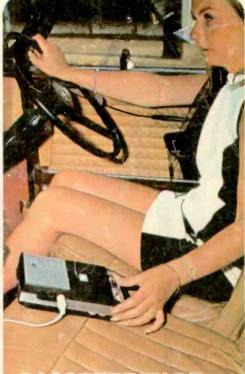
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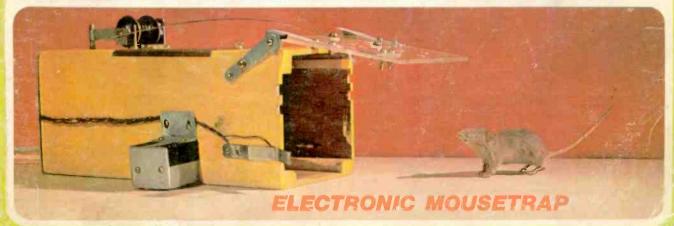


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systems, giving 7½V, stabilised £3.25
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D.I.N. 6 pin D.I.N. 6 pin
Jack, 2 mm unscreened
Jack, 2 mm screened
Jack, 3 mm unscreened
Jack, 3 mm screened
Jack, 4 m unscreened
Jack, 4 m unscreened
Jack, 5 m screened
Jack, 5 m screened
Jack, 5 m screened
Jack, 5 m screened
Phono, plasted top
Phono, fitted 4 ft lead
Wander, red or black
Banana 4 mm, red or black

LINE SOCKETS Car aerial

Co-axial
D.I.N. 2 pin (speaker)
D.I.N. 3 pin
D.I.N. 5 pin, 180
D.I.N. 5 pin, 240 Jack, 3½mm -Jack, ½in screened Jack, stereo, screened Phono, plated metal

SOCKETS

0.00274F

SOCKETS
Car aerial
Co-axial, surface
Co-axial, flush
D.I.N. 2 pin (speaker)
D.I.N. 3 pin
D.I.N. 5 pin, 180
D.I.N. 5 pin, 240
Jack, 2 mm
Jack, 3 mm
Jack, 4 in unswitched
Jack, stereo, switched
Jack, stereo, switched
Phono, single Jack, stereo, switched Phono, single Phono, 2 on a strip Phono, 3 on a strip Phono, 4 on a strip Wander, single, red or black Wander, twin strip Banana 4mm red, or black

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S/M = silver mica 1% tol.

P.S. = polystyrene 2½% tol.

MDC—a.c. rating = 300V.

M.F. = Mullard min. foil.

Cer. = ceramic. 0-0015µF 0-0018µF 0-002µF 0-0022µF 0-0022µF 0-0022µF 100 500 V Mylar Cer. P.S. S/M MDC IOOV 3p 5p 500V

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using the highly efficient I.C. monolithic power chips to ensure very low distortion at all power levels, correct operation in all ambient temperatures, full power over the audio spectrum.

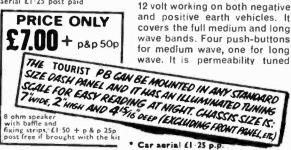


See below for address.

Apart from the output stage, which is an integrated circuit, the only other electronic components that need soldering are some capacitors, resistors, etc. The kit includes a prebuilt RF tuner unit, and fully modulised IF stages which are pre-aligned before despatch. As well as electronic components, this kit also contains 2 diamond-spun aluminium knobs, elegant matching front panel, dial, washers, screws and wire.

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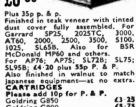
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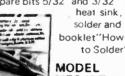
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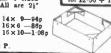
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PROJECTS... THEORY...

THE GOAL

As a hobby, electronics offers the ordinary person opportunity for involvement at different levels. The mathematically-inclined applying themselves to the resolution of intricate points of circuit design from first principles, the experimenters seeking the same end but depending largely upon cut and try methods, and the constructors pure and simple relying entirely upon published designs-all of these derive enjoyment and satisfaction from their labours.

The initial approach to the subject may differ, but the final goal for all is the completion of some item of electronic equipment which will be a rewarding achievement in itself, as well as being a device of practical worth.

CONSTRUCTORS

EVERYDAY ELECTRONICS is chiefly concerned with the "constructors" (who should take no offence from the "pure and simple" definition given above!) and especially with those having little or no previous knowledge of electronics.

It is abundantly clear that there are thousands who have been fascinated by what they have read or heard concerning this all powerful, all embracing technology, and who have eagerly seized the opportunity provided by Everyday ELECTRONICS to use their hands and develop some skill in this branch of light engineering, so admirably suited to table top operators.

NOT DESIGNS, ALONE

We referred to three classes of enthusiasts in

our opening paragraph. This division is of course a broad generalisation, but is substantially true. Our concern for the constructors does not end with the publication of designs with every detail clearly laid out. We appreciate the need for simple yet authoriative explanations of circuit theory. A sound knowledge of at least elementary theory is desirable, even for those whose chief interest is in the practical assembly work.

The Teach-In series which concludes with this month's article has been widely acclaimed in our post bag. This series has undoubtedly opened the door of electronics to thousands of novices. The awareness of what is happening in a circuit gives extra interest to the subject, and often will provide the urge to learn more. And that's not a bad thing.

PERSONAL CHOICE

We do always remember however that a hobby is first and foremost an activity indulged in for pleasure and recreation. How much time one is able or prepared to devote to it and how seriously one takes it, are all matters for each individual to decide for himself.

It is this freedom of choice, and the absence of rules and constraints governing one's activity which sets a hobby apart from a routine job of work.

Our November issue will be published on Friday, October 15

Feel Bennett

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.. EASY TO CONSTRUCT ... SIMPLY EXPLAINED



VOL. I NO. 12

OCTOBER 1972

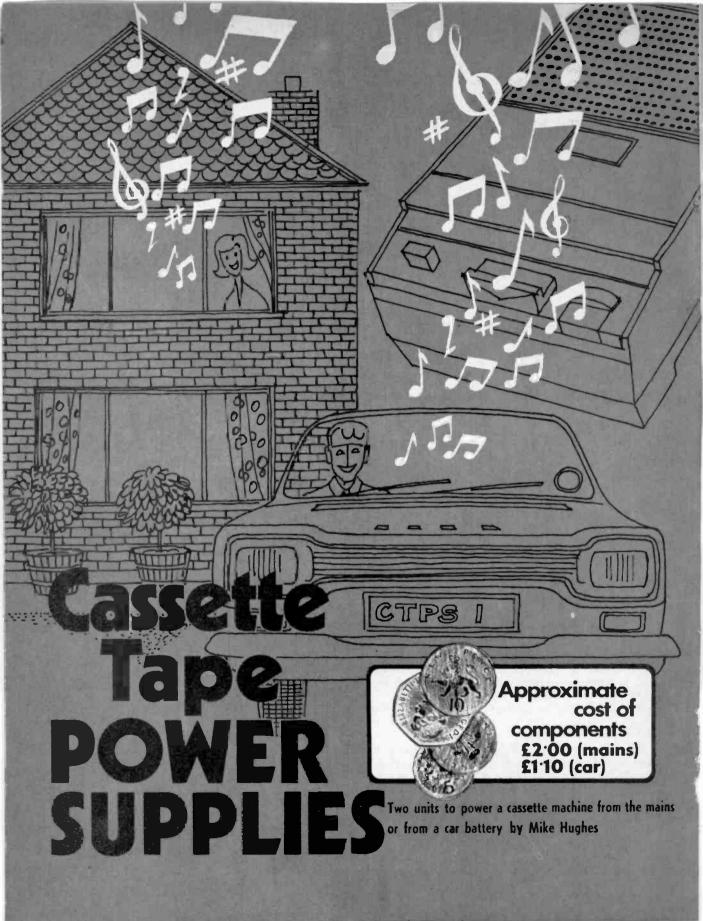
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The thousands of users of cassette tape recorders will know how useful it is to have a battery operated unit but will also be aware of the cost and comparatively short life of the internal battery supply. The recorder manufacturers have gone a long way to relieving the situation with clever design to keep current consumption to a minimum; nevertheless ten hours of intermittent operation seems to be a typical endurance.

This article describes two forms of auxiliary supply which are both simple to make and give excellent results; the first is a straightforward mains powered "battery eliminator" and the second provides a stabilised supply from a 12V car electrical system (operating from positive and negative earthed systems).

OUTPUT

Both units are designed to give a nominal output of 7.5V at currents up to about 200mA. This is the typical supply requirement of the Philips range of small cassette recorders. It is quite likely that the units could power other makes of equipment but the reader should read the manufacturers literature carefully to double check the voltage and current required.

The unit that interfaces with the car electrical system has the ability of providing a range of output voltages (from 7V to 9V at 200mA) hence is comparatively versatile and will probably drive most forms of transistorised radio, tape recorder or record player.

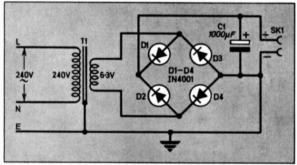


Fig. 1. Complete circuit diagram of the mains powered Cassette Tape Power Supply.

MAINS UNIT

The circuit for the mains unit is shown in Fig. 1 and is a simple unstabilised "sagging" supply. We call it sagging because the output voltage is to some extent dependent on the amount of current being drawn. Up to 200mA no noticeable effect on reproduction quality should be experienced.

Transformer T1 is a small 6.3V heater transformer the output of which is full-wave rectified by the diode bridge D1, 2, 3 and 4. Theoretically the output voltage of the bridge (when smoothed by capacitor C1) will equal the

peak voltage $(6.3 \times 1.4 = 8.8V)$; this is in excess of that required. However we are using silicon rectifiers for the bridge and these will introduce a forward voltage drop bringing the output voltage down to between 7.5 and 8.0V. By the time a load is applied the output will fall to a nominal value of about 7.5V.

With the cassette recorder operating on its own internal speaker no hum is noticed even though the smoothing capacitor C1 is only $1,000\mu$ F. If, however, the audio output is to be amplified through a higher quality amplifier it would be worth considering increasing the value of C1 to about 5.000μ F.

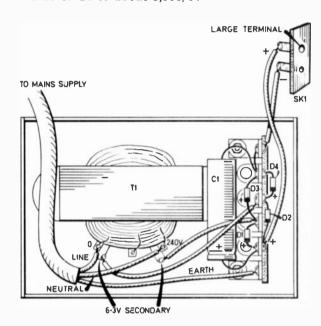


Fig. 2. Construction of the mains unit. Both the case and the negative supply rail are earthed via the earth wire in the mains lead.

CONSTRUCTION

Construction is shown in Fig. 2. The prototype case is a commercial design but could easily be fabricated out of 20 s.w.g. aluminium. Make absolutely sure that the terminations of the transformer do not touch the inside of the lid and ensure that an earth lead is provided. The negative side of the output should also be connected back to the chassis—and hence earth—for safety reasons. No on/off switch or indicator light was fitted on the prototype but these could be installed on the mains side of the transformer (a mains neon indicator may be used for the lamp) if required.

The output voltage is made available at a polarised output socket (i.e., one which will accept a plug one way round only) the type used in the prototype is a simple extension loud-speaker socket—the large contact being taken as positive.

Cassette tape POWER SUPPLIES

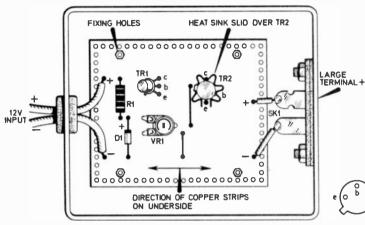


Fig. 4. The components mounted in position on the Veroboard inside the prototype case (Fig. 5.) Note the direction of the copper strips of the Veroboard—there are no cut-outs on these strips.

e 0 0 0 BC108
BSY 81
BFY 51

ARALDITE USED TO SEAL THESE CORNERS AFTER FIXING SCREWS
BENDING

1"INSIDE

23/6 INSIDE

23/6 INSIDE

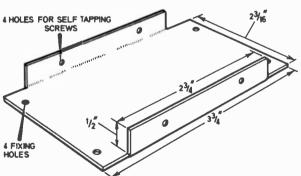


Fig. 5 (above). Dimensions and details of the prototype case used for housing the car unit. A suitable material is 20 s.w.g. aluminium.

Photograph of the assembled car unit with base removed.

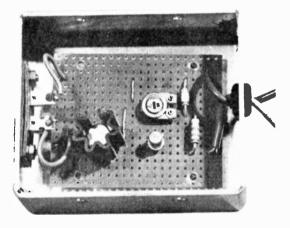
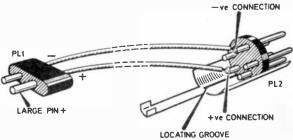


Fig. 6 (below). Details of the supply connection to a 5-pin DIN plug.



Components SEE

Mains Supply

Diodes

D1	1N4001)					
D2	1 N4001	or	any	1A,	50	p.i.v.	silicon
D3	1N4001		ectifi				
D4	1 N4001	j					

Transformer

T1 240V primary, 6·3V 1A secondary (small heater transformer)

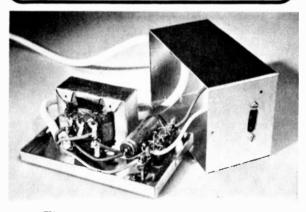
Capacitor

C1 1,000µF elect. 12V (see text)

Miscellaneous

SK1 polarised panel mounting socket (loudspeaker type) Aluminium case (approx. 4in x $2\frac{1}{2}$ in x 2in—depending on transformer size), tag strip with 4 insulated and 2 grounded tags, $\frac{3}{2}$ in grommet, mains lead and three pin plug fused at 2A, connecting wire, 4BA fixings.

Components Common To Both Projects
Polarised loudspeaker plug (to suit SK1),
5 pin, 240 degree, DIN plug (for connection to
recorder), two core connecting wire (length
as required).



The construction of the mains unit.

CAR UNIT

The problem with running anything from a car's electrical system is that the voltage level (nominally 12V) varies quite considerably depending on the state of charge of the accumulator and the rate of charge from the generator or alternator.

Sometimes it might rise to as high as 15V. Thus we have to introduce some form of stabilisation as well as drop the level to that required by our equipment. We will use the circuit shown in Fig. 3. On the face of it, it may look extravagant using two transistors as well as a Zener diode but all the components are relatively

cheap and using a second transistor enables us to use a preset variable potentiometer (VR1) to set any output voltage we require between zero and 9V.

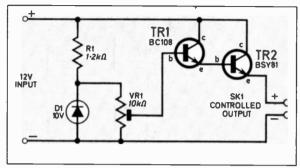


Fig. 3. Complete circuit diagram of car Cassette Tape Power Supply.

OPERATION

The Zener diode that supplies the reference voltage should have a value of approximately 10V. Certainly its value should not be greater than 10·5V and if less than 10V it will not be possible to get output voltages as high as 9V. Preset potentiometer VR1 provides a well defined reference voltage that can be set between zero and the full Zener level. This provides a small drive current into the base of TR1 the emitter current of which provides a much greater drive into the base of TR2 which is operating as a series stabiliser.

The combination of TR1 and TR2 in this configuration is sometimes called a Darlington pair. We need the intermediary action of TR1 because the current available from the Zener diode circuit—in particular when VR1 is set at a low voltage level—is small and the current gain of TR2 in isolation would not be sufficient if we wished to draw up to the 200mA specified.

