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## POCKET FIVE



3 Tuasble Tharebanda:
MW, LW, Trawler Band
Filb cxtended Ma.w.
band for eacler tuntng
of Luxembourg. etc.
7 stanes- 5 tranaintors and 2 difodes,
rapersensitive ferrite rod serinl, fine
tone moving coll zpeaker. Attractive black and gold
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 Band. Extre Meditum warebatad proridea eacier tuning of Radio Luxembours, etc. Built in territe rod aerial for MW and LW. Retractable 4 section 24 ln . chrome plated telescopic serial ior.' W. Bncket for Car Aerias. fine tons moring coil speaker. Alr spaced ganged fine tone moring coil sjeaker. Alr opaced ganged tuniog condenser. $\begin{gathered}\text { change coutrols. Atractive cato with carrsing bandle }\end{gathered}$ Bize $9 \times 7 \times 4 \mathrm{In}$. approx. Eany to follow instractions and disgrams. Parta price list and easy bulld plans 25D (FRBE witb parts).
Earpicce with plag and wilched aveket for prirate Ilslening 30p extro.

(Orerseas 1. d P.E1)
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FIVE

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AND 2 DIODES

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Total building costs
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ROAMER SIX

6 Tunsble Wiave bands: YW. LW 8W7 sw 2, sw 3 Trawier, bandplas en extris Medino wercband for of Lexembour of Laxembourg rite rod acrial and telencopic ecrial for Bhort Waves.
$3 \ln$. Speaker. 8
stages 6 trangiatore and 2 alones. Attractive black case with red grille, dial and black knobs with polinbed metal inserto Size $9 \times 5 \frac{1}{2} \times 2$ in. approx. Fagy bnild plans and partn price list 25 p (FLEEE with parta).


## TRANS EIGHT

## 8 TRANSISTOR

 and 3 DIODES8. Tunable Wave-

bande: MW, LW,
and Trawler Band
Sensitive ferrite rod aerial for M.F. and L.W. Telescopic actial for 8hort Waves. Stn. Speaker. 8 jmprored type translutors plus 3 diodes. Attractive case in metal inserts. Slize $9 \times 51 \times 2 \mathrm{in}$ approx. Push pall output. Battery economiser switch for extended battery life. Ample power to dirive larger speaker. Parta price list and eaxy build plans 25p (FEEE with parta).


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|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| － 0 － $0 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ | 53－80 |  |  |  | 10011 A |  |
| $100 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ | 23.80 |  |  |  | 500 ma | es． 10 |
| －a－100 | 级－70 |  |  |  | 1 mmp ． | 53．10 |
|  |  |  |  |  | 5 amp．． | 23．10 |
| Yo | 3.40 |  |  |  | 30 аखد | 88．20 |
|  | 23．40 | 5 |  |  | 20V．D． |  |
| D． | 锥40 | 300 V ．A．C．．． 28 |  |  | $50 \mathrm{~F} . \mathrm{DC}$ |  |
| mp．D．C | 83－40 | VU Meter ．． $54-15$ |  |  |  |  |
| e $50.83082 .5 \mathrm{~mm} \times 110 \mathrm{~mm}$ Fro |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  | ${ }_{300}$ |  |
|  |  |  | $200 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ |  | 8 Meter 1 m | 23 －15 |
|  |  | $100 \mathrm{ma}$$500 \mathrm{~mA}$ | ${ }^{500 \mu \mathrm{~A}}$ | \＄8．20 | YU Meter |  |
|  |  | 500－0－500ر | 38－10 | 1 mmp ．A．C |  |
|  |  | 1 mmp |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | 1－0 |  | 16 |  |
|  |  | （ex anyp．．．．．．． 88.50 |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  | 5v．D．C．${ }^{\text {a }}$ ． e2．50 |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | 10V．D．C． |  |  |  |  |
| $\begin{aligned} & 50-0-50 b^{\prime} . \\ & 100 \mu A \end{aligned}$ |  |  | Type MR．52P． 2 l in．zquare fronte |  |  |  |
| 100－ $0-100 \mu$ | 70 | ${ }_{50 \text { 20V．D．C．}}$ |  |  |  |  |
| $\mu \mathrm{A}$ | 70 | 300V．D．C． 58.50 |  | 2．85 | 20 V .0 |  |
| A | 50 | 15 F ．A．C．．． 88. |  |  | 50 v D．D．C． |  |
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| pe |  |  |  | 22．20 | 300 V ．A． |  |
|  |  |  |  |  | S Me |  |
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| 50－0－5 | 49.65 | 1 мuр．．．．．．．$\frac{53.85}{}$ | 100ma |  | $\frac{1}{5} \times 1$ | 28．20 |
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| $100-0-100 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ |  | 10 amp |  |  | 20 mpp A |  |
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| ${ }^{50 \mathrm{mi}}$ | £2．35 | 300 V ．A．c．．． 88.40 | $30-0-50 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ $100 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ | 8800 | 20V．D．C． |  |
| 100 min ． | 28．35 | vU Meter ． 28.70 |  |  | 130V．D．E．${ }^{\cdots 2}$ |  |
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| Type SD． 460 46mm $\times 59.5 \mathrm{~mm}$ Fronts |  |  | $200 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ <br> $500 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ <br> $500-0-500 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ |  | 300y． |  |
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| 30－0－50 1004 | 22.35 | 5 amp．．．．．．．． $22-15$ | $500-0-500 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ | 82． 40 |  |  |
|  | 22．85 |  | $\begin{aligned} & 1 \mathrm{~mA} \\ & \operatorname{smA} \\ & 10 \mathrm{~mA}\end{aligned} \cdots \cdots .$. |  | 300V．ACC ．． |  |
| ${ }_{100}^{100 \mu A} 10 \ldots$ | 52．85 |  |  | 10 mA …．． 22.40 |  |  |
| 100 ${ }^{\text {gen }}$ | $\underline{59.35}$ | 8V．D．C． | 50 ma A $\quad . .$. |  |  |  |
| 0 $\mu$ | 22．20 | 10V．D．C． $20 \mathrm{~V} . \mathrm{D} . \mathrm{C}$ | 100 mA …． 22.40 |  |  |  |
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| 10 ma | 82 |  |  |  | ${ }_{200 \mathrm{~mA}} 10 . \mathrm{C}$ ． 82.40 |  |
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$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 3in. tube, Y amp. Sensitivity } \\
& 0.25 \text { p-p/CM. Bandwidth }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 3 \ln \text { tabe, I amp. Sensivivity } \\
& 0.5 \mathrm{p} / \mathrm{CM} \text { Randwidth } \\
& 1.5 \mathrm{cps}-1.5 \mathrm{MHz} \text {. Input imp. }
\end{aligned}
$$ $\begin{array}{lll}2 \mathrm{meg} & 25 \mathrm{pF} & x \\ \text { semp } \\ \text { Bensitivity } & 0.9 \mathrm{r} . & \mathrm{p}-\mathrm{p} / \mathrm{CM}\end{array}$ Bensitivity $0.97 . \quad$ p-p/CM

Bandwldth l-5cpe 800 cII Inpat imp. 2 meg $\Omega$ 20pF. Ttme buse. 5 ranges 10 cps Internalicerternal Illumination

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$$
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& 2 \mathrm{meg} \Omega \mathrm{25pF} X \text { amp. }
\end{aligned}
$$ RANGE VOLT AMMEIER Sensitivity 330 ohma/Volt

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## everyday electronics PROJECTS. THEORY...

## COMPLICATED OR SIMPLE

In the popular mind anything described as "electronic" is still, all too commonly, interpreted as being necessarily of frightening complexity, and possessing deep secrets capable of being unravelled only by highly trained minds. The truth is, of course, that electronics can be fantastically complicated, but equally it can be delightfully simple.

Really it all boils down to a question of the kind and nature of service or function required, the degree of accuracy demanded, and any need to withstand special or particularly arduous environmental conditions. Electronic circuitry comes in all shapes and sizes, but the most highly involved and sophisticated designs rely upon precisely the same basic ideas as do the smallest and most modest of designs.

## an incentive

Designs for home constructors presented in this magazine come in the latter class. All Everyday Electronics circuits are simple, and without any elaboration not strictly essential for the function they are intended to perform. Most importantly, they are good examples of uncomplicated circuits applied to meet real everyday needs of ordinary people. Needs that the electronic equipment manufacturers hardly even recognise, let alone attempt to satisfy. (To be fair, because of their novel character and sometimes
rather individualistic appeal, many of these projects are not altogether suitable for mass production operations.) So the private person has an additional incentive to build his own gadgets, and pieces of equipment. The alternative, so often, is to go without.

## WITH INTEREST

In the prevailing climate of ever-rising prices, it is worth reflecting on the large number of varied designs which can be built for a few pounds. As we have well demonstrated in these pages, this hobby need not involve any great outlay, but the amount expended will be amply returned-with interest.

Talking of interest, whoever embarks upon electronic construction-however simple-gains an insight into a tremendously fascinating world of technology. From quite modest beginnings, anyone can easily develop their interest and set out to acquire greater knowledge of this powerful technology which is rapidly assuming greater influence over every one of us, in all aspects of modern life.


Our May issue will be published on Thursday, April 19
EDITOR F. E. Bennett ASSISTANT EDITOR M. Kenward B. W. Terrell B.SC.

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## EASY TO CONSTRUCT SIMPLY EXPLAINED

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RUMINATIONS by Sensor ..... 214 of going to press. From April 19973 there will be no purchase tax, but a large number of goods will carry Value Added Tax.

