

Chapter 2

INTRODUCTION TO INSTRUMENTATION

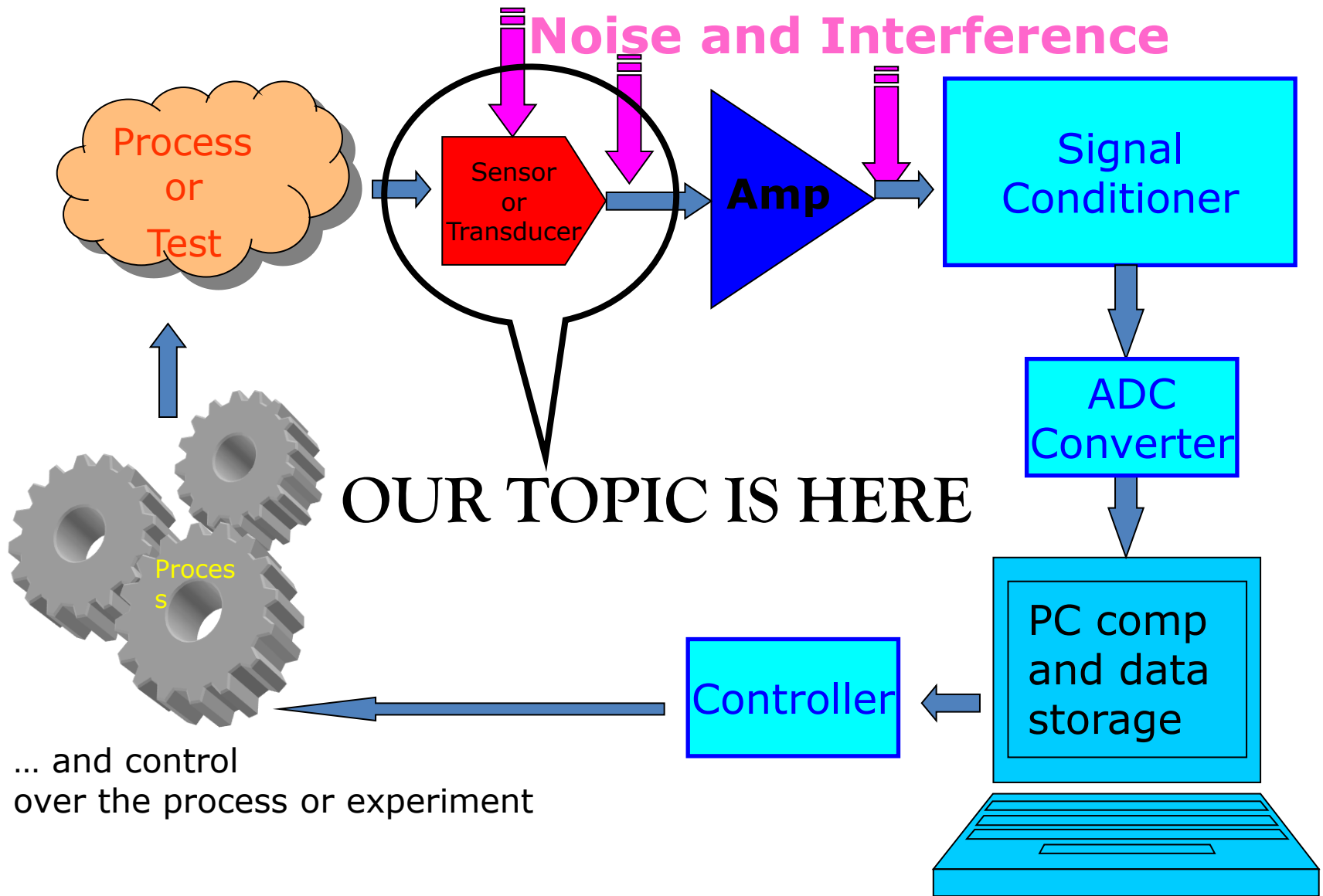
OBJECTIVES

- At the end of this chapter, students should be able to:
 1. Explain the static and dynamic characteristics of an instrument.
 2. Calculate and analyze basic measurement error, accuracy, precision and limiting error.
 3. Describe the basic elements of electronic instrument.

