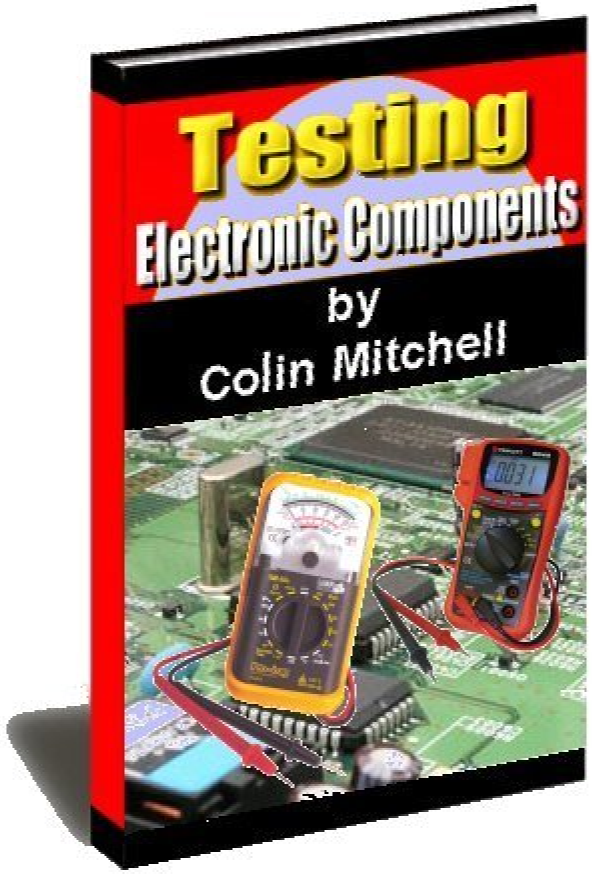


This eBook shows you how to TEST COMPONENTS.
To do this you need "TEST GEAR." The best item of Test Gear is a MULTIMETER. It can test almost 90% of all components. And that's what we will do in this eBook:

CONTENTS

Use your "brain, knowledge and your fingers."

Before we start, fixing anything is a combination of skill, luck and good diagnosis.
Sometimes you can fix something by letting it run until it finally fails.
Some things start to work as soon as you touch them.
Some things can never be fixed.
But some things can be fixed by feeling the temperature rise and deciding if it is getting too hot.
Sometimes you can smell something getting too hot.
Sometimes you can see SMOKE.
All these things make you a very clever technician and about 50% of faults will be fixed by looking for dry joints, burnt parts, overheating and carefully inspecting an item before you disturb it.

By simply touching different items you can quite often feel a hot item and home-in on the fault - at a saving of hours of work.
Servicing is not "A bull at a gate" approach.
You may be able to service something by turning it on and leaving it for hours - and start thinking.
It may take you a day to come up with the answer.
Believe me. That's how it worked for me - while fixing over 35,000 TV's.

TEST EQUIPMENT

Everyone thinks TEST EQUIPMENT will "solve the problem."
This is a big big MISTAKE.
Test equipment can help solve a problem and it can "lead to frustration," "give an incorrect answer," "mess you up," and make things worse.
You have to be very careful with test equipment and especially EXPENSIVE equipment because it is very sensitive and can detect pulses and glitches and voltages that are not affecting the operation of the circuit.
You will learn a lot of tricks when reading through this article, but let me say two things.
There are lots of faults and components that you cannot test with "test equipment" because they are either intermittent or the equipment does not load the device to the same extent as the circuit.
And secondly you need both an ANALOGUE multimeter and a DIGITAL meter to cover all the situations.
And if you are working on a car, you only need a $5.00 analogue meter because it will be dropped or fall into a crack, and you will only lose $5.00
You will learn that a digital meter will pick up spikes and signals on a line and show an incorrect reading.
That's why you need to back-up your readings with an analogue meter.
When you charge a battery it gets a "floating voltage" and this will be higher than the actual voltage, when the battery is fitted to a project. An analogue meter will draw a slight current and remove the "floating voltage."
Component testers can also give you a false reading, either because the component is out of range of the tester or intermittent and you need to be aware of this.
Oscilloscopes can also display waveforms that are parts of glitches or noise from other chips and these do not affect the operation of the part of the circuit you are investigating.
Sometimes you cannot pickup a pulse because it is not regular and the trigger on the oscilloscope does not show it on the screen. You may think it is missing.
It all depends on the "speed of the oscilloscope" - it's maximum frequency of operation.
Lastly- Power Supplies. You cannot test globes and motors on a power supply because the starting current can be 5 times more than the operating current. The power supply may not be able to deliver this high current and thus you will think the motor or globe is faulty.

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 Multimeters (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.

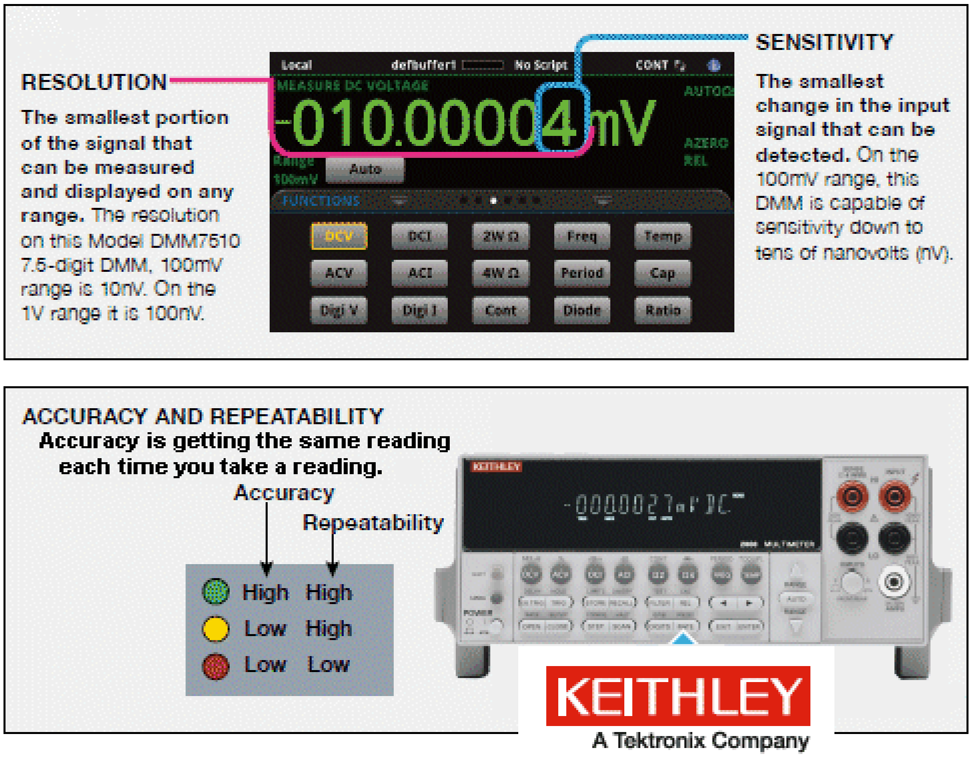
Before making any measurement you need to know what you are checking. If you are measuring voltage, select the AC range (10v, 50v, 250v, or 1000v) or DC range (0.5v, 2.5v, 10v, 50v, 250v, or 1000v). If you are measuring resistance, select the Ohms range (x1, x10, x100, x1k, x10k). If you are measuring 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,uA 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.

What's the difference between **sensitivity, resolution,** and **accuracy?**



The question above applies to both (every) type of multimeter and the type of meter you use depends on the accuracy you need. Sometimes you are looking for 1mV change on a 20v rail. Only a DMM will (or a CRO) will produce a result.

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."

FIXING A MULTIMETER

A multimeter can get "broken" "damaged" and go "faulty."
I don't know why, but eventually they stop working.
It can be something simple like a flat battery, corroded battery contacts, broken switch or something complex, like the circuitry failing.
Multimeters are so cheap, you can buy a new one for less than $10.00
These meters can have a 10 amp range, transistor tester and measure up to 2 meg ohms.
That's why I suggest buying a $10.00 meter. They are just as good as a $60.00 meter and the cheapest meters last the longest.
Dropping an analogue meter can cause the hair spring to loop over one of the supports and the needle will not zero correctly. You will need to open the cover on the movement and lift the spring off the support with a needle.
A faulty meter can be used in a battery-charger circuit to measure the current or voltage if that scale is still reading-correctly.
Otherwise keep the leads and throw the meter out. It is too dangerous keeping a meter that shows an incorrect reading.

MEASURING FREQUENCY

Before we cover the normal uses for a multimeter, it is interesting to note that some **Digital Multimeters (DMM)** have features such as Capacitance, Frequency and measuring the gain of a transistor as well as a number of other features using probes such as a temperature probe. The VICHY VC99 meter above is an example and costs about $40.00.

Basic function	Range
DCV	600mV/6V/60V/600V/1000V
ACV	6V/60/600/1000V
DCA	600uA/6000uA/60mA/600mA/6A/20A
ACA	600uA/6000uA/60mA/600mA/6A/20A
Capacitance	40nF/400nF/4uF/40uF/400uF/2000uF
Resistance	600Ω/6kΩ/60kΩ/600kΩ/6MΩ/60MΩ
Frequency	100Hz/1kHz/10kHz/100kHz/1MHz/60MHz

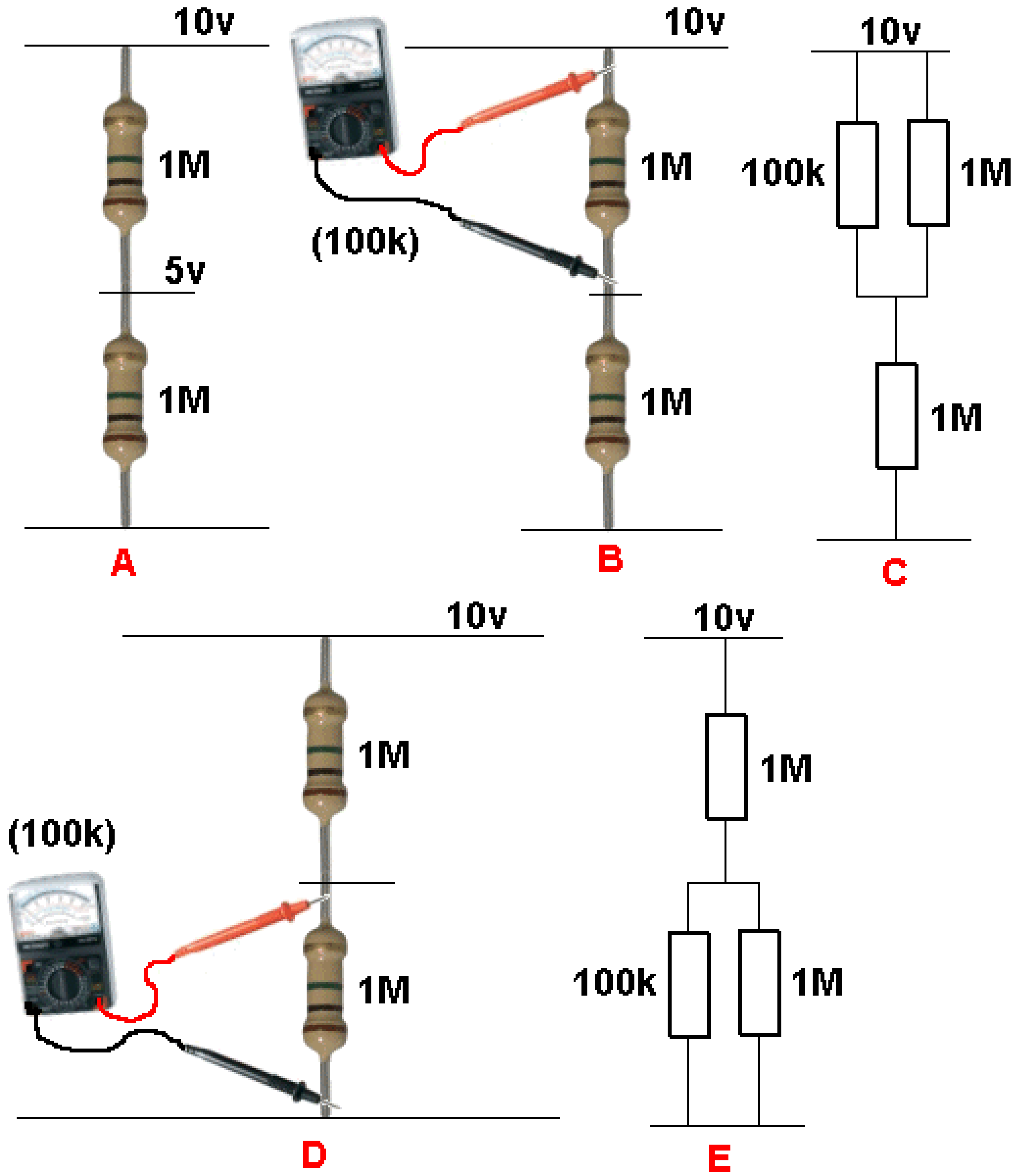
Temperature	-40°C~1000°C
	0°F~1832°F

MEASURING VOLTAGE

Most of the readings you will take 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~ 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 or mini alligator 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.

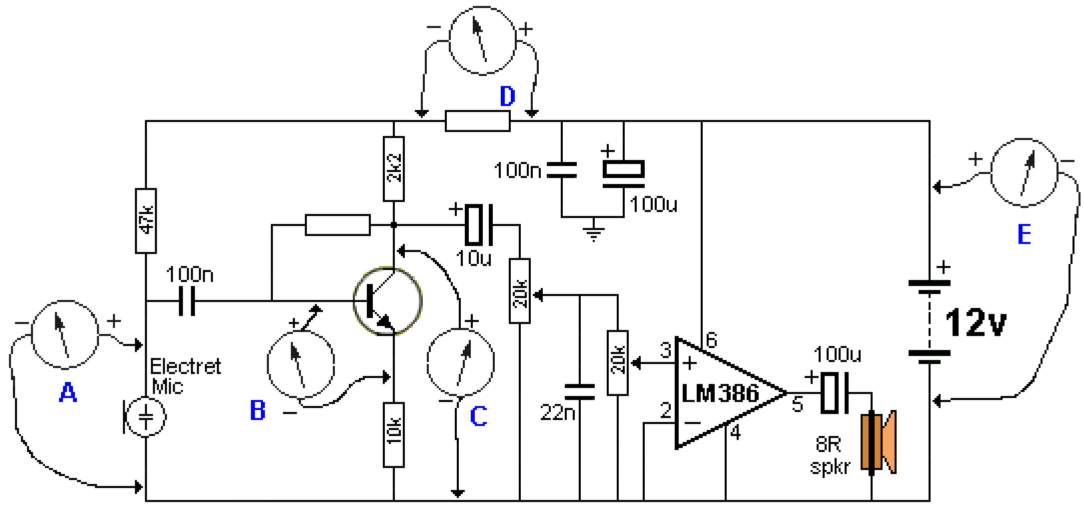


This introduces two new terms:
HIGH IMPEDANCE CIRCUIT and "RESISTORS in SERIES and PARALLEL."

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.

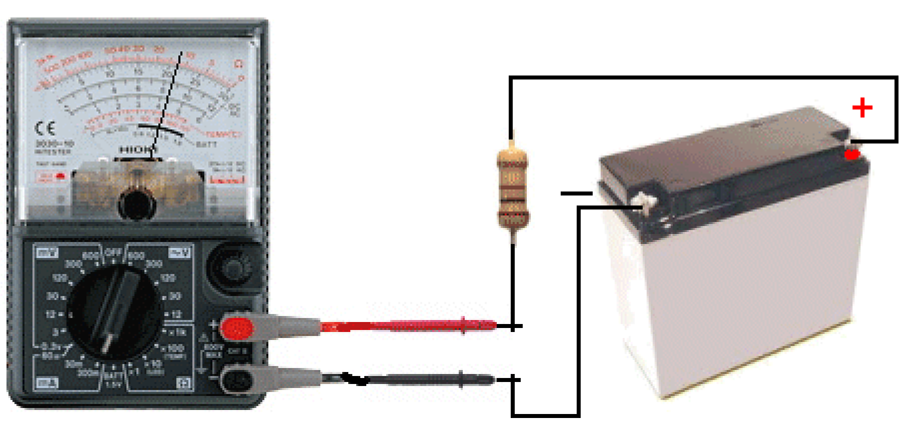


MEASURING VOLTAGES IN A CIRCUIT

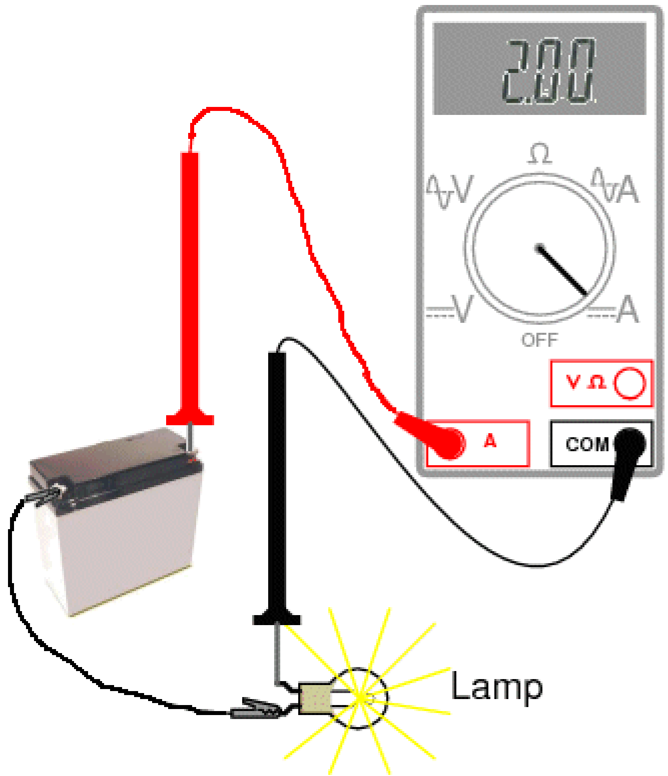
MEASURING CURRENT

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.

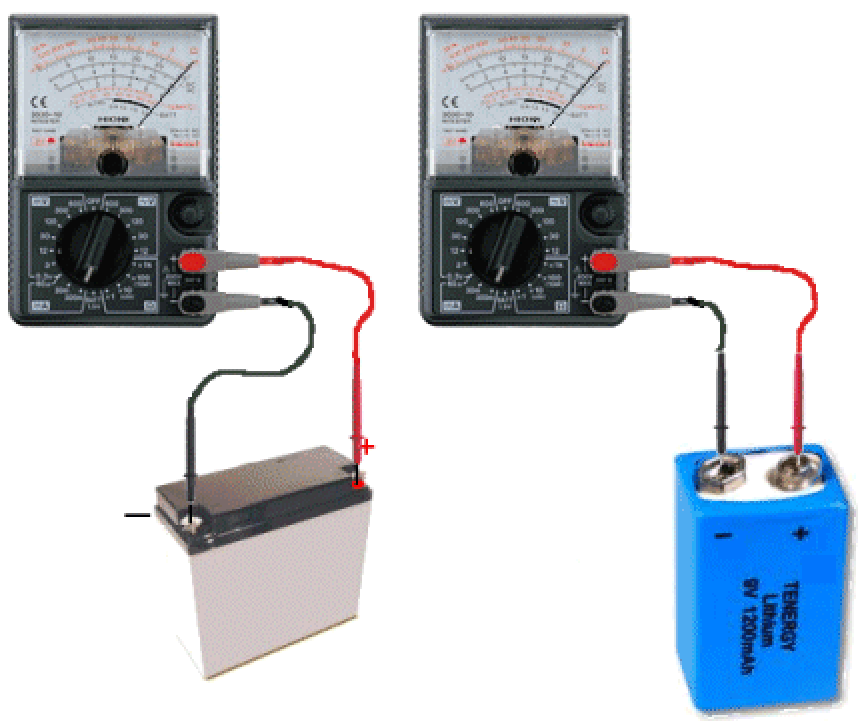
Current is always measured when the circuit is working (i.e: with power applied).
It is measured IN SERIES with the circuit or component under test.
The easiest way to measure current is to remove the fuse and take a reading across the fuse-holder. Or remove one lead of the battery or turn the project 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



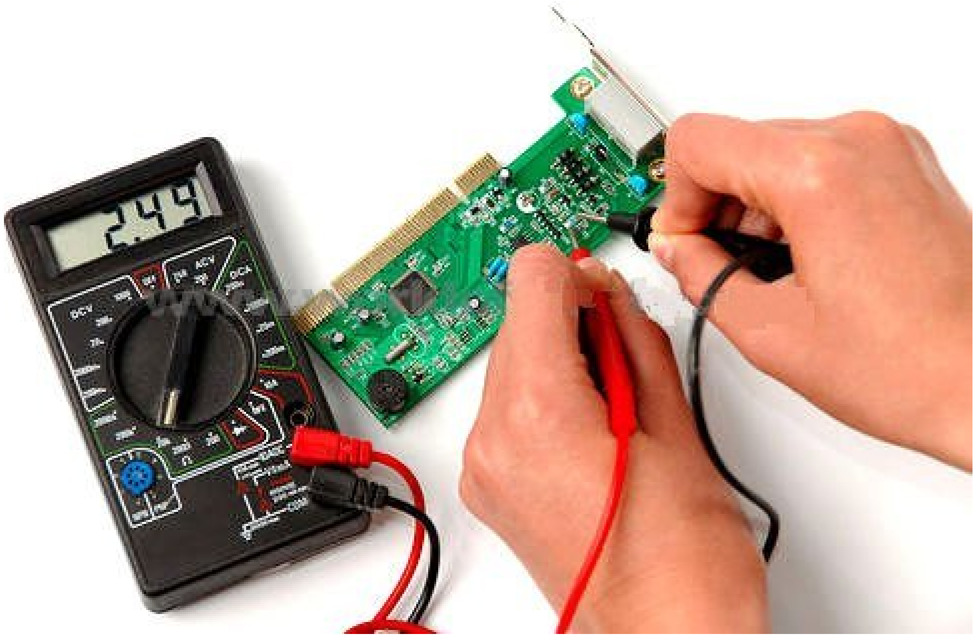
Do NOT measure the CURRENT of a battery
(by placing the meter directly across the terminals)
A battery will deliver a very HIGH current and damage the meter

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.

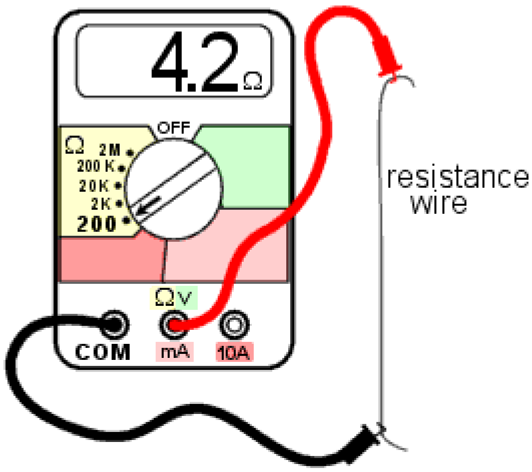
MEASURING RESISTANCE

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.

