

Harold Turner discusses Stereo/Hi-Fi Servicing



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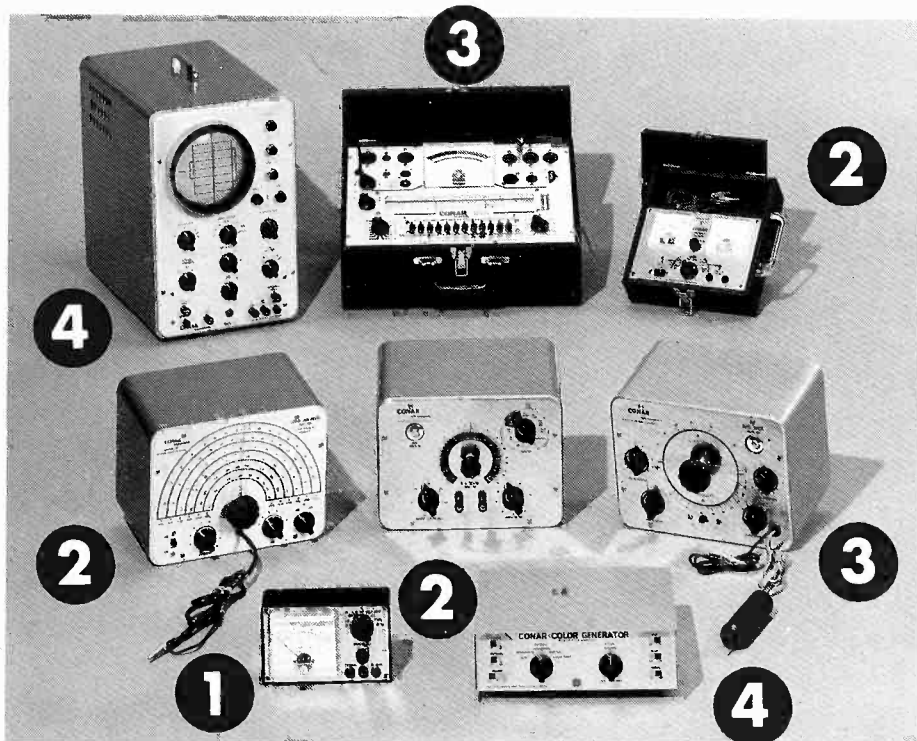
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by HAROLD J. TURNER, JR.



stereo hi-fi servicing

As recently as ten years ago, the stereo/hi-fi business was relatively small. Only those who were knowledgeable in electronics, highly interested in music, rather wealthy, or some combination of these, ever owned a good music system. Today, of course, the market has been turned upside down. This is partly a result of improved technology (stereo instead of single-channel sound, transistors instead of tubes, cassettes instead of reel-to-reel tape, etc.).

The biggest difference, however, is probably in the market itself. Ten years ago the average hi-fi owner was a middle-aged man whose musical interests leaned toward Beethoven or perhaps Henry Mancini. Today, the young largely control the hi-fi market. In case you haven't noticed, music is an integral part of our "youth culture." And the young have a way of settling down, getting married, and furnishing a home. This is where the audio business enters the picture. Practically every newlywed couple's most prized possessions are their color TV and their stereo — and not necessarily in that order.

What does this mean to you as a technician? Well, for one thing, you could make your living servicing audio equipment. No TV's, two-way radios, or intercoms — just hi-fi equipment. In many localities there will be more than enough business to keep you busy full-time.

WHAT DO I NEED TO SPECIALIZE IN AUDIO SERVICING?

To specialize in audio servicing, or in any other area of electronics for that matter, you must be knowledgeable and skilled in the general field of electronics. Your NRI training will provide you with this basic qualification. But it is up to you to keep abreast of the latest developments in electronics in general, as well as in your particular field. The best way to keep up with the field of electronics is to read regularly at least two or three of the best trade magazines (*Electronics World*, *Radio-Electronics*, and *Electronic Servicing* are some).

If you are already a hi-fi buff, or if you are at least keenly interested in the field, you are several steps ahead of others who might be considering the business opportunities in this area of electronics. If your knowledge of audio is very limited, don't be too concerned about it. As long as you have a good, solid electronics background, you can pick up the details as you work. But the best way to learn is to read, read, read. Check the list at the end of this article for some good reference material. Probably the best single reference in the entire field is the huge *Audio Cyclopedia*. Although this book is very expensive, it will certainly be a good investment if you decide to make audio your business.

As you begin to learn something of the field, you will begin to see that perhaps the biggest difference between audio servicing and other types of consumer electronic servicing is the type of customer you are likely to encounter. The audio customer will probably be more demanding of your talents while being willing to pay well. Much of the work will be in tracking down relatively minor complaints, troubles which other people might never notice, or would certainly never complain about. This means that you must develop a very keen ear for good sound equipment.

WHAT TEST EQUIPMENT DO I NEED?

If you are doing radio-TV service work, you probably already have the equipment you need to do 90% of all audio servicing jobs. As in any electronic specialty, the basic test instruments are the vtvm (or high-impedance transistorized voltmeter) and oscilloscope. Some jobs, however, will require the use of specialized test equipment such as a sine-square wave generator, a distortion analyzer, an audio voltmeter, an FM stereo generator, and an FM sweep generator.

HOW DO I GO ABOUT SETTING UP AN AUDIO SERVICE BENCH?

First of all, you must realize that much of the equipment you will be servicing will be individual components rather than complete systems. In general, a component audio system consists of one or more program sources (record player, tape player, FM tuner, etc.), an amplifier, and a set of speakers. In order to service such individual components efficiently, you must have a test bench that provides the missing pieces to make up a complete system while the service work is in progress.

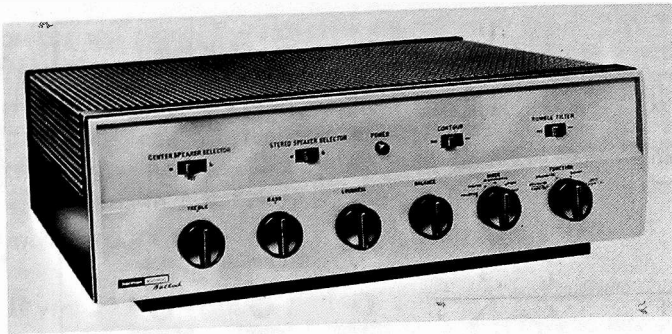
The best way to go about setting up such a service bench is to purchase a stereo FM tuner, stereo amplifier, and a pair of speakers and make available all input and output connections to these pieces of equipment on a jack panel mounted in a convenient place on the service bench. Since any piece of equipment you service will be roughly equal in function to one of the pieces of equipment permanently mounted on the bench, you simply substitute the piece of equipment under test for one of your bench units. Together they will form a complete system.

Since the performance of the entire system can be no better than the performance of any one component, you can use the sound that comes out of the speakers as a gauge for telling just how well your service work is progressing. Suppose you were servicing an amplifier. You would connect the output of the FM tuner into the amplifier input and connect the amplifier output to the bench speakers.

The equipment you use for your bench setup need not be new. The tuner can be practically any stereo FM tuner capable of furnishing a signal of about 1 volt rms into a high impedance load. This is a "high level" signal, which is more or less a standard audio signal level. Most components are designed to accept a signal of roughly this strength. The quality of the unit is not especially important, as long as the tuner is reliable and can pick up at least one FM stereo station without noticeable background noise.

Ideally, the amplifier should consist of two separate pieces: a PREAMPLIFIER, which includes the early stages of the amplifier and all necessary controls and switches, and a separate POWER AMPLIFIER, which includes the driver and audio power output stages. It is best that these units be separate so that you can test separate preamplifiers and power amplifiers. However, if you can't find separate units, an integrated amplifier (combined preamplifier and power amplifier) will do nearly as well.

I recommend that you get a tube type amplifier; some transistor designs are prone to



An integrated amplifier: a 2-channel stereo preamplifier and two power amplifiers on one chassis.

Courtesy Harman Kardon

failure as a result of shorted outputs, excessive input signals, etc. Since you will be making a lot of connections to the outputs of the amplifier, the chances of an eventual error are quite high. Tube amplifiers are more or less immune to this type of trouble. The power rating should be on the order of 10 to 15 watts of audio output per channel.

It is very important that the amplifier have an input for a magnetic phonograph cartridge; you will need this input whenever you test a phonograph equipped with such a cartridge. This type of cartridge has a very low output level (about 10 millivolts) and requires a special equalization circuit to cancel out the frequency compensation introduced in the recording process. Since you will often be testing the magnetic phono inputs on amplifiers, you must have available a test signal for feeding to this type of input. For this you can use the 1-volt rms output of your FM tuner, attenuated as shown in Fig. 1. The capacitor is used to approximate the way the phonograph recording would be altered in the recording process, just the opposite of what happens in the magnetic phono preamp. The two effects cancel out to produce an overall uniform frequency response.

