

# Electrical Technology

## (EE101F)

# Contents

- Measuring Instruments
- Classification of measuring instruments
- Spring control
- Gravity control
- Moving coil instruments
- Test yourself
- NPTEL Link

# Measuring Instruments

## Classification

### 1. Absolute instruments:-

give the magnitude of the quantity in terms of the constants of the instruments

Example :-

a tangent galvanometer, used for measuring electric current

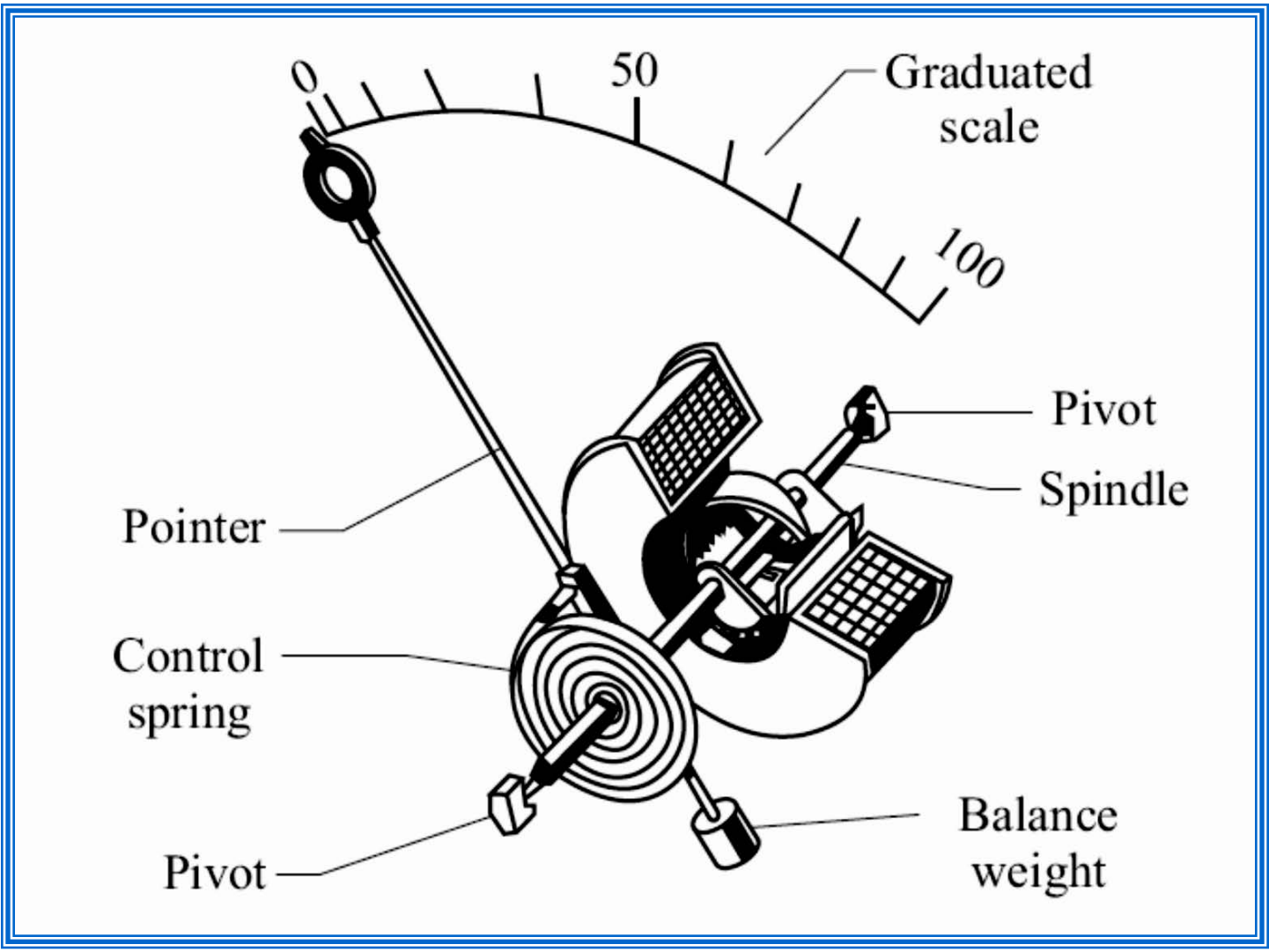
### 2. Secondary instruments:-

these have to be calibrated by comparison with an absolute instrument

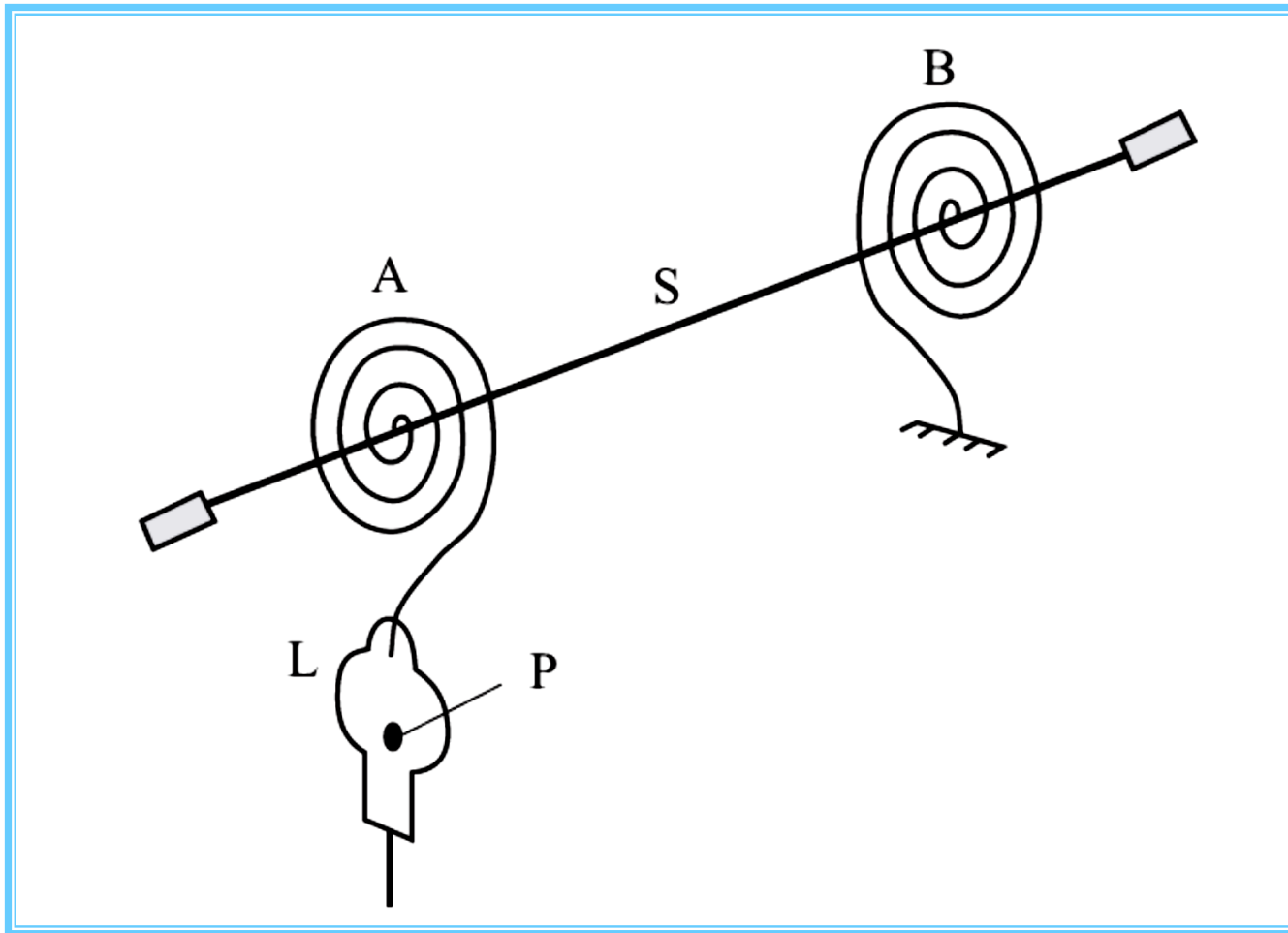
# (i) Spring Control

- Most commonly used.
- One or two **hairsprings** made of phosphor bronze are used.
- The outer end of this spring is fixed and the inner end is attached with the spindle.
- When the pointer is at zero of the scale, the spring is normal.
- As the pointer moves, the spring winds and produces an opposing torque.
- The **balance-weight** balances the moving system so that its centre of gravity coincides with the axis of rotation, thereby reducing the friction between the pivot and bearings.





# Double Springs

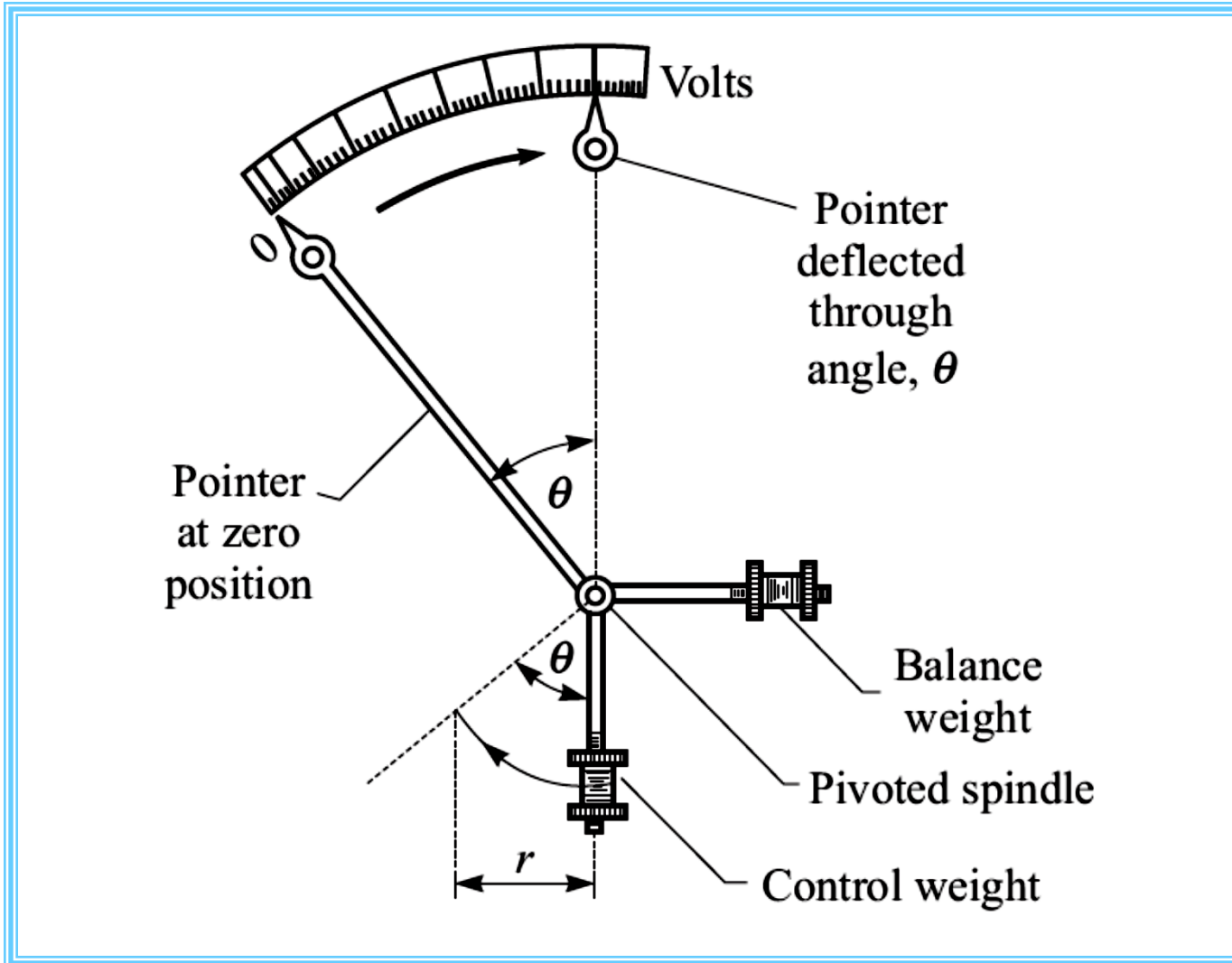


- Two springs A and B are wound in opposite directions.
- On deflection, one spring winds while the other unwinds.
- To make the controlling torque directly proportional to the angle of deflection, the springs should have fairly large number of turns.

- Advantages :
- Since  $\tau_c \propto \theta$  and  $\tau_d \propto I$ ; at final position,  $\tau_c = \tau_d$   
Hence,  $\theta \propto I$
- These instruments have **uniform scale**.
- Disadvantages :
- The stiffness of the spring is a function of temperature.
- Hence, the readings given by the instruments are **temperature dependent**.
- Furthermore, with the usage the spring develops an **inelastic yield** which **affects the zero position** of the moving system.



## (ii) Gravity Control



- A small **control weight** is attached to the moving system.
- In addition, an **adjustable balance** weight is also attached to make the centre of gravity pass through the spindle.
- In zero position of the pointer, this control weight is vertical.

