CHAPTER 2
PRESSURE SENSORS

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2.1 AUTOMOTIVE PRESSURE MEASUREMENTS

Various pressure measurements are required in both the development and usage of vehicles to optimize performance, determine safe operation, assure conformance to government regulations, and advise the driver. These sensors monitor vehicle functions, provide information to control systems, and measure parameters for indication to the driver. The sensors can also provide data log information for diagnostic purposes.

Depending on the parameter being measured, different units for indicating pressure will be used. Since pressure is force per unit area, basic units are pounds per square inch (psi) or kilograms per square centimeter. For example, tire pressure is usually indicated in psi. Manifold pressure is typically specified in kiloPascals (kPa). A Pascal, which is the international unit (SI or Systems Internationale) for pressure, is equal to 1 Newton per meter^2 or 1 kg · m^{-1} · s^{-2}. Other common units of pressure measurement include: inches, feet, or centimeters of water; millibars or bars, inches, or millimeters of mercury (Hg), and torr. The conversion constants as defined per international convention are indicated in Table 2.1.

Pressure can be measured by a number of devices that provide a predictable variation when pressure is applied. Sensors used on vehicles range from mechanical devices—with position movement when pressure is applied—to a rubber or elastomer diaphragm, to semiconductor-based silicon pressure sensors. Various pressure-sensing techniques are explained in Sec. 2.3.

The type of pressure measurement that is made can be divided into five basic areas which are independent of the technology used for the measurement: gage, absolute, differential, liquid level, and pressure switch.

2.1.1 Gage Pressure Measurements

The silicon pressure sensor technology explained in Sec. 2.3.5 is used to visualize the difference between gage, absolute, and differential pressure (refer to Fig. 2.1). For gage pressure measurements, the pressure is applied to the top of a (silicon) diaphragm (Fig. 2.1), creating a positive output. The opposite (back) side of the diaphragm is exposed to atmospheric pressure. Gage vacuum is a special case of gage pressure. For gage vacuum measurements, vacuum is applied to the back side of the diaphragm resulting in a positive output signal. Gage and gage vacuum are single-sided pressure measurements. Gage pressure is frequently indicated by psig.

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TABLE 2.1 Pressure Unit Conversion Constants

(Most commonly used per international conventions)

	psi*	In $H_2O^{\dagger}$	In $Hg^{\ddagger}$	K Pascal	Millibar	cm $H_2O^{\S}$	mm $Hg^{\P}$
psi*	1.000	27.680	2.036	6.8947	68.947	70.308	51.715
In $H_2O^{\dagger}$	3.6127×10^{-2}	1.000	7.3554×10^{-2}	0.2491	2.491	2.5400	1.8683
In $Hg^{\ddagger}$	0.4912	13.596	1.000	3.3864	33.864	34.532	25.400
K Pascal	0.14504	4.0147	0.2953	1.000	10.000	10.1973	7.5006
Millibar	0/01450	0.40147	0.02953	0.100	1.000	1.01973	0.75006
cm $H_2O^{\S}$	1.4223×10^{-2}	0.3937	2.8958×10^{-2}	0.09806	0.9806	1.000	0.7355
mm $Hg^{\P}$	1.9337×10^{-2}	0.53525	3.9370×10^{-2}	0.13332	1.3332	1.3595	1.000

* PSI = pounds per square inch
† At 39 °F
‡ At 32 °F
§ At 4 °C
¶ At 0 °C

2.1.2 Absolute Pressure Measurements

An absolute pressure measurement is made with respect to a fixed (usually a vacuum) reference sealed within the sensor (Fig. 2.1). For a 100-kPa-rated absolute unit, the diaphragm is fully deflected with standard atmospheric pressure. Application of a vacuum restores the diaphragm to its undeflected (flat) position. The result is a high-level output with no vacuum applied and a low-level signal at full vacuum unless the zero is established at the full-scale deflection of the diaphragm. Pressure can also be applied to absolute units with appropriately designed diaphragms to withstand the additional applied stress. Absolute pressure is frequently indicated by psia.

2.1.3 Differential Pressure Measurements

Differential or Delta-P measurements are also shown in Fig. 2.1. The higher pressure is applied to the top of the diaphragm and the lower pressure, possibly a reference pressure, is applied to the opposite side. The diaphragm's deflection is a result of the pressure difference.

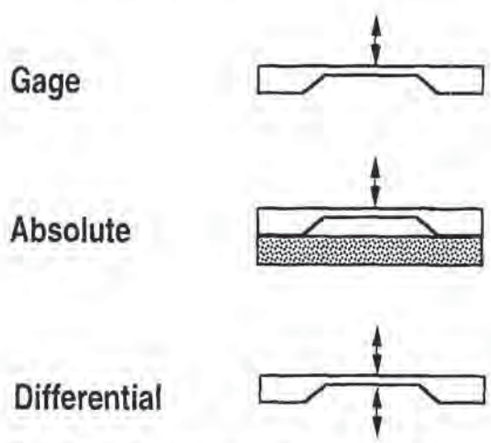


FIGURE 2.1 Types of pressure measurements: (*a*) gage, (*b*) absolute, and (*c*) differential.

Typically, the pressure differential is only a small percentage of the total line pressure and a system fault can expose one side of the sensor to the full line pressure. This must be taken into account when choosing the sensor and determining the rated pressure range that will be required. Differential pressure is frequently indicated by psid.

2.1.4 Liquid Level Measurements

The height of a column of liquid can be measured by a pressure sensor. The term *head* is frequently used in hydraulics to denote pressure. Measurements of inches or feet of water and centimeters of mercury are direct indications of the effect of pressure on liquid level. Other liquid levels are dependent on their specific weight and can be calculated by $h = (P_L - P_H)/w$, where $(P_L - P_L)$ is the pressure differential caused by the height of the fluid column and w is the specific weight of the liquid. The vapor pressure in a sealed enclosure will have an effect on the measurement of liquid height. Returning the reference side of a differential pressure sensor to the top of the enclosure will compensate for vapor pressure.

2.1.5 Pressure Switch

A pressure switch is typically achieved by mounting an electric contact on a diaphragm (rubber or any elastic material). The application of sufficient pressure (or vacuum) on one side of the diaphragm causes the movable contact to meet a stationary contact and close the circuit.

A pressure switch can also be achieved by any of the previously described techniques merely by establishing a reference threshold voltage that is calibrated to indicate the point that the pressure changes from an acceptable to unacceptable (or low to high) level. Once the threshold voltage is achieved, additional electronic circuits can be used to produce an electronic switch that can control loads such as an indicator lamp.

2.2 AUTOMOTIVE APPLICATIONS FOR PRESSURE SENSORS

Automotive requirements for pressure measurements range from the basic—oil pressure—to the sophisticated—air pressure differential from one side of the vehicle to the other. This section elaborates on the various possibilities for pressure measurements that exist either in the development, laboratory, or pilot phases of the vehicle, to actual volume production. Table 2.2 lists a number of potential pressure measurements versus vehicle systems and provides an indication of the pressure range and type of measurement.

Automotive specification and testing guidelines have been developed and published by the Society of Automotive Engineers (SAE) specifically for manifold absolute pressure (MAP) sensors. These documents are intended to assist in establishing test methods and specifications for other sensors. Other SAE documents that may apply to sensors are summarized in Table 2.3.

The packaging and testing requirements for automotive sensors can represent 50 to 80 percent of the sensor cost and over 90 percent of the warranty and in-service problems. The pressure-sensing applications that are presented in the following sections will include packaging requirements that are of particular concern.

2.2.1 Existing Applications for Pressure Sensors

A late twentieth century production vehicle is likely to have a number of pressure sensors for measurements such as manifold pressure and engine oil pressure, and has the potential for

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TABLE 2.2 Pressure Sensing Requirements for Various Vehicle Systems

System	Parameter	Pressure range	Type
Engine control	Manifold absolute pressure	100 kPa	Absolute
	Turbo boost pressure	200 kPa	Absolute
	Barometric pressure (altitude)	100 kPa	Absolute
	EGR pressure	7.5 psi	Gage
	Fuel pressure	15 psi—450 kPa	Gage
	Fuel vapor pressure	15 in H_2O	Gage
	Mass air flow		Differential
	Combustion pressure	100 Bar, 16.7 Mpa	Differential
	Exhaust gas pressure	100 kPa	Gage
	Secondary air pressure	100 kPa	Gage
Elect transmission (continuously variable transmission)	Transmission oil pressure	80 psi	Gage
	Vacuum modulation	100 kPa	Absolute
Idle speed control	AC clutch sensor/switch	300–500 psi	Absolute*
	Power steering pressure	500 psi	Absolute*
Elect power steering (also elect assisted)	Hydraulic pressure	500 psi	Absolute*
Antiskid brakes/ traction control	Brake pressure	500 psi	Absolute*
	Fluid level	12 in H_2O	Gage
Air bags	Bag pressure	7.5 psi	Gage
Suspension	Pneumatic spring pressure	1 MPa	Absolute*
Security/keyless entry	Passenger compartment pressure	100 kPa	Absolute
HVAC (climate control)	Air flow (PC) Compressor pressure	300–500 psi	Absolute*
Driver information	Oil pressure	80 psi	Gage
	Fuel level	15 in H_2O	Gage
	Oil level	15 in H_2O	Gage
	Coolant pressure	200 kPa	Gage
	Coolant level	24 in H_2O	Gage
	Windshield washer level	12 in H_2O	Gage
	Transmission oil level	12 in H_2O	Gage
	Tire pressure	50 psi	Gage/absolute
	Battery fluid level	1–2 in below	Optical
Memory seat	Lumbar pressure	7.5 psi	Gage
Multiplex/diagnostics	Multiple usage of sensors		

* *Gage measurement but absolute sensors used for failsafe*

TABLE 2.3 SAE Specifications That Effect Pressure Sensors

Recommended environmental practices for electronic equipment design	SAE J1211
Performance levels and methods of measurement of electromagnetic radiation from vehicles and devices	SAEJ551
Performance levels and methods of measurement of EMR from vehicles and devices (narrowband RF)	SAEJ1816
Electromagnetic susceptibility procedures for vehicle components (except aircraft)	SAE J1113
Vehicle electromagnetic radiated susceptibility testing using a large TEM cell	SAE J1407
Open-field whole-vehicle radiated susceptibility 10 kHz–18 GHz, electric field	SAE J1338
Class B data communication network interface	SAE J1850
Diagnostic acronyms, terms, and definitions for electrical/electronic components	SAE J1930
Failure mode severity classification	SAE J1812
Guide to manifold absolute pressure transducer representative test method	SAE J1346
Guide to manifold absolute pressure transducer representative specification	SAE J1347

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several other pressure measurements. Tighter emissions control and improved efficiency may necessitate further sensor use in future systems.

Manifold, Barometric and Turbo Boost Pressure. Manifold absolute pressure (MAP) is used as an input to fuel and ignition control in internal combustion engine control systems. The speed-density system that uses the MAP sensor has been preferred over mass air flow (MAF) control because it's less expensive, but stricter emission standards are causing more manufacturers to use mass air flow for future models.

Higher resolution from 32-bit engine controllers, with greater analog-to-digital (A/D) conversion capability and higher operating frequencies, will provide greater accuracy for a given MAP sensor during the critical transitions of the engine cycle. As shown in Fig. 2.2, previous changes from 8-bit to 16-bit controllers have resulted in a two-time improvement in resolution in the digital conversion for the intake manifold pressure. The 8-bit control unit performed the A/D conversion on a 4-ms timer interrupt in order to maintain a balance with other controls, with the resulting 1.1-ms lag time (worst case) during periods of overlapping interrupts. The 16-bit microcontroller performs the A/D conversion every 2 ms, which reduces the lag time to 0.3 ms. The actual system improvements that can result from using the higher performing microcontrol units is a result of other factors such as more precise and faster control of fuel injectors and sparkplugs, and additional and/or more accurate sensors and control algorithms.

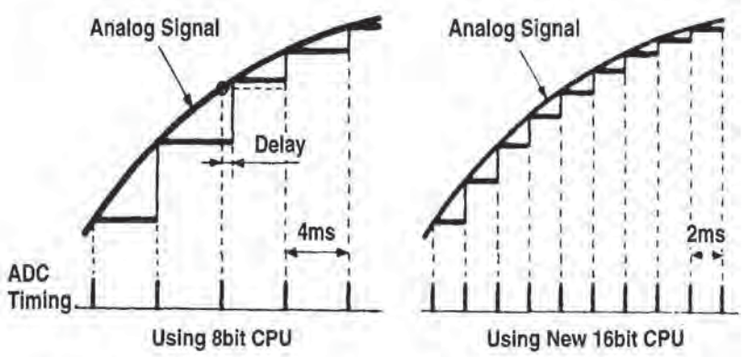


FIGURE 2.2 Effect of A-D on pressure measurements.

The MAP error band is also being tightened with a goal of 1 percent accuracy over the entire automotive temperature range. Existing specifications allow tolerances to increase as shown by the bowtie specification in Fig. 2.3 with associated multiplier(s).

The need for barometric pressure is often desirable in MAF systems to provide altitude information to the engine control computer. The barometric pressure range is typically from 60 to 115 kpA with accuracy on the order of 1.5 percent over the operating pressure range. The error band tolerance increases by a temperature multiplier of up to 2× outside the 0 to 85 °C range. MAP and barometric pressure sensors are frequently mounted inside control modules making the mounting technique a key consideration for manufacturability. The increased usage of surface mount technology, and the need to reduce space so that additional features can be included in control modules are factors that will affect next-generation sensor designs.

A typical turbocharger can provide boost pressure in the range of 80 kPa over the naturally aspirated internal combustion engine. This increases the maximum rating for the sensor to 200 kPa absolute, but other requirements are scaled appropriately.

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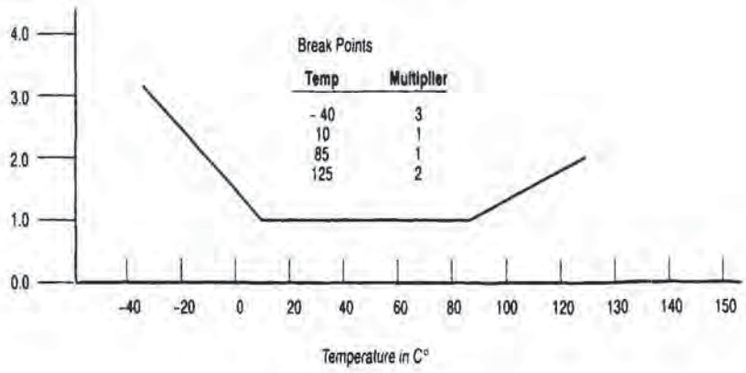
MPX4100 • MPX4101 SERIES

Transfer Function

Nominal Transfer Value: $V_{out} = V_S (0.01059 \times P - 0.1518)$
+/– (Pressure Error x Temp. Mult. x 0.01059 x V_S)
$V_S = 5.1\ V \pm 5\%$ P_{in} kPa

Temperature Error Multiplier

MPX4100 Series



Pressure Error Band

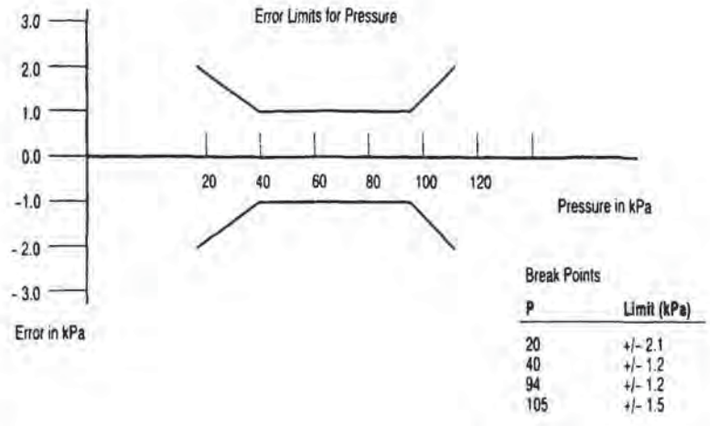


FIGURE 2.3 Error band for MAP sensor.

Oil Pressure. Oil pressure on automobiles has traditionally been measured by the deflection of a rubber diaphragm which closes a set of contacts (switch) providing a lamp indication with low oil pressure or moves a potentiometer to provide an analog signal for a gage.

A replacement for the conventional electromechanical oil pressure sending unit is an electronic device such as the one designed by Chrysler's Acustar Division. In addition to a silicon

piezoresistive pressure sensor, the unit contains transient protection circuitry, signal amplification for the sensor output, and output drivers for both an electromagnetic gauge and a fuel pump. The FET output drivers are capable of handling 10 A based on the heat dissipated though a heatsink that is integral to the sensor package.

The unit utilizes a supply voltage from 9 to 16 V and operates over a media temperature range of –40 to +150 °C. The overall accuracy is ±3.25 percent with linearity ≤ ±0.25 percent over the entire operating pressure range of 200 psi. The switch point for the low pressure indication is 4 psi ± 1.5 psi.

The sensor package was specially designed for easy assembly. The housing interfaces to the sensor with an extremely reliable O-ring seal that can withstand a burst pressure over 400 psi. Special materials were used for both the package and the protective gel that covers the sensor, which allow it to survive qualification tests with over 1 million pressure cycles, including portions conducted at high temperatures. This exceeds the number of cycles that can be achieved with traditional diaphragm-driven potentiometers that have been used for providing the indication of oil pressure. The sensor has been designed for a 10-year/100,000-mile life that could be required for future vehicle warranties.

Media Compatibility in Automotive Measurements. Pressure sensors frequently have to interface with an environment that is more demanding than other electronic components. For example, the measurement of engine oil pressure, transmission oil pressure, fuel pressure, and so on, or fluid level (oil, gas, coolant, etc.) requires the sensor package to be exposed to one or more fluids that are detrimental to the operation of semiconductor circuitry. Each of these media interface problems is addressed separately, depending on the application. Automotive cost requirements usually limit the usage of stainless steel as the isolation technique. Instead, more cost-effective protective polymers and chemically tolerant plastic and rubber materials have been developed for sensor packages.

2.2.2 New Applications for Pressure Sensing

The list of potential applications for sensing pressure in the automobile includes several new applications. These measurements are frequently made during the development of new vehicle systems. Their actual use on the vehicle is determined by factors such as cost, legislated requirements, need for diagnostics, and value added to the system. Applications in this section will identify areas of concern, range of pressure measurement, and factors that affect the usage of a pressure sensor.

Transmission Oil Pressure and Brake Pressure. Transmission pressure is required as an input in computer-controlled transmission shift points. This pressure can be measured with sensors similar to those developed for engine oil pressure.

Pressure in a hydraulic system, such as the master cylinder of an antilock brake system (ABS), is much higher than transmission oil pressure typically requiring a sensor with minimum rating of 500 psig. Pressures in other locations in the ABS system can be lower. The dynamic pressures in brake tubing can be of interest during the development phase of passenger vehicles and may be of interest in heavy duty commercial vehicles. These pressures can be below 150 psig.

The ABS system controls front and rear tire slip. Tradeoffs that exist in developing an ABS system for a particular vehicle include stopping deceleration to achieve the shortest possible stopping distance versus more steering control. Increased yaw stability can be obtained by reducing the deceleration rate of the rear wheels. The addition of traction control to the system improves stability during acceleration and provides independent control of each wheel during a variety of driving maneuvers for improved vehicle performance.

Passenger vehicles may have a single pressure sensor to monitor the pressure in the hydraulic system. One system, General Motors' ABS-VI, provides information on the brake pressure by detecting the current going to motors in the system. For the ABS-VI system, a pres-

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sure sensor is not required to provide optimum brake pressure at each wheel. However, other systems rely on the rate of brake application and release to control lockup. Commercial vehicles may have several sensors for sensing brake pressures. Sensors close to brake cylinders report the actual pressure, which is compared to the reference value stored in the control unit.

Tire Pressure. The continuous monitoring of tire pressure offers increased fuel economy and safety to passenger cars or commercial vehicles. Underinflated tires create excessive rolling friction and therefore decrease fuel economy. Overinflated tires have excessive stress that can result in failure during operation. Improperly inflated, either over- or underinflated, tires have uneven wear patterns which decrease tire life. Available tire pressure systems consist of a tire pressure sensor (or switch) at each wheel, wheel speed indicator, temperature sensor, a radio frequency transmitter, electronic receiver/controller, and a display unit. The dashboard display provides an indication to the driver that the tires are improperly inflated. Tire pressure increases with temperature approximately 1.5 psi for every 10 °C of tire air temperature rise, so the system must provide correction for this effect. Abrupt increases in temperature and pressure can be sensed by these systems and provide a warning of eminent tire failure providing an additional safety factor.

Another tire pressure system utilizes a separate hand-held reader to easily verify the proper tire inflation when the vehicle is stationary. Yet another commercial vehicle system for trucks with dual tires operates while the vehicle is stationary and employs a visual indication for the driver that adequate pressure exists. This system provides a single fill point for the dual tires, maintains equal pressure under normal conditions, and provides an isolation valve in the event that a blowout or slow leak develops in one tire.

EGR Pressure. EGR (exhaust gas recirculation) back pressure and a pressure differential exist across the EGR valve used to control NO_x emissions in the engine control system. The valve is modulated by a vacuum which lifts a pintle from its seated position to allow exhaust gas to be recirculated. A change in vacuum pressure from 50 to 90 mm Hg is sufficient to fully open the valve, and a pressure differential across the valve of 200 mm Hg is typical. Pressure measurements are made during the development phase to determine system operating characteristics. However, a position sensor is typically used to measure the EGR valve's position and control NO_x emissions during normal vehicle operation.

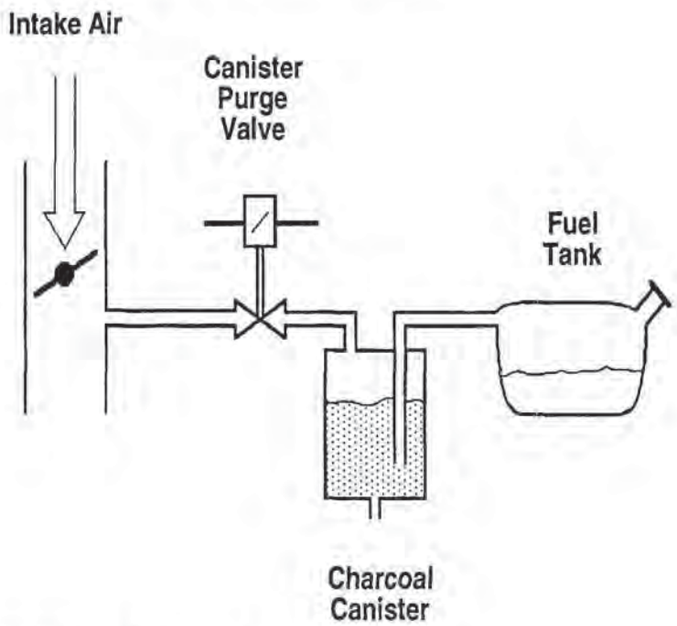


FIGURE 2.4 Canister purge system.

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Fuel Rail and Vapor Pressure. Evaporative emissions that occur when the engine is off are currently stored in an activated charcoal canister of about 850 to 1500 cc until the engine is running, as shown in Fig. 2.4. The vapors are then consumed by the combustion chamber and catalytic converter. One implementation of on-board vapor containment of refueling hydrocarbons (on-board refueling vapor recovery or ORVR) would require refueling canisters on the vehicle that could be three to four times the volume of existing canisters. If leaks need to be detected in this system, a diagnostic pressure sensor may be required.

One approach to fuel routing, employed in the 5.9-liter Dodge Magnum engine, is to mount the fuel filter and pressure regulator at the fuel tank. The fuel pump is mounted inside the tank. Therefore, since only a fuel supply line to the fuel rail and a line to the evaporative canister are necessary, the fuel return line is eliminated. This system maintains lower fuel tank temperatures, resulting in lower evaporative emissions.

Monitors required for on-board diagnostic (OBD) systems per California Air Resources Board's (CARB's) OBDII legislation were originally targeted to be phased in between model year 1994 and model year 1996. A Bosch fuel injection system with on-board diagnostics is shown in Fig. 2.5 that identifies a differential air pressure sensor for tank vapor pressure.

Overpressure Occurrences. Fuel supply pressures in automobile fuel injection systems normally operate at pressures below 75 psi; however, fuel pumps develop pressures up to 3200 psi to open injectors. Pressure spikes can be reflected back through the fuel supply system that measure up to 300 psi during each fuel injection pulse.

Overpressure created by backfire can also apply a positive pressure of 75 psi and higher to the intake manifold absolute pressure sensor. Techniques used to prevent failure from over-

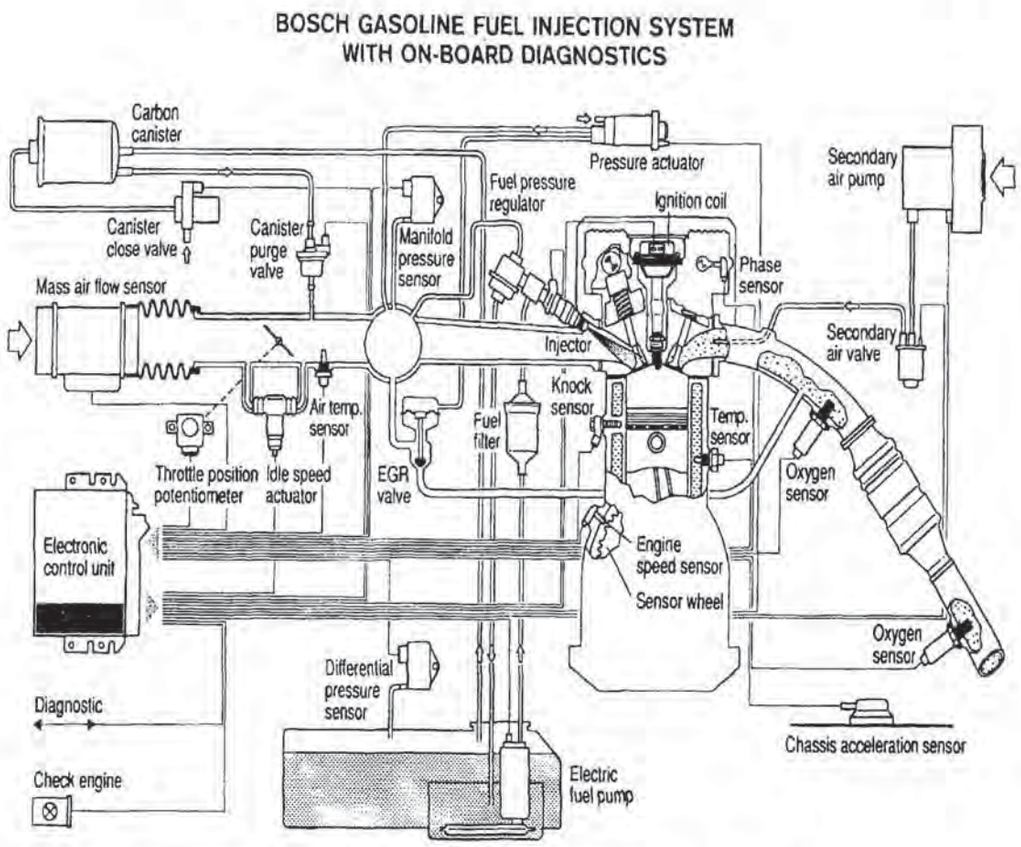


FIGURE 2.5 Fuel vapor control in electronic fuel injection system. *(Courtesy Robert Bosch, GMBh)*

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pressure include overpressure stop built into the transducer, mechanical pulse filtering, and a sensor designed to operate within the overpressure range.

Mechanical stops have been a traditional protection technique for mechanical pressure sensors. This is possible where the amount of diaphragm deflection is large. Silicon pressure sensors have a modulus of elasticity that is the same as steel (30×10^6 psi) and a yield strength (180,000 to 300,000 psi) that is higher than steel, allowing high overpressure without diaphragm damage. However, the sensor package itself must be designed to handle the maximum pressure safely.

Snubbing, or mechanical filtering, is commonly used for static pressure measurements. A small diameter tube reduces the dynamic variation in applied pressure. If dynamic measurements are desired, the ac component of the desired signal may also be attenuated.

Increasing the diaphragm thickness of the sensor to safely handle the full range of pressure within normal operating range will also result in a lower sensitivity.

Alternate Fuel and Alternate Engine Implications to Pressure. Legislation that requires a percentage of the vehicles sold in California to be LEV (low emissions vehicles) and even ZEV (zero emissions vehicles) is increasing the demand for alternate fuel and electric vehicles. Among the alternate fuel vehicles, CNG (compressed natural gas) and hydrogen cells most likely would require sensors for pressure measurements. CNG is pressurized at 3000 psi and the distribution system includes pressure regulators, a transducer, valves, and idle air solenoids. Before the natural gas enters the engine, a regulator reduces the fuel pressure to near atmospheric pressure. Sensing may be required in both low- and high-pressure portions of the system. Development of alternative engines, such as the two-stroke engine for vehicle applications, will utilize electronics for control functions similar to four-cycle engines. However, the range and necessity for pressure measurements will differ from four-cycle engines. The pressure range for direct fuel injection is considerably higher for a two-stroke engine. The need to control the oil pump may necessitate pressure sensing in two-stroke systems as well.

Hydrogen fuel cells are another potential source of energy for use in electric vehicles. In one design, the proton-exchange membrane (PEM) design, a turbocompressor is used to pressurize the system and maintain hydration of the membrane. A pressure of at least three atmospheres (0.3 MPa) is required to remove the water. This pressure or the pressure drop across the membrane may need to be monitored during operation.

2.2.3 Other Applications for Pressure Sensors

Pressure sensors can be used on vehicles for measuring flow through pressure differential, or delta-P, measurements and for determining liquid level.

Delta-P (Flow-Sensing) Measurements. Applications on the vehicle for flow sensing include mass air flow; heating compartment flow; oil, fuel, and cooling liquid flow; and vehicle flow in an air stream. Mass air flow is typically accomplished by hot-wire anemometer or Karman vortex flow meters which do not use pressure-sensing techniques. Other vehicle flow requirements, including the pressure drop across the air filter, could be sensed and monitored by a differential pressure sensor. In addition to requirements such as media compatibility (Sec. 2.2.1), the lower-level signals require higher-sensitivity pressure sensors and/or additional amplification and must tolerate faults that could apply full line pressure to only one side of the sensor.

One of the more interesting applications of differential pressure measurements applied to flow analysis is the flow of the vehicle itself relative to crosswinds. A rear-wheel steering system developed by Daimler-Benz uses two pressure sensors to measure the pressure caused by wind on the vehicle's sides. An electronic control unit analyzes the pressure difference and inputs from other sensors, and alters the rear-wheel setting according to the wind strength. The system that measures the crosswinds directly is faster than yaw sensors, which are reactive and measure the change in attitude and direction of the vehicle.

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Other laboratory measurements of airflow and crosswind force have also been made by Daimler-Benz that utilize 10 differential pressure gages with a range of ±3700 kPa. All pressure sensors were connected to a single pressure vessel to have a common reference. The reference pressure was measured by a 100-kPa absolute pressure sensor. The measurements were used to determine aerodynamic forces and moments and to compensate for wind effects in an active steering system.

Fluid Level Sensing. Various liquid levels can be measured in a vehicle, as shown in Table 2.4. All of these requirements, except fuel level, could be satisfied by a switch that simply detects that a predefined minimum level of liquid has been reached so that a driver indication can be provided. This can be accomplished by directly illuminating a dash lamp or through a microcontroller in a body computer which activates an output driver.

TABLE 2.4 Liquid Level Measurements

Level	Type	Range
Engine oil	Switch	38.1 cm of water
Transmission oil	Switch	30.5 cm of water
Coolant	Switch	61 cm of water
Windshield washer fluid	Switch	30.5 cm of water
Battery	Refraction switch	5.1 cm below reference
Power steering fluid	Switch	7.6 cm below reference
Brake fluid	Switch	30.5 cm of water
Fuel	Sensor and switch	38.1 cm of water

Sensing the fuel level has traditionally been performed by a float to sense the fluid level and a variable resistor with the wiper arm connected to the float. Configuration for the sensor depends upon the specific tank for which it was designed, necessitating a unique sensor for each vehicle. Manufacturers with several different vehicle models have the additional impetus to replace the existing techniques with a nonwearing, more accurate, self-calibrating electronic alternative. However, media compatibility for fuel level is among the harshest requirements for a pressure sensor. In addition to gasoline, oxygenated fuels containing ethanol, methanol, benzene, MTBE, engine additives, and even sour gas must be tolerated by the sensor. Nonintrusive differential sensors isolate the liquid from the sensor interface but must still tolerate fuel vapors. Also, the sloshing of the fuel in a vehicle's tank requires a time amplitude filter to smooth out the indication provided to the driver.

2.2.4 Combustion Pressure

The direct measurement of combustion pressure is being investigated for detecting misfire to meet CARB OBDII requirements. The high pressure (≥16 MPa) and temperature ranges combined with other environment factors make the design of a pressure sensor for this application extremely expensive. As a result, other techniques are being developed as alternatives to direct pressure measurement. These technologies include optical, fiberoptics measuring luminous emissions from combustion, and noncontact torque sensors. Section 2.3.7 explains a fiber optic technique.

The operation of the reciprocating-piston, internal combustion engine is represented by a constant volume process and the engine power cycle is analyzed by using pressure-versus-volume and pressure-versus-crank angle diagrams. To obtain these measurements in a laboratory environment a number of techniques have been developed. Direct (in-cylinder) pressure measurements have been performed with small diameter piezoresistive sensors placed in (or near) the sparkplug and piezoelectric washers placed under the spark plug. A high natural fre-

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quency is required for these sensors based on the dynamic measurement involved in the combustion process. Indirect measurements with shaft torque and optical phase shift are additional possibilities. The need to determine misfire due to component failure during vehicle operation is part of OBDII requirements. A sensor used on production vehicles will be required to survive the high pressure and temperature environment for the life of the vehicle, which could be 100,000 miles and 10 years. It must also have no need for periodic zeroing or calibration and be available at a low cost.

2.2.5 Other Pressure Measurements

An adaptive suspension system (see Chap. 17) can be accomplished with an air pressure controlled shock absorber damping, such as Mitsubishi's Active-ECS (Electronically Controlled Suspension). This system has two air pumps and nine solenoids that regulate air pressure based on inputs from sensors including an air pressure sensor in the rear of the vehicle that measures the passenger and cargo load. The driver can select soft, medium, or hard suspension. Another system utilizes an air reservoir charged to a pressure of 1 Mpa by a compressor. A pressure switch monitors when the pressure drops below 760 kPa to recharge the reservoir. Air springs operate at 300 kPa unloaded and at 600 kPa in the rear when fully loaded.

HVAC (heating, ventilating, and air conditioning) changes are occurring as manufacturers are required to convert from refrigerant CFC-12 to alternatives such as HFC-134a. The theoretical performance of these two refrigerants will mean about a 6 percent loss in efficiency, compressor discharge pressure that is 175 kPa higher, and a discharge temperature that is about 8 °C lower. Measuring the compressor discharge pressure (almost 1900 kPa for the HFC-134a system) is desirable for electric load control as vehicles add more requirements to the 12-V charging system. Also, the effect on engine performance and fuel economy when the A/C is used could make the refrigerant pressure sensor a standard vehicle sensor in the future. An absolute sensor used to measure gage pressure of the refrigerant provides a deadhead effect to prevent refrigerant loss in the event of a sensing diaphragm failure.

The measurement of the pressure developed when the air bag is inflated is part of the evaluation, qualification, and lot acceptance criteria of air bag inflating techniques. Time-to-peak pressure and peak tank pressure measurements require measurements in the tens of milliseconds range. Inflated bag pressures are in the range of 100 kPa or less. Hybrid inflators use a stored inert gas, such as argon, in place of sodium-azide propellant that requires a squib for ignition. The hybrid uses a pressure sensor to monitor the status of the stored gas.

Special heavy duty/commercial truck measurements require pressure measurements that are quite different from those made on passenger cars. Accumulator-type fuel injection systems for direct injection diesel engines have fuel pressurized to 20 to 100 MPa in the accumulator by a high-pressure pump. The accumulator pressure is monitored in this approach to reduce particulates. Another method to reduce diesel particulates utilizes a ceramic fiber as a filter in a canister. A pressure sensor monitors the backpressure and allows the full filter to be regenerated by burning off the accumulated particulates in the filter. A heater element in the trap has power supplied from the power-switching module. A temperature approaching 1300 °F (700 °C) is reached inside the filter cartridge to incinerate the particles.

Lumbar support systems utilize a pressurized system with a pressure sensor ($\leq$7.5 psig) as the feedback element controlling the air pump to provide additional support to the driver's lower back in luxury vehicles. Pressure-sensitive grids have been used in the development process to automatically measure up to 3600 contact points for visual display and weight distribution analysis.

2.2.6 Partial Pressure Measurements

The oxygen (or lambda-) sensor in engine control systems is a chemical sensor that utilizes partial pressures to provide a feedback signal for the closed-loop control system. Lambda is

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defined as the actual air/fuel ratio divided by the stoichiometric (14.6) fuel ratio. The operation of the oxygen sensor is defined by the Nernst equation: $U_L = RT/4F \cdot 1n(P_{O2}''/P_{O2}')$, where U_L is the unloaded output voltage of the sensor, R is the universal gas constant, T is the absolute temperature, F is the Faraday constant, P_{O2}'' is the oxygen partial pressure of the air (about 2.9 psi), and P_{O2}' is the equilibrium partial pressure of the oxygen in the exhaust gases. Equilibrium occurs due to the catalytic activity of the platinum electrodes used to coat the inside and outside of the Y_2O_3 stabilized ZrO_2 ceramic electrode. The oxygen partial pressure changes by a factor of 10^7 at 900°C (or 10^{19} at 500°C) when the exhaust gas changes from a reducing environment (lambda = 0.999) to an oxidizing environment (lambda = 1.001).

2.3 TECHNOLOGIES FOR SENSING PRESSURE

A number of technologies have been used for on-vehicle measurements of static and dynamic pressure: diaphragm-potentiometer, linear variable differential transformer (LVDT), aneroid, silicon or ceramic capacitive, piezoresistive strain gage, piezoelectric ceramic or film, and optical phase shift (combustion pressure). Recent advances in sensing have focused on transducers that provide an electric signal easily interfaced to microcontrollers. Mechanical devices are frequently used in the laboratory for calibration and component development or on the vehicle during the development phase of the vehicle systems. Common mechanical devices include the Bourdon tube, bellows, diaphragms, deadweight gage, and manometer.

The Bourdon tube is a curved or twisted, flattened tube with one end closed that acts as a force collector. When pressure is applied at the open end, the tube tends to straighten and the resulting motion is used as an indication of the applied pressure.

The bellows, or pressure capsule, is a chamber that expands with applied pressure. Absolute pressure can be measured by sealing a reference pressure (e.g., vacuum) inside a closed unit and applying pressure to the outside. The movement of the chamber is proportional to the applied pressure.

Diaphragms are the most common force collector used in modern pressure sensors. The diaphragm material can be rubber, elastomer, stainless steel, silicon, ceramic, or even sapphire. Diaphragm shapes are circular or square and can be supported or clamped around their periphery.

A deadweight tester or piston gage can withstand extreme pressure changes and high overpressure occurrences. The piston is sealed in a cylinder using O-ring or Teflon seals. Pressure on the piston causes a deflection that can be measured by position-sensing techniques. Precision weights allow calibration for high-accuracy measurements. The deadweight tester is one of the few pressure-sensing techniques that measures pressure in terms of its fundamental units—force and area. Errors associated with the measurement are air-bouyancy corrections, gravity error, surface tension, fluidhead, and thermal expansivity. These errors are normally small but should be taken into account when high accuracy is required.

The manometer is used both as a pressure-measuring instrument and a standard for calibrating other instruments. Its simplicity and inherent accuracy result from it being the measurement of the height(s) of a column of liquid. Three basic types of manometers are the U-tube, well (cistern), and slant-tube.

Other measurement devices including McLeod, Pirani, Alphatron, and thermocouple gages which can measure vacuum in the range of 10^{-5} mm Hg.

Sensing techniques that provide a transducer for conversion from mechanical to electrical units include resistive, LVDT, capacitive, piezoresistive, and piezoelectric.

2.3.1 Potentiometric Pressure Sensors

Prior to electronic engine control systems, carburetor dashpots and distributor vacuum advance units used the distance that a rubber diaphragm traveled when pressure was applied

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as a mechanical indication of pressure. A diaphragm which moves a potentiometer (resistor with a sliding element or wiper) provides an electric signal that can be applied to a remote gage such as an oil pressure gage. Potentiometric sensors inherently have some level of noise and wear associated with their operation due to the contact of the wiper to the resistive element. Stiction or static friction is also a potential concern with these devices, especially if control of ≤0.5 percent of the total resistance is required. The finite resolution of wirewound potentiometers is overcome by the use of newer thin-film plastic resistor designs.

2.3.2 Linear Variable Differential Transformer

One of the earliest pressure inputs for engine control systems was provided by the LVDT pressure sensor. The principle of operation is demonstrated in Fig. 2.6. An LVDT pressure sensor consists of a primary winding and two secondary windings positioned on a movable cylindrical core. The core is attached to a force collector which provides differential coupling from the primary to the secondaries resulting in a position output that is proportional to pressure.

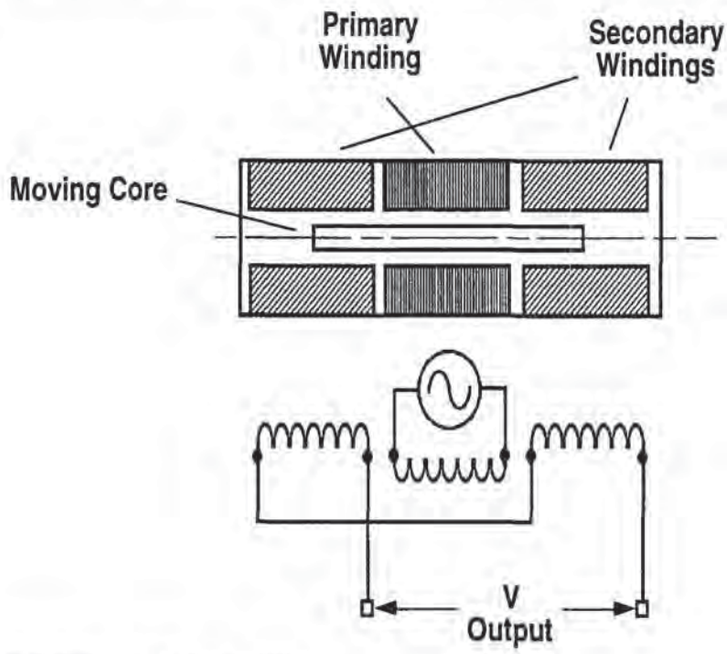


FIGURE 2.6 LVDT pressure sensor.

An alternating current is used to energize the primary winding, which results in a voltage being induced in each of the secondary windings. The windings are connected in series opposing, so the equal but opposite output of each winding tends to cancel (except for a small residual voltage called the null voltage). A pressure applied to a Bourdon tube or diaphragm causes the core to be displaced from its null position and the coupling between the primary and each of the secondaries is no longer equal. The resulting output varies linearly within the design range of the transducer and has a phase change of 180° from one side of the null position to the other. Since the core and coil structures are not in physical contact, essentially frictionless movement occurs.

Electronic devices necessary to signal condition the output of an LVDT consist of an oscillator for the supply voltage, circuitry to transform the constant voltage to a constant current, an amplifier with high input impedance for the output, a synchronous demodulator, and a filter with characteristics designed for quasistatic or dynamic measurements.

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2.3.3 Aneroid Diaphragms

Another early design for sensing automotive manifold pressure consisted of dual sealed aneroid diaphragms. The diaphragms were bonded and sealed with a vacuum inside each unit to a metallized conductive ring on opposite sides of a ceramic substrate. The substrate served as the fixed plates of two separate capacitors. Manifold vacuum was applied to one chamber and the second served as a reference for compensating and signal conditioning that minimized common mode errors due to vibration and shock.

2.3.4 Capacitive Pressure Sensors

Capacitive pressure sensors have one plate that is connected to a force collector (usually a diaphragm), and the distance between the plates varies as a result of the applied pressure. The nominal capacitance is $C = Ae/d$, where A is the area of the plate, e is the permittivity, and d is the distance between the plates. Two common capacitive pressure sensors used in automotive applications are based on silicon and ceramic capacitors.

Silicon. A silicon capacitive absolute pressure (SCAP)-sensing element is shown in Fig. 2.7. The micromachined silicon diaphragm with controlled cavity depth is anodically bonded to a Pyrex® glass substrate. Feedthrough holes are drilled in the glass to provide a precise connection to the capacitor plates inside the unit. The glass substrate is metallized using thin-film deposition techniques. Photolithography is used to define the electrode configuration. After attaching the top silicon wafer to the glass substrate, the drilled holes are solder-sealed under vacuum to provide a capacitive-sensing element with an internal vacuum reference and solder bumps for direct mounting to a circuit board or ceramic substrate. The value of the capacitor changes linearly from approximately 32 to 39 pF with applied pressure from 17 to 105 kPa. The capacitive element is 6.7 mm × 6.7 mm and has a low-temperature coefficient of capacitance (–30 to 80 ppm/°C), good linearity (≈1.4 percent), fast response time (≈1 ms), and no

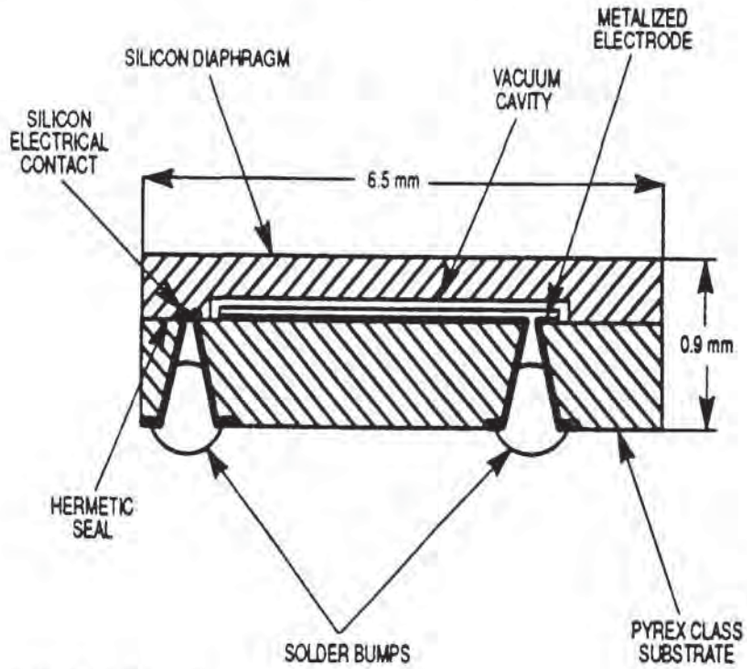


FIGURE 2.7 SCAP sensor.

exposed bond wires. The output of the sensor is typically signal-conditioned to provide a frequency variation with applied pressure for easy interface to microcontrollers.

Surface micromachining and bulk micromachined silicon-on-silicon techniques (see Sec. 2.3.5) have also been used to build silicon capacitive pressure sensors. These approaches also address the addition of signal-conditioning electronics on the same silicon structure.

Ceramic. The ability to make thin diaphragms from ceramic material combined with thin-film deposition to provide metal plates and connections has been used to manufacture ceramic pressure sensors. Their operation and signal-conditioning requirements are similar to the silicon capacitive sensor described in Sec. 2.3.4.

2.3.5 Piezoresistive Strain Gage

Strain-gage pressure sensors convert the change in resistance in four (sometimes in two) arms of a Wheatstone bridge. The change in the resistance of a material when it is mechanically stressed is called piezoresistivity.

The open-circuit voltage of an unbalanced Wheatstone bridge is given by $V_O = \mathbf{E}[(R1*R3 - R2*R4)/(R1 + R2)(R3 + R4)]$, where V_O is the output voltage, **E** is the applied voltage, and $R1$ through $R4$ are the resistive elements of the bridge. Additional variable resistive elements are typically added to adjust for zero-offset and sensitivity, and to provide temperature compensation.

Different approaches to piezoresistive strain gages range from traditional bonded and unbonded to the newest integrated silicon pressure sensors.

Bonded and Unbonded Strain Gages. The bonded resistance strain-gage pressure sensor consists of a filament-wire or foil, metallic or semiconductor, bulk material or deposited film bonded to the surface of a diaphragm. Pressure applied to the diaphragm produces a change in the dimension of the diaphragm and, consequently, in the length of the gage, and, therefore, a change in its resistance ($R = \rho\, L/A$). The change per unit length is called strain. The sensitivity of a strain gage is indicated by gage factor

$$GF = \Delta R/R \div \Delta L/L = 1 + 2\mu + \Delta\rho/\rho \div \Delta L/L \tag{2.1}$$

Foil strain gages have a negligible piezoresistive effect and their gage factor is usually between 2 and 3.

When a pressure sensor is used for measuring an applied force it is called a load cell.

Integrated Silicon Pressure Sensors. The GF for a strain gage is improved considerably (to about 150) by using a silicon strain gage. In addition to the conventional Wheatstone bridge, silicon processing techniques, and the relative size of piezoresistive elements in silicon enable the design of a unique piezoresistive sensor. The sensor signal can be provided from a single piezoresistive element located at a 45° angle in the center of the edge of a square diaphragm which provides an extremely linear measurement. The offset voltage and full scale span of the basic sensing element vary with temperature, but in a highly predictable manner. In addition to the basic sensing element, an interactively laser-trimmed four-stage network has also been integrated into a single monolithic structure (Fig. 2.8). The size of the silicon die, including the diaphragm, sensing element, and signal-conditioning electronics, is only 0.135 in by 0.145 in. The die is attached to the six-terminal package through the use of a stress-isolating layer of RTV (room temperature vulcanizing) silicone. This approach allows a minimum of external components for amplification to provide a usable output signal.

Two silicon wafers are used to produce the absolute piezoresistive silicon pressure sensor (Fig. 2.9). The top wafer is etched until a thin, square diaphragm, approximately one mil in thickness, is achieved. The square area is extremely reproducible as is the 54.7° angle of the cavity wall based on the characteristics of bulk micromachined silicon. The top wafer is

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FIGURE 2.8 Silicon pressure sensor with integrated electronics. *(Courtesy Motorola, Inc.)*

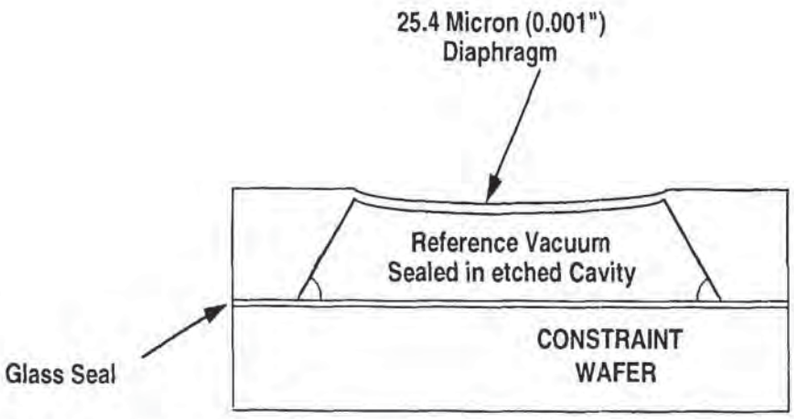


FIGURE 2.9 Cross section of piezoresistive silicon pressure sensor for measuring absolute pressure.

attached to a support wafer by a glass frit to provide a structure which is isolated from mounting stresses.

The bulk micromachining process used to form the diaphragm and the etched cavity in the majority of silicon pressure sensors is a chemical etching process that allows a thin (0.001-in) mechanical structure—the diaphragm—to be precisely etched from a silicon wafer that is approximately 0.015 in thick. Hundreds of sensors can be formed simultaneously on a 4-in (100-mm) diameter silicon wafer, and several wafers can be batch-processed to yield thousands of sensors in a single lot. Silicon pressure sensors can also be achieved by using surface micromachining techniques. In these sensors, a layer of sacrificial material (usually an oxide) is grown on top of a silicon wafer, and material such as polysilicon is then deposited on the sacrificial layer and patterned to achieve a particular structure. The sacrificial material is removed by a chemical etchant. Both bulk and surface micromachining techniques can be combined with semiconductor processing techniques to provide additional circuitry on the same monolithic structure. A number of new terms are used relative to silicon pressure sensors that are defined in the glossary to this section.

Both bulk and surface micromachining, discussed previously, are performed at the wafer level. A polysilicon thin-film sensor that consists of a thin film of silicon that is doped with boron and vapor-deposited over a stainless steel diaphragm is shown in Fig. 2.10. A thin deposited layer of silicon dioxide insulates the silicon from the stainless steel diaphragm. Silicon nitride is used to cover the strain-sensitive elements. Silicon-on-insulated-stainless-steel (SOISS) sensors are not formed using silicon wafer techniques, but they use batch-processing techniques and are inherently suited for harsh environments.

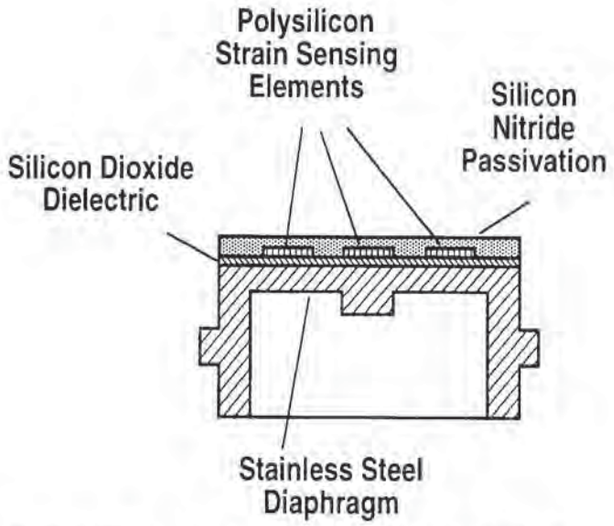


FIGURE 2.10 Polysilicon pressure sensor on stainless steel diaphragm.

2.3.6 Piezoelectric Pressure Sensors

A piezoelectric sensor produces a change in electric charge when a force is applied across the face of a crystal or piezoelectric film. The inherent ability to sense vibration and the necessity for high-impedance circuitry are taken into account in the design of modern piezocrystal sensors. Transducers are constructed with rigid multiple plates and a cultured-quartz sensing element, which contains an integral accelerometer to minimize vibration sensitivity and suppress resonances. A typical unit also contains a built-in microelectronic amplifier to transform the high-impedance electrostatic charge output from the crystals into a low-impedance voltage signal. Units made in stainless steel housings have an invar diaphragm laser welded to seal the

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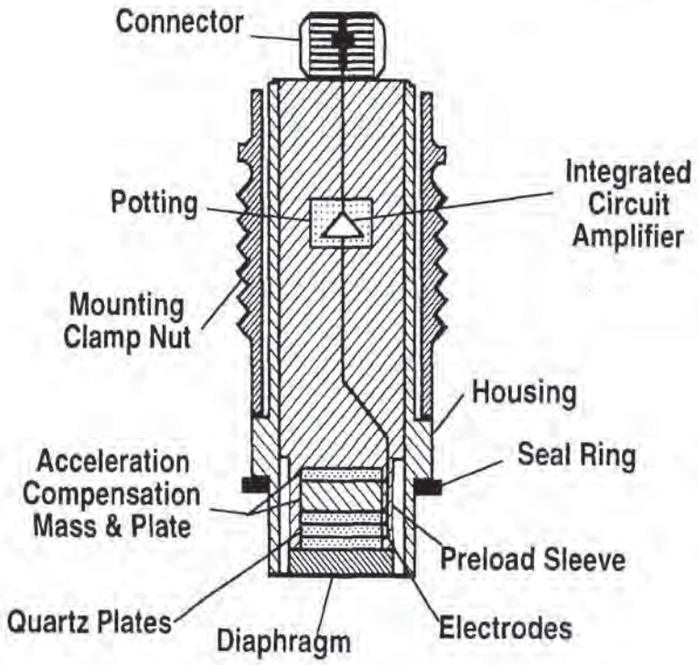


FIGURE 2.11 Piezoelectric pressure sensor.

sensing elements inside the package. Figure 2.11 shows the cross section of a piezoelectric pressure sensor.

More recently, piezo film sensors, which produce an output voltage when they are deflected, provide a very inexpensive method for pressure measurements. One approach has the piezo film cemented to a metallic dimple substrate with the dimple pointed toward the high-pressure source. As the pressure rises, a point is reached when the dimple snaps in the opposite direction and the movement is sufficient for the piezo film to generate a transient voltage.

Surface micromachining techniques have also been combined with piezoelectric thin-film materials, such as zinc oxide, to produce a semiconductor piezoelectric pressure sensor.

2.3.7 Fiber Optic Combustion Pressure Sensor

For extremely high pressure, or pressure measurements at high temperatures, different pressure measurement techniques are used. Figure 2.12 shows an alternative to traditional pressure-sensing techniques that is being developed to sense production vehicles' combustion

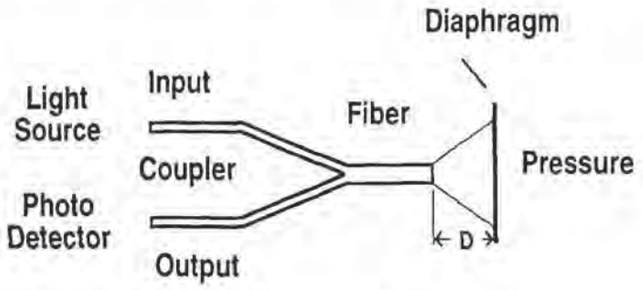


FIGURE 2.12 Fiber optic combustion pressure sensor.

pressure. The fiber optic pressure sensor can withstand temperatures (up to 550 °C) that are well above the normal range for piezoelectric sensors. Furthermore, the design has a normal pressure range of 0 to 1000 psi and overrange capability of 3000 psi.

The sensor's operation is the result of a light source input to an optical fiber coupler and a photodetector at the receiving end of the coupler. Light exits the optical fiber as a diverging cone which illuminates a diaphragm. The maximum angle is determined by an aperture. The amount of light that is returned to the sensor fiber after it is reflected from the diaphragm depends upon the gap D between the fiber and the diaphragm. The diaphragm can be sized to allow the sensor to be integrated into a spark plug for easy access to the combustion pressure of each cylinder. Accuracy within 5 percent has been demonstrated within the 550 °C operating temperature range.

2.3.8 Pressure Switch

A pressure switch can be simpler and more cost effective than a pressure sensor for an application that only requires detecting a single pressure level. Sufficient motion of the force-collecting diaphragm (e.g., elastomer, Kapton®, fluorosilicon) allows a spring to be compressed and a set of contacts to be closed in a traditional mechanical switch. The design of the contacts may allow several amperes to be switched.

Converting the output of any of the electric sensors in Sec. 2.3 to a threshold-sensing level requires additional circuits, including an electronic switch, such as a power FET, to conduct the current. The sensor can have multiple switch points depending on the amount of additional circuitry that is provided.

2.3.9 Pressure Valves/Regulators

Pressure is frequently controlled in automotive applications by pressure regulators or valves. The actuation of these mechanisms can be a result of applied pressure to a mechanical structure such as an integral piston or relief valve held closed by a spring force, or an electric signal generated from a sensor and subsequent activation of a solenoid, which opens a valve or moves a pintle in an orifice to change the pressure. The thermostat in the engine cooling system allows flow based on a minimum temperature being achieved. It must operate independently of the pressure variations in the cooling system. A common solution is an expansion-element thermostat which actuates a valve to redirect the flow of coolant into a radiator bypass line when the control temperature is reached.

Extremely small and precise silicon-based regulators, and even pumps, are possible using micromachining techniques. Figure 2.13 shows a silicon Fluistor™ (or fluidic transistor) microvalve that is approximately 5.5 mm by 6.5 mm by 2 mm. The valve is actually a thermopneumatic actuator which accepts an electric input. The cavity is etched in the middle silicon chip by bulk micromachining described in Sec. 2.3.4 and filled with a control liquid. When the liquid is heated, the silicon diaphragm moves outward over the valve seat. This approach has demonstrated a dynamic range of 100,000:1 controlling gas flows from 4 μlpm to 4 lpm at a pressure of 20 psid.

The microvalve combined with a pressure sensor and electronic feedback loop provides a solid state pressure regulator. It has potential for usage in both gas and liquid flow control applications on future vehicles. The integration of EGR and idle-air control (IAC) has already been accomplished in a somewhat conventional (patented) manner. A feedback-controlled valve with two inlets and a single outlet orifice eliminate stepper motor programming in the engine controller and only one calibration curve is needed for both EGR and IAC functions. The combination of this approach to control systems and newly developed technologies, such as the silicon microvalve, will allow additional advances in vehicle performance, efficiency, and control.

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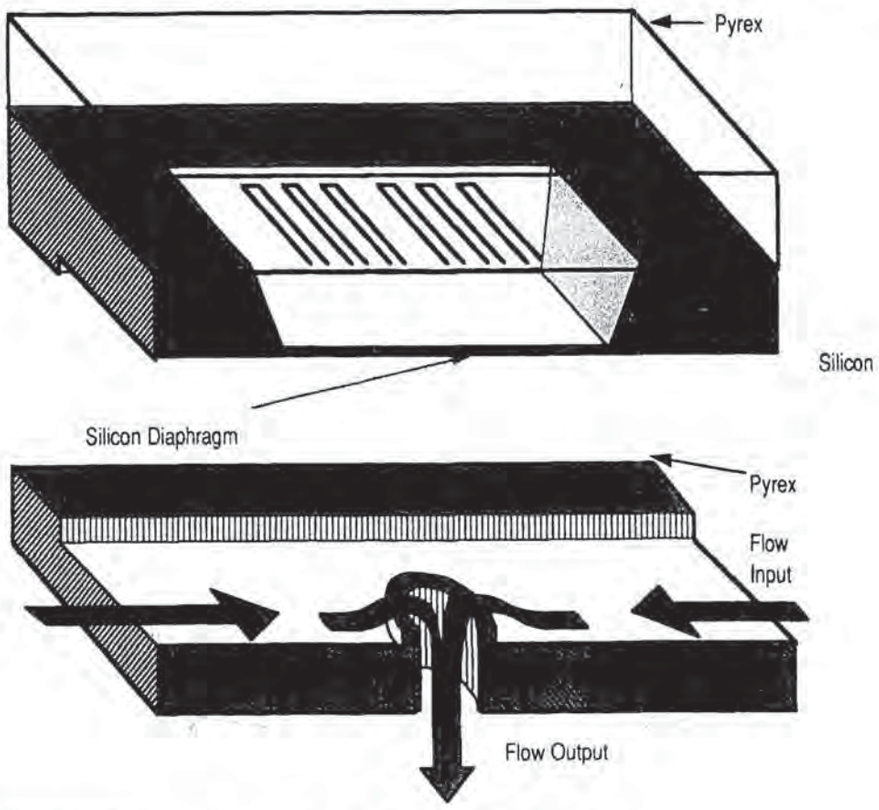


FIGURE 2.13 Silicon microvalve. *(Courtesy of Redwood MicroSystems, Inc.)*

2.4 FUTURE PRESSURE-SENSING DEVELOPMENTS

The different types of pressure measurements, different technologies for measuring pressure, and potential pressure measurements in automotive applications have been explained in this chapter. In addition, alternatives to making pressure measurements, such as indirect sensing and the use of pressure regulators, have been discussed. The use of semiconductor technology applied to sensing applications is producing sensors with inherently more decision and diagnostic capability that can communicate bidirectionally with host microcomputers in complex systems. The desire to directly produce a signal that is compatible with microcomputers rather than requiring analog signals to be converted to digital format through A/D converters is spurring development activity that could affect future automobile systems. Furthermore, recently developed fuzzy logic and neural network approaches to control systems and multiplexing of sensor outputs for use in several systems will make previously cost-prohibitive sensing applications a reality.

Increased and recently initiated sensing activity from industrial organizations such as SAE, the American National Standards Institute (ANSI), and the Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE) should provide a greater level of understanding, common terminology, and improved specifications and test procedures for the numerous approaches that can be taken to sense pressure in automotive applications.

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GLOSSARY

Altimetric pressure transducer A barometric pressure transducer used to determine altitude from the pressure-altitude profile.

Diaphragm The membrane of material that remains after etching a cavity into the silicon sensing chip. Changes in input pressure cause the diaphragm to deflect.

Error band The band of maximum deviations of the output values from a specified reference line or curve due to those causes attributable to the sensor. Usually expressed as "±% of full-scale output." The error band should be specified as applicable over at least two calibration cycles so as to include repeatability and verified accordingly.

Linearity error The maximum deviation of the output from a straight-line relationship with pressure over the operating pressure range. The type of straight-line relationship (end-point, least-square approximation, etc.) should be specified.

Operating pressure range The range of pressures between minimum and maximum pressures at which the output will meet the specified operating characteristics.

Overpressure The maximum specified pressure that may be applied to the sensing element of a sensor without causing a permanent change in the output characteristics.

Piezoresistance A resistive element that changes resistance relative to the applied stress it experiences (e.g., strain gauge).

Pressure error The maximum difference between the true pressure and the pressure inferred from the output for any pressure in the operating pressure range.

Pressure sensor A device that converts an input pressure into an electric output.

Ratiometric (ratiometricity error) At a given supply voltage, sensor output is a proportion of that supply voltage. Ratiometricity error is the change in this proportion resulting from any change to the supply voltage. Usually expressed as a percent of full-scale output.

Response time The time required for the incremental change in the output to go from 10 to 90 percent of its final value when subjected to a specified step change in pressure.

Temperature error The maximum change in output at any pressure in the operating pressure range when the temperature is changed over a specified temperature range.

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CHAPTER 3
LINEAR AND ANGLE POSITION SENSORS

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3.1 INTRODUCTION

Position sensors of one form or another are an integral and necessary part of the modern automobile. Position sensors range in technology from the ubiquitous microswitch warning to the driver of a door ajar to linear variable differential transformers (LVDTs) used in sophisticated active suspension systems. Whether as monitors or as critical parts of safety systems, market and legislative pressures for longer warranties and lower emissions are opening avenues for a wide range of sensing technologies to find a place in the modern automobile.

The automotive systems designer must take into account many factors when choosing the appropriate technology for an application. Each sensor type has its own vocabulary, and it is important when making comparisons to understand how a figure of merit for one sensor relates to that of another. It is equally important to understand how the choice of output signal format, whether digital or analog, can affect the resolution of measurement and subsequently the performance or stability of an automotive system.

The purpose of this chapter is to give an overview of position sensor technologies currently used and available for use in automobiles and to compare their characteristics and suitability for particular applications. Consideration is given to the interfacing requirements of each type of sensor with an emphasis on the advantages and disadvantages of each method as they apply in the automotive environment. Where appropriate, descriptions of applications of the various sensor types in automobile applications are given. Other available technologies and technologies in development which have desirable characteristics for automotive applications are also discussed.

3.2 CLASSIFICATION OF SENSORS

Sensors may be classified in many different ways. From the perspective of a system designer, the basic questions are: What kind of information does the sensor provide and how is the sensor used? For the purposes of this discussion, a position sensor is defined as an electromechanical device that translates position information into electric signals. Sensors can be grouped into two basic categories.

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3.2.1 Incremental or Absolute

Position information can be presented in two different ways. Incremental position sensors measure position as the distance from an arbitrary index or zero. Alternatively, position information may be provided that gives an unambiguous or absolute measure of the distance from a well-defined index.

Incremental sensors usually rely on some method of pulse counting. One pulse in the sequence is designed to be wider or of opposite polarity than the others so that it may be used as a nominal zero. A typical optical angle encoder consists of a glass disk marked with a number of equally spaced radial opaque lines and transparent gaps. The disk is illuminated on one side and a light sensor and associated electronics on the other side detect the passage of dark lines and gaps and generate corresponding electric pulses. Dedicated electronics built into the sensor or a remote microcontroller can be used to count the pulses. A zero is established by detecting the wider pulse, known as *North Marker* in optical encoder terminology, and then resetting the pulse counter. The advantage of this data format is that few wires are required to carry the information. Typically, four or five wires would be required depending on the exact details of the format (see Sec. 3.3.2). The biggest disadvantage of incremental sensors is that at power-up the system has no position information and requires a mechanical indexing cycle to find the marker pulse. Another disadvantage is that the system is prone to the effects of noise, which may lead to erroneous counts.

In contrast, absolute position sensors produce an unambiguous output at power-up. Each position or angle has a unique value. The output may be a voltage or frequency or other analog of the input position. Potentiometers are often used in applications requiring this characteristic. Many absolute position sensors have binary digital outputs. The digital formats vary depending on the construction of the sensor. Some optical encoders use Gray code to avoid ambiguities at code transitions. Other sensors, such as resolvers, do not directly produce a digital output but are almost always used with an analog-to-digital converter that may output in parallel or serial form one of the common formats—for example, two's complement or offset binary.

3.2.2 Contact or Proximity

Position sensors are designed to detect the position of components of mechanical systems by either being directly coupled by some shaft or linkage, as in the case of potentiometers or optical encoders, or by some noncontact or proximity means. Environmental issues are often a key influence in the choice of sensor for a given application. High levels of vibration, particularly in small engine applications, may cause rapid wear of the conductive track of a throttle-position-measuring potentiometer. Dirt and dust usually exclude optical sensors from underhood applications due to rapid degradation of the optical path.

The most common form of proximity sensors are based on various methods of magnetic field detection. A device based on magnetic field sensing principles may be more easily isolated from the destructive effects of the harsh environment encountered in many automotive applications.

3.3 POSITION SENSOR TECHNOLOGIES

3.3.1 Microswitches

The simplest form of contact sensor is a switch. Contact position sensors may be as simple as the microswitches that operate anything from brake lights to courtesy lights in the automobile. Many applications of microswitches in position sensing are as limit switches, usually

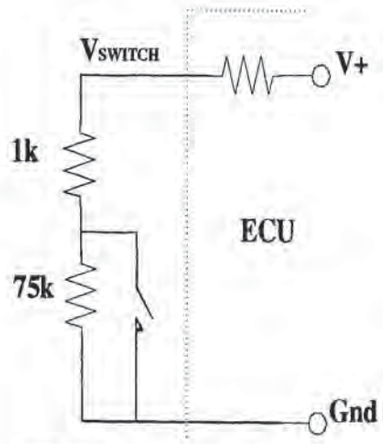


FIGURE 3.1 Diagnosable switch.

wired to limit or warn of the extent of travel of a mechanical component by disconnecting power to an electric motor or by operating an indicator lamp. In some cases, for safety reasons, it is desirable to be able to detect fault conditions that would make the switch inoperable. In some applications, it is possible to connect the switch as shown in Fig. 3.1. In this case, a diagnostic circuit measuring the voltage, V_{SWITCH}, can differentiate between the normal conditions of switch open or closed and can also determine if the switch is disconnected or if V_{SWITCH} is shorted to either power supply.

An undesirable characteristic of switches is that the contacts may bounce on closing. If it is important in the application that the first switching edge is detected, then a simple switch-debouncing logic that rejects noisy signals can be used. If a microcontroller is used to monitor the switch output, then debouncing can be accomplished by software means. This may be a better solution in applications subject to shock or heavy vibration, which may cause occasional false switching. In these cases, a microcontroller can be configured to poll the switch over some period of time and report switch closure only if a number of consecutive readings are the same.

3.3.2 Optical

Optical angle encoders for incremental shaft angular position measurement are constructed of a disk with a series of transparent and opaque equally spaced sectors. The disk can be made of glass for precision applications. Mylar film and metal disks offer high and medium resolutions, respectively, at low cost. The encoder disk is illuminated on one side and light sensors on the other side detect the passage of light and dark sectors as the disk is rotated. (Low-resolution versions such as the Hewlett-Packard HRPG series use an alternative reflective technology.) Most encoders have two sets of light sources and detectors offset by half the width of a sector. Figure 3.2 shows the relationship between the outputs of the light sensors as the encoder is rotated. This format is often referred to as "A quad B," since the signals are in quadrature. The passage of one pair of light and dark sectors over a detector is referred to variously as one cycle, one count, one line or 360 electrical degrees (°e). Encoder resolutions range from around 16 counts per revolution (CPR) for low-cost applications to over 6000 CPR for precision position control systems. Most encoders also include a third signal for use as an index or reference pulse. The index, or North marker as it is sometimes called, occurs once per revolution. The pulse width is usually equal to 90 °e.[1]

Four separate states, each of 90 °e, can be derived from the A and B outputs using integrated circuits available from a number of vendors. This allows a resolution of four times the number of lines on the encoder disk to be achieved. These ICs also determine the direction of rotation of the encoder by observing which output leads the other. By convention for clockwise rotation, the low-to-high transition of A leads the low-to-high transition of B. Control circuitry can be added to improve noise immunity by only allowing valid next states to be counted.

Incremental angle encoder accuracy specifications fall into two categories. The angular position accuracy is the difference between the actual shaft angle and the angle indicated by the encoder. This error is normally expressed in degrees or minutes of arc. The second category includes specifications for the symmetry and repeatability of individual cycles; these are usually

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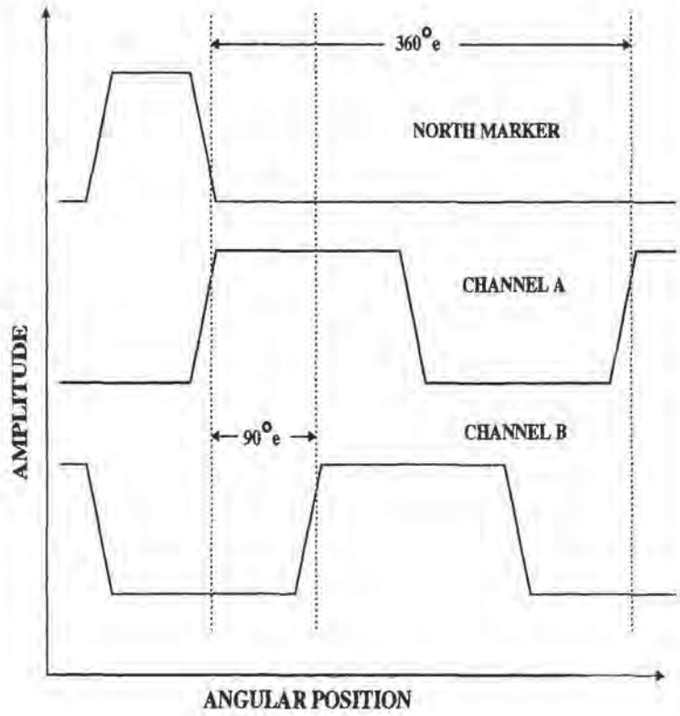


FIGURE 3.2 Encoder outputs.

expressed in electrical degrees. Typical characteristics are detailed in Fig. 3.3 and Table 3.1 Errors are caused by eccentricity and axial play of the code wheel and manufacturing defects in the lithography or etching of the code wheel. Modular encoders consisting of a light source and sensor head are available which use a collimated light source and an array of integrated photodiodes to minimize the effects of these error sources. Differential connection of the photodiodes ensures insensitivity to errors caused by light source variability due to environmental or other factors. A further source of error can occur if the encoder is rotated at high enough speeds that the rise and fall time of the digital outputs significantly affects the pulse width. The light sensor bandwidth usually determines the maximum rotational speed of the sensor. Typical bandwidths are below 100 kHz, which would limit the speed of a 100-CPR encoder to 1000 rpm.

Linear incremental optical encoders are available from many vendors. These allow direct measurement of linear motion. Modular sensor/emitter heads are available that can be used in these applications. The technology is basically the same as incremental angle encoders and the terminology used to describe specifications is the same as for angle encoders. Linear encoders are described in terms of their count density or resolution in counts per mm or mm

TABLE 3.1 Incremental Encoder Specifications

	Minimum	Typical	Maximum	Units
Position error		10	40	min of arc
Cycle error		3	10	°e
Pulse-width error		7	30	°e
Phase error		2	15	°e
State-width error		5	30	°e
Index pulse width	60	90	120	°e

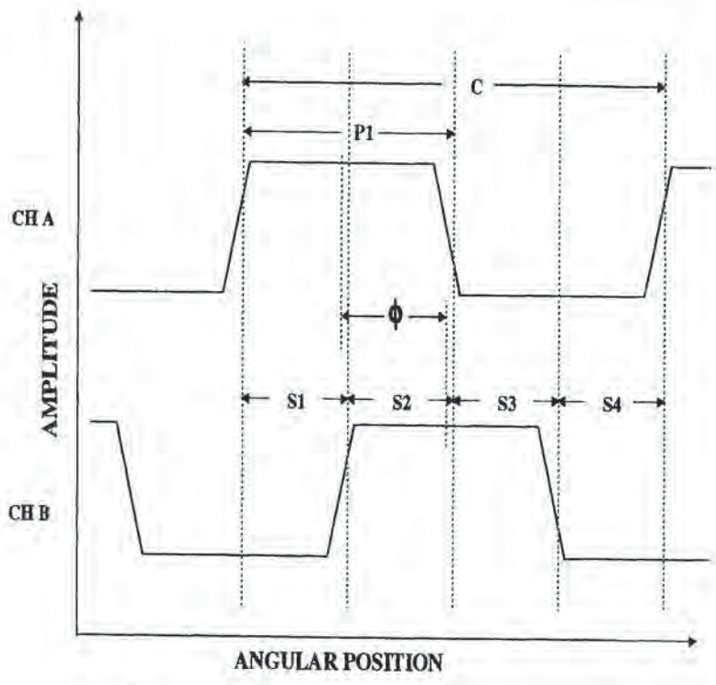


FIGURE 3.3 Encoder definitions.

per count. Line counts range up to approximately 8 per mm, allowing an ultimate linear resolution of around 30 μm.

If it is important to have an unambiguous measure of position as soon as power is applied to a system, then an absolute encoder must be used. Absolute optical encoders are manufactured with resolutions from one part in 2^6 to one part in 2^{16}. The data format can be binary, binary-coded decimal (BCD), or Gray code. An absolute angle encoder is divided into equal sectors which are arranged so that adjacent sectors contain consecutive digital words. The binary bits of each word form N concentric tracks on the encoder disk, where N is the digital word length. N sets of light sources and photodiodes detect the parallel word representing the input shaft angle.

Absolute optical encoders often use Gray code to eliminate code transition errors. In a natural binary sequence between zero and full scale on the disk, all the bits of the digital word change state together. Any misalignment of the code wheel and the light sensors, or sensor-to-sensor misalignment, will cause false codes to be generated. This could be disastrous for a position control system since a misread code could indicate an angle up to 180° away from the correct angle. Gray coding eliminates this problem. Gray code is a unit distance code; consecutive codes differ by only one binary bit. If a code transition is misread, the largest error will be one least significant bit of the digital word.

.3.3 Potentiometric

Potentiometers are widely used as position sensors in automotive applications such as throttle and accelerator pedal position measurement. The automotive industry increasingly

demands low-cost mechanically and electrically rugged sensors to provide control or measurement of position in the modern automobile. This has resulted in the development of potentiometers that are capable of operational life far in excess of the life of the average car, and in some cases capable of continuous rotational speeds of above 1000 rpm for more than 1000 hours.[2]

Potentiometers can be constructed using a wire-wound track. The resolution of these potentiometers is determined by the number of turns of wire used to wind the track. The resolution of rotary wire-wound potentiometers is often quoted as the number of turns per degree and can be anywhere between 1 (1° per turn) and 7 (8.5 arcmin per turn). The track resistance is proportional to the number of turns used and can be in the range of 10 ohms to 100 kilohms, with a tolerance of approximately 5 percent. Wire-wound potentiometers have advantages where low-value variable resistors are required but do not excel in linearity, resolution, or rotational life which can be as low as 10^5 revolutions. Potentiometers for position-sensing applications are constructed using a resistive track of conductive material, usually a graphite and carbon black doped plastic, and a collector track molded on some supporting substrate. A drive shaft or pushrod draws precious metal multifingered wipers along the tracks. Wiper damping is usually included to make the potentiometer insensitive to vibration. Potentiometers of this type are manufactured with a range of resistance from around 500 ohms to 20 kilohms with a tolerance of 10 to 20 percent (Table 3.2). Potentiometers of this type are capable of excellent linearity and very high resolution.

TABLE 3.2 Potentiometer Specifications

Parameter	Minimum	Maximum
Electrical travel	90°, 10 mm	360, 3000
Nominal resistance	500 ohms	20 kilohms
Resistance tolerance	10%	20%
Resistance temperature coefficient (TC)		500 ppm/°C
TC of V_{out} in voltage divider mode		5 ppm/°C
Linearity error	0.01%	1%

Potentiometric sensors are used as voltage dividers. A reference voltage is applied across the resistive element and the wiper voltage is used as an absolute measure of the position of the actuator. Linear potentiometers are available in a wide range of lengths from 10 mm to 300 cm. Rotary potentiometers are usually restricted to 355° of useful range due to the dead band created by the track-end contacts. Some versions are available with true 360° operation. These use multiple wipers and dedicated electronics to eliminate the dead band.

All potentiometers are ratiometric sensors. That is, the wiper voltage at a given position is some fraction of the reference voltage applied across the resistive track. If the reference voltage is varied, the potentiometer output remains in the same ratio to the reference voltage. Sensor potentiometers, when properly terminated, maintain ratiometric operation over a wide range of temperatures with temperature coefficients typically less than 5 parts per million (ppm) per degree centigrade. Without special signal processing, ratiometricity is compromised at the end of the electrical travel of a potentiometer by the change in resistivity of the track as it joins the end contact and by any parasitic external resistance in series with the track. Figure 3.4 shows the effective limitations on the potentiometer at its endpoints.

Ratiometricity is a very desirable characteristic for a sensor that is used with comparators or analog-to-digital converters. For example, if the same reference voltage that powers the sensor is used as the reference for an analog-to-digital converter, then the measurement system will be insensitive to the absolute value of the reference voltage. A given shaft angle will always be reported as the same digital code. In most automotive control systems, analog-to-digital converters (usually on board a microcontroller) use the regulated 5-V engine controller

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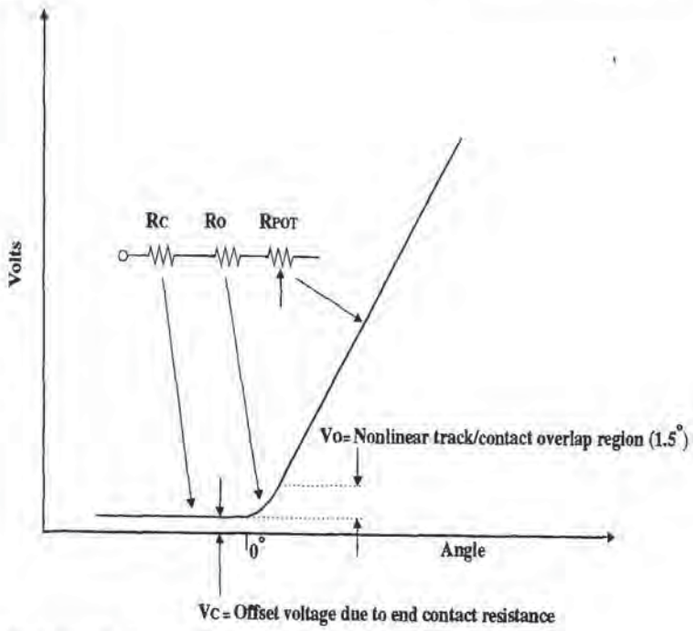


FIGURE 3.4 Potentiometer endpoint nonlinearity.

(ECU) power supply as reference to avoid the additional cost of a separate voltage reference chip. It is desirable that the same voltage, perhaps buffered to isolate the control module from accidental shorts, is used as reference by any ratiometric sensors in the automobile.

Potentiometers are subject to a number of sources of error, of which linearity is the most important. The linearity error is the difference between the actual transfer function of the potentiometer and the ideal transfer function (output voltage change versus mechanical travel) as a percentage of the applied reference voltage. Linearity specifications between 0.03 and 1 percent are available, with sensor cost inversely proportional to linearity. Microlinearity can be an important indicator of the suitability of the potentiometer for use in accurate control systems where large changes in the local gradient of the transfer function may cause instability. Ratiometricity, linearity, and offset errors can be caused by improperly loading the wiper of the potentiometer. The maximum error is at the center of travel of the wiper. If the load is a constant current, such as the input current of a buffer amplifier, a voltage will be developed across R_{EXT} that will cause an offset error at the extremes of travel of the wiper and an additional linearity error at the center of travel. Sensor potentiometers are usually specified with some maximum wiper current (100 nA, typically) to eliminate these errors. Plastic track potentiometers are capable of resolutions better than 0.001 percent of travel. This is primarily limited by the homogeneity of the resistive track material and hysteresis caused by limitations in the mechanical construction of the potentiometer related to bearings, wiper stiffness, and coefficient of friction of the track.

Plastic track sensor potentiometers are capable of operational life in excess of 10^7 revolutions for a rotary sensor or 10^7 strokes for a linear sensor. Unfortunately, no universal standards are available defining test conditions, and these may vary from vendor to vendor. Generally, two types of test are carried out. Dither testing simulates conditions which may exist in control applications or areas with high levels of vibration. The wiper is moved over a small proportion of the travel, say 1 or 2°, at a test frequency of 100 Hz. Information about contact resistance and local gradient changes in the potentiometer transfer function can be gathered rapidly using this technique. A change in gradient (ohms/percent of travel) relative to the mean gradient of the potentiometer can be equated to a change in loop gain in a con-

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trol system. Sensitive systems may become unstable at worn points in the potentiometer track due to relative gradient errors.

A second method of potentiometer reliability testing is to repeatedly move the wiper at around 10 Hz over a large proportion of the available range. An excursion from 0 to 50 percent of the available travel will result in the maximum change in linearity error over a large number of cycles, since only one-half of the track is subject to wear. The criteria for failure of a potentiometer will be very application-specific and may, for example, be a doubling in linearity error. It is important to work with the potentiometer vendors to understand how their specifications can be extrapolated to make a prediction of operational life.

3.3.4 Magnetic

By far the largest category of position sensors relies on electromagnetic induction principles. This group of sensors can be broken into subgroups depending on the details of the employment of the phenomenon. Other sensors in this category rely on materials with magnetoresistive or magnetostrictive properties. Electromagnetic sensors have a number of advantages over other technologies. In general, this class of sensors measures or responds to changes in the relative position of components in a magnetic circuit. The components are always separated by an air gap and are not subject to friction wear. In many cases, it is possible to construct rugged sensors that are insensitive to the harshest automotive environments.

Variable Reluctance. The reluctance of a magnetic circuit determines the magnetomotive force (amp turns) required to produce a flux of a given value.[3] Variable reluctance devices operate by sensing changes in the reluctance within a magnetic circuit. In most cases, the reluctance change is caused by a change in the length of an air gap. The change in reluctance causes a change in the magnetic flux which induces a voltage in an output signal coil. The voltage induced is typically a bipolar pulse shape whose amplitude is proportional to the rate of change of flux (Faraday's law).

$$V = \left(\frac{d\Phi}{dt} \right) \tag{3.1}$$

This sensor technology cannot be used at zero speed since, if the rate of change of flux is zero, then the output will be zero.

In automotive applications, variable reluctance sensors are used to detect the position and speed of rotating toothed or slotted wheels in crank-, cam-, and wheel-monitoring applications. An easily magnetized or "soft" magnetic core or bobbin wound with a sense coil is magnetized by a strong permanent magnet such as samarium cobalt (Sm_2Co_{17}). The sense end of the core is placed in close proximity to a toothed gear wheel. The flux change that occurs when a tooth edge passes the sensor causes a voltage to be induced in the coil. Remote signal-conditioning electronics associated with the ECU are used to amplify the signal and produce a signal that a microcontroller can interpret as a position increment. An alternative construction[4] uses a coaxial pole piece to improve the magnetic circuit. This construction is particularly suited to sensing holes or apertures in a sense wheel. Sensors that detect slots and are positioned in close proximity to the target with a small air gap work at low reluctance and are less likely to be disturbed by interfering fields than sensors configured to detect teeth at a low mark space ratio.

Variable reluctance sensors are prone to a number of sources of error. Vibrations or resonance sometimes exacerbated by the attractive forces between the sensor and the target can seriously degrade the signal-to-noise ratio of the device. The sensors' target is usually a rotating ferromagnetic wheel or gear. Eddy currents will be generated by the movement of the wheel in the magnetic field of the sensor. This may lead to false readings from the sensor. In some refinements of variable reluctance sensors, the holes or apertures in the wheel are filled with an electrically conductive nonmagnetic material to homogenize eddy currents.[4]

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Significant advantages of variable reluctance sensors in the automotive environment are their simple rugged construction and low cost. Additionally, they have a wide operating temperature range and require only two wires for operation. Variable reluctance sensors can also be used as variable inductance sensors by exciting the sense coil with alternating current and employing inductance-measuring means in the signal-conditioning electronics.

Hall Effect. Electric current is carried through the motion of electric charge. If a conductor is moved through a magnetic field with velocity v, the charges in the conductor will experience a force (Lorentz force) in a direction perpendicular to both the direction of motion and the magnetic field. This gives rise to an electric field of strength:

$$\mathbf{E} = v\mathbf{B} \tag{3.2}$$

The charges will move and a surface charge will develop on the conductor until an electrostatic field forms which counterbalances the electric field due to motion, $v\mathbf{B}$. A voltage due to the movement of charge can be detected with a voltmeter. The voltage is proportional to the field **B** and the velocity and length of the conductor. The result of this effect in thin films of material was first described by Hall over 100 years ago. When he passed current through a rectangle of gold foil in the presence of a magnetic field perpendicular to the plane of the foil, a voltage could be measured across the other axis of the foil.

Devices can be constructed using semiconductor materials which can utilize this effect to detect the strength of magnetic fields. Figure 3.5 illustrates the construction and operation of a silicon Hall effect device. A voltage is amplified across one axis of a thin block of high-resistivity n-type epitaxial material. In the presence of the field **B**, charges move in the direction of the arrow. A voltage directly proportional to **B**, the current density in the silicon and the Hall coefficient (scattering factor) can be measured at the point shown. The sensitivity is low and amplification is required to render a useful signal. For example, with a current of 10 mA flowing in an n-type silicon epitaxial layer 1 μm thick with a doping level of $10^{15}/cm^3$ and a field of 100 mT, a voltage difference of approximately 30 mV will be measured at 25 °C. Offsets caused by resistivity gradients, piezoelectric effects from packaging stress, and contact misalignment can amount to 10 mT or more. Layout techniques, such as cross-coupled structures to minimize the effects of resistivity gradients, can significantly improve offsets. Careful alignment of the Hall cell layout with crystal axes can mitigate piezoelectric effects. Silicon Hall effect devices are insensitive to magnetoresistive effects as the field strengths encountered in most applications have good linearity with errors of <0.1 percent for fields from 0 to >100 mT.[5]

The Hall voltage is strongly temperature dependent and, with constant current bias, is proportional to the magnetic field, the bias current, the carrier concentration, the scattering factor, and a constant G, which is a function of the geometry of the device.

$$VH = GI\mathbf{B}\left(\frac{r}{\text{qnt}}\right) \tag{3.3}$$

A typical silicon Hall device will exhibit a temperature coefficient of the Hall voltage of approximately 1000 ppm/°C under these bias conditions. The temperature dependence can be reduced with a current source, the temperature coefficient of which is designed to compensate for the Hall voltage TC. In this way, the sensitivity of a Hall effect device can be controlled within 1 or 2 percent over the range of temperatures normally encountered in automotive wheel position and speed applications. The temperature coefficient of the compensated device can be matched to the magnetic circuit if necessary; a typical requirement might be to provide a residual TC of 200 ppm/°C to compensate for the TC of a Sm_2Co_{17} magnet.

Hall effect devices can be constructed from semiconductor materials other than silicon—for example, gallium arsenide (GaAs). GaAs offers higher carrier mobility and some promise for higher temperature operation than silicon. Silicon has the advantage of low cost and the availability of integrated circuit processing techniques that can be used to integrate Hall effect devices with sophisticated signal conditioning. Dielectrically isolated silicon processes,

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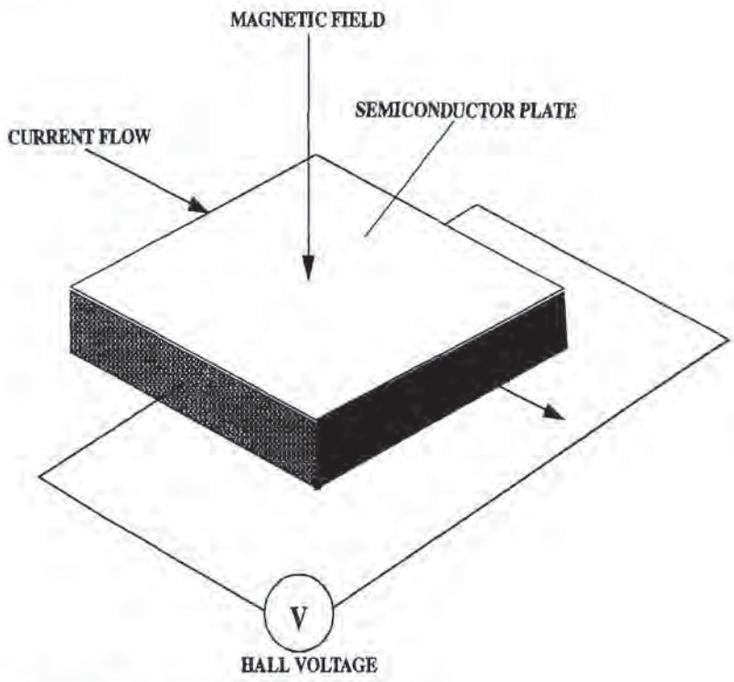


FIGURE 3.5 Hall effect device.

combining integrated circuit techniques with low leakage device isolation, can equal or better the high temperature performance of GaAs.

Hall effect integrated circuits are best categorized in terms of their output characteristics. Analog output devices are usually designed to provide a voltage output that is proportional to the applied magnetic field and also to the power supply voltage. An output ratiometric to the supply allows the device to be easily interfaced to analog-to-digital converters. Analog output devices can be used to construct noncontact absolute position transducers, where the Hall effect device measures a varying field which is designed to be proportional to an angle or linear position. Sensors such as these have no wearing parts other than bearings and can have significant reliability advantages over potentiometers in applications such as throttle-position measurement applications.

Digital output devices are used to construct limit switches or incremental position sensors. The Hall device can be designed to detect homopolar or bipolar fields. Important specifications for digital output devices are operate and release points and the differential between them. The operate point is the maximum field that must be applied to turn the output ON; where ON may be a current-sourcing or current-sinking function. The release point is the minimum field that will guarantee that the sensor is OFF. The differential is the difference between the actual operate and release points. The differential is built in to provide some hysteresis or noise margin to prevent false triggering, particularly at low rates of change of field. The differential may be considerably smaller than the difference between the specified operate and release points. Unipolar devices are specified with operate and release points of the same sign. Bipolar devices are specified with a positive operate point and a negative release point. A caution here is that some devices specified as bipolar do not always require a change of phase of field to operate and release; truly bipolar devices always do.

High-performance Hall effect ICs employ various circuit techniques to improve sensitivity.[6,7] Differential Hall sensors designed for use as gear wheel position sensors use two Hall cells ideally separated by half the gear tooth pitch. This kind of sensor is capable of detecting small changes in unipolar fields. Differential sensors produce an output pulse whose width

depends on the rate at which the gear tooth passes the sensor. At very low and very high speeds a very small mark space ratio output results. At high speeds, the timing of the output will be delayed from the mechanical event by a significant proportion of the tooth pitch. A second method is to use a filter circuit to determine the average value of an alternating field and then detect variations from the average value. This method also eliminates any offset that the sensor may have. This method more accurately tracks the mechanical stimulus. A disadvantage is that the filtering function imposes a lower limit on the speed that can be tracked. The devices detailed in Refs. 6 and 7 have lower limits of around 4 Hz. An additional limitation is that the sensor may fail to operate with a high mark space ratio stimulus since the average value of the input will be close to the value of the longest part of the cycle.

A typical Hall sensor application is shown in Fig. 3.6. The Hall device is assembled into a probe with a biasing magnet. The Hall device orientation will depend on its mode of operation, whether unipolar or bipolar. In all cases, the device is sensitive to fields perpendicular to the plane of the silicon surface. Figure 3.6 also compares output waveforms of the Hall sensor configurations discussed earlier as they would appear in this application.

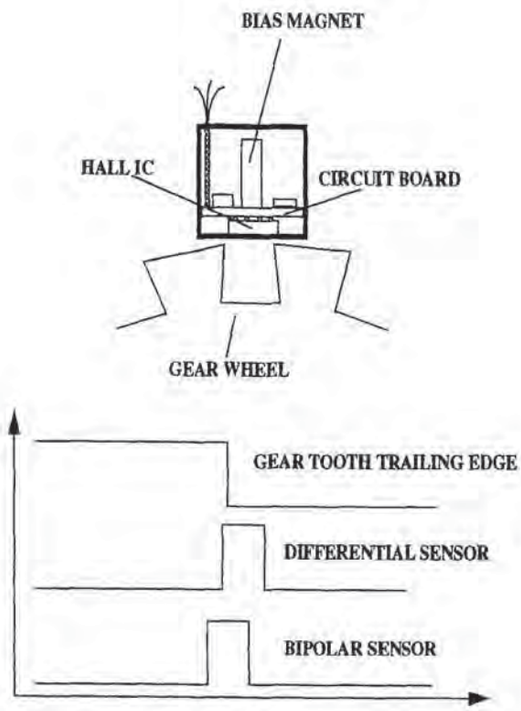


FIGURE 3.6 Hall probe gear position sensor.

Inductive Angle Transducers. Synchro resolvers, or simply resolvers, are absolute angle transducers. Due mainly to their construction, modern brushless resolvers offer the most rugged, reliable, and highest-resolution solution to angle sensing. Resolvers are often considered a high-cost transducer for automotive applications due to the high labor content in the production of most variants. Some designs[8] provide a cost-effective solution by employing sensing and output windings that can be produced on conventional armature-winding machines. Resolvers can be obtained either fully enclosed or as "pancake" devices, with the stator and rotor supplied separated to facilitate over shaft mounting. Resolvers are often referred to by their size. This is the diameter of the case of the device in inches, rounded up to the nearest 10th, and multiplied by 10. For example, a size 11 resolver will be a fraction less than 1.1 in in diameter. Resolver accuracies are specified in arc min. Typical values for

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accuracy lie in the range 7 arcmin, with more or less accurate versions available from some vendors.[9]

Resolvers are basically rotating transformers. The construction of a typical device and the output waveforms for a 360° rotation are shown in Fig. 3.7. An alternating voltage connected to the reference input provides primary excitation. The range of frequencies used can be 400 to 20 kHz depending on the construction of the resolver; most resolvers are optimized for the 2 to 5 kHz frequency range. The reference signal is coupled to the rotor via a transformer mounted at one end of the rotor shaft. A second rotor winding couples to two orthogonally oriented stator windings. The stator coils are wound so that as the rotor shaft rotates, the amplitudes of the outputs of the stator windings vary as sine and cosine of the shaft angle relative to some zero.

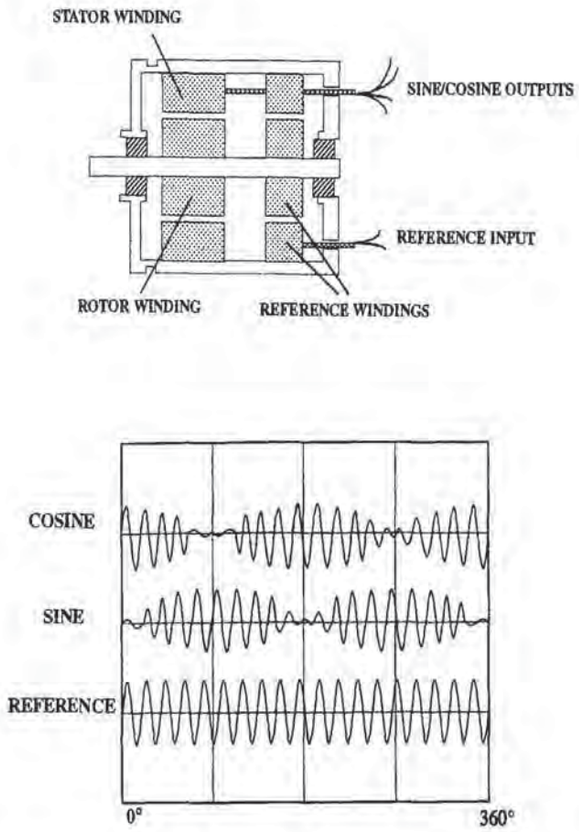


FIGURE 3.7 Resolver construction and output format.

By far, the most economical way of decoding the output of a resolver is to use an IC resolver-to-digital converter (R to D). A functional block diagram of a typical converter is shown in Fig. 3.8. The sine and cosine amplitude-modulated input signals from the resolver representing a shaft angle θ are multiplied by the cosine and sine, respectively, of the current value ϕ of the up/down counter. The resulting signals are subtracted giving:

$$VE = A \sin(\omega t) \sin(\theta - \phi) \tag{3.4}$$

where $A \sin(\omega t)$ represents the reference carrier.

This signal is synchronously demodulated and an integrator and voltage-controlled oscillator form a closed loop with the counter/multiplier, which seeks to null $\sin(\theta - \phi)$. When the

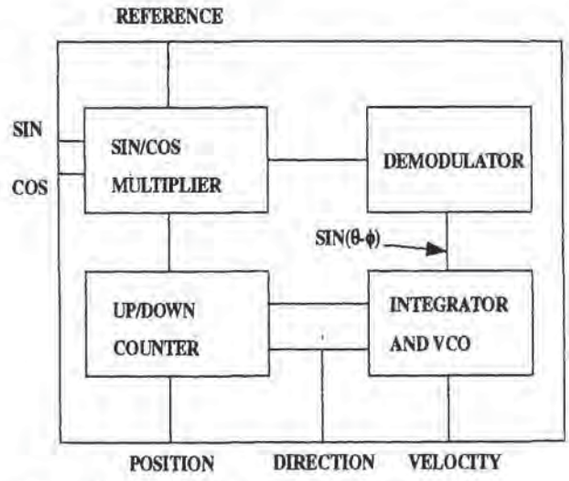


FIGURE 3.8 Tracking resolver-to-digital converter.

null is achieved, the counter value represents the resolver shaft angle within the rated accuracy of the converter. IC R-to-D converters are available that provide parallel or serial digital outputs with resolutions of from 10 to 16 bits and accuracies from 2 to 30 arcmin. Versions are available[10] that emulate standard optical encoder outputs for applications where absolute position measurement is not required but the environment is too harsh for an optical encoder. The system described is a type 2 servo loop which is characterized by zero position and velocity error (not including the limitations of the amplifiers in the IC). R-to-D converters of this type also provide a signal proportional to the angular speed of the resolver from zero to some upper limit, typically 1000 s of rpm, depending on the converter characteristics.

Inductive potential dividers are another class of transducers that are available in many variants.[11,12] A good example is the *rotary variable transformer* or ROVAT.[12] This device comprises a single coil wound on a circular ferromagnetic stator with a number of teeth wound as alternate polarity poles. The stator is excited with an AC signal of around 20 kHz. A rotor with a semicircular conductive screen on its inside surface encircles the stator. The screen reduces the flux linkage between the rotor and stator and the inductance of the screened portion of the stator is reduced, reducing the voltage drop across this portion of the stator. The voltage measured at a central tap on the stator is linearly proportional to the angle of the rotor. Further taps at 90° and 270° from the nominal zero allow a waveform to be measured with amplitude in quadrature with the signal measured at the center point. This allows a 360° absolute angle transducer to be realized, using decoding techniques similar to those which will be described later for the LVDT.

Inductive Linear Displacement Sensors. Shading ring or short-circuit ring sensors are absolute displacement sensors consisting of an E-shaped core with a winding on the central leg of the E. The winding is excited with high-frequency alternating current. An electrically conductive ring of Al or Cu is allowed to slide, maintaining an air gap along the central leg. The ring is attached to the mechanical component, whose position is to be measured. The ring is equivalent to a short-circuited secondary turn in a transformer. The ring has a shading effect, preventing any flux coupling between the legs of the core from its position along the central leg of the core to the open ends of the core (Fig. 3.9).[13] An inductance change can be measured at the terminals of the excitation coil. These sensors are usually used in a potential divider configuration with a reference inductance of similar construction to the main sensor connected in series with the main sensor. A reference alternating voltage is applied across the series-connected reference and sensor inductances, forming an inductive potential divider. The output is then proportional to the ratio of the inductances. This renders the sensor insensitive to tem-

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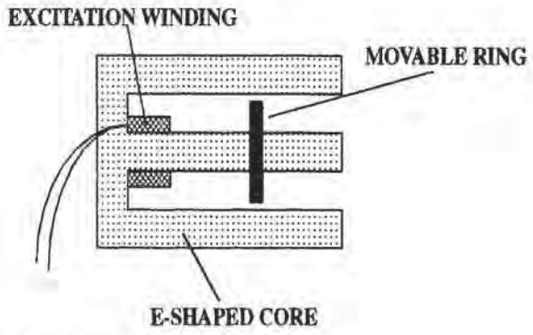


FIGURE 3.9 SCR sensor construction.

perature variations and allows easy adjustment of offsets. Signal-processing electronics can be used to rectify and filter the output and transmit the result to a remote control unit. An alternative construction is to replace the movable ring with an angled channel which can move, relative to the E-shaped core, in a plane perpendicular to the core. Again, the inductance of the sensor is proportional to the linear movement of the angled channel.

