

**HOFFRICHTER****Datasheet**

Micro-pressure sensors  
Economic series  
Small

**Pascal**

**PC 100 / 500**  
**1000 / 2000**

**Features**

- extreme maximum overload
- high signal to noise ratio
- offset stability <400 ppm/K
- linearity fault <0,3%
- chamber volume <25 $\mu$ l

**Applications**

- industrial process control
- medical instrumentation
- clean room technology
- flow measuring
- analytical instrumentation
- leakage measurement

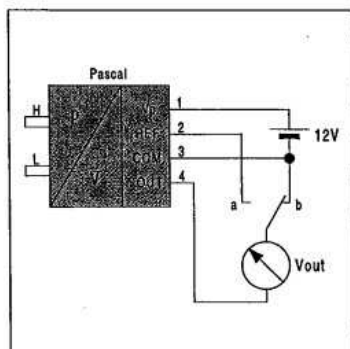
**General Description**

HOFFRICHTER's differential pressure sensors combine the high quality of the capacitive principle with the economic advantages of other technologies.

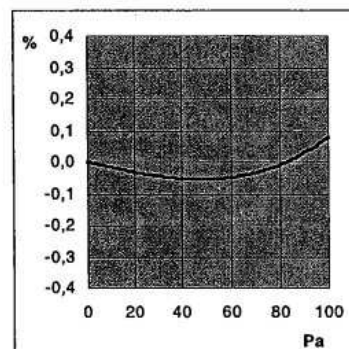
The sensors are made of a ceramic component and an integrated electronic part both built in a box consisting of hardly flammable material.

Only a single voltage supply between 10 V and 18 V is necessary. The range of the output voltage is between 0 V and 10 V. The pressure sensors can also be operated with a dual voltage supply, e.g.  $\pm 5$  V, and a bipolar output signal is also possible.

For standard operation, no additional components are required. The small size allows a very simple mounting directly on the circuit board. Sensors with 2 mm tube connector or with M3 female thread for 2 mm tube-coupling are available.



Electrical Characteristics Test Circuit

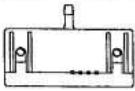
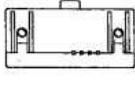


Typical Linearity Fault ( PC 100)

## PC 100/500/1000/2000 E-Series

### MAXIMUM PERMISSIBLE VALUES

Power supply . . . . . 20 V  
 Operating temperature range . . . 0 ... 80 °C  
 Storage temperature range . . . . -40 ... 125 °C  
 Differential pressure . . . . . 2 bar  
 System pressure . . . . . 2 bar

	PC 100 SDET, PC 1000 SDET,	PC 500 SDET PC 2000 SDET
	PC 100 SDEF, PC 1000 SDEF,	PC 500 SDEF PC 2000 SDEF

Stresses beyond those listed under "ABSOLUTE MAXIMUM RATINGS" may cause permanent damage to the device.

### CHARACTERISTICS

$$V_p = 12 \text{ V}, 4 \text{ }^\circ\text{C} < \vartheta_u < 70 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$$

ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS									
SYM.	PARAMETER	CONDITIONS	PC100			PC500			UNITS
			MIN	TYPE	MAX	MIN	TYPE	MAX	
$V_p$	Supply voltage		10	12	18	10	12	18	V
$I_s$	Supply current	$i_o = 0$	9	10	12	9	10	12	mA
$U_{out}$	Output voltage	$i_o = 0$ $i_o = 100 \mu\text{A}$ $i_o = 1 \text{ mA}$	0,01	5	$V_p - 1$	0,01	5	$V_p - 1$	V
$U_r$	Power supply rejection	$\Delta p = 0$ , $10\text{V} < V_p < 18\text{V}$		2	3		2	3	mV
$R_o$	Output resistance			51			51		$\Omega$
SNR	Signal to noise ratio <sup>1)</sup>			74			74		dB
C	Capacitive load	$i_{out} = 0$	0		1000	0		1000	pF
$U_{ref}$	Reference voltage	$i_{ref} = 0$	4,95	5	5,05	4,95	5	5,05	V
$I_{ref}$	Reference load	$V_p > 12\text{V}$			1			1	mA
PNEUMATIC CHARACTERISTICS									
SYM.	PARAMETER	CONDITIONS	PC100			PC500			UNITS
			MIN	TYPE	MAX	MIN	TYPE	MAX	
$p_d$	Linear differential pressure range	$V_p > 12\text{V}$	-100		100	-500		500	Pa
$p_c$	Critical pressure	system pressure - 1 bar		1			1		bar
$F_{lin}$	Linearity fault			0,07	0,1		0,15	0,25	%
$TK_N$	Offset drift		200	400	600	200	400	600	ppm/K
$TK_p$	Amplification drift		200	400	600	200	400	600	ppm/K
	Position dependence <sup>2)</sup>	$\Delta p = 0$			0,3			0,1	%/g
$F_{tot}$	Total fault <sup>3)</sup>	$20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C} < \vartheta_u < 50 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$		1	2		1	2	%
$f_h$	High frequency cut off	-3 dB		75			150		Hz

## PC 100/500/1000/2000 E-Series

### CHARACTERISTICS

$$V_p = 12 \text{ V}, 4 \text{ }^\circ\text{C} < \vartheta_u < 70 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$$

