

**GAUTENG DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION /  
SENIOR CERTIFICATE EXAMINATION /**

**TECHNIKA (ELECTRONICS) SG /**

**Possible Answers / Moontlike Antwoorde  
Feb / Mar / Maart 2006**

**QUESTION 1**

$$1.1 \quad 1.1.1 \quad X_L = 2 \pi f L = 400 \Omega$$

$$X_C = \frac{1}{2 \pi f C} = 200 \Omega$$

$$R_1 = 250 \Omega \quad (4)$$

$$1.1.2 \quad I_R = \frac{V_T}{R_L} = \frac{25}{250} = 0,1 \text{ amp}$$

$$I_L = \frac{V_T}{X_L} = \frac{25}{400} = 0,0625 \text{ amp}$$

$$I_C = \frac{V_T}{X_C} = \frac{25}{200} = 0,125 \text{ amp} \quad (6)$$

$$\begin{aligned} 1.1.3 \quad I_T &= \sqrt{(I_R)^2 + [I_C - I_L]^2} \\ &= \sqrt{(0,1)^2 + [0,125 - 0,0625]^2} \\ &= 0,118 \text{ amp} \quad (3) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 1.1.4 \quad Z &= \frac{V_T}{I_T} \\ &= \frac{25}{0,118} \\ &= 211,9 \Omega \quad (3) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 1.2 \quad 1.2.1 \quad Q &= \frac{f_r}{B_w} \\
 Q &= \frac{95 \text{ MHz}}{200 \text{ kHz}} \\
 Q &= 475 \qquad \qquad \qquad (3)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 1.2.2 \quad X_c &= \frac{1}{2 \pi f c} \\
 &= \frac{1}{2 \times \pi \times 95 \text{ MHz} \times 2,5 \text{ pF}} \\
 &= 670,12 \text{ } \Omega \\
 X_L &= 2 \pi f L \\
 L &= \frac{X_L}{2 \pi f} \\
 &= 1,1 \text{ } \mu\text{H} \qquad \qquad \qquad (5)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 1.2.3 \quad Q &= \frac{X_L}{R} \\
 R &= \frac{X_L}{Q} \\
 &= 1,41 \text{ } \Omega \qquad \qquad \qquad (3)
 \end{aligned}$$

## QUESTION 2

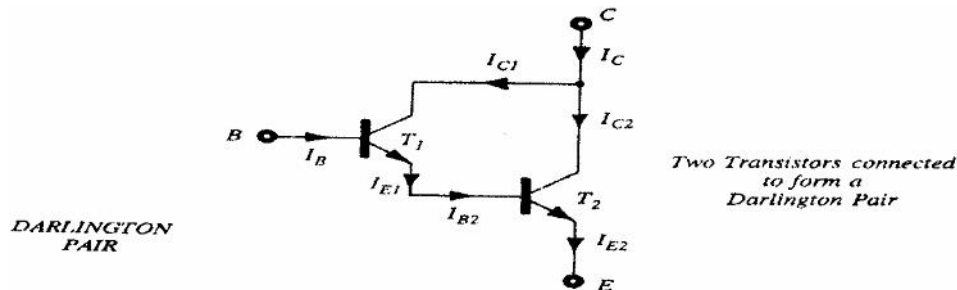
(2)

2.1 THE DARLINGTON PAIR (or the *SUPER TRANSISTOR*)

Manufacturers have not yet been able to produce a single transistor with a gain above roughly 1000 while the norm for transistors is only a few hundred. The technique of combining two transistors to form a “super transistor” which produces a “super gain” is called the Darlington Pair. This pair can either consist of two separate (discrete) transistors, or they may be combined into one single integrated circuit (IC) chip

## THE DARLINGTON PAIR CIRCUIT

The combination consists of two transistors  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  each sharing a common collector terminal. The emitter of  $T_1$  feeds directly onto the base terminal of  $T_2$ . The emitter of  $T_2$  is the emitter terminal of the pair and the base of  $T_1$  is the base lead



The key to this circuit's operation lies in the emitter current of  $T_1$  forming the base current of  $T_2$ . This causes the current gain of the circuit to be the product of the two individual transistor gains

An analysis of this circuit provides an important exercise in manipulating transistor current relationships. A dc analysis begins by applying Kitchhoff's current law to the collector terminal:

