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Nolse Better than -75 dB
Supply voltage $\quad 25-45$ vaits SA25/35
Size $40-70$ vots SA 100 $4^{-} \times 3^{\circ} \times 11^{\circ}\left(S A 25 /{ }^{\circ}\right.$ (SA35)
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Input sensitivity 200 mV Into 10 KK
Construction Fibreglase board
Slze $8^{\circ} \mathrm{x} 4^{\circ} \times \mathrm{t}^{-}$(5 $5^{\circ}$ with supply)
Liow distorion parali pul pul oulpula

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# everyday 

# PROJECTS ... THEORY 

## THE HEART OF IT ALL

A hobby for all ages, catering for all inclinations: this is present day electronics, thanks to the transistor. Young people naturally enough accept the transistor for what it has becomethe heart of electronics, upon which all circuits depend. Yet it was not always so, as older constructors will recall.
The transistor first appeared on the scene twentyfive years ago. Prior to that event, the valve was the vital active component and things were very different. Electronics extended very little beyond the fields of radio communication and sound amplification. The home constructor of the pre-transistor era was likewise limited to those two traditional areas, apart from a rare excursion into a "non-electronic area" as exemplified, perhaps, by the building of a simple timer for photographic purposes.

## ENTER THE TRANSISTOR

The transistor changed all that, and how! Let us briefly recall the pattern of development.
Tiny in size relative to the valve, the semiconductor device needed but a modest power supply. Thus as equipment became "transistorised" it became physically smaller and lighter in weight. Electronic equipment composed of quite complex and extensive circuitry was no longer restricted to more-or-less permanent installations. It could now be installed or used in environments and situations never before practical or accessible.

Twentyfive years ago saw the start of the emancipation of electronics. The following years brought forth great and exciting developments in circuit design. These circuits were often based upon ideas that were not always new in themselves, but which had been denied practical realisation in the days of valves, because of the physical encumbrances inseparable from thermionic devices.

## SOLID STATE REVOLUTION

The transistor proved to be just the beginning of a solid state revolution. Soon it was followed by a whole family of different, but related semiconductor devices. Some, for example, were designed for detecting heat and light radiation, others for controlling large amounts of electrical power.

Thanks to the versatility of these semiconductor devices the possible uses for electronic circuits grew steadily. And men of ideas soon started to apply electronics to fields far remote from those of the valve days. Today, possible applications of electronic circuits are far from exhausted. The future holds even greater promise.


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## EASY TO CONSTRUCT SIMPLY EXPLAINED

## CONSTRUCTIONAL PROJECTS

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> We continually get requests for back numbers, unfortunately we are simply unable to supply any. To make sure you receive all our issues, we suggest that you place a regular order with your newsagent.



## A simple design to enable eggs to be boiled to your satisfaction.

Conventional egg timers have one major drawback, there is no positive indication that timing has stopped. It is infuriating to turn around and look at the egg timer, only to find all the sand in the bottom and a very hard egg in the saucepan. The electronic Egg Timer provides an audible warning.

## CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

The complete circuit diagram of the Egg Timer is shown iṇ Fig. 1. During the positive half

## by R. Gwinn

of the mains cycle, C2 is charged through D2 to 9 V . In the negative half cycle, C3 is charged through D3 to 9 V . As these capacitors are in series, 18 V appears across the d.c. power supply rails of the circuit.

When the circuit is first switched on, Cl is completely discharged as it is shorted out when the timer is off. The gate of the field effect transistor (f.e.t.) TR1 does not take any current, so all the current flowing through the series combination of VR1 and R1 flows into the capacitor Cl and charges it slowly, hence the voltage on the gate of TR1 rises slowly.

When the gate of a f.e.t. is very negative with respect to its other electrodes, very little current flows through them as it is "pinched off" by the depletion region, an area in which virtually no current flows and whose size is controlled by the gate potential; the f.e.t. is in this state when the timer is first switched on.

As the gate becomes more positive with respect to earth (less negative with respect to the drain electrode) this region becomes smaller and more current is allowed to flow through TR1, R2 and VR2. This causes the voltage across VR2 and on TR2 base to rise.

When the voltage on the base exceeds that of the emitter by 600 mV , base current, and hence collector current, begins to flow. When there is sufficient current to pull in the relay, its contacts apply $6 \cdot 3 \mathrm{~V}$ a.c. to the buzzer WDI.

Switching off removes the mains and shorts Cl ready to begin another timing cycle.



Fig. 1. The complete circuit diagram of the Egg Timer.

## CONSTRUCTION DETAILS

Fig. 2 (below). The positions of the Veroboard components and the areas of copper strip to be removed.


The components to be mounted on the $0 \cdot 15 \mathrm{in}$. matrix Veroboard, size $16 \times 7$ holes, are shown in Fig. 2.

First, cut the copper strips in the correct places as shown in Fig. 2, drill the mounting hole and solder the components in position, not forgetting the link wire E10 to G10. The transistors and diodes should be soldered in position last and heat shunts used on their leads, otherwise permanent damage may be done to them.

The prototype was fitted inside a standard aluminium case size $5 \mathrm{in} . \times 7 \mathrm{in} . \times{ }^{1}{ }_{2} \mathrm{in}$. The layout of the components within the case is not important so any size case may be used.

With reference to Fig. 3 mount the other components in position and fix to the case; now wire up as indicated. As can be seen from Fig. 3 the potentiometer VR1 and switch S1 are attached to the lid of the case.

Ensure that an earthing tag is attached to the transformer fixing bolt. When the wiring is complete, bolt the component board securely to the case using a spacer to keep the board at about ${ }_{1}{ }_{4}$ in. from the case. As a safeguard against shorting of the board via the case, insulating tape can be stuck to the case below the board.

The mains lead should be led out through the side of the case via a rubber grommet. A few ties of string around the outer sheath of the mains cable, on the inside of the case, will prevent a tug on the mains lead from doing any damage internally.

## RELAY

The relay used in the prototype was one which came out of a surplus telemeter unit, but any relay that operates on 18 V and draws less than



Photograph of the inside of the completed Egg Timer.

25 mA (coil resistance greater than 700 ohms) will be suitable. The higher the resistance of the relay coil, the more accurate the timing interval is likely to be.
It may not be possible to obtain a relay with only one-pole make contact as is required, but this should present no problem as any contact arrangement can be easily adapted for this particular purpose, as in the prototype.

## TESTING AND SETTING UP

Thoroughly check out the wiring and make sure the component board does not touch the metal case. It may be a good idea to glue a piece of foam rubber between the board and case so that the board is additionally supported and protected. This may be found necessary after testing due to the vibration of the unit when the buzzer is activated. Also check that the on/off switch does not touch any components inside the case when the lid is placed in position, insulating tape may be used as an extra safeguard.
Disconnect the buzzer and wire a 6 V bulb in its place.

When you are completely satisfied that the wiring is correct, plug into the mains via a fused plug containing a 1 A fuse.
When carrying out the setting up details given below, you should be extremely careful not to touch any wiring because mains voltages are on some wires and will give a nasty electric shock.

Adjust VRl so that it is at its maximum, i.e. fully clockwise. With VR2 set to minimum resistance (fully anticlockwise), switch on via Sl and time for 7 minutes.

At this time, carefully (and quickly) adjust VR2 turning clockwise until the bulb glows. Now switch off via Sl (this discharges capacitor C1) for a few seconds and then switch on and record the time it takes for the bulb to switch on. It should be 7 minutes. If this is so, place a blob of glue on VR2 to secure it in this position, and mark the pointer position of VR1 on the lid to this effect. If the recorded time is not 7 minutes
adjust VR2 further until this time is achieved and then secure VR2 as above.

Now set VR1 to minimum position (fully anticlockwise) and measure the time from switch-on to the bulb glow and mark this time alongside VR1 point on the lid. This should be about $1^{1}{ }_{2}$ minutes.

Intermediate times can be marked around VR1 knob by trial and error methods.

Required egg condition, i.e. soft, semi-hard and hard can be marked alongside the correct time if so desired as shown in front cover photograph, but this depends on many things such as size of egg, temperature of water, whether the egg has been stored in a refrigerator or not and is best done by trial and error.

Now replace the bulb with the buzzer and screw on the lid. The unit is now complete.

## USING

When using the unit in the kitchen it is essential that a good earthing connection is available at the mains socket. The electronic Egg Timer, because it is using a mains supply, should be kept well away from any source of water or steam and not handled with wet hands.

To use the unit, select the "egg cooking time" required and switch on at the commencement of this time. The buzzer will sound when the set interval has elapsed.

## Resistors


Potentiometers
VR1 $4.7 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ carbon linear VR2 $1 \mathrm{~K} \Omega$ preset

Capacitors
C1 $15 \mu \mathrm{~F} 25 \mathrm{~V}$ tantalum bead type
C2 $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect 16 V
C3 $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect 16 V
Semiconductors

| TR1 | 2N3819 $n$ channel f.e.t. |
| :--- | :--- |
| TR2 | BC108 silicon npn |
| D1 | 1N914 |
| D2 | 1N4001 |
| D3 | 1N4001 |

Miscellaneous T1 Mains transformer, 240 V primary, 6.3V 2 A secondary

S1 Double-pole changeover toggle WD1 Friedland 182 buzzer RLA see text-suitable type STC 4189GD Veroboard 0.15 in. matrix size $16 \times 7$ holes; metal case, size 5in. x 7in. $\times 2 \frac{1}{2}$ in.; three core mains cable; three pin fused plug; rubber grommet; 6 V bulb-for test purposes only (see text)

THE development of communications by space satellite is one of the most dramatic and fast moving chapters in the history of man's technological progress. Today, about 60 per cent of the world's inter-continental telephone traffic is carried by satellites stationed 22,300 miles out in space. Millions of people watch worldwide TV transmissions relayed by satellites positioned over the Atlantic, Indian and Pacific Oceans.

Yet it was as recently as 1962 that communication by satellite began when the first 'phone calls and TV pictures were beamed across the Atlantic via the pioneer satellite, Telstar. The historic signals were picked up at the Post Office satellite earth station at Goonhilly, Cornwall, a few miles from Lands End.

## DEVELOPMENT

Since then Britain and Goonhilly have figured prominently in the rapid and exciting development of satellite communications. From the first commercial operations in 1965 with a singte giant aerial focused on to a satellite, knoyplas Early Bird, over the Atlantic, Goonhilly has become one of the busiest earth stationain the world. There are now three aerials 0 Od Othill -the latest aerial coming into optcadion liot
 (1972)-which is the first eath-sation 27) ple of equipment-the satellite. Importantly have three aerials in simultaneqns commercie po the satellite is the only way of providing operation to three satellites (twp ger the A intaricontineltal TV. In addition, the service Atlantic and one over the Indiap Ocean $\quad$ prowded by a satellite is flexible and can easily

Developed at a total cost (at the end of 1972 ) be adjusted to meet changes in demand. of about $£ 14 \mathrm{~m}$, Goonhilly has bucome thef. the only other contender in the field of pattern for virtually all the wornd's satollye international communication is high frequency
earth stations-more than 70 -which have mushroomed in the past decade. The huge aerials on the lonely Cornish moor have, therefore, helped realise a technological dream.