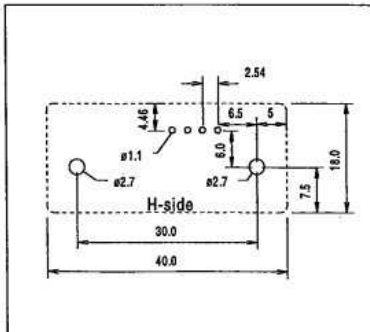
ELECTRICAL CHARACTERISTICS									
SYM.	PARAMETER	CONDITIONS	PC1000			PC2000			UNITS
			MIN	TYPE	MAX	MIN	TYPE	MAX	
$V_p$	Supply voltage		10	12	18	10	12	18	V
$I_s$	Supply current	$I_o = 0$	9	10	12	9	10	12	mA
$U_{out}$	Output voltage	$I_o = 0$ $I_o = 100 \mu\text{A}$ $I_o = 1 \text{ mA}$	0,01	5	$V_p - 1$	0,01	5	$V_p - 1$	V
$U_z$	Power supply rejection	$\Delta p = 0$ , $10 \text{ V} < V_p < 18 \text{ V}$		2	3		2	3	mV
$R_o$	Output resistance			51			51		$\Omega$
SNR	Signal to noise ratio <sup>1)</sup>			74			74		dB
$C_{out}$	Capacitive load	$I_{out} = 0$	0		1000	0		1000	pF
$U_{ref}$	Reference voltage	$I_{ref} = 0$	4,95	5	5,05	4,95	5	5,05	V
$I_{ref}$	Reference load	$V_p > 12 \text{ V}$			1			1	mA

PNEUMATIC CHARACTERISTICS									
SYM.	PARAMETER	CONDITIONS	PC1000			PC2000			UNITS
			MIN	TYPE	MAX	MIN	TYPE	MAX	
$p_d$	Linear differential pressure range	$V_p > 12 \text{ V}$	-1000		1000	-2000		2000	Pa
$p_c$	Critical pressure	System's pressure - 1 bar		1			1		bar
$F_{lin}$	Linearity fault			0,15	0,25		0,25	0,35	%
$TK_o$	Offset drift		200	400	600	200	400	600	ppm/K
$TK_n$	Amplification drift		200	400	600	200	400	600	ppm/K
	Position dependence <sup>2)</sup>	$\Delta p = 0$			0,1			0,05	%/g
$F_{tot}$	Total fault <sup>3)</sup>	$20 \text{ }^\circ\text{C} < \vartheta_u < 50 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$		1	2		1	2	%
$f_u$	High frequency cut off	3dB			250			400	Hz

- <sup>1)</sup> The signal to noise ratio is defined as the 20th logarithm of the quotient of the range's end to the effective value of the noise voltage.  
<sup>2)</sup> There is no position dependence if changing the position around the axis between the pressure inlets.  
<sup>3)</sup> The total fault is the geometric addition of the single faults.

#### Layout from the component side



#### Ranges

Type	PC 100	PC500	PC1000	PC2000
$\pm\text{Pa}$	100	500	1 000	2 000
$\pm\text{mbar}$	1	5	10	20
$\pm\text{cm WS}$	1.01973	5.0965	10.1973	20.3946
$\pm\text{PSI}$	0.014505	0.072525	0.14505	0.2901
$\pm\text{inch WS}$	0.40147	2.00735	4.0147	8.0294
$\pm\text{inch Hg}$	0.02953	0.14765	0.2953	0.5906
$\pm\text{mm Hg}$	0.75006	3.7503	7.5006	15.0012

The technical data are subject to alteration, especially for the purpose of technological progress.

## PC 100/500/1000/2000 E-Series

### GENERAL INFORMATION

During the operation with capacitive pressure sensors, the pressure to be measured effects a variation of the distance between a flexible membrane and a fixed electrode. By this, the capacity between these two components is changed.

In comparison with other physical principles, capacitive pressure sensors are characterized by a very high precision and an extremely good resolution especially for the measurement of very small absolute and differential pressures.

In principle, the characteristic of capacitive pressure sensors is not linear. Some manufacturers solve this problem by using special electronics. HOFFRICHTER developed a certain sensor design which guarantees a relatively wide linear range.

For this reason it was possible to adapt the electronic optimally for a linear operation. So, electronic compensation components which are likely to negatively influence the stability are unnecessary.

The PasCal and CPS pressure sensors are made of a ceramic substrate with silver-palladium or silver-platinum thick layer electrodes. The membrane is made of a special steel or ceramic and is fixed by glass rings.

### THEORY OF OPERATION

According to the differential principle, the differential pressure moves the membrane from one electrode in the direction of the other electrode. This is illustrated in figure 1. With the equations

$$C_1 = \frac{\epsilon A}{(d - s)} \quad \text{and} \quad C_2 = \frac{\epsilon A}{(d + s)}$$

