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1.50 p
$\mathrm{65p}$

0p, $6 \times \frac{1}{3} \mathrm{in} .25 \mathrm{p}$.
VOLUME CONTROLS 800 mm Coax 4 p . ye. Long spinales. Miaget Size

 | STEREO L/S 55p. D.P. 75p. | FRINGE LOW LOSS |
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ALUMENUM PANELS 18 s s.w.g. $6 \times 4 \mathrm{in} .8 \mathrm{p} ; 8 \times 6 \mathrm{in} .15 \mathrm{p}$; $10 \times 7 \mathrm{in} .17 \mathrm{p} ; 12 \times 8 \mathrm{in} .23 \mathrm{p} ; 14 \times 9 \mathrm{in} .27 \mathrm{p} ; 12 \times 12 \mathrm{in} .22 \mathrm{p}$. If inch DIAMETER WAVE-CHANG3S SWITCHES 25 p. 2 p. 2-way, or 2 p. 6-way or 3 p. 4 -way 25p each. 1 p .12 -way, or 4 p . 2 - Way, or 4 p. 3 -way 25 p .
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| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $25 / 25 \mathrm{~V}$ | 10 p | $16+16 / 450 \mathrm{~V}$ | 25 p | $32+32+32 / 350 \mathrm{~V}$ | 43 p |  | $0 / 50 \mathrm{~V}$.. $10 \mathrm{p}|32+32 / 350 \mathrm{~V} 25 \mathrm{p}| 100+50+50 / 850 \mathrm{~V} 48 \mathrm{p}$ SUB-MINN. ELEOTROL YTICS. $1,2,4,5,8,16,25,30,50,100$, CERAMIC 1pF to $0.01 \mathrm{mF}, 4 \mathrm{p}$. Silver Mica 2 to $5000 \mathrm{pF}, 4 \mathrm{p}$.

PAPER $350 \mathrm{~V}-0.14 \mathrm{p}, 0513 \mathrm{p} ; 1 \mathrm{mF}$ 15p; 2 mF 150 V . 15 p. $500 \mathrm{~V}-0.001$ to $0.054 \mathrm{p} ; 0.15 \mathrm{p} ; 0.858 \mathrm{p} ; 0.4725 \mathrm{p}$. $0.1,16 \mathrm{p} .001,0.0022,0.0047,8 \mathrm{p} ; 0.01,0.02,12 \mathrm{p} ; 0.047$, $\mathrm{pF} 10 \mathrm{p} ; 2,700-5,600 \mathrm{pF} 20 \mathrm{p} ; 6,800 \mathrm{pF}-0.01$, mfd 30 p ; each. TWIN GANG. " $0-0$ " $208 \mathrm{pF}+176 \mathrm{pF}, 85 \mathrm{p}$; Slow motion drive $365+365$ with $25+25 \mathrm{pF}, 50 \mathrm{p} 500 \mathrm{pF}$ slow motion, standard CHROME TELRSCOPIC AERIAL, SWivel base, 23 in. 20 p TUROME TELLESCOPIC AERIAL, SWive base, D; 250pF, 10p; $600 \mathrm{pF}, 10 \mathrm{p} ; 750 \mathrm{pF} 10 \mathrm{p} ; 120 \mathrm{pF} 10 \mathrm{p}$. RECTIFIERS CONTACT COOLED ${ }^{2}$ wave 60 mA 38 p 85 mA 48 p . SILICON BYZ13 30p; BY100 30p; BY127 30p. EX-GOVERNMENT RECTLYIERS 250\%, 200mA, 30 p . 20 p .
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$1610 \frac{1}{2} \times$ Bin. Modern Design,
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## TOPIC OF THE MONTH

## Electronic Vandals

ANEW generation of vandals is infesting the countryside. The scale of the menace can be judged by a report in The Times which says that more than 50 archaeological sites in Britain have been robbed by vandals using metal locators in the "last three months". These looters are urged on by irresponsible promptings such as contained in the book A Fortune Under Your Feet, which would not have been publicised in the article last month had the editor been aware of passages which recommend amateurs to operate metal locators on established Roman and prehistoric sites. We also condemn remarks made recently in Coin Monthly which, in slightly hysterical rhetoric, suggest that "an insignificant group of professional archaeologists" want to stop "those rights and pleasures" (of operating metal detectors). This technique of twisting the facts is as familiar as it is sickening.
This type of rabble-rousing emotionalism, coupled with the stimulation of the greed motive, is a ready incitement to gullible and unprincipled people to abandon whatever vestiges of conscience they may have had. It has led to a situation where our dwindling number of archeological sites are being systematically ravaged. Archaeologists are seriously considering the possibility of not releasing information of newly discovered sites-a sad reflection of the times we live in, since the main objective of such exploration is the dissemination of knowledge.
It is galling also that having developed the skill of scientific and methodical excavation to its modern level, yielding a degree of information hitherto impossible, a process made possible largely by generations of voluntary research, skilled field workers are now confronted by sites irrevocably ruined by zombies whose motivating objectives are simply personal gain. A sad, sordid picture.
There are laws to protect important sites and moves are afoot for heavily increased penalties for despoiling archaeological sites. Welcome as this might be, we feel that the problem is more a case of civil conscience than Acts of Parilament. Readers of P.W. can help. Avoid areas where invaluable evidence may be disturbed or destroyed. If a "casual" find looks important, contact your county archaeological society at once-and don't spread the word around; if you have discovered a site of potential importance it will require highly specialised workers and scientific treatment to interpret the findings and to extract the maximum information. This may be impossible for all time if a site is heedlessly disturbed. Moreover, if you are genuinely interested in the advancement of knowledge, coupled with the excitement of glimpses into the past,
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[^1]
## WEWS... NEWS... <br> NeWS...

## Impex instrument cases



The cases shown come in a standard range of 36 sizes and are of 20 s.w.g. steel with a stove enamelled green hammer finish. The passivated zinc-plated steel base is 18 s.w.g.

Detachable front and back panels are of 18 s.w.g. satin anodised aluminium and are designed to lie flat for easy piercing. Phillips screws are used throughout and each case is provided with four rubber feet.

At no additional cost, Impex cases can be supplied with all or some of these specifications: alternative colours of blue or bronze; no hood; no ventilating slots or back/front anodised front/rear panels.

Examples of prices are: $2^{1}{ }_{2} \mathrm{in}$. height, $3^{3}{ }_{8} \mathrm{in}$. width and depth of 5in.: $£ 1.13$ plus 15 p post and packing. A case measuring $5 \mathrm{in} \times 13^{1}{ }_{2} \mathrm{in} . \times 5 \mathrm{in}$. costs $£ 3 \cdot 19$ plus 25 p p.\&p. and one measuring $5 \mathrm{in} . \times 13^{1}{ }_{2} \mathrm{in} . \times 11 \mathrm{in}$. costs $£ 6.40$ with p.\&p. charge of 28 p.

Further details of prices of these cases, one-off jobs and rackmounting units may be obtained from "Impex" McArdle and Brainsby (Import \& Export) Ltd., P.O. Box 2BB, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, NE99 2BB.

## Precision hand press

The "Innovcom" precision hand press can be used for the assembly and 'dis-assembly of small components and the application of precise pressure to a very small surface area.

Construction is light alloy body with hollow open base, drilled for two screw attachment to bench and drilled beneath chuck to hollow cavity. Link and plunger are of mild steel. Sintered bronze Oilite bushes are oiled for life. Handle length is $7^{1}{ }_{2}$ in. and full handle traverse of $2^{\mathrm{I}} 2^{2}$. gives chuck movement of 0.6 in . Daylight (clearance) from chuck to platform is lin. Chuck takes 40 thou wire, nail shaft or rod.

The price is $£ 3.45$ postage and packing included and the unit is for UK distribution only. Innovcom Ltd., Southbank, Daveylands, Wilmslow, Cheshire, SK9 2AG.


