

UNIT- I

ELECTRON OPTICS

ELECTRON OPTICS

- **Electron Refraction (Bethe's Law):**

The motion of electron beam in non-uniform electric field can be understood by studying Bethe's law. The non uniform electric field is a field in which electric intensity varies from point to point and field lines are not straight and evenly spaced. Electron motion in non-uniform electric field is better understood with the help of equipotential surfaces. Equipotential surfaces are those surfaces where electric potential remains constant and electric lines are perpendicular to the surface at any point. Therefore the normal to the equipotential surface shows the line of action of electric force on the electron.

Let us consider a uniform electric field produced in an infinitesimally thin region. This uniform electric field being set up by two metal plates charged to appropriate potentials. The electrons are allowed to pass through the electric field being set up by two closely spaced metal grids as shown in fig.

Consider an equipotential surface AB. It is considered as the boundary across which the potential V_1 abruptly changes to V_2 . Let an electron travel through the region-I with a uniform velocity v_1 and enter the region-II and moves with a velocity v_2 .

As the electron passes through equipotential surface AB it experiences a force which alters its velocity. Because the electric field exists only in the vertical direction (Y-direction). Hence the normal component of electron velocity v_y undergoes a change whereas the tangential component v_x remains constant.

If $V_2 > V_1$, v_y increases and if $V_2 < V_1$, v_y decreases.

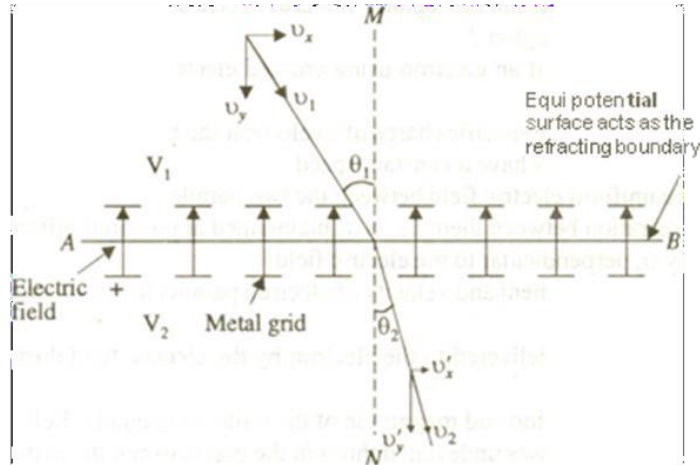


Fig: Electron Refraction

In the above fig., $V_2 > V_1$, i.e. V_2 is taken to be greater than V_1 and hence v_y increases. The electron path is therefore bent nearer to the surface normal.

As the tangential component of the velocity remains constant in region-I and region-II we can write,

$$v_x = v'_x$$

$$\begin{aligned} v_1 \sin \theta_1 &= v_2 \sin \theta_2 \\ \frac{\sin \theta_1}{\sin \theta_2} &= \frac{v_2}{v_1} \quad (1) \end{aligned}$$

The velocity of electron in terms of potential is given by

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2eV}{m}}$$

$$\text{So, } \frac{\sin \theta_1}{\sin \theta_2} = \frac{\sqrt{2eV_2/m}}{\sqrt{2eV_1/m}}$$

$$\frac{\sin \theta_1}{\sin \theta_2} = \sqrt{\frac{V_2}{V_1}}$$

$$\frac{\sin \theta_1}{\sin \theta_2} = \left[\frac{V_2}{V_1} \right]^{1/2} \quad \text{---(2)}$$

The **Eqn.(2)** is similar to Snell's law of refraction in optics and is known as Bethe's law for electron refraction. When light enters from rarer to denser medium it gets slowed down and bends towards the normal. However when electrons are moving from region of lower potential to region of higher potential they get accelerated and bend towards the normal.

Comparison Between Snell's Law and Bethe's Law:

Snell's Law	Bethe's Law
1. $\frac{\sin i}{\sin r} = \frac{v_1}{v_2} = \frac{\mu_2}{\mu_1}$	1. $\frac{\sin \theta_1}{\sin \theta_2} = \frac{v_2}{v_1} = \sqrt{\frac{V_2}{V_1}}$
2. It deals with refraction of light.	2. It deals with refraction of electrons.
3. A light entering from a rarer medium to denser medium bends towards the normal.	3. An electron entering from a region of low potential to high potential bends towards the normal (i.e. bends towards the direction of electric field).
4. A light entering from a rarer medium to denser medium decreases in velocity.	4. An electron entering from a region of low potential to a region of high potential increases in velocity.

Eqn.(2) can be extended to any arbitrary electrostatic field which is nonuniform.

Fig. demonstrates the motion of an electron in a nonuniform electric field represented by equipotential surfaces separating equipotential regions of potentials V_1, V_2, V_3, V_4 etc. At each surface electron path bends towards or away from the higher or lower potential region. It is seen that the electron motion occurs along a curved path in a nonuniform electric field.

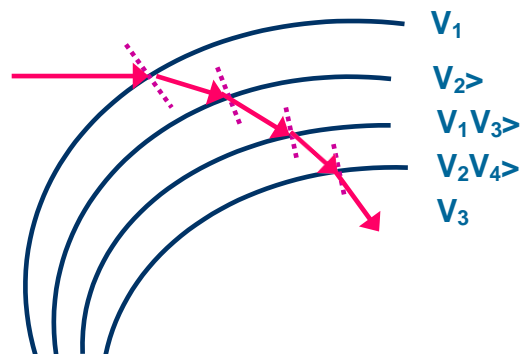


Fig : Electron Refraction in a Nonuniform Electric

● **Electron Lens or Electrostatic Lens:**

An electron lens is an electrical component that focuses an electron beam to a point.

Principle: A stream of electrons bends at each equi-potential surface when it travels through a non-uniform electric field. Thus non-uniform electric field can be used to focus or defocus electron rays.

C.J. Davisson and C.J. Calbick demonstrated in 1931 such optical properties of electrostatic fields.

Construction/Description:

An electrostatic lens consists of two coaxial short cylindrical metal tubes T_1 and T_2 of same size and separated by small distance. They are held at different potentials V_1 and V_2 respectively such that $V_2 > V_1$. Electric field does not exist inside the cylindrical metal tubes; however a non-uniform electric field is produced in the gap between the tubes as a result of different potentials applied to the tubes. **Fig.** shows a schematic of a simple electrostatic lens wherein electric field lines and equipotential surfaces are demonstrated. The equipotential surfaces are perpendicular to the electric field lines everywhere.