No smoothing is required in this circuit because we are already operating from d.c. but if the stabiliser is to be used for powering a radio it might be worth incorporating a small capacitor (say $10\mu F$) to prevent any breakthrough of car ignition interference. This should be connected across the power output leads of the unit. When the unit was used with a Philips cassette recorder no interference could be detected at all and the stabiliser even coped with the dramatic voltage drop of the car's electrical system while the starter was being operated

CONSTRUCTION

All the components are mounted on Veroboard (Fig. 4); VR1 should be a flat mounting type so that it can be adjusted after the board has been installed in the box. Make sure that the Zener diode is connected the correct way round—the banded end should be connected to R1. A finned type of heatsink should be slipped

on to the can of TR2 (the can size is TO-5). Keep the leads of the components above the board as short as possible to prevent any mechanical vibration but at the same time do not overheat

the components when soldering.

The box used in the prototype is formed from 20 s.w.g. aluminium the base being in the form of a flange (Fig. 5) which is used for fitting the unit to the bulkhead on the car. The Veroboard is bolted inside the lid on insulated spacers. Power input leads are taken out through a grommeted hole for permanent wiring to the car and the output connections terminated at a polarised socket identical to that described earlier—make sure that you keep to the same polarity convention!

Note that no electrical connections are made to the metal of the box; this enables the unit to work from either positive or negative earth cars. Before connecting up make sure you know your car's polarity otherwise you may perma-

nently damage the transistors.

SETTING UP

Before connecting up to the tape recorder set VR1 to give the output voltage required by measuring the output with a voltmeter. If you cannot get the full 9V output it means that the Zener diode has a lower breakdown than that specified; check this by measuring the potential difference across the Zener. The output voltage will always be approximately 1V less than the reference voltage set by VR1 because of the forward voltage drops of the base/emitter circuits of TR1 and TR2.

Because of the maximum dissipation of TR2 the output voltages are limited to the range 7 to 9V at up to 200mA. However, if lower voltages are required, these can be obtained by setting VR1 accordingly but the current output will not be so high. For example 100mA at 2V would be permissable and approximately 150mA at 5V.

For Philips recorders it is not necessary to incorporate any switching in the recorder itself. Inserting the DIN plug automatically cuts out the internal batteries. This may or may not be

the case with other equipment.

It is worth repeating the manufacturer's instructions that if you do not intend to use the batteries within the recorder for some period of time they should be removed to prevent any possible leakage and corrosion.

SUPPLY CONNECTION

To connect the supply to the recorder an accessory lead is made up using a polarised plug (to mate with the socket just described) and a 5-pin (240 degree) DIN plug that is accepted by the accessory input of the recorder. Make absolutely certain that you connect up to the correct pins as shown in Fig. 6.

This wiring is correct for the Philips equip-

ment and should apply to other manufacturers but you are advised to make absolutely sure by referring to the manufacturer's own leaflet or service sheet. Once this lead has been made up it can be used with either the mains or the car unit.

Components.

Car Battery Supply

Resistor R1 $1.2k\Omega \pm W + 10\%$ carbon

Variable Resistor

VR1 10k Ω skeleton preset (flat mounting type)

Semiconductors

TR1 BC108

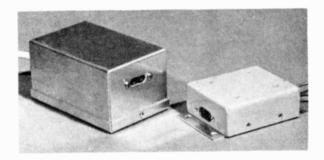
TR2 BSY81, or BFY51,

D1 10V 400mW Zener diode

Miscelianeous

SK1 polarised panel mounting socket (loudspeaker type) Veroboard 2in x 1½ in x 0-1in matrix, TO5 type heat sink (finned push on type), % in grommet, material for case (see text), connecting wire, 6BA fixings

Components Common To Both Projects
Polarised loudspeaker plug (to suit SK1),
5 pin 240 degree DIN plug (for connection to
recorder), two core connecting wire (length
as required).



AUDIO FAIR

EVERYDAY ELECTRONICS and PRACTICAL ELECTRONICS will be exhibiting at this year's International Audio Festival and Fair, Olympia London, October 23-28.

See us on Stand 19, Ground Floor.

Sound Synthesis For The Amateur is the title of a lecture/demonstration to be given by D. Shaw, contributor to PRACTICAL ELECTRONICS, on Tuesday, Oct 24 and Saturday, Oct 28 at 2 p.m.

ONCE again this month we have a couple of new products well worthy of mention so we will deal immediately with buying problems and then take a look at the products.

Just a couple of points concerning the Weather Station (August issue); first G. W. Smith have now informed us that they do not supply the case for the monitor unit and unfortunately we have been unable to find a supplier. However Garland Bross. Ltd., who advertise in our pages can supply a slope fronted case in plain aluminium. The second point is that the GL23 thermistor is available from Henry's Radio, who also take space in our issues.



Mouse Trap

A very unusual project—the Mouse Trap—but surprisingly enough one that has been in demand amongst our staff ever since the prototype was given to us by Fred Judd. Even those people who did not think they had mice (like me) have found that the Mouse Trap will catch any that are around; perhaps they are attracted by the light inside!

As far as we can see there should be no buying problems for this project. The Perspex should be available locally at a good hardware shop or from a small firm that uses it e.g. sign makers. Incidentally the door retaining wire can be made from one of the EE binder retaining wires (what a good sales gimmick!)

Easi-Binders to hold 12 issues of EVERYDAY ELECTRONICS are available from Binding Dept., IPC

Magazines Ltd., Carlton House, 68 Great Queen Street, London W.C.2. These binders are well worth having even if you are not building the *Mouse Trap*, they are finished in orange de luxe Balacron (similar to p.v.c. in appearance) and cost 88p including postage and packing.

Reactomatic

Few buying problems should be encountered when getting parts for the Reactomatic. Two things to note are that the control knob should not have any markings on it and that the lamps used are easily visible in daylight when illuminated. Those shown on the prototype proved rather difficult to see and larger types with enclosed bulbs and bigger lenses may well be better. None of the other components should be difficult to get, any type of push-tomake push button can be used.

Cassette Tape Power Supplies

The two Cassette Tape Power Supplies described are likely to be among the most popular designs we have yet published—judging by the correspondence we receive requesting such devices. They have been kept very simple in design and all the parts are easy to obtain.

The case shown for the mains unit is a "Norman case" which was purchased from Radio Component Specialists who advertise in our pages. The car unit could be put in a similar case although this is larger (4in x 212in x 2in) than that shown in the article.

If you have any difficulty getting the polarised plugs and sockets, most car accessory shops can supply them.

New Products

A new "Cassette Re-Record Kit" has recently been introduced by Bib who already make a vast range of audio accessories. The kit is designed to enable pre-recorded cassettes to be used to record on when the original material becomes outdated.

The kit contains 20 plastic inserts to press into the holes at the back of the cassette, 27 labels to stick over the existing title labels, and a tab removing tool to remove the plastic inserts on existing recorded cassettes, or the inserts in the kit, so that the



cassette can be preserved without the risk of accidental erasure after it has been recorded or rerecorded (if you can follow that).

The kit is available from most hi-fi and audio shops. The recommended retail price is 44p and full instructions for using the kit are printed on the back of the header card.

Another new product from West Hyde Developments—whose cases were mentioned last month—is what they term as a "throw away" multimeter. Primarily intended to be issued to engineers, the meter may well appeal to constructors as a cheap portable meter. The ranges are 15, 150, 1000V a.c., 1, 150mA d.c. current, and a resistance range capable of reading values from 100Ω to about $30k\Omega$, sensitivity is $1,000\Omega/V$ and the meter costs £2.

The beauty of the meter is its compact size—about $3^{1}_{2} \times 2^{1}_{4} \times 1$ inch, it is made in Japan and is sold with test leads and a brief, quaintly translated, instruction sheet. The photograph below gives a good idea of the size of the meter.

The meter is available from West Hyde Developments Ltd., Ryfield Crescent, Northwood Hills, Northwood, Middlesex, HA6 1NN.



ELECTRONICS IN THE SURENIES IN

MEASUREMENT is the key to new developments in all branches of science and industry. Neither a new type of jet engine nor an improved strain of barley can be derived without experiments being undertaken. In the course of these experiments measurements are made, the results are evaluated and the future line of investigation is decided. Only rarely can the researcher see his goal clearly when commencing work; he reaches his destination not by dead reckoning but by seeking out and interpreting landmarks along the way.

When the measurements are few in number and uncritical in nature, they present no problems; an inexperienced man with his pencil and notebook can do the job. However, it is often necessary to obtain hundreds or even thousands of data in order to arrive at a simple yes/no decision.

When measurements are required to a high degree of accuracy, and to be repeated at regular intervals and are materially affected by outside influences such as temperature variation, humidity of contamination, then the whole

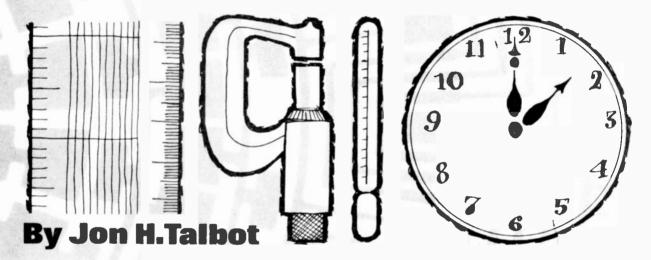
undertaking may become too protracted, too uncertain and too expensive.

Moreover, the man who is content to carry out such a tedious and repetitive task will probably lack the experience and perception to do the job accurately, while the technically competent researcher may obtain no more satisfactory results because he will be overtaken by boredom! It is hardly surprising that much effort has been put into perfecting means of automating tasks of this type.

INDUSTRIAL USE

Electronic methods of measurement began to be used in industry in the mid 1930's but made-little real impact until after World War II, when the electronic industry was truly founded. Since that date more and more characteristics of more and more materials and processes have become measurable in electrical terms.

Many of these electrical signals have been obtained by simple adaptation of mechanical or hydraulic instruments whose origins may be very old. For example, a common method of



measuring the pressure of a liquid in a pipe is to take a tapping via a small bore tube terminated in a seamless metal bellows. As the pressure rises the bellows becomes distended and moves the pointer of an indicator.

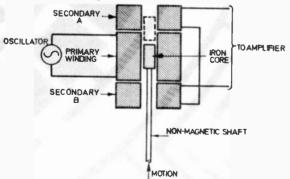


Fig. 1. Schematic diagram of a Differential Transformer (displacement measurement). The cone movement direction is determined by the amplifier by comparing the phase of the received signal with that from the oscillator.

To make this simple pressure gauge generate an electrical signal we can make use of a differential transformer. An iron core is attached to the rod which formerly drove the pointer and this core is located centrally inside a cylindrical coil. The coil is energised by an a.c. signal and is in close proximity to two other coils which are located at either end. As the core rises and falls with increasing and decreasing pressure it causes a larger voltage to be induced in one secondary coil and a smaller voltage in the other (Fig. 1). The magnitudes of these induced signals are a measure of the displacement of the bellows.

ANALOGUE TRANSDUCER

The pressure gauge described above is an analogue transducer: a device producing a signal which varies steadily with the parameter being measured (in this case, pressure) and, in theory at least, it has infinite resolution i.e. an infinitely small change in pressure results in an infinitely small change in electrical output. In practice, of course, the mechanical characteristics of the

moving parts will result in the output changing in tiny jerks so the resolution, while fine, is not infinite.

NEW ELEMENTS

Some of the early measuring instruments did not lend themselves readily to such adaptations and entirely new primary elements had to be devised. These new instruments were often designed and developed throughout by electronic firms and as a result were more readily incorporated into complete electronic systems.

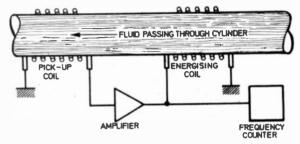


Fig. 2. A cross-sectional diagram of a vibrating cylinder density transducer.

The physical linkages between the medium being measured and the electrical circuit were simpler and more direct, eliminating some of the sources of inaccuracy. An example is the vibrating cylinder density transducer (Fig. 2). An amplifier drives a coil which sets up vibrations in a tube through which a gas or liquid is flowing. When the density of the fluid increases it raises the mechanical loading on the tube and reduces the resonant frequency of what is really a mechanical tuned circuit (rather like a tuning fork). The vibration is detected by a pick-up coil and the frequency of the energising signal is

Assembling and testing transducers for gas density measurement.

(Solar Electronic Group Ltd)



changed in sympathy. This means that the natural frequency of oscillation of the electromechanical circuit is a measure of the fluid density.

This density transducer is, for obvious reasons, described as a frequency-domain device.

DIGITAL TRANSDUCER

There is a third type of transducer which is more limited in application but possesses the advantage that it needs no calibration as such, while the desired resolution is defined when the instrument is made. This is the digital transducer, of which by far the commonest example is the encoding disc.

In appearance it is similar to a series of stroboscope rings such as those used to check the speed of a gramophone turntable. The centre ring has a small number of segments while the other rings have progressively more segments as their circumference increases.

If the disc is fixed onto a shaft, then the angular position of the shaft at any instant, whether it is moving or stationary, can be detected by examining the position of the segments by photo-electric or mechanical means. An example of such a disc is shown on the front cover and the pattern is also used in the heading of this article.



Checking the finish of a lens with the Talyrond 73 roundness measuring system. This system which can detect surface irregularities of the order of one millionth of an inch, uses a special purpose computer to correct for inaccuracies in work positioning etc. Defects of the work plece are recorded on a rotating chart. (Rank Precision Industries Ltd.)

The disc is often made in the form of a printed circuit board so that its position can be ascertained by picking up an electrical ouput from stationary brushes.

There is a great need for better transducers. This has been highlighted by the increasing importance of detecting pollutants in air and water, yet it is still only possible to isolate certain poisonous substances by carrying out a chemical analysis manually.

DATA LOGGING

The process of automatically collecting and recording information from a number of transducers is called data logging. In its simplest form, a data logger comprises a scanner, an analogue-to-digital converter and an output device (Fig. 3).

The scanner is a series of relays which are operated sequentially such that the ouput from a number of analogue transducers is connected to the converter in turn. The converter samples each signal and feeds the result of its measurement in digital form (binary or binary-coded decimal) to the output driver.

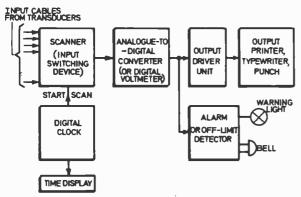


Fig. 3. Block diagram of a typical data logging system.

The output machine may be a strip printer, which prints the results on a tear-off strip for the convenience of the plant operator; it may be an electric typewriter which produces a record in tabular form suitable for binding into a logbook, or it may be a punch, which produces perforated paper tape for subsequent computer analysis.

A more elaborate logger will include a digital clock, which enables the readings to be repeated at accurately determined time intervals, and an alarm detector that flashes a light and rings a bell if a reading is taken that is outside prescribed limits.

APPLICATIONS

The applications of data logging are not restricted to research alone. Frequently the information which has been obtained by a data logger is used to set the controls in a process plant. An obvious development is to use signals from the logger to operate relays, valves and motors controlling the plant, thus avoiding the need for intervention by the plant operator.

In the case of a small electric furnace, where close temperature control may not be needed,

this can be achieved easily. If the logger detects that the temperature is too low then the alarm detector energises a relay that switches on the heating elements. When the logger returns to that measuring point (or channel) and finds that the temperature is now too high, then the relay is relaxed and power is removed from the furnace.

If the temperature is to be maintained within close limits a much more refined control system will be needed. A complicated industrial operation may involve a hundred or more variables, not only temperatures but pressures, flows, densities and levels as well.