ASMall amplifier has many applications in the electronic construction workshop or in the home generally and can, in fact, be regarded either as a valuable piece of testing equipment or simply as a piece of audio gear. It can be used for testing or using any radio or electronic equipment that normally has no amplifier e.g., a radio funer or a signal generator and in other ways such as testing microphones, gramophone pick-ups and tape record/replay units etc. or for guitar practice with electric guitars.

The amplifier described here is quite easy to build even though the circuit may look a little complex because of the mixture of $p n p$ and $n p n$ transistors. The amplifier will provide up to 1 watt output into an 8 ohm loudspeaker although any small speaker of say 5 to 15 ohms can be used.

Two inputs are provided one being rated at 5 mV which is suitable for low level signal sources such as $20 Q$ ohm microphones or guitars whilst the other input, because the impedance is fairly high, can be used for ceramic or crystal pickups, radio tuners or the output from a tape recorder etc.

Both inputs are connected to the first stage of the amplifier via a gain control (VR1) so that signal levels can be adjusted to prevent overloading. The frequency response of the amplifier is -3 dB at 100 Hz to -3 dB at $10,000 \mathrm{~Hz}$, not hi fi but certainly very acceptable for many applications.


## CIRCUIT

The circuit is shown in Fig. 1. One input (SK1) is taken via R1 which is an attenuator to provide an input sensitivity of about 500 mV and also a fairly high input impedance. The other input (SK2) goes straight to the gain control VR1 and has a sensitivity of 5 mV for 1 watt output from the amplifier.
The input transistor (TR1) which is an $n p n$ type, acts as a pre-amplifier and as a d.c. difference amplifier comparing the voltage derived from the potential dividing network R6, R3 and R2 with the voltage appearing between TR4 emitter and the common earth or positive supply rail. The high loop gain of the circuit keeps the small difference between these two voltages constant so that one has a definite relationship to the other regardless of spreads in the charac-



Fig. 1. Complete circuit diagram of the General Purpose Audio Amplifier.
teristics of the transistors and small variations in component values. Negative feedback is taken via R5 and C4 from the output stage to the emitter of TR1.

The amplifier circuit is powered from a 9 V positive earth supply provided by transformer T1, the bridge rectifier DI-D4 and smoothing capacitor C 7 . Nole that as the amplifier draws
a fairly large current at peak power levels (for a miniature transformer to supply) the transformer chosen has two 6 V secondary windings which are connected in parallel to maintain the peak current requirements. If any transformer other than the one specified is used, it must have a 6 V winding capable of supplying about 500 mA current

## Components ... .




Fig. 2. Front panel details.
Fig. 3. Layout and wiring of the amplifier component board.



Fig. 4. Layout and wiring of the power supply.

## CONSTRUCTION

The prototype, as shown in the photographs, and Figs. 2 to 5, was housed in a box measuring $7 \times 5 \times 3$ inches made from Home Radio universal chassis parts. Any similar size box can be used. The front panel, which carries the amplifier and power supply circuit boards, as well as input sockets and gain control should be made up as shown in Fig. 2.

The amplifier itself is arranged on a plain perforated circuit board measuring $5 \times 4{ }^{1}{ }_{2}$ inches ${ }_{n}$ as shown in Fig. 3. Great care must be taken over wiring because of the d.c. coupling used throughout and because two transistors are pnp and two are $n p n$ and can only be differentiated by their type number viz: TR1 and TR3 are npn (ACl27) and TR2 and TR4 are pnp (ACl28). Connections are shown in Fig. 3 together with details of the heatsink for TR3 and TR4. Double check the wiring and particularly the position and connection of the transistors.

The small heatsink used on TR3 and TR4 is not suitable for continuous operation when the amplifier is enclosed in the aluminium case. To overcome this a small bracket should be fixed to the heatsink and this bracket screwed to the case by means of a self tapping screw. This will ensure that the unit is kept cool at all times.

The power supply is assembled on a circuit board measuring $3^{1}{ }_{4} \times 2^{3}{ }_{4}$ inches as shown in Fig. 4. This is fairly straight forward but note the parallel connection of the two 6 V secondary windings of the MT280 transformer T1.

The two circuit boards are positioned as shown in the photographs and wired up as shown in Fig. 5, which also shows the connections to the panel components; VRI (gain control), the two input sockets, the loudspeaker terminals and mains on-off switch etc.

Everyday Electronics, April 1973
 removed.

## GENERAL PURPOSE



## TESTING

It would be best to first check the power supply voltage by disconnecting the negative rail from the amplifier board and measuring the voltage between the power supply negative and positive i.e., across C7. This should be about 9 V .
If a milli-amp meter is available connect at the starred point in Fig. 5 i.e., between the power supply negative (C7) and the negative rail of the amplifier board. With the supply on and with VR1 turned off, the current to the amplifier. should be set to about 12 mA by adjusting the preset VR2. If no milli-amp meter is available set VR2 with its slider to midway position.

Those able to check voltage and current should be able to obtain readings approximately equal to those shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Amplifier Test Measurements

| Measurement | Current |
| :--- | :---: |
| Supply standing current <br> no input signal) <br> Supply current (maximum <br> power output) | $10-15 \mathrm{~mA}$ |
| Measurement (no input) | $100-150 \mathrm{~mA}$ |
| Supply | Voltage |
| TR1 base | 9 V |
| emitter | 4 V |
| collector | 4.2 V |
| TR2 base | 0.4 V |
| emitter | 0.4 V |
| collector | 0.25 V |
| TR3 base | 4.8 V |
| emitter | 4.8 V |
| collector | 4.9 V |
| TR4 base | 0 V |
| emitter | 5.2 V |
| collector | 4.9 V |

As mentioned earlier the loudspeaker may be any small 5 or 8 inch type of 5,8 , or 15 ohms impedance (preferably 8 ohms for optimum performance) capable of handling 1 watt. It should be housed in a suitable enclosure which may be a plywood box of about 12 by 12 inches (front) by about 6 inches deep and closed in at the back. The amplifier will operate well with the $M W / L W$ Radio Tuner (described in September 1972 E.E.) and could be used for monitoring during tape recording as well as the various applications outlined at the beginning of this article.

## SAFETY

When operating the amplifier the loudspeaker should not be disconnected, nor should the output be short circuited as this could result in damage to the output transistors.

The amplifier should be connected to the mains supply by way of a three core mains lead and a mains plug fused at $1_{2} \mathrm{amp}$. The chassis of the amplifier should be earthed as shown and the unit should not be used with any a.c./d.c. equipment such as a television or older type valve record player, unless it is fitted with proper amplifier output socket.


Yes indeed, Practical Electronics and Everyday Electronics are very good companions.

Under a single editorship, these two magazines are planned to complement each other.
Together they cover the widest needs of amateursfrom the elementary to the advanced level-for up-todate technical information and sound practical designs.
The April is sue of P.E. is now on sale. It includes these two simple projects,
A Security Alarm for the home
A Mains Powered Battery Eliminator.
The May issue of P.E. on sale April 13 will feature a Push Button Stereo Tuner. This design uses ready-made modules, and can therefore be built by the average constructor in only a few hours.
This issue will also contain a Free Wall Chart giving details of eiectronic display devices.
To avoid possible disappointment, place an order. with your newsagent now.

## PRACTICAL <br> Fiactranice



By S. McClelland

ELextrovics is based oll the behaviour of but one particle-the electron. Howerer. this single parlicle is fascinating and so some features of its strange werld will be briefty examinerd.

## THE ATOM AND THE ELECTRON

All matter is made up of atoms which in turn are composed of expal nimbers of extremely mimente positive changes (protons) in a central mucleus and negative: charges (electrons) which circle around it rather like planets in a minature solar system. so that the atom as a whole is clectrically neutral.

Thas. it is mainly cmpty space-its diameter (an be over $10,0(0)$ times that of the nucleas where most of the mass in concentrated. For example. consider lig. 1. Which shows the simple structure of an alom of sodium.

It will become apparent that atoms of clifferent sloments (c.s. sodimm and carbom) are distinguished by their different mumbers of protons. and hence. clectons.

The other particles in the mucleus with no charse. abd called neulions. need not concern us here since they only effect the mass of the atom and not its clectrical properlies.

## ENERGY LEVELS

Sodiam has 11 protons. 11 elections. and 12 neutrons. Work by the great physicist. Niels Bohr. in 1915. showed that the elechons in. for ceample. an atom of sodinm. can only move in collath. Well-delined orbits. each of which is associated with a particular energy. but that they rans lazasfer liom one to another of these so-ralled energy levels under certain circumstances if they could lose or gain a definite or


Fig. 1. The spatial arrangement (schematic) of electrons in an atom of sodium.
discrete amount of energy in the process.
As an analogy, think of a lift in a department store moving up and down; in order to move up a floor the lift motor must be supplied with power (e.g. electricity), but to move down again a floor the motor can act as a generator and supply power since the lift can "freewheel" down as it were, under its own weight.

In ideal circumstances, we should be able to say that the particular amount of power originally supplied to the lift in ascending would be given out again by the lift in descending.

## VISUAL ENERGY CHANGE

We can show this on this sub-atomic scale, too. Sprinkle a few crystals of any compound of sodium, for example, table salt (sodium chloride)

A model of sodium chloride with Bohr orbitslattice.

or washing soda (sodium carbonate) into a flame, a pronounced yellow colour will be given to the flame.