- When deflected by an angle  $\theta$ , the weight exerts a force,

$$W \sin \theta$$

- The restraining or controlling torque is thus developed is given as

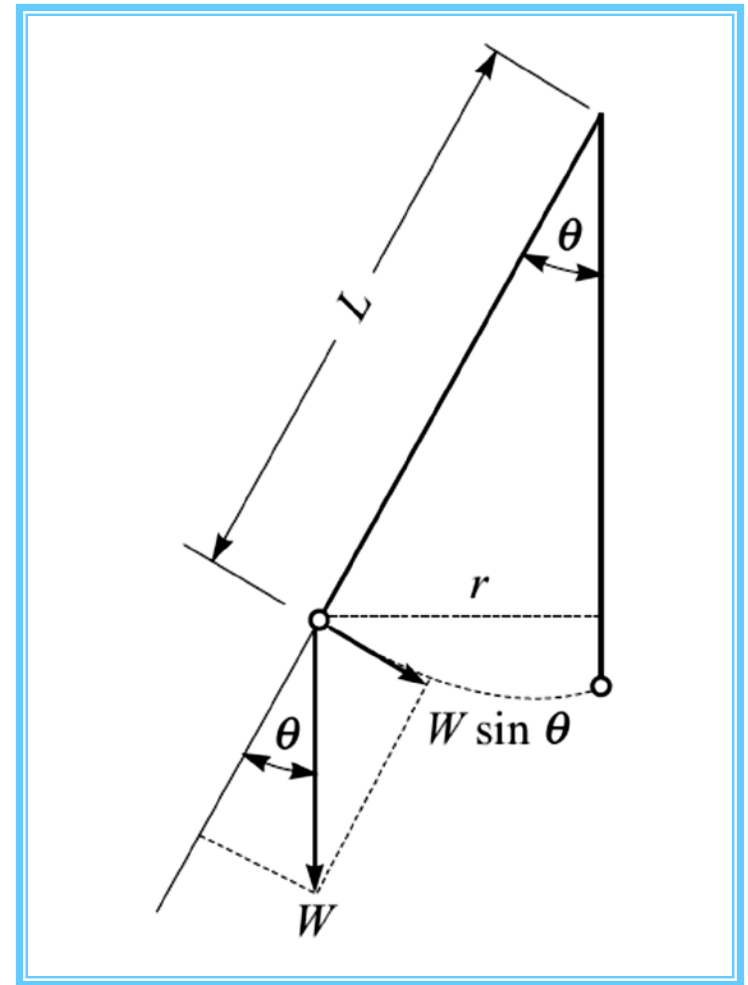
$$\tau_c = (W \sin \theta) \times L = WL \sin \theta$$

Since  $\tau_d \propto I$ , and  $\tau_c = \tau_d$

or  $WL \sin \theta = kI$

$$\Rightarrow I = \left( \frac{WL}{k} \right) \sin \theta$$

or  $I \propto \sin \theta$



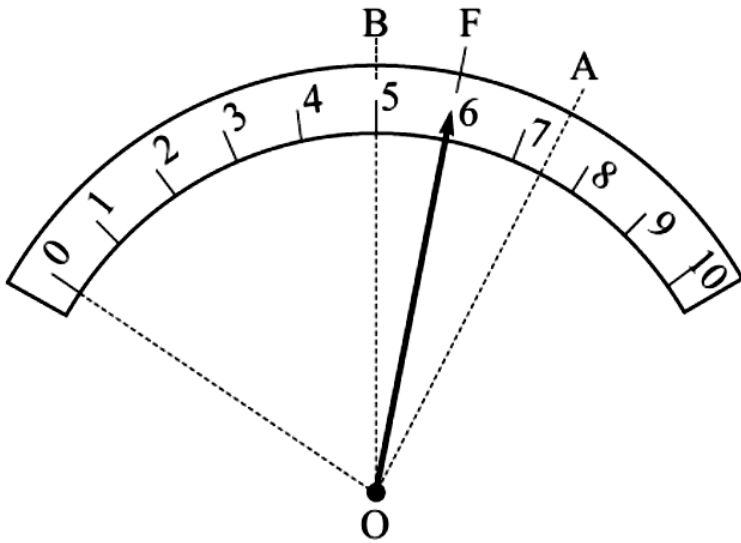
## Disadvantage :

1. These **do not have uniform scale**.
2. These must be used in **vertical position** so that the control may operate properly.

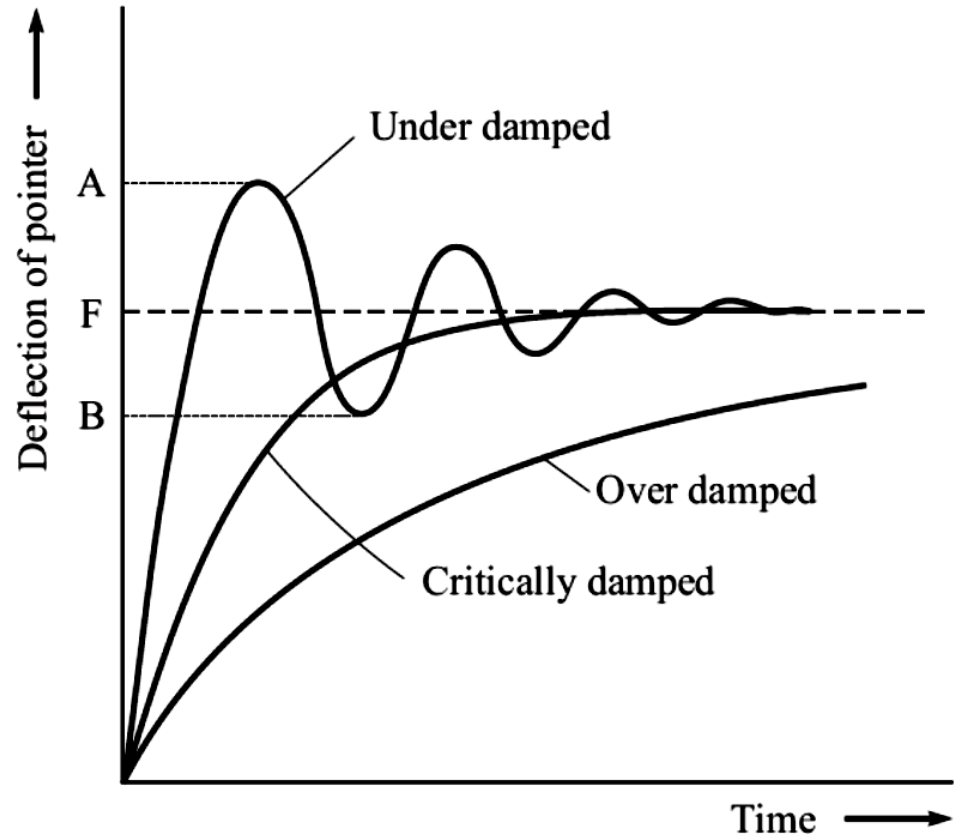
## Advantages :

1. Less expensive.
2. Unaffected by changes in temperature.
3. Free from fatigue or deterioration with time.

# Damping Torque



(a) The deflection of the pointer on the scale.



(b) The deflection versus time curves.

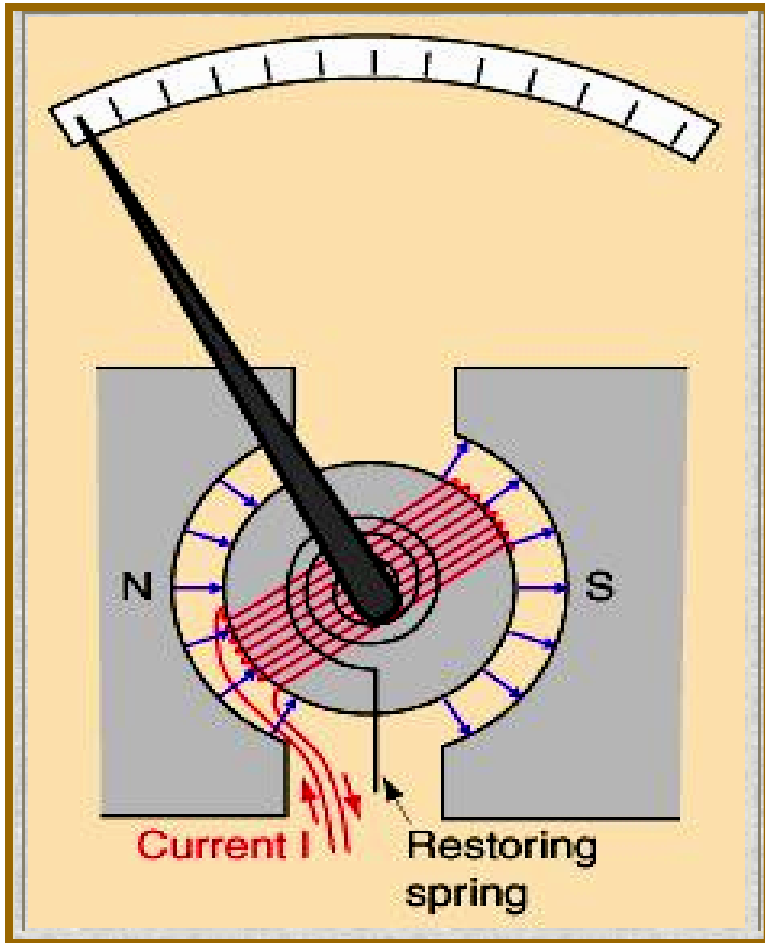
- The **remedy** lies in providing a suitable **damping torque**.
- If **over-damped**, the **time-delay** in taking the reading becomes unnecessarily long.
- If **under damped**, the oscillations of the pointer would not be killed completely.
- Thus, the damping torque should be just sufficient to kill the oscillation without increasing the delay-time.
- This condition is said to be **critically damped** or '**dead beat**'.

# MOVING COIL INSTRUEMNTS

- There are two types :
  - (1) *Permanent Magnet Type* : It is the most accurate and useful for dc measurements.
  - (2) *Dynamometer Type* : It can be used for both dc and ac measurements.



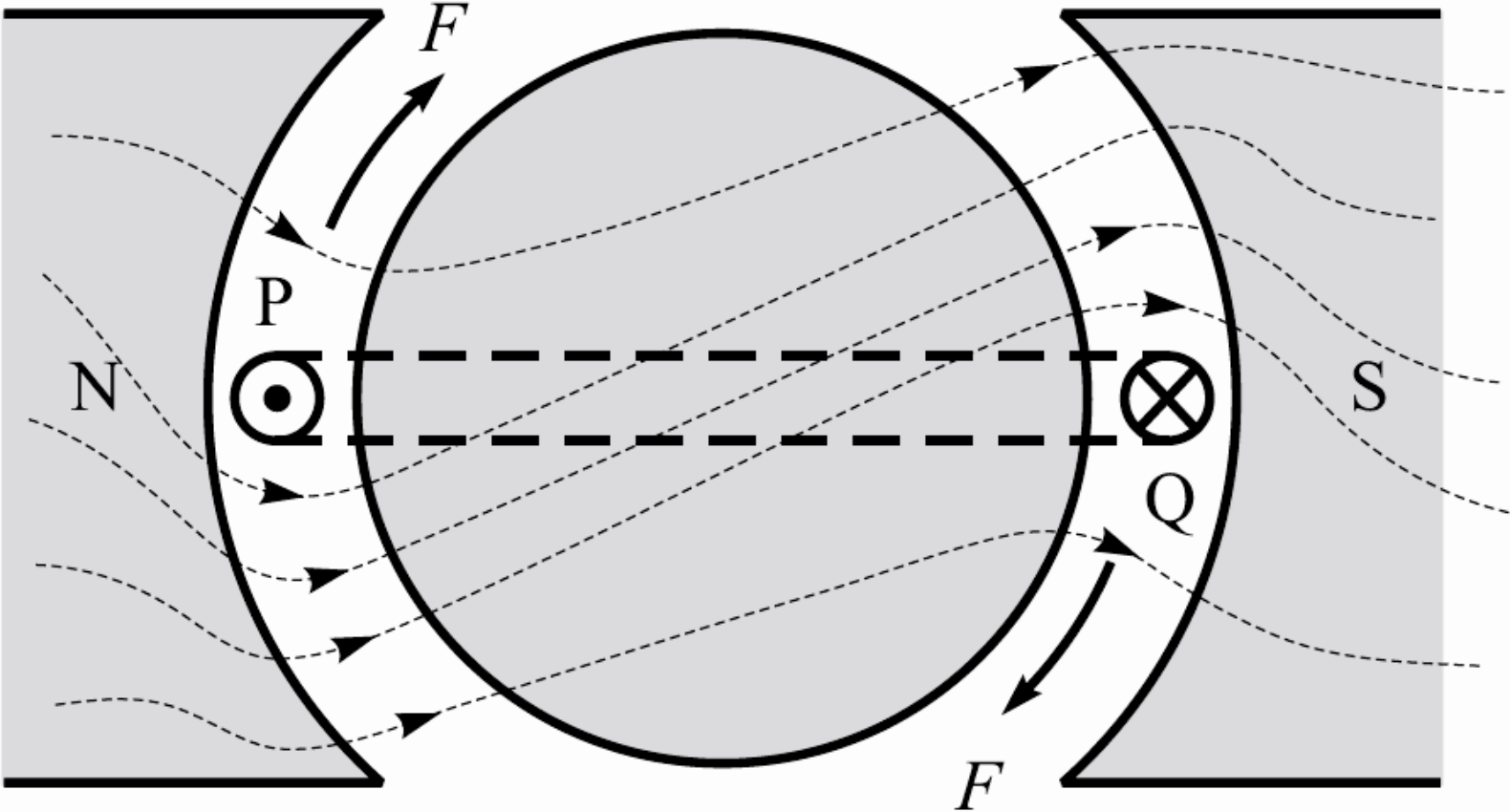
# Galvanometers



- When a current is passed through a coil in a magnetic field, the coil experiences a torque proportional to the current.
- A coil spring provides the controlling torque.
- The deflection of a needle attached to the coil is proportional to the current.
- Such "meter movements" are at the heart of the moving coil meters such as voltmeters and ammeters.
- Now they were largely replaced with solid state meters.



