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Everyday Electronics, April 1972



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 wide x 1" deep. 4 change over silver/gold contacts. Contact

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 28 ohm for 1v-2-8v
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 758 each. 10 for 58*76. Also one with 16,500 ohm coll but this has only 2 heavy

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Uses 4 transistors, and has an output of 750mW into ohms speakers. Input suitable for crystal mic. or pick-op. 9 volt battery operated. Size 2° long × 1;* wide × 1° high. SPECIAL SNIP PRICE 00p each. 10 for 85.

297













PREMIER STEREO SYSTEM "ONE" Consists of the new Premier 800 all transistor stereo amplifier, Garrard 2025 T/C auto manual record player unit fitted stereo mono ceramic cartridge with diamond stylus and mounted in teak finish plut by the perspec cover and two matching teak finish loudspeaker systems. Absolutely complete and supplied ready to plug in and play. 800 amplifier has an output of 5 waits per channel with inputs for ceramic and magnetic players and tuner also tape output socket and headphone socket. Controls: Base, Treble, Volume, Baiaros, Selector, Power on/off. Mono/Stereo switch. Stereo Headphone socket. Black leatherette cabinet with aluminium front panel. Size: 12⁴ × 6⁴ × 2⁴. (Amplifier available separately if required **216**:25. Carr. 40p).

PREMIER STEREO SYSTEM "TWO", as above but with Garrard SP25 MK III and magnetic cartridge. ONLY 248. Carr. 21-75.

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Garrard 2025 T/C with Stereo Ceramic Cartridge

ready wired in teak plinth

with cover



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PREMIER 800 STEREO AMPLIFIER



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everyday electronics

PROJECTS THEORY.....

SELF SERVICE

The enthusiast who has more than a passing or casual interest in electronics will require a few items of test and measuring equipment. These will aid him when building projects, carrying out experiments, and fault finding. Such requirements are not lavish, and can be limited to about four or five items. Furthermore these can be reasonably simple in design, and can be built by the constructor himself, with real saving to his pocket.

EVERYDAY ELECTRONICS will be publishing designs for such items of equipment, from time to time. And this month we make a start by including full details of a mains operated power supply unit.

ON TAP

As we have already declared, many useful electronic devices and gadgets can be battery operated and if proof of this is required, look over the projects we have published to date.

Dry batteries have obvious advantages, but if a fair amount of practical work is intended, it will be found very convenient to have permanently on hand a d.c. supply that can be easily varied to give any output between zero and 16 volts. In other words, a "stand-in" for any of the commonly used batteries. So we recommend this power unit as an important acquisition for every constructor's workshop.

PLUNGE IN

We hope some of the enthusiasm shown by our Memory Store writers has been infectious and that many others have, as a result, been encouraged to take the plunge for the first time.

The wife of one reminiscing scribe has indeed taken the plunge-with pen, not soldering iron though-and her cautionary tale is published for the benefit of other wives!

WOMEN'S LIB

But in this enlightened age-equality of the sexes and all that-why should we assume electronics to be an exclusively male hobby?

In industry, the fair sex plays a prominent, part in the manufacture of minute devices like transistors and other components; also in the wiring up and assembly of complete electronic equipments. Feminine touch and dexterity (and patience!) are assets in such operations.

There seems no logical reason why these attributes should not be channelled into a recreational activity as well. So perhaps the wife could be recruited as an assistant-or does the thought provoke cries of horror from hubby!

Seriously, there must be quite a number of women who are interested in electronics and who actively participate in this hobby of their own accord. We would like to hear from you, ladies.



Our May issue will be published on Friday, April 21

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... EASY TO CONSTRUCTSIMPLY EXPLAINED

VOL. I NO. 6

APRIL 1972

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The Everyday Electronics Constructors Companion booklet we are giving away next month is aimed at all constructors and will, we are sure, be of value to all our readers. This booklet can only be obtained by buying next month's issue so make sure you do not miss out. For more details on the Constructors Companion and next month's issue see page 325

Colculation is very simple to make and be undertaken without too much worry by altering by altering by altering by altering by altering by the understand and, although it seems elementary, it is the same principle as used in complex modern analogue computers. The instrument enables one to carry out multiplication with a fair degree of accuracy-regrettably the answers cannot be more accurate than one can read a dial, so do not embark on the project if you want something that is going to be as good as, or better than, your slide rule. The best way of viewing it is as an interesting instructional aid.

An interesting

build instructional

MIKE HUGHES

There is very little wiring in the unit and most work will be found to be in the preparation of the knob dials-these control the ultimate accuracy. Before explaining the constructional details let us see how it works.

simple

aid.

to

302

Approximate

cost of components.

£ 1.20 plus case

W. 1961

119Fr

Components

Resistor

R1 1.2k12 ±10%, ±W carbon

Variable Resistors

VR1 300Ω VR2 5kΩ VR3 5kΩ

All linear wirewound



Diodes

D1-4 OA81 or equivalent germanium diode D5 IN4148 or equivalent silicon diode

Miscellaneous

- ME1 100//A to 1mA edgwise level meter (see text)
- S1 single pole single throw toggle switch B1 9V Battery. PP3 type
- Small Terry clip to hold battery, battery connector, pointer knobs, materials for case, connecting wire.

CIRCUIT THEORY

The complete circuit diagram is shown in Fig. 1. Potentiometers VR1, 2 and 3 are all working in their true mode—as potential dividers. Let us assume that we will be running off a 10 volt supply line (in actual fact it does not matter what this voltage is in the final unit). The potential at the wiper of VR1 can be set between zero and 10 volts the value being in direct proportion to the degree of rotation of the wiper. By calibrating the knob of this potentiometer with numbers from 0 to 10 we were able to accurately set a voltage to represent the number in question (we call this voltage the "analogue" of the number).

Potentiometer VR2 takes the potential at the wiper of VR1 and in turn we can tap off any proportion of this potential depending on how far we turn the control of VR2. If we connected a voltmeter between the wiper of VR2 and the common rail (Fig. 2) we could read the voltage



Fig. 2. Theoretical circuit to show the basic operation of the Simple Calculator.

that was left. Let us also calibrate the scale of VR2 with numbers 0 to $1 \cdot 0$ in $0 \cdot 1$ divisions. Set VR1 to five (the potential at its wiper would be 5 volts). Now set VR2 to $0 \cdot 5$ (i.e. half way)—the potential read on the meter would be $2 \cdot 5$ volts. The circuit is actually multiplying 5 by $0 \cdot 5$ to give an answer $2 \cdot 5$ but of course the answer is shown as an analogue voltage. You could work out a similar state of affairs by setting the number 8 on VR1 with $0 \cdot 4$ on VR2; the answer would be shown as $3 \cdot 2V$.

FINAL DESIGN

Obviously for the system to be accurate the battery voltage must be stable and also at sight it would appear that the supply e ought to be 10V. The latter point is not sarily true because we could make a volti. which was arbitrarily calibrated in "numbe as opposed to real voltage levels. In practic however we need not worry about the battery voltage at all if we use a potentiometer (VR3 Fig. 1) to convert from the analogue voltage back to a number. This is done by having VR3 as a potential divider across the supply voltage. It is possible to set the wiper so that the potential produced by it exactly equals the potential at the wiper of VR2 and the answer is read off on the dial of VR3.



Fig. 1. Complete circuit diagram of the Simple Calculator.

We detect that the potentials at the two wipers are the same by detecting current flow. When there is no potential difference (i.e. potentials at X and Y are the same) no current will flow through the meter and diode circuitry. If that at VR2 is more positive then current will flow through D1, into the positive terminal of the meter and out through D2 (R1 is only there to protect the diodes from excessive current and D5 protects the meter movement). On the other hand if the wiper of VR3 was the more positive, current would flow the other way through D3 again into the positive terminal of the meter but out through D4.

Note that the meter will always read a positive current irrespective of the direction of current flow by virtue of the diode bridge. To find the answer to a multiplication all we have to do is adjust VR3 until the meter shows zero current flow and then read the proportion of rotation of VR3 off its dial.

OPERATION

As with a slide rule you can use the instrument to multiply any magnitude of numbers but you must decide for yourself where the decimal place will occur in the answer. In practice you should always attempt to set the number whose first digit is closest to 10 on VR1, otherwise you might find that the potential of the answer may be less than one unit of calibration and hence difficult to read on the dial.

Because of the independence of the meter to direction of current flow the polarity of the supply is unimportant and because everything is measured in terms of degree of shaft rotation of potentiometers and VR3 is run off exactly the same voltage as VR1 the actual value of the supply is unimportant. In practice it ought to be at least 4.5 volts to ensure sufficient current through the meter to enable one to identify an obvious zero, hence 9 volts will do. The prototype used a small PP3 type battery. Current drain is very small and if an on/off switch is provided the life of the battery ought not to be much less than its shelf life.

CONSTRUCTION

The potentiometers should be wirewound types and **must be linear law**. Note that VR1 has a value of resistance very much less than VR2 or VR3 although the actual values do not have to be the same as the prototype you should keep this ratio of values about the same or greater i.e., VR1 can be anything in the range 100 to 300 ohms while VR2 and VR3 can be 2 kilohms to 5 kilohms.

Diodes D1, 2, 3 and 4 must be germanium types to avoid a wide "dead band" on the meter and D5 must be a silicon type because it must not pass forward current until 500mV is placed across it. Most edgewise level meters may be used for the meter; the sensitivity should be between 100μ A and 1mA; actual sensitivity controls the ease of detecting small variations from zero current. Resistor R1 can be in the range 500 ohm to 1.5 kilohm.

The layout and wiring of the unit is shown in Fig. 3. All wiring is self supporting and layout is not important; the only important things to watch for are the polarities of the diodes and the meter, and to which ends of the potentiometers wires are connected—this is vital otherwise calibration will be reversed! As previously stated the battery polarity is not important in this circuit.

SCALE MARKING

Different types of potentiometer have different overall degrees of rotation and this must be determined for the types you have. Remember that there may be a dead portion of a few degrees at either end of the track. Use an ohm meter to determine the active degree of rotation you have and measure this using a pointer knob moving over a protractor. Once you have found this value (it should be between 260 degrees and 300 degrees, depending on the type of manufacture) divide it by 10 and then use a protractor to exactly mark off ten equal divisions round each potentiometer fixing (Fig. 4). These can be drawn in as radial lines over which a large pointer knob can move.

It cannot be over emphasised that this is the most critical part of the job if the instrument is to be at all accurate. Further subdivisions can be placed inbetween the major divisions if required.

The prototype used a piece of 14 gauge aluminium for the front panel (Fig. 5). Careful scrubbing with dry wire wool in a horizontal direction will produce a satin finish which can be



Fig. 4. Potentiometer control marking. This should be carried out as accurately as possible.

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Fig. 3. Layout and wiring of the Simple Calculator. Battery BI is mounted in a Terry clip fixed to the front panel.



Fig. 5. Front panel drilling details and case dimensions.





View of the completed Simple Calculator showing the designations affixed to the front panel using Letraset.

immediately lacquered with aerosol polyurethane varnish. This provides a good finished surface which can be marked using Letraset. The surface can then be given a final coat of varnish to protect the lettering. A practical tip to ensure reasonable accuracy is to adjust the zero set of the meter (in simple level meters this may be inside the case) so that the needle is some way up the scale in its neutral position; this makes it easier to determine a zero current position.

A simple wooden case can be made to house the completed unit as shown in Fig. 5. The hole for the meter may differ according to the type of meter used.

APPLICATION

The knobs of the prototype were labelled A, B and C as shown in Fig. 5. This way it is easy to give instructions on how to use the calculator. Set the two numbers to be multiplied together on A and B and then turn C until minimum current is seen to flow through the meter; the answer can be read off dial C.

Reciprocals can be found by setting C at 1, next set the number whose reciprocal is required on B and turn A for zero current—the answer is shown on dial A. An extension of this enables one to carry out divisions where the answer must always be a decimal fraction less than unity. For example 2 divided by 3. Set 2 on C and 3 on B and turn A for zero current. The number displayed on A will be approximately $6 \cdot 6$ this means that the answer is $0 \cdot 66$.

If you wish you may subdivide the main divisions of the scale into ten finer units thus enabling better accuracy with two digit numbers. Obviously the larger the diameter of the scales the easier it is to work accurately, but there is a limit to the ultimate accuracy of the calculator. This is due to the linearity of the potentiometers and the ability of the meter to detect very small current near zero—the latter could be improved by using a more expensive 50µA meter.

Gamage Ltd., Holborn



Time to Stare

So restrictions on TV broadcasting hours are to be removed. I'm all for freedom and removal of restrictions but I am very suspicious of this move. There is, already, much more than enough TV for me, I don't want to pay for any more, and if programme time is increased someone has to pay. We all know who foots the bill, like it or not, in the end. As I see it, commercial television companies will sieze the opportunity to sell more advertising time and will need to make programmes to fill in the slots between the advertisements. Inevitably, many of these new programmes must be in the "popular appeal" i.e. lowest common denominator class in order to capture the largest audience for the advertisements. So we are

unlikely to see anything different on our screens—just the mixture as before—but more of it.