At first, some of the electrons in the sodium constituent of the compound will be promoted to higher energy levels as heat energy of the flame is supplied to them. However, they soon re-occupy their original orbits and, in doing $\mathrm{so}_{5}$ they emit the energy (which just happens to be yellow light) that was originally donated to them to enable them to transit.

Since this energy output, in the form of emitted light, is found to be characteristic of the atoms present in a specimen (e.g. the sodium ion has an energy output corresponding to a particular yellow light), then unknown samples can be analysed on this basis. This is the technique used with the spectroscope and related instruments. (Fig. 2).

Although the straightforward Bohr theory became much more complicated when electrons were found to have properties associated with waves (see later), its essence can be readily understood.


Fig. 2. Simple arrangement of two energy levels in an atom.

This concept of energy levels in atoms can be used to explain a wide range of phenomena from how a laser operates to the reasons for electrical conduction, insulation, and semiconduction.

## CONDUCTORS, INSULATORS AND SEMICONDUCTORS

All solids are made up of regular arrangements of atoms called lattices. As a result of the atoms being packed quite closely together in a lattice, the narrow energy levels of each individual atom merge together with the equivalent levels of the other atoms, and comparatively wide energy bands are formed.

The energy band which holds the outer electrons in each atom, or valency electrons, is called the valence band, but as there are energy levels with no electrons, there are also empty energy bands.


Fig. 3. Energy band diagrams. Note the relative spacing of the empty bands and valence band in the insulator and conductor.

Now, for conduction to take place in a solid (i.e. the flow of current under an applied electromotive force) the valence electrons must be given enough energy to lift themselves into a higher energy level and thus move from atom to atom in the solid. This movement of charges constitutes an electric current. (Fig. 3.)

Electrons in conductors have no difficulty in doing this, since for a variety of reasons the valence band is half-empty. Hence, empty energy levels are easily accessible to the valence electrons, and they consequently need little energy to transfer.

On the other hand, insulators have no partiallyempty bands and hence to reach empty energy levels, the valence electrons must reach a completely separate, empty band and this requires quite a lot of energy not normally available from low-voltage sources. No conduction, therefore, takes place.

Valence electrons in semiconductors require less energy to transfer, for although their structure is roughly similar to insulators, the space between the valence band and the next empty band of higher energy is relatively narrow. Indeed, the heat energy associated with room temperature can provide this energy, ie. the substance conducts, while at very low temperatures insufficient energy is provided and therefore the semiconductor becomes an insulator.

The properties of a semiconductor can be modified by the introduction of carefully controlled, minute amounts of impurity atoms. The latter alter the natural arrangement of energy levels by introducing new levels and produce the familiar $p$ and $n$ type semiconductor so vital for the operation of the transistor.

## PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

The electron is an extremely minute particle -almost two thousand times lighter than the proton. In fact, it belongs to a class of sub-atomic particles called leptons or light particles.

Although G. J. Stoney postulated the existence of the electron as the fundamental particle of electricity in 1881, the existence of the
particle was confirmed and an estimation made of its mass by J. J. Thomson at Cambridge in 1897. He was investigating rays from the cathode in a vacuum tube, and in a famous experiment he used apparatus not far removed from today's cathoderay tube to determine their charge-tomass ratio.

The electron's charge was determined accurately later by R. A. Millikan in the United States of America. Both physicists were awarded the Nobel Prize for their work.


Upper photograph: The discoverer of the elec-tron-J. J. Thomson. Lower, his apparatus for the determination of the charge to mass ratio of the electron.

## QUANTIZATION

An interesting point to note is the basic nature of the electron's charge. No charged particle has yet been discovered that carries a charge less than that (numerically) of the electron, although physicists are presently suggesting that such fractionally-charged particles may exist called quarks in order to explain the structure of some strange particles.

The same point also applies to another property of the electron-its spin. The electron, besides orbiting the nucleus also appears to spin on its own axis, rather like a top, and this spin must always have a definite positive or negative value, corresponding to the "directions", as it were, in which it actually spins. It is found that any particle which possesses spin can only have this numerical value or simple multiples of it.

We say that properties, such as charge and spin, for which certain values only exist, are quantized.

Remote as they seem, these properties are related to many everyday phenomena; spin, for example, is thought to give rise to magnetism in some metals.

Table 1: The Electron

| Parameter | Numerical value |
| :--- | :--- |
| Charge $(\mathrm{e})$ | $1.6 \times 10^{-19}$ coulombs |
| Rest mass $\left(\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{o}}\right)$ <br> Charge to mass <br> ratio $(\mathrm{e} / \mathrm{m})$ | $9.1 .76 \times 100^{-31}$ kilogrammes |
|  |  |

## PRODUCTION OF ELECTRONS

## (1) THERMIONIC EMISSION

Thermionic emission, as the name implies, is emission by heat. This takes place in ordinary valves and electron guns e.g. in cathode ray tubes.

In a simple diode valve, the nickel cathode is usually heated by a filament causing it to emit electrons in much the same way as heat energy causes liquids to evaporate. The electrons thus produced collect around the cathode until a positively biased anode attracts them and thus enables current to flow.

However, a negatively-biased anode (with respect to the cathode) repels these electrons back to the cathode, and no current flows, i.e. the device is a simple rectifier.


Fig. 4. The diode valve, thermionic emission.

## (2) PHOTOELECTRÍC EMISSION

Electromagnetic radiation, e.g. light above a certain frequency, incident on certain elements (e.g. zinc) causes electrons to be emitted from the element. This phenomenon is known as the photoelectric effect and the emission as photoelectric emission.

It can be explained in terms of the minimum energy required to remove an electron from a particular energy level in an atom of the element, and it is used to advantage in the
various types of photoelectric cell or photocell e.g. the selenium solar cell which is used to produce electricity to power some spacecraft.

## (3) RADIOACTIVE DECAY

Some forms of the elements called isotopes are radioactive, that is, their atoms are so unstable that they spontaneously break up or decay to yield simpler entities.

Such decay, if it involves the production of electrons, is sometimes described as Beta decay, and it is thought to operate by a neutron inside an atom decaying to an electron, proton and a mysterious, ghostly particle called an anti= neutrino, which has no charge and travels at the speed of light.


Stereoscopic photo of electron tracks using a cloud chamber.

## DETECTION OF ELECTRONS

Once electrons have been produced they must obviously be detected and tracked. Ideally, we should like to see the paths of the particles as they interact with each other but we are talking of times of the order of minute fractions of a second and of particles whose size is almost infinitesimal.

However, in an indirect way, we can effectively see the progression of the reactions and to do this instruments called cloud chambers and bubble chambers are used.

The operation of the bubble-chamber will be described as it has largely superseded the cloud chamber for experimental purposes, although both are based on largely the same principle.

## the bubble chamber

In a bubble chamber, which is basically a big tank, liquid hydrogen is heated under pressure until it is just about to boil. Then the pressure is suddenly reduced and this places the liquid hydrogen into what is known as a "superheated state", i.e. it is for a short time considerably above its boiling point at that lower pressure.

To show that the boiling point of a liquid increases as the external pressure increases,


The Brookhaven 20 inch bubble chamber, New York.
think of an ordinary pressure-cooker in which it is possible to heat food well above the boiling point of water at normal pressure because the pressure inside is higher and so dictates that the water should boil at a greater temperature.

In the bubble chamber, the liquid hydrogen's temperature is such that bubbles will form around any alien body (e.g. dust, or charged hydrogen ions) so if an electron hurtles through the chamber, being charged, it will knock out some electrons from the hydrogen atoms and the latter will then become positively charged ions.

Bubbles will form around these ions and they will clearly define the path of the original electron.

In other words, the apparatus is arranged so that boiling takes place selectively along the electron's track which can be seen and photographed as a line of bubbles. To make the bubbles, however, the original particle must be charged.

## USE OF BUBBLE CHAMBER PHOTOGRAPHS

The courses of many reactions can be inferred from bubble chamber photographs; for example, if a track apparently starts from nowhere in the picture, it can be deduced that an uncharged particle or non-ionizing radiation gave rise to the charged particle which made the track.

Very often, a bubble chamber is used in conjunction with an electromagnet to study the way a particle behaves in a magnetic field. A curved track will be produced by the particle and an examination of this yields mass, charge (oppositely-charged particles curve in different directions), momentum (mass multiplied by velocity) and other information about it.

Thus, although other instruments exist for the detection of charged particles, it will be seen that the bubble chamber is one of the most useful.


Bubble chamber photograph of electron/positron pair creation and other tracks.

## WAVE ASPECT OF THE ELECTRON

In the 1920's, the electron and all other particles were shown to behave like light itself and have both a particle and a wave aspect. This amazing and apparently contradictory situation arose because electrons were found to exhibit diffraction, a property associated with waves.

If light rays from a single source and of the same wavelength are allowed to pass through two (or more) small slits which are close together, each slit will act as a source itself and the waves emerging from the slits will interfere with each other (i.e. alternately reinforce and
Photograph showing electron diffraction rings produced by gold foil.

destroy each other) so that an image of light and dark bands forms on a screen placed in front of the slits.

Diffraction also occurs if a beam of electrons are projected through a metal foil, for example. The spaces between the atoms act as very tiny slits and the scattered electrons will build up a series of concentric rings on a suitably placed photographic plate as a result of being diffracted by the lattices in many directions.