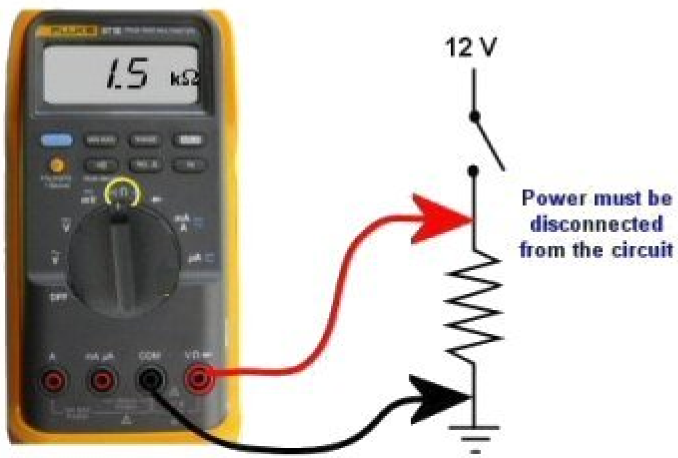


Measuring resistance

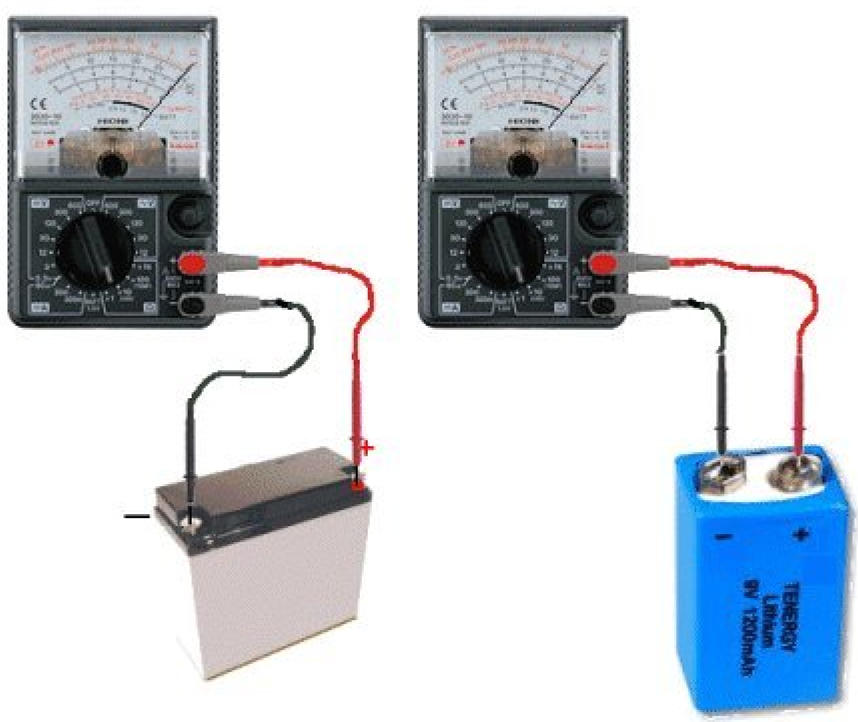
Measuring resistance of a heater (via the leads)



Measuring the resistance of a piece of resistance-wire

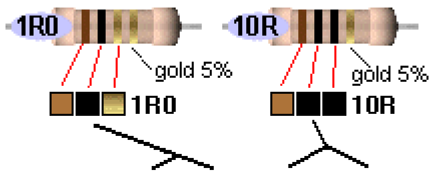


Measuring the resistance of a resistor



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)

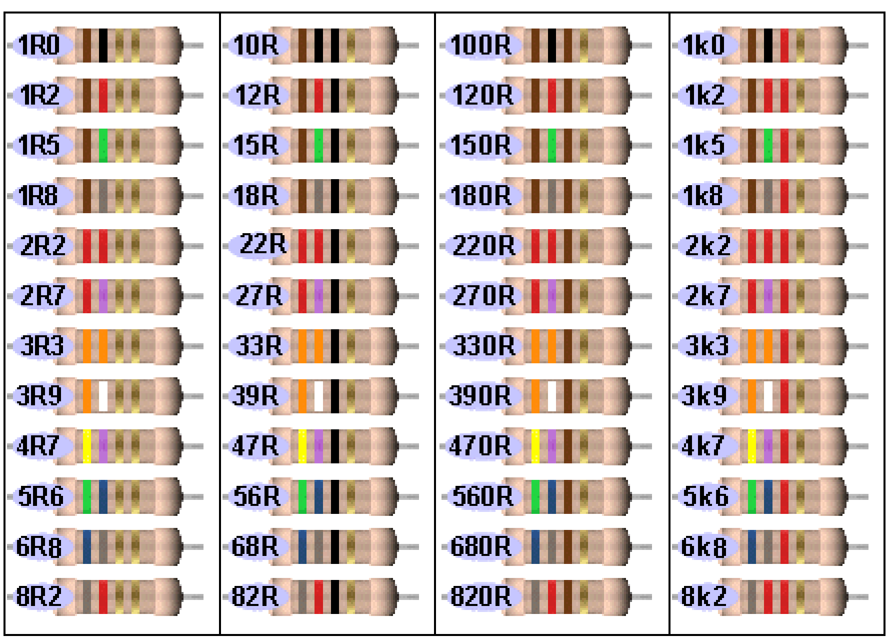
ROW	SILVER	GOLD	BLACK	BROWN	RED	ORANGE	YELLOW	GREEN
1-	R10	1R0	10R	100R	1K0	10K	100K	1M0
2-	R11	1R1	11R	110R	1K1	11K	110K	1M1
3-	R12	1R2	12R	120R	1K2	12K	120K	1M2
4-	R13	1R3	13R	130R	1K3	13K	130K	1M3
5-	R15	1R5	15R	150R	1K5	15K	150K	1M5
6-	R16	1R6	16R	160R	1K6	16K	160K	1M6
7-	R18	1R8	18R	180R	1K8	18K	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
								10M (BLUE)

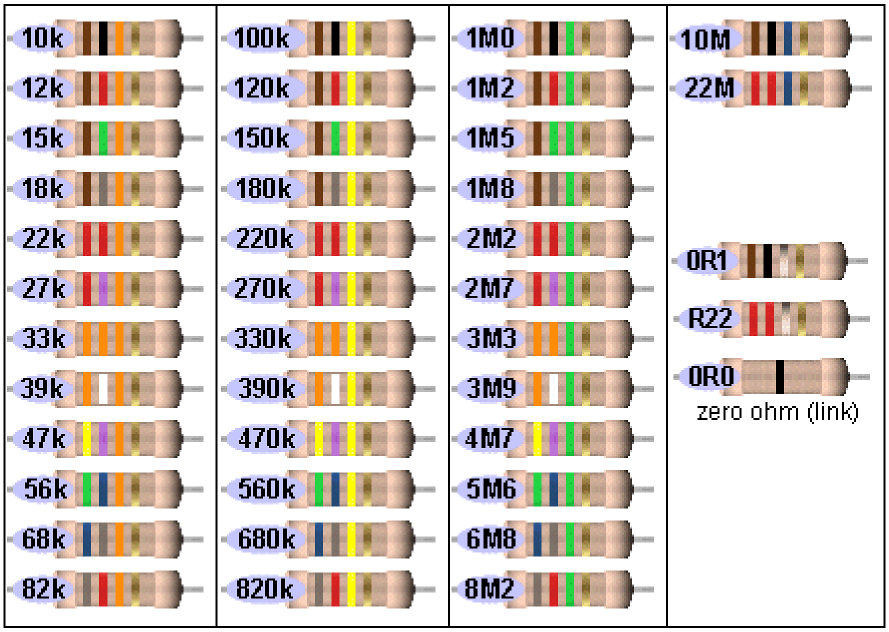
COLOR CODES FOR THE WHOLE E12/E24 RANGE OF RESISTORS

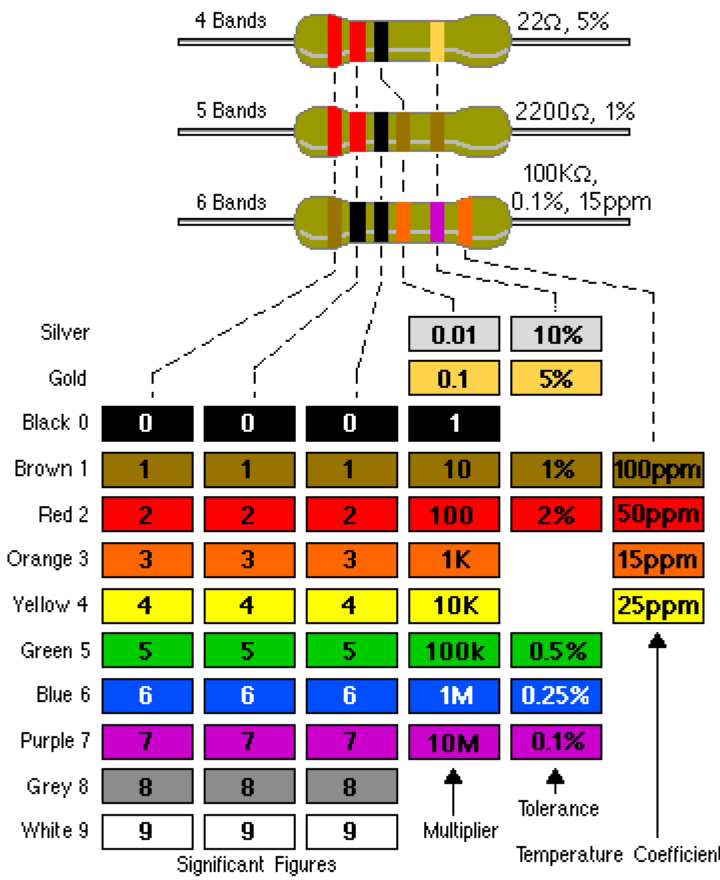
The twelve odd rows - 1, 3, 5... - represent values available in the E12 range only, plus 10M

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%)

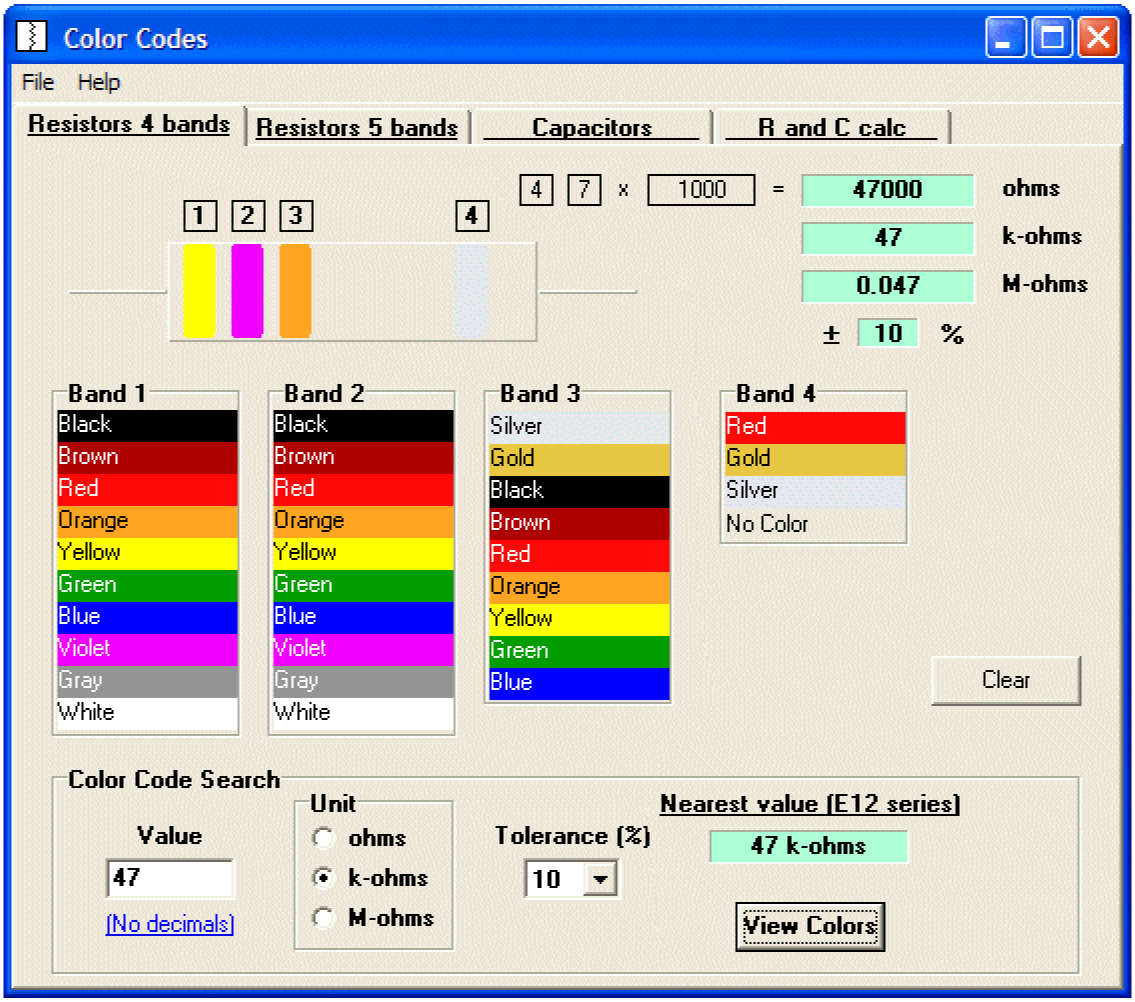






Resistor Color Code System

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: 1**R**0 = 1 ohm   2**R**2 = 2 point 2 ohms   22**R** = 22 ohms
2**k**2 = 2,200 ohms   100**k** = 100,000 ohms
2**M**2 = 2,200,000 ohms

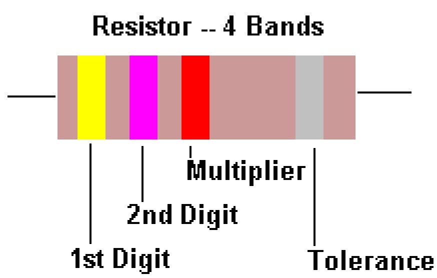
HOW TO REMEMBER THE COLOUR CODE:

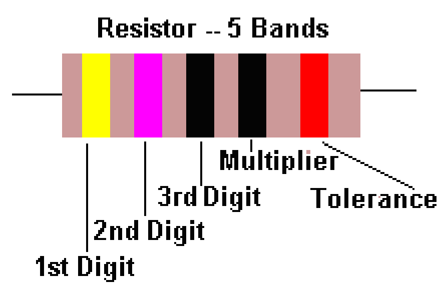
Each colour has a "number" (or divisor) corresponding to it.
Most of the colours are in the same order as in the spectrum. You can see the spectrum in a rainbow. It is: ROY G BIV and the colours for resistors are in the same sequence.

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

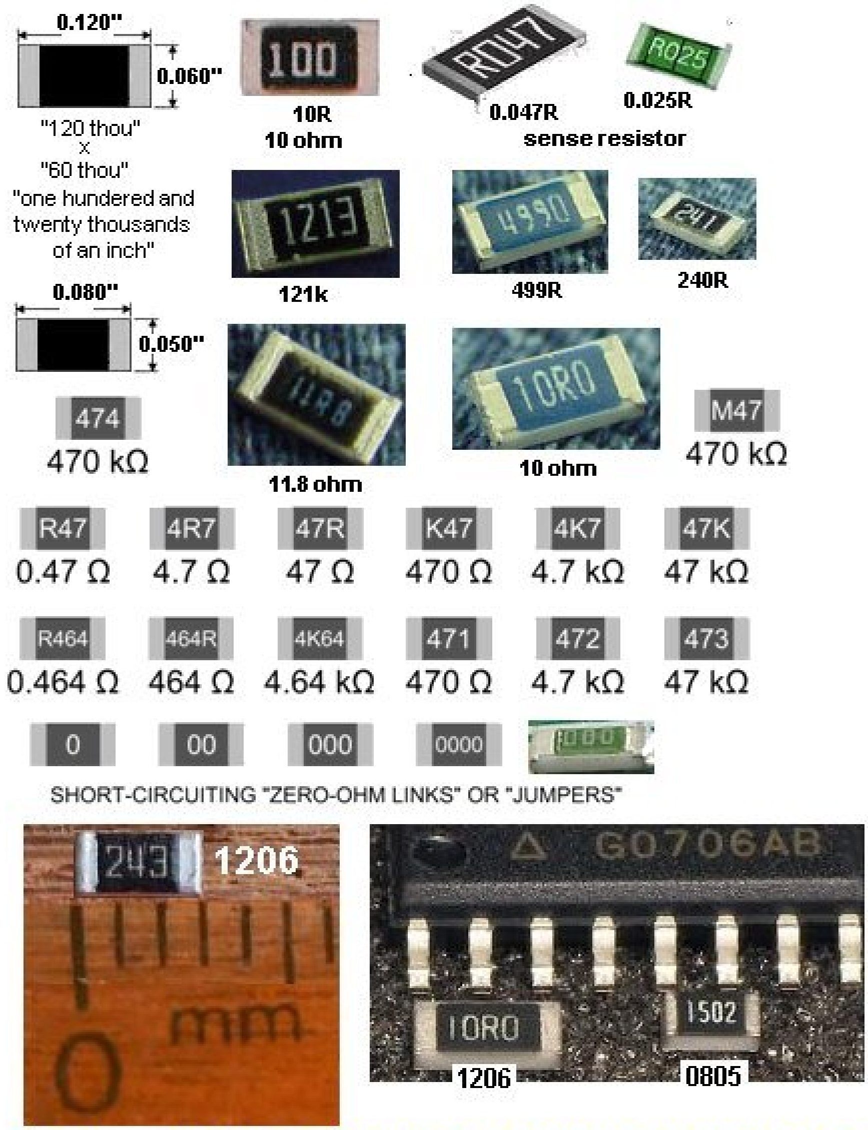
Here is the complete list of 1% 1/4watt resistors from:
CIRCUIT SPECIALISTS. The following list covers 10 ohms (10R) to 1M.
To buy 1% resistors from Circuit Specialists, click: HERE.

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	71k5	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

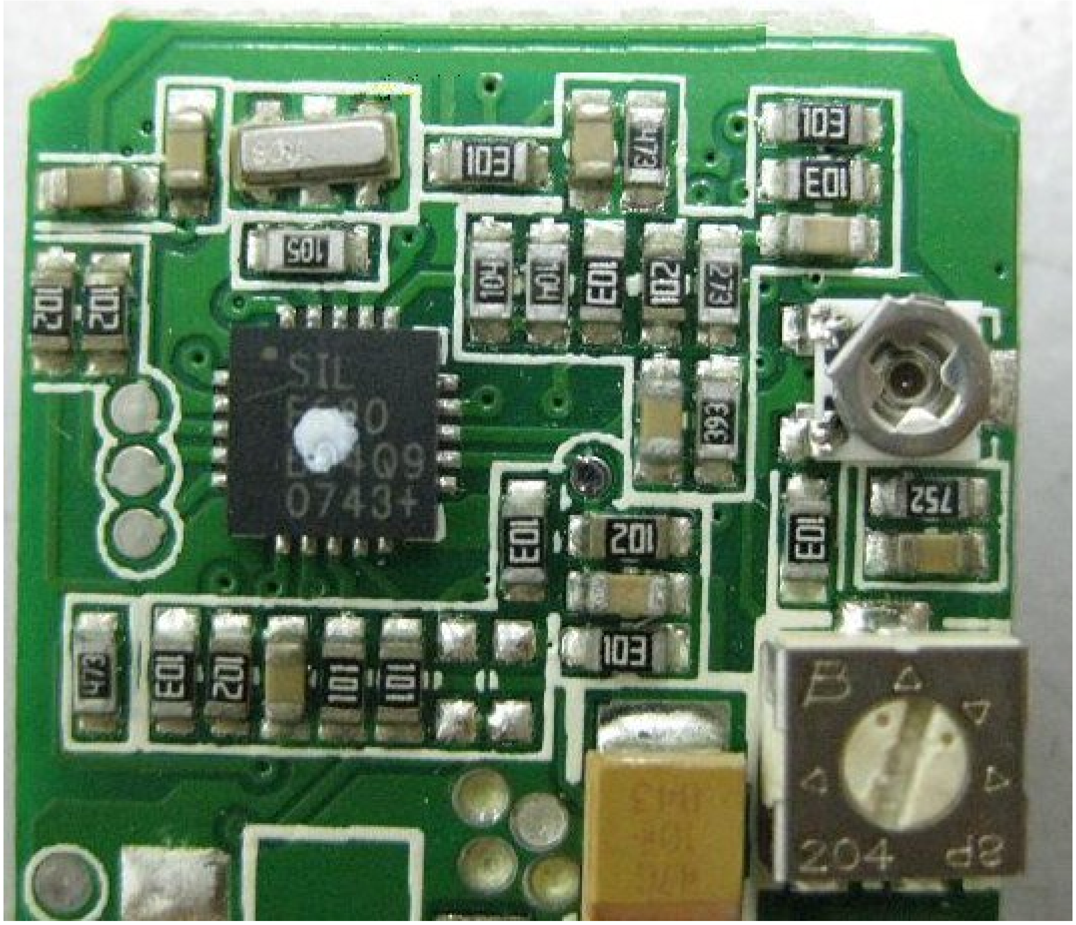
Here is the list of 1% resistors from suppliers (such as Farnell):

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	

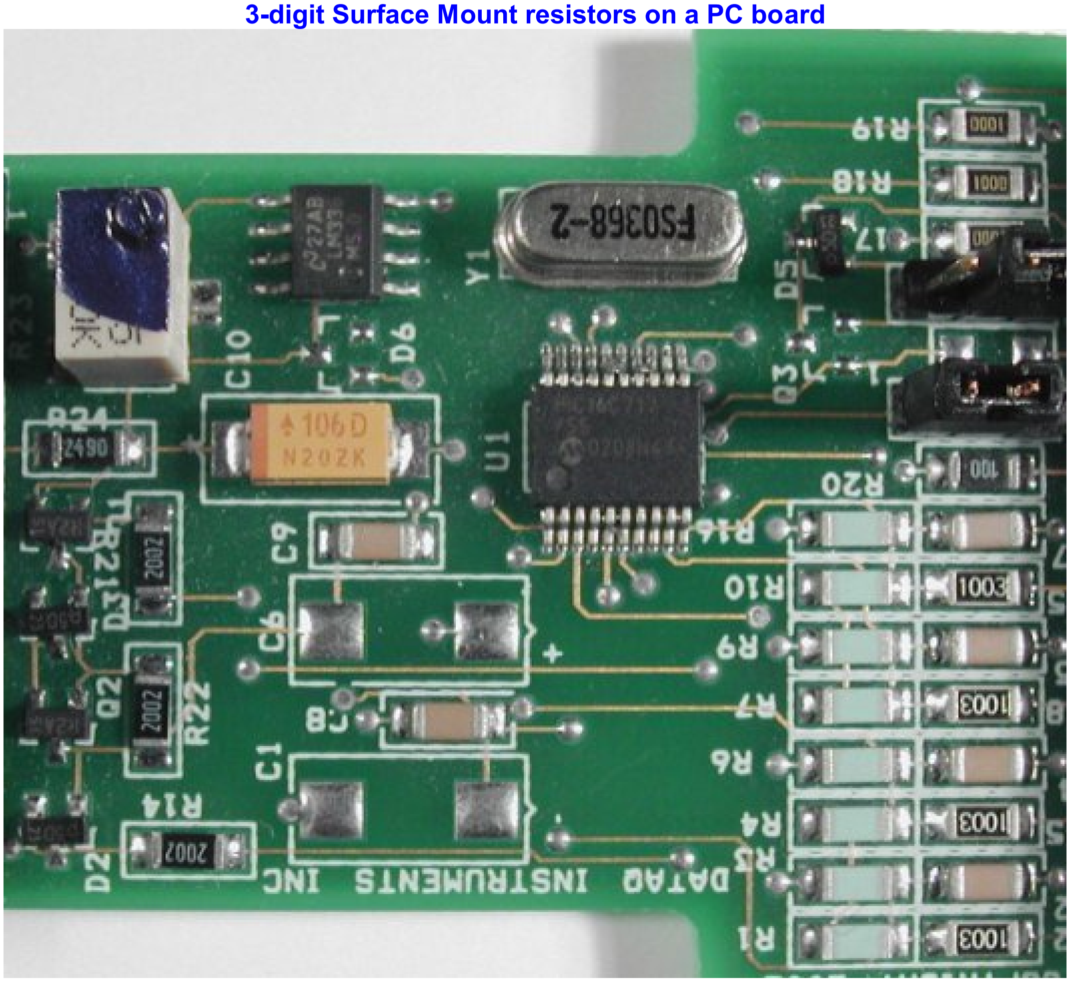
Surface Mount Resistors



1206 and 0805 SURFACE MOUNT RESISTORS



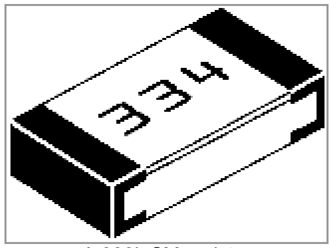
3-digit Surface Mount resistors on a PC board



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.

Surface Mount **CURRENT SENSING** Resistors

Many new types of CURRENT SENSING surface-mount resistors are appearing on the market and these are creating lots of new problems.
Fortunately all resistors are marked with the value of resistance and these resistors are identified in MILLIOHMS. A miili ohm is one thousandth or an ohm and is written 0.001 when writing a normal mathematical number.
When written on a surface mount resistor, the letter R indicates the decimal point and it also signifies the word "OHM" or "OHMS" and one milli-ohm is written R001
Five miiliohms is R005 and one hundred milliohms is R100
Some surface mount resistors have the letter "M" after the value to indicate the resistor has a rating of 1 watt. e.g: R100M These surface-mount resistors are specially-made to withstand a high temperature and a surface-mount resistor of the same size is normally 250mW or less.
These current-sensing resistors can get extremely hot and the PC board can become burnt or damaged.
When designing a PC board, make the lands very large to dissipate the heat.
Normally a current sensing resistor is below one ohm (1R0) and it is easy to identify them as R100 etc.
You cannot measure the value of a current sensing resistor as the leads of a multimeter have a higher resistance than the resistor and few multimeters can read values below one ohm.
If the value is not visible, you will have to refer to the circuit.
Before replacing it, work out why it failed.
Generally it gets too hot. Use a larger size and add tiny heatsinks on each end.
Here are some surface=mount current-sense resistors:

3 milli-ohm

220 milli-ohm

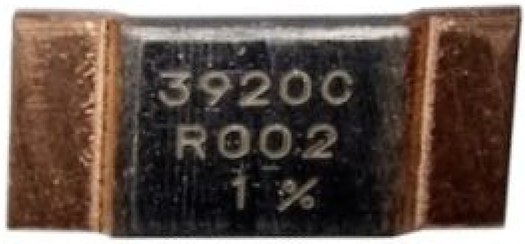
15 milli-ohm

9 point 1 milli-ohm

220 milli-ohm

5 milli-ohm

50 milli-ohm 1%



2 milli-ohm

30 milli-ohm

10 milli-ohm

1-watt ????

