

OCTOBER 1974



Over 400 transistors are listed in this booklet. An attempt has been made to include most of the types that are readily available through the usual retail channels. While this list is obviously not exhaustive, it should satisfy the majority of normal amateur requirements.

All possible care has been taken in the preparation of this booklet and no responsibility can be accepted for any errors or omissions that may have occurred inadvertently.

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Presented free with the October 1974 issue of PRACTICAL ELECTRONICS

TRANSISTOR

GUIDE...





Plus these Simple Projects...



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AND the PE CCTV CAMERA — PART TWO



ELECTRONICS

VOLUME 10 No. 10 OCTOBER 1974

CONSTRUCTIONAL PROJECTS

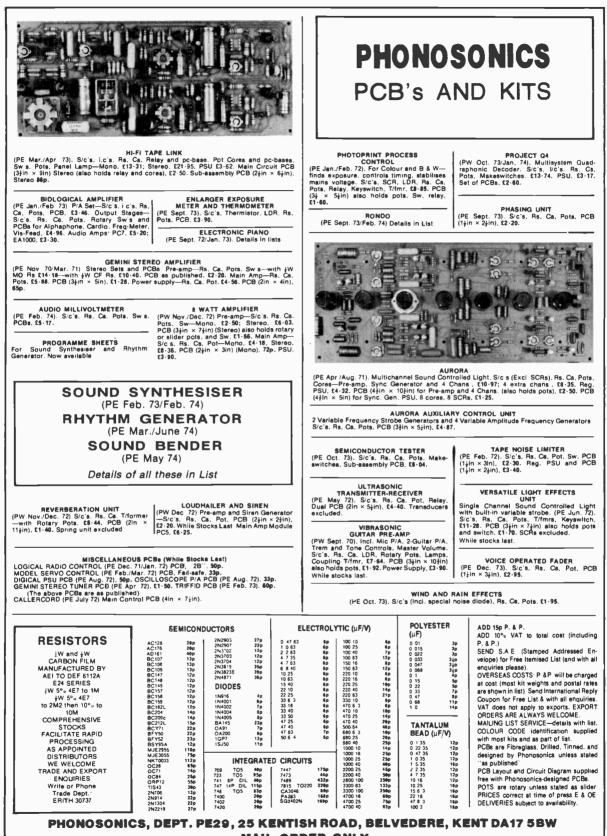
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FREE INSIDE THIS ISSUE: 24-page booklet P.E. TRANSISTOR GUIDE '74

Our November issue will be published Mid-October. This issue will be in big demand and readers are advised to place an order with their newsagent—NOW !

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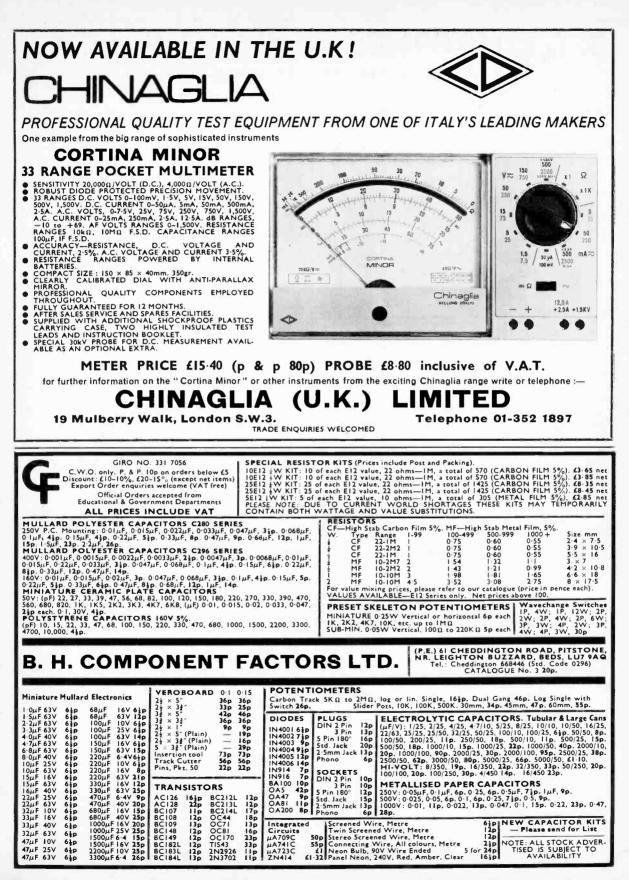
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AC107	38p BCY30 40p MJ340 55p OC36	65p TIP41C 95p 2N2846 £1-50	CRS1/05 40p TRIACS CRS1/10 56p TXL228B 8A 400V 95p	240V. SEC. 12V. 100MA Manuf , Hinchley					
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AC126	200 BCY34 800 MJE340 500 OC70 270 BCY38 850 MJE370 750 OC71	15p ZTX300 15p 2N2907 25p 17p ZTX500 16p 2N2926 13p	CRS1/60	3 CORE PVC INSULATED MAINS CABLE, GREY ML6650 3×7/0 2mm. Price 100- E4-86, 1000m-E35, 10,000m-E330.					
ACY17	25p BCY39 E1 00 MJE371 90p OC72	200 ZTX501 200 21/2052 95-	CRS3/20 12p SC50D 12·42	E4-88. 1000m-E35. 10,000m-E338.					
ACY18 ACY19	300 BCY55 £1-60 MJE520 650 OC75 300 BCY70 220 MJE2055 £1-85 OC76	25p ZTX504 50p 2N3054 65p 25p ZTX531 30p 2N3055 50p	CRS3/40 90p SC50E £2-70 CRS7/400 £1-00 DIAC 25p	Size 1in × 0-35in × 0-65in P.C. Mount 1					
ACY20 ACY39	260 BCV71 220 MJE3055 850 OC77	40p ZTX550 25p 2N3232 78p	CRS16/100 850	Price 100-4p es. 1000-3p es. 200V. A.C. SOLENGID, Reversible opere-					
ACY21	55p BCY72 25p MM1613 43p OC81 30p BD121 75p MM1712 60p OC83	25p IN659 8p 2N3525 85p 25p IN914 8p 2N3702 14p	CRS16/200 90p LINEAR I.C.e	tion, twin coll Size approx 23 + 13 + 13in					
AD140 AD149	60p 8D123 . 75p MPF102 45p OC64	25p IN916 Bp 2N3703 12p	CRS16/600 £1-60 LM309K 5V, 1A, Volt- C106B 45p age Reg £2-10	30 unmarked OC71 transistors E1-99					
AD161	400 80131 750 (2N5457) 350 OC14	9 30p IN4001 9p 2N3704 12p 30p IN4002 9p 2N3705 12p	CT06D 70p LM723C 2-37V, 150MA	25 UNMARKED 250MW Zenedode. 4 /V. 5 1V 6 2V 7 5 9 1V 10V Measured and					
AD182 AF114	40 BD132 75p MPF104 OC17	0 25p IN4003 9p 2N3706 12p	40669	tested E1-00					
AF115	250 BD156 750 MPE105 0C20	1 39p IN4004 10p 2N3707 12p 0 59p IN4005 12p 2N3708 12p	TIC44	50 GE Diode OA47 equivalent E1-99					
AF116 AF117	25p BDY11 £1-40 (2N5459) 40p OC20	1 69p IN4006 15p 2N3709 12p	BT10/5004 90 s 709C Op Amp D.IL./	TRANSFORMER: DOUGLAS PRI. 0. 115 200, 220, 240 SEC 25-0-25-0-6V 21A E4-56					
AF116	400 BDY19 51-85 MPSA16 300 TIP29	2 75p IN4007 18p 2N3771 £2-70 A 49p IN4148 7p 2N3772 £2-75	SRIDGE RECTIFIERS 741C Op Amp 8/14	+ 50p.p					
AF172 ASY28	30p 8F152 28p MPSA56 38p TiP30 30p 8F194 14p MPSU06 75p TiP31	A 58p 2N696 25p 2N3773 E2-95	WO2 1A 200V 38p D.I.L./TO99 55p	TRANSFORMER PRI 0 115, 160, 205, 225, 245, SEC 35-0-35					
ASZ21	60p 8F195 150 MPSU56 70p TIP32	A 74p 2N698 25p 2N3820 54p	BY164 1 4A 200V 57p 748C Op Amp DIL. 75p MDA952/2 747C Qual On Amp 51.20	1 2A E4-50 - 50p. p.p.					
BA102 BA112	33p BFX29 30p NKT135 35p TIP33	A £1-05 2N706 12p 2N3866 85p	MDA952/2 747 C Dual Op Amo £1 20 6A 100V 80p ZN414 Radio I C £1 25	MULLARD TUBULAR CERAMIC UHF TRIMMERS (PROFESSIONAL)					
BA114	18p BFX85 30p NKT401 85p TIP35	A £3-35 2N708 15p 2N3905 25p	TAD100 Radio I C	Type 092 0 8-2 2p					
BA156 BC107	15p 8FX86 30p NKT404 80p TIP36 12p 8FX88 30p NKT773 30p TIP41	A £2-85 2N930 20p 2N4056 12p	BZY88 Series 400mW inc. Filter £1-98	991 05-13p					
BC108	12p 8FY10 35p NKT774 25p TIP42	A 90p 2N1302 18p 2N4060 12p	3 3V-33V, 5% 11p CA3014 £1-55 1 5W range 25p CA3018 £1-60	QUANTITY DISCOUNTS PLEASE TELE-					
BC109 BC147	12p 8FY44 50p OA5 20p TiP29 12p 8FY50 25p OA10 20p TiP30		10W range 45p CA3026 £1-20	1000pF Feedthrough cepacitor 5p es. Miniature tubular P C trimmers					
BC148 BC149	12p 8FY51 25p OA47 10p TIP31	B 70p 2N1305 25p 2N4286 15p	L.E.D. CA3036 £1-99	Ministure tubular P C trimmers 3 5-13pF					
BC149	12p BFY52 25p OA70 12p TIP32 15p BFY53 25p OA79 12p TIP33		TIL209 28p CA3048 E2-35	6-30oF 19p ee.					
BC157 BC156	14p BFY90 66p OA81 10p TIP34	B £1-88 2N1308 25p 2N4289 15p	HP5082 28p CA3075 £1-60 MA2082R 25p CA3090Q £4-85	4p c/o Varley 7000 relay 50p se. TOS VOLTAGE REGULATORS					
BC159	15p RSW68 80p 0A91 10p TIP36	B £2-81 2N1309 25p 2N4290 15p B £3-84 2N1613 25p 2N4444 £1.90	L.D.R. MC1303L	L005 5V 650mA L036 12V 500mA					
BC169C BC182	14p BSY95A 12p OA200 10p TIP41	8 83p 2N1711 25p 2N4871 35p	OPD12 68m SN760236W Audio I C.	L036 12V 500mA L037 15V 450mA £1-60 es.					
BC183	14P C426 46p 0A210 35p TIP29	C 710 2N2160 #50 04/01/01 44-	NE555 Timer 90p with circuit . £1-75	VEROBOARD					
BC184 BC212	14p BY100 15p OA211 36p TIP30 14p BY126 26p OC16 90p TIP31	C 78p 2N2217 25p 2N5194 £1-10	METAL BOXES						
BC213	14P 8Y127 26p OC19 85p TIP32	C £1-05 2N2219 250 40361 500	ALUMINIUM BOXES IDEAL FOR VEROBOARD WITH BASE AND P.K. SCREWS	24 × 5 35p 35p 35p 35p 35p 35p 35p 35p 35p 3					
BC214 BC238	14p BY164 85p OC22 55p TIP33 12p IS100 15p OC26 85p TIP34	C £1-30 2N2222 200 40362 55m	AB7 21 Long 51 Wide 1, High 60p AB8 4 4 11 50p	3 i × 5 40 p 41 p					
BC239	12p IS103 20p OC28 85p TIP35	C £3 26 2N2398 76p	AB9 4" 23 13 50p	17 × 34 E1 43 E1-12					
	OC30 60p TIP36	C £4-10 (* 2N2646 50p)	AB11 4 2 2 60p	17 + 5 E1-84 PIN INS TOOL 72p 72p					
DIGI	TAL INTEGRAL CIRCUITS		AB12 3 2 1 44p AB13 6 4 2 70p	SP F CUTTER 52p 52p 100 PINS SS 30p 30p					
SN7400	20p SN7428 50p SN7473 4	SN74107 50p SN74166 £4-00 P SN74110 50p SN74167 £5-25	AB14 7 5 23 84p AB15 8 6 3 81.00	100 PINS OS 30p 30p					
SN7401 SN7402	20p SN7430 20p SN7474 4	P SN74118 £1.00 SN74170 €4-10	AB16 10 7 3 E1-22 AB17 10 41 3 E1-00	500 PINS DS £1-20 £1-20					
SN7402 SN7403		P SN74119 £1-80 SN74174 £2-00 P SN74121 85p SN74175 £1-35	AB18 12 5 3 £1-29	Prices Correct June 12					
SN7404 SN7405	20p SN7437 85p SN7480 8 20p SN7438 85p SN7481 £1	P SN74122 E1-35 SN74176 E1-80	AB19 12 8 3 E1-66 ALUMINIUM BOXES WITH SLOPING TOP PANEL-IDEAL	NEW SERIES TRANSISTOR DATA BOOKS 1 DTA3 USA Band 3 Transistor Charac-					
SN7406	30p SN7440 20p SN7482 8	P SN74141 £1-00 SN74180 £1-55	FOR PRE-AMPS, ETC., USING SLIDER CONTROLS AB20 8 Long 9 Wide 31 High at back \$2.00	leristics 2N21-2N6269 all numbers 2 THT Thyristor Triac Diac Put UJT s					
SN7407 SN7408	30p SN7441AN 75p SN7483 £1 20p SN7442 75p SN7484 \$	00 SN74145 £1-50 SN74181 £7-00	2 High at front 6 Slope to front With PK Screws	3 DT15 Jananasa Transistor Charac-					
SN7409	45p SN7443 £1-00 SN7486 4	P SN74151 £1-10 SN74184 £2-45	AB21 As above but 10 long £2-20	tarietics 25A 25B 25C 25D numbers 4 DVT Diode, Comparison Tables					
SN7410 SN7411	23p SN7446 £2.00 SN7491AN £1-	50 SN74153 £1-35 SN74185A £2-40 00 SN74154 £2-00 SN74190 £1-85	AB22 As above but 12 long C2-40 V41 VU METER E2-50	5 Band 1 Transistor Characteristics European numbers AC AF BC BF etc					
SN7412 SN7413	42p SN7447 £1-75 SN7492 7	P SN74155 £1-55 SN74191 £1-95	The V41 is calibrated -20 to -3 and 0-100% maxing it suitable for use as a recording level meter or as a power	6 TVT Transistor Equivalent Tables All books contain pin connections and					
SN7416	30p SN7450 20p SN7494 8	P SN74157 E1-88 SN74193 E2-00	output indicator	semiconductor outlines PRICE £1 18 per book £8 per 6 books inc					
SN7417 SN7420	30p SN7451 20p SN7495 8 20p SN7453 20p SN7496 £1	P SN74160 £2-60 SN74194 £2-50	Sensitivity: 130 µA. Internal rasiatance: 600 ohma Dimensiona: 40 x 40 x 29mm	Phile 11 19 per book 18 per 6 books Inc					
SN7422	48p SN7454 20p SN7497 £8-	25 SN74162 £3-40 SN74196 £1-50	ALSO STOCKED	V.A.T.					
SN7423 SN7425	48p SN7460 20p SN74100 £2- 48p SN7470 30p SN74104 £1-	50 SN74163 £3-40 SN74197 £1-50	Electrolytic Capacitors Mullard, Sprague Lorlin etc. Polyester, Polyetyrene Silver Mica Capacitore etc.	Unless otherwise stated all prices ere EXCLUSIVE of VAT Please add 8%					
SN7427	42p SN7472 30p SN74105 £1-	15 SN74185 £4-00 SN74190 £4-00	Resistors 3W-10W Potentiometers, cerbon, wirewound Preset, Rectilinear multiturn Antex Soldering Irons	to all orders. Carriage orders under £5 - 20p. Over £5 post free					
-	TY DISCOUNTS-12+ 10%, 25+ 15%, 10		switches, rotary slide toggle etc. Cable veroboard						
ALIZ	NO ACCESSORY	SHOP 17 TUPN	HAM GREEN TERRACE	CHISWICK WA					
AUL									
	PRICES INC VAT		CESINC VAT	CASSETTES PRICES INC VAT					
Chang		CT5 Cone Tweeter	reg 3000-15000Hz Cross-	C60 C90 C120					
CM10	Crystel Lapel Microphone with Lead and Plug	90p sveteme up to	0Hz Imp 8 ohms Suitable for BASF LH 10 watts RMS £1-88 MEMOREX	88p E1-21 E1-78					
CM 20 CM 73	General purpose Crystal Microphone Crystal Stick Microphone with Switch	£1-20 CT10/8 Pressure Unit	Type Tweeter Freq MROX2 Oxide	99p E1-32 E1-78					
UNR/J	Crystel Strok wherophone with Switch	1500–16000Hz	Crossover freq 3000Hz CROX2	£1-47 £1-91 —					
CO92	Lead and Plug Omni Directional Capacitor Microphone	£2-20 Imp 8 ohms	Suitable for systems up to 20 PHILIPS 52.60 OTY Discounts 12-1	05p £1-19 £1-75 0% 24-15% 36-20% 60-25%					

CM73	Crystel Stick Microphone with Switch Lead and Plug	£2 · 20	
CO92	Omni Directional Capacitor Microphone with built-in Preamplifier, Cable and Wind-		
	shield	£14-00	0
CO96	Cerdicid Capacitor Microphone as above. both types with Switch both 600 ohms	£18-00	
DD1	Cassatta Dynamic Microphone with Plugs	\$2.20	F
DD5	for signal and stop/start_200 ohms Electret Paging Microphone, on table stand		
DD6	with gooseneck and switch, 600 ohms Lavalier Microphone with Windshield,	£14·00	F
	Lavalier Cord, 6 metres Cable, 600 ohms/ 50kΩ	£11-20	
DM18HL	Dual Impedance Dynamic Microphone		•
DM73	with desk stand, 600 ohms/50kΩ Omni Directional Dynamic Microphone	£10-50	F
	with deak stand, 6 metres Cable and Plug 50kO	£10-00	
DM81	Remote Dynamic Microphone Cassette		
DM 82	type with Pluge 200 ohme Remote Cassette Cardiold Microphone	£1·80	
DM94	with Plugs 200 ohms Omni Directional Dynamic Microphone	£2·40	
DM614	with Slide on Windshield and Switch 50kΩ Pencil Type Dynamic Microphone with	£9 -50	
	Cable Lavalier Cord and Base 50kΩ	£3-20	
PROM5	Lavalier Capacitor Microphone with Tie Clip 5-8 metres Cable 600 ohms	£18-00	
PROM10	Omni Directional Capacitor Micro- phone with 6 metres Cable 600 ohms	E30-00	
PROM20	Uni-Directional Capacitor Microphone		1
PROM25	with 6 metres Cable 600 ohms Capacitor Boom Arm Microphone with	132-00	
UD50HL	Arm, two Windshields, Cable 500 ohms Cardioid Dual Impadance Microphone	£34-60	
	with Switch, 6 metres Cable and Plug 600 ohms/50kΩ	\$12.00	,
200C	Slim Line Crystal Microphone with Switch.		
	Cable and Connector	E3-80	
	I mail order and	er	10

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	PRICES INC VAT		PRICES INC VAT	
CT5	Cone Tweeter Freq 3000-15000Hz Cross-			20
	over freq 3000Hz Imp 8 ohms Suitable for			-78
	systems up to 10 watts RMS	£1-80	MEMOREX	
CT10/8	Pressure Unit Type Tweeter Freq			- 78
	1500-16000Hz Crossover freq 3000Hz		CROX2 E1-47 E1-91 -	
	Imp 8 ohms. Suitable for systems up to 20			- 75
	watte RMS	22-60	QTY Discounts 12-10% 24-15% 36-20% 60-25%	
CT10/16	As above but 16 ohms	22-80	SPEAKER CLOTH	
DT33	Dome Tweeter Freq 2000-18000Hz Cross-		Available in Black or Green, Approx width 54in	
	over freq 3000Hz imp 8 ohms Sullable for		£1-75 yd.	
	systems up to 40 watts	£5-78	HEADPHONES	
FF27	Dome Tweeter Freg 2000-20000Hz Cross-		Type H-202 Features Mono/stereo switch, Volume	
	over freg 3000Hz Imp 6 ohms Suitable for		controls on each channel Freq response 20-20 000Hz	
	systems up to 30 watts RMS	\$4-86	impedance 4-15 phms £4-50.	
FF28	Horn Tweeter Freg 3000-20000Hz Cross-		TEAK VENEERED SPEAKER CABINETS	
	over freg 3000Hz Imp 8 ohms Suitable for		For 8 - 5in Speaker Size 97 - 137 - 57 £3	- 58
	systems up to 20 watte RMS	58-20	8in - Tweeter 73 + 113 + 53 £5-	
HT15	Horn Tweeter Freq 2000-18000Hz Cross-	~~ ~~	13 × 8in 104 × 17 × 6 £5-	
	over freq 3000Hz Imp 16 ohms Suitable for		13 × 8in + Tweeler 12 = 18; × 8} £7-	
	systems up to 30 watte RMS	\$4-00	12in - Tweeter 15ł × 18 + 8ł £9	
HT21	Horn Tweeter Freq 2500-20000Hz Cross-	14.00	VALVE AMPLIFIERS	
	over freg 3000Hz Imp 8 ohms Suitable for			
	systems up to 40 watts RMS	£6-20	PRICES INC VAT	
MHT10		70.70	Robust units suitable for most PA Disco uses	
WHITIO			5 watt 2 inputs. Vol Treble Bass Controls £12-	
	Crossover freq 3000Hz Imp 8 ohms Suit-	£4-00	15 watt 4 inputs Vol Treble Base Controls £24	
	able for systems up to 30 watts RMS	24.00	30 watt 4 inputs Vol. Treble. Basa Controls 129-	
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			150 watt 4 inputs with separate vol controls	
			plus mester vol , treble bass £75	- 98 -
	CROSSOVERS		500 watt 4 inputs each with independent vol.	
	PRICES INC VAT		treble and base controls plus overall mealer	
CN23	2 Way Crossover Network Imp 3 ohms		vol control £124	- 58
CN23	Crossover 3000Hz Suitable up to 15 watts		MICROPHONE MIXERS	
	RMS			
FF5	3 Way Crossover Network: Imp 8 ohms	E1-25	PRICES INC VAT	
113			FF1 4 Channel Mono Mixer and Preamplifier	
	Crossover freqs 1000 and 5000Hz Suitable		with individual slide controls Battery	
	up to 25 watte RMS	£3·30		- 96 -
FF30	3 Way Crossover Network Imp 8 ohms		FF10 7 Channel Stereo Mixer and Preamplifier	
	Crossover freqs 1000 and 5000Hz Suitable		with individual slide controls Bettery	
	up to 25 watts RMS	08-82		- 90 -
SN75	2 Way Crossover Network Imp 8 ohms		FF11 Stereo Frequency Controller and Pre-	
	Crossover 3000Hz Suiteble for systems up		amplifier, uses five slide controls Battery	
	to 15 watts RMS	68-63	operated £34	- 88
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SAFETY MAINS ISOLATING TRANSFORMERS Prim. 120/240V. Sec 120/240V Centre Tapped and Screened ALSO AVAILABLE WITH 115/120V SEC. WINDING
Ref. VA Weight Size cm. P & P
149 60 3 12 9·9×7·7×8·6 3·79 36 150 100 5 8 9·9×8·9×8·6 4·17 52 151 200 8 0 12·1×9·3×10·2 7·39 52
152 250 13 12 12·1×11·8×10·2 9·25 67
156 100 38 0 17.2×14.0×14.0 27.40 * 158 2000 60 0 21.6×15.3×18.1 49.25 *
AUTO TRANSFORMERS Ref. VA Weight Size cm. Auto Tops P & P No. (Watts) lb az £ p 1 20 \$\vee\$\$ \$\vee\$ \$\vee\$\$ \$\vee\$\$ \$\vee\$\$ \$\vee\$\$ \$\vee\$\$ \$\vee\$\$ \$\vee\$ \$\vee\$\$ \$\vee
64 75 2 4 7.0 × 6.7 × 6.1 0-115-210-240 2.64 30 4 150 3 4 8.9 × 7.7 × 7.7 0-115-200-220-240 3.18 36 66 300 6 4 9.9 × 9.6 × 8.6
93 1500 30 4 140 x 15 9 x 14 3
73 3000 40 0 21-6×13-4×18-1 ,, 32-80 *
115 500W enclosed transformer, with mains lead and two 115V outlet sockets, £9.49, P & P 67p. 20W version, £2.02, P & P 22p.
LOW VOLTAGE SERIES (ISOLATED) PRIMARY 200-250 VOLTS 12 AND/OR 24 VOLT RANGE Ref. Amps. Weight Size cm. Secondary Windings P&P No. 12V 24V 16 oz
Nop: Weight Size cm. Secondary Windings P & p No. 12V 24V 16 02 6 p 1:34 0 1:34 2 111 0:50 0:25 8 4*8 × 2.9 × 3:5 0:12V at 0:25A × 2 1:34 2 2 213 1:0 0:5 1 4 6:1 5*8 2:2 71 2 1 1 2 7:0 × 6:4 × 6:1 0:12V at 0:5A × 2 1:58 2:2 18 4 2 12 8:3 × 7.7 × 7:0 0:12V at 1A × 2 2:95 36 18 4 2 12 8:3 × 7.7 × 7:0 0:12V at 3A × 2 3:52 42 108 8 4 5 8 9:9 × 8:6 × 8:6 0:12V at 4A × 2 3:52 42 108 8 4 5 8 9:9 × 9:6 × 8:6 0:12V at 5A × 2 3:52 42 108 8 4 5 8 9:9 × 9:6 × 8:6 0:12V at 5A × 2 3:5
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
108 8 3 5 6 0 5 4 3 4 4 3 1 4 5
226 60 30 32 0 17.2 × 15.3 × 14.0 0.12V at 15A × 2 16.94 82 30 VOLT RANGE
No. 1b oz \pounds p 112 0.5 1 4 6.1 × 5.8 × 4.8 0.12-15-20-24-30V 1.56 22 79 1.0 2 4 7.0 × 6.7 × 6.1
0 3.0 4 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
117 6-0 8 0 12-1 × 9-3 × 10-2
50 VOLT RANGE
$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
107 6:0 12 0 14:0 × 10:2 × 11:8
Ref Ambs Weight Size cm Secondary Tabs P. J. P
No. 15 oz p $124 \text{ 0.5 } 2 4 \text{ 7.0 } \times 6.7 \times 6.1 \text{ 0.24-30-40-48-60V}$ 2.12 36 $126 1.0 \text{ 3} 4 8.9 \times 7.7 \times 7.7$ 2.97 36
123 3.0 8 12 12.1 × 9.9 × 10.2 , 7.11 52 123 4.0 13 12 12.1 × 11.8 × 10.2 , 9.20 67 40 5.0 12 00 14.0 × 10.2 × 11.8 10.83 67
20 6*0 15 8 14*0×12*1×11*8 , 33*35 82 21 8*0 25 00 14*0×14*7×11*8 , 15*01 * 122 22 10*0 25 00 17*2×12*7×14*0 , 9*60 * 19*60 *
189 12:0 29 00 17:2×14:0×14:0 ", ", 21:60 MINIATURE TRANSFORMERS WITH SCREENS fef. mA Weight Size cm. Volts P&P
No. 16 oz € p 238 200 2 2⋅8 × 2⋅6 × 2⋅0 3-0-3 1⋅44 10 212 1A. 1A 1 4 6 1 × 5⋅8 × 4⋅8 0⋅6 0⋅6 1⋅67 22
215 310, 310 4 4-8 × 2·9 × 3·5 0-9, 0-9 1-67 10 207 500, 500 1 00 6-1 × 5·4 × 4·8 0-8·9, 0-8-9 2·23 22 208 1 A 1 A 1 2 7·0 × 6·4 × 6·1 0-8·9, 0-8·9 3.00 30
236 200,200 4 4.8 × 2.9 × 3.5 0-15, 0-15 1.67 10 214 300, 300 1 4 6.1 × 5.8 × 4.8 0.200,200 1.76 22
203 500,500 2 4 8-3 × 7·0 × 7·0 0-15-20, 0-15-27 3·10 38 204 1A, 1A 3 4 8-9 × 7·7 × 7·7 0-15-27, 0-15-27 3·10 38
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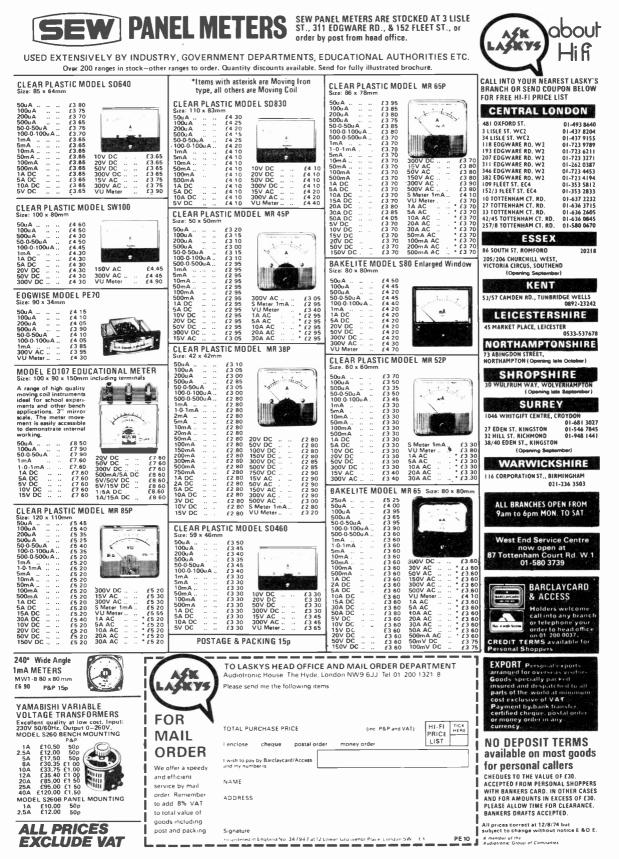


