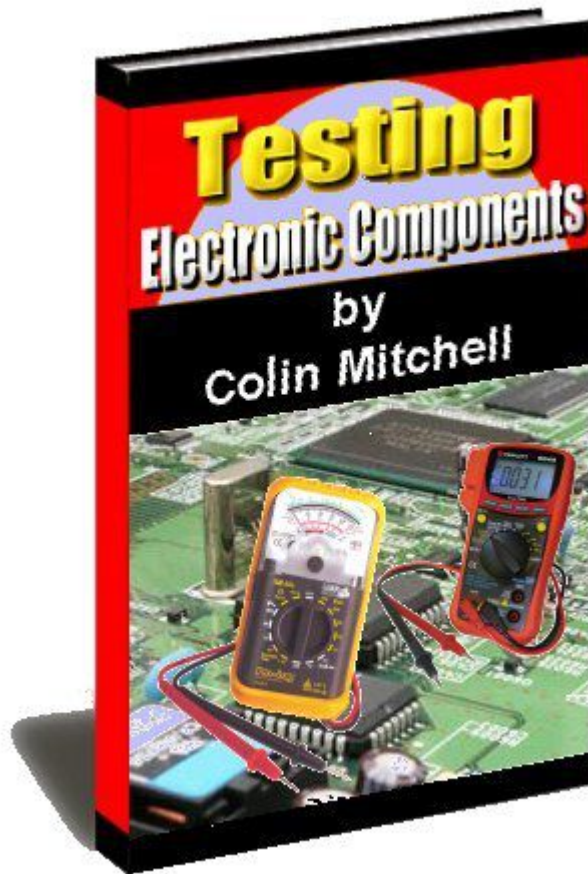


Testing Electronic Components



Brought to you by Colin Mitchell

This eBook shows you how to TEST COMPONENTS.
To do this you need "TEST GEAR." The best item of Test Gear is a
MULTIMETER. It can test almost 90% of all components. And that's what we will do in this
eBook:

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MULTIMETERS

There are two types:

DIGITAL and ANALOGUE

A **Digital Multimeter** has a set of digits on the display and an Analogue Multimeter has a scale with a pointer (or needle).

You really need both types to cover the number of tests needed for designing and repair-work. We will discuss how they work, how to use them and some of the differences between them.



DIGITAL AND ANALOGUE MULTIMETERS

BUYING A MULTIMETER

There are many different types on the market.

The cost is determined by the number of ranges and also the extra features such as diode tester, buzzer (continuity), transistor tester, high DC current and others.

Since most multimeters are reliable and accurate, buy one with the greatest number of ranges at the lowest cost.

This article explains the difference between a cheap analogue meter, an expensive analogue meter and a digital meter. You will then be able to work out which two meters you should buy.

Multimeters are sometimes called a "meter", a "VOM" (Volts-Ohms-Milliamps or Volt Ohm Meter) or "multi-tester" or even "a tester" - they are all the same.

USING A MULTIMETER

Analogue and digital multimeters have either a rotary selector switch or push buttons to select the appropriate function and range. Some Digital Multimeter (DMMs) are auto ranging; they automatically select the correct range of voltage, resistance, or current when doing a test. However you need to select the function.

Before making any measurement you need to know what you are checking. If you are measuring voltage, select the AC range (10v, 50v, 250v, or 1000v) or DC range (0.5v, 2.5v, 10v, 50v, 250v, or 1000v). If you are measuring resistance, select the Ohms range (x1, x10, x100, x1k, x10k). If you are measuring current, select the appropriate current range DCmA 0.5mA, 50mA, 500mA. Every multimeter is different however the photo below shows a low cost meter with the basic ranges.



The most important point to remember is this:

You must select a voltage or current range that is bigger or HIGHER than the maximum expected value, so the needle does not swing across the scale and hit the "end stop."

If you are using a DMM (Digital Multi Meter), the meter will indicate if the voltage or current is higher than the selected scale, by showing "OL" - this means "Overload." If you are measuring resistance such as 1M on the x10 range the "OL" means "Open Loop" and you will need to change the range. Some meters show "1" on the display when the measurement is higher than the display will indicate and some flash a set of digits to show over-voltage or over-current. A "-1" indicates the leads should be reversed for a "positive reading."

If it is an AUTO RANGING meter, it will automatically produce a reading, otherwise the selector switch must be changed to another range.



The Common (negative) lead ALWAYS fits into the "COM" socket. The red lead fits into the red socket for Voltage and Resistance. Place the red lead (red banana plug) into "A" (for HIGH CURRENT "Amps") or mA,μA for LOW CURRENT.

The black "test lead" plugs into the socket marked "-" "Common", or "Com," and the red "test lead" plugs into meter socket marked "+" or "V-W-mA." The third banana socket measures HIGH CURRENT and the positive (red lead) plugs into this. You DO NOT move the negative "-" lead at any time. The following two photos show the test leads fitted to a digital meter. The probes and plugs have "guards" surrounding the probe tips and also the plugs so you can measure high voltages without getting near the voltage-source.



Analogue meters have an "Ohms Adjustment" to allow for the change in voltage of the battery inside the meter (as it gets old).



"Ohms Adjust" is also called "ZERO SET"

The sensitivity of this meter is 20,000ohms/volt on the DC ranges and 5k/v on the AC ranges

Before taking a resistance reading (each time on any of the Ohms scales) you need to "ZERO SET" the scale, by touching the two probes together and adjust the pot until the needle reads "0" (swings FULL SCALE). If the pointer does not reach full scale, the batteries need replacing. Digital multimeters do not need "zero adjustment."

MEASURING VOLTAGE

Most of the readings taken with a multimeter will be VOLTAGE readings.

Before taking a reading, you should select the highest range and if the needle does not move up scale (to the right), you can select another range.

Always switch to the highest range before probing a circuit and keep your fingers away from the component being tested.

If the meter is Digital, select the highest range or use the auto-ranging feature, by selecting "V." The meter will automatically produce a result, even if the voltage is AC or DC.

If the meter is not auto-ranging, you will have to select $V=$ if the voltage is from a DC source or $V\sim$ if the voltage is from an AC source. DC means Direct Current and the voltage is coming from a battery or supply where the voltage is steady and not changing and AC means Alternating Current where the voltage is coming

from a voltage that is rising and falling.

You can measure the voltage at different points in a circuit by connecting the black probe to chassis. This is the 0v reference and is commonly called "Chassis" or "Earth" or "Ground" or "0v."

The red lead is called the "measuring lead" or "measuring probe" and it can measure voltages at any point in a circuit. Sometimes there are "test points" on a circuit and these are wires or loops designed to hold the tip of the red probe (or a red probe fitted with a mini clip).

You can also measure voltages ACROSS A COMPONENT. In other words, the reading is taken in PARALLEL with the component. It may be the voltage across a transistor, resistor, capacitor, diode or coil. In most cases this voltage will be less than the supply voltage.

If you are measuring the voltage in a circuit that has a [HIGH IMPEDANCE](#), the reading will be inaccurate, up to 90% !!!, if you use a cheap analogue meter.

Here's a simple case.

The circuit below consists of two 1M resistors in series. The voltage at the mid point will be 5v when nothing is connected to the mid point. But if we use a cheap analogue multimeter set to 10v, the resistance of the meter will be about 100k, if the meter has a sensitivity of 10k/v and the reading will be incorrect.

Here how it works:

Every meter has a sensitivity. The sensitivity of the meter is the sensitivity of the movement and is the amount of current required to deflect the needle FULL SCALE.

This current is very small, normally 1/10th of a milliamp and corresponds to a sensitivity of 10k/volt (or 1/30th mA, for a sensitivity of 30k/v).

If an analogue meter is set to 10v, the internal resistance of the meter will be 100k for a 10k/v movement. If this multimeter is used to test the following circuit, the reading will be inaccurate.

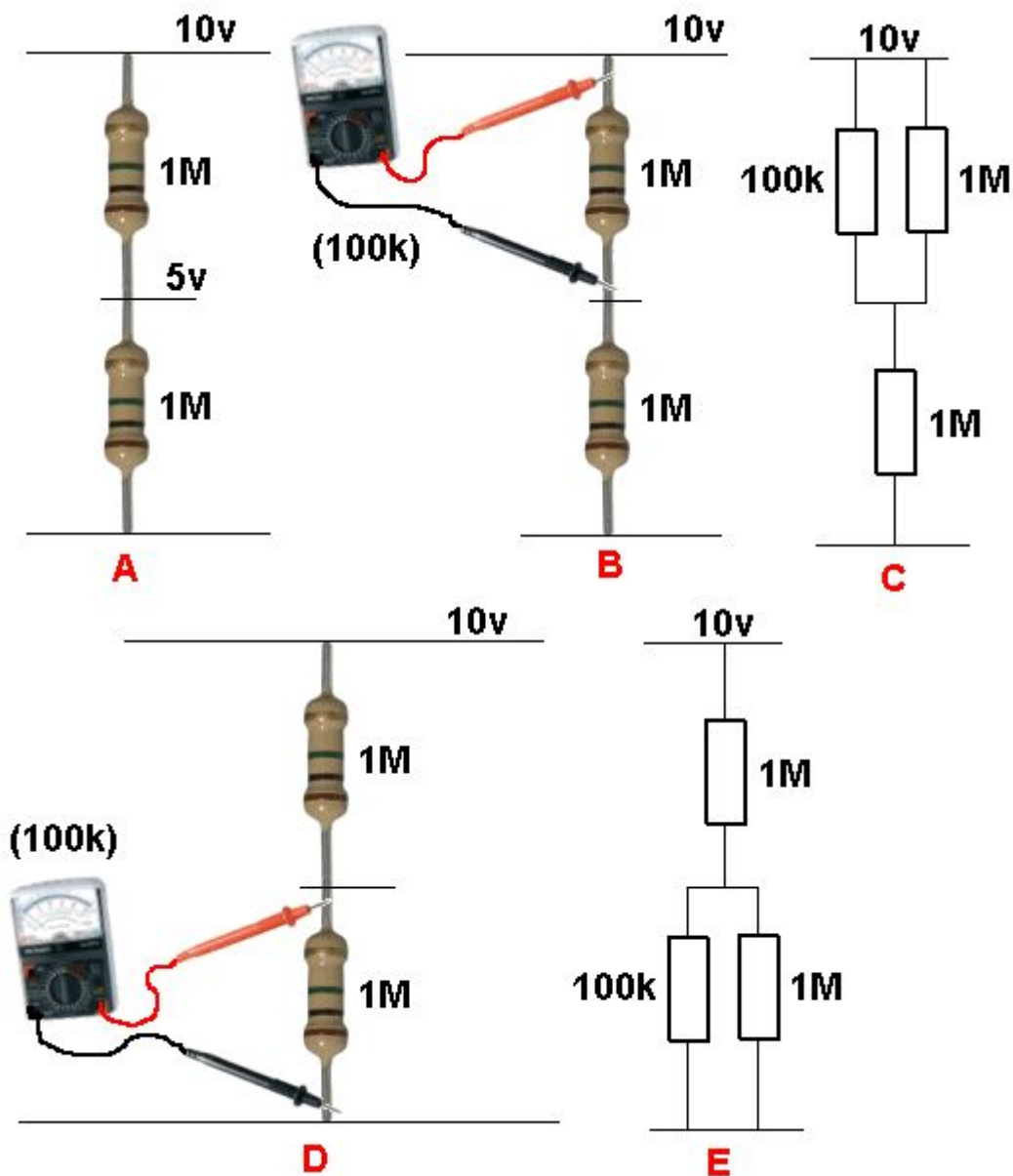
The reading should be 5v as show in diagram **A**.

But the analogue multimeter has an internal resistance of 100k and it creates a circuit shown in **C**.

The top 1M and 100k from the meter create a combined PARALLEL resistance of 90k. This forms a series circuit with the lower 1M and the meter will read less than 1v

If we measure the voltage across the lower 1M, the 100k meter will form a value of resistance with the lower 1M and it will read less than 1v

If the multimeter is 30k/v, the readings will be 2v. See how easy it is to get a totally inaccurate reading.

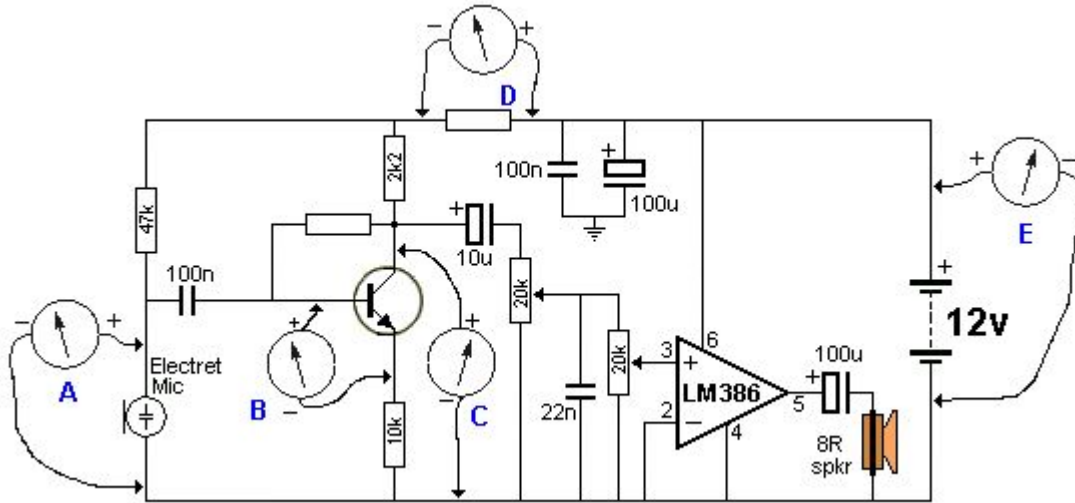


This introduces two new terms: **HIGH IMPEDANCE CIRCUIT** and "RESISTORS in **SERIES** and **PARALLEL**."

If the reading is taken with a Digital Meter, it will be more accurate as a DMM does not take any current from the circuit (to activate the meter). In other words it has a very HIGH input impedance. Most Digital Multimeters have a fixed input resistance (impedance) of 10M - no matter what scale is selected. That's the reason for choosing a DMM for high impedance circuits. It also gives a reading that is accurate to about 1%.

MEASURING VOLTAGES IN A CIRCUIT

You can take many voltage-measurements in a circuit. You can measure "across" a component, or between any point in a circuit and either the positive rail or earth rail (0v rail). In the following circuit, the 5 most important voltage-measurements are shown. Voltage "A" is across the electret microphone. It should be between 20mV and 500mV. Voltage "B" should be about 0.6v. Voltage "C" should be about half-rail voltage. This allows the transistor to amplify both the positive and negative parts of the waveform. Voltage "D" should be about 1-3v. Voltage "E" should be the battery voltage of 12v.



MEASURING VOLTAGES IN A CIRCUIT

MEASURING CURRENT

You will rarely need to take current measurements, however most multimeters have DC current ranges such as 0.5mA, 50mA, 500mA and 10Amp (via the extra banana socket) and some meters have AC current ranges. Measuring the current of a circuit will tell you a lot of things. If you know the normal current, a high or low current can let you know if the circuit is overloaded or not fully operational.

Current is always measured when the circuit is working (i.e: with power applied).

It is measured IN SERIES with the circuit or component under test.

The easiest way to measure current is to remove the fuse and take a reading across the fuse-holder. Or remove one lead of the battery or turn the project off, and measure across the switch.

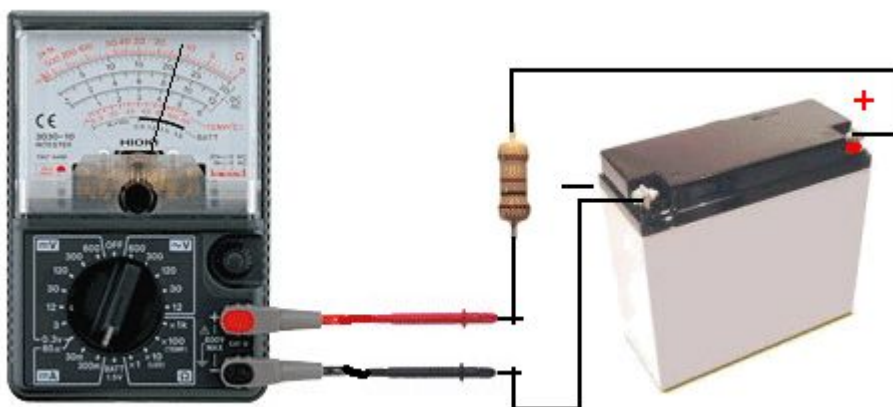
If this is not possible, you will need to remove one end of a component and measure with the two probes in the "opening."

Resistors are the easiest things to desolder, but you may have to cut a track in some circuits. You have to get an "opening" so that a current reading can be taken.

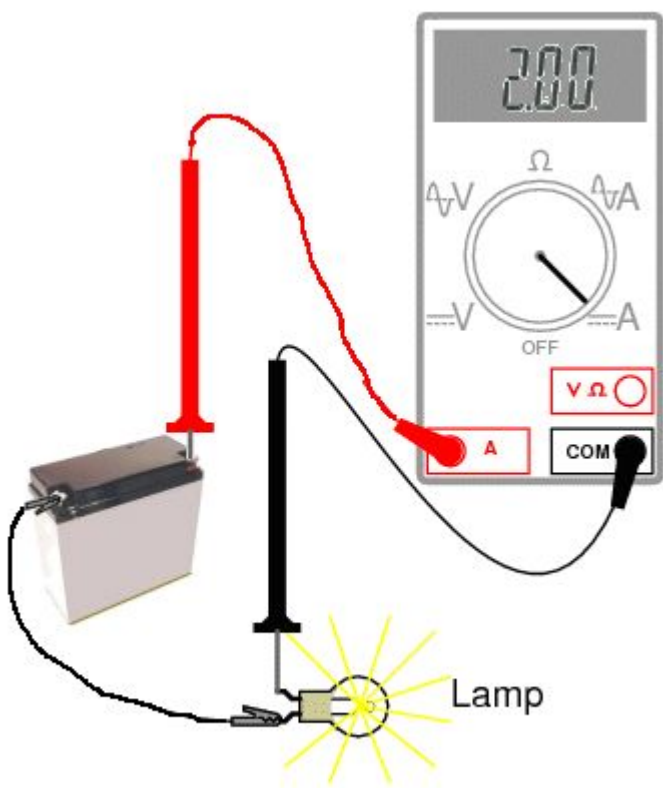
The following diagrams show how to connect the probes to take a CURRENT reading.

Do not measure the current ACROSS a component as this will create a "short-circuit."

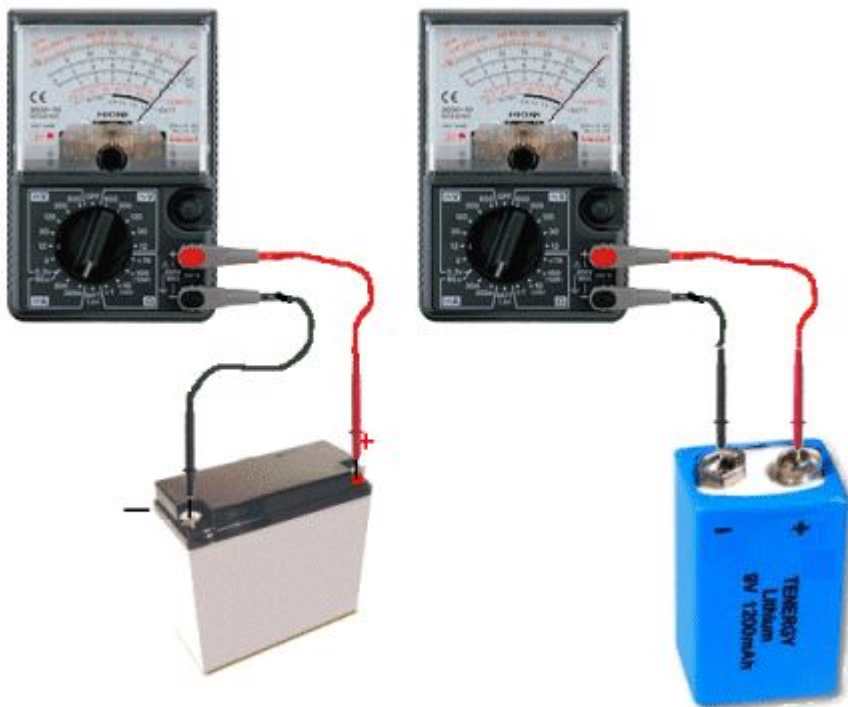
The component is designed to drop a certain voltage and when you place the probes across this component, you are effectively adding a "link" or "jumper" and the voltage at the left-side of the component will appear on the right-side. This voltage may be too high for the circuit being supplied and the result will be damage.



Measuring current through a resistor



Measuring the current of a globe



Do NOT measure the CURRENT of a battery (by placing the meter directly across the terminals) A battery will deliver a very HIGH current and damage the meter

Do not measure the "current a battery will deliver" by placing the probes across the terminals. It will deliver a very high current and damage the meter instantly. There are special battery testing instruments for this purpose.

When measuring across an "opening" or "cut," place the red probe on the wire that supplies the voltage (and current) and the black probe on the other wire. This will produce a "POSITIVE" reading.

A positive reading is an UPSCALE READING and the pointer will move across the scale - to the right. A "NEGATIVE READING" will make the pointer hit the "STOP" at the left of the scale and you will not get a reading. If you are using a Digital Meter, a negative sign "-" will appear on the screen to indicate the probes are around the wrong way. No damage will be caused. It just indicates the probes are connected incorrectly. If you want an accurate CURRENT MEASUREMENT, use a digital meter.

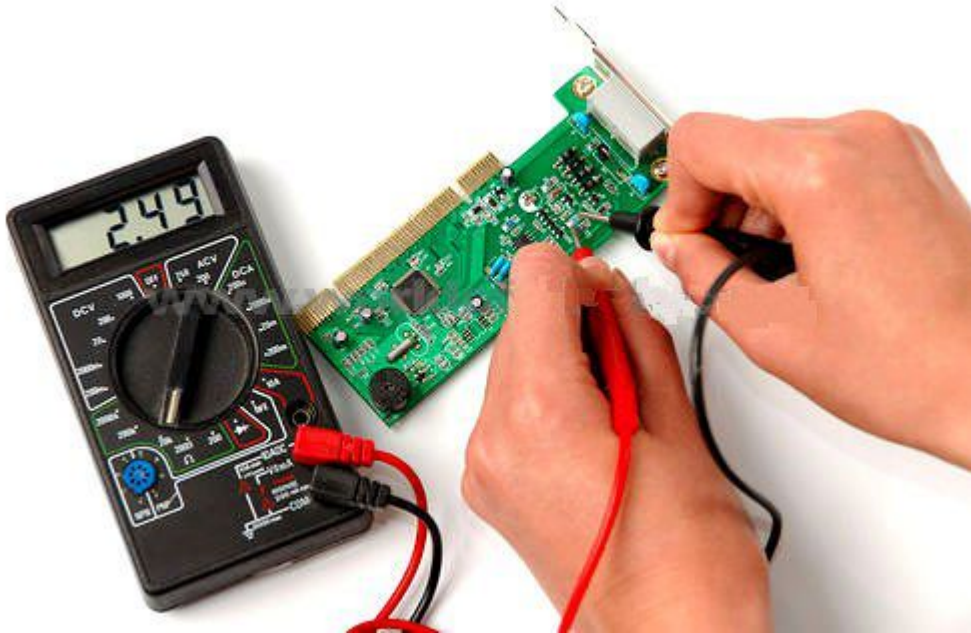
MEASURING RESISTANCE

Turn a circuit off before measuring resistance.

If any voltage is present, the value of resistance will be incorrect.

In most cases you cannot measure a component while it is in-circuit. This is because the meter is actually measuring a voltage across a component and calling it a "resistance." The voltage comes from the battery inside the meter. If any other voltage is present, the meter will produce a false reading.

If you are measuring the resistance of a component while still "in circuit," (with the power off) the reading will be lower than the true

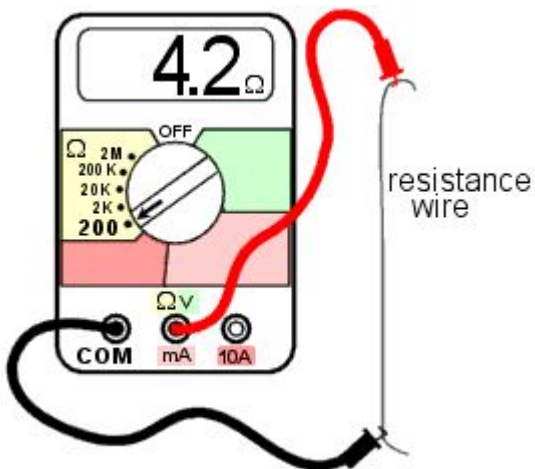


reading.

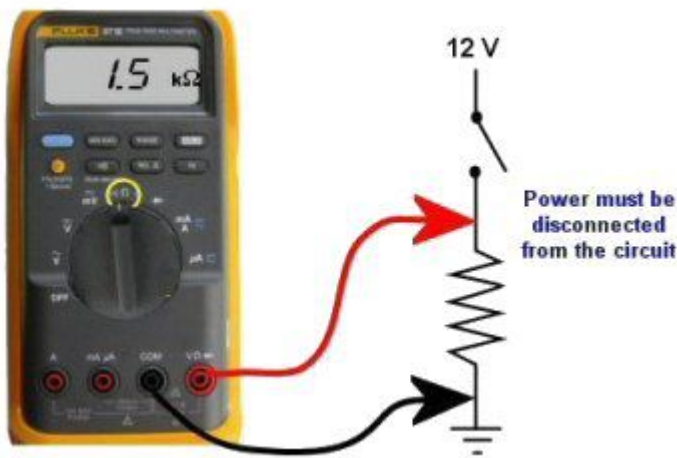
Measuring resistance



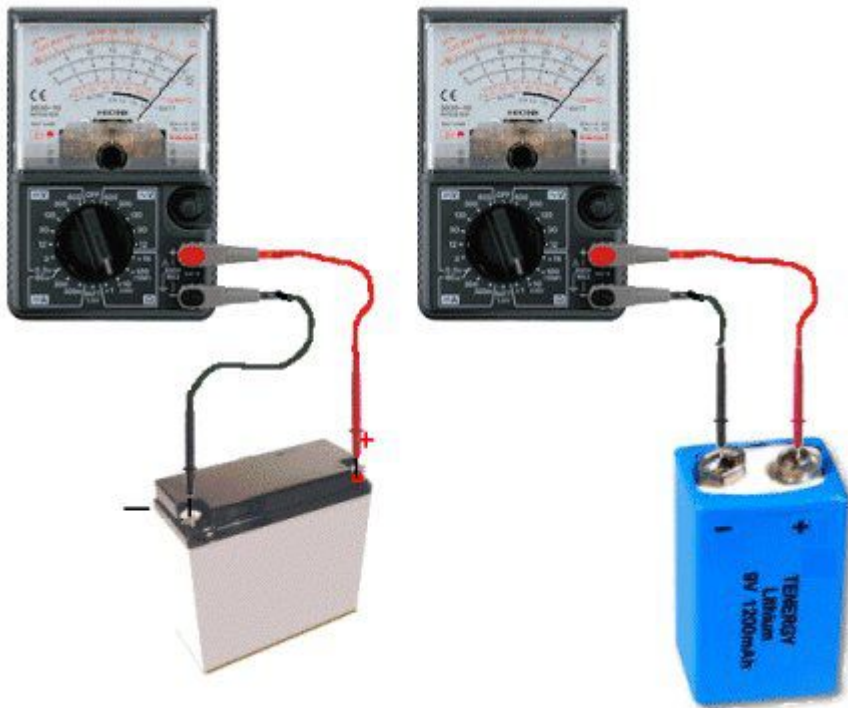
**Measuring resistance of a heater
(via the leads)**



Measuring the resistance of a piece of resistance-wire



Measuring the resistance of a resistor



Do not measure the "Resistance of a Battery"

1. Do not measure the "resistance of a battery." The resistance of a battery (called the Internal impedance) is not measured as shown in the diagrams above. It is measured by creating a current-flow and measuring the voltage across the battery. Placing a multimeter set to **resistance** (across a battery) will destroy the meter.
2. Do not try to measure the resistance of any voltage or any "supply."

Resistance is measured in OHMS.

The resistance of a 1cm x 1cm bar, one metre long is 1 ohm.

If the bar is thinner, the resistance is higher. If the bar is longer, the resistance is higher.

If the material of the bar is changed, the resistance is higher.

When carbon is mixed with other elements, its resistance increases and this knowledge is used to make RESISTORS.

Resistors have RESISTANCE and the main purpose of a resistor is to reduce the CURRENT FLOW.

It's a bit like standing on a hose. The flow reduces.

When current flow is reduced, the output voltage is also reduced and that why the water does not spray up so high. Resistors are simple devices but they produce many different effects in a circuit.

A resistor of nearly pure carbon may be 1 ohm, but when non-conducting "impurities" are added, the same-size resistor may be 100 ohms, 1,000 ohms or 1 million ohms.

Circuits use values of less than 1 ohm to more than 22 million ohms.

Resistors are identified on a circuit with numbers and letters to show the exact value of resistance - such as 1k 2k2 4M7

The letter Ω (omega - a Greek symbol) is used to identify the word "Ohm."

but this symbol is not available on some word-processors, so the letter "R" is used. The letter "E" is also sometimes used and both mean "Ohms."

A one-ohm resistor is written "1R" or "1E." It can also be written "1R0" or "1E0."

A resistor of one-tenth of an ohm is written "0R1" or "0E1." The letter takes the place of the decimal point.

10 ohms = 10R

100 ohms = 100R

1,000 ohms = 1k (k= kilo = one thousand)

10,000 ohms = 10k

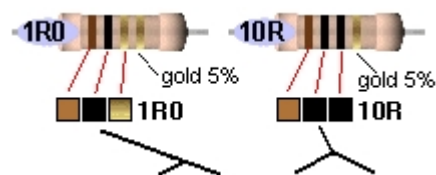
100,000 ohms = 100k

1,000,000 ohms = 1M (M = MEG = one million)

The size of a resistor has nothing to do with its resistance. The size determines the wattage of the resistor - how much heat it can dissipate without getting too hot.

Every resistor is identified by colour bands on the body, but when the resistor is a surface-mount device, numbers are used and sometimes letters.

You MUST learn the colour code for resistors and the following table shows all the colours for the most common resistors from 1/10th of an ohm to 22 Meg ohms for resistors with 5% and 10% tolerance.



