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## YLSO INSIDE:

## ADCDLA Soldering Instruments add to your efficiency

## ADCOLA 64

for Factory Bench Line Assembly
A precision instrument-supplied with standard $3 / 16^{\prime \prime}$ ( 4.75 mm ) diameter, detachable copper chisel-face bit*.
Standard temp. $360^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ at 23 watts.
Special temps. from $250^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ $410^{\circ} \mathrm{c}$.

## *Additional Stock Bits

(illustrated) available
COPPER

| - $38 \quad \frac{1}{}{ }^{\prime \prime}$ - 3.2 mm chisel face |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| S 14 彦" -2.4 mm | Chisel face |
| $B 24$ ㄴ․ - 4.75 mm SCREWDRIVEA |  |
| B12 $\mathrm{i}^{\prime \prime}{ }^{\prime \prime}-4.75 \mathrm{~mm}$ | eyelet mit |
| B $588^{-\frac{1}{4}}$ - 6.34 mm | chisel face |
| LONG LIFE |  |
| 7 |  |
| B 42 LL $\frac{3}{16}^{*}-4.76 \mathrm{~mm}$ | CHISEL face |
| $\square \bigcirc$ |  |
|  |  |
| $\longrightarrow$ |  |
| B14 LL $\frac{3}{32}{ }^{*}$ - 2.4 mm CHISEL FACE |  |
| $\square$ |  |
| S 44 LL $\frac{3}{16}{ }^{\circ}-4.75 \mathrm{~mm}$ | SCREWDRIVER face |

Don't take chances. We don't. All our ADCOLA Soldering Instruments are of impeccable quality. You can depend on ADCOLA day after day. That's why they're so popular. You get consistent good service... reliability . . from our famous thermally controlled ADCOLA Element and the tough steel construction of this ideal production tool.

*
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# MONOLITHIC INTEGRATED CIRCUIT AMPLIFIER AND PRE-AMP 



## the world's most advanced high fidelity amplifier

The Sinclair IC-10 is the world's first monolithic integrated circuit high fidelity power amplifier and pre-amplifier. The circuit itself, a chip of silicon only a twentieth of an inch square by a hundredth of an inch thick, has an output 5 watts R.M.S. (10 watts peak). It contains 13 transistors (including two power types), 2 diodes, 1 Zener diode and 18 resistors, formed simultaneously in the silicon by a series of diffusions. The chip is encapsulated in a solid plastic package which holds the metal heat sink and connecting pins. This exciting device is not only more rugged and reliable than any previous amplifier, it also has considerable performance advantages. The mostimportant are complete freedom from thermal runaway due to the close thermal coupling between the output transistors and the bias diodes and very low level of distortion.
The IC-10 is primarily intended as a full performance high fidelity power and pre-amplifier, for which application it only requires the addition of such components as tone and volume controls and a battery or mains power supply. However, it is so designed that it may be used simply in many other applications including car radios, electronic organs, servo amplifiers (it is d.c. coupled throughout) etc. The photographic masks required as part of the process of producing monolithic I.Cs are expensive but once made, the circuits can be produced with complete uniformity and at very low cost. This enables us to cover every IC-10 with the Sinclair guarantee of reliability.

## SPECIFICATIONS

Output 10 Watts peak, 5 Watts R.M.S. continuous. Frequency response 5 Hz to $100 \mathrm{KHz} \pm 1 \mathrm{~dB}$ Total harmonic distortion Less than $1 \%$ at full output. Load impedance $110 \mathrm{~dB}(100,000,000,000$ times ) total. Power gain $110 \mathrm{~dB}(100,000,000,000$ times) total. Supply voltage Size
Sensitivity
Input impedance
$1 \times 0.4 \times 0.2$ inches 5 mV .
Adjustable externally up to 2.5 M ohms.

## CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

The first three transistors are used in the pre-amp and the remaining 10 in the power amplifier. Class $A B$ output is used with closely controlled quiescent current which is independent of temperature. Generous negative feedback is used round both sections and the amplifier is completely free from crossover distortion at all supply voltages, making battery operation eminently satisfactory.

## APPLICATIONS

Each IC-10 is sold with a very comprehensive manual giving circuit and wiring diagrams for a large number of applications in addition to high fidelity. These include stabilised power supplies, oscillators, etc. The pre-amp section can be used as an R.F. or I.F. amplifier without any additional transistors.

SINCLAIR

# Project 60 laboratory standard modular high fidelity 

Sinclair Project 60 comprises a range of modules which connect together simply to form a compact stereo amplifier with really excellent performance. So good, in fact, that only 2 or 3 amplifiers in the world can compare in overall performance. Now with the addition of three new modules to the range, the constructor has choice of assemblies with either 20 or 40 watts output per channel, with or without filter facilities.

The modules are: 1 . The $Z .30$ and $Z .50$ high gain power amplifiers, each of which is an immensely flexible unit in its own right. 2. The Stereo 60 preamplifier and control unit. 3. The Active Filter Unit with both high and low audio frequency cut - offs. 4. The PZ. 5 and PZ. 6 power supplies. A complete system could comprise, for example, two Z.30's one Stereo-60, and a PZ.5. The PZ. 6 is stabilised and should be used where the highest possible continuous sine wave rating is required. An A.F.U. may be added as required. In a normal domestic application, there will be no significant difference between PZ.5 or PZ. 6 unless loudspeakers of very low efficiency are being used, in which case the PZ. 6 will be required. For assemblies using two
Z.50's there is the new $P Z .8$ supply unit to ensure maximum performance from these amplifiers.
All you need to assemble your Project 60 system is a screwdriver and soldering iron. No technical skill or knowledge whatsoever is required and, in the unlikely event of you hitting a problem, our customer service and advice department will put the matter right promptly and willingly. Project 60 modules have been carefully designed to fit into virtually all modern plinth or cabinets and only holes need be drilled in the wood of the plinths to mount the control unit and A.F.U. Any slight slip here will be covered by the aluminium front panels of the Steren 60. The Project 60 manual gives all the buildings and operating instructions you can possibly want, clearly and concisely. Perhaps the greatest beauty of the system is that it is not only flexible now but will remain so in the future as the latest additions to the range show. A stereo F.M. tuner is next to come. These and all other modules we introduce will be compatible with those already available and may be added to your system at any time. And because Sinclair are the largest producers of constructor modules in Europe. Project 60 prices are remarkably low.


# $\mathbf{Z . 3 0}$ 

The Z. 30 together with the higher powered $Z .50$ are both of advanced design using silicon epitaxial planar transistors to achieve unsurpassed standards of performance. Total harmonic distortion is an incredibly low $0.02 \%$ at full output and all lower outputs. Whether you use the $\mathbf{Z . 3 0}$ or Z.50 power amplifiers in your Project 60 system will depend on personal preference, but they are both the same physical size and may be used with other units in the Project 60 range equally well. The $Z .30$ is unique in that it may be used with any power source between 8 and 35 volts without need for adjustment and may thus be driven from a car battery for example. For operating from mains, for the Z. 30 use PZ. 5 power supply unit for most domestic requirements, or PZ. 6 if you have very low efficiency loudspeakers. For Z.50, use the PZ.5, PZ. 6 or the PZ. 8 described below.

## Power Outputs

Z.30 15 watts R.M.S. into 8 ohms, using $35 \mathrm{~V} / 20$ watts R.M.S. continuous into 3 ohms using 30 volts.
2.50 40 watts R.M.S. into 3 ohms: 30 watts R.M.S. into 8 ohms, continuous, using 50 V .
Frequency response 30 to $300,000 \mathrm{~Hz} \pm 1 \mathrm{~dB}$
Distortion $0.02^{\circ}$ o into 8 ohms
Signal to noise ratio better than 70 dB unweighted
Input sensitivity 250 mV into 100 Kohms
For speakers from 3 to 15 ohms impedance
Size $3 \frac{1}{2}{ }^{\prime \prime} \times 2 \frac{t^{\prime \prime}}{} \times \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}}$

## STEREO 60 Preamm/Control unit

The Stereo 60 is a stereo preamplifier and control unit designed for the Project 60 range but suitable for use with any high quality power amplifier. Again silicon epitaxial planar transistors are used throughout and great atte:ition has been paid to achieving a really high signal-to-noise rajo and excellent tracking between the two channels. Input selection is by means of push buttons and accurate equalisation is provided for all the usual inputs. The tone controls are also very-carefully designed and tested.

## ACTIVE FILTER UNIT $\begin{aligned} & \text { High Pass and } \\ & \text { Low Pass }\end{aligned}$

For use between Stereo 60 unit and two Z.30s or Z.50s, the Active Filter Unit matches the Stereo 60 in styling and is as easily mounted. It is unique in that the cut-off frequencies are continuously variable, and as attenuation in the rejected band is rapid ( $12 d B / o c t a v e$ ), there is less loss of the wanted signal than has previously been possible. Amplitude and phase distortion are negligible by reason of the careful design and generous negative feedback employed.
Two stages of filtering are incorporated-rumble (high pass) and scratch (low pass).
Supply voltage- 15 to 35 V . Current- 3 mA H.F cut-of ( -3 dB ) variable from 28 kHz to 5 kHz L. F cut-off ( -3 dB ) variable from 25 Hz to 100 Hz Filterslope, both sections 12 dB per octave

Built, tested and guaranteed Distortion at 1 kHz ( 35 V supply) $0.02^{\circ} \cap$ at rate output

## SINCLAIR POWER UNITS


$\begin{array}{ll}\text { PZ-5 } \begin{array}{ll}\text { 30 roits } \\ \text { unstabilised }\end{array} & £ 4.19 .6 \\ \text { PZ-6 } \\ \text { stabilis } \\ \text { stad }\end{array} \quad £ 7.19 .6$
PZ-8 45 volts stabilised (less mains transformer) for use with $Z .50 \quad, £ 5.19 .6$

## APPLICATIONS

Hi-fi amplifier; car radio amplifier; record player amplifier fed directly from pick-up; intercom; electronic music and instruments; P.A.; laboratory work, etc. Full details for these and many other applications are given in the manual supplied with the Z.30.
The $\mathbf{Z . 5 0}$ is completely interchangeable with the $\mathbf{Z . 3 0}$ and can be used in all Z.30 applications.


## STEREO 60 SPECIFICATIONS

- Input sensitivities-Radio-up to Tone controls-TREBLE +15 to $3 m V$ Mas. P.U. $-3 m V$ : correct to R.I.A.A. curve $\pm 1 \mathrm{~dB} ; 20$ to $25,000 \mathrm{~Hz}$ R.I.A.A. curve $\pm 1 d \mathrm{~B} ; 20$ to $25,000 \mathrm{~Hz}$ Ceramic
up to 3 mV . -250 mV .
- Signal-to-noise ratio-better than 70dB.
- Channel matching-within IdB.
-15 dB at $10 \mathrm{KHz:} \mathrm{BASS}+15$ to一15dB ae 100 Hz .
- Power consumption 5 mA .
- Front panel-brushed aluminium with black knobs and controls.



## BUILDING A PROJECT 60 ASSEMBLY

The illustration here shows quite clearly how easily Project 60 can be contained in one of today's slim, modern plinths. Very little space is required to house these Sinclair units, and within the space of the motor plinth, you can install a stereo amplifier of the very highest quality, If, for example you have already put together an assembly as illustrated here, adding the Active Filter Unit would be very easy.

## Mains tronsformer for PZ-8

If at any time within 3 months of purchasing Project 60 modules from us, you are dissatisfied with them, we will refund your money at once. Each module is guaranteed to work perfectly and should any cost to you whatsoever provided that it is returned to us within 2 years of purchase date. There will be a small charge for service thereafter. No charge for postage by surface mail. Air-mai charged at cost.



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0.5 watt $5 \%$ resistors 5 off each value $4.7 \Omega$ to IMO

MUS resistors E12 series 50/-. 650 resistors E24 series 100/
$400 \mathrm{~V}: ~ 0.001 \mu \mathrm{~F}, ~ 0.0015 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.0022 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.0033 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.0047 \mu \mathrm{~F}$. $6 \mathrm{~d} .0 .0068 \mu \mathrm{~F}$, $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.015 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.022 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.033 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 7 \mathrm{~d} .0 .047 \mathrm{~F}, 9 \mathrm{~d} .0 .068 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 10 \mathrm{~d}$ $160 \mathrm{~V}:{ }^{\circ} 0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.015 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.022 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.033 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.047 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.068 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 7 \mathrm{~d} .0 .1 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 9 \mathrm{~d}$ $0.15 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.22 \mu \mathrm{~F}$, $11 \mathrm{~d} .0 .33 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 1 / 3$. $0.47 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 1 / 6$. $0.68 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 2 / 3 \mathrm{~F} .1 .0 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 2 / 6$. 250V: P.C. mounting miniature $\pm 20 \%: 0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.015 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.022 \mu \mathrm{~F}$, 7 d $0.033 \mu F, 0.047 \mu F, 0.068 \mu F, 8 d .10 .1 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 9 \mathrm{~d} .0 .15 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 0.22 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 1 /-0.33 \mu \mathrm{~F}, 1 / 4$
MYLAR FILM CAPACITORS MYLAR FILM CAPAC 00.005
CAPACIT Selection of ceramic and polyester capacitors 100 pF to $1.0 \mu \mathrm{~F}$. Total 100 capacitors E2.18.0.

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| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 6 V | $64 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 10 V | $16 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 12 V | $6.4 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V | $50 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 40 V |
| $200 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 6 V | $125 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | $10 V$ | $50 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 12 V | $25 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V | $2.5 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 64 V |
| $320 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 6 V | $200 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | $10 V$ | $100 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | $12 V$ | $B_{j} \mathrm{~F}$ | 40 V | $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 64 V |

$250 \mu \mathrm{~F} 12 \mathrm{~V}, 100 \mu \mathrm{~F} 40 \mathrm{~V} 1 / 6 . \quad 1000 \mu \mathrm{~F} 25 \mathrm{~V} 6 /-. \quad 2500 \mu \mathrm{~F} 25 \mathrm{~V} 9 /-. \quad 500 \mu \mathrm{~F} \quad 50 \mathrm{~V}$ 5/-. $1000 / \mathrm{LF} 50 \mathrm{~V} 81$
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SKELETON PRE-SET POTENTIOMETERS
Linear: $100,250,500$ ohms and decades to $5 \mathrm{Mohm}=20 \% \leqslant 250 \mathrm{k} \Omega,=30 \%$, - $250 \mathrm{k} \Omega$. Horizontal or vertical P.C. mounting ( 0.1 matrix).

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| $2 \frac{1}{2} \times 3 \frac{1}{4}$ | 3/3 | $3 / 6$ | Pin insertion rool | $9 / 6$ | $9 / 6$ |
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 SCOOP:- MADE ESPECIALLY FOR LASKY'S BY FAMOUS MAKER
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TURNTARIE 4 -speed single record playing deek features include: heavy proclaionbuilt turntable, pick-up arm bias compensation, calibrateri styllasiorce adjustment, cueing tevice, rises, returas to rest and switches fif motor. Finish: dark green

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 | 100 |  |
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| d.c. 20 K | 500 mA |
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## SELF-GENERATING

RECENT developments portend a dramatic expansion of what has become popularly known as "Spare Part Surgery", a subject which implicates electronics to a very great extent. Human heart transplants have provided sensational headlines in the recent past. Even more startling are the possibilities of using inorganic replacements for decayed or damaged body organs.
The possibility has become almost a certainty now that electric power can be produced directly from the living system. Several American companies have proved the feasibility of a "biological fuel cell". Tiny electrodes of gold-palladium inserted into the blood stream react with the blood and provide an e.m.f. in a manner reminiscent of the voltaic cell. The amount of current produced is said to be sufficient to power a heart pacemaker for a lifetime. It is suggested that groups of cells could be linked together to form a battery capable of providing greater power. This then leads to the likely use in the future of artificial hearts, which are already in the experimental stage.
Much further work is required before this biological fuel cell materialises as an aid for the surgeon. But in the meanwhile another important innovation in medical electronics is the tiny nuclear-electronic power converter which will operate a heart pacemaker for an estimated 10 years. This "atomic battery" has been well publicised recently following the first implantation of this device in a human patient in this country.

Unlike either the atomic battery or the conventional chemical battery normally used to operate pacemakers, the biological fuel cell is expected to last as long as the body system is functioning. Use of the living system itself to produce electrical energy for electronic or electromechanical transplants is an audacious idea, yet it is a perfectly logical step as technology marches on. The electrical nature of the nervous system is well known, the muscles being servo-operated by minute electric currents generated by chemical reaction at the nerve ends. Thus there is a striking similarity between living systems and man-made electronic systems.

With an internal source of power on tap, there will be greater scope to exploit the latest technical developments in the commendable attempt to alleviate pain and discomfort and to prolong life. But since important ethical principles are involved, the engineer's natural eagerness to advance his own technology must always remain subservient to the opinions of the medical profession and other competent authorities. And this must be seen to be so, to allay any alarm and distress this rather special and intrusive use of technology might cause in the mind of the ordinary person.

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READOUT

Our October issue will be published on<br>Monday, September 14

[^2]
# THE HOMMDUSTAT 

## By D. BOLLEN

| T is sometimes necessary to control the level of humidity in, say, a glasshouse or storeroom. A simple approach is to employ a switch actuated by a humidity sensor. When the level of humidity departs from a required value, the switch closes and applies suitable corrective action. A disadvantage of many humidistats, particularly the hygroscopic and chemical types, is that they need regular re-calibration to maintain accuracy.

