

Measurement the quantitative comparison of a physical quantity, with that of a same kind, taken as a standard or a unit. The standard can be compared in multiples or submultiples of it.

The device or implement used for this measurement is called a measuring instrument.

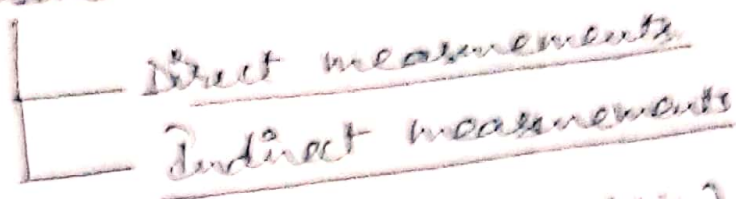
Lord Kelvin: When you know something, and if it can be measured and expressed in numbers, then it is science.

The quantity to be measured is called the measurand and to a small extent, our physical senses can estimate the value.

However physical senses can be subjected to illusions and hence estimates may be erroneous.

Most often, the measurand is either too big or too small, to be capable of ready measurement hence the need for conversion into adaptable means. This conversion is done through an intermediate element known as transducer.

"Measurements" are classified as



Instruments can be classified based on various attributes like:-

- 1) Absolute Instruments and Secondary Instruments
- 2) Based on construction:-
 - a) Mechanical b) Electrical c) Electronic
- 3) a) Direct measuring instruments b) Comparison instruments
- 4) Active and Passive instruments
- 5) Deflection type and NULL type
- 6) Monitoring and Controlling instruments
- 7) Analog and Digital instruments
- 8) Based on functions
 - a) Indicating instrument b) Recording instrument
 - c) Controlling instrument d)

Characteristics of Instruments & Measuring Systems

Measurand can have a variable value or a constant value with time. First case is a Dynamic Case and the later a Static Case. Accordingly, the instrument too can exhibit Static and Dynamic Characteristics.

Static characteristics are obtained through Static

Calibration:

Static

1) Accuracy Relates to the instrument Output with reference to the true value of the measurand. It refers to the degree of closeness of the output to the True Value.

Accuracy is of 3 types — 1) point accuracy such as melting point or boiling point, 2) percentage of True value —

$$\text{Error}\% = \frac{\text{Measured Value} - \text{True Value}}{\text{True Value}} \times 100$$

and 3) percentage of full scale deflection

$$\text{Error}\% = \frac{\text{Measured Value} - \text{True Value}}{\text{True Scale Value}} \times 100$$

2) Precision Degree of freedom of the instrument from random errors. It is a measure of consistency and repeatability through successive measurements.

3) Bias Constant error which exists throughout the full range of the instrument. Bias can be positive or negative and can be removed by turning the thumb wheel to make the pointer read zero, when the instrument is unloaded.

4) Repeatability : the closeness of outputs when the same input is applied many no. of times over a short period of time. It is affected by internal noise and drift.

5) Reproducibility :- closeness of repeating same value of input quantity when measured at different times.

6) Tolerance : the maximum error which can be expected, which can be positive/negative.

7) Reliability and Maintainability

Reliability is the probability of the performance of the system for its assigned functions for a specified period under given conditions.

Maintainability the probability of making good a defective system under conditions of breakdown

8) Deviation the departure or difference between measured value and True Value.

9) Scale Range and Scale Span

Range indicates the extent of which measurements can be read. ex: 0-200, -15 to +60, etc.

Span indicates the difference between max & min values of the range.

for the above ex: $\text{Span} = 200 - 0 = 200$ and $60 - (-15) = 75$.

10) Scale Readability: the scale of an analog instrument can have uniform or ^{nonuniform} logarithmic divisions depending on the type of the instruments.

11) Resolution or discrimination

Smallest increment of the input quantity to which the measuring system responds.

- 12) Threshold : The minimum value of input above which there will be an output recorded/indicated on the measuring instrument is called threshold.
- 13) Drift: The slow variation of the output of the measuring system which is not due to any change in input to the system is called drift.
- 14) Instrument efficiency : The ratio of the measured quantity to full scale, and the power absorbed, is called instrument efficiency.
- 15) Instrument hysteresis : The different outputs which are shown by the ^{instrument} system, when it is loaded and unloaded by same increments.
- 16) Dead Time and Dead Zone
 Dead time is the time required by the measuring system to respond to the change in measurement.
 Dead Zone : The largest change of input for which there is no corresponding output.

17) Overshoot The momentum developed by the input on the measuring system, causes the pointer mass to move beyond the equilibrium position and after a period of time settles to final steady position. The moving beyond is called Overshoot.

18) Loading effect A measuring element, when introduced into the system consumes energy and hence will not / cannot faithfully reproduce the measurement value. The difference in true value and value reported is the distortion in the form of attenuation, waveform distortion, phase shift, etc.

19)

20)

ERRORS

① Absolute error: the difference in the values of the measurand as taken from an Absolute (A) instrument and the measuring instrument (A_m) is the Absolute error.

$$\delta_A = A_m - A$$

② Relative error and Percentage error

$$\text{Relative error} = \frac{\delta_A}{A} = \frac{A_m - A}{A}$$

$$\% \text{ error} = \frac{A_m - A}{A} \times 100$$

③ Limiting error or Guarantee error:

the limit of deviations from the specified values is known as limiting error.

ex:- A meter has a limiting error $\pm 2\%$ on full scale, which means that for a full scale of 25A (say) the reading can vary by

$$\frac{25 \times 2}{100} = 0.5A$$

Types of errors

- ① Gross error because of human mistake
- ② Systematic error which are constant and are well defined by a mathematical expression they are classified as (i) Instrumental error (ii) environmental error and (iii) Observational error.
- ③ Random or accidental errors. Accumulation of small defects.

Sources of errors

Poor design, change in process parameters, poor maintenance, design limitations, Insufficient knowledge, errors due to lack of skill

Units & Dimensions

Quantities are of many kinds like - physical, chemical, mechanical, thermal, electrical, etc

In order to measure or compare, some magnitude is to be taken as standard.

Basic units which can be used to describe all other phenomena are fundamental units like mass (m), length (L), time (T). The other units expressed in terms of fundamental units are called derived units.

Absolute units are those units which can be derived experimentally without comparing with any other fundamental units.

Dimensional equations expressing derived quantities in terms of fundamental dimensions of M, L & T. used to check accuracy of an equation and for conversion of units from one system to other.

Seven Basic Units of SI System

Meter — length equal to 1650763.73 wavelengths of orange line in the spectrum of internationally specified krypton discharge lamp.

Kilogram — the mass of platinum-iridium cylinder preserved at International Bureau of weights and standards.

Second: the interval occupied by 9192631770 cycles of radiation of transition of Cesium-133 atoms.

Ampere: that current, which if maintained in two straight parallel wires conductors of infinite length of negligible circular cross section and placed 1 meter apart, in vacuum, would produce a force of 2×10^{-7} Newtons/meter.

Kelvin $\frac{1}{273.16}$ of the thermodynamic temperature of the triple point of water.

Candela luminous intensity in the perpendicular direction of a surface of $\frac{1}{600,000}$ square meter of black body at the temperature of freezing platinum under standard atmospheric pressure.

Mole the amount of substance of a system which contains as many atoms as in 0.012 kg of Carbon 12.

Supplementary Units plane angle - radian | rad
Solid angle - Steradians | sr

Standards of measurement a) absolute standards

- b) i) International Standards.
 (ii) primary Standard.
 (iii) secondary Standard
 (iv) working Standard

International Standard — by international agreement

Primary Standards — maintained by National Standards laboratory in different parts of the world.

Secondary Standards : Basic reference standards used in industrial measurements.

Working Standards principal tools of measurement in a laboratory.

International and Absolute Units

International Units

- 1) International Ohm — resistance offered by a column of mercury of mass 14.4521 g of uniform cross section and of length 106.300 cm to passage of an unvarying current at the temperature of melting ice.

International Ampere - that unvarying current which when passed through a solution of silver nitrate (AgNO_3) in water, will deposit silver at the rate of 0.00111800 g/sec .

International Volt : 1V = when applied to international resistance of 1Ω , will pass current of 1A.

International watt : electrical energy expended per sec, when unvarying current of one International Ampere flows through one international Ohm.

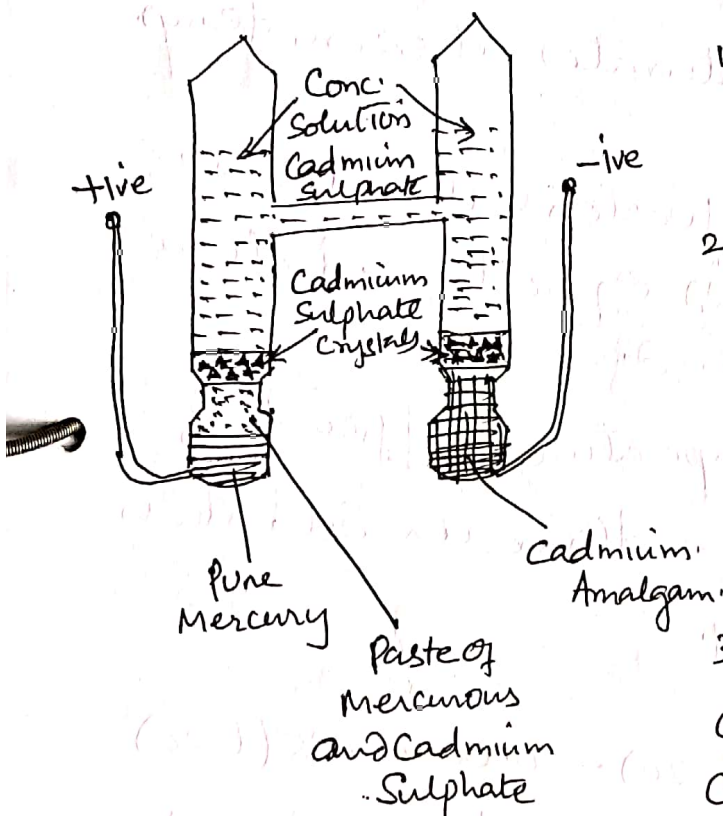
Voltage Standard - Standard Cell

WESTON standard cell - Has the voltage across terminals constant for a very long time, when no appreciable currents are drawn from the cell. These are used as a Secondary Standard of Voltage.

WESTON Cadmium Cell has a ref. voltage of 1.0183 V

Saturated Cadmium Cell

Unsaturated Cadmium Cell



1) H shaped glass vessel, each limb is of about 25 mm in diameter

2) One leg contains, pure mercury, paste of mercurous and Cadmium Sulphate, Cadmium Sulphate crystals and Conc. Cadmium Sulphate solution, in that order from the bottom of the leg; this is the +ive terminal

3) The other terminal contains Cadmium Amalgam, Cadmium Sulphate crystals and Conc. Cadmium Sulphate solution from bottom, in that order. this is the -ive terminal.

