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## everyday THEORY....

## NATURAL RESOURCES

The energy crisis has tempered the fulsome spending traditionally indulged in at this time of year. By strange irony, during the Christmas run-up period we have been compelled to think in terms of economising with our use of natural resources.

In view of this rather alarming picture of shortages, real or impending, it is salutary to look at electronics. Considering the great contribution this technology makes in all areas of human affairs, the demands upon natural resources directly arising from the electronics industry are meagre in the extreme. Maybe it is significant in some sort of way that the heart of the normal electronics circuit is made of sili-con-the most abundant element in the earth.

## COMPONENT SHORTAGE

Yet, currently, shortages are being experienced in the field of electronic components, as elsewhere. But such shortages seem to arise mainly because of the overtaxing of production facilities rather than from any real shortage of basic raw materials.

Electronics is a science based industry, and highly advanced and elegant processes are necessary to transform base materials into components such as transistors and integrated circuits. The available skills and technical resources are often stretched to the limit by the increasing demands imposed by the world wide expansion in electronics in general. So inevitably
-shortages in particular lines occur from time to time. And this brings us to a particular case directly affecting Everyday Electronics readers which has recently come to light.

## DISINTEGRATION

The Four-Band T.R.F. Receiver described in the November issue uses an integrated circuit as audio amplifier. This i.c. is a highly efficient device, and is capable of being used in many different applications. Not surprisingly therefore, it has become exceedingly popular and the demand at present exceeds supply. No doubt within a short time (perhaps even before these words appear in print) an adequate supply will once again be in circulation.

But if not, all is not lost. The Four-Band Re= ceiver can be completed by substituting a "handmade" amplifier for the i.c. originally specified Full details are given this month.

From i.c.'s to discretes-does this seem a move against the tide? We don't think so. Actually it is a matter of belt and braces. In this day of increasing integration it is a wise constructor who knows his discretes! In cases such as the one mentioned the constructor can be independent, roll his own, and forget that waiting queue.

Here's wishing all our readers a happy and shortage-free New Year.


Our February issue will be published on Friday, January 18

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## EASY TO CONSTRUCT SIMPLY EXPLAINED

## CONSTRUCTIONAL PROJECTS

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[^4]

For more details see page 49

## veo EFFECTS UNT <br>  <br> BY C.EVANS

Add weird effects to drum solos or use this unit as an instrument or warning device on its own.

THIS unit has been designed to fulfill a number of requirements, the major one being a musical effects unit for use with most instruments. The unit is basically an audio preamplifier, a voltage controlled oscillator and a mixing network (Fig. 1).

If a guitar, organ, microphone or an oscillator is plugged into the a.c. input the output frequency will vary with the loudness of the input signal; at the same time the input signal can be mixed with the output. Using a microphone to pick up the sound of a drum kit the mixed output of drums and oscillator adds a new dimension to the basic sound. The unit can be easily turned on and off with a foot switch which allows the input to pass to the amplifier but disconnects the oscillator

## OSCILLATOR CIRCUIT

The circuit is basically a wide range audio oscillator. The oscillator overcomes two main problems found with other circuits:

1. It has a wide frequency range.
2. Power supply requirements are very simple.

The range of the oscillator covers approximately 10 Hz to 10 kH ., the output is a square wave.

The unit has two inputs, the d.c. input is used with potentiometers, l.d.r.s. etc. to control the oscillator and the a.c. input, which is used to control the oscillator from audio signals see Fig. 1

## CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

The oscillator part of the circuit comprises TR5 and TR6 operating as a relaxation oscillator (Fig. 2). Usually, in a relaxation oscillator circuit C6 would be grounded to the negative supply line. In this circuit C 6 is taken to the emitter of TR6 thereby increasing the frequency range. The overall frequency range is controlled by VR3, which also controls the mark to space ratio of the oscillator. The range may vary considerably with different makes of capacitors for C 6 so to ensure the widest frequency range, various types of capacitors can be tried for C6.

Transistor 'TR4 acts as a voltage controlled
Fig. 1. Block diagram of the V.C.O. Effects Unit.




Fig. 2. Complete circuit diagram of the V.C.O. Effects Unit.
resistance between the supply and the emitter of TR5. Trimmer VR2, the bias resistor for TR4, is necessary because of differences in transistor gain, it is set for the lowest frequency required. The control voltage is fed to the base of TR4 via R8. The d.c. input jack SK3 and manual frequency control VR3 are also connected to R8. The output is taken from TR6 emitter via VR4, R7, C3 to the output jack SK2.

## A.C. PREAMPLIFIER

Audio signals are fed through Cl to the base of emitter-follower TR1. The signal is then amplified by TR2 and TR3, some distortion occurs in these stages but since the signal is only used to control the oscillator this is not important. The output is taken from TR3 collector and rectified by D1. It is then fed to

## Components ... .

Resistors

| R1 | $4 \cdot 7 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ | R6 | $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| R1 |  |  |  |
| R2 | $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R7 | $62 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R3 | $120 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | SEE |  |
| R4 | $330 \Omega$ | R9 | $20 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R5 | $12 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R10 | $27 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R |  |  |  |
| All $\pm 10 \% \frac{1}{4} \mathrm{~W}$ carbon | R11 | $12 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |  |

All $\pm 10 \% \frac{1}{4}$ W carbon R11 $12 \mathrm{k} \Omega$
Potentiometer
VR1 $5 \mathrm{k} \Omega \log$. with ganged switch
VR2 $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ skeleton preset
VR3 $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ lin. carbon (or $2 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ see text)
VR4 $50 \mathrm{k} \Omega \mathrm{lin}$, carbon
VR5 10 k @ skeleton preset

## Capacitors

C1 $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$
C2 $\quad 0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$

| C 3 | $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. 12 V |
| :--- | :--- |
| C 4 | $8 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. 12 V |
| C 5 | $2 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. 12 V |
| C 6 | $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ |

## Semiconductors

D1 OA202 or similar silicon diode
TR1 BC109 silicon npn
TR2 BC108 silicon npn
TR3 BC109 silicon npn
TR4 OC203 silicon pnp
TR5 2 N 4058 silicon pnp
TR6 BC107 silicon npn

## Miscellaneous

## B1 9V PP6 battery and clips

SK1, 2, 3 jack sockets (3 off)
S2 s.p.s.t. foot switch
Vernier dial for VR3 (if required), knobs, Veroboard 0.15 inch matrix 25 holes $\times 17$ strips, 4BA fixings, case (see text) connecting wire and screened lead


Fig. 3. Layout and wiring of the components mounted on the Veroboard.


Fig. 4. Complete wiring of the V.C.O. Effects Unit.

TR4 base via R8, C5 filters out any a.c. reaching the base of TR4. The input signal and oscillator signal are mixed via VR1, R5, VR4, R7 and C3 and fed to the output jack SK2. The foot switch S2 switches off all of the circuit except TR1 and associated components. The battery on-off switch S1 is linked to VR1. Due to the gain of the preamplifier, a jack socket that grounds the input to the negative line when a.c. control is not in use, must be used. If the input is left open circuit it will pick up hum etc. and this will trigger the oscillator. The d.c. input jack socket must not be connected in this way.

## CONSTRUCTION

Component layout is not critical, the prototype was assembled on Veroboard (Fig. 3) although any type of assembly could be used. If a Vernier dial is used for the manual frequency control VR3 should be a 2 megohm linear potentiometer. This is because the Vernier dial will only turn the potentiometer through 180 degrees and if a 1 megohm potentiometer is used it will not travel the full length of its track.

Once the Veroboard is complete it can be mounted in a case measuring approximately 200 by 150 by 60 mm and wired to the remaining components as shown in Fig. 4.

## SETTING UP

When the circuit is assembled plug the output into an amplifier. Set VR3 fully clockwise and VR5 midway along its track, switch on, the circuit should now be oscillating. Turn the slider of VR5 until the highest possible frequency is reached, VR3 should now sweep the oscillator over its entire range. If VR5 is turned too far oscillation will cease and the whole operation must be repeated. Trimmer VR2 should be set to provide the lowest required oscillation. If an audio source is connected to the a.c. input the oscillator frequency will follow the volume of



If a Vernier dial is fitted the frequency can be finely adjusted and tuned to other instruments.

## D. C. INPUT

The d.c. input can be used with a row of switches and potentiometers. It can then be played in a similar manner to an organ, bearing in mind that the oscillator is purely a melodic (one note at a time) instrument (Fig. 5).

An ORP12 1.d.r. (light dependent resistor) can be plugged into the d.c. input, by moving ones hands between the ORP12 and a light source the oscillator frequency can be controlled. By wavering ones hand the oscillator will have a vibrato tone. When used in this way the sound and method of control is similar to a theremin (Fig. 6).


Fig. 5. Set-up for a simple organ.


The simplest method of control is to plug a lead in to the d.c. input and hold the ends of the lead with both hands. The frequency of oscillation is then determined by the body resistance and thus by how tightly the leads are held. The circuit can also be used as a bath/rain alarm. When the ends of the lead are placed in water the circuit will oscillate (Fig. 7).

The d.c. input can also be used as a sustain input. By plugging an electrolytic capacitor into the input and switching on the oscillator the capacitor will charge up and when the trigger is removed the capacitor will sustain the note for a time before it discharges. The value of capacitor can be anything from $2 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ to $250 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ depending on the sustain time required.

## A.C. INPUT

The a.c. input is used to control the oscillator by audio signals such as electric guitar or microphone or another oscillator. The footswitch is used to switch on the oscillator signal.

If a switch is used in series with capacitor C3 and the capacitor is switched out of the circuit the a.c. signal will no longer be filtered and strange modulating effects will take place in the oscillator circuit.

## CIRCUIT MODIFICATION

With an instrument plugged into the a.c. input a "fuzz" output can be taken from the collector of TR3 via an attenuating network (Fig. 8). The sound is not as harsh as a "Schmitt type fuzz" and gives good sustain on guitar notes.

When using an a.c. input a capacitor of between $2 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ and $250 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ can be plugged into the d.c. input to produce a siren effect, controlled by the loudness of the a.c. input. This is due to the capacitor taking time to charge and discharge.

## CONCLUSION

The prototype oscillator has been in constant use for three months and there has been little drift in the oscillator frequency. When the oscillator is switched on by the footswitch there is a short delay before oscillation begins.

## Ruminations By Sensor

## An Outside Broadcast

As I write, the wedding of Princess Anne and Mark Philips is being televised and transmitted to a potential 500 million viewers. By cable, microwave link and satellite, the pictures will be passed to Europe, Scandinavia, India, Australasia, America and Japan.

The picture quality, as judged on my old black and white set, is near perfection and demonstrates the high performance that the system can achieve when all resources are made available. The whole exercise must have been well planned and reflects great credit on all concerned, I am, of course talking about the television broadcast of the event and have no intention of entering into any
controversy concerning the event itself.
The sheer scale of the operation is staggering, thirty cameras in the Abbey alone, each with its crew and associated equipment plus all those on the route between the Palace and the Abbey (plus one or two at Great Somer-ford)-and no apparent breakdowns! It says much for the reliability of the components.

There were also, I hear, a large number of colour television sets distributed around the Abbey so that guests could watch the ceremony along with the millions of viewers in their own homes throughout Britain and a great part of the world:
How many cathodes were emitting, how many collectors were collecting a replica of the original signal I just could not begin to estimate - perhaps around 8,000 million? Probably more I don't know. How many soldered joints were involved? I leave these conjectures to those who have a mind for such things!

## Watts Up

The threat of power cuts is with us again and we face the prospect of a gloomy and chilly winter. Those fortunate enough to have an open fire and something to burn on it and an old fashioned hot water bottle can avoid the worst of it but my sympathy goes out to those who are solely dependant on electricity for cooking and heating. I always think at these times of the major difference between electronics and power engineers.

The electronics engineers, concerned with microvolts, milliwatts and milliamps and the power engineer with his megavars (mega volt-amps) and kilovolts. When the electronics man thinks big, his currents may be around five amperes, while the power engineer would consider that to be a leakage current! However, your electricity meter will faithfully measure very much less than five amps so don't think that you will get anything for nothing.


## Projects Past and Future

Many thanks for a brilliant magazine. I have bought every copy so far. I have made several of your projects and found them very useful. I am very grateful for designs such as the Signal Injector and Audible Warning Alarm, as they fit my budget perfectly.

I wish to construct the Bit Saver in the December 1972 issue, but as yet I cannot find any advertisement for the 100 mA diodes (would 300 mA ones do)?
Secondly, have you any future plans for publishing a circuit for an amplifier of about 5 watts? I have already a three watt amplifier but now require an amp with a few watts more power.

Keep up the very good work.
P. A. Hawkins,

Innsworth, Gloucester.
Any 400 V or higher diodes with a rating of at least 100 mA will be suitable. Both the 400 V and 100 mA are minimum ratings, e.g. a $500 \mathrm{~V}, 1 \mathrm{~A}$ diode would be suitable.

We will probably be publishing more amplifier designs in future issues and we are sure one of them will meet your needs.

## Aquarium Thermostat

We are going round in circles. We started with a good idea, then introduced an expensive meter. This leads you to say that we might as well have a thermometer in the tank, to which I reply: why not a bi-metallic strip?
The facts are simple, and I have made some tests. The nor: mal heater current was 300 mA at 240 V . A pilot lamp $(6.5 \mathrm{~V}$, 300 mA ) connected in series with the heater will carry a constant current of 300 mA . If the heater is on, 6.5 V appears across the lamp-but this link in the chain might also break.

If we run the lamp at half power by shunting it with a re-
sistor, both the neon and the lamp should be on. If only the neon is on, the system has failed. To do this, use a shunt of 22 ohms at 2.5 watts minimum (because the lamp's running resistance is $6.5 \div 0.3=$ $21 \cdot 66$ ohms).

