



TurbolEG.com



دوسية الزيود في : مختبر علم القياس

Metrology lab

إعداد : سيف الزيود

اللجنة الأكاديمية لقسم الهندسة الصناعية

2023



مادة القياس

Q: what is the purpose of measuring devices?

ch1 - Measurement systems are used for many detailed purposes in a wide variety of Application area.

تقدم أنظمة القياس للعديد من الأغراض التشغيلية في مجموعة متنوعة من مجالات التطبيق.

Q: define the measurement system?

- the term "measurement system" is meant to include all component in a chain of hardware and software that leads from the measured variable

Q: How do measuring devices show the measured variable?

to processed data, number and unit

يقدم بمصطلح "نظام القياس" أنه يشمل جميع المكونات في سلسلة من الأجهزة والبرامج التي تؤدي من المتغير المقاس إلى بيانات معالجة.

مثال: - كخط إنتاج (run a production line) لا يمكن العمل إلا مع قياسات معينة. فلازم measurement controlling ولازم نظام القياس تكونه compatible مع خط الإنتاج.

Information: - the modern automobile uses as many as 40 or 50 sensor (measuring devices)

Q: what should be the relationship between the designer and measuring instruments?

- The designer must be aware of the ^{أدوات}instrument available for a various measurements and how they operate and ^{تفاعل}interface with other parts of the system.

- and aware in sensor that allow improvement.

يجب أن المصمم أن يكون على دراية بالأدوات المتاحة للقياسات المختلفة وكيفية عملها والتفاعل مع المكونات الأخرى بالنظام.

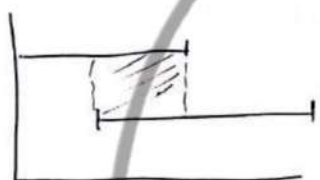
وعلى دراية بالحساسات (جهاز الاستشعار) لأنها تسمح بالتطور.

* Many engineered products are nowadays designed using the methods of concurrent engineering where design and manufacturing are integrated, rather than being considered sequentially, as was often the case in the earlier time.

يتم في الوقت الحاضر توقع العديد من المنتجات المصنوعة حديثاً باستخدام طريقة الهندسة المتزامنة بدلاً من النظر إليها بشكل متسلسل كما كانت الحال غالباً في الأوقات السابقة.

① concurrent

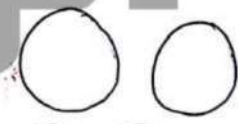
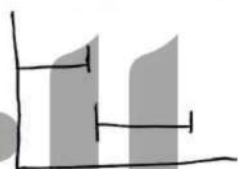
(متزامن)



The best and fastest way

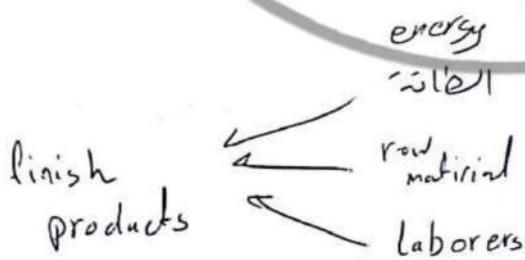
② sequentially

(متسلسل)



مثلاً: اردنا ان يصمم صيكر السيارة وبعد ان يتم الاجهزة تأتي القياسات...

- the problems:
- 1) waste the time.
 - 2) Lower quality due to a gap.



قياسات المصنع المختلفة الهندسة متسلسلة

البحر المختار يتطلب قياسات مستمرة
 ↓
 to best product
 قياسات الجودة
 ← كل تجربة بهذه تقيم الاختلاف
 (Laboratory testing)

- Both functionality and manufacturability consideration often require the design process to include laboratory testing of one kind or another.

تتطلب جدولة التصنيع (ديزائن) اختباراً معملياً من نوع آخر.
كلما الوظيفة ومقابلة القيمة

- when we ~~examine~~ ^{examine} actual production machinery and processes, we often find that these manufacturing tools are controlled by a ~~so~~ ^{so} called feedback mechanism. In such a scheme some quality parameter of the part produced is measured with appropriate sensors.

منه ما سنجد آليات ومعدات الإنتاج الفعلية غالباً تحت أدوات القياس محكمة بها يتم
بآلية التغذية الراجعة. يمكن هذا المختبر (مقياس الجودة) قياس جودة الجزء
المنتج ويتم قياسها بواسطة أجهزة الاستشعار المناسبة.

Classification of Types of Measurement Applications.

1. Monitoring of process and operations.
2. control of process or operations.
3. experimental engineering ~~and~~ analysis.

1) Monitoring of process and operation, refers to the situation where the measuring device is being used to keep ~~the~~ track of some quantity

- | | | | |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| 1] thermometer
مقياس الحرارة | 2] barometer
مقياس ضغط هوائي | 3] radars
جهاز الرادار الجوي | 4] anemometers
مقياس سرعة الرياح |
|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------------|

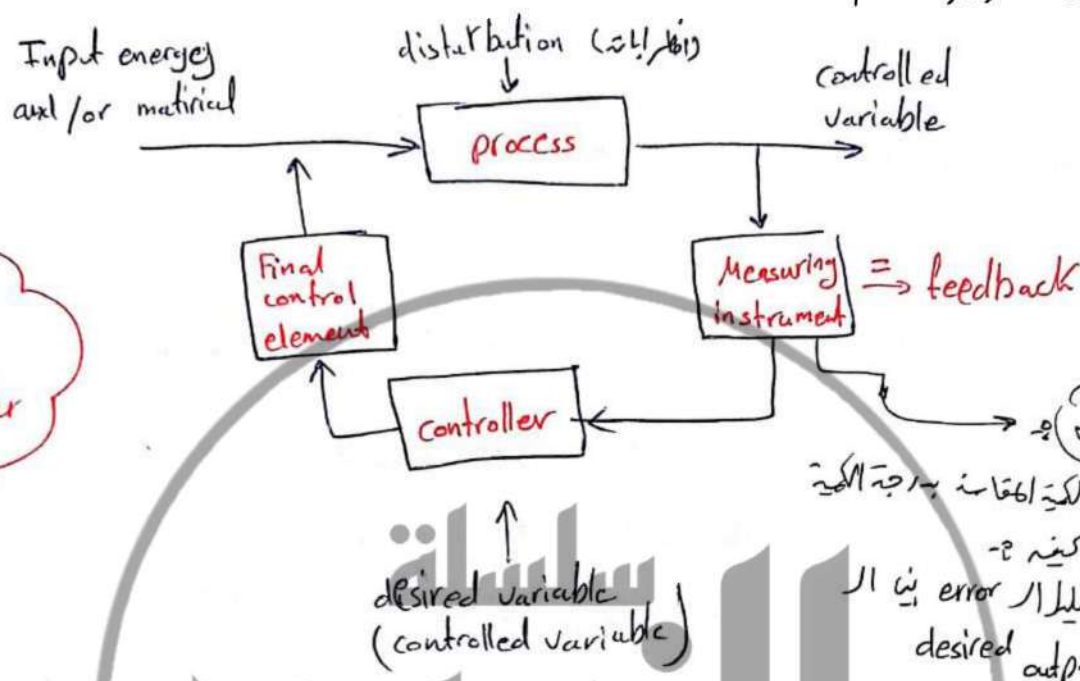
-(indicate the condition of the environment but do not serve any control function in the ordinary sense)

- تشير إلى المواقف التي تقوم بها أجهزة القياس بتتبع الحالة

- يتردد حالة البيئة كما ليس لديهم أية وظائف تحكم.

- 1) speed control system in car, 2) Antilock braking system
 3) coolant temperature regulating system, 4) air conditioning system
 5) engine pollution controls
- 2) control of process and operation. This is usually referred to as an automatic feedback control system.

تألياً تقودها أجهزة التحكم الأوتوماتيكية.



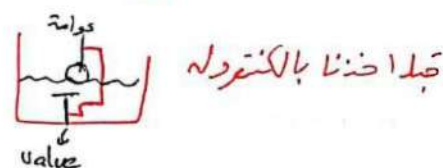
المسألة من حيث
 أنه لا يمكن قياسه مباشرة
 المعرفة كونه
 من طريقه تقليل error بين ال
 input وال output desired

ال feedback measuring الى يقبل مقارنة بين ال input وال desired output
 ثم الرسالة في اوله اسرأ بتدخل ال input بعدها بتقيسها ال Measuring instrument وبعدها بتعطي

هنا هي الأجهزة النتيجة للcontroller التي يقرر إذا بوقفه العملية أو يخليها تسير (يعطي امر) لل
 Final control element وصول الى بي وينفذها ويحللها ويقرر له ما أمره للنسيئة المطلوبة
 desired = controlled variable

وال controlling
 (1) Measuring instrument
 (2) controller
 (Final control element) Valve مع العوامة تكونه

الفرقة بين ال monitoring



العوامة صورة تكونه sensor بلل ل controller فإذا وصل الى بي ايها فخرى رح بتفت ورسالة
 لل controller والرسالة هو يرفضوا العوامة الى رح يأمر ال (Final control element) الى هو Valve يوقفه العملية.

- صا صونه مع انه عندي جهاز قياس الى هو العوامة ببس مكانه عندي controller الى يعطي امر
 حسب نتيجة القياس فلو امكنه فليله بالمرأة انه رح يفتح ال Valve ولو كانه المرأة
 فلو كانه رح يكر ال Valve.

(4) اما في Monitoring
 في زي كنه عندي عوامة رح بتقيسها لوينا الحاد وصل بي من شاكها
 مع ال value ففتح controller هو (يوقفه اذا قيسا)

hot-wire anemometer $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{monitoring} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{controller} \end{array} \right. \rightarrow \text{if we used the gas valve}$

3) experimental engineering analysis :- is the part of engineering design, development, and research that relies on laboratory testing of one kind or another to answer questions.

هو ذلك الجزء من التصميم الهندسي والطور والبحث الذي يعتمد على الاختبار أو التجربة من نوع أو آخر للإجابة عن الأسئلة.

EX $\rightarrow$ زي الى يكونو بالظاير وتخدم الحزم من امبالا لازم يزنطوه.
على مثال صفة المعقدة

experimental engineering analysis is divided into types:

1) theoretical methods.

2) experimental methods.

1) often give result that are general use rather than restractive application.

يفضل نتائج للإستخدام العام بدلاً من نتائج المعقدة

1) often give result that apply only to the restractive specific systems being tests.

in technique such dimensional analysis may allow some generalization أحياناً يتسبب في التعميم
يفضل نتائج تطبيقية على اختبار النظام المحدد.

2) Invariably require the application of simplifying assumptions
تبسيط الافتراضات

2) No simplifying assumption necessary
لا يلزم تبسيط الافتراضات.

mathematical model

The ~~theoretical~~ theoretically predicted behavior is always different from the real behavior

actual system

True behavior نظام حقيقي يبين

3) In some cases, may lead to complicated mathematical problems.

3) Accurate measurement necessary to give true picture.

أحياناً يقودنا إلى مشاكل رياضية معقدة

تحتاج دقة توضع الصورة الحقيقية.

5

3) **variable - manipulation element** & By "manipulation" we mean specifically a change in numerical value according to some definite rule but a preservation of the physical nature of the variable.

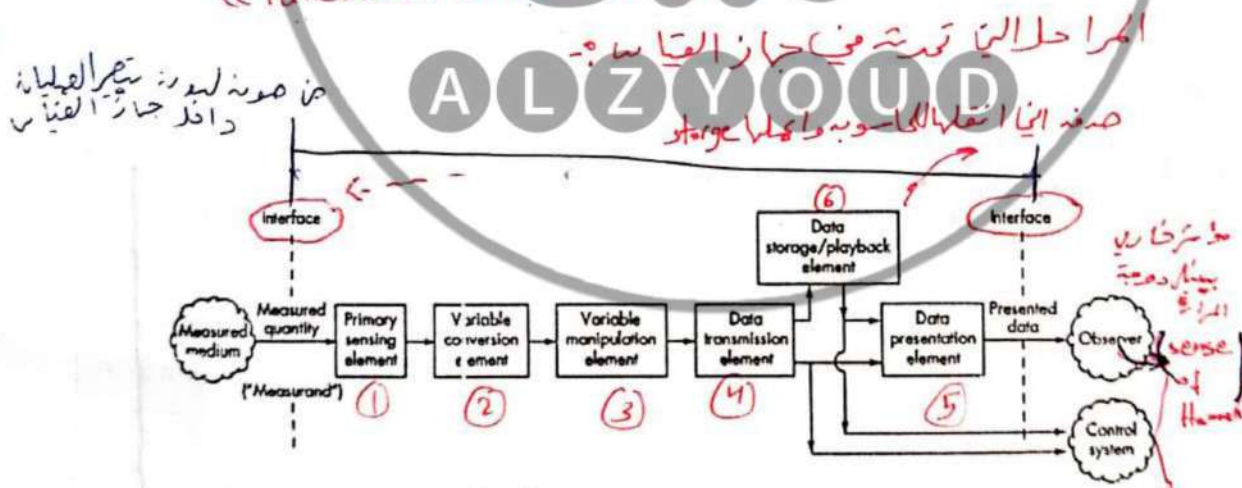
« يغير قيمة Variable فأما بزيدها أو ينقلها مع المحافظة على نوع Variable »

4) **data - transmission element** & transmit the data from one to another
(نقل ال data)

5) **data - presentation element** & to be communicated to a human being for monitoring, control, or analysis purposes, it must be put into a form recognizable by one of a human sense. (translation)

« يجعل كترجم من الآلة للإنسان (أو أدق لأحد حواس الإنسان) »

((Functional element of an instrument or a measurement systems))



block → أي داخل جهاز القياس
القيوم → أي خارجة

أصله جهاز القياس

أصله عملية القياس :-

1) Measured Medium يكون مسجل بال

2) control يكون أي قيني التحكم فيه لأنه فيه feedback

3) Data storage (play back element)

(8)

majority of instrument communicate with people through the visual sense.

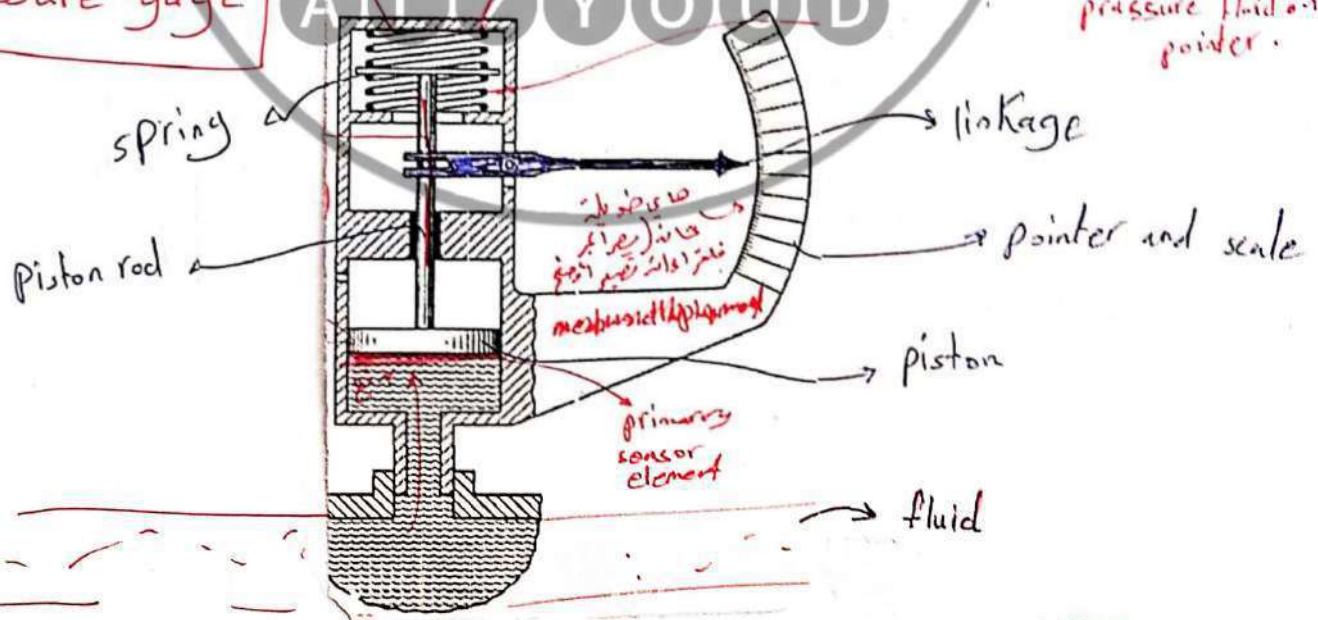
ex: digital voltmeter or printer

- 6) data storage / play back :- we need functional can easily recreate the stored data upon command 1) the magnetic tape recorder / reproducer is classical example here
- 2) many recent instrument digitize the electric signals and store them in a computer like digital memory (RAM, hard drive, floppy disk, etc)

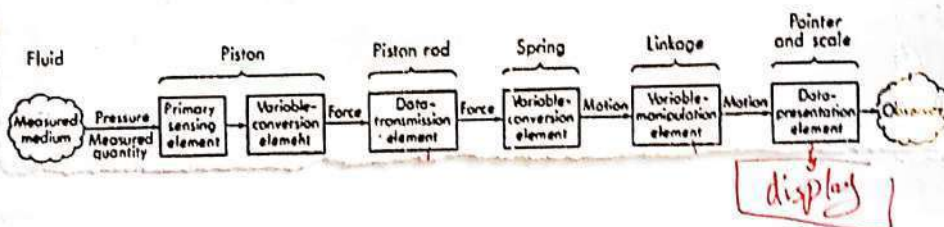
الترتيب الى فوقه هو امي ممكن ويري لأنه الآلة في الحقيقة بتكون :-

- 1) have a basic function in any number and combination
- 2) they not need appear in above order.
- 3) the physical component may serve several of the basic function.

pressure gage



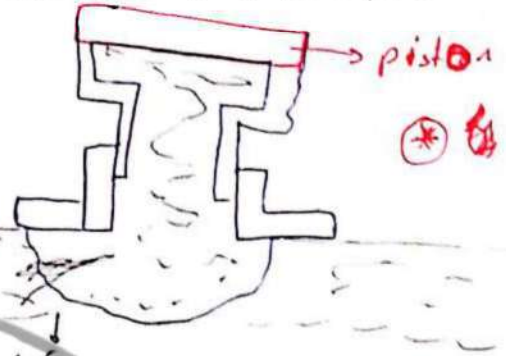
input: pressure fluid
output: the scale of pressure fluid on pointer.



ركز على صورة بكرة الجهاز (البكرة الميكانيكية) - لأن section من الوسط
 في كانه قسموا الميكانيكية الى قسمين
 يشكون اجزائه الداخلية

④ الميكانيكية فقط السائل - السائل ما هو ال Measured medium

ولو تلاحظ رسمته غنية لانها اتي برا الميكانيكية



صلا الفكرة صورة يكونه فيه فتحة بالميكانيكية

يسمح للسائل بالارتفاع والاعلى كدها يوم

لا piston position وصغر من دائري
 (فنازلها اتي بها ضغط اعاد هو piston)
 يكونه من فتحة صورة

لذلك يعتبر primary sensing element فالضغط السائل لا piston هو اداة في بكرة بالضغط وضغط

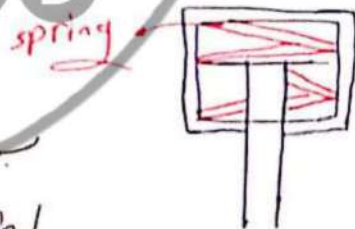
الماء يتحول من ضغط (hydraulic energy) الى (displacement) فيعتبر ضغطاً
 Variable conversion element
 mechanical variable

piston rod هو صا في displacement ومع تنقل بواسطة



مع ضغط الزيت في ذلك piston rod يعتبر data transmission element

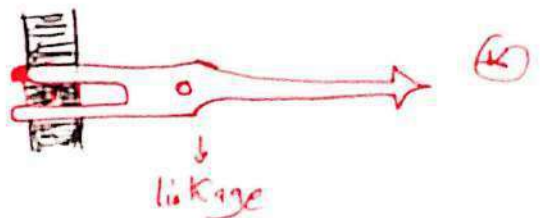
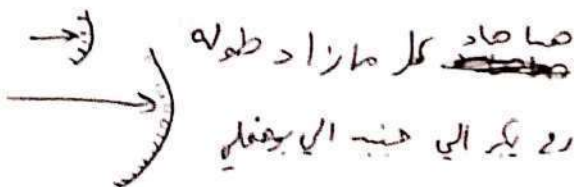
piston rod صورة بكرة ال spring تأثير ضغط عليه في



بس ال spring ما قبل شاد فبرو حوله الطاقة ما طاقة فقط

لطاقة وموقع position energy - pressure لذلك ال spring

يعتبر ال variable conversion element



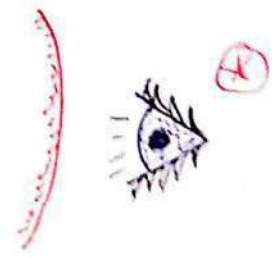
الفرادة مبرونه صا ال علامة بكرة الفرادة او مبرونه

⑩ Variable manipulation element

Amplifier هنا صورة في فكرة انه دائما بالكهرباء ثم يكرما القراءة يستخدموا

المهاز الى رح تسوفه يميني وبتيرجم لعيني القراءة فافهم
كلما زاد حجمه يتغير القراءة اسهل

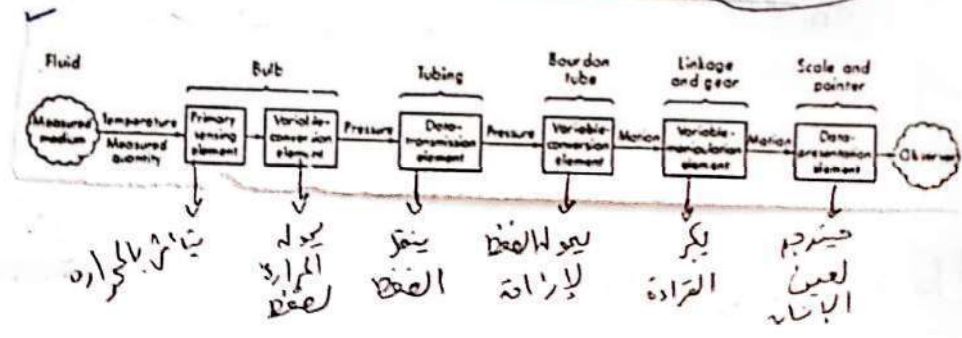
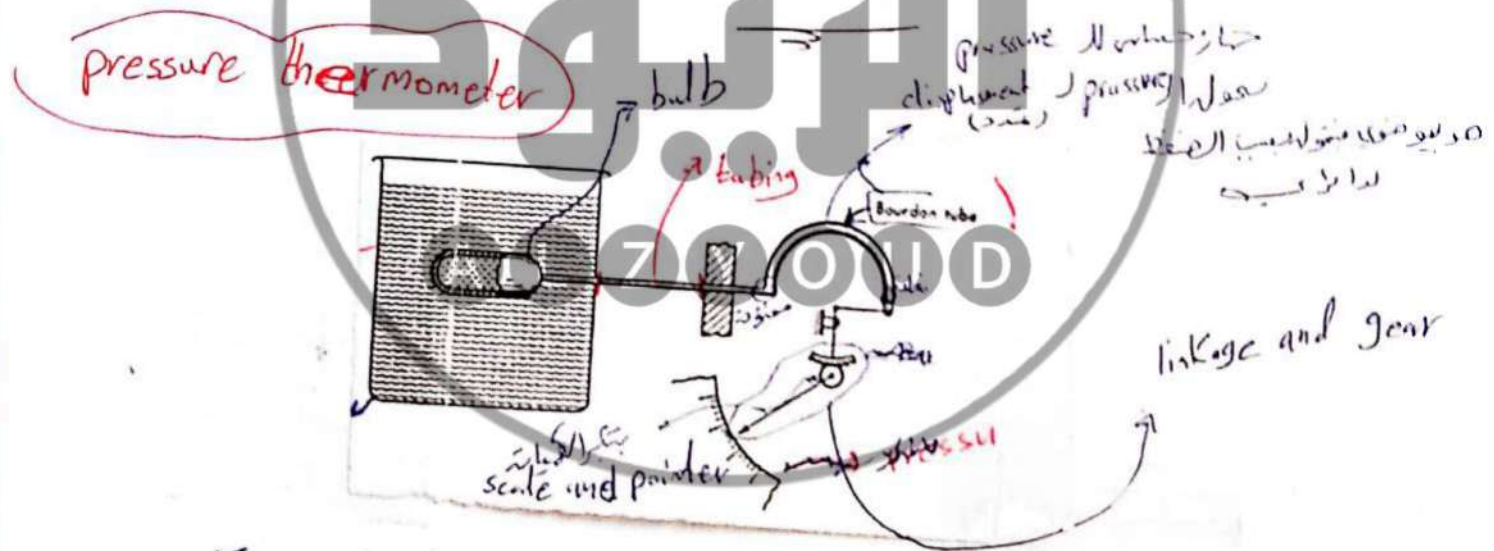
data ~~process~~ presentation لذلك يعتبر pointer and scale وهو



ممكن صورة كناية بتغير observer وبتوضو لتتبع بالرسمة حاطتها بفيئة كذا
يقال انها موجزة من المهاز

potention energy = spring = displacement = hydraulic

نموذج مثل يؤكد انه اجهزة القياس not وكلها بنفس العناصر كعدد او حتى وضيفة
صورة كناية عن يميني Variable conversion element واما في Data storage وصا الترتيب
تغير ...

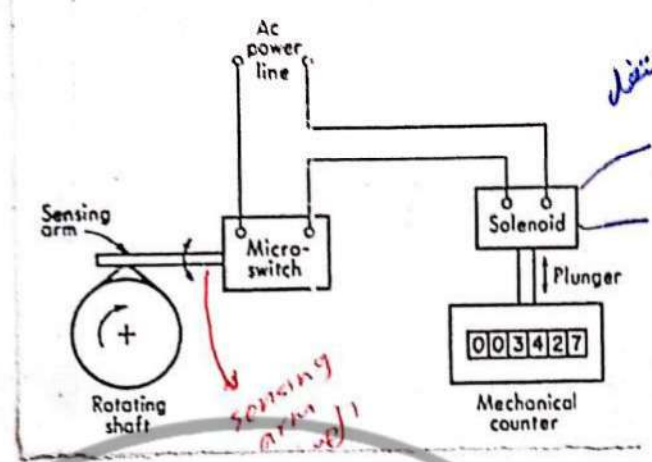


تغير من المهاز للدارة فافهمه ايش ياتر كل ال Bulb فاني تحول القراءة من حرارة - Tubing Thermal expansion Bourdon tube pressure (displacement pressure) Linkage gear scale and pointer
2 ينقل الضغط / 2 يحول الضغط (displacement pressure) / فال Linkage gear - تغير القراءة
2 ينقل القراءة / 2 يحول القراءة (displacement pressure) / فال Linkage gear - تغير القراءة
scale and pointer يترجم لعيني الباشة

Digital revolution counter

حزب قياس عدد اللفات الى دورتها
rotation shaft

Microswitch
هو حارة كهربائية يتحركها
خيزر اهتكت بال
sensing arm
دخولها الى دورته
ما خيزر

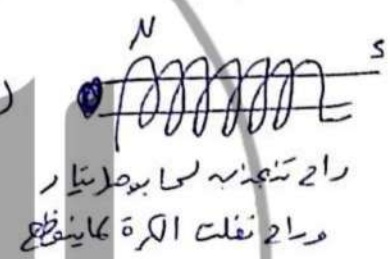


Micro-switch
solenoid

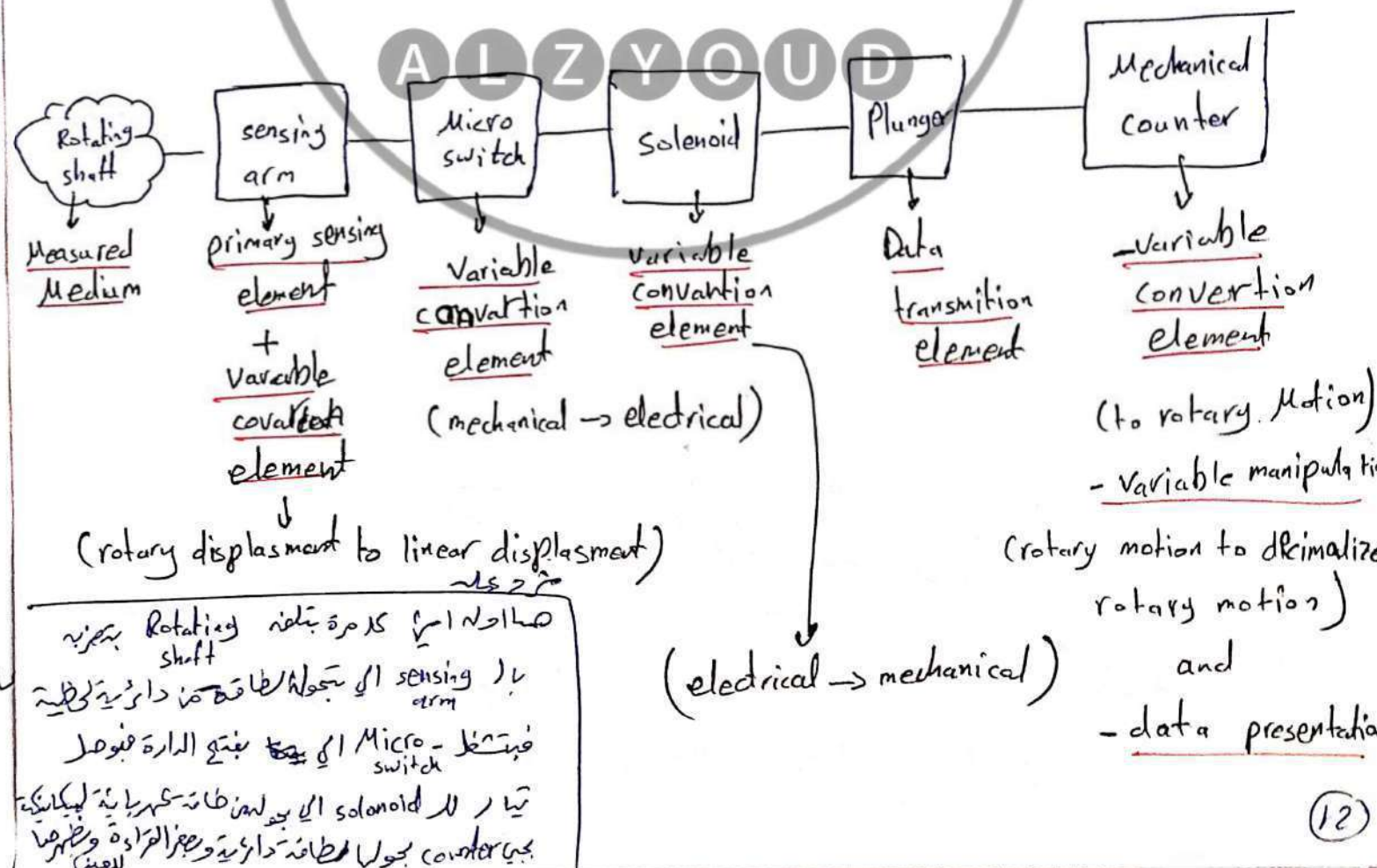
كل وحدة بتعبر عن لفة

داخل ال solenoid (مغناطيسي) فيه زير متحرك

(مغناطيسي) هو زير متحرك كهربائي جبر زي خناطين بقطبي
(مغناطيسي غير دائم)
temporary

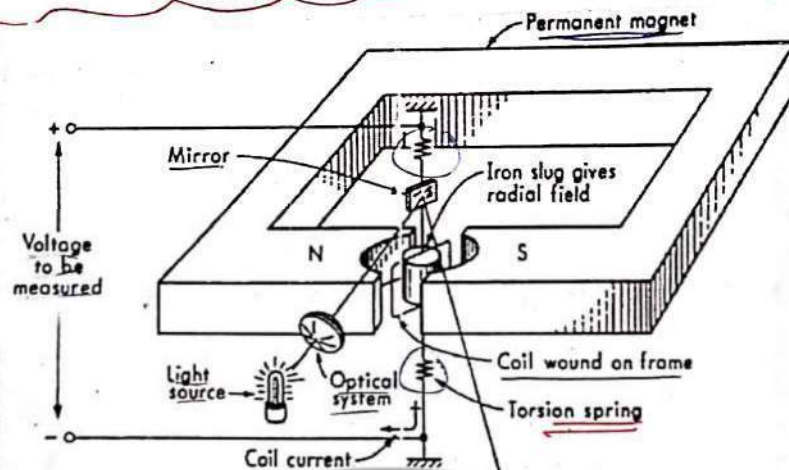


input → (Number of turns) Rotating shaft



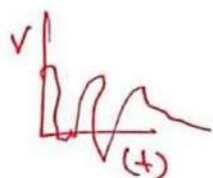
D'Arsonval galvanometer

Input → voltage
output → deflection
⊖



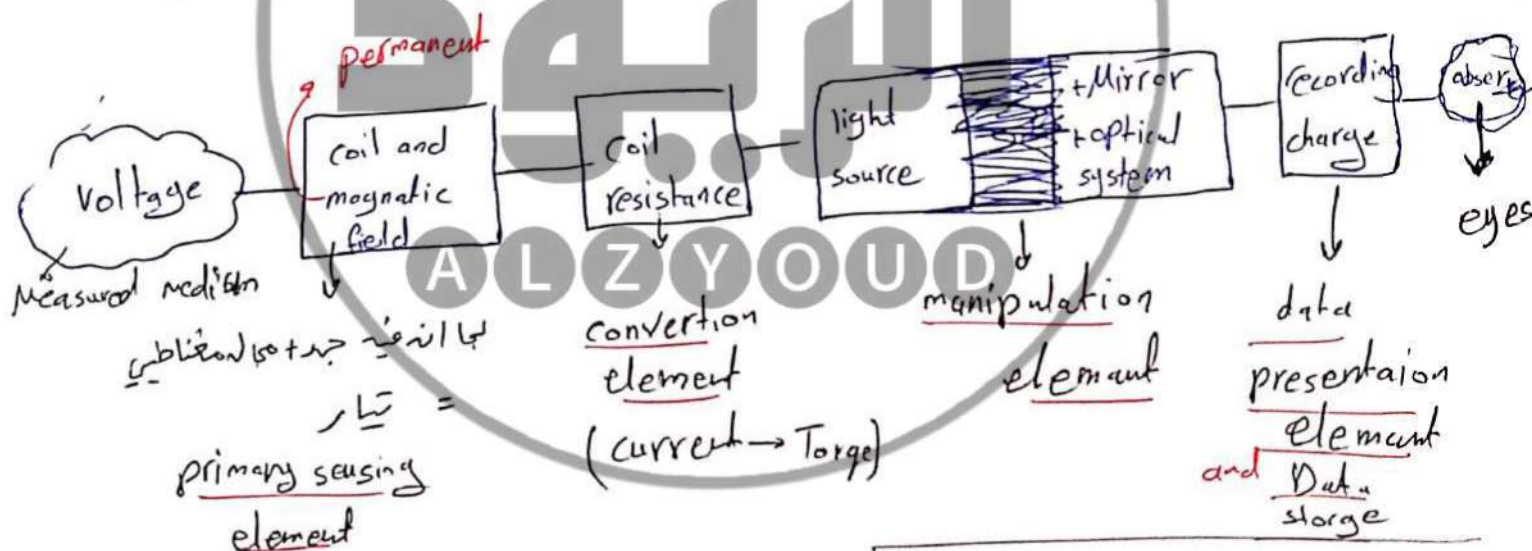
مغناطيسي
دائم

السفينة الجبار
الاقى علاقة بين
الميدان والزمن



Torsion spring

بعد ما نصلط الزنبرك برفع
لوصف الطبيعي



primary sensing element
+
conversion element
(V + Magnetic → current)

شركة بل اكلها رة

بنا لاية وبسبب دخول Voltage كجبار مغناطيسي في الملمنة
يتولد تيار وبسبب مقاومة الملمنة يتولد في اكي Torque

صاي التورك رة تأثر (ر سبب) deflection
⊖

وصونه يكونوا رايت الملمنة ب mirror و light source
عنا نيك قية الة و رة ظهر للعين

Recording chart (الاجيرة) تطورة فصاروا شبكه على الكمبيوتر
Recording chart (13)

مستخرج ال active وال passive :-

passive transducer :- A component whose out put energy supplied entirely or almost entirely by its input signal.

(تتأخذ الطاقة من ال input أو من النظام نفسه)

active transducer :- has an auxiliary source of power ~~external~~ (لا لازم يكونه في مصدر خارجي مثل ال input هو الي يمد النظام بالطاقة)

- | | | |
|--|--|--|
| <p>ex 1) pressure gage
مقياس اى مصدر خارجي للطاقة
كل اى يبعث بسبب ضغط
(passive) - الكلاس</p> | <p>2) pressure thermometer
برمومتر اى مصدر خارجي
كله بكونه بسبب تغير الحرارة input
(passive)</p> | <p>3) digital revolution
لا حظ انه في مصدر
للطاقة وهو من input
والذي هو AC power line (active)</p> |
|--|--|--|

4) D'arsonval galvanometer

5) (op-Am) - active
لانه لازم مصدر خارجي مثل
ويكبر الإشارة (V)

كل اى يبعث ويتغير بسبب ال input ولا يوجد اى مصدر اخر : هو (passive)

ANALOG and DIGITAL

⑤ for analog signal the precise value of the quantity (voltage, Angle...) carrying the information is significant. However, digit signals are basically of a binary (on, off) nature, and variation in numerical value are associated with changes in the logical state "true/false" of some combination of "switches" ^{feeling variable}

ال analog هو اشارة وهي تحمل معلومات معينة اما الرقمية هي ذات طبيعة ثنائية (تمثيل, ايقاف) ولا اختلافات في القيمة العددية ترتبط في الالة المنطقية (صواب/خطأ) ليعبر المتغير.

analog speed motor
(ماسة / حركة)

digital

1 1 1 1 1 1

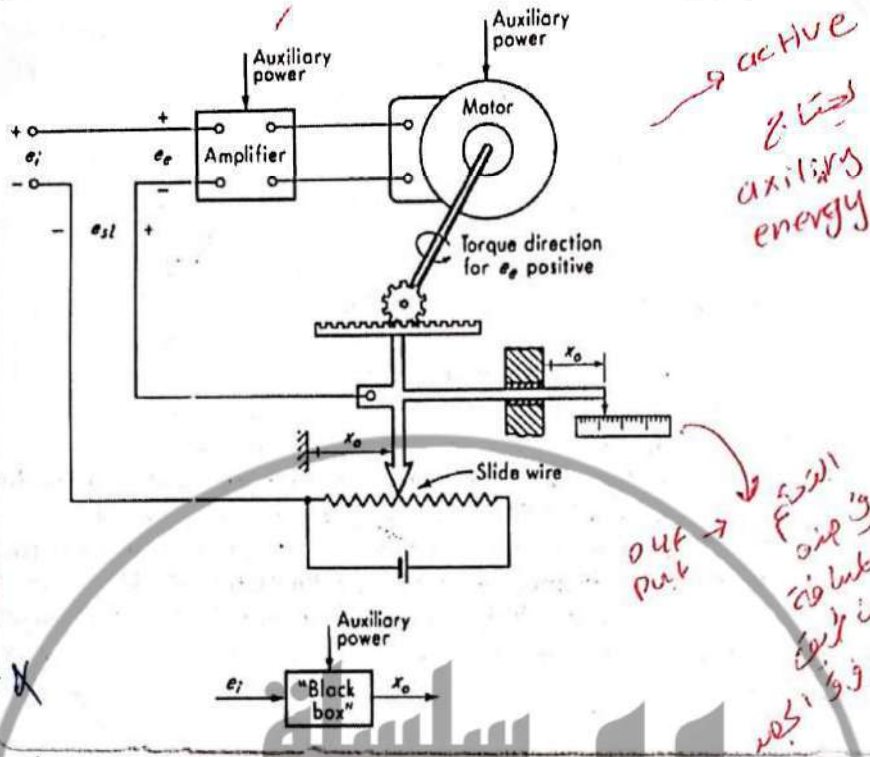
(Mechanical counter)

it necessary to have both

- analog to digital convert (at input to computer)
- digital to analog convert (at output " ")

that enable the computer to communicate with the outside world.

Amplifier (op-Am)



active
إنتاج
auxiliary
energy

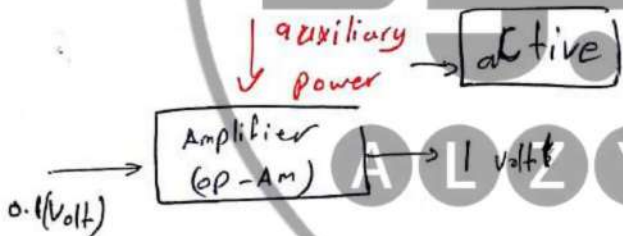
input $\rightarrow e_i$
output $\rightarrow x_o$

out put $\rightarrow$ الناتج
عن طرف
تغيير في الجسم

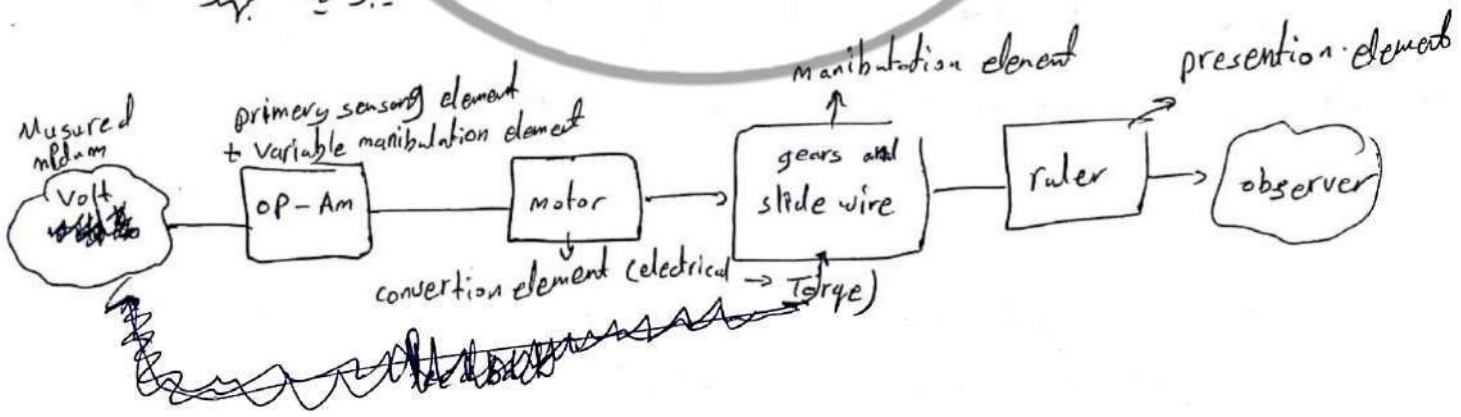
Instrument servomechanism

مدف التحكم بال x_o من خلال ال voltage e_i

كل ما كانت $x_o = e_i$ (أو مقاربة من صفه)
تجد التوازن



مدف التحكم بال x_o من خلال ال voltage e_i



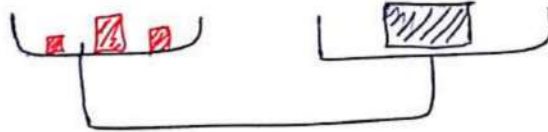
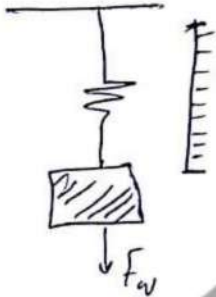
Null and deflection Methods

ال null هو جهاز لقياس عن طريقه القليل والاوزان اما deflection هو جهاز يقيس بسبب deflection يعني في الجهاز .

deflection instrument

Null instrument

ex



في اجهزة ذر الكمية ما حقا قدر امره إلا عن طريقه
تغير اوزانه فبذلك اذنه ليد ما يقدر
وبعد ما وزنه الجيم = وزنه الاوزانه
بقدر ما يغير في deflection في الزنبرك يعرف
ان اذنه وزنه الجيم

deflection Type device, the measured quantity produces some physical effect that engender a similar but opposing effect in some part of the instrument.

(في اداة الاوزانه الكمية اعطاسه تتغير بعض التأثيرات التي ياتي (اعطاسه) الذي يولد تأثيراً معاكساً لكن معاكساً في جزء ما من اعادة .)

a null-Type device attempts to maintain deflection at zero by suitable application of an effect opposing that generated by the measured quantity.

بجمله الجهاز في النوع الصفري انه يحافظ على (الانفرانه) الكمية المعاكسة للتأثير الناتج عن الكمية .

لنرجع قبل وصفه الأجهزة :-

1] pressure gage → deflection

2] pressure thermometer → deflection

3] Digital revolution counter → deflection 4] D'Arsoval galvanometer → deflection

بلا حظ انه كلما كانت سبب تغير ميزان اومادي (متر سبب اوزانه اوانا انصرفت) للجهاز الجهاز

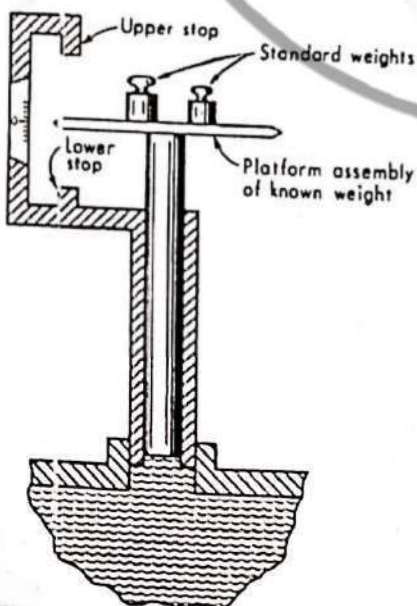
عشانه يكونه null ففي اوزانه اومقادصاته بغيرها عشانه اصغر الجهاز وما الاوزانه اومقادصاته بغيرها العتاي

اما ال deflection فهو تغير داخل الجهاز مثل انضغاط او انشدته الزنبرك (الي بيللي السبب) كما ان طيلعلي القية تابع القياس

بال null لو كانه الجهاز سبب باي سبب بالهقادصاته (مقاومة تعادل حدة مقاومة) سبب باي سبب بالهقادصاته (مقاومة تعادل حدة مقاومة)

ALZYOUD

Dead weight pressure gage



صاحده بظلال اوزانه حنا يتغير ال upper stop

لما يتغير يكونه طلعت F وضد اطنبه حالقاونه $P = \frac{F}{A}$

صا تغيل لوكل سوي بتغير الضغط بدي حد بيل فوقه الجهاز وكل سوي يقدر سبب ليللي الطرية not practical

اما بنسبة للدقة فال null ه ادقة (more accurate)

ليش؟؟ لاننا انا لما اسعمل الاوزانه نسبة الخطا تكاد تكونه معدومة

اما لو احي لل deflection والعقة زنبرك وضد كلاله $F = kx$ كانه تطلع ك ورج شطر تقربه ه نسبة الخطا اقل

لجهاز سبب F ه الاوزانه

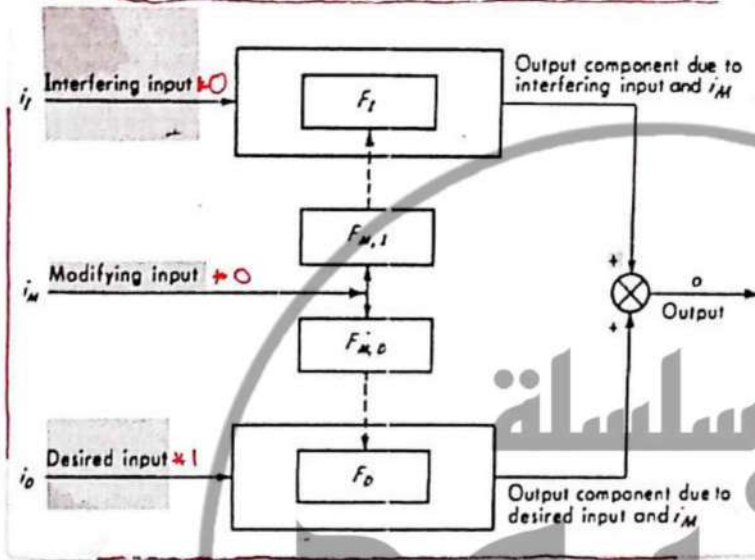
$$P = \frac{F}{A}$$

∴ يستخدم أجهزة ال null مكانه أثناء انه اجزاه ال deflection بحارها مع.

Input quantities are classified in to three categories :-

- 1) Interfiring input
- 2) Modifying input
- 3) Desired input

Generalized (input - output) configuration



1) desired input

هو الأسبق الي انا بهي اياه طلع بدقة
فقط كل الظهوره وياوله ما يصير
امير يميزه النتيجة (مكانه بهي اياه
بدرجة 1)

2) Interfiring input

بعد توثيقه وان يظهر يتصرفه كأنه
(desired input)

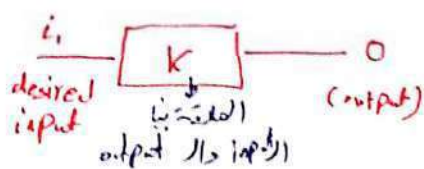
3) Modifying input

(مع يتصرفه زي كأنه desired input) انما ايسر مزاجه

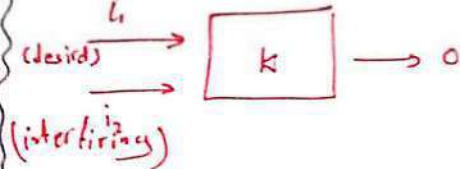
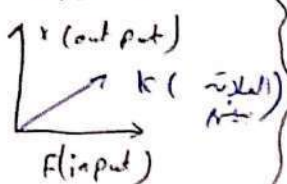
صاحه كمنيل غير ال output كاله حثاله ما كانه
فيه (desired input) لهيك زي كأنه input جديد
بدرجة 0
دفعاً انا بجاوله اقله لهيك برسومه مفروضه ب 0

صاحه صوري كما يكونه عندك ظفره انما
على النتيجة (output) لانه لقاله مشروح طلع
(output)

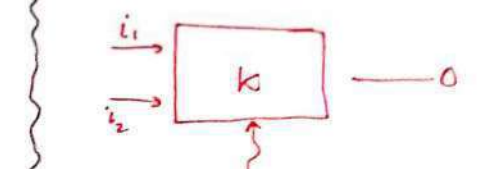
فقطاً انا بجاوله اقله لهيك برسومه بدرجة
ب 0



بمثاله انه بهي ايه عنده استقاله الزنبرك
بسبب تأثير عتقة



مثلاً لو صار على الزنبرك صراحه
تأثيره بنتيجه K وراح يتغير الرسمة
صورتها بدرجة interfering ~

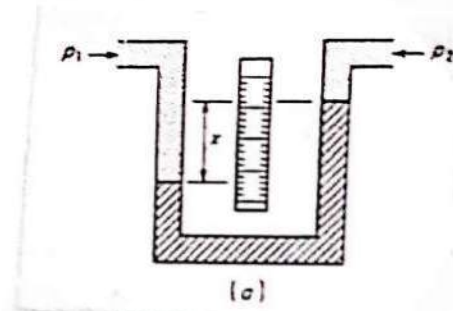
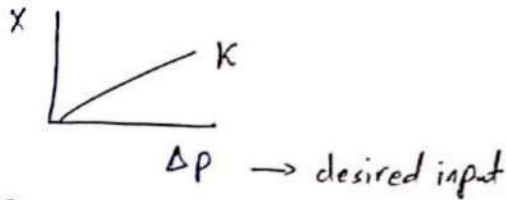


مثلاً لو صار على الزنبرك حرارة خلت
بوت (صوت الحرارة فيها تأثير x) كما
بدونه ال F صغرت زي كأنها input جديد
modifying ~

Spurious input for manometer

مقياس للضغط

العلاقة بين Δp و X



العلاقة بين Δp و X بتجهة g ، $\downarrow$
 $\downarrow$
 الاتجاه للأدنى

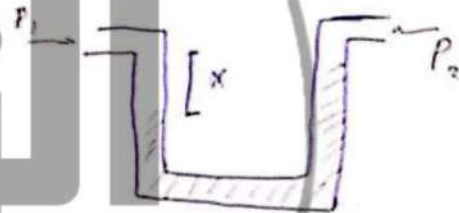
$$\Delta p = \rho g \Delta H$$

الضغط المبرء P_1

$$P_1 - P_2$$

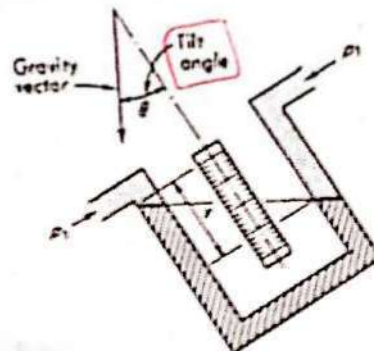
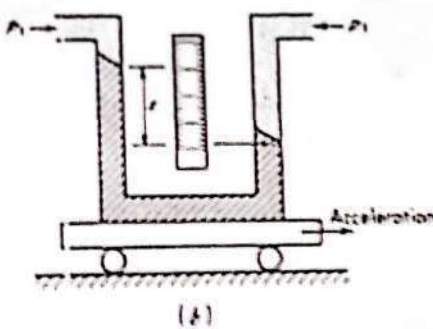
interfiring input

المغزى غير منه الحرارة من 20 ل 25 ، Δp يتأثر الضغط X
 Δp يتأثر K (العلاقة) بين الضغط و X
 interfiring input من الحرارة



ALZYOUD
 interfiring input = g :
 Δp يتأثر K
 Δp يتأثر g :
 interfiring input = g :
 Δp يتأثر K

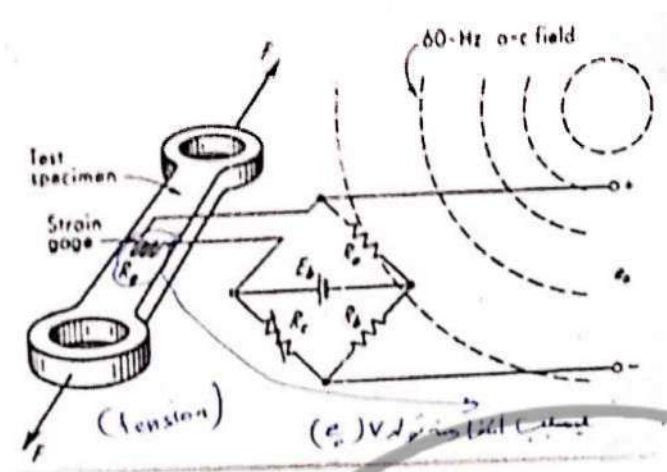
modifing input



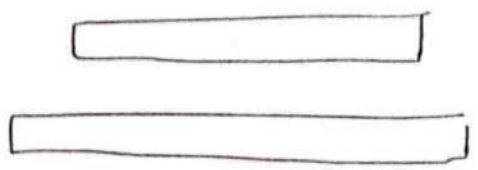
المغزى غير منه الحرارة من 20 ل 25 ، Δp يتأثر الضغط X
 Δp يتأثر K (العلاقة) بين الضغط و X
 interfiring input من الحرارة
 Δp يتأثر K
 Δp يتأثر g :
 interfiring input = g :
 Δp يتأثر K

برصولة صار مني في مقبلة السال
 فيو يترك دير مني X بدونه حنا ال pressure
 منونه ال ه صار مني Δp
 Δp يتأثر K
 Δp يتأثر g :
 interfiring input = g :
 Δp يتأثر K

Interfiring input for strain gage circuit



input → strain
output → Voltage



$$\epsilon = \text{strain} = \frac{\Delta L}{L}$$

لو تغيرت ال Temperature مع تغير قوة الشد (لذلك له في Force) (desired input)

تغير صان الحرارة مع Interfiring input

لو ما كان في Force وتغيرت الحرارة حسب العلاقة بين قوة الشد ودرجة الحرارة

صارت من طرف ال output ولكن صارت input طلع output

مع صان الحرارة modulating input since the gage factor is sensitive to temperature (Temperature also acts as modulating input)

هو ال output (output) لأن ال

قد صارت من طرف ال input

interfiring input

the gage's resistance changes according to the relation

$$\Delta R_g = (GF) R_g \epsilon \quad (2.1)$$

$$\Delta R_g \triangleq \text{change in gage resistance, } \Omega \quad (2.2)$$

$$GF \triangleq \text{gage factor, dimensionless} \quad (2.3)$$

$$R_g \triangleq \text{gage resistance when unstrained, } \Omega \quad (2.4)$$

$$\epsilon \triangleq \text{unit strain, cm/cm} \quad (2.5)$$

the voltage e_o is given by:-

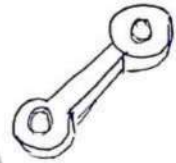
$$e_o = -(GF) R_g \epsilon E_t \frac{R_a}{(R_g + R_a)^2}$$

Methods of correction for interfering and modinbity input.

1] The method of inherent insensitivity ^{مورو} proposes the obviously sound design philosophy that the element of the instrument should inherently be sensitive to only the desired input.

- تقترح طريقة عدم الحساسية اعتماداً على فلسفة تصميم سليمة بشكل واضح مفادها أنه عناصر الأداة يجب أن تكون بطبيعتها حساسة للمدخلات المرغوبة فقط.

we might try to find some gage material that exhibits an extremely low temperature coefficient of resistance while retaining its sensitivity to strain. If such a material can be



found, the problem of interfering temperature inputs is at least partially solved.

حاولنا العثور على بعض المواد التي لها معامل ~~الحرارة~~ ^{الحرارة} منخفض جداً لتتغلب على المشكلة مع الاحتفاظ بحساسيتها للضغط. إذا كان من الممكن العثور على مثل هذه إعادة فإن المشكلة تدخل المراقبة يتم حلها جزئياً على الأقل.

ex) مواد معامل الحرارة ناعها قليل جداً

Dinvar

2) Zerodur

3) Alloy Ni-span C

2] the method of high-gain feedback

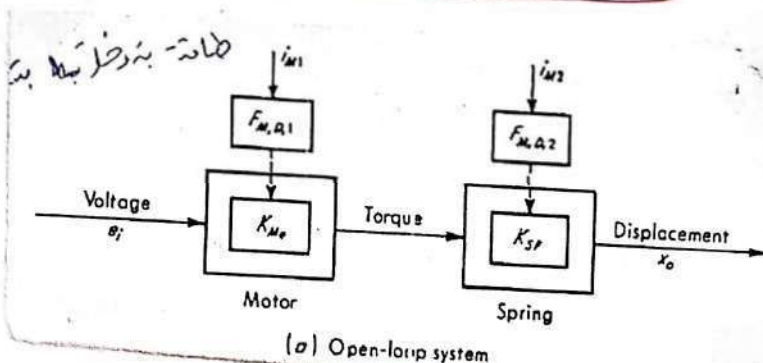
$$X_o = (k_{mo} k_{sp}) e_i$$

open loop

feedback

input e_i

منه يرفع معامل التمريرة i_{m1}, i_{m2}

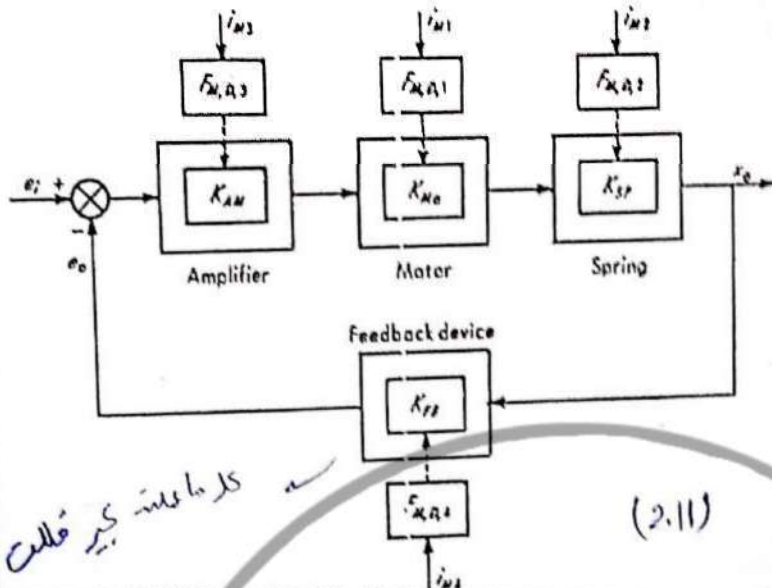


(a) Open-loop system

i_{m1} - صغرى اثره في motor و i_{m2} - اثره في spring ولايز طلع

تأثير displacement (مؤثر عليه في عدة جهات) $\rightarrow$ open loop (بناً من تركيب بار ارجاعات)

من النظرية صاى حالت اعكاس من طريق Close loop system



هذا الشكل هو صاى حالت اعكاس من طريق Close loop system

desired output

من النظرية صاى حالت اعكاس من طريق Close loop system

كل ما يترتب عليه

(2.11)

interferece
modify

closed loop system

لذلك صاى ال feedback

use a feedback to reduce effect of spurious inputs.

$$(e_i - e_o)K_{AM}K_{Mo}K_{SP} = (e_i - K_{FB}x_o)K_{AM}K_{Mo}K_{SP} = x_o \quad (2.8)$$

$$e_iK_{AM}K_{Mo}K_{SP} = (1 + K_{AM}K_{Mo}K_{SP}K_{FB})x_o \quad (2.9)$$

$$x_o = \frac{K_{AM}K_{Mo}K_{SP}}{1 + K_{AM}K_{Mo}K_{SP}K_{FB}} e_i \quad (2.10)$$

Suppose, now, that we design K_{AM} to be very large (a "high-gain" system), so that $K_{AM}K_{Mo}K_{SP}K_{FB} \gg 1$. Then

$$x_o \approx \frac{1}{K_{FB}} e_i \quad (2.11)$$

we know require only that K_{FB} stay constant (unaffected by i_{M4})

in order to maintain constant (input-output) calibration as shown in (2.11)

من النظرية صاى حالت اعكاس من طريق Close loop system

مادة القياس جز 2

2.5 → method of correction for interfering and ~~modality~~ modintity input.

3] the method of calculated output correction

2.) The method of calculated output corrections (requires one to measure or estimate the magnitudes of the interfering and/or modifying inputs and to know quantitatively how they affect the output. With this information, it is possible to calculate corrections which may be added to or subtracted from the indicated output so as to leave (ideally) only that component associated with the desired input. Thus, in the manometer of Fig. 2.10, the effects of temperature on both the calibrated scale's length and the density of mercury may be quite accurately computed if the

temperature

[illegible]

قبة الهزار
القبة بعد التديل

فاخير الجاز بعدد القم
↓
((by smart sensor))
((micro computer))

④ the method of signal filtering

The method of signal filtering is based on the possibility of introducing certain elements ("filters") into the instrument which in some fashion block the spurious signals, so that their effects on the output are removed or reduced. The filter may be

طريقة الفترة بجمعة كل انه تجيب سواد معية (بتقدر تخلص كذا معية) وتكتبه الى سواد الراثة
بجدة يتم ازالة او تقليل تاثيرها على الالهة

* general principle of filtering

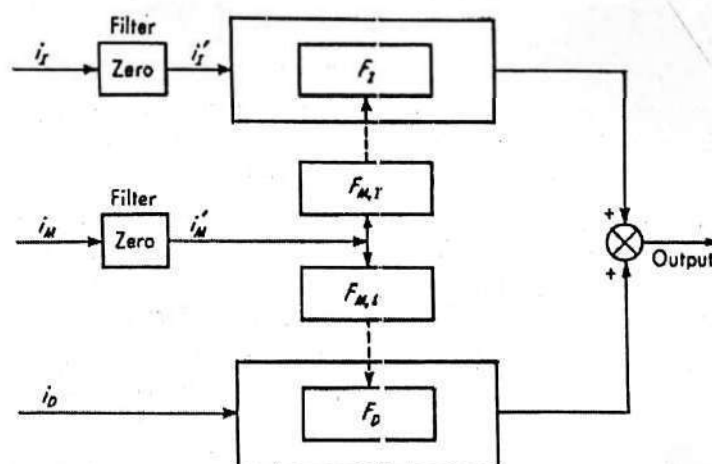
۱) ای بچہ

ال input فخریم

modify) و interfering

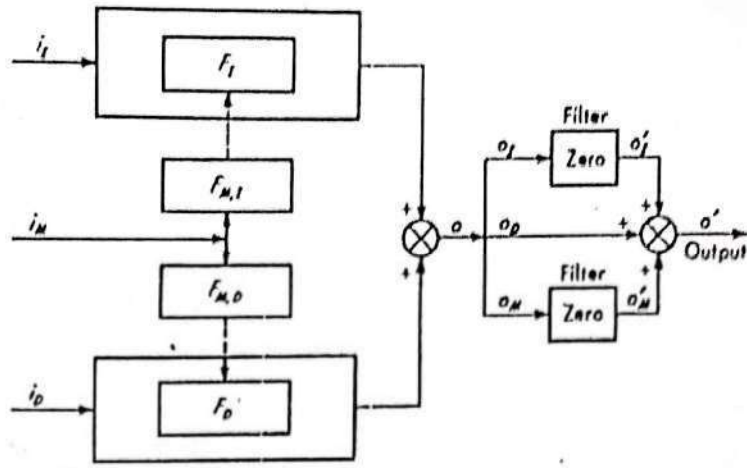
0.7

۱. مطلوبہ



(a) Input filtering

این فیلتر را حذف کنه 2)
 الا سیگنالی به بین ایضا × 0
 الا سیگنالی به بی ایضا × 1



(b) Output filtering

- to block completely the passage of the ^{ideally} ~~signal~~ ^{selective} filter ^{حذف کننده}
 it must pass the desired component essentially unaltered while effectively suppressing all other ^{فیلتر}
^{فیلتر}

example of filtering

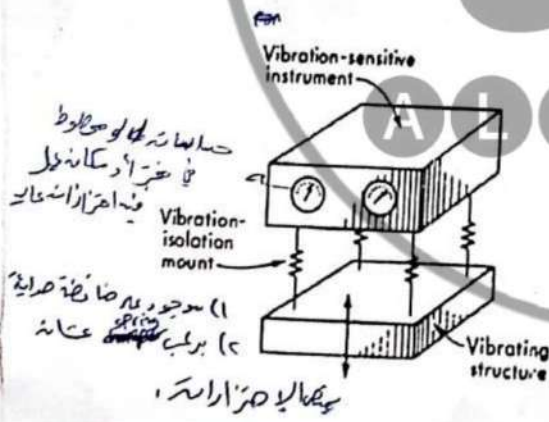
interfering input → vibrating

صدا الجهاز يوجد في أماكن فيها اهتزازات عالية مثل:

طائرة و الصواريخ aircraft and missile

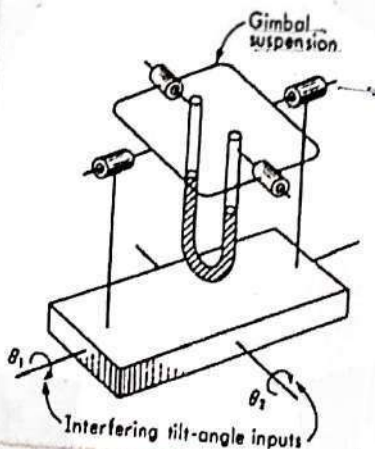
کیفه فیلتر کنیم (by use suitable spring mount)

The mass spring system is actually a mechanical filter which passes on the instrument only a negligible fraction of the motion of the vibration structure.



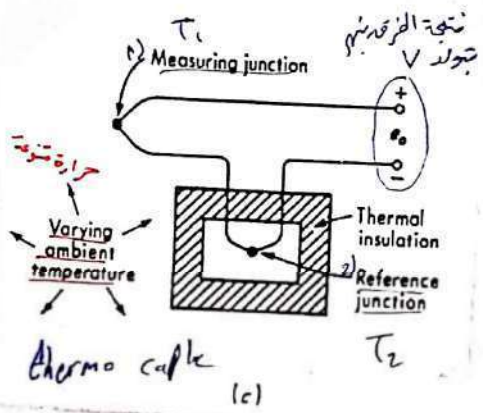
instrument → manometer (جهاز حساس)
 interfering input → tilt-angle inputs
 کيفه فیلتر کنیم (by gimbal-mounting) ? ^{فیلتر}
 scheme

If The gimbal bearings are essentially frictionless • the rotation θ_1 and θ_2 can not be communicated to the manometer. thus is always hangs vertical.



صورة تسمى نوعين من الحرارة بالتأثير على الدارة أو له وحد

3



Measuring junction - وهي الحافظ على

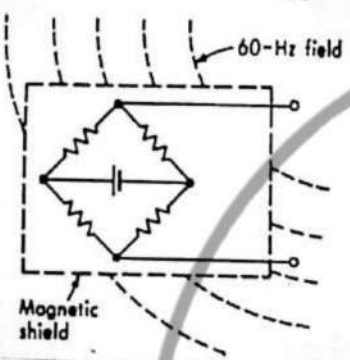
Reference junction - به اقلها او العليا فخطا داخل مادة او صندوق عازله للحرارة (يكن يفرها بجزء) مما يتطلع بار output.

interfiring input → Reference junction

by thermal insulation, كنه تخلصت منه

EX] Ice box

4



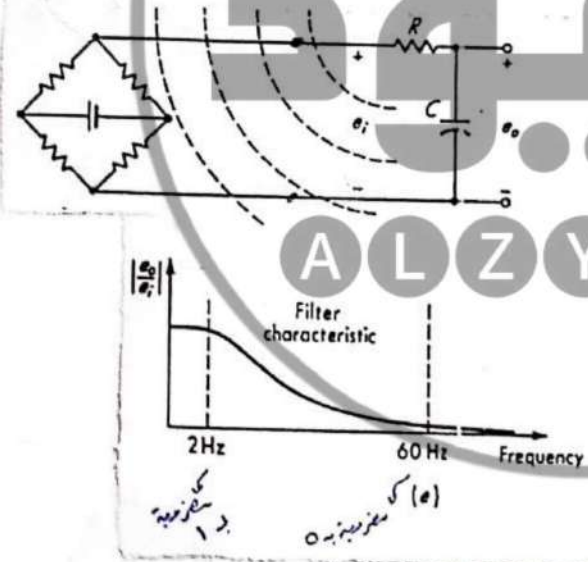
الدارة الكهربائية صورة موضوعة داخل مكانة من مجال مغناطيسي

interfiring input → 60-Hz field

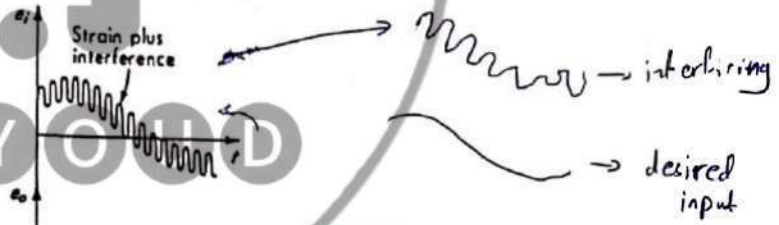
by enclosing it in a metal box, كنه تخلصت منه

instrument → the strain-gage circuit

5



صورة تسمى summation two signal



ما صغرت انا رعت RC
فما رعتني signal 1

صورة المجال المغناطيسي بالتأثير على الدارة

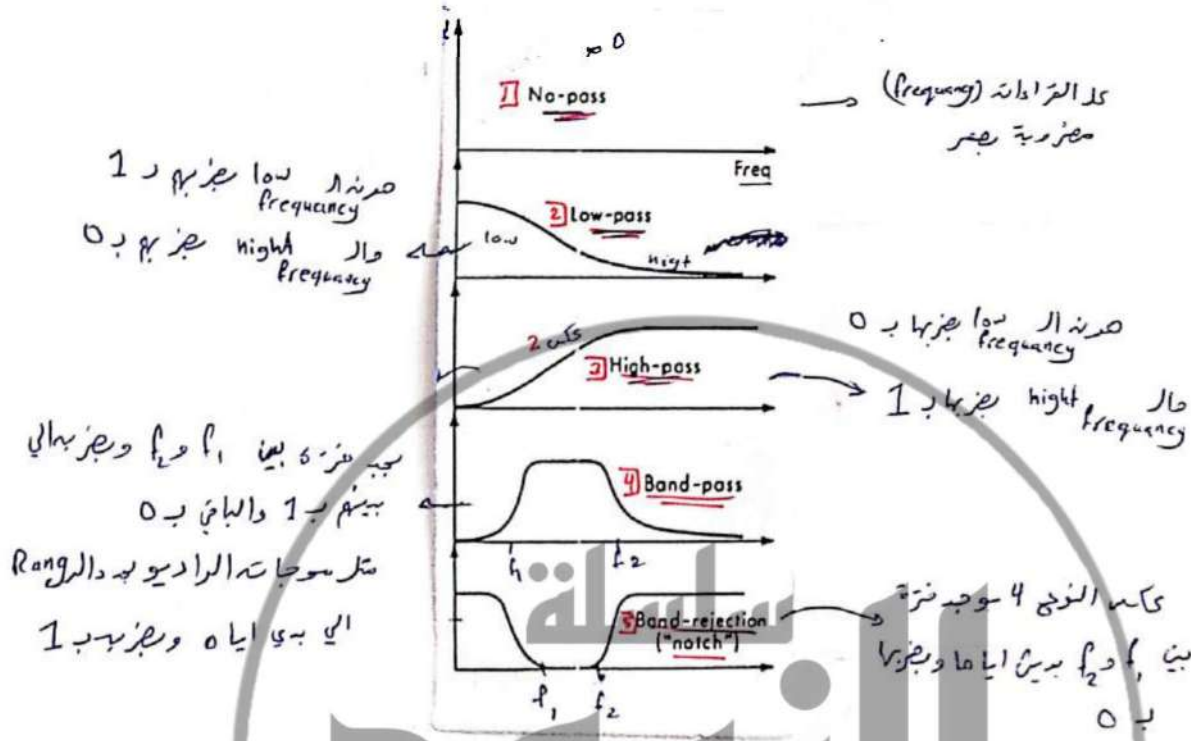
interfiring input → 60-Hz

RC (Resistor و conductor كنه تخلصت منه)

ALZAYOON

~~the method of opposing input~~

the Basic types of filter :-



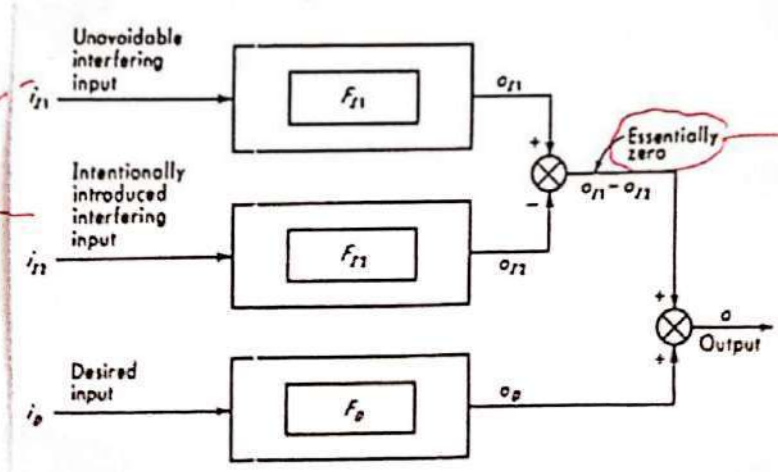
[5] the method of opposing input

The method of opposing inputs consists of intentionally introducing into the instrument interfering and/or modifying inputs that tend to cancel the bad effects of the unavoidable spurious inputs. Figure 2.16 shows

شرح صافي المدخلات هي أنه مثلاً إذا عني interfering input بهي إشارات غير مرغوب فيها تدخل في المدخلات
 $0 =$

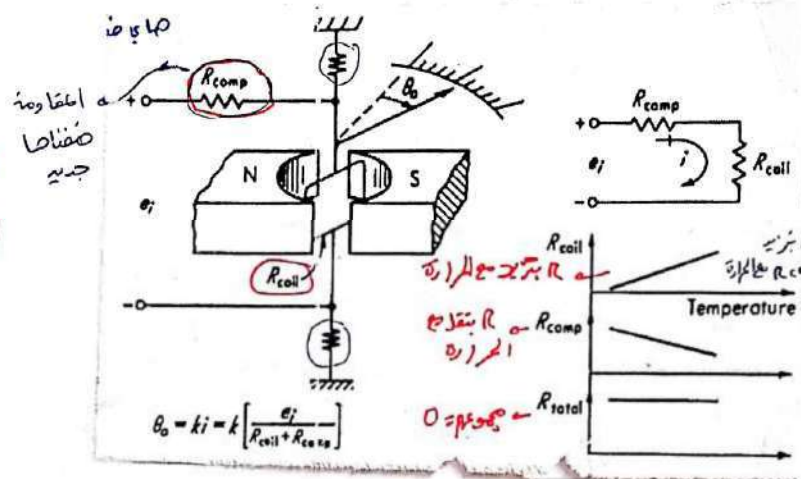
interfering input

إشارة غير مرغوب فيها



صفر =

ex
لها
لا
opposing



هذا اضماعنا ماد الجهاز
قبل galvanometer

مبدأ عمل الجهاز -

المجهود عبر R_{coil} يعادل عني
current ماد ال current

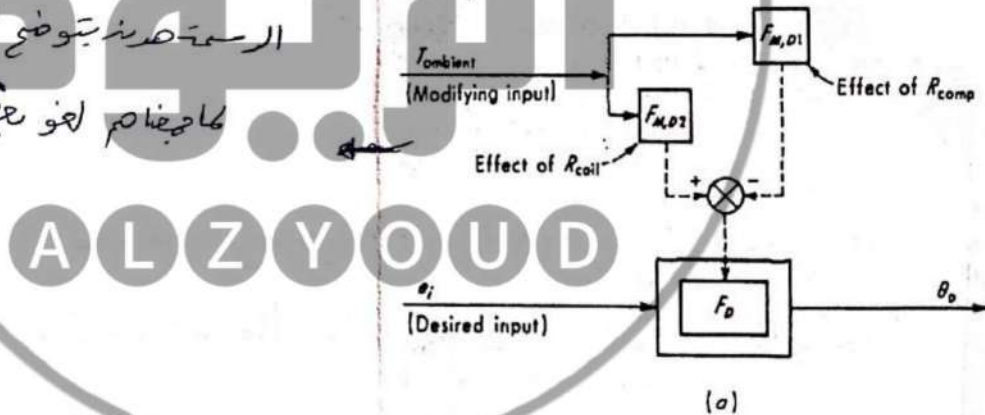
يعادل Torque θ deflection

R_{comp}
مع صورة ضفنا مقاومة ثانية R_{coil} الأولى التي بتأثر لدرجة الحرارة
من زيادة درجة الحرارة R_{coil} (المقاومة صورة تزيد) ضفت انا مقاومة ثانية من مادة ثانية
كما الحرارة بتزيد المقاومة را 2 تقل
 $R_{coil} + R_{comp} =$ (فبتقلني تأثير الحرارة بياي الطريقة)

R_{coil} الـ R_{comp} الـ
الـ R_{coil} الـ R_{comp} الـ
كما جفناهم لغو بعض

$$V = R_i i$$

$$e_i = R_{coil} * i$$



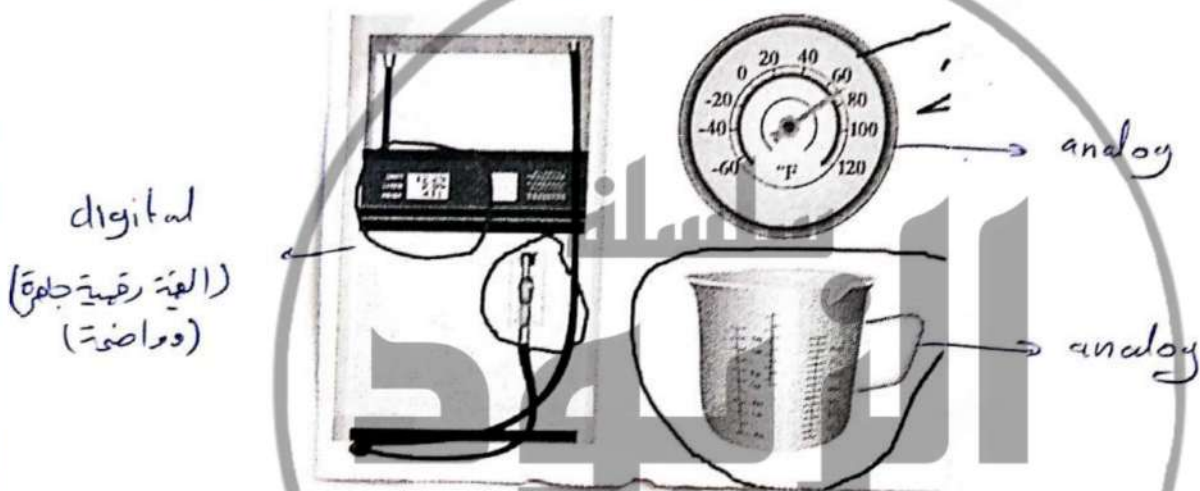
ch1: Basic concept of Measurement Methods

$$15 \pm 0.5 \text{ (kg)}$$

نتيجة القياس unit
~~uncertainty~~
 uncertainty error
 (خطأ غير مؤكد)

القياس أي قيمة يتم قياسها بهيكلها

* comment devices that involve measurements *
 (مقياس حسب analog أو digital)

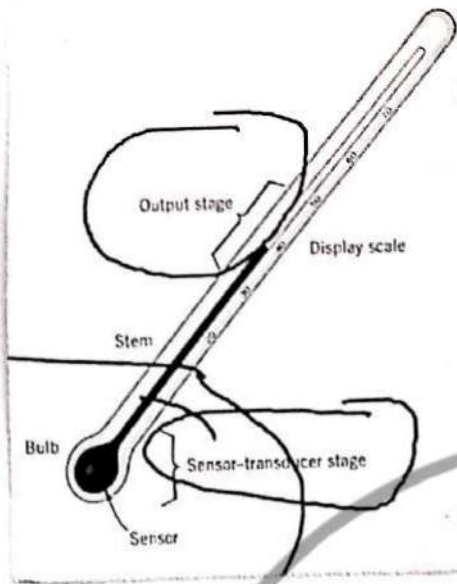


A measurement is an act of assigning specific value to a physical variable, that physical variable is the measured variable. A measurement system is tool used for quantifying the measured variable.
 صيغة لقياس قيمة محددة لمقياس مادي (مواصفة القياس) ونظام القياس هو أداة تستخدم لتقدير الكمية المقاسة.