4) The H link is also filled with Conc. Cadmium Sulphate solution

5) the limbs are hermetically sealed'

Cadmium Sulphate solution — electrolyte

Mercury — +ive electrode

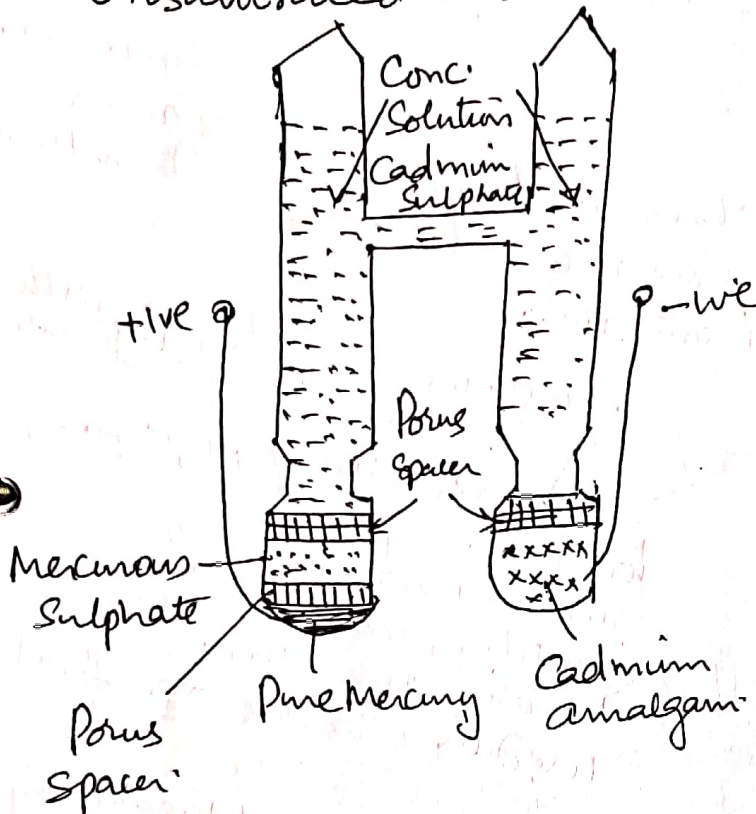
Cadmium amalgam (1 part cadmium, 7 parts mercury)
— -ive electrode

6) the cells differ in construction as saturated and unsaturated cells. Saturated cells have crystals of cadmium sulphate. the other cell is unsaturated at room temp

7) Saturated (cadmium) Weston Cell is used as the primary standard of voltage. Materials of high purity are used. Cells have high temperature coefficient of $-40 \mu\text{V per } ^\circ\text{C rise}$. Hence an oil bath is used for temp. control.

$$E_t = E_{20} - 0.000046(t-20) - 0.00000095(t-20)^2 + 0.00000001(t-20)^3$$
 is the expression for voltage at any other temp.

Unsaturated Cadmium Cell.



1) there are no CdSO_4 crystals, solution gets saturated at 4°C and unsaturated at room temperature

2) low temperature coefficient $-10 \mu\text{V}$ per deg. $^\circ\text{C}$. No temp. correction is required.

3) each cell manufactured gives a different voltage and hence manufacturer certifies by comparing with a primary standard

Precautions

- 1) Current cannot be drawn from the cell. A very high protective ~~resistance~~ resistance is connected in series, in a circuit
- 2) Voltmeter should not be used to measure voltage as it draws current
- 3) Cell should not be short circuited and then it loses its value as a standard
- 4) Store in places with a temp of $15^\circ\text{C} - 20^\circ\text{C}$.

Standard Resistance

Circuit components can be classified as

energy dissipating
Resistors
energy storage
Components
Capacitors &
Inductors

All the 3 Component characteristics are present in all circuit components but one characteristic may dominate."

Resistance materials

high resistivity (primary alloys of diff materials)

low resistivity (Al, Copper)

low temp. coefficient
good mechanical strength
ductility, solderability,
corrosion resistance.

used in conductors for electricity

High resistivity

① Precision electrical measuring instruments. (Standard, substandard)

Standard resistances and resistance boxes

② resistance elements for rheostats

③ high temperature elements for electric furnaces, heating devices.

Important characteristics for precision instruments of resistance :-

① Stability of resistance

② Resistance to oxidation, moisture and corrosion

Material used for Resistance

1) Platinum high cost, high temp. Coefficient of resistance,

2) Manganin Alloy of 84% Copper, 12% Manganese and 4% Nickel.

Specific resist - $0.42 - 0.74 \mu\Omega\text{-m}$

Temp. coeff. of resist - $0.00003 \mu\Omega/^\circ\text{C}$

Density - 8.400 kg/m^3

Tensile strength - $40 - 55 \text{ kg/mm}^2$

Max. working temp - $\leq 60^\circ\text{C}$

Most widely used material

3) Constantin - alloy of 60% Copper, 40% Nickel

Resistivity - $49 \times 10^{-8} \Omega\text{-m}$

Density $8,900 \text{ kg/m}^3$

Tensile strength $40 - 50 \text{ kg/mm}^2$

Max working temp $400 - 450^\circ\text{C}$

4) Nichrome: alloy of Nickel & Chromium

Resistivity $1.10 \mu\Omega\text{-m}$

Temp. Coefficient of resistance $0.0004 \Omega/\Omega/^\circ\text{C}$

Density $8,400 \text{ kg/m}^3$

Tensile strength 70 kg/mm^2

Working Temp 1000°C

Resistance Coils

Characteristics —

Coils formed on

Resistance Value and Power dissipation

Wooden

Ceramic

metal formers
(of brass)

↓
Absorb
moisture

↓
Poor heat
conductivity

↓
Dissipate heat
Not desirable in
ac applications.

(For ac application
former to be non
metallic and
non inductive)

Insulation — Cotton / Silk

Mixture of Cotton & silk fibres known as ESCO
is used as an insulation

Material ~~not~~ affected by humidity in opposite
ie Cotton lengthens while silk contracts. thereby
nullifying the effect

Mechanical fatigue while forming coils is
overcome by annealing.

Inductance & capacitance effects of Resistance
windings are reduced by special winding
methods — Bifilar winding, Chaperon winding,
Ayrton-Perry winding, Curtis & Wenner winding etc

Bijilar winding

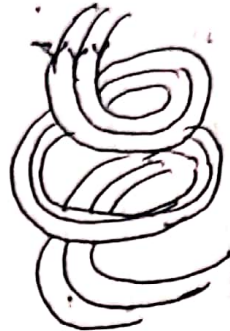
largely reduces inductance effect

used for resistances upto 0.1 Ω to 1.0 Ω .

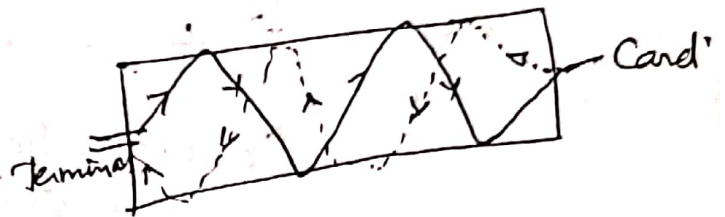


Chaperon winding

wound in even nos of layers. after each layer the direction is reversed



Ayrton-Perry winding

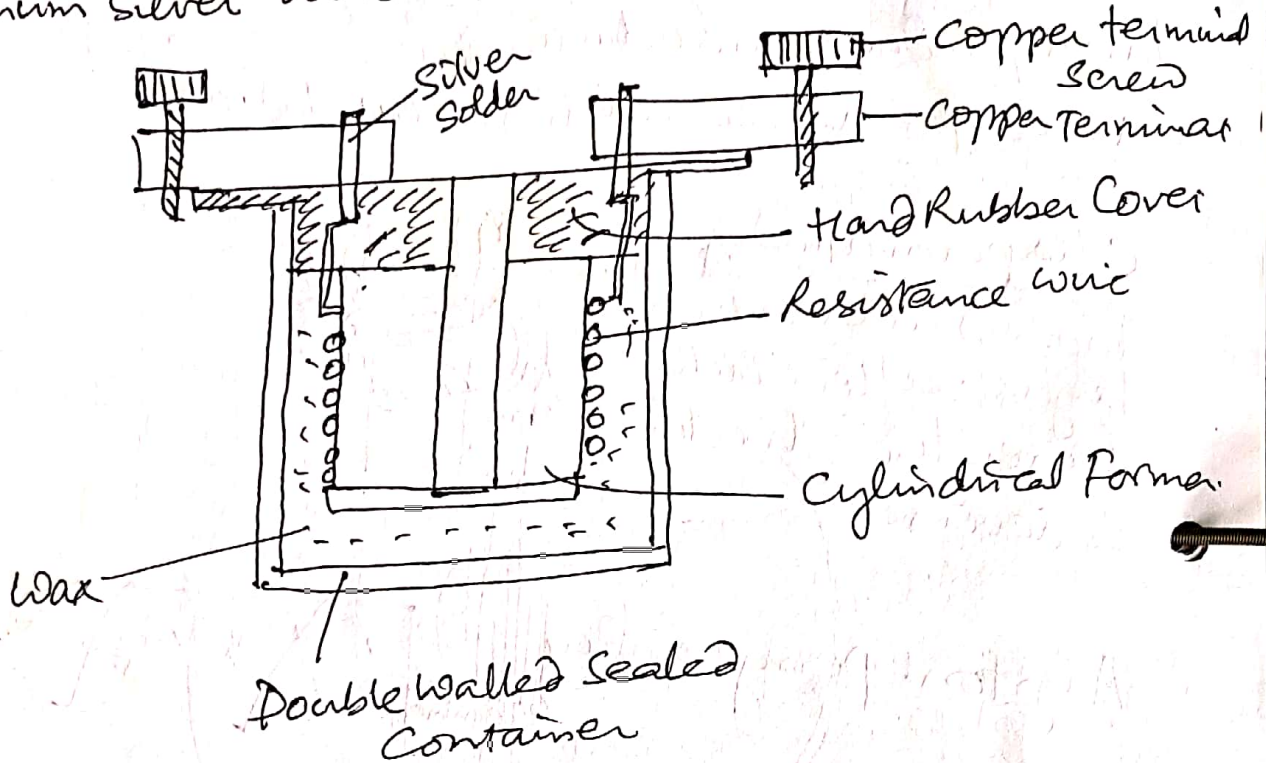


Resistance Standard : the material used in

Standard resistors should have :-

- 1) High resistivity to get a compact resistor
- 2) Small temp. Coefficient, for correction in temperature variations
- 3) Greater permanence, ie long life with stable value, or no appreciable change in value over long period of time
- 4) Low thermo electric effect, not easily oxid.
- 5) easily workable, formable and joinable.

Construction :- Bifilar winding of the coil of 24
 platinum silver wire, wound non inductively.