## CABLE OR SATELLITE

It is necessary to define the role of satellites before looking in detail at the development of satellite communications. Will, for example, satellites eventually replace the other and traditional means of inter-continental telecommunications, undersea cables?

The short answer is no. The demand for international telecommunications service is doubling every four years and both cables and satellites are needed to meet the demand. Cables are ideal for busy or short routes and are still directly competitive over transatlantic routes. New developments in undersea cable technology (reviewed in Everyday Electronics, September 1909. now no longer available) are dramatically rucreasidg the communications circuit capacity iof modern submarine cables.

Theisatedtite has, however, one major advantage over the cable. It makes possible interdommunication between many different and fidely scattered countries through a single pe of equipment-the satellite. Importantly


Shown above is the Mark II version of the original Telstar satellite.
radio which does not possess the capacity, reliability or quality of service needed for modern communication. In a remarkably short time, therefore, satellites have assumed a commanding and vital position in the expansion of global communications.

## OPERATIONAL CONCEPT

Yet even during the brief space communications era there has been a fundamental change in the operational concept of satellites. In 1962 when the Telstar satellite was launched and USA, France and Britain took part in the first experiments it was envisaged that communications satellites would orbit in series and earth station aerials would track the satellites as they passed. Consequently during the Telstar experiments Goonhilly was only operational between the time the satellite appeared over one horizon and disappeared below the opposite horizon on its way around the earth-a period of only 20 minutes or so every two-and-a-half hours.

Barely had the feasibility of satellite communications been proved by Telstar when it became possible through the development of more powerful launching rockets, to place a satellite so far out in space that its orbit coincided with the Earth's rotation. At this distance, 22,300 miles above the Earth, the satellite appears to remain stationary-an orbit that is described as geo-stationary.

Earth stations could now focus permanently on the satellite and the complications involved in swiftly picking up and locking on to lower orbiting satellites and tracking them across the sky were removed.

## INTELSAT

The global communications scenes then began to move swiftly. A group of 11 major countries, Britain included, signed an agreement in 1964 to form INTELSAT, the consortium responsible for providing the satellites and associated tracking and control facilities. This responsibility, described as the "space segment", does not include Earth stations which are the sole concern of the satellite users. Subsequently the number of INTELSAT members has grown to a total of 83 countries.

With the advent of the geo-stationary satellite whole new frontiers of technology were revealed. The science of space communications had to be created and perfected-the satellites, the aerials, ancillary earth station controls and telecommunications links to and from the earth stations and their national internal networks. One major problem was the maintenance of signal strength. The satellite picks up the signal beamed from the aerial, increases its strength and re-transmits it to a second earth station which means that the signal travels a total of about 45,000 miles.

Transmission and reception are simultaneous but the signals do not clash because different frequencies are used. The time taken for the signal to travel from earth to satellite and back to earth is about a quarter of a second.

When the signal arrives back on earth it is, however, so faint that it could be swamped even by the small amount of "thermal noise" made by the receiving equipment. To overcome this problem the receiving equipment at Goonhilly is cooled to minus 256 degrees Centigrade. This minimises molecular activity in the receiving equipment and enables the incoming signal from the satellite to be received with great clarity. The signal is then amplified in a series of steps until it is strong enough for ordinary transmission over the telephone network.

## ACCESS

The amplified signal is, in the case of Goonhilly, carried by a microwave radio link in the 6000 MHz band which connects the earth station with the international switchboard through the Post Office Tower in London. This link is routed via Plymouth and Bristol and a reserve system can be used for TV transmission simultaneously with telephony.

Since Goonhilly has multi-access to three satellites it has to break down the channel capacity of the baseband content of the inland microwave link to component super-groups and where necessary, to individual groups of chan-
nels, and then reassemble them in required channel content for transmission to the satellites. The same process must also be carried out in reverse for signals received from the satellite. This function is performed at Goonhilly by multiplex equipment which also provides pilotfrequency monitoring as a check on system performance.

The below baseband $(0-12 \mathrm{kHz})$ spectrum of each satellite carrier is used to provide engineering service order wires, both voice and teleprinter, which are separated from the traffic baseband before it reaches the multiplex equipment. Translation of these circuits is separately made in another, specially designed, multiplex equipment installation.

## CONTROL

Operational control of the Goonhilly earth station is centralised in a main building separate from the three aerials. A console suite contains the engineering control of the aerial steering systems in addition to associated communications equipment. The console also allows monitoring of the continuity of traffic signals through the system.

For both colour and monochrome television there is a separate control and monitoring suite. Complementing this control there are speech and teleprinter engineering service circuits and two switchboards. From these the controller can maintain contact, through the satellite, with engineers at distant earth stations and their operational control centres. The entire working station is duplicated and there is automatic change-over when any unit fails. Manual changeover can also be made if necessary.

The main control console for all three aerials at Goonhilly.


## SITE

The planning for Goonhilly earth station began with the initial choice of the site for the station. It had to be in the west of the country for maximum mutual visibility to the, then, low altitude satellites working with a station in the USA. It also had to be in the south because 95 per cent of the world's telephone users are to the south of Britain (and, therefore, satellite systems were also likely to be in the south).
The sub-strata had to be stable enough to support the weight of the aerials (about 1,000 tons each in the case of the first two aerials) and there had to be an all-round clearance elevation above about five degrees. Goonhilly easily meets both criteria. The earth station site has a rock base hundreds of feet thick and is on a plateau with an all-round clearance of half a degree in elevation.

Goonhilly is reasonably close to inland communications links, is also free from radio interference and does not cause interference to other communications systems.

The weather in the area had to be considered, for with three aerials whose dishes range from 85 ft to 97 ft in diameter on such an exposed site 350ft above sea level, wind damage could be calamitous. In fact, wind speeds at Goonhilly rarely exceed 60 mph , but to be on the safe side the aerials have been designed to survive wind speeds well over 100 mph and even, in the case of the third and latest aerial, up to 130 mph . Finally, heavy snowfalls, which could build up and overload the aerial structures, are rare at Goonhilly while rainfall, although frequent, is not unduly heavy.

An engineer checks pictures at the television control and monitoring console.


## SATELlites

After choosing the ideal site and spending, to date, about $£ 14 \mathrm{~m}$ on developing Goonhilly, the Post Office has also spent some further $£ 12 \mathrm{~m}$ towards the purchase and launching of satellites by INTELSAT. The money, together with that from other INTELSAT member countries, has provided for the development of a series of satellites each more sophisticated than the last.

Since the first days of the INTELSAT consortium in 1964, four series of satellites have been built. From a single Early Bird satellite (Intelsat I) with 240 circuits and point-to-point access only, in 1965, the system progressed to a multiple-access global service in mid-1969 using Intelsat III series satellites and then to Intelsat IV service by mid-1972.

Compared with the single links in 1965 from the USA to the UK or France or Germany there is now a global network of about 200 simultaneous links between pairs of earth stations.

Today's satellites, Intelsat IV's, are able to handle up to 5,000 communications circuits at once plus separate TV transmission facilities. They weigh almost one-and-a-half tons at launch, are taller than a double-decker bus and cost $£ 6 \mathrm{~m}$ each, plus about $£ 7 \mathrm{~m}$ for each launch. America's National Aeronautical and Space Administration (NASA) launches all INTELSAT's satellites and the powerful Atlas Centaur rocket is used to launch the Intelsat IV which has a design life of about seven years.

The Intelsat IV satellites have two important new features which make them more efficient to operate compared with earlier satellites. In addition to providing global coverage with its signals the Intelsat IV is able to concentrate

This comparison shows the size of Intelsat IV communications satellite.

part of its power in two spot beams focused on the busy routes such as North America and Canada in the east and Britain, Europe and North Africa in the west.

Part of Intelsat IV's capacity can also be reserved for "demand assignment". This new system will allow a country with several light traffic routes to use, say, two or three access channels to cover them all where previously one pre-assigned circuit was required for each route.

Since January 1971, four Intelsat IV satellites have been launched and between them they carry all the INTELSAT traffic. Another four Intelsat IV satellites will be launched to provide spares-in-orbit over the three operating regions -the Atlantic, Indian and Pacific Oceans.

It should be explained that Russia is not a member of INTELSAT as they have their own and separate satellite communications system known as ORBITA which employs satellites in orbits quite different from those used by INTELSAT but which are especially suited to the coverage of the whole of Russia.

## DEMAND

Despite the greater capacity for circuits provided by the latest satellites, demand is growing so rapidly that it is likely that by about 1975 still more capacity will be needed and even bigger satellites may be required. The growth in the number of circuits used by satellites has been startling. In mid- 1967 the number of satellite circuits in use totalled 100 . Today the global total is about 3,500 plus 5 to 10 per cent added for "occasional" use such as TV programmes. In the Atlantic region alone the

Part of the Intelsat IV's power is concentrated in two spot beams.

number of satellite circuits in use is more than 2,000 , of which just under 500 are via Goonhilly. (In addition just over 600 UK-Atlantic circuits go by undersea cable.)

The three aerials at Goonhilly provide direct communication via satellite with 34 countries. Aerial Two (built in 1968) and Aerial Three (built in 1972 at a cost of $£ 2{ }_{4}{ }_{4} \mathrm{~m}$ ) are linked to 18 countries by satellites over the Atlantic. Aerial One (built in 1965 and re-equipped in 1969) operates to 16 other countries via a satellite over the Indian Ocean. Within the next few years a further 20 or more countries will join the INTELSAT system. At present Goonhilly has almost 700 long distance telephone circuits in operation.

Of all the statistics underlining the impressive growth of international telecommunications perhaps one of the most satisfying relates to the decreasing cost to the user. Today a phone call to North America can be made on international subscriber dialling for as little as 50 p a minute. Yet when transatlantic 'phone services were begun 45 years ago the minimum charge for a similar call was $£ 15$-in those days the equivalent of several weeks' wages. Such dramatic cost reductions have not stemmed wholly from the advent of satellites, but their use has allowed countries to expand their international communications links more cheaply than if there had been no alternative to the laying of trans-oceanic cables.


Aerlal One bulit in 1965 and re-equipped in 1969. It operates to 16 countries via a sateilite over the Indian Ocean.