Sensor and transducer

↓
 موحساس
 (يقدم فقط بلا مستشعر)
 وظيفة مقياس ويحول من شكل من أشكال الطاقة لا مركز
 لذلك فهو شبيه ب conversion

bulb thermometer



component of bubble ?

1) sensor (المراية) مع سيجي بلا ستر المراد قياس

2) sensor-transducer stage مقدمة bulb

which may contain a sensor, transducer and even some signal condition element bulb

3) signal condition

معالجة الإشارة في المرادسة وكبرها

او مفر (modifies)

4) output stage (الأرقام الى bulb) اسي يظهر كذا في المرادسة

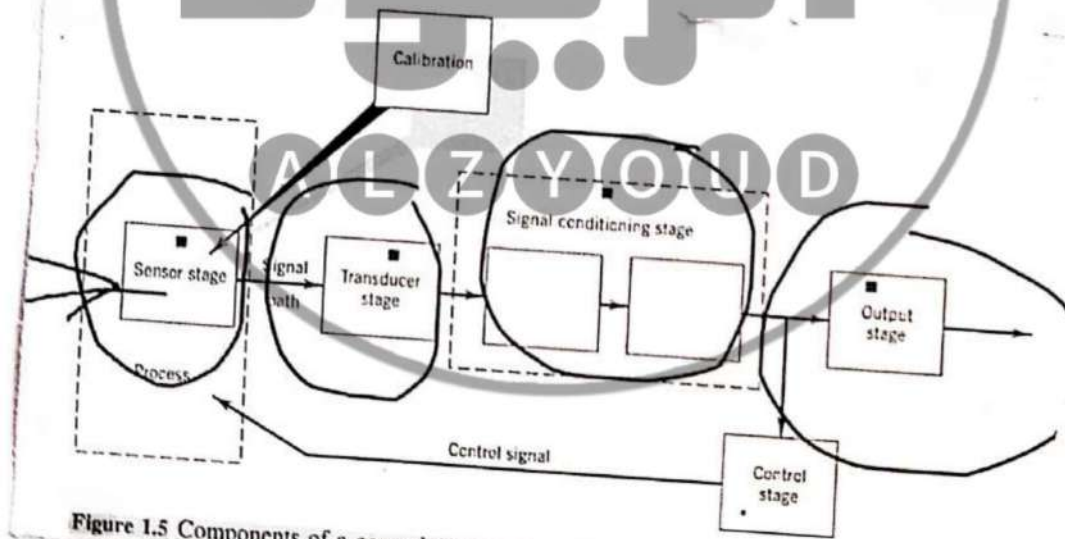


Figure 1.5 Components of a general measurement system.

Experimental best plan

(خطة اختبار تجريبية)

the best should be design and executed to answer the question

(تقريباً من مخطط التحليل التجريبي) experimental engineering analysis

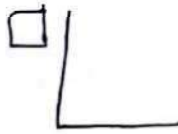
variable

3 Type

independent (x)



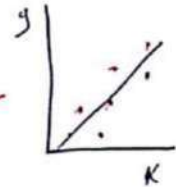
dependant (y)



extraneous variable

المتغيرات الخارجة عن التجربة
modality interfering input

هـ لـ عني القـ بـنـقـر ؟ بـبـب الـ extraneous variable



صـوـنـة فـي عـنـد 3 اـسـخـام اـجـوـيـة صـم

يـقـيـوـد رـجـة الفـلـيـانـة بـالعـنـزـلـات

1) —> 212.5

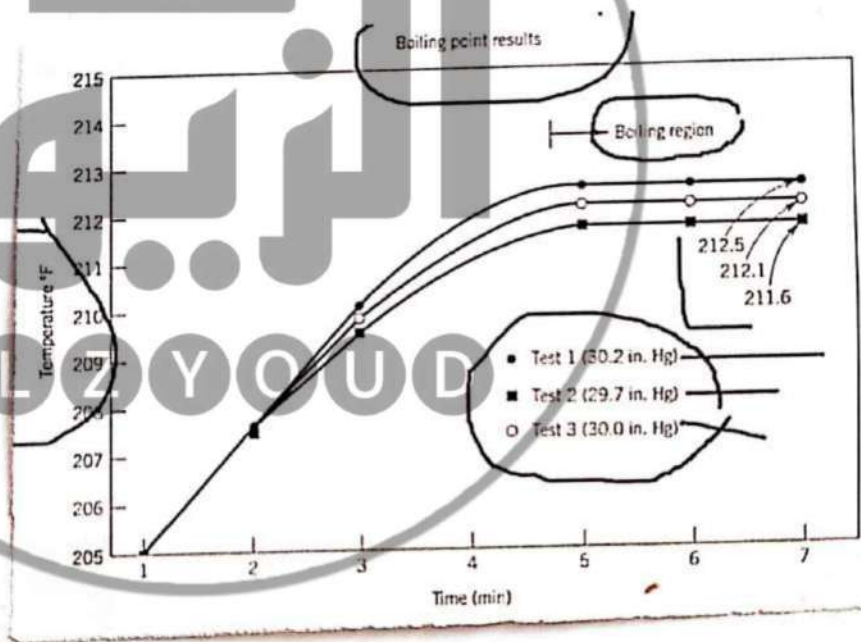
2) —> 212.1

3) —> 211.6

طـاـبـيـلا خـلـافـة ؟

extraneous variable سبب الـ

والـ صـوـنـة الفـفـطـالـجـوي



parameter

define: a parameter as a functional grouping of variable

* parameter that has an effect on the behavior of the of the measured variable is called control parameter

صوتية بـ parameter هو وظيفة لعروبته في ال variable

كل المروحة $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{rotational speed} \\ \text{diameter} \\ \text{flow} \end{array} \right.$

عدد له المبروكة فيني ابرع من parameter

$C_1 = Q / nd^3$
 flow coefficient (parameter)
 لونه يكسب لونه لعم

المروحة بفتح الهواء في 3D

Noise and Interference

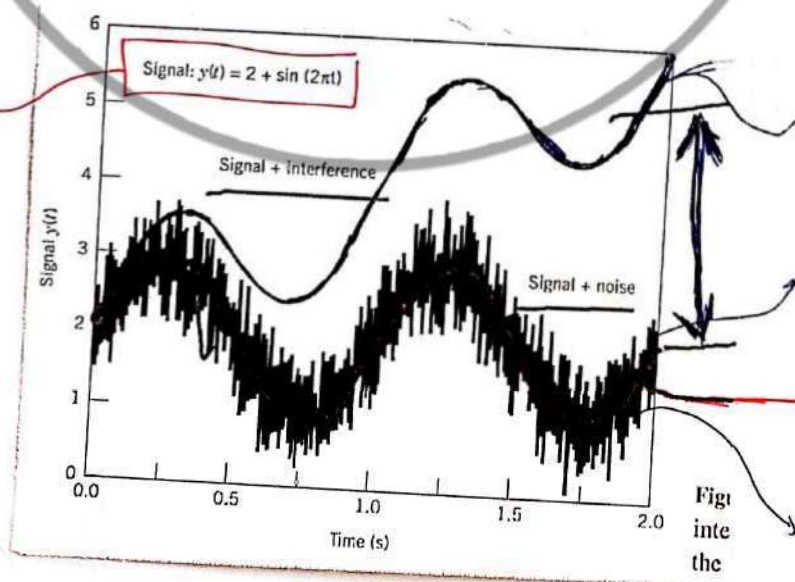
في نسبة خطأ صغيرة
 صرحت شوالفرقة بينهم هذا ال noise 0.5 ± 0.01 يعني الجوابه ممكن يطرح 0.49 0.51

اسم بسيط اعاد ماقل هذا القية الصحيحة

اما ال Interference اسمها تطلع كل القيم في نسبة خطأ ثابتة فيها
 [ex] عند القياس شريط القياس يعطي به له 80 cm 85 cm كل القياسات الي فوقه ال 80 تكون
 زاوية نسبة ثابتة والي هي 5 cm

ALZYUOD

عندي طاي العلاقة



صا صا الازخ صو
 ال interference ويكون
 لكل قراءة الي
 interference
 ثابتة

صادر ال noise الي
 اقل يكون
 الخا الي بالف
 صا الجواب بالاصح

صادر ال noise الي
 اقل يكون

لكل قراءة في ال noise اقل منها يكون واقل منها يكون

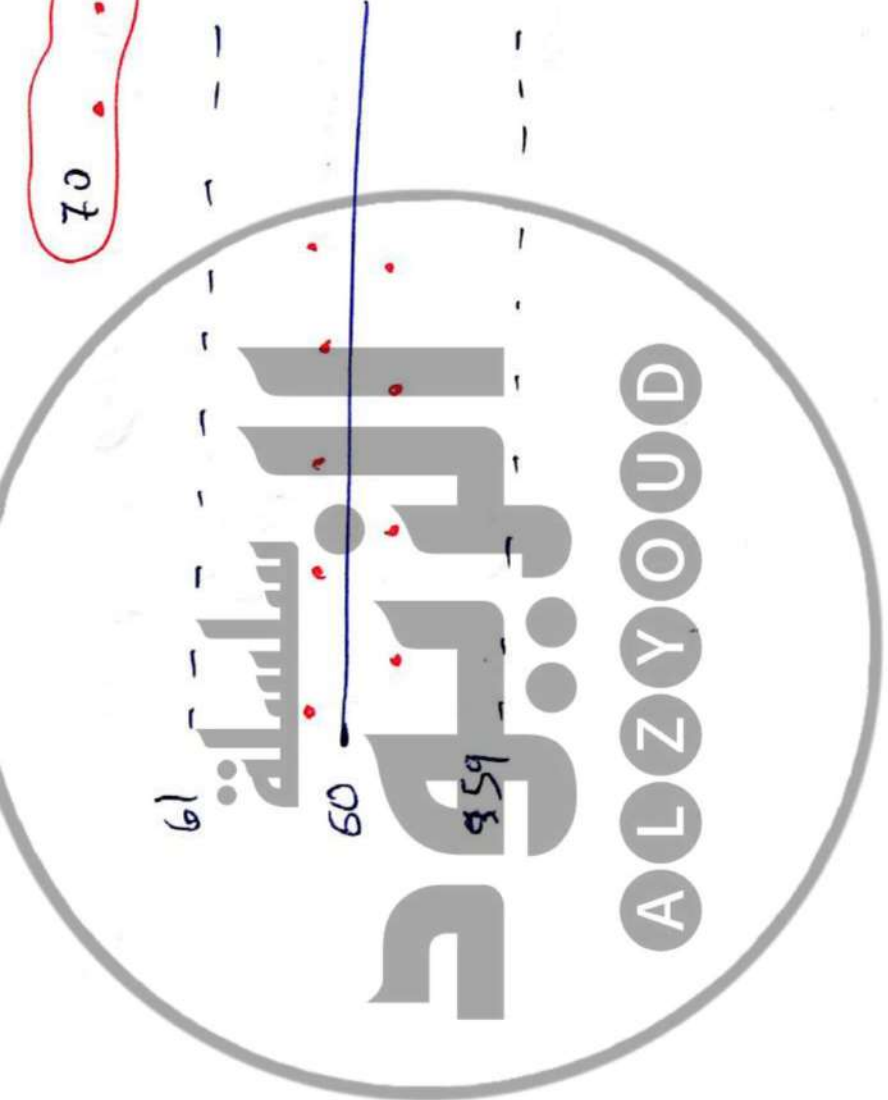
70

بجائز خطاه ارتفاعت

وامي مو بيضا ضو

interference

(systemic error)



Ch2:Static and Dynamic Characteristics Signals

إشارات الخصائص الثابتة والديناميكية

measurement system takes an input quantity and transforms it into observed or recorded , such as the movement of a pointer on a dial or the magnitude of a digital display .

يأخذ نظام القياس كمية إدخال ويحولها إلى ملحوظة أو مسجلة ، مثل حركة المؤشر على قرص أو حجم العرض الرقمي

characteristics of both the input and the resulting output signals The shape and form of a signal are often referred to as its waveform . The waveform contains information about the magnitude and amplitude , which indicate the size of the input quantity and the frequency , which indicates the way the signal changes in time . An understanding of waveforms is required for the selection of measurement systems and the interpretation of measured signals .

خصائص كل من إشارات الإدخال والإخراج الناتجة غالبًا ما يشار إلى شكل وشكل الإشارة على أنها شكل الموجة الخاص بها. يحتوي شكل الموجة على معلومات حول الحجم والسعة ، مما يشير إلى حجم كمية الإدخال والتردد ، مما يشير إلى الطريقة التي تتغير بها الإشارة بمرور الوقت. مطلوب فهم أشكال الموجة لاختيار أنظمة القياس وتفسير الإشارات المقاسة.

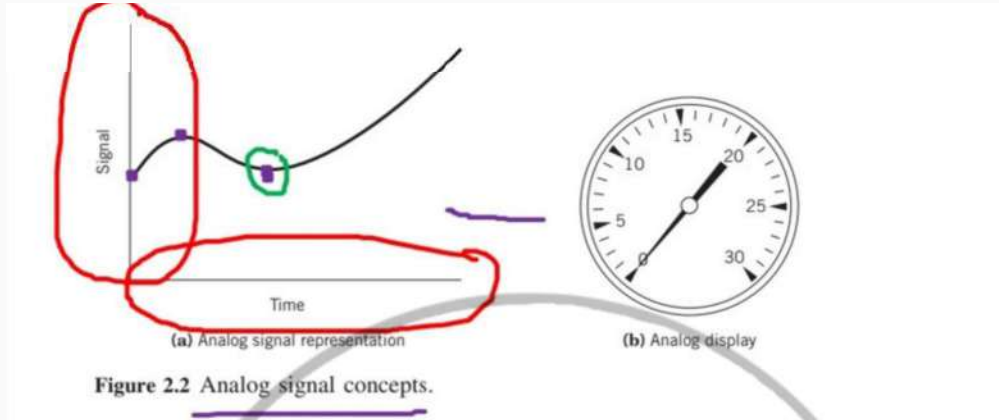
Two important tasks that engineers face in the measurement of physical variables are (1) selecting a measurement system and (2) interpreting the output from a measurement system .

مهمتان مهمتان يواجههما المهندسون في قياس المتغيرات الفيزيائية هما (1) اختيار نظام القياس و (2) تفسير الناتج من نظام القياس.

Classification of Waveforms:

1) Analog describes a signal that is continuous in time . Because physical variables tend to be continuous , an analog signal provides a ready representation of their time - dependent behavior .

يصف التناظرية إشارة مستمرة في الوقت المناسب. نظرًا لأن المتغيرات المادية تميل إلى أن تكون مستمرة، فإن الإشارة التناظرية توفر تمثيلًا جاهزًا لسلوكها المعتمد على الوقت.

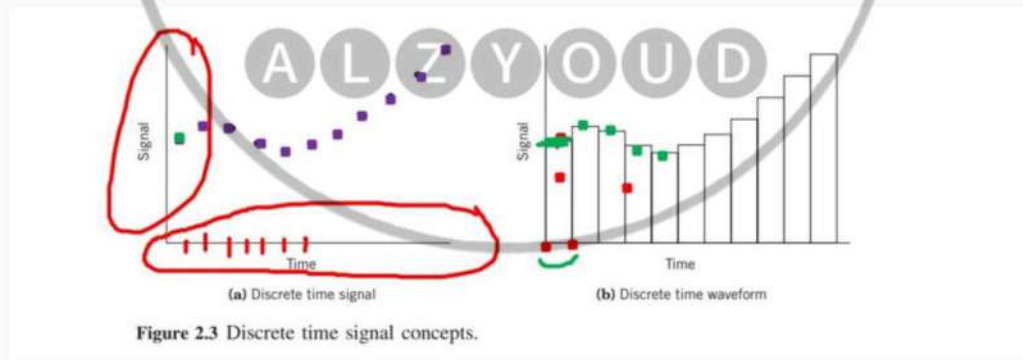


عبارة عن continuous waveform يعني بأي لحظة القراءة الي بشوفها عجزا القياس بشوفها على ال waveform

Time → continuous..... Signal → continuous

2) A discrete time signal usually results from the sampling of a continuous variable at repeated finite time intervals .

تنتج إشارة الوقت المنفصلة عادةً عن أخذ عينات من متغير مستمر في فترات زمنية محدودة متكررة.

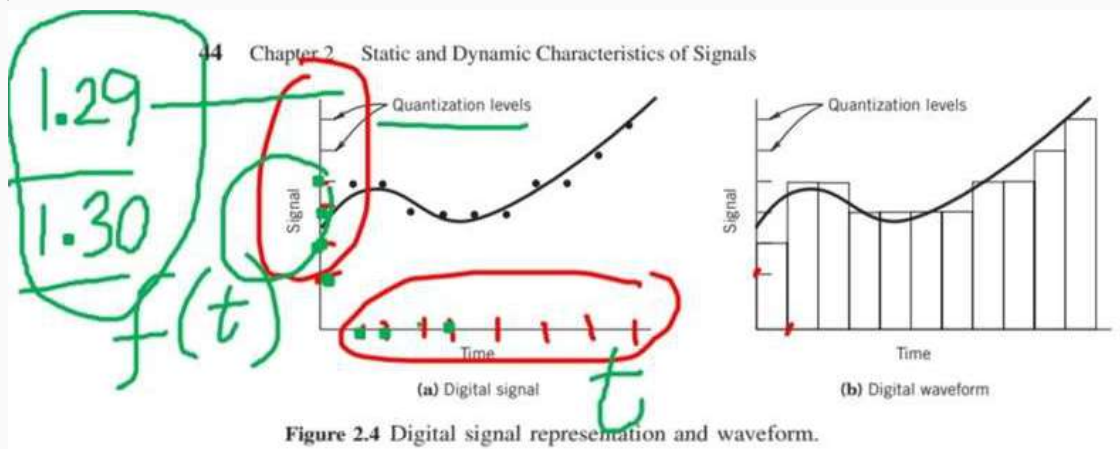


هون بتميز انه ال Time ما يكون continuous يكون على discrete

Time → discrete..... Signal → continuous

3) Digital signals are particularly useful when data acquisition and processing are performed using a digital computer .

تكون الإشارات الرقمية مفيدة بشكل خاص عند الحصول على البيانات ومعالجتها باستخدام جهاز كمبيوتر رقمي.



لاحظ انه عبر عن ال
signal ب $y(t)$ وعبر عن
time ب t

هون الشين discrete (على فترات) ← interval

Time → discrete..... Signal → discrete

مثلاً بهاي الطريقة ممكن الاقي ال (1.30) signal والاقى (1.29) signal وبدي signal بينهم مثلاً (1.28) فبقربلأنه هون ال signal discrete

مشكلة هاي الطريقة اني بعتبر signal فترات فما بيعطيني بدقة (Accuracy) ال diagonal

Sampling of an analog signal to produce a digital signal can be accomplished by using an analog - to - digital (A / D) converter , a solid - state device that converts an analog voltage signal to a binary number system representation

يمكن أخذ عينات من إشارة تناظرية لإنتاج إشارة رقمية باستخدام محول تناظري إلى رقمي (A / D) ، وهو جهاز الحالة الصلبة الذي يحول إشارة الجهد التناظرية إلى تمثيل نظام الأرقام الثنائية

ALZYUUD



Table 2.1 Classification of Waveforms

I	Static	$y(t) = A_0$
II.	Dynamic	
	Periodic waveforms	
	Simple periodic waveform	$y(t) = A_0 + C \sin(\omega t + \phi)$
	Complex periodic waveform	$y(t) = A_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \sin(n\omega t + \phi_n)$
	Aperiodic waveforms	
	Step ^a	$y(t) = A_0 U(t)$ $= A_0 \text{ for } t > 0$
	Ramp	$y(t) = A_0 t \text{ for } 0 < t < t_f$
	Pulse ^b	$y(t) = A_0 U(t) - A_0 U(t - t_1)$
III.	<u>Nondeterministic waveform</u>	$y(t) \approx A_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \sin(n\omega t + \phi_n)$

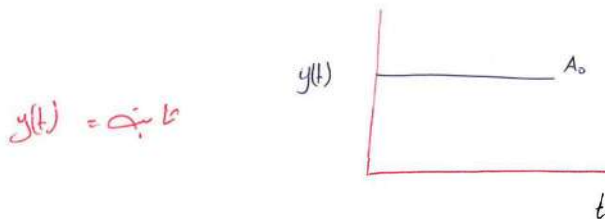
رح لاحظ وجود ثلث اشكال تين منهم deterministic الي هما ال static وال dynamic
واخر نوع هو nondeterministic فأيش معناهم رح نتفصل تحت فيهم

I Static

$$y(t) = A_0$$

A static signal does not vary with time

لا تتغير الإشارة الساكنة بمرور الوقت



مثال عليها لو انا بغرفة وكانت الحرارة 25 وضلت 25 ← static signal

II. Dynamic

Periodic waveforms

Simple ~~periodic waveform~~

$$y(t) = A_0 + C \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

Complex periodic waveform

$$y(t) = A_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \sin(n\omega t + \phi_n)$$

Aperiodic waveforms

Step^a

$$y(t) = A_0 U(t) \\ = A_0 \text{ for } t > 0$$

Ramp

$$y(t) = A_0 t \text{ for } 0 < t < t_f$$

Pulse^b

$$y(t) = A_0 U(t) - A_0 U(t - t_1)$$

A dynamic signal is defined as a time - dependent signal

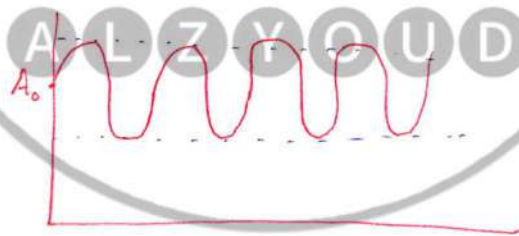
يتم تعريف الإشارة الديناميكية على أنها إشارة تعتمد على الوقت

رج نلاحظ انه ال dynamic نوعين periodic و aperiodic

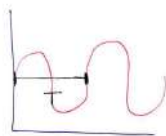
Simple ~~periodic waveform~~

$$y(t) = A_0 + C \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

periodic $y(t) = A_0 + C \sin(\omega t + \phi)$
توبيخ ارسمه



هسا هون ال ω ←ها علاقة بال frequency وكم بتتكرر (signal) القمة والقاع مع الوقت
 ϕ ←ها دخل بنقطة البداية عن الصفر تحت الصفر او فوقه وكم تبعد عنه



اما ال T فهو الزمن المستغرق لقمة وقاع كاملين

ال periodic لها simple و complex والإختلاف بينهم

Simple ←ها تردد واحد Signal

Complex ←ها مجموعة من الترددات Signal

لو بتلاحظ ال periodic بتعمل عندي نمط متكرر اما ال Aperiodic ما بتعمل عندي نمط

Aperiodic waveforms

Step^a

$$y(t) = A_0 U(t) \\ = A_0 \text{ for } t > 0$$

Ramp

$$y(t) = A_0 t \text{ for } 0 < t < t_f$$

Pulse^b

$$y(t) = A_0 U(t) - A_0 U(t - t_1)$$

Step^a

$$y(t) = A_0 U(t)$$

step $\rightarrow y(t) = A_0 * \underline{u(t)}$ unit step function



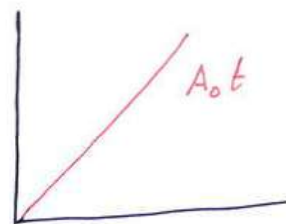
القيمة تساوي صفر قبل الصفر بعد الصفر يساوي A.
مثال عليه لو حطيت ميزان حرارة بكاسة ثلج وبعدها شلته وحطيته بماء مغلي

Ramp

$$y(t) = A_0 t \text{ for } 0 < t < t_f$$

Ramp $\rightarrow$ integration صغاي زي
step function لل

(ايجل لل step تكامل بطلع Ramp)



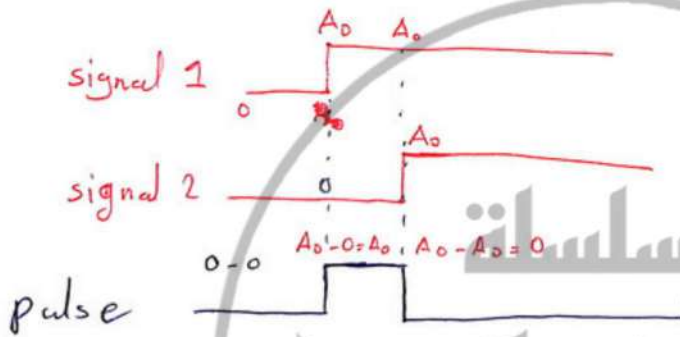
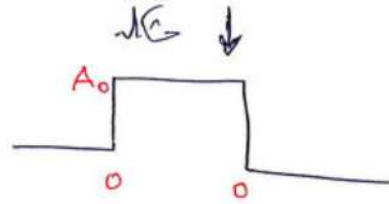
Pulse^b

$$y(t) = A_0 U(t) - A_0 U(t - t_1)$$

نلاحظ انه زي كانه 2 signal معناه step input (step signal) pulse →

ومطروحين من بعض فتبقى منه ال pulse

بكونه صفر بعد ما بير A_0 وبعدها يرجع صفر



كيفية نتيجته؟

A simple periodic waveform contains only one frequency . A complex periodic waveform contains multiple frequencies and is represented as a superposition of multiple simple periodic waveforms . Aperiodic is the term used to describe deterministic signals that do not repeat at regular intervals , such as a step function .

يحتوي الشكل الموجي الدوري البسيط على تردد واحد فقط. يحتوي الشكل الموجي الدوري المعقد على ترددات متعددة ويتم تمثيله على أنه تراكم لأشكال موجية دورية متعددة بسيطة. Aperiodic هو المصطلح المستخدم لوصف الإشارات القطعية التي لا تتكرر على فترات منتظمة ، مثل دالة الخطوة.

كل الي قبل كانوا deterministic بس ايش يعني؟؟؟

A deterministic signal varies in time in a predictable manner , such as a sine wave , a step function , or a ramp function , as shown in Figure 2.5 .

تختلف الإشارة القطعية في الوقت بطريقة يمكن التنبؤ بها ، مثل موجة جيبية ، أو وظيفة خطوة ، أو وظيفة منحدر ، كما هو موضح في الشكل 2.5.

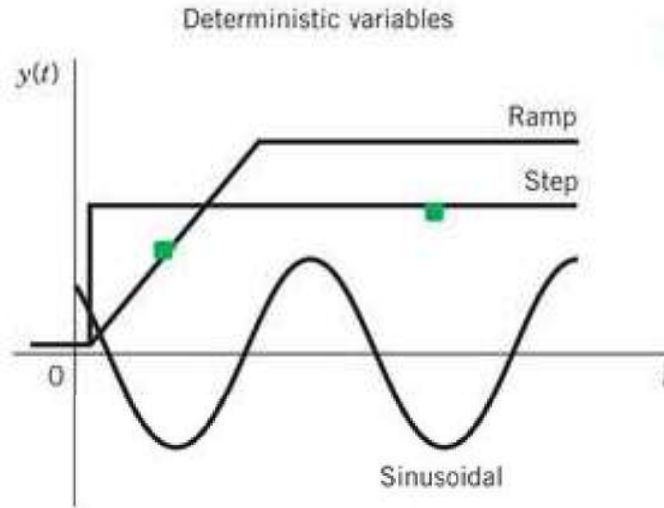


Figure 2.5 Examples of dynamic signals.

مثال عليها كل الي اخذناهم قبل
نجي لآخر نوع والي هو ال nondeterministic

III. Nondeterministic waveform

$$y(t) \approx A_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} C_n \sin(n\omega t + \phi_n)$$

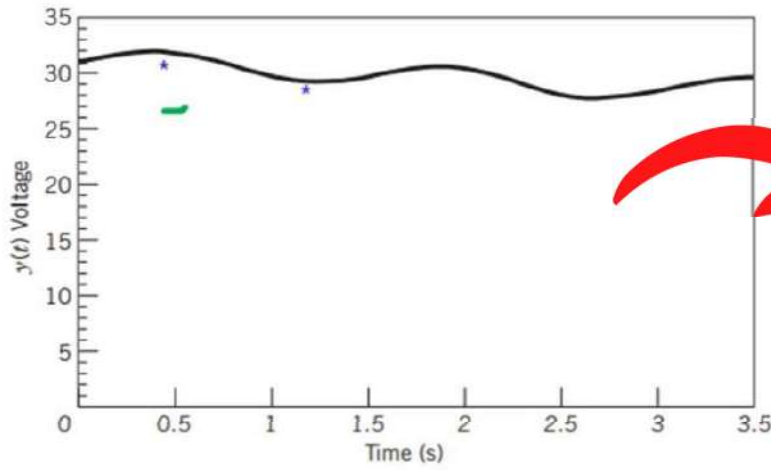


the sumation of
the deterministic
signal
هي مجموع للإشارات

Also described in Figure 2.5 is a nondeterministic signal that has no discernible pattern of repetition . A nondeterministic signal cannot be prescribed before it occurs , although certain characteristics of the signal may be known in advance .

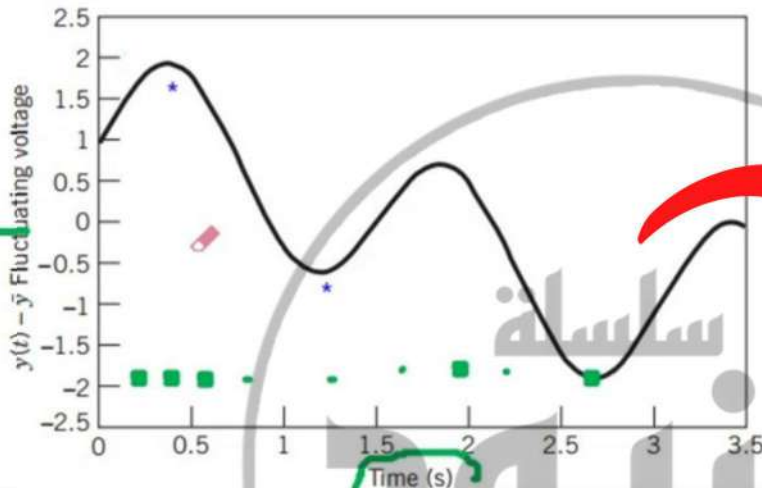
موصوفة أيضًا في الشكل 2.5 هي إشارة غير حتمية ليس لها نمط تكرار واضح. لا يمكن وصف إشارة غير حتمية قبل حدوثها ، على الرغم من أن بعض الخصائص المميزة للإشارة قد تكون معروفة مسبقًا.





(a) Signal prior to subtracting DC offset

الأفرج تاعها من (28-32)
إذن 2 ± 30



(b) Fluctuating component of signal

لاحظ النجوم برسمتين
Figure 2.7 Effect of subtracting DC
offset for a dynamic signal.

الأفرج تاعها من (0-2)
إذن 0 ± 2

شو اوجه التشابه بين الرسمتين ← (1) انه ال time يبدأ بصفر وينتهي ب 3.0
انه الرسمتين طلعة ← نزلة ← طلعة ← نزلة

Simple periodic waveform

$$y(t) = A_0 + C \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

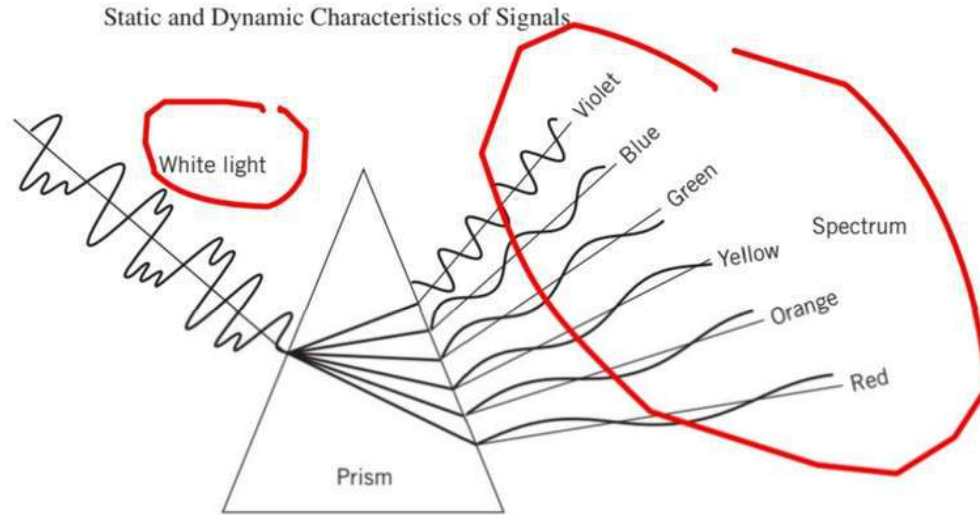
Dc
Constant

Periodic
variable او
Ac او

فهون الي صار انهم حولوا الرسة الأولى لرسة تانية
عن طريق انهم طرحو ال 30
وغيروا ال scale فالرسة كبرت وصارت اوضح



هسا الهدف من هاد الشابترا انه اي signal اقدر اعرف مكوناتها بزبط زي مثال المنشور وضوء الشمس



زي ضوء الشمس لما امره داخل منشور رح يتحلل لعدة اطياف بترددات وطول موجي مختلفين

Figure 2.8 Separation of white light into its color spectrum . Color corresponds to frequency or wavelength ; light intensity corresponds to varying amplitudes .

الشكل 2.8 فصل الضوء الأبيض إلى طيف ألوانه. يتوافق اللون مع التردد أو الطول الموجي ؛ شدة الضوء تتوافق مع السعات المتغيرة.

SIGNAL AMPLITUDE AND FREQUENCY : The method of expressing such a complex signal as a series of sines and cosines is called Fourier analysis .

اتساع وتواتر الإشارة: تسمى طريقة التعبير عن مثل هذه الإشارة المعقدة كسلسلة من الجيب وجيب التمام بتحليل فورييه.

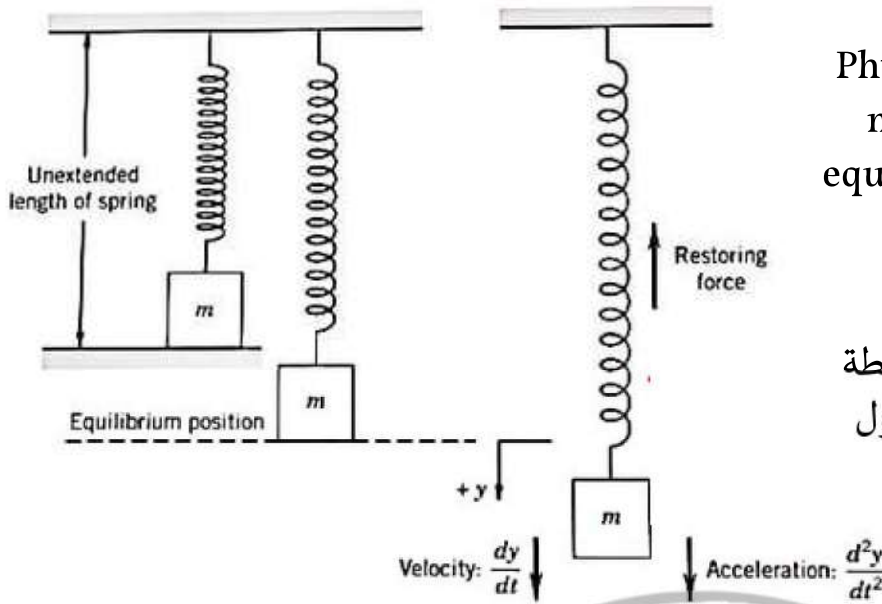
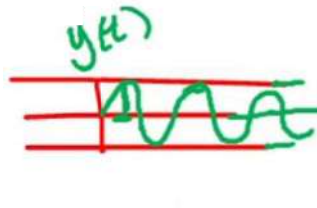


Figure 2.9 Spring-mass system.

Physically we know that if the mass is displaced from the equilibrium point and released, it will oscillate about the equilibrium point.

نعلم مادياً أنه إذا تم إزاحة الكتلة من نقطة التوازن وتعود إليها، فسوف تتأرجح حول نقطة التوازن.

هون انا عندي (string system) (mechanical system) لما اضغته و اتركه مجال مشان يتحرك رننلاقي انه حيوصل لنقطة توازن وبعدها يصير يطلع وينزل الحركة تاعه هاي عبارك عن periodic motions



لو بدى اكتب معادلته التفاضلية:

$$m \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + ky = 0$$

الهدف من هاي المعادلة اني اقدر احسب قيمة ال y

$$y = A \cos \omega t + B \sin \omega t$$

ال A وال B بما انهم نفس ال frequency بقدر اختصرهم ب c

$$y = C \cos (\omega t - \phi)$$

او

$$y = C \sin (\omega t + \phi^*)$$

The sine and cosine terms can be combined. If a phase angle is introduced such that يمكن الجمع بين شرط الجيب وجيب التمام إذا تم إدخال زاوية المرحلة من هذا القبيل

و تكون AMPLITUDE c مقدارها $c = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$

وال w هي ال Angular circuit frequency ووحدتها rad/s وتقرأ أوميغا



وال T عرفناه قبل بأنه الزمن تاع دورة كاملة (قمة وقاع) ووحدته ال الثانية s

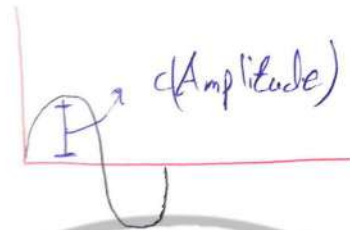
$$F = \frac{1}{T}$$

وال frequency f هي مقلوب ال T ووحدتها Hz

ال w ال Angular circuit frequency لها علاقه بال frequency كقانون

$$W=2\pi F$$

اما ال c والي هو ال amplitude الي هو السعة



ضل اخر اشي الي هو ال Φ face angle اديه انا ببعد عن zero

The values of C, ϕ , and ϕ^* are found from the following trigonometric identities:

$$A \cos \omega t + B \sin \omega t = \sqrt{A^2 + B^2} \cos(\omega t - \phi)$$

$$A \cos \omega t + B \sin \omega t = \sqrt{A^2 + B^2} \sin(\omega t + \phi^*)$$

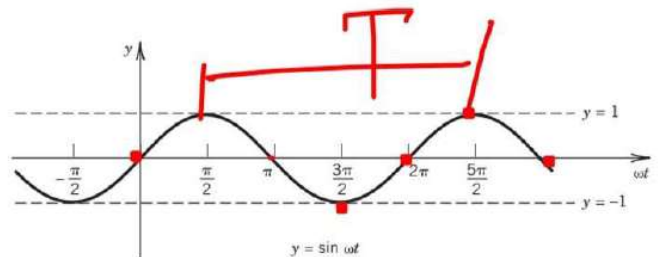
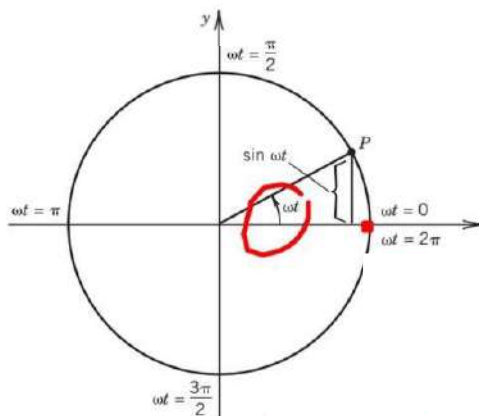
$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \frac{B}{A} \quad \phi^* = \tan^{-1} \frac{A}{B} \quad \phi^* = \frac{\pi}{2} - \phi$$

The fundamental concepts of frequency and amplitude can be understood through the observation and analysis of periodic motions .

يمكن فهم المفاهيم الأساسية للتردد والسعة من خلال مراقبة وتحليل الحركات الدورية.

هسا هون بحكي لي انه التعريفات هاي وصلتنا من الفيزيا

Static and Dynamic Characteristics of Signals

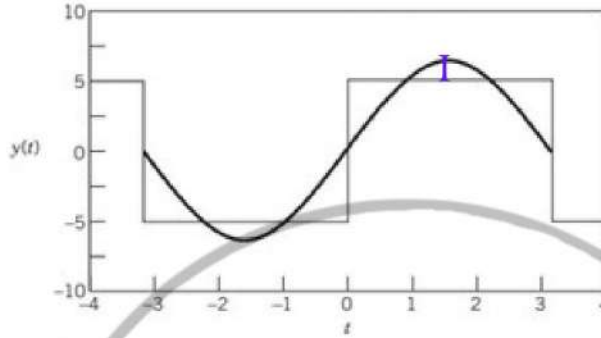


The size of the maximum and minimum displacements from the equilibrium position , or the value C , is the amplitude of the oscillation . The concepts of amplitude and frequency are essential for the description of time - dependent signals .

حجم الحد الأقصى والحد الأدنى من الإزاحة من موضع التوازن ، أو القيمة C ، هو سعة التذبذب. تعتبر مفاهيم الاتساع والتردد ضرورية لوصف الإشارات المعتمدة على الوقت.

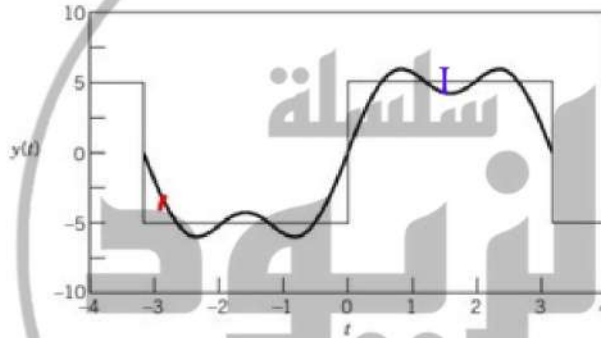
60 Chapter 2 Static and Dynamic Characteristics of Signals

(a) First partial sum



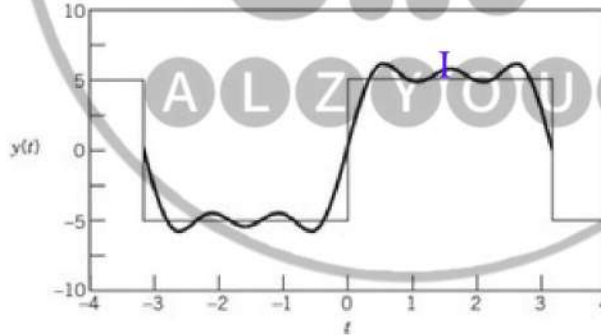
الخط الملتوي هو عبارة عن
analoge signal
اما خط المربعات هو
pulses
فهون عندي
approximation
ل Signal واحدة

(b) Second partial sum



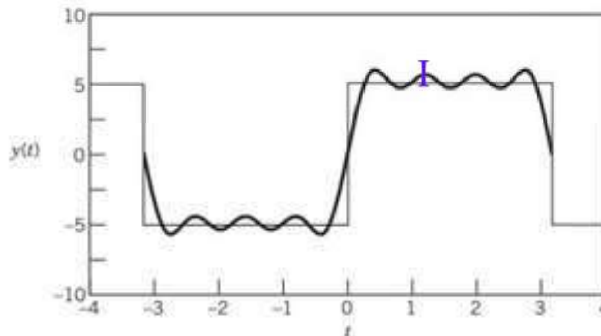
هون صارت
approximation
ل Two signal

(c) Third partial sum



هون صارت
approximation
ل Three signal

(d) Fourth partial sum



هون صارت
approximation
ل signal 4

Figure 2.15 First four partial sums of the Fourier series $(20/\pi)(\sin t + 1/3 \sin 3t + 1/5 \sin 5t + \dots)$ in comparison with the exact waveform.

كل ما زادت ال signal في ال approximation بصير ال error يقل

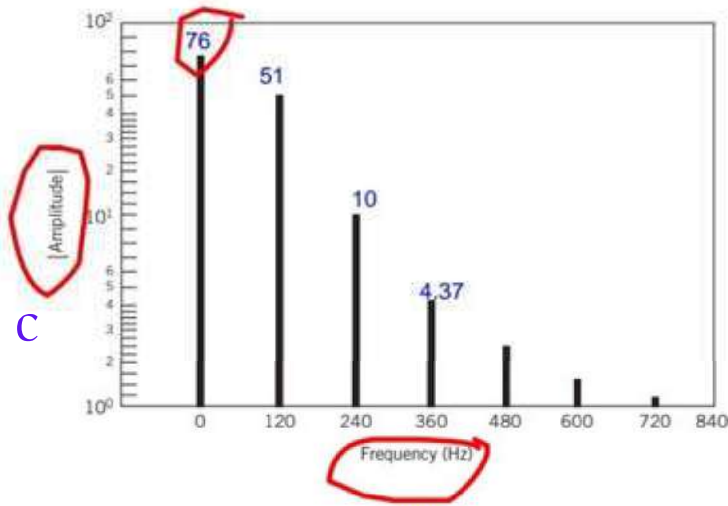


Figure 2.17 Frequency content of the function $y(t) = |120 \sin 20\pi t|$ displayed as an amplitude-frequency spectrum.

اما f او w

هون الرسمة بتوضح العلاقة بين ال frequency وال amplitude على حسب المعادلة الي تحت

The Fourier series for the function $|120 \sin 120\pi t|$ is

$$76.4 - 50.93 \cos 240\pi t - 10.10 \cos 480\pi t - 4.37 \cos 720\pi t \dots$$

↓
↓
↓
↓

76
51
10
4

من المعادلة قدرت اطلع قيم ال amplitude على الترتيب 76, 51, 10, 4
ودلتي عقيم ال frequency ← 0, 240, 480, 720

A L Z Y O U D

Ch3:measurement system behavior

Each measurement system responds differently to different types of input signals and to the dynamic content within these signals . So a particular system may not be suitable for measuring certain signals or at least portions of some signals .

يستجيب كل نظام قياس بشكل مختلف لأنواع مختلفة من إشارات الإدخال والمحتوى الديناميكي داخل هذه الإشارات. لذلك قد لا يكون نظام معين مناسباً لقياس إشارات معينة أو على الأقل أجزاء من بعض الإشارات.

As pointed out in Chapter 2 , all input and output signals can be broadly classified as being static , dynamic , or some combination of the two . For a static signal , only the signal magnitude is needed to reconstruct the input signal based on the indicated output signal

كما هو موضح في الفصل 2 ، يمكن تصنيف جميع إشارات الإدخال والإخراج على نطاق واسع على أنها ثابتة أو ديناميكية أو مزيج من الاثنين. بالنسبة للإشارة الثابتة ، لا يلزم سوى حجم الإشارة لإعادة بناء إشارة الإدخال بناءً على إشارة الخرج المشار إليها

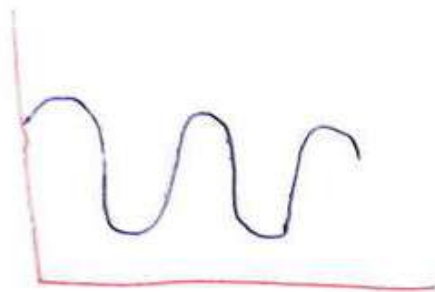
أخذنا في الشايفر الي قبل انواع ال signal وانواع ال input

Vibration signals vary in amplitude and time , and thus are a dynamic input signal to the measuring instrument .

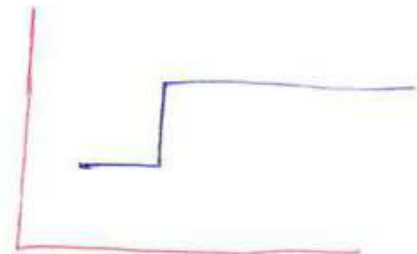
تختلف إشارات الاهتزاز في السعة والوقت ، وبالتالي فهي إشارة دخل ديناميكية لأداة القياس.

رج نركز بها الشايفر على نوعين من signal

Periodic
or
Sin input



Step
input



نتيجة عملية القياس رح تعتمد على شغلتين :

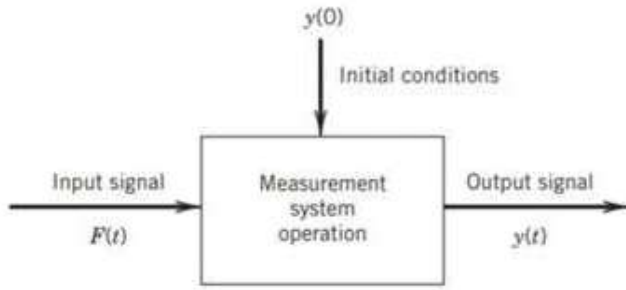


Figure 3.2 Measurement system operation on an input signal, $F(t)$, provides the output signal, $y(t)$.

1) G_1 ← الي هي ال input signal كمثال لو كانت periodic أو step
 G_2 ← هي مكونات نظام القياس وال measurement system operation

$$G \text{ results} = G_1 * G_2$$

Dynamic Measurements

Dynamic Measurements For dynamic signals , signal amplitude , frequency , and general waveform information is needed to reconstruct the input signal . Because dynamic signals vary with time , the measurement system must be able to respond fast enough to keep up with the input signal .

القياسات الديناميكية ضرورية للإشارات الديناميكية ، وسعة الإشارة ، والتردد ، ومعلومات شكل الموجة العامة لإعادة بناء إشارة الدخل . نظرًا لاختلاف الإشارات الديناميكية مع مرور الوقت ، يجب أن يكون نظام القياس قادرًا على الاستجابة بسرعة كافية لمواكبة إشارة الإدخال .

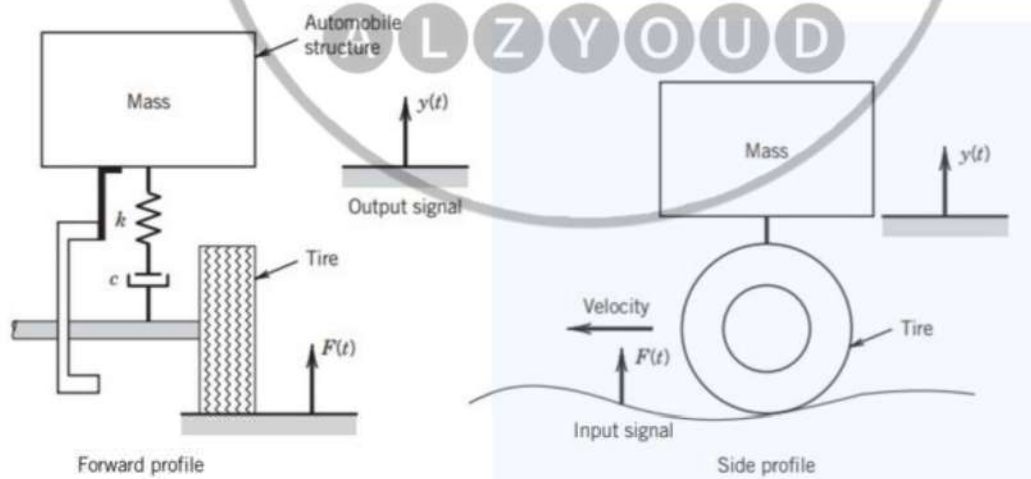


Figure 3.1 Lumped parameter model of an automobile suspension showing input and output signals.

لنفرض نظام داخل سيارة ممتن تكون مرتاح او مش مرتاح حسب شغلتين $y(t)$ ↑ وال displacement وهما اشيا يعتمدو على ال signal (الطريق)

كل ما تكون $g(1)$ ثابتة رح تكون قيمة ال $y(t)$ ثابتة وتكون انت مرتاح اكثر
 هسا حكيانا ال signal مهمة لأنها هي الطريق وهي العامل الأول
 العامل الثاني جهاز القياس الي هو هون ال automobile وال damper تاها

فهون ممكن تكون الطريق سيئ والسيارة كويسة فما تحس بالطريق
وممكن السيارة (جهاز) كويسة والطريق سيئ فبرضو تحسش بالطريق (signal)

وممكن السيارة قديمة والطريق مليان تعرجات
فهو ججهاز القياس $y(t)$ رح يعطيني انه عندي مشكلة بال $G1$ وال $G2$

هاد الموضوع هو موازي للموضوع تاع الكترول الي اسمه transfer function

$$\frac{\text{Laplace output}}{\text{Laplace input}}$$

فال output بيعتمد على ال input

هسا رح نحاول نبدا نعمل model measurement system حسب ال $G1$ وال $G2$

Consider the following general model of a measurement system, which consists of an nth-order linear ordinary differential equation in terms of a general output signal, represented by variable $y(t)$, and subject to a general input signal, represented by the forcing function, $F(t)$:

ضع في اعتبارك النموذج العام التالي لنظام القياس ، والذي يتكون من معادلة تفاضلية خطية عادية من الدرجة التاسعة من حيث إشارة خرج عامة ، ممثلة بالمتغير $y(t)$ ، وتخضع لإشارة إدخال عامة ممثلة بوظيفة التأثير $F(t)$:

هسا بنكتب المعادلة التفاضلية للنظام وبنفرض انها linear system
وما رح نتعلم كيفية حلها لأنه حلها بده كورسات كاملة

$$a_n \frac{d^n y}{dt^n} + a_{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dt^{n-1}} + \dots + a_1 \frac{dy}{dt} + a_0 y = F(t)$$

where

$$F(t) = b_m \frac{d^m x}{dt^m} + b_{m-1} \frac{d^{m-1} x}{dt^{m-1}} + \dots + b_1 \frac{dx}{dt} + b_0 x \quad m \leq n$$

هسا هون المعادلة التفاضلية تتكون من جهتين جهة ال input الي هي ال $F(t)$ والجهة الثانية هي عبارة عن معاملات (a) مضروبين بال input الي هو y ومشتقاته

$F(t)$ هي عبارة عن Sumation لكل ال Input
وكتبوها معادلة تحت ولكن بالبحث تاغنا في هاد الكورس وجدوا انه فش داعي لكل هذول الا للحد الأخير

هون لاحظ انه المعادلات التفاضلية كلها بال t domain لو بدي احوّلها لل s domain لازم اخذها لابلاس

(خصائص منظومة القياس) Physical Parameters $\Rightarrow a., a_1, a_n \dots b.$

the general form for a second-order equation ($n=2$; $m=1$) from Equation 3.1,

$$a^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + a_1 \frac{dy}{dt} + a_0 y = b_1 \frac{dx}{dt} + b_0 x$$

3.3 SPECIAL CASES OF THE GENERAL SYSTEM MODEL

Zero-Order Systems

لما اخذ بس ال اول حد من ال input بهاي الحالة يكون zero order system

The simplest model of a measurement systems and one used with static signals is the zero - order system model . This is represented by the zero - order differential equation :

أبسط نموذج لأنظمة القياس وآخر يستخدم مع الإشارات الثابتة هو نموذج النظام الصفري. يتم تمثيل ذلك بالمعادلة التفاضلية ذات الترتيب الصفري:

$$a_0 y = F(t) \rightarrow a_0 y = b_0 x \rightarrow y = \left(\frac{b_0}{a_0} \right) x \rightarrow y = k x$$

هاد الأشياء بذكرني بأشي مهم
لما اقسم المعادلة على a.

Static sensitivity $\rightarrow y(t) = KF(t)$

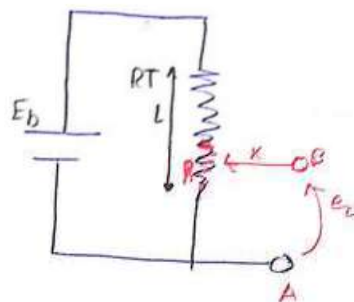
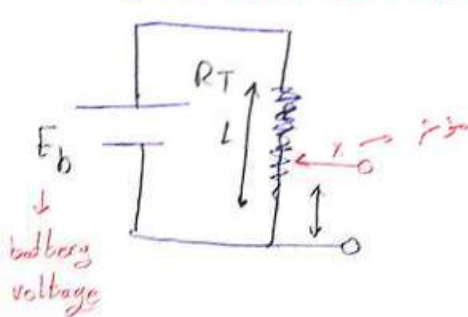
K is called the static sensitivity or steady gain of the system .

يسمى K بالحساسية الساكنة أو الكسب الثابت للنظام.

The static sensitivity is found from the static calibration of the measurement system . It is the slope of the calibration curve , $K=dy/dx$

تم العثور على الحساسية الساكنة من المعايرة الثابتة لنظام القياس. إنه منحدر منحنى المعايرة

Example: Potensiometer

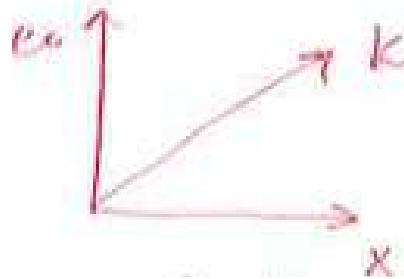


x : input
 e_o : output

ال e. هو لو شكت الدارة بفولتميتر عشان اقيس فرق الجهد بين النقطة A والنقطة B وهون بلاقي علاقة بينهم

$$e_o = \frac{x}{L} \cdot E_b$$

لو فكرت ارسم العلاقة بين ال input وال output تكون العلاقة (linear)



وال zero order system بظهر لي سيطرة كاملة فأني تغير في ال input بتبعه تغير في ال output

لو سألني عن قيمة ال K هون كيف بوجدها

Output Input

$$e_o = \frac{K}{L} \cdot E_b$$

رسماني عن Static sensitivity

$$e_o = \left(\frac{E_b}{L} \right) K$$

$$e_o = K \cdot X$$

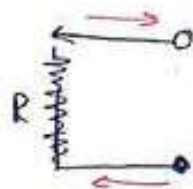
$$K = \frac{E_b}{L}$$

هسا في هاد المثال النظام perfect او ideal لكن هل فعلا في الحقيقة يوجد نظام ideal؟
الجواب طبعا لا هون افرضنا كثير افتراضات لطلع ideal منها

(1) اوله انا افرضنا $E_b \equiv R_{total} = L$

(2) R جزء جزء من ال R الكلية $\left(\frac{R}{R_T} \right) E_b$

دها في الحالة فرضنا ال تيار الي يمر في ال E_b مفتوح يمر بال R ولكن هاد جزء
لاننا في جزء من التيار رح يمر بال pranch



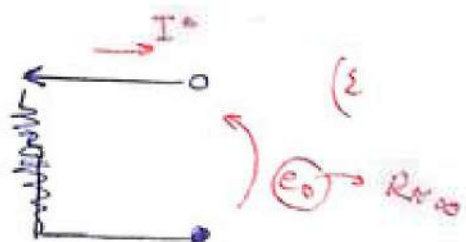
جزء من تيار يمر بال

pranching

(٣) مناد صفاء انه جرد من ال power و في نفسه ال voltmeter و هذا الاثر
 و يمنع تكونه العلاقة linear (100/100) مئة بالمئة

زيه كاي انا فرضتها one loop لكن في الحقيقة 21000

الاشي ابي ممكن يقرب النظام من perfect و يكونه العلاقة
 linear



انه يكونه التيار كيز صغير و انها تكونه مقاومة لهما
 القياسات و (عالية جدا)

↓
 كل ما نعطيه صداد الشرط بتكونه العلاقة ideal
 ((يعني علاقة خطية بغير))

(٥) بالكهرباء اخذتوا انه في عندي
 Electric elements
 Resistance capacitor inductor

صها و المثال انا فرضتها انه صداد العنصر (100/100) Resister و صافيو لا

capacitor ولا inductor لو كانت برصو

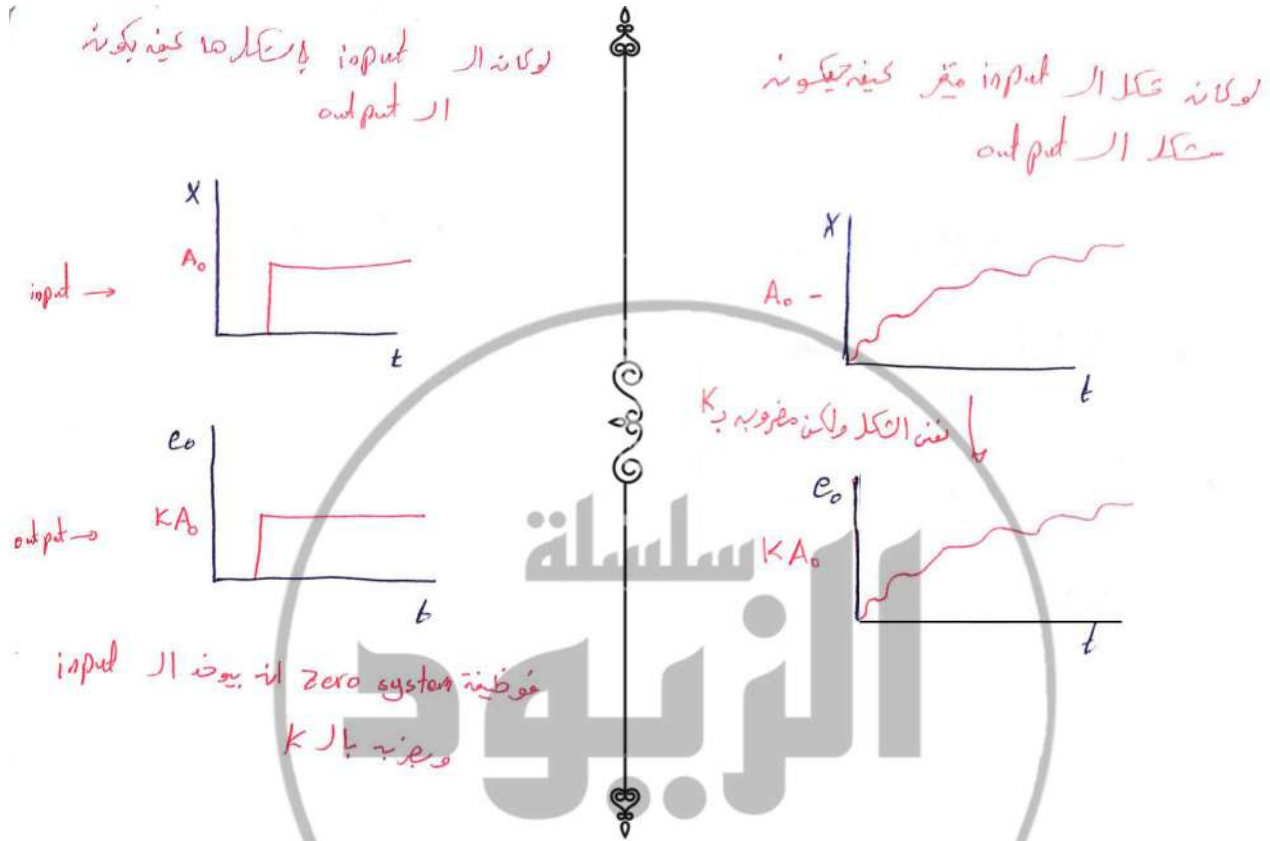
صا الا سوا موجوده و سبيل العلاقة zero

ممكن يتغير ل first او second
 (نوع النظام)

(٦) صافرضنا ايضا انه امدد صر صجعه صغير و صا بعل ا حكاك و اصلها الوزنة
 ناه و اصلها السرة فانه ممكن يغير من سرة X

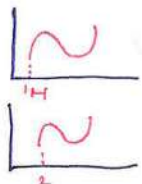
الهدف من كل هاد انه نفهم انه ما في ideal system مية بالمية فعشان هيك بحاول عقد الإمكان اقل ممن كل الأخطاء الي ممكن تبعد النظام عن ال ideal وما يكون ال input يعطي output صحيح Ideal system يعني نظام بدون اخطاء والمؤثر الوحيد على ال output هو ال input

لفهم فكرة السيطرة تاع ال zero-order



اسئلة على رسومات ال zero-order

Time lag / time phase
كشتر اكر عن ال



بفئة الاشارة بيقتل

كانت بتبدأ من زمان 1

وربع بدت من زمان 2

مخار عندي Time lag

perfect system
ما تقاد كوني الحقيقة حل ال
ممكن انه يكون موجود؟

yes ideal ✓ ideal instrument

perfect ✓ Dynamic response
وانه ال input بأخر دايكت بال output

time lag / phase shift
هل يوجد

بين ال input وال output ؟

هل يوجد وقت بين ال input وال output متاثيروا
بعض

ممكن لتقريب الفكرة الكمبيوتر كالمبدا له اشارة مجازية
بعد فترة ه فيه Time lag

distortion ؟

(اصل تغير الشكل قبل كذا بعد)

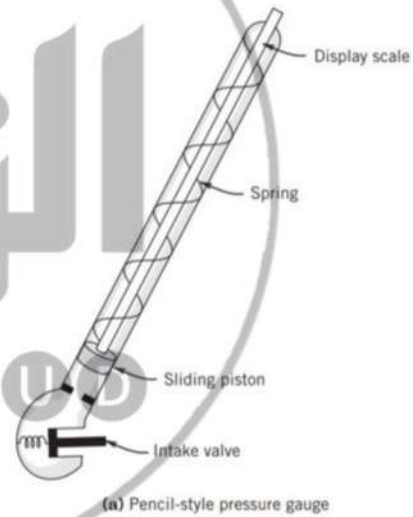
Fortunately , many measurement systems can be modeled by zero- , first- , or second - order linear . ordinary differential equations . More complex systems can usually be simplified to these lower orders . Our intention here is to attempt to understand how systems behave and how such response is closely related to the design features of a measurement system ; it is not to simulate the exact system behavior . The exact input - output relationship is found from calibration . But modeling guides us in choosing specific instruments and measuring methods by predicting system response to signals , and in determining the type , range , and specifics of calibration .

لحسن الحظ ، يمكن نمذجة العديد من أنظمة القياس باستخدام خطي من الدرجة الصفرية أو الأولى أو الثانية. المعادلات التفاضلية العادية. يمكن عادةً تبسيط الأنظمة الأكثر تعقيداً لهذه الطلبات الأقل. هدفنا هنا هو محاولة فهم كيفية تصرف الأنظمة وكيف ترتبط هذه الاستجابة ارتباطاً وثيقاً بميزات تصميم نظام القياس ؛ ليس لمحاكاة سلوك النظام بالضبط. تم العثور على العلاقة الدقيقة بين الإدخال والإخراج من المعايرة. لكن النمذجة ترشدنا في اختيار أدوات وطرق قياس محددة من خلال التنبؤ باستجابة النظام للإشارات ، وفي تحديد نوع ونطاق وخصائص المعايرة.

Example 3.2 مثال على النظام الصفري

Figure 3.4 Lumped parameter model of pressure gauge

Pencil style pressure gauge



الأسود هو الغلاف الخارجي للجهاز



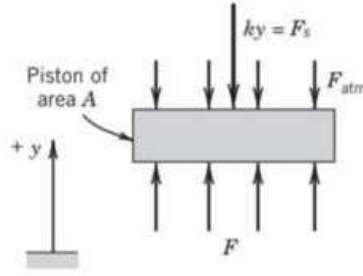
(c) Photograph of the components within a pencil-type pressure gauge

Display scale
هون عليه زي
تدرج يعطي
قيمة ال
pressure

هاي الجلدة السوداء هي عبارة عن piston بالداخل

هون زي زنبرك بداخل الجهاز

لاحظ انه هاد ال piston عليه قوتين الأولى هو
ال atmosphere تاع ال pressure



(b) Free-body diagram

والثاني هو ال f تاع الزنبرك

والقوتين متساويتان لأنه النظام متوازن

A pencil - type pressure gauge commonly used to measure tire pressure can be modeled at static equilibrium by considering the force balance on the gauge sensor , a piston that slides up and down a cylinder piston

يمكن نمذجة مقياس ضغط من نوع القلم الرصاص يستخدم عادة لقياس ضغط الإطارات عند توازن ثابت من خلال مراعاة توازن القوة على مستشعر القياس ، وهو مكبس ينزلق لأعلى ولأسفل مكبس أسطوانة

$$\Sigma F = 0, \text{ gives}$$

$$ky = F - F_{atm}$$

$$Ky = p * A$$

الي هي الضغط المؤثر على مساحة A في p هي القوة تاع الزنبرك ومساوية لل Ky

Pressure is simply the force acting inward over the piston surface area , Dividing through by area provides the zero - order response equation between output isplacement and input pressure and gives

الضغط هو ببساطة القوة المؤثرة للداخل على مساحة سطح المكبس ، وتقسيمها حسب المنطقة يوفر معادلة الاستجابة ذات الترتيب الصفري بين وضع الإخراج وضغط الإدخال ويعطي

$$y = (A/k)(p - p_{atm})$$

The exact static input - output relationship is found through calibration of the gauge . Because elements such as piston inertia and frictional dissipation were not considered , this model would not be appropriate for studying the dynamic response of the gauge .

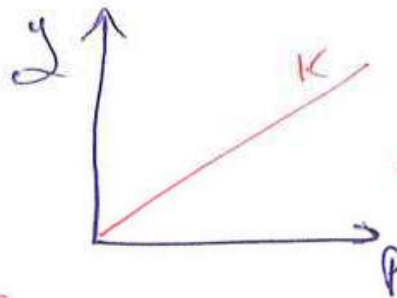
تم العثور على علاقة الإدخال والإخراج الثابتة الدقيقة من خلال معايرة المقياس. نظرًا لعدم مراعاة عناصر مثل القصور الذاتي للمكبس والتبديد الاحتكاكي ، فلن يكون هذا النموذج مناسبًا لدراسة الاستجابة الديناميكية للمقياس.

