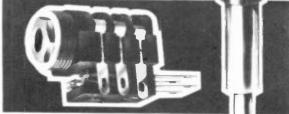




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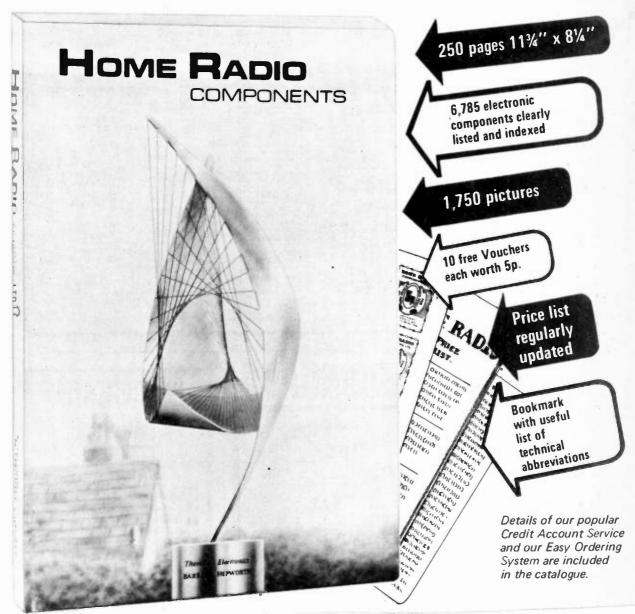


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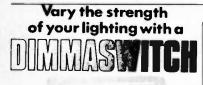
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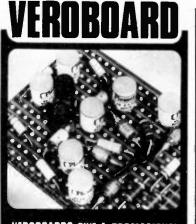
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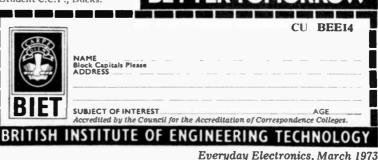
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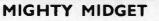
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Made by Honeywell THERMOSTAT Made by Honeywell for normal är temperatures 40°-80°F (5-25°C). This is a precision instrument with a differential which can be adjusted to better than 1-5°F. A mercury with breaks on temp, rise—the switch is operated by a colled bi-metal element and adjustable heater is incorporated for heat antici-pation. Eigrantly styled and encased in an ivory plastic case with clear plastic windows thermometer above and switch setting scale below size approx. 36° x 3°2 x 1°4 deep—can be mounted on conduit box or directly on wall. Frice \$1:25 each for ten for \$11:25.

CENTRIFUGAL BLOWER

CENTRIFUGAL BLOWER Miniature mains driven blower centrifugal type blower unit by Words. Powerful but specially built for quiet running-driven by cushioned induction motor with specially built low noise bearings. Overall size $4j^* \times 4j^*$ X ''. When mounted by flange, at is blown into the equipment but to suck air out, moust it from centre using clamp. Ideal for cooling electrical equipment of fitting into a cooker hood, film drying cabinet or for removing flux amoke when soldering etc. etc. A real bargain at \$1.85.

IZ WAY SUB-MINIATURE MULTI-CORE CABLE

7.0076 copper cores each core P.V.C. invulated and of different colour. P.V.C. covered overall and approx. 3/16in. thick. Price 20p per yard.



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SNAP ACTION SLIDE

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switch. Bialns connector, and fixing brackets. **£2.50** + 201-P. & P. CD CAR IGNITION

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EXIII ated having a 20W be converted to exit lagras. These are illumin-igns. These are illumin-igns. These are illumin-discrete the elters available at most stationers. There room inside the box for a battery and low volt lamp in the case of power failure. Size of sign is 21t high x 14in wide x 5in deep. Solidly made from sheet atel and hammer finished in enamel. Price 53-50 plus 50p carriage per 200 miles.

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A must for every busy man, give-almost instant hert also illumi-nated job. 100 watt £2:25 plus post and ins. 209. BIG JOB 250 watt model £4-75 plus post and ins.40p.

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for portable, car radio or transmitter. Chronie plated-six sections, extends from 75 to 47in. Hole In bottom for 6BA screw. KNUCKLED MODEL FOR F.M. 50p 38n. NOS!

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Our Ref. RS01. 10A 240V. Self-fixing into hole size approx. In x jin by famous Prench maker Rus-semburgh. Price 10p each.



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Model 400/1 1" pull Size 21" x 2 x 11" 75n

Model TT10 1^{*}₂ pull size $3 \times 2^{*}_{2} \times 2^{-}_{2}$ \$1-80 plus 20p post and insurance.

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LIGHT CELL Almost zero resistant in sun-light increase to 10 K Ohms in dark or dull light, epozy resin sealed. Size approz. In dis. by Jin. thick. Bated at 500 MW, wire ended. 60p with circuit. Also ORP 12 light cell 60p.

Everyday Electronics, March 1973

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TAPE HEADS

TAPE HEADS We are gradually obtaining more information about the Travox tape heads we have, we are told that these have been would in a very ingenious way so that winding may be coupled either in parallel or in screies depending whether high or low impedance is required. We also have matching grave heads and no v offer these in pairs. I record and 1 erase head. Price of the 2 track d5p per pair. 4 track 75p per pair. Pair mounted on plate 45p extra.

I R.P.H. MOTOR

Made by the famous Smiths Company. 240v 50 cycle mains working. Ideal motor to drive clock mechanisms. Price £1 each or 10 for £9.

DRILL DRILL CONTROLLER NEW IKW MODEL Electronically changes makely 10 rers. to makimun. Puil power at all speeds by finger-tip control. Kit includes all power at all insurance. Made up undel also 26 pluge 130 poet a D. CONTROL DRILL SPEEDS

insurance. Made up model also available. 22:25 plue 13p post & p.

HIGH ACCURACY THERMOSTAT Uses differential comparator 1.C. with thermister as probe. Designer claims temperature control to within 1/7th of a degree. Complete kit with power pack \$5.50.

WATERPROOF HEATING ELEMENT 26 yards length 70W. Self-regulating temperature control. 50p post free.