# Ruminations By Sensor 

## Self-help

Most of us take our television for granted. In most parts of England good quality colour television programme reception is enjoyed but what about the folk in more isolated places who cannot get a decent black and white picture? For example, north of Inverness and in North West Scotland it is impossible to recelve BBC 2 transmissions and ITA reception is poor. The BBC 1 signal is not always receivedparticularly, if there is a mountain between one's home and the transmitter.
In December 1972 BBC 1 colour programmes became available to viewers in the Inverness area from the transmitter at Rosemarkie, and a low power relay
station further south at Rosehearty helps to extend the area of the Aberdeenshire transmitter and the new station at Rosemarkie. The BBC plan to build many more of these low power relay stations, like the one at Rosehearty but it will be well into the 1980's before these are completed. Even then, there will always be many areas which cannot be reached because of the mountainous terrain.

The inhabitants of one village may enjoy relatively good reception whilst their neighbours only a mile away may receive nothing at all. Of course, the capital cost involved in providing even BBC 1 black and white pictures to certain parts of the Highlands would be quite prohibitive. However many communities have subscribed sufficient funds to erect their own communal mast on some suitable hill in order to enjoy their "telly". In one such village viewers pay £25 a year plus £4 maintenance costs into a television "club", in addition to their
licence fee and rental payments, for their piped television.

## Deprived

Many people living in these remote areas feel that they are deprived in so many other respects such as libraries, further education facilities, cinemas and theatres, and yet, they are expected to pay the full licence fee even though they will not receive the full range of BBC and ITA services. It is natural that they should feel that a graded licence system ought to be introduced for areas of this kind.

Of course, all will be well when we each have our own satellite receiver. The thrifty Highlander will quickly learn to construct his reflector dish from old oil drums, driftwood and rubbish left by the English tourist and, with "true Highland hospitality, will invite his "bed and breakfast" guests to watch the Highland Games in full colour whilst they are gathered around the peat fire. But that's nae yet!

BASIC
(5) Electricity

Motors, Generators, Alternators By Maureen Birch

We have seen that a current flowing through a coil of wire that is suspended in a magnetic field produces movement of the coil. The coil always tends to align its axis with the field because the current flowing through it makes it behave like a magnet with its own north and south poles. These poles attract or repel the poles of the fixed magnet (producing the field) and the combination of these forces rotates the coil until it reaches a stable position -its axis in line with the field. This simple principle is adapted and refined to drive motors which in turn drive machines.

## CONTINUOUS ROTATION

Continuous rotation of the coil can be achieved by arranging that just as the axis of the coil lines up with the field, the current flowing is momentarily stopped and the inertia of the coil is allowed to carry it past "top dead centre." The current is then reversed so that the poles that were attracting each other are now repelling each other, and vice versa.

Provided this is done every time the coil is about to line up with the fixed magnetic field continuous motion can be obtained. To turn the attractive forces to ones of repulsion we must either reverse the north/south direction of the fixed magnetic field, or, as is more usual, the direction of current flow through the coil.

## COMMUTATOR

This reversal is accomplished by means of a commutator. It consists of a copper tube over an insulated cylinder that is fitted on the shaft that pivots the coil. The tube is fastened to the cylinder and is cut into two parts by two diametrically opposite saw cuts along its length.

The wires from the coil are each connected to one of the halves of the commutator and current is fed to the coil via brushes made of


Fig. 5.1. A simple two-pole permanent magnet motor.
springy material (or in larger motors, carbon) that make contact with the commutator.

If a source of direct current is connected across the brushes the current will always enter by brush A (Fig. 5.1) and leave by brush B. When section 1 of the commutator is in contact with $A$, the current will flow through the coil in one direction and the coil turns until top dead centre is reached; the current flow is then momentarily broken and section 2 of the commutator makes contact with brush A. The direction of current flow is thus reversed and the coil continues to swing round towards top dead centre in the opposite direction.

## ARMATURE

The forces acting on the coil are considerably increased if the coil is wound on a core of soft iron. This core, called an armature, is usually built up of thin sheet stampings that are electrically insulated from each other by thin paper. This reduces what are known as eddy currents which are induced in any metal object that moves in a magnetic field and in such a direction that they try to oppose the motion that is taking place.

The torque (twist) produced by the current and field is greatest when the axis of the armature is at right angles to the field and becomes zero at the top dead centre position. Because of remanence effects a simple two-pole motor like the one described will usually stop with the armature in the top dead centre position and therefore when current is re-applied there will be no torque and the motor will not start by itself unless spun by hand. This leads to the device of winding several coils on one armature. most commonly in the case of small model motors, three coils are used on a three-pole armature, see Fig. 5.2. There must be as many commutator segments as there are coils so that current can be made to change direction and be applied to the right set of coils at the right time.

The advantage of a three-pole motor is that there can never be a time when all three poles are at top dead centre and therefore there will always be some torque when current is applied and the motor is thus self starting.

Fig. 5.2. (a) Two pole, (b) three pole armatures and commutators.

(b)

## FIELD WINDING

In the case of small model motors the mag. netic field is usually provided by a strong permanent magnet, but in the case of powerful machine motors, the field is produced by a separate coil called a field winding. The field winding can be connected in series with or in parallel with the brushes, see Fig. 5.3.

When series connected, one obtains very high starting torque but the speed of running is load dependent; with the parallel connection not so much torque is produced at switch on, but is better for running at constant speed under varying load conditions. Very powerful motors -as used for traction purposes-often have a switch which is used to convert them from series to parallel (sometimes called shunt) connection thus giving the driver the best of both worlds.

## GENERATOR

One of the most momentous discoveries of the past was that of producing an electric current in a circuit without the aid of a battery. The principle of the generator is very simple. Whenever a wire, that forms part of a closed circuit is moved in a magnetic field, an electromotive force is induced and this causes a current to flow through the circuit of the wire.
If the wire is in the form of a coil, preferably on an iron core, the effect is greatly enhanced.

## SIMPLE EXPERIMENT

If you have a radio with auxiliary record player input connections or a small amplifier, you can see what we mean, by connecting our electromagnet (from last month) straight across the record player input and then bring a small permanent magnet up in contact with the poles of the electromagnet, Fig. 5.4. This is the same as moving the coils of the electromagnet in a field.
Let the permanent magnet touch the pole of our home-made magnet; if you have the amplifier (radio) turned up sufficiently you will hear a "clunk" in the loudspeaker. This clunk is caused by the sudden increase in field strength of the permanent magnet inducing a voltage in the windings of our electromagnet. The radio serves only to amplify the voltage so that we can hear the effect in the loudspeaker. Under no circumstances try this experiment unless your radio or amplifier has properly installed record player inputs.

## RATE OF CHANGE

This remarkable ability of magnetism to cause a flow of electrons is something we just have to accept. A wire, or coil, moving so that it cuts lines of magnetic force has this voltage induced across it and when moved in the opposite direction the e.m.f. polarity is reversed. The interest-
ing thing is that there is no induced e.m.f. unless the coil is moving, and the faster the coil moves the higher the e.m.f. Alternatively the coil could be kept still and the strength of the influencing magnetic field varied to get the same effect. The induced e.m.f. is proportional to the rate of change of magnetic flux crossing the wire or coil. The e.m.f. is also directly proportional to the length of wire (provided all the wire is subjected to the same change in flux) or, in the case of a coil, the number of turns of wire on the coil.

## REGULAR A.C. OUTPUT

Our experiment produced an e.m.f. but it was very hit and miss and could not under any circumstances be called a steady voltage. To get a regularly produced e.m.f. it is usual to suspend a coil on a pivot in a fixed magnetic field and rotate the coil.

The current produced in this way is not steady, it is greatest when the coil's axis is perpendicular to the direction of the field since this is the position where the coil cuts straight



Fig. 5.4. Experiment to demonstrate electromagnetic induction.
across the lines of force. No current is produced in the top dead centre position because in this position the coil is tending to move along the lines of force and is not actually cutting across any.

If we follow one side of the coil as it rotates, Fig. 5.5, we see that for almost half of each revolution it is moving up through the lines of force but for most of the other half is moving down. As a result the current changes direction once in complete revolution; we say the current is alternating (a.c.).



Fig. 5.5. Graphic display of generated e.m.f. as a function of rotation angle.

To get the induced current from the armature windings we use a form of commutator (Fig. 5.6) called a slip ring. Notice there are two slip rings and there is no split in either. The alternating current is picked up by brushes running in contact with the slip rings. This type of device is called an alternator and the 50 Hz a.c. mains fed to our homes is generated in a similar way.

A direct current generator uses the same principle of induction as an alternator but is


Fig. 5.6. Simple two-pole alternator.
built more along the lines of the d.c. motor. The output must be in one direction only and as steady as possible. By using a commutator instead of slip rings the negative half of each cycle is reversed and the result is a one directional pulsating output, see Fig. 5.7.

To reduce the level of the pulsations (or ripple) and so produce a more steady output more coils are introduced and the final output shows only small and rapid fluctuations.

Fig. 5.7. Outputs from (a) alternator (b) generator (c) multipole generator (d) effective output from (c).

(a)

(d)

Next month: The transformer and simple household electricity.


An inexpensive, intriguing novelty for a youngster or for an unusual modern ornament.

By B. C. Macdonald

ASimple novelty item can be made up using a number of flashing neons arranged in a small plastic case or by using two neons placed in the eyes of a child's toy animal. The first type of novelty-the "flashing block"-could make an interesting paper weight or modern ornament.

Both types of novelty are particularly interesting when viewed in the dark. The neons will continue to flash for a number of years because the drain on the battery, even with 8 neons, is only about 60 microamps. The neon bulbs flash independently of each other, the effect of the orange/red flashes is quite striking.

## CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

It will be seen from Fig. 1 that each neon is wired into a similar circuit, all of which are connected across a 90 volt battery. Each of these circuits operates independently. The basic circuit consists of a 10 megohm resistor (R1) in series with a $0.22 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ capacitor (C1). A neon bulb (LP1) is connected in parallel with the capacitor.



Fig. 1. Basic circuit diagram of Neon Novelty.

A characteristic of neon bulbs is that they do not light or draw any current except at a certain minimum voltage (about 80 V for the type of neon used) and as soon as a holding voltage (about 60 V ) is no longer maintained the neons extinguish and become open circuit.

Consider one circuit only, since each works in the same way. The battery B1 charges capacitor Cl through R1. As the capacitor charges the voltage across it rises and will finally reach the battery voltage if not discharged. The rise in voltage is slowed down by the high value resistor R1, which restricts the current flow. As soon as the "firing" voltage of the neon is reached the neon lights but immediately goes out because in lighting it has discharged the capacitor and thereby reduced the voltage across it to less than the holding voltage. This charge and discharge then continuously repeats.