Precision of few parts in 10^7 over many years
 the coil, after one layer is baked with insulation
 at approx. 140°C and annealed, the former
 has a silk layer, with shellac coating.
 the space between coil and outer case is filled
 with wax

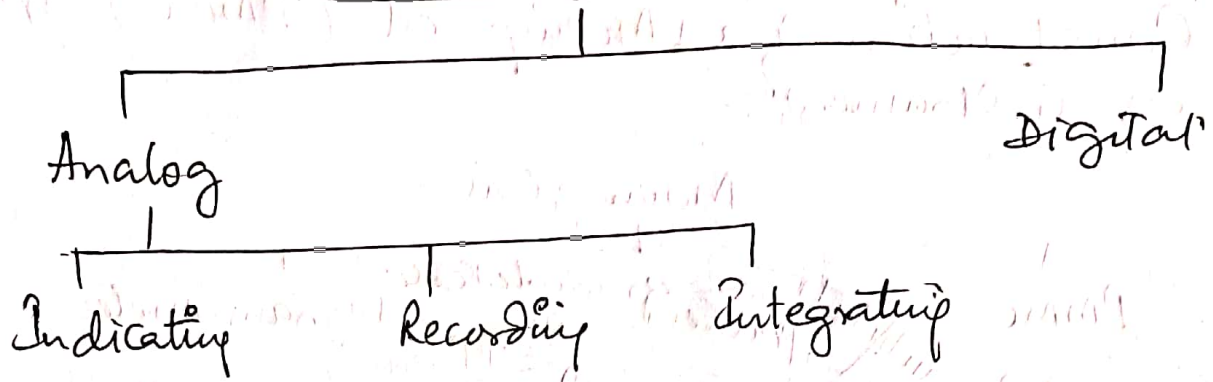
Secondary Standard - available in multiples of

$10, 2, 1$

$$R_t = R_{25} + \alpha(t-25) + \beta(t-25)^2$$

α, β - temperature coefficients

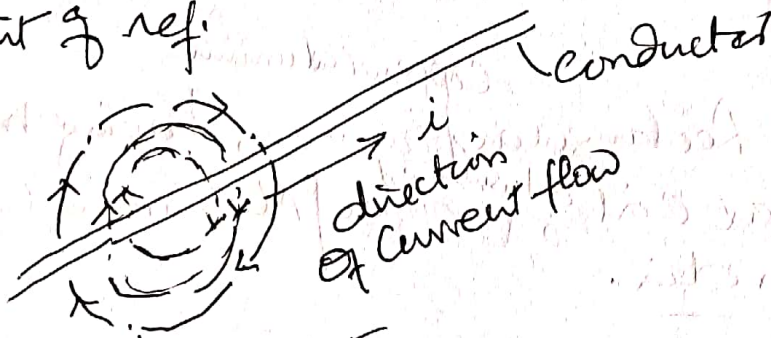
Measuring Instruments



Indicating Instruments have the following essential

- Components :-
- 1) A moving element
 - 2) A pointer
 - 3) Graduated scale
 - 4) A pivoted system
 - 5) A protective case
 - 6) A set of terminals
 - 7) A magnetic field

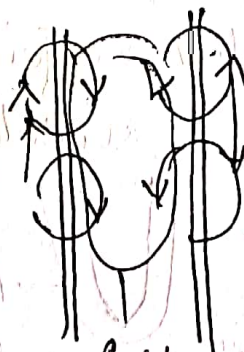
Principle of operation: A current carrying conductor, when placed in a magnetic field, experiences a force, towards or away from the point of ref.



Sense of direction of magnetic field set up

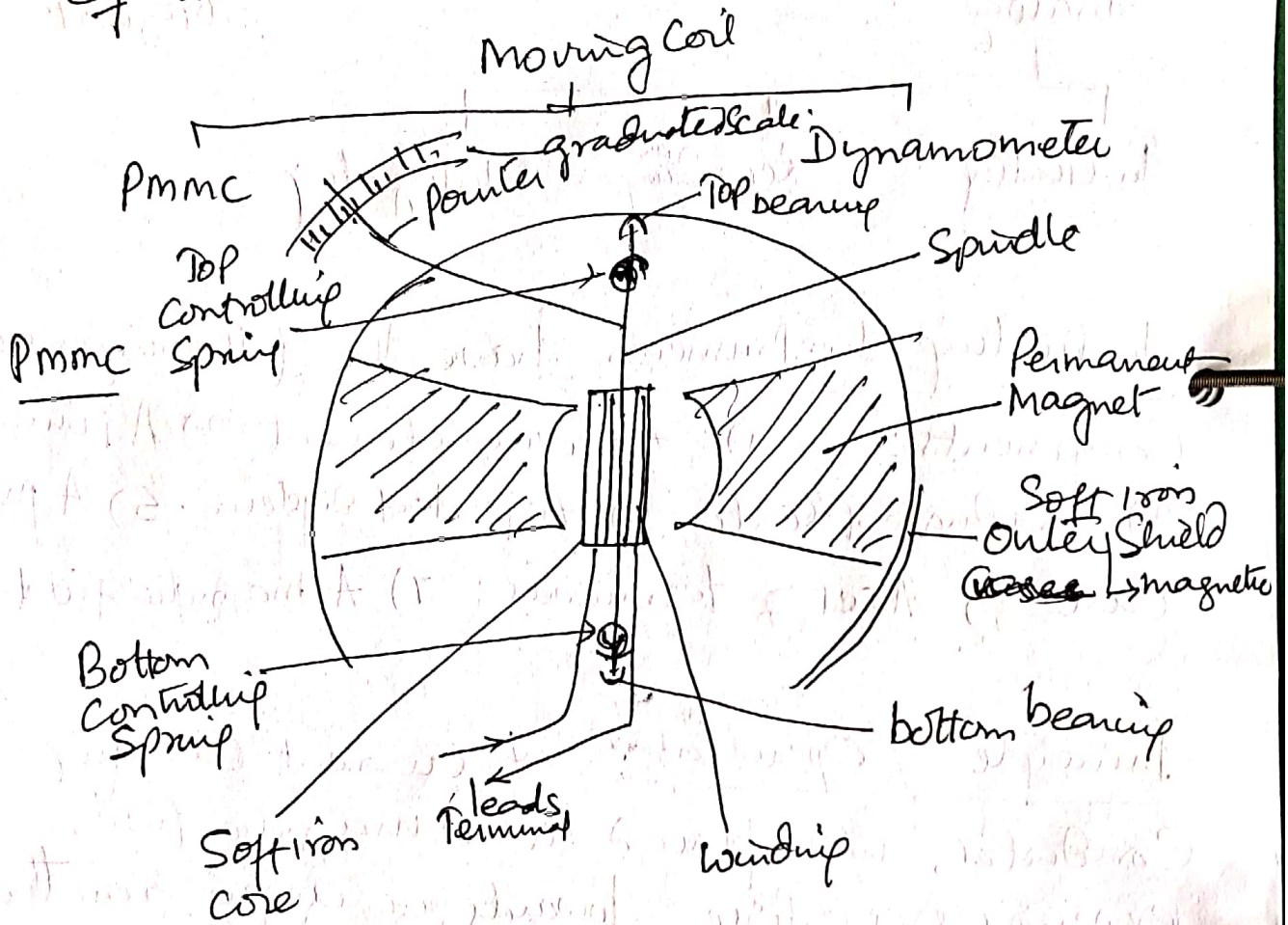


field weakens force of attraction



field strength force of repulsion

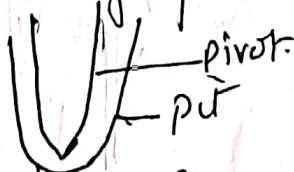
Construction of a Permanent Magnet Moving Coil (PMMC) type of instrument:-



Description

Moving System :- Rectangular ^{Copper or aluminium} former, having multi turn rectangular coil of ^{Insulated} Copper / Aluminium wire of 0.02 to 0.2 mm dia.

The system is pivoted on jewel bearings of 'V' shape. The pit has radius slightly larger than the pivot for circular contact area.



To protect the

pivoted system from shock, a spring can be used in the top and bottom bearing for lateral movement of the spindle-

Magnet System Alnico magnets, sector shaped moving system and magnet system comprise the Deflection System
Control System

Controlling Torque produced by top & bottom, phosphor bronze hair springs of helical or coiled type. The top & bottom springs are coiled in clockwise and anticlockwise directions. The springs carry the current to & fro of the moving coil.

Damping System Eddy current damping, Air friction damping, oil dash pot damping

Scale and Pointer System : Light aluminum flat, carried by the spindle over a graduated scale. The flat forms a vertical knife edge. The scale markings for P.M.M.C are uniform. To avoid parallax error, the scale carries a mirror.

Torque equation

Magnetic flux density — B

Current through conductor — i

length of the conductor — l

Angle moved — θ

~~force~~ NO of conductors — N

force on conductor $F = B i l$ Newtons

Total force on N conductors = $F_1 = B i l N$ Newton

Since the coil is pivoted and has a radius 'r'

then ^{Deflection} Torque applied $T_d = F_1 \cdot r$

$$T_d = B i l N r \text{ Newton-m}$$

for a given system, B, l, N, r are constants

hence $T_d \propto i$

the controlling Torque T_c is proportional to the deflection ' θ ' because of Springs

hence $T_c \propto \theta$

for steady indication $T_d = T_c$

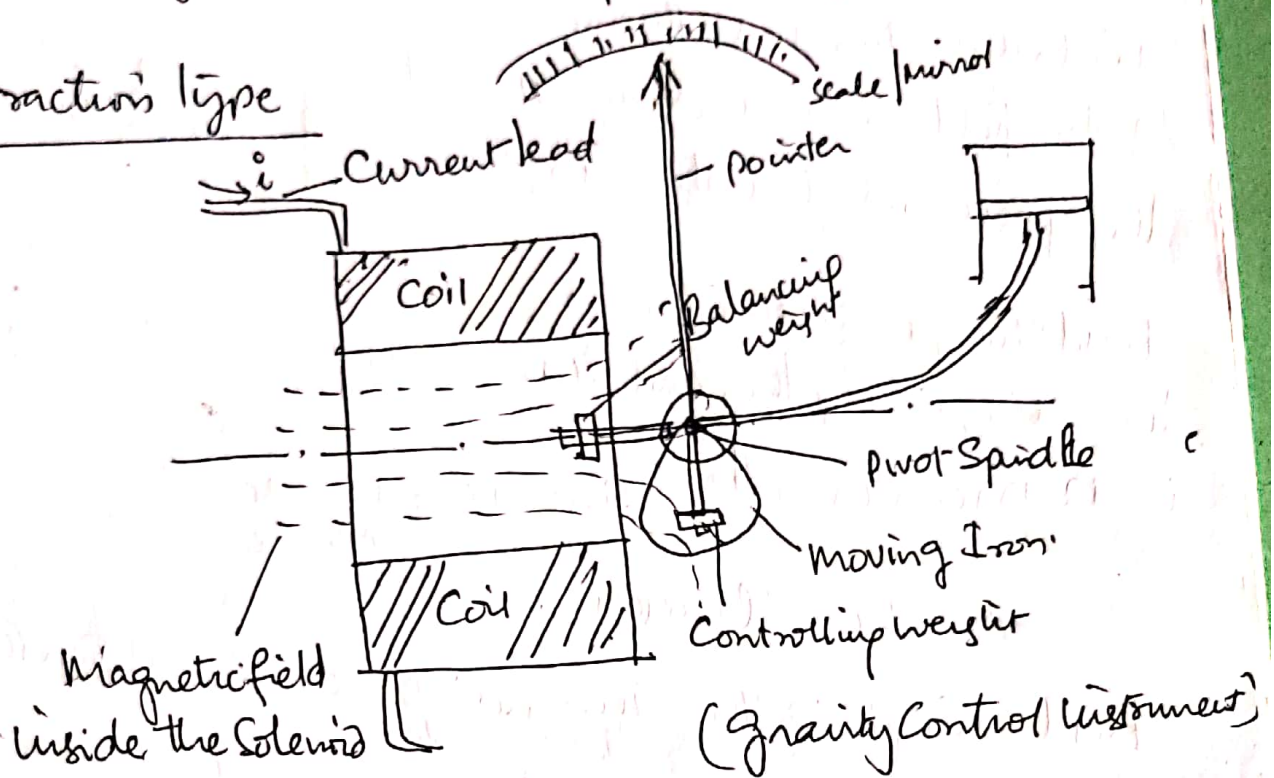
or $i \propto \theta$

Moving Iron Instruments

Attraction type

Repulsion type

① Attraction type



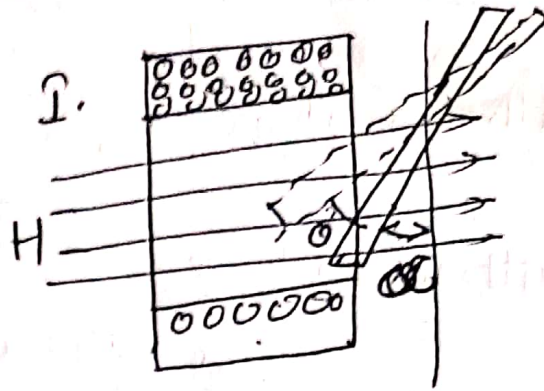
(Gravity Control Instrument)

