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$$\mathbf{R}_i = -\frac{\Delta \mathbf{E_0}}{\Delta i} = \frac{\mu + \mathbf{R_r}}{\mu nk + \mathbf{I}} \dots (6)$$
 This shows that, as a rule, the

power supply resistance has not much effect on the performance of a regulator, as far as its regulating properties go. It is, however, of great importance when a wide range of voltage control is desired, because the extra variations of Ei caused by the power supply resistance with varying load, all have to be dissipated in V₃. Unless the current is low, this is a serious limiting factor in wide range designs.

APPENDIX

In Fig. 2, with voltage control as shown in (b), let V_3 have mutual conductance S and amplification factor μ . Let the overall amplification of V_4 circuit be ntimes, i.e.

$$\left|\frac{\mathbf{V}_g}{\mathbf{E}_g}\right| = n$$

Then the stabilisation ratio of the regulator is defined as:

$$a = \frac{\triangle \mathbf{E_0}}{\triangle \mathbf{E_i}}$$

 $a = \frac{\triangle \mathbf{E_0}}{\triangle \mathbf{E_i}}$ and the internal resistance as:

$$R_i = -\frac{\triangle E_o}{\triangle i}$$

 $R_i = -\frac{1}{\triangle i}$ where the \triangle 's represent corresponding small changes in the variables.

From elementary valve circuit theory we can see that

$$\Delta i = S \Delta V_g + \frac{S}{\mu} (\Delta E_i - \Delta E_o)$$

Now let k be the reduction factor

Now let
$$k$$
 be the reduction factor of the potentiometer formed by $R_{\bf 5}$ and $R_{\bf 6}$

Then $k=\frac{R_{\bf 5}}{R_{\bf 5}+R_{\bf 6}}$ and $\triangle V_{\bf g}=-nk\,\triangle E_{\bf 0}$ whence

$$\triangle i = \frac{\triangle \mathbf{E_0}}{\mathbf{R}} \dots \dots (3)$$

Similarly, if the effective resistance of the power supply is R_r , we can see that

 $\Delta E_i = -R_r \Delta i \dots (5)$ and from (5) and (2) we can then

Voltage Compensation

In Fig. 5, let R₁₀ be zero. As the resistance seen across the terminals of the regulator is very low, when we calculate the ratio DC, R₅ and R₆ are effectively in parallel. Calling this factor q we get :-

$$q = \frac{\frac{R_{5} R_{6}}{R_{5} + R_{6}}}{R_{8} + \frac{R_{5} R_{6}}{R_{5} + R_{6}}} = \frac{kR_{6}}{R_{8} + kR_{6}}$$

We can write the stabilisation ratio thus:

$$a = \frac{\triangle E_g}{k \triangle E_i} \qquad \dots \qquad \dots (8)$$

Now if compensation is to be perfect, E_0 is zero. There must therefore be a voltage change at point A equal and opposite to that implied by (8). If we obtain this change via R_8 from the changes in E_i , this voltage is obviously $q \triangle E_i$. Equating we get

Equating we get
$$q = \frac{k}{\frac{\mu}{SR} + \mu nk + 1} \dots (9)$$

from which we can at once evaluate R₈. Remembering that

evaluate
$$R_8$$
. Remembering that
$$q = \frac{kR_6}{R_8 + kR_6},$$

$$R_8 = R_6 \left(\frac{\mu}{SR} + \mu nk + 1 - k\right)$$

Current Compensation

If Fig. 5 assume that R₈ is sufficiently high that it may be ignored when connected in parallel with R5 and R6. Let the potentio-

meter factor $\frac{AC}{FC}$ be t. Then

$$t = \frac{R_6}{R_5 + R_6}$$

$$t = rac{\mathrm{R_6}}{\mathrm{R_5 + R_6}}$$
As with (8) we may write
 $R_i = -rac{\Delta \mathrm{E_g}}{k \Delta i} \ldots \ldots$ (10)

The grid voltage change implied by

this must be correspondingly balanced at point A. Now $\triangle E_q = q \triangle E_i - tR_{10} \triangle i$ (11)

Whence from (5) $\triangle \mathbf{E}_g = -(q\mathbf{R}_r + t\mathbf{R}_{10}) \triangle i \quad \text{(12)}$ Therefore $\mathbf{R}_{10} = \frac{k\mathbf{R}_i - q\mathbf{R}_r}{t} \dots \text{(13)}$

$$R_{10} = \frac{k}{t} \left(\frac{\frac{\mu}{S} + R_r}{\frac{\mu}{\mu n k + 1}} \right) - \frac{q R_r}{t} \dots (14)$$

If voltage compensation is not used at the same time, then R₈ is infinitely large, and

$$R_{10} = \frac{kR_i}{t} = \frac{k}{t} \left(\frac{\frac{\mu}{S} + R_r}{\frac{\mu}{\mu nk + 1}} \right)$$

values are calculated for one set of controlling values only. Therefore any circuit or voltage output changes would require different values. The residual stabilisation ratio and internal resistance may be given thus:

$$a_{(c)} = \frac{1}{\frac{\mu}{SR} + \mu nk + 1} - \frac{q}{k} ...(15)$$

These resultants may obviously be positive or negative, corresponding to under- or over-compensation.

The method of computing the above results is based on that given by Lindenhovius and Rinia in the article mentioned in the last issue. The method is open to criticism when thus extended, on several grounds, and calculated compensation values should always be used as a guide only. The results are quite good approximations, and are much more convenient in practice than some others which have been published.