The B.B.C. will want to compete with the commercial companies for the mass audience and must, therefore, increase its output of "popular" programmes; consequently, there will be a call for an increase in the licence fee. The cost of additional advertising on I.T.V. will be passed on to the consumer, by way of higher prices, resulting in a further increase in the cost of living. What will the viewer get out of it, more mush for morons?

Unnatural Breaks

The other evening I felt in need of some relaxation and I tuned in to I.T.V. to watch *Appointment with Fear*. The Hammer Films spine-chiller looked quite promising but didn't stand a chance; three breaks for advertisements made sure that any feelings of terror that might have been aroused were quickly dispelled. Rhapsodies about beans, margarine and pet food are unlikely to chill the marrow—at least, not in their currently presented form, and but for the advertisements I could have been in bed ten minutes earlier.

I can switch off, I can choose my programmes but I cannot choose the advertisements that will interrupt my viewing and, perhaps, spoil my carefully selected entertainment. The B.B.C. has recently stepped up the advertising of its own programmes. The programmes have not been interrupted, as yet, for the advertisements but I find them irritating, nevertheless.

What does it all add up to? In my opinion, the entertainment value of television viewing is declining. I may be getting old and crotchety and a bit neurotic, but I look back with nostalgia to the days when full length plays and documentary films were regular features of evening viewing. We complained, from time to time when old films were shown too frequently, but those were surely the great days of television. Somewhere along the way, standards have slipped; it seems such a shame-electronics deserves better than this.

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A NUMBER of readers have written to us asking for advice when buying a test meter. Firstly let us say that we will be publishing a design for such a meter at some time—it will be a simple device, easy to construct and providing ranges that would be used most for testing our designs. For those who still want to buy a meter the following advice may be of some assistance.

Firstly most meters are only as good as the price tag, by this we mean that it is probably best to buy the best you can afford. A good meter properly used and carefully treated will last a lifetime and if you buy a good one to start with you will never regret it. How do you know the good ones from the bad? The ranges available and the ohms per volt are the best way to tell (20,000 ohms per volt or more is good).

You can ignore the dB range and the capacitance range, unless you really know what you are doing these are useless so do not buy a meter just because it has these two extra ranges. We would not advise anyone to buy a meter costing less than about £3—you could probably make one as good for less.

If you can find a 20,000 ohms per volt (on d.c. ranges) meter with the following ranges it will satisfy most requirements for transistorised equipment testing and servicing:

D.C. Volts 0-500 volts in about

4 ranges A.C. Volts 0-500 volts in about 3 ranges

D.C. Current 0-500mA in about 3 ranges

Resistance 0-5M Ω in 2 or 3 ranges

You may find it difficult to obtain a 500mA d.c. range on the less expensive meters, you could settle for a maximum of 250 mA.

The Normatest 2000 multi-range test meter.



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If you want something really professional for £17.50 the Normatest 2000 multi-range test meter, that has recently been announced in this country, has 41 ranges, is 20,000 ohms per volt d.c. and 4,000 ohms per volt a.c. It covers the range 0-6A d.c., 0-600V d.c., 0-6A a.c., 0-600V a.c., 0-5M Ω in 6 ranges and has a maximum error of ± 2.5 per cent for the d.c. ranges. The meter can also be used to measure temperature (with the addition of a separate thermocouple) and gain -20 to +46dB. The price includes a carrying case and test leads.

We hope this information will be of some assistance, now let's look at possible problems arising from this issue.

Simple Calculator

You can hardly go wrong with the Simple Calculator construction, it will even work with the battery reversed! One point to watch is that you use germanium diodes for the bridge and a silicon diode for meter protection. The reasons for this are stated in the text. Almost any small meter will do and there are a number of ImA range ones available from many suppliers.

Incidentally a centre zero meter could have been used without the bridge but this could have added to the cost. Also the article explains the bridge principle so you can learn something from it, we try to be educational as well as practical!

The wirewound potentiometers can be any rating—you will see

from the photo's that one used in the prototype was much larger than the other two—this does not matter. Incidentally you will find it difficult to buy log wirewound pots as they are not available, so the ones you do buy may not be marked linear, if you see what we mean.

The knobs used on the prototype are home made and are not available, however there are plenty of fairly large pointer knobs that are available.

Baby Alarm

The Newmarket PC2 amplifier module for the *Baby Alarm* is available from Home Radio and LST Components Ltd., incidentally L.S.T. are the distributors; prices may vary slightly its best to check first. Other than the module there should be very few buying problems.

As stated in the text the case used for the microphone does not have to be as large as it is and any small crystal microphone could be used. There are some available from suppliers for 60p or less—both the miniature types and the plastic encased types; this is probably cheaper than buying an insert and a case. If you do buy a complete microphone you will need a line socket to connect the microphone lead to the screened lead that feeds the amplifier.

Power Supply

The transformer used in the Power Supply Unit should be of reasonable size to fit the case design and a suitable 13.5Vsecondary type is available from Henry's Radio Ltd. The meter used in the prototype is a lmA meter that has been calibrated 0.20V by the author. This meter can be replaced by a 20V f.s.d. meter that is available from G. W. Smith Ltd. Three things to note if you use the 20V meter; it costs the same as the 1mA meter, the two multiplier resistors R4 and R5 (10k Ω each) are replaced by a wire link and, the only point against, the meter is not so versatile if you want to use it in any other equipment at a later date.

Almost any 50 p.i.v. (or greater) bridge rectifier that can pass about 200mA will be suitable for the power supply or, as stated in the text it can be replaced by four individual rectifiers wired up in a bridge; this may be cheaper.

orks: The Jape Recorder

By John Howcroft

O NE of the most important developments in modern communications is the magnetic tape recorder. Now capable of recording, preserving and reproducing high fidelity sound. Besides being a valuable instrument in many scientific projects and daily communication media, tape recorders have become part of the everyday domestic sound system. Modern developments, such as cassettes and more compact battery powered recorders have made taped material very simple to handle, use and store.

HISTORY

The 'magnetic sound recorder," as it was originally known was first expounded in theory by Oberlin Smith in 1888. Smith devised a machine which would apply metallic dust to a cotton cord on which sound could then be recorded by a magnetic induction process. The machine did not, however see the light of day.

It was not until 1898 that the first practical magnetic recorder was built, it used a steel wire as the recording media. This "wire" recorder was produced by a Dane named Valdema Poulson. The recorder used a mechanical/ electrical means of recording@and reproducing sound since, at that time, no electronic means were available; the valve had not been invented.

Sound was recorded abrough a carbon micro-

phone connected into an electric circuit powered by a large dry battery. To replay the recorded sound a set of headphones was substituted for the carbon microphone.

Little more was heard about tape or magnetic recorders until the 1930s when Dr. Karl Stille developed an electronic magnetic recorder. Dr. Stille used steel tape in his machine and similar machines were developed and used for a number of years by the British Broadcasting Corporation.

During the second World War the Allies made use of steel wire recorders while the Germans developed a plast c-based, metallic oxide coated tape; this was the forerunner of today's magnetic tapes. The steel wire medium is now virtually extirct, but was used until quite recently in dictating machines.

MAGNETIC TAPES

The modern recording tape consists of a special plastic base normally acetate or polyester with a coating of ferrous oxide or similar metallic oxide. The particles of metallic oxide can be induced by a magnetic field so that they possess a similar magnetic field. The magnetic impression in these particles can represent a certain sound and, until the tape is disturbed by additional magnetic forces the recorded magnetic impression will remain on the tape.

To apply the necessary force to magnetise the



Fig. 1. The basic method of creating a magnetic field on a recording tape.

oxide particles on the tape so that these represent a piece of music or speech we apply the theory of electromagnetism. Magnetism can be created by passing an electric current through a coil of wire, preferably wound around a soft iron core. In the case of a recording head for a tape recorder this core usually consists of a number of soft iron laminates. The amount of magnetism can be varied by the amount of current flowing through the coil. To change the sound waves into an electric current a microphone and an amplifier are used. Sound waves acting upon a microphone mechanism produce a very small electric current. The amplifier magnifies the current produced by the microphone and, in turn, passes it on to the recording head of the tape recorder. The recording head transforms the electric current into a magnetic force. As the sound source varies in frequency and volume so also does the current and the strength and frequency of the magnetic signal at the recording head, and hence on the tape (Fig. 1).

RECORDING HEAD

The metal core of the recording head forms almost a complete circle, with the exception of a very small gap at the point where the tape will pass by it. The space created by the gap is closed by the ferrous oxide coating on the tape resting against the recording head, making a complete 360 degree magnetic field.

Thus the particles on the tape will acquire a magnetic impression or field similar to the signal being created by the current flowing through the coil. As the current varies, so does the magnetic field and, in turn, so does the magnetic impression on the ferrous oxide particles on the tape. During a recording the tape is passing the recording head at a constant speed. The impression of the magnetic particles on the tape is, therefore, a constant process.

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BIAS

Unfortunately although the above description is true, in transforming sound waves into magnetic patterns on a tape, a problem which is fundamental to magnetic recording was encountered. This problem had to be solved before magnetic recording could be considered really satisfactory.

It was found that, when a magnetising force is applied to ferrous material the degree of magnetisation produced and retained is not proportional to the applied magnetising force. Beginning from zero, the amount of magnetisation first tends to rise very slowly, then rises more rapidly, then tapers off again as the ferrous material becomes magnetically saturated.

This occurs for magnetisation in either direction, so that the overall curve of induced magnetic flux plotted against magnetising force is as shown in Fig. 2 (curve (a)). The diagram also illustrates what happens to a sine wave signal which is passed through such a recording system.

For clarity, the input is shown as a pure sine wave (curve (b)). When transformed into a magnetic pattern, then recovered for subsequent amplification, the kink in the centre of the magnetisation curve is found to have produced a kink in the signal waveform (curve (c)). The end result is very severe distortion in the reproduced sound.

To overcome this effect, it is necessary to apply a magnetic "bias" to the tape so that the signal does not, as it were, centre on the kinked part of the magnetism curve.

The earliest system of magnetic bias involves placing a magnet near the recording gap, or passing a direct current through the recording head, together with the signal to be recorded, which causes the signal to centre on one of the straight portions of the curve.







Fig. 3. High frequency bias recording system.

While a relatively simple method "d.c." or "permanent magnet" bias (as this system is called) tends to produce a recording with undue background noise. This is due largely to the fact that each discrete particle on the tape is magnetised in the same direction, so that the tiny pulses they produced are all additive and are heard as noise on playback.

HIGH FREQUENCY BIAS

Nowadays, all but the most elementary recorder's use a system of high frequency bias. A special oscillator in the recorder produces a high frequency signal well above the limit of hearing. During recording, this high frequency bias signal is fed into the recording head, along with the input signal.

Because the bias signal is at a very much higher frequency than the sound signal, the head is responding to a powerful magnetising force, even during instants when the sound signal waveform is passing through zero. This modifies fundamentally the way in which the particles on the tape respond to the sound signal.

In fact, as far as the recording head is concerned, the input signal is a composite waveform as illustrated in Fig. 3. As the tape passes across the gap in the record head, each particle is subject to one or more complete cycles of high frequency energy and is displaced bodily somewhere along its magnetising curve by the simultaneous presence of the audio waveform.

What each particle retains in the way of remanent flux would take far more space to explain than is available here. The end result, when the tape is played back, is an output waveform which is substantially free from non linear distortion, as in Fig. 3.

Because the particles are not all uniformly

magnetised in one direction as with d.c. bias, they do not tend to generate additive noise pulses as they pass across the replay head. The background noise with high frequency bias is therefore much lower than with d.c. bias.

ERASE SYSTEM

In most tape recorders, the high frequency oscillator incorporated to provide the bias is actually made to serve double duty. In a normal tape recorder the threading is arranged so that the tape passes over an "erase" head just before it reaches the record/play head. During replay the erase head is not in use. When a recording is being made, however, a strong signal from the high frequency oscillator is fed into the erase head, creating an intense high frequency magnetic field across the gap in its exposed surface.

The amplitude of this erase signal is made such that it magnetically saturates the particles on the tape in both directions as they pass across the erase gap. As they move out of the gap the magnetic cycling diminishes to zero and the particles are left with zero magnetisation. In other words erasure eliminates any previous recording so that the tape passes to the record head magnetically "clean".

REPLAY

To reproduce sound from a recorded tape is basically a reversal of the procedure and techniques used in recording it without the need for the bias. Where a current flowing through a coil can create a magnetic field, so too can a magnetic field passed through a coil create a current.

The tape is played back by passing it across the playback head in the same direction and at the same speed as when the recording process took place. (It might be noted that many tape recorders use a single head for both recording and playback functions.)

As the tape passes the gap in the playback head the magnetic impression carried by the ferrous oxide particles is induced into the play-

A modern stereo tape recorder.



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Fig. 4. Block diagrams of two basic tape recorder systems. Left—the system using separate record and replay heads. Right—the system using a single record/replay head.

back head. This magnetic field creates a current within the head and this current is fed into an amplifier and then to a loudspeaker.

