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| $1 \mathrm{~mA} . . . . .$. ． | \＄mmp．A．C．＊ |
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| SmA ．．．．．． | 20 mmp ．A．C．${ }^{\text {cte }}$－ 10 |
| 10ma ．．．．． | $\mathbf{\$ 0}$ amp．A．C．${ }^{\mathbf{5 c} \cdot 10}$ |


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$\begin{array}{llll}\text { BMC931 } & 20 \mathrm{p} & 18 \mathrm{p} & 16 \mathrm{p} \\ 8 M C 932 & 120 & 11 \mathrm{p} & 10 \mathrm{p}\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{llll}\text { BMC93 } & 20 \mathrm{p} & 18 \mathrm{p} & 16 \mathrm{p} \\ \text { BMC932 } & 12 \mathrm{p} & 11 \mathrm{p} & 10 \mathrm{p}\end{array}$ BMC933 12p 11p 10p BMC934 12p 11p 10p BMC93S 12p 11p 10p BMC936 12p $11 p$ 10p BMC937 12p 11p 10p $\begin{array}{llll}\text { BMC938 } & \text { 25p } & 23 p & 21 p \\ \text { BMC939 } & 25 p & 23 p & 21 p\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{llll}\text { BMC939 } & \text { 25p } & \text { 23p } & \text { 21p } \\ \text { BMC940 } & \text { 12p } & 11 p & 10 \mathrm{p}\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{llll}\text { BMC940 } & \text { 12p } & 11 p & 10 p \\ \text { BMC941 } & 12 p & 11 p & 10 p\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{llll}\text { BMC941 } & 12 p & 11 p & 10 p \\ \text { BMC942 } & 20 p & 18 p & 16 p\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{llll}\text { BMC942 } & \text { 20p } & 18 p & 16 p \\ \text { BMC944 } & 12 \mathrm{p} & 11 \mathrm{p} & 10 \mathrm{p}\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{ll}\text { BMC94 } & \text { 12p } \\ \text { BMC94S } & \text { 10p } \\ \text { 18p } & 16 p\end{array}$ BMC946 11p 10p ip BMC948 20p 18p 16p BMC949 12p 11p 10p BMC950 20p 18p iop $\begin{array}{llll}\text { BMC951 } & 25 \mathrm{p} & 23 \mathrm{p} & 21 \mathrm{p} \\ \text { BMC953 } & 20 \mathrm{p} & 18 \mathrm{p} & 16 \mathrm{p}\end{array}$ BMC953 20p 18p 16p BMC95S 20p 18p 16p BMC956 20p 18p 16p MC958 12p $11 p$ 10p mose shatesingly low prices of all mose shatesingly low prices of all
time. All are fully tested, marked and guaranesed!
40W NPN $\quad \begin{array}{llll}1.12 & 13-25 & 26.50\end{array}$
40 W PNP $\quad 21 \mathrm{p}$ 19p 17 p
90W NPN 24p 22p 21p
PAK PAKE of matched pairs
PAK PAK: of matched pairs
MP40
40W
$90 W+90 \mathrm{~W} 60 \mathrm{p} \quad 58 \mathrm{p}$ 56p

Char: cteristics of 3,000 valves and tubes 4,500 Transiscors, Diodes, Rectifiers a.2d Incegrated Circuits.

MAKE A REY COUNTER FOR YOUR CAR The 'TACHO BLOCK'. This ancapsulated block will eurn any $0-1 m A$ moter into a linear and accurate rev. counter for any system.

## A GOOD QUESTION

But what, actually, is the difference between electronic and electrical? Almost certainly every reader has either posed this very question or has had to supply the answer, sometime or another

Seeing that electric current is the energy involved in both electronic and electrical devices and systems, the puzzlement and confusion existing in many minds is quite understandable. Yet there is a clearly definable difference between these two branches of science and engineering, closely related as undeniably they are

## THE DIFFERENCE

Electrical apparatus and systems depend upon electric current produced by the drift of electrons within metallic conductors-"conventional" electricity, in other words.
The whole science and technology of electronics is based upon the special properties of certain devices such as the valve and, more importantly today, the semiconductor. In such devices the conduction of electric current takes place either through a vaccum or gas-as in the case of the valve, or by a somewhat abstruse process involving the movement of both negative and positive "current carriers" within the confines of a semiconductor material. The special properties and characteristics of these "electronic" devices make all of electronics possible.

Historically, electronics owes its original development as a separate branch of technology,

Our December issue wIII be published on Friday, November 17
quite distinct from electrical engineering, to the exceptional capabilities of the valve. This device has largely fallen into disuse since the arrival of the modern semiconductor. The latter has "taken over" and greatly enhanced the possibilities and, thereby the prestige, of electronics.

## GROUND WORK

Any study of electronics clearly involves examining how these vital electronic devices work and the manner in which they can be applied to produce various useful functions through different circuit arrangements. However, a prerequisite to such study is a good general knowledge of the related subject, electricity. With this knowledge one can confidentally tackle the more intricate (and more exciting) matters that are part and parcel of electronics.

From enquiries we receive it is evident that a straightforward explanation of electrical theory would be welcomed by many beginners, as a prelude to their immersion in genuine electronics. We are therefore commencing this month a new six-part series entitled Basic Electricity. Although aimed primarily at those starting from scratch, this series could provide a useful "recap" of the subject for many others.


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\begin{aligned}
& \text { EDITOR F. E. BENNETT - ASSISTANT EDITOR M. KENWARD - B. W. TERRELL B.SC. } \\
& \text { ART EDITOR J. D. POUNTNEY - P. A. LOATES - S. W. R. LLOYD } \\
& \text { ADVERTISEMENT MANAGER D. W. B. TILLEARD }
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[^1]
## EASY TO CONSTRUCT SIMPLY EXPLAINED

VOL. I NO. 13

## CONSTRUCTIONAL PROJECTS

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## EE Binders...

Both volume 1 and volume 2 (Jan. to Dec. 73) EasiBinders are now available-handsomely finished in orange de luxe Balacron with black lettering on the spine. Order your binder from Binding Dept., IPC Magazines Ltd., Carlton House, 68, Great Queen Street, London W.C.2. The price is 88 p , including postage and packing.


## An instrument to test overall car performance.

Every driver interested in his automobile performance would probably like to have a Dynamometer available for testing performance but this would cost more than it would be worth.

There are low cost instruments for checking timing, contact breaker point dwell time and similar items but generally, these do not measure the overall performance of an automobile.

But utter simplicity quite frequently offers an answer which was unsuspected and that is the case with the Auto Accelerometer! Without measuring horsepower it does succeed in giving an indication of overall performance by measuring both acceleration and deceleration.

Increased acceleration obtained by adjusting carburation or timing indicates an increase in horsepower delivered to the rear wheels and a measurement of deceleration can be a good indicator of brake condition, road holding and brake fade.

In one small, simple instrument, we have the capability of measuring a wide range of performance parameters for the automobile.

For the avid enthusiast, it offers a means of checking the total effect of various changes in timing, carburettors, ignition systems and the like while for the not so avid, it furnishes a means of correcting bad driving habits and generally monitoring performance.

## PRINCIPLES OF OPERATION

Acceleration is normally measured in "g's." Speed is a measure of distance travelled per unit of time while acceleration is a measure of the change in speed per unit of time. The first is expressed as feet per second or miles per hour and the second in feet per second per second or miles per hour per second so that what is actually being measured is the number of miles per hour increase in speed per second.


The $g$, taken from the word gravity, is an international unit defined as the acceleration produced on a dropped object by the earth's gravitational field. In actual figures an acceleration of lg is equal to $32 \cdot 2$ feet per second per second or 22 miles per hour per second.

A pendulum responds in a very precise way to the effects of acceleration at right angles to the surface of the earth. That precise relationship says that the tangent of the angle from the vertical assumed by the pendulum equals the acceleration!

If the pendulum assumes a 45 degree angle from the vertical, the tangent of 45 degrees equals 1 and the acceleration is thus 1 g . Deceleration is determined in the same general way.

The actual sensing device in the accelerometer is a simple potentiometer (VR3) with turning friction reduced to a minimum. There are any number of more complex ways to make a sensing device but this is by far the most straight forward. To this potentiometer is added a pendulous weight that will turn the potentiometer under acceleration and return to a known resting point with minimum hysteresis.

## CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

The circuit (Fig. 1) is a simple bridge that is

$\rightarrow$


Fig. 1. Complete circuit diagram of the Auto Accelerometer. The pendulum which senses acceleration or decelaration is affixed to the shaft of potentiometer VR3.
balanced to give a zero reading on MEl with preset VR1. The pendulum is attached to the shaft of potentiometer VR3 and as it pivots the circuit is unbalanced. Potentiometer VR2 is used to set the meter for full scale deflection with the pendulum at 45 degrees from the vertical (simulating lg ).
Diode D2 prevents reverse current through the meter and could be eliminated with very little chance of damaging the meter; it does prevent reverse deflection. Capacitor Cl eliminates any very fast fluctuations in the needle reading.

Power is obtained from the automobile battery
and is regulated by R1 and D1 to approximately 10 volts.

## THE PENDULOUS WEIGHT

A simple weight can be made of solder or plumbing lead. A chipboard box will smoke when the weight is cast but can be used as a one time mould for this job. A brass bush that will fit on the spindle of the potentiometer used, should be obtained. Clean this bush with sandpaper and flux it with some liquid flux. Insert it in the corner of the mould made as illustrated in Fig. 2.

Melt the solder or lead in a suitable container and pour it into the mould. Allow a few minutes


## AUTU ACCEIERDMITER



Fig. 2. The mould used to form the pendulous weight.


Fig. 3. Mounting of VR3, the pendulum and the Veroboard.


Fig. 5. Layout and wiring of the complete unit.
for the mass to cool and then, if you are satisfied with the results, quench it under cool water.
The potentiometer used for VR3 should be one of the types having a nylon spindle and should rotate freely with very little friction. Install a bracket on the potentiometer bush that is long enough to allow the pendulum clearance to turn (see Fig. 3).

The pendulum can now be attached to the shaft with the setscrew in the bush and the bracket fixed inside the case. A hole in the top of the case will allow adjustment of the pendulum after assembly.



Fig. 4. Layout and wiring of the Veroboard. Copper strips to the right of strip 11 are not used and have not been indicated.

## FINAL CONSTRUCTION

The layout and wiring of the Veroboard is shown in Fig. 4. After cutting the Veroboard to size and cutting the conductors as illustrated, install and solder the components and wires required.

Final assembly is illustrated in Fig 5. An edge-
wise type meter is used, mounted in one side of the case. The electronics can be installed anywhere in the case. Make sure that the diodes and capacitor are placed the right way around and take care not to overheat the diodes when soldering


The pendulum mounted on VR3 together with the bracket.