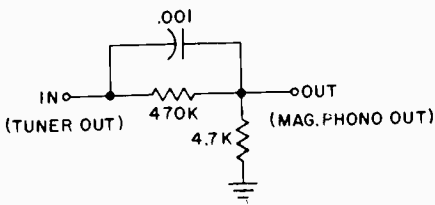


Fig. 1. How to obtain a signal for testing magnetic phono inputs. Two of these circuits are needed for stereo.

Fig. 2 shows how your test panel can be set up. I prefer standard 1/4-inch phone plugs and jacks; they are fairly inexpensive and almost indestructible connectors. In addition, they make more reliable connections than phono plugs do. All amplifier inputs and outputs, tuner outputs, and speaker connections are brought to jacks on this panel.

The detail in Fig. 2 shows how each of the normally closed jacks works. The "sleeve" is connected to ground in most cases. Since the sleeve makes electrical contact with the panel, the panel should be made of some kind of insulating material such as masonite. A metal panel would connect all the sleeves together at all times, and some of them must be

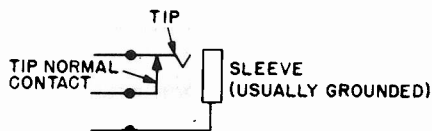
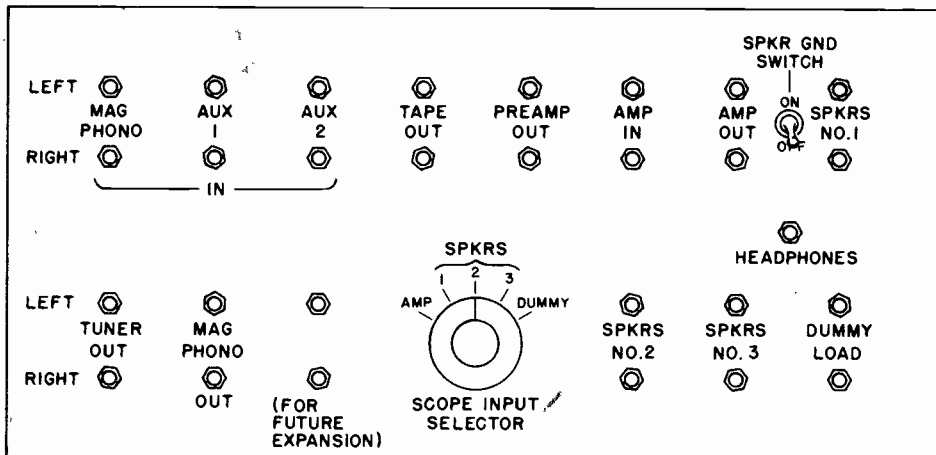


Fig. 2. Test panel layout.

isolated for certain special tests. The sleeve of the jack makes contact with the main part of the phone plug. The tip of the phone plug, which is the signal-carrying conductor, makes contact with a spring in the jack. This spring connector is normally called the "tip." These two elements make up a complete open-circuit jack. Closed-circuit jacks, such as the ones used on the test panel, incorporate a third connection, called the "tip normal." It is normally connected to the tip whenever a plug is not inserted. Inserting a plug breaks the connection between the tip and tip normal contacts. This feature is very useful in providing automatic switching of inputs and outputs.

You will need a good assortment of patch cords to use with the test panel. Since all the jacks are the standard 1/4-inch phone jacks, all your patch cords must be equipped with a 1/4-inch phone plug on at least one end. It would be a good idea to have at least four cords with this type of plug on both ends so that you can provide connections between two jacks mounted to the panel. You will also need several cords with a 1/4-inch phone plug on one end and a phono plug on the other end. You can make these cords yourself or you can buy them already assembled. Preassembled cords are more expensive but provide more reliable connections, especially in the case of phono plugs.

Since many of the circuits you'll be working on handle fairly low signal levels at fairly high impedances, all patch cords should be made of shielded cable. It's best to standardize on shielded cable for all your patch cords so you will automatically have shielding when you need it.

All the jacks used are the standard open-circuit type, except the eight closed-circuit jacks and the single stereo headphone jack. Closed-circuit jacks are used normally in two places

on the test panel. Both circuits are shown in Fig. 3. You will need the "preamp out" and "amplifier in" shown in Fig. 3A only if you use a separate preamplifier and power amplifier.

If you have a single-chassis integrated amplifier, this connection will be made inside the equipment. In that case you won't be able to bring the outputs to the jack panel without modifying the circuit.

If you do have separate units, you will normally want them to be connected; the normal jacks do this for you automatically, without using any patch cords. If you want to use either amplifier separately, the normal connection will be broken as soon as you insert the plug.

The speaker outputs shown in Fig. 3B are wired in much the same way, but an extra switch has been added to isolate the speakers from the amplifier ground circuit. Also a stereo headphone jack is wired in parallel with the amplifier output. You can turn off the speakers by opening the double-pole switch when you wish to listen only to the headphones. This leaves the amplifier connected without much of a load, so don't turn the volume up too high. Without any load connected, some amplifiers will develop trouble. To avoid this possibility, connect a 33-ohm, 2-watt resistor across each amplifier output. This will provide at least a light load at all times.

There are a couple of special features incorporated on the jack panel. Perhaps most important is the speaker switching arrangement, shown in Fig. 3. Normally closed jacks are used so that, when no patch cords are inserted into any of the jacks, the two bench speakers are connected directly to the outputs of the bench amplifier.

Notice that there is also a double-pole switch in the ground circuits. This switch must be opened to isolate the ground circuits when you are working on certain amplifiers.

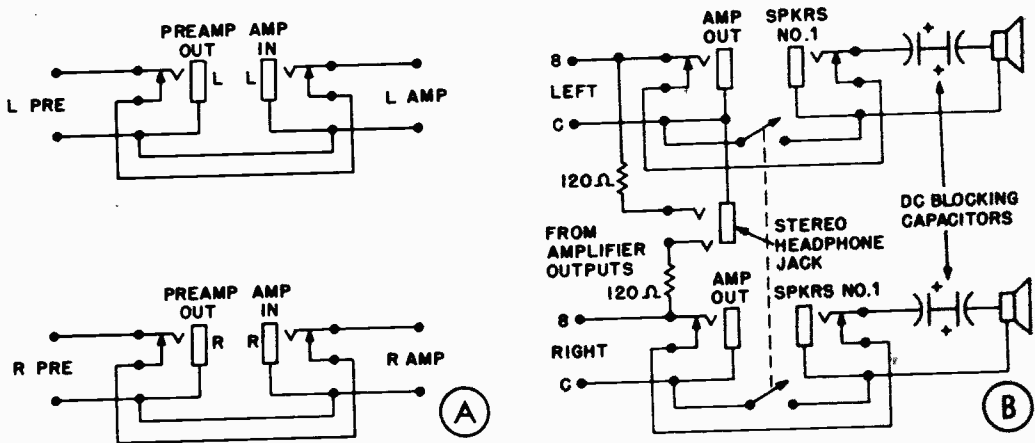


Fig. 3. Normally closed jacks for the amplifier input (A) and output (B).

Fortunately, on most amplifiers the right and left channel speaker ground terminals can be connected together. But this is not always true. Be sure to check the schematic diagram to see if the ground terminals can be connected together safely.

Another handy feature is a pair of 8-ohm, 60-watt dummy load resistors. They can help you make high level checks of power amplifiers without losing your speakers or your mind. Since 8-ohm, 60-watt resistors are rather hard to find, use a combination of higher resistances connected in parallel to get the correct resistance. Two sets of five 40-ohm, 12-watt resistors would do the job nicely. Whatever value you use, make sure that they are noninductively wound.

Another very useful feature is the built-in oscilloscope switching circuit. I recommend that you use a second oscilloscope, in addition to the scope that you use for ordinary troubleshooting, to be connected to the test panel at all times. A selector switch allows you to monitor continuously any of several sets of jacks to see what signals are present.

Notice that three pairs of speaker connections are shown in Fig. 2 instead of just one. The main pair of speakers is used for most servicing work, while the others are used for "test-playing" units that have already been repaired. As shown in Fig. 4, the oscilloscope selector switch can be used to monitor the signals fed to any pair of speakers, the dummy load, or the output of the bench amplifier.