Many variables are closely interrelated with others and are subject to disturbances of a random nature, so the only means of running the plant is to entrust the whole operation to a digital computer.

However, the largest and fastest computer, controlled by comprehensive programmes, is ultimately dependant upon the information it is given. The plant may produce nothing but waste output if the transducers are badly sited or the scanning system is poorly conceived.

VOLUME MEASUREMENT

There are many fields of measurement which are more complex than they at first appear.

When a petrol tanker discharges at a filling station the driver sometimes checks the level of liquid by means of a dipstick—a convenient and simple tool. At the oil refinery the level of liquid in the huge storage tanks is often checked in a similar manner: a float moves a cable or tape, made of low-expansion alloy, and this drives a remote indicator. The depth of liquid can be measured accurately, but petrol and oil are sold by the gallon—by volume. The relationship between the two types of measurement is not simple.

Oil storage tanks are made of steel and concrete, but they are not as rigid as they appear. When an empty tank is filled, the effect is not unlike that of filling a plastic bucket; the bottom becomes concave and the sides become slightly barrel-shaped, so that each additional

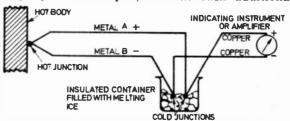


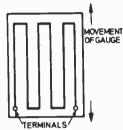
Fig. 4. A schematic diagram of a thermocouple—used for temperature measurement. The thermocouple utilises the principle that if two dissimilar metal wires are joined at their ends, and each function subjected to a different temperature then a current flows, its magnitude being proportional to temperature difference of junctions.

foot of depth represents a different quantity

of oil.

The volume of oil is also affected greatly by temperature and barometric pressure; the value of the contents of the largest size of tank is over £1000 more on a hot, sunny day than on a cold, overcast day (there are some anxious moments when the Inland Revenue inspector calls to determine the duty payable!)

Fig. 5 (top). Appearance of a typical strain gauge element. (Bottom) Shows the insertion of the element into a Wheatstone bridge. Utilises change of resistance with element geometry.



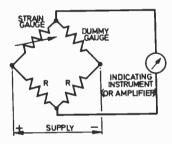


Table 1: Transducers used for measurement in industry

Parameter	Transducers and associated equipment	
Temperature	Resistance thermometer Thermocouple Thermistor (temperature- sensitive resistor)	
Light	Photo-electric cell Photo-multiplier tube	
AcidIty	pH electrode (measures hydrogen ion concentration)	
Properties of Gases	Infra-red source and Detector Colorimetric Analyser (measure- ment of transmission of light of various frequencies)	
Hardness	Diamond pyramid tester and differential transformer	
Magnetic field	Hall-effect element	
Mechanical strain	Resistance strain gauge Load Cell	
Proximity	Capacitance proximity detector Ultrasonic source and detector	
Displacement	Differential transformer	

The only way of obtaining a direct reading of the contents, which is corrected to normal temperature and pressure, is to use what is in effect a special-purpose computer that is connected to temperature and pressure sensors and to a depth transducer. This machine combines their outputs by correcting the depth reading according to ambient conditions and to a preset programme which corrects for mechanical distortion of the tank.

Instruments of this type have been made experimentally and will undoubtedly come into common use, but at present they are too expensive to compete with existing equipment.

Many of the potential benefits of electronics in measurement have not been realised in the past because electronics men have concerned themselves more with "pure" rather than applied electronics, while established industries have been slow to adopt new techniques. The alchemists and luddites have their counterparts in modern times!

MACHINE TOOLS

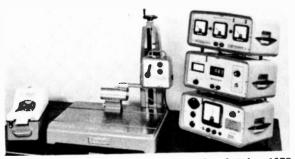
One of the slowest industries to adopt electronic methods was that of machine tools, yet precision machining of metals lends itself well to digital measurement techniques. A problem here was that the tools had to be designed around the transducers; it was not enough to add electronic appendages to existing machines.

Nowadays all types of machine-shop work, from the finishing of rough castings to the repetitive milling of complex mechanical structures from the solid, is carried out under the control of signals from magnetic or punched

paper tape.

The machine work-table is fed upwards, sideways and forwards, tools are changed and feed rates are monitored and adjusted under electronic control. Here the measurement devices are "closing the loop"—they confirm that a certain operation is being carried out exactly as required by the directions on the tape, and correct for factors such as tool wear that cannot be assessed in advance.

The Talysurf 4 system which counts the irregularities in a machined surface and enables the texture of the finish to be evaluated quantitively. (Rank Precision Industries Ltd.)



Everyday Electronics, October 1972

DYNAMICS

There is increasing interest in measurement that is dynamic rather than static, for time delays are important in many processes. For example, the spring rate of a valve spring for the engine of a motor car can be determined by loading it with a weight and measuring the amount of compression with a rule. This, however, offers very little data on what happens when it is compressed 4000 times a minute in a working engine.

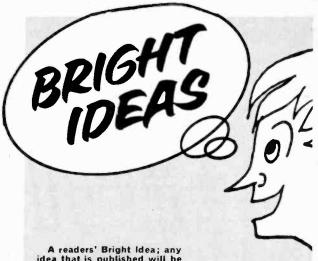
It is more instructive to compress the spring, release it in 1/4000th, of a minute, and then measure how long it takes to come to rest.

It is the transfer function, the relationship between stimulation and response that matters, and this has led to the spawning of a whole new generation of dynamic analysis instruments. These can either simulate an operation electrically on the bench or be coupled temporarily into a working system to cause known perturbations which can be analysed automatically.



Using a Transfer Function Analyser to determine the relationship between respiration and work done by humans. (Solartron Electronic Group Ltd)

A new dimension has been added to the science of measurement and provides a fresh view of concepts that had been developed as far as our previous static assessment would allow.



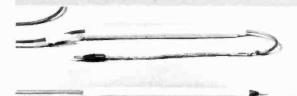
idea that is published will be awarded payment according to its merit. The ideas have not been proved by us.

I have found a way of making test probes for equipment that are cheap, insulated and rugged.

The parts needed are the red and black bodies of two "Scripto" or "Venus Gem Writer" type of felt tip pens that have been used up, a piece of stiff wire such as that used to make coat hangers and two lengths of red and black connecting wire.

To make the probe, remove the ink felt and fibre tip by pulling off the white end and the tip cap. Cut a length of stiff wire—about 6 inches long and file one end to fit into the plastic tip. Cut a small hole in the white cap, pass a connecting wire through the cap, solder it to the stiff wire, and reassemble the pen. The photograph shows the construction and the finished probe.

> E. R. Wall. Chalton, S.E.7.



Please Note: this column is intended for constructional ideas and ideas relating to electronic construction. It is not our intention to publish circuits of any description.

All items submitted should be original and

not previously published.

A reaction testing game that can also be converted to a quiz answering indicator.

By D. Smith



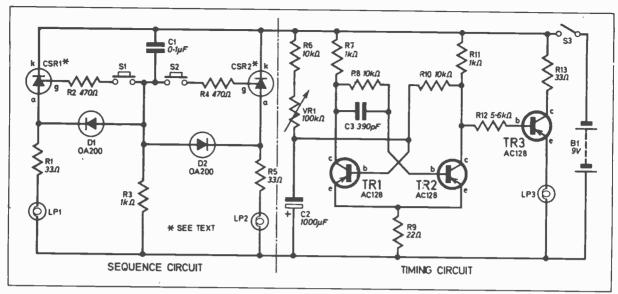


Fig. 1. Complete circuit diagram of the Reactomatic.

THE REACTOMATIC is a game of fun and skill for young and old alike. Being portable, it is ideal to take to parties or clubs. The basic sequence indicator can also be used, with a number of push-buttons, for quiz game answering.

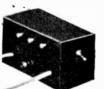
At home it will keep two people amused for hours, testing their skill against each other and, being a silent game (using only bulbs), will not distract the other members of the family.

Since the unit uses batteries there is no risk of shock, it is light in weight, portable and is cheap to build.

CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

The circuit (Fig. 1) can be broken down into two main parts; the timer circuit, consisting of TR1, TR2, TR3, and their associated components, and the sequence circuit.

If we take the timer circuit first, it will be seen that TR1 and TR2 form a bistable and TR3 is an electronic switch. When the unit is switched on by S3, the bistable flips into "mode one". (TR1 off, TR2 on). A negative charge is then allowed to build up on the base of TR1, via R6, VR1 and C2.



When a certain amount of voltage has built up across C1, it will switch on TR1 which will then, via R8 and C3, switch off TR2. Therefore the voltage at the collector will go negative.

This negative voltage is passed to the base of TR3 via R12. Hence TR3 is switched on and allows voltage to flow through it to light LP3. The time for this to happen is determined by the value of C2, R6 and VR4.

The values shown in the circuit will give a delay of between approximately 5 seconds and

30 seconds. The latter time is ideal to build up tension in the players as they wait for the light to come on.

It should be noted that the knob fitted to VR4 should not be marked in anyway to show the time that has been set. A plain knob should be used, the loser of the previous game, re-setting it to a different time delay.

A 33 ohm resistor has been inserted in series with each of the three bulbs shown in Fig. 1. This is because the supply voltage is 9V and the bulbs are 6V, the resistors reduce the voltage to approximately 6V.

SEQUENCE CIRCUIT

The second part of the circuit containing the controlled silicon rectifiers (thyristors) works as follows. The idea is, that as soon as LP3 lights up each player pushes his button (S1 or S2) and the first one to do so turns his light on (LP1 or LP2 respectively).

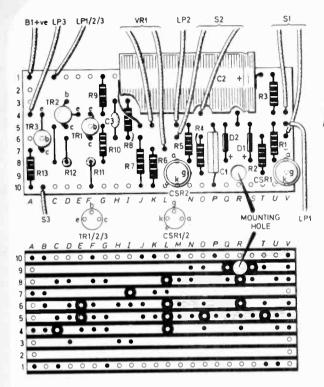
Once one light is on the other cannot operate, therefore it is obvious which player pressed first.

When S3 is operated, C1 is charged up via R3. Now when LP3 lights, S1—for example—is pressed first and the positive charge stored in C1 is fed via R2 to CSRI. As only a small pulse of current is needed to switch CSR1 on, LP1 will light and remain lit as the current flowing through CSR1 is more than its holding current.

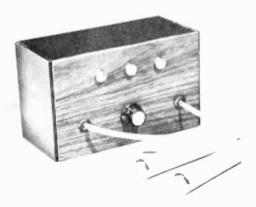
Once CSR1 turns on, C1 is discharged through D1 and CSR1, hence there is no voltage left in C1 to turn on CSR2.

If S2 is operated first, the reverse will happen, C1 will switch CSR2, via R4, and C1 will be discharged through D2 and CSR2, thus leaving no positive charge to operate CSR1.

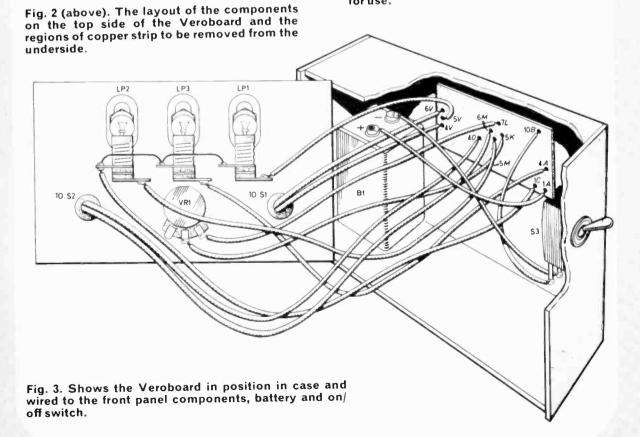
All this happens very quickly, but the first person to press his push button will light the respective light. There is no need to keep the

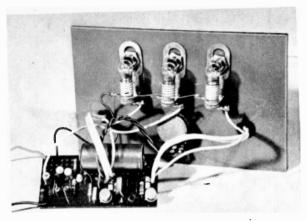


REACTOMATIC



Photograph of the completed, unit read y for use.





button pressed as the loser cannot possibly light his light, due to C1 being kept discharged all the time a light is on. Resistors R2 and R4 limit the current which switch CSR1 and CSR2 on.

Once the winner has been shown-by his light -S3 is turned off and then on again to restart the game. This allows C2 to discharge and CSR1 or CSR2 to turn off.

EXTRA PUSH BUTTONS

The sequence circuit can be increased in stages so that it may be used to indicate which of a number of players was first to press the button. To add on each additional lamp, simply repeat the push button, CSR, gate current limiting resistance (R2), lamp, lamp current limiting resistance (R1) and the bypass diode (D1). Components C1 and R3 need not be repeated.

The timing circuit does not need to be included if not required but an on/off switch must be used to reset the circuit. It will not be necessary to increase the battery capacity since only one light in the sequence circuit can be on.

CONSTRUCTION

The prototype unit was housed in a small plastic case, but any suitable box will do; layout is not critical. The three lamps, two push button leads and timer control are all attached to the front panel. On the side of the case is the on/off switch, and the circuit board, on which most of the components are situated, is mounted together with the battery inside the case. The circuit board is fixed to the panel by a single screw and an insulated spacer.

In the prototype the push buttons were mounted in two pieces of plastic tubing such as that used for holding mains wire. Plastic Padding or a similar filler is used to block up the ends of the tube to prevent the wires being pulled out.

If alternative types of push button are used they can be mounted on small blocks of wood. The push button leads should be quite flexible as they have to take a lot of bending; electric razor lead was found to be ideal for this purpose.

The Veroboard should be cut and the components mounted as shown in Fig. 2. Care should

be taken not to let heat from the soldering iron travel up the wires of the transistors, thyristors or diodes. A suitable heat shunt should be used when soldering in these components. Once the circuit board has been wired up it can be mounted in the case together with the remaining components and the complete unit wired up as shown in Fig. 3.

PLAYING

To play the game each player holds a push button and one player switches the unit on. When LP3 operates, the first player to press his push button wins (indicated by the corresponding light). The looser is then allowed to vary VRI to reset the time. If a player pushes before LP3 lights the other player is declared the winner. The battery will last a long time provided the game is switched off as soon as possible.

omponents....

Resistors		SEE
R1	33Ω	
R2	470Ω	
R3	1kΩ	TOTAL TOTAL
R4	470Ω	
R5	33Ω	
R6	10kΩ	
R7	1kΩ	
R8	10k Ω	
	000	

 22Ω R9 $10k\Omega$ **R10**

1kΩ R11 5.6kΩ **R12** 33Ω

R13 All ‡W ±10% carbon

Capacitors

0.1 µF C1

1,000µF elect. 12V C2

390pF

Semiconductors

CSR1 Any 50 p.i.v. 1A thyristor (controlled silicon rectifier)

CSR2 Any 50 p.i.v. 1A thyristor

OA200 D1 **OA200** D2

AC128 germanium pnp TR1

AC128 germanium pnp TR₂

AC128 germanium pnp TR3

Miscellaneous

LP1, 2, 3 6V 0.2A bulbs and panel mounting lamp holders

S1, S2 S.p.s.t. push to make push buttons

S.p.s.t. toggle switch S3

100k Ω lin. carbon potentiometer VR1

9V PP9 battery B1

Case (approx 7in imes 4in imes 3in, any material) plain unmarked knob for VR1, connecting wire, material for mounting S1 and S2 (see text), Veroboard 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ in imes 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ in imes 0·15in matrix, battery connectors, 6BA fixing and spacer.