Learn in your sleep: Have radio playing and kettle boiling as you awake-switch on lights

THIS BALANCE KIT FREE Eagle educational

-have warm house to come to ward off intruders to ward off intriders—inve warm nouse to come home to. All these and many other things you can do if you invest in an electrical programmer Clock by famous maker with 15 ann, onjord switch. Switch-on time can be set anywhere to stay on up to 6 hours. Independent 60 minuta memory jogger. A beautiful unit, Price \$1.93 + 20p p & p or with glass front chrome bezel 75p estra extr

INSTANT START UNITS

30)

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For 2tt tubes. Philip's or Smart & Brown in a tray complete with tube clips and tube ends. Price £1-50 each or 10 for £13-50.

EDUCATIONAL KITS-all with pictorial instructions



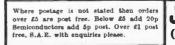
to be able to repeat this offer once stocks are sold. Brief description of each kit is given below and with J kits or more we give FREE an accurate 11 piece biance kit. Frice of kits 400 each post paid. Special price for all 8 kits 23:00 with free balance kit. KA2 Lans Kit. Eleven parts, including candle, one concave lens, one convex lens, stage and all frame, etc. Watch light rays bend as they pass through different lense. KA3 Water Pump Kit. Thirteen parts. Top of pump is transparent so that operating parts may be observed. Small parts are brightly coloured to be seen easily while working. Three types of pump may be made: Lift pump. Force Pump and Force Pump with reservoir and nozele. KA4 Buzzer Kit. Eleven parts. Transparent covers allow the operation of buzzer to be geen. Ilugirate

KAS bitaser Alt. Rieven parul. Transparent covers allow the operation of buzzer to be seen. Illustrates and teaches now electromagnetism with an antomatic switch results in an operating buzzer, KAS-2-Pole Motor Kit. Twenty-four parts including enamel wire, armature and pole piece, etc. Motor operates from 14 volt battery. Illus-trates and teaches how electro-magnetism operates

KA7 Electro-Magnet Kit, Fifteen parts, includes KA7 Electro-Maxnet Kit. Filteen parts, includes compass. Makes two electro-magnets, one with one isyrer of wire and one with several layers of wire. Picks up tacks, nails and any small parts showing how magnetism works. KA8 Current and Resistance Kit. Twenty-uine parts, including bench and light bulb. Conduct interesting and educational projects to learn the application of "OHMS LAW" and see the differ-ence in current and resistance with different

application of "UHBB LAW" and set the different ence in current and resistance with different types and lengths of wire. EA9 Bell Kit. Eight parte, including bell and push button switch. Build a complete electric bell and see how the hammer is triggered to make the bell ring

KA10 Morse Key busser and bell kit. 25 part kit casy to construct, simple to operate.





To receive parts for these and other projects featured in this issue send quoted approximate amount any cash adjustment can be made later.

THYRISTOR LIGHT DIMMER

For any lamp up to 600 watt. Mounted on switch plate to fit in place of standard switch. Virtually no radio inter-ferences. Price £2.95 plus 20p post and insurance.

TANGENTIAL HEATER UNITS

This heater usit is the very latest type, most efficient, and quiet running. Is as fitted in Hoover and blower besters costing 416 and more. We have a few only. Comprises motor, impeller, 2kW. element and 1kW. element allowing switching 1, 2 and 3kW. and with thermai safety cut-out. Can be fitted into any metal line case or cabinet. Only need control switch. 25360. 2kW. Model as above screept 2 kilowatta 2550. Don't mise this. Control Switch 355p. P. & P. 40p.



DISTRIBUTION PANELS

Just what you need for work bench or lab. 4×13 amp sockets in metal box to take standard 13 amp fused plugs and onjoff switch with neon warning light. Bupplied complete with 6 feet of flex cable. Wired np ready to work. $22 \cdot 25$ plus 23p P. A I

THIS MONTH'S SNIP S AMP VARIAC for £3

This heading is not quite accurate because it is not a variable transformer that we are offering but a solid state device which serves the same purpose in almost all applications and, of course, much smaller. Made by Ultra Electronics, can be fitted into ordinary asitch box. Engrave a circle on the front plate, mark this off in division, fit a pointer knob, calibrate with your volumeter (yon will find the scale almost linear) you now have compared the state line off. a power controller equal to a 5 amp variac costing £12 or more.

BARGAIN PARCEL OF SEVEN MOTORS FOR 41



N

CEL OF SEVEN MOTORS FOR at a bargain parcel of 7 motors for at. 8 more not as larger as a postage atamp and only $|^{*}$ thick, largerst is $|^{*}_{4}$ ' $|^{*}$ dia. Some work off $|^{*}_{4}$ some as high as 18°. These motors are used in racing cars, power toys etc. The largest is so powerful that it will drive a Mini drill model lathe, or aimilar. This is a 4 pole motor, optimum working 16°s but very powerful even as low as 4 $\frac{1}{4}$. Don't miss this wonderful snip.

ANDARD WARED CHITCHES

	SIA	IDAI	KU Y	VAFE	K 2M	ALLC	TE3		
									ntact, ad nut.
					-		-		
lo. of Poles	2 way	3 way	4 way	5 way	6 way	6 way	9 way	10way	12way
1 pole	40n	40p	40p	40p	40p	40p	40p	40p	40p
2 poles	40p	40p	40p	40p	40p	40p	400	70p	709
3 poles	409	40p	40p	40p	709	70p	70p	959	95 p
4 poles	409	40p	40p	70p	70p	70p	709	\$1 -20	\$1 -20
5 polea	401	400	701	709	95p	95p	95p		\$1 .45
6 poles	400	700	700	700	959	96p	959	#1 .70	\$1 70
7 poles	70p	709	709	95 p			£1 ·20	\$1.95	£1 ·95
8 poles	700	70p	709	95p			\$1 -20		\$\$ ·20
9 poles	70p	701	95p	969		\$1.45			88 -45
10 poles	709	700	96p	£1 ·20		\$1 45			48 .70
11 poles	709	959	959	\$1 .20		\$1 -70			42 -95
12 poles	70p	959	959	\$1 -20	\$1.70	£1 ·70	£1 ·70	\$3 .80	\$3 -20

PAPST MOTORS

FATS: MOIORS Est. 1/40th h.p. Made for 110-120 volt working, but two of these work ideally together off our standard 240 volt mains. A really beautiful motor, extremely quiet running and reversible. £1:50 each. Postage one 23p, two 33p, 230V model £3.