## The Mini Iron is here!



The Adamin Model 15 is a miniature soldering iron which comes complete with a set of interchangeable bits and a tube of lubricant. This iron weighs half an ounce less flex but its versatility is by no means "light weight." Used with the interchangeable bits from $0 \cdot 047 \mathrm{in}$. to $\frac{3}{16} \mathrm{in}$. it is suitable for all jobs from minute hearing aid soldering to heavy "chassis bashing."

A 12 V version of the iron is also available and the complete hobby pack as shown and priced at $£ 2 \cdot 30$ (p.\&p. free) is available from Light Soldering Developments at 28 Sydenham Road, Croydon CR9 2LL.

## Transensor kit

In the February 1971 issue we mentioned the Transensor slide synchroniser, which enables a cassette recorder to be used with an automatic slide projector.

The unit is now available in kit form, enabling it to be fitted by the purchaser to his own cassette tape recorder. The makers claim that some twenty or thirty improved versions of the mono cassette recorder appear on the market every year and as the Transensor $\mathrm{S} / 2 \mathrm{kit}$ is adaptable, it can be transferred from one machine to another as new models are introduced. The price is $£ 18$.
One other feature of the Transensor $S / 2$ is that it allows pulses to be introduced and erased independently of the master sound track.
Further information may be obtained by writing to Audio Visual Picture Enterprises, 17 Abercorn Place, London, N.W.8. or telephoning 01-328-1461.

## Bib auto record cleaner

The Bib Division of Multicore Solders Ltd., Hemel Hempstead, Herts has introduced an automatic record cleaner under the brand name Bib Groov-Kleen Model 40. Resembling a high quality miniature cartridge arm, it is finished mainly in anodised aluminium. The base is supplied with a self-adhesive disc so that it is easily fixed to the player deck. The base has a chromiumplated pivot pillar which can be raised or lowered so that the arm can be adjusted to be parallel with the turntable. The arm, which is cranked to provide better tracking, has a brush at one end and a counterweight at the other. A small roller mounted behind

Return of the Maka Switch


Constructors who have mourned the loss of the MAKA switch will be delighted to learn that A. B. Electronic Components Limited manufacture a similar, but more versatile switch, which is available from stockists, in kit form. The size is approximately the same as the MAKA, and as can be seen from the illustration consists of a shafting unit with a six inch length shaft, wafers, screens, spacers, studding and a mains switch.

The six inch shaft length will accommodate several wafers, or it may be cut down if only one or two wafers are required. The wafers are available as follows:-"Break before Make"-one pole twelve way; two pole six way; three pole four way; four pole three way; six pole two way. "Make before Break"-one pole ten way; two pole five way.

The metal screens are a feature which have been added. These switch kits are available from these suppliers:-Crescent Radio, 40 Mayes Road, London, N.22; Home Radio (Components) Ltd., 240 London Road, Mitcham, Surrey; Servio Radio, 156-158 Merton Road, Wimbledon, London, S.W.19; Garland Bros., Chesham House, Deptford Broadway, London, S.E.8; Radioparts, 5 Market Way, Plymouth, Devon.
the brush automatically sets its own level. A swivelling arm-rest is provided to hold the arm when a record is being placed on the turntable.

The recommended Retail Price is $£ 2 \cdot 08$ plus P.T. of 51 p. Bib Division, Multicore Solders Ltd., Hemel Hempstead, Herts.


## Derby Rally

The fourteenth annual Derby Moibile Radio Rally will be held on Sunday August 15th, 1971, at Rykneld School, Bedford St., Derby. There will be a band concert, junk sale, prize draw, children's events, trade stands, competitions, demonstrations, ice cream, refreshments, etc. in addition to G3ERD/A on 160 metres and G8DBY on v.h.f.

Admission and parking are free and further details may be obtained from Tom Darn G3FGY, Hon. Organiser, "Sandham Lodge," 1 Sandham Lane, Ripley, Derbys. DE5-3HE. Phone Ripley 2972.


THE first item of test equipment obtained by most home experimenters is a multi-range testmeter, capable of reading voltage and, probably, current and resistance as well. One large drawback of the ohms ranges is that they are very non-linear, being open at the low end and extremely cramped at the high end, see Fig. 1.

Besides being inconvenient to read, accuracy suffers when measuring values of resistance more than, say, $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ on most instruments. Moreover, increasing resistance is read at the left-hand end, the opposite to the voltage and current ranges.


Fig. 1. Illustrating the cramped scale of a normal ohm-meter.
The ohm-meter described here has a linear calibration, with increasing resistance towards the righthand end of the scale and uses five switched ranges to cover $10 \mathrm{M} \Omega$; the lowest value of resistance that can be measured is set by the accuracy with which the meter can be read but is about $100 \Omega$. The possibility of extending this lower end downwards by a factor of 10 is discussed later. The ohm-meter is self-contained, although external batteries and an external moving-coil meter could be employed.

As a bonus, the form of circuitry used lends itself to adapting the instrument to test capacitors as well. Their value can be read and an indication is given of their insulation resistance i.e. leakage. The range of capacitors that can be tested in this way is about $0 \cdot 1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ to $10,000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$, including electrolytics, but excluding those of less than about 8 volt rating, unless precautions are taken (see later for further details on this point.)

## PRINCIPLE OF OPERATION

The principle of operation of the linear scale ohmmeter is illustrated in Fig. 2. A constant current is sent through the unknown resistance, $\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{x}}$. Now, by Ohm's Law:-

$$
R_{\mathrm{x}}=\frac{E}{I}
$$


so that if $I$ is constant:-

$$
\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{x}} \propto \mathrm{E}
$$

and a measure of E is a measure of $\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{x}}$. Thus if a linear scale voltmeter can be arranged to read $\mathbf{R}_{\mathrm{x}}$, this also will be read on a linear scale.

To measure capacitance, use is made of the relationship

$$
\mathrm{Q}=\mathrm{VC}
$$

Charge $Q$ is current $x$ time, so

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathrm{VC}=\mathrm{It} \\
\text { or } \mathrm{C}=\frac{\mathrm{It}}{\mathrm{~V}}
\end{gathered}
$$

Remembering that $C$ is in farads and $I$ is in amperes, a current of $1 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ flowing into a capacitor C for 10 seconds and producing a rise in potential of 10 volts means that $C$ has a value:-

$$
\begin{aligned}
C= & \frac{10^{-6} \times 10}{10} \\
& =1 \mu \mathrm{~F}
\end{aligned}
$$



Fig. 2. Circuit to demonstrate the principle of the linear scale ohmmeter.

Similarly, $10 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ for 10 seconds and a rise of 10 volts means that a capacitor of $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ was connected, and so on.
Actual values of current used and voltage monitored are different from these examples but the principle is exactly the same.
Two difficulties now present themselves. How can we generate a constant current? How can we measure E on the voltmeter without upsetting the circuit? Remember that simple voltmeters, based on a moving coil meter and series resistors must draw some current to function at all. This latter point is best illustrated by example.
if $\operatorname{Tr} 2$ has a high enough current gain for base current to be ignored, a constant current will flow at $\operatorname{Tr} 2$ collector. This will remain so, no matter if the value of $\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{x}}$ varies, due to the negative feed-back loop between $\operatorname{Tr} 2$ base and $\operatorname{Tr} 1$ collector, which functions as follows.

Suppose, for any reason, I increases. Then the voltage developed across $\mathrm{R}_{e}$ will increase, and so therefore will the base current of Trl. The resultant voltage drop at $\operatorname{Tr} 1$ collector will tend to reduce the base current of $\operatorname{Tr} 2$ and hence also reduce its emitter current, so counter-acting the original increase.

The actual value of constant current is sct to


Fig. 3. Circuit of a constant-current generator.