$$I_C = I_{C_1} + I_{C_2} \quad (1)$$

The two equations governing all transistors are also used,

$$I_E = (\beta + 1)I_B$$

and  $I_C = \beta I_B$

This information is applied to the circuit,

$$I_{C_1} = \beta_1 I_{B_1} \quad (2)$$

$$I_{C_2} = \beta_2 I_{B_2}$$

but  $I_{B_2} = I_{E_1}$

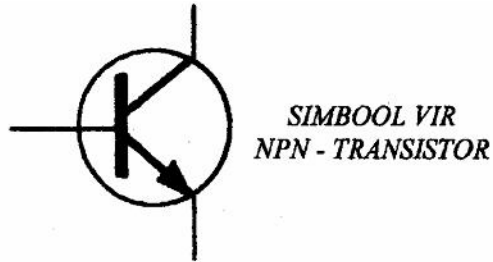
and  $I_{E_1} = (\beta + 1)I_B$

$$I_{C_2} = \beta_2(\beta + 1)I_B \quad (3)$$

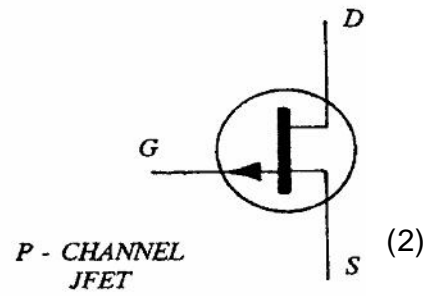
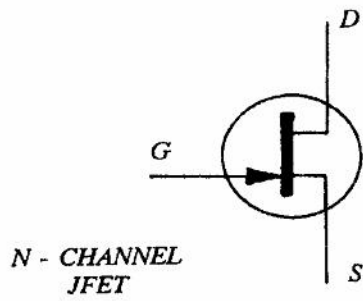
(12)

2.2 Open Question read every answer (10)

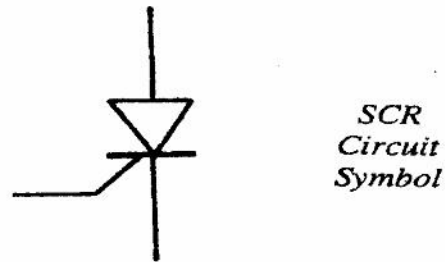
2.3



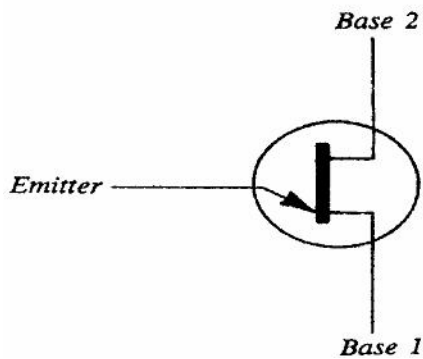
(2)



(2)



(2)



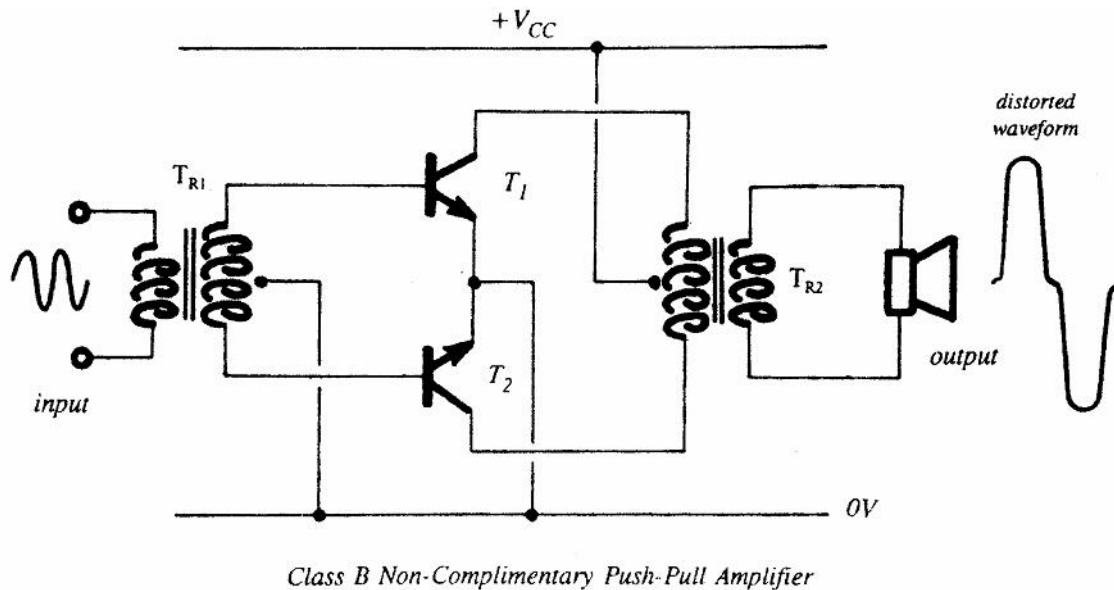
UJT  
Circuit Symbol

(2)

## QUESTION 3

## 3.1 Balanced

Split-phase transformer  $T_{R1}$  divides the input waveform into two identically equal but anti-phase signals. As the input waveform rises the transformer forward biases one transistor  $T_1$  while at the same time reverse biasing  $T_2$ . This effect is reversed during the other half cycle. The second transformer  $T_{R2}$  provides impedance matching and coupling between the circuit and the load, usually a speaker.