... FOR BEGINNERS

By Mike Hughes M.A.

12

AMPLIFICATION

AST month some experimenters might have been a little disappointed with the output of the little microphone amplifier we made. This is very understandable, but one must bear in mind that only two transistors were used, one for voltage amplification and the other to provide a low output impedance. This month we shall put matters right and develop a low power amplifier that will produce about 0.5W output—perfectly adequate for a baby alarm etc. But first we must carry out some improvements to our voltage amplifier.

Last month's circuit suffered from the problem that we had to set the bias manually to match the gain of the transistor—a good example for demonstration purposes—but not

very practicable.

There are two very commonly used circuits that we can use for biasing that are not so sensitive to variations in h_{FE} ; the first is simple, and if used carefully is very adequate, but the second we shall describe is more generally favoured and uses a few more components.

FEEDBACK BIASING

The first option is shown in Fig. 1(a) and is called a **feedback bias** circuit. As before we must decide the output quiescent voltage which we shall fix at mid-rail potential (+4.5V) and at the same time decide the quiescent collector current, say 0.5mA.

This immediately fixes the value of R1 as 4.5/0.5 kilohm (9,000 ohm); say 10 kilohm.

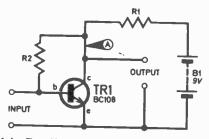


Fig. 1(a). Feedback biasing circuit. For experimental purposes make R1 and R2 equal to 10 kilohm and 1.5 megohm respectively. Check that the output voltage is approximately "midrail".

We shall use the potential at point "A" as the source of our base current—you'll see why in a moment—and we'll assume the gain of the transistor to be 200.

The base current for biasing should ideally be

$$\frac{I_{\rm c}}{h_{\rm FE}} = \frac{0.5}{200} = 0.0025 \text{mA}$$

Assuming that the potential at point "A" is 4.5V we can therefore calculate the required value for R2. It will be

$$\frac{4\cdot 5 - 0\cdot 6}{0\cdot 0025} \text{ kilohm} = 1\cdot 56 \text{ megohm}$$

The nearest preferred value is 1.5 megohm. Make this circuit up on Demo Deck and verify that the quiescent voltage at "A" is approximately 4.5V. Try substituting different BC108's and you should find no appreciable change.

This circuit is self compensating as far as bias is concerned. Imagine you had a transistor with a low gain; initially the base current available from point "A" (assuming it was 4.5V) would not be sufficient to turn the transistor on hard enough to make point "A" fall to 4.5V so therefore "A" could not have been 4.5V—it would have been higher in potential.

If it had been at a higher potential then the base current would have increased thus bringing about a reduction in the voltage at "A."

In effect the circuit around the transistor settles itself out so that the potential at "A" is just enough to supply sufficient base current to

keep the potential at "A" stable.

If you think we are talking in circles you are quite correct because what we have described is a negative feedback loop. If we have carried out our calculations correctly a very small increase in potential at "A" is all that is needed to provide that extra base current to compensate for a low gain transistor. This small increase will not present any major problems and will hardly be noticeable under normal circumstances. The same argument applies to a transistor with higher gain only the output potential will settle to a slightly lower than mid-rail voltage.

MODIFICATION

Modify your circuit slightly as shown in Fig. 1(b) and add the emitter follower output stage that we originated last month. Notice that instead of R2 we are using two resistors in series (470 kilohm and 1 megohm) and have introduced a variable resistor and capacitor.

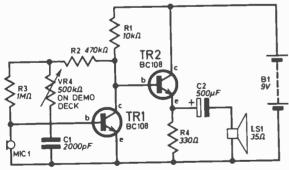


Fig. 1(b). A two-stage microphone amplifier, using a feedback biased stage followed by an emitter follower.

Initially set VR4 to maximum resistance, connect up the microphone, and you should find that the circuit works, but the output is not as

great as last month's.

The reason for this is that the signal from the microphone is now appearing amplified at the collector of TR1, but because of the inverting property of the transistor, a certain proportion is being fed back through R2 and R3, 180 degrees out of phase (i.e. in a way that will negate our input signal). Fortunately we can "catch" this fed back signal with C1.

Because the audio voltage is alternating it sees a low impedance in C1 and will be shorted out to the common rail—that is if VR4 is reduced to zero ohms. Try reducing the value of VR4 and you should find an appreciable increase in output from the loudspeaker.

POTENTIAL DIVIDE BIASING

The basic circuit of the second type of biasing system we shall cover is shown in Fig. 2(a). This can best be described as a potential divide type of circuit because the bias is dependent on the potential divide effect of resistors R2 and R3.

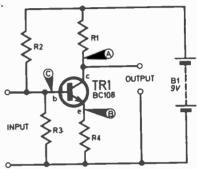


Fig. 2(a). Potential divide bias circuit. See text for the experimental resistor values.

Lets assume a mid-rail quiescent output at a collector current of 0.5mA; this makes R1 10 kilohm. Notice we have introduced a resistor (R4) into the emitter circuit. If current is flowing between collector and emitter (as it must) then the quiescent current of 0.5mA plus any base current, will flow through R4 giving rise to a voltage drop across it. In this article we can ignore the contribution of the base current as it is bound to be small compared with I_0 .

The potential at point "B" must not be too high otherwise we will be unable to obtain wide voltage swings at the collector and it is usual to set this emitter voltage at 1V. This means that R4 will be approximately

$$\frac{1}{I_c} = 2,000 \text{ ohms}$$

Let's say 2.2 kilohm as the nearest.

For base current to flow the base must be made 0.6V more positive than the emitter (for a silicon npn device); this means that the potential at point C will be +1.6V.

STABILITY

The base current we require (still assuming an $h_{\rm FE}$ of 200) will again be 0.0025mA and this will have to be provided through R2. The values of R2 and R3 are arranged so that they form a potential divide that maintains the base potential at the 1.6V we require. For stability reasons it is usual to have a standing current through

150,000

0

R2 and R3 that is 4 or 5 times the base current. Let's say we will make 4 times the base current flow through R3 and at the same time maintain $1\cdot 6V$ drop across the resistor; the value for R3 will be

$$\frac{1.6}{4 \times 0.0025} \text{ kilohm} = 160 \text{ kilohm}$$

The current for R3 has to pass through R2, but R2 also has to provide the base current; therefore the total current flowing through R2 will be five times I_b . The drop across the resistor will be (9-1.6)V=7.4V, so the value for R2 is

$$\frac{7.4}{5 \times 0.0025} \text{ kilohm} = 590 \text{ kilohm}$$

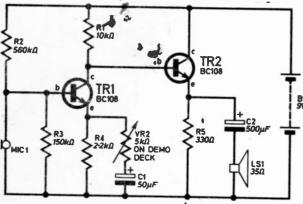
The nearest readily available values for R2 and R3 will be 560 kilohm and 150 kilohm respectively. Make up the circuit and measure the potentials at points "A" "B" and "C." Again the substitution of different BC108s should not cause the output voltage to vary significantly.

TRANSISTOR GAIN VARIATION

If a transistor of low gain was used, l_c would not be the anticipated 0.5 mA initially, therefore the potential at point "B" will fall below the assumed 1V. This provides a more attractive set of circumstances for base current to be drawn through R2 so the current through R2 will increase, the potential at "C" will decrease and the current through R3 will decrease. The extra current flowing through R2 passes into the base of the transistor thus increasing the base current and this helps bring the quiescent collector current almost back to normal.

Again we have negative feedback effectively between the base and emitter circuits which self stabilises the biasing. For a transistor having higher gain the opposite will happen.

Fig. 2(b). The circuit diagram of a two-stage microphone amplifier using potential divide biasing.



DRIVING THE LOUDSPEAKER

To complete the experiment make-up the com-

plete circuit of Fig. 2(b) and see that we can drive the loudspeaker. Notice the introduction of VR2 and C1. Initially set VR2 to maximum resistance; the output will be very poor indeed.

The reason is that TR1 is acting in part as an emitter follower. Any "overpotential" we apply at the base in the way of signal will appear at the emitter; thus we will not be producing much in the way of potential difference between base and emitter and hence not cause as much increase in base current as we might have expected. Ideally we want any current from the microphone to add to the base current in its entirity; this we can arrange by again using the fact that our signal will be alternating.

Connecting a large value capacitor between the emitter of TR1 and ground will present a low impedance path for the signal current to flow through without affecting the d.c. bias conditions. You can introduce C1 gradually by reducing the value of VR2 and will notice a dramatic improvement in output signal. We call C1 an emitter decoupling—or by-pass—capacitor; the maximum value of it is unimportant—but it must always be "greater than" a certain value.

Try replacing it with a $0 \cdot 1 \mu F$ capacitor; the circuit will work but with less output and any bass response which might have been there originally will be lost because the low value capacitor will only effectively decouple at high frequencies.

A problem with this circuit in our application is that the introduction of two resistors of comparatively low values (R2 and R3) in the bias circuit effectively reduces the input impedance of our voltage amplifier, hence, a lot of microphone signal will be shunted out to the power rails. Do not, therefore, expect quite as high an output as for the previous feedback biasing circuit.

We make no apologies for the comparatively low output powers of all these experimental amplifiers so far. It is easier to understand things if you concentrate on only one point at a time; therefore we deliberately made the power output stage as simple as possible so that we could concentrate on the important aspect of voltage amplification.

We hope that, from the two examples this month and the one last month, you appreciate there are several ways of producing the same effect; this happens all the way through electronics and is not limited solely to amplification. Follow other articles in EVERYDAY ELECTRONICS and you will soon see that different designers have different personal opinions and ideas as to what is the best circuit for the job and they may all be equally correct.

Some designs can be cheap but adequate, others expensive and full of special features that aid the quality of the design without altering the fundamental workings.

Everyday Electronics, October 1972

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COMPLIMENTARY CLASS B BASICS

As promised we'll now show you how to get more power from the microphone amplifier and at the same time improve its quality. Firstly let's look at the fundamental circuit of what is called a class B complimentary symmetry output stage. This is shown in Fig. 3(a).

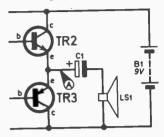


Fig. 3(a). The basics of a class B complimentary symmetry output stage; both an *npn* and a *pnp* transistor are used.

We are introducing a pnp transistor for the first time, TR3, but there is no need to worry too much about this except to remember it works just like an npn device with opposite polarity of supply voltage.

As shown in the circuit its collector goes to the common or negative rail and to make it turn on we must make its base go negative with

respect to the emitter: --

Both TR2 and TR3 are working as grounded collector or emitter followers. Assume nothing is connected to the bases of these transistors; no base current will flow in either and hence no current can flow from the collector of TR2 out of its emitter, into the emitter of TR3 and down to ground through its collector (this is the flow path for conventional current). These transistors are to all intents and purposes "open circuit" and we can consider the point "A" as being isolated from either the positive or negative rails.

If we also assume that C1 was charged so that its positive plate was at, say, +4.5V, the capacitor will maintain its charge because there is

nowhere it can leak away to.

If we were able to make the base of TR2 more positive than $+5 \cdot 1 \text{V}_2 (0.6 \text{V})$ more positive than its emitter) current will flow through the collector/emitter circuit of TR2 and charge up the capacitor until the potential at "A" rises to a new level that is 0.6 V below the base voltage. This charge current must also pass th. ough the coil of the loudspeaker.

Now consider what happens if we leave TR2's base open circuit and make the base of TR3 less than 3.9V (0.6V negative with respect to its emitter). Transistor TR3 will now act as an emitter follower and the capacitor will discharge through the emitter and collector of TR3 until the voltage at "A" is just 0.6V more positive than the base. You might challenge the assumption that point "A" could have been at +4.5V

in the first place—this is a fair comment but we assume that no transistors are perfect (there is always a small amount of leakage) and the leakage current through TR2 and TR3 will be about the same and hence we get a sort of potential divide effect at minute currents giving us a "starting" potential at point "A."

DISTORTION

Move on to Fig. 3(b) where we have connected the bases of TR2 and TR3 together and then back to the collector of a feedback biased stage—the quiescent output potential of which is +4.5V. This voltage is not 0.6V more positive with respect to TR2's emitter nor more negative with respect to TR3's emitter, therefore neither transistor will conduct (apart from leakage) and the positive plate of Cl will stay at about +4.5V—unfortunately you cannot measure this without an extremely high resistance voltmeter.

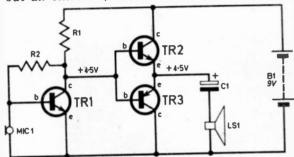
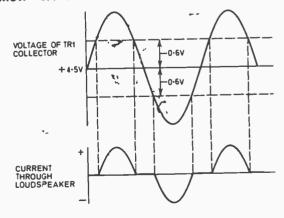


Fig. 3(b). A class B complimentary symmetry output stage preceded by a feedback biased stage.

If we whistled a perfect sine wave note into the microphone we know that the collector of TR1 would follow suit alternating by about 1V above and below +4.5V. As soon as we exceed +5.1V TR2 will start to conduct and charge current will flow through the loudspeaker; when we fall below 5.1V, TR2 will shut off and when we fall below +3.0V, TR3 will start to conduct

Fig. 4. These waveforms refer to Fig. 3(b) and show "crossover distortion."



and discharge current flows through the loud-

speaker in the opposite direction.

The only problem, so far, is that we are losing part of our signal. The current through the loudspeaker follows the voltage swings at TR1's collector only when we exceed certain limits; in between these limits it stops and we get a distorted current sine wave as shown in Fig. 4. This distortion is most undesirable and is called **crossover distortion** and is a classic problem with class B stages. Nevertheless it can be avoided as we shall see.

First of all take note of the important point that in the absence of any microphone signal no current at all is flowing through the output transistors—the transistors are dissipating no power.

This is a tremendous advantage over the simple emitter follower stage described last month which had a quiescent current almost as high as the amount of signal current fed to the loudspeaker which is wasteful on power and means that we have a static dissipation in the transistor which is serving no useful purpose (acoustically speaking) and limits the amount of power we can use as signal. This is a problem associated with the type of output stage known as class A.

CROSSOVER ELIMINATION

To overcome crossover distortion we have to arrange that the quiescent voltages at the bases of TR2 and TR3 are just on the threshold of taking the transistors into conduction. This is done by introducing an extra stage in our power amplifier called a **driver**. This is shown as TR1 in Fig. 5(a).

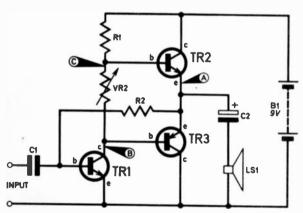


Fig. 5(a). By introducing a "driver" stage, TR1, crossover distortion can be eliminated.

Resistor R2 works like the feedback resistor in our voltage amplifier and by careful calculation we can ensure that the potential at "B" is just enough to start TR3 conducting; VR2 and R1 form the collector load of TR1, but VR2 also ensures that there is always twice 0.6V (1.2V) difference in potential between points "B" and

"C." Both TR2 and TR3 will be conducting slightly and point "A" will settle (aided by negative feedback from R2) to about +4.5V. Any negative going signal at the input capacitor will make TR2 go more into conduction, and vice versa for TR3.

This time we will have no crossover distortion provided VR2 is of a high enough value to maintain the quiescent voltage differential between points "B" and "C."

In Fig. 5(b) you will notice that in the practical circuit we are using a silicon diode (D1) in forward biased mode to help maintain the $1\cdot 2V$ difference—it also helps combat variations in temperature that affect the emitter/base forward voltage drops of the output transistors.