The rate of flashing (charge and discharge of the capacitors) varies as the product of the capacitance and resistance, but to alter the flashing rate it is only necessary to alter the value of the resistor to vary the rate (reduce to increase the rate).

Although the value of the components is the same for each circuit each neon flashes at a slightly different rate, due to tolerances in the components. For this reason 20 per cent tolerance resistors will, in this case, provide a more varied display than closer tolerance types. As many neons as are required can be used in the circuit.

When six or eight neons are used together as in the unit shown, the effect is that of random flashing, since each bulb is flashing at a slightly different rate and no sequence is obvious. In the case of eight neons it may be found advantageous to vary the value of some of the resistors to alter the rates by a greater extent.

## MODIFIED CIRCUIT

When using more than two neons it is possible to slightly modify the circuit to give a softer type of flashing which is, in fact, completely random. This is done by connecting one end of each capacitor together-see Fig. 2-by this means each flash is related to the state of charge in the capacitors, which is in turn related to the flashes of other neons.

The action of such a circuit is too complicated to try and explain fully and is, in fact, very difficult to see since each circuit is inter-related. Suffice to say that it works by the charging and discharging of the capacitors, is completely random and provides a longer "flash" of each neon; this circuit does in fact, provide the best type of display when all the values are similar.


Fig. 2. Modified circuit for random flashing.

## the COMPONENTS

A 90 volt battery is required, such as the Ever Ready B126. Any type of $0 \cdot 22 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ capacitors may be used provided they have a working voltage in excess of about 100 volts. Any type of resistor may be used, but the $1_{4}$ or $1_{2}$ watt carbon kind are of a convenient size (the colour coding of a 10 megohm resistor is brown, black, blue). The value of the resistors is by no means critical
and anything from 2 megohm to about 15 megohm will be satisfactory.

The correct type of neon is essential, this must be suited for operation from 70 to 90 volts, such as the Hivac 34L or the American type NE2 (these are direct equivalents). The bulb is in the form of an elongated glass capsule with thin flying leads.
A two pin or three pin plug will be required for making the connection to the battery. The polarity of the battery is not critical and therefore, the third locating pin on the connector is not required.

## CONSTRUCTION

It was decided to use connector strip for the two neon circuit (animals eyes) since this requires no soldering and simplifies construction.

Obviously the leopard shown is a very suitable subject, but other animals could be used. In looking for a suitable animal model stuffed types were rejected because of the difficulty in inserting the eyes and connecting wires. A "nodding leopard" was finally used. These are sometimes seen in cars, the head nodding continually due to the motion of the car. The head is suspended in the body and can be easily removed. Both head and body are made of rubber and are hollow and so are quite easily adapted to the purpose required.

Do not cut the wires on the neons, but extend them by soldering short lengths of single plastic covered bell flex or similar wire to their ends. Now push short lengths of sleeving, just large enough to pass over the flex, right up to the neons so as to insulate the bare wires from each other. Secure the sleeving at the point farthest from the neon with a little plastic insulating tape.


Fig. 3. Wiring for the two neon circuit.


Photograph showing the completed circuit board and battery for an 8 neon "flashing block" unit.

Fig. 4. Layout and wiring of the Veroboard for the 8 neon unit. The underside is shown below with cut aways and S1 wiring. To orientate the lower drawing find corner $X$ on both views.


Fit the resistors, capacitors, the neon wires and the battery wires to the connector strip exactly as shown in the illustration (Fig. 3). Check carefully that all the connections are correct then push the plug into the battery. The neons should commence to flash.

Incidentally it is possible to get a shock from the battery although this is not normally dangerous.

## HOUSING

Disconnect the neon wires from the connector strip. Pull out the eyes from the animal's head and insert the wires connected to the neons. Pull the wires through and finally push the neons right into the head so that only the end is showing. They must be secured with some kind of adhesive. Araldite adhesive was used and proved to be very satisfactory but no doubt other types, such as Evostik could be used. Immediately the eyes are in position in the head re-connect them to the connector strip and check if they still flash. This is a necessary precaution. The author found although the neons flashed before fitting they failed to flash after fitting. It was assumed that the very small current required by the eyes was short circuited and some of the plastic insulating tape was removed and the eyes flashed when re-fitted. This is why the sleeving should be taped only at the farthest point from the neons.

Make or otherwise obtain a box of suitable size to easily house the battery and connector strip. A wood or plastic box is best.


The completed leopard lying or the box housing the battery.

Fit the leopard's head to the body, cementing it in place, and passing the wires into the body having previously made a hole in the base so
that they can emerge. Any convenient point will do, a hole in the leopard's paw was used in the prototype, the wires passing through this and also through a corresponding hole in the top of the box.

All the wires must be long enough to allow the connections to be made to the connector strip when it is outside the box. The next thing to do is to cement the leopard to the top of the box, using elastic bands to hold it in position while the cement sets.

## FINISH

The battery and connector strip mush be fitted in the box so that they will not move about and it is suggested that plastic bags should be crumpled up and used as packing and to separate the connector strip from the battery. Since access is not required over a number of years, the box may be closed, using cement but a small hole must be provided, otherwise there may be condensation inside the box, resulting in failure of the eyes to flash or pressure may build up as the battery is exhausted and the box may "explode." The box can be finally painted in suitable colours.

Two important points; solder the extension leads to the neon wires close to the ends of these wires and not near the glass. Do not try to light the neons by connecting directly to the battery; they will be destroyed if this is done. A 68,000 ohm series resistor must be used if the bulbs are connected directly to the battery. The resistor is replaced by Rl in the circuits.

## BLOCK CONSTRUCTION

In order to make construction of the "flashing block" more easy a Veroboard layout is given (Fig. 4). This layout can be used for either circuit (Fig. 1 or Fig. 2) by operating switch S1.

Commence construction by inserting all the resistors, capacitors and wire links, including those to $S 1$, in the Veroboard, cut the leads off and solder each connection. Next make the six breaks in the copper strips as shown and finally connect up the battery leads and solder in the neons so that the bottom of the two electrodes (inside) is about ${ }^{1} 8$ inch above the top of the highest components.

Connect the leads to the battery and check that all the neons operate, now operate switch Sl and compare the two types of display.

If only one type of display is required-a link could be put in place of the switch or both switch and link may be omitted. The unit can be housed in a wooden or plastic box with the neons showing through the top. Some Araldite around the base of each neon will hold them firmly and a Perspex cover could be made to fit over the top to protect the neons.

## Continued on page 148

ONCE again we have run into supply difficulties on one particular component - the trans. former used in the Radio Control Receiver-apparently Ardente are no longer in business and, as far as we know, all supplies of the transformer have now been exhausted. As we stated in the article, a larger type of trans. former is available from Henry's Radio and this could be used if the board is extended by 0.6 inches at the TR5 end to hold the transformer, and the connections made using flying leads. If the receiver appears to suffer from lack of range try adjusting the value of C8.


Unfortunately we have been unable to find a transformer with exactly the same specification as the Ardente one and we are unable to give an alternative that will fit into the space on the board -the transformer available from Henry's is not that much larger than the original.

## Egg Timer

The first "kitchen aid" that we have published; a design for the Egg Timer. A tantalum type capacitor must be used for Cl in this circuit since this type has a much lower leakage current than an electrolytic, which would not be able to charge due to the small current available through VR1 and R1.
Some difficulty may be experienced in obtaining the 4.7 megohm potentiometer specified
-Electrovalue of 28 St. Judes Road, Englefield Green, Egham, Surrey, can supply this pot. The cost of this item is 12 p plus a small order surcharge of 10 p (for orders under £2); this includes postage. Incidentally we do not take postage or any surcharge into account when we calculate the approximate cost of any of our projects.

The buzzer for the timer should be available through most electrical shops and the case of the prototype is a standard aluminium chassis available from many of the firms who advertise in our pages.

The relay used can be any fairly small type provided it has a coil resistance of at least $700 \Omega$ -the higher the value the better -and can work on 18 V ; the prototype unit used a $3000 \Omega 18 \mathrm{~V}$ type. The relay should have at least one set of normally open contacts rated at 1.5 amp , alternatively two or more sets having a lower rating could be used, wired, in parallel.

## Neon Novelty

There should be no buying problems with components for either Neon Novelty described. One point to watch is that the neons are the correct type-the voltage is the important pointand that the glass is not cracked or chipped.
Specific types of capacitor have been given in the components list simply because these types are relatively small in size and should fit easily on the board or the connection block. Any type of capacitor could be used provided its working voltage is greater than 100 V .

This is one project where 20 per cent tolerance resistors are as good as-if not better than-the close tolerance types, so almost any high value (over about 6.8 megohm) carbon types will do.

## Enlarger Exposure Meter

A project that should be popular with amateur photographers who do their own enlarging, the Enlarger Exposure Meter is a neat unit that should present few construction or buying problems.

The meter is the most expensive item and can be replaced by a multimeter if available. Alternatively buy a large type meter preferably $0-100 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ with a scale marked $0-100$ in single unit divi-
sions. The larger the scale length the better the accuracy but it is hardly worth getting a meter larger than $3^{1}$ or 4 inches across.

Other parts used in the exposure meter should be readily available.

## New Products

What is claimed to be the "world's first cordless soldering iron" is now available in this country through Pact International Electronics Ltd., PO Box 19, Royston, Herts, SG\& 5HH. The iron, which is made in the USA is automatically recharged from its stand when not in use. Once the iron is charged it can be used anywhere and heats up in 3 to 5 seconds at the touch of a button. The iron has a working light near the bit, which is said to be of the "indestructible iron plated type."

The iron costs $£ 9 \cdot 25$ complete with stand and two bits.


Bib have introduced a GroovKleen for record changers, as opposed to single play decks. The "Changer Groov-Kleen Model 45" fits on the cartridge shell of the tracking arm and rests on the record near the stylus-see photo. The cleaner costs 98 p plus purchase tax and will fit most pick-up arms by means of an adhesive black carrier plate, adaptors are provided for fixing to some cartridge carriers. Adjustment of the pick-up arm pressure can compensate for the additional weight on the stylus.


THis article is of special interest to the photographer who does his own enlarging If describes a light meter to determine the exposure recuifed for satisfactory enlargements without the time consuming, and paper devouring, ritual of test strips. In practice the mefer has been adequate for most normal work and variations required to optimise an enlargement have rarely fallen outside a 10 per cent change of the indicated exposure.

Owrers of multimeters can use their meters on a low current range with the exposure meter circuit and hence save the cost of the most expensive component-the meter movement. Easy to make and operate, this is a project requiring very little technical knowledge, so is ideal for the home constructor.

