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Cambridge

The Cambridge – new from Sinclair

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Truly pocket-sized With all its calculating capability, the Cambridge still measures just $4\frac{1}{2}$ " x 2" x $\frac{11}{16}$ ". That means you can carry the Cambridge wherever you go without inconvenience – it fits in your pocket with barely a bulge. It runs on ordinary U16-type batteries which give weeks of life before replacement.

Easy to assemble

All parts are supplied – all you need provide is a soldering iron and a pair of cutters. Complete step-by-step instructions are provided, and our service department will back you throughout if you've any queries or problems.

The cost? Just £27.45!

The Sinclair Cambridge kit is supplied to you direct from the manufacturer. Ready assembled, it costs £32.95 - so you're saving £5.50! Of course we'll be happy to supply you with one ready-assembled if you prefer – it's still far and away the best calculator value on the market.

Features of the Sinclair Cambridge

*Uniquely handy package.
4½" x 2" x 1½", weight 3½ oz.
*Standard keyboard. All you need for complex calculations.
*Clear-last-entry feature.
*Fully-floating decimal point.
*Algebraic logic.
*Four operators (+, -, x, ÷), with constant on all four.
*Constant acts as last entry in a calculation.
*Constant and algebraic logic combine to act as a limited memory, allowing complex calculations on a

calculator costing less than £30. *Calculates to 8 significant digits, with exponent range from

10⁻²⁰ to 10⁷⁹. * Clear, bright 8-digit

display. *Operates for weeks on four U16-type batteries.

(MN 2400 recommended.)

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Everyday Electronics, June 1974
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everyday electronics

PROJECTS ... THEORY.....

POCKETS AND PROJECTS

The tide of rising prices and inflation does not look like subsiding, yet. All we can hope for in our most optimistic mood is that the peak of the flood has now been experienced (and suffered) and that the tide will soon be on the ebb. At any rate, most of us will have to continue to consider very carefully any proposed expenditure in the immediate future.

Whether hobbies and leisure pursuits in general suffer or prosper in times of financial difficulty is an interesting debating point. One cannot generalise, of course, since a lot depends upon the nature of the hobby and the personal circumstances of the individual.

Some leisure pursuits are entirely recreational and possibly extravagant in outlay for services or equipment. Of a different nature are the many traditional crafts that can be taken up for fun but provide an additional permanent bonus in the form of some tangible result from the effort expended.

To the list of established traditional crafts, we must now include electronics. With the introduction of simple-to-use circuit devices, most of the old terrors of electronics have disappeared. The average man in the street can be as happily engaged in building and experimenting, as the technically trained expert. The nature of this subject allows useful and interesting involvement at all levels. One can restrict one's interest to quite a modest level; or one can progress practically without limitation—save that of the depth of pocket—to the highest heights, by building ambitious and technically complex projects.

Among electronics magazines for home constructors, EVERYDAY ELECTRONICS is unique in covering the modest end of the business *exclusively*. This means we devote much of our attention to the absolute beginner and help him (or her) on the way, by explaining in plain language the basic facts of life: about both the theory of electronic circuits and the practice of assembling electronic projects from readily available, and generally inexpensive, components.

Now that we have come back to "money," this is a good opportunity to mention another EVERY-DAY ELECTRONICS exclusive feature—The Cost Box. Desirable as a particular design may be, the expenditure involved is likely to be a decisive factor in determining whether or not to go ahead. So we ensure that readers have a good idea as to the probable cost of each and every constructional project we present.

The shrewd contructor will appreciate the good investment our projects provide!

Fel Bernett

Our July issue will be published on Friday, June 21

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VOL. 3 NO. 6

JUNE 1974

CONSTRUCTIONAL PROJECTS

EASY TO CONSTRUCT

SIMPLY EXPLAINED

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The position for effective operation of a deep freeze unit is usually outside and remote from the kitchen or lounge and very often it is situated in the garage and may only be visited once a day or less. If the deep freeze unit develops a fault it may be sometime before this is discovered and by that time the contents may be spoiled.

The unit to be described here will help to prevent this spoiling by giving an audible and visual alarm when the temperature in the freezer compartment varies by more than plus or minus 1.5 degrees. In this way the fault is brought to your attention, and repairs and/or other arrangements can be made immediately, such as lagging the freezer until repairs are carried out or moving the contents to another freezer.

CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

The circuit diagram of the Freezer Temperature Alarm is shown in Fig. 1. The unit uses a differential amplifier ICl whose voltage output, pin 6, is proportional to the difference in voltage between the two inputs, pins 2 and 3.

The voltage on pin 3 is held constant by the potential divider effect of resistors R7 and R8, the potential at their junction being set at half the supply voltage i.e. 6V. The voltage applied to pin 2 is controlled by the potential divider effect of the resistance chain R9, VR1 and RTH1.

Potentiometer VR1 is a preset control, wired to act as a variable resistor for setting up pur-

FREEZER

TEMPE

ALARM

poses. At a given temperature, VRI can be adjusted so that the voltage appearing on pin 2 is the same as that at pin 3, in this instance there will be no voltage at the output (pin 6).

Now a thermistor is a component whose resistance varies in a known way with temperature so that when the temperature changes the voltage at pin 2 changes, and thus an output voltage is produced. The unit has been designed such that a 1.5 degree temperature change (with G14 thermistor) produces sufficient output voltage to operate relay RLA.

When the relay contacts, RLA1, close, power is available to operate the astable multivibrator composed of TR1, TR2 and associated components. The frequency of the multivibrator is 1Hz (approximately) determined by the timing components R1, C6 and R4, C5. Therefore the output from the collector of TR2 is a train of positive pulses and these are fed via R5 to the

BY T.P. MANNING & R.D. HIDER

Gives an audible and visual alarm if the temperature inside the freezer varies.

Fig. 1. The complete circuit diagram of the Freezer Temperature Alarm.

base of TR3.

Each time a positive voltage is applied to the base of TR3, it is biased into conduction and TR3 collector falls to almost zero volts causing almost 20 volts to be placed across the lamp LP1 causing the latter to be illuminated. The net result of the pulse train is to cause LP1 to flash on and off thus giving the visual alarm.

With Sl in the position shown, RLB is in parallel with LP1 and is energised each time LP1 is illuminated. Contact RLB1 is wired so that when the relay is energised, the contact is pulled in and breaks the circuit causing the relay to become de-energised. As this happens, RLB1 springs back and makes the circuit again and the cycle is repeated.

This process happens very quickly and the relay contact is made to "buzz" thus giving the audible alarm. This is the principle on which the simple bell works.

With S1 in its other position the buzzer is taken out of circuit and this is indicated by the illumination of LP2. This is useful in setting up the unit as the buzzer can be annoying.

Everyday Electronics, June 1974

Resistor R6 is incorporated in series with RLB to drop the voltage across the relay to 12V.

If desired, the audible and visual alarm can be omitted and another alarm of your choice, e.g., a buzzer can be employed, contact RLA1 switching it on (the contacts are rated at 200mA maximum). In this case all circuitry below relay contact RLA1 in Fig. 1 is not required.

P.C. BOARD

The component board used in the prototype was a home made printed circuit type, the fullsize drawing of which is shown in Fig. 2.

The easiest way of making the board is to thoroughly clean a piece of copper clad board, size 140 x 90mm and then with either enamel paint or a Dalo pen (etchant resist) cover in the areas shown in black on the master drawing —these are the areas of copper to remain after etching.

When the etchant resist has completely dried, check the board for mistakes, ragged edges and uncovered areas and when completely satisfied, the board should be immersed in a dish of dilute

Fig. 2 (top). The layout of the components on the top side of the printed circuit board and (below) the full-sized master drawing of the copper pattern on the underside of the board.

ferric chloride solution. The board should be agitated from time to time being careful not to get any of the solution on the hands or clothing as it is poisonous and corrosive.

When all the unwanted copper has been etched away, the board should be removed from the dish with a pair of tweezers and thoroughly washed under running tap water.

Now clean off the resist and drill all the necessary holes. The board is now ready for component assembly.

Comp	onents
Resistors	
R1 22ks	2
R2 2.2	Ω
R3 2.2	Ω
R4 22k	2
R5 56k	2
R6 82Ω	
R7 22ks	
R8 22ks	2—see text SEE
R9 4.7	Ω
R10 27k	
R11 27k	
R12 1M	
R13 1M	
R14 1.5	
R15 220	
AII 1W -1	-10% carbon
Capacitor	s
C1 220	pF
C2 0.0	1μF
C3 100	0μF elect. 25V
C4 100	μF elect. 25V
C5 50µ	F elect. 25V
C6 50µ	F elect. 25V
Semicond	uctors
TR1, 2	OC71 germanium pnp (2 off)
TR3	2N3053 silicon npn
D1, 2	0A91 (2 off)
D3	BY234
D4, 5	IN92 or any 1A 50V diode (2 off)
D6, 7	BZX61, 12V 1W Zener (2 off)
IC1	709 differential amplifier 10-99 case
RTH1	G14 thermistor—see text
Miscellan	eous
VR1	25kO carbon preset TV type
S1	single-pole changeover toggle
SK1, 2	4mm insulated sockets, one red,
	one black (2 off)
T1	mains/15V 500mA secondary
LP1, 2	m.e.s. 20V ToumA lamps and
	paner mounting tampholders, one
DIA	amper lens, one clear lens (2 on)
RLA	greater than 200 ohme (type RR
	(0.12) colour blue)
DID	12V with changeover contacts and
KLD	coil resistance 110 ohms (Omron)
Conner	clad hoard size 140 x 90mm: 2A
terminal	blocks 2-way and 3-way: length of
three	ore mains cable: 4BA nuts. bolts.
washers	and stand off spacers; metal case.
musilere	

CONSTRUCTION

The prototype unit was built in an aluminium box measuring $150 \times 100 \times 65$ mm with a removable lid. This should be the minimum size used otherwise all the components will not fit inside.