The amplifier normally has a special frequency response to compensate for any changes in amplitude of the audio signal due to the record and replay process. Just as one head can be used for record and playback function. Block diagrams of two basic systems are shown in Fig. 4.

TAPE TRANSPORT

The transport mechanism used in a tape recorder is an interesting and essential device. It moves the tape across the recording, playback and erase heads.

On very cheap machines tape movement is achieved merely by motorising the take-up spool, simple though this method may be, it is not very effective. The actual speed of the tape across the heads will vary according to the amount of the tape on the take-up reel. For this reason any tape recorded on a machine of this nature must be played back on the same machine. On another machine the sound would be distorted because of variation in the original tape speed across the heads.

The more usual method of transporting tape, is to have a driving shaft or capstan close to the heads. The tape is held in contact with the capstan by a pressurised idler (or pinch) wheel. The capstan is directly connected to a flywheel (to ensure a constant speed) which is usually belt driven from a central motor.

This motor, through the use of additional belts, also keeps the take-up spool functioning so tape does not spill once it leaves the driving capstan. There is normally a slipping clutch arrangement on the take-up spool. This allows the speed of the spool to vary according to the amount of tape on it so that it keeps pace with the capstan and does not apply too much tension to the tape as it leaves the capstan (Fig 5).

The supply spool is usually more or less free-

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wheeling with just a little pressure on it to prevent it from unspooling tape when the driving capstan and take-up spool are stopped. Some tape recorders have two driving capstans —one at each end of the erase and record/ playback heads. This ensures a very high degree of accuracy in tape speed, which means more faithful reproduction of material recorded and played back.

Many modern tape recorders use three motors, one drives the capstan and is usually a synchronous motor which maintains a true speed constant to the mains frequency. The other two motors drive the take-up and supply reels. The operation of these two motors is governed by electro-magnetic switchgear to ensure the proper amount of tension on the reels so tape mishandling is eliminated.

FAST WIND

Almost all modern tape recorders are able to wind on and rewind the tape at a fast speed. In either of these modes the tape transport is concerned with but one purpose—that of getting tape onto one reel or the other as quickly as possible. The tape is not required to perform any electronic duty and is therefore lifted free and clear of the heads and released from the driving capstan mechanism. This allows the un-





hindered passage of tape in either direction at fast speed. The mechanism lifting the tape clear of the heads also serves to protect the heads. The rate of wear under rewind conditions would soon render the heads useless.

In the fast forward mode, power is applied to the take-up reel. In the rewind mode the supply reel is powered. There is usually a slight braking effect on the opposite reel to prevent tape spillage should the operator decide to stop the tape.

Additional to the transport mechanism are tape guides which ensure proper alignment of the tape as it passes across the heads. Pressure pads are used to make sure the tape is held against the heads during recording and playback so there is no air gap between them. Both of these items help to ensure good reproduction of sound.

MULTI TRACK

Alignment of the tape across the heads is quite important particularly with the multi-track machines (two and four track). Originally tape recorders used just a single track, recorded across the full width of the tape. After playing such a tape it had to be rewound before it could be played again. The single track (which is confined to monaural recording) is used today for high fidelity requirements in professional and broadcast work.



Fig. 6. Various track arrangements. In the four track system gap 1 records tracks 1 and 4, and gap 2 records tracks 2 and 3.

The next advance was the half or two-track system. This means the recording and playback heads are only as wide as half the width of the tape (actually slightly less than half to allow for separation of the two tracks).

With the two-track system a tape could be played through one way, then turned over and played through again using the material on the second track. The two-track machine also opened the way for stereo tape recording using one track for each channel but only (as in the onetrack monaural system) capable of being played in one direction.



The underside view of a Brenell tape deck. This deck used three separate motors, one synchronous type for the capstan and the other two to drive each spool.

The four-track system solved the matter of letting one run a tape back and forth using stereo material. It also allows one to put a considerable amount of monaural material on a single reel of tape. This is done by ignoring the stereo mode completely and recording different monaural material on each of the four tracks (Fig. 6).

TAPE SPEED

The amount of material which can be recorded on a given length of tape can also be varied by the speed of the tape past the heads. Standard speeds in common use today are 7_{12}^{1} , 3_{34}^{3} and 1_{78}^{7} inches per second (in/sec). Other speeds are also used, such as 15 and 30 in/sec for sound studios and broadcast use. The faster speed is used where the utmost in fidelity of sound is required. The slower speed is only practical for voice reproduction and is used on some dictation machines or for recording lectures where fidelity is less important than extended playing time.

However, more advanced electronics and higher precision heads—at greater cost, of course—can offset the loss of fidelity at low tape speeds. Most modern domestic tape recorders offer high fidelity at 7_{12}^{12} in/sec however, and this means reasonable tape costs for those building up their own libraries.

It should be realised, however, that the quality of the recorded material will not always match the quality of the original when taping from discs. And, of course, there is a variation in the ability of different tape recorders to duplicate the original fidelity of the sound.

As can be seen the modern recorder is a long way from the Poulson machine of the 1890s and with the introduction of electronic noise reduction systems and advances in the mechanical and tape aspects the tape recorder will go on advancing for some time.



. . . but it most certainly is NOT decorative.

SINCE the main purpose of this magazine is to encourage and instruct our men-folk in a new hobby, I have prevailed upon the Editor to allow me a little space to present the other side of the coin—a wife's-eye-view of amateur electronics.

As the wife of a keen electronics man myself, it seems only fair to pass on to other wives a few hints and tips picked up over the years. His new hobby does cause some slight (?) disruption of the domestic scene. Of course, some of the lads may have workshops, or rooms set aside for their hobby. This is fine, girls, but do persuade him to fix up an intercom, otherwise you'll never speak to him.

My husband works on the dining-room table in our allpurpose living-room. This way, we do occasionally manage to exchange the odd word, but this



arrangement can lead to domestic friction. Electronic equipment may be functional but it most certainly is *not* decorative, and all those trailing wires do have a nasty habit of getting entangled with the cleaner!

If he is messy with the solderingiron, try to get some newspaper between the carpet and the flying solder—it's hell trying to get blobs of the stuff out of the Axminster/Wilton. I have yet to solve the problem of getting it off of the wallpaper, although this can usefully provide an excuse for demanding a change of decor.

Of course, your husband's new hobby will have its fringe benefits. As he becomes more proficient, he will be able to make all sorts of useful gadgets for the home and car—or so I am told! Let's face it though, these marvels of science seldom seem to materiA few hints and tips for constructors' wives, passed on by the wife of last month's Memory Store author

By JUNE BURN

alise. In my experience, electronic test equipment breeds only more electronic test equipment. Still, I don't really want an electrically heated loo seat, do you?

This can be an irritating hobby, but bear with it. Ask him what he's making (even if you don't understand one word of the answer), sympathise when it doesn't work (it never does at first), don't use his soldering iron as a tin opener, and your marriage will probably survive this new interest. After all, while he's immersed in his transistors and integrated circuits, he's not got his mind on other birds, neither is he in the local with the boys. Mind you, there have been times when I would have liked to get my hands on that chap with the boat (see last month). Well, how would vou like solder all over your cooker?



... I have yet to solve the problem of getting it off the wallpaper Everyday Electronics, April 1972



... don't use his soldering iron as a tin opener



... he's not got his mind on other birds

ELECTRONIC CIRCUITS -..... IN THEORY and PRACTICE

TEACH-INfor beginners

By Mike Hughes M.A.

SEMICONDUCTORS: Diodes

T HIS month we introduce a very important family of components called "semiconductors." Much has been written describing these devices and many people might wince if they looked at the background theory in detail. Nevertheless, in the practical sense they are fairly easy to understand and once you get the hang of their basic functions they are not so formidable.

In this series we shall limit ourselves to two types of semiconductor—the "diode" already mentioned in *Teach-In* Part 2, and the "transistor."

N- AND P-TYPE DOPING

First of all a few words about semiconductors in general; if you have difficulty understanding the reasons why they work, do not worry—it is useful if you can, but not disastrous if you cannot.

They are usually made from the metals, germanium or silicon, which have the unusual property (for metals) of having very poor electrical conductivity in their pure states at room temperature. This is because the atoms are bonded together in a very precise manner and there are no "spare" electrons "floating about" as is the case of copper for example.

If we heat up the pure material we can "dislodge" a number of electrons and it will start to conduct electricity in the usual way. Alternatively, if we introduce an impurity into the metal (e.g., arsenic or phosphorus) we can distort the precise equilibrium so that an extra electron is available for conduction for every Fig. 1. Schematic diagrams of a p-n junction (a) no voltage applied—not biased (b) reverse biased (c) forward biased.



impurity atom added—this is known as "doping." These extra electrons will be free to move about thus increasing the electrical conductivity. By "adding" electrons in this manner we say we are introducing "negative carriers" (of current) and the resultant material is called an "n-type" semiconductor.

We could have "doped" the material with boron which has the effect of absorbing an electron for every atom added. This leaves a "hole" where the electron should have been. As this also upsets the equilibrium an electric current can be made to pass, only this time because the holes move (from positive to negative). A material doped in this way is called "p type"; the p standing for "positive carriers."

In practice the level of doping is very low and typically is only a few parts per million.

Because we can artificially control the conductivity in this way the metals germanium and silicon are called semiconductors.

P-N JUNCTION

Using modern techniques it is possible to bring together n- and p-type materials so that they are in perfect contact. At the interface between the two, the spare electrons in the n-type will cancel out the spare holes in the p-type, and a band is built up that is devoid of either positive or negative carriers.

At first you might think that this cancellation process would go on until all possible opposite pairs of carriers had cancelled out—but this is not so.

As the electrons move from the n-type material they leave it with a small positive charge. Likewise the holes moving from the ptype material will leave behind a slight negative charge. Eventually the negative charge in the p-type will start to repel any more electrons attempting to move across the interface and the cancellation process will stop at this point. The band of cancelled carriers is normally called the "depletion layer."

THE DIODE

The semiconductor diode is simply a p-n junction. Let's see why it will only allow current to flow in one direction. The potential across the junction caused by the cancellation process is as if we had connected a battery between the p- and n-type materials with its negative terminal going to the p-type Fig. 1(a).

If we now connect a battery across the two materials (positive terminal to the n-type and negative terminal to the p-type), we will allow more cancellation to take place at the junction thus increasing its width Fig. 1(b); but because there are no free carriers in the depletion layer no current can flow across it.

In practice there are always a few carriers present (generated by other impurities or heat) and so there will be a minute current detectable



Three common diodes: (a) medium power rectifier, BY100 silicon (b) signal diode IN4148 silicon (c) signal diode OA91, glass encapsulated pointcontact germanium (Magnified x $2\frac{1}{2}$).

—this we call "leakage current." If this leakage current is too great the junction becomes valueless. If, on the other hand, we had connected the battery in the opposite sense Fig. 1(c), the depletion layer would be destroyed when the voltage exceeded that of the "virtual" battery.

In the absence of the depletion layer (which was acting like an insulating barrier) current can flow virtually unlimited. When the battery was connected so no current flowed, the junction is said to be "reverse biased," but when current flows it is said to be "forward biased."

The voltage level of the virtual battery is rather important because it is quite noticeable in electronic circuits. For germanium it can be from 50 to 300mV and 300 to 600mV for silicon; variations are caused by changes of temperature.

BREAKDOWN AND POWER DISSIPATION

If we reverse bias the junction and apply larger and larger voltages, eventually we reach a level when the depletion layer breaks down and conduction suddenly occurs. This level is called the "reverse breakdown voltage" and can destroy the junction. This can vary from one or two volts to thousands of volts depending on the way the junction was made. Usually this sets the limit which we must never exceed but in some cases (Zener diodes) practical use is made of this parameter.

When conducting in a forward direction the material shows a degree of electrical resistance (even though it is usually small) and consequently some power is dissipated; this generates

heat and a rise in temperature degrades the junction performance. We always have to set a maximum forward current to prevent this happening.

All diodes work on the same principle and the only variations are in the magnitudes of reverse voltage and forward current limits, while the quality is defined by the reverse leakage current.

Like all semiconductors, diodes are sensitive to heat and although they are reasonably tolerant you should avoid overheating them when soldering (see *Teach-In* Part 1). With glass encapsulations you should not bend the lead out wires too close to the seal otherwise you might orack the glass!

DIODE TYPES

Diodes are identified by type numbers which are usually printed on the case. Regrettably one cannot identify any particular characteristic from this number and the only way to become familiar with these is to look them up in manufacturers' data sheets.

As there are thousands of different types of diodes made it is impossible to cover all possibilities in this series but by and large you will find that you can deal with most eventualities with either one of the following or similar types. OA91—a low voltage current germanium diode encapsulated in glass; 1N4148—this is very similar to the OA91 except that it is made from silicon; 1N4004—a reasonably high voltage (400V) medium current (1A) device made from silicon.

Because they are low voltage and current devices the OA91 and 1N4148 are sometimes

referred to as "signal diodes" while high voltage and medium to high current devices—such as the 1N4004 are called "rectifiers." The most important characteristics of these devices are given in Table 1.