If 3rd band is gold, Divide by 10
 If 3rd band is silver, Divide by 100
 (to get 0.22ohms etc)

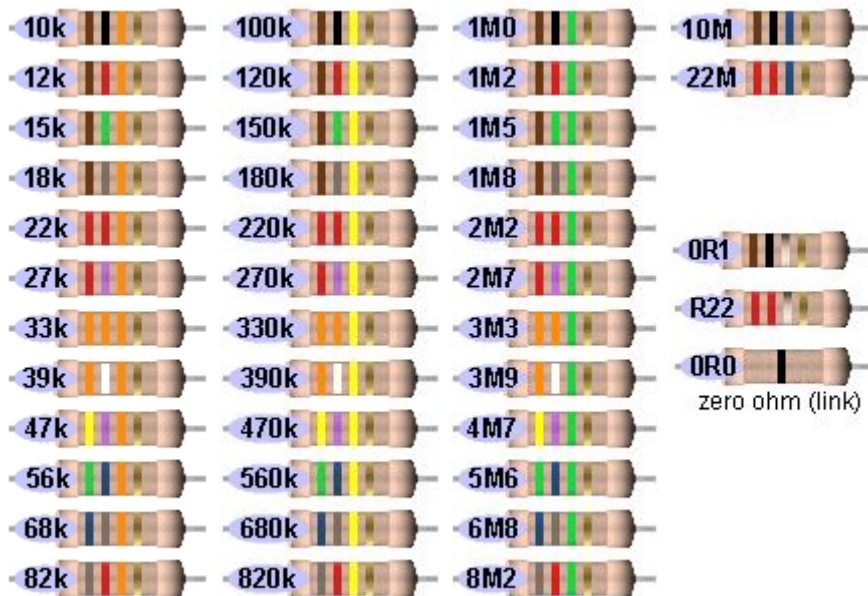
ROW	SILVER	GOLD	BLACK	BROWN	RED	ORANGE	YELLOW	GREEN
1-	R10	1R0	10R	100R	1K0	10K	100K	1M0
2-	R11	1R1	11R	110R	1K1	11K	110K	1M1
3-	R12	1R2	12R	120R	1K2	12K	120K	1M2
4-	R13	1R3	13R	130R	1K3	13K	130K	1M3
5-	R15	1R5	15R	150R	1K5	15K	150K	1M5
6-	R16	1R6	16R	160R	1K6	16K	160K	1M6
7-	R18	1R8	18R	180R	1K8	18K	180K	1M8
8-	R20	2R0	20R	200R	2K0	20K	200K	2M0
9-	R22	2R2	22R	220R	2K2	22K	220K	2M2
10-	R24	2R4	24R	240R	2K4	24K	240K	2M4
11-	R27	2R7	27R	270R	2K7	27K	270K	2M7
12-	R30	3R0	30R	300R	3K0	30K	300K	3M0
13-	R33	3R3	33R	330R	3K3	33K	330K	3M3
14-	R36	3R6	36R	360R	3K6	36K	360K	3M6
15-	R39	3R9	39R	390R	3K9	39K	390K	3M9
16-	R43	4R3	43R	430R	4K3	43K	430K	4M3
17-	R47	4R7	47R	470R	4K7	47K	470K	4M7
18-	R51	5R1	51R	510R	5K1	51K	510K	5M1
19-	R56	5R6	56R	560R	5K6	56K	560K	5M6
20-	R62	6R2	62R	620R	6K2	62K	620K	6M2
21-	R68	6R8	68R	680R	6K8	68K	680K	6M8
22-	R75	7R5	75R	750R	7K5	75K	750K	7M5
23-	R82	8R2	82R	820R	8K2	82K	820K	8M2
24-	R91	9R1	91R	910R	9K1	91K	910K	9M1

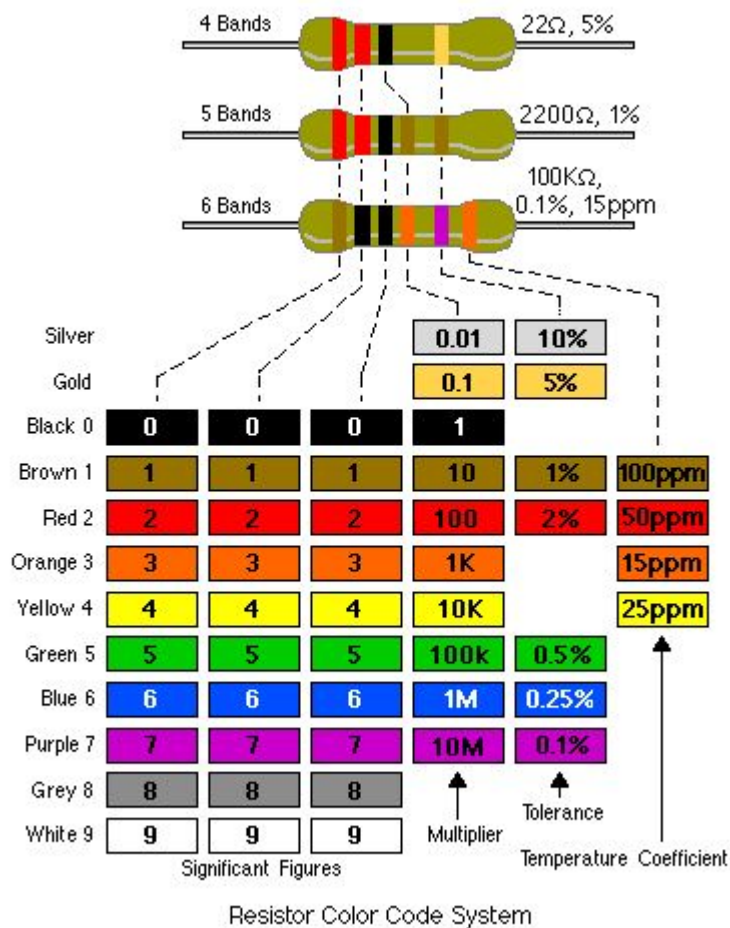
COLOR CODES FOR THE WHOLE E12/E24 RANGE OF RESISTORS
 The twelve odd rows - 1, 3, 5... - represent values available in the E12 range only, plus 10M

Reading 4-band resistors

The most "common" type of resistor has 4 bands and is called the 10% resistor. It now has a tolerance of 5% but is still called the "10% type" as the colours increase by 20% so that a resistor can be 10% higher or 10% lower than a particular value and all the resistors produced in a batch can be used.

The first 3 bands produce the resistance and the fourth band is the "tolerance" band. Gold = 5% (Silver =10% but no modern resistors are 10%!! - they are 5% 2% or 1%)





Resistor Color Code System

Here is another well-designed resistor colour code

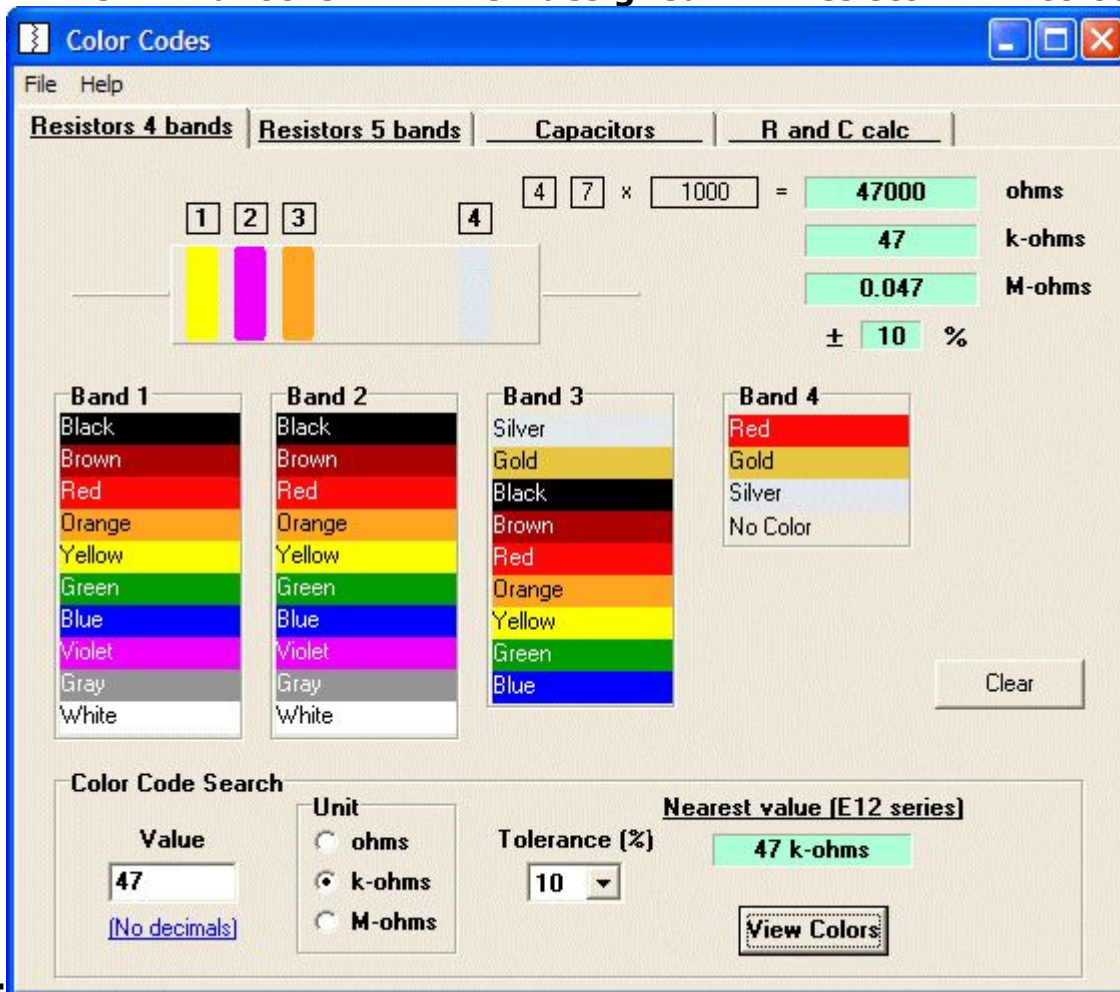


chart:

Download the program and save it on your desk-top for future reference:

[ColourCode.exe](#) (520KB)

[ColourCode.zip](#) (230KB)

[ColourCode.rar](#) (180KB)

RESISTORS LESS THAN 10 OHMS

When the **third** band is gold, it indicates the value of the "colors" must be divided by 10.

Gold = "divide by 10" to get values 1R0 to 8R2

When the **third** band is silver, it indicates the value of the "colors" must be divided by 100. (Remember: more letters in the word "silver" thus the divisor is "a larger division.")

Silver = "divide by 100" to get values R1 to R82

e.g: 0R1 = 0.1 ohm 0R22 = point 22 ohms

See 4th Column above for examples.

The letters "R, k and M" take the place of a decimal point.

e.g: 1R0 = 1 ohm 2R2 = 2 point 2 ohms 22R = 22 ohms

2k2 = 2,200 ohms 100k = 100,000 ohms

2M2 = 2,200,000 ohms

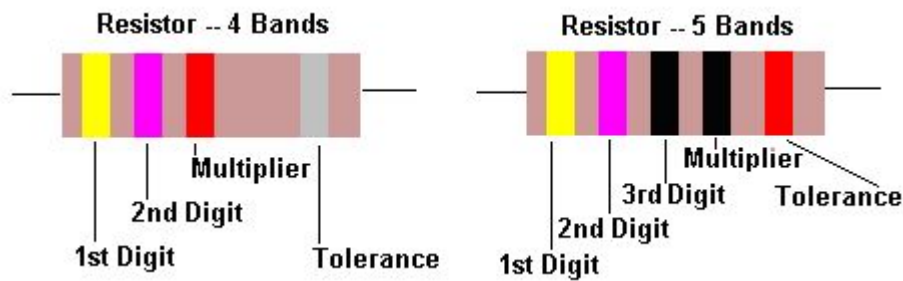
HOW TO REMEMBER THE COLOUR CODE:

Each colour has a "number" (or divisor) corresponding to it.

Most of the colours are in the same order as in the spectrum. You can see the spectrum in a rainbow. It is: ROY G BIV and the colours for resistors are in the same sequence.

black
brown - colour of increasing temperature
red
orange
yellow
green
blue
(indigo - that part of the spectrum between blue and violet)
violet
gray
white

colour	value	No of zero's
silver	-2	divide by 100
gold	-1	divide by 10
black	0	No zeros
brown	1	0
red	2	00
orange	3	,000 or k
yellow	4	0,000
green	5	00,000
blue	6	M
violet	7	
gray	8	
white	9	



Band Color	Digit	Multiplier	Tolerance
Black	0	1	---
Brown	1	10	±1%
Red	2	100	±2%
Orange	3	1,000	±3%
Yellow	4	10,000	±4%
Green	5	100,000	---
Blue	6	1,000,000	---
Violet	7	10,000,000	---
Gray	8	100,000,000	---
White	9	---	---
Gold	---	0.1	±5%
Silver	---	0.01	±10%
None	---	---	±20%

Here are some common ways to remember the colour code:
 Bad Beer Rots Our Young Guts, But Vodka Goes Well
 Bright Boys Rave Over Young Girls But Violet Gets Wed
 Bad Boys Rave Over Young Girls But Violet Gets Wed with Gold and Silver.

Reading 5-band resistors:

5-band resistors are easy to read if you remember two simple points. The first three bands provide the digits in the answer and the 4th band supplies the number of zero's.

Reading "STANDARD VALUES" (on 5-band resistors)

5-band resistors are also made in "Standard Values" but will have different colours to 4-band "common" resistors - and will be confusing if you are just starting out. For instance, a 47k 5% resistor with 4-bands will be: yellow-purple-orange-gold. For a 47k 1% resistor the colours will be yellow-purple-black-red-brown. The brown colour-band represents 1%.

The first two colour-bands for a STANDARD VALUE or "common value" in 1% or 5% will be the SAME. These two bands provide the digits in the answer.

It's the 3rd band for a 5% resistor that is expanded into two bands in a 1% resistor. But it's easy to follow.

For a standard value, the 3rd band in a 1% resistor is BLACK. This represents a ZERO in the answer. (For 5-band resistors BLACK represents a ZERO when in the third band. This is different to 4-band resistors where black represents the word OHMS! If the third band is BROWN, the answer will be 1).

So the 4th band has to represent one-less ZERO and is one colour UP THE COLOUR CHART! In other words the 3rd and 4th bands (combined) on a 1% resistor produces the same number of zero's as the 3rd band on a 5% resistor!

Resistors come in a range of values and the two most common are the E12 and E24 series. The E12 series comes in twelve values for each decade. The E24 series comes in twenty-four values per decade.

E12 series - 10, 12, 15, 18, 22, 27, 33, 39, 47, 56, 68, 82

E24 series - 10, 11, 12, 13, 15, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 27, 30, 33, 36, 39, 43, 47, 51, 56, 62, 68, 75, 82, 91

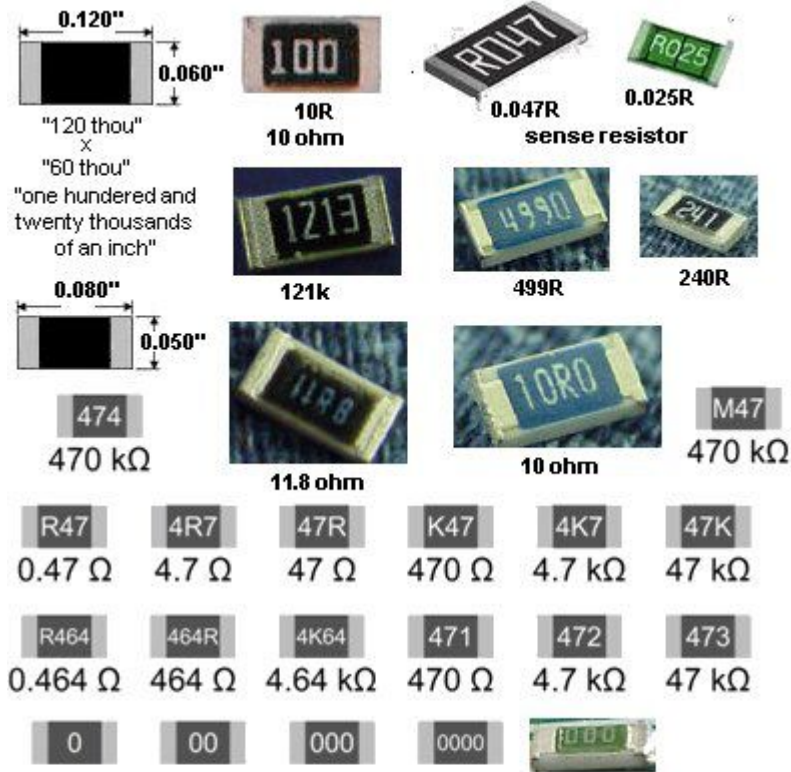
Here is the complete list of 1% 1/4watt resistors from:
[CIRCUIT SPECIALISTS](#). The following list covers 10 ohms (10R) to 1M.
 To buy 1% resistors from Circuit Specialists, click: [HERE](#).

10R	121R	806R	3k83	7k15	14k7	39k2	121k
12R1	150R	825R	3k92	7k5	15k	40k2	147k
15R	182R	909R	4k02	7k87	15k8	44k2	150k
18R2	200R	1k0	4k22	7k15	16k9	46k4	182k
22R1	221R	1k21	4k64	8k06	17k4	47k	200k
27R4	240R	1k5	4k75	8k25	17k8	47k5	212k
30R1	249R	1k82	4k7	8k45	18k2	49k9	221k
33R2	274R	2k	4k87	8k66	20k	51k1	226k
36R5	301R	2k21	4k99	8k87	22k1	53k6	249k
39R2	332R	2k2	5k11	9k09	22k6	56k2	274k
47R5	348R	2k43	5k23	9k31	23k7	61k9	301k
49R9	392R	2k49	5k36	9k53	24k9	68k1	332k
51R1	402R	2k67	5k49	9k76	27k4	69k8	357k
56R2	475R	2k74	5k62	10k	29k4	75k0	392k
68R1	499R	3k01	5k76	11k	30k1	82k5	475k
75R	565R	3k32	5k9	12k	33k2	90k	487k
82R5	604R	3k48	6k04	12k1	34k8	90k9	499k
90R9	681R	3k57	6k19	12k4	36k5	95k3	562k
100R	750R	3k74	6k81	13k	38k3	100k	604k
							1M

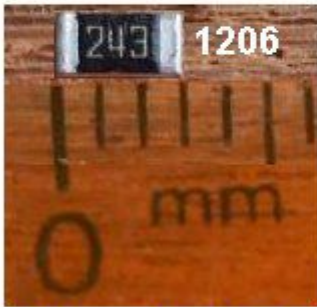
Here is the list of 1% resistors from suppliers (such as Farnell):

1R0	13R	68R	360R	1k8	9k1	47k	240k
1R2	15R	75R	390R	2k0	10k	51k	270k
1R5	16R	82R	430R	2k2	11k	56k	300k
2R2	18R	91R	470R	2k4	12k	62k	330k
2R7	20R	100R	510R	2k7	13k	68k	360k
3R3	22R	110R	560R	3k	15k	75k	390k
3R9	24R	120R	620R	3k3	16k	82k	430k
4R7	27R	130R	680R	3k6	18k	91k	470k
5R6	30R	150R	750R	3k9	20k	100k	510k
6R2	33R	160R	820R	4k3	22k	110k	560k
6R8	36R	180R	910R	4k7	24k	120k	620k
7R5	39R	200R	1k	5k1	27k	130k	680k
8R2	43R	220R	1k1	5k6	30k	150k	750k
9R1	47R	240R	1k2	6k2	33k	160k	820k
10R	51R	270R	1k3	6k8	36k	180k	910k
11R	56R	300R	1k5	7k5	39k	200k	1M
12R	62R	330R	1k6	8k2	43k	220k	

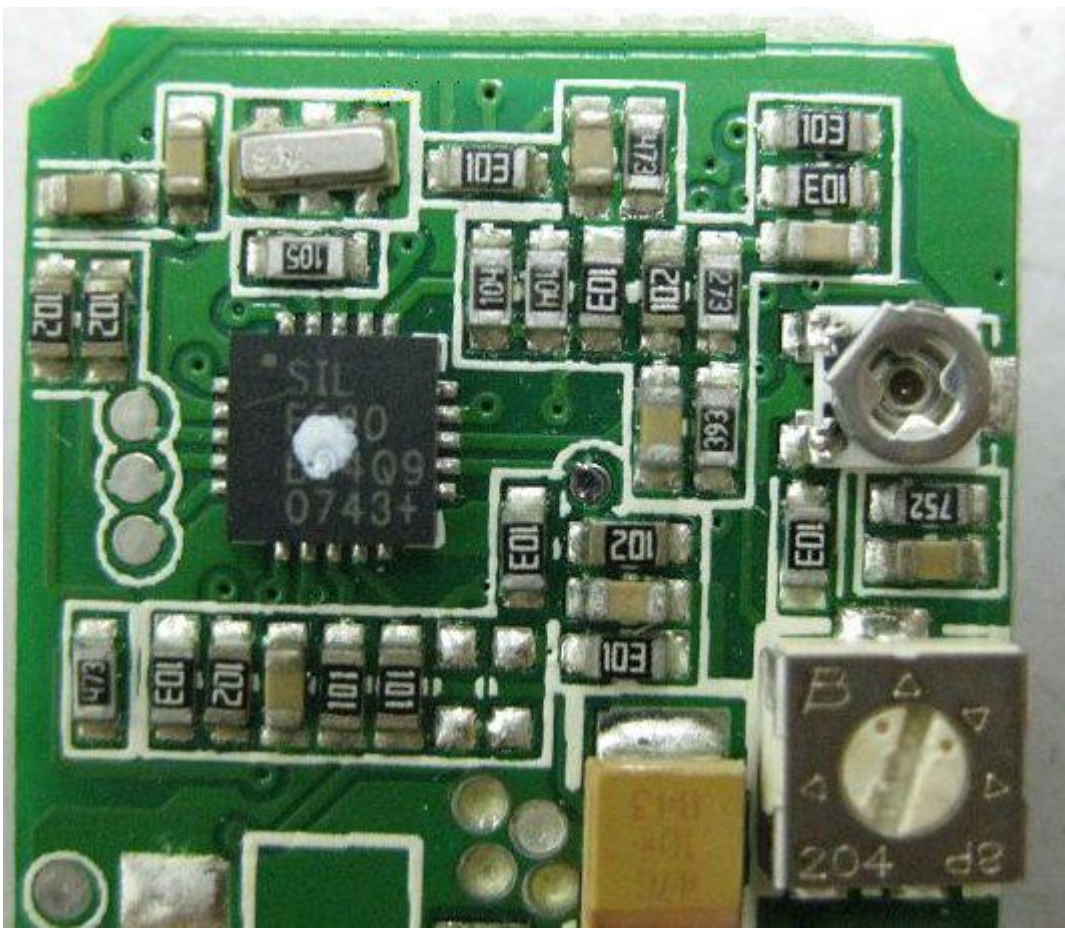
Surface Mount Resistors



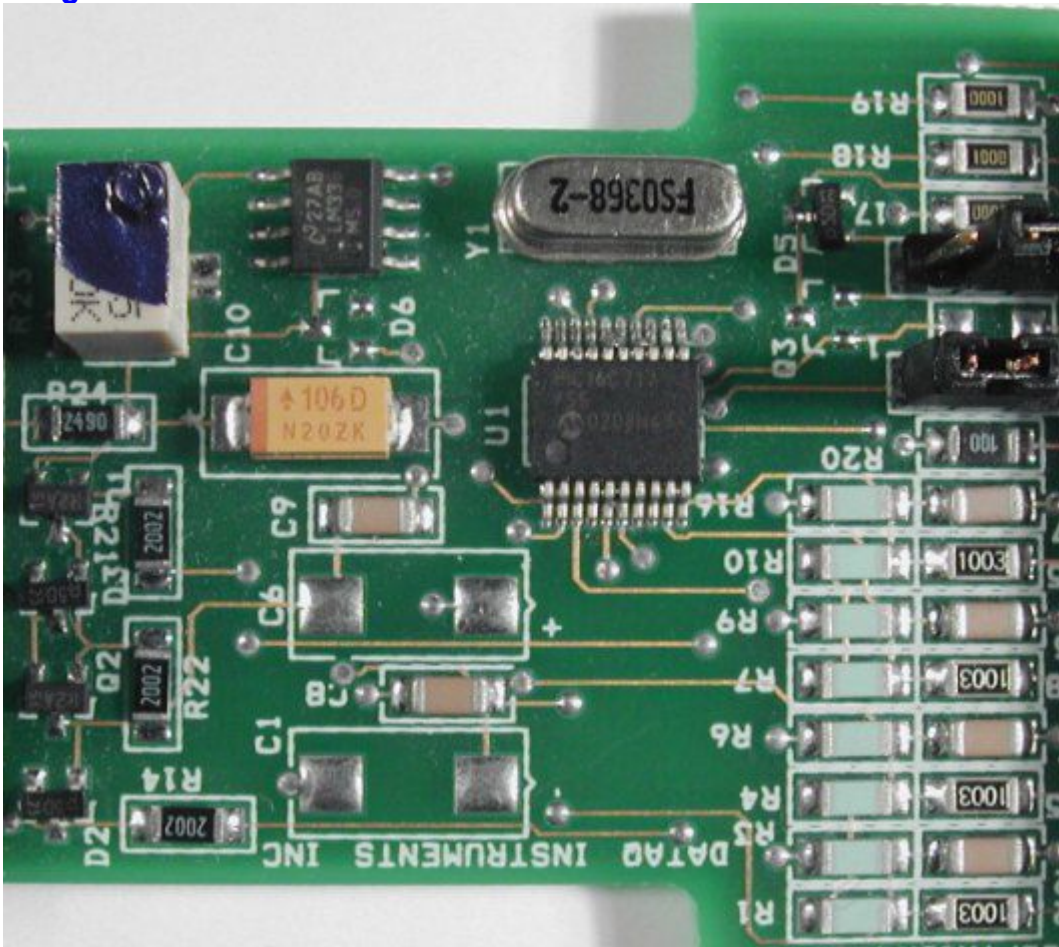
SHORT-CIRCUITING "ZERO-OHM LINKS" OR "JUMPERS"



1206 and 0805 SURFACE MOUNT RESISTORS



3-digit Surface Mount resistors on a PC board

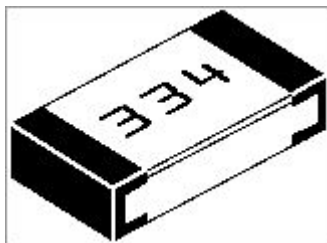


4-digit Surface Mount resistors on a PC board

The photo above shows surface mount resistors on a circuit board. The components that are not marked are capacitors (capacitors are NEVER marked).

All the SM resistors in the above photos conform to a 3-digit or 4-digit code. But there are a number of codes, and the 4-digit code caters for high tolerance resistors, so it's getting very complicated.

Here is a basic 3-digit SM resistor:



A 330k SM resistor

The first two digits represent the two digits in the answer. The third digit represents the number of zero's you must place after the two digits. The answer will be OHMS. For example: 334 is written 33 0 000. This is written 330,000 ohms. The comma can be replaced by the letter "k". The final answer is: 330k.

222 = 22 00 = 2,200 = 2k2

473 = 47 000 = 47,000 = 47k

474 = 47 0000 = 470,000 = 470k

105 = 10 00000 = 1,000,000 = 1M = one million ohms

There is one trick you have to remember. Resistances less than 100 ohms are written: 100, 220, 470. These are 10 and NO zero's = 10 ohms = 10R

or 22 and no zero's = 22R or 47 and no zero's = 47R. Sometimes the resistor is marked: 10, 22 and 47 to prevent a mistake.

Remember:

R = ohms

k = kilo ohms = 1,000 ohms

M = Meg = 1,000,000 ohms

The 3 letters (R, k and M) are put in place of the decimal point. This way you cannot make a mistake when reading a value of resistance.

THE COMPLETE RANGE OF SM RESISTOR MARKINGS

Click to see the complete range of SM resistor markings for 3-digit code:

Click to see the complete range of SM resistor markings for 4-digit code:

0000 is a value on a surface-mount resistor. It is a zero-ohm **LINK!**

Resistances less than 10 ohms have 'R' to indicate the position of the decimal point.

Here are some examples:

Three Digit Examples	Four Digit Examples
330 is 33 ohms - <i>not 330 ohms</i>	1000 is 100 ohms - <i>not 1000 ohms</i>
221 is 220 ohms	4992 is 49 900 ohms, or 49k9
683 is 68 000 ohms, or 68k	1623 is 162 000 ohms, or 162k
105 is 1 000 000 ohms, or 1M	0R56 or R56 is 0.56 ohms
8R2 is 8.2 ohms	

A new coding system has appeared on **1% types**. This is known as the EIA-96 marking method. It consists of a three-character code. The first two digits signify the 3 significant digits of the resistor value, using the lookup table below. The third character - a letter - signifies the multiplier.

01	100	17	147	33	215	49	316	65	464	81	681
02	102	18	150	34	221	50	324	66	475	82	698
03	105	19	154	35	226	51	332	67	487	83	715
04	107	20	158	36	232	52	340	68	499	84	732
05	110	21	162	37	237	53	348	69	511	85	750
06	113	22	165	38	243	54	357	70	523	86	768
07	115	23	169	39	249	55	365	71	536	87	787
08	118	24	174	40	255	56	374	72	549	88	806
09	121	25	178	41	261	57	383	73	562	89	825
10	124	26	182	42	267	58	392	74	576	90	845
11	127	27	187	43	274	59	402	75	590	91	866
12	130	28	191	44	280	60	412	76	604	92	887
13	133	29	196	45	287	61	422	77	619	93	909
14	137	30	200	46	294	62	432	78	634	94	931
15	140	31	205	47	301	63	442	79	649	95	953
16	143	32	210	48	309	64	453	80	665	96	976

The **multiplier** letters are as follows:

letter	mult		letter	mult
F	100000		B	10
E	10000		A	1
D	1000		X or S	0.1
C	100		Y or R	0.01

22A is a 165 ohm resistor, **68C** is a 49900 ohm (49k9) and **43E** a 2740000 (2M74). This marking scheme applies to 1% resistors only.

A similar arrangement can be used for **2% and 5%** tolerance types. The multiplier letters are identical to 1% ones, but occur **before** the number code and the following **code** is used:

2%				5%			
code	value	code	value	code	value	code	value
01	100	13	330	25	100	37	330
02	110	14	360	26	110	38	360
03	120	15	390	27	120	39	390
04	130	16	430	28	130	40	430
05	150	17	470	29	150	41	470
06	160	18	510	30	160	42	510
07	180	19	560	31	180	43	560
08	200	20	620	32	200	44	620
09	220	21	680	33	220	45	680
10	240	22	750	34	240	46	750
11	270	23	820	35	270	47	820
12	300	24	910	36	300	48	910

With this arrangement, **C31** is 5%, 18000 ohm (18k), and **D18** is 510000 ohms (510k) 2% tolerance. Always check with an ohm-meter (a multimeter) to make sure.

