

LECTURENOTESON
AUTOMOBILEELECTRICITY



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AutomobileElectricalSystem

- Electricalsystemisthemostvitalsystemofautomobile.
- It hastwomainfunction. Thereare
 - It must besupplyelectricalenergytostartandoperatetheengine.
 - It must beprovidethepowertooperatelightinstrumentandotherelectricalaccessories.
- TheelectricalsystemofAutomobilemainlyconsistoffourmaincircuitandanumberofbranchcircuits.
 - Generatingcircuit
 - Startingcircuit
 - Ignitioncircuit
 - Lightningcircuit
- Branchcircuitsaretherefor radio,wiperandlight.
- Different color code are given to various circuits for quick recognition when repair isnecessary.

CHAPTER–1

Storage Battery

Purpose

The storage battery is the heart of the charging circuit. It is an electrochemical device for producing and storing electricity. A vehicle battery has several important functions:

- It must operate the starting motor, ignition system, electronic fuel injection system, and other electrical devices for the engine during engine cranking and starting.
- It must supply all of the electrical power for the vehicle when the engine is not running.
- It must help the charging system provide electricity when current demands are above the output limit of the charging system.
- It must act as a capacitor (voltage stabilizer) that smooths the current flow through the electrical system.
- It must store energy (electricity) for extended periods.

Types Of Battery

- Lead-Acid Battery
- Alkaline Batteries (Nickel– Cadmium Battery Or, Nickel– Iron Battery)
- Aluminium–Air Battery Or, Zinc–Air Battery
- Nickel–Metal Hydride Battery
- Sodium Sulphur Battery

The type of battery used in automotive, construction, and weight-handling equipment is a lead-acid cell-type battery. This type of battery produces direct current (DC) electricity that flows in only one direction. When the battery is discharging, it changes chemical energy into electrical energy, thereby, releasing stored energy. During charging (current flowing into the battery from

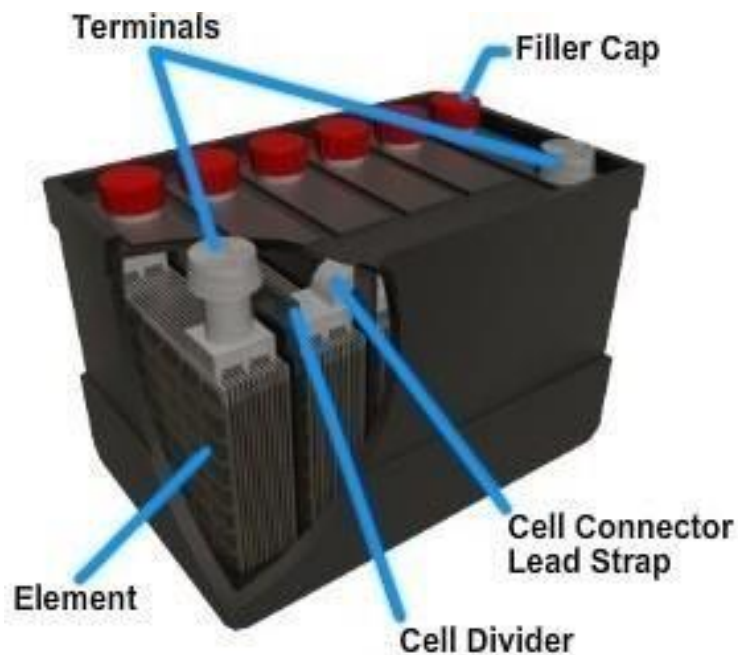
the charging system), electrical energy is converted into chemical energy. The battery can then store energy until the vehicle requires it.

Battery Construction

Lead-Acid Battery

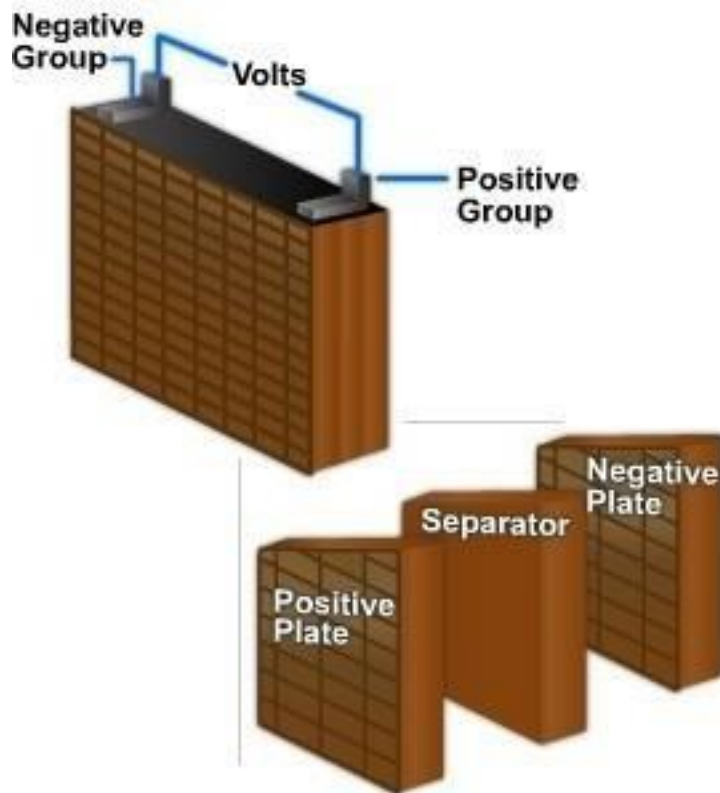
The lead-acid cell-type storage battery is built to withstand severe vibration, cold weather, engine heat, corrosive chemicals, high current discharge, and prolonged periods without use. To test and service batteries properly, you must understand battery construction. The construction of a basic lead-acid cell-type battery is as follows:

- Battery element
- Battery case, cover, and caps
- Battery terminals
- Electrolyte



The battery element is made up of negative plates, positive plates, separators, and straps. The element fits into a cell compartment in the battery case. Most automotive batteries have six elements.

Each cell compartment contains two kinds of chemically active lead plates, known as positive and negative plates. The battery plates are made of a stiff mesh framework coated with porous lead. These plates are insulated from each other by suitable separators and are submerged in a sulfuric acid solution (electrolyte).



Charged negative plates contain spongy (porous) lead (Pb), which is gray in color. Charged positive plates contain lead peroxide (PbO_2), which has a chocolate brown color. These substances are known as the active materials of the plates. Calcium or antimony is normally added to the lead to increase battery performance and to decrease gassing. Since the lead on the plates is porous like a sponge, the battery acid easily penetrates into the material. This aids the chemical reaction and the production of electricity.

Lead battery straps or connectors run along the upper portion of the case to connect the plates. The battery terminals (post or side terminals) are constructed as part of one end of each strap.

To prevent the plates from touching each other and causing a short circuit, sheets of insulating material (micro-porous rubber, fibrous glass, or plastic impregnated material), called separators, are inserted between the plates. These separators are thin and porous so the electrolyte will flow easily between the plates. The side of the separator that is placed against the positive plate is grooved so the gas that forms during charging will rise to the surface more readily. These grooves also provide room for any material that flakes from the plates to drop to the sediment space below.

The battery case is made of hard rubber or a high-quality plastic. The case must withstand extreme vibration, temperature change, and the corrosive action of the electrolyte. The dividers in the case form individual containers for each element. A container with its element is one cell.

Stiff ridges or ribs are molded in the bottom of the case to form a support for the plates and a sediment recess for the flakes of active material that drop off the plates during the life of the battery. The sediment is thus kept clear of the plates so it will not cause a short circuit across them.

The battery cover is made of the same material as the container and is bonded to and seals the container. The cover provides openings for the two battery posts and a cap for each cell.

Battery caps either screw or snap into the openings in the battery cover. The battery caps (vent plugs) allow gas to escape and prevent the electrolyte from splashing outside the battery. They also serve as spark arresters. The battery is filled through the vent plug openings. Maintenance-free batteries have a large cover that is not removed during normal service.

Hydrogen gas can collect at the top of a battery. If this gas is exposed to a flame or spark, it can explode.

Battery terminals provide a means of connecting the battery plates to the electrical system of the vehicle. Either two round post or two side terminals can be used.

Battery terminals are round metal posts extending through the top of the battery cover. They serve as connections for battery cable ends. The positive post will be larger than the negative post. It may be marked with red paint and a positive (+) symbol. The negative post is smaller, may be marked with black or green paint, and has a negative (-) symbol on or near it.

Side terminals are electrical connections located on the side of the battery. They have internal threads that accept a special bolt on the battery cable end. Side terminal polarity is identified by positive and negative symbols marked on the case.

The electrolyte solution in a fully charged battery is a solution of concentrated sulfuric acid in water. This solution is about 60 percent water and about 40 percent sulfuric acid.

The electrolyte in the lead-acid storage battery has a specific gravity of 1.28, which means that it is 1.28 times as heavy as water. The amount of sulfuric acid in the electrolyte changes with the amount of electrical charge; the specific gravity of the electrolyte also changes with the amount of electrical charge. A fully charged battery will have a specific gravity of 1.28 at 80°F. The figure will go higher with a temperature decrease, and lower with a temperature increase.

As a storage battery discharges, the sulfuric acid is depleted and the electrolyte is gradually converted into water. This action provides a guide in determining the state of discharge of the lead-acid cell. The electrolyte that is placed in a lead-acid battery has a specific gravity of 1.280.

The specific gravity of an electrolyte is actually the measure of its density. The electrolyte becomes less dense as its temperature rises, and a low temperature means a high specific gravity. The hydrometer that you use is marked to read specific gravity at 80°F only. Under normal conditions, the temperature of your electrolyte will not vary much from this mark. However, large changes in temperature require a correction in your reading.

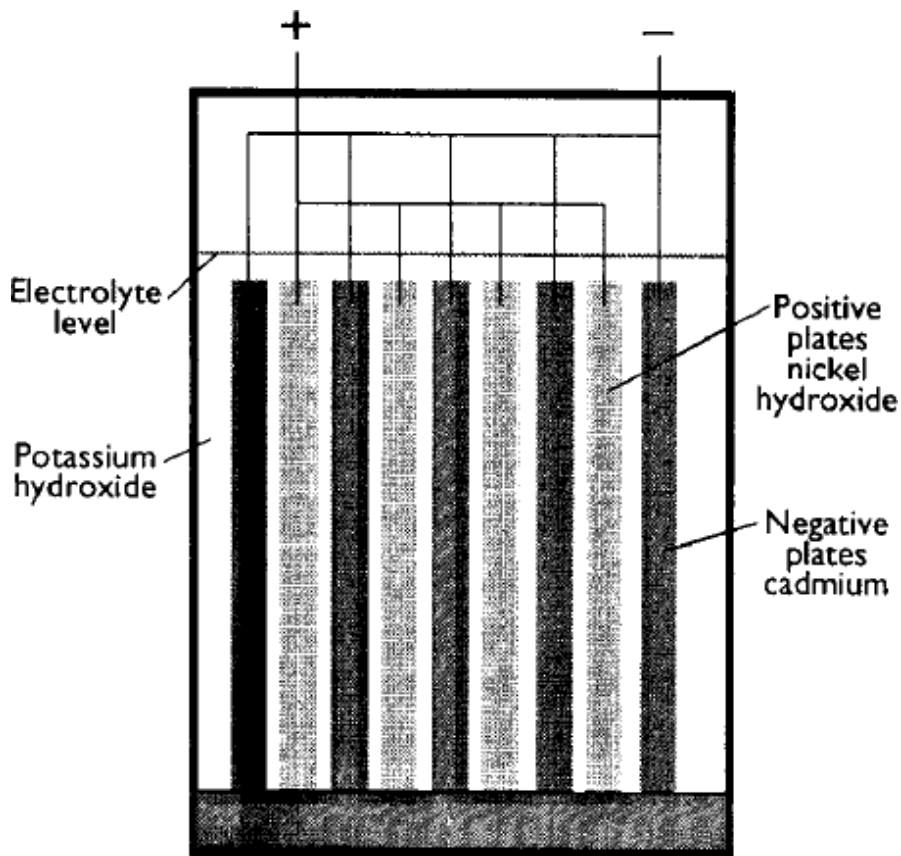
For every 10-degree change in temperature ABOVE 80°F, you must add 0.004 to your specific gravity reading. For every 10-degree change in temperature below 80°F, you must subtract 0.004 from your specific gravity reading. Suppose you have just taken the gravity reading of a cell. The hydrometer reads 1.280. A thermometer in the cell indicates an electrolyte temperature of 60°F. That is a normal difference of 20 degrees from the normal of 80°F. To get the true gravity reading, you must subtract 0.008 from 1.280. Thus the specific gravity of the cell is actually

1.272.Ahydrometerconversionchartisusuallyfoundonthehydrometer.Fromit,youcanobtainthe specificgravitycorrectionfortemperaturechangesaboveorbelow80°F.

AlkalineBatteries(Nickel–CadmiumBattery)

Lead-acid batteries traditionally required a considerable amount of servicing to keep them ingood condition, although this is not now the case with the advent of sealed and maintenance-freebatteries.

However, when a battery is required to withstand a high rate of charge and discharge on a regularbasis, or is left in a state of disuse for long periods, the lead-acid cell is not ideal. Alkaline cellson the other hand require minimum maintenance and are far better able to withstand electricalabusesuchas heavydischargeandover-charging.



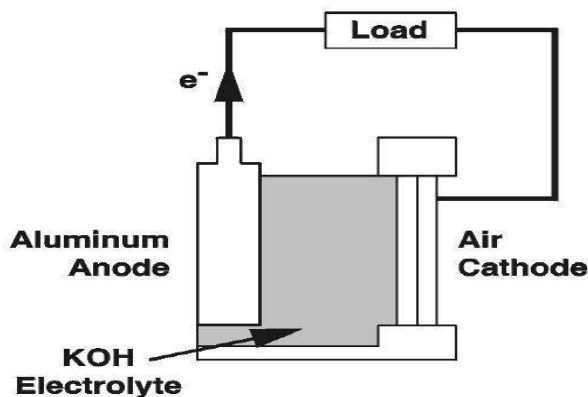
The disadvantages of alkaline batteries are that they are more bulky, have lower energy efficiency and are more expensive than a lead-acid equivalent. When the lifetime of the battery and servicing requirements are considered, the extra initial cost is worth it for some applications. Bus and coach companies and some large goods-vehicle operators have used alkaline batteries.

Alkaline batteries used for vehicle applications are generally the nickel-cadmium type, as the other main variety (nickel-iron) is less suited to vehicle use. The main components of the nickel-cadmium—or Nicad—cell for vehicle use are as follows:

- Positive plate—nickel hydrate (Ni(OH)_2);
- Negative plate—cadmium (Cd);
- Electrolyte—potassium hydroxide (KOH) and water (H_2O).

Aluminium–Air Battery

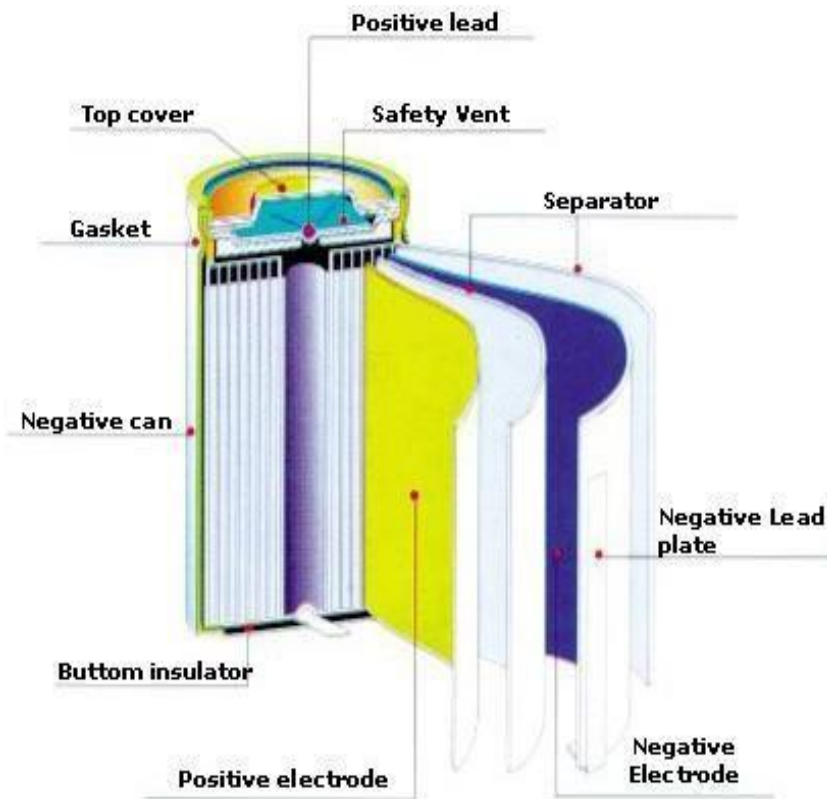
Aluminium–air batteries or Al–air batteries produce electricity from the reaction of oxygen in the air with aluminium. They have one of the highest energy densities of all batteries, but they are not widely used because of problems with high anode cost and byproduct removal when using traditional electrolytes and this has restricted their use to mainly military applications. However, an electric vehicle with aluminium batteries has the potential for up to eight times the range of a lithium-ion battery with a significantly lower total weight.



Aluminium–air batteries are primary cells; i.e., non-rechargeable. Once the aluminium anode is consumed by its reaction with atmospheric oxygen at a cathode immersed in a water-based electrolyte to form hydrated aluminium oxide, the battery will no longer produce electricity. However, it is possible to mechanically recharge the battery with new aluminium anodes made from recycling the hydrated aluminium oxide. Such recycling would be essential if aluminium–air batteries are to be widely adopted.

Nickel–MetalHydrideBattery

A nickel–metal hydride battery, abbreviated NiMH or Ni–MH, is a type of rechargeable battery. Its chemical reactions are somewhat similar to the largely obsolete nickel–cadmium cell (NiCd). NiMH use positive electrodes of nickel oxyhydroxide (NiOOH), like the NiCd, but the negative electrodes use a hydrogen-absorbing alloy instead of cadmium, being in essence a practical application of nickel–hydrogen battery chemistry. A NiMH battery can have two to three times the capacity of an equivalent size NiCd, and their energy density approaches that of a lithium-ion cell.



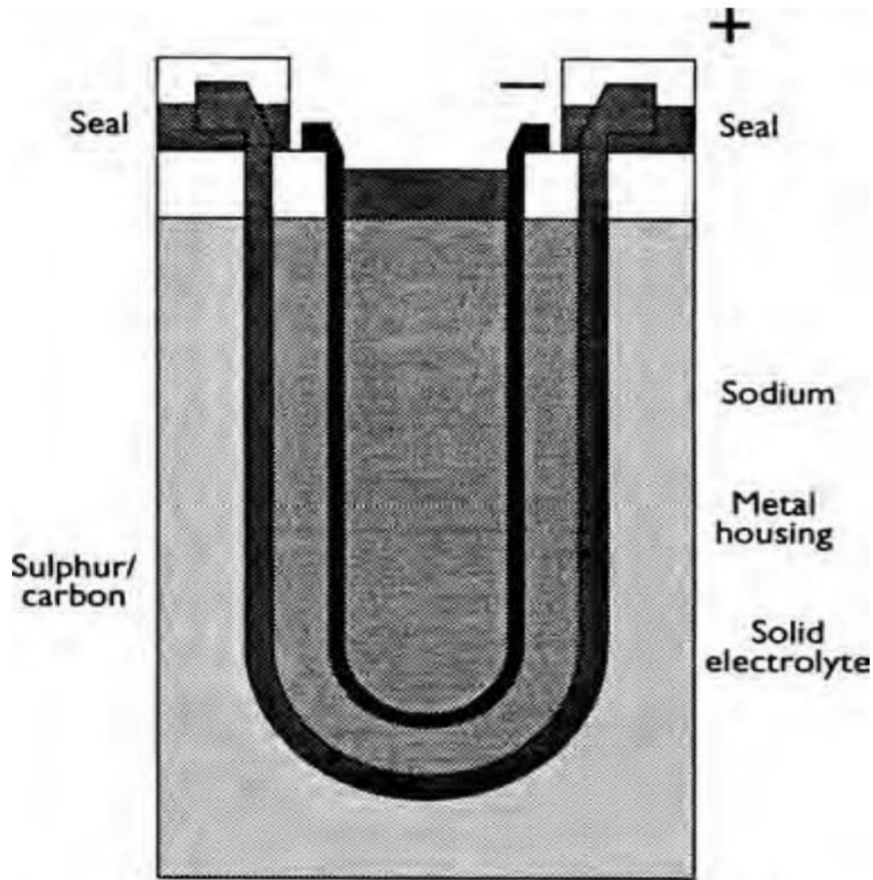
The typical specific energy for small NiMH cells is about 100 W·h/kg, and for larger NiMH cells about 75 W·h/kg (270 kJ/kg). This is significantly better than the typical 40–60 W·h/kg for NiCd, and similar to the 100–160 W·h/kg for lithium-ion batteries. NiMH has a volumetric energy density of about 300 W·h/L (1,080 MJ/m³), significantly better than NiCd at 50–150 W·h/L, and about the same as lithium-ion at 250–360 W·h/L.

NiMH batteries have replaced NiCd for many roles, notably small rechargeable batteries. NiMH batteries are very common for AA (penlight-size) batteries, which have nominal charge capacities (C) of 1.1–2.8 A·h at 1.2 V, measured at the rate that discharges the cell in five hours. Useful discharge capacity is a decreasing function of the discharge rate, but up to a rate of around $1 \times C$ (full discharge in one hour), it does not differ significantly from the nominal capacity. NiMH batteries normally operate at 1.2 V per cell, somewhat lower than conventional V cells, but will operate most devices designed for that voltage.

Sodium Sulphur Battery

Much research is underway to improve on current battery technology in order to provide a greater energy density for electric vehicles. A potential major step forwards however the sodium sulphur battery, which has now reached production stage. Sodium-sulphur batteries have recently reached the production stage and, in common with the other types listed, have much potential; however, all types have specific drawbacks. For example, storing and carrying hydrogen is one problem of fuel cells.

The sodium-sulphur or NaS battery consists of a cathode of liquid sodium into which is placed a current collector. This is a solid electrode of β -alumina. A metal can that is in contact with the anode (a sulphur electrode) surrounds the whole assembly. The major problem with this system is that the running temperature needs to be 300–350 °C. A heater rated at a few hundred watts forms part of the charging circuit. This maintains the battery temperature when the vehicle is not running. Battery temperature is maintained when in use due to I^2R losses in the battery.



Each cell of this battery is very small, using only about 15 g of sodium. This is a safety feature because, if the cell is damaged, the sulphur on the outside will cause the potentially dangerous sodium to be converted into polysulphides – which are comparatively harmless. Small cells also have the advantage that they can be distributed around the car. The capacity of each cell is about 10 Ah. These cells fail in an open circuit condition and hence this must be taken into account, as the whole string of cells used to create the required voltage would be rendered inoperative. The output voltage of each cell is about 2V. A problem still to be overcome is the casing material, which is prone to fail due to the very corrosive nature of the sodium. At present, an expensive chromized coating is used.

This type of battery, supplying an electric motor, is becoming a competitor to the internal combustion engine. The whole service and charging infrastructure needs to develop but looks promising. It is estimated that the cost of running an electric vehicle will be as little as 15% of the petrol version, which leaves room to absorb the extra cost of production.