BAKELITE INSTRUMENT CASE

Bize approx. 6%" x 3%" x 2" deep with brass inserts in four corners. This is a very strong case suitable to house instruments and special rigs, etc. Price 45p each. Pax lid 10p extra.

50 MICRO AMMETER Bquare, panel mounting type. 43

INTEGRATED CIRCUIT BARGAIN

INTEGRATED CIRCUIT BARGAIN A parcel of integrated circuits made by the fanous Piessey Company. A once-in-a-litetime offer of Micro-electronic devices well below cost of manufacture. The parcel contains & ICS all new and perfect, first-grade device, definitely not sub-standard or second. 4 of the ICS are single silicon elib GP amplifiers. The 6th is a monolithic NPN matched pair. Regular price of parcel well over 55. Pull circuit details of the ICS are included and in addition you will receives list of many different ICS available at bargain prices 258 upwards with circuits and technical data of each. Complete parcel only 21 post paid. DON'T MISS THIS TERRIFIC BARGAIN.



CHIP RADIO Ferranti's latest device ZNdi-gives results better than superbit. Supplied complete with technical notes and circuits. 21-25 each. 10 for \$11.

BULL (ELECTRICAL) (Dept. E.E.), 7 Park Street, Croydon CRO IYD Callers to: 192/3 Tamworth Road, CROYDON.



This comprises double-wound 230/240V mains transformer with full wave rectifier and 2000 m/f/d" smoothing. Frice \$1.95, plus 20p post & packing.

250 WATT POWER PACK

9-50 voits, 20.5 amp using full wave and half wave circuits voltage changer by inter connection of push-on tag. Price $\pm 5.50 + 50p$ p. & p. N.B. Note these make excellent car battery

AMPLIFIER IN CASE WITH SPEAKER

SPEAKER Marketed by British Relay under the name Luxistor. This is in a very neal looking cabinet and is ideal around the home or in the workshop for trouble shooting or for testing out a quick lash up Bix approx. 91° x 31° deep. Input is via a matching transformer and volume control and amplifier may be powered by an internal 9v battery or an external 110v source. Speaker is an R-A eliptical 6" x 31" 10,000 gauss. The amplifier proper in a Newmarket model ref. P.C.4. Price \$3.50 each. 10 for \$31.50. Post and insurance 20p.

TELEPHONES

TELEPHONES Complete av illustrated. Asve simply by out in a set of the set of

50p each + 20p post.

ROCKER SWITCH

13 amp self-fixing into an oblong hole. alze approximately $1'' \times 1''$ 8p each. 10 for 72p.

SLIDE SWITCHES



SLIDE SWITCHES mounting by two 6B.A. screws. Size approx. In x Jin. rated 250V lamp. 7 peach. 10 for 63p, 600 for 524. Ditto as above but for printed circuit 5p each 10 for 45p, 100 for 542. Sab Ministure Siled Switch. DPDT 19mm (in approx.) between fixing centres. 18p each or 10 for 61-08. SP Change over spring return 250v

1 amp. 10p

KITS FOR PREVIOUS PROJECTS

Unless otherwise stated, kits contain elec-tronic parts only. The case and special items can be obtained locally. Also batteries are not included. Kits may be returned for refund if construction has not been started. We rearry the right to substitute components abouid deliveries be protracted so as to avoid undue delay.

HOME SENTINEL INTRUDERALARM £3-75
SNAP INDICATOR
WINDSCREEN WIPER CONTROL 62-25
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(amplifier components only)
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RADIO CONTROL RECEIVER 43.00
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ICE WARNING DEVICE
BETA TREBLE BOOST & FUZZ £6.00
AUDIO COLOUR UNIT
DAMP LOCATOR £1.25
UHF AERIAL less boom £1.50



everyday electronics

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.

Feel Bennett

Our April issue will be published on Friday, March 16

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.. EASY TO CONSTRUCT ...SIMPLY EXPLAINED

VOL. 2 NO. 3

MARCH 1973

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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.



F) Z(G(G TIMER

by R. Gwinn

of the mains cycle, C2 is charged through D2 to 9V. In the negative half cycle, C3 is charged through D3 to 9V. As these capacitors are in series, 18V 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.

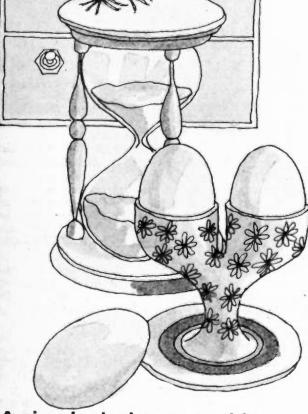
When the voltage on the base exceeds that of the emitter by 600mV, base current, and hence collector current, begins to flow. When there is sufficient current to pull in the relay, its contacts apply 6.3V a.c. to the buzzer WD1.

Switching off removes the mains and shorts C1 ready to begin another timing cycle.



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

ONVENTIONAL 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 in Fig. 1. During the positive half

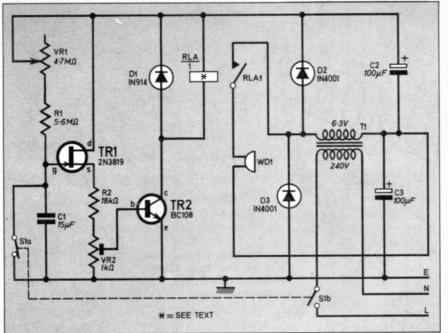
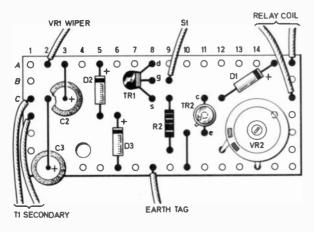
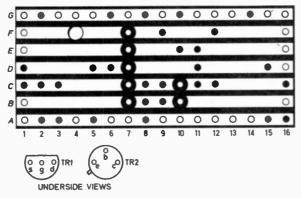


Fig. 1. The complete circuit diagram of the Egg Timer.