Chip resistors come in the following styles and ratings:

Style: 0402, 0603, 0805, 1206, 1210, 2010, 2512, 3616, 4022

Power Rating: 0402(1/16W), 0603(1/10W), 0805(1/8W), 1206(1/4W), 1210(1/3W), 2010(3/4W), 2512(1W), 3616(2W), 4022(3W)

Tolerance: 0.1%, 0.5%, 1%, 5%

Temperature Coefficient: 25ppm 50ppm 100ppm

EIA marking code for surface mount (SMD) resistors

01S = 1R	01R = 10R	01A =	01B = 1k	01C = 10k	01D =	01E = 1M	01F = 10M
02S =	02R =	100R	02B = 1k02	02C =	100k	02E =	
1R02	10R2	02A =	03B = 1k05	10k2	02D =	1M02	18F = 15M
03S =	03R =	102R	04B = 1k07	03C =	102k	03E =	
1R05	10R5	03A =	05B = 1k1	10k5	03D =	1M05	30F = 20M
04S =	04R =	105R	06B = 1k13	04C =	105k	04E =	
1R07	10R7	04A =	07B = 1k15	10k7	04D =	1M07	
05S = 1R1	05R = 11R	107R	08B = 1k18	05C = 11k	107k	05E = 1M1	
06S =	06R =	05A =	09B = 1k21	06C = 11k3	05D = 110k	06E =	
1R13	11R3	110R		07C = 11k5	06D = 113k	1M13	
07S =	07R =	06A =	10B = 1k24	08C = 11k8	07D = 115k	07E =	
1R15	11R5	113R	11B = 1k27	09C =	08D = 118k	1M15	
08S =	08R =	07A =	12B = 1k3	12k1	09D =	08E =	
1R18	11R8	115R	13B = 1k33		121k	1M18	
09S =	09R =	08A =	14B = 1k37	10C =		09E =	
1R21	12R1	118R	15B = 1k4	12k4	10D =	1M21	
		09A =	16B = 1k43	11C = 12k7	124k		
10S =	10R =	121R	17B = 1k47	12C = 13k	11D = 127k	10E =	
1R24	12R4		18B = 1k5	13C =	12D =	1M24	
11S =	11R =	10A =	19B = 1k54	13k3	130k	11E =	
1R27	12R7	124R		14C =	13D =	1M27	
12S = 1R3	12R = 13R	11A =	20B = 1k58	13k7	133k	12E = 1M3	
13S =	13R =	127R	21B = 1k62	15C = 14k	14D =	13E =	
1R33	13R3	12A =	22B = 1k65	16C =	137k	1M33	
14S =	14R =	130R	23B = 1k69	14k3	15D =	14E =	
1R37	13R7	13A =	24B = 1k74	17C =	140k	1M37	
15S = 1R4	15R = 14R	133R	25B = 1k78	14k7	16D =	15E = 1M4	
16S =	16R =	14A =	26B = 1k82	18C = 15k	143k	16E =	
1R43	14R3	137R	27B = 1k87	19C =	17D =	1M43	
17S =	17R =	15A =	28B = 1k91	15k4	147k	17E =	
1R47	14R7	140R	29B = 1k96		18D = 15k	1M47	
18S = 1R5	18R = 15R	16A =		20C =	19D =	18E = 1M5	
19S =	19R =	143R	30B = 2k0	15k8	154k	19E =	
1R54	15R4	17A =	31B = 2k05	21C =		1M54	
		147R	32B = 2k10	16k2	20D =		
20S =	20R =	18A =	33B = 2k15	22C =	158k	20E =	
1R58	15R8	150R	34B = 2k21	16k5	21D =	1M58	
21S =	21R =	19A =	35B = 2k26	23C =	162k	21E =	
1R62	16R2	154R	36B = 2k32	16k9	22D =	1M62	
22S =	22R =		37B = 2k37	24C =	165k	22E =	
1R65	16R5	20A =	38B = 2k43	17k4	23D =	1M65	
23S =	23R =	158R	39B = 2k49	25C =	169k	23E =	
1R69	16R9	21A =		17k8	24D =	1M69	
24S =	24R =	162R	40B = 2k55	26C =	174k	24E =	
1R74	17R4	22A =	41B = 2k61	18k2	25D =	1M74	
25S =	25R =	165R	42B = 2k67	27C =	178k	25E =	
1R78	17R8	23A =	43B = 2k74	18k7	26D =	1M78	
26S =	26R =	169R	44B = 2k80	28C =	182k	26E =	
1R82	18R2	24A =	45B = 2k87	19k1	27D =	1M82	
27S =	27R =	174R	46B = 2k94	29C =	187k	27E =	
1R87	18R7	25A =	47B = 3k01	19k6	28D =	1M87	
28S =	28R =	178R	48B = 3k09		191k	28E =	
1R91	19R1	26A =	49B = 3k16	30C =	29D =	1M91	
29S =	29R =	182R		20k0	196k	29E =	
1R96	19R6	27A =	50B = 3k24	31C =		1M96	
		187R	51B = 3k32	20k5	30D =		
30S = 2R0	30R =	28A =	52B = 3k4	32C =	200k	30E = 2M0	
31S =	20R0	191R	53B = 3k48	21k0	31D =	31E =	
2R05	31R =	29A =	54B = 3k57	33C =	205k	2M05	
32S =	20R5	196R	55B = 3k65	21k5	32D =	32E =	
2R10	32R =		56B = 3k74	34C =	210k	2M10	
33S =	21R0	30A =	57B = 3k83	22k1	33D =	33E =	
2R15	33R =	200R	58B = 3k92	35C =	215k	2M15	
34S =	21R5	31A =	59B = 4k02	22k6	34D =	34E =	
2R21	34R =	205R		36C =	221k	2M21	
35S =	22R1	32A =	60B = 4k12	23k2	35D =	35E =	
2R26	35R =	210R	61B = 4k22	37C =	226k	2M26	
36S =	22R6	33A =	62B = 4k32	23k7	36D =	36E =	
2R32	36R =	215R	63B = 4k42	38C =	232k	2M32	
37S =	23R2	34A =	64B = 4k53	24k3	37D =	37E =	
2R37	37R =	221R	65B = 4k64	39C =	237k	2M37	
38S =	23R7	35A =	66B = 4k75	24k9	38D =	38E =	
2R43	38R =	226R	67B = 4k87		243k	2M43	
39S =	24R3	36A =	68B = 4k99	40C =	39D =	39E =	
2R49	39R =	232R	69B = 5k11	25k5	249k	2M49	
	24R9	37A =		41C =			
40S =		237R	70B = 5k23	26k1	40D =	40E =	
2R55	40R =	38A =	71B = 5k36	42C =	255k	2M55	
41S =	25R5	243R	72B = 5k49	26k7	41D =	41E =	
2R61	41R =	39A =	73B = 5k62	43C =	261k	2M61	
42S =	26R1	249R	74B = 5k76	27k4	42D =	42E =	
2R67	42R =		75B = 5k9	44C =	267k	2M67	

43S	=	26R7		40A	=	76B = 6k04	28k0	43D	=	43E	=
2R74		43R	=	255R		77B = 6k19	45C	=	274k		2M74
44S	=	27R4		41A	=	78B = 6k34	28k7		44D	=	44E
2R80		44R	=	261R		79B = 6k49	46C	=	280k		2M80
45S	=	28R0		42A	=		29k4		45D	=	45E
2R87		45R	=	267R		80B = 6k65	47C	=	287k		2M87
46S	=	28R7		43A	=	81B = 6k81	30k1		46D	=	46E
2R94		46R	=	274R		82B = 6k98	48C	=	294k		2M94
47S	=	29R4		44A	=	83B = 7k15	30k9		47D	=	47E
3R01		47R	=	280R		84B = 7k32	49C	=	301k		3M01
48S	=	30R1		45A	=	85B = 7k5	31k6		48D	=	48E
3R09		48R	=	287R		86B = 7k68			309k		3M09
49S	=	30R9		46A	=	87B = 7k87	50C	=	49D	=	49E
3R16		49R	=	294R		88B = 8k06	32k4		316k		3M16
		31R6	=	47A	=	89B = 8k25	51C	=			
50S	=			301R	=		33k2		50D	=	50E
3R24		50R	=	48A	=	90B = 8k45	52C	=	324k		3M24
51S	=	32R4		309R	=	91B = 8k66	34k0		51D	=	51E
3R32		51R	=	49A	=	92B = 8k87	53C	=	332k		3M32
52S = 3R4		33R2		316R	=	93B = 9k09	34k8		52D	=	52E = 3M4
53S	=	52R	=		=	94B = 9k31	54C	=	340k		53E
3R48		34R0	=	50A	=	95B = 9k53	35k7		53D	=	3M48
54S	=	53R	=	324R	=	96B = 9k76	55C	=	348k		54E
3R57		34R8	=	51A	=		36k5		54D	=	3M57
55S	=	54R	=	332R	=		56C	=	357k		55E
3R65		35R7	=	52A	=		37k4		55D	=	3M65
56S	=	55R	=	340R	=		57C	=	365k		56E
3R74		36R5	=	53A	=		38k3		56D	=	3M74
57S	=	56R	=	348R	=		58C	=	374k		57E
3R83		37R4	=	54A	=		39k2		57D	=	3M83
58S	=	57R	=	357R	=		59C	=	383k		58E
3R92		38R3	=	55A	=		40k2		58D	=	3M92
59S	=	58R	=	365R	=				392k		59E
4R02		39R2	=	56A	=		60C	=	59D	=	4M02
		59R	=	374R	=		41k2	=	402k		
60S	=	40R2	=	57A	=		61C	=			60E
4R12			=	383R	=		42k2	=	60D	=	4M12
61S	=	60R	=	58A	=		62C	=	412k		61E
4R22		41R2	=	392R	=		43k2	=	61D	=	4M22
62S	=	61R	=	59A	=		63C	=	422k		62E
4R32		42R2	=	402R	=		44k2	=	62D	=	4M32
63S	=	62R	=		=		64C	=	432k		63E
4R42		43R2	=	60A	=		45k3	=	63D	=	4M42
64S	=	63R	=	412R	=		65C	=	442k		64E
4R53		44R2	=	61A	=		46k4	=	64D	=	4M53
65S	=	64R	=	422R	=		66C	=	453k		65E
4R64		45R3	=	62A	=		47k5	=	65D	=	4M64
66S	=	65R	=	432R	=		67C	=	464k		66E
4R75		46R4	=	63A	=		48k7	=	66D	=	4M75
67S	=	66R	=	442R	=		68C	=	475k		67E
4R87		47R5	=	64A	=		49k9	=	67D	=	4M87
68S	=	67R	=	453R	=		69C	=	487k		68E
4R99		48R7	=	65A	=		51k1	=	68D	=	4M99
69S	=	68R	=	464R	=			=	499k		69E
5R11		49R9	=	66A	=		70C	=	69D = 511k		5M11
		69R	=	475R	=		52k3	=			
70S	=	51R1	=	67A	=		71C	=	70D	=	70E
5R23			=	487R	=		53k6	=	523k		5M23
71S	=	70R	=	68A	=		72C	=	71D	=	71E
5R36		52R3	=	499R	=		54k9	=	536k		5M36
72S	=	71R	=	69A	=		73C	=	72D	=	72E
5R49		53R6	=	511R	=		56k2	=	549k		5M49
73S	=	72R	=		=		74C	=	73D	=	73E
5R62		54R9	=	70A	=		57k6	=	562k		5M62
74S	=	73R	=	523R	=		75C	=	74D	=	74E
5R76		56R2	=	71A	=		59k0	=	576k		5M76
75S = 5R9		74R	=	536R	=		76C	=	75D	=	75E = 5M9
76S	=	57R6	=	72A	=		60k4	=	590k		76E
6R04		75R	=	549R	=		77C	=	76D	=	6M04
77S	=	59R0	=	73A	=		61k9	=	604k		77E
6R19		76R	=	562R	=		78C	=	77D	=	6M19
78S	=	60R4	=	74A	=		63k4	=	619k		78E
6R34		77R	=	576R	=		79C	=	78D	=	6M34
79S	=	61R9	=	75A	=		64k9	=	634k		79E
6R49		78R	=	590R	=			=	79D	=	6M49
		63R4	=	76A	=		80C	=	649k		
80S	=	79R	=	604R	=		66k5	=			80E
6R65		64R9	=	77A	=		81C	=	80D	=	6M65
81S	=		=	619R	=		68k1	=	665k		81E
6R81		80R	=	78A	=		82C	=	81D	=	6M81
82S	=	66R5	=	634R	=		69k8	=	681k		82E
6R98		81R	=	79A	=		83C	=	82D	=	6M98
83S	=	68R1	=	649R	=		71k5	=	698k		83E
7R15		82R	=		=		84C	=	83D	=	7M15
84S	=	69R8	=	80A	=		73k2	=	715k		84E
7R32		83R	=	665R	=		85C	=	84D	=	7M32
85S = 7R5		71R5	=	81A	=		75k0	=	732k		85E = 7M5
86S	=	84R	=	681R	=		86C	=	85D	=	86E
7R68		73R2	=	82A	=		76k8	=	750k		7M68
87S	=	85R	=	698R	=		87C	=	86D	=	87E
7R87		75R0	=	83A	=		78k7	=	768k		7M87
88S	=	86R	=	715R	=		88C	=	87D	=	88E
8R06		76R8	=	84A	=		80k6	=	787k		8M06

89S	=	87R	=	732R	=	89C	=	88D	=	89E	=
8R25		78R7		85A	=	82k5		806k		8M25	
		88R	=	750R				89D	=		
90S	=	80R6	=	86A	=	90C	=	825k	=	90E	=
8R45		89R	=	768R		84k5				8M45	
91S	=	82R5	=	87A	=	91C	=	90D	=	91E	=
8R66				787R		86k6		845k		8M66	
92S	=	90R	=	88A	=	92C	=	91D	=	92E	=
8R87		84R5		806R		88k7		866k		8M87	
93S	=	91R	=	89A	=	93C	=	92D	=	93E	=
9R09		86R6		825R		90k9		887k		9M09	
94S	=	92R	=			94C	=	93D	=	94E	=
9R31		88R7		90A	=	93k1		909k		9M31	
95S	=	93R	=	845R	=	95C	=	94D	=	95E	=
9R53		90R9		91A	=	95k3		931k		9M53	
96S	=	94R	=	866R	=	96C	=	95D	=	96E	=
9R76		93R1		92A	=	97k6		953k		9M76	
		95R	=	887R				96D	=		
		95R3	=	93A	=			976k			
		96R	=	909R							
		97R6	=	94A	=						
				931R	=						
				95A	=						
				953R	=						
				96A	=						
				976R	=						

If you want an accurate RESISTANCE measurement, remove the resistor from the circuit and use a Digital meter.

SURFACE MOUNT COMPONENTS - PACKS

Talking Electronics has packs of components for the repairman. The following packs are available:

SURFACE MOUNT RESISTOR PACK consists of 1 off each standard value

10 ohms to 1M & 2M2 (60 resistors)

\$14.20 including pack and post

SURFACE MOUNT CAPACITOR PACK consists of:

2 - 10p 5 - 47p 5 - 100p 5 - 470p 5 - 1n 5 - 10n 5 - 22n 5 - 100n

5 - 1u 16v electrolytic 5 - 10u 16v electrolytic

(40 components)

\$23.80 including pack and post

SURFACE MOUNT DIODE PACK consists of:

5 - 1N 4148 (marked as "A6")

\$10.00 including pack and post

SURFACE MOUNT TRANSISTOR PACK consists of:

5 - BC 848 (marked as "1K") NPN

5 - BC858 PNP

\$10.00 including pack and post

email [Colin Mitchell](mailto:Colin.Mitchell@talkingelectronics.com) for details on how to pay by credit card or PayPal.

CREATING ANY VALUE OF RESISTANCE

Any value of resistance can be created by connecting two resistors in PARALLEL or SERIES.

You can also create a higher wattage resistor by connecting them in SERIES OR PARALLEL.

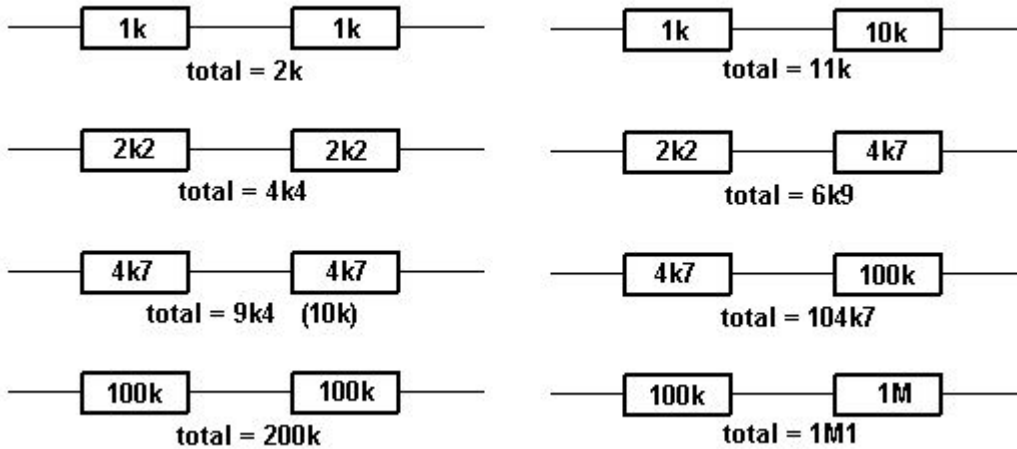
We are only going to cover two EQUAL VALUE resistors in SERIES or in PARALLEL.

If you want to create a "Special Value," simply connect two resistors and read the value with a Digital Meter. Keep changing the values until you get the required value. We are not going into series or Parallel formulae. You can easily find a value with a multimeter.

TWO EQUAL-VALUE RESISTORS IN SERIES

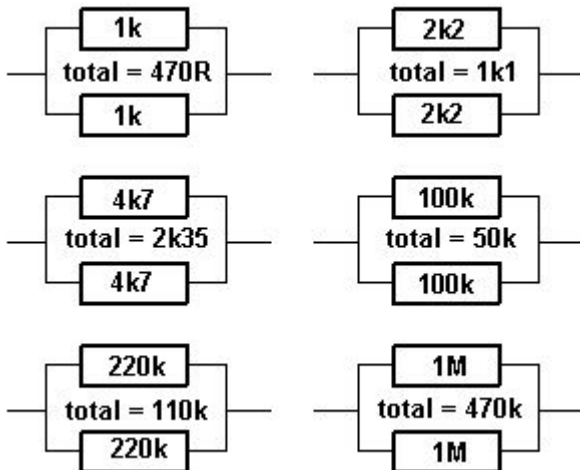
Two equal-value resistors IN SERIES creates a value of DOUBLE. You simply ADD the values.

This can be done with any to two values as shown. Three equal-value resistors in series is three times the value.



TWO EQUAL-VALUE RESISTORS IN PARALLEL

Two equal-value resistors IN PARALLEL creates a value of HALF. Three equal-value resistors in parallel is equal to one-third the value.



If you want a particular value and it is not available, here is a chart.
Use 2 resistors in series or parallel as shown:

Required Value	R1	Series/ Parallel	R2	Actual value:
10	4R7	S	4R7	9R4
12	10	S	2R2	12R2
15	22	P	47	14R9
18	22	P	100	18R
22	10	S	12	22
27	22	S	4R7	26R7
33	22	S	10	32R
39	220	P	47	38R7
47	22	S	27	49
56	47	S	10	57
68	33	S	33	66
82	27	S	56	83

There are other ways to combine 2 resistors in parallel or series to get a particular value. The examples above are just one way. 4R7 = 4.7 ohms

TESTING A RESISTOR

To check the value of a resistor, it should be removed from the circuit. The surrounding components can affect the reading and make it lower.

Resistors **VERY RARELY** change value, but if it is overheated or damaged, the resistance can increase. You can take the reading of a resistor "in-circuit" in one direction then the other, as the surrounding components may have diodes and this will alter the reading.

You can also test a resistor by feeling its temperature-rise. It is getting too hot if you cannot hold your finger on it (some "metal film" resistors are designed to tolerate quite high temperatures).

TESTING AN "AC" RESISTOR

There is no such thing as an "AC" resistor. Resistors are just "resistors" and they can be in AC circuits or DC circuits. Resistors can be given names such as "Safety Resistor" "Ballast Resistor" "LOAD Resistor" "Feed Resistor" "Dropper Resistor" or "Supply Resistor." These are just normal resistors with a normal resistance - except a "Safety Resistor."

A safety resistor is made of a flame-proof material such as metal-oxide-film and not carbon-composition. It is designed to "burn out" when too much current flows BUT NOT CATCH FIRE.

It is a low-value resistor and has a voltage-drop across it but this is not intentional. The voltage-drop is to create a "heating-effect" to burn out the resistor. In all the other types of resistor, the voltage-drop is intentional.

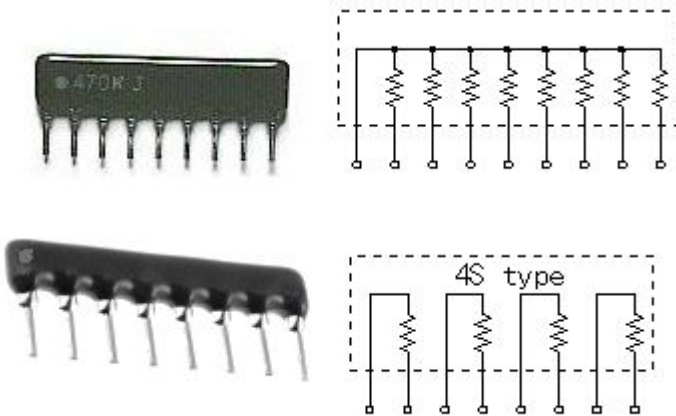
A Ballast resistor is a normal resistor and can be called a Power resistor, Dropper resistor, Supply resistor or Feed resistor. It is designed to reduce the voltage from one source and deliver a lower voltage. It is a form of: "in-line" resistor.

A Load Resistor is generally connected across the output of a circuit and turns the energy it receives, into heat.

RESISTOR NETWORKS

To reduce the number of resistors in a circuit, some engineers use a set of identical resistors in a package called a Single-In-Line (SIL) resistor network. It is made with many resistors of the same value, all in one package. One end of each resistor is connected all the other resistors and this is the common pin, identified as pin 1 and has a dot on the package.

These packages are very reliable but to make sure all the resistors are as stated, you need to locate pin 1. All values will be identical when referenced to this pin.



RESISTOR NETWORKS

Some resistor networks have a "4S" printed on the component. The 4S indicates the package contains 4 independent resistors that are not wired together inside. The housing has eight leads as shown in the second image.

Independent resistors have an even number of pins and measuring between each pair will produce identical values. Resistance between any pair will indicate leakage and may be a fault.

TESTING A POSISTOR



A Posistor is a resistor that connects in series with the degaussing coil around the picture tube or **Monitor**. When cold, it has a very low resistance and a large current flows when the monitor or TV is switched on. This current heats up the Posistor and the resistance increases. This causes the current to decrease and any magnetism in the shadow mask is removed. The posistor can one or two elements and it is kept warm so the resistance remains high. Many Posistors have a second element inside the case that connects directly to the supply to keep the Positive Temperature Coefficient resistor high so that the current through the degaussing coil falls to almost zero. This constant heat eventually destroys the package.

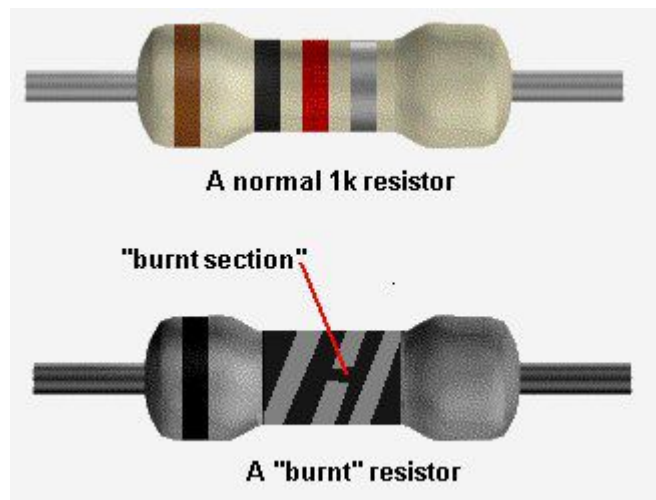
The heavy current that flows when a set is turned ON also causes the posistor to crack and break and this results in poor purity on the screen - as the shadow mask gradually becomes magnetic..

Posistors have different resistance values from different manufacturers and must be replaced with an identical type.

They can be checked for very low resistance when cold but any loose pieces inside the case will indicate a damaged component.

A "BURNT" RESISTOR - normally and technically called a "burnt-out" resistor.

The resistance of a "burnt" resistor can sometimes be determined by scraping away the outer coating - if the resistor has a spiral of resistance-material. You may be able to find a spot where the spiral has been damaged.



Clean the "spot" (burnt section of the spiral) very carefully and make sure you can get a good contact with the spiral and the tip of your probe. Measure from one lead of the resistor to the end of the damaged spiral. Then measure from the other lead to the other end of the spiral.

Add the two values and you have an approximate value for the resistor. You can add a small amount for the damaged section.

This process works very well for damaged wire-wound resistors. They can be pulled apart and each section of the resistance-wire (nichrome wire) measured and added to get the full resistance.

There is another way to determine the value of a damaged resistor.

Get a set of resistors of the same wattage as the damaged component and start with a high value. It's handy to know if the resistor is in the range: 10ohm to 100ohms or 1k to 10k etc, but this is not essential.

Start with a very high value and turn the circuit ON. You can perform voltage tests and if you know the expected output voltage, decrease the resistance until this voltage is obtained.

If you do not know the expected voltage, keep reducing the value of resistance until the circuit works as designed.

This is the best advice in a situation where you do not know the value of a resistor.

There is a third way to determine the value and this requires measuring the voltage drop across the resistor and the current-flow. By multiplying the two you will get a wattage and this must be less than the wattage of the resistor being replaced.

TESTING POTENTIOMETERS (variable resistors)

To check the value of a variable resistor, it should be removed from circuit or at least 2 legs should be removed. A Rheostat is a variable resistor using only one end and the middle connected to a circuit.

The resistance between the two outside pins is the value marked on the component and the centre leg will change from nearly zero to the full resistance as the shaft is rotated.

"Pots" generally suffer from "crackle" when turned and this can be fixed by spraying up the shaft and into the pot via the shaft with a tube fixed to a can of "spray-lubricant" (contact cleaner).

"Pre-set pots" and "trim pots" are miniature versions of a potentiometer and they are all tested the same.

FOCUS POTS

Focus pots quite often get a spot of dirt where the wiper touches the track. Cleaning with spray fixes the bad focus but if the pot is leaking to chassis from inside the pot (due to the high voltage on the terminals) simply remove it from the chassis and leave it floating (this will restore the high voltage to the picture tube) or you can use one from an old chassis.

MAKING YOUR OWN RESISTOR, CAPACITOR, INDUCTOR or DIODE

Quite often you will not have the exact value of resistance or capacitance for a repair.

We have already covered placing resistors and capacitors in parallel and series:

Resistors in Parallel and/or Series

Capacitors in Parallel and/or Series

Here are some extras:

RESISTORS

Two 1k 0.5watt resistors in parallel produces a 470R 1watt resistor.

Two 1k 0.5watt resistors in series produces a 2k 1watt resistor.

CAPACITORS

Two 100n 100v capacitors in series produces a 50n capacitor @200v

INDUCTORS: Two inductors in series - **ADD THE VALUES**

DIODES: Two 1Amp 400v diodes in series produces a 1Amp 800v diode

Two 1Amp 400v diodes in parallel produces a 2Amp 400v diode

ZENER DIODES: Zener diodes can be connected in series to get a higher voltage.

Two 12v zener diodes in series produces a 24v zener.

CONTINUITY

Some multimeters have a "buzzer" that detects when the probes are touching each other or the resistance between the probes is very LOW. This is called a CONTINUITY TESTER.

You can use the resistance scale "x1" or "x10" to detect low values of resistance.

Set the pointer to "0" (right end of the scale) by touching the probes together and adjusting the "zero ohms" control.

When taking a reading, you will have to decide if a low value of resistance is a short-circuit or an "operating value."

For instance, the cold resistance of a 12v car globe is very low (about 2 ohms) and it increases (about 6 times) to 12 ohms when hot.

The "resistance of a circuit" may be very low as the electrolytics in the circuit are uncharged. This may not indicate a true "short-circuit."

The measurement across a diode is not a resistance-value but a "voltage-drop" and that is why the needle swings nearly full-scale.

Leads and wires and cords have a small resistance and depending on the length of the lead, this small resistance may be affecting a circuit.

Remember this:

When a circuit takes 1 amp, and the resistance of the leads is 1 ohm, the voltage drop across the leads will be 1v.

That's why a 12v battery supplying a circuit with these leads will have 11v at the circuit.

Note:

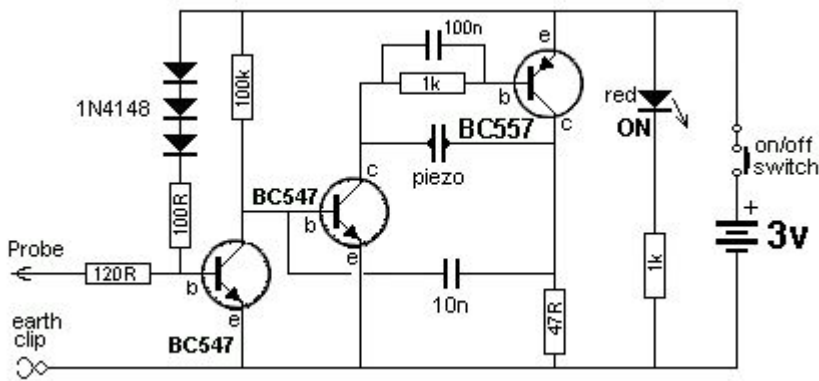
Turn off the equipment before making any continuity tests. The presence of even a small voltage (from an electrolytic) can give a false reading.

You can determine the resistance of a lead very accurately by taking the example above and applying it to your circuit.

If the battery is 12.6v and the voltage across the circuit is 10v, when the current is 2.6 amps, the resistance of the "leads" is $12.6 - 10 = 2.6$ $R=V/I = 2.6/2.6 = 1\text{ohm}$. By making the lead shorter or using thicker wire, the resistance will be less and the voltage on the project will increase.

When taking readings in a circuit that has a number of diodes built-into IC's (Integrated Circuits) and transistors, some Continuity Testers will beep and give a false reading.

The following circuit has the advantage of providing a beep when a short-circuit is detected but does not detect the small voltage drop across a diode. This is ideal when testing logic circuits as it is quick and you can listen for the beep while concentrating on the probe. Using a multimeter is much slower.



CONTINUITY TESTER

You can build the circuit on Matrix Board and add it to your Test Equipment. You will need lots of "Test Equipment" and they can be built from circuits in this eBook.

TESTING FUSES, LEADS AND WIRES

All these components come under the heading TESTING for CONTINUITY. Turn off all power to the equipment before testing for shorts and continuity. Use the low resistance "Ohms Scale" or CONTINUITY range on your multimeter. All fuses, leads and wires should have a low, very low or zero resistance. This proves they are working.

A BLOWN FUSE

The appearance of a fuse after it has "blown" can tell you a lot about the fault in the circuit.

If the inside of the glass tube (of the fuse) is totally blackened, the fuse has been damaged very quickly. This indicates a very high current has passed through the fuse.

Depending on the rating of the fuse, (current rating) you will be able to look for components that can pass a high current when damaged - such as high power transistors, FETs, coils, electrolytics. Before re-connecting the supply, you should test the "SUPPLY RAILS" for resistance. This is done by measuring them on a low OHMs range in one direction then reverse the leads to see if the resistance is low in the other direction.

A reading can be very low at the start because electrolytics need time to charge-up and if the reading gradually increases, the power rail does not have a short. An overload can occur when the supply voltage rises to nearly full voltage, so you sometimes have to fit a fuse and see how long it takes to "blow."

If the fuse is just slightly damaged, you will need to read the next part of this eBook, to see how and why this happens:

FAST AND SLOW BLOW FUSES

There are many different sizes, shapes and ratings of a fuse. They are all current ratings as a fuse does not have a voltage rating. Some fuses are designed for cars as they fit into the special fuse holders. A fuse can be designed for 50mA, 100mA, 250mA, 315mA, 500mA, 1Amp, 1.5amp, 2amp, 3amp, 3.15amp, 5amp, 10amp, 15amp, 20amp, 25amp, 30amp, 35amp, 50amp and higher.

Some fuses are fast-blow and some are slow-blow.

A "normal" fuse consists of a length of thin wire. Or it may be a loop of wire that is thin near the middle of the fuse. This is the section that will "burn-out."

A "normal" fuse is a fast-blow fuse. For instance, a 1amp fuse will remain intact when up to 1.25 amp flows. When a circuit is turned on, it may take 2-3 amps for a very short period of time and a normal 1 amp fuse will get very hot and the wire will stretch but not "burn-out." You can see the wire move when the supply turns on.

If the current increases to 2amps, the fuse will still remain intact. It needs about 3 amp to heat up the wire to red-hot and burn out.

If the current increases to 5 amp, the wire VOLATILISES (burns-out) and deposits carbon-black on the inside of the glass tube.

A slow-blow fuse uses a slightly thicker piece of wire and the fuse is made of two pieces of wire joined in the middle with a dab of low-temperature solder. Sometimes one of the pieces of wire is a spring and when the current rises to 2.5 amp, the heat generated in the wire melts the solder and the two pieces of wire "spring apart."

A slow-blow fuse will allow a higher current-surge to pass through the fuse and the wire will not heat up and sag.

Thus the fuse is not gradually being damaged and it will remain in a perfect state for a long period of time.

A fuse does not protect electronic equipment from failing. It acts AFTER the equipment has failed.

It will then protect a power supply from delivering a high current to a circuit that has failed.

If a slow-blow fuse has melted the solder, it could be due to a slight overload, slight weakening of the fuse over a period of time or the current-rating may be too low.

You can try another fuse to see what happens.

You can replace a fast-acting fuse (normal fuse) with a slow blow if the fast-acting fuse has been replaced a few times due to deterioration when the equipment is turned on.

But you cannot replace a slow-blow fuse with a fast acting fuse as it will be damaged slightly each time the equipment is turned on and eventually fail.

TESTING COILS, INDUCTORS and YOKES

Coils, inductors, chokes and yokes are just coils (turns) of wire. The wire may be wrapped around a core made of iron or ferrite.

It is labeled "L" on a circuit board.

You can test this component for continuity between the ends of the winding and also make sure there is no continuity between the winding and the core.

The winding can be less than one ohm, or greater than 100 ohms. A coil of wire is also called an INDUCTOR and it might look like a very simple component, but it can operate in a very complex way.

The way it works is a discussion for another eBook. It is important to understand the turns are insulated but a slight fracture in the insulation can cause two turns to touch each other and this is called a "SHORTED TURN" or you can say the inductor has "SHORTED TURNS."

When this happens, the inductor allows the circuit to draw MORE CURRENT. This causes the fuse to "blow." The quickest way to check an inductor is to replace it, but if you want to measure the inductance, you can use an INDUCTANCE METER. You can then compare the inductance with a known good component.

An inductor with a shorted turn will have a very low or zero inductance, however you may not be able to detect the fault when it is not working in a circuit as the fault may be created by a high voltage generated between two of the turns.

Faulty yokes (both horizontal and vertical windings) can cause the picture to reduce in size and/or bend or produce a single horizontal line.

A TV or monitor screen is the best piece of Test Equipment as it has identified the fault. It is pointless trying to test the windings further as you will not be able to test them under full operating conditions. The fault may not show up when a low voltage (test voltage) is applied.

MEASURING AND TESTING INDUCTORS

Inductors are measured with an INDUCTANCE METER but the value of some inductors is very small and some Inductance Meters do not give an accurate reading.

The solution is to measure a larger inductor and note the reading. Now put the two inductors in SERIES and the values ADD UP - just like resistors in SERIES. This way you can measure very small inductors. VERY CLEVER!

TESTING SWITCHES and RELAYS

Switches and relays have contacts that open and close mechanically and you can test them for CONTINUITY. However these components can become intermittent due to dirt or pitting of the surface of the contacts due to arcing as the switch is opened.

It is best to test these items when the operating voltage and current is present as they quite often fail due to the arcing. A switch can work 49 times then fail on each 50th operation. The same with a relay. It can fail one time in 50 due to CONTACT WEAR.

If the contacts do not touch each other with a large amount of force and with a large amount of the metal touching, the current flowing through the contacts will create HEAT and this will damage the metal and sometimes reduce the pressure holding the contact together.