Simon St. J. Beer, West Byfleet, Surrey.
The original article was designed to do away with the inaccuracy and unreliability of the bi-metallic strip-it does this and performs the same function. The thermometer is necessary to set the temperature in the first place and will be necessary should the temperature be altered at a later date, so why not use it to check that the temperature is constant i.e. the heater has not failed. As far as we can see your monitoring system is quite good but if heaters other than 75 W ones are used the lamp and resistor will need to be recalculated. Most aquarists have thermometers in their tanks but many require a more accurate and reliable thermostat, we hope we have provided this.

## Gas

I cannot praise you too highly for publishing the circuit of the Gas Alarm in the November issue of Everyday Electronics.
I have a 44,000 B.Th.U. output gas fired warm air furnace in my home which I never previously left switched on whilst my family was asleep for fear of carbon monoxide poisoning, despite generous provision for combustion air supply. Now we can all sleep soundly at night with a raucous alarm and automatic shut down control over the furnace.
As Mr. M. H. Keene says in his article, the uses of the Gas Alarm are ouly limited by imagination, and I am making a second one as a sophisticated "toy" to discover uses not sug-
gested in his article. The Gas Alarm is yet one more example of how forward looking is your magnificent magazine. Could I suggest another field in which I have never seen articles in any popular magazine and that is the subject of underwater sound.
You may be aware that many animals make underwater calls and those made by marine animals have been extensively studied due to their significance as background noise in submarine warfare. However, the study of the sounds made by freshwater fishes and insect larvae has been neglected and the amateur could make very valuable contributions to scientific knowledge in the sphere.
Many aquarium fishes make calls and there must be thousands of aquarists who would welcome a device that enabled them to listen in on their fish.
I know that a battery operated transistorised device is marketed in the U.S.A. and I have made such a device incorporating a modified crystal microphone insert with a preamplifier hooked up to a one-watt amplifier. This works well, and I have learnt a lot about acoustic impedance but I would like to see what one of your expert contributors could come up with. Is there any chance of such an article being published in a future copy of E.E.?

Peter Revell
Hemel Hempstead
Herts.
We will keep the subject in mind regarding a future project.

"That burglar alarm I made-its been stolen!"

## TERCH-II "74 FOR BECHWERS IW ELECTROTICS... THEORV AND EXPERIMENTS <br> TUTOR: PHIL ALLCOCK

## LESSON \& The Transistor

N order to extend our knowledge of electronics it is necessary to introduce a new and very important component, the transistor. This does not mean that we have finished with our earlier components, such as the resistor, capacitor and diode, but rather that the range of applications for these components can be widened by using the transistor in conjunction with them.

## PHYSICS

A lot of articles have been written about the transistor and its associated physics but the author is of the opinion that this is not necessary in a first encounter with the device. In fact for a newcomer to the field of electronics a detailed study of transistor physics would be confusing and mask the inherent simplicity of the basic device behaviour.

In this series, we shall treat the transistor as an electronic component that can be bought for a few pence and we shall, at least initially, examine its operation from the point of view of a potential user rather than the device manufacturer.

This does not mean that the device physics are unimportant, for this is not the case. As the newcomer builds up his storehouse of knowledge he will acquire a deeper insight into the device operation. After all, the present day transistor, in discrete or integrated-circuit form, has reached its present level of sophistication as a result of intensive research and development over more than twenty years.

## TRANSISTOR FAMILIES

A glance at some of the manufacturers catalogues or the advertisement pages of E.E. reveals an enormous array of transistor types and numbers. Fortunately they are all members of a few families and it is a well known fact that
the majority of general applications can be satisfied by the use of just a few of the many different types listed.

The BC107 transistor is a very popular and well known member of the family group known as bipolar transistors. The term bipolar stems from the fact that the device operation relies on current flow due to the action of both electrons and "missing" electrons. The latter are usually called holes. Members of this family are split into two groups depending on the voltage polarity or current direction that is used in normal operation.
The two groups are called $n p n$ and $p n p$. The letters $n$ and $p$ representing the type of semiconductor used in the various sections of the transistor and indicate that the material possesses either extra electrons (negative) or extra holes (positive). The BCl 07 is an $n p n$ transistor and the current symbol is shown in Fig 4.1 and on the Data Sheet.

The three sections or regions have leads connected to them and are identified by the

Fig. 4.1. (right) Symbol for an $n p n$ transistor.

BASE $\sim$ EOLIECTIOR


Fig. 4.2. Current flow diagram for an $n p n$ transistor.
*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)
names emitter, base and collector. These names are usually abbreviated to simply e, b and c. The arrow head on the emitter indicates the direction of conventional current flow when in normal use. A pnp type uses the same symbol but the arrow direction is reversed.

Another important family group contains the so called field effect devices and has several subdivisons. These need not concern us here and will be covered in a later part of the series.

Other more specialised devices such as the unijunction transistor, thyristor and triac are also available and have evolved mainly from applications involving the control of relatively large current or power levels.

## BASIC TRANSISTOR OPERATION

This month we concentrate on the bipolar device family and in particular the BCl 107 npn transistor. All transistors behave as a form of electronic control valve whereby current in one part of a circuit can be made to change or depend in value on the current in another part of the circuit.

Consider the current flow diagram shown in Fig. 4.2 in which the width of the shaded arrow represents the amount of current flowing in a particular region of the $n p n$ transistor. If we take the total current leaving the emitter as 100 per cent we see that this is made up from the two currents entering at the base and collector. The base current is typically 1 per cent ( ${ }^{1} 100$ th) of the total emitter current which means that the collector current accounts for the remaining 99 per cent as the total current entering the device must always equal the current leaving.

The base region of a modern transistor is very thin, typically a few millionths of a metre (called microns) and this is one of the main factors in ensuring that the base current is only a small fraction of the total emitter current. However, apart from this, the ratio of the base current to the emitter current is almost fixed and for the time being we shall assume this ratio to be perfectly constant for a given transistor sample.

The ratio does vary, however, between samples of the same transistor type. Thus one device may have a base current which is one per cent of the emitter current whilst a second sample of the same type may have a corresponding current ratio of only ${ }^{1} 2$ per cent. Certain departures from this idealised relationship will be considered later.
To achieve current flow in the manner indicated in Fig. 4.2 the transistor must be connected into a circuit containing batteries and resistors in such a way that the voltage differences between the various regions are as shown. In a typical npn transistor the voltage between base and emitter, $V_{\text {be }}$, will be about +0.5 volts and will only vary slightly if the emitter current level is changed over quite a wide range.

The voltage between collector and base, however, shown as $V_{\mathrm{cb}}$, can have any value from about zero up to say +20 V or more. The actual voltage will be dependent on the external circuit conditions such as resistor values and battery voltage. In essence the voltage $V_{\text {cb }}$ will adjust itself to the conditions imposed by the Ohm's law requirements of the collector circuit. To see the implications of this let us examine the behaviour of the transistor when connected in a simple circuit such as Fig. 4.3.

If we assume that the voltage $V_{\mathrm{be}}$ is say +0.5 V , the voltage across the resistor $R_{\mathrm{b}}$ must be ( $4 \cdot 5-0.5$ ) i.e. $4 \cdot 0$ volts. If $R_{b}$ has a value of 1 megohm (a million ohms) the current flowing in $R_{\mathrm{b}}$ will be $4 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ and this is the current that enters the transistor via the base lead. If we further assume that the base current is exactly one per cent of the emitter current, for the tran-


Fig. 4.3. (left) An npn transistor connected in a simple circuit.

Fig. 4.4. (below) Values calculated from Fig. 4.3.

sistor sample used, then we would expect $I_{0}$ to be $400 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ and the corresponding collector current $I_{\mathrm{c}}$ to be $396 \mu \mathrm{~A}$.

We now have sufficient information to work out the voltage $V_{\mathrm{cb}}$, since the voltage across the 10 kilohm collector resistor $R_{\text {c }}$ must be equal to $I_{\mathrm{c}} \times R_{\mathrm{c}}=0.396(\mathrm{~mA}) \times 10(\mathrm{k} \Omega)=3.96$ volts. To satisfy the voltage conditions round any circuit loop (Kirchhoff's law) we find that $V_{\mathrm{cb}}$ must be equal to +4.54 volts. Fig. 4.4 shows the results of all our calculations for the given conditions. Readers should check these results and then satisfy themselves that the voltages around any closed loop "balance out" i.e. the voltage differences must add up to a value equal to the total battery e.m.f. acting in the chosen loop.

## ASSUMPTIONS

In the above discussion we made two assumptions. The first of these was that $V_{\mathrm{be}}=0.5 \mathrm{~V}$
approximately and this can be justified theoretically and measured using a practical circuit. (This is covered in this month's tests.) The second assumption was that the base current was exactly one per cent of the emitter current. These currents should be measured but as already mentioned the ratio does vary between samples of the same type.

The manufacturer controls the current ratio during the production of the transistor and usually gives a specification or data sheet which lists all the important parameters. These sheets are available for each transistor type and nowadays most manufacturers publish their data sheets in book form. The parameter that interests us here is the current gain and this can be measured in different ways. At one time it was common to quote the ratio of $I_{c} / I_{c}$, sometimes given the symbol $x$ (alpha) and for our example this would be 0.99 .

Since $I_{c}$ is always less than $I_{e}$ the parameter a must always be less than unity. As circuits improved it became apparent that a more useful way of specifying the current gain would be to quote the ratio of $I_{\mathrm{c}} / I_{\mathrm{b}}$, and this ratio is sometimes given the symbol $\beta$ (beta). These two forms give the same information in two different ways and it is possible to change from one method to the other quite easily.

For the case given our sample would have $\beta=0 \cdot 99 / 0 \cdot 01=99$ which simply tells us that the collector current is ninety-nine times the value of the base current irrespective of the actual current levels involved. (In fact the values of $\alpha$ and $\beta$ vary, both between samples and with emitter current level, but this latter effect will be ignored for the time being.)

## TRANSISTOR EQUATIONS

Though not absolutely necessary it is very convenient to express some of the above details
in the form of simple equations as these will be useful in understanding the behaviour of the transistor in any given circuit. The "continuity of current" condition is expressed by:

$$
\begin{equation*}
I_{e}=I c+I b \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

whilst the devision of emitter current, between base and collector, can be written as:

$$
\begin{align*}
& I_{\mathrm{c}}=a I_{e}  \tag{2}\\
& I_{\mathrm{b}}=(1-\alpha) I_{\mathrm{e}} \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

Dividing equation (2) by equation (3) gives a useful relationship, namely:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{I_{c}}{I b}=-\frac{\alpha}{(1-\alpha)}=\beta \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since the value of $x$ is usually very close to unity, especially for present day transistors, the value of $\beta$ varies over a wide range for quite small changes in $x$. This is illustrated in Fig. 4.5.

Because the parameter $\alpha$ depends on the width of the very thin base region, the manufacturing problems involved in controlling this width force the manufacturer to quote a spread or range


| $\alpha$ | $\beta$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 0.95 | 19 |
| 0.98 | 49 |
| 0.99 | 99 |
| 0.995 | 199 |
| 0.999 | 999 |

$\beta=\frac{\alpha}{(1-\infty)}$
Fig. 4.5. Variations in $\beta$ for change in $\alpha$

Table 4.1: Useful Transistor Parameters

| Parameter Symbol | Meaning | Value for BC107 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $V_{\text {ceo }}(\max )$ | Maximum c/e voltage with base open circuit | $\begin{aligned} & +45 \mathrm{~V} \\ & 200 \mathrm{~mA} \end{aligned}$ |
| $I_{\text {cem }}^{\text {ceo }}$ (max) | Maximum collector current (peak value) | $\begin{aligned} & 200 \mathrm{~mA} \\ & 50 \mathrm{~V} \end{aligned}$ |
| $V_{\text {cbo }}(\max )$ | Maximum c/b voltage with emitter open circuit Maximum average collector current | 100 mA |
| $V_{\text {ebo }}($ max $)$ | Maximum e/b (reverse) voltage with collector open circuit |  |
| $P_{\text {tot }}^{\text {ebo }}$ (max) | Maximum total power dissipation at specified temperature of $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ (or less) | 300 mW for $T_{\text {ambient }}$ $\leq 25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |
| $V_{\text {ce }}$ (sat) | Collector/emitter saturation voltage at specified cürrent levels. Typical and maximum values may be quoted | Max. 600 mV at $I_{c}=$ $100 \mathrm{~mA}, I_{b}=5 \mathrm{~mA}$ (Typical 200 mV ) |
| $f_{5}$ | Transition frequency (a measure of transistor's usefulness at high frequencies) | 300 MHz <br> (Typical) |
| $h_{\text {FE }}$ | Static forward current ratio (similarar to $\beta=I_{c} / /_{b}$ ). Test conditions usually quoted | 240 (Typical) at $I_{c}=2 \mathrm{~mA}, V_{\mathrm{ce}}=5 \mathrm{~V}$ |
| $h_{\text {fe }}$ | Small-signal gain (change of $I_{c}$ for unit change in $I_{b}$ ) | $\begin{aligned} & 125 \rightarrow 500 \text { at } \\ & I_{c}=2 \mathrm{~mA}, V_{\mathrm{ce}}=5 \mathrm{~V} \end{aligned}$ |
| Icbo | Collector/base leakage current with emitter open circuit | $15 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ (max) at $V_{c b}$ 20 V and junction temperature of $150^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ |

of values for $\beta$. This range may be as high as $5: 1$ (maximum to minimum) and for some types the transistors are colour coded to indicate that the current gain $\beta$ lies within a specified range.

## TRANSISTOR RATINGS

In addition to $a$ and $\beta$ other symbols are used and Table 4.1 lists some of these together with an indication of their meanings. It will be noticed that some of the symbols relate to maximum ratings of voltage, current and power and on no account should these be exceeded. Failure to observe this point can lead to permanent transistor damage or a change in the device characteristics.

Power dissipation in a transistor causes the temperature of the semiconducting material to rise and if this rise is excessive a process known as thermal runaway can occur. This results when the temperature rise itself causes increased dissipation and a regenerative build-up takes place. If the current is not limited by external resistance this thermal runaway will damage the transistor.