FUNCTION AND ADVANTAGES

- The 3 basic functions of instrumentation :-
 - **Indicating** – visualize the process/operation
 - **Recording** – observe and save the measurement reading
 - **Controlling** – to control measurement and process
- Advantages of instrumentation (Electronic)
 - Results in high sensitivity rating through the use of amplifier
 - Increase the input impedance – thus lower loading effects
 - Ability to monitor remote signal

Typical Measurement System Architecture



Examples of Electronic Sensor applications



- Electronic sensor automatically turns water on/off
- Integral temperature control

Uses infrared optical sensor

PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS

- Performance Characteristics - characteristics that show the performance of an [instrument](#).
 - Eg: accuracy, precision, resolution, sensitivity.
- Allows users to select the most suitable instrument for a specific measuring jobs.
- Two basic characteristics :
 - Static – measuring a constant process condition.
 - Dynamic - measuring a varying process condition.

PERFORMANCE CHARACTERISTICS

- **Accuracy** – the degree of exactness (closeness) of measurement compared to the expected (desired) value.
- **Resolution** – the smallest change in a measurement variable to which an instrument will respond.
- **Precision** – a measure of consistency or repeatability of measurement, i.e successive reading do not differ.
- **Sensitivity** – amount of change in the output (response) of instrument to a change of input or measured variable.
- **Expected value** – the design value or the most probable value that we expect to obtain.
- **Error** – the deviation of the true value from the desired value.

ERROR IN MEASUREMENT

- Measurement always introduce error
- Error may be expressed either as absolute or percentage of error

Absolute error, $e = Y_n - X_n$

where Y_n – expected value

X_n – measured value

$$\% \text{ error} = \left| \frac{Y_n - X_n}{Y_n} \right| \times 100$$

ERROR IN MEASUREMENT

Relative accuracy, $A = 1 - \left| \frac{Y_n - X_n}{Y_n} \right|$

% Accuracy, $a = 100\% - \% \text{ error}$
 $= A \times 100$

Precision, $P = 1 - \left| \frac{X_n - \overline{X_n}}{\overline{X_n}} \right|$

where X_n value of the n^{th} measurement
 $\overline{X_n}$ average set of measurement

The precision of a measurement is a quantitative or numerical indication of the closeness with which a repeated set of measurement of the same variable agree with the average set of measurements.

Exercise1.1

Given expected voltage value across a resistor is 80V.

The measurement is 79V. Calculate,

- i. The absolute error
- ii. The % of error
- iii. The relative accuracy
- iv. The % of accuracy

Solution (Example 1.1)

Given that , expected value = 80V
measurement value = 79V

i. Absolute error, $e = Y_n - X_n = 80V - 79V = 1V$

ii. % error = $\left| \frac{Y_n - X_n}{Y_n} \right| \times 100 = \frac{80 - 79}{80} \times 100 = 1.25\%$

iii. Relative accuracy, $A = 1 - \left| \frac{Y_n - X_n}{Y_n} \right| = 0.9875$

iv. % accuracy, $a = A \times 100\% = 0.9875 \times 100\% = 98.75\%$

Example 1.2

From the value in table 1.1 calculate the precision of 6th measurement?

Solution

the average of measurement value

$$\overline{X}_n = \frac{98+101+....+99}{10} = \frac{1005}{10} = 100.5$$

the 6th reading

$$\text{Precision} = 1 - \left| \frac{100 - 100.5}{100.5} \right| = 1 - \frac{0.5}{100.5} = 0.995$$

Table 1.1

No	X _n
1	98
2	101
3	102
4	97
5	101
6	100
7	103
8	98
9	106
10	99

LIMITING ERROR

- The accuracy of measuring instrument is guaranteed within a certain percentage (%) of full scale reading
- E.g manufacturer may specify the instrument to be accurate at $\pm 2\%$ with full scale deflection
- For reading less than full scale, the limiting error increases

LIMITING ERROR (cont)

Example 1.6

Given a 600 V voltmeter with accuracy $\pm 2\%$ full scale.

Calculate limiting error when the instrument is used to measure a voltage of 250V?