This causes more arcing and eventually the switch heats up and starts to burn. Switches are the biggest causes of fire in electrical equipment and households.

A relay also has a set of contacts that can cause problems.

There are many different types of relays and basically they can be put into two groups.

1. An electromagnetic relay is a switch operated by magnetic force. This force is generated by current through a coil. The relay opens and closes a set of contacts.

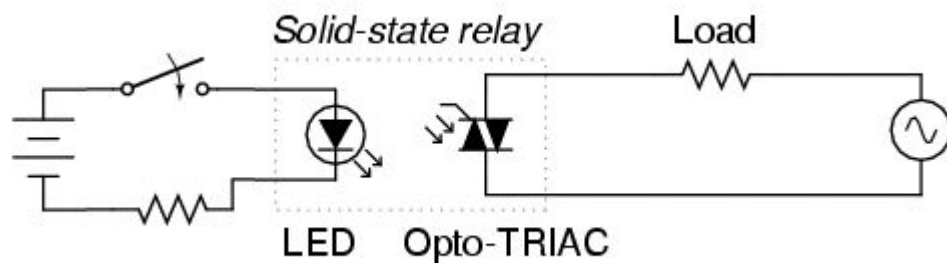
The contacts allow a current to flow and this current can damage the contacts. Connect 5v or 12v to the coil (or 24v) and listen for the "click" of the points closing. Measure the resistance across the points to see if they are closing.

You really need to put a load on the points to see if they are clean and can carry a current.

The coil will work in either direction.

If not, the relay is possibly a CMOS relay or Solid State relay.

2. An electronic relay (Solid State Relay) does not have a winding. It works on the principle of an opto-coupler and uses a LED and Light Activated SCR or Opto-TRIAC to produce a low resistance on the output. The two pins that energise the relay (the two input pins) must be connected to 5v (or 12v) around the correct way as the voltage is driving a LED (with series resistor). The LED illuminates and activates a light-sensitive device.



CAPACITORS

Capacitors are one of the most difficult things to test. That's because they don't give a reading on a multimeter and their value can range from 1p to 100,000u.

A faulty capacitor may be "open" when measured with a multimeter, and a good capacitor will also be "open." You need a piece of test equipment called a CAPACITANCE METER to measure the value of a capacitor.

HOW A CAPACITOR WORKS

There are two ways to describe how a capacitor works. Both are correct and you have to combine them to get a full picture.

A capacitor has INFINITE resistance between one lead and the other.

This means no current flows **through** a capacitor. But it works in another way.

Suppose you have a strong magnet on one side of a door and a piece of metal on the other. By sliding the magnet up and down the door, the metal rises and falls.

The metal can be connected to a pump and you can pump water by sliding the magnet up and down.

A capacitor works in exactly the same way.

If you raise a voltage on one lead of a capacitor, the other lead will rise to the same voltage. This needs more explaining - we are keeping the discussion simple.

It works just like the magnetic field of the magnet through a door.

The next concept is this:

Capacitors are equivalent to a tiny rechargeable battery.

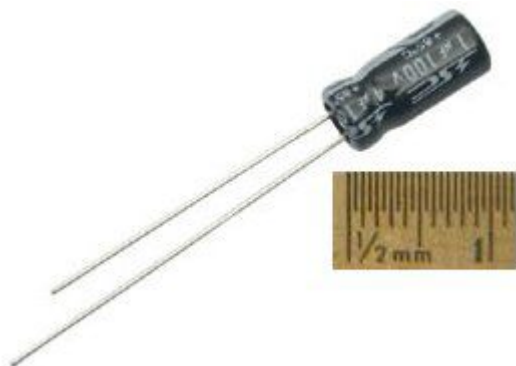
They store energy when the supply-voltage is present and release it when the supply drops.

These two concepts can be used in many ways and that's why capacitors perform tasks such as filtering, time-delays, passing a signal from one stage to another and create many different effects in a circuit.

CAPACITOR VALUES

The basic unit of capacitance is the FARAD. (C) This is the value used in all equations, but it is a very large value. A one FARAD capacitor would be the size of a car if made with plates and paper. Most electronic circuits use capacitors with smaller values such as 1p to 1,000u. 1p is about equal to two parallel wires 2cm long. 1p is one picofarad.

The easiest way to understand capacitor values is to start with a value of 1u. This is one microfarad and is one-millionth of a Farad. A 1 microfarad capacitor is about 1cm long and the diagram shows a 1u electrolytic.



Smaller capacitors are ceramic and they look like the following. This is a 100n ceramic:



To read the value on a capacitor you need to know a few facts.

The basic value of capacitance is the FARAD.

1 microfarad is one millionth of 1 farad.

1 microfarad is divided into smaller parts called nanofarad.

1,000 nanofarad = 1 microfarad

Nanofarad is divided into small parts called picofarad

1,000 picofarad = 1 nanofarad.

Recapping:

1p = 1 picofarad. 1,000p = 1n (1 nanofarad)

1,000n = 1u (1 microfarad)

1,000u = 1millifarad

1,000,000u = 1 FARAD.

Examples:

All ceramic capacitors are marked in "p" (puff")

A ceramic with 22 is 22p = 22 picofarad

A ceramic with 47 is 47p = 47 picofarad

A ceramic with 470 is 470p = 470 picofarad

A ceramic with 471 is 470p = 470 picofarad

A ceramic with 102 is 1,000p = 1n

A ceramic with 223 is 22,000p = 22n

A ceramic with 104 is 100,000p = 100n = 0.1u

TYPES OF CAPACITOR

For testing purposes, there are two types of capacitor.

Capacitors from 1p to 100n are non-polar and can be inserted into a circuit around either way.

Capacitors from 1u to 100,000u are electrolytics and are polarised. They must be fitted so the positive lead goes to the supply voltage and the negative lead goes to ground (or earth).

There are many different sizes, shapes and types of capacitor. They are all the same. They consist of two plates with an insulating material between. The two plates can be stacked in layers or rolled together.

The important factor is the insulating material. It must be very thin to keep things small. This gives the capacitor its VOLTAGE RATING.

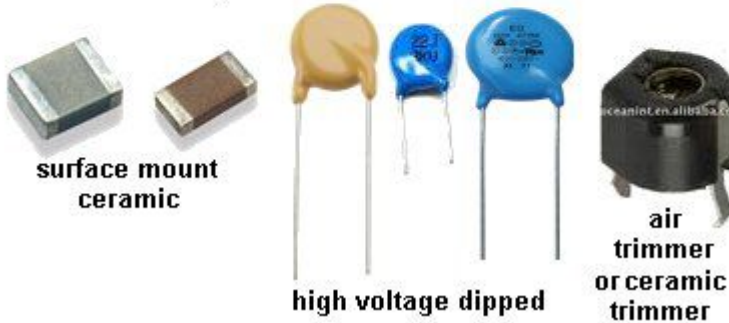
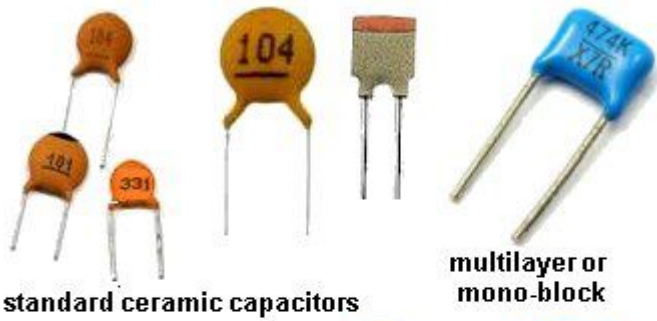
If a capacitor sees a voltage higher than its rating, the voltage will "jump through" the insulating material or around it.

If this happens, a carbon deposit is left behind and the capacitor becomes "leaky" or very low resistance, as carbon is conductive.

CERAMIC CAPACITORS

Nearly all small capacitors are **ceramic capacitors** as this material is cheap and the capacitor can be made in very thin layers to produce a high capacitance for the size of the component. This is especially true for surface-mount capacitors.

All capacitors are marked with a value and the basic unit is: "p" for "puff" However NO surface mount capacitors are marked and they are very difficult to test.

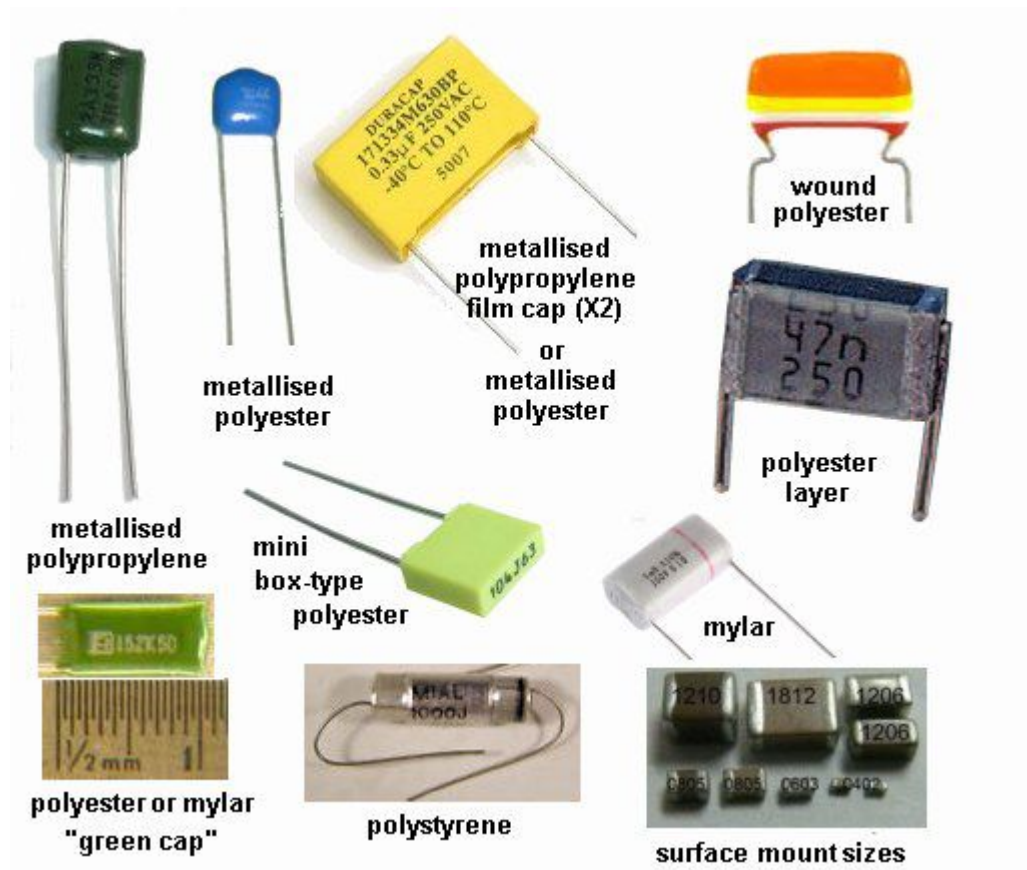


VALUE:	VALUE WRITTEN ON THE COMPONENT:
0.1p	0p1
0.22p	0p22
0.47p	0p47
1.0p	1p0
2.2p	2p2
4.7p	4p7
5.6p	5p6
8.2p	8p2
10p	10 or 10p
22p	22 or 22p
47p	47 or 47p
56p	56 or 56p
100p	100 on 101
220p	220 or 221
470p	470 or 471
560p	560 or 561
820p	820 or 821
1,000p (1n)	102
2200p (2n2)	222
4700p (4n7)	472
8200p (8n2)	822
10n	103
22n	223
47n	473
100n	104
220n	224
470n	474
1u	105

POLYESTER, POLYCARBONATE, POLYSTYRENE, MYLAR, METALLISED POLYESTER, ("POLY"), MICA and other types of CAPACITOR

There are many types of capacitor and they are chosen for their reliability, stability, temperate-range and cost.

For testing and repair work, they are all the same. Simply replace with exactly the same type and value.

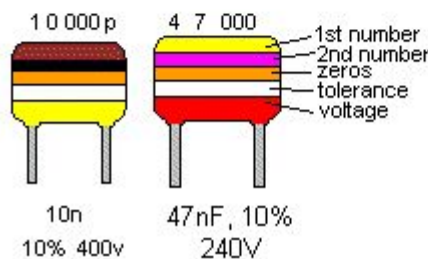
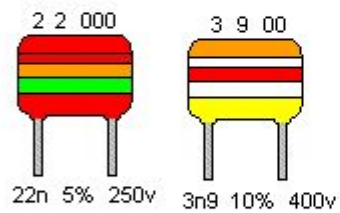
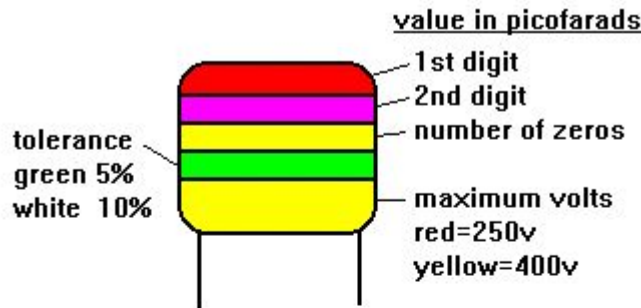


Capacitor Colour Code Table

Colour	Digit A	Digit B	Multiplier D	Tolerance (T) > 10pf	Tolerance (T) < 10pf	Temperature Coefficient (TC)
Black	0	0	x1	± 20%	± 2.0pF	
Brown	1	1	x10	± 1%	± 0.1pF	-33x10 ⁻⁶
Red	2	2	x100	± 2%	± 0.25pF	-75x10 ⁻⁶
Orange	3	3	x1,000	± 3%		-150x10 ⁻⁶
Yellow	4	4	x10,000	± 4%		-220x10 ⁻⁶
Green	5	5	x100,000	± 5%	± 0.5pF	-330x10 ⁻⁶
Blue	6	6	x1,000,000			-470x10 ⁻⁶
Violet	7	7				-750x10 ⁻⁶
Grey	8	8	x0.01	+80%,-20%		
White	9	9	x0.1	± 10%	± 1.0pF	
Gold			x0.1	± 5%		
Silver			x0.01	± 10%		

Pico Farads (pF)	Nano Farads (nF)	Micro Farads (μF)
1	0.001	0.000001
10	0.01	0.00001
100	0.1	0.0001
1,000	1	0.001
10,000	10	0.01
100,000	100	0.1
1,000,000	1,000	1
10,000,000	10,000	10
100,000,000	100,000	100

Type	Pic	Cap Range
⊕ = polarized		
Ceramic		pF - μF
Mica (silver mica)		pF - nF
Plastic Film (polyethylene polystyrene)		few μFs
Tantalum ⊕		μFs
OSCON ⊕		μFs
Aluminum Electrolytic ⊕		high μFs



Black	0
Brown	1
Red	2
Orange	3
Yellow	4
Green	5
Blue	6
Violet	7
Grey	8
White	9

ELECTROLYTIC and TANTALUM CAPACITORS

Electrolytics and Tantalums are the same for testing purposes but their performance is slightly different in some circuits. A tantalum is smaller for the same rating as an electrolytic and has a better ability at delivering a current. They are available up to about 1,000μ, at about 50v but their cost is much higher than an electrolytic.

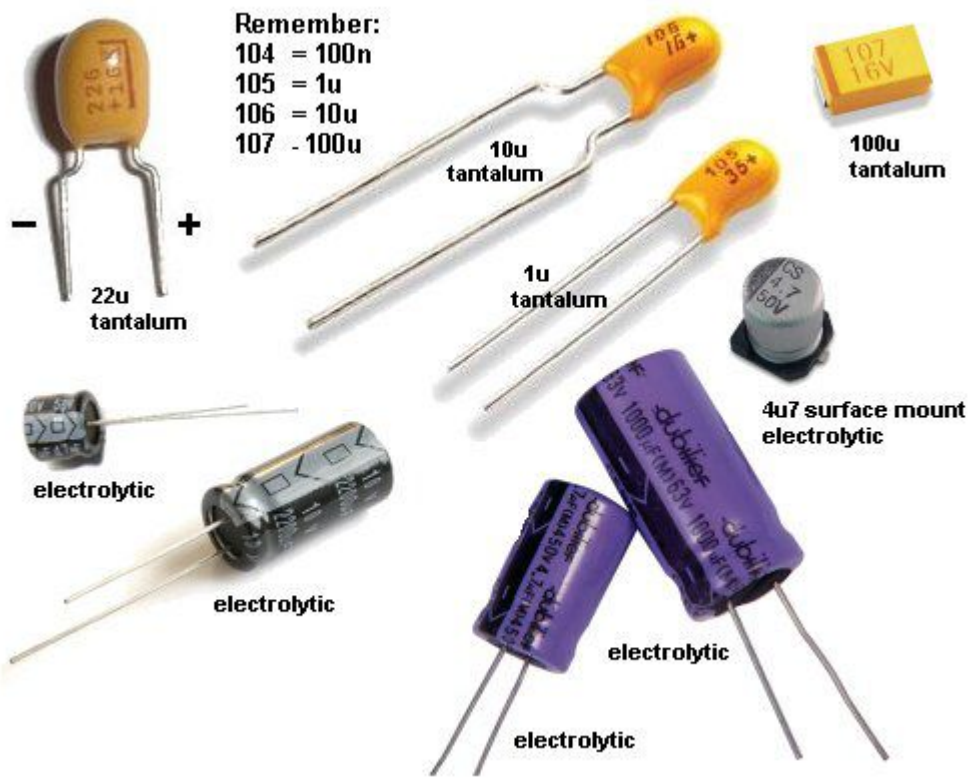
Electrolytics are available in 1u, 2u2 3u3 4u7 10u, 22u, 47u, 100u, 220u, 330u, 470u, 1,000u, 2,200u, 3,300u, 4,700u, 10,000u and higher.

The "voltage" or "working voltage" can be: 3.3v, 10v, 16v, 25v, 63v, 100v, 200v and higher.

There is also another important factor that is rarely covered in text books. It is RIPPLE FACTOR.

This is the amount of current that can enter and leave an electrolytic. This current heats up the electrolytic and that is why some electrolytics are much larger than others, even though the capacitance and voltage-ratings are the same.

If you replace an electrolytic with a "miniature" version, it will heat up and have a very short life. This is especially important in power supplies where current (energy) is constantly entering and exiting the electrolytic as its main purpose is to provide a smooth output from a set of diodes that delivers "pulsing DC." (see "[Power Diodes](#)")



NON-POLAR CAPACITORS (ELECTROLYTICS)

Electrolytics are also available in non-polar values. It sometimes has the letters "NP" on the component. Sometimes the leads are not identified.

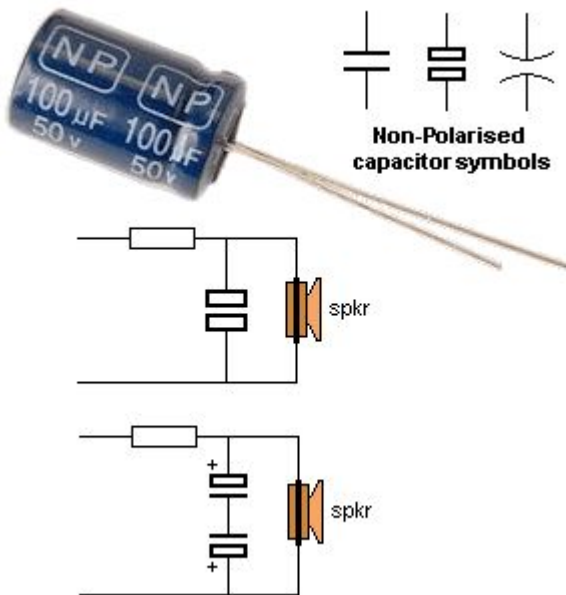
This is an electrolytic that does not have a positive and negative lead but two leads and either lead can be connected to the positive or negative of the circuit.

These electrolytics are usually connected to the output of an amplifier (such as in a filter near the speaker) where the signal is rising and falling.

A non-polar electrolytic can be created from two ordinary electrolytics by connecting the negative leads together and the two positive leads become the new leads.

For example: two 100u 63v electrolytics will produce a 47u 63v non-polar electrolytic.

In the circuit below, the non-polar capacitor is replaced with two electrolytics.

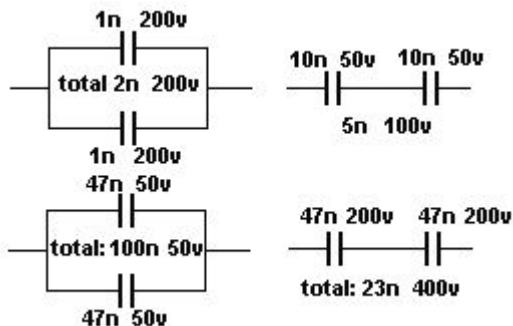


PARALLEL and SERIES CAPACITORS

Capacitors can be connected in PARALLEL and/or SERIES for a number of reasons.

1. If you do not have the exact value, two or more connected in parallel or series can produce the value you need.
2. Capacitors connected in series will produce one with a higher voltage rating.
3. Capacitors connected in parallel will produce a larger-value capacitance.

Here are examples of two equal capacitors connected in series or parallel and the results they produce:



VOLTAGE RATING OF CAPACITOR

Capacitors have a voltage rating, stated as WV for working voltage, or WVDC. This specifies the maximum voltage that can be applied across the capacitor without puncturing the dielectric. Voltage ratings for "poly," mica and ceramic capacitors are typically 50v to 500 VDC. Ceramic capacitors with ratings of 1kv to 5kv are also available. Electrolytic capacitors are commonly available in 6v, 10v 16v, 25v, 50v, 100v, 150v, and 450v ratings.

THE SIZE OF A CAPACITOR - RIPPLE FACTOR

The size of a capacitor depends on a number of factors, namely the value of the capacitor (in microfarads etc) and the voltage rating. But there is also another factor that is most important. It is the RIPPLE FACTOR.

Ripple Factor is the amount of voltage-fluctuation the capacitor (electrolytic) can withstand without getting too hot.

When current flows in and out of an electrolytic, it gets hot and this will eventually dry-out the capacitor as some of the liquid inside the capacitor escapes through the seal. It's a very slow process but over a period of years, the capacitor loses its capacitance.

If you have two identical 1,000u 35v electrolytics and one is smaller, it will get hotter when operating in a circuit and that's why it is necessary to choose the largest electrolytic.

CAUTION

If a capacitor has a voltage rating of 63v, do not put it in a 100v circuit as the insulation (called the dielectric) will be punctured and the capacitor will "short-circuit." It's ok to replace a 0.22uF 50WV capacitor with 0.22uF 250WVDC.

SAFETY

A capacitor can store a charge for a period of time after the equipment is turned off. High voltage electrolytic caps can pose a safety hazard. These capacitors are in power supplies and some have a resistor across them, called a bleed resistor, to discharge the cap after power is switched off.

If a bleed resistor is not present the cap can retain a charge after the equipment is unplugged.

How to discharge a capacitor

Do not use a screwdriver to short between the terminals as this will damage the capacitor internally and the screwdriver.

Use a 1k 3watt or 5watt resistor on jumper leads and keep them connected for a few seconds to fully discharge the electro.

Test it with a voltmeter to make sure all the energy has been removed.

Before testing any capacitors, especially electrolytics, you should look to see if any are damaged, overheated or leaking. Swelling at the top of an electrolytic indicates heating and pressure inside the case and will result in drying out of the electrolyte. Any hot or warm electrolytic indicates leakage and ceramic capacitors with portions missing indicates something has gone wrong.

TESTING A CAPACITOR

There are two things you can test with a multimeter:

1. A short-circuit within the capacitor
2. Capacitor values above 1u.

You can test capacitors in-circuit for short-circuits. Use the x1 ohms range.

To test a capacitor for leakage, you need to remove it or at least one lead must be removed. Use the x10k range on an analogue or digital multimeter.

For values above 1u you can determine if the capacitor is charging by using an analogue meter. The needle will initially move across the scale to indicate the cap is charging, then go to "no deflection." Any permanent deflection of the needle will indicate leakage.

You can reverse the probes to see if the needle moves in the opposite direction. This indicates it has been charged. Values below 1u will not respond to charging and the needle will not deflect.

This does not work with a digital meter as the resistance range does not output any current and the electrolytic does not charge.

Rather than spending money on a capacitance meter, it is cheaper to replace any suspect capacitor or electrolytic.

Capacitors can produce very unusual faults and no piece of test equipment is going to detect the problem. In most cases, it is a simple matter to solder another capacitor across the suspect component and view or listen to the result.

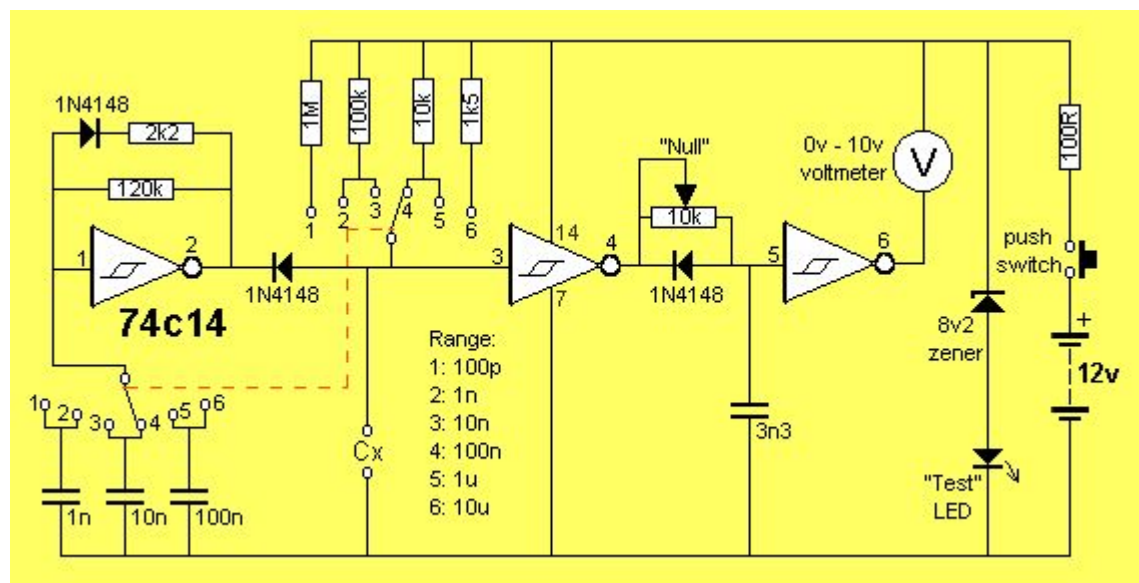
This saves all the worry of removing the component and testing it with equipment that cannot possibly give you an accurate reading when the full voltage and current is not present.

It is complete madness to even think of testing critical components such as capacitors, with TEST EQUIPMENT. You are fooling yourself. If the Test Equipment says the component is ok, you will look somewhere else and waste a lot of time.

FINDING THE VALUE OF A CAPACITOR

If you want to find the value of a surface-mount capacitor or one where the markings have been removed, you will need a CAPACITANCE METER. Here is a simple circuit that can be added to your meter to read capacitor values from 10p to 10u.

The full article can be found [HERE](#).



ADD-ON CAPACITANCE METER

REPLACING A CAPACITOR

Always replace a capacitor with the exact same type.

A capacitor may be slightly important in a circuit or it might be extremely critical.

A manufacturer may have taken years to select the right type of capacitor due to previous failures.

A capacitor just doesn't have a "value of capacitance."

It may also have an effect called "tightening of the rails."

In other words, a capacitor has the ability to react quickly and either absorb or deliver energy to prevent spikes or fluctuations on the rail.

This is due to the way it is constructed. Some capacitors are simply plates of metal film while others are wound in a coil. Some capacitors are large while others are small.

They all react differently when the voltage fluctuates.

Not only this, but some capacitors are very stable and all these features go into the decision for the type of capacitor to use.

You can completely destroy the operation of a circuit by selecting the wrong type of capacitor.

No capacitor is perfect and when it gets charged or discharged, it appears to have a small value of resistance in series with the value of capacitance. This is known as "ESR" and stands for EQUIVALENT SERIES RESISTANCE. This effectively makes the capacitor slightly slower to charge and discharge.

We cannot go into the theory on selecting a capacitor as it would be larger than this eBook so the only solution is to replace a capacitor with an identical type.

However if you get more than one repair with identical faults, you should ask other technicians if the original capacitor comes from a faulty batch.

The author has fixed TV's and fax machines where the capacitors have been inferior and alternate types have solved the problem.

Some capacitor are suitable for high frequencies, others for low frequencies.

DECOUPLING CAPACITORS

A Decoupling Capacitor can serve one, two or three functions. You need to think of a decoupling capacitor as a miniature battery with the ability to deliver a brief pulse of energy when ever the line-voltage drops and also absorb a brief pulse of energy when ever the line voltage rises (or spikes).

Decoupling capacitor can range from 100n to 1,000u.

100n capacitors are designed to absorb spikes and also have the effect of tightening-up the rails for high frequencies. They have no effect on low frequencies such as audio frequencies.

These capacitors are generally ceramic and have very low internal impedance and thus they can operate at high frequencies.

Capacitors above about 10u are used for decoupling and these are nearly always electrolytics.

Decoupling means "tightening-up the power rails." The electrolytic acts just like a miniature rechargeable battery, supplying a small number of components in a circuit with a smooth and stable voltage.

The electrolytic is usually fed from a dropper resistor and this resistor charges the electrolytic and adds to the ability of the electrolytic to create a "separate power supply."

These two components help remove spikes as an electrolytic cannot remove spikes if connected directly to the supply rails - it's internal impedance is high and the spikes are not absorbed.

Decoupling capacitors are very difficult to test.

They rarely fail but if a project is suffering from unknown glitches and spikes, it is best to simply add more 100n decoupling caps on the underside of the board and replace all electrolytics.

Some small electrolytics will dry out due to faulty manufacture and simply replacing every one on a board will solve the problem.

Some of the functions of a decoupling capacitor are:

Removing ripple - hum or buzz in the background of an amplifier

Removing glitches or spikes.

Separating one stage from another to reduce or remove MOTORBOATING - a low frequency sound due to the output putting a pulse on the power rails that is picked up by the pre-amplifier section and amplified.

TESTING DIODES

Diodes can have 4 different faults.

1. Open circuit in both directions.
2. Low resistance in both directions.
3. Leaky.
4. Breakdown under load.

TESTING A DIODE ON AN ANALOGUE METER

Testing a diode with an **Analogue Multimeter** can be done on any of the resistance ranges. [The high resistance range is best - it sometimes has a high voltage battery for this range but this does not affect our testing]

There are two things you must remember.

1. When the diode is measured in one direction, the needle will **not move at all**. The technical term for this is the diode is **reverse biased**. It will not allow any current to flow. Thus the needle will not move.

When the diode is connected around the other way, the needle will swing to the right (move up scale) to about 80% of the scale. This position represents the voltage drop across the junction of the diode and is NOT a resistance value. If you change the resistance range, the needle will move to a slightly different position due to the resistances inside the meter. The technical term for this is the diode is **forward biased**. This indicates the diode is not faulty.

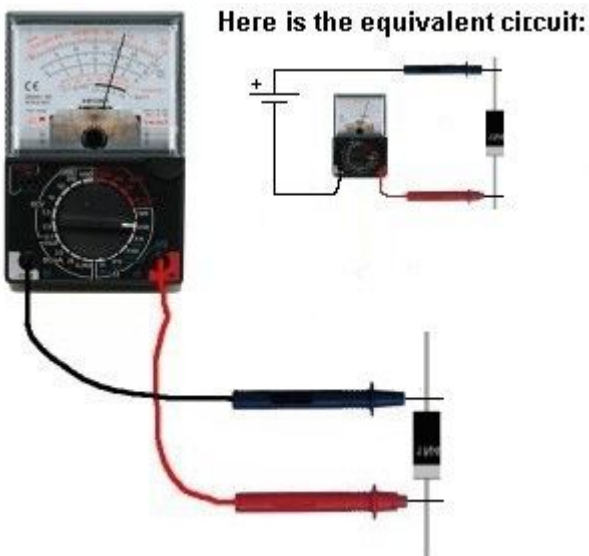
The needle will swing to a slightly different position for a "normal diode" compared to a Schottky diode. This is due to the different junction voltage drops.

However we are only testing the diode at very low voltage and it may break-down when fitted to a circuit due to a higher voltage being present or due to a high current flowing.

2. The leads of an **Analogue Multimeter** have the positive of the battery connected to the black probe and the readings of a "good diode" are shown in the following two diagrams:



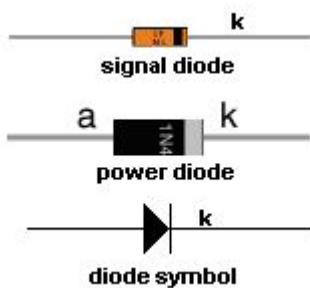
The diode is **REVERSE BIASED** in the diagram above and diodes not conduct.