## OPERATION:

With no input signal present both transistors are off and no current flows through transformer  $T_{R2}$ . When a signal is introduced it is first transformed and “split” into two identical halves by  $T_{R1}$ , each half driving one transistor. A rising input signal will forward bias the emitter-base junction of transistor  $T_1$ , turning it on while at the same time reverse biasing the emitter-base junction of  $T_2$  turning it off (this is because their emitters are commoned to the low 0 V rail). During the second half cycle the signal reverses turning  $T_1$  off and  $T_2$  on.

As the transistors conduct alternately for each half cycle, current will flow through  $T_{R2}$  first in one direction through one half and then in the other direction through the other half. This appears as a single, alternating signal to the transformer which it transforms and presents to the load as a continuous amplified output waveform.

The advantage of this circuit is that it produces a much larger output signal than a single Class A biased transistor amplifier and, as it uses Class B biasing, efficiencies of between 70% and 75% can be reached.

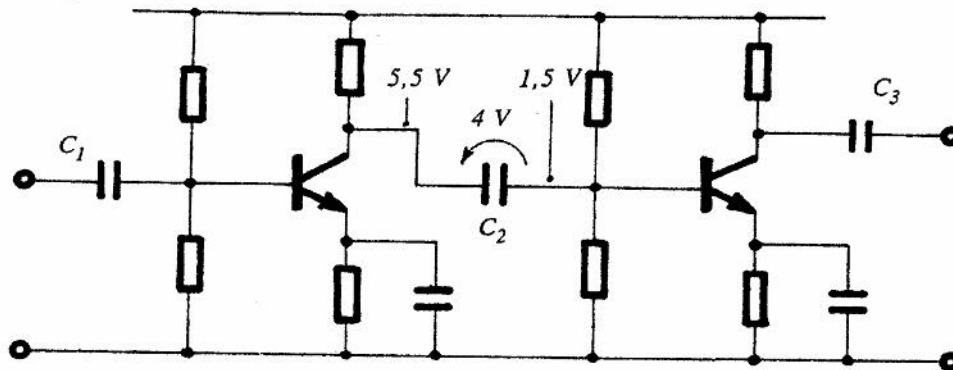
The disadvantages of this circuit are:

1. it introduces a distortion called cross-over distortion into a sound signal.
2. it requires the use of two transformers which are both bulky and expensive.

## Resistor-Capacitor amplifier

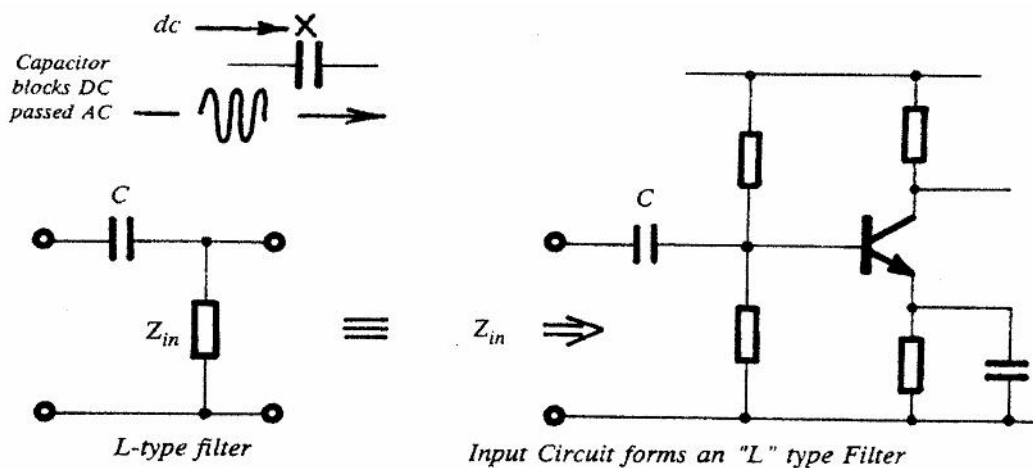
This is the most common and widely used method of coupling between stages. It uses a capacitor coupled from the output of the first stage to the input of the next, shown below as capacitor  $C_2$ . Capacitors  $C_1$  and  $C_3$  also act as coupling capacitors between the signal source and output load.

