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Jonathan Cailliez, Mokrane Boudaoud, Abdenbi Mohand Ousaid, Antoine Duflos, Sinan Haliyo, et al.. Modeling and experimental characterization of an active MEMSbased force sensor. Journal of Micro-Bio Robotics, 2019, 15 (1), pp.53 - 64. hal-02867735

HAL Id: hal-02867735 https://hal.science/hal-02867735v1

Submitted on 15 Jun 2020

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RESEARCH ARTICLE

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Modeling and experimental characterization of an active MEMS based force sensor

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Received: 19 October 2018 / Revised: 9 January 2019 / Accepted: 11 March 2019 © Springer-Verlag GmbH Germany, part of Springer Nature 2019

Abstract

Active force sensors are based on the principle of force balancing using a feedback control. They allow, unlike passive sensors, the static characterization of forces without interference of the sensor mechanical properties on the estimated stiffness of the object to be studied. This capability is fundamental when dealing with the mechanical characterization of a samples having a wide range of stiffness. This paper deals with the modeling and the experimental characterization of a new active MEMS based force sensor. This sensor includes folded-flexure type suspensions and a differential comb drive actuation allowing a linear force/voltage relationship. A control oriented electromechanical model is proposed and validated experimentally in static and dynamic operating modes using a stroboscopic measurement system. This work is a first step towards new MEMS active force sensor with high resonant frequency (>2kHz) and high linear measurement force range (50 μN). The advantage of this structure is to be able to change the sensor operating point without changing the sensor dynamics. Thus simplifying the control law. Modifying the operating point allows performing an accurate self positioning of the probe in close proximity to the surface to be studied.

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0 1 Introduction

Keywords

Small and embeddable force sensing tools are essential 1 in micro-robotics [1]. The need of size reduction has 2 led to forgo traditional engineering techniques for sensors 3 fabrication in favor of clean room fabrication processes. 4 The clean room facilities have enabled the production of 5 6 the Micro Electro Mechanical Systems (MEMS). MEMS engineering can provide systems with much smaller details 7 [2] than conventional techniques and can perform batch 8 manufacturi ng, efficiently reducing costs and production 9 time per unit. 10

11 MEMS force sensing can be divided into two main 12 categories, namely elastic sensing and zero displacement 13 sensing. The first one is the most widely reported in 14 the literature with piezoresistive sensors [3, 4], fluidic 15 sensors [5], capacitive sensors [6–8], MOSFET sensors [9], 16 vision tracked sensors [10] and so on. Elastic sensors are

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based on a mechanical transformation of an external force 17 into a displacement. The force measurement is deduced 18 from the displacement measurement by the knowledge of 19 mechanical suspensions stiffness. This method tends to 20 provide smaller sensors with the need of little control 21 electronic, leading to more integrated sensors. A trade-off 22 between the measurement range and the resolution is often 23 involved [11]. An increase of the sensor stiffness increases 24 its measurement range at the cost of its resolution. In order 25 to circumvent this drawback, a mechanical structure is used 26 in [12] to change the sensor stiffness when the applied force 27 exceeds a threshold value. One can also design an infinite 28 stiffness sensor, called a zero displacement sensor. 29

The working principle of a zero displacement sensor, also 30 referred here as an active sensor, is to hold the position of the 31 probe at a fixed value despite of an external applied force. 32 This is feasible thanks to a feedback control driving a set of 33 actuators in order to compensate the applied external force. 34 The force measurement is deduced from the actuator voltage 35 or current. Active sensors have also the advantage of being 36 able to provide quantitative force measurement without 37 an accurate calibration of the suspensions. Some of zero 38 displacement sensors have been reported in the literature. In 39

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[11] and [13], the sensor is composed of an electrothermal 40 position sensor and an electrostatic comb drive actuator. 41 However, the use of a traditional (i.e. not differential) 42 comb drive configuration leads to a quadratic force/voltage 43 relationship that involves control issues for the force 44 measurement. In [14], the zero displacement force sensor 45 includes a piezoresistive position sensor and an additional 46 comb drive actuator, taking advantage of the equivalent 47 'negative stiffness' behavior of some electrostatic actuators, 48 49 to adjust in real time the resonance frequency of the sensor. Overall, passive force sensors allow for more integrated 50 sensors and can perform adequately provided their stiffness 51 is higher than the maximum gradient of measured forces. 52 They are also able to perform up to 6 DOF measurements 53 [15], while active force sensors are more fit to measure 54 forces with a high range of gradients. 55