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 ***- not 330 ohms***	**1000 is 100 ohms** ***- not 1000 ohms***
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.

code	value		code	value		code	value		code	value		code	value		code	value
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 = 100R	01B = 1k	01C = 10k	01D = 100k	01E = 1M	01F = 10M
02S = 1R02	02R = 10R2	02A = 102R	02B = 1k02	02C = 10k2	02D = 102k	02E = 1M02	
03S = 1R05	03R = 10R5	03A = 105R	03B = 1k05	03C = 10k5	03D = 105k	03E = 1M05	18F = 15M
04S = 1R07	04R = 10R7	04A = 107R	04B = 1k07	04C = 10k7	04D = 107k	04E = 1M07	
05S = 1R1	05R = 11R	05A = 110R	05B = 1k1	05C = 11k	05D = 110k	05E = 1M1	30F = 20M
06S = 1R13	06R = 11R3	06A = 113R	06B = 1k13	06C = 11k3	06D = 113k	06E = 1M13	
07S = 1R15	07R = 11R5	07A = 115R	07B = 1k15	07C = 11k5	07D = 115k	07E = 1M15	
08S = 1R18	08R = 11R8	08A = 118R	08B = 1k18	08C = 11k8	08D = 118k	08E = 1M18	
09S = 1R21	09R = 12R1	09A = 121R	09B = 1k21	09C = 12k1	09D = 121k	09E = 1M21	
10S = 1R24	10R = 12R4	10A = 124R	10B = 1k24	10C = 12k4	10D = 124k	10E = 1M24	
11S = 1R27	11R = 12R7	11A = 127R	11B = 1k27	11C = 12k7	11D = 127k	11E = 1M27	
12S = 1R3	12R = 13R	12A = 130R	12B = 1k3	12C = 13k	12D = 130k	12E = 1M3	
13S = 1R33	13R = 13R3	13A = 133R	13B = 1k33	13C = 13k3	13D = 133k	13E = 1M33	
14S = 1R37	14R = 13R7	14A = 137R	14B = 1k37	14C = 13k7	14D = 137k	14E = 1M37	
15S = 1R4	15R = 14R	15A = 140R	15B = 1k4	15C = 14k	15D = 140k	15E = 1M4	
16S = 1R43	16R = 14R3	16A = 143R	16B = 1k43	16C = 14k3	16D = 143k	16E = 1M43	
17S = 1R47	17R = 14R7	17A = 147R	17B = 1k47	17C = 14k7	17D = 147k	17E = 1M47	
18S = 1R5	18R = 15R	18A = 150R	18B = 1k5	18C = 15k	18D = 15k	18E = 1M5	
19S = 1R54	19R = 15R4	19A = 154R	19B = 1k54	19C = 15k4	19D = 154k	19E = 1M54	
20S = 1R58	20R = 15R8	20A = 158R	20B = 1k58	20C = 15k8	20D = 158k	20E = 1M58	
21S = 1R62	21R = 16R2	21A = 162R	21B = 1k62	21C = 16k2	21D = 162k	21E = 1M62	
22S = 1R65	22R = 16R5	22A = 165R	22B = 1k65	22C = 16k5	22D = 165k	22E = 1M65	
23S = 1R69	23R = 16R9	23A = 169R	23B = 1k69	23C = 16k9	23D = 169k	23E = 1M69	
24S = 1R74	24R = 17R4	24A = 174R	24B = 1k74	24C = 17k4	24D = 174k	24E = 1M74	
25S = 1R78	25R = 17R8	25A = 178R	25B = 1k78	25C = 17k8	25D = 178k	25E = 1M78	
26S = 1R82	26R = 18R2	26A = 182R	26B = 1k82	26C = 18k2	26D = 182k	26E = 1M82	
27S = 1R87	27R = 18R7	27A = 187R	27B = 1k87	27C = 18k7	27D = 187k	27E = 1M87	
28S = 1R91	28R = 19R1	28A = 191R	28B = 1k91	28C = 19k1	28D = 191k	28E = 1M91	
29S = 1R96	29R = 19R6	29A = 196R	29B = 1k96	29C = 19k6	29D = 196k	29E = 1M96	
30S = 2R0	30R = 20R0	30A = 200R	30B = 2k0	30C = 20k0	30D = 200k	30E = 2M0	
31S = 2R05	31R = 20R5	31A = 205R	31B = 2k05	31C = 20k5	31D = 205k	31E = 2M05	
32S = 2R10	32R = 21R0	32A = 210R	32B = 2k10	32C = 21k0	32D = 210k	32E = 2M10	
33S = 2R15	33R = 21R5	33A = 215R	33B = 2k15	33C = 21k5	33D = 215k	33E = 2M15	
34S = 2R21	34R = 22R1	34A = 221R	34B = 2k21	34C = 22k1	34D = 221k	34E = 2M21	
35S = 2R26	35R = 22R6	35A = 226R	35B = 2k26	35C = 22k6	35D = 226k	35E = 2M26	
36S = 2R32	36R = 23R2	36A = 232R	36B = 2k32	36C = 23k2	36D = 232k	36E = 2M32	
37S = 2R37	37R = 23R7	37A = 237R	37B = 2k37	37C = 23k7	37D = 237k	37E = 2M37	
38S = 2R43	38R = 24R3	38A = 243R	38B = 2k43	38C = 24k3	38D = 243k	38E = 2M43	
39S = 2R49	39R = 24R9	39A = 249R	39B = 2k49	39C = 24k9	39D = 249k	39E = 2M49	
40S = 2R55	40R = 25R5	40A = 255R	40B = 2k55	40C = 25k5	40D = 255k	40E = 2M55	
41S = 2R61	41R = 26R1	41A = 261R	41B = 2k61	41C = 26k1	41D = 261k	41E = 2M61	
42S = 2R67	42R = 26R7	42A = 267R	42B = 2k67	42C = 26k7	42D = 267k	42E = 2M67	
43S = 2R74	43R = 27R4	43A = 274R	43B = 2k74	43C = 27k4	43D = 274k	43E = 2M74	
44S = 2R80	44R = 28R0	44A = 280R	44B = 2k80	44C = 28k0	44D = 280k	44E = 2M80	
45S = 2R87	45R = 28R7	45A = 287R	45B = 2k87	45C = 28k7	45D = 287k	45E = 2M87	
46S = 2R94	46R = 29R4	46A = 294R	46B = 2k94	46C = 29k4	46D = 294k	46E = 2M94	
47S = 3R01	47R = 30R1	47A = 301R	47B = 3k01	47C = 30k1	47D = 301k	47E = 3M01	
48S = 3R09	48R = 30R9	48A = 309R	48B = 3k09	48C = 30k9	48D = 309k	48E = 3M09	
49S = 3R16	49R = 31R6	49A = 316R	49B = 3k16	49C = 31k6	49D = 316k	49E = 3M16	
50S = 3R24	50R = 32R4	50A = 324R	50B = 3k24	50C = 32k4	50D = 324k	50E = 3M24	
51S = 3R32	51R = 33R2	51A = 332R	51B = 3k32	51C = 33k2	51D = 332k	51E = 3M32	
52S = 3R4	52R = 34R0	52A = 340R	52B = 3k4	52C = 34k0	52D = 340k	52E = 3M4	
53S = 3R48	53R = 34R8	53A = 348R	53B = 3k48	53C = 34k8	53D = 348k	53E = 3M48	

54S = 3R57	54R = 35R7	54A = 357R	54B = 3k57	54C = 35k7	54D = 357k	54E = 3M57	
55S = 3R65	55R = 36R5	55A = 365R	55B = 3k65	55C = 36k5	55D = 365k	55E = 3M65	
56S = 3R74	56R = 37R4	56A = 374R	56B = 3k74	56C = 37k4	56D = 374k	56E = 3M74	
57S = 3R83	57R = 38R3	57A = 383R	57B = 3k83	57C = 38k3	57D = 383k	57E = 3M83	
58S = 3R92	58R = 39R2	58A = 392R	58B = 3k92	58C = 39k2	58D = 392k	58E = 3M92	
59S = 4R02	59R = 40R2	59A = 402R	59B = 4k02	59C = 40k2	59D = 402k	59E = 4M02	
60S = 4R12	60R = 41R2	60A = 412R	60B = 4k12	60C = 41k2	60D = 412k	60E = 4M12	
61S = 4R22	61R = 42R2	61A = 422R	61B = 4k22	61C = 42k2	61D = 422k	61E = 4M22	
62S = 4R32	62R = 43R2	62A = 432R	62B = 4k32	62C = 43k2	62D = 432k	62E = 4M32	
63S = 4R42	63R = 44R2	63A = 442R	63B = 4k42	63C = 44k2	63D = 442k	63E = 4M42	
64S = 4R53	64R = 45R3	64A = 453R	64B = 4k53	64C = 45k3	64D = 453k	64E = 4M53	
65S = 4R64	65R = 46R4	65A = 464R	65B = 4k64	65C = 46k4	65D = 464k	65E = 4M64	
66S = 4R75	66R = 47R5	66A = 475R	66B = 4k75	66C = 47k5	66D = 475k	66E = 4M75	
67S = 4R87	67R = 48R7	67A = 487R	67B = 4k87	67C = 48k7	67D = 487k	67E = 4M87	
68S = 4R99	68R = 49R9	68A = 499R	68B = 4k99	68C = 49k9	68D = 499k	68E = 4M99	
69S = 5R11	69R = 51R1	69A = 511R	69B = 5k11	69C = 51k1	69D = 511k	69E = 5M11	
70S = 5R23	70R = 52R3	70A = 523R	70B = 5k23	70C = 52k3	70D = 523k	70E = 5M23	
71S = 5R36	71R = 53R6	71A = 536R	71B = 5k36	71C = 53k6	71D = 536k	71E = 5M36	
72S = 5R49	72R = 54R9	72A = 549R	72B = 5k49	72C = 54k9	72D = 549k	72E = 5M49	
73S = 5R62	73R = 56R2	73A = 562R	73B = 5k62	73C = 56k2	73D = 562k	73E = 5M62	
74S = 5R76	74R = 57R6	74A = 576R	74B = 5k76	74C = 57k6	74D = 576k	74E = 5M76	
75S = 5R9	75R = 59R0	75A = 590R	75B = 5k9	75C = 59k0	75D = 590k	75E = 5M9	
76S = 6R04	76R = 60R4	76A = 604R	76B = 6k04	76C = 60k4	76D = 604k	76E = 6M04	
77S = 6R19	77R = 61R9	77A = 619R	77B = 6k19	77C = 61k9	77D = 619k	77E = 6M19	
78S = 6R34	78R = 63R4	78A = 634R	78B = 6k34	78C = 63k4	78D = 634k	78E = 6M34	
79S = 6R49	79R = 64R9	79A = 649R	79B = 6k49	79C = 64k9	79D = 649k	79E = 6M49	
80S = 6R65	80R = 66R5	80A = 665R	80B = 6k65	80C = 66k5	80D = 665k	80E = 6M65	
81S = 6R81	81R = 68R1	81A = 681R	81B = 6k81	81C = 68k1	81D = 681k	81E = 6M81	
82S = 6R98	82R = 69R8	82A = 698R	82B = 6k98	82C = 69k8	82D = 698k	82E = 6M98	
83S = 7R15	83R = 71R5	83A = 715R	83B = 7k15	83C = 71k5	83D = 715k	83E = 7M15	
84S = 7R32	84R = 73R2	84A = 732R	84B = 7k32	84C = 73k2	84D = 732k	84E = 7M32	
85S = 7R5	85R = 75R0	85A = 750R	85B = 7k5	85C = 75k0	85D = 750k	85E = 7M5	
86S = 7R68	86R = 76R8	86A = 768R	86B = 7k68	86C = 76k8	86D = 768k	86E = 7M68	
87S = 7R87	87R = 78R7	87A = 787R	87B = 7k87	87C = 78k7	87D = 787k	87E = 7M87	
88S = 8R06	88R = 80R6	88A = 806R	88B = 8k06	88C = 80k6	88D = 806k	88E = 8M06	
89S = 8R25	89R = 82R5	89A = 825R	89B = 8k25	89C = 82k5	89D = 825k	89E = 8M25	
90S = 8R45	90R = 84R5	90A = 845R	90B = 8k45	90C = 84k5	90D = 845k	90E = 8M45	
91S = 8R66	91R = 86R6	91A = 866R	91B = 8k66	91C = 86k6	91D = 866k	91E = 8M66	
92S = 8R87	92R = 88R7	92A = 887R	92B = 8k87	92C = 88k7	92D = 887k	92E = 8M87	
93S = 9R09	93R = 90R9	93A = 909R	93B = 9k09	93C = 90k9	93D = 909k	93E = 9M09	
94S = 9R31	94R = 93R1	94A = 931R	94B = 9k31	94C = 93k1	94D = 931k	94E = 9M31	
95S = 9R53	95R = 95R3	95A = 953R	95B = 9k53	95C = 95k3	95D = 953k	95E = 9M53	
96S = 9R76	96R = 97R6	96A = 976R	96B = 9k76	96C = 97k6	96D = 976k	96E = 9M76	

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

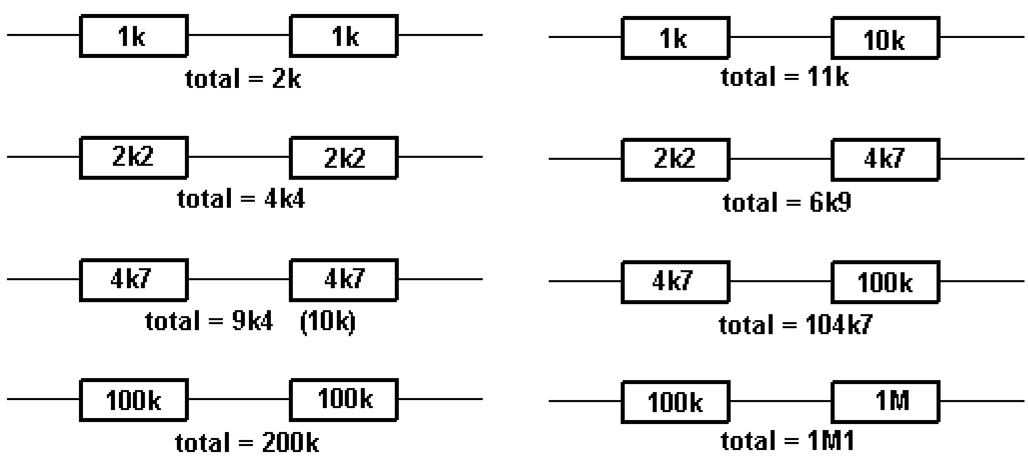
email **Colin Mitchell** for details on how to pay by credit card or PayPal.

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.

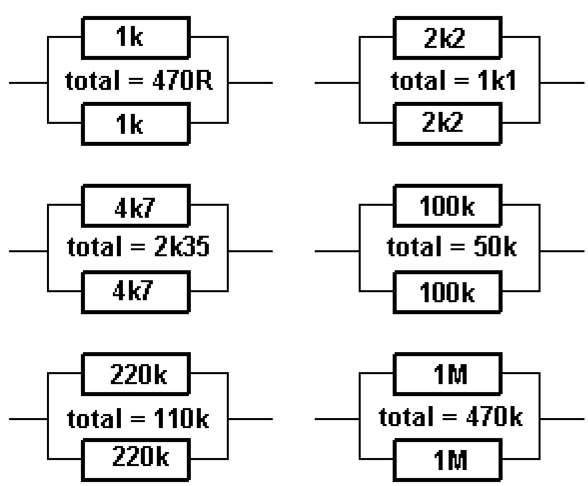
TWO EQUAL-VALUE RESISTORS IN SERIES

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

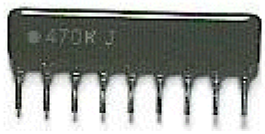
To check the value of a resistor, it should be removed from the circuit. The surrounding components can affect the reading and make it lower.
Resistors **VERY RARELY** change value, but if it is overheated or damaged, the resistance can increase. You can take the reading of a resistor "in-circuit" in 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).

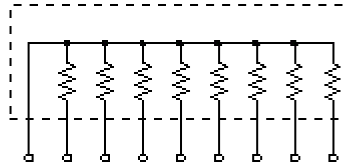
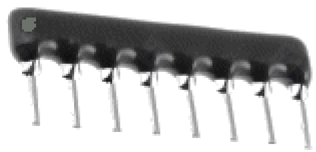
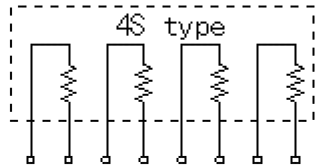
TESTING AN "AC" RESISTOR

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.

WIRE WOUND RESISTOR

A wire wound resistor is also called a POWER RESISTOR. This type of resistor can have a resistance as low as 0.1 ohms (one-tenth of an ohm) or as high as about 10k.
The image shows a 0.68 ohm resistor as the letter "R" represents the DECIMAL POINT and R68 is the same a .68 and this is 0.68 ohms. The wattage is 9 watts.
This resistor will allow xxx amps to flow. To work out the current, use the formula:
Power = Current x Current x resistance
9 = Current x Current x .68
Divide both sides by 0.68
13.2 = Current x Current
Find the square root of 13.2
Current = 3.6 amps

When 3.6 amps flow through the resistor, the voltage appearing across it will be:
V = current x resistance
= 3.6 x 0.68
= 2.5v and the wattage (heat) loss will be 9 watts.

The purpose of a resistor like this is to stop or reduce "ripple." Ripple is the noise or hum in an amplifier when the sound is turned up.
There are many reasons why you need to reduce the level of hum and this resistor will remove ripple as large as 2.5v when 3.6 amps is flowing, provided you have filter electrolytics on both side of the resistor to assist in removing the ripple.

If the letter "R" is in a different position, the value of resistance would be:

68R = 68Ω
6R8 = 6.8Ω
R68 = 0.68Ω

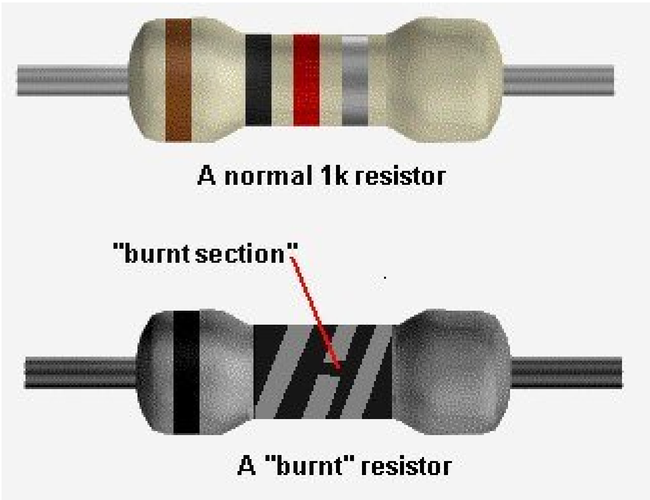
If you replace the R68 resistor a 6R8 resistor by mistake, the voltage across it will rise to 25v and if 3.6 amps flows, the wattage will be: 90 watts!!!
The resistor will glow red and burn out.

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.



Note the spirals of conductive carbon.
The number of spirals has nothing to with the resistance.
It is the amount of carbon particles in the "track" that determines the resistance. It is also the thickness and width of the track that determines the resistance.
And then it is the overall size of the resistor that determines the wattage.
And then the size of the leads, the closeness to the PCB and the size of the lands that eventually determines how hot the resistor will get.

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.

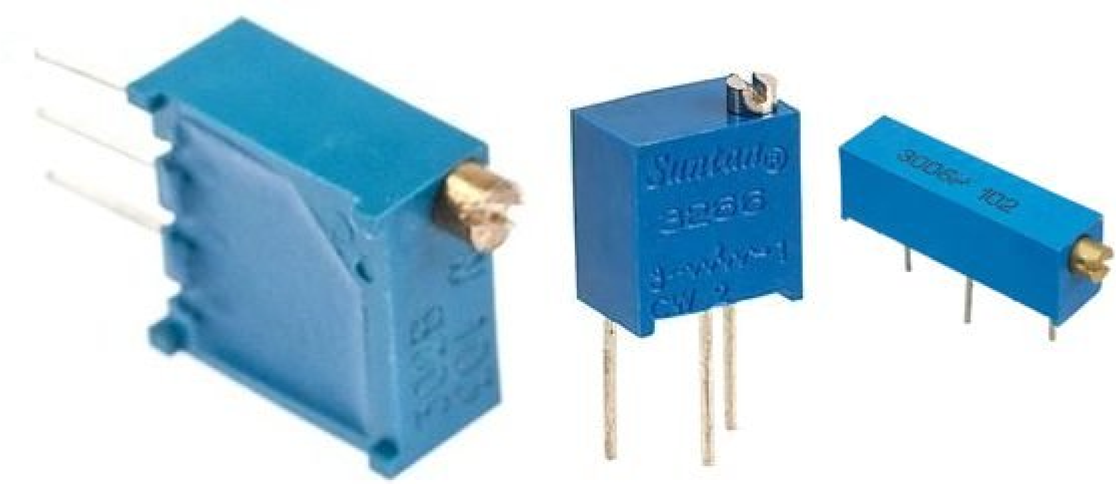
There is a third way to determine the value and this requires measuring the voltage drop across the resistor and the current-flow. By multiplying the two you will get a wattage and this must be less than the wattage of the resistor being replaced.

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. The photo shows a pot, two mini pots and 3 mini trim pots.

10-Turn POTs

A 10-turn pot is one of the worst items to be designed. I remove them immediately from any design.
You don't know the position of the wiper. You don't know which way you are turning the wiper and you can't remember which way you turned the post "the last time."
The screwdriver always falls out of the slot.
If you need fine adjustment, place fixed resistors on each side of the pot and use a normal mini trim pot with much less resistance.



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**

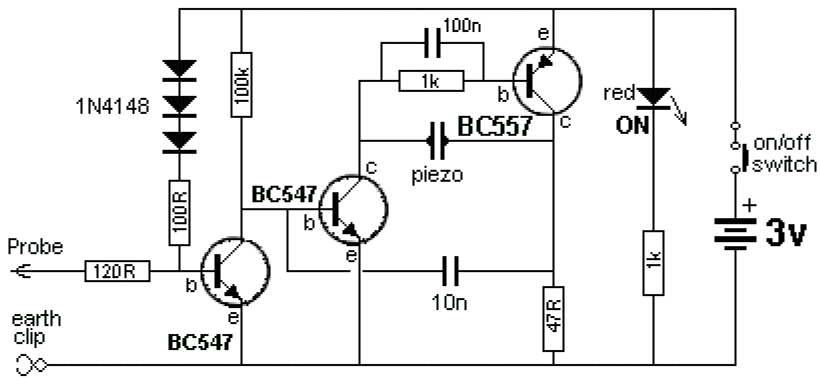
DIODES: Two 1Amp 400v diodes in series produces a 1Amp 800v diode
Two 1Amp 400v diodes in parallel produces a 2Amp 400v diode

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 = 1ohm. 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:

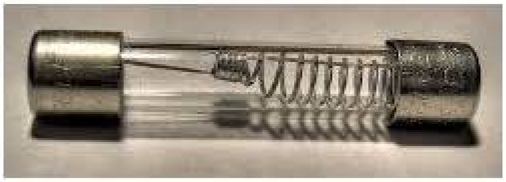
FAST AND SLOW BLOW FUSES

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 dob 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.

100mA FUSES

Fuses below about 100mA are very hard to make and very unreliable.
Many circuits take a high current when turned to charge the electrolytics and a 100mA (or 50mA or 63mA fuse) will bow and stretch and change shape, every time the equipment is turned ON.
Eventually it will break, due to it heating-up and stretching.
To produce a reliable fuse below 100mA, some manufacturers have placed a resistor inside the fuse and connected it to a spring. One end of the resistor is soldered to a wire with low-temperature metal and when the resistor gets hot, the metal softens and the spring pulls the resistor away from the wire.
Quite often you can heat up the metal and connect the wire and the fuse is perfect.
This type of fuse is called a DELAY fuse and the current rating is shown on the end-cap.
The value of the resistor determines the current rating.
There is a small voltage across this type of fuse and it means the circuit sees a slightly lower voltage than the supply voltage.
The third photo shows the pot of solder or low-temp metal and a wire connected to a spring. The heat generated in the wire is passed to the solder and it softens. The spring pulls the two components apart. You can smash the glass and set up the fuse in the two fuse-holders and repair the fuse while you wait for a new fuse to arrive.



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!

Question from a reader: *Can I add an inductor to stop a fuse blowing?*

Basically, an inductor NEVER prevents a fuse blowing because an inductor prevents spikes on one lead (we will call the INPUT lead), appearing on its other lead.
This is the detection and prevention of current that exists for a very short period of time.
A fuse detects an excess of current that occurs over a very long period of time and they are entirely two different "detectors."
One cannot assist the other in any way.

An inductor is basically a coil of wire. It may be thick or thin wire. The value of the inductor is a combination of the number of turns and the material on which the wire is wound.
The value of an inductor does not change over say a period of 20 years but it can go faulty by the enamel cracking and two turns touching. This can also be due to the difference in voltage between the two turns creating a spark between the turns and creating a "short."
When you test it, the high voltage is not present and it will test ok.
You may not think a few turns of wire will have any effect on improving a circuit, but spikes are very high frequency and the inductor will have a very big effect on reducing them.
An inductor (say 100uH) can be produced in many different sizes and the thickness of the wire will be important as it determines the current that can flow through the inductor.
The term "inductor" also includes those with two or more windings and these components are called TRANSFORMERS. These devices can get "shorts" and "leaks" between the windings and sparks can be seen between the windings. These sparks do not occur when you are testing them on test-equipment so the only way to

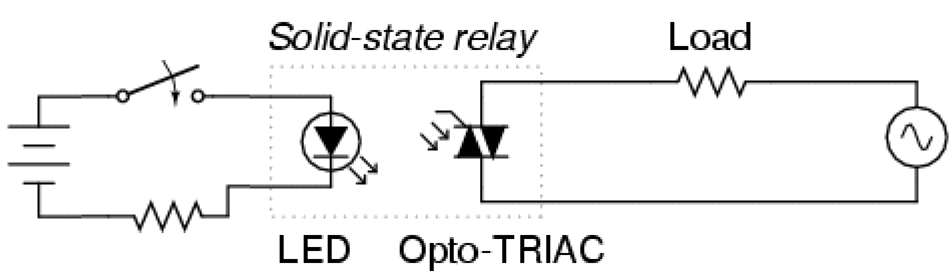
guarantee success is to replace it with an identical replacement.