Construction is as shown:

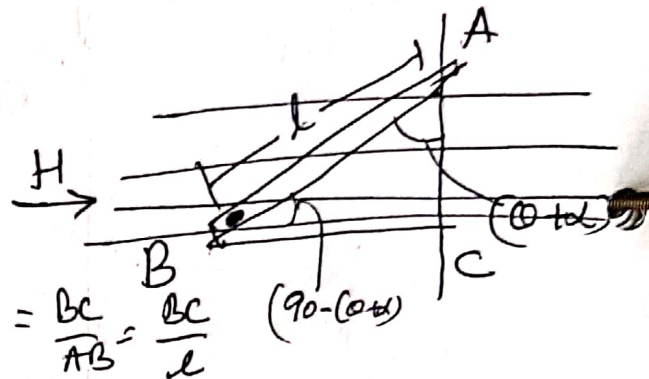
Principle of operation:- Magnetic field set up by the solenoid influences the moving iron and sets up a force of attraction [magnetic field induces eddy current in the iron piece, which sets up a magnetic field and the interaction is attraction from weaker field side to stronger field]. The movement of the iron piece is facilitated by the pivot. The pointer moves along the graduated scale.

Torque equation of Attraction type

The magnetic piece is inclined at an angle α to the vertical initially. Due to influence of the field of the coil of strength H the piece is deflected by θ .



Field strength of attraction on the disc, along the central axis is \propto proportional to



$$\sin(\theta + \alpha) = \frac{BC}{AB} = \frac{BC}{l} \quad (90 - (\theta + \alpha))$$

or $BC = l \sin(\theta + \alpha)$.

Field strength of the magnetic piece $\propto H \sin(\theta + \alpha)$

Force of attraction $\propto [H \sin(\theta + \alpha)] H$.

$$\propto H^2 \sin^2(\theta + \alpha)$$

Since $H \propto I$

$$\therefore \text{force} \propto I^2 \sin^2(\theta + \alpha)$$

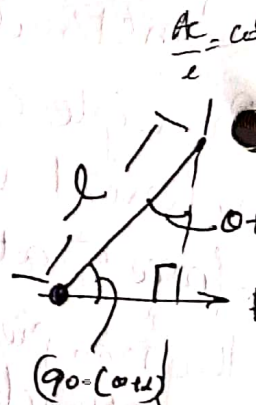
Deflecting Torque $T_d \propto \theta \cdot \text{force} \times \text{distance moved}$

$$\propto I^2 \sin^2(\theta + \alpha) \cdot l \cos(\theta + \alpha)$$

$$\propto I^2 \sin^2(\theta + \alpha)$$

Controlling Torque $T_c \propto \theta$ at balance

$$\therefore T_d = T_c \quad \therefore \theta = I^2 \sin^2(\theta + \alpha)$$



Bridge Methods.

Resistance can be classified as Low, Medium and High resistance, in terms of Measurement Procedures.

Low resistance — upto 1Ω

Medium resistance — 1Ω to $100\text{ k}\Omega$

High resistance — above $100\text{ k}\Omega$.

Armatures, Series field winding etc

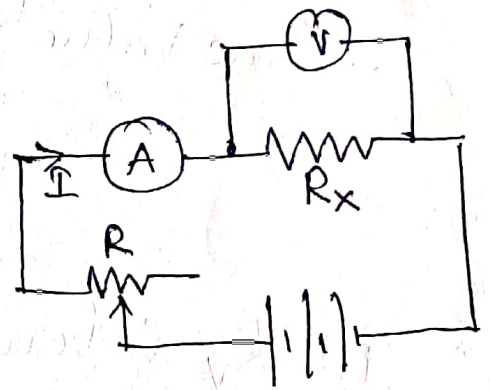
Electrical apparatus

Busbar, etc

Low resistance

Ammeter-voltmeter method:-

In this method Current through the resistance under test R_x and the Voltage across it both are measured.



Under ideal Condition resistance of \textcircled{A} and \textcircled{V} do not have any effect on the Current through the unknown R_x . Hence $R_x = \frac{V_{\text{reading}}}{A_{\text{reading}}}$

In practise, let I_v be the Current through \textcircled{V} and I_x Current through unknown resistance

then
$$I = I_x + I_v.$$

$$I_x = I - I_v.$$

$$\text{True value of } R_x = \frac{V}{I_x} = \frac{V}{I - I_v}$$

$$\text{Current through Voltmeter} = \frac{V}{R_v}$$

$$\therefore \text{True Value of } R_x = \frac{V}{I - \frac{V}{R_v}} = \frac{V}{I \left(1 - \frac{V}{I R_v}\right)}$$

$$\text{The measured value of Resistance} = R_m = \frac{V}{I}$$

$$\therefore \text{True Value of } R_x = \frac{V}{I \left(1 - \frac{R_m}{R_v}\right)} = \frac{R_m}{\left(1 - \frac{R_m}{R_v}\right)}$$

If R_v is very large then $R_v \rightarrow \infty$

$$\text{hence } \frac{R_m}{R_v} = 0 \therefore R_x = R_m$$

The unknown value is equal to the measured value.

b

$$\text{True value of } R_x = \frac{V}{I_x} = \frac{V}{I - I_v}$$

$$\text{Current through Voltmeter} = \frac{V}{R_v}$$

$$\therefore \text{True Value of } R_x = \frac{V}{I - \frac{V}{R_v}} = \frac{V}{I \left(1 - \frac{V}{I R_v}\right)}$$

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If R_v is very large then $R_v \rightarrow \infty$

$$\text{hence } \frac{R_m}{R_v} = 0 \quad \therefore \underline{R_x = R_m}$$

The unknown value is equal to the measured value.

Let the galvanometer sensitivity be given as

$$S_v \text{ deg/}\frac{\text{ie}}{\text{volt}}$$

then the deflection for 'e' = $\theta = S_v \cdot e$

$$\text{i.e. } \theta = S_v \cdot \frac{ESR}{(R+S)^2}$$

$$\text{or } S_v = \frac{\theta (R+S)^2}{ESR}$$

Bridge Sensitivity $S_B = \frac{\theta}{\left(\frac{\Delta R}{R}\right)}$ defined as deflection

of galvanometer per fractional change in unknown resistance

$$\therefore S_B = \frac{S_v \cdot ES \Delta R}{(R+S)^2} \times \frac{R}{\Delta R} = \frac{S_v ES R}{(R+S)^2}$$

$$\text{or } S_B = \frac{ESv}{\frac{(R+S)^2}{RS}} = \frac{ESv}{R^2 + S^2 + 2RS} = \frac{ESv}{\left(\frac{R}{S} + \frac{S}{R} + 2\right)}$$

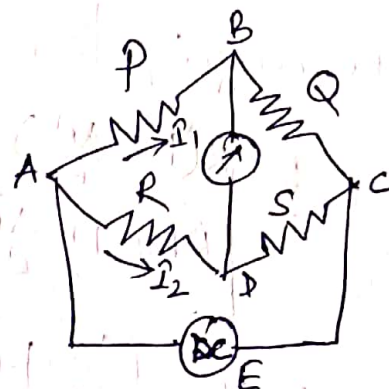
Sensitivity is max. when $\frac{R}{S} = 1$

Medium Resistance

Wheat stone bridge.

$I_1 P = I_2 R$ & $I_1 Q = I_2 S$ at balance.

$$\frac{I_1 P}{I_1 Q} = \frac{I_2 R}{I_2 S} \quad \text{ie } \frac{P}{Q} = \frac{R}{S}$$



R is the unknown resistance $\therefore R = \frac{PS}{Q}$

Sensitivity of Wheatstone bridge.

The effect of a small change in unknown resistance which will lead to deflection is to be studied.

$R \rightarrow$ changes to $R + \Delta R$

Voltage across \odot = $V_{AD} - V_{AB} = I_2(R + \Delta R) - I_1 P$

$$I_2 = \frac{E}{(R + \Delta R) + S} \quad \text{ie } I_1 = \frac{E}{P + Q}$$

$$e = V_{AD} - V_{AB} = \left(\frac{E}{R + \Delta R + S} \right) (R + \Delta R) - \left(\frac{E}{P + Q} \right) (P)$$

$$= E \left[\frac{R + \Delta R}{R + \Delta R + S} - \frac{P}{P + Q} \right]$$

Since $\frac{P}{Q} = \frac{R}{S} \Rightarrow \frac{P}{P + Q} = \frac{R}{R + S}$

$$\therefore e = E \left[\frac{R + \Delta R}{R + \Delta R + S} - \frac{R}{R + S} \right] = E \left[\frac{R + \frac{\Delta R}{R} R}{R + S + \frac{\Delta R}{R} R} - \frac{R}{R + S} \right]$$

rearranging terms

$$e = E \left[\frac{R(1 + \frac{\Delta R}{R})}{R+s(1 + \frac{\Delta R}{R+s})} - \frac{R}{R+s} \right]$$

$$= \frac{E \cdot R}{R+s} \left[\frac{1 + \frac{\Delta R}{R}}{1 + \frac{\Delta R}{R+s}} - 1 \right]$$

the term $\frac{1 + \frac{\Delta R}{R}}{1 + \frac{\Delta R}{R+s}} - 1$ is expanded as

$$\left[\left(1 + \frac{\Delta R}{R}\right) \left[1 - \frac{\Delta R}{R+s} + \frac{(\Delta R)^2}{(R+s)^2} + \dots \right] - 1 \right]$$

neglecting higher order ΔR^2 etc.

$$\left\{ \left(1 + \frac{\Delta R}{R}\right) \left[1 - \frac{\Delta R}{R+s} \right] \right\} - 1$$

$$= \left(1 + \frac{\Delta R}{R}\right) - \frac{\Delta R}{R+s} - \frac{\Delta R^2}{R(R+s)}$$

