

Topic 2

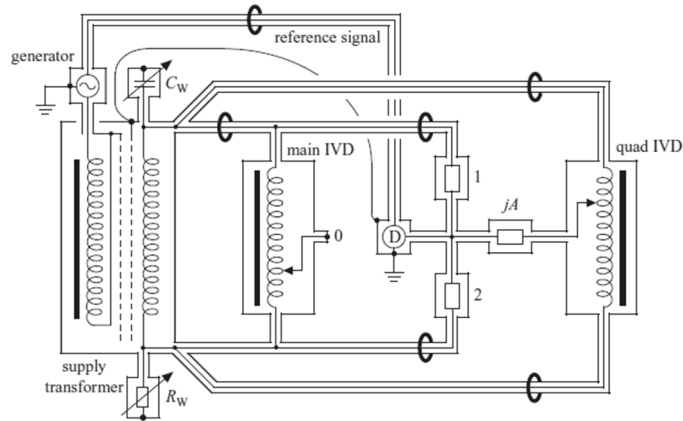
Voltage and current inductive ratio devices and optimization of their metrological parameters

Content

- **Inductive voltage divider (IVD)**
 - Principle
 - Errors of IVD's
 - Two-stage IVD (magnetizing winding)
- **AC current comparator**
 - Principle, properties, applications
- **DC current comparator**
 - Principle, properties, applications
- **Cryogenic current comparator (CCC)**
 - Principle of CCC
 - SQUID – basic function, SQUID readout electronics
 - Applications – DC resistance ratio measurement bridge

Why we need inductive voltage dividers ...

- A two-terminal-pair bridge based on IVDs – circuit for very precise impedance measurement at level of a few ppm or better !

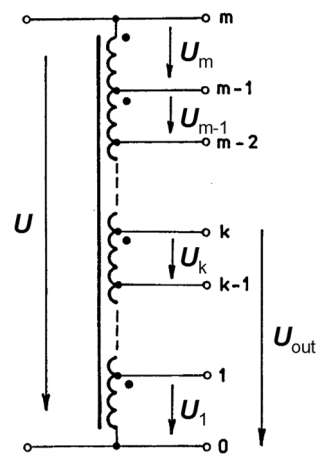


Simple inductive voltage divider (IVD)

- Key-component of all transformer bridges for impedance comparison
- Used for division of input voltage U
- Looks like an autotransformer
- To provide fine resolution of its voltage ratio more decades must be used