The emitter-base junction is particularly vulnerable since the current-voltage characteristic is very similar to that of a forward biased diode. Even with the large emitter currents that occur in power transistors the voltage between base and emitter, $V_{b c}$ rarely exceeds about one volt. The variation of emitter current $I_{0}$ with $V_{\text {be }}$ is illustrated in Fig. 4.6. The curve could equally well represent the variation of base current if a different vertical scale is used to indicate the lower current levels. The curve shows that for a silicon transistor the current rises rapidly once $V_{\text {be }}$ exceeds about 0.5 volt.

If we connected a 4.5 volt battery directly across the base-emitter junction the transistor would be destroyed since the current would rise to an excessive level. When experimenting with transistors this point should be watched since the damage is not discernable from the outside. Always include a series resistance of say 1 kilohm to limit the current flow to a few milliamps. A simple method of checking transistors is covered in the experimental tests this month (Test ll).

## TRANSISTOR LEAD CONFIGURATIONS

Modern transistors are usually mounted in hermetically sealed metal cases or encapsulated in special epoxy material. The arrangement of the leads can take one of several forms as shown in Fig. 4.7 and in some of the metal cased types the case is electrically joined to the collector. This applies to the BC107 transistors used with the Tutor Board.

## MOUNTING FOR TUTOR BOARD

The BC107 transistors must be mounted using the 3 -way connector blocks that were reserved for this purpose in Teach-in '74, Part 1. The leads are quite short and must be carefully spread out to match the connector spacing. They must not be allowed to touch the metal case of the transistor and as the lead-out wires are fairly thin the connector screws should be tightened carefully so that the wires are held firmly under the end ot the screws. Excessive pressure will tend to fracture the leads.

The transistors should be left permanently mounted in these blocks and all other connec ${ }^{2}$ tions brought in on the opposite side of the block as required. The emitter and collector can be colour coded by using small spots of paint on the block, red for the collector and blue for the emitter. Alternatively, small lengths of plastic insulation can be slipped over the emitter and collector leads before mounting the transistor in the block. The general arrangement is shown in Fig. 4.8.

We are now in a position to carry out some simple tests.

Next month we shall continue our study of the tran-

Fig. 4.8. Mounting of the BC107 in a connector block for use on the Tutor Board
sistor and introduce some simple circuit applications.




Fig. 4.6. Variation of emitter current with $V_{\text {be }}$
current with ${ }^{\text {be }}$

Everyday Electronics, January 1974

## TUTOR BOARD EXPERIMENTS

Test No. 11
The experimental work this month has been designed to demonstrate the main features of transistor operation as described in the article. The schematic circuit is shown in Fig. 4.9 and a suggested Tutor Board layout is given in Fig. 4.10. The $0-10 \mathrm{~V}$ voltmeter circuit is required for this test and has the negative lead permanently connected to the emitter (e). Only one probe is required, for the positive lead, and this can be held in position when a measurement is made.


Before switching on check all wiring carefully. Remember that the metal case of the BCl 07 is electrically connected to the collector (internally).

When using the voltmeter avoid touching the metal probe with the fingers as this can give a leakage path and produce false readings if some other part of the hand touches another part of the circuit, such as the transistor case! When you are satisfied that all wiring is correct and firmly held in the connector blocks, set potentiometer VR2 fully anticlockwise so that the slider is at the end which is joined to e, and switch on the circuit.

Using the voltmeter probe check the total battery voltage $V_{\text {Ar }}$ at point $A$, the collector voltage $V_{c e}$ at point c and the voltages $V_{\mathrm{Fe}_{\mathrm{c}}}$ and $V_{D_{r}}$ at points $F$ and $D$. If everything is operating correctly the readings will be approximately:
$\left.\begin{array}{l}V_{A_{r}}=9 \cdot 2 \text { volts } \\ V_{\text {ce }}=9 \cdot 2 \text { volts } \\ V_{D_{e}}=0 \cdot 0 \text { volts } \\ V_{r_{\mathrm{e}}}=4.8 \text { volts }\end{array}\right\}$ typical values


Fig. 4.9. (above, left) Schematic circuit diagram for Test No. 11.

Fig. 4.10. Layout on the Tutor Board for the circuit shown in Fig. 4.9.

If $V_{D_{\mathrm{E}}}$ is not zero the potentiometer may be incorrectly wired or set at the wrong end. This condition would also give an incorrect value for $V_{\text {ce }}$ which may be approximately zero under certain fault conditions.

If all is well, record the voltmeter readings in your log book and proceed with the rest of the experiments step by step. Try to understand what is happening at each stage before passing to the next test.

## Test No. 12

Measure $V_{\mathrm{ce}}$ with the probe at point c and slowly turn VR2 in a clockwise direction. Note that $V_{c e}$ does not change until VR2 has been turned through a few degrees. As VR2 is turned further clockwise $V_{c e}$ will fall until it becomes almost zero. By turning VR2 "to and fro" satisfy yourself that the voltage $V_{c c}$ can be made to rise, fall or swing about a given value anywhere in the range 0 to +9 volts approximately. Return VR2 to the fully anti-clockwise position.

## Test No. 13

With the probe at point c turn VR2 clockwise until $V_{c e}=8 \cdot 0 \mathrm{~V}$. Without disturbing VR2, transfer the probe to point $D$ and record the voltage $V_{D c}$ (about $+0 \cdot 7 \mathrm{~V}$ ). Return the probe to point c and turn VR2 further clockwise until $V_{\mathrm{ce}}=$ $+1 \cdot 0 \mathrm{~V}$. Without disturbing VR2 measure $V_{\mathrm{De}}$ again and record the new value. On the prototype this second reading for $V_{D_{n}}$ was +1.4 volts but the value obtained will depend on the current gain ( $\beta$ ) of the transistor sample used. The results can be used to calculate the voltage gain of the circuit which is a "one-transistor" amplifier.

| Voltage gain (between points $c$ and $D)=$ |
| :--- |
| change in $V_{c e}$ |
| change in $V_{D e}$ |$=\frac{(8-1)}{(1.4-0.7)}=\frac{7}{0.7}=10 \quad l$| 10 |
| :--- |

These results show that an increase in $V_{D e}$ of approximately 0.7 volts causes a decrease in $V_{\text {ce }}$ of $7 \cdot 0$ volts. The collector voltage change is ten times larger than the change in $V_{D e}$ and is in the opposite sense since $V_{c e}$ falls as $V_{D c}$ increases.

Because of the variation (or spread) in the parameter $\beta$, between transistor samples, the voltage gain obtained may be lower than 10. (For BC107 transistors the range will be about 2 to 10 in this circuit.) Restore VR2 to the fully anti-clockwise position.

## Test No. 14

For this test we require a voltmeter covering a range of about $0-1$ volt and this can be made up by connecting a 10 kilohm $\pm 5$ per cent resistor in parallel with the 100 kilohm $\pm 2$ per cent voltmeter resistor. The effective resistance of

10 kilohm in parallel with 100 kilohm is $9 \cdot 09$ kilohm which together with the additional series resistance of the $100 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ moving coil meter gives approximately the correct value for a $0-1 \mathrm{~V}$ voltmeter (i.e. 10 kilohm). See Fig. 4.11.

With the batteries switched off, change the base resistor from 47 kilohm to 4.7 kilohm and replace the 1 kilohm collector resistor with a 100 ohm resistor connected in series with one of the 6 V 60 mA lamps. Check all wiring carefully before switching on Check that the lamp lights when VR2 is rotated clockwise. See Fig. 4.11 .

Connect the positive probe of the $0-1 \mathrm{~V}$ voltmeter to point $b$ and slowly rotate VR2 clockwise until the lamp filament just begins to glow. Note the meter reading remembering that the full scale deflection now represents $1 \cdot 0$ volt, not 10 V as previously. Continue to rotate VR2 whilst observing the meter reading. The change in meter reading will be relatively small even though the increasing light output shows that the collector current is still increasing.

This demonstrates that $V_{\text {be }}$ is almost constant once the transistor is turned on. With the prototype Tutor Board the lamp started to glow at


Fig. 4.11. Circuit alterations for use with Test No. 14.
$V_{\mathrm{be}}=0.6 \mathrm{~V}$ and with the lamp fully on $V_{\mathrm{be}}=$ 0.72 V , an increase of only 0.12 V ! The voltage $V_{D e}$ will change by more than this (as can be checked using the normal $0-10 \mathrm{~V}$ voltmeter circuit) and rises to about $+3 \cdot 4 \mathrm{~V}$ when VR2 is fully clockwise.

Before dismantling this circuit return VR2 to the position at which the lamp just starts to glow whilst the $0-1 V$ voltmeter probe is held on b. Observing the lamp, remove the voltmeter probe from b. The lamp light output increases considerably. Why does this happen?

When you have finished the experimental work dismantle the Tutor Board. Remember to remove the 10 kilohm resistor from the voltmeter circuit and to put the shorting lead on the meter terminals, for protection. Additional transistor experimental work will be given in Part 5.


By GORDON J. KING

THis second and final part deals with sources of distortion and performance.

## TRACING DISTORTION

The least error is deliberately arranged at the end of the record because it is here that another type of distortion increases, called tracing distortion. This results from the difference in shape of the cutting and replay styli such that the path traced by the replay stylus differs from that traced originally by the cutting stylus.

At the end of the record the modulation waveforms tend to compress in the groove since then the groove-stylus velocity is at its lowest. This makes it even more difficult for the replay stylus exactly to follow the modulation waveforms, hence the distortion rises. The same effect occurs when the frequency of the modulation rises at a given or increasing recording level.

## TIP DIMENSIONS

Owing to its nature, therefore, it follows that the smaller the radius of the tip of the stylus the less will be the tracing distortion. This is in fact perfectly true to a large degree, but other factors tend to become involved.

In an endeavour to reduce tracing distortion, particularly at the inner diameters of a record, biradial or elliptical tips are being fitted to the better class of cartridge. The major axis of the tip is arranged to fall across the groove, thereby avoiding "bottoming" in the groove which can result in a high replay noise level, while the minor axis actually defines the modulation waveforms. Major and minor axes are commonly 0.7 and 0.3 thousandths of an inch.

Non-elliptical or non-biradial tips are spherical with radii of 0.7 and 0.5 thousandths of an inch. From the "definition" and least tracing distortion aspects, therefore, the elliptical or biradial tip is better than the 0.5 thousandths of an inch spherical, while the 0.5 thousandths of an inch spherical is better than the 0.7 thousandths of an inch spherical. The latter is really a "compromise" tip, suitable for playing early mono L.P.s (which carry a groove more suitable for a tip of 1 thousandth of an inch) without scraping up too much muck from the bottom of the groove, as well as the latest stereo records.

## SIDE-THRUST

We must now return to the arm to examine a by-product effect of the head offset angle. Obviously, the stylus is kept in contact with the groove modulation by a downward force, commonly called the tracking weight, the value of which is dependent on the mechanical quality of the cartridge and arm partnership and on the level of the groove modulation. The stylus is thus subjected to a frictional drag in the groove, and because of the offset angle of the head a force is developed which tends to draw the arm towards the centre of the disc, see Fig. 7.


Fig. 7. Basic illustration of side-thrust (see text).
This is called side-thrust, and when the bearing friction of the arm is small it can be significant and thus cause the stylus to bear more heavily on the wall of the groove carrying the left channel than the other.

Because such imbalance can affect both the channel separation and the tracking performance, many arms are nowadays equipped with a scheme for combating the side-thrust. This is
achieved merely by the application of an approximately equal force in the opposite direction provided by (i) a small weight dangling on a fine thread (SME, Audio-Technica), (ii) a spring arranged to introduce a countering torque at the pivot (Micro-Seiki), (iii) a system of permanent magnets (Decca)

The dangling weight idea on the SME 3009 short arm is shown in Fig. 8, while Fig. 9 shows the spring arrangement adopted by Micro-Seiki on the MA77/II arm, where the adjustment is provided by the small knob at the bottom left of the base.


Fig. 8. The SME 3009 short arm showing dangling weight (side thrust correction) and counterbalancing and tracking weight system.


Fig. 9. Micro-Seiki MAT//II arm with spring arrangement for side thrust correction.

Since-there is a likelihood of the side-thrust changing mildly with diminishing groove/stylus velocity, as the record plays out, and with changes in recording level, accurate correction over the entire disc is impossible. Nevertheless, the application of a nominal value of correction
can enhance the channel balance and separation and reduce the tracking weight by as much as 20 per cent in some cases.
The required nominal value will depend on the chosen tracking weight and the type and dimentions of the stylus tip, which is why it is adjustable on many arms.

## OTHER ADJUSTMENTS

The arm must also embody a method for counterbalancing the weight of the shellmounted cartridge (often by a sliding weight or weights at the end of the arm) and an adjustment for the tracking weight, either a small rider weight or a spring system.

The arm illustrated in Fig. 8 employs weights for counterbalancing and tracking, the latter sliding along the main part of the arm against gramme calibration marks.

The arm in Fig. 9 also employs end weights for both functions.

Another arm fitment is an automatic or manually operated lifting and lowering device, such as shown on the Micro-Seiki MA77/II arm in Fig. 9 , which is operated by the lever at the side.

We must now turn our attention to the chief pick-up parameters, of which there are three: (i) tracking ability, (ii) frequency response and (iii) channel separation.

## TRACKING ABILITY

This refers to the least tracking weight required for the pick-up to handle modulation of a specific frequency and amplitude, usually translated to velocity, $v$, such that

$$
v=2 \pi f A,
$$

where $f$ is the frequency in hertz and $A$ the amplitude in centimetres of the modulation waveform.
Velocity is given in centimetres per second ( $\mathrm{cm} / \mathrm{s}$ ), and because some of the latest discs have peak levels approaching $30 \mathrm{~cm} / \mathrm{s}$ at mid-spectrum, the pickup should be able to cater for such a velocity within its tracking weight range.

Sadly, few makers specify absolute tracking ability in this way (Shure being an exception by adopting the term 'trackability'). Most makers, though, specify the required tracking weight, sometimes in terms of minimum and maximum values.

