of the measurand that can produce a detectable change in the output signal
- Example: sensors with digital output only change in steps of 1 bit
  - ▣ 12-bit sensors will have better resolution than 8-bit sensors

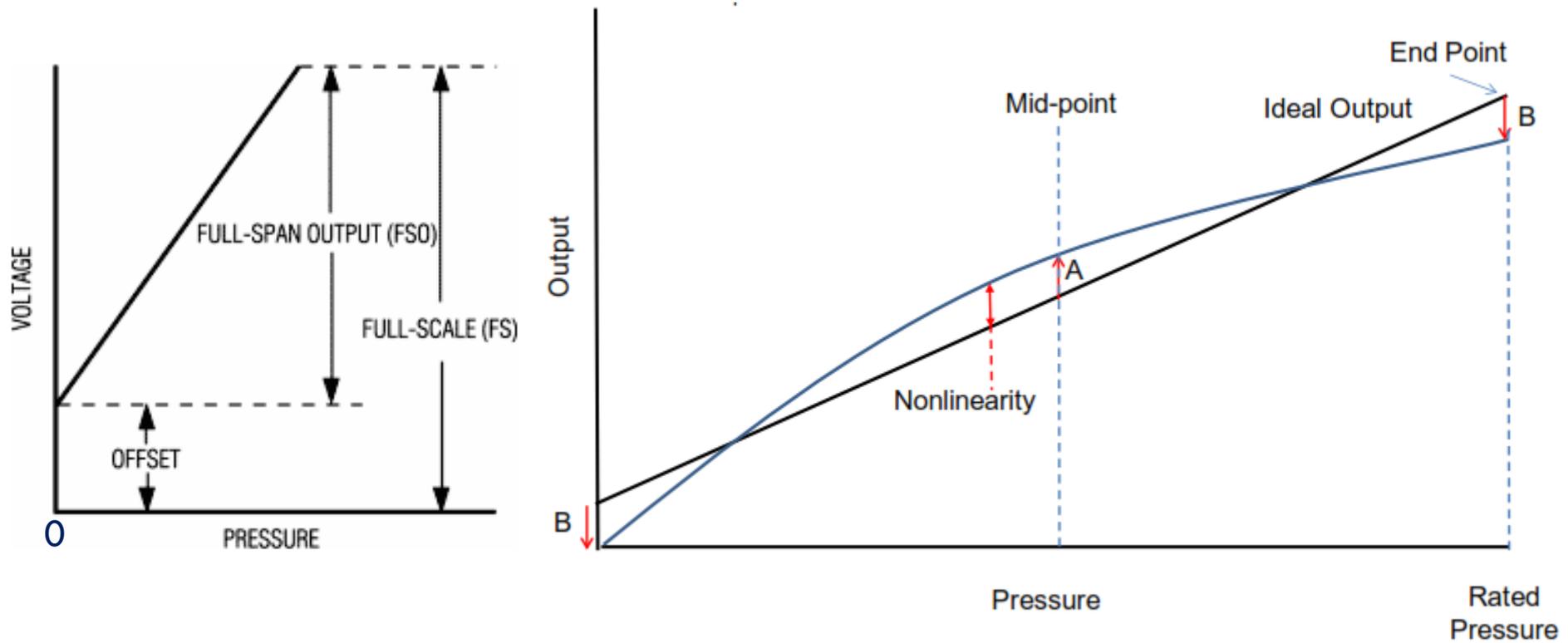


# Sensor Reproducibility

- Reproducibility is the degree to which an experiment or study can be accurately reproduced, or replicated, by someone else working independently or over time
  - ▣ Sometimes called repeatability or stability (short-term and long-term)
- Reproducibility can vary depending on the measurement range
  - ▣ Readings may be highly reproducible over one range and less reproducible over a different operating range

