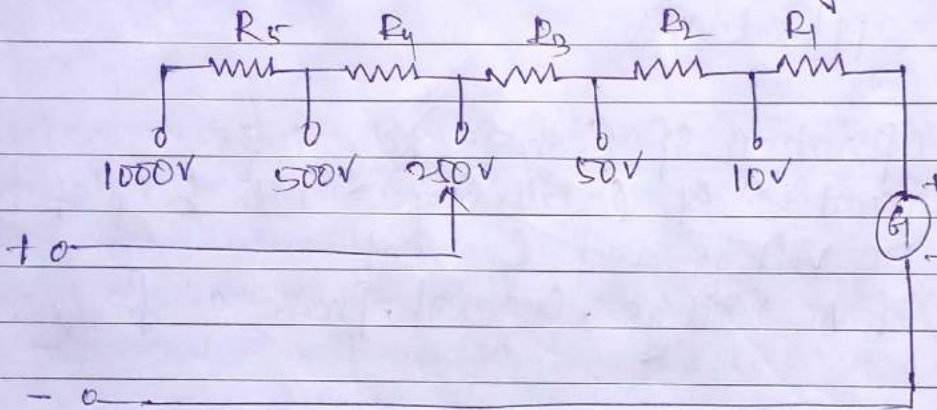


Principle and Construction of Multimeter

Multimeter is an instrument using which voltage, current and resistance can be measured. It has a function switch, which can be used to connect appropriate circuit for measurement of different quantities. It is also called "voltage-ohm-milli-ammeter" (VOM) meter.

Voltage measurement by multimeter

A galvanometer can be used as a voltmeter by connecting series resistance as shown in the figure



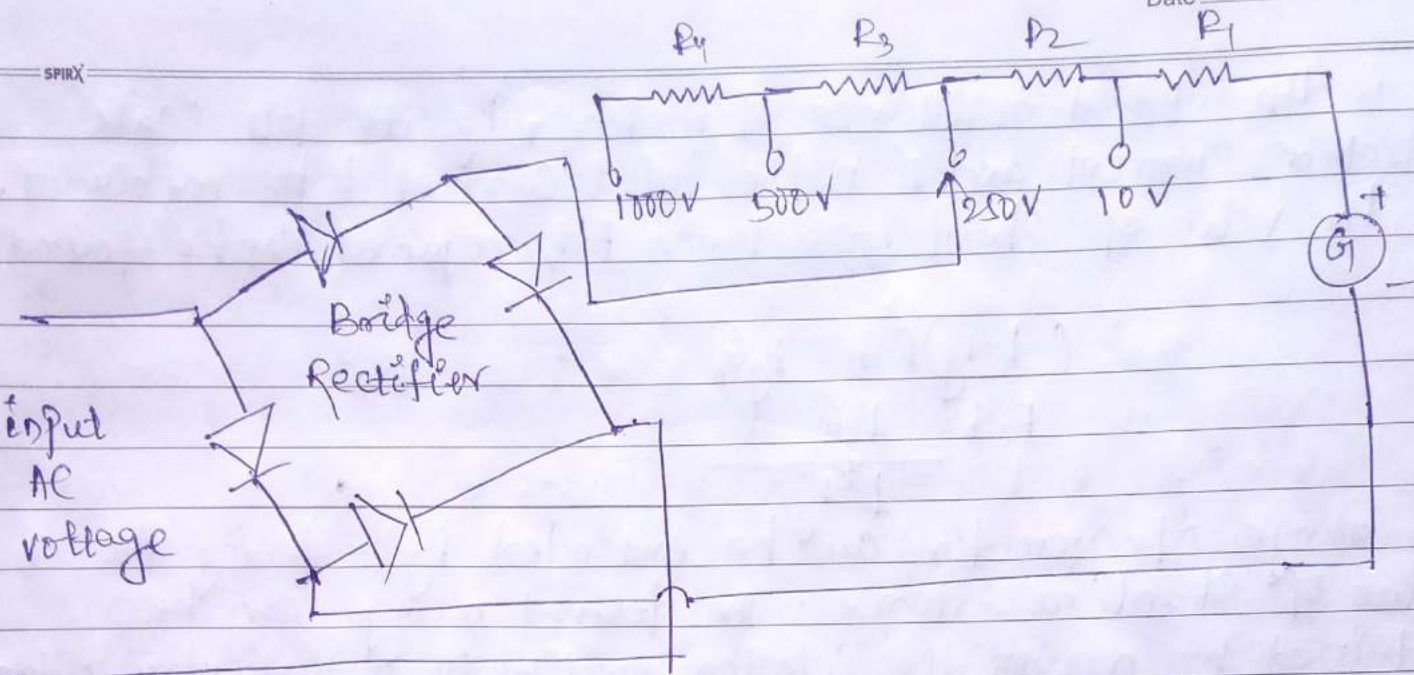
If the Galvanometer resistance is denoted by ' G ' and ' I_g ' is the full scale deflection current and the voltage to be measured is ' V ' volts, then the value of series resistance ' R_s ' is determined as

$$V = I_g R_s + I_g G$$

$$\Rightarrow R_s = \frac{V - I_g G}{I_g}$$

The resistance is also called multiplier. The voltage range can be increased by increasing the value of multipliers.

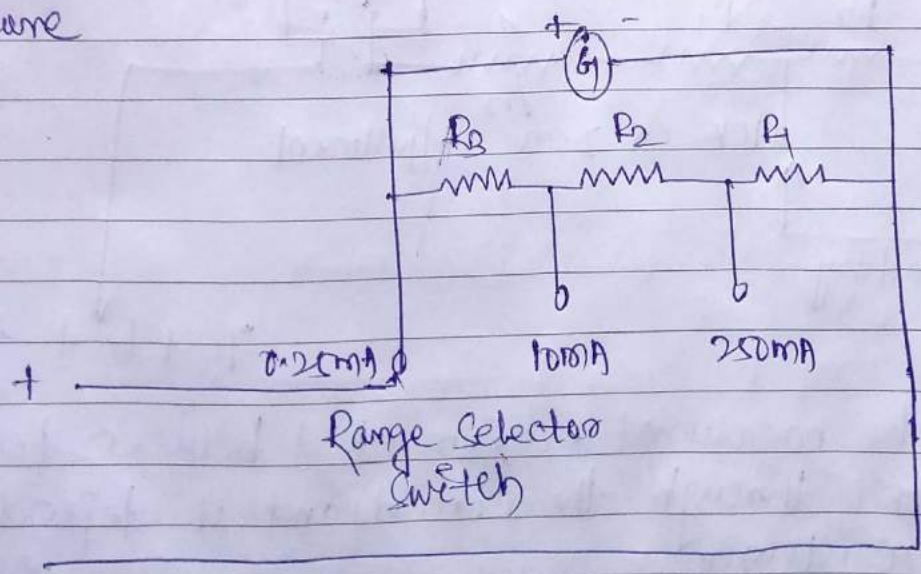
* The multiplier multimeter can also measure AC. For this purpose, a full wave rectifier can be connected which converts AC to DC for the application to galvanometer as shown in below figure.



Current M_v → while using Analog multimeter as a voltmeter it must be connected parallel with the portion of the circuit across which the voltage is being measured.

Current measurement by multimeters

→ The same Galvanometer can be used for measuring current when it is converted into an ammeter by connecting a small resistance R_{sh} in parallel with the meter as shown in figure



If G is the internal resistance of meter, I_g its full scale deflection current and I is the total current to be measured, then the value of shunt resistance R_{sh} required can be found as

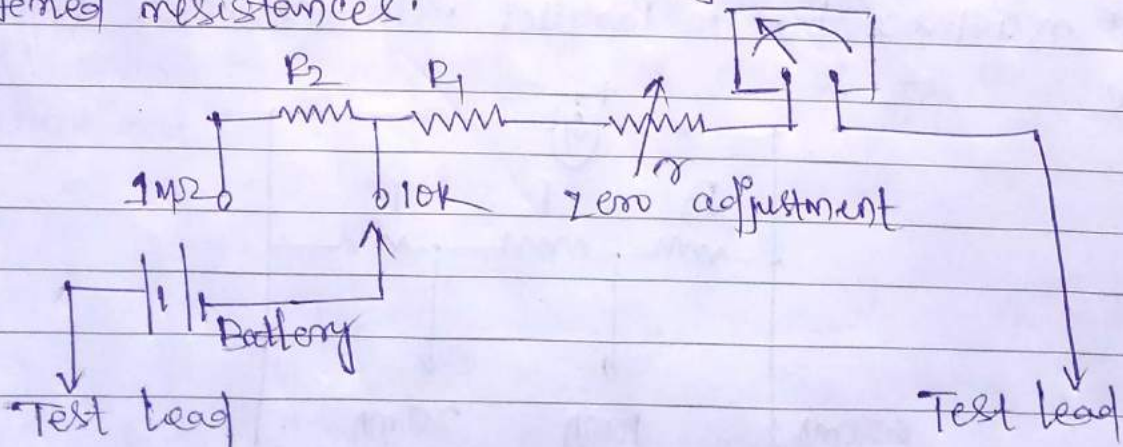
$$\Rightarrow (I - I_g)R_{sh} = I_g G$$

$$\Rightarrow R_{sh} = \frac{I_g G}{I - I_g}$$

- * The range of ammeter can be extended by reducing the value of shunt resistance. The desired range can be obtained by moving the selector switch to a particular position.
- * When using multimeters as an ammeter, it must be connected in series with the branch in which current to be measured.