Solution

The magnitude of limiting error, $0.02 \times 600 = 12\text{V}$

Therefore, the limiting error for 250V $= 12/250 \times 100 = 4.8\%$

LIMITING ERROR (cont)

Example 1.7

Given for certain measurement, a limiting error for voltmeter at 70V is 2.143% and a limiting error for ammeter at 80mA is 2.813%. Determine the limiting error of the power.

Solution

$$\begin{aligned}\text{The limiting error for the power} &= 2.143\% + 2.813\% \\ &= \underline{4.956\%}\end{aligned}$$

Exercise

- A voltmeter is accurate 98% of its full scale reading.
 - i. If the voltmeter reads 200V on 500V range, what is the absolute error?
 - ii. What is the percentage error of the reading in (i).

Significant Figures

- Significant figures convey actual information regarding the magnitude and precision of quantity
- More significant figure represent greater precision of measurement

Example 1.3

Find the precision value of X_1 and X_2 ?

$$X_n = 101$$

$$X_1 = 98 \implies 2 \text{ s.f.}$$

$$X_2 = 98.5 \implies 3 \text{ s.f.}$$

Solution (Example 1.3)

$$\overline{X}_n = 101$$

$$X_1 = 98 \implies 2 \text{ s.f.}$$

$$X_2 = 98.5 \implies 3 \text{ s.f.}$$

$$X_1 = \text{Precision} = 1 - \left| \frac{98 - 101}{101} \right| = 0.97$$

$$X_2 = \text{Precision} = 1 - \left| \frac{98.5 - 101}{101} \right| = 0.975 \implies \text{more precise}$$

Significant Figures (cont)

Rules regarding significant figures in calculation

- 1) For adding and subtraction, all figures in columns to the right of the last column in which all figures are significant should be dropped

Example 1.4

$$\begin{array}{r} V_1 = 6.31 \text{ V} \\ + \quad V_2 = 8.736 \text{ V} \end{array}$$

Therefore $V_T = 15.046 \text{ V}$
 $\cong \underline{15.05 \text{ V}}$

Significant Figures (cont)

- 2) For multiplication and division, retain only as many significant figures as the least precise quantity contains

Example 1.5

From the value given below, calculate the value for R_1 , R_2 and power for R_1 ?

$$I = 0.0148 \text{ A} \implies 3 \text{ s.f.}$$

$$V_1 = 6.31 \text{ V} \implies 3 \text{ s.f.}$$

$$V_2 = 8.736 \text{ V} \implies 4 \text{ s.f.}$$

Solution (Example 1.5)

$$R_1 = \frac{V_1}{I} = \frac{6.31V}{0.0148A} = 426.35 = 426\Omega \implies 3 \text{ s.f.}$$

$$R_2 = \frac{V_2}{I} = \frac{8.736V}{0.0148A} = 590.27 = 590\Omega \implies 3 \text{ s.f.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} P_1 &= V_1 \times I = (6.31V) \times (0.0148A) \\ &= 0.09339 \\ &= 0.0934 \implies 3 \text{ s.f.} \end{aligned}$$

Significant Figures (cont)