Another form of absolute linear displacement sensor is the linear variable differential transformer or LVDT.[14] LVDTs are rugged and reliable and capable of working in harsh environments. Suitable automotive applications include mounting inside hydraulic cylinders in suspension control systems.

LVDTs are constructed from a primary excitation coil positioned centrally on a cylindrical hollow former. Two identical secondary coils are positioned on either side of the primary. The coils have a common core which is free to move within the cylindrical former (Fig. 3.10). The secondaries are normally connected in series, with opposing phases such that with the core centrally positioned and coupling equally to each secondary, the voltage at the node common to both coils will be zero. With this connection, as the core is moved from one extreme of travel through the center to the other extreme, the output signal will vary from a maximum value in phase with the excitation through zero to a maximum value in antiphase with the excitation.

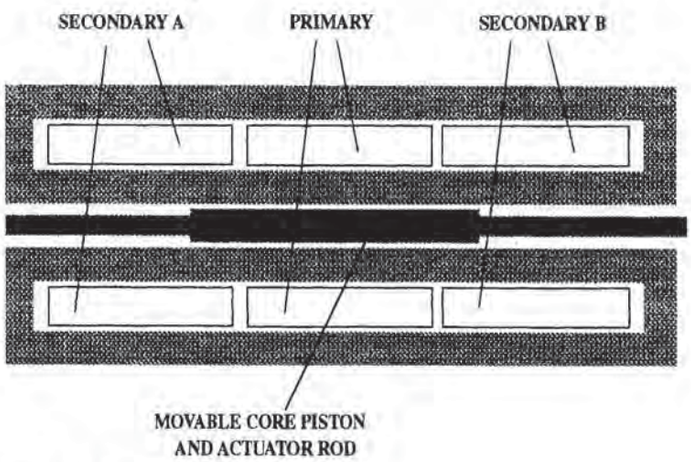


FIGURE 3.10 LVDT construction.

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LVDTs are designed to give a linear output within some tolerance, typically ±0.25 percent, over a specified proportion of the available stroke length. The distribution of turns on the secondary coils is carefully arranged to maximize linearity over the widest possible range. LVDTs are available that maintain good linearity with stroke lengths from ±0.05 to ±10 in.

LVDTs operate with effective transformer ratios of between 10:1 to 2:1. The range of primary excitation frequencies can be from 20 Hz to 20 kHz, depending on the construction of the device. Most LVDTs are optimized for the 2- to 5-kHz frequency range. The output signal from an LVDT can be decoded in several different ways and a number of analog and digital integrated circuit solutions exist for this purpose.[15] An example of a typical connection scheme using an LVDT-to-digital converter is shown in Fig. 3.11. In this example, it is assumed that the sum of the voltages across the series-connected secondaries $V_A + V_B$ is a constant over the range of displacements of interest. The majority of LVDTs in production meet this criterion; for those that do not, an additional nonlinearity will result. The IC decodes the function $(V_A - V_B)/(V_A + V_B)$ over the range $[(V_A - V_B)] \leq (V_A + V_B)/2$ into a 13-bit digital word that can be accessed via a three-wire serial interface. Additional bits indicate null and over or under range for signals outside the linear range. The ratiometric decoding scheme described here is insensitive to primary-to-secondary phase shifts, temperature, and any residual null voltage that the transducer may have due to stray capacitive coupling.

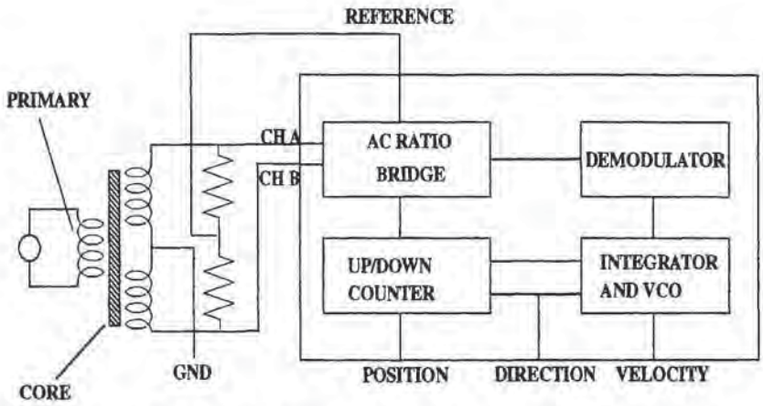


FIGURE 3.11 Tracking LVDT-to-digital converter.

Analog methods of decoding utilize the same basic algorithm as the converter already described. An analog decoder senses the secondary output voltages and evaluates the ratiometric function introduced earlier. The decoder output is filtered and amplified to produce an output voltage proportional to the position of the movable core.

Magnetoresistive. An interesting group of sensors utilize the property of some FeNi alloys such that their resistivity is strongly affected by the presence of a magnetic field. The magnetoresistive effects of one of the useful alloys, Permalloy, which is 81 percent nickel and 19 percent iron, enables sensitive magnetic field sensors with full-scale fields of 5 mT to be built. The variation in resistance is around 2.5 percent for a field of this magnitude. The resistance decreases with increasing field strength; the relationship between field strength and resistance is very nonlinear, approximating a cosine-squared function. Using thin films of Permalloy deposited on a silicon substrate allows signal-conditioning electronics to be integrated with the sensor. Despite the nonlinearity of the phenomenon, accurate linear sensors can be constructed by using the sensor in a bridge arrangement together with flux nulling means, such as a servo-driven coil surrounding the sensor, to effectively operate the sensor at constant resistance. An alternative construction uses opposing "barber pole" thin-film elements.[16] An element is composed of a rectangular thin film of Permalloy overlaid with a series of shorting

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stripes of aluminum at 45° to the long axis. Two series-connected elements, which are mirror images of each other (reflected about the long axis), form a potential divider. Magnetoresistive sensors generally exhibit high sensitivity, but this leaves them prone to interference from unwanted fields and, therefore, they are unsuitable for some applications.

Magnetostrictive. Magnetostriction is a property of materials that respond to a change of magnetic flux by developing an elastic deformation of their crystal structure. Magnetostrictive linear displacement sensors utilize this phenomenon by launching a compression wave down a cylindrical waveguide using electromagnetic means, usually a current pulse. The waveguide passes through a movable permanent magnet ring at some distance from a receiver site. The compression wave generated at the magnet position travels to the receiver site at approximately 2800 m/s where it causes a change of flux and generates a voltage pulse in a sense coil. The time of flight of the pulse can be measured to determine the distance of the movable ring magnet down the wire. Transducers with stroke lengths in excess of 7.5 m are available that use this technique.

3.3.5 Other Technologies

A number of other technologies can be applied to position-sensing problems, limited only by engineering ingenuity. Some, like capacitive-sensing techniques, are not tolerant of the automotive environment due to sensitivity to humidity, vibration, or temperature or pressure extremes. Others, like resolvers of traditional construction, are sufficiently rugged but prohibitively expensive unless low-cost manufacturing techniques can be found. Occasionally, a nonobvious method finds a niche. An example is a fuel-level sensor disclosed by workers at Bosch,[17] which, in principle, could be applied as a position sensor. The device operates by exciting a metal rod with acoustic waves such that it resonates. One end of the rod is immersed in the fuel. The resonant frequency is a function of the depth of immersion and the fuel level can be determined by suitable electronics.

A significant influence in the selection of technologies for automotive use is the mandatory inclusion of safety systems. Microwave or laser-ranging techniques can be applied to anticollision systems to anticipate obstacles at nighttime or in poor-visibility driving conditions. These will be a ubiquitous component of automobiles in years to come.

3.4 INTERFACING SENSORS TO CONTROL SYSTEMS

All sensors, whether they have digital or analog outputs, provide measurement of real-world phenomena that are then interpreted by another system to either indicate a value, a warning, or close a control loop. It is vitally important that the integrity of the data is maintained by the proper choice of interface.

Cost and reliability in automotive systems are primary drivers in the choice of interface. For a given performance, the sensor that requires the fewer connections will always be selected. In some cases, such as LVDTs where the basic sensor requires 5 or 6 wires, it may be advantageous to locate the signal-conditioning electronics with the sensor and communicate the processed data to a remote controller via a simple serial interface. Interfacing incremental or serial binary data to a microcontroller is straightforward. In the case of incremental data, typically the mechanical system being monitored is moved until some limit or index is detected. Knowledge of the absolute position of the mechanical component is then known. A counter or register can be set to an initial nonzero value or reset to zero. As the motion is detected, pulses from the incremental sensor can be counted and stored as a measure of position. The indexing cycle must be performed each time power is applied. Binary serial data can be read into a register and used directly with no further processing.

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Analog-to-digital converters (ADCs) require some special considerations to optimize performance. Not least of these is grounding. In most applications, chassis ground returns cannot be used. Modern automobiles may have voltage drops of 1 V or more between the chassis at the ECU and the sensor site, due to return currents from electric equipment. This voltage is likely to be noisy with many transients and will certainly upset all but the crudest sensors.

Previous sections have discussed the advantages of ratiometric sensors that can use the same reference as the converter. The advantage is that a least-significant bit of the ADC is always a fixed percentage of the sensor span. This eliminates gain, offset, and temperature errors that may occur if separate references are used. Resolution and gain accuracy of a system can be further optimized by making certain that the span of the sensor output uses all of the available input span of the converter. Many ADCs include on board a microcontroller and use switch capacitor techniques to acquire the analog input values. These present a transient load to the sensor once or twice per conversion cycle. Some sensor outputs, particularly sensors with buffer amplifiers, require isolation from this transient to achieve rated accuracy. A simple technique is to use a simple RC filter on the output of the sensor. This limits the transient current that the sensor output sees and shunts the ADC input with a capacitor.

GLOSSARY

Absolute output sensor The sensor output is an unambiguous measure of position and is valid when power is applied.

Arcminute An angular measure. There are 60 arcminutes in 1 degree of arc.

Incremental sensor The sensor indicates changes in position. An additional position reference, such as a limit switch, is often used with this type of sensor.

Linearity error The amount by which the sensor output differs from an ideal characteristic. Usually expressed in percent.

Ratiometric output sensor An input stimulus causes the output to be a fraction of a reference voltage.

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CHAPTER 4
FLOW SENSORS

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4.1 INTRODUCTION

Measurement of flow rate is important to optimize the performance of several key engine control subsystems. Mass air flow sensors are replacing the indirect calculation of intake mass air flow for improved performance, driveability, and economy. New requirements for on-board diagnostics are opening new applications for flow sensing in the automobile.

If the parameter to be measured is a gaseous mass flow as opposed to a volume flow, this further focuses the sensing technology selection since only a few technologies inherently measure mass flow. For liquid flow, either a mass flow or volumetric flow approach may be used since the density of a liquid changes only a small amount with atmospheric pressure and temperature.

This chapter is intended to give the reader an understanding of where and why flow sensors are being specified for use in engine control systems and an understanding of the trade-offs among alternative technologies in particular applications.

4.2 AUTOMOTIVE APPLICATIONS OF FLOW SENSORS

4.2.1 Intake Air Mass Flow

Electronic fuel injection has almost universally replaced the carburetor in the auto engine. This is because it provides better performance and is the only way to meet government mandated emissions standards. To do fuel injection, the mass flow rate of air going into the engine must be determined. There are two competing approaches to determining the mass air flow rate. The first, *speed density*, calculates the mass flow rate by measuring engine speed (RPM), intake air temperature (T_a) and intake manifold pressure (P). The per-cylinder nominal displacement (V) is known, as is the gas constant of air (R_a). The engine's volumetric efficiency (η) may be modeled as a function of speed. Then, the mass flow rate ($\dot{m}_a$) is calculated as follows:

$$\dot{m}_a = \frac{(\mathrm{RPM}\, V \eta\, P)}{(R_a T_a)} \tag{4.1}$$

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By using a mass flow sensor, this calculation is eliminated and $\dot{m}_a$ is measured directly. The advantages of using a direct measurement include better accuracy under dynamic conditions because the manifold pressure changes more slowly than the mass flow rate. Also, no assumptions are made about engine displacement or volumetric efficiency, both of which affect the speed density calculation. Volumetric efficiency can change as the intake system becomes contaminated. Mass air flow sensors are presently being used on roughly 20 percent of the cars sold in the United States. They are not more widely used because they cost more than the pressure sensor needed to do the speed-density calculation. The largest drawback to using a mass flow sensor is that a wide dynamic range sensor is needed since the mass flow rate can change over a 100-to-1 range from idle to full throttle, whereas the manifold pressure only changes over a 5-to-1 range. Other important factors in sensor selection include resistance to contamination and particulate damage, accuracy, ability to measure reverse flow, and sensitivity to upstream and downstream ducting.

Fuel is injected to each cylinder on a sequential basis for optimum performance. This requires using the crankshaft sensor and camshaft sensor outputs to time the injection of fuel into the intake manifold at the proper point on the intake stroke. The fuel injector is fed with a constant pressure and is pulse-width modulated to control the amount of fuel injected. The calculation of the mass rate ($\dot{m}_f$) of fuel injected follows:

$$\dot{m}_f = \dot{m}_a \lambda \tag{4.2}$$

where $\dot{m}_a$ = mass air flow rate
λ = stoichiometric air/fuel ratio

4.2.2 Potential or Future Applications of Flow Sensors

Fuel Flow for Gas Mileage Measurement. Driver information systems that predict range and gas mileage need to know the amount of fuel flow. As seen from the preceding discussion of mass air flow measurement, the fuel flow is calculated from the air flow so that this data is already in the engine control computer. By simply summing the injector "on" time over a revolution or multiple revolutions, the fuel flow is known.

Alternatively, the fuel flow can be measured by taking the difference between the fuel coming into the fuel rail and that being returned. This approach could be subject to substantial error, however, due to the fact that these flows are purposely much larger than the net flow into the engine so that the fuel rail will be maintained at a constant pressure. Future fuel-handling systems may simplify the measurement by eliminating the return line and simply modulating the fuel pressure pump to maintain constant pressure. Then, the measured flow would be simply that flow going into the engine.

Exhaust Gas Recirculation Flow. Exhaust gas recirculation (EGR) is performed to reduce the emission of nitrous oxides (NO_x) by cooling the combustion process. If the EGR valve begins to clog or only partially opens, its flow will be reduced and emissions will increase. In the near future, OBDII legislation will require cars to have on-board diagnostics capable of determining when an emissions-related failure (such as that just described) occurs. Measurement of the flow is one way to diagnose a faulty EGR valve. Another way would be the use of an NO_x sensor to measure the emissions. However, no low-cost NO_x sensors have yet been developed.

Secondary Air Pump Flow. The secondary air pump is used to reduce the emissions of carbon monoxide (CO) and hydrocarbons (HC). Measurement of its flow rate is an approach to verifying that it is operating properly and doing its part to reduce emissions. Another way, of course, would be to directly measure the emissions of HC and CO in the exhaust. To date, however, there is no low-cost real-time means to do that. A way to verify air pump operation

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without using any additional sensors is to command the air pump full-on when the fuel injection is slightly rich of stoichiometry. The oxygen sensor output should switch from rich to lean if the air pump is operating properly.

Fuel Flow for Fuel-Air Ratio Feedback Control. Present engine control systems treat the fuel flow as a dependent variable, measuring the intake air flow and then operating the fuel injectors to meter the proper amount of fuel into the engine. This tacitly assumes that each of the injectors is precisely calibrated so that a given "on" time provides a given amount of fuel. Fuel injectors typically use a needle valve in an orifice to meter the fuel. The orifice area is proportional to the square of the diameter so that the fuel flow error will be proportional to two times the diameter tolerance. By measuring the fuel flow, the accuracy of fuel injection could be improved. Table 4.1 summarizes the performance requirements by application.

TABLE 4.1

Application	Measurement type	Range, kg/h	Accuracy, %
Intake air	Mass	10–1000	±4
Fuel flow	Mass/vol.	1–66	±10
EGR flow	Mass	30–100	±10
Air pump flow	Vol.	50	±20
Fuel flow	Mass/vol.	1–66	±4

4.3 BASIC CLASSIFICATION OF FLOW SENSORS

4.3.1 Energy Additive or Energy Extractive

Flowing fluid possesses energy, both potential and kinetic. One approach to flow measurement extracts energy from the flow. Alternately, energy may be added to the flow and its effect observed. The energy-additive approach typically is nonintrusive, so the act of measuring doesn't affect the flow. As might be expected, flowmeter selection involves a number of factors, as will be discussed later.

4.3.2 Measurement of Mass Flow or Volume Flow

Intake air measurement requires that the mass of air flowing into the engine be measured. This favors a mass-flow approach, since, otherwise, pressure and air temperature must be measured to calculate the mass flow from the volume flow. The mass flow rate ($\dot{m}_a$) is calculated as follows:

$$\dot{m}_a = \dot{V}_a \rho \tag{4.3}$$

where ρ = air density
$\dot{V}_a$ = volumetric flow rate

The density, in turn, is calculated as follows:

$$\rho = \frac{P}{ZR_aT_a} \tag{4.4}$$

where P = air pressure
Z = compressibility factor
R_a = gas constant for air
T_a = air temperature

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4.4 APPLICABLE FLOW MEASUREMENT TECHNOLOGIES

4.4.1 Gaseous Flow

Vane. The vane simply consists of a vane or paddle which is located in the flow duct and is restrained by a spring so that it blocks the duct with no flow. The deflection of the vane is thus proportional to flow. This deflection is read out by a potentiometer. The largest drawback of a vane sensor is that it increases the pressure drop in the intake tract, reducing the volumetric efficiency of the engine. This approach was used in the earliest engine control systems and is being replaced by technologies such as hot-wire air flow sensors which offer much lower pressure drop.

Thermal. This is the favored approach and is used in all engines currently being manufactured that employ direct measurement of the intake air mass. Depending on design details, it provides a nearly direct measurement of the mass flow and thus simplifies the engine control strategy. A variety of designs exists, from the straightforward hot-wire air flow sensor to more complex schemes. The basic idea is to heat a fine wire, and then as the gas flows past the wire, convection removes heat. The amount of heat removed can be measured with an electronic circuit and is proportional to mass air flow rate as the following equation shows:

$$\Delta P \cong \Delta T\,[C_t + (2\pi d C_v \dot{m}_a)^{1/2}]^* \tag{4.5}$$

where ΔP = change in electric power due to a given flow rate
ΔT = temperature difference between air and sensor
C_t = thermal conductivity of air
d = diameter of hot wire
C_v = thermal capacity of air
$\dot{m}_a$ = mass flow rate of air

Note that the first term of the equation isn't proportional to flow rate. Either this needs to be modeled and removed or the change in ambient air temperature needs to be minimized to accurately measure mass flow rate. A hot-wire air flow sensor and its control circuit is shown in Fig. 4.1. Control circuits typically either supply constant power to the heated element or

* From Joseph P. DeCarlo, *Fundamentals of Flow Measurement*, Instrument Society of America, 1984, pp. 173 and 176.

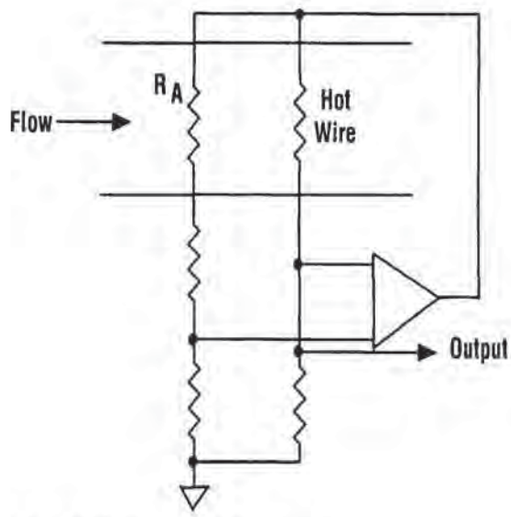


FIGURE 4.1 Hot-wire air flow sensor.

operate it at a constant temperature delta above the ambient temperature. The latter is shown in Fig. 4.2 and is preferred because it simplifies temperature compensation.

One of the problems with the hot-wire sensor is that fine dust particles may pass through the air filter and, under full-throttle conditions, can impact the hot wire with sufficient force to break it. Particulate build-up is also a source of error and has been alleviated by placing the heated element in a bypass channel or by incorporating a burn-off cycle at power-on. Most of the development in hot-wire sensors has been to ruggedize them to withstand the automotive environment and to desensitize them to upstream and downstream flow anomalies. Figure 4.2 is an example of a bypass design for a hot-element mass air flow sensor. It uses a platinum wire wound on a ceramic mandrel and coated with glass as the sensing element. It is located in a bypass channel away from the main flow to reduce the likelihood of particulate contamination. The bypass exits into the main channel through slots which are intended to desensitize it to backflows and backfires.

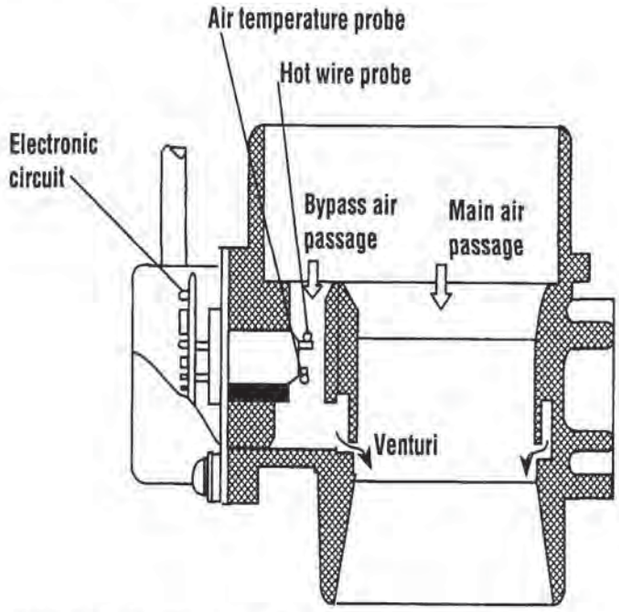


FIGURE 4.2 Bypass hot-wire air flow sensor. *(U.S. Patent 4,264,961)*

Backflow can occur in engines with four or fewer cylinders at low speed. It is most desirable for the sensor to measure the backflow, but most either don't measure it at all or rectify it, which makes the measured flow appear larger than it really is. This error is compensated by measuring the backflow on an engine and then using software to remove the nominal error. One of the issues with bypass designs is that upstream ducting of the air may affect measurement accuracy. A bend just ahead of the sensor will cause the air to move toward the outside of the bend and, depending on where the bypass is located, it may read either too low or too high. This effect is minimized by placing a screen or honeycomb in the sensor to straighten the flow.

Micromachined air flow sensors have been available commercially for several years and efforts are underway to adapt them to automotive applications. Their primary advantages include the low cost of the sensing element due to batch fabrication; excellent performance over temperature due to the close proximity of the heated and reference elements; the ability to measure reverse flows; low operating power due to the small size of the heated element; and fast response, again due to the small size of the heated element. Because of the use of integrated circuit manufacturing techniques, it is no more difficult to include additional resistors on the sensor chip than to simply replicate a hot wire. A calorimetric flow sensor may be constructed by separating the heater and sensor functions as shown in Fig. 4.3. The advantage

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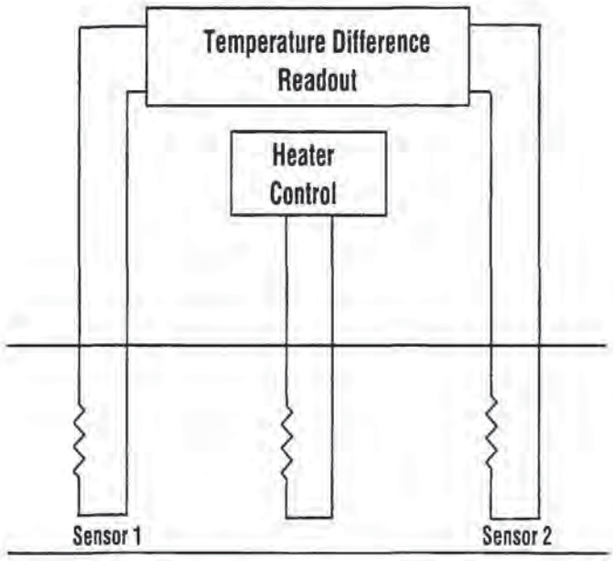


FIGURE 4.3 Calorimetric flow sensor.

of a calorimetric flow sensor is that it does measure the mass flow rate as the following equation shows:

$$\Delta P = \dot{m}_a C_p \Delta T^* \tag{4.6}$$

where ΔP = change in power due to a given mass flow rate
$\dot{m}_a$ = mass air flow rate
C_p = thermal capacity of air
ΔT = temperature difference between air and sensor

One of the issues with microstructure sensors is protection from damage due to particle impact and preventing build-up of contamination. This requires clever packaging.

Table 4.2 compares the main types of thermal mass air flow sensors.

Differential Pressure. A simple way to measure volumetric flow is to place an obstruction in a flow channel and measure the differential pressure drop across it. The flow is proportional to the square root of the differential pressure. This only works well for narrow flow ranges because to operate over a given flow range, the pressure sensor must operate over the square of that range. For the automotive intake flow range of 100 to 1, a pressure sensor with a range of 10,000 to 1 is required, which is not achievable except at high cost. An important advantage of this approach is that it is resistant to contamination, since the pressure sensor merely needs

* From "Fundamentals of Flow Measurement," Joseph P. Decarlo, Instrument Society of America, 1984, pp. 173 and 176.

TABLE 4.2

Type	Effect of contamination	Meas. rev. flow	Affected by ducting	Power used
Hot Wire	High*	Rectifies	Low	Medium
Hot RTD Bypass	Low	Ignores	High	High
Micro RTD	Low	Yes	Low	Low

* Burn-off cycle used to alleviate.

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to sense the pressure difference across the flow restriction (in the case of an orifice plate or venturi). The differential pressure approach could be suitable for some low-accuracy or low dynamic range applications such as EGR valve flow. Venturis (Fig. 4.4), flow restrictions (Fig. 4.5), and pitot tubes (Fig. 4.6) all operate on the same principle.

4.4.2 Liquid Flow

Differential Pressure. The preceding discussion on differential pressure sensing applies equally to liquid flows.

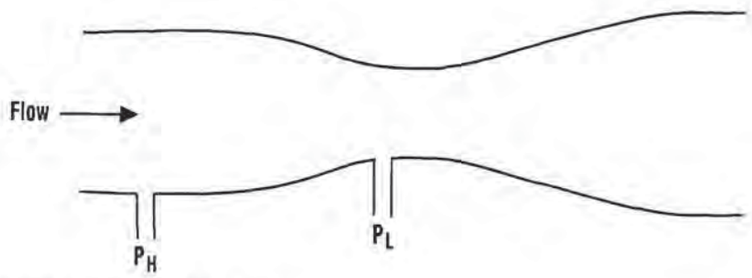


FIGURE 4.4 Venturi flow sensor.

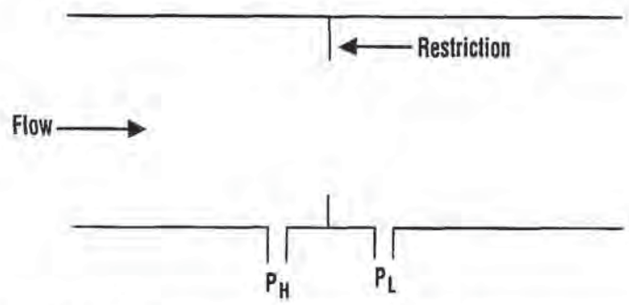


FIGURE 4.5 Flow sensor using a restriction to develop a differential pressure.

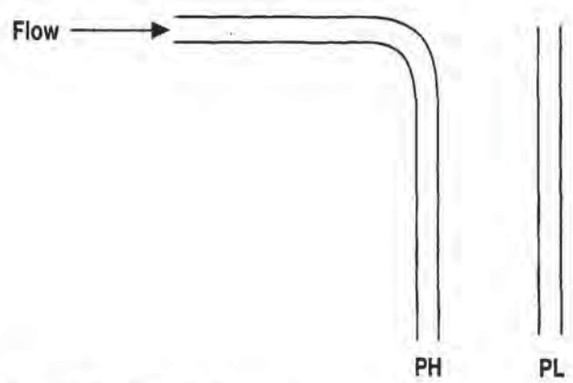


FIGURE 4.6 Pitot tube flow sensor.

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Turbine. A turbine blade placed in a flow channel can offer low restriction to flow, and by counting the speed of rotation it can also measure flow. It is analogous to the vane described previously except that it is more subject to wear since it is revolving, not merely deflecting. Use of a noncontacting means of counting revolutions (such as a Hall effect sensor) is recommended. This approach is well-suited to measurement of fuel flow.

Vortex Shedding. Oscillations may be induced in a fluid by placing an obstruction in the flow stream. The oscillations may be measured thermally, by pressure changes or using ultrasonics. This approach doesn't work well at low flow rates due to instability in the vortex shedding mechanism, so it is not suited to wide dynamic range applications such as intake air measurement. An example of a vortex shedding flow sensor is shown in Fig. 4.7.

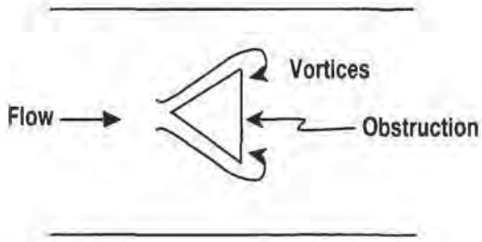


FIGURE 4.7 Vortex shedding flow sensor.

Other Technologies. There are a number of other technologies which are not well-suited to automotive applications, primarily due to cost considerations. A variety of flow sensors has been developed for industrial applications where performance is paramount and cost is secondary. These include the use of ultrasonics, gyroscopic effects, ionization of gases, and so on. These will not be discussed herein. Information on these technologies is given in the books by DeCarlo and Norton. See the list of suggestions for further reading.

GLOSSARY

Backflow The flow of air out of the intake system of an engine. This occurs at low speeds in engines containing only a few cylinders when all intake valves are closed at once.

Exhaust gas recirculation A process in which exhaust gases (containing primarily nitrogen) are returned to the intake system to reduce emissions by lowering the combustion temperature.

Micromachining Formation of very small three-dimensional structures in a semiconductor material.

Speed density A method of calculating the intake mass air flow rate by measuring engine speed and air density.

Stoichiometry The air-to-fuel ratio at which all the oxygen is consumed during combustion.

Volumetric efficiency The volume flow rate of air into the intake system divided by the volume rate of piston displacement.

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ABOUT THE AUTHOR

Robert E. Bicking received the B.E.E. and M.S.E.E. degrees from the University of Minnesota and has been involved with sensors nearly all of his 32 years in engineering. He is currently involved with the development of new automotive sensors at the Micro Switch division of Honeywell. He has been awarded three U.S. patents and is the author of over 24 technical papers. He is a member of the I.S.A., I.E.E.E., and S.A.E.

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CHAPTER 5

TEMPERATURE, HEAT, AND HUMIDITY SENSORS

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5.1 TEMPERATURE, HEAT, AND HUMIDITY

Temperature sensing and taking into account the effect of temperature on the performance and reliability of automotive components, and therefore the systems that contain these components, is one of the more important aspects of vehicle design. The heat sources that are present on modern automobiles range from the engine itself to catalytic converters, losses in power conversion (e.g. the alternator), and specific heat-generating devices such as heated windshields, seats, and mirrors. Humidity adds to the effect that temperature has on the reliability of components and also impacts vehicle performance and passenger comfort.

5.1.1 Temperature—the Effect of Heat

The temperature of a body or substance is (1) its potential of heat flow, (2) a measure of the mean kinetic energy of its molecules, and (3) its thermal state with reference to its ability to transfer heat to other bodies or substances.

Temperature affects every aspect of automobiles, from the performance of the engine and various vehicle systems to the comfort of the driver and passengers. The wide range of worldwide vehicle operating temperatures (from –60° to +57 °C) and the subsequent localized electronic module temperature ambients underhood (from –40 to +125 °C) and in the passenger compartments (from –40 to +85 °C) affect both the performance and reliability of electronic components. The viscosity of lubricating and cooling fluids is also affected by the wide temperature variations that must be tolerated. Even paint, fabric, plastics, rubber, and other organic and inorganic materials must be designed to survive the environmental extremes of temperature and humidity. Sensing the temperature of these components is essential during vehicle development.

5.1.2 Conduction, Convection, and Radiation

Heat energy is transferred with corresponding temperature changes by conduction, convection, and/or radiation. Conduction occurs by diffusion through solid material or in stationary liquids or gases; convection involves the movement of a liquid or gas between two points, and radiation occurs through electromagnetic waves.

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5.1.3 Heat Sources in Vehicles

In addition to the temperature rise that can be generated by sunlight on the metal and glass that form the body of the vehicle, there are several heat-generating devices in a vehicle as shown in Table 5.1. The foremost heat source is the engine in internal combustion engine equipped vehicles. This causes the engine compartment to generally be classified as a +125 °C ambient for electronic components, although considerably higher temperatures are reached within the combustion chamber (≥1000 °C) or on the engine block.

The catalytic converter used to reduce unburnt hydrocarbons and carbon monoxide emissions has a peak catalyst efficiency around 450 °C, minimum operating temperature around 350 °C, and high temperature operation in the area of 1000 °C.

Tire flexure and friction generated between the tires and the road surface are major sources of heat. Moreover, heat is generated by friction between any moving components of a vehicle. Gears and bearings in transmissions, rear axle, and pumps are most notable for generating a significant temperature rise. Brake surfaces also create high temperatures when the brakes are applied.

Even though they do not generate heat, in the process of reducing the temperature of other components, heat exchangers—such as coolant or transmission radiators for the passenger compartment heater and their associated plumbing and electronic heat sinks—have considerably higher than ambient temperatures.

Electric heating elements, including heated back light, windshield, windshield wiper, mirrors, and seats, increase the temperature to improve visibility and driver comfort. Heated windshield wipers can be maintained at 15 °C even when outside temperatures are around −40 °C. In some cases, temperatures in the area of 350 °C are produced by supplemental heating elements for components such as the catalytic converter, the oxygen sensor, and some advanced electric vehicle batteries.

The windings of electric components such as the starter motor, heater motor, alternator, and solenoids are a source of heat and high temperatures, especially in continuously moving, heavily loaded units like the alternator. The resistance in the windings as well as resistance in semiconductor components like alternator rectifiers and power transistors creates a power loss proportional to the square of the current being conducted ($P = I^2R$). In semiconductors, the change in temperature is related to the power dissipated through the thermal resistance.

$$\Delta T = R_\theta P \tag{5.1}$$

where R_θ = thermal resistance in °C/W
ΔT = temperature difference in °C (frequently $T_{junction} - T_{case}$)
P = power in watts

TABLE 5.1 Heat Sources in Vehicles

General category	Example	Max. temperature °C
Engine	Combustion/ignition process	>1000
Catalytic converter	Chemical reaction	>1000
Road/tire friction	Tires	<100
Brakes	Disk/drum	250
Mechanical motion (gears, bearings)	Transmission/rear axle/air pump/power steering pump	200
Heat exchangers	Radiator (coolant, transmission), heater, heatsink	>175
Electric heaters	Windshield, backlight, seats, mirrors	Ta + 25
Electric windings	Motors, alternator, solenoids	<155 (Class F)
Resistors	Ballast resistor	150
Lamps	Headlamps, tail lamps, dash lamps	125
Power transistors	Ignition driver, voltage regulator	Up to 200
Electric vehicle battery	Sodium sulfur	300

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Lamps have a significant inrush current (10 · steady state) and a high steady state value which generate high temperatures as well.

Temperature at various locations in the vehicle are shown in Table 5.2.

TABLE 5.2 Temperature at Various Vehicle Locations

Location	Temperature, °C		Slew Rate	Humidity		Frost
	Low	High		High	Low	
Underhood—Engine						
Exhaust manifold	–40	+649	–7 °C/min	95% at 38 °C	0	Yes
Intake manifold	–40	+121	–7 °C/min	95% at 38 °C	0	Yes
Underhood—Dash Panel						
Normal	–40	+121	Open	95% at 38 °C		
Extreme	–40	+141	Open	80% at 66 °C		
Chassis						
Isolated	–40	+85	NA	98% at 38 °C	0	Yes
Near heat source	–40	+121	NA	80% at 66 °C	0	Yes
At drive train temperature	–40	+177	NA	80% at 66 °C	0	Yes

5.1.4 Effect of Humidity

Humidity affects the comfort of the drivers and the passengers as well as the performance of the engine and impacts the reliability of vehicle components. The primary measurement for humidity is relative humidity RH, the ratio of water partial pressure to saturation pressure. Other measurements include dew point (temperature); specific humidity (mixing ratio); the mass of water per unit mass of dry gas; and volume ratio, the parts of water vapor per million parts of air. The dew point is a direct measure of vapor pressure and absolute humidity. Humidity is the water vapor in gas. Water in a solid or liquid is called moisture. High humidity and low dew point can lead to increased moisture content which can affect the operation of vehicle fluids such as fuel and brake fluid and impact solid surfaces like the windshield or brake linings.

5.1.5 Reliability Implications to Electronic Components

The effect of temperature on electronic components was recognized as "one of the most severe environments generally encountered on the automobile." Warm-up time of engine liquids and local ambient temperatures are as high as several tens of minutes, especially in cold weather. A recommended practice, SAE J1211, was published in November 1978 that still serves as a guideline to developing environmental design goals for electronic equipment, especially in the area of temperature variations within various vehicle locations.

Temperature affects the performance and expected life of electronic components. Mechanical stress created by different coefficients of thermal expansion can cause failures in thermal cycling test (air-to-air) or thermal shock (water-to-water) transitions.

The failure of electronic components also occurs because the mechanical durability, solder strength, or glass transition of plastic mold compound is exceeded. Electrical properties including thermal runaway in bipolar transistors and loss of gate control in MOS-gated (Sec. 5.4.6) devices also directly cause failure due to temperature extremes.

The typical failure rate for a semiconductor component can be expressed by the Arhennius equation:

$$\lambda = A \cdot \exp \frac{\theta}{kT} \tag{5.2}$$

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where λ = failure rate
A = constant
exp = 2.72
θ = activation energy
k = Boltzmann's constant
$8.62 \cdot 10^{-5}$ eV/°K
T = temperature in °K

The failure rate of semiconductor components typically doubles for every 10 to 15 °C increase in operating temperature. However, increased testing and design improvements have minimized the failures due to specific failure mechanisms. Semiconductor components manufactured in the 90s are orders of magnitude more reliable than those first used in vehicles in the 60s. However, their response time is considerably faster than vehicle liquids and local ambients. For example, the transient thermal response, $r(t)\ R\theta_{JC}$, which is a reduced level of the thermal resistance (Sec. 5.1.4) based on the transistor operating in a switching mode and being off for a period of time, approaches the dc level within a second. Excessive temperatures can be generated quickly and must be detected within milliseconds to prevent failure.

Accelerated life testing is performed at elevated temperatures to determine the reliability of electronic components and obtain the maximum amount of information in the minimum amount of time. The actual failure mechanisms are a result of the component design and environment in which they operate. Life testing seeks to identify areas that are vulnerable in a particular design and provides minimum acceptable criteria for qualification.

The activation energy is directly proportional to the degree of influence that temperature has on the chemical reaction rate. Temperature acceleration factors for a particular failure mechanism can be expressed as the ratio of the failure rates at two different levels of stress:

$$F_a = \exp\left(\frac{\theta}{k}\right) \cdot \frac{1}{T_r - 1/T_t} \tag{5.3}$$

where F_a = acceleration factor
θ = activation energy
k = Boltzmann's constant, $8.62 \cdot 10^{-5}$ eV/°K
T_r = junction temperature in °K at the rated ambient temperature
T_l = junction temperature in °K at the life test ambient temperature

To determine a component's ability to withstand the adverse effects of temperature and humidity extremes to which the vehicle is exposed, a number of reliability stress tests are included in the qualification procedure. These tests include:

- *High-temperature Storage Life* is performed to accelerate failure mechanisms which are thermally activated through extreme temperatures.

  Typical test conditions: T_a = 70 to 200 °C, no bias, time = 24 to 5000 h
- *Temperature Cycling* (air-to-air) evaluates the ability of a device to withstand both exposure to temperature extremes and transition between temperature extremes. This test also exposes excessive thermal mismatch between materials.

  Typical test conditions: T_a = –65 to 200 °C, cycle = 10 to 4000 (1000 most common)
- *Thermal Shock* (liquid-to-liquid) testing evaluates the ability of the device to withstand both exposure to extreme temperature and sudden transitions between temperature extremes. This testing also exposes extreme thermal mismatch between materials.

  Typical test conditions: T_a = 0 to 100 °C, cycle = 20 to 300 (100 most common)
- *H^3TRB* (high-humidity, high-temperature reverse bias) is an environmental test designed to measure the moisture resistance of plastic encapsulated devices. A bias is applied to accelerate corrosive effects on internal components of semiconductors.

  Typical test conditions: T_a = 85 to 95 °C, RH = 85 to 95%, bias = 80 to 100% of max rating, time = 96 to 1750 h

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- *Autoclave* (or pressure cooker) testing is performed to measure device resistance to moisture penetration and resulting galvanic corrosion. This is a highly accelerated and destructive test.
  Typical test conditions: T_a = 121 °C, RH = 100%, p = 1 atmosphere, time = 24 to 96 h
- *Moisture Resistance* testing evaluates the moisture resistance of components under tropical environments.
  Typical test conditions: T_a = −10 to 65 °C, RH = 80 to 98%, time = 24 h/cycle, cycle = 10

In addition, a number of high-temperature tests under different biasing conditions are also performed for semiconductor devices, including high-temperature forward bias, high-temperature reverse bias, and high-temperature gate bias.

5.2 AUTOMOTIVE TEMPERATURE MEASUREMENTS

Numerous temperature measurements are made during the development of the vehicle to ensure the proper operation of systems and components. Some measurements are included in the control system strategy or as diagnostics for production vehicles. A list of the potential temperature and humidity measurements that can be made and may be incorporated in future systems is shown in Table 5.3. The technique used to measure temperature may vary from development to production mode, from one vehicle manufacturer to another and even from system to system within a given vehicle manufacturer. The choice in technology for production sensors depends upon performance, reliability, and cost. For development vehicles, cost is not a major concern, but availability of test probes, compatibility with readout equipment, and ease of use are additional factors that should be taken into consideration.

Common vehicle temperature measurements will be explained in the remainder of this section.

5.2.1 Measuring Liquid Temperatures

A number of liquid temperatures are measured during vehicle development, especially under high vehicle ambient temperatures and severe driving conditions, such as trailer towing up steep grades and stop-and-go Phoenix traffic during summer months. These include coolant, engine oil, transmission oil, fuel, power steering, brake, and battery electrolyte. Monitoring coolant temperature is common in engine control systems in production vehicles. Engine and transmission oil temperature are being evaluated for future monitoring. Racing vehicles frequently monitor oil and fuel temperature in addition to coolant temperature to achieve peak performance. Sensing fuel temperature may be required to meet future emissions standards. A latent heat cooling system has been developed that uses a temperature sensor to control the engine under various operating conditions. The system employs control valves that control the flow of vaporized coolant based on temperature in a manifold connected to the top of the combustion chamber.

Mounting location, fluid contacting the sensor, and packaging are critical concerns for liquid temperature sensors. Upper temperature limits are typically around 150 to 200 °C and operation down to −40 °C is usually required.

Battery temperature measurements in vehicle development use glass thermometers or glass-shielded thermocouple probes to protect the sensor from the corrosive electrolyte.

5.2.2 Battery Temperature

Maintaining the proper state of charge in the vehicle's battery is essential for obtaining adequate cranking rpm during starting and for ensuring optimum battery life. The charge accep-

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TABLE 5.3 Sensing Requirements versus Vehicle Systems

System	Parameter
Engine control	Air charge (intake air) temperature Engine coolant temperature Intake air humidity Ambient temperature Fuel temperature
HVAC (climate control)	Humidity in passenger compartment (PC) Temperature (PC) Outside air temperature
Electronic transmission (continuously variable transmission)	Transmission oil temperature
Driver information (body computer inputs)	Coolant temperature Ambient air temperature Temperature (PC) Tire surface temperature Rain sensor Windshield moisture Sun sensor Battery temperature
Multiplex/diagnostics Cruise control Idle speed control Memory seat Navigation	Multiple usage of sensors
Antiskid brakes	Brake fluid temperature
Traction control/ABS	Brake moisture sensor
Air bags	
Suspension	
Electronic power steering	Power steering fluid temperature (also electric assisted)
Four-wheel steering Security and keyless entry	

tance curves of lead-acid batteries require that the charging voltage be modified for temperature. A higher voltage is required at lower temperatures. Cold temperatures also place the most difficult requirements on the battery because the viscosity of engine oil is low and the load on the cranking system is very high.

Compensation circuitry in the voltage regulator in the charging system is designed to provide a voltage that is within an acceptable range over the entire vehicle operating temperature range as shown in Fig. 5.1. Semiconductor sensing techniques (Sec. 5.4.6) are used in this approach. The most desirable location for the voltage regulator is close to the battery. However, some systems integrate the regulator inside the alternator and provide a temperature environment that can be considerably different from the battery. The temperature of the battery can also vary by several degrees from cells closest to the engine to those further away from the engine. The overall mass of the battery prevents these temperatures from changing very quickly. However, a failed voltage regulator that applies full voltage to the alternator can easily cause excessive battery temperatures to be generated.

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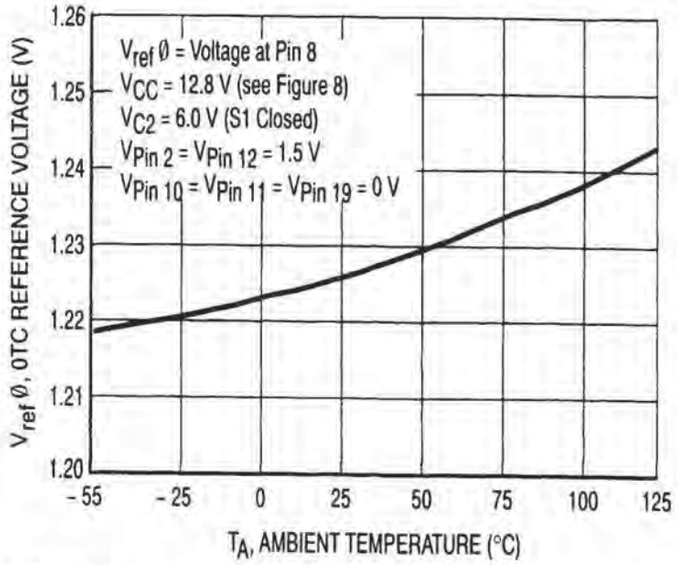


FIGURE 5.1 Temperature compensation in voltage regulator.

Batteries for electric vehicles (EVs) may require maintaining a specified high-temperature operating range. Sodium sulfur cells can store four times the energy of lead acid cells, but the battery's operating temperature must be kept within 300 to 350 °C. Solid oxide fuel cells operate at 1000 °C. If higher-temperature batteries are adopted for use in EV systems, sensing the battery temperature could be part of the diagnostic and fault detection.

5.2.3 Air Temperature Measurements

Air is measured for ambient temperature, passenger compartment temperature, and inlet air on production vehicles. For development purposes, a number of location ambients are always evaluated as potential mounting locations for electronic components. Upper temperature ranges are lower than liquid measurements, with 85 or 125 °C being common upper limits.

5.2.4 Catalyst Temperature

Measuring catalyst temperature during vehicle development has been performed since the earliest implementation of these devices. Concern for excessive temperatures in nearby vehicle locations meant that a number of measurements were made. However, the converter must be at a minimum temperature, usually above 350 °C, to be effective. Tougher exhaust emission standards are spurring manufacturers to utilize the converter sooner after the vehicle is started. Techniques are being pursued that would decrease the warm-up time for the catalyst to increase its effectiveness in controlling emissions. One technique involves heating the catalyst briefly by igniting a measured mixture of fuel and air in an afterburner ahead of the catalyst. Another technique utilizes electric heating to reduce the warm-up time. The power required for this approach would require an excessive power drain from the vehicle's power system. A linear temperature sensor has been developed to measure the temperature across the catalyst. A thermistor (see Sec. 5.4.1) is inserted diagonally inside the converter. A range of resistance has been evaluated and a time constant of about 2 s has been achieved. For fault condition monitoring, the sensor is able to detect a localized hot spot inside the catalyst and may prove to be able to detect misfire as part of future on-board diagnostic equipment required by the California Air Resources Board or the federal Environmental Protection Agency.

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The temperature of exhaust gases increases rapidly under severe operating conditions such as continuous high speed or insufficient octane rating. One company has monitored their efforts at controlling the engine's operating temperature by locating a temperature sensor in the exhaust manifold. If the sensor detects an exhaust gas temperature rise above an established limit, a computer sends a command to inject extra fuel into the combustion chamber to cool the engine. Since exhaust gas temperatures can reach 1000 °C, a specially designed magnesium oxide thermocouple in a metal tube is used to sense the temperature (see Sec. 5.4.2). This approach may also be used in the future to reduce catalyst warm-up time.

5.2.5 Oxygen Sensor

The oxygen sensor used as the feedback element in closed-loop engine control systems generates a signal based on the difference in the oxygen concentration from inside the exhaust gas and ambient. As shown in the Nernst equation:

$$V_S = RT/4F \ln (P_a/P_g) \tag{5.4}$$

where V_S = the generated output voltage
P_a = oxygen partial pressure of the air
P_g = oxygen equilibrium pressure
R = gas constant
F = Faraday's constant
T = absolute temperature of the sensor

In addition to being affected by temperature, the oxygen sensor requires a minimum temperature to operate properly and provide a closed-loop control system. Typically, this minimum temperature is ≥450 °C. To reduce the oxygen sensor's warm-up time, heaters are added. A heated oxygen sensor achieves operating temperature much sooner than an unheated unit and allows closed-loop operation to be initiated. Monitoring temperature during engine and vehicle development is part of control strategy and component development.

5.2.6 Tire Temperature Sensing

Sensing the temperature within the tire is part of the pressure measurement and fault detection provided by tire pressure measuring and automatic adjustment systems. In a system like the one developed by Michelin (Fig. 5.2) that is used on Peugot's experimental sports car, the Proxima, both a pressure and temperature sensor are located on each wheel. A circular antenna and a transceiver allow these signals to be sent to an electronic processing module. An air compressor attempts to maintain desired tire pressure under normal conditions. If the pressure-temperature indications go above 85 °C, the system recommends speeds be held below 240 km/h (148 m/h). For temperatures above 90 °C, the limit is 160 km/h and for 95 °C, the limit is 80 km/h. For temperatures in excess of 100 °C, the system recommends stopping the vehicle.

5.2.7 Fault Detection for Electronic Components

As indicated in Sec. 5.1.6, temperature can cause reliability failures from several mechanisms in electronic systems. Therefore, detecting excessive temperature and designing system strategies to account for excessive temperatures can minimize improper operation and catastrophic failures.

Sensing for fault conditions, like a short circuit, is an integral part of power ICs or smart power transistors. The ability to obtain temperature sensors in mixed Bipolar-CMOS-DMOS semiconductor processes provides protection and diagnostics as part of the features of smart power ICs, like Motorola's SMARTMOS™ products. The primary function of the power IC is to provide a microcontroller-to-load interface for solenoids, lamps, and motors. It is a definite

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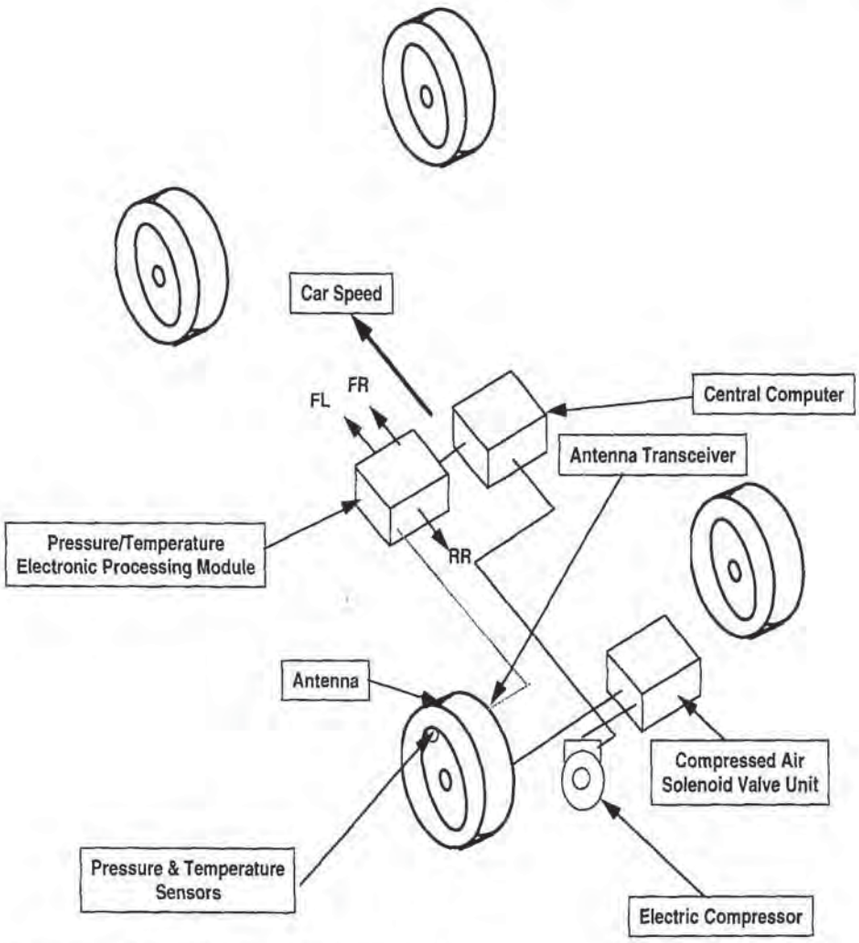


FIGURE 5.2 Temperature sensing in tire pressure control.

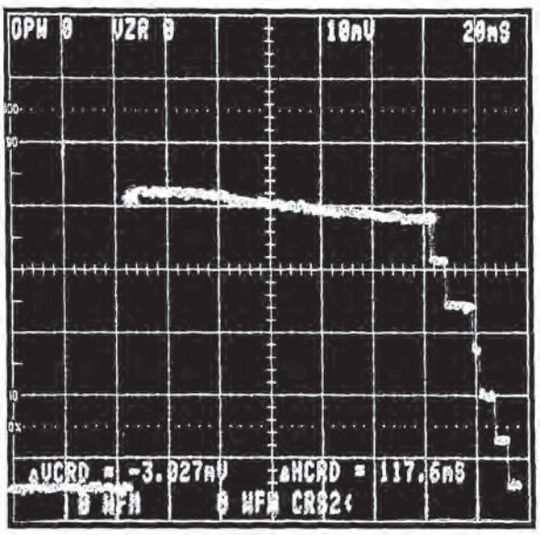


FIGURE 5.3 Thermal shutdown of six outputs of smart power IC.

advantage in multiple-output devices, to sense the junction temperature of each device, provide status input to the microcontroller and, if necessary, shut down a particular unit that has a fault condition. The sequential independent shutdown of six output drivers with a short applied across each unit's load is shown in Fig. 5.3. The action that is taken based on sensing a fault condition can vary depending on the control system. Sensing excessive temperature in a power device may mean that the device can turn itself off to prevent failure in one case and in another situation, a fault signal provides a warning but no action is taken. The remaining portion of the system is allowed to function normally. With the fault conditions supplied to the MCU, an orderly system shutdown can be implemented.

5.2.8 Mass Air Flow Sensor

The generalized model of a transducer is shown in Fig. 5.4. In addition to the desired input, undesired environment effects, like temperature and, to a lesser extent, humidity, are factors that affect the performance and accuracy of the transducer and must be taken into account during the design of the transducer.

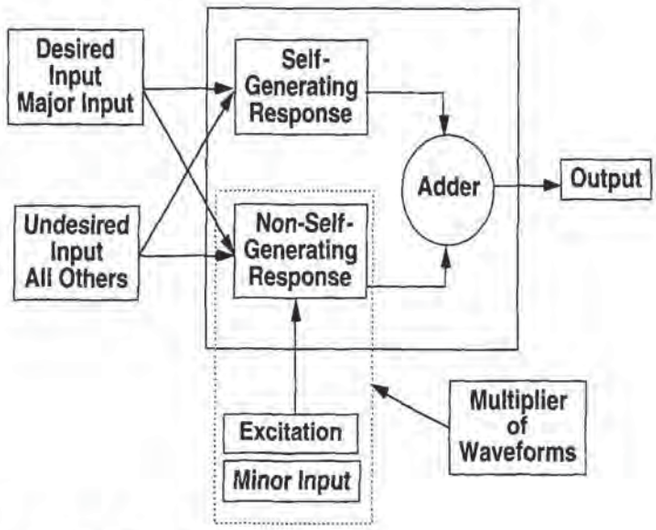


FIGURE 5.4 Generalized model of a transducer.

In the case of mass air flow sensing, temperature effects are used as part of the measurement process. A typical approach for mass air flow involves a hot-wire anemometer with a platinum wire as the sense elements, as shown in Fig. 5.5. The air temperature probe detects the temperature of the air flowing into the combustion process. The hot-wire probe is heated by current supplied from a power transistor. The difference in temperature between the probes is detected as a difference in electrical resistance. The electronic circuitry regulates the heating current to the hot-wire probe to keep the temperature difference constant at any flow rate (Fig. 5.6). The current required is proportional to the air flow rate. One of the main issues in this type of sensor is the response time. Improvements which reduce the response time from 50 to 30 ms have been made in recently developed units.

A microbridge silicon mass air flow sensor has been developed that utilizes temperature-resistive films laminated within a thick film of dielectric material and micromachined cavity as shown in Fig. 5.7. The resistors are suspended over the etched cavity, which also provides thermal isolation for the heater and sensing resistor. Heat is transferred from one resistor to the other as the result of flow. The imbalance in the resistance caused by the heat transfer

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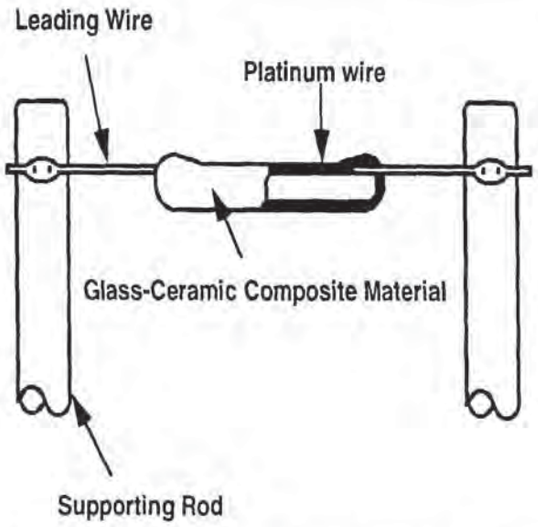


FIGURE 5.5 Probe for hot-wire anemometer mass air flow sensor.

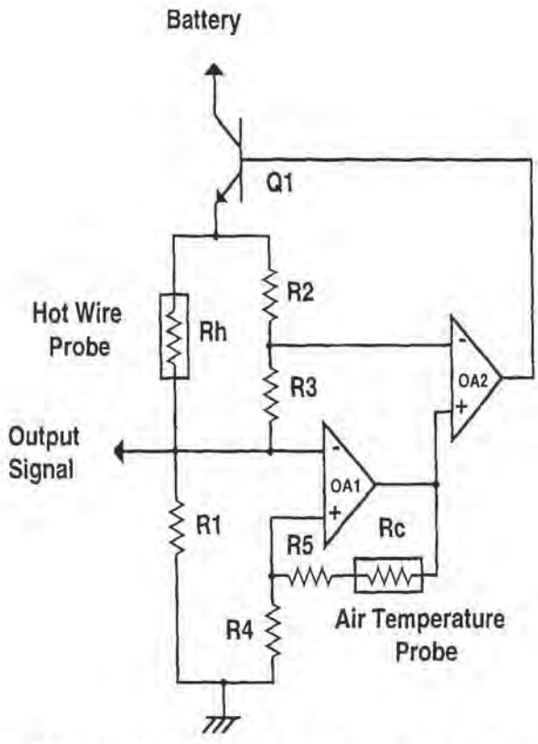


FIGURE 5.6 Circuit for hot-wire anemometer mass air flow sensor.

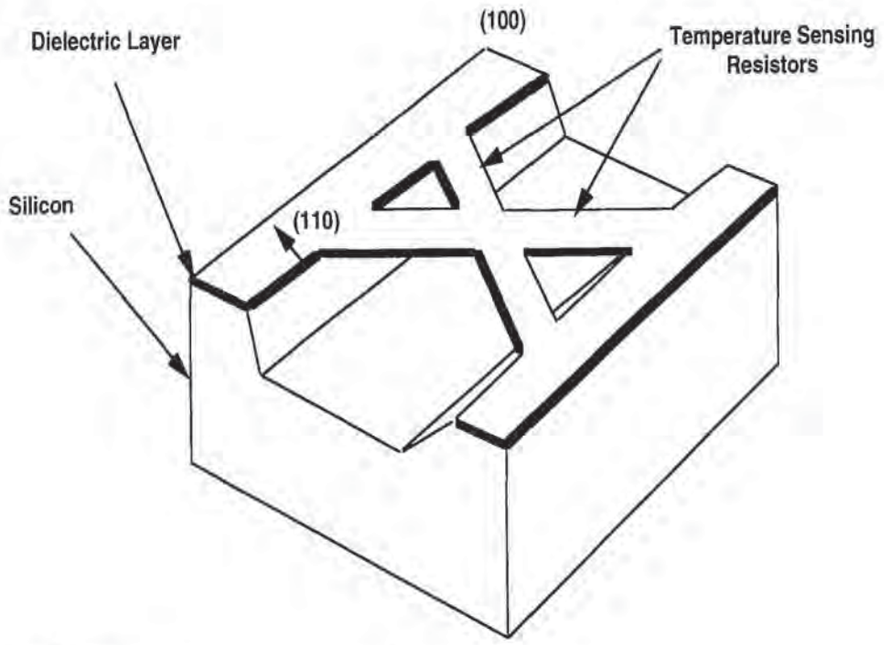


FIGURE 5.7 Temperature sensor in microbridge mass air flow sensor.

is directly proportional to the flow. The small size of the resistors allows fast response time (≤3 ms) and high sensitivity to flow. The device has also been found to be useful as a differential or absolute temperature sensor.

5.2.9 Temperature Measurements in New Systems

As new vehicle systems are developed or existing systems are modified to provide improved performance, or meet legislated or customer demands, new applications for temperature sensors will occur. An example of two systems, air bags and thermo accumulator, is provided.

In inflatable restraint systems, the air bag is inflated based on the ignition of a gas generant. In this system, an igniter receives an electric impulse, passes it through to a heating filament, and actuates a small pyrotechnic charge to ignite the gas generant, which produces nearly pure nitrogen gas to inflate the bag. The initial temperature is high but the nitrogen gas cools rapidly, so a fully deployed bag is only slightly above room temperature. Measuring the temperatures that occur during this event is part of the development activity.

A heat battery, or thermoaccumulator, can store the latent heat from a previously driven vehicle for up to three days at an ambient temperature of –29 °C. The accumulator is made of salt-based crystals which change from solid to liquid form above 78 °C. Heat provided by this device has proven to reduce the emissions which are generated during the first 20 s of the federal emissions test procedure. The unit also has potential application in passenger compartment heating.

5.3 HUMIDITY SENSING AND VEHICLE PERFORMANCE

Correlation of a number of vehicle tests requires that the humidity be monitored. Variations in humidity can explain variations that occur in test results.

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Significant, repeatable, and controllable results may lead to humidity sensing being part of future engine control systems and passenger compartment comfort control systems.

Some sensors, such as rain (and/or windshield moisture) or sun sensors, are already being used on some vehicles to control wiper blade and fan controls.

5.3.1 Engine Performance

Injecting water to cool the intake charge and prevent premature detonation is a technique that has been used in high-compression (≥10:1) engines. The cooling effect from evaporation reduces the operating temperature.

An increase in inlet air humidity has been shown to reduce the nitric oxide emissions. Condensation in the gas tank can add a considerable amount of moisture to the fuel. Measuring the actual amount of humidity or moisture present during development tests is useful to identify all variables that can affect performance.

5.3.2 Passenger Compartment Comfort

A traditional passenger temperature control system shown in Fig. 5.8 uses only temperature as the indication for the system to open or close blend doors in the HVAC (heater, ventilating, and air conditioning) system. Laboratory evaluations monitor the HVAC systems' effectiveness under known and controlled humidity conditions. A fuzzy logic system combining temperature and humidity sensing has been investigated by researchers for home use. In this case, additional humidity is available to speed up the effect of adding heat. In a vehicle application, the blower speed could be adjusted based on the presence of humidity or an alternate strategy could be developed which uses less energy from the vehicle to make the driver and passengers comfortable.

The development of new test techniques frequently involves either the development of new sensors or novel use of existing sensors. A sweat impulse test developed at Volkswagen AG allows researchers to evaluate the ability of a seat to direct sweat away from its surface.

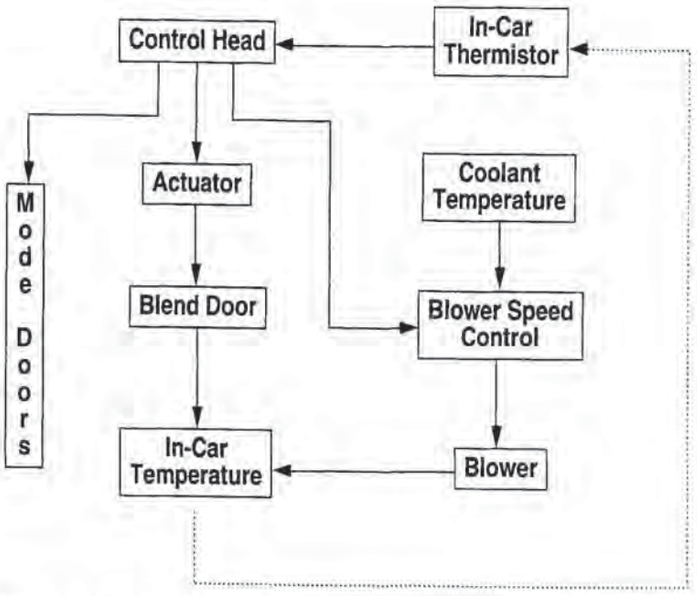


FIGURE 5.8 Automatic temperature control diagram.

As part of the measurement process, a platinum RTD (Sec. 5.4.5) and a capacitive humidity sensor provide data. In excessive sweating situations, the fabric is unable to absorb sufficient moisture, so it is passed to the surrounding environment as increased humidity.

5.3.3 Brake Moisture Sensing

Brake fluids are hygroscopic and, therefore, absorb moisture. Sufficient moisture lowers the boiling point of the brake fluid, and eventually vaporizes the fluid resulting in loss of stopping power. A meter has been developed that can be inserted into the master cylinder reservoir and measure the boiling point of the brake fluid. A heating element boils a sample of the brake fluid. A microcontroller calculates the actual boiling point by the initial temperature reading, temperature drop, and time between cooling and boiling. This approach may be applicable to other vehicle fluids that can be checked during maintenance procedures.

5.4 SENSORS FOR TEMPERATURE

Several different sensing techniques are used in production vehicles and during vehicle development to provide the temperature measurements. Table 5.4 shows a list of these techniques and the temperature range that is typical for this approach. Characteristics of temperature-sensing devices that allow a designer to determine if the approach will meet development or production requirements are explored in this section. In addition to the operating temperature range, linearity, response time, packaging, reliability, and cost are factors that must be considered. Temperature sensors can be as simple as thermal expansion devices, such as mercury or alcohol thermometers, or as complex as infrared sensors used in night vision systems. Common sensors and some recent additions to temperature sensing are covered in this section. Other sensor techniques, including the temperature-generating characteristics of quartz and temperature-sensing reed switches, are also possible but not covered.

5.4.1 Thermistors

Thermistors have found broad application acceptance in several vehicle systems that require temperature sensing from the coolant system to control the engine. The thermistor is a special

TABLE 5.4 Temperature Sensing Techniques versus Operating Range

Sensing technique	Temperature range, °C	Usage: Production (P) Development (D) Future (F)
Thermistor	0 to 500	P
Thermocouple	−200 to +3000	D
Bimetallic switch	−50 to +400 (650)	P
Potentiometer temperature sensor	−40 to +125	P
Platinum wire resistor (RTD)	−200 to +850 (−40 to +200)	D (P)
Semiconductor (junction)	−40 to +200	P
Thermostat (pressure spring)	−50 to +500	P
Fiber optic temperature sensor	+1800	D/F
Temperature indicator	+40 to +1350	D
Infrared	>Ta	F
Liquid thermometer	−200 to +1000	D

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class of resistance temperature sensor (Sec. 5.4.5) based on semiconductor type materials that exhibit a wide range of temperature coefficients. The resistivity depends upon the material used to form the thermistor. Both negative (NTC) and positive temperature coefficient (PTC) devices can be produced. Commercially available thermistor forms are beads, probes, disks, and rods. The characteristics of thermistor output are shown in Fig. 5.9. The exact relationship between temperature and resistance depends on the material used for the sensor, but the general form of the output can be expressed by the equation

$$R = R_O \cdot e^{\beta}(1/T - 1/T_O) \tag{5.5}$$

where R = resistance at temperature T in ohms
R_O = resistance at temperature T_O in ohms
e = base of natural log
T, T_O = absolute temperature in K
β = indicator of shape of NTC curve

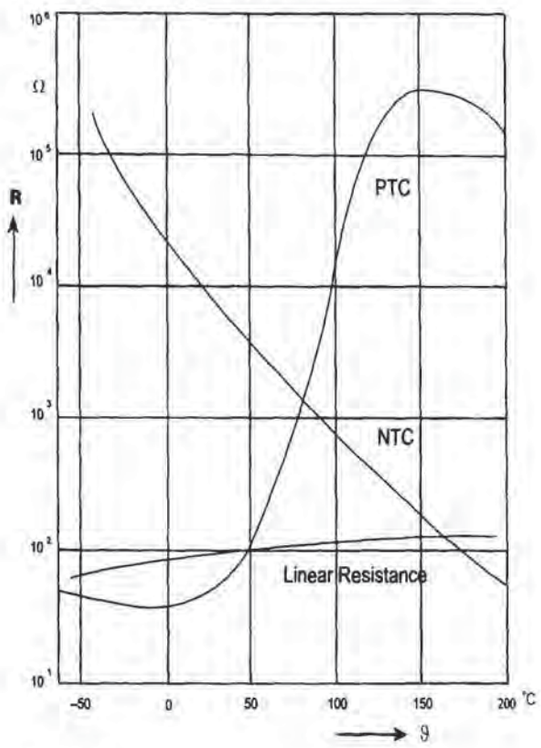


FIGURE 5.9 Thermistor output versus temperature.

This accounts for the high degree of nonlinearity in the output. However, the thermistor's nonlinearity can either be tolerated in many automotive applications, or corrected by an MCU or by circuit techniques. In the case of the water temperature indicator, for example, the thermistor's resistance is matched to a normal operating point on the gage; thus, the nonlinearity during conditions that generate higher temperature is not a problem.

Thermistors have a usable temperature range from –250 to +650 °C. Recent developments in automotive thermistors have focused on techniques to reduce cost and improve the manufacturability and reliability.

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5.4.2 Thermocouples

Thermocouples are used frequently during the development phase of the vehicle because of their low cost, the broad range of temperature measurements that are possible from a single thermocouple such as iron-constantan, ease of extending the range through other materials, ease in obtaining a variety of form factors (especially small shapes), ease in forming the thermocouple, and ease in interfacing to temperature-recording equipment. The thermocouple type, wire size, and construction are factors that allow different units to be used from –250 to +1700 °C.

A thermocouple is formed by a pair of dissimilar conductors connected at one end. A voltage output E, proportional to the difference in temperature T_1 and T_2, is the basis of thermoelectric temperature measurements, also known as the Seebeck effect.

Thermocouple junctions can be formed by welding, soldering, or pressing materials together. Measurements can be made very easily; however, the highest accuracy is obtained by taking into account a number of factors, including reference junction considerations and a number (five) of laws that govern thermocouple behavior. Common types and their operating characteristics are shown in Table 5.5.

TABLE 5.5 Common Thermocouples and Application Factors

	Conductor		Temperature	Standard error	Seebeck
ISA code	Positive	Negative	Range, °C	Limit, °C	Coefficient, μV/°C
E*	Chromel	Constantan	0 to +316	±2	62
J*	Iron	Constantan	0 to +277	±2	51
T*	Copper	Constantan	–59 to +93	±1	40
K*	Chromel	Alumel	0 to +277	±2	40
N*	Nicrosil	Nisil	0 to +277	±2	38
S*	Platinum†	Platinum	0 to +538	±3	7
R*	Platinum‡	Platinum	0 to +538	±3	7

* Other temperature ranges and error limits are available.
† 10% Rhodium.
‡ 13% Rhodium.

5.4.3 Bimetallic Switch

A bimetallic temperature switch uses two metal strips with different coefficients of linear expansion that are welded together. Increasing temperature causes the strips to warp predictably. A switch point can be established by an initial calibration that indicates that a critical temperature has been reached and provides an input to an electronic control unit or a lamp indication. Switch types can be disk or cantilever construction. The use of switches does not require analog-to-digital conversion in control systems with microcontrollers, but provides limited information (only above or below a desired operating point) about the system. Early engine control systems used a disk switch in the air cleaner to indicate operation below 13 °C and a cantilever design in the engine coolant to indicate temperature above 71 °C.

5.4.4 Potentiometer Temperature Sensor

A bimetallic actuator can be combined with a high-resolution potentiometer to provide a temperature sensor for automotive applications. The linear movement of the bimetallic stack is transmitted by a stainless steel tube and measured as a distance by a conductive plastic film potentiometer providing a linear indication of temperatures up to 650 °C. The time constant for the sensor is approximately 70 s.

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5.4.5 RTDs

A resistive temperature detector, or RTD, made of platinum is the highest inherent accuracy temperature sensor. The RTD has an output that varies with temperature based on the following equation:

$$\text{RTD} = R_O \cdot (1 + A \cdot T + B \cdot T^2) \tag{5.6}$$

where RTD = value of RTD at 0 °C in ohms and is 100 Ω for Pt100 and 200 Ω for Pt200
A = detector constant = $3.908 \cdot 10^{-3}$ ($°C^{-1}$) for Pt100
B = detector constant = $-5.802 \cdot 10^{-7}$ ($°C^{-2}$) for Pt100
T = temperature in °C

A constant current is applied to the RTD to obtain a voltage output over the range from −200 to +850 °C. Linearity can be within 3.6 percent for a range of 0 to 850 °C.

Other metals like nickel, nickel-iron alloy, copper, and aluminum can also be used for the RTDs. In addition to wire-wound RTDs, thin-film techniques also allow an RTD to be applied to a substrate, such as ceramic or silicon.

5.4.6 Semiconductor Techniques

Several semiconductor parameters vary linearly over the operating temperature range. As shown in Fig. 5.10, the gate threshold voltage of a power MOSFET changes from 1.17 to 0.69 times its 25 °C value when the temperature increases from −40 to 150 °C. Also, the breakdown voltage of the power MOSFET varies from 0.9 to 1.18 times its value at 25 °C over the same −40 to 150 °C temperature range (Fig. 5.10). These relationships are frequently used to determine the critical temperature (junction temperature) of semiconductor components in actual circuit operation. External package-level temperature measurements can be several degrees different than the junction temperature, especially during rapid, high-energy switching events. The actual junction temperature and the resulting effect on semiconductor parameters must be taken into account for the proper application of semiconductor devices. Semiconductors can be used for sensing temperature within their operating temperature range.

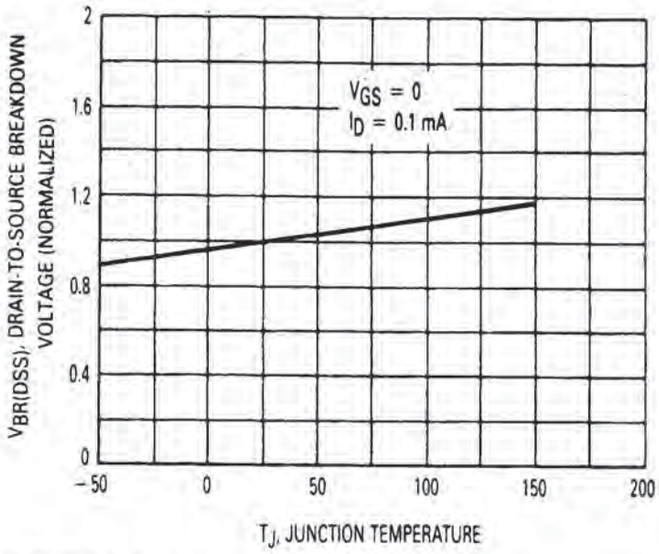


FIGURE 5.10 Breakdown voltage versus temperature.

The most commonly referenced transistor temperature measurement is the V_{BE} relationship to temperature. A silicon temperature sensor that utilizes this effect has a nominal output of 730 mV at –40 °C and an output of 300 mV at 150 °C. The linearity of this device is shown in Fig. 5.11. The total accuracy is within ±3.0 mV including nonlinearity which is typically within ±1 °C in the range of –40 to 150 °C. The readings are made with a constant (collector) current of 0.1 mA passing through the device to minimize the effect of self-heating of the junction.

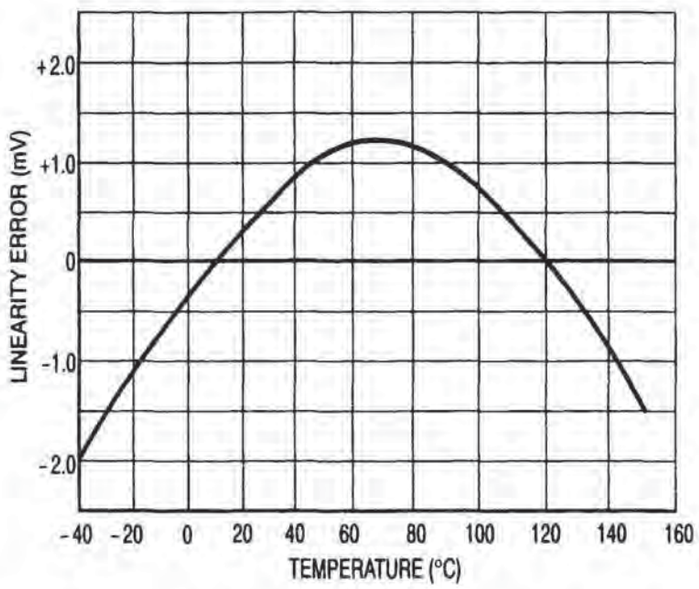


FIGURE 5.11 Linearity of silicon temperature sensor.

The linear relationship of the V_{BE} of a transistor to temperature provides a considerable improvement in accuracy over a thermistor. However, the limited operating range of semiconductor temperature sensors (–40 to 150 °C) has limited their application in vehicles. To be cost-effective in automotive applications, semiconductor sensing is usually incorporated with other sensing or interface devices.

An RTD (Sec. 5.4.5) with an aluminum metal film has been integrated with a semiconductor process to provide a temperature sensor that can directly drive the analog-to-digital input in a microcontroller unit (MCU). The sensor has better than ±2 percent accuracy over a –50 to 150 °C temperature range. On-chip linearization techniques avoid look-up table linearization by the MCU.

Another integrated semiconductor temperature sensor uses the fact that two identical transistors operating at a constant ratio of collector current densities r results in the difference in base-emitter voltages being $(kT) \cdot (\ln r)$. Both Boltzman's constant k and the charge of an electron q are constant, so the resulting voltage is directly proportional to absolute temperature. The voltage is then converted to a current by low-temperature coefficient thin-film resistors.

Polysilicon diodes and resistors can be produced as part of a power MOSFET semiconductor manufacturing process and used as temperature-sensing elements to determine the junction temperature of the device. The thermal sensing that is performed by the polysilicon elements is a significant improvement over power device temperature sensing that is performed by an external temperature-sensing element. An extreme thermal gradient exists between the maximum junction temperature at the top (active area) of the power device and the remote point which is able to be measured by a thermistor or thermocouple. Placing the thermal-sensing element inside the package improves the measurement process considerably.

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By sensing with poly resistors or diodes, the sensor can be located close to the center of the power device near the source bond pads where the current density is the highest and, consequently, the highest die temperature occurs. The thermal conductivity of the oxide that separates the polysilicon diodes from the power device is two orders of magnitude less than that of silicon. However, because the layer is thin, the polysilicon element offers an accurate indication of the actual peak junction temperature.

A very low on-resistance power FET that incorporates a temperature sensing diode is shown in Fig. 5.12. The power device achieves an on-resistance of 5 milliohms (including packaging resistance) at 25 °C utilizing a production power FET process. The power FET process was chosen instead of a power IC process because a large die size was required to meet the power dissipation requirements of a very cost sensitive application. A minor modification (the addition of a single masking layer) to a production power FET process allows both sensing and protection features to be integrated. Devices that are produced using the SMARTDISCRETE technology, as this approach is called by Motorola, are one way to provide more cost-effective, smart power semiconductors, especially for high-current or low on-resistance power applications.

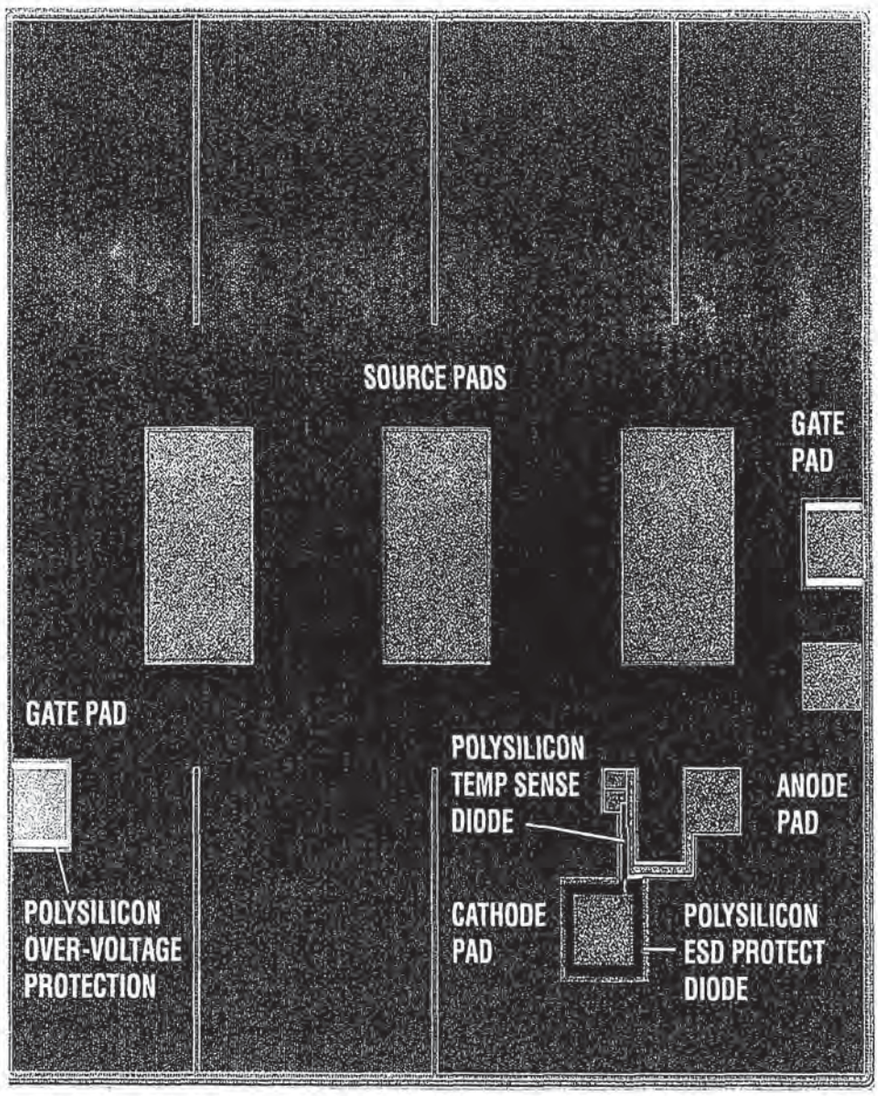


FIGURE 5.12 Temperature sensor integrated in power MOSFET. *(Die photomicrograph Courtesy Motorola Inc.)*

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An accurate indication of the maximum die temperature is obtained by monitoring the output voltage when a constant current is passed through the integrated polysilicon diode(s). A number of diodes are actually provided in the design. A single diode has a temperature coefficient of 1.90 mV/°C. Two or more diodes can be placed in series if a larger output is desired. For greater accuracy, the diodes can be trimmed during wafer-level testing by blowing fusible links made from polysilicon. The response time of the diodes is less than 100 μs which has allowed the device to withstand a direct short across an automobile battery with external circuitry providing shutdown prior to device failure. The sensing capability also allows the output device to provide an indication (with additional external circuitry) if the heatsinking is not proper when the unit is installed in a module or if a change occurs in the application which would ultimately cause a failure.

A smart power IC, like Motorola's SMARTMOS™ process, can have multiple power drivers integrated on a single monolithic piece of silicon. Each of these drivers can have a temperature sensor integrated to determine the proper operating status and shut off only a specific driver if a fault occurs. The temperature sensor is basically a band gap reference. In this case, two diodes' junctions are biased with different current densities. Circuitry in the smart power IC process establishes a voltage reference and a trip point.

5.4.7 Thermostat (Mechanical Temperature Sensing)

The earliest method of temperature regulation used in vehicles is still in use today—the thermostat. The expansion element usually activates a valve which redirects the flow of coolant into a radiator bypass line when a specific temperature is reached.

5.4.8 Fiber Optic Temperature Sensors

High-temperature sensors capable of operating up to 1800 °C have been developed using optical fibers. The response time of the sensor is on the order of 500 ms and the accuracy is within ±0.5 percent. The noncontact sensor uses a single optical fiber that has an outside diameter of 0.5 to 1.0 mm. The probe structure is critical to the sensor's sensitivity and the distance coefficient that relates the detection surface area to the distance at which the probe will be placed for measurement.

A sapphire fiber optic sensor has been developed to measure high temperatures such as those found near the tip of a spark plug during combustion. The sensor can withstand temperatures up to 4000 °C and has an accuracy of 0.2 percent at 1000 °C. The sensor has been used to identify knock and to characterize flame front propagation.

5.4.9 Temperature Indicators

Temperature-indicating materials have been developed with melting points that can be calibrated to ±1 °C. When the temperature of the device is exceeded, a phase change occurs and the material changes color. The material is available in paint, patch, pellet, and applicator stick form. Temperature ranges from 38 to 1371 °C are available. This kind of indication is useful during the development phase of automotive components to verify that a critical design temperature has not been exceeded.

5.4.10 Infrared Temperature Sensing

Blackbody emittance is the basis for infrared (IR) thermometry. Objects at temperatures above –273 °C emit radiant energy in an amount proportional to the fourth power of their

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temperature. An IR sensor consists of collecting optics, lenses, and/or fiber optics, spectral filtering, and a detector as the front end. The primary characteristic of the optics is the field of view (FOV) which allows a specific target to be measured at a prescribed distance.

Infrared sensors have been used extensively for noncontact temperature measurements in process control. In automobiles, infrared sensors use temperature variations to produce a monochrome image in night vision systems. Board-level temperature testing also utilizes IR-sensing techniques to identify hot spots and potential failure points.

5.4.11 Thermal Actuators/Thermal Cooling

Chemical sensors like the oxygen sensor described in Sec. 5.2.6 require a minimum operating temperature to be effective. Semiconductor technology allows platinum and silicon heaters and temperature sensors to be produced on a thin diaphragm, or window, etched into a silicon substrate. Temperatures can be produced in the window which exceed 1200 °C, while the supporting rim of silicon remains essentially at room temperature. This ability may allow fast-response sensors to be developed for vehicle applications.

Other silicon development activity using micromachining techniques may allow heat pipes and silicon-level heatsinks to remove heat more effectively from rapidly switching semiconductor devices.

5.5 HUMIDITY SENSORS

Humidity sensors are used extensively during vehicle and component development, especially in determining the ability to withstand humidity and temperature cycling tests. Engine performance can be affected by humidity. A sensor that can pass rigorous automotive qualification tests and meet the desired specifications and cost criteria would provide additional input for the engine control system. In a less rugged application, HVAC systems may benefit from the input from humidity sensors. Humidity sensors are not used on production vehicles at the present time. However, some potential techniques that are used in development and nonautomotive applications are described in this section.

Techniques to measure humidity are listed in Table 5.6. Most of these are actually laboratory instruments. The most well known approach to humidity measurements is the use of wet bulb and dry bulb thermomometer readings interpreted through the use of a psychrometric chart which relates all basic humidity readings. The effect of humidity on polymers and the use of semiconductor-processing techniques has created actual sensors that do not require the constant calibration, have less drift, improved reliability, and potentially can achieve automotive cost objectives. Three sensing techniques that have potential for future vehicle use are capacitive, resistive, and oxidized porous silicon.

5.5.1 Capacitive Humidity Sensors

A thin-film polymer capacitive-type relative humidity sensor can be produced by using semiconductor technology. The dielectric constant of the polymer thin film changes linearly with changes in atmospheric relative humidity. A desirable feature, in addition to long-term stability and operation to 180 °C, is fast wet-up/dry-down performance.

A temperature sensor can easily be added to the RH sensor, which increases the operating range and the functionality.

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TABLE 5.6 Techniques for Measuring Humidity/Moisture

Principle	Type measurement
Gravimetric hygrometer	Instrument
Pressure-humidity generator	Instrument
Wet bulb/dry bulb (psychrometer)	Instrument
Hair element	Instrument
Electric conductivity	Instrument
Dew cell	Instrument
Chilled mirror	Instrument
Karl Fisher titration	Instrument
Electrolytic	Instrument
Lithium chloride	Instrument
Capacitance hygropolymer	Production sensor
Bulk polymer (resistance)	Production sensor
Thin-film polymer (capacitance)	Production sensor
Gold/aluminum oxide	Production sensor
Oxidized porous silicon (OPS)	Experimental sensor

5.5.2 Resistive Humidity Sensors

Both surface and bulk polymer resistance sensors have been developed for measuring relative humidity. In bulk polymer film units, mobile ions are released from the molecular structure with increased humidity levels resulting in orders-of-magitude change in resistance over the operating range. Diode temperature compensation is used to improve accuracy over the temperature range. With an ac excitation at 1 kHz, a change from 10 to 100 percent RH produces a corresponding resistance variation from $2 \cdot 10^7$ to $2 \cdot 10^3$ ohms.

5.5.3 Oxidized Porous Silicon

A capacitive-type sensor has been developed that uses oxidized porous silicon (OPS) as a moisture-absorbing dielectric between the electrodes of the capacitor. An electrolysis process is used to create a thin porous layer on the top of a silicon wafer. The silicon is converted to OPS by a high-temperature treatment in either oxygen or steam. Metal electrodes are deposited on the top and back of the OPS to complete the capacitive structure.

When water vapor contacts the sensor, it permeates through the porous structure between the electrodes. The response of a typical sensor increases 800 percent when exposed to an RH change from 1 to 40 percent. Since semiconductor techniques are used in the manufacturing process, the potential to integrate signal conditioning and other sensors may provide an attractive solution for future vehicle sensing requirements.

5.6 CONCLUSIONS

Several factors are influencing the temperature-sensing requirements for future vehicles. The ultra-efficient vehicle will operate at higher temperatures and utilize brake energy-recovery. Both of these aspects will increase the temperature environment for other vehicle components.

The requirements for sensors in future vehicle systems include improved performance (sensitivity) and reliability in spite of operating at higher temperatures, lower cost, space and weight reduction, greater functionality including diagnostics and self-test, and ease of inter-

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facing with an MCU for adaptive control and interchangeability. The capability of semiconductor technology to provide sensing information for failure detection provides a means for increased reliability in several vehicle subsystems.

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GLOSSARY

Accuracy A comparison of the actual output signal of a device to the true value of the input. The various errors (such as linearity, hysteresis, repeatability, and temperature shift) attributing to the accuracy of a device are usually expressed as a percent of full-scale output (FSO).

Maximum operating temperature The maximum body temperature at which the thermistor will operate for an extended period of time with acceptable stability of its characteristics. This temperature is the result of the internal or external heating, or both, and should not exceed the maximum value specified.

Negative temperature coefficient (NTC) An NTC thermistor is one in which the zero-power resistance decreases with an increase in temperature.

Operating temperature range The range of temperature between minimum and maximum temperature at which the output will meet the specified operating characteristics.

Self-generating Providing an output signal without applied excitation, such as a thermoelectric transducer.

Self-heating Internal heating resulting from electric energy dissipated within the unit.

Storage temperature range The range of temperature between minimum and maximum which can be applied without causing the sensor (unit) to fail to meet the specified operating characteristics.

Temperature coefficient of full-scale span The percent change in the full-scale span per unit change in temperature relative to the full-scale span at a specified temperature.

Temperature hysteresis The difference in output at any temperature in the operating temperature range when the temperature is approached from the minimum operating temperature and when approached from the maximum operating temperature with zero input applied.

Thermal time constant The thermal time constant is the time required for a thermistor to change to 63.2 percent of the total difference between its initial and final body temperature when subjected to a step function change in temperature under zero-power conditions.

Transfer function A mathematical, graphical, or tabular statement of the influence which a system or element has on the output compared at the input and output terminals.

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CHAPTER 6
EXHAUST GAS SENSORS

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Robert Bosch GmbH
Lambda Oxygen Sensor Development

6.1 BASIC CONCEPTS

6.1.1 Combustion

The sole products of complete fuel combustion are the nontoxic substances carbon dioxide and water:

$$C_mH_n + \left(m + \frac{n}{4}\right) 0_2 \rightarrow m\,CO_2 + \frac{n}{2}\,H_2O \tag{6.1}$$

The theoretical air requirement for this process is 14.7 kg air for each kilogram of fuel; this corresponds to approximately 10 m^3 air per liter of fuel. The air/fuel ratio is defined as stoichiometric when the engine is supplied with the exact quantity of air required for complete combustion.

6.1.2 Definition of Normalized air/fuel Ratio Lambda

The mixture ratio is defined by the normalized air/fuel ratio lambda (λ):

$$\lambda = \frac{\text{current air-fuel ratio}}{\text{stoichiometric air-fuel ratio}} \tag{6.2}$$

Because the conditions within the engine do not correspond to the absolute ideal required for perfect combustion, a number of products of incomplete combustion occur, even if a stoichiometric air/fuel ratio ($\lambda = 1$) is maintained. Thus, the CO_2 and H_2O are joined by CO, H_2, and HC (hydrocarbons C_xH_y) along with corresponding amounts of not reacted (free) oxygen. The water-gas equilibrium defines the ratio of CO to H_2. At high combustion temperatures, the N_2 and O_2 in the air supply form nitrous oxides such as NO, NO_2, N_2O (generic designation: NO_x).

6.1.3 Composition of Untreated Exhaust Gas

The composition of the exhaust gases entering the catalytic converter (untreated or raw emissions) varies according to the quality of combustion and, even more importantly, as a function

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of the normalized air/fuel ratio lambda (λ) (Fig. 6.1). Rich mixtures (lambda < 1, excess fuel) produce high concentrations of CO, H_2, and HC, while lean mixtures (lambda > 1, excess oxygen) generate higher levels of NO_x and free oxygen. The lower combustion-chamber temperatures associated with mixture ratios of lambda > 1.2 result in reductions in NO_x concentrations accompanied by increased HC concentrations. Maximum emissions of CO_2 (greenhouse gas) occur at a slightly lean mixture (lambda ≈ 1.1).

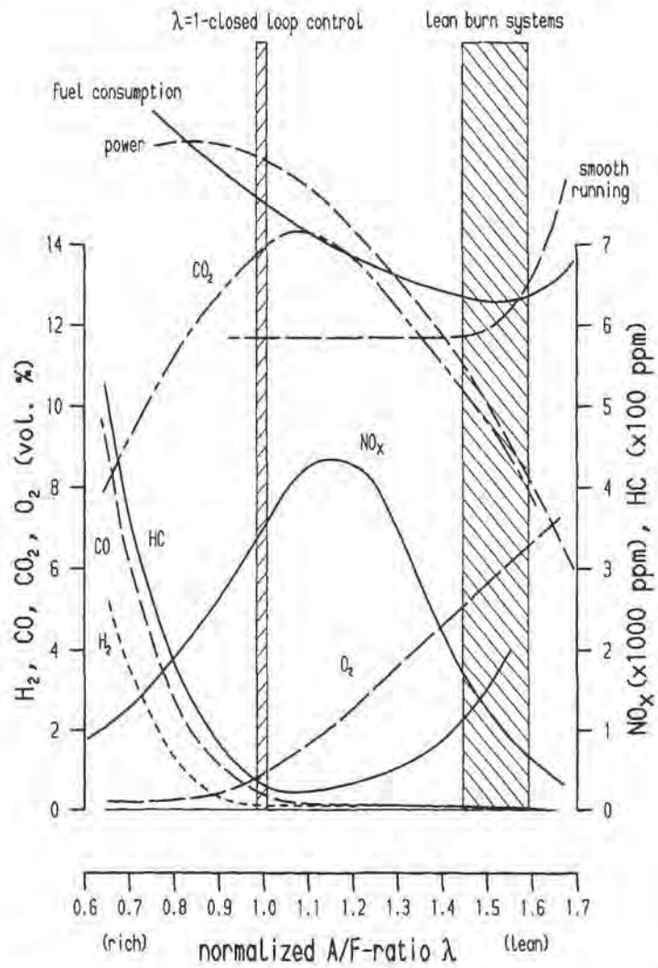


FIGURE 6.1 Typical curves for fuel consumption, power, smoothness, and composition of raw exhaust gases relative to lambda in a spark-ignition engine.

6.1.4 Lambda Closed-Loop Control: Design Concepts

Lambda Control Ranges. The main elements considered in defining the range of the lambda closed-loop control system (Table 6.1) are engine design, emission limits, fuel consumption, and the requirements for performance and smooth running.

Treatment of Exhaust Gases. Catalytic treatment of exhaust gases is essential for achieving compliance with the stringent current United States emission standards (Table 6.2). In the catalytic process, CO, H_2, and HC are oxidized to form CO_2 and H_2O, while the constituents of

TABLE 6.1 Lambda Control Ranges

	Lambda = 1—spark ignition engine	Lean-burn concept	Lean-mix concept	Diesel engine
Lambda-control range	Lambda = 1 ± < 0.005	1.4–1.7	1.4–1.7 and lambda = 1	1.1–7
Target	Opt. catalytic aftertreatment	Fuel economy low CO, HC, (NO_x)*	Improved fuel economy within allowable emission	Reduced emissions particles and NO_x
Lambda sensors	Lambda = 1 sensor	Lean A-F sensor	Wide-range A-F sensor	Lean A-F sensor
Exhaust gas aftertreatment	Three-way-catalyst (TWC)	Oxi-cat NO_x-cat*	TWC NO_x-cat*	Particle filter* NO_x-cat*
Control concepts	Conventional or continuous	Continuous	Lean: continuous lambda = 1: conventional	Full-load and EGR-control
Series production	Discont. control	—	Yes	—

* Not available yet.
TWC: three-way-catalyst; Oxi-cat: oxidation-catalyst; NO_x-cat: NO_x-reduction-catalyst.

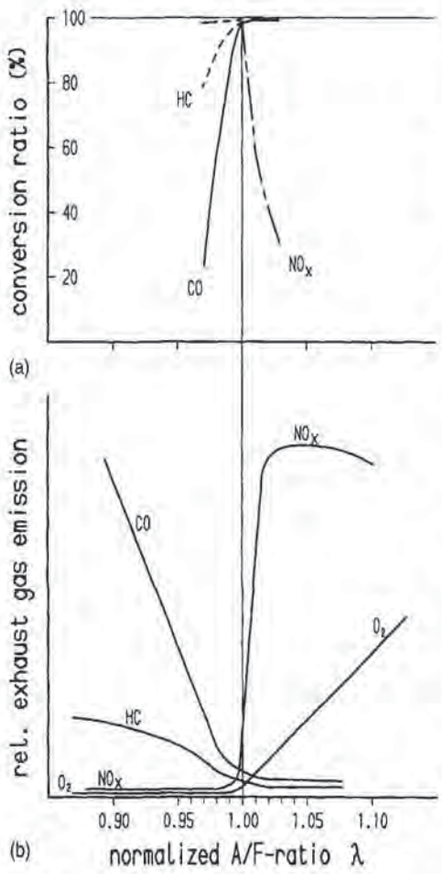


FIGURE 6.2 (*a*) Conversion rates for CO, NO_x, and HC in a new three-way catalytic converter; (*b*) typical curve for exhaust-gas composition downstream from a new three-way catalytic converter.

NO_x are reduced to N_2 and O_2. A three-way catalytic converter TWC (selective catalytic converter) and closed-loop control system featuring a lambda sensor are essential elements in achieving adequate reductions in all three pollutants (Fig. 6.2). The engine must be operated within a narrow range of $|\Delta\lambda| < 0.005$ at lambda = 1.

Oxidation catalysts are sometimes employed to reduce CO and HC emissions from lean-burn and diesel engines. Meanwhile, NO_x reduction catalysts and particle filters are being developed for future applications (Table 6.1).

Lambda Closed-Loop Control. Lambda closed-loop control is incorporated in the engine's electronic control system. The control system regulates lambda upstream from the catalytic converter with the aid of an oxygen sensor. System lag results in relatively long control-response delays, especially at low rpm. For this reason, the system must incorporate a pilot-control function capable of adjusting the mixture to the desired lambda with the highest possible degree of precision. This arrangement makes it possible to avoid excessive control deviations and harmful emission peaks of the kind that lead to high emission levels and reduced vehicle performance.

Conventional Closed-Loop Lambda Control. The closed-loop control concept pre-

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TABLE 6.2 Summary of Emission Levels for Spark-Ignition Engines
(Status: July 1992)

		Exhaust emission limits						
	Start of sale	HC	CO	NO_x	HC + NO_x	Unit	Remarks	
California	MY 1993	0.25	3.4	0.4	—	g/mile		
	MY 1994	0.125	3.4	0.2	—	g/mile	TLEV 10 %	% of fleet,
	MY 1997	0.075	3.4	0.2	—	g/mile	LEV 25 %	stepwise
	MY 1997	0.04	1.7	0.2	—	g/mile	ULEV 2 %	increase
	MY 1998	0.0	0.0	0.0	—	g/mile	ZEV 2 %	
USA (Fed.)	MY 1983	0.41	3.4	1.0	—	g/mile		
	MY 1994	0.25	3.4	0.4	—	g/mile		
	MY 2003	0.125	1.7	0.2	—	g/mile	on need	
Japan	4/1981	0.25	2.1	0.25	—	g/km	10-mode	
EG	1992	—	2.72	—	0.97	g/km	MVEG I	
	10/1996	0.15	2.1	0.3	—	g/km	MVEG II	proposal parliament
		—	2.2	—	0.5	g/km		proposal commission
	1996	—	1.5	—	0.2	g/km	MVEG III	proposal Germany

TLEV: Transitional Low-Emission Vehicles
ULEV: Ultra Low-Emission Vehicles
LEV: Low-Emission Vehicles
ZEV: Zero-Emission Vehicles
MVEG: Motor Vehicle Emission Group

sently in use in spark-ignition engines is based on 2-point lambda = 1 control (Fig. 6.3) with the mixture composition oscillating around the optimum lambda. When the exhaust mixture shifts from rich to lean, the voltage from a lambda = 1 probe drops from approximately 800 mV (lambda < 1) to approximately 100 mV (lambda > 1), with a steep signal change (lambda jump) occurring at lambda = 1 (Sec. 6.2.1). Once the signal from the sensor crosses beyond the specified threshold value (e.g., 450 mV), the system responds by progressively leaning out the mixture until the probe signal drops below this border again. Once this process is completed, the system reverts to graduated mixture enrichment. Depending upon the system lag, the subsequent control-oscillation rate will lie in the 0.5 . . . 5 Hz range, with an amplitude of $\Delta\lambda = \pm 0.01 \ldots 0.05$ relative to the median lambda. During the lean-operation period, the catalytic converter stores oxygen for release during the rich-mixture phases. This arrangement ensures high conversion rates despite the control oscillations. Preferably an algorithm with proportional plus integral characteristics (PI controller) is used. Variations in system lag and integrator pitch affect the amplitude and the frequency of the oscillations. The proportional factors have to be adapted. Because load and rpm have a major effect on system lag, control parameters are defined and stored in a load/rpm control map.