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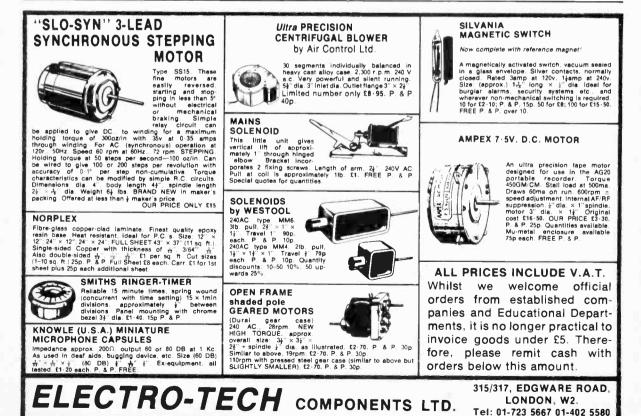
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YATES ELECTRON (FLITWICK) LTD. DEPT. PE, ELSTOW STORAG KEMPSTON HARDWICK, BE	Catalogue sent free on request. 10p stamp appreciated
$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $	MYLAR FILM CAPACITORS 100V CERAMIC DISC CAPACI- 00:01µF, 0:002µF, 0:005µF, 0:1µF, 0:02µF, TORS 100pF to 10:000PF, 2p 2p 0:04µF, 0:05µF, 0:065µF, 0:1µF, 4p. each. each. each. ELECTROLYTIC CAPACITORS- 0:05µF, 0:05µF, 0:065µF, 0:1µF, 4p. each. each.
POTENTIOMETERS Carbon track 5 Ω Ω to 2 M Ω, log or linear (log ±W, lin ±W). Single, 14p. Dual gang (stereo), 49p. Single D.P. switch 28p, SKELETON PRESET POTENTIOMETERS Linear: 100, 250, 500 Ω and decades to 5M Ω. Horizontal or vertical P.C. mounting (0-1 matrix).	47/63, 100/40, 150/25, 220/25, 330/10, 470/6'3, 7p, 68/63, 150/40, 220/40, 330/16, 1,000/4, 10p, 470/10, 680/6'3, 11p, 100/63, 150/63, 220/63, 1,000/10, 12p, 470/25, 680/16, 1,500/6'3, 13p, 470/40, 680/25, 1,000/16, 1,500/10, 2,200/6'3, 18p, 330/63, 680/40, 1,000/25, 1,500/16, 2,200/10, 3,300/6'3, 4,700/4, 21p. SOLID TANTALUM BEAD CAPACITORS 0 μμ 35V; 0.22μ 35V; 0.47μ 35V; 1.9μ 35V; 2.2μ 35V; 4.7μ 53V; 12p
Sub-miniature 0-1W, Sp each. Miniature 0-25W, 7p each. SMOKE AND COMBUSTIBLE GAS DETECTOR-GD1 The GDI is the world's first semiconductor that can convert a concentration of gas or smoke into an electrical signal. The sensor decreases its electrical resistance when it absorbs deoxidizing or combustible gases such as hydrogen, carbon monoxide, methane, propane, alcohol, North Sea gas, as well as carbon-dust containing air or smoke. This decrease is usually large enough to be utilized without amplification. Full details and circuits are supplied with each detector. Detector GD1, £2.	6:8µF 25V; 10µF 25V; 22µF 16V; 33µF 10V; 47µF 6.3V; 100µF 3V VEROBOARD 1 0.15 5:smadard screened 28µF 25m insulated 12p 21 × 33 25p 21p 5:smadard screened 28p 25mm insulated 12p 21 × 5 28p 25ereo screened 18p 3:smm insulated 12p 31 × 5 34p 28p 5:smadard socket 20p 3:smm socket 10p 17 × 24 95p 77p D.I.N. PLUGS AND SOCKETS 10p 3:mm socket 11p 17 × 32 130p 108p 72p Din, 3 Din 180°, 5 Din 20°, 6 Din, 7 Din 11p 17 × 32 (Dain) 36p 72p Din, 3 Din 5 Din 180°, 5 Din 20°, 6 Din, 7 Din 12p, Socket 8p. 12p 17 × 24 (Dain) 36p 72p Plug 12p, Socket 8p. 25m/erre 12p
SMOKE AND GAS DETECTOR KITS Mains operated with audible alarm, £5:60. Mains operated meter indicator, £7:90. Mains/battery operated, £8:40. 12/24 battery operated, £8:40. 12V battery operated two remote sensors, £12:80. NOTE—The battery operated kits incorporate our patented circuit to minimise	21 x S (plain) - 18p 21 x S (plain) - 15p Pin insertion tool 62p 62p Spot face cutter 52p BATTERY ELIMINATOR 61-70 Pkt. 50 pins 20p 9V mains power supply. Same size as PP9 battery. PRINTED BOARD MARKER 97p
	Draw the planned circuit onto a copper laminate board with the P.C. Pen, allow to dry, then immerse the board in the etchant. On removal the circuit remains in high relief.



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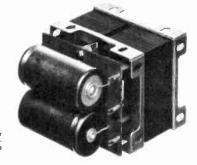
TECHNICAL SPECIFICATION Inputs: Magnetic Pick-up 3mV RIAA: Ceramic Pick-up 3mV: Microphone 10mV; Tuner 100mV; Auxillary 3-100mV; input/impedance 47kD at 1kHz. Outputs: Tape 100mV; Main output 6db (0:77V RMS), Active Tone Controls: Trebie ± 12db at 10kHz; Bass ± 12db at 100Hz. Distortion: 0:5% at 1kHz. Signal/Nuelse Ratic 68db. Overloed Cape billfy: 40db on most sensitive Input. Supply Voltage: = 16-5% 16-25V

The HYS is a complete mono hybrid preamplifier, ideally suited for both mono and stereo applications, internally the device consists of two high quality amplifiers—the first contains frequency equalisation and gain correction, while the second caters for tone control and balance.

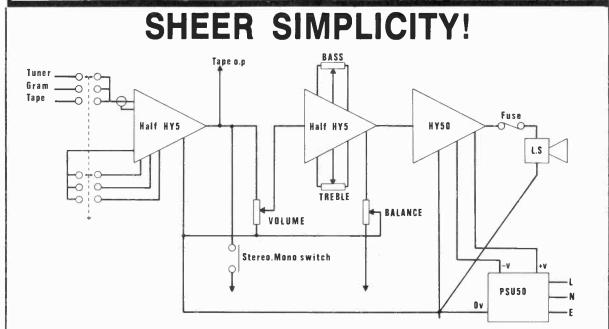
The HY50 is a complete solid state hybrid Hi-Fi amplifier incorporating its own high conductivity heatsink her-metically sealed in black epoxy resin. Only five connections are provided, input, output, power lines and earth.



TECHNICAL SPECIFICATION Output Power: 25W RMS Into 8kΩ. Load Impedance: 4-16kΩ. Input Sensitivity 0db (0.775V RMS). Input Impedance: 4fkΩ. Distortion: Less than 0.1% at 25W typically 0-05%. Signaf/Noise Ratio: Better than 75db. Frequency Response: 10Hz-50kHz ± 3db. Supply Voltage: ±25V. Size: 105 × 50 × 25mm. The PSU50 can be used for either mono or stereo systems. TECHNICAL SPECIFICATIONS Output voltage: ±25V. Input voltage: 210–240V. Size: L.70, D.90. H.60mm. + 48p VAT P. & P. free



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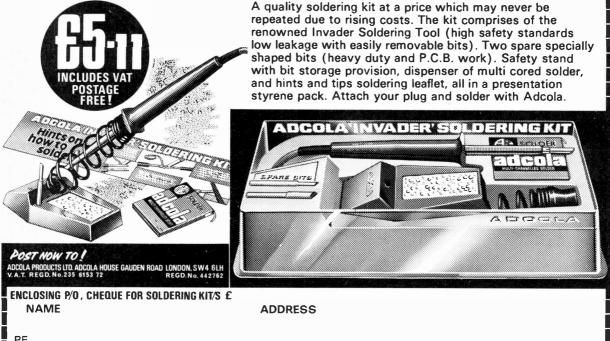
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			(se	e note belo	
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с	1/2	4-7-10M	1-3	1.1	0.9 nett
С	3/4	4-7-10M	1-5	1-2	0-97 nett
С	Ľ	4-7-10M	3.2	2.5	1-92 nett
MO	1/2	10-1 M	4	3-3	2-3 nett
ww	- F	0.22-3.9	11	10	8 nett
ww	3	1-10K	9	8	6 nett
ww	7	1-10K	11	10	8 nett
Code	81				

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	1-0		_	_	_	_	lip	_	8p
1	2.2			_	_	lip	_	8p	9p
1	4.7		_		11p		8p	9p	9p
	10		_	_		8p	9p	8p	8p
1	22	_		8p	_	9p	8p	8p	10p
	47	8p	-	9p	8p	8p	8p	10p	13p
	100	9p	8p	8p	80	9p	10p	120	19p
	220	8p	8p	9p	10p	100	llp	17p	280
	470	9p	10p	10p	llp	13p	17p	24p	45p
	1.000	llp	130	130	17p	200	250	41p	_
	2,200	15p	18p	23p	26p	37p	41p	_	_
	4,700	26p	30p	39p	44p	58p	_		_
1	10,000	42p	46p	_	-		_	_	_

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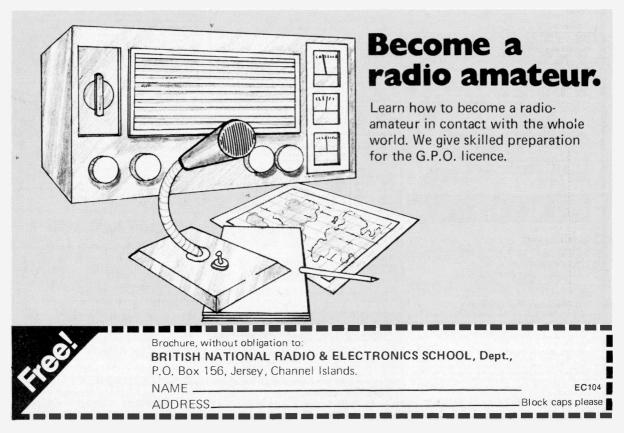
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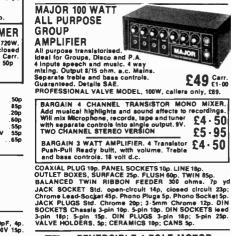
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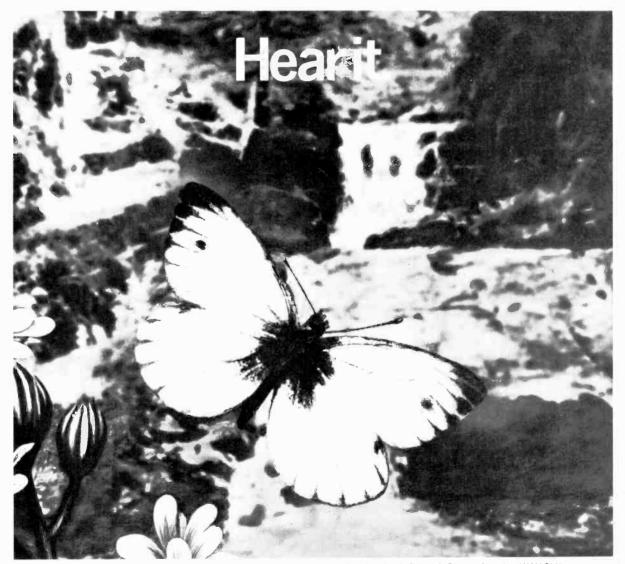
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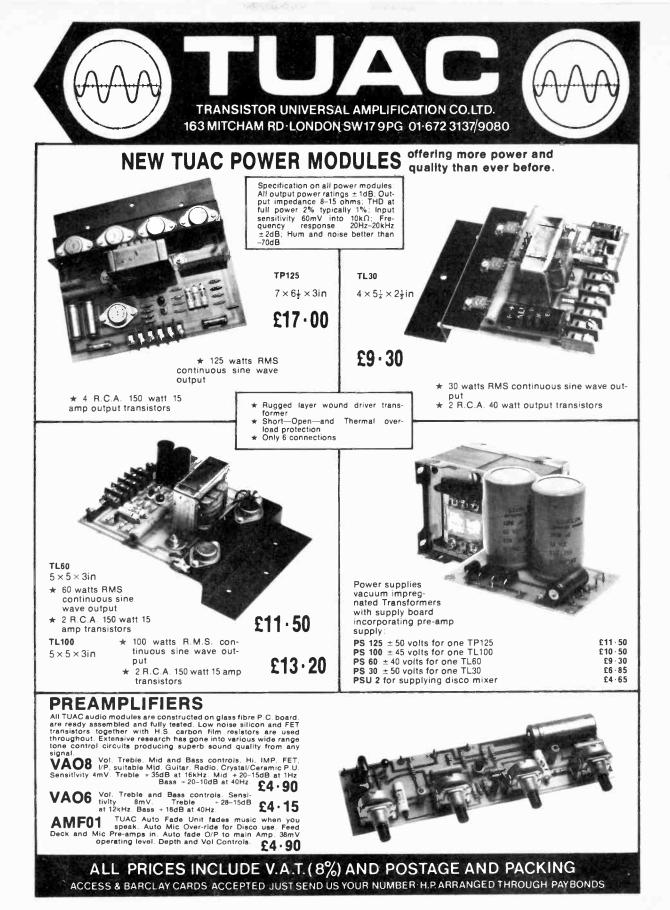
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OUR FIRST DECADE

W HEN this magazine was launched ten years ago, we were confident that a bright and stimulating future was in store for the home constructor. The transistor had by then revolutionised radio receiver design and was patently crying out for further useful exploitation in other areas. This was to be our main objective.

Yes, our early years were exciting enough, with those original germanium devices soon to be all but superceded by those of silicon. Then a seemingly endless procession of new semiconductor devices for a variety of applications, including power control, as well as optoelectronic devices, emerged.

This technological explosion brought about almost an embarrassment of possibilities for designers and builders alike. Those first two or three years kept us all very busy and yet few of us then realised that another tremendous breakthrough in solid state technology was on its way. The integrated circuit was written about and talked about for some time before the first few devices trickled through to the amateur market. A cautious start was made with these devices—firstly linear amplifiers. Then gradually the full potential of i.c.'s became apparent—this was a revolution within a revolution! Now, over the last three years or so, the i.c. has become as universally popular and commonplace with amateurs as its discrete ancestor.

Those who have followed technical progress over the last ten years will agree that the pace has been hot, each new device developed inspiring, in its turn, a variety of new and frequently highly versatile project designs. Thus the frontiers of electronics have been pushed on and out in all directions, and today the amateur can become involved in practically any area that takes his fancy.

Ten years ago we were convinced that electronics would become the most versatile, exciting, and rewarding of spare time pursuits for those with a technical and a practical bent. The latest technology would be brought literally right to the table top, and the opportunities for its use would be almost limitless.

This has become true. And we like to feel that PRACTICAL ELECTRONICS has been responsible in some degree for this opening up of new vistas to Mr. Everyman. But any credit in this respect must be shared with those many designers and authors who have contributed to these pages. Amongst these contributions have been many unique and trail-blazing projects and ideas.

Also it is right to acknowledge the great service provided by those most essential people the component suppliers, without whom there would be no hobby and whose support as advertisers has been vital to a magazine such as P.E.

Finally, to all our regular readers we express our thanks for their loyal and enthusiastic support—and we know quite a number have been with us since our very first issue.

Yes, we are all ten years older. However, electronics is a great rejuvenator; it keeps us all on our toes in eager anticipation of what tomorrow may bring forth. So we look towards our second decade with confident expectation of a continuance of exciting and stimulating developments that will contribute to our enjoyment of life and help keep our minds young and active.

F.E.B.

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TOUCH TOUCH SUBJECT

THE radio frequency Touch Switch to be described operates by hand capacity, that is to say, it operates by sensing hand proximity to a metal plate. Low r.f. leakage coupled with sensitivity and speed of operation make this unit suitable for many applications.

The large touch plate area and speed of operation suggests use as an emergency stop on machinery such as lathes or drills or as a safety interlock. Applications at home include touch operation of lights, heating or ventilation.

. Apart from novelty value the unit does enable switching operations to be readily carried out, even in the dark. Other applications could include security systems for use in cars.

R.F. LEAKAGE

Many touch or capacity switches use an r.f. oscillator, the tuned circuit of which is damped by the object to be sensed; this causes a current change in the oscillator which after suitable amplification is used to drive a relay or other switching device. A disadvantage here is the amount of r.f. radiated by the oscillator which could cause interference.

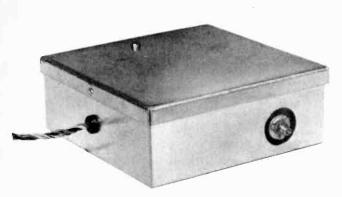
The circuit to be described overcomes this objection by allowing the oscillator to run continuously, and arranging that upon being touched, the touch plate reduces the level of r.f. fed to a detector, the output of which drives a Schmitt trigger. This approach allows a much smaller level of r.f. to be present on the plate, typical levels being from 75– 100 millivolts.

CIRCUIT ACTION

TR1 in Fig. 1 forms with T1 a 470kHz oscillator. D.c. bias conditions to TR1 are set by R1 and R2 and feedback occurs via L1 to base of TR1. Due to the high Q of T1 a sine wave of over 20 volts appears at the collector of TR1. The phase of the winding of L1 is important, and if the oscillator fails to operate then the connections should be reversed. R3 is not bypassed; this introduces negative feedback and helps to maintain a good sine wave at the collector of TR1. The output of the collector is

COMPONENTS . . .

Resistors	
R1	4·7kΩ
R2	39 kΩ
R3-R4	1kΩ (2 off)
R5	5·6kΩ
R6	3·3kΩ
R7	10Ω
R8	680Ω
R9	100kΩ
	2·2 kΩ
R11-R12	
	2·2 kΩ
	100kΩ
R15	33kΩ
R16	220Ω
All 🛔 watt	10% carbon
Capacitors	
	-01μF
C2* I	ntegral to i.f. transformer can
C3* S	See text
C4 1	
C5 0	·1μF
	,000pF (2 off)
C8 0	-1μF
Transistor	
	BC108 (6 off) BFY51
TR7	DETOI
Diodes	
D1-D5 (DA91 (5 off)
Miscellane	
T1 470kH	Iz i.f. transformer, RLA 6v 410 Ω coil
	912 R.S.) Metal box $4in \times 4in \times 1\frac{1}{2}in$,
plast	ic sleeving (see text)
A support of the second s	



View of the touch switch showing the sensitivity capacitor C3

fed via C3 to the detector circuit formed by D1/D2 but because of loss introduced by these components and the stray capacity associated with the touch plate, the result is only a low level signal appearing at the latter.

Now, if the touch plate is approached, the loss increases, and the voltage from the detector falls, operating the following Schmitt trigger circuit.

Because the value of C3 sets the signal level on the touch plate, this means that its value determines the sensitivity of the switch. An increasing value results in lower sensitivity as greater loss must then be introduced at the touch plate, to reduce the output of the detector, to a point where the Schmitt trigger operates.

When using a small touch plate the total loss is small. In order to reduce the signal level at the detector, a very low value of C3 is required; 1-2pF approximately.

This is conveniently achieved with a twisted wire capacitor made up of two $1\frac{1}{2}$ in lengths of 20 s.w.g. tinned copper wire sleeved with neoprene or plastic sleeving and twisted together for a length of about 1 in. To adjust the capacity carefully, untwist from the end.

If a larger touch plate were used then the value C3 will need to be increased, a Philips "Beehive" trimmer of 3–30pF should prove satisfactory. A little experimenting will reveal the most sensitive setting.

C4 is provided to prevent hum operating the circuit.

SCHMITT TRIGGER

The output current of the detector holds the Schmitt trigger transistor TR2 on, this means TR3 is off, and the collector voltage is high. Now, when the touch plate is approached the voltage output of the detector falls, this causes TR2 to turn off. As TR2 turns off the collector voltage rises and TR3 turns on so that the trigger produces a rapid negative going output pulse. When the hand is removed

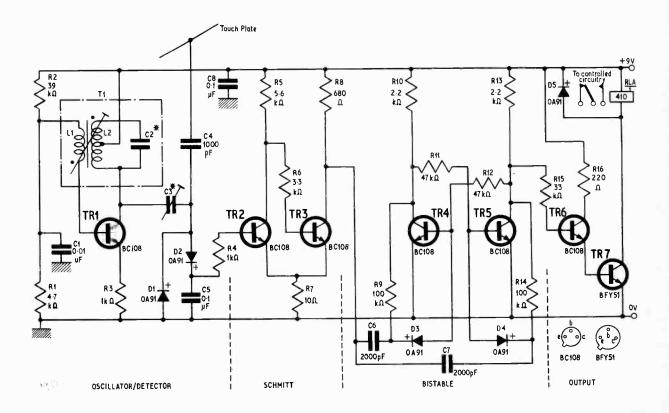


Fig. 1. Circuit diagram of touch switch

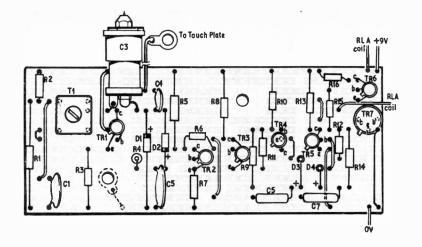
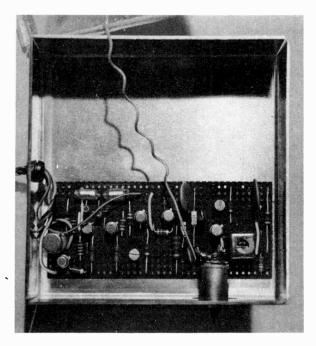


Fig. 2. Veroboard component layout. Note that the chassis connection is made by using a solder tag (shown dotted) held in position by one of the board mounting screws

the current output of the detector is restored and the trigger returns to its former state.

BISTABLE

If the Schmitt trigger output were connected directly to R15, any load at the collector of TR7 would be switched off if the touch plate was approached. This state of affairs is obviously wasteful of battery power so a bistable, or toggle, switch



Interior view of the touch switch showing positioning of the Veroboard and capacitor C3. Note that the touch plate (lid) must be insulated from the edges of the case is interposed giving a positive on/off action to the output load as required.

The load driver consists of a pair of compound connected transistors to obviate loading the bistable and affecting its operation.

CONSTRUCTION

The basic Veroboard construction for the switch is shown in Fig. 2. This layout should be adhered to for correct circuit operation.

The completed circuit board was mounted in a $4in \times 4in \times 1\frac{1}{2}in$ metal box. Although this is a prototype, dimensioning the whole thing could be arranged to fit into a wall conduit box. A plastic blank could then carry a touch plate made of aluminium foil. This would make a novel and attractive wall switch.

In the prototype the touch plate is formed by the box lid. This means that the lid must be electrically insulated from any connections to the circuit apart from C4. This is achieved by running thick plastic sleeving around the lip of the box by carefully slitting it along its edge. The lid is held in place by nylon screws.