The diode is **FORWARD BIASED** in the diagram above and it conducts

TESTING A DIODE ON A DIGITAL METER

Testing a diode with a Digital Meter must be done on the "DIODE" setting as a digital meter does not deliver a current through the probes on some of the resistance settings and will not produce an accurate reading.



The best thing to do with a "suspect" diode is to replace it. This is because a diode has a number of characteristics that cannot be tested with simple equipment. Some diodes have a fast recovery for use in high frequency circuits. They conduct very quickly and turn off very quickly so the waveform is processed accurately and efficiently.

If the diode is replaced with an ordinary diode, it will heat up as does not have the high-speed characteristic. Other diodes have a low drop across them and if an ordinary is used, it will heat up.

Most diodes fail by going: SHORT-CIRCUIT. This can be detected by a low resistance (x1 or x10 Ohms range) in both directions.

A diode can also go OPEN CIRCUIT. To locate this fault, place an identical diode across the diode being tested.

A leaky diode can be detected by a low reading in one direction and a slight reading the other direction. However this type of fault can only be detected when the circuit is working. The output of the circuit will be low and sometimes the diode heats up (more than normal).

A diode can go open under full load conditions and perform intermittently.

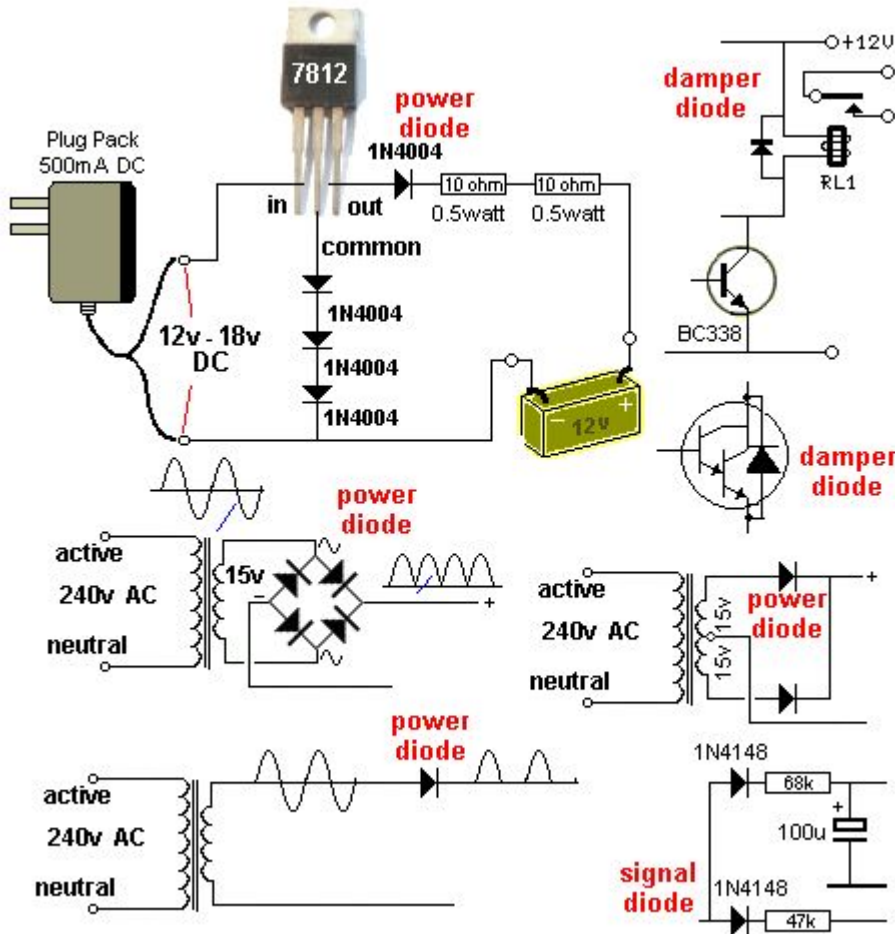
Diodes come in pairs in surface-mount packages and 4 diodes can be found in a bridge.

They are also available in pairs that look like a 3-leaded transistor.

The line on the end of the body of a diode indicates the cathode and you cannot say "this is the positive lead."

The correct way to describe the leads is to say the "cathode lead." The other lead is the anode. The cathode is defined as the electrode (or lead) through which an electric current flows out of a device.

The following diagrams show different types of diodes:



POWER DIODES

To understand how a power diode works, we need to describe a few things. This has NEVER been described before, so read carefully.

The 240v AC (called the "mains") consists of two wires, one is called the ACTIVE and the other is NEUTRAL. Suppose you touch both wires. You will get a shock. The neutral is connected to an earth wire (or rod driven into the ground or connected to a water pipe) at the point where the electricity enters the premises and you do not get a shock from the NEUTRAL.

But the voltage on the active is rising to +345v then goes to -345v at the rate of 50 times per second (for a complete cycle).

345v is the peak voltage of 240v. You never get a 240v shock. (It is a 345v shock.)

In other words, if you touch the two wires at a particular instant, you would get a POSITIVE 345v shock and at another instant you would get a negative 345v shock. This is shown in the diagram below.

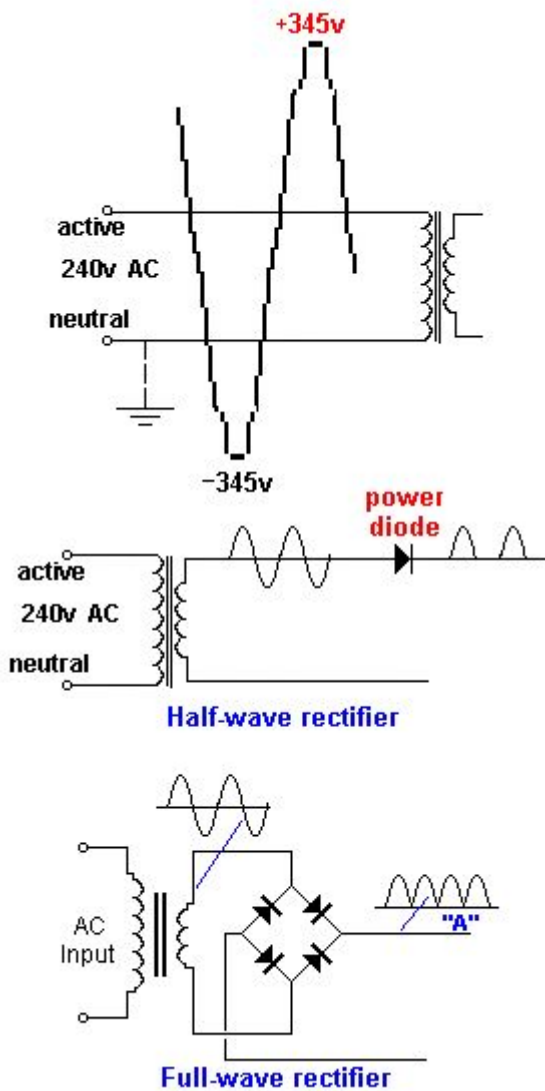
We now transfer this concept to the output of a transformer. The diagram shows an AC waveform on the output of the secondary.

This voltage is rising 15v higher than the bottom lead then it is 15v LOWER than the bottom lead. The bottom lead is called "zero volts." You have to say one lead or wire is not "rising and falling" as you need a "reference" or starting-point" or "zero point" for voltage measurements.

The diode only conducts when the voltage is "above zero" (actually when it is 0.7v above zero) and does not conduct (at all) when the voltage goes below zero.

This is shown on the output of the Power Diode. Only the positive peaks or the positive parts of the waveform appear on the output and this is called "pulsing DC." This is called "half-wave" and is not used in a power supply. We have used it to describe how the diode works. The electrolytics charge during the peaks and deliver energy when the diode is not delivering current. This is how the output becomes a steady DC voltage.

Power supplies use FULL WAVE rectification and the other half of the AC waveform is delivered to the output (and fills in the "gaps") and appears as shown in "A."



ONE FAULTY DIODE

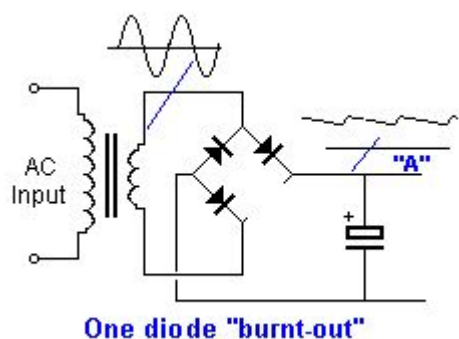
One diode in a bridge can go open (any of the 4 diodes will produce the same effect) and produce an output voltage that can be slightly lower than the original voltage. The actual "voltage-drop" will depend on the current taken by the circuit and the ability of the transformer to produce the required voltage and current during half-wave operation. The voltage during each half cycle (when none of the diodes is delivering any energy to the circuit) is maintained by the electrolytic and its size (relative to the current taken by the circuit) will determine the size of the ripple that will result when the diode fails. The ripple will be 100 to 1,000 times greater after the failure of a diode, depending on the value of the filter capacitor.

To locate the faulty diode, simply get a diode and place it across each of the diodes in the bridge (in turn) when the circuit is working.

For a bridge rectifier, the ripple-frequency will be twice the mains frequency and its ripple will be very small if the electrolytic is the correct value. When a diode fails, the ripple-frequency will be equal to mains-frequency and the amplitude will increase considerably. You may even hear background hum from audio equipment.

If you cannot find a faulty diode, the filter capacitor will be at fault. Turn off the equipment and connect an

electrolytic across the filter capacitor via jumper leads. Turn the power ON and see if the hum has reduced.



DAMPER DIODES

A damper diode is a diode that detects a high voltage and SQUELCHES IT (reduces it - removes it). The signal that it squelches is a voltage that is in the opposite direction to the "supply voltage" and is produced by the collapsing of a magnetic field. Whenever a magnetic field collapses, it produces a voltage in the winding that is opposite to the supply voltage and can be much higher. This is the principle of a flyback circuit or EHT circuit. The high voltage comes from the transformer.

The diode is placed so that the signal passes through it and less than 0.5v appears across it.

A damper diode can be placed across the coil of a relay, incorporated into a transistor or FET or placed across a winding of a flyback transformer to protect the driving transistor or FET.

It can also be called a "Reverse-Voltage Protection Diode," "Spike Suppression Diode," or "Voltage Clamp Diode."

The main characteristic of a Damper Diode is HIGH SPEED so it can detect the spike and absorb the energy. It does not have to be a high-voltage diode as the high voltage in the circuit is being absorbed by the diode.

SILICON, GERMANIUM AND SCHOTTKY DIODES

When testing a diode with an analogue meter, you will get a low reading in one direction and a high (or NO READING) in the other direction. When reading in the LOW direction, the needle will swing nearly full scale and the reading is not a resistance-value but a reflection of the characteristic voltage drop across the junction of the diode. As we mentioned before, a resistance reading is really a voltage reading and the meter is measuring the voltage of the battery minus the voltage-drop across the diode.

Since Silicon, Germanium and Schottky Diodes have slightly different characteristic voltage drops across the junction, you will get a slightly different reading on the scale. This does not represent one diode being better than the other or capable of handling a higher current or any other feature.

The quickest, easiest and cheapest way to find, fix and solve a problem caused by a faulty diode is to replace it.

There is no piece of test equipment capable of testing a diode fully, and the circuit you are working on is actually the best piece of test equipment as it is identifying the fault UNDER LOAD.

Only very simple tests can be done with a multimeter and it is best to check a diode with an ANALOGUE MULTIMETER as it outputs a higher current through the diode and produces a more-reliable result.

A Digital meter can produce false readings as it does not apply enough current to activate the junction.

Fortunately almost every digital multimeter has a **diode test mode**. Using this, a silicon diode should read a voltage drop between 0.5v to 0.8v in the forward direction and open in the reverse direction. For a germanium diode, the reading will be lower, around 0.2v - 0.4v in the forward direction. A bad diode will read zero volts in both directions.

REPLACING A DIODE

It is always best to replace a diode with the same type but quite often this is not possible. Many diodes have unusual markings or colours or "in-house" letters.

This is only a general guide because many diodes have special features, especially when used in high-frequency circuits.

However if you are desperate to get a piece of equipment working, here are the steps:

Determine if the diode is a signal diode, power diode, or zener diode.

For a signal diode, try 1N4148.

For a power diode (1 amp) try 1N4004. (for up to 400v)

For a power diode (3 amp) try 1N5404. (for up to 400v)

For a high-speed diode, try UF4004 (for up to 400v)

If you put an ordinary diode in a high-speed application, it will get very hot very quickly.

To replace an unknown zener diode, start with a low voltage such as 6v2 and see if the circuit works.

The size of a diode and the thickness of the leads will give an idea of the current-capability of the diode. Keep the leads short as the PC board acts as a heat-sink. You can also add fins to the leads to keep the diode cool.

LIGHT EMITTING DIODES (LEDs)

Light Emitting Diodes (LEDs) are diodes that produce light when current flows from anode to cathode. The LED does not emit light when it is reversed-biased. It is used as a low current indicator in many types of consumer and industrial equipment, such as monitors, TV's, printers, hi-fi systems, machinery and control panels.

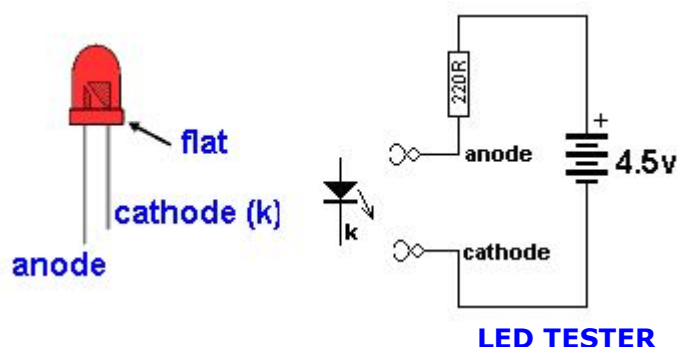
The light produced by a LED can be visible, such as red, green, yellow or white. It can also be invisible and these LEDs are called Infrared LEDs. They are used in remote controls and to see if they are working, you need to point a digital camera at the LED and view the picture on the camera screen.

An LED needs about 2v - 3.6v across its leads to make it emit light, but this voltage must be exact for the type and colour of the LED. The simplest way to deliver the exact voltage is to have a supply that is higher than needed and include a voltage-dropping resistor. The value of the resistor must be selected so the current is between 2mA and 25mA.

The cathode of the LED is identified by a flat on the side of the LED. The life expectancy of a LED is about 100,000 hours. LEDs rarely fail but they are very sensitive to heat and they must be soldered and de-soldered quickly. They are one of the most heat-sensitive components.

Light emitting diodes cannot be tested with most multimeters because the characteristic voltage across them is higher than the voltage of the battery in the meter.

However a simple tester can be made by joining 3 cells together with a 220R resistor and 2 alligator clips:



Connect the clips to a LED and it will illuminate in only one direction.

The colour of the LED will determine the voltage across it. You can measure this voltage if you want to match two or more LEDs for identical operation.

Red LEDs are generally 1.7v to 1.9v. - depending on the quality such as "high-bright"

Green LEDs are 1.9v to 2.3v.

Orange LEDs are about 2.3v and

White LEDs and IR LEDs are about 3.3v to 3.6v.

The illumination produced by a LED is determined by the quality of the crystal. It is the crystal that produces the colour and you need to replace a LED with the same quality to achieve the same illumination.

Never connect a LED across a battery (such as 6v or 9v), as it will be instantly damaged. You must have a resistor in series with the LED to limit the current.

ZENER DIODES

All diodes are Zener diodes. For instance a 1N4148 is a 120v zener diode as this is its reverse breakdown voltage.

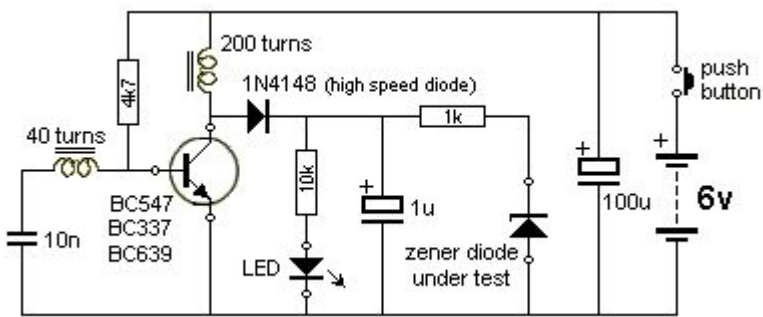
And a zener diode can be used as an ordinary diode in a circuit with a voltage that is below the zener value. For instance, 20v zener diodes can be used in a 12v power supply as the voltage never reaches 20v, and the zener characteristic is never reached.

Most diodes have a reverse breakdown voltage above 100v, while most zeners are below 70v. A 24v zener can be created by using two 12v zeners in series and a normal diode has a characteristic voltage of 0.7v. This can be used to increase the voltage of a zener diode by 0.7v. See the [diagram above](#). It uses 3 ordinary diodes to increase the output voltage of a 3-terminal regulator by 2.1v.

To test a zener diode you need a power supply about 10v higher than the zener of the diode. Connect the zener across the supply with a 1k to 4k7 resistor and measure the voltage across the diode. If it measures less than 1v, reverse the zener.

If the reading is high or low in both directions, the zener is damaged.

Here is a zener diode tester. The circuit will test up to 56v zeners.

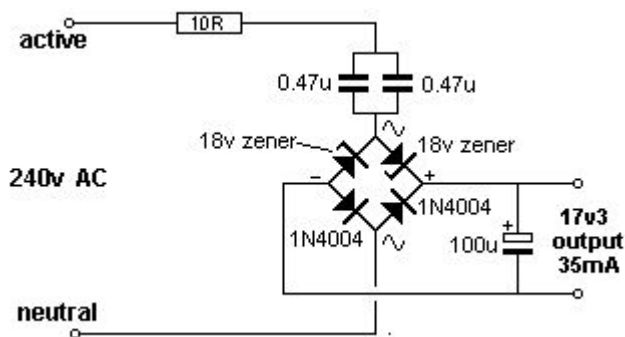


ZENER DIODE TESTER

TRANSFORMERLESS POWER SUPPLY

Here's a circuit that uses zener diodes in a power supply to show how they work. This clever design uses 4 diodes in a bridge to produce a fixed voltage power supply capable of supplying 35mA.

If we put 2 zener diodes in a bridge with two ordinary power diodes, the bridge will break-down at the voltage of the zener. This is what we have done. If we use 18v zeners, the output will be 17v4.



SUPPLY USING ZENER DIODES

When the incoming voltage is positive at the top, the left zener provides 18v limit (and the other zener produces a drop of 0.6v). This allows the right zener to pass current just like a normal diode. The output is 17v4. The same with the other half-cycle.

You cannot use this type of bridge in a normal power supply as the zener diode will "short" when the input voltage reaches the zener value. The concept only works in the circuit above.

VOLTAGE REGULATORS

A Voltage Regulator takes a high input voltage and delivers a fixed output voltage.

Providing the input voltage is 4v above the output voltage, the regulator will deliver a fixed output voltage with almost no ripple.

Voltage regulators are also called "3-TERMINAL REGULATORS" or "REGULATOR IC's" - although this name is not generally used.

In most cases, a voltage regulator gets quite hot and for this reason it has a high failure-rate.

If a regulator is not getting hot (or warm) it has either failed or the circuit is not operating.

A regulator can only decrease the voltage. It cannot increase the current. This means the current being supplied to a circuit must also be available from the circuit supplying the regulator.

All regulators have different pin-outs, so you need to find the input pin and output pin and make sure the voltage-difference is at least 4v. Some regulators will work with a difference as low as 1v, so you need to read the specifications for the type you are servicing.

Some regulators are called "negative voltage regulators" and the input voltage will be negative and the output will be negative.

You need to test a voltage regulator with the power "ON".

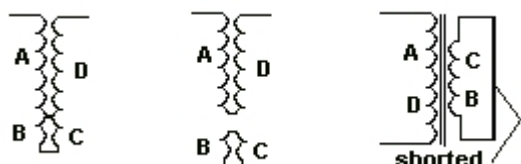
Make sure you do not allow the probes to short any of the pins together as this will destroy the regulator or the circuit being supplied.

With the power turned off or the regulator removed from the circuit, you can test it with a multimeter set to resistance to see if it is ok. If any resistance readings are very low or zero ohms, the regulator is damaged.

TRANSFORMERS

All transformers and coils are tested the same way. This includes chokes, coils, inductors, yokes, power transformers, EHT transformers (flyback transformers), switch mode transformers, isolation transformers, IF transformers, baluns, and any device that has turns of wire around a former. All these devices can go faulty.

The coating on the wire is called insulation or "enamel" and this can crack or become overheated or damaged due to vibration or movement. When two turns touch each other, a very interesting thing happens. **The winding becomes two separate windings.**



We will take the case of a single winding such as a coil. This is shown in the first diagram above and the winding is wound across a former and back again, making two layers. The bottom and top layers touch at the point shown in the diagram and the current that originally passed through A, B, C, D now passes through A & D.

Winding B C becomes a separate winding as shown in the second diagram.

In other words the coil becomes a TRANSFORMER with a SHORT CIRCUIT on the secondary winding as shown in the third diagram.

When the output wires of a transformer are shorted together, it delivers a very high current because you have created a SHORT-CIRCUIT. This short-circuit causes the transformer to get very hot.

That's exactly what happens when any coil or transformer gets a "shorted turn."

The shorted turns can be a single turn or many turns.

It is not possible to measure a fault like this with a multimeter as you don't know the exact resistance of a working coil or winding and the resistance of a faulty winding may be only 0.001 ohms less.

However when a transformer or coil is measured with an inductance meter, an oscillating voltage (or spike) is delivered into the core as magnetic flux, then the magnetic flux collapses and passes the energy into the winding to produce a waveform. The inductance meter reads this and produces a value of inductance in Henry (milliHenry or microHenry.)

This is done with the transformer removed from the circuit and this can be a very difficult thing to do, as most transformers have a number of connections.

If the coil or transformer has a shorted turn, the energy from the magnetic flux will pass into the turns that are shorted and produce a current. Almost no voltage will be detected from winding.

The reading from the inductance meter will be low or very low and you have to work out if it is correct.

However there is one major problem with measuring a faulty transformer or coil.

It may only become faulty when power is applied.

The voltage between the turns may be sparking or jumping a gap and creating a problem. A tester is not going to find this fault.

Secondly, an inductance meter may produce a reading but you do not know if the reading is correct. An improved tester is a RING TESTER.

The circuit for a ring tester can be found here:

<http://www.flippers.com/pdfs/k7205.pdf>

It sends a pulse to the coil and counts the number of returning pulses or "rings." A faulty coil (or winding) may return one pulse but nearly all the energy will be passed to the shorted turns and you will be able to see this on the scale. You will only get one or two return pulses, whereas a good winding will return more pulses.

One way to detect a faulty power transformer is to connect it to the supply and feel the temperature-rise (when nothing is connected to the secondary).

It should NOT get hot.

Detecting shorted turns is not easy to diagnose as you really need another identical component to compare the results.

Most transformers get very hot when a shorted turn has developed. It may deliver a voltage but the heat generated and a smell from the transformer will indicate a fault.

ISOLATION TRANSFORMER

An isolation transformer is a piece of Test Equipment that provides "Mains Voltage" but the voltage is "floating." You will still get a shock if you touch the two output leads, but it has a special use when testing unknown equipment.

Many electrical appliances are fully insulated and only have two leads connected to the mains.

When you take these appliances apart, you do not know which end of say a heating element is connected to the "live" (active) side of the mains and which end connects to the neutral.

I am not suggesting you carry out the following tests, but they are described to show how an isolation transformer works.

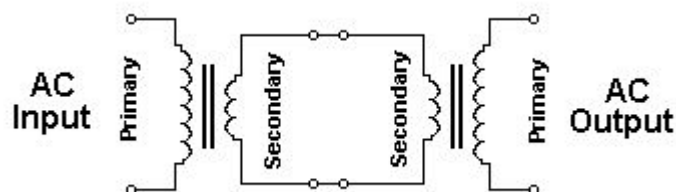
If you touch a soldering iron on the "live" (active) end of the heating element it will cause a short-circuit.

However when the appliance is connected to the main via an **isolation transformer**, you can touch an earthed soldering iron on either end of the heater as both leads from the isolation transformer are "floating."

Note: As soon as you earth one lead of the output an isolation transformer, the other lead becomes "active."

You can make your own **Isolation Transformer** by connecting two identical transformers "back-to-back."

The following diagram shows how this is done:



You can use any transformers providing the primary and secondary voltages are the same. The current capability of the secondary winding does not matter. However if you want a supply that has almost the same voltage as your "Mains," you need two transformers with the same voltages.

This handy isolation transformer will provide you with "Mains Voltage" but with a limited current.

In other words it will have a limited capability to supply "wattage." If you are using two 15VA transformers, you will only be able to test an appliance rated at 15 watts.

This has some advantages and some disadvantages.

If you are working on a project, and a short-circuit occurs, the damage will be limited to 15 watts.

If you are using two transformers with different VA ratings, the lower rating will be the capability of the combination.

If the secondaries are not equal, you will get a higher or lower "Mains Voltage."

If you get two old TV's or Monitors with a rating on the compliance plate of 45 watts, or 90 watts, you can assume the transformers are capable of delivering this wattage and making an isolation transformer will enable you to test similar items with the safety of being isolated from the mains.

Colin Mitchell designs a lot of "LED lighting lamps" that are connected directly to the mains. He always works with an isolating transformer, just to be safe. Working on exposed "mains" devices is extremely nerve-wracking and you have to be very careful.

DETERMINING THE SPECS OF A TRANSFORMER

Suppose you have a "mains transformer" with unknown output voltages and unknown current capability.

You must be sure it is a mains transformer designed for operation on 50Hz or 60Hz. Switch-Mode transformers operate at frequencies 40kHz and higher and are not covered in this discussion.

To be on the safe-side, connect the unknown transformer to the output of your isolating transformer.

Since the transformer will take almost no current when not loaded, the output voltages it produces will be fairly accurate. Measure the input AC voltage and output AC voltage.

If the transformer has loaded your isolating transformer it will be faulty.

Mains transformers are approx 15 VA for 500gm, 30VA for 1kgm, 50VA for 2kgm and 100VA for 2.5kgm.

VA stands for Volts-Amps and is similar to saying watts. Watts is used for DC circuits, while VA refers to AC circuits.

Once you have the weight of the transformer and the output voltage, you can work out the current capability of the secondary.

For transformers up to 30vA, the output voltage on no-load is 30% higher than the final "loaded voltage."

This is due to the poor regulation of these small devices.

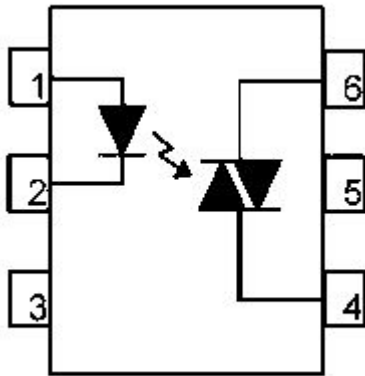
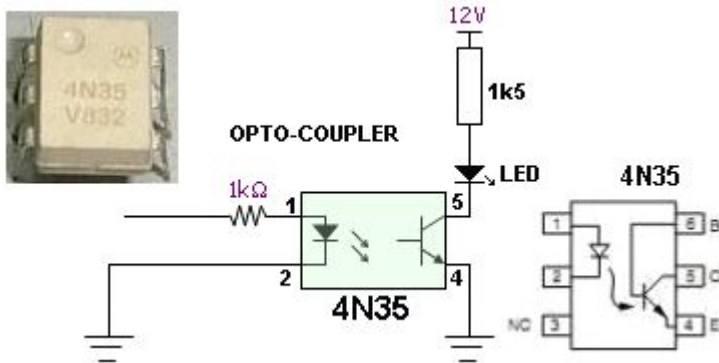
If the transformer is 15VA and the output voltage will be 15v AC, the current will be 1 amp AC.

You can check the "quality" of the transformer, (the regulation) by fully loading the output and measuring the final voltage. If the transformer has a number of secondaries, the VA rating must be divided between all the windings.

OPTO ISOLATORS and OPTO COUPLERS

Opto Isolators and Opto Couplers are the same thing. A common opto-coupler is 4N35. It is used to allow two circuits to exchange signals yet remain electrically isolated. The signal is applied to the LED, which shines on a silicon NPN photo-transistor in the IC.

The light is proportional to the signal, so the signal is transferred to the photo transistor to turn it on a proportional amount. Opto-couplers can have Light Activated SCR's, photodiodes, TRIAC's and other semiconductor devices as an output. The 4N35 opto-coupler schematic is shown below:



An opto-Coupler using a TRIAC

TESTING AN OPTO COUPLER

Most multimeters cannot test the LED on the input of an opto-coupler because the ohms range does not have a voltage high enough to activate the LED with at least 2mA.

You need to set-up the test-circuit shown above with a 1k resistor on the input and 1k5 on the output. When the 1k is connected to 12v, the output LED will illuminate.

The opto-coupler should be removed from circuit to perform this test.

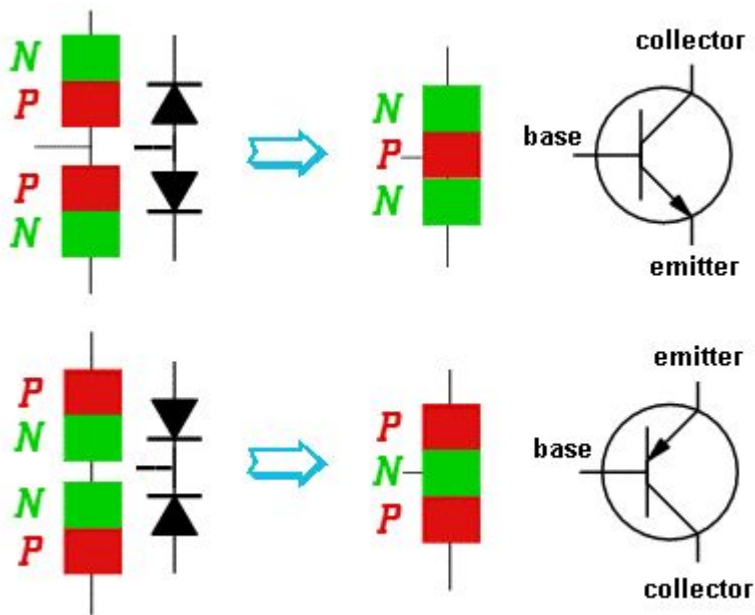
TRANSISTORS

Transistors are solid-state devices and although they operate completely differently to a diode, they appear as two back-to-back diodes when tested.

There are basically 2 types of transistor NPN and PNP.

A transistor is sometimes referred to as BJT (Bi-polar Junction Transistor) to distinguish it from other types of transistor such as Field Effect transistor, Programmable Unijunction Transistor and others.

In the following diagram, two diodes are connected together and although the construction of a transistor is more complex, we see the transistor as two diodes when testing it.



A TRANSISTOR APPEARS AS TWO DIODES WHEN TESTING IT

All transistors have three leads. Base (b), Collector (c), and Emitter (e).

For an NPN transistor, the arrow on the emitter points away from the base.

It is fortunate that the arrow on both symbols points in the direction of the flow of current (Conventional Current) and this makes it easy to describe testing methods using our simplified set of instructions. The symbols have been drawn exactly as they appear on a circuit diagram.

All transistors **are the same** but we talk about digital and analogue transistors. There is no difference between the two.

The difference is the circuit. And the only other slight difference between transistors is the fact that some have inbuilt diodes and resistors to simplify the rest of the circuit.

All transistors work the same way. The only difference is the amount of amplification they provide, the current and voltage they can withstand and the speed at which they work. For simple testing purposes, they are all the same.

NPN transistors are the most common and for an NPN transistor, the following applies.

(the opposite applies for PNP)

To test a transistor, there is **one thing** you have to know:

When the base voltage is higher than the emitter, current flows through the collector-emitter leads.

As the voltage is increased on the base, nothing happens until the voltage reaches 0.55v. At this point a very small current flows through the collector-emitter leads. As the voltage is increased, the current-flow increases. At about 0.75v, the current-flow is a MAXIMUM. (can be as high as 0.9v). That's how it works. A transistor also needs **current** to flow into the base to perform this amplifying function and this is the one feature that separates an ordinary transistor from a FET.

If the voltage on the base is 0v, then instantly goes to 0.75v, the transistor initially passes NO current, then FULL current. The transistor is said to be working in its two states: OFF then ON (sometimes called: "cut-off" and "saturation"). These are called digital states and the transistor is said to be a **DIGITAL TRANSISTOR** or a **SWITCHING TRANSISTOR**, working in **DIGITAL MODE**.