The goal of this work is to present the modeling 56 and experimental characterization of a high bandwidth 57 MEMS force sensor with linear force-voltage actuation, 58 folded flexure suspensions, while being as compact as 59 possible A knowledge model of the sensor is proposed. 60 Knowledge models are useful to study the influence of 61 electromechanical parameters on the sensors performance 62 and to have some feedback on conception. 63

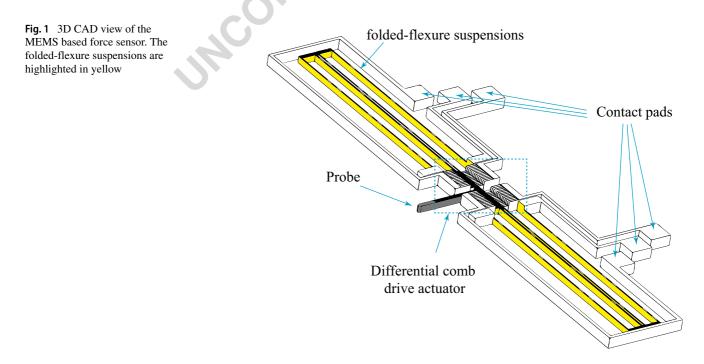
A description of the MEMS structure is presented in 64 Section 2. Section 3 deals with the electromechanical mod-65 eling of the sensor. The model describes the relationship 66 between the sensor probe position and the actuation volt-67 age of the comb drive actuator. The experimental protocol 68 for the dynamic and the static characterization of the sen-69 70 sor is presented in Section 4. In Section 5 experimental data are analyzed and results are followed by several discussions. 71

The characterized model is used to perform some simula-
tion as well as the synthesis on a controller for the sensor.72A conclusion and future perspectives of the work finish the
paper.74

2 Description of the MEMS structure

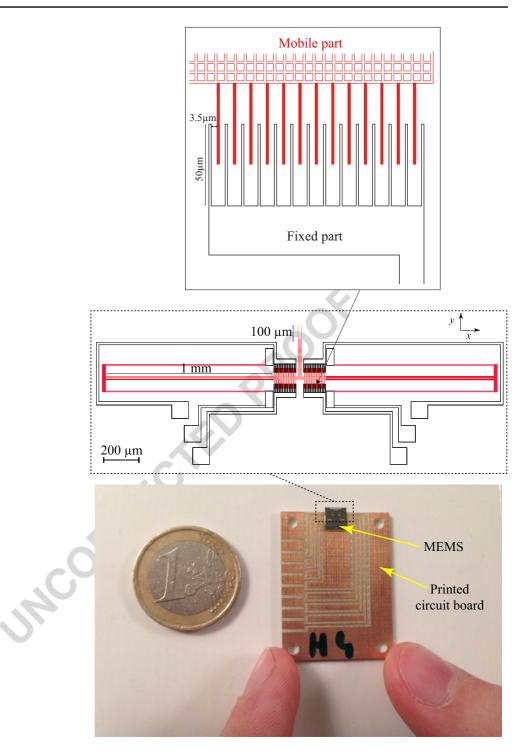
The considered MEMS is presented in Fig. 1. A 2D plan and 77 a picture of the MEMS with it's PCB are presented in Fig. 2. 78

The sensor is composed of a differential comb drive 79 actuator, folded-flexure suspensions, a probe and six contact 80 pads for the electrical connections as shown in Fig. 1. The 81 goal was the design of a force sensor with a high linear 82 range and a bandwidth superior to 2kHz, to do so we made 83 the choice of folded flexure suspensions. The choice of the 84 actuator (number of comb drives and dimensions) was made 85 so that it could be operated between -70V and 70V. The 86 rest of the mechanical elements have been designed so that 87 the mechanical resonant frequency fits our specifications. 88 There are mainly 3 suspensions architectures used in MEMS 89 devices: clamped clamped flexure, Crab-leg flexure and 90 folded flexure design. If we consider the same flexure length 91 and width and a force measurement in y direction, the 92 clamped clamped suspensions have a high stiffness ratio 93 kx/ky equal to the square of the ratio length/width, but the 94 linear range of ky is very low. The Crab-leg flexure design 95 allows extending the linear range of ky but significantly 96 reduces the ratio kx/ky. The folded flexure design, however, 97 increases the linear range of ky compared to the clamped 98 clamped design while it has the same ratio kx/ky as for 99 the clamped clamped flexures. Therefore, among these 100



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Fig. 2 MEMS based force sensor and enlarged view of the internal structure of the mechanical part. The movable structures are highlighted in red. Detail of one quarter of the comb drive actuator is presented above the global plan (the whole structure is 30 μm thick)



three design architectures, the folded flexure design is the best candidate when dealing with unidirectional force measurement in a wide linear operating range [16]. It has been monolithically fabricated on a silicon on insulator (SOI) wafer of 30 μ m thickness. Wire bonding has been used to connect the contact pads of the MEMS to a printed circuit board (Fig. 2).