لو بدى ا رسم العلاقة بينهم

$$Ky = p * A$$

$$K = \frac{k}{A}$$

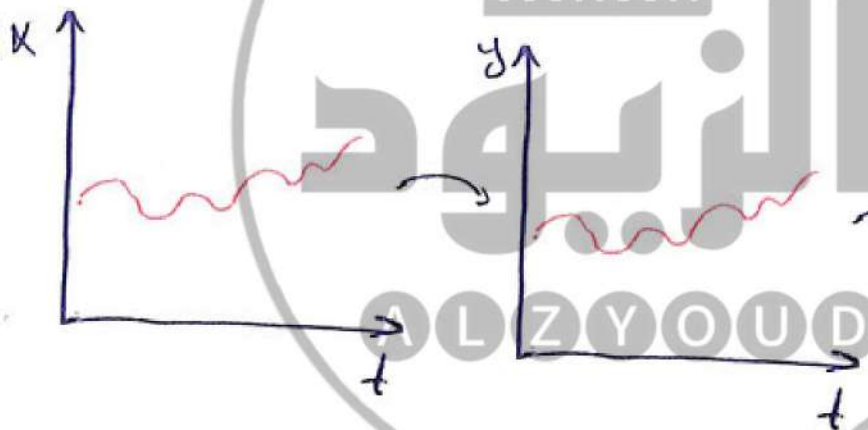
y: out put
p: in put



static sensitivity

static calibration curve

وبرضواي تغير بقيمة ال x بتغير بقيمة ال t



لو بتلاحظ نفس ال
wave form

FirsOrder Systems

Measurement systems that contain storage elements do not respond instantanecusly to changes in input.

أنظمة القياس التي تحتوي على عناصر تخزين لا تستجيب بشكل فوري للتغيرات في المدخلات.

هسا اي معادلة احنا بنحاول نبسطها بحيث تبقى ال y لحالها زي ممثلا ال zero-order قسمناها على a وهيك بعمل هون

first order system

$$a_1 \dot{y} + a_0 y = f(t)$$

هاد الحد زائد عن ال zero-order



$$a_1 \dot{y} + a_0 y = f(t)$$

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = K f(t)$$

Time constant
= a_1 / a_0

static sensitivity

may be modeled using a first-order differential equation of the form

$$a_1 \dot{y} + a_0 y = F(t)$$

with $\dot{y} = dy/dt$. Dividing through by a_0 gives

$$\tau y + y = KF(t)$$

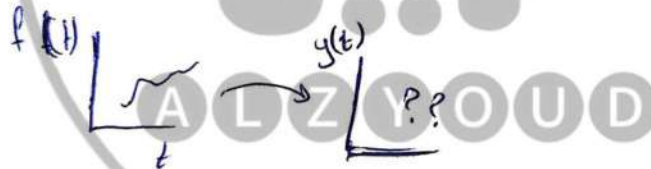
The parameter T is called the time constant of the system.

تسمى المعلمة T ثابت الوقت للنظام.

تمام بس هسا شو الفائدة من ال time constant ال time constant بتعبرلي عن ال
Speed of system responds

Time constant ← قليل ← system response يكون سريع
Time constant ← كبير ← system response يكون بطيء

هسا زي بدنا نحاول نحل المعادلة التفاضلية هاي تاع ال first order وحنأخذ حالتين
عشان اشوف لو تغير $f(t)$ الي هو ال input كيف حيصير $y(t)$



Step Function Input

The step function, $AU(t)$, is defined as

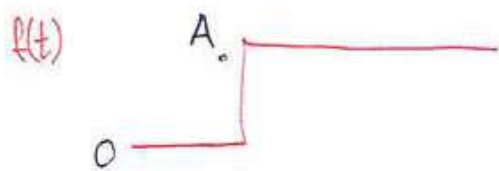
$$AU(t) = 0 \quad t \leq 0^-$$

$$AU(t) = A \quad t \geq 0^+$$

where A is the amplitude
of the step function
حيث A هي سعة دالة الخطوة

a sudden change in the input signal from a constant value of one magnitude to a
constant value of some other magnitude

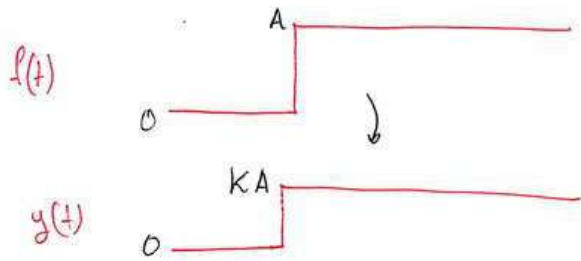
تغيير مفاجئ في إشارة الدخل من قيمة ثابتة مقدارها إلى قيمة ثابتة لبعض المقدار الآخر



كمثال عليه لما انقل الميزان تاع
الحرارة من كوب مثلج لكوب بغلي
هاد شكله العام قبل ما اشوف
استجابته بال FirstOrder

$$\begin{cases} t = A & , \quad t > 0 \\ t = 0 & , \quad t < 0 \end{cases}$$

تمام هسا قبل ما اسوف استجابته بال first order بتذر كر كيف استجاب عندي بال . Zero-order



رح يضل نفس الشكل وبس ينضرب ب k

طبعاً بالواقع ما عندي system بيرفكت مية بالمية يعطيني zero-order
إلا ما يكون عندي time constant لحد ما يستجيب ال system



تمام هسا كيف يستجيب ال first order بال step function
لاحظوا علماء الرياضيات انه بال step function الكيرف رح يختلف عندي
بال output عن ال input



ولاحظوا كمان انه صح رح يتغير بس رح
يثبت عند الأنفثتي او عند رقم كبير
ويصير بشبه ال zero-order

تمام هسا لاقوا شكل الاقتران وبعدها حاولوا يحلوا المعادلة عشان يقدر و يعرفو y(t)



$$y(t) = \underbrace{kA}_{\text{steady response}} + \underbrace{(y_0 - kA)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}}_{\text{Transient response}}$$

$$F(y) = A u(t)$$

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = kA u(t) = kF(t)$$

بعد زمن طويل ال
System
رح يتصرف زي ال
Zero-order

بعد فترة عشان ال
System
يتصرف زي ال
Zero-order

وال output تتبع ال input

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = KA U(t) = KF(t)$$

with an arbitrary initial condition denoted by, $y(0) = y_0$. Solving for $t \geq 0^+$ yields

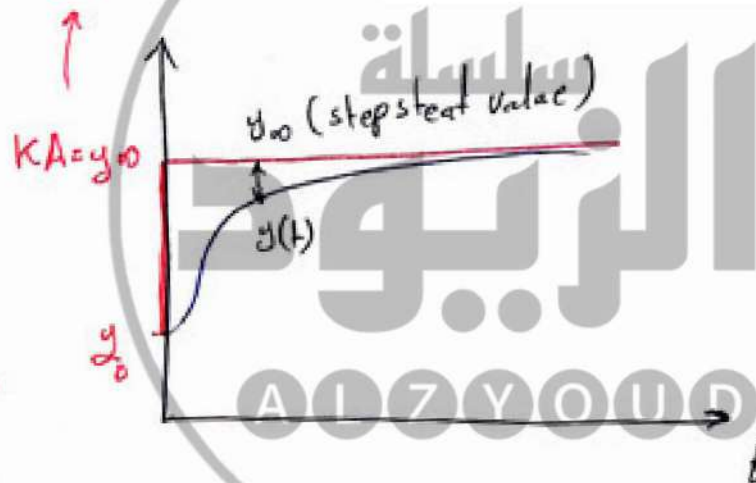
$$\underbrace{y(t)}_{\text{Time response}} = \underbrace{KA}_{\text{Steady response}} + \underbrace{(y_0 - KA)e^{-t/\tau}}_{\text{Transient response}}$$

The solution of the differential equation, T , is the time response (or simply the response) of the system.

حل المعادلة التفاضلية، T ، هو استجابة للوقت (أو ببساطة استجابة) للنظام.

كتوضيح لفكرة ال error

لاحظ بأنه كل ما يمر بمرور
سواء zero order



لاحظ بأنه كل ما يمر وقت
رح يقل ال error

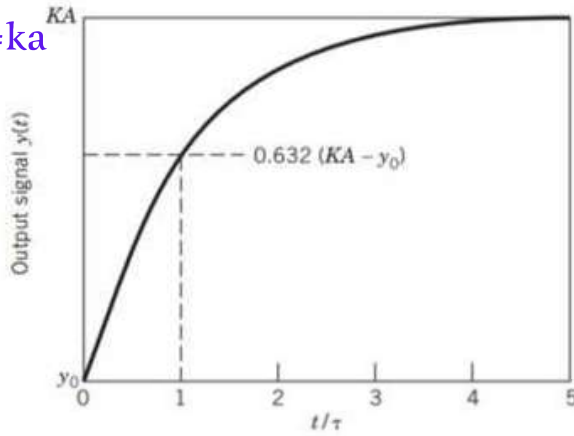
Suppose we rewrite the response Equation 3.5 in the form

$$\Gamma(t) = \frac{y(t) - y_{\infty}}{y_0 - y_{\infty}} = e^{-t/\tau}$$

The term $\Gamma(t)$ is called the *error fraction* of the output signal. Equation 3.6 is

توضيح لفكرة ال time constant

$$Y_{\infty} = kA$$



لاحظ انه بال x axis عندي t على تاو
فمثلا عند الزمن t=تاو

Figure 3.6 First-order system time response to a step function input: the time response, $y(t)$.

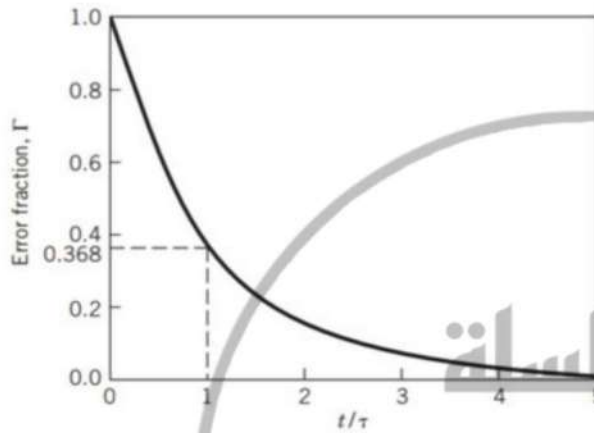


Figure 3.7 First-order system time response to a step function input: the error fraction, Γ .

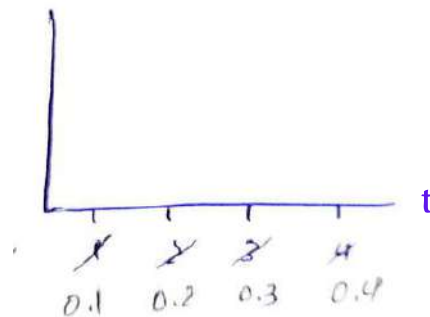
بعد مرور واحد second من time response في الرسمة الأولى رح يكون 0.632 إذن ال error كيف بحسبه

$$0.368 = 1 - 0.632$$

ه المكملة فبحكي

الطا هو في الرسمة الثانية

حكينا قبل انه التاو بتعتمد ع جهاز القياس طي لو الرسمة ال x axis بال t
مش t على تاو وحكالي انه التاو تاع الجهاز = 0.1



لاحظ انه ال a axis هو t بشطب القيم وبرجع بعبيهم حسب تاو
لهي الكتاب مختصر القصة وفوراً حاطتها t على تاو

Table 3.1 First-Order System Response and Error Fraction

t/τ	% Response	Γ	% Error
0	0.0	1.0	100.0
1	63.2	0.368	36.8
2	86.5	0.135	13.5
2.3	90.0	0.100	10.0
3	95.0	0.050	5.0
5	99.3	0.007	0.7
∞	100.0	0.0	0.0

- ب 0 وقتي كانه ال Response صفر
وال error 1 $\leftarrow (1 - 0) = 1$

- ب 1 وقتي كانه ال Response 63.2
وال error $0.368 = (1 - 63.2)$
يمكننا

plot is equivalent to the transformation

$$\ln \Gamma = 2.3 \log \Gamma = -(1/\tau)t \quad (3.7)$$

which is of the linear form, $Y = mX + B$ (where $Y = \ln \Gamma$, $m = -(1/\tau)$, $X = t$, and $B = 0$ here). A linear curve fit through the data will provide a good estimate of the slope, m , of the resulting plot. From Equation 3.7, we see that $m = -1/\tau$, which yields the estimate for τ .

ال تاو بتعتمد عجهاز وكلما كانت قليلة ال response يكون اسرع

ال زمن 2.3 هو مهم النالأنه بتكون درجة الاستجابة عنده 90 بالمية وال error فقط 10 بالمية وهو حفظ

The time required for a system to respond to a value that is 90% of the step input, $Y_0 - Y_0$, is important and is called the rise time of the system.

يعد الوقت اللازم لاستعادة النظام لقيمة 90% من الخطوة الداخلية، $Y_0 - Y_0$ ، أمرًا مهمًا ويسمى وقت صعود النظام.

يمكن يسئلني بها الطريقة

$$\tau_{90\%} = 2.3 \tau$$

$$\tau_{95\%} = 3 \tau$$

$$\tau_{\text{Response}} = \tau \rightarrow \text{تاو}$$

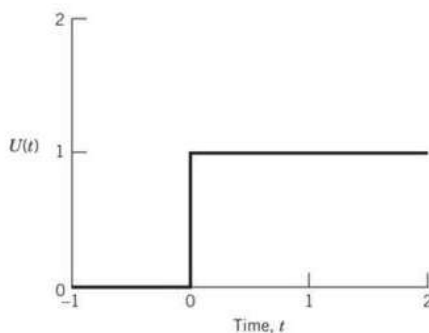
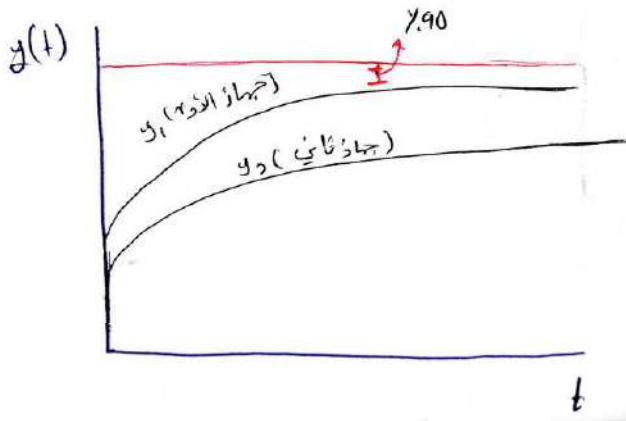


Figure 3.5 The unit step function, $U(t)$.

معلومة للمراجعة: رسمة ال step function

example :



افرض عندي جهازين وهي رسما تهم
فبدي اقارن بينهم

او الاشئ بحدد نوع ال measurement وال input
من رسمة ال output

فم السمة انا عاوف انها FirstOrder measurement
وال input هو step input

السؤال : ميزان حرارة له الجهازين

first order instrument

ميزان الحرارة لانه رايو هذ وقت ليعتبر

Time constant (اذني ثابته)
first order

(thermometer)

Response تاي اسرع ؟

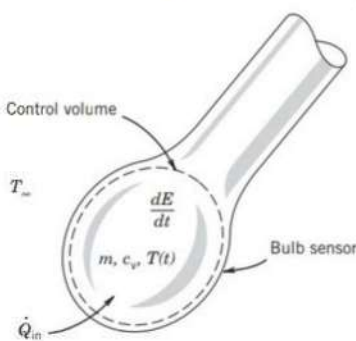
لانه رايو هذ 90 بالمئة بوقت اسرع

السؤال الثاني : ميزان الحرارة ولا ؟

$$\tau_1 < \tau_2$$

لانه رايو اسرع اذني التا و تاي قليل

Examples



عملية انتقال الحرارة من ال measured Medium
للسائل الداخلي بتحتاج وقت معين (time constant)

فهو اكد مهو zero-order

وغالبا هو FirstOrder

لما تقيس درجة حرارتك الميزان بده وقت ليعطي انه 37

Figure 3.9 Lumped parameter model of thermometer and its energy balance (Ex. 3.3).

Suppose a bulb thermometer originally indicating 20 C is suddenly exposed to a fluid temperature of 37 C. Develop a model that simulates the thermometer output response.

لنفترض أن ترمومتر لمبة يشير في الأصل إلى أن 20 درجة مئوية قد تعرضت فجأة لدرجة حرارة مائع تبلغ 37 درجة مئوية. طور نموذجاً يحاكي استجابة خرج مقياس الحرارة.

where

m = mass of liquid within thermometer

c_v = specific heat of liquid within thermometer

h = convection heat transfer coefficient between bulb and environment

A_s = thermometer surface area

The term hA_s controls the rate at which energy can be transferred between a fluid and a body; it is analogous to electrical conductance. By comparison with Equation 3.3, $a_0 = hA_s$, $a_1 = mc_v$, and $b_0 = hA_s$. Rewriting for $t \geq 0^+$ and simplifying yields

$$\frac{mc_v}{hA_s} \frac{dT(t)}{dt} + T(t) = T_\infty$$

From Equation 3.4, this implies that the time constant and static sensitivity are

$$\tau = \frac{mc_v}{hA_s} \quad K = \frac{hA_s}{hA_s} = 1$$

Direct comparison with Equation 3.5 yields this thermometer response:

$$T(t) = T_\infty + [T(0) - T_\infty]e^{-t/\tau} \\ = 37 - 17e^{-t/\tau} [^\circ\text{C}]$$

$$\tau = \frac{mc_v}{hA_s}$$

من قانون ال تاو بعرف العوامل الي
بتعتمد عليها

ال هي ال (mass(m وال
heat وال (conductivity (cv
(treatment (h

$$K = \frac{hA_s}{hA_s} = 1$$

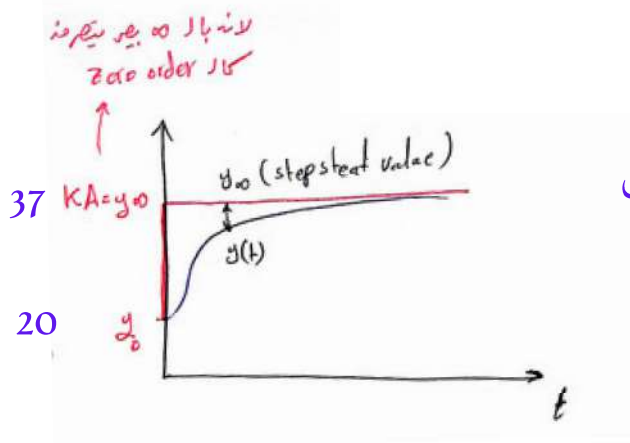
اما اسمها ال
Static sensitivity
steady state او

لأنها بتربط ال input بال output

Also, it is significant that we found that the response of the temperature measurement system in this case depends on the environmental conditions of the measurement that control h , because the magnitude of h affects the magnitude of T

أيضاً، من المهم أننا وجدنا أن استجابة نظام قياس درجة الحرارة في هذه الحالة تعتمد على الظروف البيئية للقياس الذي يتحكم في h ، لأن حجم h يؤثر على حجم T .

تكرار للي فوق بأنه النظام بيعتمد عوامل تاو ومنها h



هون انتقلت من 20 ل 37
 المعادلة تاع الرسمة هي حل المعادلة الي فوق

$$T(t) = T_{\infty} + [T(0) - T_{\infty}]e^{-t/\tau}$$

$$= 37 - 17e^{-t/\tau} [^{\circ}\text{C}]$$

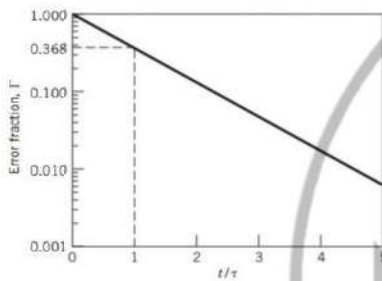


Figure 3.8 The error fraction played on semilog coordinates.

الشكل 3.8 جزء الخطأ الذي تم تشغيله على الإحداثيات شبه اللوغاريتمية.

خلصنا من الحالة الأولى لل FirstOrder وهي لما يكون ال step input

may be modeled using a first-order differential equation of the form

$$a_1 \dot{y} + a_0 y = F(t)$$

with $\dot{y} = dy/dt$. Dividing through by a_0 gives

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = KF(t)$$

بمعنى كنا نعوض بدل ال step input $f(t)$

هسا بدنا ننتقل للحالة الثانية الي بدل ال $f(t)$ بعوض simple periodic function input

وبشوف لو كانت ال $f(t)$ شكلها sin او cos كيف يكون شكل ال $y(t)$

Example 3.4

For the thermometer in Example 3.3 subjected to a step change in input, calculate the 90% rise time in terms of t/τ .

KNOWN Same as Example 3.3

ASSUMPTIONS Same as Example 3.3

FIND 90% response time in terms of t/τ

SOLUTION The percent response of the system is given by $(1 - \Gamma) \times 100$ with the error fraction, Γ , defined by Equation 3.6. From Equation 3.5, we note that at $t = \tau$, the thermometer will indicate $T(t) = 30.75^\circ\text{C}$, which represents only 63.2% of the step change from 20° to 37°C . The 90% rise time represents the time required for Γ to drop to a value of 0.10. Then

$$\Gamma = 0.10 = e^{-t/\tau}$$

or $t/\tau = 2.3$.

COMMENT In general, a time equivalent to 2.3τ is required to achieve 90% of the applied step input for a first-order system.

Example 3.5

A particular thermometer is subjected to a step change, such as in Example 3.3, in an experimental exercise to determine its time constant. The temperature data are recorded with time and presented in Figure 3.10. Determine the time constant for this thermometer. In the experiment, the heat transfer coefficient, h , is estimated to be $6 \text{ W/m}^2\cdot^\circ\text{C}$ from engineering handbook correlations.

KNOWN Data of Figure 3.10

$$h = 6 \text{ W/m}^2\cdot^\circ\text{C}$$

ASSUMPTIONS First-order behavior using the model of Example 3.3, constant properties

FIND τ

SOLUTION According to Equation 3.7, the time constant should be the negative reciprocal of the slope of a line drawn through the data of Figure 3.10. Aside from the first few data points, the data appear to follow a linear trend, indicating a nearly first-order behavior and validating our model assumption. The data is fit to the first-order equation²

$$2.3 \log \Gamma = (-0.194)t + 0.00064$$

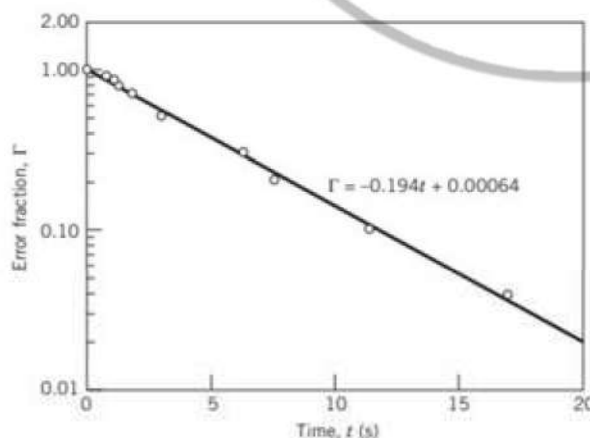


Figure 3.10 Temperature–time history of Example 3.5.

With $m = -0.194 = -1/\tau$, the time constant is calculated as $\tau = 5.15$ seconds.

COMMENT If the experimental data were to deviate significantly from first-order behavior, this would be a clue that either our assumptions do not fit the real-problem physics or that the test conduct has control or execution problems.

may be modeled using a first-order differential equation of the form

$$a_1 \dot{y} + a_0 y = F(t)$$

with $\dot{y} = dy/dt$. Dividing through by a_0 gives

$$\tau y + y = KF(t)$$

بمعنى كنا نعوض بدل ال step input $f(t)$ ←

هسا بدنا ننتقل للحالة الثانية الي بدل ال $f(t)$ ← بعوض simple periodic function input

وبشوف لو كانت ال $f(t)$ شكلها sin او cos كيف يكون شكل ال $y(t)$

measuring system to which an input of the form of a simple periodic function, $F(t) = A \sin \omega t$, is applied for $t \geq 0^+$:

هون ال $f(t)$ هي مدخلات ال periodic

$$F(t) = A \sin \omega t$$

عوضها في معادلة ال first order

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = KA \sin \omega t$$

حل المعادلة التفاضلية الي فوق

$$f(t) = A \sin \omega t$$

Amplitude Frequency
angular frequency
circular frequency
(rad/s)

this differential equation yields the measurement system output signal, that is, the time response to the applied input, $y(t)$:

$$y(t) = Ce^{-t/\tau} + \frac{KA}{\sqrt{1 + (\omega\tau)^2}} \sin(\omega t - \tan^{-1} \omega\tau) \quad (3.8)$$

where the value for C depends on the initial conditions.

هسا فوق حكيما انه $A \sin(\omega t)$ هو ال input فمن وين اجا كل الباقي

حل المعادلة هي periodic sin

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = KA \sin \omega t$$

$$y(t) = Ce^{-\frac{t}{\tau}} + \frac{KA \sin(\omega t - \tan^{-1} \omega\tau)}{\sqrt{1 + (\omega\tau)^2}}$$

Transient response

يعبر فترة من الزمن

وع يقرب من الصفر
0%

الي يستقر فيه هو
steady state response

$$\frac{K}{\sqrt{1 + \tau^2 \omega^2}}$$

احتمالنا صاد
الفاكتور
(factor)

$$(-\tan^{-1} \omega\tau)$$

↓
سبب ϕ فاضي

كمية ضماطاد
الرض الى رة يعل
scaling of Amplitude
(A)

عرفنا ال periodic واخذنا مدخلاته وعوضناه بال FirsOrder هسا اكيد رح يخطر لك طب كيف حتصير
رسمة ال output لل FirsOrder



نفس الرسمة ولكن زيج كنه ضربتها ف K
ولاكن 21 يكون في طبع بين ال input
وال output

هاي هي رسمة ال periodic

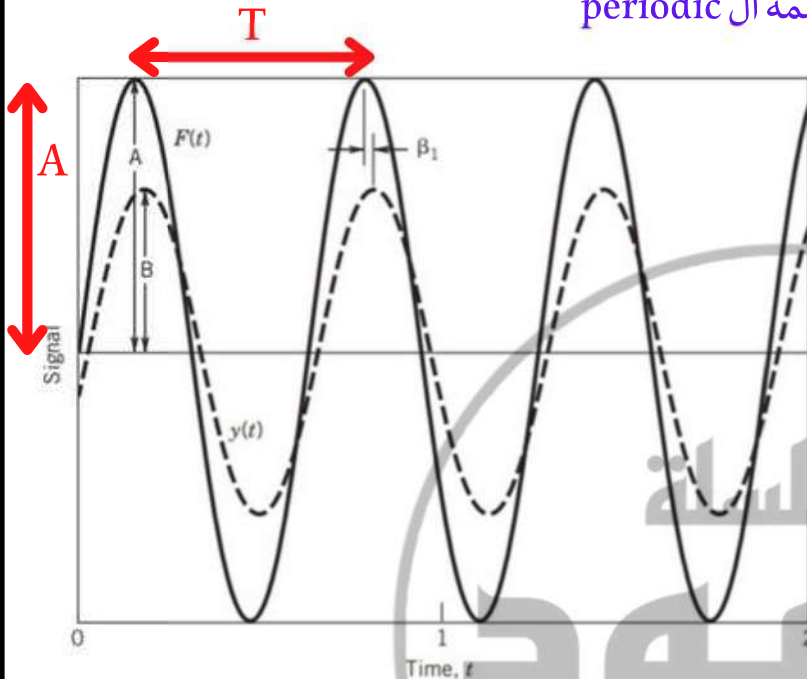


Figure 3.11 Relationship between a sinusoidal input and output: amplitude, frequency, and time delay.

هسا نتفق عأشي الخط المتصل هو ال inputs

$$F(t) = A \sin \omega t$$

والمنقط هو ال output

$$y(t) = Ce^{-t/\tau} + \frac{KA}{\sqrt{1 + (\omega\tau)^2}} \sin(\omega t - \tan^{-1} \omega\tau)$$

لو حببت ابسطها بأنه اشيل ال factors

$$y(t) = B \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

output Amplitude $B_1 = \frac{A}{\sqrt{1 + (\omega\tau)^2}}$

لو دخلل الرسمة وشو عمل ال periodic بال FirsOrder؟

(1) اعطانيه نفس شكل ال input بيت كمل (2) صار بين ال input (B) زي A
scaling عبارة فال Response اقل من
ال input $A > B$

(3) لا حظ انه المبدئية في ال input
من نفس بداية الرسمة في ال output

$$T = \frac{1}{f} \text{ (sec)}$$

$$\omega = 2\pi f \text{ (rad/s)}$$

$$f = \frac{\omega}{2\pi} \text{ (Hz)}$$

applied is known as the frequency response of the system. The frequency affects the magnitude of amplitude B and also can bring about a time delay. This time delay, β_1 , is seen in the phase shift, $\Phi(\omega)$, of the steady response. For a phase shift given in radians, the time delay in units of time is

$$\beta_1 = \frac{\Phi}{\omega}$$

that is, we can write

$$\sin(\omega t + \Phi) = \sin\left[\omega\left(t + \frac{\Phi}{\omega}\right)\right] = \sin[\omega(t + \beta_1)]$$

First order and Zero order

- Signal types and what's difference between them ? (Page 1+4+5+6)
- Types of differential equations and measurement operations (page 2)
- output depends on (page 3 + 5)
- Two types of input (page 4)
- Each measurement system responds differently to (page 4)
- Definition of zero order system (page 8)
- Potinsimeter (8+9+11)
- Reasons for not having an ideal system (9+10)
- Properties and questions of Zero order system (12)
- Advantages and disadvantages of Zero order system (14+15)
- Bandwidth of Zero order (16)
- Modeling guide us / the exact relationship (17)
- Pencil style pressure gage (17+18+19)

First order system

- First order (20 and so on)
- Time constant (21) / first order system (20 – and so on)
- Step input (24)
- Properties of Time constant 24-30
- Friction error and time / response and t 26-30
- Thermometer 31-32+34
- Properties of first order (33)

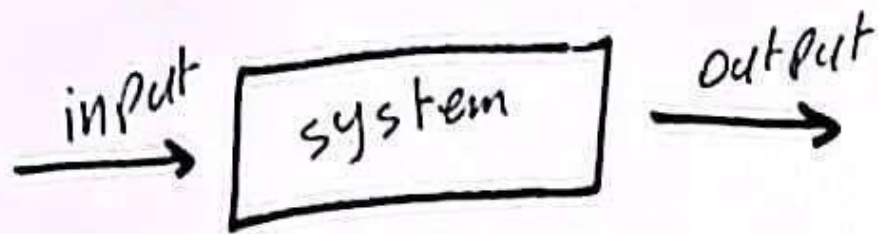
- Periodic (38 and so on)
- Phase shift and magnitude (43+45+46)
- Different between sin and step (44)
- Examples of 1st order and properties (47)
- Problems 49 (and so on)

Second order

- Examples of 2nd order (62+63)
- الصورة العامة لمعادلة السكند والتي يتم من خلالها حساب قيمة natural frequency and damping (63)
- Second order (Step input) _ 64
- Three cases in step input in 2nd order (64-67)
- Definition of ringing frequency (64)
- Properties of under damped graph (64)
- Definition of damping (68)
- Select the step input in second order _ 71
- Problems of under and critical (71)
- Rise and settling (71)
- Ringing frequency and period of ringing 74
- اخراج القيم من الصيغة العامة لل input صفحة رقم ٧٧+٧٦+٧٥
- تأثير damping Ratio and ringing frequency صفحة ٨٠
- Time response كعلاقة عامة ٨١
- كيف تقوم بحساب rise and settling time ٨٢-٨٥
- Simple periodic (86 and so on)
- Graph of magnitude and Bd 88-93
- Phase shift 94
- Multiple and coupled 95
- Problems 96 and so on

• قانون M و Ø صفحة ٨٦

ch3: Measurement system behavior



*Two Types for signal:

① static: not vary with time

② dynamic: vary with time

<u>dynamic</u>	<u>static</u>
• amplitude • frequency • general waveform information	• magnitude

* General model:

تفاضلية من درجه n

$$\underbrace{\left(a_n \frac{d^n y}{dt^n} + a_{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dt^{n-1}} + \dots + a_1 \frac{dy}{dt} + a_0 y \right)}_{\text{constant (physical parameters)}} = \underbrace{\left(b_m \frac{d^m x}{dt^m} + \dots + b_1 \frac{dx}{dt} + b_0 x \right)}$$

y: output

x: input

$m \leq n$

general form second order

$$n=2, m=1$$

$$a_2 \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + a_1 \frac{dy}{dt} + a_0 y = b_1 \frac{dx}{dt} + b_0 x$$

* Zero order:

$$\underbrace{a_0 y}_{\text{output}} = \underbrace{b_0 x}_{\text{input}}$$

* First order:

$$a_1 \frac{dy}{dt} + a_0 y = b_0 x$$

* Second order:

$$a_2 \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + a_1 \frac{dy}{dt} + a_0 y = b_1 \frac{dx}{dt} + b_0 x$$

* output of a measurement system:

depend on: $\perp$ Type of system
 $\cong$ system respons.

* General model:

n coefficients

$$\textcircled{a_n} \frac{d^n y}{dt^n} + \textcircled{a_{n-1}} \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dt^{n-1}} + \dots + \textcircled{a_1} \frac{dy}{dt} + \textcircled{a_0 y} =$$

$$\textcircled{b_m} \frac{d^m x}{dt^m} + \dots + \textcircled{b_1} \frac{dx}{dt} + \textcircled{b_0 x}$$



constant (physical parameters)

general form second order

$n=2, m=1$

$a_2 \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + a_1 \frac{dy}{dt} + \textcircled{a_0 y} = \textcircled{b_1} \frac{dx}{dt} + \textcircled{b_0 x}$

y: output
 x: input
 $m \leq n$

Ch3: measurement system behavior

mention

explain

Each measurement system responds differently to different types of input signals and to the dynamic content within these signals. So a particular system may not be suitable for measuring certain signals or at least portions of some signals.

يستجيب كل نظام قياس بشكل مختلف لأنواع مختلفة من إشارات الإدخال والمحتوى الديناميكي داخل هذه الإشارات. لذلك قد لا يكون نظام معين مناسباً لقياس إشارات معينة أو على الأقل أجزاء من بعض الإشارات.

mention

As pointed out in Chapter 2, all input and output signals can be broadly classified as being static, dynamic, or some combination of the two. For a static signal, only the signal magnitude is needed to reconstruct the input signal based on the indicated output signal.

كما هو موضح في الفصل 2، يمكن تصنيف جميع إشارات الإدخال والإخراج على نطاق واسع على أنها ثابتة أو ديناميكية أو مزيج من الاثنين. بالنسبة للإشارة الثابتة، لا يلزم سوى حجم الإشارة لإعادة بناء إشارة الإدخال بناءً على إشارة الخرج المشار إليها.

أخذنا في الشاكر الي قبل انواع ال signal وانواع ال input

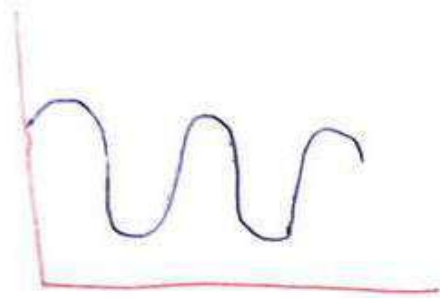
➤ Vibration signals vary in amplitude and time, and thus are a dynamic input signal to the measuring instrument.

تختلف إشارات الاهتزاز في السعة والوقت، وبالتالي فهي إشارة دخل ديناميكية لأداة القياس.

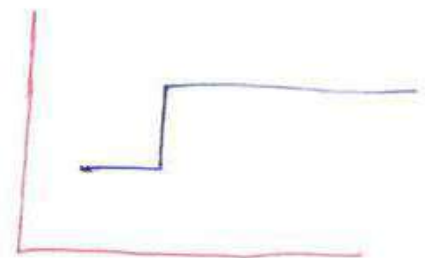
2 types of input

رج نركز بها الشاكر على نوعين من signal

Periodic
or
Sin input



Step
input



question

نتيجة عملية القياس رح تعتمد على شغلتين :

Output

step / sin

G1

zero / first / two ..

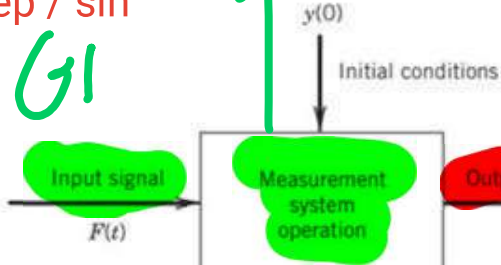


Figure 3.2 Measurement system operation on an input signal, $F(t)$, provides the output signal, $y(t)$.

G1 (الي هي ال input signal كمثال لو كانت periodic أو step)

G2 (هي مكونات نظام القياس وال measurement system operation)

$$G \text{ results} = G1 * G2$$

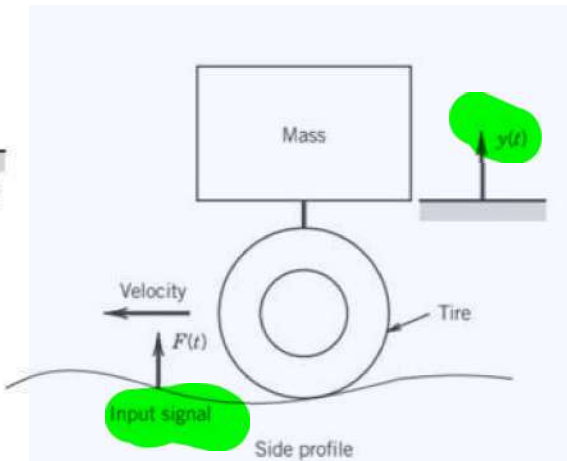
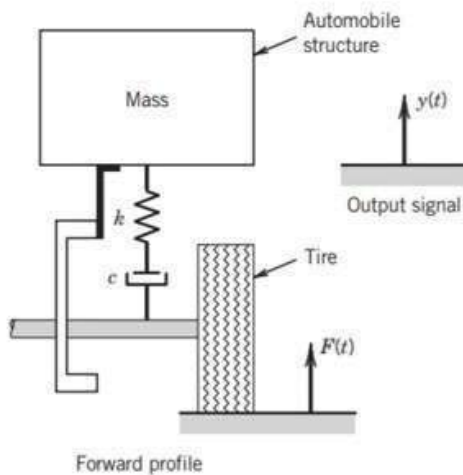
mention

explain

Dynamic Measurements

Dynamic Measurements For dynamic signals, signal amplitude, frequency and general waveform information is needed to reconstruct the input signal. Because dynamic signals vary with time, the measurement system must be able to respond fast enough to keep up with the input signal.

القياسات الديناميكية ضرورية للإشارات الديناميكية، وسعة الإشارة، والتردد، ومعلومات شكل الموجة العامة لإعادة بناء إشارة الدخل. نظرًا لاختلاف الإشارات الديناميكية مع مرور الوقت، يجب أن يكون نظام القياس قادرًا على الاستجابة بسرعة كافية لمواكبة إشارة الإدخال.



Automobile

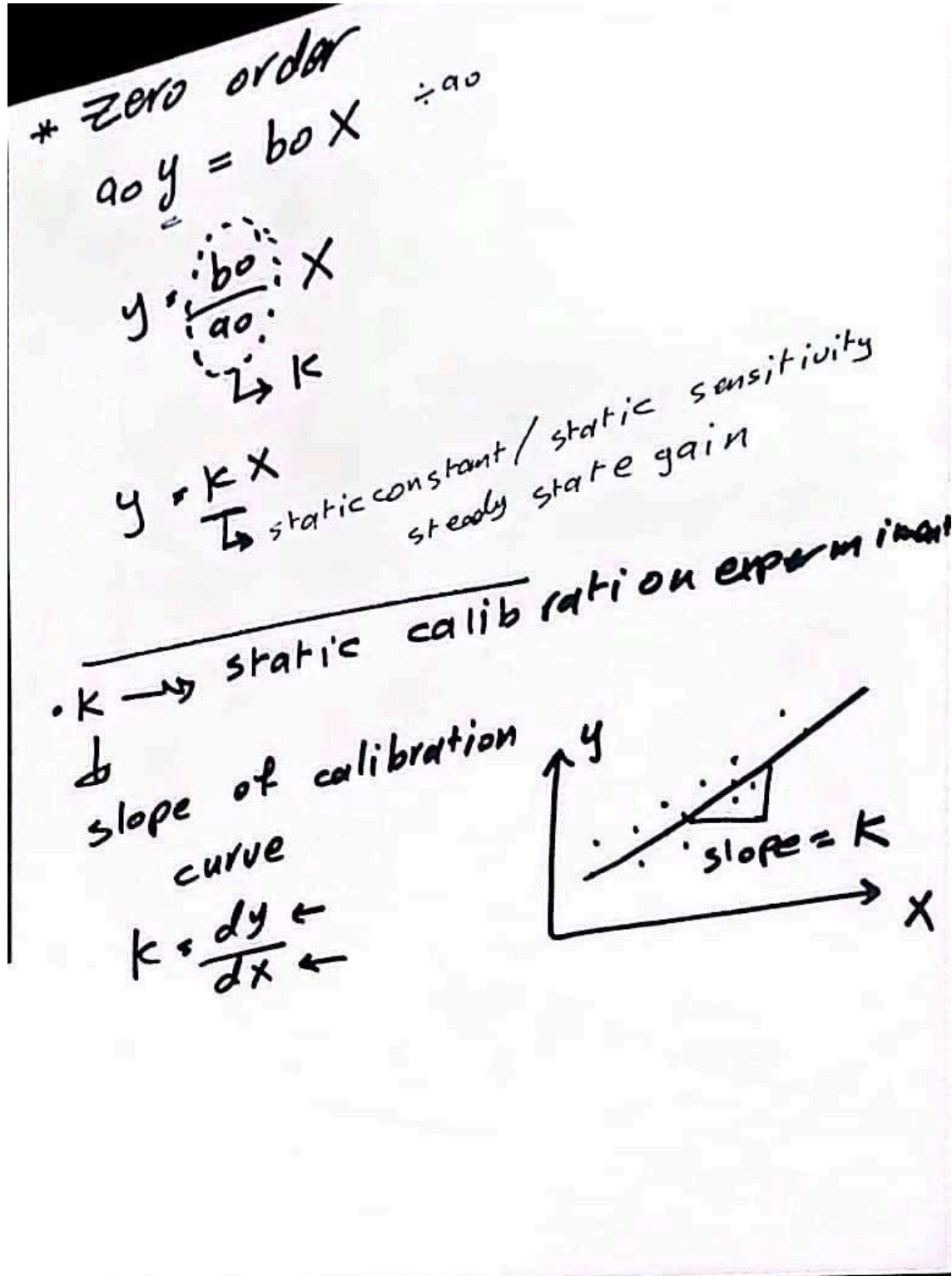
Figure 3.1 Lumped parameter model of an automobile suspension showing input and output signals.

لنفرض نظام داخل سيارة ممتن تكون مرتاح او مش مرتاح حسب شغلتين $y(t)$ ↑ وال displacement وهما اشيا يعتمدو على ال signal (الطريق)

كل ما تكون $G1$ ثابتة رح تكون قيمة ال $y(t)$ ثابتة وتكون انت مرتاح اكثر
هسا حكيما ال signal مهمة لأنها هي الطريق وهي العامل الأول
العامل الثاني جهاز القياس الي هو هون ال automobile وال damper تاها

For a static signal, only the signal magnitude is needed to reconstruct the input signal based on the indicated output signal.

Dynamic Measurements For dynamic signals, signal amplitude, frequency, and general waveform information is needed to reconstruct the input signal. Because dynamic signals vary with time, the measurement system must respond fast enough to keep up with the input signal.



فهون ممكن تكون الطريق سيئ والسيارة كويسة فما تحس بالطريق
وممكن السيارة (جهاز) كويسة والطريق سيئ فبرضو تحسش بالطريق (signal)

وممكن السيارة قديمة والطريق مليون تعرجات
فهو (جهاز القياس $y(t)$) رح يعطيني انه عندي مشكلة بال $G1$ وال $G2$

هاد الموضوع هو موازي للموضوع تاع الكترول الي اسمه transfer function



Laplace output
Laplace input

فال output بيعتمد على ال input

انواع ال measurement systems

هسا رح نحاول نبدا نعمل model measurement system حسب ال $G1$ وال $G2$

Consider the following general model of a measurement system, which consists of an n th-order linear ordinary differential equation in terms of a general output signal, represented by variable $y(t)$, and subject to a general input signal, represented by the forcing function, $F(t)$:

ضع في اعتبارك النموذج العام التالي لنظام القياس ، والذي يتكون من معادلة تفاضلية خطية عادية من الدرجة التاسعة من حيث إشارة خرج عامة ، ممثلة بالمتغير $y(t)$ ، وتخضع لإشارة إدخال عامة ممثلة بوظيفة التأثير $F(t)$:

هسا بنكتب المعادلة التفاضلية للنظام وبفرض انها linear system
وما رح نتعلم كيفية حلها لأنه حلها بده كورسات كاملة

$$a_n \frac{d^n y}{dt^n} + a_{n-1} \frac{d^{n-1} y}{dt^{n-1}} + \dots + a_1 \frac{dy}{dt} + a_0 y = F(t)$$

where

$$F(t) = b_m x$$

$$F(t) = b_m \cancel{\frac{d^m x}{dt^m}} + b_{m-1} \cancel{\frac{d^{m-1} x}{dt^{m-1}}} + \dots + b_1 \cancel{\frac{dx}{dt}} + b_0 x \quad m \leq n$$

هسا هون المعادلة التفاضلية تتكون من جهتين جهة ال input الي هي ال $F(t)$ والجهة الثانية هي عبارة عن معاملات (a) مضروبين بال input الي هو y ومشتقاته

$F(t)$ هي عبارة عن Sumation لكل ال Input

وكتبوها معادلة تحت ولكن بالبحث تاغنا في هاد الكورس وجدوا انه فش داعي لكل هذول الا للحد الأخير

هون لاحظ انه المعادلات التفاضلية كلها بال t domain لو بدى احوالها لل s domain لازم اخذها لابلاس

$a_n, a_1, a_n \dots b_n \rightarrow$ Physical Parameters (خصائص منظومة القياس)

the general form for a second-order equation ($n=2; m=1$) from Equation 3.1,

$$a^2 \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2} + a_1 \frac{dy}{dt} + a_0 y = b_1 \frac{dx}{dt} + b_0 x$$

3.3 SPECIAL CASES OF THE GENERAL SYSTEM MODEL

Zero-Order Systems

definition

zero order system لما اخذ بس ال اول حد من ال input بهاي الحالة يكون

The simplest model of a measurement systems and one used with static signals is the zero - order system model . This is represented by the zero - order differential equation :

أبسط نموذج لأنظمة القياس وآخر يستخدم مع الإشارات الثابتة هو نموذج النظام الصفري . يتم تمثيل ذلك بالمعادلة التفاضلية ذات الترتيب الصفري :

important

$$a_0 y = F(t) \rightarrow a_0 y = b_0 x \rightarrow y = \left(\frac{b_0}{a_0} \right) x \rightarrow y = k x$$

هاد الأشي بذكرني بأشي مهم
لما اقسام المعادلة على a.

Static sensitivity $\rightarrow y(t) = KF(t)$

K is called the static sensitivity or steady gain of the system .

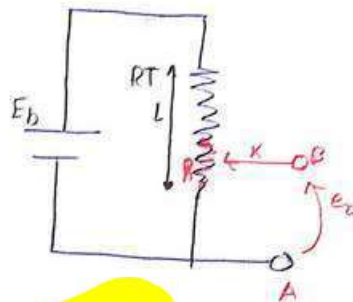
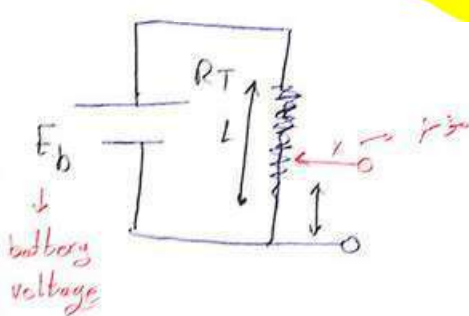
يسمى K بالحساسية الساكنة أو الكسب الثابت للنظام .

The static sensitivity is found from the static calibration of the measurement system . It is the slope of the calibration curve , $K = dy/dx$

تم العثور على الحساسية الساكنة من المعايرة الثابتة لنظام القياس . إنه منحدر منحنى المعايرة

example :

Example: Potinsiometer

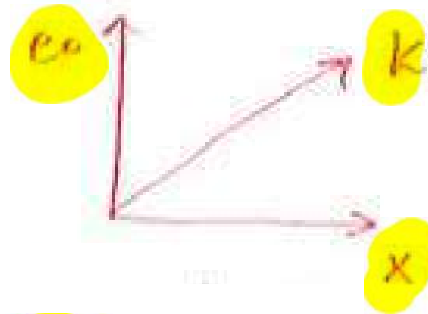


x : input
e_o : output

ال e. هو لو شكت الدارة بفولتميتر عشان اقيس فرق الجهد بين النقطة A والنقطة B وهون بلاقي علاقة بينهم

$$e_o = \frac{x}{L} \cdot E_b$$

لو فكرت ارسم العلاقة بين ال input وال output تكون العلاقة (linear)



وال zero order system يظهر لي سيطرة كاملة فأني تغير في ال input بتبعه تغير في ال output

لو سئلني عن قيمة ال K هون كيف بوجدها

Output Input

$$e_o = \frac{K}{L} \cdot E_b$$

رسماني عن static sensitivity

important

$$e_o = \left(\frac{E_b}{L} \right) K$$

$$e_o = K X$$

$$K = \frac{E_b}{L}$$

zero order
(pointsmeter)
is perfect or
ideal

question

هسا في هاد المثال النظام perfect او ideal لكن هل فعلا في الحقيقة يوجد نظام ideal؟
الجواب طبعا لا هون افرضنا كثير افتراضات لطلع ideal منها

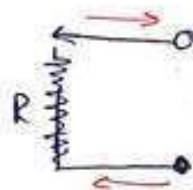
explain

$$E_b \equiv R_{total} \equiv L \quad \text{اولا افترضنا}$$

$$(R/R_T) \cdot E_b \quad \text{R في توضع جزئ من ال R الكلية}$$

صهاية الحالة فرضنا ال تيار الي جبر في ال E_b مفتوح جبر بال R ولكن هاد فرضنا

لان في جزئ من التيار رح جبر بال pranch



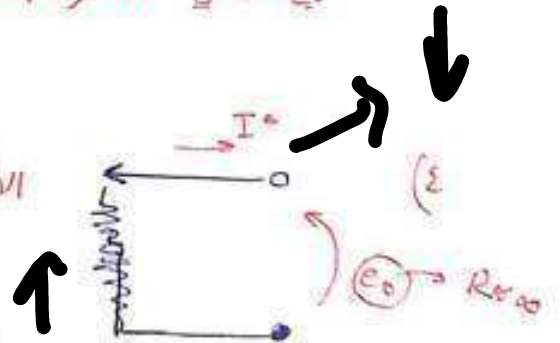
جزئ من تيار جبر بال

pranching

(٣) ضياء معناه انه جزء من ال power و يثبت على ال voltmeter و هذا الان
 و يمنع تكونه العلاقة linear (100/100) مئة بالمئة
 زيه كاني انا فرضيت one loop لكن في الحقيقة 2 loop

perfect and ideal

الاشي الى ممكن يقرب النظام من perfect و يكونه العلاقة linear
 انه يكونه التيار كثير و انها تكونه مقاومة لهما
 القياس من (كالية جدا)



↓
 كل مانظية صاد الشرط يكونه العلاقة ideal
 ((بقي علامة خطية منفرج))

Electric elements

(٥) بالكهرباء اخذتوا انه في عندي



صهاو المثل انافرضت انه صهاو المثل (100/100) Resister و صافيو لا

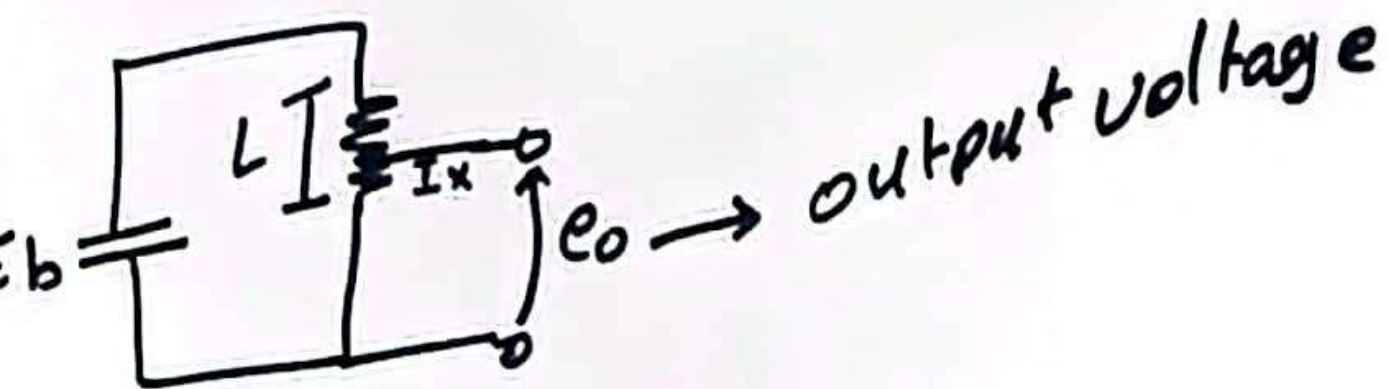
capasitor ولا inductor لو كانت برضو

صا الا سلا موجوده في سلا العلامة zero

ممكن يتغير ل first او second
 (نوع النظام)

(٦) و افترضنا ايضا انه اعدو صر حجمه صفر و صا بعل اشكاله و اهلنا الوزنه
 ثافه و اهلنا السريه فانه ممكن يغير من سريه X

* Example : Potentiometer displacement measuring



$$\frac{e_o}{x_i} = \frac{E_b}{L}$$

$$e_o = \frac{E_b}{L} x_i$$

$$e_o = K \frac{x}{L} \text{ input}$$

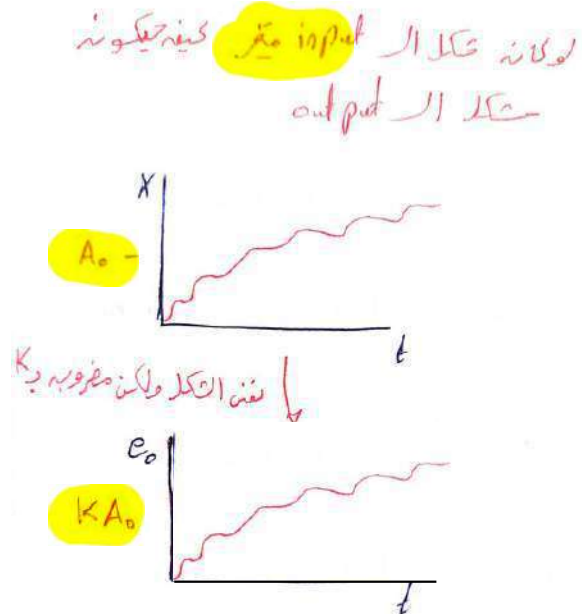
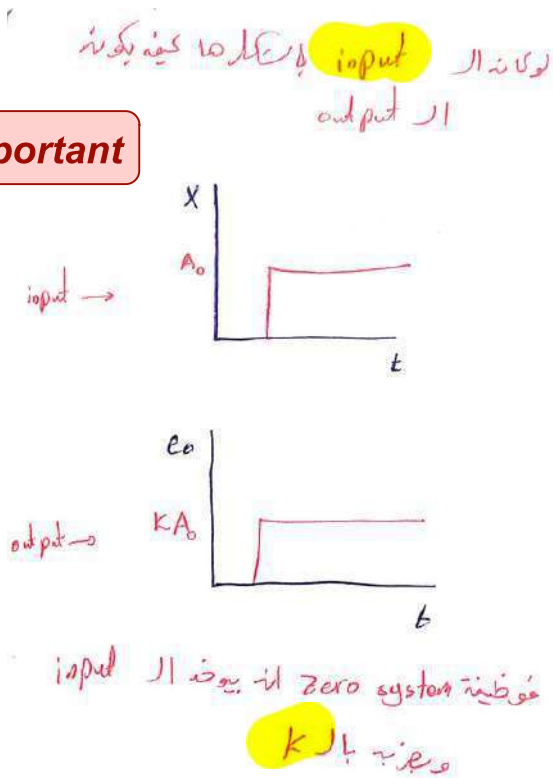
static
sensitivity

Potinsimeter

الهدف من كل هاد انه نفهم انه ما في ideal system مية بالمية فعشان هيك بحاول عقد الإمكان اقل ممن كل الأخطاء الي ممكن تبعد النظام عن ال ideal وما يكون ال input يعطي output صحيح Ideal system يعني نظام بدون اخطاء والمؤثر الوحيد على ال output هو ال input

لفهم فكرة السيطرة تاع ال zero-order

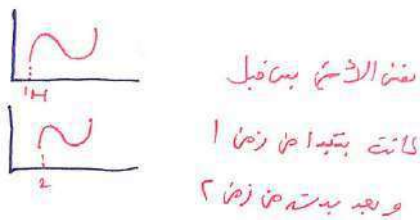
important



اسئلة على رسومات ال zero-order

- ✓ yes ideal ✓! ideal instrument
- ✓ perfect ✓ Dynamic response ?
(انه ال input باخر دايركت ال output)

كثير اكر عن ال Time lag / phase



Time lag

perfect system

ما تقاد كوفي الحقيقة حل ال

ممكن انه يكون موجود؟

idea نظام بدون اخطاء

perfect نظام بتأثر فيه ال

Out بال input

time lag / phase shift

بين ال input وال output ؟

هل يوجد وقت بين ال input وال output متاينشوا

Time lag

بعد فترة ه فيه

distortion ؟

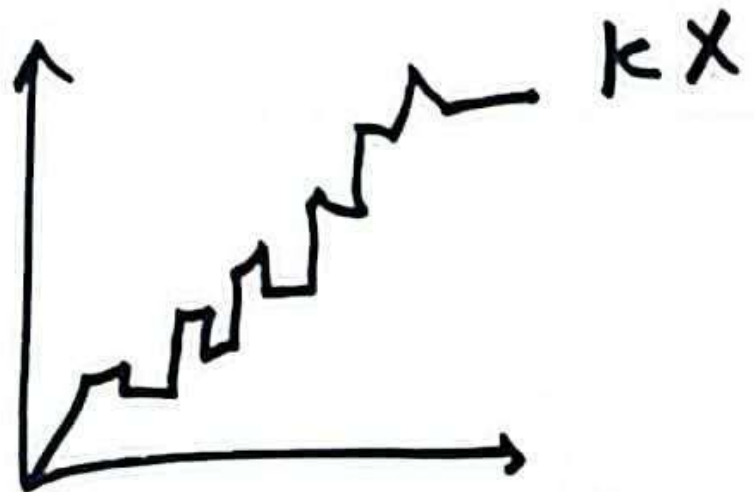
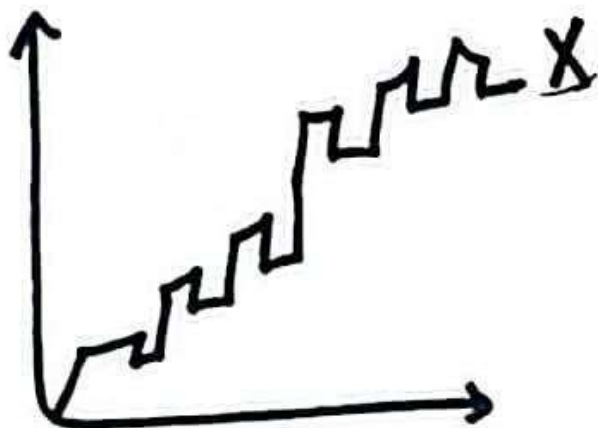
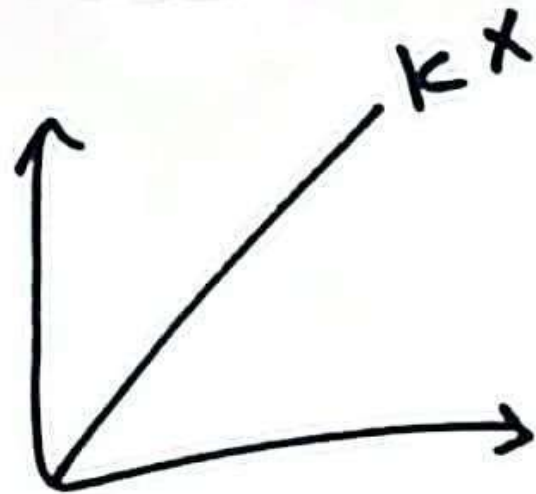
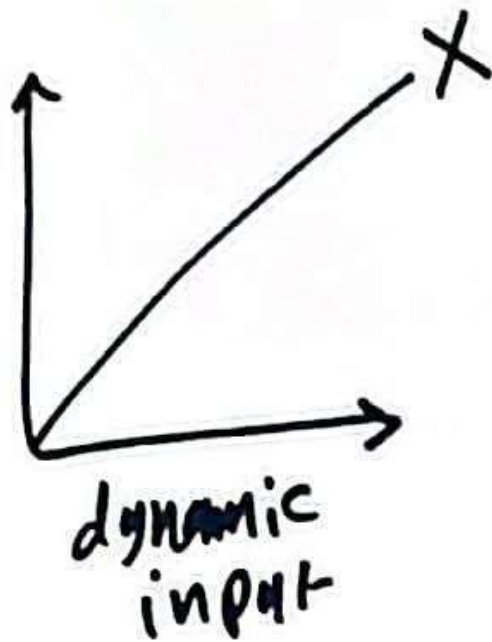
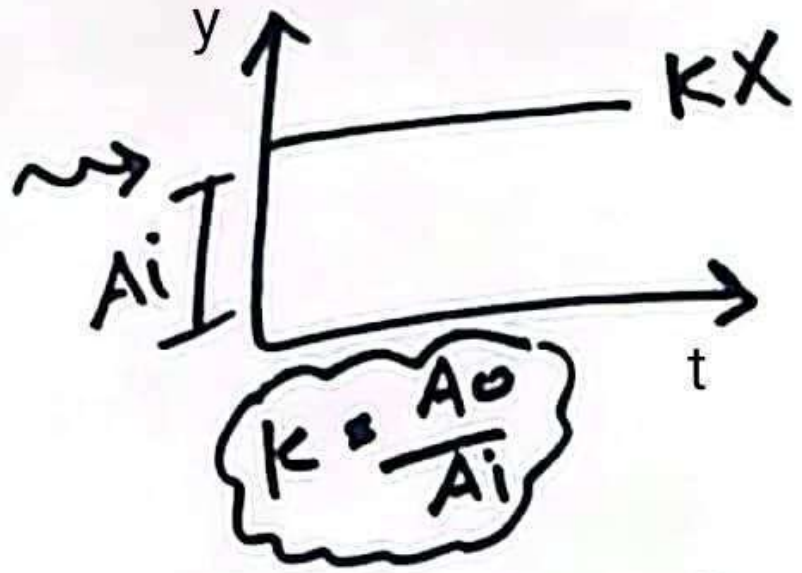
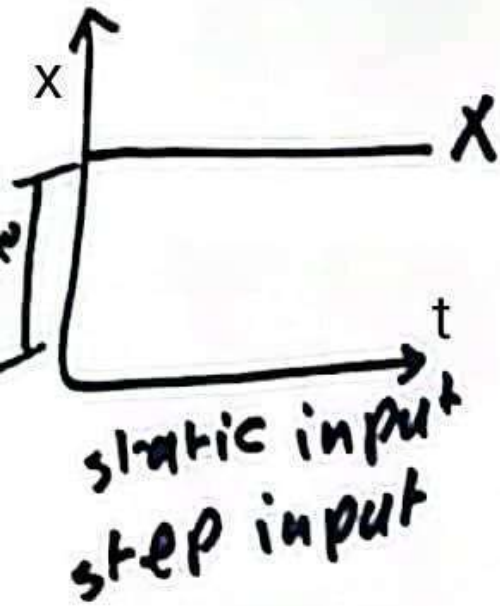
(اصل تغير الشكل قبل كذا)

input signal

in $\rightarrow$

zero order

out put signal



advantages z-o

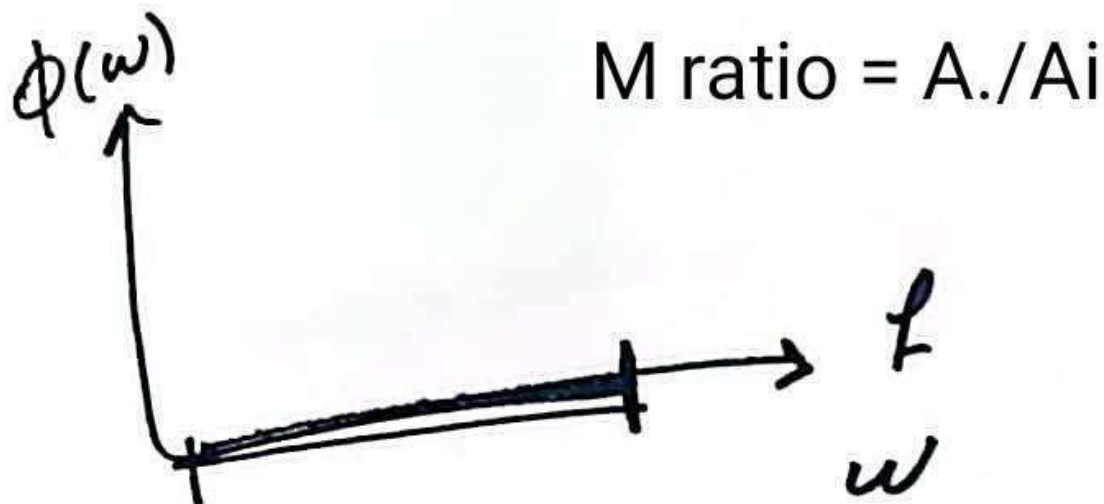
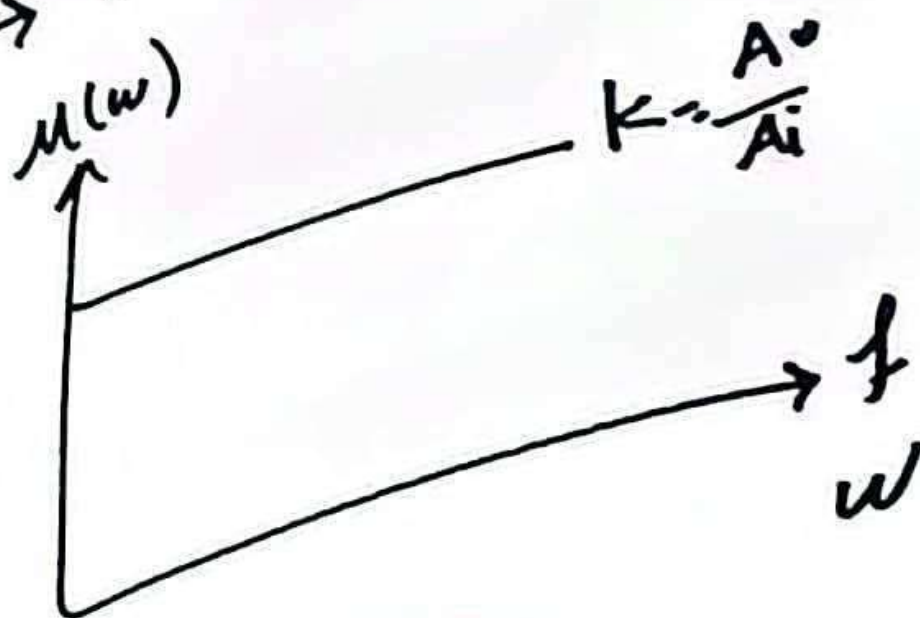
1. ideal system
2. dynamic response perfect
3. there is no time lag in signal

4. there's no phase shift
5. output like input $B = kA$
6. تكبير او تصغير الاشارة ما بأثر
7. infinite bandwidth and constant M Ratio

disadvantages for this system :

1. resistance isn't pure
2. friction and internal energy or force is almost zero
3. E. need a high energy to exit the system

$\mu_{ratio} = A_i$
 $\rightarrow \text{band width} = 20 \log M$



modeling guide us :

Fortunately , many measurement systems can be modeled by zero- , first- , or second - order linear . ordinary differential equations . More complex systems can usually be simplified to these lower orders . Our intention here is to attempt to understand how systems behave and how such response is closely related to the design features of a measurement system ; it is not to simulate the exact system behavior . The exact input - output relationship is found from calibration . But modeling guides us in choosing specific instruments and measuring methods by predicting system response to signals , and in determining the type , range , and specifics of calibration .

لحسن الحظ ، يمكن نمذجة العديد من أنظمة القياس باستخدام خطي من الدرجة الصفرية أو الأولى أو الثانية. المعادلات التفاضلية العادية . يمكن عادةً تبسيط الأنظمة الأكثر تعقيداً لهذه الطلبات الأقل. هدفنا هنا هو محاولة فهم كيفية تصرف الأنظمة وكيف ترتبط هذه الاستجابة ارتباطاً وثيقاً بميزات تصميم نظام القياس ؛ ليس لمحاكاة سلوك النظام بالضبط. تم العثور على العلاقة الدقيقة بين الإدخال والإخراج من المعايرة. لكن النمذجة ترشدنا في اختيار أدوات وطرق قياس محددة من خلال التنبؤ باستجابة النظام للإشارات ، وفي تحديد نوع ونطاق وخصائص المعايرة.

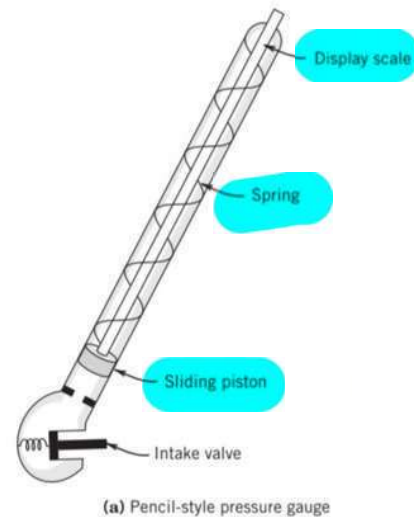
Example 3.2

مثال على النظام الصفري

Figure 3.4 Lumped parameter model of pressure gauge

example :

Pencil style pressure gauge



الأسود هو الغلاف الخارجي للجهاز



(c) Photograph of the components within a pencil-type pressure gauge

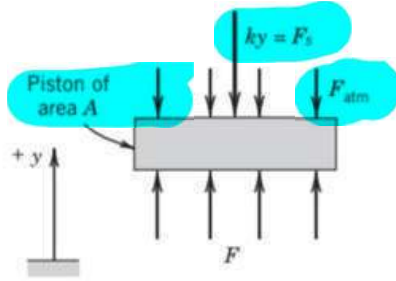
Display scale

هون عليه زي
تدرج بيعطي
قيمة ال

pressure

هاي الجلدة السوداء هي عبارة عن piston
بالداخل

هون زي زنبرك بداخل الجهاز



(b) Free-body diagram

لاحظ انه هاد ال piston عليه قوتين الأولى هو
ال atmosphere تاع ال

والثاني هو ال f تاع الزنبرك

والقوتين متساويتان لأنه النظام متوازن

use in

A pencil - type pressure gauge commonly used to measure tire pressure can be modeled at static equilibrium by considering the force balance on the gauge sensor , a piston that slides up and down a cylinder piston

يمكن نمذجة مقياس ضغط من نوع القلم الرصاص يستخدم عادة لقياس ضغط الإطارات عند توازن ثابت من خلال مراعاة توازن القوة على مستشعر القياس ، وهو مكبس ينزلق لأعلى ولأسفل مكبس أسطوانة

important

$$\Sigma F = 0, \text{ gives}$$

$$ky = F - F_{atm}$$

$$Ky = p^* A$$

الي هي الضغط المؤثر على مساحة A في p هي القوة تاع الزنبرك ومساوية لل Ky

Pressure is simply the force acting inward over the piston surface area , Dividing through by area provides the zero - order response equation between output displacement and input pressure and gives

الضغط هو ببساطة القوة المؤثرة للداخل على مساحة سطح المكبس ، وتقسيمها حسب المنطقة يوفر معادلة الاستجابة ذات الترتيب الصفري بين وضع الإخراج وضغط الإدخال ويعطي

$$y = (A/k)(p - p_{atm})$$

لماذا هذا المودل مش مناسب للديناميك ؟

The exact static input - output relationship is found through calibration of the gauge . Because elements such as piston inertia and frictional dissipation were not considered , this model would not be appropriate for studying the dynamic response of the gauge .

explain

تم العثور على علاقة الإدخال والإخراج الثابتة الدقيقة من خلال معايرة المقياس . نظرًا لعدم مراعاة عناصر مثل القصور الذاتي للمكبس والتبديد الاحتكاكي ، فلن يكون هذا النموذج مناسبًا لدراسة الاستجابة الديناميكية للمقياس .

Example 3.2: Pencil type Pressure.

$$\sum F = 0$$

$$ky = F - F_{atm}$$

$$P = \frac{F}{A} \rightarrow \text{piston}$$

$$y = (A/k)(P - P_{atm})$$

↑ from calibration
just for for gauge

static response of the gauge

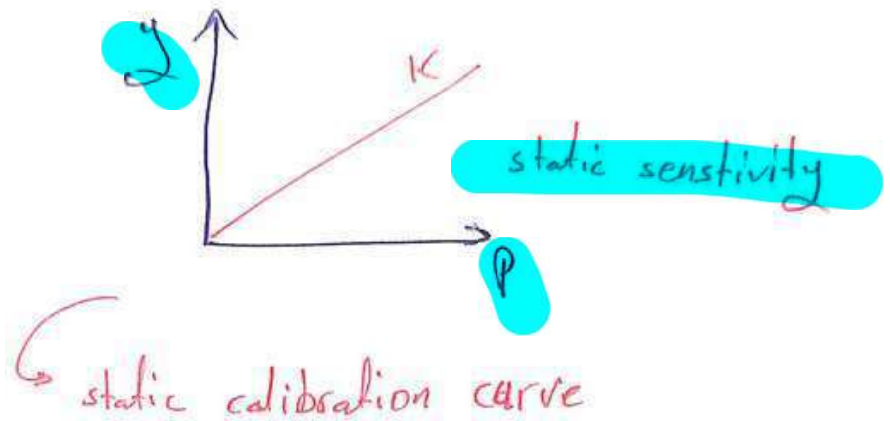
not suitable for dynamic

لو بدى ارسم العلاقة بينهم

$$Ky = p * A$$

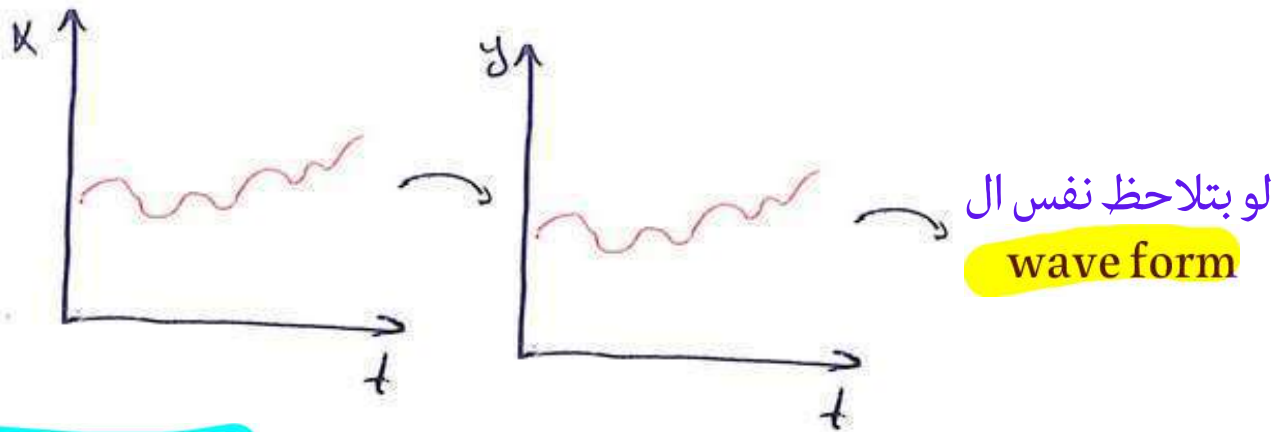
$$K = \frac{k}{A}$$

y: out put
p: input



important

وبرضو اي تغير بقيمة ال x بتغير بقيمة ال t



FirsOrder Systems

Measurement systems that contain storage elements do not respond instantaneously to changes in input.