Two RC Coupled Stages



Unequal Voltage points separated by a Capacitor

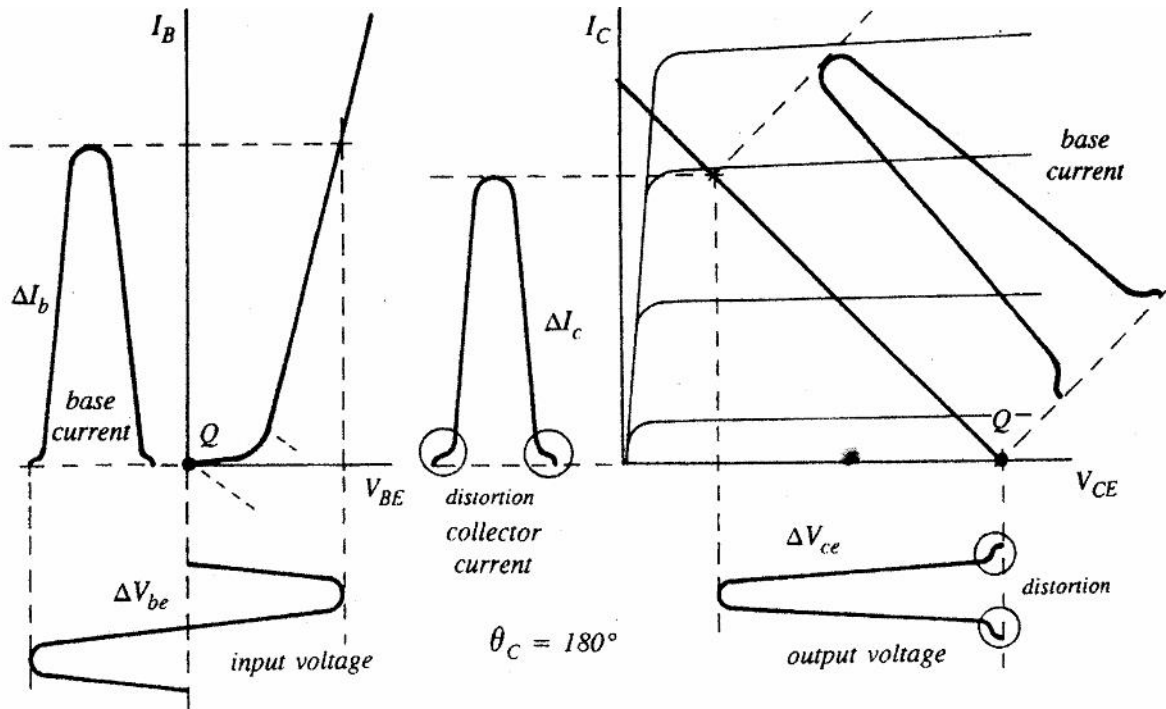
The coupling capacitor allows each stage to operate completely free of the next as it blocks any dc interference between stages. Each of the capacitor's plates sits at different voltages, in the example below that connected to the collector terminal sits at about 5,5 V while the other connected to the next transistors base sits at about 1,5 V. Therefore the capacitor stores a charge of 4 V between its plates, absorbing the difference in voltage between the stages. When an ac signal is introduced for amplification, the coupling capacitor behaves like a low impedance path, allowing the ac signal to pass with no obstruction at all.



The coupling capacitor, together with the input impedance  $Z_{in}$  of the following stage forms an "L" type filter which has a marked negative loading effect on the stage's frequency range especially the lower frequency range extending down to dc. To overcome this, coupling capacitors are purposely selected to be as large as possible for the range of frequencies required to be handled, with values of 10  $\mu\text{F}$  at audio frequencies and 1 nF at video frequencies quite common. These values are still comparatively quite small.

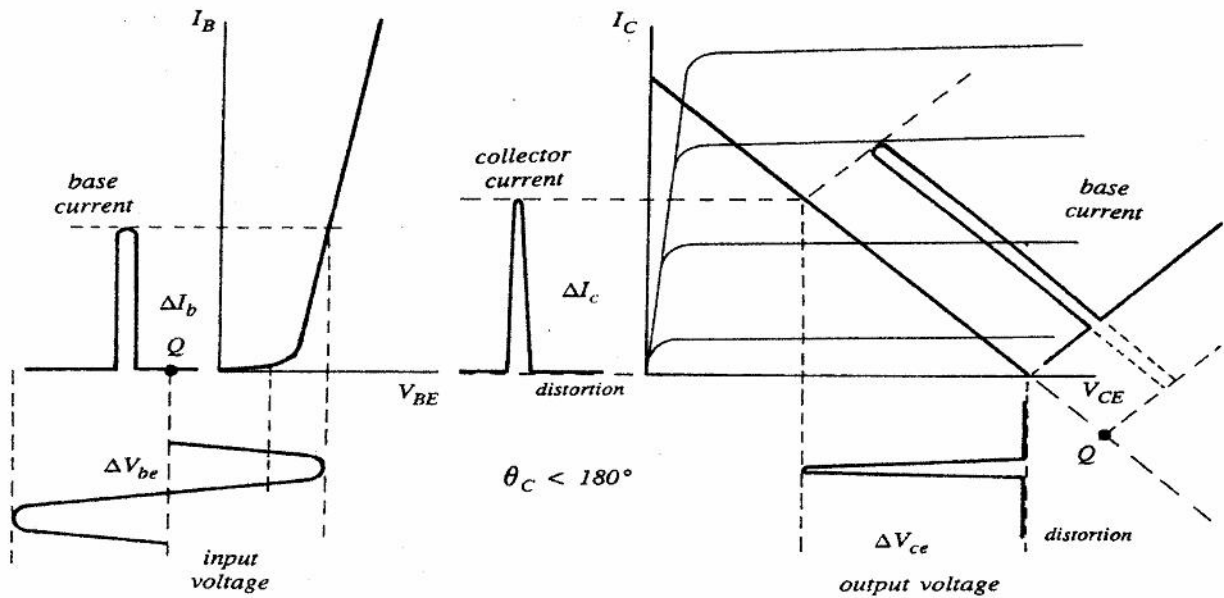
(20)