## BASIC BRIOGE

Consider a voltage $V$ s applied to two arms of $\varepsilon$ bridge, (Fis. 1), the left arm of $R_{\mathrm{a}}$ and $\mathrm{R} \overline{5}$, the right arm of VR1 and R5. In the left. arm V. wi.l vary according to the values of $R_{a}$ and R 3 , whilst in the righ: arm $V_{\mathrm{b}}$ will very according to the values of VR1 and R5.

Each arm can be regaried as independert of the other for most practical purposes, and if $V_{a}$ is equal =o $V_{b}$ no current will flow in the meter and the oridge is sail to be balanced. IE. however, the resistance of $E_{1}$ rises, the potentiel $V_{a}$ falls anc current flows from $V_{b}$ to $V_{a}$.

If the curremt through the meter is very much smallez than the current in VR1 and $\mathrm{R} 5, \gamma$, will
remain virtually constant. Resistor R4 is conrected in series with the me-er so that the full scale defiection (f.s.d.) curreat is not exceeted 10 such an extent that the meter is damaged.

The bridge equation is usually stated by saying lat: the bridge is balanced when $\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{e}} \times \mathrm{R} 5=\mathrm{R} 3 \times$ VRt but the action of the circuit is not so easy to see from this approach.

## FULL CIRCUIT

Let us now consider the full crcuit (Fig. 2). The right arm is VR1 and R5 as before, with $V_{1}$. set by the wiper of a subminiature potentiomeler, and rept constant. Resistor R3 is in the same position as before out $R_{a}$ is now a field effect transistor (f.e.t.) with $V_{s}$ appearing on i=s source.
$A_{\text {s }}$ in the basic circuit when $V_{n}$ is equal tc $V_{b}$, the br dge is balanced and no carsent flows, but iz $V_{\mathrm{a}}$ falls the current is passed through the meter from $V_{b}$ to $V_{A}$.

## LICHT CEIL

The light cell is a sensitive photoconductive cell (3CC1). In the dark its resistance rises to learl 10 megolms falling to only a few huncred chris in bright light. Ender the enlarger it uperatias between about 1 megohm for a dense רegative down to 100 kiloms for maximam mese deflection-with a "thin negative.
These yatues were determinec with a wide *ariety of negatives, enlargements and s:op yaines and although values outside this range


Fig. 1. Basic bridge circuit configuration.
Fig. 2. Circult diagram of the Enlarger exposure meter.

tri underside view
could be obtained they could be brought back into this working range by varying the stop position on the enlarger.

Incidentally these correspond to light values on the enlarger baseboard of 0.06 lux for a dense negative up to 0.8 lux for a thinner one. This is of purely academic interest but may be worth noting considering the difficulties involved in making such measurements.

In view of the high resistance involved the current passed through R2 and PCC1 is in the order of a few microamps, hence a field effect transistor ( $n$ channel) must be used as a voltage follower. As $V_{g}$ falls so does $V_{\mathrm{a}}$ but the gate of the f.e.t. (at $V_{\mathrm{g}}$ ) presents an input impedance of many megohms and can therefore be ignored; $V_{g}$ therefore varies with the incident light and $V_{\text {a }}$ follows this change.


In total darkness $V_{\text {a }}$ is approximately 4.9 volts at which point VRl is adjusted to give zero deflection on the meter. Under the enlarger the resistance of PCCl falls, $V_{\mathrm{g}}$ falls, and $V_{\mathrm{s}}$ falls, following the change in voltage. $V_{\mathrm{a}}$ falls about $2 \cdot 2$ volts at the chosen light intensity so at this level of illumination we get $\frac{2 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~V}}{22 \mathrm{k} \Omega}=100 \mu \mathrm{~A}$. i.e. full scale deflection.

## STABILIZER

To nullify the effects of battery ageing, a Zener diode together with Rl is used to derive a semistable voltage $V_{\mathrm{s}}$, nominally $5 \cdot 6 \mathrm{~V}$. For a variation in battery voltage of 6.5 V to 9 V the meter varies only one division at full scale. This does not affect the calibrated exposure to any significant degree.

A push button should be used to switch the circuit on so that the battery is only loaded when a reading is actually being taken.

## MECHANICAL CONSTRUCTION

The diagrams and photographs are virtually self explanatory. Commence construction by cutting the board to size and cleaning up the edges with a file. There are no breaks in the copper strips of the board so the next step is to insert and solder up all the components as shown in Fig. 3. Connect the f.e.t. and l.d.r. after the other components and use a heat shunt to protect these components whilst soldering the leads.

The complete circuit except for the meter is mounted in a tin which formerly held Strepsil throat sweets. A one ounce tobacco tin is about the same size, or a die cast box could be bought, but it is not necessary to spend money on a fancy box.

Adhesive foam similar to draught excluding foam used on doors and windows holds the board firmly and a folded tissue on the bottom of the tin prevents the soldered joints from shorting on the tin. The meter leads are fed out through a small grommet.

A one inch diameter hole is cut in the case lid and a piece of diffusing material glued to the underside. It is worth mentioning that a small plywood box has some advantages:-
(a) The soldered joints cannot be shorted.
(b) Most handy-men can bore a one inch hole

## enlarger exposure meter



DIRECTION OF COPPER SIRIPS

Fig. 3. Layout and wiring of the components mounted on the Veroboard. There are no breaks in the copper strips on the underside.


The completed sensor box with lid removed (above).

The Veroboard complete with all components. Note the mounting of TR1upside down for easy lead connection. Also note the rounded corners of the board to enable it to fit inside the tin used for the case.

in wood whereas a " Q -max" cutter may not be available to cut the metal case.
(c) The case could be made the exact size to accommodate the Veroboard.
There is a choice of diffusing materials. Tracing paper is adequate but prone to damage. A stronger plastic tracing film could be used but Perspex is more durable and is the best choice. Clear Perspex can be diffused by lightly rubbing it with fine emery cloth.
An alternative is to use a clear window and

diffuse the projected image nearer to the enlarger lens. In this case a general reading is obtained of the whole negative.

The meter can be mounted in any suitable metal, plastic or wood case and connected to
the circuitry by a piece of twin core wiring flex -be sure to observe the correct polarity.

To finish the units they can both be painted matt black.

## CALIBRATING THE METER

A calibration curve must be produced and this requires a few test strips to be made. The sensor is placed on the base board over the area of particular interest. The push button is operated and the deflection noted. A conventional test strip is made and the best exposure corresponding to that deflection is noted.

The enlarger stop is altered to give a new meter deflection and the best test strip exposure for this deflection is similarly recorded. This is repeated until 6 or 8 meter readings between, say, 10 and 100 with the corresponding exposures have been obtained. The deflection/time graph can be drawn and this is kept as the calibration curve. An example is shown in Fig. 4. Obviously there will be occasions when a difference in exposure is desirable to bring out special effects of shadows etc., but from past experience this has been found to be not more than $\pm 10$ per cent of the indicated value.

## VARIATIONS

Since we are dealing with a $100 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ meter in this article, R4 was chosen as 22 kilohms. Table 1 shows how R 4 varies with the meter used.

It is preferable to use the highest sensitivity meter but more important, it should be as large as possible. The meter must be read with the safe light off, using only the fringe lighting


Fig. 4. Calibration curve for the prototype unit. A curve like this must be made for the meter.

Table 1: Resistance value for various meters

| Meter f.s.d. $(\mu \mathrm{A})$ | R4 (calculated) (K $\Omega)$ | Nearest preferred value (K $)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 50 | 44 | 47 |
| 100 | 22 | 22 |
| 150 | $14 \cdot 6$ | 15 |
| 200 | 11 | 12 |
| 250 | 9 | 10 |
| 500 | $4 \cdot 5$ | $4 \cdot 7$ |

from the enlarger, and since a calibration chart is used, meter sensitivity and linearity is less important.

If the meter reads very high all the time, it could be that a particularly bright lamp is fitted to the enlarger or consistently thin negatives are used. This is of no consequence since the sensor can be made less sensitive by increasing R4 from the original value. In this way the illumination has to be brighter to give a full scale reading.
Other variations include having the sensor ( PCCl ) on flying leads and fitting the bridge, battery and meter into one box. As a home project the exposure meter has several possibilities for the constructor to modify to his own requirements or to make as shown.

The prototype unit.


## Components....

## Resistors

| $R 1$ | $120 \Omega$ | SEE |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $R 2$ | $470 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |  |
| $R 3$ | $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |  |
| $R 4$ | $22 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |  |
| R5 | $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |  |
| All 4 W | $\pm 10 \%$ carbon |  |

## Potentiometer

VR1 $250 \Omega$ subminiature skeleton preset

## Semiconductors

PCC1 ORP12 light dependent resistor
D1 $\quad 5.6 \mathrm{~V} 400 \mathrm{~mW}$ Zener diode
TR1 2 N3823 $n$ channel f.e.t.

## Miscellaneous

S1 Single pole push to make pushbutton
B1 PP39V battery
ME1 $\quad 0-100 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ moving coil meter (or alter-native-see text)
Veroboard $2.2 \times 2.9 \times 0.1$ inch matrix, battery connectors, grommetts, connecting wire, tracing paper or perspex for diffusing material, two cases (see text)

## Continued from page 142

Since the unit can be expected to work for more than two or three years (possibly much longer) the box can be sealed up, but a small hole must be left as mentioned above; also the battery must not be a tight fit as it is likely to expand with old age.

## ALTERNATIVE DISPLAY

An interesting alternative to the two projects described could be made for use with larger type toy animals. For this a six or eight neon configuration is used with the leads to the neons extended so that four neons form each eye providing a flickering effect in the eyes.

## Components <br> Resistor

R1 $10 \mathrm{M} \Omega$
$\ddagger W \pm 20 \%$ carbon (see text)

## Capacitor


C1 $0.22 \mu \mathrm{~F} 100 \mathrm{~V}$ or more working (polyester or polystyrene)
Neon
LP1 70 to 90 V wire ended neon
Repeat all the above components for each flashing neon required.

Miscellaneous
B1 90V battery (type B126 or similar)
Veroboard (for 8 neon unit $2 \frac{1}{2} \times 3 \frac{3}{} \times 0.15$ inch matrix).
Six way connector (for two neon unit), connecting wire, two way or three way plug to suit battery. Materials for case and model animal-if usedsee text.

Photograph of the completed "flashing block", incorporating two types of switched display.


The team behind the great technological breakthrough left to right John Bardeen, William Shockley and Walter Brattain.

## The First Transistor

Ever since the American Lee de Forest fitted the grid into Fleming's original diode, scientists have wished to emulate this in the field of solid state, that is with semiconductor materials.