أنظمة القياس التي تحتوي على عناصر تخزين لا تستجيب بشكل فوري للتغيرات في المدخلات.

هسا اي معادلة احنا بنحاول نبسطها بحيث تبقا ال y لحالها زي ممثلا ال zero-order قسمناها على a. وهيك بعمل هون

first order system

$$a_1 \dot{y} + a_0 y = f(t)$$

هاد الحد زائد عن ال zero-order



$$a_1 \dot{y} + a_0 y = f(t)$$

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = K f(t)$$

Time constant
= a_1 / a_0

static sensitivity

may be modeled using a first-order differential equation of the form

$$a_1 \dot{y} + a_0 y = F(t)$$

with $\dot{y} = dy/dt$. Dividing through by a_0 gives

$$\tau y + y = KF(t)$$

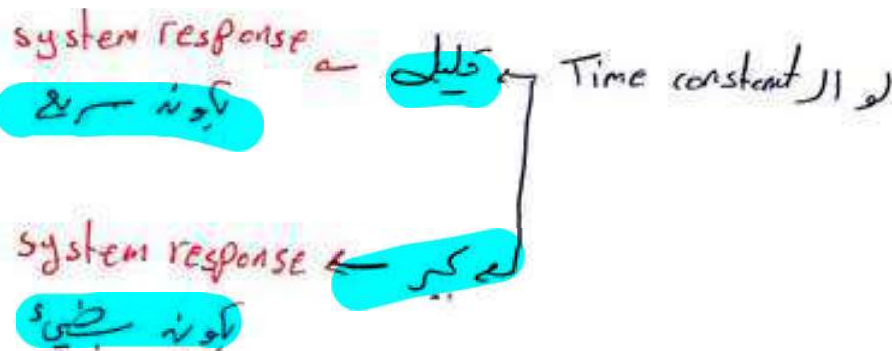
important

The parameter T is called the time constant of the system.

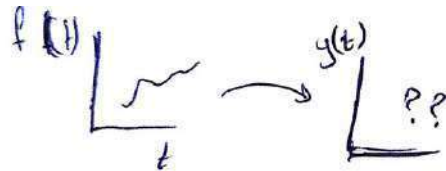
تسمى المعلمة T ثابت الوقت للنظام.

تمام بس هسا شو الفائدة من ال time constant ال time constant بتعبرلي عن ال

Speed of system responds



هسا زي بدنا نحاول نحل المعادلة التفاضلية هاي تاع ال first order وحنأخذ حالتين
عشان اشوف لو تغير $f(t)$ الي هو ال input كيف حيصير $y(t)$



Step Function Input

The step function, $AU(t)$, is defined as

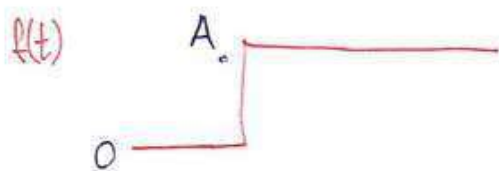
$$AU(t) = 0 \quad t \leq 0^-$$

$$AU(t) = A \quad t \geq 0^+$$

where A is the amplitude
of the step function
حيث A هي سعة دالة الخطوة

a sudden change in the input signal from a constant value of one magnitude to a constant value of some other magnitude

تغيير مفاجئ في إشارة الدخل من قيمة ثابتة مقدارها إلى قيمة ثابتة لبعض المقدار الآخر

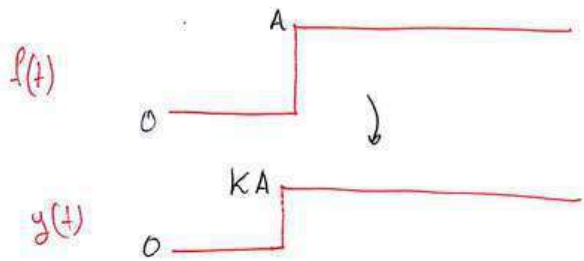


كمثال عليه لما انقل الميزان تاع
الحرارة من كوب مثلج لكوب بغلي
هاد شكله العام قبل ما اشوف
استجابته بال FirstOrder

important

$$\begin{cases} t = A & , t > 0 \\ t = 0 & , t < 0 \end{cases}$$

تمام هسا قبل ما اسوف استجابته بال first order بتذر كر كيف استجاب عندي بال . Zero-order



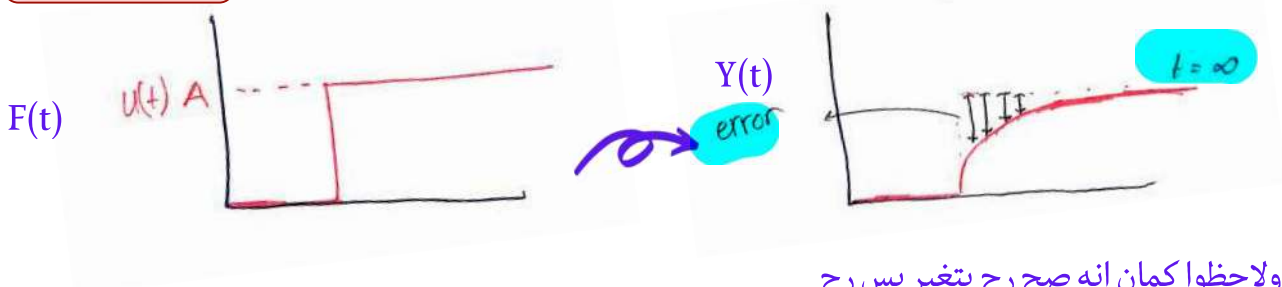
رح يضل نفس الشكل وبس ينضرب ب k

طبعاً بالواقع ما عندي system بيرفكت مية بالمية يعطيني zero-order
إلا ما يكون عندي time constant لحد ما يستجيب ال system



تمام هسا كيف بستجيب ال first order بال step function
لاحظوا علماء الرياضيات انه بال step function الكيرف رح يختلف عندي
بال output عن ال input

important



ولا حظوا كمان انه صح رح يتغير بس رح
يثبت عند الأنفنتي او عند رقم كبير
ويصير بشبه ال zero-order

تمام هسا لا قوا شكل الاقتران وبعدها حاولوا يحلوا المعادلة عشان يقدر يعرفو $y(t)$



$$y(t) = \underbrace{kA}_{\text{steady response}} + \underbrace{(y_0 - kA)e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}}_{\text{Transient response}}$$

$$F(y) = A u(t)$$

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = kA u(t) = kF(t)$$

بعد زمن طويل ال
System
رح يتصرف زي ال
Zero-order

بعد فترة عشان ال
System
يتصرف زي ال
Zero-order

وال output تتبع ال input

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = KA U(t) = KF(t) \quad \text{الأساسية}$$

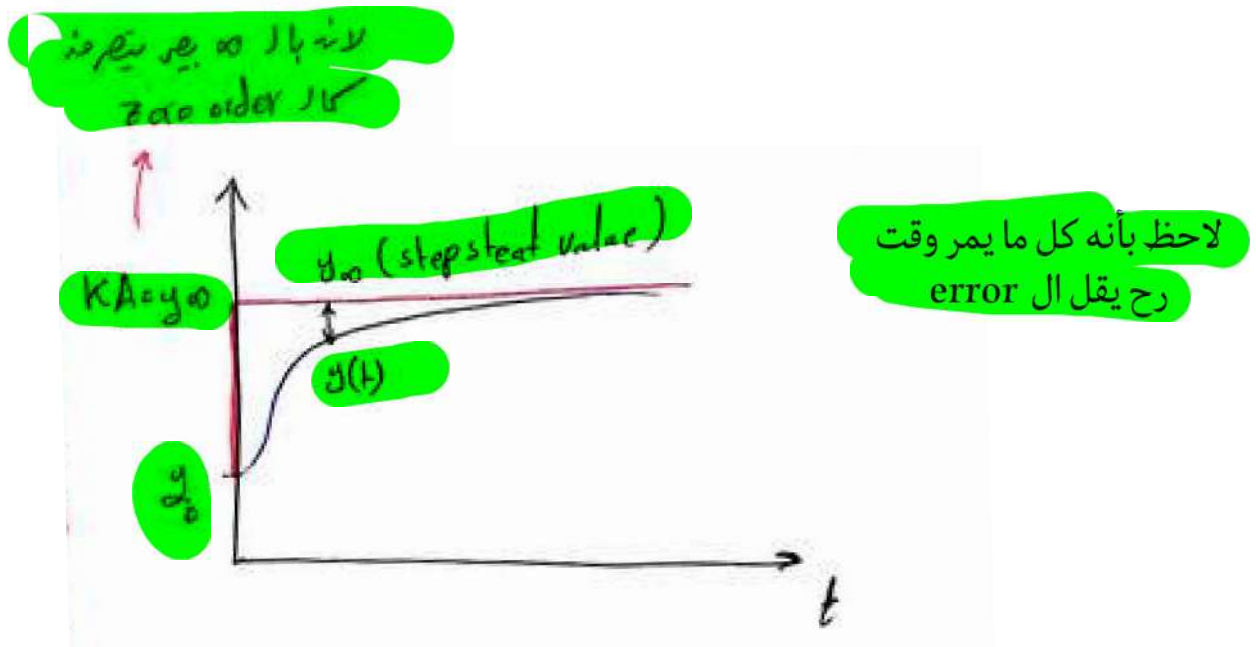
with an arbitrary initial condition denoted by, $y(0) = y_0$. Solving for $t \geq 0^+$ yields

$$\underbrace{y(t)}_{\text{Time response}} = \underbrace{KA}_{\text{Steady response}} + \underbrace{(y_0 - KA)e^{-t/\tau}}_{\text{Transient response}}$$

The solution of the differential equation, T , is the time response (or simply the response) of the system.

حل المعادلة التفاضلية، T ، هو استجابة للوقت (أو ببساطة استجابة) للنظام.

كتوضيح لفكرة ال error



Suppose we rewrite the response Equation 3.5 in the form

$$\Gamma(t) = \frac{y(t) - y_{\infty}}{y_0 - y_{\infty}} = e^{-t/\tau}$$

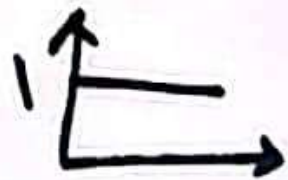
The term $\Gamma(t)$ is called the *error fraction* of the output signal. Equation 3.6 is

$$\rightarrow X(t) = A U(t)$$

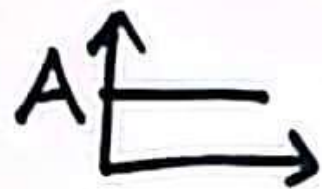
$$\rightarrow \tau \dot{y} + y = K \ddot{x}$$

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = K A U(t)$$

$$u(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t < 0 \\ 1, & t > 0 \end{cases}$$



$$A u(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t < 0 \\ A, & t > 0 \end{cases}$$

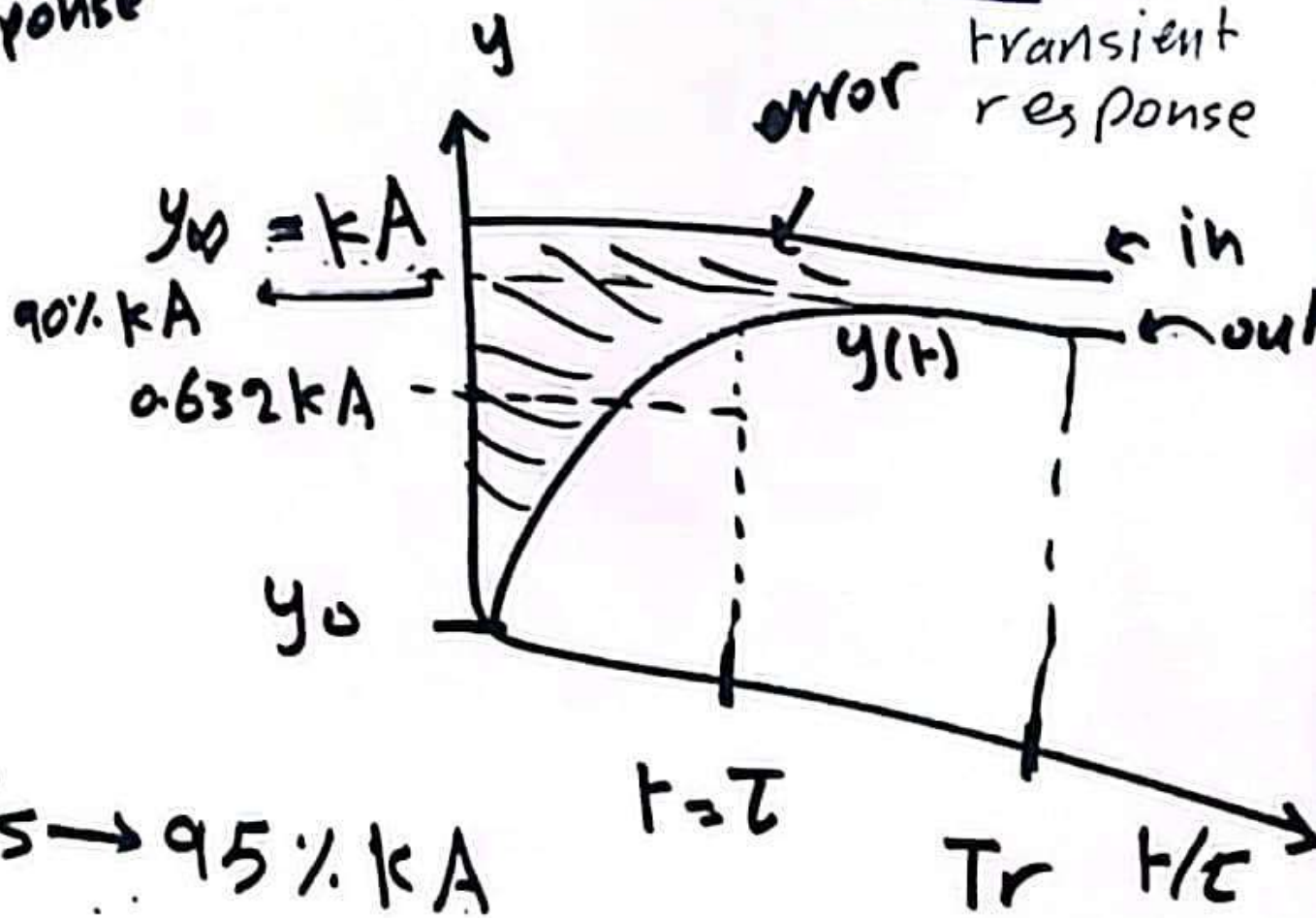


output / time response

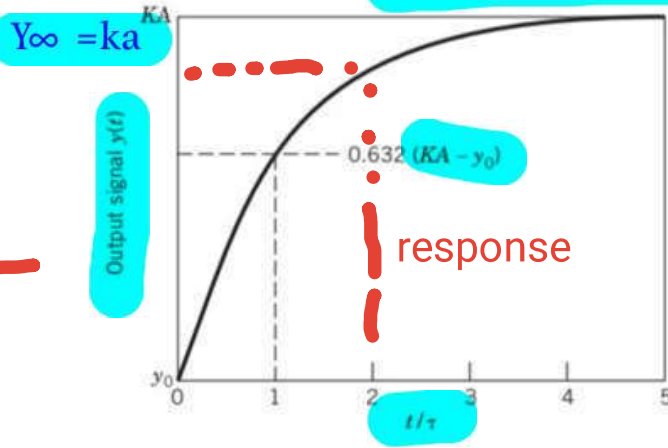
$$\rightarrow y(t) = \underbrace{KA}_{\text{steady response}} + \underbrace{(y_0 - KA) e^{-t/\tau}}_{\text{transient response}}$$

steady response

error transient response

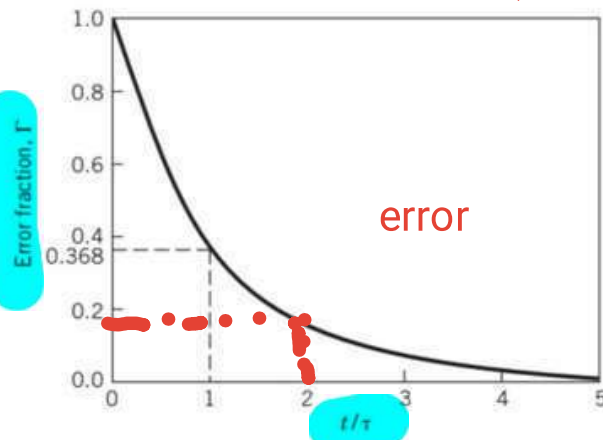


توضيح لفكرة ال time constant



لاحظ انه بال x axis عندي t على تاو
فمثلا عند الزمن 1 بتكون t = تاو

Figure 3.6 First-order system time response to a step function input: the time response, $y(t)$.



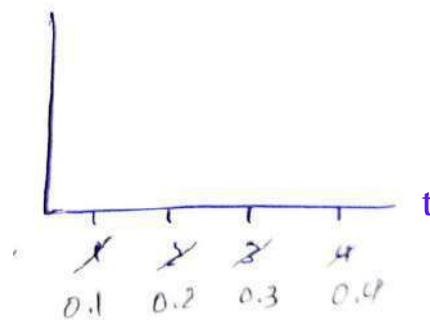
1- graph of $(y(t) - t/\tau) =$ error fraction

Figure 3.7 First-order system time response to a step function input: the error fraction, Γ .

Note :

بعد مرور واحد second من time response في الرسمة الأولى رح يكون 0.632 إذن ال error كيف بحسبه
ه المكملة فبحكي $0.368 = 1 - 0.632$
الطاهو في الرسمة الثانية

حكينا قبل انه التاو بتعتمد ع جهاز القياس طي لو الرسمة ال x axis بال t
مش t على تاو وحكالي انه التاو تاع الجهاز = 0.1



لاحظ انه ال a axis هو t بشطب القيم وبرجع بعييهم حسب تاو
لهي الكتاب مختصر القصة وفوراً حاطتها t على تاو

Table 3.1 First-Order System Response and Error Fraction

t/τ	% Response	Γ	% Error
0	0.0	1.0	100.0
1	63.2	0.368	36.8
2	86.5	0.135	13.5
2.3	90.0	0.100	10.0
3	95.0	0.050	5.0
5	99.3	0.007	0.7
∞	100.0	0.0	0.0

بـ 0 وقتي كان ال Response صفر

وال error 1 $\leftarrow (1 - 0)$

بـ 63.2 Response كان ال

وال error $= (1 - 63.2) = 0.368$

صحتنا

plot is equivalent to the transformation

$$\ln \Gamma = 2.3 \log \Gamma = -(1/\tau)t \quad (3.7)$$

which is of the linear form, $Y = mX + B$ (where $Y = \ln \Gamma$, $m = -(1/\tau)$, $X = t$, and $B = 0$ here). A linear curve fit through the data will provide a good estimate of the slope, m , of the resulting plot. From Equation 3.7, we see that $m = -1/\tau$, which yields the estimate for τ .

ال تاو بتعتمد عجهاز وكلما كانت قليلة ال response يكون اسرع

ال زمن 2.3 هو مهم النالنه بتكون درجة الاستجابة عنده 90 بالمية وال error فقط 10 بالمية وهو حفظ

The time required for a system to respond to a value that is 90% of the step input, $Y_o - Y_o$, is important and is called the rise time of the system.

يعد الوقت اللازم لاستعادة النظام لقيمة 90% من الخطوة الداخلية، $Y_o - Y_o$ ، أمرًا مهمًا ويسمى وقت صعود النظام.

ممکن یستلنی بها الطریقة

$$\gamma_{90\%} = 2.3 \tau$$

$$\gamma_{95\%} = 3 \tau$$

$$\gamma_{\text{Response}} = \tau \rightarrow \text{ال}$$

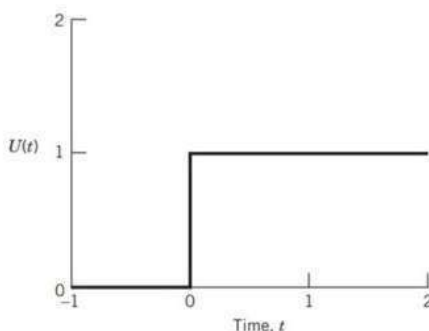


Figure 3.5 The unit step function, $U(t)$.

معلومة للمراجعة: رسمة ال step function

fraction error

$$\Gamma(t) = \frac{y(t) - y_0}{y_0 - y_0} = \underline{\underline{e^{-t/\tau}}}$$

$T_r \rightarrow$ rise time [90%] kA

$T_s \rightarrow$ settling time [95%] kA

75%, 25%, 60% $\rightarrow$ response time

90% kA $\rightarrow$ error = 10%

$$\frac{10}{100} = e^{-t/\tau} \rightarrow t/\tau = 2.3$$

$$\boxed{t = 2.3 \tau}$$

95% kA $\rightarrow$ error = 5%

$$\frac{5}{100} = e^{-t/\tau}$$

63.2%
error = 36.8%

$$\frac{36.8}{100} = e^{-t/\tau}$$

→ fraction $\frac{y(t) - y_0}{y_0 - y_0} = \underline{\underline{0}}$

$T_r \rightarrow$ rise time [90%] kA

$T_s \rightarrow$ settling time [95%] kA

75%, 25%, 60% $\rightarrow$ response time

90% kA $\rightarrow$ error = 10%

$$\frac{10}{100} = e^{-t/\tau} \rightarrow t/\tau = 2.3$$

$t = 2.3 \tau$

95% kA $\rightarrow$ error = 5%

$$\frac{5}{100} = e^{-t/\tau}$$

$$\frac{t}{\tau} = 3$$
$$t = 3\tau$$

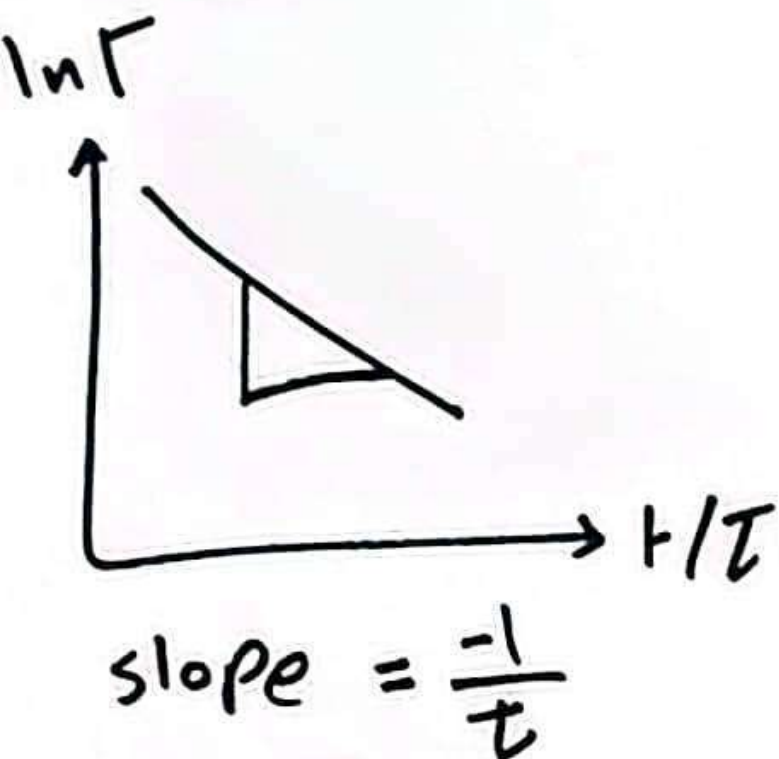
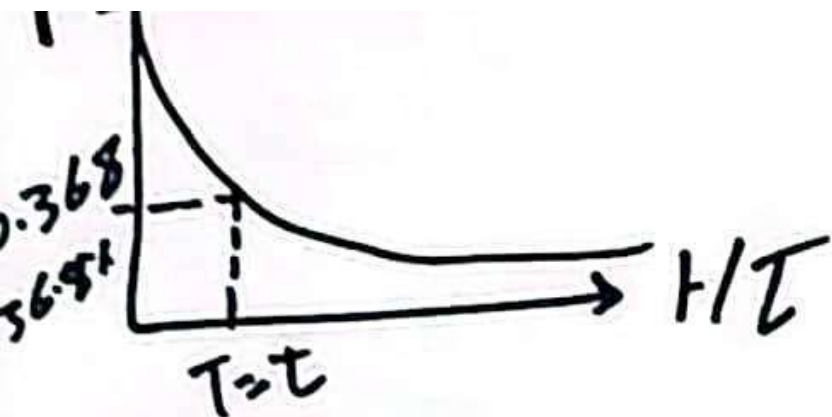
63.2%

error = 36.8%

$$\frac{36.8}{100} = e^{-t/\tau}$$

$$\frac{t}{\tau} = 1$$

$t = \tau$



$$T(t) = T_{\infty} + (T_0 - T_{\infty})e^{-t/\tau}$$

$$y(t) = y_{\infty} + (y_0 - y_{\infty})e^{-t/\tau}$$

* First order :-

$$a_1 \dot{y} + a_0 y = b_0 x \div a_0$$

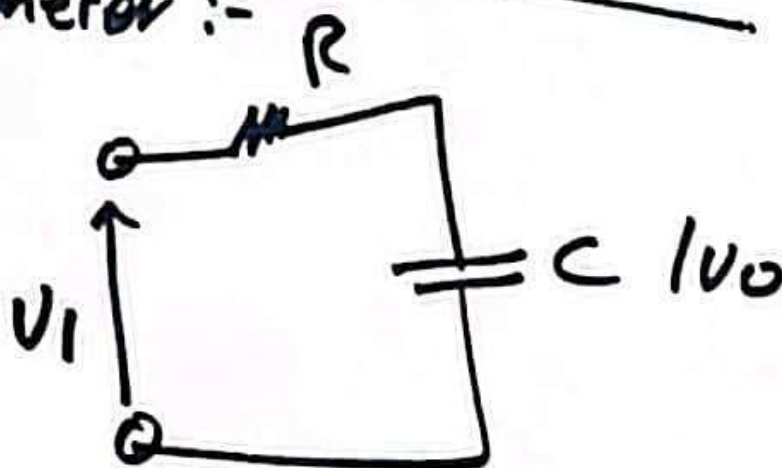
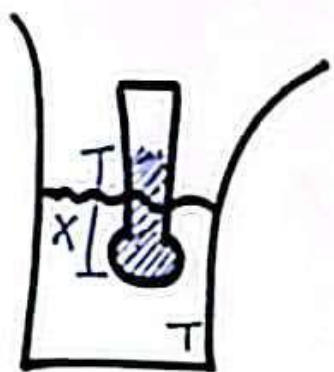
$$\underbrace{\left(\frac{a_1}{a_0} \right)}_{\tau} \dot{y} + y = \underbrace{\left(\frac{b_0}{a_0} \right)}_K x \quad \left| \begin{array}{l} \tau \downarrow \text{speed} \uparrow \\ \text{better} \end{array} \right.$$

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = K x$$

Time constant (s)
(speed of response)

Static sensitivity.
from calibration static

* Thermometer :-

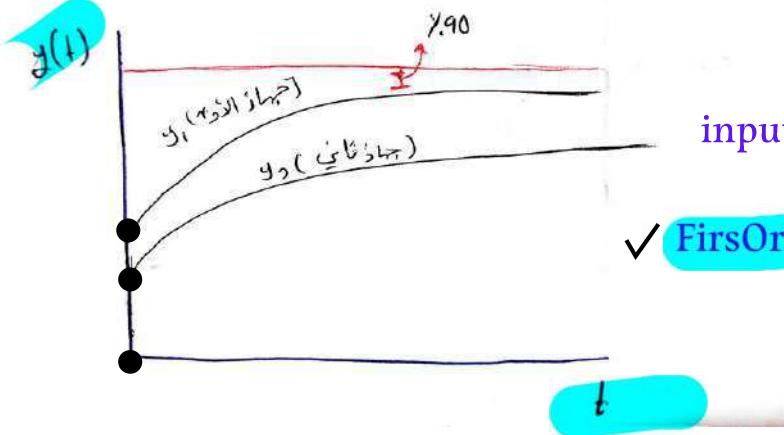


$$\tau = RC$$

question

example :

no error (zero)



افرض عندي جهازين وهي رسما تهم
فبدي اقرن بينهم

او الاشئ بحدد نوع ال measurement وال input
من رسمة ال output

✓ فم السمة انا عاوف انها FirstOrder measurement

✓ وال input هو step input

السؤال الثاني من اول الجهازين

Response تاي اسرع ؟

لأنه في اصله لل 90 بالمئة بوقت اسرع

السؤال الثاني بينا الحرارة ولا τ_1 ؟

$$\tau_1 < \tau_2$$

لأنه في اسرع اذنه التا وتاي قليل

كجهاز على ال first order instrument

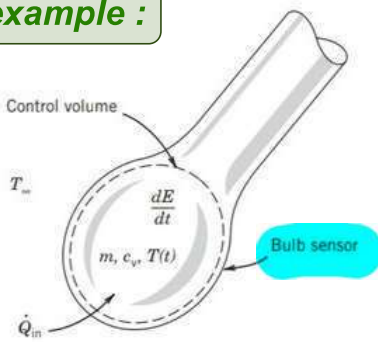
في ميزان الحرارة لأنه في وقت لقيس

الحرارة في وقت Time constant (اذنه ثانياً)
first order

(thermometer)

Examples

example :



عملية انتقال الحرارة من ال measured Medium
للسائل الداخلي بتحتاج وقت معين (time constant)

فهي اكد مهي zero-order

وغالبا هي FirstOrder

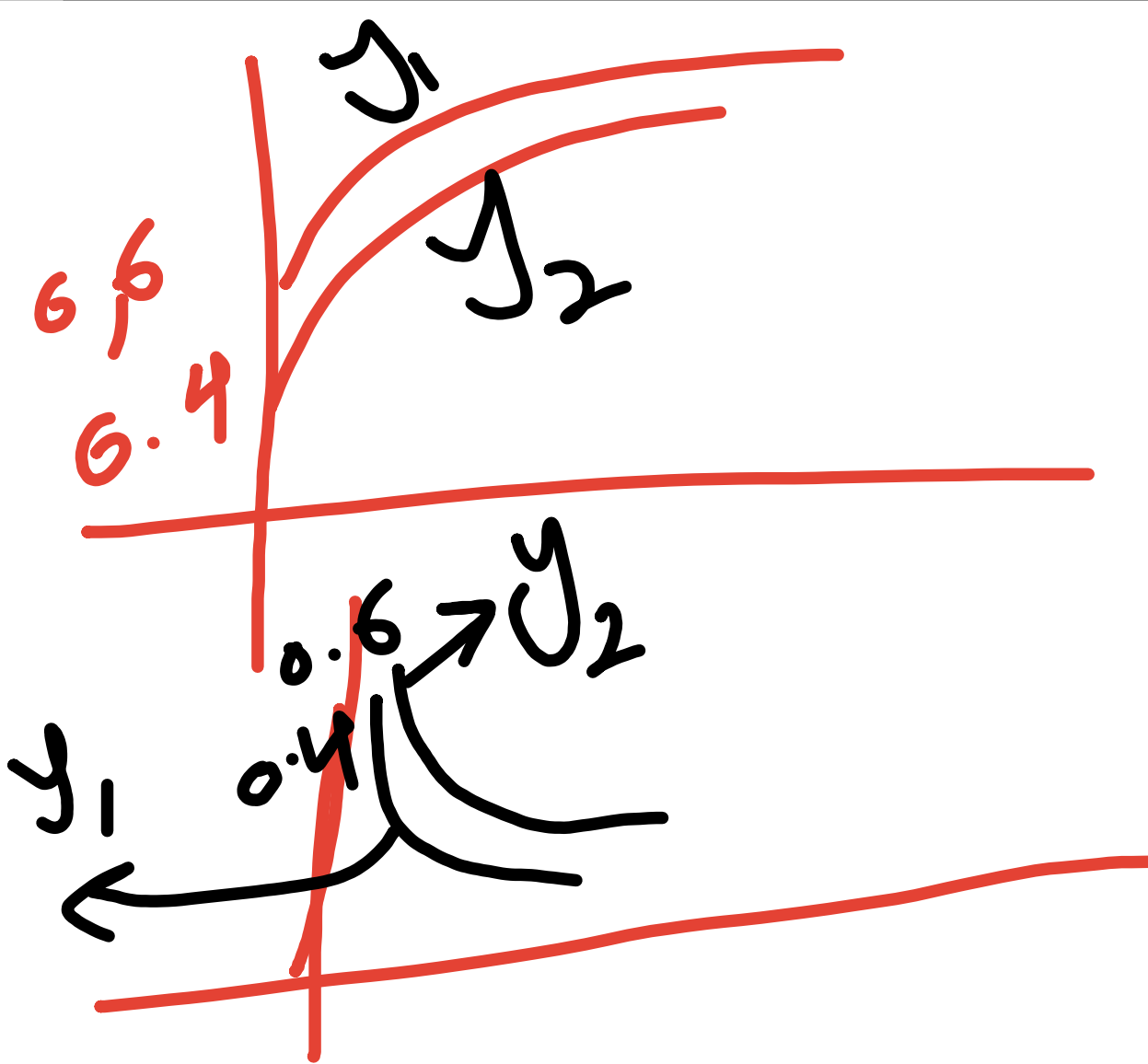
لما تقيس درجة حرارتك الميزان بده وقت ليعطي انه 37

Figure 3.9 Lumped parameter model of thermometer and its energy balance (Ex. 3.3).

question

Suppose a bulb thermometer originally indicating 20 C is suddenly exposed to a fluid temperature of 37 C. Develop a model that simulates the thermometer output response.

لنفترض أن ترمومتر لمبة يشير في الأصل إلى أن 20 درجة مئوية قد تعرضت فجأة لدرجة حرارة مائع تبلغ 37 درجة مئوية. طور نموذجاً يحاكي استجابة خرج مقياس الحرارة.



one first order

اسئلة على رسومات ال zero-order

✓ ideal instrument? ☒ yes ☒ no

✓ perfect ☒ no ☒ yes? Dynamic response
(رأى ال input بأخر دايكرت ال output)

✓ ✓ time lag / phase shift ☒ no ☒ yes
بين ال input وال output? ☒ no ☒ yes
هل يوجد وقت بين ال input وال output متاخر

✓ ☒ no ☒ yes
تمثال لتقريب الفكرة الدكتور كمال (المؤرخة بخارجة)
Time lag بعد فترة ه فيه

✓ ✓ distortion? ☒ no ☒ yes
(اصل تغير الشكل قبل ال بعد)

where

m = mass of liquid within thermometer

c_v = specific heat of liquid within thermometer

h = convection heat transfer coefficient between bulb and environment

A_s = thermometer surface area

The term hA_s controls the rate at which energy can be transferred between a fluid and a body; it is analogous to electrical conductance. By comparison with Equation 3.3, $a_0 = hA_s$, $a_1 = mc_v$, and $b_0 = hA_s$. Rewriting for $t \geq 0^+$ and simplifying yields

$$\frac{mc_v}{hA_s} \frac{dT(t)}{dt} + T(t) = T_\infty$$

From Equation 3.4, this implies that the time constant and static sensitivity are

$$\tau = \frac{mc_v}{hA_s} \quad K = \frac{hA_s}{hA_s} = 1$$

Direct comparison with Equation 3.5 yields this thermometer response:

$$T(t) = T_\infty + [T(0) - T_\infty]e^{-t/\tau} \\ = 37 - 17e^{-t/\tau} [^\circ\text{C}]$$

mention

من قانون ال تاو بعرف العوامل الي
بتعتمد عليها
ال هي ال (mass(m وال
heat وال (conductivity (cv
(treatment (h

$$\tau = \frac{mc_v}{hA_s}$$

$$K = \frac{hA_s}{hA_s} = 1$$

اما اسمها ال
Static sensitivity
steady state او
لأنها بتربط ال input بال output

السؤال عن الجهاز الاول في حالة step و first order

Also, it is significant that we found that the response of the temperature measurement system in this case depends on the environmental conditions of the measurement that control h , because the magnitude of h affects the magnitude of T

explain

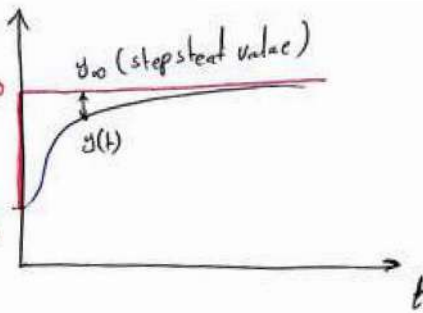
أيضاً، من المهم أننا وجدنا أن استجابة نظام قياس درجة الحرارة في هذه الحالة تعتمد على الظروف البيئية للقياس الذي يتحكم في h ، لأن حجم h يؤثر على حجم T او.

تكرار للي فوق بأنه النظام بيعتمد عوامل تاو ومنها h

لأنه بالمراسم
 zero order

37 KA=y_∞

20



هون انتقلت من 20 ل 37
 المعادلة تاع الرسمة هي حل المعادلة الي فوق

$$T(t) = T_{\infty} + [T(0) - T_{\infty}]e^{-t/\tau}$$

$$= 37 - 17e^{-t/\tau} [^{\circ}\text{C}]$$

$$f(t) = 20 + 17u(t)$$

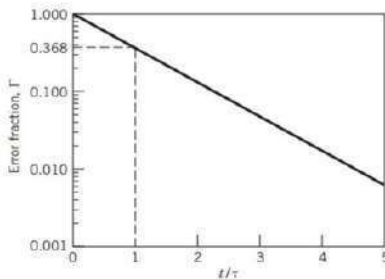


Figure 3.8 The error fraction played on semilog coordinates.
 الشكل 3.8 جزء الخطأ الذي تم تشغيله على الإحداثيات شبه اللوغاريتمية.

خلصنا من الحالة الأولى لل FirsOrder وهي لما يكون ال step input

may be modeled using a first-order differential equation of the form

$$a_1 \dot{y} + a_0 y = F(t)$$

with $\dot{y} = dy/dt$. Dividing through by a_0 gives

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = KF(t)$$

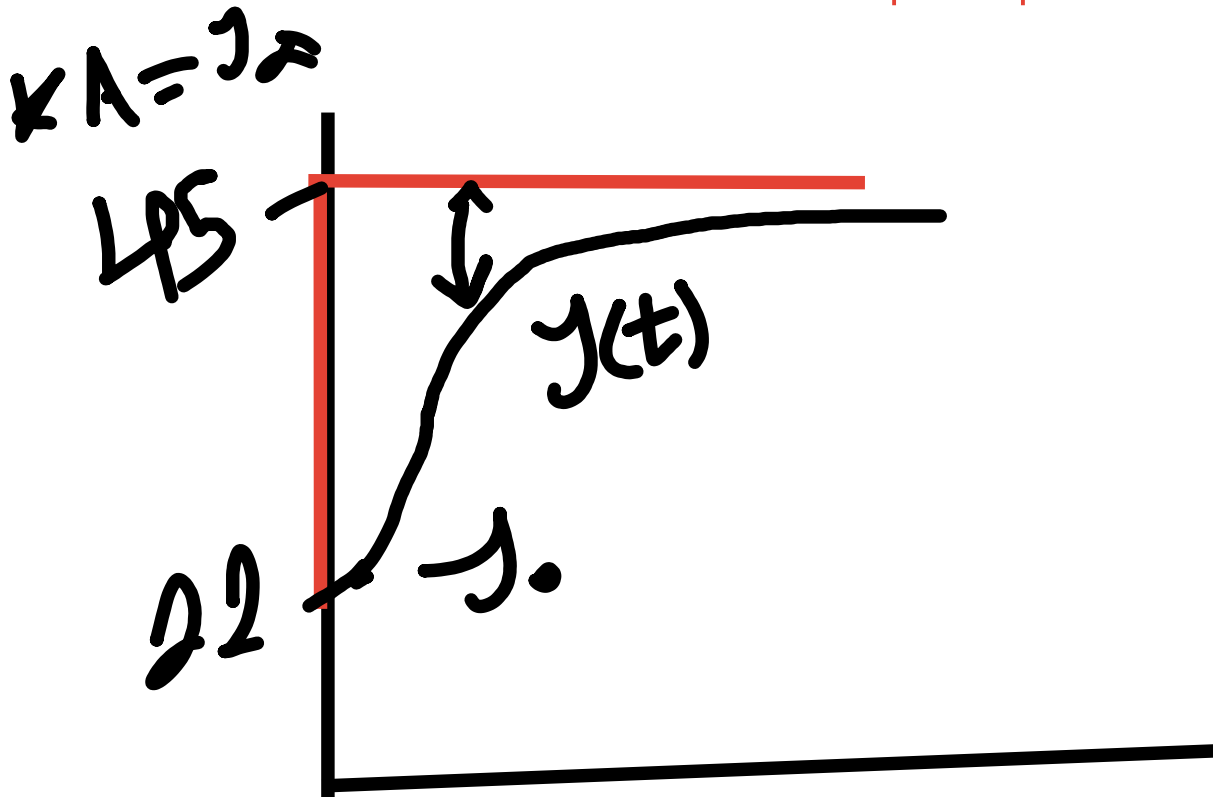
بمعنى كنا نعوض بدل ال step input $f(t)$

هسا بدنا ننتقل للحالة الثانية الي بدل ال $f(t)$ بعوض simple periodic function input

وبشوف لو كانت ال $f(t)$ شكلها sin او cos كيف يكون شكل ال $y(t)$

output

Suppose a bulb thermometer originally indicating 22 C is suddenly exposed to a fluid temperature of 45 C. Develop a model that simulates the thermometer output response



$$T(t) = 45 + (22 - 45)e^{-t/\tau}$$

$$T(t) = 45 - 23e^{-t/\tau}$$

Example 3.4

For the thermometer in Example 3.3 subjected to a step change in input, calculate the 90% rise time in terms of t/τ .

KNOWN Same as Example 3.3

ASSUMPTIONS Same as Example 3.3

FIND 90% response time in terms of t/τ

SOLUTION The percent response of the system is given by $(1 - \Gamma) \times 100$ with the error fraction, Γ , defined by Equation 3.6. From Equation 3.5, we note that at $t = \tau$, the thermometer will indicate $T(t) = 30.75^\circ\text{C}$, which represents only 63.2% of the step change from 20° to 37°C . The 90% rise time represents the time required for Γ to drop to a value of 0.10. Then

$$\Gamma = 0.10 = e^{-t/\tau}$$

or $t/\tau = 2.3$.

COMMENT In general, a time equivalent to 2.3τ is required to achieve 90% of the applied step input for a first-order system.



Example 3.5

A particular thermometer is subjected to a step change, such as in Example 3.3, in an experimental exercise to determine its time constant. The temperature data are recorded with time and presented in Figure 3.10. Determine the time constant for this thermometer. In the experiment, the heat transfer coefficient, h , is estimated to be $6 \text{ W/m}^2\cdot^\circ\text{C}$ from engineering handbook correlations.

KNOWN Data of Figure 3.10

$$h = 6 \text{ W/m}^2\cdot^\circ\text{C}$$

ASSUMPTIONS First-order behavior using the model of Example 3.3, constant properties

FIND τ

SOLUTION According to Equation 3.7, the time constant should be the negative reciprocal of the slope of a line drawn through the data of Figure 3.10. Aside from the first few data points, the data appear to follow a linear trend, indicating a nearly first-order behavior and validating our model assumption. The data is fit to the first-order equation²

$$2.3 \log \Gamma = (-0.194)t + 0.00064$$

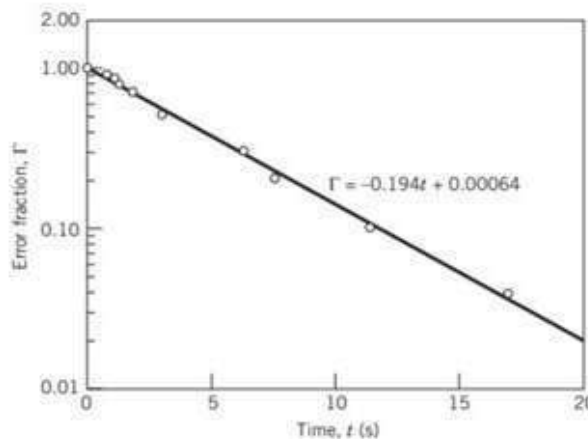


Figure 3.10 Temperature-time history of Example 3.5.

With $m = -0.194 = -1/\tau$, the time constant is calculated as $\tau = 5.15$ seconds.

COMMENT If the experimental data were to deviate significantly from first-order behavior, this would be a clue that either our assumptions do not fit the real-problem physics or that the test conduct has control or execution problems.

may be modeled using a first-order differential equation of the form

$$a_1 \dot{y} + a_0 y = F(t)$$

with $\dot{y} = dy/dt$. Dividing through by a_0 gives

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = KF(t) \quad \text{الأساسية}$$

بمعنى كنا نعوض بدل ال $f(t)$ ← step input

هسا بدنا ننتقل للحالة الثانية الي بدل ال $f(t)$ ← بعوض simple periodic function input

وبشوف لو كانت ال $f(t)$ شكلها sin او cos كيف يكون شكل ال $y(t)$

measuring system to which an input of the form of a simple periodic function, $F(t) = A \sin \omega t$, is applied for $t \geq 0^+$:

هون ال $f(t)$ هي مدخلات ال periodic

$$F(t) = A \sin \omega t$$

عوضها في معادلة ال first order

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = KA \sin \omega t$$

حل المعادلة التفاضلية الي فوق

input in sin (periodic)

$$f(t) = A \sin \omega t$$

Amplitude Frequency

angular frequency
circular frequency
(rad/s)

this differential equation yields the measurement system output signal, that is, the time response to the applied input, $y(t)$:

$$y(t) = Ce^{-t/\tau} + \frac{KA}{\sqrt{1 + (\omega\tau)^2}} \sin(\omega t - \tan^{-1} \omega\tau) \quad (3.8)$$

where the value for C depends on the initial conditions.

هسا فوق حكينا انه $A \sin(\omega t)$ هو ال input فمن وين اجا كل الباقي

حل المعادلة هي sin - periodic

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = KA \sin \omega t$$

$$y(t) = \frac{C}{e^{t/\tau}} + \frac{KA \sin(\omega t - \tan^{-1} \omega\tau)}{\sqrt{1 + (\omega\tau)^2}}$$

Transient response

بعد فترة من الزمان

مع تقريبه من الصفر

0.96

steady state response

$$\frac{K}{\sqrt{1 + \tau^2 \omega^2}}$$

احتمال صا
الفاكتور
(factor)

$$(-\tan^{-1} \omega\tau)$$

سبب ϕ فاي

كمية ضخمه
الرض الى مع يطلع

scaling of Amplitude (A)

عرفنا ال periodic واخذنا مدخلاته وعوضناه بال FirsOrder هسا اكيد رح يخطر لك طب كيف حتصير

رسمة ال output لل FirsOrder



important

نقطة الرسمة ولان زيج كنه ضربتها ف K
ولان 21 يكونه في طمو بيت ال input
وال output

هاي هي رسمة ال periodic

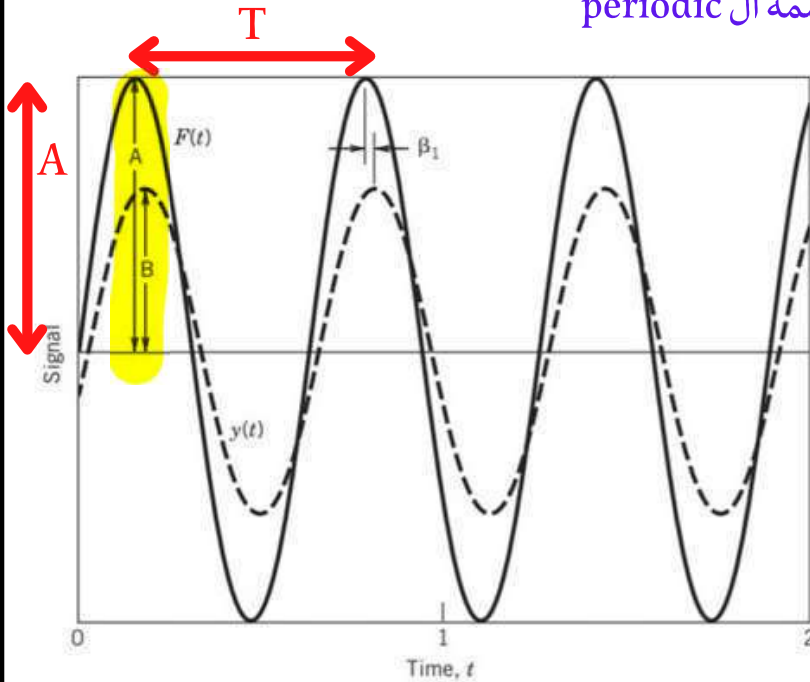


Figure 3.11 Relationship between a sinusoidal input and output: amplitude, frequency, and time delay.

هسا نتفق عأشي الخط المتصل هو ال inputs

$$F(t) = A \sin \omega t$$

والمنقط هو ال output

$$y(t) = Ce^{-t/\tau} + \frac{KA}{\sqrt{1 + (\omega\tau)^2}} \sin(\omega t - \tan^{-1} \omega\tau)$$

لو حبيت ابسطها بأنه اشيل ال factors

$$y(t) = B \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

output Amplitude $B_1 = \frac{\phi}{\omega}$

لو دخل الرسمة وشو عمل ال periodic بال FirsOrder؟

explain

important

$$T = \frac{1}{f} \text{ (sec)}$$

$$\omega = 2\pi f \text{ (rad/s)}$$

$$f = \frac{\omega}{2\pi} \text{ (Hz)}$$

(1) انطاعة نفس شكل ال input بيت عمل
scaling طارئة فال Response اظلم
ال input $A > B$

صار بيت ال output (B) زي gab
مضار الشكل مطو (B) تتماشى بوحدة الزمن

(2) لا خط انه المبدئية في ال input
منه نفس بداية الرسمة في ال output

applied is known as the frequency response of the system. The frequency affects the magnitude of amplitude B and also can bring about a time delay. This time delay, β_1 , is seen in the phase shift, $\Phi(\omega)$, of the steady response. For a phase shift given in radians, the time delay in units of time is

$$\beta_1 = \frac{\Phi}{\omega}$$

that is, we can write

$$\sin(\omega t + \Phi) = \sin\left[\omega\left(t + \frac{\Phi}{\omega}\right)\right] = \sin[\omega(t + \beta_1)]$$

* Periodic input

$$\tau \ddot{y} + \dot{y} = k \ddot{x}$$

$$x = A \sin(\omega t)$$

$$\tau \ddot{y} + \dot{y} = k A \sin(\omega t)$$

time response

$$y(t) = \underbrace{C e^{-t/\tau}}_{\text{Transient response}} + \underbrace{\left[\frac{kA}{(1 + \omega^2 \tau^2)^{1/2}} \right] \sin(\omega t - \tan^{-1} \omega \tau)}_{\text{Steady state response}}$$

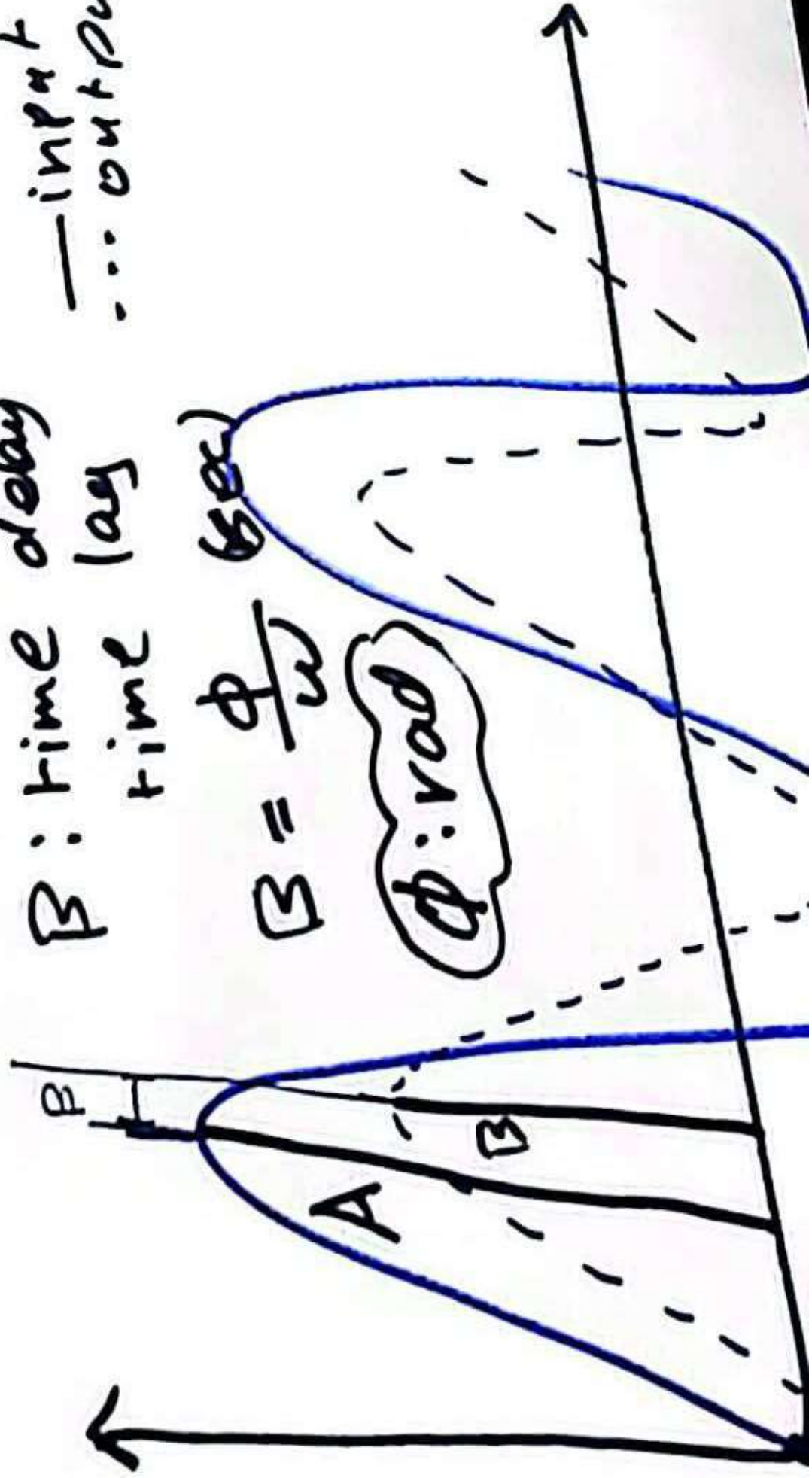
depends on the initial conditions

B : time delay
 time lag

— input
 ... output

$$B = \frac{\phi}{\omega} \text{ (sec)}$$

ϕ : rad



Equation 3.8 can be rewritten in a general form:

$$y(t) = Ce^{-t/\tau} + B(\omega)\sin[\omega t + \Phi]$$

$$B(\omega) = \frac{KA}{\sqrt{1 + (\omega\tau)^2}} \quad (3.9)$$

$$\Phi(\omega) = -\tan^{-1}(\omega\tau)$$

where $B(\omega)$ represents the amplitude of the steady response and the angle $\Phi(\omega)$ represents the *phase shift*. A relative illustration between the input signal and the system output response is given in

هنا جدول ال ٣ معادلات مهمين

$y(t) \rightarrow$ Time response

$\sqrt{1 + (\omega\tau)^2} \rightarrow$ جيل العلاقة بين
المدخل والمخرج

$B(\omega) \rightarrow$ Amplitude of output

$\Phi(\omega) \rightarrow$ phase shift

ω : input frequency (التردد المدخل)

τ : Time constant (الزمن الثابت)

بمعنى جهاز الذاكرة وسرعة

العلاقة بين A و B

$$\sqrt{1 + (\omega\tau)^2}$$

مقلوبة

$$\frac{(B)_{\text{output}}}{k(A)_{\text{input}}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + (\omega\tau)^2}}$$

magnitude

لاحظ انه كلما كان $(\omega\tau)^2$ أكبر يكون المخرج أقرب للمدخل

We define a magnitude ratio, $M(\omega)$, as the ratio of the output signal amplitude to the input signal amplitude, $M(\omega) = B/KA$. For a first-order system subjected to a simple periodic input, the magnitude ratio is

$$M(\omega) = \frac{B}{KA} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + (\omega\tau)^2}} \quad (3.10)$$

magnitude

التردد
المدخل
frequency
response

$$B_1 = \frac{\phi}{\omega}$$

$$M(\omega) = \frac{B}{KA} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + (\omega\tau)^2}}$$

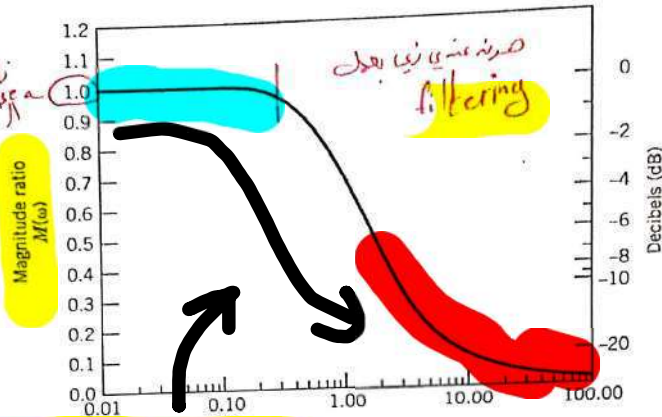


Figure 3.12 First-order system frequency response: magnitude ratio.

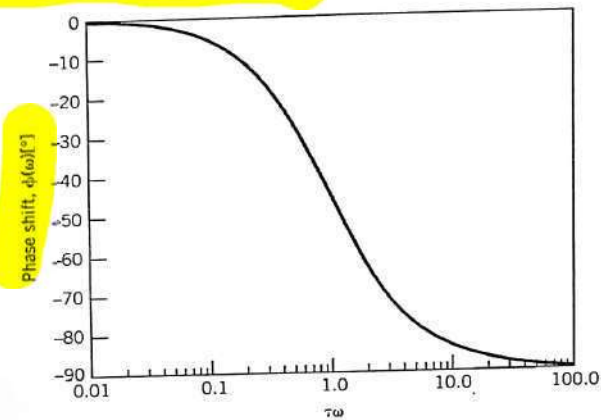


Figure 3.13 First-order system frequency response: phase shift.

④ وبكيفية (Frequency Response) شكلًا لوصف $M(\omega)$ وبهنا أصبح $M(\omega)$ $M = \frac{B}{KA}$

$B = MKA$

⑤ كيف أنه **filtering** يعني زي كنه جزى مضروب ب 1 وجزى مضروب ب 0

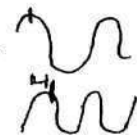
مثاله لو شرح لنومين في الناس ناس استيعابهم بزيادة 0 - اخر اعظم وناس استيعابهم سريع 1 - اوله الرسمة

شرح رسمة ال phase shift

كلما قلت ال ω يكون ال phase shift **طردية**

كلما زادت ال ω يكون ال phase shift **عكسية**

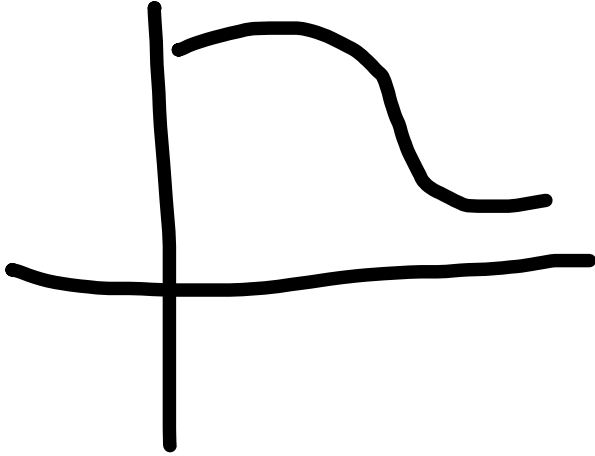
الامعة القعة تامة قبل القعة تامة
التي تحتها فينا ϕ



اذا بالكنزوله بنكره M اخر منا
 ϕ عاداتنا يكونه التخلنه بين ال
input و ال output **طردية**

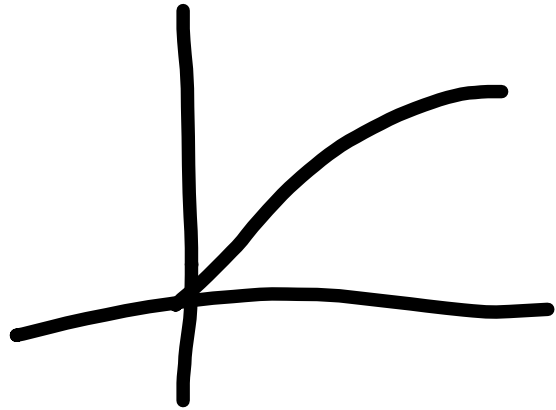
sin

ال response يقل مع مرور الوقت
ويكون الخطأ في البداية صفر وفي
النهاية يصير واحد



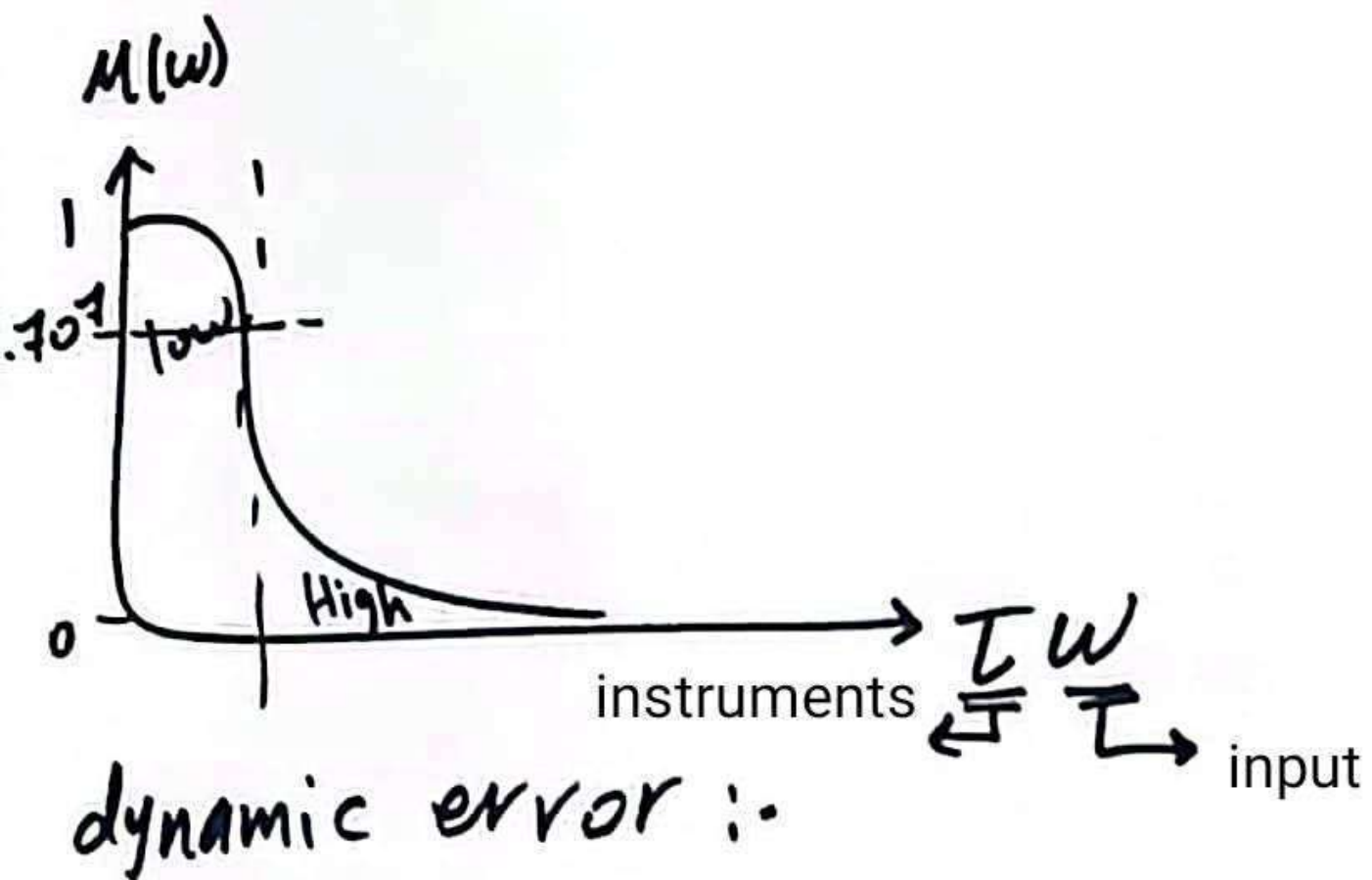
step

يكون في البداية ال response
صفر ويبلش بصير زي الزيرو ، يعني
يلبش يصير واحد ، في البداية ال
response صفر والخطأ 1



- $M(\omega) \rightarrow$ magnitude
- $\phi(\omega) \rightarrow$ phase shift

$$\textcircled{1} M(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2}} = \frac{B}{KA}$$



$$\delta(\omega) = M(\omega) - 1 \quad \text{just in periodic}$$

* Freq univ. d

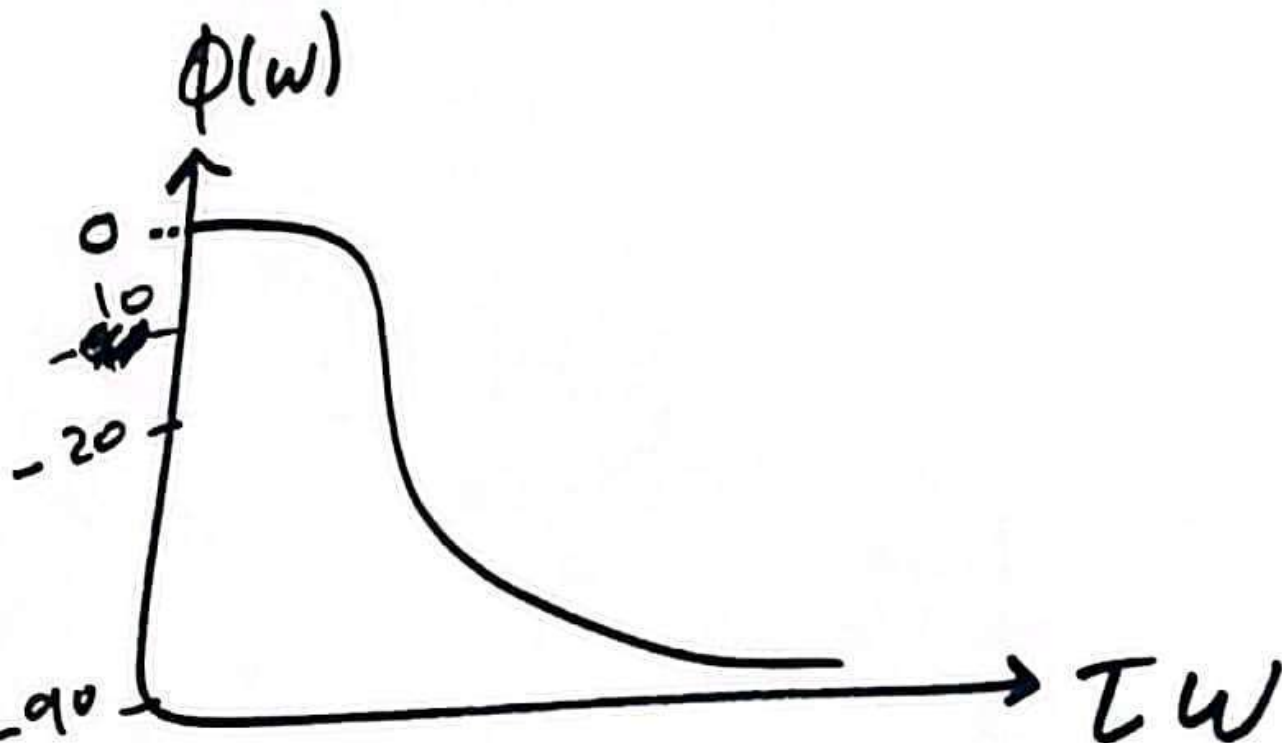
$$0.707 \leq M(\omega) \leq 1$$

$$-3 \leq dB \leq 0$$

$$dB = 20 \log M$$

② phase shift:

$$\phi(\omega) = -\tan^{-1}(\tau\omega)$$



((~~الاعمال~~ الامداد لا تهمنا)) قبل هاي بصفتين

the Dynamic error, $\delta(\omega)$, of the system is defined as ~~the error~~

$$\delta(\omega) = M(\omega) - 1$$

For a first-order system, we define a frequency bandwidth as the frequency band over which $M(\omega) \geq 0.707$; in terms of the decibel (plotted in Figure 3.12) defined as

$$dB = 20 \log M(\omega) \quad (3.11)$$

this is the band of frequencies within which $M(\omega)$ remains above -3 dB.

ex of 1st order

RC filter ~ ~~كهربا~~
 liquide thermometer, thermal ~ ~~اجزاء الحرارة~~
 First order system

Second-order system

important

$$a_2 \ddot{y} + a_1 \dot{y} + a_0 y = b_0 x$$

هذا لا نرى y كمالها (نقسم الامداد لـ a_0)

$$\frac{a_2}{a_0} \ddot{y} + \frac{a_1}{a_0} \dot{y} + \frac{a_0}{a_0} y = \left(\frac{b_0}{a_0} \right) x$$

k input (1)

لو كانه امداد حين مو موجودات الامداد بغير

static calibration curve

pencil style pressure gage

first و second
 2nd and 1st

frequency ~ ~~بنا~~
 first

طال و زايير شوي

لا حظ انه في ال first order ال Break صحت ثابتة

طال B دايك اقل من A طال M صوبل بيد ب 100%

A و B هذا هي العلاقة تاع M

Zero order

X ~~الاستاتيكية~~

$$y = (K) x$$

input (K)
 static sensitivity

first order

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = (K) x$$

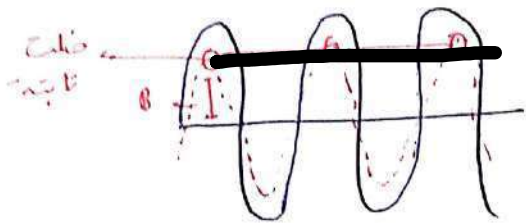
static sensitivity
 Time constant

second order

$$\frac{1}{\omega_n^2} \ddot{y} + 2 \frac{\xi}{\omega_n} \dot{y} + y = (K) x$$

damping ratio
 Natural frequency (rad/s)
 static sensitivity

هام خواص
 1st order



أول مرتبة $\leftarrow$ first order

ثاني مرتبة $\leftarrow$ second order

نوع النظام $\leftarrow$ first order

The functions $M(\omega)$ and $\Phi(\omega)$ represent the frequency response of the measurement system to periodic inputs. These equations and universal curves provide guidance in selecting measurement systems and system components.

response behavior. We can predict the dynamic behavior if the time constant and static sensitivity of the system and the range of input frequencies are all known.

$$f = \frac{\omega}{2\pi}$$

e.g.

$$\omega = 7.17 \text{ rad/s}$$

$$\omega = 7.17 \text{ s}^{-1}$$

$$\omega = 120 \pi \text{ rad/s}$$

$$f = ?$$

$$f = \frac{\omega}{2\pi} = \frac{120 \pi}{2\pi} = 60 \text{ Hz}$$

Example 3.6

A temperature sensor is to be selected to measure temperature within a reaction vessel. It is suspected that the temperature will behave as a simple periodic waveform with a frequency somewhere between 1 and 5 Hz. Sensors of several sizes are available, each with a known time constant. Based on time constant, select a suitable sensor, assuming that a dynamic error of $\pm 2\%$ is acceptable.

KNOWN

$$1 \leq f \leq 5 \text{ Hz}$$

$$|\delta(\omega)| \leq 0.02$$

ASSUMPTIONS First-order system

$$F(t) = A \sin \omega t$$

FIND Time constant, τ

first order

SOLUTION With $|\delta(\omega)| < 0.02$, we would set the magnitude ratio between $0.98 \leq M \leq 1.02$. From Figure 3.12, we see that first-order systems never exceed $M = 1$. So the constraint becomes $0.98 \leq M \leq 1$. Then,

$$0.98 \leq M(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + (\omega\tau)^2}} \leq 1$$

From Figure 3.12, this constraint is maintained over the range $0 \leq \omega\tau \leq 0.2$. We can also see in this figure that for a system of fixed time constant, the smallest value of $M(\omega)$ will occur at the largest frequency. So with $\omega = 2\pi f = 2\pi(5) \text{ rad/s}$ and solving for $M(\omega) = 0.98$ yields, $\tau \leq 6.4 \text{ ms}$. Accordingly, a sensor having a time constant of 6.4 ms or less will work.