One should not exceed the maximum, but whether the minimum weight will track modern records realistically will depend on the arm and side-thrust correction.

The tracking at high amplitudes is governed by the compliance of the cartridge. Compliance is the reciprocal of stiffness and is measured as the distance of millionths of a centimetre that the stylus is displaced by a force of 1 dyne (approximately equivalent to a force of 1 milligram). Modern cartridges boast vertical and lateral compliances of $20 \times 10^{-5}$ centimetres per dyne ( $\mathrm{cm} /$ dyne) or better.

However, a high compliance cartridge does not necessarily imply a good tracking because the high frequency tracking ability is dependent on the effective mass at the stylus tip. When tracking high-frequency, high velocity modulation, the stylus tip can undergo an acceleration in excess of 1000 g ( g being Earth's gravitational pull). So by having a large tip mass, rapid change of motion will be impossible at a realistic tracking weight and without groove destruction. Topflight cartridges have an effective tip mass of less than one milligram.

Tracking ability is also dependent on the mechanical damping built into the cartridge to tame overshoot and resonance effects, etc, thus the three factors of compliance, tip mass and damping combine to yield the tracking ability.

## FREQUENCY RESPONSE

The output over the frequency spectrum should be free from violent changes if colouration of the reproduction is to be avoided; Fig. 10 shows the frequency response of a good quality cartridge. The slight undulations can be tolerated, but cartridges with violent changes in output within an octave are unsuitable for high quality reproduction.


Fig. 10. Typical frequency response curve obtained with a good magnetic cartridge.

Magnetic pick-ups not uncommonly exhibit the "suck-out" around 5 to 8 kilohertz, while the mild rise at the bass end can be encouraged by the effective mass of the arm resonating with the compliance of the cartridge. It is thus necessary for a high compliance cartridge to be partnered with an arm of low effective mass.

Resonance, and thus a rise in output, occurs at the bass end because the resonant frequency is equal to $\pi / 2 m C$, where $m$ is the effective mass of the arm and $C$ the compliance of the cartridge. The resonant frequency is a little over 11 hertz when the compliance is $20 \times 10^{-6}$ centimetres per dyne and the mass is 10 grammes.
If the resonance is too low the system will be unstable and if too high rumble from the motor and other acoustic effects may prove troublesome.

## CHANNEL SEPARATION

A separation curve compatible with the frequency response curve is shown in Fig. 11. Notice the high separation (almost 30 decibels (dB), equal to a voltage ratio of just over 31 to 1) at the middle of the spectrum.

At the bass and treble ends the separation normally falls off, but provided it holds around 10 decibels at 100 hertz and 10 kilohertz, with a maximum of at least 20 decibels at mid-spectrum, the stereo 'image' on replay should be reasonable.

Violent separation changes are sometimes noticed at the high treble due to stylus system resonances, and they often correlate with peaks and troughs in the response curve.


Fig. 11. Typical separation curve-magnẹtic pick-up.

## EQUALISATION AND LOADING

Generally, magnetic cartridges are capable of better tracking, frequency response and separation than piezoelectric types. However, because the output from a magnetic is geared to velocity of modulation and because a modern disc is recorded with velocity rising with frequency, the output rises with frequency. This calls for equalisation at the amplifier input stage.

Actually, the recording is to the RIAA characteristics, with a velocity slope of 4 decibels per octave average (eg, almost constant amplitude). A reciprocal curve is required for equalisation, as shown in Fig. 12.


Fig. 12. Curves approximating the RIAA recording ( $A$ ) characteristics and replay equalisation (B).

On the other hand, piezoelectric type cartridges give an output geared to the amplitude of the modulation, so the output is almost "flat" from an RIAA recording when the cartridge is loaded properly into the stipulated high resistance (about 2 megohms). Some piezoelectric species feature inbuilt equalisation to take into account the deviation from true constant amplitude recording.

It is possible to run a piezoelectric cartridge into an RIAA equalised input (eg. magnetic pickup).

The low value load here and the capacitance of the piezoelectric element result in a "tilt" in output so approximately simulating the velocity output of a magnetic cartridge. When running like this an input attenuator may be required to avoid the high piezoelectric output from overloading the RIAA equalised preamplifier.


A recent record deck from Scan-Dyna, type 1400.

## TURNTABLES

We have already seen that the turntable must be responsible for the least wow and flutter. These are usually quoted as a percentage referred to an average frequency from a test record. One per cent is acceptable, but quality units might not produce much more than $0 \cdot 1$ per cent wow and flutter, depending on the method of measurement.

Another parameter is rumble. This arises from motor and bearing noises being transmitted through the turntable, motor board and disc to the pickup. It manifests like the low grumble of distant thunder or the movement of furniture in the room above!

As already noted, it can be emphasised by a critical pickup bass resonance. The slip-frequency of some drive motors is about 22 hertz, so if the resonance is close to that, rumble could be aggravated. Amplifiers often feature a highpass filter to roll-off the sub-bass and hence the rumble signals. An unweighted value is about 40 decibels, but quality turntable units sometimes boast as high as 50 decibels (or higher when weighted), depending, again, on the test method.

Rotational speed should be adjustable to suit at least $333_{3}$ and 45 r.p.m. discs. If there is a likelihood of old 78's being played, then of course
the speed should be adjustable to this. Some turntable units also cater for 16 r.p.m. speech (talking book) discs.

Goldring-Lenco turntable units have a continuously variable drive. A motor board knob regulates the speed, and on some models the "standard" is indicated by a neon-illuminated stroboscope.

Recent models have "click" positions corresponding to the standard speeds. Fine speed control is useful for musicians and can avoid frustration when one is blessed (or otherwise!) with perfect pitch.


Photograph of a Goldring-Lenco turntable, type GL75 with variable speed control.

Speed change and variable control (when fitted) are related to the method of motor-to-turntable drive. The idler wheel type of drive, where the wheel picks up energy from the motor spindle (stepped to give speed changes) and couples it to the inside surface of the turntable, is still popular.

Belt drive is also being seen more these days. Here drive is coupled from the motor spindle or pulley (again stepped for speed change) to a larger diameter flange on the turntable or to a flywhel upon which the main turntable is placed (Micro-Seiki and Thorens respectively).

Automatic turntable are also liked in some quarters though rarely by the hi fi hierarchy for reasons of adjustment compromise and possible disc changes.

Motors commonly used for turntable drive are the small shaded pole variety, though sometimes a more "synchronous" device is adopted. When


The Connoisseur BD2 deck with arm ; two speed belt driven unit.
the mechanics are accurately balanced, the bearing friction low and the turntable mass high, it requires only a relatively small torque for constant speed drive.

## THE FUTURE

The gramophone record will remain a long time yet the medium for high quality two-channel stereo and, seemingly, for the latest fourchannel (quadraphony) reproduction. Discs are already available with the information of four channels in the single groove.

One scheme (Victor Company of Japan) incorporates four discrete channels of information by the use of frequency-modulation "multiplex" on a carrier frequency around 30 kilohertz, with sidebands towards 50 kilohertz.
Other schemes are based on the "matrixing" of ambient information relative to the normal left and right stereo channels, this being essen-


The Garrard QZ 100SC quadraphonic player system with built-in decoders. Can also be used for stereo or enhanced four channel modes.
tially a function of signal phasing by the encoding matrix. A reciprocal matrix at the reproducing end decodes the information into the original four channels.
It seems as though the magnetic pickup will retain its popularity, and species are available which respond up to 50 kilohertz (for the Victor discrete four-channel discs). Tracking weight is now down to one gramme (and less if you can handle it!).
To conclude, mention must be made of those cartridges which work on different principles, such as strain gauge (Miniconic), and photoelectric cartridges.

The magnetic family, incidentally, includes at least one make based on the ribbon principlelike a ribbon microphone.

There is certainly much more in record playing than meets the eye!

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## QUESTION TIME ANSWERS

1. Electrons have a fixed negative charge.
2. Current, in amperes, is a measure of the "rate of flow" of charge. One ampere equals one coulomb per second.
3. Current equals voltage divided by resistance.

- 4. Effective resistance is

$$
\frac{10 \times 22}{10+22}=\frac{220}{32}=6.875 \mathrm{k} \Omega
$$

5. For one watt power dissipation $\mathrm{V}^{3}=1000$ and so $\mathrm{V}=$ 31.6 volts. The current is therefore 31.6 mA .
6. Brown ( $\pm 1 \%$ ), Gold ( $\pm 5 \%$ ), Silver ( $\pm 10 \%$ ).
7. 270,000 ohms $\pm 5 \%$.
8. Providing the two battery voltages are the same the voltage difference will be zero for this method of connection.
9. Capacitance increases.
10. Time constant is 220 mS . (i.e. 0.22 seconds).
11. At the maximum working voltage of 100 V the energy will be 5 joules.
12. Resistor can be placed in either lead.
13. Cathode.
14. A reverse biased diode would give a voltage slightly less than the battery voltage. A good diode, in the forward bias direction would give a voltage reading of less than 1 volt.
An open circuit diode would give a voltage reading slightly less than the battery voltage due to the current taken by the voltmeter. A diode having appreciable leakage current in the reverse direction would also give a voltage reading less than the battery voltage. To distinguish between these last two cases it would be necessary to test the diode for both possible directions. If open circuit, the two readings will be the same. Hence both (b) or (c) could be correct.
15. 40 mA when operating as a Zener.
16. Effective capacitance is ${ }_{6}^{5} \mu \mathrm{~F}$.
17. No. The "cold" resistance is lower than the operating resistance.

# A nem series... SEMICONDUCTOR PRIMER 

By A.P. STEPHENSON

## 1 - DEVELOPMENT OF THE TRANSISTOR

The transistor was invented on Christmas Eve 1947 in the Bell Telephone Laboratories U.S.A. The two scientists concerned were Bardeen and Brittain, working under the direction of Dr. Shockley.

The original experimental hookup was as Fig. 1.1. Two "catswhiskers" were pressing on a crystal of germanium, XI. It was noticed that if the current through MEl was varied, the current through ME2 altered a slightly greater amount.

This was the first time in history that amplification was achieved in a solid state device.
This device was named the point-contact transistor. Its creation launched an orgy of research throughout the world.
The original point-contact version was soon abandoned in favour of the junction transistor, which was essentially a sandwich of three semiconductor materials known as p-type which was doped germanium, rich in positive charge carriers called holes and $n$-type which was rich in electrons. The sandwich could be $p n p$ or $n p n$.

Silicon eventually displaced germanium, because of its much lower leakage current and its ability to withstand much higher temperatures (about $180^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ instead of $75^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ ).


Fig. 1.1. The circuit used in the discovery of the transistor.

Manufacturing methods have continually improved, and the variety of techniques and sales gimmickry has now reached bewildering proportions.

The "in" type at present is the Planar Epitaxial as far as bipolar junction transistors are concerned. Bipolar means that the current is conducted through the device by two types of carriers, electrons and holes.

There is another entirely different type of transistor called the f.e.t. (Field Effect Transistor).

The transistor has triggered off the greatest technological revolution of all times.

## 2 - THE SEMICONDUCTOR BARRIER POTENTIAL

Two slabs of material, one $n$-type and the other $p$-type, are joined together to form a $p n$ junction diode.

The circuit symbol and the relation to $p$ and $n$ material is shown in Fig. 2.1.

The diode is an easy path for current in one direction only. In the other direction it is practically an open circuit.

If the applied voltages are as indicated in Fig. 2.1 the diode is said to be forward biased and will pass current. (This is easily remembered by noting that positive must go to $p$ ). When forward biased there is about 0.6 volts across a silicon diode, but about 0.2 volts, if germanium. Any attempt to push this voltage much higher will usually result in destruction of the device, because the current will rise rapidly.
A graph, showing this behaviour, is given in Fig. 2.2.
These two voltages, 0.2 for germanium and 0.6 for silicon, are called the barrier potentials for the materials.

Note that current is small if voltage across diode is less than the barrier potential.


Fig. 2.1. The circuit symbol and relation to $p$ and $n$ type materials.


Fig. 2.2. Typical forward characteristics of silicon and germanium diodes.


Enables finer speed control with standard foot control.

THIS article describes a simple power controller for use on the domestic mains supply. It can handle up to 750 watts and be used to control the power fed to electrical appliances.

A very useful application, proved by the authors wife, is to use it with an electric sewing machine. Set at about half power it gives a finer speed adjustment with the standard foot control than can normally be obtained. A big advantage when machining intricate shapes in fine fabrics.

By reducing the power to electric motors as used in drills, food mixers and other appliances with series wound motors, the speed can be adjusted. The controller can also be used to dim lights provided they are conventional filament lamps, it will not work with fluorescent or other discharge lamps.

With the electric drill a well controlled speed reduction enables coil and transformer winding to be attempted.

The circuit uses a triac which, although rated for a maximum current of 6 amperes, should not be allowed to run continuously at more than 3 amperes. The size of the heat sink and the fact that it is enclosed prohibit the sustained higher current use. On 240 volt a.c. mains supplies this gives a load rating up to approximately 750 watts, enough for most applications.

The circuit has been designed for the constructor with limited access to tools and uses, for the housing, a domestic MK Ivy base readily available from the local electrical contractor. With the exception of the triac the other components should be able to be supplied by the local electrical and radio shop. The triac can be obtained from several of the London based component houses by mail order.

CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION
The complete circuit diagram of the Sewing Machine Speed Control is shown in Fig. 1.

The actual power is controlled by a triac which is a semiconductor device similar to the controlled silicon rectifier (CSR) but with the ability to pass current in both directions. That is, once the gate terminal has been pulsed by a current pulse the device conducts current bez tween the two main terminals until the end of that half cycle.

By altering the point in time during that half cycle when the gate is pulsed or "fired" the time current is allowed to pass is varied and hence the average power to the load is varied.

The firing pulse is produced by the partial discharge of the capacitor Cl into the gate. The voltage across the capacitor Cl rises to a high enough value to cause the neon lamp to strike, a comparatively high current then flows through the neon lamp into the gate of the triac until the voltage across the capacitor Cl falls to the extinguishing voltage of the neon lamp. The firing of the triac removes the source of charging current for the capacitor until the next half cycle.