3.2 Class B



A Pure Class B Biased Transistor

Class C



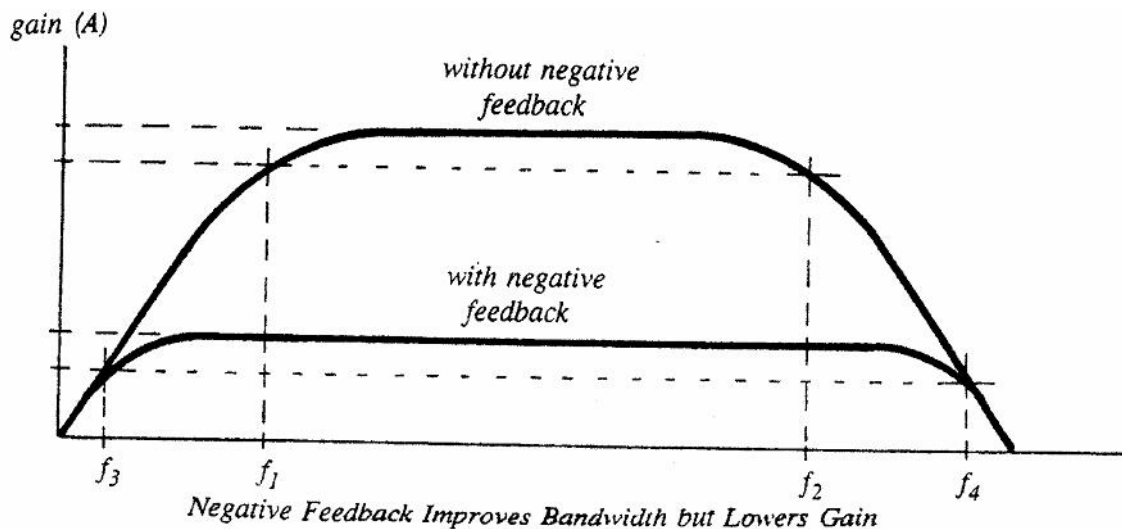
A Class C biased Transistor

(10)

### 3.3. Band width

The frequency response of an amplifier is greatly improved when a negative feedback circuit is used. The frequency response plot of a typical amplifier circuit is shown below with its upper and lower response frequencies being  $f_1$  and  $f_2$ . The example shows typical figures of 80 Hz and 100 kHz for  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  with the circuit's bandwidth lying between these two points.

As explained above, with negative feedback the circuit's gain falls, this is shown in the frequency response plot with the gain falling to a lower level. Although there is a loss of gain the advantage is that as the circuit becomes more stable its response remains constant over a wider frequency band only falling off when reaching frequencies  $f_3$  and  $f_4$  shown as 10 Hz and 250 kHz respectively. The new wider bandwidth now lies between these two wider frequencies  $f_3$  and  $f_4$ . Any loss of gain can be overcome by adding another stage of amplification.



## QUESTION 4

### 4.1.1 Shunt voltage regulator

#### **OPERATION:**

Any change in load will affect the current supply, in turn affecting the output voltage. An increasing load demands a larger current from the regulator causing the output voltage to fall which directly affects the transistor which has a fixed voltage on its base terminal (the zener voltage  $V_z$ ). As  $V_0$  falls the transistor experiences a rising emitter-base voltage  $V_{BE}$ , which increases conduction. This higher current through a heavier load causes the terminal voltage to rise to its original value and the cycle of events cancels the original change of conditions and stabilises the output voltage.



The operation also works in reverse, with a decreasing load causing a fall of current and the terminal voltage to rise. The transistor's emitter-base voltage  $V_{BE}$  then falls shutting it down and supplying less current with the overall result again to stabilise the output terminal voltage.

During steady state operation the zener circuit of  $R_S$  and  $V_Z$  simply maintains a fixed base voltage, which keeps a constant base current  $I_B$  to the transistor. For the zener to provide the desired fixed voltage reference its operating point must always be kept in its reverse breakdown "constant voltage" region by series resistor  $R_S$ .