First, obtain or build a suitable box and drill all the fixing and components mounting holes as indicated in Fig. 3. The box should now be painted or covered.

The components should now be mounted and soldered in position on the printed circuit board as detailed in Fig. 2 paying special attention to the polarities of the diodes, capacitors, integrated circuit and transistors. Use a heatshunt when soldering the semiconductors. Do not connect the flying leads at this stage.

Next position and secure the components to the lid of the box and the two sets of terminal blocks to the bottom half of the box as shown in Fig. 3, and then wire up as indicated. The mains lead should be let into the box via a rubber grommet and a cable clip used to anchor it.

When completely satisfied that the wiring is correct, secure the component board to the base of the box with 4BA fixings and stand-off spacers and place the lid in position ensuring that the lid mounted components do not touch any of the board mounted components and more important, the transformer.

SETTING UP

Disconnect the thermistor, switch S1 to the alarm position and plug in and switch on. Lamp LP1 should flash and the buzzer sound. Switch S1 to the standby position and LP2 should light up and the buzzer cease to operate; LP1 should still flash.

If all is satisfactory, switch off the unit and insert the thermistor in its terminal block on a length of twin cable and place the thermistor inside the deep freeze cabinet. It will depend on the model of the freezer how access is obtained, but in chest type freezers it is sufficient to lay the thermistor on the seal so that

Photograph of the completed prototype component board.

the lid closes down on the wires, the thermistor hanging in the freezer compartment.

With the freezer working normally, and set to "0" degrees centigrade, allow the thermistor to stabilise at the working temperature and then switch on the unit with SI at alarm. Now connect a d.c. voltmeter set to read 10V in SK1 and SK2 and adjust VR1 to read zero volts. The lamp should stop flashing and the buzzer should cease to operate.

The Freezer Temperature Alarm will now trigger if there is a change of plus or minus 1.5 degrees centigrade. The length of the cable between the thermistor (in the freezer) and the unit adjacent to a convenient power point in the room of your choice can be as long as necessary (within reason).

THERMISTOR

The foregoing setting up procedure is applicable where a type G14 thermistor is used, however, it is not essential that this particular type is used as any other type can be used providing its resistance is known or can be identified at 0, +2 and -2 degrees centigrade in which case Replace R8 with a resistor of the value of the thermistor at 0 degrees centigrade. (2) With a resistor of the same ohmic value as the thermistor at +2 degrees centigrade fitted in place of the thermistor, adjust R12 and R13 until the alarm just comes in. (3) Remove this resistor and refit the thermistor and set up as described above.

the following procedure should be used: (1)

Photograph of completed unit.

Current Flow

I purchased the March '74 issue of E.E. today just to see how you were getting on as I have often recommended to friends that reading E.E. was a good introduction to the subject.

However having studied page 163 I am sorry to say that I will think twice before doing so again. How A. P. Stephenson can, in the space of two inches reverse the direction of current flow without a single word of explanation is beyond me. The effect of this rubbish on a person trying to grasp how a transistor works is confusing to say the least, and can only make the subject more difficult to understand.

Perhaps Mr. Stephenson would like to note that electron flow and current flow are the same thing, moving in the same direction (We only need "holes" wandering backwards, or is it forwards, to add to the confusion

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and mumbo jumbo which exists.) Please realise that your publication is read by school children who can ill afford to be mixed up by those who should know better.

Alexander C. Young, Director, Wilton Electronics (Scot.) Ltd., Glasgow.

Your confusion over the difference between conventional current and electron flow is understandable because years ago I had the same trouble. The mix up started in the years of the pioneers, Kirchhoff, Ohm and Faraday when it was arbitrarily decided that "current" flowed from positive to negative and arrows showing directions have traditionally followed this convention. "Electrons" (which came later) were found to flow in the opposite direction-hence the confusion.

Regarding your specific criti-

cism, perhaps you might care to re-examine the offending "two inches of my article" and note that Fig. 7.1 is labelled "Electron-Flow" and Fig. 8.1 is labelled "Current Flow." The difference between electron flow and current flow was pointed out in the November 1973 issue of E.E.— A. P. Stephenson.

Transistor Assisted Ignition

I have read with great interest in this month's magazine (April '74) of the Transistor Assisted Ignition. As I have a 6V system on my car, please could you tell me if this is suitable or would I need different components.

> M. Steeden, Faversham, Kent.

We are looking into the suitability of the unit and we hope to publish some comments on the Transistor Assisted Ignition for 6V cars in the near future.

Please Take Note

In the Semiconductor Primer page 281 last month. It was stated that $h_{\rm FE}$ was base current

collector current this should have been collector current

base current

TEACH-IN 74.

THEORY AND EXPERIMENTS

TUTOR : PHIL ALLCOCK*

LESSON 9 Inductance and the Transformer

NDUCTANCE is measured in terms of a basic unit known as the "henry" and it is a fundamental property that inductance can be related to the voltage across a coil and the rate of change of current through it. The symbol for a coil or inductor is given on the wall chart and the usual sub-divisions of the basic unit of one henry can be used e.g. $1mH = (1_{1000})th$ of one henry.

If a coil has an inductance (L) of one henry and the current through it is made to change at a rate of 1 amp/sec., then a voltage difference of one volt will be present between the ends of the coil due to electromagnetic induction. The changing current sets up a changing magnetic field or flux and the voltage exists only whilst the current is changing.

A constant current of say one ampere would give zero voltage since the magnetic field and flux would be fixed. Obviously this is another example of a component that depends on the rate of change of a quantity. The voltage variation that would occur from the given current waveforms are shown in Fig. 9.1, it can be seen that in each case the coil voltage is given by

Voltage=L×(Rate of change of current).

Consistent units are volts, henries and amps./ second.

REACTANCE

The sine wave variation, of current or voltage, will always have the standard shape and so it is possible to work out the maximum value of the rate of change which occurs each time the sinewaves passes through the zero axis. For the instantaneous current i, we can write

 $i = I_m \sin(2\pi ft).$

Where I_m is the peak value of the wave and f

Fig. 9.1. Voltage and current waveforms for an inductor.

is the frequency in Hz. The maximum rate of change is given by $2\pi f I_m$ whilst at the peaks of the wave, the rate of change is always zero. Using these facts we can write the peak voltage across the coil L as:

peak voltage = $L \times (2\pi f I_m)$

$= (2\pi fL) \times (\text{peak current}).$

The quantity $2\pi fL$ is shown as the inductive reactance of the coil and is a measure of its

• North Staffordshire Polytechnic . Any communications arising from the Teach-In '74 series must be addressed to Everyday Electronics, Fleetway House, Farringdon Street, London E.C.4).

Fig. 9.2. Variation of reactance with frequency.

ability to limit alternating current flow. It is measured in ohms, just like resistance, but does not depend in any way on the resistance of the wire used for the coil. An ideal (perfect) coil would have no wire resistance but would have a reactance that depends on frequency f and inductance L, Fig. 9.2 shows how inductive reactance varies with frequency for a given value of L. A similar result can be obtained for the capacitor. If the voltage is written as V_m sin $(2\pi ft)$ then:

peak current = $C \times (maximum rate of change of voltage)$

 $I_{\rm m} = C \times 2\pi f V_{\rm m}$ hence $V_{\rm m} = I_{\rm m} \times \left(\frac{1}{2\pi f C}\right)$

The quantity $\frac{1}{2\pi fC}$ is known as capacitive reactance and the variation with frequency is also given in Fig. 9.2. It is important to realise that a 90 degree phase displacement also occurs

with the inductor, but in this case the current lags the voltage by 90 degrees (i.e. the voltage leads the current this time).

RESONANCE

It is possible to produce some very interesting and useful effects by combining inductance and capacitance together. Since practical coils invariably have resistance we can simulate a real coil by studying an ideal resistor in series with an ideal inductor. Thus a series *LCR* circuit could be represented by the circuit of Fig. 9.3a.

If the current is assumed to be sinusoidal, the voltage across each element can be obtained using the ideas previously discussed and the total instantaneous voltage can then be obtained by addition of the individual voltage waveforms. The waveforms are shown in Fig. 9.3a and it is easy to see that the variations of voltage across L and C are in the opposite sense and therefore tend to cancel each other.

If the peak values are equal the cancellation will be perfect and this condition is known as series resonance. For cancellation, we must

Fig. 9.3a (top) Voltage waveforms for an *LCR* series circuit. (b) Variation of current in a series resonant circuit.

make the peak values of v_L and v_C equal and this requires that

$$2\pi f l_{\rm m} = l_{\rm m} \left(\frac{1}{2\pi fC}\right)$$

rranging terms gives $f^2 = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^2 LC}$
ace f (resonance) = $\frac{1}{2\pi \sqrt{LC}}$ Hz.

rea

her

Thus, at this frequency (which depends on the L and C values) the voltages v_L and v_0 completely cancel each other out, and the voltage across the complete L C R circuit is exactly the same as the voltage across the resistor. In fact at this one frequency the circuit behaves as a simple resistor of value R.