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





CONSTRUCTION DETAILS

The components to be mounted on the 0.15in. matrix Veroboard, size 16 x 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 in. x 7in. x 2^{1}_{2} in. The layout of the components within the case is not important so any size case may be used.

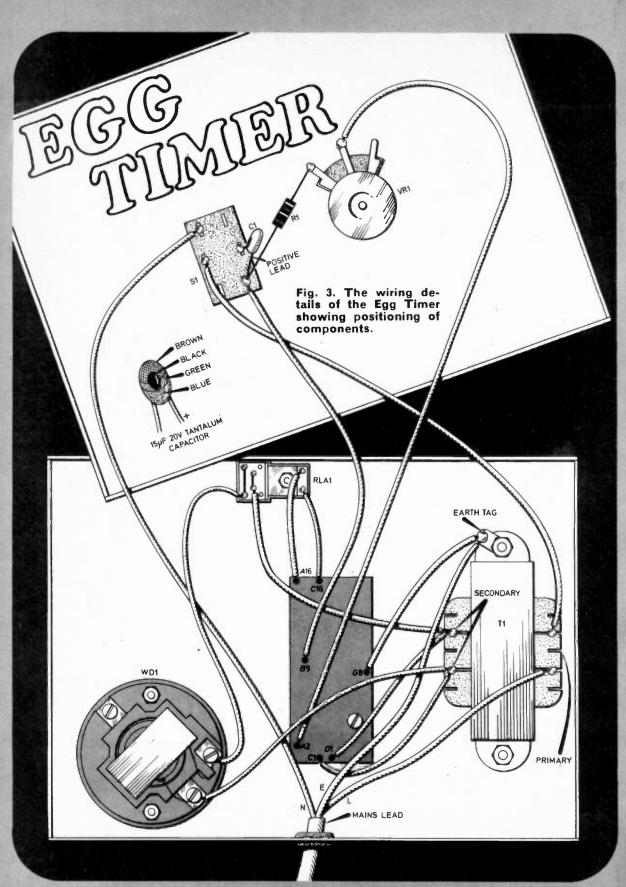
With reference to Fig. 3 mount the other components in position and fix to the case; now wire up as indicated. As can be seen from Fig. 3 the potentiometer VR1 and switch S1 are attached to the lid of the case.

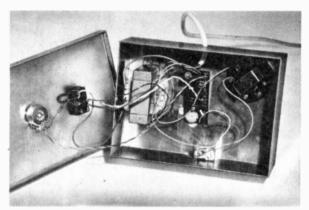
Ensure that an earthing tag is attached to the transformer fixing bolt. When the wiring is complete, bolt the component board securely to the case using a spacer to keep the board at about $_4$ in. from the case. As a safeguard against shorting of the board via the case, insulating tape can be stuck 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 18V and draws less than





Photograph of the inside of the completed Egg Timer.

25mA (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 6V bulb in its place.

When you are completely satisfied that the wiring is correct, plug into the mains via a fused plug containing a 1A 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 VR1 so that it is at its maximum, i.e. fully clockwise. With VR2 set to minimum resistance (fully anticlockwise), switch on via S1 and time for 7 minutes.

At this time, carefully (and quickly) adjust VR2 turning clockwise until the bulb glows. Now switch off via S1 (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

Everyday Electronics, March 1973

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_2 minutes.

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

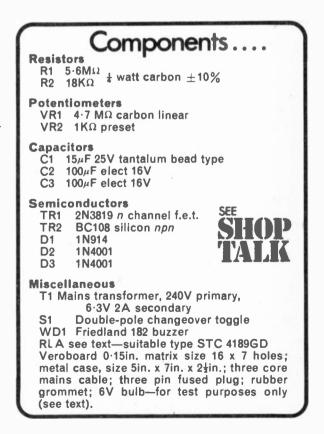
Required egg condition, i.e. soft, semi-hard and hard can be marked alongside_the correct time if so desired as shown in front cover photograph, but this depends on many things such as size of egg, temperature of water, whether the egg has been stored in a refrigerator or not and is best done by trial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



T HE 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 single giant aerial focused on to a satellite, known as Early Bird, over the Atlantic, Goonhilly has become one of the busiest earth station on the world. There are now three aerials a Goonhilly —the latest aerial coming into one ation the year (1972)—which is the first earth station of have three aerials in simultaneous commercioperation to three satellites two over the Atlantic and one over the Indian Ocean

Developed at a total cost (a the end of/19)2) of about £14m, Goonhilly has become the pattern for virtually all the world's satellite 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?

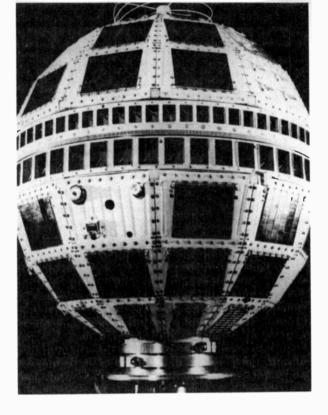
The short answer is no. The demand for international telecommunications service is doubling every four years and both cables and satellites are needed to meet the demand. Cables are ideal for busy or short routes and are still directly competitive over transatlantic routes. New developments in undersea cable technology (reviewed in EVERYDAY ELECTRONICS, September 1972, now no longer available) are dramatically increasing the communications circuit capacity of movern submarine cables.

The stillite has, however, one major advantage over the cable. It makes possible intercommunication between many different and videor scattered countries through a single price of equipment—the satellite. Importantly top the satellite is the only way of providing intercontinental TV. In addition, the service provided by a satellite is flexible and can easily be adjusted to meet changes in demand.

The only other contender in the field of international communication is high frequency



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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.