Continuous Lambda = 1 Control. A continuous lambda = 1 control can be employed to achieve substantially smaller control deviations, providing attendant reductions in emissions, especially when used with aged catalytic converters. An oxygen sensor with a roughly linear or linearized lambda characteristic curve is required for this arrangement (Secs. 6.2.5 and 6.2.6).

6.1.5 On-Board Diagnosis (OBD II)

From the 1994 model year onward, on-board devices capable of monitoring the operation of all emission-relevant vehicle components will be required in the United States. Pollutant emission sensors (see Sec. 6.6) to measure levels of CO, NO_x, and HC emissions downstream from the catalytic converter represent an ideal means of monitoring the performance of both converter and oxygen sensor. Unfortunately, there are still no sensors of this type suitable for

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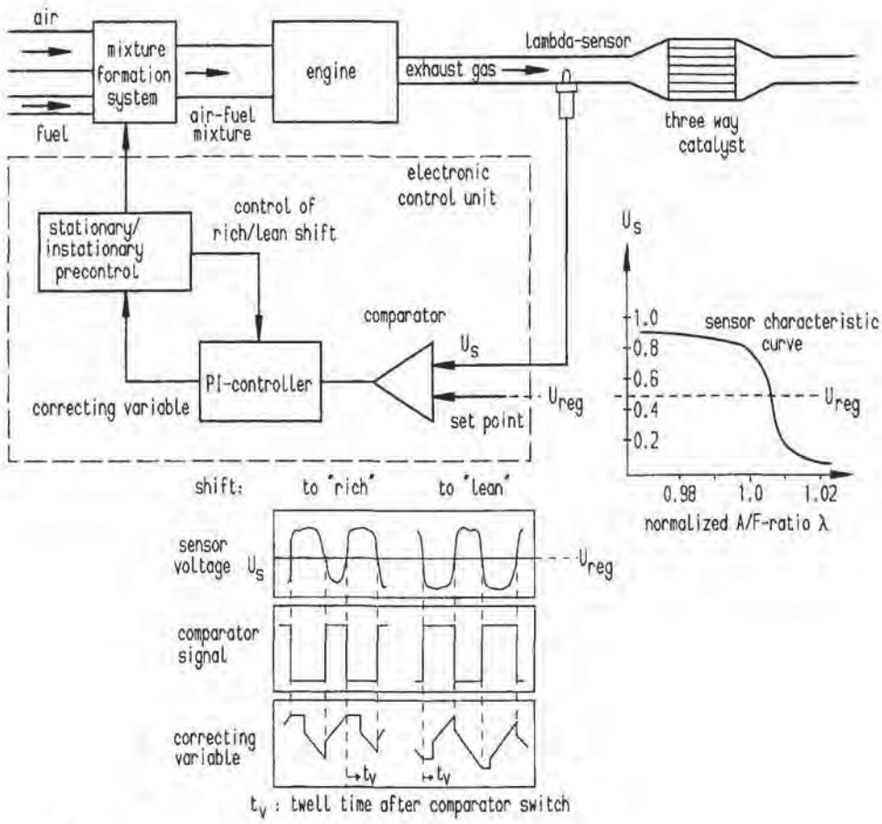


FIGURE 6.3 Operating diagram for lambda control.

use in the engine's exhaust stream. As an alternative, there exist concepts that employ a second oxygen sensor behind the catalytic converter to detect aging in the converter and/or the lambda sensor.

6.2 PRINCIPLES OF EXHAUST GAS SENSORS FOR LAMBDA CONTROL

6.2.1 Lambda = 1 Sensor: Nernst Type (ZrO_2)

Sensing Mechanism. In principle, the lambda sensor operates as a solid-electrolyte galvanic oxygen-concentration cell (Fig. 6.4). A ceramic element consisting of zirconium dioxide and yttrium oxide is employed as a gas-impermeable solid electrolyte. This mixed oxide is an almost perfect conductor of oxygen ions over a wide temperature range (Sec. 6.3). The solid electrolyte is designed to separate the exhaust gas from the reference atmosphere. Both sides feature catalytically active platinum electrodes. At the inner electrode (air; $pO_2'' - 0.21$ bar), the electron reaction

$$O_2 + 4e^- \rightarrow 2\,O^{2-} \tag{6.3}$$

incorporates oxygen ions in the electrolyte. These migrate to the outer electrode (exhaust gas; pO_2' variable $< pO_2''$), where the counterreaction occurs at the three-phase boundary (elec-

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trolyte-platinum-gas). A counteractive electrical field is created, and an electrical voltage U_s corresponding to the partial-pressure ratio is generated in accordance with the Nernst equation:

$$U_s = \frac{RT}{4F} \ln \frac{pO_2''}{pO_2'} \tag{6.4}$$

where R = general gas constant
F = Faraday's constant
T = absolute temperature
pO_2 = partial pressure of oxygen

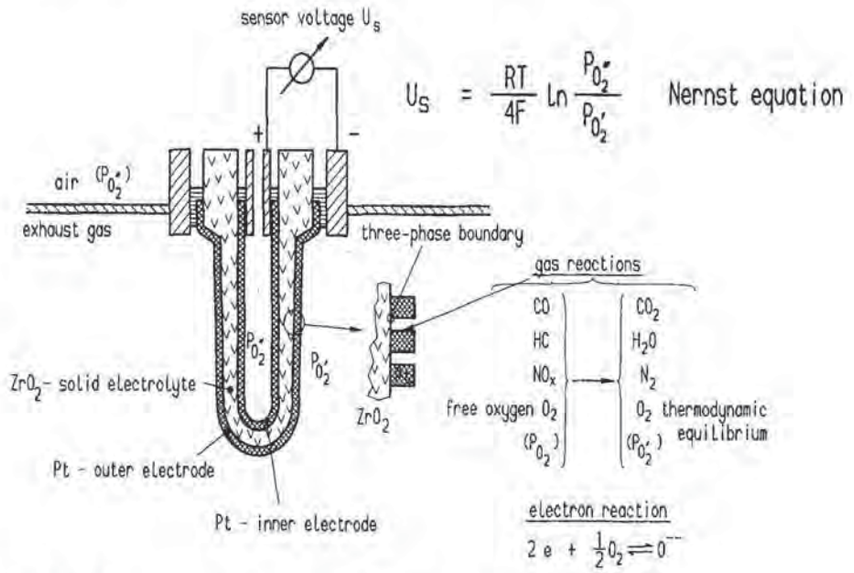


FIGURE 6.4 Diagram illustrating design and operation of a lambda = 1 sensor.

Catalytic Process. Measurements of oxygen content can only serve as the basis for unambiguous conclusions regarding the lambda of the exhaust gas when a state of thermodynamic gas equilibrium is established at the catalytically active electrodes on the oxygen sensor (residual oxygen). The absolute concentrations of the individual components in the engine's exhaust gases fluctuate across a wide range in accordance with the instantaneous operating conditions (warm-up, acceleration, steady-state operation, deceleration). The oxygen sensor must thus be capable of converting the gas mixture that it receives into a state of complete thermodynamic equilibrium. The resulting requirements are a high level of catalytic activity at the electrode and a protective layer capable of limiting the gas quantity. Should it prove impossible to achieve thermodynamic equilibrium at the electrode, the sensor's lambda signal will be erroneous.

Characteristic Curve. The concentration of residual oxygen fluctuates exponentially (by several orders of 10) in the vicinity of a stoichiometric air/fuel mixture (lambda = 1). In accordance with Eq. (6.4), this leads to massive variations in sensor voltage (lambda = 1 jump) with the characteristic lambda curve (Fig. 6.5).

Reference Atmosphere. Ambient air is the most commonly used O_2 reference. Alternatives include a metal-metal oxide mixture or a pumped reference medium. With this method, an O_2 reference pumping current is superimposed on the voltage measurement to generate an approximately constant O_2 partial pressure at the encapsulated reference electrode.

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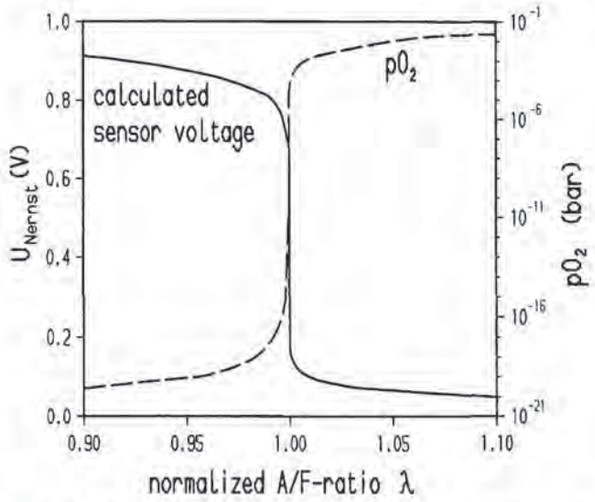


FIGURE 6.5 Equilibrium partial pressure of oxygen pO_2 and resulting curve for Nernst voltage at ≈ 700 °C relative to the normalized air-fuel ratio lambda.

6.2.2 Lambda = 1 Sensor: Semiconductor Type

Sensing Mechanism. Oxidic semiconductors such as TiO_2 and $SrTiO_3$ rapidly achieve equilibrium with the oxygen partial pressure in the surrounding gas phase at relatively low temperatures. Changes in the partial pressure of the adjacent oxygen produce variations in the oxygen vacancy concentration of the material (TiO_{2-x} respectively $SrTiO_{3-x}$), thereby modifying its volume conductivity.

$$R_T = A\ pO_2^n \exp\left(\frac{E}{kT}\right) \tag{6.5}$$

where R_T = semiconductor resistance
A = constant
E = activation energy
k = Boltzmann constant
T = absolute temperature
$n \approx 1/4$.

This effect, which is exploited to determine lambda, is also superposed by the conductivity's temperature dependence. Electrical resistance and sensor response times are both inversely proportional to temperature, as equilibrium is achieved more rapidly through diffusion in the oxygen vacancies.

Design. The ability to dispense with an O_2 reference allows an extremely simple design featuring an integrated heater. The porous semiconductor thick-film layer is generally positioned and sintered onto a planar Al_2O_3 substrate between two electrodes. Thin-film layers are also being developed as an alternative.

Characteristic Curve. At lambda = 1, the sensor layer displays an extreme change in conductivity due to the large pO_2 variation (see Sec. 6.2.1 and Fig. 6.5). When new, TiO_2 sensors provide essentially the same response as ZrO_2-based lambda = 1 probes. Variations in the rates of increase for lean and rich resistance and for response time occur over its lifetime, with the emission-control system undergoing a significant shift toward lean.

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Principles of Operation. A voltage is applied to the TiO_2 resistor R_T and a serial reference resistor. The voltage drop at the serial resistor depends on R_T, respectively on lambda. In a three-pole version, the applied voltage is taken from the heater voltage; for the four-pole version (insulated ground) a separate supply is employed. Temperature compensation may be required, depending upon the specific application.

6.2.3 Lean A/F Sensor: Nernst Type

Sensing Mechanism. It is always possible to employ a potentiometric lambda = 1 sensor (Sec. 6.2.1) as a lean A/F sensor by using the flat part of the Nernst voltage curve (Sec. 6.4 and Fig. 6.5) to derive the values at lambda > 1. The diminutive characteristic sensor voltages in this lambda range (U_S < 65 mV at lambda > 1.05) mean that stringent requirements for consistency must be met. Minute voltage deviations of just a few mV are sufficient to produce substantial errors in lambda.

Design. For this reason, special sensors must be employed in applications in which quantitative determination of lambda > 1.05 is required. To this end, special electrode manufacturing techniques are used to enhance catalytic activity, while a power heater (18 W) is used in conjunction with a protection tube featuring a lower gas-flow rate to provide a more constant ceramic temperature.

Principles of Operation. A high-output input amplifier is required for measurement of the low voltage levels associated with lean exhaust gases. In vehicle testing, lambda control has proven effective when used together with a classical mixture regulator. Even alternating operation (lambda = 1 and lean) with a sensor in the same vehicle is possible. Depending upon accuracy requirements, lean operation is possible in a range extending to lambda ≈ 1.5.

Nonautomotive Applications. Lambda-controlled operation can be employed to maintain narrow tolerances and to limit drift in oil- and gas-fired units; the benefits include low fuel consumption, enhanced safety, and lower emissions. The use of sensors in stationary power plants—for instance, in central heating plants—is particularly interesting as a potential means of dealing with fluctuations in the calorific content of the fuel.

6.2.4 Lean A/F Sensor: Limiting-Current Type

Sensing Mechanism. An external electrical voltage is applied to two electrodes on a heated ZrO_2 electrolyte to pump O_2 ions from the cathode to the anode (electrochemical O_2 pumping cell) (Fig. 6.6*a*). When a diffusion barrier impedes the flow of O_2 molecules from the exhaust gas to the cathode, the result is current saturation beyond a certain pumping voltage threshold (limiting current condition). Because the resulting limiting current I_l is roughly proportional to the exhaust gas' oxygen concentration c_{O2}

$$I_l = 4FD \frac{Q}{L} c_{O2} \tag{6.6}$$

where F = Faraday's constant
D = diffusion coefficient
Q = effective diffusion cross section
L = effective diffusion length

Design. Figure 6.6*b* provides a schematic illustration of this sensor type featuring planar technology and an integrated electric heater element.

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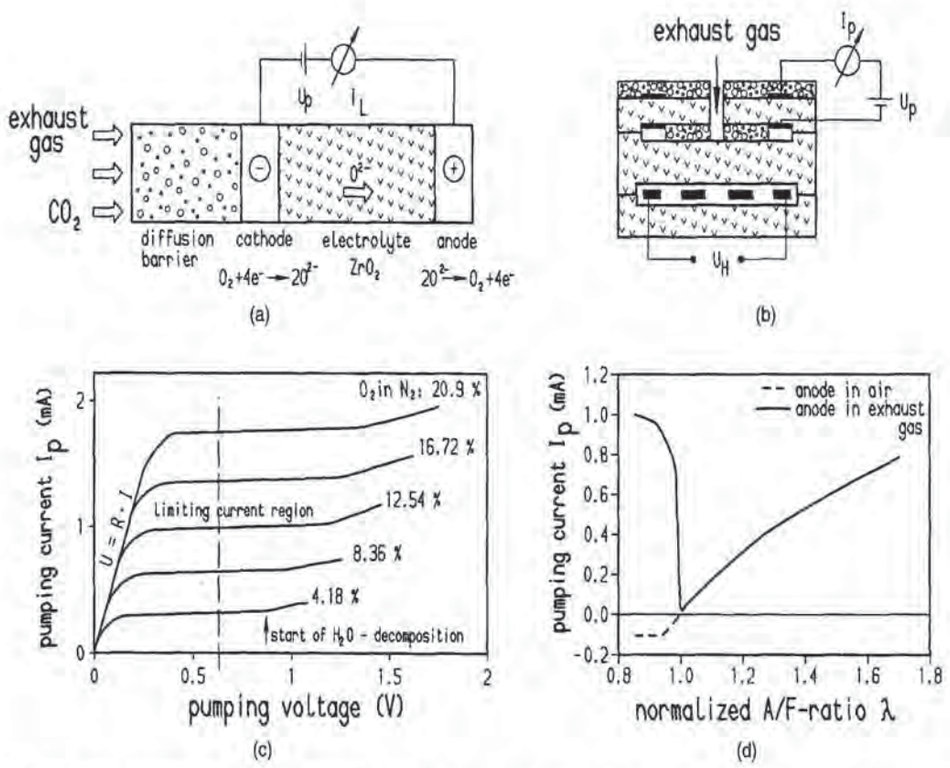


FIGURE 6.6 Limiting current sensor: (*a*) principle of operation; (*b*) schematic diagram; (*c*) current/voltage characteristics; (*d*) response curve as function of lambda.

Characteristic Curve. Figure 6.6c shows the current-voltage pattern for a limiting current sensor at various O_2 concentrations. If, at a constant pumping voltage, the pumping current is entered above lambda instead of c_{O2}, the resulting curve will correspond to Fig. 6.6*d*. In lean exhaust gas, the signal drops in response to reductions in lambda as indicated in Eq. (6.7), but below lambda = 1 there is a radical surge. This response pattern is at variance with the basic theory, and can be explained as the result of decomposition effects at the cathode. As a result, this sensor is only suitable for use in lean gases. Depending upon the design of the diffusion barrier (pore radius to free path length for the gas molecules, according to the proportion of gas phases to Knudsen diffusion), various relationships are observed between pumping current (measurement signal) and exhaust pressure and sensor temperature.

Principles of Operation. Depending on the accuracy requirements, a stable operating temperature in the range 600 to 800 °C is needed. Pumping voltages must always be selected to satisfy the conditions for limiting current. In addition, this limiting current has to be calibrated due to the manufacture scattering of the diffusion gap.

6.2.5 Wide-Range A/F Sensor: Single-Cell

Design and Operation. When the anode of a limiting current sensor of the type described in Sec. 6.2.4 is exposed to reference air instead of to the exhaust gas, the total voltage U_S at the probe will be the sum of the effective pumping voltage U_P and a superimposed Nernst voltage U_N.

$$U_S = U_P + U_N \tag{6.7}$$

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In operation, holding U_S to, as an example, 500 mV will produce a positive pumping voltage in lean exhaust gases ($U_N < 500$ mV); the diffusion limits the rate at which O_2 is pumped from the cathode to the anode. At lambda = 1 ($U_N \approx 500$ mV), the pumping voltage and, with it, the pumping current drop toward zero. In rich exhaust gas ($U_N > 500$ mV), the effective pumping voltage U_P becomes negative, causing oxygen to be pumped from the reference air electrode to the exhaust gas electrode ($I_P < 0$), where it reacts with the rich gas components CO, H_2, and HC.

Characteristic Curve. The pumping current displays a uniform upward trend between mildly rich and extremely lean lambda values (Fig. 6.6*d*).

Applications. This type of sensor is in series production as a thimble-type design for lean-mix concepts. In this application, operation as a limiting current sensor is restricted to lean conditions; during operation at lambda = 1, the pumping voltage is switched off and the Nernst voltage serves as the control signal.

6.2.6 Wide-Range A/F Sensor: Dual-Cell

Design. Skillful combination of a limiting-current sensor with a Nernst concentration cell on a single substrate will produce a dual-cell wide-range A/F sensor. The pumping and concentration cells are made of ZrO_2. Each cell is coated with two porous platinum electrodes, and they

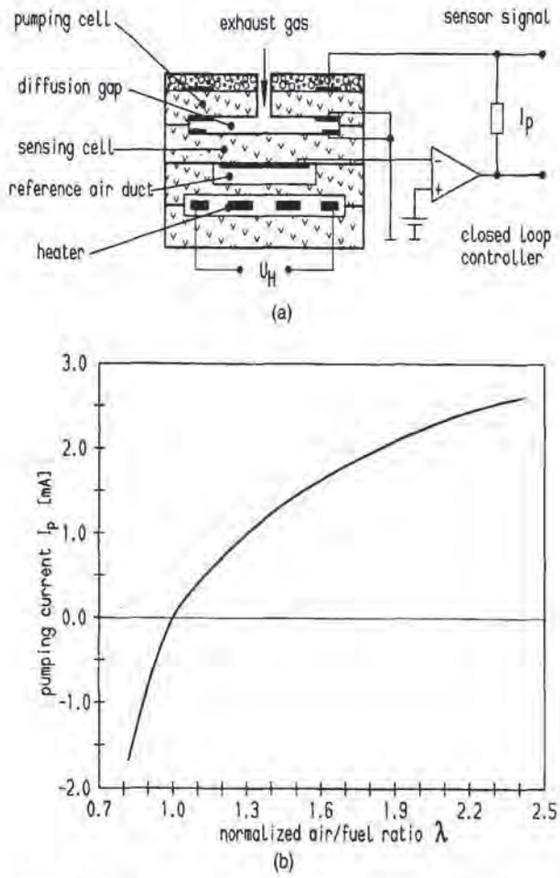


FIGURE 6.7 Dual-cell wide-range A-F sensor: (*a*) schematic diagram; (*b*) response curve as function of lambda ($T_{gas} \approx 400$ °C, $P_H \approx 12$ W).

are arranged with a measurement gap of approximately 10 to 50 μm in height between them. A gas-intake opening in the solid electrolyte connects this measurement gap to the exhaust gas while the gap is serving as a diffusion barrier to control limiting current (Fig. 6.7).

Operation Mode. An electronic circuit regulates the current applied to the pumping cell to maintain a constant gas composition (for instance, lambda = 1) in the measurement gap. This corresponds to a Nernst-cell voltage of $U_N \approx 450$ mV. If the exhaust gas is lean, the pumping cell drives the oxygen outward from the measurement gap. If the exhaust gas is rich, the flow direction is reversed and oxygen from the surrounding exhaust gas (e.g., from decomposition of CO_2 and H_2O) is pumped into the measurement gap.

Characteristic Curve. The pumping current is proportional to the oxygen concentration (or oxygen requirement). With the attendant electronic control circuitry, an unambiguous, linear signal increase over a wide lambda range of 0.7 < lambda < infinite (air) can be obtained if the current is calibrated due to the manufacture scattering (Fig. 6.7). The integrated heating element provides an operating temperature in excess of 600 °C.

6.3 TECHNOLOGY OF CERAMIC EXHAUST GAS SENSORS

6.3.1 ZrO_2-based Sensors

The zirconium dioxide used to manufacture oxygen sensors is not pure; instead, the solid electrolyte consists of a mixed oxide, ZrO_2/Y_2O_3. The Y_2O_3 concentration used for actual applications lies in the 4 to 5 mol% range. This level is commensurate with optimum sensor operation in the important properties of ion conductivity, thermal stability, and mechanical strength.

Ion Conductivity. The substitution of trivalent yttrium ions for quadrivalent zirconium ions leads to the formation of oxygen vacancies through which the oxygen ions can move. Initially, the increases in ion conductivity are roughly proportional to the rise in Y_2O_3 content, as they are accompanied by a simultaneous rise in the number of oxygen vacancies. This pattern is observed with yttrium as well as with other bi- and trivalent alkaline earth metals, at least until a certain level of defect concentration is reached. Beyond this limit, the mutual influence of the vacancies reaches such levels that any further increases in defect concentration are accompanied by reductions in ion conductivity. The maximum is obtained at approximately 9 to 10 mol% Y_2O_3.

Phase Composition and Mechanical Stability. At room temperature, zirconium dioxide is monocline. It becomes tetragonal (metastable) above 1200 °C, and assumes a cubic form beyond 2370 °C. Yttrium doping can be employed to partially or completely stabilize the tetragonal and cubic modification, even at room temperature (PSZ—partially stabilized zirconium; FSZ—fully stabilized zirconium, above approximately 10 mol%, with certain manufacturing processes 7 to 8 mol% Y_2O_3). ZrO_2, with an essentially monocline structure, does not display sufficient resistance to temperature fluctuations for application in automotive exhaust systems—the changes in the geometry of the individual crystallites which accompany the phase transition lead to fatigue symptoms in the ceramic material. At the same time, the cubic phase does not possess the physical strength required to resist the physical shocks and thermal stresses. However, good mechanical characteristics can be obtained by using partially stabilized ceramic materials, with maximum strength being achieved within the range of 2 to 4 mol% Y_2O_3.

Manufacture of Partially Stabilized ZrO_2 Ceramics. The most common procedure consists of mixing and grinding the ZrO_2 and Y_2O_3 together (mixed oxide). The differences in the

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length of the diffusion paths—the two oxides are located adjacently as separate powder particles—do not generally produce a completely homogeneous distribution of yttrium in the ZrO_2. Thus, both fully stabilized cubic crystallites and tetragonal crystallites can be formed during the sintering process. During the phase transition to monocline ZrO_2 that takes place during cooling, the latter provoke internal tension, causing the ceramic material to harden. Certain combinations of yttrium concentration and manufacturing techniques can be employed to obtain exclusively tetragonal crystallites, which remain stable even after cooling (TSZ—tetragonal stabilized zirconia). Due to the absence of a phase transition within the temperature range associated with the intended application, stabilized tetragonal zirconium dioxide displays a virtually constant coefficient of thermal expansion. Both of the partially stabilized ZrO_2 ceramics described here are used in the manufacture of oxygen sensors.

6.3.2 Thimble-Type Sensors

Shaping. The ceramic base (Fig. 6.4) is shaped in the usual manner with dry pressing of granulated ZrO_2 and subsequent grinding of the compact material.

Electrodes. The application of the gas-permeable platinum electrodes is one of the most critical processes in the manufacture of oxygen sensors. A basic distinction is made between two different procedures:

Thin-Film Process. In this process, a thin microporous platinum layer (electrode thickness < 1 μm) is applied to the previously sintered base using one of three methods: thermal evaporation, sputtering, or chemical deposition with subsequent thermal treatment.

Thick-Film Process. In this process, a (for example) platinum-cermet layer (mixture of noble metal and ceramic phase) is printed onto the unsintered base (electrode thickness 5 to 10 μm).

As far as actual operation is concerned, the salient difference between the two processes resides in the fact that the three-phase boundary required for the conversion of oxygen (common border of platinum, zirconia, and gas phase) remains restricted to the surface of the base when thin-film electrodes are used. In contrast, the use of thick-film cermet electrodes with a ceramic phase of ZrO_2 results in a substantially larger border area along with enhanced high-temperature adhesion.

Protective Layer. As the outer electrode is exposed to the exhaust gases, a suitable protective layer, combining the requisite porosity with optimal adhesive properties, is essential to ensure the long-term stability of the oxygen sensor. In the conventional plasma or flame-spraying process, a porous layer 50 to 300 μm in thickness (e.g., magnesium spinel) is applied to the sintered and electrodes-equipped base. A cofiring technique with ZrO_2-based protective layers or a combination of both processes is being employed in the production of a new generation of oxygen sensors with enhanced long-term stability.

Well-defined porosity levels must be maintained to ensure satisfactory operation. With cofired protective layers, the required porosity level can be obtained by using organic pore-forming substances, which are burned out during sintering, or by adding a second, sinter-inactive ceramic phase, such as Al_2O_3. Porous protective layers also provide a diffusion barrier for the exhaust-gas molecules before they reach the electrodes. These layers thus exercise a determining influence on the sensor's control characteristics because the components of the exhaust gas which exhibit various diffusion coefficients are not in a state of thermodynamic equilibrium (see Sec. 6.4). This effect can be partially neutralized through defined pigmentation in the protective layers, which not only display catalytic characteristics, but can also inhibit contamination.

6.3.3 Planar Oxygen Sensors

The planar oxygen sensor derives its designation from the fact that, as opposed to the thimble-type sensor, its design arranges all operating layers in plain, consecutive surfaces. The

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technology applied in their manufacture is quite similar to the multilayer technology employed to produce ceramic multilayer capacitors and high-density electronic circuit boards (e.g., MCM—multichip modules).

Manufacture of Ceramic Green Sheet. First, an organic binder phase is added to the ZrO_2 powder in a tape-casting process to produce ceramic substrate layers.

Printing on the Ceramic Green Sheet. A screen-printing process (thick-film process) is employed to attach the individual function groups, e.g., galvanic cell, pumping cell, reference-air duct and heater (see also Sec. 6.2) to the green tape in the desired layer sequence. Several printed layers are generally required for each side of the tape; these layers can also consist of various inorganic materials.

Lamination. A number of screen-printed substrates can be stacked and laminated (bonded in a process combining temperature and pressure) to form composite structures representing virtually any desired level of complexity. A simplified version of a lambda = 1 sensor in planar technology is illustrated in Fig. 6.8.

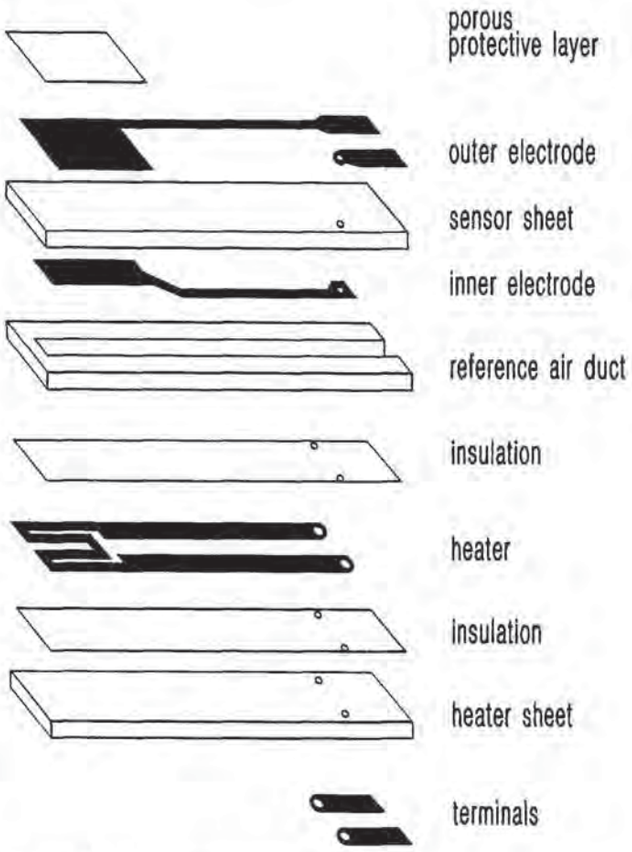


FIGURE 6.8 Layer structure of planar lambda = 1 sensor.

Advantages of Planar Technology. The application of surface-design technology also provides an additional advantage by making it possible to combine a number of individual elements on a single substrate for subsequent separation (multiple application) and sintering to form monolithic sensors with integrated heating elements. The coefficients of thermal expan-

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sion of the ZrO_2, cermet, and insulation layers must be precisely matched to ensure that the resulting ceramic elements display adequate thermal and mechanical stability.

Sensor elements manufactured with this new technology offer a number of advantages: the integration of heater and sensor provides a single unit with a lower total thermal mass, allowing substantial reductions in the continuous heating requirement (30 to 40 percent of that required with a thimble-type sensor), shorter delay between activation and readiness for active control, and smaller sensor dimensions. These characteristics make the unit ideal for meeting the demands of the modern motor vehicle (reductions in energy requirements, weight and space savings, and more stringent emission requirements). In addition, planar technology is an essential factor in obtaining complicated operating abilities such as those found in the dual-cell wide-range A/F sensor (see Sec. 6.2.6).

6.3.4 Al_2O_3-based Sensors

Sensors for oxygen and other exhaust gases which employ variations in the conductivity of the sensor material (TiO_2, SnO_2, etc.) to detect changes in the gas concentration are usually designed as planar sensors. The preferred substrate material is Al_2O_3. As the combinations of functions (e.g., heater, electrodes, etc.) are essentially those required with planar ZrO_2 sensors, the manufacturing techniques are also quite similar. Al_2O_3 provides advantages in the form of lower material costs and a simplified internal structure, made possible by the fact that Al_2O_3 maintains its good insulation properties at high temperatures. A disadvantage, particularly in terms of long-term stability, is the difficulty with sintering and sensor-material adhesion, as cofiring technology cannot be employed for this procedure.

6.3.5 Construction

Figure 6.9 shows completely assembled a heated thimble sensor and a planar lambda sensor. Although similar in external appearance—the planar sensor is somewhat shorter and narrower—the two units differ substantially in their respective internal structures. The differences are largely a result of the fact that heater and sensor in the heated thimble-type sensor are two separate components requiring assembly and electrical contact. Various ceramic support components are incorporated to enhance structural integrity and to ensure an impermeable seal between the reference air and the exhaust gases while also providing a degree of impact protection for the sensor unit. On the exhaust-gas side, the sensor elements receive both physical and thermal protection from a protection tube. Due to its basic design configuration, the planar sensor element does not share the rotational symmetry of its thimble-type counterpart. Thus, it must be installed in a specific position; the protection tube features a partial double wall to facilitate orientation. The offset inlet openings provide a uniform flow of exhaust gases past the measurement electrode, regardless of its position relative to the exhaust-gas stream. Thermal insulation from the exhaust gases is also improved.

Although unheated thimble-type sensors are still on the market, they are becoming less important due to the increasing demands for precision of emission control systems.

6.4 FACTORS AFFECTING THE CONTROL CHARACTERISTICS OF LAMBDA = 1 SENSORS

6.4.1 Factors Affecting the Static Curve

Due to the porous protective layer around the electrode, the steep voltage change in the sensor's characteristic curve does not occur at precisely lambda = 1; instead, it is displaced a small

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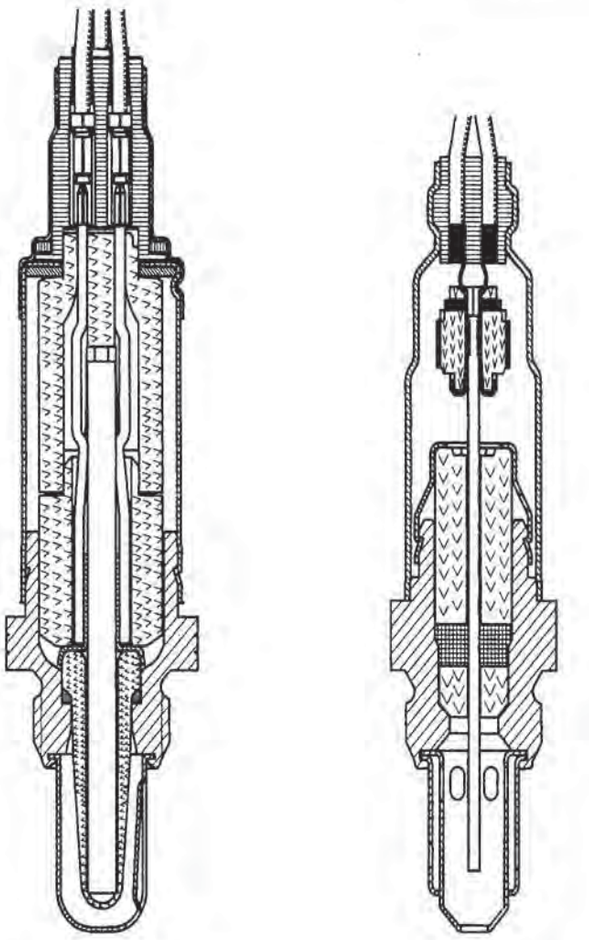


FIGURE 6.9 Construction of thimble-type and planar-type oxygen sensors.

amount into the lean range. The lower the porosity of the protective layer, the greater the diffusion of H_2 relative to O_2 toward the electrode. This phenomenon induces changes in the lambda value at the electrode relative to the lambda of the exhaust gas, the electrode detects richer exhaust gas and the lambda characteristic curve is displaced into the lean range.

Lean Shift. The lean shift is caused by exhaust-gas residue, such as oil ash and SiO_2, which partially plug the pores of the protective layer, and by reductions in sensor temperature.

Rich Shift. Fractures and flake-off of the protective layer lead to reductions in response times and shift the static characteristic curve toward rich. Electrode deactivation, especially due to lead contamination, will produce a flatter static response curve, as free, unconverted oxygen will also be detected. This effect also displaces the switchpoint threshold toward a lower lambda. A similar effect occurs when the reference atmosphere is contaminated (Chemical Shift Down, or CSD), for instance, with exhaust gases or water. Figure 6.10 shows typical characteristic curves for these conditions.

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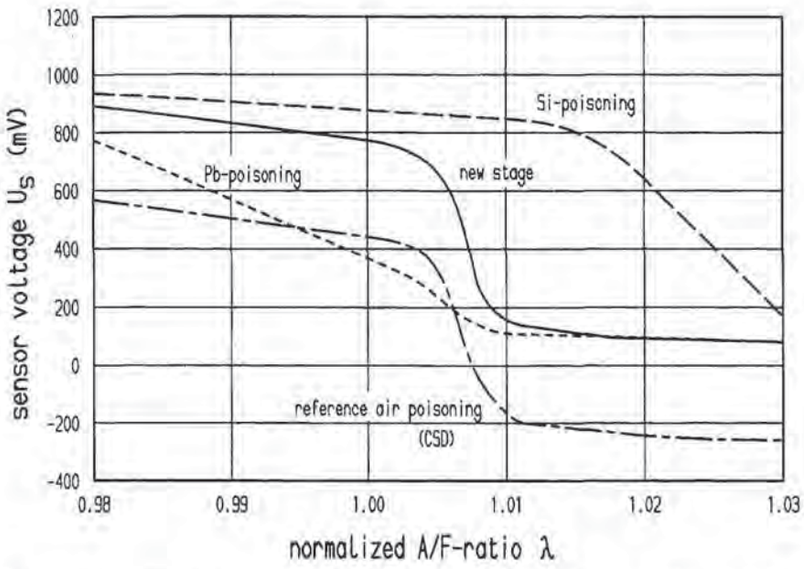


FIGURE 6.10 Effects of contamination on the static response curve of a lambda = 1 sensor as measured at laboratory test stand at $T_{gas} \approx 350$ °C.

6.4.2 Factors Affecting Sensor Dynamics and Control State

Factors. The control state (adjusted lambda) depends upon a number of factors. These include static sensor characteristics, sensor dynamics and asymmetry in sensor response times (switching times), t_{rs} (rich to switchpoint) during the surge from rich to lean, and t_{ls} (lean to switchpoint) during the jump from lean to rich. The sensor switching times t_{rs} and t_{ls} are strongly influenced by the configuration of the protection tube, the protective layer, and the sensor's temperature. Without the protection tube, switching times of less than 10 ms have been measured for ZrO_2 sensors with $T_{ceramic} \approx 900$ °C. However, such rapid response times are neither necessary nor desirable with many of the systems presently in use.

Response Times. An increase in response time that is not accompanied by a variation in the differential between t_{rs} and t_{ls} results in worse emissions with a constant control state due to the fact that the control amplitude increases while the conversion rate of the catalytic converter is reduced (see sec. 6.1.4 and Fig. 6.2).

Asymmetry. An asymmetrical increase in the response times t_{rs} and t_{ls} will also affect the control state due to the lambda shift.

Lean Shift. A pronounced increase in t_{rs} leads to a displacement toward lean. This can occur for any of several reasons. The dwell time in the rich exhaust gas is determined by control frequency and amplitude, and affects t_{rs} through the adsorption of CO and HC. Should the protective layer be obstructed (for instance, by oil ash), or should the sensor temperature drop, t_{rs} will generally rise more than t_{ls}.

Rich Shift. In contrast, a more pronounced rise in t_{ls} will lead to a displacement toward the rich range. The conversion rate of the electrode and the protective layer exercise a major influence on t_{ls}. Lead deposits diminish catalytic activity, causing t_{ls} to rise without exercising any substantive effect on t_{rs}.

Temperature. As a general rule, the susceptibility to sensor contamination is inversely proportional to electrode temperature. The factors determining the temperature of the ceramic material are the heater, the gas temperature, the gas flow rate (rpm, load), and the protection

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tube. Depending upon the installation location, the ceramic temperature generally lies between 350 and 1000 °C for exhaust temperatures ranging between 150 and 900 °C. The flow velocity of the gas varies between 2 m/s at idle, 40 m/s at moderate rpm and load, and up to 80 m/s under full load. The influence exercised by gas temperature and the protection tube can be seen in Fig. 6.11. The ceramic temperature has a major effect on the controlled lambda. A protection tube providing a lower gas flow (see Fig. 6.11: 1 hole/4 flaps) and a higher heater

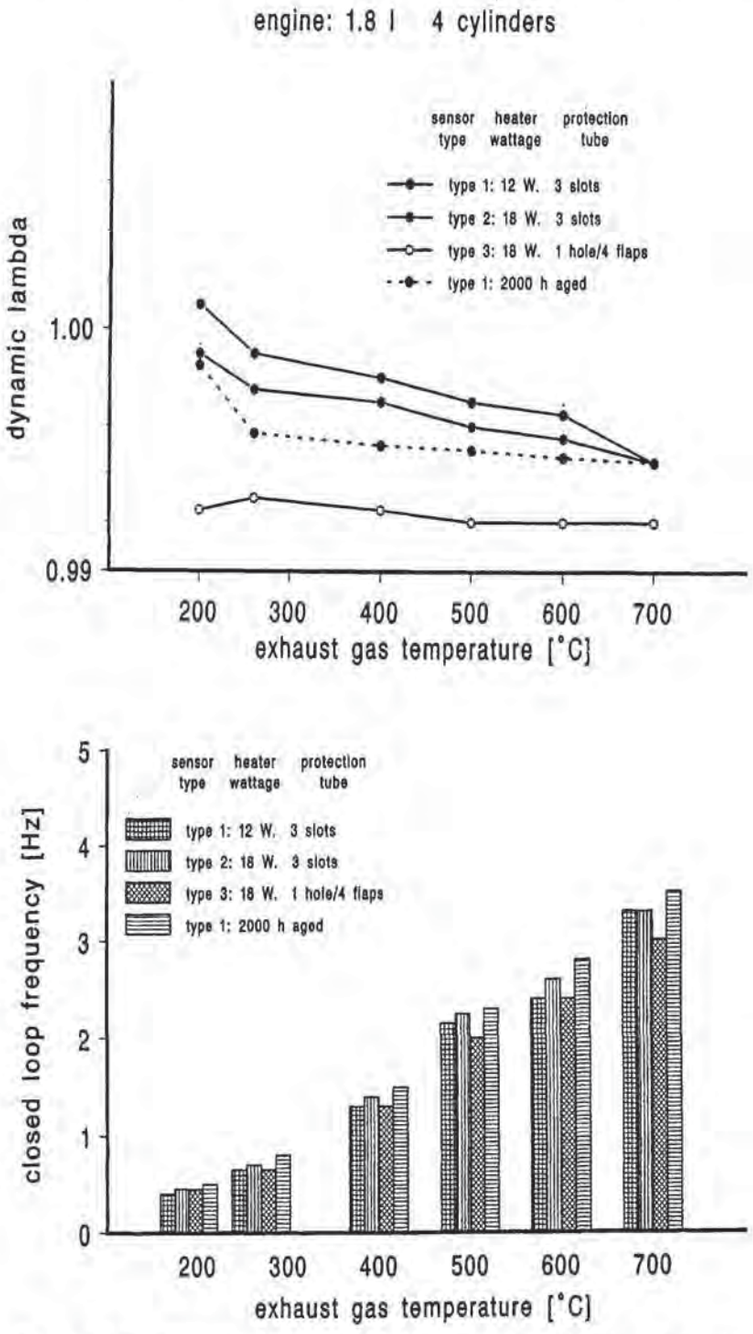


FIGURE 6.11 Effects of exhaust-gas temperature (rpm) on dynamic lambda and control frequency.

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power (18 W) will lead to higher ceramic temperatures with enhanced temperature consistency relative to exhaust temperature. This measure is employed to obtain a more stable controlled lambda. The lambda value displays a moderate rich shift compared to that obtained with a more open tube (see Fig. 6.11: 3 slots) and 12 W heater power.

System Lag. System lag is dependent on the sensor's installation position (0.2 to 2 m downstream from the exhaust manifold, with approx. 1 meter downstream from the exhaust valve being typical) and the gas velocity as determined by load, rpm, and the exhaust pipe diameter. It can be up to 500 ms at idle, and drops down to delays as low as 20 ms at full load. The sensor (protection tube, heater power) is of secondary significance (Fig. 6.11). The influence of sensor response times (t_{ts}, t_{ls}) on the control state increases as a function of their share of the total system lag.

tv Shift. The cumulative effect of all extraneous influences is a slight lean control state of the lambda = 1 sensor. Electronic compensation for the lean shift is available in the form of an asymmetrical control-oscillation pattern (see Sec. 6.1.4). This is provided either by means of a switching delay after the sensor surge (tv shift, Fig. 6.3), through variations in the controller's surge amplitude, and/or via asymmetrical ramp slope. Those parameters for the electronic lambda displacement which vary according to load and rpm can be stored as a program map in the electronic control unit (ECU). This method can be employed for lambda corrections up to $|\Delta\lambda| \leq 0.015$.

6.5 APPLICATIONS

6.5.1 Operating Conditions

Environmental Factors. Table 6.3 provides a summary of the types and magnitudes of the major stress factors affecting the sensor. Beyond the actual function of the sensor itself, optimal selection and precise mixture of all applied materials (ceramics, metals, synthetics) are essential factors in obtaining the thermal, mechanical, and chemical characteristics needed to achieve the obligatory extended service life of over 100,000 miles.

Sensor Installation Location. Because it is of determining significance for both external influences and control function, correct sensor location is a critical factor in calibrating the performance of the total lambda-control system. The sensor must be far enough from the exhaust valves to ensure that it monitors representative exhaust gases for all cylinders, but near enough to hold system lag to acceptable levels. Both factors affect emissions.

Thermal Stress. Thermal stresses at the sensor stem from the high-potential exhaust-gas temperatures as well as from the temperature gradients that occur. Exhaust temperature is essentially a function of engine speed, and can reach a maximum of 1000 °C at the sensor on high-performance engines. The most extreme temperature gradients at the sensor occur during hard driving directly in the wake of a warm start at which the exhaust system and the sensor have already cooled off. These conditions can produce exhaust-gas temperature gradients of up to 500 K/s.

Thermal Shock. In the warm-up phase following a cold start, condensation on the pipe walls can cause the ceramic material to crack once the electric heater warms it beyond the critical temperature of approximately 300 °C. Accumulations of condensation can be largely avoided by locating the sensor as close as possible to the engine to provide rapid heating of the upstream exhaust pipe. Depending upon the specific vehicle, a time delay for switching on the sensor heater may be required.

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TABLE 6.3 Overview of Stress Factors for Exhaust Gas Sensors

Mechanical stress	Stress caused by environmental conditions	Thermal stress	Stress caused by exposition to exhaust gas
Vibrational stress (<1300 m/s²) by engine vibration (<5 kHz) by pulsation of the exhaust gas (< ±300 mbar) by ambient wind (cable, <10 Hz)	Splash water, gush of water (in case containing NaCl, $CaCl_2$, $MgCl_2$)	Exhaust gas temperature (150 °C ... 1000 °C)	Exhaust gas composition ch between lambda = 0.85 (fuel load enrichment) and lambda infinite (overrun fuel)
Stone impact (<1.5 Nm)	Dust (organic, inorganic origin)	Exhaust gas temperature gradients at cold start (<500 K/s) at overrun fuel cutoff (<200 K/s)	Catalyst poisoning from fuel additives: permissible lead content: <0.013 g/l sulfur content: <0.1 % Br-, Cl-compounds
Installation/removal (torque about 50 Nm when assembled)	Oil, dirt undercarriage protection	Temperature increase after engine stalling (<300 °C at cable outlet)	Oil ash (Ca-, P-, S-, Zn-compounds up to 1 kg within ~60000)
Wire pull test (>70 N)	Fluctuation of the electrical supply system (9 ... 15 V)	Radiant heat (may require corresponding protective measures)	Miscellaneous corrosion products (e.g., Fe-oxides)
Handling (shock load up to 1000 g)	EMC (<200 V/m)		Condensation water
	Variation of climatic conditions (–40 °C ... +50 °C, 10 ... 100% rel. humidity)		

Mechanical Stresses. The main sources of mechanical stress on the sensor are vibration, exhaust-gas pulsation, stone impact, and cable tension (Table 6.3).

Sealing. The cable outlet of the sensor must be sealed to prevent water splash from penetrating to its interior and distorting the reference air (see Sec. 6.4.1 and Fig. 6.10). At the same time, the sealing element must be flexible enough to absorb the accelerative forces associated with vibration as well as any tensile forces transmitted through the cable.

6.5.2 Emission Certification

It would be impossible for a vehicle equipped only with an unregulated catalytic converter and lacking an oxygen sensor to achieve compliance with the American emission standards. When a regulated catalytic converter is used together with an oxygen sensor, emissions remain well below the limits. Even after vehicle mileage corresponding to more than 100,000 miles, the sensor limits emission increases to a minimum (Fig. 6.12). The introduction of a new system must be accompanied by precise calibration of the engine-control system to match the production tolerances and aging characteristics which affect the sensor's control response. The considerable effects that temperature and aging exercise on the catalytic converter must also be considered.

Durability Tests

Life Cycle. To determine aging behavior, the sensors undergo a standard durability test in the exhaust-gas stream of a test engine. The test cycle is designed to simulate combined urban and rural operation, and has been adopted by many automobile manufacturers as a standard program. The mean average speed is approximately 100 km/h for a midrange car. All newly developed products must withstand 2000 h (more than 100,000 miles) operation in this program without failure.

Hot Durability Testing. In a substantially more demanding test, essentially consisting of simulated full-load operation, the sensors must survive at least 1000 h (roughly 100,000 miles). The main stress factors for the sensors in these tests are thermal exposure (exhaust-gas temperatures reaching 950 °C, housing temperatures up to 650 °C), exhaust gas loads, and vibration.

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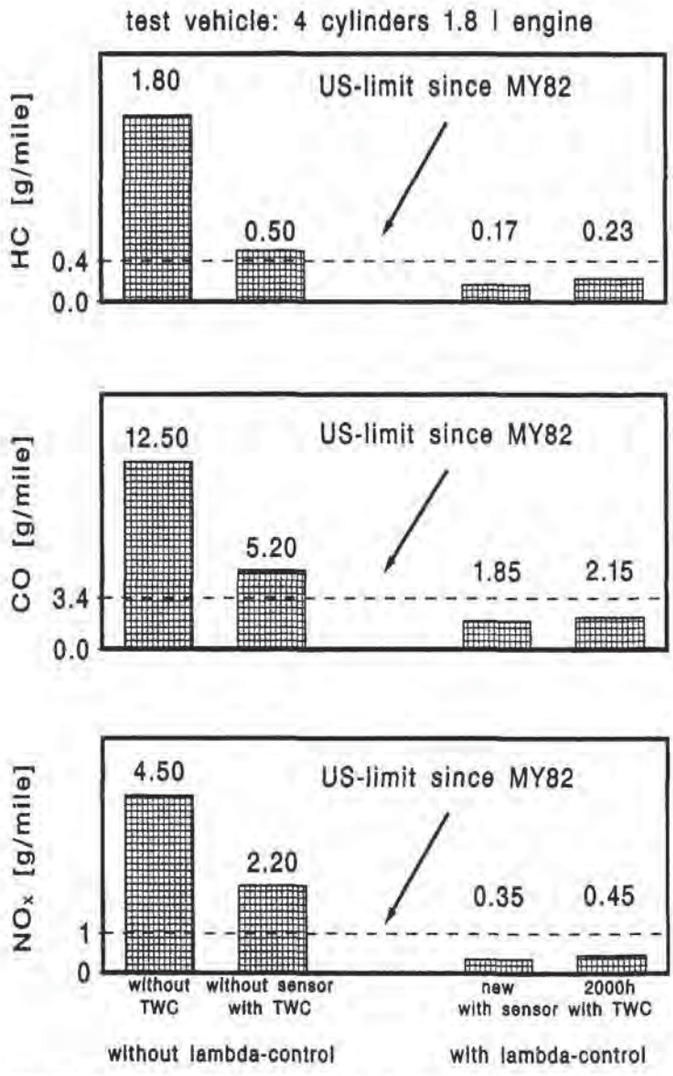


FIGURE 6.12 Comparison of emissions levels without catalytic converter, with unregulated converter, with controlled converter (new and old sensors, converter approx. 10,000 km).

Durability Testing of Contamination Resistance. Short durability tests featuring higher levels of Pb, Si, and oil are employed to determine the sensor's resistance to contamination damage.

6.6 SENSOR PRINCIPLES FOR OTHER EXHAUST GAS COMPONENTS

Sensors capable of monitoring the levels of the regulated toxic exhaust substances—CO, NO_x, and HC—would be desirable as elements of the On-Board Diagnosis systems (OBD I and OBD II) specified by the California Air Resources Board. Due to the extreme operating con-

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ditions, only a few of the many tested configurations have a chance to be used in engine-exhaust gas.

6.6.1 Mixed-Potential Sensors

Sensing Mechanism. If reduced catalytic activity prevents gas equilibrium from being achieved at the electrode of a galvanic ZrO_2 cell, competing reactions can occur. These, in turn, prevent a state of reduction/oxidation equilibrium in the oxygen, and lead to the formation of a mixed potential. This potential is determined by electrode activity, temperature, and gas composition. It is difficult to design manufacturing techniques that can consistently produce electrodes capable of maintaining specific, defined rates of catalytic activity over extended periods of time. Every change in electrode activity (for instance, due to aging) leads to a variation in mixed potential. Pt electrodes give rise to a mixed potential at very low temperatures, with extended response delays relative to lambda sensors. Other electrode materials with lower rates of catalytic activity continue to provide a mixed potential at higher temperatures, making it possible to achieve response times < 1 s.

Selectivity. Careful selection of electrode materials, operating temperature, and selective precatalyzation layers offers opportunities for improving selectivity.

Operation Mode. Because the effect is temperature-sensitive, a constant sensor temperature must be regulated in the range of 300 to 600 °C, depending upon the individual application.

6.6.2 Semiconductor Gas Sensors

Sensing Mechanism

Ceramic and Thick-Film Layers. On the surface of nonstoichiometric metal oxides such as SnO_2, TiO_2, In_2O_3, and Fe_2O_3 (*n*-type semiconductors), oxygen is absorbed and dissociated in air at high temperatures and is bonded to the crystal lattice. This leads to the formation of a thin depletion layer at the crystallite surface with a resultant arch in the potential curve. This phenomenon produces reductions in surface conductivity and higher intercrystalline resistance at the boundaries between two crystallites; this is the major factor determining the total resistance of the polycrystalline metal oxide. Oxidation gases such as CO, H_2, and C_xH_y, which react with surface oxygen, increase the density of charge carriers in the boundary layer and reduce the potential barrier. Reduction gases, such as NO_x and SO_x raise the potential barrier and, with it, the surface/intercrystalline resistance.

Thin-Film Layers. Compared to porous polycrystalline materials, thin-film layers display only limited numbers of crystalline boundaries at the layer surface for reaction with the exhaust gases. The depletion-layer barrier makes up a substantial proportion of the layer thickness on thin-film devices, meaning that changes in charge-carrier density within the barrier layer due to adsorbed gases will also result in substantial variations in the total resistance.

Selectivity. Selected doping materials and temperatures can be employed to achieve selectivity for CO, HC, or NO_x. The resistance of metal-oxide semiconductors is always a function of the partial pressure of the O_2.

Specific Influences of Exhaust Gas. Engine exhaust gas with minimal, highly variable O_2 partial pressures is characterized by a high level of O_2 cross-axis sensitivity. Within the lambda = 1 to lambda < 1 operating range, an irreversible long-term change in sensor resistance leading to disintegration of the metal oxide is also possible. High operating temperatures are conducive to the diffusion of oxygen vacancies and doping materials. When amplified by sintering effects, these lead to resistance drift and attenuated sensor response.

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Standard operating temperatures for metal-oxide gas sensors range from 100 to 500 °C, with up to 600 °C being seen in some restricted applications. With SnO_2, a high level of selectivity for, for example, CO can be achieved at temperatures as low as the 100 to 200 °C range. However, the response times can be measured in minutes. At higher temperatures, in the 300 to 550 °C range, response times of less than 1 s can be obtained, but with reduced selectivity.

6.6.3 Catalytic Gas Sensors

Sensing Mechanism. The catalytic gas sensor is essentially a temperature sensor featuring a catalytically active surface. An exothermic reaction (basically an oxidation reaction in air) at the catalytically active surface causes the temperature of the sensor to rise. The increase in temperature is proportional to the concentration of an oxidation gas in an excess-oxygen atmosphere. A temperature sensor of the same basic design—but without the catalytic response—is employed to enhance sensitivity and to provide temperature compensation by means of differential-signal evaluation. Materials employed for the temperature sensor include coiled Pt wire, Pt thin-film and thick-film layers, transistors, and NTC and PTC thermistors.

Operating Conditions. Catalytic gas sensors are relatively insensitive and can be employed in a range >1000 ppm. Excess oxygen is required to monitor concentrations. Due to the sensitivity to flow rate, these units are generally operated in flowheads with diffusion limiters. Measurement and reference sensors must be exposed to the same flow conditions, with no mutual thermal influences. Symmetrical configurations in pellet form are thus preferred over planar shapes. Operating temperatures for commercial sensors are in the 500 to 600 °C range, but extension to higher temperatures is possible. The requirement for long-term stability in the catalytic converter is the limiting factor governing the operating temperature. Catalytic gas sensors are not selective, instead providing a summing signal for all combustion gases. Thus catalytic sensors for application in exhaust gases are restricted to monitoring the state of the catalytic converter.

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CHAPTER 7
SPEED AND ACCELERATION SENSORS

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7.1 INTRODUCTION

In the automotive arena, speed and acceleration sensors are used in a wide variety of applications, from improving engine performance through safety to helping to provide creature comforts.

Speed sensing can be divided into rotational and linear applications. Rotational speed sensing has two major application areas: engine speed monitoring to enhance engine control, and performance and antilock breaking and traction control systems for improved road handling and safety. Linear sensing can be used for ground-speed monitoring for vehicle control, obstacle detection, and crash avoidance. Acceleration sensors are used in air bag deployment, ride control, antilock brake, traction, and inertial navigation systems.

In most cases, there are a number of different sensor types available for a specific monitoring function. However, the choice of sensor for a specific application can be difficult to make. The selection may be determined by the familiarity of the system's designer with the sensor. On the other hand, the output from one sensor can be used for several applications, and the individual requirements of each application may eventually determine the sensor to be used.

Electronics and electronic sensors are making rapid inroads into the automotive market. In order to analyze the large amounts of sensor data needed for low emissions and efficient engine control, it is necessary to process the information using microcontrollers (MCUs), which can operate at high speeds and in real time. Sensors that can convert information directly into a digital format for MCU compatibility have a distinct advantage over an analog output format. Digital signals are also supply-line voltage-insensitive, virtually unaffected by noise, and have better resolution than can be obtained with analog signals. If the addition of an analog-to-digital converter (on or off the MCU) is required for compatibility, the system cost is increased. The accuracy of the control system is only as good as the integrity of the sensor data supplied to the MCU. Hence, the importance of the performance of the sensor.

This chapter concentrates on speed and acceleration, and therefore does not go into all the other different types of applications for which many of these sensors can be used in the automobile.

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7.2 SPEED-SENSING DEVICES

In automotive applications, the environment must be taken into consideration. The sensing must be accurate, the devices must be rugged and reliable, and they must function in the presence of oil, grease, dirt, and inclement weather conditions. These requirements have severely limited the use of a number of otherwise practical alternatives, such as optical sensors and contact sensing.

In the area of rotational speed monitoring, the most practical devices use magnetic field sensing. These sensors are Hall effect devices, variable reluctance (VR), and magnetoresistive or magnetic resistance element (MRE) devices. Both the Hall effect and VR devices have been widely used and have a proven track record. The MRE device has only recently come into its own with improved technology and provides a viable alternative to the Hall effect device. The MRE device has a higher sensitivity and a wider operating temperature range than the Hall effect device.

For the measurement of ground speed and object detection, optical, radar, laser, infrared, and ultrasonics have been explored. Linear sensing devices typically use the Doppler effect for speed sensing and pulse modulation for distance measuring. These devices are used for object detection in blind spots when reversing or changing lanes, and in such applications as collision avoidance systems.

7.2.1 Variable Reluctance Devices

Variable reluctance devices are in effect small ac generators with an output voltage proportional to speed, but they are limited in applications where zero speed sensing is required. The operating frequency range of the VR device is from about 10 Hz to 50 kHz. It is insensitive to mechanical stress and has a wide temperature operating range from −40 to 190 °C. The supply voltage and offset drift will depend upon the control electronics. The VR device, originally designed around existing automotive electromechanical systems, was adapted for electronic control. The ferrous metal in the VR system is designed for maximum output voltage at low rpm (revolutions per minute), to get as close as possible to zero speed sensing without generating excessive voltages at maximum rpm (up to 150 V). This device gives a linear output voltage with frequency. Most systems use MCUs for data processing, so the VR device needs an analog-to-digital (A/D) converter to generate a digital signal for compatibility with the MCU. Although the VR device itself is inexpensive, the extra costs for data conversion may eventually lead to its demise in many automotive applications.

7.2.2 Hall Effect Devices

The Hall effect exists when a current flowing in a carrier experiencing a magnetic field perpendicular to the direction of current flow results in the current being deflected perpendicular to the field and to the direction of the current. The Hall effect is shown in Fig. 7.1. A current I_c flowing through the device between terminals 1 and 2 will produce a potential VH between terminals 3 and 4, when a magnetic field **B** is applied perpendicular to the device. The potential VH is determined by the strength of the magnetic field and the current flowing. Hall effect devices can be manufactured with indium, gallium arsenide, or silicon. A comparison of their properties is given in Table 7.1.

As can be seen, silicon is the most sensitive material. It is compatible with ICs and has a wide operating temperature range. The Hall effect device is well known both in industry and in the automotive arena for rotational and position-sensing applications. However, recent developments in Hall sensing devices, such as differential sensing and integration, have given improved sensor characteristics, which may result in greater potential in automotive applications.

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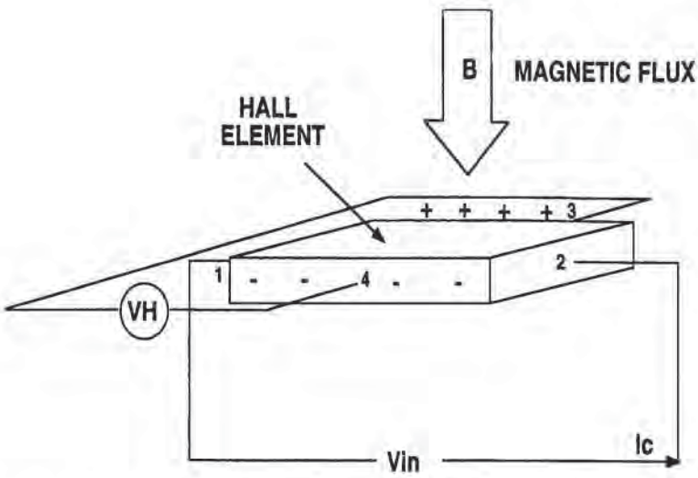


FIGURE 7.1 Hall effect.

The Hall effect device is very versatile, flexible in use, easy to package, and can be used for zero speed sensing (it can give an output when there is no rotation). Hall devices give a frequency output that is proportional to speed, making them compatible with MCUs. The Hall device is normally configured as a bridge to minimize temperature effects and to increase the sensitivity of the sensor.

A typical Hall effect sensor configuration with waveforms is shown in Fig. 7.2. The teeth of the ferrous wheel concentrate the magnetic flux when the teeth come into close proximity to the Hall sensor and magnet. The output from the sensor is a sinusoidal waveform, whose frequency is the rpm of the ferrous wheel multiplied by the number of teeth on the wheel. The resolution of the system depends on the number of teeth in the wheel (typically 20).

7.2.3 Magnetoresistive Devices

The magnetoresistive effect is the property of a current-carrying ferromagnetic material to change its resistivity in the presence of an external magnetic field. For example, a ferromagnetic (permalloy) element (an alloy containing 20 percent iron and 80 percent nickel) will change its resistivity by 2 to 3 percent when it experiences a 90° rotation in a magnetic field.[1] The resistivity value rises to a maximum when the direction of current and magnetic field are coincident, and is a minimum when the fields are perpendicular to each other. This relationship is shown in Fig. 7.3. This attribute is known as the Anisotropic Magneto Resistive Effect. The resistance R of an element is related to the angle q between the current and the magnetic field directions by the expression:

$$R = R_{\parallel} \cos^2 q + R_{l} \sin^2 q \tag{7.1}$$

TABLE 7.1 Comparison of Properties of Hall Effect Materials

Material	Operating temp. °C	Supply voltage	Sensitivity @ 1 kA/m	Frequency range
Indium	–40 to 100	1V	7 mV	0 to 1 MHz
GaAs	–40 to 150	5 V	1.2 mV	0 to 1 MHz
Si (with conditioning)	–40 to 150	12 V	94 mV	0 to 100 kHz

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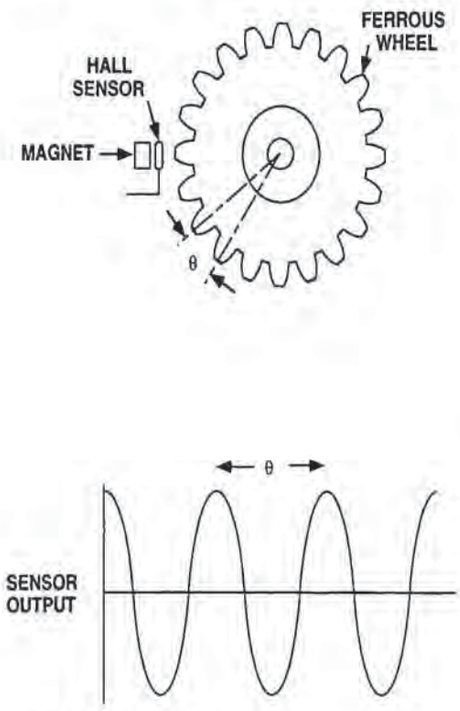


FIGURE 7.2 Hall sensor and output waveforms.

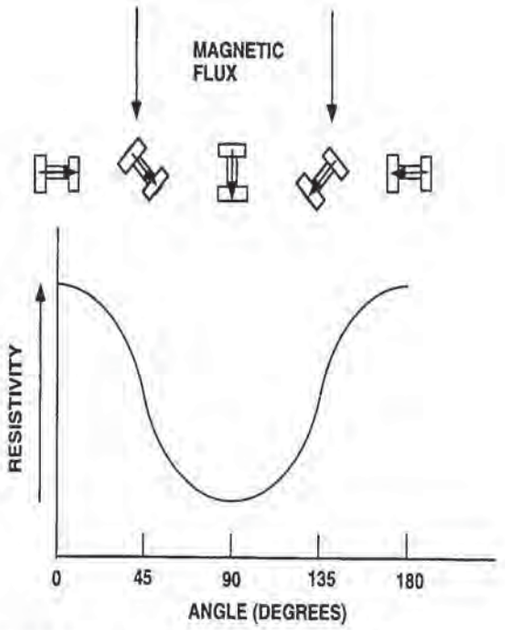


FIGURE 7.3 Relationship between magnetic field and resistivity change in MRE devices.

where $R_{\parallel}$ is the resistance when the current and the magnetic field directions are parallel and $R_{\perp}$ is the resistance when the current and the magnetic field directions are perpendicular.

MRE devices give an output when stationary, which make them suitable for zero speed sensing. MRE devices also give an output frequency that is proportional to speed, making for ease of interfacing with an MCU. For good sensitivity and to minimize temperature effects, a bridge configuration is normally used. In an MRE sensor, aluminum strips can be put across the permalloy element to linearize the device. This configuration is shown in Fig. 7.4 together with a typical MRE characteristic. The low-resistance aluminum stripes cause the current to flow at 45° in the permalloy element, which biases the element into a linear operating region.

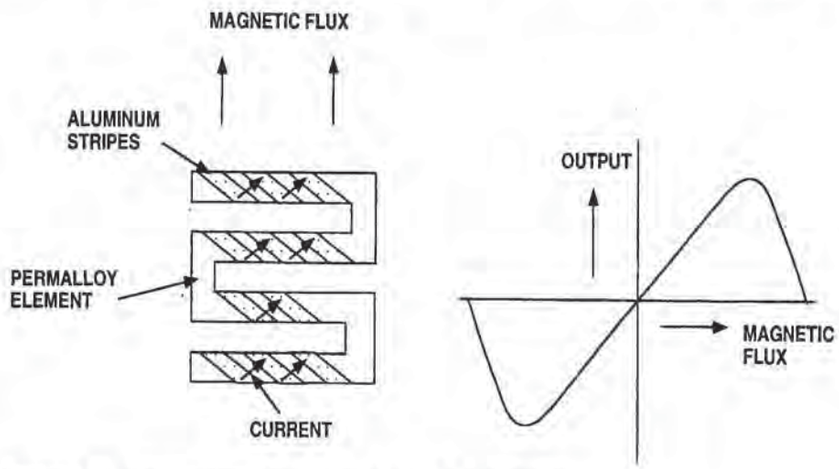


FIGURE 7.4 Use of permalloy strip for linearization in MRE devices.

Integrated MRE devices can typically operate from –40 to 150 °C, over a supply voltage range of 8 to 16 V, and at frequencies from 0 to 1 MHz. In comparing the MRE sensor to a Hall effect device, the MRE has a higher sensitivity, is less prone to mechanical stress, has a wider operating frequency range, has the potential of being more cost effective, gives better linearity, and is more reproducible. However, it is more sensitive to external magnetic fields. Table 7.2 shows a comparison of rotational sensing devices.

TABLE 7.2 Comparison of Sensing Devices

Sensor type	Operating temperature (°C)	Sensitivity 1 kA/m (mV)	Frequency range	Mechanical stress
Hall effect	–40 to 150	90	0 to 100 kHz	High
MRE	–40 to 150	140	0 to 1 MHz	Low
VR	–40 to 190		1 to 50 kHz	None
Magnetic transistor	–40 to 150	250	0 to 500 kHz	Low

It should be noted that Hall effect and MRE devices have many applications in the automobile outside of rotational speed sensing, such as position sensing, fuel-level sensing, and active suspension. The magnetic transistor is showing potential in rotational speed sensing and position-sensing applications, and may eventually be another viable contender to the Hall effect device in the automotive market.

7.2.4 Ultrasonic Devices

Ultrasonic devices can be used to measure distance, ground speed, and as a proximity detector. To give direction and beam shape, the signals are transmitted and received via specially configured horns and orifices. The transmitter and receiver horns are similar in shape, but are normally separate to accommodate different characteristics. The ultrasonic devices are made from PZT crystal-oriented piezoelectric material ($PbZrO_3$—$PbTiO_3$).

For the measurement of distance or object detection, a pulse of ultrasonic energy is transmitted and the time is measured for the reflected pulse to return to the receiver. The frequency of the transmitted ultrasonic waves are typically about 40 kHz and travel with a velocity of 340 m/s at 15 °C. This velocity changes with temperature and pressure. However, these parameters can be measured and corrections made if high accuracy is required. The repetition frequency and power requirements depend on the distance to be measured. To measure speed, the distance variation with time can be measured and the velocity calculated. A more common method is to use the Doppler effect, which is a change in the transmitted frequency as detected by the receiver due to motion of the target (or, in this case, the motion of the transmitter and receiver).

7.2.5 Optical and Radio Frequency Devices

Optical devices are still being used for rotational speed sensing. They are normally light-emitting diodes (LEDs) with optical sensors. Figure 7.5 shows a typical optical sensor system. An optical sensor detects light from an LED through a series of slits cut into the rotating disc, so that the output from the sensor is a pulse train whose frequency is equal to the rpm of the disc multiplied by the number of slits. The higher the number of slits in the disc, the smaller the angle of rotation that can be measured. The optical sensor can be a single photodiode or a photodiode array as shown. This array gives a more accurate determination of the position of the slit, resulting in higher resolution of the position of the disc.

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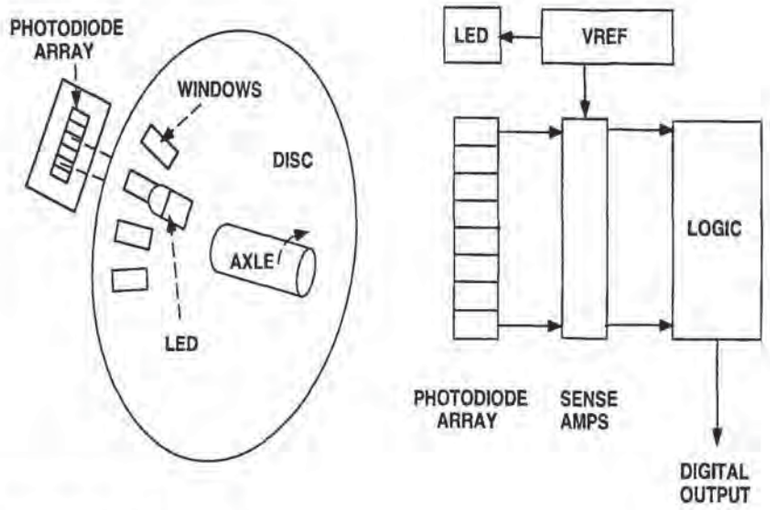


FIGURE 7.5 Optical sensor.

Optical and radio frequency (RF) devices are used for object detection, linear approach speed, and distance measurements in crash avoidance systems where distances greater than about 10 m are involved. These devices use the same principles as the ultrasonic devices. Optical devices normally use lasers or infrared devices for the transmitting source and optical sensors for the receivers. RF devices use gallium arsenide or Gunn devices to obtain the power and high frequency (about 100 GHz) required in the transmitter. The high operating frequency is set to a large extent by the need for a small antenna. These applications are under development and are discussed in Sec. 7.7.2.

7.3 AUTOMOTIVE APPLICATIONS FOR SPEED SENSING

There are several applications for rotational speed sensing. First it is necessary to monitor engine speed. This information is used for transmission control, engine control, cruise control, and possibly for a tachometer. Electronics and electronic sensing in the automobile were brought about by the need for higher-efficiency engines, better fuel economy, increased power and performance, and lower emissions. Second, wheel speed sensing is required for use in transmissions, cruise control, speedometers, antilock brake systems (ABS), traction control (ASR), variable ratio power steering assist, four-wheel steering, and possibly in inertial navigation and air bag deployment applications.

Linear speed sensing can be used to measure the ground speed. This measurement also has the possibly of use in ABS, ASR, and inertial navigation. Similar types of sensors can be used in crash avoidance, proximity, and obstacle detection applications.

7.3.1 Rotational Applications

The high timing accuracy that can be obtained with fuel injection systems and replacement of points by sensors have made cost-effective engine control and low maintenance a reality. Adjustment of the stoichiometric ratio of air to fuel, accurate ignition timing, and oxygen sensors in the exhaust system, have vastly improved engine performance and greatly reduced emissions over widely varying operating conditions. The two important factors in engine con-

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trol are the engine speed in rpm and the crank angle. These signals are used by the engine control MCU for determination of fuel injection and ignition timing. The engine rpm measurement range is from 50 to (say) 8000 rpm. A resolution of about 10 rpm is required for an accuracy of about 0.2 percent. For injection and ignition control in a six-cylinder engine, the interval between combustion at maximum rpm is 2.5 ms, so that this time sets the injection period. In practice, a crank angle accuracy of between 1 and 2 degrees per revolution is required. Newer systems with sequential fuel injection, may also require information on TDC (top dead center) for each cylinder to determine the timing. With the low frequencies involved in this application, either Hall effect or MRE devices can be used for monitoring both the engine rpm and crank angle.

Vehicle speed measurements are in the range 0 to 180 km/h (120 mph) and digital displays must have an accuracy of 1 km/h. Some systems have a mechanical pickoff from the drive shaft, which can then use optical sensors for the measurement of road speed. However, newer systems have a pickoff located directly on the drive shaft, which makes optical devices less practical. It is preferred to eliminate the remote sensing via mechanical coupling to save the cost of the associated mechanical components, seals, maintenance, and so on. One method of pickoff is a ring magnet with between 4 and 20 magnetic poles (depending on the required resolution). Figure 7.6 shows such a system using an MRE sensing device. The magnetic flux changes are sensed by an MRE bridge sensor when the magnet disc is rotating. The bridge is supplied from a voltage reference circuit, and its output is amplified and shaped to give a frequency output that is proportional to shaft rotation speed. A ferrous toothed wheel pickoff with magnet and flux concentrator can also be used (see Fig. 7.2). Vehicle speed sensing can be performed with Hall effect, MRE, or VR devices. The number of pulses P per second from the detector are counted to measure speed S, from the following relationship:

$$P = N \times S \times K \tag{7.2}$$

where N = the number of magnetic poles on ring magnet or wheel teeth
K = a constant determined by axle ratio and wheel size

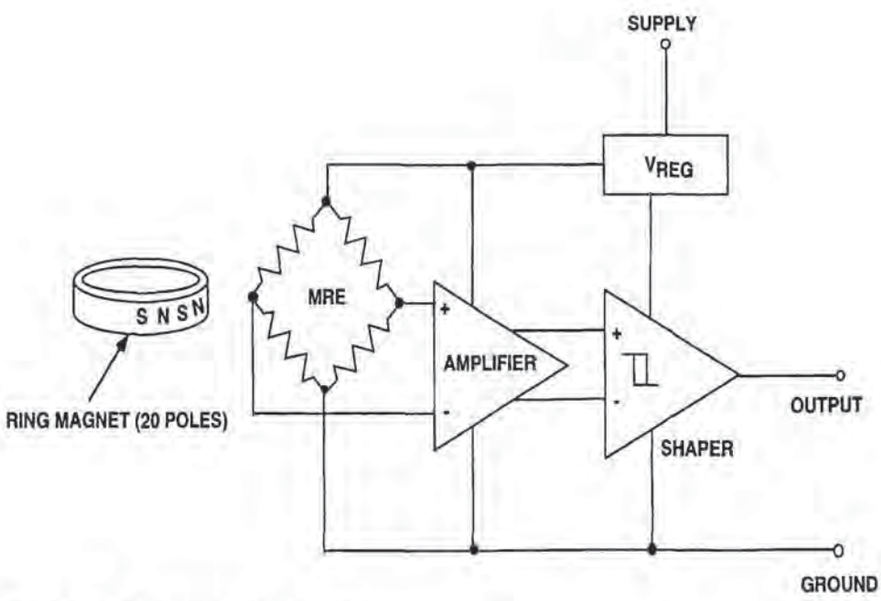


FIGURE 7.6 MRE speed-sensing module.

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The resolution in vehicle speed is then:

$$\frac{P}{S} = N \times K \tag{7.3}$$

The typical system requirements are an operating temperature of –40 to 120 °C, rotational speed detection of 5 to 3000 rpm (1000 p/s), and a duty cycle ratio of 50 ± 10%.

In applications such as ABS, ASR, and four-wheel steering, additional speed sensors are attached to all four wheels so that the slip differential between the wheels can be measured. VR devices have been used and are very cost effective in this application. But the cost of other devices is dropping and as they become cost effective, they are being designed into new systems. In electronic transmission applications, information from the road and engine speed sensors, as well as torque data and throttle position are required for the MCU to select the optimum gear ratio. Electronic control can ensure smooth transition between gear ratios. Transmissions using electronic control are also smaller than conventional automatic transmissions, thus enabling more gear ratios for better performance, higher torque, efficiency, and acceleration.

Cruise control systems require information from the road and engine speed sensors to control the throttle position, and possibly the optimum selection of transmission ratios. Variable ratio assisted power steering also requires information from the wheel speed sensors for adjustment of the steering ratios for ease of turning at low speeds and good road control at high speeds. If automatic tire pressure adjustment becomes a reality, this system may also require information from the wheel speed sensors.

Another application for rotational speed sensing is to control the speed of the radiator cooling fan. The speed of the fan is determined by the coolant temperature. Hall effect devices (MRE can also be used) have been used to monitor the position of the armature and speed of the cooling fan motor. The motor controller uses this information to modulate the power to the motor through a three-phase bridge driving circuit for the control of the fan motor speed.

7.3.2 Linear Applications

Under linear applications are the detection of obstacles close to the vehicle, crash avoidance, distance of the chassis relative to the ground for ride control, measurement of ground speed for ABS, ASR, and inertial navigation. Ultrasonic devices are normally used for short distance measurements (<10 m) and RF devices for long distance measurements (see Sec. 7.6.2). For the measurement of objects from 0.5 to 2 m using ultrasonics, a pulse repetition rate of about 15 Hz is used. The reflected pulses take from 3 to 12 ms to return. The return time T is given by

$$L = C \times \frac{T}{2} \text{ (m)} \tag{7.4}$$

where L = distance to target
C = the transmission speed [given by $C = 331 + 0.6\,t$ (m/sec)]
T = temperature (at 15 °C), the speed of ultrasonic waves is 340 m/s.

In the case of chassis-to-ground measurements for ride control and ground speed measurements, the distance to be measured is from 15 to 50 cm and a higher pulse repetition rate can be used (up to 50 Hz). In this case, the reflected pulse takes from 0.9 to 3 ms to return. For ride control applications, an accelerometer has an advantage over distance measurement, in that it is unaffected by varying distance measurements over rough terrain.

7.4 ACCELERATION SENSING DEVICES

Acceleration sensors vary widely in their construction and operation. In applications such as crash sensors for air bag deployment, mechanical devices (simple mechanical switches) have

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been developed and are in use. Mechanical switches are normally located at the point of impact in the crash zone. With the development of micromachined devices, solid state analog accelerometers have been designed for air bag applications. The analog accelerometers are centrally placed on the automotive frame. These devices can be very cost effective when compared to mechanical switches and are rapidly replacing the electromechanical devices. Silicon micromachined sensors provide a higher degree of functionality, can be programmed, have high reliability, have excellent device-to-device uniformity, and can be integrated with memory circuits to create a more accurate sensor. Additional features such as self-test and diagnostics are also available.

7.4.1 Mechanical Sensing Devices

Mechanical switches are simple make-break devices. Figure 7.7 shows the cross section of a Breed type of switch or sensor. The device contains a spring, a metal ball, and electric contacts in a tube. On impact, the inertia in the ball causes it to move against the retaining force of the spring and closes the electric contacts at the end of travel. An alternative to this device is the one shown in Fig. 7.8. It consists of a cylindrical mass wound in a flat spring. The seismic mass

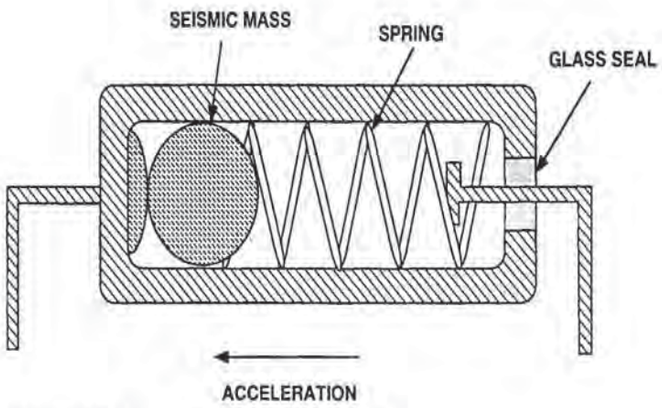


FIGURE 7.7 Cross section of mechanical sensor.

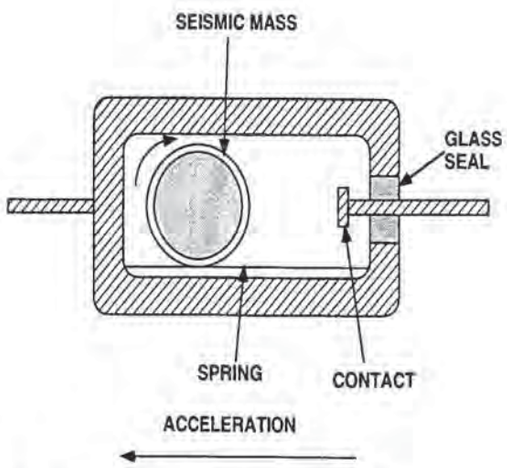


FIGURE 7.8 Cross section of mechanical switch.

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rolls on impact against the spring tension, and again makes electrical contact at the end of travel. The machining tolerances on these devices are high and give wide variations in the acceleration trigger point.

7.4.2 Piezoelectric Sensing Devices

Piezoelectric devices consist of a layer of piezoelectric material (such as quartz) sandwiched between a mounting plate and a seismic mass. Electric connections are made to both sides of the piezoelectric material. The cross section of such a device is shown in Fig. 7.9. Piezoelectric material has the unique property that when a force or pressure is applied to opposite faces of the material, an electrical charge is produced. This charge can be amplified to give an output voltage that is proportional to the applied force. Piezoelectric devices can be effective in some applications, but are not suitable for sensing zero- or low-frequency acceleration, that is <5 Hz due to offset and temperature problems (pyroelectric effect). Piezoelectric sensors have a high Q, low damping, and a very high output impedance. Self-test features are also difficult to implement. The main advantages of piezoelectric devices are their wide operating temperature range (up to 300 °C), and high operating frequency (100 kHz).

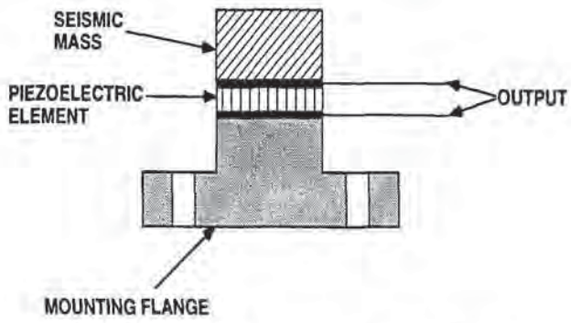


FIGURE 7.9 Cross section of a piezoelectric accelerometer.

Figure 7.10 shows a typical signal-conditioning circuit[2] and the trimming network used with piezoelectric sensors. The output from the sensor is fed to a charge amplifier, which converts the charge generated by the sensor into a voltage proportional to the charge. The circuit

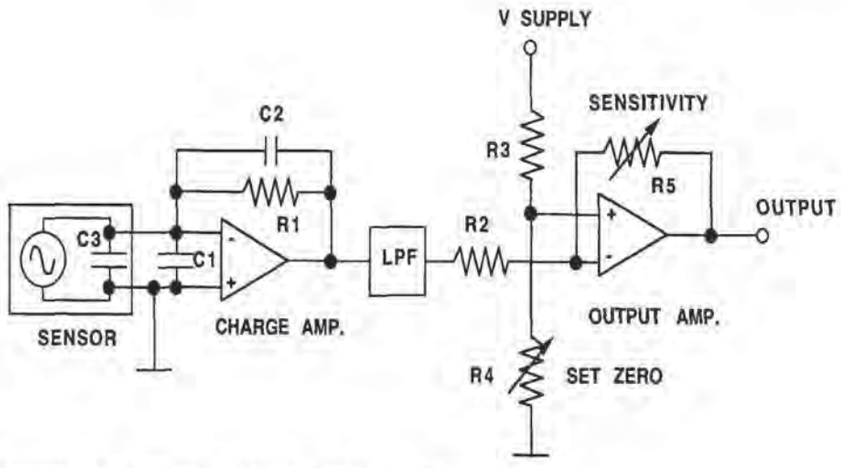


FIGURE 7.10 Piezoelectric signal-conditioning circuit.

is a modified virtual ground voltage amplifier. Feedback via capacitor C2 and resistor R1 is used to maintain the input at a virtual ground potential. This type of circuit minimizes the effect of stray or ground capacitance C1. The output voltage from the amplifier is fed via a low-pass filter (LPF) to an output amplifier, where it is trimmed for offset by R4 and sensitivity by R5. In system development, the sensitivity is set by the piezoelectric material used. Higher-sensitivity materials however, exhibit higher sensitivity to temperature variations.

7.4.3 Piezoresistive Sensing Devices

The property of some materials to change their resistivity when exposed to stress is called the piezoresistive effect. In silicon, the sensing resistors can be either P or N type doped regions, which can be very sensitive to strain. The resistors are also sensitive to temperature, so that the strain gauge is normally designed as a bridge configuration to minimize temperature effects and to obtain higher sensitivities (see also Chap. 2). In order to maintain good linearity, the operating temperature of piezoresistive devices is limited to about 100 °C. The nonlinearity is caused by excessive junction leakage current at high temperatures. Higher operating temperatures have been obtained using oxide-isolated strain gages (up to 175 °C). An uncompensated strain gauge has a typical error of 3 percent over the operating temperature range –20 to 80 °C. This error can be reduced with a compensating resistor, and still further reduced to about 0.5 percent by the use of thermistors, over an improved operating temperature range of –40 to 110 °C.

Piezoresistive sensing can be used with bulk micromachined accelerometers. Such a device is shown in Fig. 7.11. The strain-sensing elements are diffused into the suspension arms. These elements can then detect strain in the arms caused by acceleration forces on the seismic mass.

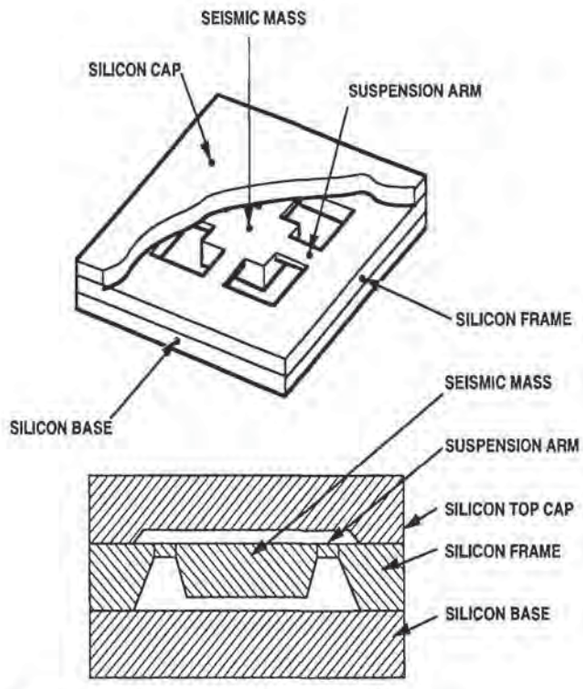


FIGURE 7.11 Bulk micromachined accelerometer.

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7.4.4 Capacitive Sensing Devices

When used with micromachined structures as shown in Figs. 7.11 and 7.12, differential capacitive sensing has a number of attractive features when compared to other methods of sensing: easily implemented self-test, temperature insensitivity, and smaller size. In addition, comparing capacitive sensing to piezoelectric sensing reveals that capacitive sensing has the advantages of dc and low-frequency operation and well-controlled damping. When compared to piezoresistive sensing; differential capacitive sensing has the advantage of a wider operating temperature range and requires less complex trimming. Capacitive sensing has one other major advantage over other sensing methods in that it can be used in closed-loop servo systems. In these systems, voltages can be applied to the capacitive plates to produce electrostatic forces, which will balance the forces on the seismic mass due to acceleration. The main advantage of closed-loop operation is to make the sensor to a large extent independent of process variations. Signal-conditioning circuits can be designed to detect changes in capacitance of <0.1 fF, so that plate capacitances in the range of 200 to 400 fF can be used. The small spacing between capacitor plates in micromachining technology (2 μ) enables practical acceleration sensors as small as 500 μ × 500 μ. When designing capacitive sensors, care must be taken to ensure that the sensing voltages are properly balanced to minimize offsets due to electrostatic forces. These forces can also be produced by internal noise sources. The attributes of capacitive sensing are a linear response, operation over wide temperature ranges (–40 to 150 °C), and a frequency response from dc to about 2 kHz.

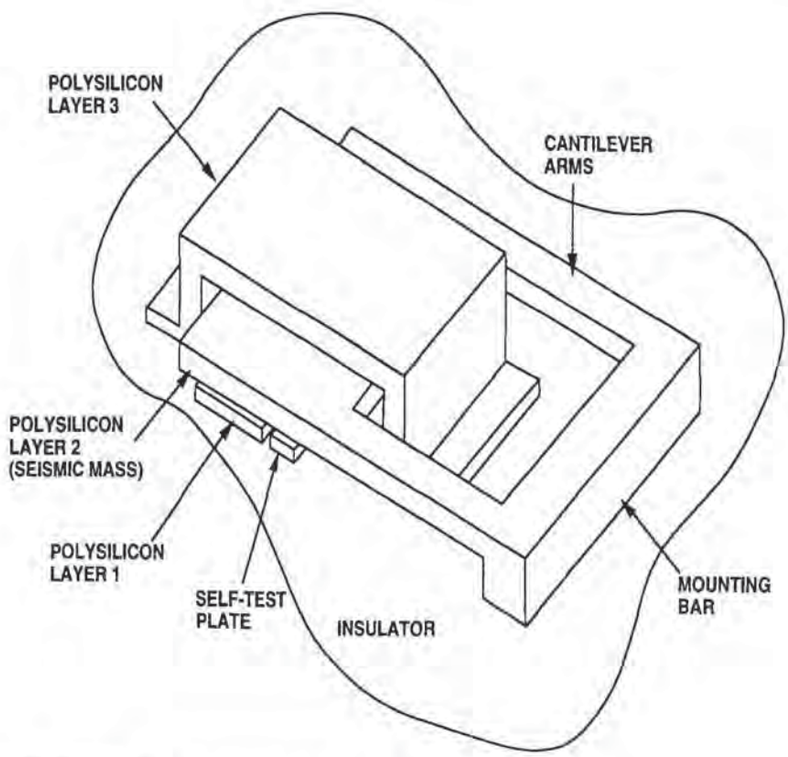


FIGURE 7.12 Surface micromachined accelerometer.

Micromachined Structures. There are a variety of types of micromachined structures that can be used in accelerometers. These structures fall into two technologies: bulk micromachined structures and surface micromachined structures. Bulk micromachined devices are structures

etched out of silicon wafers. Figure 7.11 shows the cross section of a bulk micromachined device consisting of three layers of silicon bonded together. The center layer is shaped to form a seismic mass suspended by four arms[3] (a cantilever structure has also been designed with two suspension arms[4]). When acted upon by acceleration forces, the seismic mass moves between the top and bottom plates. In this case, the movement can be sensed using piezoresistive elements diffused into the suspension arms, or differential capacitive sensing can be used between the seismic mass and the upper and lower silicon plates. The top and bottom plates can also be made of glass with metalized areas to form the top and bottom capacitors. Such devices have been designed to operate from the high g range (>1000 g), down to sensors with resolution in the μg range. Closed-loop control techniques are normally used in these lower g ranges.

The surface micromachined device shown in Fig. 7.12 is built using layers of polysilicon and sacrificial glass, which are alternately deposited and shaped. In this case, three layers of polysilicon and two layers of sacrificial glass were used. After deposition of the third polysilicon layer, the sacrificial glass is etched away leaving the freestanding structure as shown. A number of etch holes are normally placed in the second and third layer of polysilicon to speed up the etch process. These etch holes are also used to control the squeeze film damping and bandwidth of the device. The seismic mass of the second-layer polysilicon in these devices is of the order of 5×10^{-10} kg. A second plate under the middle polysilicon can be used for self-test. This function is achieved by applying a voltage to the self-test plate, which in turn will produce an electrostatic force on the center polysilicon plate causing it to deflect. This deflection will simulate an external acceleration force. An alternative to the polysilicon and glass structure is nickel with sacrificial copper.[5]

Differential capacitive sensing is used with all of these structures. Both bulk and surface micromachined devices have a very rugged construction. These devices use squeeze film damping to control bandwidth and to ensure critical damping of the resonant frequency (about 2 kHz for bulk and 10 kHz for surface micromachined devices). Film damping also ensures high resistance to shock in the sensing direction. In the directions perpendicular to the sensitive axes, the devices are rugged by construction with low cross-axis sensitivity (<3 percent). An accelerometer designed to sense a few g will typically have a shock tolerance of well over 5000 g. As already noted, surface micromachined devices that have been developed for air bag deployment have analog outputs. These devices normally operate from a 5-V supply, have a bandwidth of about 1 kHz and a sensitivity of 40 mV per g, giving a full-scale output with ±50 g input. Both open- and closed-loop techniques have been used for sensing. In comparing bulk and surface micromachined devices, the bulk structure is larger, using crystal-oriented etching with end stops, which require extra diffusions; whereas, the surface micromachined device uses isotropic etching (masking) with different materials acting as end stops. Surface structures have the potential for easier integration and use a simpler less costly process, but do require annealing.

Open-Loop Sensing. Open-loop signal-conditioning circuits amplify and convert the capacitance changes into a voltage. Such a CMOS circuit using switched capacitor techniques is shown in Fig. 7.13. The circuit contains a virtual ground amplifier to minimize the effect of stray capacitance. The positive input of the amplifier is referenced to a voltage of $V_{REF}/2$, when switch $S2$ is closed the amplifier has unity gain, and the voltage on the middle plate of the sensor is set to $V_{REF}/2$. After $S2$ is opened, $S1$ is switched so that any differences between sensor capacitors C_1 and C_2 produces a charge at the negative input of the amplifier. This charge produces a voltage (V_{out}) at the output of the integrating amplifier. The output voltage of the amplifier is given by

$$V_{out} = V_{REF} \frac{C_1 - C_2}{C_3} \tag{7.5}$$

where C_1 and C_2 are the sensor capacitances
C_3 is the integrator capacitance

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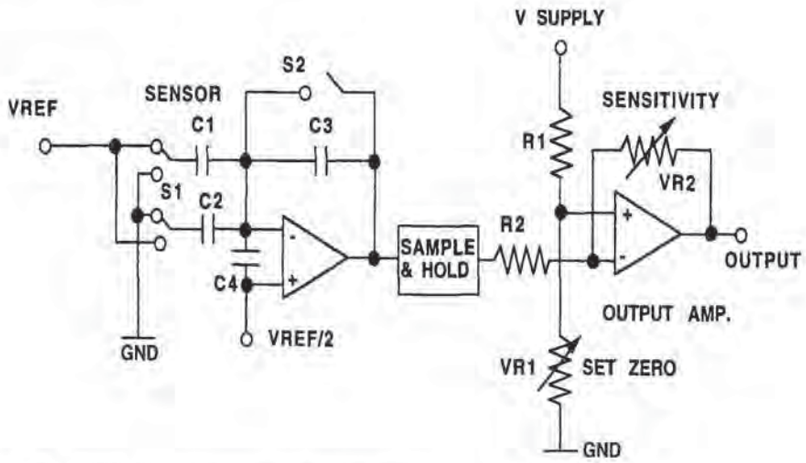


FIGURE 7.13 Capacitive sensing integrator circuit.

If the reference voltage is made proportional to the supply voltage, a ratiometric output is obtained. That is, the system gain is proportional to the supply voltage. This is a requirement in some systems to facilitate the design of the A/D converter.

A block diagram of the system is shown in Fig. 7.14. The system contains an internal oscillator, voltage reference, amplifier, sample and hold, switched capacitor filter, trim network, and output buffer. The output voltage in such a circuit is proportional to the capacitance change. This change is proportional to 1/displacement, or 1/acceleration, giving rise to some nonlinearities. However, the displacement is small compared to the spacing between the plates, so that the output voltage approximates to acceleration, giving less than 3 percent nonlinearity. The filter is used for noise reduction and to set the bandwidth for specific applications. Trimming is used to set the zero operating point and sensitivity of the system.

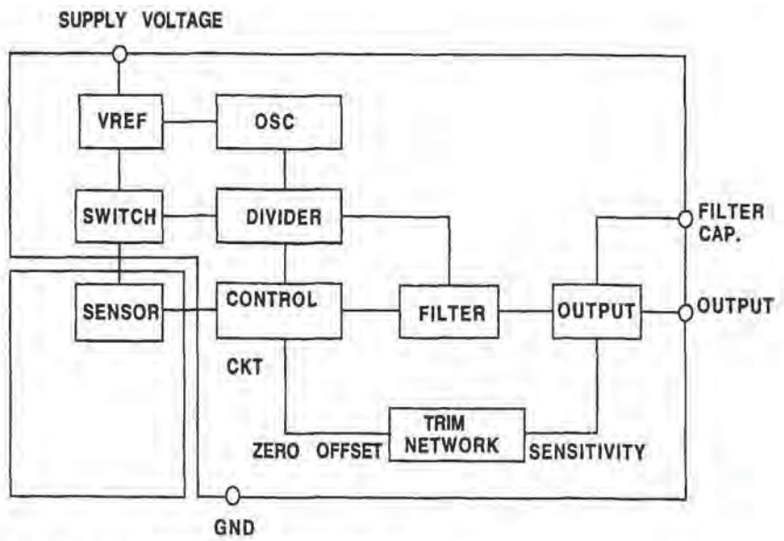


FIGURE 7.14 Signal-conditioning block diagram.

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An alternate circuit with improved linearity is shown in Fig. 7.15. In this case, the output voltage is fed back to the input of the integrator, forming a bridge circuit. The feedback also sets the amplitude of the driving voltage across the sensing capacitors, so that it is proportional to their displacement. This also balances the electrostatic forces on the middle plate.

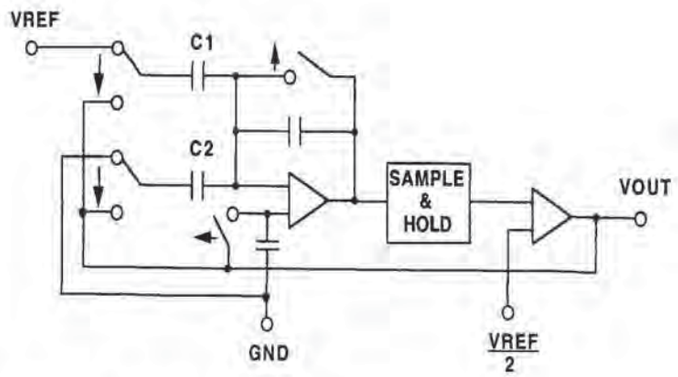


FIGURE 7.15 Linearized circuit schematic.

In this case

$$V_{out} = \frac{(C_1 - C_2)}{(C_1 + C_2)} \frac{V_{REF}}{2} \tag{7.6}$$

where $C_1 \propto 1/d_1$
$C_2 \propto 1/d_2$
$d_1 + d_2 = K$ (constant)

so that

$$V_{out} = V_{in} \frac{(d_1 - d_2)}{K} \tag{7.7}$$

showing that, in this case, V_{out} is proportional to displacement and acceleration giving improved linearity (<1 percent nonlinearity).

Closed-Loop Sensing. An alternative to the open-loop sensing circuit is the closed-loop sensing circuit, which can be configured to give an analog or digital output. Figure 7.16*a* shows the balanced electrostatic forces exerted on a seismic mass by upper and lower capacitor plates, which are at voltages of $+V$ and $-V$. If the seismic mass experiences a force due to acceleration, and a voltage δV is applied to the middle plate to generate enough electrostatic force to counterbalance the acceleration force, then the forces are as shown in Fig. 7.16*b*.

That is

$$m \times a = \frac{C(V + \delta V)^2}{2d} - \frac{C(V - \delta V)^2}{2d} \tag{7.8}$$

from which

$$m \times a = 2\,C \times V \times \frac{\delta V}{d} \tag{7.9}$$

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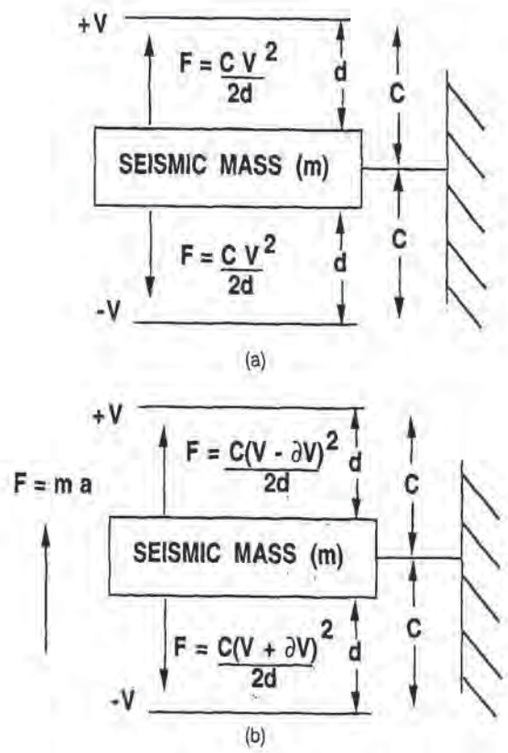


FIGURE 7.16 Electrostatic force diagram.

This shows that an acceleration force can be balanced by a linear voltage applied to the center plate. This voltage can be amplified to give a linear output voltage proportional to acceleration.[6]

In a micromachined structure, the electrostatic force produced by a δV of about 1 V can counterbalance the force produced by an acceleration of 50 g on the seismic mass. Figure 7.17 shows a block diagram of the analog closed-loop system. The top and bottom plates are dc-biased by the resistor divider network consisting of R1, R2, and R3. The ac antiphase signals used for sensing the position of the center plate are fed to the top and bottom sensor plates via the capacitors (C1, C2) from the control logic. The analog output voltage from the filter is feedback to the positive input of the integrator. When the integrator is clocked into the unity gain phase, the feedback voltage is applied to the center plate of the sensor. The electrostatic forces produced on the center plate by the differential voltage between the top and bottom plates, and the feedback voltage on the center plate, will force the center plate back to its normalized position as given in Eq. (7.9). Other methods that have been used for closed-loop operation are pulse width modulation (PWM), and delta sigma modulation (DSM).