The use of a neon lamp, has, in addition to being a low cost triggering device, the advantage of showing that the triac is being triggered also.



Fig. 1. The complete circuit diagram of the Sewing Machine Speed Control.

The point at which this triggering pulse occurs is determined by the rate by which the capacitor Cl is charged through the resistors R1 and VR1. With VR1 set to the minimum resistance, the capacitor Cl is charged at almost the same rate as the rate of rise of that half cycle of the mains supply.

As the typical striking voltage of the neon lamp is 90 volts, only a small percentage of the half cycle is not conducted through the triac. By increasing the value of the setting of VR1 the rate of charging Cl is lowered and hence the neon strikes later in the half cycle.

With VR1 set to the maximum resistance of 100 kilohms, a value of Cl is needed which is just too large to be charged to the neon striking voltage. The value required for this circuit lies between 0.1 and 0.15 microfarads and may be made up from a $0 \cdot 1$ microfarad capacitor in parallel with a lesser value determined on test of the finished unit. By selecting this apparently too large value capacitor, the neon will not strike and pulse the triac; hence the unit will be in a fully turned off condition.

Although the voltage across Cl does not rise to more than about 100 volts, the polarity reverses 50 times a second causing high stressing of the dielectric and a working voltage of at least 400 volts is needed. This is also the reason for specifying a 1200 volt d.c. rating for the interference suppression capacitor C2, if one with an a.c. rating of at least 350 volts is not used.

The small inductance Ll limits the rate of rise of current through the triac. This is most important when the triac is switching at half power, that is, switching on when the mains supply is at its peak value.

In addition to switching the maximum value of inrush current for the load, the triac has to
discharge the suppression capacitor C 2 . The triac junction will be destroyed if the rate of current is allowed to build up much in excess of 20 amperes per microsecond.

An inductance of about 5 microhenries will limit the rise in this circuit to a safe value. This value of inductance is typical of the TV interference suppression chokes sold in most radio and electrical shops.

The circuit with these suppression components does not appear to cause any TV interference as it has been used as a lamp dimmer alongside a working TV receiver.

## Components <br> Resistor <br> R1 $10 k \Omega \frac{1}{2} W$ carbon $\pm 10 \%$ <br> SHOP TALK <br> Potentiometer <br> VR1 $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~W}$ linear composition typee <br> Capacitors <br> C1 $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F} 400 \mathrm{~V}$ d.c. working <br> C2 0.05400 V a.c. or 1200 V d.c. working plastic foil.

## Semiconductor

CSR1 Triac 400 V 6 A type RCA 40430 or similar

## Miscellaneous

SK1 MK lvy mains socket
LP1 Panel or wire ended neon lamp
L1 Interference suppression choke 3A $5 \mu \mathrm{H}$ Enclosure made from MKitems: Ivy plate, base, divider; knob for VR1, insulated with internal retainer or deep set grub screw; aluminium $2 \times 80 \times 25 \mathrm{~mm}$ (heat sirk); 6BA nuts, bolts and solder tags.

## CONSTRUCTION

The circuit is built up using point to point wiring as shown in Fig. 2.

Begin by making up the heat sink as shown in Fig. 3 and paint matt black.

The heat sink with mounted triac should be held in position inside the MK box, against the divider, as near to the side as possible, and then the drilling holes in the divider are marked out.

Drill these two holes and the two holes to take the 6BA terminal nuts and bolts at the other end of the divider, see Fig. 2. These two terminal nuts and bolts make the connection between the socket section and the control section. If the case shown is not used the triac should be insulated from the heat sink and the bolts insulated from each other and the case. The case should be earthed if metal.

Drill the blank cover plate centre hole and hole to suit the diameter of the neon lamp holder as shown in Fig. 4. If a neon lamp not mounted in a holder is used, drill the appropriate



Fig. 2 (above). The wiring up diagram and layout of the components in the MKIvy base.

Fig. 3 (left). Details of the heat sink for mounting CSR1. Use at least 1 mm thick aluminium.


Fig. 4. Details of fixing the neon lamp.
hole to hold the neon in a grommet as shown in Fig. 4. Both the neon lamp and grommet should be glued in position.
Mount the assembled heat sink to the divider plate and wire up the other components as shown in Fig. 2. Sleeve all component tails bearing in mind that the $0 \cdot 1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ capacitor at the C1 location may have to have a small value capacitor fitted in parallel later.

The whole assembly can now be fitted into the enclosure and the mains socket wired in. Finally fit the knob, ensuring that the grub screw is well below the surface if the type with an internal retaining spring is not available.

## TEST AND OPERATION

Connect a mains lamp load and switch on. Check that the output can be varied and that it will fall to zero. If the output will not fall to
zero an additional small value capacitor, such as 0.022 microfarad or 0.05 microfarad should be fitted in parallel with C1.

In use always check that the motor, lamp or other load is not short circuit as the average 3 amp fuse, which should be fitted to the mains plug, will not blow quickly enough to save the triac from permanent damage.

In use, the unit is plugged into the mains and the appliance to be "controlled" such as the sewing machine, via its foot pedal, is plugged into the socket of the unit.

Clockwise rotation of the control knob increases the power (speed) to the appliance. The control knob should be adjusted in conjunction with the foot pedal-control to give much finer control than with the pedal alone.
Sewing machine shown on the front cover was kindly loaned by John Lewis.


Supply seems to be becoming S non existent with regard to some components. In our November issue, we published the 4 Band T.R.F. Receiver and this design used a Motorola MFC 4000 B integrated circuit amplifier. At the time this device was being advertised by many suppliers and all seemed to be well, however, by the time the issue was on sale virtually all stocks of the device had been sold and, after phoning all the Motorola appointed distributors-who supply the retailers-we could only find fifty of these devices in the whole of the British Isles, not nearly enough to meet readers' needs.

What was even worse was the fact that the distributors told us
that they were not expecting any further supplies until February or March and there was no way of speeding delivery, which is controlled from Geneva. Faced with this situation we had only one alternative-to ask the author to design a simple discrete component stage to replace the original integrated circuit. It seems a backward step (backward in the terms of technology anyway) but, as far as we can see it is the only way out unless you, the reader and constructor, are willing to wait possibly until the end of March to complete the unit.

We hope we have now solved the problem with this particular article, so let's look at this month's particular problems.

## Fetset

The Fetset MW Receiver derives its name from the f.e.t. (field effect transistor) used in the first stage. This transistor and the BC169C should both be readily available, as shonld the remainder of the components used in this project. The tuning capacitor can be almost any miniature variable type of about 250 pF . The case must be plastic and there are a number of small ones available from the various retailers.

## Sewing Machine Speed Control

All components for the Sewing Machine Speed Control should be readily obtainable, the MK parts
are sold by many electrical shops and should be easy to obtain almost anywhere, the suppressor coil L1 is also obtainable from such shops.

## V.C.O. Effects Unit

We have probably never before published a design that is so versatile as the V.C.O. Effects Unit, the applications stated in the text are probably not the only ones and no doubt ingenious readers will find many others.
One or two rather special components are used, in particular the Vernier dial (although this is by no means essential) and the foot switch. The dial is available from most of the larger suppliers, they are available in a number of sizes, the 50 mm ( 2 inch ) size being used on the prototype, this costs about 85 p and this price was not included in the cost box.
The foot switch on the prototype is simply a heavy duty push on, push off pushbutton and is quite suitable. Henry's Radio show a rather more sophisticated foot-switch in their catalogue which is free standing and could be linked to the unit by a lead and plug, however this switch costs more than $£ 1$ and is not necessary unless the unit cannot be placed on the floor. The foot operation is only required when the unit is used as an effects box with drums or other instruments.

Other points to watch when buying for this unit, are the notes in the text referring to the jack sockets, and also the pot value if the Vernier drive is used.

$T$ His receiver covers the m.w. band, and uses only two transistors, including one field effect type. The use of a f.e.t. (field effect transistor) gives the circuit a low noise level, and low current consumption. It also helps to give extremely sharp selectivity. While the set is quite compact, the prototype measuring 133 by 73 by 38 mm , it has purposely not been miniaturised in order that construction should be very simple, and standard, readily available components can be used. The output is for a crystal earpiece.

As a regenerative detector is used, no alignment is required, and only one simple adjustment to optimise performance has to be made before the completed device is ready for use.

Apart from the normal B.B.C. stations, a few continental ones can be received at an adequate volume. After dark a larger number of continental stations can be received, including Radio Luxembourg which has been received very well in the south east of England.

The unit is very economical to run as the current consumption from the PP3 battery is only about 650 microamps. Even with heavy use this will give a battery life of many months.

THE CIRCUIT
A circuit diagram of the receiver is shown in Fig. 1, TR1 is a field effect transistor, and


A two transistor m.w. receiver using an f.e.t. for increased performance

By R.A. PENFOLD
this type of component is very different from an ordinary bipolar transistor. An ordinary transistor has a very high resistance between its collector and emitter terminals unless a small forward bias is applied to its base, whereupon its resistance will drop, and it can be used for linear amplification. An f.e.t. however, has a relatively low impedance across its drain and source terminals (equivalent of the collector and emitter of a bipolar transistor), and it is necessary to give it a small reverse bias in order to bring it into linear operating conditions.

Referring to Fig. 1 it will be seen that the drain and source terminals of TR1 are cons nected as part of a potential divider network across the 9 volt supply. A small voltage will therefore appear at TRI source. The gate of TR1 has to be held at earth potential so as to give the required reverse bias.

As the input impedance to the f.e.t. is extremely high, normally a very high value resistor would be used to fulfil this function. In this case though, the tuning coil, L1, has a dual function, and also acts as this biasing component.

REGENERATION
Coil L1, which is wound on a ferrite rod, forms the aerial, and the signals received by this are coupled into the gate of TRI. Capacitor Cl is the tuning capacitor, L 2 is a regenerative feed-


Fig. 1. Complete circuit diagram of the Fetset
back winding, and couples some of the amplified signal at TR1 drain back to the input of the circuit. This winding is adjusted to the point just below that at which the circuit breaks into oscillation. It is at this point that the maximum effective regeneration is applied, and the circuit is at its most sensitive.
In this particular application, TR1 is not biased into true linear operating conditions, as it is essential that it should amplify one half cycle of the r.f. (radio frequency) signal more than the other half in order to detect the signai, and produce an a.f. (audio frequency) output. The use of regeneration heightens this effect, and thus greatly increases the detectors efficiency. It also increases the r.f. gain of the circuit, and thus gives a large overall increase in sensitivity.
It is important that the type of regenerative circuit used gives a fairly even amount of feedback over the entire range of frequencies covered, so as to give the maximum sensitivity over the entire band. It is also important that the regeneration is not seriously affected by the drop in supply voltage caused by ageing of the battery. This circuit is very good in both these respects.
Capacitor C2 is the bypass capacitor for R2. The audio output of the detector is developed across R1, and C3 decouples the r.f. signal. The audio signal is fed to TR2 via C4.
Transistor TR2 forms a straightforward high gain audio amplifier stage, which has collector load resistor, R4, and base bias resistor, R3. The output is taken from TR2 collector, and is suitable for a crystal earpiece only. Switch S1 is the on/off switch.
obtained, the length can be cut from a longer piece. At the point at which the rod is to be cut, a deep V shaped groove is made around the circumference of the rod using a triangular file. The rod is then given a sharp tap with the edge of the file at this point to break it in two.

If the end of the rod is left a little rough, this does not really matter. Care should be taken when handling the rod, as these are very brittle, and can easily smash if accidentally dropped.

Coil Lal consists of 65 turns of 32 s.w.g. wire (enamelled or double cotton covered) wound in a single layer. In order to prevent the coil

## Components....

## Resistors

| R1 $4 \cdot 7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | SEE |
| :--- | :--- |
| R2 $12 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |  |
| R3 $2 \cdot 7 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ |  |
| R4 $6 \cdot 8 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |  |
| All $\frac{1}{4} \mathrm{~W}=10 \%$ carbon |  |

## Capacitors

C1 250 pF (approx.) miniature variable
C2 $4 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. 9 V
C3 $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ disc ceramic or Mullard C280 type
C4 $2 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. 9 V

## Transistors

TR1 2N3819 or PN3819 f.e.t. $n$ channel
TR2 BC169C silicon npn

## Miscellaneous

S1 s.p.s.t. toggle or slide switch
SK1 3.5 mm jack socket
B1 9V PP3 battery and clip
Ferrite rod $103 \mathrm{~mm} \times \frac{1}{4}$ inch diameter, 32 s.w.g enamelled or double cotton covered copper wire (for L1), crystal earpiece, 0.1 inch matrix plain perforated Veroboard $90 \mathrm{~mm} \times 50 \mathrm{~mm}$, plastic case (see text) large diameter control knob, wire, fixing screws for C1 if needed.

## FERRITE AERIAL

The ferrite aerial is home made, and Fig. 2 illustrates the construction of this. The coil is wound on a 102 mm by $1_{4}$ inch diameter ferrite rod. If a rod of the correct length cannot be


## fetset IIUU RECEIUER

Photograph of the complēted Fetset, with earpiece.


Fig. 2. Complete layout and wiring diagram of the Fetset
from unwinding, the lead out wires are taped to the rod using ordinary insulation tape (not Sellotape). Try to keep the winding reasonably neat, with the turns wound side by side, avoiding overlaps if possible. Ensure that the lead out wires are made'sufficiently long (at least 80 mm ).

## COMPONENT PANEL

Most of the wiring is on a 0.1 inch matrix perforated paxolin panel measuring $90 \mathrm{~mm} x$ 50 mm , Fig. 2 shows a diagram of the board.

The first task is to drill the mounting holes for Cl . Some variable capacitors require a single $3_{8}$-inch diameter mounting hole, but others require a ${ }_{10}$-inch diameter hole for the component's spindle, and three smaller holes for three 4BA countersunk fixing screws (not normally supplied with the component). The ferrite aerial is tied to the board by two loops of thin p.v.c. sleeving or string.