Resistance Measurement by Multimeters

The same instrument can be used as an ohmmeter to measure resistances. In this circuit, an internal battery is connected in series with the meter through a variable resistance R_2 and fixed resistance.



- * The resistance to be measured is connected between test leads. Current flows through the circuit and it depends on the measuring resistance.
- * Galvanometer deflects according to the current but the scale is calibrated in ohms to give the value of resistance directly.

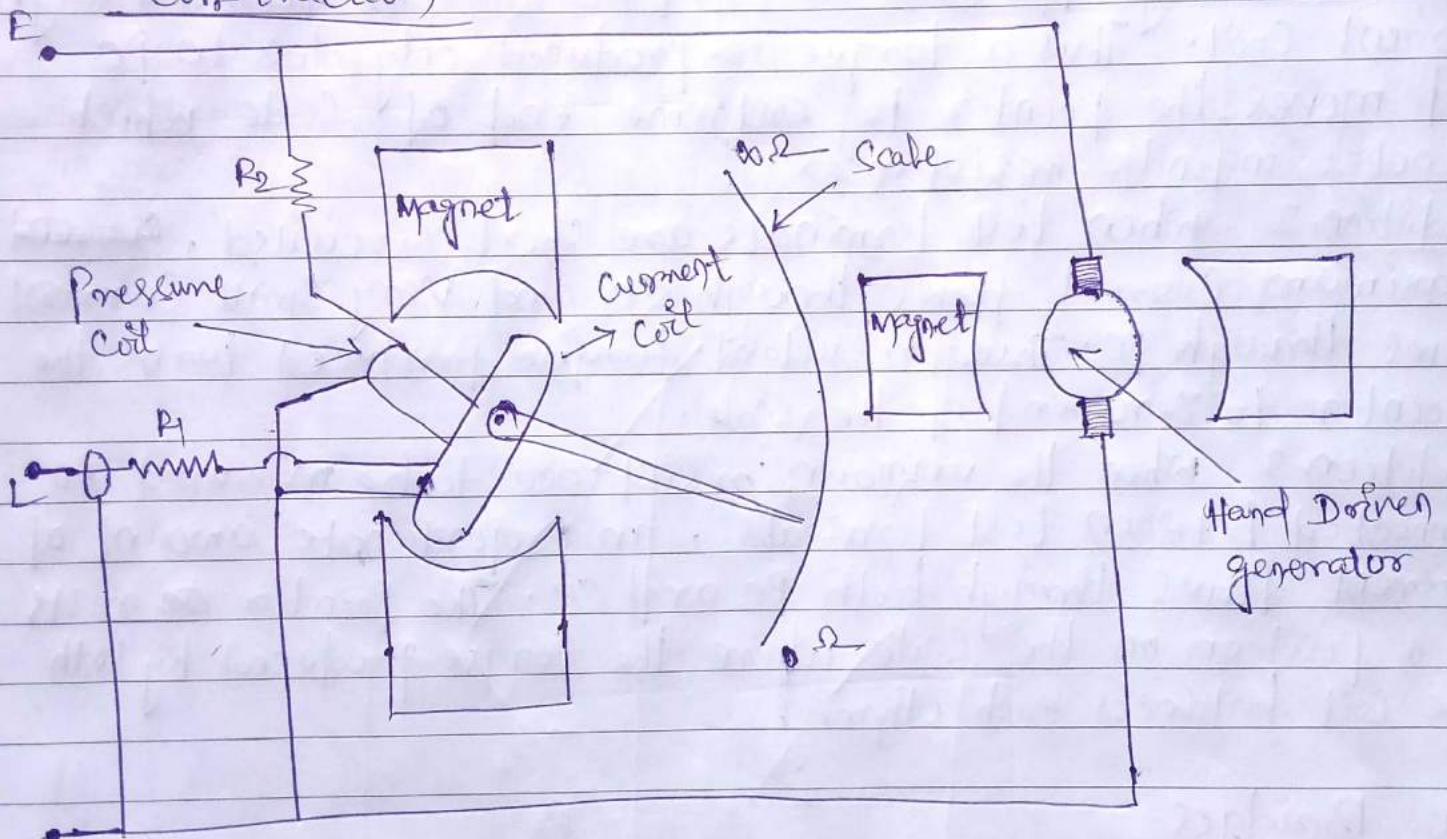
Construction and Principle of operation of Megger ^{Date}

Megger is an instrument used for measuring high resistances of the order of megohms and for testing the insulation resistance.

Megger Working Principle

When a current ~~carrying~~ carrying conductor is placed in a magnetic field, a mechanical force is experienced by it.

Construction



- It consists of a hand driven DC generator and a direct reading ohm meter.
- There are two coils, Pressure and Current coil which are fixed together at some angle and are free to rotate between the poles of a permanent magnet.
- Resistances R_1 and R_2 are connected in series with current and pressure coil to limit current.
- Guard ring is provided to shunt leakage current over the test terminals.

Working:-

The resistance under test is connected between test terminals 'L' and 'G'. The generator handle is then steadily turned till the pointer gives a steady reading.

Three conditions can be analysed in order to understand the working

Condition-1 When the test terminals are open, the generator sends current through potential coil and no current flows through current coil. Thus a torque is produced only due to PC and moves the pointer to extreme end of scale which denotes infinite resistance.

Condition-2 When test terminals are short circuited, ~~current~~ maximum current flows through CC and very small current flows through PC. Thus resultant torque produced turns the pointer to zero end of the scale.

Condition-3 When the unknown resistance to be measured is connected between test terminals, an proportionate amount of current flows through both PC and CC. The pointer ~~is~~ rests in a position on the scale where the torque produced by both the coil balances each other.

AC Bridges

AC bridges are mainly used for measurement of inductance, capacitance, loss factor etc.

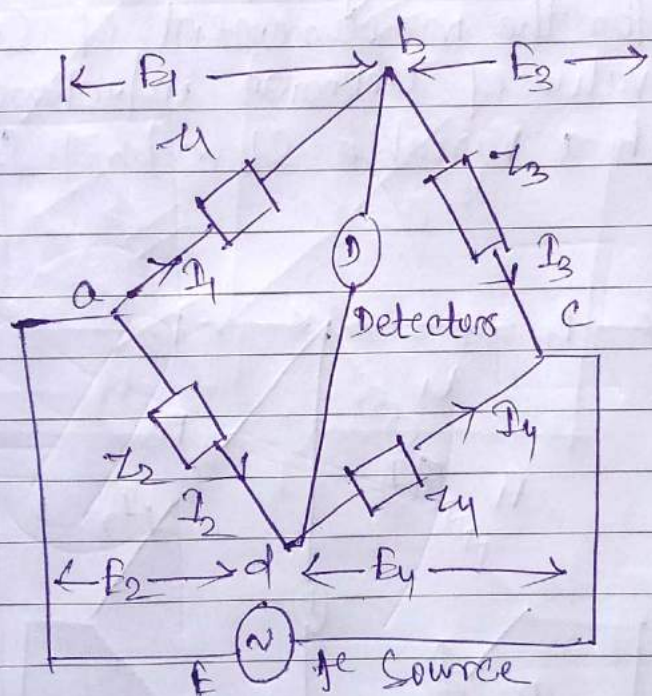
Unlike wheatstone bridge, it consists of four arms, a source of emf and a balance detector.

Out of four arms, two arms impedances are kept constant, one arm is made variable and an unknown impedance is connected between fourth arm.