At other frequencies the total voltage (for a given current) will increase since the cancellation of $v_{\rm L}$ and v_c will be incomplete. If we apply a constant voltage at various frequencies to a series L C R circuit the current will vary as shown in Fig. 9.3b. Note that at the resonant frequency the current is at its maximum value.

CIRCUIT MAGNIFICATION

At resonance the voltage across either L or C can be considerably greater than the voltage applied to the circuit. The ratio of these voltages

is called the circuit magnification factor Q_0 and is given by

 $Q_0 = \frac{Max. \text{ voltage across whole}}{Max. \text{ voltage across } L \text{ (or } C\text{) at resonance}}$ circuit at resonance

Since the voltage across the whole circuit at resonance equals that across R we have

$$Q_o = \frac{(2\pi fL) I_m}{R I_m} = \frac{2\pi fL}{R}$$

Note that the voltage across R is given simply by Ohm's law and therefore has a maximum value of $I_m \times R$, where I_m is the maximum (peak) current.

R.M.S. VALUES

When dealing with alternating currents and voltages that have the standard sinusoidal waveform it is more usual to work in terms of *effective values* which are based on equivalent heating effects.

To illustrate this idea let us suppose that when we pass an alternating (sinusoidal) current, of peak value I_m amps, through a resistance of value R ohms, the average power dissipation is given by P_{AV} . (The instantaneous power will be fluctuating throughout each cycle as the current varies.) If we set up an equal value resistor with a steady current I and adjust I to give the same average power dissipation as in the first resistor, then I is defined as the effective or root-meansquare (r.m.s.) value of the alternating current. For sinusoidal currents the relationship is

$$I(\text{r.m.s.}) = \frac{\text{peak current}}{\sqrt{2}} = \frac{I_{\text{m}}}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Since $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} = 0.707$, the r.m.s. value of the

current is approximately 71 per cent of the peak current. A similar proportionality exists between r.m.s. and peak voltages providing the waveform is sinusoidal.

MEASUREMENT OF ALTERNATING CURRENT/VOLTAGE

All the measurements made so far in the series have been possible using a 0-IV or 0-10V voltmeter. The moving coil of the 100μ A meter carries the current and rotates due to the interaction of the magnetic field of the coil and the permanent magnet system which surrounds the : moving coil. The coil also experiences a restoring force provided by the fine "hair springs" and thus rotates until all the forces balance.

If we apply an alternating voltage to our 0-10V voltmeter the coil will try to rotate one way,

Fig. 9.4 "Halfwave" voltmeter circuit.

then the opposite way and the net deflection will be zero. Only if the applied waveform has a nonzero average value (over one cycle) will the meter respond.

To make a simple voltmeter for alternating voltages we can use a diode in series with the usual meter circuit so that current can flow only for one half cycle of the input. If we neglect the forward voltage drop across the diode the meter will respond to the average value of the halfwave voltage variation as shown in Fig. 9.4. The current in the meter consists of a series of unidirectional half-sinewave pulses having a peak value of V_m/R_T where R_T is the total resistance of R and the meter together. The average value of this current can be shown to be I_m/π i.e. $0.318(I_m)$. Thus a sinusoidal voltage of say 10 volts (r.m.s.) would have a peak value of $10 \sqrt{2}$ volts and since RT is approximately 100 kilohms the peak current can be found.

$$I_{\rm m} = \frac{14.14}{100,000} = 141.4\mu {\rm A}.$$

For this input, the meter will indicate a current of $141 \cdot 4 \times 0 \cdot 318 = 45 \mu A$.

In practice the forward voltage drop across the diode would give a reading somewhat less than this. Assuming that 0.6 volts is "lost" across the diode the actual reading will be about $43\mu A$.

By using four diodes it is possible to get almostdouble this deflection, for the same voltage input, by passing current through the meter for each half cycle in the same direction.

The circuit for this full-wave rectifier meter is shown in Fig. 9.5. When A is positive with respect to B, diodes D1 and D2 conduct and D3 and D4 are reverse biased. When B is positive with respect to A, the roles of the diodes are changed and D3, D4 now conduct. Note that current flow in the meter is always in the same direction. Since the number of current pulses/ sec. is now doubled, the average current and therefore the meter reading is doubled.

The improvement is not exactly a factor of two since the circuit now introduces two diodes in series each half cycle and the voltage drop is therefore increased. The meter will indicate approximately $80\mu A$ for a 10 volt r.m.s. input.

Fig. 9.5 "Full-wave" voltmeter circuit.

THE ALTERNATOR

We have introduced the idea of alternating voltage and current and also examined the behaviour of resistance, capacitance 'and inductance in situations involving alternating current. The usual household mains supply is generated at a power station by an electrical machine known as an alternator. (Yes, you are right! A smaller version of the same device is used in the electrical system of the modern car.)

In its simplest form a coil of wire (the rotor) is turned between the poles of a magnet. See Fig. 9.6. Connections are made to the ends of the coil by contacts which press on two slip rings. When the coil rotates in the magnetic field produced by the (stator) magnets a voltage is induced in the coil by electromagnetic action.

The voltage is found to depend on the rate of change of magnetic flux linking the coil and the situation is illustrated in Fig. 9.7. The rate of change of flux linkage is seen to be a maximum when the coil sides are actually moving across the magnetic field lines (which merely represent the actual magnetic field in our diagram) and is a minimum when the coil sides are moving along the field lines.

The generation of one complete cycle of the sine waveform that is produced by this alternator is shown in Fig. 9.7 and it can be seen that the voltage V_{AB} measured between the two slip rings reverses polarity every half revolution of the coil.

Fig. 9.6. A diagram of a simple alternator.

In the power station the rotor coil is driven by a steam turbine and the speed of rotation is held fairly constant. Since each revolution gives one complete cycle a constant alternator speed will produce an output having a constant frequency (number of cycles per second). Use is made of this constant frequency feature in the household (mains) electric clock which employs a synchronous motor that revolves in step (i.e. synchronism) with the mains supply frequency.

TRANSFORMER PRINCIPLE

It is not necessary to use a permanent magnet and a moving coil to utilise the electromagnetic induction effect. The essential requirement is a **flux linkage** which can be changed with time and the resulting voltage will always depend on the rate of change of the flux linkage. A transformer is simply a set of two or more coils that share a common core of magnetisable material, such as soft iron, and in use one coil is used to set up a time varying magnetic field which links with the other coil or coils to generate an output voltage.

It will be apparent from what we have said so far that the transformer can only work if the magnetic field in the core is made to change and because of this a transformer cannot be

Fig. 9.7a. Coil position for zero output voltage (b) Variation of V_{AB} with coil angle for one complete cycle.

usefully employed with direct (steady) current.

One of the greatest attractions of alternating current is that it can be used in conjunction with transformers to change voltage levels (magnitudes) either up or down without significant loss of power. The efficiency of a well designed transformer is usually in excess of 95 per cent.

We will examine the transformer in more detail since it is obviously a very useful component and is widely used in electronic systems, especially in power supplies derived from mains.

One of the coils of the transformer is called the **primary** and may consist of many thousands of turns of fine insulated wire (for mains inputs). The other coil, which is wound on the same magnetic core, but is electrically insulated from the primary coil, is known as secondary coil. Transformers can have one or more secondary coils and the coils may have different numbers of turns.

Next month: More on transformers, plus the reed relay, and loudspeaker.

TUTOR BOARD EXPERIMENT

Test No. 19

The Friedland bell transformer can supply 3, 5 or 8 volts (r.m.s.) from normal 240 volt mains supplies. The low voltage output is quite safe but the windings should never be short circuited. The mains (primary) coil must be connected to a suitable lead and plug, to fit the outlets in use in the home. Under no circumstances should any connections be made, or changed, with the

mains plug connected to the household supply. Where possible use a fused plug fitted with a

low current fuse (1 amp). Do not use a 13 amp fuse as this cannot give the protection required with low power consumption devices. If in any doubt, readers should seek the assistance of someone familiar with mains wiring techniques. Always switch off the mains supply and remove the mains plug from the socket before connecting the transformer to any Tutor Board circuit.

Using two leads to the 3 volt transformer secondary winding, join the transformer to the half-wave voltmeter circuit (Fig. 9.4). The meter should indicate the average value of the low voltage rectified output when the mains is connected. The diode can be a 1N4001 or similar type. Repeat the test using the 5 volt and 8 volt output of the transformer in turn.

Always disconnect the mains before altering the transformer connections. Check that the readings agree with the theory. The 3, 5 and 8 volt markings are only approximate (r.m.s.) values and the results may be affected by mains voltage variation from the nominal 240V.

Restore the connections to the 3 volt transformer winding and repeat the measurement with a 250μ F capacitor connected across the meter and its $100k\Omega$ resistor. The positive side of the capacitor should be connected to the diode cathode and the negative side to the meter negative terminal. The circuit can be set up on the Tutor Board, as shown in Fig. 9.9, which uses the switch S1 to connect the capacitor as required.