The block diagram and waveforms of a PWM system are shown in Fig. 7.18. In this case, the center plate is held at a fixed voltage (0). The output of the integrator is amplified and converted into a PWM signal (VP), this signal and the inverted signal (VPN) are fed to the top and bottom plates of the sensor. The leading edges of the VP and VPN signals are used to sense the position of the middle plate. The electrostatic force generated by the voltage × time differential between the middle plate and the top and bottom plates, will act on the middle plate to counterbalance the forces on the plate due to acceleration. With zero acceleration, the PWM signal has a 50 percent duty cycle, so that the resulting electrostatic forces on the seismic mass are zero. The transfer function of the PWM system is given by

$$\text{Duty cycle} = \frac{\text{Acc} \times g \times d}{C \times V_{\text{REF}}^2} \tag{7.10}$$

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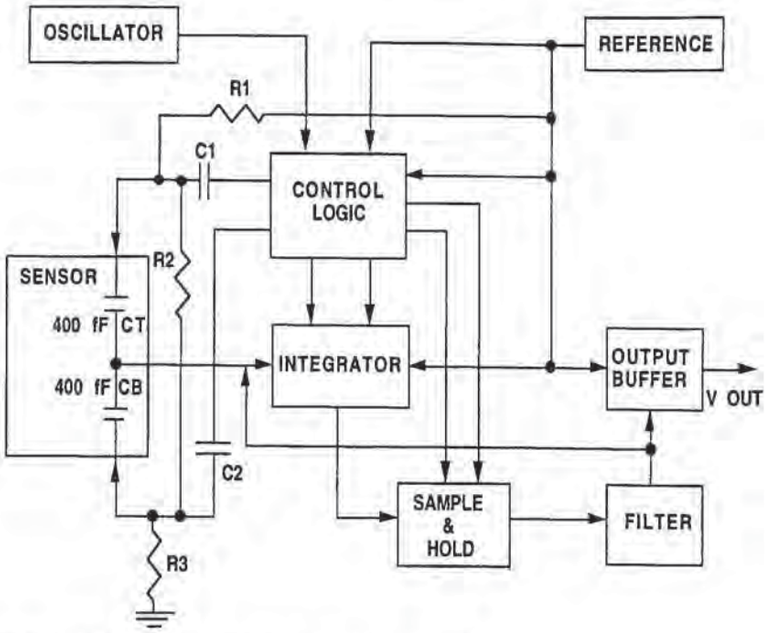


FIGURE 7.17 Block diagram of analog closed-loop system.

where g = gravitational constant
d = plate spacing
C = plate capacitance

The output can either be the PWM digital signal, or an analog output (obtained by feeding the PWM signal through a low pass filter).

Figure 7.19 shows the block diagram and waveforms of a DSM system. In this case, the middle plate is held at VF (volts). As can be seen, transient edges of the plate-drive waveforms are used for sensing the position of the center plate. The output from the integrator is fed to a comparator, whose output is then clocked into a latch where it sets up a "1" or a "0" (high or low) depending on the output from the integrator. The output from the latch is used to apply a voltage V_{REF} to the appropriate top or bottom capacitor plate, so that the electrostatic forces generated by the voltage V_{REF} – VF will maintain the center plate in its no-load position. The one-bit serial data stream from the latch can be fed directly to the MCU, or fed via a decimator circuit (which will convert the data into an 8-bit word) to the MCU. Alternatively, an LPF can be used to convert the data into an analog output. Bipolar or CMOS circuits can be used for signal conditioning. However, CMOS signal conditioning has the following advantages: a very high input impedance, good switching characteristics, low power requirements, small size, compatibility with MCU processes with the prospect of future integration, switched capacitor filters are available for noise reduction and bandwidth control, and EPROM technology is available for trimming (see Fig. 7.14). BiMOS circuits have also been used for signal conditioning.[6] In the BiMOS circuits, thin-film resistors are used to enable laser trimming of the zero offset and voltage reference; external capacitors and resistors are used for filtering and gain control.

Single vs. Multichip Control Circuits. The processing of sensors is not completely compatible with IC fabrication. Consequently, for the integration of sensors and ICs, a number of additional steps are required, which can have a detrimental effect on yields. The question then arises as to which is the most cost effective: a sensor die plus a control die with the additional cost of assembly, or a monolithic approach.

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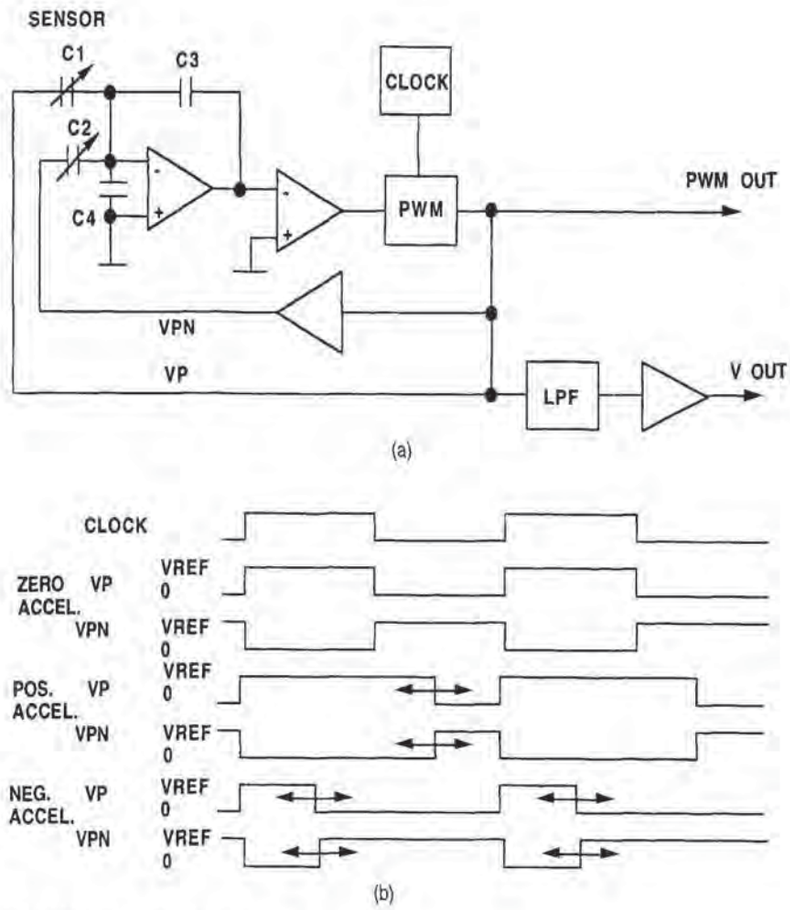


FIGURE 7.18 PWM block diagram.

In the case of micromachined devices, there are a number of advantages to using the dual-chip approach, such as flexibility, in that one type of sensor can be interfaced with a number of different types of control die, or several types of sensors can be interfaced with one type of control die. This provides a variety of input and output options. The control die and sensor can be developed simultaneously, minimizing development time. Problem solving is made easier, and the processing for both die can be optimized for performance. With the two-die approach, the sensor can also be capped and sealed during processing in a clean room atmosphere, thus eliminating contaminants and particles for good longevity. In the monolithic approach, this is not the case. In the monolithic approach, changes required to improve one section can affect the other section, which may then require additional changes in that section. The main disadvantage of the dual-chip approach is the introduction of parasitic capacitances. However, these can be addressed by existing control circuit design techniques.

7.5 AUTOMOTIVE APPLICATIONS FOR ACCELEROMETERS

Accelerometers have a wide variety of uses in the automobile. The initial application is as a crash sensor for air bag deployment. This application is normally associated with head-on collisions, but can also be applied to rear-end impact collisions to prevent rebound impact between the passengers and the windshield. An extension of this application is the use of

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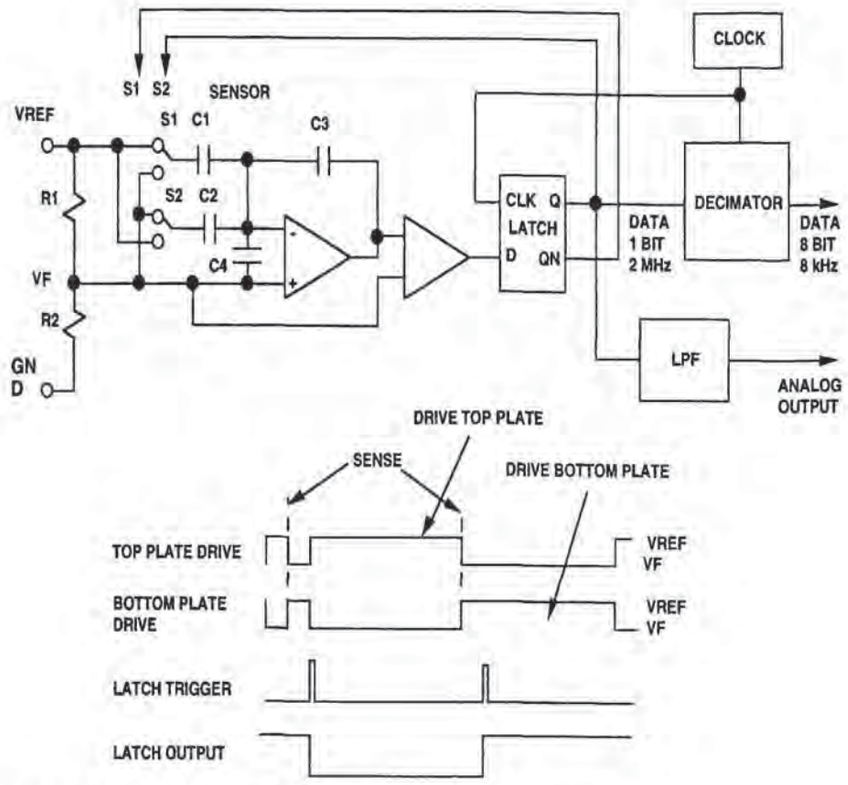


FIGURE 7.19 *Block diagram of Delta Sigma Modulator.*

accelerometers for the detection of side impact. This application will require additional air bags to the side of the occupants. Other low g linear accelerometers are being developed for ride control, ABS, traction, and inertial navigation applications.

Solid state acceleration sensors have special mounting requirements that are different from normal integrated circuits. These are to ensure that acceleration forces are transmitted to the sensor package. An advantage of the solid state device is self-test features for diagnostics. In acceleration applications, the devices are required to operate over the temperature range –40 to 85 °C (125 °C under the hood), and to withstand >2000 *g* shock. Other similar devices that have application in the automotive arena are vibration devices.

7.5.1 Air Bag Deployment Application

Crash sensors that use mechanical switches (sensors) are typically located some 40 cm from the point of impact, which necessitates the use of multiple sensors (normally 3 to 5 sensors are used in multipoint sensing) for crash sensing and air bag deployment. These devices are velocity change detectors, and are calibrated to make contact when the change of velocity in the passenger compartment is at least 20 km/h, this being the velocity change at which the front seat occupants will strike the windshield.

A centrally located analog sensor can be used as a crash sensor (single point). In the case of a centrally located accelerometer, the g level to be sensed is lower than that of a point-of-impact device. However, only one device is required to monitor the crash signature. This signature will vary with different types of chassis and different types of impacts. Consequently, an MCU is used to monitor the output of the accelerometer to determine if a crash has occurred. The typical output of a centrally located accelerometer during a 48 km/h crash is shown in Fig. 7.20. Deceleration of the vehicle and occupant displacement are also shown. At 48 km/h, the sensor has 20 ms to detect the crash and trigger the air bag. This results in infla-

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tion of the air bag 50 ms after impact, at which time the occupant has moved about 18 cm or approximately halfway to the windshield and at the contact point with the inflated air bag. During the initial 20 ms, deceleration can reach 20 *g*, but the average is about 5 *g* when the air bag is triggered. The centrally located accelerometer can take one of several forms: a piezoelectric sensor, a piezoresistive device, or a capacitive sensor.

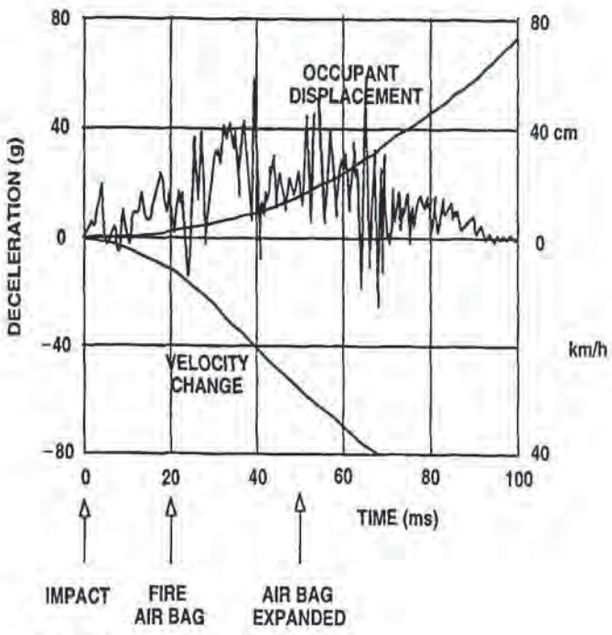


FIGURE 7.20 Typical 48 km/h crash waveform.

The centrally located accelerometer has a number of performance advantages over its mechanical counterpart. These are the reduction in the number of sensors and required bussing, which makes the centrally located system much more cost effective. There is an improvement in sensing and signal-processing accuracy with the single-point sensing accelerometer over the mechanical sensor. This gives a better-defined trigger point and overall improved performance across different chassis types. Capacitive sensors appear to have the edge in this application, because they have the potential of being cost effective, meet the requirements of the application, and have self-test features plus diagnostics available. In this application, a typical accelerometer specification is ±50 *g* full-scale output, accuracy ±5 percent over temperature, bandwidth dc to 750 Hz, and cross-axis sensitivity <3 percent. During impact, the crash sensor can also be used for seat belt locking.

7.5.2 Ride Control Application

In ride control systems, the leaf or coil springs located on the axles are replaced by four *wheel stations,* which form an active suspension. Each wheel station contains an oil-filled cylinder with a piston to set the distance of the frame above the axles and to isolate the frame from axle vibration. This is achieved using a servo feedback system. When a vehicle with conventional suspension encounters a foreign object on the highway, the load on the wheel increases as it moves up to negotiate the obstacle. This load increase makes the vehicle rise up. With a fully active suspension, the increase in load is detected and a servo valve is opened to transfer the necessary amount of oil from the appropriate cylinder to a storage container. Consequently, the load exerted on the chassis by each wheel is maintained at its specific level and

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the chassis remains at its static level. After the object has been traversed, oil is pumped back into the cylinder to reestablish the static load conditions.

An alternative to the active suspension is the adaptive suspension system. In this case, information from the front wheels is gathered and used to predict road conditions for the control of the rear wheels. The advantage over the fully active suspension is one of cost, as the number of acceleration sensors is halved. During cornering, oil is also pumped into the outside wheel cylinders to minimize roll angle.[7]

A combination of sensors is used for active suspension. These are accelerometers, wheel speed sensors, chassis-to-ground sensing, and piston-level sensing in the suspension system. The low g accelerometers used on the axles of the four wheels to detect the load changes on the wheels have the following specifications: ±2 *g* full-scale, accuracy ±5 percent over temperature, bandwidth dc to 10 Hz, and cross-axis sensitivity <3 percent. The acceleration information and data from the wheel speed sensors is used to provide the information necessary for the MCU to operate the servo control valves. Hall effect, MRE, and opto sensors have been used for monitoring the level of the pistons in the wheel stations cylinders.

7.5.3 Vibration Applications

Lean-burn engines are being developed for improved emission levels and for better fuel economy (10 to 15 percent improvement). NO_x emissions are greatly reduced to meet federal standards. Lean-burn engines use high stoichiometric ratios; 20:1 and higher are necessary. At these ratios, combustion becomes unstable and torque fluctuations large. Consequently, antiknock and vibration sensors are required to supply the information necessary to the MCU, so that it can adjust the injected fuel amount and ignition timing for stability over widely varying conditions.

There are two types of solid state sensors that can be used in this application: piezoelectric devices and capacitively coupled vibration sensors. A typical vibration sensor contains a number of fingers of varying length which vibrate at their resonant frequencies when those frequencies are encountered. The resonance is capacitively coupled to the sensing circuit, and the outputs as shown are obtained. Optical sensors have also been used as antiknock sensors. In this case, the ignition spectrum is monitored for the detection of misfiring or knocking. Vibration sensors can also be used for vibration monitoring in maintenance applications.

7.5.4 Antilock Brake System Applications

In antilock brake systems, speed sensors are attached to all wheels to determine wheel rotation speed and slip differential between wheels. VR devices, as well as Hall effect and MRE devices, can be used in this application, as zero speed sensing is not required. VR devices have been used and shown to be cost effective in this application, but Hall effect and MRE devices are now being designed into these systems. Pressure sensors are used to monitor brake fluid pressure, and an accelerometer or ground-speed sensor can be used to provide information on changes in the vehicular speed. Brake pedal position and brake fluid pressure information are also required for control. All of this information is fed to an MCU, which processes the data and adjusts the brake fluid pressure to each wheel for optimum braking. Many of the elements of the ABS system can be used for the detection of lateral slippage on high-speed cornering, and can be used for traction and the direction of power to the wheels. Traction control applies in particular to slippery surfaces and with four-wheel-drive vehicles. Additional information over that used in ABS systems is required by the MCU for ASR applications, such as engine speed and throttle angle. In this application, servo feedback to the throttle may also be necessary.

A more cost-effective, but less accurate, system for ABS and ASR is the adaptive control system in which accelerometers are normally used to measure deceleration when braking, and

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acceleration when the throttle is opened. If skidding occurs during braking, the brake pressure is reduced and adjusted for maximum deceleration, or the throttle adjusted for maximum traction. Typical specifications for the accelerometer required in this application are: ±1 g full-scale output, accuracy ±5 percent over temperature, bandwidth 0.5 to 50 Hz, and cross-axis sensitivity <3 percent.

7.6 NEW SENSING DEVICES

New cost-effective sensors are continually being developed. The technology and cost are often pushed by the application and volume requirements of the automotive industry and federal mandates. Today's silicon sensors and control electronics are limited in operating temperature to 150 °C to ensure long life of the devices. This operational temperature is adequate for most applications, but higher temperature operation may be required for sensors mounted in the engine compartment. The limit on the operating temperature of silicon devices can be extended to between 200 and 250 °C by the use of special isolation techniques such as dielectric isolation (this operating temperature applies to surface micromachined devices). For higher-temperature operation, alternative materials such as GaAs or SiC are being developed, but the cost of these devices limits their use at present.

A list of semiconductor conductor materials and maximum practical operating temperatures is given in Table 7.3. Higher operating temperatures have been reported but with poor longevity.

TABLE 7.3 Device Operating Temperatures

Material	Maximum practical operating temperature, °C
Si	150
Si (dielectric iso.)	250
GaAs	300
AlGaAs	350
GaP	400
SiC	500

7.6.1 New Rotational Speed-Sensing Devices

A number of new devices are being investigated to detect magnetic fields. These are flux gate, Weigand effect, magnetic transistor, and magnetic diode. The magnetic transistor at present is showing the most promise. The device operates on a similar principle to the Hall effect device. That is, the current division between split collectors (bipolar) or split drains (MOS) can be changed by a magnetic field. This current differential can then be detected and amplified to give an output voltage proportional to magnetic field strength. These devices can use either majority or minority carriers, and can be either vertical or lateral bipolar or MOS devices. The magnetic transistor has the potential of higher sensitivity than the Hall effect device.

Figure 7.21 shows the cross section of a lateral PNP magnetic transistor. The current from each collector is equal until a magnetic field is applied perpendicular to the surface of the device. The magnetic field causes an imbalance of current between the two collectors. Sensitivities with this type of structure have been reported as being an order of magnitude greater than in the Hall effect device.[8] Magnetic transistors and diodes can be directly integrated with the signal-conditioning circuits, which could make them very cost effective in future applications. A comparison of the magnetic transistor to other practical devices is given in Table 7.2.

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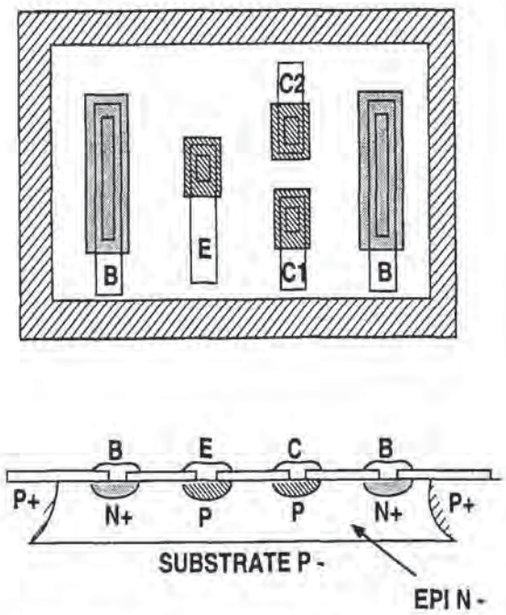


FIGURE 7.21 Cross section of a field-assisted *PNP* magnetic transistor.

7.6.2 New Linear Speed-Sensing Devices

A number of different sensing technologies can be used for distance, object detection, and approach speed measurements. Shown in Fig. 7.22 are the areas covered by blind-spot, rear, and forward-looking sensors. Ultrasonics, infrared, laser, and microwaves (radar) can be used in the detection of objects behind vehicles and in the blind areas. From a practical standpoint, no technology has come to the forefront. However, with new innovations in technology the situation may change very rapidly. Ultrasonics and infrared sensors are cost effective but degrade with inclement weather conditions such as ice, rain, snow, and the accumulation of road grime. Infrared devices are also color-sensitive, in that the sensitivity to shiny black objects is very low compared to other colors. Microwave devices appear to have the edge

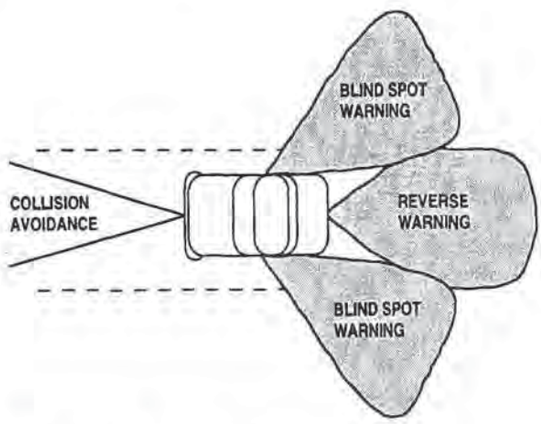


FIGURE 7.22 Collision-avoidance patterns.

when considering environmental conditions,[9] but are expensive, and radar can be affected by false return signals and clutter.

For the detection of obstacles and vehicles in front of a vehicle, the choice is between laser and microwaves due to the distances involved (up to 90 m). Microwaves have the disadvantage of high cost and large antenna size when considering available devices in the 60 GHz range. Frequencies greater than 100 GHz are preferred for acceptable antenna size. However, collision avoidance radar in the 76/77-GHz band has been developed in Europe. Collision avoidance radar in the 77, 94, and 144 GHz is being considered in the United States. A typical system uses a 38.5-GHz VCO (voltage controlled oscillator) with frequency-doubling to obtain about 40 mW of power at 77 GHz. A frequency-modulated continuous wave or pulse-modulated system can be used. The system uses GaAs devices to meet the frequency and power requirements. Lasers can be cost effective in this application, but also have their drawbacks: degradation of performance by fog, reflections from other light sources (sun, etc.), build-up of road grime on sensor surfaces, and poor reflecting surfaces at laser frequencies, such as grimy and shiny black surfaces.

7.6.3 New Inertial and Acceleration-Sensing Devices

Recent developments in solid state technology have made possible very small cost-effective devices to sense angular rotation. The implementation of one such gyroscopic device is shown in Fig. 7.23. This device is fabricated on a silicon substrate using surface micromachining techniques. In this case, three layers of polysilicon are used, with the first and third layers being fixed and the second layer free to vibrate about its center. The center is held in position by four spring arms attached to four mounting posts as shown. This device can sense rotation about the X and Y axes and sense acceleration in the direction of the Z axis. The center layer of polysilicon, driven by electrostatic forces, vibrates about the Z axis. These forces are produced by voltages applied between the fixed comb fingers and the comb fingers of the second polysilicon. Capacitor plates as shown are formed between the first and third polysilicon on the X and Y axes, and the second layer of polysilicon. Differential capacitive sensing techniques can then be used to sense any displacement of the vibrating disc caused by angular rotation. For example, if angular rotation takes place about the X axis, Coriolis forces produce a deflection of the disc about the Y axis. This deflection can be detected by the capacitor plates on the X axis. The sensing of the three functions is achieved by using a common sensing circuit that alternatively senses the X rotation, Y rotation, and acceleration. The gyroscope is designed to have a resolution of <10 degrees per hour for angular rate measurements, and an acceleration resolution of 0.5 mg.

7.7 FUTURE APPLICATIONS

New applications to increase creature comfort and safety are constantly being developed, but their rate of introduction will depend on the cost effectiveness of the technology, demand, and government mandates. Other concerns of automotive manufacturers are size, weight, power requirements, and adverse effects on styling and appearance. Many of the new sensor technologies are in their infancy, and thus are not yet cost effective on medium- and low-priced automobiles, but are being made available as options on luxury cars.

7.7.1 Future Rotational Speed-Sensing Applications

A future application for speed-sensing devices will be in continuously variable transmissions. In this application, engine and wheel speed, as well as torque, will be measured, and the infor-

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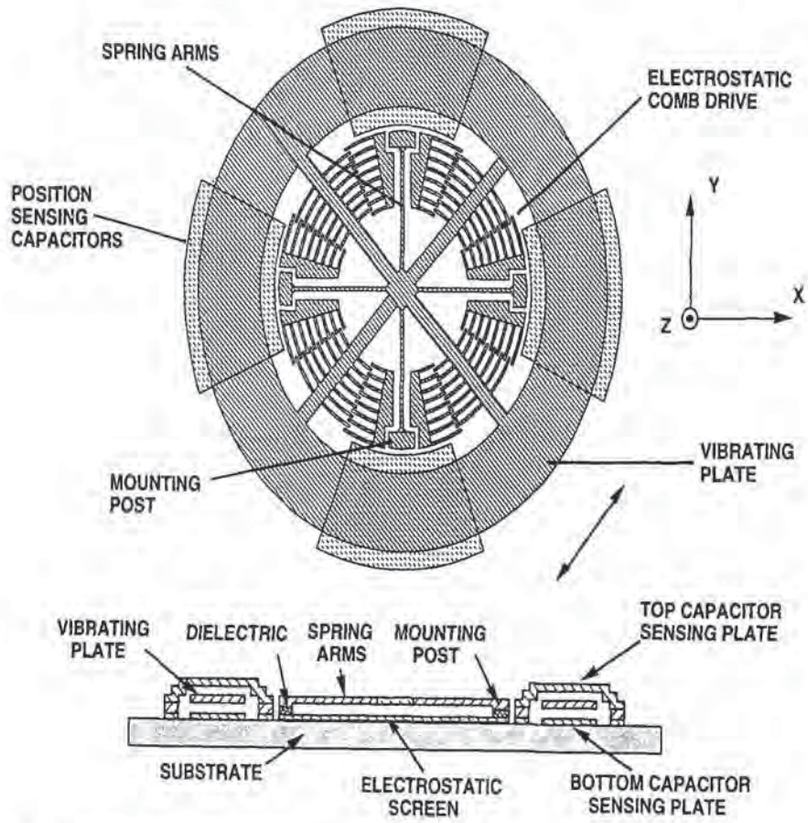


FIGURE 7.23 Solid state gyroscope.

mation processed by an MCU to optimize transmission ratios for engine performance and efficiency. All-wheel steering is also under development, and requires speed-sensing information, in addition to steering, front-, and rear-wheel angle position data for processing and control.

7.7.2 Future Linear Speed-Sensing Applications

Another application that has been developed is the use of speed- and distance-measuring devices for collision avoidance. These devices fall into three categories: near-obstacle detection (rear), blind-spot detection, and semiautomatic frontal object detection and control[9] (see Fig. 7.22).

Near-obstacle detection is used to prevent accidents during reversing. Blind-spot detection is used to prevent accidents due to careless lane changing, and when backing out of a driveway, garage, or alley into traffic. The semiautomatic frontal detection is a long-range system. The distance and closing speed between vehicles, or between a vehicle and a fixed object, can be measured and the speed adjusted as necessary to avoid a collision,[10] or the driver can be warned of impending danger. An addition to this is to monitor road surface conditions for friction—for example, dry roads compared to wet or icy roads—and also to use this information to adjust approach speeds and distance. Without collision avoidance, road condition monitoring can be used to caution vehicle operators. Collision avoidance systems can be used to minimize collisions, or can be used to operate protection systems before an unavoidable collision happens to protect the automobile passengers. In this case, vehicles closing at or approaching an obstacle at 80 km/h will be less than 7 m apart before a collision-is-imminent

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determination can be made. This gives 200 ms decision-making time for the system MCU. This is, however, long compared to today's air bag deployment systems, which have 20 ms decision-making time after the event. In the future, an idealistic system may be a combination of the two systems.

7.7.3 Future Acceleration Applications

One of the future applications being considered is the expansion of the air bag system to include side impact protection. The sensor used for crash sensing is unidirectional, so that it can only detect forward impact. A similar sensor, mounted perpendicular to the air bag sensor, can be added to the system to detect side impact and to deploy protection for the passengers. This device will typically require a 250-*g* accelerometer. Another application for accelerometers is to detect slippage during cornering in advanced steering systems. These systems will employ a low-*g* accelerometer (1–2 *g*).

7.7.4 Inertial Navigation Applications

A number of inertial navigation systems are being developed for short- and long-range travel. Long-range inertial navigation systems normally obtain their location by using a triangulation method. This method references three navigation satellites with known locations in fixed orbits. However, there are certain conditions under which contact with all three satellites is lost. This occurs when the vehicle is in the shadow of tall buildings or high hills, and triangulation is not possible. Under these conditions, the guidance system has to rely on such devices as gyroscopes, which sense angular rotation or change in direction, and/or monitor vehicular motion relative to the road.

Short-range inertial navigation systems or inertial measurement units (IMU) rely to a large extent on high-accuracy accelerometers and gyroscopes. A typical accelerometer specification for this application is: ±2-*g* full-scale output, accuracy 0.5 percent over temperature, bandwidth dc to 20 Hz, and a cross-axis sensitivity <0.5 percent. A centrally located IMU can be expanded to cover other applications such as suspension, ABS, ASR, and working with crash avoidance sensors. This may be the way to handle cost-effective system design in the future. The IMU can also be designed to provide location data for intelligent vehicle highway systems. These systems (Prometheus,[11] Amtics[12]) improve travel efficiency and reduce fuel consumption and pollution by selecting the optimum route to a given destination. The route is chosen to avoid traffic congestion, road construction, and accidents (see Chap. 29).

7.8 SUMMARY

In this chapter, a number of speed-sensing devices, both rotary and linear, have been described, together with potential applications. VR, MRE, Hall effect, and opto devices (possibly magnetic transistor in future applications) can be used in rotational applications for engine control, transmission, and wheel speed sensing. Of these devices, Hall effect, VR, and opto have been widely used. With the tendency for direct pickoff, optical devices may become impractical. MRE devices are being designed in and will become a serious contender to the Hall effect device. In linear applications for crash avoidance, microwave devices have the edge over performance and optical devices in terms of cost. However, as the cost of microwave devices declines, they could become cost effective. For blind-area alert and reversing obstacle detection, ultrasonics and infrared devices are cost effective, but performance degrades during inclement weather.

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The accelerometer has possibly the greatest potential for applications in the automobile. These applications range from crash sensing, ride control, ABS, and ASR to IMU systems. Accelerometers needed will range in sensitivities from 50 *g* in crash sensing to 1 *g* in the IMU. Advances in technology are providing a number of new sensors that are showing potential, such as the magneto transistor and the micromachined gyroscope. To summarize, Figs. 7.24 and 7.25 show the types of sensors used in specific applications, and the technologies used for specific sensors. As can be seen, one type of sensor can be used in a number of applications. In applications where a sensor output is shared, care must be taken to ensure that a failure in one system does not disable the sensor or other systems. Because of the similarities in several of the systems and the use of shared sensors, the greatest potential for cost-effective system design is a single control system. The IMU shows great potential to be the controller for ride control, ABS, ASR, four-wheel-drive, and steering applications. The rate of introduction of new sensors and systems will depend on federal mandates, customer demand, and the need to improve engine fuel efficiency and to reduce emissions.

GLOSSARY

Adaptive suspension A suspension system that monitors motion of the front wheels and adjusts the suspension of the rear axle accordingly.

Arntics Acronym for Advanced Mobile Traffic Information and Communication System.

ASR (traction) A system to prevent wheel spin on slippery surfaces, to give maximum traction and acceleration.

Sensor / Application	Air Bag Deployment	Ride Control	ABS	Engine Control	Transmission	4 Wheel Drive	All Wheel Stearing	Engine Vibrarion	Cruise Control	Seat Belts	Power Steering Assist	Traction (ASR)	Collision Avoidance	Obstacle Detection	Inertial Navigation
Speed Rotation	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨	▨		▨		▨	▨			
Speed Linear			□		□				□		□	□	□	□	□
Acceleration	▨	▨	▨	▨						▨		▨			▨
Vibration								▨							
Angular Rotation															▨

▨ USED □ MAY BE USED

FIGURE 7.24 Sensor applications.

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Measurand / Sensing Technique	Mechanical	Piezoelectric	Piezoresistive	Capacitive	Optical	Infrared	Radar	Laser	Ultrasonic	Hall Effect	Variable Reluctance	Magnetoresistive
Speed Rotation					☒					☒	☒	☒
Speed Linear						☒	☒	☒	☒			
Acceleration	☒	☒	☒	☒								
Vibration		☒		☒								
Angular Rotation				☒								

FIGURE 7.25 Sensor technologies.

Coriolis forces Forces exerted by a spinning body to oppose any motion at right angles to the axle.

Crash signature Shock waveform projected through a chassis during a collision.

Inertial navigation Guidance system giving accurate location.

IMU (inertial measurement unit) System used for guidance between two locations indicates road hazards and delays.

Lean burn Engine with high compression ratios and high air-to-fuel ratios for increased efficiency and low emissions.

Micromachining Manufacturing technology for micromechanical structures using chemical etching techniques.

NO_x Chemical symbol for oxides of nitrogen.

Prometheus Acronym for PROgraM for a European Traffic with Highest Efficiency and Unprecedented Safety.

Switched capacitor filter Technique for switching capacitors to simulate high-value resistors for low-frequency filters to minimize size.

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CHAPTER 8
ENGINE KNOCK SENSORS

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8.1 INTRODUCTION

Knock is a phenomenon characterized by undesirable structural vibration and noise generation and is peculiar to spark-ignited engines. Knock is undesirable both from a customer acceptance standpoint and also because severe knock can cause engine damage. The terms *ping* (light, barely observable knock) and *predetonation* (knock caused by ignition of the charge slightly before the full ignition of the flame front by the spark plug) are also commonly used in the industry, and not always with precision.

Historically, knock became an important engine phenomenon in the 1930s. In their search for performance improvements, designers of spark-ignited engines increased compression ratios beyond the capabilities of the gasoline formulations available to provide smooth, knock-free combustion. The discovery of gasoline additives such as tetraethyl lead, which improve the stability of the combustion process primarily by decreasing burn rate, permitted the fuel suppliers to provide a range of fuel knock properties at the pump to match with the range of engine requirements. As a result, by 1950, knock was not regarded as a significant engine performance limiting parameter since the car company could specify what fuel should be selected, ranging from "regular" to "super premium" grades. A blending fuel pump was even provided by one fuel company which allowed the operator of the vehicle to select exactly what grade of fuel he or she wished to use from a selection of six grades.

In the late 1960s, the situation began to change drastically. In response to public concern about air quality and health, legislation on automotive emissions became a new constraint on automotive engine design, first in the United States and more recently worldwide. The use of fuel additives to improve gasoline knock characteristics fell into disfavor for two reasons:

- Many of the better additives resulted in combustion products not desirable in the air. For example, most lead compounds are toxic at low levels to human and animal life.
- As engine designers strove to provide lower engine emissions, the use of the three-way catalytic converter cleanup device in the exhaust system became nearly universal. Unfortunately, most good fuel additives that improve knock characteristics poison the catalyst of the converter, rendering it ineffective. Also, many engine controls began to make use of the oxygen sensor feedback control loop. The catalyst on the oxygen sensor also is poisoned by the better additives.

This situation led to gradually more stringent federal regulation of the fuel industry, a trend which, in the end, legislated fuels with knock-improving additives completely off the

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market, so that by the mid 1980s, all spark-ignited automobile engines in the United States were being operated using lead-free gasoline. Of course, as leaded gasoline disappeared, the knock phenomenon returned. The auto industry knew what to do—lower compression ratios—but this step alone has accompanying negative consequences, such as lower fuel economy. Thus, the situation was one driven by the need to optimize between several principal goals: emission regulations, fuel supply characteristics, fuel economy goals, customer acceptability, and vehicle performance.

8.2 THE KNOCK PHENOMENON

8.2.1 Definition

Spark-ignited engine knock has been defined as "an undesirable mode of combustion that originates spontaneously and sporadically in the engine, producing sharp pressure pulses associated with a vibratory movement of the charge and the characteristic sound from which the phenomenon derives its name."[1] This definition at once conveys some of the difficulties of measuring the phenomenon and devising engine controls to minimize it. First, the ultimate standard is the reaction of the human to the vibration felt or the sound heard as a result of the knock. An attempt to measure the cause of the phenomenon leads one to the difficult problem of observing pressure waves in the cylinder. In fact, over the years these difficulties led the industry to devise an experimental comparison measurement technique which measured the octane rating of the *fuel*, not of the engine.

8.2.2 Laboratory Measurements

The CFR Engine. The basic comparison method which evolved for rating fuel knock quality involved the use of a simple, single-cylinder, spark-ignited engine called the CFR engine, and a pure hydrocarbon fuel—100 percent isooctane. Researchers discovered that they could reproduce knock phenomenon, laboratory to laboratory, by running this engine under specified conditions with this fuel.

Gasoline Octane Rating. A system of rating the knock characteristics of fuels, called the octane rating, was developed based on a comparison of the CFR engine performance with the test fuel compared to pure isooctane. On this scale, osooctane has an octane rating of 100; passenger car engine fuels ranged from the high 70s for "regular" to the high 90s for "super premium." (Fuel formulations with an octane rating over 100 were possible but were used mainly for aircraft engines.)

As the industry strove to put knock on a solid engineering basis, methods of measuring the resulting phenomena on the CFR engine, and commercial engines as well, were developed. The parameter on which the industry standardized was "jerk," the third-time derivative of engine block displacement. Scales evolved for comparing the relative knock performance of fuels and of engines based on the output of this kind of sensor. Much work was also done to correlate jerk sensor measurements with cylinder pressure phenomena.

The fundamental resonant frequency of the knock-generated pressure signal is dependent on engine cylinder geometry and the speed of sound in the charge gas. The structural vibration characteristics of the engine block that are excited by the fundamental knock event are determined by the engine block transfer function. Testing conducted on one cylinder of a six-cylinder spark-ignited engine demonstrates that high-frequency structural vibration components are good indicators of knock, despite the relatively low frequency high-pressure excitation event.[2] Structural vibration induced by mechanical events, such as valves opening

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and closing, introduces noise that can be confused with knock-induced vibrations. Careful signal analysis is required to overcome a sometimes poor signal-to-noise ratio.

The reverberation resonance of the cylinder typically lies in the range between 2 and 12 kHz. A useful rough estimate of the knock frequency for a given engine cylinder geometry is given by Draper's equation[3]:

$$\text{fr} = \frac{\text{Pmn} \times C}{\pi B} \tag{8.1}$$

where fr is the knock resonant frequency
Pmn is a vibration mode constant
C is the velocity of sound in the gas in the cylinder
and B is the radius of the cylinder

Using this equation, assuming that the average gas temperature is 2000 K so that C is 900 m/s, the first circumferential mode resonant frequency is estimated at 5.75 kHz for a cylinder of 10-cm bore.

As better cylinder pressure sensors have become available, cylinder pressure wave measurements, along with signal analysis techniques for deriving a knock rating number, have supplemented jerk measurements in the laboratory. The most popular signal analysis approach is to declare the maximum amplitude or peak-to-peak value of the bandpass filtered pressure data as a knock number, usually referred to as *knock intensity.*

Other ways of describing knock level are the root-mean square, mean square, or integral of the absolute value of the bandpass pressure oscillations during the knocking portions of the cycle. The spectral power of the pressure transformed into the frequency domain has been used for measurement. Derivative-based methods have also been established, based on rapid changes of cylinder pressure during the knock phenomenon, using the first, second, and third derivatives of the cylinder pressure history.

8.2.3 On-Board Knock Control

Improved Fuel Economy by Lowering Engine Compression Ratio. As engine control using microcomputers became established in the late 1970s and early 1980s for gasoline passenger car engines, and the octane rating of the fuels available for them dropped below 90, the automotive industry responded by lowering engine compression ratios. However, some of these smaller engines were equipped with turbochargers to recover some of the lost performance at wide open throttle. It was found that these engines could experience destructive high-speed knock at maximum speed and power. Not only were the knock reverberations in the cylinder large, but they were modulating a high base pressure wave. This could occur because the extra boost pressure from the turbocharger permits additional fuel to be metered to the engine without violating emissions restrictions on the control, since the amount of oxygen available to react with the fuel is greater. This could result in knock wave peaks exceeding the cylinder head pressure limit, as well as excessive vibration of the entire engine.

The knock occurring at wide open throttle had to be decreased, but retaining the additional power from the turbocharger at part throttle was very desirable. The electronic control was available to modulate the amount of fuel injected during the dangerous engine state; however, a means of sensing engine knock on-board in real time was needed. The sensors used are described in Sec. 8.3. The control operates by sensing that knock is over the permissible limit, and then reduces it either by retarding ignition timing or by opening a wastegate valve on the boosted manifold pressure.

Improved Fuel Economy by Raising Compression Ratio. Following the successful implementation of knock limit control on turbocharged engines, considerable experimentation was carried out to assess whether or not there is value in applying knock limit control to naturally aspirated spark-ignited engines. It was determined that if the engine knock was always kept

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less than an empirically determined limit for that type of engine and stored in the microcomputer control memory, then the knock level would not be objectionable even to the more critical car operators. Moreover, this could be accomplished while raising the compression ratio one full number—for example, from 8:1 to 9:1. If used to improve fuel economy, this change results in a 3 percent improvement in the corporate average fleet economy (CAFE) rating for that model/engine combination. At today's CAFE values, this is close to a one-mile-per-gallon improvement.

CAFE values are extremely important to a passenger car original equipment manufacturer (OEM). The larger, heavier luxury cars cannot achieve as low a CAFE value as the smaller, lighter cars. However, the larger cars are more profitable to produce. Thus, the mix of cars produced by an OEM can depend on just how close his CAFE results are coming to the mandated value. A way of improving fuel economy without downsizing, adding significant cost, or losing performance is very valuable.

Starting in the early 1980s, more and more passenger cars had a knock limit control and increased compression ratio. Such a change is usually scheduled at a time when the engine design and the tooling to make the engine are changing for other reasons. By 1990, 25 to 30 percent of the naturally aspirated passenger car engines produced in the United States (and all of the turbocharged engines) featured knock limit control.

8.2.4 Measurement and Control System Considerations

In addition to the problem of developing a suitable on-board sensor for knock, once the parameter to use had been selected, a number of other considerations had to be settled in effecting a satisfactory control. It was already pointed out that engine knock can be reduced either by retarding spark timing or by opening a manifold boost wastegate valve. In the United States, the candidate engines already had electronic control of spark timing, so that all that was needed to implement the knock control was an easily added change in the timing command in the control microcomputer. However, many control strategies exist for processing the knock signal. Perhaps the most elaborate of these was implemented on the first turbocharged engine knock limit control:

- The vibration frequency of the knock is specific to the engine model but lies between 2 and 12 kHz for passenger car engines. The sensor used was mechanically bandpass-tuned to match this characteristic with a Q of about 2.
- The major knock reverberations for a given cylinder occur during a time window that starts shortly after the cylinder reaches top dead center and ends 60 to 90 crank-angle degrees later. The control opened a signal gate to allow the knock signal to pass through and be averaged only when the engine was in these time windows.
- To prevent engine damage, whenever the knock signature exceeded the limit value, the control very rapidly retarded ignition by as much as 10 crank-angle degrees so that the engine would not be in severe knock even for the next few cylinder events. Then the control would very slowly advance the timing until the process repeated. This resulted in somewhat less than best engine performance but assured a comfortable margin of safety for the engine.
- The knock threshold limit in the control was modulated to increase with engine speed so as to compensate for greater noise background at high engine speed.

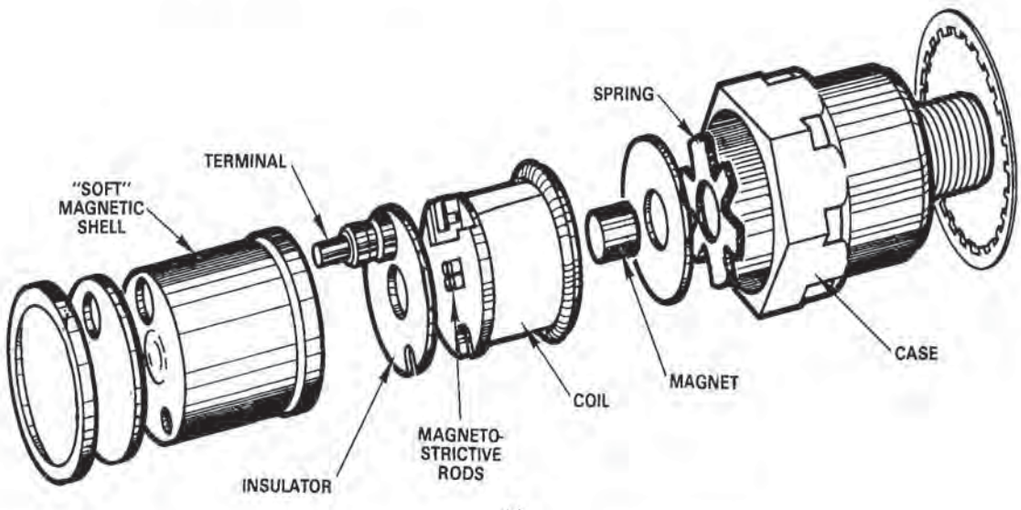
8.3 TECHNOLOGIES FOR SENSING KNOCK

A number of different parameters have been selected for measuring knock in real time on board, and sensors have been developed for this purpose. It must be recognized that these

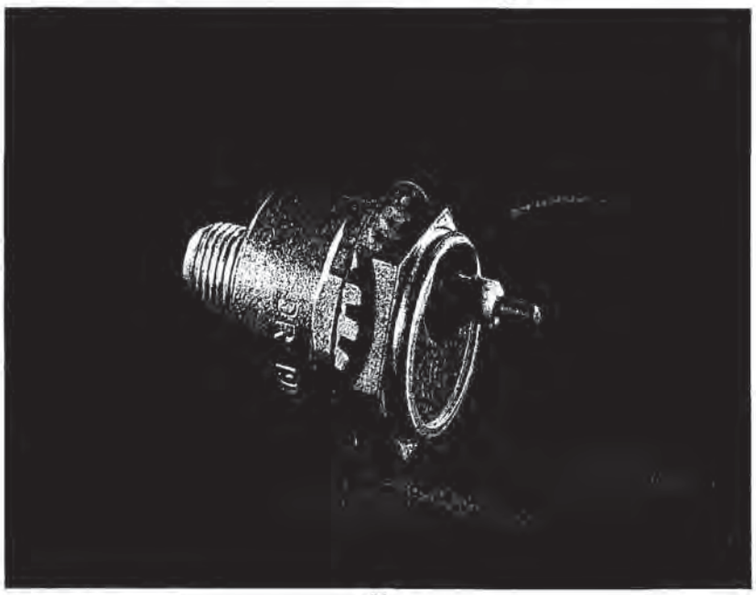
sensors measure the magnitude of a consequential parameter driven by the knock, rather than the knock phenomenon itself. The overall effectiveness of the control is therefore determined not only by the intrinsic performance and stability of the sensor and control, but also by how robust the chain of causality is between the knock phenomenon and the parameter measured.

8.3.1 Jerk Sensors

Naturally enough, the first turbocharged engine knock limit control used a jerk sensor, a productionized version of the kind of sensor used for laboratory CFR engine testing. An exploded view of this sensor is shown in Fig. 8.1.



(a)



(b)

FIGURE 8.1 (*a*) An exploded view of a jerk sensor, and (*b*) a photograph of the sensor.

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Referring to the exploded view, it must be understood that when the sensor is fully assembled, the spider spring is preloaded, and all parts of the sensor except the coil cover are in compression. The nickel alloy magnetostrictive rods are biased mechanically in lengthwise compression and magnetically by the field impressed through the rods from the permanent magnet, returning through the ferromagnetic soft iron coil cover. The nickel alloy rods are the highest reluctance element in this magnetic circuit, and are in magnetic saturation.

The vibrations which are picked up and transmitted from the engine block through the mounting stud appear in the nickel alloy rods. These rods are of such a length that they comprise a broad passband mechanically resonant element. The compressive mechanical bias is sufficiently strong that the compression and rarefraction waves picked up are never large enough to take the rods out of net compression. The waves present in the rods therefore linearly modulate the magnetic reluctance of the magnetic circuit.

The many-turn coil wound around the magnetostrictive rods generates a voltage proportional to the rate of change of the magnetic flux; the flux, in turn, is inversely proportional to the magnetic reluctance of the rods. Since the vibrations picked up are already due to accelerations from the knock reverberations transmitted through the engine block, the voltage from the coil represents the third-time derivative of displacement, or jerk.

The vibration signal from a knocking engine is present virtually everywhere on the engine block, with signals from all cylinders superimposed. For passenger car engines, which rarely have more than eight cylinders, the major part of the knock signatures from the successive cylinder events are not superimposed in time, but rather consecutive without overlap. The time delay due to the distance from the cylinder to the sensor is always much less than 1 ms, whereas the cylinder-to-cylinder time is 2.5 ms even for an eight-cylinder engine at 6000 rpm.

However, the *absolute amplitude* of the knock signal does vary from location to location on the block. There is no best place to mount the sensor; rather, a site with a strong amplitude should be selected for a given engine model, and the sensor should always be mounted at that point on that engine model. The knock threshold is experimentally determined on that engine model with the sensor mounted at that location.

The method used for processing the knock signal and effecting control was described in Sec. 8.2.4. As time has gone on, the knock signal processing has tended to become simpler, although in the 1990s this may be changing. Time windows and mechanically resonant sensors have largely disappeared, and much of the filtering is now done digitally.

8.3.2 Accelerometer Sensors

The magnetostrictive jerk sensor, while satisfactory in performance, has too many parts to be a low-cost solution to measuring knock on board. Moreover, its mechanical assembly is not simple. In an effort to achieve lower-cost solutions, the industry found that the second-time derivative of displacement—acceleration—could be measured and used to implement a satisfactory knock control. The drawback to using an accelerometer compared to a jerk sensor is that it does not yield as good a signal-to-noise ratio; however, by using appropriate filtering, a good control signal can be achieved.

The first accelerometers used were mechanically bandpass-tuned, and some still are. However, in the 1990s, the trend has been to broadband sensors, again used with much electronic filtering. This has the advantage that one sensor model can be used for all engines, with the engine-specific frequency filtering characteristics built into the electronics module, which has to be engine-specific anyway. If the crucial filtering features are provided digitally, they can be installed as part of the engine-specific software.

Piezoelectric Accelerometer. Certain crystals of a specific cut or orientation possess the property that, when stressed, they produce a corresponding voltage. If such a crystal is loaded with a mass and spring, vibrations entering the assembly squeeze and pull the crystal with respect to the mass, and result in a signal which is a measure of the acceleration of the body to

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which the assembly is attached. These signals can be substantial in size but appear electrically to be sourced at a high (capacitive) driving point impedance. Thus, care has to be taken to ensure that capacitively coupled noise does not contaminate the signal.

There are a variety of single crystals which exhibit the piezoelectric effect, but silicon is not one of them. Efforts to devise a silicon micromachined accelerometer were stymied for a long time by this fact, but a solution will be described below. Single crystal quartz is the material which was used in the single-crystal piezoelectric accelerometers.

In some cases, it is possible to use the mass of the piezoelectric element itself as the mass, and to combine the spring with one of the crystal electrodes. In such a design, the only parts are a spring, a contact, the crystal, and the housing.

Piezoceramic Accelerometer. Another type of piezoelectric element is the piezoceramic device. Piezoceramics are not single crystals. They can be fired into just about any shape, just like a ceramic insulator or a vase. By impressing a high voltage across electrodes on the ceramic while the material is at a high temperature—above its Curie temperature—and then gradually lowering the temperature, the piezoceramic becomes *poled*, or piezoelectric across the electrodes.

The best piezoceramics tend to belong to the lead-zirconate-titanate (PZT) family. These materials have a Curie temperature from 250 to 500 °C. If the sensor ever gets above its Curie temperature, its poling becomes degraded, and its calibration is no longer valid. However, these engine block-mounted sensors will not experience temperatures higher than about 125 to 150 °C, even during hot soak, so they can be used for the knock sensor.

Single-crystal piezoelectric accelerometers also have a Curie temperature, but it is typically much higher than for the piezoceramics. Quartz, for example, has a Curie temperature over 600 °C.

Because the piezoceramic materials can be molded into any shape, handled roughly, sawn and machined, coated with thick-film metallic electrodes, and so on, they lend themselves to easy, low-cost mass production. As a result, they have become pretty much the knock sensor of choice for the automobile industry. A drawing of a piezoceramic accelerometer knock sensor is shown in Fig. 8.2. In this particular design, the spring and top electrode have been combined into one part, but the mass is a separate metallic part between the piezoceramic disc and the spring. The whole assembly is stacked on a mandrel which extends up from the base-stud which forms most of the package.

8.3.3 Silicon Accelerometer

As previously noted, silicon itself cannot be made piezoelectric. However, it is possible to make a silicon micromachined accelerometer by anisotropically machining a cantilevered T-shaped structure into each cell of a silicon wafer, using a chemical etch. Strain gauges are diffused or implanted into the cantilever—the vertical bar of the T. The mass of the horizontal crossbar of the T and the spring constant of the cantilever provide the mechanical-to-strain transduction. Such accelerometers are in mass production for use in antiskid braking systems and as triggers for air bag safety devices. Whether or not they will replace piezoceramic knock sensors is primarily a matter of economics. Technically, the silicon accelerometer is satisfactory; its temperature limit is about 150 °C, which is adequate for on-block mounting.

8.3.4 Other Sensors

Instantaneous Cylinder Pressure Sensor. The direct measurement of instantaneous cylinder pressure permits the extraction of the pressure reverberation signal, which is the direct cause of knock. While this would be a very desirable signal to use for knock detection, it has not been implemented in on-board knock control systems for several reasons:

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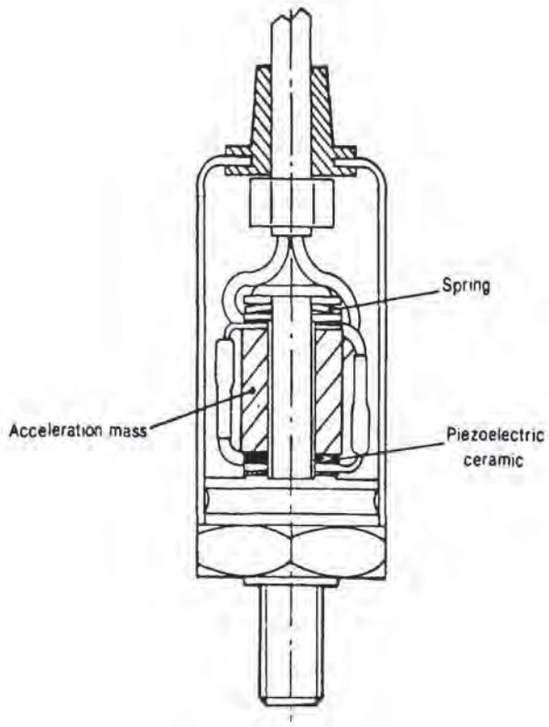


FIGURE 8.2 A piezoceramic accelerometer knock sensor.

- Either the same cylinder must always be the one to experience knock first and most severely, or one must have a sensor on every cylinder.
- The cylinder pressure wave is complex, and knock is only one of many signature elements present. Deriving a unique knock signal requires considerable signal processing in real time.
- While cylinder pressure sensors exist which are suitable for test purposes, a durable, low-cost, mass-producable on-board pressure sensor is not yet available.

In spite of these difficulties, work continues on cylinder pressure sensors for on-board control use, not so much to be used as knock-sensing devices as for use in deriving an instantaneous torque measurement (see Chap. 9). If this approach succeeds, then it is reasonable to suppose that the cylinder pressure sensor will be used to provide the inputs for obtaining both torque and knock measurements.

Since a spark-ignited engine already has a spark plug mounted in each cylinder head, it is possible to convert the spark plug into a kind of "poor man's pressure sensor" by mounting a piezoceramic washer held in compression between the spark plug and the cylinder head when the plug is torqued down. This arrangement has in fact appeared on a commercial passenger car engine. While the signal is not presently being used to extract a knock signal, suitable signal processing would make this possible.

Hydrophone in Coolant. In Sec. 8.3.1, it was mentioned that the knock signal appears virtually everywhere on the block. In fact, it even appears in the coolant fluid faithfully reproduced. This fact led to experiments in which hydrophones were mounted in the coolant and used as knock sensors. This approach has never reached production because it has no advantage over a block-mounted sensor and is in fact more difficult to package and to mount on the engine.

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8.4 SUMMARY

In a remarkably short span of time, the on-board sensing of knock and its control have become a rather standard feature of passenger car engine control electronics. At the same time, the on-board sensors have been developed and are now largely mature. Acceleration has become the parameter of choice for most of these control systems, and the required accelerometers are typically based upon piezoceramic technology; it seems likely that this will remain the case at least through the 1990s. The rapid proliferation of these systems was facilitated by three factors:

- A solid background of experimental knowledge about knock and how to control it was established in the laboratory during the several decades before lead-free gas was mandated.
- The three legislated pressures of emissions limits, CAFE fuel economy goals, and no-lead fuel, combined with a customer base used to engines without knock, made solving the knock problem a high priority.
- The already widespread use of digital microcomputer engine control made the addition of knock limit control a straightforward design change.

GLOSSARY

Curie temperature The temperature above which a piezoelectric crystal or piezoceramic element no longer reliably retains its original piezoelectric characteristics.

Jerk sensor A sensor which measures the third-time derivative of displacement.

Knock Acoustic engine noise and vibration of characteristic frequency caused by uneven combustion in the engine cylinder(s).

Octane rating A measure of the resistance of a gasoline fuel to knock, as compared to pure isooctane hydrocarbon.

Retarding Causing engine combustion to occur at a larger angle past top dead center, by delaying the time at which the signal to start the spark event occurs.

Turbocharger A device which compresses engine intake manifold air by using the engine exhaust to drive a turbine and compressor.

Wastegate valve A valve in the exhaust system of a turbocharged diesel engine which causes part of the exhaust to bypass the turbine. The same name is also applied to a valve on a turbocharged gasoline engine which causes part of the boosted intake manifold air to dump to the atmosphere, dropping the manifold pressure.

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CHAPTER 9
ENGINE TORQUE SENSORS

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9.1 INTRODUCTION

Torque is one of the primary state parameters of an engine; along with speed it is a fundamental measure related to the output power. Torque can be defined as the moment produced by the engine crankshaft tending to cause the output driveline to turn and thereby deliver power to the load. For rotary motion, the torque multiplied by the rotational speed equals the power delivered by the shaft. In derivative form, Newton's law states that torque T equals the rotational moment of inertia I times the angular acceleration α. Hence, at constant rotational speed, instantaneous power is proportional to instantaneous torque. This is an important relationship because torque and, thus, delivered power can change rapidly compared to rotational speed.

Portraying the engine as a torque-delivering device is a useful concept. When an engine is used in road service as prime mover power, the operator of the vehicle tends to ask the vehicle for positive or negative incremental acceleration, as the operator perceives it to be falling behind or closing upon the vehicle ahead. Hence, the operator asks the engine for more or less torque. If the engine is spark ignited, this happens naturally through the modulation of the engine air intake flow path. In a diesel engine, it happens indirectly. The operator controls fuel rate, which to first approximation is linearly related to power. For slowly varying engine speed and load, an incremental change in power results in a change in torque and therefore a change in acceleration.

9.1.1 Time-Scale Definitions

At this point, it is useful to define two time scales which will be used with regard to the engine. A reciprocating engine is never truly operating steady state. It is a cyclic succession of batch processes, a kind of system which chemical engineers have termed "continuous-by-jerks." Each cylinder absorbs shaft energy during the compression stroke and releases a larger amount of shaft energy through combustion during the power stroke. These actions are so interleaved that the drive shaft is continually accelerating and decelerating in step with cylinder events. Nevertheless, a quasi-steady-state model for the engine can be defined in which these rapid fluctuations are ignored and attention is focused on the more slowly varying state parameters which are nearly stationary during one engine revolution. This is the situation the operator senses and controls and it is also the primary focus of the control algorithms in a microcomputer-based engine control today. (As of 1994, all electronic engine controls operate on the "engine time scale.")

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Quasi-Steady-State Torque. Quasi-steady-state torque is defined as that running average value of torque that varies slowly with respect to the cylinder-to-cylinder period, but rapidly with respect to vehicle changes in motion and load. To quantize this state, it is noted that an unloaded engine coupled to flywheel inertia may accelerate from idle to maximum speed in one to five seconds when subjected to wide open throttle and that this performance is essentially reproduced whether the change in throttle position occurs in 20 ms or 1 ms. Quasi-steady-state torque is what the operator is interested in commanding, and so, if we visualize a torque command-feedback engine control, it is the parameter of interest.

Instantaneous Torque. Today's electronic engine control can usefully respond much more rapidly than this for those state parameters having to do with each cylinder batch process itself. The preparation of the fuel and air charges and the timing of ignition take place on a time scale measured in fractions of a cylinder period, and thus the time scale of interest ranges from 30 μs to 20 ms. This time scale corresponds to the instantaneous engine state. It is the time scale of the torque impulses that are termed instantaneous torque.

In order to use instantaneous torque measurements, it must be recognized that the reciprocating engine is a cyclic machine in which major functions and the parameters that characterize them are tied together in sequence mechanically by the crankshaft and camshaft. Proper adjustment of those other parameters that are free to be changed independently of the train of instantaneous cylinder events allows optimization of the overall torque impulse generation in real time. For example, a theoretical examination of the internal combustion engine cycle has shown that the centroid of the cylinder pressure wave should occur about 15 crank-angle degrees after top dead center ("Powell's Magic Angle") to maximize the instantaneous incremental torque from that cylinder.[1,2] No spark or injection timing algorithm can do any better than to effect such timing of the torque impulse. Note, however, that we are stating where the centroid of the pressure wave should be for the best torque impulse, not where the fuel injection or ignition should be commanded.

State-of-the-art scheduled spark timing controls are based upon test data from one or more prototype engines run extensively in the laboratory on a dynamometer under quasi-steady-state conditions. From the data obtained, families of spark plug or injection timing (crank angle) surfaces versus engine speed, load, etc., are derived that correspond to optimum economy and performance while meeting emission requirements. These data then form the schedule embedded in the control microcomputer memory for all engines of that model produced. This type of scheduled computer control is standard throughout the industry today for all electronically controlled engines, both spark-ignited and compression ignition, with just two exceptions. These are the oxygen sensor feedback control loop, which keeps an engine equipped with a three-way catalyst in the stoichiometric "window" of the catalyst efficiency performance, and the speed governing feedback control algorithm used for power takeoff (PTO) operations, diesel all-speed governors, and generator-set frequency control.

By contrast, the addition of an on-board instantaneous torque measurement would permit the direct feedback control of several key engine control parameters. To take maximum advantage of such feedback control, an advanced instantaneous crankshaft position sensor is also required.

The controls which could be implemented through use of an instantaneous torque feedback control system are:

- Quasi-steady-state torque feedback control in response to torque command.
- Spark-ignition or compression-ignition timing control by feedback of instantaneous torque impulse timing compared to the norm of the "Magic Angle." Torque impulse amplitude can also be optimized against timing. These controls can be implemented on a cylinder-by-cylinder basis, for spark-ignited pulse sequential fuel injected engines, and for unit-injected diesel engines.
- Cylinder-by-cylinder torque-leveling feedback control can be implemented by adjusting the amount of fuel injected into each cylinder to obtain equal torque impulses from each one.

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This results in a quiet, smoothly running engine with a somewhat improved maximum power, because the torque limit can be set for a more nearly constant cylinder event instead of for the worst case cylinder.

- The instantaneous torque signal is also rich in a variety of diagnostic information—for example, to measure engine power or for use as a miss detector.

9.2 AUTOMOTIVE APPLICATIONS OF TORQUE MEASUREMENT

9.2.1 Off-Board Measurement

The principal automotive use of torque measurement today is in the testing and evaluation of engines using the engine dynamometer. The torque sensor is inserted as a drive shaft between the engine and the dynamometer; the shaft of the sensor is a torsional Hooke's law member and its twist is measured. Typically the torque is actually measured using a strain gage bridge on the drive shaft. Full-scale twist is limited to no more than about a degree per foot of shaft for engines in the 50 to 500 hp range.

In a dc torque sensor, the strain gage bridge is powered from an external source through slip rings, and the offset voltage is taken off the bridge the same way (Fig. 9.1). The sensor is necessarily bulky, large, fragile, and costly. A more rugged ac strain gage sensor can be made using rotational transformers, as shown schematically in Fig. 9.2.

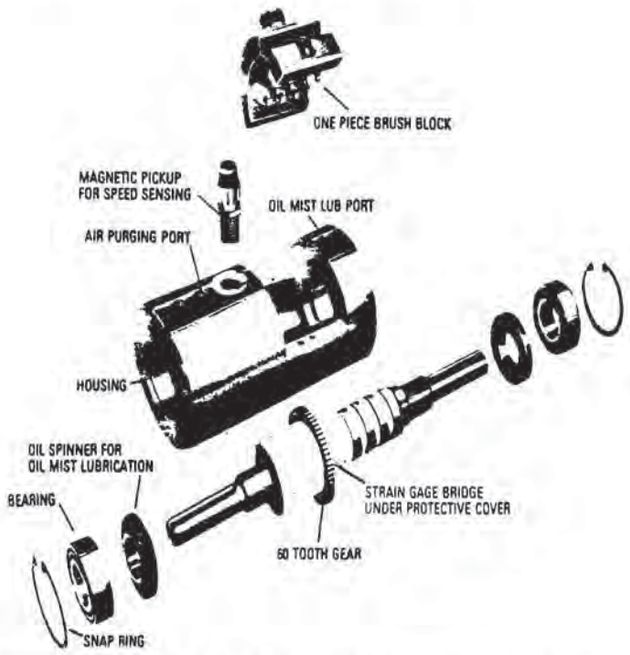


FIGURE 9.1 Exploded view of rotating shaft torque sensor with slip rings. *(Courtesy of the Lebow Div., the Eaton Corp.)*

Developmental Tests. In engine development, a good bit of the work involves fine-tuning the engine to get the maximum power and minimum fuel consumption at various engine conditions. Since power equals torque multiplied by engine speed, if tests are carried out at constant speed, maximum power occurs at maximum torque. Thus, the torque sensor can be used as a direct indicator of whether changes in the engine design or control will improve power.

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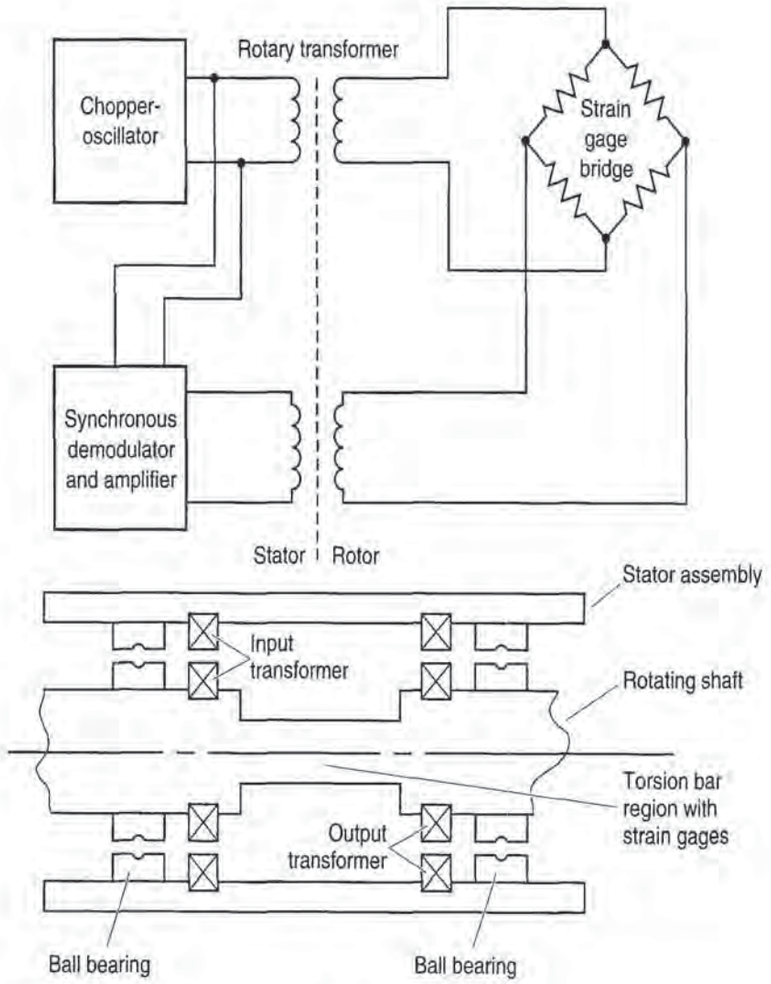


FIGURE 9.2 Rotary transformer rotating shaft torque sensor.

End-of-Line Manufacturing Tests. Particularly in the case of heavy duty diesel engines, the price of the engine is directly related to engine rated horsepower. Such engines are in a real sense sold by the horsepower. The manufacturer certifies that a certain model will deliver no less than a certain horsepower when run at rated conditions. The engine is tested at the end of the assembly line for a number of attributes, chief among which is assurance that it exceeds stated horsepower at rated speed. The assurance is provided by accurate torque and speed measurements.

In-Service Tests. Occasionally, torque sensors may be used with an engine that is being tested under field conditions. This is relatively straightforward when the engine is being used in a stationary application, but not if it is installed in a vehicle.

9.2.2 On-Board Measurements

To be most useful on board, a torque sensor should not only be accurate but also fast in response. Most of the sensors available today do not have this attribute, because they were developed for use in dynamometer tests.

To be a useful on-board engine control sensor, the torque sensor of the future also needs several other attributes:

- It must be extremely rugged, which for practical purposes means noncontacting with respect to the driveline.
- It must be able to withstand torque impulses of 10 to 20 times its full-scale measuring capability without degrading its accuracy. For strain gage type sensors, this means that the sensor would always have to measure in the lowest 5 to 10 percent of its range, where it is not very accurate.
- Installation of the sensor must not cause any significant change in the compliance of the driveline. This is a requirement imposed by engine application engineers to avoid spoiling the tradeoffs that have been made to avoid severe torsional vibrations.
- Ideally, the shaft of the sensor should be very short in length (in part to achieve the preceding characteristics). Unfortunately, for a torsional Hooke's law device, that means the full-scale shaft twist angle will be very small.

In spite of these formidable barriers to a satisfactory design, a wide variety of desirable applications could be made using an on-board instantaneous torque sensor. As a result, many researchers and developers both in academia and industry are working to achieve such a measurement directly or indirectly.

Power Measurement of Large Engines. Means exist for field service personnel to measure engine power in the field for engines installed in a vehicle and rated at up to 400 to 500 hp. For larger vehicle-mounted engines, this measurement is a difficult problem for a number of reasons:

- A rugged on-board sensor is not available.
- These engines are often installed in very large machines such as mine-haul trucks and front-end loaders located off the road in remote areas.
- Dynamometers large enough to load down the engine to full power are not available except in a very few locations.

One of the most frequent customer complaints about heavy duty engines is perceived loss of power. Often such complaints must be resolved at the field location and on a subjective basis. The engine and vehicle can be fully loaded in actual work operation, and engine speed is known accurately. If an on-board torque sensor were available, such complaints could be quickly resolved, and it would be well worth installing on large engines.

Miss Detection. The California Air Resources Board has mandated that all passenger vehicles shall be equipped with an engine diagnostic capability that includes a miss detector. While the regulation is not yet in force as of the time of this writing, the automotive industry knows that every segment will be affected by the requirement by the end of the decade. Many vehicle OEMs, first-tier automotive suppliers, entrepreneurial sensor firms, and academic researchers are working hard to meet the miss detector requirements, mainly basing their efforts on the same technologies useful for measuring or inferring torque.[3]

Torque Feedback Control. The reciprocating engine could be configured in a feedback control mode if equipped with an on-board quasi-steady-state torque sensor capable of responding at least as fast as the engine/driveline. In a torque command drive-by-wire system, the operator input would be a command for a new torque, greater or less than the present torque. The engine control would do its best to provide the new torque as rapidly as possible. The feedback error signal would be the difference between the torque command and the sensor output. Of course, the new torque and the resulting acceleration or deceleration would have to be limited within bounds set by maxima for cylinder pressure, emissions production, exhaust gas temperature, fuel economy, and so on.

Feedback Control of Timing. As was described in the introduction to this chapter, the measurement of instantaneous torque, on board, along with instantaneous crank angle position,

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would allow the engine control computer to use signature recognition to measure the crank angle at which the centroid of the torque impulse is located, for each cylinder. From this information, probably with some compensation for seriously off-normal engine conditions as stored in computer memory, the engine control can determine if that impulse was centered at Powell's Magic Angle, and, if not, how much earlier or later the chain of combustion events needs to be started. Most likely, the computer also needs to decide between updating that cylinder based upon that information alone and waiting a whole engine revolution to update, or also basing the correction upon abrupt changes in operator input, load, knock level, etc. In any case, under quasi-steady-state conditions, the best efficiency of that engine for converting chemical energy into shaft power by proper engine timing could be achieved this way whether the engine is spark-ignited or compression-ignition.

Cylinder Torque Leveling. Individual trimming of the amount of fuel for each cylinder can be realized on pulse sequential fuel injected spark-ignited engines and on unit injector diesel engines by matching the torque impulse for each cylinder to the average of all cylinders. Then the average impulse can be raised to very nearly the maximum value the engine is designed for. In today's engines, the control must provide a guard band between the maximum torque for the worst case cylinder and the design limit for the engine (commonly called the maximum cylinder pressure limit or the peak torque limit). If the torque impulses delivered by each cylinder were known to be controlled to be equal, the guard band could be reduced and more power obtained from a given engine.

While cylinder-to-cylinder torque leveling is not the same as compression leveling, an engine controlled cylinder by cylinder for timing and torque leveling intuitively would appear to be as smoothly running and low in acoustic noise emission as can be visualized.

Engine Diagnostics. The instantaneous torque signature is very rich in diagnostic information. A figure of merit for engine roughness can easily be obtained in real time, from which a lean-limit control signal can be derived. The miss detector responds to an extreme case of roughness. Ragged ignition and flame front formation, imperfect injection, poor distribution, and many other engine and control problems can be measured or inferred from such a signal, on board and in real time.

9.3 DIRECT TORQUE SENSORS

9.3.1 Reaction Force

The use of a strain-gaged torsional Hooke's law shaft to measure torque at the dynamometer has been described in Sec. 9.2.1. Torque can also be measured in the test cell by instrumenting the engine or dynamometer mounting with strain gage load cells to measure reaction torque. This is a useful way to measure quasi-steady-state torque, but is not a good measuring system for instantaneous torque, as both the engine and its load have considerable inertia and damping which attenuate the torque impulse and may introduce phase delay. It is also not a good on-board measurement because the engine mounts on a vehicle are designed to attenuate and damp out bouncing from road and load irregularities. Also, as a function of time, temperature, ozone concentration, and other variables, they tend to stiffen substantially and change the deflection of the engine at its mounts as a function of torque.

9.3.2 Torsional Strain (Twist) Sensors

Magnetic Vector Sensors. The strain-gaged torsional Hooke's law sensor was described in Sec. 9.2.1. A more practical approach to an on-board torque sensor is a noncontacting design

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called a magnetic vector sensor.[4,5] This sensor operates on the principle that the magnetic domains in a ferromagnetic shaft delivering torque are randomly distributed when no torque is being delivered, but that each domain, on average, is slightly rotated in the tangential direction when torque is delivered by the shaft and twists it. If an ac-driven coil is placed near the shaft and surrounded by four sensing coils arranged mechanically and electrically as a bridge, the amplitude of the bridge offset is proportional to the magnetic vector tangential component, and therefore to twist and torque.

If the magnetic domains were truly statistically distributed over a small range of shaft angle, such a sensor would be able to measure instantaneous torque. Unfortunately, they are not. Over a small shaft angle increment, the average torque vector does not net to zero when torque is zero, and the output is characterized by a fixed pattern noise which repeats every 360°. The magnetic vector sensor is reasonably accurate measuring quasi-steady-state torque, but the signal-to-noise ratio becomes poor when an attempt is made to measure instantaneous torque.

Further work on this sensor simplified and miniaturized it.[6] The bridge was replaced by a single tangential coil, and the sensor was made small enough so that it could be mounted in the rear crankshaft bearing. However, it still was not able to measure instantaneous torque.

Investigation continues on techniques to reduce the fixed pattern noise, and some claims of progress have been made. However, at this writing, a production on-board torque sensor is not available.

Optical Twist Measurement. Research work has been reported on a sensor that changes the duty factor of light pulses sensed after passing through sets of slits at both ends of a shaft.[7] The principle of its operation is shown in Fig. 9.3. Such a sensor is noncontacting and can be made robust, but it requires appreciable shaft length and therefore adds compliance to the driveline. The work has not been engineered to produce an economical on-board device.

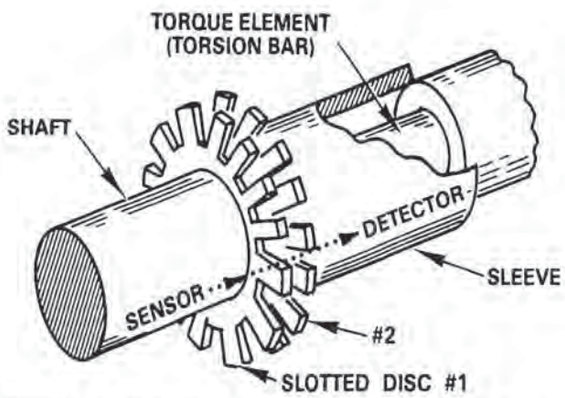


FIGURE 9.3 Optical torque meter. *(Courtesy of The Bendix Corp.)*

Capacitive Twist Sensor. An electrode pattern can be made using interdigitated electrodes spaced one or two degrees apart on two facing flat discs.[8] One of the discs is stationary; the other rotates with the crankshaft. Two such pairs of electrodes can be operated with phase detection measurement to provide a virtually instantaneous signal proportional to the twist of the shaft; the rotating halves of the electrode pairs are attached to the ends of the Hooke's law torsional spring. Obviously, this arrangement has the same drawback as the optical sensor in that it has to have some shaft length to twist and, therefore, some compliance. However, it is robust, has good accuracy, and is a more practical on-board device than the optical twist sen-

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sor. This sensor can also yield an accurate crankshaft position measurement. Nevertheless, an on-board version is not available today.

9.4 INFERRED TORQUE MEASUREMENT

Indirect measurements of torque-related parameters can be made with a view to inferring torque from the measurements. Typically, such measurements require considerable real-time computation in the control microcomputer, along with precision measurement of the instantaneous crank angle position. Much work is in progress in a variety of locations to make these methods into practical instantaneous torque control signals.

9.4.1 Instantaneous Cylinder Pressure Sensors

Engine development engineers have long used piezoelectric crystal cylinder pressure sensors in the laboratory to make engine power and heat release measurements and as an aid to development. The best of these sensors use doped quartz single crystals. They are accurate and reasonably robust, but expensive and unforgiving if overranged or subjected to excessive temperatures. Much work continues on development of a mass-producable on-board cylinder pressure sensor.[9] One of the Japanese car manufacturers is reported to have a top-of-the-line passenger car model, available only in Japan, with engine control using piezoceramic cylinder pressure sensors.

The signals from cylinder pressure sensors need considerable real-time data processing to produce inferred "torque" signals. In one method, the noise always present is filtered, the pressure signal is multiplied by an instantaneous shaft angle term, and integrated over the angle range representative of the power stroke of the cylinder. From this a measure of torque contribution from that cylinder is obtained. The best digital signal processing (DSP) chips available in the early 1990s are barely able to keep up with cylinder events in such a process. Nevertheless, we can be confident that if the proper sensors are available in the late 90s, the microcomputer chip performance required will be available and cost effective too.

9.4.2 Digital Period Analysis (DPA)

When an engine is run at low speed and heavy load, the instantaneous angular velocity of its output shaft on the engine side of the flywheel varies at the fundamental frequency of the cylinders, since the compression stroke of each cylinder abstracts torque and the power stroke adds a larger amount. The signal-to-noise ratio of the measurement of instantaneous angular velocity (or rather of its reciprocal, instantaneous period) degrades with increasing engine speed and lighter load, but is a useful way to infer torque-like measures of engine performance.

Figure 9.4 shows an idealized plot of instantaneous crankshaft period against crank angle under constant speed, lean conditions. The instantaneous period wave is seen to be a variation about the mean period value. This waveform can actually be measured using a precision, multitoothed crankshaft position sensor. For reasons which will be explained later, the instantaneous angular velocity lags the torque inputs producing it. As a result, the period wave appears to lead the torque or cylinder pressure variations.

Timing Control by DPA. The general case of the variation in crankshaft velocity in a four-cylinder engine can be described by:

$$T_N = AL\,P_N(\theta)\sin\theta = AL\,P_{(N+3)}(\theta)\sin\theta + T_F(\theta) + T_L + I\ddot{\theta} \qquad (9.1)$$

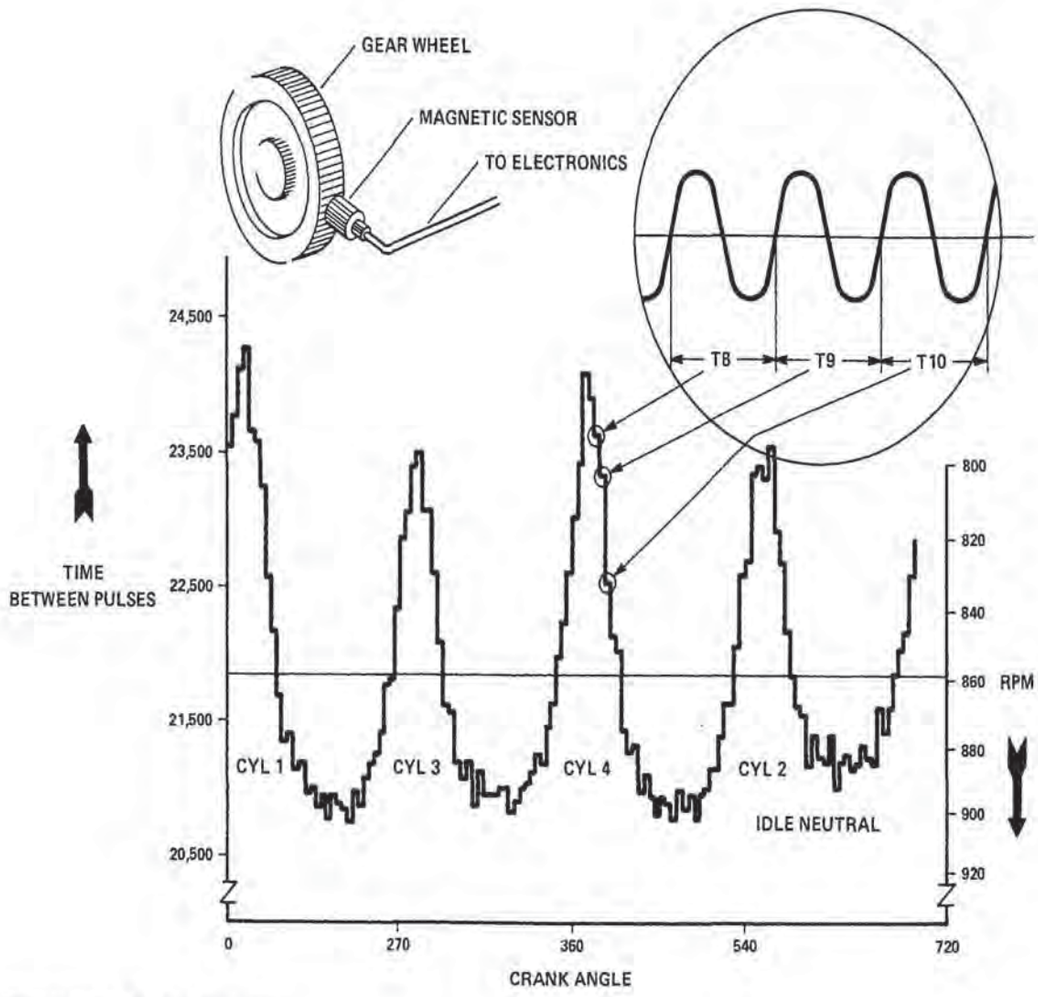


FIGURE 9.4 Digital period input.

where T_N = instantaneous torque due to burning gases in cylinder N at angle θ
A = area of piston
L = maximum effective crank lever arm
$P_N(\theta)$ = pressure in cylinder N (a function of crank angle and many other variables)
$P_{(N+3)}(\theta)$ = pressure in third cylinder to fire after N which is in its compression stroke when cylinder N is in its power stroke
$T_F(\theta)$ = so-called "fixed load" torque due to friction, accessories, etc., and is generally a function of $d\theta/dt$
T_L = torque delivered to the load
I = inertia of the engine, drivetrain, and vehicle reaction through the wheels
$\ddot{\theta}$ = instantaneous angular acceleration of the crankshaft

In order for Eq. (9.1) to remain valid, as T_N varies with angle θ due to the variations of $P_N(\theta)$ and the sin θ term, some term in the right-hand side of the equation must vary correspondingly. In fact, the major effect is upon $\ddot{\theta}$, the angular acceleration, which varies both in magnitude and sign; being positive when P_N is large and θ is near $\pi/2$, and negative when P_N is small and θ is near 0 and π. If Eq. (9.1) is integrated as a function of θ from $\theta = 0$ to $\theta = \pi$ and

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then the summation is extended to angles larger than π by adding in the contributions of cylinders $N + 1$ and $N + 3$, the term in $I\ddot{\theta}$ becomes an average angular velocity over a complete engine cycle.

One important consequence of the preceding analysis is that, upon integration of the equation, the sin θ term becomes cos θ—that is, the angular velocity wave lags the torque impulses causing it by $\pi/2$. Another consequence is that the amplitude of the period wave reflects the net contribution of the cylinders—if the load increases, and $P_N(\theta)$ increases to keep average angular velocity constant, the amplitude of the period wave must increase. The $I\ddot{\theta}$ term has become an $I\omega$, it is the reciprocal of this term which was plotted in Fig. 9.4.

When a spark plug fires or fuel is injected into a diesel cylinder, the pressure in the cylinder takes a finite length of time to build—first, because of a delay to get the fire started and then because of the finite and relatively constant flame propagation time, and second, because the temperature rise which causes pressure to rise, peaks only shortly before combustion is completed. Thereafter, pressure falls as the piston displaces under the pressure of the gases. Mean best torque (MBT) will be achieved from that cylinder when the pressure pulse, convolved with sin θ yields a maximum upon integration. As described previously, researchers at Stanford University have found analytically and confirmed experimentally that this condition prevails for a fairly wide range of engine conditions when the centroid of the pressure pulse occurs at 15 degrees past top dead center (TDC). Because of the delays described previously, ignition must occur early enough to position the pressure peak near this value. It is this "anticipation" in spark plug firing that is termed *ignition advance*. The reason why advance angle has to be larger at higher speeds is now obvious: the flame propagation delay time covers more degrees of crank angle when the engine is running faster.

Further experiments by the Stanford researchers and others confirmed the suspicion that the period wave is a strong function of the crank angle, and that the angle associated with the centroid of the pressure wave is a unique function of the phase of the fundamental component of the period wave measured with respect to a crankshaft angle index point, say top dead center of cylinder no. 1. The period wave is measured with a sensor which is a precision version of a crankshaft position sensor.[10] It produces a fast, sharp pulse for every small and equal angle increment—say one degree—through which the shaft turns. Pulses from a high-frequency quartz crystal clock are counted to measure each period. The crankshaft angle index is available from the crankshaft position sensor. In principle, the period wave could be Fourier analyzed into the Fourier integral coefficients A_n and B_n by computing the Fourier integrals, and the phase of the fundamental (first harmonic) is then arctan B_1/A_1. To perform this computation in real time is a bit much to ask of today's microcomputer (but not tomorrow's!) and various shortcuts are utilized to achieve an approximate result. Remembering that the period wave appears to lead the torque impulses that cause it by $\pi/2$, the spark timing can now be varied so as to place the centroid of the pressure wave, on the average, at or very near the 15-degree-after-TDC point.

It is instructive to consider what performance is required of the DPA and crankshaft position sensors to achieve a given signal-to-noise ratio. The repeatability of the crankshaft angle marked by the sensor is a function of the diameter of the sensing disc. For the various magnetic sensors, a repeatability better than ±0.5 degree can be achieved with a 10-cm-diameter disc. In the DPA sensor, the concern is for the period-to-period jitter. It is obviously worse for smaller angle increments both because the angle jitter is a larger part of the period, and also because the period-counting roundoff error is larger for any given clock frequency. At the same time, the more periods measured per revolution, the more fidelity the period wave will have for its high-frequency components. The period-to-period jitter of the magnetic sensor in this example is about ±0.5 degree. This is satisfactory for 24 periods per revolution but marginal for 60 periods; a typical period wave amplitude is only ±3 percent of the average period. On the other hand, even 60 periods per revolution is marginal for ignition or injection timing control.

The granularity due to counting roundoff also needs to be considered. Today's low-cost LSI circuits can count reliably at 20 MHz, so that is a practical clock frequency. If a four-cylin-

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der engine is running at 1800 rev/min (30 Hz), the associated period wave will have a fundamental of 60 Hz. If the DPA sensor has one degree angle indices, referred to the crankshaft, each period will have about 2000 counts from the clock. Therefore, the period counting round-off noise will be ±1 part per 2000. Referred to a nominal ±3 percent amplitude period wave, this jitter amounts to ±2 percent of the peak value of the period wave (not of the period itself), not counting any smoothing.

For the fundamental of the period wave, the phase of which is used for DPA timing control, a good deal of smoothing can be realized, so that for a "clean" engine, estimation of the correct angle to ± one crankshaft degree is feasible.

Figure 9.5 shows an actual period wave measured using an electromagnetic DPA sensor with one-degree increments and a 10-MHz clock. Both the jitter described previously and a fixed pattern noise can be discerned in the signal. The latter effect is due to slight imperfections in the tooth spacing of the precision gear used as the sensing disc. Such systematic errors can be eliminated in the microcomputer, but they are troublesome and consume integration time. The better solution is to design a precision DPA sensor which minimizes fixed pattern noise.

DPA Used for Diagnostics. During the 1980s, one of the heavy duty diesel engine manufacturers introduced an off-board diagnostic instrument capable of doing DPA on the engine with the clutch disengaged and using snap acceleration and deceleration to load the engine

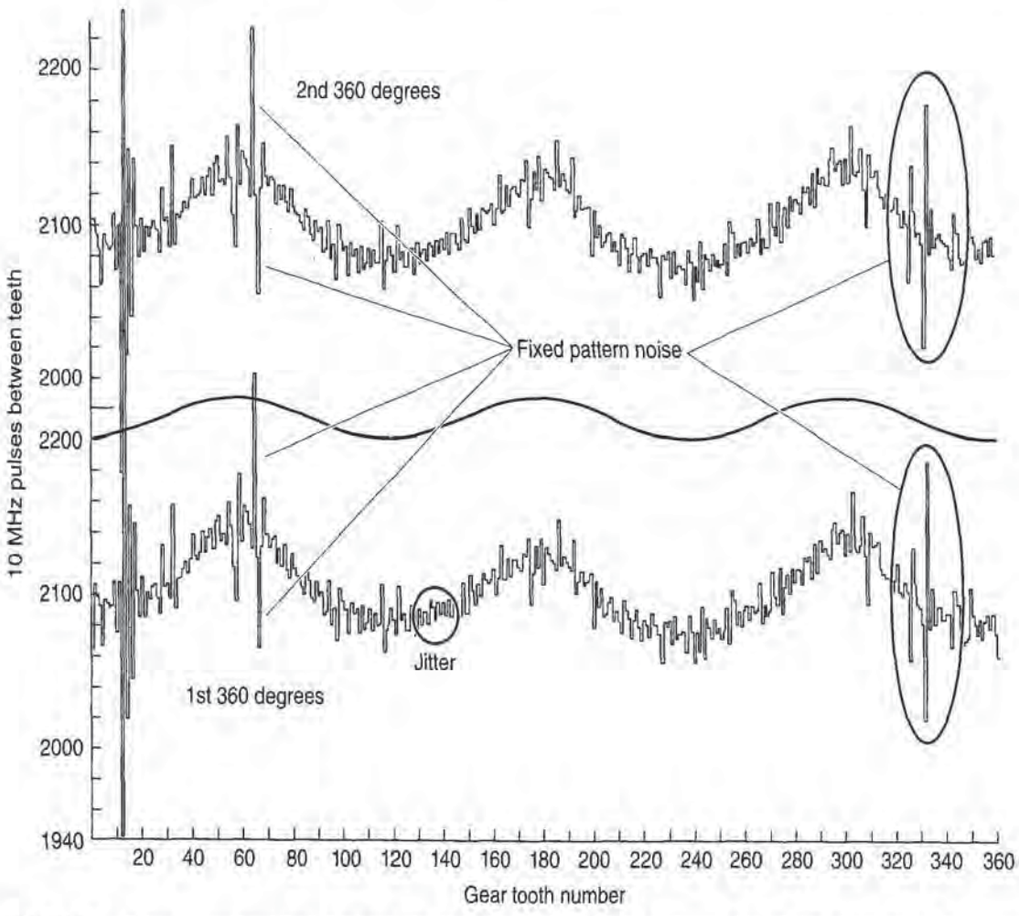


FIGURE 9.5 Actual period wave data from engine crankshaft; unsmoothed data. *(Courtesy of The Bendix Corp., Diesel Operation)*

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inertially. This instrument used the very imperfect engine ring gear as the DPA target but solved the fixed pattern noise problem in a very elegant way.[11] The position sensor is actually a dual sensor, with the two magnetic circuits disposed tangential to the ring gear and closer together than one tooth pitch. A particular tooth is sensed by the first magnetic circuit and then by the second before the next tooth is sensed by the first circuit. Virtually all of the fixed pattern noise is eliminated.

What would be achieved in an on-board DPA system would be real-time, nearly ideal closed-loop control of spark timing. As with most controls for spark-ignited engines, there are some trims required to make the system work. Flame front propagation is in fact a complex process which has a substantial jitter in the time of propagation, so it is necessary to average the computation of the phase angle over a number of cylinder pulses in order to obtain a good phase estimator. Under transient conditions, the shape of the pressure pulse may change enough so that the angle for mean best torque (MBT) shifts slightly. These factors can also be incorporated in the control. A similar method could be used for compression-ignition engines; in fact, the period wave has a more reproducible signature than for a spark-ignited engine.

It is useful at this point to emphasize again that these principles hold under any conditions, but that the control works well only in the lean regime. As the air/fuel ratio nears stoichiometry, the amplitude of the period wave becomes quite small. Because the method of measuring the instantaneous period—counting clock pulses over a finite angle increment—is a differencing method, the signal-to-noise ratio (S/N) is always a problem, since a differencing process always yields a poorer S/N than that of the original function. Hence, the DPA technique yields poorer results the nearer the engine is to stoichiometry and the higher the engine speed.

Referring to Fig. 9.6, if a figure of merit is formed

$$R = \left| \frac{T_2 - T_1}{t_1 + t_2} \right| \tag{9.2}$$

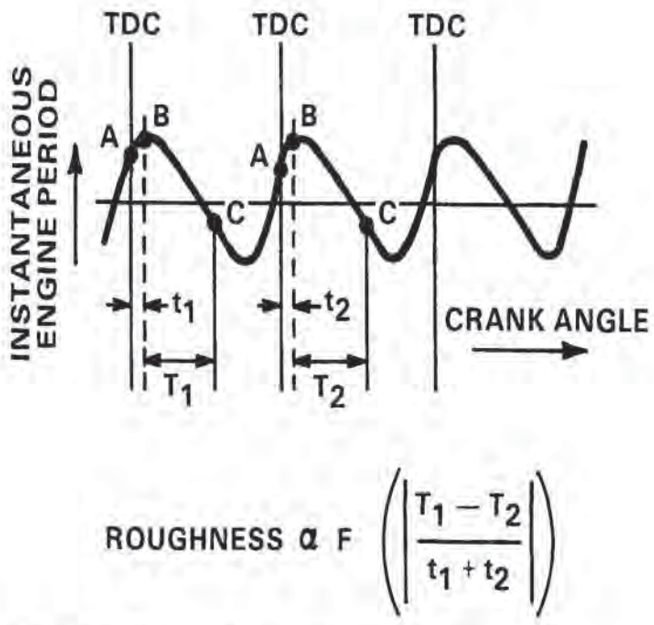


FIGURE 9.6 Digital roughness control.

we have a measure of the "roughness" of the engine useful for lean limit control or misfire detection. This is one example of many such optimizing algorithms which may be derived from DPA

9.5 SUMMARY

One can conclude from this chapter that torque measurement, whether direct or inferred, is a useful parameter for engine evaluation off-board, but that the proper sensors and computer analysis equipment for on-board control are not yet available. Yet the number of facilities working to advance this art, the resources being added, and the sporadic reports of progress are such that one can predict with some confidence that a breakthrough is imminent. Just what kind of control will first appear, and what kind or kinds will ultimately be successful, is not yet clear.

GLOSSARY

Algorithm A set of software instructions causing a digital computer to go through a prescribed routine. Because embedded computer engine controls have become so common, algorithm has become essentially synonymous with control law for automotive engineers.
Compression leveling A (theoretical) type of engine control which would cause each piston in each cylinder to compress its air charge to the same maximum pressure.
Dynamometer A machine to absorb power in a controlled manner, especially from an engine under test.
Hooke's law A relationship for an ideal elastic member which says that the displacement is proportional to the force.
Interdigitated An arrangement of two multiple-finger structures such that each pair of fingers from one structure has a finger from the other interposed.
Pulse sequential A type of fuel control for gasoline spark-ignited engines in which the fuel for each cylinder is injected into the air manifold near the intake valve for that cylinder just as it opens.
Robust Able to survive and operate properly in a severe environment.
Stoichiometric Pertaining to a combustion process in which the oxidizing agent (oxygen) and the reducing agent (fuel) are in balance such that, were the reaction to go to completion, there would be neither oxygen nor fuel left over, and all the reaction products such as carbon monoxide would be oxidized to their highest state—carbon dioxide.
Torsional Hooke's law A relationship for an ideal elastic shaft which says that the angle through which the shaft twists is proportional to the torque.
Torque The moment tending to make the output shaft of an engine turn. Torque can be expressed as a force acting perpendicular to a lever arm at a distance from the center of rotation. Its units are Newton-meters (pound force-feet).
Unit injector A type of fuel control for diesel engines which has fuel metered into a piston-barrel injector for injection into a specific cylinder at a specific time. Each engine cylinder has its own cam-driven injector, which operates something like a hypodermic syringe.

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ABOUT THE AUTHOR

For biographical information on William G. Wolber, see Chap. 8.

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CHAPTER 10
ACTUATORS

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10.1 PREFACE

10.1.1 Introductory Remarks

Numerous open- and closed-loop control systems find application in modern production vehicles, where they provide improved operating characteristics together with enhanced safety, comfort, and environmental compatibility.

The actuators respond to position commands from the electronic control unit to regulate energy, mass, and volume flows.

10.1.2 Actuators: Basic Design and Operating Principles

Conventional final-control elements (standard and spool valves, etc.) have been familiar for some time. A provision for electronic control is required for actuator applications in modern vehicles. The actuator consists of a transformer to convert the input signal from the control unit into (usually) mechanical output quantities, and the conventional final-control element which it governs. (See Fig. 10.1.)

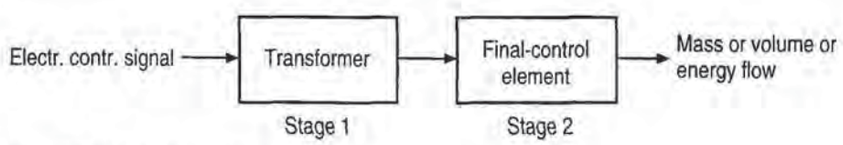


FIGURE 10.1 Basic actuator elements.

Either the control unit or the actuator itself will feature an integral electronic output amplifier. The energy conversion principles (stage 1) determine the classification of the actuators. Electromechanical actuators will also be discussed in the following pages.

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10.2 TYPES OF ELECTROMECHANICAL ACTUATORS

10.2.1 Magnetic Actuators

dc Solenoids

Actuator Principles. In order to operate, actuators depend on the forces found at the interfaces in a coil-generated magnetic field when current passes through it. The solenoid actuation force F_m is calculated as

$$F_m = \frac{A\,B^2}{2\,\mu_o} \tag{10.1}$$

where A = pole face area
B = magnetic induction
μ_o = permeability constant ($\mu_o = 4\,\pi\,10^{-7}$ Vs/Am)

On the flat-armature solenoid illustrated in Fig. 10.2*a*, the total solenoid force is $2\,F_m$. Equation (10.1) can also be applied to versions equipped with a permanent magnet (Fig. 10.2*b*). A particular solenoid force is specified for each technical application. The pole face area, the magnetic circuit, and the coil are then determined for this force.

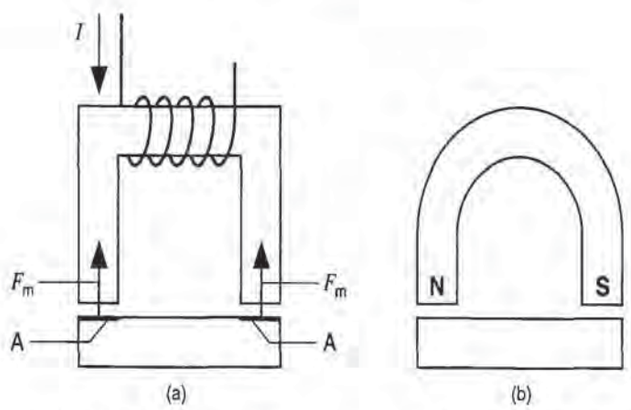


FIGURE 10.2 Flat-armature solenoid featuring field excitation (*a*) via coil; (*b*) via permanent magnet.

Determining Magnetic Circuit and Coil Specifications. The magnetic circuit consists of the working gap (between the armature and the base) and the ferrous regions. Permeability in iron is approximately three orders of magnitude greater than in air. For this reason, the iron regions conduct the field. If the effects of leakage flux are discounted, the absence of magnetic charge, $\oint B\,dA = 0$, means that the magnetic flux Φ_m remains constant for all cross sections A in the magnetic circuit:

$$\Phi_m = \iint_{A_1} B\,dA_1 = \iint_{A_2} B\,dA_2 = \iint_{A_i} B\,dA_i = \text{const.} \tag{10.2}$$

If the magnetic induction is assumed to be homogeneous for all cross sections A_i, then Eq. (10.2) can be simplified to:

$$\Phi_m = B_1\,A_1 = B_2\,A_2 = B_i\,A_i = \text{const.} \tag{10.3}$$

The induction lines run at a 90° angle to the surfaces A_i. Equation (10.3) defines the magnetic induction in each section of the magnetic circuit (Fig. 10.3). If, as an example, Index 1 is assigned to the gap section, then B_1 and A_1 are derived with the assistance of Eq. (10.1), and one can proceed to calculate B_i for the other sections.