3) When dropping non-significant figures

$$0.0148 \implies 0.015 \text{ (2 s.f)}$$

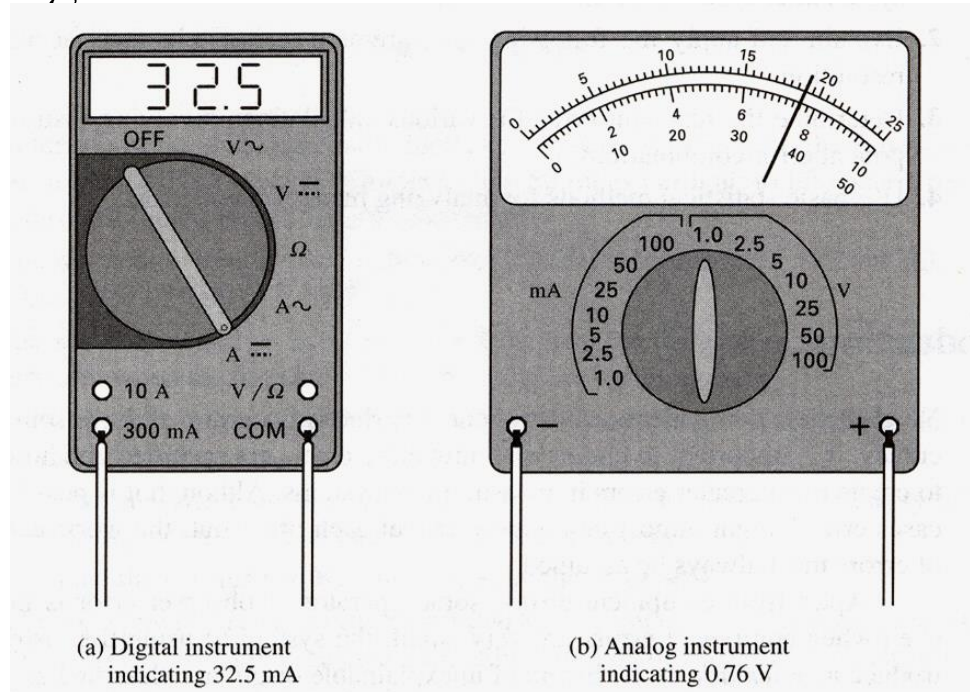
$$\implies 0.01 \text{ (1 s.f)}$$

TYPES OF STATIC ERROR

- Types of static error
 - 1) Gross error/human error
 - 2) Systematic Error
 - 3) Random Error