Next the small components are mounted on the board and wired together. These are mounted in the positions shown in the diagram, and their lead out wires are bent over at right angles and cut to length. The leads are then directly soldered to one another, this underside wiring also being shown in Fig. 2.

Connections to C1, S1, SK1, etc., should be left until last. Three 50 mm long insulated leads are connected to the board where the connections to S1, and SK1 are to be made. The connections to SI and SK1 are not made until both these, and the component panel are mounted in the case.

Coil L2 consists of a 130 mm length of single core p.v.c. insulated wire. This has a loop made in the middle, and this is slipped on, and pushed a little way onto, the ferrite rod. This in effect forms a single turn coil on the ferrite rod.

## THE CASE

The prototype receiver is housed in a commercially produced fibreglass case with a removable aluminium back. There are several plastic boxes of about this size available ( 130 x $73 \times 38 \mathrm{~mm}$ ), any of which is suitable for this project. A metal case cannot be used as this would screen the aerial, and so prevent the receiver from working.

The general layout of the components inside the case is also shown in Fig. 2. A mounting hole is required for SKl, and S1. The front panel of the case is drilled with mounting holes for C1. The component panel is secured inside the case by being trapped between Cl and the front of the case, Cl in effect being used to bolt the panel to the inside of the case.

## ADJUSTMENT

Once construction has been completed it is only necessary to adjust the reaction coil (L2)
for optimum results before the set is ready for use. With the earpiece connected and the receiver turned on, it should be possible to tune a few stations. If these are very weak, or none can be received at all, providing the set has been wired correctly, this means that L2 has incorrect phasing. To correct this, L2 is removed from the ferrite rod, twisted through 180 degrees, and then replaced on the rod.

For maximum sensitivity and selectivity, L2 is pushed as far onto the rod as possible without the set breaking into oscillation, at any setting of Cl. When the set is oscillating there is a noticeable increase in background hiss, and a whistle will be heard as the set is tuned across a station.
In practice it is probably best not to take L2 too close to the threshold of oscillation, as the tuning will be so sharp that it will be difficult to tune a station properly, and the audio quality may suffer. It should, however, be possible to find a setting for L2 which gives good sensitivity, selectivity, and audio quality, just below this setting.
It should be found that L2 is firmly held in place by being trapped between the ferrite rod and the component panel, but if any further fixing should be found necessary, a small strip of insulation tape can be used to secure it to the rod.

As a finishing touch a simple dial can be marked around the control knob of C1, showing the station positions. Should it be found that tuning is difficult the size of the knob can be increased.


## AMPLIFIER FOR...

## 4 BIIII <br> T.R.F. <br> BY F.G.RAYER <br> A replacement amplifier for the circuit published in November 1973

The 4 Band T.R.F. Receiver in the November 1973 issue used a small integrated circuit audio amplifier, the MFC4000B. In view of delays which may be encountered in obtaining this IC due to the fact that most suppliers have sold out and a new consignment is not due for some months, a suitable substitute amplifier is described here. Though particularly intended for this receiver, it can of course be used for other purposes where a small amplifier of this kind is required. The amplifier replaces the audio board originally used.

## CIRCUIT

The circuit is shown in Fig. 1, and both transistors are easily obtained, high gain types, VRl is the volume control present in the original receiver, providing the required level of audio signals via capacitor Cl for the base of TR1. This is a high gain stage, stabilised by taking the base resistor R1 to the collector side of the load resistor R2.

The base of the second stage TR2 is capacitor coupled by C3. Working conditions in this stage are arranged for a collector current of about 15 mA . This easily gives more than adequate headphone volume, while allowing modest volume reception with a loudspeaker, while not imposing a heavy drain for the PP9 type of 9 V battery used.

Resistor R6 is the collector load for this stage, with audio output taken from C 5 , and this arrangement means that working conditions do not depend on the direct current resistance of the headphones or speaker which may be plugged into the output jack socket. It will be found that best results are obtained with medium impedance phones, or a speaker of about 75 ohms impedance, but other loads are satisfactory.

## CIRCUIT BOARD

Both sides of the circuit board are shown in Fig. 2. It can be of the same size as originally used in the receiver, and input and other circuit connecting points are arranged in similar positions to those used with the original amplifier.

Two 6BA bolts secure tags which form the negative connecting points. Extra nuts are put on these bolts, and when the amplifier is finished they are locked to the chassis, with enough clearance to avoid any possible short circuit to the metal.

The polarity of the electrolytic capacitors should be noted when inserting these. The wire ends of components are bent over and soldered to the required points, excess being snipped off. Leads and joints are kept close against the insulated board. Transistor leads are arranged to come through the holes shown, and are soldered without unnecessary or prolonged heating.

## EXTERNAL CONNECTIONS

A lead from Cl passes to the wiper of the volume control VR1. If the amplifier is not being




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H35 100 Mixed Diodes. Ger Marked and Unmarked.
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Fig. 1. Circuit of the new audio section for the 4 Band T.R.F. Receiver.
used with the receiver, but for some other purpose, connect the lower end of the volume control element to amplifier negative line.

A lead runs from positive of C2 to VR2, which is one of the regeneration controls of the receiver. If the amplifier is used alone for some

other purpose, no connection is required here.
Battery positive goes to positive of C6, and battery negative to the negative line, the on-off switch being included here.

Leads from C5 negative and the earth or chassis line run to the output jack. Connect the sleeve contact tag to "earth" or chassis, and the tip contact to C 5 .

## Components....

Resistors
R1 $2 \cdot 2 \mathrm{M} \Omega$

| R2 | $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega^{*}$ | SEE |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| R3 | $2 \cdot 2 \mathrm{k} \Omega^{*}$ |  |
| R4 | $56 \mathrm{k} \Omega^{*}$ |  |
| R5 | $12 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |  |
| R6 | $470 \Omega$ |  |

R7

| R1 | $2 \cdot 2 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| R2 | $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega^{*}$ |
| R3 | $2 \cdot 2 \mathrm{k} \Omega^{*}$ |
| R4 | $56 \mathrm{k} \Omega^{*}$ |
| R5 | $12 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R6 | $470 \Omega$ |
| R7 | $39 \Omega$ |
| All $\frac{1}{4} \mathrm{~W} \pm 10 \%$ carbon |  |

## Capacitors

| C | $0.05 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| C | $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. $10 \mathrm{~V}^{*}$ |
| C 3 | $1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. 10 V |
| C 4 | 47 F elect. 10 V |
| C | $47 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. 10 V |
| C 6 | $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. $10 \mathrm{~V}^{*}$ |

## Semiconductors

TR1 BC 109 silicon npn
TR2 BC 108 silicon npn

## Miscellanous

* Veroboard $75 \times 51 \mathrm{~mm}, 0.15$ inch matrix plain type, connecting wire.

[^5]Fig. 2. Board layout and wiring diagram.

## DOMITOEDBill' By GEORGE HYLTON

 "On the one hand, one is told that the decibel rating is a comparative ratio figure with no fixed unit value, and on the other that a decibel is the smallest sound difference audible to the human ear. Can you help?"Let's get on at the start of the line; in this case a telephone line. The inventor of the telephone was, you'll remember, Alexander Graham Bell.

Long afterwards, when telephone engineers wanted a unit to describe the way signals get attenuated as they travel down a line they decided to honour the inventor by using his name. Being economically minded (or perhaps just bad spellers) they knocked off the final " 1 " and called the unit the "bel". The bel (B) is inconveniently large for most purposes, so we chop each bel into ten decibels (dB).

Problem: if you pump one milliwatt of audio power into a telephone line and this gives a usable range of 10 miles, what range will you get by increasing the power to 100 milliwatts? Common sense says, 1,000 miles. Practical experience shows that the new range it very much less, about 17 miles!

Common sense evidently looked at the problem the wrong way. Let's try a different approach.

## RELATIVE LOSS

The power gets used up as the signals travel along the line. After a certain distance, half the power has gone. Suppose this distance is one mile. So if we start with 100 milliwatts, after one mile we have 50 milliwatts left. After two miles, we have 25 milliwatts, after three, $12 \cdot 5$ milliwatts, and so on, halving for each mile. Somewhere between six
and seven miles down the line the power is reduced to one milliwatt.

We know that one milliwatt gives a range of 10 miles, so the range for 100 milliwatts is this plus the 6 to 7 miles it took to reduce the 100 milliwatts to one milliwatt. Total, between 16 and 17 miles.

## DECIBELS

In terms of decibels, the telephone line had an attenuation of 3 dB per mile. Decibels tell you at what rate something is decreasing (or increasing). A decrease of 3 dB means a halving: a decrease of 30 per cent corresponds to $1 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~dB}$.

In a telephone line, what declines is power. In electronics, we often want to work in volts age or current rather than power. Because power is proportional to voltage squared (doubling the voltage quadruples the power in a particular circuit), the decibel numbers come out differently for voltage and current comparisons than for power comparisons. Doubling the power gives a $\overline{3} \mathrm{~dB}$ increase. Doubling the voltage gives a 6 dB increase.
Why use decibels anyway? They are often used where it would be just as meaningful to use other ways of expressing gain or loss, it's true, but at times they are very convenient.

If a radio receiver has an r.f. gain of 10 , an i.f. gain of 20,000 , a detector efficiency of 50 per cent, and an audio gain of 400 , the overall gain is 10 x $20,000 \times 0.5 \times 400$. Whatever
that comes to, it will be a large number with a lot of noughts at the end. In decibels, the gain is

$$
20+86-6+52=152 \mathrm{~dB}
$$

which looks a lot tidier. Note that you add the gains of the successive stages when working in decibels (and subtract the losses, which explains the minus 6 , for the detector).

## COMPARISON

Strictly speaking, decibels give only comparisons. They tell how many times weaker or more intense one signal is compared to another. But if you pick on an agreed signal power and call that " 0 dB ", the " 0 " standing, not for zero power but for the agreed reference power, then you can make a decibel figure stand for an actual power.

In telephone engineering, 0 dB is usually one milliwatt. On this basis, 100 milliwatts is +20 dB .

If the line halves the power every mile, you knock off 3dB per mile. So a power increase of 20 dB (from one milliwatt to 100 milliwatts) gives a range increase of $20 / 3$ miles which is 6.67 mile:

## LOUDNESS

In loudness measurements 0 dB usually refers to the sound intensity which the average person can just hear-the "threshold of hearing". This varies with frequency, but at 1000 Hz it's about a millionth of a millionth of a watt per square metre. A very loud (almost painful) sound is around 120 dB on this basis, or one watt per square metre. If these figures sound low in relation to amplifier powers, remember that loudspeakers have low efficiency, around one per cent!

It so happens that an increase in sound energy of 1 dB is about the smallest change which can be noticed under ordinary listening conditions.

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\underline{I} \mu \mathrm{~F}
\] & \(6 \frac{1}{2} p\) \\
\hline \(100 \mu \mathrm{~F} \quad 6 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{P}\) & \(47 \mu \mathrm{~F}\) - \(6 \frac{1}{1} \mathrm{p}\) & 1500/ F & \(5000 \mu \mathrm{~F}\)-68p & \(2 \cdot 2 \mu \mathrm{~F}\) & \(6 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{P}\) \\
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\hline \(1000 \mu \mathrm{~F} \quad 13 \mathrm{p}\) & \(330 \mu \mathrm{~F}\) - 10p & \(6800 \mu \mathrm{~F}\) - 65p & 40 VOLT & \(10 \mu F\) & \(6 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{P}\) \\
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\hline & \(1000 \mu \mathrm{~F}\) 11p & & \(15 \mu \mathrm{~F} \quad 6 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{p}\) & \(68 \mu \mathrm{~F}\) & 10 p \\
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\hline \(68 \mu \mathrm{~F}\) 相 6 & &  & \(100 \mu \mathrm{~F}\) & \(220 \mu \mathrm{~F}\) & 19p \\
\hline \(150 \mu \mathrm{~F} \quad 6 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{P}\) & 16 VOLT & \(47 \mu F \quad 6 \frac{1}{2} p\) & 150 F F & \(330 \mu F\) & 22p \\
\hline \(470 \mu \mathrm{~F}\) (11P & \(15 \mu \mathrm{~F}\) ( \(6 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{p}\) & \(100 \mu \mathrm{~F}\) ( 8p & \(220 \mu \mathrm{~F}\) - 11P & \(470 \mu \mathrm{~F}\) & 26p \\
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Catalogue which contains data sheets for most of the components listed will be sent free on request 10p stamp appreciated.

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\section*{RESISTORS}
tW iskra high scability carbon film-very low noise-capless construction. W Mulard CR25 carbon
W \(2 \%\) ELECTROSIL TRS
Power
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline & & Values & 1-99 & Price \\
\hline Tolerance & Range
\[
4 \cdot 7 \Omega-2 \cdot 2 M \Omega
\] & available & 1-99 & \(100+\)
0.80 \\
\hline 10\% & \(3 \cdot 3 \mathrm{Ma}-10 \mathrm{Ma}\) & E12 & Ip & 0.8 p \\
\hline 2\% & 10R-1Mn & E24 & 3.5p & 3p \\
\hline 10\% & 10-3.90 & E12 & 10 & 0.80 \\
\hline 5\% & 4-7a-1M8 & E12 & \(1 p\) & \(0 \cdot 8\) \\
\hline 10\% & 10-100 & E12 & \(6 p\) & 5.5p \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

Quantity price 30 plies for any selection. Ignore fractions on total order.

\section*{DEVELOPMENT PACK}


POTENTIOMETERS
Carbon track \(5 k \Omega\) so \(2 M \Omega\), log or linear (log 1 W. lin \(\ddagger\) W).
Single, 120 . Dual gang (stereo), 40 . Single D.P. swisch. \(24 p\).

SKELETON FRESET POTENTIOMETERS
Linear: \(100,250,500 \mathrm{~g}\) and decades to \(\$ M \Omega\). Horizongal or vertical P.C. mounting ( 0.1 matrix)
sub-minizture 0.1 W , 5p each. Minizture \(0.25 \mathrm{~W}, 7 p\) each.