Diffraction experiments such as this suggested that the wave associated with the electron possessed a wavelength of the order $10^{-11} \mathrm{~m}$.

As a result of this very difficult concept, first put forward by Louis de Broglie and developed by Erwin Schrödinger's wave mechanics, the philosophy of the atom was totally changed. Instead of speaking of definite electron orbits in the atom, we must speak of orbiting electron clouds separated by discrete intervals of energy which represent the probability of the electron's position at a given moment.

Werner Heisenberg also showed it was impossible to know both the exact position and velocity of an electron at the same time, since by examining the particle one must disturb, and therefore change its energy.

## ELECTRON MICROSCOPE

A more familiar result is the electron microscope (Everyday Electronics, July 1972) which can be used to examine very small objects. This is because the waves associated with the electron have a much shorter wavelength than those of visible light on which the optical microscope depends, and hence its resolving power is greater.

As an analogy, think of the very small effect that the medium-sized ruts in a road would produce if you were driving a tractor with huge wheels, but you would soon discover they exist if you were trying to ride a bicycle with very small wheels across them.

## ANTIMATTER-THE POSITRON

In 1928, P. A. M. Dirac formulated a brilliant theory that indicated that every particle in existence should have its own "antiparticle"-its identical twin in every respect except that it would be oppositely charged.

Thus, the antiparticle of our, ordinary, negative electron would be a positive electron, or positron, as it came to be known.

The theory was triumphantly proved correct when in 1932, C. D. Anderson identified the positron in cloud chamber studies.

A simple analogy may help the reader to grasp the relationships between an electron and a positron but it must not be taken too literally.

Imagine a metal tray, the sort with groups of cup-shaped depressions, that are sometimes used to bake small pies for example. If all the
depressions were filled with pies that fitted them exactly, and you ignored the different textures of metal and pie you could not tell the difference between pie and tray, by touch alone.

However, if the pie was lifted from the depression you could immediately distinguish them merely by touch, the pie having a lower convex surface, the depression an upper concave surface. From something that was not detectable, we arrived at two things which were (Fig. 5).


Fig. 5. Analogy of electron-positron pair creation.

## ELECTRON-POSITRON PAIR

In a similar way, it was theorized that the positron bears largely the same relation to the electron, as does the depression to the pie which occupies it.

As in the first instance, the electron and positron are undetectable in normal space, but if energy, in the form of electromagnetic radiation called gamma rays, is supplied, the electron is removed and exists independently from the vacancy it occupied i.e. the positron.

The process is called "pair-creation", and both particles can be identified in a bubble chamber.

However, the process is reversible-if an electron collides with a positron, both are destroyed and their matter liberated as energy. This is called "pair-destruction" and because ordinary matter is by far the more abundant of the two in our universe, free positrons have extremely short existences.

Positron-electron pairs are formed when cosmic rays, which originate from outer space, impinge upon our atmosphere. A cosmic ray "shower" takes place with many pair-creations and destructions.

It is interesting to note that the positron was discovered by cosmic ray studies.

Physicists believe that the phenomena of antimatter may even be involved with the flow of "time" itself, and the possibility of other universes, besides our own, in existence.

## UNLIMITED ADVANCES

We have seen some features of the strange world of the electron. If this knowledge can be developed by physicists and then applied (as was brilliantly done in the invention of the transistor), the future indicates almost unlimited advances in electronics.


The Transformer and Domestic Electricity By Maureen Birch

A TRANSFORMER is a device for changing the voltage level of an alternating supply and utilises the principle of induction caused by a change in magnetic field-similar to that described last month.

It consists of two coils of wire-electrically isolated from each other-wound on a core of magnetic material; this core, like that of a motor armature, is made up from laminated sheets of soft iron that are usually punched in the form of a shape that will interlock with itself to give a strong support to the coil, see Fig. 6.1. One coil is called the primary and the other the secondary.


Fig. 6.1. Interlocking transformer laminations are stacked together through the bobbin and clamped firmly.
Everyday Electronics, April 1973

TRANSFORMER ACTION
If an alternating current is passed through the primary (from an alternating voltage source), the magnetic field strength through the core also alternates and this constantly changing field strength induces an e.m.f. across the secondary winding which can be used to make a current flow in an external circuit.

If there are more turns on the secondary than the primary, the voltage output will be greater than the input by more or less the ratio of turns. You cannot get power for nothing and although the output voltage will be higher in the instance quoted, the current that the secondary can supply will be less.

Having less turns on the secondary than on the primary you can get a lower output voltage at higher current. To all intents and purposes, the input voltage multiplied by the input current will equal the output voltage multiplied by the output current.

As voltage multiplied by current gives us power we can say that a transformer will convert voltage levels with virtually no power loss, i.e. it is a very efficient process.

In actual fact there is always a small amount of power loss caused by electrical currents induced within the core itself and these dissipate themselves as heat. Laminating the core and insulating the laminations from each other reduces these currents-called eddy currents, and one of the qualities of a transformer is its ability to avoid these core losses.

APPLICATIONS
Transformers (see Fig. 6.2) have many applications in electronics, the most common being to convert the 50 Hz mains voltage to a low level so that we can drive transistor circuits.

A lesser understood application is to give electrical isolation between a piece of equipment and the mains. Many early radio sets were a.c./


Fig. 6.2. Transformers: (a) Multiple tapped mains (b) low voltage tapped booster (c) and (d) transistor radio matching types.
d.c. and did not have transformers in them; older readers will probably remember the warnings on the back of such sets that the chassis could be live and there was a risk of electrocution if the metalwork of the chassis was touched.

We do not find this very frequently in radio sets today but the non-isolated television set is still with us and the unwary should never attempt to touch the chassis of any television set while it is plugged into the mains.

Many people tend to think that it is only the 25,000 volts inside the set that is dangerous; although it is, the dangers from a live chassis can be just as lethal.

## MATCHING

Transformers are also used in what we might call low power circuits in instances where we might need a reasonable voltage at fairly low current from a source that produces a very low voltage at reasonable current. This is typical of low impedance microphones (impedance being the resistance to alternating current) and frequently one has to match a microphone to an amplifier by means of a transformer.

A very common everyday type of transformer is the bell transformer that has several output
voltages available these are generated simply by having a secondary coil with tappings taken from it at required intervals.

## A.C. NECESSARY

A transformer cannot give an output voltage unless the input current, and hence the field in the core, is varying, therefore you cannot step up, or step down the voltage of a battery directly.

This can be done indirectly by using the battery to power an oscillator that produces a varying current and then this current is applied to a transformer. This type of circuit is called a static inverter and is used frequently to drive fluorescent light tubes from car batteries.

## ELECTRICITY TO YOUR HOME

Transformers have enabled the Central Electricity Board to overcome one of the problems in the distribution of electricity throughout the country (see Fig. 6.3).

Electric current flowing through a wire causes heat, and this is equivalent to a loss of power; it is therefore more efficient when carrying current over long distances in overhead wires to keep the current as low as possible.

However, the recipients of the current still need power and the low current is compensated for by having it at very high voltages.

Usually the voltage produced at the generating station is stepped up by a transformer to 132,000 or 264,000 volts before being fed to the overhead cables of the nationa? grid.

At major sub-stations this is sopped down to one or two thousand volts (kV) ior local distribution by underground cable to the minor substations such as the unmanned units in your village or at the end of the road. Here the voltage is transformed down again to the 240 volts we are all familiar with.

The supply enters your house on two wires, but usually there is a third most important wire which, although it carries no current in the usual sense, is of great importance to your safety; this is the earth wire, but more about this later.

Fig. 6.3. How electricity is brought to your house from the power station.


DDMESTIC SUPPLIES 240 V

## EARTH WIRE

The two wires that carry the main current into your house have designating names, one is called neutral and the other line (live).

As mentioned previously voltages are always measured with respect to something, because voltages are differences in potential between two points in a circuit. When considering electrical power on a reasonable scale one can say that the earth around us can be taken as a fairly stable potential reference.

The potential difference between the neutral line and earth is usually very small (there is always some difference-contrary to some people's belief) and never more than a volt or two in the worst case. Although you should never do it, you could, in theory, touch the neutral mains wire and not get an electric shock.

On the other hand the mains line lead has a varying potential difference between it and neutral and this 50 Hz voltage gives rise to a sort of average level known as the r.m.s. level (r.m.s. stands for root mean-square) and this is usually 240 volts.

Because we are considering an alternating supply, this means that the mains line is varying by plus and minus 240 volts r.m.s. with respect to neutral which is to all intents and purposes, with respect to earth.

We have mentioned that the 240 volts is a sort of average and in actual fact the line voltage can rise to a peak of about 380 volts at the peaks of each cycle. Touching the line connection to the mains, and you are assured of getting a very nasty electric shock.

Obviously there is a big difference between the line and neutral wires and this is why one must take special care to see that they are connected to an appliance the right way round. The appliance will work quite satisfactorily if the leads are reversed but it immediately becomes dangerous.

## POINTS TO NOTE

All pieces of equipment, whether they are electric clocks, drills, radios or record players should be connected to the mains with a fuse in the line lead and in most instances the case (if it is metal) should have a good connection made between it and earth.

If a wire becomes loose inside the equipment, or it overheats and insulation starts to melt, there is a chance that the dangerous line lead might short circuit to the metal case; if you picked up the appliance and there was not a good earth connection, and you were in contact with the earth, concrete floor, or worse still, water in the bathroom, the 240 volts potential difference between line and earth would be applied across you and current would flow-this is what gives an electric shock.