If the base is delivered 0.5v, then slowly rises to 0.75v and slowly to 0.65v, then 0.7v, then 0.56v etc, the transistor is said to be working in ANALOGUE MODE and the transistor is an **ANALOGUE TRANSISTOR**.

Since a transistor is capable of amplifying a signal, it is said to be an active device. Components such as resistors, capacitors, inductors and diodes are not able to amplify and are therefore known as passive components.

In the following tests, use your finger to provide the **TURN ON** voltage for the base (this is 0.55v to 0.7v) and as you press harder, more current flows into the base and thus more current flows through the collector-emitter terminals. As more current flows, the needle of the multimeter moves UP-SCALE.

TESTING A TRANSISTOR ON A DIGITAL METER

Testing a transistor with a **Digital Meter** must be done on the "DIODE" setting as a digital meter does not deliver a current through the probes on some of the resistance settings and will not produce an accurate reading.

The "DIODE" setting must be used for diodes and transistors. It should also be called a "TRANSISTOR" setting.

TESTING AN **unknown** TRANSISTOR

The first thing you may want to do is test an unknown transistor for COLLECTOR, BASE AND EMITTER. You also want to perform a test to find out if it is NPN or PNP.

That's what this test will provide.

You need a cheap multimeter called an ANALOGUE METER - a multimeter with a scale and pointer (needle). It will measure resistance values (normally used to test resistors) - (you can also test other components) and Voltage and Current. We use the resistance settings. It may have ranges such as "x10" "x100" "x1k" "x10"

Look at the resistance scale on the meter. It will be the top scale.

The scale starts at zero on the right and the high values are on the left. This is opposite to all the other scales. When the two probes are touched together, the needle swings FULL SCALE and reads "ZERO." Adjust the pot on the side of the meter to make the pointer read exactly zero.

How to read: "x10" "x100" "x1k" "x10"

Up-scale from the zero mark is "1"

When the needle swings to this position on the "x10" setting, the value is 10 ohms.

When the needle swings to "1" on the "x100" setting, the value is 100 ohms.

When the needle swings to "1" on the "x1k" setting, the value is 1,000 ohms = 1k.

When the needle swings to "1" on the "x10k" setting, the value is 10,000 ohms = 10k.

Use this to work out all the other values on the scale.

Resistance values get very close-together (and very inaccurate) at the high end of the scale. [This is just a point to note and does not affect testing a transistor.]

Step 1 - FINDING THE BASE and determining NPN or PNP

Get an unknown transistor and test it with a multimeter set to "x10"

Try the 6 combinations and when you have the black probe on a pin and the red probe touches the other pins and the meter swings nearly full scale, you have an NPN transistor. The black probe is BASE

If the red probe touches a pin and the black probe produces a swing on the other two pins, you have a PNP transistor. The red probe is BASE

If the needle swings FULL SCALE or if it swings for more than 2 readings, the transistor is **FAULTY**.



**This is an NPN transistor
The black probe is the BASE**

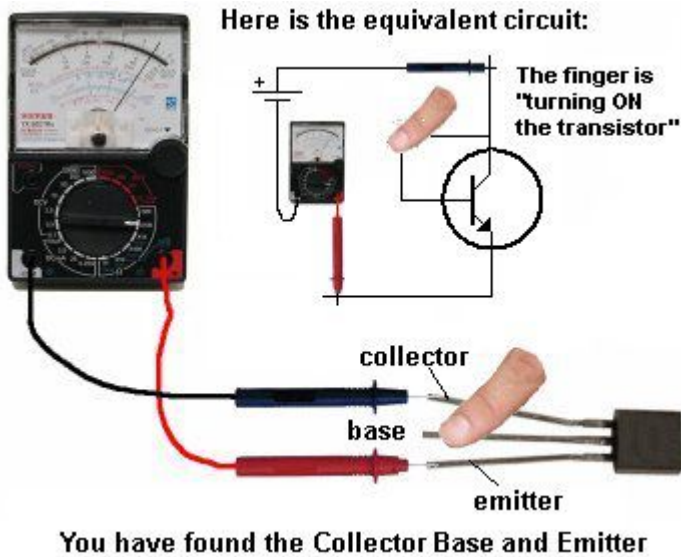
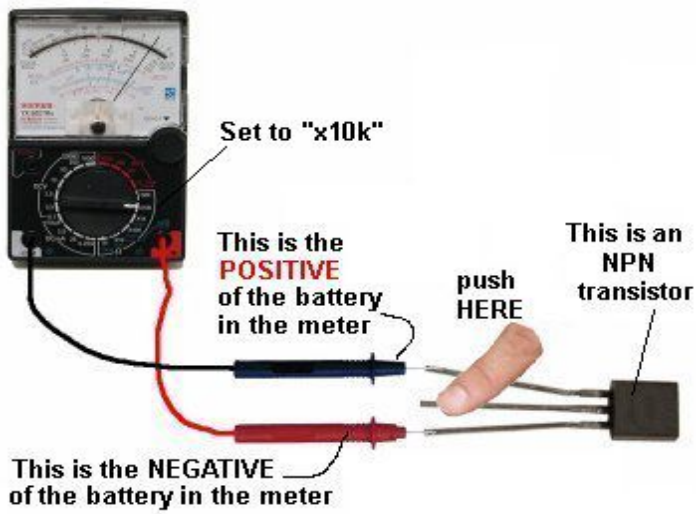


**This is a PNP transistor
The red probe is the BASE**

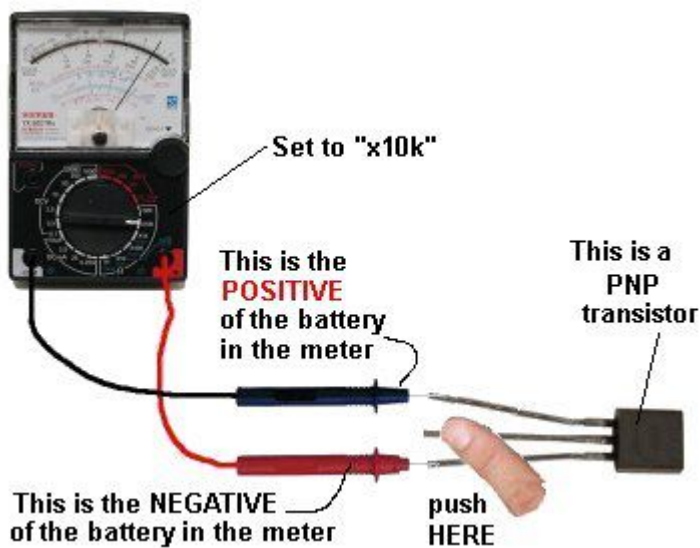
Step 2 - FINDING THE COLLECTOR and EMITTER

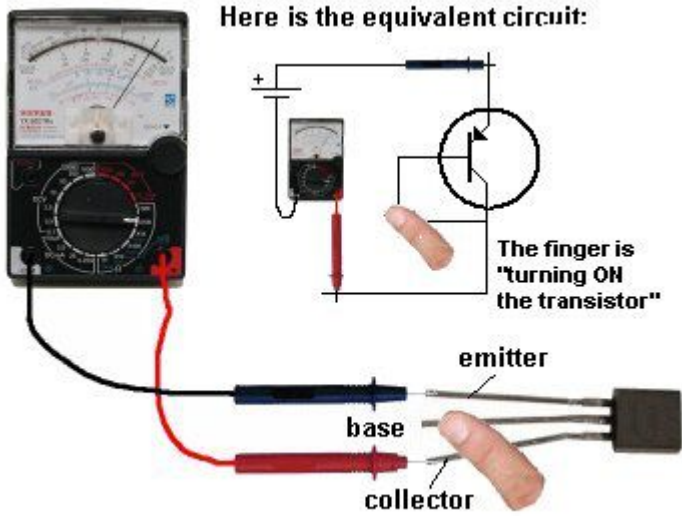
Set the meter to "x10k."

For an NPN transistor, place the leads on the transistor and when you press hard on the two leads shown in the diagram below, the needle will swing almost full scale.



For a PNP transistor, set the meter to "x10k" place the leads on the transistor and when you press hard on the two leads shown in the diagram below, the needle will swing almost full scale.



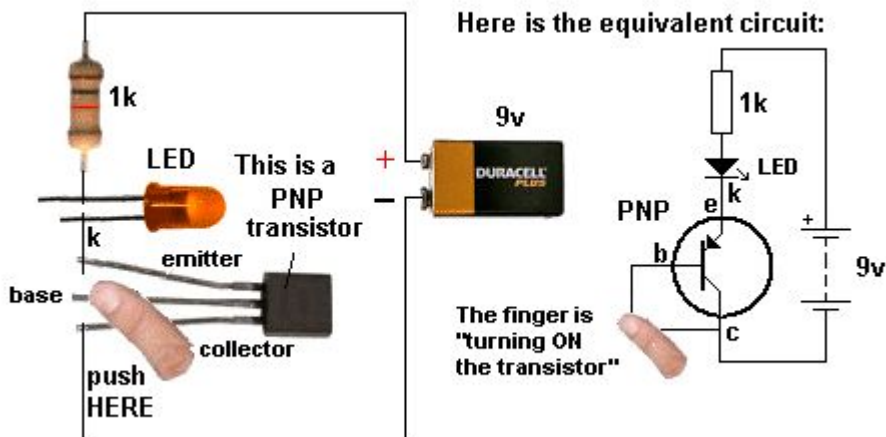
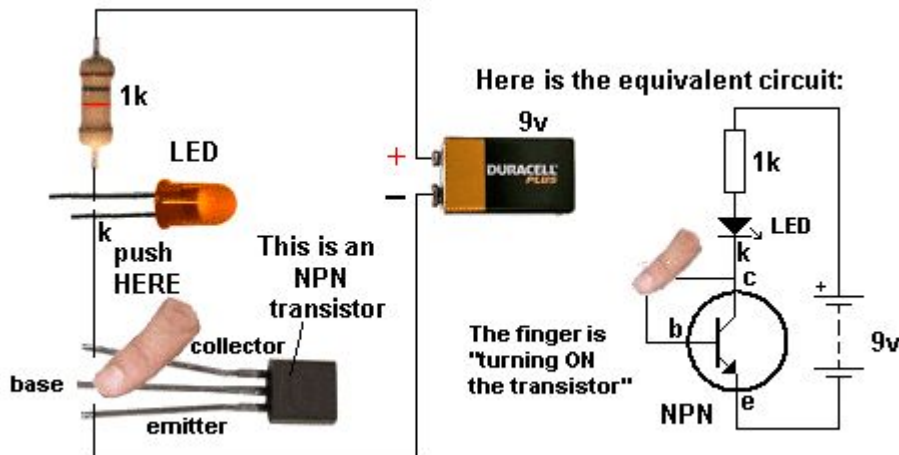


You have found the Collector Base and Emitter

SIMPLEST TRANSISTOR TESTER

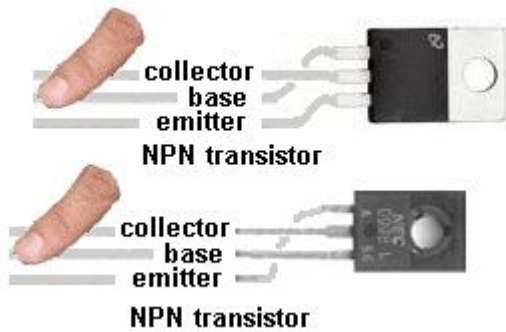
The simplest transistor tester uses a 9v battery, 1k resistor and a LED (any colour). Keep trying a transistor in all different combinations until you get one of the circuits below. When you push on the two leads, the LED will get brighter.

The transistor will be NPN or PNP and the leads will be identified:



The leads of some transistors will need to be bent so the pins are in the same positions as shown in the diagrams. This helps you see how the transistor is being turned on. This works with NPN, PNP transistors and

Darlington transistors.



HEATSINKING

Heat generated by current flowing between the collector and emitter leads of a transistor causes its temperature to rise. This heat must be conducted away from the transistor otherwise the rise may be high enough to damage the P-N junctions inside the device. Power transistors produce a lot of heat, and are therefore usually mounted on a piece of aluminium with fins, called a **HEATSINK**.

This draws heat away, allowing it to handle more current. Low-power signal transistors do not normally require heat sinking. Some transistors have a metal body or fin to connect to a larger heatsink. If the transistor is connected to a heatsink with a mica sheet (mica washer), it can be damaged or cracked and create a short-circuit. (See [Testing Mica Washers](#)). Or a small piece of metal may be puncturing the mica. Sometimes white compound called **Heatsink Compound** is used to conduct heat through the mica. This is very important as mica is a very poor conductor of heat and the compound is needed to provide maximum thermal conduction.

TRANSISTOR FAILURE

Transistor can fail in a number of ways. They have forward and reverse voltage ratings and once these are exceeded, the transistor will ZENER or conduct and may fail. In some cases a high voltage will "puncture" the transistor and it will fail instantly. In fact it will fail much faster via a voltage-spike than a current overload.

It may fail with a "short" between any leads, with a collector-emitter short being the most common. However failures will also create shorts between all three leads.

A shorted transistor will allow a large current to flow, and cause other components to heat up.

Transistors can also develop an open circuit between base and collector, base and emitter or collector and emitter.

The first step in identifying a faulty transistor is to check for signs of overheating. It may appear to be burnt, melted or exploded. When the equipment is switched off, you can touch the transistor to see if it feels unusually hot. The amount of heat you feel should be proportional to the size of the transistor's heat sink. If the transistor has no heat sink, yet is very hot, you can suspect a problem.

DO NOT TOUCH A TRANSISTOR IF IT IS PART OF A CIRCUIT THAT CARRIES 240VAC. Always switch off the equipment before touching any components.

TRANSISTOR REPLACEMENT

If you can't get an exact replacement, refer to a transistor substitution guide to identify a near equivalent.

The important parameters are:

- Voltage
- Current
- Wattage
- Maximum frequency of operation

The replacement part should have parameters equal to or higher than the original.

Points to remember:

- Polarity of the transistor i.e. PNP or NPN.
- At least the same voltage, current and wattage rating.
- Low frequency or high frequency type.
- Check the pinout of the replacement part
- Use a desoldering pump to remove the transistor to prevent damage to the printed circuit board.
- Fit the heat sink.
- Check the mica washer and use heat-sink compound
- Tighten the nut/bolt - not too tight or too loose.
- Horizontal output transistors with an integrated diode should be replaced with the

same type.

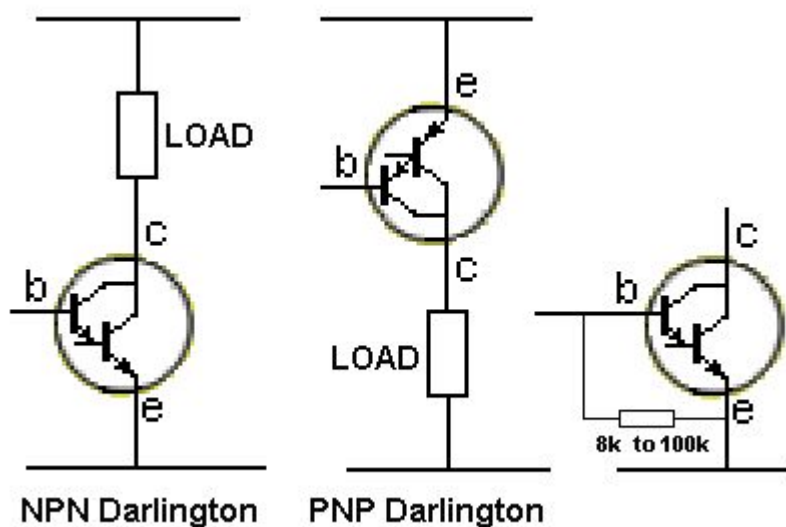
DIGITAL TRANSISTORS

There is no such thing as a DIGITAL TRANSISTOR, however some transistors are available with built-in resistors between base and emitter (to save space on the board) and these transistors are often used in digital circuits. The transistor will amplify analogue signals but when the signal is 0v then immediately goes to a voltage above 0.7v, the transistor is in a DIGITAL CIRCUIT and the transistor is called a DIGITAL TRANSISTOR. It is tested like an ordinary transistor but the low value resistor between base and emitter will produce a low reading in both directions.

DARLINGTON TRANSISTORS

A DARLINGTON TRANSISTOR is two transistors in a single package with three leads. They are internally connected in cascade so the gain of the pair is very high. This allows a very small input signal to produce a large signal at the output. They have three leads (Base, Collector and Emitter and can be PNP or NPN) and are equivalent to the leads of a standard individual transistor, but with a very high gain. The second advantage of a Darlington Transistor is its high input impedance. It puts very little load on the previous circuit.

Some Darlington transistors have a built-in diode and/or built-in resistor and this will produce a low reading in both directions between the base and emitter leads.



Darlington transistors are tested the same as an ordinary transistor and a multimeter will produce about the same deflection, even though you will be measuring across two junctions, (and a base-emitter resistor is present).

HORIZONTAL OUTPUT TRANSISTORS, SWITCH-MODE TRANSISTORS, FLYBACK TRANSISTORS, POWER TRANSISTORS, VERTICAL TRANSISTORS

These are all names given to a transistor when it is used in a particular circuit. ALL these transistors are the same for testing purposes.

We are not testing for gain, maximum voltage, speed of operation or any special feature. We are just testing to see if the transistor is completely faulty and SHORTED.

A transistor can have lots of other faults and the circuit **using the transistor** is the best piece of TEST EQUIPMENT as it is detecting the fault.

TESTING MOSFETs and FETs

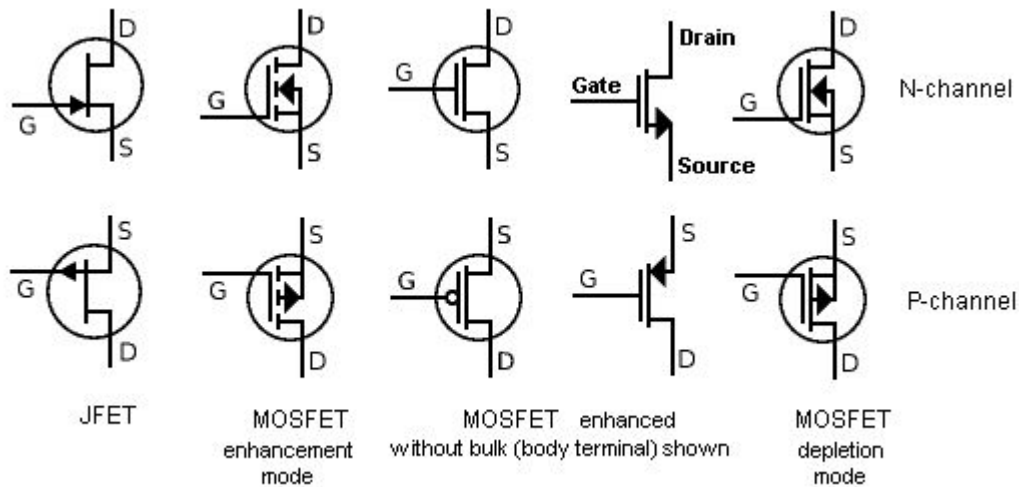
MOSFETs and **JFETs** are all part of the **FET** family.

MOSFET stands for **Metal Oxide Semiconductor Field Effect Transistor**.

FETs operate exactly the same as a "normal" transistor except they have different names for the input and output leads and the voltage between the gate and the source has to be between 2v to 5v for the device to turn on fully. A FET requires almost NO CURRENT into the Gate for it to turn on and when it does, the voltage between drain and source is very low (only a few mV). This allows them to pass very high currents without getting hot. There is a point where they start to turn on and the input voltage must rise higher than this so the FET turns on FULLY and does not get hot.

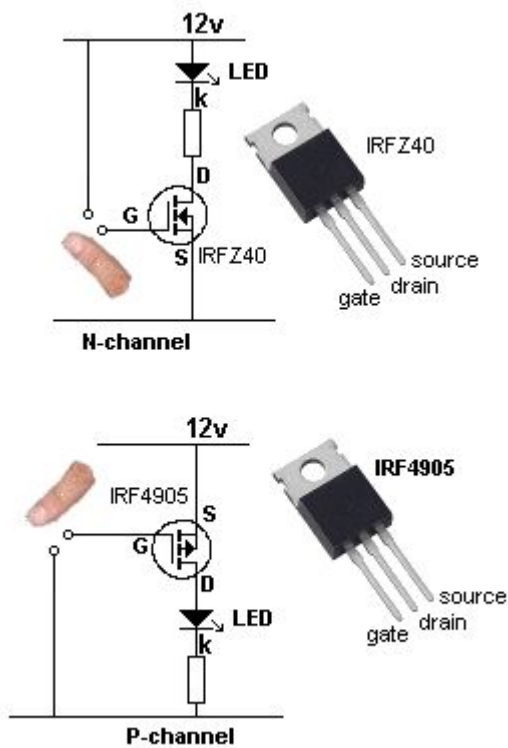
Field Effect Transistors are difficult to test with a multimeter, but "fortunately" when a power **MOSFET** blows, it is completely damaged. All the leads will show a short circuit. 99% of bad **MOSFETs** will have GS, GD and DS shorted.

The following symbols show some of the different types of MOSFETs:



Most **MOSFET** transistors cannot be tested with a multimeter. This due to the fact that the Gate needs 2v - 5v to turn on the device and this voltage is not present on the probes of either meter set to any of the ohms ranges.

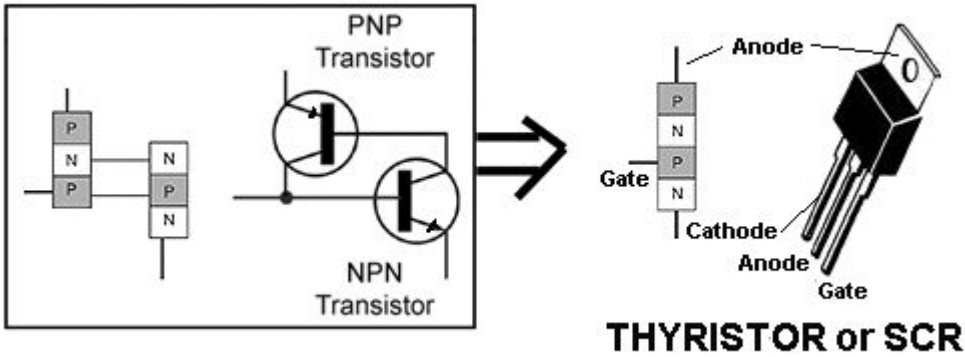
You need to build the following Test Circuit:



Touching the Gate will increase the voltage on the Gate and the MOSFET will turn on and illuminate the LED. Removing your finger will turn the LED off.

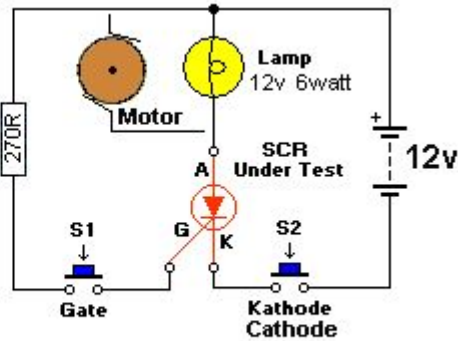
SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIERS (SCR)

The **Silicon Controlled Rectifier** (SCR) is a semiconductor device that is a member of a family of control devices known as **Thyristors**. It is a 3-leaded device and when a small current enters the Gate, the **thyristor** turns on. AND STAYS ON. It only conducts current between Anode and Cathode in one direction and it is mainly only used in DC circuits. When it is used with AC, it will only conduct for a maximum of half the cycle.

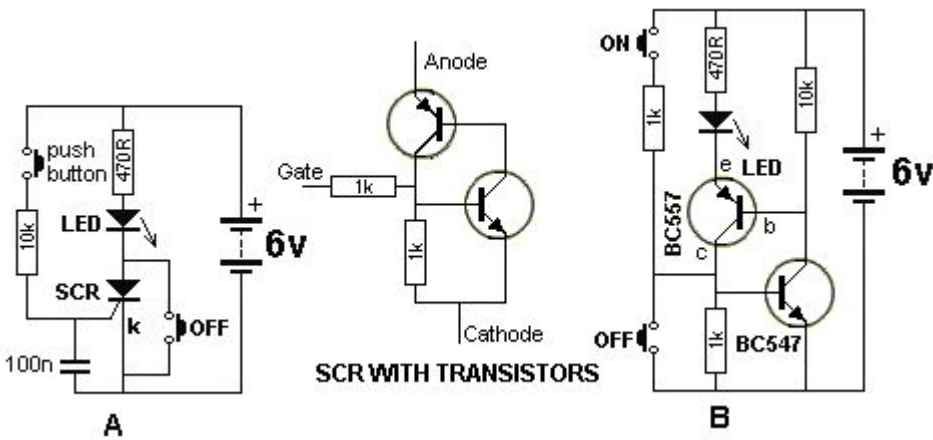


SCR

Silicon Controlled Rectifier



SCR TESTER



To understand how an SCR "latches" when the gate is provided with a small current, we can replace it with two transistors as shown in diagram B above. When the ON button is pressed, the BC547 transistor turns on. This turns ON the BC557 and it takes over from the action of the switch. To turn the circuit off, the OFF button removes the voltage from the base of the BC547.

Testing an SCR

An **SCR** can be tested with some multimeters but a minimum current Anode-to-Cathode is needed to keep the device turned on. Some multimeters do not provide this amount of current and the **SCR Tester** circuit above is the best way to test these devices.

Shorted SCRs can usually be detected with an ohmmeter check (SCRs usually fail shorted rather than open). Measure the anode-to-cathode resistance in both the forward and reverse direction; a good SCR should measure near infinity in both directions.

Small and medium-size SCRs can also be gated ON with an ohmmeter (on a digital meter use the Diode Check Function). Forward bias the SCR with the ohmmeter by connecting the black (-) lead to the anode and the red (+) lead to the cathode (because the + of the battery is connected to the negative lead, in most analogue multimeters). Momentarily touch the gate lead to the anode while the probes are still touching both leads; this will provide a small positive turn-on voltage to the gate and the cathode-to-anode resistance reading will drop to a low value. Even after removing the gate voltage, the SCR will stay conducting. Disconnecting the meter leads from the anode or cathode will cause the SCR to revert to its non-conducting state.

When making the above test, the meter impedance acts as the SCR load. On larger SCRs, it may not latch ON because the test current is not above the SCR holding current.

Using the SCR Tester

Connect an SCR and press Switch2. The lamp should not illuminate. If it illuminates, the SCR is around the wrong way or it is faulty.

Keep Switch 2 PRESSED. Press Sw1 very briefly. The lamp or motor will turn ON and remain ON. Release Sw 2 and press it again. The Lamp or motor will be OFF.

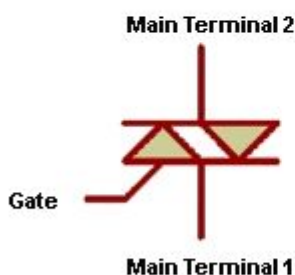
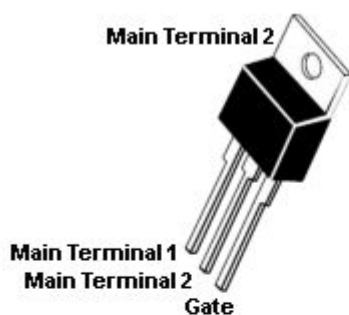
TRIACs

A triac is a bidirectional, three-terminal dual, back-to-back thyristor (SCR) switch. This device will conduct current in both directions when a small current is constantly applied to the Gate.

If the gate is given a small, brief, current during any instant of a cycle, it will remain triggered during the completion of the cycle until the current through the Main Terminals drops to zero.

This means it will conduct both the positive and negative half-cycles of an AC waveform. If it is turned on (with a brief pulse) half-way up the positive waveform, it will remain on until the wave rises and finally reaches zero. If it is then turned on (with a brief pulse) part-way on the negative wave, the result will be pulses of energy and the end result will be about 50% of the full-energy delivered at a rate of 100 times per second for a 50HZ supply.

TRIACs are particularly suited for AC power control applications such as motor speed control, light dimmers, temperature control and many others.



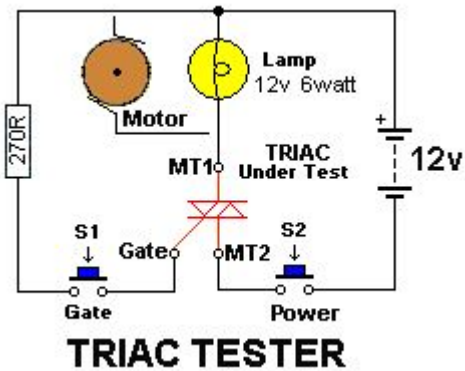
TRIAC (2 SCR's)

TRIode for Alternating Current

Using the TRIAC Tester

Connect a TRIAC and press Switch2. The lamp should not illuminate. If it illuminates, the TRIAC is faulty. Keep Switch 2 PRESSED. Press Sw1 very briefly. The lamp or motor will turn ON and remain ON. If the lamp does not turn on, reverse the TRIAC as the current into the gate must produce a slight voltage between **Gate** and **Main Terminal 1**.

Release Sw 2 and press it again. The Lamp or motor will be OFF.



MICA WASHERS AND INSULATORS

Plastic insulating sheets (washers) between a transistor and heatsink are most often made from mica but some are plastic and these get damaged over a period of time, turn dark and become cracked.

The plastic eventually becomes carbonized and conducts current and can affect the operation of the appliance. You can see the difference between a mica sheet (washer) and plastic by looking where it extends from under the transistor. Replace all plastic insulators as they eventually fail.

SPARK GAPS

Some TV's and monitors with a CRT (picture tube), have spark gaps either on the socket at the end of the tube or on the chassis.

These can consist of two wires inside a plastic holder or a glass tube or special resistive device.

The purpose of a spark gap is to take any flash-over (from inside the tube), to earth. This prevents damage to the rest of the circuit.

However if the tube constantly flashes over, a carbon track builds up between the wires and effectively reduces the screen voltage. This can cause brightness and/or focus problems. Removing the spark-gap will restore the voltage.

These are not available as a spare component and it's best to get one from a discarded chassis.

CO-AX CABLES

Co-Ax cables can produce very high losses and it seems impossible that a few metres of cable will reduce the signal. The author has had a 3 metre cable reduce the signal to "snow" so be aware that this can occur. Faults can also come from a splitter and/or balun as well as dirty plugs and sockets. This can result in very loud bangs in the sound on digital reception.

TESTING EARTH LEAKAGE DETECTORS or Residual Current Devices or Ground Fault Circuit Interrupters or GFCI

An Earth Leakage Detector or Sensor is a circuit designed to continuously monitor the imbalance in the current in a pair of load carrying conductors.

These two conductors are normally the Active and Neutral. Should the imbalance current reach 30mA the sensor will "trip" and remove the voltage (and current) from the line being monitored.

Some detectors will trip at 15mA.

You cannot alter the sensitivity of the device however there are a number of faults in these devices that can be fixed.

In some devices the contact pressure for the 10Amp or 15 Amp contacts is very weak and they arc and produce an open circuit. The result is this: When you press the reset button, power is not restored to the

output.

Clean the contacts with a small file and bend the metal strips to the contacts so they make a very strong contact.

The other fault is the trip mechanism.

The magnetism from the coil does not allow the pin to move and "trip" the contacts. It may be due to a small metal filing or the pin not moving freely enough.

All good Earth Leakage Detectors have a TEST BUTTON. This connects a resistor between the active line and earth so that 15mA or 30mA flows.

The detector should trip immediately. Make sure the trigger mechanism trips when the test button is pressed. None of the electronics in the detector can be replaced however you can test the mechanical operation and the pressure on the contacts when the unit is removed from the power. Do not work on the device when it is connected to the mains.

TESTING CELLS AND BATTERIES

There is an enormous number of batteries and cells on the market and a number of "battery testers." Instead of buying a battery tester that may give you a false reading, here is a method of testing cells that is guaranteed to work.

There are two types of cell: a **rechargeable** cell and a non rechargeable cell.

The easiest way to test a **rechargeable** cell is to put a group of them in an appliance and use them until the appliance "runs down" or fails to work. If you consider the cells did not last very long, remove them and check the voltage of each cell. The cell or cells with the lowest voltage will be faulty. You can replace them with new cells or good cells you have in reserve.

There is no other simple way to test a rechargeable cell.

You cannot test the "current of a cell" by using an ammeter. A rechargeable cell can deliver 10 amps or more, even when nearly discharged and you cannot determine a good cell for a faulty cell.

Dry cells are classified as "non-rechargeable" cells.

DRY CELLS and MANGANESE CELLS are the same thing. These produce 1.5v per cell (manganese means the Manganese Dioxide depolariser inside the cell. All "dry cells" use manganese dioxide).