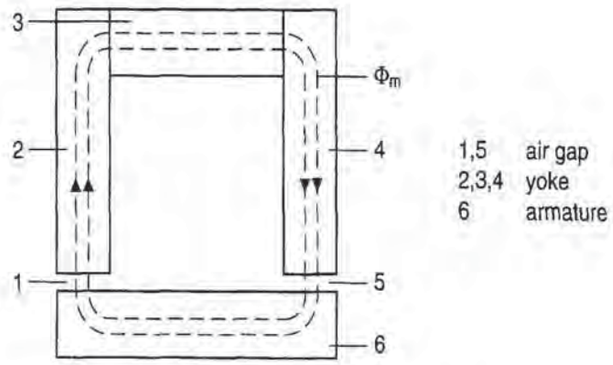


FIGURE 10.3 Magnetic circuit divided into individual sections.

The magnitude of the magnetic field strength $\mathbf{H}_i$ is determined by the material properties (permeability μ_{ri}) of the section in question. Field strength $\mathbf{H}_i$:

$$\mathbf{B}_i = \mu_o \mu_{ri} \mathbf{H}_i \tag{10.4}$$

In air, $\mu_r = 1$. In ferromagnetic materials, μ_r does not remain constant. Rather, it varies as a function of the magnetic field strength **H** (see Fig. 10.4). The relationship between **B** and **H** is defined by the **B-H**-curve.

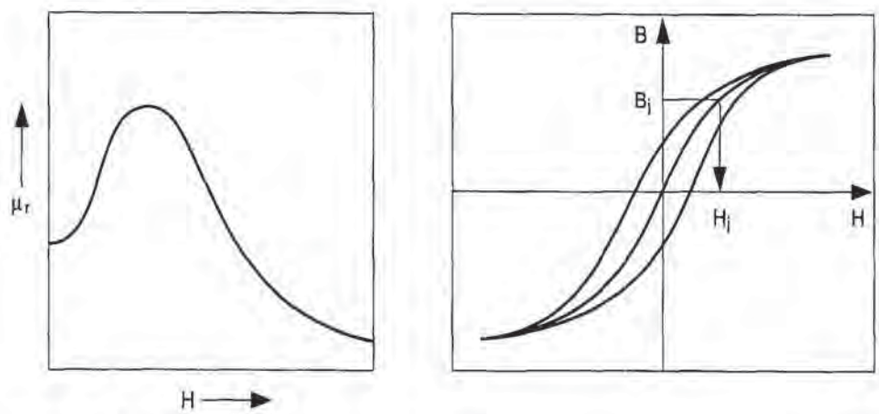


FIGURE 10.4 Progression of permeability and **B-H** curve.

Using the magnetic voltage $V_{mi} = \int \mathbf{H}_i \, d\mathbf{s}$ for the individual section, it is possible to calculate the peripheral magnetic voltage as the sum of the individual magnetic voltages V_{mi}. According to Ampere's law,

$$\Theta = \int \mathbf{H} \, d\mathbf{s} \tag{10.5}$$

this magnetic peripheral voltage is equal to the magnetomotive force Θ. It defines the *total current* of the coil, $\Theta = I\,w$. (I = current, w = number of windings.)

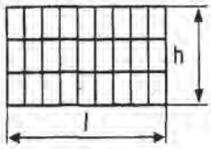
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Because the preceding calculation fails to consider leakage flux, the results must frequently be treated as approximations only. It is possible to increase the precision of the calculations by portraying the magnetic circuit as a general network (with gaps and iron regions as reluctance elements) instead of as a series circuit. The results will then reflect the effects of a large proportion of the leakage flux. Maximum precision is achieved with numeric field calculations, which provide numerical solution of Maxwell's equations.

After magnetomotive force Θ has been determined, the field coil must be dimensioned to produce the required magnetic field. The formulas contained in Fig. 10.5 can be employed to determine the field coil's specifications. For a graphic interpretation, see Fig. 10.6.

$A_W = h \cdot l$



Winding cross section area:

$$A_W = \frac{R\,\pi\,\rho\,(d_a+d_i)(1+\alpha\,\Delta\vartheta)^2\,\Theta^2}{2\,k_W\,U^2}$$

Winding number:

$$w = \left(\frac{2\,A_W\,k_W\,R}{\Pi\,\rho\,(d_a+d_i)}\right)^{1/2}$$

Wire diameter:

$$d = \left(\frac{8\,\rho\,(d_a+d_i)\,A_W\,k_W}{\pi\,R}\right)^{1/4}$$

A_W	Winding cross section area	$\Delta\vartheta$	Temperature differential between coil and room temperature
R	Coil resistance	Θ	Magnetomotive force
ρ	Specific resistance of coil wire	k_W	Coil space factor (ratio of total wire area (w/o insulation) to winding cross section area)
d_a	Outer diameter of windings	U	Voltage at coil
d_i	Inside diameter of windings		
α	Thermal resistivity coefficient of coil wire		

FIGURE 10.5 Determining coil data for specified coil resistance and voltage levels.

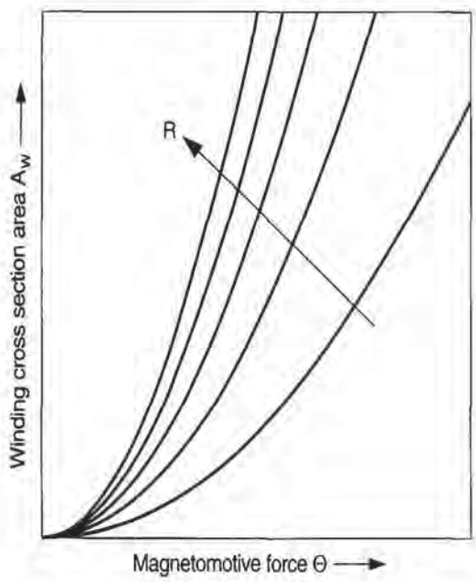


FIGURE 10.6 Area of winding A_w as function of magnetomotive force Θ (parameter coil resistance).

To minimize the size of the solenoid assembly, the magnetic circuit and the coil must be dimensioned to produce the smallest overall size. The formulas for coil dimensions (Fig. 10.7) can be used to minimize the volume of pot-shaped solenoids.

$$\frac{l}{d} \approx 1.5 \qquad \frac{h}{d} \approx 0.4 \ldots 0.5$$

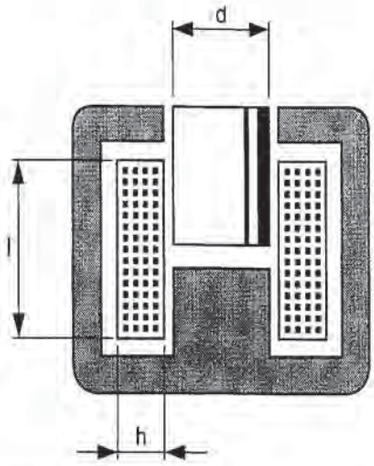


FIGURE 10.7 Selecting coil dimensions for pot-shaped solenoids.

In general, the solenoid is iteratively optimized by changing geometry in those critical areas within the magnetic circuit requiring a high magnetic voltage V_{mi}. The magnetomotive force Θ is then recalculated for the modified magnetic circuit. Figure 10.8 shows the optimization of solenoid diameter D for a particular armature diameter d.

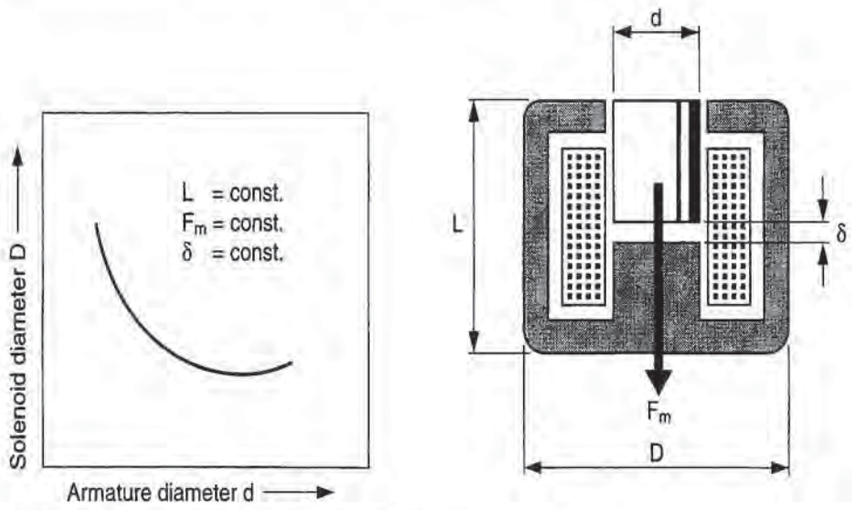


FIGURE 10.8 Relationship between solenoid and armature diameters.

Magnetic Force Curve. When the unit is intended for use in an actuator, the relationship between magnetic force and stroke will be required. With a flat armature and base, and without including the iron regions, Ampere's law [Eq. (10.5)] and Eq. (10.4) provide the following:

$$\Theta = H_\delta \delta = \frac{B_\delta \delta}{\mu_o} \tag{10.6}$$

where δ = working gap

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Together with the force relationship, Eq. (10.1), the following result is obtained:

$$F_m = \frac{\Theta^2 \mu_0 A_1}{2\delta^2}, \text{ i.e., } F_m \sim \frac{1}{\delta^2} \tag{10.7}$$

The substantial drop in magnetic force will be undesirable in many applications. Modifications to the curve for magnetic force versus stroke represent an alternative to increases in solenoid dimensions. This expedient can be effected through control of the current in the coil or by means of design modifications to the armature and base (see Fig. 10.9).

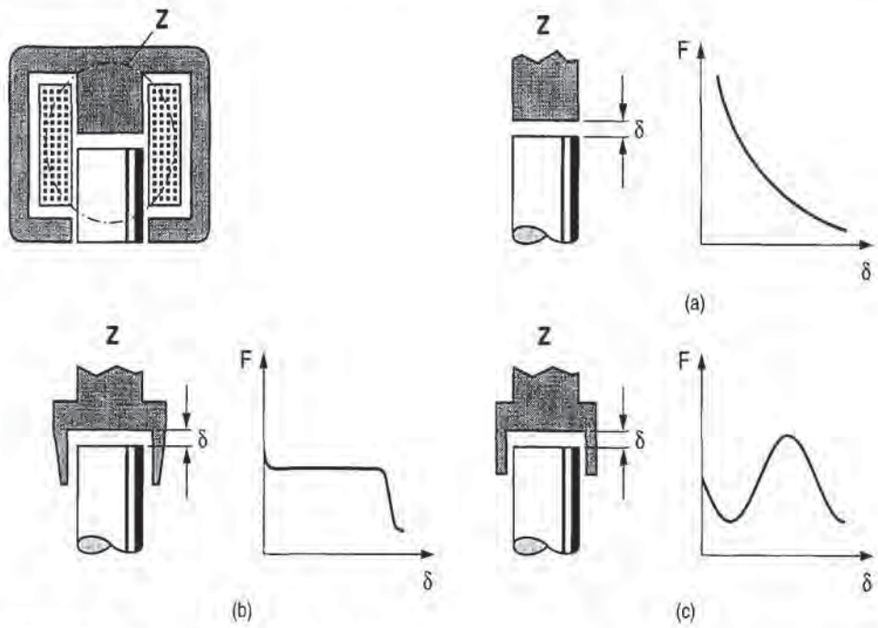


FIGURE 10.9 Design modifications and force curve.

The areas below the force-travel curves, a measure of the work performed, are always the same.

$$\int_0^\infty F_m(\delta)\, d\delta = \text{const.} \tag{10.8}$$

$$\text{with} \quad I = \text{const.}$$

Configuration c can be employed together with a spring to produce a proportional solenoid in which armature travel can be regulated as a function of current. This type of system is sensitive to interference from extraneous factors such as mechanical friction, and hydraulic and pneumatic forces. Thus, final-control systems for high-precision applications must also incorporate a position sensor and a controller (Fig. 10.10).

Dynamic Response. To show the dynamic response pattern more clearly, Fig. 10.11 provides a schematic illustration of the progression over time of three parameters: voltage u at the excitation coil, excitation current i, and armature position s.

The dynamic response pattern can be calculated using computer programs that apply Maxwell's equations (field propagation with eddy currents, self-induction) in conjunction with the motion equation.

Approximation formulas can be employed to derive rapid estimates (eddy currents and magnetic resistance in the iron regions are not taken into account):

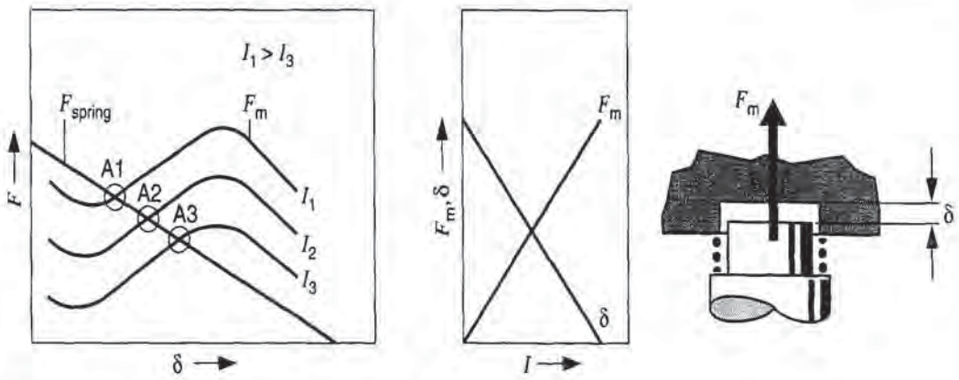


FIGURE 10.10 Operating points of a proportional solenoid.

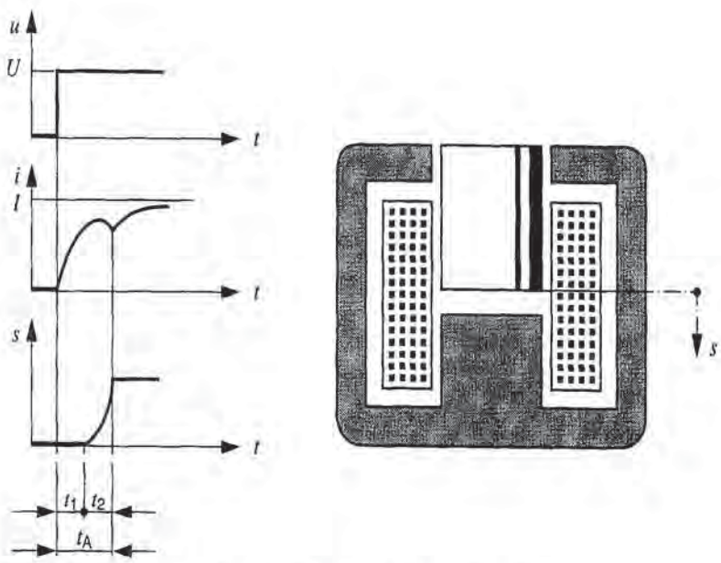


FIGURE 10.11 Progression of voltage, current, and armature travel.

$$t_1 \approx \frac{L_o}{R} \ln \frac{1}{1 - \frac{R}{U}\left(\frac{2 F_{mech}\, \delta_o}{L_o}\right)^{1/2}} \tag{10.9a}$$

$$t_2 \approx \left(\frac{3\, \delta_o m}{U\left(\frac{F_{mech}}{2\, \delta_o L_o}\right)^{1/2} - R\frac{F_{mech}}{L_o}}\right)^{1/3} \tag{10.9b}$$

where L_o = initial inductance
R = coil resistance
U = voltage at solenoid
δ_o = gap with armature lowered
F_{mech} = armature counterforce (treated as constant)
and t_1, t_2, see Fig. 10.11

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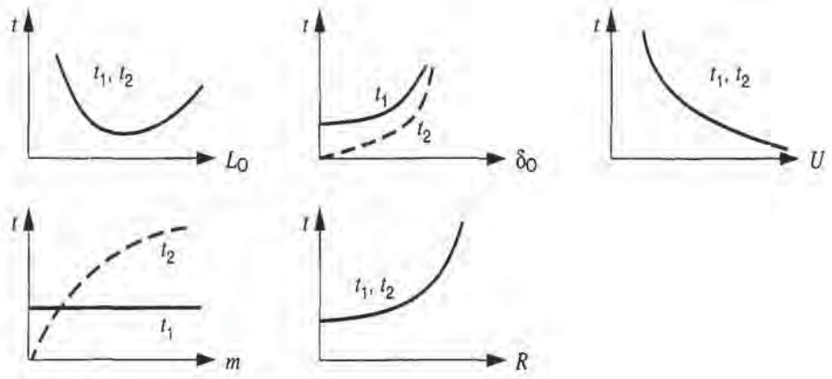


FIGURE 10.12 Relationships of t_1 and t_2.

Figure 10.12 provides an overview of the relationships between t_1 and t_2 and the parameters.

The eddy currents must also be considered in calculations dealing with electromagnets intended for operation at high speeds or switching frequencies. When the excitation current is applied suddenly, the progress over time for the magnetic force is

$$F_m(t) = F_{m0}(1 - e^{-t/\tau})^2 \qquad \text{for field generation}$$

and

$$F_m(t) = F_{m0}\, e^{-2t/\tau} \qquad \text{for field dissipation}$$

with

$$\tau = \frac{\mu_0 l_{Fe} ab}{\pi^2 \rho \delta (a/b + b/a)} \qquad \text{for rectangular cross sections}$$

with

$$\tau = \frac{\mu_0 l_{Fe} d^2}{4(2.405)^2 \rho \delta} \qquad \text{for circular cross sections}$$

where F_{m0} = static solenoid force according to Eq. (10.1)
t = time
l_{Fe} = length of iron core in which eddy currents occur
a/b = height/width of iron core (rectangular cross section)
d = diameter of iron core (circular cross section)
ρ = specific resistance
δ = working gap

Lamination to inhibit eddy currents in dc solenoids is not a standard procedure; its application is restricted to extreme cases.

Figures 10.6 and 10.12 illustrate the fact that at a given voltage, small coil resistances will furnish a small coil and short activation times. However, these benefits are accompanied by a simultaneous increase in the power loss $P_v = U^2/R$. The coil is thus designed to operate at the maximum permissible temperature.

Torque Motors. The torque motor consists of a stator and an armature—both made of soft magnetic material—and a permanent magnet. The pivoting armature can be equipped with either one or two coils.

Figure 10.13*a* shows only the magnetic flux generated by the permanent magnet. The armature is resting at the center position. The magnitude of the magnetic induction is the same at all

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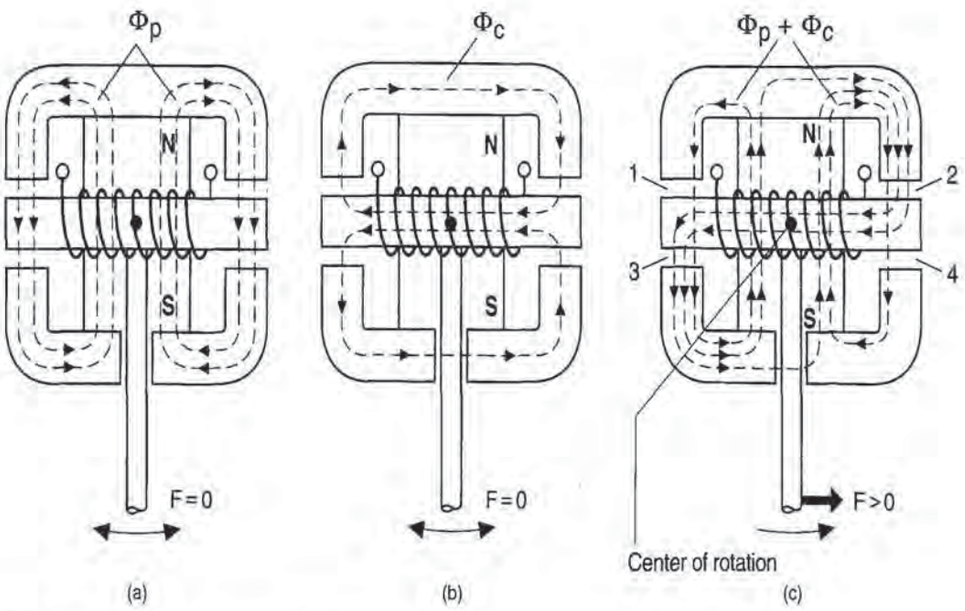


FIGURE 10.13 Design and operation of the torque motor.

gaps. Because equal amounts of force are generated at the armature ends, the forces acting on it exercise a mutual canceling effect.

Figure 10.13*b* illustrates only that magnetic flux which is generated at the coil. Figure 10.13*c* shows the cumulative pattern for the fluxes from *a* and *b*, with increased flow at gaps 2 and 3 ($\Phi_p/2 + \Phi_c/2$) accompanied by reductions at gaps 1 and 4 ($\Phi_p/2 - \Phi_c/2$). Using Eq. (10.1), the torque in the center position is

$$M = F_m r = \frac{r A B_p}{2 s} w I, \text{ i.e., } M \sim I \tag{10.10}$$

where r = armature radius
A = pole face area
B_p = magnetic induction in gap generated by permanent magnet
s = length of gap
w = number of coil windings
I = current.

Torque motors are used for applications in which substantial forces are required over small operating angles. They react more rapidly than electromagnets. In hydraulic and pneumatic applications, torque motors deliver good performance as drive units for flapper and nozzle systems.

Electromagnetic Step Motors. Electromagnetic step motors are drive elements in which a special design operates in conjunction with pulse-shaped control signals to carry out rotary or linear stepped movements. Thus, one complete rotation of the motor shaft will be composed of a precisely defined number of increments, step angles ϕ_0. The magnitude of these angles is determined by the phase number q, the pole pair number p, and by the number of teeth z in the step motor. The step motor is thus capable of transforming digital control signals directly into discontinuous rotary motion. In principle, the step motor is essentially a combination of dc solenoids. The calculations employed for dc solenoids are thus also suitable for application with electromagnetic step motors. Depending upon the configuration of the magnetic circuit, a distinction is made between three types of step motors: the variable-reluctance step motor (neutral magnetic circuit), heteropolar units (polarized magnetic circuit), and hybrid devices.

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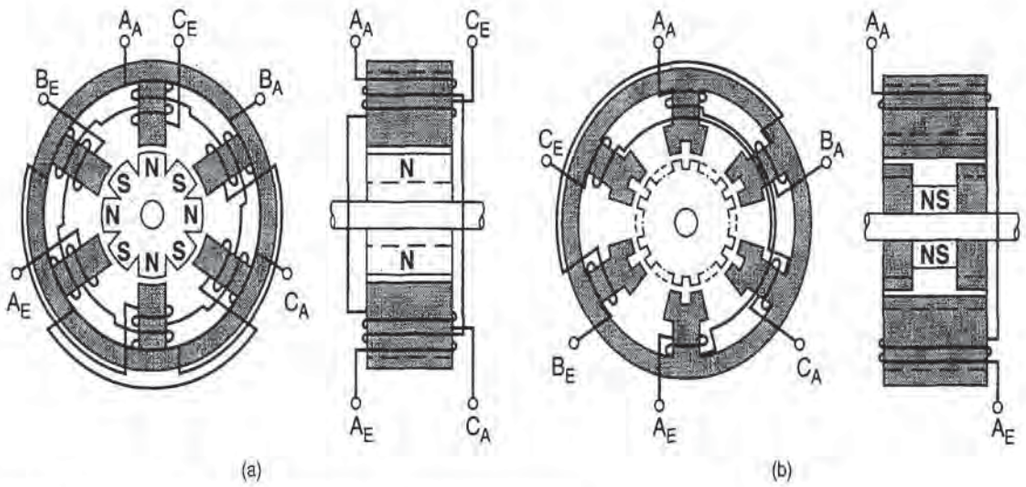


FIGURE 10.14 (*a*) Heteropolar step motor and (*b*) hybrid step motor.

Due to its positive operating characteristics (holding force available in power-off state, improved cushioning, lower control power requirement for a given volume), the polarized step motor has come to be the most widely applied (see Fig. 10.14).

Drive systems featuring electromagnetic step motors combine the following characteristics:

- Field forces induce controllable, incremental movements (minimal wear).
- Precisely graduated movements can be generated using an open-loop control circuit (without position monitors or feedback signals).
- High torque remains available at low angular velocities and in single-step operation.
- Brushless motor design makes it possible to create drive systems which combine reliability with long service life.

The operating characteristics of the rotational step motor can be described with the aid of a stationary torque-angle (M-ϕ) curve. A reasonable approximation can be obtained using sinus-shaped curves with a phase displacement reflecting the switching states of the phase windings (A, B, C) (Fig. 10.15*a*). Assuming that external torque inputs can be excluded, the

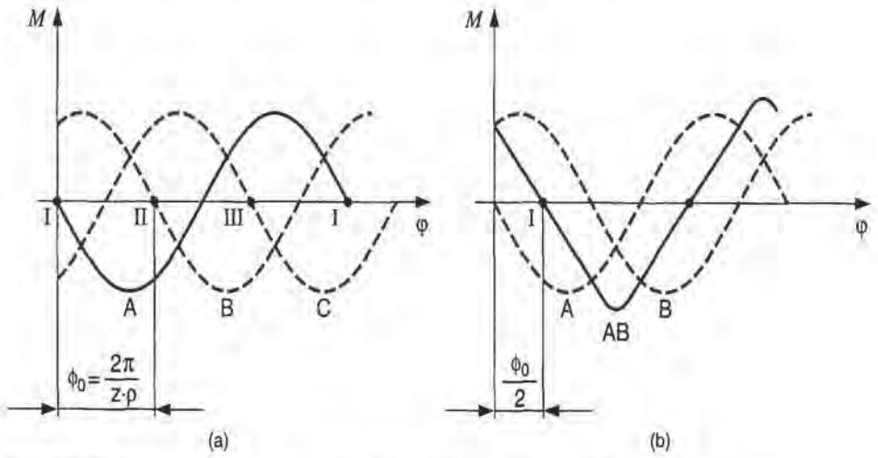


FIGURE 10.15 (*a*) Stationary torque-angle characteristics and (*b*) step-halved.

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armature's stable position will be found where the backslope of the curve intersects the abscissa ($I, \Sigma M = 0, dM/d\phi < 0$). Phase B, C, etc., can then be activated to perpetuate rotation. The periodicity of the stable positions I, II, III is the step angle ϕ_0.

If phase A is followed by simultaneous excitation of A and B with current pulses of the same amplitude, the result is a summing pattern corresponding to Fig. 10.15*b*. The geometric step angle ϕ_0 can then be halved. Alternatively, simultaneous excitation with current pulses of different amplitudes (current control) can be used to subdivide ϕ_0 to almost any degree desired (microstep operation). However, the use of this strategy to enhance the step motor's positioning precision is not possible due to manufacturing tolerances. When step motors are used in drive systems which rely upon open-loop control methods, avoiding stepping errors becomes an important priority (synchronous response).

For critical applications, dynamic simulation of the step drive system's dynamic response pattern is recommended. Here, a good approximation is derived by portraying the step motor using a transfer function of a second-order system. Dynamic response can also be evaluated using the torque-step frequency pattern (*M-f* pattern) for potential step-error-free operation in a start-stop frequency range, Fig. 10.16*a*, and an operating frequency range, Fig. 10.16*b*.

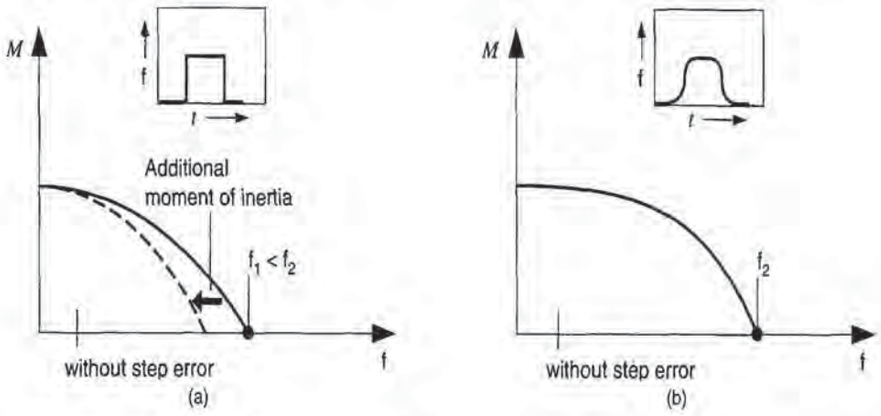


FIGURE 10.16 Torque-step frequency characteristic.

The range in which step error does not occur contracts in response to additional inertial torques or mobile masses. Impressed current induces an upward shift in the potential frequency range which is larger than that derived from impressed voltage. This demonstrates that the step motor's response pattern is strongly influenced by the electronic control strategy. The stepping frequency controls the angular velocity, the pulse distribution (A → B or A → C, see Fig. 10.15) determines the direction of rotation, and the number of pulses governs the pivot angle.

Step motors are only suitable for use as direct-drive elements (the motor's armature operates directly against the actuated unit, no gear drive) in those applications where the influence of load fluctuations and interference factors remains limited, as stepping errors can otherwise occur. For this reason, digital linear actuators featuring integrated rotary step motors and threaded spindles are becoming increasingly popular as linear-motion generators in high-demand applications. When operated within a closed-loop control system, step motors can provide improvements in dynamics, positioning precision, and sturdiness. However, the cost advantages associated with open-loop operation are forfeited.

Moving Coils. The moving coil is an electrodynamic device (force applied to current-saturated conductor in a magnetic field). A spring-mounted coil is located in the ring gap of a magnetic circuit featuring a permanent magnet. When current flows through the coil, a force is exerted against it. The direction of this force is determined by the flow direction of the current itself.

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The positioning force can be calculated using

$$F = B_A L_W I, \text{ i.e., } F \sim I \tag{10.11}$$

where B_A = magnetic induction in the gap
L_W = length of the coil wire
I = excitation current

As the force is not affected by the travel position, a spring can be included to produce a proportional relationship between travel and current.

The advantages of the moving coil include low hysteresis and good linear response. Low mass acts in combination with low coil inductance to provide excellent dynamic-response characteristics. The main liabilities of this design lie in the low force and limited work per stroke for any given unit dimensions.

dc Motors. dc motors are used to discharge a multiplicity of functions in modern cars (today up to 70 motors per vehicle). These motors are generally permanently excited dc devices, as the magnetic field remains continually available without additional energy consumption. For economic reasons, these units are virtually always equipped with ferrite magnets.

Design and Operation. The dc motor depends for its operation on the forces generated in a conductor within a magnetic field when current is applied.

The permanent-magnet-excited motor consists of

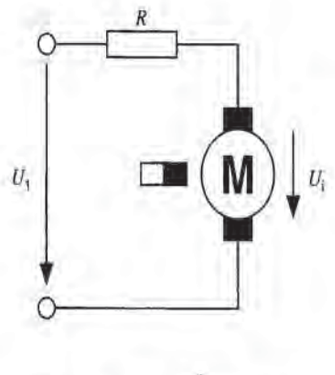
- The magnetic circuit consisting of a permanent magnet for generation and an iron core and a stator frame to conduct the magnetic flux
- Energized coils
- Carbon brushes and commutator, arranged to direct the current to the rotating coil while maintaining the force flow in a single direction

The stationary characteristic can be represented using the following equations (see Fig. 10.17).

$$U_1 = IR + U_i \tag{10.12a}$$

$$U_i = c\, z\, \Phi\, \omega \tag{10.12b}$$

$$M_i = M_v + M = c\, z\, \Phi\, I \tag{10.12c}$$



U_1 – Terminal voltage
U_i – Induction voltage
M – Shaft torque
M_a – Starting torque
M_i – Internal torque
M_v – Torque loss
c – Constant
z – Number of conductors
Φ – Magnetic flux
ω – Armature rotation frequency
I – Current
R – Armature resistance

FIGURE 10.17 dc motor, circuit diagram.

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After inserting Eqs. (10.12*b*) and (10.12*c*) in (10.12*a*), with

$$\omega_{0i} = \frac{U_1}{c\, z\, \Phi} \qquad \text{(ideal idle speed)} \tag{10.13a}$$

$$M_a = c\, z\, \Phi\, \frac{U_1}{R} - M_v \qquad \text{(stall torque)} \tag{10.13b}$$

one obtains

$$\omega = \omega_{0i}\left(1 - \frac{M + M_v}{M_a + M_v}\right) \tag{10.14}$$

or, with idle speed $\omega_0 = \omega(M = 0)$

$$\omega = \omega_0\left(1 - \frac{M}{M_a}\right) \tag{10.15}$$

The motor draws power P_1 from the dc circuit.

$$P_1 = U_1 I \tag{10.16}$$

or

$$P_1 = \frac{U_1}{c\, z\, \Phi}\,(M_v + M) = \omega_0\,\frac{M_v + M_a}{M_a}\,(M_v + M) \tag{10.17}$$

The output at the shaft is the mechanical power P_2

$$P_2 = M\,\omega = M\,\omega_0\left(1 - \frac{M}{M_a}\right) \tag{10.18}$$

Using Eqs. (10.17) and (10.18), the efficiency η can be calculated as a function of the shaft torque.

$$\eta = \frac{P_2}{P_1} = \frac{M(M - M_a)(M_v + M_a)}{M_a(M_v + M)} \tag{10.19}$$

Maximum efficiency as a function of load is obtained by setting the derivative $d\eta/dM = 0$ with

$$M_{\max} = M_v + [M_v(M_v + M_a)]^{1/2} \tag{10.20}$$

In comparison, the output power derived with Eq. (10.18) reaches a maximum at $M = M_a/2$, and thus at a higher value.

Figure 10.18 shows a performance diagram with speed n, current I, and efficiency η as function of the load torque M. It is not possible to determine speed and current separately.

Equations (10.12*a*) through (10.20) illustrate the interactions and the factors that affect the motor's performance curve. The influence of the design parameters is shown in Fig. 10.19.

The magnetic flux Φ is determined by the dimensions and intrinsic material characteristics of the magnet, and by the stack length of the armature and the rest of the magnetic circuit. The speed/torque curve responds to increasing magnetic flux Φ by tilting progressively to the horizontal axis; this response pattern is indicative of a more powerful motor (see Fig. 10.19*a*).

Variations in the number of turns z change the idle speed n_o at the same starting torque (see Fig. 10.19*b*); changes in the armature's resistance (produced by selecting a different wire diameter d) affect the stall current, and thus the stall torque, obtained at any given idle speed n_o (see Fig. 10.19*c*). The maximum achievable copper content is determined by the winding technique.

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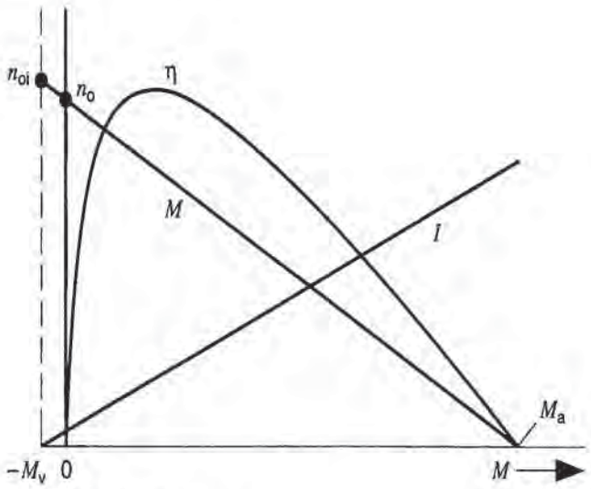


FIGURE 10.18 Motor performance curve.

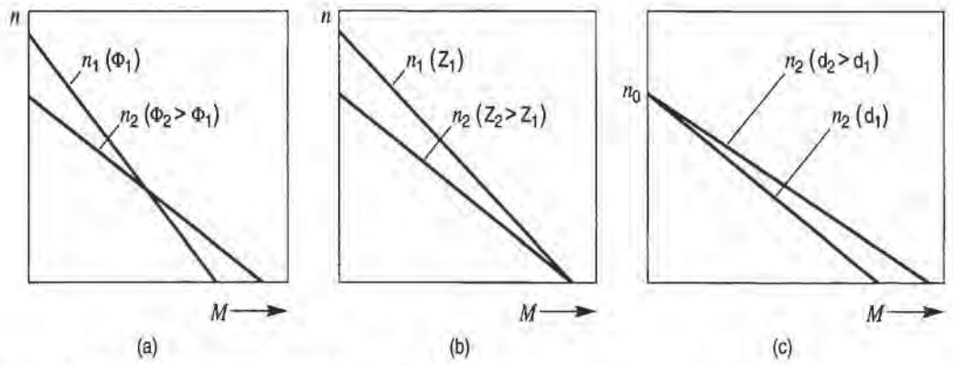


FIGURE 10.19 Effect of design parameters on rotational speed.

Units used in real-world applications display small deviations from the theoretical performance curve as a result of voltage drop at the carbon brushes, the current transfer to the commutator, the armature reaction field produced by the motor's current, and, finally, various rotational and flux losses.

The options for using the electrical parameters to affect the rotating speed are illustrated in Fig. 10.20. Variations in the voltage U (e.g., of the kind produced electronically with a pulse-width modulation) produce a parallel displacement in the speed curve (Fig. 10.20*a*). Other common options include the installation of a ballast resistor R_v and the inclusion of a third carbon brush. Less common (due to cost) is a design in which the winding is divided between two commutators; these can then be activated individually, in parallel, or in series. Servo motors generally operate for brief periods of time, but also over the entire range represented by the unit's characteristic curve.

Each motor must be built specifically for the operating conditions anticipated for the individual vehicle. Ferrite magnets must be selected for the lowest potential temperature, as it is here that the resistance to demagnetization is lowest. When circumstances demand, thermoswitches can also be included to provide protection against overheating.

Automotive actuators must be small and light. Motor volume is directly proportional to torque requirement. At the same time, the power output is proportional to torque multiplied

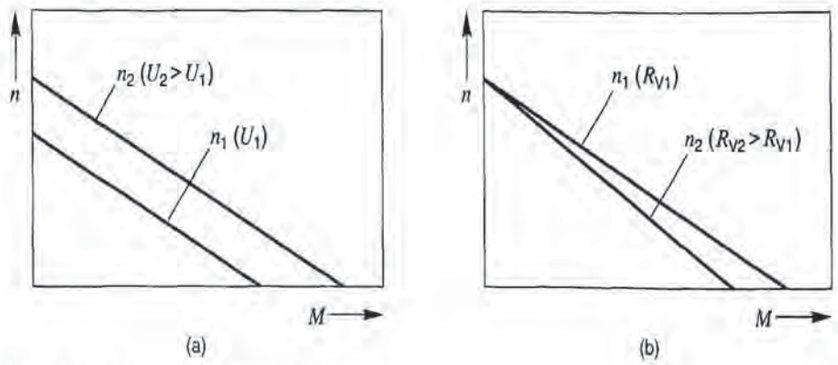


FIGURE 10.20 Speed variations in dc motors.

by rotating speed. Thus, the output can be increased by raising the operating speed; here the accompanying rise in noise levels is the limiting factor. Small motors are equipped with gear-drive units to obtain the required levels of actuating force.

Magnetostrictive Actuators. Ferromagnetic materials respond to increased magnetic field strength by expanding or contracting (magnetostrictive effect). This is due to the Weiss' domains turning in the field direction. The maximum contraction obtained with iron is −8 μm/m. Highly magnetostrictive materials composed of rare-earth/iron alloys display a maximum elongation of 1500 to 2000 μm/m. Maximum potential elongation is obtained at the optimal mechanical pre-tension T_0 (Fig. 10.21).

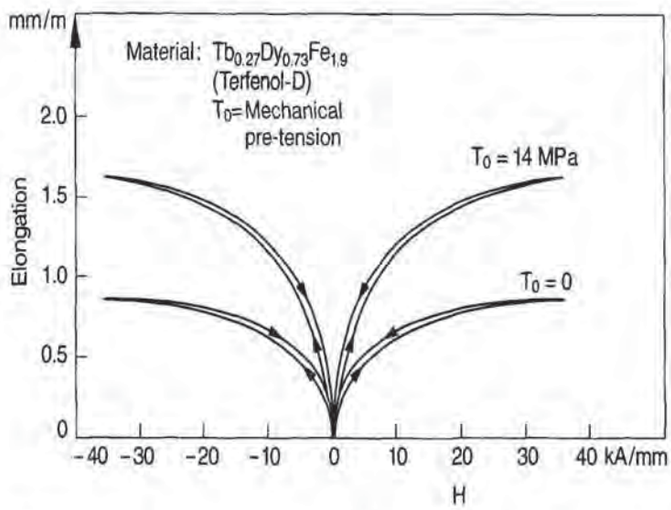


FIGURE 10.21 Magnetostrictive form variations as a function of field strength.

The specific advantages of the magnetostrictive transformer are high actuator forces, rapid response, good rigidity, and a high level of electromechanical efficiency.

The disadvantages include the small variations in length, the high power loss associated with generation of the large maximum field strengths which the unit requires (also in static operation), the length variation with hysteresis, the expense, and the limited availability of the requisite materials. The material is also brittle and difficult to machine.

The commercial availability of the transformers is limited to units designed for research purposes. We are not familiar with any applications in production motor vehicles.

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10.2.2 Electrical Actuators

Piezoelectric Actuators. When mechanical compression and tension are brought to bear on a piezoelectric body, they produce an asymmetrical displacement in the crystal structure and in the charge centers of the affected crystal ions. The result is charge separation. An electric voltage proportional to the mechanical pressure can be measured at the metallic electrodes (direct piezoelectric effect).

If electric voltage is applied to the electrodes on this same body, it will respond with a change in shape; the volume remains constant. This reciprocal piezoelectric effect can be exploited to produce actuators. Sintered ceramics, lead-zirconate-titinate (PZT), are the commonly used materials for these applications. The precise composition can be modified to obtain the desired material characteristics. The magnitude of the shape change depends on the electric field strength E. The relevant equation is $E = U / s$ (U = voltage, s = electrode gap). Single-element actuators require field strengths of up to 2 kV/mm and therefore very high voltage to achieve maximum travel (see Fig. 10.22).

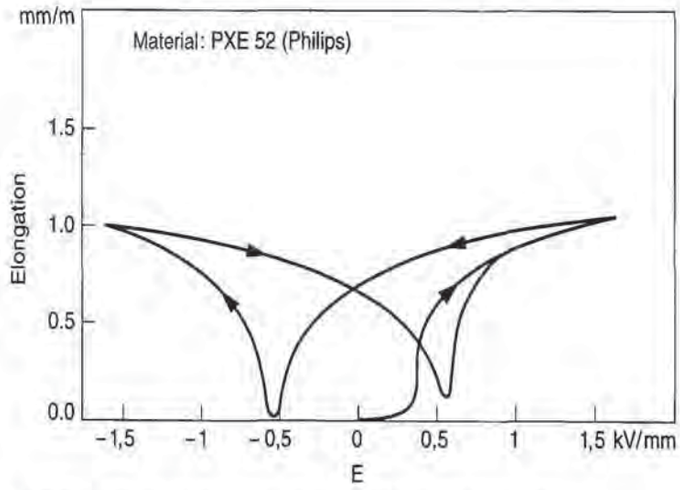


FIGURE 10.22 Form changes as a function of electric field strength.

Stacked-design translational devices consist of piezoelectric layers of between 0.3 and 1 mm in thickness, featuring a metallic electrode between each layer. This design is employed to lower the voltage (down to, for instance, 800 V) while simultaneously increasing the excursion rate. The layers are electrically parallel and form a series circuit (see Fig. 10.23*a*).

Flex elements are formed by joining two layers with varying intrinsic rates of elongation. The elongation occurs along the vertical axis of the direction in which the field strength is projected (transverse effect). Flex elements display larger excursion rates with lower actuating forces (see Fig. 10.23*b*).

New manufacturing techniques make it possible to produce multilayer piezoelectric devices with thinner layers; these can be used to obtain the required field strength at voltages as low as approximately 100 V and below.

However, due to the numerous parallel elements, the advantages associated with the low control voltage are obtained only at the price of increased capacitance and higher operating currents.

The positive attributes of the piezoelectric actuator include a high dynamic response level, substantial actuator force, voltage-proportional elongation, excursion with no power consumption in static operation, and (practically) no wear in the piezoelectric element.

The corresponding liabilities include minimal elongation changes, high operating voltage, hysteresis during elongation, a temperature-sensitive stroke, and a drift in operating response as the unit ages. The material itself is brittle and difficult to machine.

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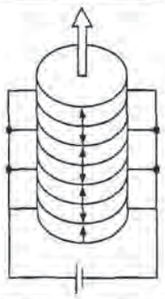
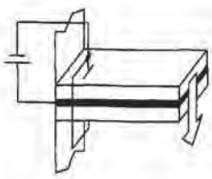
	a	b
Elongation Δl	Parallel to electrical field	Perpendicular to electrical field
Design types		
Typical regulation distance and elongation	$\frac{\Delta l}{l_0} = 0.17\ \%$	$\Delta l \leq 1000\ \mu m$ and more
max. statical load	$\leq$ 35 000 N	$\leq$ 0.01 ... 0.05 N
Typical operation voltage	150 ... 1000 V 50 ... 150 V (multilayer)	10 ... 300 V

FIGURE 10.23 Design and specifications of different transformer versions.

Piezoelectric actuators are applied in precision positioning devices and as active oscillation dampers. Potential automotive applications (with a voltage supply of 12 V) have yet to be thoroughly investigated. However, it is expected that the piezoelectric actuator—and the multilayer stacked-design device in particular—will gain popularity in closed-loop automotive control systems, where they will serve as a replacement for the conventional actuator in applications requiring a higher level of performance.

Electrostatic Actuators. In the past, use of electrical field forces was restricted to some measurement devices and to the acceleration of charged particles. Microactuator technology makes it possible to apply these small forces in mechanical drive devices. These devices combine high switching speeds with much smaller energy loss than that found in electromagnetic actuators. The disadvantages are the force/travel limitations and the high operating voltages. At present, microactuators are rarely encountered outside the research laboratories; thus, the electrostatic actuator's current commercial significance is negligible.

Electrorheological Fluids. The electrorheological effect is based on polarization processes in minute particles suspended in a fluid medium. These particles modify the fluid's viscosity according to the orientation in the electrical field. The effect can be employed to adjust the viscosity between "freely flowing" and "rigid." Reaction times are measured in ms. Among the disadvantages are interference factors, temperature sensitivity, high voltages, control powers of several hundred watts, and the price, which is still high. The electrorheological effect is exploited in controlled transfer and damping elements.

10.2.3 Thermal Actuators

Temperature-Sensitive Bimetallic Elements. The temperature-sensitive bimetallic element is composed of at least two bonded components of varying thermal-expansion coefficients. When heat is applied, the components expand at different rates, causing the bimetallic element to bend. When electrically generated heat is applied, these devices become actuators.

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The passive component is characterized by a lower thermal-expansion coefficient. Meanwhile, the active component should maintain a constant coefficient of thermal expansion over the largest possible range.

The passive element in the most common type of temperature-sensitive bimetallic device is invar ($FeNi_{36}$), while the active component is an alloy of iron, nickel, and manganese ($FeNi_{20}Mn_6$). Common element configurations include strips, coils, spirals, and wafers. Temperature-sensitive bimetallic devices are readily available and inexpensive. They can be applied at temperatures of up to roughly 650 °C, and display a high degree of consistency in their shape-change response (up to several million cycles). The drawbacks include the modest actuator forces, the low work potential for a given volume (energy density), and the fact that only a single type of shape modification (flexural) is possible.

Memory Alloys. Memory alloys are metallic materials which exhibit a substantial degree of "shape memory." The explanation for this phenomenon can be found in the reversible, thermoelastic martensitic transformation, in which two different crystal structures are adopted. As long as the temperature remains below the transformation threshold, the structure remains martensitic. However, when the alloy is heated beyond the transformation temperature, it responds by becoming austenitic.

The element's shape is changed permanently by the one-way effect. If the element is heated to beyond the transformation temperature, it returns to its former shape. If the component is then reshaped after cooling, the entire process can be repeated. Thermomechanical pretreatment processes can be employed to achieve a two-way effect. The component then assumes one defined shape when heated, and another when cooled.

Yet another phenomenon is superelasticity. Application of loads produces an extension of up to 10 percent; the effect is reversed once the load is removed. However, because this effect is extremely sensitive to temperature, it has yet to be employed in the construction of actuators. The materials are commercially available, the base materials are nickel-titanium (NiTi–) and copper-zinc-aluminum alloys (CuZnAl–). The transformation temperatures of these alloys lie between –100 and +100 °C, with the one-way effect also being obtained outside this range.

The benefits of memory alloys include the high effective output for a given volume and the ability to complete work cycles within a minimal temperature interval of 10 to 30 °C. The memory components can be formed to suit the particular application. The wire's resistance can be employed for direct heating. The material itself can be formed with or without physical machining, and can also be welded. Among the disadvantages must be counted the limited thermal range of application and the high price.

Memory alloys are used as drive, final-control, and triggering elements in various technical applications (automotive, household appliances, heating and climate control, medical technology, etc.). The forms assumed by the actual components include triggering wires, coil springs, and flex and torsion elements.

The memory element can be used as sensor and actuator—for instance, in a liquid medium—in which temperature changes will induce shape changes in the component.

Expansion Elements. The expansion element exploits the volume-versus-temperature response of specific solid and fluid media which exhibit large coefficients of thermal expansion. The volumetric response is converted to a stroke motion. The expansion medium is housed in a rigid container. The motion is converted to a stroke using diaphragms or elastomer inserts. Electrically controlled expansion elements find application as actuators. Expansion elements are inexpensive and robust, and combine large stroke travel with substantial positioning forces.

However, these devices are only suitable for application within a limited temperature range. Their dynamic response is also less than overwhelming. Expansion elements are widely applied in automotive technology (for instance, choke actuators on carbureted engines).

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10.3 AUTOMOTIVE ACTUATORS

10.3.1 Antilock Braking

(See Chap. 15 and **traction control systems**, Chap. 16.)

Both antilock braking systems (ABS) and traction control systems (ASR) limit the rate of slip between tire and road surface. These systems enhance vehicle stability and steering response while maintaining optimal braking and acceleration characteristics. ABS and ASR employ a single set of actuators to modulate braking pressure. In addition, ASR devices supplement braking intervention by adjusting engine output.

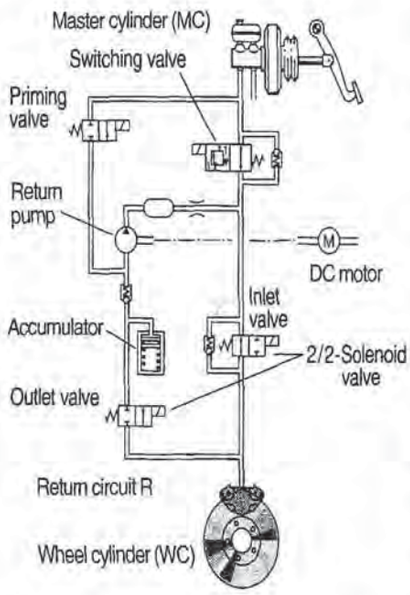


FIGURE 10.24 ABS/ASR hydraulic circuitry.

Actuators for Braking Intervention. Braking pressure is regulated normally via 2/2 solenoid valves (valves with two ports and two switch positions, see Fig. 10.24). When no current is applied, the inlet valve remains open and the outlet valve is closed, allowing unrestricted wheel braking.

ABS/ASR systems modulate pressure by controlling two 2/2 solenoids for each wheel or for two wheels of one axle. With no current, the inlet valve remains open while the outlet valve stays closed. To maintain pressure, current is applied to the inlet valve. Pressure release is obtained by transmitting current to both valves.

Various pulse sequences applied to the inlet valve generate a step-by-step increase of the wheel braking pressure (wheel brake pressure modulation).

Using the same pulse sequence for the outlet valve while the inlet valve remains closed, a step-by-step brake pressure decrease in the wheel cylinders is achieved. Switching and priming valves of a 2/2 type can be incorporated in the circuit to provide the additional functions required for the ASR (Fig. 10.25).

Solenoid Valve Design. One part of the magnetic circuit is located in the hydraulic chamber; here the armature and the pole piece simultaneously serve as valve elements in a design known as the wet solenoid. The solenoid coil and the other part of the magnetic iron circuit are located outside the hydraulic chamber. This design requires the presence of a pressure-resistant sealing element. This element must also be nonmagnetic, in order to ensure that the magnetic flux flows through the working gap and the armature in the desired fashion.

The solenoid circuit is designed to provide reliable switching and pressure maintenance at maximum temperature (maximum coil resistance), minimum voltage, and maximum pressure. At the same time, armature clearance and residual gap must both be adequate to ensure that the valve continues to function at low temperatures (brake-fluid viscosity changes exponentially (by three powers of ten) in the range between –40 and +120 °C). The maximum operating pressures can extend in extreme cases to more than 200 bar. Typical switching times are 4 to 10 ms. Dynamic response is evaluated according to the pressure variation at a specified control pulse. The duty-cycle requirements for ABS are minimal, but ASR switching and priming valves must be capable of 100 percent permanent duty. The maximum cycle numbers correspond to several million actuations.

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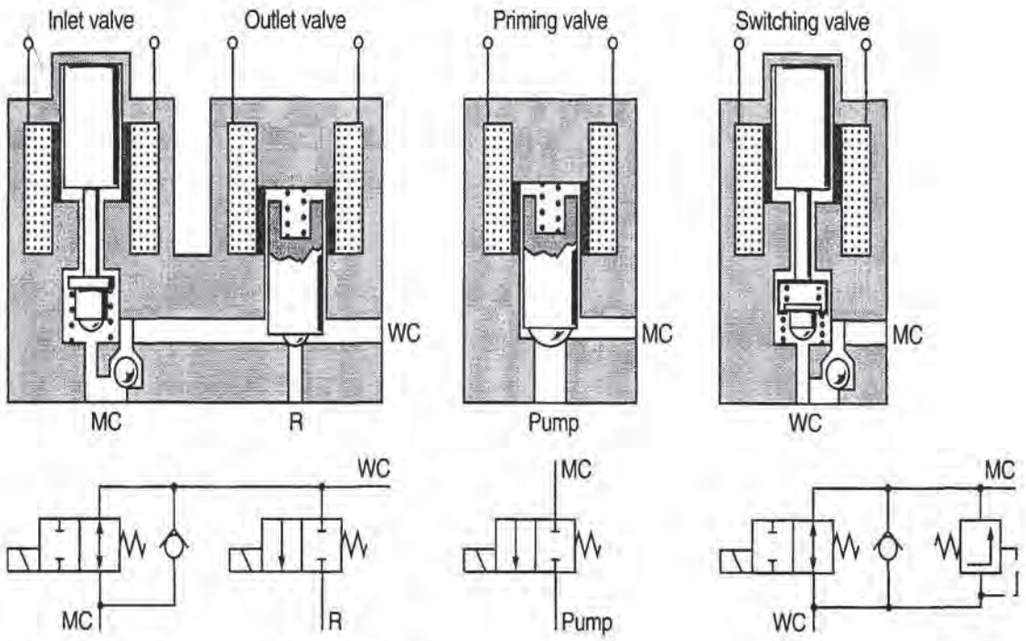


FIGURE 10.25 2/2 solenoid valves for ABS/ASR.

ETC with Throttle-Aperture Adjustment. Either of two standard methods can be employed for throttle regulation. Electronic Throttle Control (ETC) systems feature an actuator (servo motor) mounted directly at the throttle valve. On systems incorporating a traction-control actuator, the actuator (servo motor) is installed in the throttle cable (Bowden cable).

The design configuration of the electronic throttle-control actuator is illustrated in Fig. 10.26. To enhance clarity and facilitate understanding, all rotating components (except the throttle plate) are portrayed as linear-motion devices. The throttle shaft travels between two

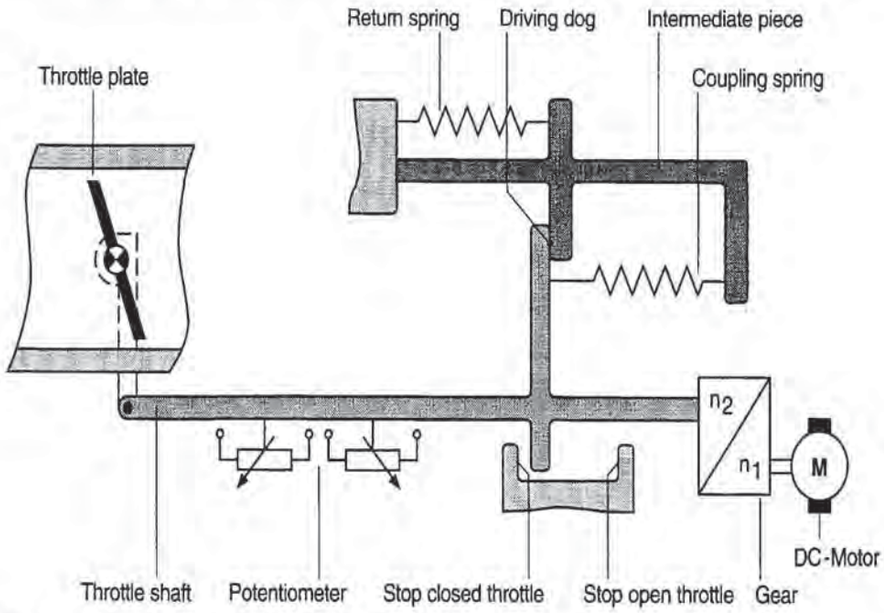


FIGURE 10.26 Operation of electronic throttle control.

motion limiters; these define the closed throttle and maximum aperture positions. The shaft is powered by a dc motor via a dual-gear drive. When the motor is off, a return spring pulls the intermediate piece back toward the idle-air stop. The driving dog pushes the throttle shaft toward the idle position. The coupling spring holds it in a defined idle position. This position corresponds to an idle speed ensuring adequate engine power to maintain power-steering and brake operation in the event of system failure.

Current can be applied to the dc motor in either direction. One direction opens the throttle plate and tensions the return spring. The other direction closes the throttle plate. When the throttle plate closes all the way, the coupling spring is tensioned. Two potentiometric throttle-position sensors are included in a design calculated to provide redundant system capacity. The electronic control unit uses the signals from these sensors to regulate motor current for the desired throttle position; the signals thus represent part of a closed-loop control system.

Traction-Control Actuator. The actuator can be installed in any of several locations within the engine compartment. No modifications to the throttle body are required.

Figure 10.27 illustrates the operating principles in a simplified linear flow pattern (the actuator components are actually rotary elements). The ends of the Bowden cable sections are connected to rotary cam/linkage spring assemblies.

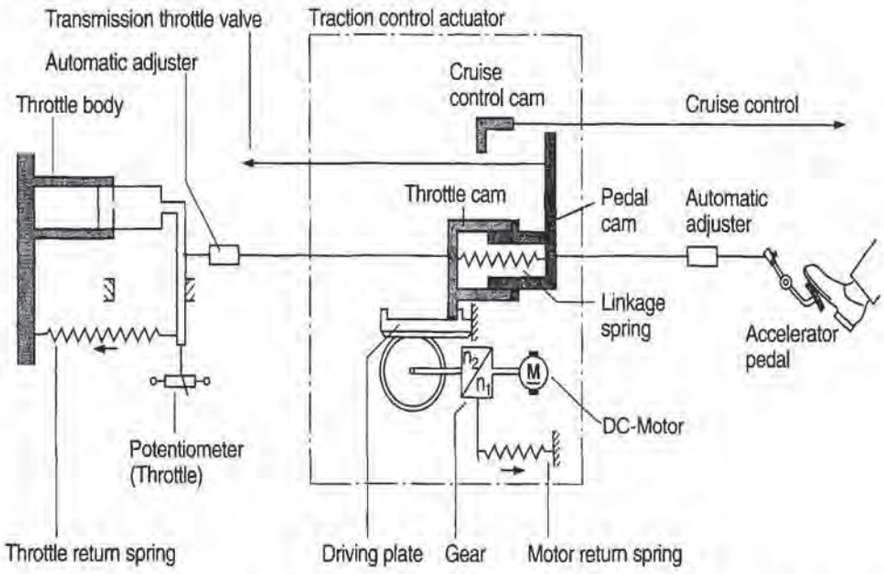


FIGURE 10.27 Operation of a traction-control actuator located between the accelerator pedal and throttle body.

Under normal operating conditions, the pressure applied at the accelerator pedal is relayed through the Bowden cable and linkage spring coupling to open the throttle valve. The servo motor comes to life when the ABS/ASR control unit transmits a command to reduce the throttle-valve aperture. The servo motor pulls the engagement mechanism to the left via gear drive and Bowden cable. Once the initial take-up range has been covered, the linkage is activated to reduce the throttle-valve opening. The servo motor is deactivated as soon as the ASR no longer requires throttle-valve regulation. A return spring then brings the motor back into its original position, allowing the traction control actuator to drive back to its original at rest position.

The traction-control actuator can also be used in conjunction with a cruise-control system. A separate cam connects the Bowden cable for the cruise control to the actuator assembly. This layout is employed to retain the option of traction-control intervention when the cruise-control system is activated.

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Because the linkage spring must be considerably stronger than the throttle-return spring, it exerts a perceptible effect on the resistance at the accelerator pedal.

Another approach to engine intervention is embodied in a design in which the linkage spring is integrated within the throttle body. Yet a further option is to install a second throttle valve which remains open during normal operation; a separate Bowden cable is installed between this throttle body and the actuator to regulate the valve for active traction-control duties. Because the linkage spring is installed parallel to the throttle-return spring, the preload is substantially lower than that generated by the design described here; there is almost no perceptible feedback at the accelerator pedal. Actuator weight and dimensions are also reduced substantially.

10.3.2 Fuel-Injection for Spark-Ignition Engines

(See Chap. 12.)

Electronically controlled fuel injection systems meter fuel with the assistance of electromagnetic injectors. The injector's opening time determines the discharge of the correct amount of fuel.

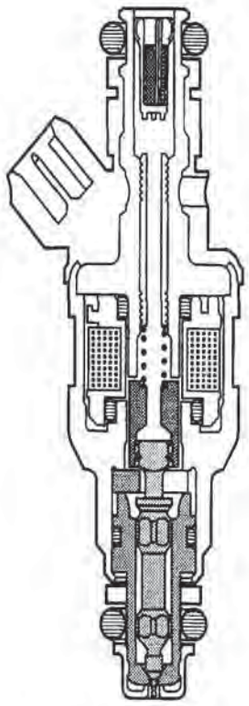


FIGURE 10.28 Injector unit for multipoint fuel injection system.

On single-point injection units, one injector unit is installed at a central location upstream from the throttle valve. Multipoint injection systems feature a separate injector at each cylinder (Fig. 10.28). This type of injector is located in the manifold tract just above the intake port into which it discharges its fuel.

Operating Requirements. The injectors are 2/2 valves with coaxial fuel inlet and lateral plug. They operate with minimal strokes of less than $\frac{1}{10}$ mm.

Besides the precise opening and closing, the reliable sealing and the discharge pattern which an individual injector provides are all largely determined by the design of its metering apparatus, thus exercising a major effect on starting and response, fuel consumption, and emissions.

Electromagnetic injectors have to fulfill the demand for precise fuel metering, consistent linear response at minimal quantities, extended dynamic flow range (DFR), good spray formation and atomization, positive seal at injector seat, resistance to corrosion, operating consistency, and low noise.

Low-resistance injectors with current-controlled output stages achieve shorter switching times. See Table 10.1.

10.3.3 Fuel Injection for Diesel Engines

Distributor-Type Fuel Injection Pumps contain rotary solenoid actuators for injection quantity, and two position valves for engine operation and shutoff.

The fuel quantity injected by an in-line pump is a function of control-rack position and pump speed (Fig. 10.29).

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TABLE 10.1 Typical Injector Specifications

	Units	Multipoint injection	Single-point injection
Line pressure . . . max.	kPa	200–380	100–300
Static flow at 250 kPa,	g/min	100–430	—
at 100 kPa,	g/min	—	200–520
Opening time	ms	1.5	0.75
Closing time	ms	0.8	0.65
Variation ratio (DFR)		1:10	1:16
Durability >mio.cycle		1000	1000
Needle/armature weight	g	4.3	2.7
Length	mm	77	53

The control rack of an EDC in-line pump is shifted by a linear-motion solenoid with a conic armature and base for long stroke application (see pages 10.5 and 10.6). The actuator is attached directly to the pump.

When no current is applied to the linear-motion solenoid, a spring pushes the control rack into the stop position and thus interrupts fuel delivery. As current increases, the control-rack travel and, with it the injection quantity, increase.

Typical operating data of the solenoid actuator are (full load, stationary condition): rack travel 13 mm, spring force 32 N, ECU current output 6 A, 200 Hz. By pulsation of the ECU-current, the actuator friction is minimized. Maximum rack travel is about 20 mm.

The electronically controlled unit injector (Fig. 10.30) has been developed to meet the future emissions regulations by realizing high injection pressures and precise control of start of injection and injection quantity.

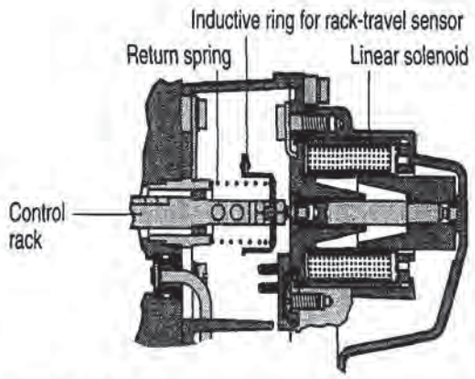


FIGURE 10.29 EDC linear-solenoid actuator.

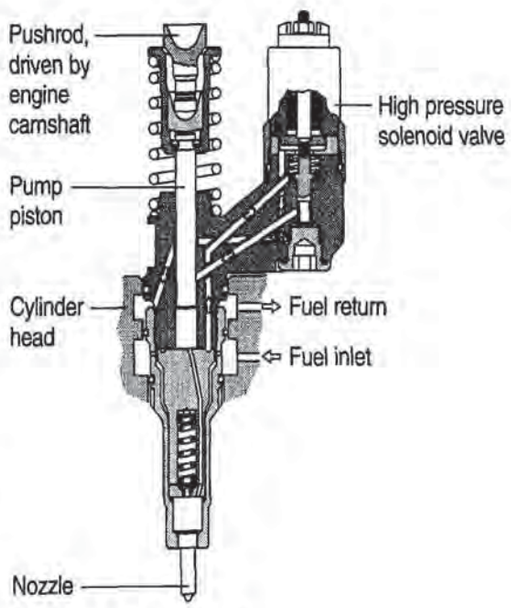


FIGURE 10.30 Unit injector.

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The unit injector combines injection pump and injection nozzle into a single unit, which is installed directly into the engine cylinder head and driven by the engine camshaft. High injection pressures of 1600 bar and more are readily attainable due to low dead volume of compressible fuel.

In order to control start and end of injection, each unit injector contains a time-controlled high-speed solenoid valve. When the valve is open, the unit injector plunger delivers fuel to the low-pressure fuel supply circuit without any injection into the engine cylinder. When the solenoid valve is closed, fuel is delivered to the nozzle for injection into the engine cylinder. Thus, the fuel injection quantity is determined by the time interval between closing and opening of the valve.

Typical switching times for a medium duty/heavy duty truck application are: closing period at rated power, 1000 μs; opening period at rated power, 600 μs. The whole injection process must be completed within a period of about 1 to 2 ms. Consequently, the solenoid-valve motion must occur with an accuracy of less than 10 μs in order to ensure compliance with the usual tolerances for fuel injection quantity and start of injection.

10.3.4 Actuators for Passenger Safety

(See Chap. 24.) Pyrotechnical actuators are used for passenger-restraint systems such as the air bag and the automatic seat belt tensioner. When an accident occurs, the actuators inflate the air bag (or tension the seat belt) at precisely the right instant. Specifications call for the belts to be fully tensioned ~ 10 ms after ignition, while ~ 30 ms are allowed between the ignition point and total inflation for the air bag.

Air bag actuators are available in various sizes, according to vehicle type and application (driver or passenger side), and they are dimensioned to generate gas volumes of between 30 and 200 dm^3. The gases and gas mixtures used for these devices are nontoxic. The section following describes the operating principles for various actuator types.

Pyrotechnical Air Bag Inflator (Gas Generator). Figure 10.31 is an example of a driver-type inflator. When sufficient current is sent through the initiator, or squib, a thin metal filament covered by a sensitive pyrotechnic charge heats up and ignites this charge (Fig. 10.31*a*). The ignition of the squib provides enough energy to light a booster charge, whose combustion

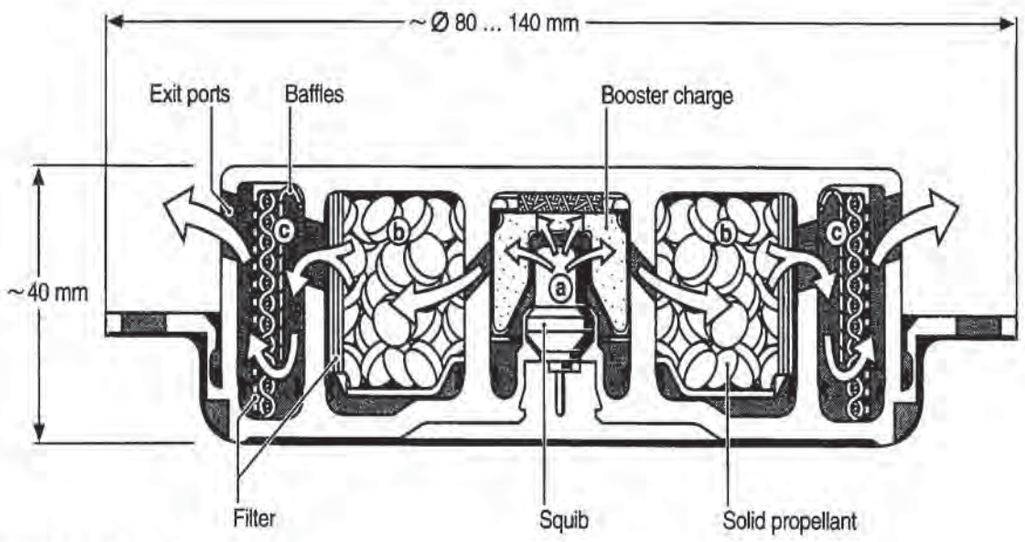


FIGURE 10.31 Gas generator.

builds up adequate pressure and heat to start the chemical reaction, converting the solid propellant, or gas generant, into gas (Fig. 10.31*b*). The resulting nontoxic hot gas flows over a series of screens, filters, and baffles, cooling down prior to leaving the inflator through exit ports located inside the air bag (Fig. 10.31*c*). The duration of this process is less than one-tenth of a second.

Hybrid (Compressed Gas and Pyrotechnic) Air Bag Inflator. Figure 10.32 is an example of a passenger-type tubular inflator. When sufficient current is sent through the initiator, or squib, a thin metal filament covered by a sensitive pyrotechnic charge heats up and ignites this charge (Fig. 10.32*a*). The ignition of the squib provides enough energy to propel a projectile through a rupture disk, allowing the escape of stored nontoxic compressed gas (Fig. 10.32*b*). The projectile also strikes two primers, lighting a solid pyrotechnic mass, which in turn heats the remaining stored gas (Fig. 10.32*c*). The expanding heated gas flows out of the inflator through exit ports located inside the air bag (Fig. 10.32*d*). The duration of this event is less than one-tenth of a second.

10.3.5 Actuators for Electronic Transmission Control

Continuous operation actuators are used to modulate pressure, while switching actuators function as supply and discharge valves for shift-point control.

In automatic transmissions, response times of 2 ms must be ensured in circuits with flow diameters of up to 2.4 mm, carrying up to 4 dm^3 per minute at a differential pressure of 200 kPa, all within a temperature range extending from –40 to 150 °C; pressure can increase up to 2000 kPa.

On/Off Solenoids. Various versions of the on/off solenoid valve are in use (two-port, three-port, open base state, closed base state). These valves are normally employed for shifting gears, but can also serve in special applications such as control of converter lockup mechanisms or reverse lockouts. Substantial weight savings can be obtained from the use of plastics. On/off valves are controlled through basic switching output stages. Peak-and-hold control strategies can provide weight and size savings.

Variable-Pressure Solenoids (Pressure Regulators). Pressure regulation must remain precise during switching operations and when holding line pressure. Here, analog valves have

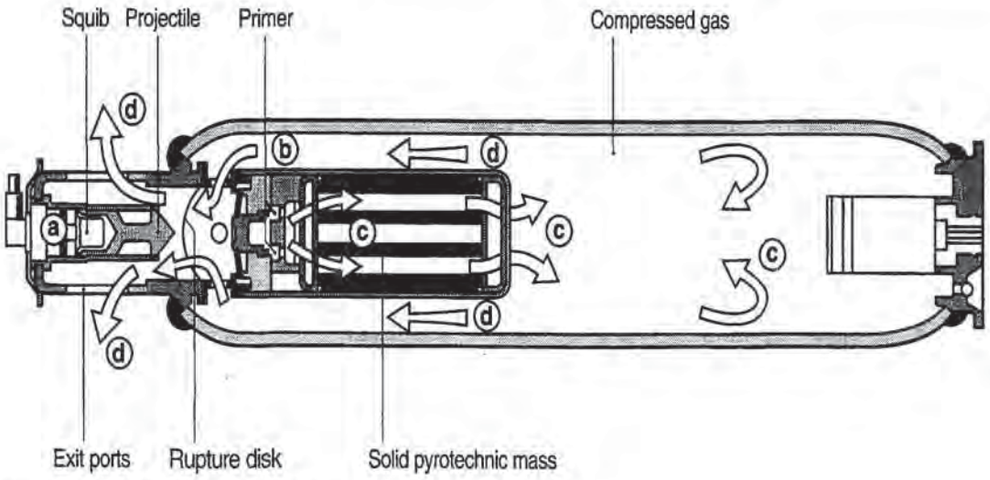


FIGURE 10.32 Hybrid air bag inflator.

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proven extremely effective. Extremely stable output pressures are achieved by recirculating the controlled pressure to the valve element, making it possible to maintain stable output pressures in the face of interference factors like downstream leakage, supply-pressure fluctuations, and viscosity variations in the hydraulic fluid. Figure 10.33 shows a typical version of the three-way pressure-control valve, the spool valve. This design provides flow rates of 4 dm^3/min at pressure differentials of 2 bar. In order to limit the effects of hysteresis on the pressure/flow response characteristic, mechanical friction must be minimized and materials with low coercive field force must be employed and heat-treating processes are also needed to minimize material-related hysteresis. Choppers in the current-controlled end stage reduce power loss and induce friction-reducing micromovement in the armature. Pressure regulators are also available as seat valves.

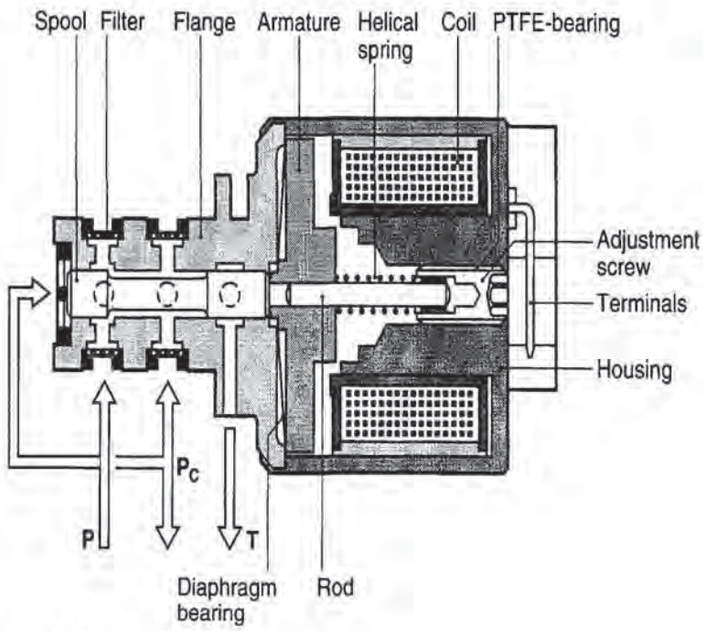


FIGURE 10.33 Variable-pressure solenoid.

PWM Solenoids (Pulse-Width Modulated Solenoid Valves). On/off poppet valves are particularly well suited for direct actuation from microcomputers. The component layout is less complicated than that found in proportional valves, allowing reductions in manufacturing costs. Because microcomputers operate on the basis of discrete time, equidistant setpoint selection, direct valve actuation via constant-frequency pulse represents the optimum design configuration.

When the solenoid-actuated valve is switched on and off at a constant supply pressure, the resulting average outlet pressure is a function of the ratio between open and closed states. However, this design lacks the proportional valve's ability to compensate for interference due to such factors as system leakage, temperature, and fluctuations in supply pressure. This type of actuator thus represents a reasonably priced alternative for applications in which the control pressure is not the controlled variable, but rather is used as a manipulated variable.

These units can be used in automatic transmissions to select gear ratios, or to reduce torque-converter slip losses by modulating the contact pressure of the lockup clutch. Simple switching output stages or peak-and-hold circuits govern the electric control signal to the PWM valve. When used in conjunction with the appropriate valve design, this type of control can be used to obtain cycle frequencies in excess of 100 Hz. In some applications, such as continiously variable transmissions (CVT), a life expectancy of 2×10^9 cycles is demanded.

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10.3.6 Actuators for Headlight Vertical Aim Control

Devices enabling adjustment of headlight range enhance safety by maintaining the correct aim under all vehicle-load conditions. Range adjustment can be manual, with a driver-operated switch, or it can be automatic. The same headlight-adjustment actuators are employed for both designs. The actuator is mounted directly on the headlamp bracket or housing, and adjusts the headlight insert or the reflector.

The actuators are dc or step motors producing a rotary motion which gear-drive units then convert to linear movement. Due to the fixed relationship between the motor's incremental response (steps) and the attendant linear motion, no travel sensor is required with step motors. The total adjustment range extends as far as 8 mm. A single step corresponds to a turning angle of 15 degrees, or an adjustment travel of 0.03 mm. The motor returns to the initial (zero) position (mechanical travel limiter) each time the system is activated in order to prevent step losses.

The step motor combines the following advantages:

- Extremely precise positioning through digital control.
- High adjustment speeds of up to 8 mm/s; different control frequencies can be selected to obtain variations. This system allows graduated adjustment at constant vehicle speeds (consistent lighting) and rapid response during acceleration and braking.

10.4 TECHNOLOGY FOR FUTURE APPLICATION

The motivation to develop new actuators is created by the potential advantages of new manufacturing and driving techniques in combination with new materials. The following examples illustrate representative fields of innovation.

10.4.1 Micromechanical Valves

Micromechanics technology stems from the adaptation of production methods employed in microelectronics. Lithographic miniaturization procedures and etching and assembly techniques make it possible to manufacture minute structures with a high degree of precision. Micromechanical production methods have already become established in the field of sensor manufacture. Electronic circuitry and sensors can be manufactured from the same material (primarily silicon) in simultaneous production processes to furnish integrated components; the benefits associated with this process represent numerous potential advantages.

In automotive applications, microactuators display potential as elements in open-loop control systems where low control power is to be converted, for instance, regulating the flow of fluids in hydraulic or pneumatic systems and metering fuel.

For micromechanical manufacturing, valve designs are required in which planar units with relatively low structure heights are stacked. The energy conversion principles employed to operate the valves correspond to the planar structure (e.g., electrostatic drive, electrothermal or piezoelectric flux converters).

The pressure-balanced seat valve is a basic example of this kind of microvalve (Fig. 10.34). This type of microvalve is produced in a manufacturing process entailing sequential structuring and bonding of four wafers. Depending on the required dimensions for the single valve and the resulting surface requirement, as many as several hundred elements can be produced simultaneously on each wafer stack. Further efforts must be directed to solving packaging problems before these microstructures can be used to control fluid supply and discharge processes.

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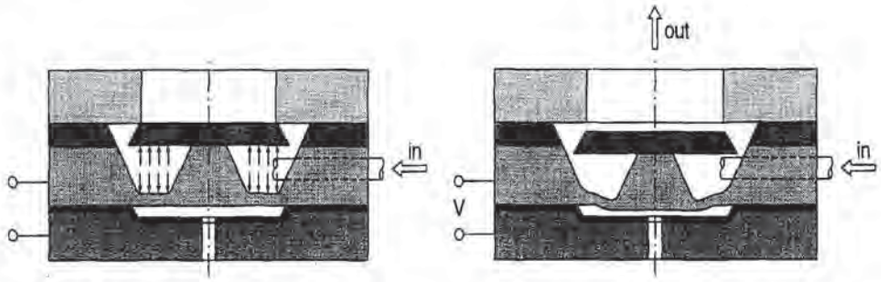


FIGURE 10.34 Pressure-compensated seat valve.

10.4.2 Positive-Engagement Friction Drives

Single piezoelectric actuators provide high dynamic positioning response over short actuating distances. The search for suitable mechanisms employing active piezoceramics to extend the effective travel range has given rise to a multiplicity of drive concepts sharing common attributes:

- Combination of single high-frequency motions (up to the ultrasonic range) to achieve a continuous drive movement
- Output element actuation using friction engagement

Ultrasonic Motor. Of all the designs utilizing piezoelectric actuator technology, the ultrasonic traveling wave device has reached the most advanced stage of development (Fig. 10.35). A stator ring featuring teeth on the upper surface, and made of a material providing low material damping (bronze), is flex-mounted on an end shield via a central diaphragm. A flat piezoceramic ring is bonded to the underside of the stator ring. This piezoring is polarized along the vertical axis of the ring plane. The direction of the polarization changes segmentally (Fig. 10.36).

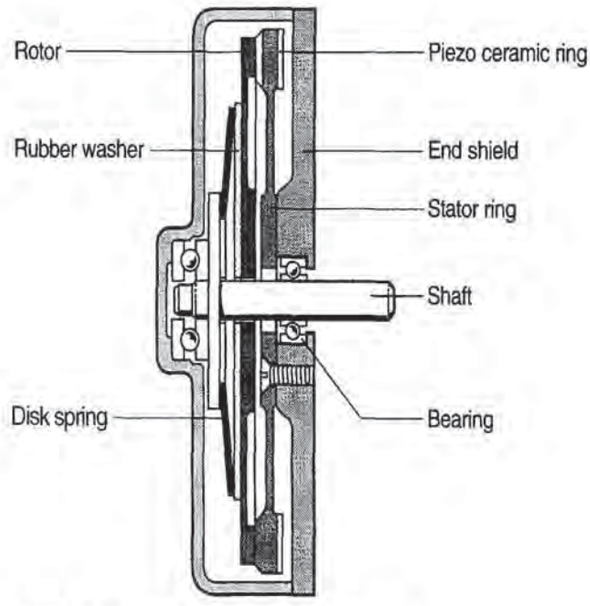


FIGURE 10.35 Traveling-wave motor, Shinsei type.

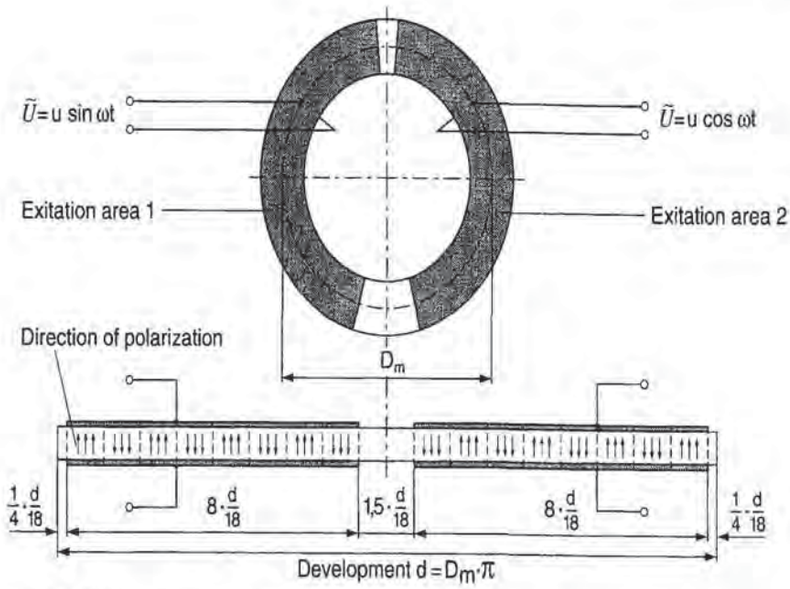


FIGURE 10.36 Segmentation and control of the piezoring.

The electrical contacts are arranged to provide two excitation regions, each featuring eight segments and two small zones. The zone length corresponds to either ½ or 1½ segments. Thus a segment of the excitation zone extends through ⅛ of the stator's circumference. When voltage is applied to an excitation region, the piezos of one polarization direction contract along the circumference direction (lateral piezo effect), while the piezos of the opposite polarization orientation expand. This effect produces a wave-shaped flux in the stator ring in the affected region.

If the region is then excited with ac voltage (for example, 100 V at approximately 40 kHz in existing motors), the result is an oscillation pattern which extends to encompass the entire stator ring. Excitation in the frequency of the ninth flex mode of the stator provokes a standing wave on the entire stator. Resonance step-up is employed to achieve amplitudes of 20 μm.

If an excitation current is now applied at the second excitation region with ac voltage at a 90° lateral displacement, the two waves overlap to form a traveling wave.

In addition to the up and down motion, one point on the upper surface of the stator produces—by means of tilting movement of those teeth which are situated above the neutral axis—a motion along the periphery (±2 μm). When the two motions combine, the surface points move in an elliptical pattern (Fig. 10.37).

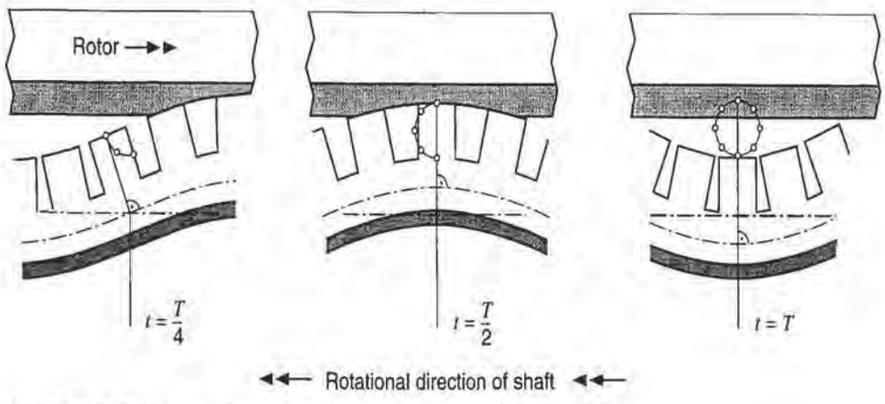


FIGURE 10.37 Drive mechanism.

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A disc spring and a rubber washer are pressing the disk-shaped rotor in Fig. 10.35 against the stator. The elliptical motion of the stator teeth drives the rotor through friction contact with its contact layer. Speed is adjusted by, for example, varying the excitation frequency, with the stator's oscillation amplitude being monitored.

The salient characteristics of the ultrasonic motor are: high torque (up to 1.3 Nm), low rpm range (30 . . . 130 rpm), bidirectional operation, substantial characteristic retension force, free of clearance, no run-on, potentially precise positioning, noiseless operation, and flat unit configuration.

Ultrasonic motors are suitable for use as direct-drive devices. The disadvantages include the substantial, high-frequency control voltage, and the limitations on service life due to wear on the friction surface.

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GLOSSARY

Actuator The part of an open-loop or closed-loop control system which connects the electronic control unit with the process. The actuator consists of a transformer and a final-control element. Electric positioning signals are converted to mechanical output.

Closed-loop control A process by which a variable is continuously measured, compared with a reference variable, and changes as a result of this comparison in such a manner that the deviation from the reference variable is reduced. The purpose of closed-loop control is to bring the value of the output variable as close as possible to the value specified by the reference variable in spite of disturbances. In contrast to open-loop control, a closed-loop control system acts to offset the effect of all disturbances.

Commutator The commutator is a current switcher. For dc machines, the commutator switches the armature windings so that the resultant force always acts in the same rotary direction. This requires a reversal of the armature winding connection every 180°. The current supply to the armature is via brushes which contact the commutator.

Eddy current In metals moving in an inhomogeneous magnetic field or located in a changing magnetic field, induced currents circulate throughout the volume. Because of their general circulatory nature, these currents are referred to as eddy currents.

Ferrite magnet In small transformers where eddy current losses must be kept to a minimum, the cores are made of ferrites which are complex oxides of iron and other metals. These materials are ferromagnetic, but have relatively high resistivity.

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Final-control element The second or last stage of an actuator to control mechanical output.

Numeric field calculation A method of numerically calculating fields with the help of computer programs, such as the methods of finite differences or finite elements.

Open-loop control A process within a system in which one or more input variables act on output variables based on the inherent characteristics of the system. An open control loop is a series of elements that act on one another as links in a chain. In an open control loop, only disturbances that are measured by the control unit can be addressed. The open loop has no effect on other disturbances.

Peripheral magnetic voltage The line integral of the magnetic field strength around a closed path.

$$V_m = \oint \mathbf{H} \cdot d\mathbf{s}$$

According to Ampere's law, the peripheral magnetic voltage is equal to the magnetomotive force Θ.

Piezoelectric effect The direct piezoelectric effect is the ability of a piezoelectric crystal to produce an electric voltage when subjected to a force. The inverse piezoelectric effect is the ability of a piezoelectric crystal to deform when subjected to an electric voltage.

Pilot-controlled actuator An actuator that uses one or more additional energy sources to transform the input signal to an output signal. The pilot-controlled actuator consists of a chain of energy positioners and energy transformers that produces an amplification due to their series configuration.

Self-induction Every current is surrounded by a magnetic field with field lines that are interlinked with the current lines. This leads to an induced source voltage in the conductor or coil when the current strength is changed. This phenomenon is called self-induction.

Weiss' domains Ferromagnetic materials have strong interaction among the atoms. Spontaneous local magnetization can occur, even though no external magnetic field is present. These so-called Weiss' domains, sized from 0.01 to 1 mm, are small elementary magnets, which are randomly distributed in the material and are first directed when an external field is applied.

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CONTROL SYSTEMS

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CHAPTER 11
AUTOMOTIVE MICROCONTROLLERS

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A microcontroller can be found at the heart of almost any automotive electronic control module or ECU in production today. Automotive systems such as antilock braking control (ABS), engine control, navigation, and vehicle dynamics all incorporate at least one microcontroller within their ECU to perform necessary control functions. Understanding the various features and offerings of microcontrollers that are available on the market today is important when making a selection for an application. This chapter is intended to provide a look at various microcontroller features and provide some insight into their characteristics from an automotive application point of view.

11.1 MICROCONTROLLER ARCHITECTURE AND PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS

A microcontroller can essentially be thought of as a single-chip computer system and is often referred to as a single-chip microcomputer. It detects and processes input signals, and responds by asserting output signals to the rest of the ECU. Fabricated upon this highly integrated, single piece of silicon are all of the features necessary to perform embedded control functions. Microcontrollers are fabricated by many manufacturers and are offered in just about any imaginable mix of memory, I/O, and peripheral sets. The user customizes the operation of the microcontroller by programming it with his or her own unique program. The program configures the microcontroller to detect external events, manipulate the collected data, and respond with appropriate output. The user's program is commonly referred to as code and typically resides on-chip in either ROM or EPROM. In some cases where an excessive amount of code space is required, memory may exist off-chip on a separate piece of silicon. After power-up, a microcontroller executes the user's code and performs the desired embedded control function.

Microcontrollers differ from microprocessors in several ways. Microcontrollers can be thought of as a complete microcomputer on a chip that integrates a CPU with memory and various peripherals such as analog-to-digital converters (A/D), serial communication units (SIO, SSIO), high-speed input and output units (HSIO, EPA, PWM), timer/counter units, and

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standard low-speed input/output ports (LSIO). Microcontrollers are designed to be embedded within event-driven control applications and generally have all necessary peripherals integrated onto the same piece of silicon. Microcontrollers are utilized in applications ranging from automotive ABS to household appliances in which the microcontroller's function is predefined and limited user interface is required.

Microprocessors, on the other hand, typically require external peripheral devices to perform their intended function and are not suited to be utilized in single-chip designs. Microprocessors basically consist of a CPU with register arrays and interrupt handlers. Peripherals such as A/D and HSIO are rarely integrated onto microprocessor silicon. Microprocessors are designed to process large quantities of data and have the capability to handle large amounts of external memory. Although microprocessors are typically utilized in applications which are much more human-interface and I/O intensive such as personal computers and office workstations, they are beginning to find their way into embedded applications.

Choosing a microcontroller for an application is a process that takes careful investigation and thought. Items such as memory size, frequency, bus size, I/O requirements, and temperature range are all basic requirements that must be considered when choosing a microcontroller. The microcontroller family must possess the performance capability necessary to successfully accomplish the intended task. The family should also provide a memory, I/O, and frequency growth path that allows easy upgradability to meet market demands. Additionally, the microcontroller must meet the application's thermal requirements in order to guarantee functionality over the intended operating temperature range. Items such as these must all be considered when choosing a microcontroller for an automotive application.

11.1.1 Block Diagram

Usually the first item a designer will see when opening a microcontroller data book or data sheet is a block diagram. A block diagram provides a high-level pictorial representation of a microcontroller and depicts the various peripherals, I/O, and memory functions the microcontroller has to offer. The block diagram gives the designer a quick indication if the particular microcontroller will meet the basic memory, I/O, and peripheral needs of their application. Figure 11.1 shows a block diagram for a state-of-the-art microcontroller. It depicts 32 Kbytes

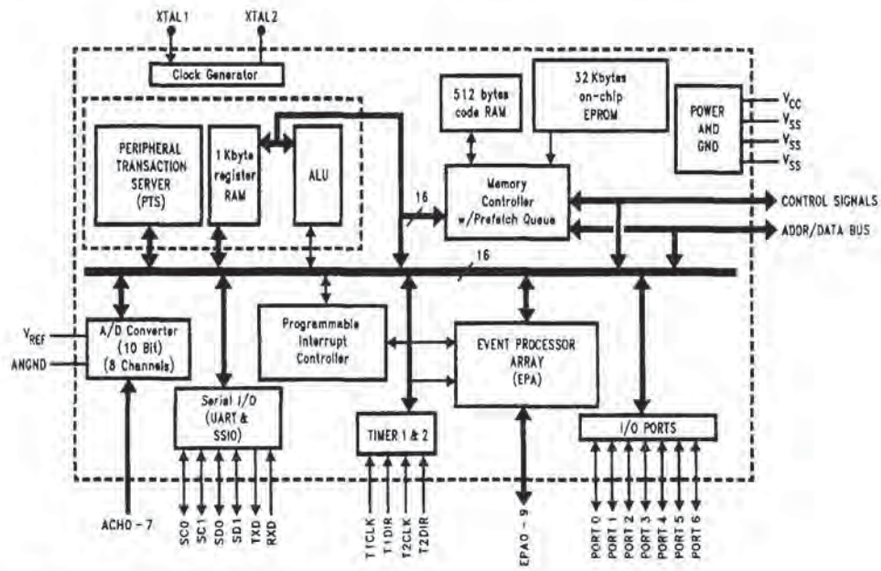


FIGURE 11.1 Microcontroller block diagram.

of EPROM, 1 Kbyte of register RAM, 6 I/O ports, an A-to-D converter, 2 timers, high-speed input/output (I/O) channels, as well as many other peripherals. These features may be "excessive" to a designer looking for a microcontroller to implement in an automotive trip-computer application but would be excellently suited for automotive ABS/traction control or engine control.

11.1.2 Pin-Out Diagram

A microcontroller's pin-out diagram is used to specify the functions assigned to pins relative to their position on a given package. An example pin-out diagram is shown in Fig. 11.2. Note that most pins have multiple functions assigned to them. Pins that can support more than one function are referred to as multifunction pins. The default function for multifunction pins is normally that of low-speed input and output (discussed later in this chapter). If the user should wish to select the secondary or special function associated with the pin, he or she can do so by writing to the appropriate special function register. There are some exceptions. A good example is pins used for interfacing to external memory. If the device is instructed to power-up executing from external memory as opposed to on-chip memory, the address data bus and associated control pins will revert to their special function as opposed to low-speed I/O.

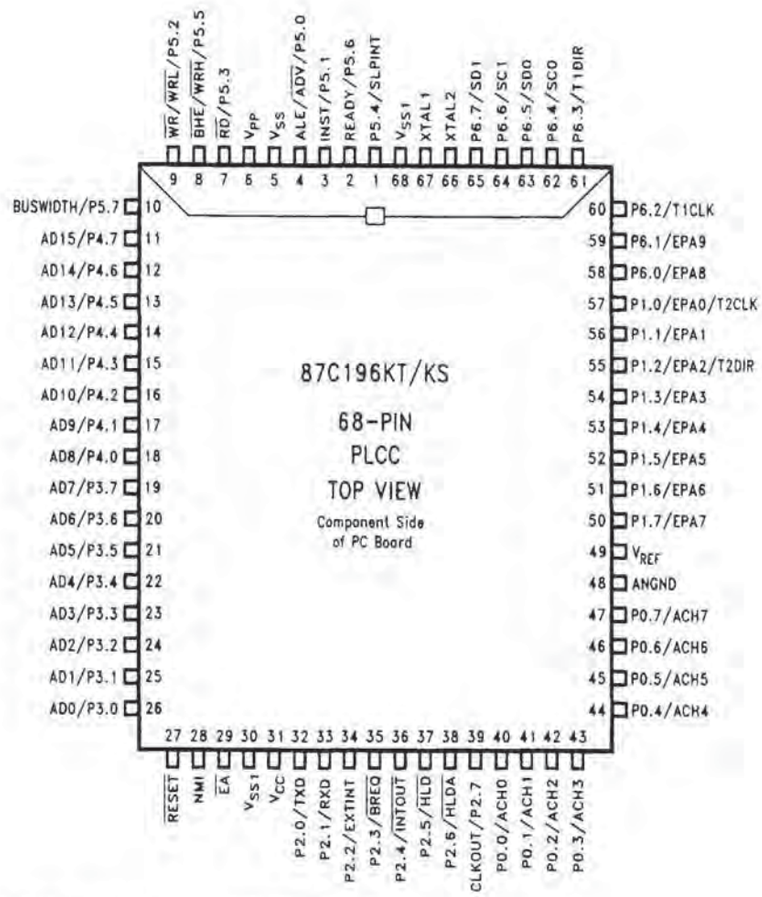


FIGURE 11.2 Microcontroller pin-out diagram.

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11.1.3 Central Processing Unit

The central processing unit or CPU can be thought of as the brain of a microcontroller. The CPU is the circuitry within a microcontroller where instructions are executed and decisions are made. Mathematical calculations, data processing, and control signal generation all take place within the CPU. Major components of the CPU include the arithmetic logic unit (ALU), register file, instruction register, and a microcode engine. The CPU is connected to the bus controller and other peripherals via a bidirectional data bus.

Microcontrollers are, for the most part, digital devices. As digital devices, microcontrollers utilize a binary numbering system with a base of 2. Binary data digits or *bits* are expressed as either a logic "1" (boolean value of true) or a logic "0" (boolean value of false). In a 5-V system, a logic "1" may be simply defined as a +5-V state and a logic "0" may be defined as a 0-V state. A bit is a single memory or register location that can contain either a logic "1" or a logic "0" state. Bits of data can be arranged as a *nibble* (4 bits of data), a *byte* (8 bits of data), or as a *word* (16 bits of data). It should also be noted that, in some instances, a word may be defined as the data width that a given microcontroller can recognize at a time, be it 8 bits or 16 bits. For purposes of this chapter, we will refer to a word as being 16 bits. Data can also be expressed as a double word which is an unsigned 32-bit variable with a value between 0 and 4,294,967,295. Most architectures support this data only for shifts, dividends of a 32-by-16 divide, or for the product of a 16-by-16 multiply.

The most common way of referring to a microcontroller is by the width of its CPU. This indicates the width of data that the CPU can process at a time. A microcontroller with a CPU that can process 8 bits of data at a time is referred to as an 8-bit microcontroller. A microcontroller with a CPU that can process 16 bits of data at a time is referred to as a 16-bit microcontroller. With this in mind, it is easy to see why 16-bit microcontrollers offer higher performance than their 8-bit counterparts. Figure 11.3 illustrates a typical 16-bit CPU dia-

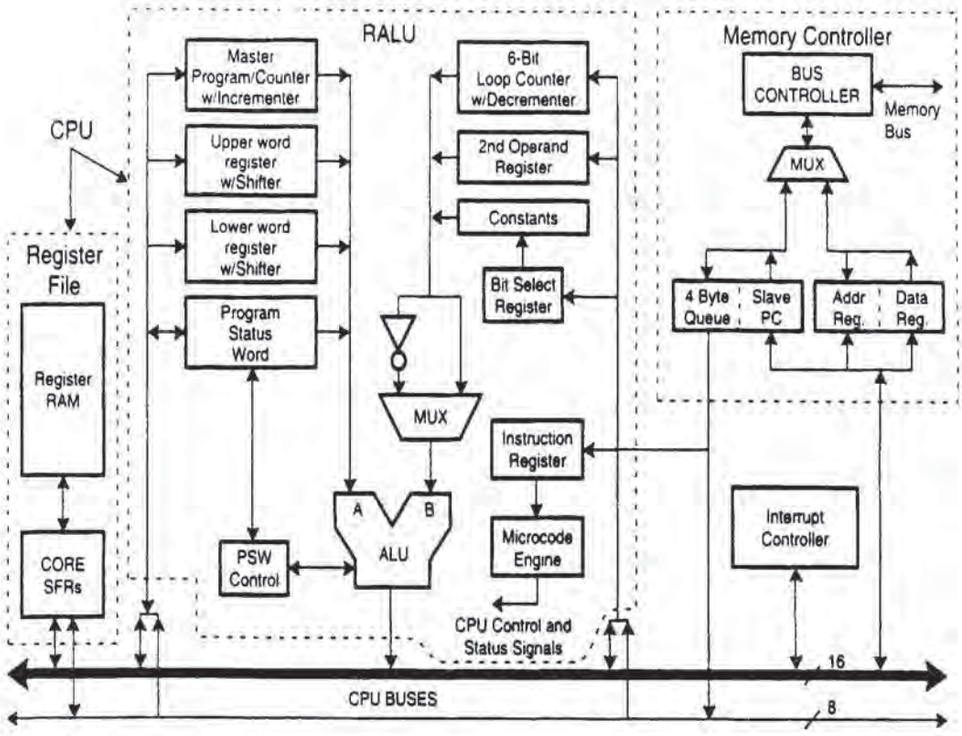


FIGURE 11.3 16-bit CPU.

gram. The microcode engine controls the CPU. Instructions to the CPU are taken from the instruction queue and temporarily stored in the instruction register. This queue is often referred to as a *prefetch queue* and it decreases execution time by staging instructions to be executed. The microcode engine then decodes the instructions and generates the correct sequence of events to have the ALU perform the desired function(s).

Arithmetic Logic Unit. The ALU is the portion of the CPU that performs most mathematical and logic operations. After an instruction is decoded by the microcode engine, the data specified by the instruction is loaded into the ALU for processing. The ALU then processes the data as specified by the instruction.

Register File. The register file consists of memory locations that are used as temporary storage locations while the user's code is executing. The register file is implemented as RAM and consists of both RAM memory locations and special function registers (SFRs). RAM memory locations are used as temporary data storage during execution of the user's code. After power-up, RAM memory locations default to a logic "0" and data in SFR locations contain default values as specified by the microcontroller manufacturer.

Special Function Registers. SFRs allow the user to configure and monitor various peripherals and functions of the microcontroller. By writing specific data to an SFR, the users can configure the microcontroller to meet the exact needs of their application. Figure 11.4 shows an example of a serial port SFR used for configuration. Note that each bit location within the SFR determines a specific function and can be programmed to either a logic "1" or "0". If more than two configuration choices are possible, two or more bits will be combined to produce the multiple choices. An example of this would be the mode bits (M1 and M2) in the example SFR (Fig. 11.4). Bit locations marked "RSV" are reserved and should be written to with a value as indicated by the manufacturer.

SP_CON (1FBBH)

7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
0	0	PAR	TB8	REN	PEN	M2	M1

M2, M1	Mode	Function
	00	Mode 0: Synchronous
	01	Mode 1: Standard asynchronous
	10	Mode 2: Asynchronous (receiver interrupt on 9th bit = 1)*
	11	Mode 3: Asynchronous (9th bit = parity or data)**
PEN	Parity Enable. Enables the Parity function for Mode 1 or Mode 3; cannot be enabled for Mode 2.	
REN	Receiver Enable. Enables the receiver to write to SBUF_RX.	
TB8	Transmission Bit 8. Set the ninth data bit for transmission (Modes 2 and 3). Cleared after each transmission; not valid if parity is enabled.	
PAR***	0 = even parity 1 = odd parity	
Bits 6, 7	Reserved; write as zeros for future product compatibility.	