Most of us have had a mild electric shock and
have survived; why were we not killed? The answer is quite simple-we were very lucky because we probably did not make a very good connection to ground and the current that flowed through us was not very great. Tap water is a conductor of electricity and is also very well connected to ground through underground pipes, hence electric shocks in the bathroom are invariably serious and frequently fatal.

If, however, the case of the equipment is already connected to a good earth, the mains line will short directly to ground and a very high current will flow through the case and the earth wire-thus by-passing you.

This heavy current flows down the line lead and through the fuse which is made of low melting point wire and the heavy current rapidly heats up the fuse wire until it melts and breaks the circuit (via the fuse) on the line side.
A fuse can be made to have different amounts of current above which it will blow and one should always use a fuse with a current rating just higher than the current equipment will usually draw; then, even though you may not get a catastrophic short to earth, any sign of perished insulation etc, that gives rise to an increase in current will cause the fuse to melt -a good early indication that something needs attention.

Many people are tempted to replace the fuse with one of a higher current, this should never be done because the fuse blowing in the first place indicates a fault which should be rectified before the equipment is used again.

Fig. 6.4. Schematic drawing of part of a house= hold "ring main".



Fig. 6.5. Shows a $13 \dot{A}$ square-pin ring main plug with colour identification of the line, neutral and earth wires.

## MODERN DOMESTIC WIRING

Modern houses have a central fuse box with high current fuses feeding mains into ring main circuits around the house; these are recognised because they use the now common square-pin sockets and plugs see Fig. 6.5.

These sockets are designed to carry an absolute maximum current of 13 amperes, but because not all pieces of equipment need this sort of current, the plugs that are used with these sockets have a fuse cartridge that can have a rating of anything from 1 amp up to the maximum of 13 amps .

The fuse you use should be carefully matched to the appliance that is to be connected via that plug. Most of these plugs are supplied with a 13 amp fuse but this should not be used if you are going to run, say, a table lamp; a 2 amp fuse would be more than adequate.

## CALCULATION

Most pieces of equipment you buy indicate the amount of current they draw, but in some cases this is quoted inđirectly as the amount of power they consume. This is measured in watts or thousands of watts (kilowatts). You can, however, calculate the current quite simply by dividing the number of watts by the supply voltage to arrive at the current.

For example, a 2,500 watt electric fire running from a 240 volt supply will draw a current of $\frac{3,500}{240}$ amps, which is about 10.5 amps ; a 100 watt electric light bulb on the same supply will draw just under half an amp.

## OLDER HOUSE WIRING

In older houses where round pin plugs are still in use, the circuit is protected by a fuse in the fuse box; these are usually rated at 5,10 or 15 amps-depending on the type of circuit and on the thickness of wire used in the house wiring.

These plugs must be used with special care because it is too easy to break the rules and have a serious accident.

If you used a 3 kilowatt electric fire on a 5 amp circuit (and had quite wrongly substituted a 15 amp fuse in the fuse box), the fire would probably work and you might think all was well but this definitely would not be the case.

For a start, the plug would get hot and start to smoulder and worse still, the wiring behind the walls and perhaps along the wooden floor joists would also get hot, possibly red hot, and a major fire could start before you were aware of the danger.

## ADAPTORS

Adaptors are available to extend the outputs from either square pin or round pin sockets. These are very useful but are a temptation to the unwary. Although several appliances can be plugged in where only one was previously, the supply wire in the wall is still the same and cannot carry any more current than the maximum quoted for the single socket.

Electricity in the house is a wonderful ally, but a dangerous enemy. Handled with care and in a sensible way it is quite safe, but the basic rules must be adhered to, to the letter, otherwise very unpleasant accidents can occur.


## A simple control to dim a lamp.

THIS simple design was created to meet two main requirements, namely to provide a dim light for use as a night light, television light or for illumination in a child's bedroom, whilst still providing full brilliance at the touch of a switch.

To enable the unit to be versatile it was decided to mount the switch in a separate case into which any lamp with a bulb of 200 watts or less may be plugged. The unit contains one switch to change from full to half power and a neon indicator to show when it is connected to the mains.

## CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

The circuit (Fig. 1) is so simple that it requires very little explanation. Switch S 1 is used to change from full to half power; in one position it connects the lamp directly across the mains supply, in the other position it connects the lamp in series with diode Dl across the supply.

Let us assume the diode to be perfect i.e. when the cathode is negative with respect to the anode (Fig. 2a) the diode is considered as a short circuit. When the cathode is positive with respect to the anode (Fig 2b) the diode acts as an open circuit. However this circuit employs a.c. mains supply across the diode so the polarity
across the diode will be alternating equally in either direction. Therefore for half the supply wave, the diode will be open circuit and for the other half it will be a short circuit, consequently the voltage across the lamp during a series of sine waves will be as shown in Fig. 3. This is known as half-wave rectification and the shape of the wave is known as pulsating d.c.

In terms of input and output voltages the mean d.c. output is 0.45 times the r.m.s. input i.e. $240 \times 0.45=108 \mathrm{~V}$ d.c.

Fig. 1. Circuit diagram of the Night Light Switch.



Fig. 2. Biasing of the diode (a) acts as a short circuit (b) as an open circuit.


Fig. 3. Resultant output waveform with the diode in an a.c. circuit.



Thus by switching the diode in circuit we are dropping the voltage level to the bulb by more than half.

## BRIGHTNESS

To calculate the effect this will have on the brightness of the lamp we must calculate the wattage used by particular lamps. Using the formulae $\frac{V^{2}}{R}$, where $V$ is the voltage across the lamp ( 108 V ) and $R$ is the resistance of the lamp we can find the wattage. The resistance of the lamp can be calculated by the formulae $\frac{V^{2}}{W}$ where $V$ is the normal rated voltage of the bulb and $W$ the normal wattage.

Hence for a $100 \mathrm{~W}, 240 \mathrm{~V}$ lamp the resistance is

$$
\frac{240 \times 240}{100}=576 \mathrm{ohms}
$$

Thus the resultant wattage will be

$$
\frac{240 \times 240}{576}=20 \text { watts }
$$

This figure is only a rough estimate as the actual resistance of the lamp varies with temperature and since, in the second case, the lamp is operated at a lower temperature than is normal, its resistance will not be exactly the same. However, it can be seen that the diode, which dissipates virtually no power, is reducing the lamp output by some 80 per cent.

As mentioned above, the diode dissipates virtually no power and hence not only is the output reduced by about 80 per cent, the power consumed is also reduced by a similar amount.

## CONSTRUCTION

The main thing to remember when constructing the unit is that mains voltage is employed and hence care must be taken to make sure the unit is safe. There are two ways of doing this; installing all the components inside an insulated plastic case or installing the components in a metal case which is properly earthed and with a fused supply.

The first method is probably the best, provided a suitable container that can be securely fixed together can be found. However, since small aluminium boxes are available from most com-
ponent suppliers and a fuse is never a bad precaution, we shall detail construction in an aluminium case as shown in Fig. 4.

Commence construction by cutting the case to hold S1, LP1 and SK1, the earth tag and a grommet for the three core mains lead to the supply. Next mount the components as shown and then wire them up, together with D1; the polarity of the diode is not important.

Check all connections and make sure that the earthing tag is making good contact to the case and is wired to the earth pin of a three pin plug. Insert a 1 amp fuse, plug a lamp into SKl (not more than 200 W bulb) and switch on. Change S1 from "half" to full power or vice versa and check the brilliance of the lamp.

If the fuse blows for any reason, indicator LPI will extinguish, in such cases disconnect the mains supply and check the unit for faults before replacing FS1.

The unit can be used on all lamps-except fluorescent types-of up to 200 W . Slight flickering may be noticed with the lamp on reduced power. This was not found to be annoying on the prototype unit.

## Components.... <br> Diode <br> D1 400 V 1 A silicon type SEE MHOP THIK

 SwitchS1 Single pole double throw mains togigle type

## Neon

LP1 Mains indicator incorporating resistor

## Socket

SK1 Two-way mains light socket (panel mounting)
Fuse
FSI Miniature fuse holder and 1 amp fuse

## Miscellaneous

Case-metal or plastic approx $3 \times 2 \times 1 \frac{1}{2}$ inches (see text), three core mains lead, mains plug, earth tag, 4BA fixing.


Egg Timer (March 1973 issue) a link should be made between Ci (negative) and the earth tag. The $N$ and $L$ on the mains lead should be transposed.

Beta Treble Boost and Fuzz (January 1973) a better fuzz may be produced if $R 2$ is reduced; in some cases to as low as 15 kilohms.


## A useful unit to add to you car's

 indicator system.Aluhough most modera-car indicator systems are self cancelling with visual indication and audible indication (the "click" produced in the flasher unit) that the indicators are operating, this is quite often not enough.

You will often see a car being driven along a straight road with one indicator flashing when the driver has no intention of turning or pulling in. It has been left on accidentally when the self-cancelling mechanism didn't work, the visual indication is obscured by reflection and the "click" drowned by either engine or wind noise or even the radio.

It would therefore be helpful to the driver, and safer, for himself and others, if a distinct tone was evident when the indicators were activated, and remained on until the indicators were switched off.

This is what the Indicator Audible Warning unit provides when wired up to the car indicator system.

By P. E. J. Lacey

As can be seen, the unit uses only eight components and is very easy to construct; current consumption is only 30 mA and operation will not generate interference on the radio.