BatteryCapacity

The capacity of a battery is measured in ampere hours. The ampere-hour capacity is equal to the product of the current in amperes and the time in hours during which the battery is supplying current. The ampere-hour capacity varies inversely with the discharge current. The size of a cell is determined generally by its ampere-hour capacity. The capacity of a cell depends upon many factors, the most important of which are as follows:

- Area of the plates in contact with the electrolyte
- Quantity and specific gravity of the electrolyte
- Type of separators
- General condition of the battery (degree of sulfating, plates buckled, separators warped, sediment in bottom of cells, etc.)
- Final limiting voltage

BatteryRatings

Battery ratings were developed by the Society of Automotive Engineers (SAE) and the Battery Council International (BCI). They are set according to national test standards for battery performance. They let the mechanic compare the cranking power of one battery to another. The two methods of rating lead-acid storage batteries are the cold-cranking rating and the reserve capacity rating.

The cold cranking rating determines how much current in amperes the battery can deliver for thirty seconds at 0°F while maintaining terminal voltage of 7.2 volts or 1.2 volts per cell. This rating indicates the ability of the battery to crank a specific engine (based on starter current draw) at a specified temperature.

For example, one manufacturer recommends a battery with 305 cold-cranking amps for a small four-cylinder engine but a 450 cold-cranking amp battery for a larger V-8 engine. A more powerful battery is needed to handle the heavier starter current draw of the larger engine.

The reserve capacity rating is the time needed to lower battery terminal voltage below 10.2 V (1.7 V per cell) at a discharge rate of 25 amps. This is with the battery fully charged and at 80°F. Reserve capacity will appear on the battery as a time interval in minutes.

For example, if a battery is rated at 90 minutes and the charging system fails, the operator has approximately 90 minutes (1 1/2 hours) of driving time under minimum electrical load before the battery goes completely dead.

Charging Of Battery

Under normal conditions, a hydrometer reading below 1.265 specific gravity at 80°F is a warning signal that the battery needs charging or is defective.

When testing shows that a battery requires charging, a battery charger is required to re-energize it. The battery charger will restore the charge on the plates by forcing current back into the battery. The battery charger uses AC (Alternating Current) current from a wall outlet, usually 120 volts, and steps it down to a voltage slightly above that of a battery, usually 14-15 volts. There are basically two types of chargers, the slow charger and the fast (quick) charger.

The slow charger is also known as the trickle charger. It feeds a small amount current back into the battery over a long period of time. When using a trickle charger, it takes about 12 hours at 10 amps to fully charge a dead battery. However, the chemical action inside the battery is improved. During a slow charge, the active materials are put back onto the battery plates stronger than they are during a fast charge. It is always better for the battery to use a trickle charge when time allows.

The fast charger, or quick charger and sometimes called the boost charger, forces a high amount of current flow back into the battery. A fast charger is commonly used in shops to start an engine or get the vehicle out of the shop quickly because there is no time to wait for a slow charge. Fast charging is beneficial if you just need to start the engine; if time allows, use the slow charge.

When using a fast charger, do not exceed a charge rate in excess of 35 amps. Also, ensure the battery temperature does not exceed 125°F. Exceeding either one could cause damage to the battery.

If there is a possibility that the battery is frozen, do not charge the battery. Charging a frozen circuit can rupture the battery case and cause an explosion. Always allow the battery time to thaw before recharging it.

Charging Method	Notes
Constant voltage	Will recharge any battery in 7 hours or less without any risk of overcharging (14.4V maximum).
Constant current	Ideal charge rate can be estimated as: 1/10 of Ah capacity, 1/16 of reserve capacity or 1/40 of cold start current (charge time of 10–12 hours or prorata original state).
Boost charging	At no more than five times the ideal rate, a battery can be brought up to about 70% of charge in about one hour.

It is easy to connect the battery to the charger, turn the charging current on, and, after a normal charging period, turn the charging current off and remove the battery. Certain precautions, however, are necessary both before and during the charging period. These practices are as follows:

- Clean and inspect the battery thoroughly before placing it on charge. Use a solution of baking soda and water for cleaning, and inspect it for cracks or breaks in the container. Do not permit the baking soda and water solution to enter the cells. To do so would neutralize the acid within the electrolyte.
- Connect the battery to the charger. Be sure the battery terminals are connected properly; connect the positive post to the positive (+) terminal and the negative post to the negative (-) terminal. The positive terminal of both battery and charger are marked; those unmarked are negative. The positive post of the battery is, in most cases, slightly larger than the negative post. Ensure all connections are tight.
- See that the vent holes are clear and open. Do NOT remove battery caps during charging. This prevents acid from spraying onto the top of the battery and keeps dirt out of the cells.

- Check the electrolyte level before charging begins and during charging. Add distilled water if the level of electrolyte is below the top of the plate.
- Keep the charging room well ventilated. Do NOT smoke near batteries being charged. Batteries on charge release hydrogen gas. A small spark may cause an explosion.
- Take frequent hydrometer readings of each cell and record them. You can expect the specific gravity to rise during the charge. If it does not rise, remove the battery and dispose of it as per local hazardous material disposal instruction.
- Keep close watch for excessive gassing, especially at the very beginning of the charge, when using the constant voltage method. Reduce the charging current if excessive gassing occurs. Some gassing is normal and aids in remixing the electrolyte.
- Do not remove a battery until it has been completely charged.

Battery Testing

As a mechanic you will be expected to test batteries

for proper operation and condition. These tests are as follows:

A battery leakage test will determine if current is discharging across the top of the battery. A dirty battery can discharge when not in use. This condition shortens battery life and causes starting problems. To perform a battery leakage test, set a voltmeter on a low setting. Touch the probes on the battery. If any current is registered on the voltmeter, the top of the battery needs to be cleaned.

The battery terminal test quickly checks for poor electrical connection between the terminals and the battery cables. A voltmeter is used to measure voltage drop across terminals and cables.

To perform a battery terminal test, connect the negative voltmeter lead to the battery cable end. Touch the positive lead to the battery terminal. With the ignition or injection system disabled so that the engine will not start, crank the engine while watching the voltmeter reading.

If the voltmeter reading is .5 volts or above, there is high resistance at the battery cable connection. This indicates that the battery connections need to be cleaned. A good, clean battery will have less than a .5 volt drop.

The battery voltage test is done by measuring total battery voltage with an accurate voltmeter or a special battery tester. This test determines the general state of charge and battery condition quickly.

The battery voltage test is used on maintenance-free batteries because these batteries do not have caps that can be removed for testing with a hydrometer. To perform this test, connect the voltmeter or battery tester across the battery terminals. Turn on the vehicle headlights or heater blower to provide a light load. Now read the meter or tester. A well-charged battery should have over 12 volts. If the meter reads approximately 11.5 volts, the battery is not charged adequately, or it may be defective.

The cell voltage test will let you know if the battery is discharged or defective. Like a hydrometer cell test, if the voltage reading on one or more cells is .2 volts or more lower than the other cells, the battery must be replaced.

To perform a cell voltage test, use a low voltage reading voltmeter with special cadmium (acid-resistant metal) tips. Insert the tips into each cell, starting at one end of the battery and working your way to the other. Test each cell carefully. If the cells are low but equal, recharging usually will restore the battery. If cell voltage readings vary more than .2 volts, the battery is BAD.

A battery drain test checks for abnormal current draw with the ignition off. If a battery goes dead without being used, you need to check for a current drain.

To perform a battery drain test, set up an ammeter. Pull the fuse if the vehicle has a dash clock. Close all doors and the trunk (if applicable). Then read the ammeter. If everything is off, there should be a zero reading. Any reading indicates a problem. To help pinpoint the problem, pull

fuses one at a time until there is a zero reading on the ammeter. This action isolates the circuit that has the problem.

A battery load test, also termed a battery capacity test, is the best method to check battery condition. The battery load test measures the current output and performance of the battery under full current load. It is one of the most common and informative battery tests used today.

Before load testing a battery, you must calculate how much current draw should be applied to the battery. If the ampere-hour rating of the battery is given, load the battery to three times its amp-hour rating. For example, if the battery is rated at 60 amp hours, test the battery at 180 amps ($60 \times 3 = 180$). The majority of the batteries are now rated in SAE cold cranking amps, instead of amp-hours. To determine the load test for these batteries, divide the cold-crank rating by two. For example, a battery with 400 cold cranking amp ratings should be loaded to 200 amps ($400 \div 2 = 200$). Connect the battery load tester. Turn the control knob until the ammeter reads the correct load for your battery.

After checking the battery charge and finding the amp load value, you are ready to test battery output. Make sure that the tester is connected properly. Turn the load control knob until the ammeter reads the correct load for your battery. Hold the load for 15 seconds. Next, read the voltmeter while the load is applied. Then turn the load control completely off so the battery will not be discharged. If the voltmeter reads 9.5 volts or more at room temperature, the battery is good. If the battery reads below 9.5 volts at room temperature, battery performance is poor. This condition indicates that the battery is not producing enough current to run the starting motor properly.

Familiarize yourself with proper operating procedures for the type of tester you have available. Improper operation of electrical test equipment may result in serious damage to the test equipment or the unit being tested.

The quick charge test, also known as 3-minute charge test, determines if the battery is sulfated. If the results of the battery load test are poor, fast charge the battery. Charge the battery for 3

minutes at 30 to 40 amps. Test the voltage while charging. If the voltage goes ABOVE 15.5 volts, the battery plates are sulfated and the battery needs to be replaced.

Battery Servicing

Placing New Batteries in Service

New batteries may come to you full of electrolyte and fully charged. In this case, all that is necessary is to install the batteries properly in the piece of equipment. Most batteries shipped to NCF units are received charged and dry.

Charged and dry batteries will retain their state of full charge indefinitely so long as moisture is not allowed to enter the cells. Therefore, batteries should be stored in a dry place. Moisture and air entering the cells will allow the negative plates to oxidize. The oxidation causes the battery to lose its charge.

To activate a dry battery, remove the restrictors from the vents and remove the vent caps. Then fill all the cells to the proper level with electrolyte. The best results are obtained when the temperature of the battery and electrolyte is within the range of 60°F to 80°F.

Some gassing will occur while you are filling the battery due to the release of carbon dioxide that is a product of the drying process of the hydrogen sulfide produced by the presence of free sulfur. Therefore, the filling operations should be in a well-ventilated area. These gases and odors are normal and are no cause for alarm.

Approximately 5 minutes after adding electrolyte, check the battery for voltage and electrolyte strength. More than 6 volts or more than 12 volts, depending upon the rated voltage of the battery, indicates the battery is ready for service. From 5 to 6 volts or from 10 to 12 volts indicates oxidized negative plates, and the battery should be charged before use. Less than 5 or less than 10 volts, depending upon the rated voltage, indicates a bad battery, which should not be placed in service.

If, before the battery is placed in service, the specific gravity, when corrected to 80°F, is more than .030 points lower than it was at the time of initial filling or if one or more cells gas violently

after adding the electrolyte, the battery should be fully charged before use. If the electrolyte reading fails to rise during charging, discard the battery.

Most shops receive ready-mixed electrolyte. Some units may still get concentrated sulfuric acid that must be mixed with distilled water to get the proper specific gravity for electrolyte.

Mixing electrolyte is a dangerous job. You have probably seen holes appear in a uniform for no apparent reason. Later you remembered replacing a storage battery and having carelessly brushed against the battery.

When mixing electrolyte, you are handling pure sulfuric acid, which can burn clothing quickly and severely burn your hands and face. Always wear rubber gloves, an apron, goggles, and a face shield for protection against splashes or accidental spilling.

When you are mixing electrolyte, NEVER pour water into the acid. Always pour acid into water. If water is added to concentrated sulfuric acid, the mixture may explode or splatter and cause severe burns. Pour the acid into the water slowly, stirring gently but thoroughly all the time. Large quantities of acid may require hours of safe dilution.

Let the mixed electrolyte cool down to room temperature before adding it to the battery cells. Hot electrolyte will eat up the cell plates rapidly. To be on the safe side, do not add the electrolyte if its temperature is above 90°F. After filling the battery cells, let the electrolyte cool again because more heat is generated by its contact with the battery plates. Next, take hydrometer readings. The specific gravity of the electrolyte will correspond quite closely to the values on the mixing chart if the parts of water and acid are mixed correctly.

Maintenance Of Battery

If a battery is not properly maintained, its service life will be drastically reduced. Battery maintenance should be done during every vehicle servicing. Complete battery maintenance includes the following:

Visually checking the battery. Battery maintenance should always begin with a thorough visual inspection. Look for signs of corrosion on or around the battery, signs of leakage, a cracked case or top, missing caps, and loose or missing hold-down clamps.

Checking the electrolyte level in cells on batteries with caps, and adding water if the electrolyte level is low. On vent cap batteries, you can check the electrolyte level by removing the caps. Some batteries have a fill ring which indicates the electrolyte level. The electrolyte should be even with the fill ring. If there is no fill ring, the electrolyte should be high enough to cover the tops of the plates. Some batteries have an electrolyte-level indicator (Delco Eye). This gives a color code visual indication of the electrolyte level, with black indicating that the level is okay and white meaning a low level.

If the electrolyte level in the battery is low, fill the cells to the correct level with distilled water (purified water). Distilled water should be used because it does not contain the impurities found in tap water. Tap water contains many chemicals that reduce battery life. The chemicals contaminate the electrolyte and collect in the bottom of the battery case. If enough contaminates collect in the bottom of the case, the cell plates short out, ruining the battery.

If water must be added at frequent intervals, the charging system may be overcharging the battery. A faulty charging system can force excessive current into the battery. Battery gassing can then remove water from the battery.

Maintenance-free batteries do NOT need periodic electrolyte service under normal conditions. They are designed to operate for long periods without loss of electrolyte.

Cleaning off corrosion around the battery and battery terminals. If the top of the battery is dirty, using a stiff bristle brush, wash it down with a mixture of baking soda and water. This action will neutralize and remove the acid-dirt mixture. Be careful not to allow cleaning solution to enter the battery.

Do NOT use a scraper or knife to clean battery terminals. This action removes too much metal and can ruin the terminal connection.

To clean the terminals, remove the cables and inspect the terminal posts to see if they are deformed or broken. Clean the terminal posts and the inside surfaces of the cable clamps with a cleaning tool before replacing them on the terminal posts.

When reinstalling the cables, tighten the terminals just enough to secure the connection, over-tightening will strip the cable bolt threads. Coat the terminals with petroleum or white grease. This will keep acid fumes off the connections and keep them from corroding again.

Checking the condition of the battery by testing their state of charge. When measuring battery charge, you check the condition of the electrolyte and the battery plates. As a battery becomes discharged, its electrolyte has a larger percentage of water. Thus the electrolyte of a discharged battery will have a lower specific gravity number than a fully charged battery. This rise and drop in specific gravity can be used to check the charge in a battery. There are several ways to check the state of charge of a battery.

Non maintenance-free batteries can have the state of charge checked with a hydrometer. The hydrometer tests specific gravity of the electrolyte. It is fast and simple to use.

A fully charged battery should have a hydrometer reading of at least 1.265 or higher. If below 1.265, the battery needs to be recharged, or it may be defective.

A defective battery can be discovered by using a hydrometer to check each cell. If the specific gravity in any cell varies excessively from other cells (25 to 50 points), the battery is bad. Cells with low readings may be shorted. When all of the cells have equal specific gravity, even if they are low, the battery can usually be recharged. On maintenance-free batteries a charge indicator eye shows the battery charge. The charge indicator changes color with levels of battery charge. For example, the indicator may be green with the battery fully charged. It may turn black when discharged or yellow when the battery needs to be replaced. If there is no charge indicator eye or when in doubt of its reliability, you can use a volt meter and an ammeter or a load tester to determine battery condition quickly.

CHAPTER–2

StartingSystem

The starting system of an automobile is used to start the internal combustion engine. Both SI and CI engines cannot start by itself. These engines need to be cranked by a starting motor. This motor is also called a starter or cranking motor. Cranking of any engine means rotating its crankshaft. Rotation of crank shaft causes the piston to reciprocate. When piston reciprocates, suction, compression, expansion and exhaust strokes of engine are completed. Thus, engine completes its working cycle and it starts running.

Starting motor produces necessary torque to rotate the engine wheel (crank shaft) through a suitable gear (one pinion on motor and other ring gear around engine wheel).

ComponentsofStartingSystem

Starting system consists of the following:

- Starting Motor: Starting motor to produce rotation of crankshaft.
- Drive Mechanism: Drive mechanism to transfer rotary motion of starter to the crankshaft of the engine.
- The ignition switch to start motor.

StarterMotor

The starting motor converts electrical energy from the battery into mechanical or rotating energy to crank the engine. The main difference between an electric starting motor and an electric generator is that in a generator, rotation of the armature in a magnetic field produces voltage. In a motor, current is sent through the armature and the field; the attraction and repulsion between the magnetic poles of the field and armature coil alternately push and pull the armature around. This rotation (mechanical energy), when properly connected to the flywheel of an engine, causes the engine crankshaft to turn.

It is also known as starting motor or cranking motor. It is used to start heavy engines which cannot be started by hand cranking.

FunctionOfStarter

IC engines are required to be rotated at some minimum speed after which the engines startsrunning by fuel supply. This initial rotation is given by the starting motor and this is the functionofastarter.

WorkingPrinciple

A motor converts electrical energy into mechanical energy. Mechanical energy is obtained in theformofrotationofa wheel.ThisrotationofawheelisusedtostarttheICEngine.

The motor works on the principle that “when a current carrying conductor is put in a magneticfield, it experiences a mechanical force”. The direction of force is determined by the Flemming’slefthandrul.

Flemming’sLeftHandRule

If we stretch the thumb, forefinger and middle finger such that they are mutually perpendicular,thenaccordingtothis rule:

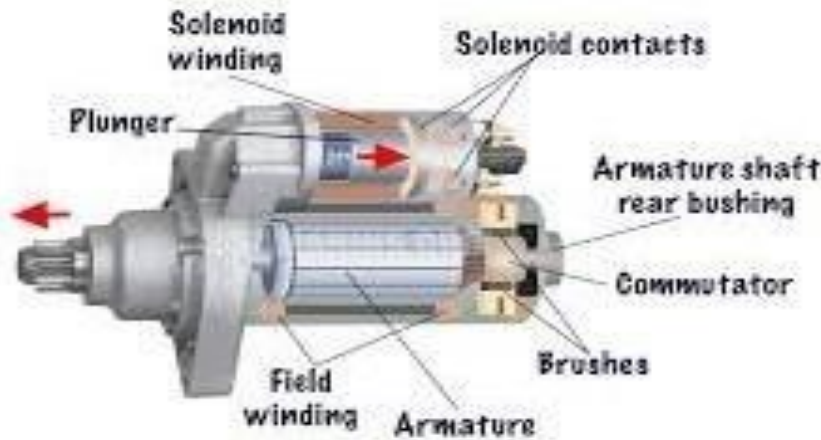
“If the first finger points in the direction of magnetic field and the second (middle) finger in thedirection of current then the thumb will give the direction of force acting on conductor or thedirectionofitsmotion”.

WorkingOfStarter

When the starter switch is put on position, the current from battery flows to starting motor, themotor starts rotating. The motor is connected to the drive unit, which is used to rotate the enginecrank shaft. A small pinion (small gear) is fitted on the armature shaft of the starting motor. Thispinion meshes with the ring gear when starter rotates. Thus, the fly wheel which is attached to ring gear also starts revolving. Thus, engine crank shaft starts revolving. With the revolution ofcrank shaft, the engine strokes viz. suction, compression, power and exhaust are completed.Therefore, engine starts running. The starter is engaged to the engine ring gear (attached to flywheel) till the engine starts running. As soon as engine starts running, the starter is disengaged.The startingmotorisalow voltage DCserieswoundedmotor.

ConstructionOfStarterMotor

Theconstructionofallstartingmotorsisverysimilar.Thereare,however,slightdesignvariations.Thema inpartsofa startingmotorareasfollows:



The armature assembly consists of an armature shaft, armature core, commutator, and armature windings.

The armature shaft supports the armature assembly as it spins inside the starter housing. The armature core is made of iron and holds the armature windings in place. The iron increases the magnetic field strength of the windings.

The commutator serves as a sliding electrical connection between the motor windings and the brushes and is mounted on one end of the armature shaft. The commutator has many segments that are insulated from each other. As the windings rotate away from the pole shoe (piece), the commutator segments change the electrical connection between the brushes and the windings. This action reverses the magnetic field around the windings. The constant changing electrical connection at the windings keeps the motor spinning.

The commutator end frame houses the brushes, the brush springs, and the armature shaft bushing.

The brushes ride on top of the commutator. They slide on the commutator to carry battery current to the spinning windings. The springs force the brushes to maintain contact with the commutator as it spins, thereby no power interruptions occurs. The armature shaft bushing supports the commutator end of the armature shaft.

The pinion drive assembly includes the pinion gear, the pinion drive mechanism, and solenoid. There are two ways that a starting motor can engage the pinion assembly: first with a movable pole shoe that engages the pinion gear, and second with a solenoid and shift fork that engages the pinion gear.

The pinion gear is a small gear on the armature shaft that engages the ring gear on the flywheel. Most starter pinion gears are made as part of a pinion drive mechanism. The pinion drive mechanism slides over one end of the starter armature shaft. The pinion drive mechanism found on starting motors that you will encounter is of three designs: the Bendix drive, the overrunning clutch, and the yoke drive.

The field frame is the center housing that holds the field coils and pole shoes. It is a stationary set of windings that creates a strong magnetic field around the motor armature. When current flows through the winding, the magnetic field between the pole shoes becomes very large. Acting against the magnetic field created by the armature, this action spins the motor with extra power. Field windings vary according to the application of the starter motor. The most popular configurations are as follows:

The two windings, parallel (the wiring of the two field coils in parallel) increases their strength because they receive full voltage. Note that two additional pole shoes are used. Though they have no windings, their presence will further strengthen the magnetic field.

The four windings, series-parallel (the wiring of four field coils in a series-parallel combination) creates a stronger magnetic field than the two field coil configuration.

The four windings, series (the wiring of four field coils in series) provides a large amount of low speed torque, which is desirable for automotive starting motors. However, series wound motors can build up excessive speed if allowed to run free, to the point where they will destroy themselves.

The six windings, series-parallel (three pairs of series-wound field coils) provides the magnetic field for a heavy-duty starter motor. This configuration uses six brushes.

The three windings, two series, one shunt (the use of one field coil that is shunted to ground with a series-wound motor) controls motor speed. Because the shunt coil is not affected by speed, it will draw a steady heavy current, effectively limiting speed.

The drive end frame is designed to protect the drive pinion from damage and to support the armature shaft. The drive end frame of the starter contains a bushing to prevent wear between the armature shaft and drive end frame.

There are two types of starting motors that you will encounter on equipment: the direct drive starter and the double reduction starter. All starters require the use of gear reduction to provide the mechanical advantage required to turn the engine flywheel and crankshaft.

Direct drive starters make use of a pinion gear on the armature shaft of the starting motor. This gear meshes with teeth on the ring gear. There are between 10 to 16 teeth on the ring gear for every one tooth on the pinion gear. Therefore, the starting motor revolves 10 to 16 times for every revolution of the ring gear. In operation, the starting motor armature revolves at a rate of 2,000 to 3,000 revolutions per minute, thus turning the engine crankshaft at speeds up to 200 rpm.