The conception has been performed in our lab using 108 a CAD software. However, as no cleanroom facilities 109 are available in the lab, the MEMS were realized thanks 110 to the help of the RENATECH platform and the IEMN 111 lab (Institut d'éléctronique de microélectronique et de 112 nanothechnologie). RENATECH is a french platform of 113 nanofabrication. 114

The nominal comb drive actuator includes 56 fixed 115 fingers and 52 movable fingers, it can bee seen in Fig. 2. 116 The gap spacing between the fingers is $g = 3.5 \ \mu m$. The 117 suspensions have 1 mm length and 3.5 μ m width. The 118 external part of the probe has a length of 100 μ m as 119 shown in Fig. 2. The maximum actuation voltages of the 120 differential comb drive actuator is 70 Volts. The linear 121 displacement range of the probe is about 50 μ m. The 122 direction of motion of the probe is the y direction. 123

124 3 Dynamic modeling of the MEMS actuator

For control purposes, a dynamic model of the sensor is needed. This section deals with the electromechanical modeling of the transfer between the probe displacement and the input voltages of the differential actuator.

3.1 Electrical modeling of the differentialelectrostatic comb drives

Let's consider an elementary finger pair of the comb drive 131 actuator as depicted in Fig. 3. The movable fingers are 132 represented by the electrode (2). The fixed fingers are 133 represented by the electrodes (1) and (3). When no voltage 134 is applied, the MEMS is designed to have $y_1 = y_2 =$ 135 y_0 , where y_1 and y_2 are the overlapping lengths between 136 the electrodes (2) and (1) and the electrodes (2) and (3) 137 respectively. 138

139 Hence, one can write:

$$\begin{cases} y_1 = y_0 - y_e \\ y_2 = y_0 + y_e \end{cases}$$
(1)

140 y_0 is the overlapping length when no voltage is applied 141 and y_e is the displacement of the movable finger in y 142 direction.

The electrostatic force exerted on the movable finger, in *y* direction, in response to a voltage is equal to the gradient
of the electrostatic energy stored by the system.

146 The stored energy can be expressed as follows :

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \left(C_{12} (V_1 - V_2)^2 + C_{23} (V_2 - V_3)^2 + C_{13} (V_1 - V_3)^2 \right)$$
(2)

147 C_{ij} is the capacitance between the electrodes (j) and (i). 148 V_i is the voltage between an electrode (i) and the electrical 149 ground. Here, C_{13} is considered equal to 0 (the electrical 150 coupling between electrodes 1 and 3 is neglected).

151 By neglecting side effects, one can get:

$$\begin{cases} C_{12} = 2(y_0 - y_e) \frac{N\epsilon_0\epsilon_r t}{g} \\ C_{23} = 2(y_0 + y_e) \frac{N\epsilon_0\epsilon_r t}{g} \end{cases}$$
(3)

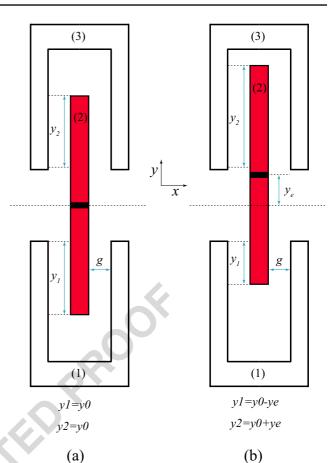


Fig.3 Scheme of an elementary pair of fingers in the differential comb drive actuator when the movable fingers are at the initial position $y_e = 0$ (a) and at a position $y_e \neq 0$. The movable fingers are represented by the electrode (2). The fixed fingers are represented by the electrodes (1) and (3)

N = 26 is the total number of mobile fingers pairs, ϵ_0 152 is the vacuum permittivity, ϵ_r the relative permittivity of air 153 and $t = 30 \mu m$ the thickness of the electrodes. 154

Let us now consider the following gain:

$$k_c = \frac{N\epsilon_0\epsilon_r t}{g} \tag{4}$$

The electrostatic force can then be expressed as follows: 156

155

$$F = -\frac{\partial E}{\partial y_e} = k_c ((V_1 - V_2)^2 - (V_2 - V_3)^2)$$
(5)