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.

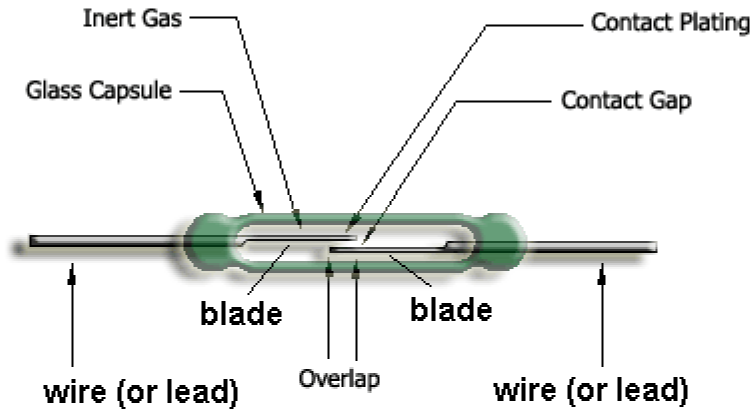
A relay also has a set of contacts that can cause problems.
There are many different types of relays and basically they can be put into two groups.
1. An electromagnetic relay is a switch operated by magnetic force. This force is generated by current through a coil. The relay opens and closes a set of 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.

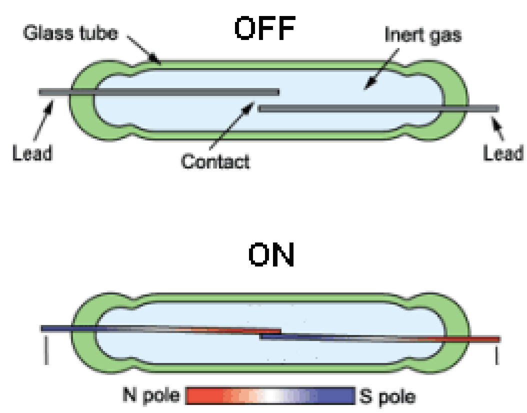


TESTING REED SWITCHES

A reed switch is generally contained in a long glass tube:



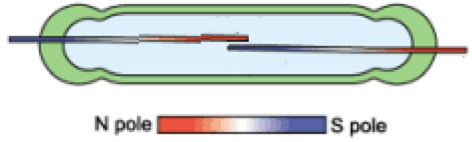
A wire or lead comes out each end for soldering to the reed switch to the project. The two "blades" inside the switch are made from a material that can be magnetised but does not retain its magnetism. This effect is called "temporally magnetised" (not permanently magnetised) and really only "passes" magnetism from one end to the other when in the presence of a magnet. One of the blades is made of a soft material and it will bend very easily.   The other one is much stiffer.



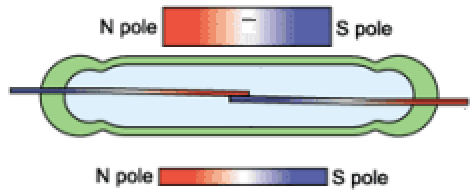
When a magnet is placed under the two blades (or on top), the magnetism from the magnet is passed to the two blades (INDUCTION or MUTUAL INDUCTION - commonly called INDUCED) and it produces a very weak magnet (in the blade) that is identical to the powerful magnet as far as the position of the north and south poles are concerned). Initially it produces a N-S and N-S set of poles and this makes the two blades click together because the top blade will be South at the contact and the bottom blade will be North.
When the two blades click together the magnetism runs through the two blades and keeps them together. The two blades attract and the switch is closed. When the magnet is removed, the magnetism in the two blades ceases and the two blades move apart.
Since there is a very small amount of movement in the top blade, this switch has a limited number of operations. Eventually it will fail. It is a mechanical device and is not suited for detecting a spinning shaft as 100,000 revolutions will very quickly weaken the switch.
If the switch does not make contact or remains closed, the moveable blade can be cracked or broken. This can be very hard to see. So replace the switch.

LATCHING REED SWITCH

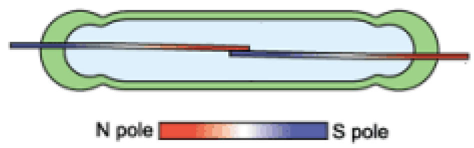
A "normal" reed switch can be converted into a **LATCHING REED SWITCH** by carefully placing a magnet below the switch and moving it away so the two blades open. Now move it slightly closer but do not allow the blades to close.
This is called putting a "SET" on the switch and the two blades will have a small magnetic effect "induced" in them but not enough to close the contacts:



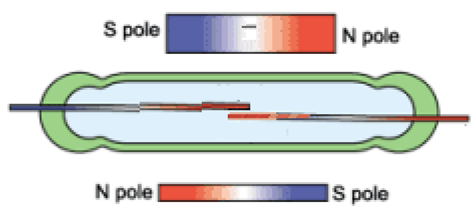
Now bring a strong magnet up to the reed switch on the other side of the glass tube with the north pole above the north of the lower magnet. This effect will increase the INDUCED MAGNETISM in the blades and close the contacts:



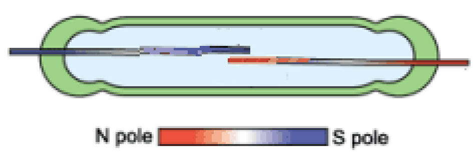
Remove the top magnet and the lower magnet will induce enough magnetism into the blades to keep them closed:



Now bring the upper magnet near the reed switch with the south pole above the north pole of the lower magnet. (In other words: AROUND THE OTHER WAY) This will have the effect of reducing the induced magnetism in the blades and a point will be reached when the two contacts will separate:



Remove the top magnet and the switch will remain separated because the lower magnet will not have sufficient influence on the blades to close the contact:



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.

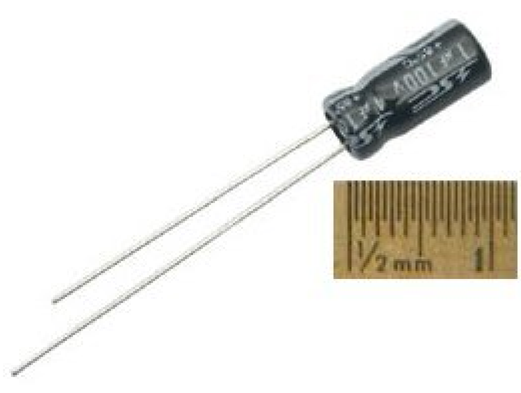
HOW A CAPACITOR WORKS

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 (0.1u)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.

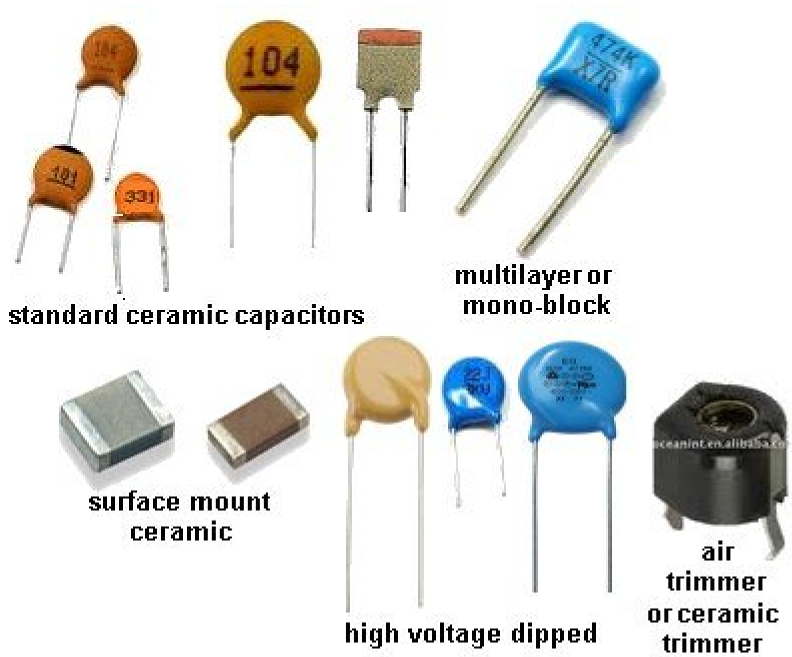
Recapping:
1p = 1 picofarad.   1,000p = 1n (1 nanofarad)
1,000n = 1u (1 microfarad)
1,000u = 1millifarad
1,000,000u = 1 FARAD.

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 produced 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.

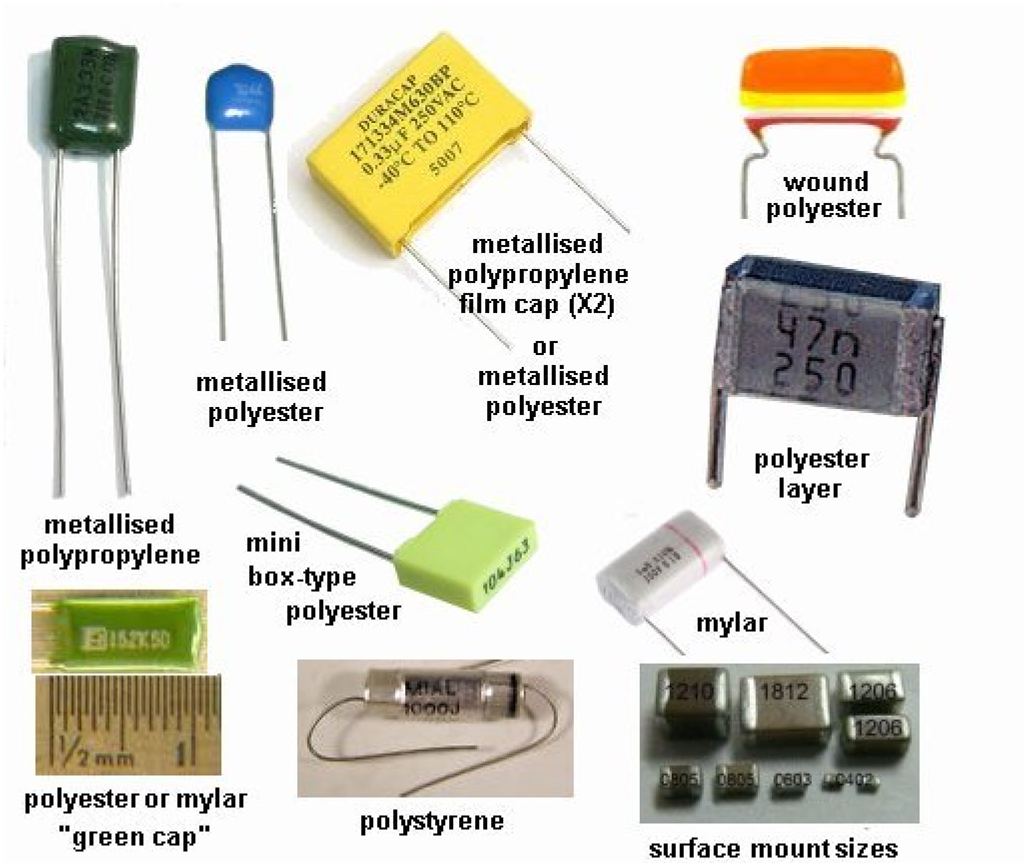


VALUE:	VALUE WRITTEN ON THE COMPONENT:
0.1p	0p1
0.22p	0p22
0.47p	0p47
1.0p	1p0
2.2p	2p2
4.7p	4p7
5.6p	5p6
8.2p	8p2
10p	10 or 10p
22p	22 or 22p
47p	47 or 47p
56p	56 or 56p
100p	100 on 101
220p	220 or 221
470p	470 or 471
560p	560 or 561
820p	820 or 821
1,000p (1n)	102
2200p (2n2)	222
4700p (4n7)	472
8200p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

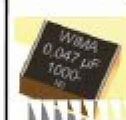


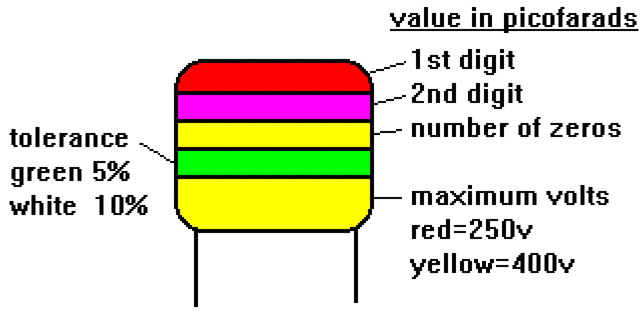
Capacitor Colour Code Table

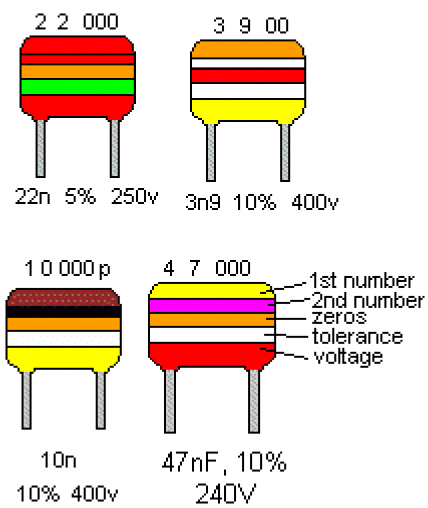
Colour	Digit A	Digit B	Multiplier D	Tolerance (T) > 10pf	Tolerance (T) < 10pf	Temperature Coefficient (TC)
Black	0	0	x1	± 20%	± 2.0pF	
Brown	1	1	x10	± 1%	± 0.1pF	$-33x10^{-6}$
Red	2	2	x100	± 2%	± 0.25pF	$-75x10^{-6}$
Orange	3	3	x1,000	± 3%		$-150x10^{-6}$
Yellow	4	4	x10,000	± 4%		$-220x10^{-6}$
Green	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 ⊕ = polarized	Pic	Cap Range
Ceramic		pF - µF
Mica (silver mica)		pF - nF
Plastic Film (polyethylene polystyrene)		few µFs
Tantalum ⊕		µFs
OSCON ⊕		µFs
Aluminum Electrolytic ⊕		high µFs



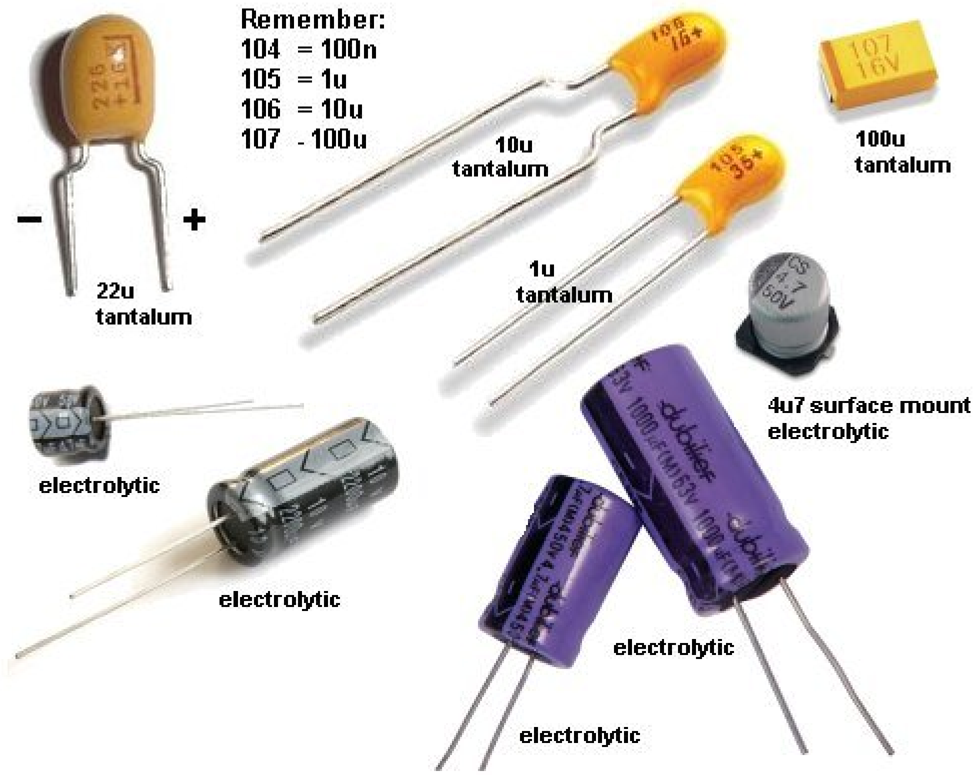


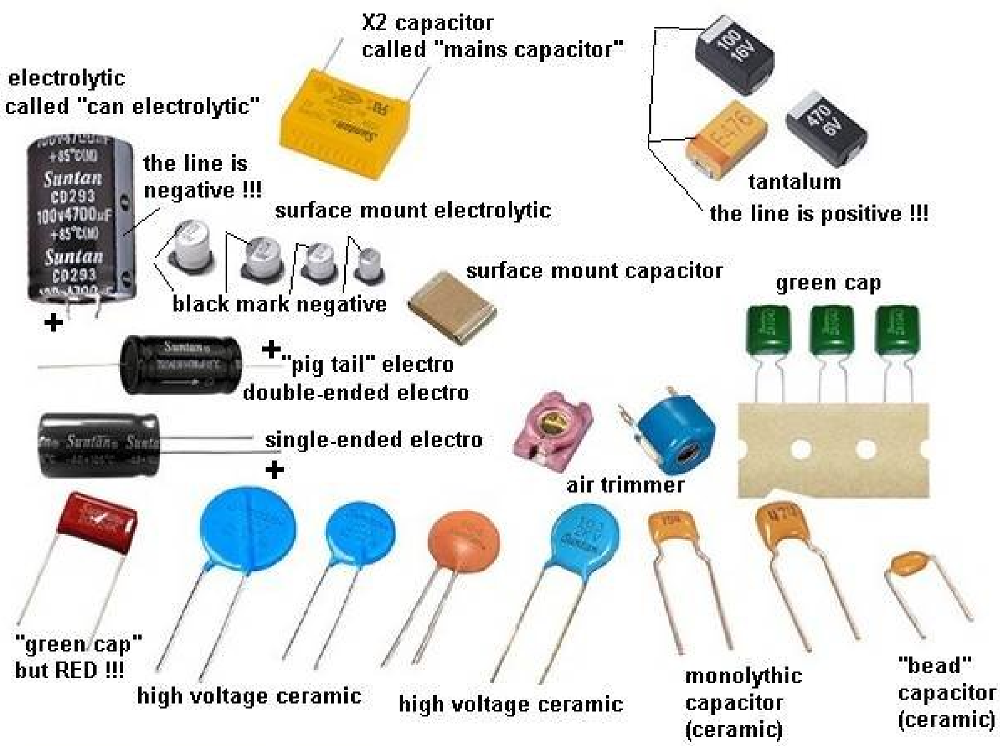
Black	0
Brown	1
Red	2
Orange	3
Yellow	4
Green	5
Blue	6
Violet	7
Grey	8
White	9

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 1,000u, 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")





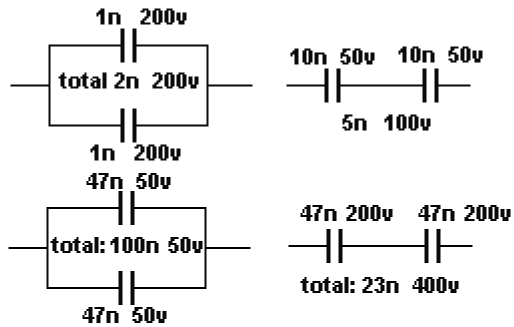
tantalum capacitors can
"go up in smoke"

"bead" tantalum

PARALLEL and SERIES CAPACITORS

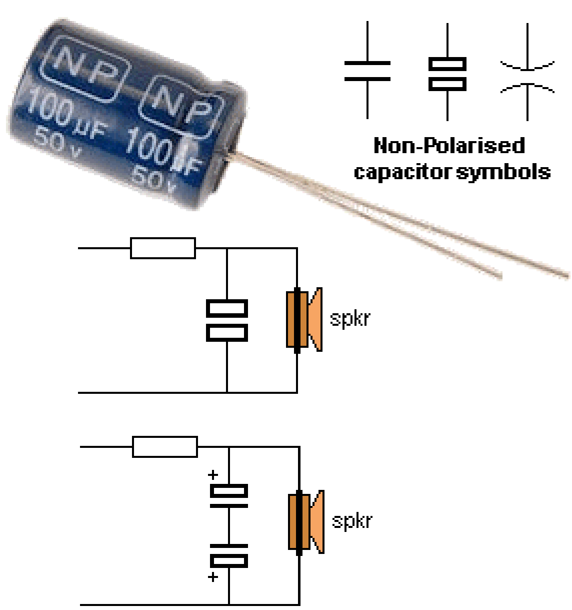
Capacitors can be connected in PARALLEL and/or SERIES for a number of reasons.
1. If you do not have the exact value, two or more connected in parallel or series can produce the value you need.
2. Capacitors connected in series will produce one with a higher voltage rating.
3. Capacitors connected in parallel will produce a larger-value capacitance.

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

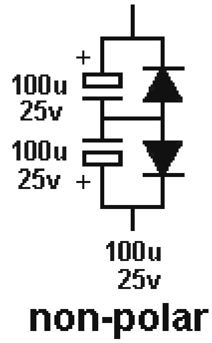


NON-POLAR CAPACITORS (ELECTROLYTICS)

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.

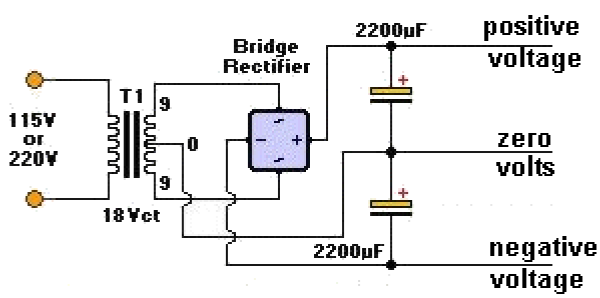


MAKING A NON-POLAR ELECTROLYTIC



A normal electrolytic must be connected the correct way in a circuit because it has a thin insulating layer covering the plates that has a high resistance.
If you connect the electrolytic around the wrong way, this layer "breaks-down" and the resistance of the electrolytic becomes very small and a high current flows. This heats up the electrolytic and the current increases. Very soon the capacitor produces gasses and explodes.
One big mistake in many text books shows how to make a non-polar electrolytic by connecting two "back-to-back."
They claim 2 x 100u connected back-to-back is equal to 47u.
This appears to be case when testing on a meter but the meter simply charges them for a short period of time to get a reading.
If you allow them to charge fully you will find the reverse electrolytic has a very small voltage across it.
Secondly, when you are charging them, you are putting a high current through the reverse electrolytic and damaging the layer.
To prevent this, you need to add two diodes as shown in the diagram.
In addition, 2 x 100u "back-to-back" is very near 100u.

Here is a question from a reader:
I have an amplifier with 2 x2,200u electrolytics on the output of a bridge. Can I replace them with a single 10,000u?



You need to look at the circuit of your amplifier. The two 2,200u electrolytics are possibly connected as shown in the circuit above and you will notice they are joined to produce a positive rail and a negative rail with zero (called earth) in the centre.
This forms two different circuits with the top electrolytic filtering the positive rail and the bottom electro filtering the negative rail. They must be connected to the zero volts rail.
A single 10,000u cannot be connected to the 0v rail and cannot be substituted for the two electro's.
You can easily determine of the two electro's are connected as shown above.
Test the positive terminal of each electro by placing the negative of the meter on the chassis.
If the positive of one electro have zero volts, it will be the lower electro in the diagram above. The negative terminal of the electro will have a minus voltage on it.

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 looses 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 1 watt or 3watt or 5watt resistor on jumper leads (or held with pliers) and keep them connected for up to 15 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 (such as it being "blown apart").

Here is a 120u 330v electrolytic from a flash circuit in an old-fashioned film camera.

If the flash does not "fire," the electrolytic will be charged to about 350 volts !!

Use a 1k resistor (held with pliers) to slowly discharge it. It may take 15 seconds to fully discharge.