The transistor needs to be of a high power type as it carries the full load current through itself. During operation the volt drop across the BJT is the difference between the supply voltage and the desired output terminal voltage ( $V_S - V_O$ ). The combination of high load current  $I_L$  together with this volt drop results in a large level of power dissipated in the transistor;

$$P_{diss} = I_L (V_S - V_O)$$

The transistor is usually protected against overheating by being mounted to a heat sink which is to be found at the back of all regulated power supplies. The disadvantage of this circuit is that its terminal voltage is fixed at one value and not variable being set by the zener reference voltage and  $V_{BE}$  as determined by the equation for  $V_O$ .

(6)

#### 4.1.2. The differentiating circuit

Assuming that the capacitor possesses no initial charge then on receiving a square wave at its input the circuit operates as follows:

1. as a capacitor can not charge instantly, at the point when its left hand plate rises instantly to +V its right hand plate must also rise to +V at that instant (any difference between the left and right plates would mean that the capacitor had gained a charge).
2. as the input holds steady at +V the capacitor begins to charge through the series resistor R with the rate at which it charges determined by the circuit's RC time constant.
3. as the capacitor charges its right hand plate falls in potential because the left hand plate is held at +V.
4. the right hand plate continues falling until after SRC ( $5t$ ), it reaches 0 V. At this point the capacitor has fully charged.
5. at the end of the period the square wave input falls to zero and the entire operation reverses. As the left hand plate is pulled down to 0 V the right hand plate instantly falls to -V because the capacitor was charged to +V and it can not discharge instantly.
6. as the capacitor begins discharging through R the right hand plate slowly rises until reaching 0 V when fully discharged.

(6)

#### 4.1.3. The Integrating circuit

The operation of this circuit relies simply on the charging rate of an RC circuit. As the output is connected directly across the capacitor its shape will be an exact representation of how the capacitor charges.

1. When the input is large and of a long duration (a good example is of a square wave) the capacitor has time to charge fully and the output will easily show this.
2. An input of short, sharp duration will hardly give the capacitor time to begin charging before dying away resulting in a small output of almost no significance.
3. A number of pulses following in rapid succession will each charge the capacitor up slightly with the combined effect of "pumping" it up. The output will show this as a series of small rises combined to increase the output which will rapidly fall away soon after the last pulse occurs.

If a square wave is applied to the input the shape of the output will again be determined by the duration of the RC time constant.

A short RC time constant will produce a waveform resembling a square wave with very rounded leading and trailing edges. This is because the capacitor charges rapidly, quickly reaching the maximum input voltage before remaining there until the input falls. A longer time constant will produce a triangular output as the capacitor slowly charges and before fully charging the input falls, reversing the capacitor's direction of charge. (6)

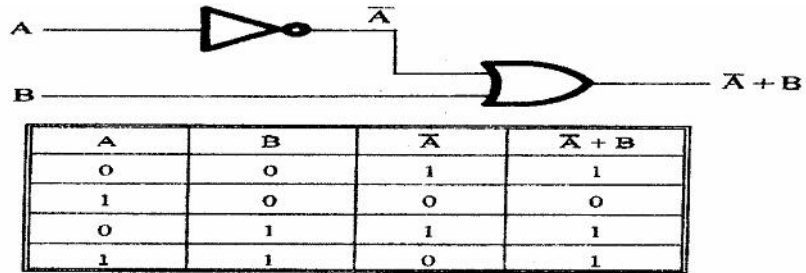
#### 4.1.4. Thyristor Control of DC motor

A dc motor's speed can be controlled by changing anyone of these terms, some with more success than others. The three being;

1. As  $R_a$  is in series with the armature, changing its value leads to large changes of current and sizable losses of power which means that this is not a good or efficient manner of speed control.
2. Changing the field flux  $\phi$  has an inversely proportional effect on the motor's speed where a falling flux will increase the speed and a rising flux will decrease the speed. The advantage here would be that as the field coil circuit requires little current it is easy to control with a low-power circuit. But, although it is possible to reduce the flux surrounding a coil by controlling the current, it is not very easy or practical to increase the flux. So varying the flux is not the usual manner of motor speed control.
3. Varying the applied armature voltage  $V$  is the most common and widely used speed control method because it has the most direct affect on the motor over a wide range of speeds. It is also easily achieved by adding a thyristor in series with the armature and supplying the gate driving pulses from a separate controlling circuit. (6)