The unit described here exploits the well-known principle of the psychrometer, and uses two negative coefficient thermistors to sense humidity. One thermistor is continuously wetted and is placed in a well ventilated position; the process of evaporation makes it slightly cooler than its companion dry thermistor if atmospheric humidity is less than 100 per cent. A definite relationship exists between wet and dry thermistor temperatures for a given level of humidity. Provided that the supply of moisture to the wet thermistor is maintained, and there is not an excessive
build-up of dirt, calibration will hold good for long periods.

## HUMIDITY SENSOR

Consider the circuit and curves of Fig. I. Two thermistors are arranged in the form of a simple potential divider, fed from a fixed input voltage $V_{i}$. When the atmosphere is saturated (humidity 100 per cent) both resistances will have the same nominal value, thus giving a potential divider output of $0.5 \mathrm{~V}_{\mathrm{i}}$. If there is now an ambient temperature change, this will be sensed by both thermistors, and the same resistance ratio and output voltage will be maintained over a wide range of temperature, hence the straight line representing 100 per cent humidity on the graph of Fig. I.

Assume now that humidity has been reduced to 50 per cent, with the ambient temperature standing at 20 degrees Centigrade. Evaporation of moisture from the wet thermistor will reduce its temperature and increase its resistance, but the dry thermistor resistance


Fig. 1. Basic humidity sensor circuit with curves showing how output varies with humidity and temperature
(right) The complete humidity sensor without its case


remains at the 20 degrees Centigrade value. With wet thermistor resistance greater than dry thermistor resistance, the output voltage from the potential divider will have increased to $0.58 V_{\mathrm{i}}$, shown by the 50 per cent humidity curve in Fig. 1.

## ACCURACY

Ideally, the sensor should respond only to changes in humidity and not to variations of ambient temperature. If the two thermistors had a linear resistance/temperature characteristic the curves of Fig. 1 would take the form of straight, sloping lines originating near 0 degrees Centigrade, with slope inversely proportional to humidity. Such a law would render the sensor highly temperature dependent. Fortunately, the natural nonlinearity of the thermistors makes a useful contribution here, by causing a flattening off of the curves between 20 degrees and 30 degrees Centigrade. Remembering that the sensor output was $0.58 V_{i}$ at 20 degrees Centigrade for a 50 per cent level of humidity, it can be
seen from Fig. 1 that there is virtually no change of output when the ambient temperature is increased to above 30 .degrees Centigrade. It follows that the humidistat will offer good accuracy when operated at normal to very warm room temperatures while handling humidity levels of 25 to 100 per cent; this covers the majority of standard applications. However, in environments colder than 20 degrees Centigrade, or hotter than 30 degrees Centigrade, the humidistat will have a higher temperature dependence, and should only be used where the temperature is fairly constant.

## HUMIDISTAT CIRCUIT

The purpose of the humidistat circuit shown in Fig. 2 is to measure and amplify the small voltage changes generated by the thermistor sensor. In Fig. 2, the sensor is represented by thermistors X1 (dry) and X2 (wet). As in Fig. 1, a drop in humidity will increase the resistance of X 2 and cause a rise in output voltage at the junction of X 1 and X 2 .

COMPONENTS . . .

| Resistors |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| RI | $3.3 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R2 | $2.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R3 | $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R4 | $1.5 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R5 | $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R6 | $470 \Omega$ |
| R7 | $150 \Omega$ |
| R8 | $10 \Omega$ |
| All $\pm 10 \%$, $\frac{1}{2}$ watt carbon |  |

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VRI $500 \Omega$ miniature skeleton preset
VR2 $2.5 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ linear carbon or wirewound
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Radiospares TH2A
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TRI BCI07
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DI ZBI2, 12 V 250 mW

## Miscellaneous

RLA Radiospares type IIA relay (see text) Veroboard $0 \cdot 1$ in matrix lin $\times 3 \cdot 4 \mathrm{in}$. Terminal blocks. Plywood. Perforated zinc. TO5 clip-on heat sink (cooler). Expanded polystyrene. Plaster of paris. Epoxy resin glue.


Fig. 2. Circuit diagram of the humidistat

Long-tailed pair TR1 and TR2 in Fig. 2 acts as an amplifying bridge circuit, where the sensor voltage is compared with a reference voltage derived from Zener diode D1, VR1, VR2, R4, R5, and R6. Normally, TR2 is just biased off, with its collector voltage close to that of the positive supply rail. Hence, direct coupled pnp relay driver TR3 will also be off and the relay RLA will not be energised.
Following a slight increase of humidity, the voltage at the junction of X 1 and X 2 will fall, tending to turn TR1


Fig. 3. Dial callbration for VR2


Fig. 4. Power supply for the humidistat
off. At the same time, TR2 and TR3 are turned on, and the relay is energised, closing contacts W and Z .

## CONTROL

One possible way of reducing relative humidity is to heat the air. If relay contacts W and Z are wired in series with the supply to. a domestic type fan heater, corrective action will be applied whenever the level of humidity exceeds a pre-determined value. However, it would be wasteful to have the fan heater responding to every small fluctuation of humidity, switching on and off at frequent intervals. The humidistat circuit therefore incorporates some backlash, which is determined mainly by the beta of TR3 and emitter resistor R8. At a nominal setting of 60 per cent humidity, and with 10 ohms for R8, humidity will cycle between $\pm 3$ per cent of the set value. If a smaller deviation is required, R8 can be shorted out of circuit.

If VR1 in Fig. 2 was used as a set humidity control, the dial graduations would be cramped towards the 100 per cent end of the scale. Most applications involve humidity levels lying between 50 and 100 per cent, and it is desirable that the scale should be expanded over this range. Potentiometer VR2 and R6 across R4 provide the necessary scale correction-when VR2 is used as a set humidity control-and yields the dial calibration shown in Fig. 3, with well-spaced divisions where they are most needed.

Power supply requirements for the Fig. 2 circuit are 15 volts $\pm 2$ volts at up to 100 mA . A simple bridge rectifier and smoothing circuit, similar to that shown in Fig. 4, will serve to power the humidistat.

## CONSTRUCTING THE SENSOR

The wet thermistor is embedded in a block of plaster of paris; this material is extremely porous and can be cleaned readily with an old toothbrush while moist. The plaster block stands in a tin containing water, which is thermally insulated by a covering of expanded polystyrene (ceiling tile), see Fig. 5. Capillary action takes water to the exposed top of the porous block where it then evaporates and cools X2.

Commence construction by fitting sleeving to the
leads of X 2 , then coat the body and sleeved leads of the thermistor with a generous layer of warmed epoxy resin glue. It is most important to ensure that the thermistor is made completely waterproof. A second application of glue, after the first has set hard, is advised, and can be used to attach the thermistor to the expanded polystyrene mould core.

Next, prepare a cardboard mould, with two holes to take the thermistor leads, and fix the polystyrene core inside with small wedges or strips of adhesive tape. Mix the plaster of paris with water, to a thin consistency, and pour into the mould without delay. After several hours, remove the plaster block by tearing away the mould, and leave to dry out completely.

Cut a hole in the mustard tin lid to clear the plaster block, and solder the copper water filler tube to the base of the tin. Paint the tin to prevent rusting. Wind a length of cloth around the copper tube and cover the tin with panels of expanded polystyrene, held in place with adhesive tape.

The dry thermistor Xl can be mounted on a small piece of s.r.b.p. board which is attached to a plywood base, along with a terminal block to take the leads from the remote amplifier panel; see first photograph.

## AMPLIFIER CONSTRUCTION

The amplifier components, within the dotted boundary in Fig. 2, are mounted on a 0.1 inch matrix Veroboard, 10 holes wide by 34 holes long, with copper strips running parallel to the longest side. Component layout and wiring diagrams are given in Fig. 6.

Break the Veroboard copper strips with a spot face cutter in the positions shown in Fig. 6. To avoid overheating the transistors, insert and solder all resistors, VR1, wire links, and flying leads first. Transistor TR 3 should be provided with a clip-on heat sink.

## RELAY

Any relay with a contact rating of 5 to 10 amps at 250 volts a.c., a pull-in voltage of about 6 volts, and a maximum coil current of 100 mA at 12 volts can be used with the humidistat amplifier. The Radiospares type 11 A normally just operates at 9 volts, but the armature return spring can be stretched to increase sensitivity.


## TESTING THE HUMIDISTAT

Lay out the humidistat amplifier panel on a bench or table, and connect up the sensor ( X 1 and X 2 ), the relay RLA, the set humidity potentiometer VR2, and a 15 volt d.c. supply. Colour coded connections are shown in Fig. 6. Ensure that the X2 plaster block is completely dry, and has attained ambient temperature.

Set VR1 fully anti-clockwise and VR2 at maximum resistance. The relay should be energised. Now rotate VRI slowly clockwise until the relay armature just drops out. Try rocking the spindle of VR2 to make the relay contacts open and close. The maximum resistance setting of VR2 now corresponds to 100 per cent humidity, with the relay just opening as VR2 slider approaches the end of its track.

As a final check, set VR2 slider at the mid-track position and warm XI by gripping between the thumb and forefinger. After a short delay the relay armature should drop out, then pull in again as X 1 is allowed to cool. During final assembly, when the amplifier panel is placed in a box, take care not to alter VRI setting.


## EXAMPLES OF HUMIDITY CONTROL


(b)

(c)

Fig. 7. Equipment for decreasing humidity: (a) fan heater, (b) dew-point condenser, (c) desiccator

(a)

Fig. 8. Equipment for increasing humidity: (a) water spray, (b) steam jet

(b)

## HOUSING THE AMPLIFIER

Amplifier panel, power pack, and relay can be conveniently mounted inside a small wood or metal box, together with a terminal block to take the leads from the thermistor sensor and humidity control equipment. Alternatively, the humidistat assembly could form part of the main equipment inside a single housing, with the sensor situated elsewhere in a well ventilated position.

Mount the set humidity control VR2 on the front panel of the box, with a calibrated scale traced from Fig. 3. If desired, the calibration can be checked against a wet and dry bulb hygrometer, after filling the humidistat water reservoir.

## DECREASING HUMIDITY

To decrease humidity in an environment, the air can either be heated, cooled down to dew-point to condense out the water vapour, or passed through a desiccant. The first method has the advantage of simplicity, but also carries the penalty of an uncontrolled temperature change, which may not be satisfactory for glasshouses or rooms where people are working.

In Fig. 7a, a 1 to 2 kilowatt fan heater is wired in series with a mains supply and the normally open contacts W and Z of RLA1. The heater is switched on when ambient humidity rises above the level set by VR2.

Although more complicated, the technique of cooling air to condense out water vapour is very effective. In Fig. 7b, air from a fan is directed over fins which are cooled by a refrigerant. Excess water vapour condenses on the fins and drips into a water container, then the air is reheated to bring it back to its original temperature. Control of both humidity and temperature is easy to achieve with the one unit, by placing a thermostat in series with the heating element.

To construct a de-humidifier similar to that shown in Fig. 7b, air could be directed around the ice box of an old refrigerator, and elements taken from an electric toaster would serve to re-heat the air.

If air is blown over a desiccant, such as calcium chloride, water vapour is extracted from the air to form a saturated solution on the surface of the chemical, which drips away to expose a fresh, absorbant surface. Over a period of time, the solid desiccant is converted to a liquid. The advantage of using a desiccant for air drying is that it does not introduce any significant change of air temperature. In Fig. 7c, the calcium chloride is contained in a tray, with the air flow from a fan arranged to pass over and through the desiccant.

## INCREASING HUMIDITY

Some environments are naturally dry, and water vapour has to be added to the air to maintain humidity at a constant level. Note here that the control equipment is wired to RLAl contacts W and Y , so that corrective action takes place with a drop in humidity.

Looking at Fig. 8a, a fan blows air at high velocity over a needle valve jet to form a fine water spray. Evaporation will cause some degree of air cooling and it may be found necessary to heat the water in the spray container to offset the change of air temperature.

In Fig. 8b, a small boiler is heated by an immersion element. The water in the boiler is maintained close to boiling point by efficient thermal lagging. At a command from the humidistat, the heater is switched on, the water boils, and a jet of steam adds water vapour to the air. Steam heat will, of course, tend to raise the air temperature.


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## PRACTICAL

## OCTOBER ISSUE

- ON SALE SEPTEMBER 14 -


THE pick-up to be described is a moderately high impedance unit which will readily match any commercial guitar amplifier. It is ideal for mounting in solid guitars but can be adapted for use with acoustic instruments.

There are few parts required including six small magnets and a coil mounted on a platform or base, preferably made of steel. The magnets employed in this design are bar or rod type.

## MAGNET ASSEMBLY

The magnet assembly is made up on a small piece of 18 s.w.g. bright mild steel sheet $\frac{3}{4}$ in wide by $2 \frac{1}{2}$ in long. Mark the centre line along the length of the strip and mark off six stations at $\frac{3}{8}$ in intervals (or dimensions to suit your guitar string spacings if different) along this line. Work from the centre to each end in turn when marking these string spacings.

At these six points, drill six holes through the strip with an eleven sixtyfourths drill. Lightly ream the holes with the tag end of a suitable file so that the magnets are a firm push fit in the holes (see Fig. 1). Drill a small hole $\frac{1}{8}$ in dia. as indicated for the wires. The assembly is now ready to accept the coil.

## MAKING THE COIL FORMER

Coil winding may, at first, sound formidable but, in fact, is quite easy, although patience and care are required. The coil should have a d.c. resistance of about 5 kilohms and will require 5,000 turns of 47 s.w.g. enamelled copper wire. This is obtainable from some of the component suppliers advertising in this magazine: about 2 ounces will be enough for this coil.

To construct a bobbin or former (as shown in Fig. 2) a scrap of 4 in or 6 mm ply about 2 in square and two pieces of $\frac{1}{16}$ sheet s.r.b.p. about 3 in square and four 6B.A. nuts and bolts are required.


Fig. I. Magnet assembly with the six magnets in position ready to accept the coil


Fig. 2. Exploded view of the coil formers, showing how the pieces are assembled. Lower left-how the tying cotton is positioned under the tape before winding



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Begin by marking and cutting the ply into a disc 1 in in diameter and do the same with the sheet s.r.b.p. making these 2 in diameter. Drill through the centre of all three pieces with a number 12 drill and assemble temporarily, bolting together with a 2B.A. nut and bolt.

Mark off and drill four holes with a number 32 drill at 90 degree intervals half an inch from the centre. The former can now be dismantled and the wood centre piece cut in half across its diameter. Reassemble the former, bolting together with the four 6B.A. nuts and bolts and note that the centre now has two slots across its face the thickness of the saw cut.
Drill a small hole in one cheek plate just outside the periphery of the wooden centre for a lead-out wire.

## PREPARING FOR WINDING

A temporary set-up for turning the former can be provided by a hand drill fixed in a vice; alternatively a slow turning lathe with hand clutch would be useful. Check the gear ratio of the hand drill to determine the turns required to rotate the bobbin 5,000 times. This can be done by counting the teeth. Divide the number of turns of wire required $(5,000)$ by the gear ratio of the drill and this will indicate the number of times the handle must be turned.
Now prepare the bobbin for winding but first ascertain that the edges of the "cheeks" are very smooth or they will cut the wire, which is only 0.002 in diameter and needs careful handling.
A few "odds and ends" will be needed; these are four lengths of sewing cotton each about 6 in long, some thin insulating tape (not transparent cellulose adhesive tape) fin wide and a foot or so of very thin p.v.c. covered flexible wire (size $7 / 0048$ ). About a foot of thin screened pick-up wire and a thin polythene bag are also required.
Begin by cutting a piece of the tape of sufficient length to go round the centre of the former with about an inch to spare (about 6in). A rounded or slightly angled cut across one end will make the tape easy to introduce into one of the slots. Push the tape about half an inch into one of the slots and, sticky side outermost, wrap the tape round the former.
Place a length of cotton across the cheeks, trapping it beneath the tape. Place the remaining lengths of cotton similarly at equal spacings round the bobbin and continue wrapping the tape, finishing with about half an inch over-lap at the slot where you started. Fig. 2 shows one cotton trapped beneath the tape.
The four loose ends of cotton on each side of the bobbin can now be taped temporarily to the face of the cheeks to prevent them from getting in the way when rotating the bobbin.
Cut a length of the thin p.v.c. wire about 3 in long and bare and tin about $\frac{1}{8}$ in at both ends. Carefully bare the end of the enamelled copper wire for about an inch by rubbing very lightly all round with fine sandpaper. The copper will show brighter when cleaned. Wrap this around the tinned end of the thin p.v.c. covered wire and lightly coat with solder.

A hand drill can now be fixed in a vice (turning hand uppermost) and the bobbin fixed to the chuck by means of a 2B.A. bolt which is already fixed through the centre hole of the bobbin with a nut. Check that the bobbin does not slip when the chuck is rotated.