Since final testing means having access to C3, a hole should be cut in the box to facilitate this.

TESTING

When assembly is complete a final check should be made on correct diode and transistor polarities.

To test, adjust C3 for minimum capacity and screw in the core of T1 to ensure that the oscillator frequency is not a 470kHz i.f.

Connect the 9V supply and connect a voltmeter to TR3 collector. When set to 10V d.c. if all is in order this should read about 0.5V.

Now adjust C3 until a point is found where the level rises to about 9V which indicates the trigger changing state and correct functioning of the oscillator and detector.

C3 should now be backed off until TR3 collector voltage falls to 0.5V. If this is now advanced carefully the voltage should rise. This should be the most sensitive point of operation. Upon approaching the touch plate the collector volts at TR3 should fall and with the hand removed rise again.

A SOVIET VIEW OF JUPITER

One of the greatest difficulties in setting up new theories of the Solar System origin is the amount of angular momentum in the planetary paths. In fact, almost all the angular momentum is in the planetary section while the Sun itself continues to rotate quite slowly.

From the Physical-Technical Institute of the Academy of Sciences of the USSR, a celestial dynamicist, E. M. Drobyshevski has revived the theory that Jupiter was the original core of a primordial nebula. There is a tendency to think that the Sun must be the core mainly because it is now at the centre of the system. Drobyshevski suggests that a binary system composed of the Sun and Jupiter appeared.

Such a binary system would form by reason of the convective processes in the nebula as it condensed. When the matter concentrates toward the centre there will be a change in the outer layers. The speed of the concentration would result in centrifugal forces causing the immense outer ring to separate. This is possible because the centrifugal force exceeds the gravitational force. However, there is a stage where the ring becomes unstable and the matter may disintegrate to form separate bodies.

Drobyshevski is of the opinion that the amount of condensed matter was such that a body the size of the Sun could be formed as one of those bodies. These other bodies would have, therefore, become the other planets. Under these conditions Jupiter would have been made up of the original condensation caused by gravity.

If these two bodies formed a binary pair then since Jupiter is less massive than the Sun the centre of rotation would be nearer to the Sun than to Jupiter. Thus Jupiter would appear as a planet of the Sun. This theory gets round the difficulty of the angular momentum and puts the Sun as the centre of the system and allowing it the slower rotation.

The rest of the planets and satellites would have been formed from the debris when matter would be flung out from the ring as it disintegrated. This also offers an explanation for both the positions and the composition of the planets.

MULTI-PROBE VENUS MISSION

Two *Pioneer* spacecraft will visit Venus in 1978 if the plans of NASA are successful.

Both the vehicles will be spin stabilised and derive their power from the Sun. The mission is complex and will be directed toward studies of the Venusian atmosphere.

One of the two vehicles will be an orbiter which will go as close as 125 miles to the planet. It will arrive about a week earlier than



Ns companion and will act as preliminary surveyor of the prevailing conditions. The orbiter, which is lighter than the companion spacecraft, is expected to reach Venus 190 days after launch. The companion spacecraft will carry four probes and will take some 125 days to reach the planet. Data from the first vehicle will be received before the second is launched.

The four probes carried by the second vehicle will be ejected some ten to twenty days before arrival. They will consist of one large probe carrying about 621b of equipment and three small probes with about 51b of instruments.

The probes will take about an hour to drop through the dense atmosphere to the surface. These probes have an extensive task to look at the composition of the atmosphere, to examine the structure of the total height of the atmosphere, and the circulation of the gas envelope. They will also measure the intensity of radiation from outside the planet at the various levels.

The equipment aboard the probes will include temperature and pressure sensors, an accelerometer, a gas chromatograph and various spectrometers. A special piece of apparatus called a "nephelometer" will measure the cloudiness of the atmosphere.

The orbiter will have its own onboard equipment such as particle probes, a magnetometer, a cloud photo-polarimeter, a solar wind gauge, an electric field detector, a mass spectrometer and equipment to measure gamma-ray transients. One of the important instrumental experiments will deal with the radio occultation measurements and the radar altimeter. The vehicle that carries the probes will itself continue to send back data until it finally burns up in the Venusian atmosphere.

Altogether a most sophisticated mission and an extension to the new generation of technology of getting more data from multiple units. Some 39 scientists have been invited to design the experiments, including one each from France and Germany.

MAN ON THE MOON

The official report of the *Apollo* programme offers certain conclusions about the Moon.

Before man landed on the Moon two explanations for the craters on the Moon, both hotly defended, were that they were of volcanic origin, or caused by impacting matter from outside. These theories were limited by the fact that only Earth based instruments could be used.

Looking back over the six landings on the lunar surface certain facts emerge. It can be said with some confidence that the filling of the maria took place some 3.200 million to 3.800 million years ago. Since these maria represent a major feature of the lunar surface, it has been inferred that the time of formation of about 90 per cent of craters on the Moon, was at least 4,000 million years ago. The oldest rocks so far discovered on Earth are not older than 3,000 million years.

There is strong evidence that there may well be rocks on the Moon which approach 4,600 million years though not many rocks so far recovered have shown this possibility.

It would seem that from the heat caused by the intense bombardment of the surface by "projectiles" which ranged in size from microscopic to tens of kilometres, was effective in "setting" the "clocks" which determine the absolute age of rocks. It would also seem certain that the dark maria contain underlying lava flows. Generally, it would seem that all or almost all the craters were from bombardment. In this sense volcanism is not answered.

Generally, the moon is quiet seismically but does have miniature quakes which originate at depths of 800 kilometres below the surface. At a depth of 1,000 kilometres the Moon is slightly molten. This is consistent with the theory that volcanism and tectonic movement are rare from about 2 or 3,000 million years. Seismology has shown that the crust is about 60 kilometres thick or more. It would seem from these facts that there was a time when the Moon was very active.

It is very unlikely that the Moon was formed from part of the Earth. The rocks are too dissimilar.

of the series, we take a look at high power amplifiers and the special techniques necessary for their successful operation. As a practical follow-up to this series the Home Intercom, also in this issue, has been designed using the principles outlined in these articles.

In this, the concluding article

Last month the general principles of class B amplifier design were described and so we begin this month with a design example and the techniques necessary for successful operation.

FIRST STEPS IN

CIRCUIT DESIGN

Though designs under 1W are relatively easy to produce, more problems occur as the output power is raised. We will take a look at some of these problems and how they are overcome in a practical design.

7.1. DESIGN EXAMPLE

Problem: Design suitable component values for a class B stage delivering 150 milliwatts into 35 ohms load.

Step 1. Calculate currents required in the output transistors

We require 0.15 watts into a 35Ω load.

Therefore the r.m.s. voltage across load = $\sqrt{P \times R_L} = \sqrt{0.15 \times 35} = 2.3V$

Peak voltage across load = $\sqrt{2} \times 2.3 = 3.25V$

Peak-to-peak volts = 6.5V, and since we have a 9V rail there is a comfortable voltage margin.

Peak power = twice average power = 0.3WTherefore peak current required =

$$\sqrt{\text{Peak power} + R_{\text{L}}} = \sqrt{0.3 + 35} = 0.09\text{A}$$

= 90mA

A BC108 could just about make with it and a suitable *pup* version for its opposite half, say a BC214.

Step 2. Calculate currents in the driver transistor TR3

The $h_{\rm FE}$ of a BC108 is much lower at an $I_{\rm C}$ of 90mA so we had better be pessimistic and assume it is 100 worse case.

Thus we require at least 0.9mA base currents for the outputs which means the collector current of TR3 must be capable of supplying, say, 1mA.

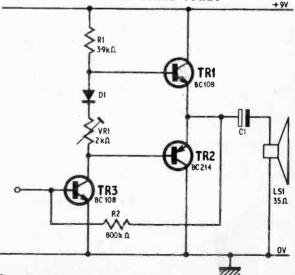


Fig. 7.1. Low power Class B output stage showing typical component values

This fixes R1 at $3.9V \div 1mA = 3.9k\Omega$.

VR1 must be large enough to drop at least 0.6V at 1mA so, allowing for suitable range of adjustment, make VR1 = $2k\Omega$ (anything from $1k\Omega$ to $5k\Omega$ would do).

Step 3. Calculate R2

The base current of TR3 would be $1mA \div h_{FE}$. Using a BC108 at 1mA we can take this to be $I_{b} =$ $1mA \div 200 = 5\mu A.$

The voltage across R2 = 4.5 - 0.6 = 3.9VHence $R2 = 3.9V \div 5\mu A = 800k \Omega$

Step 4. Calculate sensitivity and voltage gain A

Input resistance of the output transistors is

 $R_{\rm IN} = h_{\rm FE} \times {\rm speaker \ resistance} =$

 $100 \times 35 = 3,500 \Omega$ $(h_{\rm FE}$ rather than $h_{\rm fe}$ because this is a "large signal" swing)

This resistance is the signal load of TR3 thus the gain of TR3 is

$$A = R_{IN} \div r_e = 3,500 \div 25/I_C(mA) = 3,500/25 = 140$$

Sensitivity for full output =

peak output volts $\div A = 4.5 \div 140$

= 32mV peakInput resistance = $h_{\rm fe} \times r_{\rm e} = 200 \times 25$ = $50k\Omega$ in parallel with R2/A $= 800 k \Omega/140 = 6 k \Omega$ (approx.)

The complete circuit is shown in Fig. 7.1.

7.2. SETTING-UP PROCEDURE

Before switching on it is vital to set VR1 to its minimum resistance value. Check and double check this because of the dangerously high quiescent current which can flow. (BC108's are cheap but not cheap enough to use as room heaters!)

Measure the d.c. output volts to ground to confirm the half-way resting position (i.e. around 4.5V).

If an oscilloscope is available and a signal generator apply a sine wave at about 1kHz and adjust VR1 slowly until the crossover distortion disappears. Do not increase VR1 above this point.

If no such test equipment is available the setting up must rely on the ear.

7.3. HIGHER POWER AMPLIFIERS

Although the design of high power amplifiers is strictly an expert's job there are always a few adventurous amateurs willing to risk a few pounds for the sake of personal satisfaction or pride.

Let us suppose for example that we are thinking in terms of supplying 50W r.m.s. power into an 8 ohm load.

Preliminary calculations will reveal rather disquieting figures for supply rail voltage and collector currents. Supply rail voltage required = $2\sqrt{2\sqrt{PR}}$ (where

P = r.m.s. power and R = speaker impedance)

$$V_{\rm CC} = 2.82\sqrt{50 \times 8} = 2.82 \times 20 = 56.4 \text{V}$$

However, some safety margins must be included to allow room for the collectors to swing within the limits of saturation. Allowing at least three or four volts for this, and the same for possible tolerance variations in power supply, we arrive at the round figure of 65V (minimum).

The r.m.s. current required is $I = \sqrt{P/R} = \sqrt{50/8}$ = 2.5A and peak current = 3.53 amps.

High power transistors are notoriously low in $h_{\rm FE}$. As a typical example the complementary pair with the type number 2N3055 (which would be suitable for the above requirements) has $h_{\rm FE}$ between 20 and 70. Using "worst-case" principles the minimum value of 20 must be assumed and the base drive current must be 3.53/20 = 180mA.

This is a lot of base current and will require a small power stage again to supply it!

We cannot hope to produce this kind of drive current by simple circuits previously described.

7.4. POWER DARLINGTONS

gains

The base current for the outputs can be buffered or "geared down" by using small power transistors in Darlington configuration. Fig. 7.2 shows typical $h_{\rm FE}$ and current values.

A very useful device has recently appeared in the semiconductor data manuals called the "power Darlington".

As far as the user is concerned, they behave as a single high power transistor having an $h_{\rm FE}$ in the order of 1,000. (In reality they are integrated Darlington pairs with two bleeder resistors across base and emitter to improve the stability.)

They can be purchased in *npn* or *pnp* (and in matched) pairs) so are really the answer to a designer's prayer. Fig. 7.3 shows the internal construction.

Although the devices are not cheap, they compare favourably in cost with discrete pairs (remember that no current driver transistor is required).

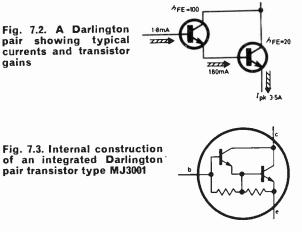


Table 7.1: Guide to Power Transistors

Туре	Power Dissipation	I _{C(max)}	VCEO	h _{FE(min)}	VCE(sat)
Metal { BD266 prp } Case { BD267 npn }	50W	12A	60V	750	2V
Plastic { MJE1100 npn } Case { MJE1090 pnp }	70W	5A	60V	750	2V
Metal {MJ3001 <i>mpn</i> } Case {MJ2501 <i>pnp</i> }	150W	10A	80V	1,000	2V

Table 7.1 is a guide to current types.

Be careful that you do not fall into a trap when choosing power transistors—the power dissipation column, even though it may appear simple is not sufficient in itself. For example, the MJE1100/1090 can dissipate 70 watts, but only for voltages not exceeding 60 volts. To safely drive 50 watts into 8 ohms requires at least 65V as shown in previous calculations.

7.5. TEMPERATURE EVILS

High power output stages generate considerable quantities of heat. Unless this heat is dissipated by adequate heatsinking, the temperature of the semiconductor junctions will rise higher and higher, eventually entering the fatal region of "thermal runaway".

It is necessary for designers to be well acquainted with the mechanism of thermal runaway in general and, in particular, the special problems it creates for Class B amplification.

All silicon semiconductors "leak" a little even at room temperatures, but the current (due to the release of thermal electrons from the crystal lattice) is small enough to be neglected.

The leakage, unfortunately, rises sharply with increase of temperature which means more current and therefore yet more heat. In other words, the process is a kind of thermal chain reaction which could turn expensive transistors into useless blobs of metal.

Such disasters can be prevented by bolting the output transistors to a large area of metal which radiates most of the heat and keeps the temperature below the thermal runaway zone.

The metal heatsink should be large in area and preferably matt black to aid radiation. There must

be no rough edges around the drill holes or the surfaces will not be in good thermal contact; silicone grease helps to increase the effective contact area.

One important point which must be mentioned is the electrical connection between the outer metal case and the collector. The heatsink must therefore be insulated or alternatively a mica insulation disc must be fitted between the case and the heatsink.

TRANSISTOR TURN-ON VOLTAGE

Having dealt with the general effects of temperature, there now remains a rather more subtle problem which we have discussed previously but only in connection with relatively low power output stages.

The turn-on voltage of a silicon transistor, $V_{\rm BE}$ is about 0.6V at normal room temperature but decreases by 2mV for every degree C rise. For example, suppose the output transistors are being driven fairly hard by a large signal. The junction temperature, if such a condition was maintained, could easily and quite safely reach a temperature 50°C higher which would cause the *required* $V_{\rm BE}$ for this particular collector current to be only 0.5V. This is another vicious circle which signal.

7.6. DIODE TEMPERATURE TRACKING

To avoid crossover distortion in large power amplifiers, the quiescent current (output stage under zero signal input) should be in the order of 20mA. The forward bias on the bases of the Darlingtons must be around 1.2V instead of 0.6V because there are two $V_{\rm BE}$ drops to account for. The voltage difference across the two bases is therefore about 2.4V at room temperature.

However, as we have seen, this voltage must be automatically reduced as the temperature rises to ensure the stability of the quiescent current. In small power stages, such as our earlier example using BC108's the automation was accomplished using one silicon diode and a variable resistor to adjust the quiescent current. If a pair of Darlingtons are used we could use three diodes and a resistor as shown in Fig. 7.4.

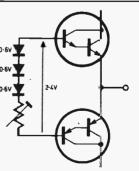


Fig. 7.4. One method of stabilising the bias on a Darlington output stage using three diodes and a preset potentiometer

Providing the diodes are on the same heatsink as the cutput transistors the forward bias will tend to fall in the same manner as the Darlington V_{BE} .

With "tongue in cheek" it is hoped that the V_{BE} drops will temperature track equally.

The diode method of temperature tracking, although reasonably efficient, lacks the essential finesse demanded by hi-fi addicts. What is needed is a more delicate control method. Can we, for instance, use a transistor as a temperature variable resistance and benefit from its amplification properties? Such a device is quite commonly employed as an alternative to diode tracking and may be aptly described as a " $V_{\rm BE}$ multiplier".

7.7. THE V_{BE} MULTIPLIER

The circuit of a $V_{\rm BE}$ multiplier is shown in Fig. 7.5. A voltage, dependent on the setting of VR1, is developed across the resistor chain and the transistor.

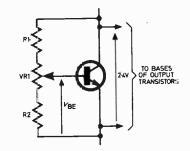
Assume VRI is adjusted under cold, zero signal conditions for the correct 20mA quiescent current in the outputs. The *normal* voltage across the two output base drives will be 2-4V ($4 \times V_{BE}$).

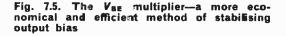
As the temperature rises, the required $V_{\rm BE}$ for this current is reduced and more base current flows. The collector current will rise $h_{\rm FE}$ times as much, causing a heavier shunt load across the resistor chain. The original 2.4V is now reduced and the quiescent current is prevented from rising. Providing the outputs and the $V_{\rm BE}$ multiplier are close together on the same heatsink, the system tracks beautifully over the complete temperature range.

DESIGN DETAILS

Current down the resistor chain should be less than one tenth quiescent output transistor current, which means less than $20\text{mA} \div 10 - \text{say }\frac{1}{2}\text{mA}$ as a reasonable figure.

The voltage across R2 should be at half-way (ignoring the transistor).





So R2 = 1.2V/0.5mA =

 $2.4k\Omega$ (2.2k Ω nearest preferred value). Allowing for VR1 "twiddle factor", R1 = $1.8k\Omega$ and VR1 = $1k\Omega$ completes the chain.

Any silicon transistor is suitable providing its $h_{\rm FE}$ is at least 100.

7.8. THE CONSTANT CURRENT SOURCE

To keep distortion low, the base current drive to the output transistors should be derived from a high impedance source (ideally a constant current source). The method of obtaining this by bootstrapping has already been covered. There are, however, some objections to this.

Firstly, bootstrapping increases the gain by using some positive feedback which tends to increase the distortion.

Secondly, the frequency response is slightly reduced. A far more elegant method is to achieve a high impedance drive by using a transistor connected as a constant current source to replace the collector resistor in the drive chain.

It is more convenient to use a *pnp* driver when this method is used.

7.9. DETAILS OF 50W AMPLIFIER

The circuit Fig. 7.6 shows a simple power amplifier capable of delivering 50W into 8 ohms and embodying most of the techniques described.

Transistor TR4 is the constant current source because the base voltage is held constant by two stabilising diodes. This stage can be considered as a very high collector resistor for TR2 which prevents the current down the chain TR2, TR4 from changing when the signal is causing large voltage swings.

The centre rail is maintained at 32.5V above ground by heavy d.c. negative feedback. Notice that the first amplifier stage TR1 is placed between the 65V rail and the centre rail. The open loop gain of the amplifier is high, most of it coming from TR2 which has no emitter resistor. Its open loop gain is thus about $20 \times V_{cc} = 20 \times 65$, or around 60dB.

The signal gain of the amplifier is determined simply by the ratio of R_E and R_x in the emitter circuit of TR1. Since R_E is fixed for d.c. purposes at 5.6k Ω the gain can be decided by the choice of R_x .

It is not good design practice to squeeze high gain from a power amplifier—be satisfied with a sensitivity of 1V for a 28V peak output swing. A gain of 28 is required which would mean $R_x = 5.6 \text{ k} \Omega/28 = 200 \Omega$.

The relevant voltage drops are shown and serve as a

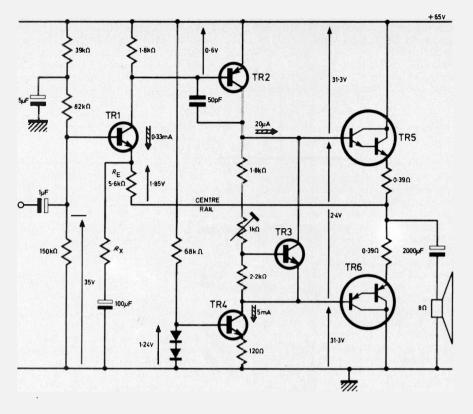


Fig. 7.6. A complete 50W amplifier using the principles described in the article. All voltages and currents are measured under quiescent (no-signal) conditions

AMPLIFIER SPECIFICATION

Input sensitivity for 28V peak o	
	$= 1 V (R_{\rm X} = 200 \Omega)$
Input resistance	$= 50 k \Omega$ (approx)
Maximum total harmonic distor	
power levels	= 0.2%
Frequency response	= 20Hz to 50kHz
Idling current	= 25 mA total

valuable exercise for the amateur designer to try out on paper to see if his calculations agree.

Because TR2 has a large gain there is an instability problem which requires a 50pF capacitor across the to about 50kHz.

base and collector to restrict the upper frequency limit

CHOICE OF TRANSISTORS

The outputs could be MJ3001 (*pnp*) and MJ2501 (*pnp*).

TR3 should have a very high $h_{\rm FE}$ —MPSA13 is a low power Darlington having $h_{\rm FE} = 1,000$.

TR1 and TR4 could be any 80V general purpose types, MPSA06 would do well.

TR2 should be *pnp* complement of TR4—MPSA56. The double diode on the base of TR4 is obtainable as the MZ2361.

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* see page 887

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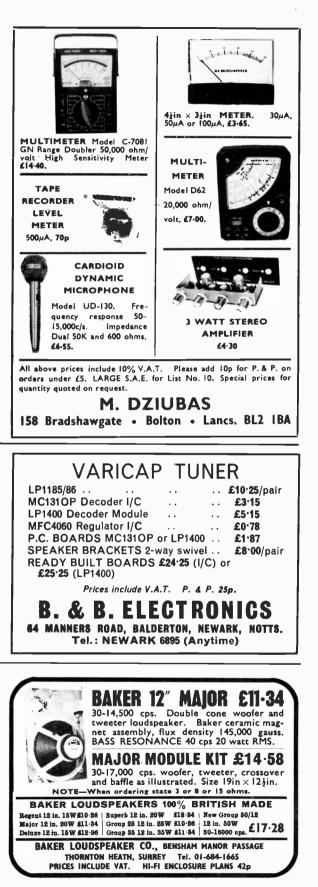