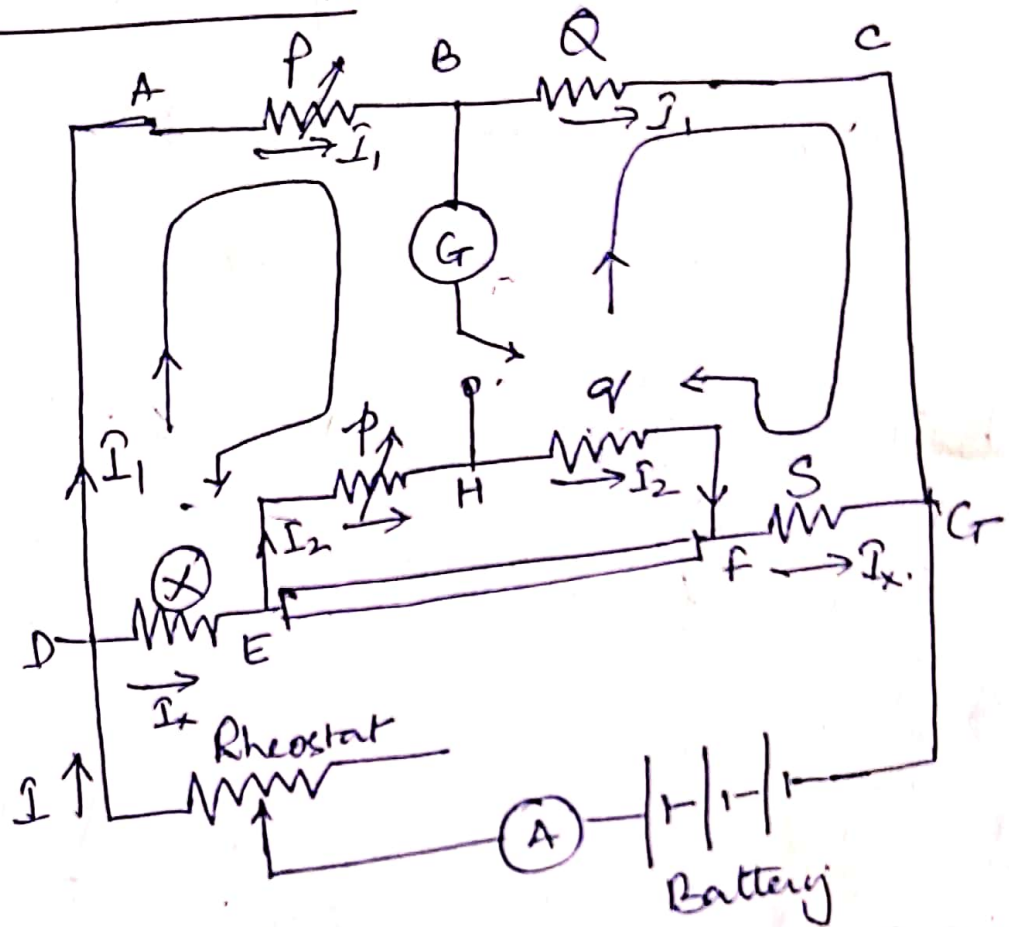
$$\frac{\Delta R(R+s) - R\Delta R - \Delta R^2}{R(R+s)} = \frac{\Delta R[R+s-R] - \Delta R^2}{R(R+s)}$$

$$= \frac{S \cdot \Delta R}{R(R+s)}$$

neglecting higher order

$$\therefore e = \left(\frac{E \cdot R}{R+s} \right) \left(\frac{S \cdot \Delta R}{R(R+s)} \right) = \frac{E S \cdot \Delta R}{(R+s)^2}$$

Kelvin's Double Bridge



(X) is the resistance under test and S is a standard resistance of similar range of X.
 (X) and (S) is connected by a very low resistance link EF:

P, Q, p, q are known, non inductive resistances
 when P, p are variable resistances.
 the ratio of P/Q and p/q is kept same
 till the galvanometer reads zero.

In the loops as shown.

$$I_1 \cdot P - I_2 \cdot p - I_x \cdot X = 0$$

$$\text{or } I_x \cdot X = I_1 P - I_2 \cdot p \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\text{Similarly: } I_1 Q - I_2 q + I_x S = 0$$

$$\text{or } I_x \cdot S = I_1 Q - I_2 q \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Dividing 1 by 2

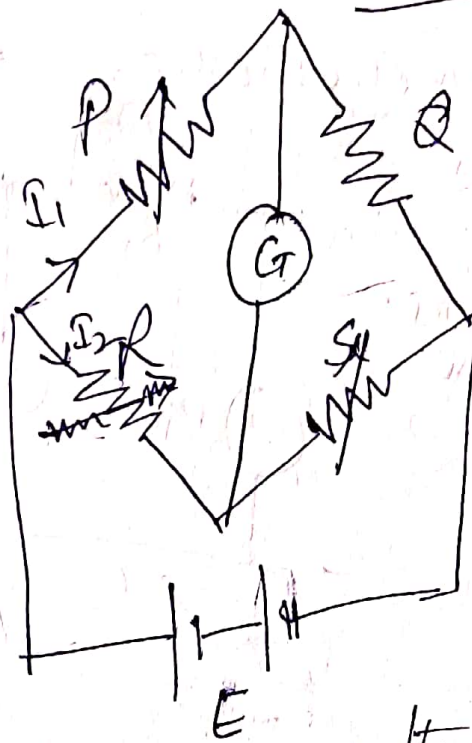
$$\frac{I_x \cdot X}{I_x \cdot S} = \frac{I_1 P - I_2 \cdot p}{I_1 Q - I_2 \cdot q} = \frac{P \left[I_1 - I_2 \frac{p}{P} \right]}{Q \left[I_1 - I_2 \frac{q}{Q} \right]}$$

$$\text{Since } \frac{p}{P} = \frac{q}{Q} \quad \text{hence } \frac{P}{Q} = \frac{p}{q}$$

$$\frac{X}{S} = \frac{P}{Q} \quad \text{hence } X = \frac{P}{Q} \cdot S$$

Medium Resistance

Wheat Stone Bridge



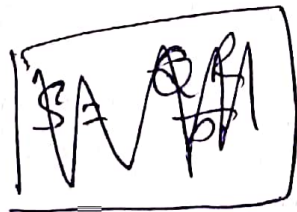
$R = \text{unknown}$

At balance, i.e. no current through galvanometer

$$I_1 P = I_2 R \quad \text{and} \quad I_1 Q = I_2 S$$

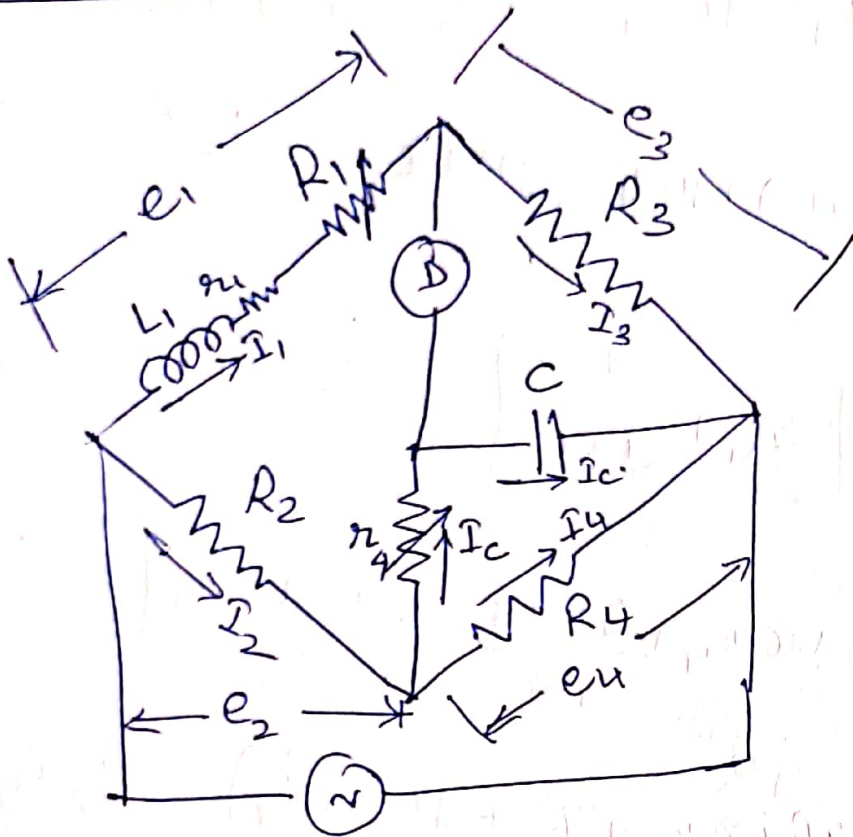
$$\text{or} \quad \frac{I_1 P}{I_1 Q} = \frac{I_2 R}{I_2 S}$$

$$\text{or} \quad \frac{P}{Q} = \frac{R}{S}$$



$$R = \frac{PS}{Q}$$

ANDERSON'S BRIDGE



$$V = V_m \sin \omega t$$

$$i = C \frac{dV}{dt} = \frac{C V_m \omega}{\cos \omega t}$$

$$C \cos \omega t = \sin(\omega t + 90)$$

$$i = C V_m \omega \sin(\omega t + 90)$$

$$Z = \frac{V}{i} = \frac{V_m L_0}{C \omega V_m L_0}$$

$$= \frac{1}{j \omega C}$$

Maxwell, Anderson, Wien, Heaviside, Campbell, Desauty, Schering, Kelvin Double bridge,

Unknown Inductor $r_1 + j\omega L_1$,
Connected to a known Resistance R_1 .

at balance $I_1 = I_3$; $I_2 = I_c + I_4$;

Equating Voltages:-

$$I_1 \cdot R_3 = \frac{I_c}{j\omega C} \quad \therefore I_c = j I_1 R_3 \omega C \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$I_1 (r_1 + R_1 + j\omega L_1) = I_2 \cdot R_2 + I_c \cdot r_4 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\text{also } I_c \left(r_4 + \frac{1}{j\omega C} \right) = (I_2 - I_c) R_4 \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Substituting for I_c in 2 & 3.

$$I_c \left[\frac{1}{j\omega C} \right]$$

$$\hat{I}_1 (R_1 + R_2 + j\omega L_1) = \hat{I}_2 R_2 + j\hat{I}_1 R_3 \omega C R_4 \quad (4)$$

$$\text{or } \hat{I}_1 \left[(R_1 + R_2) + j\omega L_1 - jR_3 \omega C R_4 \right] = \hat{I}_2 R_2 \quad (4)$$

From 3

$$j\hat{I}_1 R_3 \omega C \left[R_4 + \frac{1}{j\omega C} \right] = \left[\hat{I}_2 - j\hat{I}_1 R_3 \omega C \right] R_4$$

$$\text{or } \hat{I}_1 \left[jR_3 \omega C R_4 + \frac{jR_3 \omega C}{j\omega C} + jR_3 \omega C R_4 \right] = \hat{I}_2 R_4 \quad (5)$$

$$\text{or } \hat{I}_1 (jR_3 \omega C R_4 + R_3 + jR_3 \omega C R_4) = \hat{I}_2 R_4 \quad (5)$$

Dividing eq 4 by 5 from 4, 5

$$\frac{(R_1 + R_2) + j\omega L_1 - jR_3 \omega C R_4}{R_2} = \frac{jR_3 \omega C R_4 + j\omega C R_3 R_4 + R_3}{R_4}$$

i.e. Separating real & imaginary.