As mentioned earlier, you won't always be able to "common" (connect together) the ground leads from the left and right channel of the amplifier you are servicing. Since the

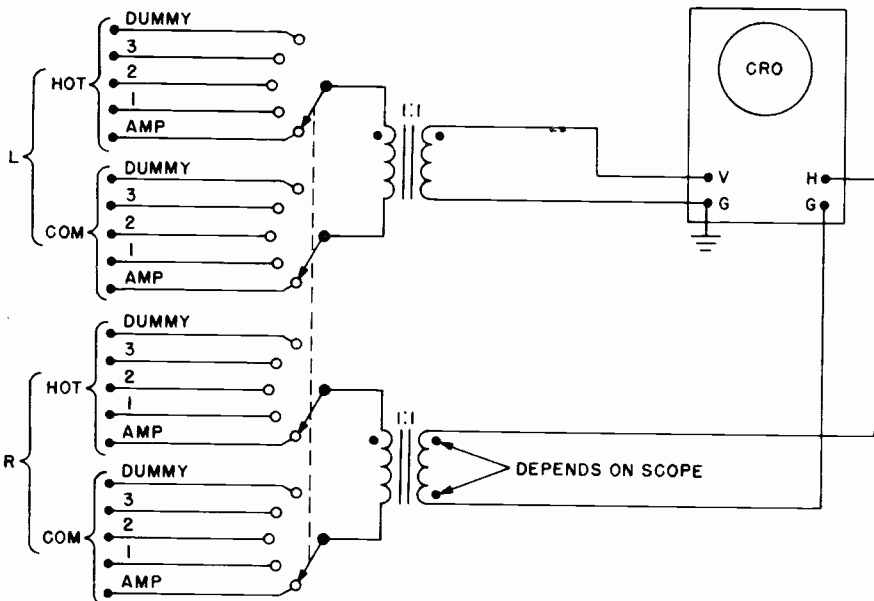


Fig. 4. Oscilloscope switching setup.

oscilloscope vertical and horizontal inputs do have a common ground, you must isolate each of these inputs with a small transformer to prevent damage to the amplifier under test. The transformer you use should have about a unity turns ratio (1:1) and fairly high input and output impedance (about 10k ohms). Of course, they should be fairly high quality transformers so as not to distort the audio signal. If you don't have anything closer in the junk box, a UTC SO-2 interstage coupling transformer would work nicely. These are available at industrial parts suppliers for about \$7 each.

Although most tube type amplifiers have output connections for 4, 8 and 16-ohm speakers, all connections are made to the 8-ohm taps on the test amplifier. This is a compromise to avoid having to change the amplifier impedance taps. Most of the speakers you will be testing will be rated at 8 ohms impedance, so a slight mismatch won't hurt very much.

As far as the speakers themselves are concerned, the main speakers should be fairly high quality units: at least 8-inch speakers, each mounted in a substantial wooden box. You might consider purchasing a pair of complete bookshelf speaker systems. You should expect to spend between \$20 and \$60 per speaker. The extra test speakers can be inexpensive replacement speakers mounted in small boxes. But even here 8-inch speakers are preferred.

Normally, no dc is ever passed through a speaker. This would overheat the voice coil and perhaps burn it out. Unfortunately, sooner or later you will connect a defective amplifier to your test panel only to find that perhaps 30 to 40 volts dc is present at the speaker terminals. This could be disastrous.

But the danger can be avoided by permanently connecting a large-value capacitor in series with each of your test speakers. Since you need nonpolarized capacitors, you can connect two ordinary polarized electrolytics back-to-back as shown in Fig. 3B. If you use capacitors of equal value, the capacitance will be half each individual capacitor; the voltage rating will be equal to the voltage rating of either capacitor alone. (Remember, a reverse-connected electrolytic acts as a virtual short circuit while the other capacitor is charged to the full applied voltage.) You can purchase 5000-mfd, 25-volt capacitors for less than \$3.

The oscilloscope you use on the test bench doesn't have to be a very expensive one. For audio work all you need is 200 kHz frequency response; the vertical and horizontal amplifiers should be more or less the same for best results. The Heathkit Model 10-21 is ideal for this purpose. Most of your testing with this scope will be done with the left stereo channel connected to the vertical input of the scope, and the right channel connected to the horizontal input. Fig. 5 shows the display you can expect from different signals. This type of display is most useful in determining the amount of separation present in a stereo signal, especially for FM stereo alignment work.

Speaking of FM stereo, another important thing which must be available on your test

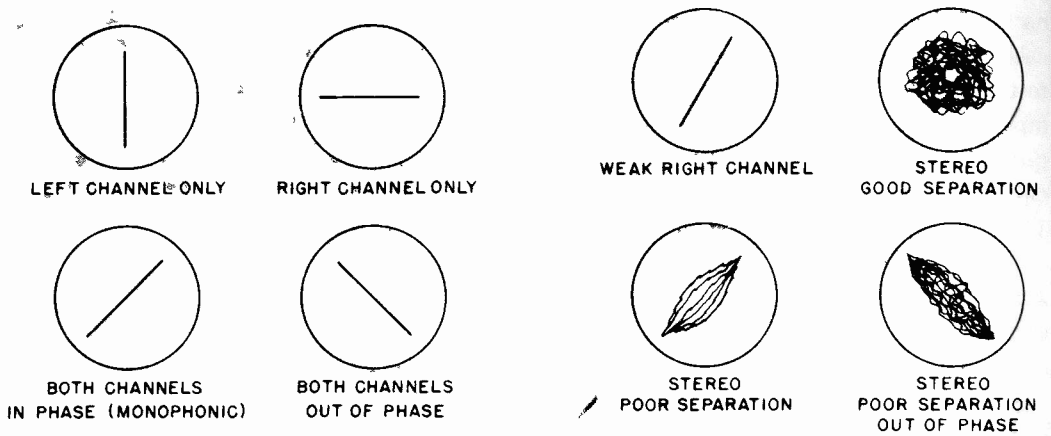


Fig. 5. Typical waveforms.

bench is an FM antenna connection. This can be tied to your television master antenna system or it can be a separate system. In either case, be sure to provide two or three antenna connections on the test bench.

Not all your work will involve amplifiers, preamplifiers, and speakers. Much of your time will be spent servicing turntables, record changers, and tape recorders (including reel-to-reel, 8-track cartridge, and cassette machines). This is almost a separate field in itself, since most of the problems are mechanical. Unfortunately, the average audiophile doesn't realize this. Since you are his hi-fi man, he will turn to you for help when his record player or tape recorder is sick. Don't let this disturb you; there is much profit to be made in servicing such equipment. However, as usual, it's best to read up on the subject so that you will be at least basically familiar with the various problems to be expected. These machines are just briefly discussed in many books on audio, so it's best to read one or two books on these specific types of equipment as well.

HOW DO I GET AUDIO SERVICE CUSTOMERS?

The answer to this question depends upon what size business you are planning. If this will be strictly a part-time operation, you will probably be limited to word-of-mouth and business card advertising. You might also consider placing newspaper classified ads or posting notices on public bulletin boards.

A larger-scale operation would call for more advertising. A listing in the yellow pages of the telephone book usually pays off many times over. The next best type of advertising is probably the local daily newspaper. Since many of your potential customers are FM radio listeners, you might consider advertising on an FM broadcast station.

WHERE DO I GET SERVICE INFORMATION?

If you have been in the radio-TV service business for long, you know that Sams Photofacts provides coverage of most radio and TV receivers. Unfortunately, Sams covers

(continued on Page 24)

Dr. Farnsworth, TV's 'Father', Was A Star NRI Student At 15

*"... The evil that men do lives after them;
The good is oft interred with their bones. . ."*

Not so for Dr. Philo T. Farnsworth, whose invention of the first complete electronic television system made him known to the world as the "Father of Television". Dr. Farnsworth's first patented invention was also a first of its kind for the world, a complete television system, for which he also designed a sort of cathode ray tube to meet his own specifications. In following years, he acquired more than 200 U.S. and foreign patents in the field of electronics, primarily in perfections of his original idea.

That's a legacy of infinite, unburiable good.

But for 90-year old J. E. Smith, NRI's founder, the recent death of Dr. Farnsworth, 64, holds a poignancy and a memory in a different vein: that of the precocious NRI student in 1921 from Beaver, Utah, who even at 15 had a dream of "pictures in the air".

By the time Dr. Farnsworth dropped out of Brigham Young University in Provo, Utah, at the age of 18 (his father's death made it financially impossible), he was an NRI graduate and well on the way to making his dream a reality. The tubes he visualized as part of his camera-tube system didn't exist, so he invented - and built -- those, too. He filed his first application for a patent on the TV system in 1924.

By 1924 Farnsworth had set up a lab in San Francisco for television transmission; in August 1931 an article in the National Radio News cited the "vast importance" of his invention and aid to "enthusiast" engineers by further perfections, such as elimination of the clumsy scanning disc in favor of scanning with "an elaborate form of photo-electric cell." In 1934 Farnsworth was granted the first television broadcast license in the world, followed up in 1935 by the first public transmission, generating his fame beyond engineers to a larger portion of the world.