Different detectors are used mainly depends on the frequency of operation. They are

- (i) Head Phones (frequency range 250Hz to 4kHz)
- (ii) Vibration Galvanometer (frequency range 5Hz to 1000Hz)
- (iii) Tuneable amplifier detector (frequency range 10Hz to 100kHz)

General Equation of Bridge Balance



At balance condition, no current flows through the detector. Thus $I_1 = I_3$ and $I_2 = I_4$ which means potential across point 'b' and 'd' are equal.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{So } &\Rightarrow V_{ba} = V_{da} \\
 &\Rightarrow E_1 = E_2 \\
 &\Rightarrow I_1 Z_1 = I_2 Z_2 \\
 &\Rightarrow \frac{E}{Z_1 + Z_3} \times Z_1 = \frac{E}{Z_2 + Z_4} \times Z_2 \quad \text{i.e. } I_1 = \frac{E}{Z_1 + Z_3} \\
 &\qquad\qquad\qquad I_2 = \frac{E}{Z_2 + Z_4} \\
 &\Rightarrow \frac{Z_1}{Z_1 + Z_3} = \frac{Z_2}{Z_2 + Z_4}
 \end{aligned}$$

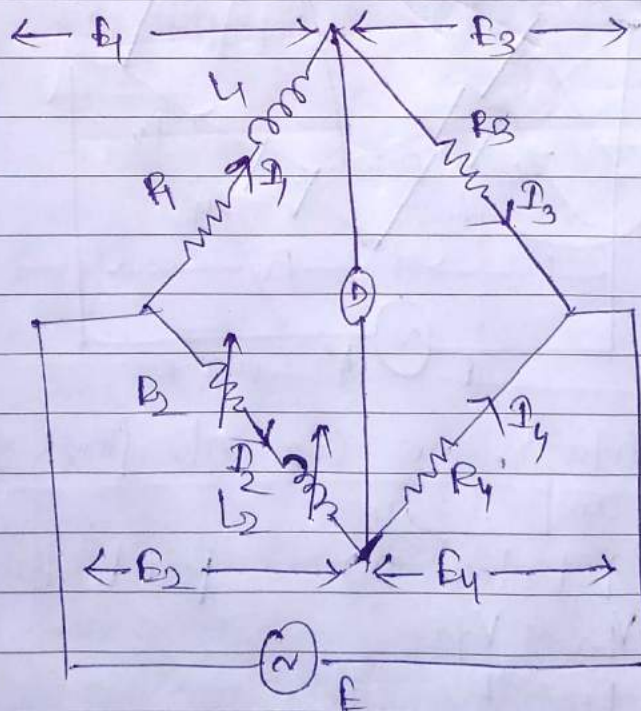
$$\Rightarrow Z_1 Z_2 + Z_1 Z_4 = Z_1 Z_2 + Z_2 Z_3$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{Z_1 Z_4 = Z_2 Z_3} \quad \text{Condition of balance.}$$

Measurement of Inductance by Maxwell's Bridge Method

The bridge used for the measurement of self inductance of the circuit. The value of unknown inductance is determined by comparing it with a variable standard self inductance.

Circuit Diagram:-



L_1 → Unknown inductance of resistance R_1

L_2 → Variable inductance

R_2 → variable resistance connected in series with inductor L_2

R_3, R_4 → known non inductive resistance.

Impedances of four arms are

$$Z_1 = R_1 + j\omega L_1$$

$$Z_2 = R_2 + j\omega L_2$$

$$Z_3 = R_3$$

$$Z_4 = R_4$$

At balance condition $\Rightarrow Z_1 Z_4 = Z_2 Z_3$

$$\Rightarrow (R_1 + j\omega L_1) \times R_4 = (R_2 + j\omega L_2) \times R_3$$

$$\Rightarrow R_1 R_4 + j\omega L_1 R_4 = R_2 R_3 + j\omega L_2 R_3$$

Comparing real part

$$\Rightarrow R_1 R_4 = R_2 R_3$$

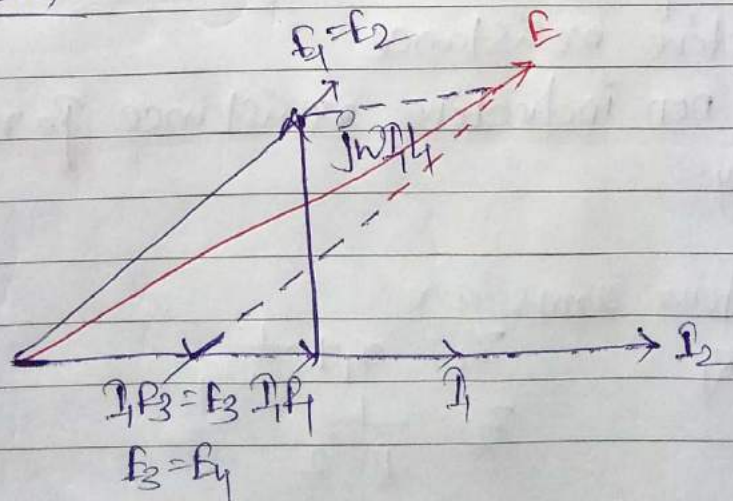
$$\Rightarrow R_1 = \frac{R_2 R_3}{R_4}$$

Comparing imaginary part

$$\Rightarrow j\omega L_1 R_4 = j\omega L_2 R_3$$

$$\Rightarrow L_1 = \frac{L_2 R_3}{R_4}$$

Phasor Diagram



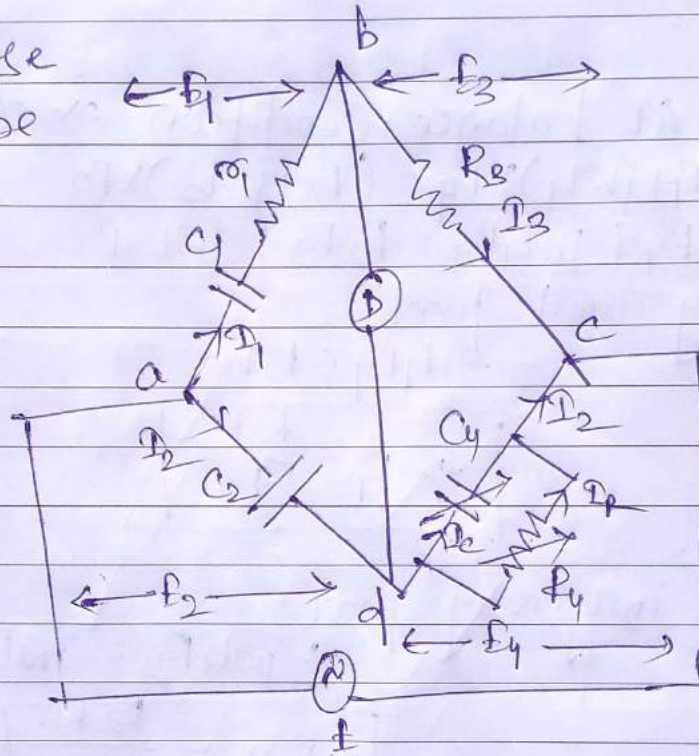
Measurement of Capacitance by Schering Bridge Method Date _____

It is the most commonly used bridge for measurement of capacitance.

Circuit Diagram

Let $C_1 \rightarrow$ Capacitor whose capacitance is to be determined.

$r_1 \rightarrow$ Series resistance representing loss resistance of capacitor C_1



$C_2 \rightarrow$ A standard capacitor

$C_1 \rightarrow$ A variable capacitor

$R_3 \rightarrow$ A non inductive resistance

$R_4 \rightarrow$ A variable non inductive resistance parallel to variable capacitor C_1 .

Impedance of four arms are

$$Z_1 = r_1 + \frac{1}{j\omega C_1}$$

$$Z_2 = \frac{1}{j\omega C_2}$$

$$Z_3 = R_3$$

$$Z_4 = \frac{R_4 \times \frac{1}{j\omega C_1}}{R_4 + \frac{1}{j\omega C_1}} = \frac{R_4}{1 + j\omega C_1 R_4}$$

$$Z_3 = R_3$$

$$Z_4 = \frac{R_4 \times \frac{1}{j\omega C_1}}{R_4 + \frac{1}{j\omega C_1}} = \frac{R_4}{1 + j\omega C_1 R_4}$$

At balance condition

$$\Rightarrow Y_1 Z_2 = Z_1 Z_3$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(R_1 + \frac{1}{j\omega C_1} \right) \left(\frac{R_2}{1 + j\omega C_2 R_2} \right) = \frac{1}{j\omega C_2} \times R_3$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(R_1 + \frac{1}{j\omega C_1} \right) \times R_2 = \frac{R_3}{j\omega C_2} \times (1 + j\omega C_2 R_2)$$

$$\Rightarrow R_1 R_2 + \frac{R_2}{j\omega C_1} = \frac{R_3}{j\omega C_2} + \frac{R_3 C_2 R_2}{C_2}$$