$\epsilon = 8,86 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ As/Vm}$

$d =$  Distance between the electrodes without pressures

$s =$  Deflection of the membrane by pressure

$A =$  Area of the electrode

we get the converter's equation

$$\Delta C = \frac{2 s \epsilon A}{(d^2 - s^2)} \quad (1)$$

This equation shows the smaller  $s$  becomes compared to  $d$  the better the linearity will be. From this follows

$$\Delta C = \frac{2 s \epsilon A}{d^2} \quad [d \gg s] \quad (2)$$

The deflection  $s$  is extensively proportional to the differential pressure. But additionally it depends on the membrane's characteristics e.g. the thickness. If all parameters are combined to a constant called  $K$ , finally follows

$$\Delta C = K \Delta p \quad (3)$$

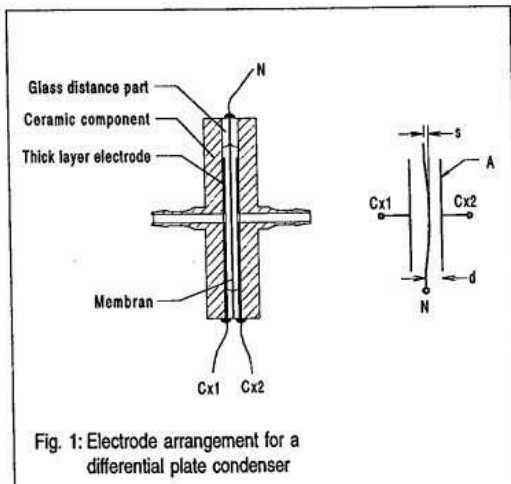
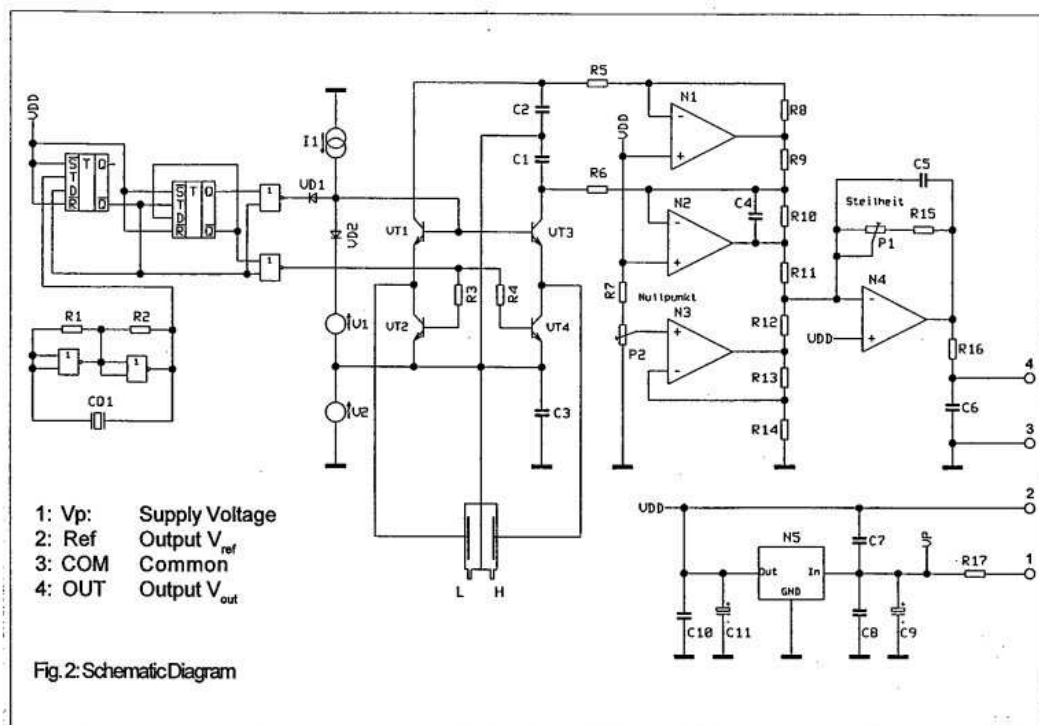


Fig. 1: Electrode arrangement for a differential plate condenser

## PC 100/500/1000/2000 E-Series



### THE ELECTRONICS

For measuring the differential capacity, HOFFRICHTER uses a procedure which is described in literature as condenser recharge procedure. This means that the capacity is being charged and discharged permanently with a certain constant frequency. During this the average current is measured, because this current is independent of the characteristics of the charging and discharging function. Figure 2 shows the simplified schematic diagram.

*Origin: HOFFRICHTER-Patent; the patent rights have ended because of time reasons.*

A quartz-generator controls two transistors in series connection,  $VT_1$  and  $VT_2$  or  $VT_3$  and  $VT_4$ . A logic connection between the quartz-generator and the transistors generates a break between every switching.

If the transistors are conductive, the sensor capacities are charged by the much higher capacities of the condensers  $C_1$  and  $C_2$ .

The voltage increase of the charging is  $V_{ref}$ . When the charging voltage has reached  $V_{ref}$ , the controlling current  $I_s$  is led through the diode  $VD_2$  to the source  $V_{ref}$ .

After switching over by the controlling generator,  $VD_1$  becomes conductive and the basis potential of the transistors is led nearly to earth potential. Thus, the transistors become non-conductive. After a period of time of about 100 ns the generator addresses the transistors  $VT_2$  and  $VT_4$ . They totally unload the sensor capacities by a short-circuit.

The frequency of the periodic recharging is high. The OPA's  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  prevent the condensers  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  from unloading by generating corresponding currents with the negative feedback resistors  $R_9$  and  $R_{10}$ . The capacities  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are much larger than the sensor-capacities. Additionally, the resistors  $R_5$  and  $R_6$  cause a RC-low-pass-effect. Therefore the OPA-output-voltage is a DC-voltage.

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During every period T of the recharging frequency f, every sensor-capacity takes a charge of

$$Q = C_x U_{ref}$$

$C_x$  = sensor-capacity  
 $U_{ref}$  = voltage increasing above  $C_x$

and afterwards it will be unloaded by a short-circuit. During this periodical charging the condensers  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  are holding their voltage by a certain current provided by the resistors of the OPA's that are working in a negative feedback mode.