He then founded the Farnsworth Radio and Television Company, which later became the Cape-Farnsworth Radio and Television Company, which later became the Cape-Farnsworth Electronics Company, part of the ITT system. While its vice-president and director of research in the rapidly burgeoning field, he found time to serve as an unpaid consultant on what was then the NRI advisory board. . .because he believed in the training to help further the careers of other ambitious young men.

Obviously, he too had a long memory.

digital counters

the final article in a series on digital techniques

by louis e. frenzel, jr.

Courtesy Hewlett Packard



In this last article of the series on digital techniques, we are going to cover perhaps the most widely used of all digital circuits, the counter. A counter is a digital circuit made up of flip-flops. The flip-flops are cascaded in such a way that if one changes state, all the others will be affected. The input to the counter is a series of pulses. The counter counts these pulses and then stores in the flip-flops a binary number that represents the number of input pulses received. There is a wide variety of counters and they have numerous applications in digital equipment. Let's discuss some of the most important counters and show some interesting uses.

BINARY COUNTERS

Fig. 1 shows a diagram of a four-stage binary counter. Notice that it is made up of JK flip-flops. The J and K inputs are not used. Instead, the flip-flops are used

in their toggle or complementing mode only. Each time that a flip-flop receives an input pulse, the flip-flop will toggle or change state. Connecting the normal (Q) output of one flip-flop to the toggle (T) input of the next in the series produces a binary counting effect. What this means is that as the input pulses are applied, the binary number stored in the four flip-flops will increase one step at a time for each input pulse. At any given time you can look at the flip-flop outputs A, B, C, and D and observe a binary number that, when converted to decimal notation, indicates the number of pulses that have occurred.

Table I shows the count sequence for the binary counter. This table indicates the condition of each flip-flop in the counter after each input pulse occurs.

Let's assume that the counter is initially cleared or reset to the 0000 state by

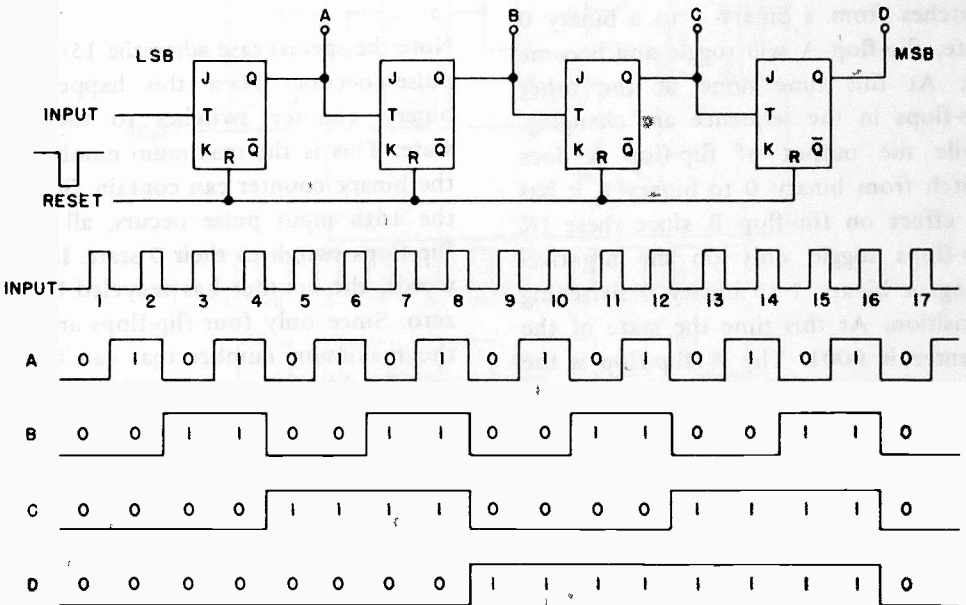


Fig. 1. A 4-bit binary counter and input/output waveforms.

	DCBA
0	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111
8	1000
9	1001
10	1010
11	1011
12	1100
13	1101
14	1110
15	1111

Table I. Count sequence for the 4-bit binary counter.

applying a negative-going pulse to the direct reset inputs on the JK flip-flops. If we now apply an input pulse that switches from a binary 1 to a binary 0 state, flip-flop A will toggle and become set. At this time none of the other flip-flops in the sequence are changing. While the output of flip-flop A does switch from binary 0 to binary 1, it has no effect on flip-flop B since these JK flip-flops toggle only on the negative-going or binary 1 to binary 0 switching transition. At this time the state of the counter is 0001. The A flip-flop is the least significant bit (LSB) position while the D flip-flop is the most significant bit (MSB) position.

When the next input pulse occurs, the A flip-flop again toggles. It switches to the binary 0 state. In doing this, its normal output switches from binary 1 to binary 0; this, in turn, toggles or sets flip-flop B.

The state of the counter is now 0010, corresponding to a decimal 2.

Fig. 1 also shows the waveforms of the input signal and each of the flip-flop outputs. You can see that the flip-flops are toggling on the trailing edge of their input. You can also see the binary number stored in the counter for each state. The binary 1 and binary 0 conditions for each flip-flop are noted in the diagram. Reading these from bottom to top (D through A) you can see how these states correspond to the count sequence shown in Table I. Note that the starting state on the far left is the reset or 0000 condition. When input pulse number one occurs, the state of the A flip-flop changes so that the number is now 0001. The counter retains this state until the trailing edge of the second input pulse occurs. At this time the counter changes to the 0010 state. As you can see, the number of input pulses corresponds to the binary number contained within the counter.

Note the special case when the 15th input pulse occurs. When this happens the binary counter switches to the 1111 state. This is the maximum number that the binary counter can contain. So when the 16th input pulse occurs, all of the flip-flops switch to their 0 state. In other words, the counter has recycled back to zero. Since only four flip-flops are used, the maximum number that can be contained within the counter is 1111 or a decimal 15.

The maximum count capability of a binary counter is determined by the number of flip-flops in the counter. The maximum number that can be stored is determined by the simple formula:

$$2^n - 1$$

In our 4-bit counter, the maximum count capability is 15.

$$2^4 - 1 = (16 - 1) = 15$$

An 8-bit binary counter can count to a maximum of:

$$2^8 - 1 = (256 - 1) = 255$$

Such a counter can be used to count quantities up to and including 255.

BCD COUNTERS

Another widely used type of counter is the BCD or binary coded decimal counter shown in Fig. 2. Like the 4-bit binary counter just discussed, it uses four JK flip-flops. However, it also uses some logic gates and some unusual wiring connections that were not present in the pure

binary counter of Fig. 1. The extra wiring and additional logic circuitry permit this 4-bit counter to count decimally. That is, it can represent in binary code any one of the ten decimal numbers zero through nine. Such counters are used in digital equipment that requires frequent output interpretation. Since we all use the decimal system, we are better off when we can use this type of number system. The BCD system, while still a binary system, permits the output states to be more easily recognized.

The BCD counter in Fig. 2 is similar in operation to the simple 4-bit binary counter in Fig. 1. As you can see by the count sequence in Table II, it corresponds almost directly with that of the count sequence in Table I. Notice, however, that only the states 0 through 9 are used. After the ninth state the counter recycles

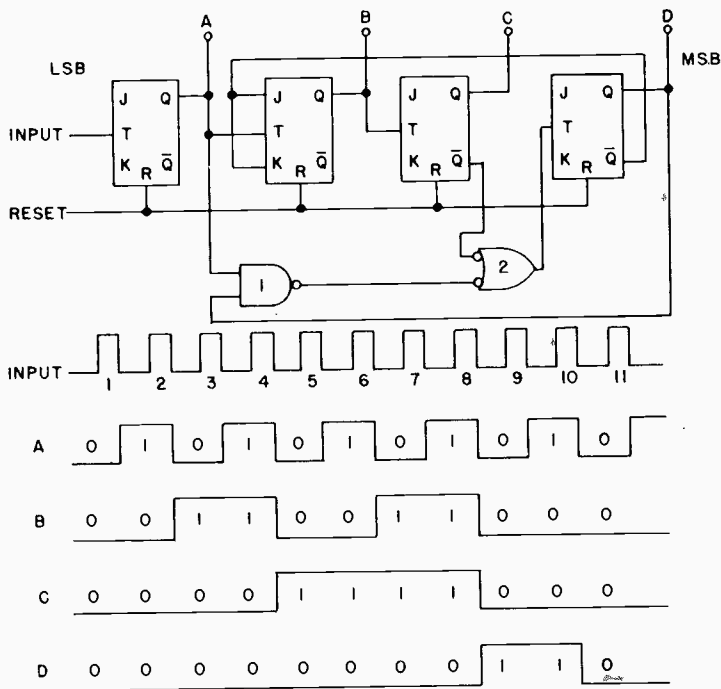


Fig. 2. A BCD counter and its input/output waveforms.