$$U_{\text{out}} = \sum_{i=1}^k U_i = D (1 + \alpha_D + j\beta_D) U$$

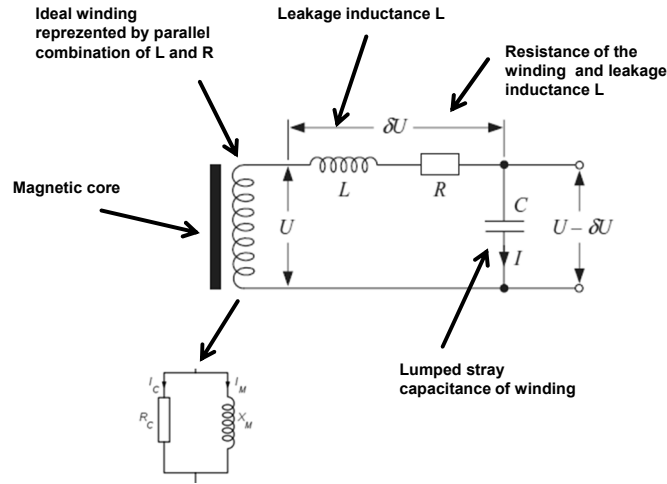
$$D = k/m$$



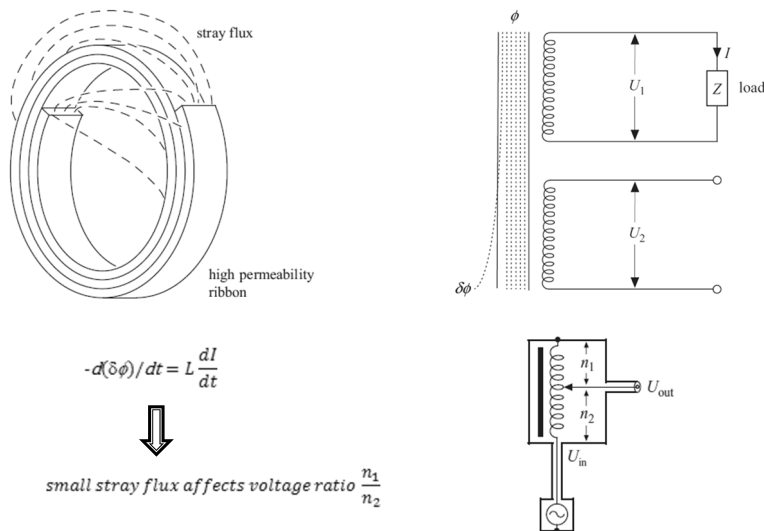
Simple one-stage IVD with m sections

Electrical model of one section of a one-stage IVD

The effect of leakage inductance, capacitance and resistance



Origin of leakage inductance



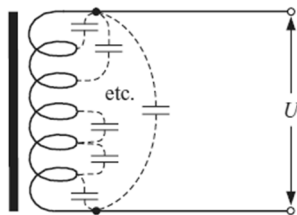
Origin of parasitic capacitances

- Each turn has a capacitance to the IVD terminals
- Each winding section has a capacitance to another section
- All distributed capacitances can be represented by a single lumped capacitance C

- Capacitance C forms with main magnetising inductance **parallel resonant circuit** – it should be as small as possible to obtain high resonance frequency f_{rez}

$$f_{ref} = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}}$$

- Capacitance may be reduced by electrostatic shielding

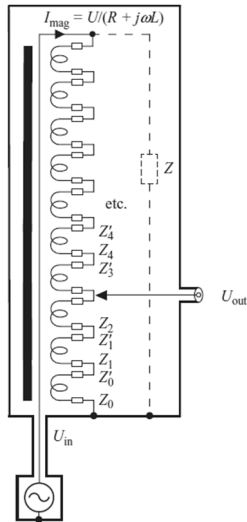


Errors of IVD - main causes

- **In low-frequency range**
 - Errors are mainly due to unequal voltage drops which are produced by the magnetizing current when it passes through unequal resistances and leakage inductances of divider sections.
- **In high-frequency range (over 10 kHz)**
 - Errors are caused mainly by various parasitic capacitances between sections as well as between the turns.
- **Errors coming from IVD output loading**
 - According to the IVD model – its output has a finite output impedance -> there is always a need to use IVD in a such way that output is not loaded by connected measurement circuits!

One-stage divider – problem of input impedance

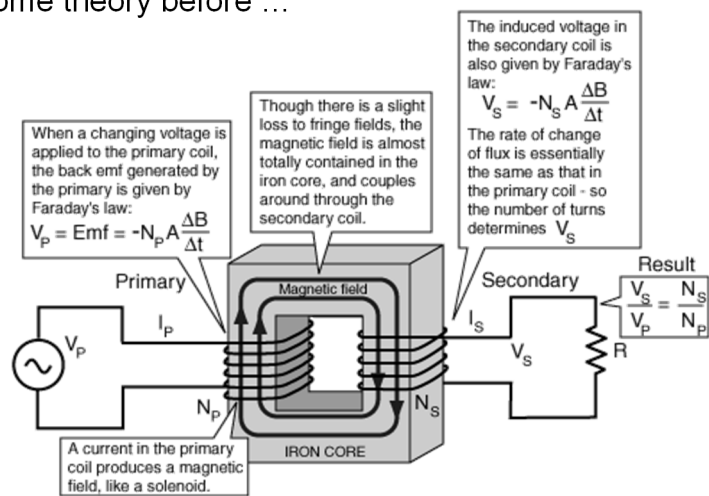
Equivalent circuit of one-stage divider



- Input impedance of a single-stage IVD is given by magnetising impedances of all sections and all series impedances Z_i, Z_i' (leakage inductances and resistances of the windings)
- $Z_{in} = U_{in} / I_{mag}$
- For applications in transformer bridges, we need IVDs with very high input impedances.
- How do we obtain them ? By use of TWO-STAGE dividers.**

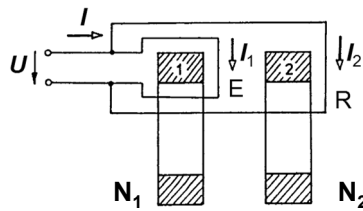
Two-stage divider

- Some theory before ...