# How the Deflection Torque is Produced



- Consider a single turn PQ of the current carrying coil.
- The outward current in P set up a counterclockwise magnetic field.
- Thus, the field on the lower side is strengthened and on upper side weakened.
- The inward current in Q, on the other hand, strengthens the field on the upper side while weakens it on the lower side.
- The coil experience *forces*  $F$ - $F$ .
- If  $d$  is the width of the coil

$$\tau = F \times (d / 2) + F \times (d / 2) = Fd$$

## Advantages :

- (i) High sensitivity.
- (ii) Uniform scale.
- (iii) Well shielded from any stray magnetic field.
- (iv) High torque/weight ratio.
- (v) Effective and reliable eddy-current damping.

## Disadvantages :

- (i) Cannot be used for ac measurement.
- (ii) More expensive compared to moving-iron type.
- (iii) Ageing of control springs and of the permanent magnets might cause errors.

- Since the force  $F=NIBL$ ,
- is directly proportional to the current  $I$  and to the flux density  $B$  in the air gap, the net deflecting torque= $INAB$ , Where  $A$  = area of the coil= $Ld$

- $$\tau_d = kI$$

- The controlling torque of the spiral springs

$$\tau_c = c\theta$$

- In the final steady position,

$$\tau_c = \tau_d \quad \text{or} \quad c\theta = kI \quad \Rightarrow \quad \theta = \frac{k}{c}I$$

- The deflection is proportional to the current and hence the scale is uniformly divided

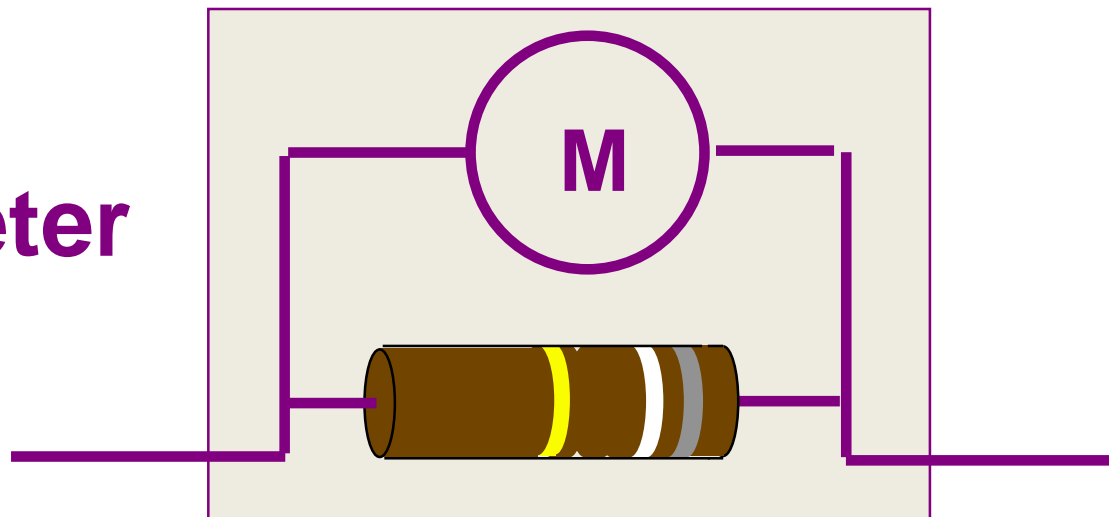
# AMMETERS AND VOLTMETERS

- Consider a d'Arsonval movement having *current sensitivity* (CS) of 0.1 mA and internal resistance ( $R_m$ ) of 500  $\Omega$ .
- The *full-scale deflection current*,  $I_m$ , for this instrument is 0.1 mA.
- When full-scale current flows, the voltage across its terminals is given as
$$V_m = I_m \times R_m = (0.1 \text{ mA}) \times (500 \Omega) = 50 \text{ mV}$$
- So, it can serve either as an ammeter of range 0 - 0.1 mA, or as a voltmeter of range 0 - 50 mV.
- We need to *extend the range* of the meter, by providing a suitable additional circuitry.

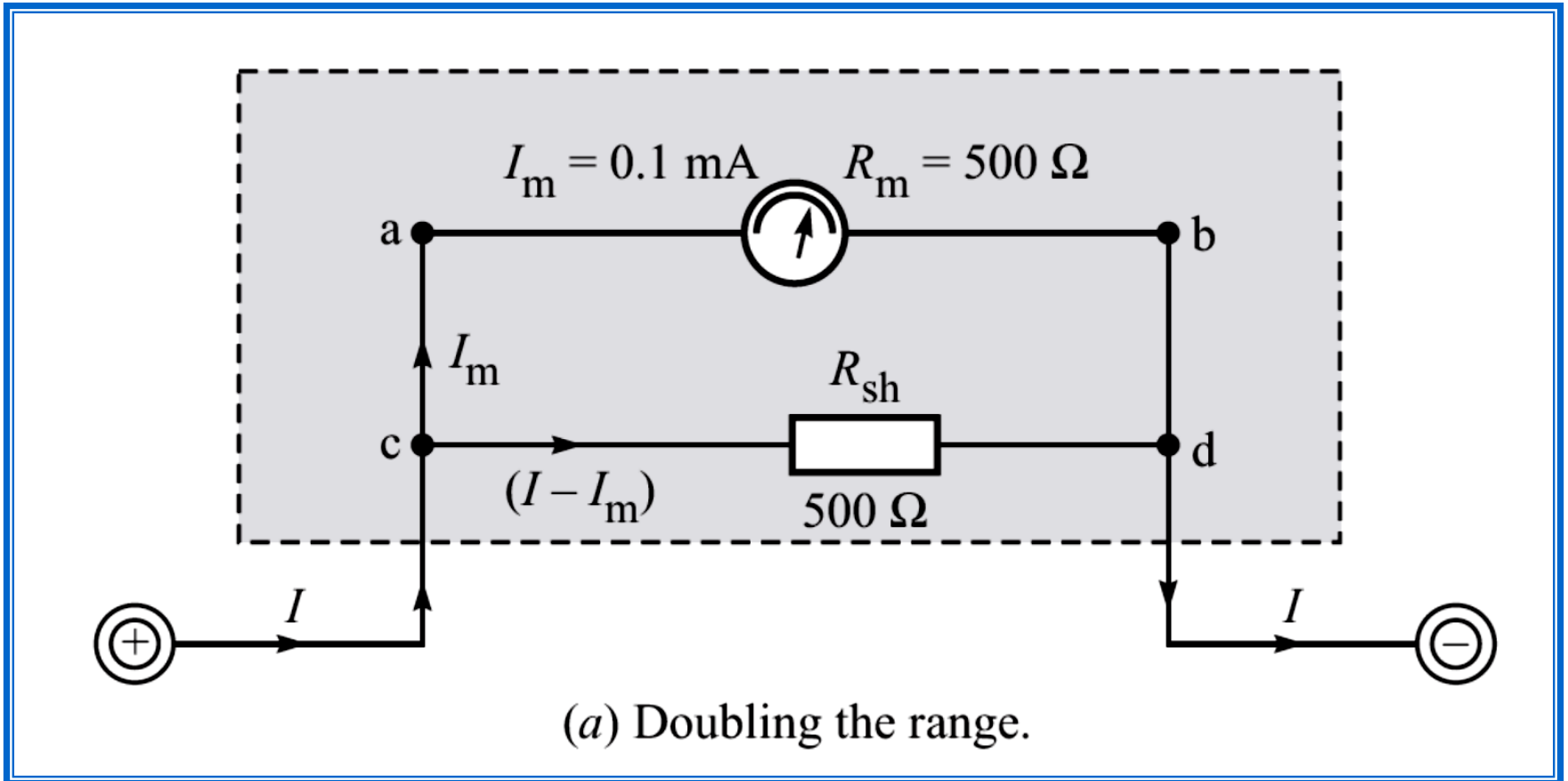
# Ammeters

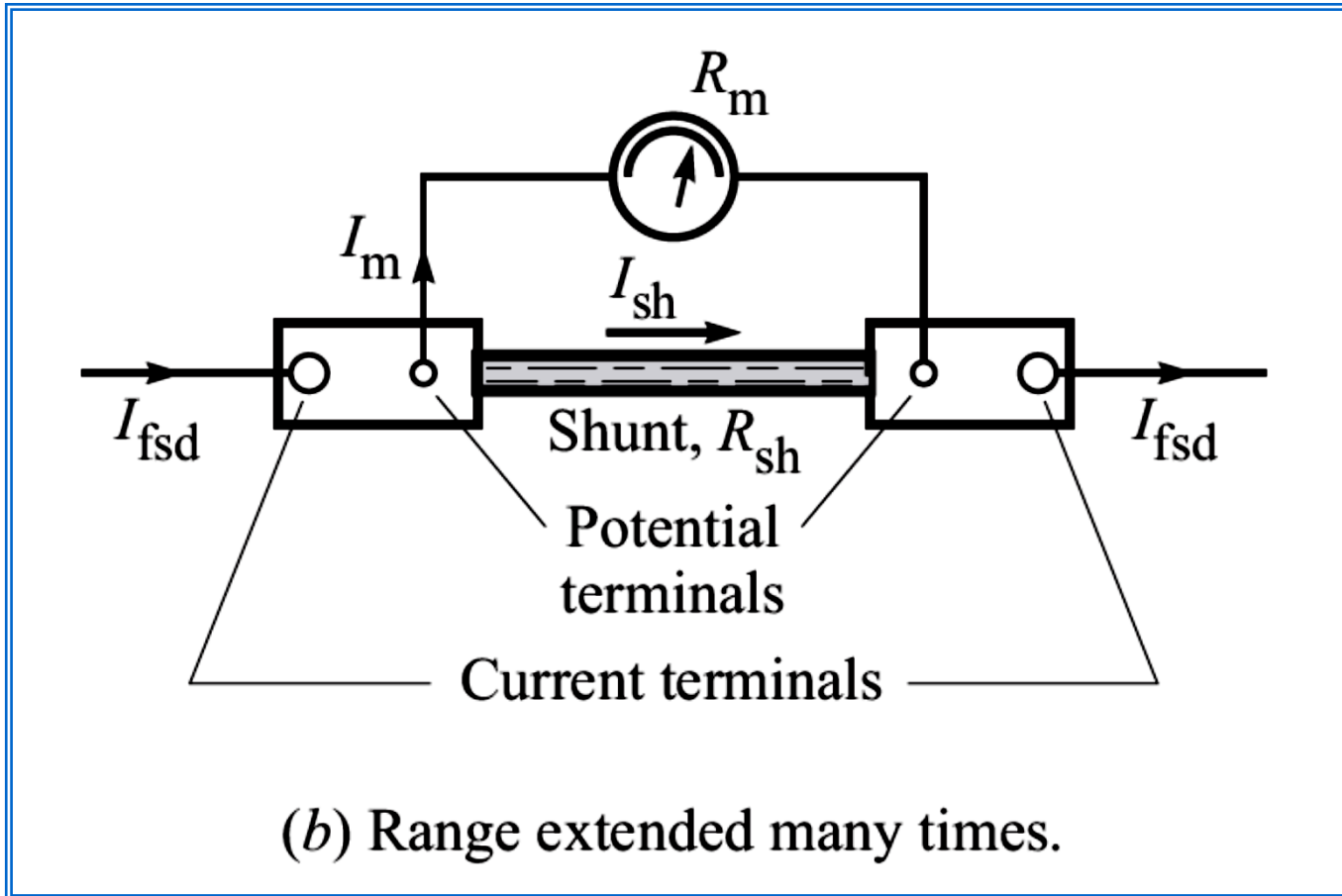
- Connected in series in circuits.
- Low impedance (resistance) so as not to affect the circuit.
- Constructed by adding a **low** resistance (or **shunt** or **bypass** resistor) in parallel with the meter.

Ammeter



# Ammeters





The ratio  $I_{fsd}/I_m = N$  is called the *range-multiplier*.



Since the voltage across the parallel elements must be the same,

$$I_m R_m = (I_{\text{fsd}} - I_m) R_{\text{sh}}$$

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$$\therefore R_{\text{sh}} = \frac{I_m R_m}{(I_{\text{fsd}} - I_m)}$$

or

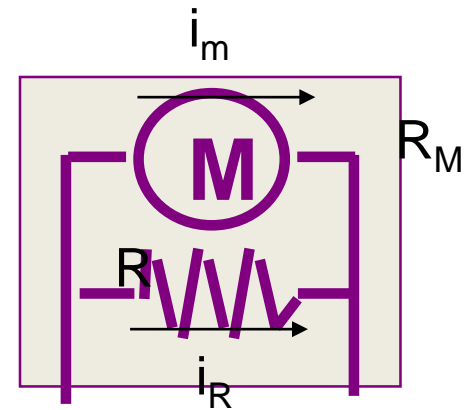
$$R_{\text{sh}} = \frac{I_m R_m}{(I_{\text{fsd}} - I_m)} = \frac{R_m}{(I_{\text{fsd}} / I_m - 1)} = \frac{R_m}{(N - 1)}$$

# Ammeter Example

An ammeter uses a meter with an internal resistance of  $600\ \Omega$  and a rating of  $1\ \text{mA}$  fsd. How can it be used to measure  $20\ \text{A}$  fs?

Maximum current through meter is  $0.001\ \text{A}$ .