## PRINCIPLE OF OPERATION

The complete circuit diagram of the Indicator Audible Warning unit is shown in Fig. 1.

Transistors TR1 and TR2, both connected in



Fig. 1. The complete circuit diagram of the Indicator Audible Warning unit. Switch SI is part of the car's in-built indicator system.
the common emitter mode, form a non-inverting compound amplifier in which voltage gain from TR1 collector is passed to TR2 base

Transistor TR1 inverts the signal and TR2 re-inverts it so there is no overall inversion. Because of this, positive feedback is provided through the combination of R2 and $\mathbf{C 1}$, and the circuit oscillates.

Resistor R1 provides forward bias for TRI and hence TR2. Excessive current is prevented from flowing through TR1, and TR2 base, by inclusion of resistor R3. The other resistor R4 ensures complete turn-off of TR2 by bypassing leakage currents.

In some respects the circuit's operation is similar to a conventional multivibrator, but the circuit is assymetrical, and the same capacitor, Cl , is used to time both halves of the oscillatory cycle.
When the circuit is switched on there is no charge on Cl ; resistor $\mathrm{R1}$ biases TR1 into a partially conducting state and thus TRI turns TR2 partially on.

Capacitor C1 then charges through R2, TRl's base-emitter junction and TR2; this charging current turns TR1 fully on and hence TR2 fully on. Eventually Cl is fully charged (the loudspeaker side being most positive), and this charging current no longer flows. The transistors would return to their partially conducting state if it were not for the positive feedback provided by R1 and Cl.

The potential át TR2 collector now changes from almost zero volts towards -12 V , and this change is transferred to TRI base via Cl and R2; this is sufficient to turn TR1 off (and hence TR2 off).

Now, previously Cl was charged to nearly 12 V ; when the transistors turn off, the loud-
speaker side of Cl is taken to -12 V (via LSI) and the other side must be (instantaneously) at -24 V . The transistors remain in the off state while CI discharges to zero volts through LS1. R2, and R1. As soon as this happens TR1 begins to conduct and the cycle repeats.

Thus it can be seen that the off-time is determined by R2 and R1 with Cl , and the ontime is determined by R 2 with Cl .

## CONSTRUCTION

The layout of the components on the Veroboard is shown in Fig. 2. Begin assembly by making the one cut-out necessary on the reverse side of the Veroboard and drill the fixing hole.

Insert the resistors and capacitor in the positions indicated and solder. Solder on the flying leads and solder the correct two to the loudspeaker.

Next, using a heat shunt on the legs of the transistors, solder the latter in position, paying attention to the base connections of the transistors as shown.

## CHECKING OPERATION

Check that there is no shorting of components on the component side of the board. and that there are no solder bridges shorting adjacent copper strips on the reverse side of the board.

The unit should now be tested before mounting in the car. This is done quite easily by connecting the battery leads to any battery within the range 3 to 15 volts. When this is done a tone should be heard in the loudspeaker.

The pitch of this tone can be, if required, increased or decreased by decreasing or increasing respectively, the value of Cl .

## Components....

## Resistors

| Resistors |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| R1 | 470 ks 2 |
| R2 | 3.9 kS |
| R3 | $220 \Omega 2$ |
| R4 | $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| All $\frac{1}{4}$ watt $-10 \%$ carbon. |  |

Capacitors
C1 $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$
Transistors

| TR1 | BC108 | silicon npn |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| TR2 | AC128 | germanium pnp |

Miscellaneous
LS1 15-100s 2 miniature loudspeaker. Veroboard, $10 \times 9$ holes $\times 0.1 \mathrm{in}$. matrix; 4BA nut, bolt and washer; connecting wire: on/off switch (optional, see text).

## INDCATIOR AUOIBIE



Photograph of the completed Indicator Audible Warning unit.

## FIXING/WIRING IN THE CAR

The unit can be used in cars with either negative or positive earth systems. Connect by means of an earth tag and small nut and bolt the appropriate supply lead to the bodywork of the car. Ensure that a good connection is made.

The other supply lead should be connected to the indicator warning bulb such that when the indicators are set to operate, power is supplied to the unit.

Consult the car electrical wiring diagram if in any doubt before connection.

When in use in the car, the device will be subject to considerable vibration and should therefore be mounted on a piece of foam rubber about half an inch thick; the dimensions of this pad should be slightly larger than those of the board itself; this will prevent shorting of the board if mounted against the car bodywork. The loudspeaker should be fixed in a similar fashion.

A further switch can be incorporated if desired in one of the supply leads so that the unit can be switched off when, for example, the indicator system is undergoing maintenance.
In normal use, the Indicator Audible Warning unit will "bleep" whenever the indicators are switched on.

## OTHER USES

This audible warning can be used for many


Fig. 3. Wiring details for using the unit as an oil warning indicator.
other applications such as: oil pressure warning; doorbell buzzer; morse practice oscillator; darkroom timing indicator; intruder alarm and many others.

When used for oil pressure warning, the unit should be connected across the oil warning light in the correct polarity mode depending on the car's earthing system, see Fig. 3.


## Chemical Action

With reference to the article by T. A. Lindsey on the U.H.F. TV Aerial. While I cannot speak for the efficiency of this aerial he does use and suggest a rather unfortunate combination of materials in its construction i.e. brass fixings, galvanised Weldmesh (this is mainly a zinc coating) and aluminium angle. When these items get together in a damp or wet atmosphere they set up an electrolytic action where the material is eaten away ending in the collapse of the aerial with its attendant consequences; damage to property or person.

I trust that you will bring this to his notice so that he may make
an amendment to his design.
This, in the electrical contracting industry, we have to be very careful about.

Trusting that this magazine will continue with its very good work.

> P. Ware,
> Bristol.

It was suggested that the Weldmesh could be painted for extra protection and that pop rivets could be used for construction (the outside of these are aluminium). If brass screws are used it will help if they are cadmium plated. If Expamet is used with pop rivets the complete aerial will be aluminium.

## Interference

I was very interested in your article on Radio Control Transmitter in your December edition. I have built a single channel transmitter and receiver before but I was so pleased when I read the article by Mr. D. Bollen, to see it was crystal controlled, as the previous transmitter I built was of the super-regen type and was very unsuitable when I came to use it in conjunction with a model boat and there were other radio controlled models on the lake.

My transmitter interferred with other models and I had to pack up. My son and I were both very disappointed:

When I purchased the January edition of Everyday Electronics and found that Mr. D. Bollen's article for the receiver was for the super-regen type I was very disappointed, I felt my troubles had started all over again in the fact that other transmitters would interfere with the receiver Mr. Bollen describes.
Could you please put my fears at rest with this matter and if this
is the case, could you get Mr Bollen to let me have a radio controlled receiver circuit using crystal control, as he does say in your December edition that, quote, "The crystal XI used in the prototype transmitter and receiver next month". I would greatly appreciate anything you could do for me in this predicament.

> G. A. Rawlinson Wallasey

It is difficult to offer a great deal of reassurance to Mr . Rawlinson on the question of interference between different radio control systems in the small area of, say, a boating lake. So much depends on transmitter power output and depth of modulation, as well as receiver sensi. tivity and selectivity, and this applies to other people's equipment as well as one's own.
The usual approach to the problem of muitual interference is to employ a transmitter and super. het receiver using a matched pair of crystals, on the assumption that everybody else is doing the same; this arrangement will then offer thirteen channels within the 27 MHz band (see page 704 November '72 issue of EE). Fair enough! Thirteen channels will allow thirteen models to be operated simultaneously provided that each user comes equipped with thirteen pairs of crystals from which to choose a vacant channel. At around $£ 2$ per pair this could be expensive.

There are other ways of avoiding interference, such us tuned audio filters for example, or digital techniques, but whichever way you look at it all solutions involve extra expense and a degree of circuit complexity that would be out of place in the pages of EE. As it stands, the single channel system published in the December '72 and January '73 issues of EE compares very favourably with similar commercial equipment, but is just as prone to interference problems.

Casting my mind back to the days when nearly all radio control receivers were broadly tuned, $I$ am reminded of a very effective way of preventing interference called "etiquette". The principle here was for each operator to take his turn. If anyone disagreed and opted for anarchy, all the others would switch on their transmitters to "jam" the offen-
der, thus making it impossible for him to continue.

## D. Bollen

The mention of a crystal for the receiver was inserted by us at the editing stage and was, in fact, an editorial mistake (Ed).

## S.0.S.

Could anyone supply me with the official address of TMK test meters in Japan please?

After writing to Radio Japan and telephoning several importers of these instruments in Great Britain I get a cold shoulder from them saying we can repair it but we cannot supply spare parts. An offer of $£ 2$ estimate was made for replacing a 20 p variable resistor (ohms zero adjust).

I know everyone wants his fair share of the pudding but this is ridiculous. And to refuse giving the name and address of the origimal makers in Japan is darned right anti-social to say the very least. It makes one wonder how such cloak and dagger marketing is not revealed for what it is; sell quick and forget the rest.
W. D. Logan

16 Spring Street
Hollingworth
Via Hyde, Cheshire

## ABC's of Transistors

Please could you tell me the difference between the gradings $A, B$ and $C$ on the BCl08 transistor. Would the $C$ grade (BC108C) transistor operate as well as other BC108's in a simple multivibrator circuit. I, and I expect many other readers, have not seen these gradings before on the BCl08 and would be grateful if you could clear up this point.