Many attempts to make a solid state version of the amplifying valve must have been made during the last 50 years or so, but without success. This was mainly because the manner in which crystal and metal rectifiers functioned had not been clearly established. The world had to wait until 1947 for this wonder that was destined to revolutionise electronics and very soon the way of life for all.

## THE BREAKTHROUGH

On December 24, 1947, two members of a research team at Bell Telephone Laboratories Inc., New Jersey, U.S., achieved the breakthrough. In the course of experiments with semiconductor crystals, John Bardeen and Walter Brattain placed two contacts onto a piece of germanium crystal, the contacts were close but separated from each other. With a third common contact made to the crystal, two separate external circuits were thus formed.

A microphone was coupled to one circuit and it was found that an amplified version of speech current was produced in the second circuit. The crystal device had obviously introduced current


Photograph of the first original semiconductor amplifying device-the transistor.
gain, see Fig. 1. The name transistor was coined from the "transfer resistance" characteristic demonstrated by this device.

The full theory to account for the operation of this "point-contact transistor" was not worked out for some little time afterwards. It was during this theoretical investigation that the principle

## INTERACTION BETWEEN TRANSISTOR ELECTRODES



Fig. 1. The basis of the first transistor.
of the junction transistor was discovered by William Shockley, who was the leader of the team responsible for the initial transistor discovery.

As is well known, the junction type transistor soon proved to be superior to the point-contact transistor, and within a few years had entirely superceded the latter as a practical device suitable for large scale production. Undoubtedly though, the point-contact transistor provided the dramatic initial breakthrough and inspired subsequent research in this field. Thus it seems right and fair that honours should be shared equally between Bardeen, Brattain and Shockley. Indeed this is what the scientific world thought, because this trio were jointly awarded the Nobel prize in physics for 1956.

The junction transistor consists of a threelayer sandwich of $n$ type and $p$ type semiconductor material. There are thus two junctions. Alternative arrangements are possible, as indicated in Fig. 2.


Fig. 2. Alternative arrangements of the junction transistor.

## many varieties

The ascendancy of the junction transistor was followed by a whole train of exciting and important technical developments. Silicon was introduced around 1960. By the 1960's, this semiconductor material had taken over almost entirely from germanium, the material originally used.

The bipolar junction transistor relies upon the injection of minority current carries (holes and electrons) across the base from one junction to the other. This theory has been applied extensively and a large number of different types of transistor have been developed since the first transistor made its appearance.

A wide range of bipolar $p n p$ and $n p n$ devices specially designed for a.f., r.f. and high power operation have become available. Also switching devices such as the four layer pnpn silicon controlled rectifier or thyristor, capable of handling powers from a few milliamperes to hundreds of amperes, and at voltages ranging upwards to 1,000 or more. These four layer devices were invented by Shockley in the early 1950's.

A different principle is involved in the field effect transistor (f.e.t.)-also invented by Shockley in the early 1950's. This is a unipolar device -so called because majority carries alone are

## introdncing <br> 

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involved in the mechanism by which these particular devices function.

The junction unipolar transistor (j.f.e.t.) was followed by the insulated gate field effect transistor also known as the metal-oxide semiconductor transistor (m.o.s.t.) on account of its form of construction.
The m.o.s.t. technique has been adopted for integrated circuit manufacture.

One type of bipolar transistor is, in fact, more correctly described as a double-base diode. This is the unijunction transistor (u.j.t.) it is essentially a switching device.

A wide variety of diodes based on the pn junction have been developed. They have use as signal and power rectifiers, as voltage regulators, as variable resistors (varistors) or capacitors (varactors); and as microwave oscillators.

## OPTOELECTRONIC DEVICES

Both the single and the multiple $p n$ junction have been widely applied in the field of optical radiation.

Devices which detect light are the photodiode and the photo transistor. Diode devices with large contact areas exploit the photovoltaic effect to produce electrical energy are commonly available as photocells or solar cells (or "batteries"-when used in groups).

Other $p n$ junction devices convert electrical energy into light. Electroluminescent diodes consisting of a junction of $p$ and $n$ type gallium arsenide and gallium phosphide are becoming increasingly popular as red and green light emitters. This area of the technology is expandinging dramatically with the demand for small direct readout systems.

## INFRA-RED DEVICES

Much of the future development of semiconductor technology seems to lie in the field of infra-red. Exciting and sophisticated devices are likely to make their appearance in due course. Thus another part of the spectrum will become available for general exploitation through applied electronics.

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These constructional projects and all the regular features in the April issue, on sale Friday, March 16.

# DEMO CIRCUITS By MIRE Huches 

The Grounded Base Amplifier

The experiment to be described demonstrates two points; first how to get maximum voltage amplification out of a transistor and secondly that a loudspeaker can act as a micro-phone-given the right set of circumstances.


Fig. 4.1. Basic circuit of a grounded base stage.

## BASIS OF OPERATION

At first sight the basic circuit for a grounded base stage (shown in Fig. 4.1) looks rather like a grounded emitter; but look closer. There is a large capacitor connected between the base of TR1 and the ground rail-this, in conjunction with the two resistors R3 and R4, keeps the base at a fixed potential with respect to the earth rail. This means that there is a fixed current flowing between base and emitter, controlled by the potential divide effect of R3 with R4 and the value of R2. Thus the collector current can flow through R1, the transistor and R2; by suitable selection of values for the components we can set the quiescent output voltage (output voltage with no input signal) at the collector of the transistor.

Provided Cl shows very low reactance to any alternating currents that may be superimposed on the d.c. levels in the circuit, the potentials at $A, B$ and $C$ are precisely defined and stable.

To work as an amplifier a signal that will cause current variations and generate variations in voltage at the collector must be injected. This is done by modulating the emitter currentapplying the signal across R2.

The input is therefore between emitter and ground, and the output is between collector and ground; as the potential at the base is precisely defined as a d.c. level, the stage is termed a grounded base configuration. Some books and theoretical articles show the circuit a different way round using separate power supplies (these are necessary to ensure that the base is always positive with respect to the emitter). In practice only one power supply is normally available and this is why we have chosen to describe the circuit in the form shown in Fig. 4.1-this is the way you are most likely to come across it in constructional articles.

## CIRCUIT DESIGN

Emitter current is approximately the same as collector current (actually it is equal to collector current plus base current but as the latter is comparatively small it can be ignored at this stage). In order to modulate the emitter current with a low voltage signal, the signal must come from a source of reasonably low resistance (impedance) because emitter current can be quite high (in this case consider it to be about 0.2 mA ).

To get maximum voltage amplification at the collector the emitter current must be used to generate a collector current that will give the largest voltage variations across a collector load resistor. To get maximum voltage swings across the load resistor for a given current variation the load resistance must be high.

Thus the grounded base stage must be driven from a low impedance source and the output impedance of the stage is usually quite high. To a first order approximation the voltage amplification is set by the ratio of collector load resistance to source impedance. If a 35 ohm loudspeaker is used as a microphone, the output is only in the order of one or two millivolts, for speech very close to the cone. Thus to be able

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to measure the output a high degree of voltage amplification must be introduced. By making R1 22 kilohm the simple rule for amplification gives a factor:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { Voltage amplification } & =\left(\text { approx } \frac{\mathrm{Zout}}{\mathrm{Zin}}\right. \\
& =\frac{22,000}{35} \\
& =630
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore if the circuit works the output voltage should swing by a volt or so resulting from the millivolt or two produced by the "microphone".

## COMPONENT SELECTION

If R1 is to be 22 kilohm, the quiescent collector current (to give a mid-rail output of $4 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~V}$ ) will be

$$
\frac{4 \cdot 5}{22} \mathrm{~mA}
$$

approximately 0.2 mA . The quiescent potential at the emitter (point E ) must be sufficiently positive so that the alternating voltage from the microphone does not drive it to zero. If we make the potential at point $\mathrm{E}, 0 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~V}$, assuming the emitter current is approximately the same as collector current, R2 will be

$$
\frac{0.2}{0.2} \text { kilohm }
$$

## ( 1 kilohm).

Because a silicon transistor is being used, the potential at the base (point C) must be 0.6 V - more positive than the emitter. Assuming $h_{\text {pe }}$ for the transistor to be 200, the base current required to set the quiescent levels chosen must be

$$
\frac{f_{c}}{\mathrm{~h}_{\mathrm{FE}}}=\frac{0.2}{200} \mathrm{~mA}=0.001 \mathrm{~mA}
$$

If (say) 81 times $I_{b}$ flows through R3, and 80 times $I_{b}$ flows through R4 (this is much more standing current through the resistor chain than
is normally required for common emitter configuration but a high input impedance is not required. A high standing current through R3 and R4 also leads to improved stability and helps maintain the potential at $C$ with very little variation when signal is applied); resistor R3 is therefore

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \frac{9-0.8}{81 \times 0.001} \text { kilohm }=\frac{8.2}{0.081}=\text { approx } 100 \text { kilohm; } \\
& \text { R4 is } \frac{0.8}{80 \times 0.001} \text { kilohm }=\frac{0.8}{0.08}=10 \text { kilohm. }
\end{aligned}
$$

It is now obvious why the factors 81 and 80 were chosen. Capacitor C1 must present a low impedance to the lowest frequencies therefore $50 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ will be suitable.

If the loudspeaker (microphone) is connected directly across emitter to ground, its low resistance will modify all the calculations, as it is only the a.c. signal from the coil that is used it can be capacitively coupled to the emitter by C2 (this will not affect our d.c. calculations). Again this capacitor must be of low impedance to the lowest frequencies so again $50 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ can be used.

## MONITORING CIRCUIT

Because of the high output impedance of the grounded base stage it is difficult to make a simple monitoring circuit that does not in one way or another affect the voltage amplification; however the simple expedient of TR2 in Fig. 4.2 works reasonably well.

Potentiometer VR2 (5 kilohm) should be adjusted so that TR2 is only just conducting (i.e. the meter is just starting to move above zero). Make this adjustment very slowly because the coupling capacitor C3 slows the reaction. Any positive going a.c. signals at the collector of TR1 will be coupled to the base of TR2 and drive it further into conduction showing a useful output on the meter.

Negative going excursions will switch the transistor off and then be shunted to ground


Fig. 4.2. "Working" circuit for the grounded base stage together with a simple monitoring stage.


Fig. 4.3. The circuit of Fig. 4.2. Wired up on the Demo Deck. VR2 should be adjusted as mentioned in the text.
by D1. Transistor TR2 is "starvation" blased and acting as an audio detector with a useful amount of power gain that helps match the low impedance of the meter to the high output impedance of the grounded base stage.