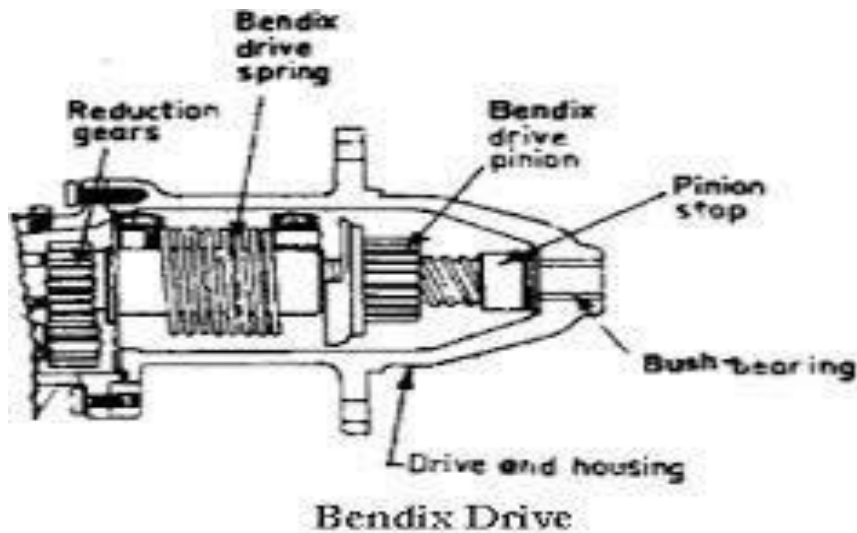
The double reduction starter makes use of gear reduction within the starter and the reduction between the drive pinion and the ring gear. The gear reduction drive head is used on heavy-duty equipment.

The gear on the armature shaft does not mesh directly with the teeth on the ring gear, but with an intermediate gear which drives the driving pinion. This action provides additional breakaway, or starting torque, and greater cranking power. The armature of a starting motor with a gear reduction drive head may rotate as many as 40 revolutions for every revolution of the engine flywheel.

Drive Arrangement And Control

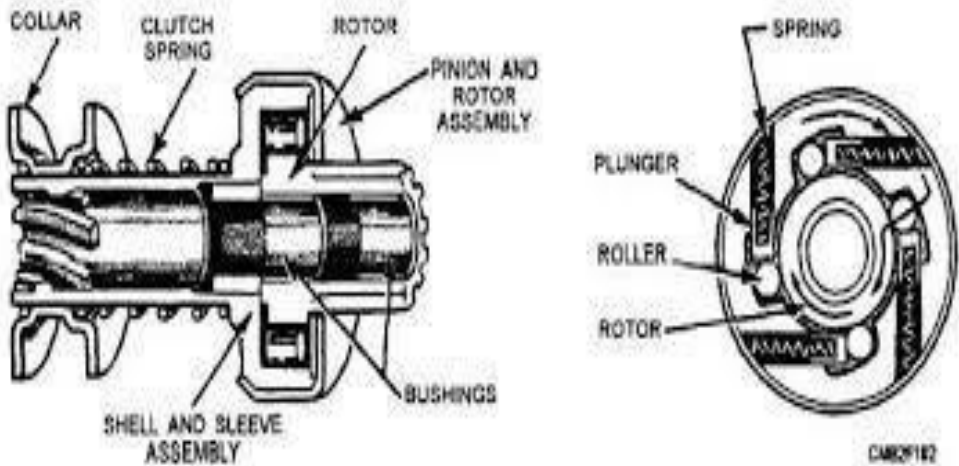
A starter motor's operation is dependent upon the type of drive it contains. Below are the three drive systems, along with an explanation of the operation of each.

The Bendix drive relies on the principle of inertia to cause the pinion gear to mesh with the ring gear. When the starting motor is not operating, the pinion gear is out of mesh and entirely away from the ring gear. When the ignition switch is engaged, the total battery voltage is applied to the starting motor, and the armature immediately starts to rotate at high speed.



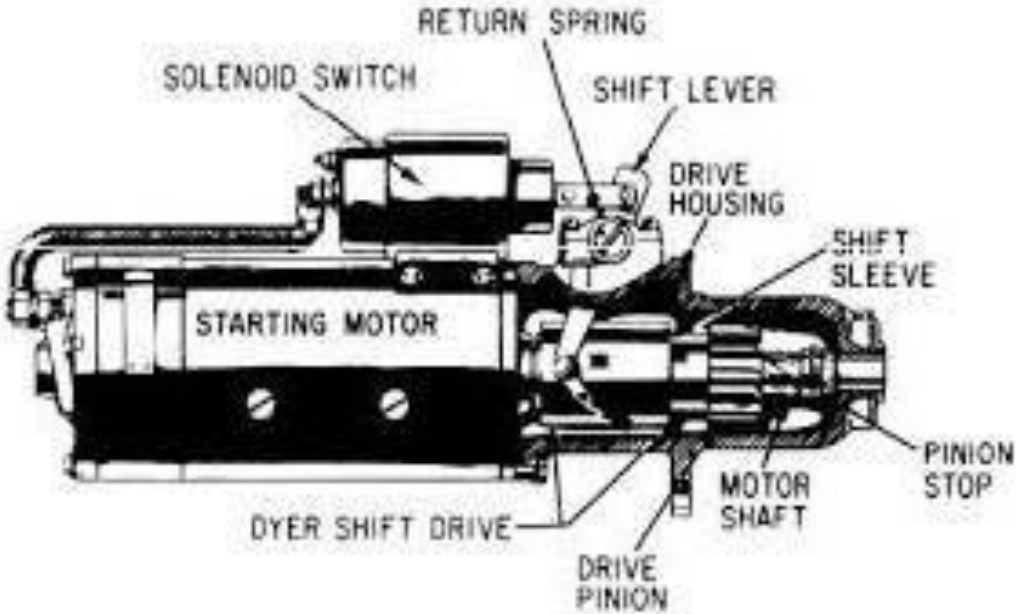
The pinion, being weighted on one side and having internal screw threads, does not rotate immediately with the shaft but because of inertia, runs forward on the revolving threaded sleeve until it engages with the ring gear. If the teeth of the pinion and ring gear do not engage, the drive spring allows the pinion to revolve and forces the pinion to mesh with the ring gear. When the pinion gear is engaged fully with the ring gear, the pinion is then driven by the starter through the compressed drive spring and cranks the engine. The drive spring acts as a cushion while the engine is being cranked against compression. It also breaks the severity of the shock on the teeth when the gears engage and when the engine kicks back due to ignition. When the engine starts and runs on its own power, the ring gear drives the pinion at a higher speed than does the starter. This action causes the pinion to turn in the opposite direction on the threaded sleeve and automatically disengages from the ring gear. This prevents the engine from driving the starter.

The overrunning clutch provides positive meshing and demeshing of the starter motor pinion gear and the ring gear. The starting motor armature shaft drives the shell and sleeve assembly of the clutch. The rotor assembly is connected to the pinion gear, which meshes with the engine ring gear. Spring-loaded steel rollers are located in tapered notches between the shell and the rotor. The springs and plungers hold the rollers in position in the tapered notches. When the armature shaft turns, the rollers are jammed between the notched surfaces, forcing the inner and outer members of the assembly to rotate as a unit and crank the engine.



After the engine is started, the ring gear rotates faster than the pinion gear, thus tending to work the rollers back against the plungers, and thereby causing an overrunning action. This action prevents excessive speed of the starting motor. When the starting motor is released, the collar and spring assembly pulls the pinion out of mesh with the ring gear.

The Dyer drive provides complete and positive meshing of the drive pinion and ring gear before the starting motor is energized. It combines principles of both the Bendix and overrunning clutch drives and is commonly used on heavy-duty engines.



A starter solenoid is used to make the electrical connection between the battery and the starting motor. The starter solenoid is an electromagnetic switch; it is similar to other relays but is capable of handling higher current levels. A starter solenoid, depending on the design of the starting motor, has the following functions:

- Closes battery-to-starter circuit.
- Pushes the starter pinion gear into mesh with the ring gear.
- Acts as an electro-magnetic switch to engage the starter.

The starter solenoid may be located away from or on the starting motor. When mounted away from the starter, the solenoid only makes and breaks electrical connection. When mounted on the starter, it also slides the pinion gear into the flywheel. In operation, the solenoid is actuated when the ignition switch is turned or when the starter button is depressed. The action causes current

to flow through the solenoid (causing a magnetic attraction of the plunger) to ground. The movement of the plunger causes the shift lever to engage the pinion with the ring gear. After the pinion is engaged, further travel of the plunger causes the contacts inside the solenoid to close and directly connects the battery to the starter.

Maintenance Of Starter Motor

If cranking continues after the control circuit is broken, it is most likely to be caused by either shorted solenoid windings or by binding of the plunger in the solenoid. Low voltage from the battery is often the cause of the starter making a clicking sound. When this occurs, check all starting circuit connections for cleanliness and tightness.

The condition of the starting motor should be carefully checked at each PM service. This permits you to take appropriate action, where needed, so equipment failures caused by a faulty starter can be reduced, if not eliminated.

A visual inspection for clean, tight electrical connections and secure mounting at the flywheel housing is the extent of the maintenance check. Then operate the starter and observe the speed of rotation and the steadiness of operation.

Do NOT crank the engine for more than 30 seconds or starter damage can result. If the starter is cranked too long, it will overheat. Allow the starter to cool for a few minutes if more cranking time is needed.

If the starter is not operating properly, remove the starter, disassemble it, and check the commutator and brushes. If the commutator is dirty, you may clean it with a piece of No. 00 sandpaper. However, if the commutator is rough, pitted, or out-of-round or if the insulation between the commutator bars is high, it must be reconditioned using an armature lathe.

Brushes should be at least half of their original size. If not, replace them. The brushes should have free movement in the brush holders and make good, clean contact with the commutator.

Once you have checked the starter and repaired it as needed, you should reassemble it, making sure that the starter brushes are seated. Align the housings and install the bolts securely. Install the starter in the opening in the flywheel housing and tighten the attaching bolts to the specified torque. Connect the cable and wire lead firmly to clean terminals.

Servicing Of Starter Motor

Step 1: Stuff You Will Need.

First thing to do is to check out the price of a new starter motor. There is no point repairing the old one, if it is going to cost you more than a new one.

Step 2: Diagnosis

A faulty starter motor can sound like a flat battery, the engine turns over slowly or not at all, sometimes you can see the battery terminals and leads smoke or get hot due to the high currents being drawn by the faulty starter. First thing, check for other faults. The best way to check the battery is with a load tester but these are expensive, and there are ways around it. Put a voltmeter on the battery, it should read, around 12.6 volts. If it is as low as 12.2 volts then charge the battery. Check battery cables are clean and tight and in good condition. If all is good then the best way to check the battery and starter motor is to remove the battery and put it into another vehicle. If the fault moved to the other vehicle, then you have a problem with your battery, Charge it or replace it. If you have eliminated everything else chances are that the starter is faulty.

Step 3: Starter Removal

First thing to do when doing any repair that involves the high current cables on a motor vehicle is DISCONNECT THE BATTERY, if you skip this step you could end up injuring yourself or setting the car on fire.

Step4:StrippingtheStarter

Now that you have it out find a clean work area and a container to put all the bits into. Now would be a good time to clean the outside of the starter, just wiped it over with a petrol soaked rag, so it is not all that clean

Make sure you mark the case and solenoid so it makes it easy to reassemble as some parts can be assembled around the wrong way.

- Remove the 2 screws that hold the back cover and brushes in place
- Remove the clip and spring
- Remove the heat shield
- Disconnect the motor cable from the solenoid
- Remove the long bolts that hold the motor together
- Remove the brush cover
- Carefully unclip the 2 brushes that are attached to the field windings by pulling back the spring and removing the brush
- Remove the brush holder
- Remove the field windings
- Unbolt the solenoid and remove the armature and solenoid together.

Step5:AssesstheDamage

Thoroughly do a visual inspection of the field windings, and armature for any burnt or broken insulation, broken wires corrosion or other damage. Also check the commutator on the armature for broken or missing segments. If these parts are damaged it may be cheaper to replace the whole starter motor. The pinion gear and solenoid can also be checked for wear or damage.

This starter was quite corroded in places due to the recent flood we have had here, the brushes and bushes are worn, but they appear to be in reasonable condition.

Step6:RepairingtheArmatureandFieldWindings

Remove any corrosion with wet and dry sand paper, and the commutator can be sanded and the back of a box cutter knife can be used to clean out between these segments. The insulation between

thesegmentsshouldbeundercuttoworkcorrectly.Thananoilyragisusedtowipeeverythingtohelppreventanyfuturecorrosion.

After inspecting and cleaning up everything it was decided to only replace the brushes andbushes. The bushes can be removed with socket and a hammer.The bush in the nose of thestarter has a cap which can be carefully knocked out with a 1/4" drive extension. A little heat onthe alloy nose will help remove the bush. 2 of the bushes are crimped on and can be carefullyuncrimpedandthebrushremoved.

Step7:PurchasetheParts

After inspecting and cleaning up everything it was decided to only replace the brushes andbushes. The bushes can be removed with socket and a hammer.The bush in the nose of thestarter has a cap which can be carefully knocked out with a 1/4" drive extension. A little heat onthe alloy nose will help remove the bush. 2 of the bushes are crimped on and can be carefullyuncrimpedandthebrushremoved.

Step 8:Lubricating theNewBushes

The bushes are made from phosphor bronze which is porous and has to be pre-oiled or they willnot last very long. This is not to difficult just put it on your finger and fill with engine oil thenplace your thumb on top and squeeze. Do this 2 or 3 times until you can see the oil coming outthe sidesofthebush.

Step9:FittingtheNewBushes

This step can be tricky, and if you have access to a press then use it, as you a much less likely todamage the bushes. Firstmake sure that the housing where the bushes fit into is clean, then fitthe bush to the end of the armature and gently tap it in to the housing with hammer. Make surethat the armature is straight and you tap the end of the armature flat with the hammer or it couldbe damaged. Again a little heat on the alloy end will help fit the bush. Once you have got thebush in about 1/2 way you can use a drift or large punch to drive it into its final position. Again ifyou useahammertodothisstep,begentleandgeteverythingstraightandflat.

Step10:CheckingtheBushesandPinion

I like to make sure the bushes are not damaged by fitting the armature without the field windings and checking it all spins without binding. If the pinion needs to be replaced simply slide the sleeve down and remove the wire clip. The pinion will slide off. Don't remove it unless you plan to replace it as the wire clip is difficult to remove without damaging it. Some people will tell you not to lubricate the pinion as clutch dust can get into the starter motor and combine with the oil and make the pinion sticky. This may be true of some older vehicles, I find a small amount of oil helps keep corrosion away and keeps everything working.

Step 11: Fitting the Brushes

Look carefully at the brushes how they are fitted and their orientation. 2 brushes are crimped on, they could be carefully uncrimped with side cutters and new brushes crimped back on. 2 brushes are spot welded on. These 2 were carefully pulled off and a little solder melted on the braid on the end of the brush and on the copper where it was spot welded. The brush is then sweated into position. Use a small gas torch but a large soldering iron would also work.

Step 12: Assembling the Starter

Assembling is straight forward if you know a trick with the brush plate. Don't put the brushes in properly have them half hanging out with the spring jammed against the side of the brush, that's the trick! you can now assemble everything without having to fight with springs. The armature and the solenoid need to go in together and make sure you get the fork in the right spot. If you have been paying attention you will see I've put the solenoid in upside-down, whoops! the bench test will pick that up. The field windings can be fitted and the mark on the side of the motor can be lined up to make it easier to assemble.

Step 13: Assembling the Starter Part 2

The brush plate can now be fitted, and the bushes on the field windings are inserted into the brush holders. Make sure the bolts all line up and then the brushes can be pushed in properly so the springs are pushing down on them. The back plate or brush cover can go on next and the long bolts inserted and done up fingertight. Put one screw into the brush holder to make sure everything is lined up and tighten it all up. Make sure the armature turns freely. The spring and clip can go on next and a little oil on the shaft before screwing the end cap on. Then nose of the

starter can also have a little oil on the shaft before refitting the cap which is carefully put into position and punched on. The motor cable can be connected to the solenoid and all the bolts and screws re-tightened and rechecked

Step14:Testing

The starter motor can be tested without fitting to the car, and this will find problems like misputting the solenoid in upside-down. You will need a battery and some jumper leads.

First connect the lead to your battery, and then the negative lead to the case of the starter. **Test 1 Checking The Motor.**

Connect the positive lead to the bottom terminal on the solenoid this should make the motor spin, at high speed.

Test 2 Checking The Solenoid.

Connect the positive lead to the small terminal on the solenoid this should make the pinion slide out and engage the ring gear. (this is when I noticed the solenoid upside down as it failed to do this)

Test 3 Checking Both Motor And Solenoid.

Connect the positive lead to the top terminal on the solenoid. The starter motor should do nothing it shouldn't spark or click. Connect another positive lead to the small terminal on the solenoid the starter should fire up throwing the pinion out and spinning the motor. If all is well refit the heat shield and it is ready to go back on the car.

Step15:Reduction Box Starter Motor

Reduction box starter motors are becoming more common and have a few differences. They are a set of gears inside and use a bearing rather than bushes.

Just a quick note on solenoids. The type that is fitted to our 4AGE starter in the rebuild is not repairable, it doesn't come apart, thankfully they are very reliable. There is another style of solenoid fitted to reduction box starters that is repairable but seems to give more problems, I would definitely be replacing the starter contacts and plunger.

CHAPTER–3

GeneratingSystem

Generatingsystem is requiredto recharge the battery whichis animportantcomponentofelectrical system of an automobile. Charging is required as the capacity of a battery to supplycurrent is limited to the energy stored in it in the form of chemical energy. Battery supplies thecurrenttorunthe startingmotor, variouslightsandhorn,etc.

Thegeneratingsystem generateselectricity torecharge thebattery andrun otherelectricalcomponents.

ComponentsOfAGeneratingSystem

Generatingsystemconsists of:

- GeneratororDynamo:Itconvertsmechanicalenergyintoelectricalenergy.
- Regulator:Itcontrolsthegeneratoroutputaccordingtotheneed.Itcontrolsthecurrentorvoltage.
- Relay : Itis used tocontrol the flow of currentbetween generator and battery. Itacts ascircuitbreaker.

Generator

A generator is a machine used to convert mechanical used to convert mechanical energy intoelectrical energy. When it is driven by the engine it produces electricity for runningall theelectrical circuits of the automobile and keeps the battery in charged condition. This is thefunctionofgenerator.

Flemming’sRightHandRule

If thumb, fore finger and middle finger of right hand are stretched so that they are mutuallyperpendicular then the direction of induced currentin the conductor can be found outby thisrule.

“If the fore finger indicates the direction of magnetic field and the thumb shows the direction of motion of the conductor, then middle finger will indicate the direction induced current”. This is called Fleming’s right hand rule.

Lenz's Law

Lenz's law, named after the physicist Emil Lenz who formulated it in 1834, states that the direction of the electric current which is induced in a conductor by a changing magnetic field is such that the magnetic field created by the induced current opposes the initial changing magnetic field.

It is a qualitative law that specifies the direction of induced current, but states nothing about its magnitude. Lenz's law explains the direction of many effects in electromagnetism, such as the direction of voltage induced in an inductor or wire loop by a changing current, or the drag force of eddy currents exerted on moving objects in a magnetic field.

The current induced in a circuit due to a change in a magnetic field is directed to oppose the change in flux and to exert a mechanical force which opposes the motion.

Lenz's law is contained in the rigorous treatment of Faraday's law of induction, where it finds expression by the negative sign:

which indicates that the induced electromotive force and the rate of change in magnetic flux have opposite signs.

Principle Of Generator

“When a conductor moves in a magnetic field, current is produced in it. The direction of current is determined by Fleming’s right hand rule”.

A magnetic field acts between north and south poles of magnets. There are lines of force between two poles. When the conductor moves such that lines of force are cut, current is induced in the conductor. This current can be used to run any electrical components, e.g. lights and charging system, etc.

The current induced in the conductor depends upon the rate at which force lines are cut and strength of magnetic field, etc.

When the conductor (armature of dynamo) is rotated (by engine) in the magnetic field, a current is induced in the conductor. The direction of flow of current in the two legs of conductor is opposite because their direction of motion is also opposite. The two ends of conductor are connected to the commutator (two split copper rings) and these are connected to external circuit through carbon brushes. Thus, rotation of the armature generates current which can be used for running electrical systems of an automobile. The magnets used are electromagnets which are supplied energy from the generator itself. The armature consists of a core, windings and an armature shaft.

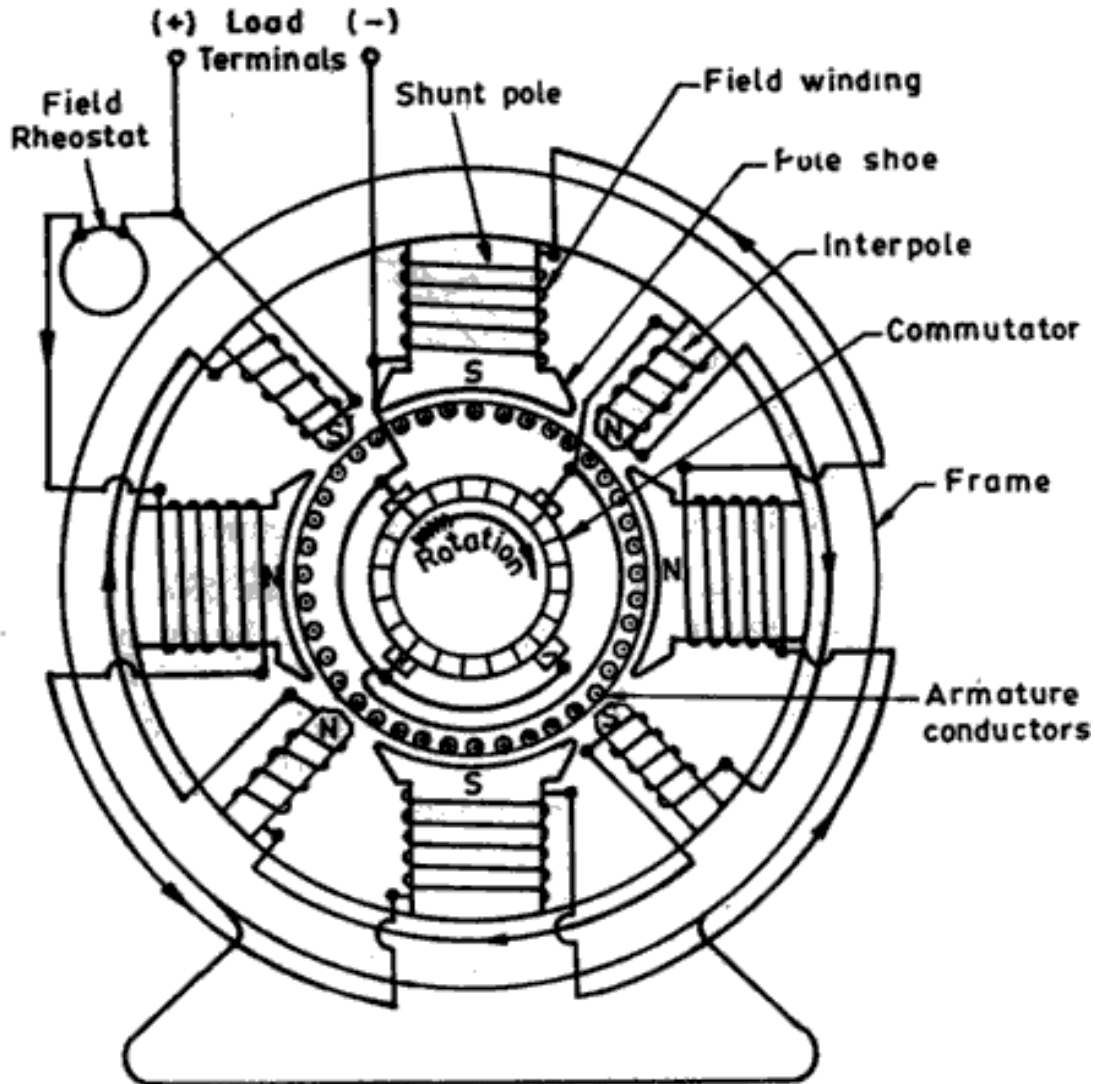
According to Faraday's law of electromagnetic induction, when a conductor moves in a magnetic field (thereby cutting the magnetic flux lines), a dynamically induced emf is produced in the conductor. The magnitude of generated emf can be given by emf equation of DC generator. If a closed path is provided to the moving conductor then generated emf causes a current to flow in the circuit.