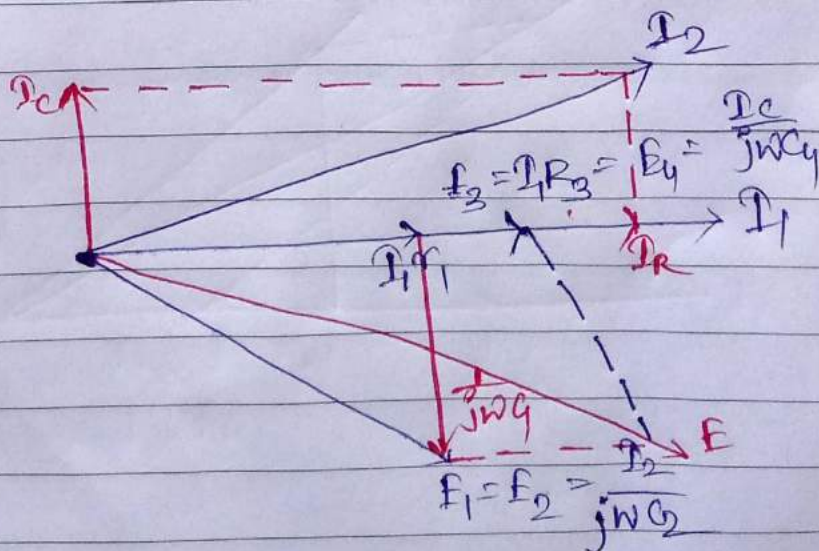
Comparing real part $\Rightarrow R_1 R_2 = \frac{R_3 C_2 R_2}{C_2}$

$$\Rightarrow R_1 = \frac{R_3 C_2}{C_1}$$

Comparing imaginary part $\Rightarrow \frac{R_2}{j\omega C_1} = \frac{R_3}{j\omega C_2}$

$$\Rightarrow C_1 = \frac{R_3 C_2}{R_2}$$

Phasor Diagram



12/10/20

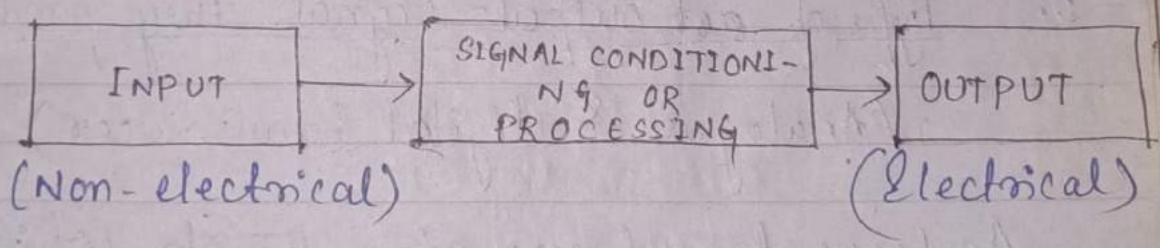
TRANSDUCER

* It is basically measuring the non-electrical quantities in terms of electrical standards.

* A transducer/sensor is a device which measures the non-electrical quantities like temp, pressure, force, displacement in terms of electrical standards. - (1 mark)

* A transducer is consisting of 3 components

- Input device
- Signal conditioning or processing
- Output



* There are 3 types of classification

1. On the basis of application :-
(primary transducer, secondary transducer)

A transducer sense a signal directly then it is known as PRIMARY TRANSDUCER

If the i/p signal is primarily sensed by a detector or sensor and

→ Eg:- Thermistor

145 Transducer

then it is given to the transducer then it is known as SECONDARY TRANSDUCER.

2. On the method of energy conversion:-

(Active & passive transducer)

If the transducer generates the o/p in the form of electrical voltage or current then it is known without any auxiliary source, then it is known as ACTIVE TRANSDUCER.
Eg:- Piezoelectric accelerometer, sec. transformer, thermocouple

If the non-electrical quantities are measured by influence of an ext. source, then it is PASSIVE TRANSDUCER.

Eg:- Strain gauge, resistance temperature detectors (RTD's) & thermistors

3. Type of output signal they produce:-

(Analogue & digital transducer)

Analogue transducers give the o/p which is a continuous function of time.

Eg:- Thermistor, LVDT, thermocouple, strain gauge etc.

Digital transducer gives the o/p which is discrete function of time, or pulse

Eg:- Tachometer

These digital transducers are becoming more popular nowadays because due to the fact that digital signals can be transmitted over a long distance without causing much distortion due to amplitude variations & phase shift.

LVDT - linear va
full form

THERMISTOR

It is a tran
value in te

Temp

It is very effective detector Thermistor semiconductor unique coefficient

i.e T

There are of various composed like The res varies

Link LVDT - linear variable voltage transformer
Full form

THERMISTOR :-

It is a transducer which measures temperature in terms of current.

Temp \rightarrow Resistance \rightarrow Current

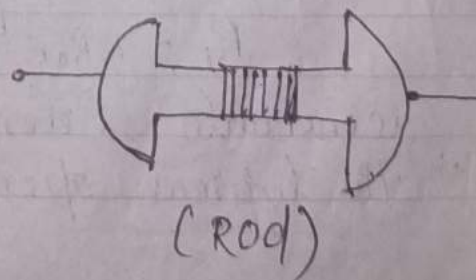
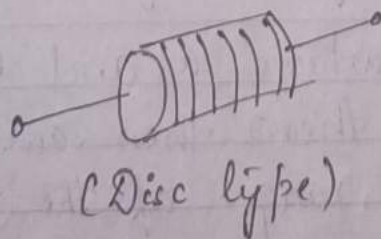
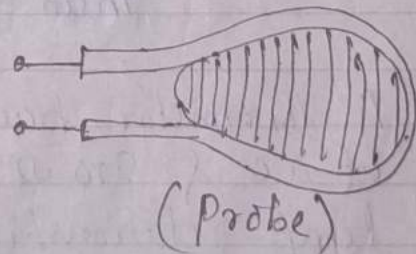
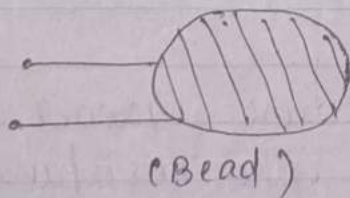
It is very much sensitive device and more effective than resistance temperature detector (RTD).

Thermistor is basically consisting of semiconducting materials having an unique property -ve temperature coefficient of resistance.

i.e. $T \uparrow \rightarrow I \uparrow / R \downarrow$

T = Temp.
R = Resistance
I = Current

There are different thermistor available of various shape & size and basically composed of mixture of metallic oxides like Mn, Ni, Co, Cu, Fe and Uranium etc. The resistance range of thermistor varies from 0.5 Ω to 75 M Ω .

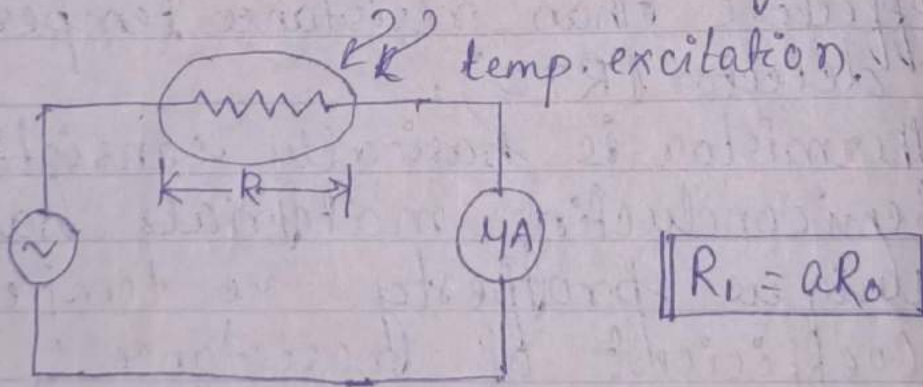


& phase shift.

11/10/2011

THERMISTOR :-

Basically the thermistor is used to measure the temperature by employing heat in a circuit as a linear resistor. The resistance of the resistor goes on varying in a -ve temperature coefficient relationship and succeedingly the surrounding temperature in the circuit can be easily measured.



The representation of a thermistor is given by above equⁿ.