## WINDING THE COIL

The p.v.c. wire, with the 47 s.w.g. wire attached, can be threaded through the hole in the cheek of the bobbin. Leave the soldered joint just inside the hole and tape

Six Eclipse bar magnets $\frac{3}{16}$ in $\times \frac{1}{2}$ in (James Neill \& Co. (Sheffield) Ltd., Napier Street, Sheffield II) Miniature p.v.c. wire $7 / .0048$<br>Enamelled copper wire 47 s.w.g. (2 ounce reel)<br>Bondaglass casting resin and catalyst<br>Bondaglass colouring pigment<br>Bondaglass release agent No. 2<br>Miniature screened lead, single conductor (Ift)<br>Steel sheet 18 s.w.g. I sq ft<br>S.R.B.P. sheet $\frac{1}{16}$ in thick, 3 in $\times 6$ in<br>Scrap of $\frac{1}{4}$ in plywood about 2 in square<br>Wood strip lin square $\times 3 \frac{1}{2}$ in long

down to the sticky face of the lining tape with another short length of masking tape. The beginning of the winding will be securely held.

The reel of 47 s.w.g. wire can be stood on one end and the wire will run over the upper end as the chuck is rotated, if we position the reel beneath the chuck. It is important that the enamel coating on the $47 \mathrm{~s} . \mathrm{w} . \mathrm{g}$. is not scraped or damaged and the wire is not allowed to kink.
Guide the wire on to the bobbin very lightly with one hand while slowly turning the drill handle with the other. Endeavour to pile it evenly across the width of the former. Five thousand turns of wire should just fill to within about $3_{3}^{3}$ in from the outer edge of the cheeks of the bobbin.

When the winding is complete, hold the winding firmly so that it does not work loose, then attach a p.v.c. lead-out wire to a bared end of the winding. Before removing from the chuck, un-tape the ends of the cotton and lightly tie the mating ends over the coil, then cut a few strips about $\frac{1}{2}$ in wide from the polythene bag.

After removing the bobbin from the chuck, dismantle by removing the four 6B.A. bolts and the cheek plates. Push out the wood centre, being especially careful not to catch any of the loops of wire, and cut off the surplus masking tape that was threaded into the slot in the centre of the coil.
Position the two p.v.c. leads together and carefully bind the coil with the polythene strips by passing through the centre hole and half-lapping the strip edges. A termination to the binding can be made effectively by applying a spot of polystyrene cement to the polythene and welding the join.
The circular bound coil which results can now be quite safely squeezed into an oblong shape and fitted over the magnets. Feed the two p.v.c. wire ends through the hole in the platform.

View of pick-up mounted on an $f$-hole guitar


If an ohmmeter is available check the coil resistance. If the coil does not fit snugly enough on the magnets it can be tied in position with further lengths of cotton.

## RESIN MOULD

The completed pick-up assembly is moulded in resin; Bondaglass casting resin or similar products can be used to encapsulate the pick-up assembly. It is supplied with the accelerator ready mixed and only requires the catalyst to be added. The resin is clear so a colouring pigment can be added if desired.

A mould must be made in which to encapsulate the pick-up; this can be made from brass, copper or steel. Do not use plastics or card. The finished "case" can be any size to suit the constructor's needs or taste, but a suitable size would be about $3 \frac{3}{4}$ in long, lin wide and $\frac{5}{8}$ in deep, with parallel sides and radiused ends as suggested in Fig. 3.

The base plate of the mould is about one inch larger all round than the body dimensions. The sides are pre-formed round a wood block cut and shaped to the intended finished case size. The metal is butt jointed in the centre of one side and a capping plate sweated over the join on the outside.


Fig. 3. Suggested mould for casting the pick-up body. The material used would preferably be 18 s.w.g. brass, copper or steel


Pick-up mould and the finished casting removed from it

Cut a piece of metal (not aluminium) about 3 in by 5 in for the base and a strip the same width as the intended height of the pick-up of suitable size to shape round the block, also a small piece for the seam cover. The seam cover is best sweated over the joint whilst the side is still round the block.

Position the body on the base and thoroughly clean the surfaces to be joined. Use a large soldering iron to run a solder fillet all round the join. Some assistance may be required to perform this operation.

When the mould is cool, clean up the inside and polish with metal polish. The resin will faithfully reproduce the detail of any surface against which it is cast, so all surplus solder and other projections must be cleaned off.

Now is a good time to attach the screened lead to the pick-up assembly. Make the join as close to the platform as possible and connect the outer terminal wire of the coil to the screen, soldering both to the platform, so earthing the metal work. The inner termination of the coil is connected to the inner conductor of the screened lead and insulated.

## CASTING

Place the pick-up assembly centrally in the mould and note the position of the two end magnets. Mark their position and drill two holes (number 26 drill) in the base of the mould to coincide with the position the magnets occupy. These will be "release" holes. Remove the pick-up assembly.

The inside of the mould should now be coated with a "releasing" agent, such as the alcohol based liquid prepared especially for metal moulds by the resin manufacturer. Let this dry thoroughly whilst mixing the resin and pigment to the maker's recommendations. Measure out sufficient resin to fill the mould, using an empty glass jar or similar container.

On the underside of the mould base, cover the release holes with pieces of masking tape pressed down firmly and place the pick-up assembly centrally in the mould with the platform uppermost. Tape'the screened lead to the outside of the mould to keep it under control whilst the resin is setting.

The catalyst may now be added to the resin (follow the maker's instruction). Pour some of the mixture into the mould at one end and tilt slightly to enable the resin to run more freely between the magnets and coil.

Continue pouring the resin in slowly at one end so as to prevent the formation of air bubbles, until the mould is full. The casting will set in about 40 minutes but is best left for a couple of hours to "cure" before removing from the mould.

When'it is ready for removal peel off the tape covering the release holes and insert a 4B.A. bolt in the holes alternately, tapping very gently with a light hammer; after a few taps the casting should come readily out of the mould. The top edge all round the casting should then be slightly chamferred or radiused with a fine file, the whole body being finally polished with metal polish or, better still, buffed on a polishing mop if one is available.

## MOUNTING THE PICK-UP

Reference to Fig. 4 will show a method of mounting which needs little explanation. This method, basically, is adopted almost universally by professional guitar makers. Mount the finished pick-up on a strip of metal the same width as the body and about $4 \frac{1}{2}$ in long, inserting two small pieces of foam plastic or felt between them and glueing with impact adhesive.


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PICKUP WELL IN BODY OF SOLID GUITAR PLATE DRILLED AND TAPPED 6BA
Fig. 4. Pick-up fitted in the well of a solid guitar body

The body of solid instruments has a "well" of suitable dimensions cut to about half the thickness of the body, or a little less, at a position close to the end of the finger board, and another close to the position the bridge will occupy when two pick-ups are fitted. These wells are interconnected by a channel to take wiring and controls and the whole is covered by an artistically shaped plastics plate known as a "scratch" plate, to which pick-ups and controls are attached.

The usual method of attaching the pick-up (Fig. 4) is to mount it on a metal plate, with a tapped hole at each end and about half an inch away from the pick-up body. Corresponding holes are drilled in the scratch plate through which are passed boits to screw in to the tapped holes in the mounting plate. The bolts also pass through coiled compression springs positioned between the mounting plate and the underside of the scratch plate. On some American made instruments, rubber grommets are used instead of springs.

The action of turning the bolts or screws will cause the mounting plate to come closer or further away from the scratch plate, so adjusting the height of the pick-up relative to the strings. Two or even three of these pick-ups may be so fitted with whatever switching and control arrangement the player may decide.

Acoustic instruments of the " $f$ " sound hole type can also be fitted with this pick-up, provided the strings are of sufficient height above the top of the guitar body. In ihis case, the pick-up should be equipped with "feet" cut from thin felt and lightly spot glued to the top of the guitar just forward of the end of the finger board. This will not impair the acoustic qualities of the instrument. The scratch plate on this type of instrument is usually mounted on brackets holding it some distance away from the body and will accommodate volume and tone controls quite readily in most instances.
In use, the pick-up will be very robust, completely impervious to moisture and likely to give many years of unfailing service. Frequency response is fairly linear and the output should be in the region of at least 200 mV peak-to-peak.

A pick-up having four poles suitably spaced for a bass guitar can be made in exactly the same way but in this instance the coil should have a d.c. resistance of approximately 8 kilohms.
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## FIRST CHINESE SATELLITE

China's first successful launch of an earth satellite took place on April 24, 1970. Peking announced the event the next day on a frequency of 20.009 MHz .

The satellite signals were of an unusual nature in that there was a one minute cycle of alternate music and telemetry. The music consisted of five bars of ""Tungfanghung" (The East is Red).
G. E. Perry at Kettering Grammar school, well known for his tracking of Russian satellites and probes, picked up the signals at the end of the twelfth orbit at 14.02 UT on April 25. His analysis of the signals showed that the first 40 seconds of the one minute period was devoted to the musical theme. This was followed by an interval of 5 seconds, a 10 second transmission of telemetry and a further interval of 5 seconds. After this the cycle was repeated.

The telemetry consists of audio tones in steps of 13.6 Hz . The duration of the first tone, which is of the same frequency as the highest musical frequency, has a duration of twice the time of the succeeding tones. The frequency is one hundred times the minimum difference between tones. The first tone is followed by 20 tones of equal duration followed by several rapid tones. Perry suggests that the outputs are quantised at 32 levels before transmission and points out that there is the possibility that the readout is a five-bit binary code.

## APOLLO 14

The launch of Apollo 14 will not now take place before January 31, 1971. The crew, Alan Shephard, Stuart Roosaand and Edgar Michell will make for the Apollo 13 moon site at the hilly Fra Mauro area.

The necessary modifications recommended by the Apollo 13 review board are being implemented. The principal changes will include stainless steel tubes to carry the wiring inside tanks in place of Teflon. The fans used to stir up the liquid oxygen will be removed from the tanks to obviate the need of wires that might introduce a fire hazard.
An additional oxygen tank will be added to the service module and will be used when the normal tanks are 70 per cent emptied. Oxygen
tank failure alarins are to be fitted and additional warning and alarm to watch sub-systems operation are being added. Some of these will operate in the spacecraft and some at the ground control centre at Houston.

## TRACKING STATION IN SPAIN

The third and final link which will form the world-wide tracking system of three main stations spaced equidistant round the earth has just been completed in Spain, 40 miles from Madrid. This facility will enable continuous monitoring of spacecraft several hundred million miles into space. It is possible that under certain conditions the monitoring may extend to the edge of the solar system.

The US National and Aeronautics Space Administration have an agreement with the Instituto de Technica Aerospacial for this new facility, in addition to that one existing and using the 85 foot antennas for deep space tracking. The three larger stations with 210 foot antennas (one at Goldstone in USA, one at Tidbinbilla near Canberra and the new one near-Madrid) will greatly extend the efficiency of the system.

At Goldstone the antenna has for several months been used to study the Einstein relativity theory. This uses the signals from the small 7 watt transmitters aboard Mariner 6 and Mariner 7 which are moving in orbit behind the sun. The distances at which successful contact has been made is 251 million miles for Mariner 6 and 242 million miles for Mariner 7.

## WEIGHTLESSNESS

The recent Russian long period orbital experiments with astronauts is reported to have revealed a number of effects which need careful and objective appraisal.

Future manned flights to Mars will require very long periods in the artificial environment of a spacecraft and generally the problem of environment can be solved by the improvements that can be made in the life support systems. However, the medical considerations of weightlessness and its effects on the human body are important and must influence the progress that is to be made in planetary exploration.

## MINERAL DEFICIENCY

The two-man Gemini flights revealed that the minerals important to the human skeleton were very much depleted. If this continued in spite of enriched calcium diet and exercise, such as on a spaceflight of many months, then a fragility of bone could arise.

Another more serious process is that known as cardiovascular deconditioning, which leads to an impairment of the circulatory system. On earth, in normal gravitation conditions, the lower limbs have about a litre of blood indistribution. During weightlessness there is a redistribution and some blood rises to the chest level. This can produce a distention of the vessels near the heart and also an increase in urine output. The result of this is that the amount of blood in circulation is reduced by more than 10 per cent.

These changes are not of great importance in moonflights. All the astronauts showed an unsteadiness on their feet on return but this passed off fairly quickly. Long flights of many months to Mars, for example, could mean that even in the reduced gravitational field that exists on that planet the astronauts might need time to recover before they could carry out their physical tasks.

It is clear that there is much work to be done in this field before extensive manned flights can be undertaken. It may be that a form of artificial gravity will need to be built in the spacecraft. Provision of adequate exercising facilities, so designed that gravity can be simulated, could be a more simple answer. It may well be that there is a minimum level of gravity required to offset these effects, in which case the problem may not be a formidable or costly one.

Only after long periods of weightlessness have been experienced can it be decided just how important the effects described are to the future well being of the astronaut and any other space traveller.

## URANUS AND NEPTUNE

Two Russian astronomers have recently suggested that the temperatures at the centre of the Uranus and Neptune planets is very high. These two members of the Moscow Institute of Earth Physics put forward the hypothesis that only the outer surface down to a depth of a few hundred kilometers has cooled to any great extent during the time since their formation.

Assuming a period of 5 billion years and a surface temperature of $-173^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, then the interior or core temperature will be of the order of $26,400^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for Uranus and $31,000^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ for Neptune. From this they conclude that the planets have hot cores and icy surfaces. This hypothesis can be tested, for if the planet; have a magnetic field it will support the idea of a hot interior.


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## PART THREE-By R. W. COLES

## DIODE TRANSISTOR LOGIC

Diode Transistor Logic, like RTL, was initially used in discrete component form, the general circuitry will therefore be familiar to many readers who have had any experience of logic design.
Again like RTL, DTL was an early starter in the integrated circuit field, and since its inception, has become very popular with system designers because of its range of advantages coupled with a low price tag.
A departure from the usual trend in i.c. logic, DTL is available in several variations, depending on the manufacturer, but these variations are not basic, and in this discussion we will deal with what can be considered the "typical" trend in DTL characteristics at the present time.
One of the major features of recent DTL circuitry is its compatibility with what must certainly be the king of i.c. logic, the Transistor Transistor Logic family (TTL). Manufacturers now offer these two families under a common title of CCSL (compatible current sinking logic); the advantage of this compatibility will become obvious when TTL is dealt with later in this series.

## BASIC DTL GATE

The building block on which DTL circuitry is based is the basic gate arrangement shown in Fig. 3.1. This is employed in the various gates, flip-flops, and monostables available in this family, with only minor changes. If this circuit is analysed, it will be a simple matter to understand the more complex arrangements described later.

Unlike RTL, the DTL gate is used as either a positive logic NAND gate, or a negative logic NOR gate, the gate operation being of the current sinking type. The components on the silicon chip, from which the circuit is constructed, are diodes, npn transistors, and silicon resistors.

The only other component to be utilised in any of the more complex arrangements, is a capacitor, formed by a reverse biased diode, but this is only used in a certain kind of flip-flop, and the monostable.

## CURRENT SINKING

Fig. 3.2 shows a "skeleton" version of the basic gate, which is included to make explanation simple, and to show the current sinking path into an external circuit (gate 1). The inputs to the gate are applied to diodes D1 and D2, and may comprise either a positive voltage (which will reverse bias the input diodes), or an effective ground path (through a bottomed output transistor in a previous gate) which allows current to flow out of the diodes to earth.

TR1 is an emitter follower, providing current (not voltage) gain, and allowing the use of a fairly large resistor in the R1 position, thus limiting the current which can flow out of the input diodes. This is desirable, as this current will, of course, have to be sunk by the output of another gate.

Any reduction here will increase the number of inputs an output can handle, i.e. the fan-out will be increased. Diode D3 is used to increase the voltage necessary at the base of TR1, before TR2 will turn on, to give a "low" output. The total voltage which will be necessary, in fact, is the sum of the $V_{\text {be }}$ of TR1 and TR2, and the forward voltage drop of D3, making about 1.8 volts in all.

TR2 is the current sinking, or output device, and is connected in the common emitter configuration to provide both current and voltage gain. When this


Fig. 3.1. Basic gate circuit of DTL


Fig. 3.2. Two gate i.c.s connected to illustrate current sinking path

| $A$ | $B$ | OUTPUT <br> $C$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 |


| $A$ | $B$ | OUTPUT <br> C |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 |



Fig. 3.3. Logic symbols of (a) positive logic NAND gate and (b) negative logic NOR gate with truth tables


Fig. प3.4. Typical dual gate expander integrated circuit. The two halves can be used together or separately


Fig. 3.5a. Circuit layout


Fig. 3.5b. Symbolic layout

(c)

Fig. 3.5c. Typical opplication
Fig. 3.5. Wired-OR logic circuits
transistor is off, the full positive supply, $V_{c c}$, is fed out of the gate, via R 4 , reverse biasing any following gate input connected to it.

When TR2 is turned hard on, it provides the earth path for any following connected inputs. The voltage at the collector of TR2 in this condition is determined by the number of inputs connected. This number is limited so that this voltage does not rise above 450 mV in practice.

## DYNAMIC CONDITIONS

Let us now consider this gate under various input conditions. If one of the inputs is low, current will flow out of the diode concerned. The voltage presented to the base of TRI will be the sum of the output voltage of the previous gate (which is a maximum of 450 mV in the low state) and the forward drop of the input diode (about 600 mV ).

As the voltage necessary to turn on TR1 and TR2 is 1.8 V , these transistors will not turn on, and the output will be high, at $+V_{\mathrm{CC}}$.

If both inputs are high, both the input diodes will be reverse biased; the base of TR1 will be effectively connected to $+V_{\mathrm{CC}}$ through R1, turning TR1 and TR2 hard on and giving a low output.