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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 6000MHz 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 channels, 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 (0-12kHz) 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 85ft to 97ft 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.



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SATELLITES

After choosing the ideal site and spending, to date, about £14m on developing Goonhilly, the Post Office has also spent some further £12m 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 £6m each, plus about £7m 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.



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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.

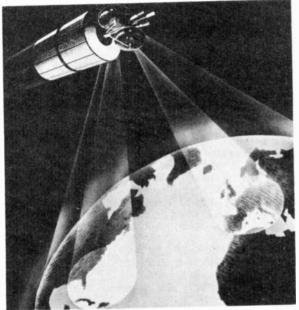
Since January 1971, four Intelsat IV satellites have been launched and between them they carry all the INTELSAT traffic. Another four Intelsat IV satellites will be launched to provide spares-in-orbit over the three operating regions —the Atlantic, Indian and Pacific Oceans.

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 INTEL-SAT 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

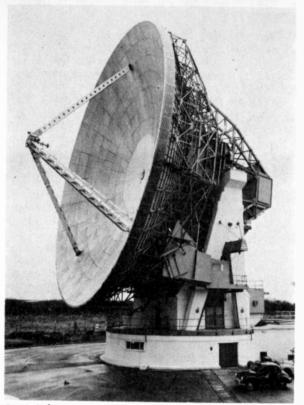
Part of the Intelsat IV's power is concentrated in two spot beams.



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 $\pounds 2^{1}_{4}$ 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 50p 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. Π



Aerial One built in 1965 and re-equipped in 1969. It operates to 16 countries via a satellite 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 receive 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

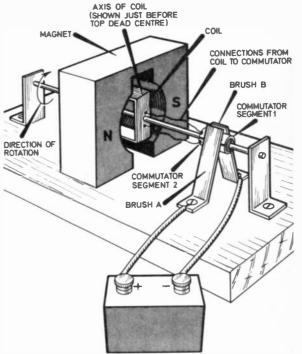


Fig. 5.1. A simple two-pole permanent magnet motor.

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.

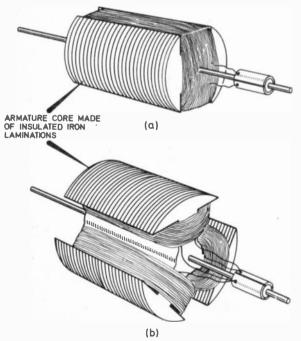
ARMATURE

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.



FIELD WINDING

In the case of small model motors the magnetic 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.

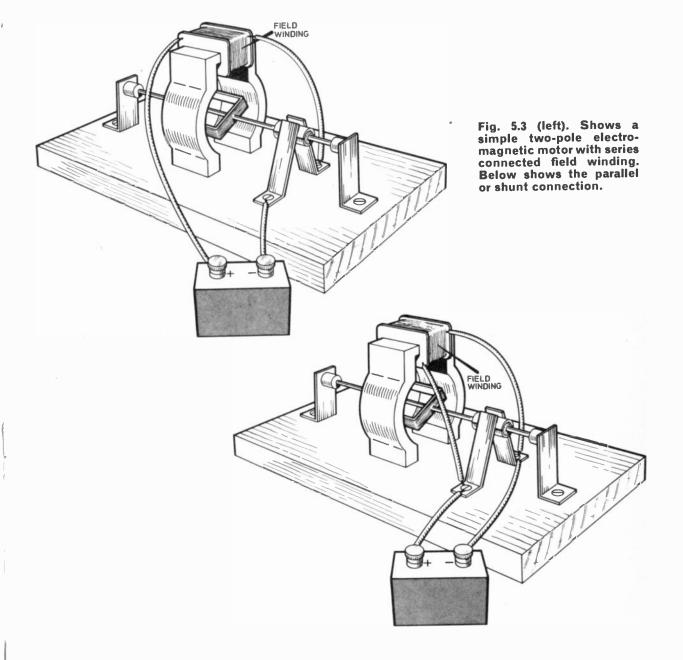
RATE OF CHANGE

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 interesting 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



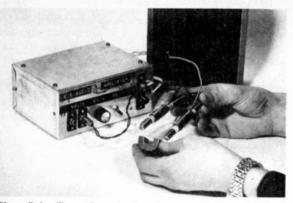
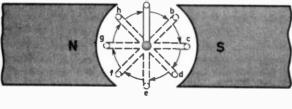


Fig. 5.4. Experiment to demonstrate electromagnetic induction.

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.).



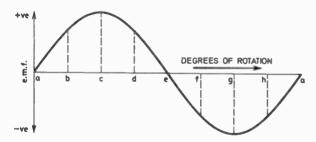


Fig. 5.5. Graphic display of generated e.m.f. as a function of rotation angle.

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 50Hz 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

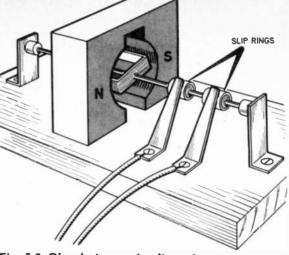
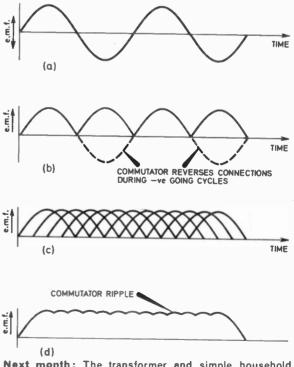


Fig. 5.6. Simple two-pole alternator.

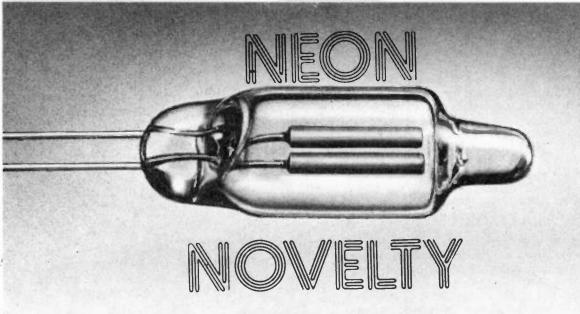
built more along the lines of the d.c. motor. The output must be in one direction only and as steady as possible. By using a commutator instead of slip rings the negative half of each cycle is reversed and the result is a one directional pulsating output, see Fig. 5.7.