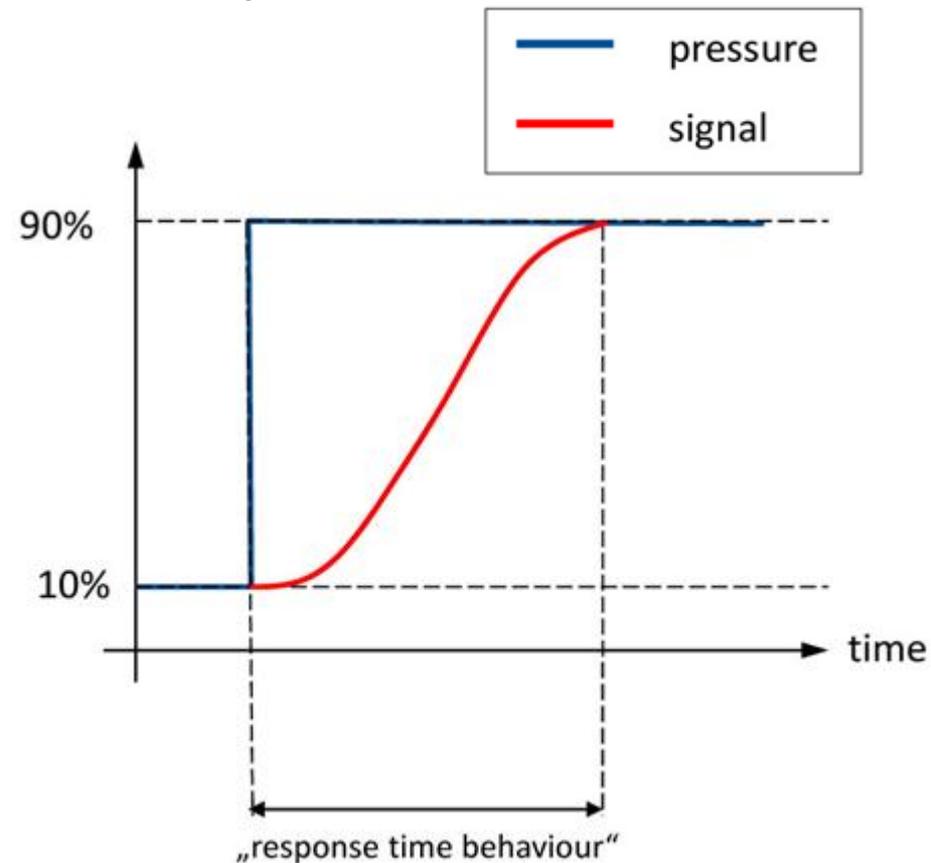
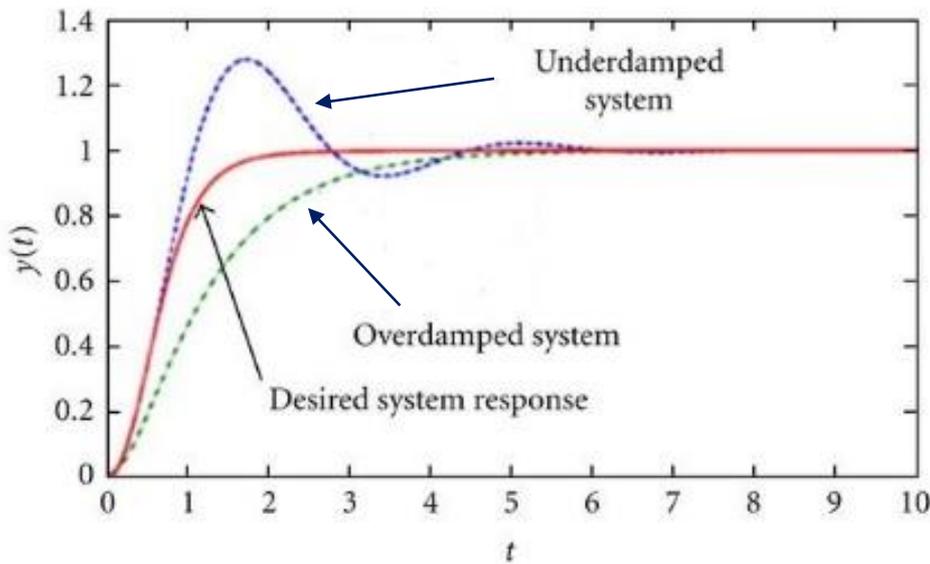
# Sensor Linearity and Offset

- Linearity is a measure of the maximum deviation of any reading from a straight calibration line
- Offset refers to the output value when the input is zero