$$\frac{R_1 + R_2}{R_2} = \frac{R_3}{R_4} \quad \therefore R_1 = \frac{R_2 R_3}{R_4} - R_2$$

$$\frac{j\omega L_1 - jR_3 \omega C R_4}{R_2} = \frac{jR_3 \omega C R_4 + j\omega C R_3 R_4}{R_4}$$

$$\frac{L_1}{R_2} = \frac{R_3 C R_4 + C R_3 R_4}{R_4} + \frac{R_3 C R_4}{R_2}$$

$$\therefore L_1 = \frac{R_2 (R_3 C R_4 + C R_3 R_4 + R_3 R_4 C)}{R_4}$$

$$L_1 = \frac{C R_3}{R_4} \left[R_2 R_4 + R_2 R_4 + R_4 R_4 \right] = \frac{C R_3}{R_4} [R_2 (2R_4) + R_4^2]$$

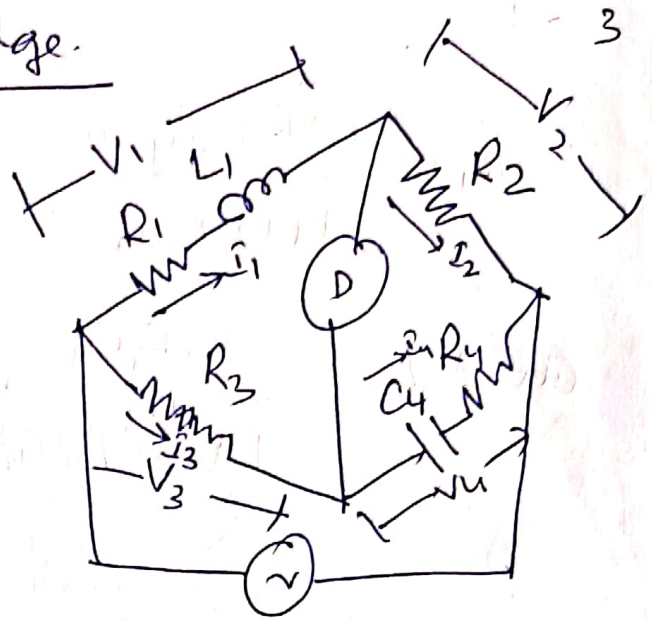
Hay's bridge.

$L_1, R_1 \rightarrow$ Inductor under test

$$Z_1 Z_4 = Z_2 Z_3$$

$$(R_1 + j\omega L_1) \left(R_4 + \frac{1}{j\omega C_4} \right)$$

$$= R_2 R_3$$



$$\frac{R_1 + j\omega L_1}{R_2} = \frac{R_3}{R_4 + \frac{1}{j\omega C_4}} = \frac{R_3}{R_4 - \frac{j}{\omega C_4}} = \frac{R_3 \omega C_4}{(\omega C_4 R_4 - j)}$$

~~$$\frac{R_1 + j\omega L_1}{R_2} = \frac{R_3 \omega C_4 (\omega C_4 R_4 + j)}{(\omega C_4 R_4)^2 + 1}$$

$$\frac{R_1}{R_2} + \frac{j\omega L_1}{R_2} = \frac{R_3 \omega^2 C_4^2 R_4}{\omega^2 C_4^2 R_4^2 + 1} + \frac{j R_3 \omega C_4}{\omega^2 C_4^2 R_4^2 + 1}$$~~

$$\frac{R_1}{R_2} + \frac{j\omega L_1}{R_2} = \frac{R_3}{R_4 - \frac{j}{\omega C_4}} = \frac{R_3 \omega C_4}{\omega R_4 C_4 - j}$$

$$= \frac{R_3 \omega C_4 (\omega R_4 C_4 + j)}{\omega^2 R_4^2 C_4^2 + 1}$$

$$\therefore \frac{R_1}{R_2} = \frac{R_3 \omega C_4 (\omega R_4 C_4)}{1 + \omega^2 R_4^2 C_4^2} \quad \& \quad \frac{\omega L_1}{R_2} = \frac{R_3 \omega C_4}{1 + \omega^2 R_4^2 C_4^2}$$

$$\therefore R_1 = \frac{\omega^2 R_2 R_3 R_4 C_4^2}{1 + \omega^2 R_4^2 C_4^2}$$

$$\text{and } L_1 = \frac{R_2 R_3 C_4}{1 + \omega^2 R_4^2 C_4^2}$$

OWEN'S Bridge

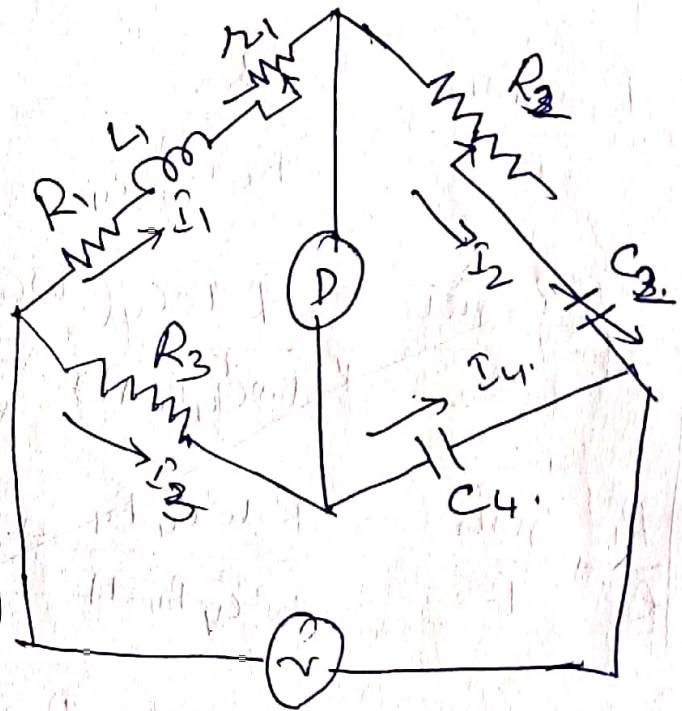
R_1, L_1 , unknown.

$$Z_1 Z_4 = Z_2 Z_3$$

$$[(R_1 + r_1) + j\omega L_1]$$

$$\left[\frac{1}{j\omega C_4} \right] = R_2 R_3$$

$$R_3 \left(R_2 + \frac{1}{j\omega C_2} \right)$$



$$\frac{[(R_1 + r_1) + j\omega L_1]}{R_3} = \frac{(R_2 + \frac{1}{j\omega C_2})}{\frac{1}{j\omega C_4}} = j\omega C_4 \left(R_2 + \frac{1}{j\omega C_2} \right)$$

$$\frac{j\omega C_4}{R_3} = j\omega C_4 R_2$$

$$\therefore L_1 = R_2 R_3 C_4$$

$$\frac{R_1 + r_1}{R_3} = \frac{C_4}{C_2}$$

$$R_1 = \frac{C_4 R_3}{C_2} - r_1$$

Anderson's Bridge.

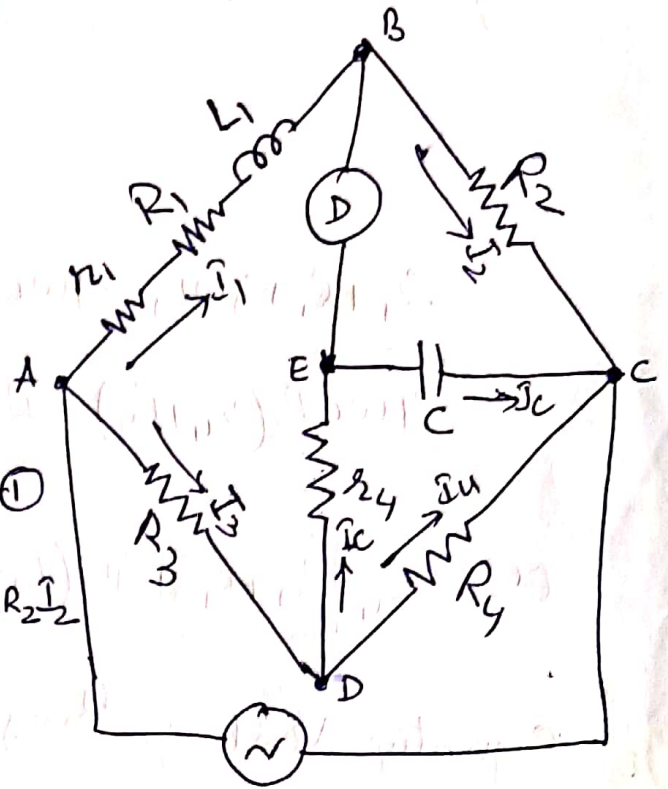
At balance.

$$I_1 = I_2; \quad I_3 = I_C + I_4.$$

$$I_1 (r_1 + R_1 + j\omega L_1) = I_3 R_3 + I_C \cdot r_4 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$I_2 R_2 = I_C \cdot \frac{1}{j\omega C} \quad \text{--- (2)} \quad \therefore I_C = j\omega C R_2 I_2$$

$$I_C (r_4 + \frac{1}{j\omega C}) = I_4 R_4 \quad \text{--- (3)}$$



Sub. (2) in (1) and equate $I_1 = I_2$

$$\therefore I_1 [r_1 + R_1 + j\omega L_1] = I_3 R_3 + j\omega C R_2 I_1 \cdot r_4.$$

$$\text{or } I_1 [r_1 + R_1 + j\omega L_1 - j\omega C R_2 r_4] = I_3 R_3 \quad \text{--- (A)}$$

Sub. (2) in (3) and $I_4 = I_3 - I_C$ and subst for I_C into (2) $I_2 = I_1$.

$$j\omega C R_2 I_2 \left(r_4 + \frac{1}{j\omega C} \right) = (I_3 - I_C) R_4 \\ = I_3 R_4 - j\omega C R_2 I_2 R_4.$$

$$\text{or } I_2 [j\omega C R_2 r_4 + R_2 + j\omega C R_2 R_4] = I_3 R_4.$$

$$\text{or } I_1 [j\omega C R_2 r_4 + R_2 + j\omega C R_2 R_4] = I_3 R_4 \quad \therefore I_2 = I_1. \\ \text{--- (B)}$$

Divide A/B and cross multiply.

$$\frac{r_1 + R_1 + j\omega L_1 - j\omega C R_2 r_4}{j\omega C R_2 (r_4 + R_4) + R_2} = \frac{R_3}{R_4}$$

$$\text{or } R_4 [r_1 + R_1 + j\omega(L_1 - C R_2 r_4)] = R_3 [j\omega C R_2 (r_4 + R_4) + R_2]$$

equating real & Imag. parts.

$$R_4 r_1 + R_4 R_1 = R_3 R_2$$

$$\therefore R_1 = \frac{R_3 R_2 - R_4 r_1}{R_4} = \frac{R_3 R_2}{R_4} - r_1$$

$$R_4 [L_1 - C R_2 r_4] = C R_2 (r_4 + R_4) R_3$$

$$\therefore L_1 = \cancel{C R_2 r_4} + C R_2 (r_4 + R_4)$$

$$= \cancel{C R_2 r_4} + C R_2 (r_4 + R_4)$$

$$L_1 = \cancel{R_4 C R_2 r_4} + \frac{C R_2 R_3 (r_4 + R_4)}{R_4}$$

$$R_4 L_1 - C R_4 R_2 r_4 = C R_2 (r_4 + R_4) R_3$$

$$R_4 L_1 = C R_4 R_2 r_4 + C R_2 R_3 (r_4 + R_4)$$

$$= C R_2 [R_4 r_4 + R_3 (r_4 + R_4)]$$

$$\therefore L_1 = \frac{C R_2}{R_4} [R_4 r_4 + R_3 (r_4 + R_4)]$$

Capacitance Measurements

① De Sauty's Bridge.