This is explained by the following equations:

$$I_{RS} = I_{RS} = f U_{ref} C_{x1} R_{11} \quad \text{and}$$

$$I_{R10} = I_{RS} = f U_{ref} C_{x2} R_{13}$$

By that, following voltage is generated at the output of OPA  $N_2$ :

$$U_{N2} = f U_{ref} R_{10} (C_{x1} - C_{x2}),$$

After inserting equation (3) follows:

$$U_{N2} = K f U_{ref} R_{10} Dp. \quad (4)$$

Additional amplification and offset-correction is done by OPA  $N_4$ .

## DEFINITIONS

### Absolute pressure

A definition of pressure concerning a vacuum without any additional pressure. E.g. the barometric pressure is defined as an absolute pressure. Sensors for measuring the absolute pressure normally have only one pressure connection to the outside of the housing. A second connection is mostly connected to a vacuum-chamber inside the sensor.

### Relative pressure

The difference between a pressure-source and the atmospheric pressure. Typically the tyre pressure is a relative pressure. Differential pressure sensors are measuring the relative pressure if one connection is open.

### Differential pressure

Difference between two pressure values. The pressure drop over a flow resistance is a typical differential pressure. With the help of differential pressure sensors, both relative and absolute pressure can be measured. The absolute pressure is measured if one of the two connections is connected to a vacuum.

Many technical and physical quantities can be traced back to the quantity PRESSURE. Mostly small differential pressures are generated. During flow measurement, for instance, the pressure loss on a flow resistance is measured. During height difference measurement, the principle of hose scales is applied, and during sensitive measurements of gap widths or distances, the method of flow or back-flow is employed.

### Conversion table for pressure units

	PSI	in. WS	in. Hg	Pa	mbar	cm WS	mm Hg
PSI	1,000	27,680	2,036	6894,7	68,947	70,308	51,715
in. WS	$3,6127 \cdot 10^{-2}$	1,000	$7,3554 \cdot 10^{-2}$	249,1	2,491	2,5400	1,8683
in. Hg	0,4912	13,596	1,000	33864	33,864	34,532	25,400
Pa	$0,014504 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$0,40147 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$0,02953 \cdot 10^{-2}$	1,000	0,01	$1,01973 \cdot 10^{-2}$	$0,75006 \cdot 10^{-2}$
mbar	$1,450 \cdot 10^{-2}$	0,40147	$2,953 \cdot 10^{-2}$	100	1,000	1,01973	0,75006
cm WS	$1,4223 \cdot 10^{-2}$	0,3937	$2,8958 \cdot 10^{-2}$	98,06	0,9806	1,000	0,7355
mm Hg	$1,9337 \cdot 10^{-2}$	0,53525	$3,9370 \cdot 10^{-2}$	133,32	1,3332	1,3595	1,000

## SPECIAL PARAMETERS

### Sensitivity

The sensitivity or the gradient of the characteristics is defined as the ratio of the output variation to the pressure value that has effected this variation.

### Resolution

The resolution is defined as the minimal output variation that can be traced back to a pressure variation. The resolution limit is reached if the output signal cannot be distinguished from the noise level.

In contrast to resistors, condensers have no noise jamming. In this respect capacitive sensors are superior to all resistive sensors.

But for changing the variation of the capacity into an electric signal, an electronic circuit is necessary. The amplifiers used in such an electronic circuit have a certain noise signal and so the resolution of capacitive sensors is also limited. With capacitive sensors, it is possible to get a dynamic range of 4 to 5 decades. Only the imperfect electronic limits the resolution of capacitive pressure sensors.

### Linearity

The sensor's sensitivity is not constant but it depends on the value of the input signal. The linearity fault is defined as the maximum deviation of the measured value from an ideal straight line which represents the connection between the input and the output signal.

In principle, capacitive pressure sensors do not work linear. But in case the membrane deflection is very small, the capacity variation is linear. That means it is proportional to the variation of the pressure.

The PasCal-electronic is able to distinguish capacity values in the range of femtofarads with a high stability. Very small membrane deflections in the range of nanometers can be detected so that the PasCal-sensors show an excellent linearity. For this reason, complicated electronic compensation circuits are not necessary.

### Hysteresis, Reproduction

After deflecting the membrane by a pressure, the membrane does not return totally to the original state. This permanent deviation is called hysteresis.

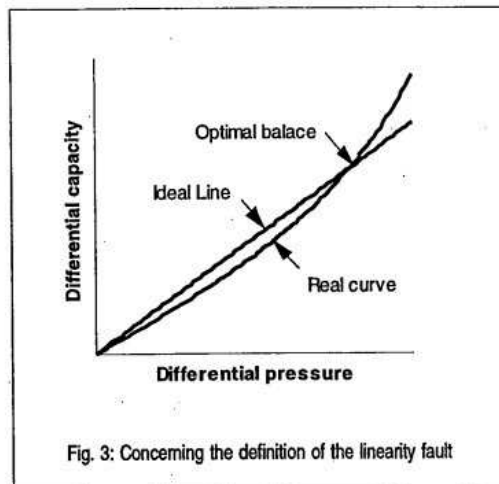


Fig. 3: Concerning the definition of the linearity fault

### Offset

The output of a converter without pressure is called offset-voltage or only offset. The offset is an additive fault.