In this test the voltmeter responds to the *peak* voltage when S1 is closed. Check your results to see if they are consistent.

Fig. 9.9. Test circuit and wiring on the Tutor Board for Test No. 19.

AVING dealt with electronics related to diagnosis, performance and safety last month we now move on to control and security.

CONTROL AND VEHICLE SECURITY

Electronic control may be applied to many systems and units in the car. With custom built thick film integrated circuits which are now being used throughout the electronics industry, electronic control is becoming more practical. Electronic intermittent wiper controls have been available for some time and are now being fitted to some modern cars.

Electronic control of electrical cooling fans uses a thermistor sensor and a Schmitt trigger to switch a relay or power transistor in the fan motor circuit.

Light sensors together with amplifiers and power switching circuits are used in systems which dip the interior mirror when the light from the following cars falls on the mirror light sensor, or systems which detect the light from on-coming vehicles and then dip the headlamps, Fig. 6 shows the block diagram of a headlamp dipping unit.

Car alternator voltage regulators use electronics to control alternator output voltage and limit current output. The regulator units monitor the rectified output from the alternator and regulate the output by varying the field produced by the field winding thus providing constant voltage output. The three-phase output from the alternator being rectified by semicon-

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By C.S.POINTER

ductor diodes mounted on a suitable heatsink. The various regulator units vary from printed circuit assemblies to thick film integrated circuits.

There are under development several vehicle speed control systems either using roadside transmitter units or cables under the road sur-

Fig. 6. Block diagram of an automatic car headlamp dipping system.

The Heathkit engine analyser, a useful instrument for the practical man.

face to transmit information to vehicle mounted receivers connected to the speed control unit, or using a dashboard mounted control unit enabling the driver to select a cruising speed and the unit will control the vehicle speed at the set value until any of the normal car controls, accelerator, brakes, etc. are operated thus reverting speed control to the driver.

Vehicle security systems include alarms and immobilising systems. Alarms switching the car horn on and off, or operating a siren are triggered by various sensors mounted on the car, door switches, mercury switches detecting vibration caused by an intruder or triggered from the ignition switch if the alarm has not been reset.

ENTERTAINMENT

The car radio is probably the most common item of electronic equipment fitted to cars on the road today. The car radios produced today are transistorised or contain integrated circuits and range from simple manual tuned or push button single and dual waveband sets to station seeking, multiwave band sets.

Most car radios receive medium wave and long wave stations but there are available sets which receive short wave and f.m./v.h.f. stations, the range of v.h.f. sets includes some which are equipped with stereo decoders and stereo amplifiers enabling f.m. stereo programmes to be enjoyed in some areas of the country where the signal is strong enough.

There are available dual purpose radios with internal batteries, aerial and speaker which can be used as normal portable radios until the radio is pushed into the car mounted frame, the radio is then connected to the car battery and aerial; also there are converter units which when connected to any medium wave car radio converts the radio to receive shortwave bands.

Together with car radios, increasing numbers of tape players and record players are being fitted to cars. Tape players are becoming very popular and there are two main systems in use today, these are compact cassette units and eight-track cartridge stereo units.

The cassette units range from simple mono player units which play through the car radio amplifier to stereo cassette players with built in amplifiers, mono recorder and f.m. stereo radio.

A new development in the cassette player field is the auto-reverse stereo player shown in Fig. 7. This unit is fitted with small magnets on each take-up turntable which switch reed switches. When the end of cassette tape is reached and the take-up turntable stops revolving, the drive clutch slips. The absence of an output signal from the reed switch circuits due to the turntable stopping, trigger, via a control circuit, a solenoid which reverses the cassette drive direction and switches from one pair of tape head windings to another. The unit gives continuous music without the need to remove and turn over the cassette at the end of the track: the direction of play can be reversed at any time by pressing a panel mounted button. Also fast forward/ fast reverse facility is available.

The compact cassettes can be bought prerecorded or recorded using the standard domestic cassette recorders which are in wide use today.

The eight track cartridge player uses a cartridge which contains an endless loop of tape with eight tracks which are pre-recorded with four stereo programmes. There are available eight track cartridge players with radio and for some units there is available a converter which slots into the unit in place of the cartridge giving f.m./v.h.f. stereo radio reception.

Modified versions of the cartridge player which take cartridges recorded with quadrophonic programmes, two programmes each of four channels played through four speakers mounted at each of the four corners of the car.

One or two of the more expensive cars have as optional equipment television receivers mounted out of the driver's view, but these are few and far between.

COMMUNICATION

Car communication using transmitter/receiver has been in use for a long time, used by police, fire brigade, ambulance, taxis and many large

Fig. 7. The Pye auto reverse stereo tape player. Everyday Electronics, June 1974

companies for communication between base and cars on the road. The private motorist and the company executive can now in some areas have fitted to his car a GPO radio telephone or a transmitter/receiver hired from a company running a radiophone service.

Under development is a system which is intended to relay traffic information and warnings to the driver through the car radio. Roadside transmitters being used to transmit local information when conditions arise requiring warnings to be given, a receiver mounted in the car picks up the signals and interrupts the normal programmes with the warnings. The receiver may be a separate unit connected to the car radio or it may be part of the radio itself.

CONCLUSIONS

In order to power some electronic equipment from a car electrical system it may be necessary to include a power unit to convert the 12V or 6V d.c. supply to a higher or lower voltage or to a.c. voltage, such as the d.c./a.c. inverter in E.E. July 1972. (No longer available.)

By use of these various power supplies a wide range of electronic equipment may be powered from the car electrical supply.

As the electronics industry develops new and more advanced techniques many of these may benefit the motorist indirectly in making available more items of electronic equipment to the motorist and motor manufacturers. In general electronic units fitted to production cars are of the plug-in type making replacement fairly simple. The majority of electronic equipment is very reliable and should last for the life of the car.

Large electronic digital computer systems are used in production control, car design, spares distribution by the large manufacturers and in some countries used car testing is computer controlled.

This article has covered some of the applications of electronics connected with cars and motoring, which is a very wide field.

A compact m.w. and l.w. car radio complete with fixings and speaker from Bosch Ltd.

Anyone for Tennis?

An ingenious variation on the pin table theme is getting around the country. The apparatus looks like a large table model TV but its circuits probably have more in common with radar than with television. When the appropriate coins are put into the slot, a spot of light begins to bounce across the "court" and short vertical lines, which represent racquets, can be moved vertically by the players' controls in order to intercept the "ball".

The apparatus emits a realistic echoing "plunk" when the "ball" hits the racquet and the "ball" bounces back to the opponents on the other side of the "court".

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If the ball goes out of court the player is admonished by a suitable "brrp" noise and the score points on the screen record the error.

Apart from enjoying my game of electronic tennis—even though I lost, I got a lot of fun from speculating how the thing works. No doubt many readers will have a shrewd idea of what lies behind the electronic court indeed, I would not be surprised to see something of this nature appear as a constructional project in the future.

On Load

I read recently that one of Britain's fast breeder reactors is now producing power, a whole 100 watts of it! This is just a start of course, the reactor output will be in megawatts when things really get going.

My own knowledge of nuclear power generation is minimal and I ought to refrain from comment, but the thought of this huge and highly complex and expensive plant somehow sweating away to generate 100 watts seems ludicrous—like the mountain labouring and giving forth a mouse.

Britain led the world in nuclear power generation but the suggestion made some weeks ago that the CEGB were thinking of buying American built reactors leads one to suppose that we may be falling behind. I hope that this is not the case.

This country has been accused of being very good at research but poor at production, and there is certainly some measure of truth in the accusation. I have many engineers and known physicists who had an aversion for production and "sordid commercialism" and wished only to spend their lives "playing" in the laboratory. Certainly, a research laboratory can provide a comfortable, sheltered environment where one can work happily doing one's own thing, but is this the best way of getting things done?

Perhaps the root of most of the problems lies in our educational system, is it too academic?

BY R.A. PENFOLD

MB 10

A direct conversion receiver that will receive s.s.b. and c.w. transmissions.

A LTHOUGH some years ago a.m. (amplitude modulation) was probably the main form of transmission used on the amateur bands, this is no longer the case, and a form of transmission known as s.s.b. (single sideband) has now almost entirely replaced a.m. The main advantage of s.s.b. is that it makes full use of the output power of the transmitter, as unlike an a.m. transmission, only part of the signal that contains the information to be sent is transmitted, and the rest is suppressed. This is especially important when one considers the low transmitter power limit enforced on the amateur bands.

Another advantage is that an s.s.b. signal occupies less than half the band space occupied by an equivalent a.m. signal, which helps to ease the problem of overcrowding on the bands.

Ordinary a.m. receivers are unsuitable for s.s.b. reception, and for the other main mode used, c.w. (continuous wave—morse code). The circuitry used in amateur receivers is therefore rather specialised. The most simple type of receiver suitable for amateur band reception is the direct conversion type. The receiver described here is of this type, and covers two amateur bands, 80 metres ($3 \cdot 5$ to $3 \cdot 8$ MHz), and 160 metres ($1 \cdot 8$ to 2MHz). The receiver is battery powered, and the output is for high impedance headphones.