## Components....

Resistors
R1 270s2
R2 $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$
R3 $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$
All $\pm 10 \% \pm W$ carben

## SHOP <br> TALK

## Capacitor

C1 $20 \mu$ F elect. 12 V
Potentiometers
VR1 $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ skeleton preset (or normal carbon -see text)
VR2 $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ skeleton preset
VR3 $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ linear carbon (see text)
Diodes
D1 $10 \mathrm{~V} 400 \mathrm{~m} W$ Zener
D2 OA81
Miscellaneous
ME1 1 mA moving coil meter (any shape)
S1 S.p.s.t. toggle switch
S2 D.p.d.t. toggle switch
Veroboard $1.7 \times 1.3 \times 0.1 \mathrm{in}$. matrix, plumbers lead or bar type solder for pendulum, $6 \mathrm{in} . \times 4 \mathrm{in} . \times 2 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in}$. aluminium chassis for case VR3 mounting bracket, two way çonnector, 4BA fixings, connecting wire, brass bush $\frac{1}{2}$ in. long to fit on VR3 spindle with a set screw.


Internal view of the prototype unit showing the positions of components and the pendulum.

## TESTING

Connect a source of 12 volts d.c. to the system observing lead polarity. If not done previously, adjust preset VR1 so that it is about half way around its range. Now adjust the pendulum on the shaft of VR3 so that it is hanging straight down with the meter reading zero.

Using a 45 degree set square or a protractor, incline either the base of the case or the pendulum to 45 degrees and adjust VR2 for full scale deflection on the meter.

Since the diode (D2) introduces some nonlinearity, it would be a good idea to make a calibration chart by inclining the pendulum to the angles illustrated in Table 1 and noting the meter reading at these angles. It is worth noting that a germanium diode, as specified, will introduce less error than a silicon diode, due to the forward voltage drop being less in a germanium device.

## INSTALLATION

Finally, install the unit, ensure that the shaft of the potentiometer is at right angles to the direction of travel of the automobile, that the unit is level and the meter is installed where it

Table 1: Calibration Chart

| Acceleration <br> ing | Angle in <br> degrees | Meter <br> Reading |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0.1 | 6 |  |
| 0.2 | 11 |  |
| 0.3 | 17 |  |
| 0.4 | 22 |  |
| 0.5 | 26.5 |  |
| 0.6 | 31 |  |
| 0.7 | 35 |  |
| 0.8 | 38.5 |  |
| 0.9 | 42 |  |
| 1.0 | 45 |  |

can be seen. Connect the unit to the car supply observing polarity and switch on. The unit is now ready for road testing but before starting these tests, be certain that they can be performed with complete safety.

## ROAD TESTING

A navigator should be called on to read the meter. With the accelerometer set for acceleration, have the navigator note the reading at regular intervals (say every 5 m.p.h.) as you accelerate in first gear. Then do the same for the rest of the gears. It is best to make these tests on a flat road and running in both directions

The plotted results should be a curve something like the one in Fig. 6. The crossover points indicate the best gear change point in miles per hour for each gear. For example, the shift from first to second gear should be at about 32-33 miles per hour for this curve. If the car is fitted with a rev counter these points could be noted in revs per minute.

Testing the brakes can be done in the deceleration position of switch S2. It may be necessary to readjust VR1 which might also be mounted as a potentiometer on the front panel to allow for quick readjustment if required.

Drum brakes should indicate at least 0.5 g and disc brakes from 0.7 to as high as 0.9 g .

Brake fade can be tested by making a repetitive series of hard stops from 40 miles per hour and comparing all the results. The results may surprise you.

The unit can also be used to correct bad driving habits. On a level motorway, for example, at a set speed, the meter needle should sit rock steady at zero. If it does not, you are in all probability operating the accelerator pedal without realising it.

The effects of motor oil can be checked. Oil can, if viscous enough, cause a considerable amount of drag and changing to another oil can help. Tyre pressure, open windows and many other things can contribute to drag and the effects can be assessed with the accelerometer.

Fig. 6. The graph resulting from the road tests mentioned in the text. The best gear change points occur where the graphs cross.



Hopefully we will be addressing a few new readers this month. With the commencement of the Basic Electricity series we hope to gradually introduce some new readers into the ways of constructional electronics. Although this page may not be of great interest to the very new beginners who may not be buying many "electronic" components just yet, they will no doubt be keen to find out about general supply problems and of course some of the new products mentioned are sure to warrant attention.

Having said that, we must point out that we do not supply components, only the written word! If you have a component supply shop near you they should be able to supply most of the components we use. For the special components, or if there are no supply shops near where you live, you will have to send for the parts to one of the many mail order firms who advertise in our pages.

## Basic Electricity

All the components needed for the first part of Basic Electricity are obtainable from Woolworths or most good electrical shops (excepting the pencil). Just one word of warning, if you want to cut up some old batteries to see just what is inside, make sure you do it on plenty of newspaper because it can be a very messy process.

## Beta Electronic Guitar

As you will see from the article about Beta most of the requirements this month are for the wooden parts, generally available from timber yards-cut to size and shape if you are lucky (see text).

Other parts needed for the construction detailed this month are the six single machine heads, a six-string adjustable bridge, about four feet six inches of standard fret wire, two strap fasteners and a strap. When buying the machine heads make sure you get three left hand and three right hand ones, all these parts should be available from a good guitar shop.

We never cease to surprise ourselves at what can be used in building various projects, in the past we have specified egg cups and denture cleaning tablet tubes, now we use two knitting needles -or better still, as you only have to buy one at a time, two crochet needles. These needles are used to form the finger position markers on the Beta fretboard, the sizes required are No 5 and No 7. Make sure you get plastic ones cf the colour you require.

## Auto Accelerometer

Most of the parts for the Auto Accelerometer are readily available. The meter does not have to be of the edgewise type shown but this type does provide a compact, neat-looking finished unit. The prototype case is a standard aluminium chassis, available from some of our advertisers.

One point to watch is the type of potentiometer obtained for VR3. We recommend the plastic spindle type for this job as they are usually reasonably frictionless.

Solder to make the pendulum can be bought in rods-a garage or hardware shop will sell you this. Do not attempt to use multicore solder as you will find it very expensive.

## Transistor Tester

An extremely useful, simple project that will probably be put to good use by many readers, the Transistor Tester therefore deserves a sturdy case and we recommend the diecast type as used in the prototype. With a coat of paint this case is quite presentable and very strong. No real problems concerning com-
ponents for this project, the Terry clip used to hold Bl should be available at most hardware stores.

## New Products

Once again some interesting new products have found their way into our offices, one of which is of particular interest to us since a similar product ceased to be made some time ago. This product is called Norman Q-Strip and is what we have previously termed stick down wiring.

Q-Strip is a ${ }^{1_{8}}$ inch wide strip of copper with a thermo-setting adhesive on one side. After a protective backing is peeled off the copper is glued to a piece of component mounting board and used to form a circuit, in a similar way to a printed circuit board.

Having tested some Q-Strip in our workshop we have found the adhesive to be good even after two or three "re-heats". The strip can also be stuck down if it is accidentally lifted during desoldering. At $18 p$ for 40 inches this circuit strip should be popular. Available from most large component suppliers in the near future.

We are always receiving enquiries about cases and various mounting and component housing problems for many of our projects. One new type of case which should go a long way to help with many of these problems has recently been announced by Vero Electronics Ltd. (the Veroboard people). The casecalled Verobox-is made in various sizes from extruded aluminium sections, each incorporating two circuit board or chassis mounting strips. The extruded sections interlock and are held together by plain end plates and self-tapping screws. Altogether 80 different size cases are available ranging from $58 \times 58 \times 25 \mathrm{~mm}$ to $208 \times 208 \times 200 \mathrm{~mm}$.

The finish of the extruded sections is exceptional and the prices range from approximately 40 p to over £4. The Veroboxes should be available from most large suppliers.



N amateur electronics there are very few truly redundant components; the odd transformer, capacitor or even a piece of wire is harboured against the day when it can be employed profitably, lest the mere act of throwing it away will evoke a well known law and a replacement will have to be purchased. It is not unusual therefore to find the radio control enthusiast still employing parts of equipment that has long been outmoded.

This article is intended to familiarise the beginner with components and published information against the historical background of radio control and to outline the scope of the hobby.

## HISTORY

Radio control is almost as old as radio itself but it had little practical meaning until the late 1940's; there were of course, controlled models before the war and in America a radio controlled model aircraft contest, but in general it was a field in which only the intrepid and stalwart could succeed. There were three reasons for this -the high relative cost, the uncertainty of operation and what may be described as a psychological barrier.
The type of mind necessary for the painstaking construction of a delicate model was not often coupled with the brash inquisitiveness necessary

for the development of the electronics-indeed it was often found that a good modeller joined forces with the local radio enthusiast to ensure success.

It was necessary to use an expensive special gas filled valve called "miniature". The valve had a very limited life and it called for great skill to adjust the circuit to maintain the maximum sensitivity without the valve taking excess current, leading to early demise.

Ferrite was a thing of the future so all coils were on hand-made formers, capacitors were often part-fabricated to save weight and high voltage batteries produced from copper and zinc sheet similar to Zamboni Piles. The electronics finished at the point where the (hand-made) relay closed in sympathy with the on-off switch on the transmitter, but then the electrics started.

In order to contro: various functions of the model, electro-mechanical sequential systems were devised-peculiar, delicate and often fiendishly ingenious assemblies of bent tin and tiny coils using twisted rubber bands as "motors". There was no weight restriction on the transmitter design so these tended to be large; the power source being an accumulator and 120 volt batteries. There was no question of the transmitter being hand-held!

## TRANSISTORS

Post war modellers with a developed knowledge of electronics soon set higher standards of performance and the advent of the early transistors enabled them to develop systems superior to, and thereby displace, some of the commercially available equipment.

Instead of simply interrupting the transmitter output (interrupted carrier wave) the r.f. output was modulated (Fig. 1) with low frequency audio tones (modulated carrier wave) either sequentially or simultaneously. Either method was easy to apply to the transmitter but the difficulty lay in separating out the tone information in the receiver. Two methods were used, each "tone" had an associated filter assembly and subsequent amplifier and relay or alternatively a "reed bank" or "reed relay" was used.

The reed bank is the equivalent of a number of relays each with a mechanically tuned attraction plate in the form of a long, thin, springy strip which vibrates as in a tuning fork. Each reed of the composite device is fitted with a miniature adjustable contact and when the appropriate frequency is applied the reed vibrates in resonance and makes repeated momentary contact.

The problem of momentary contact is easily overcome but the current rating of the miniature contacts necersitates a further "slave" relay (or transistor switch) for each reed or tone channel, capable in turn of carrying the current required by the actuator coils.

The device works very well indeed but needs great precision in manufacture and is consequently expensive, accounting for approximately half the cost of an installation. and is relatively heavy.