Therefore, the shunt resistor must take  
 $19.999\ \text{A}$

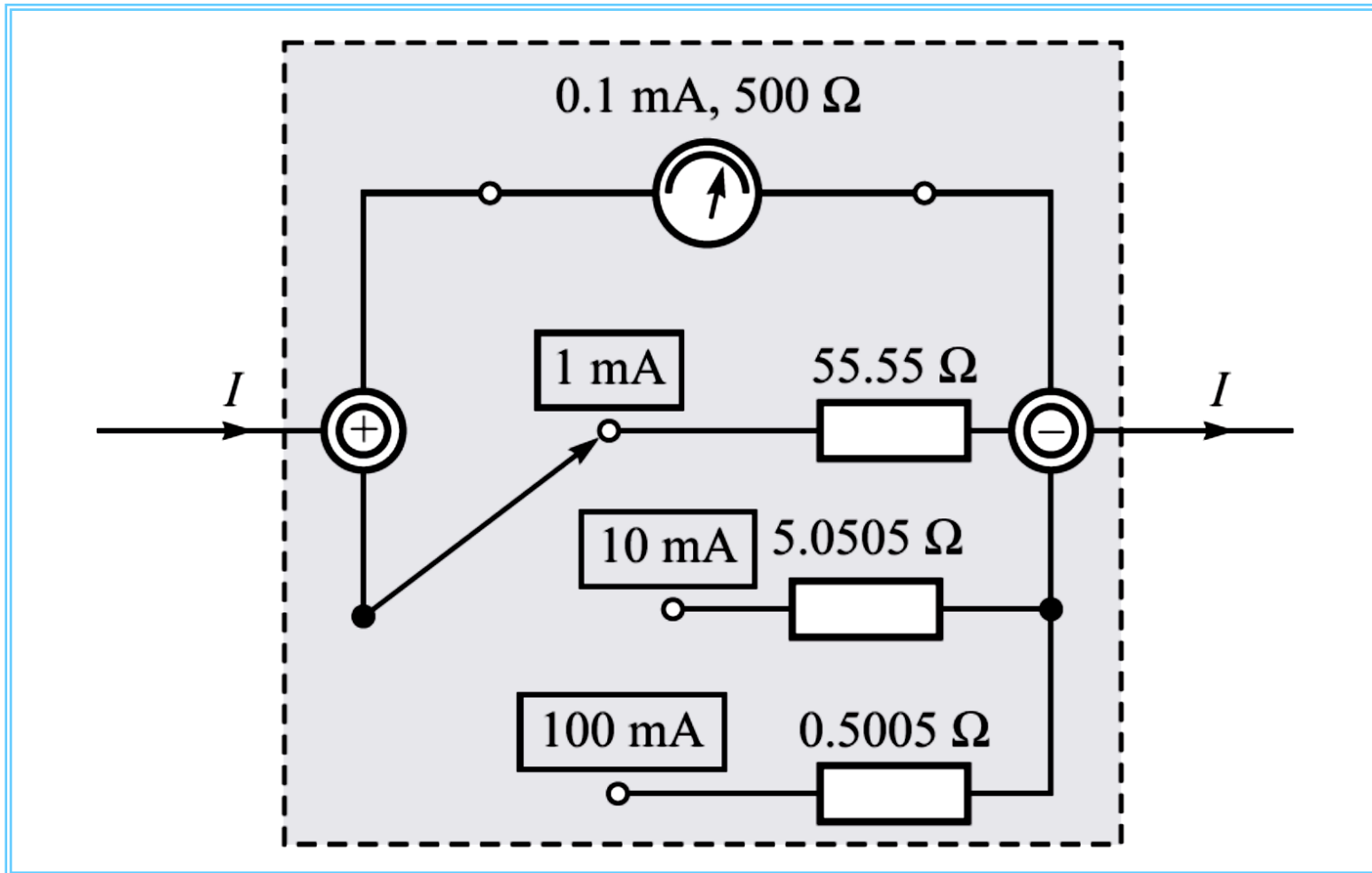


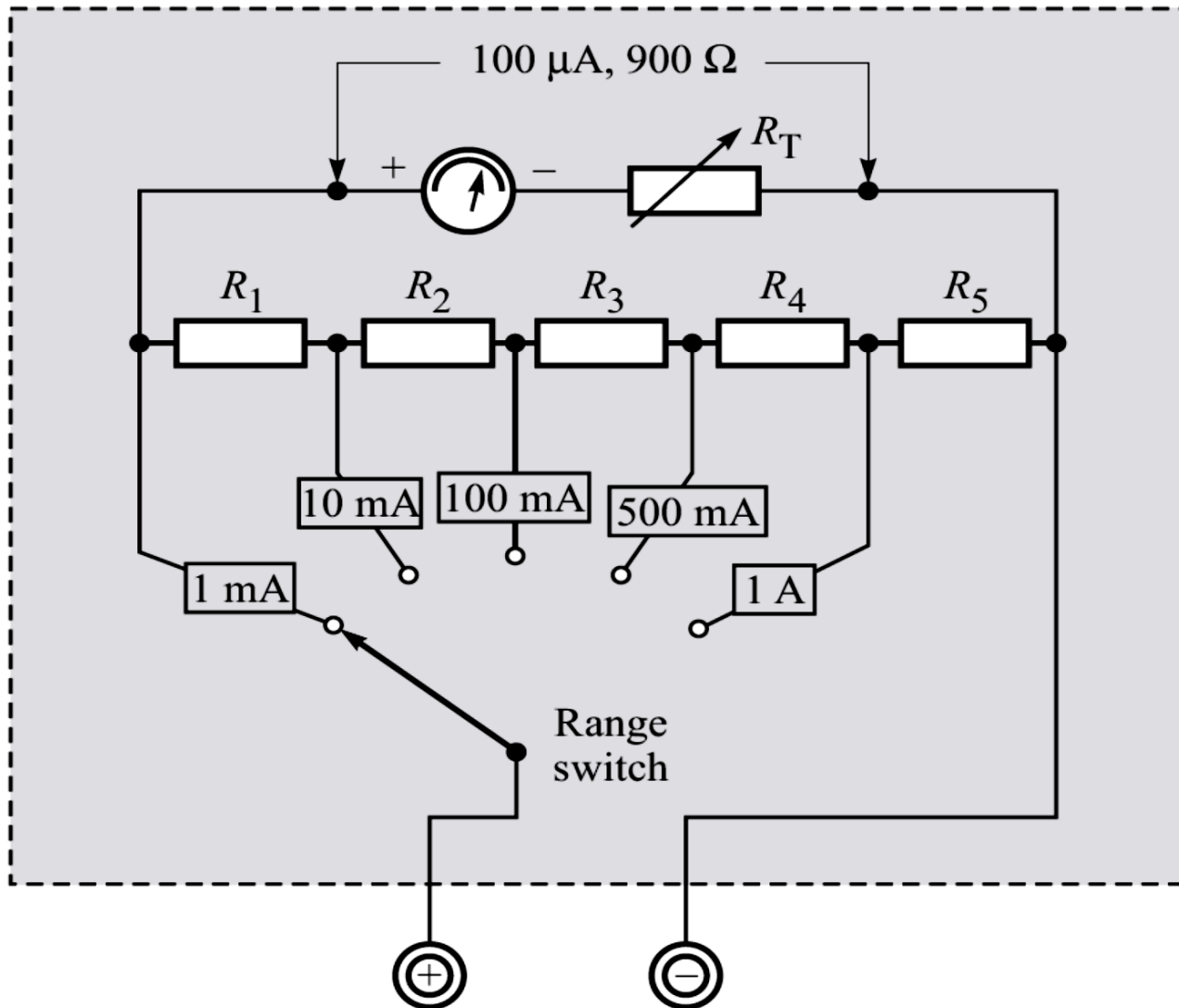
Because both  $M$  and  $R$  are in parallel, the same  $V$  must be dropped across both

$$V = I_m R_m = 0.001\ \text{A} \times 600\ \Omega = 0.6\ \text{V}$$

Thus  $R$  must be  $V / I_R = 0.6\ \text{V} / 19.99\ \text{A}$   
 $= 0.03\ \Omega$  (in parallel.)

# A multi-range ammeter.





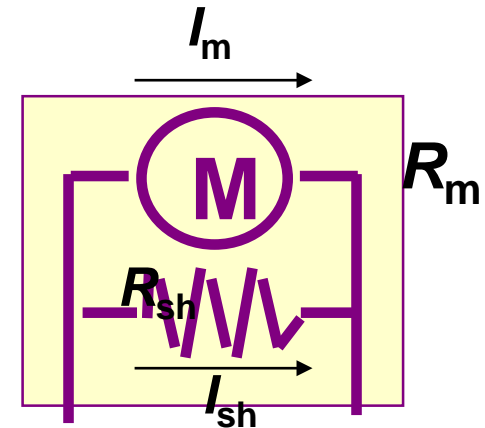
## Universal shunt for multi-range milliammeter

# Example 3

An ammeter uses a meter with an internal resistance of  $600\ \Omega$  and a rating of  $1\ \text{mA}$  fsd. **How can it be used to measure  $20\ \text{A}$  fs?**

**Solution :** Maximum current through meter is  $I_m = 0.001\ \text{A}$ .

Therefore, the shunt resistor must take  $I_{sh} = 19.999\ \text{A}$



Because both  $M$  and  $R_{sh}$  are in parallel, the same  $V$  must be dropped across both

$$V = I_m R_m = 0.001\ \text{A} \times 600\ \Omega = 0.6\ \text{V}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thus, } R_{sh} \text{ must be } V / I_R &= 0.6\ \text{V} / 19.999\ \text{A} \\ &= 0.0300015.. \Omega \end{aligned}$$

**Click**

# Ammeter Sensitivity

- Measured in ohms/amp; should be as low  $\Omega/A$  (small  $V$  drop) as possible.
- Sensitive ammeters need large indicator changes for small current.

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- **Example :** (1) A  $0.01 \Omega/A$  meter with 5 A fsd,

$$R_m = \Omega/A \times A = 0.01 \times 5 = 0.05 \Omega$$

$V_{max}$  across the Meter will be

$$5 \text{ A} \times 0.05 \Omega = 0.25 \text{ V for fs.}$$

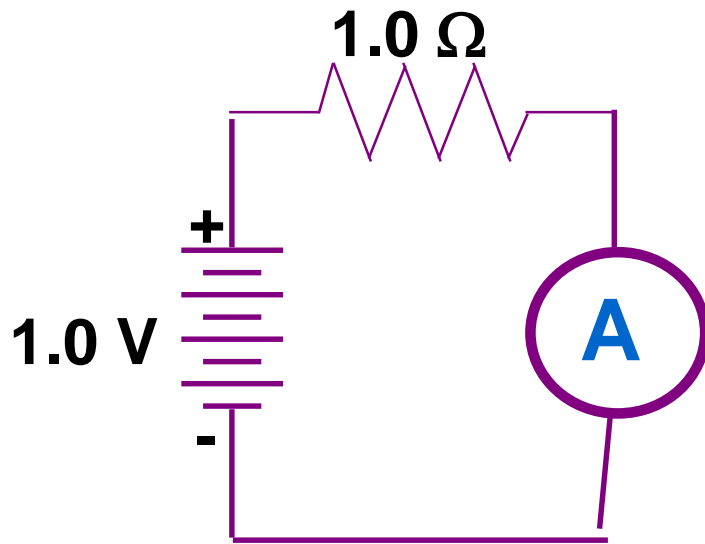
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- (2) A  $0.1 \Omega/A$  meter with 5 A fsd,  
will drop 2.5 V (i.e., it is 10 times less sensitive), which may bias the results.

# Ammeter loading

- Significant where ammeters are used in circuits with components of resistance comparable to that of the meter.



What is the *current* in the circuit ?

Is it  $i = 1 \text{ V} / 1 \Omega = 1 \text{ A}$  ?

- Now, suppose that the meter has a resistance of  $1 \Omega$ .
- **How much will be current in the circuit ?**
- Obviously, the current in the circuit will be halved !