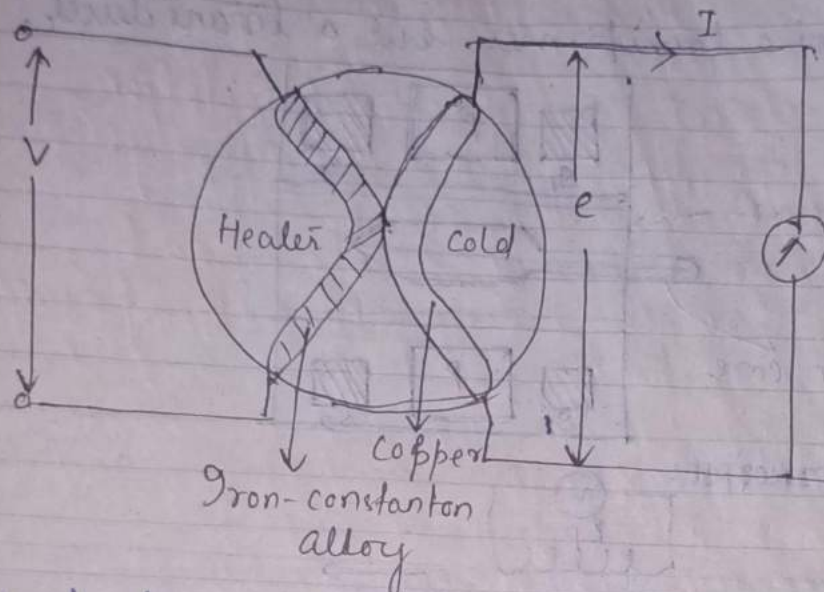
R_0 = resistance of the thermistor at 0°C or 273K (T_0)

R_t = final value of resistance

It is the changed resistance at T_1 which is the other absolute temp.

than T_0 (T_1 may be more or less than T_0)

Thermocouple



Constantan = Ni (45%) + Cu (55%)

These are two metals having different work function are placed together in a transformer principle. The junction which is formed is placed/kept in a sealed chamber in order to have no leakage of the temperature when the heat flows to the colder element. Subsequently produce EMF which produces current 'I' which is measured by the microammeter and ultimately we can say this transducer measures internal set temperature in terms of current.

Cold part is made up of Copper
 heater part is made up of Iron-constantan alloy.

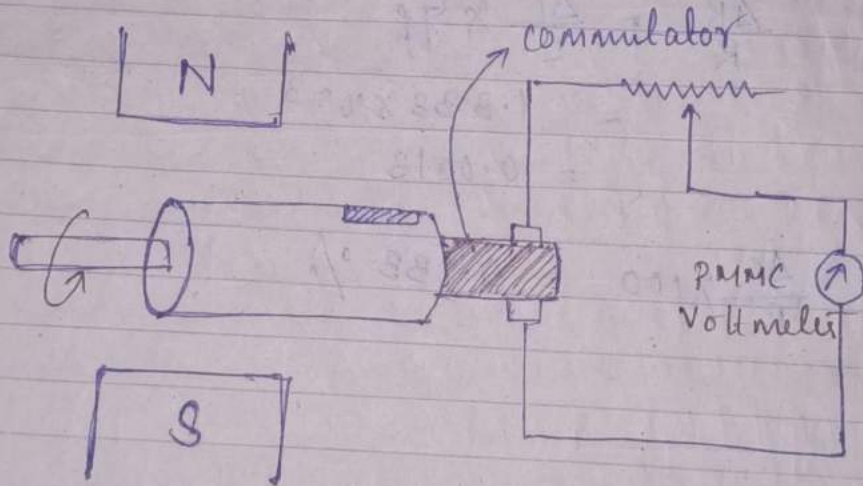
— Measurement of Torque by Tachometer —

A Tachometer (Tachogenerator) is a device which is used to measure angular velocity. There are two basic types of Tachometer available.

- (a) Electrical
- (b) Digital.

→ Electrical :- (a) AC
(b) DC

DC Tachometer :-



Ques

What is the relationship b/w "no load condⁿ" of a gen. which is coupled with ~~the~~ motor and load condⁿ when the gen. is connected to motor.

* consisting of a small armature having a shaft which is to be coupled to a machine whose rotation we want to measure. It is having commutator and brush connected as shown.

* There is a secondary xkt which take care of the EMF generated

$$E = \frac{P \Phi Z N}{60 A}$$

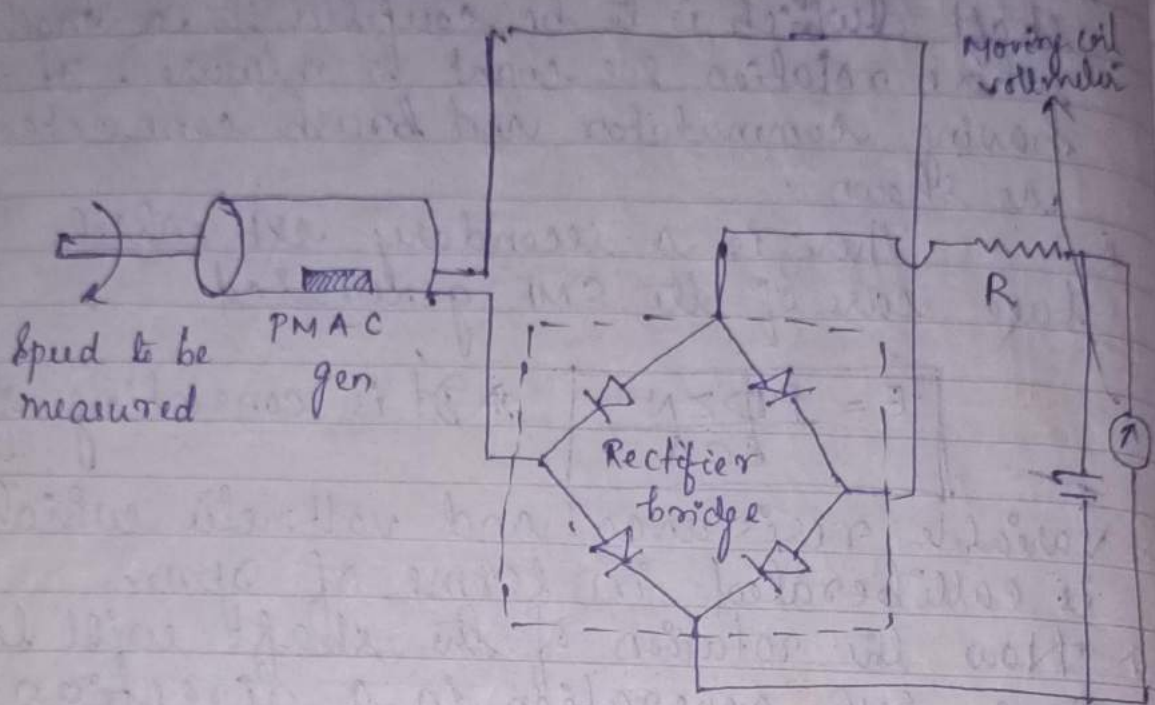
* It is consisting of variable resistance and voltmeter which is calibrated in terms of rpm.

* Now the rotation of the shaft will lead to a EMF generation in a direction proportion ($e \propto N$) which is measured by the PMMC voltmeter with a less accuracy.

Disadvantages:-

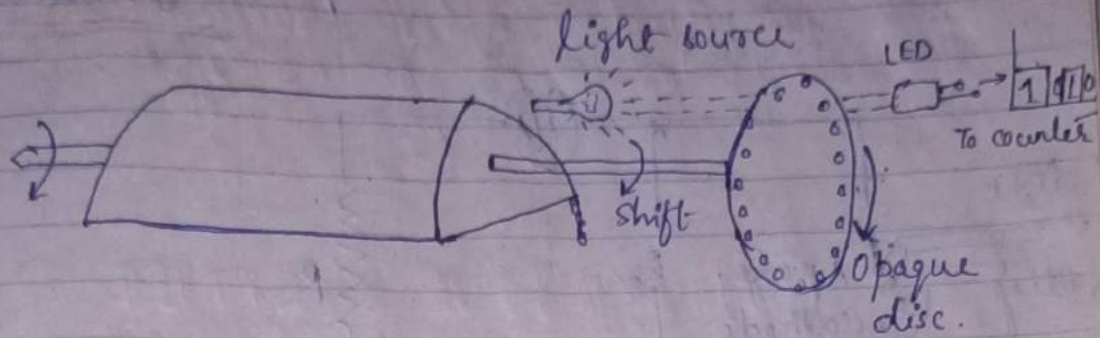
* The system is bulky, inefficient, does not give complete DC, and also Analogue type.

AC TACHOMETER :-



In this case PMAC ^{gen} motor (Permanent magnet AC gen) is used which causes an EMF to be induced on the secondary side which is proportional to the speed of rotation. In order to get a better accuracy the ~~op~~ of the AC gen is fed to a rectifier bridge. The ~~op~~ of bridge rectifier (consist of 4 diode) is connected with R-C ckt which removes the ripple contents present in the signal (EMF) & the same is given to moving coil voltmeter which is calibrated in terms of speed to measure the exact amt of ac voltage.