ALKALINE CELLS produce between 2 - 10 times more energy than a "dry cell" and produce 1.5v per cell.

Alkaline cells can fail for no reason at any stage in their life and are not recommended for emergency situations.

The output voltage of some Alkaline cells can fall to 0.7v or 0.9v for not apparent reason.

There are lots of other cells including "button cells," hearing-aid cells, air cells, and they produce from 1.2v to 3v per cell.

Note:

Lithium cells are also called "button cells" and they produce 3v per cell.

Lithium cells are non-rechargeable (they are generally called "button cells") but some Lithium cells can be recharged. These are Lithium-ion cells and generally have a voltage of 3.6v. Some Lithium-ion cells look exactly like 3v Lithium cells, so you have to read the data on the cell before charging.

You cannot test the voltage of a cell and come to any conclusion as to the age of the cell or how much energy remains. The voltage of a cell is characteristic to the chemicals used and the actual voltage does not tell you its condition.

Some "dry cells" deliver 1.5v up to the end of their life whereas others drop to about 1.1v very quickly.

Once you know the name of the cell that drops to 1.1v, avoid them as the operation of the equipment "drops off" very quickly.

However if you have a number of different cells and need to know which ones to keep, here's the solution:

1. Check the voltage and use those with a voltage above 1.1v

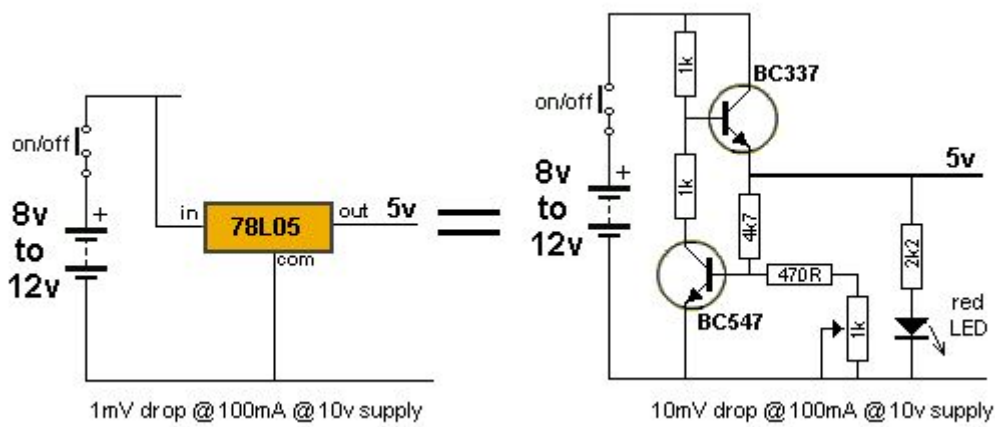
2. Next, select 500mA or 10A range on a meter and place the probes on a cell. For a AAA or AA cell, the current should be over 500mA and the needle will swing full scale very quickly.

Keep the testing short as you are short-circuiting the cell but it is the only way to determine the internal impedance of the cell and this has a lot to do with its stage-of-charge.

This will give you a cell with a good terminal voltage and a good current capability.

This also applies to button cells, but the maximum current they will deliver will be less.

If you want to get the last of the energy out of a group of cells they can be used in the following circuits:



TESTING PIEZO DIAPHRAGMS and PIEZO BUZZERS

There are two types of piezo devices that produce a sound.

They are called **PIEZO DIAPHRAGMS** and **PIEZO BUZZERS**.

A **piezo diaphragm** consists of two metal plates with a ceramic material between. The ceramic expands and contracts when an alternating voltage is placed on the two plates and this causes the main plate to "dish" and "bow."

This creates a high-pitched sound. There are no other components inside the case and it requires an AC voltage of the appropriate frequency to produce a sound.

A **piezo buzzer** has a transistor and coil enclosed and when supplied with a DC voltage, the buzzer produces a sound.

Both devices can look exactly the same and the only way to tell them apart is by connecting a 9v battery. One device may have "+" and "-" on the case to indicate it is a piezo buzzer, but supplying 9v will make the buzzer produce a sound while the piezo diaphragm will only produce a "click."



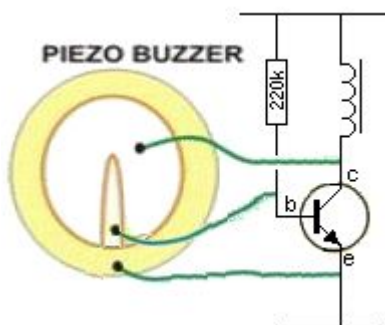
PIEZO DIAPHRAGM PIEZO BUZZER

A piezo diaphragm will produce a click when connected to 9v DC.

A piezo buzzer will produce a tone when connected to a DC voltage.

How a PIEZO BUZZER WORKS

A Piezo Buzzer contains a transistor, coil, and piezo diaphragm and produces sound when a voltage is applied. The buzzer in the circuit above is a PIEZO BUZZER.



The circuit starts by the base receiving a small current from the 220k resistor. This produces a small magnetic flux in the inductor and after a very short period of time the current does not increase. This causes the magnetic flux to collapse and produce a voltage in the opposite direction that is higher than the applied voltage.

3 wires are soldered to pieces of metal on the top and bottom sides of a ceramic substrate that expands sideways when it sees a voltage. The voltage on the top surface is passed to the small electrode and this positive voltage is passed to the base to turn the transistor ON again. This time it is turned ON more and eventually the transistor is fully turned ON and the current through the inductor is not an INCREASING CURRENT by a STATIONARY CURRENT and once again the magnetic flux collapses and produces a very high voltage in the opposite direction. This voltage is passed to the piezo diaphragm and causes the electrode to "Dish" and produce the characteristic sound. At the same time a small amount is "picked-off" and sent to the transistor to create the next cycle.

TESTING A CIRCUIT

Whenever you test a circuit, the TEST EQUIPMENT puts "a load" or "a change" on it.

It does not matter if the test equipment is a multimeter, Logic Probe, CRO, Tone Injector or simply a LED and resistor.

There are two things you need to know.

1. The IMPEDANCE of the circuit at the location you are testing, and
2. The amount of load you are adding to the circuit via the test equipment.

There is also one other hidden factor. The test equipment may be injecting "hum" due to its leads or the effect of your body at absorbing hum from the surroundings or the test equipment may be connected to the mains.

These will affect the reading on the test equipment and also any output of the circuit.

Sometimes the test equipment will prevent the circuit from working and sometimes it will just change the operating conditions slightly. You have to be aware of this.

The last section of this eBook covers [High and Low Impedance](#) and understanding impedance is something

you need to know.

The point to note here is the fact that the equipment (and the reading) can be upset by hum and resistance/capacitance effects of test equipment. This is particularly critical in high impedance and high frequency circuits.

TESTING INTEGRATED CIRCUITS (IC's)

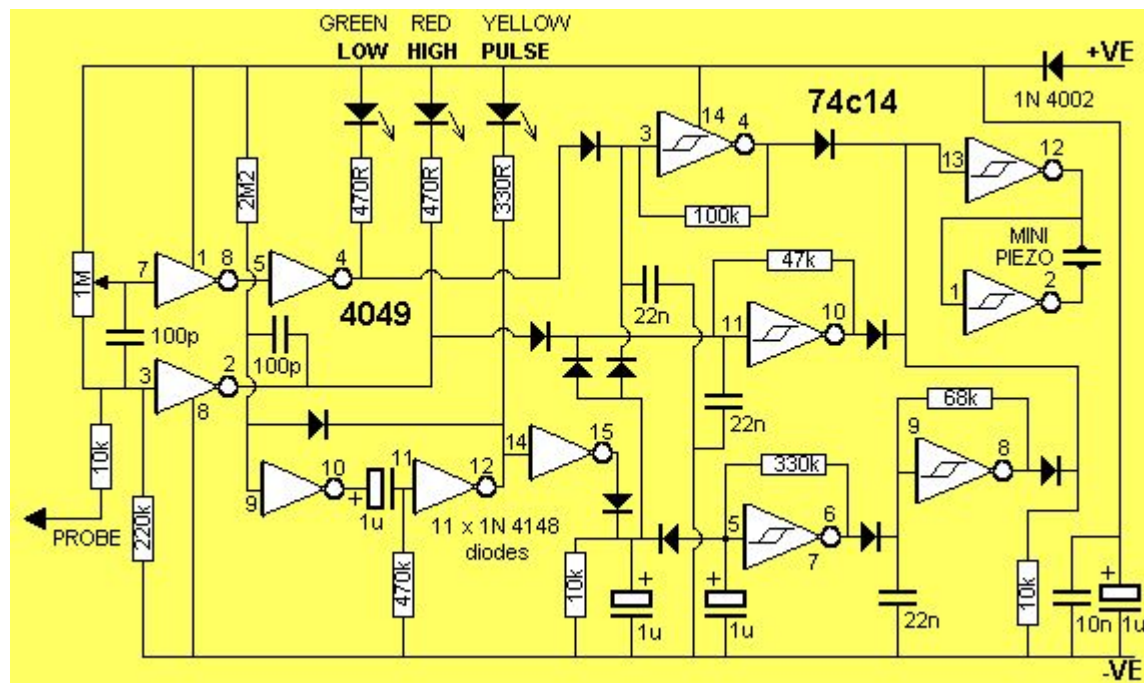
Integrated Circuits can be tested with a LOGIC PROBE. A Logic Probe will tell you if a line is HIGH, LOW or PULSING.

Most logic circuits operate on 5v and a Logic Probe is connected to the 5v supply so the readings are accurate for the voltages being tested.

A Logic Probe can also be connected to a 12v CMOS circuit.

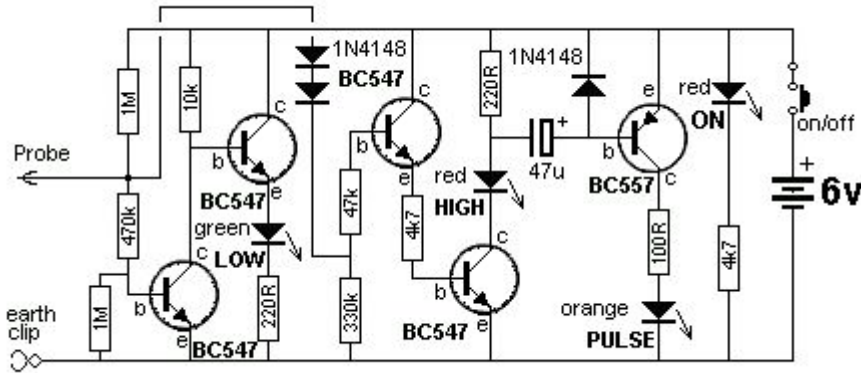
You can make your own Logic Probe and learn how to use it from the following link:

<http://www.talkingelectronics.com/projects/LogicProbeMkIIB/LogicProbeMk-IIB.html>



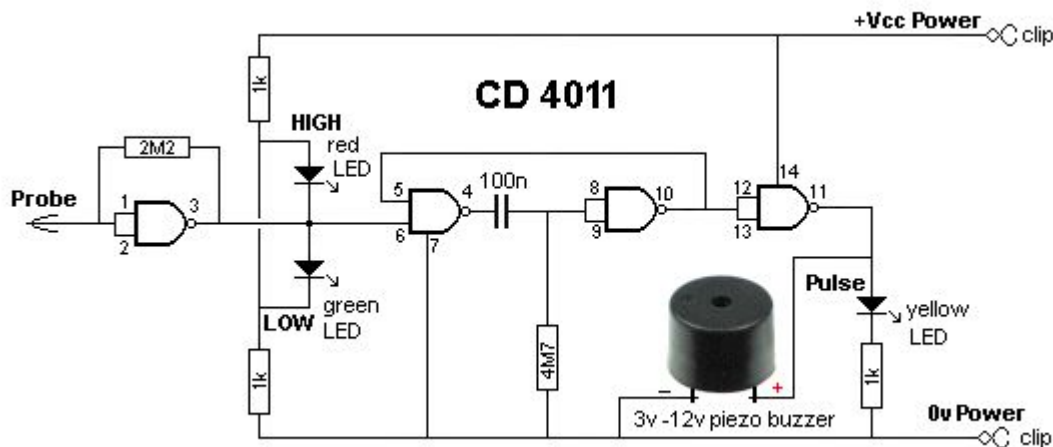
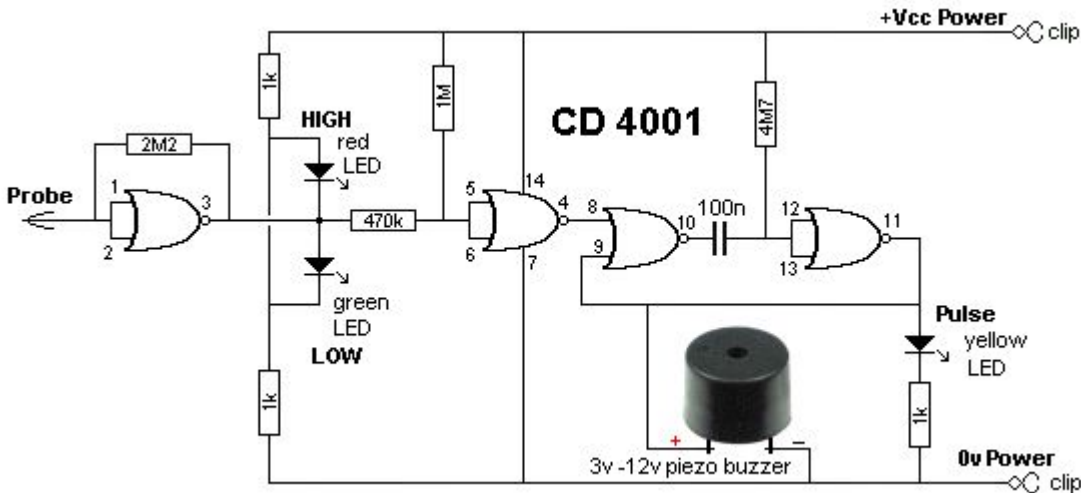
LOGIC PROBE with PULSE

This is a very simple transistor circuit to provide HIGH-LOW-PULSE indication for digital circuits. It can be built for less than \$5.00 on a piece of matrix board or on a small strip of copper clad board if you are using surface mount components. The probe will detect a HIGH at 3v and thus the project can be used for 3v, 5v and CMOS circuits.

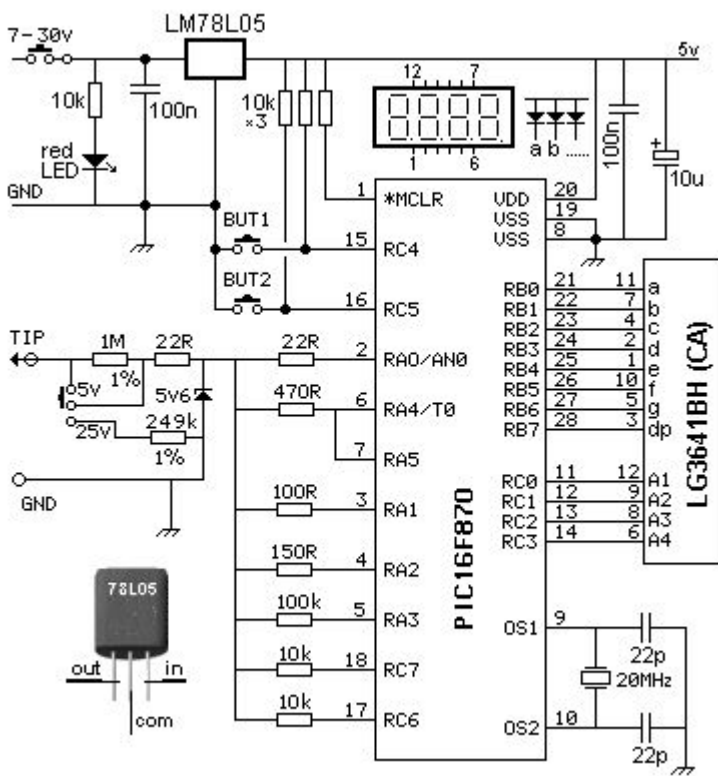


LOGIC PROBE using CD4001 and CD4011

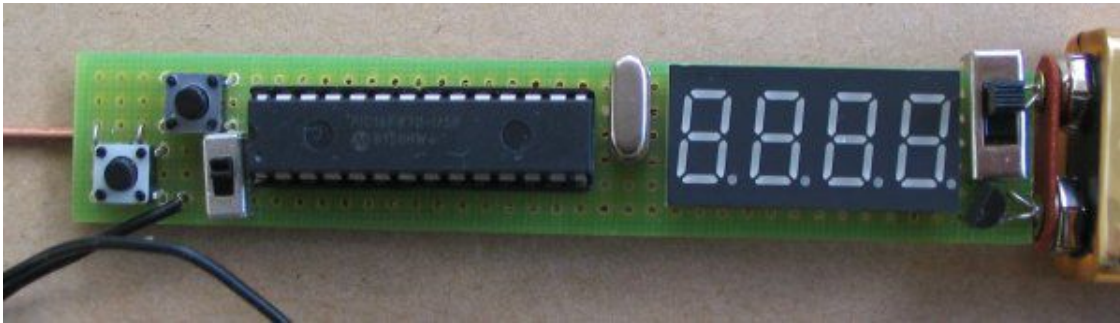
Here is a simple Logic Probe using a single chip. The circuits have been designed for the **CD4001** CMOS quad NOR gate and **CD4011** CMOS NAND gate. The output has an active buzzer that produces a beep when the pulse LED illuminates (the buzzer is not a piezo-diaphragm but an active buzzer containing components).



[SUPER PROBE MkII](#) has 20 different features including a Logic Probe, capacitance tester, Inductance tester, and more.



SUPER PROBE MkII Circuit



SUPER PROBE MkII

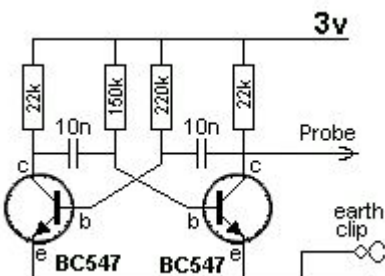
To test an IC, you need a circuit diagram with waveforms. These diagrams will show the signals and are very handy if a CRO (cathode ray Oscilloscope) is used to diagnose the problem. The CRO will reproduce the waveform and prove the circuit is functioning correctly.

A Logic Probe will just show activity and if an output is not producing a "pulse" or "activity," you should check the power to the IC and test the input line.

It is beyond the scope of this eBook to explain how to diagnose waveforms, however it is important to know if signals are entering and exiting an IC and a Logic Probe is designed for this.

SIGNAL INJECTOR

This circuit is rich in harmonics and is ideal for testing amplifier circuits. To find a fault in an amplifier, connect the earth clip to the 0v rail and move through each stage, starting at the speaker. An increase in volume should be heard at each preceding stage. This Injector will also go through the IF stages of radios and FM sound sections in TV's.



TESTING AUDIO AMPLIFIERS and AUDIO IC's

The **Super Probe MII** described above has a "noise" function and a tone function that allows you to inject a signal into an audio stage, amplifier (made from discrete components) or an audio chip, and detect the output on a speaker.

Audio stages are very difficult to work-with if you don't have a TONE GENERATOR or SIGNAL INJECTOR.

The signals are very small and not detected by a multimeter.

You can start anywhere in an amplifier and when a tone is heard, you can keep probing until the signal is not present or louder. From this you can work out which way the signal is travelling.

A Signal Injector is very handy for finding shorts and broken wires in switches, plugs, sockets and especially leads to headphones.

You can determine the gain of a stage (amplification) by probing before and after a chip or transistor and listen for the relative increase in volume from the speaker.

You can also use your finger to produce "hum" or "buzz" if a **Signal Injector** is not available.

Nearly all audio problems are plugs, sockets and cracks in the PC board, but finding them takes a lot of time and skill.

TESTING IC's - also called "CHIPS"

An Integrated Circuit is also called a "chip." It might have 8 pins or as many as 40.

Some chips are ANALOGUE. This means the input signal is rising and falling slowly and the output produces a larger version of the input.

Other chips are classified as DIGITAL and the input starts at 0v and rises to rail voltage very quickly. The output does exactly the same - it rises and falls very quickly.

You might think the chip performs no function, because the input and output voltage has the same value, but you will find the chip may have more than one output and the others only go high after a number of clock-pulses on the input, or the chip may be outputting when a combination of inputs is recognised or the output may go HIGH after a number of clock pulses.

ANALOGUE CHIPS (also see above)

Analogue chips are AUDIO chips or AMPLIFIER chips.

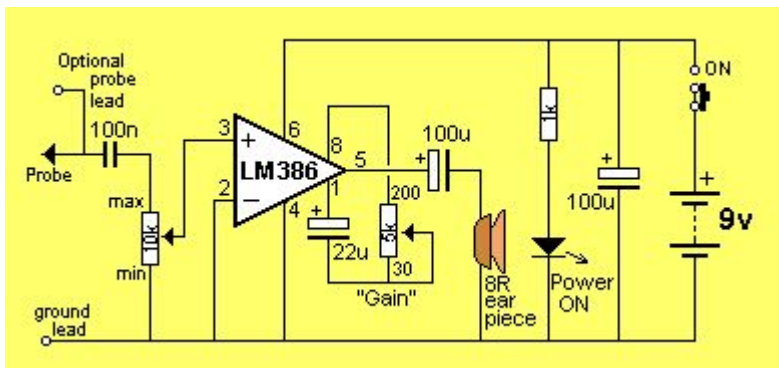
To test these chips you will need three pieces of test equipment:

1. A multimeter - this can be digital or analogue.
2. A [Signal Injector](#)
3. A Mini Bench Amplifier.

The [Mini Bench Amplifier](#) is available as a kit.



MINI BENCH AMPLIFIER



MINI BENCH AMPLIFIER CIRCUIT

Start by locating the power pin with a multimeter.

If the chip is receiving a voltage, you can use the Mini Bench Amplifier to detect an output.

Connect the Ground Lead of the Mini Bench Amplifier to 0v and touch the Probe tip on each of the pins.

You will hear faint audio on the Input pin and very loud audio on the Output pin.

If no input is detected, you can use a [Signal Injector](#) to produce a tone.

Connect the clip of the Signal Injector to 0v and the probe to the input pin of the amplifier chip. At the same time, connect the Mini Bench Amplifier to the output pin and you will hear a very loud tone.

These pieces of test equipment can also be used to diagnose an amplifier circuit constructed with individual components.

Amplifier circuits using discrete components are very hard to trouble-shoot and these pieces of test equipment make it very easy.

DIGITAL CHIPS

It is always best to have data on the chip you are testing, but if this is not available, you will need three pieces of equipment:

1. A multimeter - this can be digital or analogue.
2. A Logic Probe,
3. A logic Pulser.

Firstly test the chip to see if power is being delivered. This might be anything from 3v3 to 15v.

Place the negative lead of the multimeter on the earth rail of the project - this might be the chassis, or the track around the edge of the board or some point that is obviously 0v.

Try all the pins of the chip and if you get a reading, the chip will have "supply."

Identify pin 1 of the chip by looking for the "cut-out" at the end of the chip and you may find a small dimple below the cut-out (or notch). This is pin 1 and the "power pin" can be directly above or any of the other pins.

Next you need to now if a signal is entering the chip.

For this you will need a LOGIC PROBE.

A Logic Probe is connected to the same voltage as the chip, so it will detect a HIGH and illuminate a red LED. Connect the Logic Probe and touch the tip of the probe on each pin.

You will not know if a signal is an input or output, however if you get two or more active pins, you can assume one is input and the other is output. If none of the pins are active, you can assume the signal is not reaching this IC.

If only one pin is active, you can assume the chip is called a CLOCK (or Clock Generator). This type of chip produces pulses. If more than two pins are active, you can assume the chip is performing its function and unless you can monitor all the pins at the same time, you don't know what is happening.

This is about all you can do without any data on the chip.

If you have data on the chip, you can identify the input(s) and output(s).

A Logic Probe on each of these pins will identify activity.

A Logic Probe has 3 LEDs. Red LED indicates a HIGH, Green indicates a LOW and Orange indicates a PULSE (activity).

Some Logic Probes include a piezo and you can hear what is happening, so you don't take your eyes off the probe-tip.

It is important not to let the probe tip slip between the pins and create a short-circuit.

LOGIC PULSER

If you have a board or a single chip and want to create activity (clock pulses), you can use a Logic Pulser. This piece of test equipment will produce a stream of pulses that can be injected into the clock-line (clock input) of a chip.

You can then use a Logic Probe at the same time on the outputs to observe the operation of the chip.

You can also use the Mini Bench Amplifier to detect "noise" or activity on the inputs and outputs of digital

chips.
This only applies if the frequency is in the audio range such as scanning a keyboard or switches or a display.

This is how to approach servicing/testing in a general way. There are thousands of digital chips and if you want to test a specific chip for its exact performance, you will need to set-up a "test-bed."

REMOTE CONTROLS

There are two types of remote control - Infrared and RF. Infrared is used for short-range, line-of-sight for TV's DVD's etc.

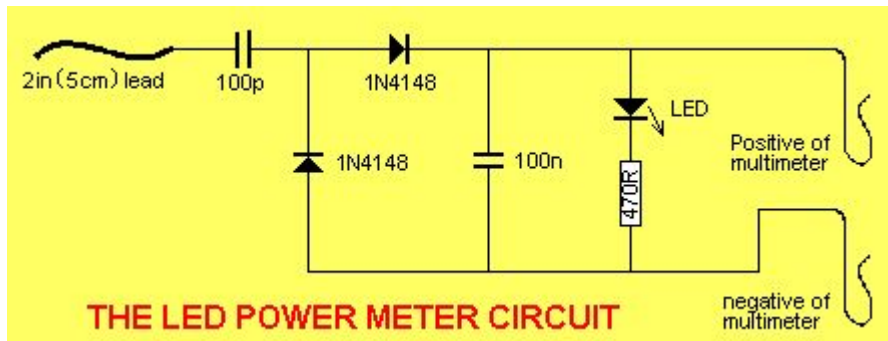
A few faults can be fixed, but anything complex needs a new remote control.

Check the batteries and battery-contacts. See if the IR LED is illuminating by focusing it into a digital camera and looking on the screen for illumination.

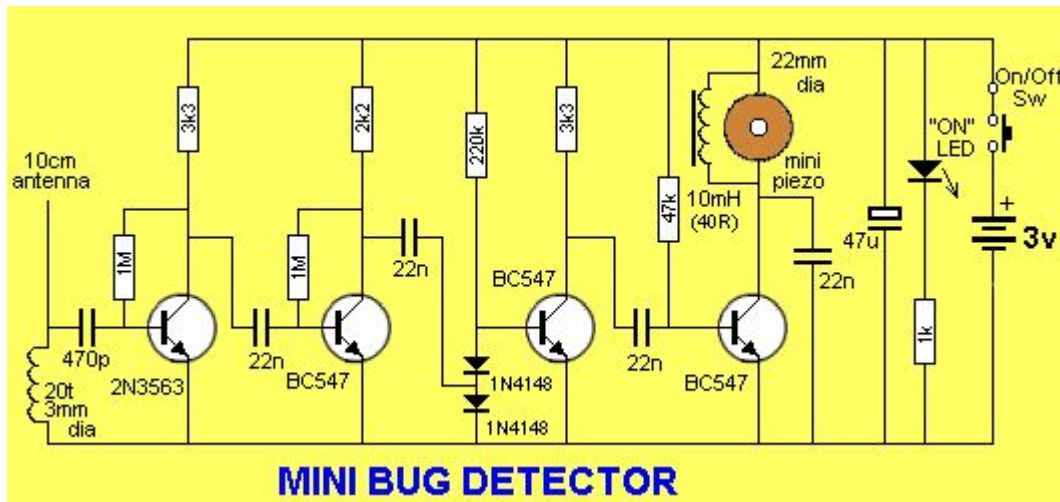
The only other things are a sticky button, a worn-out button or a crack in the PC board. Water damage is generally too much work to repair.

RF remote controls for cars, garage doors etc need a second working unit to check the power output.

Here is a simple circuit that can be connected to an analog multimeter to detect the signal strength at a very close range:



To hear the tone from a transmitter, the [Mini Bug Detector](#) circuit can be used:



Any further investigation requires a circuit diagram so you can work out what is actually being sent from the transmitter.

Most of the time it is a faulty switch, battery or contacts. Make sure the setting is correct on the "dip switches" and use a working unit to compare all your testing.

TESTING VOLTAGES ON (in) A CIRCUIT

There are basically two different types of circuit.

1. ANALOGUE CIRCUIT

An analogue circuit can also be called an AUDIO CIRCUIT and the voltages at different points in a circuit can be measured with a multimeter but the changes (the waveforms) will be quite small or changing at a rapid rate and cannot be detected by a multimeter.

You need a CRO to "see" the signals or a **Signal Injector** to inject a waveform into the circuit and hear the result on the circuit's speaker.

2. DIGITAL CIRCUIT

A digital circuit can also be called a "Computer Circuit" or "Logic Circuit" and some of the voltages can be

measured with a multimeter (such as supply voltages) but the "signal lines" will be changing from HIGH to LOW to HIGH very quickly and these signals are detected with a **Logic Probe**.

Here are some circuits with details of how to test the voltages.

Most circuits do not show voltages at various different points and we will explain what to expect on each "stage."

A "STAGE"

A stage is a set of components with an input and output. A "stage" can also be called a "Building Block." Sometimes it has a capacitor on the input and one on the output.

This means the stage is completely isolated as far as DC is concerned.

The stage has a supply (a DC supply) and it is producing its own voltages on various points on the "stage." It can only process (amplify) "AC." (signals).

Sometimes the stage can be given a name, such as small-signal amplifier, push-pull amplifier or output.

If the stage has a link or resistor connected to a previous stage, the previous stage will have a "DC effect" on the stage. In other words it will be biasing or controlling the voltages on the stage. The stage may be called a "timer" or "delay" or "DC amplifier."

It is important to break every circuit into sections. This makes testing easy. If you have a capacitor at the input and output, you know all the problems lie within the two capacitors.

In a digital circuit (no capacitors) you need to work on each IC (integrated Circuit) and test the input for activity and all the outputs.

Once you have determined if the circuit is Analogue or Digital, or a combination of both, you have to look at the rail voltage and work out the size or amplitude of the voltage or waveform.

This is done before making a test, so your predictions are confirmed.

You will need a **multimeter** (either Digital or Analogue) a **Logic Probe** and a **Signal Injector (Tone Generator)**. An analogue meter has the advantage that it will detect slight fluctuations of voltage at a test-point and its readings are faster than a digital meter. A digital meter will produce an accurate voltage-reading - so you should have both available.

HIGH IMPEDANCE AND LOW IMPEDANCE

Every point in a circuit has a characteristic called "IMPEDANCE." This has never been discussed before in any text book. That's why it will be new to you.

In other words, every point will be "sensitive to outside noise."

An audio amplifier is a good example. If you put your finger on the active input, it will produce hum or buzz in the speaker. This is because it is a HIGH IMPEDANCE line or high impedance section of the circuit.

The same applies to every part in a circuit and when you place Test Equipment on a line for testing purposes, the equipment will "upset" the line. It may be very slight but it can also alter the voltage on the point CONSIDERABLY.

We have already mentioned (above) how a cheap multimeter can produce a [false reading](#) when measuring across a 1M resistor. That's why you need high impedance test Equipment so you do not "load" the point you are testing and create an inaccurate reading.

The word **Impedance** really means resistance, but when you have surrounding components such as diodes, capacitors, transistors, coils, Integrated Circuits, supply-voltages and resistors, the combined effect is very difficult to work out as a "resistance" and that's why we call it "Impedance."

The term "**High and Low Impedance**" is a relative term and does not have any absolute values but we can mention a few points to help you decide.

In general, the base of a transistor, FET input of an IC are classified as HIGH IMPEDANCE.

The output of these devices are LOW IMPEDANCE.

Power rails are LOW IMPEDANCE.

An oscillator circuit and timing circuit are HIGH IMPEDANCE.

A LOAD is low impedance.