From this it can be seen that using positive logic any " 0 " input will give a " 1 " output, and two " 1 " inputs will give a " 0 " output (i.e. NAND). Using negative logic, any 1 input will give a 0 output, and two 0 inputs will give a 1 output (i.e. NOR). The logic
diagrams for these two configurations, and the truth tables showing their performance for various inputs, are given in Fig. 3.3.

## EXPANDER INPUTS

Each of the integrated circuit families has its own unique family characteristics, not only in the circuitry used, but also in the way it may be used to implement logic functions. DTL incorporates several very useful features which can simplify logic layouts considerably.

A scan through any manufacturer's catalogue shows that many of the gates have "expander" inputs avaiiable, and an example of this is shown in Fig. 3.1. This input gives direct access to the base of the first transistor, by-passing the input diodes. As its name suggests, it is intended to allow the connection of extra diodes to increase the fan-in of the gate.

These extra input diodes may be discrete silicon switches, or, more usually, they may be in the form of another i.c. package, usually containing about eight diodes, as shown in Fig. 3.4.

It can be seen that this gate expander has further expander inputs, and in fact the number of inputs to the basic gate can be increased to more than twenty by this method, without adversely affecting its operation.

## WIRED "OR"

The outputs of the standard series of DTL gates may be connected together to produce what is called the "wired-or" logic function. This most useful feature
allows the outputs of several gates to be connected together as an OR function without any extra components being used.

This function, which may also be called "dot-or" or "distributive-or", was used in logic designs before the advent of integrated circuits, because it effected real economies.
The operation of wired-or is quite simple, and is shown in Fig. 3.5a. If either of the output transistors is cut on, it will sink the current through the output resistors of both gates, giving a common low level output. The only affect this will have on the gate concerned, is a slight reduction of fan-out, because of the reduction in the effective value of the load resistance.

If both gate outputs are low at the same time, the same result will be produced, and only if both gates have high level outputs will the wired-or output rise. Although this operation is called wired-or, it could also be called "wired-AND" if negative logic is assumed, because the outputs of both gates have to be high to give a high output.
By connecting the outputs together in this way the fan-out available is reduced; in practice it may be assumed that for each extra gate output, the fan-out is reduced by one load.

## IMPROVING FAN-OUT

To overcome the slight disadvantage of losing fan-out capability when using wired-or with standard DTL gates, an alternative gate is available without an internal load resistor. This type of gate can be wired together with an external resistor equal to one standard load or, alternatively, a group of these gates may be combined with a single standard gate. This will provide the necessary load without recourse to a discrete resistor.
In both of these cases the fan-out will be the same as for a single standard gate, no matter how many gates are involved.

## A SIMPLE EXAMPLE

As a simple example of the use of this important logic function, consider Fig. 3.5c, which represents part of a digital computer. Here a dual two-input gate is used to route data from one of two shift registers; into a third, in serial form.
The instruction to load data from register $\mathbf{A}$ or $\mathbf{B}$, is in the form of a positive logic 1 , fed to the appropriate two-input gate from the control unit, which will in turn be controlled by the programme. The data from the two source registers is in the inverted form (data) so that after passing through the NAND gate, it will be restored to its true form.
The action of this system is quite simple. If the programme requires that data from register A be transferred to C, a logical one is applied to the control input of gate $X$, and shift pulses are applied to both registers.
The data from A will therefore open or close gate X, depending on whether ones or noughts are present, and the true data will be shifted into C.

Alternatively, if the programme requires that data from B should be transferred, then a logic 1 will be applied to gate Y , the action continuing as before. The logic for this operation could be expressed as A and $\overline{L A}$ or $\bar{B}$ and $\overline{L B}$, where LA and LB are the control signals.

## SPEED

Diode Transistor Logic is generally rated as a medium speed family, though some manufacturers offer variations which may be either much faster or slower than the average. A good example of this is the Ferranti Micronor II series which is roughly twice as fast as what we will be taking as the "typical" DTL characteristic.
The speed of a logic gate, usually called its propagation delay, may be defined as the time taken to produce an appropriate output level after the arrival of a certain input level. For DTL this time is usually of the order of 40 ns . In practical terms this means that any pulse applied to a gate input which is not substantially longer than 40 ns , will not have any affect on the gate output.

The figure of 40 ns is only a typical value; under certain output conditions the delay will be longer or shorter. In addition, there are quite different figures for delay to high-level output, and delay to low-level output, due to the change in output impedance of the gate.

When the output level is dropping, the output transistor will be turned on, and the output impedance will be equal to the saturation resistance of the transistor, perhaps 50 ohms.

When the output level is rising the transistor will be turned off, and the output impedance will be equal to the load resistance, typically 6 kilohms.

As the main factor affecting the propagation delay is the effective capacitive load on the gate, it can be seen that this differing output impedance will in turn give a delay time which depends on whether the gate output is rising or falling.

## FLIP-FLOP

There are usually two types of flip-flop in any manufacturer's DTL range, the d.c. coupled type, referred to as a JK element, and the capacitively coupled type, referred to-as a pulse triggered binary.

The former type can be operated at up to about 8 MHz , depending on the exact circuitry used. It is used in shift registers as well as counters and frequency dividers. The latter type is specifically designed for high speed counters and dividers operating at up to 20 MHz .

It is unlikely that the speed of a logic family will be of importance to any amateur experimenter, as most designs will be run at lower speeds than the maximum available, even with a slow logic type. However, there is one speed problem which is important, even in designs which run very slowly indeed; this concerns the rise time of the clock pulse in counters or shift registers.

## CLOCK PULSE

Of the two types of flip-flop mentioned above, the pulse triggered type requires a very fast clock pulse rise time which must not be longer than 25 ns. The d.c. coupled flip-fiop does not require anything like such a rapid rise time, but it is recommended to keep it below $2 \mu \mathrm{~s}$ or trouble may be experienced.
As a general rule, no matter how infrequently each clock pulse occurs, it is vital to ensure that its leading edge is very fast, so fast in fact that the resolution available on the simpler oscilloscopes will make it immeasurable.

This problem is not as difficult to solve as it may sound, because any clock pulse edge which is too slow may be speeded up by using a DTL gate as a buffer. If
necessary, more than one gate may be used in series, each gate speeding up the clock pulse leading edge by at ieast ten times.

If, however, the source of clock pulses has a very poor rise time (for example, those derived from sine waves), it is best to use a Schmitt trigger circuit to speed them up. An example of both methods is shown in Fig. 3.6.

In the first example (Fig. 3.6a) the clock pulses are derived from a conventional multivibrator, and speeded up by two gates in series.

In the second example (Fig. 3.6b) the pulses are derived from the 50 Hz mains, via a Zener diode rectifier-squarer, the speed-up being performed by a simple complementary Schmitt trigger. The output of this is passed through a single gate to increase the speedup and provide the fan-out necessary to drive several flip-flop clock inputs.

## FAN-OUT

As we have already investigated the subject of fan-out when dealing with RTL, it is not necessary to go very deeply into this specification when considering DTL. The reasons why fan-out is limited have been mentioned when dealing with the circuit of the basic gate. The
guide, under the very worst conditions, the smallest value for noise immunity is 200 mV . Under normal operating conditions a noise voltage of at least 500 mV is necessary to upset the operation of a gate or flip-flop.

As a practical guide, if a system occasionally malfunctions, and the design can be considered sound, noise may be suspected as the cause.

The first thing to consider is adequate supply decoupling. It is best to decouple the 5 V supply line every five i.c. packages with a capacitor of about $0 \cdot 1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ to ensure that noise voltage spikes are prevented from travelling via this line from one package to another.

The next "noise-abatement" rule is never to use connecting wires (or printed circuit runs) of longer than about 12 in . This minimises the risk of pick-up, and also prevents "transmission-line", reflections that can occur due to the fast square leading edges present when gates switch.

## OUTPUT LOGIC LEVELS

The output voltage of a DTL gate, under various loading conditions, has a major implication on the noise immunity of a system.

discussion of the wired-or function mentioned the special fan-out rules to be employed in that special case.

The fan-out of the DTL gate is normally quoted as eight loads, or gate inputs. However, in cases where a greater driving capability is required, a special buffer gate is available which has a fan-out of 25 loads, making it particularly useful for driving long clock lines.

The circuit of the buffer gate follows the same principles as the basic gate, except that an extra transistor is used to provide increased current gain.

## NOISE IMMUNITY

Due to the circuitry used in the basic DTL gate, it is difficult to evolve any simple rule to describe the effects of noise pulses on a logic system. The immunity varies with fan-out, supply voltage, temperature, noise polarity, and gate output level.

A detailed discussion of all of these variables would be out of place in an article such as this, but as a useful

The worst case output voltages of a gate are those used to derive the noise immunity figures given previously. When a gate output is high, the only current it is called upon to supply is the leakage of the input diodes of other gates connected to it. This current will be very small, so the voltage dropped across the output load resistor will also be very small.

It is most unlikely that the high level gate output voltage will drop below 3 V , even at maximum fan-out.
In the low level output state, however, the output transistor will be called upon to sink a much larger forward current from the same input diodes, but as the resistance of a saturated transistor is much lower than that of the output load resistor, the output voltage in this state is unlikely to rise above 400 mV .

Next month a simple application-a slide projector delay timer-will be described which employs only four DTL packages and a few discrete components.

## OHIWHETHNGL



## ANTIQUE RECORDINGS

When talking about recordings we generally think in terms of tape or LP's or maybe the earlier types made on cylinders. Could there have ever been recordings made before this on any other type of medium? I was pondering the possibilities of this only a few weeks back and by a peculiar coincidence saw a letter by a fellow from New Jersey, USA, who has come across some pretty staggering facts.

It has been suggested that the process of making hand-thrown clay pots or even the brushstrokes produced in painting a canvas, could result in the direct mechanical recording of short snatches of conversation or other ambient sounds present at the time.

To check the hypothesis a pick-up cartridge, suitably furnished with a large wooden stylus and connected to a simple amplifier and headphones, was held against a newly-made pot that was allowed to revolve on a well balanced turntable. Now it was previously known that the potter's wheel used to produce the pot had developed a pronounced "chatter" and so on "play-back" the same anomaly was expected to be heard.

Indeed this seems to have been the case, but more interesting still, it appears that odd sounds made during the fashioning of the pot also could be detected! Similar effects, I understand, have been noticed in brushstrokes made with oil paints. If

you like the idea and would care to experiment, here's a set-up that seems to work:

Hook up a taut canvas to a small wooden stretcher or frame and arrange things so that it can be free to vibrate. To ensure that this is so you will need gently to apply an old pick-up stylus to the canvas (connect the pick-up to the input of an amplifier, see Fig. 1) and "speak to it". Assuming all is O.K. you should hear your voice. If a few brushstrokes are made while a radio or other source of noise is functioning nearby and then allowed to dry hard, subsequent examination of the strokes with a magnifying glass should reveal that certain strokes do carry the expected striations. Actually, if you can run the stylus over the canvas at the correct speed, a brief snatch (possibly distorted!) of the original is likely to be heard.

If you can afford a Ming vase or a Constable it might be worth a bit more research to see whether any hidden secrets became enmeshed in the finished work!

## TACTILE IMAGER

Have you ever thought just how perceptive your skin is? Indeed, you might fancy performing a little experiment to demonstrate this point! First blindfold yourself, then ask your wife or girl friend to "write" on the back of your hand with the end of a clean spent match. Try asking them to write single letters of the alphabet to begin with. The results of determining what has been written are generally incredibly good and go to show us that we often have faculties we barely credited the existence of.

This ease we seem to have of "seeing" with the skin has quite recently been put to good use in helping the blind to obtain a kind of graphico-tactile impression of their surroundings. The idea has been brought to a reality by Professors P. Bach-y-Rita and C. Collins of the University of the Pacific, Stockton, California.

Their system, which they refer to as a tactile imager, relies upon a miniature television camera which feeds a processing unit driving a $20 \times 20$ matrix of vibrators. These are plastic tipped devices, each actuated by a solenoid and situated about 12 mm apart. The matrix is made to form part of the back of a dentalchair and in use transforms the images received by the camera into tactile impulses that effectively form a two dimensional reproduction of the scene. In operation the blind person sits in the chair and simply points the camera while getting a tactile representation of the picture "drummed" out on his back.

After only short periods of training with the machine, pupils have been able to distinguish between various overlapping objects and relationships between a number of objects
in the same field. There are likely to be many other applications for this system and one can imagine it being useful in enabling the deaf to learn about the way speech is formed. No doubt a modified version of the system could be utilised in providing "feeling'" to artificial limbs and other prosthetic devices.


## UFOLOGISTS

It's possible that you have not heard of the term Ufology, but, believe me, it does exist. Currently, there are thousands of people constantly engaged on the look-out for "flying saucers" (or UFOs-unidentified flying objects) who call themselves by this name. From the fact that there are many well authenticated reports on the subject, and often by highly qualified reliable individuals, the case for UFOs, whilst by no means proven, appears to be worth some examination.
From the people "in the know" on this subject I gather that there exist a number of ways in which UFOs might be detected. Apart from the use of radar, more simple systems apparently rely upon little more than some method for sensing the magnetic fields that "saucers" are purported to produce.

For your interest a really basic arrangement is shown in the accompanying illustration, Fig. 2. This uses a magnet suspended on a fine piece of wire having only a limited degree of movement within a wire loop. The loop and suspension represent a switch which, if the magnet is influenced by a field, will close causing the associated circuit to latch and thereby actuate a bell or some other indicator.

Obviously a set-up of this type is extremely sensitive to vibration so if you build one don't think that because your brain-child is hooting at you a "flying saucer" is hovering over-head!


# 400 mW AMPLIFIER <br>  <br> <br> A SPECIAL PROJECT <br> <br> A SPECIAL PROJECT <br> <br> FOR BEGINNERS 

 <br> <br> FOR BEGINNERS}

ONE of the most important applications of transistors is their use to convert a small voltage input into a large voltage output. This process of increasing the signal level is known as amplification.

Amplifiers can be broadly categorised in a number of families which embrace d.c., audio, video and radio frequencies. In this article we will only be concerned with the amplification of audio frequencies which is a band that extends from about 15 Hz to 18 kHz for the very best of hearing.

In audio amplifiers the power output which can be obtained from a single output stage employing ordinary transistors is usually restricted to about 50 milliwatts. Whilst this is adequate for driving earphones it is rather too small for use with a loudspeaker; an output of approximately 400 mW is provided from the amplifier to be described so that it can be used in general purpose applications.

The circuit configuration given in Fig. 1 is probably one of the most common output stages to be currently found in low power amplifiers, so familiarity in this department will no doubt assist in the repair of transistor radio output stages.

## QUIESCENT STATE

To understand the working of this circuit it is probably best to find out what is going on when no input signal is applied. This state is called quiescent, that is, all the voltages are static or d.c. at the various junctions. First, we can ignore VR1 and Cl as the capacitor has a very high resistance to d.c.

Looking next at TR1, a pnp transistor, it can be seen that this has a negative voltage bias applied to its base via R6 and R1 which drives it into conduction.


TRANSISTOR CONNECTIONS


Fig. I. Circuit diagram of the 400 mW amplifier. The a.c. oscillograms and d.c. voltages are measured relative to OV line

The load, or resistance appearing at the transistor collector, is made up of R2, R3, and the loudspeaker LS1. Obviously, since current is passing through these components there will be voltage drops across them. These are in fact, so arranged in polarity as to just switch on TR2 and TR3. If reference is made to point A, the "mid-voltage" line and the transistor bases, the d.c. voltages given indicate a difference of 150 millivolts positive for TR3 and 150 millivolts negative for TR2.

In electronic parlance since no capacitors figure between TR1, TR2 and TR3 they are said to be d.c. coupled. Similarly, the arrangement of transistors TR2 and TR3 is described as complementary since in combination they afford a d.c. path between the 0 volt and minus 9 volt lines.

## APPLYING A.C.

Now what happens when an alternating signal is applied. Providing this is less than 18 mV r.m.s. and so does not produce distortion, this will appear across R1 and at the base of TRI. Since the function of a transistor is to amplify, an amplified replica of this signal will appear at the bases of TR2 and TR3.

Reference to Fig. 1 shows these signals to be in phase, that is, they move positive and negative together. But since these transistors have very slight d.c. forward biasing, TR2 will conduct on a negative excursion of the base sine wave and TR3 on the positive half.

Ideally, for economic reasons, it would be best if these transistors did not conduct in the quiescent state, then they could be neatly switched on and off by the alternating signal. Unfortunately, because of the characteristics of the transistors this would produce a rather nasty form of distortion at the loudspeaker known as crossover distortion, which is not unlike a rattling noise. A typical waveform showing this effect is given in Fig. 2.


## LOUDSPEAKER OUTPUT

Since a loudspeaker is electrodynamic, power must be supplied to move the mass of the cone. This means that a sizeable alternating current is required. This must be provided by the power transistors TR2 and TR3.
Since these conduct on alternate half cycles the only path to a.c. must be through LSI and the large value capacitor C2. In practice the voltage drop across this component is very small.

## CONSTRUCTION

Construction using the T-Dec is a simple plug-in procedure but see that transistor leads are not allowed to come into contact. The hole numbers for T-Dec are given on the circuit diagram (Fig. 1). Once again other constructional methods can be employed if the advice of the first article in this series is followed.
If this circuit is to perform efficiently with the minimum of distortion it is important that the gain, or $h_{\mathrm{FE}}$, of each output transistor is matched to at least 10 per cent. Most retailers will advise you on this. $\star$

## COMPONENTS . . .



THIS MONTH's article continues the brief survey of transducers-devices that convert one form of energy into another form.