### Offset-drift

Especially under the influence of an altering of the environment temperature or the sensor age, the offset can vary. A low offset-drift is one of the most important quality features of pressure sensors.

The unit of the temperature coefficient is normally PPM/K at the end of the measurement range. The following equation describes this physical connection:

$$W = W_0 (1 + TK \Delta\theta) \quad (5)$$

- $W$  = Measured value after temperature variation
- $W_0$  = Measured value before temperature variation
- $TK$  = Temperature coefficient
- $\Delta\theta$  = Temperature variation in Kelvin

E.g. 100 PPM/K (=  $100 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ K}^{-1}$ ) means that the zero point of the sensor varies by 0,1 % of the total measurement range from a temperature variation of 10 K.

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### Sensitivity-drift

Not only the offset but also the sensitivity of a sensor varies. Temperature and the sensor's age have a main influence to the sensitivity. In this case, the unit is again PPM/K and concerns the measured value.

Before delivery, the PasCal-sensors are artificially aged in a climate chamber with different temperatures according to a certain program. This procedure guarantees a minimum drift of offset and sensitivity.

### Dynamic range

The dynamic range of a pressure sensor characterizes the ability of its output-signal to follow the pressure-variation without time-lag. The dynamic characteristics are described by the limiting frequency and the transient time.

On principle, pressure sensors are low passes, because of their flexible membrane and their flow resistances. If measuring tubes are used, even an oscillating device is formed which is comparable with an electrically oscillating series circuit with a certain resonance frequency.

### System pressure

In contrast to the differential pressure  $\Delta p = p_2 - p_1$ , which has an effect on the membrane, the system pressure influences the sensor's housing. For this reason, the system pressure is an absolute pressure or a relative pressure between the chamber and the environment.

### Overload pressure

It must be distinguished between a **differential** and a **system overload pressure**. The membrane has to stand the differential pressure, the housing has to stand the system pressure. In case of exceeding the limiting maximum pressure, the sensor will be changed irreversibly. In case of exceeding the destroying pressure, the sensor will become leaking. Concerning the maximum and the destroying pressure, it must also be distinguished between differential, absolute and relative pressure.

The PasCal-sensors are extraordinarily resistant to overload pressures concerning both differential and system pressure. In spite of their excellent sensitivity, the PasCal-sensors are nearly indestructible.

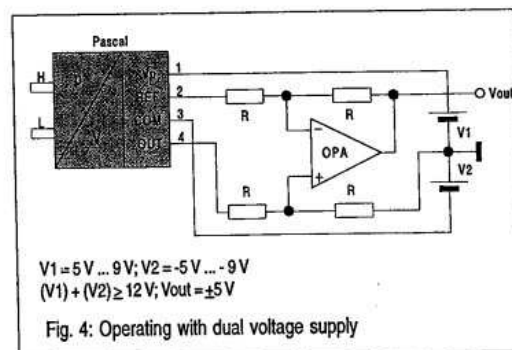
## APPLICATIONS INFORMATION

### Mounting

PasCal sensors can be mounted on an electronic board like any other electronic component. Additionally two cheese-head screws ensure a safe fixing. The housing is not totally waterproof. So liquids may damage the device. Beyond this, the pressure connectors must be protected against dust or dirt coming in. The screwing in of a tube-coupling must be done very carefully. For this reason, the used tool should have a stop dog so that the membrane cannot be damaged.