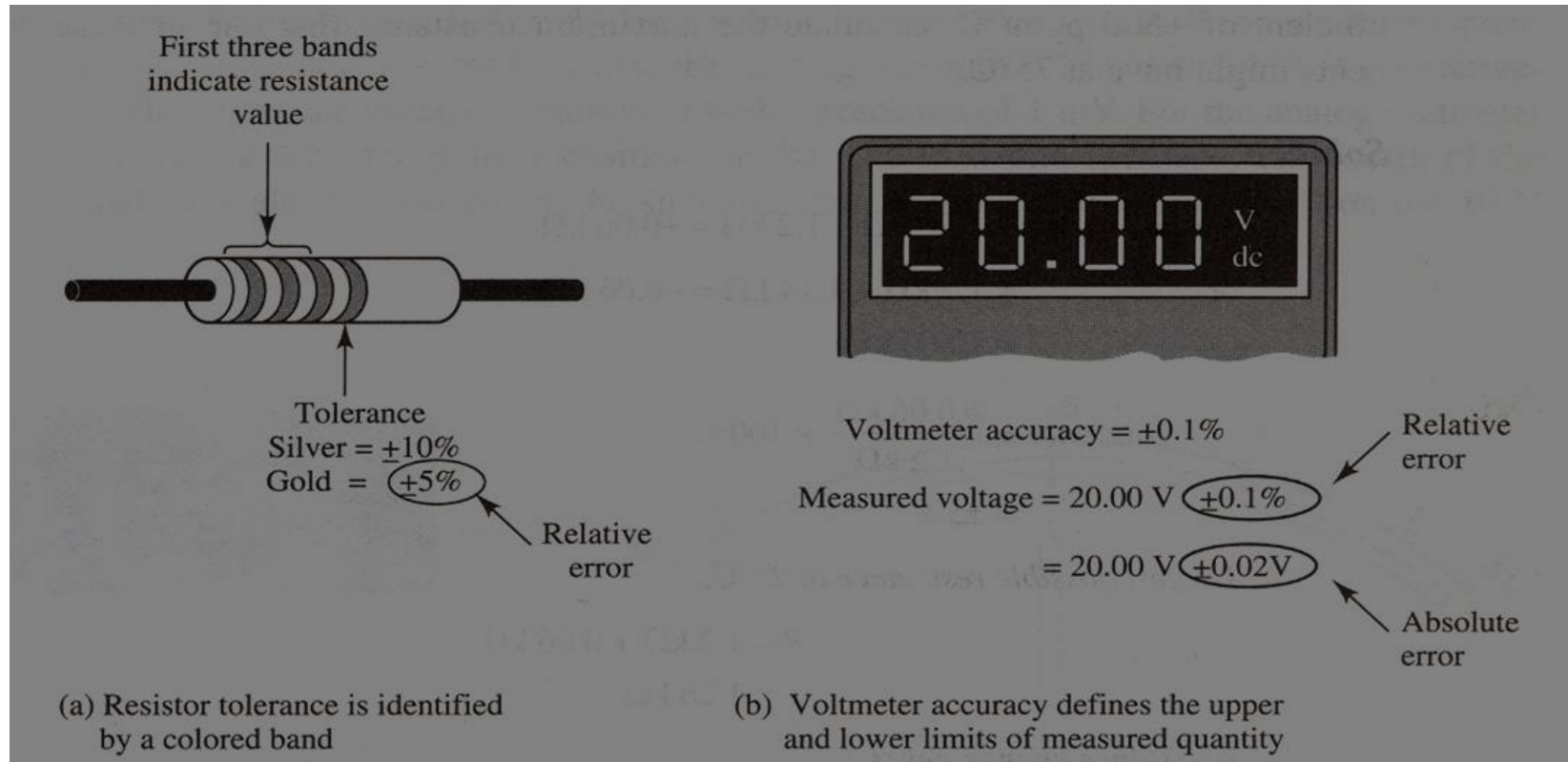
1. Gross Errors or Human Errors

- Resulting from carelessness, e.g. misreading, incorrectly recording



Serious measurement errors can occur if an instrument is not read correctly. The digital instrument is on a 300 mA range, so its reading is in milliamperes. For the analog meter, the range selection must be noted, and the pointer position must be read from the correct scale

Absolute Errors and Relative Errors

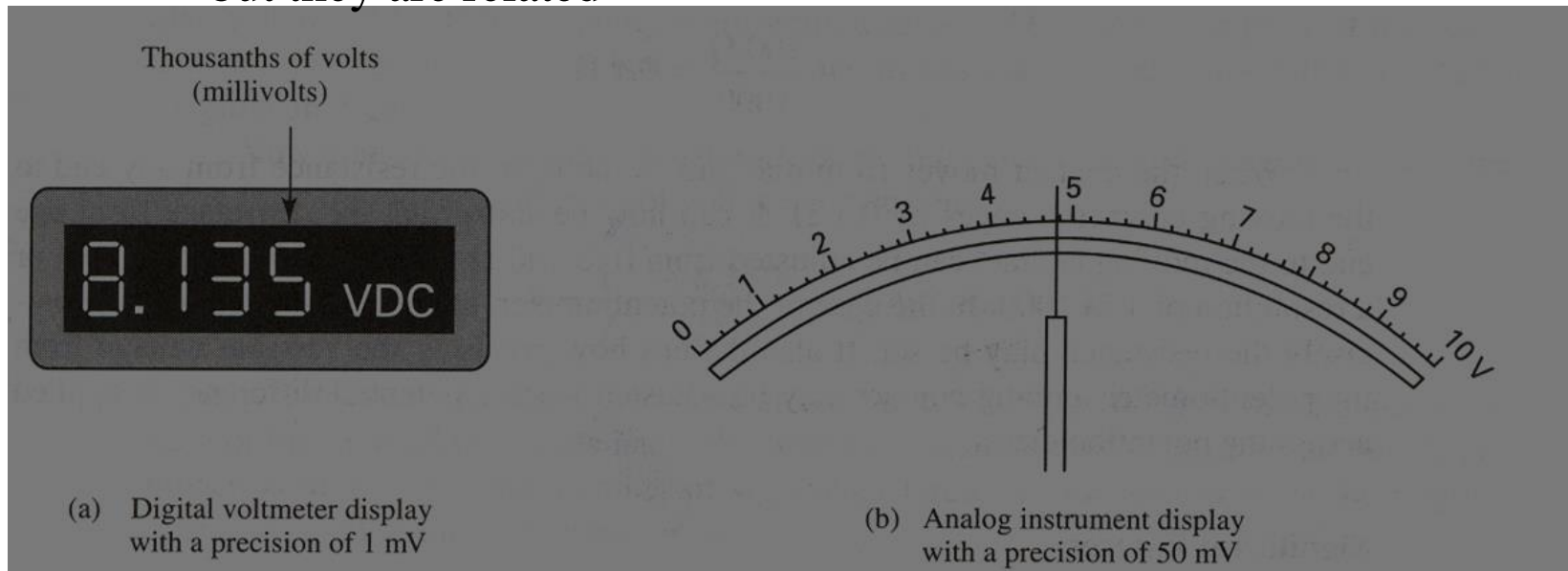


Percentage accuracy gives the relative error in a measured, or specified quantity. The absolute error can be determined by converting the percentage error into an absolute quantity