* Mode 2: Asynchronous (receiver: interrupt on 9th bit = 1; transmitter: 9th bit = TB8)
** Mode 3: Asynchronous (receiver: always interrupt on 9th bit; transmitter: 9th bit = parity for PEN = 1
*** Par bit only available on 8XC196KT and KS devices. 9th bit = TB8 for PEN = 0
For 8XC196KR, JR, KQ, JQ devices, this bit should be written as a zero to maintain compatibility with future devices.

FIGURE 11.4 Special function control register example.

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SP_STAT (1FB9H)

7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
RB8/RPE	RI	TI	FE	TXE	OE	X	X

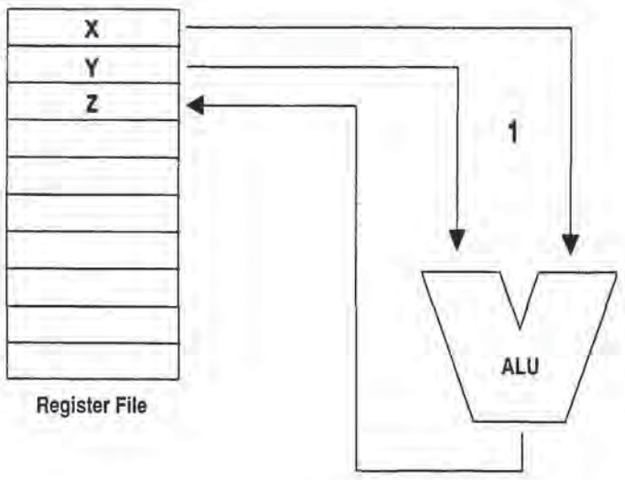
Bits 0, 1	Reserved; ignore data.
OE	Set on buffer overrun error.
TXE	Set on transmitter empty. When set may write 2 bytes to transmit buffer.
FE	Framing error; set it no STOP bit is found at the end of a reception. When set may write 1 byte to transmit buffer.
TI	Transmit interrupt; set at the beginning of the STOP bit transmission.
RI	Receive interrupt; set after the last data bit is received.
RPE	(Parity enabled) Receive parity error (Modes 1 and 3 only); set if parity is enabled and a parity error occurred.
RB8	(Parity disabled) Received Bit 8 (Modes 2 and 3 only); set if the 9th bit is high on reception.

FIGURE 11.5 Special function status register example.

Some SFRs can be read by the user to determine the current status of a given peripheral. Figure 11.5 shows an example of a serial port status register that, when read, indicates the current status of the microcontroller's serial port. Note that each bit location corresponds to a particular state of the serial port. Bit locations marked "RSV" are reserved and should be ignored when read.

Register Direct vs. Accumulator-Based Architectures. Microcontroller architectures can be classified as either the register-direct or accumulator-based type. These terms refer to the means by which the CPU must handle data when performing mathematical, logical, or storage operations.

Register-direct architectures allow the programmer to essentially use most, if not all, of the microcontroller's entire RAM array as individual accumulators. That is, the programmer can perform mathematical or storage operations directly upon any of the RAM locations. This simplifies task switching because program variables may be left in their assigned registers while servicing interrupts. Figure 11.6 illustrates a register-to-register type architecture (such

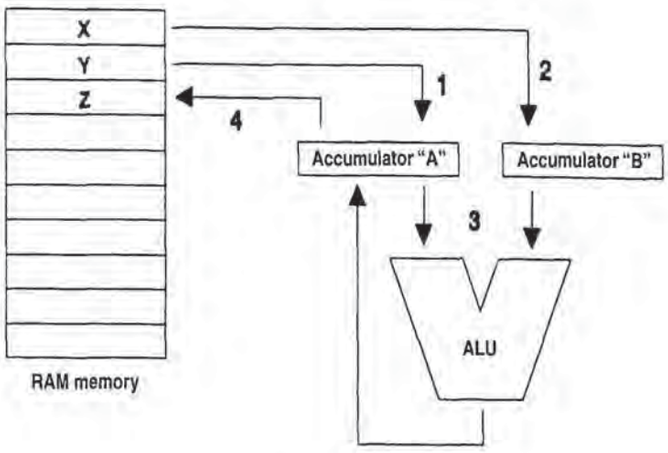



```
Z=X+Y
1. MUL Z,X,Y
```

FIGURE 11.6 Register-to-register architecture example.

as Intel's MCS®-96). This architecture essentially has 232 "accumulators" (more are available through a windowing mechanism) of which any can be operated on directly by the RALU. The true advantage of this type of architecture is that it reduces accumulator bottleneck and speeds throughput during program execution.

Accumulator-based architectures require the user to first store the data to be manipulated into a temporary storage location, referred to as an "accumulator," prior to performing any type of data operation. After the operation is completed, the user program must then store the result to the desired destination location. Figure 11.7 depicts an example of an accumulator-based architecture.




```
Z = X + Y

1. LD A,Y
2. LD B,X
3. MUL A,B
4. ST A,Z
```

FIGURE 11.7 Accumulator-based architecture.

Program Counter. The Program Counter (PC) controls the sequencing of instructions to be executed. The PC is a 16-bit register located within the CPU which holds the address of the next instruction to be executed. After an instruction is fetched, the PC is automatically incremented to point to the next instruction.

SP starting address (SP+12):	
(SP+10):	80FFh
(SP+8):	A5A5h
(SP+6):	6E20h
(SP+4):	5555h
(SP+2):	0000h
SP ending address (SP):	8000h

FIGURE 11.8 Stack pointer example.

Stack and Stack Pointer. The stack is an area of memory (typically user-assigned) that is used to store data temporarily in a FILO (first-in, last-out) fashion. The stack is primarily used for storing program information (such as the program counter or interrupt mask registers) when an interrupt service routine is invoked. It is also sometimes used to pass variables between subroutines. The stack is typically accessed through PUSH and POP instructions. Execution of the PUSH instruction "pushes" the contents of the specified operand onto the stack whereas the

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POP instruction "pops" the contents of the specified operand off of the stack. The stack pointer (SP) is a register which points to the next available word location on the stack. Consider the example shown in Fig. 11.8 which shows the contents of the stack after the following code sequence is executed:

PUSH #80FFh	pushes immediate data 80FFh onto stack
PUSH #0A5A5h	pushes immediate data A5A5h onto stack
PUSH 82h	pushes data @ 82h (assume it's 6E20h) onto stack
PUSH #5555h	pushes immediate data 5555h onto stack
PUSH 4Eh	pushes data @ 4Eh (assume it's 0000h) onto stack
PUSH #8000h	pushes immediate data 8000h onto stack

Continuing with the preceding example, if a POP instruction were executed, the data at the current SP address (SP) would be "popped" off the stack and stored to the address specified by the instruction's operand. Executing the POP instruction results in the SP being incremented by 2.

Program Status Word and Flags. The program status word (PSW) is a collection of boolean flags which retain information concerning the state of the user's program. These flags are set or cleared depending upon the result obtained after executing certain instructions as specified by the microcontroller manufacturer. PSW flags are not directly accessible by the user's program; access is typically through instructions which test one or more of the flags to determine proper program flow. Following is a summary of common PSW flags as supported by Intel's MCS-96® architecture:

Z: The *Zero* flag is set when an operation generates a result equal to zero. The Z flag is never set by the add-with-carry (ADDC/ADDCB) or subtract-with-carry (SUBC/SUBCB) instructions, but is cleared if the result is nonzero. These two instructions are normally used in conjunction with ADD/ADDB and SUB/SUBB instructions to perform multiple-precision arithmetic. The operation of the Z flag for these instructions leaves it indicating the proper result for the entire multiple-precision calculation.

N: The *Negative* flag is set when an operation generates a negative result. Note that the N flag will be in the algebraically correct state even if overflow occurs. For shift operations, the N flag is set to the same value as the most significant bit of the result.

V: The *oVerflow* flag is set when an operation generates a result that is outside the range for the destination data type. For shift-left instructions, the V flag is set if the most significant bit of the operand changes at any time during the shift. For an unsigned word divide, the V flag is set if the quotient is greater than 65,535. For a signed word divide, the V flag is set if the quotient is less than –32,768 or greater than 32,767.

VT: The *oVerflow Trap* flag is set when the V flag is set, but it is only cleared by instructions which are specially designated to clear the VT flag (such as CLRVT, JVT, and JNVT). The VT flag allows for testing possible overflow conditions at the end of a sequence of related arithmetic operations. This is normally more efficient than testing the V flag after each instruction.

C: The *Carry* flag is set to indicate either (1) the state of the arithmetic carry from the most significant bit of the ALU for an arithmetic operation or (2) the state of the last bit shifted out of an operand for a shift. Arithmetic borrow after a subtract operation is the complement of the C flag (i.e., if the operation generated a borrow, then C = 0).

ST: The *STicky* bit flag is set to indicate that, during a right shift, a 1 has been shifted first into the C flag and then shifted out. The ST flag can be used along with the C flag to control rounding after a right shift. Imprecise rounding can be a major source of error in a numerical calculation; use of both the C and ST flags can increase accuracy as described in the following paragraphs.

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Consider multiplying two 8-bit quantities and then scaling the result down to 12 bits:

```
MULUB   AX, CL, DL    (CL * DL = AX)
SHR     AX, #4        (AX is shifted right by 4 bits)
```

If the C flag is set after the shift, it indicates that the bits shifted off the end of the operand were greater than or equal to one-half the least significant bit of the 12-bit result. If the C flag is cleared after the shift, it indicates that the bits shifted off the end of the operand were less than half the LSB of the 12-bit result. Without the ST flag, the rounding decision must be made on the basis of the C flag alone. (Normally the result would be rounded up if the C flag is set.) The ST flag allows a finer resolution in the rounding decision as shown here:

C	ST	Bits shifted off
0	0	Value = 0
0	1	0 < Value < ½ LSB
1	0	Value = ½ LSB
1	1	Value > ½ LSB

Jump instructions are the most common instructions to utilize PSW flags for determining the operation to perform. Instructions that test PSW flags are very useful when program flow needs to be altered dependent upon the outcome of an arithmetic operation. The most common example of this would be for program loops that are to be executed a certain number of times. Following are examples of several MCS-96 instructions whose operation is dependent upon the state of one or more program status word flags:

JC (Jump if C flag is set.) If the C (carry) bit is set, the program will jump to the address location specified by the operand. If the C flag is cleared, control will pass to the next sequential instruction.

JGT (Jump if signed greater than.) If both the N (negative) and the Z (zero) flags are clear, the program will jump to the address location specified by the operand. If either of the flags is set, control will pass to the next sequential instruction.

JLE (Jump if signed less than or equal.) If either the N or Z flags is set, the program will jump to the address location specified by the operand. If both the N and Z flags are cleared, control will pass to the next sequential instruction.

11.1.4 Bus Controller

The bus controller serves as the interface between the CPU and the internal program memory and the external memory spaces. The bus controller maintains a queue (commonly called the prefetch queue) of prefetched instruction bytes and responds to CPU requests for data memory references. The prefetch queue decreases execution time by staging instructions to be executed. The capacities of prefetch queues vary but for the MCS-96 architecture, it is 4 bytes deep.

When using a logic analyzer to debug code it is important to consider the effects of the prefetch queue. It is not possible to accurately determine when an instruction will execute by simply watching when it is fetched from external memory. This is because the prefetch queue is filled in advance of instruction execution. It is also important to consider the effects when a jump or branch occurs during program execution. When the program sequence changes because of a jump, interrupt, call, or return, the PC is loaded with the new address, the queue is flushed and processing continues. Consider the situation in which the external address/data bus is being monitored when a program branch occurs. Because of the prefetch queue, it will appear as if instructions past the branch point were executed, when in fact they were only loaded into the prefetch queue.

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11.1.5 Frequency of Operation

Microcontrollers are being offered in an ever-increasing range of operating frequencies. Most high-end automotive applications currently use microcontrollers operating in the 12- to 20-MHz range, with 24 MHz becoming not so uncommon. Microcontrollers with frequencies as high as 30 and 32 MHz are available as prototypes and will soon be available for production. Operating frequency becomes especially important when a microcontroller must perform high-speed event control such as required in ABS braking and engine control. Applications such as these typically have to detect, calculate, and respond to external events within a given amount of time. In ABS applications, this time is commonly referred to as loop time and defines the amount of time that the microcontroller has to execute the main loop of the software algorithm to achieve optimal performance.

Operating frequency can be directly related to the speed at which a microcontroller will execute the user's code. For instance, let's look at how long it takes for a particular microcontroller to execute the following generic subroutine. For this example, consider the execution times rather than the operations each instruction is performing.

```
(6)  PUSHF
(3)  NOTB   PTS_COUNT_EPA1
(5)  ADDB   NUM_OF_PULSES_1, PTS_COUNT_EPA1, #00h
(5)  SUB    INV_SPEED_1, FTIME_1, ITIME_1
(27) DIV    INV_SPEED_1, NUM_OF_PULSES_1
(5)  LD     Temp1+2, #Speed_high_constant
(5)  LD     Temp1, #Speed_low_constant
(27) DIV    Temp1, INV_SPEED_1
(4)  ST     Temp1, EPA1_FREQ
(11) RET
```

In this example, the numbers in brackets {} denote how many state times it will take the microcontroller to execute the given line of code. A state time is the basic time measurement for all microcontroller operations. For this MCS-96 family microcontroller, a state time is based on the crystal frequency divided by two. A state time for other microcontrollers may be based upon the crystal frequency divided by three. For this particular microcontroller, a state time can be calculated by the following formula (other microcontroller families use similar formulas):

$$1 \text{ state time} = 1[(\text{frequency of operation})/2]$$

Applying this formula, 1 state time = 125 ns when operating at 16 MHz, and 167 ns when operating at 12 MHz. The example code sequence takes the microcontroller 98 state times to execute. This equates to 16.37 μs to execute at an operating frequency of 12 MHz. At 16 MHz, it takes only 12.25 μs for the microcontroller to execute the subroutine. An operating frequency of 16 MHz results in the microcontroller executing approximately 34 percent more instructions in a given time than at a frequency of 12 MHz.

Another consideration when choosing an operating frequency is the clocking resolution of on-chip timer/counters. The maximum clocking rate of on-chip timer/counters is limited by the frequency the microcontroller is being clocked at. As an example, if an on-chip timer/counter is set up to increment/decrement at a rate determined by CLOCK/4, this would result in 333 ns resolution at 12 MHz. However, if the clock speed were increased to 16 MHz, a higher and more desirable resolution of 250 ns is achieved.

11.1.6 Instruction Set

An often overlooked feature that gives a microcontroller the capability to perform desired operations and manipulate data is its instruction set. A microcontroller's instruction set con-

sists of a set of unique commands which the programmer uses to instruct the microcontroller on what operation to perform.

An *instruction* is a binary command which is recognized by the CPU as a request to perform a certain operation. Examples of typically supported operations are loads, moves, and stores which transfer data from one memory location to another. There are also jumps and branches which are used to alter program flow. Arithmetic instructions include various multiples, divides, subtracts, additions, increments, and decrements. Instructions such as ANDs, ORs, XORs, shifts, and so forth, allow the user to perform logical operations upon data. In addition to these basic instructions, microcontrollers often support specialized instructions unique to their architecture or intended application.

Instructions can be divided into two parts, the *opcode* and *operand.* The opcode (sometimes referred to as the machine instruction) specifies the operation to take place and the operand specifies the data to be operated upon. Instructions typically consist of either 0, 1, 2, or 3 operands to support various operations. As an example, consider the following MCS-96 architecture instructions:

PUSHF (0 operands) is an instruction that pushes the program status word (PSW) onto the stack. Since this instruction operates on a predefined location, no operand is necessary.

Format: PUSHF

PUSH (1 operand) is an instruction that pushes the specified word operand onto the stack.

Format: PUSH (SRC)

ADD (2 operands) adds two words together and places the result in the destination (leftmost) operand location.

Format: ADD (DST),(SRC)

ADD (3 operands) adds two words together as the 2-operand ADD instruction, but in this case, a third operand is specified as the destination.

Format: ADD (DEST),(SRC1),(SRC2)

Instructions support one or more of six basic addressing types to access operands within the address space of the microcontroller. If programmers wish to take full advantage of a microcontroller architecture, it is important that they fully understand the details of the supported addressing types. The six basic types of addressing modes are termed register-direct, indirect, indirect with autoincrement, immediate, short-indexed, and long-indexed. The following descriptions describe these modes as they are handled by hardware in register-to-register architectures.

The *register-direct* addressing mode is used to directly access registers within the lower 256 bytes of the on-chip register file. The register is selected by an 8-bit field within the instruction and the register address must conform to the operand type's alignment rules. Depending upon the instruction, typically up to three registers can take part in the calculation.

Examples:

ADD AX,BX,CX	AX = BX + CX
MUL AX,BX	AX = AX*BX
INCB CL	CL = CL + 1

The *indirect addressing* mode accesses a word in the lower register file containing the 16-bit operand address. The indirect address can refer to an operand anywhere within the address space of the microcontroller. The register containing the indirect address is selected by an 8-bit field within the instruction. An instruction may contain only one indirect reference; the remaining operands (if any) must be register-direct references.

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Examples:

LD BX,[AX] BX = mem_word(AX)

In this example, assume that before execution:

contents of AX = 2FC2h

contents of 2FC2h = 3F26h

Then after execution,

contents of BX = 3F26h

ADDB AL,BL,[CX] AL = BL + mem_byte(CX)

The *indirect with autoincrement* addressing mode is the same as the indirect mode except that the variable that contains the indirect address is autoincremented after it is used to address the operand. If the instruction operates on bytes or short integers, the indirect address variable is incremented by one; if it operates on words or integers, the indirect address will be incremented by two.

Examples:

LD BX,[AX]+	BX = mem_word(AX)
	AX = AX + 2
ADDB AL,BL,[CX]+	AL = BL + mem_byte(CX)
	CX = CX + 1

For the *immediate addressing* mode, an operand itself is in a field in the instruction. An instruction may contain only one immediate reference; the remaining operand(s) must be register-direct references.

Example:

ADD AX,#340 AX = AX + 340 (decimal)

For the *short-indexed addressing* mode, an 8-bit field in the instruction selects a word variable (which is contained in square brackets) in the lower register file that contains an address. A second 8-bit field in the instruction stream is sign-extended and summed with the word variable to form an operand address.

Since the 8-bit field is sign-extended, the effective address can be up to 128 bytes before the address in the word variable and up to 127 bytes after it. An instruction may contain only one short-indexed reference; the remaining operand(s) must be register-direct references.

Example:

LD AX,4[BX] AX = mem_word(BX + 4)

In this example, assume that before execution:

contents of BX = A152h

The operand address is then A152h + 04h = A156h

The *long-indexed addressing* mode is like the short-indexed mode except that a 16-bit field is taken from the instruction and added to the word variable to form the operand. No sign extension is necessary. An instruction may contain only one long-indexed reference and the remaining operand(s) must be register-direct references.

Examples:

ST AX,TABLE[BX]	mem_word(TABLE + BX) = AX
AND AX,BX,TABLE[CX]	AX = BX and mem_word(TABLE + CX)

11.1.7 Programming Languages

The two most common types of programming languages in use today for automotive microcontrollers are *assembly languages* and *high-level languages* (HLLs). Program development begins with the user writing code in either an assembly language or an HLL. This code is written as a text file and is referred to as a source file. The source file is then assembled or compiled using the appropriate assembler/compiler program. The assembler translates the source code into object code and creates what is referred to as an object file. The object file contains machine language instructions and data that can be loaded into an evaluation tool for debugging and validation. The object can also be converted into a hex file for EPROM programming or ROM mask generation as discussed later in this chapter. The program development process is illustrated in Fig. 11.9.

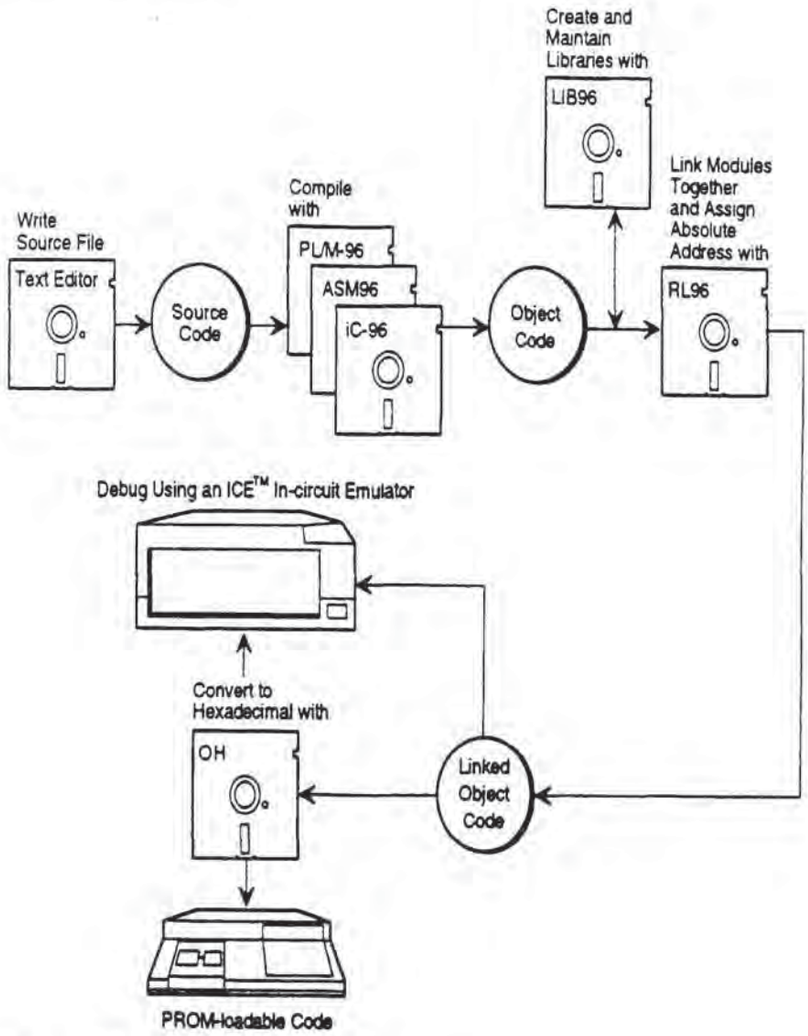


FIGURE 11.9 The program development process.

Assembly Language Programming. An assembly language is a low-level programming language that is specific to a given microcontroller family. Assemblers translate language operation codes (mnemonics) directly into machine instructions that instruct the microcontroller

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on what operation to perform. Because the programmer is essentially using the microcontroller's machine code to write assembly language programs, more precise control of the device can be achieved through the direct manipulation of individual bits within registers. Because of their efficiency, assembly language programs require less code space than high-level languages. Assembly language programs consist of three parts: machine instructions, assembler directives, and assembler controls.

A *machine instruction* is a machine code that can be executed by the microcontroller's CPU. The collection of machine instructions that a particular microcontroller can execute is referred to as its instruction set. An example of a machine instruction is the opcode for the MULB instruction (Fig. 11.10) from Intel's MCS-96 assembly language. MULB is the mnemonic that represents the machine instruction which performs the specified multiplication operation. When executed by the microcontroller, the MULB opcode results in the multiplication of the two byte operands with the result being placed in a word destination location.

MULB (Three Operands)

Format

```
MULB   wreg,breg,baop
```

Operation

The second and third byte operands are multiplied using signed arithmetic and the 16-bit result is stored into the destination (leftmost) operand. The sticky bit flag is undefined after the instruction is executed.

```
(DEST) ← (SRC1) * (SRC2)
```

Opcode Pattern

11111110	01011aa	baop	breg	wreg

Flags Affected ST

Examples

```
MULB    DELTA, TIMER1, #2
MULB    ALPHA, BETA, GAMMA
MULB    ALPHA, DELTA, 10[GAMMA]
```

FIGURE 11.10 Machine instruction example: MULB.

Assembler directives allow the user to specify auxiliary information (such as storage reservation, location counter control, definition of nonexecutable code, object code relocation, and flow of assembler processing) that determines the manner in which the assembler generates object code from the user's source file input.

Assembler controls set the mode of operation for the assembler and direct the flow of the assembly process. Assembler controls can be classified into primary controls and general controls. Primary controls are set at the beginning of the assembly process and cannot be changed during the assembly. Primary controls allow the user to specify items such as print options, page lengths and widths, error messages, and cross-referencing. General controls can be specified in the invocation line or on control lines anywhere in the source file and can appear any number of times in the program. General controls either cause an immediate action or an immediate change of conditions in which the condition specified remains in effect until another general control causes it to change.

High-level Language Programming. Unlike low-level languages (such as assembly languages), a high-level language is a general purpose language that can support numerous microcontroller architectures. The most common high-level language used for automotive

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applications is C. C programs are written with statements rather than specific instructions from a microcontroller's instruction set. High-level languages utilize a software program known as a *compiler* to translate the user's source code into the specific microcontroller's machine language. Each microcontroller family has its own unique compiler to support selected high-level languages. Although high-level languages tend to be less efficient than assembly languages, their advantage lies in ease of writing code and better debugging capability. The use of statements as opposed to specific instructions better suits high-level languages toward control of procedures (to implement complex software algorithms) as opposed to the microcontroller itself.

11.1.8 Interrupt Structure

The interrupt structure is one of the more important features of an automotive microcontroller. Applications such as automotive ABS and engine control can be referred to as event-driven control systems. Event-driven control systems require that normal code execution be halted to allow a higher-priority task or event to take place. These higher-priority tasks are known as interrupts and can initiate a change in the program flow to execute a specialized routine. When an interrupt occurs, instead of executing the next instruction, the CPU branches to an interrupt service routine (ISR). The branch can occur in response to a request from an on-chip peripheral, an external signal, or an instruction. In the simplest case, the microcontroller receives the request, performs the desired operation and returns to the task that was interrupted.

ISRs are typically serviced via software but it is becoming common for microcontroller manufacturers to implement special on-chip hardware ISR functions for commonly performed operations. These ISRs are typically microcoded or *hardwired* into the microcontroller as described later in this section.

Software, or Normal, Servicing of Interrupts. The software servicing of interrupts is fairly straightforward as shown in Fig. 11.11. When an interrupt source is enabled by the user and a

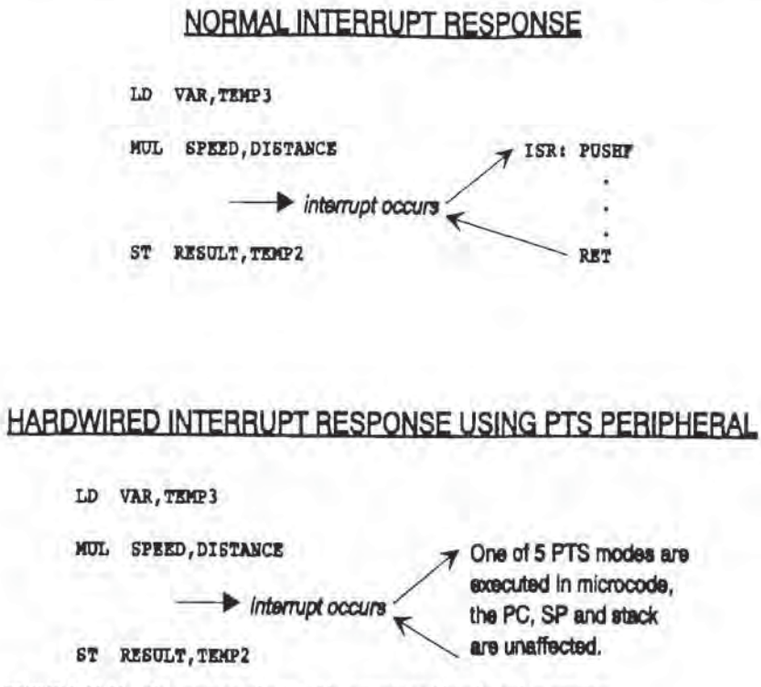


FIGURE 11.11 Comparison of normal interrupts and hardwired interrupts.

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valid interrupt event occurs, the CPU will fetch the starting address of the ISR from the interrupt vector table. The interrupt vector table is a dedicated section of memory that contains the user-programmed start address of the various ISRs. After fetching the ISR address, the CPU automatically pushes the current program counter (PC) onto the stack and loads the PC with the ISR beginning address. This results in the program flow vectoring to the ISR address. The user-programmed ISR is then executed. The last instruction within the ISR is a return instruction that pops the old PC off the stack. This results in program flow continuing from where it was interrupted.

Interrupt mask registers allow the user to prevent or *mask* undesirable interrupts from occurring during various sections of the program. This is a very desirable feature and allows for custom tailoring of the interrupt structure to meet the needs of a particular application. Enabling or disabling of all interrupts (known as globally enabling/disabling) is typically supported with a software instruction such as DI (globally disable all interrupts) or EI (globally enable all interrupts).

Hardware, or Microcoded, Interrupt Structures. Hardware interrupt structures differ from software interrupts in that the user doesn't have to provide the ISR to be executed when the interrupt occurs. With a hardware interrupt structure, the ISR is predefined by being hardwired or *microcoded* into the microcontroller. This is advantageous because it requires less code space and requires less CPU overhead. Stack operations are not necessary since interrupt vectors do not have to be fetched. Most microcontroller manufacturers have their own proprietary solution for hardware ISR's, which are all somewhat similar to one another. For purposes of this section, we will briefly describe the peripheral transaction server as implemented on members of Intel's MCS-96 family of microcontrollers.

The PTS provides a microcoded hardware interrupt handler which can be used in place of a normal ISR. The PTS requires much less overhead than a normal ISR since it operates without modification of the stack. Any interrupt source can be selected by the user to trigger a PTS interrupt in place of a normal ISR. The PTS is similar to a direct memory access (DMA) controller in that when a PTS interrupt, or *cycle*, occurs, data is automatically moved from one location of memory to another as specified by the user. Figure 11.11 compares a regular ISR to a PTS interrupt cycle.

The PTS allows for five modes of operation; single-byte transfer, multiple-byte transfer, PWM, PWM toggle, and A/D scan mode. Each mode is configurable through an 8-byte, user-defined PTS control block (PTSCB) located in RAM. The user may enable virtually any normal interrupt source to be serviced by a PTS interrupt by simply writing to the appropriate bit in an SFR known as the PTS_SELECT register. When a PTS interrupt is enabled and the event occurs, a microcoded interrupt service routine executes in which the contents of the PTSCB are read to determine the specific operation to be performed. More details on the PTSCB can be found in the application example found in this section.

The major advantage of the PTS for automotive applications is its fast response time. The PTS is ideally suited for transferring single or multiple bytes/words of data in response to an interrupt. An example of this is the serial port example which will be described shortly. Another example of the usefulness of the PTS (using A/D scan mode) would be if the user wanted to automatically store A/D conversion results every time a conversion completed within a user-defined scan of A/D channels. The PTS could also be configured to automatically transfer a block of data between memory locations every time an interrupt occurs.

Application Example of PTS Single-Byte Transfer Mode. This example shows how the PTS can be used to automatically transmit and receive 8-byte messages over the serial port. Data to be transmitted and received data are stored in separate tables. The use of the PTS for this purpose greatly reduces CPU overhead and code-space requirements. The layout of the user-defined PTSCB for single-byte transfer mode is shown in Fig. 11.12. PTS_DEST within the PTSCB contains the destination address for the data transfer and PTS_SOURCE contains the source address for the transfer.

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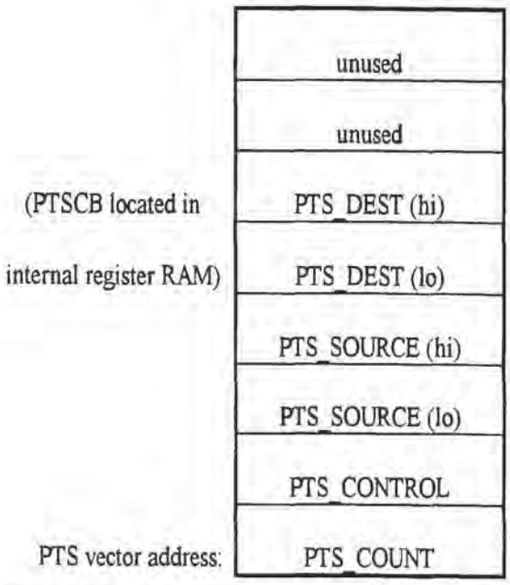


FIGURE 11.12 PTS control block for single-byte transfer mode.

Two PTSCBs are set up for this example, one in response to receive (RX) interrupts and one in response to transmit (TX) interrupts. The RX PTSCB's PTS_DEST is initialized with the start address of the receive data table and the TX PTSCB's PTS_DEST is initialized with the address of the serial port's transmit buffer.

PTS_CONTROL is a byte that specifies the PTS operation to be performed. Its layout is shown in Fig. 11.13.

PTS_COUNT is a down counter that is used to keep track of how many PTS interrupts or cycles have occurred since the last initialization. PTS_COUNT is initialized by the user to any value below 256 and is decremented everytime the corresponding PTS cycle occurs. It is often used to keep track of how many pieces of data have been transferred. In this example, PTS_COUNT is used to determine when a complete 8-byte message has been transmitted or received. After PTS_COUNT expires, an "end-of-PTS" or "normal" ISR occurs, in which the user utilizes the data as required by the application. When an interrupt source is enabled by the user to be a PTS interrupt, the following sequence of events occurs every time the corresponding interrupt occurs:

1. Instead of a normal interrupt, the user has selected it to do a PTS cycle.
2. The microcoded PTS routine fetches the PTS_CONTROL byte from the PTSCB whose start address is specified by the user in the PTS interrupt vector table. The microcoded PTS routine then:

   reads data to be transferred from address specified by PTS_SOURCE

   writes the data to address specified by PTS_DEST

   optionally increments/updates PTS_SOURCE and PTS_DEST addresses

   decrements PTS_COUNT
3. When PTS_COUNT reaches "0", an end of PTS interrupt occurs and the normal ISR is executed in which the user utilizes the received data as necessary (for RX interrupts) or reloads the transmit table with new data (for TX interrupts).

Interrupt Latency. Interrupt latency is defined as the time from when the interrupt event occurs (not when it is acknowledged) to when the microcontroller begins executing the first

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PTS_CONTROL BYTE (for single and multiple-byte transfers)

7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
M2	M1	M0	B/W	SU	DU	SI	DI

M2, M1, M0:	Mode	Function
	000	PTS Block Transfer
	100	PTS Single Transfer

B/W:	Byte/Word:	"0" = Word; "1" = Byte
SU:	Source Update:	"1" = update source address
DU:	Destination Update:	"1" = update destination address
SI:	Increment Source:	"1" = Increment Source address
DI:	Increment Destination:	"1" = Increment Destination address

FIGURE 11.13 PTS control byte for single- and multiple-byte transfer modes.

instruction of the interrupt service routine. Interrupt latency must be carefully considered in timing-critical code as is found in many automotive applications.

There is a delay between an interrupt's triggering and its acknowledgment. An interrupt is not acknowledged until the currently executing instruction is finished. Further, if the interrupt signal does not occur at least some specified (assume four for this discussion) state times before the end of the current instruction, the interrupt may not be acknowledged until after the next instruction has been executed. This is because an instruction is fetched and prepared for execution a few state times before it is actually executed. Thus, the maximum delay between interrupt generation and its acknowledgment is approximately four state times plus the execution time of the next instruction.

It should also be noted that most microcontrollers have protected instructions (such as RETURN, PUSH, POP) which inhibit interrupt acknowledgment until after the following instruction is executed. These instructions can increase interrupt-to-acknowledgment delay.

When an interrupt is acknowledged, the interrupt pending bit is cleared and a call is forced to the location indicated by the corresponding interrupt vector. This call occurs after the completion of the current instruction, except as noted previously. For the MCS-96 architecture, the procedure of fetching the interrupt vector and forcing the call requires 16 state times. The stack being located in external memory will add an additional two state times to this number.

Latency is the time from when an interrupt is generated (not acknowledged) until the microcontroller begins executing interrupt code. The maximum latency occurs when an inter-

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rupt occurs too late for acknowledgment following the current instruction. The worst case is calculated assuming that the current instruction is not a protected one. The worst-case latency is the sum of three terms:

1. The time for the current instruction to finish (assume four state times).
2. The state times required for the next instruction. This time is basically the time it takes to execute the longest instruction used in the user's code (assume it's a 16-state DIV instruction).
3. The response time (assume 16 states, 18 for an externally located stack).

Thus, for this scenario, the maximum delay would be 4 + 16 + 16 = 36 state times. This equates to approximately 4.5 μs for a MCS-96 microcontroller operating at 16 MHz. This latency can increase or decrease depending upon the longest execution-time instruction used. Figure 11.14 illustrates an example of this worst-case scenario.

Interrupt latency can be reduced by carefully selecting instructions in areas of code where interrupts are expected. Using a protected instruction followed immediately by a long instruction increases the maximum latency because an interrupt cannot occur after the protected instruction.

11.1.9 Fabrication Processes

The basic fabrication processes that are widely used for automotive microcontrollers today are NMOS (N-channel metal-oxide semiconductor) and CMOS (complementary MOS). The scope of this chapter does not allow for an in-depth discussion of these processes, although a brief description of the structures used to build on-chip circuitry will be discussed. These terms refer to the components used in the construction of MOSFET (MOS field effect transistor) inverters which are the basis of logic on digital devices. NMOS inverters are constructed of N-channel transistors only, whereas CMOS inverters are constructed of both N-channel and P-channel transistors. This section will describe the basic operation of each inverter along with its pros and cons.

Simply stated, a P-channel transistor conducts when a logic "0" is applied to its gate. Conversely, N-channel transistors conduct when a logic "1" is applied to their gate. Figures 11.15 and 11.16 show a simplified cross-sectional view and the electrical symbol for N- and P-channel devices, respectively.

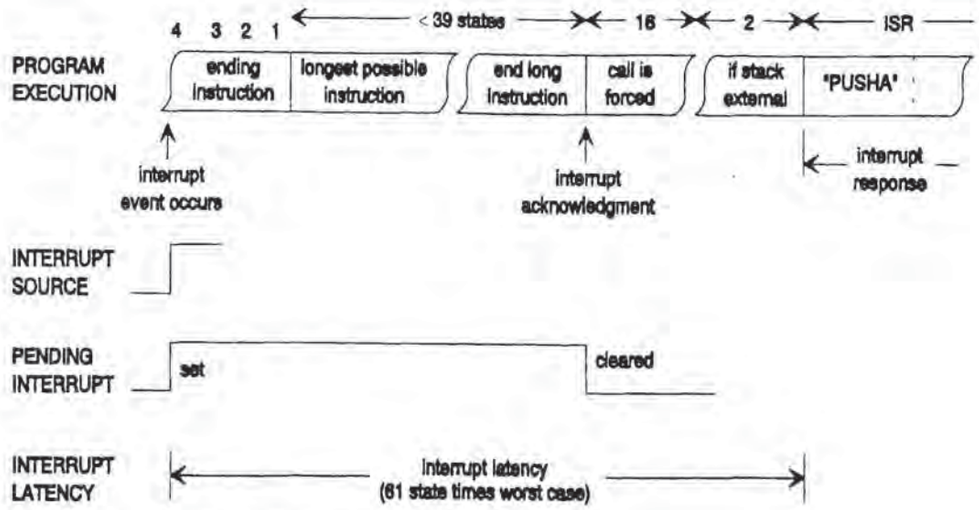


FIGURE 11.14 Worst case interrupt latency example.

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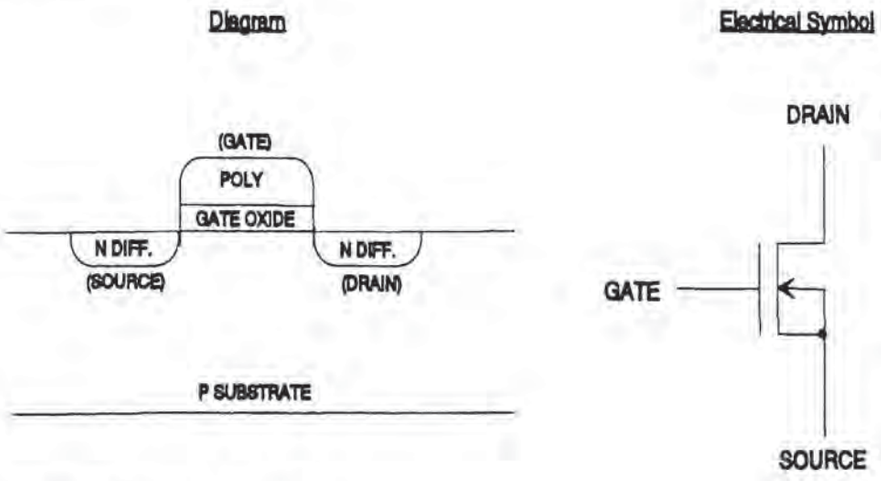


FIGURE 11.15 N-channel transistor.

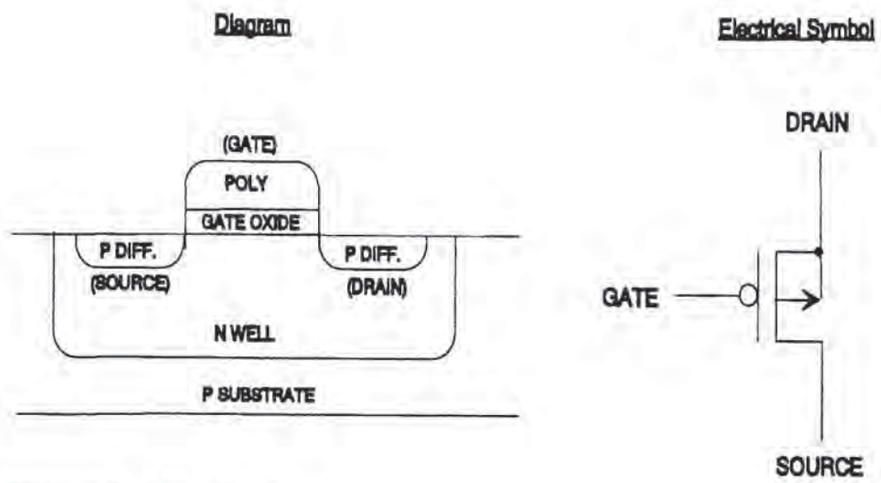


FIGURE 11.16 P-channel transistor.

NMOS Inverters. NMOS inverters are constructed of two NMOS transistors in which one is utilized as a resistance (Q2) and the other is utilized as a switch (Q1). A depletion-mode NMOS transistor is commonly utilized for the resistance device. A basic NMOS inverter is shown in Fig. 11.17. Note that Q2 is always on and acts as a resistor.

When a logic "0" is applied to the inverter's input, Q1 is turned off, which results in Q2 driving a logic 1 at the output. When a logic "1" is applied to the inverter's input, Q1 is turned on and overcomes Q2. This results in a logic "0" at the output.

NMOS microcontrollers are still produced in large quantities today. An advantage of NMOS processes is the simplistic circuit configuration which results in higher chip densities. NMOS devices are also less sensitive to electrostatic discharge (ESD) than CMOS devices. An inherent disadvantage of NMOS design is the slower switching speeds and higher power dissipation due to the dc current path from power to ground through Q1 and Q2 when the inverter is driving a logic "0".

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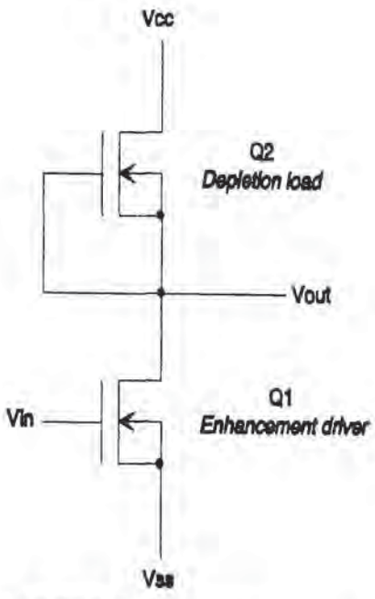


FIGURE 11.17 NMOS inverter.

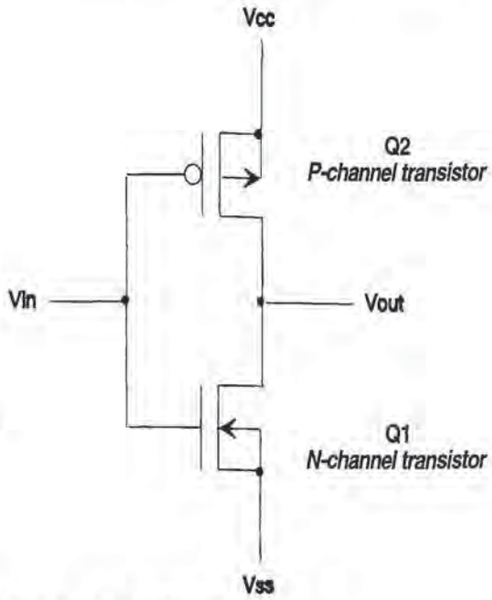


FIGURE 11.18 CMOS inverter.

CMOS Inverters. The CMOS is the most widely used process for automotive microcontrollers today. CMOS inverters are constructed of both P-channel and N-channel transistors that have their inputs tied together as shown in Fig. 11.18. When a logic "0" is applied to the inverter's input, Q1 is turned off and Q2 is turned on, which results in Q2 driving a logic "1" at the output. When a logic "1" is applied to the inverter's input, Q2 is turned off and Q1 is turned on, which results in Q1 driving a logic "0" at the output. Note that only one of these two devices will conduct at a time when the input is "1" or "0". While the input switches, both Q1 and Q2 may conduct for a short time resulting in a small amount of power dissipation.

The main advantages of CMOS logic are greatly improved switching times and lower power consumption, which is due to the complementary design of the inverter. A disadvantage of CMOS logic is that it is more expensive due to its increased complexity and more demanding fabrication process. CMOS logic is more susceptible to ESD damage, although microcontroller manufacturers have countered this by incorporating very effective ESD protection devices onto the silicon.

11.1.10 Temperature Range

Another important factor that must be considered when choosing a microcontroller is the temperature range in which it will be required to operate. The two most common temperature specifications specified by microcontroller manufacturers are *ambient temperature under bias* (TA) and *storage temperature*. These specifications are based upon package thermal characteristics as determined through device and package testing. Storage temperature refers to the temperature range that a microcontroller can be subjected to during periods of nonoperation. Storage temperature specifications are more extreme than ambient temperature under bias temperatures and are usually all the same regardless of the specified ambient temperature range. The common storage temperature range in industry is −60 to +150 °C. While powered-down, a given microcontroller must not be subjected to temperatures that exceed its specified storage temperature range.

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Ambient temperature under bias (TA) refers to the temperature range that the microcontroller is guaranteed to operate at within a given application. While powered-up or operating, a microcontroller must not be subjected to temperatures that exceed its specified ambient temperature range. The most common ambient temperature ranges in industry are:

Commercial	0 to +70 °C
Extended	–40 to +85 °C
Automotive	–40 to +125 °C

11.2 MEMORY

Microcontrollers execute customized programs that are written by the user. These programs are stored in either on-chip or off-chip memory and are often referred to as the *user's code*. On-chip memory is actually integrated onto the same piece of silicon as the microcontroller and is accessed over the internal data bus. Off-chip memory exists on a separately packaged piece of silicon and is typically accessed by the microcontroller over an external address/data bus.

A memory map shows how memory addresses are arranged in a particular microcontroller. Figure 11.19 shows a typical microcontroller memory map.

<table>
<tr><th>Address</th><th colspan="3">Memory Function</th></tr>
<tr><td>0FFFFh
0A000h</td><td colspan="3">External Memory</td></tr>
<tr><td>9FFFh
2080h</td><td colspan="3">Internal ROM/EPROM or External Memory</td></tr>
<tr><td>207Fh
2000h</td><td colspan="3">Internal ROM/EPROM or External Memory
(Interrupt vectors, CCB's, Security Key, Reserved locations, etc.)</td></tr>
<tr><td>1FFFh
1F00h</td><td colspan="3">Internal Special Function Registers (SFR's)</td></tr>
<tr><td>1EFFh
0600h</td><td colspan="3">External Memory</td></tr>
<tr><td>05FFh
0400h</td><td colspan="3">INTERNAL RAM (Address with indirect or indexed modes.)
(Also know as Code RAM)</td></tr>
<tr><td>03FFh
0100h</td><td>Register RAM</td><td>Upper Register File (Address with indirect or indexed modes or through windows.)</td><td rowspan="3">Register File</td></tr>
<tr><td>00FFh
0018h</td><td>Register RAM</td><td rowspan="2">Lower Register File (Address with direct, indirect or indexed modes.)</td></tr>
<tr><td>0017h
0000h</td><td>CPU SFRs</td></tr>
</table>

FIGURE 11.19 Microcontroller memory map.

Memory is commonly referred to in terms of Kbytes of memory. One Kbyte is defined as 1024 bytes of data. Memory is most commonly arranged in bytes which consist of 8 bits of data. For instance, a common automotive EPROM is referred to as a "256k × 8 EPROM". This EPROM contains 256-Kbytes 8-bit memory locations or 2,097,152 bits of information.

11.2.1 On-Chip Memory

On-chip microcontroller memory consists of some mix of five basic types: random access memory (RAM), read-only memory (ROM), erasable ROM (EPROM), electrically erasable ROM (EPROM), and flash memory. RAM is typically utilized for run-time variable storage and SFRs. The various types of ROM are generally used for code storage and fixed data tables.

The advantages of on-chip memory are numerous, especially for automotive applications, which are very size and cost conscious. Utilizing on-chip memory eliminates the need for external memory and the "glue" logic necessary to implement an address/data bus system. External memory systems are also notorious generators of switching noise and RFI due to their high clock rates and fast switching times. Providing sufficient on-chip memory helps to greatly reduce these concerns.

RAM. RAM may be defined as memory that has both read and write capabilities so that the stored information can be retrieved (read) and changed by applying new information to the cell (write). RAM found on microcontrollers is that of the static type that uses transistor cells connected as flip-flops. A typical six-transistor CMOS RAM cell is shown in Fig. 11.20. It consists of two cross-coupled CMOS inverters to store the data and two transmission gates, which provide the data path into or out of the cell. The most significant characteristic of static memory is that it loses its memory contents once power is removed. After power is removed, and once it is reapplied, static microcontroller RAM locations will revert to their default state of a logic "0". Because of the number of transistors used to construct a single cell, RAM memory is typically larger per bit than EPROM or ROM memory.

Although code typically cannot be executed from register RAM, a special type of RAM often referred to as *code RAM* is useful for downloading small segments of executable code. The difference between code and register RAM is that code RAM can be accessed via the

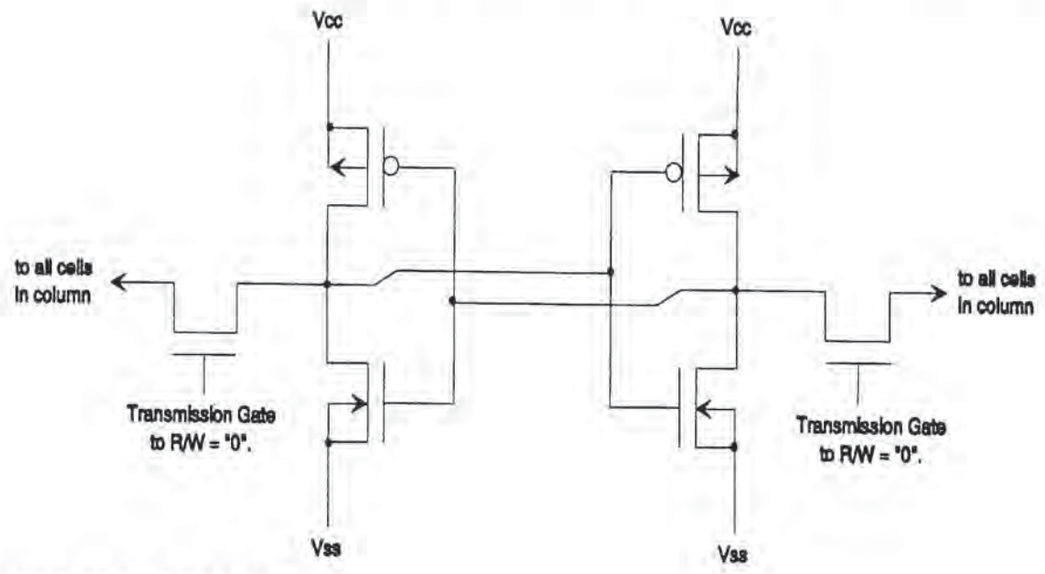


FIGURE 11.20 CMOS RAM memory cell.

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memory controller, thus allowing code to be executed from it. Code RAM is especially useful for end-of-line testing during ECU manufacturing by allowing test code to be downloaded via the serial port peripheral.

ROM. Read-only memory (ROM), as the name implies, is memory that can be read but not written to. ROM is used for storage of user code or data that does not change since it is a nonvolatile memory that retains its contents after power is removed. Code or data is either entered during the manufacturing process (masked ROM, or MROM) or by later programming (programmable ROM, or PROM); either way, once entered it is unalterable.

A ROM cell by itself (Fig. 11.21) is nothing more than a transistor. ROM cells must be used in a matrix of word and bit lines (as shown in Fig. 11.22) in order to store information. The word lines are connected to the address decoder and the bit lines are connected to output buffers. The user's code is permanently stored by including or omitting individual cells at word and bit line junctions within the ROM array. For MROMs, this is done during wafer fabrication. For PROMs, this is done by blowing a fuse in the source/drain connection of each cell. To read an address within the array, the address decoder applies the address to the memory matrix. For any given intersection of a word and bit line, the absence of a cell transistor allows no current to flow and causes the transistor to be off. This indicates an unprogrammed ROM cell. The presence of a complete cell conducts and is sensed as a logical "0", indicating a programmed cell. The stored data on the bit lines is then driven to the output buffers.

MROMs are typically used for applications whose code is stable and in volume production. After the development process is complete and the user's program has been verified, the user submits the ROM code to the microcontroller manufacturer. The microcontroller manufacturer then produces a mask that is used during manufacturing to permanently embed the program within the microcontroller. This mask layer either enables or disables individual ROM cells at the junctions of the word and bit lines. An advantage of MROM microcontrollers is that they come with user code embedded, which saves time and money since postproduction programming is not necessary. A disadvantage of MROM devices is that, since the mask with the user code has to be supplied early in the manufacturing process, throughput time (TPT) is longer.

Some versions of ROM (such as Intel's Quick-ROM) are actually not ROMs, but rather EPROMs, which are programmed at the factory. These devices are packaged in plastic devices, which prevents them from being erased since ultraviolet light cannot be applied to the actual EPROM array. Throughput time for QROMs is faster since the user code isn't required until after the actual manufacturing of the microcontroller is complete. As with

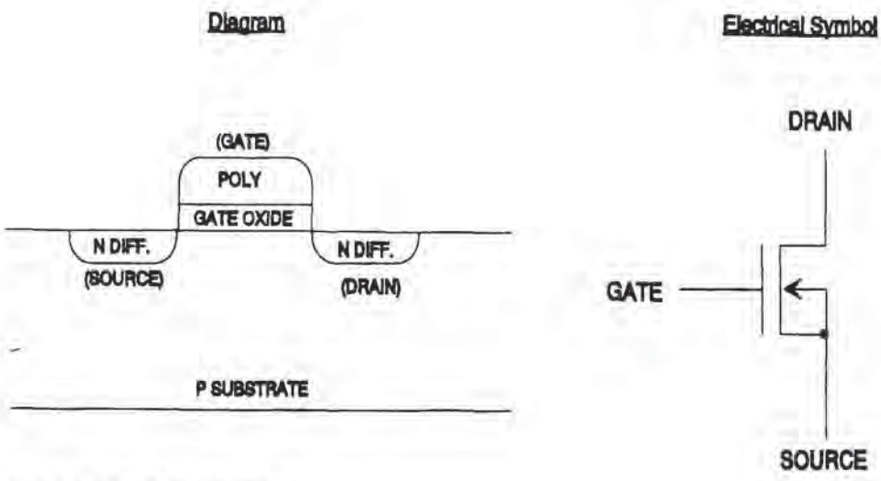


FIGURE 11.21 ROM memory cell.

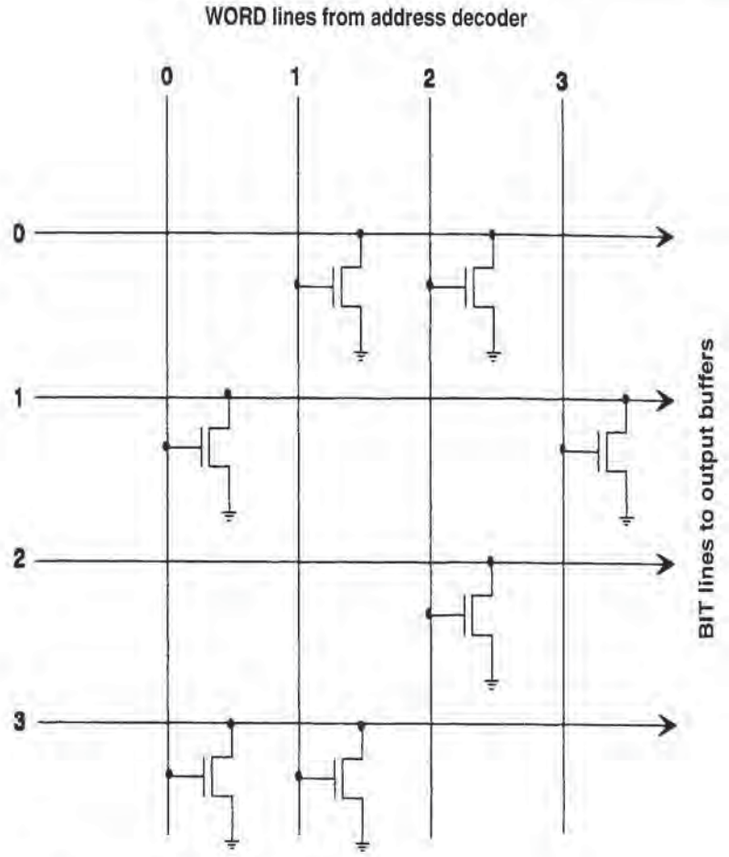


FIGURE 11.22 Simplified ROM memory matrix.

MROMs, the user supplies the ROM code to the microcontroller manufacturer. Instead of creating a mask with the ROM code, the manufacturer programs it into the device just prior to final test.

EPROM. EPROM devices are typically used during application development since this is when user code is changed often. EPROMs are delivered to the user unprogrammed. This allows the user to program the code into memory just prior to installation into an ECU module. Many EPROM microcontrollers actually provide a mechanism for in-module programming. This feature allows the user to program the device via the serial port while it is installed in the module. EPROM devices come assembled in packages either with or without a transparent window. Windowed devices are true EPROM devices that allow the user to erase the memory contents by exposing the EPROM array to ultraviolet light. These devices may be reprogrammed over and over again and thus are ideally suited for system development and debug during which code is changed often. EPROM devices assembled in a package without a window are commonly referred to as *one-time programmable devices* or OTPs. OTPs may only be programmed once, since the absence of a transparent window prevents UV erasure. OTPs are suited for limited production validation (PV) builds in which the code will not be erased.

A typical EPROM cell is shown in Fig. 11.23. It is basically an N-channel transistor that has an added poly1 floating gate to store charge. This floating gate is not connected and is surrounded by insulating oxide that prevents electron flow. The mechanism used to program an EPROM cell is known as *hot electron injection.* Hot electron injection occurs when very high drain (9-V) and select gate (12-V) voltages are applied. This gives the negatively charged electrons enough energy to surmount the oxide barrier and allows them to be stored on the gate.

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This has the same effect as a negative applied gate voltage and turns the transistor off. When the cell is unprogrammed, it can be turned on like a normal transistor by applying 5 V to the poly2 select gate. When it is programmed, the 5 V will not turn on the cell. The state of the cell is determined by attempting to turn on the cell and detecting if it turns on. Erasure is performed through the application of ultraviolet (UV) light, which gives just the right amount of energy necessary for negatively charged electrons to surmount the oxide barrier and leave the floating gate.

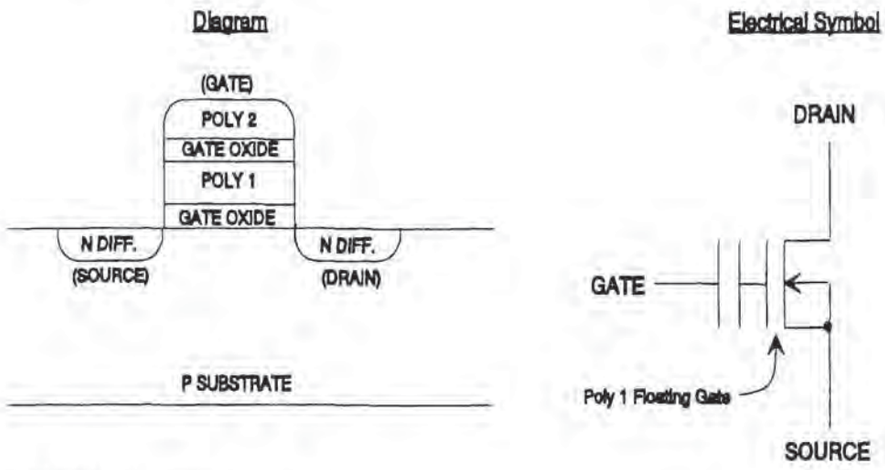


FIGURE 11.23 EPROM memory cell.

Flash. Flash memory is the newest nonvolatile memory technology and is very similar to EPROM. The key difference is that flash memory can be electrically erased. Once programmed, flash memory contents remain intact until an erase cycle is initiated via software. Like EEPROM, flash memory requires a programming and erase voltage of approximately 12.0 V. Since a clean, regulated 12-V reference is not readily available in automotive environments, this need is often provided for through the incorporation of an on-chip charge pump. The charge pump produces the voltage and current necessary for programming and erasure from the standard 5-V supply voltage. The advantage of flash is in its capability to be programmed *and* erased in-module without having to be removed. In-module reprogrammability is desirable since in-vehicle validation testing doesn't always allow for easy access to the microcontroller. Flash also allows for last-minute code changes, data table upgrades, and general code customization during ECU assembly. Since a flash cell is nearly identical in size to that of an EPROM cell, the high reliability and high device density capable with EPROM is retained. The main disadvantage of flash is the need for an on-chip charge pump and special program and erase circuitry, which adds cost.

A flash memory cell is essentially the same as an EPROM cell, with the exception of the floating gate. The difference is a thin oxide layer which allows the cell to be electrically erased. The mechanism used to erase data is known as *Fowler-Nordheim tunneling,* which allows the charge to be transferred from the floating gate when a large enough field is created. Hot electron injection is the mechanism used to program a cell, exactly as is done with EPROM cells. When the floating gate is positively charged, the cell will read a "1", when negatively charged, the cell will read a "0".

EEPROM. EEPROM (electrically erasable and programmable ROM, commonly referred to as E^2ROM) is a ROM that can be electrically erased and programmed. Once programmed, EEPROM contents remain intact until an erase cycle is initiated via software. Like flash, programming and erase voltages of approximately 12 V are required. Since a clean, regulated 12-V reference is not readily available in automotive environments, this requirement is satisfied using an on-chip charge pump as is done for flash memory arrays. Like flash, the advantage of EEPROM is its

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capability to be programmed and erased in-module. This allows the user to erase and program the device in the module without having to remove it. EEPROM's most significant disadvantage is the need for an on-chip charge pump. Special program and erase circuitry also adds cost.

An EEPROM cell is essentially the same as an EPROM cell with the exception of the floating gate being isolated by a thin oxide layer. The main difference from flash is that Fowler-Nordheim electron tunneling is used for *both* programming and erasure. This mechanism allows charge to be transferred to or from the floating gate (depending upon the polarity of the field) when a large enough field is created. When the floating gate is positively charged, the cell will read a "1"; when negatively charged, the cell will read a "0".

11.2.2 Off-Chip Memory

Off-chip memory offers the most flexibility to the system designer, but at a price; it takes up additional PCB real estate as well as additional I/O pins. In cost- and size-conscience applications, such as automotive ABS, system designers almost exclusively use on-chip memory. However, when memory requirements grow to sizes in excess of what is offered on-chip (such as is common in electronic engine control), the system designer must implement an off-chip memory system. Off-chip memory is flexible because the user can implement various memory devices in the configuration of his choice. Most microcontrollers on the market today offer a wide variety of control pins and timing modes to allow the system designer flexibility when interfacing to a wide range of external memory systems.

Accessing External Memory. If circuit designers must use external memory in their applications, the type of external address/data bus incorporated onto the microcontroller should be considered. If external memory is not used, this will have, if any, impact upon the application. There are two basic types of interfaces used in external memory systems. Both of these are parallel interfaces in which bits of data are moved in a parallel fashion and are referred to as *multiplexed* and *demultiplexed* address/data buses.

Multiplexed Address/Data Buses. As the name implies, multiplexed address/data buses allow the address as well as the data to be passed over the same microcontroller pins by multiplexing the two in time. Figure 11.24 illustrates a typical multiplexed 16-bit address/data bus system as is implemented with Intel's 8XC196Kx family of microcontrollers.

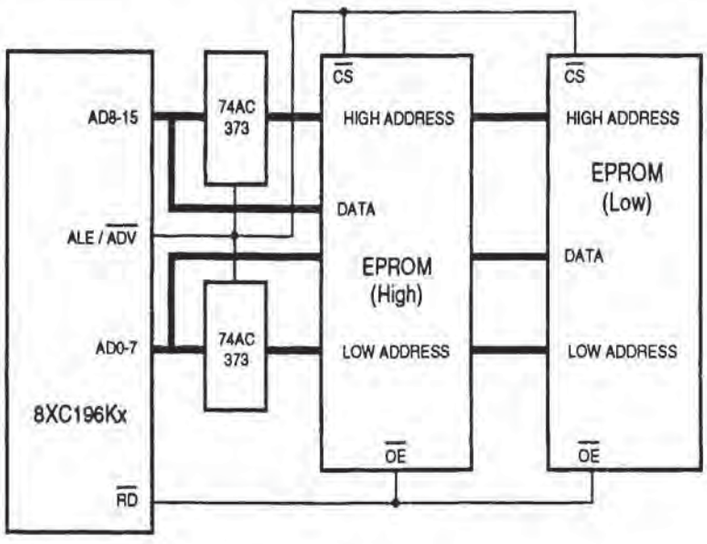


FIGURE 11.24 Multiplexed address/data bus system.

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During a multiplexed bus cycle (refer to Fig. 11.25), the address is placed on the bus during the first half of the bus cycle and then latched by an external address data latch. The signal to latch the address comes from a signal generated by the microcontroller, called address latch enable (ALE). The address must be present on the bus for a specified amount of time prior to ALE being asserted. After the address is latched, the microcontroller asserts either a read (RD#) or a write (WR#) signal to the external memory device.

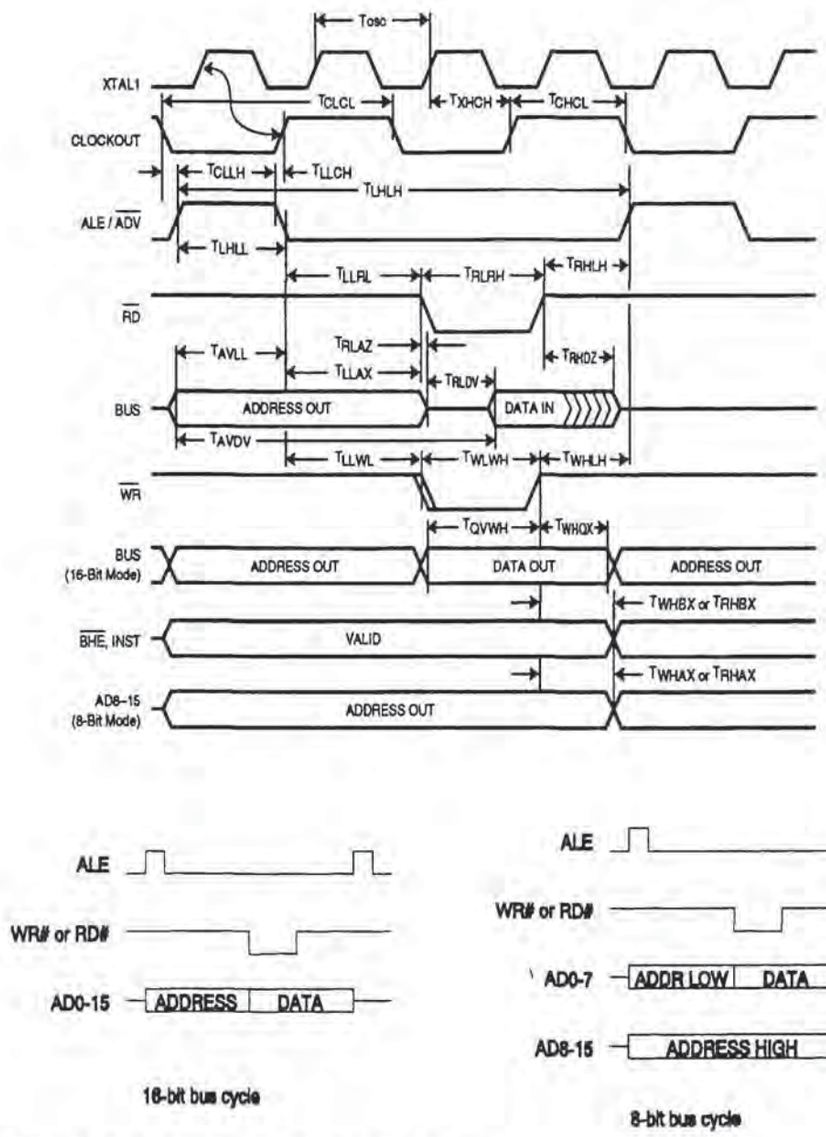


FIGURE 11.25 Multiplexed bus cycle and timing diagram.

For a read cycle, the microcontroller will pull its RD# output pin low and float the bus to allow the memory device to output the data located at the address latched on its address pins. The data returned from external memory must be on the bus and stable for a specified setup time before the rising edge or RD#, which is when the microcontroller latches the data.

For a write cycle, the microcontroller will pull its WR# pin low and then output data on the bus to be written to the external memory. After a specified setup time, the microcontroller will

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release its WR# signal, which signals to the memory device to latch the data on the bus into the address location present on its address pins.

Advantages of multiplexed address/data bus systems are that fewer microcontroller pins are required since address and data share the same pins. For a true 16-bit system, this translates into a multiplexed system requiring 16 fewer pins (for address and data) than would be required by a demultiplexed system. A disadvantage is that an external latch is required to hold the address during the second half of the bus cycle; this adds to the component count.

Demultiplexed Address/Data Buses. Microcontrollers with demultiplexed address/data buses implement separate, dedicated address and data buses as shown in Fig. 11.26.

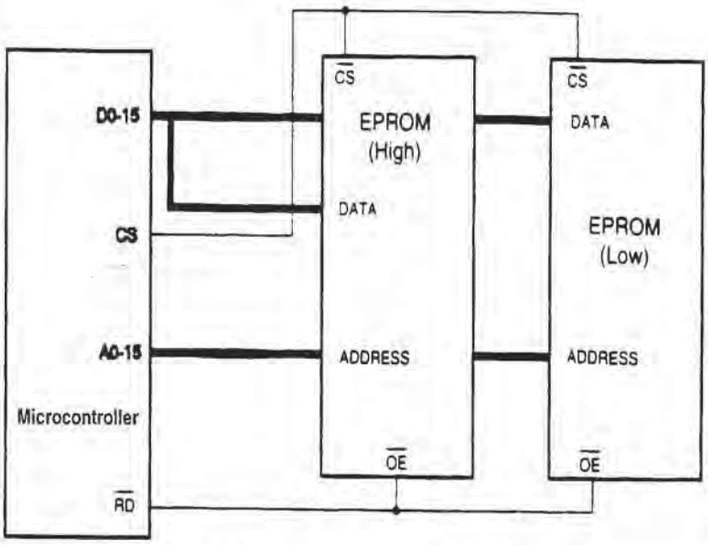


FIGURE 11.26 Typical demultiplexed address/data bus system.

The operation of a demultiplexed address/data bus is basically the same as the multiplexed type with the exception of not having an ALE signal to latch the address for the second half of the bus cycle. The operation of the RD#,WR#, address, and data lines is essentially the same as for that of a multiplexed system.

During a demultiplexed bus cycle, the microcontroller places the address on the address bus and holds it there for the entire bus cycle. For a read of external memory, the microcontroller asserts the RD# signal (or WR# for a write signal) just as would be done for a multiplexed bus cycle. The memory device will respond accordingly by either placing the data to be read on the data bus or by latching the data to be written off of the data bus. Figure 11.27 illustrates a simplified demultiplexed bus cycle.

An advantage of multiplexed address/data bus systems is that external data latches are not necessary, which saves on system component count. A disadvantage, as mentioned earlier, is that more microcontroller pins must be allocated for the interface, which leaves fewer pins for other I/O purposes.

11.3 LOW-SPEED INPUT/OUTPUT PORTS

Low-speed input/output (LSIO) ports allow the microcontroller to read input signals as well as provide output signals to and from other electronic components such as sensors, power drivers,

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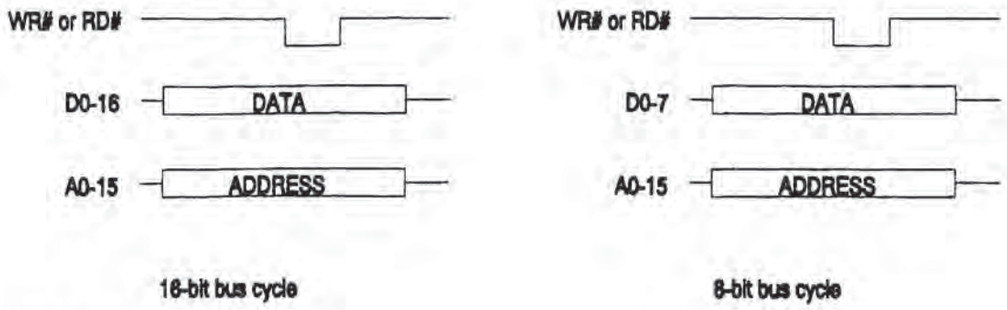


FIGURE 11.27 Demultiplexed bus cycle.

digital devices, actuators, and other microcontrollers. The term "low-speed" is used to describe these ports because unlike high-speed I/O (HSIO) ports which are interrupt driven, LSIO port data must be manually read and written by the user program. Interrupt-driven I/O is typically not possible on port pins configured for LSIO operation. It is common for modern high-performance microcontrollers to utilize multifunctional port pins which can be configured for a special function as well as LSIO. LSIO ports most commonly consist of eight port pins in parallel, which are supported by byte registers. For example, by writing to a single-byte special function register, an entire port can be configured, read, or written. Manipulating individual bits in the port register allows the user flexibility in accessing either single or multiple port pins.

11.3.1 Push-Pull Port Pin Configuration

The term *push-pull*, or *complementary*, output is commonly used to define a port pin that has the capability to output either a logic "1" or "0". Figure 11.28 shows a basic push-pull port pin configuration. Referring to Fig. 11.28, writing a "1" to the data output register enables the P-channel MOSFET and pulls the pin to +5 V, thus driving a logic "1" at the port pin. When a "0" is written

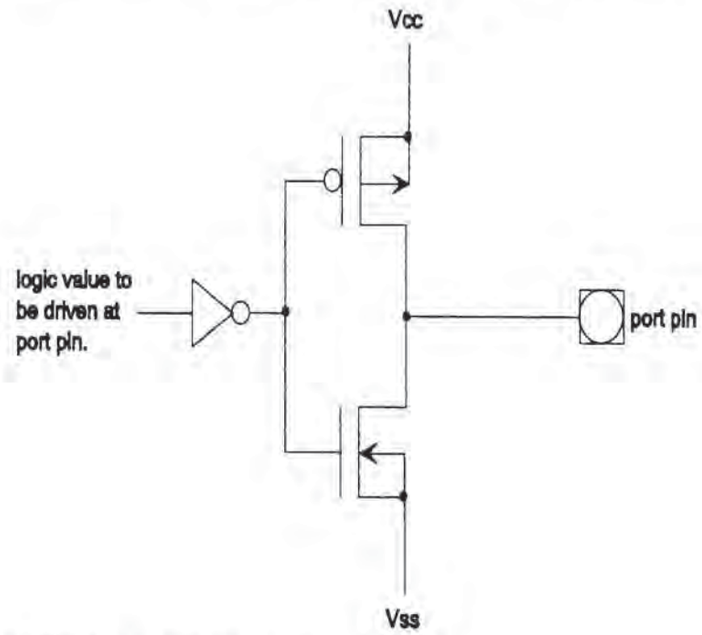


FIGURE 11.28 Push-pull port pin.

to the data register, the N-channel MOSFET is enabled and thus provides a current path to ground which results in a logic 0 at the port pin. Note that during this time the P-channel pull-up MOSFET is disabled to prevent contention at the port pin. Also note that the port logic design does not allow both the P-channel and the N-channel devices to be driving at the same time.

11.3.2 Open-Drain Port Pin Configuration

Open-drain port pins (Fig. 11.29) are useful for handshaking signals over which multiple devices will have control. The fact that the P-channel transistor is either omitted or disabled dictates the need for an external pull-up resistor. An example of an application for open-drain port pins would be for a bus contention line between two microcontrollers communicating on a common bus. During normal operation, the line is pulled high by the external pull-up resistor to signal to either microcontroller that no contention exists. If one of the microcontrollers should detect contention on the bus, it simply outputs a logic "0", which signals the contention to the other processor. To output the "0", the port only has to overcome the external pull-up which the user should appropriately size to match the port drive specifications.

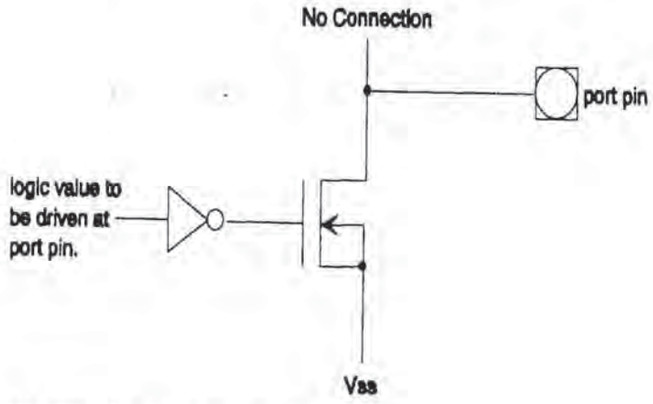


FIGURE 11.29 Open-drain port pin.

11.3.3 High-Impedance Input Port Pin Configuration

High impedance, or "Hi-z," port pins (Fig. 11.30) are used strictly as inputs since no drivers exist on these types of pins. Hi-z refers to the relatively high input impedance of the port pin. This high input impedance prevents the port pin circuitry from actively loading the input signal. Note that the pin is connected to the gates of a CMOS inverter, which drives internal circuitry. Usually a certain amount of hysteresis is built into these pins and is specified in the data sheet.

11.3.4 Quasi Bidirectional Port Pin Configuration

Quasi bidirectional (QBD) port pins are those that can be used as either input or output without the need for direction control logic. QBD port pins can output a strong low value or a weak high value. The weak high value can be externally overridden, providing an input function. Figure 11.31 shows a QBD port pin diagram and its transfer characteristic.

Writing a "1" to the port pin disables the strong low driver (Q2) and enables a very weak high driver (Q3). To get the pin to transition high quickly, a strong high driver (Q1) is enabled for one state time and then disabled (leaving only Q3 active).

It is important to keep in mind that since the port pin can be externally overridden with a logic "0", reading the port pin could falsely indicate that it was written as a logic "0".

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The ability to overdrive the weak output driver is what gives the quasi bidirectional port pin its input capability. To reduce the amount of current that flows when the pin is externally pulled low, the weak output driver (Q4) is turned off when a valid logic "0" is detected. The input transfer characteristic of a quasi bidirectional port pin is shown in Fig. 11.31.

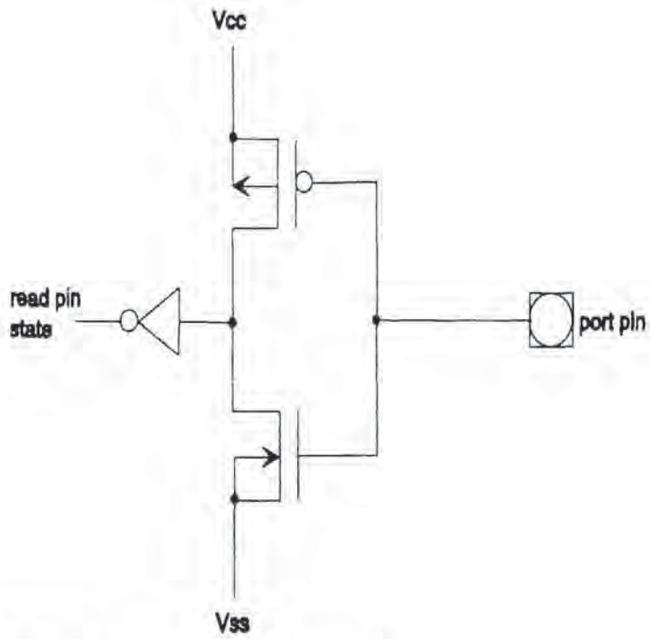


FIGURE 11.30 High-impedance input port pin.

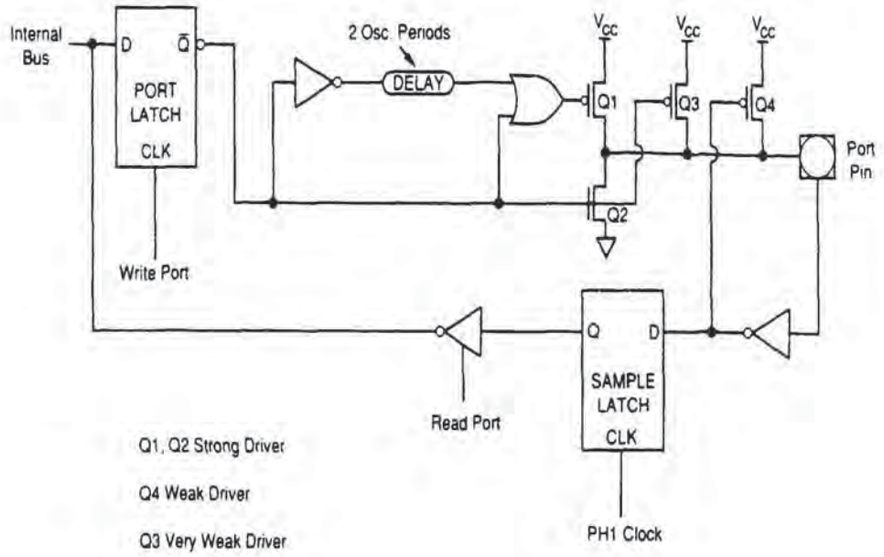
11.3.5 Bidirectional Port Example

The following example describes the operation of a state-of-the-art bidirectional port structure. This particular structure is used upon newer members of Intel's MCS-96 automotive microcontroller family. A single port consists of eight multifunction, parallel port pins (see Fig. 11.32), which are controlled (on a by-pin basis) with four special function registers referred to as Px_PIN, Px_REG, Px_MODE, and Px_DIR. As is common with other high-performance microcontrollers, the pins of this port are shared with alternate special functions controlled by other on-chip peripherals. The Px_MODE register allows the programmer to choose either LSIO or the associated special function for any given port pin. Writing a "1" to the appropriate bit selects the corresponding pin as special function whereas a "0" selects LSIO. The function of the Px_PIN and Px_REG registers is fairly straightforward. In order to read the value on the pin, the user simply reads the Px_PIN register. To write a value to the Px_REG register, the user simply writes the desired output value to the Px_REG register. The Px_DIR register allows the user to configure the port pin as either input or output.

In order to prevent an undefined pin state during reset, port pins revert to a default state during reset. For the Intel Kx bidirectional port structure, this state is defined as a weak logic "1". The transistor that drives this state is labeled as WKPU in Fig. 11.32 and is asserted in reset until the user writes to the Px_MODE register to configure the port pin.

Ports such as this offer the user much flexibility in assigning their function within an application. Following are three examples that depict how these ports may be configured by the user by writing values to the appropriate bit within the port SFR. Also note that the eight pins of a port may be configured individually on a pin-by-pin basis.

To configure a given port pin as a high-impedance input pin, the user must write the following values to the corresponding bit within the port SFR.



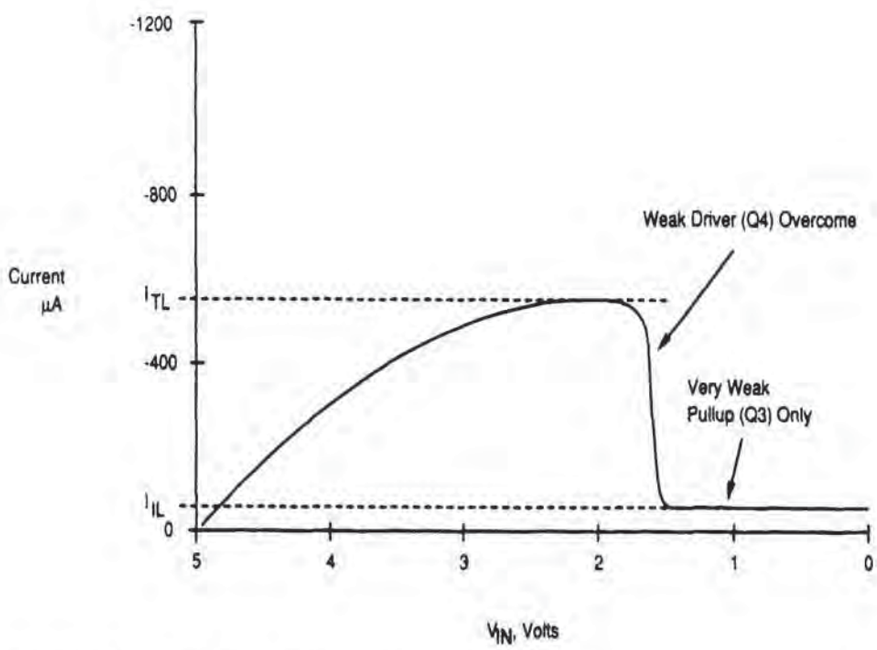


FIGURE 11.31 Quasi bidirectional port pin and transfer characteristic.

Px_MODE: "0" selects the pin as LSIO and disables weak pull-up.
Px_DIR: "1" disables operation of the N-channel transistor.
Px_REG: "1" disables the N-channel transistor.

To configure a given port pin for push-pull operation, the following values must be written to the corresponding bit within the port SFR.

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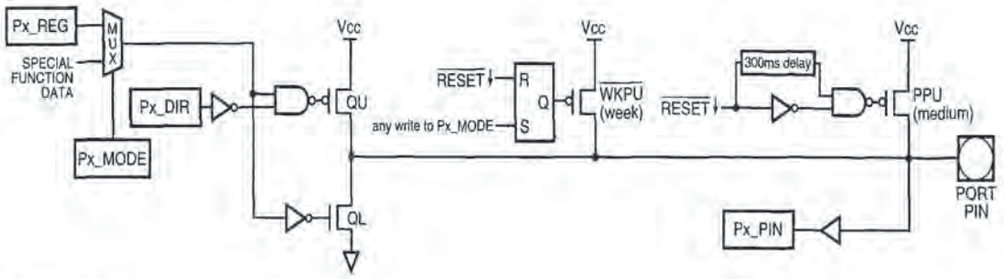


FIGURE 11.32 Bidirectional port structure example.

Px_MODE: "0" selects the pin as LSIO and disables weak pull-up transistor.

Px_DIR: "0" enables operation of both the N- and P-channel transistors.

Px_REG: "0" or "1" drives that value at the port pin.

To configure a port pin for open-drain operation, the user must write the following values to the corresponding bits within the port SFR.

Px_MODE: "0" selects the pin as LSIO and disables weak pull-up transistor.

Px_DIR: "1" disables operation of the N-channel transistor.

Px_REG: "1" disables the P-channel transistor / achieves Hi-Z state.
"0" enables the N-channel transistor / drives "0" at pin.

11.4 HIGH-SPEED I/O PORTS

Perhaps the most demanding of automotive microcontroller applications is electronic engine control and antilock braking/traction control. These applications both require the microcontroller to detect, process, and respond to external signals or "events" within relatively short periods of time. Sometimes referred to as a capture/compare module, a microcontroller's HSIO (high-speed input/output) peripheral allows the microcontroller to capture an event as it occurs. The term *capture* refers to a series of events that begins with the microcontroller detecting a rising or falling edge upon a high-speed input pin. At the precise moment this edge is detected, the value of a software timer is loaded into a time register and an interrupt is triggered. This gives the microcontroller the relative time at which the event occurred. An HSIO peripheral also provides compare functions by detecting an internal event, such as a timer reaching a particular count value. When the particular count value is detected, the HSIO unit will generate a specified event (rising or falling edge) on a port pin. This feature is ideal for generating PWM waveforms or synchronizing external events with internal events.

For example, consider a typical ABS microcontroller which must detect, capture, and calculate wheel speeds; respond with signals to hydraulic solenoids; and perform many other background tasks all within a loop time of about 5 ms. The wheel speed signals are input to the microcontroller as square waves with frequencies up to 7000 Hz (approximately one edge every 71 μs). The microcontroller must have the performance necessary to capture and process these edges on as many as four wheel speed inputs. HSIO peripherals, along with the interrupt structure, play a major role in the microcontroller's ability to perform this function.

Nearly every microcontroller manufacturer has its own proprietary HSIO peripheral. For purposes of this section, the event processor array (EPA) HSIO peripheral, which is used by Intel's 87C196KT automotive microcontroller, will be discussed.

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11.4.1 High-Speed Input and Output Peripheral

High-speed input/output peripherals typically consist of a given number of capture/compare modules, a timer/counter structure, control and status SFRs, and an interrupt structure of some type. Figure 11.33 shows a block diagram of the EPA peripheral. The main components of the EPA are ten capture/compare channels, two compare only channels, and two timer/counters. The capture/compare channels are configured independently of each other. The two timer/counters are shared between the various capture/compare channels. Each capture/compare channel has its own dedicated SFR's: EPAx_TIME and EPAx_CON (x designates the channel number).

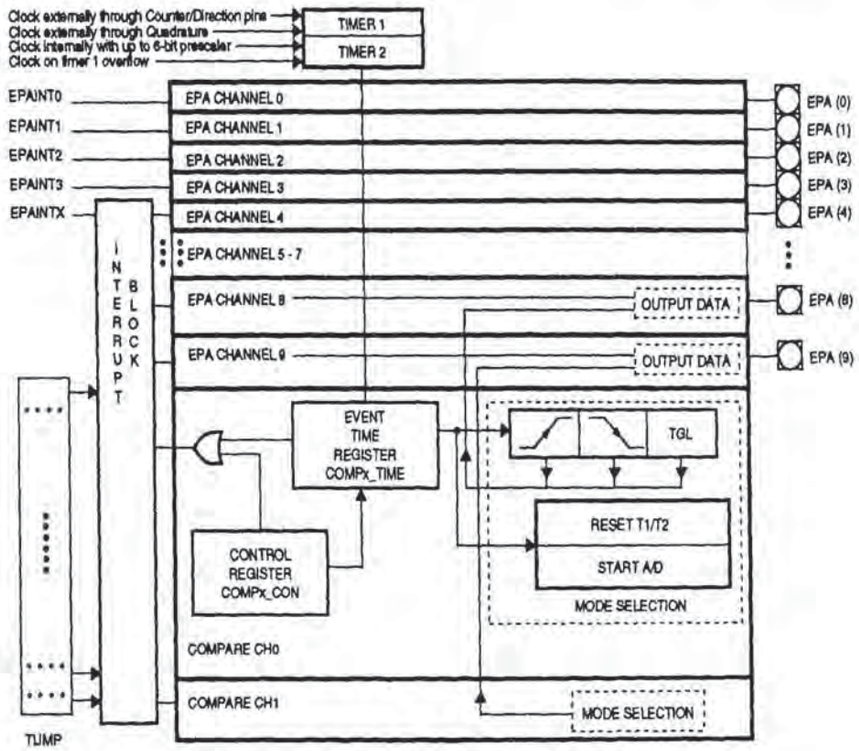


FIGURE 11.33 Example HSIO peripheral: Intel's EPA peripheral.

11.4.2 Timer/Counter Structures

High-performance microcontrollers typically integrate one or more timer/counters onto their silicon. A microcontroller's timer/counter structure provides a time base to which all HSIO events are referenced. Timers are clocked internally, whereas counters are clocked from an external clock source. Timers are often very flexible structures, in which programmers have the capability to configure the timer/counters to meet their application's particular needs. The 87C196KT has two 16-bit timer/counters referred to as TIMER1 and TIMER2. As 16-bit timer/counters, each timer has the capability of counting to 2^{16} or 65,536 before overflowing. The user has the option of triggering an interrupt upon overflow of a timer/counter. Each of these two timers can be independently configured using the TxCONTROL SFR as shown in Fig. 11.34, where x specifies either 1 or 2 for Timer1 or Timer2, respectively.

Bits number 3, 4, and 5 are the mode bits that allow the user to configure the clocking source and direction of each timer/counter. The clock rate can be based either upon the fre-

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TxCONTROL SFR

7	6	5	4	3	2	1	0
CE	UD	M2	M1	M0	P2	P1	P0

CE: Count Enable: "0" = disable timer, "1" = enable timer

UD: Up/Down: "0" = count up, "1" = count down

MODE:	M2, M1, M0	Clock source	Direction determined by:
	0 0 0	XTAL/4	state of UD bit
	0 0 1	TxCLK pin	state of UD bit
	0 1 0	XTAL/4	state of TxDIR pin
	0 1 1	TxCLK pin	state of TxDIR pin
	1 0 0	Timer1 overflow	state of UD bit
	1 1 0	Timer1 overflow	same as Timer1
	1 1 1	Quadrature clocking using TxCLK and TxDIR pins	

Prescale:	P2, P1, P0	Clock prescale values
	0 0 0	÷ by 1 (250 ns @ 16 MHz xtal frequency)
	0 0 1	÷ by 2 (500 ns @ 16 MHz xtal frequency)
	0 1 0	÷ by 4 (1 µs @ 16 MHz xtal frequency)
	0 1 1	÷ by 8 (2 µs @ 16 MHz xtal frequency)
	1 0 0	÷ by 16 (4 µs @ 16 MHz xtal frequency)
	1 0 1	÷ by 32 (8 µs @ 16 MHz xtal frequency)
	1 1 0	÷ by 64 (16 µs @ 16 MHz xtal frequency)
	1 1 1	reserved

FIGURE 11.34 Timer control SFR example.

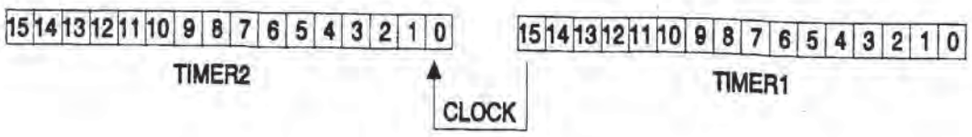


FIGURE 11.35 Cascading of timer/counters.

quency that the microcontroller is being clocked at the XTAL pins or upon the input frequency on another pin referred to as TxCLK. The user also has the option of either having the logic level of another pin (TxDIR) or the UD bits in TxCONTROL determine the direction (up/down) that the timer/counter is clocked.

For those applications that require a 32-bit timer/counter, the user has the option (using the mode bits) to direct the overflow of TIMER1 to clock TIMER2. This is known as cascading and essentially creates a 32-bit timer/counter as shown in Fig. 11.35.

11.4.3 Input Capture

Input capture refers to the process of capturing a current timer value when a specific type of event occurs. An excellent example of high-speed input capture can be illustrated with a basic automotive ABS input capture algorithm that calculates the frequency of a wheel speed input. The signals from the wheel speed sensors are input into the microcontroller's EPA pins as square waves. Consider the generic wheel speed input capture example shown in Fig. 11.36.

Two timers (1 and 2) are used in this example. Timer1 is used in conjunction with an EPA channel to provide a 5-ms software timer (this is a compare function that will be discussed in the next section). The 5 ms is the main loop time used in generic ABS algorithms. Timer2 is used in conjunction with one or more EPA channels to capture the relative times at which edges occur on wheel speed inputs. The EPA is configured to capture falling edges and initiate an interrupt, which stores the event time and increments an edge count. To simplify this example, we will consider only a single input channel.

The process starts by EPA interrupts being enabled after Timer1 starts a new 5-ms timer count. The first falling edge causes an interrupt that stores the event time (T2) into a variable *initial time* and increments an edge count. The next edge causes an interrupt in which the event time (T2+x) is stored into a variable called *final time* and increments the edge count.

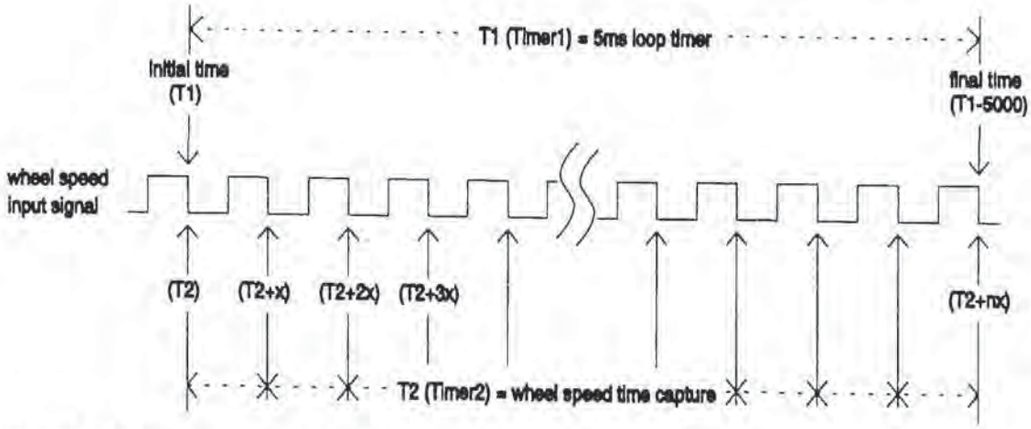


FIGURE 11.36 Input capture example using EPA peripheral.

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Subsequent edges' event times are also stored into *final time* until Timer1's 5-ms count expires. At this point, final time contains the time at which the last edge to occur was captured. The average period of the input waveform can then be calculated with the following equation:

$$\text{input period} = (\textit{final time} - \textit{initial time}) / \text{edge count}$$

11.4.4 Output Compare

Output compare refers to the process of generating an event when a timer value matches a predetermined time value. The event may be to generate an interrupt, toggle an output pin, perform an A/D conversion, and so forth. Following is an example that shows the steps necessary to generate an event every 50 μs:

1. Enable the output compare channel's interrupt.
2. Initialize the timer to count up at 1 μs per timer tick.
3. Initialize the output compare channel to re-enable and reset the timer (to zero) when a timer match occurs.
4. Initialize the output compare channel to produce the desired event when a timer match occurs.
5. Write 32h (50 decimal) to the appropriate output compare channel's time register.
6. Enable the timer to start the process.
7. A compare channel interrupt will be generated every 50 μs.

Since the example re-enables and zeros the timer, the event will occur continuously until the user's program halts the process.

Software Timers. Software timers such as the 5-ms timer used in the ABS wheel speed capture example can be set up easily using a compare channel and a timer. The following software timer procedure is very similar to that used in the previous output compare example:

1. Enable the compare channel's interrupt.
2. Initialize the timer to count up at 1 us per timer tick.
3. Initialize the output compare channel to re-enable and reset the timer (to zero) when a timer match occurs.
4. Initialize the output compare channel to produce an interrupt (5-ms ISR) when a timer match occurs.
5. Write 1388h (5000 decimal) to the appropriate output compare channel's time register.
6. Enable the timer to start the process.
7. An compare channel interrupt will be generated every 5 ms.

11.4.5 Pulse-Width Modulation (PWM)

Pulse-width modulation (PWM) peripherals provide the user with the ability to generate waveforms that have specified frequencies and duty cycles. PWM waveforms are typically used to generate pulsed waveforms used for motor control or they may be filtered to produce a smooth analog signal. HSIO peripherals typically provide for PWM waveform generation, although the methods are not usually as efficient as dedicated PWM peripherals. A basic example of creating a PWM waveform using an HSIO peripheral's output compare function is described in Sec. 11.4.4.

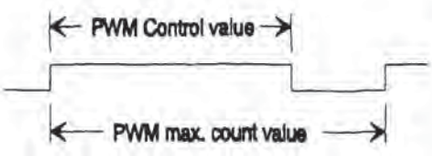


FIGURE 11.37 PWM waveform time values.

PWM Peripheral. The components of a basic automotive microcontroller's PWM peripheral include a counter (typically 8-bit), a comparator, a holding register, and a control register. The counter typically has a prescaler that allows the user to select the clock rate of the counter, which allows for selectable PWM frequencies. Without prescaling capability, an 8-bit counter would only allow for a period of 256 state times. The PWM control register determines how long the PWM output is held high during the pulse, effectively controlling the duty cycle as shown in Fig. 11.37. For an 8-bit PWM counter, the value written to the PWM control register can be from 0 to 255 (equating to 255 state times with no prescaling). Note that PWM peripherals do not typically allow for a 100 percent duty cycle because the output must be reset when the counter reaches zero.

The operation of a PWM peripheral is rather simple. The PWM control register's value (assume 8-bit for this example) is loaded into a holding register when the 8-bit counter overflows. The comparator compares the contents of the holding register to the counter value. When the counter value is equal to zero, the PWM output is driven high. It remains high until the counter value matches the value in the holding register, at which time the output is pulled low. When the counter overflows, the output is again switched high. Figure 11.38 shows typical PWM output waveforms.

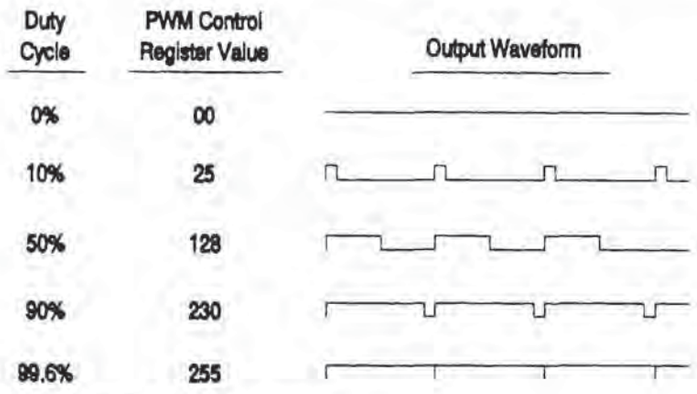


FIGURE 11.38 PWM output waveforms.

11.5 SERIAL COMMUNICATIONS

It is often necessary for automotive microcontrollers to have the capability to communicate with other devices both internal and external to the ECU. Within an ECU a microcontroller may have to communicate with other devices such as backup processors, shift registers, watchdog timers, and so forth. It is not uncommon for automotive microcontrollers to communicate with devices external to the ECU, such as other modules within the vehicle and even diagnostic computers at a service station. All of these communication examples require a large quantity of data to be transmitted/received in a short period of time. Also consider that this communication must utilize as few pins of the microcontroller as possible in order to save valuable PCB board space. These requirements all support the need for serial communications.