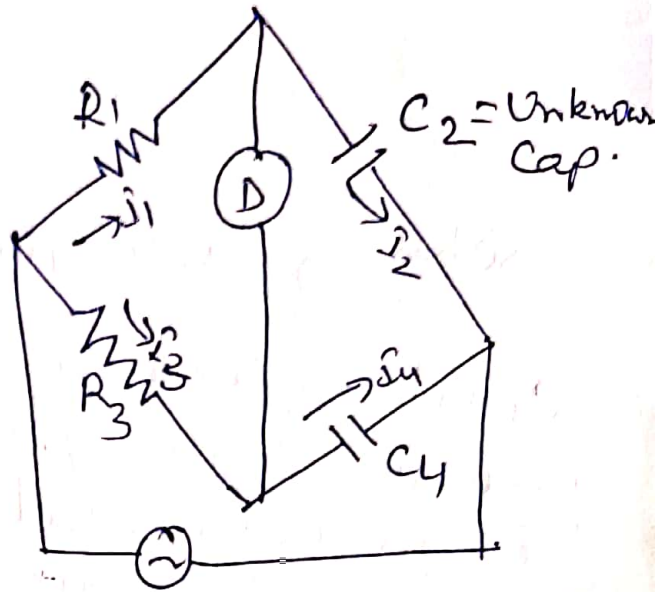
at balance $Z_1 Z_4 = Z_2 Z_3$.

$$Z_1 = R_1; \quad Z_2 = \frac{1}{j\omega C_2}$$

$$Z_3 = R_3; \quad Z_4 = \frac{1}{j\omega C_4}$$

$$\therefore \frac{R_1}{j\omega C_4} = \frac{R_3}{j\omega C_2}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{C_2 = \frac{R_3 \cdot C_4}{R_1}}$$



this is true only when C_2 & C_4 are pure capacitances. However

the practical capacitors have dielectric loss,

replace C_2 & C_4 with internal and external resistors

let r_2, r_4 be the internal resistances and R_2, R_4

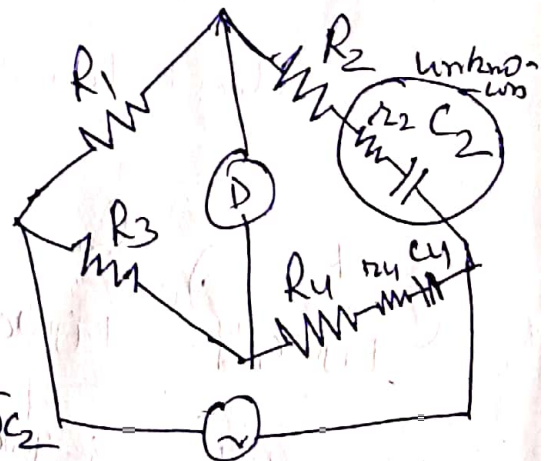
the external resistances.

the circuit is modified as:

At balance

$$R_1 \left(R_4 + r_4 + \frac{1}{j\omega C_4} \right) = R_3 \left(R_2 + r_2 + \frac{1}{j\omega C_2} \right)$$

$$\text{i.e. } R_1(R_4 + r_4) + \frac{R_1}{j\omega C_4} = R_3(R_2 + r_2) + \frac{R_3}{j\omega C_2}$$



Equating real & imaginary parts

$$R_1(R_4 + r_4) = R_3(R_2) + R_3 r_2$$

$$\text{also } \frac{R_1}{C_4} = \frac{R_3}{C_2} \therefore \boxed{C_2 = \frac{R_3 \cdot C_4}{R_1}}$$

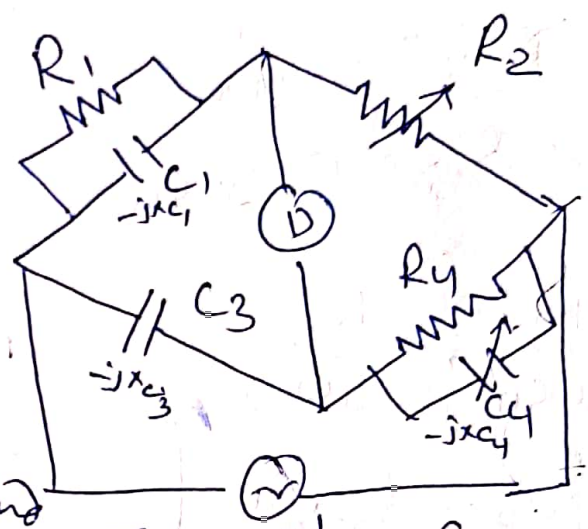
$$\therefore \boxed{r_2 = \frac{R_1(R_4 + r_4) - R_3(R_2)}{R_3}}$$

loss angle $\tan \delta_2 = \omega R_2 C_2$

& $\tan \delta_4 = \omega R_4 C_4$

Schering Bridge (Parallel)

C_1 is the capacitance under test and R_1 represents the equivalent dielectric loss component of resistance



C_3, R_2, C_4, R_4 are standard capacitors, resistances. R_1 is the dielectric loss component of C_1 capacitor

Impedance $Z_1 = \left[\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{-j\omega C_1} \right]^{-1} = \left[\frac{1}{R_1} + j\omega C_1 \right]^{-1} = \frac{R_1}{1 + j\omega C_1 R_1}$

$Z_2 = R_2$; $Z_3 = \frac{1}{j\omega C_3}$ $Z_4 = \frac{R_4}{1 + j\omega C_4 R_4}$

Under balanced condition $Z_1 Z_4 = Z_2 Z_3$

$\left(\frac{R_1}{1 + j\omega C_1 R_1} \right) \left(\frac{R_4}{1 + j\omega C_4 R_4} \right) = \frac{R_2}{j\omega C_3}$

or $\frac{R_1 R_4}{1 + j\omega C_1 R_1} \times \frac{1 - j\omega C_4 R_4}{1 - j\omega C_4 R_4} = \frac{(1 + j\omega C_4 R_4) R_2}{j\omega C_3}$

$= \frac{R_1 R_4 (1 - j\omega C_4 R_4)}{1 + \omega^2 C_1^2 R_1^2} = \frac{-j R_2 (1 + j\omega C_4 R_4)}{\omega C_3}$

$$ie \frac{R_1 R_4}{1 + \omega^2 C_1^2 R_1^2} - \frac{j \omega C_1 R_1^2 R_4}{1 + \omega^2 C_1^2 R_1^2} = \frac{-j R_2}{\omega C_3} + \frac{\omega C_4 R_2 R_4}{\omega C_3}$$

Equating real & imaginary parts.

$$\frac{R_1 R_4}{1 + \omega^2 C_1^2 R_1^2} = \frac{\omega C_4 R_2 R_4}{\omega C_3}$$

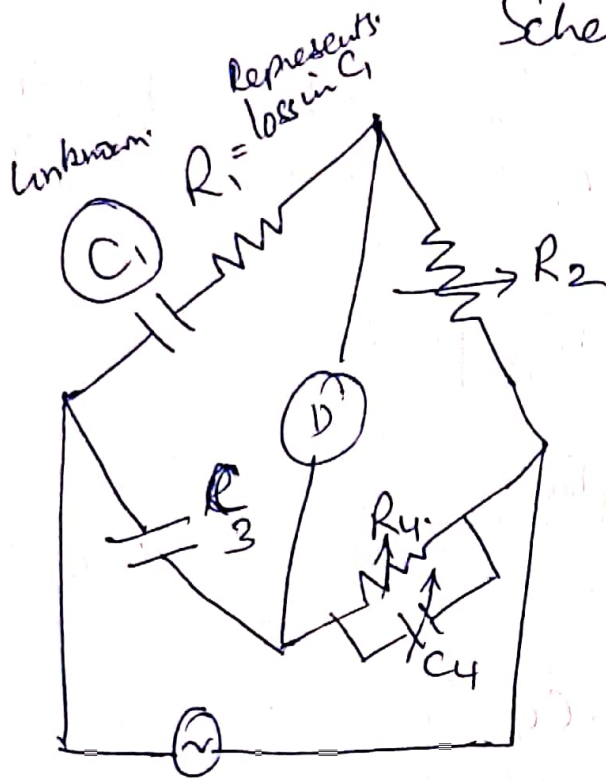
$$\therefore R_1 = \frac{R_2 (1 + \omega^2 C_1^2 R_1^2) \cdot C_4}{C_3}$$

imaginary part $\frac{\omega^2 C_1 R_1^2 R_4}{1 + \omega^2 C_1^2 R_1^2} = \frac{R_2}{C_3}$

$$\therefore C_1 = \frac{R_2 (1 + \omega^2 C_1^2 R_1^2)}{C_3 \omega^2 R_1^2 R_4}$$

Scheimp bridge (Series CR)

(4)



$$Z_1 = R_1 + \frac{1}{j\omega C_1}$$

$$Z_2 = R_2$$

$$Z_3 = \frac{1}{j\omega C_3}$$

$$Z_4 = \left[\frac{1}{R_4} + \frac{1}{\frac{1}{j\omega C_4}} \right]^{-1}$$

$$= \frac{R_4}{1 + j\omega C_4 R_4}$$

Balance $Z_1 Z_4 = Z_2 Z_3$

$$\left(R_1 + \frac{1}{j\omega C_1} \right) \left(\frac{R_4}{1 + j\omega C_4 R_4} \right) = \frac{R_2}{j\omega C_3}$$

$$\frac{(R_1 j\omega C_1 + 1) R_4}{j\omega C_1} = \frac{R_2 (1 + j\omega C_4 R_4)}{j\omega C_3}$$

$$\frac{j R_1 \omega C_1 R_4 + R_4}{C_1} = \frac{R_2}{C_3} + \frac{j \omega C_4 R_4 R_2}{C_3}$$

$$\frac{R_4}{C_1} = \frac{R_2}{C_3} \quad \text{or} \quad \boxed{C_1 = \frac{C_3 R_4}{R_2}}$$

$$j R_1 \omega C_1 R_4 = \frac{j \omega C_4 R_4 R_2}{C_3}$$

$$\boxed{\therefore R_1 = \frac{C_4 R_2}{C_3}}$$

Anderson bridge

Advantage :- ① fixed capacitor is used as again variable in maxwell bridge.

② easier to balance in terms of convergence when compared to maxwell bridge.

Disad :- 1) More no. of components, hence more diff. in balancing.
2) Shielding is more complicated.

Hay's bridge Disad :- 1) used for inductance when Q factor is very large.

2) Dependant on frequency ^{for very} Q factor, the measurements ^{expressions} tend to be simpler as in maxwell.

Owen's bridge Disad requires variable standard capacitance.. and should be large value when measuring coils of low Q factor.