- Accuracy, Precision, Resolution, and Significant Figures

- Accuracy (A) and Precision

- The measurement accuracy of $\pm 1\%$ defines how close the measurement is to the actual measured quality.
 - The precision is not the same as the accuracy of measurement, but they are related



Measurement precision depends on the smallest change that can be observed in the measured quantity. A 1mV change will be indicated on the digital voltmeter display above. For the analog instrument, 50 mV is the smallest change that can be noted

- a) If the measured quantity increases or decreases by 1 mV, the reading becomes 8.936 V or 8.934 V respectively. Therefore, the voltage is measured with a precision of 1 mV.
- b) The pointer position can be read to within one-fourth of the smallest scale division. Since the smallest scale division represents 0.2 V, one-fourth of the scale division is 50 mV.

➤ Resolution

The measurement precision of an instrument defines the smallest change in measured quantity that can be observed. This smallest observable change is the resolution of the instrument.

➤ Significant Figures

The number of significant figures indicate the precision of measurement.

Measurement Error Combinations

➤ When a quantity is calculated from measurements made on two (or more) instruments, it must be assumed that the errors due to instrument inaccuracy combine in the worst possible way.

➤ Sum of Quantities

Where a quantity is determined as the sum of two measurements, the total error is the sum of the absolute errors in each measurement.

$$E = (V_1 \pm \Delta V_1) + (V_2 \pm \Delta V_2)$$

giving $E = (V_1 + V_2) \pm (\Delta V_1 + \Delta V_2)$

➤ Difference of Quantities

The error of the difference of two measurements are again additive

$$\begin{aligned} E &= (V_1 \pm \Delta V_1) - (V_2 \pm \Delta V_2) \\ &= (V_1 - V_2) \pm (\Delta V_1 + \Delta V_2) \end{aligned}$$

➤ Product of Quantities

When a calculated quantity is the product of two or more quantities, the percentage error is the sum of the percentage errors in each quantity

$$\begin{aligned} P &= EI \\ &= (E \pm \Delta E)(I \pm \Delta I) \\ &= EI \pm E\Delta I \pm I\Delta E \pm \Delta E\Delta I \end{aligned}$$

since $\Delta E\Delta I$ is very small,

$$P \approx EI \pm (E\Delta I \pm I\Delta E)$$

Example: An 820Ω resistance with an accuracy of $\pm 10\%$ carries a current of 10 mA. The current was measured by an analog ammeter on a 25mA range with an accuracy of $\pm 2\%$ of full scale. Calculate the power dissipated in the resistor, and determine the accuracy of the result.

Solution

$$P = I^2 R = (10\text{mA})^2 \times 820\Omega$$
$$= 82\text{mW}$$

$$\text{error in } R = \pm 10\%$$

$$\text{error in } I = \pm 2\% \text{ of } 25\text{mA}$$

$$= \pm 0.5\text{mA}$$

$$= \frac{\pm 0.5\text{mA}}{10\text{mA}} \times 100\% = \pm 5\%$$

$$\% \text{error in } I^2 = 2(\pm 5\%) = \pm 10\%$$

$$\% \text{error in } P = (\% \text{error in } I^2) + (\% \text{error in } R)$$
$$= \pm (10\% + 10\%) = \pm 20\%$$

2. Systematic Error: due to shortcomings of the instrument (such as defective or worn out parts, ageing effects or environment effects)

- In general, systematic errors can be subdivided into static and dynamic errors.
 - Static – caused by **limitations** of the measuring device or the physical laws governing its behavior.
 - Dynamic – caused by the instrument **not responding very fast** enough to follow the changes in a measured variable.
- 3 types of systematic error :-
 - (i) Instrumental error
 - (ii) Environmental error
 - (iii) Observational error

Types of static error

- (i) Instrumental error
 - inherent while measuring instrument because of their mechanical structure (**eg: in a D'Arsonval meter, friction in the bearings of various moving component, irregular spring tension, stretching of spring, etc**)
 - error can be avoid by:
 - (a) selecting a suitable instrument for the particular measurement application
 - (b) apply correction factor by determining instrumental error
 - (c) calibrate the instrument against standard

(ii) Environmental error

- due to external conditions affecting the measurement including surrounding area such as change in temperature, humidity, pressure, etc
- to avoid such error :-
 - (a) use air conditioner
 - (b) sealing certain component in the instruments
 - (c) use magnetic shields

(iii) Observational error

- introduced by the observer
- most common : parallax error and estimation error (while reading the scale)
 - Eg: an observer who tend to hold his head too far to the left while reading the position of the needle on the scale.