(DIGITAL / PHOTO ELECTRIC) TACHOMETER



- (a) In this case an opaque disc is also known as photoelectric tachometer mounted on the rotating shaft. The disc has a no. of equidistant holes on its periphery when the opaque medium comes b/w the path of the light source & LED as shown in the figure. The sensor is unilluminated & produces a LOW, NULL sp.
- (b) When the hole comes in b/w the path we get an sp high on the LED & a pulse is generated on the digital counter connected to the sp of LED.
- (c) The series of binary readings formulated via BCD gives a 7-segment display of the decimal spm.
- (d) This one is lighter & more efficient & less costly.

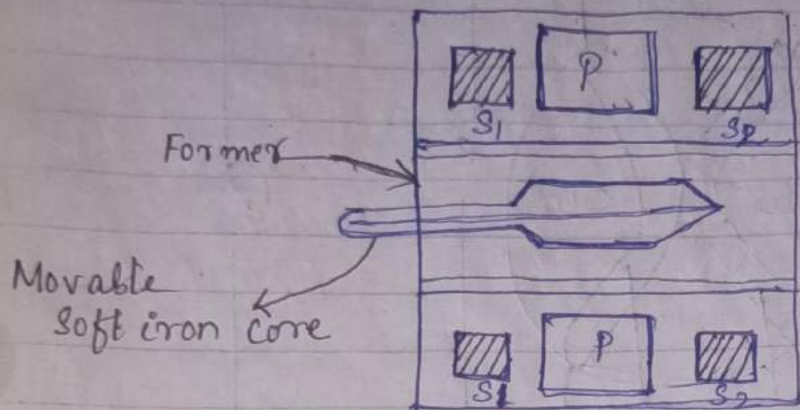
omp

*

LINEAR Variable Differential Transformer

LVDT

It is not a transformer but a transducer.



WORKING PRINCIPLE:



It is the most widely used inductive transducer which transduces the linear motion to EMF.

CONSTRUCTION:—

There is a transformer which is consisting of one primary windings 'P' and two secondary windings S_1 & S_2 surrounding the primary. S_1 & S_2 have equal no. of turns.

There is a movable soft iron core placed inside the 'former' (It is an housing).

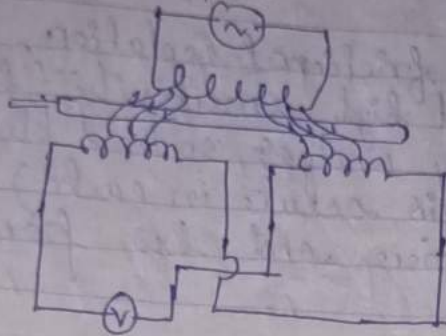
The iron core is having high permeability.

It is made up of Nickel-iron alloy which is hydrogen annealed (sudden cooling given to hot iron to solidify)

Annealed:- The hot material is cooled and hardened to strengthen the solid.

- The former is made up of stainless steel with proper shielding.

WORKING PRINCIPLE:-



$$E_0 = E_{S1} - E_{S2}$$

(Resultant Secondary EMF)

There is a differential of p in the secondary

$$E_0 = E_{S1} - E_{S2}$$

The flux paths produced by the E_p are linked by the iron core which is placed in the magnetic medium.

- (i) When the iron core is at middle position, the flux linking to both S_1 & S_2 are equal
 Hence $\boxed{E_{S1} = E_{S2}}$ and $\boxed{E_0 = 0}$ and

we get no displacement in the core.

- (ii) If the core is moving to left then more flux links S_1 and $\boxed{E_{S1} > E_{S2}}$ and E_0 is having a increasing +ve value.

- (iii) If the core is moving to right then more flux links S_2 and $E_{S2} > E_{S1}$ and E_0 is having ~~decreasing~~ increasing -ve value.

Short Qns!

Advantage :- over ordinary transducer.

- (i) High range for measurement of linear displacement.
- (ii) Electrical and frictional isolation.
- (iii) High i/p and high sensitivity (beoz of two secondary windings, so the flux accumulation is acute in each)
- (iv) Low hysteresis and low power consumption.

Disadvantages :-

- (i) Transducer performance can be affected by vibrations.
- (ii) Ext. temp. effect is over the cu wire which leads to misguided result in EMF.

Note:-

In a gas filled type the transmission of ϵ is much faster than vacuum type.

CAPACITIVE TRANSDUCER

$$C = \frac{\epsilon_0 \epsilon_r A}{d}$$

ϵ_0 = permittivity of medium
 A = overlapping area in
 d = distance btwn plates

* Displacement is measured in terms of change in Farad.

$$\epsilon = \epsilon_0 \times \epsilon_r \quad \epsilon_0 = 8.85 \times 10^{-12}$$

* A capacitive transducer uses the concept of parallel plate capacitor.

In a parallel plate capacitor it transduces the displacement into change in capacitance which is caused due to

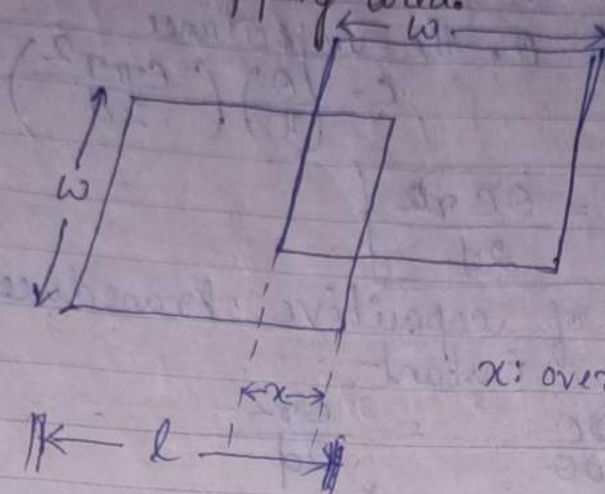
(i) Change in overlapping area

(ii) Change in distance btw the plates

(iii) Change in permittivity

Out of the above three, the change in permittivity is less. Hence the total change in capacitance mainly depends upon 1st & 2nd points.

change in capacitance due to change in overlapping area:-



x: overlapping area.

The capacitance is directly proportional to overlapping area

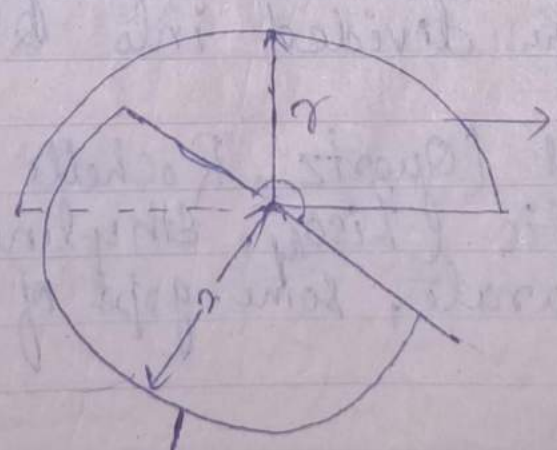
$$C = \frac{\epsilon A}{d} = \frac{\epsilon (wx)}{d}$$

$$C_{max} = \frac{\epsilon (wl)}{d}$$

Sensitivity of capacitive transducer at any instant is defined as

$$S = \frac{\partial C}{\partial x} = \frac{\epsilon w}{d}$$

For angular displacement of capacitive plate



fixed plate

radius is same

Rotating plate

$$C_{max} = \frac{\epsilon r r^2}{2d}, \quad C = \frac{\epsilon A}{d}$$

At any angle θ , the capacitance

$$C = \left(\frac{\theta}{\pi}\right) \left(\frac{\epsilon r r^2}{2d}\right)$$

$$\therefore \boxed{C = \frac{\theta \epsilon r^2}{2d}}$$

Sensitivity of capacitive transducer at any instant

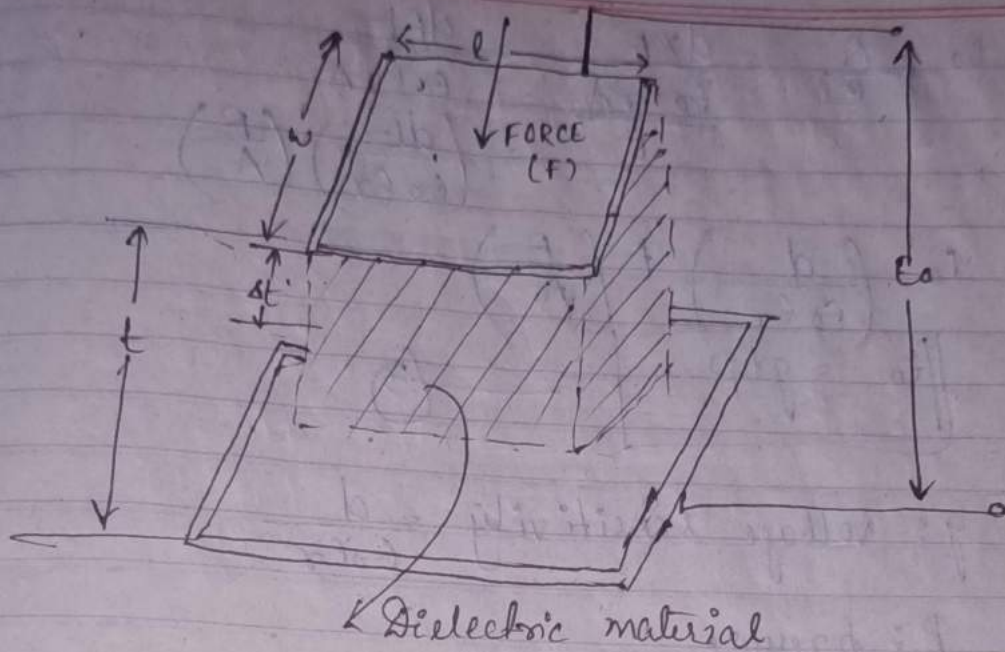
$$S = \frac{dc}{d\theta} = \frac{\epsilon r^2}{2d}$$