POLARITY AND TEST

The two terminations of the diode have names. If you refer to Fig. 2, the end to which the arrow



Fig. 2. The circuit symbol used for the diode showing the polarities. Current flow is out of the cathode.

head of its symbol is pointing is called the cathode and this is usually marked on the actual device with a band, spot, or a + sign. The other (unmarked) end is called the anode. If you





Fig. 3(a) (above). The circuit diagram for polarity test and demonstrating current flow in one direction only.

Fig. 3(b) (left). The circuit of Fig. 3(a) wired up on the Demo Deck.

Table	1:	PARAMETERS OF SOME	
		COMMON DIODES	

Type No.	Description	Max. reverse voltage (V)	Max. leakage current (μA)	Max. forward current
OA91	Germanium point contact signal diode	115	275 at 100V	50mA
IN4148	Silicon planar diffused signal diode	75	0.025 at 20V	225mA
IN914	Silicon planar diffused signal diode.	75	0.025 at 20V	l I0mA
AA143	Germanium gold bonded signal diode	30	20 at 20∨	60mA
OA200	Silicon alloy diffused signal diode	50	0·lat 50V	160mA
ZSIOA	Silicon alloy diffused signal diode	60	0.05 at 60V	100mA
1N4004	Silicon planar diffused rectifie	400 r	5 at 400V	IA

make the anode positive with respect to the cathode the diode is forward biased and will conduct. Try this for yourself using the Demo Deck (see Fig. 3), then reverse the diode to see that no current flows when it is reverse biased.

Use each of the three diodes to see that by and large they all exhibit the same effect. This is a simple test that can be used to see if a diode is working correctly.

CHARACTERISTICS—FORWARD BIASED

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We will now try and plot what is called the

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diode "characteristic" curve. This is simply a curve or graph that shows the amount of current flowing through it for different applied voltages.

To prevent passing too much current through the diode we shall limit it with an external resistor R3 in series with the diode, see Fig. 3(a).

Use VR1 on the Demo Deck to make a potential divider to use as a variable voltage source, and a 10 kilohm resistor in series with the 1mA meter to make a 10V full-scale voltmeter.

Connect the diode D1 (OA91) as indicated in Figs. 4(a) and (b).

Prepare a table for recording the voltages at points A and $B-V_A$ and V_B respectively.

Starting at zero volts and working up in small increments, measure V_A (crocodile clip at point A) and then V_B (clip at point B) for each increment. Repeat the experiment with the silicon diode, 1N4148.

It can be seen that the voltage across the diode is equal to $(V_A - V_B)$ —multiply by 1000 to convert to mV.

Now the current flowing through the diode at each measurement is determined indirectly using the voltage seen across R3 and applying Ohm's law. In this case $1 = V_B \div R3$. Since the



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Fig. 4(a) (above). The circuit diagram for measuring the diode characteristics.

Fig. 4(b) (left). The circuit of Fig. 4(a) wired up on the Demo Deck.

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Fig. 5. Forward and reverse characteristics for the OA91 (germanium) and IN4148 (silicon) diodes obtained using circuit of Fig. 4(a). The two curves would eventually become parallel straight lines if we were able to plot the characteristics to a higher voltage.

value of R5 is 1 kilohm, the numerical value of V_B (in volts) gives the current flowing, in mA.

Plotting graphs of current flowing against the applied voltage will give curves similar to those in Fig. 5.

It can be seen that for the germanium diode, OA91, there is a sudden change from passing little current to complete forward biasing at about 150mV. For the silicon diode, 1N4148, this change occurs at a much higher voltage, 500mV.

This abrupt change or "knee" of the graph occurs when the voltage we are applying just exceeds the virtual battery across the junction of the diode.

-REVERSE_BIASED

Although we do not have a high enough voltage available to cause reverse breakdown you can start to plot the reverse characteristics of these two diodes by reversing them in the circuit, i.e., cathode to the wiper of VR1 and measuring current for different voltages exactly as before. Of course you should read zero current at all voltages. Leakage current will be present but will not show up because our measuring system is not sufficiently sensitive.

TACHOMETER EXPERIMENT

We can demonstrate a very simple application of where two diodes can be used in a circuit. It is a very crude form of tachometer that will record on a meter the rate at which a contact is made to open and close. The circuit is shown in Fig. 6(a) and should be wired up on Demo Deck as shown in Fig. 6(b). You will only need one extra component—a 16μ F capacitor with a minimum working voltage of 12V. D1 is the OA91 and D2 the 1N4148 (another OA91 would work equally as well for the latter).





Fig. 6(a) (above). The circuit diagram for the Tachometer experiment.

Fig. 6(b) (left). The circuit of Fig. 6(a) wired up on the Demo Deck.



Photograph of the Demo Deck in use for measuring the characteristics of the IN4148 (silicon) diode.

METHOD

To operate the circuit, momentarily connect the positive end of Cl to the +9V supply and watch the meter, it will kick up a small amount and then slowly settle back towards zero. Now "dab" the wire on the +9V terminal at a regular rate—say once a second—and notice that the meter starts to read higher and although there is a slight waver in the reading you can see an average current level. Now speed up the rate of making the contacts—the meter reads higher. Note that this circuit will only work for rates up to a few a second.

THEORY

The circuit we are using is called a "diode pump" and works as follows: initially there is no charge on C2 so the meter reads zero. When you apply the positive lead to C1 a momentary charge current will flow through C1, D1 and C2 which are all in series.

Because C1 has a small capacitance, it will charge up quickly—C2 only attaining a small charge—and the charge current stops (even though the wire is still connected to the battery).

Capacitor C2 does, however, charge up by a small finite amount and this causes the "kick" you see on the meter, but C2 will then start to discharge slowly through the 10 kilohm resistance of the meter circuit.

When you disconnect the battery, C1 will discharge through R5 and D2.

During the charging part of the cycle, D2 was reverse biased because the potential at its cathode was predominantly more positive than the anode, but now the positive charge at the positive end of Cl is applied, through R5, to the anode and so it conducts this charge away at a rate limited by the value of R5.

The potential at the cathode of D2 thus falls to zero. Because C2 has a slight positive charge on it D1 now becomes reverse biased and pre-

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vents C2 discharging back through the circuit. If you re-apply the +9V to C1 the charge part of the cycle starts again and the potential at C2 will either rise back to its previous level or go higher, depending on time between pulses.

The circuit gets its name "pump" because the two diodes work rather like the leather flap valve of an old-fashioned water pump that is pumping squirts of water into a bucket with a hole in the bottom.

The circuit given here is purely for demonstration purposes and cannot be used for many practical applications due to its inability to work at pulse rates greater than about three per sec (i.e., frequency of about 3Hz) but the principle is used very frequently particularly in equipment such as electronic car rev-counters.

Next month we shall deal with the principles of the transistor and armed with that information we shall be able to move on to make some simple circuits.

Now try the Test on page 333.

TEACH-IN PART 5-ERRATA

We apologise for a technical error with regards to the capacitor colour coding system given in last month's *Teach-In*.

There are numerous capacitor colour coding systems in use and the one given last month refers to the very popular Mullard C280 series and should be amended as follows: the first three bands are correctly labelled, i.e., 1st and 2nd digits and the multiplier. The fourth band gives the tolerance and is either black or white indicating ± 20 and ± 10 per cent respectively.

The fifth band indicates the working voltage, red 250V, yellow 400V.

Next Month: Transistors



THOSE who contemplate carrying out much experimental and constructional work with transistorised electronics will find that the use of batteries as a power supply can prove rather expensive.

A simple variable voltage power supply of the kind illustrated in this article will more than pay for itself in quite a short time and unlike batteries it doesn't run down. It will supply any voltage up to 16V at a nominal maximum current of 100mA and is fully protected against overload even to the extent of a direct short circuit across the output.

At very low current drain i.e. in the region of 10 to 20mA, the maximum voltage is about 17V which is suitable for many *npn* silicon transistor audio pre-amplifiers for example, requiring between 16 and 18V for operation.

POSITIVE OR NEGATIVE EARTH

Either the positive or negative rails can be "earthed" according to the requirements of the circuit being supplied. It is only necessary to move switch S2 to the appropriate position. The meter always indicates the voltage at the output terminals i.e. the operating voltage being used. The a.c. ripple at any operating voltage and up to maximum nominal current drain is less than 0.5 mV.

At any steady continuous current drain the voltage variation at any setting is negligible.

CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

The complete circuit diagram is shown in Fig. 1 and is a fairly simple arrangement employing a small power transistor, TR1, to control the output voltage.

The transformer Tl steps down the mains voltage to 14V a.c. (r.m.s.) and applies this to points X and Y on the "diode bridge" network. This arrangement of the diodes gives full-wave rectification across points A and B.

The reservoir capacitor Cl connected across the bridge "smoothes" the pulsating d.c. from the bridge producing a mean d.c. level of about 20V with a small amount of "ripple" voltage. This is applied to the series combination of R1 and the Zener diode, D5. Capacitor C2 across





Fig. 1. The complete circuit diagram of the D.C. Power Supply Unit.

D5 helps to eliminate ripple voltage that may be present.

The Zener diode has the property of being able to supply a constant voltage over a wide range of current flow through it. A small amount of voltage is dropped across R1 (Zener current limiting resistor) while D5 supplies a constant voltage of 18V to the potentiometer VR1 which controls the voltage applied to the base of TR1.

The inclusion of TR1 in the circuit affords stabilisation since without it, loads drawing large current would cause the voltage across the Zener to vary.

The voltage output from TR1 is a function of the potential drop across the transistor and also a function of the base-emitter voltage and affords stabilisation as follows.



A single stabilised supply providing 0-16 volts d.c. continuously variable output.

by F. C. Judd

Components....

Resistors

R1 $1k\Omega$ \pm 1% \ddagger W hi-stab. R2 10Ω 10W wirewound R3 15k $\Omega \pm 10\% \ddagger W$ carbon

R4 10kΩ \pm 1% \ddagger W hi-stab. R5 10kΩ \pm 1% \ddagger W hi-stab.



SFF

Capacitors

- C1 2000µF 25V elect. C2
- 500//F 25V elect.

Diodes

- D1-D4 BY164CS1 Bridge type rectifier (1 off) or if desired 1N4002 (4 off)
 - D5 BZX61/C18 18V 1W Zener or any 18V 400mW Zener

Transistors

TR1 AD162 germanium pnp

Potentiometers

VR1 50kΩ linear carbon

Miscellaneous

- T1 240V primary 12 to 14V 200mA secondary transformer.
- ME1 0-1mA 75Ω internal resistance meter
- **S1** Mains switch slide type, D.P.S.T.
- **S2** Slide type switch, D.P.D.T.

LP1 Mains panel neon with built in resistor 2 insulated terminals (1 red, 1 black); 0.15in matrix perforated s.r.b.p. size 3² x 2² in., 16 s.w.g. aluminium $3\frac{1}{2} \times 2\frac{1}{2}$ in. for heatsink; control knob to suit VR1; aluminium angle # x #in.; various B.A. nuts and bolts for fixing of panel components; aluminium for building housing case or Universal chassis parts-CU168 (7 x 5in.) 2 off, CU147 (7 x 3in.) 2 off, CU145 (5 x 3in.) 2 off.

The base-emitter voltage is the difference between the output voltage and the voltage supplied to the base of TR1 via VR1 from the Zener diode (which is constant for any setting of VR1).

If the output voltage decreases (due to heavy load for example) so the base-emitter voltage increases, causing the output voltage to increase and in doing so causes the base-emitter voltage to decrease thereby decreasing the output voltage. Thus the circuit is self-compensating and the output voltage remains substantially constant for a wide range of output loads.

The supply rails can only be earthed by the switch S2 which connects either the positive or negative rail to common earth.

No part of the circuit, except the frame and core of the mains transformer, is directly connected to the panel and case, which is earthed.

CONSTRUCTION

The prototype was constructed in a box made from Universal chassis parts with everything mounted on the front panel, but any size case will do. The layout is not critical and may be modified to suit individual requirements. However it is essential that a heatsink be used to mount TR1 otherwise damage will occur to TR1.

Most of the components are mounted on a piece of 0.15in matrix perforated s.r.b.p. size 4×2^{1} in. The layout of these components on the board is shown in Fig. 2.

Begin by wiring up the board as indicated, attaching all the flying leads and remembering to use a heat shunt when soldering the Zener diode. D5. in position.

The next thing to do is to make the mounting bracket for the component board and the heatsink, and cut and drill the front panel to the sizes given in Figs. 3 and 4.

When this is done, attach the remaining components including the transformer T1, to the front panel in the positions indicated.

It is best next to attach TR1 to its heatsink making sure that TR1 is completely insulated from the heatsink by using the appropriate size mica washer and insulating bushes. Connection to the collector (which is the body of the transistor) is made via a solder tag under one of the securing bolts.

Now connect the transistor to the component board via the flying leads and then attach it to the front panel in the positions indicated.