Also could you think of any reason why a green 2 N 2926 would not work as well as a red 2N2926 in a Schmitt trigger designed for
the red type. 1 realise that the higher grade can generally be used as a substitute for a lower grade but could there be any exceptions.

David Hampton
Brentwood

The letters $A, B$ and $C$ referred to above are used to signify the minimum gain ( $h_{\mathrm{FE}}$ ) of the transistor. For an unlettered BC108 this parameter has a value of 110, for the $A, B$ and $C$ types it is 180,290 and 520 respectively. All other transistor parameters are common and the lettered types should present no substitution problems in your multi= vibrator.

There is no reason, as far as we know, that a 2N2926 Green cannot be substituted for a 2N2926 Red transistor in a simple Schmitt trigger circuit. If your circuit-does not function with the Green type, it could be due to the transistor being "dud". There could possibly be a case where the higher grade could not be substituted for the lower but this would be unusual.

## Buzz Buzz

Referring to your home made buzzer in the January edition of Everyday Electronics I have since experimented with this device and have found that if you connect an electrolytic capacitor of $47 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 10 \mathrm{~V}$ across the phosphorbronze strip screw and the contact screw, observing polarity, this will not only improve the performance of the buzzer but will also prevent interference with the TV and radio and also prevent a nasty shock which one would receive if one touched these two screws.

> K. C. Cooper
> Crewe

[^1]

APOINT of general interest concerning buying has been made by a reader recently. The point concerns the cost of items and is particularly related to the Adcola Invader soldering iron. Adcola Products quote the cost of the L646 iron in their advert as being $£ 2 \cdot 12$ whilst elsewhere (in Chromasonics advert) it is quoted as $£ 1 \cdot 85$.

The reason is that the price Adcola show is their recommended retail price, Chromasonics are cutting their profit margin and selling at less than this price. There is now no law against this and it applies to almost all goods-not just electronic equipment; so look before you buy.

More news concerning the Ardente D1001 transformer for the Radio Control Receiver (January ' 73 issue). Since the note we published last month we have discovered that Ardente have been taken over by EMI and EMI have agreed to make the transformer to order. Hence Home Radio have now been able to re-order and-after a delay for manufacture-will again be able to supply the original component.

Home Radio have agreed to do this because of the considerable interest in this project, so to give them an initial idea of how many transformers are still required we advise readers to order as soon as possible, but be prepared for a reasonable delay (probably a few weeks) while EMI set up and manufacture.

## Audio Colour Unit

We have received a number of enquiries concerning the Audio Colour Unit. Some people are having trouble in obtaining the transformers specified, this is because Eagle have now sold out and do not expect to have any more until April-substitute types can be used.

Another problem with the colour unit is the thyristorssome types are no good in this circuit due to the high gate voltage they require. If you can get type C106D (Henrys stock them) these should be excellent and can pass up to 25 amps on a suitable heat sink. Therefore up to about 5,000 watts can be used on each channel if required!

## Indicator Audible Warning

No case has been shown for the Indicator Audible Warning and none is required if the unit is mounted to the rear of the dashboard. However should a case be required the unit is small enough to fit inside many of the small plastic boxes or tubs that are used for food or pills etc.

Many chemists now use clear plastic tubs with push on plastic tops for pill containers-most will sell you one very cheaply (about $2 p$ to 5 p ) if you ask. These are virtually waterproof and are excellent cases for small projects.
Many small loudspeakers are available and we suggest you look around for a cheap 15 to 100 ohm type-if you find one for less than 45 p buy it.

## Night Light Switch

No problems with buying for the Night Light Switch, the only point to watch is that the neon indicator incorporates a resistor to enable it to be used on mains voltage.

Incidentally, since the article was edited and the drawings made we have realised that a single pole single throw switch could be used for S1-it would simply be across D1 and short it out in the "full light" position. If you use this type of switch you will save about 3p-worth mentioning?

## General Purpose Audio Amplifier

Few buying problems should arise from components needed for the General Purpose Audio Ampli.
fier. The transformer (Eagle MT280) is available from many suppliers but if in difficulty, contact G.W. Smiths or Chromasonics. The case used for the prototype is constructed from universal chassis parts which regular constructors will now know as being available from Home Radio-other types of metal case can of course be used if required.

Heatsinks for T01 case transistors are generally available but a look at the Bright Idea for this purpose (page 209) may be helpful. Just to emphasise the point the component board is plain perforated Veroboard-that means no copper strips. If you cannot obtain the exact bridge rectifier quoted you can use any type with a rating of at least 50 V at 0.5 amp .

The loudspeaker sockets used on this project are rather unusual and we have been unable to find the supplier of that exact type. A similar spring-loaded type with square tops is produced by Eagle and are available through a number of suppliers. Alternatively screw terminals could be used.

## V.A.T.

The "approximate cost of components" quotations in this issue do not include additions for value added tax. We will look at possible price increases in more detail next month. A brief note on V.A.T. appears this month on the contents page.

## Last Month's Cover

We sometimes get letters about suppliers not doing all they should-normally we can assist and help sort something out-but this time it is us that is in need of sorting out.

Two firms were good enough to assist us last month by supplying photographic "props" for our front cover and we omitted to thank them with an acknowledge ment. We hope the firms will forgive us; we can make no excuses, only publish a belated acknowledgement.
Dixon's Photographic kindly loaned the enlarger, which was shown in use with the exposure meter.

Heals of Tottenham Court Road loaned the double egg cup, glass egg timer and table cloth.
Our thanks to both of them.



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## V.A.T.

Prices in this advertisement include V.A.T. If ordering before April Ist please deduct $10 \%$ from total order.

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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SFI | 2 in | Stin | 2tin |  |  |
| SF2 | 2 in | 7 72in | $3 \pm$ in | 660 |  |
| SF3 | 2 in | 9 alin | $4{ }^{\frac{1}{3} \text { in }}$ | 83p |  |

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I am somewhere at the back of the class when it comes to electronics so to make up for it I try to be neat when making your projects. Whilst waiting for the next issue of Everydar Electronics I made this gauge for bending wires to bridge the holes in the matrix boards.

I don't know whether something like this is on the market or whether it will be of interest but the one I made helps me. After bending the shape in aluminium and cutting the slot the calibrations were found by offering the matrix board ( 0.15 inch and 0.1 inch) to it and marking. The slot down the centre of the gauge is used for components that are to be mounted upright.

> E. R. Wall,
> London, SE7

A similar gauge, of slightly different construction was suggested by Mr J. Bayley of Cornwall. This gauge is much larger and can be used while resting on the bench. One side is marked for 0.15 inch matrix, the other for 0.1 inch matrix.
The gauge is constructed with a wooden base having Formica or plastic sides pinned to it (left in photo).


# DEMO CIRCUITS 

 (b)
## By MIIRE HCHELES

## The Phase Shift Oscillator

VERY frequently one needs to be able to produce an audio frequency sine waveperhaps as a signal generator or as part of a piece of equipment. This month's circuit describes a very simple circuit that will produce a good quality sine wave of a fixed frequency using only resistors and capacitors to set the frequency, as opposed to large inductors.

In principle the oscillator can be designed to give an output from one cycle in several seconds to several kilohertz. To demonstrate the operation we shall design it to give a signal in the middle of the audible range and show how it can be modified. The active part of the circuit is called a phase shift oscillator.

## FEEDBACK

When a transistor is operated in a common emitter configuration as a simple amplifier the output signal at the collector is 180 degrees out of phase with the input at its base-in other words when the input signal goes in a positive direction the output goes in a negative sense. It may sound a silly application, but if the output was connected back to the input through a capacitor the signal fed back would negate the input signal and the level of the output would be reduced; this is called negative feedback and it is frequently used to help control the gain of an amplifier.

If the first stage of amplification is followed by a second, identical amplifier, and the output fed back from the second stage to the input of the first, the fedback signal would now be "in phase" with the original input signal (because the second transistor inverts the signal back to the way it was originally): The second transistor has given a further 180 degrees of phase shift and brought the signal back to where it started.

The fed back signal now enhances the input signal and the output will become greater faster until it reaches close on the supply voltage and the increase in the output starts to slow up (positive feedback). This means that the positively fed back signal starts to reduce and the output starts to fall. This fall is fed back and becomes self sustaining until the output level reaches a minimum.

This principle of positive feedback is used in most self sustaining, free running oscillators. To get a circuit to oscillate at a known frequency the components used in the positive feedback loop must be frequency dependant. These components (they could be resistors, together with capacitors or inductors in various combinations) allow feedback to occur only at the frequency we have chosen.

## PHASE

In the case of this month's circuit the fact that if a current passes through a resistor and capacitor in series with each other there is a difference in phase between the current through the resistor and the voltage across the capacitor is utilised. Look at the simple resistor, capacitor (RC) circuit of Fig. 5.1. If the input voltage


Fig. 5.1 Simple RC circuit.
starts to rise slowly (equivalent to a low frequency) the output will follow it but will be delayed by the fact the capacitor is, in effect, charging up through the resistor to the input voltage; if the input starts to fall again the output will follow but there is another delay because the capacitor is in effect discharging through the resistor.
The delay is governed by the time constant for the resistor and capacitor in question. At very low frequencies the delay approaches a quarter of the period of the input signal, i.e. when the input is maximum positive the output will be passing zero, and when the input is at zero the output will be passing maximum positive.