MATCHING

A final couple of points before describing Fig. 5(b); in a good quality piece of equipment the $h_{\rm FE}$ of the **complimentary output pair** of transistors (TR2 and TR3) should be accurately matched so that the current through the loudspeaker is symmetrical on the "charge" and "discharge" parts of the cycle. With the low price transistors we have specified this is not possible, but we can tolerate a reasonable amount of distortions at low powers.

Because the voltage across either of the output transistors—when they are conducting—never exceeds 4.5V, and in the quiescent condition no current is flowing, we now have the full current and power rating of each transistor at our disposal. We could, theoretically, charge over 4.5V with a peak current of 100mA which gives a peak power of 0.45W and discharge through TR3 at the same rate giving an overall power output of nearly 1 watt. This, of course, is an absolute maximum and actually exceeds the individual r.m.s. power ratings of the transistors; however this can be tolerated provided the power overload is only temporary.

When dealing with commercial power amplifiers you will find the power ratings quoted as r.m.s and peak—sometimes peak power is described as "music rating" and r.m.s power as "continuous rating."

continuous rating.

MICROPHONE AMPLIFIER

Fig. 5(b) is our grand finale for the Teach-In series and represents a reasonable 0.5W r.m.s microphone amplifier that embodies many of the points we have covered in the latter part of the series.

Transistor TR1 is a potential divide biased voltage amplifier, TR2 the output driver and TR3 with TR4 gives us a class B complimentary output stage. The driver serves two purposes; it enables us to bias the output transistors but also, as a by-product, gives us a further stage of voltage amplification. This ensures that we can drive the output pair to "saturation" from

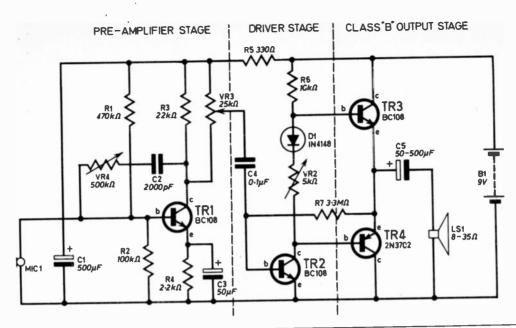
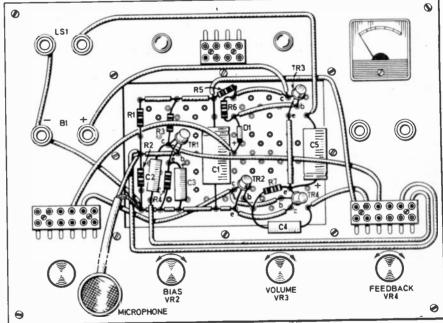


Fig. 5(b) (above). The circuit diagram of a 0.5 watt microphone amplifier using a potential divide biased first stage followed by a driver and class B complimentary symmetry output stage with several refinements.

Fig. 5(c) (right). The circuit of Fig. 5(b) shown wired up on the Demo Deck.



the microphone input should we so wish. In fact there is plenty of unrequired gain in hand. We can make use of this to add in a couple of refinements.

VOLUME CONTROL AND SELECTIVE FEEDBACK

The simplest is a volume control—shown as VR3 (of the Demo Deck) in parallel with a 22 kilohm collector load for TR1—that enables us to "tap off" lower proportions of variations in TR1's collector potential. As this would affect the bias of TR2 we have to decouple the d.c. link between the wiper of VR3 and TR2's base; this is done with capacitor C4 (we have introduced a.c. coupling).

There is still some gain in hand so we can introduce some frequency selective negative feedback between the collector and base of TR1 (with the aid of C2 and VR4). When VR4 is set to a high resistance value, very little feedback occurs and our signal strength will be high; by reducing the value of this potentiometer some feedback will take place but only at high frequencies (C2 still acts as a very high resistance to low frequencies). The more you decrease the value of VR4, the more you will suppress high frequencies and hence counter the rather poor frequency response we had previously—speech will become more "bassy" and appear to have more "body." It may be necessary to increase the volume control to get the best effect.

DECOUPLING

The resistor/capacitor combination, R5 and C1, form what is called a decoupler; this prevents any variations in power line voltage caused by high currents being drawn through the output transistors affecting the first amplifier stage. Without these components the whole system could be subject to positive feedback, become unstable and oscillate—take them out and see!

SETTING UP THE AMPLIFIER

When setting up the amplifier, start with VR2 at minimum value and slowly increase it while speaking quietly into the microphone. You should initially hear the effect of cross over distortion (it is better heard than described) but stop increasing its value as soon as the distortion disappears. In normal circuits VR2 would be a preset component and VR4 would be of a fixed value determined by the designer.

The little loudspeaker in Demo Deck does not really do justice to this circuit and is of rather too high an impedance to get maximum power. If you have a larger 8 ohm loudspeaker try this in its place—you'll probably be very surprised with the difference. There is no reason why you should not replace the microphone with a crystal pick-up and make a record player amplifier.

LAST WORDS

We've come a long way since the "plumbing" in Part 2 and we hope you have been able to follow us. The subject is only a hobby but it can be great fun if you know some of the inside stories rather than "construct-in-the-dark."

You will find many more articles in months to come which will help fill some of the gaps and also venture on new territory. Ultimately the only way to become proficient at electronics is to make things, have successes and have failures but if you have a failure do not give up in disgust, try and find out what went wrong. Why not round off with the "End of Term Test" on page 670).



Ruminations By Sensor

Having A Nose For It

I once knew a man (I'll call him John) who had an uncanny knack for fault diagnosis. He was not highly trained in electronics but had grown up with the science and accumulated a vast store, a practical experience which enabled him to find faults very quickly with a minimum of testing. When I first met John, he was working on Radar equipment but he had previously worked on domestic radio servicing; he transferred apparently without any difficulty to television fault diagnosis.

Although his theoretical knowledge was limited, his talent for quick diagnosis was admired and respected by all—even the most senior engineers. It must be remembered that he was dealing with new equipment straight from the production lines—receivers that had never worked before: wiring faults and components of the wrong type and value made the business more complicated than normal servicing work.

Every engineer acquires this "instinct" for fault diagnosis, to a greater or lesser degree. It is an amalgam of keen observation, knowledge of components and their behaviour, the "stock" faults of various models-and a good memory. These factors do not compensate for lack of a sound knowledge of basic theory, which properly applied, will enable one to diagnose any fault, though probably not as quickly as John would have found it. A good beginners series can help those who already have some "instinct" to develop their theory whilst those without either theoretical knowledge or "instinct" can quickly learn sufficient theory to enable them to begin to acquire an "instinct."

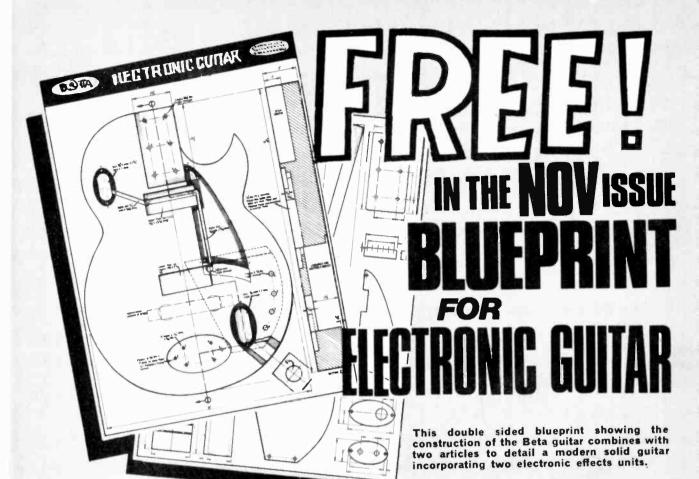
One-Upmanship

I once gained some kudos myself by using my required "instinct." I was watching a computer engineer who was looking for a fault. He had isolated the trouble to one particular circuit board and had removed this board from the computer. While he collected together his tools, testmeter circuit diagram and wiring diagram of the particular board in preparation for detailed investigation, I picked up the board and idly glanced over it.

One resistor looked just a shade brighter in colour than the rest, I looked more closely and saw that the thin wax coating, that used to be applied to resistors in those days, was just beginning to soften. "Is that resistor the correct value?" I asked. We looked on the circuit diagram and found that the resistor ought to have been 470 kilohm; it was in fact 47 kilohm and was correctly colour coded. The computer engineer was most impressed!

Somewhere along the line the colour coding had been misinterpreted (orange and yellow can be quite close together in shade) and although there was not much current flowing in the circuit concerned, a change in resistor value of 10 times was sufficient to produce very slight overheating in the resistor and give me a clue to the trouble.

Everyday Electronics, October 1972



TRANSISTOR TESTER

How often have you built a circuit only to find that it does not work. With the simple Transistor Tester you can quickly check most transistors and thus eliminate the use of "duds". PART I OF A NEW
BEGINNERS SERIES
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+ - + - +

Just PART of the NOVEMBER Issue of ON SALE OCTOBER 20



THE Electronic Mouse Trap described herein does not kill or injure a captured mouse. It catches the mouse alive so that it may be released in the local park or a field. This satisfies the R.S.P.C.A. and wildlife preservationists and all others opposed to "blood sports". Only the cats will be unhappy at the risk of being made redundant.

The trap has been well proven in use and has caught six mice during a few weeks of operation. Certain modifications have been made to the prototype due to the annoying habit of the mice to chew the connecting wires inside the trap.

PRINCIPLE OF OPERATION

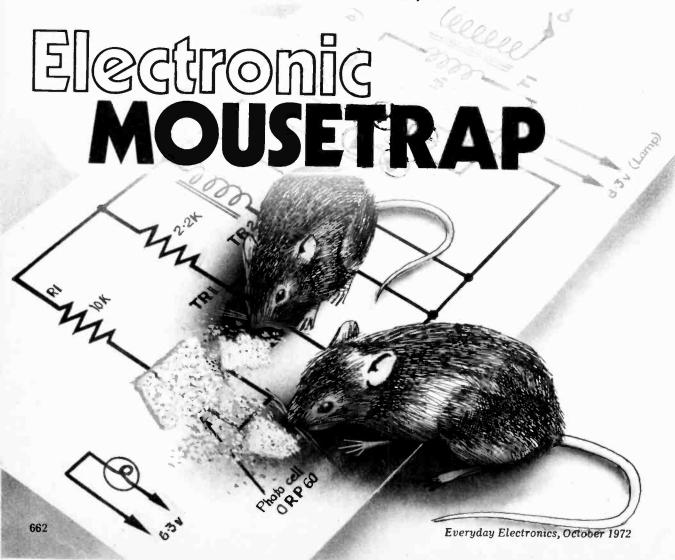
The principle of operation is quite simple, although the trap may look a little complicated mechanically. The "electronics" consist of a

photo-conductive cell which operates a simple d.c. amplifier (Fig. 1), this in turn energising a solenoid (L1).

When the solenoid is energised it releases the door retaining spring. The door then promptly closes and at the same time switches off the supply via S1. The sequence is set off by the mouse which, on entering the trap to gain access to the "bait", carefully placed inside at the far end, has to pass through a beam of light shining on the photocell PCC1 from LP1. When the light beam is interrupted the photocell resistance increases and actuates the d.c. amplifier and solenoid.

There are only two ways, well three really, in which a mouse can evade being captured. One, if the mains supply fails or is switched off, two, it could jump over the beam of light or three, just not enter the trap anyway.

A proven design for a humane mouse trap. By F. C. Judd



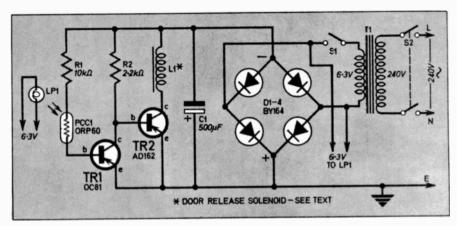


Fig. 1. Complete circuit diagram of the Electronic Mouse Trap.

CONSTRUCTION

The box can be made from hardboard or thin plywood with sides and top etc., held together with half-inch by half-inch battens pinned or glued. Details for the box are given in Fig. 2. Note that a hole is drilled each side of the box about 34in up from the bottom. These holes allow the light from the external 6.3V lamp (LP1) to shine through and across the box to the photocell opposite.

The trap door can be made from Perspex /hich enables one to see if a mouse has been caught. It could otherwise be made from hardboard but drill some holes in the door otherwise a caught mouse could die of suffocation!

It has been found that in an effort to escape the mice chew the wooden batten around the door so it is best to make these of the half-inch batten specified. The mice do not seem to want to chew the plywood sides.

The d.c. amplifier and power supply components are mounted on the aluminium panel that forms the rear end of the box and are separated from the captured mouse by an inner dividing wall. Without this wall a mouse could get to the mains supply and possibly electrocute itself.

The amplifier circuit is shown in Fig 1 and consists simply of a d.c. coupled pair of transistors but note that TR2 passes a large current when the light beam is interrupted It is for this reason and because no heatsink is provided for TR2, that a contact (S1), operated by the door, opens and cuts off the secondary voltage of the transformer T1 when the door is closed. This also switches off the light, thus saving current when the trap has done its job.

SOLENOID

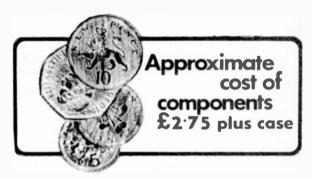
The solenoid is fairly easy to make and really amounts to a coil of wire with a steel bolt as the electromagnet. Details are given in Fig. 3.

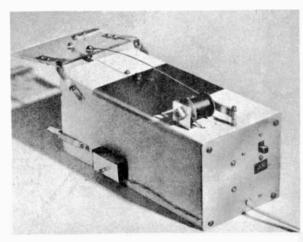
The coil cheeks could be any insulating material, even stiff cardboard and the coil itself consists of enough 32 swg enamelled wire to

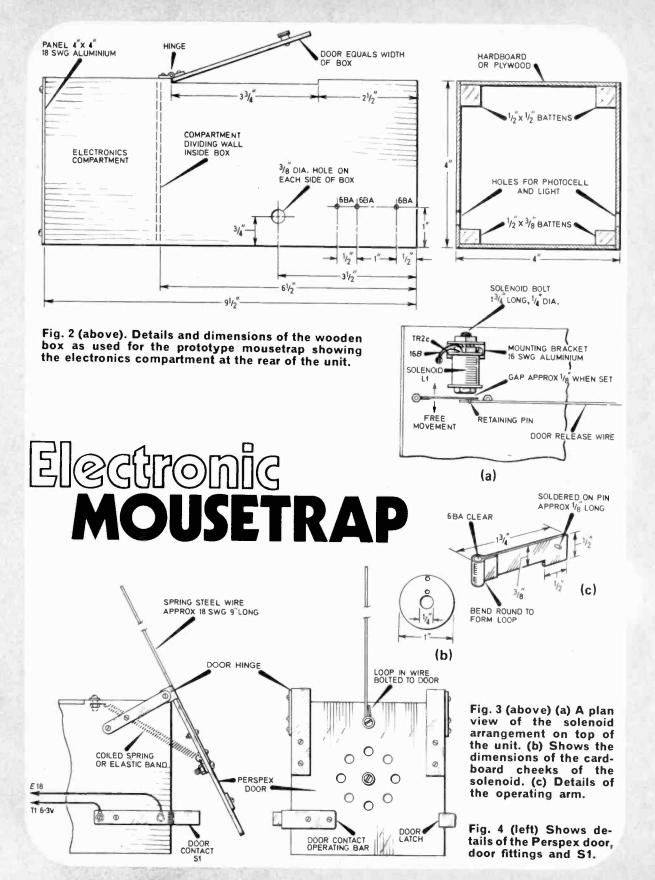
build up a winding of about ³4in diameter between the cheeks that are fixed one inch apart on a ¹4in steel bolt. The d.c. resistance of the winding will be in the region of 20 to 30 ohms.