Serial communications provides for efficient transfer of data while utilizing a minimum number of pins. Serial communications is performed by transferring a group of data bits, one at a time, sequentially over a single data line. Each transmission of a group of bits (typically a

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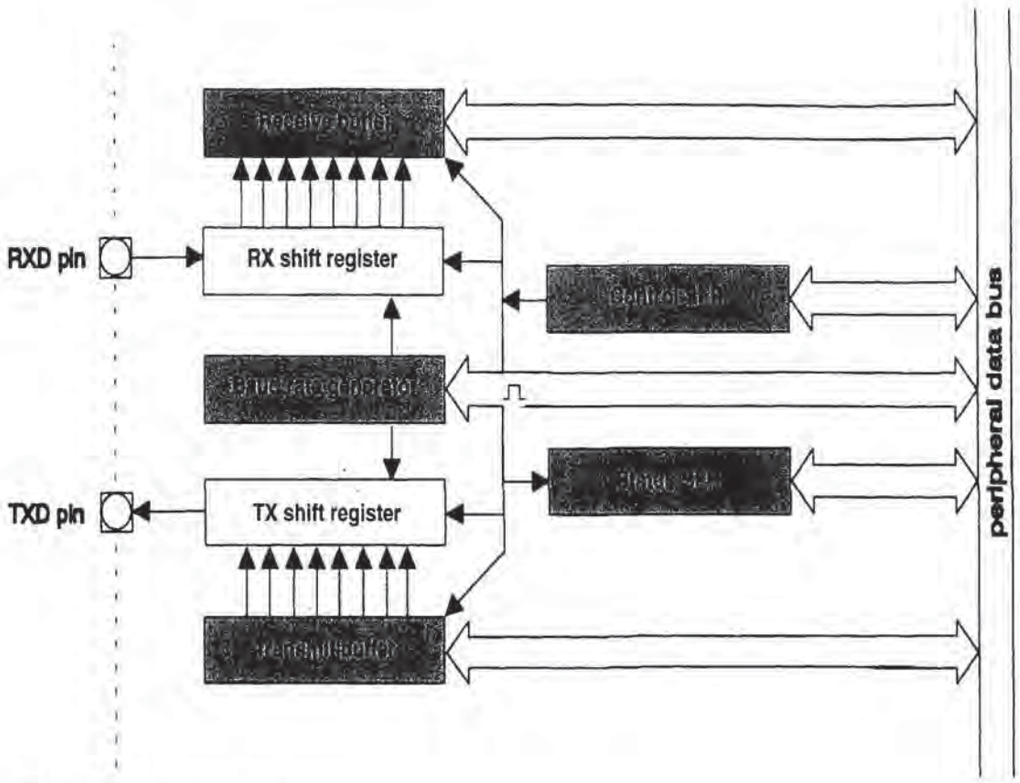


FIGURE 11.39 Serial port block diagram.

byte of data) is known as a data frame. This transfer of data takes place at a given speed, which is referred to as the baud rate and is typically specified in bits/second.

A typical microcontroller serial port consists of data buffers, data registers, and a baud rate generator. Interface to the outside world takes place via the transmit (TXD) and receive (RXD) pins. A block diagram for a typical serial port peripheral is shown in Fig. 11.39. By writing to the serial port control register, users are able to customize the operation of the serial port to their particular application's requirements.

The baud rate generator is used to provide the timing necessary for serial communications and determines the rate at which the bits are transmitted. In synchronous modes, the baud rate generator provides the timing reference used to create clock edges on the clock output pin. In asynchronous modes, the baud rate generator provides the timing reference used to latch data into the RX pin and clock it out of the TX pin.

11.5.1 Synchronous Serial Communications

Sometimes an application does not allow asynchronous serial communications to take place due to variations in clock frequency, which results in unacceptable baud rate error. Some applications simply require some sort of shift register I/O. Synchronous communication involves an additional clock pin, which is used to signal the other device that data being transferred are valid and ready to be read. Often when the user configures the serial port to work in a synchronous mode, the TXD pin automatically reverts to supplying the clock and the RXD pin automatically becomes the data pin. This configuration prevents an additional pin from having to be reserved for use as a serial clock pin. When a synchronous data transfer is initiated, a series of eight clock pulses is emitted from the clock pin at a predetermined baud rate as shown in Fig. 11.40.

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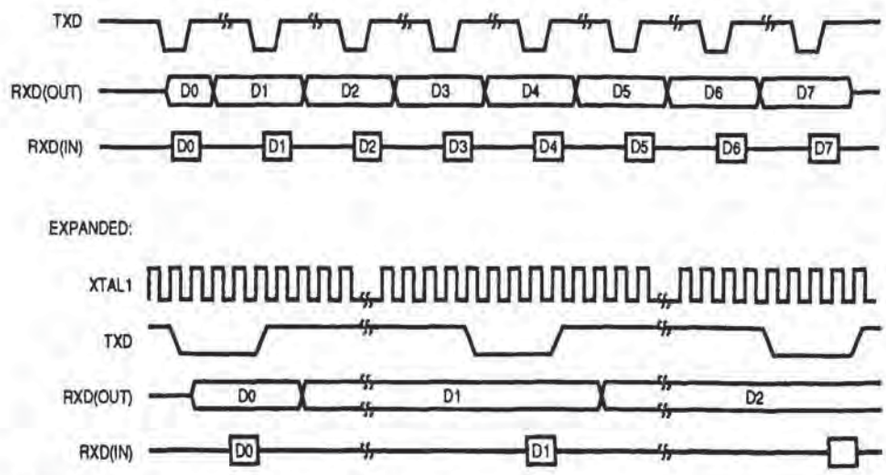


FIGURE 11.40 Synchronous serial mode data frame.

An example of synchronous serial communications is shown in Fig. 11.41. Assume that processor A is to transfer a byte of data to processor B. The program executing in processor A initiates a serial transmission by writing the data byte to be transmitted into the transmit buffer. Assuming microcontroller A's serial port is enabled for transmission, writing to the transmit buffer results in a series of eight clock pulses to be emitted from microcontroller A's clock pin. The first falling edge of the clock will signal to processor B that bit 0 (LSB) is ready to be read into its receive buffer. Microcontroller A will place the next data bit on the TXD pin with each rising clock edge. With B's serial port enabled for reception, each falling edge will result in another data bit being shifted into B's receive buffer. When B's receive buffer is full, the received data byte will be loaded into its receive register and will signal its CPU that the reception has been completed and the data is ready for use.

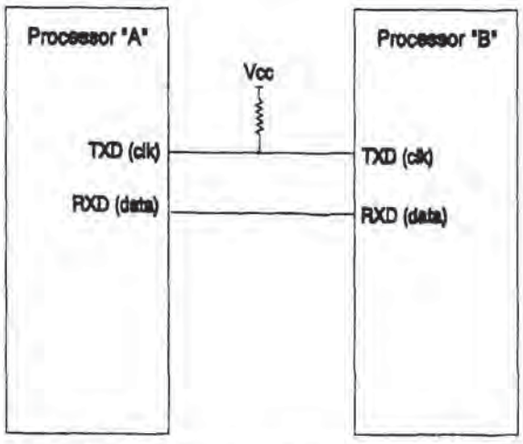


FIGURE 11.41 Synchronous serial communications example.

Shift Register Based I/O Expansion. A common application for synchronous serial transmission is shift register based I/O expansion as shown in Fig. 11.42. In this circuit, a 74HC164 8-bit serial-in/parallel-out shift register is used to provide eight parallel outputs with a single serial input. The 74HC165 8-bit parallel-in/serial out shift register shown provides a single serial input resulting from eight parallel input signals. This allows the system designer to

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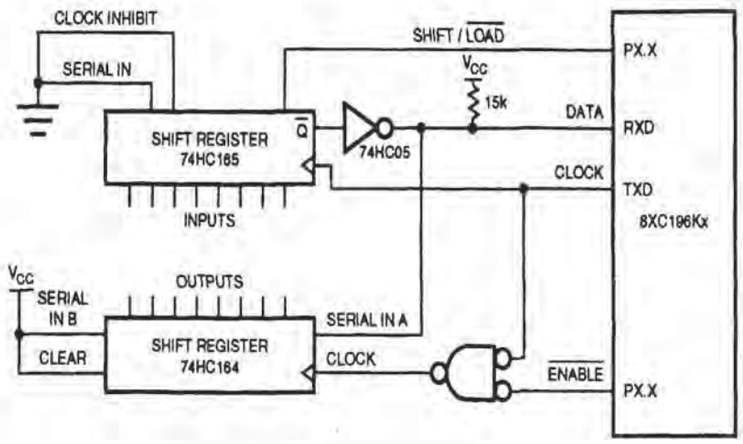


FIGURE 11.42 Shift register based I/O expansion example.

implement an additional 8-bit output port and additional 8-bit input port (16 signals total) using only four pins on the microcontroller. This expansion scheme allows a designer to achieve a greater number of I/O pins without having to upgrade to a microcontroller with a higher pin count.

To output data using this I/O expansion method, the user code simply writes a byte to the serial port transmit register to initiate data transfer. This causes the written byte to be shifted out of the microcontroller's RXD pin and into the 74HC164 one bit at a time. The data is reflected at the output pins of the 74HC164 as each bit is shifted in. For address/data bus emulation, another microcontroller pin may be utilized to indicate valid data to the intended receiving device.

To receive eight bits of data in parallel using this method, the user's code must latch the data on the 74HC165's input pins into its shift register by asserting the *shift/load* signal. After this is accomplished, the user's code simply needs to enable the serial port receive circuitry to receive the data one bit at a time into its receive buffer.

11.5.2 Asynchronous Serial Communications

The most common type of serial communications is asynchronous. As its name implies, asynchronous communication takes place between two devices without use of a clock line. Data is transmitted out the transmit buffer and received into the receive buffer independently at a speed determined by the baud rate generator. Most microcontrollers offer several modes of asynchronous serial communication.

Standard Asynchronous Mode. The standard asynchronous mode consists of 10 bits: a start bit, eight data bits (LSB first), and a stop bit, as shown in Fig. 11.43. After the user initiates a transmission, data is automatically transmitted from the TX pin at the specified baud rate.

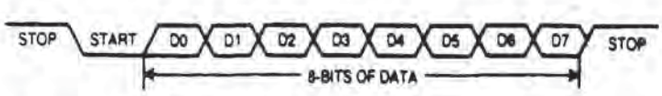


FIGURE 11.43 Standard asynchronous mode data frame.

A parity function is also implemented, which provides for a simple method of error-detection. Data transmitted will consist of either an odd or even number of logical "1"s. If even parity is enabled, the parity bit will either be set to a "1" or a "0" to make the number of "1"s in the data byte even. If odd parity is enabled, the parity bit will be set to the appropriate value to make the number of "1"s in the data byte odd. For instance, consider the data byte 11010010b. If even parity is enabled, the parity bit will be set to a "0" since there is already an even number of "1"s. If odd parity were enabled, the parity bit would be set to a "1" since another "1" would be needed to provide an odd number of "1"s. If the parity function is enabled (usually through a serial port control register), the parity bit is sent instead of the eighth data bit and parity is checked on reception. The occurrence of parity errors is typically flagged in a serial port status register to alert the microcontroller to corrupted data in the receive register.

Multiprocessor Asynchronous Serial Communications Modes. Two other common serial communications modes which are used on automotive microcontrollers are the asynchronous 9th-bit recognition mode and the asynchronous 9th-bit mode. These two modes are commonly used together for multiprocessor communications where selective selection on a data link is required. Both modes are similar to the standard asynchronous mode with the exception of an additional ninth data bit in the data frame as shown in Fig. 11.44.

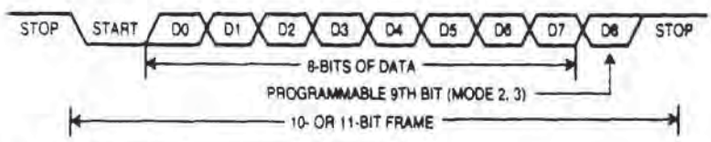


FIGURE 11.44 Asynchronous 9th-bit data frame.

The 9th-bit recognition mode consists of a start bit, nine data bits (LSB first), and a stop bit. For transmission, the ninth bit can be set to "1" by setting a corresponding bit in the serial port control register before writing to the transmit buffer. During reception, the receive interrupt bit is *not* set unless the ninth data bit being received is set to a logic "1".

The 9th-bit mode uses a data frame identical to that of the 9th-bit recognition mode. In this mode, a reception will always cause a receive interrupt, regardless of the state of the ninth data bit.

A multiprocessor data link is fairly simple to implement using these two modes. Microcontrollers within the system are connected as shown in Fig. 11.45. The master microcontroller is set to the 9th-bit recognition mode so that it is always interrupted by serial receptions. The slave microcontrollers are set to operate in the 9th-bit recognition mode so that they are interrupted on receptions only if the ninth data bit is set. Two types of data frames are used: address frames, which have the ninth bit set, and data frames, which have the ninth bit cleared. When the master processor wants to transmit a block of data to one of several slaves, it first sends out an address frame which identifies the target slave. Slaves in the 9th-bit recognition mode are not interrupted by a data frame, but an address frame interrupts all slaves. Each slave can examine the received byte and see if it is being addressed. The addressed slave then switches to the 9th-bit mode to receive data frames, while the slaves that were not addressed stay in the 9th-bit recognition mode and continue without interruption.

11.6 ANALOG-TO-DIGITAL CONVERTER

Analog-to-digital converter (A/D) peripherals allow automotive microcontrollers to sense and assign digital values to analog input voltages with considerable accuracy. An analog input

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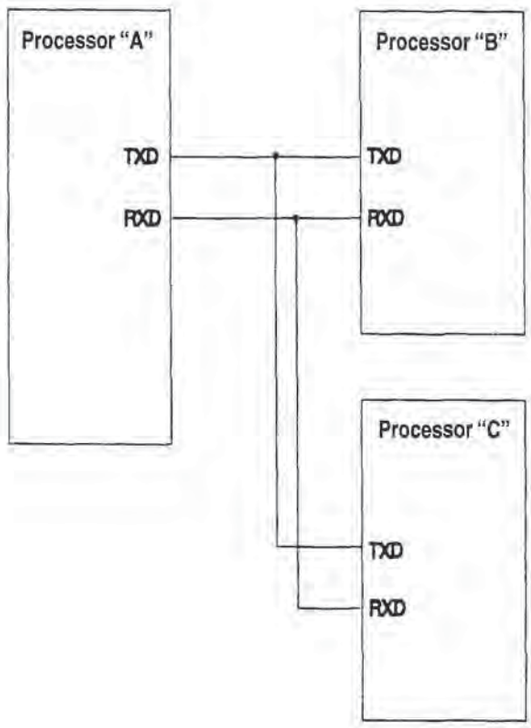


FIGURE 11.45 Asynchronous 9th-bit data frame.

may be defined as a voltage level that varies over a continuous range of values as opposed to the discrete values of digital signals.

11.6.1 Types of A/D Converters

The vast majority of A/D converters available on microcontrollers are of the successive approximation (S/A) type. Other types include flash A/D converters, in which conversions are completed in a parallel fashion and are performed at speeds measuring tens-of-nanoseconds. The drawback is that flash A/D converters require a great deal of die space when integrated on a microcontroller. It is because of their relatively large size that flash A/D converters are seldom offered on microcontrollers. Dual-slope A/D converters offer excellent A/D accuracy but typically take a relatively long period of time to complete a conversion. S/A A/D converters are very popular because they offer a compromise among accuracy, speed, and die-size requirements. The main drawback to successive approximation converters is that implementing the capacitor and resistor ladders takes a considerable amount of die space, although somewhat less than flash A/Ds. These converters are also somewhat susceptible to noise, although there are proven ways to reduce the effects of noise within a given application. The advantage of S/A converters is that they combine the best of other types of converters. They are relatively fast and do not take up excessive die space.

S/A converters typically consist of a resistor ladder, a sample capacitor, an input multiplexer, and a voltage comparator. A typical S/A converter is shown in Fig. 11.46. The resistor ladder is used to produce reference voltages for the input voltage comparison. A sample capacitor is utilized to capture the input voltage during a given period of time known as the sample time. Sample time can be defined as the amount of time that an A/D input voltage is applied to the sample capacitor.

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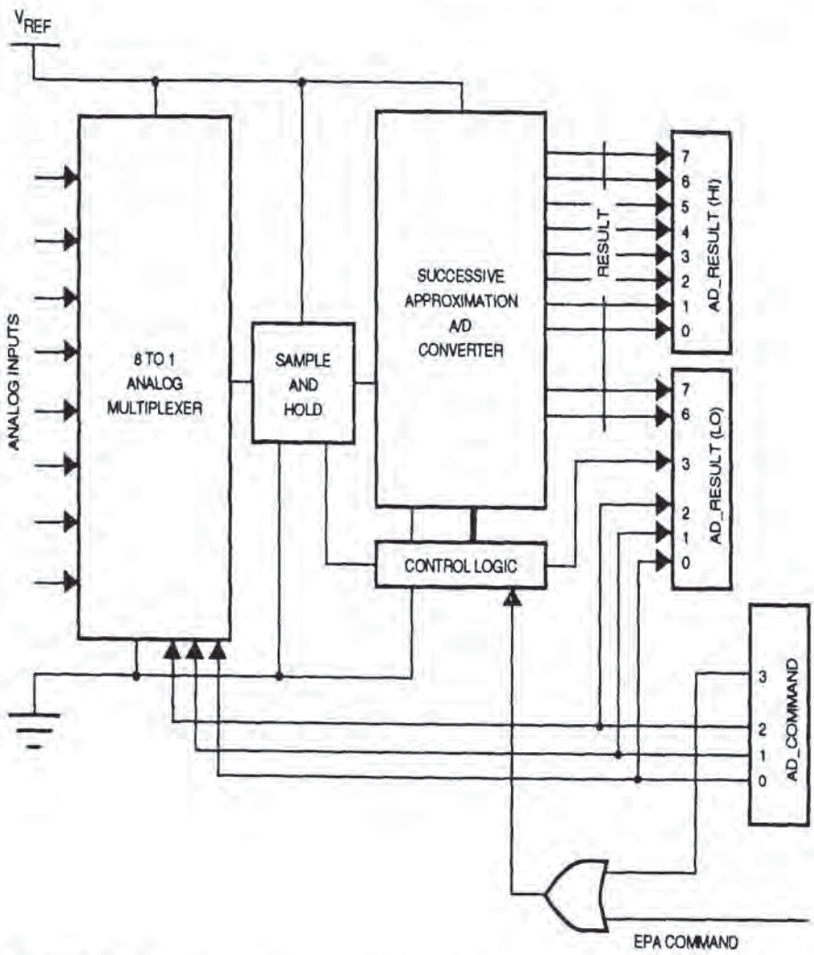


FIGURE 11.46 Typical successive approximation converter.

A successive approximation algorithm is used to perform the A/D conversion. A typical S/A converter consists of a 256-resistor ladder, a comparator, coupling capacitors, and a 10-bit successive approximation register (SAR), along with SFRs and logic to control the process. The resistor ladder provides 20-mV steps (with V_{ref} = 5.12 V), while capacitive coupling creates 5-mV steps within the 20-mV ladder voltages. Therefore, 1024 internal reference voltage levels are available for comparison against the analog input to generate a 10-bit conversion result. Eight-bit conversions use only the resistor ladder, providing 256 levels.

11.6.2 The A/D Conversion Process

The successive approximation conversion compares a reference voltage to the analog input voltage stored in the sampling capacitor. A binary search is performed for the reference voltage that most closely matches the input. The ½ full-scale reference voltage is the first tested. This corresponds to a 10-bit result in which the most significant bit is zero and all other bits are one (0111 1111 11b). If the analog input is less than the test voltage, bit 10 is left at zero and a new test voltage of ¼ full scale (0011 1111 11b) is tested. If this test voltage is less than the analog input voltage, bit 9 of the SAR is set and bit 8 is cleared for the next test (0101 1111

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11b). This binary search continues until 8 or 10 tests have occurred, at which time the valid 8-bit or 10-bit result resides in the SAR where it can be read by software.

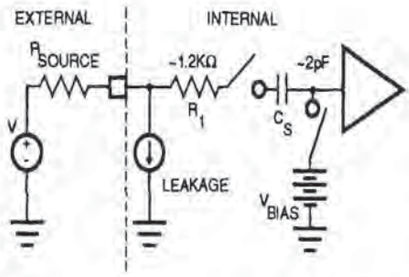


FIGURE 11.47 Idealized interface circuitry.

11.6.3 A/D Interfacing

The external interface circuitry to an analog input is highly dependent upon the application and can impact converter characteristics. Several important factors must be considered in the external interface design: input pin leakage, sample capacitor size, and multiplexer series resistance from the input pin to the sample capacitor. These factors are idealized in Fig. 11.47.

The following example is for a 1-μs sample time and a 10-bit conversion. The external input circuit must be able to charge a sample capacitor (C_S) through a series resistance (R_1) to an accurate voltage, given a dc leakage (I_L). For purposes of this example, assume C_S of 2 pf, R_1 of 1.2 kΩ, and I_L of 1 μA.

External circuits with source impedances of 1 kΩ or less can maintain an input voltage within a tolerance of about 0.2 LSB (1.0 kΩ × 1.0 μA = 1.0 mV) given the dc leakage. Source impedances above 5 kΩ can result in an external error of at least one LSB due to the voltage drop caused by the 1-μA leakage. In addition, source impedances above 25 kΩ may degrade converter accuracy because the internal sample capacitor will not charge completely during the sample time.

Typically, leakage is much lower than the maximum specification specified by the microcontroller manufacturer. Given typical leakage, source impedance may be increased substantially before a one-LSB error is apparent. However, a high source impedance may prevent the internal sample capacitor from fully charging during the sample window. This error can be calculated using the following formula:

$$\text{Error (LSBs)} = \left(e^{\frac{-T_{SAM}}{RC}} \right) \times 1024$$

where T_{SAM} = sample time, μs
$R = R_{SOURCE} + R_1$, Ω
$C = C_S$, μf

The effects of this error can be minimized by connecting an external capacitor C_{EXT} from the input pin to ANGND. The external signal will charge C_{EXT} to the source voltage. When the channel is sampled, a small portion of the charge stored in C_{EXT} will be transferred to the internal sample capacitor. The ratio of C_S to C_{EXT} causes the loss in accuracy. If C_{EXT} is .005 μf or greater, the maximum error will be –0.6 LSB.

Placing an external capacitor on each analog input also reduces the sensitivity to noise because the capacitor combines with series resistance in the external circuit to form a low-pass filter. In practice, one should include a small series resistance prior to the external capacitor on the analog input pin and choose the largest capacitor value practical, given the frequency of the signal being converted. This provides a low-pass filter on the input, while the resistor also limits input current during overvoltage conditions.

11.6.4 Analog References

To achieve maximum noise isolation, on-chip A/D converters typically separate the internal A/D power supply from the rest of the microcontroller's power supply lines. Separate supply

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pins, V_{ref} and An_{gnd}, usually supply both the reference and digital voltages for the A/D converter. Keep in mind that V_{ref} and An_{gnd} are the reference for a large resistor ladder on successive approximation converters. Any variation in these supplies will directly affect the reference voltage taps within the ladder, which in turn directly affect A/D conversion accuracy.

If the on-chip A/D converter is not being used, or if accuracy is not a concern, the Vref and Angnd pins can simply be connected to V_{cc} and V_{ss}, respectively. However, since the reference supply levels strongly influence the absolute accuracy of the A/D converter, a precision, well-regulated reference should be used to supply V_{ref} to achieve the highest performance levels. It is also important to use bypass capacitors between V_{ref} and An_{gnd} to minimize any noise that may be present on these supplies. In noise-sensitive applications running at higher frequencies, the use of separate ground planes within the PCB (circuit board) should be considered, possibly as shown in Fig. 11.48. This will help minimize ground loops and provide for a stable A/D reference.

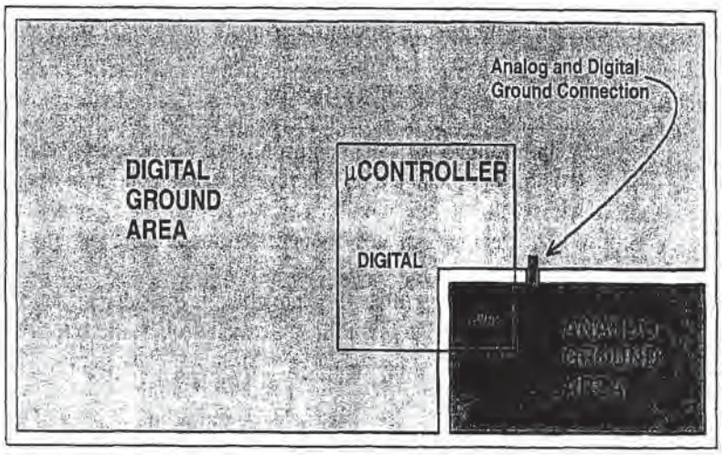


FIGURE 11.48 Example of separate analog and digital ground planes.

11.7 FAILSAFE METHODOLOGIES

The amount and complexity of automotive electronics incorporated into automobiles has increased at an incredible rate over the last decade. This trend has contributed significantly towards the impressive safety record of modern automobiles. Although microcontrollers are extremely reliable electronic devices, it is possible for failures to occur, either elsewhere in the module or within the microcontroller itself. It is critical that these failures be detected and responded to as quickly as possible in safety-related applications such as automotive antilock braking. If proper failsafe methodologies and good programming practices are followed, the chances of a failure going undetected are drastically reduced. The application of *failure mode and effect analysis* (FMEA) is an excellent tool for identifying potential failure modes, detection strategies, and containment methods. Used properly, FMEA will assist the designer in providing a high-quality, reliable automotive module. Although the scope of this chapter does not provide for a discussion on this topic, the author highly encourages the use of FMEA.

11.7.1 Hardware Failsafe Methods

Sometimes a hardware solution is required for detection of and response to certain failure modes. It is difficult for software alone to detect failures external to the device. As an example, consider a case in which electrical overstress (EOS) has damaged a port pin, causing it to

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read or drive an incorrect value. In this case, it can be difficult for software to detect because it would base its response on an incorrect value read from a pin.

Watchdog Timers (WDTs). An on-chip hardware watchdog is an excellent method of detecting failures which otherwise may go undetected. An example of this would be a microcontroller fetching either erroneous address or data (due to noise, etc.) and becoming "lost." WDTs commonly utilize a dedicated 16-bit counter, which provides for a count of 2^{16}(65,536) clocked at a rate of one tick per state time. If users wish to take advantage of this feature, they simply write to a register to enable the count. Once enabled, the user program must periodically clear the watchdog by writing a specific bit pattern to the Watchdog SFR. Clearing the WDT at least every 4.1 ms (65,535 * 1 state time at 16 MHz) will prevent the device from being reset. The strategy is that if the WDT initiates a reset, the assumption can be made that a failure has occurred and the microcontroller has became lost.

External Failsafe Devices. It is common for systems to incorporate an external failsafe device, such as another microcontroller or an *application-specific integrated circuit* (ASIC). The function of a failsafe device is to monitor the operation of the primary microcontroller and determine if it is operating properly.

The simplest failsafe devices output a signal such as a square wave for the microcontroller to detect and respond to. If the microcontroller doesn't respond correctly, a reset is typically asserted by the failsafe and the ECU reverts to a safe mode of operation. More complex failsafe devices will actually monitor several critical functions for failures such as low Vcc, stopped or decreased oscillator frequency, shorted/opened input signals, and so forth.

Oscillator Failure Detection. It is possible for the clocking source (typically an oscillator) to fail for various reasons. Since most microcontrollers are static devices, a particularly difficult failure mode to detect is the clocking of the device at a reduced frequency. To detect this failure, an *oscillator failure detection* circuit is often integrated upon the microcontroller. This circuitry will detect if the oscillator clock input signal falls below a specified frequency, in which case an interrupt will be generated or the device will reset itself.

Redundancy/Cross-checking. A common failsafe methodology is achieved by designing a redundant, or backup, processor into the module. In this case, the secondary microcontroller usually executes a subset of the main microcontroller's code. The secondary microcontroller typically processes critical input data and performs cross-checks periodically with the main microcontroller to insure proper operation. A failsafe routine is initiated if data exchanged between the two devices did not correlate.

11.7.2 Software Failsafe Techniques

Failsafe methodologies implemented in software are ideal for detecting failure modes that can interfere with proper program flow. Examples of these types of failures include noise glitches, which are notorious for causing external memory systems to fetch invalid addresses. ROM/EPROM memory corruption could cause an ISR start address to be fetched from an invalid interrupt vector location. Interrupts occurring at a rate faster than anticipated can cause problems such as an overflowing stack. Fortunately, failure modes such as these can be dealt with by implementing software failsafe methods. It is simply good programming practice to anticipate these types of failure modes and provide a failsafe strategy to deal with them. Following are several software strategies commonly used to deal with specific types of failure modes:

Checksum. One possible error that must be accounted for is ROM/EPROM memory corruption. An effective method of detecting these types of failures is through the calculation of

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a checksum during the initialization phase of a user's program. A checksum is the final value obtained as the result of performing some arithmetic operation upon every ROM/EPROM memory location. The obtained checksum is then compared against a stored checksum. If the two match, the ROM/EPROM contents are intact. An error routine is called if the two checksums do not match. The most common arithmetic operation used to perform a checksum is addition. The checksum is calculated by adding the contents of all memory locations. When the addition is performed, the carry is ignored which provides for a byte or word checksum. The final result is then used as the checksum.

Unused Interrupt Vectors. It is a rare occasion when all interrupt sources are enabled within an application. If, for some unforeseen reason, the program should vector to an unused interrupt source, some sort of failsafe routine should be implemented to respond to the failure. The failsafe routine could be as simple as vectoring to a reset instruction or it can be as complicated as the programmer wishes.

Unused Memory Locations. A strategy should be in place to detect if, for some unforeseen reason, the program sequence should begin to execute in an unused area of ROM/EPROM. It is uncommon for the user's code to fill the entire ROM/EPROM array of a microcontroller. It is good programming practice to fill any unused locations with the opcode of an instruction such as *Reset.* On the MCS-96 family, executing the opcode FFh (which happens to be the blank state of EPROM) will initiate a reset sequence. Other microcontroller families have similar instructions.

Unimplemented Opcode Interrupt Vectors. Microcontrollers often dedicate one or more interrupt vectors for failsafe purposes. An *unimplemented opcode* interrupt is designed to detect corrupted instruction fetches. The corresponding interrupt service routine is executed whenever an unsupported opcode is fetched for execution. The interrupt service routine contains the user's failsafe routine, which is tailored to address this failure for the specific application.

11.8 FUTURE TRENDS

There are several significant trends developing in automotive electronics as ECU manufacturers strive to meet the challenges of a demanding automotive electronics market. The challenges that are bringing about these trends are: decreasing cost targets, decreasing form-factor goals, increasing performance requirements, and increasing system-to-system communication requirements. As the most significant component of an ECU, microcontrollers are bearing the brunt of these demands. This section will discuss these challenges and provide some insight into some of the ways microcontroller manufacturers are addressing these trends.

11.8.1 Decreasing Cost Targets

Microcontroller manufacturers are aproaching cost reduction in two ways: indirectly and directly. *Indirect* cost reductions are achieved by integrating features onto the microcontroller which allow the system designer to reduce cost elsewhere in the system. The key to this approach being successful is in the microcontroller manufacturer's ability to integrate the feature cheaper than the cost of providing an external solution. Integration is not always the cheaper solution, therefore each feature must be evaluated individually to determine the feasability of integration. An example of an indirect cost reduction would be the integration of watchdog and failsafe functions onto the microcontroller. This would eliminate the need for external watchdog components and thus reduce cost.

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Another example would be through the integration of communications protocols such as CAN (Controller Area Network) or J1850 onto the same piece of silicon as the microcontroller. This will reduce the system chip count (and thus cost) by at least one integrated circuit device (the CAN chip) and several interfacing components. In most cases, a reduced chip count will translate into a PCB size decrease and a cost savings.

By *directly* addressing decreasing cost targets, microcontroller manufacturers actually reduce the manufacturing cost of the microcontroller itself. An example of this would be utilizing smaller geometry processes for manufacturing. Process geometry refers to the transistor channel width that is implanted onto a piece of silicon for a given fabrication process. Smaller processes allow for a higher transistor density on an integrated circuit. Higher densities allow for smaller die sizes which relate to lower costs. Most automotive microcontrollers manufactured today are fabricated with a 1.0-micron, or larger, process. As technology advances, future automotive microcontrollers will be manufactured upon submicron processes, such as 0.6 micron.

11.8.2 Increasing Performance Requirements

Automotive applications, such as ABS and engine control, require the processing of a substantial amount of data within a limited period of time. Higher-performance microcontrollers are required as system complexity increases and new features, such as traction control and vehicle dynamics, are incorporated into the ECU.

Microcontroller performance can be directly related to speed. Therefore, a rather straightforward approach to increased performance is through increasing clock speed. Today, most automotive microcontrollers have the capability to operate at frequencies of 16 MHz with speeds up to 20 MHz becoming common. Future microcontrollers will have the ability to be operated at frequencies of 24 or even 32 MHz. This allows more code to be executed in the same amount of time, and thus improves performance.

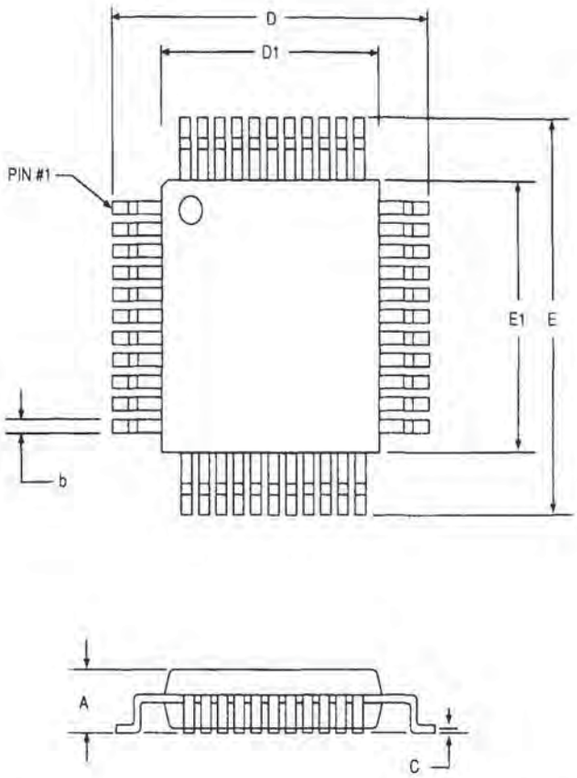
The method of increasing performance is not limited to just increasing the clock frequency. Microcontrollers can also achieve higher performance by enhancing existing peripherals for more efficient operation. This may be in the form of improved data handling or new features which suit the needs of a specific automotive application.

11.8.3 Increasing System-to-System Communication Requirements

The increasing complexity of automotive electronics requires that an increasing amount of information (diagnostics, etc.) be shared between various ECUs within an automobile. To fulfill this need, high-speed data links are utilized to transfer messages between multiple ECUs utilizing protocols such as Bosch's Controller Area Network (CAN) and SAE's J1850. To provide further size and cost savings, it is becoming more and more common to see these protocols supported or integrated onto automotive microcontrollers as opposed to separate integrated circuits.

The theory of centralized body computing is also receiving a closer look due to increased government regulations concerning fuel economy and diagnostics. A centralized body computer would link all ECUs (ABS and traction control, engine, transmission, suspension, instrumentation, etc.) together over a high-speed, in-vehicle serial network. One common scenario would have the central computer (possibly a microprocessor as opposed to a microcontroller) performing the more intense data-crunching tasks, while peripheral microcontrollers located in each individual ECU would perform system I/O functions. These communication protocols provide for efficient two-wire, high-speed serial communications between multiple ECUs utilizing protocols such as CAN and J1850. Supporting these protocols places additional loading upon the microcontroller. Increased microcontroller performance is necessary to manage this loading.

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SHRINK QUAD FLATPACK				
SYMBOL	DESCRIPTION	MIN.	NOM.	MAX.
N	Lead Count		80	
A	Overall Height			1.66
A1	Stand Off	0.00		
b	Lead Width	0.14	0.20	0.26
c	Lead Thickness	0.117	0.127	0.177
D	Terminal Dimension	13.70	14.00	14.30
D1	Package Body		12.0	
E	Terminal Dimension	13.70	14.00	14.30
E1	Package Body		12.0	
e1	Lead Pitch	0.40	0.50	0.60
L1	Foot Length	0.35	0.50	0.70
T	Lead Angle	0.0°		10.0°
Y	Coplanarity			0.10

FIGURE 11.49 Shrink quad flat pack (SQFP) package.

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11.8.4 Decreasing Form Factor Goals

Automobile manufacturers striving to build compact, more fuel efficient automobiles are putting pressure upon ECU suppliers to build smaller, lighter modules.

ECU size is directly affected by PCB size. The easiest way to achieve a smaller PCB is through integration and utilization of smaller integrated circuit packages. To support this demand, automotive microcontroller manufacturers are beginning to offer smaller, fine-pitch packages. A package commonly used today is the 68-lead plastic leaded chip carrier (PLCC) which has its pins placed on 1.27-mm centers and a body that is 24.3 mm^2. An example of a possible automotive package solution for the future would be the 80-lead shrink quad flat pack (SQFP, Fig. 11.49) which has pins on 0.50-mm centers and a body that is 12.0 mm^2. It is relatively easy to see that the SQFP package offers 12 additional pins in a package that is half the size of the PLCC. This high pin density, fine-pitch packaging allows for a smaller package to be utilized for the same size microcontroller die.

Another technology that is quickly becoming popular for automotive applications is referred to as *multichip modules* (MCMs). An MCM is a collection of unpackaged integrated circuit die (from various manufacturers) which are mounted upon a common substrate and packaged together. The advantage of MCMs is that they require much less PCB space than if the ICs were packaged separately.

GLOSSARY

Accumulator A register within a microcontroller that holds data, particularly data on which arithmetic or logic operations are to be performed.

Arithmetic logic unit (ALU) The part of a microcontroller that performs arithmetic and logic operations.

Analog-to-digital converter An electronic device that produces a digital result that is proportional to the analog input voltage.

Assembly language A low-level symbolic programming language closely resembling machine language.

Central processing unit (CPU) The portion of a computer system or microcontroller that controls the interpretation and execution of instructions and includes arithmetic capability.

EPROM Erasable and programmable read-only memory.

High-speed input/output unit (HSIO) A microcontroller peripheral which has the capability to either capture the time at which a certain input event occurs or create an output event at a predetermined time, both relative to a common clock. HSIO events are configured by the programmer to occur automatically.

Interrupt service routine (ISR) A predefined portion of a computer program which is executed in response to a specific event.

Low-speed input/output The input/output of a digital signal by "manually" reading or writing a register location in software.

Machine language A set of symbols, characters, or signs used to communicate with a computer in a form directly usable by the computer without translation.

Program counter (PC) A microcontroller register which holds the address of the next instruction to be executed.

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Program status word (PSW) A microcontroller register that contains a set of boolean flags which are used to retain information regarding the state of the user's program.

Pulse-width modulation (PWM) The precise and timely creation of negative and positive waveform edges to achieve a waveform with a specific frequency and duty cycle.

Random access memory (RAM) A memory device which has both read and write capabilities so that the stored information (write) can be retrieved (reread) and be changed by applying new information to the inputs.

Read-only memory (ROM) A memory that can only be read and not written to. Data is either entered during the manufacturing process or by later programming; once entered, it is unalterable.

Register/arithmetic logic unit (RALU) A component of register-direct microcontroller architectures that allows the ALU to operate directly upon the entire register file.

Serial input/output (SIO) A method of digital communication in which a group of data bits is transferred one at a time, sequentially over a single data line.

Special function register (SFR) A microcontroller RAM register which has a specific, dedicated function assigned to it.

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CHAPTER 12
ENGINE CONTROL

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12.1 OBJECTIVES OF ELECTRONIC ENGINE CONTROL SYSTEMS

The electronic engine control system consists of sensing devices which continuously measure the operating conditions of the engine, an electronic control unit (ECU) which evaluates the sensor inputs using data tables and calculations and determines the output to the actuating devices, and actuating devices which are commanded by the ECU to perform an action in response to the sensor inputs.

The motive for using an electronic engine control system is to provide the needed accuracy and adaptability in order to minimize exhaust emissions and fuel consumption, provide optimal driveability for all operating conditions, minimize evaporative emissions, and provide system diagnosis when malfunctions occur.

In order for the control system to meet these objectives, considerable development time is required for each engine and vehicle application. A substantial amount of development must occur with an engine installed on an engine dynamometer under controlled conditions. Information gathered is used to develop the ECU data tables. A considerable amount of development effort is also required with the engine installed in the vehicle. Final determination of the data tables occurs during vehicle testing.

12.1.1 Exhaust Emissions

Exhaust Components. The engine exhaust consists of products from the combustion of the air and fuel mixture. Fuel is a mixture of chemical compounds, termed hydrocarbons (HC). The various fuel compounds are a combination of hydrogen and carbon. Under perfect combustion conditions, the hydrocarbons would combine in a thermal reaction with the oxygen in the air to form carbon dioxide (CO_2) and water (H_2O). Unfortunately, perfect combustion does not occur and in addition to CO_2 and H_2O, carbon monoxide (CO), oxides of nitrogen (NO_x), and hydrocarbons (HC) occur in the exhaust as a result of the combustion reaction. Additives and impurities in the fuel also contribute minute quantities of pollutants such as lead oxides, lead halogenides, and sulfur oxides. In compression ignition (diesel) engines, there is also an appreciable amount of soot (particulates) created. Federal statues regulate the allowable amount of HC, NO_x, and CO emitted in a vehicle's exhaust. On diesel engines, the amount of particulates emitted is also regulated.

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Spark Ignition Engines

Air/fuel Ratio. The greatest effect on the combustion process, and therefore on the exhaust emissions, is the mass ratio of air to fuel. The air/fuel mixture ratio must lie within a certain range for optimal ignition and combustion. For a spark ignition engine, the mass ratio for complete fuel combustion is 14.7:1; i.e., 14.7 kg of air to 1 kg of fuel. This ratio is known as the stoichiometric ratio. In terms of volume, approximately 10,000 liters of air would be required for 1 liter of fuel. The air/fuel ratio is often described in terms of the excess-air factor known as lambda (λ). Lambda indicates the deviation of the actual air/fuel ratio from the theoretically required ratio:

$$\lambda = \frac{\text{quantity of air supplied}}{\text{theoretical requirement (14.7 for gasoline)}}$$

At stoichiometry: $\lambda = 1$
For a mixture with excess air (lean): $\lambda > 1$
For a mixture with deficient air (rich): $\lambda < 1$

Effect of Air/Fuel Ratio on Emissions

CO emissions. In the rich operating range ($\lambda < 1$), CO emissions increase almost linearly with an increasing amount of fuel. In the lean range ($\lambda > 1$), CO emissions are at their lowest. With an engine operating at ($\lambda = 1$), the CO emissions can be influenced by the cylinder distribution. If some cylinders are operating rich and others lean with the summation achieving $\lambda = 1$, the average CO emissions will be higher than if all cylinders were operating at $\lambda = 1$.

HC emissions. As with CO emissions, HC emissions increase with an increasing amount of fuel. The minimum HC emissions occur at $\lambda = 1.1 \ldots 1.2$. At very lean air/fuel ratios, the HC emissions again increase due to less than optimal combustion conditions resulting in unburned fuel.

NO_x emissions. The effect of the air/fuel ratio on NO_x emissions is the opposite of HC and CO on the rich side of stoichiometry. As the air content increases, the oxygen content increases and the result is more NO_x. On the lean side of stoichiometry, NO_x emissions decrease with increasing air because the decreasing density lowers the combustion chamber temperature. The maximum NO_x emissions occur at $\lambda = 1.05 \ldots 1.1$.

Catalytic Converters. To reduce the exhaust gas emission concentration, a catalytic converter is installed in the exhaust system. Chemical reactions occur in the converter that transform the exhaust emissions to less harmful chemical compounds. The most commonly used converter for a spark ignition engine is the three-way converter (TWC). As the name implies, it simultaneously reduces the concentration of all three regulated exhaust gases: HC, CO, and NO_x. The catalyst promotes reactions that oxidize HC and CO, converting them into CO_2 and H_2O, while reducing NO_x emissions into N_2. The actual chemical reactions that occur are:

$$2CO + O_2 \rightarrow 2CO_2$$

$$2C_2H_6 + 7O_2 \rightarrow 4CO_2 + 6H_20$$

$$2NO + 2CO \rightarrow N_2 + 2CO_2$$

In order for the catalytic converter to operate at the highest efficiency for conversion for all three gases (HC, CO, NO_x), the average air/fuel ratio must be maintained within less than 1 percent of stoichiometry. This small operating range is known as the *lambda window* or *catalytic converter window.* Figure 12.1 is a graph of lambda (λ) versus the exhaust emissions both before and after the catalytic converter. Up to 90 percent of the exhaust gases are converted to less harmful compounds by the catalytic converter.

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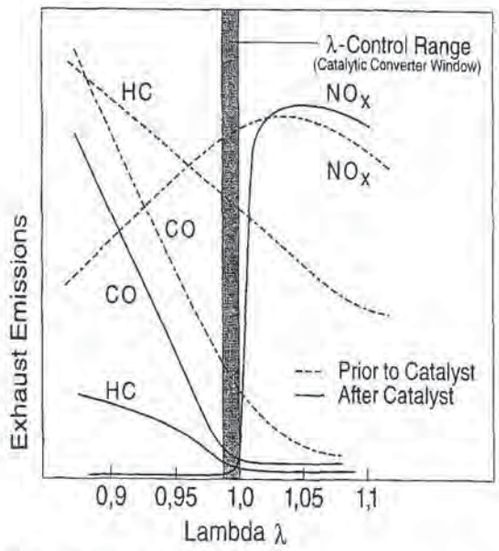


FIGURE 12.1 Lambda effect on exhaust emissions prior to and after catalyst treatment.

To remain within the catalytic converter window, the air/fuel ratio is controlled by the lambda closed-loop fuel control system, which is part of the electronic engine control system. The key component in this system is the lambda sensor. This sensor is installed in the exhaust system upstream of the catalytic converter and responds to the oxygen content in the exhaust gas. The oxygen content is a measure of the excess air (or deficiency of air) in the exhaust gases. A detailed discussion of the lambda closed-loop control system occurs in Sec. 12.2.1.

Ignition Timing. The ignition timing is defined as the crankshaft angle before top dead center (TDC) at which the ignition spark occurs. The ignition timing of the air/fuel mixture has a decisive influence on the exhaust emissions.

Effect of ignition timing on exhaust emissions.

- CO emissions are almost completely independent of the ignition timing and are primarily a function of the air/fuel ratio.
- In general, the more the ignition is advanced, the higher the emissions of HCs. Reactions initiated in the combustion chamber continue to occur after the exhaust valve opens, which depletes the remaining HCs. With advanced timing due to lower exhaust temperatures, these postreactions do not readily occur.
- With increased timing advance, the combustion chamber temperatures increase. The temperature increase causes an increase in NO_x emissions regardless of air/fuel ratio.

To provide the optimal ignition timing for exhaust emissions, precise control of the ignition timing is required. It is imperative that the ignition timing be coordinated with the air/fuel ratio since they have a combined effect on exhaust emissions as well as fuel consumption and driveability. Ignition timing is generally controlled by the ECU. Ignition timing control is discussed in detail in Sec. 12.2.1.

Exhaust Gas Recirculation (EGR). Exhaust gas recirculation (EGR) is a method of reducing emissions of oxides of nitrogen. A portion of the exhaust gas is recirculated back to the combustion chamber. Exhaust gas is an inert gas and, in the combustion chamber, it lowers the peak combustion temperature. Depending on the amount of EGR, NO_x emissions can be reduced by up to 60 percent, although an increase in HC emissions would occur at such high levels of EGR.

Some internal EGR occurs due to the overlap of the exhaust and intake valves. Additional quantities are supplied by a separate system linking the exhaust manifold to the intake mani-

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fold. The quantity of EGR flow to the intake system is metered by a pneumatic or electronic valve. The EGR valve is controlled by the ECU. The maximum flow of EGR is limited by an increase in HC emissions, fuel consumption, and engine roughness. EGR control is discussed in detail in Sec. 12.2.1.

Compression Ignition (Diesel) Engines. There are some key distinctions between an SI engine and a CI engine. The CI engine uses high pressure and temperature instead of a spark to ignite the combustible air/fuel mixture. To achieve this, the CI engine compression ratio is in the range of 21:1, as opposed to roughly 10:1 for an SI engine. In a CI engine, the fuel is injected directly into the cylinder near the top of the compression stroke. Mixing of the fuel and air, therefore, occurs directly in the cylinder.

Air/fuel ratio. Diesel engines always operate with excess air ($\lambda > 1$). Where:

$$\lambda = \frac{\text{quantity of air supplied}}{\text{theoretical requirement}}$$

The excess air ($\lambda = 1.1 \ldots 1.2$) reduces the amount of soot (particulates), HC, and CO emissions.

Catalytic Converters. An oxidizing catalyst is used that converts CO and HC to CO_2 and H_2O. The NO_x reduction that occurs for an SI engine three-way catalyst (TWC) is not possible with a diesel because the diesel operates with excess air. The optimal conversion of NO_x requires a stoichiometric ratio ($\lambda = 1$) or a deficiency of air ($\lambda < 1$).

Injection Timing. In a compression ignition engine, the start of combustion is determined by the start of fuel injection. In general, retarding the injection timing decreases NO_x emissions, while overretarding results in an increase in HC emissions. A 1° (crankshaft angle) deviation in injection timing can increase NO_x emissions by 5 percent and HC emissions by as much as 15 percent. Precise control of injection timing is critical. Injection timing on some systems is controlled by the ECU. Feedback on injection timing can be provided by a sensor installed on the injector nozzle. Further discussion on injection timing occurs in Sec. 12.3.1.

Exhaust Gas Recirculation (EGR). As with an SI engine, exhaust gas can be recirculated to the combustion chamber to significantly reduce NO_x emissions. The quantity of EGR allowed to enter the intake is metered by the EGR valve. If the quantity is too high, HC emissions, CO emissions, and soot (particulates) increase as a result of an insufficient quantity of air. The EGR valve is controlled by the ECU, which determines how much EGR is tolerable under the current engine operating conditions.

12.1.2 Fuel Consumption

Federal statutes are currently in effect that require each automobile manufacturer to achieve a certain average fuel economy for all their models produced in one model year. The requirement is known as *corporate average fuel economy* or CAFE. The fuel economy for each vehicle type is determined during the federal test procedure, the same as for exhaust emissions determination, conducted on a chassis dynamometer. Because of the CAFE requirement, it is critical that fuel consumption be minimized for every vehicle type produced.

The electronic engine control system provides the fuel metering and ignition timing precision required to minimize fuel consumption. Optimum fuel economy occurs near $\lambda = 1.1$. However, as discussed previously, lean engine operation affects exhaust emissions and NO_x is at its maximum at $\lambda = 1.1$.

During coasting and braking, fuel consumption can be further reduced by shutting off the fuel until the engine speed decreases to slightly higher than the set idle speed. The ECU determines when fuel shutoff can occur by evaluating the throttle position, engine RPM, and vehicle speed.

The influence of ignition timing on fuel consumption is the opposite of its influence on exhaust emissions. As the air/fuel mixture becomes leaner, the ignition timing must be advanced to compensate for a slower combustion speed. However, as discussed previously,

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advancing the ignition timing increases the emissions of HC and NO_x. A sophisticated ignition control strategy permitting optimization of the ignition at each operating point is necessary to reach the compromise between fuel consumption and exhaust emissions. The electronic engine control system can provide this sophisticated strategy.

12.1.3 Driveability

Another requirement of the electronic engine control system is to provide acceptable driveability under all operating conditions. No stalls, hesitations, or other objectionable roughness should occur during vehicle operation. Driveability is influenced by almost every operation of the engine control system and, unlike exhaust emissions or fuel economy, is not easily measured. A significant contribution to driveability is determined by the fuel metering and ignition timing. When determining the best fuel and ignition compromises for fuel consumption and exhaust emissions, it is important to evaluate the driveability. Other factors that influence driveability are the idle speed control, EGR control, and evaporative emissions control.

12.1.4 Evaporative Emissions

Hydrocarbon (HC) emissions in the form of fuel vapors escaping from the vehicle are closely regulated by federal statutes. The prime source of these emissions is the fuel tank. Due to ambient heating of the fuel and the return of unused hot fuel from the engine, fuel vapor is generated in the tank. The evaporative emissions control system (EECS) is used to control the evaporative HC emissions. The fuel vapors are routed to the intake manifold via the EECS and they are burned in the combustion process. The quantity of fuel vapors delivered to the intake manifold must be metered such that exhaust emissions and driveability are not adversely affected. The metering is provided by a purge control valve whose function is controlled by the ECU. Further discussion on the operation of the evaporative emissions control system occurs in Sec. 12.2.1.

12.1.5 System Diagnostics

The purpose of system diagnostics is to provide a warning to the driver when the control system determines a malfunction of a component or system and to assist the service technician in identifying and correcting the failure (see Chap. 22). To the driver, the engine may appear to be operating correctly, but excessive amounts of pollutants may be emitted. The ECU determines a malfunction has occurred when a sensor signal received during normal engine operation or during a system test indicates there is a problem. For critical operations such as fuel metering and ignition control, if a required sensor input is faulty, a substitute value may be used by the ECU so that the engine will continue to operate.

When a failure occurs, the malfunction indicator light (MIL), visible to the driver, is illuminated. Information on the failure is stored in the ECU. A service technician can retrieve the information on the failure from the ECU and correct the problem. Detailed examples of system diagnostics are discussed in Sec. 12.2.3.

12.2 SPARK IGNITION ENGINES

12.2.1 Engine Control Functions

Fuel Control. For the purpose of discussing fuel control strategies, a multipoint pulsed fuel injection system is assumed. Additional discussions of fuel control for different types of fuel

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systems such as carbureters, single-point injection, and multipoint continuous injection appear in Sec. 12.2.4 (Fuel Delivery Systems).

In order for the fuel metering system to provide the appropriate amount of fuel for the engine operating conditions, the mass flow rate of incoming air, known as the air charge, must be determined.

$$F_m = \frac{A_m}{\text{requested air-fuel ratio}}$$

where F_m = fuel mass flow rate
A_m = air mass flow rate

The air mass flow rate can be calculated from:

$$A_m = A_v A_d$$

where A_v = volume flow rate of intake air
A_d = air density

There are three methods commonly used for determining the air charge: speed density, air flow measurement, and air mass measurement. In the speed density method, the air charge is calculated by the engine electronic control unit based on the measurement of air inlet temperature, intake manifold pressure, and engine RPM. The temperature and pressure are used to determine the air density and the RPM is used to determine the volume flow rate. The engine acts as an air pump during the intake stroke. The calculated volume flow rate can be determined as follows:

$$A_{\text{RPM}} = \frac{\text{RPM}}{60} \times \frac{D}{2} \times V_{\text{E}}$$

where RPM = engine speed
D = engine displacement
V_{E} = volumetric efficiency

In an engine using exhaust gas recirculation (EGR), the volume flow rate of EGR must be subtracted from the calculated volume flow rate.

$$A_v = A_{\text{RPM}} - A_{\text{EGR}}$$

The volume flow rate of EGR can be determined empirically based on the EGR valve flow rate and the EGR control strategy being used.

In the air flow measurement method, the air flow is measured using a vane type meter and air density changes are compensated for by an air inlet temperature sensor. The vane meter uses the force of the incoming air to move a flap through a defined angle. This angular movement is converted by a potentiometer to a voltage ratio. Because only the fresh air charge is measured, no compensation is required for EGR.

In the air mass measurement method, the air charge is measured directly using a hot-wire or hot-film air mass flow sensor. The inlet air passes a heated element, either wire or film. The element is part of a bridge circuit that keeps the element at a constant temperature above the inlet air temperature. By measuring the heating current required by the bridge circuit and converting this to a voltage via a resistor, the air mass flow passing the element can be determined. Again, because only the fresh air charge is measured, no compensation for EGR is required. However, sensing errors may occur due to strong intake manifold reversion pulses, which occur under certain operating conditions. In such cases, a correction factor must be determined and applied.

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Calculation of Injector Pulse Width. The base pulse width is determined from the required fuel mass flow rate (F_m) and an empirical injector constant. The injector constant is determined by the design of the injector and is a function of the energized time versus the flow volume. This constant is normally determined with a constant differential pressure across the injector (from fuel rail to intake manifold). When the pressure across the injector does not remain constant (i.e., there is no pressure regulator intake manifold vacuum reference), an entire map of injector constants for different manifold pressures may be required.

The effective injector pulse width is a modification of the base pulse width. The base pulse width is adjusted by a number of correction factors depending on operating conditions. For example, a battery voltage correction is required to compensate for the electromechanical characteristics of the fuel injectors. Injector opening and closing rates differ depending on the voltage applied to the injector, which affects the amount of fuel injected for a given pulse width. Other common correction factors may include hot restart, cold operation, and transient operation corrections. Figure 12.2 is a flowchart of a typical injector effective pulse-width calculation method.

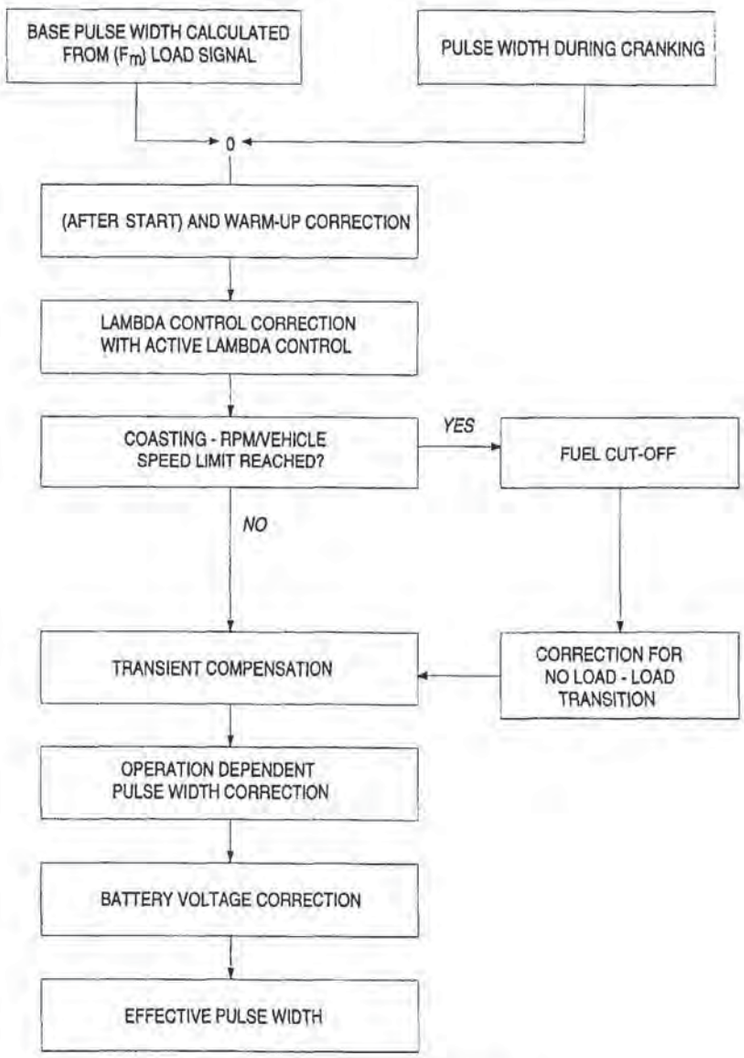


FIGURE 12.2 Determination of effective injector pulse width.

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Injection Strategies. There are three commonly used fuel injection strategies for multipoint fuel metering systems: simultaneous injection, group injection, and sequential injection. Figure 12.3 is a diagram of the different strategies. Some engines use simultaneous injection during crank and switch over to sequential after the engine is running. This allows for shorter starting times since no synchronization with the camshaft is necessary before fuel injection begins. A description of each strategy follows.

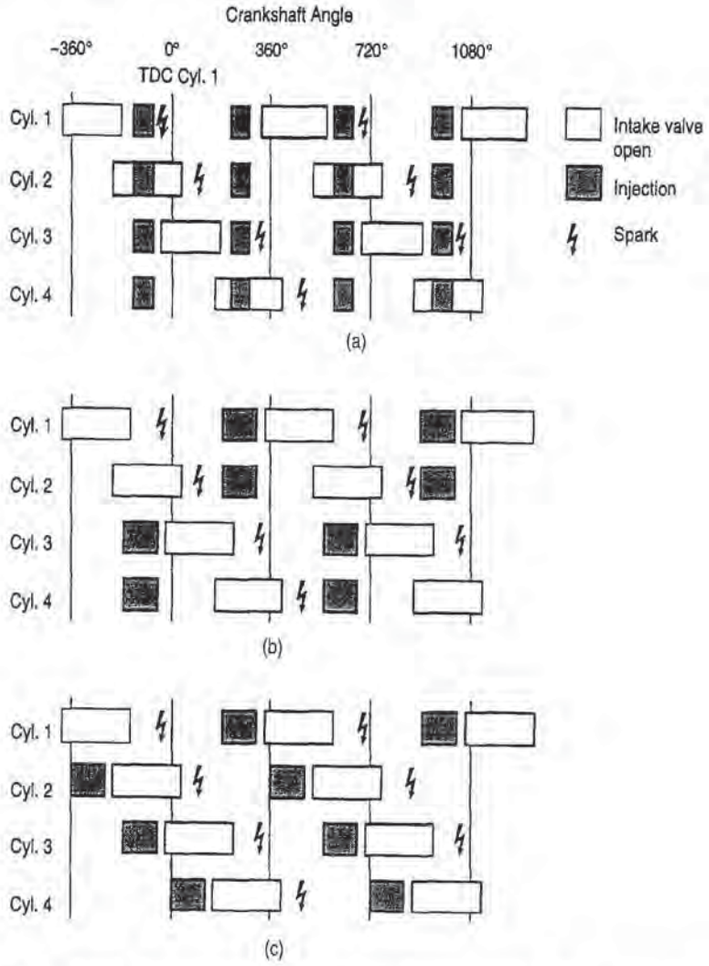


FIGURE 12.3 Fuel injection strategies: (*a*) simultaneous injection, (*b*) group injection, and (*c*) sequential injection.

Simultaneous injection. Injection of fuel occurs at the same time for all cylinders every revolution of the crankshaft. Therefore, fuel is injected twice within each four-stroke cycle. The injection timing is fixed with respect to crank/camshaft position.

Group injection. The injectors are divided into two groups that are controlled separately. Each group injects once per four-stroke cycle. The offset between the groups is one crankshaft revolution. This arrangement allows for injection timing selection that eliminates spraying fuel into an open intake valve.

Sequential injection. Each injector is controlled separately. Injection timing, both with reference to crank/camshaft position and pulse width, can be optimized for each individual cylinder.

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Lambda Control. A subsystem of the fuel control system is lambda closed-loop control. Lambda (λ) is defined as the excess-air factor that indicates the deviation of the actual air/fuel ratio from the theoretically required ratio:

$$\lambda = \frac{\text{quantity of air supplied}}{\text{theoretical requirement (14.7 for gasoline)}}$$

The lambda sensor, or exhaust gas oxygen sensor, is installed in the engine exhaust stream upstream of the catalytic converter. The sensor responds to the oxygen content of the exhaust gas. The signal from the lambda sensor serves as feedback to the fuel control system. This provides the fine-tuning needed to remain within the limited catalytic converter window for optimal catalyst performance. (See Sec. 12.1.1 for more discussion on the catalytic converter window.) For a lean mixture ($\lambda > 1$), sensor voltage is approximately 100 mV. For a rich mixture ($\lambda < 1$), the sensor voltage is approximately 800 mV. At roughly $\lambda = 1$ (a stoichiometric mixture), the sensor switches rapidly between the two voltages. The input from the lambda sensor is used to modify the base pulse width to achieve $\lambda = 1$.

Lambda closed-loop control requires an operationally ready lambda sensor, typically one which has reached an operating temperature threshold. Sensor output is monitored by the ECU to determine when the sensor is supplying usable information. An active sensor signal, along with other requirements, such as engine temperature, must be achieved before lambda closed-loop control will be activated.

Under steady state conditions, the lambda control system oscillates between rich and lean around the lambda window. As the lambda sensor switches, the injector pulse width is adjusted by the amount determined by a control factor until the lambda sensor switches again to the opposite condition. The control factor can be defined as the allowable increase or decrease in the commanded fuel injector pulse width. The frequency of oscillation is determined by the gas transport time and the magnitude of the control factor. The gas transport time is defined as the time from air/fuel mixture formation to lambda sensor measurement.

Under transient conditions, the gas transport time results in a delay before the lambda sensor can indicate that the operating conditions have changed. Using only the lambda sensor for closed-loop fuel control would result in poor driveability and exhaust emissions because of this delay. Therefore, the engine control unit uses an anticipatory control strategy that uses engine load and RPM to determine the approximate fuel requirement. The engine load information is provided by the manifold pressure sensor for speed density systems and by the air meter for air flow and air mass measurement systems and by the throttle valve position sensor. The engine control unit contains data tables for combinations of load and RPM. This allows for rapid response to changes in operating conditions. The lambda sensor still provides the feedback correction for each load/RPM point. The data used for these data tables are largely developed from system modeling and engine development testing.

Due to production variations in engines, variations in fuel and changes due to wear and aging, the control system must be able to adapt to function properly for every engine over the engine's life. Therefore, the electronic control unit has a feature for adapting changes in the fuel required for the load/RPM points. At each load/RPM point, the lambda sensor continuously provides information that allows the system to adjust the fuel to the commanded A/F ratio. The corrected information is stored in RAM (random access memory) so that the next time the engine reaches that operating point (load/RPM), the anticipatory value will require less correction. These values remain stored in the electronic control unit even after the engine is shut off. Only if power to the electronic control unit is disrupted (i.e., due to a dead battery), will the correction be lost. In that case, the electronic control unit will revert back to the original production values that are written in ROM (read-only memory).

Lambda sensors do not switch symmetrically from lean to rich and rich to lean. Because of this, the control strategy is modified to account for the asymmetry. This can be accomplished either by delaying the modification by the control factor after the sensor switches or by using control factors of different magnitudes for rich-to-lean and lean-to-rich switching.

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Ignition Timing Control. The goal of the engine control system for ignition timing is to provide spark advance which optimizes engine torque, exhaust emissions, fuel economy, and driveability, and which minimizes engine knock. Data tables with the base ignition timing, depending on engine load and RPM, are stored in ROM in the electronic control unit. The values in these tables are optimized for fuel economy, exhaust emissions, and engine torque. They are developed through engine experimentation, usually with an engine dynamometer. Corrections to the base timing values are needed for temperature effects, EGR, hot restart, barometric pressure, and engine knock. In addition, some systems use ignition timing to vary the engine torque for improvement in automatic transmission shift quality or for idle speed control. Figure 12.4 is a flowchart of a typical ignition timing calculation method.

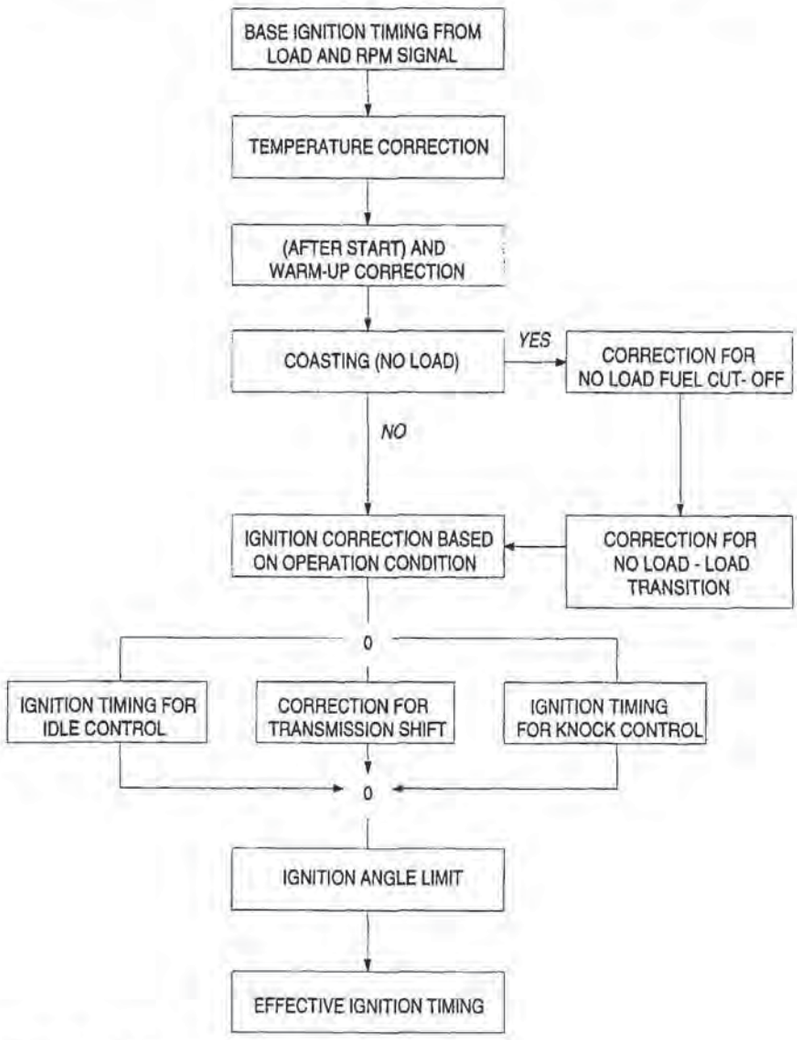


FIGURE 12.4 Determination of effective ignition timing.

Dwell Angle Control. The dwell angle performance map stored in the electronic control unit controls the charging time of the ignition coil, depending on RPM and battery voltage. The dwell angle is controlled so that the desired primary current is reached at the end of the charging time just prior to the ignition point. This assures the necessary primary current, even with quick transients in RPM. A limit on the charge time in the upper RPM ranges allows for the necessary spark duration.

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Knock Control. The ignition timing for optimization of torque, fuel economy, and exhaust emissions is in close proximity to the ignition timing that results in engine knock. Engine knock occurs when the ignition timing is advanced too far for the engine operating conditions and causes uncontrolled combustion that can lead to engine damage, depending on the severity and frequency. If a factor of safety was used when developing the base timing map for all conditions that contribute to knock, such as fuel quality and variations in compression ratio, the ignition timing would be significantly retarded from the optimum level, resulting in a significant loss in torque and fuel economy. To avoid this, a knock sensor (one or more) is installed on the engine to detect knocking (see Chap. 8). Knock sensors are usually acceleration sensors that provide an electric signal to the electronic control unit. From this signal, the engine control unit algorithm determines which cylinder or cylinders are knocking. Ignition timing is modified (retarded) for those cylinders until the knock is no longer detected. The ignition timing is then advanced again until knock is detected. (See Fig. 12.5.) Information on the amount of spark retard required to eliminate the knock for each cylinder under each load/RPM condition is saved in the electronic control unit RAM. This allows for quick access to the appropriate "learned" ignition timing for each condition. With this control system, the base timing can be more advanced for improved fuel economy and torque.

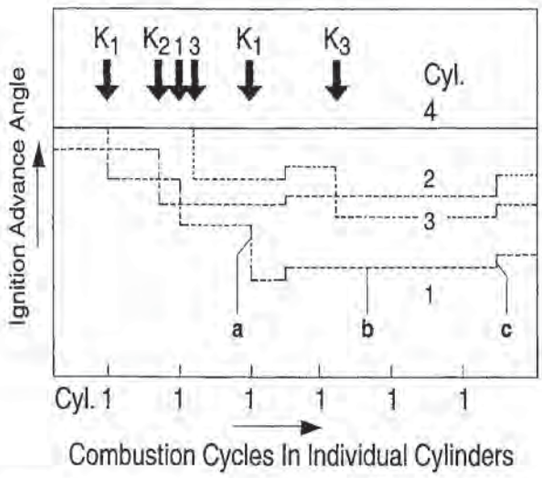


FIGURE 12.5 Knock control. Control algorithm for ignition adjustments for a four-cylinder engine. $K_{1\ldots3}$ (knock in cylinders 1 . . . 3), cylinder number four (no knock), (*a*) (ignition retard), (*b*) (delay before return to original point, (*c*) (spark advance).

Evaporative Emissions Control. Hydrocarbon (HC) emissions in the form of fuel vapors escaping from the vehicle, primarily from the fuel tank, are closely regulated by federal statutes. There are two principal causes of fuel vapor in the fuel tank: increasing ambient temperature and return of unused hot fuel from the engine. In order to control the release of these emissions to the atmosphere, the evaporative emissions control system was developed.

Evaporative Emissions Control System. A vapor ventilation line exits the fuel tank and enters the fuel vapor canister. The canister consists of an active charcoal element which absorbs the vapor and allows only air to escape to the atmosphere. Only a certain volume of fuel vapor can be contained by the canister. The vapors in the canister must therefore be purged from and burned by the engine so that the canister can continue to store vapors as they are generated. To accomplish this, another line leads from the charcoal canister to the intake manifold. Included in this line is the canister purge solenoid valve. Figure 12.6 shows a layout of a typical evaporative emissions control system.

During engine operation, vacuum in the intake manifold causes flow through the charcoal canister because the canister vent opening, at the charcoal filter end, is at atmospheric pres-

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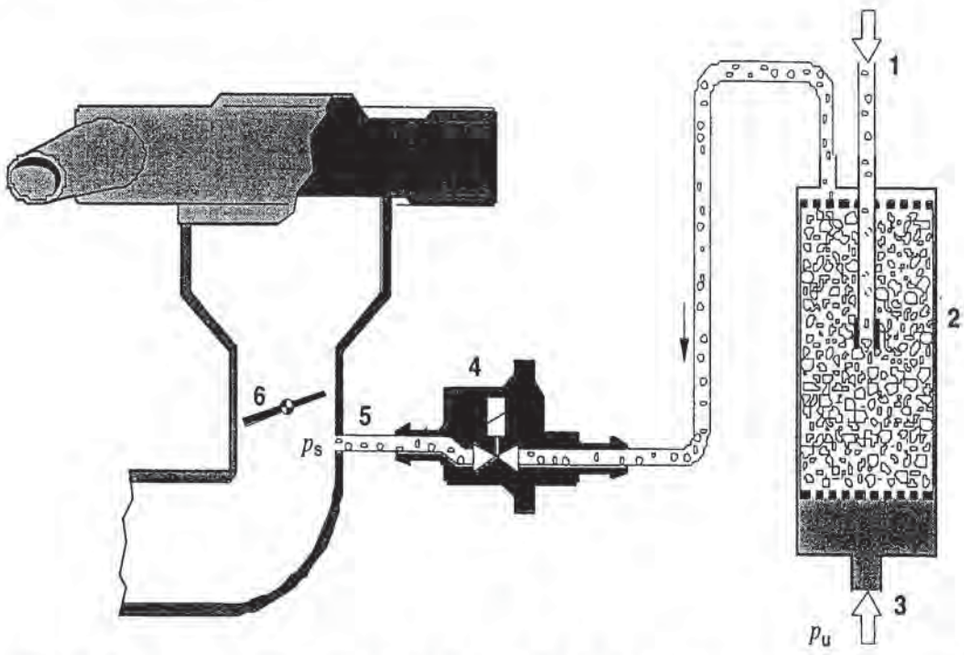


FIGURE 12.6 Evaporative emission control system: fuel vapor from fuel tank (1), charcoal canister (2), ambient air (3), canister purge control valve (4), purge line to intake manifold (5), throttle valve (6), p_s is intake manifold vacuum, and p_u is atmospheric pressure.

sure. The canister purge valve meters the amount of flow from the canister. The amount of fuel vapor in the canister and, therefore, contained in the flow stream, is not known. Therefore, it is critical that the lambda control system is operating and adjusting the fuel requirement as the vapors are being purged. Purge vapors could otherwise result in up to a 30 percent increase in air/fuel mixture richness in the engine.

Purge Valve Control. Control of the purge valve must allow for two criteria:

- There must be enough vapor flow so that the charcoal canister does not become saturated and leak fuel vapors to the atmosphere
- Purge flow must generally occur under lambda closed-loop control so that the effect of the purge vapors on A/F ratio can be detected and the fuel metering corrected

When the electronic control unit commands the purge valve to meter vapor from the canister, it requests a duty cycle (ratio of ON time to total ON and OFF time). This allows the amount of vapor flow to be regulated depending on the engine operating conditions. When lambda control is not operating, only low duty cycles and, therefore, small amounts of purge vapors, are allowed. Under deceleration fuel cutoff, the purge valve is closed entirely to minimize the possibility of unburned HCs in the exhaust.

Turbocharger Boost Pressure Control. The exhaust turbocharger consists of a compressor and an exhaust turbine arranged on a common shaft. Energy from the exhaust gas is converted to rotational energy by the exhaust turbine, which then drives the compressor. The compressed air leaves the compressor and passes through the air cooler (optional), throttle valve, intake manifold, and into the cylinders. In order to achieve near-constant air charge pressure over a wide RPM range, the turbocharger uses a circuit that allows for the bypass of the exhaust gases away from the exhaust turbine. The valve that regulates the bypass opens at a specified air charge pressure and is known as the wastegate.

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Engines that have turbochargers benefit significantly from electronic boost pressure control. If only a pneumatic-mechanical wastegate is used, only one boost pressure point for the entire operating range is used to divert the exhaust gas. This creates a compromise for part-load conditions, which results in increased exhaust backpressure, more turbocharger work, more residual exhaust gas in the cylinders, and higher-charge air temperatures.

By controlling the wastegate with a pulse-width modulated solenoid valve, different wastegate opening pressures can be specified, depending on the engine operating conditions (Fig. 12.7). Therefore, only the level of air charge pressure required is developed. The electronic control unit uses information on engine load from either manifold pressure or the air meter and RPM and throttle position. From this information, a data table is referenced and the proper boost pressure (actually a duty cycle of the control valve) is determined. On systems using manifold pressure sensors, a closed-loop control system can be developed to compare the specified value with the measured value.

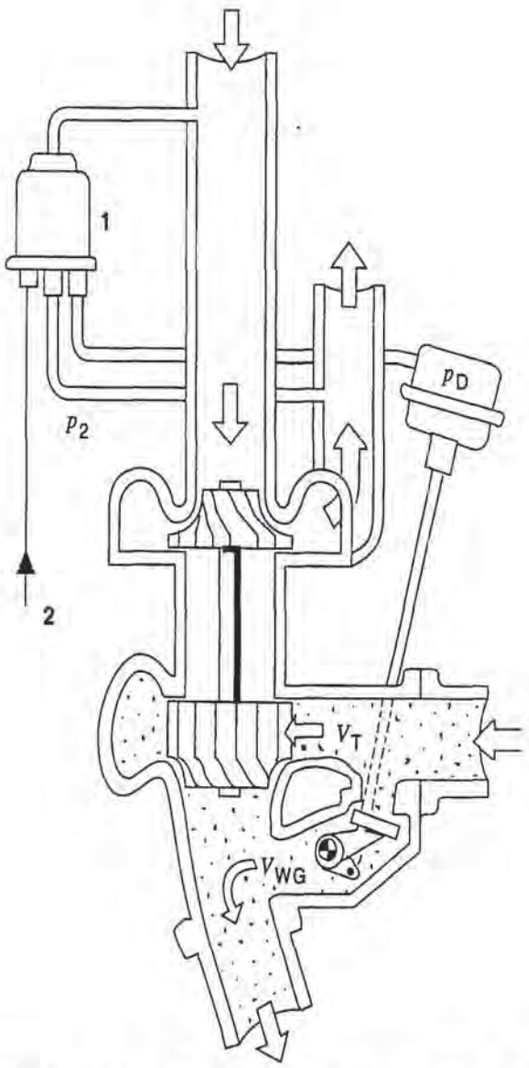


FIGURE 12.7 Electronic turbocharger boost control: solenoid valve (1), control signal from ECU (2), boost pressure (p_D), volume flow through turbine (V_T), volume flow through wastegate (V_{WG}).

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The boost pressure control system is usually used in combination with knock control for turbocharged engines. When the ignition timing is retarded due to knock, an increase in already high exhaust temperatures for turbocharged engines occurs. To counteract the temperature increase, the boost pressure is reduced when the ignition timing is retarded past a predetermined threshold.

Engine/Vehicle Speed Control. Using the inputs of engine RPM and vehicle speed to the electronic control unit, thresholds can be established for limiting these variables with fuel cutoff. When the maximum speed is achieved, the fuel injectors are shut off. When the speed decreases below the threshold, fuel injection resumes.

EGR Control. By mixing a portion of the exhaust gas with the fresh intake air/fuel mixture, oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) can be reduced by lowering the peak combustion temperatures. However, the addition of exhaust gas can degrade driveability by causing combustion instability, especially at idle and low speeds and with a cold engine. The ECU references an engine RPM/load table of optimal EGR valve openings. The data table is developed on the engine dynamometer by analyzing the exhaust emissions. With increasing EGR, a point is reached where hydrocarbon (HC) emissions begin to increase. The optimal percent of EGR is just prior to that point.

The electronic control unit regulates a pneumatic- or solenoid-type valve to meter a certain quantity of exhaust gas back to the intake manifold. Typically, an engine coolant temperature threshold is also required before EGR is activated to avoid poor driveability. Under acceleration and at idle, EGR is deactivated.

Camshaft Control. There are two types of camshaft controls: phasing (i.e., overlap or intake/exhaust valve opening point) and valve lift and opening duration.

Camshaft Phasing Control. Valve overlap is a function of the rotation of the intake camshaft with respect to the exhaust camshaft. Overlap can be controlled by an electrohydraulic actuator. At idle and at high RPM, it is desirable to have the intake valves open and close later, which reduces the overlap. For idle, this reduces the residual exhaust gases that return with the fresh charge air and improves idle stability. At high RPM, late closing of the intake valve provides the best condition for maximum cylinder filling and, therefore, maximum output. For partial loads, a large valve overlap, where the intake opens early, is desirable. This allows for an increase in residual exhaust gas for improved exhaust emissions (Fig. 12.8).

Valve Lift and Opening Duration Control. Control of the valve lift and opening duration is accomplished by switching between two camshaft profiles. An initial cam specifies the optimal lift and duration for the low to middle RPM range. A second cam profile controls a higher valve lift and duration for high-RPM operation. By monitoring engine load and RPM, the ECU actuates the electrohydraulic device that switches from one cam profile to the other (Fig. 12.9).

Variable Intake Manifold Control. The goal of the engine design is to achieve the highest possible torque at low engine RPM as well as high output at high engine RPM. The torque curve of an engine is proportional to the air charge at any given engine speed. Therefore, a primary influence on the torque is the intake manifold geometric design. The simplest type of air charging uses the dynamics of the drawn-in air. The standard intake manifolds for multipoint engines consist of several intake runners and collectors converging at the throttle valve.

In general, short intake runners result in a high output at high RPM with a simultaneous loss of torque at low RPM. Long intake runners have the opposite effect. Due to intake valve and piston dynamics, pressure waves occur that oscillate within the intake manifold. Proper selection of runner lengths and collector sizes can result in the pressure waves arriving at the intake valves just before they are closing. This has a supercharging effect. The limitation of this method is that, for a given intake manifold configuration, the tuning peak can only occur at one operating point.

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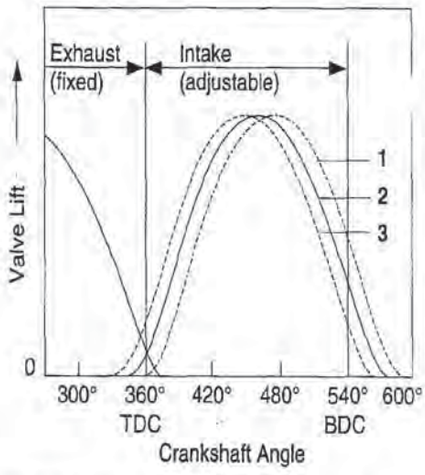


FIGURE 12.8 Adjustment angle for intake camshaft: retard (1), standard (2), advance (3).

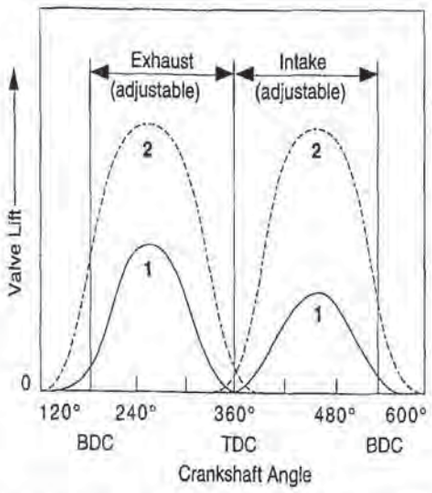


FIGURE 12.9 Selective camshaft lobe actuation: base cam lobe (1), auxiliary cam lobe (2).

Variable Intake Systems. To optimize the benefits of intake manifold charging, several systems have been developed that allow for changes in runner length and collector volume, depending on engine operating conditions. This allows for tuning peaks at more than one operating point. One method developed uses electronically controlled valves to close off areas of the intake manifold (Fig. 12.10). Inputs of engine load, RPM, and throttle angle determine the position of the valves.

12.2.2 Engine Control Modes

Engine Crank and Start. During engine cranking, the goal is to get the engine started with the minimal amount of delay. To accomplish this, fuel must be delivered that meets the requirements for starting for any combination of engine coolant and ambient temperatures. For a cold engine, an increase in the commanded air/fuel ratio is required due to poor fuel vaporization and "wall wetting," which decreases the amount of usable fuel. Wall wetting is the condensation of some of the vaporized fuel on the cold metal surfaces in the intake port and combustion chamber. It is critical that the fuel does not wet the spark plugs, which can reduce the effectiveness of the spark plug and prevent the plug from firing. Should plug wetting occur, it may be impossible to start the engine.

Fuel Requirement. Within the ECU ROM there are specific data tables to establish cold-start fuel based on engine coolant temperature. For two reasons, the lambda sensor output cannot be used during crank: the lambda sensor is below its minimum operating temperature and the air/fuel ratio required is outside the lambda sensor control window.

Many starting sequences use a front-loading strategy for fueling whereby the quantity of fuel is reduced after a speed threshold (RPM) is achieved, after a certain number of revolutions or at a defined time after the initial crank. Some systems also switch over from simultaneous injection to sequential injection after a speed threshold is achieved. For cold temperature starting, the fuel mixture may remain richer than $\lambda = 1$ after starting, due the continuing poor mixture formation in the cold induction system.

Ignition Timing Requirement. Ignition timing is controlled by the ECU during crank and is determined by engine coolant temperature and cranking speed. For a cold engine with low cranking speeds, ideal timing is near TDC. For higher cranking speeds, a slightly more advanced timing is optimal. Timing advance must be limited during cranking to avoid igniting

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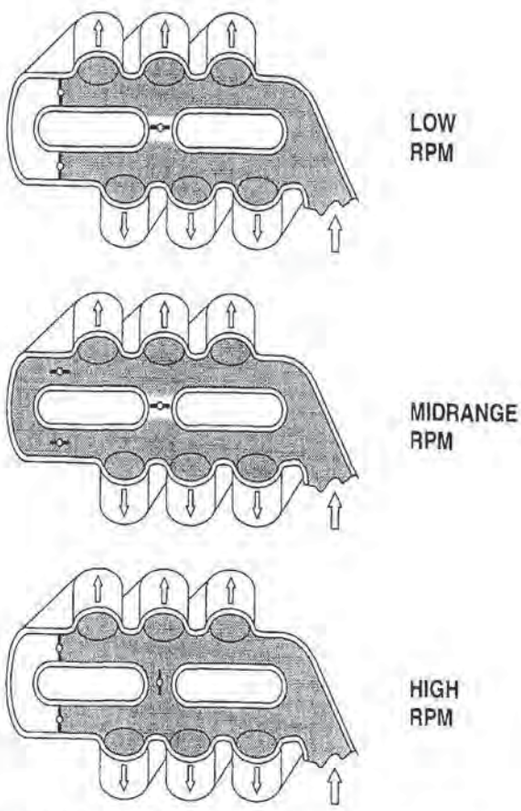


FIGURE 12.10 Variable configuration intake manifold.

the air/fuel mixture before the crankshaft reaches top dead center (TDC). A damaging torque reversal could occur that would damage the starter. After the engine starts, ignition timing is advanced to improve cold engine running as well as to reduce the need for fuel enrichment.

Engine Warm-Up. During the warm-up phase, there are three conflicting objectives: keep the engine operating smoothly (i.e., no stalls or driveability problems), increase exhaust temperature to quickly achieve operational temperature for catalyst (light-off) and lambda sensor so that closed-loop fuel control can begin operating, and keep exhaust emissions and fuel consumption to a minimum. The best method for achieving these objectives is very dependent on the specific engine application.

If the engine is still cold, fuel enrichment will be required to keep the engine running smoothly due, again, to poor fuel vaporization and wall wetting effects. The amount of enrichment is dependent on engine temperature and is a correction factor to the injector pulse width. This enrichment, combined with secondary air injection, also helps achieve the desired increase in catalyst temperature. To provide secondary air injection, an external air pump delivers fresh air downstream of the exhaust valves for a short time after start. The excess air causes oxidation (burning) of the excess HC and CO from the rich mixture in the exhaust manifold, which rapidly increases the temperature of the catalytic converter. The oxidation also removes harmful pollutants from the exhaust stream.

It is possible to increase the exhaust temperature by increasing the idle speed during warm-up. The increased idle speed may also be combined with a slightly retarded ignition timing, which increases temperatures in the exhaust, thereby promoting rapid warm-up of the catalyst.

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Transient Compensation. During transitions such as acceleration or deceleration, the objective of the engine control system is to provide a smooth transition from one engine operating condition to another (i.e., no hesitations, stalls, bumps, or other objectionable driveability concerns), and keep exhaust emissions and fuel consumption to a minimum.

Acceleration Enrichment. When an increase in engine load and throttle angle occurs, a corresponding increase in fuel mixture richness is required to compensate for the increased wall wetting. The sudden increase in air results in a lean mixture that must be corrected swiftly to obtain good transitional response. The rate of change of engine load and throttle angle are used to determine the quantity of fuel during acceleration enrichment. The amount of fuel must be enough to provide the desired performance, but not so much as to degrade exhaust emissions and fuel economy.

During acceleration enrichment, the ignition timing is set for maximum torque without knocking. Additionally, when a large change in engine load occurs, some systems delay the ignition timing advance briefly to prevent engine knock, which may arise from a momentary lean mixture or from transient ignition timing errors.

Deceleration Enleanment. During deceleration modes, such as coasting or braking, there is no torque requirement. Therefore, the fuel may be shut off until either an increase in throttle angle is detected or the engine speed falls to a speed slightly above the idle RPM. Fuel shutoff or cutoff can decrease exhaust emissions by eliminating unburned HC and CO and may also improve fuel consumption. Fuel cutoff is also used to protect the catalytic converter from extreme high temperatures during extended overrun conditions. During transition to fuel cutoff, the ignition timing is retarded from its current setting to reduce engine torque and to assist in engine braking. The fuel is then shut off. During the transition, the throttle bypass valve or the main throttle valve may remain open for a short period to allow fresh air to oxidize the remaining unburned HC and CO to further reduce exhaust emissions. During development of the fuel cutoff strategy, the advantage of reduced emission effects and catalyst temperature control must be balanced against driveability requirements. The use of fuel cutoff may change the perceived amount of engine braking felt by the driver. In addition, care must be taken to avoid a "bump" feel when entering the fuel cutoff mode, due to the change in torque.

Full Load. Under steady state full-load conditions, such as for climbing a grade, it is desirable to control the air/fuel mixture and ignition timing to obtain maximum power and to also limit engine and exhaust temperatures. The best engine torque is typically delivered at about $\lambda = 0.9$ to 0.95. When the ECU determines the engine is operating at full load via the throttle valve sensor (at WOT), the commanded air/fuel mixture, if required, can be enriched. The lambda sensor signal cannot be used to provide correction to the air/fuel mixture because the rich operating point lies outside the lambda control window.

The ignition timing at full load is set to achieve the maximum torque without knocking. This initial value is determined through engine dynamometer testing. With a knock control system (see Sec. 12.2.1), the ignition timing is modified (retarded) when engine knock occurs. The modification required to eliminate the knock may be saved in the ECU so that the next time that engine RPM/load point occurs, less knocking will occur and less correction will be required.

Idle Speed Control. The objectives of the engine control system during idle are:

- Provide a balance between the engine torque produced and the changing engine loads, thus achieving a consistent idle speed even with various load changes due to accessories (i.e., air conditioning, power steering, and electrical loads) being turned on and off and during engagement of the automatic transmission. In addition, the idle speed control must be able to compensate for long-term changes in engine load, such as the reduction in engine friction that occurs with engine break-in.
- Provide the lowest idle speed that allows smooth running to achieve the lowest exhaust emissions and fuel consumption (up to 30 percent of a vehicle's fuel consumption in city driving occurs during idling).

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To control the idle speed, the ECU uses inputs from the throttle position sensor, air conditioning, automatic transmission, power steering, charging system, engine RPM, and vehicle speed. There are currently two strategies used to control idle speed: air control and ignition control.

Air Control. The amount of air entering the intake manifold is controlled either by a bypass valve or by an actuator acting directly on the throttle valve. The bypass valve uses, for example, an electronically controlled motor controlled by the ECU that opens or closes a fixed amount. For large throttle valves, it may be desirable to use a bypass valve because a small change in throttle angle may result in a large change in air flow and, therefore, idle speed may be difficult to control. Using engine RPM feedback input, the ECU adjusts the air flow to increase or decrease the idle speed. A disadvantage to air control is that the response to load changes is relatively slow. To overcome this, air control is often combined with ignition timing control to provide acceptable idle speed control. The fuel quantity required at idle is determined by engine load and RPM. During closed-loop operation, this value is optimized by the lambda sensor closed-loop control.

Ignition Timing Control. Engine torque may be increased or decreased by advancing or retarding the ignition timing within an established window. This principle can be employed to help control idle speed. Ignition timing control is particularly desirable for responding to idle load changes because engine torque output changes more rapidly in response to a change in ignition timing than to a change in air valve position. Using the same inputs as for air control, the ECU adjusts the spark advance to either raise or lower the idle speed.

Anticipating Accessory Loads. Specific electric inputs to the ECU, such as a pressure switch located in the power steering system, are used to anticipate accessory loads so that the idle control system can compensate more quickly. This "feed forward" strategy allows better idle control than a strictly feedback system which does not respond until the idle speed begins to fall. When an accessory can be controlled by the ECU, further improvement in idle speed control is obtained. By delaying the load briefly after it is requested, the compensation sequence can begin before the load is actually applied. Such a load delay strategy is effective for controlling air conditioning compressor loads, for example. In this case, when the air conditioner is requested, the ECU begins to increase the idle speed first and then activates the A/C compressor.

12.2.3 Engine Control Diagnostics

The purpose of system diagnostics is to provide a warning to the driver when the control system determines that a malfunction of a component or system has occurred and to assist the service technician in identifying and correcting the failure (see Chap. 22). In many cases, to the driver, the engine may appear to be operating correctly, but excessive amounts of pollutants may be emitted. The ECU determines that a malfunction has occurred when a sensor signal received during normal engine operation or during a system test indicates there is a problem. For critical operations such as fuel metering and ignition control, if a required sensor input is faulty, a substitute value may be used by the ECU so that the engine will continue to operate, but likely not at optimal performance. It is also possible to apply an emergency measure if the failure of a component may result in engine or emission system damage. For example, if repeated misfires are detected in one cylinder, perhaps due to an ignition failure, the fuel injector feeding that cylinder can be shut off to avoid damage to the catalytic converter. When a failure occurs, the malfunction indicator light (MIL), visible to the driver, is illuminated. Information on the failure is stored in the ECU. A service technician can retrieve the information on the failure from the ECU and correct the problem.

Air Mass Sensor. For air mass measurement systems, the pulse width of the fuel injectors is calculated in the ECU from the air mass sensor input. As a comparison, the pulse width is also calculated from the throttle valve sensor and the engine RPM. If the pulse width values devi-

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ate by a predetermined amount, the discrepancy is stored in the ECU. Then, while the vehicle is being driven, plausibility tests determine which input is incorrect. When this has been determined, the appropriate failure code is saved in the ECU.

Misfire Detection. Misfiring is the lack of combustion in the cylinder. Misfiring can be caused by several factors including fouled or worn spark plugs, poor fuel metering, or faulty electrical connections. Even a small number of misfires may result in excessive exhaust emissions due to the unburned mixture. Increased misfire rates can damage the catalytic converter.

To determine if the engine is experiencing a misfire, the crankshaft speed fluctuation is monitored. If a misfire occurs, no torque is created during the power stroke of the cylinder(s) that is misfiring. A small decrease in the rotational speed of the crankshaft occurs. Because the change in speed is very small, highly accurate sensing of the crankshaft speed is required. In addition, a fairly complicated calculation process is required in order to distinguish misfiring from other influences on crankshaft speed. As was mentioned previously, if a cylinder repeatedly misfires, it is possible to shut off the fuel to that cylinder to prevent damage to the catalytic converter.

Catalytic Converter Monitoring. During the useful life of a catalytic converter, its efficiency decreases. If subjected to engine misfire, the decrease in efficiency occurs more rapidly. A loss in efficiency results in an increase in exhaust pollutants. For this reason, the catalytic converter is monitored. A properly operating catalytic converter transforms O_2, HC, CO, and NO_x into H_2O, CO_2, and N_2. The incoming air/fuel ratio oscillates from rich to lean due to the lambda closed-loop control strategy discussed in Sec. 12.2.1. Only a properly functioning catalytic converter is able to dampen these oscillations by storing and converting the incoming components. As the catalyst ages, this storage effect is diminished. To monitor the catalytic converter, an additional lambda sensor is installed downstream of the catalyst. The ECU compares the signal of the lambda sensor upstream with the lambda sensor downstream and determines if the catalytic converter is operating properly. If not, the ECU illuminates the malfunction indicator light (MIL) and stores a failure code.

Lambda Sensor Monitoring. To minimize exhaust emissions, the engine must operate within the catalytic converter window for air/fuel ratio (see Sec. 12.1.1 for a detailed description of the catalytic converter window). Output from the lambda sensor serves as feedback to the ECU to control the fuel within that window. When a lambda sensor is exposed to high heat for a long period of time, it may respond more slowly to changes in the air/fuel mixture. This can cause a deviation in the air/fuel mixture from the window, which would affect the exhaust emissions.

If the upstream lambda sensor operation is determined to be too slow, which can be detected by the system operation frequency, the ECU illuminates the malfunction indicator light (MIL) and a failure code is stored. Additionally, the ECU compares the output signal of the additional lambda sensor downstream of the catalytic converter with the lambda sensor signal upstream. With this, the ECU is able to detect deviations of the average value in air/fuel ratio.

For heated lambda sensors, the electric current and voltage of the heater circuit is monitored. To accomplish this, the heater is directly controlled by the ECU, not through a relay.

Fuel System Monitoring. To provide the correct air/fuel ratio, the ECU uses a preset data map with the optimal fuel required for each load and RPM point. The lambda closed-loop control system (see Sec. 12.2.1) provides feedback to the ECU on the necessary correction to the preset data points. The corrected information is stored in the ECU's RAM so that the next time that operating point is reached, less correction of the air/fuel ratio will be required. If the ECU correction passes a predetermined threshold, it is an indication that some component in the fuel supply system is outside of its operating range. Some examples are defective pressure regulator, defective manifold pressure sensor, intake system leakage, or exhaust system leakage. When the ECU determines a problem exists, the MIL is illuminated and a code is stored in the ECU.

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Exhaust Gas Recirculation (EGR) Monitoring. There are currently two methods used to monitor EGR operation. One method confirms that hot exhaust gases are returning to the intake manifold during EGR operation by use of a temperature sensor in the intake manifold. The second method requires the EGR valve to be fully opened during coast operation, where high intake manifold vacuum occurs. The exhaust gas flowing into the manifold causes a measurable increase in pressure. Thus, if a measured increase in pressure does not occur, the EGR system is not operating.

Evaporative Emissions Control System (EECS) Monitoring. In general, a valve will be installed at the atmospheric side of the purge canister. During idle, this valve would close and the purge valve would open. Intake manifold vacuum would occur in the entire EECS. A pressure sensor in the fuel tank would provide a pressure profile during this test to the ECU, which would then determine if a leak existed in the system.

12.2.4 Fuel Delivery Systems

Overview. Fuel management in the spark ignition engine consists of metering the fuel, formation of the air/fuel mixture, transportation of the air/fuel mixture, and distribution of the air/fuel mixture. The driver operates the throttle valve, which determines the quantity of air inducted by the engine. The fuel delivery system must provide the proper quantity of fuel to create a combustible mixture in the engine cylinder. In general, two fuel delivery system configurations exist: *single-point* and *multipoint* (Fig. 12.11).

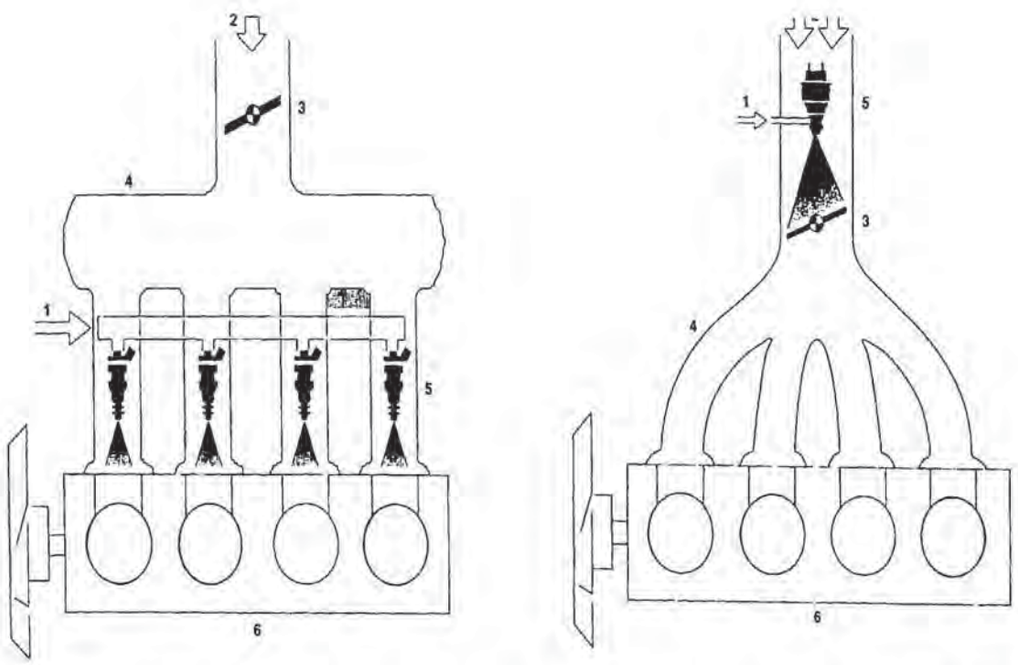


FIGURE 12.11 Air-fuel mixture preparation: right, single-point fuel injection; left, multipoint fuel injection with fuel (1), air (2), throttle valve (3), intake manifold (4), injector(s) (5), and engine (6).

For single-point systems such as carburetors or single-point fuel injection, the fuel is metered in the vicinity of the throttle valve. Mixture formation occurs in the intake manifold. Some of the fuel droplets evaporate to form fuel vapor (desirable) while others condense to form a film on the intake manifold walls (undesirable). Mixture transport and distribution is a function of intake manifold design. Uniform distribution under all operating conditions is difficult to achieve in a single-point system.

For multipoint systems, the fuel is injected near the intake valve. Mixture formation is supplemented by the evaporation of the fuel on the back of the hot intake valve. Mixture transport and distribution occurs only in the vicinity of the intake valve. The influence of the intake manifold design on uniform mixture distribution is minimized. Since mixture transport and distribution is not an issue, the intake manifold design can be optimized for air flow.

Single-Point Injection Systems A single-point injection system uses one or, in some cases, two electronic fuel injectors to inject fuel into the intake air stream. The main component is the fuel injection unit which is located upstream of the intake manifold.

Component Description. An electric fuel pump provides fuel at a medium pressure (typically 0.7 to 1.0 bar) to the electronic fuel injection unit (Fig. 12.12). The fuel injection unit houses the solenoid-operated fuel injector, which is located in the intake air flow above the throttle valve. This allows for homogeneous mixture formation and distribution. The injector spray pattern is designed to allow fuel to pass between the throttle valve and the throttle bore. To prevent vapor lock of the injector, fuel flows through the injector at all times. Fuel not used by the engine is returned to the fuel tank. The injector is activated in relation to the speed of the engine, typically once per ignition event. The length of the pulse width determines the quantity of fuel provided.

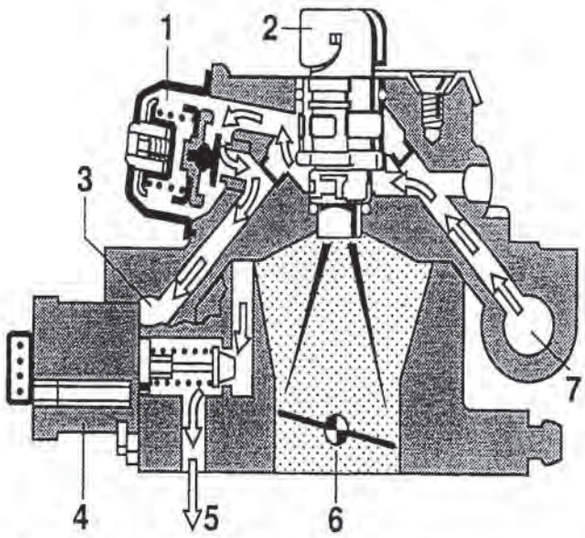


FIGURE 12.12 Single-point injection unit: pressure regulator (1), injector (2), fuel return (3), stepper motor for idle speed control (4), to intake manifold (5), throttle valve (6), and fuel inlet (7).