Maxwell Wien bridge

Adv.

- ① Permits measurement of inductance in terms of capacitance as capacitance does not have an external field, hence compact and easily shielded.
- ② When the parallel branch of R, C is variable the balance is independent. They are decade resistance box and decade capacitance box.
- ③ the bridge balance does not get affected by frequency.
- ④ For the coil under test, can have large ^{current} rating f as long as the series resistor, under balance can carry that value of current safely.
- ⑤ $Q \text{ factor} = \frac{\omega L_1}{R_1} = \frac{\omega C_4 R_2 R_3}{\left(\frac{R_2 R_3}{R_1}\right)} = \omega C_4 R_4$
by maintaining C_4 constant, the resistance R_4 can be graduated for Q factor.

Disadv. 1) Requires variable standard resistor & capacitor which is a very expensive component.

2) good for Q factor $1 \leq Q \leq 10$.

Maxwell Wien bridge

Adv.

- ① Permits measurement of inductance in terms of capacitance as capacitance does not have an external field, hence compact and easily shielded.
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by maintaining C_4 constant, the Resistance R_4 can be graduated for Q factor.

Disadv.

- 1) Requires variable standard resistor & capacitor which is a very expensive component.
- 2) good for Q factor $1 \leq Q \leq 10$.

Comparison of Bridge methods - Advantages, disadvantages and Precautions

AC bridges — Measurement as in Wheatstone bridge balance method.
— More complex method of calculation.
— Error prone.

AC source — Power supply
Detector — sensitive to ac voltages like earphone.
Vibration galvanometer or tunable amplifier detector can be used.

Earphone at 1000 Hz, the ear sensitivity is very high. But at 50 Hz, 10^{-6} W is only noticeable. For inductor measurements, with non linear hysteresis loop, overtones are generated. Only a min tone can be achieved.

Precautions | Sources of errors :-

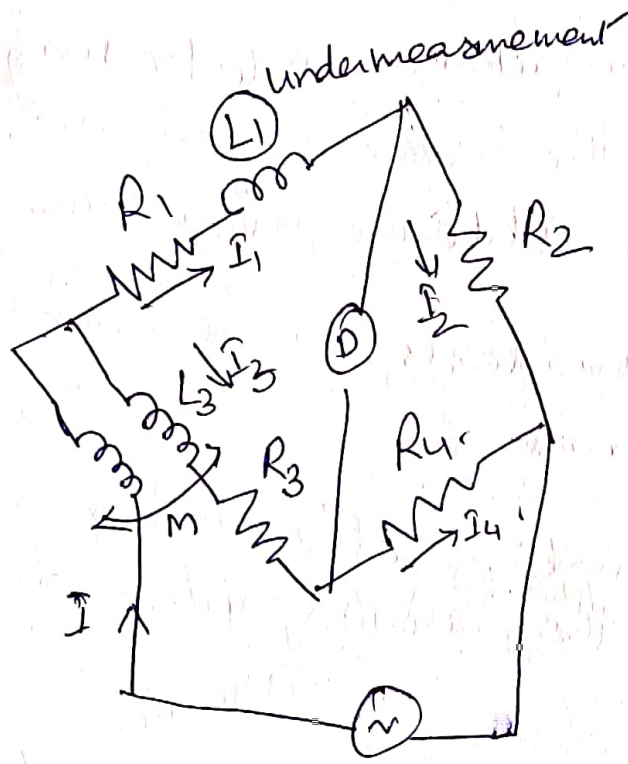
- 1) Stray magnetic fields
- 2) Leakage because of poor insulation
- 3) Eddy current errors
- 4) Frequency wave form errors.

↓
Change in supply frequency effects balance.
balance for fundamental frequency. When wave form changes, for the harmonics, the bridge may not be balanced.

Mutual Inductance

Heaviside Campbell Bridge

(5)



Balance Condition
 $I_1 = I_2$ & $I = I_1 + I_3$

~~$$I_1 R_2 = I_3 R_4$$~~

$$I_1 R_2 = I_3 R_4 \quad (1)$$

$$\begin{aligned} I_1 (R_1 + j\omega L_1) &= I_3 (R_3 + j\omega L_3) + j\omega M I \\ &= I_3 (R_3 + j\omega L_3) + j\omega M (I_1 + I_3) \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore I_1 (R_1 + j\omega L_1) - j\omega M I_1 = I_3 (R_3 + j\omega L_3) + j\omega M I_3 \quad (2)$$

Dividing 2 by 1

$$\frac{R_1 + j\omega L_1 - j\omega M}{R_2} = \frac{R_3 + j\omega L_3 + j\omega M}{R_4}$$

equating real & imag

$$\frac{R_1}{R_2} = \frac{R_3}{R_4} \quad \text{or} \quad R_1 = \frac{R_2 R_3}{R_4}$$

and

$$\frac{L_1 - M}{R_2} = \frac{L_3 + M}{R_4}$$

$$\therefore L_1 = \frac{R_2(L_3 + M) + R_4 M}{R_4}$$

Sources of Errors in bridge measurements (6)

① Stray magnetic fields. Detector may indicate a balance, when the bridge may not be balanced. Use of shields to isolate the bridge arms.

Loops formed by the leads are also one of the prime sources of errors.

For electrostatic coupling, electrostatic shields are used, wherever there are capacitive elements in the circuit.

② Leakage errors resulting from poor electrostatic and electro magnetic insulation.

③ Eddy current errors - avoid large masses near the bridge circuits.

④ Residual errors. Inductors / capacitors / resistors cannot be made as only a pure capacitor / inductor / resistor.

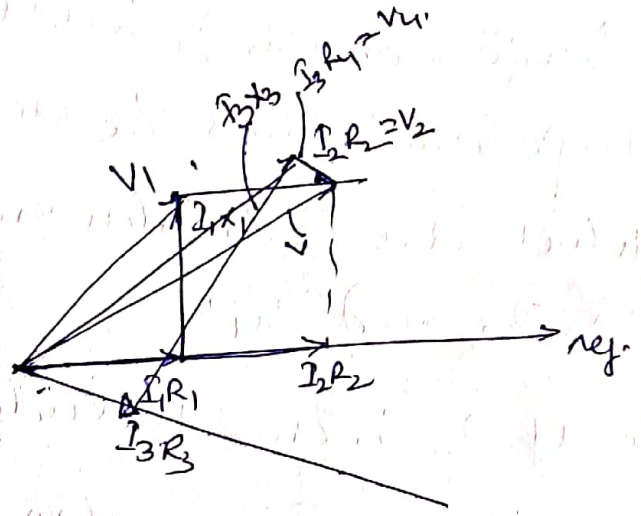
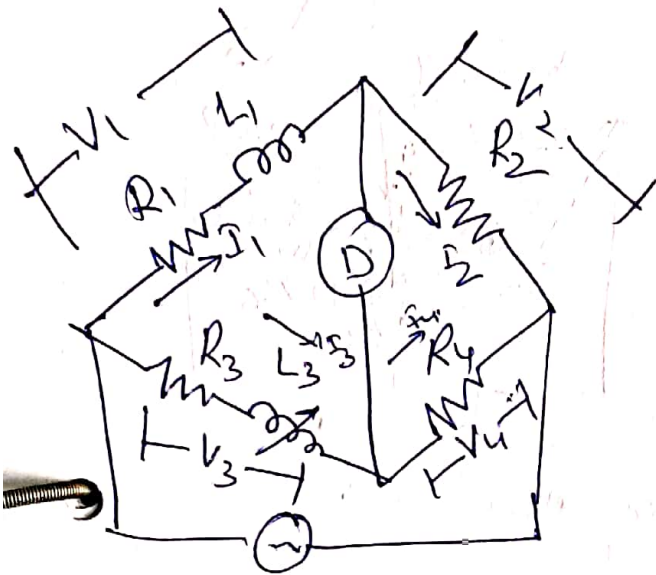
⑤ frequency of wave form errors.

When the results are dependant on frequency element and waveform.

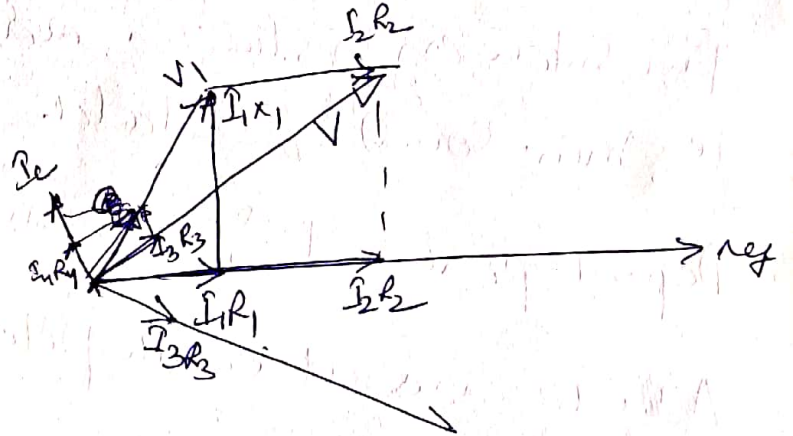
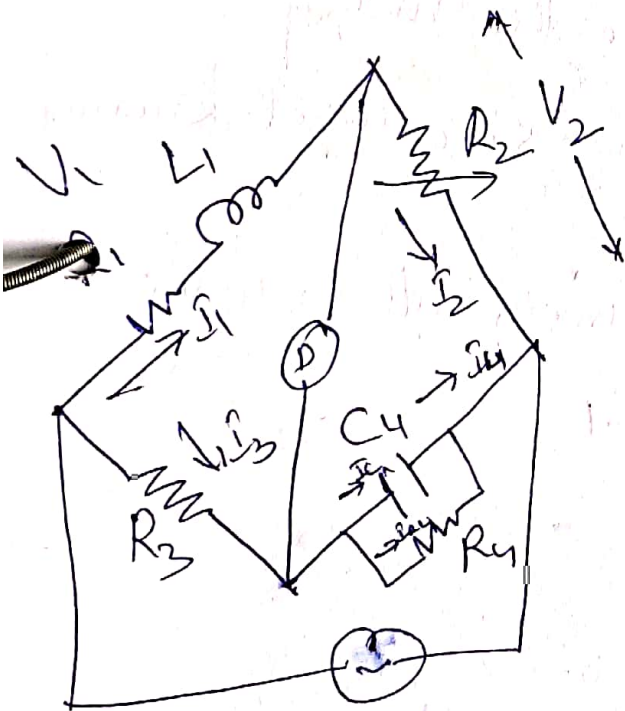
employ wave filters, to eliminate unwanted harmonics.

Phasor diagrams for bridge

① Maxwell's Inductance bridge



② Maxwell's Inductance Capacitance bridge



Wagner's Earthing Device

Device consists of 2 additional impedance arms Z_5 and Z_6 which are of similar nature of Z_3 and Z_4 .

i.e. if Z_3 is an inductance +

resistance, Z_5 is also of same nature.

Junction point of Z_5 & Z_6 is earthed.

C_1, C_2, C_3 and C_4 are stray capacitances

Switch on position (1) \rightarrow balance the bridge.

Put switch on position (2), adjust Z_5, Z_6 to get balance i.e. min. sound of detector.

Repeat positions 1 & 2 successively till null is obtained

A, B, C, E are at earth potential