To make the solenoid cut out two discs 1 inch diameter for the end cheeks and drill two holes in one as shown in Fig. 3. Slide these cheeks onto the bolt—the undrilled one first—and screw on a nut so that the two discs are one inch apart.

Using 32 s.w.g. enamelled copper wire, pass one end out through the inner hole, cover the outer end with sleeving and with the uncovered wire wind on the turns evenly along the length







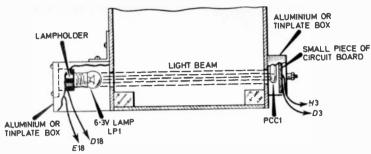


Fig. 5. The mounting and wiring of the lamp and photocell.

of the solenoid, layer upon layer until the winding is approximately 34in in diameter. Pass the other end of the wire through the outer hole, sleeve the wire and secure the winding with insulation tape.

The operating arm, which releases the door retaining wire must be made from tinplate or thin mild steel. A piece cut from an empty tin box will do. A vertical loop is formed at one end as shown in Fig. 3, just large enough to slide over a 6BA screw which will form a bearing for the arm. The position of the arm relative to the solenoid is shown in Fig. 3.

TRAP DOOR

The door is hinged as shown in Fig. 4 and held closed by a light tension coil spring or an elastic band. The tension must not be too great but sufficient to bring the door down smartly from a near horizontal position so that it latches.

Attached to the middle of the door is a piece of springy steel wire long enough to reach back so that the end can be hooked under the pin on the solenoid arm (see Fig. 3). When the solenoid is energized the arm moves in and the door retaining wire is released.

When the door comes down it must break the contact which forms S1, this disconnects one side of the transformer secondary winding from the rectifier and the lamp. Details for the contact are given in Fig. 4 and the position of its operating bar is also shown.

The door fittings can be made from light gauge aluminium but the door contact must be springy i.e., made from tinplate or thin brass. When the door is open the contact must make with the 6BA bolt on the side of the box as in Fig. 4.

Two wires, one from the contact and one from the bolt are taken along the outside of the box to the transformer and circuit board at the rear. The wires should not pass inside the trap as they will soon be chewed away by the captive mice. The door is also fitted with a simple latch to prevent the mouse from pushing it open and escaping.

LAMP AND PHOTOCELL

The photocell is a type ORP60 which has its

sensitive element near the top end so this end must be in the light beam as in Fig. 5. The lamp housing consists simply of a small three sided box just large enough to take an MES lampholder (Fig. 5). This is bolted onto the side of the box so that the lamp is in line with the hole and adjusted so that maximum light will shine across onto the photocell.

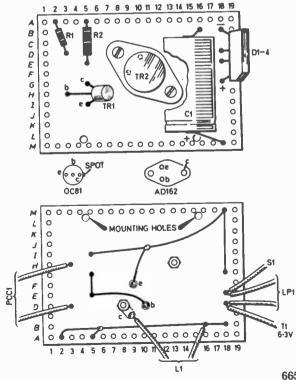
The photocell can be mounted on a small piece of plain circuit board so that the light sensitive end "looks into the box" through the hole. This small assembly is attached to the outside of the

It is important that the holes in the box are not too large as the mice may tend to chew the surrounding wood.

AMPLIFIER

The two transistors and remaining com-

Fig. 6. Layout and wiring of the components mounted on the circuit board.



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ponents, including the bridge rectifier, are mounted and wired on a piece of plain circuit board as shown in Fig. 6. Mount all the components on the circuit board after it has been cut to size and the mounting holes drilled. Solder the connections, using a heat shunt on the transistor leads and connect up the flying leads.

Leads are taken to the door switch (S1), lamp, photocell and to the solenoid as shown in Fig. 6. Note that the transformer T1 is a 6.3V 1 amp heater type. This transformer is mounted directly on the rear panel together with the circuit board and the mains switch as shown in Fig. 7. It is important that the aluminium panel is earthed via the mains lead.

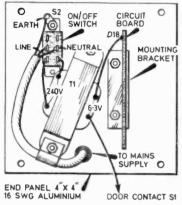
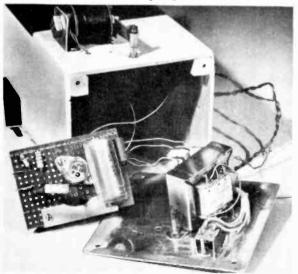


Fig. 7. Wiring of the components on the panel.

OPERATION

The trap door is set by releasing the catch, lifting it to a horizontal position and retaining it by hooking the long stiff wire under the pin on the solenoid arm. Check that it will release by pushing the arm in towards the face of the solenoid. Only slight pressure should be required.

Now switch on the amplifier, re-set the door, and check that the lamp lights when the door



Components....

Resistors

10kΩ√1 $2.2k\Omega$ $\}$ $^{\frac{1}{4}}W$ \pm 10% carbon R2

Capacitor

500μF elect. 12V

Semiconductors PCC1 ORP60

D1-4 BY164

photo conductive cell bridge rectifier or similar IA 50 p.i.v. bridge

TRI OC81 TR2 AD162

germanium pnp germanium pnp

Miscellaneous

6V 0.2A bulb and holder LP1 L1

32 s.w.g. enamelled copper wire wound on ¼in × 1¾in steel bolt (see

text).

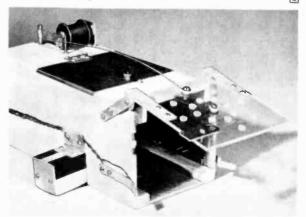
S₁ Door contact switch (see text)

S₂ D.p.s.t. mains switch, slide or toggle T1 6.3V1A secondary mains transformer

Materials for case, door hinges, door latch, LP1 and PCC1 mounting boxes, solenoid arm, door retaining spring and end mounting panel (see text). Plain perforated Veroboard 3in $imes 2\frac{1}{8}$ in imes 0.15in matrix, $\frac{1}{2}$ in $imes \frac{1}{2}$ in imes 2in aluminium angle for mounting bracket, mains lead and three pin plug, connecting wire, 6BA and 4BA fixings.

is in the retained position. Providing the photocell is fully illuminated the arm will not move. indicating that TR2 is cut off. Try rolling a cotton reel into the box to interrupt the light beam. This should cause the solenoid arm to move, release the retaining wire and allow the door to instantly close. At the same time the door contact S1 will open and cut off the supply voltage to the amplifier and lamp.

With the door closed the lamp must go out. Should the door contact fail to break the circuit do not leave the amplifier operating as TR2 will be passing a large current and may destroy itself. Make sure that the light always goes out when the trap door closes.



										_
					TD A NICIG	TORE				
					TRANSIS					
	2G301	0.15	2N3854	0.16	BC108	0.11	BFY50	0.16	NKT613P	0 80
	2G302	0.15	2N3854A	0.16	3C109	0-18	BFY51	0-16		0 24
	2G303	0-25	2N3855	0.16	BC113	0.18	BFY52	0.16		0.30
	2G306	0.80	2N3855A	0.16	BC115	0-15	BFY53 BFY56	0·15 0·34	NKT717	0.44
	2G309	0-80	2N3856 2N3856A	0·16 0·16	BC116 BC116A	0-15 0-18	BFY75	0.40	NKT781	0.20
	2G371 2G374	0·15 0·15	2N3858	0.16	BC118	0.11	BFY76	0.22	NKT10419	,
	2G381	0.25	2N3858A	0.10	BC121	0-20	BPY77	0-24		0.30
	2N404	0.88	2N 3859	0.16	BC125	0.15	BFY90	0.55	NKT10439)
	2N696	0-15	2N3859A	0.16	BC126	0-20	BFY39	0.88	N115 M 1 A 5 1 5	0.27
	2N697	0-15	2N3860	0.16	BC140	0-80	B8 X 19	0·13 0·14	NKT10519	0.28
	2N698	0.25	2N3866	0·70 0·25	BC147 BC148	0·10 0·09	B8X20 B8X21	0.50	NKT20329	
	2N706 2N708	0-10 0-18	2N3877 2N3877A	0.28	BC149	0.11	B8 X 26	0.84		0.88
	2N709	0.86	2N3900	0.20	BC157	0-09	B8X27	0.84	NKT20339	
	2N718	0-21	2N3900A	0.21	BC158	0-10	BB X 28	0.25	***********	0.86
	2N914	0-15	2N3901	0.38	BC159	0-10	BB X 60	0.54	NKT80111	0-67
	2N916	0-17	2N 3903	0-23	BC160	0·11 0·11	B8X61 B8X76	0-42 0-15	NKT80112	
	2N918 2N929	0·30 0·14	2N3904 2N3905	0-28 0-21	BC167B BC168B	0.10	B8 X 77	0.20		0.84
	2N930	0.14	2N3906	0.22	BC168C	0.10	B8 X 78	0.25	NKT80113	
	2N1090	0-20	2N4058	0.18	BC169B	0-11	BBW70	0.28		1.00
	2N1091	0-88	2N4059	0.90	BC169C	0-11	B8 Y24	0-20	NKT80211	0 75
	2N 1131	0-20	2N4060	0.11	BC170	0-11	BSY25 BSY26	0·20 0·20	NKT80212	
	2N1132	0.20	2N4061	0.11	BC171 BC172	0-18 0-11	B8 Y27	0.15	11 84 1 00 2 1 1	0-75
	2N1184 2N1302	1·27 0·16	2N4062 2N4303	0-11 0-32	BC182	0-10	B8Y28	0.15	NKT80213	3
	2N 1303	0-16	2N5172	0.09	BC183	0-09	B8 Y38	0.15		0.75
	2N1304	0-20	2N5174	0.22	BC184	0-11	BBY39	0-15	NKT80214	š
	2N1305	0-20	2N5175	0.26	BC212L	0-12	B6V51	0.25	NKT80218	0-75
	2N1306	0.23	2N5176	0.32	BCY30	0-85	BSY52 BSY53	0·25 0·25	NK 100210	0-75
	2N1307	0-22	2N5245	0.48	BCY31	0-40 0-60	B8 Y 54	0-20	NKT80216	
	2N1306 2N1309	0-25 0-25	2N5459 3N128	0-38	BCY32 BCY33	0-80	B8 Y 56	0.79		0.75
	2N 1507	0-25	3N 140	0-76	BCY34	0-35	B8Y78	0-40	OC20	0.65
	2N1613	0.20	3N141	0.69	BCY38	0-40	B8Y79	0.40	OC22	0.50
	2N 1631	0-88	3N142	0.54	BCY39	0.80	B8 7790	0.45	OC23	0.50
	2N 1637	0.36	3N143	0.64	BCY40	0 50	BBY95A C111	0.09	OC24 OC25	0.60 0.50
Ì	2N1638	0.38	3N 152	0.79	BCY42 BCY43	0-15 0-15	C424	0·58 0·15	OC26	0.25
ı	2N1711	0.17			BCY58	0.18	C425	0.36	OC28	0.65
ı	2N 1893 2N 2147	0·34 0·70			BCY59	0.19	C426	0.25	OC29	0.60
ı	2N2148	0-60			BCY59 BCY70	0-17	C428	0-25	OC35	0.50
ı	2N2193	0.58			BCY71	0-22	GET113	0.88	OC36 OC41	0-65
ı	2N2193A	0-61			BCY72	0.18	GET114 GET119	0-20 0-35	OC42	0.35
ı	2N2194A	0-30	40050	0·50 0·53	BCZ10 BCZ11	0-35 0-50	GET120	0-40	OC44	0.15
l	2N2219 2N2220	0-20	40251 40309	0.58	BD116	0.75	GET873	0.15	OC45	0-12
l	2N2220 2N2221	0.20	40310	0.87	BD121	0.75	GET880	0-35	OC46	0.27
ı	2N2222	0.20	40360	0.85	BD123	0-82	GET887	0-20	OC70	0-12
ı	2N2222A	0.32	40361	0.37	BD124	0-60	GET890	0.35	OC71 OC72	0-12 0-12
ı	2N2368	0-11	40362	0.40	BD131	0·75 0·75	MJ400 MJ420	0·78 0·86	OC74	0.25
ı	2N2869	0.12	40406	0-40 0-81	BD132 BDY10	1.25	MJ421	0.88	OC75	0 22
l	2N2369A 2N2046	0-17 0-45	40407 40408	0.41	BDYII	1.50	MJ430	0.75	OC76	0.23
ı	2N2711	0.18	40410	0.58	BDY17	1-50	MJ440	0.71	OC77	0.40
ı	2N2712	0.18	40467 A	0.57	BDY18	1.75	MJ480	0.75	OC81	0.20
ı	2N2713	0-17	40468.A	0.35	BDY19	1.97	MJ481 MJ490	0-65 0-94	OC81D OC82D	0.95
l	2N2714	0.17	AC107	0.85	BDY20 BDY38	1·00 0·65	MJ 491	1.10	OC83	0.20
l	2N2904 2N2904A	0·18 0·29	AC126 AC127	0.20	BDY60	0.90	MJE340	0-47	OC84	0.20
ı	2N 2904A	0-26	AC128	0.50	BDY61	0.65	MJE520	0-59	OC139	0.25
ı	2N2905A	0.28	AC154	0.20	BD Y62	0.75	MPF102	0.25	OC140 OC170	0-30 0-25
ı	2N2906	0.18	AC176	0.16	BF115	0.25	MPF103 MPF104	0-88 0-88	OC170	0.30
ı	2N2906A	0.28	ACY 17	0.25	BF117 BF163	0·43 0·20	MPF105	0-88	OC200	0.40
ı	2N2907 2N2923	0·18 0·18	ACY18 ACY19	0-15 0-20	BF166	0-35	NKT124	0-42	OC201	0-65
ı	2N2924	0-12	ACY20	0.20	BF167	0.18	NKT125	0-40	OC202	0.65
ı	2N2925	0-12	ACY21	0.18	BF173	0-19	NKT126	0.38	OC203 OC204	0·48 0·48
ł	2N2926		ACY22	0.12	BP177	0.25	NKT128 NKT135	0-48 0-26	OC205	0.25
l	Green	0-10	ACY28 ACY40	0·18 0·17	BF178 BF179	0·31 0·38	NKT137	0.28	P346A	0.18
ı	Yellow Orange	0·10 0·10	ACY41	0.17	BP180	0.35	NKT210	0.25	TIP29A	0-49
ı	2N3052	0.15	AD140	0.55	BF181	0.34	NKT211	0-25	TIP30A	0.58
ı	2N3054	0-47	AD149V	1.28	BP184	0-17	NKT212	0.25	TIP31A TIP32A	0.62
ı	2N 3055	0-60	AD150	0.55	BF185 BF194	0·17 0·14	NKT213 NKT214	0-25 0-15	TIP32A	1.01
ı	2N3390	0.80	AD161	0.33	BF195	0-15	NKT215	0.21	TIP34A	1.51
ŀ	2N3391 2N3391A	0·20 0·22	AD162 AD161 \	0·86 PR	BF196	0-15	NKT216	0 46	TIP35A	2.90
ı	2N3391A	0.13	AD162	0.60	BF197	0-15	NKT217	0-50	TIP36A	3-70
١	2N3393	0-12	AF106	0.24	BF198	0.18	NKT219	0.25	T1834 T1843	0.50
١	2N3394 '	0-12	AF114	0-25	BF200	0·40 0·14	NKT223 NKT224	0·17 0·25	T1843	0.07
١	2N3402	0-17	AF115	0.25	BF224J BF255J	0-14	NKT225	0.21	T1845	0-10
١	2N3403	0-19 0-24	AF116 AF117	0·25 0·20	BF237	0.22	NKT229	0.29	T1846	0.11
١	2N3404 2N3405	0.24	AP118	0.50	BF238	0-22	NKT237	0-81	T1847	0.11
۱	2N3414	0.10	AF124	0.24	BF244	0-16	NKT238	0.18	T1848 T1849	0·11 0·11
١	2N3415	0-10	AF125	0.20	BFX13 BFX29	0-23 0-25	NKT240 NKT241	0·19 0·20	T1850	0.17
١	2N3416	0.15	AF126	0.20	BFX30	0-25	NKT242	0-15	T1851	0-11
ĺ	2N3417	0.21 1.25	AF127 AF139	0-20 0-33	BPX44	0-33	NKT243	0.63	T1852	0.18
ĺ	2N3570 2N3572	0.97	AF178	0.55	BPX 68	0-80	NKT244	0-17	T1853	0.53
ĺ	2N3702	0.11	AF179	0.65	BPX84	0-24	NKT245	0.18		
۱	2N3703	0.10	AP180	0.50	BFX80	0-29 0-24	NKT261 NKT262	0-21 0-19		
ĺ	2N3704	0-11	A F211	0.65		0-24	NKT264	0.10		
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ĺ	2N3706 2N3707	0·90 0·11	AF280	0.47	BFX89	0-45	NKT272	0.18		
ĺ	2N 3708	0.70	AB Y26	0.25	REAIO	0-35	NKT274 NKT275	0·18 0·23		
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AC141K	20p	BC182L	8p	ME4102	120	OC200	25p	2N3704	13p
AC142K	20p	BC183L	8p	ME6002	14p	OC201	25p	2N3703	110
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THEY MADE THEIR MARK