By setting $V_1 = -V_3$, which is thereafter used to operate 157 the force sensor, the Eq. 5 can be simplified as follows: 158

$$F = 4k_c V_3 V_2 \tag{6}$$

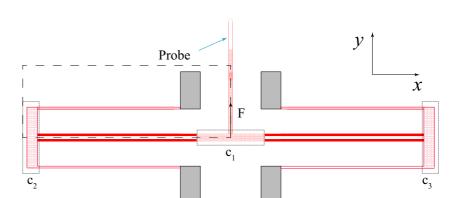
Using the numerical value of each parameter of the 159 electrical model, and choosing V_3 = 40 V, the relationship 160 between the electrostatic force *F* that drives the sensor 161 probe and the voltage V_2 is: 162

$$|F| = 0.3157 V_2 \left[\mu N\right] \tag{7}$$

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Fig. 4 Schematic representation of the folded-flexure suspensions. The dashed rectangle shows the quarter model of the suspensions as shows in Fig. 5



 V_1 will be set at -40V and V3 at 40V for the 163 experiments, V_2 becoming the only control signal. The 164 linear force/voltage relationship which is one of the main 165 advantages of the differential comb drive actuation is 166 therefore demonstrated. 167

3.2 Static mechanical modeling of the suspensions 168

The aim of this section is to define a knowledge based 169 model of the static force/deflection characteristic for the 170 suspension structure. Let us recall that folded-flexure 171 suspensions are designed for the MEMS sensor (Fig. 1). The 172 bodies C1, C2, and C3 (Fig. 4) are supposed to be infinitely 173 rigid and the flexible structures will be modeled with small 174 displacement theory. 175

176 Due to the symmetry of the structure, the problem can be reduced by considering the quarter model of the suspensions 177 as shown in Fig. 5. The dimensions of the beam 1 and that 178 179 of the beam 2 are given in Table 1.

All the displacements are considered in y direction. The 180 displacement of the rigid body C1 will be supposed equal to 181 the displacement of the point A of the beam 1 relatively to 182 the point B (y_a) plus the displacement of the point C of the 183

Fig. 5 Ouarter model of the suspensions (Dashed rectangle in Fig. 4)

beam 2 (y_c). The beam 1 will be supposed clamped at both 184 ends and the beam 2 will be treated as simply clamped. The distance between the points B and C is equal to 18 μ m.

Using Euler-Bernoulli beam theory, one is able to get the 187 following Eqs. 8 and 9 188

$$y_a = \frac{Fl_1^3}{48EI} \tag{8}$$

$$y_c = \frac{Fl_2^3}{12EI} - \frac{Fl_1l_2^2}{16EI}$$
(9)

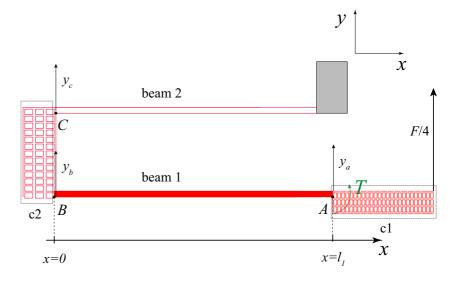
With E the young modulus of silicon and I the area 189 moment of inertia of the beam in the considered direction. 190

By combining Eqs. 8 and 9, the total displacement of the 191 sensor probe is 192

$$y_p = \frac{F}{12EI} \left(\frac{l_1^3}{4} + l_2^3 - \frac{3}{4} l_1 l_2^2 \right)$$
(10)

The total stiffness k of the suspension structure can then 193 be deduced from the force/displacement relationship: 194

$$k = \frac{y_p}{F} = \frac{12EI}{\frac{l_1^3}{\frac{1}{4} + l_2^3 - \frac{3}{4}l_1l_2^2}}$$
(11)



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 Table 1
 Dimensions of the beam 1 and the beam 2 in the suspension structure

	width	thickness	length
beam1	$w = 4.5 \ \mu m$	$t = 30 \ \mu m$	$l_1 = 1 mm$
beam2	$w = 4.5 \ \mu m$	$t = 30 \ \mu m$	$l_2 = 0.965 mm$

Taking into account the dimensions of the MEMS structure and the silicon Young modulus E = 127 GPa, the model (11) allows to compute k = 1.37 N/m.

The static force/displacement characteristic of the suspensions has been also analyzed using a computer-aided design (CAD) software. Several finite element analysis with different forces exerted on the probe in *y* direction have been performed. The operating points have then been fitted to obtain the result of Fig. 6.