## CONTROL SYSTEMS

The experienced modeller can make a model perform quite complex evolutions even with a system that car only give instructions such as


Fig. 1. Showing low frequency modulation of the r.f. carrier wave.
turn left-turn right: in a sense he achieves a degree of proportional control by varying the time ratio of the two instructions so that the mean effect produces a result approximately correct; an aeroplane, for example, can be flown in a multi-cornered circle. Possibly the best example of this practice, still in vogue, is the "galloping ghost".
Despite the proven reliability of the reed bank its weight and cost led experimenters to use compact ferrite-cored filter units from which a d.c. output can be derived as a function of a parameter change of the transmitter tone. This "controlled" d.c. is applied to a servo amplifier driving a small electric motor geared down to provide the necessary torque output. In this way single channel proportional control is employed to adjust, for example, the rudder of a model boat to the correct angle for the model to move in a true circle.
This is more than just a simple refinement. Radio controlled aircraft models are structurally different, in particular the dihedral, from the free flight types, the proportional class being capable of greater ease of operation to the extent that an inexperienced modeller can be his own test pilot rather than have the club expert fly it first.

## FREQUENCY BANDS

Multiple or simultaneous channels with proportional control on some, have become practicable to the extent that several models are used at the same meeting necessitating the use of superhet receivers and different band frequencies in order to prevent interaction. Each transmitter and receiver combination has a pair of matched crystals on one of the frequency bands shown in Table 1 with an appropriately coloured pennant fitted to the transmitter antenna.

An enthusiast can have several sets of crystals enabling him to take part on any vacant band or spot frequency and his transmitter is now fully

The single stick five function proportional "Series Four" system manufactured by Flight Link Controls Ltd.

transistorized making a compact hand held unit -usually fitted with joystick type controls. The highest tone frequency in common use is approximately 6 kHz and the band width occupied by a transmitter modulated by this tone is 12 kHz or nearly half the separation between adjacent secondary channels, e.g. red to red/orange (Table l) of 25 kHz . This is adequate for all practical purposes but if a higher tone frequency is used or the matched crystals are not exactly on the band frequency then interaction is possible to an adjacent secondary channel.

Table I. Frequency Bands

| Band Colour |  |  | Frequency |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Principal | Secondary |  | MHz |
| Brown | Black |  | 26.970 |
|  | Brown/Red |  | 26.995 |
| Orange | Red/Orange |  | 27.020 |
| Yellow | Orange/Yellow |  | 27.045 |
| Green | Yellow/Green |  | 27.095 |
| Blue | Green/Blue | 27.120 |  |
|  | White | 27.170 |  |
|  |  | 27.195 |  |
|  |  | 27.220 |  |
|  |  | 27.270 |  |

The band frequency on which radio control modellers operate. The matched crystals of the receiver and transmitter being colour coded and a pennant of the same colour used on the transmitter antenna.

Highly reliable commercial proportional equipment is available both ready for use and in kit form at prices from $£ 40$ to $£ 350$ dependent upon the facilities offered. The superhet receivers, often of foreign make, are produced at a figure the amateur can hardly improve on, component for component, and a saving of the labour content can only be made if a number of units are produced, as for a club, since much time must be spent in layout design alone. Similarly, the servo units incorporating a miniature motor, plastic gears etc., in a very compact and reliable form are difficult to copy.

The amateur constructor has a free field with respect to the transmitter, filter units etc., and it is common practice for a mixture of commercial and "home brew" equipment to be used, the system being basically designed for five or six channels but only one or two channels being used until the cost of a further servo unit kit is saved.

## DIGITAL CONTROL

The complications of multiple filter units and the advent of more specialized semiconductors such as the thyristor, paved the way for digital control; instead of varying the modulating tone frequency of one channel to effect a control, the


Fig. 2. The basis of the modern digital control system. The carrier wave is switched and transmitted in variable length bursts.

SIGNAL OUTPUT
tone frequency is constant but is sent in variable length bursts (Fig. 2). The length of the burst or pulse being measured and converted to a d.c. output.

The attraction of the system is its basic simplicity and the avoidance of the difficulty of winding and accurately setting up filter coils. The disadvantage, is the necessity for synchronizing and sequence circuitry to ensure that the control on the transmitter always operates the corresponding model function. Present day technique is coupled with the availablity of cheap integrated circuits.
The number of channels that can be used with modern integrated circuit techniques is limited by fundamentals rather than cost: the rate at which a control output can be changed is proportional to the rate of measurement and hence to the number of pulses per second. If a slow rate of control is satisfactory about 12 channels may be used but if a faster rate of control is desired fewer channels must be used- 6 is normal or the mean pulse length is reduced which means that the bandwidth of the system is increased to the limit of the commercial receiver. The immediate future is likely to provide more complex integrated circuits at reasonable prices.
Two transmitter frequency ranges are available $26 \cdot 96-27 \cdot 28 \mathrm{MHz}$ and $458 \cdot 5-459 \cdot 5 \mathrm{MHz}$; the higher frequency range being long regarded as the domain of radio enthusiasts but is now a practical proposition with modern transistors: the future therefore may bring both frequency ranges into general use, the h.f. one being for the enthusiast with all proportional 10 channel equipment.

The Quantum Six uncased transmitter available in kit form from Remcon Electronics.



An exploded view of the Quantum Six receiver.

## LICENCE

In order to operate a radio control transmitter a licence must be obtained from the Ministry of Posts and Telecommanications. This costs only $£ 1 \cdot 50$ for a five year period and is well worth it considering that in the absence of a licence the authorities can fine and also confiscate all the equipment.

A form should be obtained from the Ministry of Posts and Telecommunications, Radio Regulatory Division (Amateur and Special Licencing Branch), Waterloo Bridge House, Waterloo Road, S.E.1.

In completing the form note that the equipment is licensed for an area defined by a 5 mile radius from a specified point; this can be varied by notifying the Post Office Telephone Manager for the Telephone Area of the alternative site: several sites may be in regular use simply by making standing notifications.
The regulations specify a "satisfactory method of frequency stabilization . . . measurement. . ..."; in practical terms this means that the oscillator should be crystal controlled using a frequency marked miniature 3 rd overtone crystal with matching tuning networks for $26 \cdot 29-27 \cdot 28 \mathrm{MHz}$. The emissions allowed are class A1, A2, F1 and F2, the meaning being:-

Al Telegraphy by on-off keying: the r.f. carrier not being modulated but just interrupted.
A2 Telegraphy by on-off keying of either the modulating audio frequencies or the modulated carrier.


Components incorporated in a typical modern servo unit. (Remcon Electronics)

F1 Telegraphy by (unmodulated) frequency shift keying.
F2 Telegraphy by on-off keying of either the modulation or carrier frequency shift.
The power output is restricted to 1.5 watt ( $26 \cdot 96-27 \cdot 28 \mathrm{MHz}$ ) maximum (mean) effective radiated power; if an antenna other than the usual loaded Marconi type is used this figure must be derated by the gain of the antenna. If 100 per cent amplitude modulation is applied to a carrier the peak power is increased four times, the r.m.s. or mean power being $\sqrt{ } 2 \times 4$ times the unmodulated carrier.

In the case of a valve type transmitter the unmodulated r.f. power can be taken as the d.c. anode volts multiplied by the d.c. anode current. In transistor transmitters, unless specialised transistors and circuitry are employed, the maximum obtainable unmodulated power is of the order of 0.5 watt for $12-15 \mathrm{~V}$ supplies. In general a simple output stage is capable of approximately 250 mW r.f.

## RANGE

The maximum range of a transmitter can only be properly quoted in relation to a given receiver of adequate sensitivity, and this presupposes that all factors, including the disposition of the antennas, are favourable.

For indoor (very short range) applications a transmitter with an output stage capable of 200 mW feeding a simple 30 inch rod antenna is adequate. If the same transmitter and antenna is used to control an aircraft it will be found that the range varies markedly with the disposition of the receiver antenna, and other factors and may be as low as 200 yards. In order to provide an adequate range with a factor of safety to provide for contingencies such as changing battery volts, detuning due to vibration, etc., the power output should be increased and a matched and efficient, loaded antenna used.

The super-regenerative receiver is easily made and has high sensitivity, its great disadvantage
being that in regions of high signal strength it can be "pulled" easily, responding to any signal close in frequency to the one it was tuned to In practice this means that a more complicated and expensive superhet receiver should be used whenever two models are operated in close proximity, e.g. boats on a lake.
The novice could well be advised to start by controlling a model boat where there is little weight restriction and control failures are not disastrous. Simple equipment is all that is necessary with one or two channels only, for controlling the rudder and engine speed.

If starting completely from scratch a digital system could well be considered since the system could be extended at a later date. It may be thought that a digital system even with only two channels and servoamps is basically too expensive, in which case a simple single channel system could be considered.

## SUPPLIES

Initially dry batteries may be used for a venture into model control but for serious modelling and with regard to the safety factor and economics Deacs or rechargeable cells must be used. These have the advantages of lower internal resistance, a good power to weight ratio and, after the initial outlay, insignificant running cost.

Deacs may be charged with care from a "trickle charger" but it is usual to construct a special light duty unit for the purpose which makes use of the Deac characteristic to prevent over-charging.

The complete six channel proportional system from Remcon Electronics Lid. The system is available in kit form.




#### Abstract

Another look at an electronics evening class.


Ten weekly lectures in basic electronics was the course started by development engineer John Matthews at Hilderstone Adult Education Centre at Broadstairs, Kent, in September 1971. On completion of this first course entitled "Transistors and Semiconductor Devices" many of the students suggested a follow-up course and, because of this, further courses are planned for this year.

The course held was one of theory and practice and John explained fully the function of most common components from the diode up to an integrated circuit. Visits to local electronics firms were also arranged whereby the students

Some of the students who took part in the "Transistors and Semiconductor Devices" course being given constructional advice and instruction from John Matthews (standing). The

could get some insight into "industrial" electronics; these helped to stimulate interest and provide background knowledge.

For practical projects some of the Everyday Electronics circuits have been used together with other designs. The students who took the first course come from jobs as varied as the projects they have constructed-from electricians to hovercraft pilots, and from chemists to draughtsmen.

Many of these studerts will be taking further courses, and any reader interested in taking part should write to John Natthews, care of Hilderstone House. Broadstairs Kent

## (1) guide to circuit

## Transducers



Erase head for magnetic tape or drum

Stylus operated piezo-electric stereo pick-up for reproducing

Stylus operated stereo pick-up for reproducing
$\mathrm{CO}-\left\{\begin{array}{l}= \\ = \\ =\end{array}\right.$
4


IL
5

1
it.

Ls
7


LS/MIC $\square$ each side for mono)

Earphone, mono only

7

## symbols . . . part 5

## Semiconductors




12131415



0

10
 11


12


CSR
13


14


Semiconductor pn diode (Note: the cathode end of most diodes is usually marked with a plus sign or a red spot or band)

Diode used as a capacitive device, for example varactor

Tunnel diode

Unidirectional breakdown diode, voltage reference diode, for example Zener

Bidirectional diode, diac

Controlled semiconductor rectifier, thyristor general symbol

Reverse blocking triode thyristor, $n$ gate

Reverse blocking triode thyristor, p gate

Bidirectional triode thyristor with two main terminals and trigger gate, triac

## The Beta guitar incorporating two electronics effects.

## Electinoilc GUITAR 9

## by Brian W. Terrell B.Sc.

 Virstruments of recent jears and stil today. is the electric guitar. Ins porularity is easily seer by locking at and jistening to the ecords in one of the national record sates charts o find chas: almest every record featu-es a guitar icstly eectric, in one form or another in con function with a- aocessory such as fuze, tremolo hitrato, waa-wa, treble boost etc., which are fther bxilt int: the amplifier ar se f-contained if a box situated an the floor and font-operated.
## WHY DO-IT-YOURSELF?