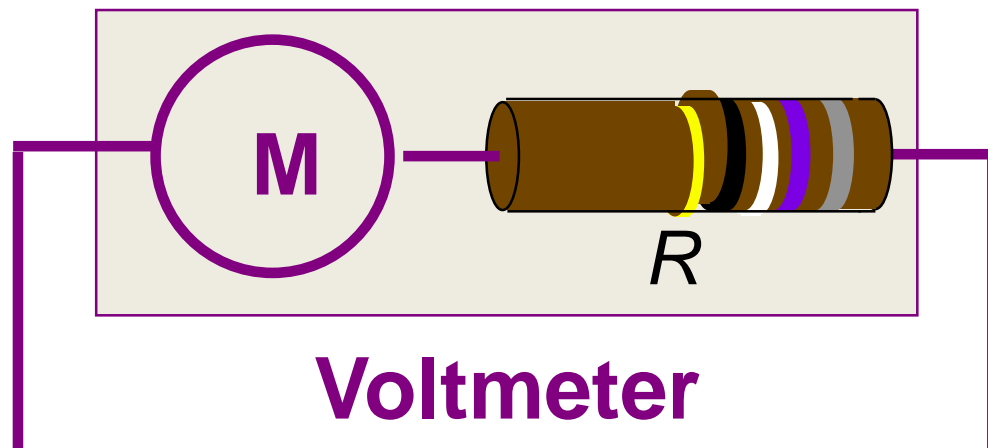
**When working with low value resistors, be sure to use very low impedance ammeters.**



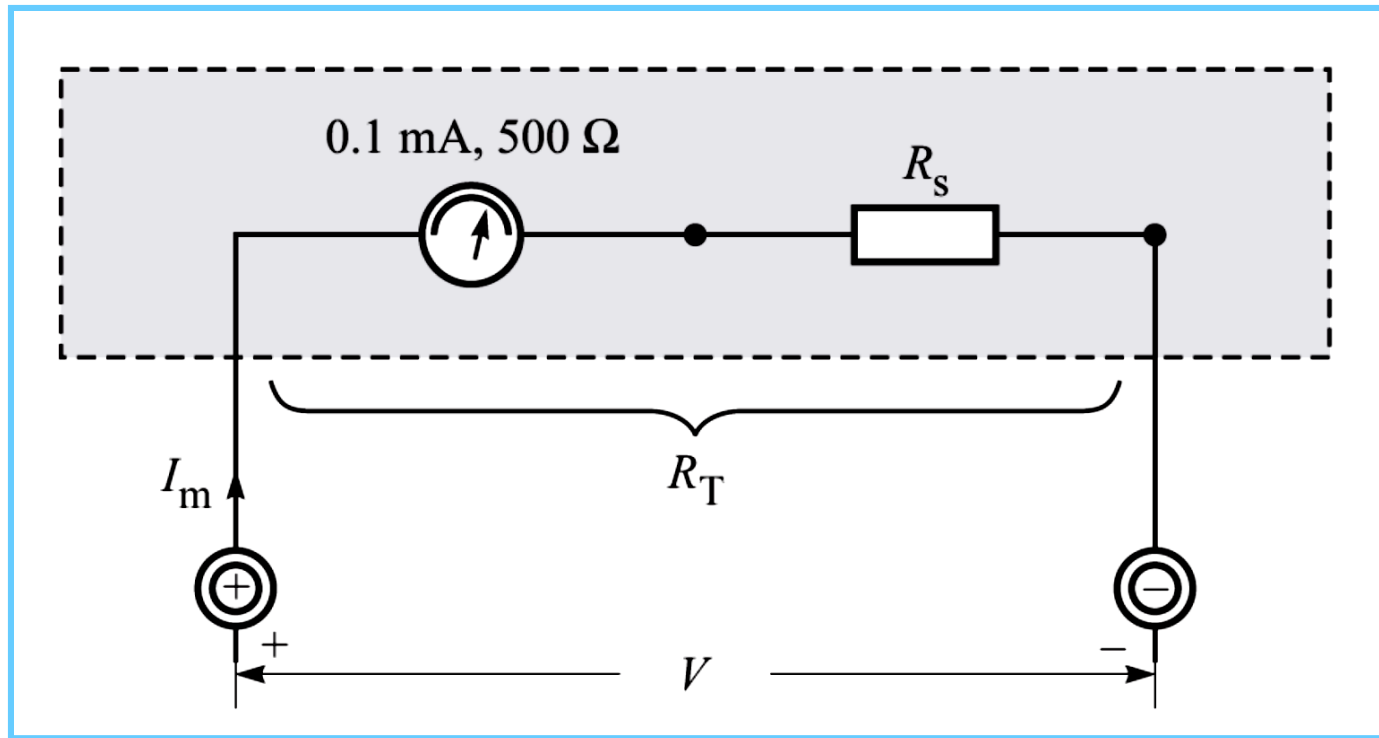


# Voltmeters

- Connections to circuits and components in **parallel**.
- High impedance (resistance) so as not to affect circuit.
- Constructed by adding a high resistance ( $R$ ) in series with an electrically sensitive meter ( $M$ ).



# Extending the Range of Voltmeters



Suppose that we want to extend the voltage range of this basic meter to **0-10 V**.

The total resistance  $R_T$  must be such that

$$V = I_m R_T \quad \text{or} \quad R_T = \frac{V}{I_m} = \frac{10 \text{ V}}{0.1 \text{ mA}} = 100 \text{ k}\Omega$$

$$\therefore R_s = R_T - R_m = 100 \text{ k}\Omega - 0.5 \text{ k}\Omega = \mathbf{99.5 \text{ k}\Omega}$$

**Now**, suppose that the range of a basic meter is to be extended to  $V_{\text{fsd}}$  volts. Then, we should have

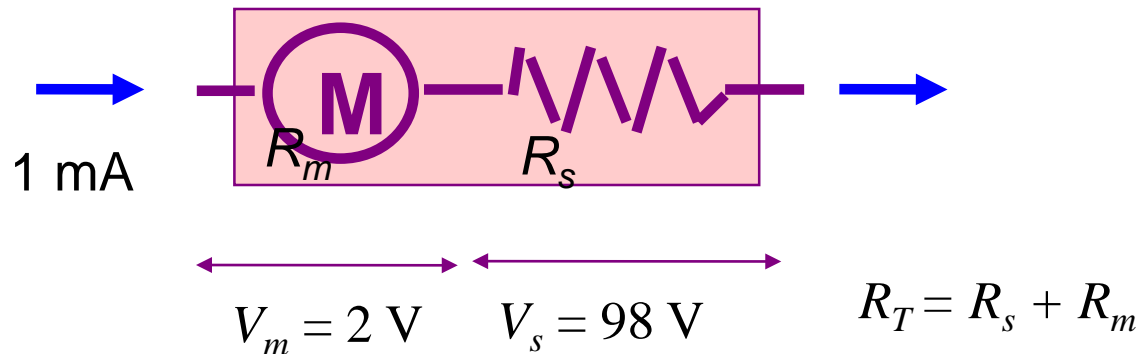
$$V_{\text{fsd}} = I_m (R_m + R_s) \quad \text{or} \quad R_s = \frac{V_{\text{fsd}}}{I_m} - R_m$$

The series resistor  $R_s$  is also called a *range-multiplier*, as it multiplies the voltage range.

# Example 4

A meter is rated at 1 mA fsd and has an internal resistance of 2000  $\Omega$ . How can it be used to measure 100 V fsd ?

Solution :



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Maximum voltage that can be put across galvanometer is

$$V_m = I R_m = 0.001 \times 2000 = 2.0 \text{ V}$$

$$\text{Thus, } V_s = V_T - V_m = 100 \text{ V} - 2 \text{ V} = 98 \text{ V}$$

This voltage must be dropped across  $R_s$ . Therefore,

$$R_s = V_s / I = 98 \text{ V} / 0.001 \text{ A} = \mathbf{98 \text{ k}\Omega}$$

# Voltage Scaling or Multiplying Factor

It is defined as the number of times the voltage range is increased. Thus,

$$n = \frac{V_{\text{fsd}}}{V_{\text{m}}} = \frac{V_{\text{fsd}}}{I_{\text{m}} R_{\text{m}}}$$

# Example 5

- A 50- $\mu\text{A}$  meter movement with an internal resistance of 1  $\text{k}\Omega$  is to be used as a dc voltmeter of range 50 V. Calculate
  - (a) the multiplier resistance needed, and
  - (b) the voltage multiplying factor.

**Solution :** Here,  $I_m = 50 \mu\text{A}$ , and  $R_m = 1 \text{ k}\Omega$ .

(a) The series resistance needed is given as

$$R_s = \frac{V_{\text{fsd}}}{I_m} - R_m = \frac{50 \text{ V}}{50 \mu\text{A}} - 1000 = \mathbf{999 \text{ k}\Omega}$$

(b)  $n = \frac{V_{\text{fsd}}}{V_m} = \frac{V_{\text{fsd}}}{I_m R_m} = \frac{50}{50 \times 10^{-6} \times 1 \times 10^3} = \mathbf{1000}$

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# Meter Sensitivity

## (Ohms-per-Volt Rating)

- Measured in  $\Omega/V$ .
- Higher the sensitivity, more accurate is the measurement.
- If current sensitivity ( $CS$ ) of a meter is known, its  $\Omega/V$  rating can easily be determined.
- Consider a basic meter with  $CS$  of  $100 \mu A$ .
- If used as a voltmeter of range  $1 V$ ,  
$$R_T = 1 V / 100 \mu A = 10 k\Omega$$
- Thus, the **meter sensitivity** is simply  **$10 k\Omega/V$** .

In general,

$$\text{ohms - per - volt rating} = \frac{1}{\text{current sensitivity}}$$

- **Note** that if the same meter was used for 2 V range, the required  $R_T$  would be 20 k $\Omega$ .
- Its ohms/volt rating is 20 k $\Omega$  / 2 V = 10 k $\Omega$ /V.
- The *ohms-per-volt rating does not depend on the range of the voltmeter.*



- Also, **note** that the range of a voltmeter (or an ammeter) is changed by switching in another resistor in the circuit.
- Therefore, for a given range **the internal resistance** of the voltmeter **remains the same** irrespective of the deflection of the pointer.

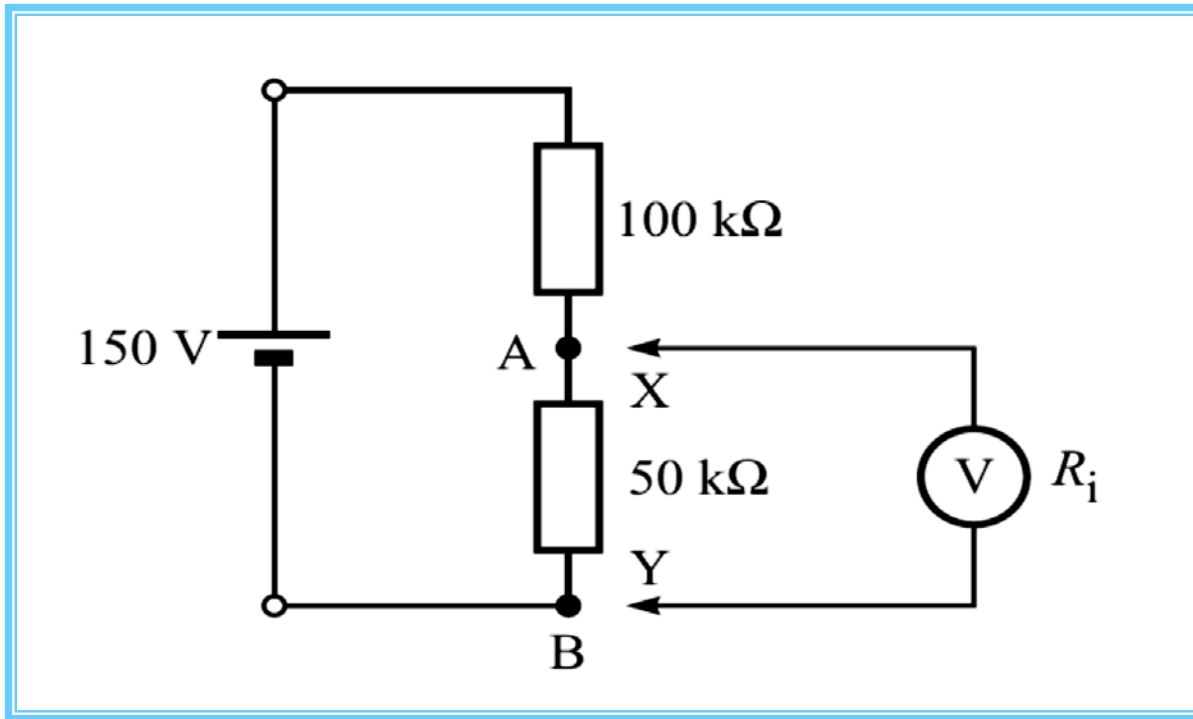
# Voltmeter Loading

- A voltmeter, when connected, acts as a shunt for that portion of the circuit.
- This reduces the resistance of that portion.
- Hence, the meter gives a lower reading.
- This effect is called the *loading effect* of the meter.



# Example 6

- It is desired to measure the voltage across the 50-k $\Omega$  resistor in the circuit.
- Two voltmeters are available for this measurement. Voltmeter-A has a sensitivity of 1000  $\Omega/V$  and voltmeter-B has a sensitivity of 20 000  $\Omega/V$ .
- Both meters are used on their 50-V range.
- Calculate
  - (a) the reading of each meter, and
  - (b) the error in each reading, expressed as a percentage of the true value.