Fig. 4. Basic circuit of a very high impedance input voltmeter using an

FET. $>$

Suppose $\mathrm{R}_{X}$ is $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ and we have a $100 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ meter, which requires $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ in series to read as a 10 volt f.s.d. voltmeter; if this were placed in parallel with $\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{x}}$, as in Fig. 2 then obviously it would shunt the $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ to a considerable extent, and give a false reading.

To deal with the point first raised, that of generating a constant current, consider the circuit of Fig. 3. The base-emitter voltage of $\operatorname{Tr} 1$ is virtually constant at about 0.7 volt for a silicon transistor; hence the voltage drop across $\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{e}}$ is similarly constant. With a constant voltage across $\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{e}}$, a constant current must flow to the emitter of $\operatorname{Tr} 2$ and hence,
that required by adjusting the value of $\mathrm{R}_{e}$, and also by making some broad adjustment to Rl. A value for R1 suitable for $1 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ is no longer so when, say, 10 mA is required, and so some changes in R1 are called for.

While any desired current can, in theory, be derived, obviously there are practical limitations. At the upper end dissipation in the transistors will be the deciding factor; note that maximum transistor dissipation occurs when $R_{x}$ is at its lowest value, for then, for a given (constant) current, the voltage across the transistor $\operatorname{Tr} 2$ is greatest.

The lowest current that can be set up is limited in two ways. Adequate current gain must be available and the desired current must be large compared to the leakage current.

In the practical circuit, a lowest current of about $0 \cdot 7 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ is used; a BCY71 has a current gain of about 40 at this level, while leakage current is quoted as $0.05 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ maximum. Should a substitute transistor be used, constructors must ensure that it is suitable from these points of view. No germanium device is likely to be a practicable substitute; BC179, BCY70 and BC157 should prove to be reasonable alternatives.

With a constant current flowing through $R_{x}$ we now require a high impedance voltmeter to measure the voltage
drop across $R_{X}$, so giving its resistance value.
An FET seems to be called for and the ready availability of these devices at reasonable prices makes one the obvious choice.

Many circuits of high impedance voltmeters using FETs have appeared in the technical press but the one used here is based on a simple configuration published by Mullard Ltd., see Fig. 4.

The FET is arranged as a source follower; its source voltage is compared with a voltage derived from a potential divider. The series resistor in the gate circuit gives some protection against unwanted transients, which could damage the gate-source junction, by limiting the gate current. The input resistance of the circuit of Fig. 4 is many tens of megohms; in point of fact, the author was unable to measure it, it was so high--just what we require.

## PRACTICAL CIRCUIT

The full circuit diagram now becomes as in Fig. 5, which includes the necessary switching.

One pole of S1 selects different emitter resistors for Tr 2 , consisting of a fixed and small variable in series, and this is the range switching. The other pole of S1 switches in one of three different resistors, to cover the five decades, for Trl collector load.

With S2 in the "Z" position, R9 is connected from the FET gate to supply negative, so permitting zero setting of the meter to be done by means of VR6. This done, and with the test resistor connected, when S 2 is moved to position " R ", the value of the resistor is displayed on a linear scale. This means that, for example, on the $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ range, a reading of 0.7 mA is to be taken as indicating $7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$, a reading of 0.35 mA , $3 \cdot 5 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ and so on.

## $\star$ components list



For testing capacitors, the capacitor is connected with S2 at " $Z$ ", whence R9 removes any charge on the capacitor, and, after setting of zero as before, S 2 rotated to " R " for either 10 seconds or until the meter reads f.s.d. Further rotation of S 2 to " C " holds the reading and enables an assessment of capacitor quality to be made; see later under 'Capacitor evaluation'.

The second pole of 52 is the supply on/off switch.
Note that S2b must be a make-before-break switch, otherwise the instrument will be switched off between positions of S2 and this would invalidate any capacitor measurements. Should such a switch not be available, then S 2 b should be replaced by a small toggle or slide switch mounted conveniently; S2a can be the more usual break-beforemake type.

## CONSTRUCTION

Having dealt with the basic theory and circuit of the linear scale ohmmeter, we can turn to constructional details.

The photographs and drawing show the layout of the prototype, which was housed in a die-cast box.

Most of the components are mounted on a piece of $0 \cdot 15^{\prime \prime}$ pitch veroboard which is in turn mounted

[^2]Fig. 6. Suggested layout of components with the circuit board in the lid of the die-cast box.
on the inside of the box cover, using nylon nuts as insulated spacers. Connections to the switches, meter, battery and terminals are made via veropins. The small pre-set variable resistors, VR1 to VR5 are $0 \cdot 1$ watt components intended for $0 \cdot 1^{\prime \prime}$ pitch veroboard, but, by a slight bending of the terminal tags can be made to fit the board used.

A suggested layout is given, Fig. 6, but if for any reason the constructor wishes to alter this in any way, then this is in order.

The dimensions of the box used will depend on a number of factors. The meter is the most important of these; in the prototype the meter was one 2 in. square. Although this may seem rather small, it is still capable of being read to about $2 \%$, which is better than the accuracy with which the instrument can be set up by most constructors; it is also about the limit of accuracy of the meter movement itself.

A meter of such a size enables a box of $4^{3}{ }_{4} \times 3^{3}{ }_{4}$ $\times 2^{1}{ }_{4} \mathrm{in}$. to be used, provided reasonable care is taken in the choice of components.
The rotary switches shown are of $1_{2} \mathrm{in}$. diameter and so can be accommodated comfortably, while a PP3 9 volt battery is simply fitted by clamping it, in a vertical position, between the box and its cover. Two scraps of foam plastic, one at each end of the battery, prevent it from moving and at the same time provide insulation for its terminals. Connection to these is by soldering wires directly to them, there being no room for the usual snap connector. Since the whole instrument draws only 3 mA , plus any test current, a PP3 should last a very long time if the unit is switched off when not actually in use, and thus solder connections to the battery are no great disadvantage.
With wiring up completed, check that the voltmeter section is functioning correctly by switching S2 to "Z" and seeing that VR6 enables the meter to be brought to zero.

Actual setting up of the emitter resistors of Tr2 by means of VR1 to VR5 can only be done by making use of known values of resistance. However, even just the loan of resistors of $2 \%$ accuracy will suffice, while $5 \%$ resistors can be bought quite cheaply. Values required are $10 \mathrm{M} \Omega, 1 \mathrm{M} \Omega, 100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$, $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ and $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$.

Start with range 1 and fit the $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ to the terminals; with S2 at " R " adjust VR1 to give a reading of 1 mA on the meter. Repeat on the other ranges, using the appropriate resistors, and remembering to put S 2 to " $Z$ " before removing resistors.

## CAPACITOR EVALUATION

Measurement of the value of medium to large capacitors and an indication of their leakage resistance can be considered as a bonus with the ohmmeter but can be omitted if desired.

Demonstration of this mode of use can best be carried out using a $1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ paper capacitor. With S1 on range 5 and $S 2$ at " $Z$ ", connect the capacitor and then put S2 to "R". Note that the meter reading

slowly increases at a constant rate. When the meter reads 0.8 mA or so, switch to " C "; the unit is now reading the voltmeter that was developed across the $1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ by the constant current which flowed into it on " $R$ ", and if the meter reading stays constant, or almost so, then the $1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ capacitor is a good one. The implication is that the voltmeter input resistance is very many megohms and hence is extremely difficult to measure.

With this confirmation that the $1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ capacitor is a good, low leakage specimen, it is now an easy matter to measure its actual value.
First, put S2 back to " Z ", so discharging the capacitor by means of R9. Then, switch $S 2$ to " $R$ " and commence timing, either by stop watch or a sweep second hand on a watch or clock. When 10 seconds have elapsed, or the meter reads f.s.d. which ever is the sooner, switch S 2 to " C ", noting the elapsed time if less than 10 seconds.