DIRECT CONVERSION OPERATION

A direct conversion receiver is so called as it converts the received r.f. (radio frequency) signal direct to an a.f. (audio frequency) signal, using a mixing process; Fig. 1 shows a block

Fig. 1. Block diagram of a direct conversion

diagram of the stages of such a receiver. The mixer forms the heart of the receiver. The output of this is equal to the two sets of input frequencies, plus their sum and difference frequencies.

Supposing for instance that a 3.7MHz c.w. signal is to be resolved, by tuning the v.f.o. (variable frequency oscillator) to 3.701MHz, and the aerial tuned circuits to peak the signal, the output will be: 3.7MHz and 3.701MHz (the input frequencies), the sum of the two, 7.401MHz (3.7+3.701), and the difference between the two, 1kHz (3.701-3.700).

The r.f. filter will remove the r.f. part of the output signal, and only allow the audio frequencies to pass to the audio amplifier. In our example the 1kHz signal is the only audio signal.

The v.f.o. frequency can be either just above or just below the transmission frequency (3.700-3.699) also equals lkHz). In practice the oscillator would be tuned to whichever side gives the most interference free signal. The audio signal does not have to be at 1kHz, and the v.f.o. is adjusted to give the frequency that the operator finds most acceptable.

An s.s.b. transmission consists of a variety of radio frequencies, which when properly mixed with oscillations of the correct frequency, produce the original audio frequencies. The mixing process operates in the same way as for a c.w. signal, except that instead of one radio frequency producing one audio frequency, a complex radio signal produces the complex sound of the human voice.

Tuning an s.s.b. signal is more critical than tuning a c.w. one as, if the v.f.o. is slightly off tune, the audio signal will sound rather high, or rather low pitched. There are two types of s.s.b. signal, lower sideband, and upper sideband. With lower sideband the v.f.o. is tuned just above the signal frequencies, and with upper sideband it goes just below them.

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CIRCUIT

A circuit diagram of the receiver is shown in Fig. 2, TR1 is used in a simple v.f.o. This is tuned by VC3. With S1 open this tunes the 80 metre band, and with S1 closed the additional capacitance of VC1 and C1 allow the 160 metre band to be tuned.

Transistor TR2 is the mixer, and uses a special type of transistor, a dual-gate MOSFET. The aerial signal couples via the r.f. gain control, VR1, and the input tuned filter to one input of TR2. The input filter can be tuned to either -band by adjusting VC4. The v.f.o. couples to the other input of TR2, and it modulates the aerial signal, the mixed output appearing at the drain of TR2.

Capacitor C7, C9 and R6 form the r.f. filter, TR3 and TR4 form a high gain two stage audio amplifier, feeding a pair of high impedance headphones. Potentiometer VR2 is the volume control, and is ganged with the on/off switch S2. Low frequencies are attentuated by the low value of the coupling capacitors, C8 and C10, and the two feedback capacitors, C11 and C13 give high frequency attentuation. This gives a considerable reduction in noise, and reduces adjacent channel interference.

CHASSIS AND PANEL

A ready made $150 \times 100 \times 50$ mm aluminium chassis is used. The front panel is made from 18 s.w.g. aluminium, and measures 150×115 mm. This will probably have to be cut from a larger piece. The three coils are mounted in ordinary B9A valveholders. The 20mm diameter cut outs for these are most easily made using a 20mm chassis punch. The coil holders are each mounted by two 6BA bolts. A 6BA solder tag is mounted on one of the mounting bolts of the holder for L1, and another on one of those for L3 (see Fig. 5). Control VC4 is mounted by two short 4BA bolts which pass through the appropriate holes in the chassis from underneath, and screw into the two threaded holes on the underside of the capacitor.

Mounting holes for SK1 and SK2, must be made to suit the particular make of socket used. The positions of the mounting holes for the component panels are marked using the panels themselves as templates. The chassis and panel are held together by SK3, VR2, S1 and VR1.

COMPONENT PANELS

The bulk of the circuitry is contained on two component panels, one for the v.f.o., and the other for the mixer and audio stages. These are made using 0:1 inch matrix plain board. Construction of these is illustrated in Fig. 3 (oscillator), and Fig. 4 (mixer). The boards are cut to the sizes shown from the larger size in which the board is sold, using a small hacksaw.

The components are mounted in the positions shown, and their lead outs are bent over at 90 degrees on the reverse side of the panel. These are then soldered together, this wiring also being shown in the respective figures. In most cases the component leads are long enough to

Fig. 3. Layout and wiring of the variable frequency oscillator board.

facilitate this, but in a few cases it will be necessary to use short lengths of tinned copper wire as extension leads.

For anyone new to this method of construction, it is advisable to start with the v.f.o. panel, as this is simpler. Transistors TR3 and TR4 have special lead outs which "plug" into the board, TR2 is supplied with a wire clip which shorts all the leads to its case. This must not be removed until all the wiring has been completed, and checked, otherwise the device could be damaged.

Where leads emanate from the panel, thin insulated leads are soldered in place. The approximate length of these can be judged by reference to the unit itself, and the complete wiring diagram of the receiver, Fig. 5. These can be made slightly on the long side so that the free ends of these can be cut to length, and connected up when the panels have been mounted.

The completed panels are mounted by two 6BA bolts for each. Two extra nuts are placed over each bolt between the chassis and the board, in order to hold the underside wiring of the board slightly clear of the chassis.

The wiring diagram, Fig. 5, is largely self explanatory, and the main points to bear in mind are that all wiring should be as short as possible, and to make sure that VCl and VC2 are mounted so that they can be easily adjusted. The battery is mounted on a small aluminium bracket glued on one side of the chassis. This can be seen in the photographs.

SETTING UP

The receiver has no internal aerial of any kind, and a long wire aerial is required. A short indoor aerial will probably provide reception of a few stations, but for serious listening a proper aerial is essential. This consists of a long length of wire (16 s.w.g. or 7/22) insulated and set as high as possible. The ideal length is 40m (132ft), but 20m (66ft) should be quite adequate.

An earth connection may improve reception, this can be made with a buried metal plate or pipe connected to SK2, which connects to the receiver.

Fig. 4. Layout and wiring of the mixer and amplifier board.

AMATEUR BANDS RECEIVER

Above. Photograph of the underside layout and wiring.

Left. Photograph of the back of the completed receiver.

Fig. 5. Layout and wiring of the underside of the receiver.

Components
$\begin{array}{c c} \textbf{Resistors} \\ R1 & 390 \ \text{k}\Omega \\ R2 & 3\cdot3 \ \text{k}\Omega \\ R3 & 100 \ \text{k}\Omega \\ R4 & 1\cdot5 \ \text{k}\Omega \\ R5 & 220 \ \Omega \\ R6 & 560 \ \Omega \end{array} \xrightarrow{\textbf{R7}} \begin{array}{c} 4\cdot7 \ \text{k}\Omega \\ R10 & 4\cdot7 \ \text{k}\Omega \\ R11 & 3\cdot9 \ \text{k}\Omega \\ R11 & 3\cdot9 \ \text{k}\Omega \end{array} \xrightarrow{\textbf{SEE}} \begin{array}{c} \textbf{SEE} \\ \textbf{SHOP} \\ \textbf{SHOP} \\ \textbf{SEE} \\ $
Potentiometers VR1 5kΩ lin carbon VR2 5kΩ log. carbon with switch (S2)
CapacitorsC168pF ceramic or silver micaC210pF ceramic or silver micaC3120pF polystyreneC447pF silver micaC52pF silver micaC610 μ F elect. 10VC70·01 μ F Mullard C280C80·1 μ F Mullard C280C90·01 μ F Mullard C280C100·1 μ F Mullard C280C110·0015 μ F ceramic discC1210 μ F elect. 10VC131,000pF ceramicC1410 μ F elect. 10VC15100 μ F elect. 10V
Variable Capacitors VC1 30/140pF mica compression trimmer VC2 10/40pF ceramic trimmer VC3 25pF air spaced variable (Jackson C804) VC4 (a and b) 365pF +365pF dual gang air spaced variable (Jackson type O)
Semiconductors TR1 2N2369A silicon npn TR2 3N140 dual gate MOSFET TR3 BC148 silicon npn TR4 BC148 silicon npn
Miscellaneous SK1 Single wander socket with plug for aerial SK2 Single wander socket with plug for earth
SK3 3·5mm jack socket L1 Denco range 3 blue aerial coil (for transistor usage) L2 Denco range 3 blue aerial coil (for transistor usage)
 L3 Denco yellow r.t. coil (for transistor usage) S1 s.p.s.t. toggle switch S2 s.p.s.t. switch incorporated in VR2 B1 9V PP3 type battery and connector 150mm × 100mm × 50mm aluminium chassis, front panel, B9A valveholders (3 off for coil mounting), 4000Ω impedance headphones fitted with 3.5mm jack plug, 0.1 inch matrix plain perforated Veroboard, two small and two large control knobs, 4BA and 6BA fixings connection wire for aerial and

Before the set is ready for use, VC1 and VC2 must be adjusted to give the correct frequency coverage, and the cores of the coils have to be peaked. The cores of L2 and L3 are adjusted so that the metal threaded portions protrude about 10mm. The core of L1 is similarly adjusted for a protrusion of 13mm.

Having given the set a final check for mistakes, remove the clip on TR1 and turn on, switch S1 should be set to the 80 metre band. Assuming that no test gear is available, the only way to find the correct setting of VC2 is to try various settings until one is found which allows VC3 to tune the whole of the band. The 80 metre band is usually fairly crowded (especially at weekends), and this makes it quite easy to locate the limits of the band.