قسمه على ω

Problems

First order :- step input

$$* \tau \dot{y} + y = K \underline{\underline{F(t)}}$$

input

$$1 = \tau \dot{y} + y$$

fraction error

$$* \frac{y(t) - y_{\infty}}{y_0 - y_{\infty}} = e^{-t/\tau}$$

$$* T = T_0 + (T_{\infty} - T_0) e^{-t/\tau}$$

for periodic:

$$* \tau \dot{y} + y = K A \sin \omega t \text{ "rad"}$$

$$* \phi(\omega) = -\tan^{-1}(\omega\tau) \text{ phase shift}$$

$$* M(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2}} * \text{Mag}$$

dynamic error: } Time lag:

$$* \delta(\omega) = M(\omega) - 1$$
$$B = \frac{\phi}{\omega}$$
$$M(\omega) = \frac{B}{KA}$$

3.2 75% 90% 95%

T_r T_s

السؤال عن t

90% input $\rightarrow$ (10%) error

$$f = e^{-t/\tau}$$

⑥ $0.4 \dot{T} + T = 4u(t)$

$$\tau \dot{y} + y = K u(t)$$

$\tau = \underline{0.4}$ // $K = 4$

(90%) $\frac{10}{100} = e^{-t/0.4} \rightarrow t = 0.9215$

(75%) $\frac{25}{100} = e^{-t/0.4} \rightarrow t = 0.5545$

(195%) $\frac{\cancel{5}}{100} = e^{-t/0.4} \rightarrow t = 1.198$

3.3

100% liq $\rightarrow$ 80 unit

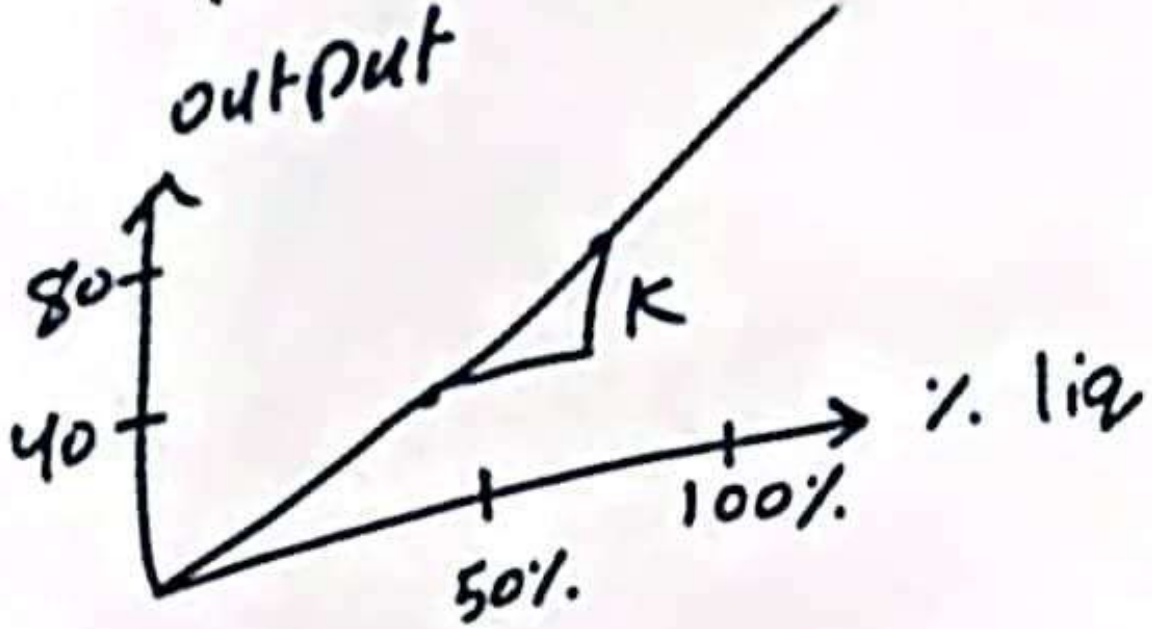
0% liq $\rightarrow$ 0 unit

50% liq / 50% vapor $\rightarrow$ 40 unit

يطلب السؤال k

$k = ??$

output



$$k = \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{80-40}{100-50}$$

$$= 0.8 \text{ unit} / \% \text{ liq}$$

$\leadsto k \uparrow$, better

$$\textcircled{a} \quad 5\ddot{y} + 5\dot{y} = u(t) \div 5$$

$$\tau\dot{y} + y = Ku(t)$$

$$T_{95\%}$$

$$T_{90\%}$$

$$T_{75\%}$$

$$\rightarrow \dot{y} + y = \frac{1}{5} u(t)$$

$$\tau = 1 \quad // \quad K = \frac{1}{5}$$

$$T_{75\%} \xrightarrow{\quad} 25\%$$

$$\frac{25}{100} = e^{-t/1} \rightarrow t = 1.3863 \text{ s}$$

$$T_{90\%} \xrightarrow{\quad} 10\%$$

$$\frac{10}{100} = e^{-t/1} \rightarrow t = 2.3026 \text{ s}$$

$$T_{95\%} \xrightarrow{\quad} 5\%$$

$$\frac{5}{100} = e^{-t/1} \rightarrow t = 2.9957 \text{ s}$$

3.4

$$0.5 \dot{y} + y = F(t)$$

$$\tau = 0.5$$

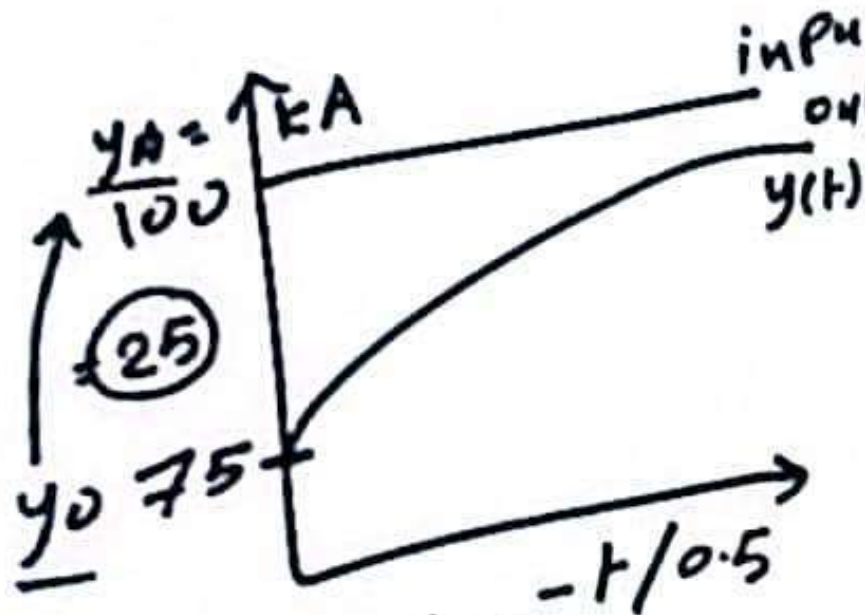
$$k = 1$$

75 output

100 input

$$y(t) = kA + (y_0 - kA)e^{-t/\tau}$$

relationship of output and input
يطلب السؤال



$$y(t) = 100 + (75 - 100)e^{-t/0.5}$$

$$F(t) = 75 + 25u(t)$$

3.9) $\delta(\omega) = ?$

$f = 2 \text{ Hz}$

$\tau = 0.7 \text{ s}$

periodic
first order

السؤال طالب dynamic error

$$\delta(\omega) = \underline{\underline{M(\omega) - 1}}$$

$$M(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \tau^2 \omega^2}}$$

من قانون f

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + 0.7^2 + 4\pi^2}}$$

$$M(\omega) = 0.11295$$

$$\delta(\omega) = 1 - 0.11295$$

$$= 0.88705$$

$$\boxed{\delta = 89\%}$$

$$\omega = 2\pi f$$

$$\omega = 4\pi \underline{\underline{\text{rad/s}}}$$

3.11) first order
 $\tau = 2s$
 $\delta = \pm 2\%$

$$\delta = M(\omega) - 1$$

$$\pm \frac{0.2}{100} = M(\omega) - 1$$

$$M(\omega) = 1 \pm 0.02$$

$$0.98 \leq M(\omega) \leq 1.02$$

$$M(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + 2^2 \omega_{max}^2}}$$

$$0.98 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + 2^2 \omega_{max}^2}}$$

$$\omega_{max} = 0.101529 \text{ rad/s}$$

$$\omega = 2\pi f \rightarrow f = 0.01616 \text{ Hz}$$

$B = ??$

$\omega_{max} \rightarrow M_{min}$
 $\omega_{min} \rightarrow M_{max}$

$F_{max} = ??$

السؤال طالب ماكسم f

$$M(\omega) = 1$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + 2^2 \omega_{min}^2}} = 1$$

$$\omega_{min} = 0$$

$$f_{min} = 0$$

$$B = \frac{\phi(\omega)}{\omega}$$

$$= \frac{-0.2}{0.101529}$$

$$= -1.97s$$

time lag

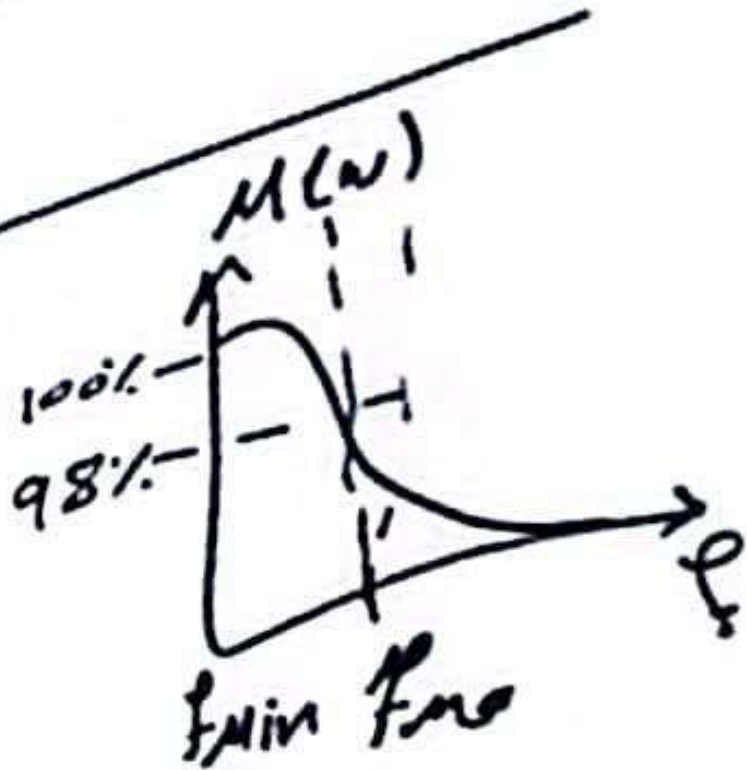
$$\phi(\omega) = -\tan^{-1}(2 \times 0.101529 \times \omega)$$

$$\phi = -0.2 \text{ rad}$$

الفرع ب طالب
time lag

$$f_{max} = 0.01616$$

$$f_{min} = 0$$



$$\phi(\omega) = -\tan^{-1}(2 \omega J)$$

$$\boxed{3.13} \quad \tau = 0.15$$

$$T(t) = 115 + 12 \sin 2t \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}$$

$$K = 5 \text{ mV}/^\circ\text{C}$$

$$T(0) = 115^\circ\text{C}$$

$$\delta = ?$$

$$B = ?$$

$$\boxed{\omega = 2}$$

$$\delta = 1 - M(\omega)$$

$$= 1 - 0.957826$$

$$= 0.042174$$

$$\delta = 4.2174\%$$

$$M(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \tau^2 \omega^2}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + 0.15^2 \times 2^2}}$$

$$= 0.957826$$

$$B = \frac{\phi}{\omega}$$

$$= \frac{-0.2915}{2}$$

$$= -0.14575$$

$$= 0.14575 \text{ lag}$$

$$\phi = -\tan^{-1}(\tau\omega)$$

$$= -0.2915$$

dynamic error and طالب
phase lag

3.15

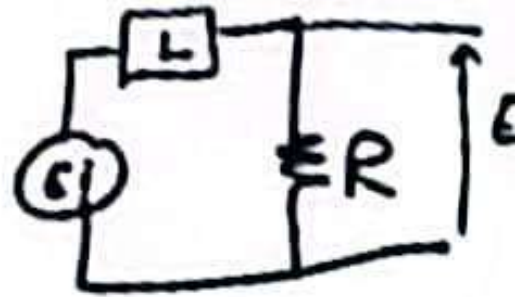
$$R = 1 \times 10^6 \Omega$$

$$f = 1000 \text{ Hz}$$

$$M(\omega) = 50 \%$$

$$\tau = L/R$$

$$L = ??$$



$$M(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \tau^2 \omega^2}}$$

$$\omega = 2\pi f$$
$$= 2000\pi \text{ rad/s}$$

$$\frac{50}{100} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \tau^2 (2000\pi)^2}}$$

$$\tau = 0.00276$$

$$\tau = \frac{L}{R} \rightarrow 0.00276 = \frac{L}{1 \times 10^6}$$

$$L = 276 \text{ Hz}$$

$$L \frac{dI}{dt} + RI = E(t)$$

$$\textcircled{+} L \dot{I} + \underline{R} I = E(t) \leftarrow \tau \dot{y} + y = k u(t)$$

$$\boxed{\frac{L}{R}} \dot{I} + I = \frac{1}{R} E(t)$$

$$\tau = \frac{L}{R} \leftarrow$$

second order

second order

second order

e.g of 2nd order devices

second order

1-

2-

system. Examples of second-order instruments include accelerometers and pressure transducers (including microphones and loudspeakers).

In general, a second-order measurement system subjected to an arbitrary input, $F(t)$, can be described by an equation of the form

$$a_2 \ddot{y} + a_1 \dot{y} + a_0 y = F(t) \quad (3.12)$$

where a_0 , a_1 , and a_2 are physical parameters used to describe the system and $\ddot{y} = d^2 y / dt^2$. This equation can be rewritten as

$$\frac{1}{\omega_n^2} \ddot{y} + \frac{2\zeta}{\omega_n} \dot{y} + y = KF(t) \quad (3.13)$$

where

$$\omega_n = \sqrt{\frac{a_0}{a_2}} = (\text{natural frequency of the system})$$

$$\zeta = \frac{a_1}{2\sqrt{a_0 a_2}} = (\text{damping ratio of the system})$$

قبل ب صفحتين

كما اجوبه صم يملوا معادله وحيدو ان دخل المعادله بمعتمد يكر على قيمة ζ (zeta) و $\zeta < 1$ تاوه حاله.

$0 \leq \zeta < 1$ (underdamped system solution)

$$y_h(t) = C e^{-\zeta \omega_n t} \sin(\omega_n \sqrt{1 - \zeta^2} t + \Theta) \quad (3.14a)$$

$\zeta = 1$ (critically damped system solution)

$$y_h(t) = C_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} + C_2 t e^{\lambda_1 t} \quad (3.14b)$$

$\zeta > 1$ (overdamped system solution)

$$y_h(t) = C_1 e^{\lambda_1 t} + C_2 e^{\lambda_2 t} \quad (3.14c)$$

The homogeneous solution determines the transient response of a system (The damping ratio, ζ , is a measure of system damping, a property of a system that enables it to dissipate energy internally).

نحل زي بال first order منو جه طيب للمعادله (2 input) $\zeta < 1$ تاوه حاله.

$\delta(t) \rightarrow$ step input

$\ell(t) \rightarrow$ simple periodic function input

⊗ second-order systems
 → Example: [Microphones and loud speakers]
 include → accelerometers and
 pressure transducers.

$$* \underline{a_2} \ddot{y} + \underline{a_1} \dot{y} + \underline{a_0} \textcircled{y} = \underline{b_0} X$$

$$\frac{1}{\omega_n^2} \ddot{y} + \frac{2\zeta}{\omega_n} \dot{y} + 1 y = K f(x)$$

↳ Natural frequency [rad/s]

$$\omega_n = \sqrt{\frac{a_0}{a_2}}$$

$\zeta \rightarrow$ damping ratio

$$\zeta = \frac{a_1}{2\sqrt{a_0 a_2}}$$

critical damping
coeff

$$c_c = 2\sqrt{a_0 a_2}$$

$$\zeta = \frac{a_1}{c_c}$$

((Step input function))

Step Function Input

Again, the step function input is applied to determine the general behavior and speed at which the system will respond to a change in input. The response of a second-order measurement system to a step function input is found from the solution of Equation 3.13, with $F(t) = AU(t)$, to be

$$y(t) = KA - KAe^{-\zeta\omega_n t} \left[\frac{\zeta}{\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}} \sin(\omega_n t \sqrt{1-\zeta^2}) + \cos(\omega_n t \sqrt{1-\zeta^2}) \right] \quad 0 \leq \zeta < 1 \quad (3.15a) \text{ under damped}$$

$$y(t) = KA - KA(1 + \omega_n t)e^{-\omega_n t} \quad \zeta = 1 \quad (3.15b)$$

$$y(t) = KA - KA \left[\frac{\zeta + \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}}{2\sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}} e^{(-\zeta + \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1})\omega_n t} + \frac{\zeta - \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}}{2\sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}} e^{(-\zeta - \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1})\omega_n t} \right] \quad \zeta > 1 \quad (3.15c)$$

where we set the initial conditions, $y(0) = \dot{y}(0) = 0$ for convenience.

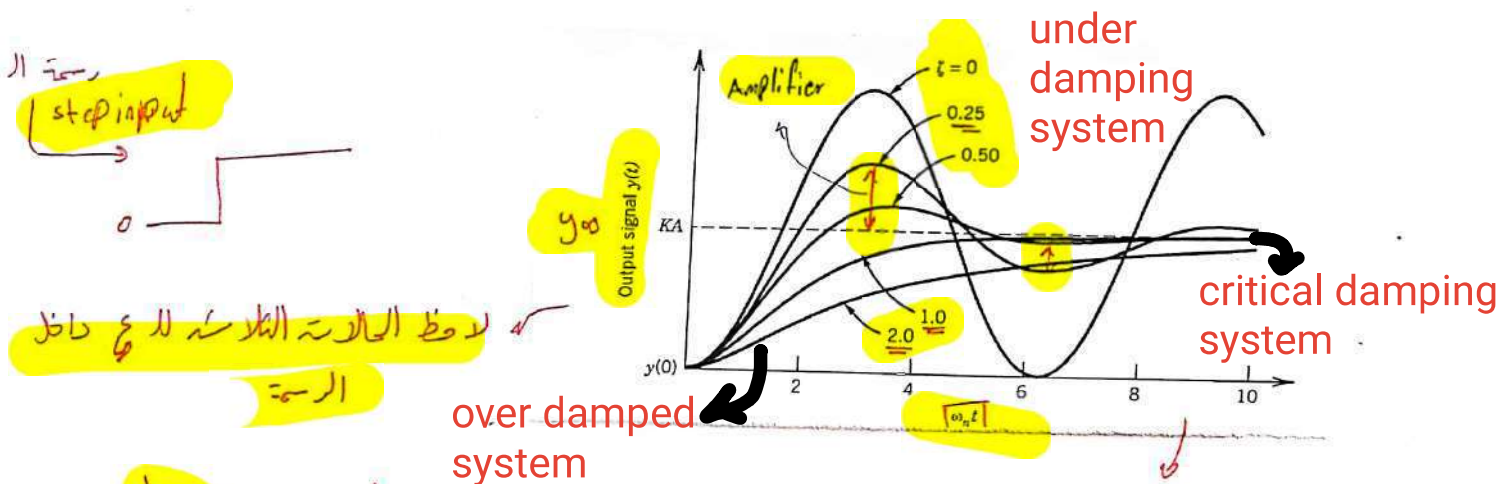
Equations 3.15a-c are plotted in Figure 3.14 for several values of ζ . The interesting feature is the transient response. For under-damped systems, the transient response is oscillatory about the steady value and occurs with a period

$$T_d = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_d} = \frac{1}{f_d} \quad (3.16)$$

ringing frequency

$$\omega_d = \omega_n \sqrt{1 - \zeta^2} \quad (3.17)$$

where ω_d is called the **ringing frequency**. In instruments, this oscillatory behavior is called "ringing." (The ringing phenomenon and the associated ringing frequency are properties of the measurement system and are independent of the input signal. It is the free oscillation frequency of a system displaced from its equilibrium.)



ما هي هي رسة ال Response لل second order في حالة كان ال input هو step function
مارسة توضع حالات ال في الكلاسة .

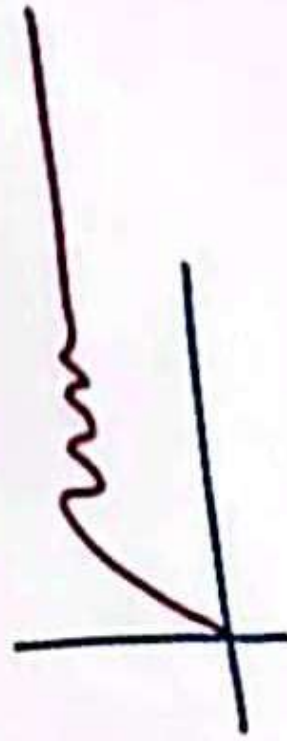
اد خط كلما زدنا ال (zeta) حو غير !!

(1) كلما زدنا ال damping في ال system ينلا خط كمة output انلا

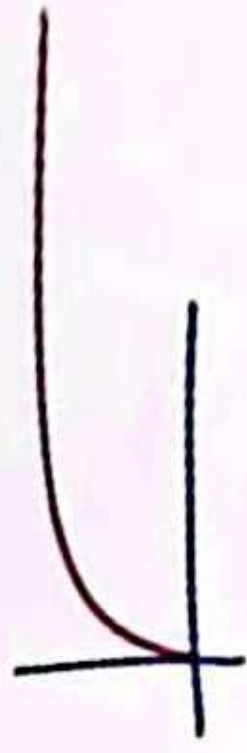
(2) ال Amplifier مع الزمن ينقل لذلك تظهر الهة المبر من القاي وهكذا .

Amplifier ال دقة ال (zeta) z=0
بقل صر نه ثانية .
damping
second order system

possible values for ζ :-
① $0 \leq \zeta \leq 1$ [under damped system]

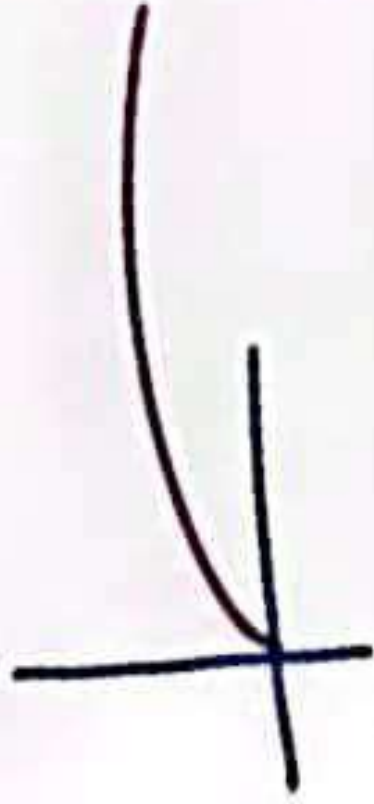


② $\zeta = 1$ [critically damped system]



③ $\zeta > 1$ [over damped system]

③ $\zeta > 1$ over damped system



④ $\zeta = 0$ undamped system



① $0 \leq \zeta \leq 1$

$$y(t) = kA - kA e^{-\zeta \omega_n t} \left[\frac{\zeta}{\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}} \sin(\omega_n t \sqrt{1-\zeta^2}) + \cos(\omega_n t \sqrt{1-\zeta^2}) \right]$$

الحول + قوس

② $\zeta = 1$

$$y(t) = kA - kA (1 - \omega_n t) e^{-\omega_n t}$$

قوس + قوس

③ $\zeta > 1$

الحول + قوس

$$y(t) = kA - kA \left[\frac{\zeta + \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}}{2\sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}} e^{(-\zeta + \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1})\omega_n t} + \frac{\zeta - \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}}{2\sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1}} e^{(-\zeta - \sqrt{\zeta^2 - 1})\omega_n t} \right]$$

② $\zeta \rightarrow$ is a measure of system damping.

③ Property of system that enable it to dissipate energy internally.

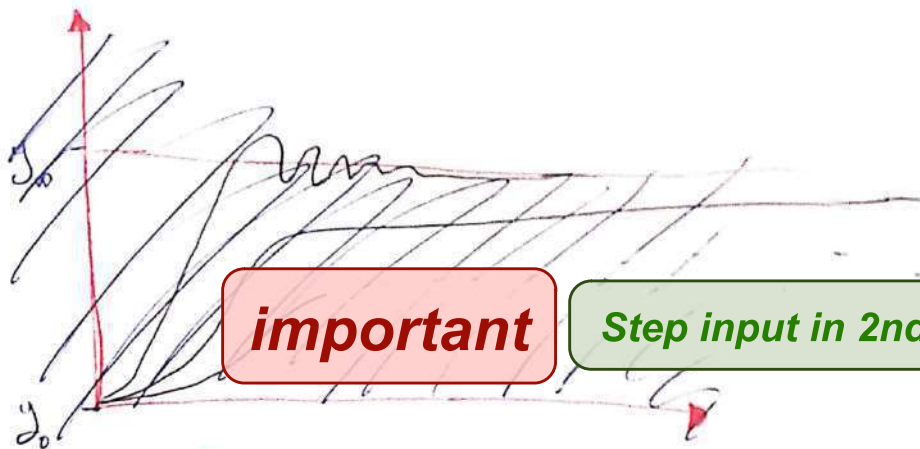
Function input:

→ step determine speed

general behavior
to change input
when respond
 $\Rightarrow F(t) = A u(t)$

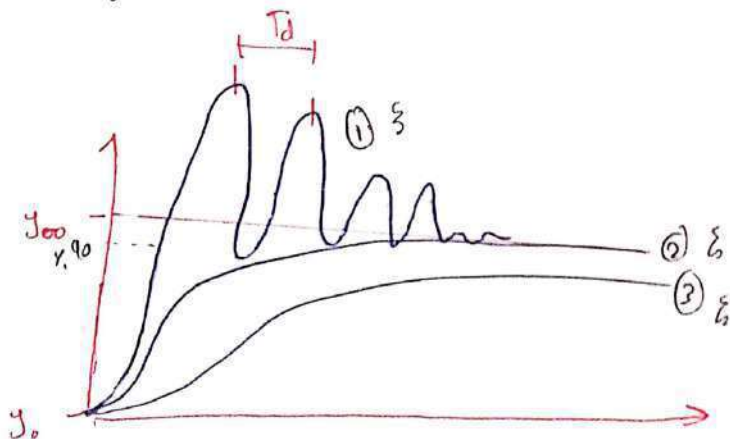
→ For under damped system

① transient response is oscillatory
about steady value ② and occurs with
a period



important

Step input in 2nd order



(1) under damp

(2) critically damp

(3) over damp

(1) → under damp

(2) → critically damp

(3) → over damp

Response الـ من بين الـ ؟ رتب من اقل الى اكثر 40% ζ

under damp > critically damp > over damp

مشكلة الـ under damping

Under damp الـ من بين الـ oscillations

critically damp الـ من بين الـ oscillations (الـ من بين الـ Response)

مشكلة الـ critical damping

الـ من بين الـ $\zeta < 1$ الـ من بين الـ $\zeta = 1$ الـ من بين الـ $\zeta > 1$

الـ من بين الـ oscillations

ω_d, T_d : ringing frequency

$$\omega_d = \omega_n \sqrt{1 - \zeta^2}$$

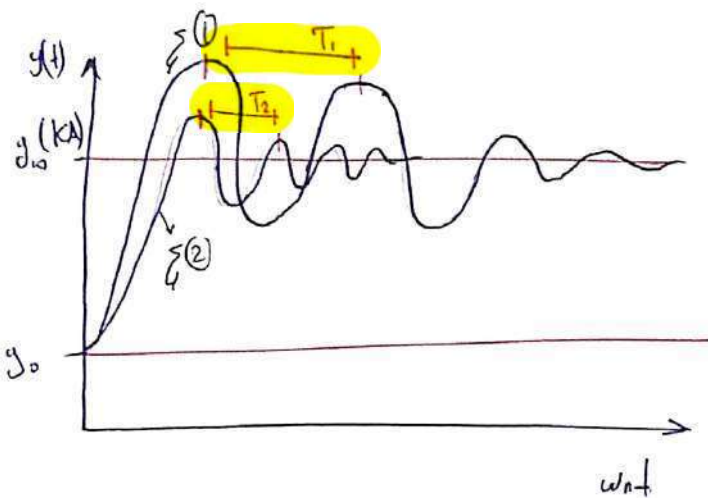
the rise time is the time required to first achieve 90% of $(K_A - y_0)$.

rise time or settling

ω_d الـ من بين الـ ζ زاد

$$T_d = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_d} = \frac{1}{f_d}$$

Figure 3.14. With this in mind, the time required for a measurement system's oscillations to settle to within $\pm 10\%$ of the steady value, K_A , is defined as its settling time.



كما ان

$$Zet_{\infty} = 0$$

varying frequency = natural frequency

$$f = \omega_n$$

(1) صيا المبر $\xi(1)$ و $\xi(2)$ - $\xi(2)$ - $\xi(1)$ لا يـ oscillation اى

(2) بين اى f_1 و f_2

$$T = \frac{1}{f}$$

$$T_1 \text{ اى } f_1 \text{ و } T_2 \text{ اى } f_2$$

$f_2 > f_1$ because $t_1 > t_2$

$$T_1 \text{ اى } f_1 \text{ و } T_2 \text{ اى } f_2$$

$$T_1 \text{ اى } f_1 \text{ و } T_2 \text{ اى } f_2$$

ملاحظات

rise and settling times. Example 3.8 describes such a test. (Typically, measurement systems suitable for dynamic signal measurements have specifications that include 90% rise time and settling time. Adjust Second Order Parameters.vi explores system values and response)

Example 3.7

Determine the physical parameters that affect the natural frequency and damping ratio of the accelerometer of Example 3.1.

KNOWN Accelerometer shown in Figure 3.3

ASSUMPTIONS Second-order system as modeled in Example 3.1

FIND ω_n, ζ

من خلال القوانين فوق

$\rightarrow$ period of ringing
 $\otimes T_d = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_d}$
 Ringing freq

$\otimes \omega_d = \omega_n \sqrt{1 - \zeta^2}$
 natural frequency damping ratio

$\zeta = \frac{1}{T_d}$

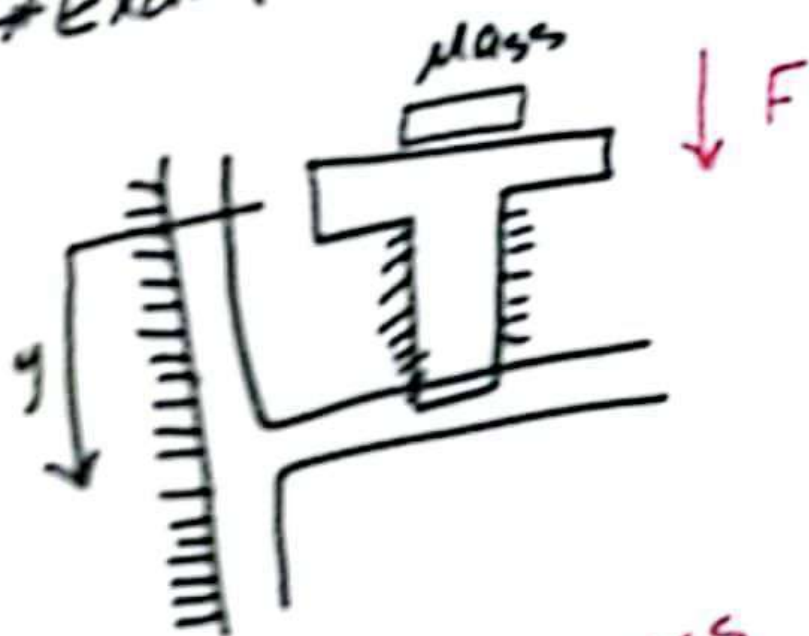
$\rightarrow$ Ringing frequency : ringing phenomenon and associated ringing frequency are properties of the measurement system and are independent of input signal

$\rightarrow$ It's free oscillation freq for system display from its equilibrium.

$\rightarrow$ Transient is controlled by ζ, ω_n

$\rightarrow$ Time constant in 2nd define $\rightarrow \tau = \frac{1}{\zeta \omega_n}$

Example: Force



input $\rightarrow$ mass

output $\rightarrow$ displacement

$$m \ddot{y} + c \dot{y} + k_s y = F(t)$$

$$\frac{m}{k_s} \ddot{y} + \frac{c}{k_s} \dot{y} + \underbrace{y}_{\text{circled}} = \frac{F(t)}{k_s}$$

$$\rightarrow k = \frac{1}{k_s}$$

$$\omega_n = \sqrt{\frac{a_0}{a_2}} = \sqrt{\frac{k_s}{m}}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{a_1}{\frac{2\sqrt{a_0 a_2}}{cc}}$$

$$cc = 2\sqrt{1 + \frac{\beta}{k_0}}$$

$$= 2\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{k_0}}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{\frac{c}{k_0}}{2\sqrt{\frac{\beta}{k_0}}}$$

* 2nd order time response to step input:-
 $y(t)$ output signal



$$F(t) = A \cdot u(t)$$

→ rise time : time to reach 90% of input

→ settling time : time required for measurement

system's oscillation to settling with $\pm 1\%$

of steady value [K_A]

→ Typical $\zeta = 0.6 - 0.8$

* increase ζ

- reduce oscillation
- system response becomes slower

* increases ω_n

- system response becomes better (Fast)

* decreasing ζ

- Rise time is reduced

⑫ Time response

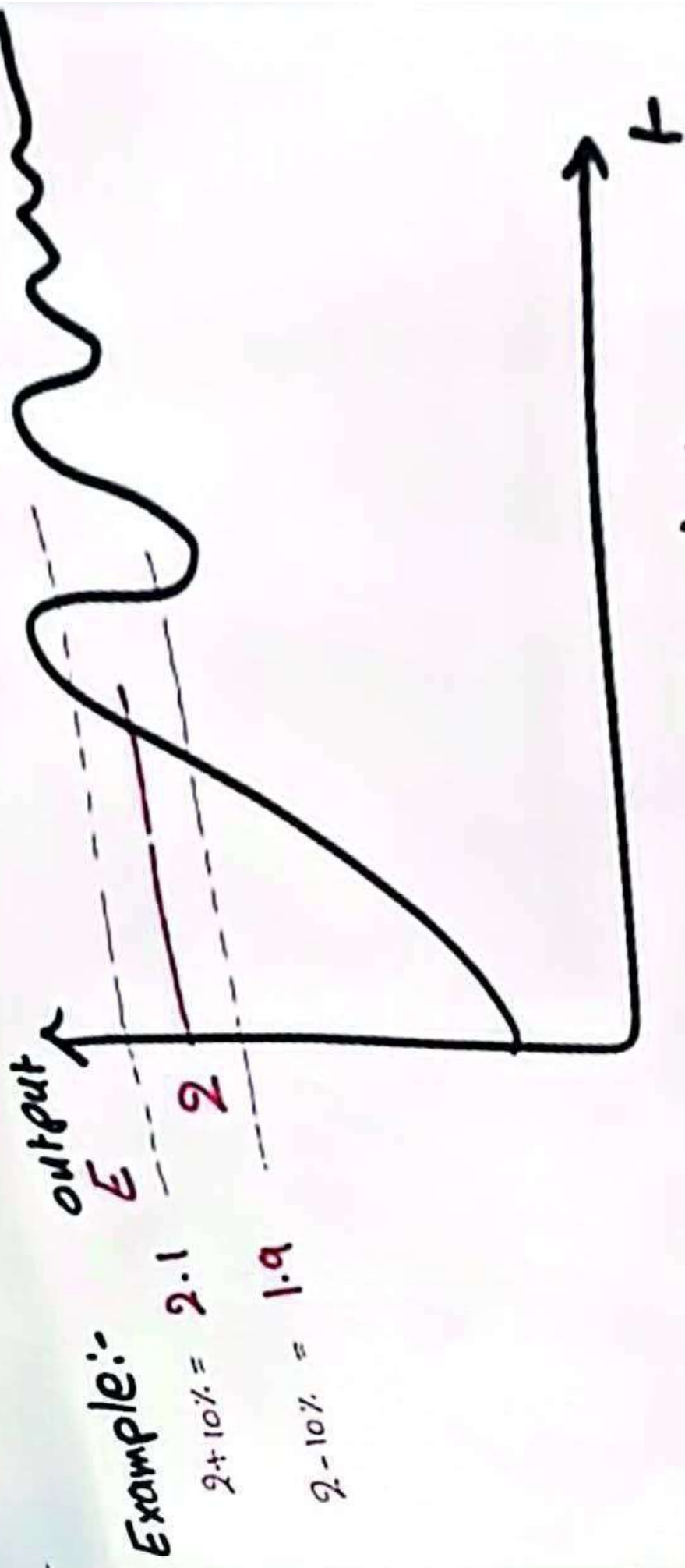
= transient response + steady state

$$y(t) = \text{transient response} + \text{steady state}$$

$$y_1 = (y_{max})_1 - y_0$$

$\therefore$

$$\phi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + (2\pi / \ln(y_1/y_2))^2}} \quad y_2 = (y_{max})_2 - y_0$$



$$P_0 = 1 \text{ atm} \rightarrow E_0 = K_P(0) = 1 \text{ V}$$

$$P_\infty = 2 \text{ atm} \rightarrow E_\infty = K_P(\infty) = \underline{\underline{2 \text{ V}}}$$

$$K = 1 \text{ V/atm}$$

المطاليب هي rise time and settling

$$\boxed{\text{steady} = \cancel{E_0} E_\infty} \quad K_A$$

t

$$P_0 = 1 \text{ atm} \rightarrow E_0 = K_P(0) = 1 \text{ V}$$

$$P_\infty = 2 \text{ atm} \rightarrow E_\infty = K_P(\infty) = \underline{2 \text{ V}}$$

$$K = 1 \text{ V/atm}$$

$$\text{steady} = \cancel{\text{error}} E_0$$

$$1.9 \leq E(t) \leq 2.1$$

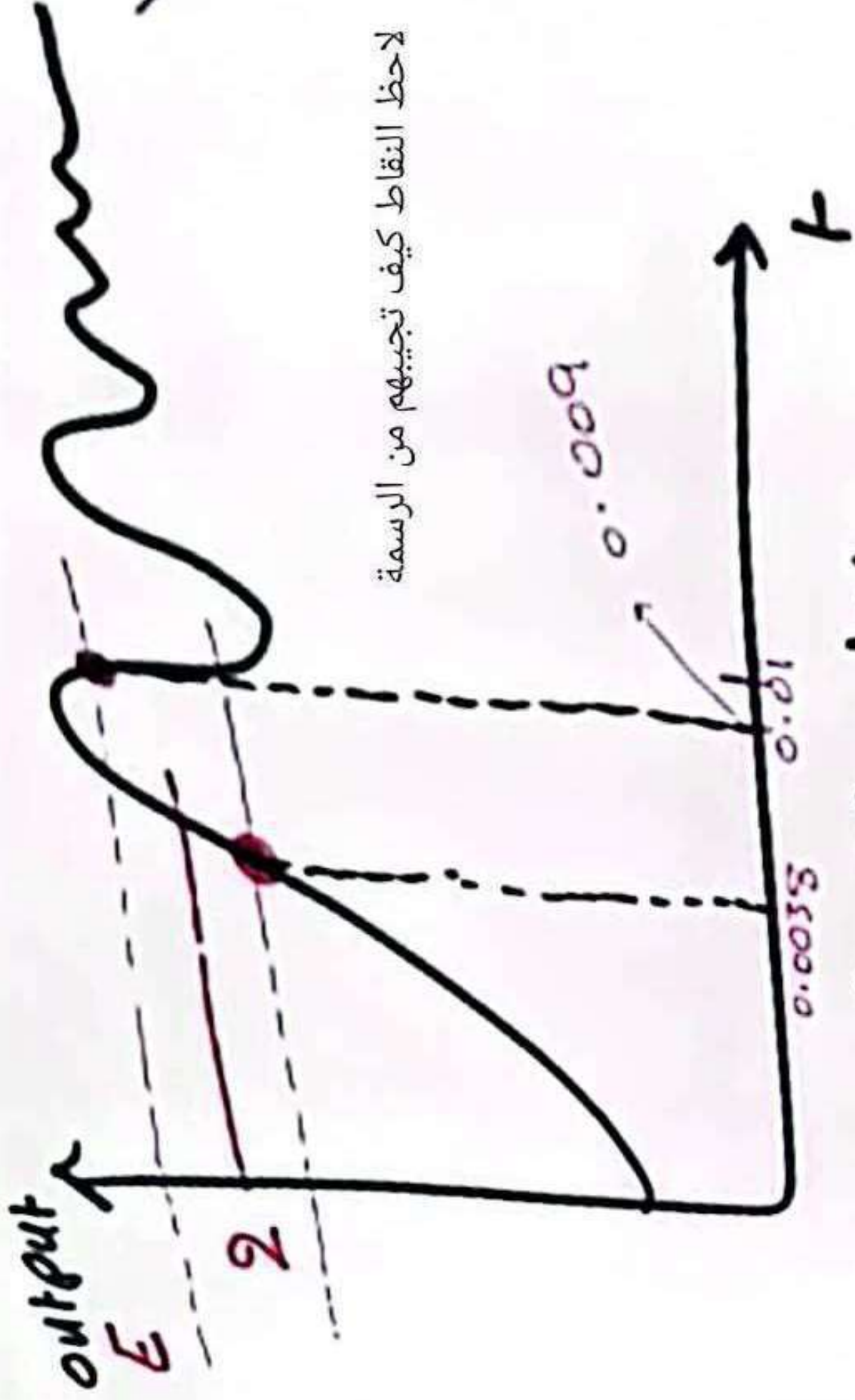
$$4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s} = \boxed{4 \text{ ms}}$$

$$\text{rise time} \rightarrow T_r = \boxed{9 \text{ ms}}$$

$$\text{settling time} \rightarrow T_s = \boxed{9 \text{ ms}}$$

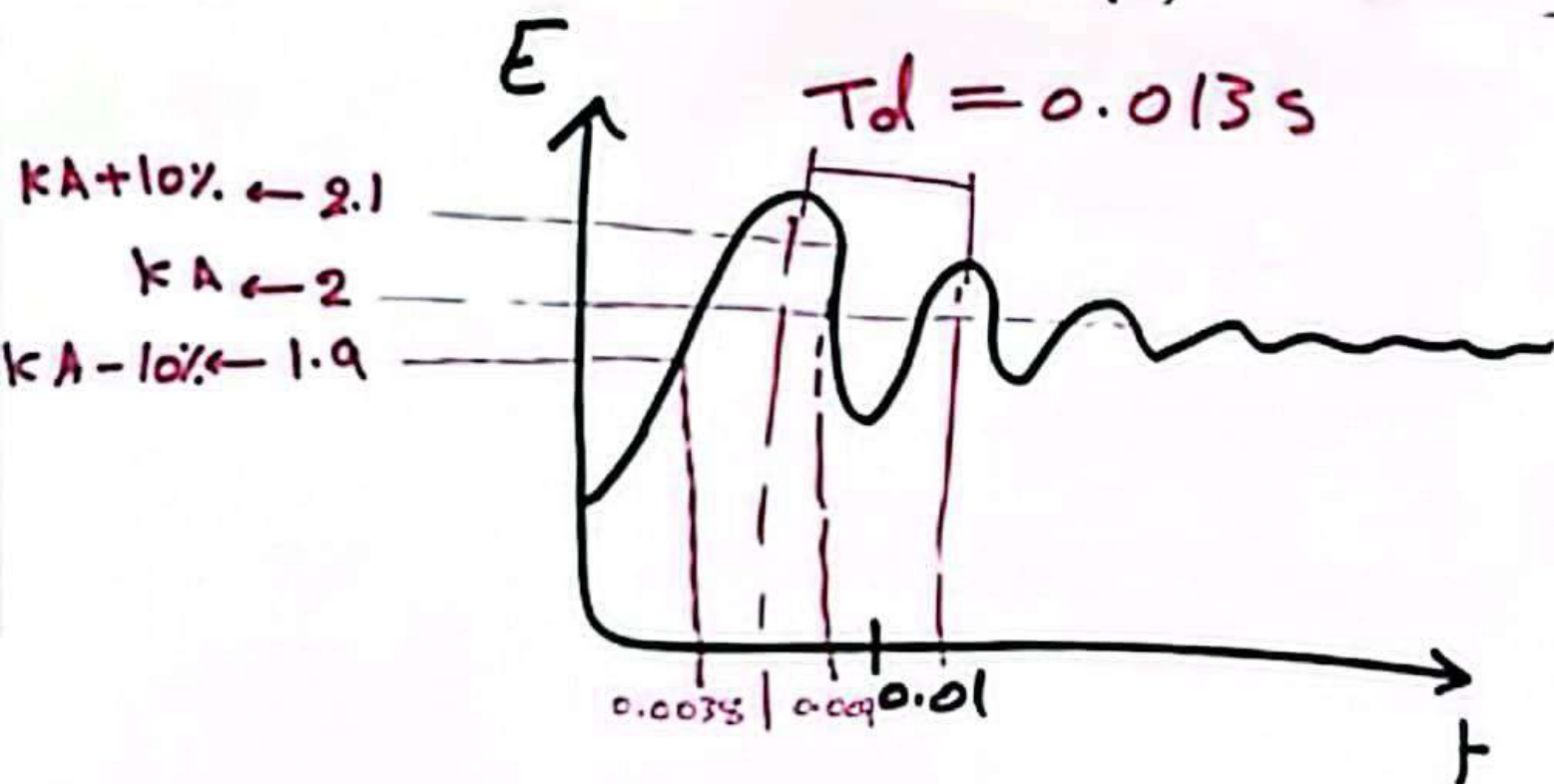
KA + ERROR = settling time

KA - Error = rise time



$$\rightarrow E_0 = K_P(0) = 1V$$

$$\rightarrow E_{\infty} = K_P(\infty) = \underline{\underline{2V}}$$



→ ω_d

$$T_d = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_d}$$

$$0.013 = \frac{2\pi}{\omega_d}$$

المطلب الثالث هو حساب
 ω_d / raining frequency

$$\omega_d = 483 \text{ rad/s}$$

* simple periodic function input

→ response of periodic input

$y(t) = \text{transient response} + \text{steady state response}$

↑ Time response

→ response 2nd for periodic In

$$F(t) = A \sin \omega t$$

$$y(t) = y_h + \frac{kA \sin [\omega t + \phi(\omega)]}{[(1 - (\omega/\omega_n)^2)^2 + [2\zeta(\omega/\omega_n)^2]^{1/2}}$$

time response/ response

→ frequency - phase shift *

$$\phi(\omega) = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{-2\zeta\omega/\omega_n}{1 - (\omega/\omega_n)^2} \right)$$

⊕ frequency response

→ magnitude ratio *

$$M(\omega) = \frac{B(\omega)}{KA} = \frac{1}{[(1 - (\omega/\omega_n)^2)^2 + [2\zeta(\omega/\omega_n)^2]^{1/2}}$$

Example 3.8

The curve shown in Figure 3.15 is the recorded voltage output signal of a diaphragm pressure transducer subjected to a step change in input. From a static calibration, the pressure-voltage relationship was found to be linear over the range 1 atmosphere (atm) to 4 atm with a static sensitivity of 1 V/atm. For the step test, the initial pressure was atmospheric pressure, p_0 , and the final pressure was $2p_0$. Estimate the rise time, the settling time, and the ringing frequency of this measurement system.)

KNOWN $p(0) = 1 \text{ atm}$
 $p_\infty = 2 \text{ atm}$
 $K = 1 \text{ V/atm}$

ASSUMPTIONS Second-order system behavior

FIND Rise and settling times; ω_d

SOLUTION The ringing behavior of the system noted on the trace supports the assumption that the transducer can be described as having a second-order behavior. From the given information,

$$E(0) = Kp(0) = 1 \text{ V}$$

$$E_\infty = Kp_\infty = 2 \text{ V}$$

so that the step change observed on the trace should appear as a magnitude of 1 V. The 90% rise time occurs when the output first achieves a value of 1.9 V. The 90% settling time will occur when the output settles between $1.9 < E(t) < 2.1 \text{ V}$. From Figure 3.15 the rise occurs in about 4 ms and the settling time is about 9 ms. The period of the ringing behavior, T_d , is judged to be about 13 ms for an $\omega_d \approx 485 \text{ rad/s}$.

ما حله
 ولكن
 في كلام
 مخطط

Simple periodic function Input

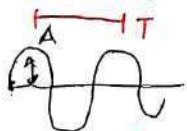
مع زجج لثبات ما حله ال second order system

$$\frac{1}{\omega_n^2} \ddot{y} + \frac{2\zeta}{\omega_n} \dot{y} + y = k f(t)$$

Amplitude $\sim A \sin \omega t$ $\leftarrow$ input frequency $\leftarrow$ periodic function $f(t)$

$$T = \frac{1}{f}$$

$$\omega = 2\pi f$$



منه ال output صعب
 يوضه ال input مع
 يوضه ال input ال
 فوضه

③ صفة كجالة مع ارجع اقيس ال Magnitude من ال اشارة الامة صفة

1) Response time

output Amplitude B , ϕ phase shift

$M(\omega) = \frac{B(\omega)}{KA}$
 static sensitivity $\leftarrow$ Amplitude of input
 function frequency

Simple Periodic Function Input

The response of a second-order system to a simple periodic function input of the form $F(t) = A \sin \omega t$ is given by

$$y(t) = y_h + \frac{KA \sin[\omega t + \Phi(\omega)]}{\left\{ \left[1 - (\omega/\omega_n)^2 \right]^2 + [2\zeta\omega/\omega_n]^2 \right\}^{1/2}} \quad (3.19)$$

مع الـ تاثير المذبذبة
Periodic in second

with frequency-dependent phase shift

$$\Phi(\omega) = \tan^{-1} \left(-\frac{2\zeta\omega/\omega_n}{1 - (\omega/\omega_n)^2} \right) \quad (3.20)$$

The exact form for y_h is found from Equations 3.14a-c and depends on the value of ζ . The steady response, the second term on the right side, has the general form

$$y_{\text{steady}}(t) = y(t \rightarrow \infty) = B(\omega) \sin[\omega t + \Phi(\omega)] \quad (3.21)$$

with amplitude $B(\omega)$. Comparing Equations 3.19 and 3.21 shows that the amplitude of the steady response of a second-order system subjected to a sinusoidal input is also dependent on ω . So the amplitude of the output signal is frequency dependent. In general, we can define the magnitude ratio, $M(\omega)$, for a second-order system as

$$M(\omega) = \frac{B(\omega)}{KA} = \frac{1}{\left\{ \left[1 - (\omega/\omega_n)^2 \right]^2 + [2\zeta\omega/\omega_n]^2 \right\}^{1/2}} \quad (3.22)$$

مع الـ

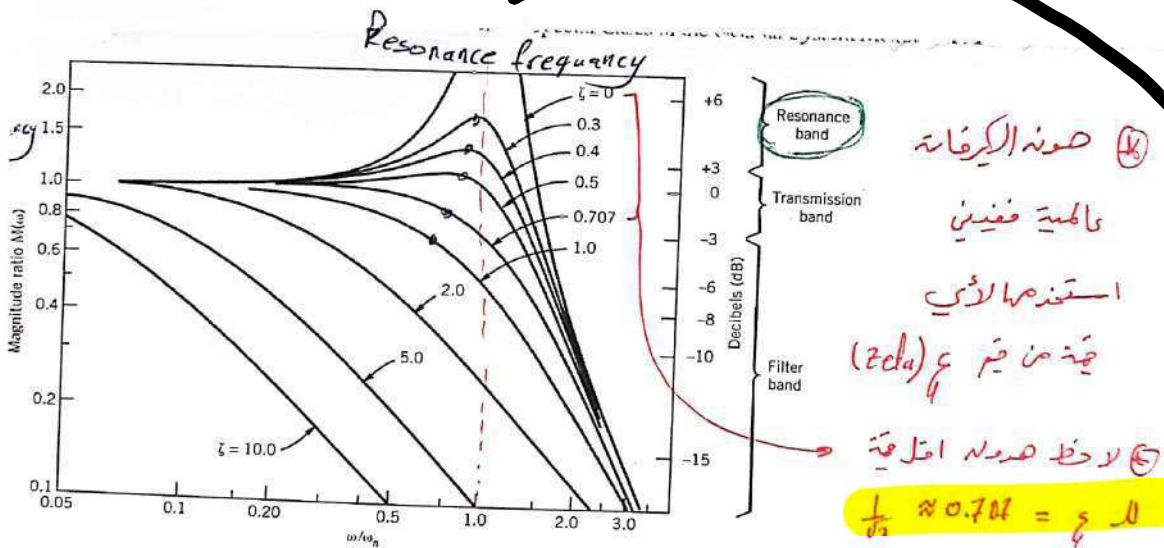


Figure 3.16 (Second-order system frequency response: magnitude ratio.)

مع الـ Mass
elasticity
لهذا المذبذب

input frequency: ω

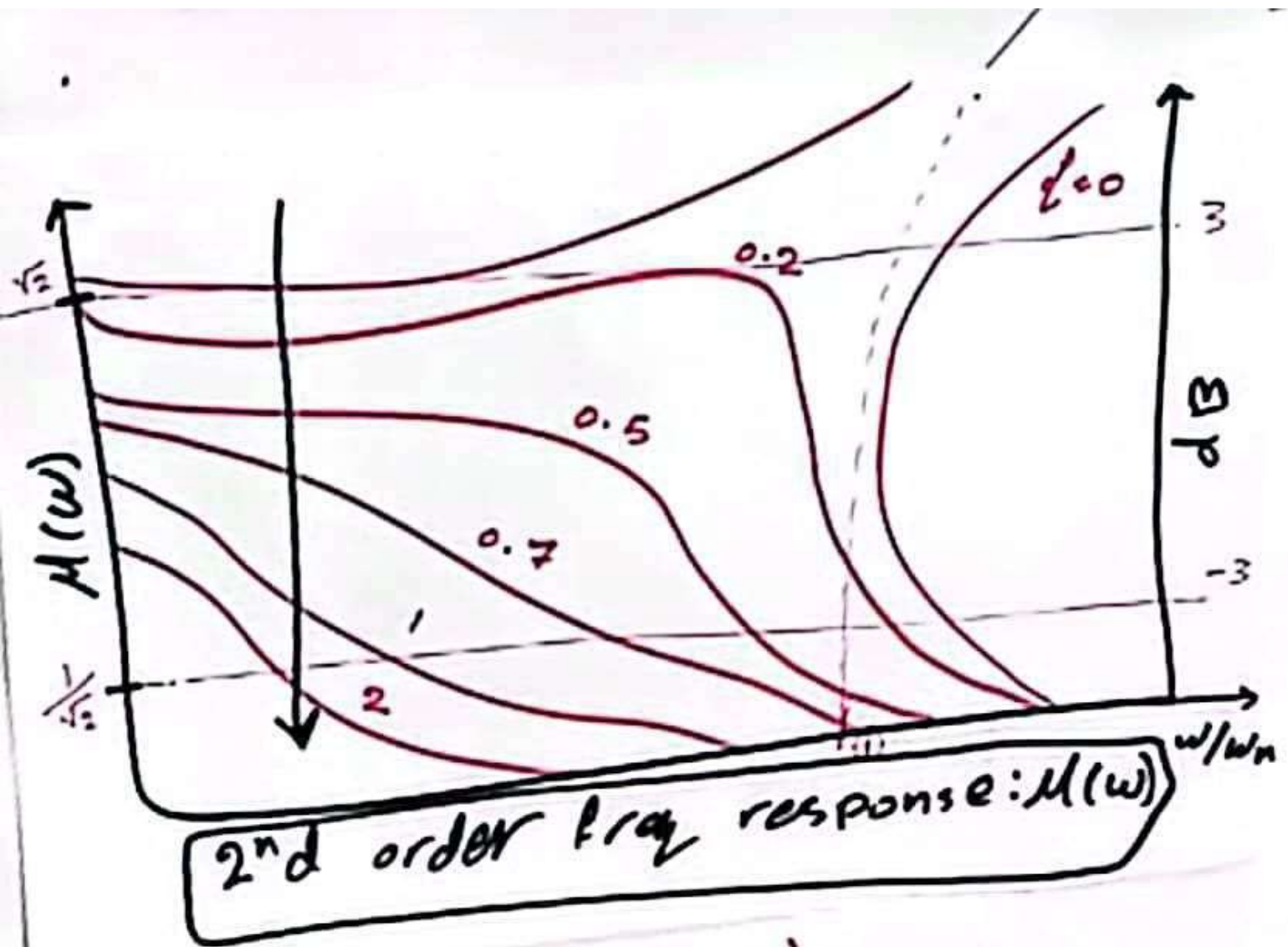
تفسير ما ذكره
natural frequency
التي هي تردد جها القياس
تردد الطبيعي
physical parameter
لهذا الجها زناغ الصاب
فلو بقي عن
displacement
Tranducer

Resonance Frequency

مع الـ بلا حظ انه الـ عالية
فني لا اخذت في 0
مع الـ بقرية من

resonance Frequency

* لو كانت $\phi = 0$ اذا كانت w و w_n متوازيات $\Rightarrow$ $a = \frac{w}{w_n}$ جهة الـ
 magnitude من هذه الحالة تكون عالية جداً يعني جهة الـ a الناتجة من عملية
 القياس عالية جداً طبعاً هذا الكلي يمكن يؤدي انه جهاز القياس ما يقدر يقيس
 الى حرارة عالية ويمكن يجر انه يدمر الجهاز او يخرجه



$$dB \rightarrow 20 \log M(\omega)$$

بترید و بتقل M و بتقل الرنين كلما نزلنا لتحت

كلما طلعنا لفوق وزادت M بتقل ال zeta

الافضل دائما اكون ما بين -3 و 3 الاحسن اكون فوق منطقة

filter band

وتحت ال resonance



$$dB \rightarrow 20 \log M(\omega)$$

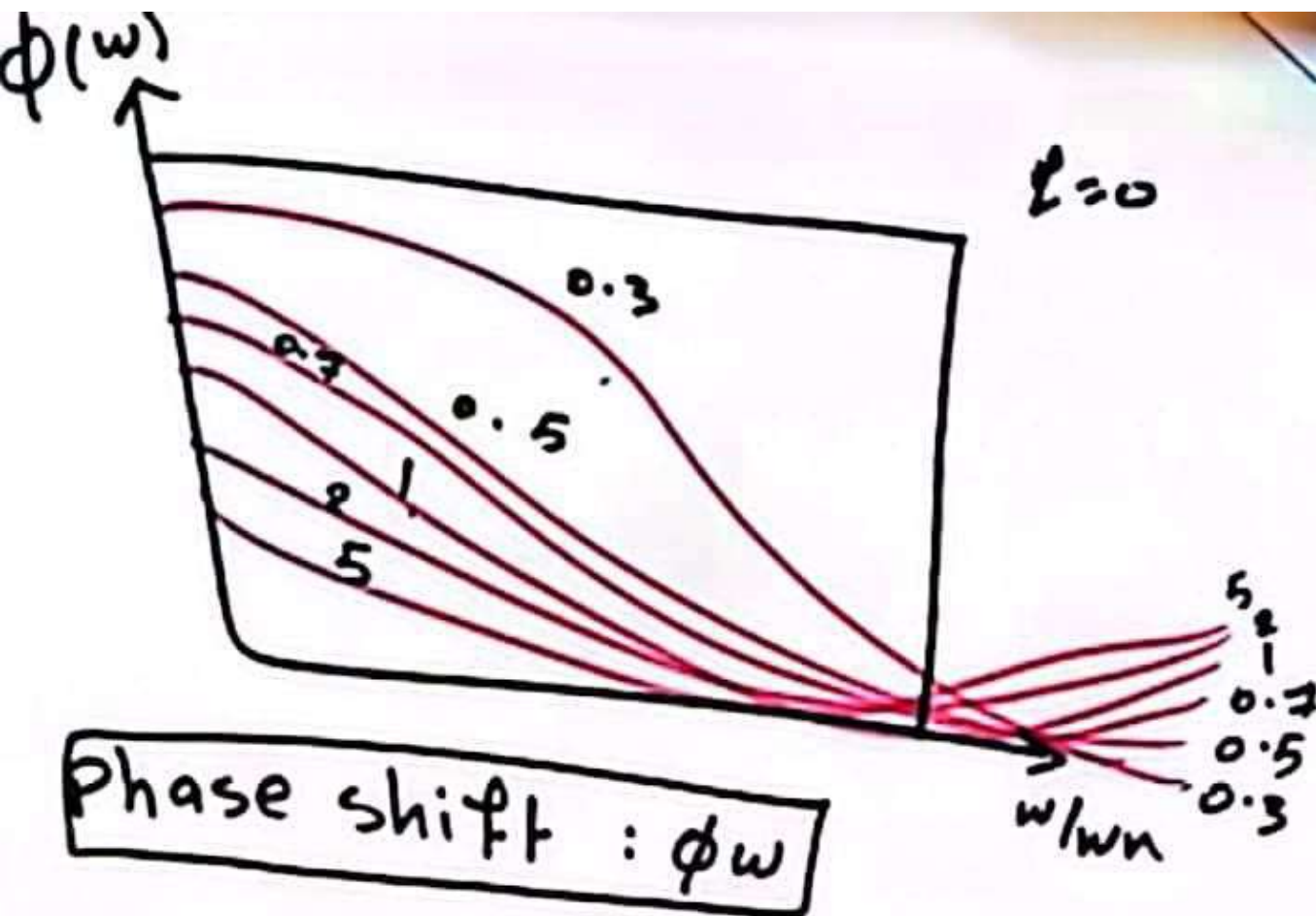
عند قيمة M مقدارها 0.7 وفوق يطلع هذا ال resonance ويكون ال Output اصغر من input

Resonance $\rightarrow$ input > output



اعلى قيمة في ال magnitude هي $\sqrt{2}$ وقل قيمة هي 0.7
واعلى قيمة نون dB هي 3 وقل قيمة هي 3- لهيك الرسمة تنقسم لثلاثة مناطق

→ أكبر من 3 → resonance band
→ بين 3 و 3- → Transmission band
→ أقل من 3- → Filter band.



→ Resonance freq in under damped

هون لو zeta لو اكبر من 0.7 رح يكون فش ريزونانس ف في رينج معي لازم التزم فيه :

$$\omega_R = \omega_n \sqrt{1 - 2\zeta^2}$$

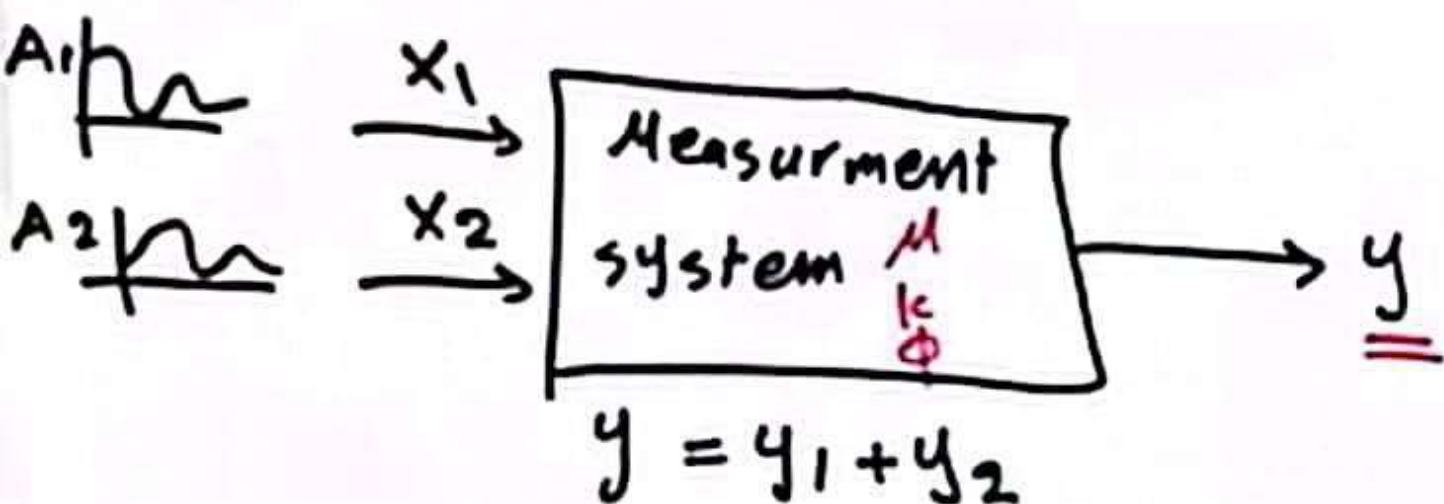
$$0 < \zeta < \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \quad 0.7$$

when $\zeta = 0 \quad \therefore \quad \omega_R = \omega_n$

لا يجوز وضع ترددات في منطقة فيها frequency

→ frequencies within the resonance band is undesirable and damaging the sensors.

Multiple Function Inputs::



→ Amplitude (B) = $M(\omega) \cdot k \cdot A_1 + M(\omega) \cdot k \cdot A_2$
 output ↙

⊙ Coupled system:-



$$k_{eq} = k_1 * k_2$$

$$M(\omega)_{eq} = M_1(\omega) * M_2(\omega)$$

$$\phi(\omega)_{eq} = \phi_1(\omega) + \phi_2(\omega)$$

→ Amplitude (B) = $M_{eq} \cdot k_{eq} \cdot A$
 output ↙

problems

Example :- 3.12

$$2^{\text{nd}} \rightarrow k=1 \quad // \quad \ell=2 \quad // \quad \omega_n = 628 \text{ rad/s}$$

$$F(t) = 5 + 10 \sin 25t + 20 \sin 400t$$

$$y(t) = ??$$

المعادلة المعطاة هنا هي معادلة ال input
لقيمة معينة وهي طريقة تحويلها

$$\textcircled{1} \quad y(t) = k \ell(t)$$

$$y(t) = 5k + \underline{10k \sin 25t} + \underline{20k \sin 400t}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \mu(\omega) \rightarrow \sin$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \phi(\omega) \rightarrow \sin$$

$$\mu(25) =$$

$$\mu(25) = \frac{1}{\left[\left(1 - \left(\frac{25}{628} \right)^2 \right)^2 + \left(\frac{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 25}{628} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2}}$$

$$\mu(25) = 0.989 \approx \boxed{0.99}$$

1

$$\mu(400) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\left(1 - \left(\frac{400}{628} \right)^2 \right)^2 + \left(\frac{2 \cdot 2 \cdot 400}{628} \right)^2}}$$

$$\mu(400) = 0.382 \approx 0.39$$

$$\phi(25) = -9.1^\circ$$

$$\phi(400) = -77^\circ$$

$$y(t) = 5 \underline{k} + 10k \sin 25t + 20k \sin 400t$$

$$M(25) = 0.99$$

$$\phi(25) = -9.1$$

$$M(400) = 0.39$$

$$\phi(400) = -77$$

$$y(t) = 5 + (10 * 1 * 0.99) \sin [25t + -9.1]$$

$$+ (20 * 1 * 0.39) * \sin [400t + -77]$$

$$y(t) = 5 + 9.9 \sin(25t - 9.1) + 7.8 \sin(400t - 77)$$

Resonance band :

هاي منطقة موجودة فقط في ال second احنا بالفيرست ما كنا نرتفع فوق ١٠٠٪

Trab 9011

3.2 b) $\ddot{y} + 2\dot{y} + 4y = u(t)$

$\div 4 \rightarrow \frac{1}{4}\ddot{y} + \frac{1}{2}\dot{y} + y = \frac{1}{4}u(t)$

$\omega_n^2 = 4 \rightarrow \omega_n = 2$

$\frac{2\zeta}{\omega_n} = \frac{1}{2} \rightarrow \frac{2\zeta}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \rightarrow \zeta = 0.5$

$KA = \frac{1}{4}$

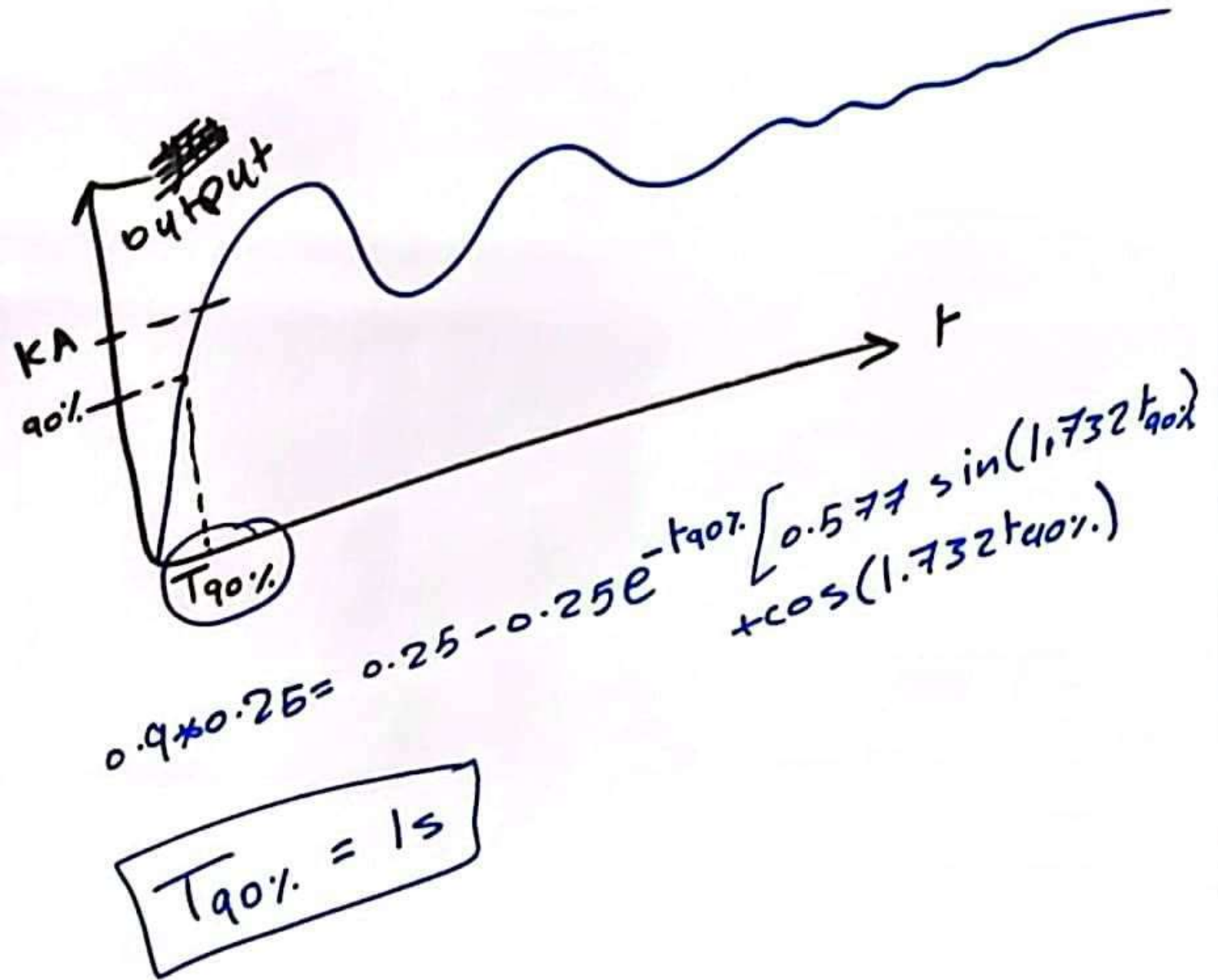
$y(t) = KA - KAe^{-\zeta\omega_n t} \left[\frac{\zeta}{\sqrt{1-\zeta^2}} \sin(\omega_n t \sqrt{1-\zeta^2}) + \cos(\omega_n t \sqrt{1-\zeta^2}) \right]$

$y(t) = 0.25 - 0.25e^{-0.5 \times 2t} \left[\frac{0.5}{\sqrt{1-0.5^2}} \sin\left(\frac{2 \times t}{\sqrt{1-0.5^2}}\right) + \cos(2 \times t \times \sqrt{1-0.5^2}) \right]$

$y(t) = 0.25 - 0.25e^{-t} [0.577 \sin(1.732t) + \cos(1.732t)]$

المطلوب معطيك معادلة ال input
وطالب معادلة ال output

المعادلة المعطاة هنا يا معادلة العامة لل input والمطلوب قيمة output



المطلب الثاني كان : حساب قيمة Trise ، من خلال المعادلة يلي طلعتها بتعوض قيمة ال M يلي هي عبارة عن KA x النسبة يلي طالبك اياها

3.17 $\zeta = 0.6$ $\zeta = 0.9$ $\zeta = 2$
dynamic error = $\pm 5\%$

3.22

$$1 - 5\% \leq M(\omega) \leq 1 + 5\%$$

$$0.95 \leq M(\omega) \leq \underline{1.05}$$

$$M(\omega) = \frac{1}{\left([1 - (\omega/\omega_n)^2]^2 + [2\zeta \omega/\omega_n]^2 \right)^{1/2}}$$

$$1.05 = \frac{1}{\left([1 - (\omega/\omega_n)^2]^2 + [2\zeta \omega/\omega_n]^2 \right)^{1/2}}$$

$$0 \leq \frac{\omega}{\omega_n} \leq 0.85$$

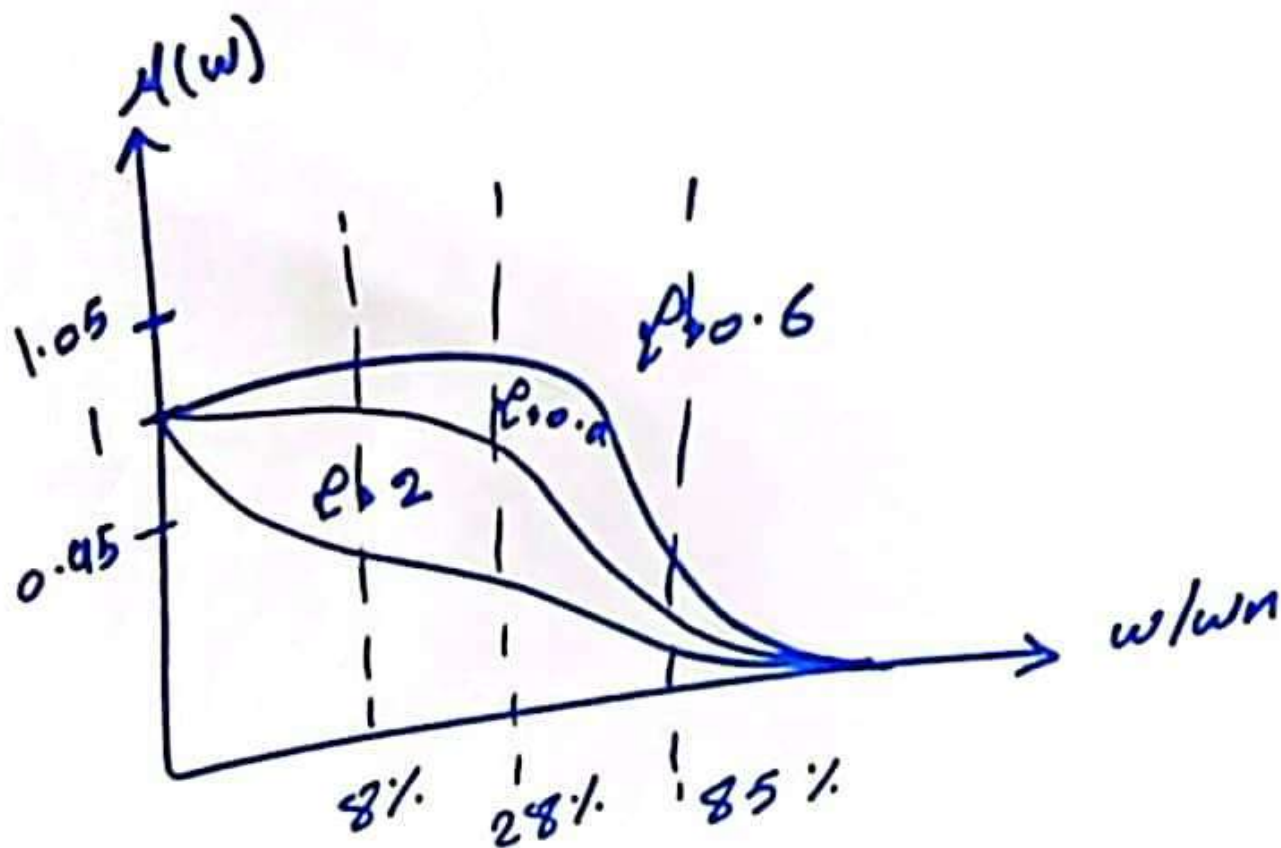
$\zeta = 0.6$

$$0 \leq \frac{\omega}{\omega_n} \leq 0.28$$

$\zeta = 0.9$

$$0 \leq \frac{\omega}{\omega_n} \leq 0.08$$

$\zeta = 2$

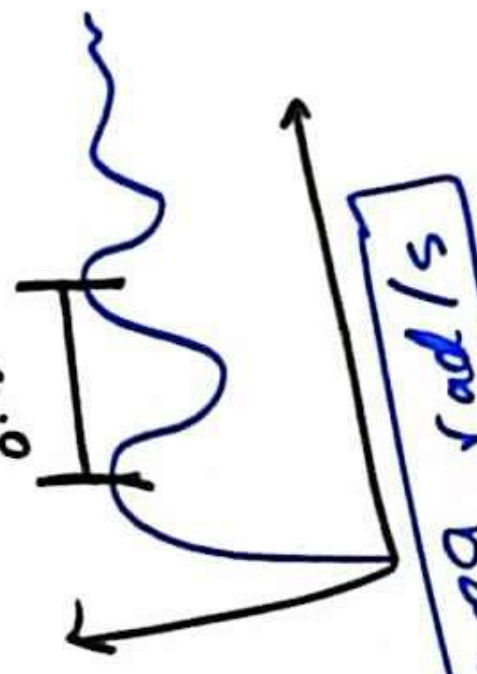


period oscillation = 0.577 ms

$\approx T_d$

3.20

period oscillation = 0.577 ms



$$\omega_d = \frac{2\pi}{T_d}$$

$$= \frac{2\pi}{0.577}$$

$$= 10.889 \text{ rad/s}$$

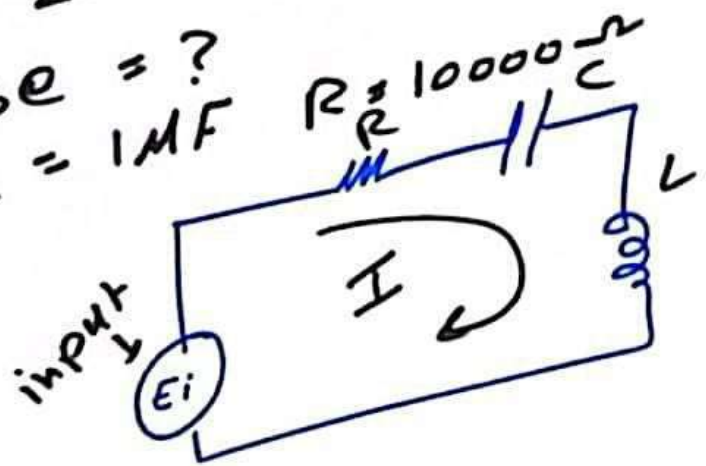
$$= \frac{1}{0.577}$$

$$f = \frac{1}{T_d}$$

$$= 1.733 \text{ Hz}$$

3.24 * $E(t) = L\ddot{I} + R\dot{I} + \frac{I}{C}$
 $\omega_n = ?$ $\zeta = ?$

* $E(t) = 1 + 0.5 \sin 2000t$ "V"
 steady response = ?
 when $L = 2H$ $C = 1\mu F$ $R = 10000\Omega$



$$L\ddot{I} + R\dot{I} + \frac{I}{C} = E(t)$$

المطالب طالبك اول شي تحسبه

ω_n

zeta

ومن ثم طالبك تحسبه steady response يلي هما هون ϕ and M

وكمان طالبك بالاخير تكتبه معادلة output

$$\frac{1}{\omega_n^2} = 2 \times 10^{-6}$$

$$\omega_n^2 = \frac{1}{2 \times 10^{-6}}$$

$$\omega_n = 707 \text{ rad/s}$$

$$\frac{2\zeta}{\omega_n} = 1 \times 10^{-6} \times 10000$$

$$2\zeta = 0.01 \times 707$$

$$\zeta = 3.535$$

السؤال معطيني معادلتين معادلة عامة ومعادلة عند قيمة معينة انا من خلال المعادلة العامة بجيب قيمة ω_n و ζ

$$E(t) = 1 + 0.5 \sin(2000t)$$

steady response for periodic

$$\therefore M(\omega) \phi(\omega)$$

من هون بحصل M و ϕ من خلال قوانينها

$$M(\omega) = \frac{1}{\left(\left(1 - \left(\frac{2000}{707} \right)^2 \right)^2 + \left(2 \cdot 2 \cdot \frac{2000}{707} \right)^2 \right)^{1/2}}$$

$$M(\omega) = 0.05$$

$$\phi = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{-2 \cdot 3.5 \cdot \frac{2000}{707}}{1 - \left(\frac{2000}{707} \right)^2} \right) \text{ rad}$$

$$\boxed{\phi = -1.23 \text{ rad}}$$

$$I(t) = 1 + [0.5 * 0.05 * 1 * 10^{-6}]$$

$$+ \sin(2000t + -1.23)$$

$$y(t) = 1 + 0.025 * 10^{-6} * \sin(2000t - 1.23)$$

خطوات حل المعادلة لما تكون input
عند قيمة معينة طبقها هون

3.31

$$\zeta = 0.4$$

$$\omega_n = 18000 \text{ Hz}$$

$$\delta(\omega) = ??$$

$$\omega = 4500 \text{ Hz}$$

$$\phi(\omega) = ??$$

resonance frequency = ??

$$\omega_n = (18000 * 2\pi) \text{ rad/s}$$

$$\omega = (4500 * 2\pi) \text{ rad/s}$$

$\zeta = 0.4 \rightarrow$ underdamped.

$$\mathcal{S}(w) = \underline{\underline{\mu(w)}} - 1$$

$$\mu(w) = \frac{1}{\left(\left(1 - \frac{4500 \times 2\pi}{18000 \times 2\pi} \right)^2 \right)^2 + \left(2 + 0.4 \times \frac{4500 \times 2\pi}{18000 \times 2\pi} \right)^2}$$

$$\boxed{\mu(w) = 1.04} \rightarrow \boxed{\mu(4500 \times 2\pi) = 1.04}$$

$$\mathcal{S}(w) = \mu(w) - 1$$

$$\mathcal{S}(4500 \times 2\pi) = \mu(4500 \times 2\pi) - 1$$

$$= 1.04 - 1 = 0.04 = \pm 4\%$$

~~$$\phi(4500 \times 2\pi) = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{-2 \times 0.4 \times \left(\frac{4500 \times 2\pi}{18000} \right)}{1 - \left(\frac{4500 \times 2\pi}{18000} \right)^2} \right)$$~~

$$= \boxed{-0.21}$$

$$\omega_R = \omega_n \sqrt{1 - 2\delta^2}$$

$$f_R = f_n \sqrt{1 - 2\delta^2}$$

$$= 18000 \times \sqrt{1 - 2(0.4)^2}$$

$$= 14.8 \text{ kHz}$$

$$\text{Time lag} = \frac{|\phi(\omega)|}{\omega}$$

في حالة طلب
تأيم لاغ

$$= \frac{0.21}{4500 \times 2\pi}$$

$$= 7.4367 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}$$

3.34

second order

first order

$$K=1$$

$$\zeta=0.9$$

$$\omega_n = 5000 \text{ Hz}$$

$$\tau = 1.4 \text{ ms}$$

$$K_1 = 2 \text{ V/C}$$

$$T(t) = 10 + 50 \sin 628 t$$

1 order

$$10 + 50 \sin 628 t \quad \tau = 1.4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}$$

$$K_1 = 2$$

second

$$K_2=1$$

$$\zeta=0.9$$

$$\omega_n = 5000 \times 2\pi$$

out

$$M_1(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \omega^2 \tau^2}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + 628^2 \times (1.4 \times 10^{-3})^2}}$$

$$= 0.75$$

$$M_2(\omega) = \frac{1}{\left(\left(1 - \left(\frac{628}{5000 \times 2\pi} \right)^2 \right)^2 + \left(2 \times 0.9 \times \frac{628}{5000 \times 2\pi} \right)^2 \right)^{0.5}}$$

$$M_2(\omega) = 1$$

$$M_{eq} = (1)(0.75) = \boxed{0.75}$$

$$\phi_1(\omega) = -\tan^{-1}(\omega \tau)$$

$$\phi_1(\omega) = -\tan^{-1}(\omega\tau)$$

$$\phi_1(\omega) = -\tan^{-1}(628 \times 1.4 \times 10^{-3}) = -0.72 \text{ rad}$$

$$\phi_2(\omega) = \tan^{-1} \left(\frac{-2 \times 0.4 \times \left(\frac{628}{5000 \times 2\pi} \right)}{1 - \left(\frac{628}{5000 \times 2\pi} \right)^2} \right)$$

$$\phi_2(\omega) = -0.036 \text{ rad}$$

$$\phi_{eq} = -0.721 + -0.036$$

$$= \boxed{-0.757 \text{ rad}}$$

$$* k_{eq} = k_1 * k_2$$

$$= 1 * 2 = \boxed{2}$$

$$u(w) = 0.75$$

$$\phi_{eq}(w) = -0.757$$

$$\mu(\omega) = 0.75$$

$$\phi_{eq}(\omega) = -0.75\pi$$

$$K_{eq} = 2$$

$$y(t) = 10 + (50 \times 0.75 \times 2) \times \sin(6281 - 0.75\pi)$$

$$y(t) = 10 + 75 \sin(6281 - 0.75\pi)$$

ch.4

⊕ probability and statistics

↳ study random variations.