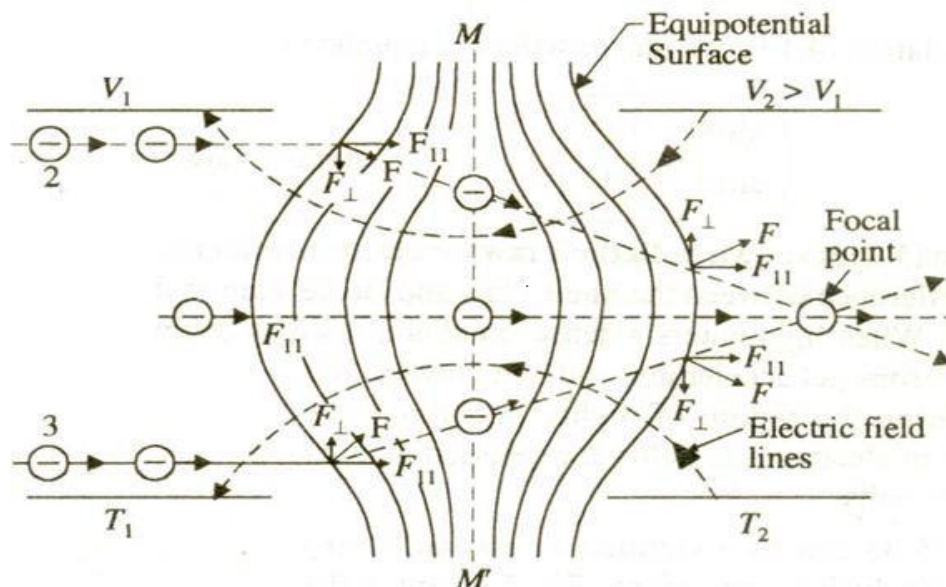


Fig: Schematic of Electron Lens

Working:

Let us consider a thin bundle of electron rays parallel to the axis and entering the system from the side of the cylindrical metal tube which is at a lower potential V_1 .

Electron moving along the axis of the two tubes (shown by position 1) on reaching the equipotential surface, experience an electric force acting along the axis in forward direction so the electrons would be accelerated in forward direction towards tube T_2 along the axis and would not deviate from their initial direction of travel.

The electrons traveling at a distance above the axis (shown by position 2) on reaching the convex equipotential surface in the gap experience electrostatic force F acting at an angle to the direction of their motion. This force F experienced by the electrons at the convex equipotential surface can be resolved into two rectangular components; $F_{||}$ parallel to the axis and F_{\perp} perpendicular to the axis of the tube.

The action of the $F_{||}$ component is to accelerate the electrons along the axial direction. These electrons would be acted upon by F_{\perp} component and get deflected towards the axis and are also simultaneously accelerated toward tube T_2 due to the force component $F_{||}$. Similarly electrons

moving below the axis (shown by position 3) are deflected upward towards the axis and are accelerated in forward direction. Thus all the off axis electron paths around the axis tend to converge toward the axis.

However on crossing the mid plane **MM'** of the gap, the converging electron rays encounter equi-potential surface of concave shape. In this region the normal component F_{\perp} is directed away from the axis and hence the electrons tend to diverge. However the parallel component F_{\parallel} acts to accelerate the electrons further in the direction parallel to the axis. Similarly electrons traveling at a distance below the axis of the tube would be deflected towards the axis in the first half of the gap and deflected away from the axis in the second half of the gap and the net result is that the field between **T₁** and the midplane **MM'** converges the electron beam like a convex lens while the field between the midplane **MM'** and **T₂** diverges the electron beam like a concave lens.

The electrons spend a greater time in the first half of the gap as it travels slower and the impulse ' $F_{\parallel} t$ ' is greater for the convergence interval. In the second half the electrons move faster and spend less time and the impulse ' $F_{\parallel} t$ ' is smaller for the divergence interval. Consequently, the electrons rays are less diverged by the second half than converged by the first half of the gap. Therefore the converging action of the first half of the gap will be stronger than diverging action of the second half of the gap and the electron ray emerge from **T₂** will be sufficiently convergent as shown in fig.

Comparison of electrostatic lens with glass lens

- Light rays are bent only at the two boundaries of a lens but electron beam is refracted continuously through successive equi-potential surfaces.
- Secondly focal length of glass lens is fixed while focal length of electron lens may be varied by adjusting the potentials V_1 and V_2 of the tubes.

Applications: Electron lens forms the most important component of an electron gun used for producing narrow intense electron beam. Electron lens action is utilized in particle accelerators to focus charged particles into a narrow beam.

Electron Gun:

An electron gun is a device which produces (focuses and accelerates) an arrow electron beam of high intensity. It was designed by V. K. Zworyk in 1933.

Principle: The electron gun makes use of the fact that non-uniform electric field causes bending of electron paths and an appropriate configuration of non-uniform electric field leads to focusing of electrons.

Construction: The schematic diagram of an electron gun is shown in fig.

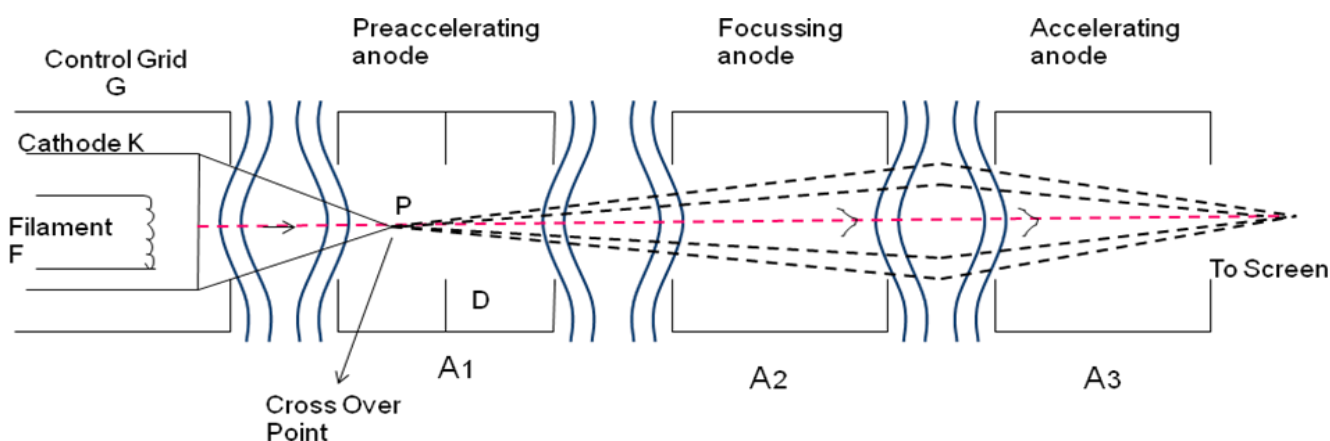


Fig: Electron Gun

The electron gun consists of a cathode K, a filament F, a control grid G and three anodes A₁-Preaccelerating Anode, A₂-Focussing Anode and A₃-Accelerating Anode. The cathode is a short hollow Nickel cylinder and encloses the filament heater F. The front face of the cathode is coated with thoriated tungsten or Barium and Strontium oxides. The coating helps thermionic emission of electrons to occur at moderate temperatures of about 700°C to 900°C. The cathode is surrounded by the control grid G which also is a hollow metal cylinder with a small central aperture in its front face to allow electrons to pass through. Three short metal cylinders with central apertures are placed co-axial beyond the control grid. The entire assembly is kept in an evacuated glass tube. A power supply provides the necessary voltage to the electrodes.