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IN 645 1N 725 A	0-16	ASY29 ASY36	0-80	BYZ15 BYZ16	1.85	OAZ210 OAZ211	0-40	ZTX 108 ZTX 300	0-10 0-14
1N914 1N4007	9-06 0-18	ASY50 ASY51	0-80 0-40	BZY88	0-60 0-10	OAZ222 OAZ223	0-45	ZTX 304 ZTX 500	0-24
18113 18131	0-25	A8¥53 A8¥55	0-90 0-90	C111 CR81/05	0-55 0-80		0-45 0-25	ZTX503 ZTX531	0-16 0-25
18202 2G371	0-98	ASY62 ASY66	0-85 0-88	CR81/40 C84B	0-45 1-90	OAZ242 OAZ244	0-15 0-85	INTEGR	TED
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20417 2N404	0-85	AU101 AUY10	1.50	DD003 DD006	0-15 0-25	0C16 0C16T	1.00	7401	0-80
2N697 2N698	0-15	BC107 BC108	0-18 0-18	DD007 DD008	0-40 0-88	OC19 OC20	0-50 2-00	7403	0-80
2N706 2N706A	0-10 0-18	BC109 BC113	0-12 0-16	GD3 GD4	0-88 0-10	OC22 OC23	1-00 1-25	7405	0-20
2N708 2N709	0-15 0-40	BC115 BC116	0-20 0-20	GD5 GD8	0-88 0-95 0-10	0C24 0C25	1.10 0-40	7407	0-40 0-85
2N1091 2N1131	0-55 0-25	BC116A BC118	0-88	GD12 GET102	0-50	0C26 0C28	0-40 0-70	7409	6-88 0-80
2N1132 2N1302	0-25	BC121 BC122	0-20 0-20	GET103 GET113	0-40 0-85	OC29 OC30	0-65 0-40 0-55	7411 7412	0-28 0-28
2N1303 2N1304	0-18	BC125 BC126	0-68 0-65	GET114 GET115	0-80 0-75	OC35 OC36	0-65	7418	0-80 0-80
2N1305 2N1306	0-22	BC140 BC147	0-55 0-18	GET116 GET120	0-85	0C41 0C42	0-85	7417	0-80
2N 1307 2N 1308	0-28	BC148 BC149	0-10 0-12	GET872 GET875	0-80	OC43 OC44	0.70 0.18	7422	0-28
2N2147 2N2148	0-75	BC157 BC158	0-14 0-18	GET880 GET881	0-55 0-25	OC44M OC45	0-17 0-18	7425	0-40 0-87 6-87
2N2160 2N2218	1.00 0.88	BC160 BC169	0-68 0-14	GET882 GET885	0-85 0-40	OC45M OC46	0-18 0-87	7428	0-48 0-80
2N2219 2N2369A	0-95	BCY31 BCY32	0-45 1-20	GEX44 GEX45/1	0-08 0-45	OC57 OC58	0.60 0.60	7432 7433	0-87
2N2444 2N2613	1-99	BCY33 BCY34	0-88 0-45	GEX941 GJ3M	0-45 0-50	OC59 OC66	0-60 0-50	7437	0-48 0-48 0-48
2N2646 2N2904	0-50	BCY38 BCY39	0-55 1-00	GJ4M GJ5M	0-50	0C70 0C71 0C72	0-18 0-15	7440 7441AN	0-80
2N2904A 2N2906	0-25 0-20	BCY40 BCY42	0-80 0-80	GJ7M HG1005	0-50 0-50	OC73	0.25	7442 7450	0-85
2N2907 2N2924	0-98	BCY70 BCY71	0-15 0-80	HS100A MAT100	0-20	0074 0C75	0-20 0-80	7451 7453	0-90
2N 29 25 2N 29 26	0-15 0-10	BCZ10 BCZ11	0-60 0-65	MAT101 MAT120	0-25 0-20	0C76 0C77	0-80 0-55	7454 7460	0-20
2N 3054 2N 3055	0-50 0-60	BD121 BD123	1.00 1.00	MAT121 MJE520	0-25	0C78 0C79	0-25 0-30	7470 7472	0-88
2N3702 2N3705	0-11 0-15	BD124 BDY11	0-80 1-45	MJE2955 MJE3055	0-75	0C81 0C81D	0-88 0-28	7473 7474	0-44
2N3706 2N3707	0-11 0-18	BF115 BF117	0-22 0-50	MJE340 MPF102	0-50 0-40	OC81M OC81DM	0-20 0-18	7475	0-59 0-45
2N 3709 2N 3710	0-10 0-11	BF167 BF173	0-25 0-28	MPF103 MPF104	0-80 0-85	OC81Z OC82	0-45 0-28	7480	0-80 0-87
2N3711 2N3819	0-11 0-85	BF181 BF184	0-85 0-28	MPF105 NKT128	0-46	OC82D OC83	0-25	7488	1-20
2N 4289 2N 5027	0-20 0-53	BF185 BF194	0-22 0-18	NKT129 NKT211 NKT213	0-80 0-25	0C84 0C114	0-80 0-88	7486 7490	0-80 0-75
2N 5088 2830 1	0-88 0-59	BF195 BF196	0-18 0-15	NKT214	0-25	OC122 OC123	1.00 1.10	7491A 7492	1-10 0-75
28304 28501	1-15 0-75	BF197 BF861 BF898	0-15 0- 25 0-25	NKT216 NKT217 NKT218	0-40 0-45 1-18	OC139 OC140	0-40 0-65 0-80	7498 7494	0-75
26703 AA129	1.00 0-20	BFX12 BFX13	0-20	NKT219 NKT222	0-88	OC141 OC169	0-20	7495 7496	9-85 1-00
AAZ12 AAZ13	0.75 0.10	BFX29	0-28	NKT224 NKT251	0-25	0C170 0C171	0-25 0-30	7497 74100	4-82 2-16
AC107 AC126	0-85 0-25	BFX 30 BFX 35	0-28	NKT271 NKT272	0-20	OC200 OC201	0-55	74107 74110	0-51 0-57
AC127 AC128	0-25 0-20	BFX63 BFX84 BFX85	0-25 0-28	NKT273 NKT274	0-20	OC202 OC203	0-90 0-55	74111 74118	0-86 1-00
AC187 AC188	0-20	BFX86 BFX87	0-28 0-25 0-25	NKT275 NKT277	0.20	OC204 OC205 OC206	0.65	74119 74121	1-92 0-57
ACY17 ACY18	0-25 0-27	BFX88	0-22	NKT278 NKT301	0-25	OC207	1.10 1.00	74122 74123	0-80 1-44
ACY19 ACY20 ACY21	0-87 0-88	BFY10 BFY11 BFY17	1.00	NKT304 NKT403	0-75	OC460 OC470	0.80	74141 74145	1-00
ACY22	0-28 0-16	BFY18 BFY19	0-40 0-45 0-55	NKT404 NKT678	0-60	OCP71 ORP12	1.00	74150 74151	9-80 1-15
ACY27 ACY28	0-25 0-25	BFY24 BFY44	0-45	NKT713 NKT773	0-80	ORP60 ORP61	0-45	74154 74155	2-80 1-15
ACY39 ACY40	0-65	BFY50 BFY51	0-80	NKT777 078B	0-88	8X68 8X631 8X635	0-20 0-45 0-55	74156 74157	1·15 1·09
ACY41 ACY44	0-88 0-88	BFY52 BFY53	0-20 0-17	0A5 0A6	0-60	8X640 8X641	0-75	74170 74174	2-88 1-80
AD140 AD149	0-50 0-50	BFY64 BFY90	0-45	0A47 0A70	0-08	SX 642	0-80	74175	1.29
AD161 AD162	0-39 0-39	B8X27 B8X60	0-50	0A71 0A73	0-20	8X644 8X645	0-85 0-85	74176 74190	1-44 8-80
AF106 AF114	0-80 0-85	BSX76 BSY26	0.18	0A74 0A79	0-15 0-10	TIC44 V15/30P .	0-29 0-75	74191 74192	2-20 2-20
AF115 AF116 AF117	0-25 0-25	BSY27 BSY51	0-17 0-20 0-50	0A81 0A85	0-10 0-15	V30/201P V60/201	0-75	74193	2-80
AF118	0-20	BSY95A BSY95	0-12 0-12	0A86 0A90	0.15	V60/201P XA101		74194 74195	1·78 1·44
AF119 AF124 AF195	0-20	BT102/50	0R 0.75	OA91 OA95	0-07	XA101 XA102 XA151	0-18 0-15	74196 74197	1-58 1-58
AF125 AF126 AF197	0-80 0-80	BTY42 BTY79/16	0-92	OA200 OA202	0-08 0-10	XA152	0.15	74198	8-16
AF127 AF139 AF178	0-30	BTY79/4	0.75 DOR	0A210 0A211	0-20	XA161 XA162	0-25 0-25	74199 Plug in .	2.88
AF178 AF179 AF180	0-55 0-65 0-55	BY100	1.10 0.15	OA2200 OA2201	0-25	XB101 XB102	0-48 0-30	Plug in -	file
AF180 AF181 AF186	0-50	BY126	0-14	OAZ202	0.45	X B103 X B113	0-35	14 pin Di	0.15
AF186 AFY19	0-40 1-13	BY127 BY182	0-15 0-85	OAZ203 OAZ204	0-45 0-45	XB113 XB121	0-80	16 pin DI	0-17
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What Is Your Potential?

This month 1 am going to offer some more food for thought, which some of you may be able to combine with a practical experiment or two. Unfortunately, the material on this page does not form a complete subject, as research into its possible implications is not yet complete. However, 1 thought you may care to hear of the results obtained to date.

It all started when I had the fortune to be offered an AVO digital multimeter at an extremely reasonable price. The meter is powered by rechargeable internal batteries, making it quite portable and useable completely isolated from the mains.

Normally, this last feature would not have interested me, since most of my work involves mains-powered test equipment and a good earth is all you need to avoid hum effects. But it occurred to me that for ESP verification one needs to eliminate all likely (and unlikely) sources of interference, or there is still the chance of some red herrings creeping in. At best, some sceptic is likely to suspect the mains of causing the witnessed "paranormal" effect.

Mind you. I invite such suggestions, as it is the duty of the investigator to rule out every possible normal cause of unusual effects.

I took the digital meter along to the Paraphysical Laboratory at Downton on more than one occasion, and the first time we busied ourselves comparing one another's body potentials. Body potentials have received much serious treatment in recent years, perhaps the better-known measurements being ECG and EEG (heart and brain electrical rhythms in layman terms). But there are also other measurements of a d.c. form, and some of very low-frequency which merit attention. On the occasion mentioned we satisfied ourselves with d.c. voltage measurements taken from hand to hand of the subject. 1 set the DMM to its lowest d.c. voltage range, and set to divide-byten, so enhancing the range by a further decade.

Method Of Measurement

The method adopted for measurement was to ask the subject to take the two test leads from the meter, one in either hand. The leads were fitted with the crocodile clip terminations, but these were not used in their normal mode (fortunately for the subject). Instead, they were held firmly in the hands with reasonable grip pressure. The clips, being of identically-plated metal and uninsulated, provided a good electrical contact with the palms of the hands, but not touching signet rings, if worn. The identical metal plating is of considerable importance, since if the clips were dissimilar in this respect, an electrical cell action would be produced by the perspiration acting upon the two dissimilar metals, so producing a small, but significant potential difference which might mislead us in our results.

My own hand-to-hand potential was about 10 millivolts, with positive at the left hand. This was in keeping with one or two others whose potential was measured. Oddly enough, some people displayed a reversed polarity, but I was unable to relate this to lefthandedness.

Human Battery

The most startling reading obtained that evening was that of a young lady I have mentioned before in this series, Suzanne Padfield. This young lady seems to possess remarkable abilities in the field of mind over matter. Her reading on this occasion was first of all just over 100mV, positive on left hand. "Gosh," I said, "you make ten of each of us!"

It was then that someone had the idea that we form a "human battery" by joining hands, each positive hand to the next subject's negative hand and so on, and comparing results with the individual readings taken previously.

Like good scientists, we decided to take this step by step, so as to detect any errors as they occurred. So Suzanne and I held hands, her right and my left, and the spare hands held the meter clips. We expected to get something like 10mV + 100mV = 110mV. Well, try as we might, we got only a row of zeros.

I then took both leads to check my own potential, and this checked o.k. as before. I then handed the leads to my partner and we noted that her reading was very much lower than 100mV but was climbing. When it had reached about 100, I asked her for one lead, and in reaching for it touched the back of her hand. Almost immediately the meter fell!

Now, it is not unusual to find sudden discharges of electricity

when charged objects are touched with the hand of an earthed body, but this was ridiculous, as we were not measuring electrostatic charge, but a definite "terminal potential difference" across a (relatively) low-impedance source (possibly on average 30 kilohm or so, allowing for contact area of crocodile clips and pressure exected). So how could my touching the lady's hand cause the voltage to drop? (Incidentally, the impedance of the meter even at the low range setting is still extremely high, so contact resistance would play very little part in readings in the millivolt range. This was borne out by experiment.)

To return to the falling reading, I noted what had happened and took my hand away from hers. The meter reading slowly returned to her "normal" 100mV. Thinking that the strange effect might possibly be something to do with me, in particular. I suggested that another male present should take my place. I must say that I was relieved when the same result was obtained.

Power From The Healer

The lady involved in these experiments happens to be a well-known healer, and she performs this feat by placing her hands near to, or actually on, the patient. It would seem reasonable to assume that, given that there is a positive healing effect (which I would not doubt in view of evidence received) she produces some sort of energy or power which flows, perhaps like an electric current, from her to the sick person, whose "health potential" may be lower.

Again, referring back to an earlier article in this series, the "Phantom Photos" of the Kirlians. It has been observed that the points of overexposure on the film around the fingers of a healer after he/she had performed healing on a patient are greatly diminished in intensity. I have seen reproductions of such photographs (1973, Daily Telegraph Magazine). I wonder if our findings of hand-potentials could possibly indicate the transfer of power from a healer, when touched by someone with lesser power?

It is noteworthy that the use of conventional voltmeters would lead to difficulties and severe inaccuracies in the mentioned experiments: partly because of sensitivity, but mainly because the internal resistance of such meters is comparatively low. Hence, the contact resistance between electrodes and skin, which would vary with pressure and moisture present, would be comparable or even exceed greatly the internal resistance of the meter, and pressure would vary readings considerably. Only meters with electronic circuitry of very high resistance are suitable for the kind of experiments described here.





HOME INTERCOM BY L. WISE

AN INTERCOM is a device which can be put to many uses throughout the home: as a simple room-to-room communicator; as a doorphone whereby one can speak to callers before opening the door; or as a remote baby-minder.

The simple master/slave intercom to be described uses circuits whose principles were described in the series *First Steps in Circuit Design*.

THE INTERCOM SYSTEM

Before describing circuit details, a brief summary of the overall system should help to clarify matters.

The intercom consists of two units known as "master" and "slave", which can be separated by up to 50ft.

Simultaneous two-way conversations are not possible with the intercom described: the direction of communications is controlled by a LISTEN/TALK switch on the master unit. This saves a large number of components since each loudspeaker takes on a dual role depending on the position of the switch: either as a speaker or a microphone (see Fig. 1). The master unit has an ON/OFF switch but the slave unit cannot speak to the master even with the other switch in the LISTEN position. This problem is overcome by leaving the master unit in a state whereby its amplifier will oscillate when a CALL button on the slave unit is pressed.

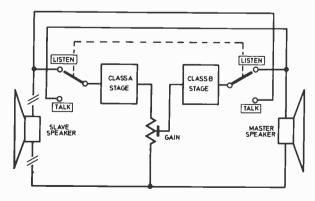


Fig. 1. Block diagram of Intercom system

REQUIREMENTS OF THE AMPLIFIER

As well as the two speakers the other main unit is the amplifier which must be capable of taking the tiny signal from the "microphone" (in fact a speaker)

COMPONENTS . . .

Resi	stors
------	-------

R1	390kΩ
R2	180Ω

- R3 2·2kΩ
- R4 1kΩ
- R5 10kΩ
- R6 330Ω
- R7 330Ω
- R8 56kΩ
- All \pm 5% $\frac{1}{4}$ W carbon

Potentiometers

VR1 4.7k Ω sub-miniature vertical skeleton preset VR2 250 Ω sub-miniature vertical skeleton preset

Capacitors

- C1, C2 0.01µF disc ceramic (2 off)
- C3-C5 25µF 10V elect (3 off)
- C6, C7 0.01µF disc ceramic (2 off)
- C8, C9 25µF 10V elect (2 off)
- C10 22µF 16V tantalum

Semiconductors

TR1-TR3	BC108 (3 off)
TR4	BC214L
D1	1 N 914

_ .

- Switches
 - S1 Double pole changeover slide
 - S2 Double pole changeover biased push button
 - S3 On/off push button

Speakers LS1, LS2 35Ω 2¼in (2 off)

Miscellaneous

Veroboard, 0·1in matrix, 2·7in \times 2·5 in B1 9V PP6 battery and connector Two plastic boxes Lightweight twin core connecting wire

I

and amplifying it sufficiently to produce an easily audible sound in the other speaker.

It was decided to design the amplifiers with an output of 100mW. This is more than loud enough for domestic use. The next thing to be decided which influences circuit design is battery voltage. For convenience this was set at 9V.

Speaker impedance is a vital factor also. Too high an impedance means a large output voltage swing is necessary while too small an impedance means high output transistor currents. Therefore 35 ohms was chosen as a good compromise.

We require the amplifier to be efficient, i.e. to draw current only when needed, thus a class B output seemed the obvious choice.

PRELIMINARY CALCULATIONS

Having decided on 100mW output and 35Ω speakers we can calculate the required output current and voltage. Using $P = V^2/R$ we obtain $V = \sqrt{PR}$ where P and V are r.m.s. power and voltage respectively.

This gives $V = \sqrt{0.1 \times 35} = \sqrt{3.5} = 1.9 V$.

Now in a class B output each of the transistors produces half the output voltage so the peak voltage produced by each is $\sqrt{2} \times 1.9 = 2.7V$ peak or 5.4V peak-to-peak. This is well within the limits of the 9V supply rail.

Using $P = I^2 R$ we obtain $I = \sqrt{P/R}$. Again I and P are r.m.s. values.

Hence $I = \sqrt{0.1/35} = 54$ mA.

The peak current i.e. the maximum current to be supplied by each of the output transistors is $\sqrt{2} \times 54 = 75$ mA.

Locatio	n	Voltage
TR1	b	0·7V
	C	4·5V
TR2	b	0.7V
	с	3.8V
TR3	е	4·5V
	b	5·2V
	с	9V
TR4	е	4.5∨
	b	3·8V
	С	0V

The $I_{C(max)}$ of a BC108 is 100mA so we may use it in the output. Its near complement the BC214 also with an $I_{C(max)}$ of 100mA can form the other output.

We have calculated the peak-to-peak output required as about 5.4V. Now, when used as a microphone the speakers used had an r.m.s. output of about 2mV. Thus we require an amplifier with a gain of at least 1,000.

Since speaker outputs do vary it was decided to include a preset gain control. This also makes design less critical.

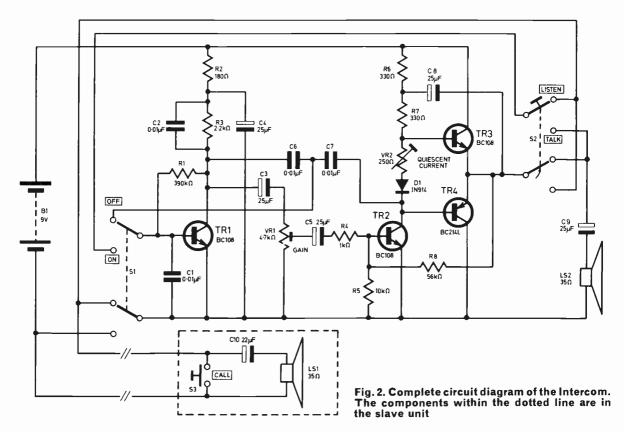
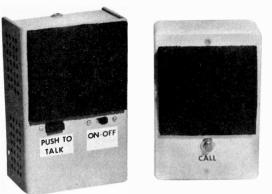


Table 1: VOLTAGE MEASUREMENTS



Photograph showing the completed Intercom

CIRCUIT DESIGN

The final circuit can be seen in Fig. 2. It will be seen that it consists of two main stages: a class A voltage amplifier comprising TR1 and associated components, and a class B output comprising TR2 to TR4. The two are linked by the gain control VR1.

Taking the input stage first we see that TR1 has simple collector-to-base bias. The collector current was chosen at 2mA and the quiescent collector voltage as 4.5V. This gives R3 = $(4.5 \div 2) k\Omega =$ $2.2k\Omega$ (nearest preferred value). Taking the typical $h_{\rm FE}$ as 200 we obtain R1 =

$$\frac{3.8 \times h_{\rm FE}}{2} {\rm k}\Omega = 390 {\rm k}\Omega$$

(nearest preferred value).

Now the input impedance of this stage is

 $h_{te} \times r_e$ where $r_e = 25/I_c = 25/2 = 12\Omega$. So typically the input impedance is $100 \times 12 = 1200\Omega$. The "microphone" has a source impedance of about 35Ω so the R_{1N} of TR1 will have very little attenuating action.

As in section 4.2 "First Steps" the gain of this stage is 180 (though this will vary since changes in $h_{\rm FE}$ will mean that the quiescent collector will not be exactly 4.5V). This gain will also be reduced by the shunting effect of the gain control and class B input impedance.

This first stage is decoupled from the supply line by C4 and R2. This prevents oscillation caused by feedback from the output stage.

Capacitors Cl and C2 prevent radio frequency pickup and eliminate the risk of high frequency oscillation.

OUTPUT STAGE

Moving now to the output stage we see that bootstrapping of TR2 collector resistor is used. This increases gain and reduces the effects of gain variations in TR3 and TR4.

The maximum output current was calculated as 75mA which, assuming a maximum $h_{\rm FE}$ of 100, means that the base current that must be supplied by TR2 is 0.75mA.

TR2 must also supply base current required to establish the quiescent current needed to overcome crossover distortion.

We do not want TR2 current to be high as this will only drain the battery and since we can stand some distortion in voice communication, a choice of 5mA TR2 collector current was made.

This gives $R6 = R7 = 3.8/2 \div 5 = 380\Omega$. In fact 330 Ω was used.

The preset VR2 must produce 0.7V at 5mA so at centre setting (where there is greatest freedom of adjustment) its resistance = $0.7/5 = 140\Omega$. A 250 Ω preset was used.

Resistors R5 and R8 form a divider chain which set the output voltage at 9/2 = 4.5V. Their ratio is about 5.5:1 which equals 3.8:0.7, 3.8V being the voltage across R8 and 0.7V across R5.

The value of R8 is made as high as possible (whilst supplying sufficient base current for TR2) since the gain of the output stage is roughly $R8/R_s$ where R_s is the source impedance of previous stages.

We now come to the choice of gain control resistance and R4. If VR1 is too high the gain of the output stage will be reduced (R_s increased); if it is too small the gain of TR1 will be reduced.

The $4.7k\Omega$ value finally chosen gives an overall gain of over 4,000. This can be reduced by means of VR1.

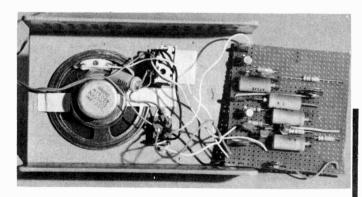
All coupling capacitors were chosen as 25μ F for convenience. At the lowest frequency of interest (in the voice about 300Hz) these have an impedance of less than 30⁽¹⁾ which is sufficient for use in all positions.

OSCILLATOR

The only components not forming part of the amplifier proper are C6 and C7. When the switch is put in the OFF position C7 is connected from the collector of TR1 to the input and C6 across R1. This causes the amplifier to produce a penetrating oscillation when the battery is connected.

The CALL button on the slave could be connected by using a third wire from the master but it is cheaper to use twin-core wire.

To overcome the problem it was found that by placing the coupling capacitor in series with the slave speaker only a tiny leakage current would flow; not enough to drive the amplifier. When this



Photograph of the component layout on the Veroboard and other components in the master unit

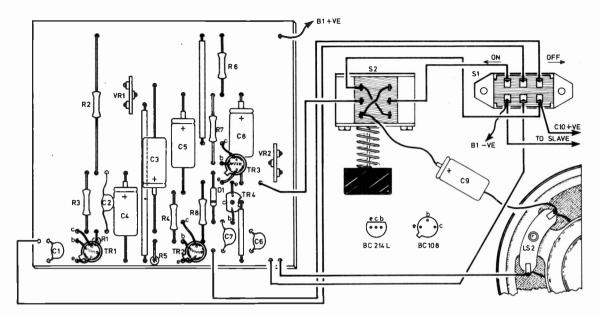


Fig. 3. Layout of the components on the Veroboard and interwiring details

was shorted out by the CALL button the amplifier would receive the full battery potential and the call tone would be produced.

A tantalum capacitor was used to reduce leakage current.

CONSTRUCTION

The amplifier was built up on a piece of Veroboard as shown in Fig. 3.

The master unit was mounted in a plastic case approximately $5in \times 3in \times 2in$ which comfortably holds Veroboard, battery, and speaker and switches.

Switch S2 was a "press-to-test" two-pole changeover type but should this prove hard to obtain a

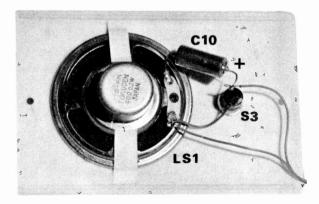


Fig. 4. Photograph showing the disposition of components within the slave unit

biased toggle could be used. An ordinary toggle could be used providing it is always left in the LISTEN position when switched OFF.

Holes were drilled for the speaker and covered with a piece of foam which generally improves the appearance.

Speaker LS1, C10 and S3 are mounted in a plastic box in the slave as shown in the photograph (Fig. 4).

Lightweight twin-core wire is used for interconnections.

Speaker impedance is not critical any value between 25Ω and 40Ω being sufficient.

Transistor type is not critical either; any transistors with a gain of 200 or more will do. Note that lead connections for a BC214L are shown in Fig. 2. If the "L" type is not obtained base and collector leads are *reversed*.

TESTING

Before testing VR2 *must* be set to minimum resistance. Set the GAIN control to about mid-way. The two units should be separated or oscillation will occur due to acoustic feedback.

VR2 is adjusted to give the minimum quiescent current consistent with low distortion. The quiescent current through TR3 and TR4 in the prototype was about 5mA. This can be simply measured by putting a milliameter in the battery lead, remembering the TR2 takes about 5mA, anything greater than this being in TR3 and TR4.

Do not turn VR2 to maximum setting for any length of time as this will damage the output transistors.

VR1 is adjusted to give enough gain without causing clipping—audible as a harshness in the output. Test the CALL facility by switching the master OFF and pressing the CALL button.

If any faults are found they can be easily located using the quiescent voltages given in Table 1. \bigstar



VARICAP TUNER TUNING INDICATOR

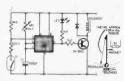
A FTER the publication of my article last May (Push-button Varicap Stereo Tuner, May 1973) 1 received many letters requesting details of a tuning indicator of some description. Criticism has been aimed at the small tuning potentio-meters used for tuning on the domestic prototypes, non-technical personnel have found tuning difficult, more so using an a.f.c. on/off switch:

Obviously with the a.f.c. on the tuning is broader than with it off due to the pull in and holding range. Multiturn potentiometers have been tried but the cost of these is around £1 each and represents a 15 per cent price increase on a complete tuper.

Recently Motorola have introducer a tuning indicator i.e., the MC1335P for f.m. and colour TV purposes. To devise a method of operation from the LP1185 was not too easy and it was necessary that it did not interfere with the a.f.c. loop and the circuit of Fig. 1 was evaluated. The MC1335P is a differential amplifier with lamp drive and the lamp illuminates when inputs 2 and 3 are balanced at the same voltage, any unbalance extinguishes the lamp.

A d.c. voltage appears at the audio output of the LP1185 which reaches a maximum on tune. This voltage varies with the signal level and may not operate on weak stations. Conversely the lamp may light if the noise level between stations is high.

The level of d.c. on tune with a good signal is about 2V. This is fed to input 3 via a blocking resistor R1 to prevent unnecessary loading of the audio. R2 is chosen tor to provide a balancing current to input 2. thus subject to tolerances the lamp will illuminate on a tuning peak providing 11 to 2V.



A selection of readers' suggested circuits. It should be emphasised that these designs have not been proven by us. They will at any rate stimulate further thought. Any idea published will be awarded payment according to its merits. Why not submit YOUR IDEA?

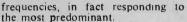
Those wishing to add this to an existing tuner should use an l.e.d. consuming very low currents as the mains transformer may not provide enough output for this and the stereo pilot lamp.

A few further words about tuner problems dealt with so far may be useful to intending constructors or those with any difficulties.

SOUND/LIGHT MODULATOR

THE three-channel light modulator circuit of Fig. 1 uses 3 BFY51's to modulate current through the secondaries of sub-miniature mains transformers. The mains sine-wave is therefore modulated in sympathy and so the voltage to the gates of

the thyristors is varied. Transformers T2, T3, T4, should all be l.t. transformers with 6.3V or 9V secondaries, and a minimum current of 250mA. Instead of having the normal treble, middle and bass, the circuit was designed to have one channel responding to any



If the a.f.c. is erratic and the noise level seems high, 58dB is not unusual with a good signal, check the following. Any a.f.c. switch wiring should be done in single

screened cable. Add extra decoup-

ling to the station selector wiring.

for example connect a 0.1µF be-

chassis on the pushbuttons. S. R. Beeching tween the common tuning line and

Transformer T1 must be a 6.3V mains transformer with a minimum rating of 2A. The bridge rectifier should be 2A 50 p.i.v. The circuit will work off amplifiers of 5 to 10W output. For using higher powers more resistance must be added in series with the bases of the transistors.

With the specified thyristors, 500W of light can be used on each terminal.

> P. R. Strutt Tibenham. Norfolk

AUDIO TO DECODER

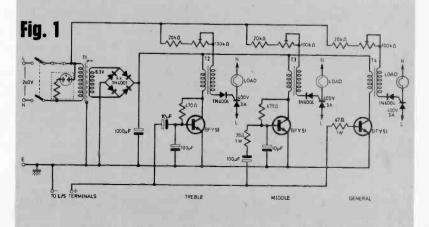
4013368

Fid. 1

Balderton

Notts

R1 22 KA



PHASING CONTROL

THE enclosed diagram Fig. 1, is for a control circuit for the Phasing Unit (Sept. 73).

Two ORP 12 photocells are wired in place of the ganged potentiometer VR2a. b. The resistance of these is then controlled by the lamp LP1 which is made to switch gradually on and off. TR1 and TR2 form a multivibrator which gives a square wave output of about 1 to 2s mark, 1 to 2s space. TR3 is used as a buffer amplifier so the pulses may be used without affecting the multivibrator.

These square pulses appearing at the collector of TR3 are allowed to charge and discharge the large capacitor C3 via the diode and resistor network D1. D2. VR3. VR4. The diodes allow separate adjustment of charge and discharge times of the capacitor, as it will charge via D1. VR3 and discharge via D2, and VR4.