⊕ Types of error :-

1 Bias error (fixed error)
"systematic"

→ removed : by calibration

2 Precision (random error)

→ minimized by :- repetitions
replication

probability and statistics

Engineering Measurement مقياسات الهندسة Measurement statistic إحصاءات القياس (1)

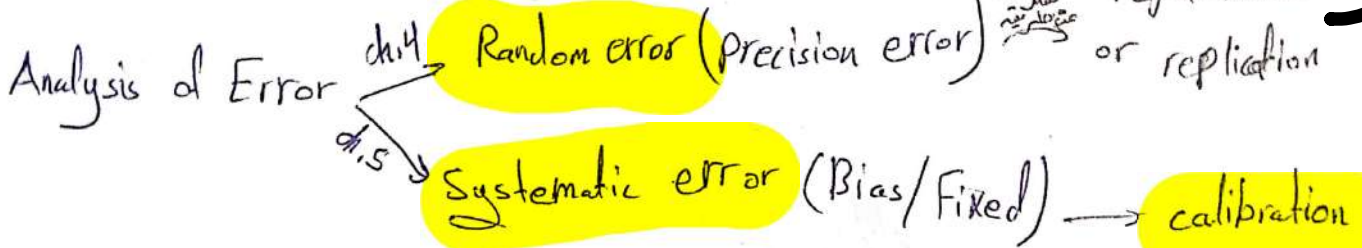
Repetition / replication

there is 2 types of error

هناك نوعان من الأخطاء (خطأ عشوائي وخطأ منهجي)

Sol:

repetitions or replication



Stats

إحصاءات هي علم يدرس البيانات ويحاول إيجاد القوانين التي تحكمها

Data $\rightarrow x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$ Measurements

our goal of statistics

1) Find Representative value (العثور على قيمة تمثيلية)

EX) Mean $\rightarrow \bar{x} = \frac{x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n}{n}$

results

نتائج إحصائية
Point estimate
تقدير نقطة

الهدف من الإحصاء هو إيجاد القوانين التي تحكم البيانات وتفسيرها

2) Measure of variability / uncertainty

σ_x

Point estimate
estimate
Variability
variability

(scattered)

كم انحراف عن القيمة المتوسطة

→ [ex] → standard deviation S_x

3. { precision interval → random error } ch.14,
 confidence interval → all type of error → ch.15

انواع ال Error

Types of error 1) random error

2) Based error

3) based error

precision interval

$$\bar{X} \pm \frac{S_x}{\sqrt{n}} (p\%)$$

precinitive value

Mean value

uncertainty

confidence level
 probability
 significant level

→ [ex] $42 \pm 1 \text{ (unit) } 95\%$

① ال S_x ما جاي من u_x ولكن متناسب معها.

② كلما كانت probability ال u_x (wider) بكونه

question

random experiment - تجربة بتغير نتائجها كل مرة.

* Statistics and Probability.

If $x_1, x_2, x_3 \dots x_n$ taken under fixed conditions (biase = zero)
 $\therefore$ we have random error only.

$$X' = \bar{X} \pm U \bar{X} \quad (P\%)$$

$\downarrow$
true value

$\rightarrow$ point estimate (avg)

$\rightarrow$ uncertainty interval

$\rightarrow$ possible range of error (precision interval)

$\rightarrow \bar{X} \rightsquigarrow$ representative value

"most probable estimate of X' based on available data"

$\rightarrow U \bar{X} \rightsquigarrow$ measure of variability

$\rightarrow P\% \rightsquigarrow$ precision interval at given $P\%$

For a given set of measurements, we want to be able to quantify (1) a single representative value that best characterizes the average of the measured data set; (2) a representative value that provides a measure of the variation in the measured data set; and (3) how well the average of the data set represents the true average value of the entire population of the measured variable. The value of item (1) can vary with repeated data sets and so the difference between it and the true average value of the population is a type of random error. Item (3) requires establishing an interval within which the true average value of the population is expected to lie. This interval quantifies the probable range of this random error and it is called a random uncertainty.)

4.2 STATISTICAL MEASUREMENT THEORY

Sampling refers to obtaining a set of data through repeated measurements of a variable under fixed operating conditions. This variable is known as the *measured variable* or, in statistical terms, the *measurand*. By fixed operating conditions, we mean that the external conditions that control the process are held at constant values. In actual engineering practice, truly fixed conditions are difficult to attain and the term "fixed operating conditions" is used in a nominal sense. That is, we consider the process conditions to be maintained as closely as possible and deviations from these conditions will show up in the data set variations.

From a statistical analysis of the data set and an analysis of sources of error that influence these data, we can estimate x' as

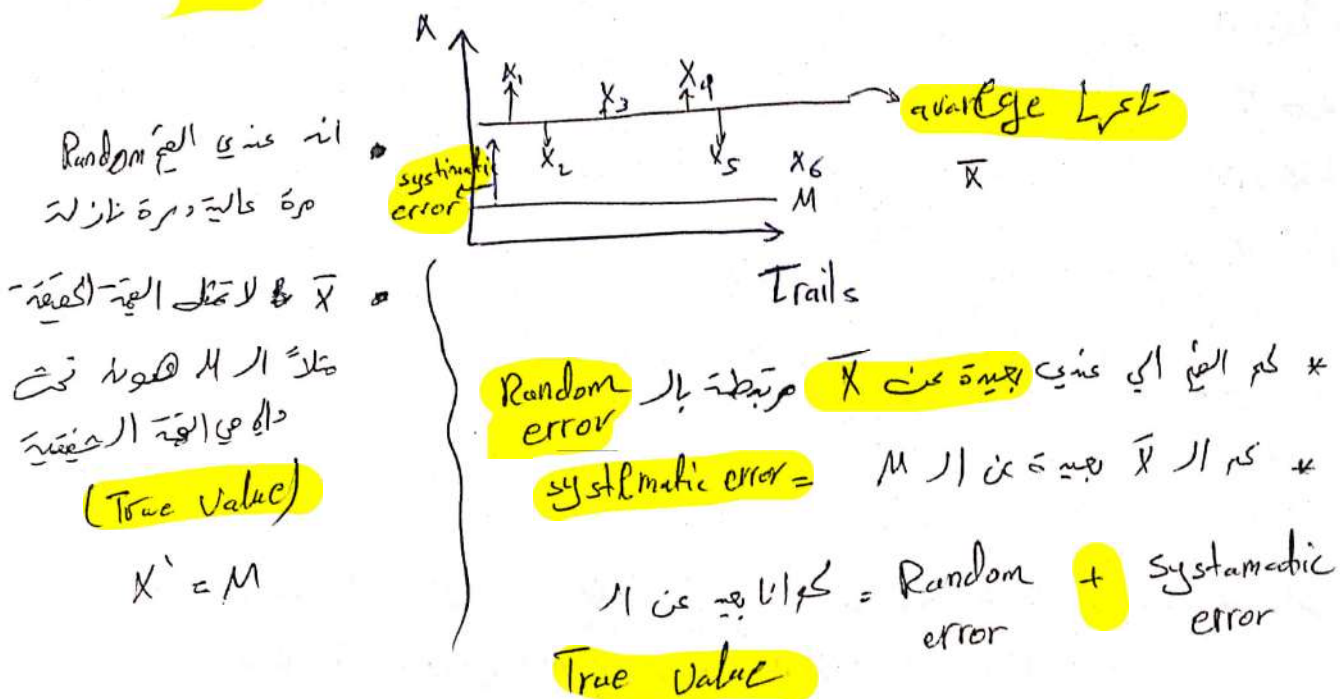
$$x' = \bar{x} \pm u_{\bar{x}} \quad (P\%) \quad \text{uncertainty} \quad (4.1)$$

where $\bar{x}$ represents the most probable estimate of x' based on the available data and $\pm u_{\bar{x}}$ represents the uncertainty interval in that estimate at some probability level, $P\%$. Uncertainties are numbers that quantify the possible range of the effects of errors. The uncertainty interval is the range about $\bar{x}$.

synthetic Error : there is a bias between values

random Error : random values

ما ياررسته زي رح نوضف العزمت مايند ال random error وال systematic error



لعمري اننا **systematic error** = بهي استخدام الاسباب الاحصائية
 $\epsilon = 0$

كمان اعرفه ادبيث **Random error**

probability density function

نوعه اوله تطبيقيه من التطبيقات

120 Chapter 4 Probability and Statistics

Table 4.1 Sample of Random Variable x

i	x_i	i	x_i
1	0.98	11	1.02
2	1.07	12	1.26
3	0.86	13	1.08
4	1.16	14	1.02
5	0.96	15	0.94
6	0.68	16	1.11
7	1.34	17	0.99
8	1.04	18	0.78
9	1.21	19	1.06
10	0.86	20	0.96

لازم ارفع الـ

Histogram:

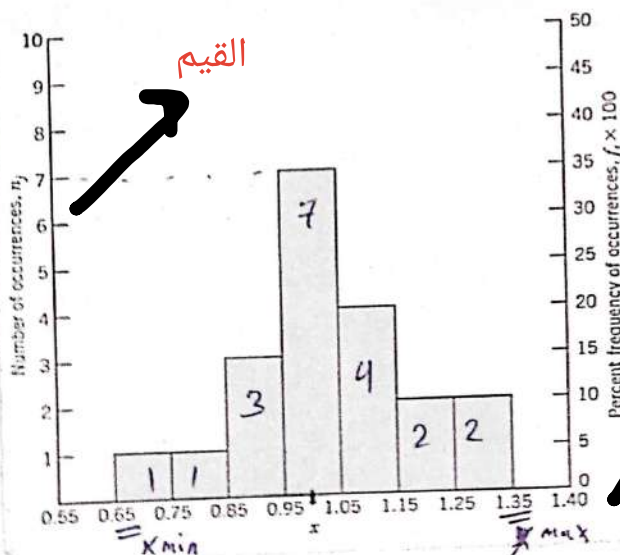
Frequency distribution

x_i

$i = 1 - 20$

مراعاة

In Figure 4.1, there exists a region on the axis where the data points tend to clump; this region contains the central value. Such behavior is typical of most engineering variables. We might expect that the true mean value of x is contained somewhere in this clump.



Percent frequency of occurrences, $f_p \times 100$

كلما زاد عدد العينات
 زاد الدقة
accuracy

القيم تقفز
 0.1

Figure 4.2 Histogram and frequency distribution for data in Table 4.1.

(1) بناءً على تادونه
 الاحصاء
 طبع برنامج
 histogram
 من الفاتحة من انشاء
 ما يكونه من 20 رقم
 حوسر 7 مرات

مثلاً حالي الرسمة هو بتوسطي = انه اقل قيمه في 0.65 واما قيمة 1.35 الاكثر تكرار في 1 الى ان العترة
 (0.45 - 1.05) والاقل تكرارها الى كلا طرفانه عرضي بتوسطي كلما اتجهنا للوسطا زادت القيم وتقل عن الاطرافه

خطوات رسم Histogram

هذا شكل من رسم Histogram لانهم سترأي بمدة اسياد

1. عدد العينات اكبر من 20 $n \geq 20$

2. if I have $20 < N < 40$ يفضل يكون عندي لم
وصفة

$$n_i \geq 5$$

مثلا في Histogram الدفوة تفرقة في الفترة (0.95 - 1.05) كأنه تكرار $7 \leq 7$

3. If $20 < N < 40$ يفضل $k \geq 4$

كيفية رسم Histogram

This description for variable x can be extended. Suppose we plot the data of Table 4.1 in a different way. The abscissa will be divided between the maximum and minimum measured values

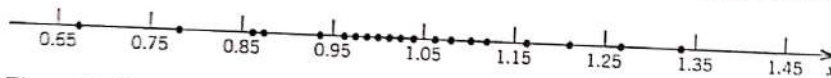


Figure 4.1 Concept of density in reference to a measured variable (from Ex. 4.1).

SOLUTION To develop the histogram, compute a reasonable number of intervals for this data set. For $N = 20$, a convenient estimate of K is found from Equation 4.2 to be

$$K = 1.87(N - 1)^{0.40} + 1 = 7$$

Next, determine the maximum and minimum values of the data set and divide this range into K intervals. For a minimum of 0.68 and a maximum of 1.34, a value of $\delta x = 0.05$ is chosen. The intervals are as follows:

j	Interval	or (pens)		count or frequency	
		n_j		$f_j = n_j/N$	
1	$0.65 \leq x_i < 0.75$	1		0.05	
2	$0.75 \leq x_i < 0.85$	1		0.05	
3	$0.85 \leq x_i < 0.95$	3		0.15	
4	$0.95 \leq x_i < 1.05$	7		0.35	
5	$1.05 \leq x_i < 1.15$	4		0.20	
6	$1.15 \leq x_i < 1.25$	2		0.10	
7	$1.25 \leq x_i < 1.35$	2		0.10	

$$\begin{array}{|c|} \hline 0.6 \\ \hline \end{array} \text{ إلى } \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 0.62 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{|c|} \hline 1.4 \\ \hline \end{array} \text{ إلى } \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 1.34 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

الحد الأدنى للترتيب = 0.6

الحد الأعلى للترتيب = 1.34

$$k = 1.87 (N-1)^{1/4} + 1 = 6$$

عدد الفئات = k

لعدد الفئات

$$\text{عرض الفئة} = \frac{1.4 - 0.6}{6} = 0.11$$

1) (0.6 - 0.71)

2) (0.71 - 0.82)

3) (0.82 - 0.93)

4) (0.93 - 1.04)

5) (1.04 - 1.15)

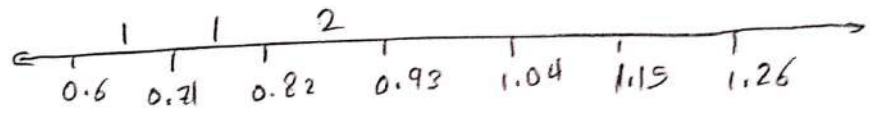
6) (1.15 - 1.26)

7) (1.26 - 1.37)

الترتيب

الترتيب

0.11



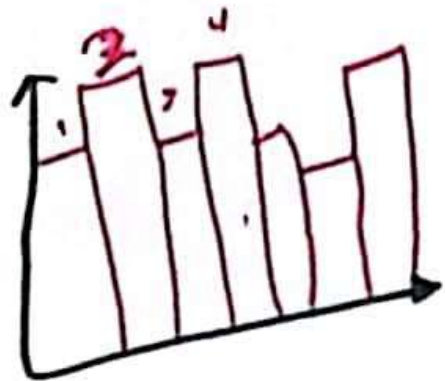
وسمى الأرقام على الترتيب في الجدول التالي

Histogram

① Histogram :-
 → conditions :

- ① $N > 20$
- ② $20 < N < 40, \underline{n_i} \geq 5$
- ③ # of intervals $K \geq 4$
- ④ $N > 40 \rightarrow K = 1.87(N-1)^{0.4} + 1$

data = 30
66
 5. data



- ① N
- ② K
- ③ $\frac{\text{أكبر} - \text{أصغر}}{K} = 7$ for examp

The standard deviation, σ , a commonly used statistical parameter, is defined as the square root of the variance, that is $\sigma = \sqrt{\sigma^2}$.

تا خدا دله نوی

$$x_i = \bar{x} \pm z, \alpha (p\%)$$

presentation value elasticity probability

لا طه انها بتفقد الامتياز حكيما عنها

2. $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$

لفرض اخذنا

$$N(\bar{x}, \sigma^2)$$

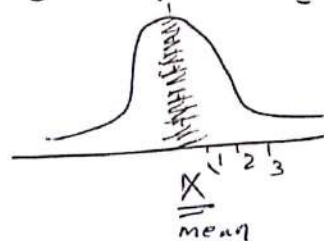
known mean variance

$$x_i = \bar{x} \pm z \sigma$$

known mean

(لو سفت اي هتة مثال)
فوتة

لو بي ارسع ال interval اي طلست معاي عالي اكي في position interval



لوانا به نه 1, 2, 3

بي اول مرة طيت به ال 1

له دكي 1 $\pm$ به بكونه المنطقة اعظمه بالوسط كاملت

$$\bar{x} \pm 1\sigma \rightarrow (68\%)$$

$$\bar{x} \pm 2\sigma \rightarrow (95\%)$$

$$\bar{x} \pm 3\sigma \rightarrow (99\%)$$

سما

لوانا اعم وحدة لمارد
ال interval بكونه 95%

- 1) Normal distributed
- 2) $n > 30$

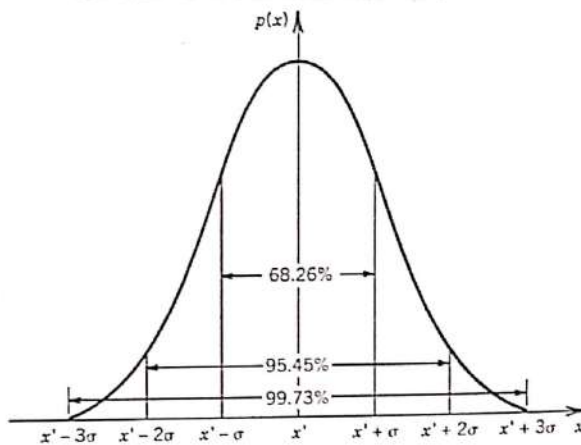


Figure 4.4 Relationship between the probability density function and its statistical parameters, x' and σ , for a normal (gaussian) distribution.

$$x' - z_1 \sigma \leq x \leq x' + z_1 \sigma$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ll} z_1 = 1, & 68.26\% \text{ of the area under } p(x) \text{ lies within } \pm z_1 \sigma \text{ of } x'. \\ z_1 = 2, & 95.45\% \text{ of the area under } p(x) \text{ lies within } \pm z_1 \sigma \text{ of } x'. \\ z_1 = 3, & 99.73\% \text{ of the area under } p(x) \text{ lies within } \pm z_1 \sigma \text{ of } x'. \end{array} \right]$$

$$x_i = x' \pm z \sigma \quad (p\%)$$

Example 4.2

Using the probability values in Table 4.3, show that the probability that a measurement will yield a value within $x' \pm \sigma$ is 0.6826 or 68.26%.

KNOWN Table 4.3

$$z_1 = 1$$

ASSUMPTIONS Data follow a normal distribution.

FIND $P(x' - \sigma \leq x \leq x' + \sigma)$

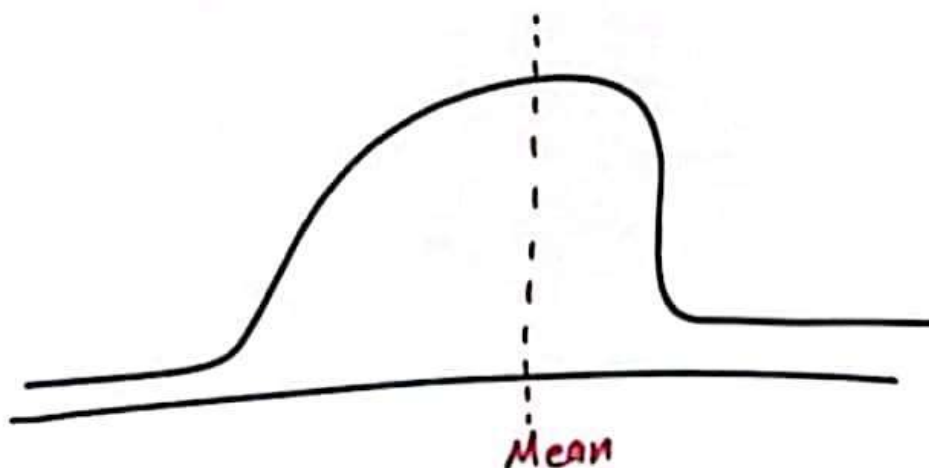
[2] $X_1, X_2, X_3 \dots X_n$ (normal)

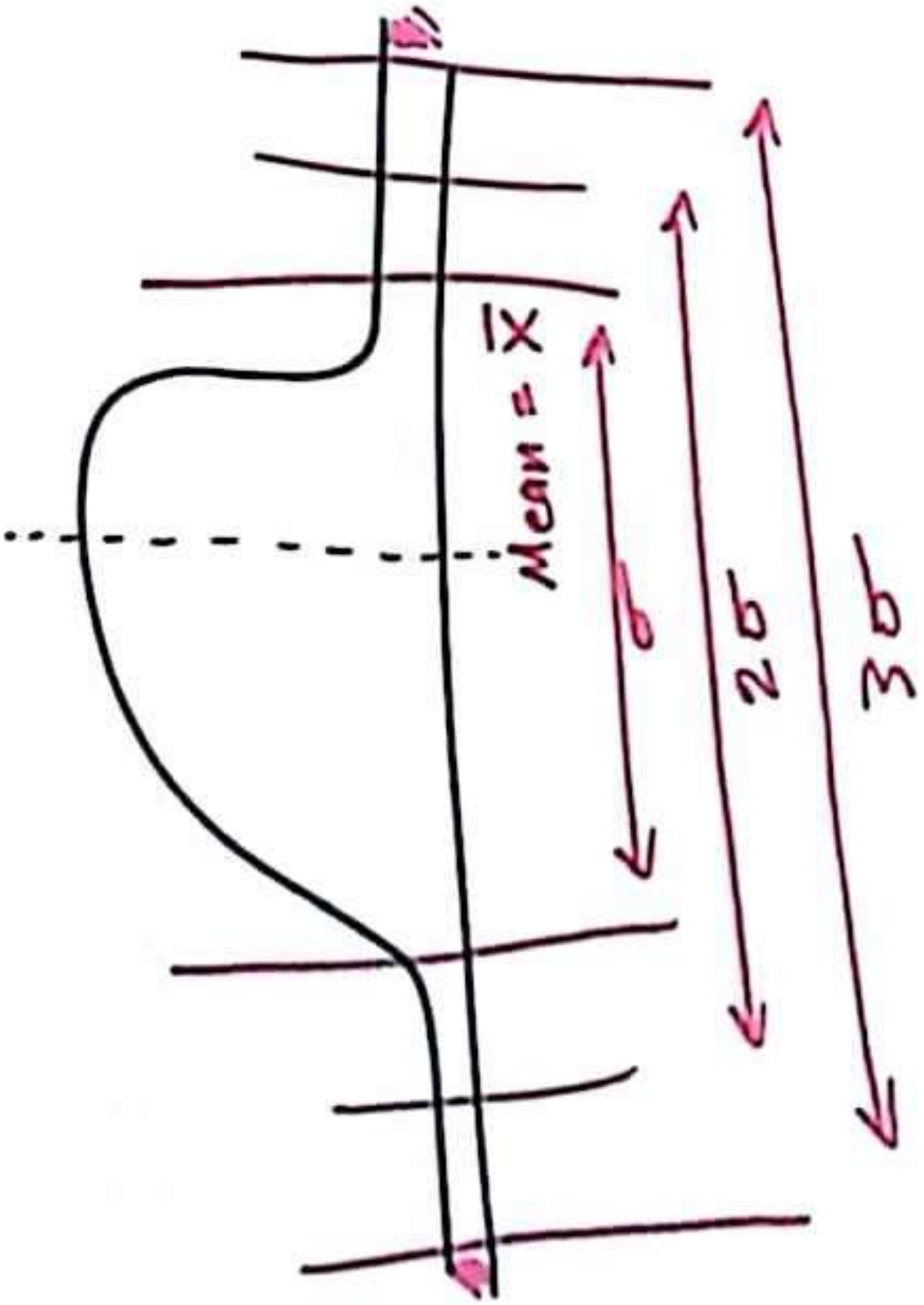
$$\rightarrow \textcircled{X'} = X' \pm \textcircled{\bar{z}} \sigma \quad (\underline{P\%})$$

- True value
- estimate $\bar{X}$

normal distribution

$X' \pm \underline{1}\sigma$	(<u>68.27%</u>)	precision interval
$X' \pm \underline{2}\sigma$	(<u>95.45%</u>)	
$X' \pm \underline{3}\sigma$	(<u>99.73%</u>)	
$X' \pm \underline{0.674}\sigma$	(<u>50%</u>)	





SOLUTION To estimate the probability that a single measurement will have a value within some interval, we need to solve the integral

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_0^{z_1=1} e^{-\beta^2/2} d\beta$$

over the interval defined by z_1 . Table 4.3 lists the solutions for this integral. Using Table 4.3 for $z_1 = 1$, we find $P(z_1) = 0.3413$. However, since $z_1 = (x_1 - x')/\sigma$, the probability that any measurement of x will produce a value within the interval $0 \leq x \leq x' + \sigma$ is 34.13%. Since the normal distribution is symmetric about x' , the probability that x will fall within the interval defined between $-z_1\sigma$ and $+z_1\sigma$ for $z_1 = 1$ is $(2)(0.3413) = 0.6826$ or 68.26%. Accordingly, if we made a single measurement of x , the probability that the value found would lie within the interval $x' - \sigma \leq x \leq x' + \sigma$ would be 68.26%.

COMMENT Similarly, for $z_1 = 1.96$, the probability would be 95.0%.

Example 4.3

The statistics of a well-defined varying voltage signal are given by $x' = 8.5$ V and $\sigma^2 = 2.25$ V². If a single measurement of the voltage signal is made, determine the probability that the measured value indicated will be between 10.0 and 11.5 V.

KNOWN $x' = 8.5$ V
 $\sigma^2 = 2.25$ V²

ASSUMPTIONS Signal has a normal distribution about x' .

FIND $P(10.0 \leq x \leq 11.5)$

SOLUTION To find the probability that x will fall into the interval $10.0 \leq x \leq 11.5$ requires finding the area under $p(x)$ bounded by this interval. The standard deviation of the variable is $\sigma = \sqrt{\sigma^2} = 1.5$ V, so our interval falls under the portion of the $p(x)$ curve bounded by $z_1 = (10.0 - 8.5)/1.5 = 1$ and $z_1 = (11.5 - 8.5)/1.5 = 2$. From Table 4.3, the probability that a value will fall between $8.5 \leq x \leq 10.0$ is $P(8.5 \leq x \leq 10.0) = P(z_1 = 1) = 0.3413$. For the interval defined by $8.5 \leq x \leq 11.5$, $P(8.5 \leq x \leq 11.5) = P(z_1 = 2) = 0.4772$. The area we need is just the overlap of these two intervals, so

$$P(10.0 \leq x \leq 11.5) = P(8.5 \leq x \leq 11.5) - P(8.5 \leq x \leq 10.0) \\ = 0.4772 - 0.3413 = 0.1359$$

So there is a 13.59% probability that the measurement will yield a value between 10.0 and 11.5 V.

COMMENT In general, the probability that a measured value will lie within an interval defined by any two values of z_1 , such as z_a and z_b , is found by integrating $p(x)$ between z_a and z_b . For a normal density function, this probability is identical to the operation, $P(z_b) - P(z_a)$.

3. If $x \sim N$ finite data set
 s_x is $\bar{x}$ sample

Finite-sized data sets provide the statistical estimates known as the *sample mean value* ($\bar{x}$), the *sample variance* (s_x^2), and its outcome, the *sample standard deviation* (s_x), defined by

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N x_i \quad (4.14a)$$

$$s_x^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \quad (4.14b)$$

$$s_x = \sqrt{s_x^2} = \left(\frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \right)^{1/2} \quad (4.14c)$$

the finite statistical estimates and the statistics based on an assumed $p(x)$. For a normal distribution of x about some sample mean value, $\bar{x}$, we can state that statistically

$$x_i = \bar{x} \pm t_{v,p} s_x \quad (P\%) \quad (4.15)$$

where the variable $t_{v,p}$ provides a coverage factor used for finite data sets and which replaces the z variable. This new variable is referred to as the *Student's t variable*,

$$t = \frac{\bar{x} - x'}{s_x / \sqrt{N}} \quad (4.16)$$

The interval $\pm t_{v,p} s_x$ represents a precision interval, given at probability $P\%$, within which one should expect any measured value to fall.

$$x_i = \bar{x} \pm t_{vp} \cdot s_x$$

v : decrease of freedom = $N - 1$
 p : probability.

Table 4.4 Student's t Distribution

ν	t_{50}	t_{90}	t_{95}	t_{99}
1	1.000	6.314	12.706	63.657
2	0.816	2.920	4.303	9.925
3	0.765	2.353	3.182	5.841
4	0.741	2.132	2.770	4.604
5	0.727	2.015	2.571	4.032
6	0.718	1.943	2.447	3.707
7	0.711	1.895	2.365	3.499
8	0.706	1.860	2.306	3.355
9	0.703	1.833	2.262	3.250
10	0.700	1.812	2.228	3.169
11	0.697	1.796	2.201	3.106
12	0.695	1.782	2.179	3.055
13	0.694	1.771	2.160	3.012
14	0.692	1.761	2.145	2.977
15	0.691	1.753	2.131	2.947
16	0.690	1.746	2.120	2.921
17	0.689	1.740	2.110	2.898
18	0.688	1.734	2.101	2.878
19	0.688	1.729	2.093	2.861
20	0.687	1.725	2.086	2.845
21	0.686	1.721	2.080	2.831
30	0.683	1.697	2.042	2.750
40	0.681	1.684	2.021	2.704
50	0.680	1.679	2.010	2.679
60	0.679	1.671	2.000	2.660
∞	0.674	1.645	1.960	2.576

The value for the t estimator provides a coverage factor that is a function of the probability, P , and the degrees of freedom in the data set, $\nu = N - 1$. These t values can be obtained from Table 4.4, developed by William S. Gosset⁵ (1876).

Table 4.3 Probability Values for Normal Error Function One-Sided Integral Solutions for $\mu = 1$

$z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.09
0.0	0.5000	0.5040	0.5080	0.5120	0.5160	0.5199	0.5239	0.5279	0.5319	0.5359
0.1	0.5398	0.5438	0.5478	0.5517	0.5557	0.5596	0.5636	0.5675	0.5714	0.5753
0.2	0.5793	0.5832	0.5871	0.5910	0.5948	0.5987	0.6026	0.6064	0.6103	0.6141
0.3	0.6179	0.6217	0.6255	0.6293	0.6331	0.6368	0.6406	0.6443	0.6480	0.6517
0.4	0.6554	0.6591	0.6628	0.6664	0.6700	0.6736	0.6772	0.6808	0.6844	0.6879
0.5	0.6915	0.6950	0.6985	0.7019	0.7054	0.7088	0.7123	0.7157	0.7190	0.7224
0.6	0.7257	0.7291	0.7324	0.7357	0.7389	0.7422	0.7454	0.7486	0.7517	0.7549
0.7	0.7580	0.7611	0.7642	0.7673	0.7704	0.7734	0.7764	0.7794	0.7824	0.7853
0.8	0.7881	0.7910	0.7939	0.7967	0.7995	0.8023	0.8051	0.8078	0.8106	0.8133
0.9	0.8159	0.8186	0.8212	0.8238	0.8264	0.8289	0.8315	0.8340	0.8365	0.8389
1.0	0.8413	0.8438	0.8461	0.8485	0.8508	0.8531	0.8554	0.8577	0.8599	0.8621
1.1	0.8643	0.8665	0.8686	0.8708	0.8729	0.8749	0.8770	0.8790	0.8810	0.8830
1.2	0.8849	0.8869	0.8888	0.8907	0.8925	0.8944	0.8962	0.8980	0.8997	0.9015
1.3	0.9032	0.9049	0.9066	0.9082	0.9099	0.9115	0.9131	0.9147	0.9162	0.9177
1.4	0.9192	0.9207	0.9222	0.9236	0.9251	0.9265	0.9279	0.9292	0.9306	0.9319
1.5	0.9332	0.9345	0.9357	0.9370	0.9382	0.9394	0.9406	0.9418	0.9429	0.9441
1.6	0.9452	0.9463	0.9474	0.9484	0.9495	0.9505	0.9515	0.9525	0.9535	0.9545
1.7	0.9554	0.9564	0.9573	0.9582	0.9591	0.9599	0.9608	0.9616	0.9625	0.9633
1.8	0.9641	0.9649	0.9656	0.9664	0.9671	0.9678	0.9686	0.9693	0.9699	0.9706
1.9	0.9713	0.9719	0.9726	0.9732	0.9738	0.9744	0.9750	0.9758	0.9761	0.9767
2.0	0.9772	0.9778	0.9783	0.9788	0.9793	0.9799	0.9803	0.9808	0.9812	0.9817
2.1	0.9821	0.9826	0.9830	0.9834	0.9838	0.9842	0.9846	0.9850	0.9854	0.9857
2.2	0.9861	0.9864	0.9868	0.9871	0.9875	0.9878	0.9881	0.9884	0.9887	0.9890
2.3	0.9893	0.9896	0.9898	0.9901	0.9904	0.9906	0.9909	0.9911	0.9913	0.9916
2.4	0.9918	0.9920	0.9922	0.9925	0.9927	0.9929	0.9931	0.9932	0.9934	0.9936
2.5	0.9938	0.9940	0.9941	0.9943	0.9945	0.9946	0.9948	0.9949	0.9951	0.9952
2.6	0.9953	0.9955	0.9956	0.9957	0.9959	0.9960	0.9961	0.9962	0.9963	0.9964
2.7	0.9965	0.9966	0.9967	0.9968	0.9969	0.9970	0.9971	0.9972	0.9973	0.9974
2.8	0.9975	0.9976	0.9977	0.9977	0.9977	0.9978	0.9979	0.9979	0.9980	0.9981
2.9	0.9981	0.9982	0.9982	0.9983	0.9984	0.9984	0.9985	0.9985	0.9986	0.9986
3.0	0.9987	0.9987	0.9987	0.9988	0.9988	0.9988	0.9989	0.9989	0.9989	0.9990

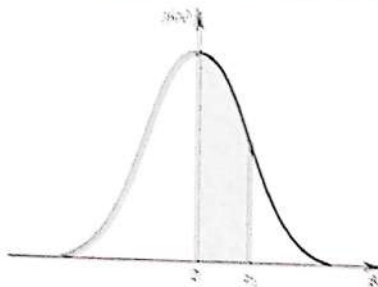


Figure 4.3 Integration terminology for the normal error function and Table 4.3.

* (سواله) لو مندي انه احتمال اي قراده بهي ارضه صا مع طلاه بيخ

$$x + 16 \quad (68\%)$$

لو بهي اخذ احتمال لقراديت اي بهي صراا

$$1 - \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}$$

بغير مفريند

normal distribution of the sample mean values about the true mean. The variance of the distribution of mean values that could be expected can be estimated from a single finite data set through the standard deviation of the means, $s_{\bar{x}}$:

$$s_{\bar{x}} = \frac{s_x}{\sqrt{N}}$$

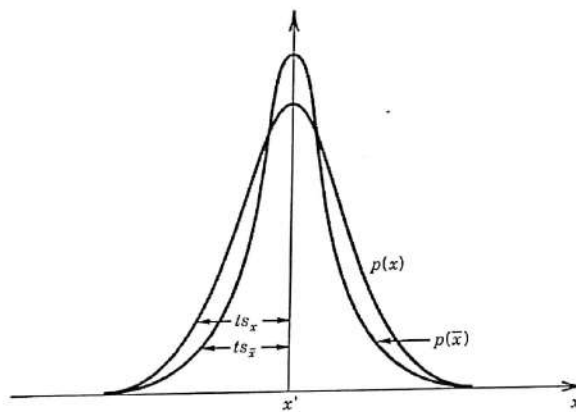
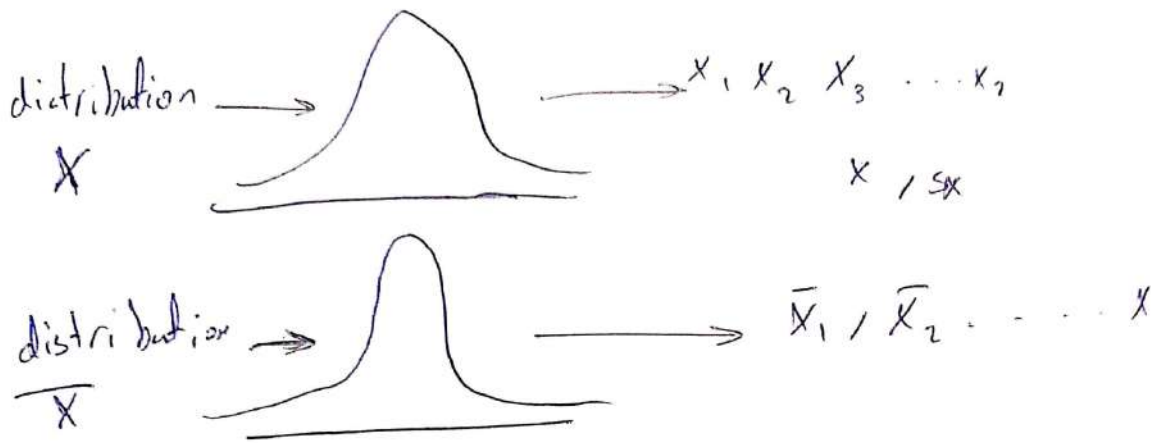


Figure 4.6 Relationships between s_x and the distribution of x and between $s_{\bar{x}}$ and the true value x' .

So how good is the estimate of the true mean of a variable based on a finite-sized sample? The standard deviation of the means represents a measure of how well a measured mean value represents the true mean of the population. The range over which the possible values of the true mean value might lie at some probability level P based on the information from a sample data set is given as

$$\bar{x} \pm t_{v,P} s_{\bar{x}} \quad (P\%) \quad (4.18)$$

3 $X_1, X_2, X_3 \dots X_N$ finite dataset

$$X^1 \rightarrow \bar{X} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N X_i$$

$$\sigma^2 \rightarrow S_X^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{i=1}^N (X_i - \bar{X})^2$$

$$S_X = \sqrt{S_X^2}$$

variance ← تفریع
standard deviation ← بدون

$$X_i = \bar{X} \pm t_{v,p} \cdot S_X \quad (p\%)$$

degree of freedom
 $v = [N-1]$

Example 4.4

Consider the data of Table 4.1. (a) Compute the sample statistics for this data set. (b) Estimate the interval of values over which 95% of the measurements of x should be expected to lie. (c) Estimate the true mean value of x at 95% probability based on this finite data set.

KNOWN Table 4.1

$$N = 20$$

ASSUMPTIONS Data set follows a normal distribution.
No systematic errors.

FIND $\bar{x}, \bar{x} \pm t_{v,95} s_x$, and $\bar{x} \pm t_{v,95} s_{\bar{x}}$

SOLUTION The sample mean value is computed for the $N = 20$ values by the relation

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{20} \sum_{i=1}^{20} x_i = 1.02$$

This, in turn, is used to compute the sample standard deviation

$$s_x = \left[\frac{1}{19} \sum_{i=1}^{20} (x_i - \bar{x})^2 \right]^{1/2} = 0.16$$

The degrees of freedom in the data set is $v = N - 1 = 19$. From Table 4.4 at 95% probability, $t_{19,95} = 2.093$. Then, the interval of values in which 95% of the measurements of x should lie is given by Equation 4.15:

$$x_i = 1.02 \pm (2.093 \times 0.16) = 1.02 \pm 0.33 \quad (95\%)$$

Accordingly, if a 21st data point were taken, there is a 95% probability that its value would lie between 0.69 and 1.35.

The true mean value is estimated by the sample mean value. However, the random uncertainty at 95% probability for this estimate is $t_{19,95} s_{\bar{x}}$, where

$$s_{\bar{x}} = \frac{s_x}{\sqrt{N}} = \frac{0.16}{\sqrt{20}} = 0.036 \approx 0.04$$

Then, in the absence of systematic errors, we write, from Equation 4.19,

$$x' = \bar{x} \pm t_{19,95} s_{\bar{x}} = 1.02 \pm 0.08 \quad (95\%)$$

So at 95% confidence, the true mean value lies between 0.94 and 1.10. Program *Finite-population.vi* demonstrates the effect of sample size on the histogram and the statistics of the data set.

4.

$$\bar{x} \pm t_{v,p} \cdot s_{\bar{x}}$$

$$s_{\bar{x}} = \frac{s_x}{\sqrt{N}}$$

S_i ~~the~~ pooled statistics

استدلال
تكراري

$$\begin{cases} R \rightarrow X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_N \\ B \rightarrow X_1, X_2, \dots, X_N \\ M \rightarrow X_1, \dots, X_N \\ \vdots \\ M \end{cases}$$

Repetitions

Replicability

$$\bar{\bar{X}} \pm t \cdot S_{\bar{\bar{X}}} (p\%)$$

pooled mean

pooled standard deviation

إذا ما كاننا في فترة (p%) سنستخدم (95%)

$$\bar{\bar{X}} = \frac{\sum \sum X_{ij}}{MN}$$

بعد استخدام هذا القانون

لوكالة السفر الأولى والثانية على مجموعة من الأفراد

- 1) $\rightarrow 5$
- 2) $\rightarrow 5$
- 3) $\rightarrow 5$

بالمكان الأول والثاني والثالث

$$\frac{\text{جميع الأفراد}}{\text{عددهم}} = \bar{\bar{X}}$$

Pooled Statistics

The pooled standard deviation of x is defined by

$$(s_x) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{M(N-1)} \sum_{j=1}^M \sum_{i=1}^N (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_j)^2} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{M} \sum_{j=1}^M s_{x_j}^2}$$

with degrees of freedom $\nu = \sum_{j=1}^M \nu_j = \sum_{j=1}^M (N_j - 1)$, and the pooled standard deviation of the means is given by

$$(s_{\bar{x}}) = \frac{(s_x)}{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^M N_j}} \quad (4.25)$$

$$\hat{\Sigma}_{\bar{x}} = \frac{S_x \rightarrow \text{std deviation}}{\sqrt{M N}}$$

$$\nu = M(N-1)$$

$$S_{\bar{X}} = \frac{S_X}{\sqrt{n}}$$

standard error of Means

$$X' = \bar{X} \pm t_{v,p} \cdot (S_{\bar{X}}) \quad (p\%)$$

↓
Point estimate

↓
Precision interval of mean

[5] Pooled stats.

$$\bar{\bar{X}} = \frac{1}{MN} \sum_{j=1}^M \sum_{i=1}^N X_{ij}$$

↓
Pooled mean

↓
Repotitions

↓
Replications

	$\bar{X}_1$	$\bar{X}_2$	$\bar{X}_3$
N_1	N_2	N_3	
$\bar{Y}$			
S_X			
$S_{\bar{X}}$			
20	20	20	20

Pooled

$$S_{\bar{\bar{X}}} = \frac{S_X}{\sqrt{MN}}$$

↓
Pooled standard

$$S_X = \sqrt{\frac{1}{M} \sum S_X^2}$$

⊕ cont pooled stats:-

$$X_i = \bar{\bar{X}} \pm t_{v,p} (S_{\bar{X}})$$

$\hookrightarrow v = n(n-1)$

6] precision interval for sample variance:

$$v. \frac{s^2}{\chi^2_{2.5\%}} \leq \sigma^2 \leq v. \frac{s^2}{\chi^2_{97.5\%}} \quad (95\%)$$

$\downarrow$ $N-1$
 $\downarrow$ $N-1$

7] data outlier Detection

↳ How to reject a measurement reading

$$\textcircled{1} \bar{X} \pm t_{v, 99.8\%} \cdot s_x = X_i$$

↳ if X_i outside PI → reject this reading

$$\textcircled{2} z_0 = \left| \frac{X_i - \bar{X}}{s_x} \right|$$

$$\textcircled{3} p(z_0) = p \quad (0 < z < z_0) \quad \text{inside test}$$

$$\textcircled{4} p_a = 1 - \frac{1}{2N}$$

↳ If $p(z_0) > p_a$ → reject reading

↑ X

$$\textcircled{1} \bar{X} \pm t_{v, 99.8\%} \cdot s_x = \dots$$

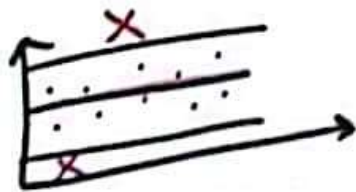
$\leadsto$ if x_i outside PI $\rightarrow$ reject this reading

$$\textcircled{2} z_0 = \left| \frac{x_i - \bar{X}}{s_x} \right| \quad \text{z}_0$$

$$\textcircled{3} p(z_0) = p \quad (0 < z < z_0) \quad \text{inside test}$$

$$\textcircled{4} \underline{p_a} = 1 - \frac{1}{2N}$$

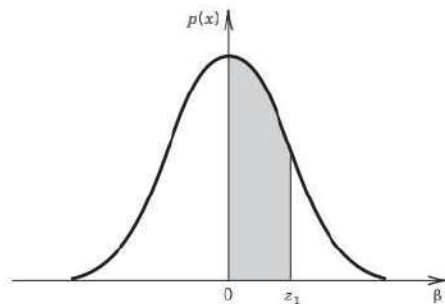
$\leadsto$ If $p(z_0) > p_a \leadsto$ reject reading



problems

Table 4.3 Probability Values for Normal Error Function: One-Sided Integral Solutions for $p(z_1) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{1/2}} \int_0^{z_1} e^{-\beta^2/2} d\beta$

$z_1 = \frac{x_1 - x'}{\sigma}$	0.00	0.01	0.02	0.03	0.04	0.05	0.06	0.07	0.08	0.09
0.0	0.0000	0.0040	0.0080	0.0120	0.0160	0.0199	0.0239	0.0279	0.0319	0.0359
0.1	0.0398	0.0438	0.0478	0.0517	0.0557	0.0596	0.0636	0.0675	0.0714	0.0753
0.2	0.0793	0.0832	0.0871	0.0910	0.0948	0.0987	0.1026	0.1064	0.1103	0.1141
0.3	0.1179	0.1217	0.1255	0.1293	0.1331	0.1368	0.1406	0.1443	0.1480	0.1517
0.4	0.1554	0.1591	0.1628	0.1664	0.1700	0.1736	0.1772	0.1809	0.1844	0.1879
0.5	0.1915	0.1950	0.1985	0.2019	0.2054	0.2088	0.2123	0.2157	0.2190	0.2224
0.6	0.2257	0.2291	0.2324	0.2357	0.2389	0.2422	0.2454	0.2486	0.2517	0.2549
0.7	0.2580	0.2611	0.2642	0.2673	0.2794	0.2734	0.2764	0.2794	0.2823	0.2852
0.8	0.2881	0.2910	0.2939	0.2967	0.2995	0.3023	0.3051	0.3078	0.3106	0.3133
0.9	0.3159	0.3186	0.3212	0.3238	0.3264	0.3289	0.3315	0.3340	0.3365	0.3389
1.0	0.3413	0.3438	0.3461	0.3485	0.3508	0.3531	0.3554	0.3577	0.3599	0.3621
1.1	0.3643	0.3665	0.3686	0.3708	0.3729	0.3749	0.3770	0.3790	0.3810	0.3830
1.2	0.3849	0.3869	0.3888	0.3907	0.3925	0.3944	0.3962	0.3980	0.3997	0.4015
1.3	0.4032	0.4049	0.4066	0.4082	0.4099	0.4115	0.4131	0.4147	0.4162	0.4177
1.4	0.4192	0.4207	0.4222	0.4236	0.4251	0.4265	0.4279	0.4292	0.4306	0.4319
1.5	0.4332	0.4345	0.4357	0.4370	0.4382	0.4394	0.4406	0.4418	0.4429	0.4441
1.6	0.4452	0.4463	0.4474	0.4484	0.4495	0.4505	0.4515	0.4525	0.4535	0.4545
1.7	0.4554	0.4564	0.4573	0.4582	0.4591	0.4599	0.4608	0.4616	0.4625	0.4633
1.8	0.4641	0.4649	0.4656	0.4664	0.4671	0.4678	0.4686	0.4693	0.4699	0.4706
1.9	0.4713	0.4719	0.4726	0.4732	0.4738	0.4744	0.4750	0.4758	0.4761	0.4767
2.0	0.4772	0.4778	0.4803	0.4788	0.4793	0.4799	0.4803	0.4808	0.4812	0.4817
2.1	0.4821	0.4826	0.4830	0.4834	0.4838	0.4842	0.4846	0.4850	0.4854	0.4857
2.2	0.4861	0.4864	0.4868	0.4871	0.4875	0.4878	0.4881	0.4884	0.4887	0.4890
2.3	0.4893	0.4896	0.4898	0.4901	0.4904	0.4906	0.4909	0.4911	0.4913	0.4916
2.4	0.4918	0.4920	0.4922	0.4925	0.4927	0.4929	0.4931	0.4932	0.4934	0.4936
2.5	0.4938	0.4940	0.4941	0.4943	0.4945	0.4946	0.4948	0.4949	0.4951	0.4952
2.6	0.4953	0.4955	0.4956	0.4957	0.4959	0.4960	0.4961	0.4962	0.4963	0.4964
2.7	0.4965	0.4966	0.4967	0.4968	0.4969	0.4970	0.4971	0.4972	0.4973	0.4974
2.8	0.4974	0.4975	0.4976	0.4977	0.4977	0.4978	0.4979	0.4979	0.4980	0.4981
2.9	0.4981	0.4982	0.4982	0.4983	0.4984	0.4984	0.4985	0.4985	0.4986	0.4986
3.0	0.49865	0.4987	0.4987	0.4988	0.4988	0.4988	0.4989	0.4989	0.4989	0.4990

**Figure 4.3** Integration terminology for the normal error function and Table 4.3.

4.1 $X_i = \text{---} \pm \text{---} \text{---} (P\%)$

حسابي Large data ففورا بحكي هاي normal

$X \rightarrow \text{normal}$

50%

$\bar{x} = 9.2$

السؤال طالب ال range ومعطيك هاي المعطيات

$\sigma = 1.1$

مجرد ما السؤال حكاك normal بتضلك رايح على هاي العلاقة

$X_i = \bar{x} \pm z\sigma \quad (P\%)$

$= 9.2 \pm [0.674 * 1.1] \quad (50\%)$

نسبة 50% حافظينها

$X_i = 9.2 \pm \frac{0.7414}{u\bar{x}} \quad (50\%)$

لاحظ كلما زاد precision زاد u

$X_i = 9.2 \pm [2 * 1.1] \quad (95\%)$

$X_i = 9.2 \pm \frac{2.2}{u\bar{x}} \quad (95\%)$

Case 2

4.2

$X \rightarrow \text{normal}$
 $\bar{X} = 192$
 $\sigma = 10$



$$X_i = \bar{X} \pm z \sigma \quad (90\%)$$
$$= 192 \pm [\quad * 10] \quad (90\%)$$

$$\left| \frac{90\%}{2} = 45\% \right.$$
$$\boxed{0.45}$$

کمان طالب Range

case 2

4.2

$$\begin{aligned}
 \bar{X} & \pm z \sigma \quad (90\%) \\
 X_i & = 192 \pm [1.645 * 10] \quad (90\%) \\
 & = 192 \pm 16.45 \quad (90\%) \\
 X_i & = 192 \pm 16.45 \quad (90\%) = 45\%
 \end{aligned}$$

اذا طلب السؤال range وحكالي
 فوراً large sample size
 بروح على سكرشن ٢ تاغ النورمل

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{area } 0.4495 \rightarrow 1.645 \\
 & \text{area } 0.4505 \rightarrow 1.65 \\
 & \frac{0.4505 - 0.4495}{0.4505 - 0.4495} = \frac{1.65 - 1.64}{1.65 - 1.64} \\
 & X = 1.645
 \end{aligned}$$

case 2

4.3

$$\bar{x} = 121.6 \text{ psi}$$

$$\sigma = 14 \text{ psi}$$

$$P(X_i > 150)$$

$$\frac{x_i - \bar{x}}{\sigma}$$

$$z = \frac{150 - 121.6}{14} = 2.02857$$

$$z = \frac{150 - 121.6}{14}$$

$$z = 2.02857$$

طالب هان الاحتمالية للأكبر من 150

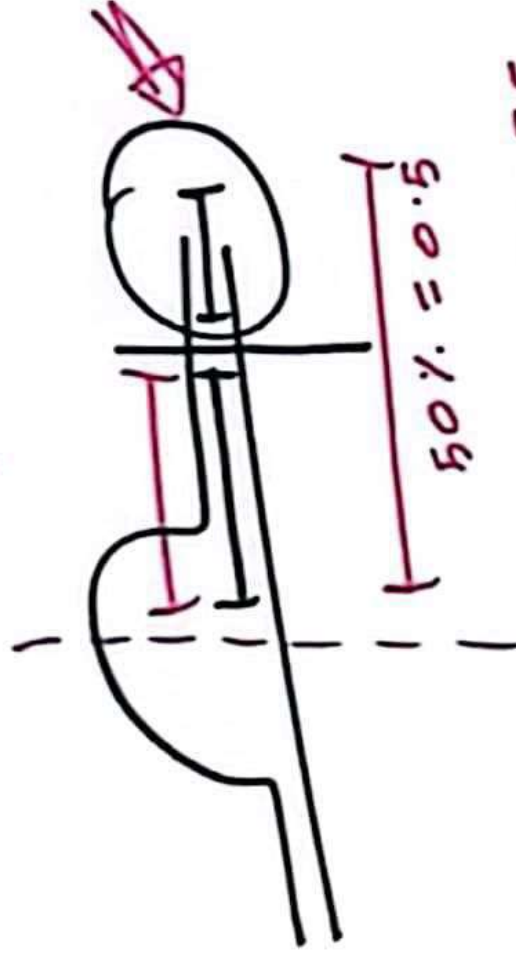
case 7.2

تابع الفرع السابق

$$P(2.02857) = 0.47855$$

one side

50%



$$P(x_i > 150) = 0.5 - 0.47855$$

=

0.0213

لأنها upper

one side وهون 0.5 من

عشان هيك مش من 1

4.9 $\bar{X}$, SX ,

F_1

$$\bar{X} = 50.465$$

$$SX = 0.972$$

$$S\bar{X} = \frac{SX}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{0.972}{\sqrt{20}}$$

$$S\bar{X} = 0.2173$$

F_2

$$\bar{X} = 50.68$$

$$SX = 1.17679$$

$$S\bar{X} = 0.2631$$

F_3

$$\bar{X} = 50.640$$

$$SX = 0.9817$$

$$S\bar{X} = 0.219$$

$$v = N - 1 = 20 - 1 = 19$$

هذا السؤال كان معطي قيم بس وطالب تحسبله x و s وسيجما تاع الايرور كل من الحاسبة وكمان طالب $d.f$ واللي هي هون 19

4.8.1
error within samples and between
samples [precision and random
error]

الفرع الثاني من السؤال السابق بقلبي لو
عملت Histogram هل يحياثر الاجابة فوق

ملاحظة اذا كان هان $n \leq 20$ نستخدم s
واذا كان $n > 20$ نستخدم σ

اذا حكاالي السؤال عينات كثيرة large sample يعني normal
اذا قلبي قليل او $n \leq 20$ اذن finite

Table 4.4 Student's t Distribution

ν	t_{50}	t_{90}	t_{95}	t_{99}
1	1.000	6.314	12.706	63.657
2	0.816	2.920	4.303	9.925
3	0.765	2.353	3.182	5.841
4	0.741	2.132	2.770	4.604
5	0.727	2.015	2.571	4.032
6	0.718	1.943	2.447	3.707
7	0.711	1.895	2.365	3.499
8	0.706	1.860	2.306	3.355
9	0.703	1.833	2.262	3.250
10	0.700	1.812	2.228	3.169
11	0.697	1.796	2.201	3.106
12	0.695	1.782	2.179	3.055
13	0.694	1.771	2.160	3.012
14	0.692	1.761	2.145	2.977
15	0.691	1.753	2.131	2.947
16	0.690	1.746	2.120	2.921
17	0.689	1.740	2.110	2.898
18	0.688	1.734	2.101	2.878
19	0.688	1.729	2.093	2.861
20	0.687	1.725	2.086	2.845
21	0.686	1.721	2.080	2.831
30	0.683	1.697	2.042	2.750
40	0.681	1.684	2.021	2.704
50	0.680	1.679	2.010	2.679
60	0.679	1.671	2.000	2.660
∞	0.674	1.645	1.960	2.576

The value for the t estimator provides a coverage factor that is a function of the probability, P , and the degrees of freedom in the data set, $\nu = N - 1$. These t values can be obtained from Table 4.4, which is a tabulation from the *Student's t distribution* as developed by William S. Gosset⁵ (1876–1937). Gossett recognized that the use of the z variable with s_x in place of σ did not yield accurate estimates of the precision interval, particularly at small degrees of freedom. Careful inspection of Table 4.4 shows that the t value inflates the size of the interval required to attain a percent probability, $P\%$. That is, it has the effect of increasing the magnitude of $t_{\nu,P}s_x$ relative to $z_1\sigma$ at a desired probability. As the value of N increases, t approaches those values given by the z variable just as the value of s_x must approach σ . It should be understood that for very small sample sizes ($N \leq 10$), sample statistics can be misleading. In that situation other information regarding the measurement may be required, including additional measurements.

⁵ At the time, Gosset was employed as a brewer and statistician by a well-known Irish brewery. You might pause to reflect on his multifarious contributions.

4.11

$p = 95\%$

σ_x	z_x
$s_x \checkmark$	$t_v \checkmark$
(95%)	

$$X_i = \frac{\pm}{\bar{x}} \pm \frac{t_{v,p} \cdot s_x}{(95\%)}$$

$$F_1 \rightarrow X_i = 50.465 \pm [t_{19,95\%} \cdot 0.972]$$

$$= 50.465 \pm [2.093 \cdot 0.972]$$

$$X_{i_{F_1}} = 50.465 \pm 2.034 \quad (95\%)$$

$$F_2 \rightarrow X_i = 50.680 \pm 2.093 \cdot 1.1768$$

بناءً كمان على الفرع السابق طالب مني ال Range
 ولاحظ انه $n \leq 20$ لهيك يعتبر انه finite

$$F_3 \rightarrow X_i = 50.640 \pm 2.093 \cdot 0.9917$$

Case 3

$$\boxed{4.12} \quad X' = \bar{X} \pm t_{19, 95\%} \cdot S\bar{X}$$

CI →

$$F_1 \rightarrow X' = 50.465 \pm (2.093 \times 0.2173)$$

$$F_2 \rightarrow X' = 50.680 \pm (2.093 \times 0.2631)$$

$$F_3 \rightarrow X' = 50.640 \pm (2.093 \times 0.219)$$

إذا جابلك سيرة CI أو قلق point estimate بتشتغل على هذا
وهذا تابع للفرع السابق طالب point estimate

Case 4

↓ variability, ↓ s_x , ↑ N ←
 s_x ~ CI ←

case 4

إذا طلب CI او estimate فورا بقول هاي case

الا في حالة ذكر fall بقول فورا هاي كالصفحة التالية

4.13

case 7.1

Fall
SX ←
SX _{new}

$$Xi = \bar{X} \pm t_{v,p} \cdot SX$$

$$= 50.640 \pm 2.093 * 0.9817 \quad (95\%)$$

$$= 50.640 \pm 2.055$$

case 7 1

pooled

4.14

$$X_i = \bar{X} \pm t_{v,p} S\bar{X}$$

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\bar{X}_{F1} + \bar{X}_{F2} + \bar{X}_{F3}}{3}$$

pooled mean

$$= \frac{50.465 + 50.68 + 50.64}{3}$$

$$\bar{X} = 50.595$$

$$S_X = \frac{0.972 + 1.176 + 0.981}{3}$$

$$S\bar{X} = \frac{S_X}{\sqrt{MN}}$$

case 5

$$\bar{X} = 50.595$$

$$s_x = \frac{0.972 + 1.176 + 0.981}{3}$$

$$s_x = 1.043$$

$$s_{\bar{X}} = \frac{s_x}{\sqrt{MN}}$$

$$s_{\bar{X}} = \frac{1.043}{\sqrt{3 \times 20}}$$

$$s_{\bar{X}} = 0.1346$$

$$\approx 0.135$$

$$\bar{X} = 50.595$$

$$s_x = \frac{0.972 + 1.176 + 0.981}{3}$$

$$s_x = 1.043$$

$$s_{\bar{x}} = \frac{1.043}{\sqrt{3 * 20}}$$

$$s_{\bar{x}} = 0.1346$$

$$s_{\bar{x}} \approx 0.135$$

$$X_i = \bar{X} \pm t_{v,p} * s_{\bar{x}}$$

$$X_i = 50.595 \pm 2.093 * 0.135$$

CI

(95%)

$$X_i = \bar{\bar{X}} \pm t_{v,p} * S\bar{X}$$

19, 95%.

$$X_i = 50.595 \pm 2.093 * 0.135 \quad (95\%)$$

CI

في حالة طلبني مقدار CI و Range
في هذا السؤال نفس الفكرة

1	923
2	932
3	908
4	932
5	919
6	916
7	927
8	931
9	926
10	923

$$X_i = \bar{X} \pm t_{v, p} * S_x \rightarrow 95\%$$

$\downarrow 10-1 = 9$

$$\bar{X} = 923.7$$

$$S_x = 7.718$$

$$X_i = 923.7 \pm (2.262) (7.718)$$

$$X_i = 923.7 \pm 17.458$$

$$906.242 \leq X_i \leq 941.158$$

السؤال طالب اوجد لي قيمة Range + حالي

انه اطرد القيم من الجدول يلي براته ، هسا انا بحسب العناصر واخترت t

لانه هي أقل من ٢٠ ، بعد هيك جبت الرينج الان اي قيمة بالجدول

مش من ضمن الفترة بحذفها

ch 5 Uncertainty analysis

5.1 (introduction)

the results! Uncertainty analysis provides a methodical approach to estimating the quality of the results from an anticipated test or from a completed test. This chapter focuses on how to estimate the "± what?" in a planned test or in a stated test result.)

يوفر تحليل عدم اليقين نظرية منهجية لتقدير جودة النتائج من تجربة المتوقع أو اختبار
الاستعداد (يركز هذا الفصل على كيفية تقدير "مادائني اختبار المعطيات أو في نتيجة
اختبار معلنة

- error are property of the measurement.
- Uncertainty is a property of the result.
- error are effects and uncertainty are number

5.2 (Measurement error)

تذكرنا نوعين من Error :- (1) Random error : إلى حد بعيد البعث عن average $\bar{x}$
ويمكن يكونه موجب أو سالب ويقضي عليه من خلال N
Repitition (A) Replication (B)

(c) النوع الثاني هو systematic error - أدبيات القيمة بعيدة عن القيمة الحقيقية

وحدات النوع معبأ المتكافئة وينتج من طريقة :- A) calibration

B) cominant method

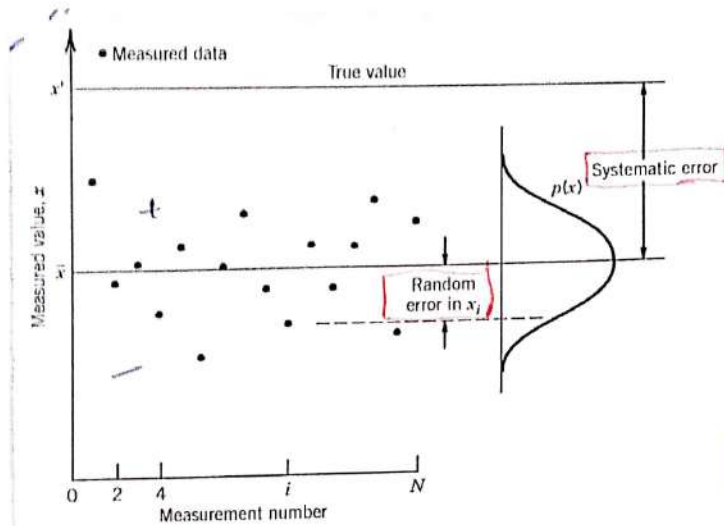


Figure 5.1 Distribution of errors on repeated measurements.

the uncertainty in that value,

$$(x' = \bar{x} \pm u_x \text{ (P\%)}) \quad (4.1)$$

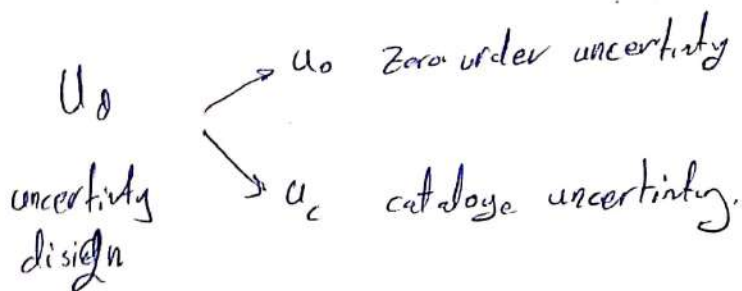
في هذا السطر ده يكونه داخل u_x كل انواع ال errors من نوع واحد فقط
زي السطر ال قبل .

$$x' = \bar{x} \pm u_x \text{ (P\%)} \quad \text{تذكر -}$$

$x' \rightarrow$ ~~precise~~ precise value

$u_x \rightarrow$ uncertainty.

(5.3) design-stage Uncertainty analysis



resolve the information provided by the instrument (This zero-order uncertainty of the instrument, u_0 , assumes that the variation expected in the measured values will be only that amount due to instrument resolution and that all other aspects of the measurement are perfectly controlled.)

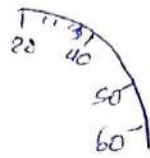
يفترض أنه الاختلاف المتوقع في القياس هو فقط نتيجة دقة القياس.
سبب قرار الأداة والتي يتم التعميم فيها من جوانب أخرى للقياس.

$$u_0 = \pm \frac{1}{2} \text{ resolution (95\%)}$$

$$\text{Resolution} = \frac{40 - 20}{4} = 5$$

$$u_0 = \pm \frac{1}{2} 5 (95\%)$$

$$u_0 = \pm 2.25 (95\%)$$



دقة القياس Resolution

$$\text{Resolution} = 0.01$$

20.20

$$u_0 = \pm 0.005 (95\%)$$

[The second piece of information that is usually available is the manufacturer's statement concerning instrument error. We can assign this stated value as the instrument uncertainty, u_e . Essentially, u_e is an estimate of the expected systematic uncertainty due to the instrument. If no probability level is provided with such information, a 95% level can be assumed.]

القطعة الثانية من المعلومات التي عادةً ما تكون متاحة لبيان الشركة الصانعة
فيما يتعلق بخطأ القياس (بما يمكننا تقديره error و uncertainty في القياس)
لو كانت احتمالية معلومة مثلاً 95%.

يمكن تقدير الخطأ لـ u_e أيضاً Resolution فيها لأنه إما تقريبي بين (9-10)

تأثير التقريب يكون ضعف من واحد كامل
والخطأ لـ u_e بناءً على دقة القياس Resolution

$$\text{مثلاً } 9.3 \sim 9.5$$

$$9.7 \sim 10$$

catalogue error

Combining Element Error: RSS Method (uncertainty propagation)

$$u_x = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \dots + u_k^2}$$

$$= \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^K u_k^2} \quad (P\%)$$

(95%)

نفسه كذا

u_c

catalogue error

Design-Stage Uncertainty

The design-stage uncertainty, u_d , for an instrument or measurement method is an interval found by combining the instrument uncertainty with the zero-order uncertainty.

$$u_d = \sqrt{u_0^2 + u_c^2} \quad (P\%) \rightarrow (95\%) \quad (5.3)$$

نفسه فوفه كنه اوجه ال u_d وال u_c كل اوجه u_d

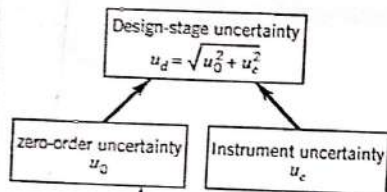


Figure 5.2 Design-stage uncertainty procedure in combining uncertainties.

اضداد للشخص منه اي جبراً فيم
القياس

اضداد منه
الأداة تقياس
القياس

Example 5.1

Consider the force measuring instrument described by the following catalog data. Provide an estimate of the uncertainty attributable to this instrument and the instrument design-stage uncertainty.

U_0	(Resolution:)	0.25 N	U_1
	Range:	0 to 100 N	
	Linearity error:	within 0.20 N over range	
	Hysteresis error:	within 0.30 N over range	

KNOWN Catalog specifications

U_2

ASSUMPTIONS Instrument uncertainty at 95% level; normal distribution

FIND u_c , u_d

SOLUTION We follow the procedure outlined in Figure 5.2. An estimate of the instrument uncertainty depends on the uncertainty assigned to each of the contributing elemental errors of linearity, e_1 , and hysteresis, e_2 , respectively assigned as

$$u_1 = 0.20 \text{ N} \quad u_2 = 0.30 \text{ N}$$

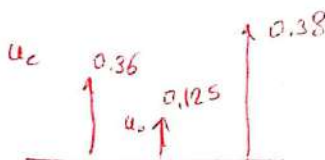
Then using Equation 5.2 with $K = 2$ yields

$$u_c = \sqrt{(0.20)^2 + (0.30)^2} \\ = 0.36 \text{ N}$$

The instrument resolution is given as 0.25 N, from which we assume $u_0 = 0.125 \text{ N}$. From Equation 5.3, the design-stage uncertainty of this instrument would be

$$\left(u_d = \sqrt{u_0^2 + u_c^2} = \sqrt{(0.125)^2 + (0.36)^2} \right) \\ = \pm 0.38 \text{ N} \quad (95\%)$$

COMMENT The design-stage uncertainty for this instrument is simply an estimate based on the "experience" on hand, in this case the manufacturer's specifications. Additional information might justify modifying these numbers or including additional known elemental errors into the analysis.