Working:

When the power is turned on, the filament heater heats up the cathode. At a temperature characteristic of the cathode material, electrons are emitted from its front surface and they pass through the control grid. The grid is held at a negative potential with respect to cathode and controls the number of electrons passing through it. If the grid is held at a lesser negative potential, a large number of electrons pass through it. On the other hand, if the grid is held at a higher negative potential, a smaller number of electrons pass through it. Thus grid with a negative potential (0 to 50V) on it acts as a gate and regulates the passage of electrons through it.

The anodes of the electron gun provide an electron lens system for focusing the electron beam on the screen. The preaccelerating anode A₁ and accelerating anode A₃ are connected to high positive potential and are held at same voltage and focusing anode A₂ is connected to lower positive potential. The grid and anode A₁ constitute the first electron lens of the system. The convex equipotential surfaces bend the electron path toward the central axis. Consequently all the electrons passing through the aperture in the control grid converge toward a point P just inside the first anode. The point P is located on the axis of the gun and known as the cross over point. The area of the point P would be very small compared to the relatively large cathode surface emitting the electrons. Therefore electrons emerging from point P can be easily focused to a fine point better than the electrons emerging from the cathode. Thus the role of first lens is to converge the beam to the cross over point which then acts as a point source of the electrons for the second lens.

The anodes, A₂ and A₃ constitute the second lens system which focuses and accelerates the electron beam to a fine point on the fluorescent screen. The diaphragm D in anode A₁ cuts off wide angle electrons emerging from P. The anode A₃ imparts further acceleration to the electrons as they emerge out of the electron gun. **The focus of the beam is adjusted by varying the positive potential on A₂.**

Applications:

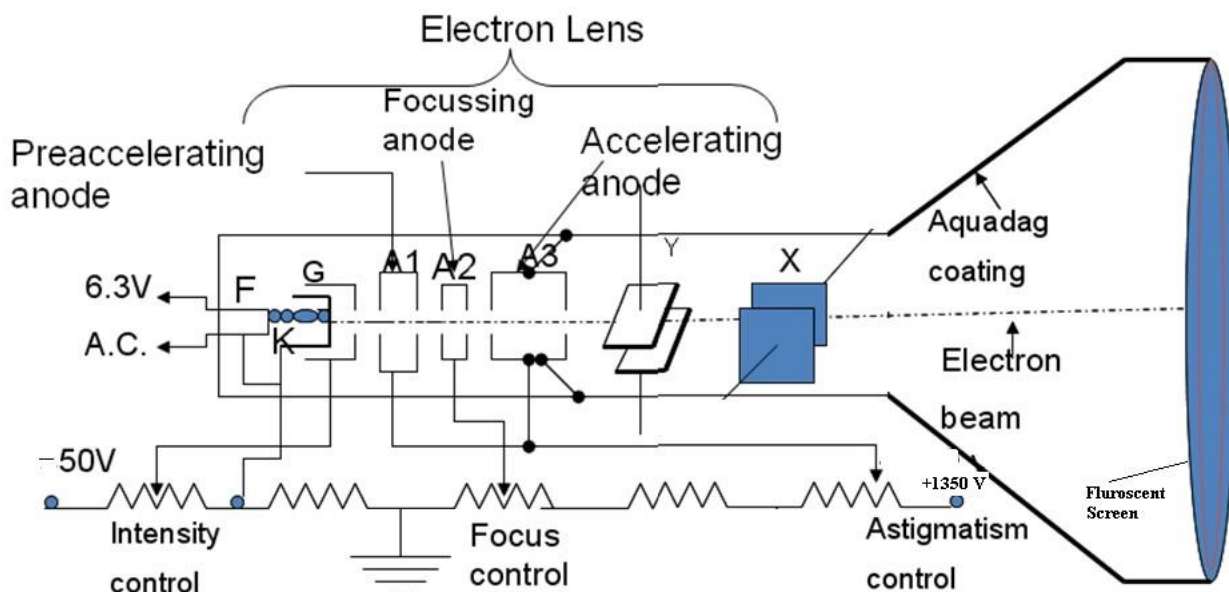
Electron gun is used in a CRO to display wave shapes, in a TV to display pictures, in an electron microscope to obtain a magnified image and in EBM and EWM for machine and welding jobs.

CRT (Cathode Ray Tube):

A Cathode Ray Tube (CRT) is a specially constructed vacuum tube in which an electron beam controlled by electric or magnetic fields generates a visual display of input electrical signals on a fluorescent screen. It consists of three important parts,

- i) Electron Gun
- ii) Deflection System
- iii) Fluorescent Screen

Construction/Description:



The CRT resembles a horizontally placed conical flask sealed at its open end. The electron gun consisting of several electrodes is mounted at one end of the tube as a single unit and electrical connections are given to them through base pins. The deflection system consists of two pairs of parallel metal plates mounted in the neck of the tube. They are oriented in such a way that they are in mutually perpendicular directions to the axis of the CRT. The screen consists of a thin coating of phosphors deposited on the inner face of the wide end of the glass envelope. The inner surface of the flare of the envelope is coated with conductive graphite called aquadag. A power supply provides the required potentials to the various elements of CRT.

Working:

In the CRT, the electron gun generates an electron beam, focuses it and accelerates it towards a fluorescent screen located at the further end of the tube. The electron beam may be moved to any spot on the screen with the help of deflection system.

I) Electron Gun:

The indirectly heated cathode K emits a stream of electrons from its coated front face. The electrons pass through the control grid G held at a negative potential. The effective size of the aperture in the grid varies depending upon the potential difference between grid and cathode. The intensity of the glow produced at the screen is determined by the number of electrons striking the screen. Therefore by varying the negative dc voltage on the grid, the intensity of the luminous spot on the screen is controlled. The grid bias is usually varied between 0 to -50V. The anodes A1 and A3 are internally connected and held at a higher positive potential of a few kilovolts and A2 is maintained at a relatively low positive potential. The anode A1 accelerates the incoming electrons. The Grid G and anode A1 forms the first lens system which pre-focuses the electron beam. The anode A2 and A3 constitutes the second lens system which focuses the electron beam to a fine point on the fluorescent screen. The focus of the beam is adjusted by varying the positive potential on A2. The anode A3 imparts further acceleration to the electrons as they emerge out of the electron gun.