The finite element analysis leads to a stiffness k=1.451N/m. The difference between this result and the one obtained by the knowledge-based model is equal to 5.58 %, hence validating the hypothesis of the knowledge based model. However, both of these models consider perfect geometries, which is not necessary the case here due to the dimensions of the structure.

211 3.3 Electro-mechanical dynamic model of the MEMS

In the previous sections, the electrical force/voltage relationship and the static mechanical displacement/force model of the MEMS have been obtained leading to a static knowledge-based model. To extend the model into a dynamic formulation, the damping coefficient μ and the mass *m* of the movable structure are added here.

The dynamic equation of the movable part of the MEMS can be expressed as follows:

$$m\ddot{y_p} = -ky_p - \mu\dot{y_p} + 4k_c V_3 U$$
(12)

Fig. 6 Static force/displacement finite element characteristic of the suspensions

 $U=V_2$ is the input of the system.

Using the Laplace transform of the Eq. 12, the transfer 221 function H(p) of the MEMS can be expressed as follows (p 222 being the Laplace variable): 223

$$H(p) = \frac{y_p}{U} = \frac{4k_c V_3}{mp^2 + \mu p + k}$$
(13)

4 Experimental characterization

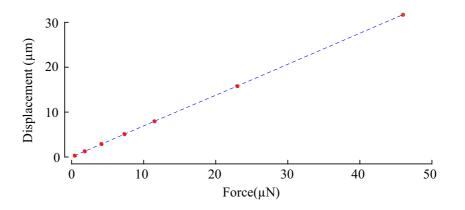
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4.1 Experimental setup

As shown in Fig. 7, the experimental setup is composed 226 of the MEMS sensor, voltage generators, a Digital 227 Holographic Microscope (DHM) and a vibration isolation 228 table. The DHM is used to measure the displacement of the 229 mobile part of the MEMS in response to a voltage $U = V_2$. 230 A beam of coherent light is emitted and focused on the 231 MEMS. The intensity and phase of the reflected beam are 232 recorded. The phase information is treated to get a 3D real 233 time image of the observed structure. 234

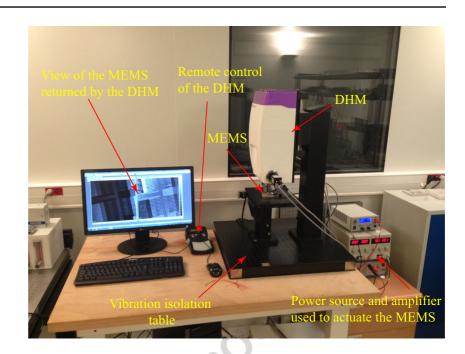
4.2 Dynamic characterization of the MEMS actuator 235

Because of the high resonant frequency of the MEMS 236 (relative to the DHM camera frequency), a stroboscopic 237 unit has to be used to be able to track the position of the 238 movable structure. For the experiment, a voltage of 40 V 239 has been chosen for V_3 , and the actuator is driven by a 240 square wave $U = V_2$ at 50 Hz. The stroboscope is set to 241 get images at a frequency of 25 kHz. The first problem to 242 solve is that the MEMS is not aligned with the microscope 243 axes. The picture has to be rotated in order to align the 244 movement direction with the image horizontal axis. To do 245 so, the user selects 16 points in the image whose coordinates 246 are known a priori. Then, 32 vectors are extracted from the 247 16 points. 248



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Fig. 7 Experimental setup for the characterization of the MEMS sensor. The stroboscopic unit is under the table



Let *A* be the matrix containing the vector of coordinates in the image and *B* the matrix containing the vector of the a priori coordinates such that $B = R \times A$:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} x_{a_1} & y_{a_1} \\ x_{a_2} & y_{a_2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{a_n} & y_{a_n} \end{bmatrix}, B = \begin{bmatrix} x_{b_1} & y_{b_1} \\ x_{b_2} & y_{b_2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{b_n} & y_{b_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

The determination of R can be seen as an overdetermined system of equations. That means that no matrix *R* is solution of this equation. However several solutions exist to provide a matrix *R* that minimizes a cost function of B - RA. Here, the cost function will be quadratic. The chosen matrix R will be:

$$R = B \times pinv(A) \tag{14}$$

Where pinv(.) is the Moore-Penrose pseudoinverse [17]. 258 The rotation angle and scale ratio are extracted from R. 259 The image is first rotated, missing pixels are recovered by a 260 linear interpolation between neighboring points. The image 261 is in grayscale, so pixels intensities range from 0 (black) to 262 255 (white). Pixels intensities are summed along the rotated 263 image vertical axis. Figure 8 represents the sum of pixels 264 intensities for one position of the MEMS probe. Similarly, 265 Fig. 9 shows the same sum for several positions of the probe. 266