Thus in DC generators, as we have studied earlier, when armature is rotated with the help of a prime mover and field windings are excited (there may be permanent field magnets also), emf is induced in armature conductors. This induced emf is taken out via a commutator-brush arrangement.

Construction Of DC Generator

In construction of a DC machine consists of four parts.

1. Field magnets
2. Armature
3. Commutator
4. Brush and brush gear



FieldSystem:

The object of the field system is to create a uniform magnetic field within which the armature rotates. Electromagnets are preferred on the account of their magnetic effects and field strength regulation which can be achieved by controlling the magnetizing current. Field magnets consist of the following parts:

- Yoke or Frame
- Pole cores
- Pole shoes
- Magnetizing coils

Cylindrical yoke is usually used which acts as a frame of the machine and carries the magnetic flux produced by the poles. Since the field is stationary there is no need to use laminated yoke for normal machine. In small machines, cast iron yokes are used because of its cheapness but yoke of large machines are made of fabricated steel due to its high permeability.

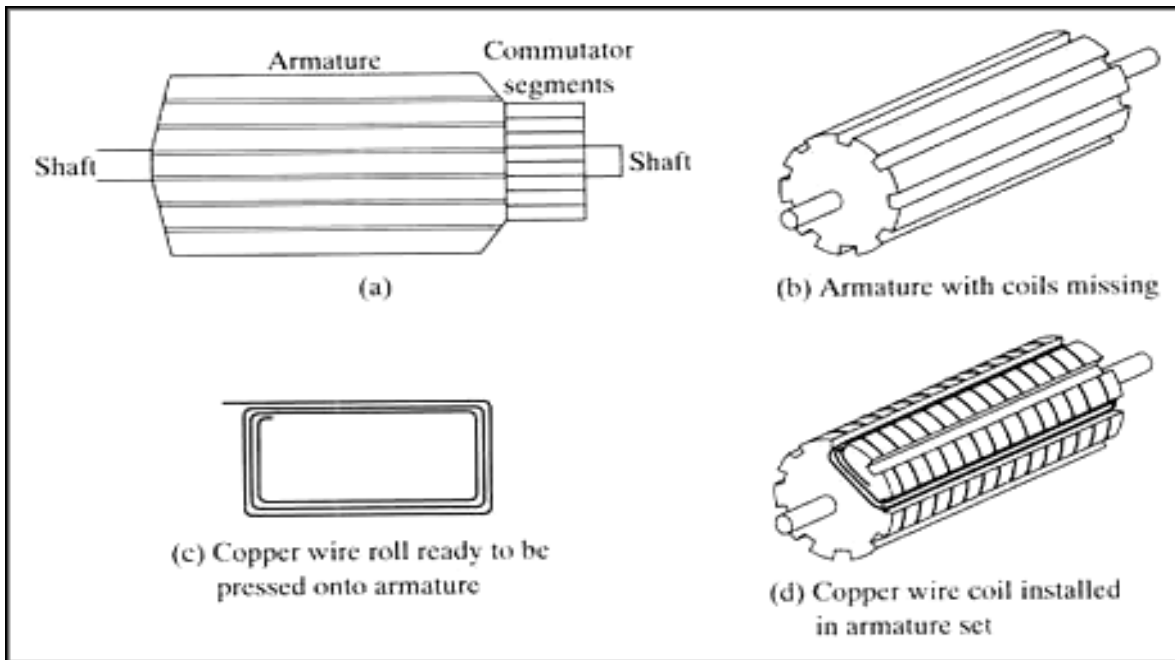
Pole core is usually of circular section and is used to carry the coils of insulated wires carrying the exciting current. Pole cores are usually not laminated and made of cast steel.

Each pole core has a pole shoe serves having a curved surface. The pole shoe serves two purposes:

- It supports the field coils
- It increases the cross-sectional area of the magnetic circuit and reduces its reluctance.

Each pole core has one or more field coils or magnetizing coils placed over it to produce a magnetic field. The field coils are connected in series with one another such that when the current flows through the coils, alternate north and south poles are produced in the direction of rotation.

Armature:



It is a rotating part of a DC machine and is built up in a cylindrical or drum shape. The purpose of the armature is to rotate the conductors in the uniform magnetic field. It consists of coils of insulated wires wound around an iron core and so arranged that electric currents are induced in these wires when the armature is rotated in a magnetic field. Its most important function is to provide a path of low reluctance to the magnetic flux. The armature core is made of high permeability silicon-steel stampings.

Commutator:

It is a form of rotating switch. They are placed between the armature and external circuit. The commutator will reverse the connections to the external circuit at the instant each reversal of current in the armature coil.

Brushes & Bearings:

Brushes are made of carbon or graphite. It collects current from the commutator and conveys it to external load resistance. It is rectangular in shape. Brushes are housed in brush holders and mounted over brush holder studs. Ball bearings are used as they are reliable for light machines. For heavy machines roller bearings are used.

Types Of Generators

Generators are usually classified according to the way in which their fields are excited. The field windings provide the excitation necessary to set up the magnetic fields in the machine. There are various types of field windings that can be used in the generator or motor circuit. In addition to the following field winding types, permanent magnet fields are used on some smaller DC products.

Generators may be divided into

- Separately-excited generators
- Self-excited generators

Separately-excited generators are those whose field magnets are energised from an independent external source of DC current.

Self-excited generators are those whose field magnets are energised by the current produced by the generators themselves. Due to residual magnetism, there is always present some flux in the poles. When the armature is rotated, some e.m.f and hence some induced current is produced which is partly or fully passed through the field coils thereby strengthening the residual pole flux.

Self-excited generators are classed according to the type of field connection they use. There are three general types of field connections—

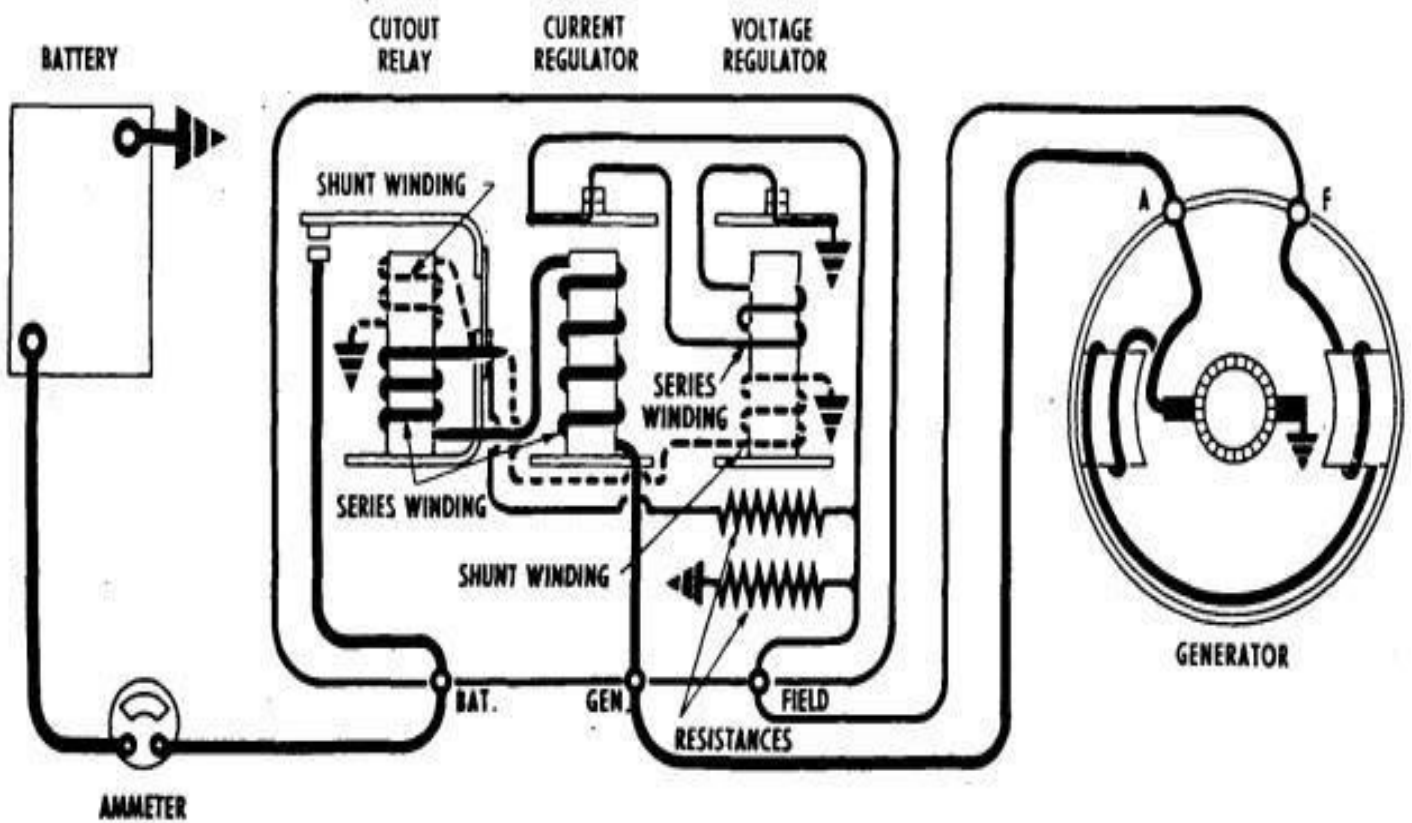
- Series-wound
- Shunt-wound (parallel)
- Compound-wound

Compound-wound generators are further classified as

- Cumulative compound
- Differential compound

Regulators For Generator

The voltage and current of a generator are controlled by providing an external resistance. The regulation is required to prevent generator to generate excessive voltage and current. In one method, a resistance is connected in the field circuit. It is connected between the field windings and insulated brush. The field circuit is grounded through the brush inside the generator. The switch remains closed till the voltage output is not excessive. The switch connects the outer end of the field circuit to the ground. In case, voltage increases beyond a given limit, the switch opens. This brings the resistance in the field circuit. Because of this, the current flowing in the field windings decreases. The voltage is also reduced.



Voltage Regulator

The voltage regulator has two windings assembled on a single core, a shunt winding consisting of many turns of fine wire which is shunted across the generator, and a series winding of a few turns of relatively heavy wire which is connected in series with the generator field circuit when the regulator contact points are closed.

The windings and core are assembled into a frame. A flat steel armature is attached to the frame by a flexible hinge so that it is just above the end of the core. The armature contains a contact point which is just beneath a stationary contact point. When the voltage regulator is not operating, the tension of a spiral spring holds the armature away from the core so that the points are in contact and the generator field circuit is completed to ground through them.

VoltageRegulatorAction

When the generator voltage reaches the value for which the voltage regulator is adjusted, the magnetic field produced by the two windings (shunt and series) overcomes the armature spring tension and pulls the armature down so that the contact points separate. This inserts resistance into the generator field circuit so that the generator field current and voltage are reduced. Reduction of the generator voltage reduces the magnetic field of the regulator shunt winding. Also, opening the regulator points opens the regulator series winding circuit so that its magnetic field collapses completely. The consequence is that the magnetic field is reduced sufficiently to allow the spiral spring to pull the armature away from the core so that the contact points again close. This directly grounds the generator field circuit so that generator voltage and output increase. The above cycle of action again takes place and the cycle continues at a rate of 50 to 200 times a second, regulating the voltage to a predetermined value. With the voltage thus limited the generator supplies varying amounts of current to meet the varying states of battery charge and electrical load.

CutoutRelay

Cutout relay acts as a circuit breaker between generator and battery when dynamo is not generating any current. It prevents the discharging of battery in case generator is not working or running at very low speeds.

This relay is nothing but a magnetic switch which closes to connect battery and generator when generator is running. When generator does not running, a spring breaks the circuit between the battery and generator.

The cutout relay has two windings, a series winding of a few turns of heavy wire and a shunt winding of many turns of fine wire. The shunt winding is connected across the generator so that generator voltage is impressed upon it at all times.

The series winding is connected in series with the charging circuit so that all generator output passes through it. The relay core and windings are assembled into a frame. A flat steel armature is attached to the frame by a flexible hinge so that it is centered just above the end of the core. The armature contact points are located just above the stationary contact points. When the

generator is not operating, the armature contact points are held a wax from the stationary points by the tension of a flat spring riveted on the side of the armature.

Cutout Relay Action

When the generator voltage builds up a value great enough to charge the battery, the magnetism induced by the relay windings is sufficient to pull the armature toward the core so that the contact points close. The current which flows from the generator to the battery passes through the series winding in a direction to add to the magnetism holding the armature down and the contact points closed.

When the generator slows down or stops, current begins to flow from the battery to the generator. This reverse flow of current through the series winding causes a reversal of the series winding magnetic field. The magnetic field of the shunt winding does not reverse. Therefore, instead of helping each other, the two windings now magnetically oppose so that the resultant magnetic field becomes insufficient to hold the armature down. The flat spring pulls the armature away from the core so that the points separate; this opens the circuit between the generator and battery.

Maintenance

The generator generates energy. A broken belt – one of the most common issues related to generator failures. It can be fixed by using a long sock. However, such fixing will not last for long – more reliable work is being performed at car service and repair center where special generator belts and tensioning mechanisms or bearings are to be installed. When the belt is broken, you will only be able to travel few kilometers using the remaining battery power.

This may end up in a worse situation – the generator could be completely damaged and should be replaced. In such case, the car won't run, an engine will completely malfunction and smoke may appear. The car will need to be urgently taken to the garage.

In order to guarantee a safe and more economical operation of your generator, you must proceed with its continued maintenance. If care must be taken with the essential components, so it must be with all the other elements, which must be checked frequently.

Most of the failures in starting the generator are related to the battery. The misuse of this component and the lack of maintenance lead to its deterioration and, consequently, to its improper functioning, rendering it incapable of turning the starter motor.

In addition, the battery is especially susceptible to damage, since it is prone to the accumulation of lead sulfates on its plates, eventually breaking down and becoming obsolete.

It is therefore very important to pay attention to this element, checking it carefully and regularly, and taking the necessary maintenance precautions, as described below.

CHAPTER-4

Alternator

AC generators are usually called alternators. They are also called synchronous generators. An asynchronous generator is a machine for converting mechanical power from a prime mover to an electric power at a specific voltage and frequency.

“An alternator generates alternating current (AC) unlike a dynamo which generates direct current (DC)”.

Modern automobiles which require more electric loads are fitted with alternators instead of dynamos. These vehicles require more electrical power because they have power steering, power windows, electrical system for automobile transmission, etc.

A rectifier is required to convert AC to DC as all electrical equipments use DC.

Principle Of Alternator

The operation of a synchronous generator is based on Faraday's law of electromagnetic induction, and in an AC synchronous generator the generation of emf's is by relative motion of conductors and magnetic flux. The rotating magnetic field induces an AC voltage in the stator windings. Since the currents in the stator windings vary in step with the position of the rotor, an alternator is a synchronous generator.

The principle of working of alternator differs from that of dynamo in the manner in which the conductor and magnetic field move relative to each other. In an alternator the conductor remains stationary but the magnetic field is rotated. However, the conductor rotates and the magnetic field remains stationary in case of a dynamo.

In an alternator, a rotating bar magnet produces magnetic field which is cut by a stationary conductor. The north pole of the rotating magnet is at the top and the south pole is at the bottom. If this

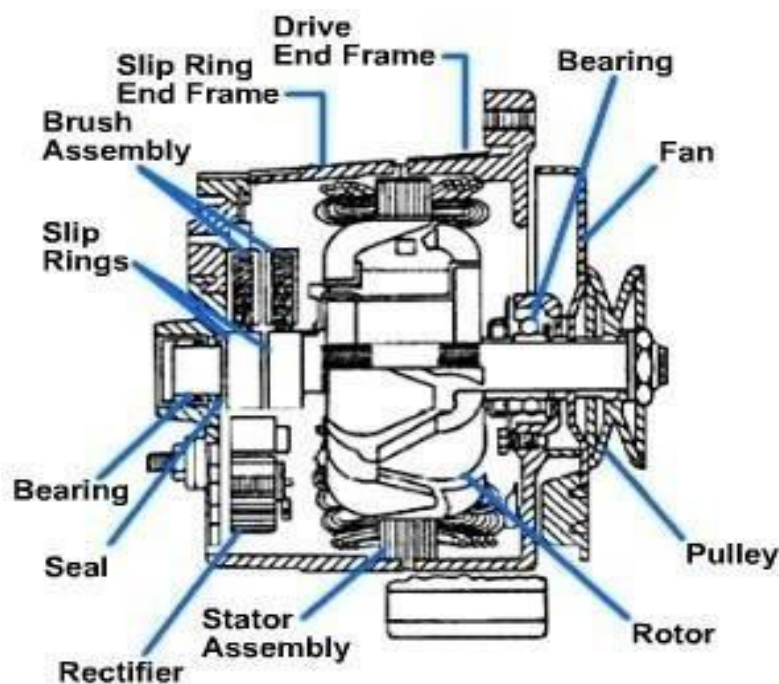
magnet is rotated by half revolution such that north pole comes down and south pole takes upper position. During this the current in the upper leg of conductor flows in one direction. The north pole of magnet at bottom and south pole at top. When the magnet is now rotated by another half revolution, the direction of current in the wire is reversed. Therefore, with the revolution of magnet, the current reverses its direction after each half revolution. Thus, an alternating current flows. This is the principle of working of an alternator.

The alternator has replaced the DC (Direct Current) generator because of its improved efficiency. It is smaller, lighter, and more dependable than the DC generator. The alternator also produces more output during idle, which makes it ideal for late model vehicles. The alternator has a spinning magnetic field. The output windings (stator) are stationary. As the magnetic field rotates, it induces current in the output stator windings.

In constructing a synchronous machine a point to note is that the stator is fixed and the poles rotate.

There are two categories of Synchronous machines:

- Those with salient or projecting poles
- Those with cylindrical rotors



Alternator Construction

Knowledge of the construction of an alternator is required before you can understand the proper operation, testing procedures, and repair procedures applicable to an alternator.

The primary components of an alternator are as follows:

- The rotor assembly (rotor shaft, slip rings, claw poles, and field windings) consists of field windings (wire wound into a coil placed over an iron core) mounted on the rotor shaft. Two claw-shaped pole pieces surround the field windings to increase the magnetic field. The fingers on one of the claw-shaped pole pieces produce south (S) poles and the other produces north (N) poles. As the rotor rotates inside the alternator, alternating N-S-N-S polarity and AC current are produced. An external source of electricity (DC) is required to excite the magnetic field of the alternator. Slip rings are mounted on the rotor shaft to provide current to the rotor windings. Each end of the field coil connects to the slip rings.
- Stator assembly (three stator windings or coils, output wires, and stator core). The stator assembly produces the electrical output of the alternator. The stator, which is part of the alternator frame when assembled, consists of three groups of windings or coils which produce three separate AC currents. This is known as three-phase output. One end of the windings is connected to the stator assembly and the other is connected to a rectifier assembly. The windings are wrapped around a soft laminated iron core that concentrates and strengthens the magnetic field around the stator windings.

There are two types of stators.

- Y type stator
- Delta-type stator

The Y-type stator has the wire ends from the stator windings connected to a neutral junction . The circuit looks like the letter Y. The Y type stator provides good current output at low engine speeds.

The delta-type stator has the stator wires connected end to- end. With no neutral junction, two circuit paths are formed between the diodes. A delta-type stator is used in high output alternators.

- The rectifier assembly, also known as a diode assembly, contains the heat sink, diodes, diode plate, and electrical terminals. It consists of six diodes used to convert stator AC output into DC current. The current flowing from the stator winding is allowed to pass through an insulated diode. As the current reverses direction, it flows to ground through a grounded diode. The insulated and grounded diodes prevent the reversal of current from the rest of the charging system. By this switching action and the number of pulses created by motion between the windings of the stator and rotor, a fairly even flow of current is supplied to the battery terminal of the alternator.

The rectifier diodes are mounted in a heat sink or diode bridge. Three positive diodes are press fit in an insulated frame. Three negative diodes are mounted into an uninsulated or grounded frame.

When an alternator is producing current, the insulated diodes pass only outflowing current to the battery. The diodes provide a block, preventing reverse current flow from the alternator.

Alternator Operation

The operation of an alternator is somewhat different than the DC generator. An alternator has a rotating magnet (rotor) which causes the magnetic lines of force to rotate with it. These lines of force are cut by the stationary (stator) windings in the alternator frame as the rotor turns with the magnet rotating the N and S poles to keep changing positions. When S is up and N is down,

current flows in one direction, but when N is up and S is down, current flows in the oppositedirection. Thisis calledalternating currentas it changes direction twicefor each completerevolution. If the rotor speed were increased to 60 revolutions per second, it would produce 60-cycleAC.

Since the engine speed varies in a vehicle, the frequency also varies with the change of speed.Likewise, increasing the number of pairs of magnetic north and south poles will increase thefrequency by the number pair of poles. A four-pole generator can generate twice the frequencyperrevolutionofatwo-polerotor.

AlternatorOutputControl

A voltage regulator controls alternator output by changing the amount of current flowthroughthe rotor windings. Any change in rotor winding current changes the strength of the magneticfield acting on the stator windings. In this way, the voltage regulator can maintain a presetchargingvoltage.Thethreebasic typesofvoltage regulatorsareasfollows:

- Contactpointvoltage regulator,mountedawayfromthealternatorintheenginecompartment.
The contact point voltage regulator uses a coil, set of points, and resistors that limitsystem voltage. The electronic or solid-state regulators have replaced this older type. Foroperation,refertothe "RegulationofGeneratorOutput"section ofthischapter.
- Electronicvoltage regulator,mountedawayfromthealternatorintheenginecompartment.
The electronic voltage regulators use an electronic circuit to control rotor field strengthand alternator output. It is a sealed unit and is not repairable. The electronic circuit mustbe sealed to prevent damage from moisture, excessive heat, and vibration. A rubberlikegelsurrounds thecircuitforprotection.
An integral voltage regulator is mounted inside or on the rear of the alternator. This is themostcommon type usedon modern vehicles.Itis small,efficient,dependable,andcomposedofintegratedcircuits.