II) Deflection System:

There are two types of deflection system namely electrostatic type and electromagnetic type. In the electrostatic deflection system, two pairs of metal plates are employed for deflecting the electron beam. The two plates in each pair are aligned strictly parallel to each other as shown in fig and the two pairs of plates are mounted at right angles to each other and also at right angles to the path of electrons. One pair of plates is arranged horizontally. When a potential difference is applied to the plates then the uniform electric field is produced in vertical direction. The fields acts perpendicular to the beam and deflects the beam vertically, so these are called as vertical deflecting plates or Y-plates. The second set of plates is oriented vertically and produces the uniform horizontal field, when a potential difference is applied between them. The field acts normal to the beam and deflects the beam horizontally so this set of plates is called horizontal deflection plates or X-plates.

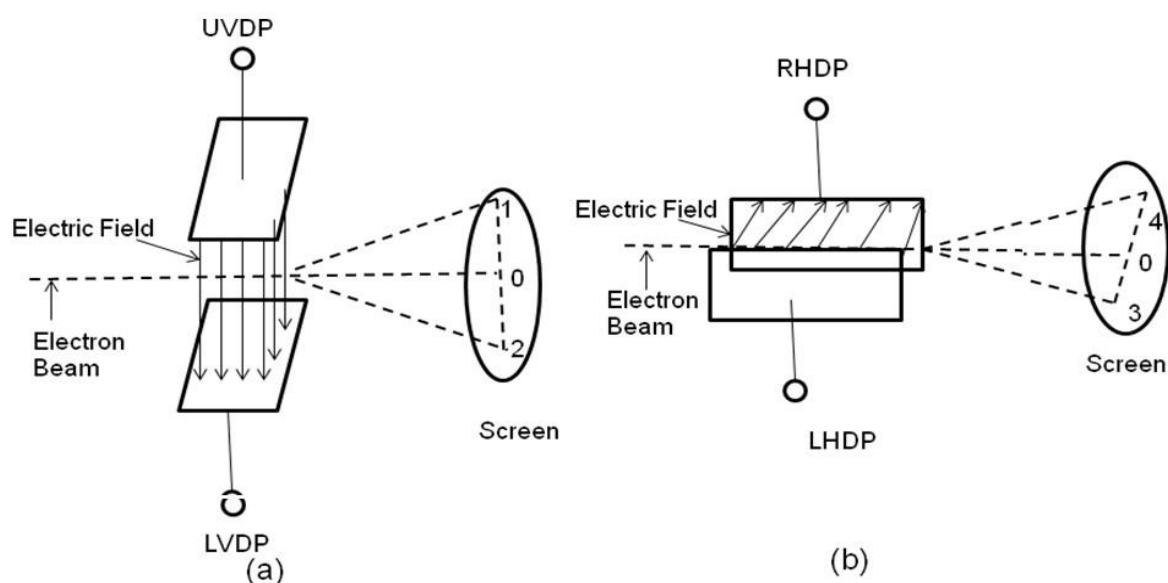


Fig: Electron Beam Deflection a) Vertical Deflection b) Horizontal Deflection

When voltages are not applied to X-plates and Y-plates, the electron beam travels along the CRT axis and strikes the geometrical centre of the viewing screen. When a dc voltage is applied to Y-plates, the electron beam gets deflected vertically and when a dc voltage is applied to the X-plates, the electron beam is deflected horizontally as shown in figures. The amount of deflection depends on the magnitude of the applied voltage. When dc voltages are applied to both the X and Y plates, the electron beam will be acted upon simultaneously by two forces due to vertical and horizontal electric fields and gets deflected along the direction of their resultant as shown in fig. Thus by varying the dc voltages the vertical and horizontal plates, the luminous spot may be moved to any position in the plane of the screen.

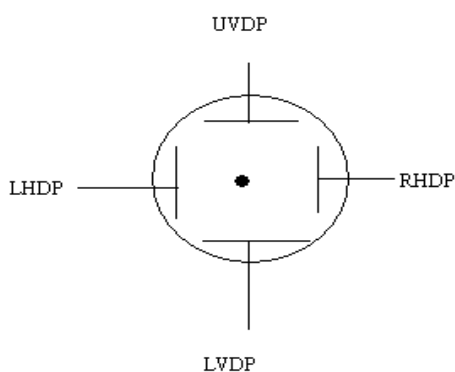


Fig : Voltage not applied to deflection plates

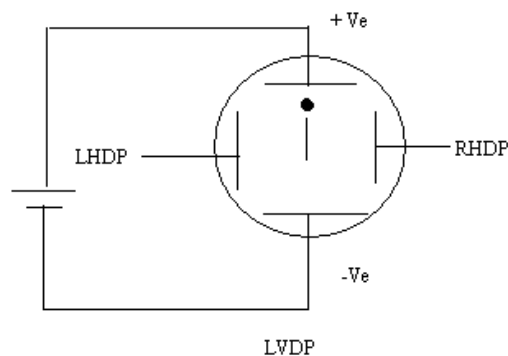


Fig : Positive Voltage applied to UVDP

III) Fluorescent Screen:

The interior surface of circular front face of the CRT is coated with a thin translucent layer of phosphors. The phosphor coating glows at the point where it is struck by high energy electron beam. At that spot the coating continues to glow for a short period of time even after the electron beam moves away. So electron beam position can be located with the help of a fluorescent screen.

Aquadag Coating:

Electrons impinging on the screen tend to charge it negatively and repel the electrons arriving afterwards it will reduce the number of electrons reaching the screen leading to a decrease in the brightness of the glow. Therefore the electrons are to be conducted away. Similarly the cathode assumes gradually a positive charge as electrons are emitted from it in large numbers. It again leads to a reduction in the intensity of the glow on the screen. Therefore the cathode is to be replenished with electrons. This is accomplished by the Aquadag coating. The inner surface of the flare of the glass envelope of CRT is coated with conductive graphite coating called Aquadag. It is used to complete the circuit from screen to cathode. The electrons striking the fluorescent screen not only causes emission of light, but also produce secondary emission of electrons. The secondary electrons are attracted by the Aquadag coating which is electrically connected to anode A3. The electrons are restricted to cathode through the ground.

Application: The electrostatic CRT is used in CRO as a display device and study of waveforms.

- **Cathode Ray Oscilloscope (CRO):**

Cathode Ray Oscilloscope is a very important electronic measuring instrument which is used to display and measure electrical signals, time intervals and phase shift between two electrical signals.

Non electrical quantities such as pressure, strain and temperature can be measured by first converting them into an equivalent voltage using an appropriate transducer. Any CRO basically consists of the following **seven major sections**

- i) Cathode Ray Tube (CRT)**
- ii) Time base circuits**
- iii) Trigger circuits**
- iv) Vertical Circuits**
- v) Horizontal Circuits**
- vi) High Voltage Power Supply**
- vii) Low Voltage Power Supply**

The arrangement of these sections in a CRO is shown in the form of Block diagram.