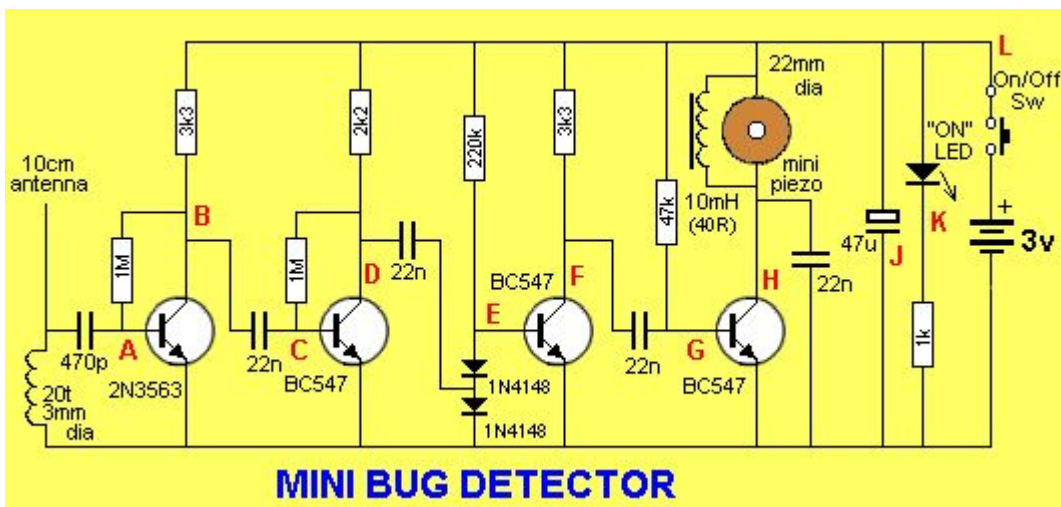
And it gets tricky: An input can be designed to accept a low-impedance device (called a transducer or pick-up) and when the device is connected, the circuit becomes LOW impedance, but the input circuitry is actually high impedance.

The impedance of a diode or LED is HIGH before the device sees a voltage higher than the junction voltage and then it becomes LOW Impedance.

Impedance is one of the most complex topics however it all comes down to testing a circuit without loading it.

That's why test equipment should have an input impedance higher than 1M.

The first circuit we will investigate is the **Mini Bug Detector**, shown above and below. Points on the circuit have been labelled A, B, C etc:



Point A - The first transistor is "self-biased" and will have 0.6v on the base. The antenna is connected to a 20 turn coil and you might think the coil will "short" the signals to earth. But the coil and 470p capacitor form a circuit that oscillates at a high frequency when the antenna wire picks up stray signals. The coil and capacitor actually amplify the signals (see Talking Electronics website: [Spy Circuits](#) to see how a TANK CIRCUIT works) and these signals enter the base of the first transistor. This is classified as a HIGH Impedance section because the signals are small and delicate and any loading via test equipment will kill them. The first transistor amplifies the signals about 70 times and they appear at **Point B**.

The signal passes through a 22n to **Point C** and the transistor amplifies the signal about 70 times to **point D**. **Point C** is classified as high impedance as any voltage measurement at this point will upset the biasing of the stage as a few millivolts change in base-voltage will alter the voltage on the collector considerably. **Point D** is classified as low impedance as any voltage-testing will not alter the voltage appreciably.

The output of the second stage passes through a capacitor to the join of two diodes. These two diodes are not turned on because the voltage at **Point E** can never rise above 0.7v as this is the voltage produced by the base-emitter of the third transistor.

The purpose of the two diodes is to remove background noise. Background noise is low amplitude waveforms and even though the transistor is turned on via the 220k, low amplitude signals will not be received. The third transistor works like this: It cannot be turned ON any more because any waveform from the 22n will be "clipped" by the bottom diode and it will never rise above 0.6v.

So, the only signal to affect the transistor is a negative signal - to turn it OFF.

Firstly we have to understand the voltage on the 22n. When the second transistor is sitting at mid-rail voltage, the 22n gets charged via the 2k2 and lower diode. When the transistor gets tuned ON, the collector voltage falls and the left side of the 22n drops. The right side of the 22n also drops and when it drops 0.6v, the top diode starts to conduct and when the voltage on the 22n drops more than 0.6v the third transistor starts to turn OFF. This effect is amplified by the transistor at least 100 times and appears at **Point F**. All the voltages around the two diodes are classified as HIGH Impedance as any piece of test equipment will upset the voltage and change the output.

There are some losses in amplitude of the signal as it passes through the 22n coupling capacitors but the end result is a very high strength signal at **point G**. The 4th transistor drives a 10mH choke and the mini piezo is effectively a 20n capacitor that detects the "ringing" of the inductor to produce a very loud output.

The 22n capacitor on the collector eliminates some of the background noise. The choke and piezo form an oscillatory circuit that can produce voltages above 15v, even though the supply is 3v.

The 47n capacitor at **Point J** is to keep the supply rails "tight" (to create a LOW Impedance) to allow weak cells to operate the circuit.

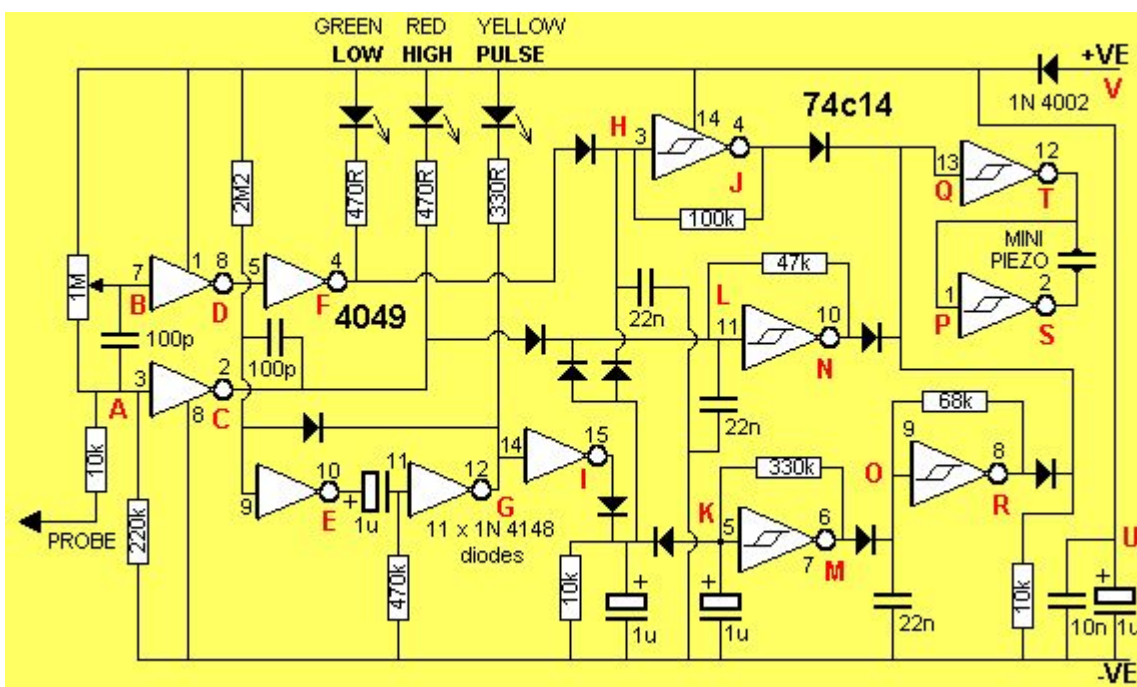
The "Power-ON" LED tells you to turn the device off when not being used and **Point L** is the power supply - a low impedance line due to the 47u electrolytic.

Testing the Mini Bug Detector

To test the Mini Bug Detector, you will need a [Signal Injector](#).

Place the Injector on **Point G** and you will hear a tone. Then go to **E**, **C** and **A**. The tone will increase in volume. If it does not increase, you have pin-pointed the faulty stage.

The next circuit is a combination of digital and analogue signals. It is a **Logic Probe**:



The voltage on a circuit (to be tested) is detected by the probe at **Point A** of the circuit above and the "tip" is classified as "reasonably high impedance" as it has a 220k resistor between the tip and 0v rail. The 1M reduces the impedance by about 20% but the inputs of the two inverters have no effect on the "tip" impedance as they are extremely high input-impedance devices.

The 1M trim pot is designed to put put a voltage on **point B** that is slightly higher than mid-rail so the green LED is turned off.

Point A will see a voltage below mid-rail and **point C** will be HIGH. **Point C** and **F** are low-impedance outputs.

When the tip of the probe is connected to a LOW voltage, Point B sees a LOW and Point F goes LOW to illuminate the green LED. At the same time it removes the "jamming voltage" produced by the diode between pin 4 of the 4049 and pin 3 of the 74C14 and the oscillator between **points H and J** produces a low-tone via the 100k resistor and 22n to indicate a LOW.

When the probe tip sees a HIGH, a lot more things happen.

Point C goes LOW and turns on the red LED. At the same time the 100p is in an uncharged state and the right lead goes LOW. This takes the left lead LOW as the left lead connects to a HIGH Impedance line and pin 9 goes LOW. This makes **point E** HIGH

and since the 1u is in an uncharged state, pin 11 goes HIGH. This makes **point G** LOW and the diode between pins 9 and 12 keeps pin 9 LOW and takes over from the pulse from the 100p. The yellow LED is illuminated. The 1u starts to charge via the 470k and when it is approx half-charged, pin 11 sees a HIGH and **point G** goes low. This creates the length of pulse for the yellow LED.

At the same time, **Point L** goes LOW because the "jamming diode" from pin 2 of the 4049 goes low and allows the inverter between point L and N to produce a tone for the piezo.

In addition, **Point I** goes HIGH and quickly charges a 1u electrolytic. This removes the effect of the jamming diode on pin 5 of the 74C14 and a low frequency oscillator made up of 68k and 1u between pins 5&6 turns on and off an oscillator between **points O and R** to get a beep. The mini piezo is driven n bridge mode via the two gates between **points QT and PS**.

Point U is a 1u electrolytic to reduce the impedance of the power rail and **Point V** is a protection diode to prevent damage if the probe is connected to the supply around the wrong way.

Testing the Logic Probe

You can test the Logic Probe with the simple [Logic Probe with Pulse](#) project described above. It will let you know if each point in the circuit is HIGH or LOW. You will also find out the difficulty in testing the points that are HIGH Impedance, as the Probe will upset the voltage levels and the reading may be inaccurate.

More circuits will be added here in the future.

SOLDERING

Here are three 30-minute videos on soldering.

1. [TOOLS](#)
2. [Soldering components](#)
3. Soldering [SURFACE MOUNT](#) components

TESTING A MOTOR

Strictly speaking, a motor is not an electronic component, but since a website gave a useless description on testing motors, I have decided to supply the correct information.

The only REAL way to test a motor is to have two identical motors and check the torque by connecting them to a low voltage and trying to stop the shaft with your fingers. This will give you two results. Firstly it will let you know the torque of the motor.

This is the twisting effect of the shaft. There is no way to determine the torque by knowing the voltage or current.

The unknown factor is the strength of the field magnets (permanent magnets) and this determines the torque.

Secondly, feeling the shaft will let you know if the torque is even for a complete revolution.

By having two identical motors, you can see if one has a lower torque.

Almost nothing can go wrong with a motor except for the brushes. If the brushes wear out, additional resistance will be produced at the interface between the brush and commutator and this can be detected by allowing the shaft to rotate slowly and feeling the resistance as it revolves. A 3-pole motor will have three places where the strength is greatest and each should have the same feeling. A 5-pole motor will have five places of strength.

If the strength is weak or not uniform, the motor is faulty.

You cannot test a motor with a multimeter as the resistance of the armature winding is very low and if the motor is allowed to spin, the back voltage produced by the spinning, increases the reading on the meter and is false.

Micro motors have a coreless armature. This means the 3 windings for the armature are wound on a machine then bent slightly into shape and glued. A circular magnet with 3 poles is in the centre and the armature rotates around this.

This type of motor is reasonably efficient because the armature is the greatest distance from the point of rotation, and the motor reaches full RPM very quickly.

I have not heard of the armature-winding flying apart but if you hear any scraping noise, it may be the winding.

3-pole, 5-pole and micro motors can be found in printers, eject mechanisms of CD players, toys, RC helicopters, cars etc and rarely fail. This discussion has been presented to clarify the testing procedure and expose the absurd claims of another site.

TESTING COMPONENTS "IN-CIRCUIT"

You can test components while they are IN CIRCUIT, but the surrounding components will have an effect on the results.

You can get all sorts of "In-Circuit" testers. They are expensive and offer little more accuracy than a multimeter.

In-Circuit testing with a multimeter can give you the same results as a tester.

All you have to do is turn the project ON and use a multimeter (set to voltage) to determine the voltage at various points. It is best to have a circuit of the equipment so you can what to expect at each point.

Only major departures from the expected can be located in this way.

Obviously the first thing to look for is burnt-out components. Then feel components such as transistors for overheating.

The look for electrolytics that may be dry. Sometimes these have changed colour or are slightly swollen.

If they are near hot components, they will be dry.

For the cost of a few dollars I change ALL THE ELECTROLYTICS in some pieces of equipment, as a dry electrolytic is very difficult to detect.

Testing a transistor "in-circuit" is firstly done with the supply ON. That's because it is quicker.

Measure the voltage between ground and collector.

In most cases you should get a voltage of about half-rail. If it is zero, or close to rail voltage, you may have a problem.

Turn off the supply and use the multimeter on low-ohms to measure all six resistances between the leads.

A low resistance in both directions on two leads will indicate a fault.

Resistors almost NEVER go "HIGH." For instance, a 22k will never go to 50k. However a low-value resistor will "burn-out" and you will read the value of the surrounding components.

Don't forget, some low-value resistors are designed to burn-out (called fusible resistors) and anytime you find a damaged low-value resistor, you will need to look for the associated semiconductor.

You can replace the resistor quickly and turn the circuit ON to see it burn out again.

Alternatively you can trace though the circuit and find the shorted semiconductor.

It's always nice to "see the fault" then "fix the fault."

Sometimes a transistor will only break-down when a voltage is present, or it may be influenced by other components.

When the piece of equipment is turned OFF, you can test for resistance values. The main thing you are looking for is "dry joints" and continuity. Dry joints occur around the termination of transformers and any components that get hot. Rather than wasting time checking for dry joints, it is better to simply go over the connections with a hot iron and fresh solder.

You may need to check the continuity of a track (trace) and it may go from one side of the PC board to the other.

Use a multimeter set to low-ohms and make sure the needle reads "zero-ohms."

It is very dangerous to do any testing on a project using a multimeter set to "amps" or "milliamps."

You cannot test "current flowing through a component" by placing the probes across a component. You will simply over-load the rest of the circuit and create a problem.

To find out if current is flowing through a circuit or a low-value resistor, turn the project ON and measure the voltage either across the component or the voltage on one end then the other.

A voltage-drop indicates current is flowing.

That's about it for testing "in-circuit." Use the rest of this eBook to help you with diagnosis.

Don't think an IN-CIRCUIT COMPONENT TESTER is going to find a fault any faster than a multimeter. They all use a multimeter principle.

SHORT CIRCUIT

Nearly every component can fail and produce an effect called a SHORT CIRCUIT.

This basically means the component takes more current than normal and it may fail completely or simply take more current and the operation of the circuit may be reduced only a small amount.

The resistance of the component may reduce a very small amount but this may have a very large effect on the operation of the circuit.

For instance, two turns in the horizontal or vertical winding of a yoke on the picture tube or monitor may arc and weld together and reduce the size of the picture on the screen, but measuring the winding will not detect the difference in resistance.

The same with the windings on a motor and a short between two winding in a transformer.

If the "short" is between two near-by turns, the change in resistance will be very small. If the "short" is between two different layers, the resistance will be reduced and it may be detected.

When a "short" occurs, the winding turns into a transformer. To be exact, an AUTO-TRANSFORMER.

In the following diagram you can see a normal winding in fig A:

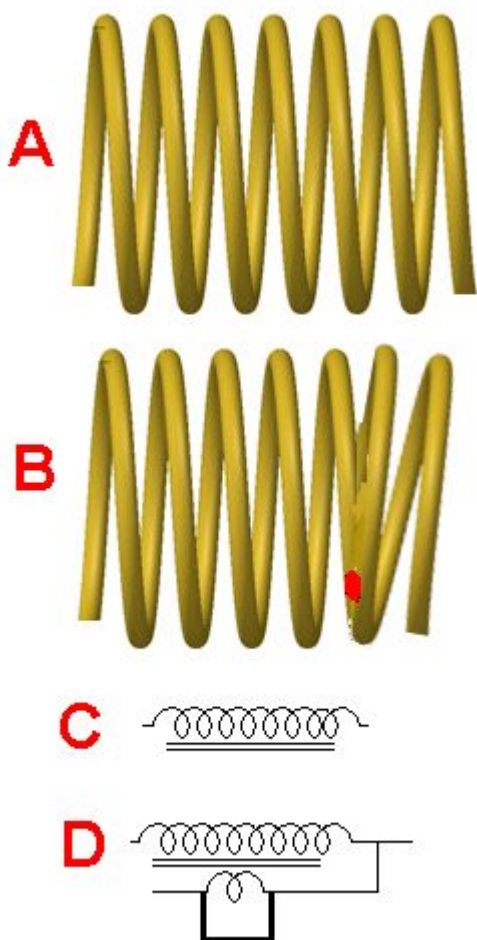


Fig B shows two turns touching each other and if the wire is enamelled, the coating has been damaged so the copper wire from the two turns is touching. This is called a SHORTED TURN.

In fig C you can see two turns touching.

In fig D the shorted-turn has been moved to the other side of the symbol to show the effect it has on the operation of the winding.

The shorted-turn is exactly like the secondary of a transformer with a "jumper" across the output.

This will produce a very high current in the secondary.

A very high current flows through the shorted turn and this changes the operation of the rest of the winding.

1. In most cases a SHORT CIRCUIT can be detected by feeling the additional heat generated by the component.
2. Next, turn off the supply and measure the resistance of the component. If it is lower than expected, the component will be faulty.
3. Next, measure the voltage across the component. If it is lower than normal, the component will be faulty.
4. Next, measure the current taken by the component. If it is higher than normal, the component will be faulty.
5. If the component is an inductor, such as a motor, coil or transformer, you can use an inductance meter. Compare a good winding with a faulty winding. Sometimes the fault will disappear because an arc develops across the fault when the component is operating.

INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL SHORTS

An **internal short** refers to two windings shorting together and the winding has a very high resistance between the winding and the frame on which it is wound. An external short refers to a winding shorting to the frame of the component - such as one of the armature windings shorting to the metal core, around which the wire is wound.

This may not be important unless another winding shorts to the metal frame and creates "**inter winding**" problems (**inner winding** problems is within the same winding).

The opposite to a short circuit is an OPEN CIRCUIT.

This is generally a broken lead or contact or a wire that has "burnt-out" or been "eaten-away" by acid attack or galvanic action by water and voltage (current).

1. No current will flow when an OPEN CIRCUIT exists.
2. The voltage on each end of the OPEN CIRCUIT will not be the same.
3. Measure the current across the OPEN CIRCUIT and determine if excess current is flowing.
4. Join the two ends of the OPEN CIRCUIT and see if the circuit operates normally.

THE END

This is not the full story to learning about servicing. It is just the beginning.

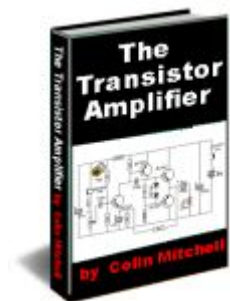
We have only covered the simplest tests and shown how 90% of faults can be found by checking voltages, waveforms and looking for obvious things such as burnt out components, cracks in PC boards.

The author has fixed over 35,000 TV's, radios, stereos, VCRs and all those things that were on the market 30 years ago.

Things have not changed. It's just that some repairs cost nearly as much as buying a new product and half the customers opt for dumping a faulty item and buying the latest "flat screen" version. That's why you have to get things through the workshop as fast and as cheaply as possible, to make a living.

If you want any more devices added to this list, email Colin Mitchell.

To help with understanding how a transistor circuit works, we have produced an eBook: [The Transistor Amplifier](#). It covers a whole range of circuits using a transistor.



Not copyright by Colin Mitchell

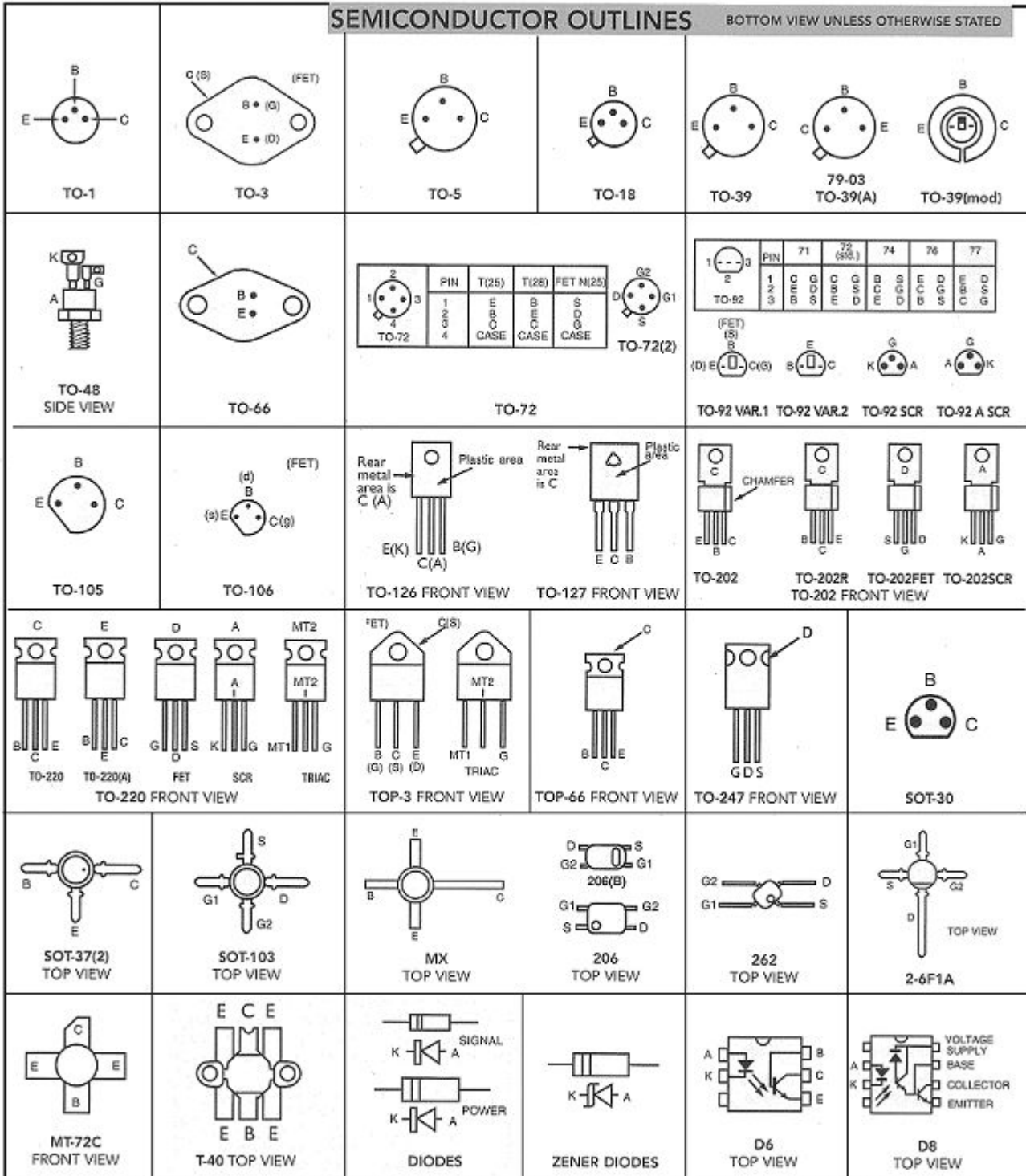
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










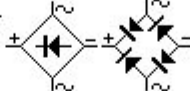




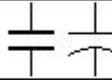
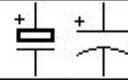




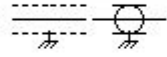


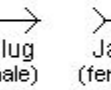
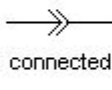




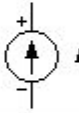
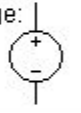







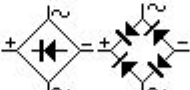


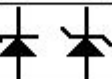

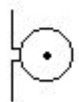
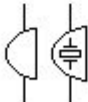
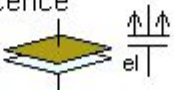


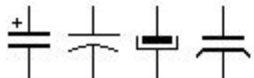



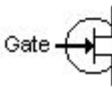


See the enormous amount of information on [Talking Electronics website](#).

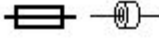
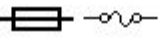
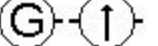

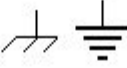

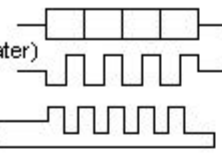



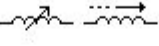













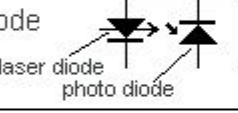



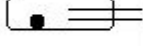
















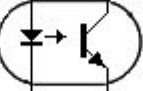

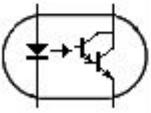
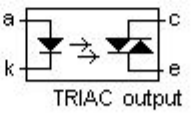







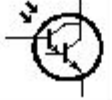


SEMICONDUCTOR OUTLINES

BOTTOM VIEW UNLESS OTHERWISE STATED

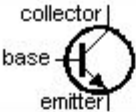
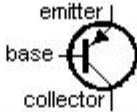







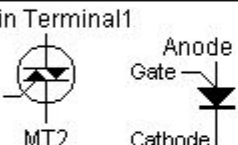
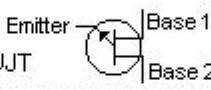

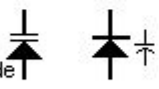


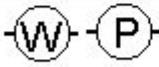


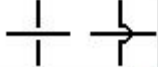





CIRCUIT SYMBOLS by TALKING ELECTRONICS

<p>AC current: </p> <p>voltage: </p>	<p>ALTERNISTOR TRIAC</p> <p>A TRIAC and 33 - 43v DIAC</p> <p>Main Terminal 1</p> <p>Gate</p> <p>Main Terminal 2</p> 	<p>Ammeter (amp meter)</p> 
<p>AND Gate</p> 	<p>AND Gate</p> 	<p>Antenna balanced</p> 
<p>Antenna Loop, Shielded</p> 	<p>Antenna Loop, Unshielded</p> 	<p>Antenna unbalanced</p> 
<p>Attenuator, fixed (see Resistor)</p> 	<p>Attenuator, variable (see Resistor)</p> 	<p>Battery</p> 
<p>Bilateral Switch (DIAC)</p> 	<p>Bridge Rectifier (Diode Bridge)</p> 	<p>BUFFER (Amplifier Gate)</p> 
<p>BUFFER (Amplifier Gate)</p> 	<p>Buzzer</p> 	<p>Capacitor feedthrough</p> 
<p>Capacitor non-polarised</p> 	<p>Capacitor polarised (see electrolytic)</p> 	<p>Capacitor Variable</p> 
<p>Cavity Resonator</p> 	<p>Cell</p> 	<p>Circuit Breaker</p> 
<p>Coaxial Cable</p> 	<p>CRO - Cathode Ray Oscilloscope</p> 	<p>Crystal Microphone (Piezoelectric)</p> 
<p>Connectors</p> <p>Plug (male)</p> <p>Jack (female)</p> <p>connected</p>    <p>Plug (male)</p> <p>(female)</p>  	<p>Crystal Piezoelectric</p> 	<p>DC current: </p> <p>voltage: </p>
<p>Darlington Transistor</p> <p>collector</p> <p>base</p> <p>emitter</p> 	<p>DIAC (Bilateral Switch)</p> 	<p>Delay Line</p> 
<p>Diode - Gunn</p> 	<p>Diode - Light Emitting (LED)</p> 	<p>Diode Photo Sensitive</p> 
<p>Diode Photovoltaic</p> 	<p>Diode Bridge (Bridge Rectifier)</p> 	<p>Diode - Pin</p> 
<p>Diode - Varactor</p> 	<p>Diode - Zener</p> 	<p>Earth Ground</p> 
<p>Earpiece (earphone, crystal earpiece)</p>  	<p>Electroluminescence</p> 	<p>Electret Microphone (Condenser mic)</p> 
<p>Electrolytic (Polarised Capacitor)</p> <p>alternate symbols: (positive on top)</p>  	<p>Electrolytic - Tanatalum</p> <p>positive end</p> <p>black band or chamfer</p>  	<p>Exclusive-OR Gate (XOR Gate)</p> 
<p>Field Effect Transistor (FET) n-channel also: N-Channel J FET</p> <p>Gate</p> <p>Drain</p> <p>Source</p> 	<p>Field Effect Transistor (FET) p-channel also: P-Channel J FET</p> <p>Gate</p> <p>Drain</p> <p>Source</p> 	<p>Flashing LED (Light Emitting Diode)</p> <p>(Indicates chip inside LED)</p> 

Ferrite Bead 	Fuse 	Galvanometer 
Globe 	Ground Chassis 	Ground Earth 
Heater (immersion heater) (cooker etc) 	IC Integrated Circuit  power ground	Inductor Air Core 
Headphone 	Inductor Variable 	Inductor Iron Core or ferrite core  
Inductor Tapped 	INVERTER (NOT Gate) 	Integrated Circuit 
Inverter (NOT Gate)	Jack Co-axial 	Jack Phone (Switched) 
Jack Phone (3 conductor) 	Jack Phone (Phone Jack) 	Lamp Incandescent 
Lamp - Neon 	LASCR (Light Activated Silicon Controlled Rectifier) 	LDR (Light Dependent Resistor) 
LASER diode  laser diode photo diode	Light Emitting Diode (LED)  	Light Emitting Diode (LED - flashing)  (Indicates chip inside LED)
Mercury Switch 	Micro-amp meter (micro-ammeter) 	Microphone (see Electret Mic)  
Microphone (Crystal - piezoelectric) 	Milliamp meter (milli-ammeter) 	Motor 
NAND Gate 	NAND Gate 	Nitinol wire "Muscle wire" 
Negative Voltage Connection 	NOR Gate 	NOR Gate 
NOT Gate Inverter 	NOT Gate Inverter 	Ohm meter 
Operational Amplifier (Op Amp) 	Optocoupler (Transistor output) 	Opto Coupler (Opto-isolator)  Photo-transistor output
Optocoupler (Darlington output) 	Opto Coupler (Opto-isolator)  TRIAC output	OR Gate 
OR Gate 	Oscilloscope see CRO 	Outlet (Power Outlet) 
Piezo Diaphragm 	Photo Cell (photo sensitive resistor) 	Photo Diode 
Photo Darlington Transistor 	Photo FET (Field Effect Transistor)  Gate Drain Source	Photo Transistor 

Photovoltaic Cell (Solar Cell)		Piezo Tweeter (Piezo Speaker)		Positive Voltage Connection	
Potentiometer (variable resistor)		Programmable Unijunction Transistor PUT		Rectifier Silicon Controlled (SCR)	
Rectifier Semiconductor		Reed Switch		Relay - spst	
Relay - spdt		Relay - dpst		Relay - dpdt	
Resistor Fixed		Resistor Non Inductive		Resistor preset	
Resistor variable		Resonator 3-pin		RFC Radio Frequency Choke	
Rheostat (Variable Resistor)		Saturable Reactor		Schmitt Trigger (Inverter Gate)	
Schottky Diode (also Schottky) Low forward voltage 0.3v Fast switching also called Schottky Barrier Diode		Shielding		Shockley Diode 4-layer PNP device Remains off until forward current reaches the forward break-over voltage.	
Silicon Bilateral Switch (SBS)		Signal Generator		Silicon Controlled Rectifier (SCR)	
Silicon Unilateral Switch (SUS)		Solar Cell		Switch - process activated normally open: normally closed:	
Surface Mount		Switch - spst		Flow	
		Switch - spdt		Level	
		Switch - dpst		Pressure	
		Switch - dpdt		Temperature	
		Switch - mercury tilt switch		Speaker	
		Spark Gap		Switch - Rotary	
Switch - push (Push Button)		Switch - push off (used in alarms etc)		Thermocouple	
Test Point		Thyristors: Main Terminal 1		Tilt switch mercury	
Thermal Probe NTC: as temp rises, resistance decreases		Bilateral Switch		Touch Sensor	
		DIAC		Transformer (Tapped Primary/Sec)	
		SCR			
		TRIAC			
		Transformer Iron Core			

Transistor Bipolar - NPN 	Transistor Bipolar - PNP 	Transistor n-channel Field Effect 
Transistor p-channel Field Effect 	Transistor Metal Oxide Single Gate 	Transistor Metal Oxide Dual Gate 
Transistor Photosensitive 	Transistor Schottky - NPN 	Transistor Unijunction - UJT N-type 
TRIAC 	Transistor Unijunction - UJT P-type 	Tunnel Diode 
Varactor varactor diode 	Voltage Regulator (7805 etc) 	Voltmeter 
Wattmeter 	Wires 	Wires Connected 
Wires Not Connected 	XOR Gate (exclusive OR) 	XOR Gate (exclusive OR) 
Zener Diode 	Learn BASIC ELECTRONICS Go to: http://www.talkingelectronics.com	