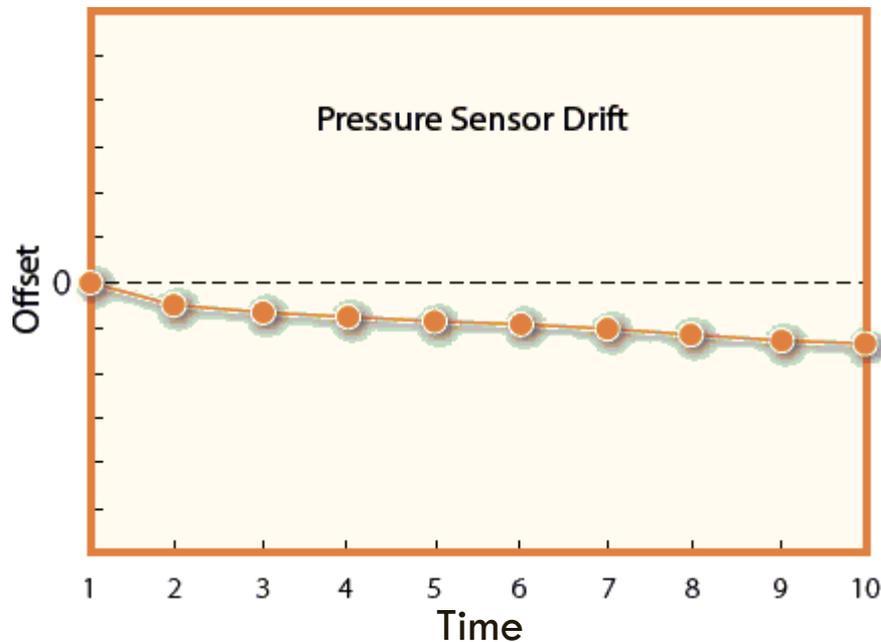
# Sensor Response Time

- Response time indicates the time it takes a sensor to reach a stable (steady-state) value when the input is changed
  - ▣ Same as recovery time

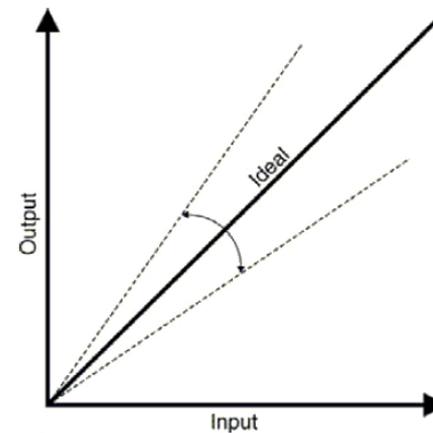


# Sensor Drift

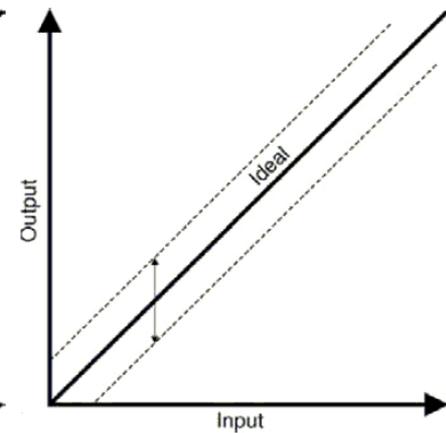
- Drift is a gradual change in the measurement output is seen while the measurand actually remains constant
  - ▣ Drift is undesired systematic error that is unrelated to the measurand
  - ▣ Drift may affect offset and/or sensitivity



Sensitivity Drift

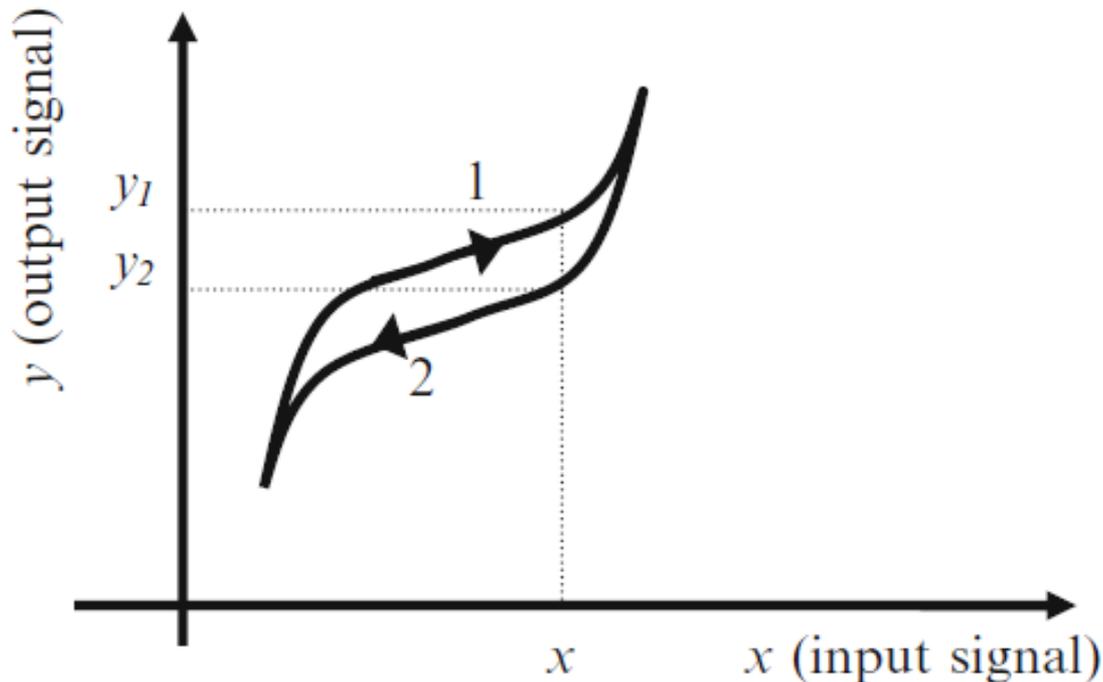


Offset Drift



# Sensor Hysteresis

- Hysteresis is the difference between output readings for the same measurand, depending on the trajectory followed by the sensor
  - ▣ Depending on whether path 1 or 2 is taken, two different outputs are obtained for the same input