	DCBA
0	0000
1	0001
2	0010
3	0011
4	0100
5	0101
6	0110
7	0111
8	1000
9	1001

Table II. Count sequence for the BCD counter.

back to its zero condition. Otherwise, the ten states of the BCD counter are identical to the first ten states of the binary counter. The extra gate circuitry shown in Fig. 2 is used to force the flip-flops to count only the zero through nine states.

Refer to the input/output waveforms shown in Fig. 2. Note that the flip-flops still toggle on the negative-going transition at their T input. Except for the last stage, the flip-flops are cascaded in much the same way as the binary counter. As the input pulses are applied, the A, B, and C flip-flops toggle as before. When the output of LSB flip-flop A switches from binary 1 to binary 0, the B flip-flop toggles. When the output of the B flip-flop switches from binary 1 to binary 0, the C flip-flop toggles. The \bar{Q} or complement output of the D flip-flop is fed back to the J and K inputs of the B flip-flop. As long as the J and K inputs are at a binary 1 condition, the flip-flop will toggle normally. When the J and K inputs are held to a binary 0 condition, however, the flip-flop will not toggle. During most of the count sequence the complement output of the D flip-flop will be a binary binary 1. This condition permits the B

flip-flop to be toggled by the A flip-flop.

The waveforms in Fig. 2 show that the count sequence for the BCD counter is similar to that of the binary counter up through the 0111 state. Gates 1 and 2 cause the D flip-flop to toggle and the counter to change from the 0111 state to the 1000 state. In the 0111 state, the complement output of the C flip-flop is at a binary 0 condition, holding the output of gate 2 high. When the next input pulse occurs, the A flip-flop toggles from 1 to 0, thereby toggling the B flip-flop which in turn toggles the C flip-flop. The complement output of the C flip-flop switches from a binary 0 to a binary 1 condition. This causes the output of gate 2 to switch from a binary 1 to a binary 0 condition, thereby setting the D flip-flop. The next input pulse (the 9th input pulse) toggles the A flip-flop, producing the correct code 1001. The output of the D flip-flop, now a binary 1, causes gate 1 to be enabled. When the 10th input pulse occurs, the output of the A flip-flop switches from a binary 1 to a binary 0. The output of gate 1 switches from binary 0 to binary 1. The output of gate 2 then switches from binary 1 to binary 0, thereby toggling the D flip-flop and resetting it to zero as the A flip-flop is toggled and reset to zero. Notice that the output signal from the complement side of the D flip-flop is fed back to the J and K inputs to the B flip-flop. With the D flip-flop set, its complement output is a binary 0, thereby holding the J and K inputs to the B flip-flop at a binary 0. This prevents the B flip-flop from toggling when the 10th input pulse occurs and the A flip-flop output switches from a binary 1 to a binary 0. The overall result is that from the 1001 state the counter returns to the 0000 state.

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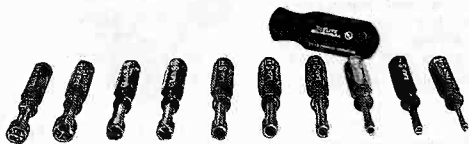
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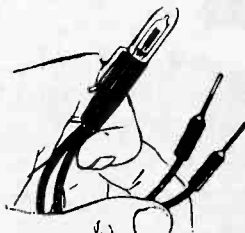
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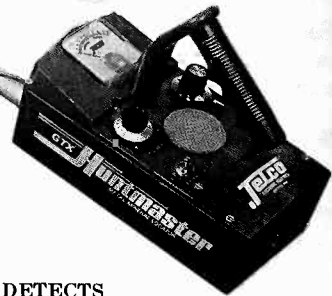


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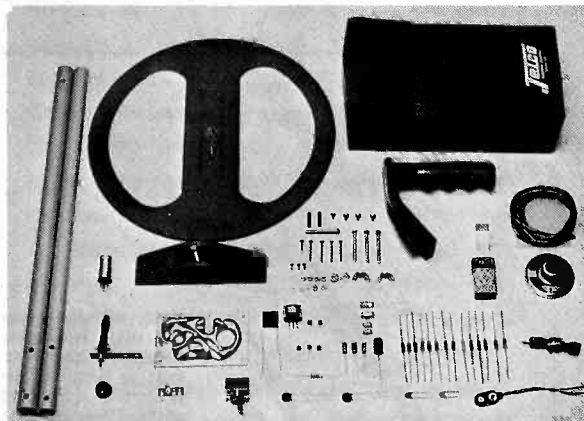
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25.01- 30.00	1.50	4.00			
30.01- 35.00	2.05	4.50			
35.01- 40.00	2.65	4.75			
40.01- 50.00	3.00	5.00			
50.01- 60.00	4.15	5.50			
60.01- 70.00	5.50	6.00	6.40	6.50	4.50
70.01- 80.00	7.00	6.50	8.00	8.00	5.00
80.01- 90.00	8.00	7.75	10.10	10.00	5.00
90.01-100.00	9.00	8.75	12.60	12.60	5.25
100.01-110.00	10.00	9.75	14.80	14.80	5.50
110.01-120.00	11.00	10.75	16.20	16.20	6.00
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200.01-220.00	20.00	18.50	29.80	29.80	11.00
220.01-240.00	22.00	20.00	32.40	32.40	12.00
240.01-260.00	24.00	22.00	35.20	35.20	13.00
260.01-280.00	26.00	24.00	38.20	38.20	14.50
280.01-300.00	30.00	24.50	41.20	41.20	15.50
300.01-320.00	32.00	25.50	44.20	44.20	17.00
320.01-340.00	35.00	27.00	47.80	47.80	18.00
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In the pure binary counter it is only necessary to add additional flip-flops to count to a higher number. When using BCD counters, however, a slightly different technique must be used. Additional flip-flops are added, but not in the same way.

Since each BCD counter counts from zero through nine, these counters can be cascaded to count to any decimal number. Fig. 3 shows an example. Here four BCD counters are cascaded. Just as in the decimal number system, each counter represents one digit. The left-most counter, which represents the least significant digit (LSD), is the units counter. The next one is the tens counter; the next is the hundreds counter; and the right-most is the thousands counter. This last counter is designated the most significant digit (MSD). As you might expect, this 4-digit BCD counter is capable of counting to a maximum of 9999. Fig. 3 shows the output states that exist when the counter stores the number 7928.

The input pulses are applied to the LSD counter. Each time this counter counts ten pulses, its D output changes from binary 1 to binary 0, thereby triggering the tens counter. After every tenth input pulse, the tens counter is toggled. Likewise, after one hundred input pulses, the hundreds counter is toggled. When the tens counter contains the number 1001 (decimal 9) and ten additional input pulses are applied, the tens counter will

toggle and its D output will change from binary 1 to binary 0, thereby stepping the one hundreds counter. Any number of BCD counters can be cascaded to handle any size number.

FREQUENCY DIVISION

Any counter is also a frequency divider. If you refer back to the waveforms for the 4-bit binary counter shown in Fig. 1, you will see that the frequency of the output signal gets lower as it passes through each of the flip-flops in the chain. Each flip-flop produces frequency division by two. For that reason, the frequency of the signal at the output of the flip-flop is always one-half the frequency of its input. For example, in Fig. 1 if the input waveform is a 100 kHz signal, the output of the A flip-flop will be one-half of this or 50 kHz. The output of the B flip-flop will again be one-half of this or 25 kHz. The C flip-flop again divides this by two to produce 12.5 kHz. The output of the D flip-flop will then be 6.25 kHz. Continuing to add flip-flops to this circuit would cause the output frequency to drop even lower by a factor of two for each flip-flop added.

The total amount of frequency division produced by a chain of flip-flops can be determined with the simple relationship 2^n , where n represents the number of flip-flops in the chain. Applying this to our example, we can see that the total frequency division produced is equal to

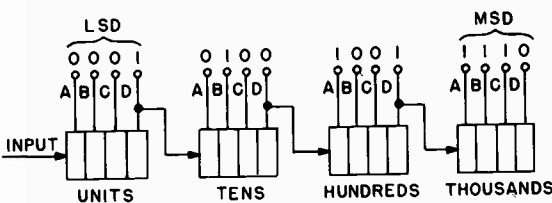


Fig. 3. A 4-stage BCD counter storing the number 7928.

$2^4 = 16$. With an input signal of 100 kHz and a total frequency division of 16, the output of the last flip-flop will be:

$$\frac{100 \text{ kHz}}{16} = 6.25 \text{ kHz}$$

This is the figure we arrived at earlier. The figure 16 simply indicates that the counter can exist in 16 different states (0 through 15). These were listed in binary and decimal form in Table I.