- The integral voltage regulator is mounted on the back of or inside the alternator. It performs the same operation as a contact point or electronic regulator, except that it uses transistors, diodes, resistors, and capacitors to regulate voltage in the system. To increase alternator output, the voltage regulator allows more current into the rotor windings, thereby strengthening the magnetic field around the rotor. More current is then induced into the stator windings and out of the alternator.

To reduce alternator output, the voltage regulator increases the resistance between the battery and the rotor windings. The magnetic field decreases, and less current is induced into the stator windings.

Alternator speed and load determine whether the regulator increases or decreases charging output. If the load is high or rotor speed is low (engine at idle), the regulator senses a drop in system voltage. The regulator then increases the rotor's magnetic field current until a preset output voltage is obtained. If the load drops or rotor speed increases, the opposite occurs.

EMF Equation Of An Alternator

Let,

P = No. of poles

Z = No. of conductors or coil sides in series/phase i.e. $Z = 2T$ where T is the

number of coils or turns per phase

f = frequency of induced e.m.f. in Hz ϕ =

Flux per pole (Weber)

N = rotor speed (RPM)

If induced e.m.f. is assumed sinusoidal then, K_f = Form factor = 1.11

In one revolution of the rotor i.e. in $60/N$ seconds, each conductor is cut by a flux of $P\phi$ Webers.

$$d\phi = \phi P \text{ and } \text{sodt} = \text{seconds } 60/N$$

then induced e.m.f per conductor (average) = $d\phi / dt = P\phi / (60/N) = P N \phi / 60$

.....(a) But we know that $f = PN/120$ or $N = 120f/P$

Putting the value of N in Equation (a)...

We get

the average value of e.m.f per conductor is **Eav**=

$$P\phi/60 \times 120 \ f/P = 2f \ \phi \ \text{Volts.} \quad \{N =$$

$120f/P\}$ If there are Z conductors in series per phase,

then the average e.m.f per phase = $2f\phi Z$ Volts = **$4f\phi T$ Volts** {Z=2T}

Also we know that Form factor = RMS Value / Average Value...

=> **RMS value** = Form factor x Average Value,

$$= 1.11 \times 4f\phi T = 4.44f\phi T \text{ Volts.}$$

Alternator Maintenance

Alternator testing and service call for special precautions since the alternator output terminal is connected to the battery at all times. Use care to avoid reversing polarity when performing battery service of any kind. A surge of current in the opposite direction could burn the alternator diodes.

Do not purposely or accidentally "short" or "ground" the system when disconnecting wires or connecting test leads to terminals of the alternator or regulator. For example, grounding of the field terminal at either the alternator or regulator will damage the regulator. Grounding of the alternator output terminal will damage the alternator and possibly other portions of the charging system.

Never operate an alternator on an open circuit. With no battery or electrical load in the circuit, alternators are capable of building high voltage (50 to over 110 volts) which may damage diodes and endanger anyone who touches the alternator output terminal.

Alternator maintenance is minimized by the use of prelubricated bearings and longer lasting brushes. If a problem exists in the charging circuit, check for a complete field circuit by placing a large screwdriver on the alternator rear-bearing surface. If the field circuit is complete, there will be a strong magnetic pull on the blade of the screwdriver, which indicates that the field is energized. If there is no field current, the alternator will not charge because it is excited by battery voltage.

Should you suspect troubles within the charging system after checking the wiring connections and battery, connect a voltmeter across the battery terminals. If the voltage reading, with the engine speed increased, is within the manufacturer's recommended specification, the charging system is functioning properly. Should the alternator tests fail, the alternator should be removed for repairs or replacement. Do NOT forget, you must ALWAYS disconnect the cables from the battery first.

CHAPTER-5

IgnitionSystem

IgnitionSystem

In spark ignition engines, a device is required to ignite the compressed air-fuel mixture at the end of compression stroke. Ignition system fulfills this requirement. It is a part of electrical system which carries the electric current at required voltage to the spark plug which generates spark at correct time. It consists of a battery, switch, distributor ignition coil, spark plugs and necessary wiring.

A compression ignition engine, i.e. a diesel engine does not require any ignition system. Because, self ignition of fuel air mixture takes place when diesel is injected in the compressed air at high temperature at the end of compression stroke.

Requirements Of An Ignition System

- a) The ignition system should be capable of producing high voltage current, as high as 25000 volts, so that spark plug can produce spark across its electrode gap.
- b) It should produce spark for sufficient durations so that mixture can be ignited at all operating speeds of automobile.
- c) Ignition system should function satisfactorily at all engine speeds.
- d) Longer life of contact points and spark plug.
- e) Spark must generate at correct time at the end of compression stroke in every cycle of engine operation.
- f) The system must be easy to maintain, light in weight and compact in size.
- g) There should be provision of spark advance with speed and load.
- h) It should be able to function smoothly even when the spark plug electrodes are deposited with carbon lead or oil.

FUNCTIONSOF COMPONENTSUSEDINCIRCUITS

Functionsofvariouscomponentsused insparkignitionarediscussedhereinbrief.

Battery

It is an important component of electrical system. The battery supplies the necessary current tothe primary winding of ignition coil which is converted into high voltage current to producespark. It also supplied current to run the starting motor when engine is cranked for starting. Abattery stores energy in the form of chemical energy and supplies it for running lights and otheraccessoriesofanautomobile.Lead-acidbatteryiscommonlyusedin mostoftheautomobiles.

Ignition orInduction Coil

The ignition coil is step up transformer to increase the voltage form 12 volt or 6 volt to 20000-30000 volts.Itconsists of a primary winding and a secondary winding wound on a laminatedsoft iron core. Primary winding contains about 300 turns made of thick wire. Secondary consistsof about 20000 turns of thin wire. In a can type coil, secondary is wound on the soft core overwhich primary is wound. This assembly is housed in a steel casing fitted with a cap. The cap ismade of insulating material. The terminals for electrical connections are provided in cap. To savethewindingsfrommoistureandtoimproveinsulation,windingsaredippedinoil.

ContactBreakers

Contact breaker is required to make contact and break contact of the primary circuit of ignitionsystem. It consists of two contact breaker points as shown in Figures. One point remains fixedwhile the other can move. A cam is used to move the movable point. As cam moves, the contactis made and broken alternately. Primary circuit breaks when the breaker points open. Magneticfield collapses due to this. This produces high voltage current in the secondary winding which issupplied to the distributor. This current is distributor to proper spark plug where itproducessparkforignitionof fuel-airmixture.

Condenser

The function of the condenser in the ignition system is to absorb and store the inductive current generated in the coil. If condenser is not provided, the induced current will cause arcing at the breaker points. This will cause burning of the breaker points.

Distributor

The distributor sends the high voltage current, generated in the secondary winding, to the proper spark plug at proper time. If the automobile is having a four cylinder engine, it will have four spark plugs.

The cap of the distributor is connected to the secondary winding of coil. It has a rotor which rotates and comes in contact with the terminals (4 in number for 4 spark plugs) placed around the rotor. As the rotor comes in contact with the terminals (numbered 1, 2, 3 and 4 in Figures), the current is passed to the respective spark plug at proper time when spark is needed.

Ignition Switch

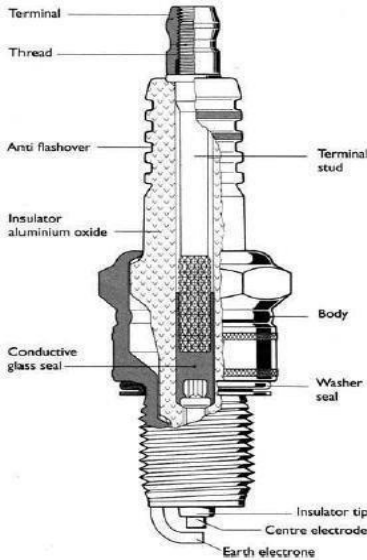
The function of the ignition switch is to connect the battery and starting motor in the automobile having self starting system.

Example: In car, jeep, etc.

Its function is to connect battery to induction coil in the battery ignition system.

Spark Plugs

The function of the spark plug is to produce spark between its electrodes. This spark is used to ignite the fuel-air mixture in the spark ignition (SI) engines.



Ignition Timing Devices

Ignition timing refers to how early or late the spark plugs fire in relation to the position of the engine pistons. Ignition timing must vary with engine speed, load, and temperature.

Timing advance happens when the spark plugs fire sooner than the compression strokes of the engine. The timing is set several degrees before top dead center (TDC).

More time advance is required at higher speeds to give combustion enough time to develop pressure on the power stroke.

Timing retard happens when the spark plugs fire later on the compression strokes. This is the opposite of timing advance. Spark retard is required at lower speeds and under high load conditions.

Timing retard prevents the fuel from burning too much on the compression stroke, which would cause spark knock or pinging.

The basic methods to control ignition system timing are as follows:

- Centrifugal advance (controlled by engine speed)
- Vacuum advance (controlled by intake manifold vacuum and engine load)
- Computerized advance (controlled by various sensors— speed, temperature, intake, vacuum, throttle position, etc.)

Computerized Advance

The computerized advance, also known as an electronic spark advance system, uses various engine sensors and a computer to control ignition timing. The engine sensors check various operating conditions and send electrical data to the computer. The computer can change ignition timing for maximum engine efficiency.

Ignition system engine sensors include the following:

- Engine speed sensor (reports engine speed to the computer)
- Crankshaft position sensor (reports piston position)
- Throttle position switch (notes the position of the throttle)
- Inlet air temperature sensor (checks the temperature of the air entering the engine)
- Engine coolant temperature sensor (measures the operating temperature of the engine)
- Detonation sensor (allows the computer to retard timing when the engine knocks or pings)
- Intake vacuum sensor (measures engine vacuum, an indicator of load)
- The computer receives different current or voltage levels (input signals) from these sensors. It is programmed to adjust ignition timing based on engine conditions.

The computer may be mounted on the air cleaner, under the dash, on a fender panel, or under a seat.

The following is an example of the operation of a computerized advance. A vehicle is traveling down the road at 50 mph; the speed sensor detects moderate engine speed.

The throttle position sensor detects part throttle, and the air inlet and coolant temperature sensors report normal operating temperatures. The intake vacuum sensor sends high vacuum signals to the computer.

The computer receives all the data and calculates that the engine requires maximum spark advance. The timing would occur several degrees before TDC on the compression stroke. This action assures that high fuel economy is attained on the road.

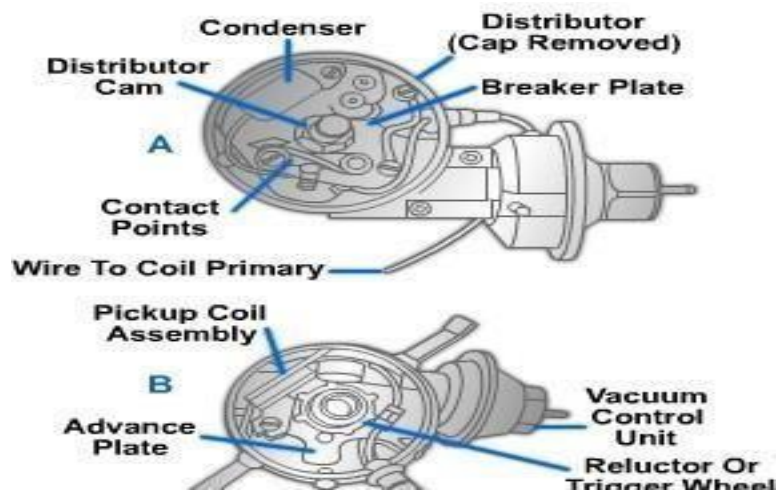
If the operator begins to pass another vehicle, the intake vacuum sensor detects a vacuum drop to near zero and a signal is sent to the computer. The throttle position sensor detects a wide open throttle and other sensor outputs say the same. The computer receives and calculates the data, then, if required, retards ignition timing to prevent spark knock or ping.

IgnitionDistributor

Anignitiondistributorcanbeacontactpoint.Acontactpointdistributoriscommonlyfoundinoldervehicl es,whereasthepickup coiltypedistributorisusedonmanymodernvehicles.

Theignitiondistributorhasseveralfunctions:

- It actuatestheon/offcyclesofcurrentflowthroughtheprimarywindingsofthecoil.
- Itdistributesthe highvoltagesurgesofthecoiltothesparkplugs.
- It causes the spark to occur at each spark plug earlier in the compression stroke as speedincreases.
- It changes spark timing with the changes in engine load. As more load is placed on theengine, the spark timing must occur later in the compression stroke to prevent sparkknock.
- In somecases,the bottomofthedistributorshaftpowerstheengineoilpump.
- In some electronic distributors, the distributors house the ignition coil and the electronicswitchingunit.



The distributor cap is an insulating plastic component that covers the top of the distributor housing. Its center terminal transfers voltage from the coil wire to the rotor. The distributor cap also has outer terminals that send electric arcs to the spark plugs. Metal terminals are molded into the plastic cap to provide electrical connections.

The distributor rotor transfers voltage from the coil wire to the spark plug wires. The rotor is mounted on top of the distributor shaft. It is an electrical switch that feeds voltage to each spark plug wire in turn.

A metal terminal on the rotor touches the distributor cap center terminal. The outer end of the rotor almost touches the outer cap terminals. Voltage is high enough that it can jump the airspace between the rotor and cap. Approximately 4,000 volts are required for the spark to jump this rotor-to-cap gap.

Solid State Ignition (Replaces Ignition Coil)

An electronic ignition, also called solid state ignition, uses an electronic control circuit and distributor pickup coil to operate the ignition coil. An electronic ignition is more dependable than a system of contact points because there are no mechanical breakers to burn out or wear down. This avoids trouble with ignition timing. An electronic ignition is capable of producing a significantly higher secondary voltage over a point system. This allows for a wider spark plug gap and high voltage to burn lean air-fuel mixtures. Leaner mixtures are now used to reduce emissions and improve fuel economy.

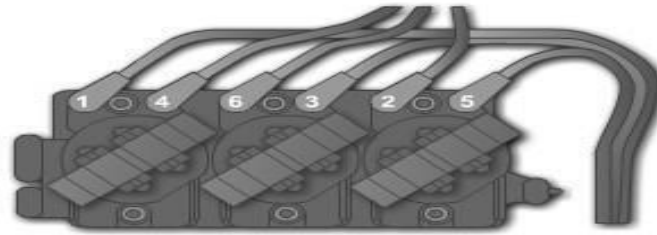
Distributorless Ignition

A distributorless ignition uses multiple ignition coils, a coil control unit, engine sensors, and a computer to operate the spark plugs.

The electronic coil module consists of more than one coil and a coil control unit that operates the coils. The module's control unit performs about the same function as the Ignition Control Module (ICM) in an electronic ignition. It will analyze data from different engine sensors and the system computer.

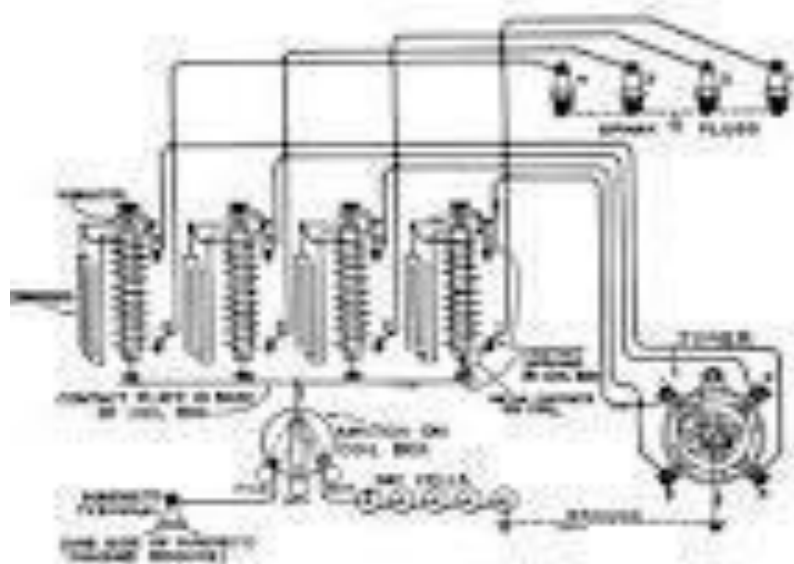
The coils are wired so they fire two spark plugs at the same time. One plug will fire on the power stroke and the other will fire on the exhaust stroke (there is no effect on engine operation). This system reduces the number of ignition coils required to operate the engine. For instance, a four cylinder would have only two coils, a six cylinder would have only three coils and so on.

A camshaft position sensor is installed in place of the ignition distributor. It sends an electrical pulse to the coil control unit providing data on camshaft and valve position.



Battery or Coil Ignition System

Battery ignition system consists of a battery of 6 or 12 volts, ignition switch, induction coil, contact breaker, condenser, distributor and spark plugs. A typical battery ignition system for four cylinder SI engine has been shown in Figure



The primary circuit consists of battery, switch, primary winding and contact breaker point which is grounded. A condenser is also connected in parallel to the contact breaker points. One end of the condenser is grounded and other connected to the contact breaker arm. It is provided to avoid sparking at contact breaker points so as to increase their life.

The secondary ignition circuit consists of secondary winding distributors and spark plugs. All spark plugs are grounded.

The ignition coil steps up 12 volts (or 6 volt) supply to a very high voltage which may range from 20,000 to 30,000 volts. A high voltage is required for the spark to jump across the spark plug gap. This spark ignites the air-fuel mixture at the end of compression stroke. The rotor of the distributor revolves and distributor sends the current to the four segments which send the current to different spark plugs. For a 4-cylinder engine the cam of the contact breaker has four lobes. Therefore, it makes and breaks the contact of the primary circuit four times in every revolution of cam. Because of which current is distributed to all the spark plugs in some definite sequence. The primary winding of ignition coil has less number of turns (e.g. 200 turns) of thick wire. The secondary winding has relatively large number of turns (e.g. 20,000 turns) of thin wire. When ignition switch is turned on, the current flows from battery to the primary winding. This produces magnetic field in the coil. When the contact point is open, the magnetic field collapses and the movement of the magnetic field induces current in the secondary winding of ignition coil. As the number of turns in secondary winding are more, a very high voltage is produced across the terminals of secondary.

The distributor sends this high voltage to the proper spark plug which generates spark for ignition of fuel-air mixture. In this way, high voltage current is passed to all spark in a definite order so that combustion of fuel-air mixture takes place in all cylinders of the engine.

A ballast resistor is connected in series in primary circuit to regulate the current. At the time of starting this resistor is bypassed so that more current can flow in this circuit. The breaker points are held by a spring except when they are forced apart by lobes of the cam.

Advantages

- a) Low initial cost.
- b) Better spark at low speeds and better starting than magnetos system.
- c) Reliable system.
- d) No problems due to adjustment of spark timings.
- e) Simpler than magnetos system.

Disadvantages

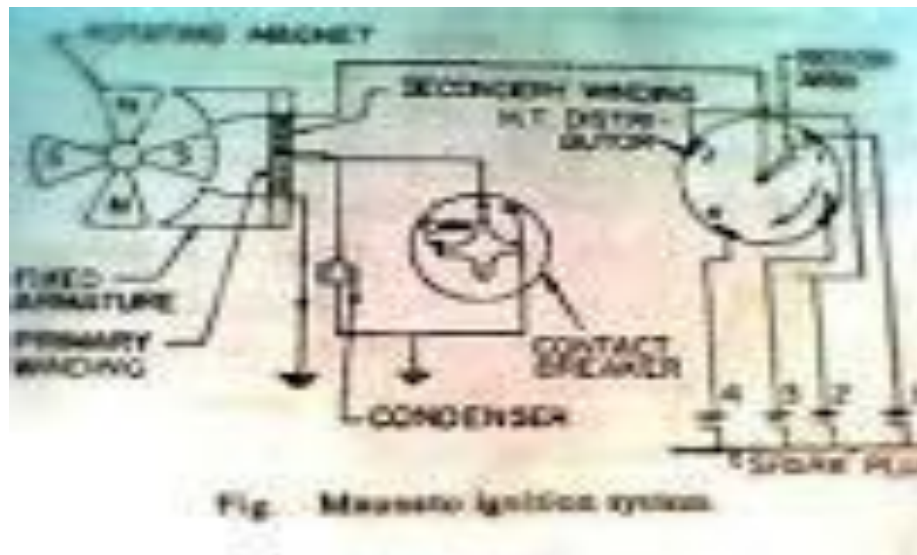
- a) Battery requires periodical maintenance.
- b) In case of battery malfunction, engine cannot be started.

Magneto-ignitionSystem

This system consists of a magneto in place of a battery. So, the magneto produces and supplies current in primary winding. Rest of the system is same as that in battery ignition system.

A magneto ignition system for a four-cylinder SI engine has been shown in Figure.

The magneto consists of a fixed armature having primary and secondary windings and a rotating magnetic assembly. This rotating assembly is driven by the engine.



Rotation of magnet generates current in primary winding having small number of turns. Secondary winding having large number of turns generates high voltage current which is supplied to distributor. The distributor sends this current to respective spark plugs. The magnet may be of rotating armature type or rotating magnet type. In rotating armature type magneto, the armature having primary and secondary windings and the condenser rotates between the poles of a stationary horseshoe magnet. In magneto, the magnetic field is produced by permanent magnets.

Advantages

- Better reliability due to absence of battery and low maintenance.
- Better suited for medium and high speed engines.
- Modern magneto systems are more compact, therefore require less space.

Disadvantages

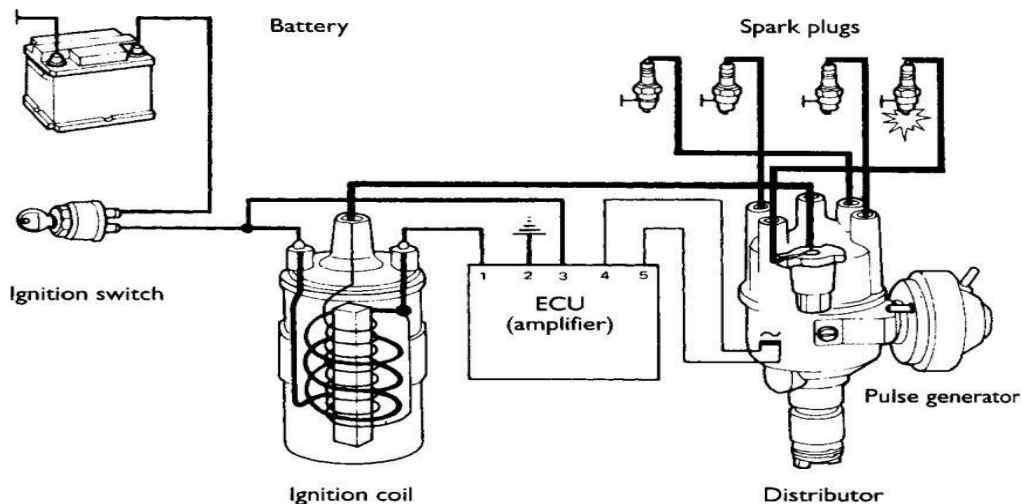
- Adjustment of spark timings adversely affects the voltage.

- b) Burning of electrodes is possible at high engine speeds due to high voltage.
- c) Cost is more than that of magneto ignition systems.

Electronic Ignition System

Electronic ignition is now fitted to almost all spark ignition vehicles. This is because the conventional mechanical system has some major disadvantages.