Build the circuit of Fig. 4.2 on the Demo Deck as shown in Fig. 4.3 and speak close to the loudspeaker, full scale deflection should be obtained on the meter for loud passages. Strictly speaking the meter is not indicating the amplitude of voltage swings at the collector of TR1 but it can be seen that the amplitude-in parts-is certainly greater than 600 mV by disconnecting the 100 kilohm resistor going to the wiper of VR2 (thus removing all bias). Again speak loudly into the loudspeaker, some indication will still be seen on ME1.

Photograph of the construction shown in Fig. 4.3.


To get any indication on ME1 means that the voltage fed to the base of TR2 must be exceeding the 600 mV base emitter forward voltage drop. When measured on proper test equipment the a.c. signal at the collector of TR1 is in the order of 1.5 V --thus bearing out that we are getting very high voltage amplification (between 600 and 700 as calculated).

## USES

The grounded base stage is not the easiest amplifier to design or to use in equipment but nevertheless it has several useful features. It is very easy to design a circuit having a known voltage gain (by using the ratio of imput and output impedances); adding a resistor in series with the signal source reduces the gain proportionately. Very frequently low voltage sources (that need voltage amplification) have very low impedance and therefore match the input of a grounded base stage e.g. moving coil microphones and the first stage of u.h.f. radio tuners.

The output signal is in phase with the inputunlike the common emitter stage where there is 180 degrees phase shift. When the input signal goes positive (Fig. 4.1) it opposes the emitter current, this opposes the collector current and the transistor conducts less; therefore the potential at the collector goes positive (in phase with the input). This is a very useful feature in some applications-particularly when dealing with non-symmetric waveforms as are encountered in television systems.

# Project605 thenew simple way toassemble Sinclarithigh fidelity modules 




For several years now you have been able to assemble your own high fidelity system to world beating standards using Sinclair modules. We have progressively improved these technically but hitherto the method of assembly at your end has remained the same - there has been no alternative to a soldering iron. Now for those who prefer not to solder, there is an alternative - Project 605.
In one neat package you can now obtain the four basic Project 60 modules plus a fifth completely new one - Masterlink - which contains all the input sockets and output components you previously bought separately. Also in the Project 605 pack are all he inter-connecting leads, cut to length and fitted at each end with plugs which slip straight onto the modules. eliminating soldering completely. The pack contairs everything you need to build a complete $3 C$ watt stereo amplifier together with a clear well illustrated Instruction Book. All you have to do is to arrange your modules in the plinth or case of your choice and then clip them together - the work of a feve minutes.
Your hi-fi system will, as we said. match the finest in the world and you can add to it at any time to increase power or extend the facilities. For example a superb stereo FM Tuner unit is obtainable for only $£ 25$.

Guarantee 11 within 3 months of purchasing Project 605 dreecty from us, you are dissatisfied with it, we will retund pour
 sencice it at once and withoul any coss to you whatsoever provided that it is returned to us within 2 years of the purchase date. There will be as small charge lor sevice thefeater. No charge lor possigge by surlace mál. Air-msil charged at cost

Sinclair Radionics Lid., London Road. St. Ives. Huntingdonshire PE174 4 HJ . Telephone: St. Ives (04806) 4311


## Specifications

Output-30 watts music power ( 10 watts per channel R.M.S. into $3 \Omega$ ).
Inputs - Mag. P.U. - 3mV correct to R.I.A.A. curve 20-25,000 $\mathrm{Hz} \pm 1 \mathrm{~dB}$. Ceramic pick-up -50 mV . Radio -50 to 150 mV . Aux. adjuslable belween 3 mV . and 3 V .
Signal to noise ratio - Better than 70 dB .
Distortion - better than $0.2 \%$ under all conditions.
Controls - Press buttons for on-off. P.U., radio and aux. Treble +15 to -15 dB at 10 kHz . Bass +15 to -15 dB at 100 Hz . Volume Stereo Balance.
Channel matching within 1 dB
Front panel-brushed aluminium with black knobs.
Profect 605 comprises Stereo 60 pre-amp/control unit. two $\mathbf{Z - 3 0}$ power amplifiers. PZ-5 power supply unit. the unique new Masterlink. leads and instructions manual complete in one pack. Post tree

## To sinclair ragionics lto., st.ives, hunting domshiae pe174hJ

Please send Project 605 post free $\square$ Details and list of stockists $\square$
Name
Address

## EFM PANEL METERS

CLEAR PLASTIC PANEL METERS

| Type <br> $\operatorname{sen}_{0-0-60 \mu}$ <br> 100yaA <br> $100-0-100 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ <br> socha <br> ImA <br> 20V. D.C. <br> 50 V . D.C. <br> 300 V . D.C. <br> 1 amp, D.C. |
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## Type SD. 830.82 .5 mm : 110 mm Front



Type SD. $44063.5 \mathrm{~mm} \times 15 \mathrm{~mm}$ Fronte


| SW. 100 |
| :---: |
| 23.80 |
| 23.80 |
| 83.70 |
| 23.50 |
| 440 |
| - 40 |
| 23.40 |
| 23.40 |
| 23-40 |



Type $50.44046 \mathrm{~mm} \times 59.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ Fronts BenA. ${ }^{50 \mu \mathrm{~A}} \mathrm{O}$ $100 \mu \mathrm{~A} \quad \ldots \ldots$ 200ен соонй 1mA
Len
10 ma
goan
$10001 A$
$500 m A$

- $40 \quad 1 \mathrm{amp}$.


## . 5 a 5 amp.

5V. D.C. 10V. D.C 20V. D.C. 50V. D.C $800 \mathrm{~V} . \mathrm{D} . \mathrm{C}$.
$15 V$. A.C.
800 V. A. UV. A.C. .. A.20
-MOVING IRON-
all OTHERS MOVING COIL
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Rangen: Rangen: D.O. $13 \mathrm{~V},{ }^{180 V}$,
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$8 / 30 / 60 / 300 / 12 / 120 /$ B00/1200 VAC. 60/ $\mathrm{SA} / 3 \mathrm{l}$ $\mathrm{mA} / 300 \mathrm{~mA} .2 \mathrm{~K} / 200 \mathrm{~K} /=$ meghon.
me.go. P .


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$88-87$ Pint paid.

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| :--- |
| D. |

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 $0 / 10 / 250 \mu \mathrm{~A} / 2$$10 \mathrm{Amp} . \mathrm{D} . \mathrm{C}$ 10 Amp. D.C. 10 Amp A.C. $0 / 20 \mathrm{~K} / 200 \mathrm{~K} /$ $2 \mathrm{MEO} / 20 \mathrm{MEO}$. $20+\mathrm{B} 2 \mathrm{dh}$.


E20. +8.82 db.
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## Selected TEST EOUIPMENT

## ROUND SCALE TYPE PENCIL TESTER MODEL T.S. 68 <br> Completely portable, eimple Kangen pocket aized tester. $0 / 3 / 30 / 300 \mathrm{~V}$ AC Rang DC at 2,000 o.p.v. Resiatance 0.20 K ohms.  <br> FTC-401 TRANSISTOR TESTER Full capabilities for meanuring, A. B and ICO. NPN or PNP. A. Buald ICO. NPN or PNP. ing dioden. Supplited complete with Inetruetiont lead. 17.50.

 | $800 / 2800$ |
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| $10 / 50 / 100 / 500 / 10001$ |
| $4 . C . ~$ | uneg ohma. $-20 \mathrm{to}+22 \mathrm{~dB}$.

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30,000 o.p.w. Overload protectlon. slide awltch relector $1 /-25 / 25 / 10 / 50 / 250 /$
1000 V. D.C. $0 / 10 / 80 / 250 /$ 1000 V. D.C. $0 / 10 / 80 / 250 /$
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MODEL PLA36
20 k Q/Volt D.C. $6 \mathrm{k} \Omega /$ Volt AC. Mirror scale $-0 / 3 / 12 / 30 / 120 / 600$ D.C. $3 / 30 / 120 / 600 \mathrm{~V}$ A.C. $80 / 600 \mu A / 60 / 800$
unA. $10 / 100 \mathrm{~K} / 1$ Men $/ 10$ $\operatorname{Meg} \mathrm{m}_{-20}$ to +48 db . Megn - 20 to +16 P .12 p .

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 D.C.: Volts $123,-25,1.25$
 $3,8,10,25,80,128,250,800$
 $50 \mu \mathrm{~A}, 2 \cdot 5,8,25,50,250$,
$500 \mathrm{~mA}, \mathrm{~S}, 10 \mathrm{amp}$. Resistance: $500 \mathrm{MA}, 5.10$ amp. Reslatance:
$10 \mathrm{~K}, 100 \mathrm{~K}, 1 \mathrm{MEG}, 10 \mathrm{MEO}$ $\Omega$. Decibeln: $-20 t \mathrm{to}+31 \cdot 5 \mathrm{db}$

"witch. $80.000 / 10.4 .4$
$0 / .5 / 2.8 / 18 / 50 / 200 /$

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## HIOKO MODEL 700X

 100,000 O.P. V. Overlowl protectin.$3 / 6 / 1-2 / 1-5 / 3 / 6 / 12 / 30 / 60 /$ $120 / 300 / 600 / 1 \mathrm{LOOV} \mathrm{DC}$ 1-5/9/6/12/30/60/150/300/600/ 1300 V. A.C. $15 / 300 \mathrm{~A} / 3 / 6 / 30 / 60 / 150 / 300 \mathrm{~m}$
$6 / 12 \mathrm{APP}$ DC 6/12 AMP. DC. $2 K / 200 \mathrm{~K} / 2$


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electrcal use. 667 o.p.v. $0 / 3 / 1 \cdot 5 / 7.5 / 30 / 60 / 150 / 300 /$
$800 / 900$ VDC and 75 mV . 8001900 VDC and 75 mV . $0 /-3 / 1 \cdot 5 / 7.5 / 40 / 80 / 150 / 800$
600 60019001 C.
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TE-20D RF SIGNAL GENERATOR

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For diaplay of pulned and periodic waveform In electronle circuits.
VERT. AMP. Band width 10 MHz , Bend 25: HOR AMP Tity at 100 KHz VRMB Jum. 1-25; HOR. AMP. Bandwidth 300 KHz Bensitivity at 100 KHz , V R M M/mm. $3-25$ : Premet triggered Eweep $1.3,0000$ sec.; iree Callbrator plpw. $220 \times 380 \times 430 \mathrm{~mm}$ Calbrator plpa. 220 83900 . Carr. pald.