PIEZOELECTRIC TRANSDUCER

A piezo-electric material when subjected to stress, then the dimension of material changes which lead to electronic deformations within the atomic structure & later on, this leads to the rise of potential difference across the material and vice-versa. This phenomenon is known as piezoelectric effect. It is reversible process.

Some common materials showing piezo electric properties are divided into 2 groups

- natural (Quartz, Rochelle salt)
- synthetic (Lisoi, Ethylene diamine tartrate, some groups of benzene)



The charge which is developed due to deformation often lead to SMP

$$E_0 = Q/c$$

c : capacitance

Q : charge

$$Q = d \times F$$

①

d : charge sensitivity of a crystal Coul/N .

F : applied force in N

$$\gamma \text{ (Young's Modulus)} = \frac{\text{stress}}{\text{strain}}$$

$$= \frac{F/A}{\Delta t/t}$$

$$F = \left(\frac{\Delta Y}{t} \right) \Delta t \quad \text{--- ②}$$

$$A = w \times l$$

Hall Effect Transducer

Definition: The **hall effect** element is a type of **transducer** used for **measuring** the **magnetic field** by **converting** it into an **emf**. The direct measurement of the magnetic field is not possible. Thus the Hall Effect Transducer is used. The **transducer converts** the **magnetic field** into an **electric quantity** which is easily **measured** by the **analogue** and **digital meters**.

Principle of Hall Effect Transducer

The principle of hall effect transducer is that if the current carrying strip of the conductor is placed in a transverse magnetic field, then the EMF develops on the edge of the conductor.

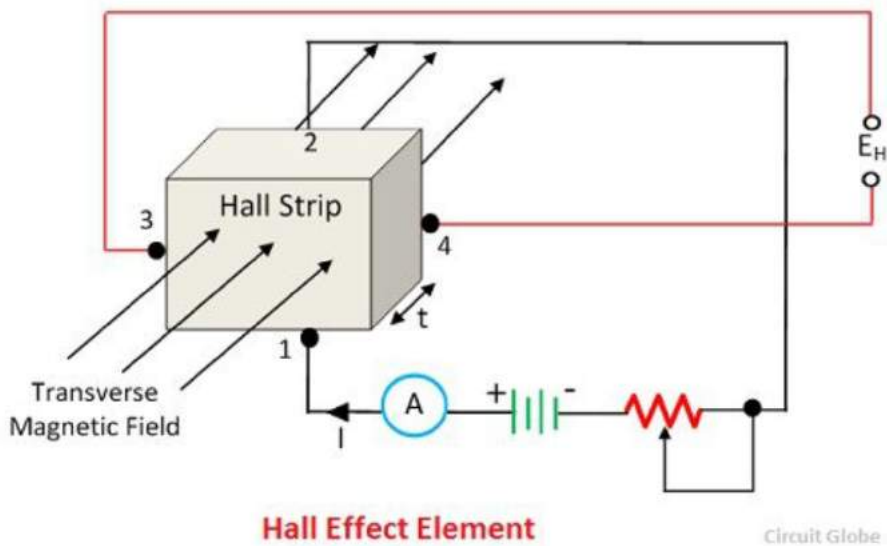
The magnitude of the develop voltage depends on the density of flux, and this property of a conductor is called the Hall effect. The Hall effect element is mainly used for magnetic measurement and for sensing the current.

The metal and the [semiconductor](#) has the property of hall effect which depends on the densities and the mobility of the electrons.

Consider the hall effect element shown in the figure below. The current supply through the lead 1 and 2 and the output is obtained from the strip 3 and 4. The lead 3 and 4 are at same potential when no field is applied across the strip.

densities and the mobility of the electrons.

Consider the hall effect element shown in the figure below. The current supply through the lead 1 and 2 and the output is obtained from the strip 3 and 4. The lead 3 and 4 are at same potential when no field is applied across the strip.



When the magnetic field is applied to the strip, the output voltage develops across the output leads 3 and 4. The develops voltage is directly proportional to the strength of the material.

The output voltage is,

$$E_H = K_H IB / t$$

where,

K_H – Hall effect coefficient : $\frac{V - m}{\dots}$

When the magnetic field is applied to the strip, the output voltage develops across the output leads 3 and 4. The developed voltage is directly proportional to the strength of the material.

The output voltage is,

$$E_H = K_H IB / t$$

where,

$$K_H - \text{Hall effect coefficient ; } \frac{V - m}{A - Wbm^{-2}}$$

$$t - \text{thickness of Strip ; } m$$

The I is the current in ampere and the B is the flux densities in Wb/m^2

The current and magnetic field strength both can be measured with the help of the output voltages. The hall effect EMF is very small in conductors because of which it is difficult to measure. But semiconductors like germanium produces large EMF which is easily measured by the moving coil instrument.

Applications of Hall Effect Transducer

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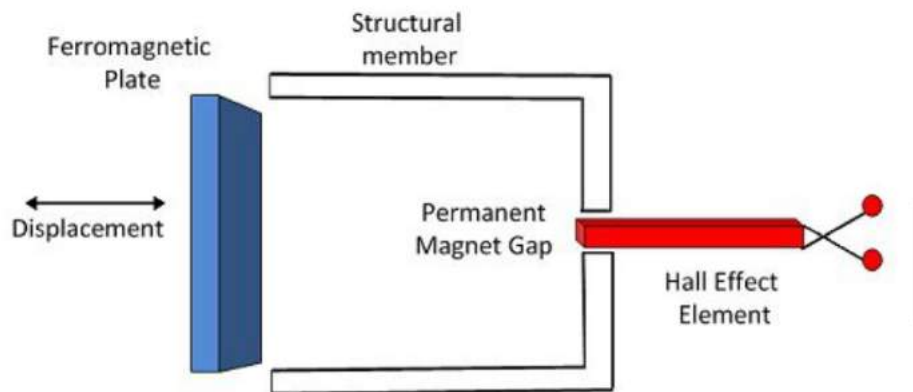
The following are the application of the Hall effect Transducers.

1. Magnetic to Electric Transducer – The Hall effect element is used for converting the magnetic flux into an electric transducer. The magnetic fields are measured by placing the semiconductor material in the measurand magnetic field. The voltage develops at the end of the semiconductor strips, and this voltage is directly proportional to the magnetic field density.

The Hall Effect transducer requires small space and also gives the continuous signal concerning the magnetic field strength. The only disadvantage of the transducer is that it is highly sensitive to temperature and thus calibration requires in each case.

2. Measurement of Displacement – The Hall effect element measures the displacement of the structural element. **For example** – Consider the ferromagnetic structure which has a permanent magnet.

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Measurement of Displacement Using Hall Effect Transducer

Circuit Globe

The hall effect transducer placed between the poles of the permanent magnet. The magnetic field strength across the hall effect element changes by changing the position of the ferromagnetic field.

3. Measurement of Current – The hall effect transducer is also used for measuring the current without any physical connection between the conductor circuit and meter.

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3. Measurement of Current – The hall effect transducer is also used for measuring the current without any physical connection between the conductor circuit and meter.

The AC or DC is applied across the conductor for developing the magnetic field. The strength of the magnetic field is directly proportional to the applied current. The magnetic field develops the emf across the strips. And this EMF depends on the strength of the conductor.

4. Measurement of Power – The hall effect transducer is used for measuring the power of the conductor. The current is applied across the conductor, which develops the magnetic field. The intensity of the field depends on the current. The magnetic field induces the voltage across the strip. The output voltage of the multiplier is proportional to the power of the transducer.