Guitars and effects boxes are so reatily available in so many shapes, sizes ard forms that one may ask "wiy build your own?"
Peraps the short answer to this is cost. Guitare $\rightarrow$ begir with can be very ccstly. prices rarging ap to E 301 or more for ones commercially available anć even more in some ceses for "Clestcm built jcjs'

An aterage prise to pay $\mathrm{fo}^{-}$a reasonable inssument is abou= $£ 40$.

Effects boxes seen to cost a lct of money for what they actualig consist of-electronically speaking-but are probably worth the enjoyment anc satisfaction they give to their owne-s (and
fans). Typical prices for the common effects boxes vary between $£ 7$ and $£ 15$.
Other factors, leaving cost aside, stem from the fact that musicians like to be individualists, and own equipment (providing its good) that others don't. This is what you can do by building your own guitar, and add your personal "touches" such as pick-ups and positioning, controls and location, colour and other refinements.

## ELECTRONIC

The guitar to be described here, and known as Beta, is a guitar with a difference. It differs from most other solid electric guitars in so far that it has electronics effects built into its body. These effects can be brought into operation by the flick of a switch whilst playing. Both unitsfuzz and treble boost-are powered by a single PP3 battery located in the control recess-but this will be fully described later.

It is therefore quite in order to call the Beta an electronic guitar-it is different already.

## WOOD

The wood content of the guitar, as can be seen in Figs. 1 and 2 on the blueprint enclosed in this issue, is essentially three pieces of wood, the body, the neck and head (made in one) and the fretboard. The choice of material is important but not critical.

In all cases the wood should be of the hard variety such as oak, teak, beech, etc., the important properties of these woods being that they have a close grain, are strong, do not distort or split easily under strain and can be engineered more accurately than softer woods.

Bearing in mind the cost and availability of these materials, beech was chosen for use in the prototype for the body, and neck and head combination, and teak as that for the fretboard since

The guitar body in early stage of construction showing stem recess cut out.

the latter is slightly softer in some respects as is required for fixing the fret wire in position.

For the body you will require a piece of beech about 13 in . by 17 in . by 2 in . thick. For the neck and head combination a piece of beech 30 in . by 3 in . by 2 in . with grain along the length, and a piece of teak board approx. 20in. by $2^{1}{ }_{2} \mathrm{in}$. by $1_{4} \mathrm{in}$. for the fretboard.

## BODY OUTLINE

Begin construction with the body of the guitar. Transfer the outline shape of the guitar from the blueprint, Fig. 1, to the piece of beech wood (do not cut the blueprint).

This can be done in two ways by (i) tracing the outline and sticking the tracing on the face of the wood, or (ii) place a piece of carbon paper on the wood face, place the blueprint on top and follow the outline on the blueprint to give a direct transfer onto the wood. These methods can also be used with all the other full-size drawings of the guitar parts.

Whichever method is used for the body, ensure that the centre line is clearly scribed. The centre line is marked in Fig. 1.

When the prototype was being constructed a very useful tool was a G-clamp. It is recommended that one of these be used to make the work easier.

## CUT-OUTS

With the outline and centre line clearly marked, clamp the body wood down tightly on a bench top, top side up, and mark out the positions of the stem recess as detailed in Fig. 1. Cut out this recess and drill the six holes in this recess labelled " C ".

Mark out the positions of the two pick-up recesses, the tailplate recess and cut out as detailec, using mallet and chisel.

The two switch slots on the face of the body should now be marked and made. These are best done by drilling at the ends of the slots and chiselling out the remainder. Note that the slot nearest the tailplate position is to be right through the body whilst the other is only halfway through from the front face.
Now mark and cut out the channel to accommodate the cables from the switches and pickups. This channel terminates near the rear pickup in a ${ }^{3}$ in. diameter hole drilled right through the body.

In the channel section linking the upper switch recess to the upper pick-up recess, lay in a length of $1_{4}$ in. plastic tubing such as that used for petrol pipe. Fill in around this tube with a filler such as plastic wood. This tube is to allow the cable for the effects switches to reach the control section.

When all these cut-outs have been made, the body can then be cut to shape, slightly oversize to allow for cleaning up.

With the prototype, the body was cut using ordinary hand saws, chisels and files but took considerable time and effort-but this was justified by the end result. If you can get the timber yard or shop where you purchased the wood to cut it for you on their bandsaw, this is recommended.
Whether hand or machine cut, the edges will be rough and will have to be shaved down and smoothed. It is recommended that the smoothing is left till later. Shaving can be done with plane, Surform, rasp or rough file. You will probably end up using all of these tools for different parts of the body.

There are two further cut-outs to make, one on the edge and one to the rear face of the body for the jack socket and control section respectively. These should now be marked, cut and drilled as indicated in Fig. 1.


The rear face of the body showing the cut out to accommodate the electronics and controls.

The control recess, which is $1{ }^{1}{ }_{2}$ in. deep into the rear face of the body is to be made first and is easily done with chisel and mallet, but care should be taken where the recess conies close to the body edge. The shape and position of this recess is shown dotted in Fig. 1-do not forget the ${ }^{1}$ sin. deep lip for holding on the backplate.
The $7_{8}$ in. diameter hole for the jack socket should be drilled from the edge through to the control section recess as detailed in Fig. 1.
Mark the positions of the four ' $D$ ' holes and drill through to the control section. Leave the body to one side for the moment.

## NECK AND HEAD

Referring to Figs. 2a and 2b on the reverse side of the blueprint, the neck and head are shown in front and side view (left and right respectively). The neck and head are to be made
in one. For this use the piece of beech size 30in. by 3 in . by 2 in .

Begin by marking out the side view of Fig. 2a along the 30 in . by 2 in . side of the length, aligning the face where the fretboard is to be attached and the end opposite the head with the corner of the length of wood.

Now use Fig. 2b side view (head protile) to transfer this shape to the top of the neck so it is now in one piece. You should now have the profile of the complete neck/head assembly.

Saw the slope on the front face of the head and smooth with plane and sandpaper.

Draw a line right down the centre of the 30 in . by 3 in . face, including the sloping head. Next mark out the front view of the neck and head about this centre line making sure that both views line up on the wood length.
The next job is to cut out the neck/headleave the nut slot for one moment. Once again, if a bandsaw is available it is recommended that this be used, otherwise handsaws. chisels and rasps will be needed.
The method of cutting is left to the constructor to suit his own skills. Whichever method is used cut slightly oversize, it can be planed and filed to final shape later.

## JOINT

Plane or chisel the end of the neck that is to fit into the guitar body to give a tight fit-but not too tight. Ensure that the centre line through the body lines up with that along the neck/head.

When satisfied with the joint, mark through from the back the positions of the six ' $C$ ' holes and then drill these lin. deep into the neck with a ${ }^{1} 8 \mathrm{in}$. diameter bit. Replace the nerk and secure to the body with six 2 in . long No. 10 screws. Screw in fully. Now that the screw threads have been established remove the neck and commence rounding off the back side of the neck as indicated in the cross-section of Fig. 2b.

Photograph of the sloping head of the guitar with holes drilled to position machine heads.



Photograph of the neck section that fits into the guitar body．

This is best done with a heavy duty half－round file or rasp．

The regions where the head joins the neck， and the neck joins the body，should be shaped as indicated in Figs．2a and 2b，and the photo－ graphs of the neck／head assembly．Shave the neck and head right down to the markings．The hard work is now over．

## FRETBOARD

The fretboard is made from a piece of teak although mahogany would be just as good．Cut the board to the correct length but leave over－ size as far as the width is concerned．

Place the blueprint，Fig．2a（left hand side） over the teak board and hold flat in position with drawing pins at each of the＂$E$＂and＂$F$＂ holes．Using a large pin，prick through the blue－ print along the centre line and either side of it at the 19 fret positions．The line to prick through for the fret saw line positions is the thin dotted one between the two close thick ones which represent the frets themselves．

Remove the drawing pins and blueprint from the fretboard and using the pin pricks draw in the centre line and the fret position lines．The eight holes at＂$E$ and $F$＂will have been marked with drawing pins．Drill these holes as detailed．

With the neck screwed into the body，place
the fretboard on the neck，line up the centre lines and secure in this position with two small round－headed screws through two of the drilled holes in the fretboard．These screw holes are essential for locating the fretboard in the correct position when glueing in place later．Shape the fretboard to that of the neck．

Now，using a fine sawblade，cut the slots along the fret position lines（19）．Make these slots about ${ }^{1}{ }_{16} \mathrm{in}$ ．deep．Remove the fretboard from the neck and lay on a flat surface．

## Materials

## Wood

Beech $18 \times 13 \times 2$ 2in．（body）
Beech $30 \times 2 \times 3$ in（neck／head）
Teak $20 \times 2 \frac{1}{2} \times \operatorname{tin}$ ．（fretboard）

## Fretwire

4l⿳亠丷厂
Perspex
$12 \times 12 \times$ tin．（scratch plate and switch covers）
Aluminium
$3 \frac{1}{2} \times 2 \times$ in．（tailplate）
$\frac{1}{2}$ in．dia．tube 3 tin．long
13 $\times 1 \times \frac{1}{16} \mathrm{in}$ ．（jack socket cover）
Steel plate
$4 \frac{1}{2} \times 2 \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{16}$ in．（stem support plate）
Plastic tubing
$2 \times \frac{1}{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{in}$ ．internal diameter
Plastic rod
$1 \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{\mathrm{in}}{} \mathrm{i}$ ．diameter $1 \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{7}{18} \mathrm{in}$ ．diameter（ No .5 \＆ 7 crotchet needles） （finger position markers）

## Screws and Bolts

2in．long countersunk（ 6 off）
1in．long countersunk（ 4 off）
$\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in}$ ．long round headed（2 off）
$t-\frac{z i n}{}$ ．long，thin chromium plated for fitment attachment（240ff） 1 ir ．long，copper or brass plated（ 4 off）； 1 in ．long 4BA（2 off）
Miscellaneous Adjustable bridge；strap；strap fasteners （2 off）；individual machine heads（ 6 off）；set of steel strings（6）；adhesive，filler and sand－ paper．

The complete neck／head assembly with completed fretboard glued in position．Shows the ＂shaping＂at the neck／head and neck／stem regions．



The Beta nearing completion of the "raw" state.

Cut the fretwire in lengths to suit each fret position and push the wire in position from above. It must be a tight fit, and it should be necessary to have to tap them in with a small hammer or press them in with the aid of a metal vice. They must be pressed in as far as possible.

When all the frets are in position and fully sunk in, apply some adhesive to the fretboard (rearside), Evo Stik is ideal, and with the help of the two screw threads in the neck, locate in the correct position and allow to set with the screws tightened.