### Power supply

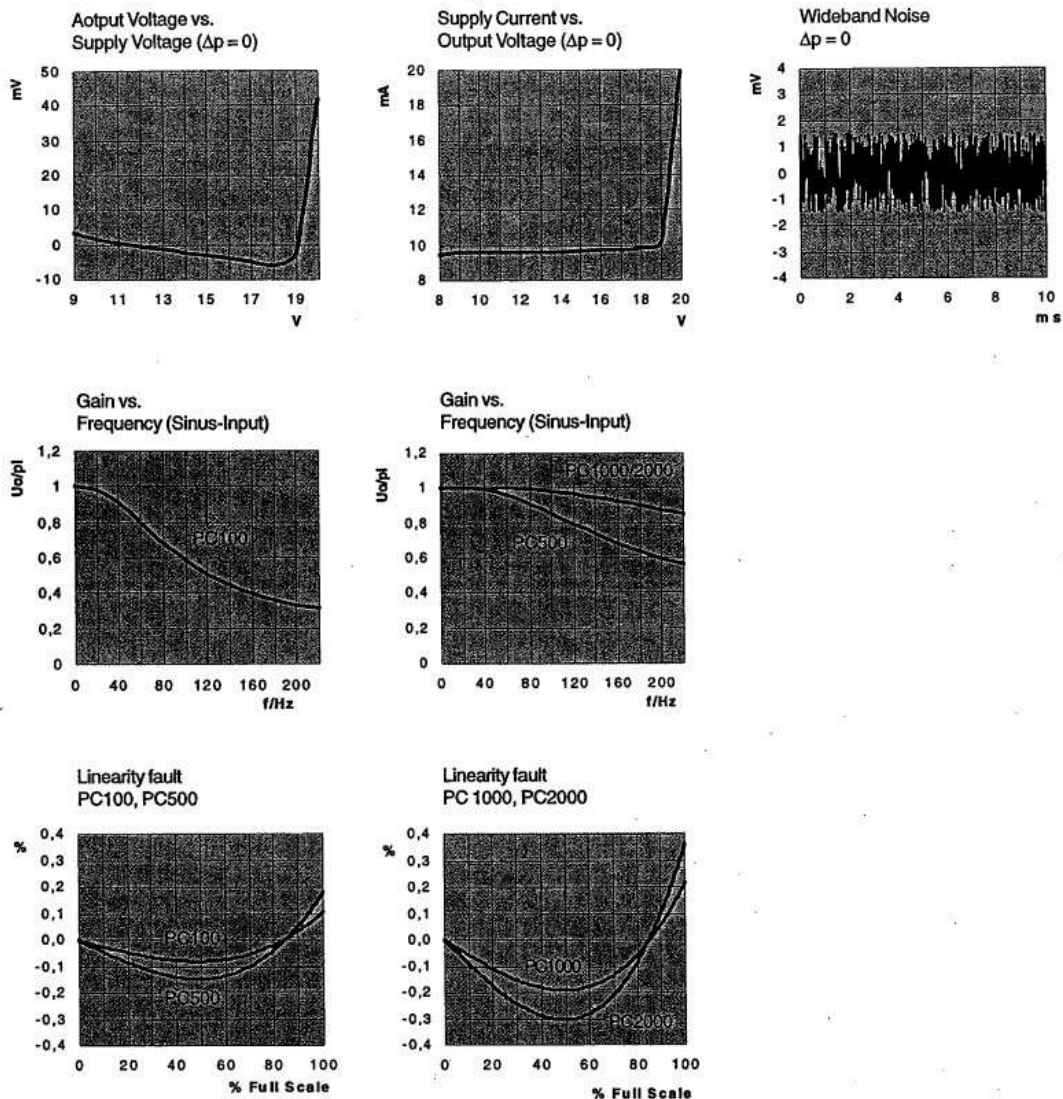
The sensors can be used with single or with dual voltage supply. For bipolar operation, the output zero point has 5 V comparing to COM. Negative pressure differences reduce the output voltage down to some millivolts, positive pressure differences raise the output up to  $V_p - 1,5$  V. In case of dual power supply and connecting the negative supply pole with the COM-pin, the differential voltage between COM and REF should be used as reference. Otherwise the changes of the negative supply voltage would distort the measurement (fig. 4).



The components are tested for operating with  $\pm 5$  V. But in this case the maximum potential difference doesn't reach 5 V. This can be avoided by reducing the amplification or by using a less sensitive sensor e.g. by exchanging a PC 200 for a PC 100.



## PC 100/500/1000/2000 E-Series



### Maximum overload capacity

PasCal - sensors are extremely resistant against overload pressure. Only if the differential pressure is higher than 2 bar some PasCal-types show first changes. The overload behaviour can be divided into three phases:

**Phase I:** In the range between single and fivefold nominal maximum pressure only the linearity fault increases exponentially. But this has no effect, because output voltage is limited.

**Phase II:** If pressure becomes higher than in phase I the membrane is pressed to the electrode. So the output voltage either is 0 V or maximum. Up to the pressure limit which is much more higher than 1 bar concerning the PasCal-S-types there are no deformations of the membrane.

**Phase III:** Differential pressure values above the pressure limit may deform the membrane. This means an irreversible offset of the zero point. In this case the sensor must be newly adjusted. It is remarkable that such a overloaded sensor is resistant against further overloads in the same direction.

## PC 100/500/1000/2000 E-Series

### TYPICAL APPLICATIONS

Fine pressure sensors are often used for indirect measurements if the parameter to be measured can be traced to a pressure measurement. Because of their high maximum overload capacity, the PasCal-sensors are suitable for applications which may have extremely high pressures from time to time e.g. leakage measurement.

#### Flow measurement

The volume stream or the speed of a gas can be traced to a pressure measurement if the stream is led through a resistance by measuring the pressure drop. Concerning this there is a difference between effective and back pressure resistance. An effective resistance has a proportionality between flow and pressure drop and measurement ranges from 100/1 can be realized. A back pressure resistance has a proportionality between flow and the radical of the back pressure value. This extremely reduces the range of measurement. In the range of small back pressure values, the change of the radical value is high. For this reason, the zero point fault amplification is very high and so the measurement range becomes small. On principle, for the same range a squared value of precision is necessary. Therefore a range of 100/1 needs  $100^2 = 10\ 000$  amplitude steps from the sensor.

A classical example for back pressure measurement is the measuring of the flow rate with a PRANDTL tube.

Effective resistances for flow measurement are known as laminar flow elements (LFE). The flow channel is either divided into many thin tubes or equipped with a close-meshed sieve in the stream. The pressure drop from this resistance is measured.

Figure 5 shows the application of a PasCal-Sensor in a spirometer. In this case a special nozzle with two sieves is used. The interference from the streaming conditions in front of the first sieve is suppressed by the pressure compensation between the two sieves. The blind volume and the total resistance of the system are small. Additionally only one measuring tube is needed, because it is satisfactory to measure the relative pressure.

The differential amplifier  $N_1$  compensates changes of the supply voltage of -5V. The  $N_1$  output is, in every case, the difference between  $V_{ref}$  and  $V_{out}$ . The exhaled air is warmed up and saturated with water steam. For this reason the volume has increased by about 10%. The component  $N_2$  compensates this volume difference (BTPS-correction).  $N_3$  and  $N_4$  serve for the output of flow and volume data issued in the form of a voltage signal which is intended for further processing.