**Solution :** The *true* value of the voltage across A-B,

$$V_t = (150 \text{ V}) \times \frac{50 \text{ k}\Omega}{100 \text{ k}\Omega + 50 \text{ k}\Omega} = 50 \text{ V}$$

## (a) Voltmeter-A

The internal resistance,

$$R_{i1} = \text{Sensitivity} \times \text{Range} = (1000 \Omega / \text{V}) \times (50 \text{ V}) = 50 \text{ k}\Omega$$

When connected, the equivalent parallel resistance across A-B is  $50 \text{ k}\Omega \parallel 50 \text{ k}\Omega = 25 \text{ k}\Omega$ . Hence, reading of voltmeter,

$$V_1 = (150 \text{ V}) \times \frac{25 \text{ k}\Omega}{100 \text{ k}\Omega + 25 \text{ k}\Omega} = \mathbf{30 \text{ V}}$$

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## Voltmeter-B

$$R_{i2} = \text{Sensitivity} \times \text{Range} = (20000 \Omega / \text{V}) \times (50 \text{ V}) = 1000 \text{ k}\Omega$$

$$R_{\text{A-B Eq}} = (50 \text{ k}\Omega) \parallel (1000 \text{ k}\Omega) = 47.6 \text{ k}\Omega$$

$$\therefore V_2 = (150 \text{ V}) \times \frac{47.6 \text{ k}\Omega}{100 \text{ k}\Omega + 47.6 \text{ k}\Omega} = \mathbf{48.36 \text{ V}}$$

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**(b) Error in reading of Voltmeter-A,**

$$\% \text{ Error} = \frac{V_t - V_1}{V_t} \times 100 \% = \frac{50 - 30}{50} \times 100 \% = \mathbf{40 \%}$$

**Error in reading of Voltmeter-B,**

$$\% \text{ Error} = \frac{V_t - V_2}{V_t} \times 100 \% = \frac{50 - 48.36}{50} \times 100 \% = \mathbf{3.28 \%}$$

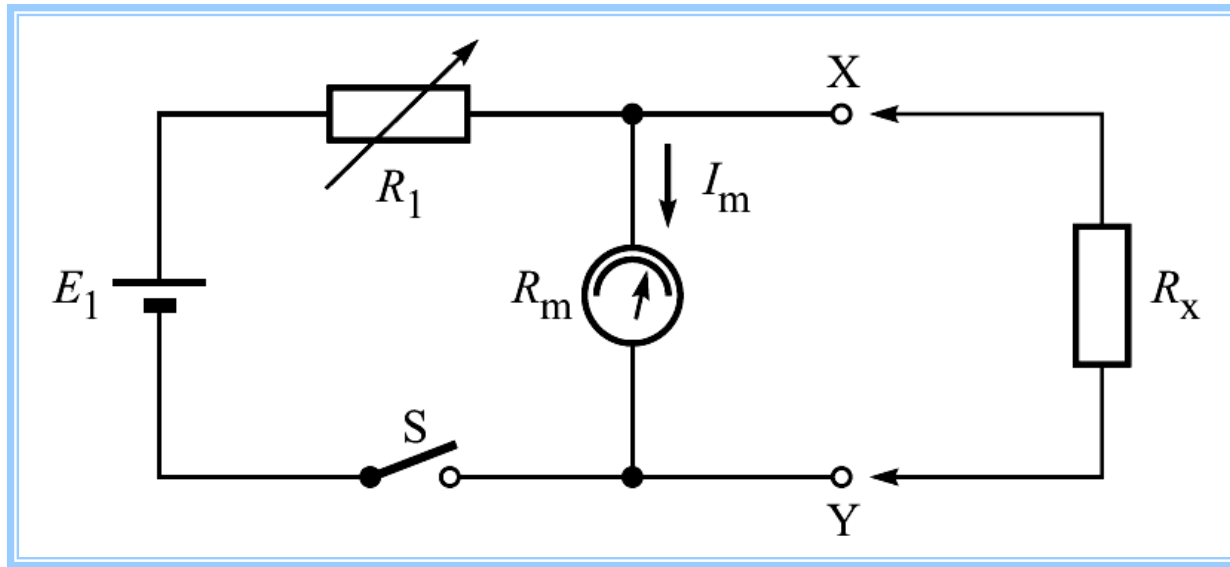


**Note** the voltmeter with higher sensitivity gives more accurate results, since it produces less loading effect on the circuit.

# RESISTANCE MEASUREMENT

- The instrument is called **ohmmeter**.
- Three types :
  1. **Shunt-Type Ohmmeter** : For *low value* resistors.
  2. **Series-Type Ohmmeter** : For *medium-value* resistors.
  3. **Meggar-Type Ohmmeter** : For *high-value* resistances, such as the insulation of a cable.

# Shunt-Type Ohmmeter



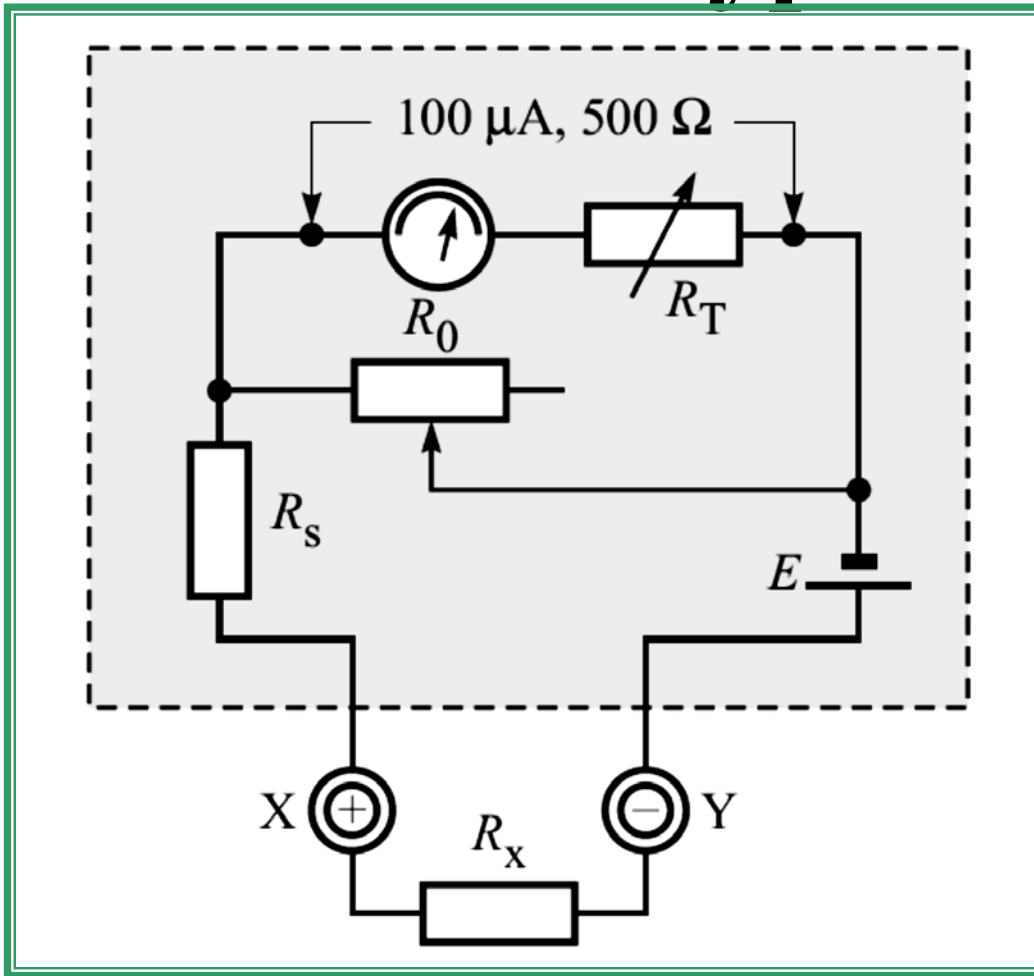
When  $R_x = 0$ , no current in meter.

When  $R_x = \infty$ , entire current flows through the meter.

Proper selection of  $R_1$  gives full-scale deflection on open circuit.



# Series-Type Ohmmeter



$R_T$  is pre-set resistor.

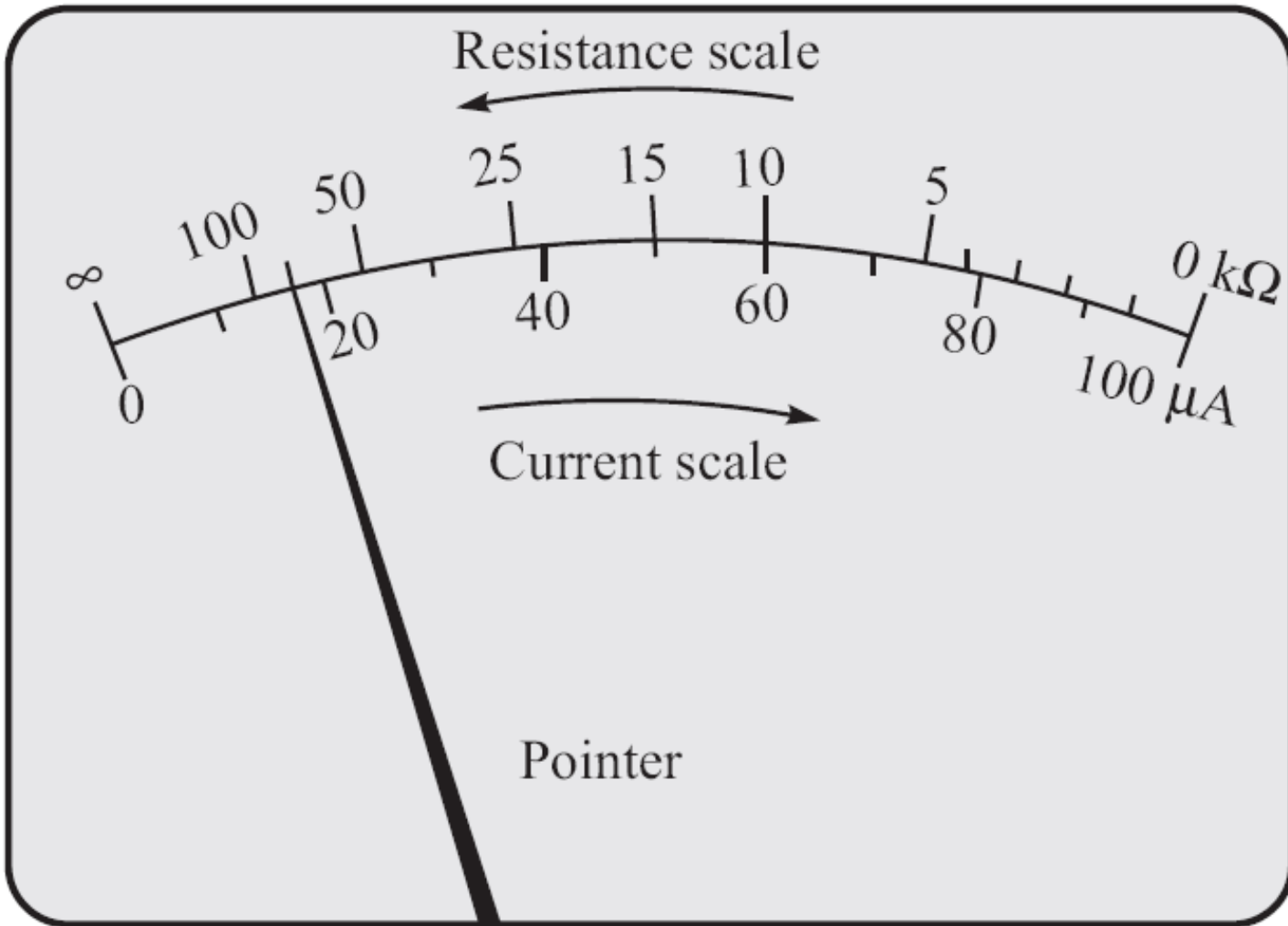
$R_0$  is zero-adjust resistor. It compensates for the decrease in battery voltage  $E$  with ageing.

$R_s$  limits the current to fsd.

- When X-Y shorted, the current is maximum (fsd).
- When X-Y open, the current is zero.
- Thus the scale is **inverted**.
- Different ranges are obtained by switching in different  $R_s$

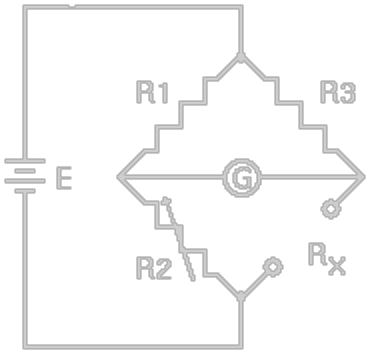
### **Caution**

- Never connect to an energized circuit.
- Make sure that there is no parallel branch across the resistance you are measuring.



The current and resistance scales.

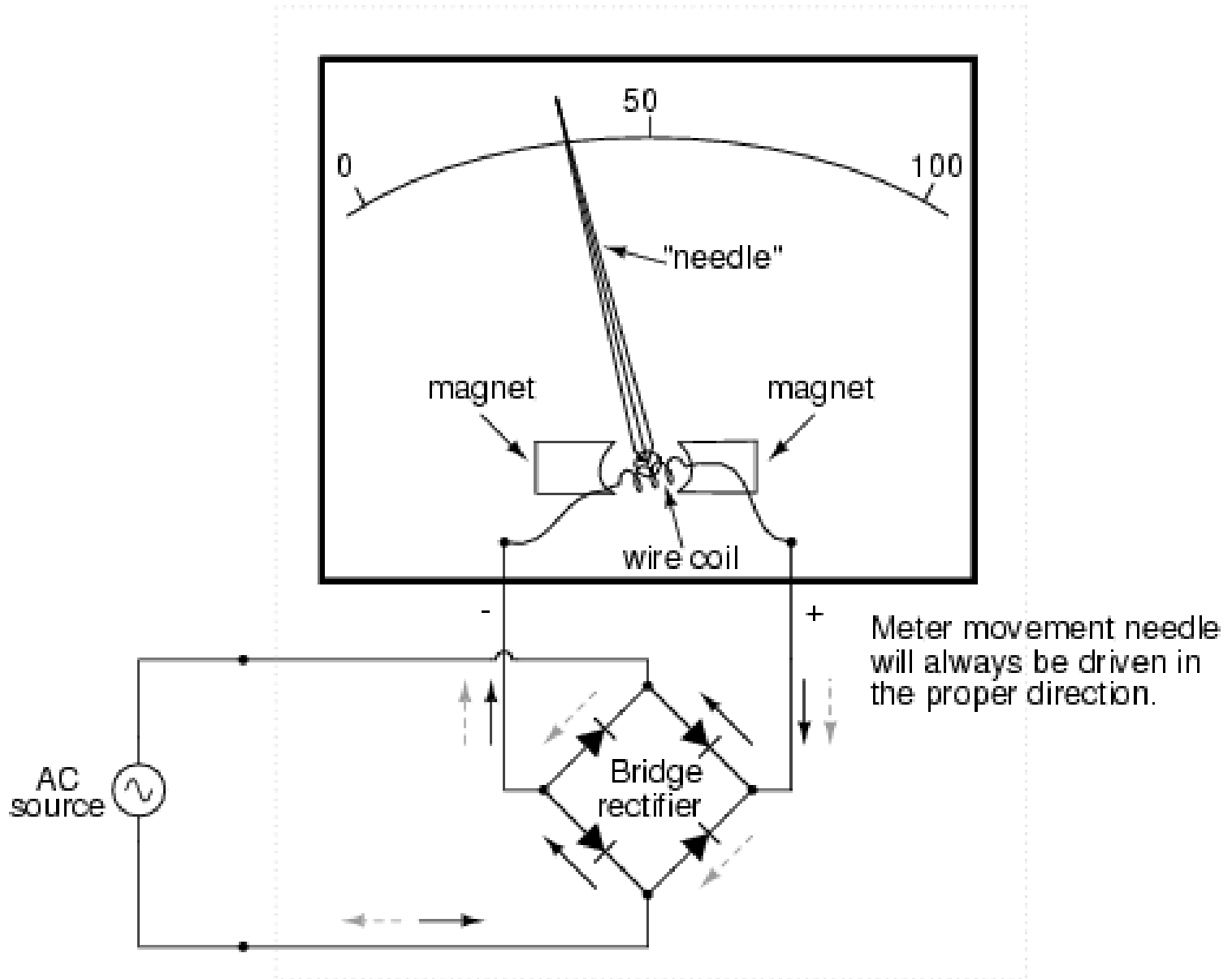
# Wheatstone Bridge



- A clever method to accurately measure a resistance
- $R_1$  and  $R_3$  are known
- $R_2$  is a variable resistor