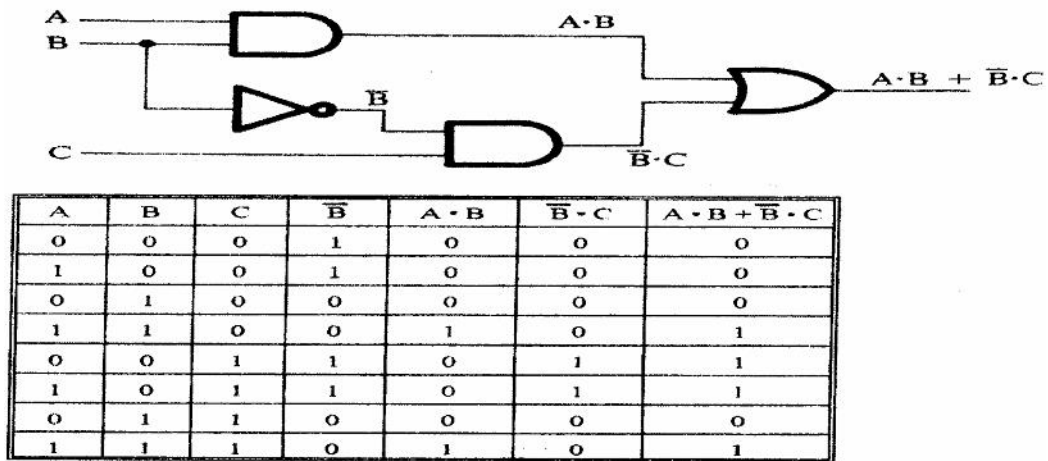
QUESTION 5

5.1.1



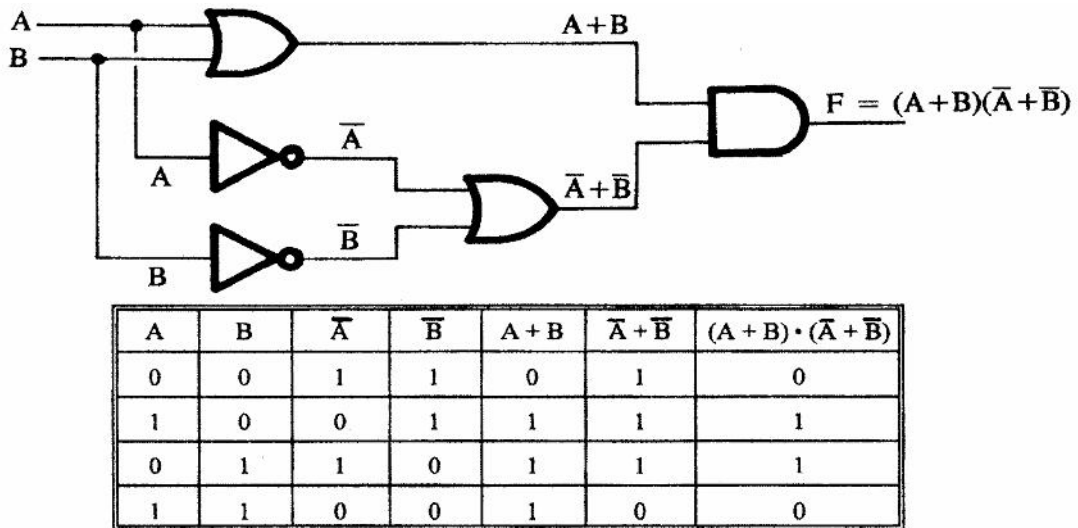
(7)

5.1.2



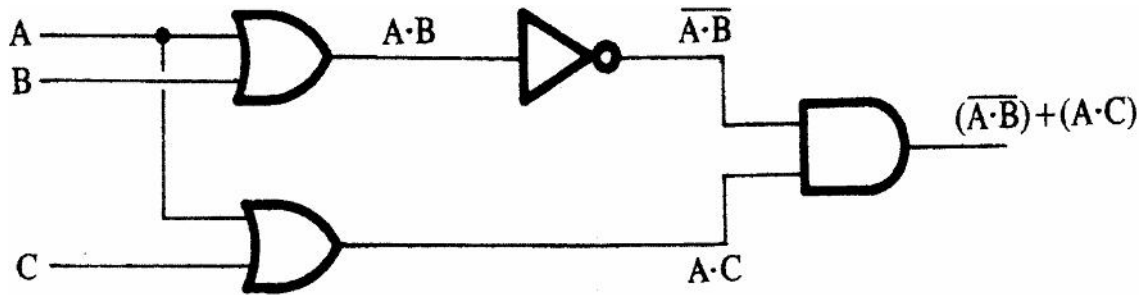
(13)

5.1.3



(13)