## FRET ALIGNMENT

When set firm remove the locating screws and file the ends of the fret wire flush with the edge of the fretboard/neck, and then chamfer each end of the fretwire (including the fretboard) so that you cannot feel the presence of the fret as you run your finger down the edge of the fretboard.

When you are satisfied with all the frets, file the tops off them so that there is about ${ }_{16}$ to ${ }^{1}{ }_{3: i}$ in. flat. Finish off with coarse and then fine emery cloth so that the frets are free from file marks.

Place a flat edge along the top of the frets, spanning all of them. and determine if any are
high; if there are, file to correct. Further filing may be necessary after fitting the strings.

The " $E$ " and " $F$ " holes at various positions along the fretboard are for finger positioning. In the prototype these were filled with short lengths of white plastic knitting needle, and glued in.

Now cut out the slot to accommodate the nut (Fig. 2a).

Examine the machine heads you have obtained and see if the locating holes shown in the head, Fig. 2b, are satisfactory. If so, drill these positions to suit diameter of machine head spindle, if not, re-position and drill to suit. Secure the machine heads in position.

With reference to Fig. 4 make the nut. This should be made from a plastic material such as Perspex. The width of each slot should be made to suit the diameter of the strings to be used. The depth of the slots should be cut so that the strings, when fittted, will just clear the first fret when taut. This may have to be done by trial and error later so this fitment should not be glued in position at the moment.

Next month: details of guitar fitments and pick-ups.

## PAKEENOTE

Cassette Tape Power Supplies-page 641
Fig. 3. (October issue). The wrong circuit symbol was shown for the Zener diode D 1. See Guide To Circuit Symbois in this issue.

Reactomatic-page 651. In the text reference is made to VR4, this should be VR1.

## basic (1) Ele

By Maureen Birch

How many appliances have you at home at this moment which need batteries to operate them-torch, radio, shaver, model car etc? You must sometimes have asked yourself how these batteries work and how a current is produced by them.

## DRY CELL

If you can unearth a small dud 1.5 volt battery - or dry cell as it is called - carefully dissect the outer steel case, cardboard sleeve and zinc container. Having done this you should be able to identify all the parts shown in Fig. 1.1a.

Notice that the inner container is grey zinc metal and the metal cap terminal at the top is connected to a carbon rod which runs the length of the inside. Around this rod is a moist, black mixture of manganese dioxide powder and ammonium chloride crystals. Although this is

Fig. 1.1a. Shows the internal construction and composition of a "dry" cell.

called a dry cell the chemicals inside it must be damp for it to work properly.

You will know from experience that dry cells come in all shapes and sizes. It is obvious that a large cell must contain more chemicals and therefore it lasts longer, but increasing the size will not increase its voltage. The output from a single dry cell is 1.5 volts and if more is needed many cells are joined together. Thus the 9 volt battery of the type used in transistor radios etc. is six layer type cells stacked inside one case and connected in series so that the carbon of one is in contact with the zinc plate of another Fig. 1.1b.

## CHEMICAL REACTION

Now we come to the crux of the matter-how does the cell produce an electric current? The battery contains a supply of chemicals which react together to create a cloud of small particles

Fig. 1.1b. Stacking of six layered cells to make a 9 V battery.

called electrons around the zinc case and at the same time the carbon rod has a shortage of electrons. Electrons are small negatively charged particles. Therefore we say that the zinc case is the negative terminal and conversely the carbon rod is positive.

When the cell is connected to a bulb the electrons flow away from the zinc case through the bulb and back to the carbon rod in an attempt to even things up. This is a continuous process because the zinc case immediately provides more electrons to replace those that have just left. This is a very simple explanation but it leads us to one important and basic fact-that an electric current is a flow of tiny negatively charged particles. Later, when we are talking about the magnitude of current we shall use units called amperes to describe it.

When the chemical energy which produces the electrical energy is used up, the battery is said to be flat and the current fails. It is possible to "refill" a used cell but this is not easy and is not worth the trouble. The zinc case is used up in the chemical reaction and in modern cells the thickness of this case is not very great-thus ultimately it may become completely eroded away-this leads to the cell leaking.

## ELECTRONS

Before we go any further we must consider in more detail the electrons which we have only mentioned briefly so far. All matter surrounding us whether it is solid, liquid, or gas is made up of atoms and an electron is a small part of an atom. Most atoms contain many electrons travelling at great speeds in orbits around the centre, or nucleus as it is called-rather like planets travelling around the Sun. Each electron has a negative charge and the nucleus contains enough positively charged particles-called protons-to balance the electron charges; thus the atom as a whole is neutral.

If we now return to our dry cell producing a current and running a light bulb, it is clear that as the electrons leave the zinc plate on their journey to the bulb and then back to the carbon rod they must travel in a substance which will allow the flow to continue easily. Such substances are called conductors and gold, silver, and copper are particularly good. Gold and silver are obviously too expensive to use for wiring and so copper is extensively used.

Insulators are substances which do not conduct electricity and these are used to cover conducting wires-rubber and plastics are examples of these.
Now what, you may be asking, is the difference between copper and rubber that makes one a conductor and the other an insulator?

## CONDUCTORS AND INSULATORS

To understand this problem we must think about the atoms which make up these sub-


Fig. 1.2. Simple experiment to illustrate the principle of "current flow" in a "circuit'".
stances. Some of the electrons in a conductor, such as copper, are very loosely held in their orbits and can be made to drift along if they are pushed by the electrons coming from a battery. These loosely bound electrons will be pushed from atom to atom until they find one with a shortage, or an electron may secure a place in an atom by pushing out another electron which will in turn move on to find itself a home. It is important to understand that the electrons which set out from one end are not the same ones which reach the other.

Insulators, on the other hand, do not have loosely coupled electrons, and thus are not able to carry a current

One confusing fact about electricity is that, by convention, current is said to flow from the positive to the negative terminal of the battery although, as we have seen, it is a flow of electrons in the opposite direction

Fig. 1.3. Introducing a resistance into the circuit of Fig. 1.2, by means of the graphite through a lead pencil, dims the glow from the bulb.


Everyday Electronics, November 1972

## the Circuit

We have said that for a current to flow, we must have a source of current e.g. a battery and wires made of conducting material (copper), but there is one other important condition which must be fulfilled, and this is that the current must have an unbroken path, or circuit as we call it, in which to travel. We call this unbroken path a closed circuit and in our homes most of the electrical apparatus is fitted with a switch which will open or close the circuit as required.

## EXPERIMENTS

At this point you can do some simple experiments. Obtain two 4.5 volt batteries with screw terminals-this makes the attachment of wires much easier-a 6 V 0.12 A torch bulb, a holder for the bulb and some insulated flexible wireone of the cores from ordinary lighting flex will do.

Connect the batteries to the bulb as shown in Fig 1.2-they will provide us with 9 volts. Notice that the bulb glows brightly as the current is flowing in copper wire. Now introduce a lead pencil into the circuit (Fig 1.3)-lead pencils have a core of graphite. Hold the wires at either end of the core of the pencil (not on the wood) and notice that the lamp still lights but not as brightly as before This is because graphite is not as good a conductor as copper. It is providing a certain amount of resistance to the flow of electrons

We can show this even more dramatically by


Fig. 1.4. Using an old electric fire element as a resistor.
substituting the element from an old 1 kilowatt electric fire for the pencil graphite, Fig. 1.4. If you use the whole length of the element you will be introducing a lot of resistance and the bulb will glow dimly. Use less of the element wire and the bulb will glow brighter thus showing that the circuit resistance is less. Later on we shall give numerical values to resistance and we shall use units called ohms.

Next month: Current flow through liquids.

# Ruminations <br> By Sensor 

## Away from it all

I think that most of us feel the need to withdraw ourselves occassionally from our surroundings, mentally at least, and retire into our own private world. One can soon become oblivious to everything going on around if deeply involved in some absorbing pursuit. Electronics can be a most satisfying hobby because it embraces so many arts and sciences.
The amateur woodworker can express himself in the construction of cabinets for his electronic gear while the would be metalworker can indulge himself in the creation of chassis and cases. Those who prefer to experiment with circuits can do so with
simple "breadboard" construction "just to see if it works". One may become interested in circuit design, or merely build from published designs. The hobby can be enjoyed at any level, just as one wishes.

## A place of one's own

As a boy, most of my electronic projects were built upon the dining room table. This meant that I was required to ciear the table for each meal and therefore could not easily embark upon a large project. When I started to build my first large project I first bought a cheap card table and this became my bench. It stood in a corner of the room and work could be started or stopped just whenever I wished-a great improvement over the dining room table.

If space permits, a room of one's own for a workshop, has definite advantages; I once saw a tiny workshop created in a cupboard under the stairs. There
was just room for one person and a small seat and a bench, like a shelf, but it served the purpose admirably.

When visiting a friend who had just moved into a new house I was invited conspiratorially to "follow me'. He produced a pair of stepladders and led the way to the loft space, there, around the central chimney stack, he had built a bench and storage cupboards for tools and components. "I can get away up here," he said.
From his air of secrecy, I concluded that his wife was not aware of the existence of his little sanctum! I wondered what she thought when he disappeared for long periods. Did she see that tell-tale ladder on the landing or did he pull it up behind him? Was she disturbed by strange noises from somewhere up aloft? I didn't like to ask these questions, he had shown me a glimpse of his private world and I felt that his confidence must :e respected. Wouldn't you?


## A rapid tester for checking most transistors.

## Transistor <br> 

By P. A. Graves

The Transistor Tester described in this article checks transistors by operating them in a simple oscillator circuit, which gives a very good indication of their functioning.

## CIRCUIT

The circuit (Fig. 1) at first sight seems a little fearsome due to the switching arrangements which are needed to cater for both $n p n$ and $p n p$ type transistors. The circuit is basically a simple multivibrator.
 forget where you have got to, while holding the transistor in one hand and trying to manipulate the ohm meter probes with the other.

The alternative is to build a proper transistor tester. This is where the trouble begins again! Some types of tester seem to have so many controls that they would not be out of place on an aircraft flight deck, and others require sensitive, and expensive, meters. Operation of the simpler types requires adjusting backing off voltages, several readings from meters and a calculation afterwards.


Fig. 1. Complete circuit diagram of the Transistor Tester.

The multivibrator acts as an "electronic seesaw." TR1 (the transistor being tested) and TR2 (or TR3) switching on and off alternately, at a frequency determined by $\mathrm{C} 1, \mathrm{C} 2, \mathrm{R} 2$ and R3; these are chosen to provide oscillation in the audible frequency range. Pulsating current flowing in TR2 (or TR3) collector, as the transistor switches on and off, causes an audible tone to be heard in the loudspeaker LS1. Resistor R4 limits the current flowing in TR2 or TR3 but allows enough to provide a reasonable output from LS1.

Provision for checking $p n p$ and $n p n$ transistors is made by switching in a similar type in the TR2 position (TR3) and switching the battery polarity to suit, this is done by S1.