At very low frequencies capacitors show high reactance and therefore the impedance of our circuit is quite high while the value of the resistance may be quite low; this means that the potential divide effect of the circuit is high and


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| AC107 | ${ }^{16 p}$ | AL102 | 39p | BD130 | 48p | ${ }_{0}^{0 c 71}$ | 129 | 2N697 | 18p | 40836 | 55p |  |  |  |
| ${ }_{\text {ACl2 }}^{\text {ACl27 }}$ | ${ }_{11}^{11}$ | AL103 AU103 | 80p | BD131 | ${ }_{15 p}^{38 p}$ | 0672 0081 | 139 | $\begin{aligned} & 2 \text { 2N1171 } \\ & 2 N 1304 \end{aligned}$ | 24 p 25 p |  |  |  |  |  |
| ACl28 | 11p | AV111 | 95 p | BFY50 | 15p | OCsid | 18p | 2N1305 | 25p |  |  | su | Low |  |
| ${ }^{4} \mathrm{Cl17}$ | ${ }^{250}$ | ${ }^{\text {BCLI }} 7$ | $8 \mathrm{8p}$ | BFY 61 | 129 | 0c8s | ${ }^{20 p}$ | 2N2846 | 470 |  |  | PRI | NEA |  |
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| ADI50 | 440 | ${ }_{\text {BCH}}$ | 10 | ME4401 | 10 p | OC25 | $25 p$ | 2N3703 | 129 | 1N4003 | 5 s | 709 C | Togy | P |
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| AD162 | D | BC182L | 8 P | M 66002 | 14p | O229 | ${ }^{86 \mathrm{p}}$ | 2N3704 | 12 p | OA90 | ${ }_{8}$ |  |  | \% |
| AFIL | 159 | BC183L | 89 | Mz8101 | 149 | Ocss | ${ }_{88}{ }^{\text {p }}$ | 2Na705 | 18 D | OA91 | 8p | 721 C | T099 |  |
| ${ }_{\text {AF115 }}$ | S | ${ }_{\text {BC184L }}$ | 5 | $\frac{\text { MP8102 }}{\text { MP811 }}$ | ${ }^{158}$ |  | ${ }_{48 \mathrm{p}}^{88}$ | 2N370\% | 100 | OA202 | ${ }_{80}$ | $7 \pm 1 \mathrm{C}$ | DIL | 84 D |
|  | 15 | ${ }_{\text {BC212L }}^{\text {BC214 }}$ | 8p | MP8111 | 842 | ${ }_{\text {TIP90A }}^{\text {TiP29a }}$ | ${ }^{485}$ | ${ }_{2}{ }^{2 N 5} 508$ | 8 P | 1844 | 10 p | 741 C | 8 pln InL | 845 |
| CAPACITORS |  |  |  | $\frac{1}{3198613}$ | 45p | TLraiA | 58p | 2N3709 | 100 | 1N4149 | 40 | 747C | DLI | , |
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the output voltage will be very small at low frequencies. If the frequency of the input signal is increased, the potential divide effect becomes less and the output signal will be larger, but the delay between input and output becomes less.

Using three such RC circuits cascaded into


Fig. 5.2. Three RC circuits in cascade.
each other (Fig. 5.2), there will be a certain frequency (depending on the values of the respective resistors and capacitors) when a phase delay of one sixth of the waveform's period for each of the three stages will result (this is equivalent to 60 degrees phase shift). If all the resistance values are the same and identical values of capacitance employed, this frequency will be the same for each of the three stages. Each stage contributes 60 degrees of phase shift and therefore at this single frequency the resultant phase shift is $3 \times 60$ or 180 degrees between input and output; lower frequencies will give more shift, higher frequencies less.

The important fact to grasp is that there is only one frequency that will give 180 degrees phase shift. Remember, though, that there is quite an attenuation caused by potential divide effects at each stage and therefore the output will be very much less than the input.

## OSCILLATOR

By connecting the phase shift network to a simple transistor amplifier between the output and the input, for one frequency only a signal
that is in phase with the input will be fed back and this will give positive feedback. Although the feedback signal is attenuated by the network the transistor acts as an amplifier and, provided the system is correctly designed-with sufficient current gain-the fed back signal will drive the output harder in one direction or the other (depending on which part of the cycle is considered).

Without going into the mathematics of it a current gain of at least 29 is required to get - assured, self sustaining oscillation. Below 29 and the circuit will not oscillate; above 29 and the output waveshape will be distorted because the transistor could saturate. The critical frequency that undergoes 180 degrees phase shift for the network is given by:

$$
f(\text { in } H z)=\frac{1}{2 \pi \times R \times C \times \sqrt{6}}
$$

where $R$ is in ohms and $C$ in farads.

## DEMO CIRCUIT

A working demonstration circuit is shown in Fig. 5.3; the phase shift network is clearly seen. Notice that R4 (the first resistor in the network) doubles as the collector load for TR1. The frequency determining components R4, R5 and R6 together with C2, C3 and C4 should all have the same values for the above equation to hold true. The bias circuitry for the transistor is calculated to give a d.c. output that is approximately mid-rail when considering R4 as a normal collector load. The frequency of oscillation for the circuit shown is:

$$
2 \times \pi \times 10,000 \times 0.00000000022 \times \sqrt{ } 6
$$

which is approximately 3 kilohertz.
By substituting a different set of capacitors (remember they should be of equal values) the circuit can be made to work at lower or higher

Fig. 5.3. A working demonstration Phase Shift Oscillator:
PHASE SHIFT OSCILLATOR ; LOUDSPEAKER DRIVER



Fig. 5.4. Layout and wiring of Fig. 5.3. on the Demo Deck.
frequencies. Theoretically the values of R4, R5 and R 6 could be changed but it would then be necessary to recalculate the bias components. Transistors TR2 and TR3 do not play an active role in the circuit; they are only there to couple in the loudspeaker to provide an interesting audio output. Ideally the overall current gain of the transistor amplifier (TR1) should be 29 and this can be set by adjusting VR2; it should be of the highest resistance value that will maintain
oscillation, reduce it to zero and you will see what we mean by the distortion of waveshape as the transistor starts to saturate.

If you have some $1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ (non electrolytic) capacitors to use as C2, C3 and C4 the sinusoidal output can be monitored by substituting the loudspeaker and C 5 with a d.c. meter as shown in Fig. 5.4. The frequency should be slow enough to give a measurable reading.
Next Month : A simple bistable.

## Ruminations <br> By Sensor

## "It was all right last night"

I have recently spent some time "on the other side of the fence"that is, on the retail and servicing side of electronics, after very many years in manufacturing. It is often strange to hear the layman (or laywoman) try to describe what is wrong with the television set.
Phrases such as, "There can't be much wrong, it was all right last night." "It's vibrating and buzzing and I'm afraid to touch it" are very commonly used; though the rather startling "it went off with a bang and I switched it off" is not unusual.
The "knowledgeable" customer tries to be helpful-"it's the picture valve," or "the volume control's faulty" or even "the tube's
gone ${ }^{3}$--this was a colour television that merely needed tuning in. This customer became quite rude and abusive when politely asked why he thought the tube was faulty.
To the man in the street a "transistor" is a small portable radio and therefore faults occuring in television or radio are usually attributed to picture valves, power valves and sound valves. How easy would be the serviceman's lot if this were so! It is interesting and often amusing to receive a service call from a customer and then to read the serviceman's report on the set in question!

What shall we see when the public become familiar with integrated circuits? "It's the blue and yellow i.c." or "the p.c. board has gone" or "there's nothing lighting up in the back."

Then there is the hopeful optimist who comes into the service department with half a dozen valves wrapped in newspaper, after these have been tested and replacements purchased for the
weaker ones he would usually, after a day or so, ask for the service engineer to call. For the time taken to restore the circuit to its original configuration, subsequent to his attentions, and to diagnose the fault to a leaking decoupling capacitor he ends up with a fair bill, but perhaps he has enjoyed himself!

## A Bag of Mystery

I was invited to attend a Burns Supper and perhaps it was the quantity of whisky flowing but 1 thought how much alike are the integrated circuit and the haggis, that "great chieftain of the pudding race." Each containing many things and each in its protective encapsulation. When surrounded with its supporting componentsthe haggis with its neeps and tatties and the i.c. with its resistors and capacitors-what joy, what satisfaction from those perfections of man's achievements.

But I have yet to hear an address to the i.c!
Everyday Electronics, April 1973

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Smalths mins delven clock with 15 amp switch, also note ${ }^{8}$ ahowing how you can mike ad with music piaging, kettle bolling or come bome to a warm house, warn ofl hurgiar I leeep pets Warm, halve your beatiog bill, etc. 21.96.


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Contaning s 15 amp. change ovor hich opereted by air ress ine through a small metas toble. The operating pressure is adjust able but is set to operste in approx 10 m . of water. These are quite low preseare derices and can in fact be operated aimply by blowing into oret tube. Original ase was for washing arhines to torn of yrater when tab hes reached correct level bat no doubt has minay other applicstions $\$ 1-25$, each.

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figins, sultable for aptio or R.F. Esicb switch ated at 2507. 16 amps, lot (blaci puah batton) loses 2 circults, 2 nd (whue push burwa) operales one change-over, 3 d (wake pusi butcon) operates one clrenith Note: all depresed buttons remain down until clesred by the sth (red button). Purther notc: It is a relatively easy job to alter the poattion of the tags thus making the switches uift your circuit. Fitted with 3 white, 1 red and 1 black button. 80 g each or 10 for 28.70 .

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