المؤثر هو أنه أكثر صغر

ال u_c

Example 5.2

A voltmeter is used to measure the electrical output signal from a pressure transducer. The nominal pressure is expected to be about 3 psi (3 lb/in.² = 0.2 bar). Estimate the design-stage uncertainty in this combination. The following information is available:

U_c	Voltmeter	U_0
	Resolution:	10 μV
	Accuracy:	within 0.001% of reading
	Transducer	
	Range:	$\pm 5 \text{ psi}$ ($\sim \pm 0.35 \text{ bar}$)
	Sensitivity:	1 V/psi
	Input power:	10 VDC $\pm 1\%$
	Output:	$\pm 5 \text{ V}$
	Linearity error:	within 2.5 mV/psi over range
	Sensitivity error:	within 2 mV/psi over range
	Resolution:	negligible

KNOWN Instrument specifications

ASSUMPTIONS Values at 95% probability; normal distribution of errors

FIND u_c for each device and u_d for the measurement system

SOLUTION The procedure in Figure 5.2 is used for both instruments to estimate the design-stage uncertainty in each. The resulting uncertainties are then combined using the RSS approximation to estimate the system u_d .

The uncertainty in the voltmeter at the design stage is given by Equation 5.3 as

$$(u_d)_E = \sqrt{(u_o)_E^2 + (u_c)_E^2}$$

From the information available,

$$(u_o)_E = 5 \mu\text{V}$$

For a nominal pressure of 3 psi, we expect to measure an output of 3 V. Then,

$$(u_c)_E = (3 \text{ V} \times 0.00001) = 30 \mu\text{V}$$

so that the design-stage uncertainty in the voltmeter is

$$(u_d)_E = 30.4 \mu\text{V}$$

The uncertainty in the pressure transducer output at the design stage is also found using Equation 5.2. Assuming that we operate within the input power range specified, the instrument output uncertainty can be estimated by considering the uncertainty in each of the instrument elemental errors of linearity, e_1 , and sensitivity, e_2 :

$$\begin{aligned} (u_c)_p &= \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2} \\ &= \sqrt{(2.5 \text{ mV/psi} \times 3 \text{ psi})^2 + (2 \text{ mV/psi} \times 3 \text{ psi})^2} \\ &= 9.61 \text{ mV} \end{aligned}$$

Since $(u_o) \approx 0 \text{ V/psi}$, the design-stage uncertainty in the transducer in terms of indicated voltage is $(u_d)_p = 9.61 \text{ mV}$.

Finally, u_d for the combined system is found by using the RSS method for the design-stage uncertainties of the two devices. The design-stage uncertainty in pressure as indicated by this measurement system is estimated to be

$$\begin{aligned} u_d &= \sqrt{(u_d)_E^2 + (u_d)_p^2} \\ &= \sqrt{(0.030 \text{ mV})^2 + (9.61 \text{ mV})^2} \\ &= \pm 9.61 \text{ mV} \quad (95\%) \end{aligned}$$

But since the sensitivity is 1 V/psi, the uncertainty in pressure can be stated as

$$u_d = \pm 0.0096 \text{ psi} \quad (95\%)$$

COMMENT Note that essentially all of the uncertainty is due to the transducer. Design-stage uncertainty analysis shows us that a better transducer, not a better voltmeter, is needed if we must improve the uncertainty in this measurement!

5.4 Identifying error sources

قد صندره نعرضه من باب العلم ولكن كحساباته من
رج يا شرف كاي

acquisition, and data reduction. Errors that enter during each of these steps can be grouped under their respective error source heading: (1) calibration errors, (2) data-acquisition errors, and (3) data-reduction errors. Within each of these three error source groups, list the types of errors encountered.

الاضطاد التي ته خط في كل خطوة من صفة الخطوات يمكن تصنيفها تحت عنوان :-
(1) اضطاد معايرة (2) البيانات - اضطاد الاستقواء (3) اضطاد للدمج البيانات
ما تظن على صفة الخطوات من اضطاد

Calibration Errors

رغبتا بال

(1) the standard or reference value used in the calibration, (2) the instrument or system under calibration, and (3) the calibration process.) For example, the laboratory standard used for

Table 5.1 Calibration Error Source Group

Element	Error Source ^a
1	Standard or reference value errors
2	Instrument or system errors
3	Calibration process errors
4	Calibration curve fit (or see Table 5.3)
etc.	

^aSystematic error or random error in each element.

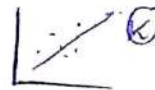
جهاز 1 $E_1 = 0.1$
جهاز 2 $E_2 = 0.01$

في جهاز لقياس اننا قد نستخدم مع جهاز احدث منه

جهاز قديم

عملية معايرة (معايرة)

reduction في اناس غير متدربين calibration في اناس ذوي كفاءة



Data-Acquisition Errors

An error that arises during the act of measurement is listed as a data-acquisition error. These

Data-Reduction Errors

Curve fits and correlations with their associated unknowns.

Table 5.2 Data-Acquisition Error Source Group

Element	Error Source ^a
1	Measurement system operating conditions
2	Sensor-transducer stage (instrument error)
3	Signal conditioning stage (instrument error)
4	Output stage (instrument error)
5	Process operating conditions
6	Sensor installation effects
7	Environmental effects
8	Spatial variation error
9	Temporal variation error
etc.	

^aSystematic error or random error in each element.

Note: A total input-to-output measurement system calibration combines elements 2, 3, 4, and possibly 1 within this error source group.

spatial variation error فكرة

لو مثلاً بيدنا اثنى درجة المראה لسيارة

لو احيى دطمين المقياس في امرك

رغم منطقة من منطقة المنطقة المرونة

في امرك

مثال لو دقيقتين سرعة فقط

المجو ربح منطقة اللفظ من ربح

لثاني مثلاً لو اقتصار

في الصبح غير من 2 فتر

↓

Temporal Temporal Variation error

Qualities مثال ثانياً على لو دقيقتين

للعمله رانا بشكل HR

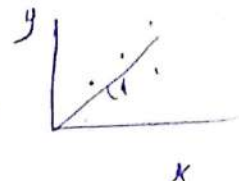
نتائج العمله الصبح خلاصه افضل من نتائجهم

املا

Table 5.3 Data-Reduction Error Source Group

Element	Error Source ^a
1	Curve fit error
2	Truncation error
3	Modeling error
etc.	

^aSystematic error or random error in each element.



5.21647

→ 5.21 التقريب

Truncation error = 647

علاوة على ذلك، فإنها علاقة خطية

$$y = a_0 + a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2$$

خطية لأنني فزمت أنها خطية

(5.5) systematic and Random error

Systematic Error

A systematic error² remains constant in repeated measurements under fixed operating conditions.

equivalent to a probability level of 68% for a normal distribution. The systematic uncertainty at any confidence level is given by $t_{\alpha, \nu} b$, or simply tb . The interval defined by the systematic uncertainty at the 95% probability level is written as

$$\pm B = \pm 2b \quad (95\%) \quad (5.4)$$

systematic error is always present at some magnitude. We see that it is difficult to estimate systematic error without comparison, so a good design should include some means to estimate it. Various methodologies can be utilized: (1) calibration, (2) concomitant methodology, (3) inter-laboratory comparisons, or (4) judgment/experience. When available, calibration using a suitable

مقارنة

يمكن استخدام المنهجيات

judgment/experience

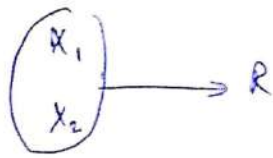
من الخبرة ومع تفرغه إذا منطقياً أولاً

Random Error

The estimate of the probable range of a random error is given by its random uncertainty. The random standard uncertainty, $s_{\bar{x}}$, is defined by the interval given by $\pm s_{\bar{x}}$, where

$$s_{\bar{x}} = s_x / \sqrt{N} \quad (5.5)$$

5.6 ~~Uncertainty~~ Uncertainty Analysis: [Error ~~Propag~~ Propagation]



ال R رة نتجة ل x_1 و x_2
 فلو مبر حضا رة عطا ان في وظائف
 ال R

$$R = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

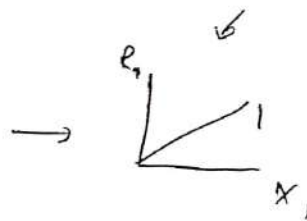
$$R = f(x_i) \rightarrow i \approx (1-n)$$

$$u_R^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial x_i} \right)^2 \cdot (u_{x_i})^2$$

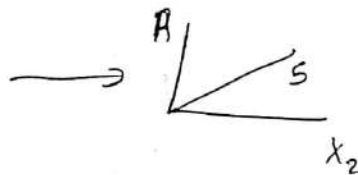
$\downarrow$ sensitivity $\downarrow$ uncertainty

مثاله لو عندي $R = x_1 + 5x_2$

$$\frac{\partial R_1}{\partial x_1} = 1$$



$$\frac{\partial R_2}{\partial x_2} = 5$$



$$\therefore R = \bar{R} \pm u_R \text{ (95\%)}$$

The contribution of the uncertainty in x to the result R is estimated by the term $\theta_i u_{x_i}$. The most probable estimate of u_R is generally accepted as that value given by the second power relation (4), which is the square root of the sum of the squares (RSS). The propagation of uncertainty in the variables to the result is by

$$u_R = \left[\sum_{i=1}^L (\theta_i u_{x_i})^2 \right]^{1/2}$$

(5.15)

زعمه لو عندي $R = x_1 + 5x_2$

مسألة في حركتنا قبل

تأخير السرعة

$$R = x_1 \pm x_2 \dots - x_n$$

$$U_R = \pm \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial x_i} \right)^2 \cdot (u_{x_i})^2}$$

$$R = \bar{R} \pm U_R (95\%)$$

$$R = x_1 \pm x_2$$

المثال ٣-

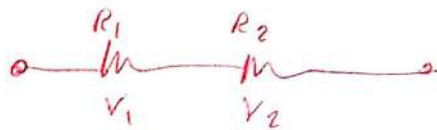
✓ استقيم وبعدين وبعدها امزج $(u_{x_i})^2$

$$\left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial x_1} \right)^2 = (1)^2 = 1, \left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial x_2} \right)^2 = (1)^2 = 1 * (u_{x_2})^2 = (u_{x_2})^2$$

$$1 * (u_{x_1})^2 = (u_{x_1})^2$$

$$U_R = \pm \sqrt{(u_{x_1})^2 + (u_{x_2})^2}$$

$$R = \underbrace{x_1 \pm x_2}_{\bar{R}} \pm \underbrace{\sqrt{(u_{x_1})^2 + (u_{x_2})^2}}_{U_R} (95\%)$$



مسألة من الواقع :-

لو بي ال distance الكاملة $R_1 + R_2 \approx$ (لا سم توك)

لو بي برضو V_{eq} $V_1 + V_2$ (تواليه)

لو بي طول الإنسان بدون الرأس



$$L_{eq} = L_1 - L_2$$

قائمة الضرب والقسمة - مثال عليها

$$R = \frac{X_1}{X_2}$$

$$u_R^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial X_i} \right)^2 \cdot (u_{X_i})^2$$

لا حظ صورة اننا اطلب الجذر
للعديد

$$u_R^2 = \left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial X_1} \right)^2 \cdot (u_{X_1})^2 + \left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial X_2} \right)^2 \cdot (u_{X_2})^2$$

$$u_R^2 = \frac{(X_2)^2 \cdot (u_{X_1})^2}{X_1^2} + \frac{(X_1)^2 \cdot (u_{X_2})^2}{X_2^2}$$

فرضنا اوله حد وقتنا X_1^2
مزيه كاي حد وقتنا X_2^2

$$u_R^2 = R^2 \frac{(u_{X_1})^2}{X_1^2} + R^2 \frac{(u_{X_2})^2}{X_2^2}$$

$$R = X_1 \cdot X_2$$

$$R^2 = X_1^2 \cdot X_2^2$$

انقل R الى الكمية التي نريدها

$$\frac{u_R^2}{R^2} = \frac{(u_{X_1})^2}{X_1^2} + \frac{(u_{X_2})^2}{X_2^2}$$

نسبة error الى النسبة
نسبة error الى النسبة

$$u_{X_1} = 1 \text{ - } 0.5 \text{ - } 1$$

$$X_1 = 100$$

$$\frac{u_{X_1}}{X_1} = 1\%$$

نسبة error الى النسبة

$$u_R = \sqrt{\left(\frac{(u_{X_1})^2}{X_1^2} + \frac{(u_{X_2})^2}{X_2^2} \right) \cdot R^2}$$

$$R = \bar{X}_1 \cdot \bar{X}_2 \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{(u_{X_1})^2}{X_1^2} + \frac{(u_{X_2})^2}{X_2^2} \right) \cdot R^2} \quad (\% 95)$$

Zero order

result of instrumental resolution alone. The value u_0 estimates the extent of variation expected in the measured value when all influencing effects are controlled and is found using Equation 5.1. By itself, a zero-order uncertainty is inadequate for the reporting of test results.

ch6

Analog Electrical Devices and Measurement

المواضيع ال (ع) نوصفها فيه :

- 1) Basic principles of electric Measurement.
- 2) Bridge circuits
- 3) Null mode / deflection mode
- 4) signal conditioning.
- 5) grounding / shielding.

- understand the principles behind common analog voltage and current measuring devices,
- understand the operation of balanced and unbalanced resistance bridge circuits,
- define, identify, and minimize loading errors,
- understand the basic principles involved in signal conditioning, especially filtering and amplification, and
- apply proper grounding and shielding techniques in measuring system hookups.

اي conductor موجود داخل يار كهربائياً (ع) يتولد فيه قوة نتيجة
وجود مجال مغناطيسي داخله - صاد المكي (ع) يولد Torque وال Torque يتولد
deflection

⊗ Analoge divices (current measurement) → direct current

$$F = I l B$$

Force (ع) مقدار ال

→ l : length of conductor
 B : magnetic field strength

$$T_u = N / A B \sin \alpha$$

→ A = cross section Area
 B = magnetic field strength
 I = current

α = angle between cross section Area and magnetic field

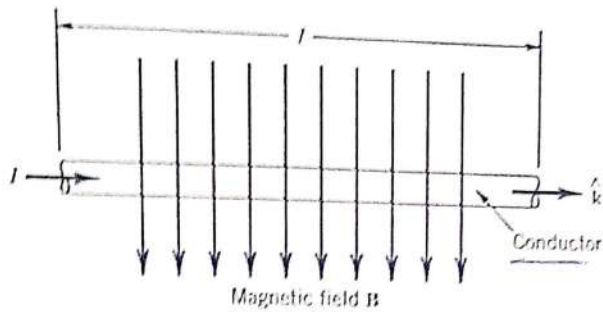


Figure 6.1 Current-carrying conductor in a magnetic field

A

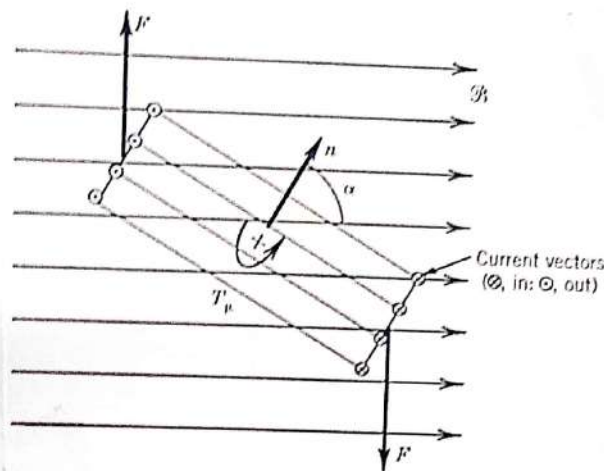


Figure 6.2: Forces and resulting torque on a current loop in magnetic field

شعنه مشحيره هون؟

$$\text{Voltage}(E) \rightarrow I (\text{current}) \rightarrow T (\text{Torque})$$

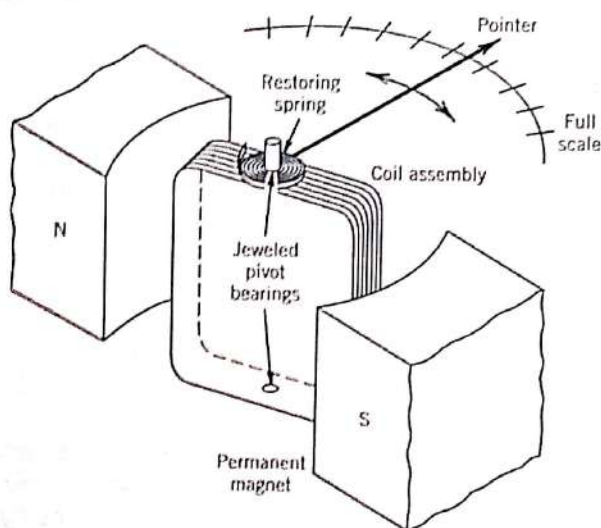
→ Θ deflection mode

تناسب مع قية التيار اوجهد فرق شحرك

→ null mode

مع ناضد على امثلة وفي نفسا شعير

1) Bridge circuit , 2) galvanometer



الgalvanometer هو جهاز
حساب قلو عرقية تيار مع شحرك
الpointer الى داخل فلازم ايز بركت
بيك $I_g = 0$

Figure 6.3 Basic D'Arsonval meter movement.

We apply Newton's second law with the mechanical free-body diagram shown in Figure 6.5a.

second order

معادلة الحركة الثانية

$$J \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} + c \frac{d\theta}{dt} + k\theta = T_\mu$$

بريد T_μ مع θ

(6.4)

As a current passes through the coil, a force is developed that produces a torque on the coil:

Torque (بترتيب التيار) inter axial equation $\rightarrow$

$$T_\mu = 2NB\ell r I$$

(6.5)

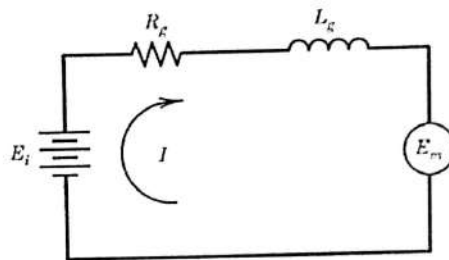
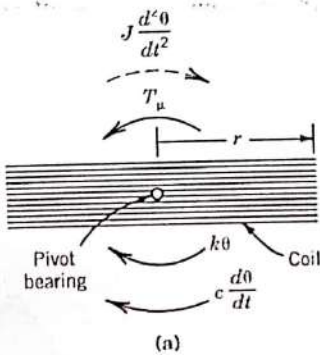
the electrical free body of Figure 6.5b gives

$$L_g \frac{dI}{dt} + R_g I = E_i - E_m$$

ترتيب مع I R و L

(6.7)

شكل الدارة تاج ال galvanometer



دارة ال galvanometer

Figure 6.5 Circuit and free-body diagram for Example 6.1.

المبادئ التي تعتمد عليها

(1) ال conductor الذي يحمل تيار كهربائي، مع توله فيه قوة شبيهة بوجوده داخل المجال المغناطيسي $\vec{F} \sim \vec{I} \times \vec{B}$

(2) نتيجة حمل تيار كهربائي يتولد مع مجال مغناطيسي، مع توله عني electric motive force

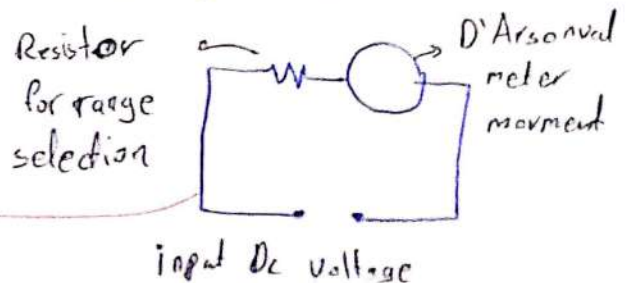
(3) إذا مر تيار كهربائي من خلال موصل صلب، يولد توله مجال مغناطيسي،

Analogy Voltage Meter

An AC voltage can be measured through rectification or through the use of an ~~electer~~ ^{الكهر ومغناطيسية} electromagnet either in an ^{قياس التيار الكهربائي} ~~electrodynamometer~~ or with a movable iron vane.

صان حرك

A DC voltmeter circuit

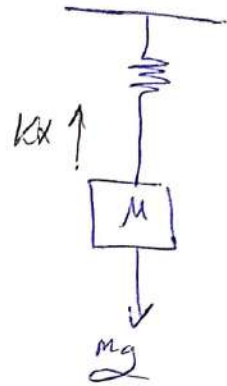


* هونو زيفو مراحبة لفكره الـ Null بالـ deflctive

الـ 21 يبر سني اسطالة تناقص هونو ~~م~~
 الوزنه

((deflctive mode))

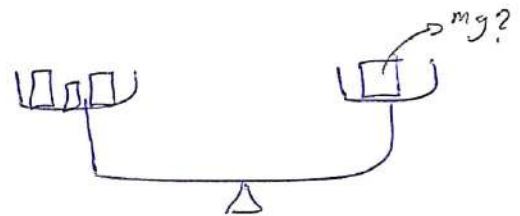
$$E \rightarrow I \rightarrow T \rightarrow \theta$$



بخل احط اوزانه ليمنر البهار

منا يمنر وزنها لخم المبراد معروفه = وزنه الانقاله

((Null mode))



Oscilloscope

The Oscilloscope is a partial graphical device providing an analog representation of a measured signal. It is used to measure and to visually display voltage magnitude versus time for dynamic signal for dynamic signals over a wide range of frequencies with a signal bandwidth extending commonly into the megahertz range and, with some unit, into the gigahertz range.

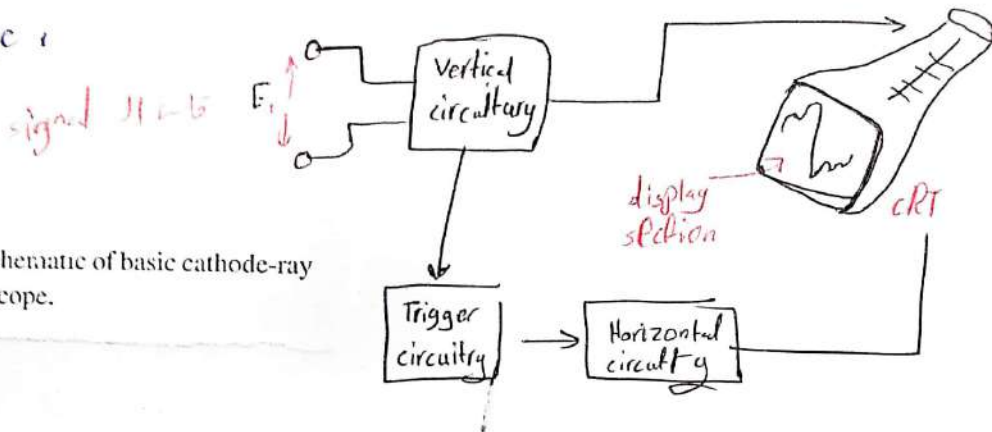
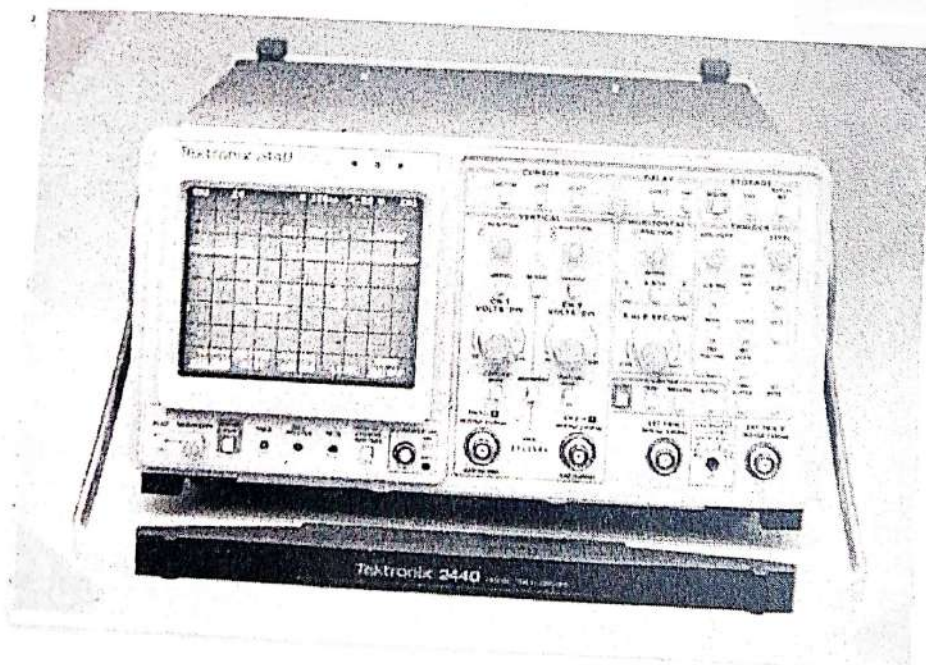
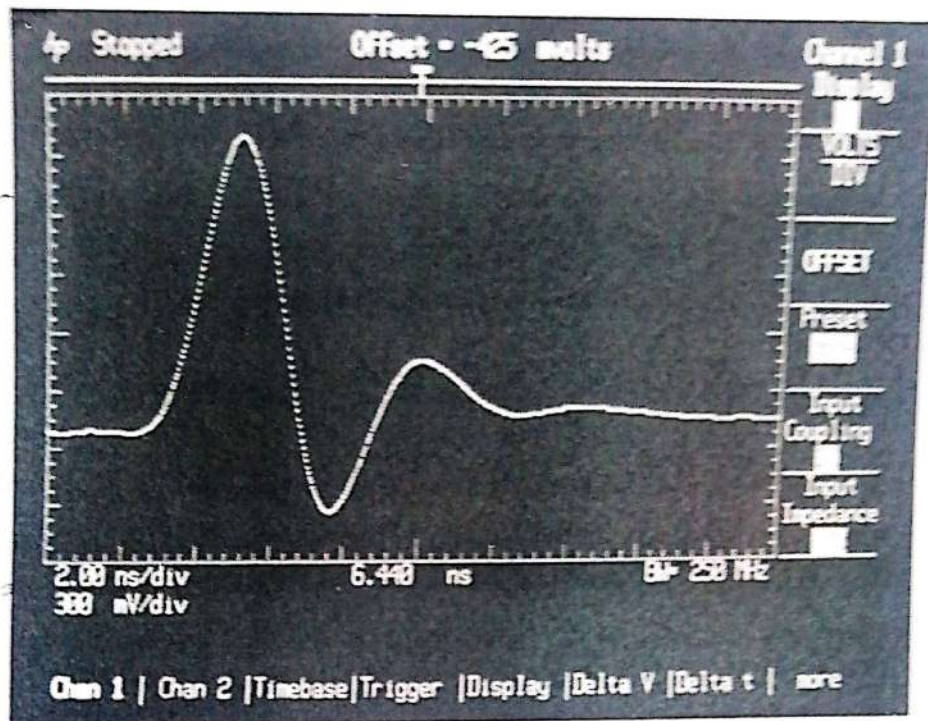


Figure 6.7 Schematic of basic cathode-ray tube oscilloscope.

Analog Electrical Devices and Measurements

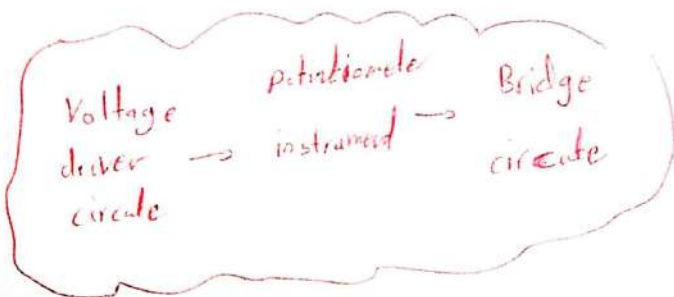




(b)

Figure 6.8 (a) Digital oscilloscope. (Photograph courtesy of Tektronix, Inc.) (b) Oscilloscope output. (Photograph courtesy of Hewlett-Packard Company.)

ال sensor تأتي بحوله العينة ال Electrical Measurement فقيس ويجهل بين عينة القياس
بشكلها لعينة مكانية



2/ توصف بالترتيب

Voltage divider circuit

$$V_{AB} = \frac{R_3}{R_T} \cdot E$$

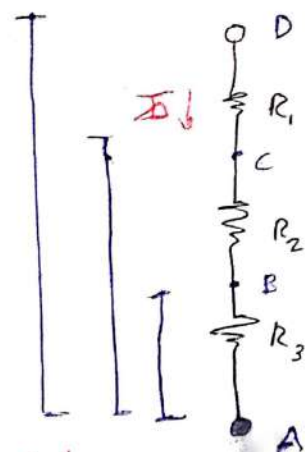
$$V_{AC} = \frac{R_2 + R_3}{R_T} \cdot E$$

$$V_{AD} = E$$

ال V 2 يتوزع



$E = V_{AD}$
محصلة



مثاله توضيحي

ال V 2 يتوزع بالترتيب

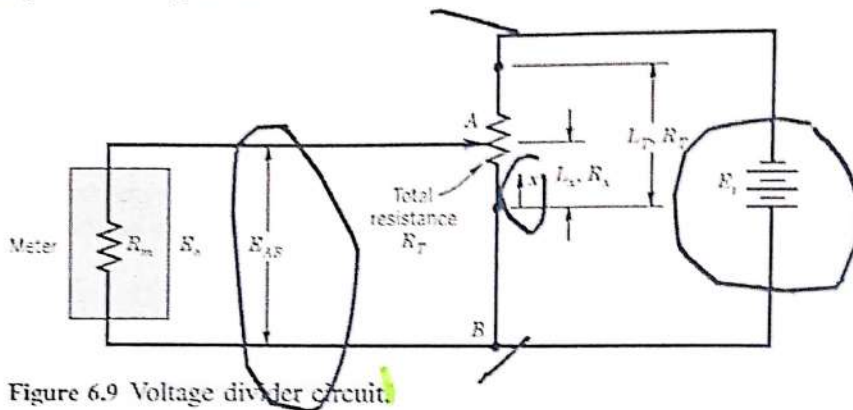
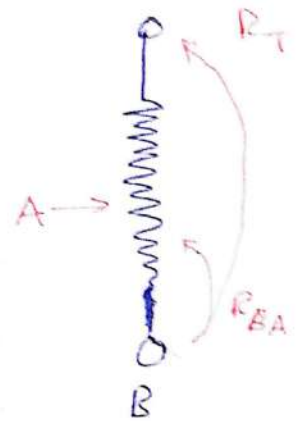


Figure 6.9 Voltage divider circuit.

تقسيم الجهد

(Output Voltage) $E_o = \frac{R_{BA}}{R_T} \cdot E_i$

في هذه المقاومة وحدة
مقسومة للجهد



which holds so long as the internal resistance

of the meter, R_m , is very large relative to R .

بر صفة تاج الكنا

$$E_o = \frac{R_x}{R_T} \cdot E_i$$

في هذه الحالة إضافة وحدة

(1) افترض انه التيار بال Meter (جهاز) = 0 ، ان R_m تاج الجهد

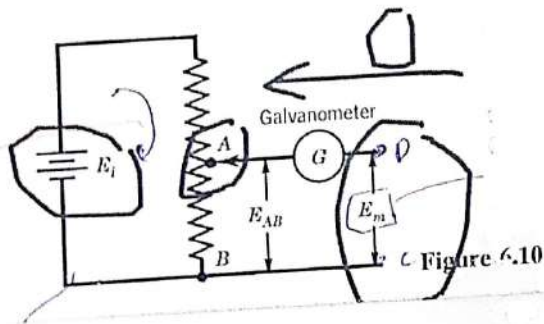
loading error هو ال active transducer

(2) المقاومة الداخلية للجهاز E_i برهول لازم صفر عا $E_{total} = E_{total}$

Potentiometer instrument

balanced condition, indicated by a zero current flow through the galvanometer. A null balance, corresponding to zero current flow through G , occurs only when $E_m = E_{AB}$. With a known and

(1) مونه موضعه موضوعه ال Voltage divider بجه استعمال ميه measurement



Basic potentiometer circuit.

بجه استعمال ميه (2) هاي ال اي
سجده لمابه ميه احسب ال V مابين
نقطتين في الدارة و مونه ها
D وال C

سجده مع ~~الاي~~
galvano meter و مونه ها ز صلا ميه ي

الاي $I_g = 0$ صلا ميه $E_m = E_{AB}$
تيار انار بال galvanometer

لازم احسب كل التيار ميه ميه
هاي ال مونه ها
ميه ميه

فيل اغير في موقع ال A لم ميه تيار ال galvanometer = 0

صلا ميه تتحقق $E_m = E_{AB}$ و صلا ميه اعرضه E_{AB}

$$E_{AB} = \frac{R_{AB}}{R_T} \cdot E_1$$

في فكرة انه ال R تتناسب مع الطول طردياً

ومنه بقدر اعرضه R

$$R = \frac{\rho L}{A}$$

ρ : resistivity

L: Length

A: cross section Area



Ohmmeter Circuits

A simple way to measure resistance is by imposing a voltage across the unknown resistance and measuring the resulting current flow where $R = E/I$

$$R = E/I$$

Bridge Circuits $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{null method} \\ \text{deflection method} \end{array} \right.$

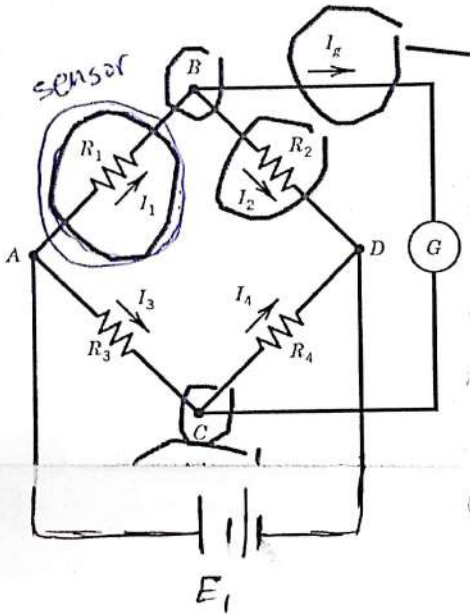


Figure
Basic current-sensitive wheatstone
bridge circuit (G, galvanometer)

اربع اذری و طریقین
(1) CB سے شابلے اور galvanometer
(2) AD سے شابلے مع بطاریت

(3) measurement الہی اعزنا جبکہ مع sensor
مثلاً بی اعزہ ایسے الہ علاقہ R_1 شابلے
 R_1 is sensor $\rightarrow$ ایسا ہوئے ایسے الہ علاقہ R_1
ادبوجہ الجھدل AB

(4) ای تقریبی R_1 (sensor) دے بغیر بار circuit
نامت

صدہ الفکرہ زی ایزانہ فلو تقریبہ قیہ sensor لازم اعدلہ ایسے بہارہ
لیرجے فی balance (توازنہ)

Null
method

اولہ ایسے کانہ sensor R_1 ذکاقتہ الہ رقیہ Balance لوپرتہ ایسے بار sensor
وکانتہ الہ R_3 و R_4 ثابتین ہر لازم ایسے R_2 بیجے یرجے الہ balance

بنا نہ احاطہ الہ Balance

$\uparrow$ sensor (R_1) $\rightarrow$ لازم ازبہ $R_2 \uparrow$

$\downarrow$ sensor R_1 $\rightarrow$ لازم اقلہ R_2

بالنسبة لـ $I_g = 0$ Balance يعني $I_1 = I_2$ و $I_3 = I_4$

$I_g = 0$ — galvanometer — $I_2 = I_1$ و $I_3 = I_4$

معادلة أو معادلتين — $I_1 = I_2$ و $I_3 = I_4$ — Balance

1) $I_g = 0$ 2) $I_1 = I_2$ 3) $I_3 = I_4$

4) $V_B = V_C$ 5) A و P — فرق الجهد بين A و P

$E_1 = (A, P)$

6) $R_1 \cdot R_4 = R_2 \cdot R_3$ $\frac{R_2}{R_1} = \frac{R_4}{R_3}$
(مترية متبادلة)

Balance يعني $I_g = 0$ يعني $I_1 = I_2$ و $I_3 = I_4$ — $R_1 R_3 - R_2 R_4 = 0$

$R_1 R_3 - R_2 R_4 = 0$

تغير فرق الجهد — $V_B - V_C = 0$ — ما بين A و P

$I_1 R_1 - I_2 R_3 = 0 \rightarrow I_1 R_1 = I_2 R_3$
 $I_2 R_2 - I_4 R_4 = 0 \rightarrow I_2 R_2 = I_4 R_4$

$I_1 = I_2$ $I_3 = I_4$

نقسم الطرفين بالـ I_1 و I_3 (نقسم الطرفين)

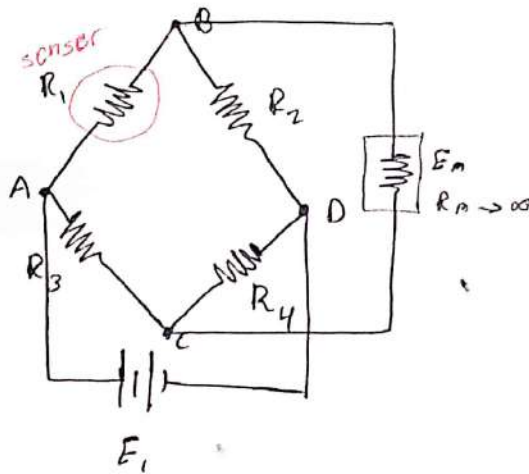
$\frac{R_2}{R_1} = \frac{R_4}{R_3}$

where R_2 is an adjustable variable resistance.

through a closed-loop controller circuit. An advantage of the null method is that the applied input voltage need not be known, and changes in the input voltage do not affect the accuracy of the measurement. In addition, the current detector or controller need only detect if there is a flow of

Deflection method

In an unbalanced condition, the magnitude of the current or voltage drop for the meter portion of the bridge circuit is a direct indication of the change in resistance of one or more of the arms of bridge. Consider first the case where the voltage drop from node B to node C in the basic bridge is



في الحالة المتوازنة Balance

$$R_1 R_4 = R_2 R_3$$

$$V_{BC} = 0$$

لو تغيرت R_1 (sensor)

$$R_1 R_4 \neq R_2 R_3$$

ويعبر عن هذا في فرق الجهد بين B و C

one active arm

دائرة واحدة تتغير فيها R

BR

$$(Bridge output) V_{BC} = V_B - V_C$$

$$= \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2} \cdot E_i - \frac{R_3}{R_3 + R_4} \cdot E_i$$

(+)

طريق V

$$V_{BC} = \frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \cdot E_i - \frac{R_4}{R_3 + R_4} \cdot E_i$$

(-)

ويعبر عن هذا في فرق الجهد بين B و C

In contrast to the null method of operation of a Wheatstone bridge, the deflection bridge requires a meter capable of accurately indicating the output voltage, as well as a stable and known

Example 6.3

A certain temperature sensor experiences a change in electrical resistance with temperature according to the equation

$$R = R_0[1 + \alpha(T - T_0)] \quad (6.29)$$

where

R = sensor resistance (Ω)

R_0 = sensor resistance at the reference temperature, T_0 (Ω)

T = temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)

T_0 = reference temperature (0°C)

α = the constant $0.00395^{\circ}\text{C}^{-1}$

This temperature sensor is connected in a Wheatstone bridge like the one shown in Figure 6.13, where the sensor occupies the R_1 location, and R_2 is a calibrated variable resistance. The bridge is operated using the null method. The fixed resistances R_3 and R_4 are each equal to $500\ \Omega$. If the

temperature sensor has a resistance of $100\ \Omega$ at 0°C , determine the value of R_2 that would balance the bridge at 0°C .

KNOWN $R_1 = 100\ \Omega$
 $R_3 = R_4 = 500\ \Omega$

FIND R_2 for null balance condition

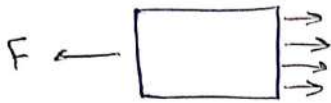
SOLUTION From Equation 6.11, a balanced condition for this bridge would be achieved when $R_2 = R_1 R_4 / R_3$ or $R_2 = 100\ \Omega$. Notice that to be a useful circuit, R_2 must be adjustable and provide an indication of its resistance value at any setting.

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

Strain Measurement

Tension العلاقة بين

علاقة بين القوة وطول
section 1



العلاقة الرياضية

* stress

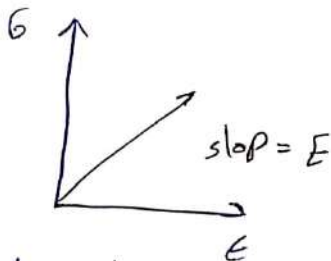
$$\sigma = F/A$$

* strain

$$\epsilon = \frac{\Delta L}{L}$$

* Modulus of elasticity

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon} \rightarrow \sigma = E \epsilon$$



* Poisson ratio (ν) = $\frac{\epsilon_L}{\epsilon_a} = \frac{\frac{\Delta L}{L}}{\frac{\Delta d}{d}} = \frac{\epsilon_{lateral}}{\epsilon_{axial}}$

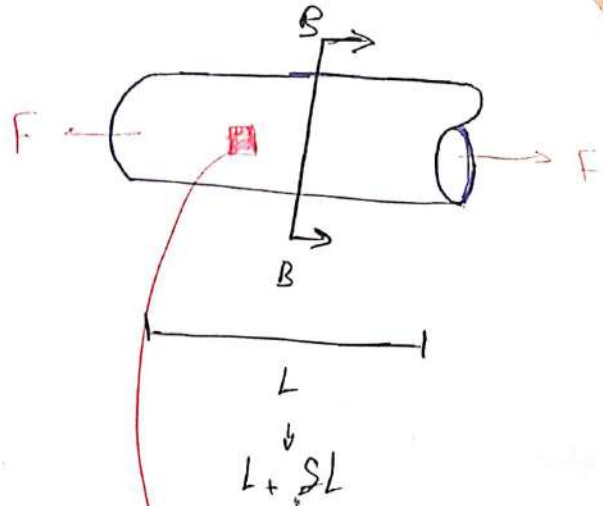
mechanical

أي مهنت به هم يصم اسيا لازم يحل قياسات القوة والطول والعلاقة بين

المرئاة

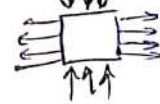
The design of load-carrying components for machines and structures requires information concerning the distribution of forces within the particular component. Proper design of devices such as shafts, pressure vessels, and support structures must consider load-carrying capacity and allowable deflections. Mechanics of materials provides a basis for predicting these essential characteristics of a mechanical design, and provides the fundamental understanding of the behavior of load-carrying parts. However, theoretical analysis is often not sufficient, and experimental measurements are required to achieve a final design.

- 1) يتطلب تصميم المكونات اقامة للازالة والميكانيك معلومات عن توزيع القوة داخل المكونات
- 2) يجب ان يأخذ التصميم المناسب للاجهزة مثل الاوعية والصفط والميكانيك السامة في الاعتبار قدرة حل المكونات والاشعاع اذات السموم بها.



واجبة واحدة خط في المادة

(σ_y) compression



(σ_x) tension

مع الاظ انها تحولت لتوزيع ما stresses
compression و tension

σ_x ← → tension → مع يزد في طولها

σ_y ← → compression → مع ينقص اعماقها

مع تركيز بها الضغط σ_x (axial)

such changes in length or shape of a material can be measured. This chapter discusses the measurement of physical displacements in engineering components. The stress is calculated from these measured deflections.

Upon completion of this chapter, the reader will be able to *as per learning*

- define strain and *define* delineate the difficulty in measuring stress,
- *state* state the physical principles underlying mechanical strain gauges, *define*
- analyze strain gauge bridge circuits, and
- describe methods for optical strain measurement.

stress and strain

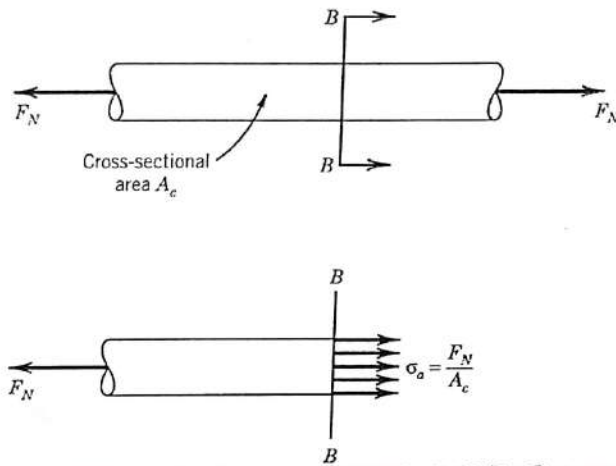


Figure 11.1 Free-body diagram illustrating internal forces for a rod in uniaxial tension.

the normal stress is defined as:-

$$\sigma_a = F_N / A_c$$

the ratio of the change in ~~length~~ length of the rod (which results from applying the load) to the original length is the axial strain defined as:-



$$\epsilon_a = \delta L / L$$

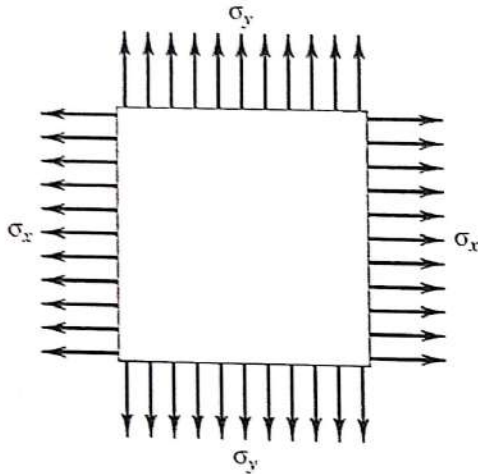
the relationship between uniaxial stress and strain for this elastic behavior is expressed as: $\sigma_a = E_m \epsilon_a$

E_m is modulus of elasticity, or young's modulus, and the relationship is called Hooke's law.

Lateral strain

this property is called poisson ratio, defined as;

$$\nu_p = \frac{|\text{Lateral strain}|}{|\text{axial strain}|} = \frac{\epsilon_t}{\epsilon_a}$$



يمكن قياس حالات الإجهاد
الصغيرة إلى خمسة فئات
أو أكثر تحت العمل الميكانيكي بطرق بسيطة مثل :-
(1) مراقبة التغير في المسافة بين علامتين ثابتتين على سطح عضو تحت إجهاد
(2) مقاسة شكل صورة الجسم المرصود
عن طريق طرطونه إلى مستشعر إلكتروني لقياس الإجهاد
(1) يتبع بدقة مكانية جيدة
(2) لا يتأثر بتكرارته بالظروف المحيطة
Figure 11.3 Biaxial state of stress.

11.3 RESISTANCE STRAIN GAUGES

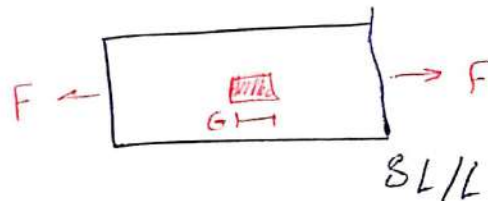
The measurement of the small displacements that occur in a material or object under mechanical load can be accomplished by methods as simple as observing the change in the distance between two scribe marks on the surface of a load-carrying member, or as advanced as optical holography. In any case, the ideal sensor for the measurement of strain would (1) have good spatial resolution, implying that the sensor would measure strain at a point; (2) be unaffected by changes in ambient conditions; and (3) have a high-frequency response for dynamic (time-resolved) strain measurements. A sensor that closely meets these characteristics is the bonded resistance strain gauge.

لا بد من جهاز يقيس strain فال sensitivity تامة
(لا بد من تكونه مائة إلى strain (تغير في الطول displacement)

تلك خواص strain gauges

strain GAUGES

(*) لوالصقة الصغيرة إلى بلائمر صا، رابها استطالة
منها استطالة العظمة الكبيرة



لوالكيرة استطالات ٠.٠١ % الصغيرة مع تسطيل ٠.١ %

(*) تغير الطول للجسم الصغير هو إلى راع سيفا (لرصاد صورجهاز القياس) ومقدار التغير فيه ضئيل جداً

Metallic Gauges

* the Resistance R is given by:-

$$R = \rho L / A_c$$

$$R = \rho L / A$$

بعضنا طول القطعة L
المساحة

مساحة المقطع العرضي A

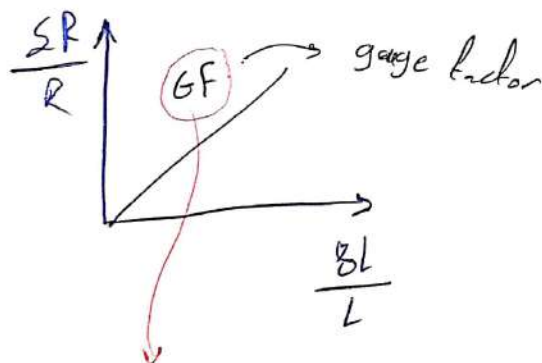
مقاومة المادة ρ

* the total change in R is due to several effect, as illustrated in total differential:

$$dR = \frac{A_c (\rho_e dL + L d\rho_e) - \rho_e L dA_c}{A_e^2}$$

* which may be expressed in term of poisson's ratio as:-

$$\frac{dR}{R} = \frac{dL}{L} (1 + 2\nu) \frac{d\rho_e}{\rho_e}$$



أي تغير في strain ϵ مع R
تغير في R

معدلي اقترابا اديت تغيره عند R

بعضنا L نوع المادة أي اننا المقطع

(القطعة المخرقة) مساحة المقطع العرضي



~~Bonding~~

$$GF = \frac{\frac{dR}{R}}{\frac{dL}{L}}$$

هو تعلقنا بالمعادلة تامة مع يكونه عبارة من مجموعة من (الأرقام
الداخل بها π المادة الى اننا اخرتها وكتبنا من strain gage

$$= 1 + 2\nu + \pi E_m$$

• العوامل التي يجب علينا من اختيار المواد الارضية عبارة عن strain gauge ؟

(1) انه يكونه حاس لا يغير بال strain مباشرة ينكسر في المقاومة .

(2) بختيار مادة بحيث يكونه حاسه لـ Temperature (معامل التمدد بنسبة للحرارة يكونه قليل = minimum thermal strain

لو نرجع لمادة الفرصه الحرارة كانته ← interfiring input (لواثرية على العلاقة بين ال input وال output)

او modifying input - له عملته علاقة مع ال output .

example 11.1

Determine the total resistance of a copper wire having a diameter of 1mm and a length of 5cm the resistivity of copper is $1.7 \times 10^{-8} \Omega m$

Known $D = 1mm \rightarrow 10^{-3}$

$L = 5cm \rightarrow 5 \times 10^{-2}$

$\rho_c = 1.7 \times 10^{-8} \Omega m$

Find the total electrical resistance

Resistance from equation $\rightarrow R = \rho_c L / A_c$

where

$$A_c = \frac{\pi}{4} D^2 = \frac{\pi}{4} (1 \times 10^{-3})^2 = 7.85 \times 10^{-7} m^2$$

The resistance is then

$$R = \frac{(1.7 \times 10^{-8} \Omega m)(5 \times 10^{-2} m)}{7.85 \times 10^{-7} m^2} = 1.08 \times 10^{-3} \Omega$$

COMMENT If the material were nickel ($\rho_c = 7.8 \times 10^{-8} \Omega m$) instead of copper, the resistance would be $5 \times 10^{-3} \Omega$ for the same diameter and length of wire.

Example 11.2

A very common material for the construction of strain gauges is the alloy constantan (55% copper with 45% nickel), having a resistivity of $49 \times 10^{-8} \Omega \cdot \text{m}$. A typical strain gauge might have a resistance of 120Ω . What length of constantan wire of diameter 0.025 mm would yield a resistance of 120Ω ?

KNOWN The resistivity of constantan is $49 \times 10^{-8} \Omega \cdot \text{m}$.

FIND The length of constantan wire needed to produce a total resistance of 120Ω

SOLUTION From Equation 11.6, we may solve for the length, which yields in this case

$$L = \frac{RA_c}{\rho_e} = \frac{(120 \Omega)(4.91 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}^2)}{49 \times 10^{-8} \Omega \cdot \text{m}} = \underline{\underline{0.12 \text{ m}}}$$

The wire would then be 12 cm in length to achieve a resistance of 120Ω .

COMMENT As shown by this example, a single straight conductor is normally not practical for a local strain measurement with meaningful resolution. Instead, a simple solution is to bend the wire conductor so that several lengths of wire are oriented along the axis of the strain gauge, as shown in Figure 11.4.

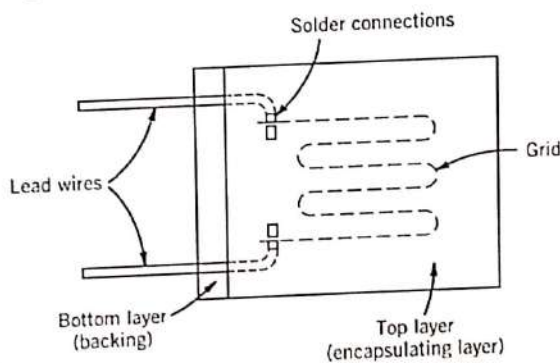


Figure 11.4 Detail of a basic strain gauge construction. (Courtesy of Micro-Measurements Division, Measurements Group, Inc., Raleigh, NC.)

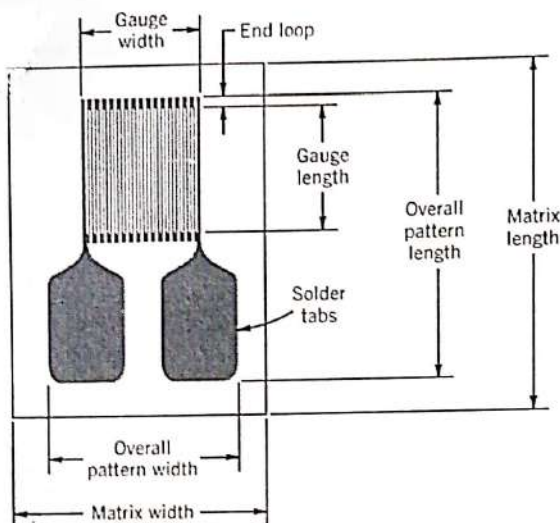
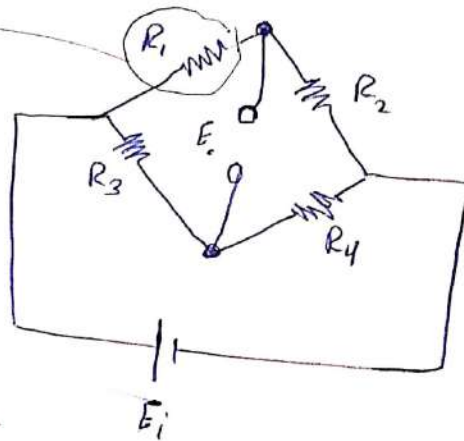


Figure 11.5 Construction of a typical metallic foil strain gauge. (Courtesy of Micro-Measurements Division, Measurements Group, Inc., Raleigh, NC.)

U.4 STRAIN GAUGE ELECTRICAL CIRCUITS

→ strain Gauge Bridge circuits

strain gauge



under Balance conditions-

$$R_1 \cdot R_4 = R_2 \cdot R_3, \quad E_0 = 0$$

علاقة صفر

$$R_1 = R_2 = R_3 = R_4$$

عشان يكونه متوازن صافي الاربعة
سهل علينا التعامل بالقيمة بالجار ؟

كيفه بنسأ في ال strain يا نر ال Voltage ال هو ال E_0

$$F \rightarrow \left(\frac{F}{A} \right) \rightarrow \text{strain} \rightarrow \left(\frac{\Delta L}{L} \right) \rightarrow \left(\frac{\Delta R}{R} \right) \rightarrow \Delta E_0 \rightarrow \text{Bridge output}$$

متارنه قيمة جديدة
متاثر بـ strain

فزي كذا عتسج ال strain
بواسطة ال Bridge output

Bridge output (E_0)

$$E_0 = \frac{1}{4} \frac{\Delta R}{R} \cdot E_i$$

$$E_0 = \frac{GF \cdot \epsilon}{4}$$

كيفه لقينا صافي ال $\Delta R/R$

$$GF = \frac{\Delta R/R}{\epsilon}$$

$$\Delta R/R = GF \cdot \epsilon$$

the Bridge output under these condition

$$E_o + \delta E_o = E_i \frac{(R_1 + \delta R) R_4 - R_3 R_2}{(R_1 + \delta R + R_2)(R_3 + R_4)} \Rightarrow \text{ما نلاحظه هنا هو ان الحد الثاني في المقام يمكن إهماله}$$

↓ تبسيطاً ونضال كسرام بالصفحة الى قبل

reduces to

$$\frac{\delta E_o}{E_i} = \frac{\delta R/R}{4 + 2(\delta R/R)} \approx \frac{\delta R/R}{4} \quad (11.14)$$

under the assumption that $\delta R/R \ll 1$. This simplified form of Equation 6.15 is suitable for all but those measurements that demand the highest accuracy, and is valid for values of $\delta R/R \ll 1$. Using the relationship from Equation 11.11 that $\delta R/R = GF\epsilon$,

$$\frac{\delta E_o}{E_i} = \frac{GF\epsilon}{4 + 2GF\epsilon} \approx \frac{GF\epsilon}{4} \quad (11.15)$$

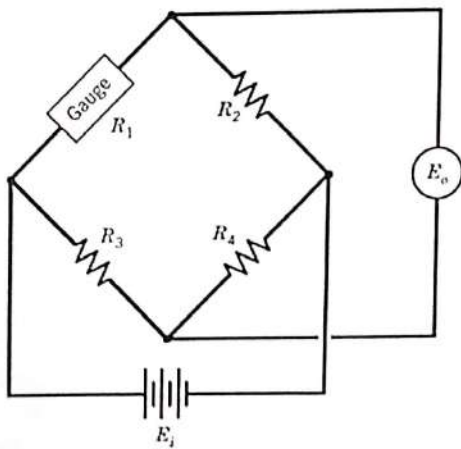


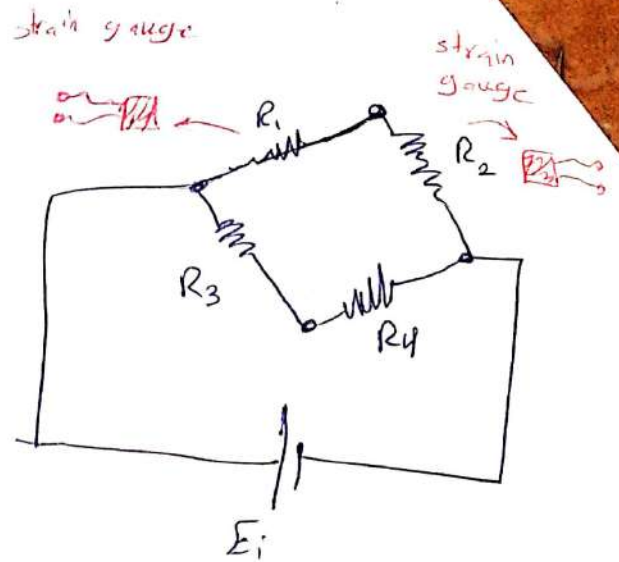
Figure 11.9 Basic strain gauge Wheatstone bridge circuit.

عنه احسن القراءة تابعه :-

بذلك ما اقل Bonding لمقاومة وحدة عمل

Bonding لهقاومين

2 active arm



$$\Delta E_o = \frac{1}{4} GF \cdot \epsilon \cdot E_i$$

الفكرة لا يكون :-

one active arm

$$\Delta E_o = \frac{1}{2} \cdot GF \cdot \epsilon \cdot E_i$$

two active arm

لما يكون فيه 2 active arms ~ يكون ال sensitive تابعه اقل . فكونه احسن .
arm

11.3 example

A strain gauge, having a gauge factor of 2, is mounted on a rectangular steel bar ($E_m = 200 \times 10^6 \text{ kN/m}^2$), as shown in figure 11.11 the bar is 3 cm wide and 1 cm high, and is subjected.

معدل الاستطاعة modulus of elasticity
التي تقاومها f بار الك

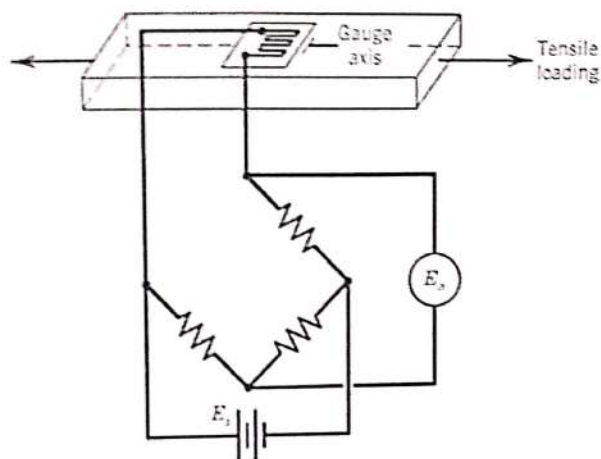


Figure 11.11 Strain gauge circuit subject to uniaxial tension.

to a tensile force of 30 kN. Determine the resistance change of the strain gauge if the resistance of the gauge was $120\ \Omega$ in the absence of the axial load.

KNOWN $GF = 2$ $E_m = 200 \times 10^6\ \text{kN/m}^2$ $F_N = 30\ \text{kN}$
 $R = 120\ \Omega$ $A_c = 0.03\ \text{m} \times 0.01\ \text{m}$

FIND The resistance change of the strain gauge for a tensile force of 30 kN

SOLUTION The stress in the bar under this loading condition is

$$\sigma_a = \frac{F_N}{A_c} = \frac{30\ \text{kN}}{(0.03\ \text{m})(0.01\ \text{m})} = 1 \times 10^5\ \text{kN/m}^2$$

and the resulting strain is

$$\epsilon_a = \frac{\sigma_a}{E_m} = \frac{1 \times 10^5\ \text{kN/m}^2}{200 \times 10^6\ \text{kN/m}^2} = 5 \times 10^{-4}\ \text{m/m} \quad (11.16)$$

For strain along the axis of the strain gauge, the change in resistance from Equation 11.11 is

$$\delta R/R = \epsilon GF$$

or

$$\delta R = R \epsilon GF = (120\ \Omega)(5 \times 10^{-4})(2) = 0.12\ \Omega$$

Example 11.4

Suppose the strain gauge described in Example 11.3 is to be connected to a measurement device capable of determining a change in resistance with a stated uncertainty of $\pm 0.005\ \Omega$ (95%). This stated uncertainty includes a resolution of $0.001\ \Omega$. What uncertainty in stress would result when using this resistance measurement device?

KNOWN A stress is to be inferred from a strain measurement using a strain gauge having a gauge factor of 2 and a zero load resistance of $120\ \Omega$. The measurement of resistance has a stated uncertainty of $\pm 0.005\ \Omega$ (95%).

FIND The design-stage uncertainty in stress

SOLUTION The design-stage uncertainty in stress, $(u_d)_\sigma$, is given by

$$(u_d)_\sigma = \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial (\delta R)} (u_d)_{\delta R}$$

with

$$\sigma = \frac{E E_m}{GF} \frac{\delta R}{R}$$

Then with $(u_d)_{\delta R} = 0.005 \Omega$ and

$$\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial (\delta R)} = \frac{E_m}{R(GF)}$$

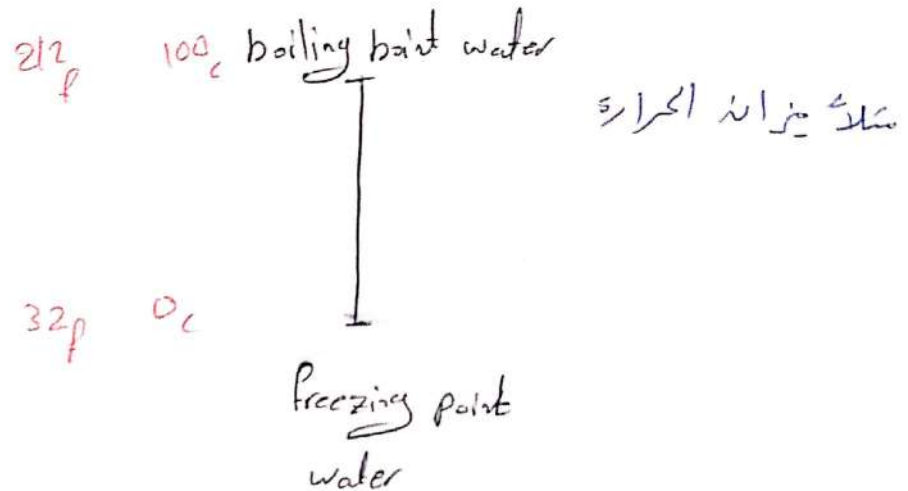
we can express the uncertainty as

$$(u_d)_\sigma = \frac{E_m}{R(GF)} (u_d)_{\delta R} = \frac{200 \times 10^6 \text{ kN/m}^2}{120 \Omega (2)} (0.005 \Omega)$$

This results in a design-stage uncertainty in stress of $(u_d)_\sigma = \pm 4.17 \times 10^3 \text{ kN/m}^2$ (95%) or ~2.4% of the expected stress.

Temperature Measurements

- scales →
- 1) Fixed Reference point
 - 2) Deg. size
 - 3) Interpolation results

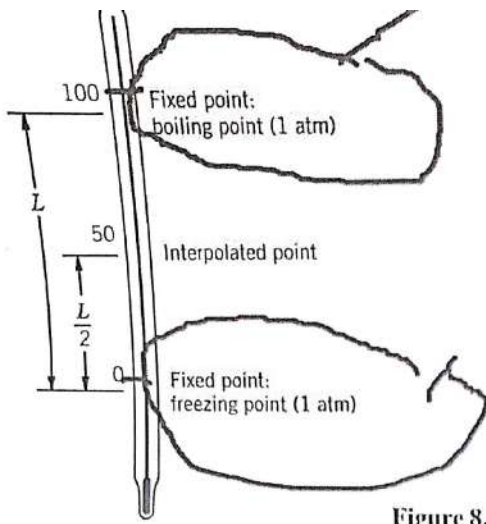


يمكن اعتبار scale بالليست فيكونه من 0 إلى 100 ويمكن أخذ scale بالفهرنهايت فيكونه من 32 إلى 212 والكيل أي بأخذها من 0 إلى 100
size of degree
بالدرجة تكونه من 100 درجة في 100 مرة تقريباً 180 درجة في 100

8.2 TEMPERATURE STANDARDS AND DEFINITION

Temperature can be loosely described as the property of an object that describes its hotness or coldness, concepts that are clearly relative. Our experiences indicate that heat transfer tends

A temperature scale provides for three essential aspects of temperature measurement: (1) the definition of the size of the degree, (2) fixed reference points for establishing known temperatures, and (3) a means for interpolating between these fixed temperature points. These provisions are



The process of establishing 50°C without a fixed point calibration is called interpolation.

Figure 8.1 Calibration and interpolation for a liquid-in-glass thermometer.

1) thermal expansion
 ↳ Liquid
 ↳ metal

الامتداد الحراري، انكماش سائل

2) electrical resistance

3) thermo-electric measurement

8.3 THERMOMETRY BASED ON THERMAL Expansion

□ liquid in glass thermometer

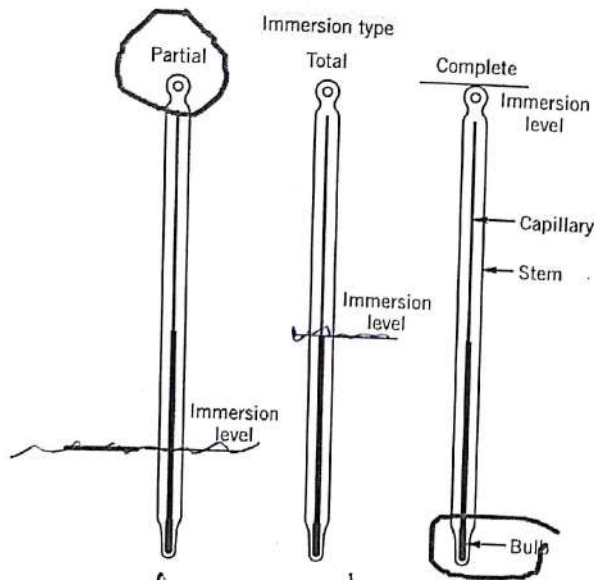


Figure 8.2 Liquid-in-glass thermometers.

لازح يكون من معصور
 جزء من المادة
 اي بي اقيمتها

تقريباً لظنه

كامل
 معصور

During calibration, such a thermometer is subject to one of three measuring environments:

1. For a *complete immersion thermometer*, the entire thermometer is immersed in the calibrating temperature environment or fluid.
2. For a *total immersion thermometer*, the thermometer is immersed in the calibrating temperature environment up to the liquid level in the capillary. *whenever*
3. For a *partial immersion thermometer*, the thermometer is immersed to a predetermined level in the calibrating environment. *h_e*

For the most accurate temperature measurements, the thermometer should be immersed in the same manner in use as it was during calibration.²

② Bimetallic thermometers

* the physical phenomena employed in bimetallic temperature sensor is the differential thermal expansion of two metal.

النظام الفيزيائي المستخدم في مستشعر درجة الحرارة ثنائي المعدن

* the physical basis for the relationship between the radius of curvature and temperature is given as:-

$$r_c \propto \frac{d}{[(\alpha_A) - (\alpha_B)] (T_2 - T_1)}$$

where r_c = radius of curvature

α = material thermal expansion coefficient

T = Temperature d = thickness,

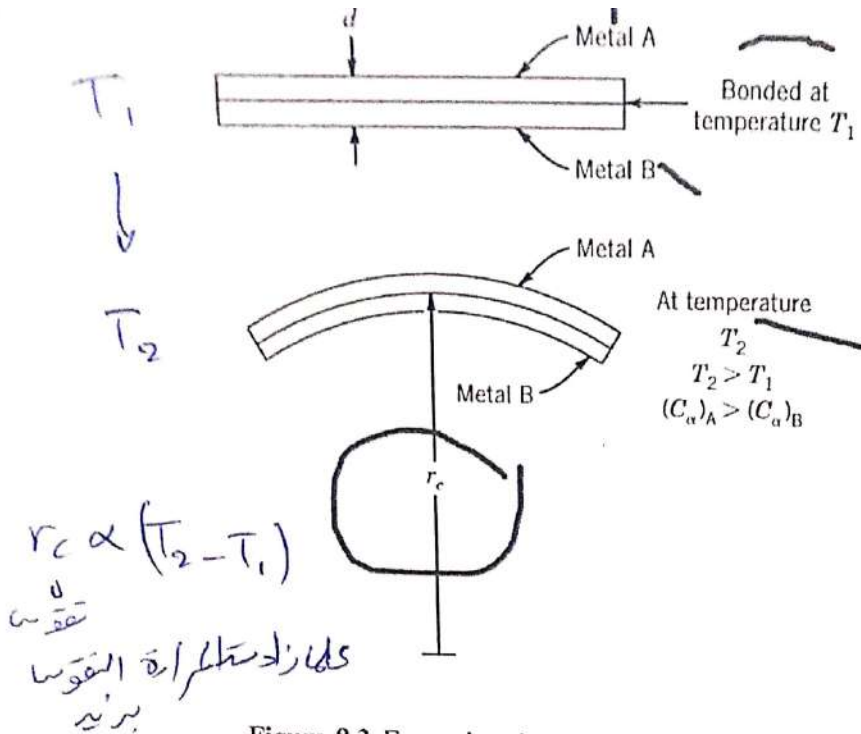


Figure 8.3 Expansion thermometry using bimetallic materials: strip, spiral, and helix forms.

Bimetallic strips employ one metal having a high coefficient of thermal expansion with another having a low coefficient, providing increased sensitivity. Invar is often used as one of the metals.

Dial thermometers using a bimetallic strip as their sensing element typically provide temperature measurements with uncertainties of $\pm 1^\circ$

8.4 ELECTRICAL RESISTANCE THERMOMETRY

Handwritten notes: $\Delta R \propto \Delta T$ and $\Delta R \propto 1/\Delta T$ with Arabic text 'تغير' (change) and 'مقاومة' (resistance).

Handwritten Arabic text: 'تغير مقاومة مع تغير الحرارة' (Resistance changes with temperature change).

- Resistance temperature detectors (RTDs) may be formed from a solid metal wire that exhibits an increase in electrical resistance with temperature. Depending on the materials selected, the resistance may increase or decrease with temperature. As a first-order approximation, the resistance change of a thermistor may be expressed as

$$R - R_0 = k(T - T_0) \quad (8.2)$$

Handwritten notes: 'تغير حرارة' (temperature change) and 'تغير مقاومة' (resistance change).

The relationship between the resistance of a metal conductor and its temperature may also be expressed as the polynomial expansion:

$$R = R_0 [1 + \alpha(T - T_0) + \beta(T - T_0)^2 + \dots] \quad (8.4)$$

This approximation can be expressed

$$R = R_0 [1 + \alpha(T - T_0)] \quad (8.5)$$

where α is the temperature coefficient of resistivity. For example, for platinum conductors the linear

material constant

Handwritten Arabic text: 'نقطة التماس' (contact point).

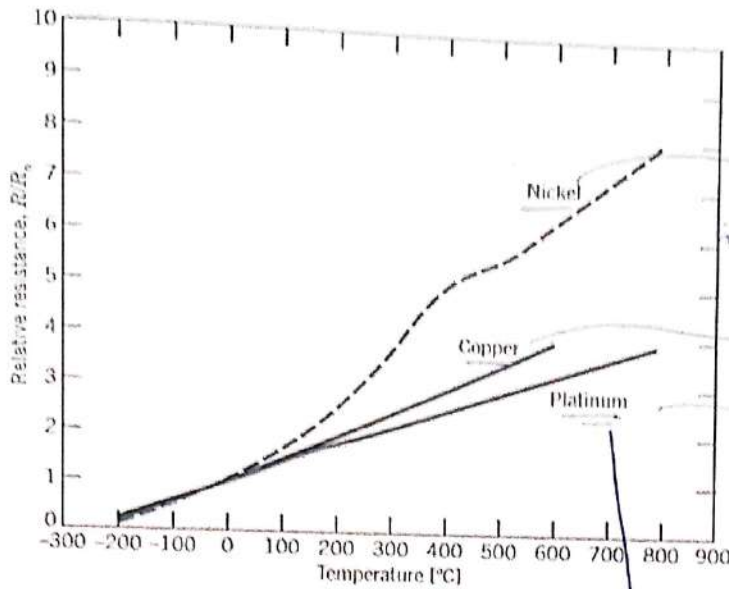


Figure 8.6 Relative resistance of three pure metals (R_0 at 0°C).