The 6.8k Ω resistor R4 is to lengthen the discharge time to compensate for the load of TR4 which switches slowly on or off as the capacitor is slowly charged and discharged. The lamp LP1 is thus controlled by TR5 from the rising and falling collector current through TR4.



ELECTROTECHNOLOGY - 3rd EDITION

By M. G. Say Published by Newnes-Butterworths 176 pages, 14 × 22cm. Price cased £1.70

THIS book of basic theory and circuit calculations for electrical engineers is primarily directed to second and third year electrical engineering students but similar level students in other allied arts will find it equally of value, as will professional engineers and all others looking for a useful source of reference.

The avowed aim of the book is to present the fundamental concepts of electricity, electric and magnetic fields and basic electrotechnology in as concise a form as possible. In this it succeeds admirably with an opening chapter devoted to the various main and derived SI units, a must for all at present.

A great deal of the book is devoted to networks starting from the simplest concepts and working through to a series of examples demonstrating the solutions discussed. To anyone not too happy with this area alone the book will be useful, setting aside the value of the other reference material it contains.

R.D.R.

SETTING UP

D1 and D2 were silicon diodes

The power supply was 6V wind-

ing of a mains transformer with

half wave rectification and simple RC smoothing. A separate 9V wind-

ing, bridge rectifier and smoothing

capacitor was used to supply power

The complete unit was assembled

on Veroboard. The photocells and bulb were secured by their connect-

ing wires, and positioned so that the cells were either side of the

bulb, just touching. A small piece

of aluminium foil was glued to the

Vero and folded over the bulb as a

from the junk box, their character-

istics are not critical. LP1 is a miniature 6V "pea bulb" from a

panel indicator light.

to the phase unit itself.

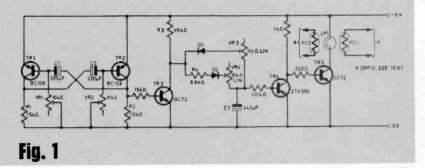
reflector.

Set VR1 and VR2 to maximum. Adjust VR3 and VR4 till the bulb is gradually but regularly brightening and darking.

Now VR1 and VR2 can be adjusted to alter the speed and ratio of the multivibrator, if necessary. Best results will be obtained when the bulb just reaches full brightness and full darkness but lingers in either state no longer than the thermal inertia of the bulb demands.

Final adjustments should be made with the unit running and music being played through it, bearing in mind that the unit can take two or three cycles to settle down after an adjustment has been made.

R. J. Goodwin Stockport



HIGH FIDELITY DESIGNS

Prepared and Published by Wireless World, IPC Business Press Ltd.

112 pages, A4 format. Price £1.00

THIS soft-backed A4 format booklet is a bound set of reprints of some of the most popular articles published in Wireless World in the last few years on the subject of Audio. Including as it does articles by such well-known names as Nelson-Jones, Bailey, Linsley-Hood, Stuart and Ockleshaw it will certainly fill the requirements of many for information on such areas as tape recording, loudspeaker design, amplifier and pre-amplifier design and so on.

In view of the problems facing many of us today in obtaining back numbers of our favourite publications or articles from those publications, any effort such as this to supply the more demanded items in bound form must meet with approval.

However, it is perhaps just a very small shame that whilst each item has been reprinted in full together with any follow-up material in both article or "Letters to the Editor" form, no real effort has been made to rationalise the texts into one cohesive unit. Thus the reader is still faced with the requirement that he read all, but all, of any particular text in order to be certain of clarifying that particular exercise.

One is forced to ask if it would not have been possible to present each article in a more unitary form. After all the only reason for the inconsistency in the first place is chronological and in a reprint this no longer matters.



Items mentioned in this feature are usually available from electronic equipment and component retailers advertising in this magazine. However, where a full address is given, enquiries and orders should then be made direct to the firm concerned. All quoted prices are those at the time of going to press.

AMPLIFIER MODULES

For the reader who likes to experiment with amplifier construction, a range of four new **Sanken** audio amplifiers, suitable for hi fi and power amplifier output stages, is available from **Armon Products Ltd**, should prove most useful.

These amplifiers are available with class B output powers of 10 to 50W r.m.s and are contained in a small flat-pack package. Coded types SI-1010G (10W), SI-1020G (20W) SI-1030G (30W) and SI-1050G (50W), the amplifiers are claimed to give $\pm \frac{1}{2}$ dB response from 20 to 100,000Hz and less than 0.5 per cent harmonic distortion at full power.

The 30 and 50W circuits have built-in current limiting and differential input stages, and feed 4 to 8 ohm output loads. The 10 and 20W versions do not have differential inputs and are for 8 ohm loads only. All four amplifiers can operate from single or split power supplies and all versions claim an input impedance of $40 k\Omega$.

supplies and all versions claim an input impedance of $40k\Omega$. The latest retail prices (time of going to press), of these amplifier modules is: 10W version £3.30 each: 20W version £6.60; 30W £8.40; and 50W version £13; all prices subject to VAT.

Full technical details and units may be obtained from Armon Products Ltd, 54 George Street, London, W.1.

COMPONENTS

Component availability is an ever-present problem for the constructor. Be he professional or amateur he always needs ready access to parts for his latest project. Thus any commercial venture which might ease the situation with a reliable and constant flow of components is to be welcomed.

The latest supply house to enter the field of small-order component business is RS Components Ltd., who have launched a companion company, **Doram Electronics Ltd**.

The new company will operate from Wellington Road Industrial Estate in Leeds on a postal basis. They expect to be able to offer not only the basic RS range of products but an extension of this range into the type of component more often used by the amateur, such as the less common values of resistor and capacitor.

The aim is to create a "by return of post" cash with order mail service for components, kits and accessories. Something in the region of 4,000 product lines will be stocked and a catalogue is now available to the customer at a charge of 25 pence including postage. There will be no minimum order charge.

It is understood that the catalogue will include information on products such as operating parameters, photographs and drawings and, where necessary, circuit details. In addition it is hoped to include kits of many of the projects published in various technical and leisure area journals as soon after their publication as possible.

Information on pricing is not available at present but it is understood that most if not all prices will bear comparison with other suppliers.

With the announcement of Doram it now seems to indicate the willingness of suppliers to acknowledge the existence of a growing market in the amateur and leisure area. Indeed, RS are not the first to show a willingness to deal in this area, several of the semiconductor distributors already accept small orders now and it is to be hoped that the trend will continue.

LITERATURE

It is at this time of the year that most readers will be taking stock of their components and searching for the new catalogue releases before ordering items for their autumn projects.

Unfortunately, this year industrial disputes, component price increases, and now VAT changes have delayed many of these catalogues appearing. Readers are advised to keep a close eye on all advertisements for latest releases and where possible price changes.

So far only the Electrovalue Catalogue No. 7 has arrived at the office. This catalogue does not contain any of the new VAT price adjustments.

This excellent catalogue contains 112 pages and lists a very large stock of i.c.s and transistors together with their case outlines, and in many cases their working parameters. Other items available vary from a fuse to complete soldering kits.

Copies of the Electrovalue No. 7 Catalogue can be obtained from: Electrovalue Ltd., 28 St. Judes Road, Englefield Green, Egham, Surrey, TW20 0HB.

As an introduction for the first time buyer of hi fi equipment, Sinclair Radionics have recently published a 12-page booklet entitled "The Sinclair Introduction to Hi Fi". The object of the booklet, apart from advertising the well known range of Sinclair products, is to help unravel the often baffling technical terms thrown at the would be purchaser by salesmen.

The booklet is divided into five sections starting with a page devoted to a simple explanation of the difference between hi fi and stereo. Subsequent sections cover what equipment is needed and how much will it cost?, where to locate the equipment, and can the equipment be built? The final part of the booklet is an alphabetical glossary of the 20 most common words and phrases used to describe hi fi equipment.

Copies of the free booklet are available from your local hi fi dealer or direct from Sinclair Radionics Ltd., Hi Fi Division, London Road, St. Ives, Huntingdonshire, PE17 4HJ.

Also just released is the new Heathkit Catalogue. This 64-page catalogue is claimed to contain details of the world's largest range of electronic kits, many available for the first time in this country.

This comprehensive catalogue talks about kit building and lists kits ranging from a large selection of audio equipment, electronic calculators, digital clocks, thermometers, an ultrasonic burglar alarm, to a large range of test gear for the home and car.

New kits include an f.m. tuner with digital readout and "computer tuner", a 4-channel SQ amplifier and a digital electronic clock with alarm.

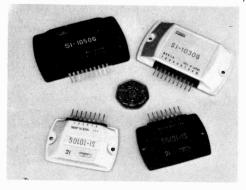
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PRINTED CIRCUIT BOARD SERVICE

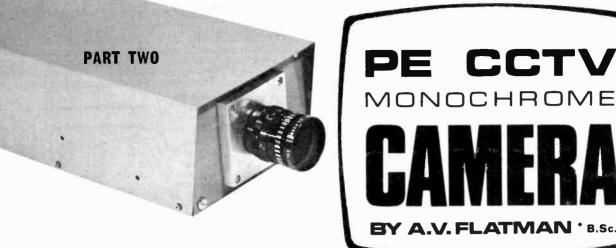
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Sanken amplifiers from Armon Products



Practical Electronics October 1974



Ideally suited for :

HIS month we give constructional details for the composite video signal circuitry together with the remaining power supplies and scanning circuits.

P.C.B. 1

The printed circuit board P.C.B. 1 is designed to hold the Master Logic, Video Amplifier, Sync Mixer and Cathode Switch circuits and is shown in Fig. 2.2. Component placement is detailed in Fig. 2.1. Due to the high packaging density of parts on the board area it is somewhat unfortunate that a series of wire links have had to be made to complete the circuitry. For reasons of economy these are preferred rather than a double-sided board.

VIDICON SCANNING

The EMI 9677 Vidicon is manufactured to close tolerances and is therefore quoted as being "selfcentring". This statement simply means that the electron beam will be accurately focused onto the centre of the photoconductive target in the absence of any deflection force. Self-centring Vidicons are indeed convenient when considering the design of

* Home Entertainment * Lecturing * Remote Monitoring * Surveillance

* B.Sc.

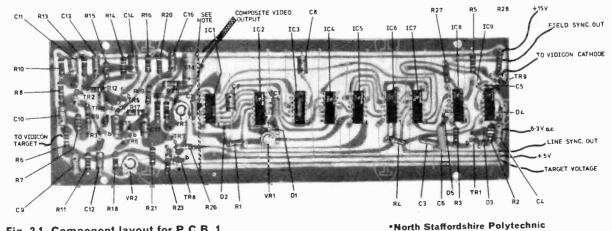
suitable deflection systems, as no centring adjustment is necessary.

Deflection of the electron beam relies upon the force produced by a magnetic field. In practice, this is implemented by the use of two pairs of coils, situated outside the Vidicon tube, to provide radial fields (outward from the tube axis) at right-angles to one another. Horizontal and vertical beam deflection distances are then governed by the current passed through each pair of coils.

In TV terminology, coils concerned with vertical deflection are known as field scan coils, whilst coils concerned with horizontal deflection are called line scan coils. As highly inductive coils generally resist the passage of high frequency currents, the line scan coils are designed to possess low inductance. This design aspect enables the high line scanning velocity we require. The field scanning velocity is, however, less demanding, and proportionately higher inductance field scan coils may be used.

LINE GENERATOR

The simplest technique of producing the linear sawtooth current waveform necessary to scan an





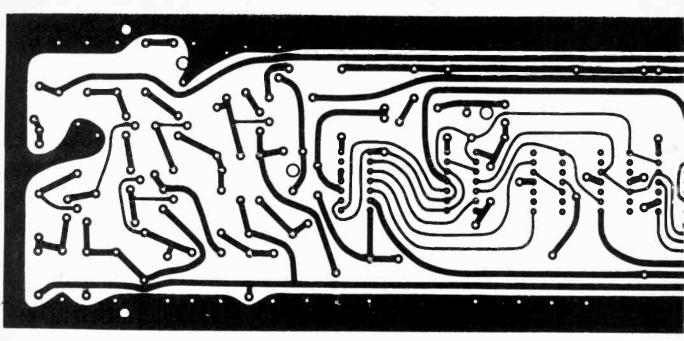


Fig. 2.2. P.C.B. 1 copper side conductor pattern

active line and flyback is to apply a voltage step to the line scan coils. This stems from the integrating property of an inductor, which is expressed as—

Coil current = $-\int \frac{1}{L} V dt$, where L is the scan coil inductance and V is the applied voltage.

In simple terms, if a d.c. potential is applied to a coil, then the current in that coil is initially zero and will increase linearly with time, reaching saturation at V/R amps, where V is the applied potential and R the d.c. resistance of the coil.

Let us now examine the operation of the Line Generator circuit, shown in Fig. 2.3, with the help of the waveforms shown in Fig. 2.4.

Line sync pulses are used to drive TR10 as a current switch, allowing drive current derived by R30 to be sinked to earth for the duration of the line sync pulse, and into the base of TR11 in the absence of line sync pulses.

The leading edge of the line sync pulse marks the completion of an active line scan and initiates a flyback. Now TR11 is switched off in the presence of line sync pulses, causing the current in the scan

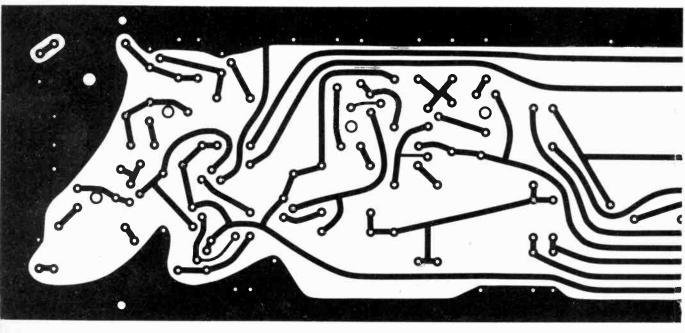
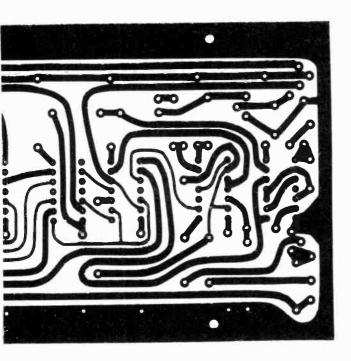


Fig. 2.11. P.C.B. 2 copper side conductor pattern



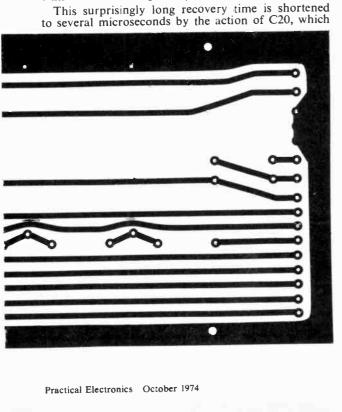
coils to collapse freely, the time required to do this may be calculated as being---

$$t = \frac{L}{R}$$
 seconds.

Where L and R are the inductive and resistive components of the coils.

t then becomes $\frac{1\text{mH}}{2.6\Omega}$, or 400μ S (equivalent to about

6 lines of a 625-line picture).



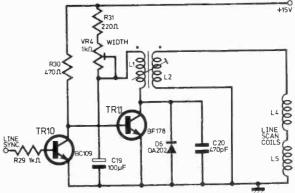


Fig. 2.3. Circuit of Line Generator

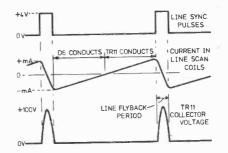


Fig. 2.4. Line Generator waveforms

acts with the circuit inductors to give a criticallydamped oscillation at a frequency of approximately 200kHz. The current is in fact returned to its starting level within one cycle of the frequency of oscillation.

The back emf induced by this rapid flyback may be estimated from Lenz's Law to be of the order of 100 volts above the working collector voltage of TR11. This feature obviously then has some bearing upon the choice of TR11.

When the line sync pulse has ended, and its level fallen to 0V, TR11 will be biased to conduct. However, at this point in time, the current flowing in the line scan coils will be negative and TR11 conduction is impossible. Alternatively, D6 will conduct to enable a controlled potential to be developed across L1. The current in L1 will increase linearly with time until it crosses the zero axis, where TR11 will take over conduction as D6 becomes reversebiased for the remainder of the line scan. In this way, conduction is achieved over the required period of time.

CURRENT GRADIENT

The gradient of the current waveform, or the line scanning width, is determined by the potential developed across L1 during the conduction of D6 and TR11. This potential is set by the combination of R31 and VR4, and is given a signal earth by C19 to ensure that the scanning current is devoted wholly to L1.

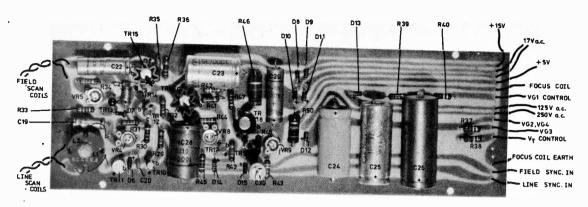
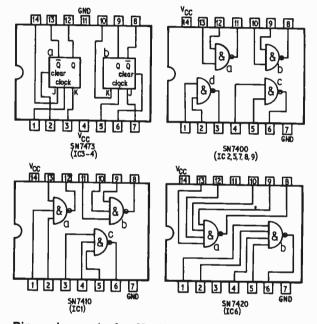


Fig. 2.12. Component layout for P.C.B. 2. Note that VG1, VG2, etc., refer to the grids on the Vidicon tube (See Fig. 1.5)



Pin assignments for Master Logic i.c.s given in Part 1

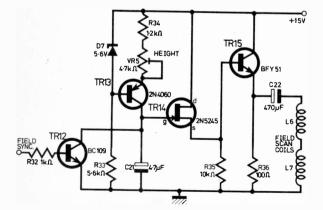


Fig. 2.5. Circuit of Field Generator

The transformer comprising L1 and L2 is designed to match the low impedance line scan coils to the line drive transistor TR11, and are wound on a ferrite core to ensure efficient operation at working line frequencies of up to 15.625kHz (625 lines at 25 times per second).

As conduction for 50 per cent of the active line scan is performed solely by D6, the apparent efficiency of the line drive transistor TR11 is increased. A BF178, video transistor is employed in the line drive stage to cater for the large e.m.f.s induced within the scan coils and deliver sufficient power to enable the required beam deflection. The use of diode D6 is a generally accepted technique in the television circuitry world, and, for obvious reasons, carries the title of efficiency diode.

FIELD GENERATOR

As the field scanning rate is as low as 50 fields/ second, no difficulties are experienced in driving the field scan coils. The field scan coils have 52mH inductance and 150 ohms resistance and may therefore be safely considered as a resistive load to a voltage waveform generator. Such a circuit and its relevant waveforms are shown in Figs. 2.5 and 2.6 respectively.

Switch TR12 is non conducting in the absence of field sync pulses and capacitor C21 is allowed to charge via the constant current generator, comprising TR13 and associated components. The potential across C21 during charging will rise linearly with time until the arrival of a field sync pulse, when

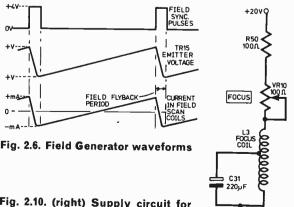
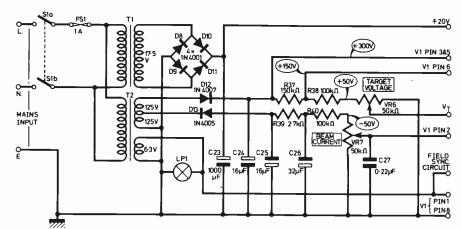


Fig. 2.10. (right) Supply circuit for focus coil

111

Fig. 2.7. Power supply circuit for camera. Transformer T2 provides high potentials for the Vidicon tube



switch TR12 will conduct to rapidly discharge C21. Active field scanning corresponds to the charging of C21, whilst flyback corresponds to the rapid discharge.

The directly coupled f.e.t. TR14 acts as a high input impedance source follower and develops an exact replica of the charging potential across its load, R35. This sawtooth waveform is finally buffered into a low impedance output impedance by the emitter follower, TR15 and R36.

The voltage waveform present at TR15 emitters (Fig. 2.6) is seen to have only a positive going sense. This is not yet suitable to drive the field scan coils, as drive requirements call for a sawtooth waveform which is symmetrical about the zero axis. Coupling the output voltage to the field scan coils via C22 will perform the necessary level shifting and enable the field scan coils to be driven correctly.

As field scanning time and C21 are fixed, the gradient of the resultant waveform depends solely upon the current delivered by the constant current source. Field height adjustment is therefore simply accommodated by VR5.

VIDICON SUPPLIES

All the high potentials required to operate the Vidicon are derived from transformer T2 (Fig. 2.7). Positive mesh, wall anode, limiter anode and target potentials are obtained from different points of the + 300V potential divider, comprising R37, R38 and VR6. Sufficient smoothing is made possible by C24 alone.

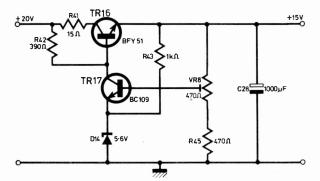


Fig. 2.8. 15V Regulator circuit

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The beam current control potential must be negative and possess a greater degree of smoothing due to the sensitive nature of the control grid electrode. This supply is derived via D13 and smoothed by a π filter.

Both the + 15V and + 5V Regulator circuits (Figs. 2.8, 2.9) are standard series voltage regulators with the possible exception of R41 and R46.

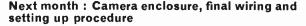
These resistors are designed to share the power dissipation demands of the control devices TR16 and TR18, and introduce a maximum current availability to the TV Camera circuitry.

The BFY51's used in both Regulators operate near their region of maximum power and therefore require additional cooling. Small, clip-on heatsinks are found to cool these devices sufficiently, whilst maintaining the general compactness of component layout.

A d.c. focus coil current of approximately 100mA is made available from the unregulated 20V supply by the combination of R50 and VR10. Due to the possible high power dissipation, the potentiometer should carry a 1 watt rating (Fig. 2.10).

P.C.B. 2

The second printed circuit board, P.C.B.2 (Fig. 2.11) is designed to hold the electronic circuitry required to complete our TV Camera System—the line and frame generators and various power supply circuits. Component disposition for the board is shown in Fig. 2.12.



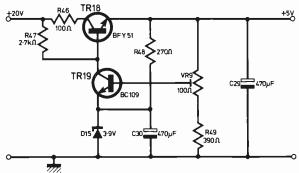


Fig. 2.9. 5V Regulator circuit



A VOLTAGE controlled filter can be used to alter dramatically the tonal quality of any sound put through it. It does this by removing some parts of the frequency spectrum and boosting others.

The filter to be described was specifically designed for use in a synthesiser but it can also be used for guitar treatment or in modifying any audio signal not necessarily electronic in origin. It is basically a low-pass filter, the frequency of which can be voltage controlled.

LADDER FILTER

The heart of the filter is a ladder of diodes D3 to D16 in the collectors of the differential pair TR2 and TR3 (Fig. 1). This arrangement is popular with commercial synthesisers because it is efficient and has a very wide range.

Ignoring the feedback for the moment, the signal enters via C1 and TR2 and tries to make its way up the ladder. If it is a high frequency, the reactance of the capacitors C2 to C5 is small in comparison with the dynamic resistance of the diodes and it is lost after four stages of filtering. If it is a low frequency, however, it can climb the ladder with relatively little attenuation. The actual cut-off frequency is that at which the reactance of the capacitors equals the dynamic resistance of the diode. This can be changed over a very wide range by controlling the current through the ladder, which changes the dynamic resistance of the diodes. The current through the ladder is proportional to its cut-off frequency.

LOGARITHMIC FREQUENCY CONTROL

For musical purposes a logarithmic function is required so that a voltage change at the input corresponds to a musical interval change in cut-off frequency. Use is made of the logarithmic properties of TR4 where the log of the collector current is proportional to V_{BE} . It is also temperature sensitive but, unlike oscillators where stability is very important, no temperature compensation has been found necessary. However, if this circuit is used with the P.E. Synthesiser keyboard, there is a spare temperature stabilised transistor, Q3, in the ML3046P IC, which may be used as TR4, see Figs. 10.2 and 10.6, November 1973, PRACTICAL ELECTRONICS.

SPECIFICAT	TION
Frequency Range	100Hz to 5kHz
Input Required	Up to 2V, peak-to-peak. Limited at lower end by noise at about 50mV
Power Requirements	±15V
Inputs	Control, virtual earth and voltage. Full control swing obtainable with $\pm 2V$ with $2.7k\Omega$ in virtual earth input
Gain	Approx. 1
Output Impedance	0 to 5kΩ
Input Impedance	About 2kΩ

RESPONSE

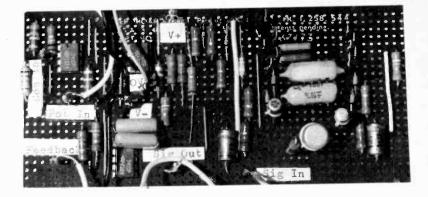
The response control VR3 in the feedback loop of IC3 has the effect of changing the characteristics of the filter from low-pass, when fully anticlockwise, to low-pass with a peaking response at the cut-off frequency. Turning it fully clockwise forces the filter into oscillation.

VIRTUAL EARTH MIXING

The control signal is processed by IC1 and IC2 to give a virtual earth at the control input. This is very useful as it enables any number of control voltages to be mixed in without any interaction. This is a current input and all voltages must be fed in via a resistor R23, the value of which determines their individual gain.

The manual frequency control voltage is fed via R23 into this input and is mixed with any external control voltages.

If a patchboard is being used, the virtual earth is connected to the filter control input busbar and Photograph of board assembly



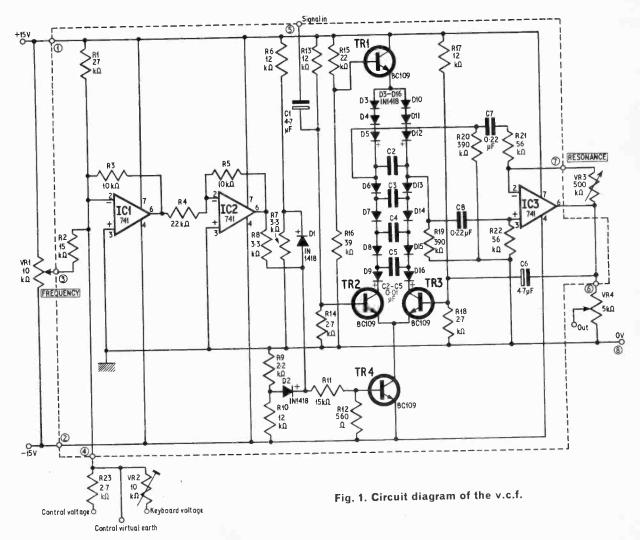
the $2.7k\Omega$ resistor is contained in the patchpin so that many inputs can be mixed without interaction.