## SOUND SENSORS

Sound is a longitudinal pressure wave motion of a medium such as air.

## Carbon Microphone

The carbon microphone (Fig. 6.1a) contains loosely packed carbon granules which are brought into more intimate contact by pressure on the diaphragm. Contact resistance between the granules varies with sound pressures, and in turn causes a change of current flowing through the microphone and series resistor R , thus giving rise to an electrical signal.

## Crystal and Ceramic Microphone

Crystal and ceramic microphones make use of the piezoelectric effect, whereby certain crystals and ceramic materials are capable of developing an e.m.f. when subjected to strain. The effect is reversible; a voltage applied across the crystal can produce a mechanical force.

In Fig. 6.1b, a slice of piezoelectric material is clamped at one corner. Movement of the diaphragm is transmitted to the opposite corner by a light rod, tending to bend the slice. Conductive coatings on the faces of the slice serve to collect the resulting e.m.f. and yield an output voltage.

## Dynamic Microphone

When a conductor is made to vibrate inside a magnetic field it will generate an alternating current; this is the principle of a dynamic microphone, Fig. 6.1c.
The moving coil version has a wire conductor wound on a paper or plastics cylindrical former. This lightweight coil is fixed to the diaphragm. Sound pressure waves move the diaphragm pushing and pulling the coil within the magnetic field, thus generating an electrical signal.

In the case of the ribbon microphone, the conductor is nothing more than a short length of corrugated


## A NEW

 SERIES FOR THE BEGINNER
## 



Fig. 6.Ia. Carbon microphone


OUARTZ ROCHELL SALT OR BARIUM
TITANATE WAFER COATED ON BOTH SIDES WITH METAL OR CONDUCTIVE LAYER
Fig. 6.1b. Piezoelectric microphone


Fig. 6.1c. Dynamic microphones: moving coil and ribbon


Fig. 6.1d. Electrostatic (capacitor) microphone

aluminium alloy foil, which responds directly to sound pressures. An output voltage is set up across the ribbon when it vibrates.

## Electrostatic Microphones

Fig. 6.1d shows an electrostatic or capacitor microphone. If a charge is applied to the plates of a variable capacitor and the distance between the two electrodes is varied by movement of a diaphragm attached to one
of them, the voltage across the electrodes will vary. The greater this distance, the greater will be the voltage. The reverse takes place when the electrodes are brought closer together.

The electrodes of the capacitor microphone are made up of a thin layer of foil or metallised plastics and a rigid perforated metal disc, with a thin flexible insulator or dielectric in between.

The battery and high value resistor R in Fig. 6.1d maintain a steady d.c. charge on the electrodes. Sound pressures acting on the foil cause it to move in relation to the rigid disc and a small alternating voltage is set-up across the microphone.

## SOUND EMITTERS

A sound emitter converts electrical signals into pressure waves, usually in air, but sometimes in other gases or liquids. Loudspeakers and earphones are common examples of sound emitters, but there are other devices which emit ultrasonic frequencies well beyond the range of human hearing.

## Moving Coil Loudspeaker

The moving coil loudspeaker in Fig. 6.2a is similar to a moving coil microphone, but has a larger diaphragm and magnet assembly. An alternating current flowing through the wire coil makes it vibrate within the magnetic field. The coil is wound round a paper tube which is attached to a large conical diaphragm. The vibrations of the coil are transmitted to the air by a piston-like action of the whole assembly.

## Electrostatic Loudspeaker

Fig. 6.2b shows an electrostatic loudspeaker, consisting of a rigid, perforated metal plate and a thin frame of insulated material supporting a stretched metallised membrane. The frame provides a small air-gap between the two electrodes, sufficient to ensure good insulation and allow room for the membrane to vibrate.

A steady d.c. voltage via high value resistor R polarises the electrodes. The membrane is alternately attracted to and repelled by the rigid plate on application of an alternating voltage input, thus imparting pressure variations directly to the air.

## Crystal Earphone

A slice of piezoelectric crystal will bend or vibrate when subjected to applied voltages. The crystal earphone in Fig. 6.2c has a small metal diaphragm mechanically coupled to the slice, thereby converting vibrations of the crystal into sound pressure waves.

## Ionic Loudspeaker

The ionic loudspeaker in Fig. 6.2d is capable of reproducing sound frequencies above the upper limit of human hearing, and can cover the range $3-50 \mathrm{kHz}$. Air inside a quartz tube is strongly ionised by a large alternating voltage from a high frequency oscillator operating at 27 MHz .

Ionised air has very little mass and inertia, and is capable of causing rapid sound pressure changes inside the acoustic horn when the oscillator output level is varied by a suitable input signal.


Fig. 6.2a. Moving coil loudspeaker


Fig. 6.2b. Electrostatic loudspeaker


Fig. 6.2c. Crystal earpiece


Fig. 6.2d. Ionic loudspeaker
 RING WOUND WITH INSULATED WIRE

Fig. 6.2e. Magnetostrictive echo sounder
$\qquad$



## Echo Sounder

Finally, an example of a sound emitter that works in water instead of air is the magnetostrictive echo sounder, shown in Fig. 6.2e. An alternating current in a coil of wire wound on a nickel iron ring sets up an alternating magnetic field.

A ferromagnetic material like nickel iron exhibits dimensional changes within a magnetic field, so the ring contracts and expands and imparts pressure variations to the surrounding water.

## MAGNETIC SENSORS

The Hall effect was first observed in a strip of gold leaf. With a current flowing along the strip, and a magnetic field disposed at right angles to its surface, a small voltage was developed across the strip, due to the sideways deflection of electrons by the magnetic field.

## Hall Probe

A modern counterpart is the semiconductor Hall probe, which is used to measure the strength of magnetic fields, see Fig. 6.3a. Instead of gold leaf the probe employs a much more sensitive layer of indium antimonide, to which contacts are attached.
The lateral output voltage is proportional to the product of bias current and magnetic flux density. A typical device will yield 0.5 millivolts output per milliamp-kilogauss.
In the circuit of Fig. 6.33, a steady d.c. bias current flows from the battery via R between contacts A and B . The magnetic field to be measured is arranged vertically, and the output proportional to field strength is developed across contacts C and D .
Hall effect devices are also employed as mathematical multipliers in analogue computers, where an electromagnet provides the multiplier in the form of a variable magnetic field, the d.c. bias current is the multiplicand, and the output voltage is the product.

## Magnetoresistor

Bismuth wire and certain semiconductor materials have the property of increasing in resistance in the
presence of a magnetic field. Unfortunately, bismuth wire is also highly temperature dependent.

A modern semiconductor magnetoresistor will yield a typical resistance change of $25 \%$ per kilogauss and is virtually immune to temperature, see Fig. 6.3b.

## Tape Head

Fig. 6.3c shows a tape playback head, consisting of a " C " shaped stack of soft iron alloy laminations and two bobbins wound with enamelled copper wire.
Unlike the Hall probe and magnetoresistor, a playback head cannot detect a steady magnetic field, but relies on the movement of the tape past the gap in the head to set up a continuously varying magnetic field within the gap, thus inducing alternating currents in the coils. The tape, of course, has a fixed magnetic pattern on its surface, put there during recording.

## MAGNETIC FIELD GENERATORS

A magnetoelectric material such as chromium oxide will become magnetised when placed in an electric field, and conversely produces a voltage when subjected to a magnetic field, but this phenomenon has not been widely exploited in electronics.

By far the most common form of magnetic output transducer uses the magnetic field associated with a current flowing in a length or coil of wire. The transducer is coupled to the output of an oscillator or amplifier, examples being the scanning coils in television receivers, tape recording and erase heads, and the inductive loop in short-range communication systems.

## Inductive Loop

An interesting example of an inductive loop, now being developed for commercial use in farming, is that of the driverless tractor, Fig. 6.4. A multi-turn rectangular loop of wire is buried beneath the surface of a field, with the turns staggered to give a series of parallel lines of fixed spacing.

The loop is fed from a low frequency oscillator and sets up a magnetic pattern which can be traced by a


driverless tractor equipped with a magnetic sensor. The result is that the tractor can work for long periods with a minimum of supervision.

## ELECTROMECHANICAL SENSORS

Mechanics is a subject that includes specialist branches of technology such as dynamics, circular motion, moments of inertia, statics, hydrostatics, elasticity, friction, and so on. There are many forms of transducer for converting mechanical phenomena into electrical signals. Those listed in Fig. 6.5 are intended to be representative rather than comprehensive.

## Resistive Strain Gauge

A resistance element embedded in a thin strip of insulating material will show a small resistance variation when the strip is bent, due to dimensional changes of the element.


The resistive strain gauge (Fig. 6.5a) can be attached to a mechanical device, such as a cantilever, and will respond to the bending or vibration resulting from applied forces. For example, the force acting on the cantilever could arise from hydrostatic pressure on a diaphragm, a mass being subjected to acceleration or gravity, or the impact of a moving body.

The bridge circuit of Fig. 6.5a serves the purpose of cancelling out the intrinsic resistance of the gauge under zero strain conditions, and gives a voltage output only when the strip is bent.

## Piezoelectric Strain Gauge

The ceramic strain gauge (Fig. 6.5b) has a larger output than the resistive type and does not require a bridge circuit, but cannot be used to measure very slow rates of deformation; it is principally a vibration sensor and works in much the same way as the active element in a crystal pick-up or microphone.

## Tachogenerator

A d.c. tachogenerator is really nothirg more than a precision dynamo, constructed to give an output proportional to angular velocity or acceleration, see Fig. 6.5c.

## Pick-up Cartridge

With the moving coil or dynamic type of gramophone pick-up cartridge shown in Fig. 6.5d, the stylus tracks the wavy groove in the disc and translates this motion into oscillations of a coil in a permanent magnet field, and so an alternating current output is induced in the coil.

Part seven next month will conclude the section on transducers.

## Antilock Braking

MUllard Research Laboratories have recently developed an electronically-controlled vehicle braking system which will prevent wheels from locking on any road surface. It may prove to be the first-ever economically acceptable system for widespread application in all types of motor vehicles.

The problems of antilock control are partly mechanical and partly electronic. Sensing and computing the dangerous condition of a road wheel is best done by electronic means while releasing and reapplication of the brake is clearly a mechanical operation

Right-individual wheel control test switches (lower centre) and the instrument (top left) for measuring stopping distances and speed during road tests


Left-the anti-lock actuator mounted on a disc brake unit showing the toothed ring from which the transducer senses the speed of the wheel

The control circuits can only determine the onset of a dangerous wheel condition. They cannot in themselves modulate brake pressure to prevent the wheel locking and some form of actuator is needed to control brake pressure in response to electronic warnings.

Once pressure is released by a signal from the electronics to prevent the wheel locking, it has to be reapplied to continue to slow the vehicle; in the Mullard system, energy is extracted from the wheel to pressurise the brakes. If the antilock system is working, the wheel cannot lock and
the rotating wheel is therefore available to provide the necessary energy. This direct use of wheel energy means that a very small unit is feasible and in the case of the test car the eritire mechanism is housed in the existing brake calipers.

The result of this work is a compact "fail-safe" system which can be applied to two or four wheels. When applied to four wheels the stopping distance is reduced (as compared with locked wheels) and steering control is maintained during emergency braking. The system can be fitted to any car which has hydraulic braking.


## Electronic Rhino

Miniature transmitters are being implanted in the horns of African rhinoceros to discover valuable information about the habits of two of the species.
Terrain over which rhinoceros roam makes it difficult to carry out normal methods of study. It was therefore decided to develop a radio tracking system which would assist in locating individual animals.

After the animal had been drugged with a dart from a gun, a hole was drilled in the posterior horn without unduly weakening it (see photograph). The transmitter was inserted and the aerial accommodated in a groove cut around the horn.

The transmitter is a crystal controlled pulsed oscillator working on approximately 4 metre wavelength. The tuned circuit comprises a trimmer and a one-turn loop aerial. The d.c. power supply is an RM1N Mallory Mercury cell with a capacity of $1,000 \mathrm{mAh}$.


## Selectavision Tape

A cartridge colour television tape player, that RCA expect to market some time in 1972, will be the first consumer product to employ lasers. The RCA system will enable any Selectavision cartridge to be played on all of the world's T.V. systems. The cost of the system is expected to be considerably less than other proposed systems.

The tapes, that are produced by holography, are of polyvinyl chloride (p.v.c.), have no chemical coating, no emulsion, no sprocket holes, are scratch proof, dust proof and virtually indestructible. RCA are already working on an original library of 100 programmes.
The photograph above shows the basic set-up for replaying the tapes using a laser and a television camera; in the prototype equipment these are incorporated, together with the tape transport system, within a unit of approximately the same size as a portable tape recorder.

## ELEGTRONORAMA



## Push-Button Exchanges

The British Post Office moves into the "push-button age" with an order worth nearly $£ \frac{1}{2}$ million to T.M.C. for 20,000 operator's keysenders. The keysender replaces the ten hole dial on P.O. main exchange switchboards with a 12 pushbutton configuration contained roughly within the existing dialling area, Already trial keysender installations have shown a marked improvement in operator accuracy and efficiency, coupled with a notable reduction in fatigue.

A typical Key Sender installation at a large P.O. Telephone Exchange where all the operator positions have been converted to Key Sender operation


A selection of readers' suggested circuits. It should be emphasised that these designs have not been proven by us. They will at any rate stimulate further thought.
This is YOUR page and any idea published will be awarded payment according to its merit.

## MODEL RAILWAY POINTS SWITCH

ELectrical switching of model railway points is readily accomplished by an electromagnetic technique, a common method being to provide two solenoids, one to open and the other to close the points, selection being by means of a simple switch. Momentary connection of an a.c. or d.c. source, usually 12 V , gives an impulse to a magnetic slug which, through a lever connection, operates the point mechanism, Fig. 1.
An appreciable current is required in many cases and the solenoid is only rated for pulse workingconnection to the source for any length of time would cause overheating. A simple spring loaded push button switch may be used, or a lever switch with an "off" end position. But both may be misused, and in any event the simultaneous operation of both solenoids should be excluded mechanically. Finally, the push button control requires further complication if the position of the point is to be indicated after an operation.
The simple electrical point switching method shown in Fig. 3, has the advantage of using circuit components commonly available. In particular, a controlled current pulse is used for switching-no steady currents can flow in the solenoid, and a simple doublepole double-throw panel switch indicates the sense of the point after each switching event.
A rough measurement of the effort required to change a point (by finding the distance moved and the force needed at the solenoid lever) gives values in the region of $10^{-3}$ to $10^{-1}$ joules. An electrolytic capacitor of $150 \mu \mathrm{~F}$, when charged to 12 volts, stores some $10^{-2}$ joules of energy. If discharged through the solenoid rapidly, a sufficient impulse may be available to operate the point. For any particular type of point, this may be investigated easily by touching the leads of such a capacitor (careful about polarity!) on the d.c. train supply at 12 volts, and then touching them on the terminals of one of the point solenoids. A sufficiently large capacitance should be chosen to give a smart operation of the point.
Two modes of operation are possible and are shown in Fig. 2 a and b . In Fig. 2a, if the capacitor is initially discharged, on closing the switch, the charging current that flows into $C$ through $R$ (the solenoid, say) will dissipate an energy equal to that finally stored on the
capacitor, i.e. $\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{CV}^{2}$ joules. For this purpose the inductance of the solenoid is neglected.

The time taken to complete the flow is of the order of $R C$, the time constant of the circuit, which for $C=1,000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ and $R=10$ ohms, will be about $10^{-2}$ seconds. In Fig. 2b, if the capacitor is initially charged, on closing the switch the stored electrical energy $\frac{1}{2} C V^{2}$ will be dissipated in the solenoid.

The circuit in Fig. 3 shows a system that economically combines both charge and discharge modes. Coils L1 and L2 are the points solenoids, $C$ the capacitor. With the arms of the D.P.D.T. switched as shown, the capacitor charges from the 12 V d.c. source; the charging current flowing in coil L1 operates the points in one sense. On completion of charging, the current in coil LI falls to zero and the switch "dolly" indicates the position of the points. On switching over the D.P.D.T. switch, the fully charged capacitor is discharged through coil L2, operating the points in the opposite sense. Again, the coil current falls to zero and the switch "dolly" position indicates the point position.

In practice, a separate switch and capacitor are required for each point, the coils of which should be i olated from the track, and care must be exercised he polarity of the high capacity capacitors.
A. E. Kiss, Ph.D., Orpington.


Fig. I


Fig. 2


Fig. 3

## AUDIO INDICATORS

HAVINg been annoyed by motorists failing to cancel indicators, I have installed the device shown in Fig. I.
The components of the circuit were all salvaged from a broken transistor radio, the transistor being one of the output type and L1 being the secondary (tapped) of the driver transformer.

The unit was assembled and fixed under the dashboard and the speaker, fixed in a location where the driver could hear it, i.e. behind a ventilation grille.

The unit was connected to earth and to an output pin on the flasher unit usually located under the nearside section of the dashboard.