Only if TR1 is working will the tester oscillate giving an audible tone when S2 is pushed.

## COMPONENTS

None of the components are critical, almost any general purpose transistors that can pass a collector current of about 100 mA will be suitable for TR2 and TR3. The loudspeaker can be any small 3 to 15 ohm type. Switch Sl is a four pole two way rotary type wired up as will be shown later.

## CONSTRUCTION

The prototype unit was constructed in a small diecast case that provides a very tough and business like finished unit. Commence construction by drilling the removable panel as shown in Fig. 2.; all the components will be mounted on this panel.

Next affix the loudspeaker, S1, S2 and the clip to hold B1. Having done this wire up the tag board as shown in Fig. 3, soldering in the two

## Components....

## Resistors

| R1 | $2 \cdot 2 \mathrm{k} 2$ | SEE |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| R2 | 27 kS |  |  |
| R3 | 27ks 2 |  |  |
| R4 | 100s2 |  |  |
|  | $\pm 10 \%$ |  |  |

Capacitors
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { C1 } & 0.05 \mu \mathrm{~F} \\ \text { C2 } & 0.05 \mu \mathrm{~F}\end{array}$
Transistors

> TR1 Transistor under test
> TP2 2N3703 silicon pno
> TR3 2N2926 (G) silicon npn

## Miscellaneous

\ LS1 3 to $15 \Omega$ miniature loudspeaker (approx. 2 in . diameter)
S1 4-pole 2-way wafer switch
S2 Single-pole push to make push button. B1 9V PP3 battery
Three miniature crocodile clips, 11 way tag strip, Terry clip to told B1, small pieces of paxolin to mount connection clips, die cast box, approx. $4 \frac{3}{4} \times 3 \frac{3}{4} \times 2 \frac{1}{4} \mathrm{in}$., pointer knob, 4BA fixings, connecting wire.
transistors last, using a heat shunt on each lead as it is soldered.

Before wiring up the unit the three small crocodile clips must be mounted on a piece of paxolin by their connecting screws and then mounted on the panel as shown in Fig. 4, using another piece of paxolin to insulate them from the case.

Fig. 4. The two pieces of Paxolin used to mount the clips for TR1. Each piece measures 1 in $\times$ \}in.



## Transistor TVEssjes

Fig. 2. Front panel drilling details dimensions of some of the holes will depend on the components used.

Fig. 3. Internal view of the complete unit showing component layout and wiring.



Internal view of the prototype.
Finally, mount the circuit board, on two long bolts, over the speaker and connect up the unit.

## TESTING

After checking all the connections, connect the battery observing polarity, insert a good transistor in the clips-again observing lead connections-select $p n p$ or $n p n$ on Sl and press S2. If all is well a bleep will be heard signifying that the oscillator is functioning. Now test the other position of Sl by inserting a different good transistor in the clips (i.e. if pnp was used first use an $n p n$ type or vice versa).

Remember that this unit provides a quick check on most types of transistor-it cannot be used for f.e.t's or unijunctions and it will not test all the parameters of the device.

To complete the unit designate the panel as shown in the photographs and either paint it or at least coat the lettering with clear varnish to protect it.

Front panel markings of the completed unit.


## NEXT MONTH Demo Circuits




Photograph: Science Museum, London.
ast month we left Michael Faraday demonstrating the first dynamo to the Royal Society. but he did not stop to put his discoveries to practical use. When he was made Director of the Royal Institute laboratories he said "I must continue to discover new facts".

## ELECTROLYSIS

His earlier European journeys with Sir Humphrey Davy had attracted him to the work of Ampère and Volta.

His very first experiment recorded as early as 1812 had been to make a voltaic pile with seven halfpennies, seven discs of sheet zinc and six pieces of paper moistened with salt water. With this pile he decomposed magnesium sulphate. This was the start of his work on electrolysis and his electro-chemical experiments, which later led him to introduce the apt terms "electrolyte", "electrode", "anode" and "cathode", which are still in use - today.

Faraday also carried out numerous electrostatic experiments, and he found that the electric charge induced between one conductor and another depended on the material or "dielectric" between them. In recognition of this discovery, the name Farad was given to the unit of electrical capacitance (see Table 1 last month).

Overwork was starting to take its toll and in 1841 Faraday was ordered to take a complete rest in Switzerland. Then in August 1845 he started to examine the

## NO 6 Faraday.

## (Part 2)

relationship between light and electricity. For this he conducted a magnificent experiment with a horseshoe magnet and a Nicol crystal prism. He passed a beam of polarized light through the crystal along the direction of the magnetic field. He found that the plane of polarization of the light was rotated as it passed through the cristal.

In the same year he also discovered that all substances have magnetic properties to some degree. Some bodies tend to move in a magnetic field towards the stronger parts of the field; this effect he called "paramagnetism". Other bodies tend to move into the weak parts of the field; this he called diamagnetism.

His three volumes "Experimental Researches in Electricity" covering his discoveries from 1831-1855 are accepted as classics and have been described as "One of the richest treasuries of knowledge which has ever been presented to the world by a single intellect".

## honours

By now Faraday was a world famous figure and honours were showered upon him. but he declined a knighthood and the Presidency of the Royal Society for fear they would interfere with his experiments, and lecturing. His lectures to children at Christmas had become almost a national institution, two regular patrons being the Prince Consort and the young Prince of Wales. Commemorative Faraday lectures are still given at Christmas time today. They were introduced by the Institute of Electrical Engineers in 1924 with the object of informing the general public about recent advances in the applications of electricity.

By J. E. Gregory

'Faraday never relied on his memory, which was always bad. and wrote everything down. ideas, lecture notes and experiments. His diaries were later edited and published in 1932 in seven volumes.

Faraday's experimental work rnded in 1855 when he retired. He shunned publicity preferring to live a simple Christian life. Since childhood he had belonged to a small religious sect, the Sandemanians and always found time to attend their meetings. At the age of thirty he had made a public confession of his faith.

Faraday delivered with some difficulty what was to be his last lecture at the Royal Institution in June 1862. He realised he was gradually becoming paralysed.

In 1858 Queen Victoria had placed at his disposal a Grace and Favour apartment in the precincts of Hampton Court and it was here that he died on August 25 th, 1867 , sitting quietly in his chair.

A grateful nation wanted to honour him with a national funeral at Westminster Abbey, but in accordance with his own wishes he was buried in perfect silence at Highgate Cemetery, London.

Diorama showing Faraday. in his laboratory.
Photograph: Science Mfuseum, London.




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| 100v | $0.47 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 10 | 257 | $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 98 |
| 100 V | $0.68 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 15 | 25. | $220 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 11 |
| 250 v | $0.01{ }^{\mu}{ }^{\text {\% }}$ | 6 | $25 \%$ | $470 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 14 |
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| 250 v | $0.038 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 6 | 35 v | $4.7 \mu \mathrm{P}$ | 7 |
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| 280 v | $0.068 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 69 | 100v | $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | ${ }^{8}$ |
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|  |  |  | 100v | $47 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 14 |

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## TEACH:N

 End of Term AnswersHere are the answers to the test we set last month:
(1) To make an non sillcon transistor conduct, its base must be made 600 mV positive with respect to its emitter.
(2) Generally speaking, you can reverse the types of transistors in a circuit and reverse the power supply polarity to compensate, provided you reverse all transistors and all other parameters are identical. You cannot substitute silicon for germanium or vice-versa.
(3) The power dissipation in TR1 is the potential difference between emitter and collector multiplied by the quiescent current flowing through the transistor.

First calculate $I_{b}=\frac{9-0.6}{33,600}=\frac{8 \cdot 4}{33,600}=0.25 \mathrm{~mA}$
We now find $I_{c}=I_{D} \times h_{F E}=0.25 \times 200=50 \mathrm{~mA}$
Voltage drop across $R 2=I_{c} \times R 2=0.05 \times 100=5 \mathrm{~V}$
Therefore drop across TR1 $=9-5=4 \mathrm{~V}$
The power dissipation in TR1 is $=V \times I=4 \times 0.05=$ 0.2 W or 200 mW
(4) (a) When the switch is opened, C1 tries to charge over the range of 9 V . We want the time it takes to reach 4 V . That is 5 V from the fully charged state. $t=\log _{e} \frac{V_{\text {total }}}{V_{a}} \times C \times R \quad$ (See Teach-In Part 8)
so in our case $t=\log _{2} \frac{9}{5} \times 0.000001 \times 1,000,000$
$=\log _{\mathrm{e}} 1.8=0.59$ seconds
(b) It will take a longer time because as fast as the capacitor is being charged some of the charge will be leaking away.
(c) The charging time will be less if you increase the total driving voltage range.

$$
t=\log _{e} \frac{18}{14}=\log _{e} 1 \cdot 29=0.25 \text { seconds }
$$

(5) The diode is sometimes needed to protect a transistor with low emitter/base reverse breakdown voltage. Its need is determined by this and supply voltage.
(6) If the "mark" is 50 mS the "space" will be $\frac{50 \times 1}{10}=5 \mathrm{mS}$ so the total period is 55 mS . Hence the frequency $\left(f=\frac{1}{t}\right)$ is $\frac{1}{0.055}=18 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~Hz}$.
(7) 4 V r.m.s. gives $4 \times \sqrt{ } 2$ volts peak which is $5 \cdot 65 \mathrm{~V}$ either positive or negative going about the +2 V level. Therefore peak maximum positive is $(2+5 \cdot 65)=+7 \cdot 65 \mathrm{~V}$ and peak negative is $(2-5 \cdot 65)=-3.65 \mathrm{~V}$.
(8) It would be better to use a germanium diode in a low voltage range meter. The 600 mV forward drop of a silicon diode would be too significant in a range of 5 V . For higher ranges greater than 30 V , a silicon diode could be used without introducing significant error.
(9) The answer is transformer (c). Note that you do not have to have separate windings to get transformer action. A centre tapped coil can behave just like a transformer.
(10) Buy the $6 \cdot 3 \mathrm{~V}$ r.m.s. type. It will have a peak output of
$6.3 \times 1.414=8.8 \mathrm{~V}$. After rectification and 8 moothing the output will fall by a sout 600 mV on medium loads. Sometimes you can compensate for this drop by using alternative mains tappings on the primary. Set for 210 V if you want a high output, or 250 V if you want a lower output.
(11) First calculate the reactance of the coil and total circuit impedance at each frequency, then use these values in a potential divide operation. We show the calculation at 50 Hz and the straight answers at 100 Hz and 200 Hz .