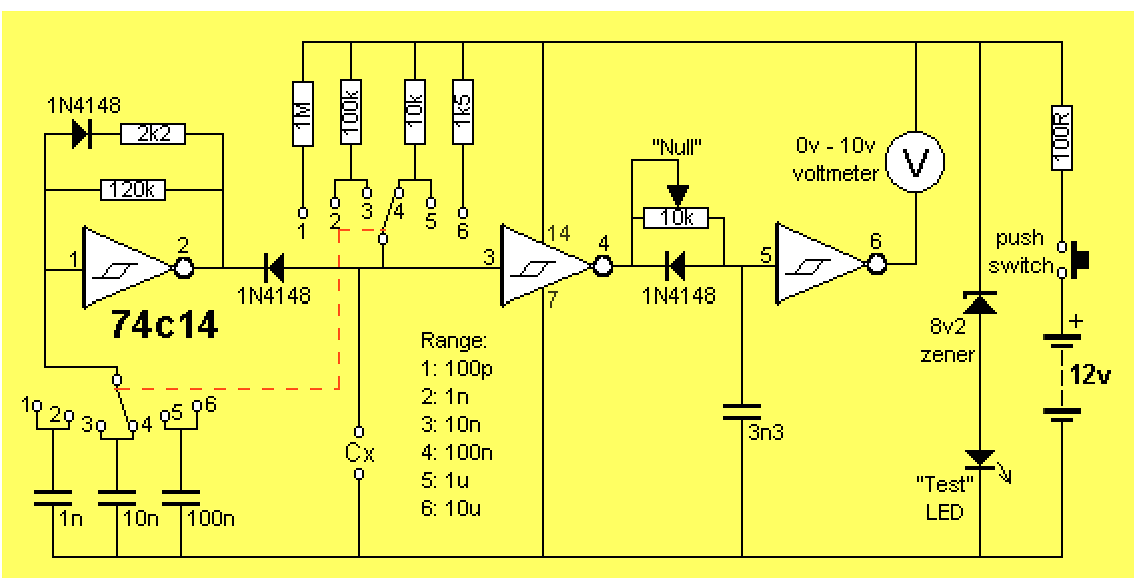
TESTING A CAPACITOR
There are two things you can test with a multimeter:
1. A short-circuit within the capacitor
2. Capacitor values above 1u.

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

CAPACITOR SUBSTITUTION BOX

You can get a kit or a ready-made piece of test gear called **CAPACITOR SUBSTITUTION BOX** and also **RESISTOR SUBSTITUTION BOX**.
I bought one of each 30 years ago and I have only used them ONCE.
They appear to be very handy but when you are testing a circuit, you want the component next to the other parts.
It is just as easy to pick the component you need from your junk box and connect it to the circuit via jumper leads.

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 has 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 severe 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.

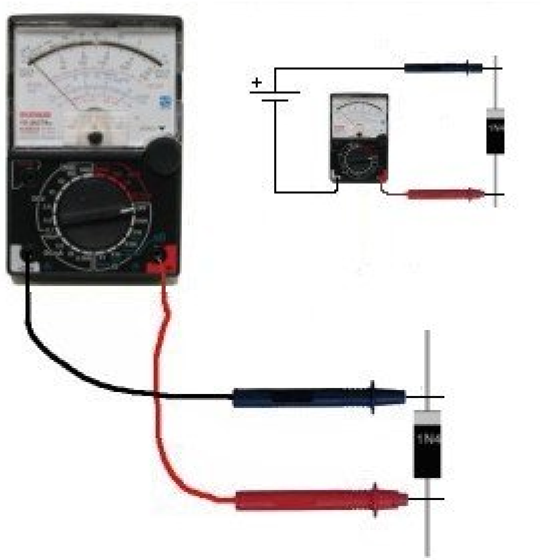
TESTING DIODES

Diodes can have 4 different faults.
1. Open circuit in both directions.
2. Low resistance in both directions.
3. Leaky.
4. Breakdown under load.

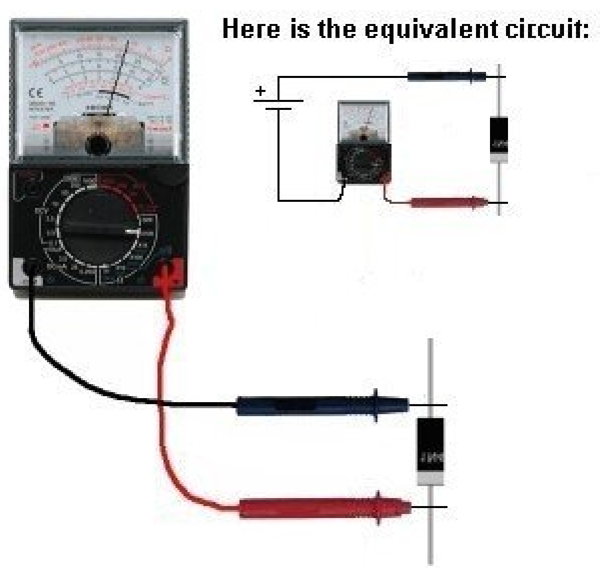
TESTING A DIODE ON AN ANALOGUE METER

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:



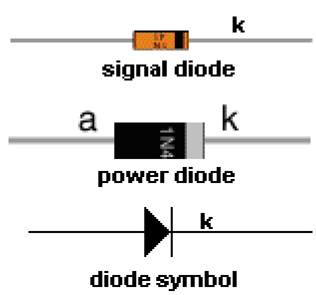
The diode is REVERSE BIASED in the diagram above and diodes not conduct.



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

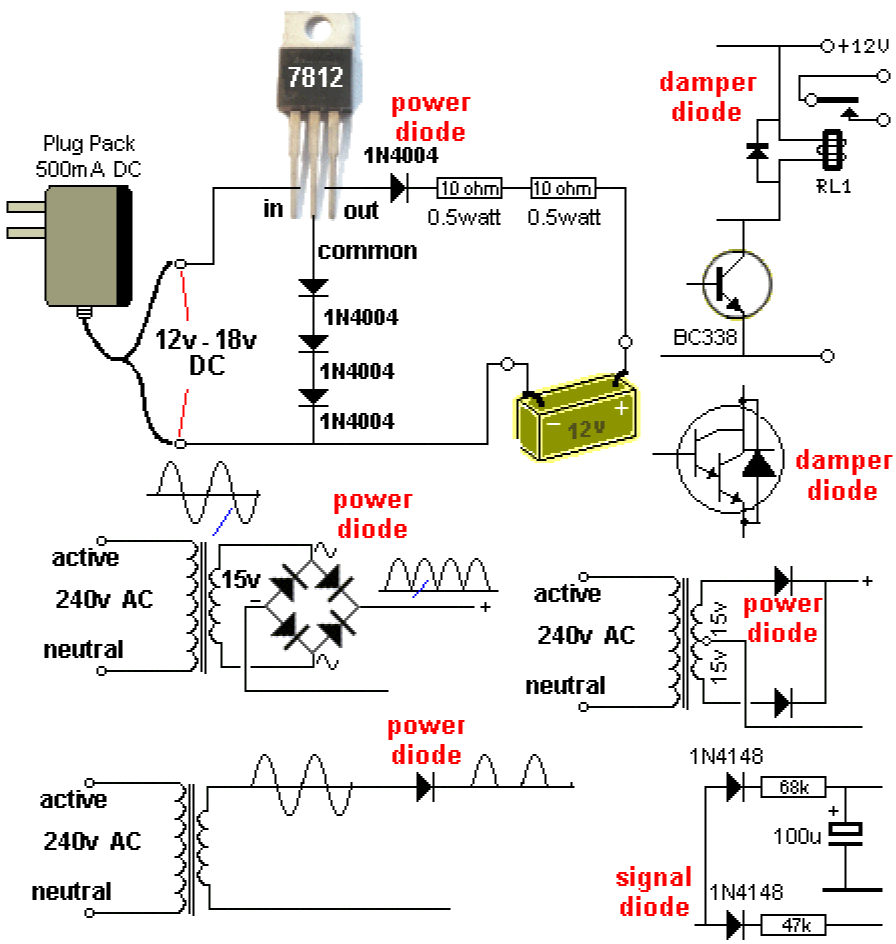
TESTING A DIODE ON A DIGITAL METER

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

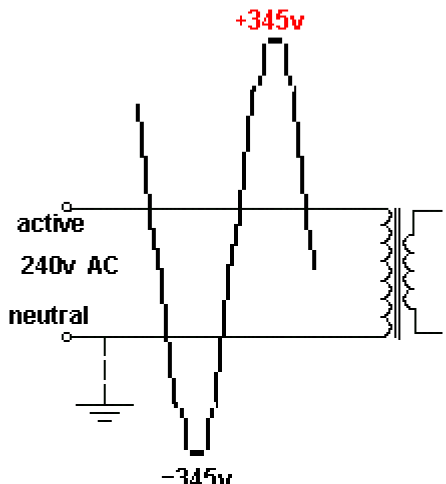
efficiently.
If the diode is replaced with an ordinary diode, it will heat up as does not have the high-speed characteristic.
Other diodes have a low drop across them and if an ordinary is used, it will heat up.
Most diodes fail by going: SHORT-CIRCUIT. This can be detected by a low resistance (x1 or 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:

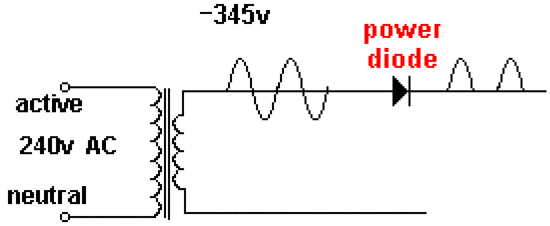


POWER DIODES

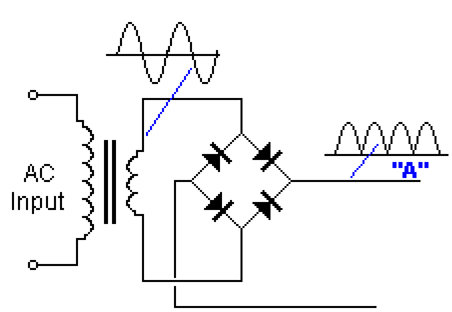
To understand how a power diode works, we need to describe a few things. This has NEVER been described before, so read carefully.
The 240v AC (called the "mains") consists of two wires, one is called the ACTIVE and the other is NEUTRAL. Suppose you touch both wires. You will get a shock. The neutral 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."





Half-wave rectifier

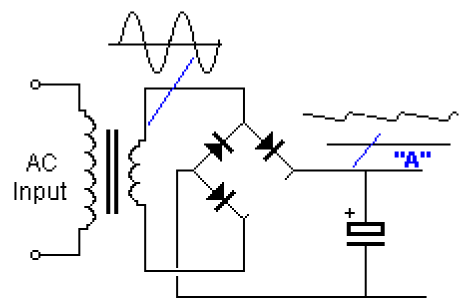


Full-wave rectifier

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.



One diode "burnt-out"

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 filed 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 though 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

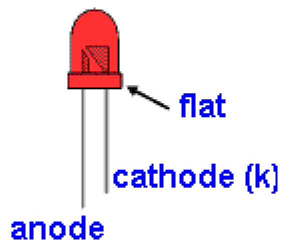
It is alway best to replace a diode with the same type but quite often this is not possible. Many diodes have unusual markings or colours or "in-house" letters.
This is only a general guide because many diodes have special features, especially when used in high-frequency circuits.
However if you are 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)

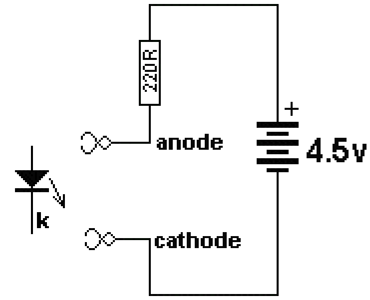
If you put an ordinary diode in a high-speed application, it will get very hot very quickly.
To replace an unknown zener diode, start with a low voltage such as 6v2 and see if the circuit works.
The size of a diode and the thickness of the leads will give an idea of the current-capability of the diode.
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 revered-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:





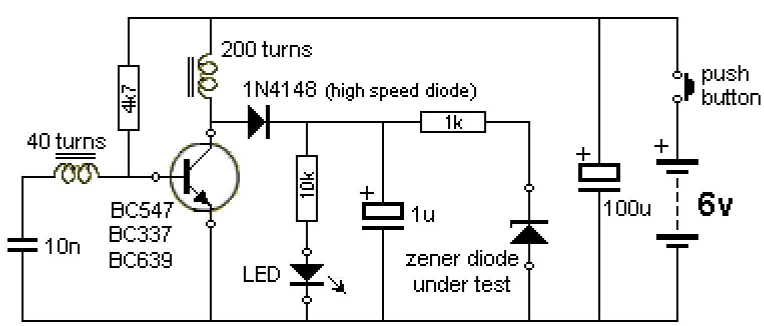
LED TESTER

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 tests 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.

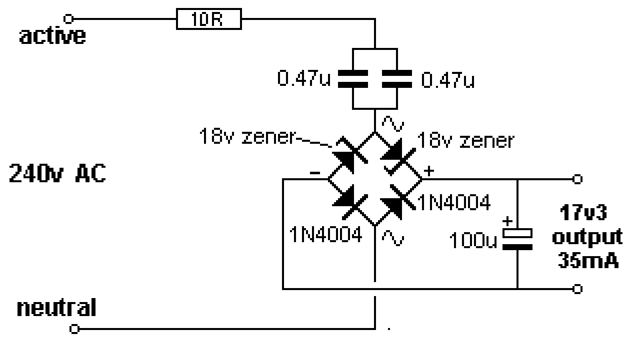


ZENER DIODE TESTER

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".

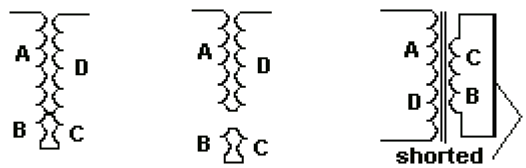
Make sure you do not allow the probes to short any of the pins together as this will destroy the regulator or the circuit being supplied.

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 (a former is a bobbin or plastic molding or something to hold the winding) 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 though A, B, C, D now passes though 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 (or 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

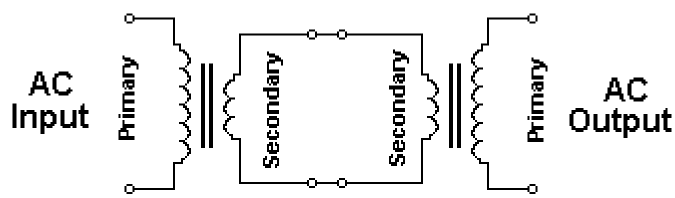
It sends a pulse to the coil and counts the number of returning pulses or "rings." A faulty coil (or winding) may return one pulse but nearly all the energy will be passed to the shorted turns and you will be able to see this on the scale. You will only get one or two return pulses, whereas a good winding 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 create a short-circuit.
However when the appliance is connected to the mains 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:

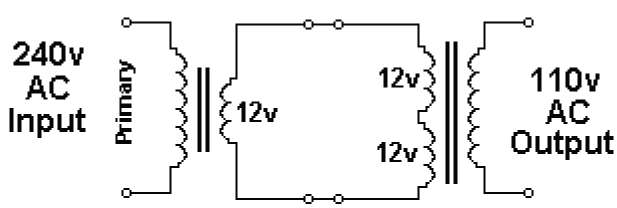


You can use any transformers providing the primary and secondary voltages are the same. The current capability of the secondary winding does not matter. However if you want a supply that has almost the same voltage as your "Mains," you need two transformers with the same voltages.
This handy isolation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

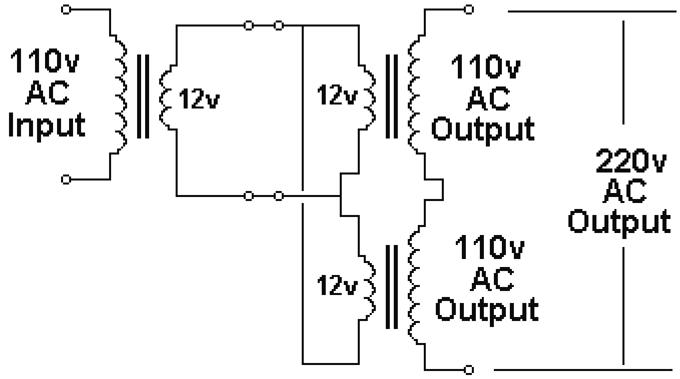
DETERMINING THE SPECS OF A TRANSFORMER
Suppose you have a "mains transformer" with unknown output voltages and unknown current capability.
You must be sure it is a mains transformer designed for operation on 50Hz or 60Hz.
Switch-Mode transformers operate at frequencies 40kHz and higher and are not covered 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 15VA for 500gm, 30VA for 1kgm 50VA for 2kgm and 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 is 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.

240v to 110v ISOLATION TRANSFORMER
Here's how to create a 110v isolating transformer:
Find a 240v:12v transformer.
Now find a transformer that has two secondary windings, such as 240v:12v+12v.



Connect the two transformers as shown in the circuit above. If the output is zero, connect ONE of the 12v windings of the second transformer around the other way.

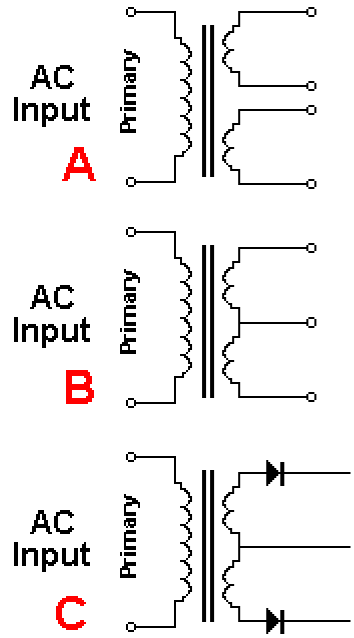
110v to 240v ISOLATION TRANSFORMER



A 110v to 240v isolation transformer can be created by connecting 3 identical transformers as shown in the diagram above. If the output is zero, connect one of the outputs around the other way.

TRANSFORMER RATINGS

Question from a reader:
I have a 28v - 0 - 28v transformer @3amps. Does this mean each side is 1.5 amps?
The transformer is called CENTRE TAPPED and is shown in figures B and C.
It is designed to be connected to two diodes so each winding takes it in turn to deliver the current as shown in diagram C and the output will be 28v AC at 3 amps. The 28v and 3 amp are both AC values.
If you connect across both outside wires, the output will be 56v at 1.5 amp.
This is because the transformer has a VA rating of 28 x 3 = 84VA. This is very similar to the term "watts."
When the 28v AC is rectified and smoothed, it becomes 28 x 1.4 = 39v (minus 0.6v across the diode) and since the transformer has a rating of 84 VA, the current must be reduced to 84/39 = 2.1 amps to maintain the VA rating.
Some transformers are specified as say: 12v - 0 - 12v, but the wiring diagram is shown as "A." This transformer should be specified as 12v + 12v as the secondaries are separate.
12v - 0 - 12v means the two secondary windings are NOT separate.
It does not make any difference to the output voltage and current, if the windings are separate or joined. The only difference is 12v +12v can be turned into two separate 12v outputs.
If you do not know the output current for a particular transformer, go to the website of electronic parts suppliers and compare the weight of your transformer with others. This will give you a VA rating and you can work out the current, once you know the output voltage.
Note: the output current finishes up ONLY 60% of the rating on the transformer tag because the rating is an **AC RATING**.
With 2 separate secondaries, you can parallel the outputs to get double the current, but don't forget 12v + 12v @ 3amp means 12v in parallel with 12v will provide 2amp DC and the DC voltage will be about 17v.



CURRENT TRANSFORMER

A Current Transformer is really an ordinary transformer.
All transformers produce a CURRENT output and a VOLTAGE output.
If you put an ammeter across the secondary, the current will increase through the meter when the primary voltage is increased.
This is because the output voltage will increase and this voltage will allow a higher current to flow.

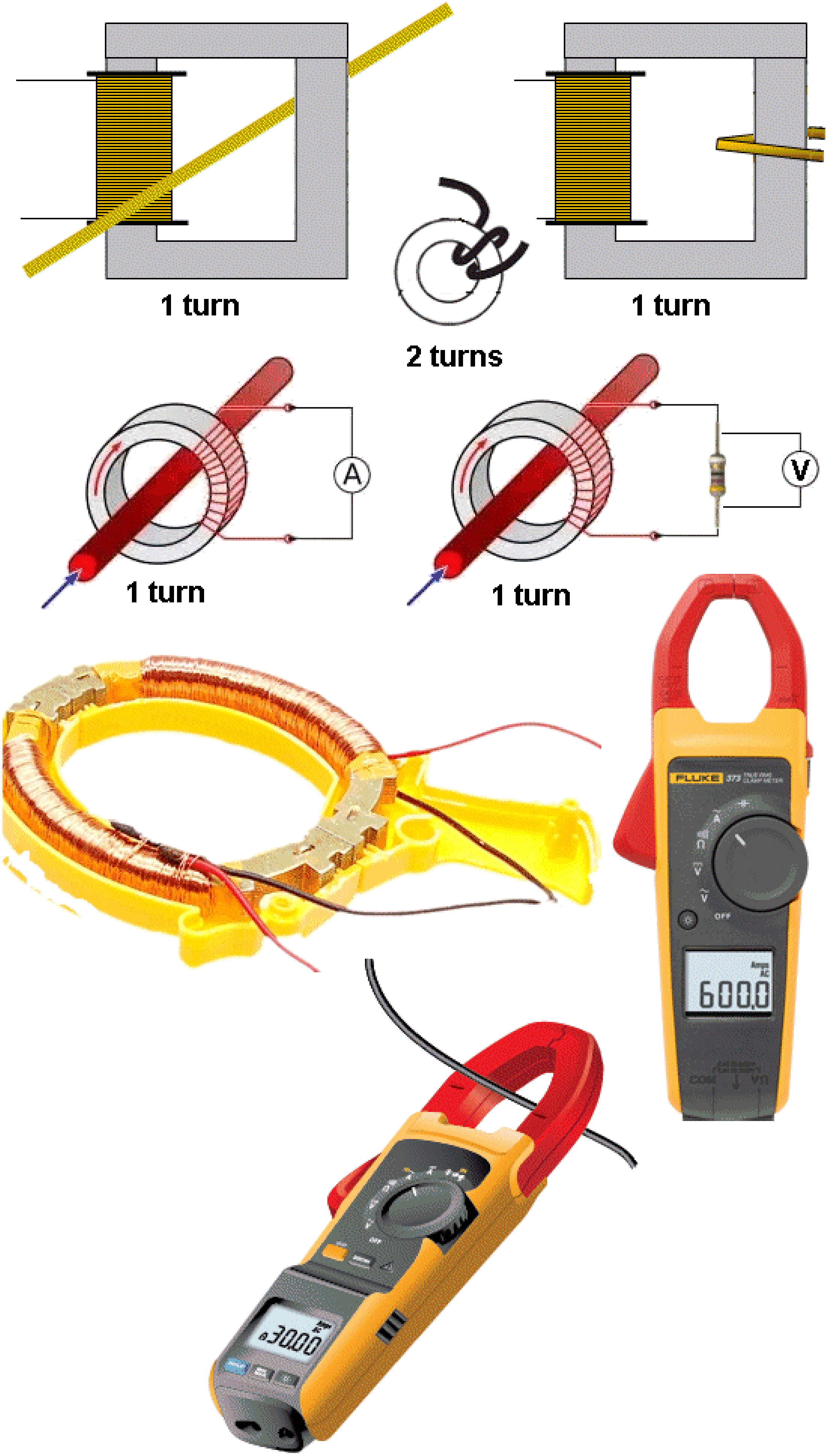
WHY DETECT CURRENT? Why not voltage?

Because the voltage of say the "240v AC" is always 240v but the current can increase from say 1 amp to nearly 15 amps, depending what appliance is connected. So it is pointless measuring voltage.
A Current Transformer is a step-up transformer. When we say step-up and step-down, we are referring to the voltage - comparing the primary voltage to the secondary voltage. (Most transformers on the "mains" are step-down transformers and are used as power supplies to laptops, phone chargers etc.) Even a welding transformer is a step-down device and produces about 20v to 70v, while the current can be as high as 100 amps. This current is higher than the mains will deliver and is needed to melt the metal at the point of contact of the probe and the item being welded.
A Current Transformer is a step-up transformer. The primary consists of a single turn (or maybe 2 - 5 turns) and the secondary has 100 turns (or more).
This means the voltage seen by the primary will be increased 100 times and appear as anything from a few hundred millivolts to a few volts, depending on the quality of the coupling. (the magnetic coupling between the wire through the centre of the core, the quality of the core to transfer this magnetic flux to the secondary turns.)
This voltage is then passed to a low value resistor, where the voltage is reduced to a level that suits the detection circuit and the resulting millivolts is interpreted as current in the wire being tested.

Recapping:

The reading on the secondary has no relation to the current in the primary. We need to add a LOAD RESISTOR and create a table before we can use the transformer.
There is no such thing as a CURRENT TRANSFORMER. It is really an INSTRUMENT TRANSFORMER and the scale has been marked in units of CURRENT after measurements have been made. (INSTRUMENT TRANSFORMER means it is a device that helps us to produce a connection between current flowing through a wire and a reading on a meter or display).
If we connect a load to the secondary, (say an ammeter), it will produce a reading that increases when the current through the single primary turn is increased. That's because the ammeter is a LOAD. But the reading is meaningless until be calibrate the scale.