The BCD counter can contain a maximum of ten different states, 0 through 9. For that reason the BCD counter is a divide-by-ten circuit. The BCD counter is often called a decade counter or decade divider. The output frequency of the BCD counter will be one-tenth the frequency of the input. With a 100 kHz input signal, the output will be 10 kHz.

While straight binary and BCD counters handle most frequency division problems, it is sometimes necessary to produce frequency division by another number. For example, you might want to produce

frequency division by 6, 12, or 24. In such cases, special counter/frequency dividers can be constructed. They are similar to the BCD counter circuit in that they consist of JK flip-flops connected in cascade, but they have special logic gate arrangements that force the counters to count in the desired sequence.

COUNTER APPLICATIONS

There are hundreds of applications for counters in digital and electronic equipment. Let's take a look at some of the most commonly used applications for counters.

Fig. 4 shows the diagram of a time interval measuring instrument whose principle element is the BCD counter. The purpose of this device is to measure the time duration of an input pulse occurring at the input. To do this we will use a 4-digit BCD counter to count pulses occurring at a fixed, accurate time interval. BCD counters 1, 2, 3, and 4 will count these accurate pulses. The 100 kHz crystal oscillator and BCD counters 5

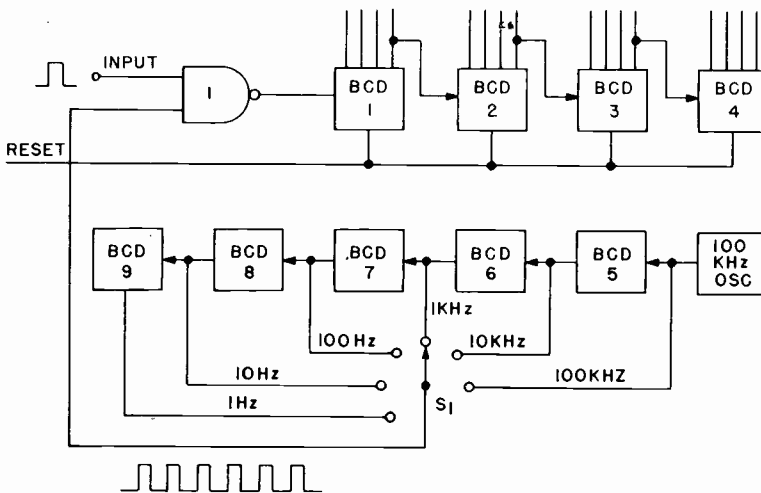


Fig. 4. Time interval measurement.

through 9 are used to generate the accurate time interval pulses. Switch S_1 is used to select which pulse interval is desired. Since the switch is shown in the 1 kHz position, the pulses appearing at the arm of the switch will occur every 1 millisecond.

$$t = 1/f = 1/1 \text{ kHz} = 1/1000 = .001 \text{ second} = 1 \text{ millisecond}$$

Assume that the input pulse is initially setting at a binary 0 level. The counter circuit is first cleared by applying a momentary negative-going pulse to the reset line. When the input pulse starts, it switches from a binary 0 to a binary 1 level, thereby enabling NAND gate 1. This permits the 1 millisecond pulses to pass through gate 1 to the BCD counter. Each time that a pulse occurs, it steps the BCD counter chain. If the input pulse duration is 1.5 seconds, then 1500 pulses will be passed through gate 1 to the BCD counter before the input pulse switches off and inhibits gate 1. The contents of the BCD counter tells you that 1500 pulses, each 1 millisecond in length, have been counted. This means that a total of 1500 milliseconds has elapsed. The duration of the input pulse then is 1500 milliseconds or 1.5 seconds.

Switch S_1 permits you to select the resolution with which the input pulse is measured. For example, if only a rough indication of the input pulse is desired and it is relatively long, then the 1 Hz output can be used. The output from this BCD divider occurs once a second. On the other hand, if greater resolution is required, then the output of the 100 kHz oscillator can be selected to step the counter. This means that each output pulse will occur every ten microseconds. This permits very accurate measurement of the input pulse duration.

Fig. 5 shows a frequency measuring circuit. The principle of operation of this circuit is simply that the BCD counter chain will count input pulses at an unknown signal frequency for a known time period. Knowing the time duration over which a given number of input pulses occur, we can determine the number of input pulses that occur in 1 second; that is, we can determine the frequency of the input signal. BCD counters 1 through 4 count the unknown input frequency. The unknown frequency pulses are passed to this counter through gate 1. Gate 1, however, is controlled by flip-flop FF1 which is, in turn, toggled by a signal whose time duration is known. For this

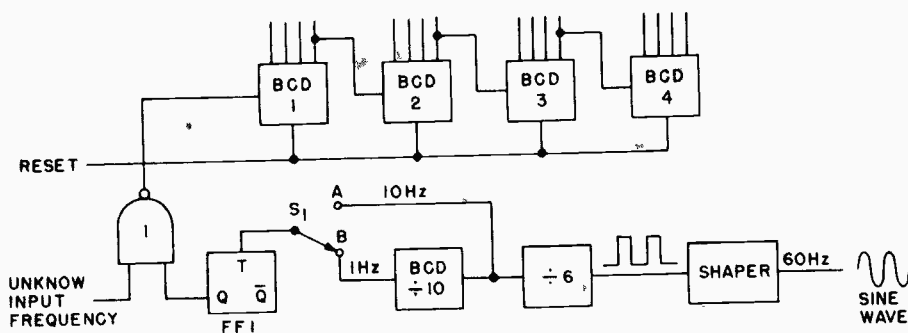


Fig. 5. Frequency measuring circuit.

circuit we take the standard 60 Hz power line sine wave signal and shape it into a square wave. We then divide it by 6 with a three flip-flop frequency divider. This produces an output frequency of 10 Hz.

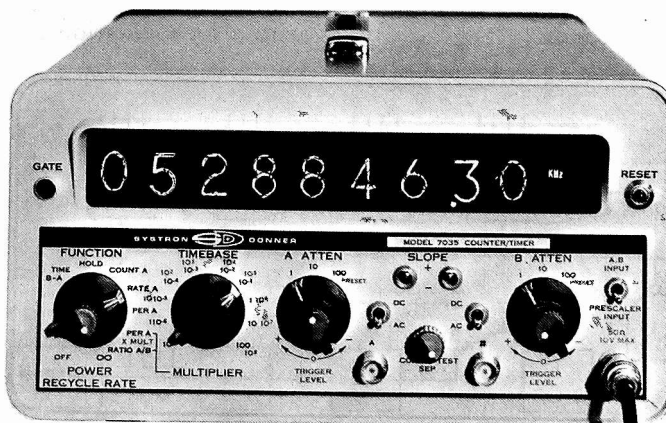
We divide this by 10 to produce a signal of 1 Hz. A BCD decade divider is used for this purpose. Switch S_1 then permits us to select either the 1 Hz or 10 Hz signal to toggle flip-flop FF1. In Fig. 5 the B position of S_1 is selected so that a 1 Hz signal will toggle FF1. It will alternately switch between its set and reset states and be in each state for a 1 second duration. During the set state, its normal output will be high, enabling gate 1. During this 1 second period of time the unknown input frequency pulses will pass through gate 1 to the counter. The output of the counter then tells us how many pulses occur in one second. From this we can determine the frequency of the counter. For example, if a total of 732 pulses occur during a one second interval, then we know that the frequency of the input signal is 732 Hz.

If position A of switch 1 had been selected, then FF1 would toggle every

tenth of a second. The output of FF1 would be set for a period of one-tenth of a second or 100 milliseconds. If 300 pulses occur during this one-tenth of a second period, then we know that the frequency of the input signal must be $300 \times 10 = 3000 \text{ Hz}$ or 3 kHz.

For this frequency measuring circuit we could have used the 100 kHz crystal oscillator and the decade divider chain shown in Fig. 4 to produce the time intervals necessary to toggle FF1 in Fig. 5. The crystal oscillator provides high accuracy in timing. However, for less expensive frequency measuring circuits, the 60 Hz power line signal provides satisfactory accuracy. While crystal oscillators can provide .001% frequency tolerance, the 60 Hz power line is accurate to within .1%. This is accurate enough for many applications, and it eliminates the need for an expensive crystal oscillator.

Both the time interval and frequency measuring instruments shown in Figs. 4 and 5 are available as a single commercial unit like that shown in Fig. 6. The outputs of the BCD counters are decoded and used to drive decimal read-out tubes



Courtesy Systron Donner

Fig. 6. A typical time interval counter.

so that the operator using the instrument can tell at a glance the value of the frequency or the time interval being measured. Such an instrument has many useful applications in the design, troubleshooting, and servicing of electronic equipment.