Let's consider the red curve in ROI represented by the dashed rectangle of Fig. 8 for a fixed position of the MEMS. The horizontal axis represents a pixel number in the horizontal direction. The vertical axis represents the sum of the intensities of the pixels that have the same horizontal position. This shape is characteristic of the probe. Around this shape, the intensity is constant, hence the corresponding offset can be removed, so the center of mass of the shape can274be computed using Eq. 15 after removing the corresponding275intensity offset. When the probe moves horizontally, the276shape moves along with it by the same amount (with some277distortion due to image blur).Therefore, the displacement of278the probe can be estimated as the displacement of the center279of mass of the ROI.280

$$y_0 = \frac{\sum_{ROI} y \times (I(y)^4)}{\sum_{ROI} (I(y)^4)}$$
(15)

I(y) is the sum of the intensities of all the pixels that share the coordinate y i.e. vertical sum of the intensities on y, it is taken at the power four to increase the detection accuracy. y can be expressed either as pixel number or converted to a position in microns using the scale ratio extracted from Eq. 14. Pattern tracking and data correlation are rendered impossible here due to high movement noise. 287

This method has been used to measure the step response 288 of the MEMS probe experimentally (Fig. 10). These signals 289 resulted in the identification of a second order model $H_i(p)$ 290 describing the dynamic behavior of the MEMS. The step 291 response of the model for a 4.5 Volts step input is also shown 292 in Fig. 10. 293

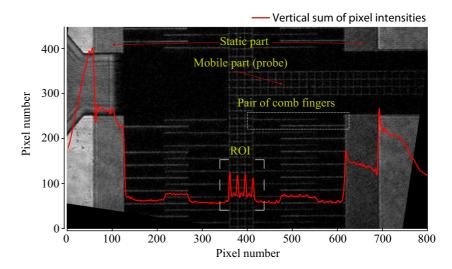
The transfer function has been identified using MATLAB 294 "system identification toolbox" on the system step response 295 with $V_3 = 40V$. It was performed looking for a transfer 296 function model of order 2 with no zeroes The identified 297 transfer function $H_i(p)$ is: 298

$$H_i(p) = \frac{0.842 \times 10^8}{p^2 + 774.6p + 1.818 \times 10^8}$$
(16)

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Fig. 8 Top view of the MEMS with the DHM and example of curve showing vertical sum of pixels for a fixed position of the probe



Its input and output are expressed in Volts and μm respectively. The resonant frequency of this model is 2.2 kHz. This value is coherent with the one obtained through the finite element analysis of the MEMS. Bode plot of the identified transfer function is displayed in Fig. 11.

304 4.3 Static characterization of the MEMS actuator

The MEMS static characterization is essential to check the system linearity. To do so, the setup described in Section 4.2 is used. The system input is chosen to be sine wave at 5 Hz. The position is recorded and plotted with respect to the input voltage. Result is shown in Fig. 12.

This curve can be modeled by first order polynomial. The experimental static gain of the MEMS is equal to $0.51 \ \mu m/V$. The static gain deduced from the fitted transfer function is 0.463 $\mu m/V$. Figure 12 shows a characteristic that can be assimilated as hysteresis. However, as this nonlinearity is not described in the literature as being

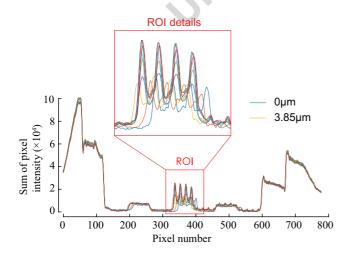


Fig. 9 Vertical sum of pixels for different values of displacements of the sensor probe (extreme values are shown with their legend)

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specific to electrostatic MEMS, we assume that this 316 phenomenon is not mainly due to a hysteresis and could 317 be due to some motion blur. Even though, this behavior is 318 not predominant and can be neglected in the modeling. The 319 non linearity error is lower than 0.4 μm once measurement 320 artifacts have been removed, this error can be due to image 321 noise or outside vibrations. Experimental results differ by 322 a factor 2 from the ones presented in [18] because of a 323 faulty amplifier in the original setup which introduced an 324 amplification 2 times higher than expected. 325