عند sensitivity بدرجة الحرارة

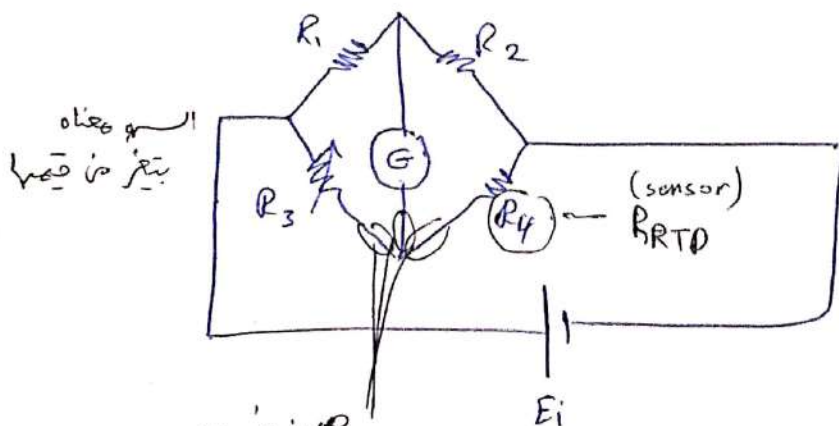
على الفكرة عند جهازين الأول -

1) RTD $\rightarrow \Delta R \propto \Delta T$

2) thermistor $\rightarrow \Delta R \propto \frac{1}{\Delta T}$

Resistance Temperature Device Resistance Measurement

صورة بنسبة Bridge circuit



$R_1 = R_2$ (مقاومة متساوية)

• عند T_1 يكون في توازن

$R_1 R_4 = R_2 R_3$

• يكون $G = 0$

$T_1 \rightarrow T_2$

إذا تغير قيمة R_{RTD} تغير قيمة R_3 على أن نرجع في توازنه

صورة في مقارنة الأقسام
خصوصاً كانت الأقسام كبيرة
يكون أهم مقاومة significant

$$R_{RTD} = R_3 \longrightarrow T_1$$

$$R_{RTD, new} = R_{3, new} \longrightarrow T_2$$

- * Wheatstone bridge circuits are commonly used for these measurements.
- * At balance condition neglected lead wire effects r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4 .

$$\frac{R_1}{R_2} = \frac{R_3}{R_{RTD}} \quad (8.6)$$

but with lead wire resistance included in the circuit analysis.

$$\frac{R_1}{R_2} = \frac{R_3 + r_1}{R_{RTD} + r_3} \quad (8.7)$$

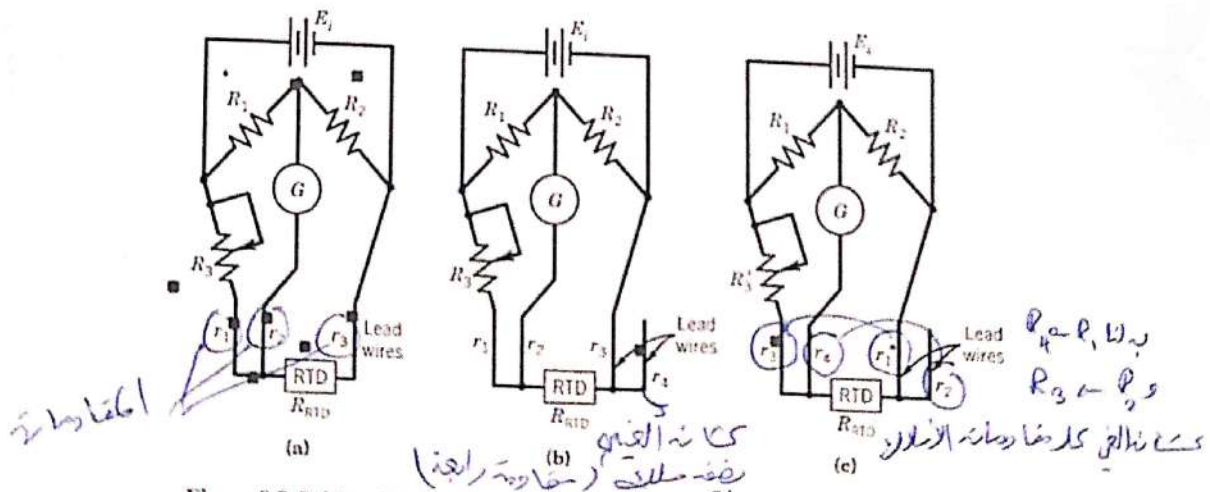


Figure 8.7 Bridge circuits. (a) Callender-Griffiths 3-wire bridge; (b) and (c) Mueller 4-wire bridge. An average of the readings in (b) and (c) eliminates the effect of lead wire resistances.

$$R_{RTD} + r_3 = R_3 + r_1$$

$$R_{RTD} = R_3 + r_1 - r_3 \longrightarrow (8.8)$$

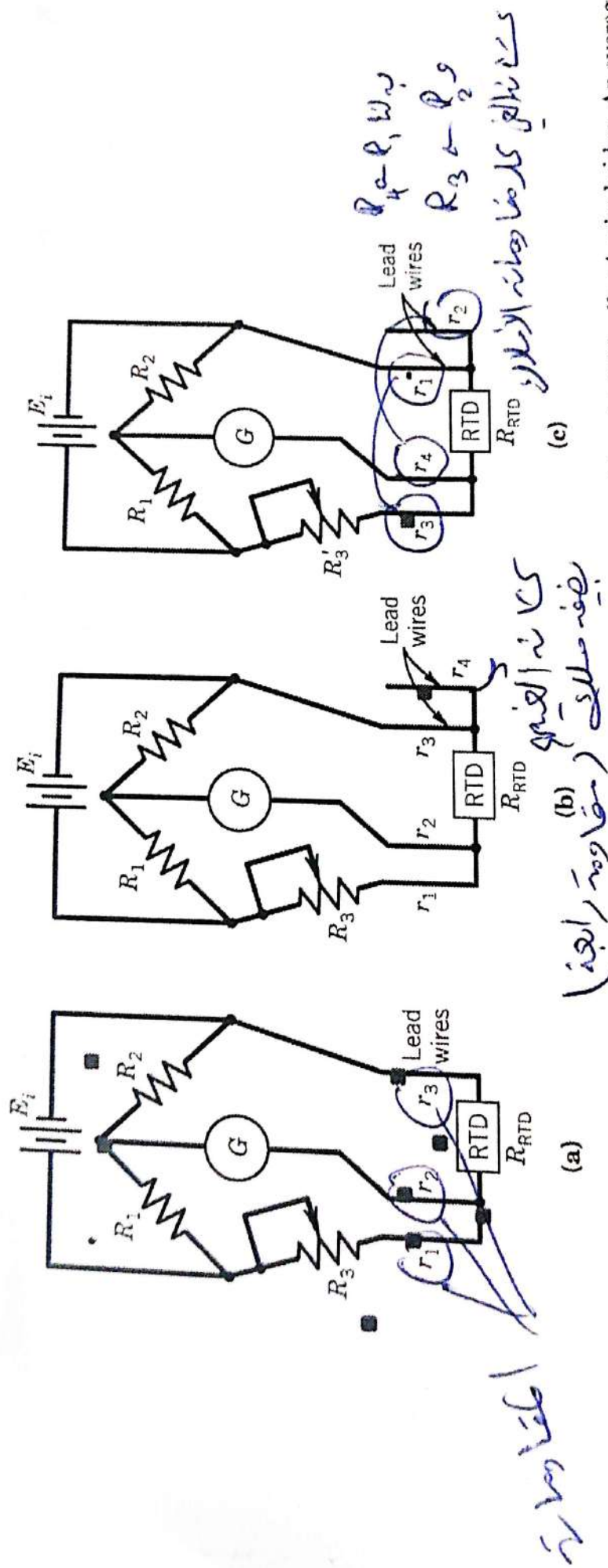


Figure 8.7 Bridge circuits. (a) Callender-Griffiths 3-wire bridge; (b) and (c) Mueller 4-wire bridge. An average of the readings in (b) and (c) eliminates the effect of lead wire resistances.

and in the second measurement configuration, Figure 8.7c, yields

$$R_{RTD} + r_3 = R_3 + r_1 \quad (8.9)$$

where R_3 and R'_3 represent the indicated values of resistance in the first and second configurations, respectively. Adding Equations 8.8 and 8.9 results in an expression for the resistance of the RTD in terms of the indicated values for the two measurements:

$$R_{RTD} + r_1 = R'_3 + r_3 \quad (8.10)$$

$$R_{RTD} = \frac{R_3 + R'_3}{2} \quad (8.11)$$

With this approach, the effect of variations in lead wire resistances is essentially eliminated.

Example 8.1

An RTD forms one arm of an equal-arm Wheatstone bridge, as shown in Figure 8.8. The fixed resistances, R_2 and R_3 are equal to 25Ω . The RTD has a resistance of 25Ω at a temperature of 0°C and is used to measure a temperature that is steady in time.

The resistance of the RTD over a small temperature range may be expressed, as in Equation 8.5:

$$R_{RTD} = R_0[1 + \alpha(T - T_0)]$$

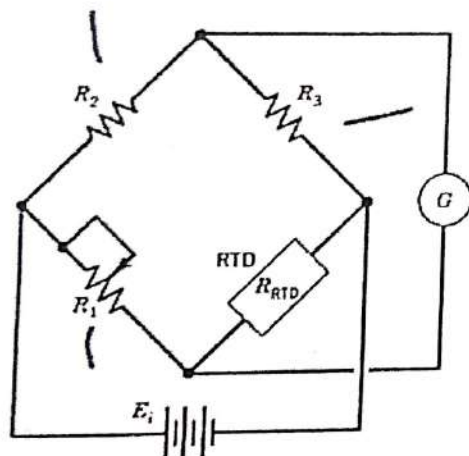


Figure 8.8 RTD Wheatstone bridge arrangement.

Suppose the coefficient of resistance for this RTD is $0.003925^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$. A temperature measurement is made by placing the RTD in the measuring environment and balancing the bridge by adjusting R_1 . The value of R_1 required to balance the bridge is 37.36Ω . Determine the temperature of the RTD.

KNOWN $R(0^\circ\text{C}) = 25 \Omega$
 $\alpha = 0.003925^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$
 $R_1 = 37.36 \Omega$ (when bridge is balanced)

FIND The temperature of the RTD.

SOLUTION The resistance of the RTD is measured by balancing the bridge; recall that in a balanced condition

$$R_{RTD} = R_1 \frac{R_3}{R_2}$$

The resistance of the RTD is measured to be 37.36Ω . With $R_0 = 25 \Omega$ at $T = 0^\circ\text{C}$ and $\alpha = 0.003925^\circ\text{C}^{-1}$, Equation 8.5 becomes

$$37.36 \Omega = 25(1 + \alpha T)\Omega$$

The temperature of the RTD is 126°C .

Example 8.2

Consider the bridge circuit and RTD of Example 8.1. To select or design a bridge circuit for measuring the resistance of the RTD in this example, the required uncertainty in temperature would be specified. If the required uncertainty in the measured temperature is $\leq 0.5^\circ\text{C}$, would a 1% total uncertainty in each of the resistors that make up the bridge be acceptable? Neglect the effects of lead wire resistances for this example.

KNOWN A required uncertainty in temperature of $\pm 0.5^\circ\text{C}$, measured with the RTD and bridge circuit of Example 8.1.

FIND The uncertainty in the measured temperature for a 1% total uncertainty in each of the resistors that make up the bridge circuit.

ASSUMPTION All uncertainties are provided and evaluated at the 95% confidence level.

SOLUTION Perform a design-stage uncertainty analysis. Assuming at the design stage that the total uncertainty in the resistances is 1%, then with initial values of the resistances in the bridge equal to $25\ \Omega$, the design-stage uncertainties are set at

$$u_{R_1} = u_{R_2} = u_{R_3} = (0.01)(25) = 0.25\ \Omega$$

The root-sum-squares (RSS) method is used to estimate the propagation of uncertainty in each resistor to the uncertainty in determining the RTD resistance by

$$u_{R_{\text{RTD}}} = \sqrt{\left[\frac{\partial R}{\partial R_1} u_{R_1}\right]^2 + \left[\frac{\partial R}{\partial R_2} u_{R_2}\right]^2 + \left[\frac{\partial R}{\partial R_3} u_{R_3}\right]^2}$$

where

$$R = R_{\text{RTD}} = \frac{R_1 R_3}{R_2}$$

and we assume that the uncertainties are not correlated. Then, the design-stage uncertainty in the resistance of the RTD is

$$u_{R_{\text{RTD}}} = \sqrt{\left[\frac{R_3}{R_2} u_{R_1}\right]^2 + \left[\frac{-R_1 R_3}{R_2^2} u_{R_2}\right]^2 + \left[\frac{R_1}{R_2} u_{R_3}\right]^2}$$

$$u_{R_{\text{RTD}}} = \sqrt{(1 \times 0.25)^2 + (1 \times -0.25)^2 + (1 \times 0.25)^2} = 0.433\ \Omega$$

To determine the uncertainty in temperature, we know

$$R = R_{\text{RTD}} = R_0 [1 + \alpha(T - T_0)]$$

and

$$u_T = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial R} u_{R_{\text{RTD}}}\right)^2}$$

Setting $T_0 = 0^\circ\text{C}$ with $R_0 = 25\ \Omega$, and neglecting uncertainties in T_0 , α , and R_0 , we have

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial R} = \frac{1}{\alpha R_0}$$

$$\frac{1}{\alpha R_0} = \frac{1}{(0.003925^\circ\text{C}^{-1})(25\ \Omega)}$$

Then the design-stage uncertainty in temperature is

$$u_T = u_{R_{\text{RTD}}} \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial R}\right) = \frac{0.433\ \Omega}{0.098\ \Omega/^\circ\text{C}} = 4.4^\circ\text{C}$$

The desired uncertainty in temperature is not achieved with the specified levels of uncertainty in the pertinent variables.

COMMENT Uncertainty analysis, in this case, would have prevented performing a measurement that would not provide acceptable results.



Example 8.3

Suppose the total uncertainty in the bridge resistances of Example 8.1 was reduced to 0.1%. Would the required level of uncertainty in temperature be achieved?

KNOWN The uncertainty in each of the resistors in the bridge circuit for temperature measurement from Example 8.1 is $\pm 0.1\%$.

FIND The resulting uncertainty in temperature.

SOLUTION The uncertainty analysis from the previous example may be directly applied, with the uncertainty values for the resistances appropriately reduced. The uncertainties for the resistances

are reduced from 0.25 to 0.025, yielding

$$u_{\text{RTD}} = \sqrt{(1 \times 0.025)^2 + (1 \times -0.025)^2 + (1 \times 0.025)^2} = 0.0433 \Omega$$

and the resulting 95% uncertainty interval in temperature is $\pm 0.44^\circ\text{C}$, which satisfies the design constraint.

COMMENT This result provides confidence that the effect of the resistors' uncertainties will not cause the uncertainty in temperature to exceed the target value. However, the uncertainty in temperature also depends on other aspects of the measurement system. The design-stage uncertainty analysis performed in this example may be viewed as ensuring that the factors considered do not produce a higher than acceptable uncertainty level.

$$\boxed{\text{Thermistors}} \rightarrow \Delta R \propto \frac{1}{\Delta T}$$

صوحيات يستخدم للمادة (جارية عن semiconductor) لانتزاع الحرارة بتزائل المقاومة بغير.

Thermistors (from thermally sensitivity resistors) are ceramics-like semiconductor devices. the most common thermistors are NTC, and the resistance of these thermistors decreases rapidly with temperature, which is contrast to the small increases of resistance with temperature of RTDs.

الترمسترات (مقاومات الحاسة حرارياً) عبارة عن جزيء شبه موصلة لا سيراميك.
 أكثر الترمسترات شيوعاً هي NTC فتتغير مقاومتها بسرعة مع الحرارة وصوتاً يتناقص مع الزيادة
 الصغيرة في المقاومة مع درجة الحرارة RTDs.

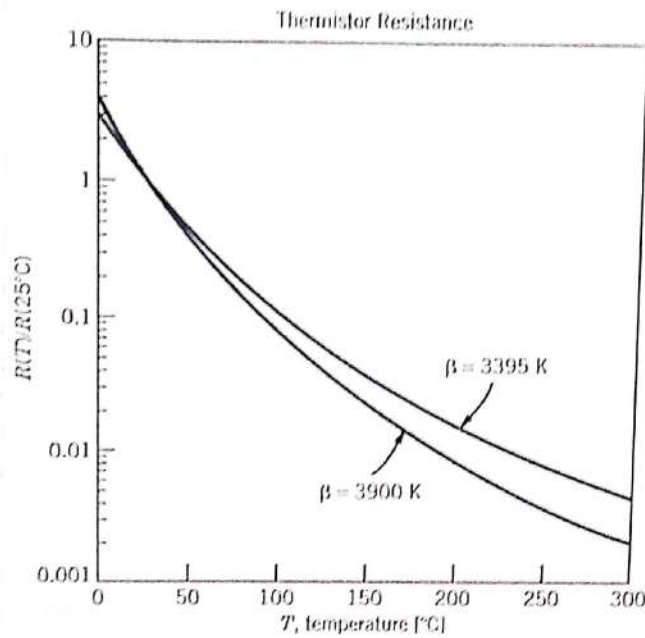
a more accurate functional relationship between resistance and temperature for thermistor is generally assumed to be of the form:-

$$R = R_0 e^{\beta(1/T - 1/T_0)}$$

$$R_0 \rightarrow T_0$$

$$R \rightarrow T$$

the Parameter β ranges from 3500 to 4600K.



الخاصية السالبة
لزيادة الحرارة

Figure 8.9 Representative thermistor resistance variations with temperature.

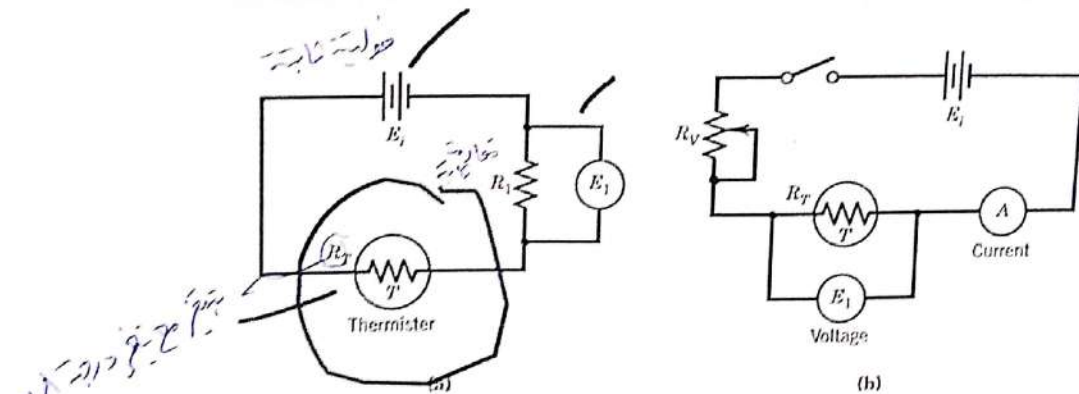


Figure 8.10 Circuits for determining β for thermistors. (a) Voltage divider method: $R_T = R_1(E_i/E_1 - 1)$. Note: Both R_1 and E_i must be known values. The value of R_1 may be varied to achieve appropriate values of thermistor current. (b) Volt-ammeter method. Note: Both current and voltage are measured.

$$\frac{R_T}{R_1} = \frac{E_i}{E_1} - 1 \quad \xrightarrow{\text{voltage}} \quad \frac{E_i}{R_1 + R_2} = \frac{E_1}{R_1}$$

يوجد مثال 8.4, 8.5, 8.6

Thermistors are generally used when high sensitivity, ruggedness, or fast response times are required (9). Thermistors are often encapsulated in glass, and thus can be used in corrosive or abrasive environments. The resistance characteristics of the semiconductor material may change at elevated temperatures, and some aging of a thermistor occurs at temperatures above 200°C. The high resistance of a thermistor, compared to that of an RTD, eliminates the problems of lead wire resistance compensation.

A commonly reported specification of a thermistor is the zero-power resistance and dissipation constant. The zero-power resistance of a thermistor is the resistance value of the thermistor with no flow of electric current. The zero power resistance should be measured such that a decrease in the current flow to the thermistor results in not more than a 0.1% change in resistance. The dissipation constant for a thermistor is defined at a given ambient temperature as

$$\delta = \frac{P}{T - T_{\infty}} \quad (8.13)$$

where

δ = dissipation constant

P = power supplied to the thermistor

T, T_{∞} = thermistor and ambient temperatures, respectively

Example 8.4

The output of a thermistor is highly nonlinear with temperature, and there is often a benefit to linearizing the output through appropriate circuit, whether active or passive. In this example we examine the output of an initially balanced bridge circuit where one of the arms contains a thermistor. Consider a Wheatstone bridge as shown in Figure 8.8, but replace the RTD with a thermistor having a value of $R_0 = 10,000 \Omega$ with $\beta = 3680 \text{ K}$. Here we examine the output of the circuit over two temperature ranges: (a) 25–325°C, and (b) 25–75°C.

KNOWN A Wheatstone bridge where $R_2 = R_3 = R_4 = 10,000 \Omega$ and where R_1 is a thermistor.

FIND The output of the bridge circuit as a function of temperature.

SOLUTION The fundamental relationship between resistances in a Wheatstone bridge and the normalized output voltage is provided in Equation 6.14:

$$\frac{E_o}{E_i} = \left(\frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2} - \frac{R_3}{R_3 + R_4} \right) \quad (6.14)$$

And the resistance of the thermistor is

$$R = R_0 e^{\beta(1/T - 1/T_0)}$$

Substituting in Equation 6.14 for R_1 yields

$$\frac{E_o}{E_i} = \left(\frac{R_0 e^{\beta(1/T - 1/T_0)}}{R_0 e^{\beta(1/T - 1/T_0)} + R_2} - \frac{R_3}{R_3 + R_4} \right)$$

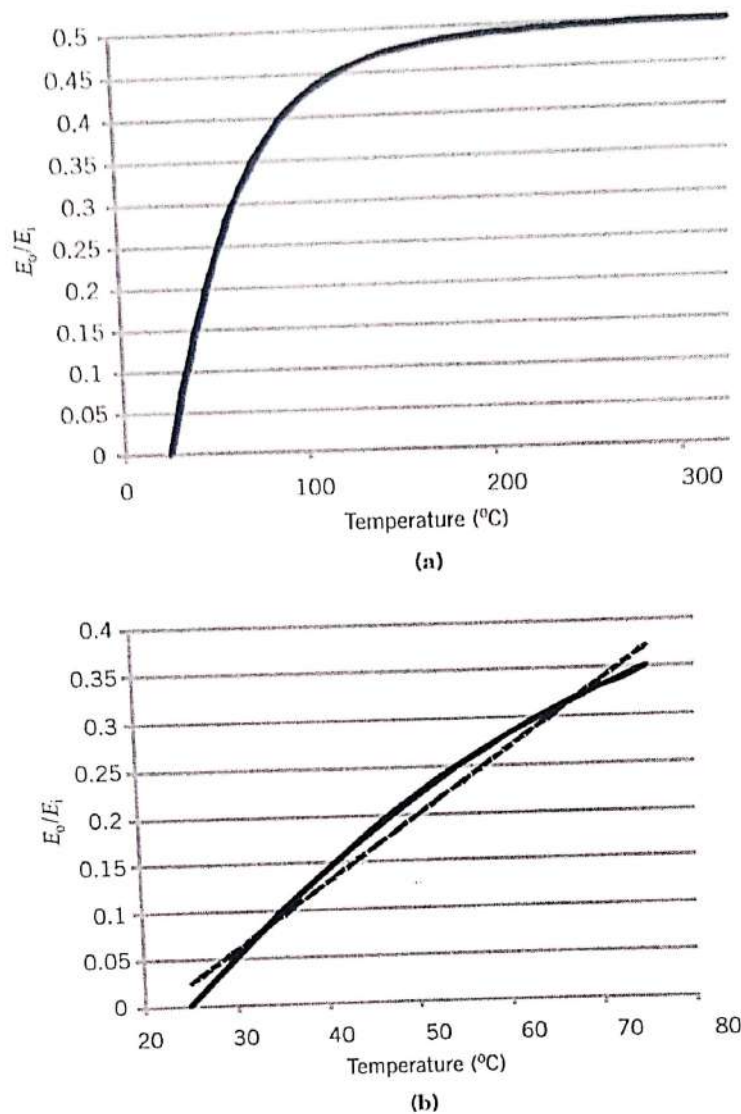


Figure 8.11 Normalized bridge output voltage as a function of temperature with a thermistor as the temperature sensor: (a) 25° to 325°C, (b) 25° to 75°C.

Figure 8.11a is a plot of this function over the range 25° to 325°C. Clearly the sensitivity of the circuit to changes in temperature greatly diminishes as the temperature increases above 100°C, with an asymptotic value of 0.5. Figure 8.11b shows the behavior over the restricted range 25° to 75°C; a linear curve fit is also shown for comparison. Over this range of temperature, assuming a linear relationship between normalized output and temperature would be suitable for many applications provided that the accompanying linearity error is acceptable.

Example 8.5

The material constant β is to be determined for a particular thermistor using the circuit shown in Figure 8.10a. The thermistor has a resistance of $60\text{ k}\Omega$ at 25°C . The reference resistor in the circuit, R_1 , has a resistance of $130.5\text{ k}\Omega$. The dissipation constant δ is $0.09\text{ mW}/^\circ\text{C}$. The voltage source used for the measurement is constant at 1.564 V . The thermistor is to be used at temperatures ranging from 100 to 150°C . Determine the value of β .

KNOWN The temperature range of interest is from 100° to 150°C .

$$R_0 = 60,000\ \Omega, \quad T_0 = 25^\circ\text{C} \\ E_i = 1.564\text{ V}, \quad \delta = 0.09\text{ mW}/^\circ\text{C}, \quad R_1 = 130.5\text{ k}\Omega$$

FIND The value of β over the temperature range from 100° to 150°C .

SOLUTION The voltage drop across the fixed resistor is measured for three known values of thermistor temperature. The thermistor temperature is controlled and determined by placing the thermistor in a laboratory oven and measuring the temperature of the oven. For each measured voltage across the reference resistor, the thermistor resistance R_T is determined from

$$R_T = R_1 \left(\frac{E_i}{E_1} - 1 \right)$$

The results of these measurements are as follows:

Temperature ($^\circ\text{C}$)	R_1 Voltage (V)	R_T (Ω)
100	1.501	5477.4
125	1.531	2812.9
150	1.545	1604.9

Equation 8.12 can be expressed in the form of a linear equation as

$$\ln \frac{R_T}{R_0} = \beta \left(\frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T_0} \right) \quad (8.14)$$

Applying this equation to the measured data, with $R_0 = 60,000\ \Omega$, the three data points above yield the following:

$\ln(R_T/R_0)$	$(1/T - 1/T_0)\text{ [K}^{-1}\text{]}$	$\beta(\text{K})$
-2.394	-6.75×10^{-4}	3546.7
-3.060	-8.43×10^{-4}	3629.9
-3.621	-9.92×10^{-4}	3650.2

COMMENT These results are for constant β and are based on the behavior described by Equation 8.12, over the temperature range from T_0 to the temperature T . The significance of the measured differences in β is examined further.

The measured values of β in Example 8.5 are different at each value of temperature. If β were truly a temperature-independent constant, and these measurements had negligible uncertainty, all three measurements would yield the same value of β . The variation in β may be due to a physical effect of temperature, or may be attributable to the uncertainty in the measured values.

Are the measured differences significant, and if so, what value of β best represents the behavior of the thermistor over this temperature range? To perform the necessary uncertainty analysis, additional information must be provided concerning the instruments and procedures used in the measurement.

Example 8.6

Perform an uncertainty analysis to determine the uncertainty in each measured value of β in Example 8.5, and evaluate a single best estimate of β for this temperature range. The measurement of β involves the measurement of voltages, temperatures, and resistances. For temperature there is a random error associated with spatial and temporal variations in the oven temperature with a random standard uncertainty of $s_T = 0.19^\circ\text{C}$ for 20 measurements. In addition, based on a manufacturer's specification, there is a known measurement systematic uncertainty for temperature of 0.36°C (95%) in the thermocouple.

The systematic errors in measuring resistance and voltage are negligible, and estimates of the instrument repeatability, which are based on the manufacturer's specifications in the measured values and assumed to be at a 95% confidence level, are assigned systematic uncertainties of 1.5% for resistance and 0.002 V for the voltage.

KNOWN Standard deviation of the means for oven temperature, $s_T = 0.19^\circ\text{C}$, $N = 20$. The remaining errors are assigned systematic uncertainties at 95% confidence assuming large degrees of freedom, such that $B_x = 2b_x$:

$$B_T = 2b_T = 0.36^\circ\text{C}$$

$$B_R/R = (2b_R)/R = 1.5\%$$

$$B_E = 2b_E = 0.002\text{ V}$$

FIND The uncertainty in β at each measured temperature, and a best estimate for β over the measured temperature range.

SOLUTION Consider the problem of providing a single best estimate of β . One method of estimation might be to average the three measured values. This results in a value of 3609 K. However, since the relationship between (R_T/R_0) and $(1/T - 1/T_0)$ is expected to be linear, a least-squares fit can be performed on the three data points, and include the point (0, 0). The resulting value of β is 3638 K. Is this difference significant, and which value best represents the behavior of the thermistor? To answer these questions, an uncertainty analysis is performed for β .

For each measured value,

$$\beta = \frac{\ln(R_T/R_0)}{1/T - 1/T_0}$$

Uncertainties in voltage, temperature, and resistance are propagated into the resulting value of β for each measurement.

Consider first the sensitivity indices θ_i for each of the variables R_T , R_0 , T , and T_0 . These may be tabulated by computing the appropriate partial derivatives of β , evaluated at each of the three temperatures, as follows:

$T (^{\circ}\text{C})$	$\theta_{R_T} (\text{K}/\Omega)$	$\theta_{R_0} (\text{K}/\Omega)$	θ_T	θ_{T_0}
100	-0.270	0.0247	-37.77	59.17
125	-0.422	0.0198	-27.18	48.48
150	-0.628	0.0168	-20.57	41.45

The determination of the uncertainty in β , u_β , requires the uncertainty in the measured value of resistance for the thermistor, u_{R_T} . But R_T is determined from the expression

$$R_T = R_1[(E_i/E_1) - 1]$$

and thus requires an analysis of the uncertainty in the resulting value of R_T , from measured values of R_1 , E_i , and E_1 . All errors in R_T are treated as uncorrelated systematic errors, yielding

$$b_{R_T} = \sqrt{\left[\frac{\partial R_T}{\partial R_1} b_{R_1}\right]^2 + \left[\frac{\partial R_T}{\partial E_i} b_{E_i}\right]^2 + \left[\frac{\partial R_T}{\partial E_1} b_{E_1}\right]^2} = \sqrt{[\theta_{R_1} b_{R_1}]^2 + [\theta_{E_i} b_{E_i}]^2 + [\theta_{E_1} b_{E_1}]^2}$$

To arrive at a representative value, we compute b_{R_T} at 125°C . The systematic standard uncertainty in R_1 is 0.75% of 130.5 k Ω , or 978 Ω , and in R_0 is 450 Ω . The systematic standard uncertainties in E_i and E_1 are each 0.001 V, and $\theta_{R_1} = 0.022$, $\theta_{E_i} = 85238$, and $\theta_{E_1} = 87076$. This gives $b_{R_T} = 123.7 \Omega$.

An uncertainty for β is determined for each of the measured temperatures. The propagation of the measurement systematic errors for temperature and resistance is found as

$$b_\beta = \sqrt{[\theta_T b_T]^2 + [\theta_{T_0} b_{T_0}]^2 + [\theta_{R_T} b_{R_T}]^2 + [\theta_{R_0} b_{R_0}]^2}$$

where

$$b_T = 0.18^{\circ}\text{C} \quad b_{R_T} = 123.7 \Omega$$

$$b_{T_0} = 0.18^{\circ}\text{C} \quad b_{R_0} = 450 \Omega$$

The random standard uncertainty for β contains contributions only from the statistically determined oven temperature characteristics and is found from

$$s_\beta = \sqrt{(\theta_T s_T)^2 + (\theta_{T_0} s_{T_0})^2}$$

where both s_T and s_{T_0} are 0.19, as determined with $\nu = 19$.

The resulting values of uncertainty in β are found from

$$u_\beta = t_{\nu,95} \sqrt{b_\beta^2 + s_\beta^2}$$

where ν_β is sufficiently large (see Eq. 5.39) so that $t_{\nu,95} \approx 2$. At each temperature the uncertainty in β is determined as shown in Table 8.3. The effect of increases in the sensitivity indices θ_i on the total uncertainty is to cause increased uncertainty in β as the temperature increases.

Table 8.3 Uncertainties in β

$T [^{\circ}\text{C}]$	Uncertainty		
	Random	Systematic	Total
	$s_{\bar{\beta}}$ [K]	b_{β} [K]	$\pm u_{\beta}$ 95% [K]
100	13.3	37.4	79.4
125	10.6	53.9	109.9
150	8.8	78.4	157.8

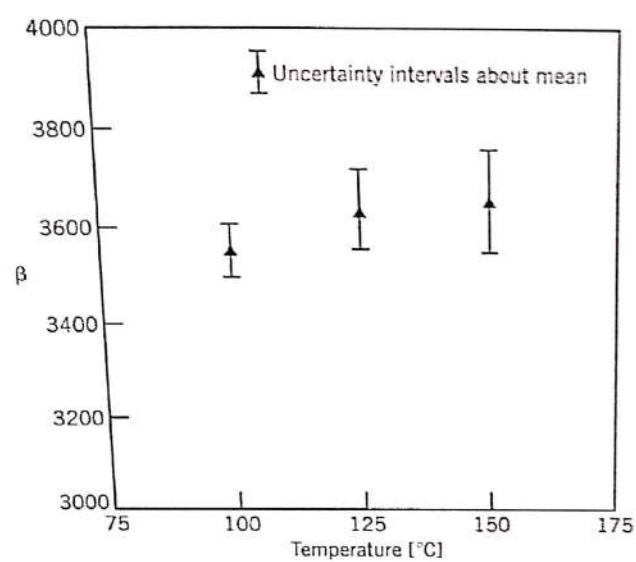


Figure 8.12 Measured values of β and associated uncertainties for three temperatures. Each data point represents $\bar{\beta} \pm u_{\beta}$.

The original results of the measured values of β must now be reexamined. The results from Table 8.3 are plotted as a function of temperature in Figure 8.12, with 95% uncertainty limits on each data point. Clearly, there is no justification for assuming that the measured values indicate a trend of changes with temperature, and it would be appropriate to use either the average value of β or the value determined from the linear least-squares curve fit.

8.5 THERMOELECTRIC TEMPERATURE MEASUREMENT

The most common method of measuring and controlling temperature uses an electrical circuit called a thermocouple. A thermocouple consists of two electrical conductors that are made of dissimilar metals and have at least one electrical connection. This electrical connection is referred to as a junction. A thermocouple junction may be created by welding, soldering, or by any method that provides good electrical contact between the two conductors, such as twisting the wires around one another. The output of a thermocouple circuit is a voltage, and there is a definite relationship between this voltage and the temperatures of the junctions that make up the thermocouple circuit. We will examine the causes of this voltage, and develop the basis for using thermocouples to make engineering measurements of temperature.

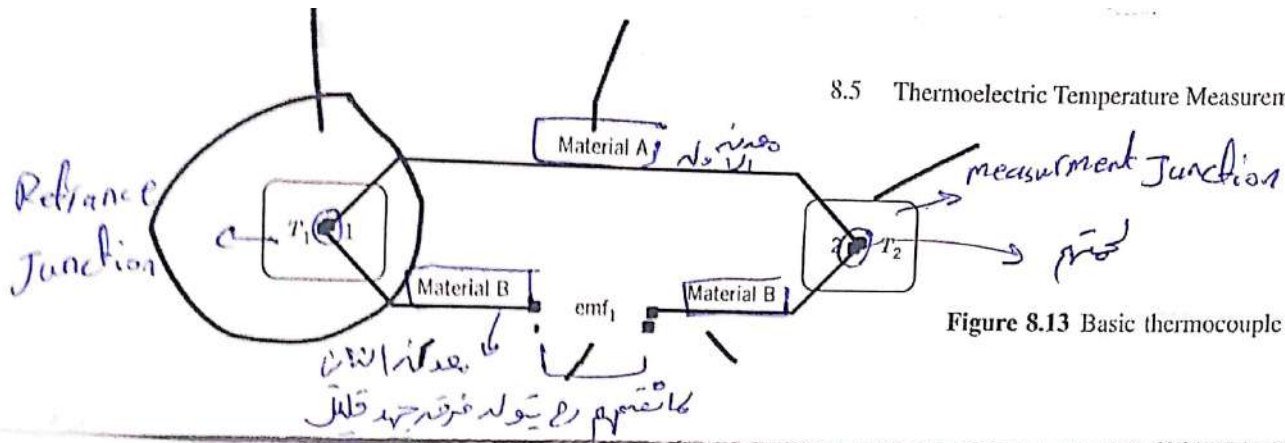


Figure 8.13 Basic thermocouple circuit.

- emf1 به چه نسبتی به $(T_2 - T_1)$ بستگی دارد؟
- 1) $\propto (T_2 - T_1)$
 - 2) Type of material.
 - 3) Reference Junction.

این سه اثر را در یک مدار می‌توانیم مشاهده کنیم (همین نوعی) و به هم مرتبط هستند.

- 1) seebeck Effect
- 2) peltier effect
- 3) thomson effect

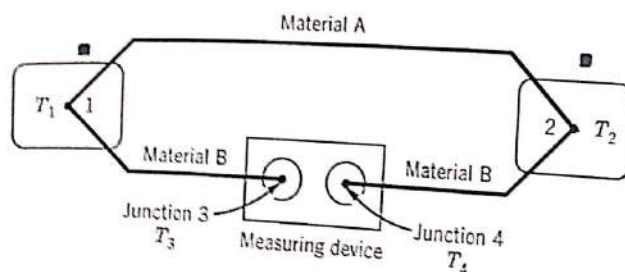


Figure 8.16 Typical thermocouple measuring circuit.

بنابراین برای اندازه‌گیری دما، باید از این اثر استفاده کنیم.

A thermocouple junction is the source of an *electromotive force* (emf), which gives rise to the potential difference in a thermocouple circuit. It is the basis for temperature measurement using thermocouples. The circuit shown in Figure 8.13 is the most common form of a thermocouple circuit used for measuring temperature.

Reference junction :- 0°C $\rightarrow$ Because of the ease with which it can be obtained

in two basic way :-
 1) creating a reference point by electric circuit,
 2) ice bath ~~serve~~ served.

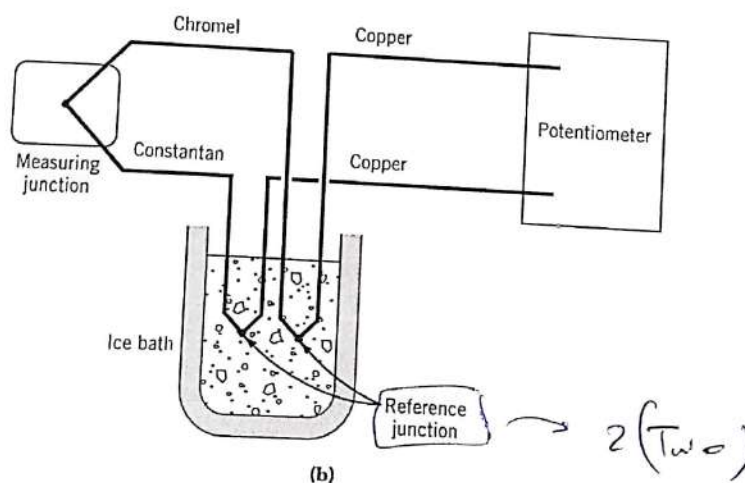
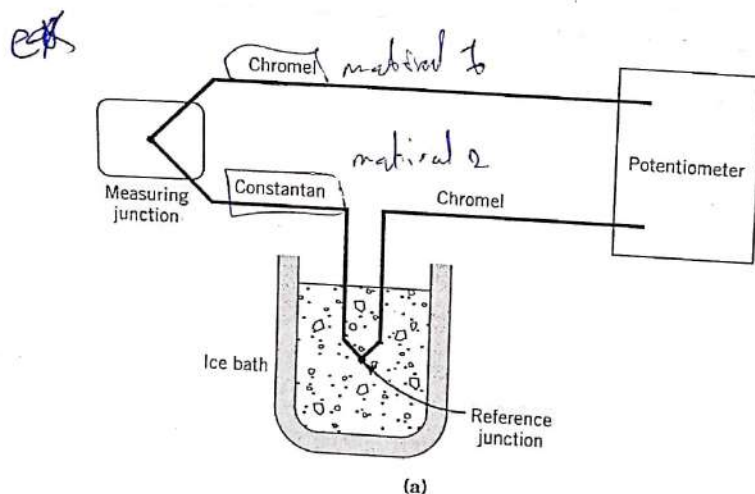


Table 8.5 Standard Thermocouple Compositions^a

Type	Wire		Expected Systematic Uncertainty ^b
	Positive	Negative	
S	Platinum	Platinum/10% rhodium	$\pm 1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$ or 0.25%
R	Platinum	Platinum/13% rhodium	$\pm 1.5^{\circ}\text{C}$
B	Platinum/30% rhodium	Platinum/6% rhodium	$\pm 0.5^{\circ}\text{C}$
T	Copper	Constantan	$\pm 1.0^{\circ}\text{C}$ or 0.75%
J	Iron	Constantan	$\pm 2.2^{\circ}\text{C}$ or 0.75%
K	Chromel	Alumel	$\pm 2.2^{\circ}\text{C}$ or 0.75%
E	Chromel	Constantan	$\pm 1.7^{\circ}\text{C}$ or 0.5%

Alloy Designations

Constantan: 55% copper with 45% nickel

Chromel: 90% nickel with 10% chromium

Alumel: 94% nickel with 3% manganese, 2% aluminum, and 1% silicon

^aFrom Temperature Measurements ANSI PTC 19.3-1974.^bUse greater value; these limits of error do not include installation errors.Table 8.6 Thermocouple Reference Table for Type-J Thermocouple^a

Table 8.6 Thermocouple Reference Table for Type-J Thermocouple											Thermocouple emf (mV)
Temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$)		0	-1	-2	-3	-4	-5	-6	-7	-8	-9
-210	-8.095										
-200	-7.890	-7.912	-7.934	-7.955	-7.976	-7.996	-8.017	-8.037	-8.057	-8.076	
-190	-7.659	-7.683	-7.707	-7.731	-7.755	-7.778	-7.801	-7.824	-7.846	-7.868	
-180	-7.403	-7.429	-7.456	-7.482	-7.508	-7.534	-7.559	-7.585	-7.610	-7.634	
-170	-7.123	-7.152	-7.181	-7.209	-7.237	-7.265	-7.293	-7.321	-7.348	-7.376	
-160	-6.821	-6.853	-6.883	-6.914	-6.944	-6.975	-7.005	-7.035	-7.064	-7.094	
-150	-6.500	-6.533	-6.566	-6.598	-6.631	-6.663	-6.695	-6.727	-6.759	-6.790	
-140	-6.159	-6.194	-6.229	-6.263	-6.298	-6.332	-6.366	-6.400	-6.433	-6.467	
-130	-5.801	-5.838	-5.874	-5.910	-5.946	-5.982	-6.018	-6.054	-6.089	-6.124	
-120	-5.426	-5.465	-5.503	-5.541	-5.578	-5.616	-5.653	-5.690	-5.727	-5.764	
-110	-5.037	-5.076	-5.116	-5.155	-5.194	-5.233	-5.272	-5.311	-5.350	-5.388	
-100	-4.633	-4.674	-4.714	-4.755	-4.796	-4.836	-4.877	-4.917	-4.957	-4.997	
-90	-4.215	-4.257	-4.300	-4.342	-4.384	-4.425	-4.467	-4.509	-4.550	-4.591	
-80	-3.786	-3.829	-3.872	-3.916	-3.959	-4.002	-4.045	-4.088	-4.130	-4.173	
-70	-3.344	-3.389	-3.434	-3.478	-3.522	-3.566	-3.610	-3.654	-3.698	-3.742	
-60	-2.893	-2.938	-2.984	-3.029	-3.075	-3.120	-3.165	-3.210	-3.255	-3.300	
-50	-2.431	-2.478	-2.524	-2.571	-2.617	-2.663	-2.709	-2.755	-2.801	-2.847	
-40	-1.961	-2.008	-2.055	-2.103	-2.150	-2.197	-2.244	-2.291	-2.338	-2.385	
-30	-1.482	-1.530	-1.578	-1.626	-1.674	-1.722	-1.770	-1.818	-1.865	-1.913	
-20	-0.995	-1.044	-1.093	-1.142	-1.190	-1.239	-1.288	-1.336	-1.385	-1.433	
-10	-0.501	-0.550	-0.600	-0.650	-0.699	-0.749	-0.798	-0.847	-0.896	-0.946	
0	0.000	-0.050	-0.101	-0.151	-0.201	-0.251	-0.301	-0.351	-0.401	-0.451	

(continued)

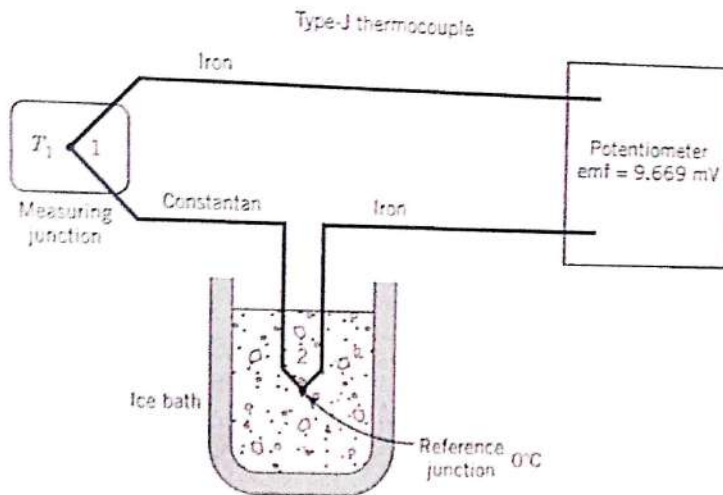


Figure 8.21 Thermocouple circuit for Example 8.7.

high-impedance voltmeters have been incorporated into commercially available temperature indicators, temperature controllers, and digital data-acquisition systems (DAS).

Example 8.7

The thermocouple circuit shown in Figure 8.21 is used to measure the temperature T_1 . The thermocouple reference junction labeled 2 is at a temperature of 0°C , maintained by an ice-point bath. The voltage output is measured using a potentiometer and found to be 9.669 mV. What is T_1 ?

KNOWN A thermocouple circuit having one junction at 0°C and a second junction at an unknown temperature. The circuit produces an emf of 9.669 mV.

FIND The temperature T_1 .

ASSUMPTION Thermocouple follows NIST standard.

SOLUTION Standard thermocouple tables such as Table 8.6 are referenced to 0°C . The temperature of the reference junction for this case is 0°C . Therefore, the temperature corresponding to the output voltage may simply be determined from Table 8.6, in this case as 180.0°C .

COMMENT Because of the law of intermediate metals, the junctions formed at the potentiometer do not affect the voltage measured for the thermocouple circuit, and the voltage output reflects accurately the temperature difference between junctions 1 and 2.

Example 8.8

Suppose the thermocouple circuit in the previous example (Ex. 8.7) now has junction 2 maintained at a temperature of 30°C , and produces an output voltage of 8.132 mV. What temperature is sensed by the measuring junction?

KNOWN The value of T_2 is 30°C , and the output emf is 8.132 mV.

ASSUMPTION Thermocouple follows NIST standard emf behavior.

FIND The temperature of the measuring junction.

SOLUTION By the law of intermediate temperatures the output emf for a thermocouple circuit having two junctions, one at 0°C and the other at T_1 , would be the sum of the emfs for a thermocouple circuit between 0° and 30°C and between 30°C and T_1 . Thus,

$$\text{emf}_{0-30} + \text{emf}_{30-T_1} = \text{emf}_{0-T_1}$$

This relationship allows the voltage reading from the nonstandard reference temperature to be converted to a 0°C reference temperature by adding $\text{emf}_{0-30} = 1.537$ to the existing reading. This results in an equivalent output voltage, referenced to 0°C as

$$1.537 + 8.132 = 9.669 \text{ mV}$$

Clearly, this thermocouple is sensing the same temperature as in the previous example, 180.0°C . This value is determined from Table 8.6.

COMMENT Note that the effect of raising the reference junction temperature is to lower the output voltage of the thermocouple circuit. Negative values of voltage, as compared with the polarity listed in Table 8.4, indicate that the measured temperature is less than the reference junction temperature.

Example 8.9

A J-type thermocouple measures a temperature of 100°C and is referenced to 0°C . The thermocouple is AWG 30 (American wire gauge [AWG]; AWG 30 is 0.010-in. wire diameter) and is arranged in a circuit as shown in Figure 8.17a. The length of the thermocouple wire is 10 ft in order to run from the measurement point to the ice bath and to a potentiometer. The resolution of the potentiometer is 0.005 mV. If the thermocouple wire has a resistance per unit length, as specified by the manufacturer, of $5.6 \Omega/\text{ft}$, estimate the residual current in the thermocouple when the circuit is balanced within the resolution of the potentiometer.

KNOWN A potentiometer having a resolution of 0.005 mV is used to measure the emf of a J-type thermocouple that is 10 ft long.

FIND The residual current in the thermocouple circuit.

SOLUTION The total resistance of the thermocouple circuit is 56Ω for 10 ft of thermocouple wire. The residual current is then found from Ohm's law as

$$I = \frac{E}{R} = \frac{0.005 \text{ mV}}{56 \Omega} = 8.9 \times 10^{-8} \text{ A}$$

COMMENT The loading error due to this current flow is $\sim 0.005 \text{ mV} / 54.3 \mu\text{V}/^\circ\text{C} \approx 0.09^\circ\text{C}$.

Example 8.10

Suppose a high-impedance voltmeter is used in place of the potentiometer in Example 8.9. Determine the minimum input impedance required for the voltmeter that will limit the loading error to the same level as the potentiometer.

KNOWN Loading error should be less than 8.9×10^{-8} A.

FIND Input impedance for a voltmeter that would produce the same current flow or loading error.

SOLUTION At 100°C a J-type thermocouple referenced to 0°C has a Seebeck voltage of $E_s = 5.269$ mV. At this temperature, the required voltmeter impedance to limit the current flow to 8.9×10^{-8} A is found from Ohm's law:

$$\frac{E_s}{I} = 5.269 \times 10^{-3} \text{ V} / 8.9 \times 10^{-8} \text{ A} = 59.2 \text{ k}\Omega$$

COMMENT This input impedance is not at all high for a modern microvoltmeter and such a voltmeter would be a reasonable choice in this situation. As always, the allowable loading error should be determined based on the required uncertainty in the measured temperature.

336 Chapter 8 Temperature Measurements

Table 8.4 Thermocouple Designations

Type	Material Combination		Applications
	Positive	Negative	
E	Chromel(+)	Constantan(-)	Highest sensitivity ($<1000^\circ\text{C}$)
J	Iron(+)	Constantan(-)	Nonoxidizing environment ($<760^\circ\text{C}$)
K	Chromel(+)	Alumel(-)	High temperature ($<1372^\circ\text{C}$)
S	Platinum/ 10% rhodium	Platinum(-)	Long-term stability high temperature ($<1768^\circ\text{C}$)
T	Copper(+)	Constantan(-)	Reducing or vacuum environments ($<400^\circ\text{C}$)

Multiple measurement system

عدم اليقين

إمكانية قراءة

uncertainty - عدم اليقين

ادراسة
uncertainty

advantages:

- ① well know measurement procedure
- ② enough ~~rep~~ repetitions/replications

#Determines

① overall precision

② bias

$$P = \sqrt{P_1^2 + P_2^2 + P_3^2 + \dots} \quad B = \sqrt{B_1^2 + B_2^2 + B_3^2 + \dots}$$

$$U_x^2 = B^2 + \left[t_{\alpha, 95\%} \sqrt{\frac{P^2}{n-1}} \right]^2$$

$P \times t \rightarrow$ لأن قيمة P غير دقيقة

$B \times A \rightarrow$ على الرغم من أن B قد يكون دقيقاً جداً، إلا أن A قد يكون غير دقيقاً جداً

$$U_A = \sqrt{B^2 + \left[t_{n-1, 95\%} P \right]^2} \quad (95\%)$$

$$R = x_1 + 2x_2$$

22.

$$U_R^2 = \left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial x_i} \cdot U_{x_i} \right)^2$$

$$U_R^2 = (1 \cdot U_{x_1})^2 + (2 \cdot U_{x_2})^2$$

$$U_R = \sqrt{(1 \cdot U_{x_1})^2 + (2 \cdot U_{x_2})^2}$$

$$R = x_1 - 9x_2$$

$$U_R^2 = (1 \cdot U_{x_1})^2 - (9 \cdot U_{x_2})^2 \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial R}{\partial x_2} = -9 \\ \frac{\partial R}{\partial x_1} = 1 \end{array} \right\}$$

$$U_R = \sqrt{(U_{x_1})^2 - (9 \cdot U_{x_2})^2}$$

$$R = (x_1 x_2)$$

$$U_R^2 = \left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial x_1} \cdot U_{x_1} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial x_2} \cdot U_{x_2} \right)^2 \rightarrow$$

$$U_R^2 = (x_2 \cdot U_{x_1})^2 \cdot \frac{x_2^2}{x_1^2} + (x_1 \cdot U_{x_2})^2 \cdot \frac{x_1^2}{x_2^2}$$

(957)

$$U_R^2 = \frac{R^2 U_{x_1}^2}{x_1^2} + \frac{R^2 U_{x_2}^2}{x_2^2} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{U_{x_1}^2}{x_1^2} + \frac{U_{x_2}^2}{x_2^2} \right) R^2}$$

$$R = \frac{y_1}{y_2}$$

مسألة

$$\frac{U_R^2}{R^2} = \frac{U_{y_1}^2}{y_1^2} + \frac{U_{y_2}^2}{y_2^2}$$

$$U_R = \sqrt{R^2 \left(\frac{U_{y_1}^2}{y_1^2} \right) + \left(\frac{U_{y_2}^2}{y_2^2} \right)}$$

$$R = \frac{x_1 * x_2 * x_3}{y_1 y_2 y_3} \Rightarrow$$

مسألة أخرى

$$\frac{U_R^2}{R^2} = \frac{U_{x_1}^2}{x_1^2} + \frac{U_{x_2}^2}{x_2^2} + \frac{U_{x_3}^2}{x_3^2} + \frac{U_{y_1}^2}{y_1^2} + \frac{U_{y_2}^2}{y_2^2} + \frac{U_{y_3}^2}{y_3^2}$$

$$R = x_1 x_2 y_1$$

نصف المسألة

$$\frac{U_R^2}{R^2} = \frac{U_{x_1}^2}{x_1^2} + \frac{U_{x_2}^2}{x_2^2} + \frac{U_{y_1}^2}{y_1^2}$$

Q1:

$$u_0 \pm \frac{1}{2} \text{ (Resolution)}$$

$$\text{Resolution} = 0.0014$$

$$= 0.025 \text{ mm}$$

$$u_0 = \pm 0.0005 \text{ mm (95\%)}$$

فكرة القارات

س: في حالة طلبك السؤال ud tot

Q2: 5.2: same

Resolution ~~2~~ 5 rpm
 accuracy = 1% reading

$$\rightarrow u_c = \frac{1}{100} \times \text{reading}$$

	u_0	u_c	u_d
50	2.5	$\frac{1}{100} \times 50 = 0.5$	$\sqrt{2.5^2 + 0.5^2} = 2.54$
500	2.5	$\frac{1}{100} \times 500 = 5$	$\sqrt{2.5^2 + 5^2} = 5.5$
5000	2.5	$\frac{1}{100} \times 5000 = 50$	$\sqrt{2.5^2 + 50^2} = 50$

total: $u_d = \sqrt{u_{d1}^2 + u_{d2}^2 + u_{d3}^2}$

$$= \sqrt{(2.54)^2 + (5.5)^2 + (50)^2}$$

(لو كانوا ساقوا ...)

$P_1: 50 \pm 2.54 \text{ (95\%)}$
 $P_2: 500 \pm 5 \text{ (95\%)}$
 $P_3: 5000 \pm 50 \text{ (95\%)}$

"precision interval"
 فترة بقاء القياس

accuracy = u_c

23

resolution = 5

accuracy = 4% reading

reading = 90 kmph

uncertainty

← بره اطلع (u)
وسط انت القراءة
مع مقدارها

$$U_0 \pm 2.5$$

$$U_c = \frac{4}{100} \times 90 = \pm 3.6$$

$$U_d = \sqrt{\dots} = \pm 4.38$$

precision interval $\Rightarrow 90 \pm 4.38$ (95%)

24 $\approx$ 5.2 sequential processes Q: ud tot = uncertainty design stage

sensor

accuracy = 0.5C°

Resolution $\leftarrow$ فاذر لل

$$U_c = 0$$

$$U_c = \pm 0.5$$

$$U_{ds} = \pm 0.05$$

readout

$$Res = 0.1$$

$$acc = \pm 0.8$$

$$U_c = \pm 0.05$$

$$U_c = \pm 0.8$$

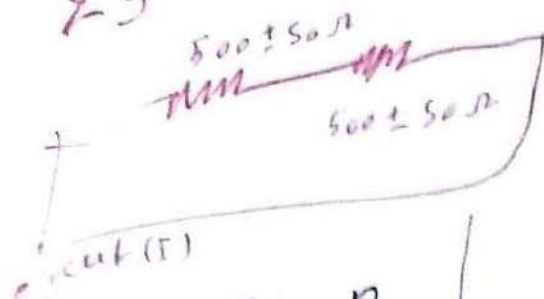
$$U_{dr} = \pm 0.08$$

$$U_d = \sqrt{U_{ds}^2 + U_{dr}^2} = \pm 0.94$$

لا حظ السؤال 5.2 كان volt بحسب القراءة $\leftarrow$ transducer
هون الحساس بطلع فيه وإحسبه readout

find the accuracy of circuits

Q5



Sol: $R_{eq} = R_1 + R_2$

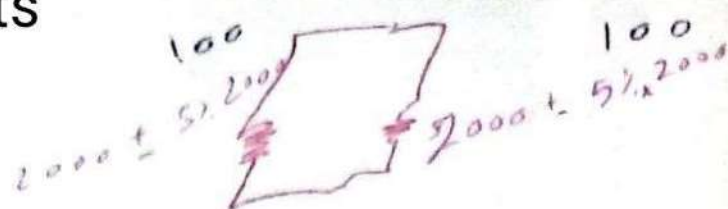
$$U_R^2 = \sum \left(\frac{\partial R}{\partial x_i} \times U_{x_i} \right)^2$$

$$U_R^2 = U_{R_1}^2 + U_{R_2}^2$$

$$\rightarrow U_R = \pm \sqrt{U_{R_1}^2 + U_{R_2}^2}$$

$$U_R = \sqrt{50^2 + 50^2} = \pm 71 \Omega$$

اول خطوة



$$R_{eq} = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

ثانية خطوة

$$U_R = \sqrt{\left(\frac{R_2^2}{(R_1 + R_2)^2} U_{R_1} \right)^2 + \left(\frac{R_1^2}{(R_1 + R_2)^2} U_{R_2} \right)^2}$$

$$U_R = \pm 35 \Omega$$

$U_R \downarrow \rightarrow$ accuracy better $\uparrow$

parallel > series

the better is parallel because the U_R is smaller here

$$R_{eq} = \frac{R_1 R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

$$\frac{\partial R_1}{\partial R} = \frac{R_2 (R_1 + R_2) - R_1 R_2}{(R_1 + R_2)^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial R_2}{\partial R} = \frac{R_1 (R_1 + R_2) - R_1 R_2}{(R_1 + R_2)^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial R_1}{\partial R} = \frac{R_2^2}{(R_1 + R_2)^2}$$

$$\frac{\partial R_2}{\partial R} = \frac{R_1^2}{(R_1 + R_2)^2}$$

20%



$R = 30 \Omega$

$P = 500W$

Sequential

acc = 0.1% reading

$R = 100 m\Omega$

$U_0 = \pm 50 mV$

$U_c = 0.1\% \times 4.08$

$$U_c = 4.08 \times 10^{-3} A$$

$$U_d = \sqrt{(100 \times 10^{-3})^2 + (4.08 \times 10^{-3})^2} R$$

ohmmeter

acc = 0.5% reading

$R_{es} = 1 \Omega$

$U_0 = \pm 0.5$

~~$U_c = 0.5\% \times 30$~~

$U_c = 0.5\% \times 30 = \pm 1.5$

$U_d = \pm 0.522$

$$U_d = 50 mV$$

Ammeter "I" $\rightarrow P = IV$ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} V = IR \end{array} \right.$

تقدير

$$R = I^2 R$$

$$\sqrt{\frac{P}{R}} = I \rightarrow I = \sqrt{\frac{500}{30}}$$

$$I = 4.08 A$$



تقدير

Ans:

$$P_1: 4.08 \pm 50 mV$$

$$P_2: 30 \pm 0.522$$

ab 1/2

⊗ design stage uncertainty
 $\rightarrow$ sequential $\rightarrow U_d \rightarrow U_{d tot} \rightarrow$ Precision
 $\rightarrow U_d \rightarrow$ Precision

ch 5:

$$u_d = \sqrt{(u_o)^2 + (u_c)^2} \quad [u_x = u_c]$$

Random error

Instrument bias
systematic error

error

$$\sqrt{e_i^2 + e_s^2}$$

$$u_o = \pm \frac{1}{2} r (\%)$$

q_1 : 10, 20, 50, 40 --- (readings)

required "design stage uncertainty"

resolution = A or "doozo"

① $u_o = 0$

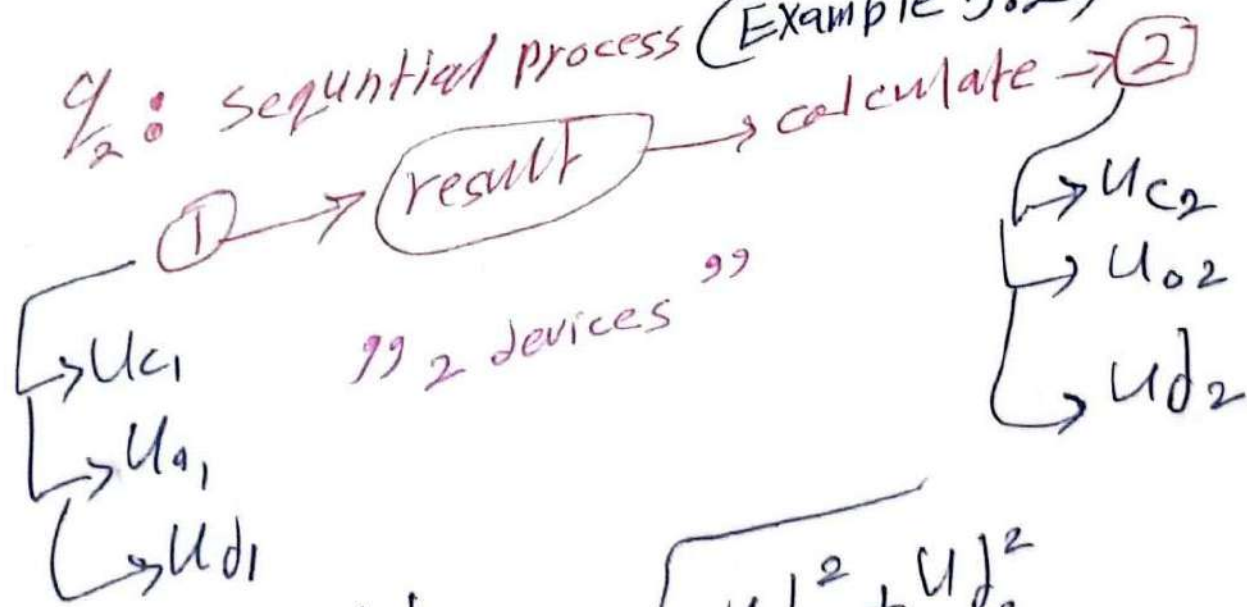
② $u_c = \text{accuracy} = 4\% \text{ reading}$

$u_c = 4\% \times 10$

$$u_d \rightarrow \sqrt{u_c^2 + u_o^2}$$

$$10 \pm u_d (95\%)$$

q_2 : sequential process (Example 5.2)



$$\Rightarrow u_{d \text{ tot}} = \sqrt{u_{d1}^2 + u_{d2}^2}$$

2.3 Identifying Error source —

$$u_R = \sqrt{\left(\sum \frac{\partial R}{\partial x_i} u_{x_i}\right)^2} \quad (95\%)$$

$$\otimes R = x_1 x_2$$

$$u_R = \pm \sqrt{(u_{x_1} x_2)^2 + (u_{x_2} x_1)^2}$$

$$\otimes R = x_1 + x_2$$

$$u_R = \pm \sqrt{(u_{x_1})^2 + (u_{x_2})^2} \quad 95\%$$

$$\otimes R = x_1 - x_2$$

$$u_R = \pm \sqrt{(u_{x_1})^2 - (u_{x_2})^2} \quad 95\%$$

$$R = \frac{x_1 x_3}{x_2 y_1}$$

$$u_R = \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{u_{x_1}}{x_1}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{u_{x_2}}{x_2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{u_{x_3}}{x_3}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{u_{y_1}}{y_1}\right)^2}$$

Q4 accuracy → Resistors فقرة التوالى والتوازي u_R

$$u_{R \text{ series}} \rightarrow u_R = \sqrt{(u_{R_1})^2 + (u_{R_2})^2}$$

$$u_{R \text{ parallel}} \rightarrow u_R = \sqrt{\left(\frac{R_1^2}{(R_1 + R_2)^2} u_{R_1}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{R_2^2}{(R_1 + R_2)^2} u_{R_2}\right)^2}$$

$u_R \downarrow \Rightarrow \text{acc} \uparrow = \text{better}$

CH 6:

$$F = I * L * B$$

T_{torque}

$$= I * N * A * B * \sin \alpha$$

Q1 How I can get ACP
3 Methods ch 6

نوعان
نوعان

3 resistors

$$V_1 = V_i * \frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2 + R_3}$$

$$R = \frac{E}{L} \quad R = \frac{\rho L}{A}$$

$$Q_2 (R = \frac{\rho L}{A}) \rightarrow (\text{diameter})$$

Q3: balance I in null Ans $\rightarrow$ 6 points

Ch 11:

$$\sigma = F/A$$

$$\epsilon = \frac{\Delta L}{L}$$

$$\sigma = E \epsilon \quad V = \frac{\Delta d}{\frac{\Delta L}{L_0}}$$

$$GF = \frac{\Delta R/R}{\Delta L/L}$$

active strain = $\frac{\Delta R}{R}$ / $\frac{\Delta L}{L}$
sensitive

$$GF = \frac{\frac{\Delta R}{R}}{\frac{\Delta L}{L}}$$

$$Q1 \Delta R \rightarrow \sigma = \frac{F}{A} / \sigma = E \epsilon$$

$$Q2 U \sigma = \sum \frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial R} U$$

$$U \Delta R = V$$

$$\rightarrow GF = \frac{\frac{\Delta R}{R}}{\epsilon}$$

$$Q_2 \quad U_{\Delta R} \approx \Sigma \dots$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma \approx \delta E \rightarrow \frac{\sigma}{\delta R} = E_M / R_{GF}$$

$$U = \pm \frac{E_M}{R_{GF}} \times U_{\Delta R} \quad (95\%)$$

ch 8:

G.1

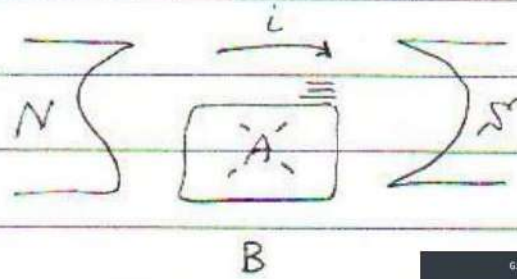
Current loop, $N=20$

$$A = 1 \text{ inch}^2$$

$$0.0254 \text{ meters}$$

$$i = 0.02 \text{ A}$$

$$B = 0.4 \text{ wb/m}^2$$



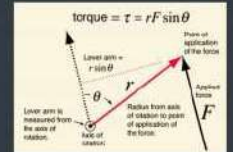
Find the max. torque. T

$$T = N I A B \sin \alpha$$

$$T_{\max} = (20)(0.02)(2.54 \times 10^{-2})^2(0.4)$$

$$= 1.032256 \times 10^{-4} \text{ N.m}$$

$$\tau = r F \sin(\theta)$$



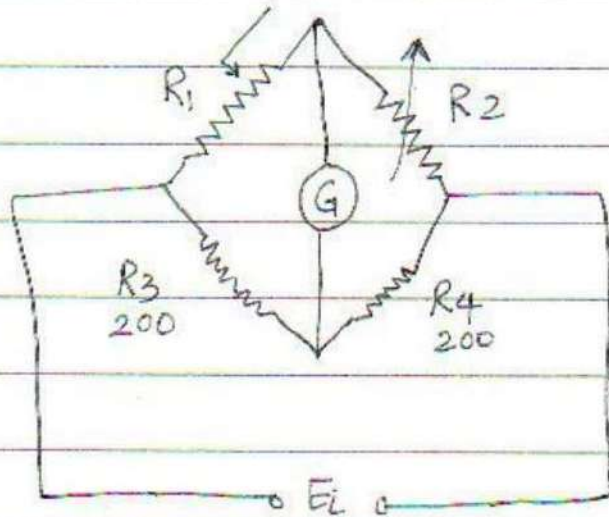
ch 6

θ : between cross sectional area and magnetic field

G.4

$$R_1 = 40x + 100$$

Determine R_2
that balances this
bridge circuit.



$$R_1 \cdot R_4 = R_2 \cdot R_3 \quad (6.11)$$

$$R_2 = 40x + 100$$

when $x=0$, $R_2 = 100 \Omega$

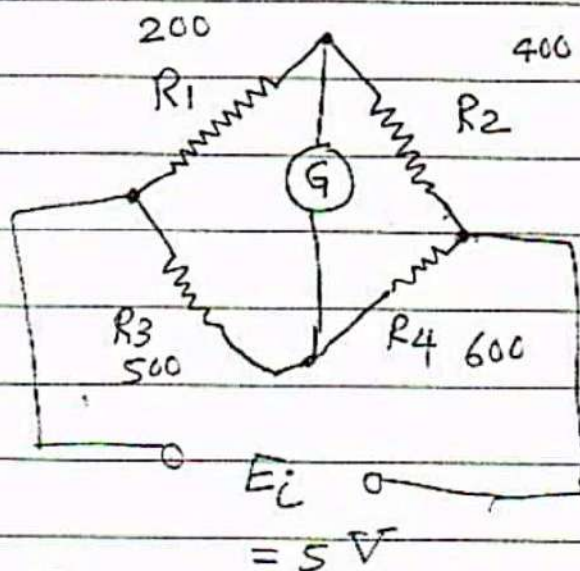
ch 6

6.9

1- Is this bridge balanced?

$$R_1 R_4 \neq R_2 R_3$$

(No)



2- Determine E_0 .

Eq. (6.14)

$$E_0 = \left[\frac{200}{600} - \frac{500}{1100} \right] \cdot (5) = (-) 0.60606 \text{ V}$$

$$= \left[\frac{400}{600} - \frac{600}{1100} \right] \cdot (5) = (+) 0.60606 \text{ V}$$

3- if $R_1 \rightarrow 250 \Omega$ determine E_0 .

$$E_0 = \left[\frac{400}{650} - \frac{600}{1100} \right] \cdot (5) = + 0.34965 \text{ V}$$

20H

(Bridge output) $V_{BC} = V_B - V_C$

$$= \underbrace{\frac{R_1}{R_1 + R_2} \cdot E_i}_{V_{DA}} - \underbrace{\frac{R_3}{R_3 + R_4} \cdot E_i}_{V_{AC}}$$

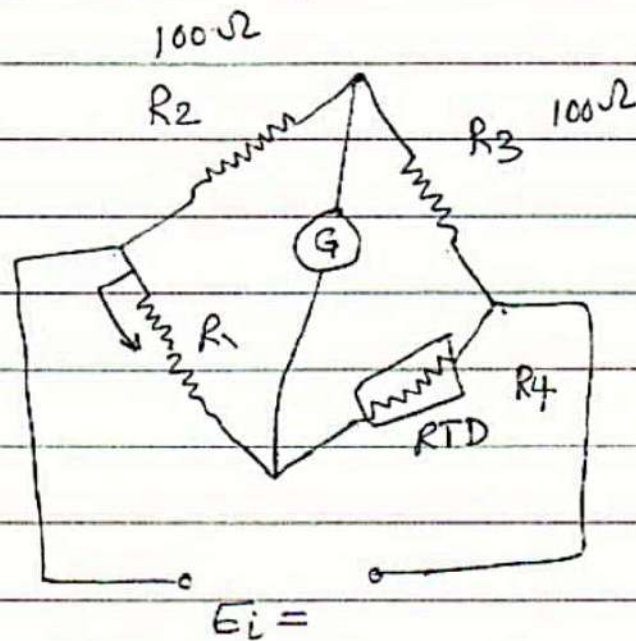
20V $\Rightarrow$

$$V_{BC} = \underbrace{\frac{R_2}{R_1 + R_2} \cdot E_i}_{V_{DB} \text{ (أول)}} - \underbrace{\frac{R_4}{R_3 + R_4} \cdot E_i}_{V_{DC} \text{ (ثاني)}}$$

ch 6

8.4

ch 8



$$R = R_0 [1 + \alpha(T - T_0)] \quad (8.4)$$

$$R_0 = 25\ \Omega \text{ at } T_0 = 0^\circ\text{C} \text{ (—)}$$

$$\alpha = 0.003925/^\circ\text{C}$$

if $R_1 = 41.485\ \Omega$ is used to balance the bridge
determine the new temperature.

$$\cancel{R_2} \cdot R_4 = R_1 \cdot \cancel{R_3}$$

$$R_{RTD} = 41.485\ \Omega \text{ (new)}$$

$$41.485 = 25 \left[1 + (0.003925)(T - \cancel{0}) \right]$$

$$T = \underline{\underline{168^\circ\text{C}}}$$

$$T_F = \frac{\left(\frac{R_{RTD}}{R_0} - 1 \right)}{\alpha} + T_0$$

11.8 Strain Gauges

ch 11

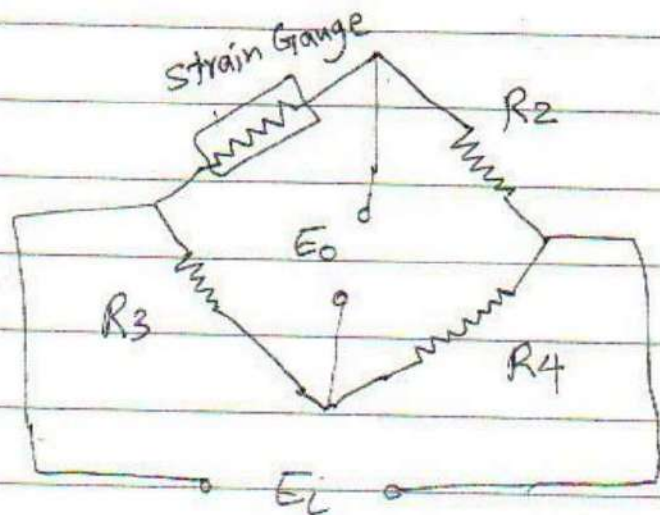
$$\frac{\Delta E_0}{E_i} = \frac{SR/R}{4 + 2 SR/R} \quad (11.14)$$

$$SR/R = GF \cdot \epsilon \quad (11.11)$$

one active strain gauge

Equal Arms

$$R = 350 \Omega$$



$$\Delta E_0 = 1 \text{ mV}$$

$$E_i = 5 \text{ V}$$

$$GF = 1.8$$

$$E_m = 70 \text{ GPa}$$

$$A_{\text{member}} = 1 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}^2$$

$$\frac{1 \times 10^{-3}}{5} = \frac{SR/R}{4 + 2 SR/R}$$
$$\Rightarrow SR/R \cong 8 \times 10^{-4} (\Omega/\Omega)$$

$$\frac{\Delta R}{R} = \frac{\frac{4 \Delta E_0}{E_0}}{\left(1 - \frac{2 \Delta E_0}{E_i}\right)}$$

$$\sqrt{1.} \text{ Strain} = \frac{8 \times 10^{-4}}{1.8} = 4.44 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$\sqrt{2.} \text{ Stress} = E_m \cdot \epsilon$$
$$= (70 \times 10^9) (4.44 \times 10^{-4})$$
$$= 3.108 \times 10^7 \text{ N/m}^2$$

$$\sqrt{3.} \text{ Force} = (3.108 \times 10^7) (1 \times 10^{-4})$$