Cathode Ray Oscilloscope (CRO)

Definition: The cathode ray oscilloscope (CRO) is a type of electrical instrument which is used for showing the measurement and analysis of waveforms and others electronic and electrical phenomenon. It is a very fast X-Y plotter shows the input signal versus another signal or versus time. The CROs are used to analyse the waveforms, transient, phenomena, and other time-varying quantities from a very low-frequency range to the radio frequencies.

The CRO is mainly operated on voltages. Thus, the other physical quantity like current, strain, acceleration, pressure, are converted into the voltage with the help of the transducer and thus represent on a CRO. It is also used for knowing the waveforms, transient phenomenon, and other time-varying quantity from a very low-frequency range to the radio frequencies.

The CRO has Stylus (i.e., a luminous spot) which move over the display area in response to an input voltage. This luminous spot is produced by a beam of electrons striking on a fluorescent screen. The normal form of the CRO uses a horizontal input voltage which is an internally generated ramp voltage called “time base”.

The horizontal voltage moves the luminous spot periodically in a horizontal direction from left to right over the display area or screen. The vertical voltage is the voltage under investigation. The vertical voltage moves the luminous spot up and down on the screen. When the input voltage moves very fast on the

internally generated ramp voltage called “time base”.

The horizontal voltage moves the luminous spot periodically in a horizontal direction from left to right over the display area or screen. The vertical voltage is the voltage under investigation. The vertical voltage moves the luminous spot up and down on the screen. When the input voltage moves very fast on the screen, the display on the screen appears stationary. Thus, CRO provides a means of the visualising time-varying voltage.

Construction of Cathode Ray Oscilloscope

The main parts of the cathode ray oscilloscope are as follows.

1. Cathode Ray Tube
2. Electronic Gun Assembly
3. Deflecting Plate
4. Fluorescent Screen For CRT
5. Glass Envelop

Their parts are explained below in details



3. Deflecting Plate
4. Fluorescent Screen For CRT
5. Glass Envelop

Their parts are explained below in details.

1. Cathode Ray Tube

The cathode ray tube is the vacuum tube which converts the electrical signal into the visual signal. The cathode ray tube mainly consists the electron gun and the electrostatic deflection plates (vertical and horizontal). The electron gun produces a focused beam of the electron which is accelerated to high frequency.

The vertical deflection plate moves the beams up and down and the horizontal beam moved the electrons beams left to right. These movements are independent to each other and hence the beam may be positioned anywhere on the screen.

2. Electronic Gun Assembly

The electron gun emits the electrons and forms

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2. Electronic Gun Assembly

The electron gun emits the electrons and forms them into a beam. The electron gun mainly consists a heater, cathode, a grid, a pre-accelerating anode, a focusing anode and an accelerating anode. For gaining the high emission of electrons at the moderate temperature, the layers of barium and strontium is deposited on the end of the cathode.

After the emission of an electron from the cathode grid, it passes through the control grid. The control grid is usually a nickel cylinder with a centrally located co-axial with the CRT axis. It controls the intensity of the emitted electron from the cathode.

The electron while passing through the control grid is accelerated by a high positive potential which is applied to the pre-accelerating or accelerating nodes.

The electron beam is focused on focusing electrodes and then passes through the vertical and horizontal deflection plates and then goes on to the fluorescent lamp. The pre-accelerating and accelerating anode are connected to 1500v, and the focusing electrode is connected to 500 v. There are two methods of focusing on the electron beam. These methods are

- ✓ Electrostatic focusing
- ✓ Electromagnetic focusing.

The CRO uses an electrostatic focusing tube.

3. Deflecting Plate

The electron beam after leaving the electron gun passes through the two pairs of the



The CRT uses an electrostatic focusing tube.

3. Deflecting Plate

The electron beam after leaving the electron gun passes through the two pairs of the deflecting plate. The pair of plate producing the vertical deflection is called a vertical deflecting plate or Y plates, and the pair of the plate which is used for horizontal deflection is called horizontal deflection plate or X plates.

4. Fluorescent Screen for CRT

The front of the CRT is called the face plate. It is flat for screen sized up to about 100mm×100mm. The screen of the CRT is slightly curved for larger displays. The face plate is formed by pressing the molten glass into a mould and then annealing it.

The inside surface of the faceplate is coated with phosphor crystal. The phosphor converts electrical energy into light energy. When an electronics beam strike phosphor crystal, it raises their energy level and hence light is emitted during phosphorous crystallisation.





The inside surface of the faceplate is coated with phosphor crystal. The phosphor converts electrical energy into light energy. When an electronics beam strike phosphor crystal, it raises their energy level and hence light is emitted during phosphorous crystallisation. This phenomenon is called fluorescence.

5. Glass Envelope

It is a highly evacuated conical shape structure. The inner surface of the CRT between the neck and the screen is coated with the aquadag. The aquadag is a conducting material and act as a high-voltage electrode. The coating surface is electrically connected to the accelerating anode and hence help the electron to be the focus.

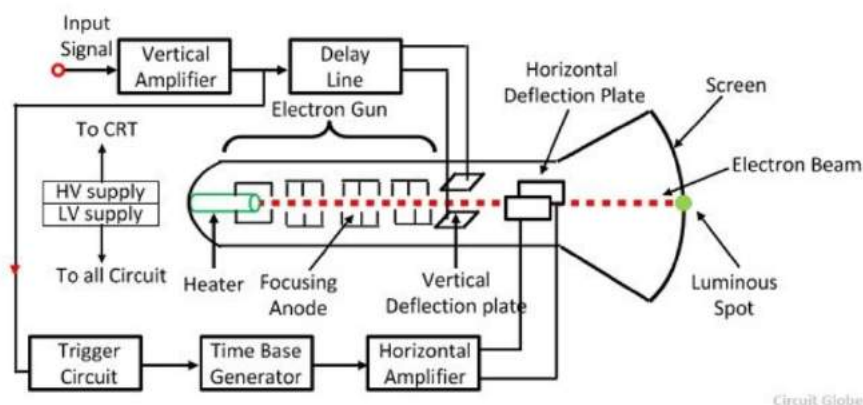
Working of Cathode Ray Oscilloscope

When the electron is injected through the electron gun, it passes through the control grid. The control grid controls the intensity of electron in the vacuum tube. If the control grid



Working of Cathode Ray Oscilloscope

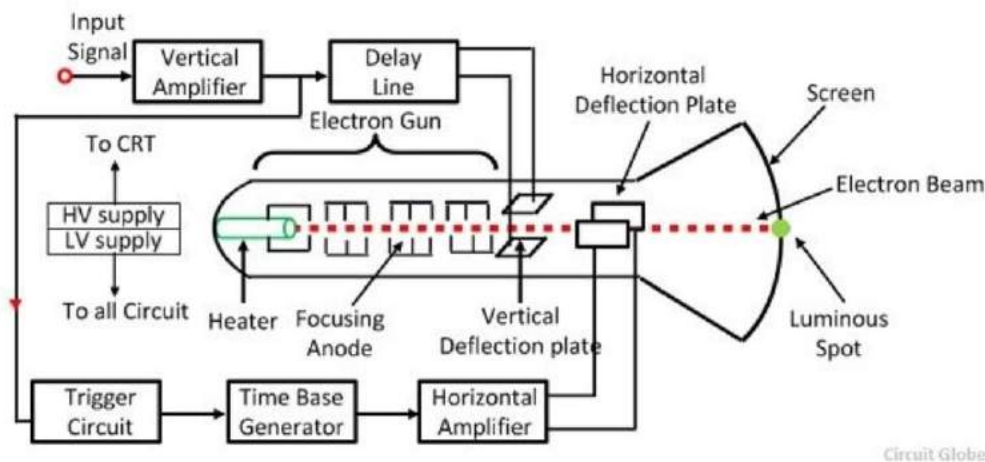
When the electron is injected through the electron gun, it passes through the control grid. The control grid controls the intensity of electron in the vacuum tube. If the control grid has high negative potential, then it allows only a few electrons to pass through it. Thus, the dim spot is produced on the lightning screen. If the negative potential on the control grid is low, then the bright spot is produced. Hence the intensity of light depends on the negative potential of the control grid.



Circuit Globe

After moving the control grid the electron beam passing through the focusing and accelerating anodes. The accelerating anodes are at a high positive potential and hence they converge the beam at a point on the screen.

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After moving the control grid the electron beam passing through the focusing and accelerating anodes. The accelerating anodes are at a high positive potential and hence they converge the beam at a point on the screen.

After moving from the accelerating anode, the beam comes under the effect of the deflecting plates. When the deflecting plate is at zero potential, the beam produces a spot at the centre. If the voltage is applied to the vertical deflecting plate, the electron beam focuses at the upward and when the voltage is applied horizontally the spot of light will be deflected horizontally.