- Mechanical problems with the contact breakers, not the least of which is the limited lifetime.
- Current flow in the primary circuit is limited to about 4A or damage will occur to the contacts – or at least the lifetime will be seriously reduced.
- Legislation requires stringent emission limits, which means the ignition timing must stay in tune for a long period of time.



- Weaker mixtures require more energy from the spark to ensure successful ignition, even at very high engine speeds.

These problems can be overcome by using a power transistor to carry out the switching function and a pulse generator to provide the timing signal. Very early forms of electronic ignition used the existing contact breakers as the signal provider. This was a step in the right direction but did not overcome all the mechanical limitations, such as contact bounce and timing slip. Most (all?) systems nowadays are constant energy, ensuring high performance ignition even at high engine speeds. Figure the circuit of a standard electronic ignition system.

Distributorless Ignition

Distributorless ignition systems (DIS) have been around for almost a decade now, and have eliminated much of the maintenance that used to be associated with the ignition system. No distributor means there's no distributor cap or rotor to replace, and no troublesome vacuum or mechanical advance mechanisms to cause timing problems. Consequently, DIS ignition systems are pretty reliable.

Even so, that doesn't mean they are trouble-free. Failures can and do occur for a variety of reasons. So knowing how to identify and diagnose common DIS problems can save you a lot of guesswork the next time you encounter an engine that cranks but refuses to start, or one that runs but is missing or misfiring on one or more cylinders.

If an engine cranks but won't start, is it fuel, ignition or compression? Ignition is usually the easiest of the three to check because on most engines, all you have to do is pull off a plug wire and check for spark when the engine is cranked. On coil-over-plug DIS systems, there are no plug wires so you have to remove a coil and use a plug wire or adapter to check for a spark.

If there's no spark in one cylinder, try another. No spark in any cylinder would most likely indicate a failed DIS module or crankshaft position sensor. Many engines that are equipped with electronic fuel injection also use the crankshaft position sensor signal to trigger the fuel injectors. So, if there's no spark and no injector activity, the problem is likely in the crank position sensor. No spark in only one cylinder or two cylinders that share a coil would tell you a coil has probably failed.

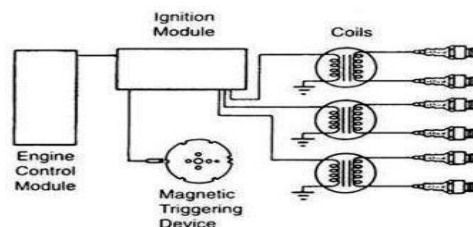
Principle of Operation

Distributorless ignition system used extensively by Ford incorporates all the features of electronic spark advance systems, except a special type of ignition coil is used in place of HT distributor. The system is generally used only on four- or six-cylinder engines, because the control system becomes highly complex for higher number of cylinders. It works on the principle of the lost spark. The spark distribution is achieved by the help of two double ended coils, fired alternately by the ECU. The ignition timing is obtained from a crankshaft speed and position sensor as well as through load and other corrections. When one of the coils is fired, a spark is delivered to two engine cylinders, either 1 and 4, or 2 and 3. The spark delivered to the cylinder

on the compression stroke ignites the mixture as normal. Whereas the spark in other cylinder causes no effect, as this cylinder is just completing its exhaust stroke. Because of the low compression and the exhaust gases in the lost spark cylinder, the voltage only of about 3 kV is needed for the spark to jump the gap. This is similar to cap voltage of the more conventional rotor arm. The spark produced in the compression cylinder is therefore not affected. It may be noted that the spark on one of the cylinders jumps from the earth electrode to the spark plug centre, whereas in others it jumps from the centre electrode. This is because the energy available from modern constant energy systems produces a spark of suitable quality in either direction. However, the disadvantage is that the spark plugs may wear more quickly with this system.

System Components

The distributorless ignition system contains three main components such as the electronic module, a crankshaft position sensor and the distributorless ignition coil. Many systems use a manifold absolute pressure sensor, integrated in the module. The module functions almost in the same way as the electronic spark advance system. The crankshaft position sensor operates in the same way to the one described in the previous section. It is also a reluctance sensor positioned against the front of the flywheel or against a reluctor wheel just behind the front crankshaft pulley. The tooth pattern uses 36-1 teeth, which are spaced at 10 degree intervals, with a gap for the 36th tooth. The missing tooth is located at 90 degrees before TDC for numbers 1 and 4 cylinders. This reference position is located at a fixed number of degrees before TDC for calculating the timing in ignition point as a fixed angle after the reference mark. The distributorless ignition coil has a low tension winding, which is supplied with battery voltage to a centre terminal. The appropriate half of the winding is then connected to earth in the module. The high tension windings are separate and are specific to cylinders 1 and 4, or 2 and 3. Figure 16.57 shows a typical Ford distributorless ignition coil. The Citroen 2 CV has been using a double ended ignition coil together with contact breakers for many years.



FaultDiagnosis

The distributorless ignition system is highly reliable, specifically because it does not have any moving parts. The normal manufacturer's servicing schedule should be adhered to for the replacement of spark plugs (often after 19,200km operation). Some problems may be faced when trying to examine HT oscilloscope patterns, due to the lack of a king lead. This can be overcome by using a special adapter and shifting the sensing clip to each lead in turn. An ohmmeter can be used to test the distributorless ignition coil. The resistance of each primary winding should be 0.5 Q and the secondary windings between 11 and 16 kQ. The coil produces open circuit voltage in excess of 37 kV. The plug leads have integral retaining clips to prevent water ingress and vibration problems. The maximum resistance for the HT leads is 30 kQ per lead. Except for the octane adjustment on some models no service adjustments are possible with this system. This adjustment involves connecting two pins together on the module for normal operation, or earthing one pin or the other to change to a different fuel. The actual procedure as specified by the manufacturer for each particular model should be followed.

DIGITALIGNITIONSYSTEM

Electronic Ignition System is as follows:

- a) Capacitance Discharge Ignition system
- b) Transistorized system
- c) Piezo-electric Ignition system
- d) The Texaco Ignition system

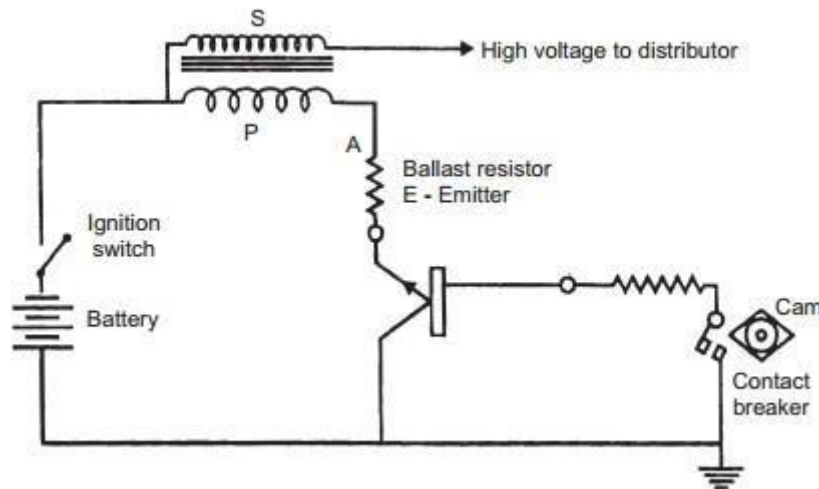
Transistorized Assisted Contact (TAC) Ignition System

Advantages

- a) The low breaker-current ensures longer life.
- b) The smaller gap and lighter point assembly increased dwell time minimize contact bounce and improve repeatability of secondary voltage.
- c) The low primary inductance reduces primary current drop-off at high speeds.

Disadvantages

- As in the conventional system, mechanical breaker points are necessary for timing the spark.
- The cost of the ignition system is increased.
- The voltage rise-time at the spark plug is about the same as before.



Ignition System Maintenance

Ignition troubles can result from a myriad of problems, from faulty components to loose or damaged wiring. Unless the vehicle stops on the job, the operator will report trouble indications, and the equipment is turned into the shop for repairs.

Unless the trouble is known, a systematic procedure should be followed to locate the cause. Remember, electric current will follow the path of least resistance. Trace ignition wiring while checking for grounds, shorts, and open circuits. Bare wires, loose connections, and corrosion are found through visual inspection.

After checking the system, you must evaluate the symptoms and narrow down the possible causes. Use your knowledge of system operation, a service manual troubleshooting chart, basic testing methods, and common sense to locate the trouble.

Many shops have specialized equipment that provides the mechanic a quick and easy means of diagnosing ignition system malfunctions.

SparkPlugsandSparkPlugWires

Bad spark plugs cause a wide range of problems such as misfiring, lack of power, poor fueleconomy, and hard starting. After prolonged use, the spark plug tip can become coated with ash,oil, and other residue. The spark plug electrodes can also burn and widen the gap. This makes itmoredifficultfor the ignitionsystemtoproduceanelectricarcbetweenthe electrodes.

To readspark plugs closely,inspectandanalyze the condition of each spark plugtipandinsulator. This will give you information on the condition of the engine, the fuel system, and theignitionsystem.Theconditionscommonlyencounteredwithspark plugsareasfollows:

- Normal operation condition appears as brown to grayish-tan deposit with slight electrode wear. This indicates the correct spark plug heat range and mixed periods of high- andlow-speed operation. Spark plugs having this appearance may be cleaned, regapped, andreinstalled.
- Carbon-fouled condition appears as dry,fluffy black carbon.This results from slowoperating speeds, wrong heat range (too cold), weak ignition (weak coil, worn ignitioncables, etc.), faulty automatic choke, sticking manifold control valve, or rich air-fuelmixture. Sparkplughavingthisappearancemaybecleaned,regapped,andreinstalled.
- Oil-fouled condition appears as wet, oily deposits with very little electrode wear. Thisresults from worn rings, scored cylinder, or leaking valve seals. Spark plugs having thisappearancemaybedegreased,cleaned,regapped,andreinstalled.
- Ash-fouled condition appears as red, brown, yellow, or white colored deposits whichaccumulateon theinsulator.Thisresultsfrompoorfuel quality oroilenteringthecylinder. Most ash deposits have no adverse effect on the operation of the spark plug aslong as they remain in a powdery state. However, under certain conditions these depositsmelt and form a shiny glaze on the insulator which, when hot, acts as a good electricalconductor,allowingcurrenttofollowthedepositinsteadofjumpingthegap,thusshorti ng out the spark plug. Spark plugs having a powdery condition may be cleaned,regapped,and replaced.Thosehaving aglazeddepositmustbereplaced.
- Preignitondamageappearsasburnedorblisteredinsulatortipsandbadlywornelectrodes. This results from over-advanced timing, low octane fuel, wrong spark plugheat range (too high), or a lean air-fuel mixture. Spark plugs having thiscondition mustbe replacedwithoneshavingtherecommendedheatrange.

When a spark plug is removed for cleaning or inspection, it should be regapped to the engine manufacturer's specifications. New spark plugs must also be regapped before installation, as they may have been dropped or mishandled and may not be within specifications.

Use a wire type feeler gauge to measure spark plug gap. Slide the feeler gauge between the electrodes. If needed, bend the side electrode until the feeler gauge fits snugly. The gauge should drag slightly as it is pulled in and out of the gap. Spark plug gaps vary from 0.030 inch on contact point ignition to over 0.060 inch on electronic ignition systems.

When you are reinstalling spark plugs, tighten them to the manufacturer's recommendation. Some manufacturers give spark plug torque, while others recommend bottoming the plugs on the seat and then turning an additional one-quarter to one-half turn. Refer to the manufacturer's service manual for exact procedures.

A faulty spark wire can either have a burned or broken conductor, or it could have deteriorated insulation. Most spark plug wires have a resistance conductor that can be easily separated. If the conductor is broken, voltage and current cannot reach the spark plug. If the insulation is faulty, sparks may leak through to ground or to another wire instead of reaching the spark plugs. To test the wires for proper operation, you can perform the following:

- A spark plug wire resistance test will check the spark plug conductor or coil wire conductor. To perform a wire resistance test, connect an ohmmeter across each end of the wire. The meter will read internal wire resistance in ohms. Typically resistance should NOT be over 5,000 ohms per inch or 100,000 ohms total. Since specifications vary, compare your reading to the manufacturer's specifications.
- A spark plug wire insulation test checks for sparks arcing through the insulation to ground. To perform an insulation test with the hood up, block out as much light as possible, start the engine, and move a grounded screwdriver next to the insulation. If a spark jumps through the insulation to the screwdriver, the wire is bad. Spark plug leakage is a condition in which electric arcs pass through the wire insulation.

Installing new spark plug wire is a simple task, especially when you replace one wire at a time. Wire replacement is more complicated if all of the wires have been removed. Then you must use engine firing order and cylinder numbers to route each wire correctly. You can use service manuals to trace the wires from each distributor cap to the correct spark plug.

Distributor Service

The distributor is critical to the proper operation of the ignition system. The distributor senses engine speed, alters ignition timing, and distributes high voltage to the spark plugs. If any part of the distributor is faulty, engine performance suffers.

When problems point to possible distributor cap or rotor troubles, remove and inspect them. The distributor cap should be carefully checked to see that sparks have not been arcing from point to point. Both interior and exterior must be clean. The firing points should not be eroded, and the interior of the towers must be clean. The rotor tip, from which the high-tension spark jumps to each distributor cap terminal, should not be worn. It also should be checked for excessive burning, carbon trace, looseness, or other damage. Any wear or irregularity will result in excessive resistance to the high-tension spark. Make sure that the rotor fits snugly on the distributor shaft.

A common problem arises when a **carbon trace** forms on the inside of the distributor cap or outer edge of the rotor. The carbon trace will short coil voltage to ground or to a wrong terminal lug in the distributor cap. A carbon trace will cause the spark plugs to either fire poorly or not at all.

Using a drop light, check the inside of the distributor cap for cracks and carbon trace. Carbon trace is black, which makes it hard to see on a black colored distributor cap. If you find carbon trace or a crack, replace the distributor cap or rotor.

In a contact point distributor, there are two areas of concern: the contact points and the condenser.

Bad contact points cause a variety of engine performance problems. These problems include high speed missing, no-start problems, and many other ignition troubles.

Visually inspect the surfaces of the contact points to determine their condition. Points with burned and pitted contacts or with a worn rubbing block must be replaced.

However, if the points look good, point resistance should be measured. Turn the engine over until the points are closed and then use an ohmmeter to connect the meter to the primary point lead and to ground. If resistance reading is too high, the points are burned and must be replaced. A faulty condenser may leak (allows some DC current to flow to ground), be shorted (direct electrical connection to ground), or be opened (broken lead wire to the condenser foils). If the condenser is leaking or open, it will cause point arcing and burning. If the condenser is shorted,

primary current will flow to ground and the engine will not start. To test a condenser using an ohmmeter, connect the meter to the condenser and to ground. The meter should register slightly and then return to infinity (maximum resistance). Any continuous reading other than infinity indicates that the condenser is leaking and must be replaced.

Installing contact points is a relatively simple procedure but must be done with precision and care in order to achieve good engine performance and economy. Make sure the points are clean and free of any foreign material.

Proper alignment of the contact points is extremely important. If the faces of the contact points do not touch each other fully, heat generated by the primary current cannot be dissipated and rapid burning takes place. The contacts are aligned by bending the stationary contact bracket only. Never bend the movable contact arm. Ensure the contact arm-rubbing block rests flush against the distributor cam. Place a small amount of an approved lubricant on the distributor cam to reduce friction between the cam and rubbing block.

Once you have installed the points, you can adjust them using either a feeler gauge or dwell meter.

To use a feeler gauge to set the contact points, turn the engine over until the points are fully open. The rubbing block should be on top of a distributor cam lobe. With the points open, slide the specified thickness feeler gauge between them. Adjust the points so that there is a slight drag on the blade of the feeler gauge. Depending upon point design, use a screwdriver or Allen wrench to open and close the points. Tighten the hold-down screws and recheck the point gap. Typically point gap settings average around .015 inch for eight-cylinder engines and .025 inch for six- and four-cylinder engines. For the gap set of the engine you are working on, consult the manufacturer's service manual.

Ensure the feeler gauge is clean before inserting it between the points. Oil and grease will reduce the service life of the points.

To use a dwell meter for adjusting contact points, connect the red lead of the dwell meter to the distributor side of the ignition coil (wire going to the contact points).

Connect the black lead to ground.

If the distributor cap has an adjustment window, the points should be set with the engine running. With the meter controls set properly, adjust the points through the window of the distributor cap.

using an Allen wrench or a special screwdriver. Turn the point adjustment screw until the dwellmeterreads withinmanufacturer'sspecification.

However, if the distributor cap does not have an adjustment window, remove the distributor capandgroundtheignition coil wire.Then cranktheengine; thisaction will simulateengineoperationandallowpointadjustmentwiththedwellmeter.

Dwell specifications vary with the number of cylinders. An eight-cylinder engine requires 30degrees of dwell. An engine with few cylinders requires more dwell time. Always consult themanufacturer's servicemanualforexactdwellvalues.

Dwell should remain constant as engine speed increases or decreases. However, if the distributoris worn, you can have a change in the dwell meter reading. This is known as dwell variation. Ifdwell varies more than 3 degrees, the distributor should either be replaced or rebuilt. Also, achangeinthepointgapordwellwillchangeignitiontiming.

Forthisreason,thepointsshouldalwaysbeadjustedbeforeignitiontiming.

Most electronic ignition distributors use a pickup coil to sense trigger wheel rotation and speed.The pickup coil sends small electrical impulses to the ECU. If the distributor fails to producetheseelectricalimpulsesproperly,theignitionsystemcanquitfunctioning.

A faulty pickup coil will produce a wide range of engine troubles, such as stalling, loss of power,or failure to start at all. If the small windings in the pickup coil break, they will cause problemsonly under certain conditions. It is important to know how to test a pickup coil for properoperation.

Thepickupcoilohmmeterertestcomparesactualpickupresistancewiththemanufacturer'sspecifications.

If the resistance is too high or low, the pickup coil is faulty. To perform this test,connect the ohmmeter across the output leads of the pickup coil. Wiggle the wire to the pickupcoil and observe the meter reading. This will assist in locating any breaks in the wires to thepickup. Also, using a screwdriver, lightly tap the coil. This action will uncover any break in thecoilwindings.

Pickup coil resistance varies between 250 and 1,500 ohms, and you should refer to the servicemanual for exact specifications. Any change in the readings during the pickup coil resistance testindicates the coil should be replaced. Refer to the manufacturer's service manual for instructionsfortheremovalandreplacementofthepickupcoil.

Once you have replaced the pickup coil, you need to set the pickup coil air gap. The air gap is the space between the pickup coil and the trigger wheel tooth. To obtain an accurate reading, use a nonmagnetic feeler gauge (plastic or brass).

With one tooth of the trigger wheel pointing at the pickup coil, slide the correct thickness nonmagnetic feeler gauge between the trigger wheel and the pickup coil. Move the pickup coil in or out until the correct air gap is set. Tighten the pickup coil screws and double check the air gap setting.

Ignition Timing

The ignition system must be timed so the sparks jump across the spark plug gaps at exactly the right time. Adjusting the distributor on the engine so that the spark occurs at this correct time is called setting the ignition timing. The ignition timing is normally set at idle or a speed specified by the engine manufacturer. Before measuring engine timing, disconnect and plug the vacuum advance hose going to the distributor. This action prevents the vacuum advance from functioning and upsetting the readings.

Make the adjustment by loosening the distributor hold-down screw and turning the distributor in its mounting.

Turning the distributor housing against the distributor shaft rotation advances the timing. Turning the distributor housing with shaft rotation retards the timing.

When the ignition timing is too advanced, the engine may suffer from spark knock or ping. When ignition timing is too retarded, the engine will have poor fuel economy and power and will be very sluggish during acceleration. If extremely retarded, combustion flames blowing out of the open exhaust valve can overheat the engine and crack the exhaust manifolds. A timing light is used to measure ignition timing. It normally has three leads—two small leads that connect to the battery, and one larger lead that connects to the number one spark plug wire. Depending on the type of timing light, the large lead may clip around the plug wire (inductive type), or it may need to be connected directly to the metal terminal of the plug wire (conventional type).

Draw a chalk line over the correct timing mark. This will make it easier to see. The timing marks may be either on the front cover in harmonic balance of the engine, or they may be on the engine flywheel.

With the engine running, aim the flashing timing light at the timing mark and reference pointer. The flashing timing light will make the mark appear to stand still. If the timing mark and the pointer do not line up, turn the distributor in its mounting until the timing mark and pointer are aligned. Tighten the distributor hold-down screw.

Keep your hands and the timing light leads from the engine fan and belts. The spinning fan and belts can damage the light or cause serious personal injury.

After the initial ignition timing, you should check to see if the automatic advance mechanism is working. This can be done by keeping the timing light flashes aimed at the timing mark and gradually increasing speed. If the advance mechanism is operating, the timing mark should move away from the pointer. If the timing mark fails to move as the speed increases or it hesitates and then suddenly jumps, the advance mechanism is faulty and should either be repaired or replaced. Replace the distributor vacuum line and see if timing still conforms to the manufacturer's specifications. If the timing is NOT advanced when the vacuum line is connected and the throttle is opened slightly, the vacuum advance unit or tubing is defective.

Most computer-controlled ignition systems have no provision for timing adjustment. A few, however, have a tiny screw or lever on the computer for small ignition timing changes.

A computer-controlled ignition system has what is known as base timing. Base timing is the ignition timing without computer-controlled advance. Base timing is checked by disconnecting a wire connector in the computer wiring harness. This wire connector may be found on or near the engine or sometimes next to the distributor. When in the base timing mode, a conventional timing light can be used to measure ignition timing. If ignition timing is not correct, you can rotate the distributor, in some cases, or move the mounting for the engine speed or crank position sensor. If base timing cannot be adjusted, the electronic control unit or other components will have to be replaced.

Always refer to the manufacturer's service manual when timing a computer-controlled ignition system.

CHAPTER-6

Light

LIGHTING

The lighting circuit includes the battery, vehicle frame, all the lights, and various switches that control their use. The lighting circuit is known as a single-wire system since it uses the vehicle frame for the return.

The complete lighting circuit of a vehicle can be broken down into individual circuits, each having one or more lights and switches. In each separate circuit, the lights are connected in parallel, and the controlling switch is in series between the group of lights and the battery.

The marker lights, for example, are connected in parallel and are controlled by a single switch. In some installations, one switch controls the connections to the battery, while a selector switch determines which of two circuits is energized. The headlights, with their high and low beams, are an example of this type of circuit.

In some instances, such as the courtesy lights, several switches may be connected in parallel so that any switch may be used to turn on the light. When a wiring diagram is being studied, all light circuits can be traced from the battery through the ammeter to the switch (or switches) to the individual light.

LAMPS

Small gas-

filled incandescent lamps with tungsten filaments are used on automotive and construction equipment. The filament supplies the light when sufficient current is flowing through them. They are designed to operate on a low voltage current of 12 or 24 volts, depending upon the voltage of the vehicle will be of the single- or double-contact small one-half-candlepower bulbs to large 50-candlepower bulbs. The greater the candlepower of the lamp, the more current it requires when lighted. Lamps are identified by a number on the base. When you replace a lamp in a vehicle, be sure the new lamp is of the proper rating. The lamps within a lamp are rated as to size by the candlepower (luminous intensity) they produce. They range

from types with nibs to fit bayonet sockets, as shown in lamp is also whiter than a conventionallamp,whichincreaseslightingability.