CONCLUSION

This concludes our series on digital techniques. While we have only hit the high points, the fundamentals of digital techniques have been thoroughly covered. We hope that this series has given you some idea as to the importance of digital techniques in electronic equipment today. Be prepared to see a continued and increased use of digital techniques in all phases of electronics.

As an electronics technician, you are sure to encounter digital techniques sooner or later in your work. We encourage you to study this subject further to ensure your-

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STEREO HI-FI SERVICING (cont. from Page 10)

only fairly popular models (and their definition of popularity is how many pieces of a given model are sold). Since the hi-fi market is nowhere near the size of the color TV market, you won't be able to get a Sams Photofact for every piece of hi-fi equipment. In many cases you will have to write directly to the manufacturer for the information you need.

Today much hi-fi equipment is of Japanese origin. You can get a free list of the names and addresses of importers of Japanese electronic equipment by writing to:

Electronics Division
Japan Light Machinery Information Center
437 Fifth Avenue
New York, NY 10016

Ask for "Importers and Distributors of Japanese Consumer Electronics Products."

IN CONCLUSION

This article is intended merely to make you aware of the many opportunities in audio servicing. Before you actually begin any work of this type, brush up on the electronics you will need by reviewing your NRI lessons. Read at least some of the books and subscribe to at least two of the magazines listed. Remember, the more you know about this fascinating field, the better equipped you will be.

BOOKS

Audio Cyclopedia, Sams 20675, \$29.95
Hi-Fi Stereo Handbook, Sams 20565, \$5.50
Measuring Hi-Fi Amplifiers, Sams 20561, \$3.95
Troubleshooting Audio Equipment, Sams 20525, \$3.95
Know your Square-Wave and Pulse Generators, Sams 20593, \$3.25
101 Ways to Use Your Oscilloscope (2nd edition), Sams 20416, \$3.50
101 Ways to Use Your Square-Wave and Pulse Generators, Sams 20562, \$3.50
Tape Recorder Servicing Guide, Sams 20748, \$3.95
Record Changer Servicing Guide, Sams 20730, \$3.95
1 - 2 - 3 - 4 Servicing Automobile Stereo, Sams 20737, \$3.95

Sams books are available from your local Sams Photofacts dealer or by mail from Howard W. Sams & Co., Inc., 4300 W. 62nd St., Indianapolis, IN 46268.

Radiotron Designer's Handbook, RCA, \$7.00. This book is rather old (published in 1953), but contains several chapters on basic concepts of high-fidelity sound. Highly recommended. Order from: RCA Commercial Engineering, Harrison, NJ 07029.

MAGAZINES

Audio, 134 N. 13th St., Philadelphia, PA 19107, \$5.00 per year (12 issues)
Stereo Review, P.O. Box 1099, Flushing, NY 11352, \$7.00 per year (12 issues)
High Fidelity, 2160 Patterson St., Cincinnati, OH 45214, \$7.00 per year (12 issues)
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FOR APPOINTMENT CONTACT:

Pat F. Cosentini, Service Manager
7100 Old Landover Rd.
Landover, Md. 20785
301-322-3344

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Vienna, Virginia 22180

phone: (703) 938-6577

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Contact Mr. Robinson at:

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1020 N. Van Dyke
Bad Axe, Michigan 48413

phone: (517) 269-6420

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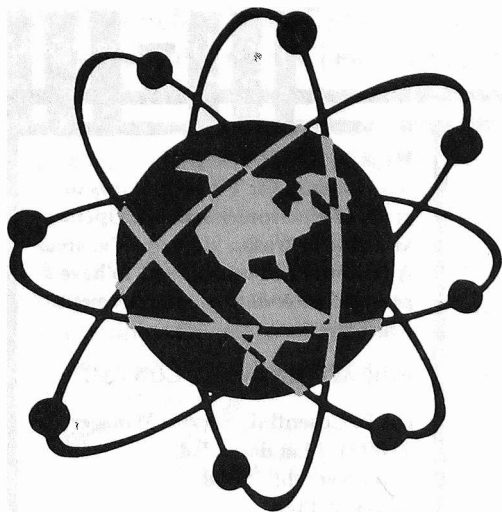
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Radio and TV technicians (and apprentices)
Appliance technicians (and apprentices)

minimum qualifications:

1. NRI graduate or:
2. Present enrollee who has completed 2/3 of the course and maintained at least a B average.



Ham News



BY TED BEACH, K4MKX

Here's a thought. Do you know how many active amateurs there are in the United States alone? A lot. How many of these hams are really technically competent? Surprisingly enough there are a lot of "appliance operators" running loose who learned enough electronics (and code) to satisfy the FCC; then out to the nearest dealer to buy a Sooper KW transceiver, beam, tower and rotator. These people I feel sorry for because they are missing a great deal of what it is to be an amateur.

They light off the rig and sit down to chew the rag for hours on end, but wouldn't know a soldering iron from a pair of diagonal cutters. What a waste. But these are usually very nice people, and, to us who happen to have learned something about electronics, from our NRI courses, they could represent an added source of income.

How? Well, what happens when the

Sooper KW XCVR becomes a Sooper Pooper and fails to light up? Back to the dealer (or factory) for a nice long downtime and a lot of bucks — bucks which could go into **your** pocket if you work it right. Communications equipment is really not difficult to service, and it doesn't take a lot of equipment. If you built or work on your own rig you should be well prepared to tackle anybody's rig. Think about it. All you need to do is let it be known at a club meeting, on the air, on the bulletin board at school, or at the wholesaler that you are capable and available to repair Ham equipment. (Don't try to take on CB or other commercial gear unless you have a First or Second Radiotelephone license.)

Most people with a dead rig would rather have work done on it locally than ship it off to the factory. If they bought the equipment new, in all likelihood they have the owner's manual with its detailed

circuit description, schematic and alignment information. If it's an old rig or a secondhand rig, you may have to write the manufacturer for a manual. Failing this, it is possible that the NRI Diagram Service can be of some help. We have quite a few in our files.

If you really get into this kind of work, it is possible that you might even work some sort of a deal with local dealers and service shops to handle their communications repair work. Surprisingly enough, most radio-TV shops won't even look at a short-wave receiver. To them it is time-consuming, low paying work that keeps them from their higher paying jobs. They would probably welcome subcontracting work out to you.

Now, let's see who in the NRI Course for Amateur Licenses we have heard from:

George	WN1NZW	N	E. Sandwich, MA
Charles	K1UAM	G	Coventry, RI
John	WN3PDM	N	Chambersburg, PA
W. G.	WN4TNY	N	Memphis, TN
Charles	WN4TYJ	N	Newport News, VA
Howard	WN5BLQ	N	Warren, TX
Bill	WN5DCY	N	Long Beach, MS
Gail	WN6GMU	N	Grass Valley, CA
Mark	WN6PCP	N	San Lorenzo, CA
Donald	WN7NEN	N	State Line, NV
Edgar	WN8IQR	N	Cincinnati, OH
Vytas	WN9GJM	N	Chicago, IL
Bruce	*	-	Columbus, OH

* Passed Novice 2/4/71 - waiting!

Not too many this time, but I sure do like to see all those brand new Novice calls up there. Again, all of the calls listed came to us via our grading section so there are very few interesting comments to pass along to you about the people behind the calls and what they are doing.

WN1NZW, however, seems to have the age-old problem of the Code Plateau.

George says he is "frozen" at 5 WPM copying. I can say that, once he's on the air, his speed will probably increase rapidly to 10 or 11 WPM and freeze once more. At that plateau, 12 WPM will seem like 30 WPM! Then the General test will be passed and, if you don't drop cw, there will be another plateau at about 15 or 16 WPM. I know, because that's where I am now. 20 WPM sounds like RTTY to me, but one of these days . . .

K1UAM doesn't seem to have this problem. Charles, the only General listed, reports an astounding 25 WPM capability. Wow!

Although W. G. is listed as WN4TNY, he says that he has passed his General and is just waiting. His Novice call was issued January 8, 1971, and by chance he took his General exam one day earlier, on the 7th. Be patient, W.G., and we'll look forward to listing you as an "upgrade" real soon.

WN5DCY follows what I consider to be the best possible plan for upping the code speed. Bill regularly copies W1AW and can read their "10 WPM +" sessions. Keep with it, Bill.

Edgar, WN8IQR, says he is sure of only one thing — his speed is over 5 WPM since he has his Novice ticket. Guess we can't dispute that.