USE WITH A SYNTHESISER

If the filter is used with a keyboard the note voltage, as well as going to the oscillators, should

go to the filter. If it did not, the higher harmonics of higher notes would be lost and low notes would have more harmonics present.

The preset VR2 $a\bar{d}justing$ how much effect the note voltage has on the filter should be set so that one octave on the keyboard shifts the filter frequency by an octave.



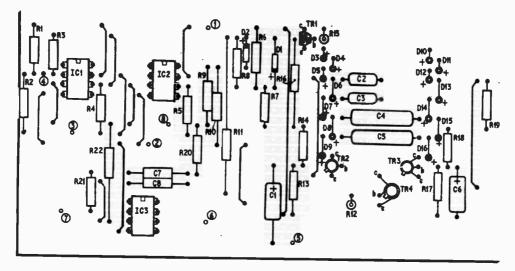


Fig. 2. Details of Veroboard component layout and copper track breaks required

This need not be too precise and is most easily set by ear, listening for the same harmonic structure for both low and high notes. The value of VR2, nominally $10k\Omega$, may need to be changed depending on the keyboard arrangement with which it is used.

CONTROL INPUT

Putting the trapezoid output of an envelope into the control input produces the typical "Moog sound" when the filter is given an input rich in harmonics

COMPONENTS ...

R3 R4 R5 R6 R7 R8	27kΩ 15kΩ 10kΩ 22kΩ 10kΩ 12kΩ 3-3kΩ	R10 R11 R12 R13 R14 R15	2·2k Ω 12kΩ 15kΩ 560 Ω 12kΩ 2·7kΩ 22kΩ 39kΩ	R18 R19 R20 R21 R22	12kΩ 2·7kΩ 390kΩ 390kΩ 56kΩ 56kΩ 2·7kΩ
VR1 VR2 VR3	iometers 10kΩ lin 10kΩ pre 500kΩ lin 5kΩ log				
Capaci C1 C2 to C6 C7 to	4·7μF 5 0·01μI 4·7μF	= (4 of 10V e	electrolyt		
IC1 to D1 to TR1 to		-pin) (8 or e	quivalent	t (16 off)	
	aneous loard 2½in	× 5in	, wire, so	older, etc	c.

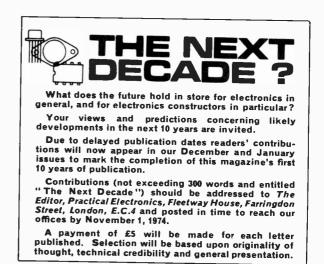
such as a square or pulse waveform. The sound is even brighter when there are two square waves either in unison or an octave apart.

As the filter cuts out all sound when the cut-off frequency is below the lowest frequency present in the input, it can be used between the oscillators and the output, without a v.c.a., and it is completely silent during pauses.

Other possible control inputs are slow-running oscillators of any waveform. This produces effects from an automatic Waa-Waa at 5Hz, to a bubbling sound with several oscillators at about 20Hz. When the control frequency is in the audio range, modulation effects are produced.

CONSTRUCTION

In the prototype Veroboard was used and a layout and cutting diagram is supplied in Fig. 2. All components shown outside the dotted area of Fig. 1 should be mounted, ideally, on a control panel.





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HYBRID MMMMM

BY D.AL-DABASS*

To many the computer is still a source of mystery, a box which magically produces information from facts fed into it. This series should dispel much of the haze which exists particularly in that area dealing with the hybrid, the marriage of the digital and analogue machine

C OMPUTERS are now a firmly fixed part of our way of life and whilst most people still tend to associate them with the issue of gas bills and things economic there is in fact a massive area of technology in which they are used to great advantage both for basic design and in research.

Indeed, in these areas the computer forms a very important tool since it can, in its various forms, take over both much of the tedium of lengthy mathematical operations and provide hypothetical models of an engineering design without the labour of actually building the equipment.

ANALOGUE AND DIGITAL

There are two basic types of computer or computing machine, the digital version which tends to have massive powers as a "Number crunching" device. That is, it is capable of dealing with endless mathematical activities such as addition or subtraction and, through these, multiplication or division, which would normally be totally beyond a man's ability simply because of the sheer time-consuming work involved.

The second sort of machine is the analogue device which, whilst not at all as apparently complex as the digital machine, is in fact capable of carrying out very complex abstract mathematical functions with the aid of the now fairly well accepted operational amplifier. Whilst an analogue machine is not anything like as powerful as a digital in terms of sheer numbers it does have distinct advantages in cost and flexibility terms.

Of course, with the advent of the integrated circuit and the extension of this art into the realms of large scale integration some of the mathematical functions can be handled quite easily in digital terms but the cost is still high and often flexibility is lacking.

*North Staffordshire Polytechnic

IN APPLICATION

For example, a car manufacturer embarking on the production of a new suspension system might wish to study the behaviour of his system prior to finalisation of engineering plans. A set of differential equations representing his suspension system can be set up on a computer and then the behaviour studied in terms of the spring and shock-absorber parameters as well as varying road surface conditions and load. Optimum spring stiffness and absorber damping are then determined before committing material and labour to the actual manufacturing of the system.

The suitability of the analogue computer to simulate the sets of differential equations needed in this sort of work stems from the inherent characteristics of the operational amplifier, the heart of the general purpose analogue computer. These characteristics are represented by the ease with which the operational amplifier can be made to perform mathematical integration, function generation and summation of quantities represented by voltage potential and current.

Fig. 1.1 shows the operational amplifier used in three applications; summing, integration and function generation.

The general purpose analogue computer contains many hundreds of these amplifiers allocated to dedicated units, e.g. summers, integrators, multipliers, function generators, and so on. In order to simulate a given equation, the outputs and inputs of these units are suitably interconnected, as for example in Fig. 1.2 which shows a typical set-up for a second order differential equation.

To assist the engineer in his study of the system the output at various stages of the solution may be displayed on a CRT or recorded on a X-Y recorder.

In this way a continuous display can be obtained by iterating the solution between an initial conditions mode and a compute mode using a suitable timer to switch all amplifiers to their initial state after the solution has run for a preset time interval. The solution is then started all over again and the whole cycle repeated to generate a continuous display.

The displayed parameters of any simulated system are related to actual system parameters by use of

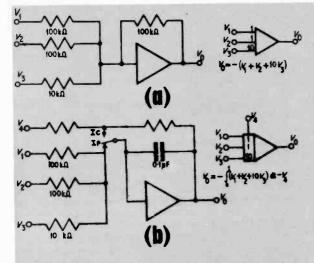
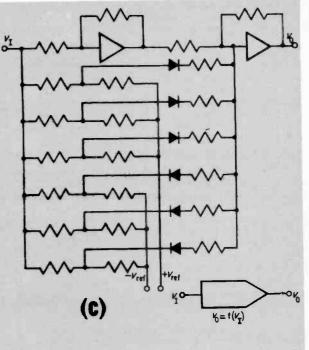


Fig. 1.1. The operational amplifier used in various functional elements in analogue computation showing typical circuit arrangements and the corresponding analogue symbols. (a) is a summing unit which is capable of adding V1, V2 and 10V3, (b) is an integration unit and (c) diode function generator



scaling factors worked out prior to setting up the equations on the computer. This enables the engineer to quickly convert computer units to physical units.

DIGITAL SIMULATION

The simulation of differential equations using a digital computer differ both in concept and implementation from analogue methods. While the analogue computer utilises the natural ability of the operational amplifier to perform mathematical integration, the digital computer depends on numerical analysis techniques in breaking down the integration into a series of simple steps using the basic arithmetic operations of addition and multiplication.

A large number of numerical formulae are available for this purpose ranging from the well known Runge-Kutta to predictor-corrector, and extrapolation methods. These formulae can either be programmed by the engineer using a high level language such as Fortran, or may form a permanent feature of a language specifically written for simulation such as the XDS SL1, and Simulation Council CSSL.

In both cases, however, the engineer has to write a programme to handle his own specific problem, such as the setting up of initial conditions, the listing of output results, changing parameters between runs, etc.

THE ANALOGUE MACHINE

Perhaps the most outstanding features of the general purpose analogue computer stem from its natural ability to perform integration as well as its inherent parallel nature. These two basic features combine to yield a multitude of advantages that has always given the analogue computer an edge over the general purpose digital computer in the simulation of differential equations. These advantages may be divided into two categories, namely operational and technical.

In the first category fall such advantages as those pertinent to the problem-solving designer. Perhaps the most obvious of these is the ease of interaction between problem and designer giving the latter a direct insight into the problem.

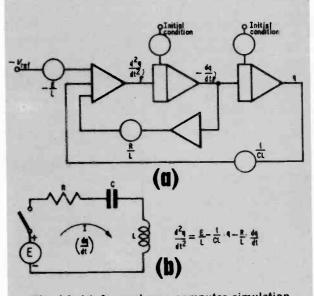


Fig. 1.2. (a) An analogue computer simulation of the second order LCR circuit shown at (b)

The form of presentation of results gives the engineer a direct contact with the problem behaviour, enabling him to thoroughly investigate the system for a wide range of parameter values, and initial conditions.

Other features include ease of programming which mainly consist of substituting analogue computing elements, such as integrators, multipliers, etc. for corresponding elements of the system under study. This usually entails providing analogue elements whose transfer characteristics are analogous to those of the physical system.

HARDWARE INVOLVEMENT

This feature easily facilitates the inclusion of some of the actual system hardware in the simulation to enable a more accurate estimation of the overall system behaviour.

The main advantage of the analogue computer, however, is its speed of operation. Due to its parallel nature of operation, complexity of simulated equations has little or no effect on the time required to obtain the solution.

This enables the computer to handle non-linear and time-varying equations just as easily as linear equations, any added function complexity being tackled by additional computing elements. The significance of this advantage cannot be over emphasised particularly in simulations requiring real-time operations such as in aircraft and space vehicle pilot trainers.

ANALOGUE LIMITATIONS

Like any other machine, the analogue computer has many limitations. The most obvious of these is the level of accuracy achievable in obtaining the solution to a differential equation. This limitation stems from the combined effect of two reasons, the first being the manufacturing tolerances of the basic components used in the design of the analogue computing elements such as resistors, capacitors, and the like.

Although big advances have been made in recent years in the design and manufacture of these components in an effort to minimise the uncertainty in their values, the combined effect of the large number of these components that are required to make each individual analogue computing element have not been greatly reduced.

As a result linear computing elements such as summers and integrators have an accuracy of the order of 0.01 per cent, while those exhibiting nonlinear characteristics such as multipliers, square root elements and diode function generators have at best an accuracy of some 0.1 per cent of full scale.

NOISE

The second factor affecting accuracy is that of noise in electronic elements. No component in the analogue computing world whether passive or active escapes this plague. Advances in the design and manufacture of units have nevertheless managed to reduce the overall effect of uncertainty due to noise to a level compatible with that due to manufacturing tolerances of the values of these components.

As a result it is now possible to resolve voltages down to a level of 0.01 per cent of full scale. This level, however, is only sufficient to give a dynamic range of four decades for the system variables. For systems requiring more accuracy analogue computers are obviously inadequate. This applies equally well for time scales, resulting in a limitation on the dynamic range of the frequency domain to some three or four decades at the most. Due to these limitations the problem of scaling the variables in voltage and time becomes very important indeed. This is particularly so where the magnitudes of the variable vary greatly from one stage to another.

,

In large systems this requires a great deal of time and effort in the formulation and checking of scale factor to obtain the best possible accuracy out of the computing units.

Another group of limitations of analogue computers includes the storage of intermediate results between runs. Simulation of long time delays and generation of functions of more than one variable are very tedious to implement and plagued by the usual limitation in accuracy and available computing units.

But perhaps the most serious limitation of all is the analogue system's inability to carry out complicated chains of logical decisions and parameter modifications which are required in many aspects of computation in simulation and optimisation.

THE DIGITAL MACHINE

The multitude of advantages associated with the general purpose digital computer can be traced back to two basic features that characterise these machines. The first of these is of course its digital nature which leads directly to the fact that the accuracy of variables expressed within the computer is not so much a function of the electronic hardware tolerances but rather the number of bits used to define the variable. A twenty-four bit word will yield an accuracy of some 10^{-5} per cent of full scale, while a thirty-two bit word gives an accuracy of the order of 10^{-7} per cent. Accuracies of this order are beyond present and foreseeable future generations of analogue computers.

One common form of expressing quantities in a digital computer is that of floating-point arithmetic. This form enables quantities greatly varying in magnitude (the range 10^{-100} to 10^{+99} is usually taken as standard) to be expressed in the same high order of accuracy mentioned above throughout the range. This eliminates one of the most tedious and time consuming operations associated with analogue computers, namely that of scaling factors.

The second group of advantages stems from the stored-programme nature of digital machines. Many thousands of words of data and instructions can be stored indefinitely and subsequently called when and where necessary.

This gives the digital computer, perhaps above all, the flexibility to execute long and complicated chains of instructions to perform hundreds of mathematical and logical tasks.

As far as the simulation of engineering and scientific systems is concerned a number of benefits are directly evident from these features. Numerical and logical data can be memorized indefinitely over many simulation runs and used to alter parts of the system or switch from one set of parameters to another.

Furthermore the limit on the amount of stored data is very large indeed enabling a great multitude of results to be stored for subsequent calculations and analysis which can be carried out by an additional programme written, for example, to sieve through these results to find an optimum set of parameters for a given set of conditions.

The storage capability is also very useful in generating pure delays of signals over precisely controlled durations needed in the simulation of, say, communication lines.

DIGITAL LIMITATIONS

Like the analogue computer, the general purpose digital computer suffers from a number of limitations in the simulation of dynamic systems.

These can be divided into two categories, operational and technical. The first of these include those factors pertinent to the problem designer such as programming techniques and the form of communication with the problem. These two features have always formed in one way or another a barrier between the problem and the designer that have come to characterise the use of digital computers in simulation.

The range of programming techniques is very wide and covers machine code and assembly languages, high level scientific languages (such as Fortran), high level simulation languages (such as CSSL) and more recently special purpose languages for interpreting block diagrams representing the problem into one of the other high level languages.

This last technique represents perhaps the closest the digital computer will ever come to replacing the operational convenience of the analogue computer.

ON- AND OFF-LINE

The second feature of the operational limitations of the digital computer is that of the form of communication between the designer and his problem. This can either be in the "off-line" mode, or the "online" mode.

As the title indicates, in the off-line mode the designer is almost completely divorced from the way in which the problem is actually run on the computer. The designer prepares the problem in the form of a flowchart or a program, which he then passes to the data processing staff, who then run his program and return the results in the form of a printed program listing. As the turn-round time in this process can be of the order of 24 hours any additional insight into the problem that is usually gained by working with analogue computers is completely lost in this case. Moreover the ease with which the response to parameter variation is observed using analogue computers is non-existent in this mode of simulation.

In the on-line mode of simulation, however, these limitations are greatly reduced as the designer is able to feed the problem into the computer and get his results back within a few minutes. This is usually carried out using a tele-typewriter, and in computers used specifically for simulation, a graph plotter and a CRT. Perhaps the most advanced form of communication is that where the designer defines his problem on the CRT (using a light pen) in the form of block diagram representation of the system to be simulated.

THE SPEED FACTOR

The second group of limitations associated with digital computers stem from the speed limitation of this machine. Two causes are generally taken to attribute to this.

The first is that the digital computer is a serial

machine only capable of executing one instruction at a time. Secondly it is only able to perform a very limited number of arithmetic operations, typically addition and multiplication.

This latter feature means that integration, differentiation and function generation $(\sin x, \log x, \text{ etc.})$ must be performed using numerical techniques which break down these functions into a long and time consuming chain of simple addition and multiplication. This is made even worse by the serial nature of the machine limiting it to perform one addition or multiplication at a time.

Furthermore, numerical techniques such as integration formulae have their own weaknesses, particularly as far as the stability of the solution is concerned. In general this means that small integration step sizes have to be used to ensure stability, leading to a substantial increase in total computation time.

THE HYBRID MACHINE

It should be evident from the foregoing that some form of combination should be possible that will enhance the advantages and reduce the limitations.

The major advantages of analogue machines are ease of interaction with the designer, ease of integrating actual system hardware in the simulation and finally speed.

Those of the digital machine are ease of performing logical and mathematical operations and accuracy.

Perhaps the most obvious justification for hybrid computers is that of combining the speed of the analogue with the accuracy of the digital computer. This situation often arises where the system to be simulated can be partitioned into fast dynamic equations requiring moderate accuracies, and slow response equations requiring very high accuracy.

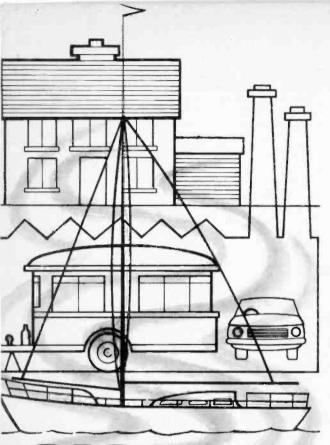
Another justification exists where the performance of a part of the actual system hardware is to be studied. The autopilot of an aircraft, for example, can be connected to the set of aircraft dynamics equations patched on the analogue part of a hybrid computer system.

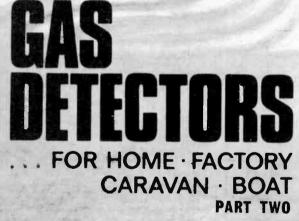
The flexibility of the digital computer in performing logical and mathematical operations is valuable, particularly in cases where the modest accuracy of the analogue machine is sufficient but a more elaborate control procedure is required. Optimisation is one area where this is so

The car suspension example mentioned earlier is typical, where the differential equation representing the suspension is set up on the analogue computer while the digital computer may be programmed to optimise the spring stiffness, the shock absorber damping factor, and friction coefficient to produce the most comfortable ride in terms of the amplitude and frequency of bounce.

Other motivations for hybrid computers include those where a high speed analogue sub routine is used in an essentially digital simulation. Partial differential equations representing chemical reactions and transmissions lines may be solved using this technique. Finally, in telemetry applications where signals come both in analogue and digital forms, and high speed processing is required, both analogue and digital computers are used to process the data simultaneously.

Next month: Hybrid computing systems





By J. C. PERRETT

Several circuit variations using stateof-the-art catalytic gas/smoke detectors to indicate the presence of such dangerous materials as methane, propane or butane



LAST month we described a mains and portable version of the gas detectors. This month we continue with the details of a boat/caravan version, and the setting up procedure for all units.

The circuit of Fig. 9 has been designed for boats, where protection is required in more than one place. For example a sensor is necessary where Calor gas is used, usually in the galley, and protection is also required in the engine room where a petrol leak or carbon monoxide might be present. The unit has been designed so that the alarm may be placed remote from the sensors, perhaps on the bridge or in a cabin.

Here only one alarm is used, common to both sensors. This may be a bell or horn. Also fitted to the control unit are two lamps which indicate which sensor is activating the alarm.

STAND-BY

Whilst the detector is warming it assumes a low impedance state which will cause the alarm to sound. To prevent this during the warming period a "standby" switch S2 is fitted which removes the supply from the alarm and also lights a warning lamp as a reminder that the alarm is turned off. The warming period takes approximately 2 to 3 minutes.

An additional circuit has been added to monitor the functioning of the chopper supply. Signals are sampled at the collector of TR4 by passing a portion of waveform through C5, $1,000\mu$ F, and d.c. restoring the a.c. coupled waveform. The resulting waveform is applied to an l.e.d., LP4 and as long as the circuit functions LP4 remains alight. This is only capable of "Go-No Go" information about the chopper supply.

The circuit, wired for use from 12V batteries, will accept inputs which extend up to 17V. This is necessary as some large batteries may well reach 15V when undergoing strong charging, particularly from alternators. At the other extreme the device will continue working with the battery voltage falling to 10V, the sensitivity only reducing slightly. In fact tests show the oscillator continues running until the supply falls below 4V.

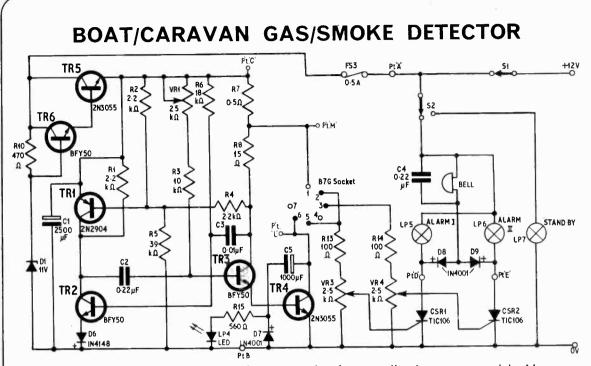


Fig. 9. Circuit diagram of the boat/caravan system incorporating two sensors and double indication of alarm

Resistors

- 2·2kΩ **R1**
- R2 2·2kΩ R3 10k Ω for 12V supply, 22k Ω for 24V supply
- **R**4 2·2kΩ
- **R**5 $39k\Omega$
- R6 $18k\Omega$
- 0·5Ω 4W **R**7
- **R**8 15Ω
- 470 Ω for 12V supply, 1k Ω for 24V supply R10
- R13 100Ω
- 1000 R14
- R15 560Ω

All 1/2 W unless otherwise specified

Potentiometers

- VR1 25kΩ pre-set VR3 2·5kΩ pre-set
- VR4 2.5kΩ pre-set

Capacitors

C1	2,500µF, 25V
C2	0.22µF, C280
C3	0.01µF, C280
C4	0·22µF

C5 1,000µF, 16V

Diodes

D1 11V, 400mW Zener for 12V supply, 15V 400mW for 24V supply

012055

TDA

- D6 1N4148
- 1N4001 D7
- D8 1N4001 D9 1N4001

Transistors 010004

1.17.1	2142904	1 134	2143033
TR2	BFY50	TR5	2N3055
TR3	BFY50	TR6	BFY50

STATIONS 182 Lend resistance \sim A1 2 07 30 5 Ь 87G PLUG to GDI PC BOARD 07 Lead resistance **4**o 50 A2 2 30 07 40 5 GD2 **B7G VALVE BASES**

Fig. 10. Details of interwiring between external sensors at stations I and II and the B7G plug engaging with the board mounted socket of Fig. 7 (last month)

Thyristors CSR1 TIC 106 CSR2 TIC 106

Lamps

LP4 Light emitting diode

LP5 12V bulb and SL90 holder LP6 12V bulb and SL90 holder

- LP7 12V bulb and SL90 holder

Miscellaneous

GD1 TGS 308 and holder GD2 TGS 308 and holder

- S1 SPDT on/off switch

SPDT change-over switch S2 Alarm bell or Klaxon; 4 test resistors, 1.8Ω ¹/₈W; case; p.c. board; fuses and holders; B7G plug and socket, tag strips, wire, etc.

However, under approximately 6V current does tend to rise quite quickly.

It is therefore not advisable to test the circuit by slowly increasing the supply from zero on a bench supply. When wired for 24V operation, with the component changes noted in the parts list, the unit will function between the limits of 16 to 32V.

TWO-STATION UNIT

The p.c.b. for the circuit of Fig. 9 is the same as for the last unit. However, a few component changes are required.

C1 should be increased to $2,500\mu$ F and the sensitivity controls VR3 and VR4 are pre-set and fitted to the p.c.b. Note that for full sensitivity VR3 must be set fully anti-clockwise and VR4 fully clockwise. Extension lead resistance must be kept negligible at 0.5Ω max. total resistance of the two wires used for heater connection per station, and both sensors. There are tolerances on the heater elements and if there are differences in lead resistance the sensors may be changed between stations to help balance the circuit. The highest resistance heater should be placed in the circuit with the shortest cable run.

The circuit of Fig. 10 shows details of the wiring for the double detector system of Fig. 9.

SETTING UP UNITS

After a careful inspection of all wiring for the circuit of Fig. 4 (last month), a 1.8Ω CR25 $\frac{1}{8}$ W resistor should be fitted in the place of the heater (pins 1 and 6 of valve base). An ammeter (1A range) should be connected between point A of the board and battery +ve. Several test and connection points on the board have been lettered for convenience. Set VR1 fully clockwise, turn on the battery supply by moving the selector switch to position 2. If the l.e.d. circuit has been included it should immediately light.

Now move VR1 anti-clockwise until battery drain current is 120mA at which point the test resistor should be getting warm. Next reduce the current flow in the resistor by turning VR1 clockwise, check the circuit for bad joints. These will show by either the current flow fluctuating or by the test resistor burning. Check the temperature of all transistors on the panel—they should be at room temperature .(TR5 may be slightly warm). The references to clockwise and the reverse apply to the p.c.b. layout shown.

When checks are completed, disconnect supply and test resistor. Insert jack plug into socket, reconnect supply and adjust VR1 to give 120mA current drain.

The sensor should become warm after a short time. Move the selector switch to position 3 and turn the attenuator clockwise to give a high reading on the meter. If sufficient time has been allowed for heating, the meter reading will be low or falling; if the meter reading is increasing some additional time is required for warming up (using a type 308 sensor this will take approximately 2 minutes).

The sensor may now be placed 2 to 3 inches above a cigarette or cigar (non-smokers may wish to use a glass of brandy for this test—recompense for giving away the cigar) and as the smoke curls through the sensor, rapid movement of the meter should be observed. If the readings change very slowly or remain high, slight adjustment of VR1 may be necessary.

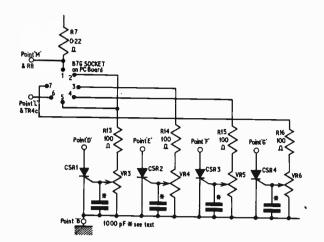


Fig. 11. Modifications of the circuit of Fig. 9 to accept experimental 4-station operation

In general if on turning on the instrument the meter reading increases and stays high even after two minutes, the sensor requires more heater power. The drain current may be finally set by adjustice

The drain current may be finally set by adjusting VR1 between 100mA and 120mA to obtain the fastest sensor reaction time.

TESTING BOAT/CARAVAN VERSION

The caravan/boat battery driven version of Fig. 9 should be tested under 12V operation by connecting two test resistors in parallel (1.8Ω each) across pins 1 and 6 of the B7G base. Turn VR1 fully clockwise. Insert an ammeter (1A range) in series with point A of the board, and battery + terminal. Ensure the remote sensors are disconnected and the alarm switch is off (stand-by position) and remove stand-by bulb from holder.

Turn on the power switch S1. The l.e.d. should light. Slowly move VR1 in an anti-clockwise direction until a reading of 220mA is obtained. The resistors should be getting hot; reduce current to prevent the resistors from burning and check for poor connections.