# Mathematical Definition of Error

- **Error**: deviation of the measured value from the true value.
- **True value**: standard or reference of known value or theoretical value
- Error in  $n^{\text{th}}$  measurement is given as

$$\varepsilon_n = X_n - Y_n$$

$$\% \varepsilon = |\varepsilon_n / Y_n| \times 100\%$$

- $X_n = n^{\text{th}}$  measured value
- $Y_n =$  actual, true, defined or calculated value

# Limiting Error

- **Limiting Error (LE)** is an important parameter used in specifying instrument accuracy given by manufacturers to define the outer bounds or the expected worst case error
  - ▣ For example, when a voltmeter specified as having accuracy of 2% of its full-scale reading on the 100 V scale has reading of 75 V, LE in this reading is  $(2/75) \times 100 = 2.67\%$

# Measurement Uncertainty Analysis

- In many cases, measurement must be calculated from a formula with various system parameters, each having a specified accuracy

- ▣ Need to derive formula for LE in value of measurement

- Let measurement be function of N variables as,

$$Q = f(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N)$$

- Assuming each variable,  $X_i$ , has error  $\pm\Delta X_i$ , then calculated measurement will contain error and will be given by,

$$\hat{Q} = f(X_1 \pm \Delta X_1, X_2 \pm \Delta X_2, \dots, X_N \pm \Delta X_N)$$

- Idea: Use Taylor series expansion to get an approximate expression

# Measurement Uncertainty Analysis

- Taylor series expansion is given as,

$$f(X \pm \Delta X) = f(X) + \frac{df}{dX} \frac{\Delta X}{1!} + \frac{d^2f}{dX^2} \frac{(\Delta X)^2}{2!} + \dots + \frac{d^{n-1}f}{dX^{n-1}} \frac{(\Delta X)^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} + R_n$$

- Expanding  $\hat{Q}$  using the above expansion,

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{Q} = f(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N) &+ \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial X_1} \Delta X_1 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial X_2} \Delta X_2 + \dots + \frac{\partial f}{\partial X_N} \Delta X_N \right\} \\ &+ \frac{1}{2!} \left\{ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial X_1^2} (\Delta X_1)^2 + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial X_2^2} (\Delta X_2)^2 + \dots + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial X_N^2} (\Delta X_N)^2 \right\} + \dots \\ &+ \frac{1}{3!} \left\{ \frac{\partial^3 f}{\partial X_1^3} (\Delta X_1)^3 + \dots \right\} + \dots \end{aligned} \cong 0$$

Second and higher derivative terms can usually be assumed to be numerically negligible

# Measurement Uncertainty Analysis

- Hence, the reading containing error can be approximated as:

$$\hat{Q} \cong f(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N) + \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial X_1} \Delta X_1 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial X_2} \Delta X_2 + \dots + \frac{\partial f}{\partial X_N} \Delta X_N \right\}$$

 True Measurement                       Measurement Error

- Maximum or worst-case uncertainty in Q can be approximated by,

$$\Delta Q_{\text{MAX}} = |Q - \hat{Q}| = \sum_{j=1}^N \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial X_j} \Delta X_j \right|$$

# Measurement Uncertainty Analysis: Example

- Derive LE in calculation of DC power in resistor

$$Q = f(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N) \quad \Rightarrow \quad P = I^2 R$$

$$\Delta Q_{\text{MAX}} = |Q - \hat{Q}| = \sum_{j=1}^N \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial X_j} \Delta X_j \right| \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Delta P_{\text{MAX}} = 2IR\Delta I + I^2\Delta R$$
$$\Downarrow$$
$$\frac{\Delta P_{\text{MAX}}}{P} = 2 \left| \frac{\Delta I}{I} \right| + \left| \frac{\Delta R}{R} \right|$$

- If LE in  $R$  is 0.1%, 0–10 A ammeter has 1% of full-scale accuracy, resistor value is 100  $\Omega$  and ammeter reads 8 A, and nominal power dissipated in resistor is 6400 W, then LE in power measurement is:

$$\frac{\Delta P_{\text{MAX}}}{P} = 2 \frac{0.1}{8} + 0.001 = 0.026 \quad \text{or} \quad 2.6\%$$

# Further Reading and Assignments

- Hughes Chapter 44.2, 46.16
- Northrop Chapter 1.3
- Chapter 46 of *Springer Handbook of Medical Technology* (2011)
- Chapter 4 of *Sensors in Biomedical Applications* (2000)
- Chapter 2 of *Sensors, An Introductory Course* (2013)