5 Simulation and test of the sensor in closed 326 loop 327

5.1 Sensor simulation

Now that the system transfer function has been characterized, a controller has to be designed for the sensor to operate in active mode. For the test in simulation to be possible, the coefficients of Eq. 13 have to be identified. However Eq. 16 only allows the identification of three of the four parameters. Because of this one of the four parameters has to be 329

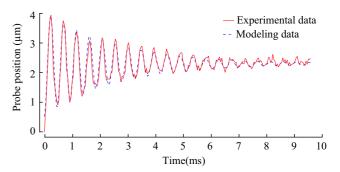


Fig. 10 Experimental and simulation step response of the MEMS sensor for a 4.5 Volts step input

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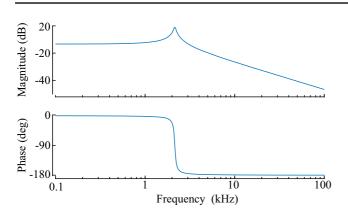


Fig. 11 Bode plot of the MEMS identified transfer function

identified by other means. There is little way to obtain m and w with enough accuracy, so either k or $4k_cV_3$ has to be taken from the knowledge model. Between both $4k_cV_3$ is chosen.

$$4k_c V_3 = 0.316\mu N/V \tag{17}$$

338 This leads to :

$$m = 3.7 \times 10^{-9} kg = 3.7 \mu g$$

$$\nu = 2.8 \times 10^{-6} N/m \times s$$

$$k = 0.68 N/m$$
(18)

The difference between finite element analysis result and the identified k can be explained by several causes :

The value of $k_c V_3$ is highly sensitive to the mechanical 341 parameters of the comb drive, and the manufacturing 342 processes can lead to some dimensions inaccuracies. 343 Moreover the side effects (such as the capacitance 344 between the finger front end and the part of fixed 345 electrode in front of it) were neglected when computing 346 the values of C_{12} and C_{23} and these hypothesis can not 347 be entirely true [19]. 348

Finite element analysis at these scales is prone to errors
as the geometries are supposed to be perfect and the
materials are supposed to be homogeneous. However
Deep Reactive Ion Etching often creates defects that are
far from negligible at these scales.

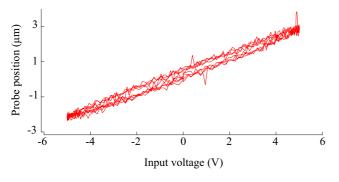


Fig. 12 Experimental static characteristic of the MEMS sensor

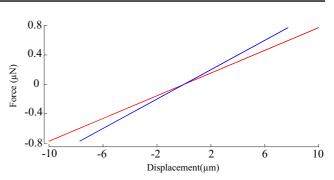


Fig. 13 Simulated force position characteristic of a 0.1N/m stiffness spring (blue) and estimated characteristic with the proposed sensor in passive mode (red)

5.2 Differences between passive and active modes 354

In passive mode, the sensor isn't actuated, any force applied 355 on the sensor tip is translated into a displacement of the 356 mobile part. In our case the displacement could be recorded 357 thanks to a laser interferometer or by capacitive reading 358 [20]. This mode only requires the identification of the 359 flexures stiffness and is faster to implement than the active 360 mode. However the sensor linearity depends on the flexure 361 stiffness as well as the position measurement linearity. 362 Furthermore, with this mode of operation, when trying 363 to obtain force-position characteristics, the estimation is 364 altered by the stiffness of the sensor flexures. In Fig. 13 365 are displayed the simulated force position characteristic of 366 a spring with 0.1N/m stiffness acquired with the proposed 367 sensor in passive mode only knowing the sensor position, as 368 well as the actual characteristic. 369

One can notice a slight difference between the estimated and real force position characteristic. This is caused by the estimation of the characteristic of the spring in serial with the flexures equivalent spring. To compensate for this problem several solutions are possible : 374

- use a stiffer force sensor, 375
- subtract probe displacement from the sensor position,
- use the sensor in active mode. 377

Using the sensor in active mode can provide the 378 advantage of having a virtually infinite stiffness and to 379 measure far greater forces than would be allowed by the 380 mobile part maximum displacement. First a controller has 381 to be designed for the sensor, to do so, a PID controller 382 has been implemented in simulation and fitted using Matlab 383 PID tuner. During the design the constraints where a phase 384 margin of 60° and a bandwidth of $5 \times 10^5 rad.s^{-1}$ for 385 the system in closed loop. The chosen bandwidth is of the 386 same order of magnitude as the system resonant frequency 387 as increasing it further would not improve the sensing 388 performance. Figure 14, shows the normalized step response 389 of the sensor with and without the controller. Position of 390