When satisfied with this test, disconnect the test resistors and connect both sensors to the barrier strip.

Adjust VR3 and VR4 to minimum sensitivity (VR3 clockwise, VR4 anti-clockwise). Reconnect battery and adjust VR1 for 220mA. Switch off. Disconnect the meter and reconnect it across VR3, set to the 10V range. Reconnect the battery. As the sensor warms up the voltage across VR3 will rise, after a short time the reading will start to fall, when the reading becomes stationary (approximately 2 to 3 minutes) reconnect the meter across VR4, the reading by now should be minimum and steady.

Submit Station II to smoke or gas, the meter reading should rise smoothly to at least 5V returning quickly to a low value when the influence of smoke is removed. Reconnect the meter to VR3 and repeat the test using Station I.

Adjust $V\bar{R}I$ to obtain the best results within the limits of 210mA to 230mA. Too much or too little battery current will cause sluggish results.

After completing the test, disconnect the meter and insert the "stand-by" bulb. Move the alarm

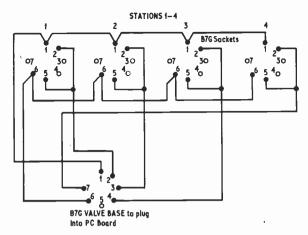


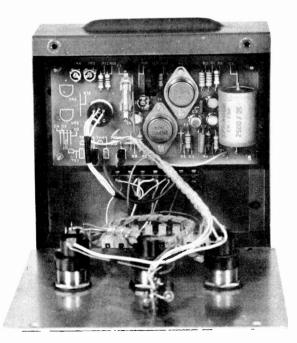
Fig. 12. Wiring details for the four leads of Fig. 11

switch S2 to the Off position and switch on S1. Both l.e.d. and stand-by bulbs should light. Move the alarm switch to the On position, the stand-by light should now extinguish.

Slowly increase VR3 anti-clockwise, if the alarm sounds move VR3 clockwise, turn the alarm off and wait for a further short time for the sensor to become fully warm. Repeat this operation, it should be possible to turn VR3 to full sensitivity without the alarm being triggered.

Next submit Station I to gas or smoke, the alarm should sound, and turn on Station I alarm light. Reset the alarm by moving the switch to stand-by position. Station I alarm light should extinguish and the stand-by light should come on. After a short time move the alarm switch back to alarm On position, the stand-by light should go out. Repeat the test for Station II by setting VR4 to maximum sensitivity.

If the audible alarm is a bell then interference from the contact breaker may trigger both alarm



lights when only one sensor detects smoke. This may be overcome by fitting a capacitor C4 directly across the points of the bell (suggested value 0.22μ F).

If using a bell or buzzer for audible warning of danger make sure the bell or any other device which uses a contact breaker is not in a position where it may be subjected to gas. This includes petrol fumes and the like as any spark source is, of course, an explosion risk. For 24V operation, R10 becomes 1k Ω . D1 becomes 15V, R3 becomes 22k Ω , and LP5, LP6 and LP7 become 24V.

The same test procedure applies as in the 12V version except that VR1 should be adjusted for 120mA nominal. If the circuit of Fig. 9 is used for single station work, wire LP5 in parallel with the alarm and dispense with R14, VR4, D8, D9, LP6, CSR2.

The battery current for 12V operation will be 120mA and for 24V approximately 85mA.

EXPERIMENTAL WORK

The p.c.b. of Fig. 8 (last month) was developed with sufficient room to accept the components for Fig. 4 (last month), Fig. 9 and an experimental 4detector unit, useful perhaps in industrial environments. It must be emphasised that such an arrangement is experimental and any errors would be costly. It is not recommended for the beginner.

A number of points are identified on the p.c.b. by letters A to M. The following connections apply for the 4-detector unit.

- A and H Battery supply input point.
 - -- Earth.

B

C

Ε

- Regulated HT point (emitter TR5).
- D Anode, CSR1.
 - Anode, CSR2.
- F Anode, CSR3.
- G Anode, CSR4.
- JK Spare track 5 holes.
- L Pin 6 B7G socket.
- M Pin 1 B7G socket.

Fig. 11 shows modifications to Fig. 9 and on the board D2, D3, D4, D5, are redundant, but 1,000pF ceramic capacitors may be added to these positions to help prevent accidental triggering of the thyristors, caused by severe electrical interference.

C1 should be increased to $5,000\mu F/25V$ to meet the increased current demands. TR4 and TR5 must be mounted remote from the board on heatsinks; the transistors mounted on mica washers (TO3 type).

Drive for TR4 may be increased by reducing R8 to 10Ω .

To improve efficiency R7 reduces to 0.22Ω . For 24V use TR4 is very close to its current limit and should, therefore, be changed to type BDY57 but must have a minimum h_{re} of 30. R8 becomes 12Ω .

As the pulse currents are large when using four stations, lead resistance balance becomes very important and the user must carefully calculate the mark/ space ratio required for his own particular situation so that the battery drain current may be calculated from the examples given in the article.

The use of four stations has not been fully tested but it was thought worthwhile having the facility on the board. Fig. 12 shows a suggested circuit wiring for interconnecting the 4 leads to the p.c.b. The reader will, of course, appreciate the necessity for extra indicator lamps and associated components not discussed here.

Practical Electronics October 1974

TUNING CIRCUIT

The International Standard Electric Corporation of New York describes in BP 1 347 707 a tuning circuit for radio or television which uses voltage variable capacitors.

In Fig. 1 the decoupling diodes D2, D3, D4 are connected together and to the sliders of potentiometers VR1, VR10, VR20. The potentiometers are fed at A1, A2, A3 (to An) with the outputs of any conventional switch bank. The common connection between the diodes goes to voltage variable capacitors VD1, VD2, etc. A compensating diode D1 at the common connection of the "pots" compensates the for temperaturedependent component of the voltage drop across the decoupling diodes. A load resistor R1 enables current to pass through the diodes whatever the direction of operation of VD1, VD2.

The physical location of all the diodes, including the compensating diode, is such that they are all exposed to the same temperature, e.g. all on the same chip.

The inventors suggest that an almost complete compensation for the effect of temperature on the decoupling diodes will follow whenever the slider of an associated potentiometer is nearest the common connection point between the potentiometers. In the opposite position, where the slider is as far remote from the common connection point as possible, there will be very slight compensation, if any, Hence, degree of compensation depends on slider position; compensation is usually arranged to be optimum at the point of greatest voltage sensitivity of the voltage variable capacitors.



In BP 1 329 518, Matsushita Electric Industrial Co. describes a contactless control system which can be used for both volume and on/off control of a sound circuit. In practice this is most likely to be used in radio or TV receivers.

BP 1 329 518

A microphone, sensitive to ultrasonic waves, is mounted on the set side and feeds an amplifier and filters having different passbands.

A remote ultrasonic transmitter is selectively operated (when it is wished to switch the set off) and when the signal is received and fed to the amplifier and one filter a transistor is switched on causing a gradual charging of a capacitor. When the transmitter is switched off again the transistor is cut off to open the charging loop for the capacitor.

With the charging and discharging of the capacitor the drain source impedance of a field effect transistor (f.e.t.), and hence the drain voltage is changed which alters the amplification degree of a sound amplifier. Thus, it is possible to gradually change the volume.

To achieve on/off switching an oscillator is connected to the circuit. The ultrasonic signal is then used to switch this oscillator on or off and the oscillator signal is used (after signal amplification and rectification) to control an on/off power supply switch.

In a combination system the patent describes a method where the on/off control is achieved by utilising the control signal for the volume control, the volume being always reduced to minimum at the time of turning off the power and rising again from this minimum when power is restored.

CAR IMMOBILISATION

In BP 1 333 060 an arrangement which, if incorporated in a car, would make it impossible for a driver to start the engine if he had more than the legal limit of alcohol in his bloodstream is described by General Motors. Thus, the temptation to drive after drinking would be_removed.

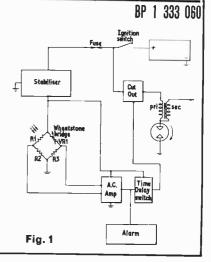
The block diagram, Fig. 1, shows an ignition cut out device (such as a relay or solid state switch) inserted between the car battery and primary winding of the car ignition coil. The power stabiliser is connected between the battery and two resistors R1 and VR1 of a Wheatstone bridge. The other two bridge resistors R2, R3 are connected to earth.

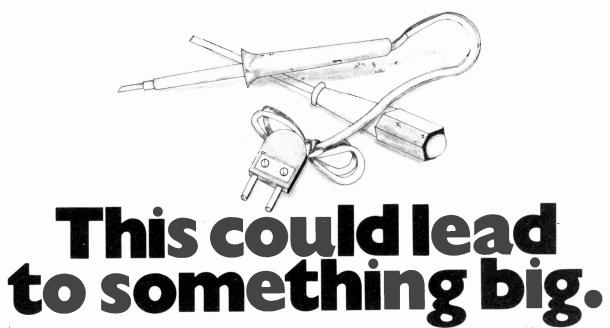
The junctions between resistors R1, R2 and VR1, R3 are connected to the input of a d.c. amplifier. The d.c. amplifier output is connected via a time delay switch to the control terminal of the cutout device.

The stabiliser also feeds power to the amplifier and the time switch. An alarm indicator (e.g. a buzzer or flashing light) is also connected to the output of the d.c. amplifier.

Resistor R1 of the Wheatstone bridge is a wire coated with finely divided platinum. In the presence of alcohol vapour an exothermc oxidation reaction occurs which heats up and changes the value of the resistor.

In practice R1 is mounted in the head lining of the vehicle or in the vehicle steering wheel and VR1 is adjusted to give a pre-set stable condition. If the amount of alcohol breathed by a driver on to the sensitive resistor causes its resistance to change significantly, the bridge will go out of balance and produce a signal which is amplified and passed via the delay circuit to the cut out device. After the delay introduced by the delay switch the ignition circuit of the vehicle will be interrupted and the vehicle immobilised. The delay introduced enables the warning indicator to operate ahead of ignition interruption.

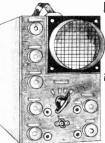




A soldering iron and a screw driver. If you know how to use them, or at least know one end from the other, you know enough to enrol in our unique home electronics course.

This new style course will enable anyone to have a real understanding of electronics by a modern, practical and visual method. No previous knowledge is required, no maths, and an absolute minimum of theory. You build, see and learn as, step by step, we take you through all the fundamentals of electronics and show you how easily the subject can be mastered and add a new dimension not only to your hobby but also to your earning capacity.

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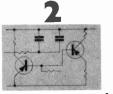
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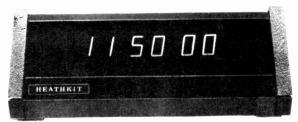
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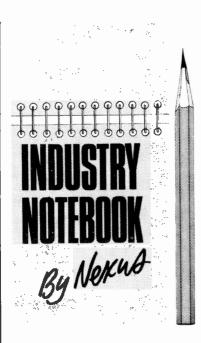
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Practical Electronics October 1974

HEATH Schlumberger





HONOURS

In these days of giant corporations and large research teams it is seldom that individual effort is allowed to shine through. I was pleased, therefore, to see that Donald Pay, head of a design team at Marconi Communications Systems Ltd., has won the Phil Bekeley Award presented by the British Kinematograph Sound and Television Society for work on the B3404 Integrated Telecine.

The equipment has so many ingenious features that it would take the whole of this page to list them and do them justice. Let it suffice that Donald Pay's work and that of his assistants has aleady clocked up more than £2 million of orders for the B3404.

Equally gratifying to me has been the astonishing success of the EMI Brain Scanner. Checking up on progress of this equipment I discovered that in the two years since its introduction to a startled medical world it has won more than £14 million worth of orders, with the great bulk of them from the United States. Just what the doctor ordered for our balance of payments!

The equipment is unique in the medical field being the only computer-aided brain X-ray system in the world. And its latest development quadruples the picture resolution, giving higher accuracy of examination as well as a faster speed of operation.

This great earner of foreign currency was the work of Godfrey Hounsfield of the EMI Central Research Laboratories at Hayes and it won him the MacRobert Award, described as the Nobel Prize for engineering. Hounsfield, who led the design team on Britain's first solid-state business computer, the EMIDEC 1100 (now of hallowed memory), developed the techniques used on the EMI-Scanner from work he was doing on electronic pattern recognition. One thing certainly leads to another.

It was EMI who made the submission for the award adding, after the technical details, "Mr. Hounsfield has been the guiding expert throughout all aspects of the work. The EMI-Scanner was as much a one-man invention as anything can be these days". A nice public tribute from an employer. The MacRobert Award Committee, in awarding the £25,000 prize, included in the citation that, "No comparable discovery has been made in this field since Röntgen discovered X-rays in 1895."

UPLIFT

Röntgen's was a chance discovery as still often happened in the 19th century. He was actually studying fluorescence at the time when he observed that if objects were placed between his cathode ray source and the fluorescent screen they cast shadows. Writing of his discovery he tells of "... the exultant feeling that comes with a victory of the mind, which alone can compensate the discoverer for all the struggle and effort, and lifts him to a higher plane of existence."

One wonders how much of that "exultant feeling" is experienced today. Röntgen published his findings within six weeks. Nowadays, when whole teams of researchers are not so much searching for new phenomena but expanding known technology, the time period is nearer six years. But there are exceptions, such as the flutter of excitement in 1967 when Jocelyn Bell, a young lady scientist in the radio astronomy observatory at Cambridge first noticed in the chart recordings the peculiar and precisely timed signals from outer space which, conceivably, were from some other civilisation but were later found to be pulsars.

Four years earlier in 1963 the English scientist J. B. Gunn working in the United States must have got some uplift when he discovered the effect which today is commercially exploited in the Gunn diode and which has transformed microwave technology. I heard Gunn read a paper on his work at a conference in Cambridge soon after his discovery. What enthusiasm! And his name is now immortalised in the device.

Let us give more honours, prizes, distinctions to those who

deserve them. Let us encourage that exultancy that I experienced in the 1930's when my first homebuilt bread-board two-valve shortwave receiver pulled in the famous US station at Schenectady. I had bridged the Atlantic! Nonsense, of course, because nothing was new about it but it was the sort of thrill which I hope is still shared today by thousands of readers when they switch on their newly-built gear for the first time and Eureka—it works.

BIG BAD WOLF?

Although the multinational ITT Corporation appears to be still under a cloud in the United States I can report that ITT Components Group Europe is not only alive and well but prospering mightily. The Group employs some 16,000 people in Europe and current turnover is about 0.5 billion dollars which could double by 1980. In the UK, 6,250 employees are headed by Ken Walton, based in Harlow and, as a regional director, he also looks after Group operations in Spain, Portugal and Scandinavia. And if you add in the UK locations at Harlow, Paignton. Rhyl, Taunton, Milford Haven, Foots Cray and Leeds it's quite an assignment.

During the past three years the biggest expansion has been in capacitor production which will top £10 million in the UK this year. The Valve Division which might reasonably have been expected to run down slightly as solid-state devices infiltrate the market is, in fact, being boosted by new product lines such as fibre-optic laser systems and a big increase in demand for night vision equipment. Thick films are booming, a recent single order for heart pacemaker circuits being worth almost £1 million.

The most exciting commercial area of development is in displays. Production facilities are at Leeds where pilot and small-scale production has already started on light-emitting diodes with full production promised next year. Following on will be liquid crystal displays and other devices which could boost the labour force from its present strength of under 150 to, perhaps, 1,000 people. Good news, indeed, when there is so much talk of stagnation rather than growth.

And if you are imagining that ITT Components Group Europe hums with Yankee or Deep South accents, forget it. In 16,000 people there are only two Americans and neither is a line manager. And who bosses the whole show from Brussels? Doug Stevenson, another Englishman.



Readers requiring a reply to any letter must include a stamped addressed envelope. We regret that we cannot answer any technical queries on the telephone.

Improvements to car Sticky end monitor

Sir-Mr. Perry's circuit for the "Car Systems Monitor" in the July issue takes no account of the so called automatic voltage control fitted to many British cars, includ-ing the B.L.M.C. Mini and 1100.

The automatic voltage control interrupts the current through the instruments by switching off automatically for short periods of time when the voltage from the battery/ ignition circuit rises above a predetermined level. The instruments are connected and disconnected by a bi-metallic strip about 3 times a second with some longer "off" pulses.

As Mr. Perry's device is intended to warn of low voltages and as these short low voltage pulses have to be ignored, a diode and a large capacitor are needed if the device is to be made reliable for all makes of car. The input to the circuit should be modified as shown in Fig. 1.

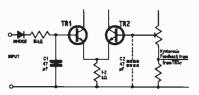


Fig. 1. Circuit alterations to the car systems monitor

The diode 1N4002 is needed to prevent the charge leaking away through the car's temperature probe (thermistor) during these "off pulses. Even with this modification the input impedance is still rather low, so that a very long "off" pulse from the a.v.c. may still cause a spurious warning pulse.

A second electrolytic, C2 may be needed to get rid of noise coming from the sparking coil. I also note that the author does not include any hysteresis in the form of feedback from TR3, that he needs 3 transistors to make his vibrator, and that he makes no allowance for positive-earth cars!

L. J. Bell. Worcs.

Sir-With reference to the "Light-Operated Lamps" mentioned in the Patents Review page May 1974 issue, I would like to point out that these same lamp adaptors were on sale in Zambia shops almost $2\frac{1}{2}$ years ago. They were made in Hong Kong and were not very successful.

The selling price to start with was approximately £1.50 but in the end shops were selling them off for 5p each-I bought four just for the light sensitive resistors.

The fault with the units were the bi-metal contacts came together and parted so slowly that the light flickered for a good 60 to 90 seconds before going on or off.

F. J. Brown, Wirral, Cheshire.

Magnesium—not Iron

Sir-I read with interest the letter from your correspondent P. Watson (Bedfordshire) in P.E. July 1974. His theory is interesting but I must take issue with one of the basic reasons quoted.

The green pigment present in plants involved in the process of photosynthesis exists in several forms: chlorophylls a, b, c, d, etc., all the molecules being very similar and all having magnesium and not iron as the central metal atom. The confusion may have arisen from the fact that iron is the central metal atom in hæmoglobin, the red pigment of human blood.

The magnetic susceptibilities of the metallic elements are different, iron exhibiting an extreme form of paramagnetism known as ferromagnetism. The magnetic properties of the elements are, however, modified when they occur in complex porphyrin molecules such as the chlorophylls. In addition, there is evidence showing that during the process of photosynthesis a number of free radicals are involved. These are chemical entities with unpaired electrons and consequently exhibit the property of paramagnetism. All these magnetic properties may well be additive and contribute to the

observed phenomenon of plants aligning themselves with a magnetic field.

With reference to the final paragraph of P. Watson's letter where he refers to the possibility of thought controlled machines for the physically handicapped: we may not be very far from such reality. The U.S.A. Defence Department has recently released information regarding thought controlled firing and guidance of rockets from fighter aircraft. Simple "thought com-mands" are computer interpreted and radio-transmitted to the guidance control mechanism of the rocket.

D. B. Gordon, PH.D., A.R.I.C., M.R.S.H., Whitefield, Manchester.

Exciting future for the Amateur

Sir-I have been engaged in active construction of various types ot electronic gear now for around twelve years. Not I admit as long as Mr. Kitchen (see *Readout*, July issue "Good Olde Days!") but long enough to have been able to start my experience during the latter stages of the valve era. Also, when I began, the most significant factor was finance which was very low and therefore meant that I had to do a lot of "making do", as a result of which a lot of used components had to be used and used and reused.

First ventures were, predictably enough, such things as simple single-ended amplifiers, t.r.f. sets, oscillators, etc., progressing on to try things more complex and sophisticated such as an oscilloscope and a s.w. set. While I admit that the enjoyment and excitement obtained from these ventures was enormous, there were certain snags which were apparent at the time and now, in retrospect, even more SO.

I refer firstly to the need for having repeatedly to solder and unsolder components, either after having made a test circuit or when pulling a previously made piece of gear apart to release the bits for use in another project. However careful one is during this operation, accidents do occur and besides which no component really benefits from heat, heat and yet more heat. So, we have the problem of damage to parts because of this and as a result of that of course, further expenditure in order to replace them.

and perhaps Secondly, more important, is the matter of all those juicy volts lurking round every corner. Mr Kitchen in fact made



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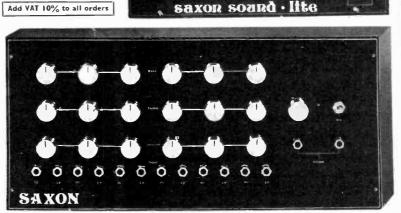
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reference to his need for hospital attention after a valve "bit" hard. Naturally one takes care with any piece of equipment which has high voltages present but mistakes can and unfortunately do happen, the risk potential (so to speak) being at worst lethal. I had a lkV shock from my first oscilloscope and that sent me a few feet in the other direction but no harm was done and I learned a good lesson. Had it been a higher voltage or had a bit more current handy things may not have been so trivial. However, and let's face it, you have to delve into gear at times if only to take readings for servicing purposes and the like.

Having given the valve era a bashing I should say that I derived enormous pleasure from all my various ventures and were it not for the fact that nowadays there are other alternatives I daresay I would be quite happily continuing in the same vein. But there are alternatives and I must say that I'm very glad to have them.

Consider the transistor, what a remarkable device this is. When you compare the relative sizes of the valve and the transistor and think that the latter can be as good an amplifier in almost all respects (including even the GHz frequencies now) it must be admitted that size for size the transistor is a winner. Consider also the relative cost factors; you can buy a general purpose transistor now for less than the cost of many capacitors but valves can cost you as much or more.

Another factor which I personally find a great boom is that I can "breadboard" my new circuits with great ease and find out, long before putting the soldering iron in use, whether or not the circuit is going to prove satisfactory and if not I can modify it umpteen times until I've got it right. The end result is maintained sanity and fully intact components; I can then go on to solder up the final, proven circuit, and expect it to work first time without the need for further "messing".

Finally I would take Mr Kitchen up on his idea that things are made too simple and that it would be difficult to make up anything that was unique any more. I would say the exact opposite and suggest that with the availability of large scale integrated circuits nowadays there is a vast new field of experiment open to the amateur. There may be the need to learn new facts and ways of thinking but basic principles of electronics are the same.

With a bit of patience it is possible to learn all the necessary facts regarding i.c. theory and then one can go on, quite justifiably, to regard integrated circuits as "black boxes" and use them as building blocks to make many times more sophisticated pieces of equipment than was ever possible in the valve days. The list is endless but the whole point is that the modern amateur does not need to feel that everything is done for him; instead he can cash in on what is made easier and so extend his scope more than has ever been possible.

Let me say in closing that I still have a certain nostalgia for the old valve days but find the present-day possibilities so exciting that I can only look ahead and continue to enjoy the much greater flexibility that is now possible. In order to soften the effect of my words on Mr Kitchen I will amaze him by saying that not only do I still have a store of some two thousand valves still in my attic but a couple of months ago completed a new oscilloscope—yes, you guessed it, using valves!

A. C. Beglin, Dorking, Surrey.

Too easy !

Sir-1 certainly was not trying to imply that less ingenuity or techni-cal skill is now required for clearly this is not true. If Mr. Seddon (see letter in last month's Readout page) cares to read my letter again, he will see that I referred to the passing of both the early valve days, as well as the early transistor days. I do not, of course know Mr. Seddon's abilities or qualifications, but I would venture to state that some of the early transistors required quite a bit of skill to coax into working not to mention downright perseverance and bloodymindedness-sorry Mrs. W. 1 am not old enough to remember 2LO, but 1 do remember the pioneering thrill of listening to the LIGHT programme as it was then through a little point-contact regenerative receiver.

One other point that Mr. Seddon seems to have taken wrongly is that of the DIY side. Here I will stick to my guns-in spite of the danger of being outgunned !! The point, Mr. Seddon, is that things are made too easy so that only the true enthu-siasts and folk with proper moral fibres take the trouble-and it can be troublesome—to really explore the possibilities that are present. The others-like Instamatic users! with apologies to Kodak-just flirt with a marvellous hobby and can't be bothered to learn a little of what can do them much good. And they have the effrontery to call themselves enthusiasts.

And I still maintain, in closing, that things will not get any better for the true enthusiast. By the nature of progress it is inevitable that more and more will be incorporated into IC's and the individual will have less and less to do for himself. We will end up with my "cubular models", mark my words, we will. You may not like it, I certainly don't like to think about it; the Editor—bless him—might not like it, after all what will there be for him to edit? but we have no choice. Progress dictates what we do to a great extent, and progress is inevitable. Remember Jonah Kitchen's cubular modules when they arrive, for if I'm still around. I'll tell you so.

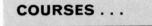
H. Kitchen. Bulkington, Warks.

Durham on the Air

Sir—It is proposed to start an amateur radio society at the Durham University and the call sign of G4DUR has been provisionally reserved.

Any readers who are interested in joining our club should contact me at the address below or during term time at the St. Chad's College, South Bailey, Durham.

Peter Whittle, G4BBU (QTHR) 1, Blinco Road, Urmston, Manchester, M31 1NF.



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GOSFORTH

September, 7 p.m. Radio Amateurs' Course, at Gosforth Evening Institute, Gosforth Secondary School, Regent Avenue, Gosforth, Northumberland.

LONDON

September, 7 p.m. *Radio Amateurs' Course*, at Grafton Radio Society, Archway School, Archway Annex, Highgate Hill, London, N.19.

Enrolment, September(commences October) 6.30 p.m. Colour Television Receivers, Optoelectronics (Fee £3 per course) at South London College, Knight's Hill, West Norwood, London, SE27 0TX.