HEADLIGHTS

Theheadlightsaresealedbeamlampsthatilluminate the road during nighttime operation. Headlights consist of a lens, one or two elements, and a integral reflector. When current flowsthrough the element, the element gets white hot and glows. The reflector and lens direct the lightforward.

Many modern passenger vehicles use halogen headlights. A halogen headlight contains a small,inner halogen lamp surrounded by a conventional sealed housing. A halogen headlamp increaseslight output by 25 percent with no increase in current. The halogen The headlight switch is anON/ OFF switch and rheostat(variable resistor) in the dash panel) or on the steering column.The headlight switch controls current flow to the lamps of the headlight system. The rheostat isforadjustingthebrightnessoftheinstrumentpanellights.

Military vehicles that are used in tactical situations are equipped with a headlight switch that isintegrated with the blackout lighting switch. An important feature of this switch is that it reducethe possibilityofaccidentallyturningonthelightsinablackout.

With no lights on, the main switch can be turned to the left without operating the mechanicalswitch to get blackout marker lights (including blackout taillights and stoplights) and blackoutdriving lights. But for stoplights for daylight driving or headlights for ordinary night driving, youmustfirstliftthe mechanical switch lever andthen turn the main switch to the right. Theauxiliaryswitch givespanellightswhenthemainswitchisinanyofitsONpositions.Butitwill

give parking light only when the main switch is
in service drive (to the extreme right). When the main switch



is off, the auxiliary switch should not be moved from the OFF position.

DIMMERSWITCH

The dimmer switch controls the high and low headlamp beam function and is normally mounted on the floorboard or steering column. When the operator activates the dimmer switch, it changes the electrical connection to the headlights.

In one position, the high beams are turned on, and, in the other position, the dimmer changes them to low beam.

AimingHeadlights

The headlights can be aimed using a mechanical aimer or a wall screen. Either method assures that the headlight beams point in the direction specified by the vehicle manufacturer. Headlights that are aimed too high can blind oncoming vehicles. Headlights that are aimed too low or to one side will reduce the operator's visibility.

Halogen

Most vehicles made today use a halogen headlamp bulb insert.

These are small heat-resistant quartz bulbs filled with halogen gas to protect the filament from damage. They are inserted to a headlight lens assembly. This assembly will protect the light bulb and disperse the light given from the halogen bulb.

Never touch the glass surface of a halogen or HID light. The oil in your skin and the high operating temperature can shorten the life of the bulb or cause the glass to shatter.

The white halogen bulb increases visibility and increases output by about 25% while drawing the same amount of current. A typical low beam bulb is 45 watts and a high beam bulb is 65 watts.

High Intensity Discharge (HID)

A high intensity discharge lamp does not use a filament. Instead, a high voltage electric arc flows between two electrodes in the bulb. This arc excites xenon vapor contained in the bulb, producing a bright blue-white light. An external ballast is used to convert battery voltage into high-voltage AC to create and maintain the arc. When it is first turned on, an igniter works with the ballast to provide several thousand volts to establish the arc. The ballast then provides as many as 450 volts to maintain the arc. As the bulb warms up, the voltage needed to maintain the lamp can be as low as 50 volts.

HID lights produce more light than a standard halogen bulb while consuming less power, and they last longer.

HID bulbs require a large amount of voltage for startup: beware of a shock hazard. Also, HID bulbs are under pressure when hot and may lead to an explosion hazard.

Light Emitting Diode (LED)

A light emitting diode is a semiconductor that will emit light when electrically energized.

The LED converts electricity directly into light;

this makes it much more efficient than a normal filament bulb.

The LED is an N-

P junction with special doped semiconductors. When energized, photons (electrons) are emitted from the semiconductor substance. We then see these photons as light.

Backup Light System

The backup light system provides visibility to the rear of the vehicle at night and a warning to the pedestrians, whenever the vehicle is shifted into reverse. The backup light system has a fuse, gear shift or transmission-

mounted switch, two backup lights, and wiring to connect these components.

The backup light switch closes

the light circuit when the transmission is shifted into reverse. The most common backup light switch configurations are as follows:

- The backup light switch mounted on the transmission and operated by the shift lever.
- The backup light switch mounted on the steering column and operated by the gear shift linkage.
- The transmission- or gear shift-mounted backup light switch on many automatic transmission equipped vehicles is combined with the neutral safety switch.

Stop-Light System

All vehicles that are used on public highways must be equipped with a stop light system.

The stop light system consists of a fuse, brake light switch, two rear warning lights, and related wiring.

The brake light switch on most automotive equipment is mounted on the brake pedal. When the brake pedal is pressed, it closes the switch and turns on the rear brake lights.

On construction and tactical equipment, you may find a pressure light switch. This type of switch uses either air or hydraulic pressure, depending on the equipment. It is mounted on the master cylinder of the hydraulic brake system or is attached to the brake valve on an air brake system. As the brakes are depressed, either air or hydraulic pressure builds on a diaphragm inside the switch. The diaphragm closes, allowing electrical current to turn on the rear brake lights.

Emergency Light System

The emergency light system, also termed hazard warning system, is designed to signal oncoming traffic that a vehicle has stopped, stalled, or pulled over to the side of the road. The system consists of a switch, flasher unit, four turn-signal lights, and related wiring. The switch is normally a push-pull switch mounted on the steering column.

When the switch is closed, current flows through the emergency flasher. Like a turn signal flasher, the emergency flasher opens and closes the circuit to the lights. This causes all four turn signals to flash.

DimmerSwitchBlackoutLights(MilitaryApplication)

Military vehicles used in tactical situations are equipped with a headlight switch that is integrated with the blackout lighting switch. The blackout select is operated by a 2-way rocker switch. This switch allows an operator to select between normal or blackout mode. To select normal mode, press the smaller bottom switch up and hold, while pressing the main switch down. To select blackout mode, instead of pressing the main switch down, press it up.

The purposes of blackout lighting areas follows:

- To provide the vehicle operator with sufficient light to operate the vehicle in total darkness.
- To provide minimum lighting to show vehicle position to a leading or trailing vehicle when illumination must be restricted to a level not visible to a distant enemy.

The three types of blackout lighting areas follows:

- The blackout driving light is designed to provide a white light of 25 to 50 candlepower at a distance of 10 feet directly in front of the light. The light is shielded so that the top of the low beam is directed not less than 2 degrees below the horizon. The beam distribution on a level road at 100 feet from the light is 30 feet wide.
- The blackout stop/taillight and marker light are designed to be visible at a horizontal distance of 800 feet and not visible beyond 1,200 feet. The lights also must be invisible from the air above 400 feet with the vehicle on upgrades and downgrades of 20 percent. The horizontal beam cutoff for the lights is 60 degrees right and left of the beam's centerline at 100 feet.
- The composite light is currently the standard light unit that is used on the rear of tactical military vehicles. The composite light combines service, stop, tail, and turn signals with blackout stop and tail. Blackout lighting control switches are designed to prevent the service lighting from being turned on accidentally.

Turn-Signal Systems

Vehicles that operate on any public road must be equipped with turn signals. These signals indicate left or right turn by providing a flashing light signal at the rear and front of the vehicle.

The turn-signal switch is located on the steering column. It is designed to shut off automatically after the turn is completed by the action of the canceling cam.

A common design for a turn signal system is to use the same rear light for both the stop and turn signals. This somewhat complicates the design of the switch in that the stoplight circuit must pass through the turn-signal switch. When the turn signal switch is turned off, it must pass stoplight current to the rear lights. As a left or right turn signal is selected, the stoplight circuit is open and the turn signal circuit is closed to the respective rear light.

The turn signal flasher unit creates the flashing of the turn signal lights. It consists basically of a bimetallic (two dissimilar metals bonded together) strip wrapped in a wire coil. The bimetallic strip serves as one of the contact points.

When the turn signals are actuated, current flows into the flasher—first through the heating coil to the bimetallic strip, then through the contact points, then out of the flasher, where the circuit is completed through the turn-signal light. This sequence of events will repeat a few times a second causing a steady flashing of the turn signals.

CHAPTER–7

Accessories&Control

HORN

The horn currently used on automotive vehicles is the electric vibrating type. The electric vibrating horn system typically consists of a fuse, horn button switch, relay, horn assembly, and related wiring. When the operator presses the horn button, it closes the horn switch and activates the horn relay. This completes the circuit, and current is allowed through the relay circuit and to the horn.

Most horns have a diaphragm that vibrates by means of an electromagnetic. When the horn is energized, the electromagnet pulls on the horn diaphragm. This movement opens a set of contact points inside the horn. This action allows the diaphragm to flex back towards its normal position. This cycle is repeated rapidly. The vibrations of the diaphragm within the air column produce the note of the horn.

Tone and volume adjustments are made by loosening the adjusting locknut and turning the adjusting nut. This very sensitive adjustment controls the current consumed by the horn.

Increasing the current increases the volume. However, too much current will make the horn sputter and may lock the diaphragm.

When an electric horn will not produce sound, check the fuse, the connections, and test for voltage at the horn terminal. If the horn sounds continuously, a faulty horn switch is the most probable cause. A faulty horn relay is another cause of horn problems. The contacts inside the relay may be burned or stuck together.

WINDSHIELD WIPERS

The windshield wiper system is one of the most important safety factors on any piece of equipment. A typical electric windshield wiper system consists of a switch, motor assembly, wiper linkage and arms, and wiper blades. The description of the components is as follows:

The WINDSHIELD WIPERS SWITCH is a multiposition switch, which may contain a rheostat. Each switch position provides for different wiping speeds. The rheostat, if provided, operates the

delay mode for a slow wiping action. This permits the operator to select a delayed wipe from every 3 to 20 seconds. A relay is frequently used to complete the circuit between the battery voltage and the wiper motor.

The WIPER MOTOR ASSEMBLY operates on one, two, or three speeds. The motor has a worm gear on the armature shaft that drives one or two gears, and, in turn, operates the linkage to the wiper arms. The motor is a small, shunt wound dc motor. Resistors are placed in the control circuit from the switch to reduce the current and provide different operating speeds.

The WIPER LINKAGE and ARMS transfer motion from the wiper motor transmission to the wiper blades. The rubber wiper blades fit on the wiper arms.

The WIPER BLADE is a flexible rubber squeegee-type device. It may be steel or plastic backed and is designed to maintain total contact with the windshield throughout the stroke. Wiper blades should be inspected periodically. If they are hardened, cut, or split, they are to be replaced. When electrical problems occur in the windshield wiper system, use the service manual and its wiring diagram of the circuit. First check the fuses, electrical connections, and all grounds. Then proceed with checking the components.

Fuel Gauge

Most fuel gauges are operated electrically and are composed of two units—the gauge, mounted on the instrument panel; and the sending unit, mounted in the fuel tank. The ignition switch is included in the fuel gauge circuit, so the gauge operates only when the ignition switch is in the ON position. The basic fuel gauge circuit uses a variable resistor to operate either a bimetal or magnetic type indicator assembly.

Located in the trunk, the sending unit consists of a float and arm that operate a variable resistor. When the fuel tank is empty, the float is down so the variable resistance will be high. This allows only a little amount of current to flow through the fuel gauge. The bimetal arm stays cool and the needle shows that the tank is low.

When the tank is filled, the float rises to the top of the tank. This slides the wiper to the low resistance position on the variable resistor. More current then flows through the fuel gauge circuit. The bimetal arm heats up and warps to move the needle to the full side of the gauge.

The THERMOSTATIC FUEL GAUGE, SELF-REGULATING contains an electrically heated bimetallic strip that is linked to a pointer. A bimetallic strip consists of two dissimilar metals that, when heated, expand at different rates, causing it to deflect or bend. In the case of this gauge, the deflection of the bimetallic strip results in the movement of the pointer, causing the gauge to give a reading. The sending unit consists of a hinged arm with a float on the end. The movement of the arm controls a grounded point that makes contact with another point which is attached to an electrically heated bimetallic strip. The heating coils in the tank and the gauge are connected to each other in series.

The THERMOSTATIC FUEL GAUGE, EXTERNALLY REGULATED differs from a self-regulating system in the use of a variable resistance fuel tank sending unit and an external voltage-limiting device. The sending unit controls the gauge through the use of a rheostat (wirewound resistance unit whose value varies with its effective length). The effective length of the rheostat is controlled in the sending unit by a sliding brush that is operated by the float arm. The power supply to the gauge is kept constant through the use of a voltage limiter. The voltage limiter consists of a set of contact points that are controlled by an electrically heated bimetallic arm.

The THERMOSTATIC FUEL GAUGE, DIFFERENTIAL TYPE is similar to the other type of thermostatic fuel gauges, except that it uses two electrically heated bimetallic strips that share equally in operating and supporting the gauge pointer. The pointer position is obtained by dividing the available voltage between the two strips (differential). The tank unit is a rheostat type similar to that already described; however, it contains a wire-wound resistor that is connected between external terminals of one of the gauges of the bimetallic strip. The float arm moves a grounded brush that raises resistance progressively to one terminal, while lowering resistance to the other. This action causes the voltage division and resulting heat differential to the gauge strips formulating the gauge reading. The MAGNETIC FUEL GAUGE consists of a pointer mounted on an armature. Depending upon the design, the armature may contain one or two poles. The gauge is motivated by a magnetic field that is created by two separate magnetic coils that are contained in the gauge. One of these coils is connected directly to the battery,

producing a constant magnetic field. The other coil produces a variable field, whose strength is determined by a rheostat-type tank unit. The coils are placed 90 degrees apart.

Pressure Gauge

A pressure gauge is used widely in automotive and construction applications to keep track of such things as oil pressure, fuel line pressure, air brake system pressure, and the pressure in the hydraulic systems. Depending on the equipment, a mechanical gauge, an electrical gauge, or an indicator lamp may be used.

Oil Pressure Gauge

A pressure gauge is used widely in automotive and construction applications to keep track of such things as oil pressure, fuel line pressure, air brake system pressure, and the pressure in the hydraulic systems.

Depending on the equipment, a mechanical gauge, an electrical gauge, or an indicator lamp may be used.

The mechanical gauge uses a thin tube to carry an actual pressure sample directly to the gauge. The gauge basically consists of a hollow, flexible C shaped tube called a bourbon tube. As air or fluid pressure is applied to the bourbon tube, it tends to straighten out. As it straightens, the attached pointer moves, giving a reading.

The electric gauge may be of the thermostatic or magnetic type as previously discussed. The sending unit that is used with each gauge type varies as follows:

- The sending unit used with the thermostatic pressure gauge uses a flexible diaphragm that moves a grounded contact. The contact that mates with the grounded contact is attached to a bimetallic strip. The flexing of the diaphragm, which is done with pressure changes, varies the point of tension. The different positions of the diaphragm produce gauge readings.
- The sending unit used with the magnetic-type gauge also translates pressure into the flexing of a diaphragm. In the case of the magnetic gauge sending unit, however, the diaphragm operates as a rheostat.

The indicator lamp (warning light) is used in place of a gauge on many vehicles. The warning light, although not an accurate indicator, is valuable because of its high visibility in the event of a

low-pressure condition. The warning light receives battery power through the ignition switch. The circuit to ground is completed through a sending unit.

The sending unit consists of a pressure-sensitive diaphragm that operates a set of contact points that are calibrated to turn on the warning light whenever pressure drops below a set pressure.

TEMPERATURE GAUGE

The temperature gauge is a very important indicator in construction and automotive equipment. The most common uses are to indicate engine coolant, transmission, differential oil, and hydraulic system temperature. Depending on the type of equipment, the gauge may be mechanical, electric, or a warning light.

The ELECTRIC GAUGE may be the thermostatic or magnetic type, as described previously. The sending unit (fig. 2-83) that is used varies, depending upon application.

- The sending unit that is used with the thermostatic gauge consists of two bimetallic strips, each having a contact point. One bimetallic strip is heated electrically. The other strip bends to increase the tension of the contact points. The different positions of the bimetallic strips create the gauge readings.
- The sending unit that is used with the magnetic gauge contains a device called a thermistor. A thermistor is an electronic device whose resistance decreases proportionally with an increase in temperature.
- The magnetic gauge contains a bourbon tube and operates by the same principles as the mechanical pressure gauge.
- The indicator lamp (warning light) operates by the same principle as the indicator light previously discussed.

CHAPTER-8

Wiringsystem

AUTOMOTIVEWIRING

Electrical power and control signals must be delivered to electrical devices reliably and safely so that the electrical system functions are not impaired or converted to hazards. To fulfill power distribution military vehicles, use one- and two-wire circuits, wiring harnesses, and terminal connections.

Among your many duties will be the job of maintaining and repairing automotive electrical systems. All vehicles are not wired in exactly the same manner; however, once you understand the circuit of one vehicle, you should be able to trace an electrical circuit of any vehicle using wiring diagrams and color codes.

ONE-ANDTWO-WIRECIRCUITS

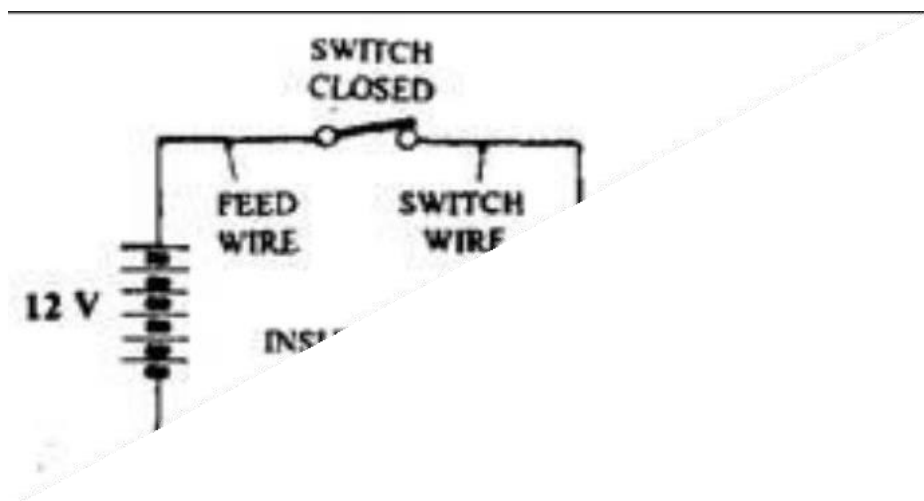
Tracing wiring circuits, particularly those connecting lights or warning and signal devices, is no simple task. The branch circuits making up the individual systems have one wire to conduct electricity from the battery to the unit requiring it and ground connections at the battery and the unit to complete the circuit. These are called ONE-WIRE CIRCUITS or branches of a GROUND RETURN SYSTEM. In automotive electrical systems with branch circuits that lead to all parts of the equipment, the ground return system saves installation time and eliminates the need for an additional wiring to complete the circuit. The all-metal construction of the automotive equipment makes it possible to use this system. The TWO-WIRE CIRCUIT requires two wires to complete the electrical circuit- one wire from the source of electrical energy to the unit it will operate, and another wire to complete the circuit from the unit back to the source of the electrical power. Two-wire circuits provide positive connection for light and electrical brakes on some trailers. The coupling between the trailer and the equipment, although made of metal and a conductor of electricity, has to be jointed to move freely. The rather loose joint or coupling does not provide the positive and continuous connection required to use a ground return system between two vehicles. The two-wire circuit is commonly used on equipment subject to frequent or heavy

vibrations. Tracked equipment, off-road vehicles (tactical), and many construction equipment are wired in this manner.

types of

Insulated Return

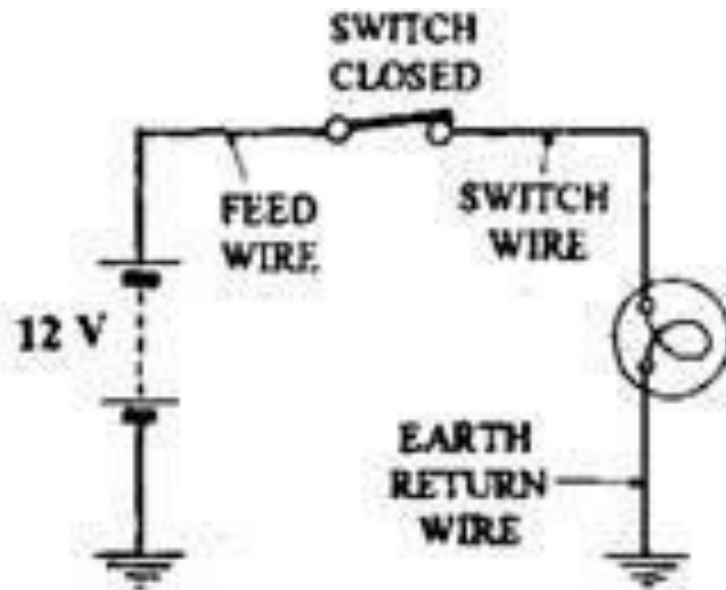
Some vehicle application requires a separate insulated-cable system for both the feed and the return conductors. It is also safer because with separate feed and return cables, it is practically impossible for the cable conductors to short even if chafed and touching any of the metal bodywork, as the body is not live since it is not a part of the electrical circuits. From the safety reasons, an insulated return is essential for vehicles transporting highly flammable liquids and gases, where a spark could very easily set off an explosion or a fire. The vehicles, such as coaches and double-decker buses use large quantity of plastic panelling. For these vehicles an insulated return is more reliable and safer. The insulated return of course uses extra cable that makes the overall wiring harness heavier, less flexible, and bulky, consequently increases the cost to some extent.



Earth Return

All electrical circuits incorporate both a feed and a return conductor between the battery and the component requiring supply of electrical energy. The vehicle with a metal structure can be used as one of the two conducting paths. This is called as the earth return (Fig.13.51). A live feed wire cable forms the other conductor. To complete the earth-return path, one end of a short thick cable is bolted to the chassis structure while the other end is attached to one of the battery

terminal posts. The electrical component is also required to be earthed in a similar way. Only one battery-to-chassis conductor is necessary for a complete vehicle's wiring system and similarly any number of separate earth-return circuits can be wired. An earth-return system, therefore, reduces and simplifies the amount of wiring so that it is easy to trace electrical faults.



Positive and Negative earthing

In the beginning, it was the general practice of earthing the negative terminal of the battery, whereas the positive current was supplied to the electrical units. The negative earthing system is still used in the cars of American make.

In some countries, the negative earth system has been replaced by the positive earth system. This is because the positive earth system possesses certain advantages over the negative earth system. These advantages concern the temperature of the central spark plug electrode and the corrosion of some parts, it is a well-known fact that the positive terminal of the lead acid battery is attacked by the liberated gases. If this is the live terminal and the negative terminal earthed, the exposed part of the positive will become corroded.