At $50 \mathrm{~Hz} X_{L}=2 \pi f L=2 \times 3 \cdot 142 \times 50 \times 1.5=472 \mathrm{ohm}$ $Z=\sqrt{ }\left(R^{2}+X_{L}{ }^{2}\right)=\sqrt{ }(1,000,000+222,000)=$ 1,100 ohms
Therefore $V_{\text {out }}=\frac{10 \times 472}{1,100}=4 \cdot 3 \mathrm{~V}$ r.m.s. at 50 Hz
$\mathrm{At} 100 \mathrm{~Hz} \mathrm{~V}_{\text {out }}=6.85 \mathrm{Vr} . \mathrm{m} . \mathrm{s}$. and at 200 Hz 8.8 Vr r.m.s.
(12) One would use the class B stage because the quies. cent current drawn is very low and hence very little power is wasted. If the volume is set low, battery power is conserved.
(13) Class A output does not suffer from cross over distortion and hence, intrinsically, provides a better quality output but at the expense of a high quiescent power dissipation. In practice modern class B outputs glve quite comparable quality outputs.
(14) You would lose low frequency response (hence lose bass frequencies) because the low capacitance of the microphone presents very high impedance to current flow at low frequencies. There is a greater potential divide effect at low frequency when connected to a low impedance amplifler input.

If a high input impedance is used the proportionate reduction in signal level so caused is less significant. Ideally the input impedance of an amplifier for use with a crystal microphone should be about 10 times the impedance of the microphone.
(15) Use the 15 ohm loudspeaker. You will not get maximum power coupling into it, but you will ensure that you do not exceed the current rating of the output transistors. As a general guide you can always use a loudspeaker having a higher impedance than that specified, but never use one that is lower.
(16) The errors were:
(i) D1 was the wrong way round.
(ii) TR2 emitter and collector were connected the wrong way round.
(iii) The flying lead should have come from the positive rail.
(iv) TR3 should be an npn and not pnp transistor.
(v) C3 was shown the wrong way round.

Typical values are R1, R2:5•6 kilohm; R3: 100 kilohm; R4: 330 ohm; C1, C2: $15,000 \mathrm{pF}$; C3: $50 \mu \mathrm{~F}$; TR1, TR2, TR3: BC108; D1, D2: OA91, LS1: 35 ohm; B1: 9V. For unity mark/space ratio at 500 Hz , Rf should be 100 kilohms but it can be varied between 22 kilohins and 470 kilohms to produce different frequericy notes.

## Temperature <br> Measurement

In the August 1972 Editorial of E.E., reference is made of using the old British symbol for the resistor. I agree with the comment that the zigzag is superior to the oblong box, also for my own use I shall still think of $\mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}, \mathrm{Kc} / \mathrm{s}$, Mc/s etc, rather than Hz , as I think $\mathrm{c} / \mathrm{s}$ describes the frequency of alternating current far better than Hz .

Referring to the thermistor used in the Weather Station project, as I understand, it will give the temperature of the sunshine if placed in the sun, which will be higher than conventional themometers in a proper ventilated screen four feet above bare earth and at least four feet away from any building or tree. This should be borne in mind if comparing such a temperature reading with those published in local evening papers as these are usually taken from thermometers in proper ventilated screens.

If placed in the shade of a tree so that the sun did not shine on it at all during the day the reading would then be nearer to that of a thermometer in a proper screen, although if used in the complete station, the unit (whole) would have to lie in an open space to record wind direction and speed.

C. W. Hockney<br>Yorkshire.

## Soldering

Your beginners series Teach-In suggests that in soldering, the soldering iron is applied to the work, and when the joint is sufficiently heated the solder applied to the joint i.e. the heated metal melting the solder. I have made reference to a book called "Soldering Handbook" which is (or was) published in association with Multicore solders. The book describes a similar technique to that which is printed on Multicore solder packets. This is as follows:
"Applying the iron directly to the work to heat it is very inefficient, and merely oxidises the workpiece surfaces making them more difficult to solder. It is much better to apply cored solder to the work, and then melt the solder with the iron; this is the most efficient way of heating the work, by letting the solder and flux carry the heat from the soldering, bit to the workpiece surface".
Multicore solders have this information in their packets so I am sure you will agree with me in saying that they must know what they are talking about!

There is a tremendous amount of confusion concerning soldering and its application, and in the case of beginners starting off on this hobby, it is surely very important that they learn in the correct manner. But which is the correct manner? I myself have
been very confused and doubtful to whether my joints are of an acceptable quality, and I have been involved in electronic work for several years. So when it comes to beginners, a simple direct method should be employed where they definitely know what they are doing and given an assurance of good results.

Please comment on the two methods given, I feel the latter is the better but you may differ in opinion. Soldering being such an important part of electronics it is surely very important that beginners are taught correctly.

Paul Carvill Wimbledon.

In our article on soldering (November 1971 issue-now unavailable) we said "A good soldered joint is made by first 'tinning' both surfaces . . . Unfortunately, copper oxidises very easily when heated . . . To prevent this oxidation we have to use a flux and this is contained in cores running through the length of the solder."

We went on to say, "The soldering iron, carrying a small amount of solder to help thermal contact, is then touched on the area to re-melt the solder on the surface and at the same time a small extra amount of cored solder is applied which runs into the joint."

As you have pointed out we did say that you should tin the wires by heating them with the iron and touching the solder on the wire. Provided the iron is carrying a small amount of solder to help thermal contact we believe this is better than melting the solder with the iron.

It is very easy for a beginner to melt the solder, without heating the job enough to ensure that the solder dissolves some of the copper wire and makes a good joint. If however the wire is heated until it melts the solder (using the solder on the iron to aid heat transfer) then the joint will be properly made.

## Wavelength

In your radio tuner article, you stated that Radio 2, on long wave is on 200 metres. In fact 200 metres is the h.f. end of the medium wave band, Radio 2 being on 1500 metres, 200 kHz .

Are there any plans for valve equipment which I notice your magazine has not published.
K. Haley Newcastle.

At present we do not intend to publish articles describing equipment using valves.


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A/cw=Anti-clockwise Fraction of makers' price. Allat 7Sp incl. P. af. PAMVALUX TYPE SO2. 200/250 VOLT A.C. O.C. HIGH SPEEO MOTQR Speed 9,000 r.p.m. usprox. or 3,200 r.p.m. if or variable spesed overna wide ranese if used in conjunction with our Dimmer Switch, illustrated Other models available request

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$0.45 A_{i} 1 k \Omega .280 \mathrm{~mA}, 1 \cdot 5 \mathrm{k} \Omega, 230 \mathrm{~m} \mathrm{~A}_{\mathrm{i}} 2.5 \mathrm{k} \Omega, 0 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~A}_{;} 3 \cdot 5 \mathrm{k} \Omega$. $165 \mathrm{~mA} 5 \mathrm{k} \Omega, 140 \mathrm{~mA}$. Diameter 3 f in Shaft length fin, dia. $4 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ in. All at cl. 65 each. P. a P. 7 ko .
50 WATT. $1 / 5 / 10 / 25 / 50 / 100 / 250 / 500 / 1 \mathrm{k} / 1 \cdot 5 \mathrm{k} / 2 \cdot 5 \mathrm{k} / 5 \mathrm{k} \Omega$. All at
 at top each. P. A P. 7tp.

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 $50 p$
Bridge
50
ing ${ }^{50 \mathrm{p}}$ Transistor sockers-6p <br> D.IL. I.C. sockers- 14 pin, 20p IN 4001 I- 50 P.I.V. I.OA. $6 p$ IN 4002 - 100 P.IV.V., $1.0 \mathrm{~A}, 7_{p}$
IN $4003-200$ P.IV., $1.0 A, 80$ IN $4003-200$ P.IV. $1.0 A .80$

IN4004-400 P.I.V., $1.0 A, 90$ IN4005-600 P.I.V., 1 OA, 12 <br> \begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline Type. \& \& \& \& \& <br>
\hline G87. \& 5 din \& 2 ¢ ${ }^{\text {n }}$ \& 1 in \& 38p \& 150 <br>
\hline GB8 \& \& 4 tin \& 1 in \& ${ }^{38 \mathrm{p}}$ \& <br>
\hline G89. \& \& 2 in \& 1 in \& 38p \& <br>
\hline GB10* \& stin \& 4in \& 1 in \& 44p \& 180 <br>
\hline G811 \& 4 in \& 2tin \& 2 in \& 38p \& <br>
\hline G812 \& 3 in \& 2 n \& Iin \& 330 \& <br>
\hline G813 \& 6 in \& 4 in \& 2 in \& 52 p \& <br>
\hline G814 \& 7 in \& Sin \& 2tin \& ${ }^{63}$ \& <br>
\hline G815 \& 8 in \& 6 6in \& 3in \& $81 p$ \& <br>
\hline GB16 \& 10 in \& 7in \& Jin \& 92p \& <br>

\hline \& \& \& These stan \& $$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { e size } \\
& \text { ndard }
\end{aligned}
$$ \& <br>

\hline
\end{tabular}

## EQUIPMENT CASES

## Wype H. W. D. Pricep. Ap

 $\begin{array}{llllll}\text { SF2 } & 2 i n & 7 / \text { in } & 3\} \text { in } & 600 & 16 p \\ \text { SF3 } & \text { 2in } & 9 / \text { in } & 4 / \text { in } & 750 & 190\end{array}$ Plain aluminium. Stove- enamelled
silver-grey ham.
simer mer finished. 200
extra.

## CONSOLE CASES

instruments, etc. ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{P}$ price
Type W. A B e C Drice p.

| 6820 | 8 | 9 | 312 | 3 | 61.42 | 300 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 6821 | 10 | 9 | 31 | 3 | 3 | 61.58 |
| 300 |  |  |  |  |  |  |



VEROBOARD

|  | 0.1 | 0.15 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ${ }_{\text {Sine }}$ Sin | matrix | matrix |
| 2tin $\%$ Sin | ${ }_{24}{ }^{21 p}$ | 25p |
| 3 in $\times 3$ in | 14p | 25p |
| 3 in 5 n | 270 | 290 |
| $17 \mathrm{in} \times 2$ ¢ ${ }^{\text {n }}$ | 15p | 57p |
| 17in $\times 3$ in | 4 | 75p |
| ins-either |  | 36 |

ELECTROLYTICS

| $1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 450 V | 19p | $1.000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V | 27 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2HF | 450 V | 20p | $1.000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 50 V | 39 |
| $4 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 350 V | $14 p$ | $2.060 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V | 36 |
| $8 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 450V | 16p | $2.060 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 50 V | 53 |
| $16 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 450 V | 17p | 2.500 ${ }^{\text {F }}$ | 25 V | 45p |
| $25 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V | 7p | 2,5C0 $\mu \mathrm{F}$ | 50 V | 60p |
| $25 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 50 V | 8p | $3.060 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V | 48 p |
| 32 $\mu \mathrm{F}$ | 450 V | 24p | $5.000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | $25 V$ | 55p |
| $50 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 50 V | 10p | $5.060 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 50 V | 98 |
| $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V | 10p | 8-8 $\mu \mathrm{F}$ | 450 V | 18 |
| 100\% F | 50 V | 100 | 8-16 $\mathrm{H}^{\text {F }}$ | 450 V | 20 |
| $250 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V | 12p | $16-16 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 450 V | 27 |
| $250 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 50 V | 170 | 16-32 $\mu \mathrm{F}$ | 450 V | 63 |
| $500 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V | 180 | 32-32 $\mu \mathrm{F}$ | 450 V | 49 |
| $500 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | SoV | 25p | 50-50 sF | 350 V | 38p |