If, after 10 seconds, the meter reads 1 mA , then the capacitor was exactly $1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$. A meter reading of, say, 0.8 mA after 10 seconds indicates a value of

$$
\frac{1}{0.8} \times 1 \text { or } 1.25 \mu \mathrm{~F} \text { and so on. }
$$

On the other hand, if 1 mA was reached after only 7 seconds, then the capacitor was

$$
\frac{7}{10} \times 1 \text { or } 0.7 \mu \mathrm{~F}
$$

Whether the capacitor is actually larger or smaller than the $1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ corresponding to f.s.d. on range 5 is easily remembered by recalling that a large value capacitor will take longer to reach a given voltage at a given constant current than will a small value capacitor.

The values of capacitance corresponding to each position of S1 and 10 seconds for meter f.s.d. are as follows:-

| RANGE | RESISTANCE | CAPACITANCE |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | $10,000 \mu \mathbf{F}$ |
| 2 | $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | $1,000 \mu \mathbf{F}$ |
| 3 | $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | $10 \mu \mu$ |
| 4 | $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ | $10 \mu \mathbf{F}$ |
| $\mathbf{5}$ | $10 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ | $1 \mu \mathbf{F}$ |



WHEN someone takes an accepted practice and does exactly the opposite the results are often astounding. This has been the case in the Siemens Laboratories in Berlin. Ever since the electron microscope has been invented, everyone has employed it to peer at the most minute items, relying on the microscope, with its tremendous magnification, to give a clear and detailed image. Siemens decided it was time to try things in reverse, rather like looking through the other end of a telescope. The result is that just as the items could be magnified by very large amounts they can also be reduced. This means that it is possible to put the whole of the contents of the Bible on an area of some $0.25 \times 0.25 \mathrm{~mm}$. Think of the idea as a means of storage. Around 1,000 Biblelength volumes could be stored, ready to be read by looking at them through the electron microscope the "right way", in an area of 25 square millimeters. Scotland Yard might well be interested since it is possible to store one million photographs on a piece of foil $5 \times 5 \mathrm{~mm}$. They'll be fingerprinting fleas next.

Valve enthusiasts, certainly those interested in generating r.f., have wagged their wise old heads for years at the transistor lovers and pointed out that when it comes to generating lots of power, the solid state devices available just aren't in the same class as their glass-encapsulated brothers. It now looks as though this is no longer true. One company has announced an h.f. amplifier which is broadband from $1.5-30 \mathrm{MHz}$ and thus requires no tuning. It is solid state-not a valve in sight-and will supply 1 kW on all modes of radiotelegraph and radiotelephone transmissions. For the $1,000 \mathrm{~W}$ output, which, by the way, is the continuous rating, it requires only 100 mW input. The amplifier is not a delicate device. A patented level control will prevent any damage which might be caused by an antenna mismatch which can range from an open circuit to a short circuit.

Hats off to the Allen Company in America. They are making an electronic organ which uses a computer to provide tones and voices. The 22 circuits on chips half-an-inch square contain some 48,000 transistors. The various waveforms and tones are simply stored in the musical computer's memory and called out or "read" at will. The number of voices available are almost unlimited, running into millions. The electronics for the computer have been worked out in association with another American company-North American Rockwell who have done a great deal of work on aerospace digital computers.

It is essential to observe polarity when testing electrolytic capacitors.
Should these be of a very low voltage rating i.e. less than, say, 8 volts, then do not allow the meter reading to rise above about half scale. This will restrict the voltage on the capacitor to a low level. Using a charge time of 5 seconds in lieu of 10 seconds, then a meter reading of 0.4 mA indicates a capacitance of

$$
\frac{1}{0.4} \times 5 \text { or } 1.25 \mu \mathrm{~F}
$$

To sum up, the value of capacitance is, in general:

$$
\mathrm{C}_{\mathrm{x}}=\frac{1}{\mathrm{I}} \times \frac{\mathrm{t}}{10} \times \mathrm{C}
$$

where $I$ is meter reading in mA $t$ is time to reach that reading $C$ is capacitance given in the table. A little practice with capacitors of known value will soon make this method clear.

It is always as well to carry out a quick check first on doubtful capacitors to test for leakage. If leakage is taking place, as indicated by a falling meter reading on " C ", then any capacitance values read off will of course be in error, for some of the current fed to the capacitor will have gone towards providing the leakage current and the voltage reached will thereby be less.

Whether the amount of any leakage so detected can be tolerated will depend on the application intended and no general rules can be laid down.

## NOTES

If a multi-range current meter is available, it is quite instructive to use it to measure the test current on each range. No matter whether, say, on range 3, $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ or a short circuit is connected, then about $60 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ should flow, and, similarly, with other currents on other ranges as appropriate. The actual value of the current depends on the particular setting of the appropriate emitter resistor.
In the introduction, mention was made of the possibility of extending the lowest range of resistance measurement downwards by a factor of 10 . If carried out, this would make the lowest range indicate up to $100 \Omega$ with a good indication down to $10 \Omega$. This is not possible, however, without some alteration of transistor type.
A range of $100 \Omega$ f.s.d. requires a constant current of about 60 mA and so a possible dissipation in Tr2 of about 600 mW , which is too great for the BCY71 specified.
A glance at some manufacturers' data shows that a number of suitable transistors are available, such as BFX88, 2N1132 and 2N4036 and no doubt others. Not all of these have a low enough leakage current however, to enable them to give good results on the $10 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ range and it would be as well to omit this latter if the $100 \Omega$ range is incorporated.
The author regrets that he can give no further practical details, not having tried a low resistance range; what is obvious is that a larger battery, or a small mains supply, will be needed to provide the extra current required. The care that will be called for in use should not be overlooked, for up to 600 mW might be dissipated in the test resistor, and consequently testing will have to be restricted to resistors of that wattage rating or greater.

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THIS is a short wave receiver covering the most active short wave bands of about $5 \cdot 5-22 \mathrm{MHz}$, or 55-14 metres, where very many short wave broadcasts are to be found. The range is divided into two bands, so related that harmonic mixing makes it unnecessary to have oscillator coil switching. This will be found to give excellent results with a minimum of constructional difficulty, and bandchange switch wiring is extremely simple.

The receiver is constructed in three sections, mixer, i.f. amplifier and audio amplifier, accommodated in a neat aluminium case which also takes the battery. A separate speaker is used, because headphones may sometimes be preferred, allowing personal short wave reception without disturbance to others.

## CIRCUIT DETAILS

Mixer. Fig. 1 is the circuit which also shows the division into three parts. The mixer assembly is complete with tuning capacitor, band-switch, coils and other items, having a small sub-panel for the controls.
L1 is the aerial coil for the higher frequency range of about $11-22 \mathrm{MHz}$, while L2 is for about $5 \cdot 5-11 \mathrm{MHz}$. S1 selects the wanted coil. Base coupling windings for Trl are in series, and thus require no switching.

L3 is the oscillator coil, the values of C6 across the coil and C7 in series with the oscillator tuning capacitor VC2 allowing this circuit to tune from approximately 6 MHz to $11 \cdot 5 \mathrm{MHz}$. When L2 is in


Fig. 1: Circuit diagram of the Harmonic Six with transistor lead-out connections.

circuit, VC1, in conjunction with C 1 and C 2 , allows the aerial section to tune from approximately $5 \cdot 5-$ 11 MHz . In terms of actual frequencies, the oscillator is 465 kHz h.f. of the aerial circuit, in the usual way.

To reduce oscillator pulling, some transistor receivers have the oscillator working at half frequency, for the highest frequency range. This is purposely done in this receiver, so that no switching, or further coil or trimmer will be needed instead of L3. Instead, the second harmonic of the oscillator frequency is used, and the range of this harmonic is approximately $12-23 \mathrm{MHz} . \mathrm{L} 1$ is in circuit for this band, and tunes 465 kHz lower in frequency than the second harmonic, or about $11 \cdot 5 \cdot 22 \cdot 5 \mathrm{MHz}$. There is
actually a little overlap between bands, giving continuous coverage from about $5 \cdot 5-22 \mathrm{MHz}$.
The receiver can bring in many transmissions with a short indoor aerial, either wire, or selfsupporting rod, and the aerial trimmer VC3 is a panel control, so that L1 or L2 can be peaked for maximum results, despite changes to the aerial.