When VC2 has its final adjustment, VC1 can be adjusted for correct coverage of the 160 metre band. This is likely to be more difficult, since this band is shared with marine transmissions, and a lower transmitter power limit is enforced. This makes it less popular than other bands, and it is mainly used for local contacts. In some areas there may be very little activity on this band at all.

If there are two closely spaced settings of VC4 which will peak signals, the core of L1 is adjusted slightly (probably inwards) to give a single setting which produces a single peak.

OPERATING NOTES

The output is suitable for high impedance headphones (4000 ohms) which plug into SK3. Results will probably be best if the volume control (VR2) is kept at a fairly high setting, and the r.f. gain (VR1) is advanced no further than is necessary to provide an adequate signal. It is essential that the aerial trimmer (VC4) is always adjusted to peak the incoming signal, so as to give the proper sensitivity, and to reject unwanted signals. Remember that this control works independently of the wavechange switch (S1), and needs totally different settings for the two bands.

As stated earlier, the 160 metre band is used mainly for local contacts and most stations received will be no more than about 50 miles distant. Many British and European stations will be heard on the 80 metre band, with more distant stations coming in when conditions are favourable.

It is worth bearing in mind that most 80 metre stations use l.s.b. (lower side band), and it is therefore standard practice when scanning the band to start at the high frequency end (the vanes of VC3 unmeshed). This way, as one tunes towards a station, it will sound very high pitched, and it is only necessary to further adjust VC3 to give the required pitch.

By tuning from the other end of the band it would be necessary to tune through the station, and then readjust, which is less convenient.

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earth.

This month we have been taking another look at our approximate cost box and in view of the changeable state of the market, have felt it prudent to modify somewhat the wording. Obviously there must be some "give and take" in such matters, but we believe most readers appreciate the general guidance the cost box offers.

One item that is usually omitted from the approximate cost is the case for any particular project. This is mainly, because most suppliers offer various cases at various prices and quite often readers are able to construct their own cases either from wood or metal.

R.F. Signal Generator

Still continuing on the case theme, we promised to supply the name and address and cost for the Olsen case again and also a supplier for knobs for the E. E. Test Gear Five series.

The Olsen case type 25A with louvres is available in light green, dark green, blue and silver grey with front panels in light green, white or cream for £3.45, including postage packing and V.A.T. from Olsen Electronics Ltd, 5 Long Street, London, E.2.

Similar knobs to those shown, with a skirt and indicator line (type R62) are available from Re-An Products, Burnham Road, Dartford, Kent. Top cap colours available are red, blue, green, yellow and black—state which when ordering. The knobs cost 14p each plus 20p post and packing pus V.A.T. on the total.

The dial and pointer used on the R. F. Signal Generator are available from Home Radio Components. The Denco coils are available direct from Denco (Clacton) Ltd., 355/7/9 Old Road, Clacton-on-Sea, Essex CO15. The "red" types cost 44p each and 8p should be sent with each order to cover post packing. Add 10 per cent V.A.T to total.

A. F. Oscillator

The Wima capacitors for the *A.F.* Oscillator can no longer be obtained from Combined Electronic Services as mentioned in our March issue.

However Trannies are able to supply Mullard C281 types which they have selected for less than ± 5 per cent tolerance. The total cost for the six capacitors required including selection, V.A.T. and postage is £1.46—about the same as from the previous supplier.

Freezer Alarm

Most of the components for the *Freezer Temperature Alarm* should be readily available. The pre-set control should be a T.V. type—that is a panel mounting enclosed type, as opposed to a skeleton pre-set.

The reed relay used in the prototype is an R. S. Components device and should be available through most component suppliers who can order it from them. Readers are not able to buy direct—a situation about which we have heard a few rumours, and we hope to see a retail outlet in the future.

The reed relay can in fact be replaced by almost any type with a coil resistance of more than 200 ohms and the correct working voltage but, of course, this would be unlikely to fit on the board.

Amateur Bands Receiver

The Amateur Bands Receiver also uses Denco coils (see R.F. Signal Generator above) and these are also available direct from Denco. The Range 3 blue, two are required, and the yellow r.f. cost 44p each, once again include 8p for post and packing and add 10 per cent V.A.T to the total. The 3N140 MOSFET can be obtained from either Arrow Elec-The Marshall's. tronics or addresses and prices are: Arrow, Electronics Ltd., 7 Coptfold Road, Brentwood, Essex. CM14 4BN, 92p plus V.A.T., no charge for post and packing. A. Marshall and Son (London) Ltd., 42 Cricklewood Broadway, London, NW2 3HD, £1.00 including V.A.T., post and packing.

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CENTRE R.F. SIGNAL GENERATOR

THIS project is the last and most difficult of the E.E. Test Gear Five series. However, readers who have already built one or more of the other instruments will have gained sufficient experience to make a success of this project.

An r.f. signal source is essential for work with radio receivers. With the aid of a signal generator, circuits can be tested and aligned from the detector, back through the receiver to the aerial socket. It is very difficult to carry out any serious work or repairs to radio receivers using only signals picked up from broadcast transmissions.

The actual circuit itself is quite simple, but the necessity to switch ranges, to have a reasonable attenuator and the care needed in wiring means that the mechanical layout of the instrument is more critical than the previous projects. The instrument covers frequencies from 200kHz to 30MHz in five ranges.

For work with f.m. receivers, the fourth harmonic of range 5 may be used to provide signals in the f.m. band (80 to 120MHz).

The generator is amplitude modulated (a.m.), but useful signals can be picked up by f.m. receivers nevertheless.

THE R.F. OSCILLATOR

Previous instruments in this series have featured an integrated circuit as the main active component. This instrument employs a field effect transistor (f.e.t.).

A field effect transistor is very much like an *npn* transistor but with a very high base impedance. The source, gate, drain electrodes are similar in function to the emitter, base, collector or, for those who remember valves, cathode, grid and anode. The field effect transistor is so much like a valve that many valve circuits can be readily adapted to work with them.

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RE

min

GENERATOR

Fig. 1. The basic r.f. oscillator circuit.

The basic r.f. oscillator circuit is shown in Fig. 1. Coil L2 and variable capacitor C2 form a highly selective tuned circuit, signals being passed from this circuit via C3 to the gate input of the transistor. These signals are amplified at the drain output of the transistor and coupled via L1 back to the tuned circuit.

When the circuit is switched on, oscillations build up until limited by other components in the circuit; R1 and C1 provide decoupling which ensures that the end of L1 is connected to earth through C1. Components C3 and R2 form an automatic bias circuit which controls the amplitude of the oscillation, whilst R3 and C4 work in conjunction with R1, R2 and C3 to set the working current in the transistor.

Fig. 2. The complete circuit diagram of the R.F. Signal Generator.

This basic circuit is used in many signal generators and as the local oscillator of superhet receivers.

THE SIGNAL GENERATOR

The full R.F. Signal Generator circuit is given in Fig. 2. Although this circuit looks rather large, with many long wires connecting the components, it is only drawn this way for clarity. In fact, when the instrument is wired the very minimum of wire must be used.

The similarity between this and the basic circuit of Fig. 1 is quite evident. However, the differences are important. For example an input of 400Hz is fed to the r.f. generator from an audio oscillator. This is the modulation.

Signal generators can be used without modulation for some work, but in the majority of applications a modulated signal is necessary.

The A.F. Oscillator, the second project in the E.E. Test Gear Five series (March 1974) makes an ideal modulator. Set the a.f. oscillator to 400Hz with its output voltage set to 2 volts and this will modulate the r.f. carrier properly. The main function of resistor R1 should now be clear, it enables the voltage supply to TR1 to be moved up and down in response to the modulating input signal, thereby modulating the carrier. Capacitor C1 is chosen to couple an adequate signal at 400Hz, whilst C2 is chosen to provide sufficient r.f. decoupling without seriously affecting the modulation.

The main oscillator TR1 is identical to the basic circuit shown in Fig. 1 except that five switched ranges are used via S1a and S1b. To simplify the building of the instrument, readily available oscillator coils designed for superhet local oscillators have been chosen. The use of these means that some trimming is necessary on the two lowest ranges, ranges 1 and 2. Capacitors C4 and VCla (half of the twin gang tuning capacitor) trim L1b so that it extends down to 200kHz. Coil L2b is trimmed with a simple fixed capacitor C5. The ranges thus covered are:—

Range 1	198kHz to 638kHz
Range 2	600kHz to 2.01MHz
Range 3	1.6MHz to 5.44MHz
Range 4	5MHz to 13.5MHz
Range 5	10.9MHz to 31.2MHz
4th harmonic	80.4MHz to 122MHz
(Range 5)	

These ranges are adjusted by the dust core adjuster in the coils, but due to the complete absence of padders (very low value trimmer) and trimmers different layouts and wiring will affect the ranges actually obtained, therefore great care must be exercised in the construction and wiring to ensure that it is as close as possible to the original shown here.

Finally, the output is fed via C9 to a simple attenuator. This attenuator uses an 11-way ceramic switch. The ranges adjacent to the wiper are unused and connected to earth in order to reduce capacitive coupling between the strong input signal and the attenuated output. Some coupling is unavoidable in such a simple arrangement so calibration of this attenuator is not possible, especially at the higher frequencies. It does however give a useful range of attenuation from a maximum output of about 500 millivolts.