\section*{TRANSISTORS}


\section*{SLIDER FOTENTIOMETERS}
\(66 \mathrm{~mm} \times 9 \mathrm{~mm} \times 16 \mathrm{~mm}\), length of track 59 mm .
SINGLE 10K, 25K, IOOK log. or lin. 40p.
DUAL GANG. \(10 K+10 K\) etc. log. or lin. 60p KNOB FOR ABOVE. 12p.
FRONT PANEL, 65p.
18 Gauge panel 12 in \(\times\) in with slott cut for use with slider pots. Groy or ma

\section*{ALUMINIUM BOXES}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline ALE & Nam \(\times\) Stax & & AB14 & \(7^{\prime \prime} \times 5^{\prime \prime} \times 2 t^{\prime \prime}\) & 84p \\
\hline AB7 &  & \(50 p\)
\(50 p\) & ABI5 & \(8^{\prime \prime} \times 6^{\prime \prime} \times 3^{\prime \prime}\) & \(108 p\) \\
\hline AB9 & \(4^{\prime \prime} \times 2 z^{\circ} \times 11^{\prime \prime}\) & 50p & ABI6 & \(10^{\prime \prime} \times 7^{\prime \prime} \times 3^{\prime \prime}\) & \(122 p\) \\
\hline AB10 & \(4{ }^{\prime \prime} \times 55^{\prime \prime} \times 1 \frac{10}{}\) & 50p & AB17 & \(10^{\prime \prime} \times 4 \frac{1}{\prime \prime}^{\prime \prime} \times 3^{\prime \prime}\) & 108p \\
\hline ABII & \(4^{\prime \prime} \times 2{ }^{\prime \prime} \times 2^{\prime \prime}\) & \(60 p\) & ABI8 & \(12^{\prime \prime} \times 5^{\prime \prime} \times 3^{\prime \prime}\) & 120\% \\
\hline AB12 & \(3^{\prime \prime} \times 2^{\prime \prime} \times 1^{\prime \prime}\) & 44p & AB19 & \(12^{\prime \prime} \times 8^{\prime \prime} \times 3^{\prime \prime}\) & 160p \\
\hline
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { HEATSINM } \\
& \text { 2W 24p } \\
& 3 W \quad 36 p
\end{aligned}
\] & S-REDPOINT
4 W
\(6 \mathrm{~W} \quad 60 \mathrm{p}\) & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { TOS } \\
& \text { TOIS }
\end{aligned}
\] & Clip Clip & 5p & \[
\begin{aligned}
& \text { TOI } \\
& \text { TOI }
\end{aligned}
\] & Single Double \\
\hline \multicolumn{7}{|l|}{TRANSFORMERS All have 240 V primary} \\
\hline MT30/2 & 0-12-15-20-24-30V & \(2 A\) & & 62. 45 & & \\
\hline MT50/t & 0-19-25-33-40-50V & \(\stackrel{1}{ \pm}\) A & & 65.90 & & \\
\hline MT5011 & 0-19-25-33-40-50V & IA & & 62.53 & & \\
\hline MT50/2 & 0-19-25-33-40-50V & \(2 A\) & & ¢3.50 & & \\
\hline MT60/2 & ( \(-24-30-40-48-60 \mathrm{~V}\) & \(\pm\) ta & & \%2.10 & & \\
\hline MT691I & 0-24-30-40-48-60V & IA & & 4880 & & \\
\hline MT60/2 & \(0-2 \leftarrow-30-40-40-60 \mathrm{~V}\) & \(2 A\) & & 1380 & & \\
\hline
\end{tabular}

MULLARD POLYESTER CAPACITORS C2\% SERIES
\(400 \mathrm{~V}: 0.001 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.0015 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.0022 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.0033 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.0047 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 2 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{p}, 0.0068 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}\). \(0.015 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.022 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.033 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 3 \mathrm{p}, 0.047 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.068 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 4 \mathrm{p}, 0.15 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 6 \mathrm{p}, 0.22 \mu \mathrm{~F}\), 7 to \(0.33 \mu \mathrm{~F}\), \(11 \mathrm{D} .0 .47 \mu \mathrm{~F}\), 13 p .
\(160 \mathrm{~V}: 0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.015 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.022 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.033 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.047 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.068 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 3 \mathrm{p}, 0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 34 \mathrm{p} .0 .15 \mu \mathrm{~F}\),

MULLARD POLYESTER CAPACITORS C280 SERIES
\(250 V\) P.C. mouncing: \(0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.015 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.022 \mu \mathrm{~F}\). \(3 \mathrm{p} .0 .033 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.047 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.068 \mu \mathrm{~F}\).
 13p. 1-5 \(\mu \mathrm{FF}, 20 \mathrm{p} .2 \mathrm{2} 2 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 24 \mathrm{p}\).
MYLAR FILM CAPACITORS IOOV CERAMIC DISC CAPACITORS
 2 \(\ddagger\) p. \(0.04 \mu F, 0.05 \mu\) F, \(0.068 \mu F, 0 . j \mu F, 3 \frac{1}{2}\) p.

\section*{ELECTROLYTIC CAPACITORS}
( 1 F/V/V) \(1 / 63,1 \cdot 5 / 63,2 \cdot 2 / 63,3-3 / 63,4 \cdot 7 / 63,6 \cdot 8 / 40,6 \cdot 8 / 63,1025,10 / 63,15 / 16.15 / 40\), 15/63. 22/10, 22/25, 22163, 33/6-3, 33/16, 33/40, 47/4, 47/10, 47/25, 47/40, 68/663, \(68 / 16,100 / 4.100 / 10,100725\). \(150 / 6 \cdot 3\), 150/16. 220/4, 220/6.3, 220/16, 330/4, \(60.47 / 63\). \(100 / 40,150.25,220,25,330 / 10.470 / 6 \cdot 3,7 p .68 / 63\), \(150 / 40,220 / 40,330 / 16\). \(1000 / 4\), 10 p. \(470110.680,6 \cdot 3,11 \mathrm{p} .100 / 63.150 / 63\), 220/63, \(1000 / 10,12 \mathrm{p} .470,25,680 / 16,1500 / 6 \cdot 3,130\). \(470 / 40,680 / 25,1000 / 16,1500 / 10,2200 / 6 \cdot 3,18 \mathrm{p} .330 / 63,680 / 40,1000 / 25,1500 / 16\), \(2200110,3300 / 6 \cdot 3,470074,21 \mathrm{p}\).

 POLYSTYRENE:CAPACITORS \(160 \mathrm{~V} 24 \%\)
OOPF to \(1,000 \mathrm{FF}\) EI2 Series Values. 40 each.

\section*{SMOKE AND COMBUSTIBLE GAS DETECTOR-GDI}

The GDI is the world's first semiconductor that can convert a concentration of gas or smoke into an electrical signal. The sensor decreases its electrical resiscance when it absorbs deoxidizing of combustible gases such as hydrogen. carbon monoxide, methane, propane, alcohol. North Sea gas, as well as carbon-dust containing air or Full details and circuits are supplied with each detector.
Detector GDI, 22 . Kit of parts for derectors including GDI and P.C. board but
 alarm \(\mathbf{8 7} \cdot \mathbf{3 0}\). At above for PP9 battery, \(\mathbf{6 6 . 4 0}\).
PRINTED BOARD MARKEG
97p
Draw the planned circuic onto a copper laminate board with the P.C. Pen. allow to dry, and immerse the board in the etchant. On removal she circuit remains in high relicf.

M营TERS
\(1 \frac{1}{2}\) Scale- \(500 \mathrm{uA}, 1 \mathrm{~mA}, 10 \mathrm{~mA}, 100 \mathrm{~mA}\)
\$1:90

BULGIN MAINS CONNECTORS
\begin{tabular}{|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|c|}
\hline 3 Pin & \(1+\) A & Chassis Plug Line Socket & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 10 p \\
& \text { 13p }
\end{aligned}
\] & 3 Pin & IfA & Chassis Socket Line Plug & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 180 \\
& 130
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline 3 Pin & 3A & \begin{tabular}{l}
Chassis Plug \\
Line Socker
\end{tabular} & \[
10 p
\] & 3 Pin & 3A & Chassis Socket Line Plug & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 21 p \\
& 23 p
\end{aligned}
\] \\
\hline 3 Pin & 5A & Chassis Plug Line Socket & \[
\begin{aligned}
& 16 p \\
& 15 p
\end{aligned}
\] & 2 Pin & 5A & Line Plug & 20p \\
\hline
\end{tabular}


\title{
Project \\ \\ the slimmest,most \\ \\ the slimmest,most elegant hi•fi modules ever made
}

Living with hi-fı takes on now meaning with Project 80 modules. They can be asscmbled virtualiy anywhere, creating opportunities to instail systems hitherto only dreamed about and never before made practicaiQuality and reliability are everything you could wish for. Unias are mounted by 68A bolts at rear passing through drilled holes. cases are in black with white embelishment.

\section*{Stereo 80 pre-amplifier and control unit}

Each channel has independent tone and volume slider controls enabling exceptionally good environmental matching to be obtained. A virtual earth input stage forms part of the up-dated circuitry which includes generous overload mar gins. Clear instructions with lemplate are supplied.



Size \(-260 \times 50 \times 20 \mathrm{~mm}\) ( \(10 \frac{1}{4} \times 2 \times \frac{3}{3}\) ins) Inputs-Mag. P. U. 3 mV RIAA corrected: Ceramic P.U.,Radio,Tape
S/Nratio-60db
Frequency range -10 Hz to \(25 \mathrm{KHz}+3 \mathrm{~dB}\) Power requirements - 20 to 35 volts Outputs \(-100 \mathrm{mV}+\mathrm{AB}\) monitoring for tape Controls - Press button for tape. radio and P.U. Sliders for Volume. Bass and Troble.

\section*{Project 80}

FM tuner and stereo decoder

FM Tuner
Size \(-85 \times 50 \times 20 \mathrm{~mm}\)
Tuning range -87.5 to 108 MHz
Detector - I.C. balanced
coincidence.
AFC - Switchable
One 26 transistor I.C Twin dual varicap tuning Distortion \(0.2 \%\) at 7 KHz for \(30 \%\) modulation
4 pole ceramic filter in I.F. section Sensitivity - 4 microvolts for 30dB quieting
Output - 300 mV for 75 KH deviation


Decoder-
With gallium arsenide zuning beacon and \(19-\) transistor I.C. Size \(-47 \times 50 \times 20 \mathrm{~mm}\)
\(\underset{\text { R.R.P. }}{\text { FMtuner }} 11.95 \underset{\text { VA.t. }}{\text { Vi.19 }}\)
Decoder \(f 745+0.45 p\)

\section*{Project 80 active filter unit \\ }

Size \(-108 \times 50 \times 20 \mathrm{~mm}\) ( \(4 \frac{1}{4} \times 2 \times \frac{3}{2} \mathrm{ins}\) ) Voitage gain - minus 0-2dB
Frequency response -36 Hz to 72 KHz . controls minimum
Distortion-at \(1 \mathrm{KHz} \quad 0.03 \%\) using 30 V
HF cut off (scratch) -22 KHz to \(5-5 \mathrm{KHz}\). 12dB/oci slope
LF. cut off (rumble) -28 dB at 20 Hz . 9dB/oct. slope


\section*{Z. 40 \& Z. 60 power amplifiers}
2.40

Size \(-55 \times 80 \times 20 \mathrm{~mm}\) Input senstivity -100 mV Output 15W RMS continuous \(8 \Omega(35 \mathrm{~V})\) Fsequency response \(10 \mathrm{~Hz}-100 \mathrm{KH} z \pm 1 \mathrm{~dB}\) Signal to noise ratio 64dB
Distortion-less than \(0-1 \%\) at 10 Winto \(8 \Omega\) Powersequirements 12-35 volts


Z 60
Size- \(55 \times 98 \times 20 \mathrm{~mm}\)
Input sensitivity-
\(100-250 \mathrm{mV}\)
Output-25WRMS \(8 \Omega\) (45V).
Distortion-typically 0-03\%
Frequency response
1 OHz to more than
\(200 \mathrm{KHz} \pm 1 \mathrm{~dB}\)
S/N ratio-
better than 70dB
\(£ 6.95_{\text {v, }}^{+0.69 \mathrm{P}}\)

Sinclair power supply units
PZ. 8
The worlds mosi advanced unit in its class. It is a stabilised unit Re entrant current limiting makes damage irrom overload or even direct shorting impossible. a principle never before incorporated in a commercially available constructor module. Normal working voltage (adjustable) 45 V .
R.R.P. \(£ 7.98\) 0-79p V.A.T

Without mains transformer
PZ. 5 30V unstabilised
R.R P. \(£ 4.98-0.49 p\) V A.T.

PZ. 6 35V stabilised
R.R.P. £7.98 0.79pV.A.T.