Resistors R4 and R5 are to avoid excess oscillation, which sometimes causes whistles and other troubles on the higher frequencies. In some cases it may be worth while modifying the values of R4 or R5, as mentioned later.

The mixer assembly is secured in the case by the bushes of VC3 and S1, this completing the positive or earth return. Two leads run from the mixer assembly-black for the negative supply circuit, and green for the i.f. amplifier.
IF Circuit. This board carries i.f.t.1, i.f.t.2, i.f.t.3, $\operatorname{Tr} 2$, $\operatorname{Tr} 3$, and the associated components. It is wired separately, and may be checked or tested alone. Two double-tuned i.f.t.'s with AF117's give very good gain and selectivity. Automatic gain control bias is obtained from the diode D1 in the usual way.
The positive circuit of the i.f. board is completed by its two mounting bolts, through the metal case. Audio output is from D1, the white lead running to the volume control VR1.

VR1 is fixed to the case front and so is not present on either i.f. or a.f. boards.
AF Amplifier. Audio signals are taken to the audio amplifier and driver $\operatorname{Tr} 4$, which is followed by the push-pull output pair $\operatorname{Tr} 5 / 6$. This is a straightforward arrangement capable of giving a good output, and it is wired complete on its own circuit board. Positive returns are made through the fixing bolts and metal case, as before.
S2 is the second pole of the switch S1, which is 3 -way. The third position interrupts the positive circuit for "OFF." Should an on-off switch be preferred on VR1, it is necessary to fit a compact potentiometer with switch, or there will not be enough space for a PP9 battery in the receiver.

A connecting point is provided at the junction of C14 and R15 for the black lead from the i.f. board.

## CONSTRUCTION

Mixer Assembly. Components are placed as in Fig. 2. Holes are made in the $5 \times 2 \mathrm{in}$. flanged plate for the variable capacitors and switch. Washers or other means of spacing, about $3_{\text {gin. }}$ thick, are put between the plate and ganged capacitor, on each of the three fixing screws. It is essential that these screws are not too long.

Two bolts hold the insulated board to the flanged plate. Wire

Fig. 3: Component layout and wiring details of the i.f. circuit board $3 \frac{3}{4} \times 1 \frac{3}{2} \mathrm{in}$.

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Fig. 4: Wiring and layout of the audio amplifier board, $3 \frac{1}{2} \times 2 \mathrm{in}$.
up as in Fig. 2, keeping all leads in this section short and direct. The metal flanged plate is the positive or chassis return, a tag being put under one fixing nut. Solder a black flexible lead to R3.
$\operatorname{Tr} 1$ is suspended by its wire ends about level with the top of L3 while trimmer TC2 is mounted on the paxolin by its tags.

IF Board Wiring. Fig. 3 shows both top and bottom of this panel. Holes are drilled so that the pins and can fixings tags on the i.f.t.'s are placed as shown. A rentral hole is required under the i.f.t.'s for trimming.

Two ${ }_{2}{ }_{2} \mathrm{in}$. 6BA bolts secure the tags MC. Later, extra nuts are put on these bolts, which pass through the metal case, forming the positive or chassis return.

Guide lines are scribed on the paxolin and holes for resistors and other leads made with a $1 / 16 \mathrm{in}$. or $5 / 64 \mathrm{in}$. drill. The i.f.t.'s, resistors and capacitors are then inserted. Note the polarity of C8 and D1. The board is then turned over, and wired as shown. Use insulated sleeving on all leads which cross. Joints are kept against the board so that they will not touch the metal of the case.

Before inserting the transistors, it is helpful to put pieces of 1 mm coloured sleeving about ${ }^{8}$ in. to

$1_{2} \mathrm{in}$. long on the leads-blue for emitter, green for base, and orange for collector, leaving the shield wires bare. Then position the leads as shown in Fig. 3, solder them and snip off excess.
For easy identification of external connections, solder on a green lead for pin 2 of i.f.t.1, a black lead for the negative line, and a white lead from DI positive.

Audio Amplifier Wiring. Fig. 4 shows both sides of the a.f. amplifier. Tags MC are tightly bolted as before, for chassis return points. All the capacitors are electrolytic, so have to be placed as shown.
$\mathrm{T}]$ is the driver transformer but note that various makers place the tags in different positions. In Figs. 1 and 4, P-P are the primary, S-S the secondary, and CT the secondary centre tap. These connections must be correct for the actual transformer used.

T2 is the output transformer, with primary connections P-P and primary centre tap CT. Two thin flexible leads are soldered to the secondary tags $S$ which run to the speaker (or phones) jack.
Fig. 5: Disposition of the three boards inside the cabinet.

## components list

|


Transistor leads can be identified as mentioned, or sleeving put on the wires to avoid possible short circuits.

Sclder on a black flexible lead, fitted with a battery negative clip. Leave a short wire projecting at the point IF negative, and connect an insulated wire from C15 positive.

## FINAL ASSEMBLY

If preferred, the mixer, i.f. and a.f. sections can be wired together and tested before fitting them in the case. The positive circuits must then be temporarily joined with wire.

The case front is a $4 \times 8 \mathrm{in}$. flanged member and three holes, for VR1, switch and VC3 are made $1^{1}{ }_{2}$ in. from the bottom edge. The hole for $\mathrm{VCl} / 2$ is 2 in . from this edge.

The fixing nuts of the switch and VC3 are then removed, so that the bushes can pass through the case front. If necessary, put a washer or two on each bush, then fit the mixer assembly to the case front, and lock it in position with the nuts of VC3 and the switch.

The bottom is then fixed. It was placed inside the flanges, but could be outside. Take a piece of paper of the same size, and mark the positions of L1, L2 and L3. Also the fixing bolts of i.f. and a.f. boards, and the central holes under the i.f.t.'s. Drill or punch these holdes, which are to allow alignment when all boards are in position.

The bottom is then bolted to the bottom flange of the front, the sides and back of the case being added later.

The i.f. and a.f. panels are fixed as in Fig. 5 by using extra nuts and lock nuts on the $1_{2 i n}$. bolts. There should be plenty of clearance, but if any joints are too near the metal, cut pieces of card to match the panels, and fit these under the i.f. and a.f. boards.

The green lead from i.f.t. 1 is then cut and soldered to pin 8 of L3. VRI is fitted to the front, and connected to positive line, D1 and C15, and other connections are made as shown.

When the case is to be completed, this is done by adding the two sides, then the back. All are bolted together with the flanges provided.

## IF ALIGNMENT

The i.f.t.'s listed are supplied pre-aligned. This means that signals should be obtained through the i.f. amplifier at good strength. If no signals are obtained, it is better to look for a wiring error or other fault, rather than move the cores of the i.f.t.'s.
When a signal is present, carefully adjust each core for best results. A screwdriver blade can easily break this type of core, and should not be used. If a proper tool is not available, it is recommended that one be obtained from the i.f.t. maker-the "Denco" TT5 tool is suitable.
Signals for i.f. alignment may be from a signal generator, input being to the base of Trl, or from a transmission, correctly tuned in. If adjustment is by ear, use a signal which is quite weak even with VR1 near maximum. Alternatively, set a $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega / \mathrm{V}$ or other high-resistance meter at its 10 V range, and clip it across VR1, negative to chassis. Alignment is then for maximum voltage reading. Only slight re-adjustment

# SERVISNG 

## AN INTROOLCTION TO FAULIFFNOMNG

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## H. W. HELLYER

## PART 5

## A KNOWLEDGE OF JUST HOW STEREO SIGNALS ARE GENERATED AT THE TRANSMITTER AND DECODED AT THE RECEIVER IS ESSENTIAL TO AN UNDERSTANDING OF THE STEPS INVOLVED IN THE ALIGNMENT OF STEREO RECEIVERS

WHETHER or not you live in an area of the country served by a stereo transmitter, your interest in this series of articles must also encompass stereo broadcasting. Quite apart from the hideous interference that spoils a.m. radio on the "broadcast" bands, especially during peak hours, the restricted frequency response that results from a necessarily narrow bandwidth takes away any pretension to quality reception. With f.m. broadcasting, we can achieve a wider bandwidth and more nearly approach hi-fi-whatever that may mean.