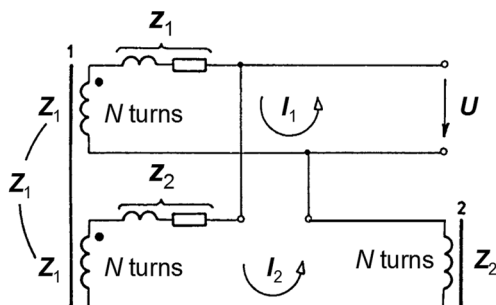
Two-stage divider

- In comparison with one-stage divider - **one magnetic core and one winding** must be added
- Two-stage IVD is equipped by an exciting winding (E) and a ratio winding (R)
- EW being wound around core no. 1 only, RW is wound around both cores
- Number of turns of ER = number of turns of RW ($N_1 = N_2$)!



$$\Phi_1 = \Phi_1 + \Phi_2 \Rightarrow \Phi_2 = 0 \Rightarrow I_2 = 0$$

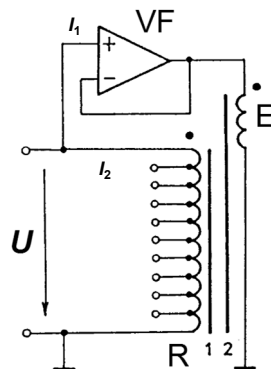
Equivalent circuit of the two-stage divider



$$I \cong \frac{U}{Z_1}, \quad \frac{I_2}{I_1} \cong \frac{Z_1}{Z_2}$$

Improved two-stage divider

- Voltage follower is used for driving EW
- Due to its high input impedance ($>10\text{G}\Omega$) also the input impedance of the whole circuit is very high



Calibration of IVDs

- **Example 1** – IVD having 1 decade and 11 output taps – voltage of each section is $1/11$ of the input voltage – number of calibration points is 11
- **Example 2** – IVD having 8 decades and 1 output tap - number of all possible settings is so high that complete calibration is practically impossible
 - Solution: perform calibration only for:

$$i/11, i = 1, 2, \dots, 10$$
 i.e.

$$1/11 = 0.090\ 909\ 09$$

$$2/11 = 0.181\ 818\ 18$$

$$3/11 = 0.272\ 727\ 27$$

$$4/11 = 0.363\ 636\ 36$$

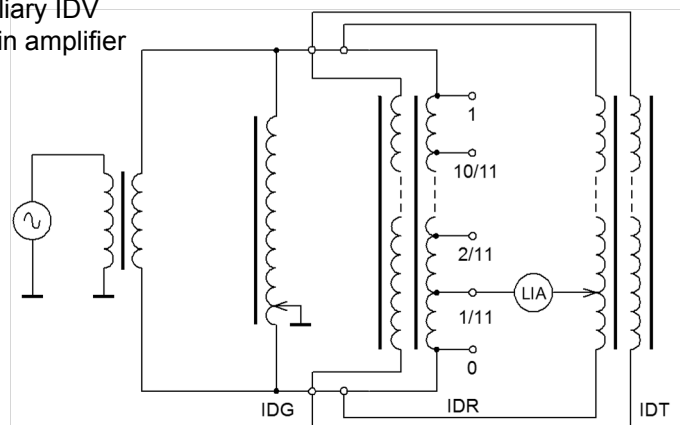
$$5/11 = 0.454\ 545\ 45$$
 etc.
 - Reason: during calibration process each setting of each decade is verified

Calibration procedure

- **Step 1** - comparison of the divider under test with an 11 section reference divider
- **Step 2** - calibration of the reference divider based on employment of an auxiliary 11:1 transformer (it is not necessary to know the exact value of the transformer ratio before the experiment)

Comparison of two-stage IVDs

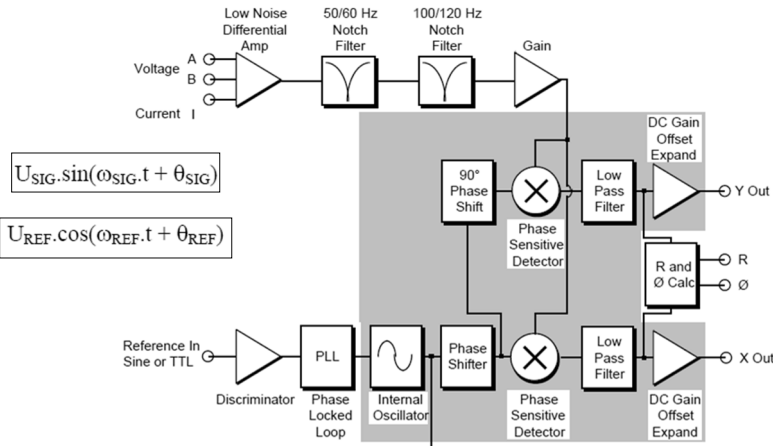
- IDT – IVD under TEST
- IDR – reference IVD(divider with known errors)
- IDG – auxiliary IDV
- LIA – lock-in amplifier



- For clarity all cable shieldings are omitted

Principle of the lock-in amplifier (LIA)

- LIA – a very often used scientific instrument
- typically used as a null detector in impedance metrology
- it allows to detect signals 100x times smaller than noise (40 dB)



What is on the LIA outputs ?