Nº6 Faraday

(Part 1)

By J. E. Gregory

Table I: FARAD (F)

The farad is the unit of electric capacitance. A capacitor has a capacitance of one farad when a charge of one coulomb raises the potential between its plates to one volt, hence farads = coulombs

volts

For everyday use the farad is too large a unit, and smaller units called microfarads (symbol $\mu F=10^{-6}F)$, nanofarads (symbol nF = $10^{-6}F)$ and picofarads (sometimes called "puffs"—symbol pF = $10^{-12}F)$ are used. The unit was first suggested in 1867 by Latimer Clark, the English

The unit was first suggested in 1867 by Latimer Clark, the English engineer and electrician, who besides inventing the Clark standard cell took a leading part in the movement for the systemisation of electrical standards. The farad was adopted as the unit of electric capacitance, at the first meeting of the International Electrotechnical conference in 1881.

N this, the first half of a twopart article, we meet the man once described as "the Columbus of electricity"—Michael Faraday—who discovered how to make electricity by mechanical means, and gave his name to the unit of electric capacitance (see Table 1).

Michael Faraday was born at Newington, Surrey, on September 22, 1791, the third son of a Yorkshire blacksmith who had migrated to London. At the age of fourteen Michael was apprenticed to one Riebeau, a bookbinder, who gave young Michael time to study the many learned books they were binding. Michael was a good worker, with an aptitude for learning and as a reward Mr. Riebeau took him to a series of lectures, on chemistry given by Sir Humphrey Davy of miner's safety lamp fame.

GREATEST DISCOVERY

The young Faraday was spell-bound not only by Davy but by the content of the lectures, so much so that he made notes, bound and illustrated them, and sent them to Davy requesting an interview as an assistant, although impressed Davy wrote to Faraday saying that he should stick to his trade of bookbinding, "Science is too precarious for a young man".

Then fate took a hand, Davy's assistant was dismissed and Faraday was offered a job, and Davy made what he later described as "My greatest discovery". The man who in later years was to succeed him as Director of the Royal Institute.

ROYAL INSTITUTE

Faraday started work at the Royal Institute on March 1, 1813, in a humble capacity assisting lecturers and keeping the apparatus polished, soon he became Davy's experimental assistant, and together from October 1813 to April 1815, they toured Europe lecturing.

On June 12, 1821, Faraday married Sarah Barnard and they moved to apartments at the Royal Institute where he had been promoted to superintendent.

Taking up original work in chemistry Faraday made a number of discoveries among them benzol, and two new chlorides of carbon, he was also much in demand as a lecturer.

Gradually his work in chemistry was eclipsed by his electrical discoveries.

Faraday proved that a conductor carrying a current also induced currents in neighbouring conductors. On a wooden core he wound two coils of insulated wire, and sent electricity through one, while the other was connected to a meter which measured the current. He noticed that while the battery current flowed steadily through the coil, the meter did not move, but when the current was started or stopped, the needle jerked back and forth.

Picking up where Ampère left off he concluded that since electricity produced magnetism, so magnetism might produce electricity. He discovered that if a magnet is thrust into a coil of wire an electric current is "generated" in the coil, when the magnet is withdrawn the current direction is reversed proving that movement can produce electricity. This great discovery—that electricity could be produced by magnetism-was dated in Faraday's r.otebook as August 29, 1831.

He made a small dynamo in which a current was produced by rotating a loop of wire between the two poles of a magnet. At each half turn of the wire loop the direction of the current was reversed so that it flowed back and forth (a.c.). Faraday eventually fitted a commutator to turn the a.c. into d.c. He demonstrated his dynamo and reported his two discoveries of electrodynamic induction and magnetoelectric induction to the Royal Society in November 24, 1831.

This is generally regarded as the birth of the modern dynamo and transformer, and led to the development of the electric motor.

But Faraday had not finished yet as we shall be seeing in Part 2, next month.



TEACH-IN

End of term test

To wind up the *Teach-In* series we have devised the following questionaire which should help emphasise some of the more important points covered. We shall be publishing detailed answers next month so please do not send your answers in to us.

(1) To make a silicon npn transistor conduct between collector and emitter must we make the base: (a) 300 mV positive, (b) 300mV negative, (c) 600mV positive or (d) 600mV negative with respect to the emitter.

(2) Generally speaking, and assuming all important parameters such as $h_{\rm FE}$, breakdown voltages, junction capacitance, current and power ratings and manufacturing materials are the same, do you think you could substitute pnp for npn transistors in a circuit and simply reverse the polarity of the power supply?

(3) Calculate the quiescent power dissipation of TR1 in Fig. 1. Assume TR1 is a silicon transistor and its h_{FE} is exactly 200; the resistors are precise values and the base/emitter voltage drop is exactly 600mV.

(4) (a) How long will it take C1 to charge up to +4V when S1 in Fig. 2 is opened?

(b) If C1 was a "leaky" capacitor, would it take more or less time to charge to the same potential?

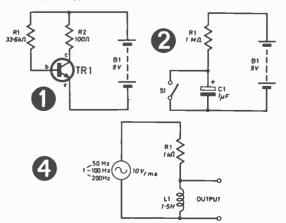
(c) Alternatively, if 18V was applied to the circuit, would the charging time be greater or less than in (a) above?

(5) Why is it sometimes necessary to put a diode in series with the base of each transistor in an astable multivibrator?

(6) A square wave has a mark/space ratio of 10:1. The off time is 50mS and represents the "mark". How long is the on time and what are the period and frequency of the waveform?

(7) What are the absolute values of positive and negative peaks of a sine wave having an amplitude of 4V r.m.s. about a d.c. level of +2V?

(8) Would you prefer to use a silicon or germanium diode as a half-wave meter rectifier when the meter has a full scale reading of 5V? There is a good reason for not using one type! What is the reason?



(9) Fig. 3 shows three ways in which a transformer could be drawn in a simple circuit. In two cases the output voltage is in phase with the input. In one case it is out of phase. Which is the latter?

(10) If you are going to buy a transformer to make a simple battery eliminator power supply with a d.c. output in the range 8V to 9V, would you select one with an r.m.s. secondary of: (a) 6·3V, (b) 9V, or (c) 12V?

(11) What would you expect the r.m.s. output voltage from Fig. 4 to be for input frequencies of 50Hz, 100Hz and 200Hz having equal amplitudes of 10V r.m.s.?

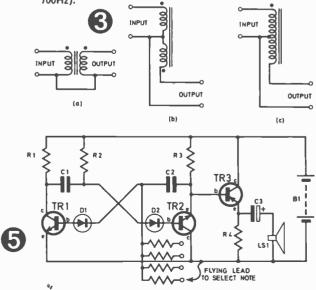
(12) To obtain best power efficiency with least drain on batteries, would you use a class A or class B output stage in a transistor radio?

(13) Why do you think that many hi-fi purists prefer a class A output?

(14) If you connect a crystal microphone to the low input impedance sockets of an amplifier, would you have: (a) uniform frequency response, (b) loss of bass frequencies, or (c) loss of high frequencies?

(15) You have a new amplifier that needs a loudspeaker having 7 ohms impedance. You have two loudspeakers having impedances of 3 ohms and 15 ohms respectively and you desperately want to try out the amplifier. Which loudspeaker could you use without fear of damaging the amplifier?

(16) Fig. 5 is the basic circuit of a simple four note electronic organ—no component values are given and there are 5 deliberate mistakes in the fundamental circuitry assume the battery polarity is correct as shown. See how many of the mistakes you can find and then try and work out the values of all the components to make the circuit work. (Frequencies should be in the range of 300 to 700Hz).



Everyday Electronics, October 1972

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.

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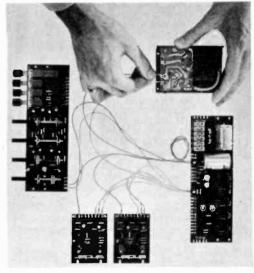
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4	2%	10Ω-1M	E24	3 · 5p	3 · 0p
- 1	10%	$1\Omega - 3 \cdot 9\Omega$	E12	1 · 0p	0.8p
I	5%	4 · 7Ω-ΙΜΩ	E12	1 · 0p	0-8p
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ACI27	12p	BC109	10p	BFY51	22p	OCP71	40p	2N3705	12p	ì
ACI28	12p	BC147	10p	BFY52	220	ORP12	50p	2N3706	Hp	i
ACI31	12p	BC148	130	BSY56	32p	2N2369	16p	2N3707	12p	ì
ACI32	120	BC149	13p	OC26	45p	2N2646	60p	2N3708	10p	l
AD140	50p	BC157	13p	OC28	45p	2N2926R	9p	2N3709	Hel	ı
ADI61	33p	BC158	13p	OC35	45p	2N29260	9p	2N3710	Hp	l
AD162	36p	BC159	13p	OC42	12p	2N2926Y	9p	2N3711	Hp	ı
AFI14	20p	BD131	75p	OC44	120	2N2926G	10p	2N4062	12p	ı
AFI15	20p	BD132	75p	OC45	12p	2N3054	58p	ZTX302	15p	l
AFI16	20p	BF179	32p	OC70	12p	2N3055	60p	ZTX500	16p	ı
AFI17	20p	BFIBI	25p	OC71	12p	2N3442	140p	ZTX503	16p	l
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BZY13	200V	6A	200	OA9I	5p
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0-015μF, 0-022μF, 0-033μF, 3p. 0-047μF, 0-068μF, 0-1μF, 4p. 0-15μF, 6p. 0-22μF, 74p. 0-33μF, 11p. 0-47μF, 13p. 160V: 0-010μF, 0-015μF, 0-022μF, 0-033μF, 0-047μF, 0-068μF, 3p. 0-1μF 3½p. 0-15μF, 4½p. 0-22μF, 5p. 0-33μF, 6p. 0-47μF, 1½p. 0-68μF, 11p. 1-0μF, 13p. MULLARD POLYESTER CAPACITORS C280 SERIES 250V P.C. mounting: 0-01μF, 0-015μF, 0-022μF, 3p. 0-033μF, 0-047μF, 0-068μF 3½p. 0-1μF, 4p. 0-15μF, 0-22μF, 5p. 0-33μF, 6½p. 0-47μF, 8½p. 0-68μF, 11p. 1-0μF, 13p. 1-5μF, 24p.

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That Convention

Ref. your reply to Mr. Robinsons comment (July issue) on conventional and electron current, may I point out the following.

(a) Conventional current is no longer in common usage; all secondary schools, at least in Scotland, teach the basics of electricity and magnetism with reference to electron flow.

(b) All the basic laws of electricity and magnetism are not in terms of conventional current, electron current is now used and has been for some time.

To sum up, electron current has now become conventional, and the basic rules of electricity and magnetism not only remain as they always were, but they are now much more realistic. Readers still using conventional current may be brought up to date as far as electro-magnetics is concerned if they simply use electron current and interchange Flemings right and left hand rules.

In closing, may I congratulate you and your colleagues for an excellently produced magazine; I am sure that you have given much pleasure to the professional as well as the beginner in elec-

tronics.

Michael F. I. McVoy Port Glasgow

Our Teach-In author, Mike Hughes, replies:

Thank you for Mr. McVoy's letter which is very interesting. Here is my reply which you might like to publish as I think his comments are quite controversial.

Mr. McVoy's comments are very interesting but I think that a unilateral decision to drop conventional current teaching could be very dangerous. Certainly in most parts of England the policy of teaching is to stay with conventional current—this is accepted requirement for the London University Schools' Examination Board when they come to mark GCE papers.

all established course, physics and electronics books are written in terms of conventional current and the more recent ones in my possession still maintain this standard. Provided the standard. student is aware of the definition

I do not think there is any great harm in maintaining the situation.

cannot agree with Mr. McVoy's statement regarding Flemings "left" and "right" hand rules. Flemings rules were devised assuming current flow from positive to negative; if you change the convention they can no longer be called "Fleming's" rules, but worse still; I have great difficulty remembering which hand applies to what at the moment; introduce a reversal in sense of flow and I bet—as with a pair of swing doors -I will get the right set of cir-

cumstances on the last attempt! What happens to the "Corkscrew" rule (left hand thread screws?) and those nice twirly N's and S's to tell me which end of a solendoid is the north pole? All transistor and diode symbols have a built in "arrow" which depicts the direction of conventional flow; if we changed the convention sooner or later someone would come along and say the symbols should be changed round. Anyone then referring back to old copies of E.E. would no doubt be reading npn for pnp types!

I have every sympathy with the beginner who may be mesmerised by the apparent nonsense of the convention, but I think it is simpler to stick with it than change it lightly.

Mike Hughes

Clubbed!

I have been interested in electronics for some years but until vour magazine came out I had not done anything practical. Now I have built a couple of your projects, due to your magazine

making it simple and basic, and my interest has increased.

I would like to join a radio or electronics club to further my interest, but I'm a bit hesitant as being a near beginner I'm not certain if I'd be eligible. If you could suggest a suitable club in my area I would be very grateful.

H. Wagg Cheshire

We do not know of a club in your area, but there may be a course at a local technical college or an evening course at a school. Otherwise see the following letter.

Thanks to your advice in reply to Mr. Milligan's letter (July issue) I have since joined the British Amateur Electronics Club and found that it fulfils all my requirements. As for a national exhibition this year's has already taken place at Penarth, Glamorgan on July 22 to 29. Amongst the exhibits was a random letter generator, designed by some of our more experienced members, and constructed by any members who were willing to help.