## FM MULTIPLEXTHEORY AND PRACTICE

Nowadays, very few mono tape recorders and hardly any mono record players are to be found in the shops. Stereo is the order of the day, even in a cheap radiogram where the loudspeaker placement quite obliterates any good effect channel separation
may have given! Stereo radio is the only way onwards.
Here is where that ugly word "compatibility" takes the stage. So that users of the existing mono system could continue to listen; so that stereo broadcasts could be "slotted in" to the current framework of programmes without robbing some poor listener of his entertainment, a system had to be devised whereby the stereo signals were combined in some way with the mono signals and some form of switched selector devised to differentiate between them.
Fig. 1 shows how this is done in the system employed in this country. Here, we have the encoder at the transmitter which takes the stereo signal, applies it to an electronic adder and subtractor, and produces a left + right and a left-right signal. The difference signal, $L-R$ is the vital stereo information. The $L+R$ signal gives the mono listener all he needs (with, it must be admitted, a slight degradation of the signal-to-noise ratio... but this is seldom mentioned).
The $\mathrm{L}-\mathrm{R}$ signal modulates a sub carrier, the frequency of which is 38 kHz . This is obtained by doubling the 19 kHz pilot tone output of a high stability oscillator. The trick here is to amplitude modulate the 38 kHz sub-carrier at the transmitter. The modulator suppresses the subcarrier so all that comes out, for application to the adder, is the upper and lower sidebands of the signal.

Fig. 1. (top) illustrates the number of stages involved in the formation of a stereo signal at the transmitter while fig. 2 (below) shows the frequency spectrum of a multiplex signal.

Also applied to the adder is the untreated $L+R$ signal, and a 19 kHz pilot tone, which is to be used as a reference at the receiver. The signal spectrum at the transmitter, Fig. 2, helps to make this plain. This is the true multiplex signal. Suppression of the sub-carrier has given the two signals, $L+R$ and $L-R$, $90 \%$ of the $100 \%$ modulation, the remaining ten per cent being taken up by the pilot tone.

It should be remembered that when $L+R$ is maximum $L-R$ is minimum and vice versa; in this way, the best use is made of the modulation "space". If the sub-carrier had been left in, the available "space" would have been reduced to $50 \%$.

## COMPATABILITY

Fig. 2 shows that the ordinary mono information is still available up to quite a high frequency, around 15 kHz . The useful sidebands of the 38 kHz subcarrier extend to well over 50 kHz . So a flat frequency response is needed throughout the propagation chain. One aspect not always considered is the need for good phase relationship. As the $L+R$ and $L-R$ signals depend on cancellation (in effect, the +L and -L components must cancel in the righthand channel and the $R$ components in the lefthand channel) the phase relationships of the various signals must stay correct. One reason, you may argue, for a good aerial, and not just any old piece of wet string that happens to receive a signal. As we shall see, there are other reasons, too.

From the adder, this composite signal is fed to the transmitter and is used to frequency modulate it. It is this f.m. signal we receive, in the $88-97 \mathrm{MHz}$ section of the f.m. band.

Without going too deeply into this matter, we can state that there are two completely different ways of achieving this stereo signal and more than two ways of decoding it. Referring again to Fig. 1, we note that an electronic "mixing" system has been used to encode the stereo signal. A "switching" system could have been used as easily. Similarly, the decoder, in the receiver, can be the matrix type or the simpler switching decoder which is more often used.

## SERVICING PROBLEMS

Tuners are undergoing some revolutionary changes just at present. Gordon King has said, and will be saying, a few things about varicaps, and tuning devices. From the servicing point of view, the

Fig. 3 (a) gives the requirements of a matrix decoder, the more common switching decoder being depicted in Fig. 3 (b).
problems that arise are the same as in other tuners: component failures, displaced components, causing changes in inductance/capacity, where leads and supports are significant at the frequencies in use; plus the inevitable bogey of mistuning. Plus-it must be said-aerial mismatching, inadequate aerials and troubles with the feeder and its connections.

Through the i.f. channel, the main consideration is to achieve the necessary bandwidth and broad tuning is the order of the day. Attempts to "peak up" the i.f. channel of an f.m. receiver will inevitably result in an impaired response. IC's are being widely used in modern i.f. strips, giving very high gain. Tuning problems remain much the same, but are practically lessened by there being, in general, less tuned circuits to align. Ceramic filters, too, have made our life a little easier in the service department, refusing to go off tune, except when externally abused.

## THE DECODER

So let us get on to the decoder. This can either be the sum-and-difference type of Fig. 3a or the switching type of Fig. 3b. In the first, a mirror image of the encoder at the transmitter, three filters split the signal into its components. The first selects the 19 kHz pilot tone, which is passed on to the frequency doubler stage. The second selects the mono $L+R$ signal and presents it to the matrix. The $\mathrm{L},-\mathrm{R}$ signal is selected by the third filter and passed to the balanced demodulator. To the same point the regenerated 38 kHz sub-carrier is also fed. Addition and subtraction in the matrix now produces replicas of the original left and right signals.

The switched type of decoder is more common (less complicated!) and so will concern us more. Fig. 3b shows its block diagram. Multiplexed signals from

the f.m. detector are fed to an input amplifier. From the output is selected the 19 kHz pilot tone and the stereo information. No filters are necessary at the input to this amplifier, revealing at least one reason why the matrix decoder is out of favour in this country.

From the input amplifier, the pilot tone is phase corrected and amplified, then doubled in frequency to produce the 38 kHz sub-carrier. An envelope detector is used, as with this method the left channel information is amplitude modulated on one side of the 38 kHz carrier and the right channel information modulated on the other side. Alternate demodulation at a repetition rate of 38 kHz gives a resultant audio output to each channel.

After demodulation, de-emphasis is applied. That bald statement is the reason why so many attempts at adding a decoder to a mono f.m. receiver to convert it to stereo failed dismally. Quite apart from the impaired $S / \mathrm{N}$ ratio--a factor which makes it vital to first obtain as good a mono signal as possible-the de-emphasis network which is fitted to counteract the high-frequency boost given to the signal at the transmitter has its effect as soon as we attempt to convert. De-emphasis is usually incorporated in the decoder design. The idea of this system is to obtain the best possible audio signal and also to attenuate residual sub-carrier components.


Fig. 4. Practical circuit of a 33 kHz notch fifter.
Despite this attenuation, some additional filtering may be needed if the stereo broadcast signals are to be applied to a tape recorder. Fig. 4 shows a notch filter suitable for removing all trace of the 38 kHz signal from a tape recorder input. Many tape recorder manufacturers, particularly Continental ones, well used to f.m. reception, have already fitted filters, usually LC types in screened compartments near the input sockets. The circuit of Fig. 4 is easily constructed for experimental purposes by the person who adds his own decoder. It can give a fair measure of de-emphasis as well, and should be fitted between the decoder output and the amplifier input.

## DECODER CARE

Whenever any work is done at or around the decoder, connecting wires must be kept as short as possible. High frequency attenuation is easily caused by careless wiring, and instability by shoddy component placing. If a stereo socket is to be fitted, it should be mounted for efficiency rather than for convenience. There is always a temptation to cut corners-sometimes with costly results.