$$U_X = \frac{1}{2} U_{SIG} U_{REF} \cos [(\omega_{SIG} - \omega_{REF}) \cdot t + \theta_{SIG} - \theta_{REF}] - \frac{1}{2} U_{SIG} U_{REF} \cos [(\omega_{SIG} + \omega_{REF}) \cdot t + \theta_{SIG} + \theta_{REF}]$$

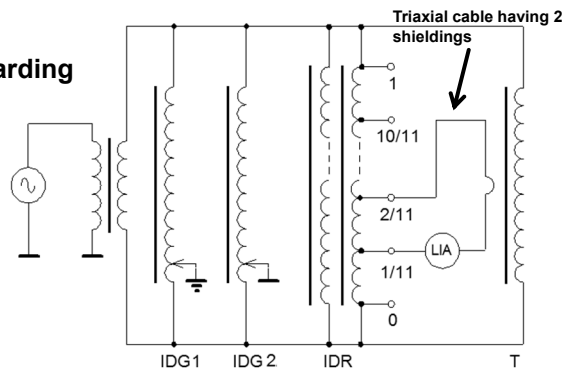
$$U_Y = \frac{1}{2} U_{SIG} U_{REF} \sin [(\omega_{SIG} + \omega_{REF}) \cdot t + \theta_{SIG} + \theta_{REF}] + \frac{1}{2} U_{SIG} U_{REF} \sin [(\omega_{SIG} - \omega_{REF}) \cdot t + \theta_{SIG} - \theta_{REF}]$$

$$U_X = \frac{1}{2} U_{SIG} U_{REF} \cos [\theta_{SIG} - \theta_{REF}]$$

$$U_Y = \frac{1}{2} U_{SIG} U_{REF} \sin [\theta_{SIG} - \theta_{REF}]$$

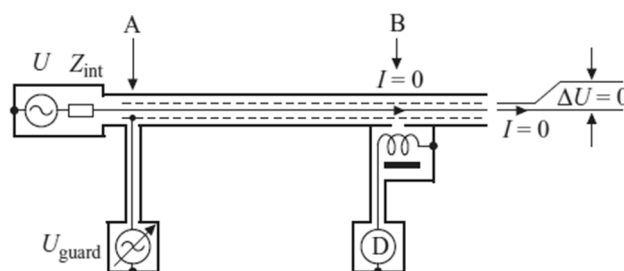
Calibration of the reference divider

- T – auxiliary transformer with nominal ratio of 1/11
- IDR – reference IVD for calibration
- IDG1 – auxiliary IVD – its output defines potential of the shield of the whole circuit
- IDG1 – auxiliary IVD – its output defines potential of the inner shielding of the triaxial cable
- LIA – lock-in amplifier
- **Principle of active guarding** is applied to avoid loading by parasitic cable capacitances



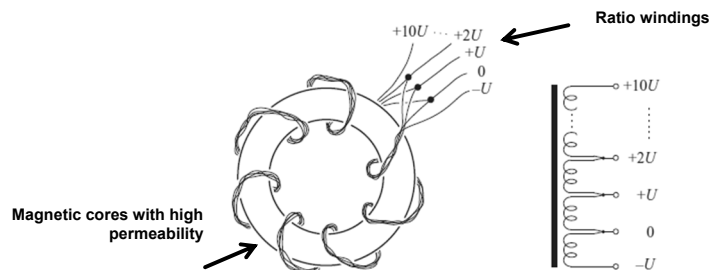
Principle of active guarding (AG)

- Coaxial cables with a characteristic impedance of 50 ohm have a typical parasitic capacitance of 100pF/m
- For application of the AG, we need a triaxial cable and some auxiliary source U_{guard} which **maintains the potential of the intermediate shield** so that voltage between this shield and the inner wire is a zero ($\Delta U = 0$ V)
- Then no current flows through the parasitic capacitance and the source U is not loaded



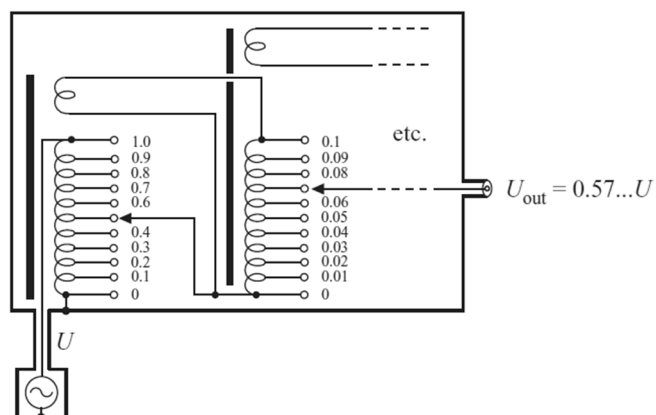
How to create IVD with fixed output taps?