Now, lets look at the primary.
A wire (or cable) through the centre of the core is counted as one turn. If the turn is wrapped around the core, the coupling will be improved, but if we always use a straight wire, it does not matter where it is positioned inside the centre of the core.
It does not matter if the magnetic interaction of the flux from the wire is good or bad, we just have to keep to the same way of using the transformer.
The calibration can be done with any poor coupling and the result will be accurate for all future readings.
If a low-value resistor is placed across the secondary, the voltage across this resistor will increase and also the current through it will increase. But we are not going to measure the current through the resistor. We are going to measure the voltage across the resistor and by taking lots of reading we will finish up with a scale or table and this is called CALIBRATION. The results will be equated to the current flowing through the primary wire (primary turn).
A clamp meter uses a current transformer and the jaws must be closed completely and cleanly for the flux to flow around the core and produce a reading in the secondary.
Dirt in the jaws will reduce the reading considerably.
You cannot measure the current in a "power cord" because it contains both the active and neutral wires.
Even though the current is a maximum in both conductors at the same time, the current is flowing in two different directions and the magnetic flux produced by one conductor is clockwise and the other is anticlockwise and they are cancelled by each other.

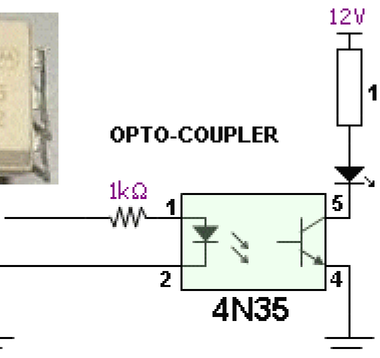


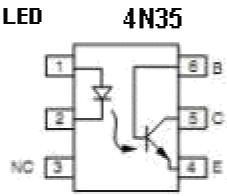
Identifying ONE TURN.
The quality (the coupling) of a single STRAIGHT wire

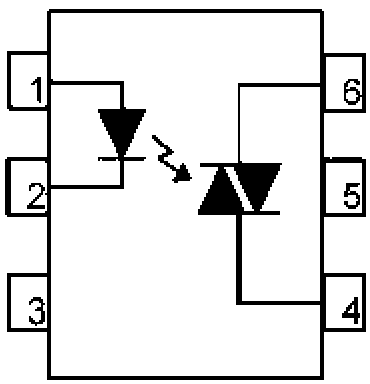
through the centre of a core is very poor
but if all readings are taken with this amount
of coupling, the readings will be accurate, as the
calibrations have been done with this arrangement.

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
Note: the pinout is different to 4N35

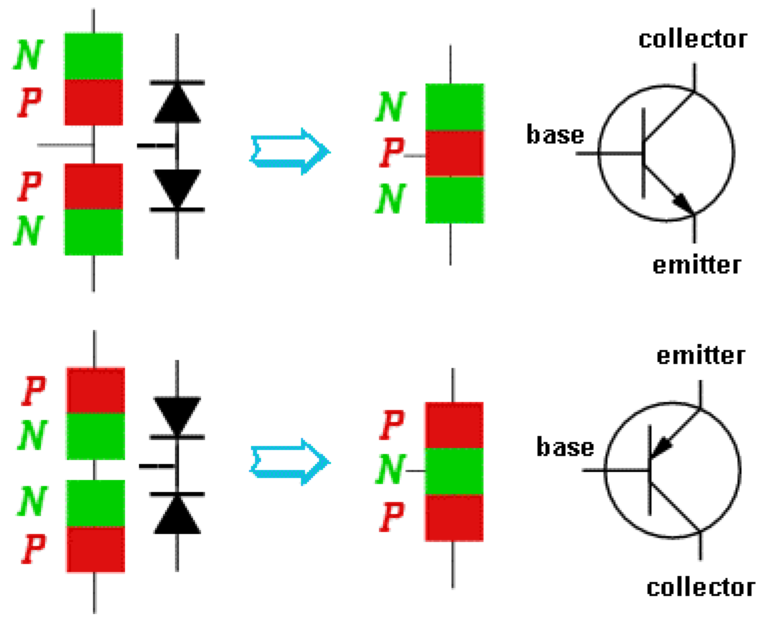
TESTING AN OPTO COUPLER

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 though 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

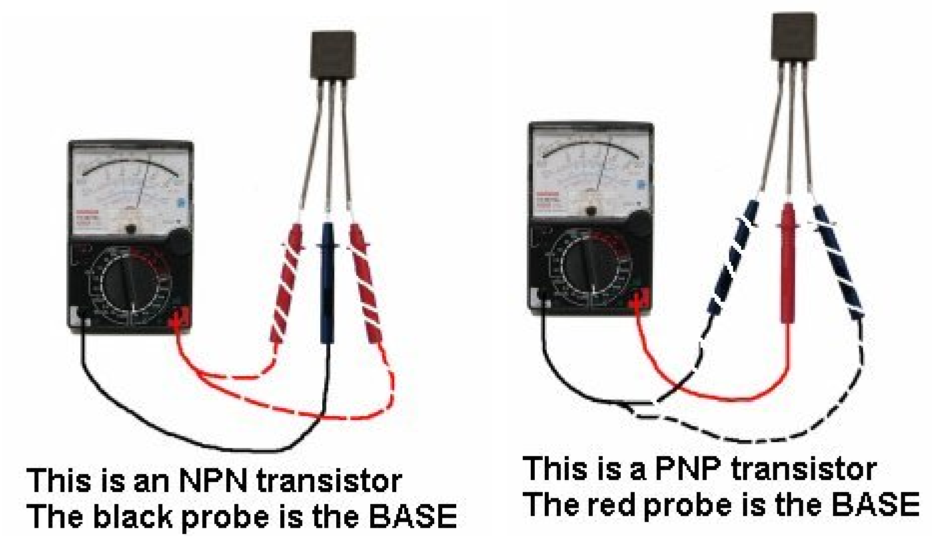
Testing a transistor with a **Digital Meter** must be done on the "DIODE" setting as a digital meter does not deliver a current through the probes on some of the resistance settings and will not produce an accurate reading.
The "DIODE" setting must be used for diodes and transistors. It should also be called a "TRANSISTOR" setting.

TESTING AN unknown TRANSISTOR

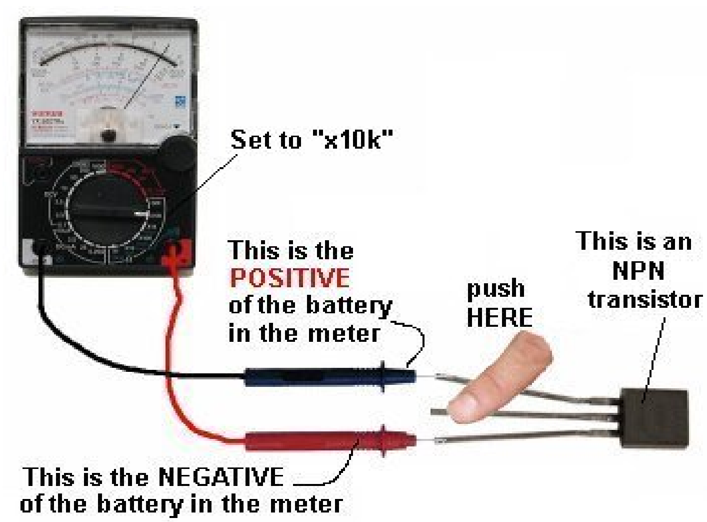
The first thing you may want to do is test an unknown transistor for COLLECTOR, BASE AND EMITTER. You also want to perform a test to find out if it is NPN or PNP. That's what this test will provide.
You need a cheap multimeter called an ANALOGUE METER - a multimeter with a scale and pointer (needle).
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.

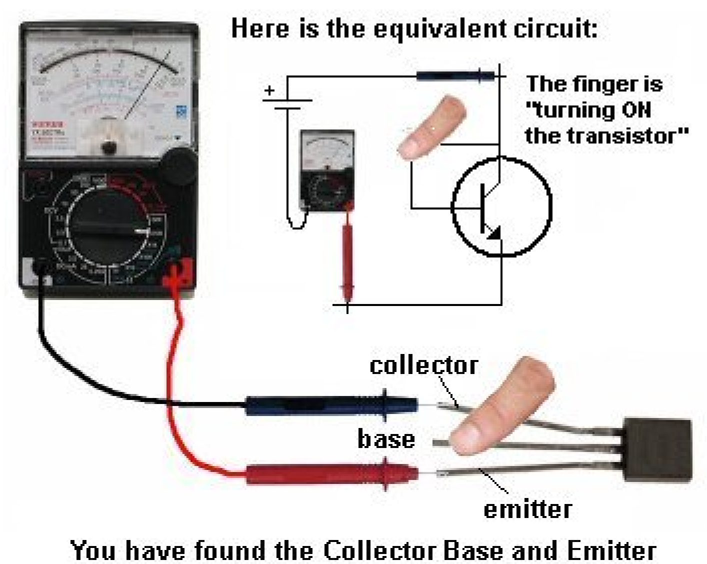
How to read: "x10" "x100" "x1k" "x10"
Up-scale from the zero mark is "1"
When the needle swings to this position on the "x10" setting, the value is 10 ohms.
When the needle swings to "1" on the "x100" setting, the value is 100 ohms.
When the needle swings to "1" on the "x1k" setting, the value is 1,000 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**.

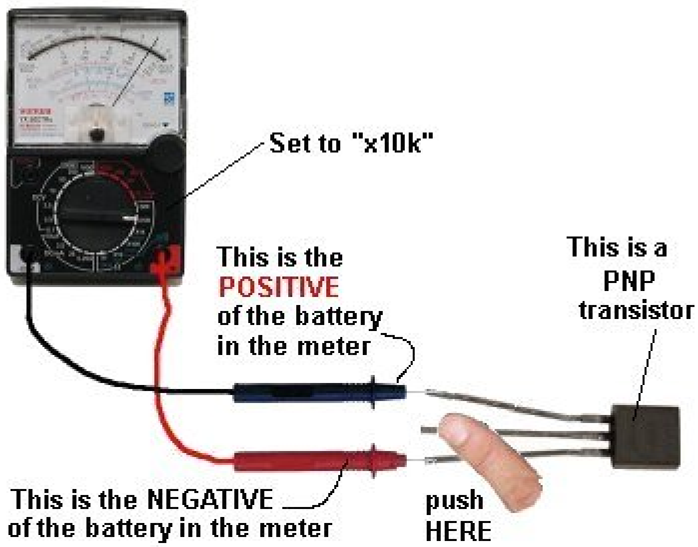


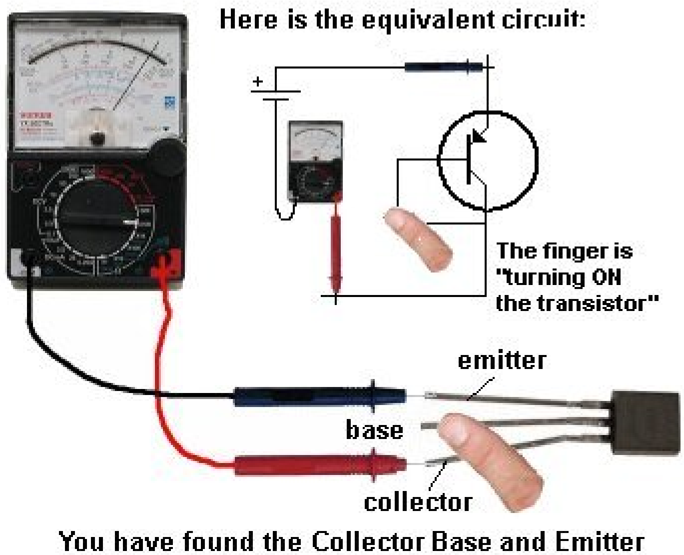
Step 2 - FINDING THE COLLECTOR and EMITTER
Set the meter to "x10k."
For an NPN transistor, place the leads on the transistor and when you press hard on the two leads shown in the diagram below, the needle will swing almost full scale.





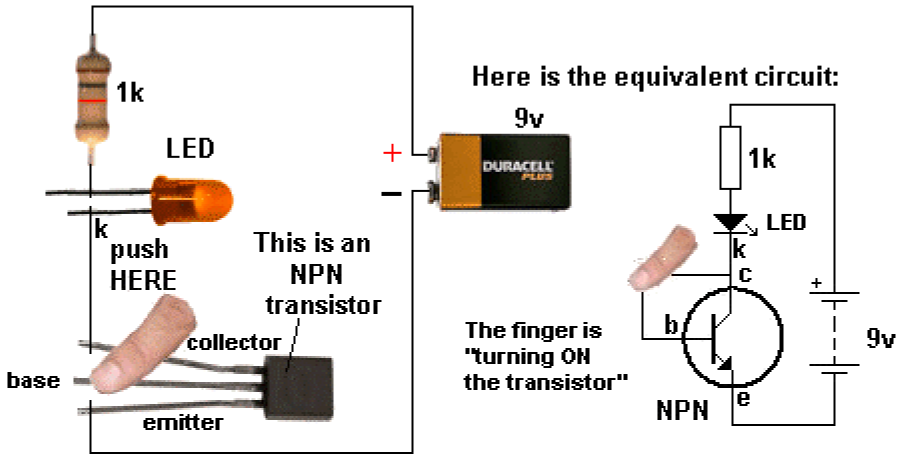
For a PNP transistor, set the meter to "x10k" place the leads on the transistor and when you press hard on the two leads shown in the diagram below, the needle will swing almost full scale.

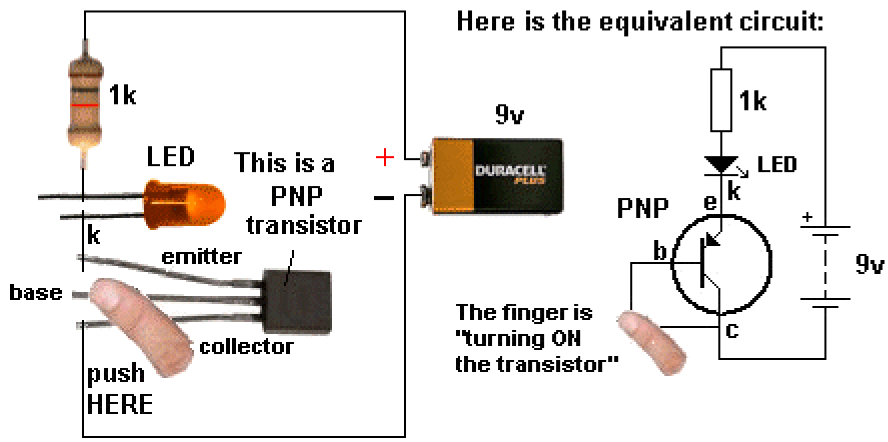




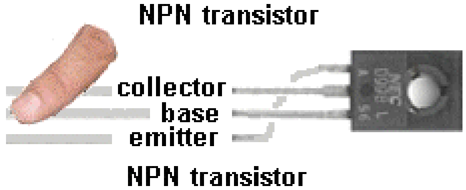
SIMPLEST TRANSISTOR TESTER

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

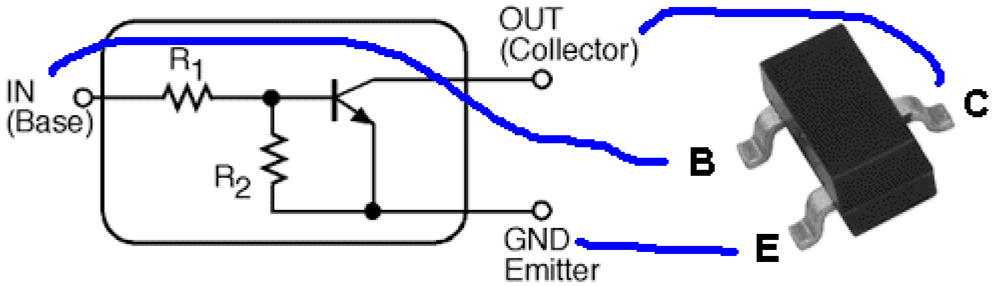
The replacement part should have parameters equal to or higher than the original.

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.

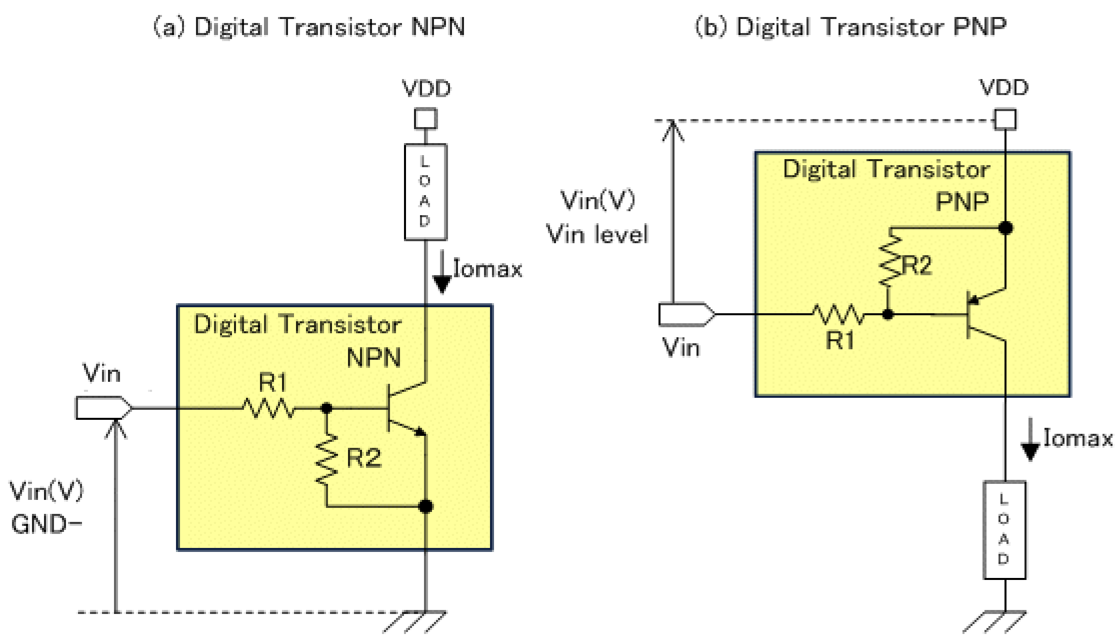
DIGITAL TRANSISTORS

There is no such thing as a DIGITAL TRANSISTOR or an AUDIO TRANSISTOR.
All transistors are just "TRANSISTORS" and the surrounding components as well as the type of signal, make the transistor operate in DIGITAL MODE or ANALOGUE MODE.
But we have some transistors that have inbuilt resistors to make them suitable for connecting to a digital circuit without the need for a base resistor.
Here is the datasheet for an NPN transistor BCR135w and PNP datasheet for BCR185w.
These transistors are called "Digital Transistors" because the "base lead" can be connected directly to the output of a digital stage. This "lead" or "pin" is not really the base of the transistor but a 4k7 (or 10k) resistor connected to the base allows the transistor to be connected to the rest of a digital circuit.
You cannot actually get to the base. The resistor(s) are built into the chip and the transistor is converted into a "Digital Transistor" because it will accept 5v on the "b"

lead.
The 47k is not really needed but it makes sure the transistor is fully turned OFF if the signal on the "b" lead is removed (in other words - if the input signal is converted to a high-impedance signal - see tri-state output from microcontrollers for a full explanation).
This transistor is designed to be placed in a circuit where the input changes from low to high and high to low and does not stop mid-way. This is called a DIGITAL SIGNAL and that is one reason why the transistor is called a digital transistor. (However you could stop half-way but the transistor may heat up and get too hot).
Any transistor placed in a digital circuit can be called a "digital transistor" but it is better to say it is operating in DIGITAL MODE.

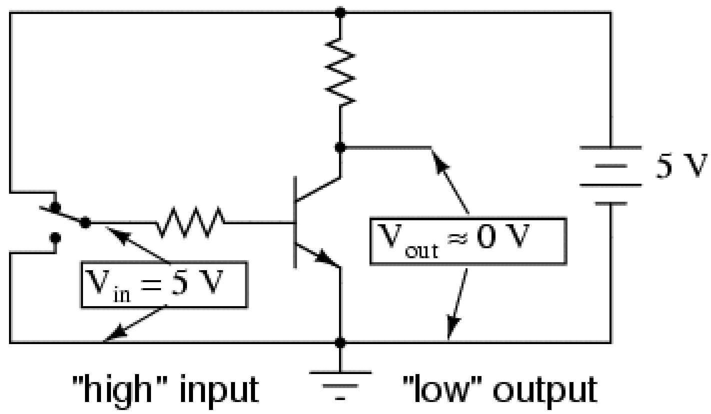


The digital transistor has two resistors included inside the case
R1 is about 10k and R2 is approx 47k



Equivalent circuit of the digital transistor

These transistors can be made to work in analogue circuits because they are ordinary transistors with a 10k base resistor, but you will have to know what you are doing.

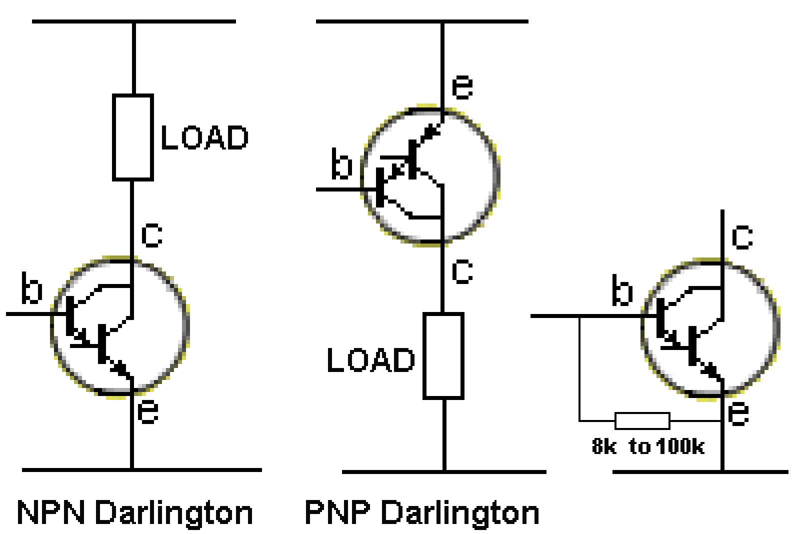


Transistor in saturation

The circuit above shows the digital transistor is designed to allow a voltage of 5v to be supplied to the "base" pin and the transistor will Fully Conduct.
This type of transistor saves putting a base resistor on the PC board.
It can be tested just like a normal transistor but the resistance between base and emitter will be about 5k to 50k in both directions. If the collector-emitter is low in both directions the transistor is damaged.
Here's how to look at how the transistor works:
The 10k resistor on the base will allow 0.5mA to flow into the base. But the 47k will reduce this to 0.4mA. If the transistor has a gain of 100, the collector-emitter current can be 40mA.
To determine the current capability of the transistor, connect 100R load and turn the transistor ON. This will allow about 100mA for the collector-emitter current. Measure the collector-emitter voltage. If it is more than 0.5v, the transistor is OVER-LOADED.

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.



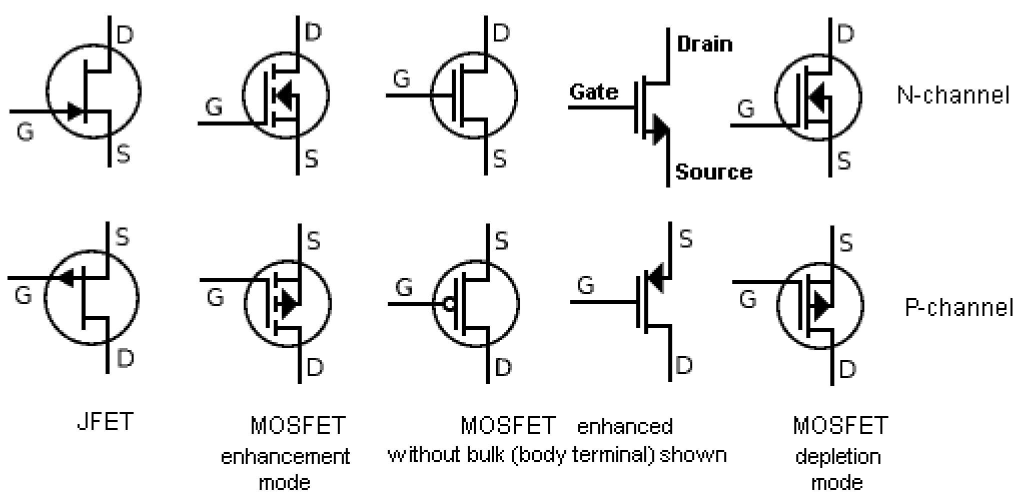
Darlington transistors are tested the same as an ordinary transistor and a multimeter will produce about the same deflection, even though you will be measuring across two junctions, (and a base-emitter resistor is present).

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

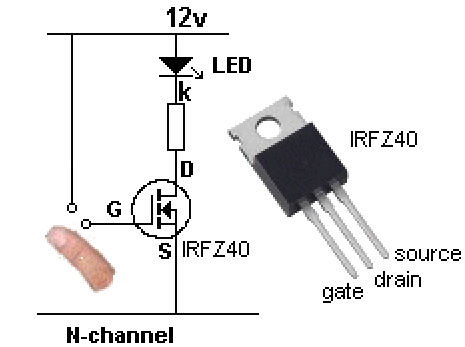
These are all names given to a transistor when it is used in a particular circuit. ALL these transistors are the same for testing purposes.
We are not testing for gain, maximum voltage, speed of operation or any special feature. We are just testing to see if the transistor is completely faulty and SHORTED.
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.