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).



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

A SIMPLE 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 0.22μ F capacitor (C1). A neon bulb (LP1) is connected in parallel with the capacitor.



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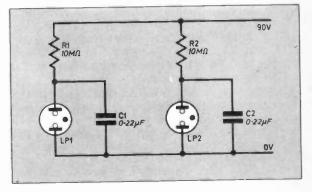


Fig. 1. Basic circuit diagram of Neon Novelty.

A characteristic of neon bulbs is that they do not light or draw any current except at a certain minimum voltage (about 80V for the type of neon used) and as soon as a holding voltage (about 60V) 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 C1 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.

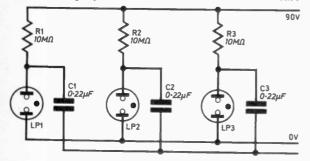


Fig. 2. Modified circuit for random flashing.

THE COMPONENTS

A 90 volt battery is required, such as the Ever Ready B126. Any type of 0.22μ 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.

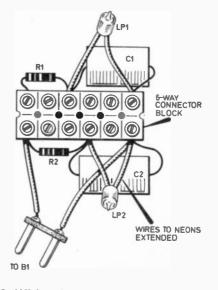


Fig. 3. Wiring for the two neon circuit.



C1

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TO BI

C2

C7

C3

C6

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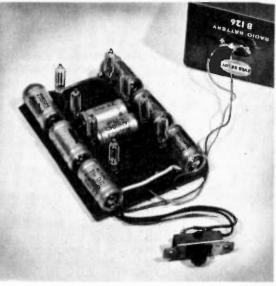
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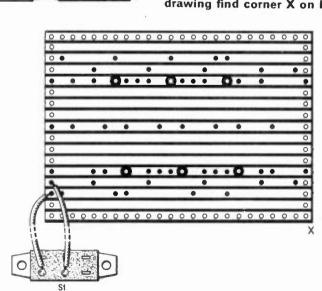
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Photograph showing the completed circuit board and battery for an 8 neon "flashing block" unit.

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 on 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 R1 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.

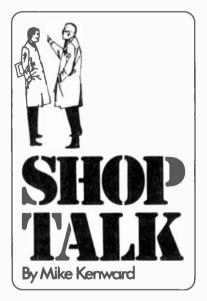
Commence construction by inserting all the resistors, capacitors and wire links, including those to S1, in the Veroboard, cut the leads off and solder each connection. Next make the six breaks in the copper strips as shown and finally connect up the battery leads and solder in the neons so that the bottom 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 S1 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 transformer 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 transformer is available from Henry's Radio and this could be used if the board is extended by 0.6inches 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 CI 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

Everyday Electronics, March 1973

—Electrovalue of 28 St. Judes Road, Englefield Green, Egham, Surrey, can supply this pot. The cost of this item is 12p plus a small order surcharge of 10p (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 700Ω —the higher the value the better —and can work on 18V; the proto-type unit used a 3000Ω 18V 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 point and 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 100V.

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 $0-100\mu$ 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_{2}^{1} or 4 inches across.

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

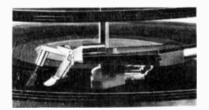
New Products

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, SG8 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 $\pounds 9.25$ complete with stand and two bits.



Bib have introduced a Groov-Kleen 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 98p 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.



T HIS article is of special interest to the photographer who does his own enlarging. It describes a light meter to determine the exposure required for satisfactory enlargements without the time consuming, and paper devouring, ritual of test strips. In practice the meter 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.

Owners 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 BRIDGE

Consider a voltage V_s applied to two arms of a bridge, (Fig. 1), the left arm of R_a and R3, the right arm of VR1 and R5. In the left arm V_s will vary according to the values of R_a and R3, whilst in the right arm V_b will vary according to the values of VR1 and R5.

Each arm can be regarded as independent of the other for most practical purposes, and if V_a is equal to V_b no current will flow in the meter and the bridge is said to be balanced. If, however, the resistance of F_a rises, the potential V_a falls and current flows from V_b to $V_{a...}$

If the current through the meter is very much smaller than the current in VR1 and R5, V_{\circ} will

rencain virtually constant. Resistor R4 is connected in series with the meter so that the full scale deflection (f.s.d.) current is not exceeded to such an extent that the meter is damaged.

The bridge equation is usually stated by saying that the bridge is balanced when $R_n \times R5 = R3 \times$ VRI but the action of the circuit is not so easy to see from this approach.

FULL CIRCUIT

Let us now consider the full circuit (Fig. 2). The right arm is VR1 and R5 as before, with V_{ν} , set by the wiper of a subminiature potentiometer, and kept constant. Resistor R3 is in the same position as before but R_a is now a field effect transistor (f.e.t.) with V_a appearing on its source.

As in the basic circuit when V_a is equal to V_b the bridge is balanced and no current flows, but if V_a falls the current is passed through the meter from V_b to V_a .

LIGHT CELL

The light cell is a sensitive photoconductive cell (PCC1). In the dark its resistance rises to hearly 10 megohus falling to only a few hundred ohrns in bright light. Under the enlarger it operates between about 1 megohus for a dense negative down to 100 kilohus for maximum meter deflection with a "thin" negative.

These values were determined with a wide variety of negatives, enlargements and stop values and although values outside this range

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A light mote determine the exposure required for satisfactory enlargements By J. M. Bartlett

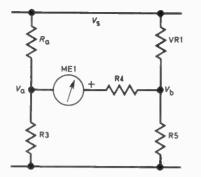
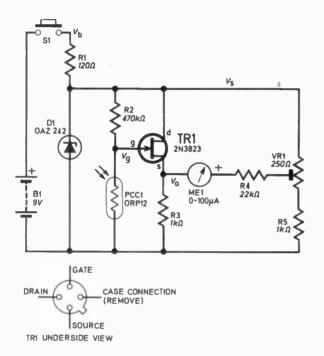


Fig. 1. Basic bridge circuit configuration.