- Tape-wound toroidal core made from thin strip of a soft magnetic material with sufficiently high permeability (e.g. of Supermalloy, Mumetal or amorphous materials for HF).
- A rope of m strands wound a sufficient number around the core; the ends are soldered together to form a continuous ratio winding.



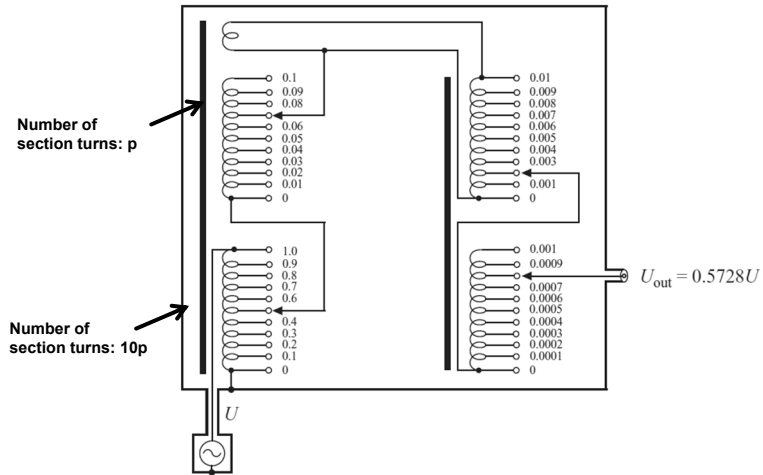
Multi-decade Kelvin-Varley divider – variant I

- When we need finer resolution of the divider ratio
- Variant I: **each section = one magnetic core**



Multi-decade Kelvin-Varley divider – variant II

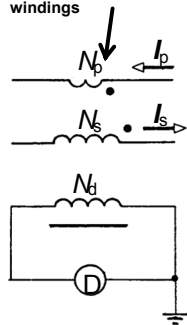
- Variant II – economic - each successive pair of decades wound onto one magnetic core



Simple AC current comparator

- device for comparison of **two AC currents**
- both currents create magnetic fluxes in the core in opposite direction
- at balance – magnetomotive force coming from **current I_p** is the same as magnetomotive force coming from **current I_s**

Red point means beginning of windings



primary winding

secondary winding

detection winding

toroidal magnetic core

detector

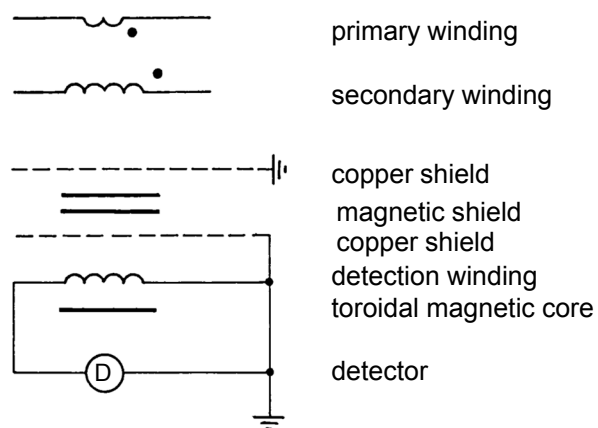
$$N_p I_p - N_s I_s = 0$$

Errors of current comparators – main causes

- capacitance coupling between detection and ratio windings
 - can be eliminated by electrostatic shielding
- stray magnetic flux coming from ratio windings
 - can be eliminated by application of a magnetic shield
- parasitic capacitances of the windings
 - their effect is more pronounced when the number of turns increases
 - when a large number of turns must be used to achieve high sensitivity, application of a compensation winding is advisable

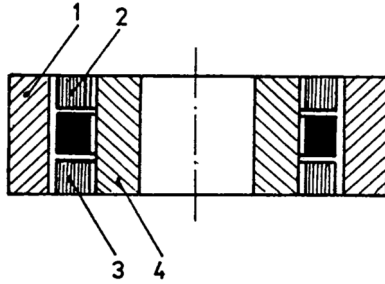
AC current comparator with shields

- Windings and shields of a AC comparator



Magnetic shield consisting of four toroids, 1 - 4

- All toroids are realized from ribbon having high initial permeability
- By means of this shield, leakage magnetic fluxes are kept from reaching the detector winding.