3) Random error

- due to unknown causes, occur when all systematic errors have been accounted
- accumulation of small effect, required at high degree of accuracy
- can be avoid by
 - (a) increasing number of reading
 - (b) use statistical means to obtain best approximation of true value

2- Systematic Errors versus Random errors

➤ Systematic Errors

✓ Instrumental Errors

- Friction

✓ Environment Errors

- Temperature

- Humidity

- Pressure

✓ Observational Error

➤ Random Errors

Dynamic Characteristics

- Dynamic – measuring a varying process condition.
- Instruments rarely respond instantaneously to changes in the measured variables due to such things as mass, thermal capacitance, fluid capacitance or electrical capacitance.
- Pure delay in time is often encountered where the instrument **waits for some reaction** to take place.
- Such industrial instruments are nearly always used for measuring quantities that fluctuate with time.
- Therefore, the dynamic and transient behavior of the instrument is important.

Dynamic Characteristics

- The dynamic behavior of an instrument is determined by subjecting its primary element (sensing element) to some **unknown** and predetermined variations in the measured quantity.
- The three most common variations in the measured quantity:
 - Step change
 - Linear change
 - Sinusoidal change

Dynamic Characteristics

- **Step change-in** in which the primary element is **subjected to an instantaneous and finite change** in measured variable.
- **Linear change-in** in which the primary element is following the measured variable, **changing linearly with time**.
- **Sinusoidal change-in** in which the primary element follows a measured variable, the magnitude of which **changes in accordance with a sinusoidal function of constant amplitude**.

Dynamic Characteristics

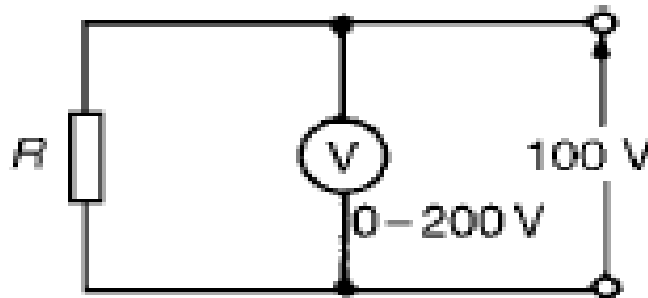
- The dynamic performance characteristics of an instrument are:
 - Speed of response- The **rapidity** with which an instrument responds changes in measured quantity.
 - Dynamic error-The **difference between the true and measured value** with no static error.
 - Lag – **delay** in the response of an instrument to changes in the measured variable.
 - Fidelity – the degree to which an instrument **indicates the changes** in the measured variable without dynamic error (faithful reproduction).

Instrument ‘loading’ effect :

- ❑ Some measuring instruments depend for their operation on power taken from the circuit in which measurements are being made.
- ❑ Depending on the ‘loading’ effect of the instrument (i.e. the current taken to enable it to operate), the prevailing circuit conditions may change.
- ❑ The resistance of voltmeters may be calculated since each have a stated sensitivity (or ‘figure of merit’), often stated in ‘k per volt’ of f.s.d. A voltmeter should have as high a resistance as possible (ideally infinite).
- ❑ In a.c. circuits the impedance of the instrument varies with frequency and thus the loading effect of the instrument can change.

Example:

Calculate the power dissipated by the voltmeter and by resistor R in Figure 10.9 when (a) $R=250\ \Omega$, (b) $R=2\ \text{M}\Omega$. Assume that the voltmeter sensitivity (sometimes called figure of merit) is $10\ \text{k}\Omega/\text{V}$.