The electronic injection unit also houses the throttle position sensor and, in some cases, an inlet air temperature sensor which provides operating condition information to the ECU. The throttle valve actuator and fuel pressure regulator are also mounted on the injection unit. In addition, some units contain an air bypass valve for idle speed control. Engine temperature, battery voltage, and engine speed via the ignition system are all inputs to the ECU. The single-

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point injection system also uses lambda closed-loop fuel control to optimize fuel metering within the lambda control window (see Sec. 12.2.1).

Adaptation to Operating Conditions. For cold-start and engine warm-up, the ECU uses engine temperature information to determine the correct amount of fuel and commands the fuel injector via a pulse width. Due to wall wetting and poor fuel vaporization when the engine is cold, an increase in mixture richness is required. As the engine warms up to operating temperature, the commanded pulse width is reduced.

During an acceleration transition, the ECU adds a correction factor (an increase) to the commanded injector pulse width. The sudden increase in air results in a lean mixture which must be corrected swiftly to obtain good transitional response. During a deceleration transition, the fuel can be shut off by simply not providing a pulse width signal to the injector to minimize exhaust emissions and fuel consumption.

During full-load operation, the air/fuel mixture can be enriched ($\lambda < 1$) to deliver maximum torque. The ECU determines full-load operation by the throttle position sensor (at or near wide-open throttle) and adds a correction to the injector pulse width to achieve the desired air/fuel mixture richness.

The single-point system can control the idle speed by ECU control of either a throttle valve actuator or a bypass valve. Idle speed is a function of engine operating temperature, whether the transmission is in drive, and what accessories are in use. Fuel metering at idle is determined by engine RPM and load as well as lambda closed-loop control.

Multipoint Fuel Injection Systems. A multipoint fuel injection system supplies fuel to each cylinder individually via a mechanical or solenoid-operated fuel injector located just upstream of the intake valve. Advantages of this system type compared to SPI systems are numerous:

- *Increased fuel economy.* On an SPI engine, due to the intake manifold configuration, mixture formation will differ at each cylinder. To provide adequate fuel for the leanest cylinder, too much fuel must be metered overall. In addition, during engine load changes, a film of fuel is deposited on the intake manifold walls. This leads to further variations in mixture from cylinder to cylinder. Multipoint injection provides the same quantity of fuel to each cylinder.
- *Higher power output.* With the fuel being injected near the intake valve, the rest of the intake manifold can be optimized for maximum air flow. The result is increased torque.
- *Improved throttle response.* Because the fuel is injected onto the intake valves, responses to increases in throttle position are swift. With an SPI system, the increased fuel required must travel the length of the intake manifold before entering the cylinder.
- *Lower exhaust emissions.* As was discussed for fuel economy, mixture variation in an SPI system creates increased exhaust emissions. Metering of the fuel at the intake valve decreases this variation. In addition, the system transport time is reduced, increasing the frequency at which the lambda closed-loop control system can switch air/fuel ratio. Catalytic converter efficiency is increased.

Although there are numerous advantages of the MPI systems over the SPI systems, there is still one important advantage the SPI systems have over the MPI systems. In general, SPI systems have better fuel preparation, similar to a carburetor.

Mechanically Controlled Continuous Injection System. This type of system meters the fuel as a function of the intake air quantity and injects it continuously onto the intake valves. This is accomplished by measuring the air flow as it passes through the air flow meter by means of deflection of a meter plate. The fuel is supplied through a fuel accumulator to the fuel distributor by an electric fuel pump. A primary-pressure regulator in the fuel distributor maintains constant fuel pressure. The fuel distributor, through its interface with the air flow meter and warm-up regulator, meters fuel to the continuously flowing fuel injectors.

Component Description

Mixture control unit. The mixture control unit houses the air flow meter and the fuel distributor. In the air flow meter, the measurement of the intake air serves as the basis for

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determining the amount of fuel to be metered to the injectors. The air flow meter is located upstream of the throttle valve so that it measures all the air entering the engine. It consists of an air funnel, in which a sensor plate is free to pivot. Intake air flowing through the funnel causes a deflection of the sensor plate. The sensor plate is mechanically linked to a control plunger and movement of the plate results in movement of the control plunger. The control plunger movement determines the amount of fuel to be injected.

In the fuel distributor, the control plunger moves up and down in a cylindrically shaped device (barrel) with rectangular openings (metering slit), one for each engine cylinder. Increased air flow causes the control plunger to move upward, uncovering a larger area of the metering slit and increasing the fuel metered. Downstream of each metering slit is a differential-pressure valve that maintains a constant pressure drop across the metering slits at different flow rates. Due to the constant pressure, the fuel flow through the slits is directly proportional to the position of the control plunger (Fig. 12.13).

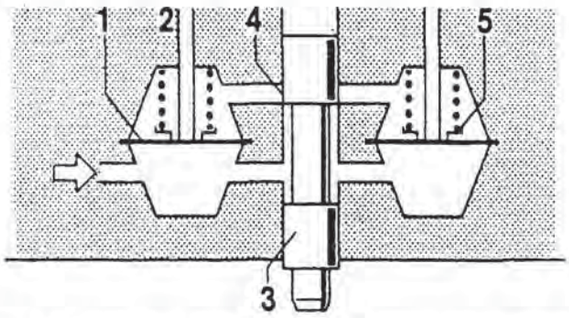


FIGURE 12.13 Fuel distributor for mixture control unit: diaphragm (1), to injector (2), control plunger (3), metering slot (4), differential pressure regulator (5).

Warm-up regulator. The warm-up regulator is used to richen the fuel mixture under cold engine conditions. It consists of a diaphragm valve and an electrically heated bimetallic spring. Under cold conditions, the warm-up regulator lowers the control pressure on the control plunger. The control pressure acts on the opposite end of the plunger from the air flow meter plate. A lower control pressure results in a lower force required to move the meter plate. Therefore, the same air flow causes the meter plate and control plunger to move a greater distance and additional fuel is metered to the injectors.

Fuel injectors. The injectors open at a pressure of approximately 3.6 bar. Atomization of the fuel occurs through oscillation (audible chatter) of the valve needle caused by the fuel flowing through it. The injectors remain open as long as fuel is provided above the opening pressure. Fuel is injected continuously into the intake port. When the intake valve opens, the mixture is drawn into the cylinder.

Auxiliary air valve. The auxiliary air valve provides additional air to the engine by bypassing the throttle valve during cold engine operation. This creates an increase in the idle speed needed during cold operation.

Thermo-time switch. The thermo-time switch controls the cold start valve as a function of time and engine temperature. Fuel enters the intake manifold from the cold start valve and further enriches the mixture to improve cold-starting at low ambient temperatures. When the engine is warm, the contacts in the thermo-time switch open and the cold-start valve is not used in starting the engine.

Lambda sensor. With the addition of a lambda sensor in the exhaust stream, a frequency valve, a modified fuel distributor, and an electronic control unit, the mechanically controlled fuel system can operate under lambda closed-loop control. The lambda sensor sig-

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nal is read by the ECU. The ECU outputs electric pulses to an electromagnetic (frequency) valve. The frequency valve modulates the pressure to the lower chambers of the differential-pressure valves in the fuel distributor. This results in a modification of the pressure drop across the metering slits, effectively increasing or decreasing the amount of fuel injected. Figure 12.14 is a schematic of a typical mechanically controlled continuous injection system.

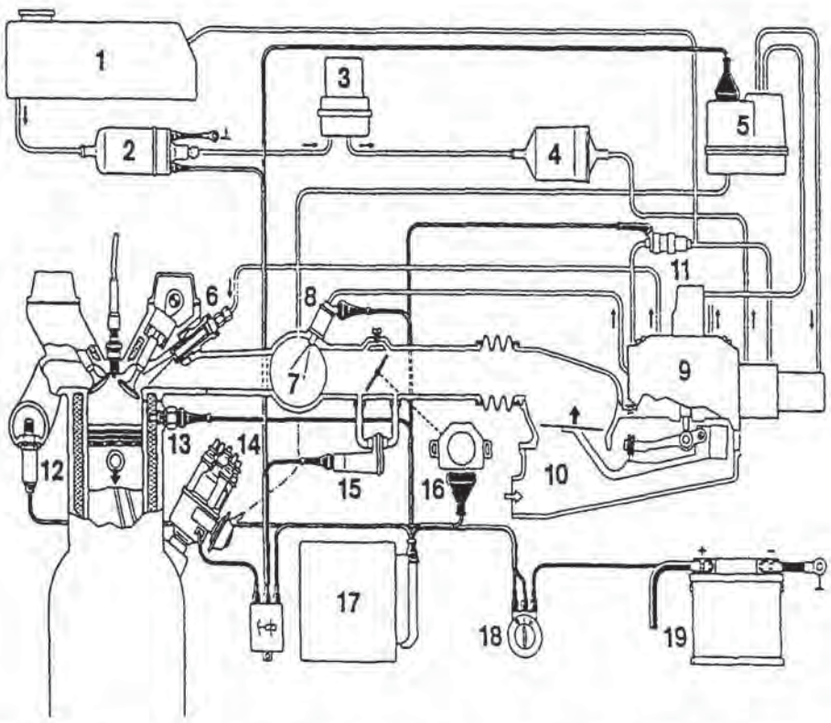


FIGURE 12.14 Schematic of mechanically controlled continuous injection system: fuel tank (1), electric fuel pump (2), fuel accumulator (3), fuel filter (4), warm-up regulator (5), injector (6), intake plenum (7), cold-start valve (8), fuel distributor (9), air flow sensor (10), electrohydraulic pressure actuator (11), lambda sensor (12), thermo-time switch (13), ignition distributor (14), auxiliary air valve (15), throttle switch (16), ECU (17), ignition switch (18), and battery (19).

Depending on the engine temperature, the cold-start valve injects extra fuel into the intake manifold for a limited period during cold start. The injection period is determined by a combination of time and temperature and is controlled by the thermo-time switch. As the engine temperature increases, this additional enrichment is no longer required and the thermo-time switch turns off the cold-start valve. For repeated start attempts or long cranking, the thermo-time switch turns off the cold-start injector after a given time. This minimizes engine flooding when engine start has not occurred.

As the engine continues to warm up, wall wetting and poor fuel vaporization still occur and mixture enrichment is still required until the engine reaches operating temperature. This enrichment is controlled as a function of temperature by the warm-up regulator. As the temperature increases, the warm-up regulator commands less and less additional fuel by increasing the control pressure.

For acceleration response, the air flow sensor "overswings" during quick throttle increases. This causes an additional quantity of fuel to be injected for acceleration enrichment. For full-load enrichment to achieve maximum power, a special warm-up regulator

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that uses intake manifold pressure is required. At increased manifold pressures, i.e., during wide-open throttle, the warm-up regulator lowers the control pressure, which results in an increase in fuel delivery. Deceleration fuel shutoff is accomplished by diverting all intake air through an air bypass around the air flow sensor plate. With no air flow past the air flow sensor plate, the fuel pressure to the injectors is decreased below the opening pressure.

Idle speed for the cold-running engine is increased by the auxiliary air valve. The amount of additional air varies with engine temperature until the auxiliary air valve is closed and the idle speed is then controlled only be the air passing the throttle valve.

Electronically Controlled Continuous Injection. The basis of the electronically controlled continuous injection is still the mechanical hydraulic injection system discussed previously. This is supplemented by an electronic control unit (ECU) that allows for an increase in flexibility and the use of additional functions. This system incorporates additional sensors for detecting the engine temperature, the throttle valve position (load signal), and the air flow sensor plate deflection. This information is processed by the ECU, which then commands an electrohydraulic pressure actuator to adapt the injected fuel quantity for the present operating conditions.

In contrast to the mechanical system mentioned previously, the control pressure or counterpressure on the control plunger is not varied by a warm-up regulator. The control pressure remains constant and is the same as the primary pressure. The function of the warm-up regulator is now handled by the ECU and the electrohydraulic pressure actuator. Figure 12.15 is a schematic of a typical electronically controlled continuous injection system.

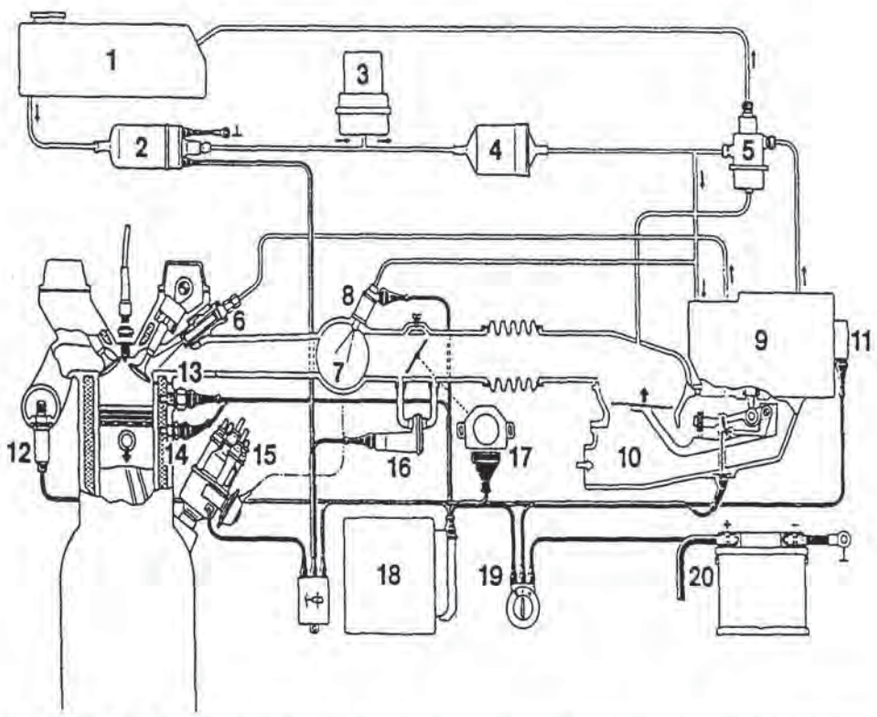


FIGURE 12.15 Schematic of an electronically controlled continuous fuel injection system: fuel tank (1), electric fuel pump (2), fuel accumulator (3), fuel filter (4), fuel pressure regulator (5), injector (6), intake plenum (7), cold-start valve (8), fuel distributor (9), air flow sensor (10), electrohydraulic pressure actuator (11), lambda sensor (12), thermo-time switch (13), coolant temperature sensor (14), ignition distributor (15), auxiliary air valve (16), throttle valve switch (17), ECU (18), ignition switch (19), and battery (20).

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Component description—electrohydraulic pressure actuator. The main difference in the componentry between the purely mechanical system and the electronically controlled system is the addition of the electrohydraulic actuator and the elimination of the warm-up regulator. With the addition of the ECU control of fuel metering, the purely mechanical warm-up regulator is no longer required. Depending on the signal received from the ECU, the electrohydraulic pressure actuator varies the pressure in the lower chambers of the differential pressure valves. This changes the amount of fuel delivered to the injectors.

Lambda closed-loop control. As with the mechanical system, the lambda sensor signal is processed by the ECU to determine mixture composition. The difference is that the ECU now commands the electrohydraulic actuator to modify the fuel metered, as opposed to the separate frequency valve, which is no longer necessary.

Adaptation to operating conditions. Depending on the engine temperature, the cold-start valve injects extra fuel into the intake manifold for a limited period during cold-start. The quantity to be injected is controlled by the ECU and is a function of engine temperature (from the engine temperature sensor). The thermo-time switch controls how long the cold-start valve remains active, depending on engine temperature and time.

Acceleration enrichment is controlled by the ECU. Input from the air flow sensor plate position sensor provides the ECU with information on how quickly the engine load has increased. The ECU commands additional enrichment via the electrohydraulic pressure actuator. For full-load enrichment for maximum power, the ECU receives input from the throttle position sensor that the throttle is wide open. The ECU then commands additional enrichment via the electrohydraulic pressure actuator. Deceleration fuel shutoff is also controlled by the ECU when the throttle valve switch indicates the throttle is closed and the engine speed is above idle RPM. The ECU signals the electrohydraulic pressure actuator to interrupt fuel delivery to the injectors.

Idle speed control can be a closed-loop function with the addition of the idle actuator valve. This valve is ECU-controlled and the RPM signal from the ignition, combined with the engine temperature signal, is used to determine its position for the correct idle speed.

Pulsed Fuel Injection Systems. Pulsed fuel injection systems are a further enhancement of the continuous injection systems. Today, most continuous injection systems have been replaced with pulsed fuel injection systems. Instead of injecting fuel continuously and controlling the quantity of fuel by modifying the delivery volume flow rate, the fuel quantity is controlled by the open time of the solenoid-operated injectors. The injectors are controlled directly by the ECU. For most systems, the fuel pressure drop across the injector, from the fuel rail to the intake manifold, is kept constant by using intake manifold air pressure to compensate the fuel pressure regulator. This type of system allows for still greater precision of fuel control and is usually coupled with an equally precise ignition timing control system.

Component description. Several multipoint pulsed injection systems exist in various configurations. The components discussed here serve as a general outline of this system type. Figure 12.16 is a schematic of a typical pulsed fuel injection system.

- *Inlet air sensing.* The inlet air charge can be measured directly using either an air flow meter or a mass air flow meter. The air flow meter is a vane-type meter, which uses the force of the incoming air to move a flap through a defined angle. The angular movement is converted by a potentiometer to a voltage ratio. The air flow meter requires an air inlet temperature sensor to correct for air density changes. The air mass flow meter measures the air mass directly by hot-wire or hot-film element. As the inlet air flow passes the heated element, a bridge circuit keeps the element at a constant temperature above the inlet temperature. The heating current required by the bridge circuit to maintain the element at a constant temperature is measured and converted to an air density value.

  The air charge can also be measured indirectly by measuring the inlet air temperature, intake manifold pressure, and engine RPM and then calculating the air charge (see Sec. 12.2.1 for further discussion on the calculation method which is called speed density air measurement).

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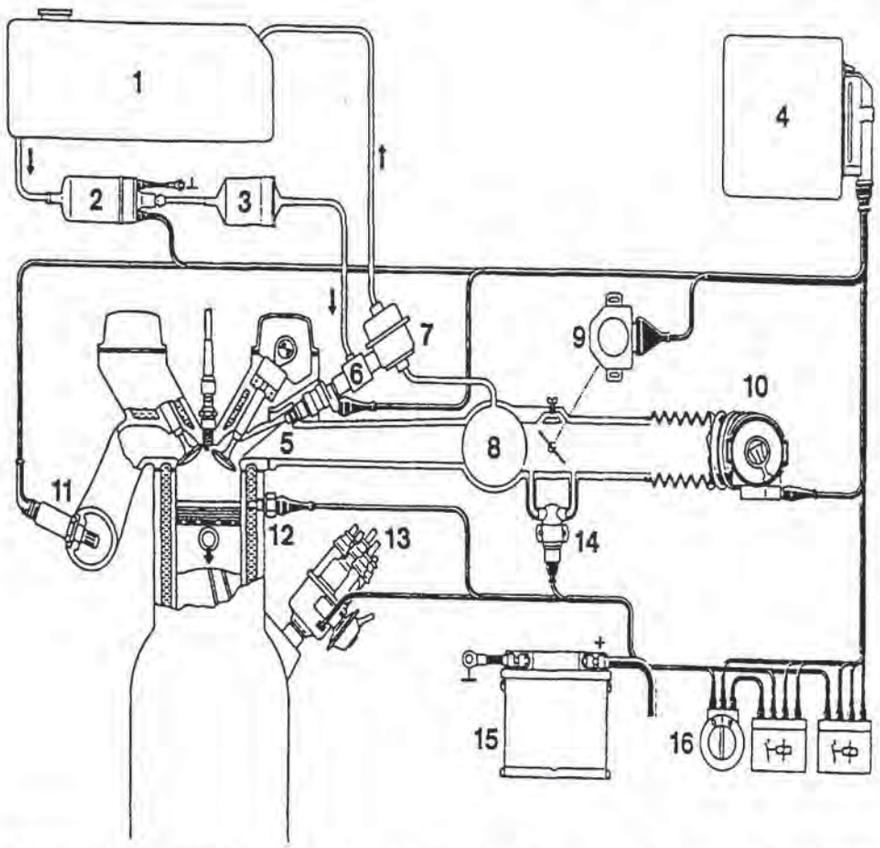


FIGURE 12.16 Schematic of a pulsed fuel injection system: fuel tank (1), electric fuel pump (2), fuel filter (3), ECU (4), injector (5), fuel distributor (6), fuel pressure regulator (7), intake plenum (8), throttle valve switch (9), hot-wire mass air flow sensor (10), lambda sensor (11), coolant temperature sensor (12), ignition distributor (13), idle speed actuator (14), battery (15), and ignition switch (16).

- *Fuel metering.* The fuel supply system includes an electric fuel pump, fuel filter, fuel rail, pressure regulator, and solenoid-operated injectors. The fuel pump provides more fuel than the maximum required by the engine. Fuel not used by the engine is returned to the fuel tank. The fuel rail supplies all injectors with an equal quantity of fuel and ensures the same fuel pressure at all injectors.

  The pressure regulator keeps the pressure differential across the injectors constant. It contains a diaphragm that has intake manifold pressure on one side and fuel rail pressure on the other. Normally, it is mounted at the outlet end of the fuel rail. The diaphragm operates a valve which opens at a differential pressure between 2.0 and 3.5 bar and allows excess fuel to return to the fuel tank.

  The fuel injectors are solenoid-operated valves that are opened and closed by means of electric pulses from the ECU. The injectors are mounted in the intake manifold and spray onto the back of the intake valves. In general, one injector is used for each cylinder.

  In addition, some systems also use a separate cold-start injector mounted in the intake manifold just downstream of the throttle valve. This injector ensures good fuel vaporization during cold-start and supplies the additional enrichment needed to start the cold engine. Control of the cold-start valve is either by the ECU directly or in conjunction with a thermo-time switch.

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- *Lambda closed-loop control.* The lambda sensor signal is processed by the ECU. The ECU determines the required injector pulse width to maintain the air/fuel ratio within the lambda control window (see Sec. 12.2.1 for further discussion on lambda closed-loop control).

Adaptation to operating conditions. For cranking, the fuel required is determined by a data table in the ECU with reference to engine temperature. The ECU then commands a pulse width for the fuel injectors. The air/fuel mixture is greatly enriched due to poor fuel vaporization and wall wetting, which reduces the amount of usable fuel. After start, the fuel mixture remains rich due to continuing poor air/fuel mixture formation. The amount of enrichment should be minimized to obtain good emission results. The target is to stay close to lambda (λ) = 1.

For acceleration enrichment, the throttle valve position sensor indicates that the throttle has moved rapidly. The ECU adds a correction factor to increase the pulse width so that a smooth transition occurs. For deceleration, the ECU uses input from the throttle position sensor and engine RPM to indicate that the throttle has closed and the engine speed is above the idle speed. Since no torque is required under this condition, the ECU provides no pulse width to the injectors and they are therefore closed. For full-load enrichment, when necessary, the ECU can provide an injector pulse width that would result in the engine achieving its maximum torque (roughly $\lambda = 0.9$). Fuel metering during idle is primarily controlled by lambda closed-loop control when the engine has reached operating temperature.

12.2.5 Ignition Systems

Overview. The purpose of the ignition system in the spark ignition engine is to initiate combustion of the air/fuel mixture by delivering a spark at precisely the right moment. The spark consists of an electrical arc generated across the electrodes of the spark plug. Two important factors for proper ignition are the energy of the spark and the point in the four-stroke cycle when the spark occurs (ignition timing).

Electrical Energy. The energy required for a spark to ignite an air/fuel mixture at stoichiometry depends on specific engine conditions. If there is insufficient energy available to ignite the air/fuel mixture, misfiring will occur. Misfiring will result in poor engine operation, high exhaust emissions, and possible catalytic converter damage. Therefore, the amount of ignition energy available must always exceed the amount necessary to ensure ignition even under adverse conditions.

Some of the conditions that affect ignitability of the air/fuel mixture are fuel atomization, access of the mixture to the spark, spark duration, and spark physical length. Fuel atomization is controlled by the fuel system and the engine design. Access to the spark depends on combustion chamber and spark plug design. Spark duration is a function of the ignition system. Spark physical length is determined by the spark plug dimensions (gap).

Ignition Timing. The ignition timing must be selected to meet the following objectives: maximize engine performance, limit fuel consumption, minimize engine knock, and minimize exhaust emissions. Unfortunately, all of these objectives cannot be achieved simultaneously under all operating conditions and compromises must be made.

It is desirable in the SI engine to have ignition of the combustible mixture occur prior to the piston reaching TDC on the compression stroke to achieve the best engine performance. The ignition spark must occur early enough to ensure that the peak cylinder combustion pressure occurs at the correct point after top dead center (ADC) under all operating conditions. Figure 12.17 is a graph of ignition angle vs. combustion pressure. The length of the combustion process from initial ignition to final combustion is approximately 2 ms. This combustion time remains relatively constant with respect to engine speed. Therefore, as the engine speed increases, the ignition spark must occur earlier in terms of crankshaft angle to ensure complete combustion.

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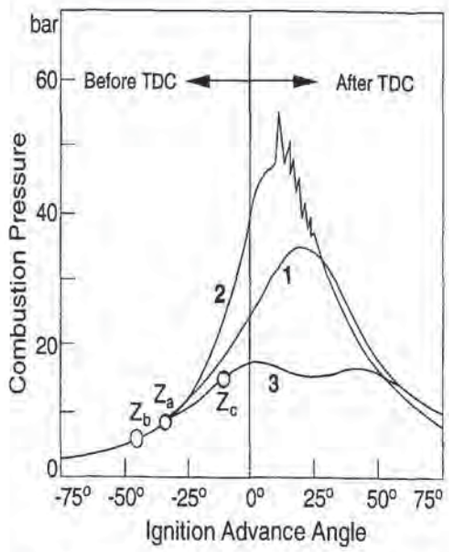


FIGURE 12.17 Combustion pressure curve for various ignition timing points: correct ignition advance Z_a (1), excessive ignition advance Z_b (2), and excessive ignition retard Z_c (3).

At low engine loads, the lower air charge and the residual gas content, due to valve overlap, serve to lengthen the time required for complete combustion. To compensate for this effect, the ignition timing is advanced at low loads to ensure that complete combustion occurs.

Ignition timing influences exhaust emissions and fuel consumption. With more advanced timing, the emission of unburned hydrocarbons (HC) and of oxides of nitrogen (NO_x) increases. Carbon monoxide (CO) emissions are not influenced greatly by ignition timing. To achieve improvements in fuel consumption, the air/fuel mixture must be lean. To ensure complete combustion for a lean mixture, the ignition timing must be advanced. However, as previously stated, advanced timing increases emissions of HC and NO_x.

Spark Ignition Systems. The general configuration of an ignition system consists of the following components: energy storage device, ignition timing mechanism, ignition triggering mechanism, spark distribution system, and spark plugs and high tension wires.

Inductive ignition systems use an ignition coil as the energy storage device. The coil also functions as a transformer, boosting the secondary ignition voltage. A typical turns-ratio of the primary to secondary winding is 1:100. Electrical energy is supplied to the coil's primary winding from the vehicle electrical system. Before the ignition point, the coil is charged during the dwell period to its interruption current. Open- or closed-loop dwell angle control ensures a sufficient interruption current even at high speeds. Sufficient ignition energy at the interruption current is ensured by an adequate coil design. At the ignition point, the primary current will be interrupted. The rapid change of the magnetic field induces the secondary voltage in the secondary winding. A distribution system assigns the high voltage to the corresponding spark plug. After exceeding the arcing over voltage at the spark plug, the coil will be discharged during the spark duration.

The ignition timing mechanism, ignition triggering mechanism, and the spark distribution system differ between ignition systems. Further discussion of these will occur within the discussion of each ignition system type.

The spark plugs provide the ignition energy via the high-tension wires to the air/fuel mixture in the cylinder to initiate combustion. The voltage required at the spark plug can be more

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than 30 kV. Because the spark plug extends into the combustion chamber, it is exposed to extreme temperature and pressure conditions. Spark plug design and materials are chosen to ensure long-term operation under tough operating conditions.

A typical spark plug consists of a pair of electrodes, called a center and ground electrode, separated by a gap. The size of the gap is important and is specified for each plug type and engine. The center electrode is electrically connected to the top terminal of the plug which is attached to the high-tension wire. The electrical energy travels through the high-tension wire to the top terminal and down to the center electrode. The ground electrode is part of the threaded portion of the spark plug that is installed in the cylinder head. The ground electrode is at electrical ground potential because the negative terminal of the battery is also connected to the engine. The spark is produced when the high-voltage pulse travels to the center electrode and jumps the gap to the ground electrode.

Ignition System Types. Table 12.1 summarizes the various ignition systems used on SI engines.

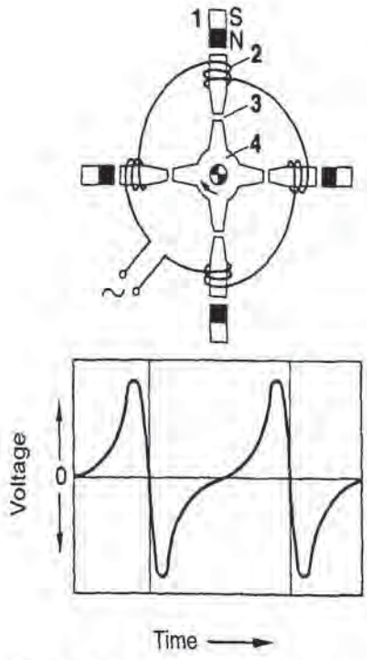


FIGURE 12.18 Induction-type pulse generator: permanent magnet (1), induction winding with core (2), variable air gap (3), trigger wheel (4).

Coil ignition. Breaker-triggered coil ignition systems have been replaced by breakerless transistorized ignition systems and are no longer installed as original equipment.

On breakerless transistorized ignition systems, the contact breaker's function is replaced by a magnetic pulse generator. The pulse generator is installed in the distributor and turns with the distributor shaft. There are commonly two types of pulse generators: induction-type and Hall-type. Induction-type pulse generators consist of a stator and a trigger wheel (Fig. 12.18). The stator consists of a permanent magnet, inductive winding, and core, and remains fixed. The trigger wheel teeth correspond to the number of cylinders, and the trigger wheel turns with the distributor shaft. The operating principle is that as the air gap changes between the stator and the rotor, the magnetic flux changes. The change in magnetic flux induces an ac voltage in the inductive winding. The frequency and magnitude of the alternating current increases with increasing engine speed. The electronic control unit or trigger box uses this information to trigger the ignition timing.

TABLE 12.1 Overview of Various Ignition Systems

	Ignition designation				
Ignition function	Coil system	Transistorized coil system	Capacitor discharge system	Electronic system with distributor	Electronic distributorless system
Ignition triggering	Mechanical	Electronic	Electronic	Electronic	Electronic
Ignition timing	Mechanical	Mechanical	Electronic	Electronic	Electronic
High-voltage generation	Inductive	Inductive	Capacitive	Inductive	Inductive
Spark distribution to appropriate cylinder	Mechanical	Mechanical	Mechanical	Mechanical	Electronic

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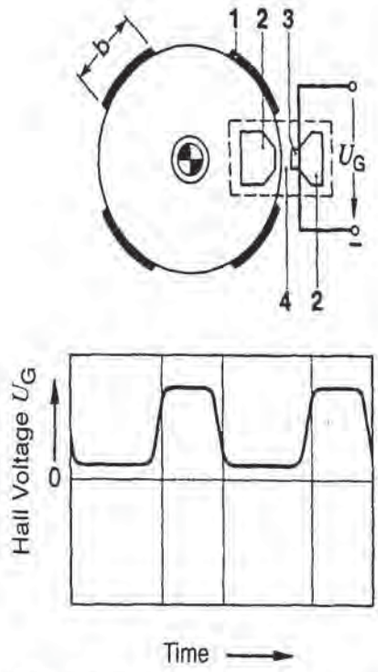


FIGURE 12.19 Hall-type pulse generator: vane (1), soft magnetic conductive elements (2), Hall IC (3), and air gap, UG-Hall sensor voltage (4).

Hall-type pulse generators utilize the Hall effect (Fig. 12.19). As the distributor shaft turns, the vanes of the rotor move through the air gap of the magnetic barrier. When the vane is not in front of the Hall IC, the sensor is subjected to a magnetic field. The magnetic flux density is high and thus the voltage U_G is at a maximum. As soon as the rotor vane enters the air gap, the magnetic flux runs through the vane area and is largely prevented from reaching the Hall layer. The voltage U_G is at a minimum. The resulting pulses switch the primary current off and on.

The distributor disburses the ignition pulses to the spark plugs via the high-tension wires in a specific sequence. It also adjusts the ignition timing by means of spark advance mechanisms. The distributor rotor is turned by the engine at one-half the crankshaft speed. The electrical energy is fed to the center of the rotor. While the rotor turns, the rotor electrode aligns with the outer electrodes that are connected to the high-tension wires. One outer electrode and high-tension wire connection exists for each cylinder. When alignment occurs between the center and outer electrode, the spark is distributed to that particular cylinder.

The spark advance mechanisms advance the ignition timing by rotating the distributor plate relative to the distributor shaft. The centrifugal advance increases the spark advance with increasing engine speed. The vacuum advance, using intake manifold vacuum, increases the spark advance at low engine speeds.

Capacitor discharge ignition system. The capacitive discharge system differs from the coil-type ignition systems previously discussed. Ignition energy is stored in the electrical field of a capacitor. Capacitance and charge voltage of the capacitor determine the amount of energy that is stored. The ignition transformer converts the primary voltage discharged from the capacitor to the required high voltage.

Electronic ignition—with distributor. Electronic ignition calculates the ignition timing electronically (Fig. 12.20). This replaces the function of the centrifugal advance and vacuum advance in the distributor discussed on the previous coil ignition systems. Because the ignition timing is not limited by mechanical devices, the optimal timing can be chosen for each engine operating point. Figure 12.21 is a comparison of an ignition map from a mechanical advance system and a map of an electronically optimized system. Also, additional influences such as engine knock detection can be used to modify the ignition timing. The engine speed input and crankshaft position input can be obtained from a sensor mounted near the crankshaft. Precision is improved over using the distributor-mounted trigger. This input is provided to the electronic control unit (ECU) along with the engine temperature and engine load. The ECU references data tables to determine the optimal spark advance for each engine operating condition. Additional corrections to the spark timing, such as for EGR usage or knock sensor detection, are made in the ECU.

Electronic ignition—distributorless. On distributorless ignition systems, the high voltage distribution is accomplished by using either single or double spark ignition coils. Ignition timing is determined by the ECU, as discussed for electronic ignition with distributor. For the double spark ignition coils, one coil exists for two corresponding cylinders. Two high-tension

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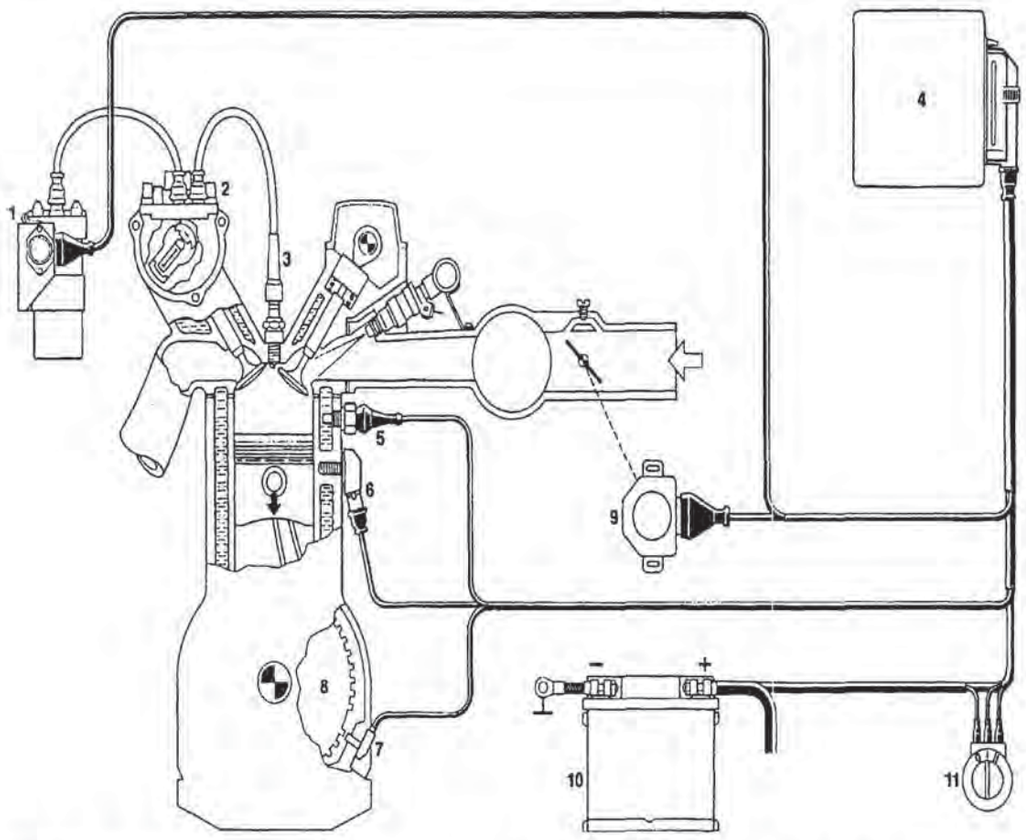


FIGURE 12.20 Schematic of an electronic ignition system with distributor: ignition coil (1), high-voltage distributor (2), spark plug (3), ECU (4), coolant temperature sensor (5), knock sensor (6), engine speed and crankshaft reference sensor (7), sensor wheel (8), throttle valve (9), battery (10), and ignition switch (11).

wires are routed from each coil to two cylinders, which are 360° out of phase. When the coil output stage is triggered via the ECU, a spark is delivered to both cylinders. One cylinder will be on the compression stroke, the other on the exhaust stroke. Because both cylinders are fired together, for a given crankshaft rotation, one will always be on the compression stroke and the other on the exhaust stroke. Therefore, there is no need to know which cylinder is compressing the ignitable mixture.

On single spark ignition coils, one coil exists for each cylinder. Each coil triggers only once during the four-stroke cycle. Because of this, it must be known which cylinder is on the compression stroke. Synchronization with the camshaft must occur. The information needed on camshaft position is supplied by a phase sensor mounted on the camshaft.

12.3 COMPRESSION IGNITION ENGINES

12.3.1 Engine Control Functions

Electronic engine controls are now being used on compression ignition (diesel) engines. These controls offer greater precision and control of fuel injection quantity and timing, engine speed, EGR, turbocharger boost pressure, and auxiliary starting devices. The following inputs

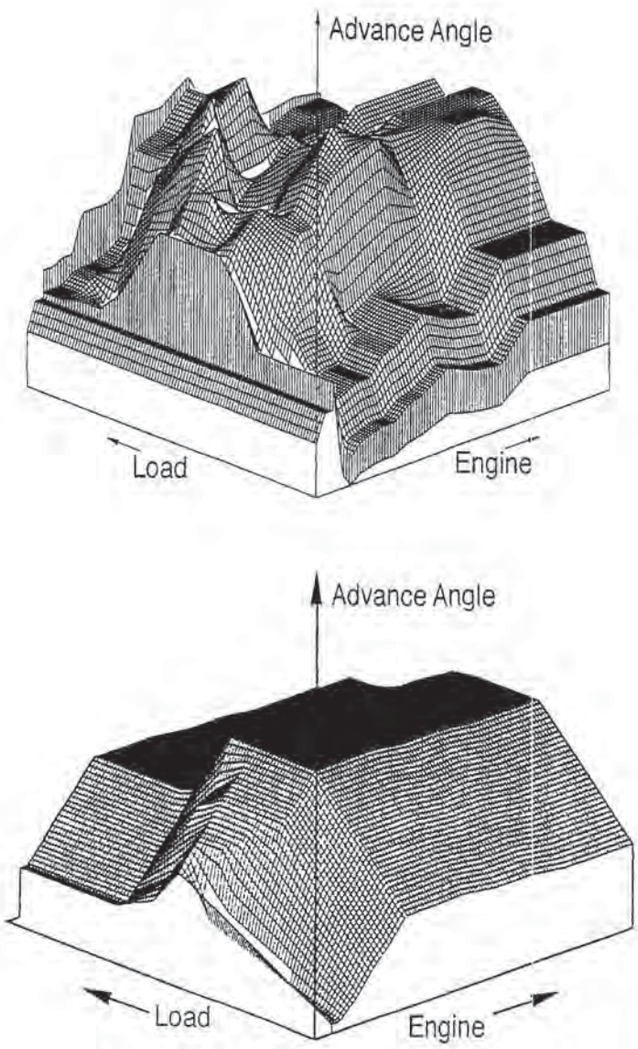


FIGURE 12.21 Ignition timing maps: electronically optimized (*above*) and mechanical advance system (*below*).

are used to provide the ECU with information on current engine operating conditions: engine speed; accelerator position; engine coolant, fuel, and inlet air temperatures; turbocharger boost pressure, vehicle speed, control rack, or control collar position (for control of fuel quantity); and amospheric pressure. Figure 12.22 is a schematic of an electronic engine control system on an in-line diesel fuel injection pump application.

Fuel Quantity and Timing. The fuel quantity alone controls a compression ignition engine's speed and load. The intake air is not throttled as in a spark ignition engine. The quantity of fuel to be delivered is changed by increasing or decreasing the length of fuel delivery time per injection. On the injection pump, the delivery time is controlled by the position of the control rack on in-line pumps and the position of the control collar on distributor-type pumps. An ECU-controlled actuator is used to move the control rack or the collar to increase or decrease the fuel delivery time. The ECU determines the correct length of delivery time (expressed as a function of control rack or collar position) using performance maps based on engine speed and calculated fuel quantity. Corrections and/or limitations as functions of

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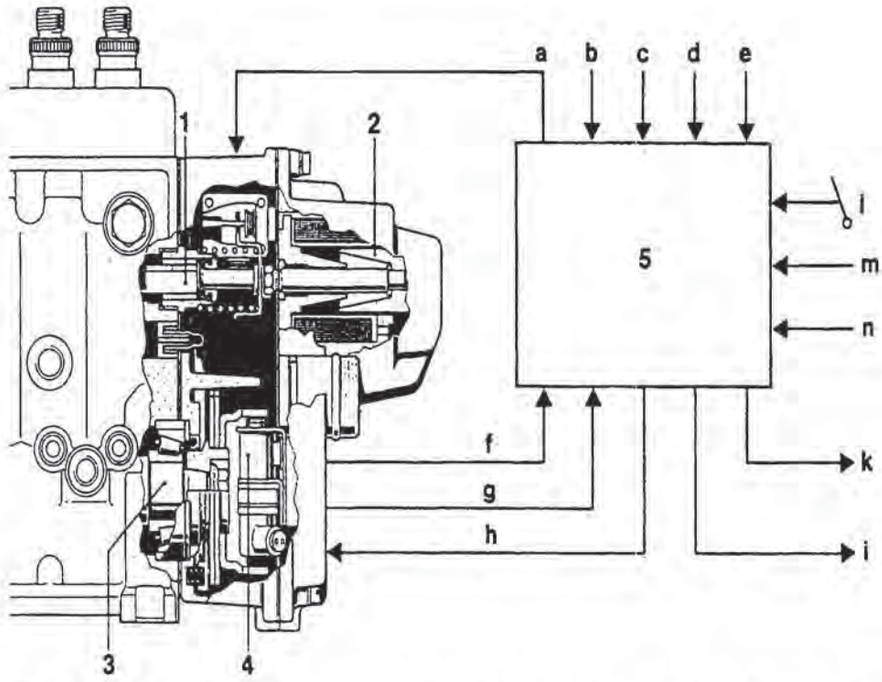


FIGURE 12.22 Electronic engine control system for an in-line injection pump: control rack (1), actuator (2), camshaft (3), engine speed sensor (4), ECU (5). Input/output: redundant fuel shutoff (a), boost pressure (b), vehicle speed (c), temperature—water, air, fuel (d), intervention in injection fuel quantity (e), speed (f), control rack position (g), solenoid position (h), fuel consumption and engine speed display (i), system diagnosis information (k), accelerator position (l), preset speed (m), and clutch, brakes, engine brake (n).

engine speed, temperature, and turbocharger boost pressure are used to modify the delivery time. In addition, the control rack or collar actuator contains a position sensor that provides feedback to the ECU on controller position. If the requested position differs from the commanded position, the ECU continues to move the controller via the actuator until the commanded and actual position are the same.

The start of injection time of the fuel at the cylinder is a function of the wave propagation speed (i.e., the speed of sound) of the fuel from the fuel injection pump to the injector. Because this time remains a constant, at increasing engine speed the delivery of fuel at the cylinder would be delayed with reference to crankshaft angle. Therefore, the timing at the injection pump must be advanced with increasing engine speed so that the start of injection occurs at the same crankshaft angle at higher engine speeds. Selection of injection timing has a large impact on exhaust emissions and engine noise. Delaying the start of injection reduces NO_x emissions, but excessive delay increases HCs in the exhaust. A 1° deviation in injection timing can increase NO_x emissions by 5 percent and HC emissions by as much as 15 percent. Therefore, precise control of the start of injection is essential.

Although many systems use mechanical devices to control injection timing, electronic control of injection timing is being used on some pump types. The advantage of electronic control is that a sophisticated timing data map can be used that provides the best injection timing for exhaust emissions under various operating conditions. On electronic control systems, the start of injection is monitored at the injector nozzle by a needle-motion sensor. The ECU uses this information to determine and control the injection timing. The timing is then modified by control of a pulse-width modulated solenoid valve. The valve varies the pressure exerted on the spring-loaded timing device plunger. The plunger rotates the pump's collar ring (for distributor type pumps) in the opposite direction of the pump's rotation which advances the timing.

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Speed Control. As was mentioned previously, for a CI engine, fuel quantity alone controls the engine's speed and load. Therefore, presuming adequate injected fuel quantity, an unloaded CI engine can speed up out of control and destroy itself. Because of this, a governor is required to limit the engine's maximum speed. In addition, governors are also used for low idle and cruise control to maintain a constant engine or vehicle speed and meter the correct fuel for cold-starting. Fuel is also controlled as a function of speed and boost pressure to limit smoke levels, engine torque, and exhaust gas temperatures. On an electronically controlled CI engine, the governor's functions are controlled by the fuel delivery system described previously. Engine speed is provided by an RPM sensor that monitors the periods of angular segments between the reference marks on the engine's flywheel or in the in-line injection pump.

EGR Control. Rerouting of exhaust gases into the intake air stream is known as exhaust gas recirculation (EGR). EGR reduces the amount of oxygen in the fresh intake charge while increasing its specific heat. This lowers combustion temperatures and results in lower NO_x emissions. However, excessive amounts of EGR result in higher emissions of soot (particulates), CO, and HCs all due to insufficient air. Also, the introduction of EGR can have an adverse affect on driveability during cold-engine operation, full-load operation, and at idle. It is best, therefore, to control the EGR valve with the ECU. Both pneumatically controlled and solenoid-controlled EGR valves are in use. The ECU determines when and how much EGR will occur based on engine temperature and accelerator position.

Turbocharger Boost Pressure Control. Engines that have turbochargers benefit significantly from electronic boost pressure control. If only a pneumatic-mechanical wastegate is used, only one boost pressure point for the entire operating range is used to divert the exhaust gas away from the turbine side of the turbocharger. This creates a compromise for part-load conditions because all the exhaust gases must pass the turbine. The result is increased exhaust backpressure, more turbocharger work, more residual exhaust gas in the cylinders, and higher charge air temperatures.

By controlling the wastegate with a pulse-width-modulated solenoid valve, the wastegate can be opened at different pressures depending on the engine operating conditions. Therefore, only the level of air charge pressure required is developed. The electronic control unit uses information on engine speed and accelerator position to reference a data table and the proper boost pressure (actually, duty cycle of the control valve) is determined. On systems using intake manifold pressure sensors, a closed-loop control system can be developed to compare the specified value with the measured value.

Glow Plug Control. Electronic control of the glow plug duration can be handled by the ECU or a separate control unit. Input for determining glow time is from an engine coolant temperature sensor. At the end of the specified glow period, the controller turns out the start indicator light to signal the driver that the engine can be started. The glow plugs remain energized while the starter is engaged. An engine load monitor is used to switch off the glow process after start. To limit the loads on the battery and the glow plugs, a safety override is also used.

12.3.2 Fuel Delivery Systems

The diesel fuel delivery system comprises a low- and high-pressure side. On the low-pressure side is the fuel tank, fuel filter, fuel supply pump, overflow valve, and fuel supply lines. The high-pressure side is initiated in the plunger and barrel assembly and continues through the delivery valve, high-pressure injection lines, and injection nozzle.

The fuel injection pump must deliver fuel at a pressure between 350 and 1200 bar, depending on the engine's combustion configuration. The quantity and timing of injection must be precisely controlled to achieve good mixture quality and to minimize exhaust emissions.

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Fuel Injection Process. An engine-driven camshaft (in-line pump) or cam plate (distributor pump) drives the injection pump's plunger in the supply direction, creating pressure in the high-pressure gallery. The delivery valve responds to the increase in pressure by opening. This sends a pressure wave to the injection nozzle at the speed of sound. The needle valve in the nozzle overcomes the spring force of the injection nozzle spring and lifts from its seat when the opening pressure is reached. Fuel is then injected from the spray orifices into the engine's combustion chamber. The injection process ends with the opening of the spill port in the plunger and barrel assembly. This causes the pressure in the pump chamber to collapse, which then causes the delivery valve to close. Due to the action of the delivery valve relief collar, the pressure in the injection line is reduced to the "stand-by pressure." The stand-by pressure is determined to ensure that the injector nozzle closes quickly to eliminate fuel dribble, and the residual pressure waves in the lines prevent the nozzles from reopening.

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CHAPTER 13
TRANSMISSION CONTROL

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13.1 INTRODUCTION

In North America and Japan, 80 to 90 percent of all passenger cars sold have automatic transmissions (ATs), but in Europe only 10 to 15 percent of passenger cars sold have ATs. There are two main reasons for the difference. In Europe, drivers tend to view ATs, compared to manual transmissions, as detrimental to driveability and responsible for a somewhat higher fuel consumption. But implementation of electronic control concepts has invalidated both of those arguments.

Since the introduction of electronic transmission controls units (TCUs) in the early 1980s by Renault and BMW (together with a four-speed transmission from Zahnradfabrik Friedrichshafen, or ZF), the acceptance of the AT rose steeply, even in Europe. For this reason, all new ATs are designed with electronic control. The market for ATs is divided into stepped and continuously variable transmissions (CVTs). For both types the driver gets many advantages. In stepped transmissions, the smooth shifts can be optimized by the reduction of engine torque during gear shift, combined with the correctly matched oil pressure for the friction elements (clutches, brake bands). The reduction of shift shocks to a very low or even to an unnoticeable level has allowed the design of five-speed ATs where a slightly higher number of gear shifts occur. In today's standard systems, the driver can choose between sport and economic drive programs by operating a selector switch. In highly sophisticated newer systems, the selection can be replaced by the self-adaptation of shift strategies. This leads not only to better driveability but also to a significant reduction in fuel consumption. Additionally, a well-matched electronic control of the torque converter lockup helps to improve the yield of the overall system. Both automotive and transmission manufacturers benefit from the reduced expense resulting from the application of different car/engine combinations. Different shift characteristics are easy to implement in software, and much adaptation can be achieved by data change, leaving the transmission hardware and TCU unchanged. The reduction of power losses in friction elements increases the life expectancy and enables the optimization of transmission hardware design.

With the CVT, one of the biggest obstacles to the potential reduction in fuel consumption by operating the engine at its optimal working point is the power loss from the transmission's oil pump. Only with electronic control is it possible to achieve the required yield by matching the oil mass-stream and oil pressure for the pulleys to the actual working conditions.

To guarantee the overall economic solution for an electronically controlled transmission, either stepped or CVT, the availability of precision electrohydraulic actuators is imperative.

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13.2 SYSTEM COMPONENTS

The components of an electronic transmission control system are a transmission which is adapted to the electronic control requirements and an electronic control unit with corresponding inputs and outputs and attached sensor elements.

13.2.1 Transmission

The greatest share of electronically controlled transmissions currently on the market consists of four- or five-speed units with a torque converter lockup clutch, commanded by the control unit. Market share for five-speed transmissions is continuously increasing. With electronically controlled transmissions there are numerous possibilities to substitute mechanical and hydraulic components with electromechanical or electrohydraulic components. One basic method is to substitute only the shift point control. In a conventional pure hydraulic AT, the gear shifts are carried out by mechanical and hydraulic components. These are controlled by a centrifugal governor that detects the vehicle speed, and a wire cable connected to the throttle plate lever. With an electronic shift point control, on the other hand, an electronic control unit detects and controls the relevant components. In the transmission's hydraulic control unit, mechanical and hydraulic components are replaced by electrohydraulic controlling elements, usually in the form of electrohydraulic on/off solenoids. This way the number of solenoids, as well as the control logic, can be varied over a wide range. For example, for each gear, one specific solenoid can operate the relevant clutch for this gear shift. Alternatively, there can be one solenoid for each gear change, which is switched corresponding to the shift command. In this way, only three solenoids are required in a four-speed transmission. In some current designs, the gears are controlled by a logical combination of solenoid states. This design needs only two gear-controlling solenoids for a four-speed transmission. For five-speed applications, accordingly, three solenoids are required (Table 13.1)

TABLE 13.1 Example of a Gear-Solenoid Combination for a Five-Speed Transmission Application

	Solenoid 1	Solenoid 2	Solenoid 3
1st gear	on	on	on
2nd gear	on	on	off
3rd gear	on	off	off
4th gear	off	off	off
5th gear	off	on	off

The hydraulic pressure is controlled in this basic application by a hydraulic proportional valve which is, in turn, controlled by a wire cable connected to the throttle plate lever. With this design, the shift points can be determined by the electronic TCU, resulting in a wide range of freely selectable driving behaviors regarding the shift points. It is also possible to use different shift maps according to switch or sensor signals. The influence on driving comfort during gear shifting in this electronic transmission control application has important restrictions. The only possible way to control shift smoothness is with an interface to the electronic engine management. This way, the engine output torque is influenced during gear shifting. A systematic wide-range control of the hydraulic pressure during and after the gear shift necessitates the replacement of the hydraulic pressure governor with an electronically controlled hydraulic solenoid. This design allows the use of either a pulse-width-modulated (PWM) solenoid or a pressure regulator. The choice of which type of pressure control solenoid to use results from the requirements concerning shift comfort under all driving conditions. For

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present-day designs with high requirements for shift comfort during the entire life of the transmission, at all temperatures, and with varying oil quality, the analog pressure control solenoid is superior to the usual PWM solenoid, providing there is no pressure sensor in operation as a guideline for pressure regulation. This application usually uses one central controlling element in the transmission for the pressure regulation to control the shift quality.

In other transmission developments, the shift quality is further increased using electronically controllable brake elements (brake bands) for some specific gear changes. In this case, the flywheel effect of the revolving elements is limited by an electronic control of a brake band according to an algorithm or special timing conditions.

The most sophisticated transmission application to date is so designed that overrunning clutches are eliminated and gear changes are exclusively controlled by the electronic control unit with pressure regulator solenoids.[1] This application is characterized by extremely high demands on the electronic TCU concerning real-time behavior and data handling. The relationship between weight, transmission outline, and transferrable torque has reached a high level. Compared to transmissions with overrun clutches, the necessary fitting dimensions are reduced.

Present electronically controlled ATs usually have an electronically commanded torque converter clutch, which can lock up the torque converter between the engine output and the transmission input. The torque converter clutch is activated under certain driving conditions by a solenoid controlled by the electronic TCU. The solenoid design, depending on the requirements of TCC functions and shift comfort, can either be an on/off solenoid, a PWM solenoid, or a pressure regulator. Locking up the torque converter eliminates the slip of the converter, and the efficiency of the transmission system is increased. This results in an even lower fuel consumption for cars equipped with AT.

13.2.2 Electronic Control Unit

Another important component in electronic transmission control is the electronic control unit, which is designed according to the requirements of the transmission and the car environments. The electronic control unit can be divided into two main parts: the hardware and the corresponding software.

Hardware. The hardware of the electronic control unit consists of the housing, the plug, the carrier for the electronic devices, and the devices themselves. The housing, according to the requirements, is available as an unsealed design for applications inside the passenger compartment or within the luggage compartment. It is also possible to have sealed variants for mounting conditions inside the engine compartment or at the bulkhead. The materials for the housing can be either various plastics or metals. There are many different nonstandardized housings on the market. The various outlines and plug configurations differ, depending upon the manufacturer of the electronic unit. The plug configuration, i.e., the number of pins and the shape, depends on the functions and the requirements of the automotive manufacturer. The number of pins is usually less than 100. Some control unit manufacturers try to standardize their plugs and housings throughout all their electronic control units, such as engine management, ABS, traction control, and others. This is important to simplify and to standardize the unit production and the tests during manufacturing.

The carrier for the electronic devices is usually a conventional printed circuit board (PCB). The number of layers on the PCB depends on the application. For units with a complex device structure and high demands for electromagnetic compatibility, multilayer applications are in use. In special cases, it is possible to use ceramics as a carrier. There are usually some parts of the electronic circuit, resistors for example, designed as a thick-film circuit on the hybrid. In this case the electronic unit is manufactured as a solder hybrid or as a bond hybrid with direct-bonded integrated circuit devices. Some single applications exist with a flex-foil as a carrier for the electronic devices. These applications are limited to very special requirements.

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The transmission control area requires some specially designed electronic devices, in particular, the output stages for the actuators of pressure regulation and torque converter clutch control. These actuators for pressure control have extremely high demands regarding accuracy of the actuator current over the whole temperature range and under all conditions independent of battery voltage and over the entire lifetime. There are some known applications of customer-specific integrated circuits or devices. Here, special attention paid to quality and reliability over the entire lifetime is necessary to meet the continuously increasing quality requirements of the automotive market. Currently, there is an increasing spread of surface-mounted devices in transmission control applications. This is why the unit size is continuously decreasing despite an increasing number of functions.

On the functional side, the hardware configuration can be divided into power supply, input signal transfer circuits, output stages, and microcontroller, including peripheral components and monitoring and safety circuits (Fig. 13.1). The power supply converts the vehicle battery voltage into a constant voltage required by the electronic devices inside the control unit. Accordingly, special attention must be paid to the protection of the internal devices against destruction by transients from the vehicle electrical system such as load dump, reverse battery polarity, and voltage peaks. Particular attention is also necessary in the design of the elec-

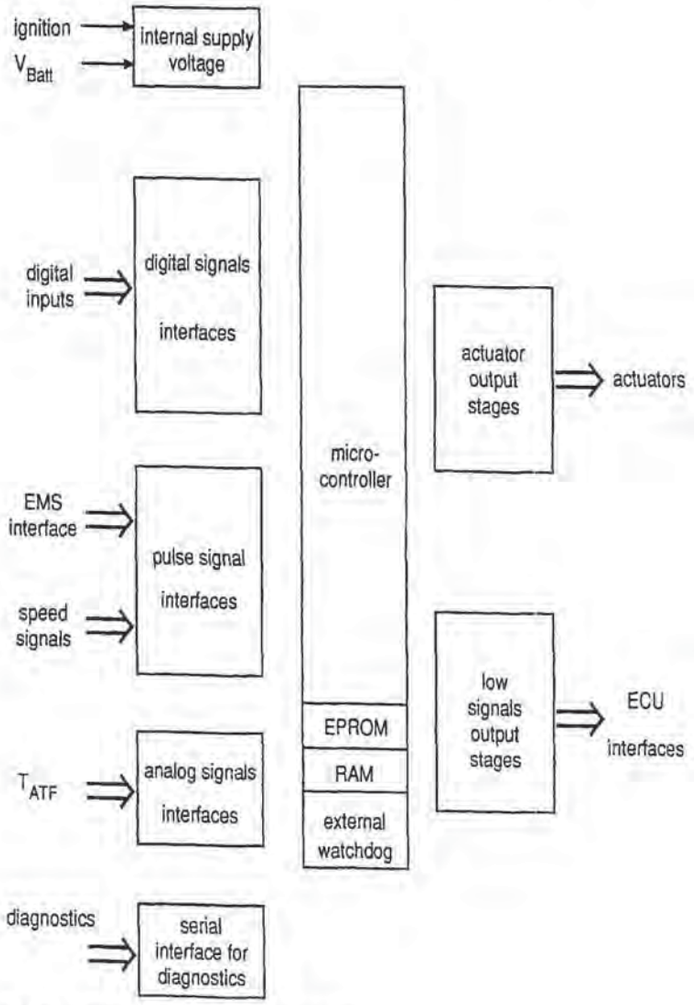


FIGURE 13.1 Overview of hardware parts.

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tronic ground concept for the control unit, especially where the electromagnetic compatibility and RF interference is concerned. This is very important to prevent undesired gear shifting that may be troublesome for drivers. One part of the input circuit is the preparation of the digital signals, such as position switch, program selector, and kickdown switch. A second part is the transfer of the analog signals like ATF temperature and voltages according to potentiometer states. The third part is the interface to other electronic control units, especially to the engine management system. Here the single signal lines between the control units will be increasingly substituted by bus systems like CAN. The fourth part is the preparation of the transmission-specific signals from the speed sensors inside the transmission.

The calculators inside the control units are usually microcontrollers. The real-time requirements and the directly addressable program storage size of the selected microcontrollers are determined by the functions of the transmission control and the car environment. In present applications, either 8-bit or 16-bit microcontrollers are in use. There are systems with 32-bit microcontrollers in development for new, highly sophisticated control systems with increasing functional and extreme real-time requirements originating from the transmission concept. The memory devices for program and data are usually EPROMS. Their storage capacity is, in present applications, up to 64 Kbytes. Future applications will necessitate storage sizes up to 128 Kbytes. The failure storages for diagnostics and the storage for adaptive data are in conventional applications, battery voltage-supplied RAMs. These are increasingly being replaced by EEPROMs.

There are usually watchdog circuits in various configurations in use regarding safety and monitoring. These can be either a second, low-performance microcontroller, a customer-specific circuit, or a circuit with common available devices. The output stages can be divided into high-power stages for the transmission actuator control and low-power stages like lamp drivers or interfaces to other electronic control units. The low-power output stages are mostly conventional output drivers either in single or in multiple applications, which are mainly protected against short circuits and voltage overloads.

For the transmission solenoid control, special output stages are necessary, and they are specialized for operation with inductive actuators. The pressure regulation during shifting in some applications requires high accuracy and current-regulated output stages are needed. These are mainly designed as customer-specific devices. The type and number of solenoid output stages depend on the control philosophy of the transmission: they are generally of a special design for specific transmission applications. During the preparation of the speed sensor signals, attention must be paid to the electromagnetic compatibility and radio frequency interference conditions.

Software. The software within the electronic transmission control system is gaining increasing importance due to the increasing number of functions which, in turn, requires increasing software volume. The software for the control unit can be divided into two parts: the program and the data. The program structure is defined by the functions. The data are specific for the relevant program parts and have to be fixed during the calibration stage. The most difficult software requirements result from the real-time conditions coming from the transmission design. This is also the main criterion for the selection of the microcontroller (Fig. 13.2).

The program is generally made up in several parts:

- Software according to the special microcontroller hardware; e.g., I/O preparation and filter, driver functions, initialization of the microcontroller and the control unit, internal services for the controller peripheral devices, and internal software services like operating systems.
- Software coming from the defined functions, originating from specific transmission and car functions.
- Parts concerning safety functions like output switch-off, substitute values for the input signals, and safety states of the microcontroller environment in case of failures. Depending on the requirements, there can be a software watchdog or a hardware-configured watchdog circuit in use. The watchdog instruction is also part of the security software.

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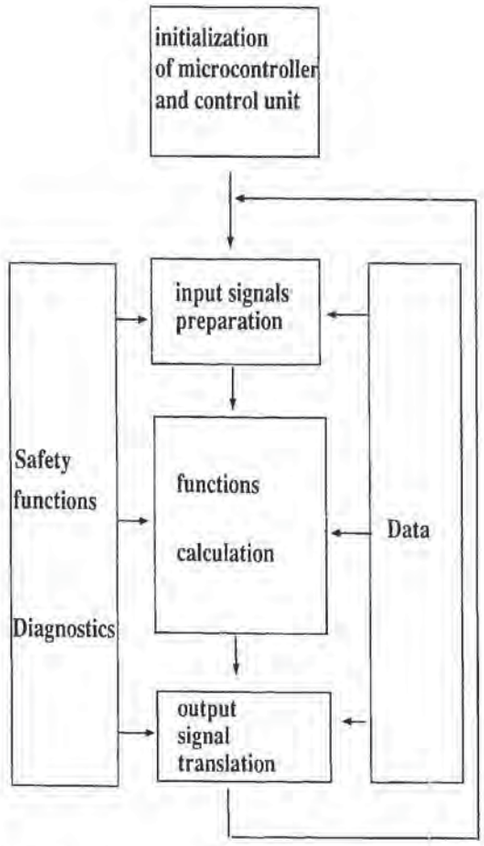


FIGURE 13.2 Software structure overview.

- Diagnostic and communication software for the self-test of the control unit and also the test of the control unit environment.

These functions are related to the defined functions of the electronic control system. Parts of the software component are usually the output stages monitoring, the input monitoring, and the diagnosis of the microcontroller environment. Failure handling and storage is gaining importance as system complexity increases. These diagnostic functions are also very useful for the service station to determine the reason for eventual problems. Part of these functions is reserved for the communication software needed for the test equipment to read the failures stored during car service. Current protocols are standardized communication protocols like ISO 9141. There is an increasing share of bus systems for communication with other electronic control units, using standardized protocols like CAN, VAN, or J1850. These bus systems allow an increasing unit function by changing software when other control units are added to the bus.

Most software models are written directly in an assembler to meet the real-time requirements and because there is a limited memory size in common mass production units. The number of powerful, cost-effective microcontrollers is continuously increasing. The availability of memory components with larger storage sizes suitable for automotive use is also rising, making it possible to use a higher programming language in future developments. This allows an ingenious structure of software models and an application of operating systems. This can be followed by an effective distribution of functions during and outside gear shifting with related time requirements and event management. This type of program structure improves the function of the electronic TCU because of the accelerated handling of time-critical functions during gear shifting.

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The second software part, data, can be divided into fixed data, which is related to fixed attributes of the system; e.g., the number of actuators, and calibration data for system tuning. The calibration data can be adapted to changing parameters of the system such as the engine, vehicle, and transmission characteristics. The fixing of calibration data takes place during the tuning stage of the vehicle and has to be redetermined for each type of vehicle and transmission. With some applications, the calibration data are added to a basic program during the vehicle production according to different types of cars by the so-called end-of-line programming. This means that the units can be programmed with the calibration data with closed housings by a special interface. The share of software development in relation to the total development time is increasing continuously. The requirements for real-time behavior and memory size are rising in accordance with the considerably increasing demands for shift comfort and self-learning functions. This requires an ingenious structure of the software and an event-related distribution of software models, especially during gear shifting. The rising software complexity with simultaneously increasing quality requirements causes higher demands for software quality control.

13.2.3 Actuators

Electrohydraulic actuators are important components of the electronic transmission control systems.[2] Continuously operating actuators are used to modulate pressure, while switching actuators function as supply and discharge valves for shift-point control. Figure 13.3 provides a basic overview of these types of solenoids.

Important qualities for the use of actuators in ATs are low hydraulic resistance to achieve high flow rates, operation temperature range from –40 to +150 °C, small power loss, minimized heat dissipation in the ECU's output stages, small size and low weight, highest reliability in heavily contaminated oils, maximum accuracy and repeatability over lifetime, short reaction times, pressure range up to 2000 kPa, maximum vibration acceleration of 300 m/s^2, and high number of switch operations.

A very important aspect is that the hardware and software of the ECU be developed, taking into account the electrical specifications of the solenoid to obtain an optimized complete system concerning performance and cost.[6,7] For further details in design and application, refer to Sec. 10.3.5.

It should be noted that these characteristics can be varied over a wide range and that many other types of solenoids exist or are in development for the special requirements of new applications.

13.3 SYSTEM FUNCTIONS

Functions can be designated at systems functions if the individual components of the total electronic transmission control system cooperate efficiently to provide a desired behavior of the transmission and the vehicle. There are different stages of functionality which have different effects on driving behavior and shift characteristics (Fig. 13.4). In general, there is an increasing complexity of the system relating to all components to improve the translation of driver behavior into transmission action. That means that the expense of actuators, sensors, and links to other control units is increasing, as is the expense of the TCU software and hardware in the case of high-level requirements regarding driveability and shift comfort. Figure 13.4 shows three main areas. These will be discussed in detail in the following material.

13.3.1 Basic Functions

The basic functions of the transmission control are the shift point control, the lockup control, engine torque control during shifting, related safety functions, and diagnostic functions for

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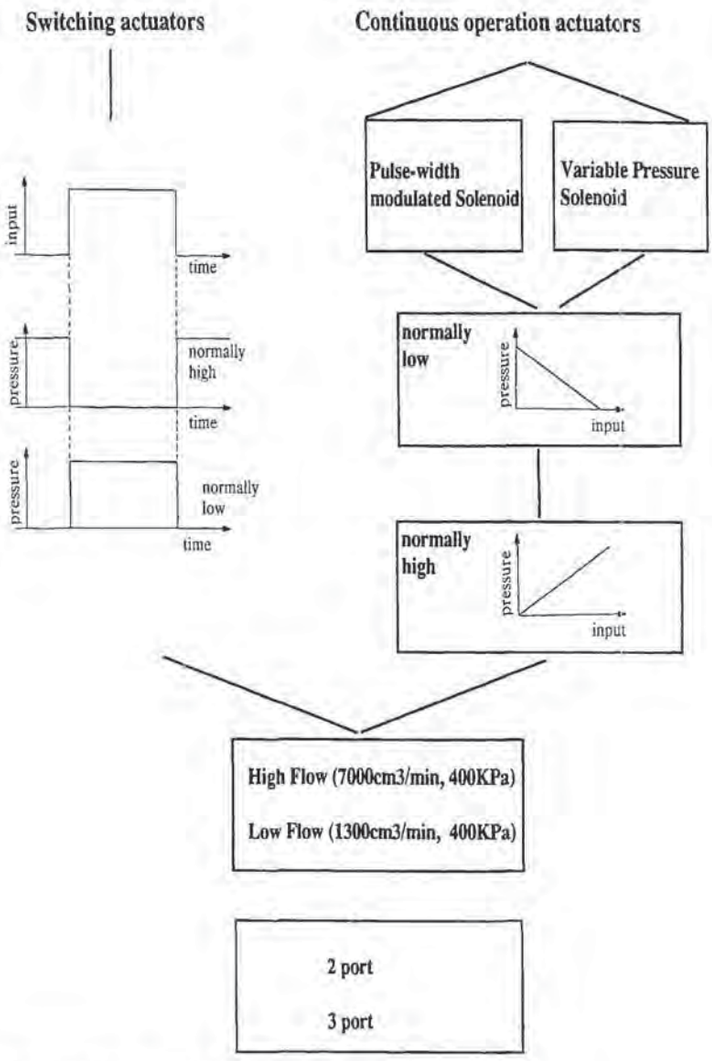


FIGURE 13.3 Electrohydraulic actuators for automatic transmissions.

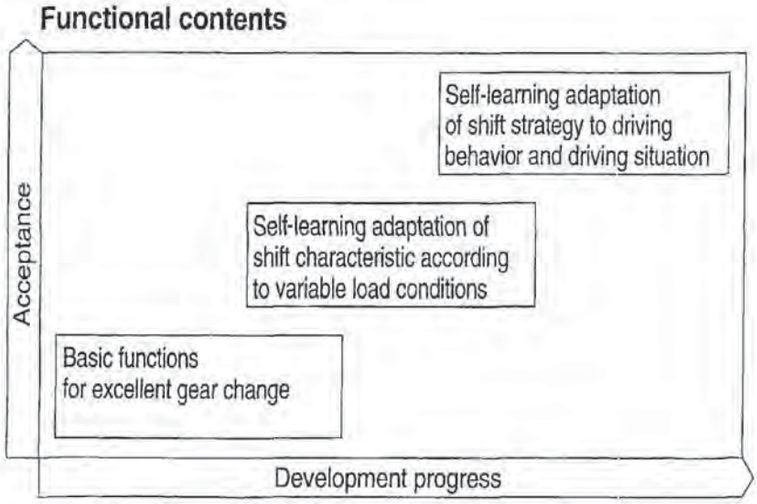


FIGURE 13.4 Relationship between driving characteristic and function complexity.

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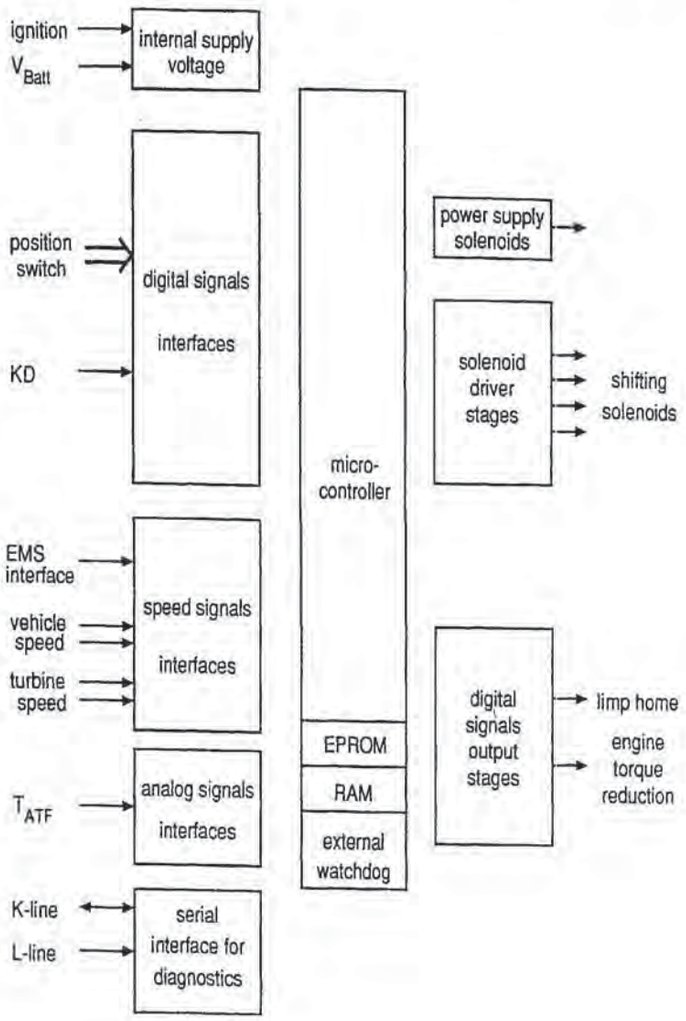


FIGURE 13.5 Structure of a basic transmission electronic control unit.

vehicle service. The pressure control in transmission systems with electrical operating possibilities for the pressure during and outside shifting can also be considered as a basic function. Figure 13.5 shows the necessary inputs and outputs as well as the block diagram of an electronic TCU suitable for the basic functions.

Shift Point Control. The basic shift point control uses shift maps, which are defined in data in the unit memory. These shift maps are selectable over a wide range. The shift point limitations are made, on the one hand, by the highest admissible engine speed for each application and, on the other hand, by the lowest engine speed that is practical for driving comfort and noise emission. The inputs of the shift point determination are the throttle position, the accelerator pedal position, and the vehicle speed (determined by the transmission output speed). Figure 13.6 shows a typical shift map application of a four-speed transmission.

To prevent overly frequent shifting between two gears, a hysteresis between the upshift and the downshift characteristic is incorporated. The hysteresis is determined by the desired shifting habit of the transmission and, alternatively, the car behavior. In the event that the particular shift characteristic is crossed by one of either of the two input valves, the electronic ECU releases the shift by activating the related actuators. This can be a direct shift into the

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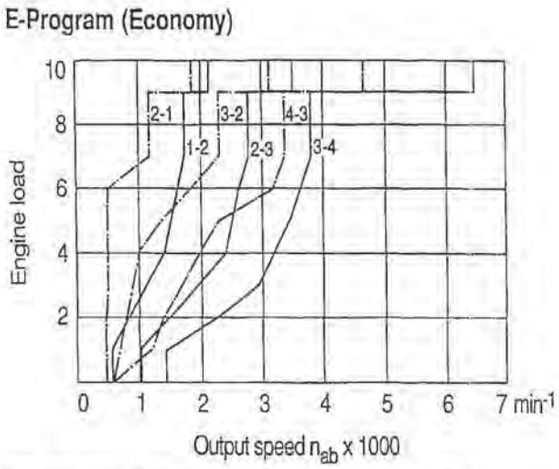


FIGURE 13.6 Shift characteristics of a four-speed application.

target gear or by a serial activation of specific actuators in a fixed sequence to the target gear, depending on the transmission hardware design.

Lockup Control/Torque Converter Clutch.[8] The torque converter clutch connects both functional components of the hydraulic converter, the pump and the turbine. The lockup of the clutch reduces the power losses coming from the torque converter slip. This is a permanent slip because it is necessary in principle to have a slip between the pumpwheel and the turbine to translate torque from the engine output to the transmission input. To increase the efficiency of the lockup, it is necessary to close the clutch as often as possible. On the other hand, the torque converter is an important component to prevent vibrations of the powertrain. The activation of the lockup is, therefore, a compromise between low fuel consumption and high driving comfort. The shift points of the lockup are determined in the same way as the determination of the shift point in the gear shift point control. Usually there is one separate characteristic curve for the lockup for each gear. To prevent powertrain vibrations, it is advisable to open the lockup during coasting to use the damping effect of the torque converter. In the case of a high positive gradient of the accelerator pedal with low engine speed, the converter clutch has to open to use the torque gain of the converter for better acceleration of the car. In some applications, the lockup is opened during shifting for improved shift comfort. After shifting, the lockup can be closed again. When driving in first gear, the lockup is usually open, because the time spent in first gear is usually very low and, therefore, the frequency of lockup shifting versus gear shifting becomes very high. This may result in decreased driving comfort. A second reason is the improved acceleration of the car in first gear when using the converter gain for wheel torque.

Engine Torque Control During Shifting.[8] The engine torque control requires an interface to an electronic engine management system. The target of the engine torque control, torque reduction during shifting, is to support the synchronization of the transmission and to prevent shift shocks.

In conventional applications, the engine torque reduction originates from an ignition angle control. The timing and absolute value of the ignition control depends on the operating conditions concerning actual engine torque and shifting type.

Upshift. The upshift occurs without an interruption of the tractive power. The engine torque reduction may be activated if the clutch of the target gear stays with the translation of torque. The beginning of the engine torque reduction is determined by the course of engine or transmission input speed. There it is important to detect a decreasing speed. The start of the

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torque reduction is characterized by a specific speed difference. The end of the torque reduction is activated at an applicable speed lead before reaching the synchronous speed of the new gear.

The power losses, which have to be picked up by the clutches, are dependent on the engine torque and the slipping time

$$Q = f \times (M_{eng} \times t_s + Q_{kin}) \tag{13.1}$$

where Q = power losses
M_{eng} = engine torque
t_s = slipping time
Q_{kin} = kinetic energy of revolving elements

It is possible to reduce the temperature stress to the clutches by reducing the engine torque and, consequently, by increasing the slipping time at a fixed possible maximum power loss Q [Eq. (13.1)]. Figure 13.7 shows a typical upshift characteristic.

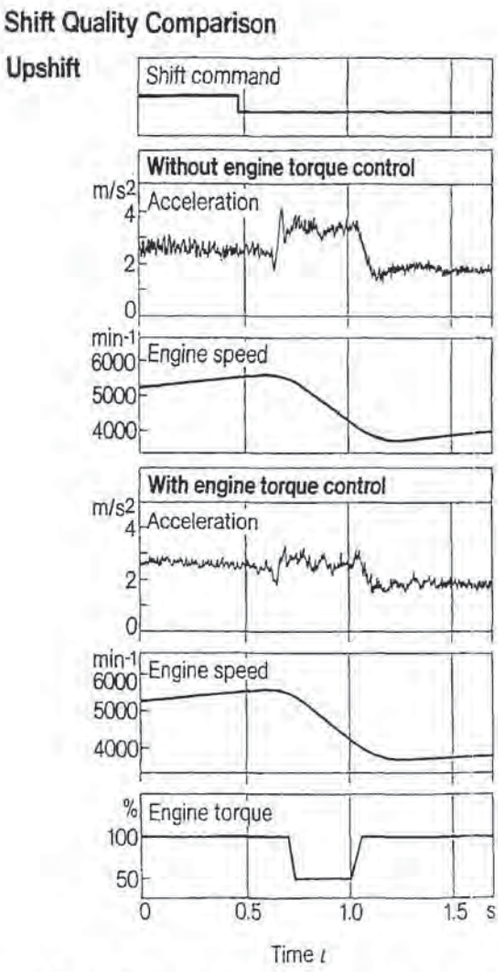


FIGURE 13.7 Timing of engine torque reduction during upshift.

Downshift. Downshift under driving conditions results in a short interruption of the tractive power. At the synchronous point, the tractive power is in operation. The higher revolving energy, on the other hand, results in undesired vibrations of the powertrain. To prevent such

vibrations, it is necessary to reduce the engine output torque before reaching the synchronous point of the new gear. When the transmission input speed reaches the synchronous speed of the new gear, the engine torque has to increase to the nominal value. The increase is usually applied as a torque ramp. Figure 13.8 shows a typical characteristic of a downshift. The values and timing of the engine torque reduction are generally part of the special calibration data for each combination of vehicle, engine, and transmission.

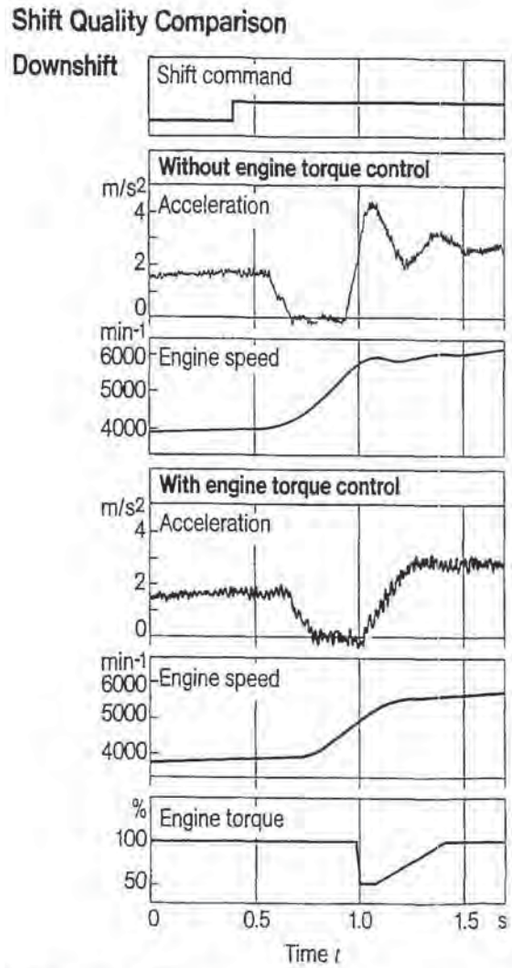


FIGURE 13.8 Timing of engine torque reduction during downshift.

Pressure Control.[8] The timing and absolute values of the pressure, which is responsible for the torque translation of the friction elements, is, aside from the engine torque reduction, the most important influence to shift comfort. The electronic TCU offers additional possibilities for better function than a conventional hydraulic system.

The pressure values during and outside shifting can be calculated by different algorithms or can be determined by characteristic maps. The inputs for a pressure calculation are engine torque, transmission input speed, turbine torque, throttle position, and so on. The inputs depend on the special signal availability in different systems as well as the requirement concerning shift comfort. The variable pressure components are usually added to a constant pressure value according to the different transmission designs. Equation (13.2) gives a typical algorithm for a pressure calculation.

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$$P_{mod} = P_{const} + k_n \times P_n + k_{tor} \times P_{tor} + k_s \times P_s \quad (13.2)$$

where P_{mod} = pressure
P_{const} = constant pressure value
k_n = adaptation factor for input speed
P_n = pressure component dependent on the revolution signal
k_{tor} = adaptation factor for engine torque
P_{tor} = pressure component dependent on torque
k_s = adaptation factor for vehicle speed
P_s = pressure component dependent on vehicle speed

During applications, the factors must be defined in the calibration phase. In general, the determination of these factors requires many vehicle tests, because the dynamic characteristic of the total system has an important influence on shift comfort. Another possibility for the pressure determination is to use characteristic maps which have to be defined during the calibration phase. This kind of pressure determination allows an improved selection of the optimum pressure at various extreme points independent of an algorithm.

Safety and Diagnostic Functions. The functions, which are usually known as diagnostic functions of the electronic TCU, can be divided into real safety functions to prevent critical driving conditions and diagnostic functions which affect an increasing availability of the car and a better failure detection for servicing. The boundary between safety and diagnostic functions depends on the philosophy of the automotive manufacturer. In the category of real safety functions belong all security functions that prevent uncontrollable shifting, especially unintended downshifting. One section is the monitoring of the microcontroller and its related peripheral devices. The monitoring of the transmission, like gear ratio detection, is also a part of this functional block, as are the actuator and speed sensor monitoring. The microcontroller monitor is usually a watchdog circuit. One possibility is to use the controller internal watchdog. In common applications, it is necessary to use an external watchdog circuit for safety reasons. This can be done with a second, low-performance microcontroller or by a separate hardware watchdog designed as an ASIC or as a conventional circuit device. Usually there is a safety logic circuit connected to the watchdog, which, in the case of a microcontroller breakdown, activates the failure signal and switches the outputs for the transmission actuators to a safety condition.

For the detection of the watchdog, it is necessary to test the watchdog function after each power-on during the electronic initialization. The monitoring of the controller peripheral components, in general EPROM, RAM, and chip-select circuits, works continuously with specific algorithms; e.g., by writing fixed data values to the storage cells and following comparison with the read value or by checksum comparison with fixed sum values. The actuator monitoring includes detection of short circuit to supply voltage and ground, as well as open-load conditions.

In case of actuator malfunction, the limp home mode is selected. This means that the transmission runs in a fixed, safe gear, depending on the driving conditions. The safe state of the actuators is the noncurrent condition, which is secured by the electronic control unit. The control unit can put the output stages into the noncurrent stage separate for each output or by a common supply switch, usually a relay or a transistor. There are some applications that use a combination of both the watchdog and safety circuits.

The monitoring of the transmission-specific sensors, such as input speed, output speed, and oil temperature, works as a plausability check. For example the transmission input speed can be calculated as a combination of the transmission output speed and the gear ratio. In case of a detected speed sensor malfunction, the limp home mode is generally required. With a temperature sensor failure, the TCU usually works with a substitute value

The diagnostic functions, which facilitate the finding of failures in the service station, contain the failure storage and the communication to the service tester, which allow the stored

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failures of the electronic TCU to be read. The communication between the control unit and the service tester is mainly car manufacturer-specific and must be defined by the car manufacturer before going into series production. The communication runs on a bidirectional, separate communication link.

The failure storage takes place in a nonvolatile memory device; e.g., in a permanent supplied RAM or in an EEPROM. It is also possible to store sporadic failures to detect such problems during the next service. The failure codes, number of stored failures, the handling of the failure storage, as well as the reaction of the TCU in case of a particular failure, is manufacturer-specific and is part of the unit specification. The real safety functions are part of the basic functions of an electronic TCU. The diagnostic functions concerning service tester and communication protocols are, over a wide range, manufacturer-specific. These range from a simple blink code up to a real self-test of the electronic unit, including all peripheral components.

13.3.2 Improvement of Shift Control

In a second development stage, the basic functions can be revised by a modification of the software functions and by adding new parts to the basic functions. This action results in a significant enhancement of the driving and shifting comfort. By a revision of the basic safety and diagnostic functions with so-called substitute functions, it is possible to increase the availability of the vehicle with AT as well as the driveability in case of a malfunction.

Shift Point Control. The basic function can be improved significantly by adding a software function, the so-called adaptive shift point control.[8] This function requires only signals which are available in an electronic TCU with basic functions. The adaptive shift point control is able to prevent an often-criticized attribute, the tendency for shift hunting especially when hill climbing and under heavy load conditions.

The adaptive function calculates the vehicle acceleration from the transmission output speed over time. The value of the actual acceleration in relation to a set value of the acceleration is the input for the shift point correction. The set value is given by the traction resistance characteristic. For a certain difference between set and actual value, the adaptation of the shift point occurs. The dimension of the shift point correction can be determined by calibration data and depends in general also on the actual vehicle speed and the engine load.

The shift point correction leads to higher hysteresis between upshift and downshift characteristics. With a high difference between set and actual values, it is also possible to forbid certain gears. The return to the basic shift point control is organized by software and can be fixed by calibration data. Usually, in the case of power-on, the adaptive shift point control is reset (Figs. 13.9 and 13.10).

In addition to these functions, different shift maps can be implemented into the data field of the TCU. For example, it is possible to have one shift map for low fuel consumption, which has shift points in the range of the best efficiency of the engine, and additionally to have another map for power operation, where the shift points are placed at points of highest engine output power. The character and number of different shift maps can be selected over a wide range. The choice of the different shift maps can be done by a selector push button or switch commanded by the driver. In further applications, the changing of the different shift programs is possible by self-learning strategies. It is also possible to implement a manual program in which fixed gears are specific to predetermined positions of the selector lever.

Lockup Control. There are some additional functions which can improve considerably the shift comfort of the lockup. In a first step, it is possible to replace the on/off control of the lockup actuator by a pulse control during opening and closing. This can be achieved using conventional hardware only by a software modification. In a further step, the on/off solenoid is replaced by a pressure regulator or a PWM solenoid.

By coordinating intelligent control strategies and corresponding output stages within the electronic TCU, a considerable improvement of the shift behavior of the lockup results. Here

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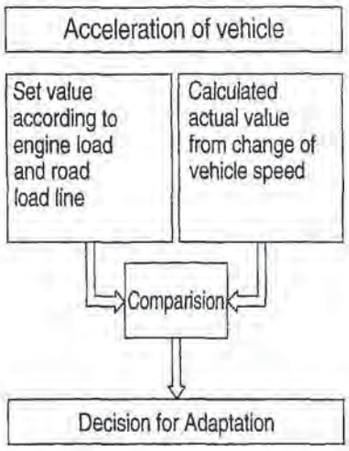


FIGURE 13.9 Basic principle of adaptive shift point control.

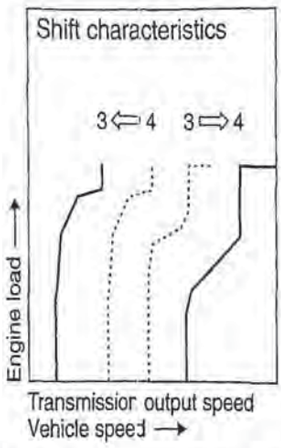


FIGURE 13.10 Shift characteristics before (- - -) and after (—) adaptation.

it is possible to close the lockup at low engine speed and low engine load with good shift comfort, resulting in decreased fuel consumption.

Engine Torque Reduction During Gear Shifting. By an improved interface design to the engine management system, it is possible to extend the engine torque reduction function. It is necessary to use a PWM signal with related fixed values or a bus interface. The engine torque reduction is controlled directly by the TCU. The advantage of such an interface is an independent calibration of the TCU data over a wide range without changing the engine management data. A further advantage is the improved possibility for the coordination of the engine torque reduction and the pressure control within the TCU. The improvement of this interface can be extended up to a real torque interface, especially when using a bus communication link.

Pressure Control.[8] The pressure control can be improved in a similar way as the shift point control with an adaptive software strategy. The required inputs for the adaptive pressure control are calculated from available signals in the transmission control. The main reasons for the implementation of the adaptive pressure control are the variations of the attributes of the transmission components like clutch surfaces and oil quality as well as the changing engine output torque over the lifetime of the car.

The principle of adaptive pressure control is a comparison of a set value for the shift time with an actual value, measured by the transmission input speed course. At a specific difference of the set value to the actual value, the pressure value is corrected by a certain increment in the positive or negative direction. The original adaptation time and the pressure value increment were fixed during the calibration phase. For safety reasons, the total deviation of the pressure value from a given value is limited, depending on the particular application. Usually the correction values are stored in the nonvolatile memory to have the correct values available after power-on of the electronic TCU.

Safety and Diagnostic Functions. The safety functions extend over better monitoring of the selector lever and functions concerning misuse by the driver. With a corresponding transmission hardware design, the implementation of a reverse gear inhibit function is possible; i.e, above a certain vehicle speed, the position R is blocked hydraulically by a single solenoid or by a particular solenoid combination commanded by the electronic TCU. This function pre-

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vents the destruction of the transmission in the event of an unintentional shift to the reverse gear. Downshift prevention is part of the safety function, especially during manual shifting by the driver. Here the synchronous speed of the new gear is calculated and compared with the admissable maximum engine speed. In the case of a calculated synchronous speed above the maximum engine speed, the downshift is prohibited by the TCU. This function can be supported by an overrun safeguard which releases the limp home mode in case of exceeding the admissable maximum engine speed.

All of those functions can be extended and have to be defined during the development stage by the automobile transmission and electronic TCU manufacturers. To increase availability of the AT system, even with the failure of certain signals, it is possible to provide a substitute operation with better drivability than in the limp home mode. This can be done by substitute functions. The electronic TCU falls back on substitute values or signals in the case of a breakdown of certain interfaces. There is, for example, the possibility to run with a programmable fixed throttle value with a breakdown of the throttle position signal. This results in a reduction of the shift characteristics to shift points. Shifting into all gears is possible, however, with reduced shift comfort. A further method is to use secondary signals in case the original signals break down. For example, the calculation of vehicle speed can be from wheel speed during breakdown of the transmission output speed signal. This technique usually requires a connection between ABS and transmission control. The third variant is the canceling of certain functions if the necessary input signals are missed. For example, in the case of a kickdown switch failure, the kickdown function is canceled. This results in no downshift after operation of the kickdown. Downshifts are nevertheless still possible via the full-throttle opening point according to the full-load shift characteristic.

The availability and driveability of automobiles equipped with electronic TCU in case of system failures can be improved significantly with the implementation of substitute functions. This results in a considerable increase in acceptance by the drivers of automobiles with electronic transmission control.

13.3.3 Adaptation to Driver's Behavior and Traffic Situations

In certain driving conditions, some disadvantages of the conventional AT can be prevented by using self-learning strategies.[9] This is especially valid when improving the compromise in the shift characteristics regarding gear selection under particular driving conditions and under difficult environmental conditions. The intention of the self-learning functions is to provide the appropriate shift characteristic suitable to the driver under all driving conditions. Additionally, the behavior of the car under special conditions can be improved by suitable functions. Available input signals of the car, provided by the related electronic TCUs from interfaces and communication links, are processed by the TCU with specific algorithms. The self-learning functions can be divided into a long respectively medium term adaptation for driver's style detection and into a short-term adaptation which reacts to the present driving situation, such as hills or curves.

The core of the adaptive strategies is the driver's style detection. The driver's style can be detected by monitoring of the accelerator pedal movements. The inputs are operation speed, operation frequency, and the rating position of the accelerator pedal. These inputs are processed depending on priorities with special algorithms related to the desired driving behavior of the car. The calculated driver style is related to certain shift maps. There is a large choice of shift maps available. With the currently known applications, there are mostly four different shift maps ranging from fuel economic to extremely sporty vehicle behavior. The calculated driver's style can also depend on the actual vehicle speed and the share of constant driving conditions during a certain driving cycle. These self-learning functions can be calibrated by the car manufacturer, depending on his philosophy and target market. In this way, the number of shift maps and the speed of the adaptation have the main influence. A further possibility to match the driver's style is by rating the accelerator pedal operation during vehicle start, for example, after a red light stop. In this way the operation speed and frequency of the accelera-

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tor pedal below a certain vehicle speed can be interpreted and calculated as part of the driver's style rating. In the event of kickdown, the shift maps of the driver's style rating are shut down by a priority command. The driver has the usual behavior of the car during kickdown, generally a downshift, providing no other safety function is in operation.

To prevent shift hunting, the self-learning functions are carried out over a long respectively medium term adaptation with the adaptation timer ranging from several seconds up to one minute. The second part of the self-learning functions is the driving condition detection. There is a correlation between the input signals of the transmission control and the driving condition.

One of the main disadvantages of a conventional electronic transmission control is the upshifting at constant vehicle speed by crossing the upshift characteristic with a reduction of the accelerator pedal angle. This results in an unintended gear shift, especially when cornering and when approaching a crossing or an obstacle. To prevent these gear shifts it is possible to use so-called upshift prevention. Cornering can be detected by the acceleration of the car along the driving direction related to the vehicle speed. The vehicle speed is calculated from the transmission output speed. The acceleration can be detected by an acceleration sensor or by the difference between the nondriven wheel speeds. In this way it is possible to prevent the upshift when cornering, resulting in a considerable improvement in vehicle stability.

The detection of a crossing or obstacle approach is possible by the detection of a fast off condition of the accelerator pedal. At a certain gradient of the pedal position, the upshift is prevented. This is a considerable advantage especially when overtaking low-speed vehicles. With this strategy the correct gear is available without a shift delay.

Another part of the driving situation detection is the recognition of uphill driving and full-load conditions. This is possible by adding special functions to the adaptive gear shift control. When driving downhill, it makes sense to support the engine braking effect for a better deceleration of the car. Downhill driving can be detected by a comparison of throttle position and vehicle speed gradient. An upshift is prevented and, in some special cases, a downshift is activated by the electronic TCU.

A further section of the self-learning functions is the environmental monitoring with related shift strategies. A special application can be a self-learning winter program. The wheel slip of the driven wheels is compared with a set value of a combination of given wheel torque and vehicle speed. When exceeding a set limit of wheel slip, a special shift strategy is chosen. For example, the vehicle starts off in second gear or an upshift takes place at lower engine speeds.

The development of adaptive shift strategies started a few years ago and is currently one of the main areas in electronic transmission development. The efficiency of the self-learning functions has led to a wide acceptance of AT-equipped vehicles. The future development concerning new adaptive functions and an improvement of the already known functions is an important area in control development. This can be supported by an increasing share of electronic units and interfaces for the communication between units. With multiple use of sensors providing the necessary input signals, the total system gains increased functionality, especially with bus systems.

At present, an increasing share of manual programs with an AT can be registrated. The driver instructs the AT to shift via a switch or a push button. In this manner, the driver can operate the AT like a manual gearbox independently of other shift maps, with only the safety functions in operation. This has led to a broad acceptance, especially in the sports car market. These functions can all be calibrated and applied by the car manufacturer with data relating to his philosophy and to the target market. The result is the prevention of the known disadvantages of the conventional AT control without canceling the advantages in driving comfort and safety.

13.4 COMMUNICATIONS WITH OTHER ELECTRONIC CONTROL UNITS

With the existence of electronic control units for various applications in vehicles, many opportunities exist to link these ECUs and to establish communications between them. The main partner of the TCU is the engine management system. Due to the coupling of engine and

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transmission within the vehicle powertrain, it is necessary to have an interface between these ECUs for a functional coupling and an interchange of signals. It is essential for the pressure control inside the transmission control to sensor the engine load, the engine speed, and the throttle position. The engine torque reduction during shifting is also important to establish a good shift comfort and a satisfactory lifetime for the clutches. By handing over certain signals like position lever state, lockup condition, or shift commands to the engine management, the driving comfort of the vehicle can be improved significantly. An interface to ABS and traction control is useful for some self-learning functions in the transmission control when using the wheel speeds.

It is possible to implement certain shift strategies in the transmission control as an active support for ABS and traction control. A link to the electronic throttle control or cruise control makes it possible to optimize certain functions for the total vehicle. By interfaces between the ECUs, a reduction of the sensor expense results by a multiple use via communications. Suitable links include, especially, PWM or bus configurations for trouble-free communication. Bus systems in particular have the advantage of the link-up of additional ECUs without changing their existing hardware. Additional coupling requires only a software change. The interchange of required supplementary signals for new functions is possible without any problems. An example of powertrain management by coupling the powertrain ECUs to achieve lower fuel consumption, simultaneously improving the driveability, is described as follows.

13.5 OPTIMIZATION OF THE DRIVETRAIN

The newest generation of transmission controllers has overcome the former disadvantage regarding fuel efficiency. Adaptive functions in cooperation with carefully designed torque converter clutch control,[8] which allows the clutch to be closed even at low gears, have improved fuel consumption significantly. Based on the driver's behavior, together with an adaptive shift strategy as previously described, part of the TCU's adaptive program software may select an economy or even super-economy shift strategy whenever possible. There is, however, still more potential for fuel economy by optimization of the drivetrain.

The concept called Mastershift[10] is shown in Fig. 13.11. The basic idea is to interpret the accelerator pedal position as an acceleration request. That acceleration request, or a request for wheel torque, has to be converted by operating the engine at high torque, i.e., open throttle and low rpm values. In order to realize this, it is necessary to use an electronic throttle control system. The communication between the electronic throttle, the engine, and transmission is shown in Fig. 13.12.

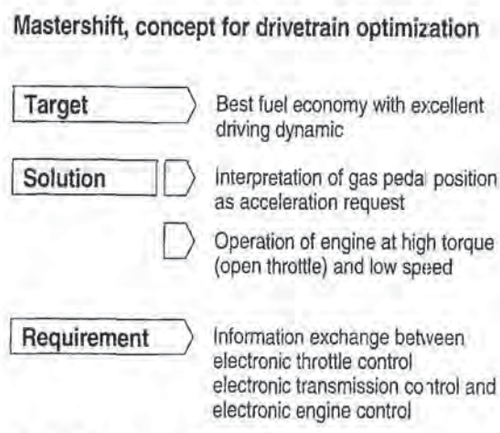


FIGURE 13.11 Drivetrain operation.

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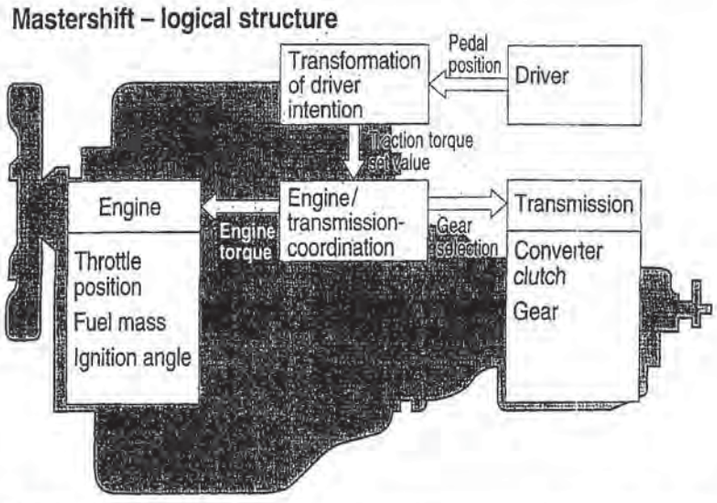


FIGURE 13.12 Mastershift: logical structure and communication between different control systems.

In such a system, a well-defined coordination between the engine torque, mainly given by throttle position (air mass), fuel mass, and ignition angle on one side and selection of the appropriate gear including torque converter clutch on the other side, is imperative. Depending on the type of engine, fuel consumption can be reduced further by 5 to 10 percent with this optimized Mastershift concept. Because the average engine operation is at higher torque levels compared to standard systems, a greater number of gear shifts may occur. This is important to guarantee optimal shift comfort. Figure 13.13 shows how that can be accomplished by using the additional degree of freedom given by the electronic throttle control. It is possible to operate the throttle angle during the gear shift in such a way as to achieve constant wheel torque before and after downshifts.

13.6 FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS

In future years, development work will be concentrated on redesign of hardware components for cost reduction, improvement of yield to reduce fuel consumption, and improvement of driveability. A good approach to meet cost targets on the electronic hardware side would be to integrate two or more individual control modules into a common housing. Regarding the electronic components, one could continue using two separate microcontrollers. This would have the advantage that the software development and application could be done individually for two different systems, for example engine and transmission controllers. Another approach could be to mount the TCU on the transmission housing itself. This could lead to a significant reduction in the expense for the wiring harness. Here, however, the problem of hostile ambient temperatures on electronic components has to be solved. Today's stand-alone actuators could be integrated into a common housing similar to the solution shown by Chrysler Corp. in its A 604 transmission.

The improvement of the yield is a main topic for designers of ATs. Oil pumps and torque converters are a major source of energy losses. A significant improvement of yield will be possible as soon as torque converter clutches are available with the capability for continuous slip operation. The torque converter clutch can then be operated in low gears and at low engine speeds without facing problems from drivetrain oscillations and/or noise emission.

The driveability is the most important feature for the drivers' acceptance of ATs. In addition to the self-adaptive functions described, the implementation of shift strategies benefiting from control algorithms using fuzzy theory may further improve driveability.

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