Connect all the flying leads from the component board and the transformer to the panel mounted components and wire an R3, R4 and R5 as shown in Fig. 5. Connect a suitable length of mains lead to S1 as shown.

THE METER

The resistors R4 and R5 are hi-stability types, and in series with the 1mA full scale deflection meter convert it to a 20V voltmeter.

Although the prototype was built with this kind of meter arrangement, it may be better to use one of the readily available 20V voltmeters which costs the same as the 1mA meter and need no calibration. The 20V meter would



D.C. POWER SUPPLY UNIT



Fig. 5. Shows the positioning of all the components in the aluminium case and the flying lead connections to the component board. Ensure that TR1 is fully insulated from the heatsink by using a mica washer and plastic bushes.





Fig. 2. The layout of the components on both sides of the board.

replace the 1mA meter and the series resistors R4 and R5.

If however, a lmA f.s.d. meter is used as the voltmeter, it will be necessary to remove the meter scale and recalibrate it to read 0 to 20 volts.

This is done as follows: take off the meter cover and remove the meter scale by undoing the two retaining screws; gently slide the scale away from the meter. The original figures can be erayed and new figures 0-20 inscribed.

USING THE UNIT

It is a simple matter setting up the power supply unit for a specific job and should be carried out as follows: attach the battery leads from the test project to the negative and positive insulated terminals on the unit panel, decide which lead is the earth lead and switch S2 (marked E on front panel) to the correct position.

Turn VR1 fully anticlockwise (zero volts) and then plug in to the mains and turn on switch S1. Rotate VR1 to give desired voltage level—this is indicated on the meter.

The completed power supply unit is protected against temporary short circuits by the inclusion of the high wattage resistor R2 which will dissipate any power due to overload, However do not leave the unit running with a short circuited output, but switch it off until the overload is removed.

A direct short circuit will instantly reduce the output volts to zero and this will be shown on the meter. The unit will comfortably supply up to 100mA continuous at any voltage below 16V and between 150 and 200mA intermittent at 16V.





Fig. 3. (above) The dimensions of the heatsink for TR1.

Fig. 4. (left) The dimensions of the front panel showing positions of holes and cut-outs for mounting the components.



This is a booklet you will not want to be without. It provides a useful reference on many aspects of electronics A list of transistors with types, base connections and brief data is provided together with information on transistor circuit configurations. Resistor and capacitor types and colour codes; data on other circuit components. Features on various constructional methods and the art of soldering will interest all new constructors.

Metal Locator

Designed for construction simplicity and ease of operation this single transistor metal locator provides a meter indication when buried metal is located. Just right for beachcombing or searching your back garden.

Electronic Sound and Music

Our feature article next month describes how to make your own electronic music using an ordinary tape recorder and an audio tone generator that will also be described in this same issue.

There is bound to be a heavy demand for this special May issue. Make certain of your copy by placing an order with your usual supplier.

ON SALE FRIDAY APRIL 21.



A simple design using a ready made amplifier module to simplify construction. Designed with the baby's safety in mind.

By A. Lester-Rands

No need to have the mini or TV sound turned right down, or conversation reduced to whisper level, just in case the baby should awake and voice its discomfort. The baby alarm described in this article will solve the problem of being ab e to hear cries of protest.

The circuit has been simplified to a great extent by using a heady built main amplifier, but some constructional exercise can be obtained from building the microphone pre-amplifier and of course assembling the units within their respective boxes. The photographs show the original boxes that were used to house the amplifier and speaker, and the microphone. These are plastic electrical connecting boxes obtainable from electrical fittings retailers and are available in a variety of sizes. Choose a pair approximately the same dimensions as the originals which were about 4^{1}_{2} inches by 4^{1}_{2} inches by 3^{1}_{2} inches deep. These boxes are generally white and do not look out of place in most homes. The crystal microphone could be put into a much smaller box or a standard crystal microphone in a plastic case could be used if desired.

THE CIRCUIT

The circuit is given in Fig. 1 and consists of a one transistor pre-amplifier consisting of TR1 which raises the signal level from the microphone to a sufficient level to supply the amplifier. No attempt has been made to match the high impedance of the crystal microphone to the amplifier input impedance as this would cnly complicate the circuit; loss due to mismatch is made up by the amplifier gain anyway. The preamplifier is connected to the Newmarket PC2 amplifier, the circuit diagram of which is shown in Fig. 1, via the volume control VR1. The output from the PC2 medule goes direct to the loudspeaker which may be any miniature (2¹: to 3¹2 in(ch), 15 or 25 ohm mpedar ce type. A brief specification of the amplifier is given in Table 1.



CONSTRUCTION

The pre-amplifier is constructed on a small piece of plain circuit board as shown in Fig. 2 and this and the PC2 amplifier are bolted on one side of the amplifier case. The capacitors used in the prototype are printed circuit types with both wires at one end. This simplifies construction and provides a neater finished job, however, this type of capacitor does not have to be used. If the capacitors available are larger than those specified this will not matter as there is plenty of room for larger types on the component board. The finished board is a similar size to the PC2 amplifier and the two units are mounted together on one side of the case.

Table 1: NEWMARKET PC2 AMPLIFIER CHARACTERISTICS

Operating voltage	9V
Output	up to 400mW into 15Ω
	load
Input resistance	lkΩ
Input sensitivity	ImV for 50mW output
Quiescent (no signal) current	10mA

With a box the same size as the original, or larger, there should be ample space for a PP9 battery as well as the loudspeaker. The layout of the components on the front panel of the amplifier box is shown in Fig. 3 and the photographs but again this may be varied to suit the size of the box used. Note that two wander plug type sockets (SK1) for the microphone lead are mounted on the side of the case. A miniature jack or similar two-pin connection could be used instead but the earthed connection must be from the screening braid of the microphone cable (black socket to screen). The wiring between the various components mounted in the case is shown in Fig. 3.

All that remains is to mount the crystal microphone in its box (Fig. 4) and connect it to the sockets on the side. (A jack or two-pin connection could also be used here instead of wander



Fig. 1. Circuit diagram of the Baby Alarm. The part of the circuit enclosed by the dotted line box is the Newmarket PC2 amplifier module.



Components.... Resistors R1 68kΩ R2 10kΩ SEE R3 6.8kΩ R4 1kΩ R5 2·2kΩ ↓W = 10% carbon Capacitors C1 2.5//F elect. 12V C2 50//F elect. 12V C3 10//F elect. 12V C4 100#F elect. 12V Potentiometer VR1 10kO log. carbon Transistor TR1 NKT 274 germanium pnp **Miscellaneous S1** Double-pole single-throw slide or toggle switch 9V PP9 battery **B1** PC2 Newmarket amplifier module Crystal microphone insert (any small MIC1 type or complete microphone) SKI, PLI wander plugs and sockets (2 red, 2 black of each) LS1 Miniature 24 in. to 34 in. 15 or 25 Ω loudspeaker Screened lead (length as required), plain perforated 0.15 inch matrix Veroboard 21in. >

plug sockets.) It does not matter which way round the leads to the microphone insert are connected. The screening cable should preferably be screened light-weight microphone cable. The baby alarm units may be permanently mounted if required or, the microphone may simply be placed a few feet away from the cot, the cable led to the living room and the amplifier connected up. The whole can be quickly gathered up and put away when it is not in use.

11in. 6 BA fixings, connecting wire, plastic

cases (see text), control knob.

In operation the unit is quite sensitive and with the microphone even 6 feet away from a crying baby the sound from the loudspeaker at half to full volume setting will be as loud as if the baby were in the same room.

SAFETY

*

The alarm is inherently safe due to its being battery operated. There is no d.c. present at the microphone end and hence even if the baby removes the leads and puts them in its mouth no harm can come of it, provided the plugs are securely fixed. The box used to house the microphone is also harmless to a baby and quite tough; if a complete microphone is used this should be taken into account when purchasing.

Everyday Electronics, April 1972



Due to the high impedance of the microphone the length of lead used to connect the two units should be kept as short as possible to avoid unnecessary noise or oscillation. The prototype was tested with a 15 yard length of screened lead and gave satisfactory results, suggesting that a reasonable increase on this length could be used without any major problems. To keep lead length within reason the wire could be fed from an upstairs room to a ground floor room via the windows instead of running it down a staircase. Routing the connecting wire parallel with mains wiring should also be avoided as this will induce hum in the circuit.

CHECKING THE UNIT

The standing current consumed by the amplifier with no signals is approximately 10mA so do not leave the unit running longer than is necessary. To test for operation, short circuit the microphone sockets and turn the volume control full on. A soft hiss should be heard from the loudspeaker. Place the microphone in another room to prevent feedback, which will occur if the microphone is near the speaker, and check by getting someone to speak quietly into the microphone. A good signal should be obtained from the speaker.

The unit is now ready for use and can either be permanently installed or placed in position as necessary.



Fifty years of British Broadcasting

FIFTY years ago British broadcasting was born in an exarmy hut near Chelmsford in Essex, when on February 14, 1922 a group of Marconi engineers began a series of regular experimental transmissions. Every Tuesday evening from a rigged-up transmitter, call sign 2MT Writtle, or more affectionately to its listeners. Two Emma Tock. They transmitted programmes whose original purpose was entirely technical. Shortly afterwards, in May, another transmitter, later to be even better known, was opened up by the company at Marconi House in the Strand in London. This was the famous 2LO station that provided the foundation from which the British Broadcasting Company grew after its formation on November 14 of the same year.

Two Emma Tock provided the first regular broadcast service in this country, and incidentally broadcasting's first audience, an audience which in its enthusiasm for the pioneering programmes, generated the original demand for public service broadcasting. The 2MT transmitter was set up for use in a series of experiments designed to establish the effective range of a wireless telephony transmitter. At the same time a number of radio amateurs were appearing, largely young exservicemen who had learnt about radio during the 1914-18 war, who had put together their own receiving sets, and who wanted transmissions to receive. Earlier experiments with entertainment had shown that there was a potential for wireless telephony outside official communication and navigation usage, but the official attitude had been discouraging.

2MT opened regular broadcasts officially on behalf of the amateurs who needed a source against which they could calibrate their receivers, and to begin with its programmes were not very much more interesting than early 1920 transmissions made before government clamp-down. the when W. T. Ditcham read from Bradshaw's railway timetable, but the enthusiasm and gaiety of the voung Marconi engineers who ran it very soon turned it into a halfhour's entertainment in its own right.

The names of those men read like a roll-call of some of the great names in Broadcasting. In charge of the project was Captain P. P. Eckersley, who later went to the new British Broadcasting Company as its first Chief Engineer. It was his infectious and spontaneous humour which gave 2MT its unique flavour; he had a gift for ad-libbing that constantly alarmed those of a less adventurous disposition who worked with him. Others in the team were Noel Ashbridge, later Sir Noel, who was the BBC's first technical director, R. T. B. Wynn, a later Chief Engineer of the BBC and B. N. MacLarty, who became Head of the BBC's Design and Installation team.

By contrast, Marconi's 2LO station, granted its licence in May, began a rather staid existence, a happy coincidence for the pioneers of 2MT, as it gave them an opportunity to provide skits and lampoons which were much appreciated by their listeners. 2LO operated on conditions of restricted timing, at first even no music, and low power, beginning with 100 watts, later raised to $1^{1}kW$.

By this time many wireless societies had been formed and more and more the demand for radio receivers was being felt. In the United States since 1919 "wireless" had become fashionable, but with no constitutional control of the use of wavelengths, chaos reigned in a commercially sponsored free-for-all. The British Government, seeking a way from the dilemma posed by popular demand on the one hand and a justifiable reluctance to allow free access to the air on the other, set up the Wireless Sub-Committee of the Imperial Communications Committee in April of 1922. After consideration, their recommendation to set up a single broadcasting company was accepted and in November 1922 the British Broadcasting Company was formed from six commercially interested companies with £100,000 share capital.

2MT Writtle continued to transmit until the following January. when it finally closed down.

In-Store Watch-dog

S T MICHAEL now has an elec-tronic watch-dog to help with quality control.

Marks & Spencer's St Michael brandname has long been a byword for dependability and has recently been developing in the foods market. As part of their quality control effort in this sensitive area, Marks are using a GEC-Elliott instrument in their shops, to check that chilled and frozen goods are maintained at the optimum temperatures for freshness and quality.

The equipment consists of a portable temperature measuring and recording system. It enables

spot checks to be made at a inoment's notice, or can operate continuously after the store has closed to record changes throughout the day, overnight or during the weekend. Although the company has supplied similar static

equipment for cold stores, warehouses and refrigerated ships, this is the first portable system for the retail trade. The system is trolley mounted, so that it can be moved from counter to counter, or store to store.



Everyday Electronics, April 1972

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It is always fun to prove to yourself how much you know, hence we have devised this test at the half way point of Teach-In. Do not worry if you are unable to answer all the questions, it simply means that you have not taken in all the information we have given. We will publish full answers next month so do not write to us with your answers or queries.

We have tried to set the sort of questions that will probably come up when you are actually involved in sorting out practical designs. Ultimately you ought to be able to answer them all from memory of the principles involved.