CONSTRUCTION DETAILS

As with the previous four instruments, the R.F. Oscillator is housed in a type 25A Olsen case with louvres. However, unlike the others no circuit board is used for the components, everything being mounted on the front panel and other major components.

First it is necessary to make up a simple aluminium bracket as shown in Fig. 3, before bending this bracket, it must be drilled as shown. Secondly, the front and back panels must be drilled as shown in Fig. 4. Finally, a diecast "Eddystone" box must be cut and drilled to house the attenuator switch, Fig. 5.

Fig. 3. The aluminium bracket for holding the coils.

ALL DIMENSIONS IN mm

Next, mount the variable capacitor and range switch S1 onto the front panel and the coils onto the aluminium bracket bent into shape. When these components are mounted, the switch, coils and tuning capacitor must be very close to each other, as shown in the photograph and Fig. 6. It is essential that the coils of ranges 4 and 5 are as close as possible to the range switch.

Fig. 4. Front and rear panel drilling details.

The coils, range switch and wiring to components VC1, C7, C5, C8, TR1, R2 and R3 should now be wired using the shortest possible wiring according to Fig.6. In particular, the earth wire from pin 5 on coil 5 should go direct to the earth terminal of the tuning capacitor.

The oscillator works best if the wires take the shortest and most direct route, no attempt should be made to loom wires together. Transistor TRI is fitted into a socket which is suspended in the wiring above the switch in order to shorten path lengths as much as possible.

Components C1, C2, R1, R10 and D1 are mounted on the four terminals fitted to the back panel of the instrument. The power supply terminals are colour coded red and black whilst the modulation input uses two green terminals.

Two wires join the group of components mounted on the back panel to those mounted on the front panel, these are the earth connection and the wire leading to pins 9 on the coils.

The attenuator is wired separately, compo-

Fig. 5. Drilling and cutting details for the Eddystone diecast box for housing the attenuator.

nents R4 to R9, C9 and C10 all being fitted to the attenuator switch. A short wire is led out of the box from C9 to connect the attenuator to the tuning capacitor. The coaxial socket is bolted to the diecast box using countersunk screws so that when the retaining nut is removed from the attenuator switch the whole assembly can be offered up flush to the front panel and held in position by refitting the retaining nut to the switch. Having done this the wire from C9 can be connected using the shortest possible length of wire.

The instrument wiring is now complete, but two or three checks of this wiring is recommended. Transistor TR1 is very delicate and can

Photograph of the completed prototype front panel showing mounting of coils to bracket, and bracket to front panel.

Fig. 6. (below) The layout and wiring up details of the components mounted on the front panel. The coil mounting brackethas been drawn opened up, for clarity, thus showing the bases of the coil formers head on; (above) The layout and wiring of the components on the rear panel.

easily be damaged by an error in the wiring. Finally, the front panel is marked up using letraset and the 0-100 dial and pointer are fitted.

The dial is held in place by cutting a hole in the bottom and trapping it under the retaining screw of the range switch. The pointer is a standard Perspex one cut down in size to suit the dial.

TESTING

If the wiring is correct and TR1 is in good condition the oscillator will work. It is tested with the aid of a radio receiver.

Place a receiver tuned to the long or medium waveband alongside the R.F. Signal Generator. Connect the generator to a power supply set to 18 volts and switch on. The receiver should pick up signals when the dial is rotated on ranges 1 and 2, long and medium wave. These signals will be received as quiet spots on the receiver dial.

Next connect the audio generator to the modulation terminals having first set the controls to 400Hz and 2 volts output. Modulated signals will now be received by the radio receiver.

CALIBRATION

Calibration is simple for those with access to frequency measuring equipment and difficult for those without it. First, for those with frequency measuring facilitics. Start by removing the modulation, set the dial pointer to 100 and the range switch to range 1. Adjust the dust core on coil 1 to give a frequency of 198kHz. In a similar way, set range 2 to 600kHz, range 3 to 1.6MHz and range 4 to 5.0MHz. Rotate the dial pointer to read 5 divisions and adjust range 5 to 31MHz. Having set the calibration points for each range make up a calibration chart as show in Table 1.

For those without frequency measuring facilities proceed as follows. First, set all dust cores about half way out on their adjusting screw. The unit must be calibrated against known radio station frequencies by setting the dust core into its correct position.

For example, range 1 can be calibrated against the BBC long wave transmission on 200kHz (1500 metres) as follows: tune a radio receiver to 200kHz then set the dial pointer on the generator to 98; a beat note should be heard in the receiver. The core adjuster on range 1 is now adjusted to give zero beat, (as near as possible), in the receiver. Range one is now as close as possible to the calibration chart. Each range should now be set against a known transmission standard so that every range is as close as possible to the calibration chart.

If a suitable receiver is not available or you don't know the frequency of a station, leave the dust core set half way until an opportunity to calibrate presents itself. Ranges 1 to 4 should be calibrated between pointer position 80 and 100 and Range 5 as near to 5 as possible.

Table 1: Calibration chart for the prototype R. F. Signal Generator

Dial position	Ra 1	nge a 2	nd fre 3	queno 4	:y (Mi 5	lz) FM
0	-640	1.00	5-53	13.5	31.1	
5	-632	1.95	5.43	13.4	31.0	
7.5	.609	1.86	5.21	13.1	30.5	122 .
10-	· 574	1.73	4.88	12.6	29.9	119-6
12.5	-539	1.64	4.54	12.1	28.6	114.4
15	·507	1.56	4.26-	11.6	27.5	110
17.5	·475	1.45	3.95	11-1	26.1	104.4
20	·447	1.35	3.70	10.4	24.8	99.2
22.5	· 423	1.28	3.49	9-95	23.6	94.4
25	·402	1.22	3.31	9.54	22.5	90
27.5	·383	1.16	3.14	9.16	21.4	85.6
30	-366	1.11	3-00	8.82	20.5	82
35	·338	1.02	2.76	8.22	19.0	76
40	-316	- 958	2.57	7.74	17.7	
45	297	·898	2.42	7.33	16.7	
50	-281	- 850	2.29	6.97	15.8	
55	-267	·810	2.17	6.65	15-1	
60	·256	·776	2.08	6.40	14.4	
65	-245	·744	1.99	6.15	13.9	
70	·236	·717	1.92	5.94	13.3	
75	·228	·693	1.85	5.74	12.9	
80	·221	·670	1.79	5.57	12.5	
85	·214	·649	1.74	5.40	12-1	
90	·209	· 6 31	1.69	5.26	11.7	
95	·203	·614	1.64	5.12	11.4	
100	-198	-600	1.6	5-0	11.2	

USING THE INSTRUMENT

A signal generator is normally used with the modulation connected. For example, suppose it is necessary to adjust the i.f. transformers of a radio receiver 465kHz. A wire must be fed from the generator to a suitable input to the i.f. channel, the tuning capacitor is often suitable. The generator is switched on and set to 465kHz.

Inspection of the calibration chart shows that range scale position 17 5 gives 480kHz and position 20 gives 453kHz, therefore, 465kHz must be between these two readings. In fact 465kHz is 12kHz above the frequency at position 20 and 15kHz below that at 17 5. Therefore, 465kHz is estimated to be about half way between these two readings at 18.75.

As this is only an estimate the dial may be set to 18 or 19 and still be sufficiently accurate for the realignment of receiver i.f.'s.

The generator is accurate enough for the full alignment of any receiver providing the final calibration is carried out using a broadcast transmission of known frequency.

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One of these high quality multimeters can be yours-free! Thirteen meters are being presented as prizes in this exciting competition, open only to Everyday Electronics readers.

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Second and third prize, a Chinaglia Minor multimeter with a sensitivity of $20k\Omega/V$ on d.c. and $4k\Omega/V$ on a.c. ranges. This instrument is a versatile pocket-sized instrument, having 25 ranges all with high accuracy. It sells for over £13.

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HOW TO ENTER

Place the eight multimeter features, given below, in what you consider to be their order of importance to the average reader working on typical Everyday Electronics constructional projects.

For example, if you consider that "A.C. current ranges" is the most important of them all, write "C" in the box marked 1st on your entry coupon; the key letter of your choice goes into the second box and so on for all eight.

IMPORTANT

Another free entry coupon will appear in the July issue of Everyday Electronics.

The closing date is Monday 22nd July 1974, to allow plenty of time for you to obtain the second entry coupon from our next issue and post two different attempts in one envelope if you wish.

- A Anti-parallax mirrored scale,
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Power requirements - 20 to 35 volts Outputs-100mV + AB monitoring for tape Controls - Press button for tape, radio and P.U.Sliders for Volume. Bass and Treble.

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1 •

13 THE TRANSITION FREQUENCY

The gain of a transistor is not independent of frequency.

As frequency is increased, h_{fe} remains fairly constant until a certain upper limit is reached. Beyond this frequency, the hte falls, and

eventually reaches unity. The transition frequency f_{T} is this limit, where

 f_T = frequency at which h_{te} has fallen to unity.

As an example, the BC107, BC108 and BC109 all have an fr of 300MHz, providing Ic is held at around 10mA.