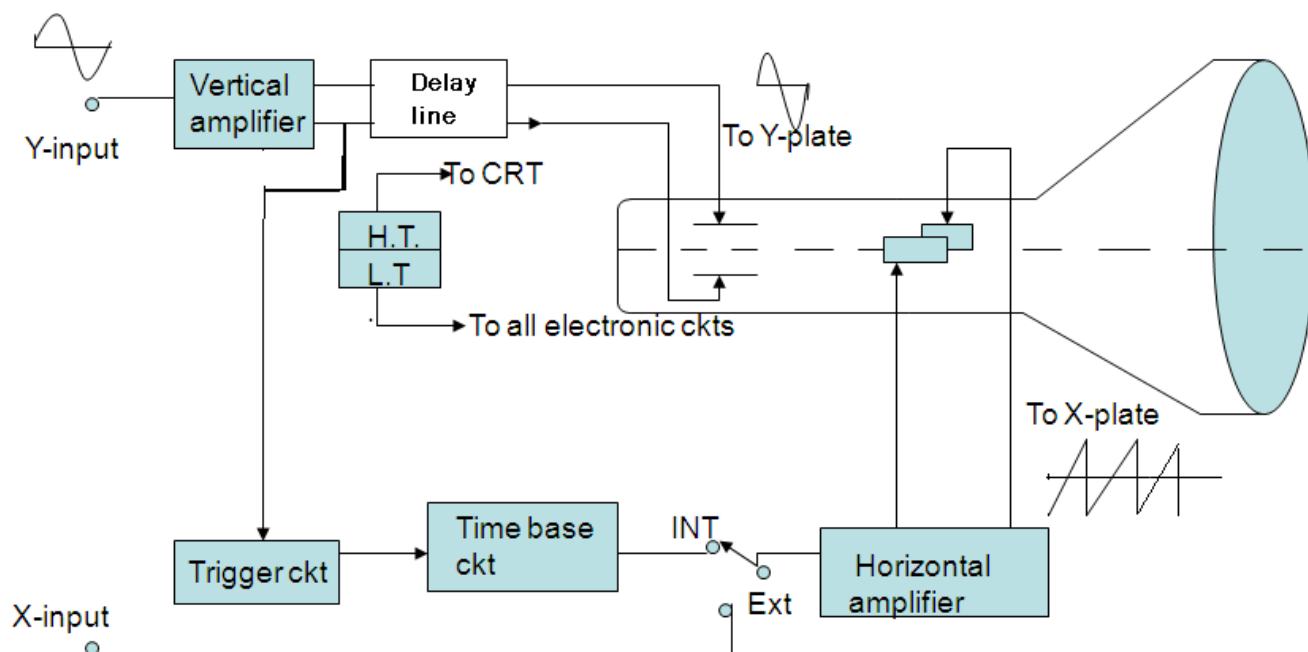


Fig: Block diagram of CRO

I) CATHODE RAY TUBE (CRT):

A cathode ray tube with electrostatic deflection forms the central part of a CRO. The CRT generates the electron beam, focuses it and accelerates it towards the fluorescent screen. The rest of the sections are electronic circuits which cause the desired movement of luminous spot on the screen. In its action the electron beam is similar to pen. It writes on the fluorescent screen in the form of bright trace. Writing on paper involves two motions i.e. horizontal motion of the pen sweeping across the page and other is vertical motion of the pen indicating the message. It is obvious that the electron beam should be made to move both horizontally and vertically. A transparent grid called **graticule** marked in centimeter lines (divisions) both vertically and horizontally, is attached to the face of the CRT for making measurements.

When a signal is to be displayed, it is applied to the Y-plates of CRO by connecting it to the Y input of CRO. For example, let the signal be a simple harmonic wave. Because of the application of the signal to the Y plates, the luminous spot moves up and down on the screen at the same frequency as that of applied voltage. The successive positions of the spot can be seen as shown in fig.(a), when the frequency of the signal is less than about 20 Hz. At higher frequencies the path of the beam is seen as a vertical line (fig b). This is due to the persistence of vision and the fluorescence of the coating. The luminous line is called trace. The length of the vertical trace corresponds to the peak to peak value of applied voltage.

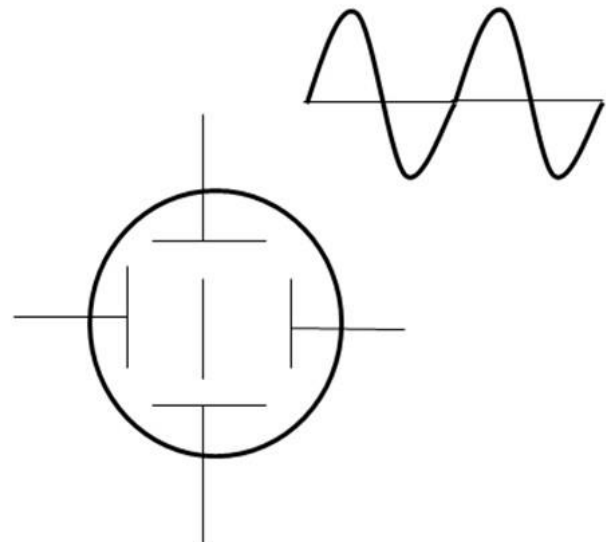
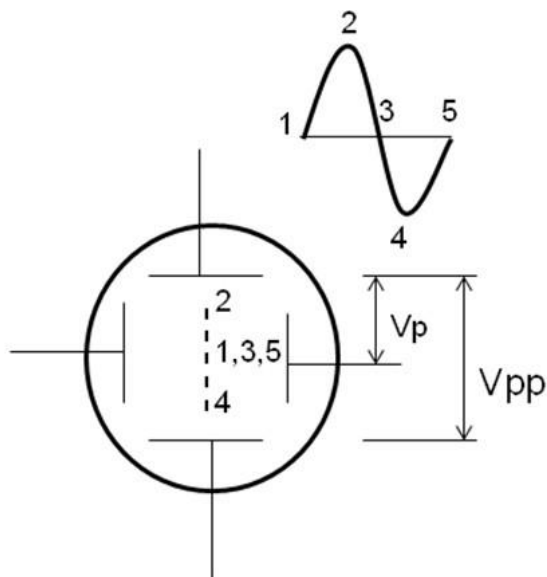


Fig (a): Trace with low freq signal Fig (b): Trace with high freq signal

II) TIME BASE CIRCUIT:

The faithful display of the signal variation by the electron beam requires the beam to move horizontally at a uniform rate across the screen, covering equal distances in equal intervals of time. This condition is satisfied by ramp voltage or sawtooth voltage. The ramp voltage is generated by Time Base Circuit.

The time base circuit consists of time base generator. The time base generator is a variable frequency oscillator which produces an output voltage of sawtooth shape.