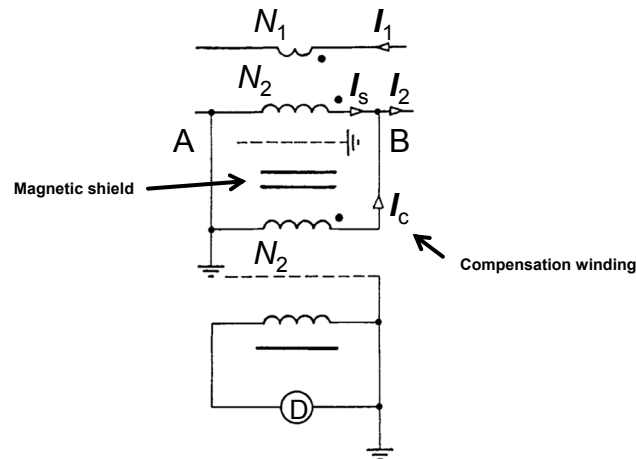


Error of an AC current comparator

- Where n is the turns ratio of the ratio windings and I_s , I_p are the currents in ratio windings measured at their respective marked terminals when these terminals are at ground potential

$$I_s = \frac{I_p}{n} (1 + \epsilon)$$

Compensated current comparator



Compensated current comparator

- At balance, there is no flux in the toroidal magnetic core, the resultant magnetizing m.m.f. for this core being

$$N_1 I_1 - N_2 I_s - N_2 I_c = 0 .$$

- The resultant magnetizing m.m.f. for the shield is

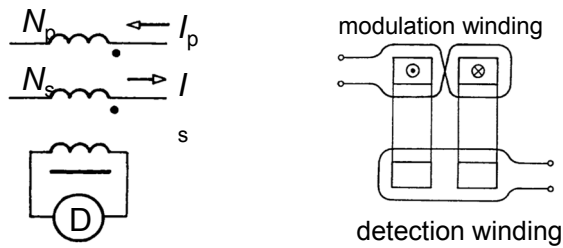
$$U_{m.s.} = N_1 I_1 - N_2 I_s = N_2 I_c$$

- the corresponding shield flux is

$$\Phi_{m.s.} = U_{m.s.} / R_{m.s.} = N_2 I_c / R_{m.s.}$$

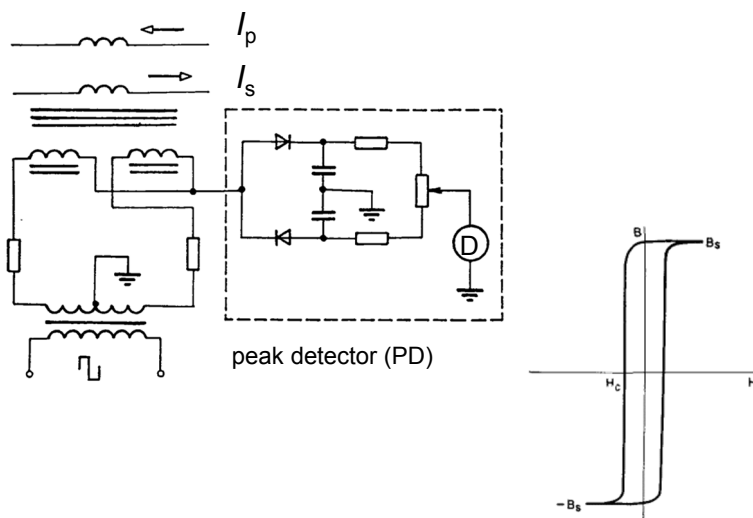
u= **Principle of the DC current comparator**

- Device for comparison of two DC currents
- If some DC current flows through a winding , the corresponding DC magnetic flux core is created in the core.
- However DC magnetic flux does not induce any voltage in the detection winding
- Modulation winding must be used !

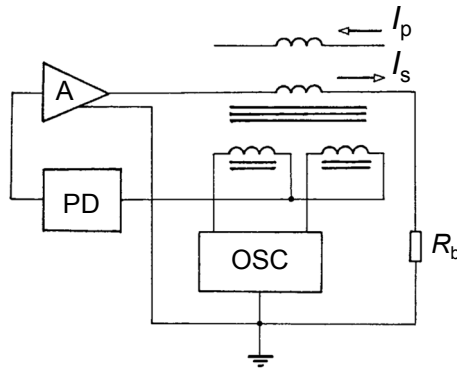


$$u = -N \frac{d(\phi)}{dt} = N \frac{d(BS)}{dt} = NS_{FE} \frac{d(\mu H)}{dt} = NS_{FE} \left[\mu \frac{\delta(H)}{\delta t} + H \frac{\delta(\mu)}{\delta t} \right]$$