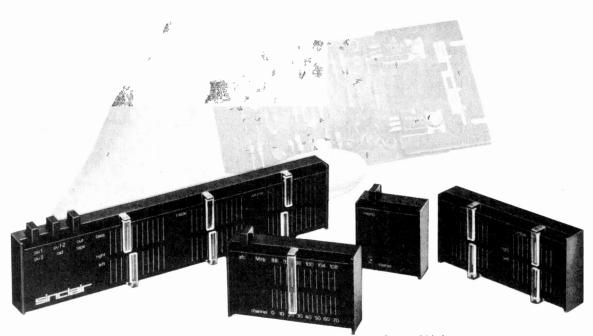


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Viscount III amplifier (As System I)

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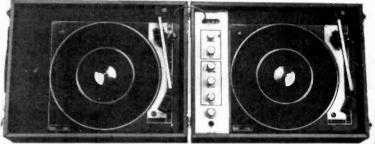
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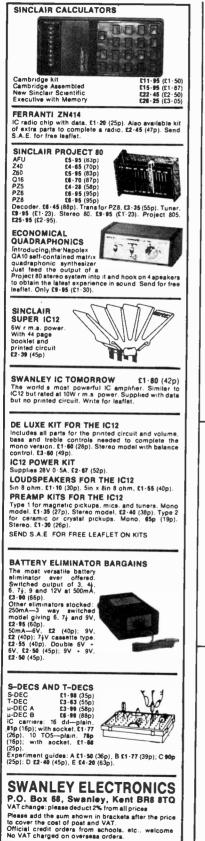
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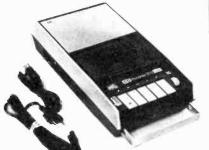


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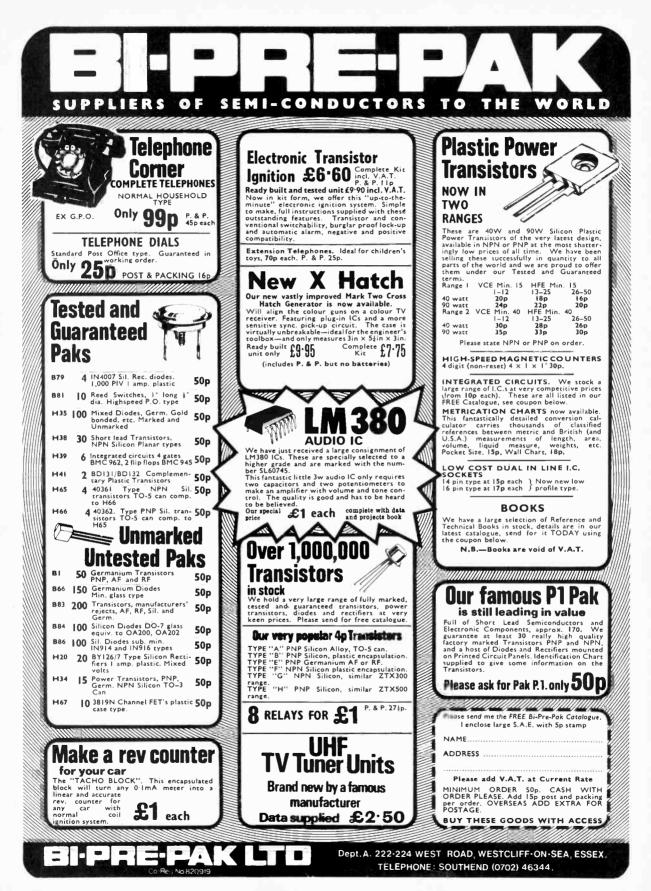


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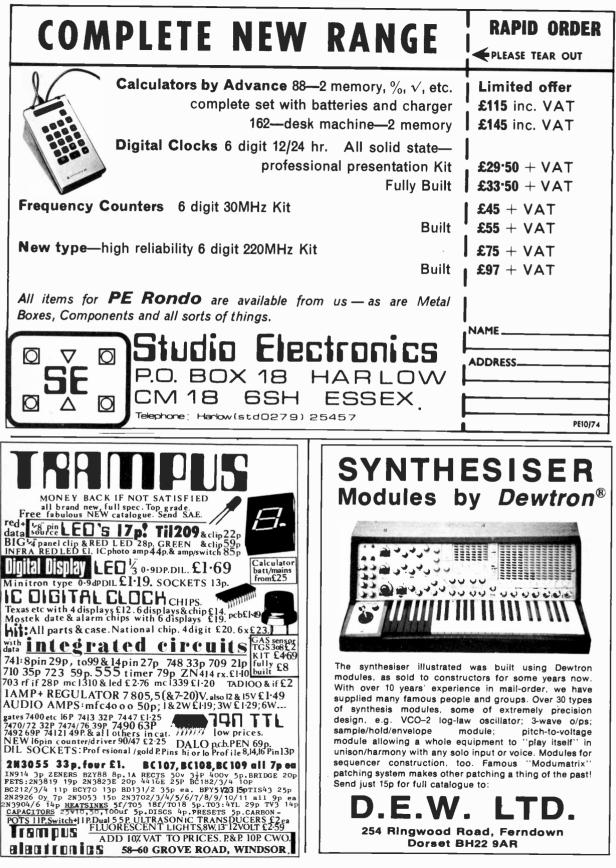
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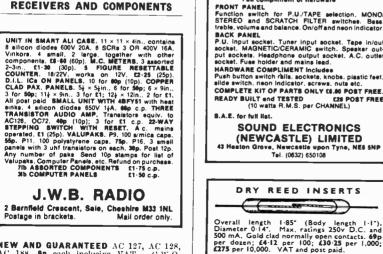
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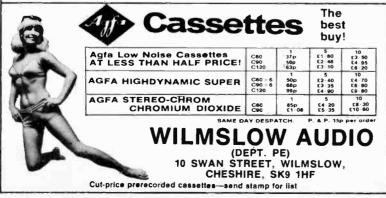
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AUTO TRANSFORMERS, 110/200/220/240V. 30W, £1.70; 50W, £2.40; 75W, £2.85; 100W, £8.8 500W, £10.80; 750W, £14.25; 100W, £18.00, etc.	gs. 0;
AUTO TRANSFORMERS, 110/200/220/240V. 30W, £1.70; 50W, £2.40; 75W, £2.85; 100W, £8.8 500W, £10.80; 750W, £14.25; 100W, £18.00, etc.	gs. 0;
AUTO TRANSFORMERS, 110/200/220/240/ 30W, 21.70; 50W, 22.40; 75W, 22.85; 100W, 33.8 500W, 21.060; 750W, 214-25; 100W, 318-00, etc. LOW VOLTAGE TRANSFORMERS Frim. 200/240V ac. 6-32V 15A, 21.20; 3A, 21.5 6A, 22.55; 12V 15A, 21.50; 3A, 22.55; 6A CT, 23.4 18V 15A, CT, 22.55; 24V 15A, 21.50; 3A CT 23.45; 5A, 24.86; 5A, 27.85; 12A, 21.055; 40V 3 GT, 24.50; 50V 6A CT, 21.85; 25V 2A + 25V 2 24.90; 12V 4A + 12V 4A, 24.90; LT TRANSFORMERS TAPPED BEC. Prim. 200/240	gs. 0; 0; 0; 7, A, V
AUTO TRANSFORMERS, 110/200/280/240V. 30W, \$1.70; 50W, \$2:40; 75W, \$2:85; 100W, \$3:80 500W, \$10:80; 750W, \$2:425; 100W, \$3:8-00, etc. LOW VOLTAGE TRANSFORMERS Frim. 200/240V ac. 6-3V 15A, \$1:20; 3A, \$1:5 6A, \$2:65; 12V 15A, \$1:50; 3A, \$2:55; 6A CT, \$2:4 18V 15A, CT, \$2:55; 24V 1:5A, \$1:20; 3A, \$2:5 7T, \$4:50; 50V 6A CT, \$2:85; 12A, \$1:055; 40V 3 GT, \$4:50; 50V 6A CT, \$2:85; 12V, \$1:60; 55V 9A CT, \$2:450; 50V 6A CT, \$2:85; 12V, \$2:00; 24V 24 \$4:90; 12V 4A + 12V 4A, \$4:90; LTTRANSFORMERS TAPPED BEC. Prim. 200/240 0-10-12-14-16-18V 2A, \$2:60; AA, \$3:70 0-12:16-20-24-30V 2A, \$2:60; AA, \$3:70	gs. 0; 0; 0; ₽, •A A, V \$; 0;
AUTO TRANSFORMERS, 110/200/280/240V. 30W, £1.70; 50W, £2.40; 75W, £2.65; 100W, 83.60 600W, £1.00W, 818-60; 100W, 818-60, etc. LOW VOLTAGE TRANSFORMERS Frim. 200/240V ac. 6-33V 15A, £1.20; 3A, £1.5 6A, £2.65; 12V 15A, £1.50; 3A, £2.55; 6A CT, §2.64; 16V 16A, CT, £2.55; 24V 15A, 51; 12A, £1.045; 40V 3 CT, §3.45; 5A, £3.450; 5A, £7.85; 12A, £1.045; 40V 3 CT, §3.450; 50V 6A, CT, §3.54; 12A, 210-85; 40V 3 44.0; 12V 4A + 12V 4A, §4.90. LT TRANSFORMERS TAPPED SEC. Prim. 200/240 0-10-12-14-16-18V 2A, £2.60; 4A, £3.70; 0-12-16-20-24-30V 2A, £3.40; 4A, £4.60; 0-40-50-80-80-90-100; 1A, £3.40; 2A, £4.65	gs. 0; 0; 0; 7, A, A, V S; 0; 0;
AUTO TRANSFORMERS, 110/200/280/240V. 30W, £1.70; 50W, £2.40; 75W, £2.65; 100W, 83.60 600W, £1.00W, 818-60; 100W, 818-60, etc. LOW VOLTAGE TRANSFORMERS Frim. 200/240V ac. 6-33V 15A, £1.20; 3A, £1.5 6A, £2.65; 12V 15A, £1.50; 3A, £2.55; 6A CT, §2.64; 16V 16A, CT, £2.55; 24V 15A, 51; 12A, £1.045; 40V 3 CT, §3.45; 5A, £3.450; 5A, £7.85; 12A, £1.045; 40V 3 CT, §3.450; 50V 6A, CT, §3.54; 12A, 210-85; 40V 3 44.0; 12V 4A + 12V 4A, §4.90. LT TRANSFORMERS TAPPED SEC. Prim. 200/240 0-10-12-14-16-18V 2A, £2.60; 4A, £3.70; 0-12-16-20-24-30V 2A, £3.40; 4A, £4.60; 0-40-50-80-80-90-100; 1A, £3.40; 2A, £4.65	gs. 0; 0; 0; 7, A, A, V S; 0; 0;
AUTO TRANSFORMERS, 110/200/220/240/ 30W, \$1.70; 50W, \$2.40; 70W, \$2.85; 100W, \$3.80 500W, \$10.86; 730W, \$2.425; 100W, \$3.80, 60, etc. LOW VOLTAGE TRANSFORMERS Frim. 200/240V ac. 6:3V 15A, \$1.50; 3A, \$1.5 6A, \$2.65; 12V 15A, \$1.50; 3A, \$2.55; 6A CT, \$2.64; 18V 15A, CT, \$2.55; 24V 1:5A, \$1.65; 40V 3 CT, \$2.45; 5A, \$2.40; 5A, \$2.55; 12A, \$1.65; 40V 3 CT, \$2.45; 5A, \$2.40; 15A, \$2.50; 25V 2A + 26V 2 \$4.40; 12V 4A, +12V 4A, \$4.90; LT TRANSFORMERS TAPPED BEC. Prim. 200/240 0.10-12-14-16-18V 2A, \$2.60; 4A, \$3.72; 0.4-502-634; 30V 2A, \$2.540; 4A, \$3.74; 0.4-502-643; 00V 1A, \$2.540; 4A, \$3.74; 0.4-502-643; 00V 1A, \$2.540; 4A, \$3.74; 0.4-502-640; 00-100, 1A, \$2.540; 4A, \$3.74; 0.4-502-640; 00-100, 1A, \$2.540; 4A, \$3.74; 0.4-502-640; 00-00, 100, 1A, \$3.44; 0.4-502-640; 00-00, 100, 1A, \$3.44; 0.250, 200, 00, 15A, \$3.50; 05A, 40; 05A, 12-0-12; 0.255A, 4-9V, 035A; 12V, 05A, 4-12V, 05A, 12V, 05A, 40; 05	ss. 0; 0; 0; 0; F, A, V S; 0; 0; V V V V V V
AUTO TRANSFORMERS, 110/200/220/240/ 30W, \$1.70; 50W, \$2.40; 70W, \$2.85; 100W, \$3.80 500W, \$1.00W, \$2.426; 100W, \$3.8-00, etc. LOW VOLTAGE TRANSFORMERS Frim. 200/240V ac. 6:3V 15A, \$1.50; 5A, \$1.5 6A, \$2.65; 12V 15A, \$1.50; 3A, \$2.55; 6A CT, \$2.64; 18V 16A, CT, \$2.55; 24V 1:5A, \$1.65; 40V 3 CT, \$2.45; 5A, \$2.40; 5A, \$2.50; 3A, \$2.50; 3T, \$2.45; 5A, \$2.40; 5A, \$2.50; 3A CT, \$2.64; 3C, \$2.45; 5A, \$2.40; 5A, \$2.50; 20V 2A + 26V 22; \$2.40; 12V 4A + 12V 4A, \$2.40; CT TRANSFORMERS TAPPED BEC. Prim. 200/240 0-10-12-14-16-18V 2A, \$2.60; 4A, \$2.70; -12-12-20-24:30V 2A, \$2.60; 4A, \$2.70; -12-12-20-24:30V 2A, \$2.60; 4A, \$2.70; -12-12-20-24:30V 2A, \$2.60; 4A, \$2.70; -12-12-20-24:30V 2A, \$2.60; 4A, \$2.70; -12-12-12-16-18V 2A, \$2.40; 4A, \$2.60; -10-67, 50, 40; 00V 10, 2A, \$2.40; 4A, \$2.60; -10-67, 50, 40; 00V 10, 2A, \$2.40; 5A, \$2.60; -10-67, 5A, 40V 00, 10, 2A, \$2.40; 5A, \$2.60; -10, 5A, \$4.9V 00, 10, 2A, \$2.40; 5A, \$2.60; -10, 5A, \$4.9V 00, 10, 2A, \$2.40; 5A, \$2.0-12]; -25.5A, \$4.9V 00, 10, 2A, \$2.50; 4A, \$2.60; -20V 0.13A, \$4.12V 0.12A, \$2.50; 4A, \$2.60; -40, 5D, 5A, \$4.9V 00, 10, 2A, \$2.50; 5A, \$4.90; 5A, \$4.90; 5A, \$4.90; MDDF EW, REC, 2D/24A, \$2.40; 5A, \$2.50; 5A, \$4.90; 5A, \$4.	<pre>gs. 0; 0; 0; 0; F, A A, V V S; 0; V V V or A, h </pre>
AUTO TRANSFORMERS, 110/200/220/240/et 30W, \$1.70:50W, \$2.40;70W, \$2.85;100W, \$3.8- 60W, \$1.20;50W, \$2.40;70W, \$2.85;100W, \$3.8- 60W, \$1.20;240Y ac. 6:3V 15.4, \$1.20;34, \$2.5; 61, \$2.65;12V 16.4, \$1.50;34, \$2.55;61CT, \$2.54; 18V 16.4, \$2.65;24V 15.4, \$2.50;51CT, \$2.55;34CT \$2.45;61, \$2.450;84, \$2.785;12A, \$1.055;40V 3 \$2.45,\$2.50V 16.4, \$2.50;51V, \$2.50V 2A+26V 24 \$4.55;10V 15.4, \$2.50V 2A+26V 24 \$4.55;12V 12V 12A, \$2.50V 12A, \$2.50V 10V 25A; \$2.50V 10V 2A, \$2.50V 10A, \$2.5V 2A+26V 25A \$4, \$2.50V 10A, \$2.5V 2A+26V 25A \$4, \$2.5V 00,\$2.50V 100 \$4, \$5.5V 0A+40V 05A; \$2.5V 00,\$2.50V 100 \$4, \$5.5V 0A+40V 05A; \$2.5V 0A+40V 05A; \$2.5V 00,\$2.5V 12A+26V 25A \$4, \$2.5V 0A+40V 05A; \$2.5V 00,\$2.5V 12A+26V 25A \$4, \$2.5V 0A+40V 05A; \$2.5V 00,\$2.5V 12A+26V 25A \$4, \$2.5V 00,\$2.5V 12A+26V 25A \$4, \$2.5V 00,\$2.5V 12A+26V 25A \$4, \$2.5V 00,\$2.5V 00,\$2.5V 12A+26V 25A \$4, \$2.5V 00,\$2.5V 00 \$2.5V 25.5V 25.	55. 0; 0; 0; 0; 0; 1, A, V V V V V V V V V V V V V
AUTO TRANSFORMERS, 110/200/220/240/et 30W, \$1.70:50W, \$2.40;70W, \$2.85;100W, \$3.8- 60W, \$1.20;50W, \$2.40;70W, \$2.85;100W, \$3.8- 60W, \$1.20;240Y ac. 6:3V 15.4, \$1.20;34, \$2.5; 61, \$2.65;12V 16.4, \$1.50;34, \$2.55;61CT, \$2.54; 18V 16.4, \$2.65;24V 15.4, \$2.50;51CT, \$2.55;34CT \$2.45;61, \$2.450;84, \$2.785;12A, \$1.055;40V 3 \$2.45,\$2.50V 16.4, \$2.50;51V, \$2.50V 2A+26V 24 \$4.55;10V 15.4, \$2.50V 2A+26V 24 \$4.55;12V 12V 12A, \$2.50V 12A, \$2.50V 10V 25A; \$2.50V 10V 2A, \$2.50V 10A, \$2.5V 2A+26V 25A \$4, \$2.50V 10A, \$2.5V 2A+26V 25A \$4, \$2.5V 00,\$2.50V 100 \$4, \$5.5V 0A+40V 05A; \$2.5V 00,\$2.50V 100 \$4, \$5.5V 0A+40V 05A; \$2.5V 0A+40V 05A; \$2.5V 00,\$2.5V 12A+26V 25A \$4, \$2.5V 0A+40V 05A; \$2.5V 00,\$2.5V 12A+26V 25A \$4, \$2.5V 0A+40V 05A; \$2.5V 00,\$2.5V 12A+26V 25A \$4, \$2.5V 00,\$2.5V 12A+26V 25A \$4, \$2.5V 00,\$2.5V 12A+26V 25A \$4, \$2.5V 00,\$2.5V 00,\$2.5V 12A+26V 25A \$4, \$2.5V 00,\$2.5V 00 \$2.5V 25.5V 25.	55. 0; 0; 0; 0; 0; 1, A, V V V V V V V V V V V V V
AUTO TRANSFORMERS, 110/200/220/2407 30W, £1-70; 50W, £2.40; 70W, £2.85; 100W, 83.80 600W, £10-80; 750W, £2.40; 70W, £2.85; 100W, 83.80 60W, £1.408; 750W, £14-26; 100W, \$18-60, etc. LOW VOLTAGE TRANSFORMERS Frim. 20/0/240V ac. 6-32V 15A, £1.50; 3A, £1.5 6A, £2.55; 12V 15A, £1.50; 3A, £2.55; 6A CT, £2.45; 74, 54.65; 54.71; 54.71; 54.71; 52.75; 54.72; 54.85; 56.71; 52.75; 52.74V 15A, 51.20; 24.74-26V 22; 54.90; 12V 4A, 41.2V 4A, 54.80; DT TRANSFORMERS TAPPED ESC. Prim. 200/240 0-10-12-14-16-18V 2A, £2.60; 4A, £3.77; 12-12-12-224-30V 2A, £2.60; 4A, £3.77; 0-22.51-20-24-30V 2A, £2.60; 4A, £3.74; 0-40-50-60-80-90-110V 1A, £3.40; 2A, £4.65; 0-40-50-60-80-90-110V 1A, £3.40; 0-40-50-60-80-90-110V 1A, \$4.900. MIDDET RECITFIER TRANSFORMERS. For FW rect. 200/240V ac. 9-0-9V 10-3A; 12-0-12; 0-35A, 24-0-20V 0-15A, 6V 0-5A + 6V 0-5A; 9V 0-35, 4-9V 20X 0-15A, 6V 0-5A, 40V 0-5A; 21.53, 24-12V 0-15A, 61.20 0-250 N, 51.50 each Frim: 200/240V ac. 756 sec., 425-0-425 500 Ms 73.14, 40:54-22V 5CT 6A, 0-0-3V 3A, \$12.65 0 each Frim: 200/240V 25M, 81.59 Prim. 0-110-240V sec 250V 100 Ma, 63.9V 3A, 28,6 SPrim. 0-110 F1A, 63 VCT 4A 0-5-6-63V 5A, \$2.76 sec., 425-0-425 500 Ms 73.14, 42.54-22V 5CT 6A, 0-0-63V 3A, \$12.65 0 each Frim: 200/240V 7CT 6A, 50-63V, 75A, \$1.50 each Frim: 200/240V 7CT 6A, 50-63V, 75A, \$1.50 each Frim: 200/240V 7CT 6A, 50-63V, 75A, \$1.50 each Frim: 200/240V 7CT 6A, 50-63V, 75A, \$1.60 each Frim: 200/240V 7CT 6A, 50-63V, 75A, \$1.60 each Frim: 200/240V 7CT 6A, 50-63V, 75A, \$1.60 each Frim: 200/240V 7CT 6A, 50-75A, \$1.60 each Frim: 200/240V 7CT 6A, 50, 50-75A, \$1.60 each Frim: 200/240V 7CT 7A, 50, 50-75A, \$1.60 each Frim: 200/240V 7CT 7A, 50, 50-75A, \$2.60 each Frim: 200/240	ss. 0; 0; 0; 7, A A, V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V
AUTO TRANSFORMERS, 110/200/28/0/40V. 30W, \$1.70:50W, \$2.40;70W, \$2.85;100W, \$3.80 500W, \$1.00W, \$2.42;100W, \$2.86;100W, \$3.80 500W, \$1.20;50W, \$2.42;100W, \$1.80;00, etc. LOW VOLTAGE TRANSFORMERS Frim. 200/240V ac. 6:3V 15A, \$2.20; 3A, \$1.5 6A, \$2.65;12V 15A, \$1.50; 3A, \$2.55;6A CT, \$2.54, 18V 15A, \$2.65;12V 15A, \$1.50; 3A, \$2.55;6A CT, \$2.54, 16V 15A, \$2.80; 5A, \$2.785;12A, \$1.065;4W 3 CT, \$2.86;50V 6A CT, \$2.85,50; 26V 2A + 26V 2 \$5.797;129;4A+12V 4A, \$4.90; 171;29;4A+12V 4A, \$4.90; 171;29;4A+12V 4A, \$2.60; 4A, \$3.77; 191;29;4A+12V 4A, \$2.60; 4A, \$3.77; 191;20;4A=12V 4A, \$2.60; 4A, \$3.77; 191;20;4A=12V 4A, \$2.60; 4A, \$3.70; 192;15:20;20;40;60V 1A, \$2.540; 4A, \$3.70; 0;40;20;40;50;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40	ss. 0; 0; 0; 0; 0; 1, 4, 0; 0; 1, 4, 0; 0; 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1,
AUTO TRANSFORMERS, 110/200/28/0/40V. 30W, \$1.70:50W, \$2.40;70W, \$2.85;100W, \$3.80 500W, \$1.00W, \$2.42;100W, \$2.86;100W, \$3.80 500W, \$1.20;50W, \$2.42;100W, \$1.80;00, etc. LOW VOLTAGE TRANSFORMERS Frim. 200/240V ac. 6:3V 15A, \$2.20; 3A, \$1.5 6A, \$2.65;12V 15A, \$1.50; 3A, \$2.55;6A CT, \$2.54, 18V 15A, \$2.65;12V 15A, \$1.50; 3A, \$2.55;6A CT, \$2.54, 16V 15A, \$2.80; 5A, \$2.785;12A, \$1.065;4W 3 CT, \$2.86;50V 6A CT, \$2.85,50; 26V 2A + 26V 2 \$5.797;129;4A+12V 4A, \$4.90; 171;29;4A+12V 4A, \$4.90; 171;29;4A+12V 4A, \$2.60; 4A, \$3.77; 191;29;4A+12V 4A, \$2.60; 4A, \$3.77; 191;20;4A=12V 4A, \$2.60; 4A, \$3.77; 191;20;4A=12V 4A, \$2.60; 4A, \$3.70; 192;15:20;20;40;60V 1A, \$2.540; 4A, \$3.70; 0;40;20;40;50;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40	ss. 0; 0; 0; 0; 0; 1, 4, 0; 0; 1, 4, 0; 0; 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1,
AUTO TRANSFORMERS, 110/200/220/2407. 30W, £1-70; 50W, £2.40; 70W, £2.85; 100W, 818-00, etc. LOW VOLTAGE TRANSFORMERS Frim. 200/240V ac. 6-33V 1.5A, £1.20; 3A, 41.5 6A, £2.65; 12V 1.5A, £1.40; 3A, £2.55; 6A CT, §2.44; 148V 1.6A, CT, £2.55; 24V 1.5A, £1.20; 3A, 21.5 71, 24.65; 50V 6A CT, £2.85; 12A, 41.048; 40V 3 TT, 84.65; 50V 6A CT, £2.85; 12A, 41.048; 40V 3 TT, 84.65; 50V 6A CT, £2.85; 12A, 21.048; 40V 3 TT, 84.65; 50V 6A CT, £2.85; 12A, 41.048; 40V 3 TT, 84.66; 50V 6A CT, £2.85; 12A, 41.048; 40V 3 TT, 84.66; 50V 6A CT, £2.85; 12A, 41.048; 40V 3 TT, 84.66; 50V 6A CT, £2.85; 20V 3, 42.60; 4A, 53.70; 12A, 12A, 22A, 44.04; 4A, 54.60; 4A, 53.70; 12A, 12A, 22A, 44.14, 54.60; 4A, 53.70; 14A, 51.74, 54.74; 54.74, 54.74; 55.74;	55. 0; 0; 0; 0; VVVr., 1. 5;
AUTO TRANSFORMERS, 110/200/28/0/40V. 30W, \$1.70:50W, \$2.40;70W, \$2.85;100W, \$3.80 500W, \$1.00W, \$2.42;100W, \$2.86;100W, \$3.80 500W, \$1.20;50W, \$2.42;100W, \$1.80;00, etc. LOW VOLTAGE TRANSFORMERS Frim. 200/240V ac. 6:3V 15A, \$2.20; 3A, \$1.5 6A, \$2.65;12V 15A, \$1.50; 3A, \$2.55;6A CT, \$2.54, 18V 15A, \$2.65;12V 15A, \$1.50; 3A, \$2.55;6A CT, \$2.54, 16V 15A, \$2.80; 5A, \$2.785;12A, \$1.065;4W 3 CT, \$2.86;50V 6A CT, \$2.85,50; 26V 2A + 26V 2 \$5.797;129;4A+12V 4A, \$4.90; 171;29;4A+12V 4A, \$4.90; 171;29;4A+12V 4A, \$2.60; 4A, \$3.77; 191;29;4A+12V 4A, \$2.60; 4A, \$3.77; 191;20;4A=12V 4A, \$2.60; 4A, \$3.77; 191;20;4A=12V 4A, \$2.60; 4A, \$3.70; 192;15:20;20;40;60V 1A, \$2.540; 4A, \$3.70; 0;40;20;40;50;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40;40	56. 0); 00; 00; 1, A.A. ▼ 5); 0); VV ort. A. N.; 0; 0; 1,



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