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AUDIOTRONIC MODEL ATM．I
pocket multimeter．
Ranges：0／10／50／250／1000t \(A C\) and \(D C\) DC Carrent \(0.1 \mathrm{~mA} / 100 \mathrm{~mA}\) Rexiklauce 0jibor ohm Blye \(90 \times 60 \times 28 \mathrm{~mm}\) Complete with icst leads 89．85．1＇ost 15 p ．
RUSSIAN 22 RANGE MULTIMETER 350dcl U437 10,000 O．D．r． alrumient manufactured in standards．Hangee：hicucat \(50 / 250 / 500 / 1000\) r D．C． 2.51 10／50／250／500／1000． 100ma／1A．Current 100 Res／2／10｜ 300 ohma／3／30／300K／3m ． Complete wjth brateries． tardy steel carrying case． 24－85．P．\＄P．25p

\section*{MODEL TE－200}

0．0te O．E．M．Mirror scale． \(1,000 \mathrm{~V}\) ．D．C．0／10／50／250 1，000F．A．C．O／50 \(\mu . \mathrm{A} / 250 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{A}\)


\section*{MODEL TE－300}

30，000 O．P．V．31irror sazale． sump，200V．D．C．O／G／80／120／F00 \(1,200 \mathrm{~V}\) A．C． \(0 / 30 \mu \mathrm{~A} / 6 \mathrm{~mA}\) \(30 \mathrm{KI} / \mathrm{s} 00 \mathrm{ma} / \mathrm{A} / 600 \mathrm{~mA}\) ． \(0 / 8 \mathrm{~K} /\) \(\div \mathrm{fi} 3 \mathrm{ab} .87 \cdot 50\) ．P．\＆P． 1 Np ．
U4312 MULTIMETER
Extremely aturiy instrument for general efectical q．5e．G6／a．p． 5. \(600 / 910 \mathrm{v}\) De and 7 smv ． \(0 / \cdot 5 / \cdot 5 / 7 \cdot 5 / 30 / 60 / 150 / 300\) \(600 / 300\) VAC．
Dرร0）\(\mu \mathrm{A} / 1 \cdot 6 / 6 / 15 / 60 / 750\) ODMA 1 －5／6 AMP．D．C． O／2－5／6／13／60／150／600 ma／ 0／200 \(\Omega / 3 \mathrm{~K} / 30 \mathrm{~K}\)
Accurscy ISC \(1 \%\) ．AC \(1.5 \%\)


Knife edge polnter，mirror mask．Complete tnatructions．9975．P．\＆P．25p．

\section*{MODEL 500}
lond protection mistor acer－ 0／5／2－5／10／25／100／250／500］ 1，00v．D．C．0／2．5／10／25／ \(100 / 250 / 500 / 1.000 \mathrm{~V}\) \(0 / 50 \mu \lambda / 5 / 50 / 500 \mathrm{~mA}\) smp．D．C．0／由0／K／6 Meg．\(/\) 60 Mes？ Leather Coste pald．

\section*{MODEL C－7080 EN}


MRAEI S－100TR MULTIMETER
100.000 TOR TESTER
overlonu o．p．v．mirror ncalol \(-6 / 3 / 72 / 30 / 20 / 600\) y \(0 \cdot 12 /\) \(0 / 6 / 30 / 120 / 600\) ．V AC．0／12
\(600 / 2 \mathrm{~A} / 12 / 300 \mathrm{ma} / 12\) ANP DC 0／10 K／1 B1EGfl00xはF 20 to \(150 \mathrm{db} .0 .01 \cdots 2 \mathrm{M} 1 \% \mathrm{D}\) ． Tranvistar tester mescuren Alphn，beta and Ico．Complete wnd bateries，fmstructions

ǨAMODEN 72.200
MULTITESTER
IIfigh semsitivlty tester．
206,000 o．p，x：Olerload pro－ 20k），000 o．fl，w，Overlaad pro－ \(0 / \cdot 06 /-3 / 3 / 30 / 120 / 600\) \(0 / 3 / 12 / 60 / 300 / 11,200 \mathrm{~F}\) ．
 \(0 / 1\)
-20 to \(\pm 63 \mathrm{dls} 0 / 2 \mathrm{~K} / 200 \mathrm{~K} / 2 \mathrm{meg} /\)

\section*{ALL PRICES ARE SUBJECT} TO \(10 \%\) VAT

TMK LAB TESTER．
 evit Check．Seneitivity： Voil A．C．D．C．Volts 5． 5.5 ． 10.50 .250 .1 .000 \(50,{ }^{250}, 500,1,000 \mathrm{~T}\)
D．C．Current： \(10,100 \mu \mathrm{~A}\) 10． \(100.500 \mathrm{~mA}, 2 \cdot 5.10\) 2mp．Reaistance \(1 \mathrm{~K},{ }^{10 \mathrm{~K}}, 10 \mathrm{~K}, 10 \mathrm{MEG}\), 100ISEA \(\Omega\) ． 1pectleels：-10 to +49 db ．Platie Casc With Casring Handic．size
\(31 / \mathrm{In} . \$ 19.85\) ．P．\＆P． 25 P ．

HIOKI MODEL 700X
100,000 O．P．V．Orerload
\(-3 /-6 / 1-2 /-5 / 3 / 6 / 12 / 30 / 60 /\) \(120 / 300 / 60011200 \mathrm{~V} \mathrm{DC}\) \(1.5 / 3 / 6 / 12 / 30 / 60 / 150 / 300 / 600\) 1200 F．A．C．
\(15 / 30 \mu / 3 / 8 / 30 / 60 / 150 / 300 \mathrm{~mA}\)
6／12 AMP．DC． \(2 \mathrm{~K} / 200 \mathrm{~K} / 2\)

370 WTR MULTI．METER
Fcrarcs A．C．current ranges．
\(250 / 5001000\) V．D．C．
\(0 / 2 \cdot 5 / 10 / 50 / 250 / 500 / 1000 \mathrm{~V}\) AC

D．． \(0 / 100 \mathrm{~mA} / 1 / 10 \mathrm{Amp}\) AC
\(0 / 5 \mathrm{~K} / 50 \mathrm{~K} / 500 \mathrm{~K} / 5 \mathrm{~m}\) meg 50 \(-20+62 \mathrm{db}\) ．
 Higb guality torkrument current and DC current． NPN，PNP．tractistors， diodes， \(\mathrm{SCR}^{\prime \prime}\) a etc． \(\mathrm{s}^{\prime \prime} \times\) \(4\}^{\pi}\) clear scale meter．
Operates 1 from interaai Operteres
Gatteries．Complefe with inatructions．leauls and sarrying handle．212：50． MODEL 449A IN CIRCUIT TRAN－
SISTOR TESTER Checks true A．C beta in／out．Checka ico．Checks diodes in
gCR．out．Checks
cte．Beta

\section*{H0n 00 － \\ 期}

LB3 TRANSISTOR TESTER－ TeEts ICO and B．
PNP NPN．Operatcs trom 9v battery．Corn－ plete with all In－ P．\＆P． 20 p ．

\section*{LB4 TRANSISTOR}

\section*{TESTER}

Tests PNP or NPN tran aisturs．Audio indication． Operates on two
tcrics．Complete with all instrictions，etc．24－60． P．S P．20p．


TE－40 HIGH SENSITIVITY A．C．VOLTMETER
10 mea，input 10 rangeo：
\(.001 / 03 /-1 /-3 / 1 / 3 / 10 / 30 / 100\) 300 V ．RMIS． 5 cpss．－1－2 Mc／5． Deciliele． Smpplied brand nem + madB． with leads and Inotructions． Operation
Cerr．25p


TE－65 VALVE VOLTMETER


MODEL ATZOI DECADE ATTENǓATOR



KAMODEN HM．720B
F．E．T．V．O．M
Input impedance 10 meg Ranges：
\(\begin{array}{lll}0 / 25 \\ 250 / 10007 & 2-5 / 10 / 50 /\end{array}\) \(0 / 2.5 / 10 / 50 / 250\) 1000 V ．A．C．
\(0 / 25 \mu \mathrm{~A} / 2-5 / 2 \bar{s} / 250\)
mA D． ma D．C．
-20 to +62 dB
\(0 / 5 \mathrm{~K} / 50 \mathrm{~K} / 500 \mathrm{~K} / 5 \mathrm{mag}\) 200misg ohms．
\(\mathbf{2 1 4 . 9 5}\) ．Post 30 p

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Battery operated， 11 mer input， 26 ranges． Sirge fin mirror scaic． DC VoLTs 0－3－1200V AC TOLTS S300V DC CCRPENT－12－ 12 mA ，Resistance up to 2000 II ohm Decibels -20 to +51 dB P． \(\mathbb{\&}\) P． 20 p．
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\hline 1 pole & \(44 p\) & 44p & 44 p & 44p & 44p & 40 & 44p & 44D & 44p \\
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\hline 8 poles & 77 D & 779 & 770 & \(51-04\) & ¢1．39 & \＄1－32 & 81－39 & E2．42 & 59．49 \\
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A brand new hybrid fabrication technique, recentiy perfected in our laboratorles, has enabled us to achieve our latest range of completely integrated devices. We have now finally reduced the modular amplifler to a simple input/output deviee requiring only the addition of a basic unstabilized (split line) power supply. The HY50 takes medium power modules to thelr logical conclusion by incorporating normal audio use without additional chassis sinking At this withoy, sumetent for increasing the size of the module comparable In size to a packet of "King-sla clgarettes.
Conslstent with modern thinking a triple rated output circult with a load fuse allows for peak transient response without distortion'but ensures the necessary protection

OUTPUT POWER: LOAD IMPEDANCE: INPUT SENSITIVITY: INPUT IMPEDANCE: TOTAL HARMONIC DISTORTION SIGNALINOISE RATIO: FREQUENCY RESPONSE: SUPPLY VOLTAGE: SIZE:

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25.watts RHS, 50 watts peāk musić powei 4-16n into 82
Odb (0-775 volts RMS)
47K』
Less than \(0.1 \%\) at 25 watts typically 0.05 better than 75 db
\(10 \mathrm{~Hz}-50 \mathrm{KHz} \pm 1 \mathrm{db}\)
\(\pm 25\) volts
\(105 \times 50 \times 25 \mathrm{~mm}\)
Price \(\mathbf{£ 5} \mathbf{- 4 0}\) mono. \(\mathbf{£ 1 0 - 8 0}\) stereo
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Unchallenged for two tears, the HY5, our unique multifunction preamplifier/tone hybrid, has been brought into line with the advancements in our power hybrids.
Like the HY50, the new HY5 has no external components \& has baen redes!gned to run off a spilt powerline with improvements in signal/nolse, ovarload, capability a reduced distortion. The output has been incrëased to match the power module (Odb), and to share the same power supply.
Overal size is reduced by the use of a new thin film circuitry while the device still retains all the functions of the eariler device.
When comblned with Iha HY50 \& power supply only potentiometers are required to complete a simple mono amplifier with input 2 output faciltties expected to be found on Hi-Fi ampliflers.
The comblnation of two HY5's two HY50's sharing a commion power supply (PSU50) are linked by a balance control to form a complote stereo system.
INPUTS
SPEC.
Magnetic Plek-up 3 mV (within 1db RIAA curva)
Ceramle Pick-up up to 3 mV
Mierophone 10 mV
Tuner 250 mV
Auxillary \(3-100 \mathrm{mV}\)
input impedance 47 kr 1 kHz
OUTPUTS
Main output, Odb ( 0.775 volts )
ACTIVE TONE CONTROLS
Treble \(\pm 12 \mathrm{db}\) at 10 kHz
Bass \(\pm 12 \mathrm{db}\) at 100 Hz
OVERLOAD CAPABILITY (equallzation stage) 40db on most sensltive input
OUTPUT NOFSE LEVEL (below 10 mV magnetic Input) 68 db
OISTORTION \(0.05 \%\) at 1 kHz
SUPPLY VOLTAGE : \(16-25\) volis
SUPPIY CURRENT 15 mA
Price EA-5t mono, \(29 \cdot 02\) stereo \(p\)
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\section*{POWER SUPPLY PSU50}

The new PSU50 has a low profile look being only \(2{ }_{6}^{2}\) inches high and can be used for elther moño or stereo systems.
SPEC.
OUTPUT VOLTAGE \(\pm 25\) volt
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SIZEL. \(70, \mathrm{D} .90, \mathrm{H} .60 \mathrm{~mm}\)
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\hline actioi & 8 & & \\
\hline ACLIS & 20 & ADIBLarP & 75 \\
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\hline AC142 & 20 & AF179 \(^{\text {a }}\) & 55 \\
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\hline AC159 & 27 & Alios & 22 \\
\hline AC165 & 22 & ASY26 & 28 \\
\hline AC165 & 22 & AsY27 & 33 \\
\hline ACLET & 22 & ASY\%8 & 28 \\
\hline 1 C168 & 27 & ASY 29 & 28 \\
\hline AC189 & 18 & A8Y50 & 28 \\
\hline AC17G & 22 & AsY5) & 28 \\
\hline ACliz: & 27 & ASY52 & 28 \\
\hline AC178 & 31 & ASY54 & 28 \\
\hline AC179 & 31 & ASYE5 & 28 \\
\hline AC180 & 22 & A8Y56 & 28 \\
\hline ACl80K & 82 & ASY5\% & 28 \\
\hline AC181 & 22 & A8Y\% & 28 \\
\hline AC181K & 32 & ASY73 & 28 \\
\hline AC187 & 24 & ASZ2] & 44 \\
\hline \({ }_{\text {A }} \mathrm{Cl} 87 \mathrm{~K}\) & 25 & BCl07 & 12 \\
\hline AC188 & 24 & BC108 & 12 \\
\hline AC188K & 25 & BC109 & 13 \\
\hline Acyi7 & 28 & \({ }^{\text {BCL }} 13\) & 11 \\
\hline ACY18 & 22 & BC114 & 17 \\
\hline ACY19 & 22 & BC115 & 17 \\
\hline ACYO & 22 & HCl16 & 17 \\
\hline ACY21 & 29 & \({ }^{3} \mathrm{C} 117\) & 20 \\
\hline ACY2? & 18 & BC118 & 11 \\
\hline ACY2 \({ }^{\text {a }}\) & 20 & BC1] & 33 \\
\hline ACY28 & 21 & - & 88 \\
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\hline ACY4s & 39 & BC140 & 38 \\
\hline AD130 & 42 & \(\left.{ }^{3} \mathrm{Cl} 4\right]\) & 39 \\
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\hline AD142 & 53 & BC143 & 33 \\
\hline AD143 & 42 & BCilt5 & 60 \\
\hline AD149 & 55 & \(8{ }^{8} 145\) & 11 \\
\hline AD161 & 38 & BCl4 & 11 \\
\hline .1D162 & 88 & BCl49 & 13 \\
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\hline OC22 \\
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\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{\multirow[t]{2}{*}{LINEARI.C's-FULL SPEC.}} \\
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\hline 6 R 116 & 21.70 \\
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\hline \multicolumn{4}{|l|}{L-II-LTHE SOCKETS.} \\
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\hline & & & \\
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