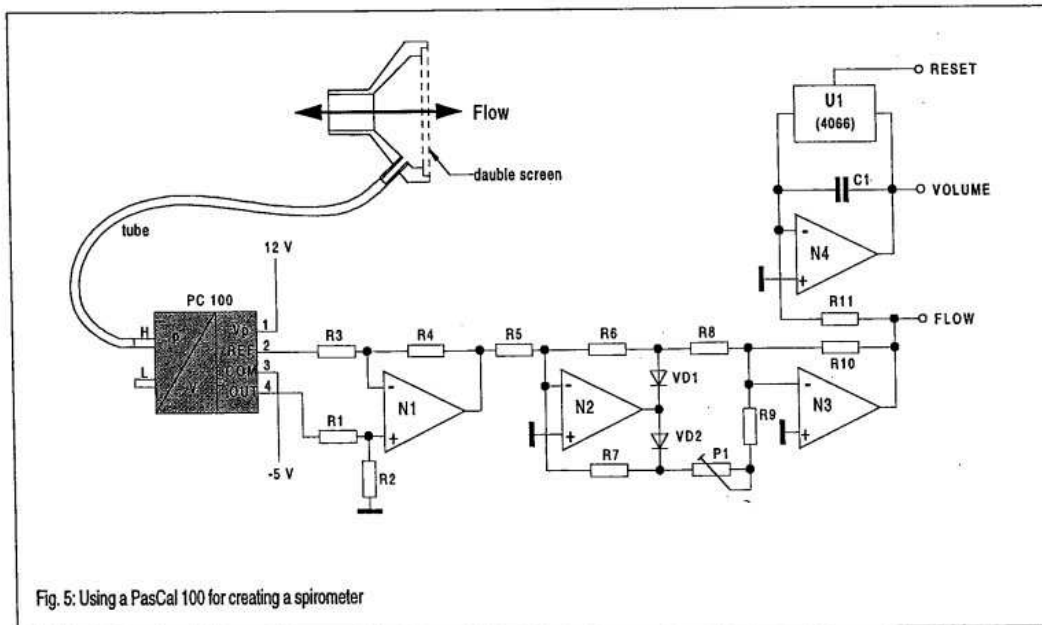


Fig. 5: Using a PasCal 100 for creating a spirometer

## PC 100/500/1000/2000 E-Series

### Density measurement

A simple way for measuring density of liquids is demonstrated in figure 6. The probe consists of two tubes with a certain length difference e.g.  $h_2 - h_1 = \Delta h = 50 \text{ mm}$  which is positioned in the liquid. The same constant gas flow is given into the two tubes. The gas bubbles come out of the tubes in the liquid in a different height of  $\Delta h$ .

The difference of hydrostatic pressures in liquids is a parameter of the density  $\rho$  and can be measured very easily by using a PasCal-sensor. This is described by:

$$\rho = \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta h \cdot g}$$

### Leakage measurement

Because of their extremely high overload capacity PasCal-sensors are extraordinarily suitable for use in leakage measurement devices. Figure 7 illustrates a leakage measurement device that is based on the back stream principle. A relative testing pressure of 2 bar is led through a capillary with a diameter of 1 mm to the device that shall be tested. In case of leakage, air streams through the capillary and a certain differential pressure can be measured. This is a parameter for the size of the leakage. The principle is described according to HAGEN-POISEUILLE:

$$\Delta p = \frac{128 \rho \nu l \dot{V}}{\pi d^4}$$

$\Delta p$  = differential pressure above the capillary in Pascal

$l$  = distance between the pressure pick off in Meter

$d$  = diameter of the capillary in Meter

$\rho$  = density of the testing gas  $\text{kg/m}^3$

$\nu$  = cinematic viscosity in  $\text{m}^2/\text{s}$

$\dot{V}$  = Flow in  $\text{m}^3/\text{s}$

There is a proportionality between flow and pressure difference in case Reynolds number  $Re$  is less than 2000.

$$Re = \frac{4 \rho \dot{V}}{\pi \eta d}$$

$\eta$  = dynamic viscosity in Pa s

This procedure detects smallest leaks with a high sensitivity. The sensitivity of the device illustrated in figure 7 is about 1V for a flow of 1ml/s under normal pressure. For wider leakage measurement ranges more parallel capillaries are recommended. An extremely high sensitivity is given by a coil of copper capillary. Leakage measurements according to the pressure increase procedure detect the pressure change behind