- (1) In an electric circuit do electrons flow from the positive to the negative terminal of the battery or vice versa?
- Which of the following abbreviations are used to (2) describe the magnitude of current:
- (a) mV, (b) μ A, (c) pF, (d) μ F, (e) A, (f) nV, (g) k Ω .
- What would you expect the potential difference (3) across a 2.2 kilohm resistor to be if 0.01 amperes were flowing through it.
- (4) We can make a voltmeter by putting a resistor in series with a sensitive ammeter. Does it matter if the resistor is connected between the positive terminal of the meter and the battery's positive terminal or between the respective negative terminals?
- (5) What current do you think would be flowing through R1 in Fig. 1? If you put another resistor in parallel with R2 would the current through R1 increase or decrease?
- What would be the minimum power rating of devices (6)
- you would use for R1, R2 and R3 shown in Fig. 2? What would be the maximum power dissipation of (7) the potentiometer shown in Fig. 3?
- (8) The colour codes on resistors are as follows: what are the ohmic values and tolerances? (a) Yellow, Violet, Red, Silver.

- (b) Red, Red, Orange, Gold.
- (c) Brown, Black, Yellow, Silver.
- (9) Generally speaking if you wanted a 16µF electrolytic capacitor having a working voltage of 25V and the shopkeeper did not have one exactly as specified; which of the following alternatives would you choose as being the most suitable.
- (a) 16μF 12V, (b) 20μF 42V, (c) 20μF 15V, (d) 12μF 25V.
 (10) You ask the shopkeeper for a 0·15μF capacitor and he gives you one with no markings other than three coloured bands-reading from the top down to the black band, Brown, Red, Yellow. Would you (a) accept it as being correct, (b) reject it politely?
- (11) In Fig. 4 which capacitor will charge up fastest when the switch is closed C1, C2 or C3?
- (12)Again in Fig. 4 which capacitor will take the longest time to charge?
- (13) Is D1 in Fig. 5 forward or reverse biased?
- (14) In Fig. 6 S1 is a reversing switch that effectively changes the polarity of the supply voltage from the battery. Assuming it can be set in either position calculate the peak reverse breakdown voltage and forward current the diode D1 must be capable of withstanding.
- (15) If a design called for a diode having a peak inverse voltage of 75V and a forward current of 0.1 amperes: which of the following specified devices could be used with safety?

	Reverse voltage	Forward current
(a)	100V	50 m A
(b)	50V	50 m A
(c)	50V	150 m A
(d)	100V	150 m A

(16) If D1 in Fig. 5 was a silicon device and you measured the voltage across it with a high resistance voltmeter; would you expect the voltmeter to read: (a) 9V, (b) 0.6V, (c) zero volts?





From Abroad

I have now had the first three issues of your publication and find it very interesting. They are on sale here exactly a month after publication, which seems a long time. Also it is difficult to get the required components as we only have one stockist in town. Is it possible to have a parcel of all components for a project sent direct from England?

I have made the Demo Deck and tried the experiments on page 151, January EVERYDAY ELEC-TRONICS. According to your diagrams the positive terminal of the meter is connected to the positive terminal of the battery. By doing this I find the needle shooting across the dial of the meter. However, by connecting the positive battery terminal to the resistors then to the meter positive terminal I get the correct readings.

If the current goes from positive to negative then surely the resistors should come before the meter, and if this is the case, then the positive sign on the diagrams should be on the other side of the battery. Please explain.

D. A. Watson South Africa.

It would seem that you have inadvertantly connected your Demo Deck meter across the battery with no resistors in circuit. As the current flows around the whole circuit from positive to negative battery terminals and the resistors merely limit the flow it does not matter where in the circuit they are.

Thanks for a great new magazine, will be making most of your projects shown. Envy your low low prices. OC71 costs £3 here!!!! J. Koppard Wellington, N. Zealand.

At those prices it may be cheaper to buy from one of the British suppliers. Unfortunately we are unable to show the beautiful grass-skirted Tahitian cirl on the front of the protocol girl on the front of the postcard from this reader!

Constructive—Helpful !

As a regular subscriber to "big brother" Practical Electronics, permit me to add my quota of appreciation of particular features in the welcome appearance of the new member of the "practicals" family.

First, I note the very commendable provision of space for readers' letters. The growth of such a feature can provide a fraternal, club-like air. Both constructive and controversial writers therein can be respectively helpful or entertaining.

Myself an octogenarian who has followed the present hobby since the first days of the crystal detector and early usage of the now archaic term "wireless", which many qualified speakers and writers still use, I would like here to submit a small specially chosen item appropriate to the purpose of the Teach-In feature. It is with reference to the definition of alternating current as frequently seen in text books and other sources of instruction in basic electricity.

The virtually stereotype expla-nation says, "a current which flows this way and then that." To the uninformed, the nature of such expression at once conveys a relatively slow change without a precise frequency as required for practical use.

Still, with newcomers and beginners in mind, I would like here to repeat my comment, earlier published in Practical Electronics. which deplored the continued proliferation of semiconductors listed by retailers.

With every sympathy and understanding of the advertisers' problems in this matter, a list of over one thousand code markings for the identity of the devices being offered will serve only those readers who already know precisely that which they require. They may at the same time be aware of the many equivalents given in a list. It follows therefore that the ordinary active amateur constructor is saved frustration only by the authors of the constructional projects stipulating not only the preferred type of device, but also where possible, other

alternatives, all of which point to the need for progressive enthusiasts to avail themselves of comprehensive data on solid-state products.

In good humour and intention, I now turn to the question of two essentially familiar componentsvariable resistors and capacitors. The more experienced followers of the electronics cult must have noticed that many suppliers who regardless of its specific use, persist in calling the former article a "volume control", while others continue to call the latter "con-densors" or "condensers".

Lastly, for those who may not be aware, there is an excellently produced, colour illustrated, twenty-four page booklet issued by Joseph Lucas Ltd. under the title, "The Story of Semicon-ductors." Whether one knows it all or not, the lucid manner of presentation is a pleasure to read. To conclude, do I hear electronic-ally simulated laughter at my laboured views?

P. Ashdown Cheshire.

No laughter from us! We hope our booklet in the next issue will help with transistor data.

Commercial Equipment

I have followed with interest your magazine since the first issue and have found it most helpful and informative. Your Teach-In articles are an excellent idea, and in particular I would commend the Shop Talk articles. These fulfil the purpose of pro-viding the newcomer with what he needs to know about component buying, something that other magazines seem to think he knows already.

However, there is one "gap" I think you could yet fill. Your projects at present are all on the same theme—construction of simple self-contained electronic devices.

No doubt many readers are interested in these, in particular the devices for cars such as the Auto Alert I would consider most useful since it is not easy to obtain proprietary devices at reasonable cost to serve the same But I would purpose. be interested to see some articles about ordinary household apparatus, and simple repairs and modifications to them. For instance: What common faults can one expect to develop in a radio set and how can one deal with them?

How can one suppress electrical apparatus that is causing interference. How to fit a socket to a television set to make tape

Project 605 the new simple way to assemble Sinclair high fidelity modules





For several years now you have been able to assemble your own high fidelity system to world beating standards using Sinclair modules. We have progressively improved these technically but hitherto the method of assembly at your end has remained the same – there has been no alternative to a soldering iron. Now for those who prefer not to solder, there is an alternative – Project 605.

In one neat package you can now obtain the four basic Project 60 modules plus a fifth completely new one – Masterlink – which contains all the input sockets and output components you previously bought separately. Also in the Project 605 pack are all the inter-connecting leads, cut to length and fitted at each end with plugs which clip straight onto the modules, eliminating soldering completely. The pack contains everything you need to build a complete 30 watt stereo amplifier together with a clear well illustrated Instruction Book. All you have to do is to arrange your modules in the plinth or case of your choice and then clip them together – the work of a few minutes.

Your hi-fi system will, as we said, match the finest in the world and you can add to it at any time to increase power or extend the facilities. For example a superb stereo FM Tuner unit is obtainable for only £25.

Guarantee If within 3 months of purchasing Project 605 directly from us, you are dissatistied with it, we will refund your money at once. Each module is guaranteed to work perfectly and should any defect arise in normal use we will service it at once and without any cost to you whatsoever provided that it is returned to us within 2 years of the purchase date. There will be a small charge for service thereafter. No charge for gostage by surface mail, Air-mail charged at cost.



Sinclair Radionics Ltd., London Road., St. Ives, Huntingdonshire PE17 4HJ. Telephone : St. Ives (04806) 4311



Specifications

Output-30 watts music power (10 watts per channel R.M.S. into 3Ω).

Inputs-Mag. P.U. - 3mV correct to R.I.A.A. curve 20-25,000 Hz \pm 1dB. Ceramic pick-up - 50mV. Radio - 50 to 150mV. [Aux. adjustable between 3mV. and 3V.

Signal to noise ratio - Better than 70dB.

Distortion - better than 0.2% under all conditions.

Controls – Press buttons for on-off, P U., radio and aux, Treble +15 to -15 dB at 10 kHz. Bass +15 to -15 dB at 100 Hz. Volume. Stereo Balance.

Channel matching within 1dB.

Front panel – brushed aluminium with black knobs. Project 605 comprises Stereo 60 pre-amp/control unit two Z-30 power amplifiers, PZ-5 power supply unit, the unique new Masterlink, leads and instructions manual complete in one pack Post free

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recordings from the sound channel? How does one acquire circuit diagrams and service sheets for radio sets etc?

Another point in the diagrams accompanying the projects, the dimensions in inches, quarters and eighths strike me as a bit archaic, in view of the fact that most of the electronics industry works in metric units. If you must use inches, could you not use decimal fractions, e.g. 2.7in.

Finally, I would like to record my appreciation of the excellent drawings, photographs and general layout of the magazine.

Wishing your magazine every success,

M. D. McMahon Middlesbrough.

The subject of servicing, repair and alteration of commercial equipment is a vast one and often individual items must be described separately. Thus we cannot and will not be able to cover such subjects.

Taking your point about metric measurement, we feel that most readers would prefer to use the conventional system, but we are always pleased to receive comment—so what do other readers feel?

When I saw the title of your magazine on the bookstall I foolishly as it turned out assumed that it would contain some reference to "electronicflash" a piece of apparatus used by thousands of photographers both amateur and professional.

But nowhere in your pages either editorial or advertisement —is there the slightest hint that such things as flash-guns exist. Of course your magazine is not the only offender. I wonder whether there is some conspiracy to keep circuit diagrams and maintenance of electronic flash systems out of reach of the public so that "repairers" can go on fleecing us.

As you undoubtedly know there is a tremendous sale on these relatively simple pieces of equipment. Consequently there must be many people like myself who use them and would welcome some details of construction and maintenance and the names of suppliers who could provide the necessary components.

I do not know whether my letter is useful as a contribution to your letters from readers page. H. A. Williams Swansea.

Designs for flash guns are within our scope but supply of the flash tubes is not so easy at present. We are not able to cover the design and maintenance of commercial flash guns.

Everyday Electronics, April 1972

Capacitors

I have just completed my first circuit—your Snap Sequence Indicator—and, guess what? It worked! Thanks mainly to your helpful Teach-In series.

As a complete beginner I have managed to understand what has been said so far, but then came Capacitors and there my enthusiasm cooled down a bit.

I am not mathematicallyminded and think it would be helpful if you printed a few sums in full to show how to arrive at for example, 0.01μ F., as I am not sure how to change pF's into μ F's etc. Also I have not seen nF on a capacitor but in my catalogue a lot of capacitors are shown in mF. Please advise me what this stands for as I can find no mention of same in your *Teach-In* series.

Please could you advise me whether metallised polyester capacitors are suitable for all applications where electrolytic capacitors are not specified.

I hope you may be able to consider this letter for your letter page as I am sure there are a lot of home-constructors who, like me, find looking for the right capacitor in a catalogue extremely difficult owing to the wide range of types, voltages, etc. available.

B. Way Isle of Wight.

Capacitors are usually designated in μ F, nF and pF, these are millionths of Farads (+1,000,000) thousandths of millionths of Farads (+1,000,000,000) and billionths of Farads (+1,000,000,000,000). Thus to change from pF to μ F divide by 1,000,000; hence 10,000pF= 0.01μ F. To change from μ F to pF multiply by 1,000,000; hence 0.15μ F=150,000 pF. The use of nF is rather restricted and will probably be seldom encountered. If a manufacturer or supplier quotes mF he means μ F.

Metallised polyester types are suitable for all our projects unless specific types are given and providing the specified value is available.

Q. and A.

As a follow up to D. Hill's letter in the February issue of EVERYDAY ELECTRONICS, I wish to endorse his suggestion of a Question and Answers section. *Readers' Letters* and Shop Talk are most helpful, but with a Question and Answer section short and to the point, more information could be conveyed, e.g. your abbreviations section is a perfect example as, to a beginner such as myself, a quotation such as s.r.b.p. is double dutch. Belated congratulations on your magazine, which through the *Teach-In* series gives a welcome lead-in to electronics.