## R. J. Marrington, Hayes, Middlesex.



Fig. I. Circuit diagram of the car indicator alarm

## THEATRICAL CUE-LIGHT

SOME readers may be interested in the circuit of a theatrical cue-light which I have designed.
In the circuit, Fig. I, the thyristors SCR1, 3, 5 and 7 are triggered by press button switches S 1 to S 4 through the respective gate resistors. When triggered, they turn on two lamps, LP1 and LP2 for SCR 1, and also apply a gate current to one of the line of thyristors SCR2, 4, 6 and 8 . When all the thyristors have been triggered, a current will flow through SCR2, 4, 6 and 8 and lamps LP3, 5 and 9 will light. The circuit is reset by opening S5.

The components within the dotted line are assembled in the master control box. This would normally be located with the lighting controls with the sub-units distributed to key personnel, e.g. prompter, stagemanager and house-manager.

The method of operation is as follows: As each person is ready to begin they press the switch on their sub-unit thus lighting one lamp on their sub-unit and one on the master control box.

When all the lamps on the master control have been
lit as described, the lamps LP3, 6 and 9 will light to inform that everyone is ready to begin.

The master control cues the start of the performance by opening S5 and hence extinguishing all the lamps.

In the prototype it was found that, because of the capacitance caused by having long leads to connect the sub-units to the master control, when the unit was switched on a small current would flow in the thyristor gate circuits causing them to switch on. This was overcome by connecting a $10 \mu \mathrm{~F} 16 \mathrm{~V}$ capacitor between the negative rail and the gates of the affected thyrist $)$ rs, these having the effect of shunting this small current away from the thyristors.

Any type of thyristor may be used provided it can handle the voltages and currents involved. The ones used in the prototype were 600 p.i.v. IA devices. Some variation in resistor values may be necessary to suit particular thyristors.
D. P. Delaney, Englefield Green, Egham, Surrey.


Fig. I. Circuit diagram of theatrical cue-light

MAINS LAMP FLASHER


THE CIR CUIT diagram above is a cheap, simple, and safe method of flashing a mains a.c. lamp. The circuit is conventional and the rate of flashing may be altered by changing the values of the electrolytic capacitors. The present values give a range of approximately 1 to 4 Hz

The reed switch coil was salvaged from a television receiver, or can be wound from thin wire (approximately 1,000 turns) on a former. The reed switch is inserted in the centre of the former.

The device may also be used to interrupt other a.c. devices at preset intervals, determined by the electrolytic capacitors.
J. S. Maud, Scunthorpe, Lincs.

## ECONOMICAL IC HOLDER



INTEGRATED circuits are now available at prices which many readers can now afford. However, IC holders, which are invaluable for experimentation, are very expensive items, usually costing more than $£ 1$. Because of this situation I have devised a simple i.c. holder using cheap, readily obtainable materials.

There are some transistor sockets available on the market, for less than 1s each, with five contact springs. These contacts are removed as shown in Fig. 1. To make the holder for an integrated circuit, $\frac{3}{64}$ in holes are drilled in a piece of hardboard in the appropriate pattern. The pattern shown in Fig. 2 is for a 14 -pin DTL package ( $0 \cdot 1 \mathrm{in}$ matrix veroboard makes a good template). Insert the contact springs into the holes in the hardboard, leaving 1 to 2 mm of metal protruding above the board, see Fig. 2. Spread out the protruding sections of the two prongs of the contact and flatten them against the top of the board and, on the underside of the board, bend the other end of the contact sideways to keep it in position.

C Masson,
Edinburgh, 12.

## NEWS BRIEFS

## Skynet II

HAwker Siddeley Dynamics Lid., and GEC-AEI (Electronics) Ltd., have each been given a contract by the Ministry of Technology to develop, in co-operation with American industry, proposals for higher powered Skynet communications satellites for defence purposes. A decision on which firm is to be the eventual prime contractor for two such satellites will be taken later this year. The satellites are to be ready for launching in 1973 as replenishment for the initial two satellites of the Skynet system which were built by the United States. The first of these was successfully launched last November. The replenishment satellites will be substantially more powerful than these first Skynet satellites and will be capable of operating in conjunction with small transportable aerials.

## Register for Engineers

- ast September the Board of CEI (Council of Engineering Institutions) passed the following resolution: "The Council of Engincering Institutions will, in collaboration with other interested parties and subject to the agreement of the Privy Council, initiate the formation of an organisation to create and administer a system of qualification and title, and to establish and maintain a composite register covering the principal sections of the engineering community, currently Chartered Engineers, Technician Engineers, and Engineering Technicians.'

Subsequently, CEI has prepared outline proposals for the structure for a registering organisation and also for qualifying standards based on those prepared by SCNQT (a group of non chartered institutions drawn together by CEI), for admitting non Chartered Engineers to the register. These proposals were tabled at a meeting between CEI and SCNQT and others last December and subsequently circulated earlier this year to all those institutions who had expressed interest in collaborating with CEI in establishing such a register under the authority of the CEI Charter and By-laws.

Numerous discussions with interested parties have indicated general support for CEI setting up such a register and, on 20th May 1970, the Board agreed to implement its resolution to set up an Engineers Registration Board.

## वulle

## P.E. ORGAN-II (March 1970)

Having conducted some further experiments with the variable vibrato circuit, Fig. 11.2, it was found that if a green spot 2 N 2926 transistor is used for TR2 and the feedback resistor R3 changed to 1 kilohm the circuit works excellently.
P.E. MARKSMAN (July 1970)

Capacitor Cl should be $1,000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ not $1,000 \mathrm{pF}$ as given in the components list.
P.E. COMMUNICATIONS RECEIVER (October
1969-June 1970)

See letter on page 741.
TEMPERATURE ALARM (Ingenuity Unlimited,
July 1970)
See reader's letter on page 742.


Aversatile weil equipped workshop, where experimental and repair work is carried out, often requires a range of d.c. and a.c. power supplies suitable for driving both valve and transistor circuitry.

Commercial equipment, including radio, television, and test gear still carry some valve circuits and, where the in-built power supply may have failed, a temporary substitute is a valuable asset. Equipment employing cold cathode tubes also need high voltage d.c. supplies.

The "VALSTAB" is a new P.E. project to fill these needs, while the "TRANSTAB" (to be described in a later article) is its matching companion, specially designed for driving low voltage transistor circuits.

Both power units offer a high degree of voltage stabilisation under variable load conditions.

## COST

The "Valstab", described in this article, is a high voltage valve stabilised power unit, whose non-technical features are versatility of range and output, reliability, and portability, coupled with a straightforward form of conventional chassis construction.

The specification for this unit is given in the display panel below, from which it will be seen that both positive and negative voltages are available. To achieve
the wide range of output available the circuit is perhaps a little more elaborate than the more orthodox power unit.

It is considered essential that the unit should have sufficient outlet points to allow more than one piece of apparatus to be powered simultaneously, within the limitations of the current and voltage ratings.

The cost can be kept reasonably low without sacrificing any of the principle features which make the project worthwhile. As cost is often an important consideration with such projects, some attempt has been made to give an approximation of the total cost. The figures quoted are included as a very rough guide, as components can vary so widely in price.
Both the Valstab and the Transtab use the same type of cabinet, costing 34s at the time of writing. The meters, if purchased new, can cost up to 75 s each depending on the quality and source of supply.

If purchased on the surplus market and calibrated (as described later), the meters can cost as little as 10 s each. The total cost of all other components, if bought new, can be as much as $£ 1410$ s per unit. If a careful search is made through suppliers' catalogues, advertisements in the technical press, and in shop windows, this figure can be reduced to as low as $£ 8$ per unit.

## SPECIFICATION

OUTPUT I
D.C. Voltage
D.C. Current

Regulation $(0-100 \mathrm{~mA})$
Ripple at 175 V full load
Ripple at 325 V full load
Change in output for $-3 \%+5 \%$
change in mains voltage
OUTPUT 2
D.C. Voltage
D.C. Current

Regulation
Ripple
OUTPUT 3
A.C. Voltage (heater supply)

DIMENSIONS
Width 12 in , height 7in, depth 7 in
+175 V to 325 V
0 to 100 mA ( 120 mA reduced regulation)
Less than $0.5 \%$ over $175-325 \mathrm{~V}$ range
Less than $10 \mathrm{mV} \mathrm{p}-\mathrm{p}(<0.003 \%)$
Less than $50 \mathrm{mV} \mathrm{p}-\mathrm{p}(<0.006 \%)$
Less than 0.5\%
$-150 \mathrm{~V}$
0 to 10 mA
Better than $1 \%$
$60 \mathrm{mV} \mathrm{p}-\mathrm{p}(<0.02 \%)$
6.3V 4 A centre tapped or as available from TI

## APPLICATION

A very wide range of positive voltage output up to 325 V is available, stability being maintained for large changes in load current. The -150 V auxiliary supply is particularly useful as a negative bias line for use with high gain d.c. amplifiers, pulse and relaxation circuits. Generally speaking the supplies available cover a sufficiently wide range of both voltage and current outputs to meet the requirements of most amateur experimenters and constructors.

As more than one item of apparatus may be required to be supplied at any one time, the various outputs are brought out to two octal sockets, situated on the front panel for ease of operation. This means that various pieces of apparatus which may be used from time to. time are each terminated in an octal plug, the supply leads being connected to the appropriate pins.

Any of these pieces of apparatus can be plugged into either socket without the fear of the wrong supply being applied to the wrong piece of equipment. This allows a great deal of versatility of equipment to be achieved once the initial change over to octal plugs is made.

Octal plugs and sockets were chosen in preference to the numerous other types of multi-pin plugs and sockets available because they are cheap, easily obtainable, and simple to wire in.

Besides the octal socket outlets, each supply is also brought out to two groups of wander plug sockets or screw terminals, these also being situated on the front panel.

All controls, fuses, output points, and meters are brought out on the front panel for ease of operation and metering. As all components and valves are amply rated, the power unit should give trouble free and reliable service over a long period of time.

## POSITIVE SUPPLY CIRCUIT

The complete circuit diagram of the Valstab is shown in Fig. 1.

The transformer secondary $350 \mathrm{~V}-0-350 \mathrm{~V}$ output is applied to the full wave rectifying circuit D3 and D4. The network C1, C2, R3, and R4 prevents mains transients being fed via the transformer to the diodes and stabilising circuits, as these transients, although of very short duration, can have quite a high peak voltage. This could be harmful to the rest of the circuit, particularly the rectifiers.

The full wave positive rectified output is then fed to a conventional pi smoothing filter, L1, C3 and C5. The reservoir capacitor C 3 is kept to a reasonably low value to prevent excessive surge current passing through the diodes.

The output from the smoothing circuit is fed into the series regulator V1. This being a double triode, the two halves are connected in parallel. The type of valve used (6080) was specifically designed as a series regulator, having a very low $r_{\mathrm{a}}$, high $g_{m}$ and high dissipation value. The stopper resistors R5, R6, R11, and R12 prevent parasitic oscillation, while R11 and R12 also limit grid current.

The action of V1 is controlled by the high gain pentode amplifier V3. The actual circuit shown in Fig. 1 is a little unconventional in that the voltage reference tube, which normally holds the cathode of V3 above earth, and acts as the circuit reference point, has in this case been dispensed with.

The cathode is held constant at the earth or common rail level and the -150 V stabilised line is utilised as a constant reference point. This was found necessary in order to allow the very wide voltage output range to be achieved. With the conventional type of circuit,

only a relatively narrow output swing is possible, due to the cathode of V3 being held at such a high potential above earth, so limiting the amount of anode swing on V3.

With the circuit shown, however, the full swing of both V3 and V1 valve characteristics are used, allowing a much wider range of output to be obtained on the one control.

The screen grid of V3 is fed from the unstabilised side of the supply via the potential divider R7, R8, and R9, the anode load being R13. The anode is d.c. coupled to the grids of the series regulator V1. The grid of amplifier V3 is d.c. coupled to the h.t. output line via the divider chain R16, VR1, R17, and VR2.

The bottom end of the chain is held constant at -150 V with respect to earth, the h.t. output level being adjusted between the limits quoted by means of VR1. VR2 is a preset control which is first set up to ensure that VRI only swings across the range quoted, and does not let V3 pass beyond its cut-off and saturation limits and so lose stability.

Grid limiting is provided by R15 and decoupling by C 8 , this also helping to reduce overall ripple. Final smoothing on the regulated output is provided by C9 and helps to achieve the low ripple values quoted.

As the effective capacitance of electrolytic capacitors decreases rapidly at higher frequencies, in order to keep the output impedance of the unit low at the higher frequencies, C 9 is shunted by a lower value capacitor C10. Both h.t. voltage and current are metered by M1 and M2 respectively.

## NEGATIVE STABILISATION

The subsidiary -150 V line is stabilised by means of a gas filled regulator tube V2. This supply is completely independent of the main h.t. supply. The negative

line is developed from the secondary of the mains transformer via the dropping resistors R1 and R2, which feed diodes D1 and D2. These give a full wave output which is then applied to the smoothing circuit C4, C6 and R10. R10 also provides the necessary voltage drop to the stabiliser V2.

The negative output line is taken from the cathode of V2, R14 providing a small current bleed across this circuit. Capacitor C7 shunts V2 and prevents any tendency towards self oscillation, these type of valves often being prone to this form of trouble.

## STABILISING EFFECT

The action of the stabilising circuit may be described as follows: assume that with the circuit working normally a sudden increase in load current occurs. The h.t. voltage will fall, the voltage drop across the divider network R16, VR1, R17, and VR2, will also fall and thus the grid of V3 will go more negative with respect to the cathode.

Both the cathode and the bottom of the divider chain always remain constant with respect to one another. The fall in grid voltage will tend to cut V3 off, reducing anode current and thus the voltage drop across the anode load R13. The anode will therefore go more positive and, being d.c. coupled to the grids of the series regulator V1, will drive this valve harder on. This allows more current to flow through V1 from the source to compensate for the initial increase in load current.

The action is almost instantaneous. The function of the circuit may therefore be shown to form a complete negative feedback loop. In effect, V3 provides amplified negative feedback between the input and output circuits of V1, this keeping the output voltage constant.

Due to the very high gain of the overall circuit, very small changes in h.t. level can be detected, these small changes being amplified and applied to V1 which then compensates for any change in the detected output. This gives a high stabilisation factor.

For a decrease in load current the reverse action occurs, while changes in source voltage due to mains fluctuation are compensated for in a similar manner. This type of circuit allows very low ripple values to be obtained as the amplifier "sees" ripple as a change in mean h.t. value and compensates accordingly.

As VR1 may be considered to control the standing value of V3 grid voltage, altering this control has a similar effect to that described, lowering or raising the grid voltage with respect to the reference level. By this

Side view of the top of the finished
chassis. Note the meter
shunt mounted on
M2 terminals



Fig. 2 (above). Drilling details of the top of the chassis with guide to positions of TI and LI. Notice the cut outs at the front

Fig. 3 (left). Layout and wiring of the two component boards

Fig. 4 (below). Underside view of the chassis showing some of the wiring


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## COMPONENTS

Resistors

| RI | $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega 5 \mathrm{~W}^{*}$ | R8 $150 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ IW | R15 $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~W}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| R2 | $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega 5 \mathrm{~W}$ * | R9 $150 \mathrm{k} \Omega 1 \mathrm{~W}$ | R16 100k $\Omega$ IW |
| R3 | $100 \Omega+W$ | R10 $2 \cdot 2 \mathrm{k} \Omega 5 \mathrm{~W}^{*}$ | RI7 39k $\Omega$ IW |
| 4 | $100 \Omega \frac{1}{2} W$ | RII $470 \Omega \frac{1}{2} W$ | R18 See text |
| 5 | $10 \Omega$ IW | R12 470 $\frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~W}$ | R19 See tex |
| R6 | 10ת IW | R13 470k $\Omega \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~W}$ |  |
| R7 | $22 \mathrm{k} \Omega \mathrm{IW}$ | R14 100k $\Omega \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~W}$ | ound |

All $10 \%$ carbon except were stated

## Potentiometers

VRI $25 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ linear wirewound
VR2 $25 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ linear wirewound preset

## Capacitors

| Cl | ${ }_{0} 0 \cdot 1{ }_{\mu} \mathrm{F}$ paper $1,000 \mathrm{~V}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| C2 | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ paper 1.000 V |
| C3 | $16 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. 500 V |
| C4 | $16 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. 250 V |
| C5 | $32 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. 500 V |
| C6 | $32 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. 250 V |
| C7 | $0.25 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ paper 250 V |
| C8 | $0.5 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ paper 500 V |
| C9 | $32 \mu \mathrm{Felect}$. 500 V |
| Clo | $0 \cdot 1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ paper 500 V |

## Transformer

TI Any mains transformer with the following minimum ratings:
Primary: 0-200, 220, 240 V
Secondary 1: $350-0-350 \mathrm{~V}$ at 120 mA
Secondary 2: 6.3V 3A (for VI)
Secondary 3: 6.3 V 3 A centre tapped (or as required for external use)
Inductor
LI 20 H 150 mA smoothing choke
Valves
$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { V1 } 6080 & \text { V2 } & \text { 150B2 } & \text { V3 } & \text { EF80 }\end{array}$
Diodes
DI, D2 OA210 (2 off)
D3, D4 OA2II (2 off)
Meters
MI $0-400$ or 500 V f.s.d. (see text)
M2 0-150mA f.s.d. (see text)

## Switches

SI Double-pole, on-off toggle switch
S2 Single-pole, on-off toggle switch
53 Single-pole, on-off toggle switch
Fuses and fuseholders
FSI IA
FS2 250 mA

## Miscellaneous

LPI Mains neon indicator with current limit resistor
Cabinet $12 \mathrm{in} \times 7 \mathrm{in} \times 7 \mathrm{in}$ aluminium case type W , fully louvred (H. L. Smith \& Co. Ltd., 287-289 Edgware Road, London, W.2)
Chassis $11 \frac{1}{2}$ in $\times 6 \frac{3}{4}$ in $\times 1 \frac{1}{2}$ in to suit case
Front Panel 12 in $\times 7$ in to fit case
Valveholders: International octal (3 off); B9A (I off); B7G (I off)
Plugs: International octal (2 off), wander plugs and sockets ( 10 off)
Knob, large pointer type
Component tag boards (3 off), tag strips
Grommets, 18 s.w.g. tinned copper wire and sleeving
Nuts and bolts, 2B.A., 4B.A., 6B.A.
Chrome handle, 9in. Lettering or transfers
means the output level of the h.t. line can be set to any value in the range quoted; the circuit then automatically stabilises the output at this level.