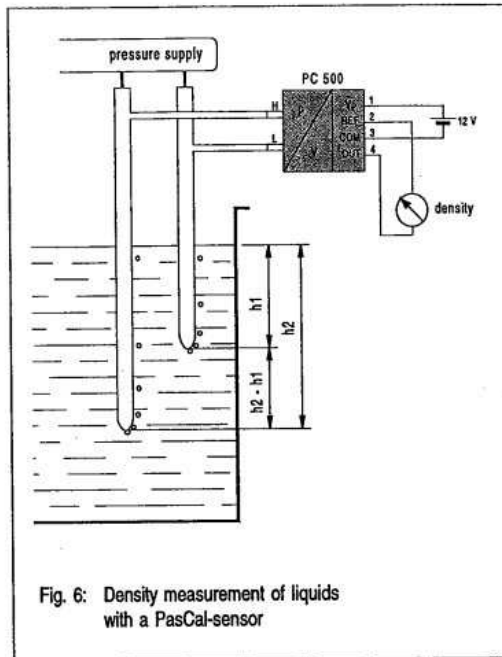


Fig. 6: Density measurement of liquids with a PasCal-sensor

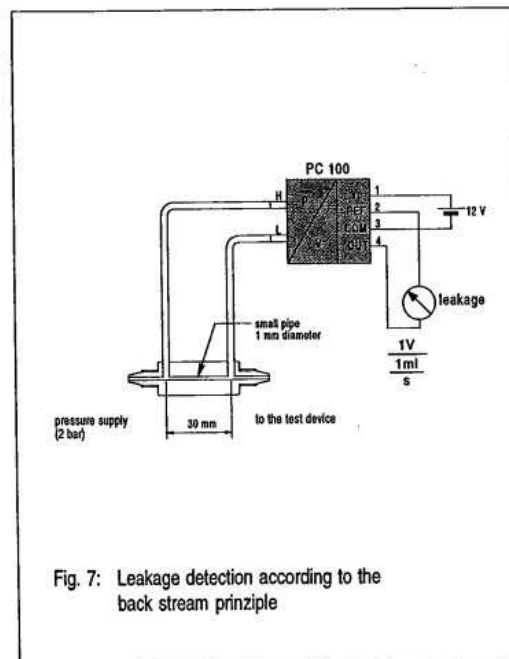


Fig. 7: Leakage detection according to the back stream principle

the tested device in a certain period of time during a high testing pressure. On the one hand, PasCal-sensors detect a leakage very fast, because of their high density. On the other hand, they won't be destroyed even if there is a large-sized leakage.

# PC 100/500/1000/2000 E-Series

## High precision pressure switch

Pressure switches are often used for filter monitoring in clean rooms. If extraordinarily high setting accuracy and switching precision are required, figure 8 illustrates a suitable wiring plan. The relay switches on if the differential pressure in front of and behind a filter or between two clean rooms exceeds a certain pressure value  $P_1$ .

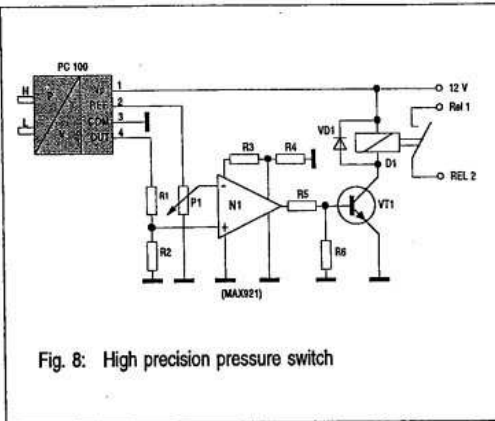
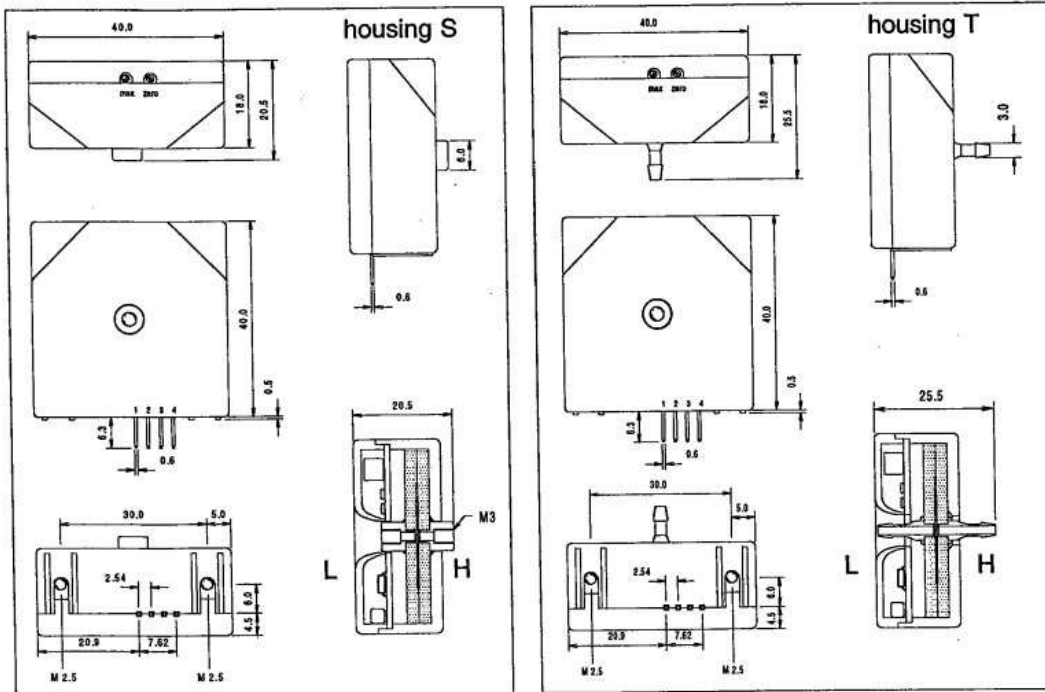


Fig. 8: High precision pressure switch



Specification code: PC 1 2 3 4 5

PC: PasCal Series

1: Value of the range (Pa)

2: housing

3: Kind of measurement

4: Class

5: Pressure connection

S = Small

D = Differential pressure

E = Economic

T = Tube connector

L = Large

A = Absolute pressure

S = Standard

F = Female thread

C = Ceramic

H = High Performance

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