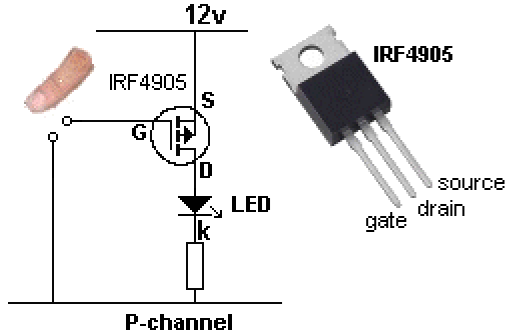
TESTING MOSFETs and FETs

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 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:

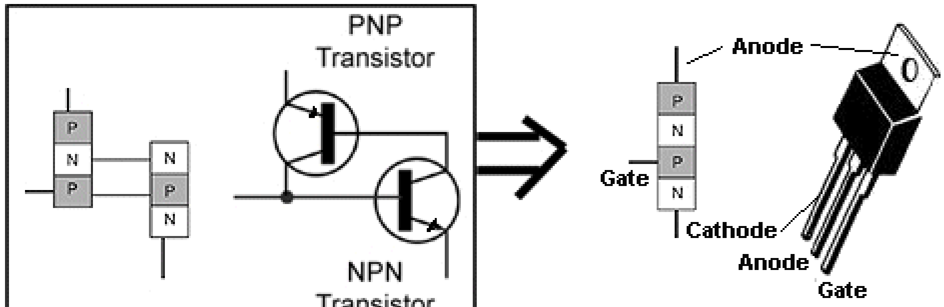




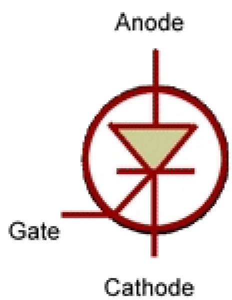
Touching the Gate will increase the voltage on the Gate and the MOSFET will turn ON and illuminate the LED. Removing your finger will turn the LED off.
Large devices such as the TO-220 types shown above do not like static electricity on the gate and you have to be careful not to "spike" the gate with any static. Generally this type of device is not "super sensitive" and you can use your finger or a large value resistor.
When replacing one of these devices, there are 2 things to match-up.
Voltage and Current.
In most cases, the "turn-ON" resistance (the resistance between Source and Drain) will be the same (something like 22 milli ohms) and the speed of operation will be ok.
Check the voltage needed to turn the gate ON and make sure you can supply the required voltage.

SILICON CONTROLLED RECTIFIERs (SCR)

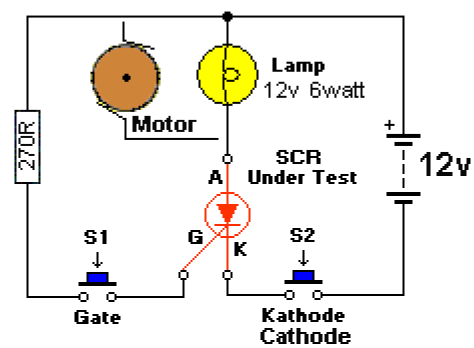
The **Silicon Controlled Rectifier** (SCR) is a semiconductor device that is a member of a family of control devices known as **Thyristors**. It is a 3-leaded device and when a small current enters the Gate, the **thyristor** turns on. AND STAYS ON. It only conducts current between Anode and Cathode 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.



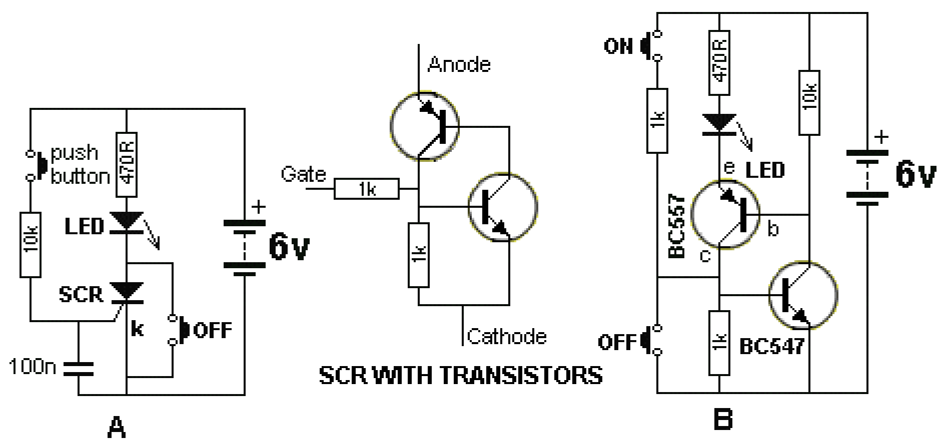
THYRISTOR or SCR



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

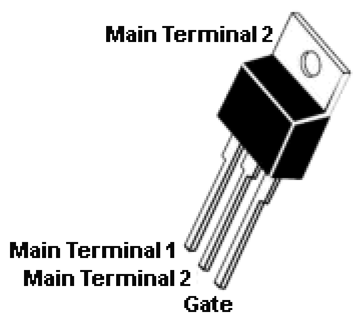
An **SCR** can be tested with some multimeters but a minimum current Anode-to-Cathode is needed to keep the device turned on. Some multimeters do not provide this amount of current and the **SCR Tester** circuit above is the best way to test these devices.
Shorted SCRs can usually be detected with an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

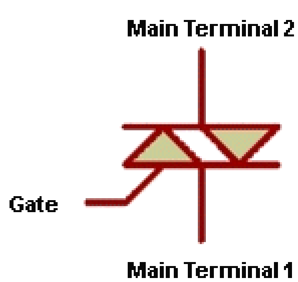
(because the + of the battery is connected to the negative lead, in most analogue multimeters). Momentarily touch the gate lead to the anode while the probes are still touching both leads; this will provide a small positive turn-on voltage to the gate and the cathode-to-anode resistance reading will 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 though 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 tuned 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.

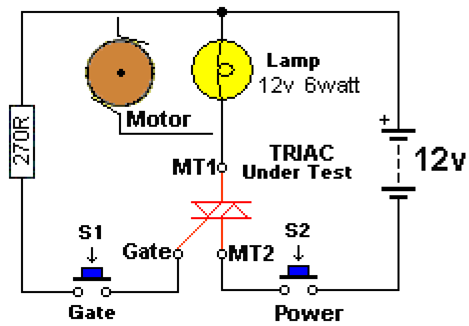




TRIAC (2 SCR's)
TRIode for Alternating Current

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.



TRIAC TESTER

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 rest 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.

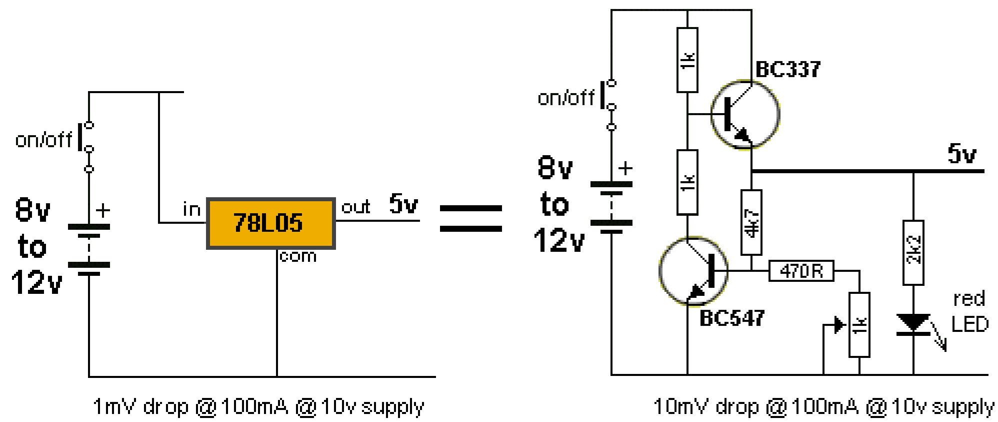
Once you know the name of the cell that drops to 1.1v, avoid them as the operation of the equipment "drops off" very quickly.

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:



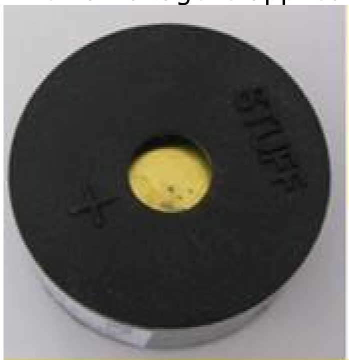
TESTING PIEZO DIAPHRAGMS and PIEZO BUZZERS

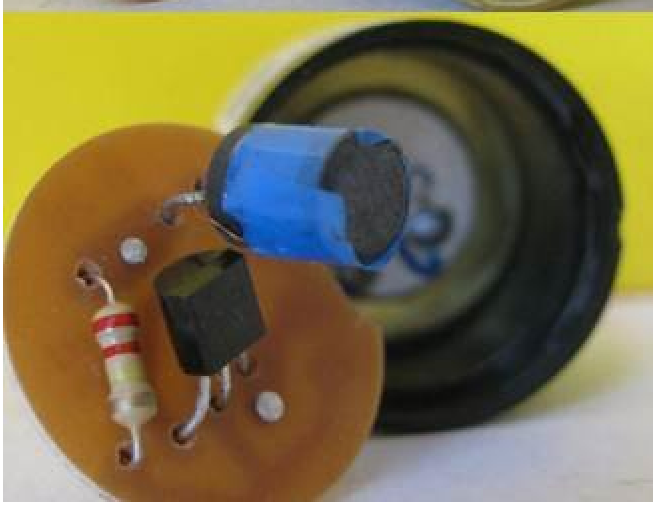
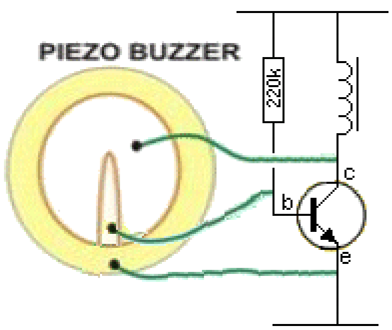
There are two types of piezo devices that produce a sound.
They are called **PIEZO DIAPHRAGMS** and **PIEZO BUZZERS**.
A **piezo diaphragm** consists of two metal plates with a ceramic material between. The ceramic expands and contracts when an alternating voltage is placed on the two plates and this 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."

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 SPEAKER

A speaker (also called a **loud speaker**) has coil of wire wrapped around a magnet but it does not

touch the magnet as it is wound on a thin cardboard former so that the coil will be pulled closer to the magnet when a current flows in the coil.
When the current flows in the other direction, the coil moves away from the magnet.
The coil is called voice coil and it is connected to a sheet of thin card called a CONE and as the cone vibrates, the speaker reproduces music or noise.
Use a multimeter on a low ohms scale to read the value of resistance of the coil.
It can be as low as 2 ohms or as high as 100 ohms.
Most speakers have an 8R voice coil and the actual resistance may be slightly lower than this.
Some speakers have a resistance of 16R, 32R or 50R and even 75 ohms.
You would think putting a 16R speaker in place of 8R would reduce the sound output, but this is not always the case.
You can even use 50R or 75R and get the same performance.
This may sound amazing, but here is the reason.
The cone is deflected a certain amount due to the current flowing and the number of turns.
These two values are multiplied together to produce a value called AMP-TURNS.
If we have an 8R speaker with 80 turns and 100mA, the result is 0.1 x 80 = 8.
If we use a 16R speaker, the average current flow will be 50mA and the number of turns will be about 160. The multiplication of 0.05 x 160 = 8.
The author then tried a 50R speaker and the sound output was equal to 8R and the same with 75R speaker.
This might not apply in all situations, but the 75R speaker was slightly larger and the ticking sound form the **Metal Detector** kit was louder than using an 8R mini speaker.

To see if the cone of a speaker is undamaged, push it slightly and it will move towards the magnet. If it does not move, it is bent or damaged. If the cone is scratchy when pushed, it is rubbing against the magnet.
A cone should be able to be pushed and pulled from its rest-state. If not, it will produce a distorted sound.

TESTING A CIRCUIT

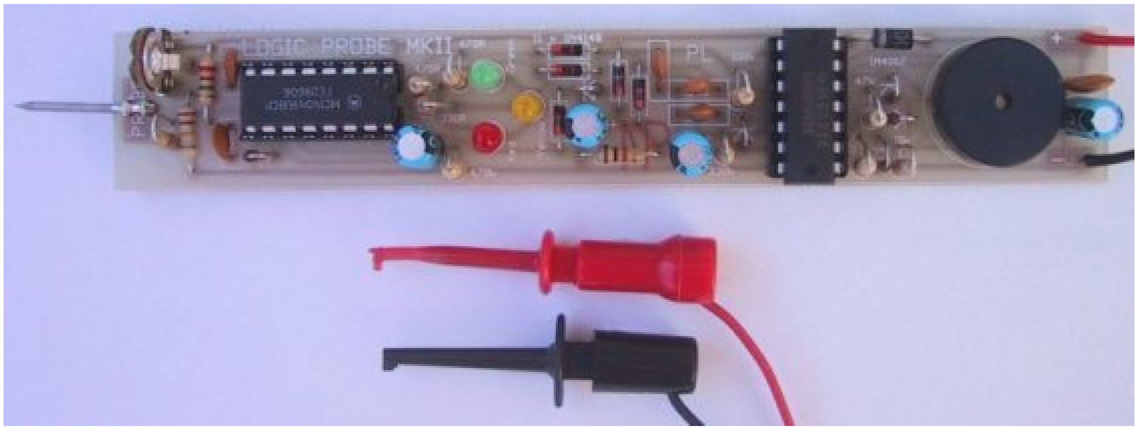
Whenever you test a circuit, the TEST EQUIPMENT puts "a load" or "a change" on it. It does not matter if the test equipment is a multimeter, Logic Probe, CRO, Tone Injector or simply a LED and resistor.
There are two things you need to know.
1. The IMPEDANCE of the circuit at the location you are testing, and
2. The amount of load you are adding to the circuit via the test equipment.

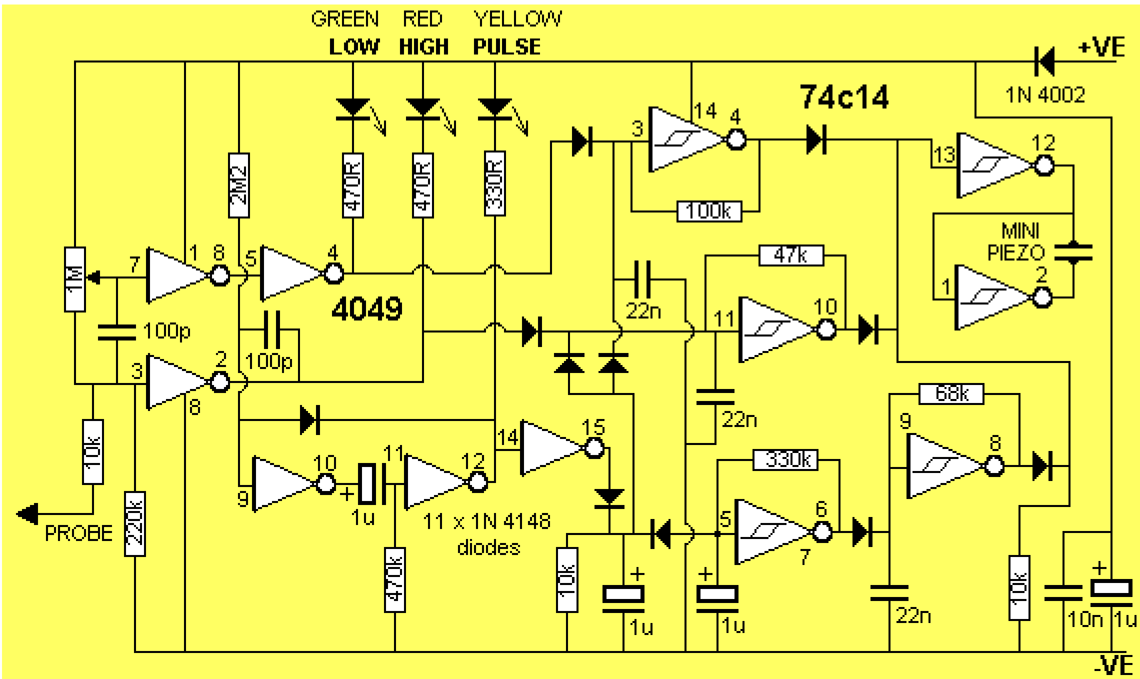
There is also one other hidden factor. The test equipment may be injecting "hum" due to its leads or the effect of your body at absorbing hum from the surroundings or the test equipment may be connected to the mains.
These will affect the reading on the test equipment and also any output of the circuit. 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:

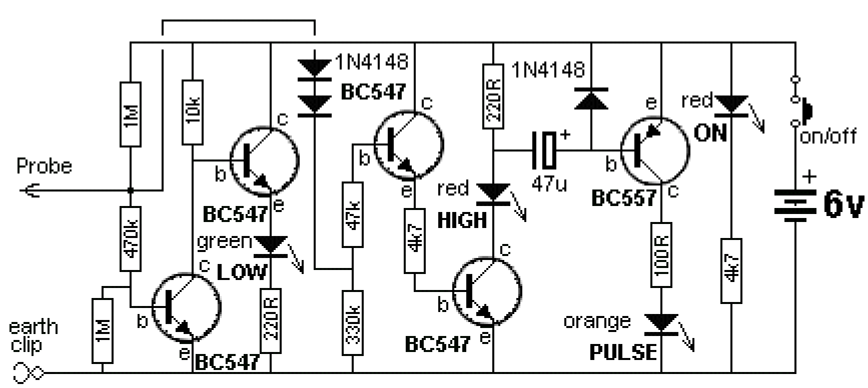
http://www.talkingelectronics.com/projects/LogicProbeMkIIB/LogicProbeMk-IIB.html





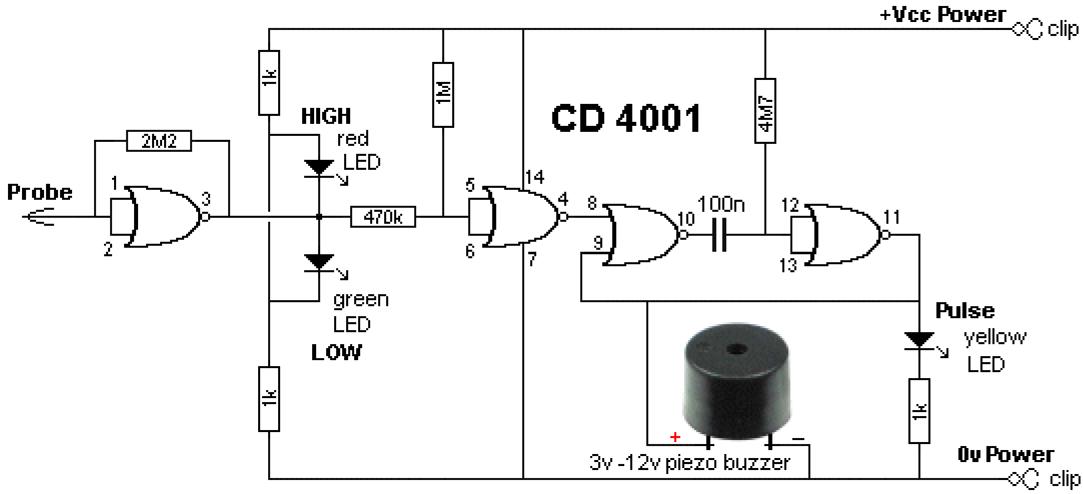
LOGIC PROBE with PULSE

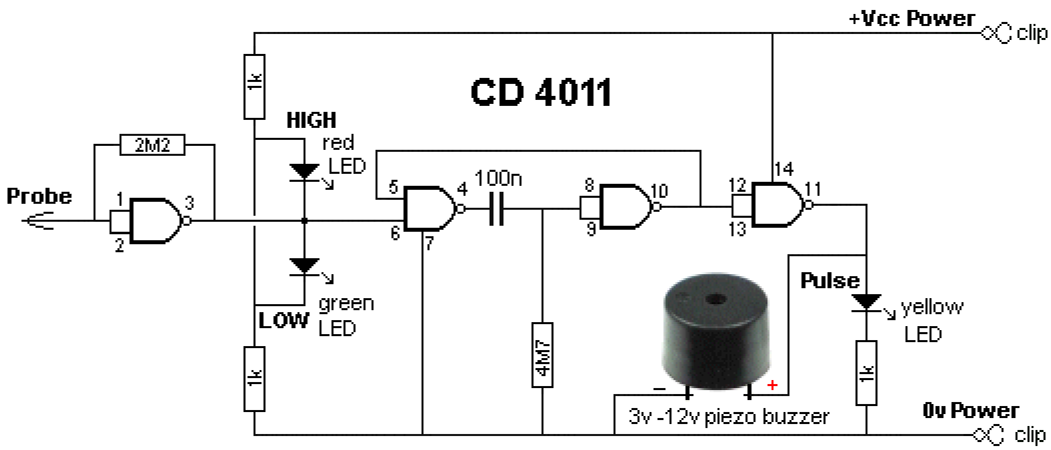
This is a very simple transistor circuit to provide HIGH-LOW-PULSE indication for digital circuits. It can be built for less than $5.00 on a piece of matrix board or on a small strip of copper clad board if you are using surface mount components. The probe will detect a HIGH at 3v and thus the project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



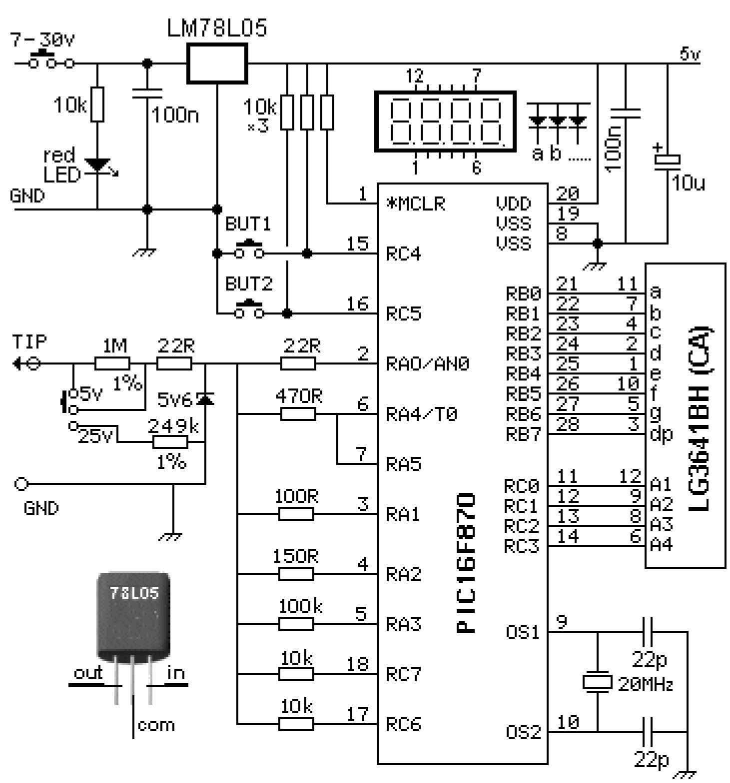
LOGIC PROBE using CD4001 and CD4011

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).

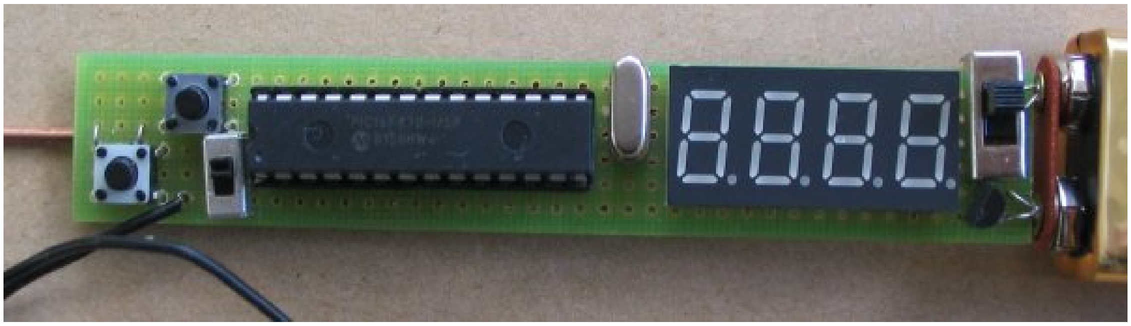




SUPER PROBE MkII has 20 different features including a Logic Probe, capacitance tester, Inductance tester, and more.



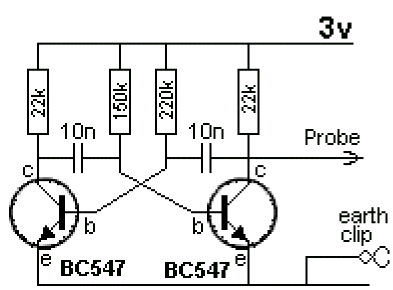
SUPER PROBE MkII Circuit



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.

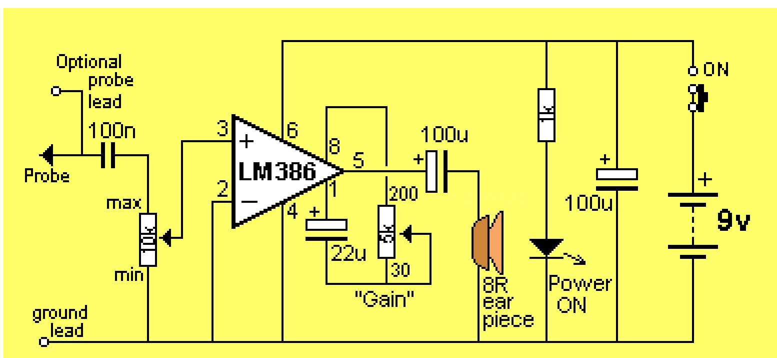
TESTING IC's - also called "CHIPS"

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.