- (a) Resistance of voltmeter, $R_v = \text{sensitivity} \times \text{f.s.d.}$

$$\text{Hence, } R_v = (10 \text{ k}\Omega/\text{V}) \times (200 \text{ V}) = 2000 \text{ k}\Omega = 2 \text{ M}\Omega$$

$$\text{Current flowing in voltmeter, } I_v = \frac{V}{R_v} = \frac{100}{2 \times 10^6} = 50 \times 10^{-6} \text{ A}$$

$$\text{Power dissipated by voltmeter} = VI_v = (100)(50 \times 10^{-6}) = \mathbf{5 \text{ mW}}$$

$$\text{When } R = 250 \text{ }\Omega, \text{ current in resistor, } I_R = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{100}{250} = \mathbf{0.4 \text{ A}}$$

$$\text{Power dissipated in load resistor } R = VI_R = (100)(0.4) = \mathbf{40 \text{ W}}$$

Thus the power dissipated in the voltmeter is insignificant in comparison with the power dissipated in the load.

- (b) When $R = 2 \text{ M}\Omega$, current in resistor, $I_R = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{100}{2 \times 10^6}$
 $= 50 \times 10^{-6} \text{ A}$

$$\text{Power dissipated in load resistor } R = VI_R = 100 \times 50 \times 10^{-6}$$
$$= \mathbf{5 \text{ mW}}$$

In this case the higher load resistance reduced the power dissipated such that the voltmeter is using as much power as the load.

Standard

- A standard is a known **accurate measure of physical quantity**.
- Standards are used to determine the values of other physical quantities by the **comparison method**.
- All standards are preserved at the International Bureau of Weight and Measures (BIMP), Paris.
- Four categories of standard:
 - International Standard
 - Primary Standard
 - Secondary Standard
 - Working Standard

Standard

- International Std
 - Defined by **International Agreement**
 - Represent the **closest possible accuracy** attainable by the current science and technology
- Primary Std
 - Maintained at the National Std Lab (**different for every country**)
 - Function: the calibration and verification of secondary std
 - Each lab has its own secondary std which are periodically checked and certified by the National Std Lab.
 - For example, in Zambia, this function is carried out by Zambia Bureau of Standards.

Standard

- Secondary Standard
 - Secondary standards are basic reference standards used by **measurement and calibration laboratories** in industries.
 - Each industry has its own secondary standard.
 - Each laboratory periodically sends its secondary standard to the National standards laboratory for calibration and comparison against the primary standard.
 - After comparison and calibration, the National Standards Laboratory returns the secondary standards to particular industrial laboratory with a certification of measuring accuracy in terms of a primary standard.
- Working Std
 - Used to **check and calibrate lab instrument for accuracy and performance.**
 - For example, manufacturers of electronic components such as capacitors, resistors and many more use a standard called a working standard for checking the component values being manufactured.

ELECTRONIC INSTRUMENT

- Basic elements of an electronics instrument



- 1) Transducer

- convert a non electrical signal into an electrical signal
- e.g: a pressure sensor detect pressure and convert it to electricity for display at a remote gauge.

- 2) Signal modifier

- convert input signal into a suitable signal for the indicating device

- 3) Indicating device

- indicates the value of quantity being measure

INSTRUMENT APPLICATION GUIDE

- Selection, care and use of the instrument :-
 - ✓ Before using an instrument, students should be thoroughly familiar with its operation ** read the manual carefully
 - ✓ Select an instrument to provide the degree of accuracy required (accuracy + resolution + cost)
 - ✓ Before used any selected instrument, do the inspection for any physical problem
 - ✓ Before connecting the instrument to the circuit, make sure the 'function switch' and the 'range selector switch' has been set-up at the proper function or range

INSTRUMENT APPLICATION GUIDE



Analog Multimeter

INSTRUMENT APPLICATION GUIDE



Digital Multimeter

CHAPTER REVIEW

- Define the terms accuracy, error, precision, resolution, expected value and sensitivity.
- State three major categories of error.
- A person using an ohmmeter reads the measured value as 470 ohm when the actual value is 47 ohm. What kind of error does this represent?
- State the classifications of standards.
- What are primary standards? Where are they used?
- What is the difference between secondary standards and working standards?
- State three basic elements of electronic instrument.

THE END