- $R_x$  is an unknown resistor
- $R_2$  is varied until no current flows through the galvanometer G
- Let  $I_1$ ,  $I_2$ ,  $I_3$  and  $I_x$  be the currents through the four resistors.
- $I_1 = I_2$  and  $I_3 = I_x$
- No current through G: no voltage difference across it
- $I_1 R_1 = I_3 R_3$  and  $I_2 R_2 = I_x R_x \quad \rightarrow \quad R_x = R_3 R_2 / R_1$

*"Rectified" AC meter movement*

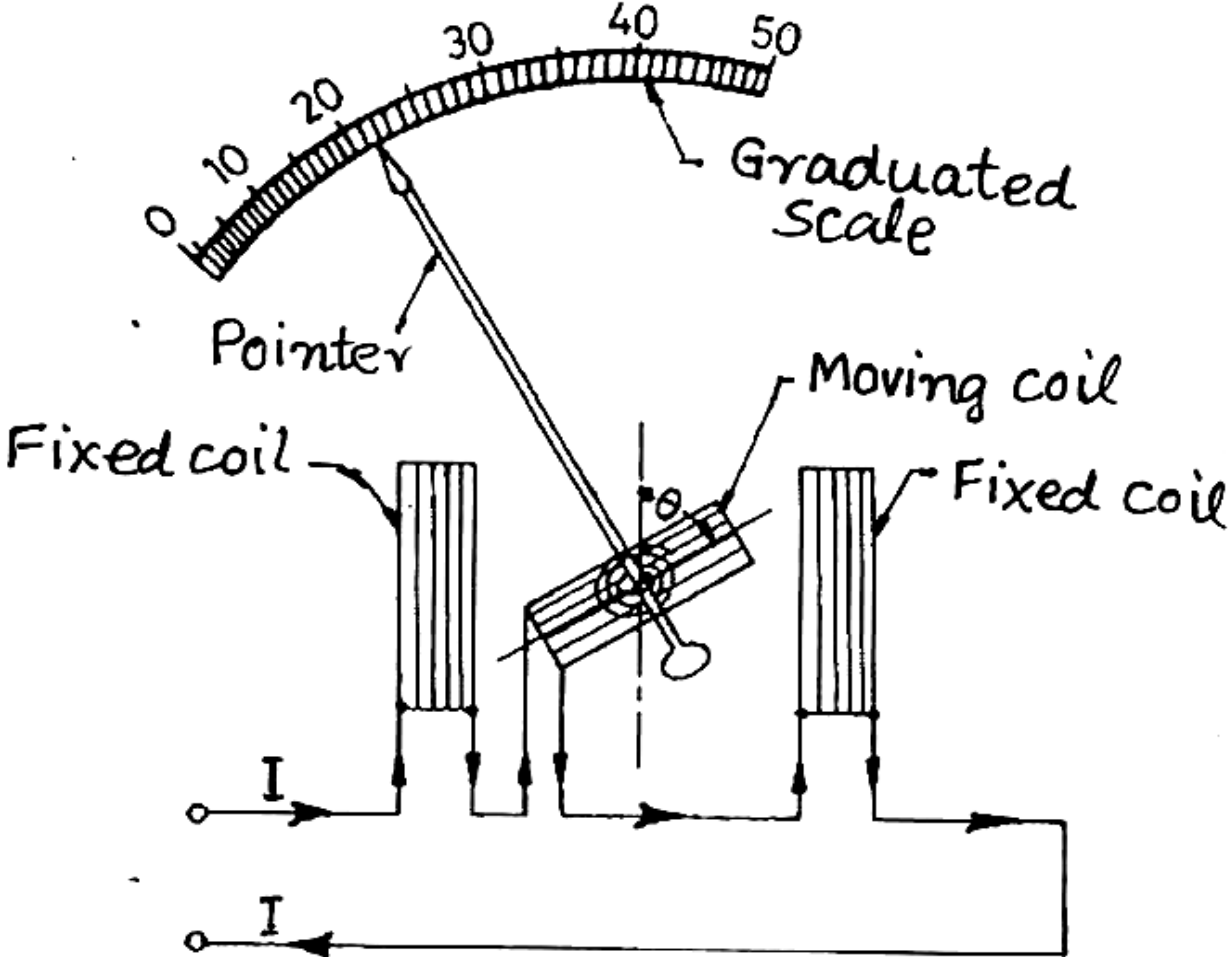


# DYNAMOMETER TYPE INSTRUMENTS

## For both ac & dc measurements

- These instruments are similar to the permanent magnet type instruments, except that the permanent magnet is replaced by a fixed coil.
- The coil is divided into two halves, connected in series with the moving coil.
- The two halves of the coil are placed close together and parallel to each other to provide uniform field within the range of the movement of moving coil.