DC current comparator



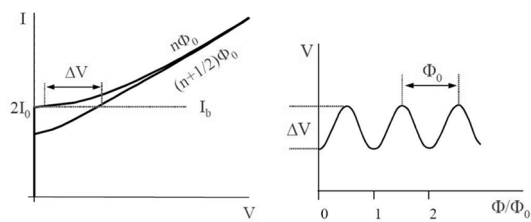
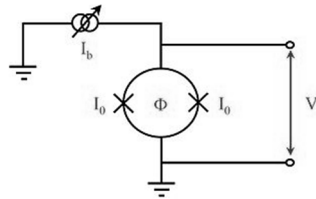
Automatically balanced DC current comparator



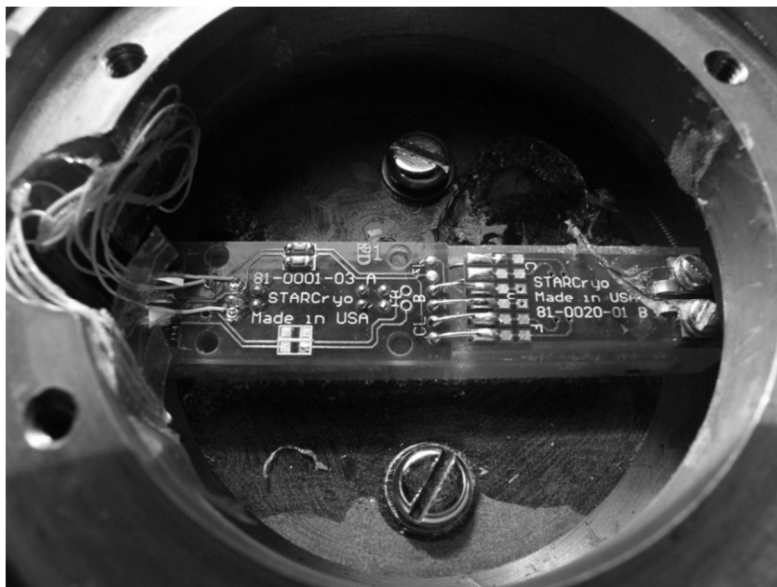
Cryogenic current comparator (CCC)

- Device used in precision electrical measurements to compare two electrical currents at the highest level of accuracy (10^{-9}) !!!
- Typical application of the CCC: **comparison of resistance standards**
- Two reasons why the CCCs are so sensitive:
 - all ratio windings are put into a superconducting shield ensuring perfect isolation from all external magnetic fluxes (based on Meissner effect)
 - for detecting unbalanced magnetic flux the most sensitive sensor of DC magnetic flux - DC SQUID - is used

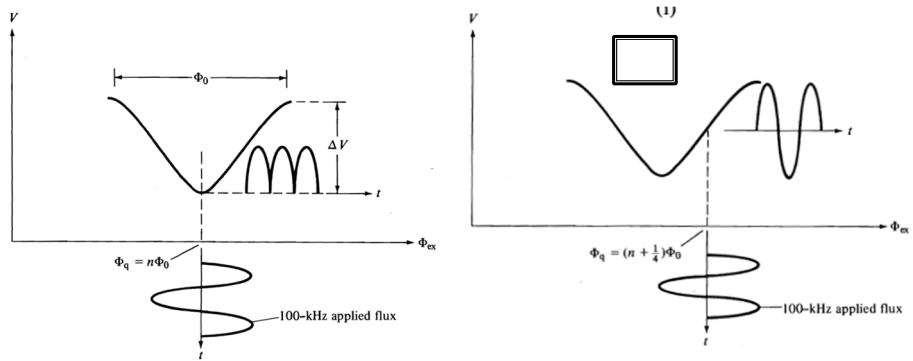
DC SQUID Principle



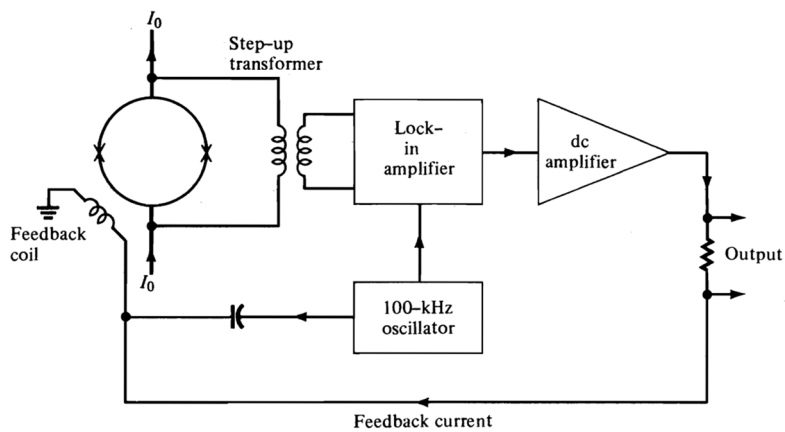
DC SQUID - Superconducting QUANTUM Interference Device