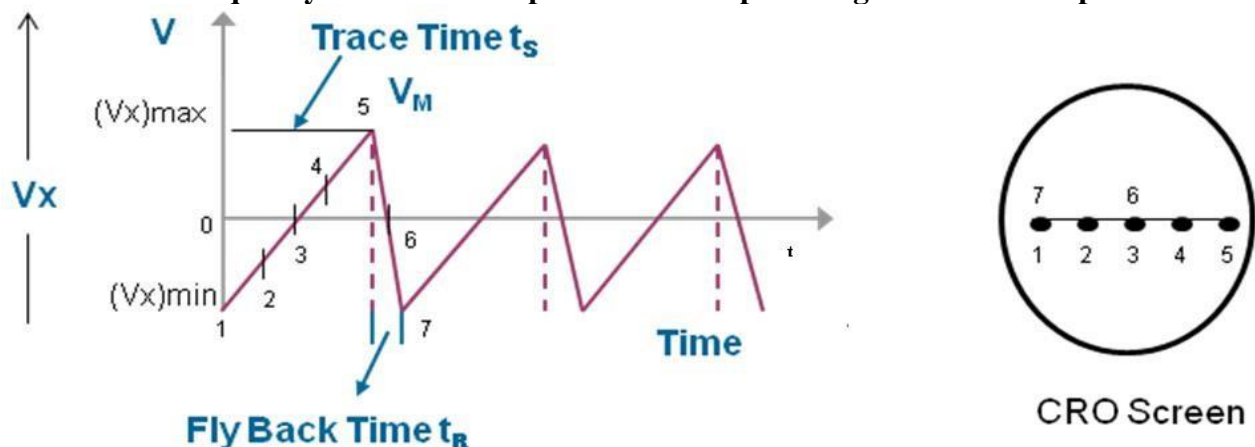


Fig. : Time base voltage

To obtain a visual display of the waveform of applied voltage, it is necessary to apply this A.C. voltage to one set of the deflection plates say **Y**-plates and the other time base voltage or ramp voltage, generated by time base generator, to **X**-plates. This time base voltage is periodic in nature and its frequency can be varied. This voltage increases linearly with time and after reaching a maximum value $(V_x)_{\max}$, it suddenly drops to minimum value $(V_x)_{\min}$. When this voltage is applied to the horizontal deflection plates, the luminous spot sweeps the face of the screen at a uniform velocity from left edge to right edge depending on the polarity of the voltage. Because of this reason ramp voltage is also called as **sweep voltage**. The deflection of spot becomes maximum when

voltage reaches the value $(V_x)_{\max}$ after which the spot suddenly returns to its original position. If the frequency of the time base voltage is sufficiently high the trace of the spot appears as a straight line.

Due to resemblance of sweep voltage to teeth of saw, it is also called **saw-tooth voltage**.

Sweep Time or Trace Time (t_s): The time taken by the sweep voltage to rise from its maximum negative voltage to its maximum positive voltage is called sweep time or trace time t_s .

Retrace Time or Flyback Time (t_r): The time taken by the sweep voltage to dip from its maximum positive voltage to its maximum negative voltage is called retrace time or fly back time t_r .

Sweep Period (T_{sweep}): The sum of sweep time and retrace time constitutes the sweep period T_{sweep} .

$$T_{\text{sweep}} = t_s + t_r \approx t_s$$

Blanking :

The retrace path, if seen on the screen, gives a bad visual effect. By making the retrace time equal to zero, the retrace path can be eliminated. The trace during the flyback time or retrace time can be made invisible by applying a high negative voltage pulse to control grid in the electron gun which turns off the electron beam momentarily. The process of making retrace path invisible is known as **Blanking of the trace**.

Display of the signal shape:

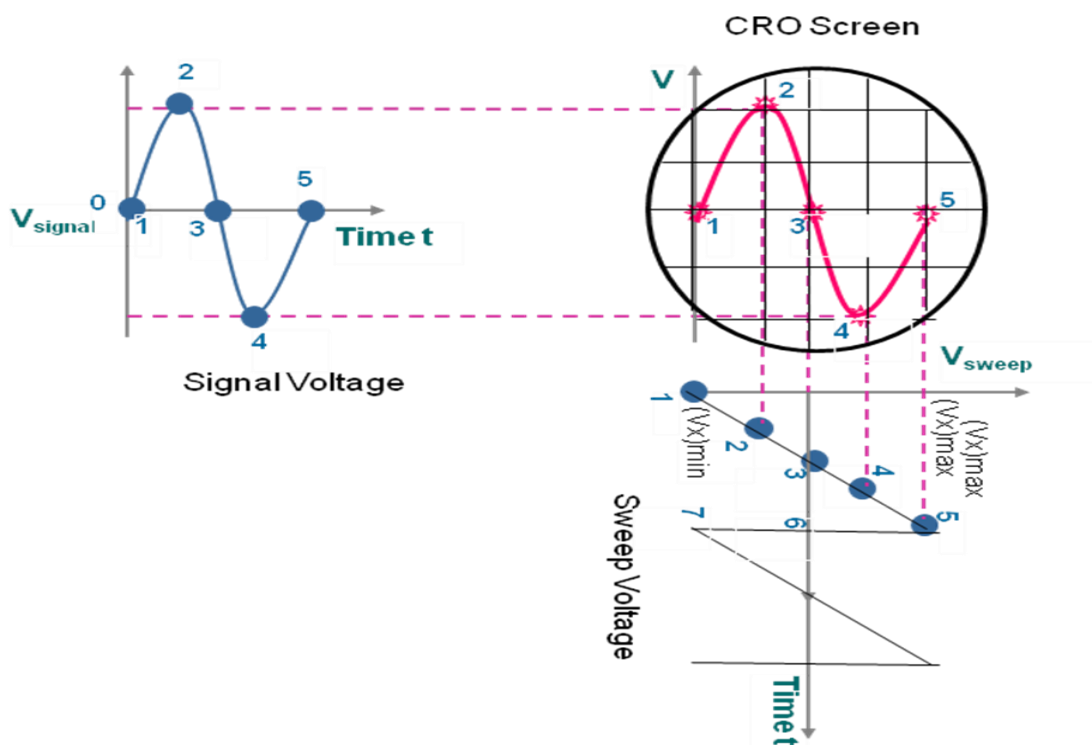


Fig. 24: Display of Signal Shape

As the signal is applied to the Y-plates and time base voltage (sweep voltage) to the X-plates, the electron beam is simultaneously subjected to two forces acting in perpendicular direction. The deflection of the beam at any instant is determined by resultant of these two forces.