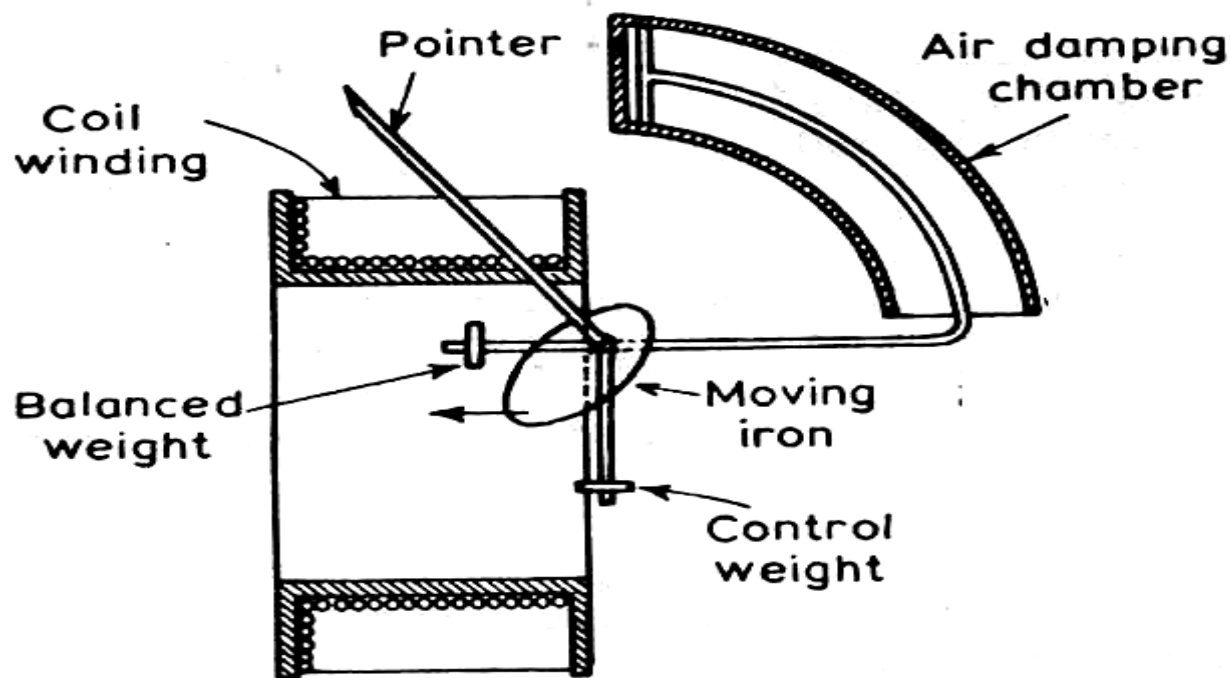
# DYNAMOMETER TYPE INSTRUMENTS



# MOVING-IRON INSTRUMENTS

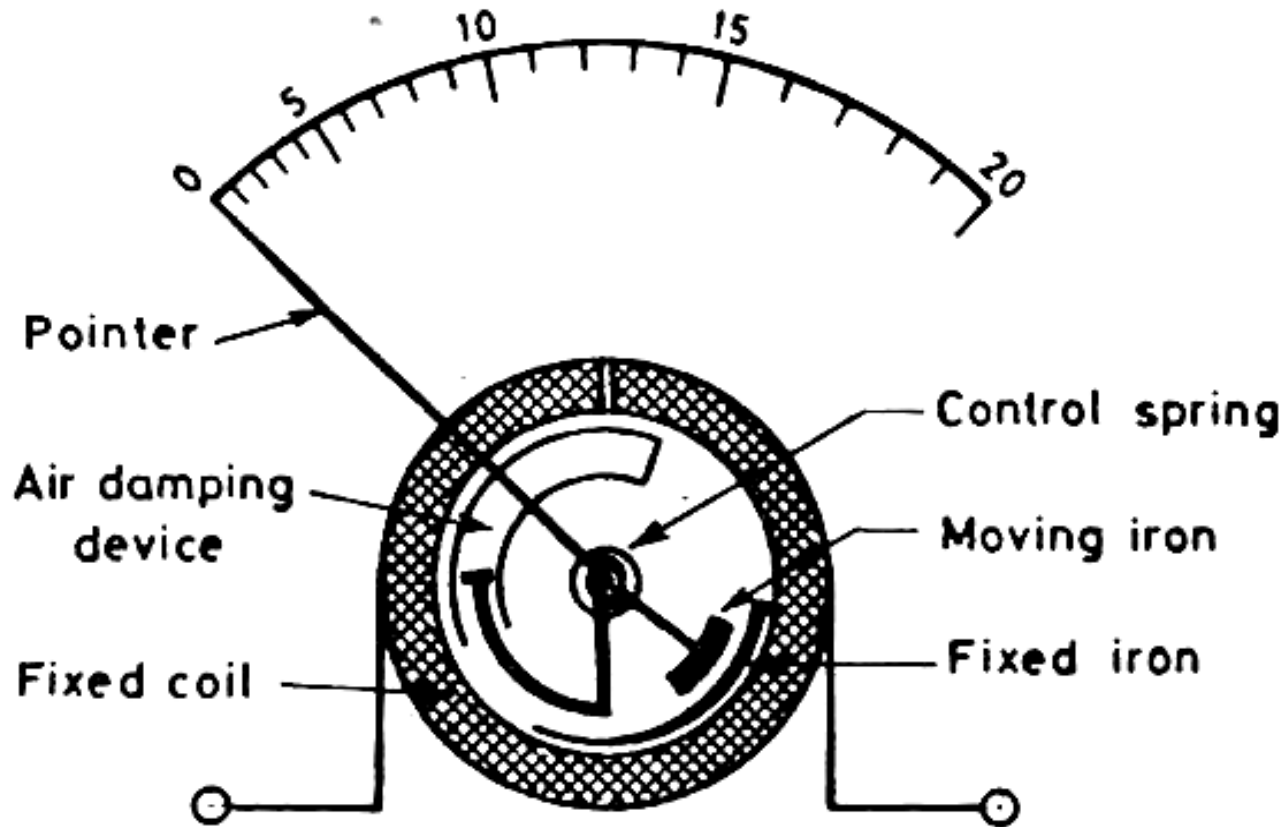
For both ac & dc measurements

- **Attraction (or Single-iron) Type Moving-Iron Instrument**

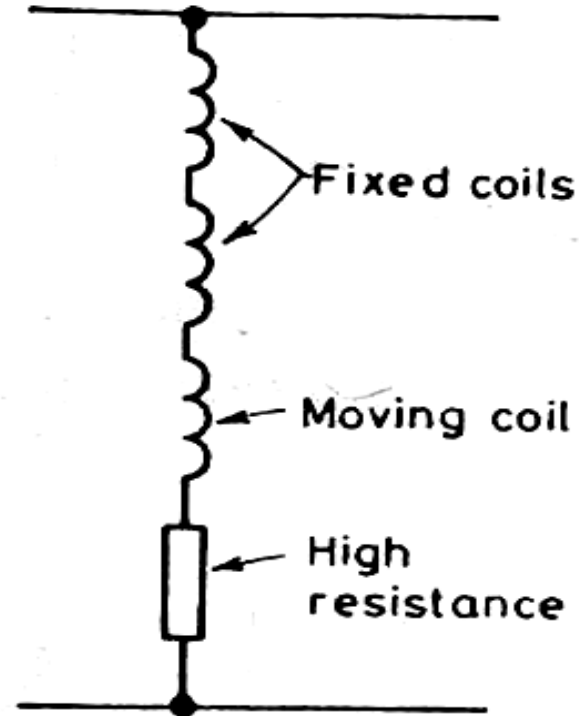
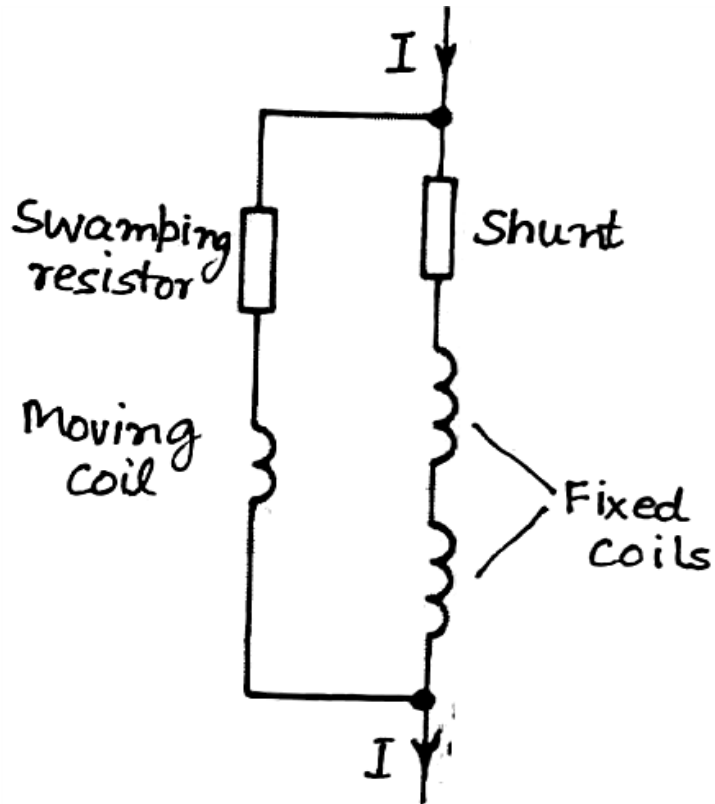




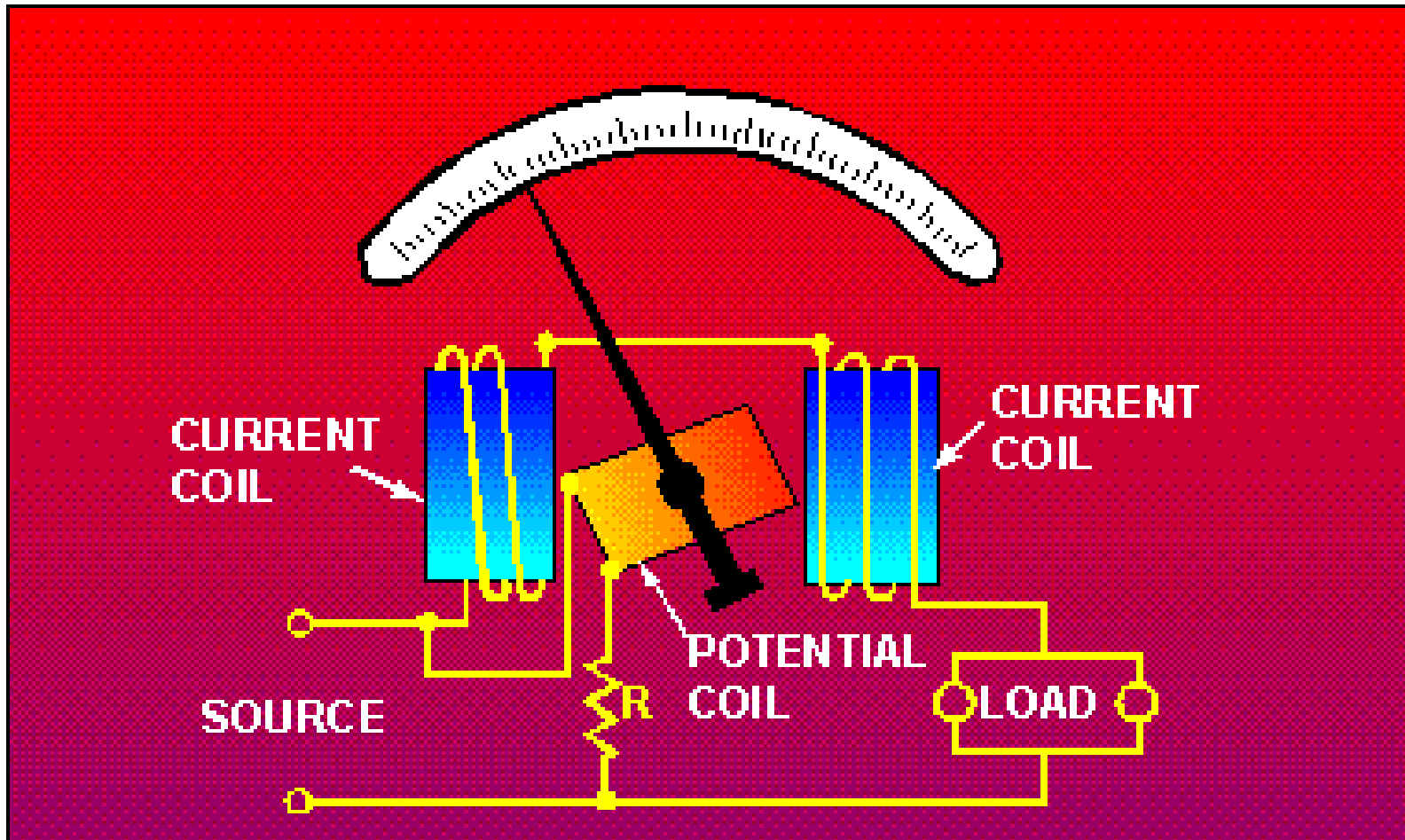
# Repulsion (or Double-Iron) Type Moving-Iron Instrument



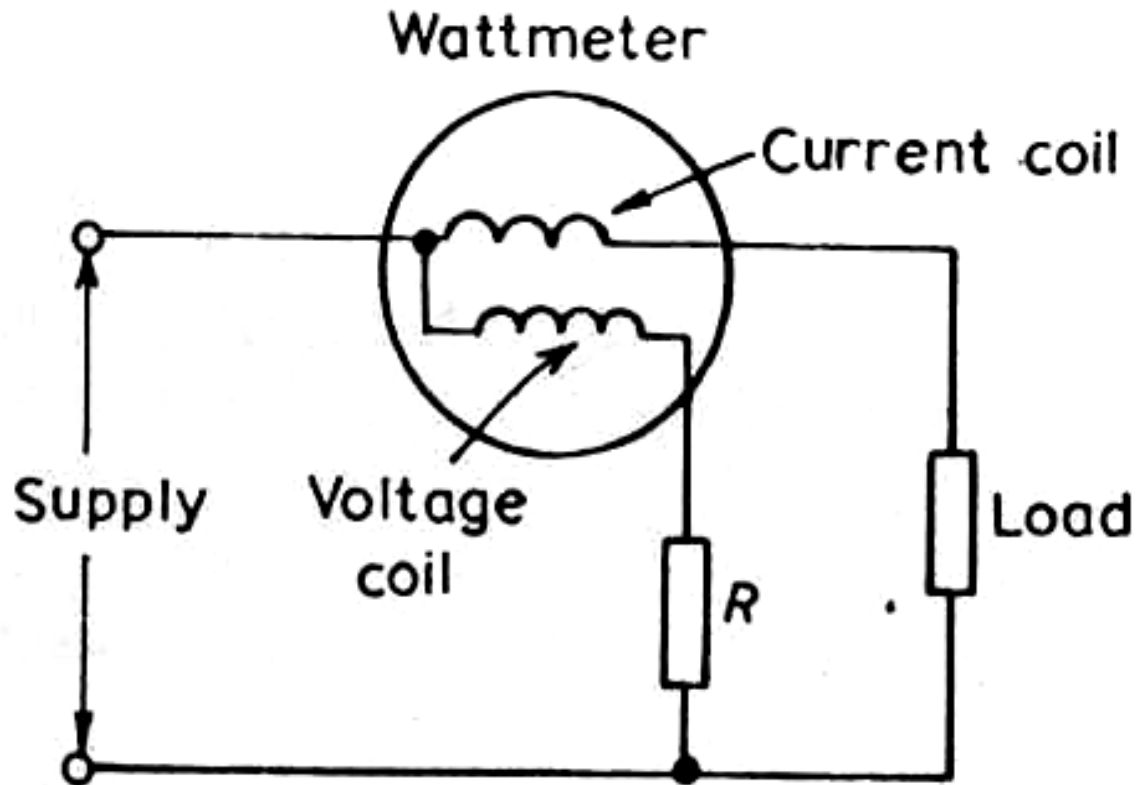
# DYNAMOMETER TYPE-Ammeter & Voltmeter



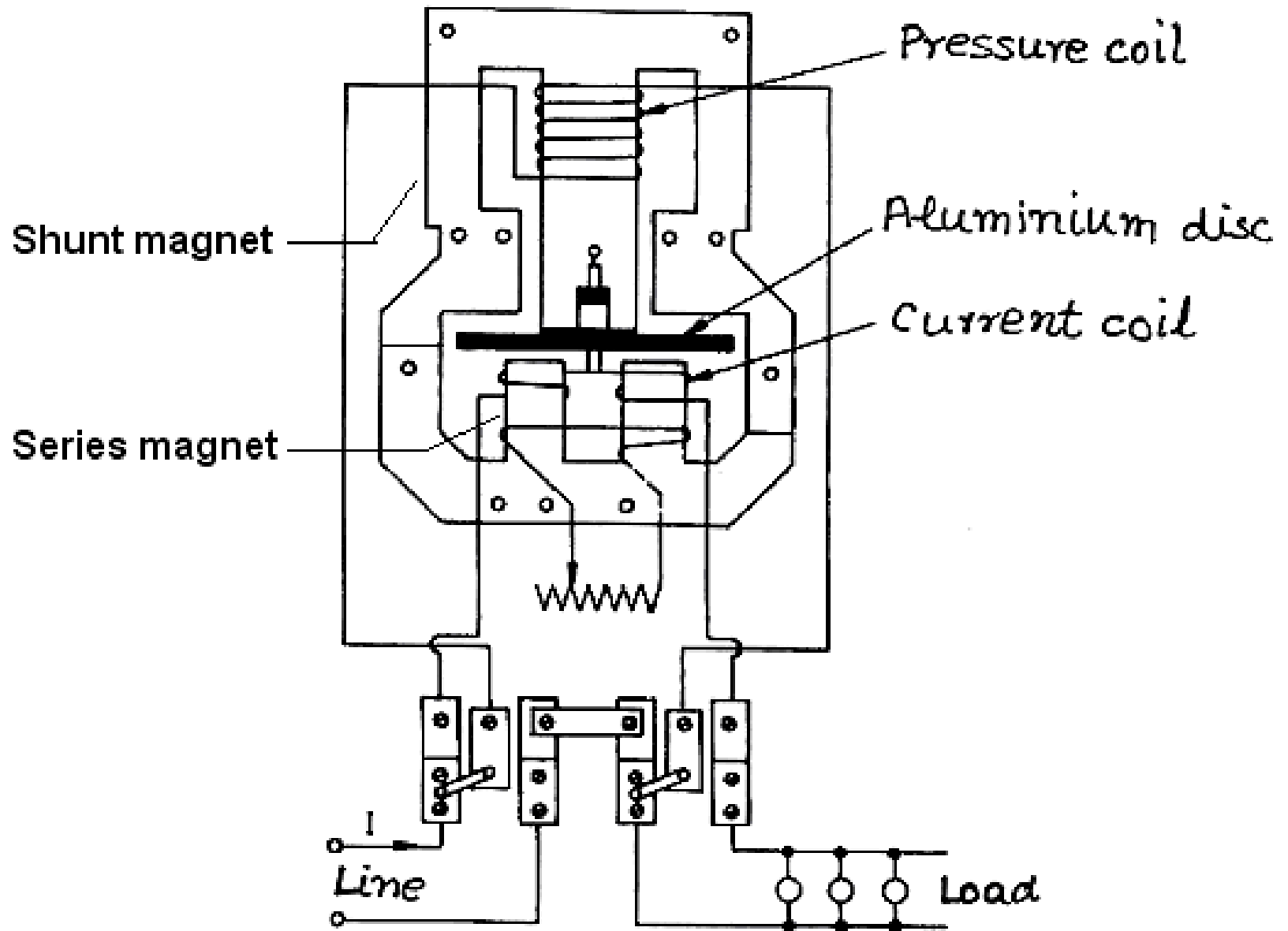
# Dynamometer Type WATTMETER



## Dynamometer Type Wattmeter



# Single-Phase Induction Type Wattmeter/Energy Meter



# Working of induction type wattmeter / energy meter

- **Driving system** – consists two electromagnets i.e. shunt & series magnets. Core is made up of silicon steel. PC is connected across the supply mains. Current coil is U shaped and connected across one of the line in series with load.
- **Moving system** – consists rotating aluminum disc mounted on vertical spindle and supported on sapphire cup. Magnetic field produced by shunt electromagnet is pulsating in character and cuts through the rotating disc and induces eddy current there in, but normally does not itself produce any driving force. The reaction b/w these two magnetic field and eddy currents set up a driving torque in the disc.

# Contin....

- **Breaking system**
- **Registering system**