W. McLintock Londonderry, N. Ireland.

It seems that a number of readers would like such a page and we will be looking into the possibility of including this item in future.

No Waa !

I am writing to you to see if you could possibly help me. In this month's edition of EVERYDAY ELECTRONICS, you featured a circuit for a Waa-Waa Pedal, which I have built, but unfortunately I cannot get it to function properly. Every time I. press the pedal down, all that happens is that I get a very slight increase in volume, and when I bring the pedal back, I get a slight decrease in volume.

I have checked the circuit that many times now that I am beginning to give up hope.

R. Templeton Melton Mowbray.

If you have checked out the circuit, paying special attention to transistor lead connections and capacitor polarities, and everything is correct, then we suggest that you experiment with the value of capacitor C2 (part of the filter network) as its value is critical.

If, for example, its value is too low due to a high tolerance figure, then the peak of the filter characteristic curve, Fig. 1 will be at too high a frequency—beyond or at the top end of the guitar upper scale.

Try increasing the value of C2 in small steps. This can be done by placing a capacitor across the one already in circuit. Capacitors in parallel are additive.

Astron

May I as a complete stranger to the world of electronics, congratulate you on your magazine EVERYDAY ELECTRONICS. I have followed with interest your magazine from its conception, especially your Teach-In. I dared experiment with anything not vou published in case I made a hash of it But after following your instructions on how to build the Astron radio I was honestly surprised with the results I achieved. James McFadden Belfast.