Referring to above fig it is seen that at any instant 1, the input signal (signal voltage) is zero and sweep voltage is $(V_x)_{\min}$, the resultant of the forces due to them acts along the left direction and

the beam is deflected to the left extreme. At the instant 2, the signal amplitude is positive and sweep voltage is at a lesser negative value. The beam is deflected left upward in the second quadrant of the screen. At the instant 3, both the input and sweep voltages are zero. The resultant force is zero and the beam stays at the centre of the screen. At the instant 4, the signal amplitude is negative and the sweep voltage is positive. The beam is deflected to right down in the fourth quadrant of the screen. At the instant 5, the signal voltage is zero and sweep voltage is $(v_x)_{\max}$, the electron beam is deflected toward the right extreme along the horizontal direction. Then the beam returns to position 1 and the process repeats. By joining the resultant positions of the spot, it is seen that waveform of the input voltage is faithfully displayed.

III) TRIGGER CIRCUIT:

To display a stationary wave pattern on the CRO screen, the horizontal deflection should start at the same point of the input signal in each sweep cycle. When it occurs it is said that the horizontal sweep voltage is synchronized with input signal. If the sweep and signal voltages are not synchronized a standstill pattern is not displayed on the screen; the wave pattern moves continuously to the right or left of the screen.

Thus synchronization is the method of locking the frequency of the time base generator to the frequency of input signal so that a stationary display of wave pattern is seen on the CRO screen.

The signal will be properly synchronized only when its frequency equals the sweep frequency or sub multiple of sweep frequency. That is

$$f_{\text{signal}} = n f_{\text{sweep}}$$

$$\frac{1}{T_{\text{signal}}} = n \frac{1}{T_{\text{sweep}}}$$

$$\therefore T_{\text{sweep}} = n T_{\text{signal}}$$

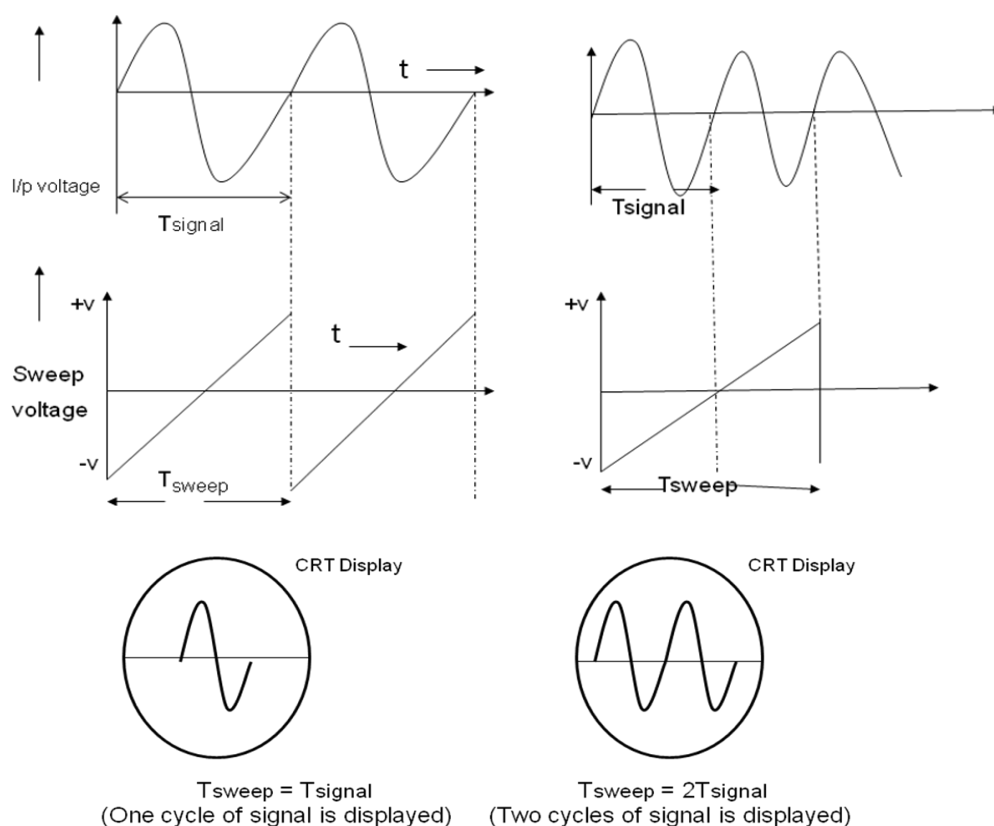


Fig 25: Synchronization of Sweep and Signal Voltages

As an example, if the sweep frequency is 50Hz and signal frequency is 50Hz, one wave is displayed on the screen. On the other hand if the sweep frequency is 50Hz and the signal frequency is 100Hz, the time period of sweep voltage is 20ms and time period of signal is 10ms. In the sweep time which actually is horizontal trace length, the signal goes through two complete cycles. As a result the two cycles of the signal voltage are displayed on the screen.

One of the methods of achieving synchronization is the use of trigger circuit.

The trigger circuit initiates the time base so that the horizontal deflection sweeps in synchronization with vertical signal. For this a delay line circuit is used which delays the signal before it reaches to y-deflecting plates. A part of the output obtained from the vertical amplifier is fed to the trigger generator. Trigger generator is sensitive to the level of the voltage applied at its input. The circuit monitors the input signal and detects the point when it reaches selected level while moving towards the selected polarity. When predetermined level is reached the circuit produces a trigger pulse. This trigger pulse is fed to the time base generator and it acts as command signal to the time base generator and start one sweep cycle of the time base. The sweep voltage is not developed in the trigger mode if the input signal is not given. A portion of the trigger pulse is fed to a second circuit, which produces an unblanking bias voltage to bring the grid of CRT to a potential, which allows electron beam to appear. Thus a stationary display of the wave is seen only above a predetermined level of the input voltage. It happens in each cycle. Because the signal voltage is initiating the sweep cycle, both voltages will be synchronized. By proper adjustment of controls, the trigger pulse may be made to originate when the input signal is going positive or negative or at any particular voltage level. However in AUTO trigger mode the trigger circuit will automatically provide a trigger pulse to the sweep generator even when the input signal is not applied to it and the horizontal trace is seen even without signal at Y-input.

IV) VERTICAL CIRCUITS:

The vertical circuits mainly consist of an attenuator and a voltage amplifier. The signal is applied at the Y-input. It goes to the input of the attenuator. The signal amplitude is increased or decreased by changing the amount of attenuation and then fed to the input of the voltage amplifier so that adequate deflection is obtained on the screen.

V) HORIZONTAL CIRCUITS:

The sweep generator output cannot directly drive the horizontal plates. Therefore it must be initially amplified. The horizontal circuits mainly consist of a voltage amplifier. When the sweep selector switch is in 'INT' position, the sweep voltage is applied to the horizontal amplifier. The output of the amplifier is fed to the X-plates and a linear trace is produced on the CRO screen. When the sweep selector switch is held in 'EXT' position the horizontal amplifier input is disconnected from the internal sweep generator and is instead connected to the horizontal input jack. In this position, the electron beam remains stationary and produces a luminous spot on the CRO screen.