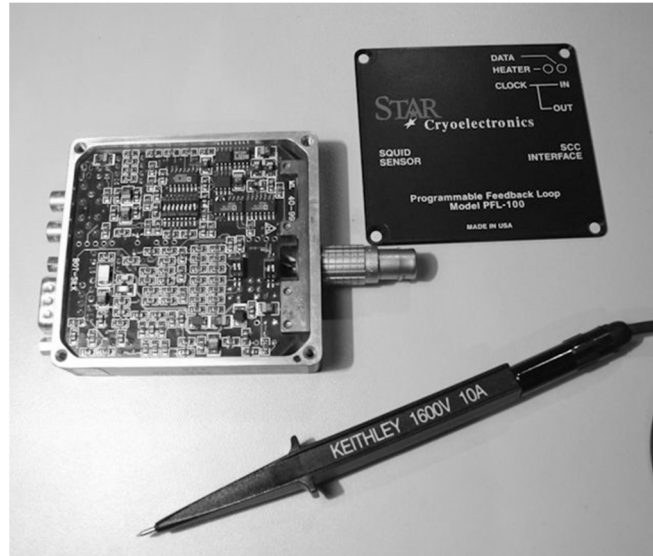
Detection of the signal from SQUID



Readout electronics for SQUID

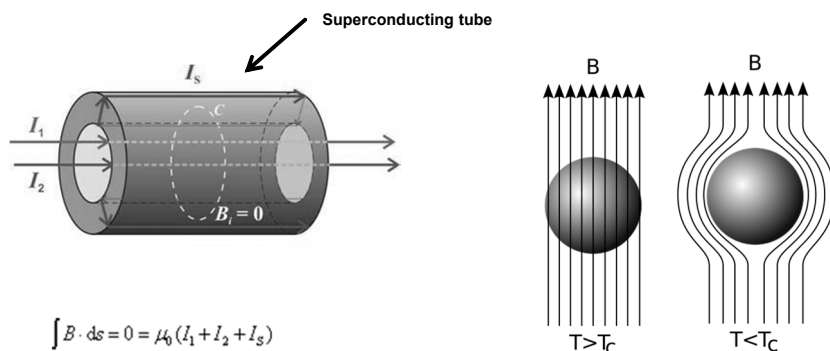


SQUID's readout electronics – commercial product



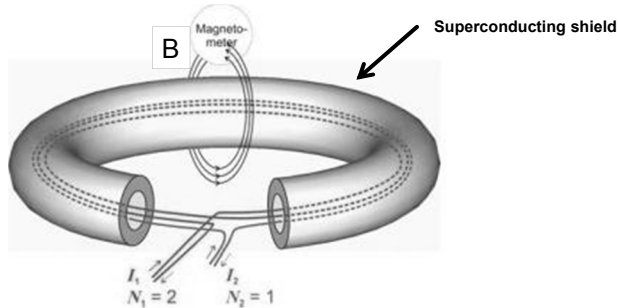
Superconducting shield - Meissner effect application

- Due to the Meissner effect, no magnetic flux can be inside the superconductor - the space inside the tube is perfectly shielded



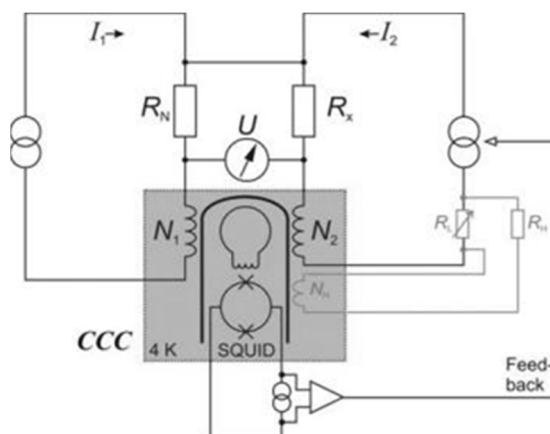
Principle of comparison two currents

- The CCC is balanced if $N_1 I_1 - N_2 I_2 = 0$



- According to the Ampere's law $\int_C \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{s} = \mu_0 \sum_i I_i$
- Balance occurs when the magnetic flux density $B = 0$
- DC SQUID is used the detector of magnetic field

Application of CCC – DC resistance ratio bridge



- circuit for comparison of two resistance standards: R_x, R_N
- two isolated precise current sources
- as a detector of zero difference of voltage drops across the resistance standards, a low noise nV electronic module (A20) is used