Here are the other NRI students and graduates we have heard from:

Ronie	WB4HSR	G	Supply, NC
Gerald	WB4PVC	A	Owensboro, KY
Bill	WA5NHI	G	Denton, TX
Paul	W5SOE	-	Fort Hood, TX
Bud	WA7IXG	G	Maple Valley, WA
David	WB8GOY*	G	Mt. Clemens, MI
Jim	WN8IBT	N	Kerens, WV
Ernest	WA8RSY	A	West Logan, WV
Dan	WA8WDX	G	Morocco/Navy
Don	VE3AAW	-	Ottawa, ON

* Just upgraded - congratulations!

WB4HSR looks like the ideal type to take on the work mentioned at the beginning of this column. Ronie is a graduate of our Communications course, a student of our Servicing course, has built a home-brew linear for his TR4 and works in radio-TV repair. What a combination for getting into Ham servicing.

WB4PVC writes the kind of note we like to hear. Gerald just got his Advanced license and says, "Couldn't have done it without training I received from NRI." Thanks, Gerald, that makes it all worthwhile.

WA7IXG reports he has had his ticket for three years and is just now getting around to letting us know. Cryptically, Bud says he is known as the "Double Header on 7.295." Just what that means, I don't know. What gives, Bud?

WB8GOY's General class license arrived in the same mail as the NRI Journal which listed his Novice call. How about that? Anyway, Dave is another of those avid (aren't they all avid?) QRP types and would like very much to contact other NRI people with the idea of forming a QRP club. The emphasis would be on low power, low cost, and development of new QRP circuits and techniques. This sounds real interesting. Anyone interested can write Dave at:

20121 Webster
Mt. Clemens
MI, 48043

You might also see the last Journal for more QRP news.

WA8WDX is presently QRT at his Morocco QTH and says we statesiders should appreciate our operating privileges; there's no reciprocal licensing in Morocco.

Now — here are our first HAM-ADS:

HAM-ADS

SALE — Collins 75A1 \$125, Hallicrafters HT37 \$175 or trade for transceiver. WA5NHI Glenn Brazzel. Rt 4, Box 426, Denton, TX 76201

SALE — Heath AT1 transmitter \$18, 15-watt power. Contact S. Couch, RR1, Ottawa, KS 66067

How about some more, fellas? All it takes is a card or QSL — no charge at all.

That's about it for this time. See you in a couple of months.

VY 73
Ted — K4MKX

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14100 Randall Drive
Woodbridge, Va. 22191**



Alumni News

James Wheeler	President
Robert Bonge	Vice-Pres.
Graham Boyd	Vice-Pres.
Br. Bernard Frey	Vice-Pres.
Thomas Schnader	Vice-Pres.
T.F. Nolan, Jr.	Exec. Sec.

DETROIT Chapter studies solid state

The bad weather for the last couple of meetings has not kept the members away. The Chapter has been having a program on silicon controlled rectifiers, as it is something new and all new circuits should be studied in order to keep up with the field. Mr. Kelly used a pegboard to show the layout of the parts and he marked the locations where the scope should be connected.

One of the members had purchased an SCR motor controller, to be used with one of his appliances. When trouble developed, he brought it to the meeting. Because of the lectures and the pegboard, he was able to immediately troubleshoot the unit and repair it.

The Chapter has very good lectures. Students are always welcome, as they are sure to learn something that will help them with their studies.

FLINT-SAGINAW Chapter sends good will ambassador

Andrew Jobbagy, chairman of the Flint-

Saginaw Chapter, visited San Francisco as a good will ambassador from Michigan.

This was a meeting of two old-timers, Arthur Ragsdale, 82 years young, and Andy Jobbagy, 62 years old. The two grew up with radio and TV. Andy delivered a short talk with good wishes from the North. After the meeting, Mr. Ragsdale showed western hospitality by serving green Hungarian wine. Mr. Jobbagy pointed out a few ways the San Francisco Chapter could obtain speakers for the coming season, and the two old-timers vowed to meet again next year.



Arthur Ragsdale, left, and Andrew Jobbagy, both radio and TV veterans, met in January.

DIRECTORY OF CHAPTERS

CHAMBERSBURG (CUMBERLAND VALLEY) CHAPTER meets 8 p.m. 2nd Tuesday of each month at Bob Erford's Radio-TV Service Shop, Chambersburg, Pa. Chairman: Gerald Strite, RR1, Chambersburg, Pa.

DETROIT CHAPTER meets 8 p.m., 2nd Friday of each month at St. Andrews Hall, 431 E. Congress St., Detroit. Chairman: James Kelley, 1140 Divernois; Detroit, Mich. 841-4972.

FLINT (SAGINAW VALLEY) CHAPTER meets 7:30 p.m., 2nd Wednesday of each month at Chairman Andrew Jobbagy's shop, G-5507 S. Saginaw Rd., Flint, Mich.

LOS ANGELES CHAPTER meets 8 p.m., third Friday of each month at Graham D. Boyd's TV Shop, 1223 N. Vermont Ave., Los Angeles, Calif., 662-3759.

NEW ORLEANS CHAPTER meets 8 p.m., 2nd Tuesday of each month at Galjour's TV, 809 N. Broad St., New Orleans, La. Chairman: Herman Blackford, 5301 Tchoupitoulas St., New Orleans, La.

NEW YORK CITY CHAPTER meets 8:30 p.m. 1st and 3rd Tuesday of each month at 264 E. 10th St., New York City. Chairman: Samuel Antman, 1669 45th St., Brooklyn, N.Y.

NORTH JERSEY CHAPTER meets 8 p.m., last Friday of each month at The Players Club, Washington Square. Chairman: George Stoll, 10 Jefferson Avenue, Kearney, N.J.

PHILADELPHIA-CAMDEN CHAPTER meets 8 p.m., 4th Monday of each month at K of C Hall, Tulip and Tyson Sts., Philadelphia. Chairman: John Pirrung, 2923 Longshore, Philadelphia, Pa.

PITTSBURGH CHAPTER meets 8 p.m., 1st Thursday of each month in the basement of the U.P. Church of Verona, Pa., corner of South Ave. & 2nd St. Chairman: Tom Schnader, RFD 3, Irwin, Pa.

SAN ANTONIO (ALAMO) CHAPTER meets 7 p.m., 4th Friday of each month at Alamo Heights Christian Church Scout House, 350 Primrose St., 6500 block of N. New Braunfels St. (3 blocks north of Austin Hwy.), San Antonio. Chairman: Joe R. Garcia, 8026 Cinch, San Antonio, Tex., 694-3461.

SAN FRANCISCO CHAPTER meets 8 p.m., 2nd Wednesday of each month at the home of J. Arthur Ragsdale, 1526 27th Ave., San Francisco. Chairman: Isaiah Randolph, 60 Santa Fe Ave., San Francisco, Calif.

SOUTHEASTERN MASSACHUSETTS CHAPTER meets 8 p.m., last Wednesday of each month at the home of Chairman John Alves, 57 Allen Boulevard, Swansea, Massachusetts.

SPRINGFIELD (MASS.) CHAPTER meets 7 p.m., 2nd Saturday of each month at the shop of Norman Charest, 74 Redfern Dr., Springfield; and 4th Saturday at the shop of Chairman Al Dorman, 6 Forest Lane, Simsbury, Conn.

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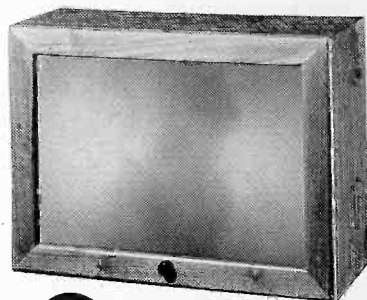
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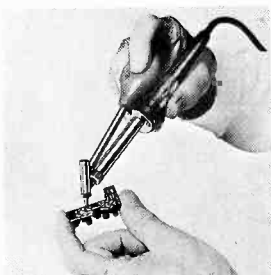
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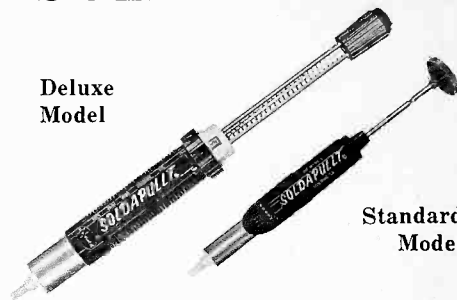
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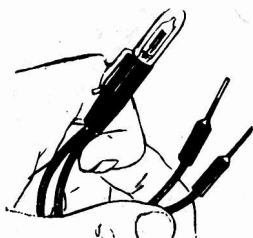
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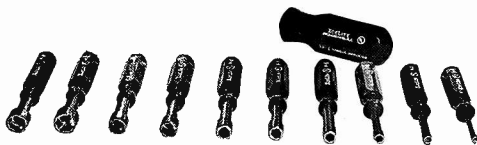
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