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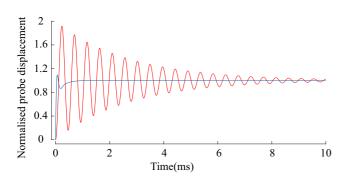


Fig. 14 Simulated normalized position of the sensor's probe in open loop (red) and in closed loop (blue)

the sensor's probe and PID output when a force of $10\mu N$ 391 is applied to the sensor are displayed in Fig. 15. On this 392 curve one can notice a slight transient behavior of the 393 sensor. However, this transient displacement is inferior to 394 the sensor maximum displacement $(20\mu m)$ thus allowing 395 for the estimation of forces superior to the ones measurable 396 in passive mode. furthermore, once steady state is reached 397 the sensor mobile part is kept at its initial position. 398

399 5.3 Experimental test of the sensor

The actual experimental setup lacks the ability to measure 400 401 the displacement of the sensor's probe in real time. Consequently, to validate the simulation results and the 402 controller that has been synthesized, a simulation is run 403 with the model of the sensor and the controller output 404 is recorded. This record is played in a loop in order 405 to be able to perform a stroboscopic analysis similar to 406 407 the one performed in Section 4.2. However, the actual experimental setup lacks the capability to play the data 408 at a sufficient speed. To be able to test the validity of 409 the proposed MEMS model, a discrete time PID has been 410 411 designed for the sensor with a 10kHz sampling frequency, with design requirements of a 2ms closed loop response 412 413 and a 60° phase margin. The closed loop response time

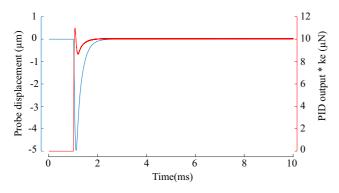


Fig. 15 Simulated probe displacement (blue) and active sensor reading (red) for an applied force of 10 μN

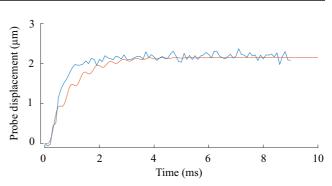


Fig. 16 Experimental probe displacement (blue) and simulation result (orange) for a step reference of $2\mu m$

is a compromise between system speed and the likeness 414 of having undetectable oscillations between samples. The 415 resulting sensor trajectory is displayed in Fig. 16, alongside 416 with the predicted results. The results show the sensor's 417 ability to reach a position of $2\mu m$, which corresponds, based 418 on the value of k deduced from the transfer function, to a 419 force of 1.36 μN . 420

The experimental results fit the simulation results 421 reasonably well, the discrepancies can be explained by the 422 measurement noise due to the image motion blur. 423

6 Conclusion

Based on a differential comb drive actuator and a folded-425 flexure suspension, a new MEMS force sensor is pro-426 posed in this paper. By design, its suspension is arranged 427 to constrain the sensor probe within a single direction. 428 Whilst, the differential actuator is chosen to provide a linear 429 force/voltage relationship where force and probe position 430 are independent. Furthermore, because of the suspension 431 linearity, the sensor can be used as a force-sensing posi-432 tioner with $\pm 20 \mu m$ displacement range, while retaining 433 its mechanical performance independently from the operat-434 ing point. In view of using a zero displacement principle 435 (balance principle), a control oriented electromechanical 436 model is driven. Preliminary experimental characteriza-437 tion validates this model in static and dynamic operating 438 modes using a stroboscopic measurement system. The sen-439 sor shows a promising potential with a high bandwidth and 440 a great linear force measurement range, thus allowing for 441 future work on the measurement of forces with great dynam-442 ics. Furthermore, because of the zero displacement sensing, 443 this sensor is usable for the measure of forces with high gra-444 dients without compromises on its resolution or accuracy. 445 The simulations results have shown the possibility to control 446 the sensor in active mode. 447

Future work will focus on the sensor control in real 448 time by the use of a laser interferometer and the sensor 449

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calibration, as well as the controller implementation with
analog components. This sensor will be used for instance
to measure the stiffness of muscular cells in order to

differentiate cancerous cells from healthy ones.

Acknowledgment This work has been partially sponsored by the
French National Research Agency project MultiFlag (Grant No. ANR16-CE33-0019) and COLAMIR (Grant No. ANR-16-CE10-0009) and
the project Robotex Equipment of Excellence (ANR-10-EQPX-44).
The MEMS were realized thanks to the help of the RENATECH
platform and the IEMN lab (Cité Scientifique – Avenue Poincaré BP
60069, 59652 Villeneuve d'Ascq Cedex).

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