5.1.4

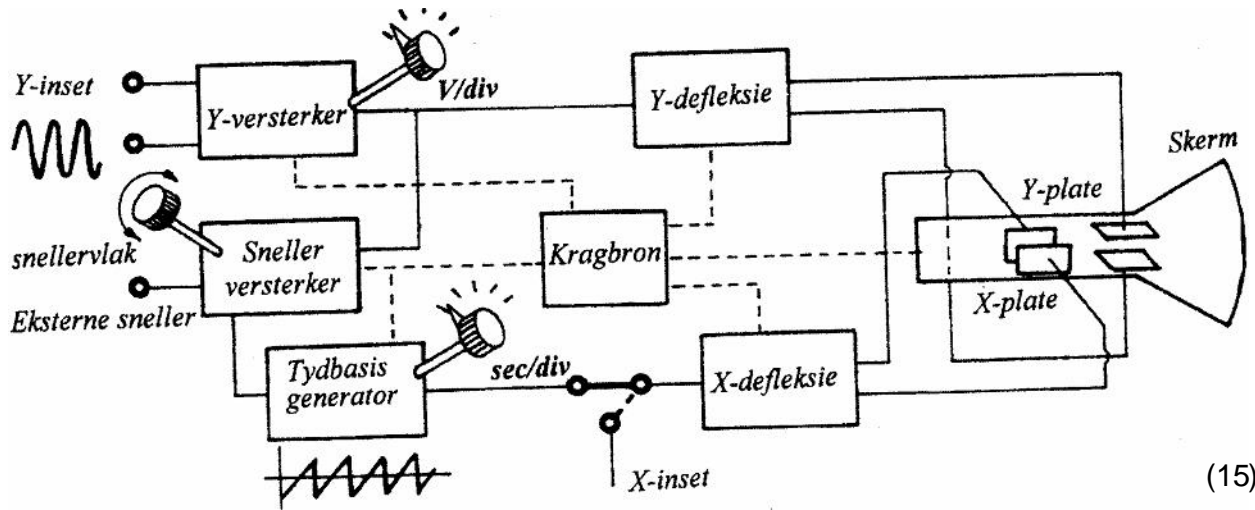


A	B	C	$A \cdot B$	$\overline{A \cdot B}$	$B \cdot C$	$(\overline{A \cdot B}) + (A \cdot C)$
0	0	0	0	1	0	1
1	0	0	0	1	0	1
0	1	0	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	1	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	1	0	1
1	0	1	0	1	1	1
0	1	1	0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1	0	1	1

(10)

QUESTION 6

6.1 Oscilloscope

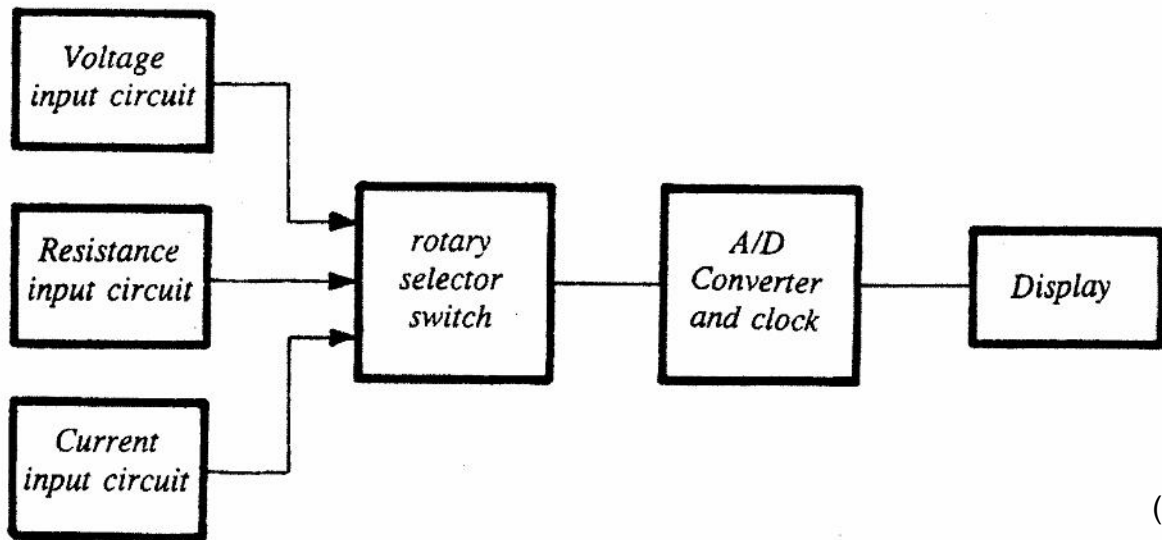


(15)

6.2 To measure current  
 To measure voltage  
 To measure resistance  
**Any acceptable answer.**

(3)

6.3



(6)

**QUESTION 7**

- 7.1 An unsafe act is something a person does wrong. An unsafe condition is something , that is wrong in the building. (3)
- 7.2 \* Working without permission.  
 \* Working at unsafe speeds.  
 \* The placing of objects in dangerous places.  
 \* Working with the wrong tools.  
 \* Do not wear loose clothing.  
 \* Don't play in the workshop. (Any Four) (4)
- 7.3 Unsuitable ventilation  
 Unsuitable light  
 Unsuitable store places  
 No fire equipment  
 Material lying in passages  
 Any acceptable answer. (Any Four) (4)
- 7.4 To prevent blood from leaking everywhere.  
 So that the bleeding can stop.  
 To regain blood pressure.  
 Any acceptable answer. (5)
- 7.5 Make sure the scale that you use is correct.  
 Do not drop the meter.  
 Make sure the meter is connected in series for current measurement.  
 Make sure the meter is connected in parallel for voltage measurement.  
 Any acceptable answer (Any Two) (2)
- TOTAL: 200**