Although our projects sound rather ambitious (the next being a small computer) all attempts are made to help newcomers to the electronics field. Nearly half the quarterly newsletter is devoted to comment and articles to help the beginner, and give that beginner the knowledge he needs to become proficient in pursuance of his hobby, so, if anyone is interested, I am sure Mr. Margetts will send you details. (No, I don't get commission!)

Andrew Cash Bristol

Weather Coupling

Constructionairs" "E.E. find this tip useful for the wind generator spindle coupling in the Weather Station (August issue). By cutting away the plastic surround of a 2 amp plastic terminal block, the metal inserts make a suitable spindle coupling for a small model makers motors.

R. A. Lygo Oxford

If you write to us for advice, and wish to have a personal reply you must include a s.a.e. Unfortunately, we cannot prepare special designs, circuits or wiring diagrams, to meet individual requirements nor can we supply back issues or answer queries concerning commercial equipment, or subjects or designs not published by us.

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CERAMIC 1pf to 0.01mf, 4p. Sliver Mica 2 to 5000pf, 4p. PAPER 350V-0.1 4p, 0.5 13p; 1mf 15p; 2mf 150V 15p. 500V-0.001 to 0.05 4p; 0.1 5p; 0.25 8p; 0.47 25p.

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SHORT WAVE, SINGLE. 10pf 30p; 25pf 55p; 50pf 55p. NEON PANEL INDICATORS 250V AC/DC Red or Amber 20p.
RESISTORS, j. w., j. w., 20% 1p; 2 w. 5p 10 ohms to 10 mes
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Ditto 5% Preferred values 10 ohms to 1 mes., 10p.

WIRE-WOUND RESISTORS 5 watt, 10 watt, 15 wat 10 ohms to 100K, 10p each; 24 watt, 1 ohm to 8.2 ohms 10t

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Deram Cartridge transcription head and arm Four speeds. 10}in. turntable Anti-rumble filter Bias compensation

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METAL PLINTH & PLASTIC COVER Cut out for most Garrard or B.S.R. Will play with cover in position. Latest design. Covered in black leatherstle. Antimagnetic. 12½ x 14½ x 7½in. POST 25p

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720 watts. Insulated terminals. Varnish impregnated.
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50μΑ..... 80-0-50μΑ

\$41004

100µA #3-45 100-0-100µA #3-35

TYPE SW.100 100 x 80 mm.

ı		
ı	20V. D.C	48-10
	80V. D.C	\$3-10
	300V. D.C.	\$3-10
	l amp. D.C.	43-10
	5 amp. D.C.	83 ·10
	300V. A.C.	\$3-10
	BITT BEALOR	49.75

DESIGNS! **BAKELITE PANEL**

METERS TYPE S-80 80 mm. square fronts

\$00µA 1mA 20V. D.C...



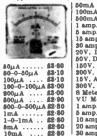
18,020	
50V. D.C	42-60
300 V. D.C.	42-60
1 amp. D.C.	43-50
5 amp. D.C.	\$2-60
300 V. A.C.	#8-60
V17 Meter	\$8-87

"SEW" CLEAR PLASTIC METERS

Type MR.85P. 4jin. × 4jin. fronts. 7 50mA ... \$2-80 100mA ... \$2-80

500mA

48-10



all	5 amp 22'84
M	15 amp \$2-80
Total Control	30 amp 42-90
STREET, STREET	20V, D.C #2-84
THE RESERVE TO SERVE THE PARTY OF THE PARTY	50V. D.C #8-86
μA £8-60	150V. D.C. 42-80
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00-82 A110	8 Meter lmA \$3.8
0µA £8-90	VU Meter \$8 60
0-0-500µA #2-80	1 amp. A.C.* #2-8
08-SB Ar	5 amp. A.C. #28-8
0-1mA \$2.80	10 amp. A.C. #2-8
1A 62-80	20 amp. A.C. #28-8
mA \$2:80	30 amp. A.C. 428-8
_	

Type MR.52P. 21	in. square fronts.
50μA \$3·10	10V. D.C 42-00
80-0-504A 88-60	20V. D.C #2:00
100µA \$2 60	50V. D.C #2-00
100-0-100µA £2:50	300V. D.C. 42-04
8004A 82-80	15 V. A.C #2-10
lmA \$2.00	300V. A.C. \$2.10
5mA £2:00	8 Meter 1mA #2-10
10mA \$2:00	VU Meter #3:30
50mA £2:00	1 amp. A.C. #28-00
100mA \$3.00	5 amp. A.C. #2-00
500mA \$2-00	10 amp. A.C. \$8.00
1 amp \$9-00	20 amp. A.C. 48-00
5 amp \$2-00	30 amp. A.C. #28-00

Type MR.65P. 3 in. × 3 in. fronts.				
50µA \$3-87	10V. D.C 82-20			
80-0-50µA \$2.75	20V. D.C 48-20			
100µA #3-75	50V. D.C 42-20			
100-U-100µA#2-65	150V.D.C 42-20			
200µA £2-65	300 V. D.C. 42-20			
\$00µA £2-40	15V. A.C 42-30			
800 0 F00 4 89.80	50V. A.C 42-80			
800-0-500µA £2:20	150V. A.C. 42-30			
1mA #2 90	300V. A.C. 42-80			
5mA £3-20				
10mA \$2.90	500V. A.C. 22-30			
50mA 42.20	B Meter 1mA 82-87			
100mA #2-20	VU Meter \$8-87			
500mA \$2.20	50mA A.G. *82-20			
1 amp #2-20	100mA A.C. *\$2:30			
5 amp £2-20	200mA A.C. \$2.20			
10 amp #8-20	500mA A.C. \$2.20			
15 amp 42-20	1 amp. A.C.* #2-20			
20 amp 42-20	5 amp. A.C. * \$2.20			
30 amp \$2-30	10 amp. A.C.*22-20			
50 amp \$2-50	20 amp. A.C. 22 20			
	30 amp. A.C. 42-20			
5V. D.C 42-20	. So smili V.v. ", sp. so.			

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Type ED.107. Size overall 100mm × 90mm × 108mm. A new range of high quality moving coil instruments ideal for school experiments and other

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1mA \$4-40	300V d.c \$4-49
80-0-50µA \$4-65	
1-0-1mA \$4-40	Dual range
1A d.c £4-40	500mA/5A d.c.#4-65
5A d.e \$4-40	5V/50V d.c \$4-65

Two MR 22P 1 21/22in, square fronts.

42-60

· The same of the same of the same of	200mA
- Address - Artist College (C.)	300mA
-	500mA
Carlo Valley	750m.A
1	1 amp
20.00 mm	2 amp
CONTRACTOR OF THE PARTY.	5 amp
SSST-STATE OF THE	10 amp.
50µA £3:10	3V. D.C.
80-0-50µA \$1.90	10V. D.C.
100µA \$1.90	15V. D.C.
100-0-100µA \$1.75	20 V. D.C.
200µA \$1.75	100V. D.C
500 A 41-65	150V D.C

Type M.S. eer, 1 M.	letter admera	HOMES.
, The same of the same of	200mA	£1-60
- Admir - Ann - All Shalls I	300mA	\$1.60
- Allendaria	500mA	\$1.60
Carlo Valley	750mA	
1	1 amp	
#17 m	2 amp	41-60
COLUMN TO SERVICE	5 amp	41-60
1555 1836 05 000	10 amp	41-80
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50-0-50µA \$1.90	10V. D.C	#1-60
100µA #1-90	15V. D.C	\$1.60
100-0-100µA #1-75	20 V. D.C	
200µA \$1.75	100V. D.C.	#1-60
500µA #1-65	150V. D.C.	
500-0-500µA #1-60	300 V. D.C.	\$1-60
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50mA \$1.60	500V. A.C.	
100mA \$1.60	B Meter 1mA	81-70
150mA \$1-60	VU Meter	42.10

7	YP.		N	R	.45	P.	Sin
50µA							
50-0-	-60	12.	A		88-	10	- 1
عر100	A	٠.			48	10	- 1
100-)-)	00	ш	A	\$1.	87	- 1
عر200	A		٠.		41-	87	- 1
5004	Ä				£1.	75	
500°-	3–0	00	ш	A	41-	70	- 1
1mA					\$1.	70	- 1
5mA					\$1.	70	
10m.	l.				\$1 ·		
50m/	A.				41-		
100m	A				\$1.	70	- 1
500m	A				#1-		- 1
1 am	ıρ				41-	70	- 1

ď	n. square fronts
	5 amp \$1.70
	10V. D.C #1-70
	20V. D.C 41-70
	50V. D.C #1-70
	300 V. D.C. #1-70
	15V, A.C \$1-80
	300V. A.C. 41-80
	8 Meter 1mA \$1-85
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1	1 amp. A.C. * \$1.70
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1	30 amp A C 941-70

\$1-98

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E 200	2 amp \$1.95
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N 455 138	50 amp \$1.95
100000	5V. D.C \$1.95
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TY 80.00	
#2-35	150V. A.C. 41-95
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82-20	500m A A.C. * \$1.95
\$1.95	1 amp. A.C. * \$1.95
A \$1-95	5 amp. A.C. * £1-95
£1-95	10 amp. A.C. *\$1.95
#1-95	20 amp. A.C. *\$1.95
£1.95	30 amp. A.C. *\$1.95
#1-05	50 amp. A.C. *8. 95
\$1.95	VU Meter #1-10



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	2} ln.		
50µA		500μA	
50-0-50μΑ 100μΑ 100-0-100μΔ 200μΑ	#3-90	1mA 300V. A.C. VU Meter	42-45

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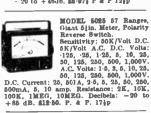


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Mirror scale.
-6/8/12/30/120/600 V
D.C. 3/30/120/600 V
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100,000 O.P.V. Overload protection. Mirror scale, :3:6/1:2/
1-5/5/6/12/30/60/120/300/
600/1200 VDC. 1-6/3/6/12/
80/80/150/800/800/1200 VAC.
15/30VA/3/6/3/6/01/100/300
mA. 6/12 AMP DC. 2K/200
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K/2 Meg/20 meg/bnr. -20 to
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Completely portable, simple to use pocket sized tester.

Ranges 0/3/30/300V AC
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Resistance 0-20K ohms.

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VOLTMETER

Battery operated,
11 meg input, 26
11 meg input, 26
12 meg input, 26
12 meg input, 26
13 meg input, 26
14 x 41 x 21'.
DC VOLT8 0 3 1200V, AC VOLT8
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RENT 12 - 12MA.
Resistance up to 2000M ohm. Decibels
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V DC. 0/6/30/120/600 V. AC.
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Amp. DC. 0/10/K/1 MEQ/
100 MEG. -20 to +50 db.
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tester measures Alpha,
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wide range signal generator covering 120 kc/s-280
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Directly calibrated variable R.F. attenuator. Operation 200/240V. A.C.
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MODEL 500 80,000 O.P.V with overload protection mirror scale 0/-5/2-5/10/25/ 100/250/500/1,000 V. D.C. 100/250/500/1,000 V. D.C. 0/2.5/100/25/100/250/500/ 1,000 V. A.C. 0/50μΔ/5/50/ 500mA. 12 amp. D.C. 0/60/K/6 Meg./60 Meg Ω. 88-87½. Post paid.



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100,000 O.P.V. 6 in.
Scale Burser Short Circult Check. Sensitivity:
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Voit A.C. D.C. Volta:
5, 2-5, 10, 50, 250, 1,000
V. A.C. Volta: 5, 10, 50,
50, 250, 500, 1,000 V.
D.C. Current: 10, 100 µA.
10, 100, 500 mA, 2-5, 10

10, 100, 500mA, 2·5, 10 amp. Resistance: 1K, 10K, 100K, 10MEG, 100 MEGΩ. Decibels: -10 to +49 db. Plaetic Case with Carrying Handle. Size 7 μln. x 6 μn. x 3 μn. £18·90. P. & P. 25p.

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3in. tube. Y amp. Sensitivity 0·1ν p-p/Clf. Bandwidth 1·5 cp=1·5 MHz.

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VT.100
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2N2711 25p 2N4286 17p AD162 2N2712 25p 2N4287 17p AF109 2N2713 27p 2N4288 15p AF114	65p BDY10 125p MAT100 25p OC206 95p 45p BDY20 105p MAT101 25p OC207 75p	50 PIV 2A 45p 100 PIV 6A 55p 100 PIV 2A 50p 200 PIV 6A 65p 200 PIV 2A 55p 400 PIV 6A 75p	10P13 60p EF41 65p UCF80 58p 10P14 21-10 EF42 70p UCH21 60p 12AT6 80p EF80 25p UCH42 70p
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2N2906A 85p 2N4964 15p AF125 2N2907 28p 2N4965 18p AF126	28p BF188 18p MJ440 95p 8T141 20p 19p BF189 28p MJ480 97p T1834 62p 19p BF163 28p MJ481 125p T1843 40p	4001 50PIV 7p 8p 19p 4002 100PIV 7p 9p 80p 4003 200PIV 8p 10p 23p	12BH7 45p BF184 85p UF89 40p 19AQ5 85p EH90 40p UL41 65p
2N2924 159 2N5028 57p AF139 2N2925 15p 2N5029 47p AF178	28p BF170	4004 400PIV 3p 10p 25p 4005 600PIV 10p 18p 26p 4006 800PIV 18p 15p 27p	20D1 50p KL34 50p UL84 60p 20P2 55p EL41 50p UY41 489 20L1 81-10 EL42 65p UY85 60p 20P1 50p EL81 55p VR105/5033p
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2N3011 20p 2N5176 52p AF186 2N3014 32p 2N5176 45p AF239 2N3053 18p 2N5232A 30p AF279	30p BF180 33p MJE521 70p T1850 13p 30p BF181 32p MPF102 43p T1851 10p 47p BF182 30p MPF103 35p T1852 11p	STUD MOUNTING 6A 10A 17-5A 35A	20P5 41-20 EL91 35p Add 12p in 8 25L6 50p EL96 35p for postage DIODES & RECTIFIERS
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2N3134 15p 2N5265 325p ABY27 2N3135 25p 2N5305 87p ABY28 2N3136 25p 2N5306 40p ABY29	87p BP196 15p NKT125 27p ZTX106 18p 87p BP197 15p NKT125 27p ZTX109 15p	600PIV 82p 60p 72p 42 12 800PIV 85p 75p 87p 43 47 1000PIV 40p 85p 41-05 42-77	AA119 7p BAYS1 7p OA10 23p AA129 10p BAY38 15p OA9 10p
2N3390 25p 2N5307 27p ABY50 2N3391 20p 2N5308 27p ABY51 2N3391A 30p 2N5309 52p ABY54	25p BF198 15p NKT128 27p ZTX300 12p 25p BF200 35p NKT135 27p ZTX301 15p 25p BF224 14p NKT137 25p ZTX302 20p	50+ less 15% 100+ less 20% ZEBER DIODES	AAZ18 10p BY103 22p OA70 7p BA100 18p BY122 37p OA78 10p
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× A		
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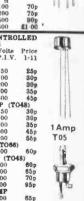
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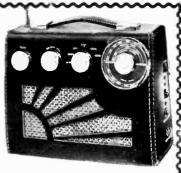
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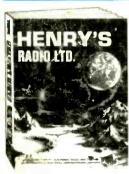
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