## CHASSIS CONSTRUCTION

The construction of the unit should offer few difficulties, the circuit not being at all critical as regards layout. While the method of construction adopted by the author will be described, any other form of construction may be used to fit in with individual requirements or existing apparatus.

The above chassis layout together with relevant dimensions is shown in Fig. 2. As the dimensions of various manufacturers' transformers and chokes vary slightly, the chassis should be marked out first with the particular transformer and choke to be used. The remainder of the above chassis components, valves and component boards, being located as necessary.

Before mounting any components the two slots should be cut out of the chassis front (shaded portions). These give clearance to the output sockets which could otherwise touch the top of the chassis.

## WIRING

The electrolytic smoothing capacitors, diodes, and dropping resistors are all arranged on two tag boards, these being wired up first and then mounted vertically on the chassis by means of small angle brackets. This form of construction allows a great saving in space. If the negative terminals of C4 and C6 are connected to the cans, these must be isolated from the chassis.

If the components are mounted and wired first, fly leads being left for connections coming away from the boards, they are simply mounted on the chassis after the larger components have been fixed in place. The layouts of the two boards are shown in Fig. 3. It will be noted that components which are likely to dissipate most heat (i.e. dropper resistors and diodes) are mounted at the top of the boards.

The under chassis layout, again with dimensions, is shown in Fig. 4. As there is ample space under the chassis, no particular care has to be taken as, regards wiring layout, etc. Grommets, earth tags 'and tag strips should be used where shown.

It will be noticed that an 18 s.w.g. tinned copper wire earth "bus-bar" is used, this being run from the main earth input around the chassis, all earth and common connections being taken to this line. While not essential, this form of earthing is always good policy to adopt in mains power units.
Underside view of part of the chassis showing the wiring of the valveholders


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Fig. 5. Drilling details of the front panel with the chassis position shown dotted. The fixing holes for the meters may differ according to the instruments used

## FRONT PANEL

The front panel layout together with necessary dimensions is shown in Fig. 5.

As the type and size of meters used may vary, the meter holes should be cut to suit the particular meters which are going to be used (see later). The remainder of the front panel components should be mounted as shown, much of the front panel wiring being done before the panel is fitted to the chassis.

With the particular type of cabinet specified, a lip of approximately $\frac{3}{8}$ in will be found all round the inside when the front panel is removed. The front panel is fitted into the upper and lower lips by means of self tapping screws.

To allow the chassis to fit into the cabinet, both of the vertical or side lips should be cut off, these serving no particular purpose. As the cabinet is made from aluminium, they can be simply removed using a small hacksaw blade or Abrafile.

When mounting the front panel to the chassis, allow the bottom edge of the front panel to protrude approximately $\frac{3}{8}$ in below the bottom edge of the chassis. This compensates for the bottom lip of the cabinet as mentioned above.

If the fixing holes are drilled in the front panel first, they can be marked off on the chassis front with the chassis inside the cabinet, the front panel being loosely held in place by two of its four fixing screws. A hole must also be cut in the rear of the cabinet to line up with the grommet for the mains supply lead outlet.

Front panel lettering can be made using either Dymo tape or transfers.

With all the construction completed, final extras in the form of rubber feet and a carrying handle may be fitted if required. Four $\frac{3}{4}$ in rubber feet mounted on the bottom of the cabinet prevent benches or tables being scratched, while a 9 in chrome handle mounted on the bottom of the front panel (as illustrated) or on top of the cabinet, not only improves the appearance of the unit, but also makes the unit portable.

## METER CALIBRATION

Before going on to the testing of the unit, a mention may be made on the types of meters used and their calibration. The meters may be any $1 \frac{1}{2}$ in to $2 \neq i n$ moving coil type instruments, having either round or square faces.
While new meters may be obtained to cover the ranges quoted, these can be rather expensive. However, any moving coil instruments having a basic movement of $1-5 \mathrm{~mA}$ may be used, these being suitably calibrated using an external shunt for the milliammeter and an external series resistor for the voltmeter.
The meters are calibrated using a scale to suit the particular scale divisions marked on the meter face, new numerals being marked by hand on the scale if necessary.
The shunt resistance R19 is wound using a suitable length of fine resistance wire on a small diameter bobbin or former, normally only a few inches of wire being required. The series voltmeter resistance R18 should be a 5 per cent high stability type.

While calibrating one's own meters can involve extra work, a great saving in cost is made as such instruments can generally be picked up on the surplus market at a very modest price. The accuracy of the calibrated meters can be checked against a normal multirange meter, this being sufficiently accurate for this type of calibration.

## SHUNT AND SERIES RESISTORS

Two examples for calculating shunt (R19) and series resistors (R18) are shown below, the equations holding good for all types of moving coil meter. These resistors will only be needed if low rating meters are used.

Assume a 1 mA movement, scaled $0-1$ f.s.d. in 10 divisions, having a resistance of 50 ohms (meter resistance is normally marked or can be measured), is to be used for the voltmeter.

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With integral clutch allow Jog the motor to drop out of engagement with the geartrajn, thereby facilitat-
ing easy resetting when used in timers or in conunction with a light spring. 6 oz torque at $240 \mathrm{~V} \quad 50 \mathrm{~Hz}$, $1 / 12 \mathrm{r}$ r.p.m., $\hat{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{r}$ r.p.m.,

r.p.m.
r.p.m. $120 \mathrm{~V} / 12 \mathrm{r} . \mathrm{p}$
60 Hz ,


## D.C, MOTORS

Similar to above type MD 83. 28V 1/20 r.p.m., $1 / 60$ r.p.m., 1 r.p.m. 12 V $1 / 20 \quad$ r.p.m. 24 V ( $1 / 16$ r.p.m. 30 V
$1 / 12$ r.p.m. $30 /-$ P. \& P. $3 / \mathrm{h}$.

SYNCHRONOUS MOTORS
$200 / 250 \mathrm{~V} 50 \mathrm{~Hz}$. New condition, ex-equipment. S.7 1 r.p.h. and 1 r.p.m. Self atarting, complete with gearing shaft
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Fig. 6. Regulation characteristics of the Valstab unit

Table 1: VOLTAGE CHECK
All voltages shown were measured with respect to chassis (common line) on a $20 k \Omega$ per volt multi-meter uader no load canditions. Mains input 246 V on 250 V topping. Output I voltage set at 25 JV

| V1 anodes (pins 2 and 5) | 446 V |
| :--- | ---: |
| V1 grids (pins 1 and 4) | 118 V |
| V3 anode (pin 7) | 11 EV |
| V3 screen grid (pin 8) | 345 V |
| Wiper of VR1 | -8 V |
| Junction of VR1, R16 | +23 V |
| Junction of VR1. R17 | $-32 V$ |
| Junction of VR2, 217 | -120 V |
| V2 cathode | -150 V |
| C4 negative terminal | $-157 V$ |

## TEST I. H.T. POSITIVE OUTPUT NOT STABILISING OR INCORRECT

(a) Check voltage across C 5 or voltage from VI anode to chassis. If incorrect proceed to Test 2 "No h.t. output". If correct proceed as follows.
(b) Check negative supply across C7. If incorrect proceed to Test 3 "No negative supply output". If correct proceed as follows.
(c) Check that VR2 and VRI are set up and O.K. Check RI6, RIT are correct value. If O.K. proceed to (d).
(d) Check V3 is operating correctly. Check values of R7, R\&, R9, R15, RI3. Check for short circuit in C8. If O.K. proceed to (e).
(e) Check VI is operating correctly. Check values of R5, R6, RII, RI2.

## TEST 2. NO H.T. POSITIVE OUTPUT

Check voltage across C5 or voltage from VI anode to chassis. If incorrect proceed as in (a) below. If correct proceed as in (b) below
(a) Incorrect voltage across C5

Check voltage across C 3
Check voltage on TI secondary 350-0-350
Check FSI, SI, and mains supply
Check for short circuit across C3, C4, C5, C6, C1, C2 Check for open circuit across D3, D4, LI
(b) Correct voltage across C:

Check VI is oferating
Check for epen circuit across R5, R. 6
Check for short sircuit across MI, $\mathrm{CP}, \mathrm{ClO}$
Check for cpen circuit across M2, FS2. S2

## TEST 3. NO H.T. NEGATIVE OUTPUT

Check voltage across $C 4$. If incorrect proceed as in (a) below. If correct proceed as in (t) below

## (a) Incorrect voltage across C4

Check voltage on Tí secondary 350-0-350
Check for open circuit across RI, R2, D1. D2, FSI, SI
Check for short circuit across C4
(b) Correct rohage across C4

Check for open circuit across R10, S3
Check for short sircuit across C6, R14, V2, C7
Check potential divider RIG, VRI, R.17, VR2

## TEST 4. EXCESSIVE HUM OR NOISE ON H.T.

Check for faulty choke LI, capacitors C3, C5, C9. CIO, CI, C2
Check VI and V3 for heater-cathode short when warm

Check D3, D4, [1, D2 for correct operation Check for leakage between transhormer windings and chassis


View of the valves between TI and LI. Note the twisted leads from the transformer

Rescale the dial 0-400 volts f.s.d., each division now representing 40 volts.

$$
\text { Series Resistance } R_{18}=\left(\frac{V}{T_{M_{1}}}\right)-R_{M_{1}}
$$

Where
$V=$ full scale voltage required (400)
$R_{M_{1}}=$ meter resistance (50)
$I_{M_{1}}=$ basic meter movement in amperes ( 0.001 )

$$
R_{18}=\left(\frac{400}{0.001}\right)-50=399,950 \mathrm{ohms}
$$

say 400 kilohms.
Assume a 2 mA movement, scaled $0-2$ f.s.d. in 10 divisions, having a resistance of 30 ohms, is to be used for the milliammeter.

Rescale the dial $0-150 \mathrm{~mA}$ f.s.d., each division now representing 15 mA .

$$
\text { Shunt Resistance } R_{19}=\frac{R_{\mathrm{M}_{2}}}{n-1}
$$

where
$R_{\mathrm{M}_{2}}=$ meter resistance (30)
$n=$ ratio by which meter range is to be extended ( 150 to $2=75$ to 1 ).
$R_{19}=\frac{30}{75-1}=\frac{30}{74}=0.405 \mathrm{ohms}$, say 0.4 ohms.

## SETTING UP

The testing of the power unit is quite straightforward, although when testing and setting up, high lethal voltages are present, great care should therefore be taken when working with the unit "live".

Set VR2 to approximately mid-position, switch on and allow the unit to warm up for ten or fifteen minutes. Next check the voltage swing available on VR1, either M1 or an external testmeter being used. Set VR1 to give maximum output (extreme clockwise direction) and adjust VR2 until output voltage falls to 325 volts. VR1 should then give a voltage output swing of approximately $175-325$ volts.

A dummy load which will draw $50-100 \mathrm{~mA}$ should next be connected across the h.t. sockets (a 3 to 6 kilohm 5 or 10 watt resistor being suitable), $\mathbf{S} 2$ being switched off. With VR1 set to give minimum output ( 175 volts), close $\mathbf{S} 2$ and ensure that there is no discernible change in the voltage output level.
This should be repeated at mid and maximum outputs ( 250 and 325 volts). Do not keep S2 closed longer than is necessary so as not to overheat the dummy load resistor.

Should stabilisation not be maintained at one or other of the extreme settings of VR1, a very slight adjustment on VR2 may be made to pull that point into the stabilised zone of the circuit characteristics. The tests are repeated until voltage stabilisation is maintained over the full range of VR1.

Check also that the load current drawn by the dummy load is correctly metered by M2. With the above tests satisfactorily completed, switch off S2 and remove the dummy load from the output sockets.

It now only remains to check the -150 V supply and 6.3 V heater supplies. Connect a multimeter across the -150 V output sockets (remembering that the positive lead of the voltmeter will go to the earth socket) and close S3. The voltage should read $150 \pm 2$ volts.

Switch off and temporarily connect a $15-20$ kilohm 1 watt dummy load resistor across the same output sockets, leaving the meter still in circuit. When S3 is closed there should be negligible change in output voltage.

## VOLTAGE CHECKS

Using a suitable a.c. voltage range on the testmeter, check the voltage between earth and each heater output socket; these should read approximately $3 \cdot 2$ volts per side and 6.4 volts across the heater sockets themselves.

Finally, with S2 and S3 closed, check that the correct voltage is present on the correct pin of the two output octal sockets and also all the small sockets. The unit can now be fixed in the cabinet and is ready for use.

In case of difficulty or for future servicing a voltage table is shown in Table 1. The readings listed were taken on a 20 kilohm/volt instrument with VRI set to give 250 volts out, no external loads being connected. The figures given will of course vary slightly between units due to normal component and valve tolerances. If the unit is correctly wired, however, using the components specified, no difficulty should be encountered with the setting up and testing.

## SERVICING AND FAULT FINDING

When working through the fault finding chart. check not only the circuit voltage at individual check points mentioned, but also check circuit for dry joints and incorrect wiring. Components should be checked for both open and short circuit, preferably under normal working conditions. Follow the checking chart carefully for each stage. 44 wis
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| 2N2193 | 8/6 | A8Y26 | \$/6 | B8Y84 | 121- | NKT404 | 12/6 | OC202 | $8 / 6$ |
| 2 N 2287 | 20/6 | A8Y27 | $7 / 6$ | B8Y95A | $3 / 6$ | NKT678 | 6/- | 0 C 203 | $6 /-$ |
| 2N2297 | $6 /-$ | A8Y28 | $5 / 3$ | BY100 | 4/6 | NKT713 | $7 / 6$ | OC204 | 5/6 |
| 2N2369A | $51-$ | A8Y29 | 81- | BY213 | 51- | NKT773 | 6/- | OC205 | $1-$ |
| 2N2410 | 10/6 | A8Y36 | $5 / 6$ | BYZ11 | $51-$ | NKT777 | 7/6 | OC206 | 14/6 |
| 2N2411 | 6/6 | A8YB0 | b/- | BYZ11N | $7 / 6$ | NKT80113 |  | OC207 | +7/6 |
| 2N2412 | 6/6 | A8Y5 | 7/6 | BYZ12 | 87/ |  | 20/- | $0 \mathrm{OC450}$ | 6 6- |
| 2N 2483 | 5/6 | A8Y53 | $4 / 9$ | BYZ14 | $27 / 6$ | 078B | $7 / 6$ | OC470 | 8/- |
| 2N2484 | 7/6 | A8Y54 | 4/9 | BYZ15 | 35/- | OAS | 3/6 | 0 OP 71 | $201-$ |
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| 2N2696 | 6/3 | ABY62 | ${ }_{6 / 6}^{6 /}$ | C111 | 13/- | 0447 | $21 /$ | 819T | 6/- |
| 2N2865 | 12/- | A8Y86 | $6 / 6$ $13 / 6$ | CREA 105 | $12 / 6$ $5 /-$ | OA70 | 1/6 | SAC40 | ${ }_{6 /-}$ |
| 2N2904 | 7/6 | ${ }^{\text {A8Z }} 187$ | $13 / 6$ $7 / 3$ | CR81/05 | 51- | OA71 | 21- | ${ }_{\text {SFT308 }}$ | ${ }^{7 / 6}$ |
| 2N2904A | $81-$ | A8Z20 | $7 / 3$ $7 / 6$ | C84B | 37/6 | OA73 | $21-$ | 8FT308 | $7 / 6$ |
| 2N2908 | $8 /-$ | ${ }^{\text {A8Z21 }}$ | $7 / 6$ $19 / 6$ | CS10B | $67 / 6$ | OA74 | 4/- | 8JO52F | $7 / 6$ $5 /-$ |
| 2N2907 | $7 / 6$ | ASZ23 | 19/6 | CV101 | $5{ }^{51}$ - | OA79 | 1/9 | ${ }_{\text {ST }}$ | $5 /-$ $12 / 6$ |
| 2N2926 | $3 /-$ | AUY10 | 19/6 | CV253 | $20 /-$ | OA81 | 1/6 | ST7231 gX 68 | 12/6 |
| 2N2924 | 4/6 | BC107 | $3 / 6$ | CV2154 | 32/6 | 0485 | 1/6 | SX68UH | 4/6 |
| 2N3014 | 7/6 | BC108 | 3/6 | CV2155 | 32/6 | OA86 | 41- | ${ }_{\text {SX }}^{\text {SX }}$ ( 631 U | $4 / 6$ $7 / 6$ |
| 2N3054 | $11 /-$ | BC109 | 3/6 | CV2279 | 10/6 | OA90 | 1/6 | SX631 SX631U0 | 7/6 |
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| 2 N 3900 A | 11/- | BC148 | 4/6 | D246 | $7 / 6$ | OAZ207 | 101- | XA143 | $\mathrm{B}_{1}$ - |
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| 2NB028 | $11 / 6$ | BC157 | 4/- | DD007 | $81-$ | OAZ210 | 6/6 | XA162 | 8/6 |
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[^3]

By B. H. BAILY

THIS timer was primarily designed for use with a 240 volt enlarger as a darkroom universal timer to give times of 1 to 60 seconds. However, in view of its high repeat accuracy- $\frac{1}{2}$ second in one minute-it is ideally suited to other applications where high timing accuracy is required.