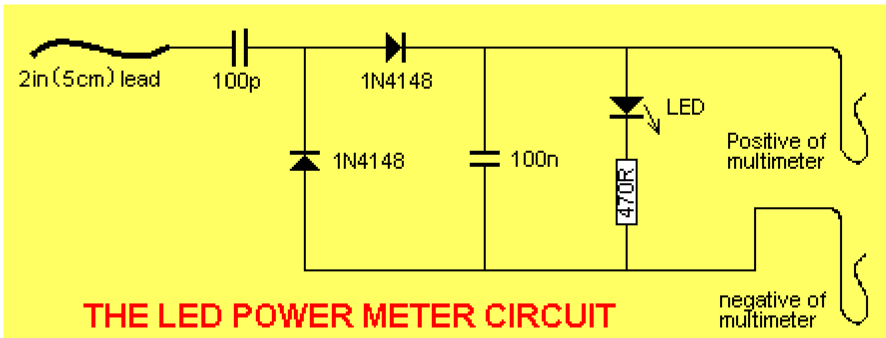
LOGIC PULSER
If you have a board or a single chip and want to create activity (clock pulses), you can use a Logic Pulser. This piece of test equipment will produce a stream of pulses that can be injected into the clock-line (clock input) of a chip.
You can then use a Logic Probe at the same time on the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

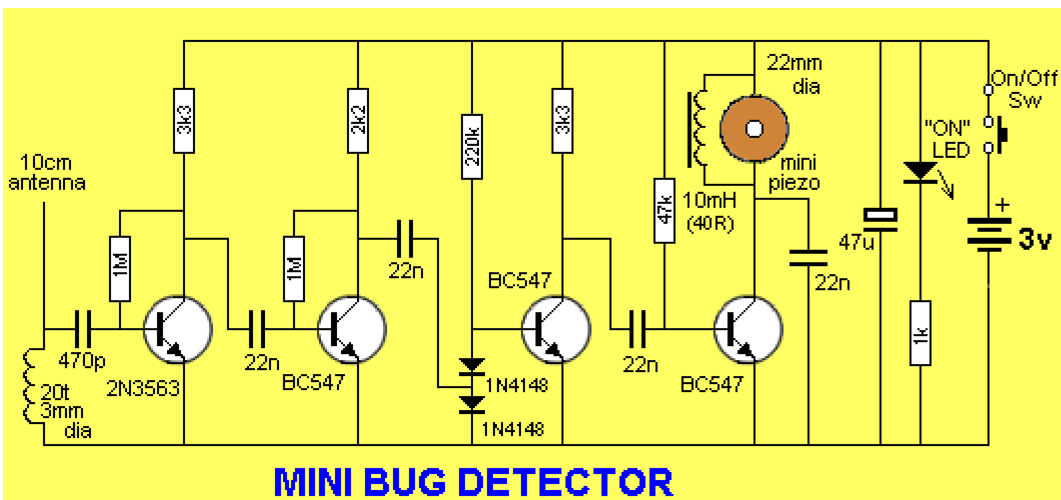
This is how to approach servicing/testing in a general way. There are thousands of digital chips and if you want to test a specific chip for its exact performance, you will need to set-up a "test-bed."

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 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.

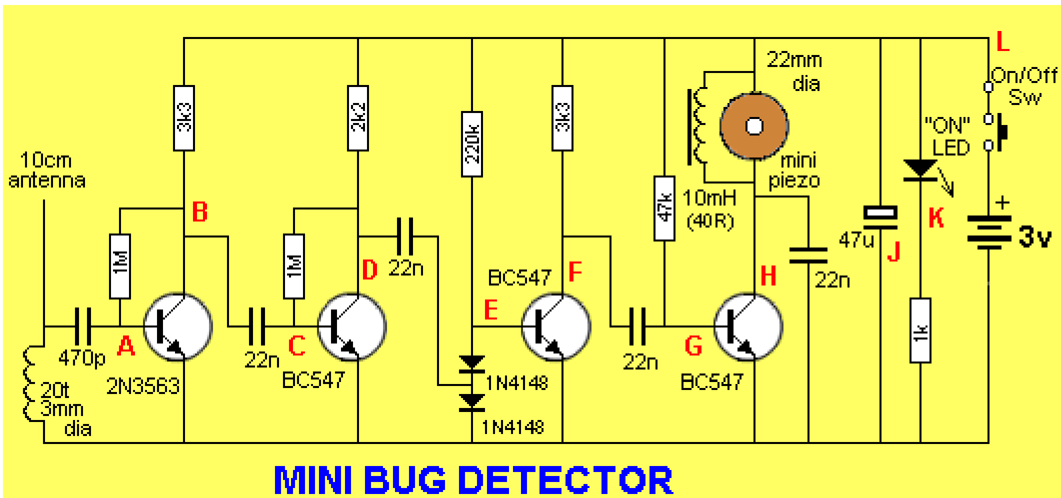
Once you have determined if the circuit is Analogue or Digital, or a combination of both, you have to look at the rail voltage and work out the size or amplitude of the voltage or waveform.
This is done before making a test, so your predictions are confirmed.
You will need a **multimeter** (either Digital 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:



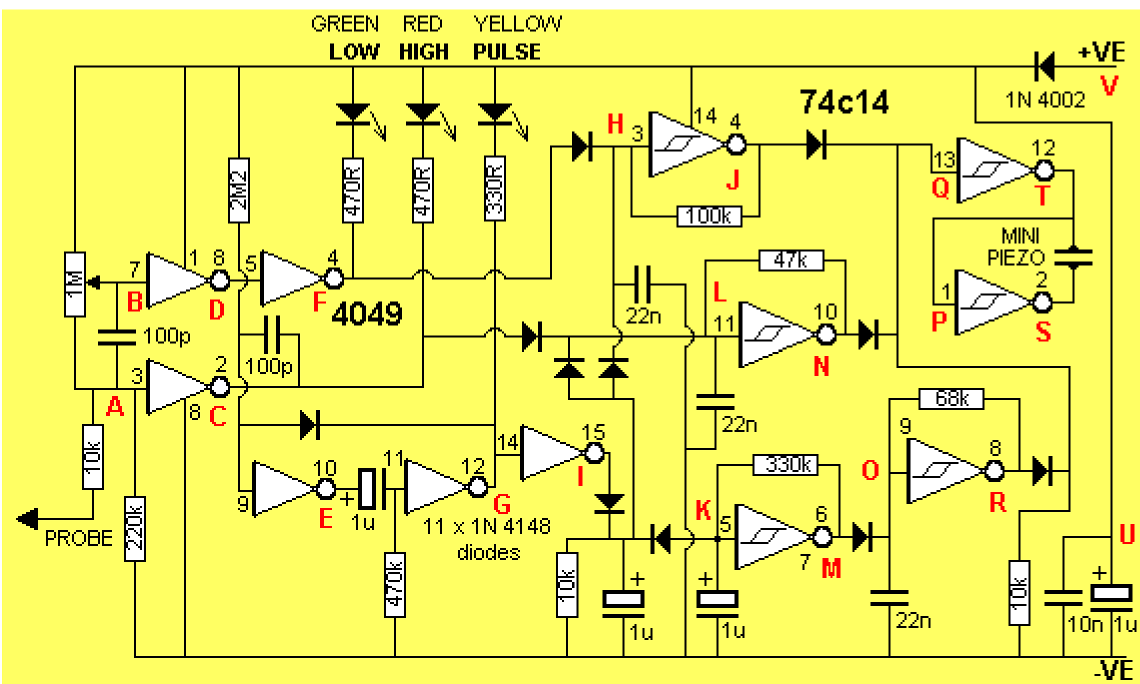
Point A - The first transistor is "self-biased" and will have 0.6v on the base. The antenna is connected to a 20 turn coil and you might think the coil will "short" the signals to earth.
But the coil and 470p capacitor form a circuit that oscillates at a high frequency when the antenna wire picks up 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 though 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.

THE VOLTAGE DIVIDER - this topic could fill a book.

You need to read lots of other sections in this eBook, including the section on measuring across a resistor with a multimeter, and high impedance circuits, to fully understand the complexities of a VOLTAGE DIVIDER CIRCUIT.
It is one of the most important BUILDING BLOCKS to understand. Even though it may consists of two components, you have to understand what is happening between these two components. You have to realise there is a voltage at their join that will be rising and falling due to one of the components changing RESISTANCE. Sometimes you can work out the voltage at the join by using Ohm's LAW but quite often it will be impossible as it is changing (rising and falling) during the operation of the circuit.
At the beginning of this discussion we will only dealing with DC circuits and the voltage across a particular component will be due to its RESISTANCE. We are not going into any formulas, as it is very easy to measure the voltages with a multimeter set to VOLTS and you will have an accurate result.
The simplest two components in series are resistors. They always have the same resistance during the operation of a circuit and the voltage across each will not change.
In a further discussion we will cover "resistors" that change value according to the temperature. These are called THERMISTORS. And we have "resistors" that change value according to the light they receive. These are called LIGHT DEPENDENT RESISTORS (LDR's) or PHOTO RESISTORS.
A transistor that is partly or fully turned ON can be considered to be similar to a resistor.
In these 3 cases we need to measure the voltage at the join with a voltmeter as it will be a lot of work to measure the resistance and work out a value.
You can also keep a voltmeter on the joint and watch the voltage change.
Finally we have some components that produce a fixed voltage across them (or nearly fixed) and the remaining voltage is dropped across a resistor. These

components MUST have a resistor connected in series to limit the current and allow the component to pass the specified in the datasheet.
These devices include LEDs, diodes and zener diodes. A LED will have a fairly fixed voltage across it from 1.7v to 3.6v depending on the colour. A diode will have a voltage of 0.7v across it when it is connected to a voltage via a resistor. And a zener diode will have a fixed voltage across it when it is connected with the cathode to the positive rail via a resistor. The voltage across it will be as marked on the zener.
The concept of a VOLTAGE DIVIDER is very simple, but it takes a lot of understanding because both VOLTAGE and CURRENT are involved in the UNDERSTANDING-PROCESS.
Each component has a resistance and this can be measured with a multimeter. When two components are connected in series, a current will flow and a voltage will develop across each item.
More voltage will develop across the item with the higher resistance and the addition of each voltage will always equal the supply voltage.
That's the simple answer.
There is a little more involved . . . It is the word CURRENT. Here is an explanation:
Suppose we have a 1k and 2k resistor on a 12v supply. The voltage at the join will be 4v.
In other words, there will be 4v across the 1k and 8v across the 2k.
If we have a 10k and 20k resistors in series, the voltage will also be 4v at the join.
If we have a 100k and 200k resistors, the voltage will also be 4v at the join.
The voltage will be the same in all cases, but the current will be different. The current in the second case will be one-tenth and only one hundredth in the third case.
If you want to go further, place a one ohm and two ohm in series and get 4v. But the resistors will get very hot and burn out very quickly.

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 because the armature has very little inertia.
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.
Motors do not work on "voltage." They actually work on CURRENT and as you increase the voltage, more current will flow and produce a stronger magnetic field (by the winding on each pole). This magnetic field will be attracted by the permanent magnet surrounding the armature and repelled by the surrounding permanent magnet, depending on where the face of the pole is, during each revolution.
If the permanent magnet is not very strong, the repulsion part of the interaction will be very weak and thus the torque will be small.
Because motors work on "current" you must have a high current available when you increase the voltage as the motor will require short bursts of high current during each revolution.
It is the combination of voltage and current (called watts) that gives the motor "strength" (torque) as well as the "strength" of the permanent magnets (called the field magnets) and the number of turns of wire on each pole (and the gauge of wire).
Basically, if a motor is hard to spin, and has 3 "hard spots" on each revolution, it will be powerful.
A 2-pole motor does not self-start and will spin in either direction. But a 3-pole motor will self-start and you can determine the direction of rotation.
A 5-pole motor has a lower RPM. It is slightly smoother in output but is not more powerful than a 3-pole version.
A motor with "permanent magnets" is called a DC motor as it will not work on AC. If the magnets are replaced with a coil, it will work on AC and it will be called a "shunt wound" motor of the field coil is connected across the same terminals as the brushes or a "series wound" motor if the field coil is in series with the armature.

TESTING COMPONENTS "IN-CIRCUIT"

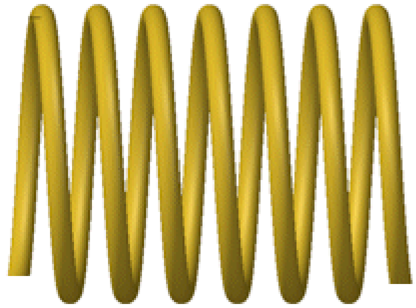
You can test components while they are IN CIRCUIT, but the surrounding components will have an effect on the results.
You can get all sorts of "In-Circuit" testers. They are expensive and offer little more accuracy than a multimeter.
In-Circuit testing with a multimeter can give you the same results 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 though 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.

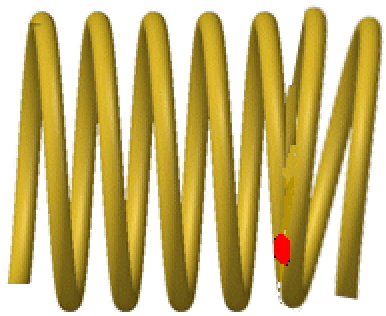
SHORT CIRCUIT

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 to 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:

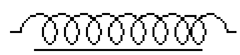
A



B



C



D

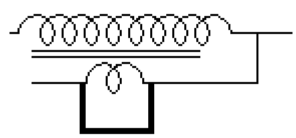


Fig B shows two turns touching each other and if the wire is enamelled, the coating has been damaged so the copper wire from the two turns is touching. This is called a SHORTED TURN.
In fig C you can see two turns touching.
In fig D the shorted-turn has been moved to the other side of the symbol to show 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).

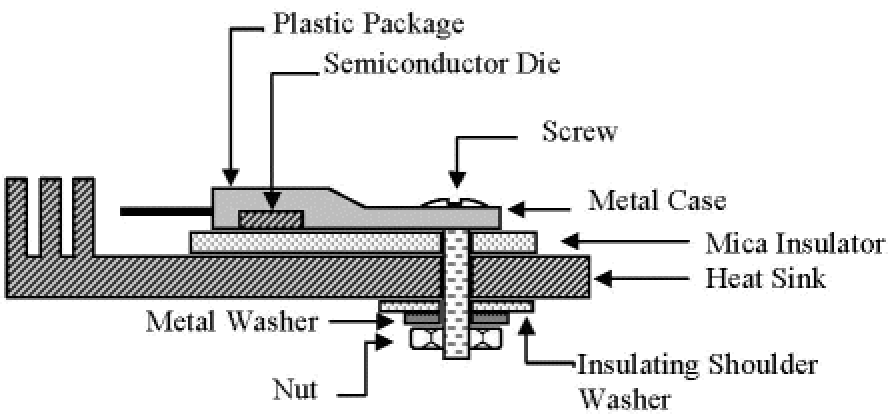
The opposite to a short circuit is an OPEN CIRCUIT.

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.

> HEATSINKS

This is not an electronic component but it can certainly affect the operation of a circuit.
If you cannot hold your fingers on a heatsink, it is getting too hot. This is because the actual location where the heat is being generated is much hotter than the part you are touching.
Transistors and IC's can withstand a high temperature but if they go above this temp, they BLOW UP.
They also have a shorter life when operating at a high temperature.
The secret to a good heatsink is called an INFINITE HEATSINK.
This is the metal frame of a case.
There are lots of charts and data on choosing a heatsink but they don't take into account two factors:
Sometimes a circuit takes a very high current for a short time and this creates a high temperature gradient. This will cause the transistor to get very hot and fail.
The solution is to have two or more transistors in parallel to separate the "heat spots."
The second problem with designing a heatsink is the unknown location of the heatsink and the air-flow. Products placed on a shelf or in a cupboard will get very little air-flow.
Remember: some transistors are mounted on thermal insulators. This means the transistor will have a voltage on it but the heatsink will be zero voltage.
The temperature of the transistor will be MUCH HIGHER than the heatsink under the transistor and the transfer of the heat from the transistor to the heatsink will be very slow. This can be the cause of the transistor failing. Sometimes the transistor will fail because insulation is high temp plastic and it gets brittle. The plastic can carbonise and leak and sometimes a voltage can flash through the insulator. Some amazing things have happened under these transistors and you may need to pull it apart and replace all the insulation.
Finally, feel the heatsink after 15 minutes and feel right up to the transistor. If you cannot touch the transistor, increase the thickness of the heatsink or use two transistors to dissipate the heat.
To design a heatsink, you have to have some idea of the size of a heatsink for the application.
Charts and data can send you in the wrong direction.
Start with a heatsink twice the recommended size and feel the temp after 15 minutes. Put the project in a cupboard and see how the temperature rises.
If possible, connect the heatsink to the metal case to get added dissipation and if you include fan-cooling, remember the fan will eventually gather dust and reduce its efficiency.
It is very difficult to explain how heat passes through a mica washer or plastic washer, but if the transistor has a copper base, the heat transfer has a value of 400. For aluminium it is 200. If it is steel, the transfer has a value of 50. For a mica sheet it is 1 and for plastic it is 0.1
Even though the sheet is very thin, the transfer is a lot less than metal-to-metal transfer.

Most references state the temperature difference is about one degree C for each watt of heat generated by the transistor.
Don't believe anything you read.
Feel the temperature yourself and if you cannot hold your finger on the transistor, fix the problem.



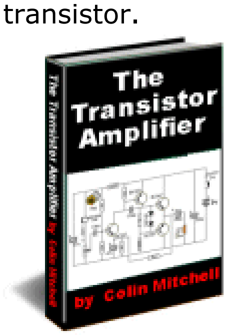
In the end, use a heatsink 50% larger than recommended.

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.



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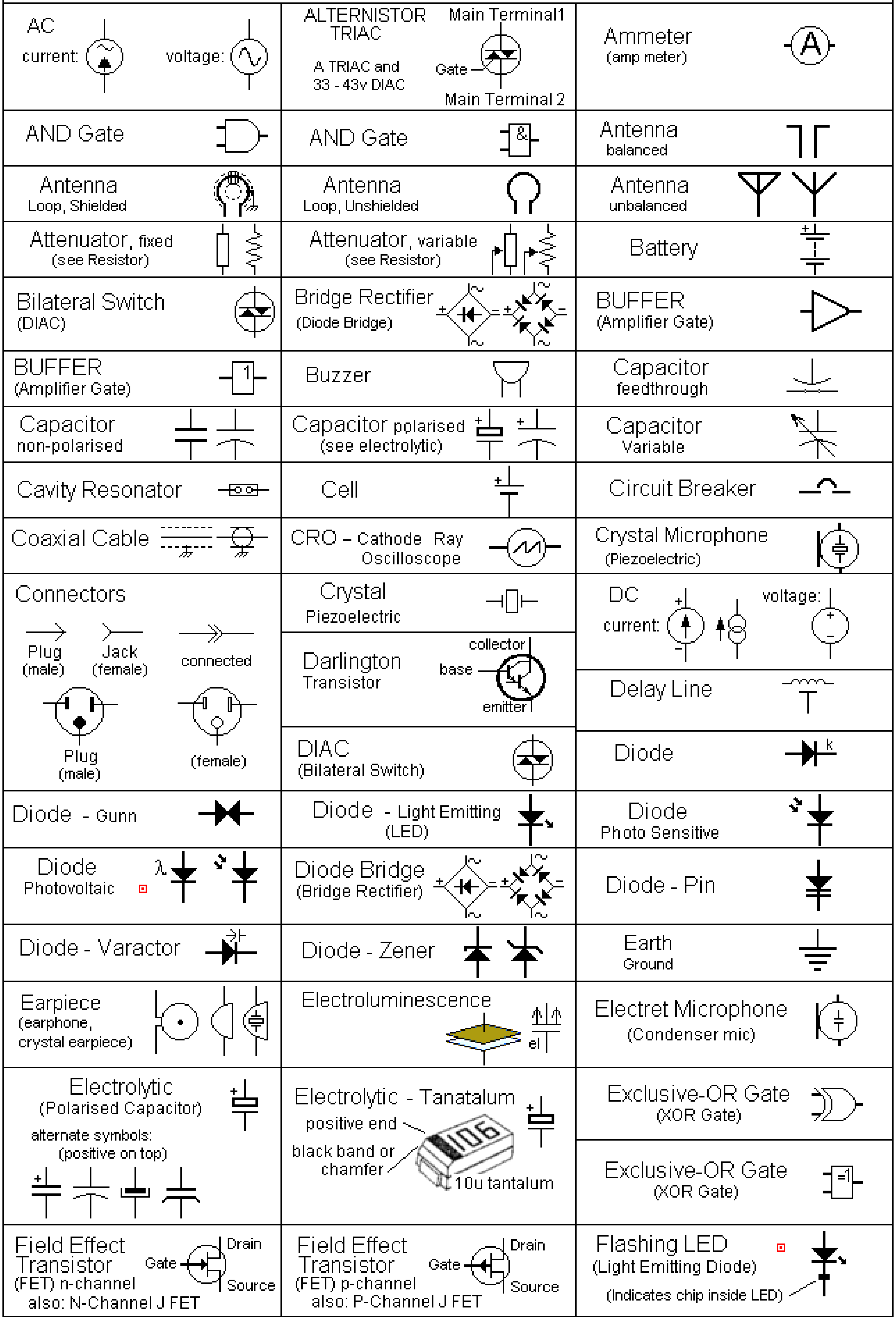
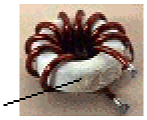
See the enormous amount of information on Talking Electronics website

CIRCUIT SYMBOLS by TALKING ELECTRONICS



Ferrite Bead	Fuse	Galvanometer
Globe	Ground Chassis	Ground Earth
Heater (immersion heater) (cooker etc)	IC Integrated Circuit power ground	Inductor Air Core
Headphone		Inductor Iron Core or ferrite core 
Inductor Tapped	Inductor Variable	Integrated Circuit 
Inverter (NOT Gate)	INVERTER (NOT Gate)	
Jack Co-axial	Jack Phone (Phone Jack)	Jack Phone (Switched)
Jack Phone (3 conductor)	Key Telegraph (Morse Key)	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) a c k e Photo-transistor output
Optocoupler (Darlington output)	Opto Coupler (Opto-isolator) a c k e 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 Gate Drain Source (Field Effect Transistor)	Photo Transistor

Photovoltaic Cell (Solar Cell) + λ +	Piezo Tweeter (Piezo Speaker)	Positive Voltage Connection +
Potentiometer (variable resistor)	Programmable Unijunction Transistor PUT gate anode cathode	Rectifier Silicon Controlled (SCR) Anode Gate Cathode
Rectifier Semiconductor k	Reed Switch N	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 Shottky) Low for ward voltage 0.3v Fast switching also called Schottky Barrier Diode k k	Shielding Signal Generator	Shockley Diode k 4-layer PNPN device Remains off until forward current reaches the forward break-over voltage.
Silicon Bilateral Switch (SBS) T_2 Terminal Gate T_1 Terminal e.g: BS08D T_2 G T_1	Silicon Unilateral Switch (SUS) Anode Gate Cathode(k) A G k	Silicon Controlled Rectifier (SCR) Anode Gate Cathode Solar Cell + λ +
Surface Mount c SOT-23 b e b c e b c e k k k A no connection & LED	Switch - spst Switch - spdt Switch - dpst Switch - dpdt Switch - mercury tilt switch Spark Gap	Switch - process activated normally open: normally closed: Flow Level Pressure Temperature Speaker 8R
Switch - push (Push Button)	Switch - push off (used in alarms etc)	Switch - Rotary
Test Point Thermal Probe **NTC:** as temp rises, resistance decreases t° = ? **NTC**	Thyristors: Main Terminal1 Bilateral Switch Anode Gate Cathode MT2 Anode Gate Cathode **DIAC** **SCR** **TRIAC** **TRIAC**	Thermocouple Tilt switch mercury Touch Sensor
Transformer Air Core	Transformer Iron Core	Transformer (Tapped Primary/Sec)

Transistor Bipolar - NPN collector / base / emitter	Transistor Bipolar - PNP emitter / base / collector	Transistor n-channel Field Effect Gate / Drain / Source
Transistor p-channel Field Effect Gate / Drain / Source	Transistor Metal Oxide Single Gate	Transistor Metal Oxide Dual Gate
Transistor Photosensitive	Transistor Schottky - NPN collector / base / emitter	Transistor Unijunction - UJT Emitter / Base 1 / Base 2 Unijunction Transistor (UJT) N-type
TRIAC Main Terminal1 / MT2 Anode / Gate / Cathode	Transistor Unijunction - UJT Emitter / Base 1 / Base 2 Unijunction Transistor (UJT) P-type	Tunnel Diode Unijunction Transistor - UJT Emitter / Base 2 / Base 1
Varactor varactor diode	Voltage Regulator (7805 etc)  in / 7805 / out / common	Voltmeter V
Wattmeter W / P	Wires	Wires Connected
Wires Not Connected	XOR Gate (exclusive OR)	XOR Gate (exclusive OR) =1
Zener Diode k / k	Learn **BASIC ELECTRONICS** Go to: http://www.talkingelectronics.com	