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$\frac{1}{4}$ 10% 1Ω 10Ω EI2 6p 5.5p Quantity price applies for any selection. Ignore fractions on total order.	$\begin{array}{c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c c $
DEVELOPMENT PACK 0-5 watt 5% Iskra resistors 5 off each value 4·7Ω to 1MΩ. E12 pack 325 resistors £2·40. E24 pack 650 resistors £4·70.	ELECTROLYTIC CAPACITORS
POTENTIOMETERS Carbon track 54Ω to 2 ^M Ω, log or linear (log ‡W, lin ‡W). Single, 12p. Dual gang (stereo), 40p. Single D.P. switch 24p.	125/10, 200/10, 2-5/16, 10/16, 20/16, 40/16, 80/16, 125/16, 1-6/25, 6-4/25, 12-5/25, 25/25, 50/25, 80/25, 1/40, 4/40, 8/40, 16/40, 32/40, 50/40, 0-64/64, 2-5/64, 5/64, 10/64 20/64, 32/64.
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2N1639 2N1701 1	5%p	2N 3856	80p	40467A	35p	BCY30	800	B8 Y 32	255	OC42	40p	PCH121 105	p nrceou	75p	TAA310 125p	6F14 6F15	650 EI	AF42 B91	80p	PL83 PL84	40p
2N1711 2N1889	24 p 82 p	2N 3858 2N 3858/	20p	40528	57p	BCY31 BCY32	60p	B8 ¥ 36	201	0C45	12p	FCH141 105	p PA230	140p	TAA350 175p	6F18 6F23	50p El 85p El	BC41 BC81	559 30p	PL500 PL504	75p 80p
2N1893 2N2147	87p 72p	2N3859 2N3859/	27p 32p	40603 AC107	50p 30p	BCY33 BCY34	30p 35p	BSY38 BSY39	20; 22;	0C46 0C70	15p 15p	FCH151 105 FCH161 50	p PA234 p PA237	92p 210p	TAA521 132p	6H6 6J4	17p EI 50p EI	BF80 BF83	40p	PY32 PY33	55p 63p
2N2160 2N2193	57p	2N3860 2N3866	30p 150p	AC126 AC127	20p 24p	BCY38 BCY39	45p 60p	BSY43 BSY51	50p 32p	0C71 0C72	12p 12p	FCH171 105 FCH181 105	p PA246 p PA424	160p 235p	TAA522 360p TAA530 495p	6J5 6J5GT	25p E1 80p E1	BF89 BL21	32p	PY80 PY81	40p
2N2193A 2N2194	42p	2N3877	40p	AC128 AC151	20p	BCY40 BCY41	50 p 15 p	BSY52 BSY53	821	OC73 OC74	80p	FCH191 105 FCH201 180	p PA264 p PA265	190p 200p	TAB101 97p	6J6 6.17	20p E0	C86	80p	PY82 PV83	850
2N2194A 2N2217	30p	2N3900	37p	AC152	22p	BCY42 BCY43	150	B8Y54 B8Y56	40	OC75 OC76	25p	FCH211 130 FCH221 130	p SN7400 p SN7401	20p	TAD100 150p	6K8G	40p E0	CC40	65 p	PY88	400
2N2218 2N2219	20p	2N3901	97p	AC176	20p	BCY54 BCY58	32p	B8Y79 B8Y90	45	0077	40p	FCH231 150 FCH101 160	p 8N7402	20p	8L403D 150p 8L702C 147p	6LD20	50p E0	0085	40p	PY801	500
2N2220	25p	2N3904	25p	AC188	25p	BCY59	220	B8 Y95A	121	OC81	20p	FCJ111 150	P 8N7404	20p	UA702A 280p	68A7	40p E0	CF80	85p	U25 U26	800
2N22221 2N22222	20p	2N 3905 2N 3906	250	ACY18	24p	BCY70	15p	C450	15	OC82	25p	FCJ131 275	P BN7406	80p	UA703C 187p	6807 68J7	40p E0	CF82 CF86	35p 65p	U50 U52	801
2N2222A 2N2297	20p	2N4059	100	ACY20	200	BCY72	150	GET113	25	0C82D	25p	FCJ201 100	p 8N7409	200	UA710C 125p	68K7 68L7	40p E0 35p E0	CH21 CH35	57p 100p	U191 U281	751
2N2368 2N2369	10p 15p	2N4060 2N4061	12p	ACY21 ACY22	20p	BCY78 BCY79	30p	GETIIS	201	0C34	25p 25p	FCK101 480	p 8N7411	23p	UA723C 162p	68N7 68Q7	35p E4 40p E4	CH42 CH81	75p 30p	U282 U301	40r 40p
2N2369A 2N2410	15p 42p	2N4062 2N4244	12p 47p	ACY28 ACY39	17p 47p	BCZ10 BCZ11	27p 40p	GET120 GET873	201	OC140 OC170	40p 25p	FCY101 102	p 8N7413	30p 20p	UA741C 87p	6U4 6V60	65p E4	CH83 CL80	45p	U801 UABC8	£1 .80
2N2483 2N2484	27p 32p	2N4248 2N4249	15p	ACY 40 ACY 41	14p 15p	BD112 BD116	50p 112p	GET880 GET887	451	0C171 0C200	80p 40p	BRIDGE		50 PI	V 4A 60p	6V6QT 6X4	32p E4	CL82 CL83	35p	UAF42 UBC41	555
2N2539 2N2540	22p 22p	2N 4250 2N 4254	18p 42p	ACY44 AD140	25p 47p	BD121 BD123	65p 80p	GET889 GET890	221	0C201 0C202	75p 80p	PLASTIC		200 PI	IV 4A 70 p	6X5G 6X5GT	30p E4	CL86	40p	UBC81 UBF80	40
2N2613 2N2614	85p 30p	2N 4255 2M 4284	429	AD149 AD150	47p 62p	BD124 BD131	75p	GET896 GET897	221	0C203 0C204	40p	600 PIV 1	50p	50 PI	IV 6A 62p	10C2	50p E	F39	50p	UBF89	85
2N2646 2N2711	47p 25p	2N4285 2N4286	170	AD161 AD162	35p 85p	BD132 BDY10	80p	GET898	221	OC205 OC206	75p	50 PIV 2.	60p	200 PI	V 6A 75p	10P13	60p E	F41	65p	UCC85	40
2N2712 9N2713	25p	2N4287	170	AF109	45p	BDY20 BDY61	105p	MAT10	25	OC207	75p	400 PIV 2.	65p 75p	400 PI	IV 6A 100p	12476	30p E	F'80	250	UCH21	601
2N2714 2N2904	30p	2N 4289	120	AF115	25p	BDY62	100p	MAT12	107	ORP12	50p	SILICON R	ECTIFIER	8	DBLARTIC	12AU7	30p E	F86	30p	UCH81	401
2N2904A	25p	2N4291	150	AF117	20p	BF117	47p	MJ 420	80	ORP61	42p	MINIATOA	IN	P		12AX7 12AV6	40p E	F91	28p 30p	UCL82	601
2N2905A	20p	2N4294	170	AF121	30p	BF154	20p	MJ430	102	8T140	150		1 AM	P 1.5	AMP 3 AMP	12BA6 12BE6	40p E	F92 F183	35p 35p	UF41 UF80	851
2N2906A	25p	2N4964	15	AF125	19p	BF159	850	MJ480	97	T1834	62p	4001 50PTV 4002 100PT	v 7p		9p 20p	128H7 19AQ5	45p E 35p E	F184 H90	35p 40p	UP85 UF89	401
2N2907 2N2923	23p 15p	2N 4905 2N 5027	520	AF120 AF127	16p	BF167	25p	MJ490	100	TI844	12p	4003 200P1 4004 400P1	V 80 V 80	1	10p 22p	20D1 20F2	50p E. 65p E.	L34 L33	50p £1-25	UL41 UL84	651
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2N29260 2N29260	12p 12p	2N 5030 2N 5172	421	AF179 AF180	40p	BF177 BF178	30p 25p	MJE370 MJE371	80	T1847	12p 12p	4007 1000P 50+	IV 15p less 15%	1 100 + 1	L6р 30р Ісвя 20%	20P3 20P4	60p E.	L81	55p 25p	VR105/ VR150/	30 381
2N2926Y 2N3011	12p 20p	2N5174 2N5175	521	AF181 AF186	40p 39p	BF179 BF180	30p 35p	MJ E520 MJ E521	75	TI849	12p 12p	5	ILICON B	ECTI	FIERS	20P5	21.20 E	L85	43p	Add 12	p in i
2N3014 2N3053	25p 20p	2N5176 2N5232	450	AF239 AF279	30p	BF181 BF182	35p 30p	MPF10 MPF10	2 421 3 85	T1851 T1852	10p 11p		STUD M	10A	17-5A 35A	DIOD	ES & RI	ECTI	FIER	5 5	- aye
2N3054 2N3055	49p 72p	2N5245 2N5246	45	AF280 AF211	47p 32p	BF184 BF185	20p	MPF10 MPF10	87	TI853	22p	100PIV 200PIV	25p	45p 50p	50p £1.22 55p £1.42	1N34A 1N914	10p B	A154 AX13	12p	GJ7M OA5	871
2N3133 2N3134	25p	2N5249 2N5265	671	ASY26	250	BF194 BF195	150	MP8363 NKT12	8 82	XC141	85p	400P1V 600PIV	80p 32p	55p 60p	82p £1-77 72p £2-12	1N916 AA119	10p B	AX16	7p 7p	0A6 0A10	121
2N3135	25p	2N5305	87	A8 Y28	240	BF196	150	NKT12	5 27	ZTX10	8 12p	800PIV 1000PIV	85p 40p	75p 85p	87p 22.47 21.05 29.77	AA129	10p B	AY38	15p	0A9 0A47	10
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2N3394 2N3402	15p 22p	2N5355 2N5356	271	ASZ21 AUY10	51p 150p	BF238 BF244	22p 32p	NKT21 NKT21	2 30 3 80	P ZTX 50 P ZTX 50	0 15p 1 15p	25 + 16	as 15% 10	0 + lei	sa 20%	BA112 BA115	70p B 7p B	¥164 ¥210	57p 35p	0A90 0A91	81
2N3403 2N3404	22p 32p	2N5365 2N5366	47	BC107 BC108	10p 10p	BFW61 BFW87	475	NKT21 NKT21	4 20 5 22	P ZTX 50 2TX 50	2 20p 3 17p	25 + 15%;	100 + 20%	Gany	- 12 + 10%; one type. Post-	BA141 BA142	82p B 32p B	YZ11 YZ12	30p 30p	0A95 0A200	71
2N3405 2N3414	45p 22p	2N5367 2N5457	57	BC109 BC113	100	BFW88 BFW89	23p 20p	NKT21 NKT21	6 35 7 40	ZTX 50 ZTX 53	4 40p 1 25p	S.A.E. FOR	FULL L	stors.	7p extra.	BA144 BA145	12p B 20p B	YZ13 YZ16	25p 40p	OA202 OA210	10p 17p
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AAY30 10p BD115 78p OC16 50p 2N1303 18p AAY42 18p BD123 85p OC20 85p 2N1304 2p AA213 10p BD124 86p OC23 50p 2N1304 2p AA213 10p BD131 75p OC23 60p 2N1306 2p AA215 10p BD132 80p OC24 60p 2N1307 25p AA217 10p BD132 80p OC24 60p 2N1307 25p	BRAND NEW FULL SPECIFICATION TTL74 SERIES BRANDED FAIRCHILD, I.T.T. AND TEXAS DEVICES MAY BE MIXED TO QUALIFY FOR QUANTITY PRICES No. Description 1-11 12-24 25-00 100+ 250+ 7400 Quadruple 2-input NAND gates 200 180 140 140 120 7401 Quadruple 2-input NAND gates 200 180 140 140 120	AF117 Mullard 20p 25 + 17p 100 + 15p 500 + 12p 1000 + 10p
AC126 30p 41.50 OC26 250 2N1306 26p AC127 250 BDY17 OC28 60p 2N1309 25p AC1272 50p 41.50 OC29 60p 2N1309 25p AC1272 50p BDY38 65p OC35 60p 2N1417 75p AC176 20p BDY38 65p OC36 60p 2N1417 75p AC176 20p BDY36 4100 OC43 60p 2N217 25p AC187 25p AC187 25p BP114 65p OC45 50p 2N217 25p AC187 25p AC198 25p BP114 65p OC45 50p 2N217 25p	7402 Quad 2-input NOR gates 20p 18p 19p 14p 18p 7403 Quad 2-input open collector NAD gates 20p 18p 16p 14p 18p 7404 Hextuple laverters 20p 18p 16p 14p 18p 7404 Hextuple laverters 20p 18p 16p 14p 18p 7405 Hextuple laverters 20p 18p 16p 14p 18p 7410 Triple 3-input NAND gates 20p 18p 16p 14p 12p 7413 Dual 4-input Bchmitt triggers 30p 27p 28p 20p 14p 12p 7420 Dual 4-input AAND gates 20p 18p 14p 12p 24p	2N2646 Motorola 40p 25 + 35p 100 + 32p 500 + 28p 1000 + 25p
ACT18 250 DC44 150 27/2218A ACT18 250 BF164 260 OC45 120 250 ACT39 250 BF164 150 OC70 120 21/2219 200 ACT30 250 BF168 150 OC70 120 21/2219 200 ACT30 250 BF158 150 OC72 200 2550 21/2210 ACT32 200 BF198 150 OC72 200 2550 21/2220 255 ACT32 200 BF196 150 OC76 255 21/2221 200 ACT32 200 BF196 150 OC76 255 21/2221 200 ACT39 450 BF196 150 OC76 250 21/2221 200 ACT49 300 BF196 150 OC77 400 21/2221 200	7430 Bingle 8-input NAND gates 20p 18p 14p 14p 14p 14p 14p 14p 14p </td <td>OC170 Mullard 25p 25 + 20p 100 + 18p 500 + 15p 1000 + 13p</td>	OC170 Mullard 25p 25 + 20p 100 + 18p 500 + 15p 1000 + 13p
ACT41 150 BF197 150 OC81 200 2N2222 200 ACT44 150 BFX19 250 OC81 200 2N2222 200 AD140 500 BFX19 250 OC81 200 2N2222 200 AD140 500 BFX30 250 OC81 200 2N2222A AD140 500 BFX30 250 OC84 250 2N2369 254 AD161 350 BFX34 250 OC130 250 2N2369 150 AD161 350 BFX36 300 OC130 250 2N2369 150 AD142 350 BFX36 300 OC130 250 2N2369 150 AD142 350 BFX86 300 OC130 250 2N2369 150 AD145 S50 BFX86 400 150 150 150 150 150	7461 Dual 2-wide 2-input AND-OR-INVERT gates 200 159 149 129 7453 Quad 2-input AND-OR-INVERT gates 200 189 169 149 129 7454 Quad 2-input aND-OR-INVERT gates 200 189 169 149 129 7454 4-wide 2-input AND-OR-INVERT gates 200 189 169 149 129 7456 4-wide 2-input AND-OR-INVERT gates 200 189 169 149 129 7456 4-wide 2-input AND-OR-INVERT gates 200 189 169 149 129 7456 Jungle J-K flip-foo (gated inputs)	BY127 Mullard 159 25 + 12p 100 + 10p 500 + 9p 1000 + 8p
AP116 250 BFX87 280 OCC141 600 212/2464 600 AP116 250 BFX86 250 OCC170 250 28/2904 200 AP116 250 BFX86 250 OCC171 300 28/2904 200 AP118 600 BFY16 250 OCC200 400 250 28/290 250 28/29	2774 Dual D flip flop 40p 37p 33p 33p 33p 7475 Quadruple bistable tack 45p 45p 45p 45p 35p 25p 23p 23p 24p	OC35 Mullard 50p 25 + 45p 100 + 40p 500 + 35p 1000 + 30p
AF139 300 B8X20 150 ORF12 500 212907 2006A AF180 500 B8X21 200 ORF60 400 255 AF181 450 B8X21 200 ORF60 400 255 AF184 50 B8X21 150 81141 200 202907 230 AF185 500 B8796 129 TIF29A 500 250 212907 240 AF186 600 B8796 129 TIF29A 500 250 212907 250 AF186 600 B8796 129 TIF29A 600 250 212907 250 21007 21007 250 21007 <td>7484 16-bit BAN with gated write inputs 90p 85p 80p 75p 71p 7486 Qualrupte 2-input Exclusive OR gates 45p 41p 38p 33p 7490 BCD decade counter 75p 70p 65p 60p 65p 7491 8-bit shift register 21.00 65p 90p 80p 70p 7492 10-bit Bary counter 75p 70p 65p 60p 55p 7493 4-bit shift register 75p 70p 65p 60p 56p 7493 4-bit binary counter 75p 70p 65p 60p 56p 7494 Dual entry 4-bit shift register 80p 70p 65p 60p 56p</td> <td>2N2926 Green 10p 25 + 9p 100 + 8p 500 + 6p 1000 + 5p</td>	7484 16-bit BAN with gated write inputs 90p 85p 80p 75p 71p 7486 Qualrupte 2-input Exclusive OR gates 45p 41p 38p 33p 7490 BCD decade counter 75p 70p 65p 60p 65p 7491 8-bit shift register 21.00 65p 90p 80p 70p 7492 10-bit Bary counter 75p 70p 65p 60p 55p 7493 4-bit shift register 75p 70p 65p 60p 56p 7493 4-bit binary counter 75p 70p 65p 60p 56p 7494 Dual entry 4-bit shift register 80p 70p 65p 60p 56p	2N2926 Green 10p 25 + 9p 100 + 8p 500 + 6p 1000 + 5p
ASY27 Sop BY100 ASP TIF31A GUD 217/2726 216 ASY27 ASOP BY126 LSp TIF32A 70p 2N3011 200 ASY27 BOP BY126 LSp TIF32A 70p 2N3063 260 ASY28 250p BY124 LSp TIF32A 2N3063 260 ASY28 250p BY124 LSp TIF32A 2N3063 260 ASY28 250p BY120 S5p TIF32A 2N3063 260 ASZ23 55p BY210 S5p TIF32A 2N3055 758 BA100 L50 BY213 S0p TI645 405 2N3052 BA100 LS0p BY213 S0p TI645 405 2L AN344 AN4	7495 4-bit up-down shift register 80p 75p 75p 85p 80p 7496 5-bit parallel/wriai in/out shift register 11.00 87p 95p 95p 95p 95p 95p 83p 74108 5-bit parallel/wriai in/out shift register 12.00 87p 95p 95p 93p 83p 74p 83p 90p 83p 74p 83p 90p 83p 70p 81p 70p 81p 90p 70p 74p 74p </td <td>BC107 All Makes 10p 25 + 8p 100 + 7p 500 + 6p 1000 + 5p</td>	BC107 All Makes 10p 25 + 8p 100 + 7p 500 + 6p 1000 + 5p
BAI15 70 BZY7841-00 71851 100 2N3702 100 BAX15 50 GET102 250 T1852 100 2N3703 100 BAX16 70 GET102 250 T1852 100 2N3703 100 BAX16 70 GET102 250 T1852 100 2N3704 120 BAX16 70 GET114 250 T1861 200 2N3705 100 BAX38 150 GET114 250 T1862 251 2N3705 100 BC107 105 GET114 250 T1862 251 2N3705 100 BC108 100 GET114 200 V405A 253 2N3708 100 BC108 100 GET114 200 V405A 253 2N3714	74150 16-bit data selector/multiplexer	2N3055 Fairchild 75p 5 25 + 65p 5 100 + 50p 5 500 + 40p 0 1000 + 33p
DC109 Dp GET116 S5p WO1 S0p 42:00 DC109C Lpp GET884 S0p ZTX107 15p 45p 20.8715 DC114 20p GEX580 S0p ZTX107 15p 42:00 DC114 20p GEX582 S0p ZTX108 15p 21.3716 BC116 20p GEX560 ZTX109 15p 42.8716 BC116 20p GM376A 55p ZTX300 15p 21.3771 BC116A 25p MAT101 25p ZTX301 15p 42.70 BC117 20m MAT101 25p ZTX301 5p 42.70	74192 Byne decade up-down counter, 2-line mode 12:00 11:00 11:00 11:05 11:50 11:05	5 0 BYZIJ Mullard 25p 25 + 20p 100 + 17p 500 + 15p 1000 + 12p
BC118 200 MC734P 600 ZTX303 200 213 220 213 220 213 220 213 220 213 213 220 213 213 220 213 213 220 213 <th< td=""><td>INTEGRATED CIRCUITS MPC4000P MPC4000P 10C12 PA246 12 CIRCUIT 3 Wait Amplifier Studier Studier Studier Studier Studier Studier Studier Studier P.I. Current 1-1 Type volts Studier Stud</td><td>$\begin{array}{c c} 0A202 & 10p \\ 25 + 8p \\ 100 + 7p \\ 500 + 6p \\ 1000 + 5p \end{array}$</td></th<>	INTEGRATED CIRCUITS MPC4000P MPC4000P 10C12 PA246 12 CIRCUIT 3 Wait Amplifier Studier Studier Studier Studier Studier Studier Studier Studier P.I. Current 1-1 Type volts Studier Stud	$\begin{array}{c c} 0A202 & 10p \\ 25 + 8p \\ 100 + 7p \\ 500 + 6p \\ 1000 + 5p \end{array}$
BC147 129 MJ E340 509 TX 531 289 807 BC148 107 MJ E370 800 IN914 79 2N3824 859 BC148 107 MJ E371 809 IN914 79 2N3803 209 BC153 200 MJ E371 807 IN914 79 2N3803 209 BC153 200 MJ E371 709 IN448 79 2N3805 259 BC163 200 MJ E371 709 IN444 79 2N3805 250 BC164 200 MJ E371 709 IN444 79 2N3805 250 BC164 107 MJ E2905 18921 79 2N4061 129 BC169 129 31.10 18922 89 2N4063 129	TAD100 £1-50 £1-50ea. SC35B 200 3 amps 86 MC774P 50p 709C (T05) 75p ZENER DIODES 8C405 400 3 amps 90 709C (T05) 45p 24 + + + + 8C405 400 6 amps 8100 8C409 400 6 amps 8100 723C(T05) 5100 400m/s 24 + + + + 8C455 A100 10 amps 8100	0C28 Mullard 60p 25 + 55p 100 + 50p 500 + 45p 1000 + 40p
BC109C 15p MLE3055 26301 25p 2N4289 12p BC177 20p 73p 2G302 30p 2N4280 12p BC177 20p 73p 2G302 30p 2N4280 12p BC178 20p 75p 2G302 30p 2N4471 35p BC178 20p MF8A76 20p 2N4567 30p 2N4577 30p BC182L 10p MF8A70 15p 2N6567 15p 2N6458 36p BC184L 12p MF8U650p 2N697 15p 2N6458 45p BC184L 12p MF8U656p 2N697 15p 2N6453 45p BC184L 12p MF8U656p 2N697 15p 2N6453 50p	7410,1003 80p B2.1 88 12p 10p 8p 7p 6p SC45B 200 10 smps 41:1 MC1303P £2.00 series ³ 12p 10p 8p 7p 6p SC45B 400 10 smps 41:2 MC1304P £2.95 11 watt SC50 A 100 15 smps 41:2 SL403D £1.95 ZL series 25p 23p 20p 17p 15p SC50 A 100 15 smps 41:3 741C(DIL) 75p 3 watt 30p 27p 25p 22p 20p SC50D 400 15 smps 41:4 914(T05) 40p 30T zeries 30p 27p 25p 22p 20p SC50D 400 15 smps 41:4 923(T05) 40p 10 watt Z8 series 40p 27p 33s 30p 95n SC40E 500 6 amps 41:2	2N3819 Texas 35p 25 + 30p 100 + 25p 500 + 20p 1000 + 17p
BC212L L2p NKT214 20p 2N706 10p 40360 40p BC213L L2p NKT214 20p 2N706 10p 40360 40p BC213L L5p NKT416 35p 2N706 12p 40364 40p BC213L L5p NKT404 75p 2N706 15p 40364 50p BCY30 Sp NKT404 75p 2N706 15p 4005 4006 4006 40 60 60 60 60 40 40 40 40 60 40 60 40 60 40 60 40 60 40 60 40 60 40 60 40 60 40 60 <	LOSHIDA Zawrien Tup avp avp avp avp avp avp avp avp avp av	8C108 and 9 All Makes 10p 25 + 8p 100 + 7p 500 + 6p 1000 + 5p
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