VI) LOW VOLTAGE POWER SUPPLY:

The low voltage power supply powers the electronic circuits such as amplifiers, time base generator, trigger circuit. It gives an output of the order of few tens to a few hundreds of volts.

VII) HIGH VOLTAGE POWER SUPPLY:

The high voltage power supply provides voltages to anodes in the electron gun assembly. It supplies voltages of the order of 1600 V to 2200 V.

DELAY LINE:

All electronic circuitry in the CRO causes a certain amount of time delay in the transmission of signal voltages to the deflection plates. Comparing the vertical and horizontal circuits in the CRO block diagram, we obtain that a portion of the output signal applied to the vertical CRT plate triggers the horizontal signal. Signal processing in the horizontal circuit consists of generating a trigger pulse that starts the time base generator (sweep generator) then output of this is given to the horizontal amplifier and then to the horizontal plates. This whole process takes time. The signal of the vertical CRT plates must therefore be delayed by the same amount of time so as to reach the signal at the same instant as that of the horizontal one. This is the function of the delay line.

APPLICATIONS of CRO:

The CRO is a versatile electronic instrument and it is used in measuring a variety of electrical parameters.

a) Study of the Wave Forms: CRO is widely used in maintenance and trouble shooting where the wave shapes of voltages in different electronic circuits are to be examined. The signal under study is applied at the Y-input terminal and the sweep voltage is internally applied to X-plates. The size of the figure displayed on the screen may be adjusted suitably by adjusting the gain control.

b) Measurement of D.C. Voltages: The D.C. voltage under study is applied at Y-input. The trace gets deflected upward or downward depending upon the polarity of the applied voltage. The deflection of the spot produce on the screen can be measured and by multiplying it with the deflection sensitivity (volts/div), the magnitude of unknown voltage can be obtained.

c) Measurement of A.C. Voltages: For this measurement the trace is to be adjusted at the center of the screen and the A.C. voltage under study is applied at Y-input. The peak to peak distance is measured and on multiplying it with deflection sensitivity (volts/div), peak to peak value of applied A.C. voltage can be calculated. The rms value and average value of the voltage are calculated using

the formulae,
$$V_p = \frac{V_{p-p}}{2}, \quad V_{rms} = \frac{V_p}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad V_{aver} = 0.636 V_p$$

d) Measurement of Current: For this measurement current has to be passed through suitable known resistor and the potential developed across it can be measured as has been explained above. The current may then be calculated. However if the cathode ray oscilloscope having magnetic deflection system, the currents may be measured by passing it through one of the deflection coil.

e) Measurement of Frequency:

1) Calibration Method: A sinusoidal signal whose frequency is to be determined is applied to Y-input. The time base control is adjusted to obtain 2 or 3 cycles of the signal on the screen. The horizontal spread of one cycle is noted. By multiplying it with the time base sensitivity (time/div), the time period of the signal is obtained. The reciprocal of the time period gives the frequency of the signal.

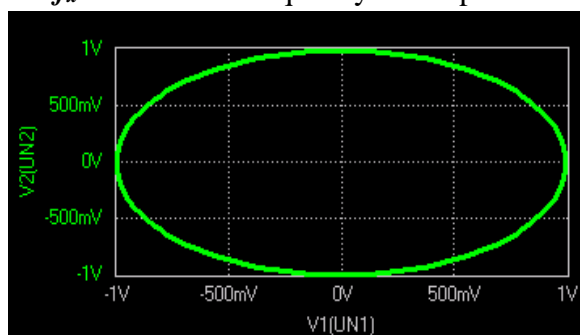
2) Lissajous Method: Alternatively, the frequency of a test signal can be determined using Lissajous patterns. **When two sine waves oscillating in mutually perpendicular planes are combined, different types of closed loop patterns are obtained. They are called Lissajous patterns in honour of the French physicist Lissajous.**

The signal of unknown frequency is applied to vertical input (Y) and a voltage of known frequency obtained from standard variable frequency generator is given to horizontal input (X). The

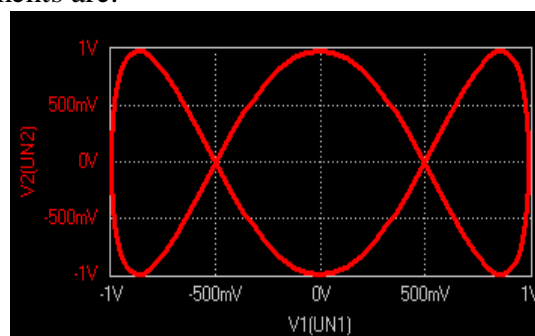
frequency of this frequency generator can be varied until a suitable stationary Lissajous figure is obtained. Knowing the frequency from frequency generator and counting the number of tangency points along horizontal and vertical axes, the unknown frequency can be determined. If f_y and f_x are the unknown and known frequencies of the sinusoidal voltage fed to the vertical and horizontal plates of CRO respectively and n_x and n_y are number of tangency points along X and Y-axis respectively then the unknown frequency is calculated from ,

$$f_y = f_x \frac{n_x}{n_y} \quad \text{---(1)}$$

Where f_x is the known frequency. Examples of measurements are:



a) 1:1



b) 3:1

f) Measurement of phase difference:

- (i) **Dual Sweep Method:** It requires a dual trace CRO. The phase relationship between two sinusoidal signals of same frequency may be directly measured by displaying both waveforms on the CRO screen and determining the delay time between the two waveforms. The sensitivity and trigger controls of each channel are adjusted for two stationary sinusoidal signals. The sweep speed is initially adjusted such that the time period T of the sine wave is measured. Then the sweep speed is increased and the delay time T_d between the two sine waves is accurately determined.

The difference is calculated using the relation

$$\phi = \frac{\Delta t}{T} \times 360$$

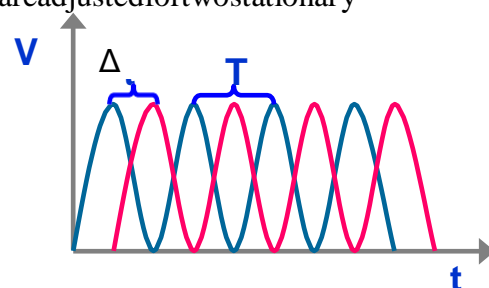


Fig. : Sinusoidal voltages V_A and V_C

- (ii) **Lissajous Pattern Method:** A second method for determining phase difference of two sinewaves of same frequency is to feed one sine wave to vertical input and other sine wave to horizontal input. The sweep selector switch is kept in EXT position.

A Lissajous pattern namely ellipse is obtained on the screen. By measuring the lengths $A = 2Y_1$ and $B = 2Y_2$ of the elliptical

pattern the phase shift ϕ is calculated. $\phi = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{A}{B} \right) = \sin^{-1} \left(\frac{2Y_1}{2Y_2} \right)$