An example is the omission or removal of the
"cross-diodes" in a decoder circuit. Good stereo separation is still obtained; the signal is received clearly; there is no obvious interference. But more than once damage to output transistors has been caused, and it is possible that tweeters could be impaired in a hi-fi system, simply because the removal or failure of this circuit allows the 38 kHz subcarrier to break through at full strength. We cannot hear it, but we shall certainly hear its effect!

One item noted on the block diagram of our decoder is the stereo beacon light. This is latched to the 19 kHz amplifier and should light only when a pilot tone is present. Unfortunately, as any user of stereo receivers will know, it more often lights with every blip of noise.

## OTHER FACTORS

Other factors that are special to the f.m. receiver, and to stereo receivers particularly, are the automatic frequency control circuits, the muting circuits, and various devices to aid "capture." Some examples of these can be seen in Fig. 9 of Part 2 by Gordon King. (Page 136, PW, June 1971). See also the description of the a.f.c. circuits, on page 153 of the same issue.
Reference must also be made to my last part, where we began by treating the stereo receiver as we would a normal mono receiver, aligning for the correct response and checking the i.f. with a marker. The basic method is to connect the instruments as shown in my Fig. 6 of the last part, for normal f.m. alignment.
For more detailed work, a specially designed stereo generator is employed.

## TEST EQUIPMENT

An example of such an instrument is the Heathkit IG-37, costing $£ 47 \cdot 35$ as a kit. This instrument provides a composite stereo signal plus a pilot tone and gives a phase test signal (i.e. channels added) for sub-carrier transformer adjustment. A variable r.f. oscillator signal is available, having an adjustable sweep width around a nominal 100 MHz frequency. A mono f.m. signal can be obtained and this is modulated by any one of three modulation fre-quencies-giving a rapid "spot check facility."

In addition to this, four marker frequencies are supplied for r.f. alignment checks and two s.c.a. (subsidiary communications authorisation) frequencies for adjustment of filters. To the workshop that has to undertake regular checks of f.m. receivers, such an instrument can be invaluable.

## MULTIPLEX ALIGNMENT

With the proviso that the service manual for the receiver being aligned should be consulted initially, we now go on to detailed general steps of the alignment procedure of a typical stereo receiver, using the IG-37.

IF alignment: connect output of the generator, "RF Out," to the aerial terminals of the receiver. Connect the input of the last limiter circuit of the receiver to the vertical input of an oscilloscope, using a demodulator probe. Loosely couple the "IF Marker" of the generator to the first i.f. stage of the receiver.

This produces a $10 \cdot 7 \mathrm{MHz}$ marker signal. Adjust the oscilloscope for a 60 Hz line sweep. Use the "Mono/ FM" facility with audio modulation and tune the generator to approximately 100 MHz . Then switch to "RF Sweep" input, with "IF marker." Produce a response curve (Fig. 5a) and adjust the successive i.f. stages for best response.

The next step entails comparison of curves and to do this we first need to view the generator output as applied to the oscilloscope and then beat in the signal from the receiver. To do this, first "kill" the tuner section, remove the vertical input of the oscilloscope from the receiver limiter circuit and connect it to the output of the detector stage.
Disconnect the i.f. marker. Connect the composite signal from the generator to the horizontal input of the oscilloscope, now set for external sweep, i.e. trigger the scope with the generator. With the tuner in action again, a curve as in Fig. 5b should appear. The detector coil can now be adjusted to approach this. Always refer to the maker's manual, if this is available.
Recheck the front end alignment using the r.f. marker signals at $90 \cdot 95,96 \cdot 3,101 \cdot 65$ and 107 MHz adjusting the r.f. and oscillator coils for good response, and accurate tuning.

Stereo alignment: this needs a step-by-step operation, according to the type of circuit in use. In the IG-37 manual, these basic circuits are divided into four types (1) several 19 kHz amplifier stages followed by a doubler; (2) a 19 kHz oscillator circuit and doubler; (3) 19 kHz amplifier, doubler and 38 kHz oscillator, and (4) 19 kHz amplifier and 38 kHz oscillator. It is necessary to identify the circuit before proceeding, but some tests are common to all.
First set "Pilot Level" to minimum and function level fully clockwise, switch frequency to SCA and filter switch to 65 or 67 kHz to suit the filter of the receiver, set function switch to "Audio" and "Mono/ FM," adjust the r.f. frequency adjustment to get a signal in a clear spot of the tuner band somewhere


Fig. 5 (a) Response curve of i.f. channel of stereo receiver with superimposed 10.7 MHz marker signal.

Fig. 5 (b) Response curve required at the output of the detector stage.

near 100 MHz . Make sure the phase control is central. If a separation control is provided on the generator. centralise this. Switch the a.f.c. off, and also, if available, the squelch circuit. Connect generator to aerial terminals. Switch on both generator and receiver and allow to warm up for 10 minutes.

If the set has an oscillator type of circuit, this should be "killed" for the SCA filter adjustment. If the filter is a complex or stagger-tuned one, the tuning will have to be done according to the maker's instructions. When feeding in the signal to the receiver keep the level such that the scope gives a clear trace-i.e., do not overdrive.

After this, proceed according to the type of circuit; the differences being the positioning of the oscilloscope; setting of the pilot level control and synchronisation of signals ( 19 kHz and 38 kHz ) as against peaking.

Taking the example of our Fig 3, i.e., 19 kHz amplifier and doubler, we first peak both 19 kHz and 38 kHz circuits. The oscilloscope is connected to the output of the 38 kHz doubler, pilot level turned to maximum (with regard to overloading), function switch set to Left channel, frequency switch to 1000 Hz and the relative coils, including any stereo indicator coils, peaked for maximum indication.

Next, an operation common to all types, to adjust the phase of the reinserted carrier to the same phase as the sub-carrier. The oscilloscope is now connected to the left channel output, other settings are the same, and the phase is adjusted for maximum audio output. Normally, this operation requires the alteration of a 19 kHz or 38 kHz coil, and will be special to the particular circuit. Again, we need to refer to the maker's instructions, or trust our experience. No general guidance can be given without being misleading.

If a separation control is fitted, now is the time to adjust it. With the input to the left channel, we now read off the output from the right channel and adjust the control for minimum. (This operation can be done with the aid of the B.B.C's late night test signals.)

Last step is adjustment of the 19 kHz and 38 kHz traps. Here, the pilot level control is turned to minimum, the function switch is again set to "Mono" and the generator frequency to the appropriate 19 to 38 kHz . The oscilloscope reads off the appropriate channel output and adjustments are made for a minimum. Any automatic switching circuit that is fitted must here be locked according to the maker's instructions.
Now and again we come across circuitry that does not allow for easy adjustment. In these cases, always follow the maker's instructions explicitly. It is unfortunate that this has to be said so often. but circuits vary widely, as Gordon King has shown and which I hope my previous notes may have underlined. Something of the same conditions has to be met with audio equipment generally and with tape recorder circuits in particular, as we shall show in succeeding articles.

## END OF PART FIVE.

NEXT MONTH WE RETURN TO CO-AUTHOR GORDON KING WHO WILL DISCUSS THE DESIGN, CHARACTERISTICS AND PROBLEMS OF THE AUDIO SIDE OF EQUIPMENT BOTH VALVED AND SOLID-STATE

## * IN MEXTMONTH'S

 TinflatissALL IN THE OCTOBER ISSUE ON SALE SEPTEMBER 10th

# MODULAR AUDID MIXING SYSTEM 

Consists of matching pre-amplifiers, tone control unit and line amplifier, etc., from which to build almost any audio signal mixing system from a simple three or four channel mono mixer for tape recording to a multi-input stereo signal mixer for discotheque or public address and music amplifiers.
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IN the past, as far as the amateur or experimenter was concerned, there have been two main instruments for measuring frequency, the absorption wavemeter and the heterodyne frequency meter.