Further, it is also a well-known fact that the positive point of the spark plug wears away more quickly than the negative point. In view of this fact, the central electrode of the plug will wear away quickly if made of the positive when

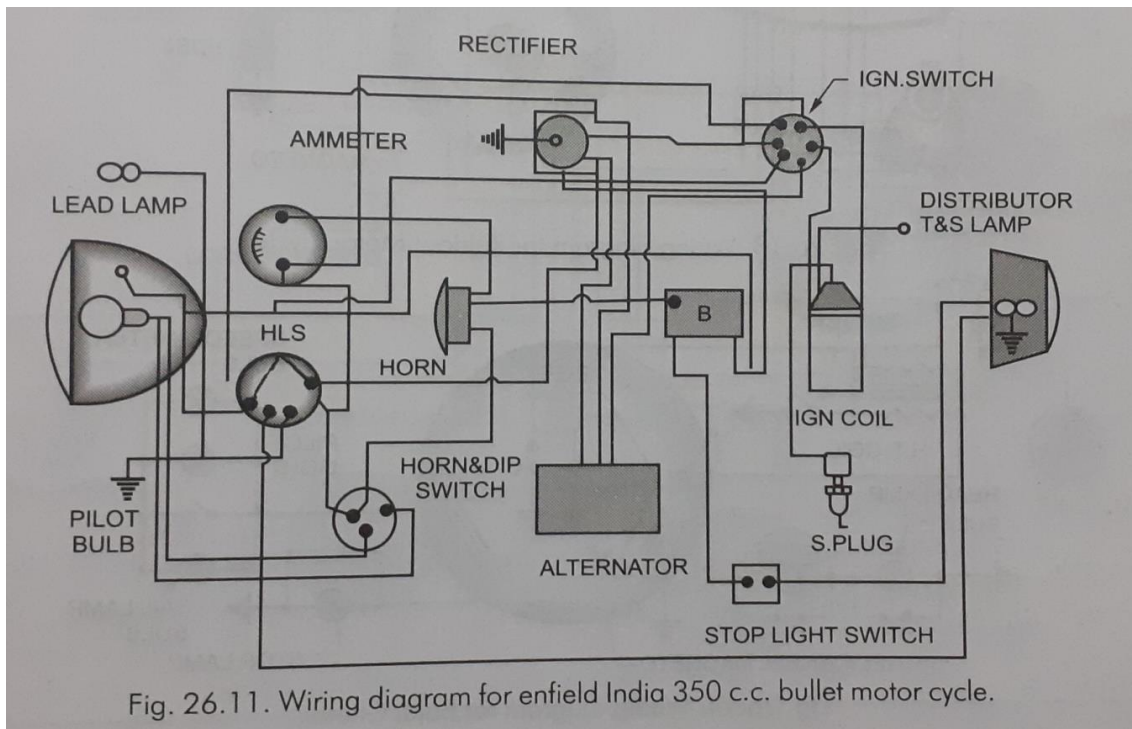
compared with the metal electrode of the shell. Alternatively, the central electrode of the plug will have much longer life if made negative by earthing the positive terminal of the battery.

Another factor which plays an important role in the voltage requirements of a spark plug is the temperature of the negative electrode. The hotter this electrode is, the lower will be the voltage required for producing the spark. It has also been observed that more uniform voltages at the sparking points have been obtained with the central electrode being negative. Further, the metal rotor arm of the distributor, if made negative, will wear at a slower rate than if it were made positive.

There is an additional advantage of the positive earth method in the ignition coil elements the primary circuit voltage is added to the secondary circuit voltage, making it more economical.

Recently, with the adoption of alternators in place of generators, it has been observed that employing negative earth method is advantageous along with an ac current rectifier having transistors and diodes. This has meant shifting back to the negative earth method. However it is worth mentioning that the important advantages of the positive earth for the ignition system still hold good.

Various Vehicle Wiring Diagrams



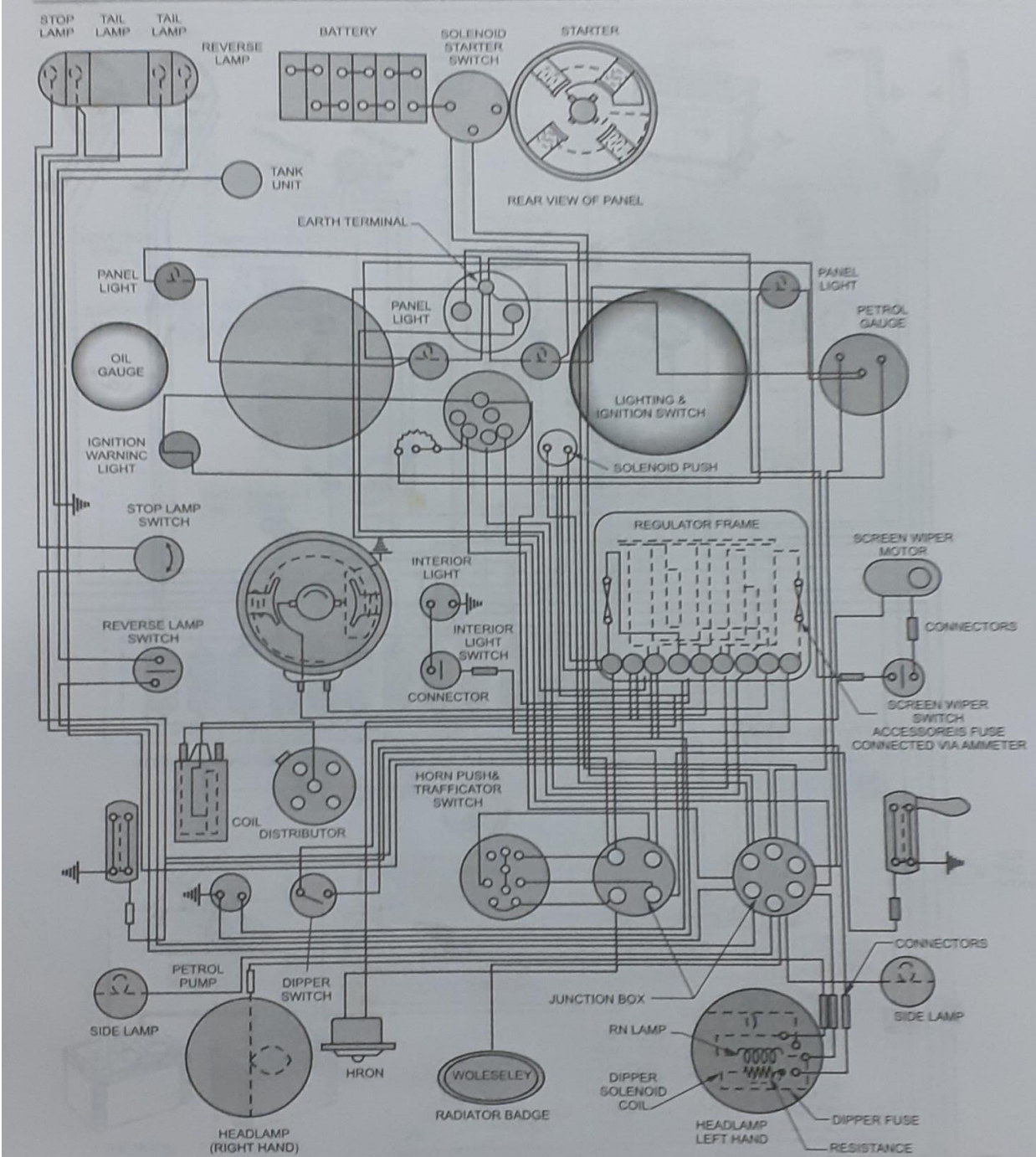


Fig. 26.18. Wiring diagram of Wolseley model "Ten" (1939).

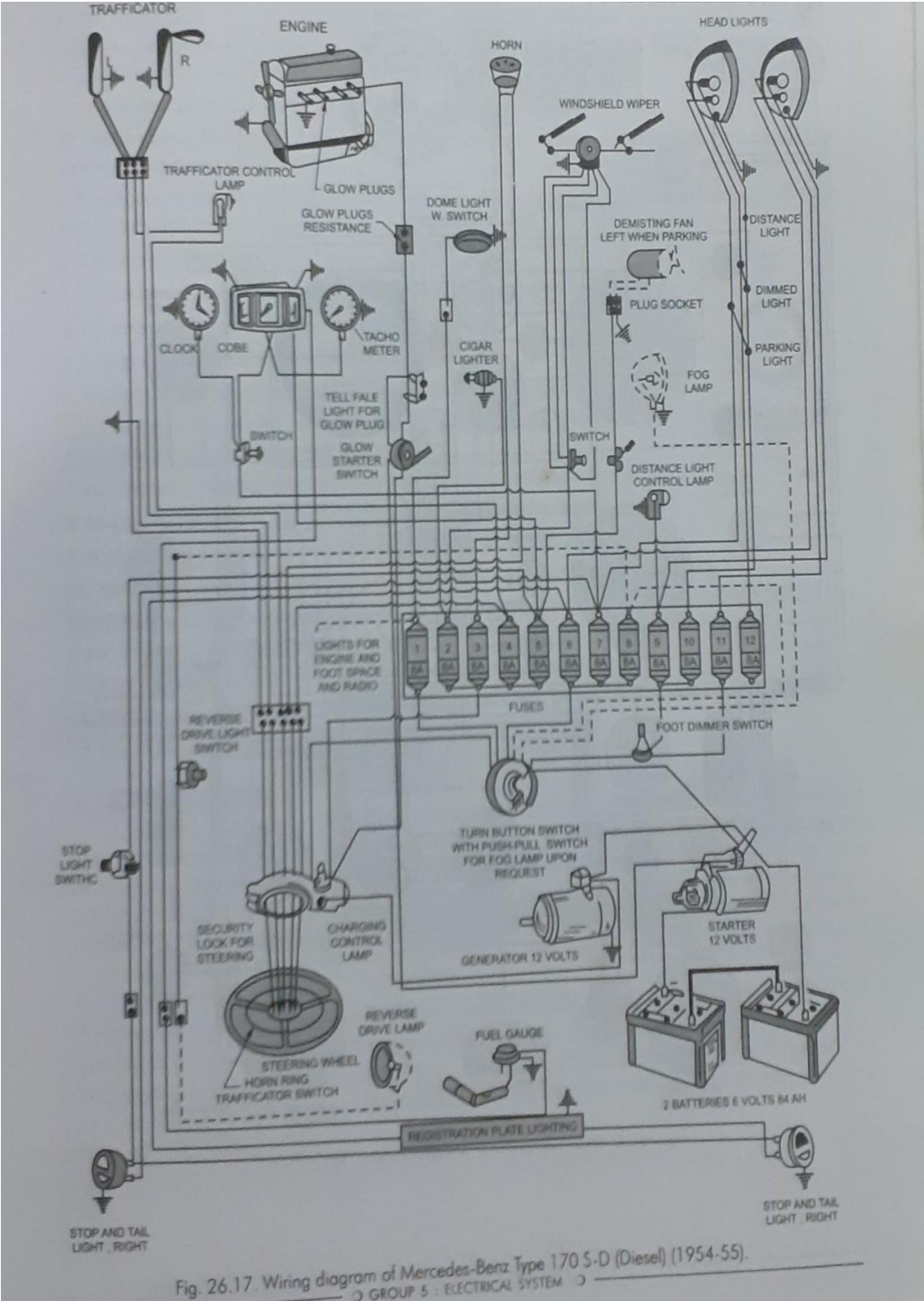


Fig. 26.17. Wiring diagram of Mercedes-Benz Type 170 S-D (Diesel) (1954-55). GROUP 5 - ELECTRICAL SYSTEM

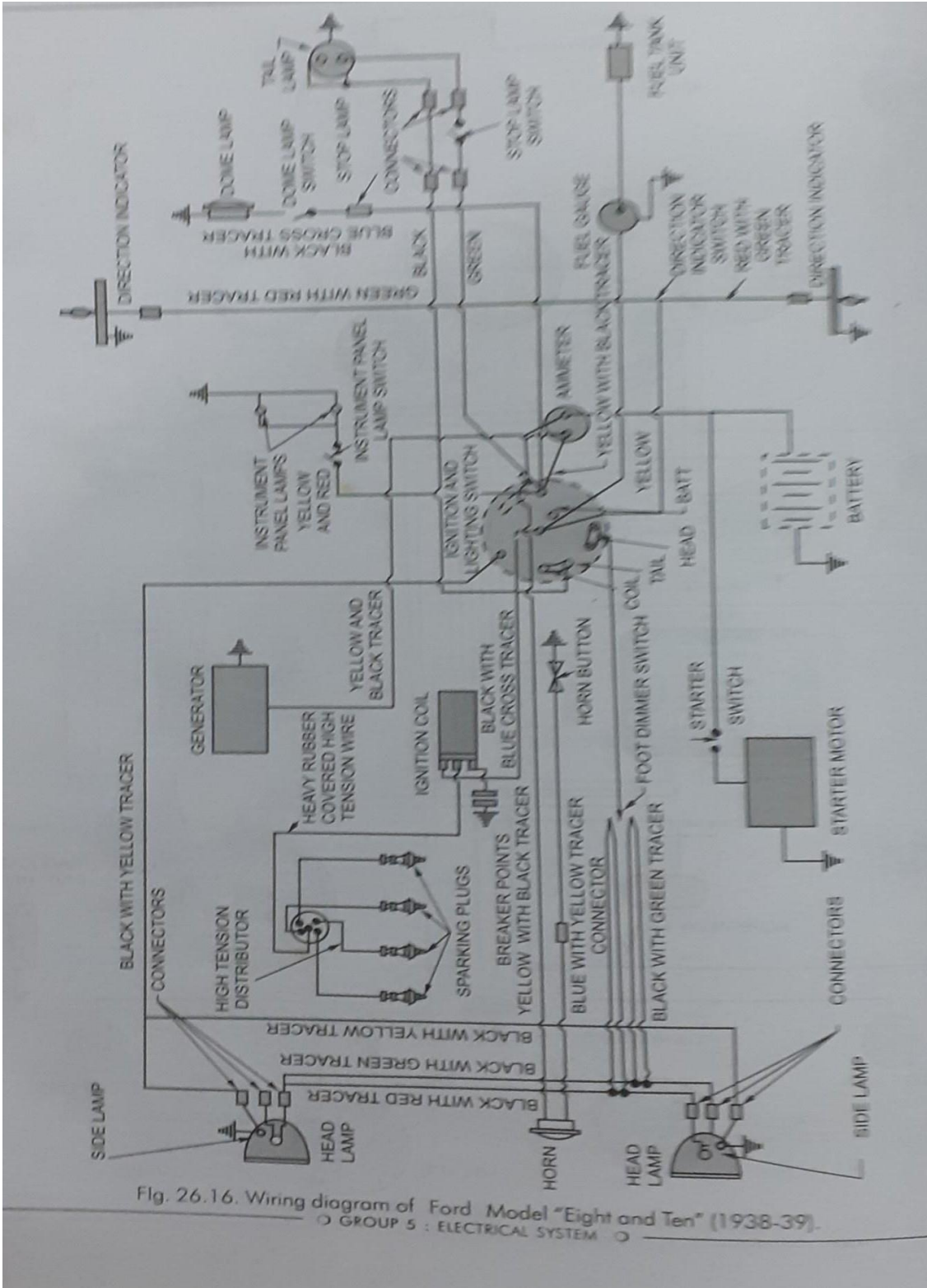
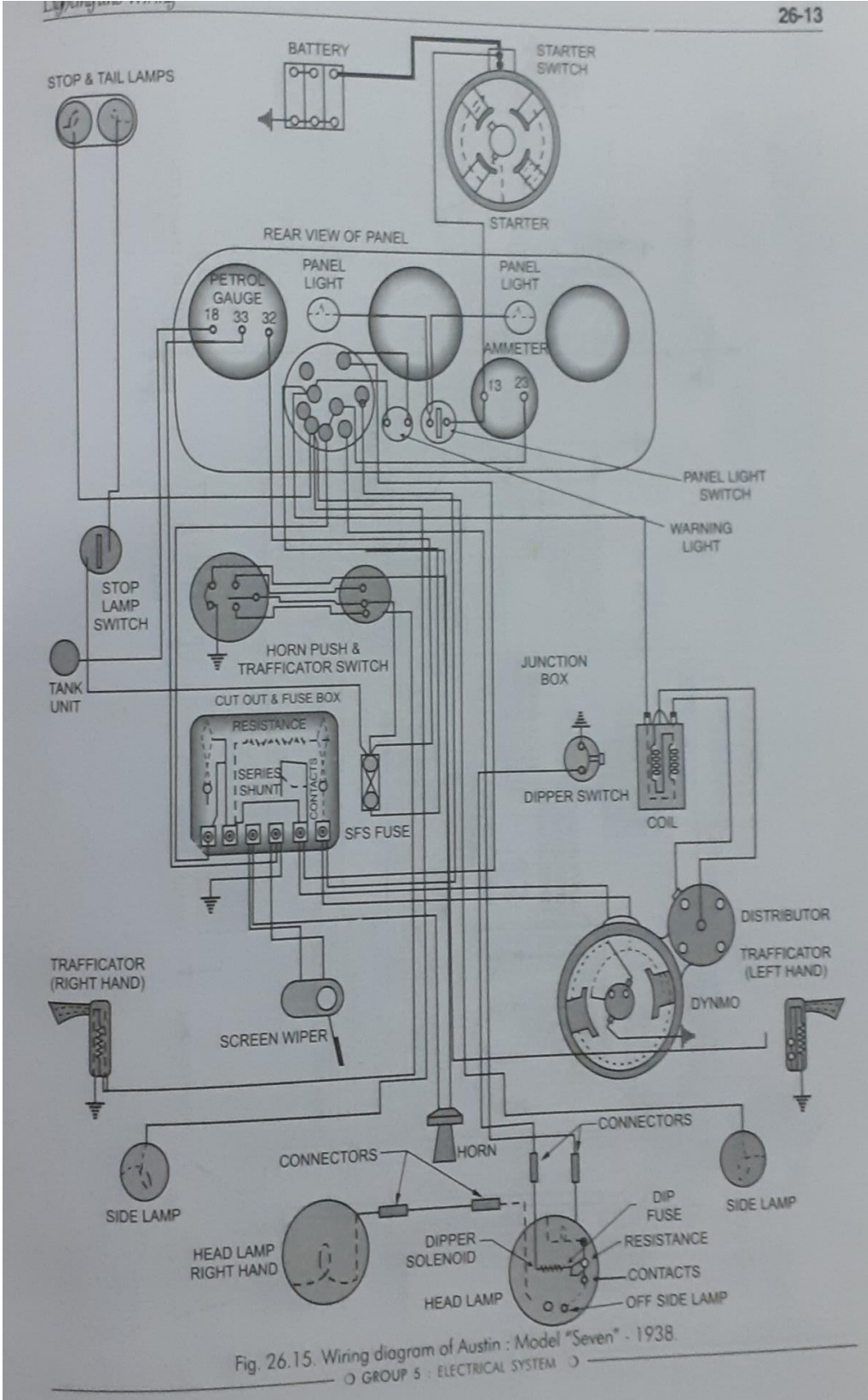


Fig. 26.16. Wiring diagram of Ford Model "Eight and Ten" (1938-39).
 ○ GROUP 5 : ELECTRICAL SYSTEM ○



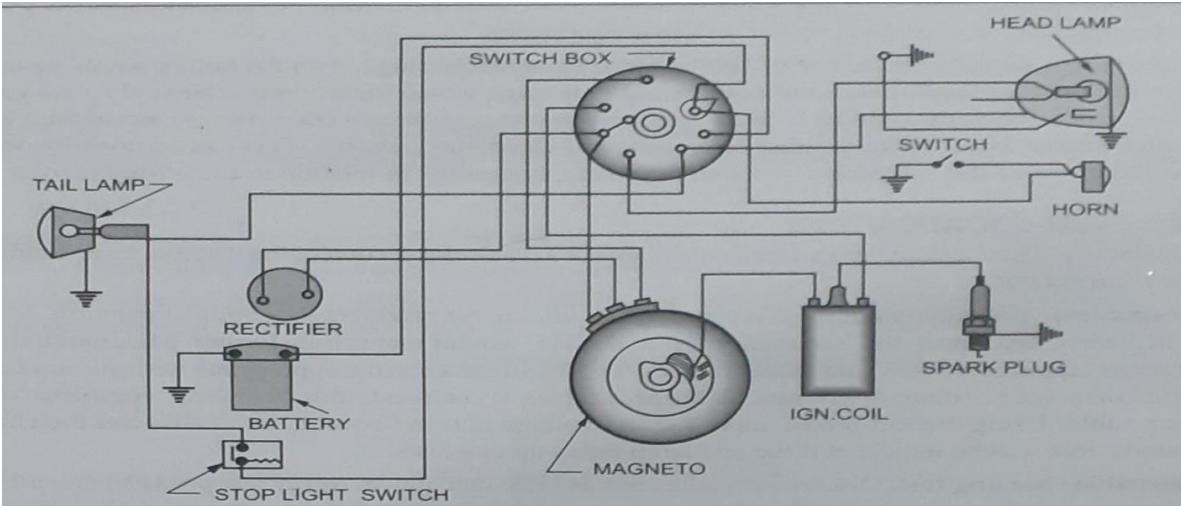


Fig. 26.12. Wiring diagram for Jawa/Yezdi 250 c.c. Motor Cycle.

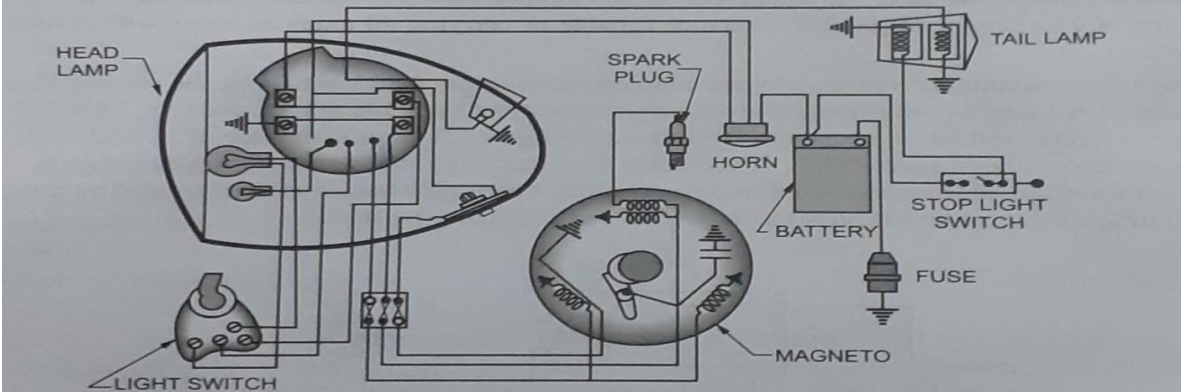


Fig. 26.13. Wiring diagram for Rajdoot Motor Cycle.

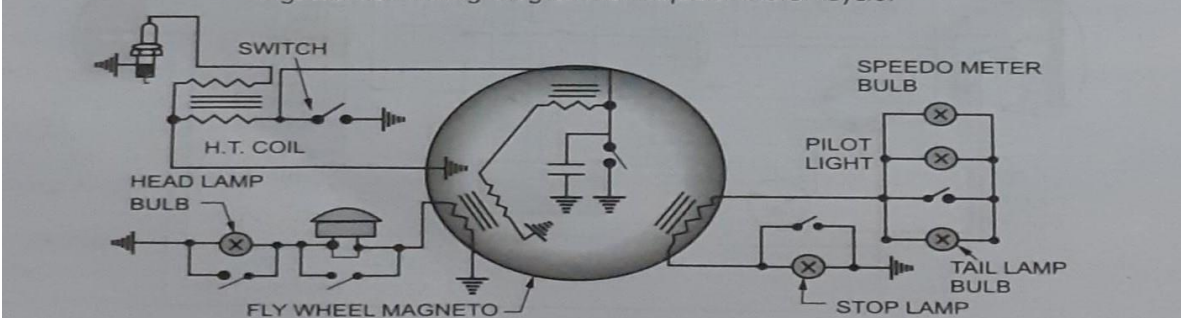


Fig. 26.14. Wiring diagram for Bajaj Chetak.