MINIATURE ELECTROLYTICS

| $1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 63 V | ${ }^{6 p}$ | $47 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 16V | 78 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ${ }^{2} \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | $63 V$ | ${ }^{60}$ | $47 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V | 60 |
| , F | 63 V | ${ }^{6 p}$ | $58 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | Iov | ${ }^{\circ}$ |
| 7 7 F | 63 V | ${ }^{60}$ | $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 10 V | 6p |
| 8 $\mu \mathrm{F}$ | 40 V | 7p | $220 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 16 V | 7p |
| $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | $25 V$ | ${ }^{60}$ | $330 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 16 V | $11 p$ |
| $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 64V | $7 p$ | $470 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 10V | 110 |
| $16 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 40 V | $7 p$ | $1.050 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 16 V | 199 |
| $30 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 15 V | $7 p$ | 1,500 $\mu \mathrm{F}$ | 16 V | 23 p |

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$10 \mathrm{in} \times 6 \mathrm{in}, 3 \mathrm{n}-62.32 .8$ 日-62.32.
$15 \Omega-62.32$
8in round. $3 \Omega-62.10,8 \Omega-12.65$,
Adastra"Hi-Ten", 10in, $10 \mathrm{~W}, 8$ or $15 \Omega-\mathbf{1 5} 3.40$
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B.A.F wadding, IBin wide. lin thick. The
ideal lining for speaker enclosures. 2sp per
ind

PLUGS
Car aeria
O.I.N 2 pin (speaker)
D.i.N. 3 pin
D.IN. 5 pin. 180
D.IN. 5 din. 24

Jack, $2 \neq \mathrm{mm}$ unscreene Jack. $2 \$ \mathrm{~mm}$ screened Jack. 3 f mm unscreened Jack, 3 mmm screened Jack, tin unscreened Jack. tin screened Jack, itereo, unscreened Jack, stereo, screene Phono, placed meral Phono, fitted 4 fit lead Whander, red or black Banana 4 mm , red or b Car aerial
Co-axial D.IN. 2 pin (speaker)
O.I.N. N in
O.I.N. 5 pin. $180^{\circ}$
O.I.N. 5 pin $240^{\circ}$

Jack, 3 finm
Jack, Jomm
Jack, stereo, screene
Phono, plated metal


CAPACIT

|  |  |  |  | 0.003 $\mu \mathrm{F}$ | 500 V | Cor. | 5 p |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $2 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | 5/M | 7 f | $0.0033 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 125 V | P. 5. | 6 p |
| $3 \cdot 3$ ) $F$ | 500V | 5/M | $71 p$ | $0.0033 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | Poly. | 60 |
| 50F | 500V | 5/M | $71 p$ | $0.0033 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 1,000V | MDC | $6 p$ |
| 10 pF | $125 V$ | P.S. | 5p | $0.0036 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | 5/M | 15p |
| 109F | Soov | 5/M | 7p | $0.0047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 125 V | P. 5. | 9p |
| 150F | 125 V | P.S. | 5p | $0.0047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | Poly. | 6p |
| 150 F | 500 V | Cer | 4p | $0.0047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | 5/M | 20p |
| 18 pF | 500 V | 5/M | 7 p | $0.0047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 1.000 V | MDC | 6 p |
| 22pF | 125 V | P.S. | 5p | $0.005 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 100 V | Mylar | 3p |
| 22. F | soov | 5/M | 7p | $0.005 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | Cer. | $5 p$ |
| 25pF | 500 V | 5/M | 7 p | $0.0068 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 125V | P. 5. | 101p |
| 27 of | 500 V | Cer | 4 p | $0.0068 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | S/M | 30p |
| 33 DF | 125V | P. 5 | 5 p | $0.0068 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | Poly. | 69 |
| 330 F | 500 V | 5/M | 7 7P | $0.0082 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 125V | P.S. | 101p |
| 3905 | 500 V | 5/M | 7 P | $0.0082 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | S/M | 30 p |
| 47 \% | 125V | P. 5. | $5 p$ | $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 18 V | Dise | 4p |
| 47pF | 500 V | Cer | 4 p | $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 125 V | P.5. | 101p |
| 50 pF | 500 V | S/M | 7 \% | $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 160 V | Poly. | 40 |
| 56oF | 500 V | S/M | 710 | $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | 3 p |
| 68 of | 125 V | P. 5. | 5 p | $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400 V | Poly. | 3 p |
| 68pF | 500 V | 5/M | 710 | $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | Cer. | 5 p |
| 75pF | 500 V | 5/M | 710 | $001 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | 5/M | 30p |
| 82pF | 500 V | S/M | 7 ip | 0.01 $\mu \mathrm{F}$ | 600 V | MDC | $7 p$ |
| 100 pF | 125V | P. 5. | 5p | $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 1.000 V | MDC | 9 |
| 100 pF | 500 V | 5/M | 7 P | $0.015 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 160 V | Poly. | $3 p$ |
| 100pF | 500 V | Cer. | $3 p$ | $0.015 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400 V | Poly. | 3 p |
| 120 pF | 500 V | S/M | 710 | $0.02 \mu$ F | 100 V | Mylar | ${ }^{3} \mathrm{p}$ |
| 150 pF | 125 V | P.S. | Sp | $0 \cdot 022 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 18 V | Disc | $5 p$ |
| 150 pF | 500 V | S/M | 710 | $0.022 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250V | M.F. | 3 p |
| 150 pF | 500 V | Cer. | 5p | $0.022 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400 V | Poly. | 3 p |
| 180 pF | 500 V | S/M | 7 l | 0.022 $\mu \mathrm{F}$ | 600 V | MDC | 1p |
| 200pF | 500 V | S/M | 11 p | $0.022 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 1.000 V | MDC | 9 p |
| 220pF | 125 V | P. 5. | 5p | 0.033HF | 250 V | M.F. | $4 p$ |
| 220pF | 500 V | Cer | 5 p | $0.033 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400 V | Poly. | 4 p |
| $250 p F$ | 500 V | $S / M$ | 8 | $0.047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 12 V | Disc | 6p |
| 270 pF | 500 V | Cer. | $5 p$ | $0.047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 160 V | Poly. | 3 3 |
| 300pF | 500 V | $s / M$ | 8 p | $0.047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | 3 p |
| 330 pF | $125 V$ | P.S. | 5p | $0.047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400 V | Poly. | $4 p$ |
| 330pF | 500 V | 5/M | 8 p | $0.047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 600 V | MDC | \% |
| 390 DF | 500 V | S/M | 8 p | $0.047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 1.000 V | MOC | 10p |
| 470 p | 125 V | P.S. | 5p | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 30V | Disc | 6p |
| 470.F | 750 V | Disc | 50 | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | 4 p |
| 500 FF | 500 V | $5 / \mathrm{M}$ | 8 | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400 V | Poly. | 5p |
| 560pF | 500 V | S/M | 8 p | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 600 V | MDC | 10 p |
| 680¢F F | 125 V | P.S. | $6 p$ | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 1.000 V | MOC | 13p |
| 680 pF | 500 V | 5/M | $8{ }^{80}$ | $0 \cdot 15 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | 5 p |
| 820pF | 500 V | S/M | 8 p | $0.22 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 160 V | Poly. | $6 p$ |
| 0.001 MF | 100 V | Mylar | 3 P | $0 \cdot 22 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | 5p |
| $0.001 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 125 V | P. 5. | 6p | $0 \cdot 22 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400 V | Foil | 10p |
| $0.001 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400 V | Poly. | 3 p | $0.22 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 1.000 V | MDC | $15 p$ |
| $0.001 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | 5/M | 10p | $0.33 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | \%p |
| $0.001 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | Cer. | 5p | $0 \cdot 47 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | 8 p |
| $0.0014 F$ | 1,000V | MDC | 6p | $0.47 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400 V | Foil | 15p |
| 0.00154 F | 400 V | Poly | 3 p | $0 \cdot 47 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 1.000 V | MDC | 20p |
| $0.0015: 4 F$ | 500 V | S/M | 10p | $1 \cdot \mathrm{H} \mathrm{F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | 15p |
| 0.00154 F | 500 V | Cer. | 5p |  |  |  |  |
| 0.0018 HF | 500 V | $5 / \mathrm{M}$ | 10 p | Nore: |  |  |  |
| $0.002 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 100 V | Mylar | 3p | $S / \mathrm{M}=\mathrm{s}$ | er mica | $1 \%$ |  |
| $0.002 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | Cer. | $5 p$ | P.S. $=0$ | lystyren | $2 \pm$ | ol. |
| $0.0022 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 125 V | P. 5. | $6 p$ | MDC | .e. rat | $=300$ |  |
| $0.0022 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | 5/M | 10p | M.F. $=$ | ullard | n. fol |  |
| $00022 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 1.000 V | MDC | $6 p$ | Cer. $=$ | eramic. |  |  |

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TMINIATURE WAFER SWITCHES
2 pole， 2 way－4 pole， 2 way－ 3 pole， 3 way－4 pole，\＆way－ 2 pole，${ }^{4}$ way－${ }^{3}$ pole，i way－ 2 pole
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3 amp．250v，with fixing ring 7ip each，75p doz

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 Contalning a 15 amp．change over which in turn is operated by alr pressure through apeamal meta adjustable but is ant to operate in
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Ior 2 onfofts per 24 hours．Repeats untll re－pmgrammed．Bwitchen up to 15 mmp ．Bwitching titue completely aljumtable through 24 hourn．Precision made with $2 \sqrt{\text { a }}$ hour dia．miniature－Win fit into 2 ina cube．Malns operated clock but wwitch may be imolated for switchthg
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| No．of Poles | Btandard size $11^{\circ}$ water－alver－plated $\delta$－amp coatect， standard $t^{\circ}$ apindie $3^{\prime}$ long－- ith locking waher and nut． |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 2way | 3 way | 4 Way | 5 way |  | 8 way | 9 w | 10 wa | 2way |
| 1 pole | 409 | 40 | 403 | 409 | 40 | 40． | 40 | 40p |  |
| 2 poles | 40 | 40 | 403 | 403 | 40 | 40 | 40 | 70. | 70 |
| 3 polee | 408 | 40 | 40 | 40 | 70. | 70 | 70 | 05 |  |
| 4 polee | 408 | 409 | 10 | 70 | 70 p | 70 | 70 | 11－20 | 11－00 |
| 5 poles | 400 | 40 | 70 | 70 | 05 | 95\％ | 05 | 11－45 | 11.45 |
| 6 poles | 40 | 70 | 70 | 70 | $5{ }^{5}$ | 859 | 969 | 11．70 | 11．70 |
| 7 polee | 70 | 70 | 70 | 觡 | A120 | $11-20$ | 11．20 | $\underline{11-10}$ | 11－05 |
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approx． 10 in ．of water．These are quita $10 \%$ pressure devices and can in fact be operated amply by blowing into the injet tube．Original ane was for wahlng machines to tara of wales when tub has reachell corkect level but no doubs 750 each． 10 for 80.75 ．

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