TO. 3 PORTABLE OSCILLOSCÓPE


3 in . tube, Y amp. Benaltivity 0.1 F
$1.5 \mathrm{cps}-\mathrm{p} / \mathrm{CM}_{6}$. Bendwldth
MHz . Input imp
 $\begin{array}{lll}\text { ensitivity } & 0.94 . ~ P . p / C M \\ \text { Bandwidth } \\ 1.5 \mathrm{cig}-800 \mathrm{H}\end{array}$ Bandwidth $1.5 \mathrm{cps}-800 \times \mathrm{Hz}$ Input imp. of meg $\Omega 20 \mathrm{pF}$ Time bane. 5 rangen 10 ep
300 kBz . Bynchronization 300 kHz . Bynchronization
Internal/external. 1luminated $15 \times 330 \mathrm{~mm}$. Welght $15 \% \mathrm{lb}$. acal240Y A.C. Supplled hrand new with hand book. 44000 . Cerr. 50p.

RUSSIAN CI. 16 DOUBLE BEAM OSCILLOSCOPE $5 \mathrm{me} / \mathrm{s}$ Pann Band. Beparate Y1 and Y2 mmplifier
 gered iweep from ' 2 u/vec to 100 milli-sec. per cm
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GENERATOR ranger $400 \mathrm{kRz-30tuHz}$. ment for the handyinan Operates on 9 v batters Wide eang to read scale 800 kHz modulation $31 \times 51 \times 31 \mathrm{~m}$. d leads. 27.97 . Ponstrue
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 $\begin{array}{lll}5 \% \text { D.C. } 1 \% & \text { AC. Bcale } \\ \text { length } \\ 185 \mathrm{~mm} . & 0 / 300 / 750 \mu \mathrm{~A}\end{array}$ $1-5 / 3 / 7.5 / 15 / 30 / 75 /$
$150 / 900 / 750 \mathrm{~mA} / 1.5 / 5 /$ $150 / 900 / 750 \mathrm{~mA} / 1.5 / 3 /$
$7.5 A M P D C 0 / 3 / 7.5 / 15$

 | AMP AC |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 300 | 75 | 75 |
| 150 |  |  | $300 / 750 \mathrm{mV} / 1.5 / 5 / 5$

$/ 150 / 300 / 750 \mathrm{D}$ $7 \cdot 5 / 15 / 30 / 75 / 150-/ 300 / 750 /$ DC 1750 V AC. Avtomatic cut out. Supplied com. plete with test leads, manual and tent certincater. £49-00. Pont sop.
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Baods coverlag $550 \mathrm{Kc} / \mathrm{s}-30 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{a}$. FET 3 Meter. Variable BFO for BSB, Bailt-in Bpeaker, Bendspread, Bensitivity Control. $220 / 240$. A.C. or 12 v . D.C. $\left.124^{\prime \prime} \times 4\right\}^{\prime \prime} \times 7^{\prime \prime}$ Brand new with instructions. 25. Carr. 37p.

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 General coverage
$150-400 \mathrm{~K} / \mathrm{s}$. 850
. $\mathrm{Kc} / \mathrm{s}$-30Mc/a. HET front end. 2 mech. detector, variable B.F.O.: noise limiter. B. Meter, Bandapread, RF Gain. $15^{\prime \prime} x$ Brand new ith instructions. iso Cer. D.C


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4 band covering $550 \mathrm{Kc} / \mathrm{s}$. to $30 \mathrm{Mc} / \mathrm{a}$ con. slectrical bandspread on 10 is 20 , 40 and 80 metren s palve plus 7 diode climat 80 metren 8 raive plus 7 diode circuit. ANL. Variable BPO. $B$ meter. Gep. band. apreed dial. IF frequency $455 \mathrm{Ke} / \mathrm{s}$. sudio output $1-6 \mathrm{~m}$. Variable $R F$ and AP gein eontrol. $115 / 250 \mathrm{v}$. A.C. Blze: $7^{\circ} \times 13^{*} \times 10^{\circ}$ with instruction minuial. 149-60. Carr. Pald.


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Mantel 350. $13^{\prime \prime} \times 8^{n}$ with angle tweeter/croseover, $20-1$
$20,000 \mathrm{~Hz}$. 15 . Avalumble 8 or 15 ohms. 87.25 Avainable 8 or 15
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Model $450,13^{\circ} \mathrm{X}$. ohms. 87.25 tweeter/cromenver. $85-13,000$ Hz. 6 watt RM8. Available 8 or
P. ${ }^{15}$ P. 25 pm .



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Project 60

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Matched pair of ntereo bookahelf teak speakers.
Deneered finish. Size $1+4^{\circ} \times 9^{\circ} \times$ $7 t^{\circ} 8$ ohms. 8 watt RMB. 16 watt peak. Complete with DIN lea
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AMPLIFIER
All allicon trans. istor amplifer oper-
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Identical specification to NEAT G30 arm but with two-tone chrome and black finish. Complete with head shell, pick up rest and olug in phono leads.
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FULLY GUARANTEED
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ARF-300 AF/RF Signal Generator
 All translatorlsed,
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STEREO HEADPHONES
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| $0 / \mathrm{TPD}$ |  |
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| 8P25 III/M75-6 |  |
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| EPRO 100A |  |
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| $\begin{aligned} & \text { ZERO } 100 \\ & \text { M98.E } \end{aligned}$ |  |
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| 24 F | 450 V | 200 | 1,000 | sov |  |
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| $\mathrm{BH}_{4} \mathrm{~F}$ | 450 V | 17p | $2.000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | sov | 53 p |
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| $25 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V | $7{ }^{7}$ | $2.500 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | sov | O |
| $25 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | sov | 10p | 3,000 HF | 25 V | 48 p |
| 32, ${ }^{\text {F }}$ | 450 V | 27p | 5.000 HF | 25 V |  |
| $50 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | sov | 10D | $5.000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | sov | C 1.10 |
| $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V | 10p | $8-8,4$ F | 450 V | 18 p |
| $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | sov | 110 | 8-164F | 450 V |  |
| $250 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V | 14p | 16-16, F | 450 V | 27 |
| 2504 F | sov | 17D | 16-32 $\mu \mathrm{F}$ | 450 V |  |
| $500 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V | 18 p | 32-32 $\mu \mathrm{F}$ | 450 V |  |
| 00, F | sov | 25. | $50-50$ | 350 V | 38 |

MINIATURE ELECTROLYTICS

| $1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 63 V | ${ }^{68}$ | 47, F | 15 V | 70 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $2 \cdot 2 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 63V | $6 p$ | 47MF | 25 V | 6 D |
| 33 LF | 63 V | ${ }^{68}$ | $68 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 16 V | 60 |
| $4.7 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 63 V | ${ }_{60}$ | $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 10V | ${ }^{60}$ |
| $8 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 40 V | $7{ }^{7}$ | $220 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 16 V | $7 p$ |
| $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V | ${ }^{6 p}$ | $330 \mu$ F | 16 V | $11 p$ |
| $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 64V | $7 p$ | $470 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | Iov | 110 |
| $16 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 40 V | $7 p$ | 1,000 F | 16 V | 190 |
| 33,4 5 | 16 V | $6{ }_{6}$ | $1.500 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 16 V | 23p |

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fack, $2 \ddagger \mathrm{~mm}$ unscreene
Jack, 21 mm screened

| Jack. |
| :--- |
| Jack, |
|  |
| mm |
| mm |
| unscreen ned |

Jack, $3 \$ \mathrm{~mm}$ screened
Jack, in unscreen
Jack, stereo, unscreen
lack, stereo, screened
hono, plastic top
Wander, red or bac

## LINE SOCKETS

Car aerıa
D.I.N. 2 pin (speaker)
D.IN. 3 pin 180

DilN. 5 pin. 240
Jack. 3 kmm
Jack, in screened
Jack. stepeo, screened
Jack. stereo. sereened

## CAPACITORS


${ }^{2} 2 \mathrm{DF} \quad 500 \mathrm{~V}$
7810

| $0.0027_{\mu} F$ | soov | S/M | p |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $0003 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | s00V | Cer. | p |
| $00033 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 125 V | P. 5 | sp |
| $00033 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | Poly. | 60 |
| $0.0033 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 1.000 V | MDC | 6p |
| $00036 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | 5/M | 15p |
| $00047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 125 V | P. 5. | $p$ |
| $0.0047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | Soov | Poly. | $6 p$ |
| $0.0047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | 5/M | 20p |
| $0.0047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 1,000V | MDC | \% ${ }^{\text {P }}$ |
| $0005 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 100 V | Mylar | 3 p |
| $0005 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | soov | Cer. | 50 |
| $0.0068 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 125 V | P.S. | 1010 |
| $00068 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | 5/M | 30p |
| $0.0068 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | soov | Poly | ${ }^{60}$ |
| $00082 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 125 V | P. 5. | 1010 |
| $00082 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | 5/M | 10p |
| $001 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 18 V | Dise | 40 |
| $001 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | $125 V$ | P.S. | 101p |
| $001 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 160 V | Poly. | do |
| $0014 \angle \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | 3 p |
| $001 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400 V | Poly. | 3 P |
| $001 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | Cer. | 50 |
| $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 500 V | S/M | 30p |
| $001 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 600 V | MDC | $7 p$ |
| $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | $1,000 \mathrm{~V}$ | MDC | 9 |
| $0015 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 160 V | Poly, | 30 |
| $0.015 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400 V | Poly. | $3 p$ |
| 0024 F | 100 V | Mylar | 3 p |
| $0.022 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 18 V | Dise | 5p |
| $0.022 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | 3 p |
| $0.022 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400 V | Poly. | 30 |
| $0.022 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 600V | MDC | 710 |
| 002214 F | 1,000V | MDC | 10p |
| $0033 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | 4 p |
| $0.033 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400 V | Poly. | 4p |
| $0.047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 12 V | Dise | $6 p$ |
| 004714 F | 160 V | Poly. | $1 p$ |
| $0047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | $3 p$ |
| $0047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400 V | Poly. | 4 p |
| $0047 \% 6$ | 600 V | MDC | 8 |
| 0047 \% F | 1,000V | MDC | 10p |
| $01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 30 V | Disc | 6p |
| 0.14 F | 250 V | M.F. | 4 p |
| $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400V | Poly. | 5p |
| $01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 600 V | MDC | 10p |
| 0 1 ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | 1,000V | MDC | 14p |
| $0.15 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | 5 p |
| $0.22 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 160 V | Poly. | 6p |
| $0.22 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | $5 p$ |
| $022 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400 V | Foil | 10p |
| $0.22 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 1.000 V | MDC | 15p |
| $0.33 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | dp |
| $0.47 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | 8p |
| $0.47 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 400 V | Foil | 150 |
| $0.47 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 1.000 V | MDC | 25p |
| $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 250 V | M.F. | 150 |
| Note: <br> $\$ / M=$ silver mica $1 \%$ tol. P.S. $=$ polyseyrene $2 \%$ col. MDC-a.c. rating $=300 \mathrm{~V}$. M.F. = Mullard min. foil. <br> Cer. = ceramic. |  |  |  |
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