## CIRCUIT

The circuit (Fig. 1) uses two transistors, a 2 N2926 and an OC71. A power supply of 12 volts is derived from transformer T1, the output of which is rectified by D2 and smoothed by C2. The heart of the timing circuit is a tantalum capacitor, C 1 , which charges through VR1 and R1: on the higher time range R2 is included in the charging path. The voltage across Cl is monitored by TR1 and TR2 which act as a comparator, comparing Cl voltage with the reference set at VR2 slider. When this reference is slightly exceeded, D1 conducts, turning on TRI which then draws current from TR2 base; TR2 immediately conducts, operating RLA, which then locks in via its own contact RLA1. Simultaneously, Cl is shorted to earth by contact RLA2. The timer may be reset by momentary interruption of the relay coil path by operation of S 2 to
"time" position. Some compensation against timing errors caused by mains variation is achieved by the connection of VR2 across the 12 V supply. Transistor TRI reference voltage remains proportional to the charging potential of Cl despite small changes in supply voltage.

## OPERATING SWITCH

The operating switch S2 is a G.P.O. type key switch, having a centre position, one lock position and a biased position, i.e. the switch returns to the centre position when released. This type of switch allows a "focus" facility (the lock position), which is essential when the timer is used in the darkroom. Timers without this feature have a habit of clicking off just as one gets the enlarger lens almost adjusted to the best focus position. In the "focus" position, the relay RLA is held de-energised by S2b contacts. To ensure that the relay pulls in immediately after focussing, a bias is applied to C1 via S2a. If this were not done, one would have to wait for the circuit to "time out" before the enlarger lamp went out.


The relay used is a G.P.O. type, having a coil resistance of 500 ohms. Platinum contacts are used for the enlarger lamp control contacts (RLA3), to ensure adequate current switching capacity.

## CONSTRUCTION

The smaller components can be wired on a single 13 way tagstrip as shown in Fig. 2, secured to the inside of the cabinet. The cabinet is a metal sloping front type measuring $8 \times 5 \times 5$ inches, which houses all components without wastage of space, and allows good earthing to be effected. A slide switch is used for the time range switch to avoid accidental change of range.

To avoid unnecessary extra mains leads, the enlarger output is taken from the timer already "live" and needs only to be connected to the lamp via the 3 pin socket SK1. Wiring of all components inside the case is shown in Fig. 3.

## CALIBRATION

Accuracy of the timer will depend to some degree on the choice of components. The time scale potentiometer should be wire-wound, of precision pattern if possible. This will ensure a consistent and linear scale calibration. To calibrate the finished timer, first mark on a circular cardboard scale as in the photograph the two extremes reached by the pointer knob. With SI set to $\mathrm{I}-30$ seconds position, test the anti-clockwise position by operating the "time" switch. The relay should latch after about I second, due to the inclusion of RI. Next, turn VR1 to maximum time and again operate timer. If the relay pulls in early (before

## COMPONENTS . . .

```
Resistors
    RI Ik\Omega
    R2 100k S
    R3 150\Omega
    R4 47k \Omega
    R5 330\Omega
    R6 150\Omega. All }\frac{1}{2}\textrm{W},5% carbo
```


## Capacitors

$\mathrm{Cl} 140 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ tantalum 50 V
C2 $500 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. 25 V
Semiconductors
TRI 2N2926 (green)
TR2 OC71
DI, D3 OA91
D2 DD000 or similar 50 p.i.v.
Miscellaneous
VRI $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ wirewound potentiometer
VR2 $2 k \Omega$ skeleton preset potentiometer
SI D.P.S.T. slide switch
S2 Three-pole three-way G.P.O. keyswitch (see text)
RLA G.P.O. type relay, coil resistance $500 \Omega$ having one set of changeover contacts, one set of normally open contacts and one set of normally closed platinum contacts
TI Mains transformer 220/240V primary 18 V secondary
SKI 3 pin mains socket (flying lead type)
FSI 250 mA fuse and holder
Metal case (see text)
Knob, pointer
13 way tagstrip


Fig. 2. Tag strip wiring diagram
30 seconds have elapsed), adjust VR2 towards the "live" end of its travel, or vice versa. Switch "range" to $30-60$ seconds and check for accurate one minute timing. If this is incorrect, re-adjust VR2 to correct, and on the $1-30$ second range find the exact point at which 30 seconds timing is achieved. Mark this point and leave VR2 set. Potentiometer VR2 has a slightly greater control over the longer periods of time than the shorter intervals, since the charging of Cl is exponential.

Finally, the intermediate timing calibrations for the five second intervals can be determined by experiment, and marked in. The one second graduations may be filled in by eye afterwards, since they obey a strictly linear law.

Note: Be sure to earth all darkroom equipment. Use three core cable and three pin plugs for the timer and enlarger, and earth all metal cabinets.


Fig. 3. Photo-timer layout and wiring diagram. Components mounted on the tag strip have been omitted for clarity


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p. 10 Amp 8 dore Nom-kink Fler. As above but cores are $28 / 0076$ Copper. Normal price $2 / 6$ per $y d$. 100 yd. coil $\mathbf{2 7}$.10.0, p. \& p. $6 / 6$.
6 Amp 2 Core Flex, AE above, but $\because$ Cores each $23 / 0076$ as used for Vacuum Cleaners. Electric Blankets, etc. $89 / 6100 \mathrm{yd}$. coil, p. \& p. $6 / 6$. mally told at $1 / 6$ yd. Our price 100 yd, coll mally sold Poet and ineurance $6 / 6$.


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| No. of Pol | 2 way | 3 wa | 4 way | 5 way | 6 way | 8 way | 9 way | 10 way | 2 way |
| 1 poie | 8/6 | d/6 | 6/8 | 6/6 | 6/6 | 8/6 | 8/6 | 6 | 6/6 |
| 2 poles | 6/6 | 8/6 | 6/6 | $8 / 6$ | $6 / 6$ | 6/6 | $8 / 6$ | 10/6 | 10/6 |
| 3 poles | 6/6 | 6/6 | 6/6 | $6 / 6$ | $10 / 6$ | $10 / 6$ | $10 / 6$ | 14/6 | 14/6 |
| 4 poles | 8/6 | 6/6 | 8/6 | 10/6 | $10 / 6$ | $10 / 6$ | $10 / 6$ | 18/6 | 18/6 |
| 5 polea | 6/6 | $6 / 6$ | $10 / 6$ | $10 / 6$ | $14 / 6$ | 14/6 | 14/6 | $22 / 6$ | $28 / 8$ |
| 6 poles | 6/6 | 10/6 | 10/6 | 10/6 | 14/6 | 14/6 | $14 / 8$ | 20/6 | 28/6 |
| 7 polea | 10/6 | 10/6 | 10/6 | $14 / 6$ | $18 / 6$ | 18/6 | 18/6 | $20 / 6$ | 80/6 |
| 8 poles | 10/6 | 10/6 | 10/8 | 14/6 | $18 / 6$ | 18/6 | 18/6 | 24/6 | $84 / 6$ |
| 9 poles | 10/6 | $10 / 6$ | 146 | $14 / 6$ | 2e/6 | 20/6 | 2e/6 | $38 / 6$ | 38/6 |
| 10 poles | 10/6 | $10 / 8$ | $14 / 6$ | 18/6 | 2e/6 | 2e/6 | $20 / 6$ | 48/6 | 42/6 |
| 11 poles | 10/6 | 14/6 | 14/6 | 18/6 | $28 / 6$ | 26/6 | 28/6 | $48 / 6$ | $48 / 6$ |
| 12 poles | 10/6 | 14/6 | 14/6 | 18/6 | 88/6 | 20/4 | 28/6 | 50/6 | $50 / 6$ |

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## P.E. communiculions receiver

Sir-I am at present constructing the P.E. Wideband H.F. Communications Receiver and I think that Mr R. Hirst's description of the receiver and of its construction are excellent.

However, there are one or two points that I would like clarified.

Firstly, in the preview of this receiver in the September 1969 issue, it is described as having a built-in crystal comparator to ensure accurate alignment. If this were described I an sure that others who, like myself, have not access to a vast array of test equipment, would benefit.

Secondly, the receiver is designed primarily for the reception of S.S.B., but so far as I can understand, it provides only for Upper Sideband, and not for Lower (or inverted) Sideband reception.

Since the inverted form is, I believe. used on the 160,80 , and 40 meter bands by amateurs, I am sure that facilities for reception of this mode would be very useful. I would think that facilities for switching out the 36 MHz crystal in the lst oscillator, and replacing it with a 32 MH ; crystal would cater for this.

Thirdly, it was stated that optional arrangements for a local oscillator would be described, but the series has now been concluded with no such provision. Also, I would like to know how stable I can expect the oscillator that has been described to be.

Fourthly, if Al transmissions are received by the "offset" method, then will not the a.g.c. fail to respond to the signal, and indeed possibly allow another signal to control the receiver gain? I would think that a switch to render a.g.c. unoperative, or audio devised a.g.c. would solve this problem.
Lastly, in order to connect the a.g.c. module to the receiver, will it not be necessary to have two output sockets on the first i.f. module?
I realise that the above list is one of only minor points, and I most certainly do not wish to detract from Mr Hirst's marvellous design, but merely to ensure that my finished receiver will give the best possible performance of which it is capable.
R. Smith,

Basingstoke.

As you will appreciate, the designing of a piece of equipment of this nature for a large and varied range of applications requires considerable predesign thought on the part of the designer. Due to the flexibility of this type of wideband design, one could have written a never ending series around peripheral equipment. Bearing this in mind, perhaps you would consider the following observations upon your comments a reasonable compromise between what one would have liked to have done and what one had the space to do it in.
I. As you quite rightly state, the initial intention had been to describe a crystal comparator and the original equipment around which the design was centred had this unit included. When, however, the cost and the ability of the constructor to actually set up the crystal comparator was considered in much more detail, a certain amount of doubt surrounded the adviseability of including this particular unit in the finalised design.
2. As you quite rightly suggest, the receiver is designed primarily for upper sideband reception but as you will see from the introduction to the series, the design was intended for receiver enthusiasts with some knowledge of the particular subject. There are two ways of simply converting the receiver for lower sideband reception.
(a) By changing the second oscillator to 32 MHz .
(b) Change the sideband filter.

Obviously the first suggestion is the most simple to carry out.
3. Regarding the optional local oscillator arrangements, you simply have to use the second oscillator circuit and use the crystal (with the required tuned collector load) for the frequency you require.
4. If Al reception is required, one would use the arrangement that does not include the a.g.c. Unit where the i.f. gain is manually controlled by the front panel Carrier Control.
5. In order to connect the A.G.C. module, it will be necessary to add a socket to the first i.f. unit,
in parallel with the output to the sideband filter unit, in a manner similar to that used on the second and first oscillator units.

Your observations are quite correct and no doubt other constructors will make the basic receiver with all types of modifications to suit their own requirements and as you will understand, the permutations are innumerable.

I hope that the comments will convey to you the reasons for failing to enumerate all the variables.-R.H.

## Fringe benefil

Sir-I should like to take this opportunity of congratulating you on the publication of Gerry Brown's "On the Fringe," particularly that part on the possibilities of emotions in plants. Many publishers fight shy of anything which may turn out to be controversial, and the layman has little opportunity to learn of, and udge for himself, the truth about such subjects.

I personally think that there are many things in nature that before today were the prerogative of top scientists to investigate, and most of these were too concerned with keeping up prestige to "dabble" in anything which might show them up as cranks. Now, with the abundance of i.c.'s, it is quite within the realms of possibility for an amateur to make sophisticated equipment, such as d.c. amps., simply by connecting up an i.c., and, as Gerry Brown has done, try out some of these fringe experiments in confidence that if the experiment turns out unsuccessful, nothing is lost. If successful, it could well be that great scientific discoveries could be achieved by a determined "dabbler"

I have no doubt that there will be many letters as a result of this subject on plant emotions, as it is my experience that many who are keen electronic enthusiasts have the kind of minds which are stimulated by new challenges.

I look forward to seeing full articles covering the construction of suitable apparatus for testing out E.S.P. also, and may even get around to having a go myself when time permits!
B. H. Baily,

Ferndown, Dorset.
 GIVE FOR THOSE WNO. GAVE



A SELECTION FROM OUR POSTBAG

## Now we've Zene î all

Sir-I was interested to note that in B. Grainger's letter (July 1970 Readout) he wants an equivalent to a Zener diode. Here's one: A battery!


As used in a power supply unit:

and another (even worse!): Shunt stabilising.


City University, London, E.C.I.

## Mobile rally

Sir,-Readers may be interested to learn that a Mobile Rally is being organised by the Peterborough Amateur Radio and Electronics Society on Sunday, September 20, from 2 to 5 p.m., in the Walton Senior School, Mountsteven Avenue, Peterborough.

There will be numerous trade-stalls and exhibition stands of electronic components, plus a giant sale of surplus equipment. Entertainment is to be provided for wives and families, and parking space will be ample.

Talk-in stations will be G3QS on $1,980 \mathrm{kHz}$, and G3RED on 2 metres. A special feature will be a display of antique wireless receivers, complete with cats-whiskers and horn loudspeakers!

Further details can be obtained from the hon. secretary :

Douglas Byrne, G3KPO,
Jersey House, Eye, Peterborough, Hunts.

## Temperature alarm

Sir-Thank you for publishing my article under the Ingenuity Unlimited pages in the July issue of your magazine.

I would however like to point out an error; the bridge rectifier has been rotated a quarter of a turn so that the leads from the Wheatstone bridge network and the leads to the transistor have become transposed.

It may help anyone constructing the temperature alarm to note that the battery BY1 need not be $1 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{~V}$ but can be increased to a maximum limited by the breakdown voltages of the components used. This can be done to increase the sensitivity of the circuit. Sensitivity can also be greatly improved by the addition of a second transistor; a revised circuit diagram is shown below.
D. G. Warner,

Birmingham


Fig. I. Improved temperature alarm circuit

## Courses ...

## BRENTFORD

September 21, 7.15 p.m. Radio Amateurs' Course.
September 22, 24, 7.15 p.m. Radio and Television Servicing. September 23, 7.15 p.m. High Fidelsy and Tape Recording.
November 6, 7.15 p.m. Mathematics of Radio. Fee is $£ 3$ or as an extra class $£ 1$. All above courses held at Brentford Centre of Adult Education, Brentford Secondary Girls'School, Clifden Road, Brentford.
Enrolments: September 10, 11, 14 and $15 ; 6.30-8.30 \mathrm{p} . \mathrm{m}$.

## CEANFORD

September 21, 7.15 p.m. Radio Hobbies, at Cranford School, Woodfield Road, Cranford.
Enrolments: September 10, 11, 14 and $15 ; 6.30-8.30$ p.m.

## FARNBOROUGH

City \& Guilds Amateurs' Examination Course.
Commences Mid-September and full details available from The Principal, Cove Further Education Centre, Cove County Secondary School, St. John's Road, Farnborcugh, Hants.

## GLASGOW

September 15, 7.0 p.m. Radio Amateurs' Examination Course, at Glasgow College of Nautical Studies, 21, Thistle Street, Glasgow, C. 5 .
Enrolments: September 15, 7.0 p.m. Fees: $£ 3$.

## HESTON

September 25, 7.15 p.m. Basic Elecironics Hobby Course, at Heston School, Heston Road, Heston.
Enrolments: September 10, 11, 14 and 15; 6.30-8.30 p.m.

## ORPINGTON

September 23, 7.30 p.m. Everyman's (and Woman's) Electronics, at Orpington \& District Adult Education Centre, NewsteadwoodSchool for Girls, Avebury Road, Orpington, Kent.
Postal enrolments commence September 1. Fees: $£ 2$ 10s. ( 30 weeks).


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| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2 / 6$ | $16+18 / 500 \mathrm{~V}$ |  |  |  |
| 150 V | $\cdots$ | $2 / 8$ | $50 / 25 \mathrm{~F}$ |  | | $1 / 450 \mathrm{~V}$ | $2 / 6$ | $500 / 25 \mathrm{~V}$ | $\cdots$ | $4 / 6$ | $60+50 / 350 \mathrm{~V}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $10 / 450 \mathrm{~V}$ | $2 / 250 \mathrm{~V}$ |  |  |  |  | | $16 / 450 \mathrm{~V}$ | $3 /-$ | $8+8 / 450 \mathrm{~V}$ | $3 / 6$ |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
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