Fig. 2. Circuit diagram of the Enlarger exposure meter.



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_{s} but the gate of the f.e.t. (at V_{g}) presents an input impedance of many megohms and can therefore be ignored; V_{g} therefore varies with the incident light and V_{s} follows this change.



In total darkness V_* is approximately 4.9 volts at which point VR1 is adjusted to give zero deflection on the meter. Under the enlarger the resistance of PCC1 falls, V_g falls, and V_* falls, following the change in voltage. V_* falls about 2.2 volts at the chosen light intensity so at this level of illumination we get $\frac{2 \cdot 2V}{22k\Omega} = 100\mu$ A. i.e. full scale deflection.

STABILIZER

To nullify the effects of battery ageing, a Zener diode together with R1 is used to derive a semistable voltage V_* , nominally 5.6V. For a variation in battery voltage of 6.5V to 9V 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.

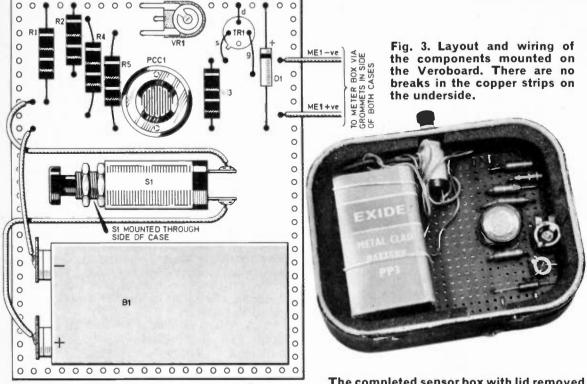
Adhesive foam similar to draught excluding foam used on doors and windows holds the board firmly and a folded tissue on the bottom of the tin prevents the soldered joints from shorting on the tin. The meter leads are fed out through a small grommet.

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

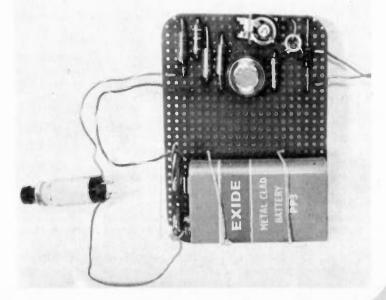
enlarger exposure meter



DIRECTION OF COPPER STRIPS

The completed sensor box with lid removed (above).

The Veroboard complete with all components. Note the mounting of TR1 upside 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

60

50

METER DEFLECTION

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 ± 10 per cent of the indicated value.

VARIATIONS

Since we are dealing with a 100μ A meter in this article, R4 was chosen as 22 kilohms. Table 1 shows how R4 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

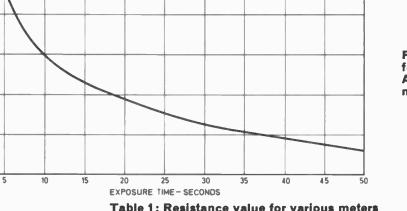


Fig. 4. Calibration curve for the prototype unit. A curve like this must be made for the meter.

Table 1: Resistance	value for	various	meters
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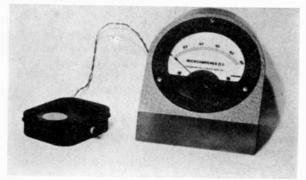
Meter f.s.d. (µA)	R4 (calculated) (KΩ)	Nearest preferred value (K Ω)
 50	44	47
100	22	22
150	14.6	15
200	11	12
250	9	10
500	4.5	4.7

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 (PCC1) 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

R5

R1 120Ω **R**2 470kΩ **R**3 1kΩ **R4** $22k\Omega$



1kΩ All #W ± 10% carbon

Potentiometer

 250Ω subminiature skeleton preset VR1

Semiconductors

- PCC1 ORP12 light dependent resistor
- D1 5.6V 400mW Zener diode
- TR1 2N3823 n channel f.e.t.

Miscellaneous

- S1 Single pole push to make pushbutton
- **B1** PP3 9V battery
- ME1 0-100µA moving coil meter (or alternative-see text)

Veroboard 2.2 x 2.9 x 0.1 inch matrix, battery connectors, grommetts, connecting wire, tracing paper or perspex for diffusing material, two cases (see text)

Continued from page 142

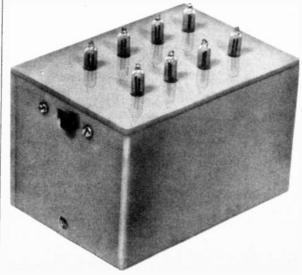
Since the unit can be expected to work for more than two or three years (possibly much longer) the box can be sealed up, but a small hole must be left as mentioned above; also the battery must not be a tight fit as it is likely to expand with old age.

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.



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 First First Fransistor

T HE whole of electronics depends upon the amplification of electric current. The principal device employed for this function was originally the valve. During the last 15 years or so the transistor has taken over this role. The transistor, a solid state amplifying device, was invented twenty-five years ago.

There are interesting similarities in the histories of the valve and the transistor. The thermionic valve first appeared on the scene as as a rectifier. It had two electrodes: a filament (cathode) and an anode, and it was known as a diode.

The usefulness of the valve was greatly increased when a third electrode called the grid was added around 1906. The result was a device capable of amplifying voltages and currents. It was called a triode.

ANCESTORS OF THE TRANSISTOR

The transistor has as its ancestors certain devices called solid state rectifiers. These have appeared in two different forms: (1) the crystal (point-contact) rectifier, first used as a detector of radio frequencies before the invention of the valve, (2) the plate or contact metal rectifier, used for producing direct current from alternating current supplies, which first appeared in practical forms around 1920. 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

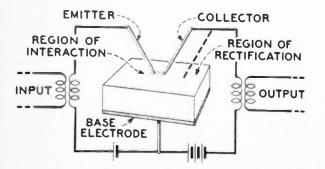


Fig. 1. The basis of the first transistor. 150

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.