A transistor is naturally a useless animal at its transition frequency, but f_T is a useful figure for the following reason:

By A.P. STEPHENSON

As frequency is successively halved, the gain is doubled (which is a convenient method of predicting the gain at high frequencies).

Thus, the BC108 will have an he of 1 at 300, 2 at 150, 4 at 75, and 8 at 37.5MHz.

This simple relation only holds for about four or five "halvings." Eventually, the figure for h_{fe} reaches its normal mid-frequency value, which in most cases will be at about 110th fr.

The BC108 published figures of $h_{te} = 125$ (minimum) which means this figure is valid up to about 30MHz.

14 CHOICE OF COLLECTOR CURRENT

Some humans are said to be highly strung or touchy and sensitive.

All transistors are touchy and sensitive!

Changes in d.c. operating bias, temperature and signal frequency all tend to change the so called contants such as h_{fe} and noise figure.

Detailed data sheets always include numbers of graphs, showing how the constants change $I_{\rm C}$, $I_{\rm B}$ temperature etc. In the absence of these, the following broad rules can be accepted:

(1)

her

rises as d.c. collector current rises. Therefore it is wise to design with fairly high Ic values, (at least 1mA or more). BC108, BC109,

BC107 will still operate reasonably he with Ic as low as 10µA but with much reduced hrE and him

15 PRODUCTION SPREADS

The range of variation expected between the manufacturers published data and the actual values found in a given transistor specimen are often substantial.

Semiconductor manufacture has improved enormously in the last five years but there are still very wide "production spreads" in any given transistor.

 h_{fe} is the worst offender of all. Taking the BC109 as a typical example, the user must expect to find any value between 240-900, representing a variation of almost 400 per cent!

Almost every other data item suffers wide variations. Superficially, it would appear that predictable design is impossible, but such is not the case for the following reasons:

(a) Manufacturers quote three figures for most data, called Typical, Minimum and Maximum. Thus the minimum h_{fe} for BC109 is guaranteed to be 240.

(2)Transistor input resistance (r,u or h,...) r_{in} falls as I_c is increased. Thus for high r_{iu} a low I_C should be used

(3) Highest operating frequency This rises as I_c is increased, be-

cause h_{te} rises. For very high operating frequencies, 10mA or more is customary.

(4) Noise

Transistors generate some noise. This noise is reduced if Ic is kept very low. Thus for low noise input stages, operate with very low Ic value (10 or 20 µA).

The procedure adopted for design is based on the philosophy of "worst-case conditions" which is nothing more than adopting a pessimistic attitude-expecting all BC109 specimens to be the worst ones in the range. An attitude like this can lead occasionally to elation but never disappointment.

(b) Use of negative feedback in practically every circuit. Negative feedback always tends to reduce the effects of production spreads because the gain of such a stage is almost independent of the transistor! To illustrate this point, an equation for the voltage gain of an amplifying stage is

Without negative feedback, the gain would vary widely with different specimens of transistor.

Everyday Electronics, June 1974

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"i've come across the term 'amplined didde voltage stabilizer.' What is this, and what is it used for?"

To begin with, look at a diode stabiliser without any amplification (Fig. 1). This makes use of the fact that, once a junction diode conducts, increasing the current through it doesn't increase the voltage very much. A silicon diode begins to conduct at about 0.5V. At its maximum safe current the voltage drop across it is about 1V.

Fig. 1. Simple diode stabiliser circuit.

Both voltages vary from diode to diode, but an average voltage drop at a moderate current is always near 0.7V. (For germanium the voltage is about 0.3V, but remember that this applies only to junction diodes, not pointcontact diodes).

In Fig. 1, V_I is the unstabilised input voltage. R1 absorbs the unwanted part, leaving V_0 , the stabilised output, at around 0.7V. If V_I is about 2.7V, and an output of 0.7V, 1A is required, then R1 must drop 2V at 1A; i.e., R1 must be 2 ohms. Readers familiar with Zener diode stabilisers will see that the design procedure for this circuit is the same.

Who wants a 0.7V stabilised supply? The usual requirement is for higher voltages. You can increase the voltage by connecting a number of diodes in series: two give 1.4V, three 2.1V and so on. If more than a few volts is needed, it's cheaper to use a Zener, which gives better stabilisation anyway.

AMPLIFICATION

This is where the amplified diode circuit comes in. It will give any voltage you like, using only one diode. The circuit (Fig. 2) seems wrongly named. No diode!

But the base-emitter junction of TR1 is a diode. It begins to pass current (if TR1 is a silicon transsistor) at about 0.5V, turning on the transistor in the process, of course. The resulting collector current, flowing through RI, pulls down the output voltage V_0 , just as in the simple diode stabiliser.

The difference is that the base voltage V_B is only a part of the output voltage, because R2 and R3 form a voltage divider. If V_B is one-tenth of V_0 , then TR1 will not begin to conduct until V_0 reaches about 5V. To make TR1 conduct strongly calls for a V_0 of perhaps 7V, so the circuit is a 7V stabiliser.

Fig. 2. Stabiliser using amplified diode principle.

By varying the ratio of R2 to R3 the stabilised output can be adjusted to any voltage within the capacity of the transistor. However, if the stabilised voltage is very large the stabilisation is poor, and the circuit is best suited to lowish output voltages.

Amplified diodes are often used in integrated circuits, in the form shown in Fig. 3. Here R2 and R3 are absent because the whole of the output voltage is fed back to the base. A silicon transistor still works as a transistor under these conditions and behaves like a simple diode with sharper turnon. It is often referred to as a "diode" or a "shorted transistor". In Fig. 4, an amplified diode

In Fig. 4, an amplified diode (TR1) is used for setting up the base bias of a complementary

Fig. 3. Amplified diode found in integrated circuits.

output pair in a class B amplifier. The adjustability of the arrangement makes it very useful here, and the low voltage needed is just what the circuit can provide.

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Replaces the majority of Germanium power tran- sistors in the OC, AD and NKT range.	17 53 Hz. 1 25 100-4 0-55 0-50 0-44	Q31 5 Silicou switch tra NPN Q32 3 PNP Silicon translat	0-54 naistora 2N708 0-54	5 U25 25 300 5 U26 30 Fas	MHz NPN SE t Switching Si N Germanium	licon Transistors 2N7 licon Diodes like INS AF Transistors TO-	04, BSY27 14 Micro-Min.	0-55
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			(se	e note bel	ow)
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č	1/2	4-7-10M	1.3	1-1	0-9 nett
č	3/4	4-7-10M	1.5	1.2	0-92 nett
č	1	4-7-10M	3.2	2-5	1-92 nett
MO	\$/2	10-1M	.4	3-3	2-3 nett
ww	1	0.22-3.9	9		1
ww	3	1-10K	7	7	6
WW	ž	1-10K	9	9	8

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1.0		-		-		tip	_	80
2.2	-	-		_	Hp		8p	90
4.7	-	-	-	lip	-	8p	9p	8p
10		-	-	-	8p	9p	8p	8p
22	-	-	8p		80	8p	8p	100
47	8p	-	9p	8p	9p	8p	10p	13p
100	9p	8p	80	8p	90	10p	120	19p
220	8p	8p	9p	10p	100	IID	17p	280
470	90	100	100	llp	13p	170	240	45p
1,000	lip	13p	130	17p	20p	25p	41p	-
2,200	15p	18p	230	26p	37p	41p	-	-
4,700	260	30p	· 39p	44p	58p	-	-	-
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SPECIAL OFFERS EMI 13" x 8"-full range speakers (post20p-eachor 30 pair) Construction and a speakers (2-20 c-hor (4-00 pair) Construction (4-00 pair) (2-20 c-hor (4-00 pair) (2-20 c-hor (4-00 pair) (3-20 c-hor (4-00 pair) (3-20 c-hor (4-00 pair) (5-25 c-hor (4-00 pair) (5-25 c-hor (4-00 pair) (5-25 c-hor (4-00 pair) (3-20 c-hor (4-00 pair) (3-20 c-hor (3-00 pair)) (3-2

£4-75 £6-30

HENRY'S CATALOGUE

8 ohms full range (post 20p) FR4 4 FR65 61 5 watt

EDQ	8*	15 watt	£8.50
5007	0-6"	15 wate	£8·40
PRAS	BANCE 9	(nore 200)	
BASS & MID	KANGE-0	Shins (post rop)	42175
AAI2	5	15 Watt	67.20
B110	55	15 watt	27.20
B200	8"	15 watt	18.20
B139/2	13" × 8"	30 watt LF	£13-75
TWEETERS	AND CROSS	OVERS (post 20p)	
	10 watt	B or 15 ohms	12.10
ELUT.	1 C wate	Bahme	£3-35
PHID	15 Wall	0 ohma	\$4-80
K2011	30 Wate	o onuns	4E.E0
127	KEF		10.00
Axtent 100	30 watt	8 ohms	50°24
K4009	1kHz/5kHz C	10	62.70
5N75	3kHz var. Ch	0	£3-10
SPEAKER KI	TS frarr etc.	350)	
20.2	8"	30 wart	24 50 pair
20-2	Q.*	40 watt	£35-95 pair
20-3	0	76 watt	£18-30 pair
UNION 2		20 Well	£32.95 mair
GLENDALE 3		30 Watt	AFL SO main
DOVEDALE 3		SU Watt	EST DO DAIP
KEF KK2			1140 00 CET
KEF KK3			£78.00 pair

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