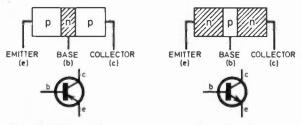


Fig. 2. Alternative arrangements of the junction transistor.

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 *pnp* and *npn* 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

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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 pn 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 pn 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 Mike Hughes

The Grounded Base Amplifier

T HE 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 microphone—given the right set of circumstances.

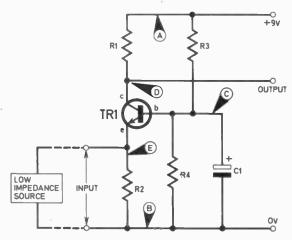


Fig. 4.1. Basic circuit of a grounded base stage.

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 C1 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 current applying 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.

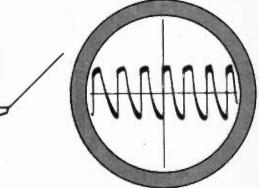
CIRCUIT DESIGN

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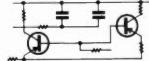
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to measure the output a high degree of voltage amplification must be introduced. By making R1 22 kilohm the simple rule for amplification gives a factor:

> Voltage amplification = (approx) $\frac{Zout}{Zin}$ = $\frac{22,000}{35}$ = 630

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 4.5V) will be

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

approximately 0.2mA. 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 E, 0.2V, assuming the emitter current is approximately the same as collector current, R2 will be

$$\frac{0\cdot 2}{0\cdot 2}$$
 kilohm

(1 kilohm).

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

$$\frac{J_{\rm c}}{h_{\rm FE}} = \frac{0.2}{200} \,\mathrm{mA} = 0.001 \,\mathrm{mA}.$$

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

$$\frac{9-0\cdot8}{81\times0\cdot001}$$
 kilohm = $\frac{8\cdot2}{0\cdot081}$ = approx 100 kilohm;
R4 is $\frac{0\cdot8}{80\times0\cdot001}$ kilohm = $\frac{0\cdot8}{0\cdot08}$ = 10 kilohm.

It is now obvious why the factors 81 and 80 were chosen. Capacitor C1 must present a low impedance to the lowest frequencies therefore 50μ 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 50μ 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

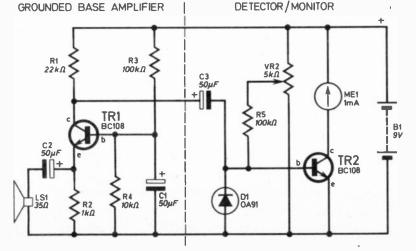


Fig. 4.2. "Working" circuit for the grounded base stage together with a simple monitoring stage.

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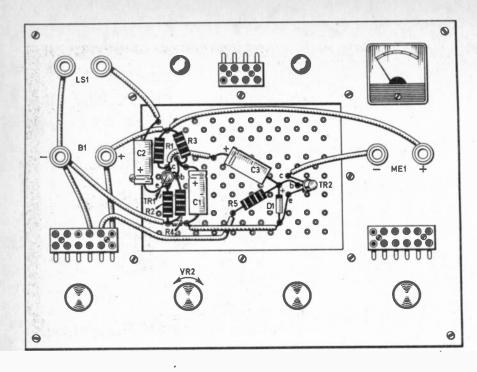
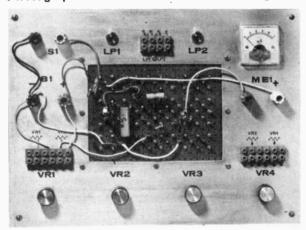


Fig. 4.3. The circuit of Fig. 4.2. Wired up on the Demo Deck. VR2 should be adjusted as mentioned in the text.

by D1. Transistor TR2 is "starvation" biased 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 600mV 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 600mV 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 1.5V—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 input 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 input unlike 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.

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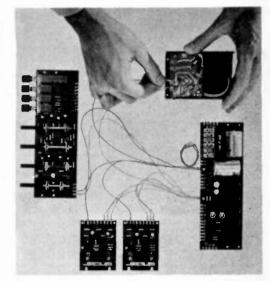
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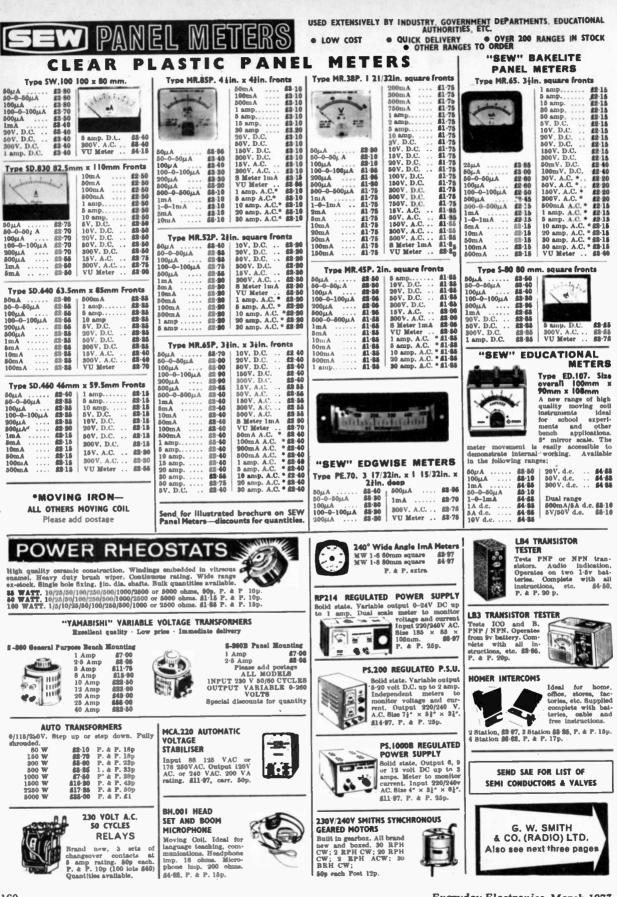
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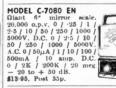
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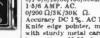


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