The absorption wavemeter has the advantage of being simple and responding to the fundamental frequency, but having a measurement accuracy limited to about $1 \%$. It consists of an LC tuned circuit where the variable capacitor has a calibrated dial. It must be coupled to the circuit containing the frequency to be measured and when tuned to this frequency the absorption of power from the circuit may be noticed either by an effect produced in the circuit itself, or by an indicator attached to the wavemeter as shown in Fig. 1.


Fig. 1 (above left) Absorption wavemeter.
Fig. 2 : (above right) Heterodyne frequency meter.
The heterodyne frequency meter is a much more sophisticated instrument which is capable of accurate frequency measurement. This is limited mainly by the accuracy of its internal standard oscillator and tuning dial. It consists of an accurate crystal oscillator, a stable variable frequency oscillator, with a finely divided dial and a beat frequency detector feeding headphones, as shown in Fig. 2. The variable oscillator is calibrated against the crystal oscillator by observing the zero-beat points where the fundamental or harmonics of the crystal and variable oscillators coincide. The input signal is measured by zero-beating the variable oscillator with it and then reading off and calculating the frequency from the crystal check points nearest to that of the input signal frequency.

Because the heterodyne frequency meter will also respond to harmonics of the input frequency, reasonable care has to be taken to identify and exclude these and other spurious responses.

## Frequency Measurement by Counting

An example of this method is in measuring the frequency of a heart beat. To do this, the doctor feels the patient's pulse and counts the number of pulses that occur in a fixed period of time.

The frequency of the heart beats can be stated in pulses per minute, no matter whether he counts for half a minute, one minute or ten minutes, simply by multiplying by a suitable factor.

Although electronic frequency counters have been in use professionally for many years, their construction has remained outside the range of home constructors, because of their complexity and high cost. However, the present availability of quite complex integrated circuits at extremely low prices has now made the construction' of a frequency counter with digital read-out not only within the price range of
the home constructor but, in some aspects, its performance and price compares favourably with the cost of a heterodyne frequency meter available on the surplus market, such as the BC221.

## Principle of Operation

An electronic frequency counter consists of a switch, to define the counting period, in series with the input to an electronic counter and associated display, as shown in Fig. 3.


Fia. 3 : Frequency counter and display.
Assume for a moment that the input signal is a square wave of frequency 1000 Hz . If we close the switch for exactly 1 second, then in that time 1000 cycles of the input signal will have passed through the switch to the counter. If the counter has 4 decades, comprising of thousands, hundreds, tens and units, then this will have completed a count of 1000 and as the counter is connected to a numeral display, the number displayed will be 1000 .
It follows then that the frequency of any input signal will be indicated directly on the display, in cycles per second ( Hz ), providing that it is not greater than 9999 Hz , which is of course the maximum reading for 4 digits.

## 

The digital frequency counter/ timer offers reliability, stability and read-out convenience, which can not be achieved using alternative techniques.

Wide use is made in this design of integrated circuits. Their use considerably simplifies the design, construction and adjustment. In its present form, this instrument is capable of operating in excess of 15 MHz .

Should we wish to make the same sort of measurement at $1 \mathrm{MHz}(1,000,000 \mathrm{~Hz})$ then we must arrange for the switch to be closed for exactly 1 mS ( $1 / 1000$ of a second). In that time 1000 cycles of the input signal will have passed through to the counter and the display will again show 1000, but this now represents 1000 kHz , not Hz , $(1000 \mathrm{kHz}=1 \mathrm{MHz})$.

In a practical frequency counter, the switch is in the form of an electronic switch or "gate" and we call the time the switch is closed, the "gate time."

The accuracy of the frequency measurement made by counting depends mainly on the accuracy of the gate time. For instance when counting an input signal of 1 MHz for a gate time of 1 mS , an inaccuracy of $1 \mu \mathrm{~S}$ will cause an error of one count, which in the displayed answer represents 1 kHz . (There is also a counting error of one least significant digit, and this is discussed later.) Below is a list of maximum frequency readings displayed by a 4 decade counter for different gate times.

| Gate time | Maximum Reading |
| :--- | :--- |
| $100 \mu \mathrm{~S}$ | $99 \cdot 99 \mathrm{MHz}$ |
| 1 mS | $9 \cdot 999 \mathrm{MHz}$ |
| 10 mS | $999 \cdot 9 \mathrm{kHz}$ |
| 100 mS | $99 \cdot 99 \mathrm{kHz}$ |
| 1 Second | $9 \cdot 999 \mathrm{kHz}$ or 9999 Hz. |



Fig. 4 : Digital frequency counter timer.
To obtain the required order of accuracy it is necessary for the gate time to be derived from a very accurate and stable oscillator. A crystal oscillator operating at 100 kHz and at normal room temperature $18^{\circ} \mathrm{C}-22^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, can be expected to have a frequency stability of about 1 part in 100,000 , which is equivalent to $0.01 \%$ and is more than adequate for a 4 digit read out.

## TUENGY COUNTER/TIWER



The block diagram in Fig. 4 shows how various gate times may be generated and connected to the gate. In this arrangement the crystal oscillator operates at 100 kHz and this frequency is divided or counted down in stages of ten giving the frequencies and gate times shown in the diagram. As this section determines the exact gate time we call it the "clock".

For example, with the clock switch in the 1 second position, the start of a 1 second square wave will open the gate (equivalent to closing the switch in Fig. 3) and the start of the next 1 second square wave will close the gate (equivalent to opening the switch), producing a 1 second gate time during which the input signal will pass through to the counter to be counted and displayed. It is assumed that prior to the gate opening, the counter is reading 0000 ; if this were not so then each successive reading would add to the previous one and defeat the object of the measurement.

## The Control Oscillator

To ensure that the counter is set to zero, a control oscillator is used. This oscillator has several functions; first it resets the counter to 0000 , then instructs the gate to operate on the next clock signal and after the measurement has been made disables the gate for a few seconds, long enough to allow the displayed reading to be read before resetting to 0000 and repeating the operation. The sequence of operation is shown in Fig. 5 and will be discussed in more detail later.


Fig. 5: Measurement of time between two events

## Gounter and Display

The counter and digital display for a 4 digit readout consists of 4 identical counter and display units. Each digit has a decade counter which counts from 0 to 9 , returning to 0 on the tenth count and providing a "carry" signal to the next higher decade. The counters count in binary form and the actual count figure is presented in binary coded decimal at 4 outputs, these having a weighting of $1,2,4$ and 8 respectively.

The outputs are connected directly to a "decodedriver" which converts the binary coded decimal input to a decimal output. The 10 outputs are connected directly to a numerical indicator tube which displays the figure existing in the counter. A separate input connection to the counter enables it to be reset to zero at any time.


Photograph showing general layout of the digital frequency counter timer.

In the block diagram the input stage is shown connected between the input terminal and the gate. The purpose of this stage is firstly to shape the input signal to provide a square wave output suitable for driving the counter stages and secondly to provide a high input impedance.

## Time and Period Measurement

The basic component parts of a frequency counter can be rearranged very simply to provide the measurement of the period of one cycle of a low frequency signal or the time between two events. This is done by crossing over the clock and signal inputs by means of a change-over switch as shown in Fig. 4.

For example, suppose that we need to measure the frequency of a signal of 0.5 Hz by the period method, $(0.5 \mathrm{~Hz}=2$ seconds per cycle). With the change-over switch in the time position, the input signal now controls the gate and the counter counts. the clock output.

If the clock output is 1 kHz , that is 1 pulse per millisecond, and the period of one cycle of the input signal is exactly 2 seconds, then there will be a total count of 2000 . We can convert this reading to frequency.

$$
f=\frac{1}{t}=\frac{1}{2000 \mathrm{mS}}=0 \cdot 5000 \mathrm{~Hz}
$$

This means that we can now measure a low frequency with good accuracy.

The period measurement can also be used as an electronic stop watch for measuring the time between two events. For example, to determine the time taken for a sphere to fall a known distance, a set-up as shown in Fig. 5 may be used. Many other applications of this feature come to mind including race timing, camera shutter speed measurement, etc.

## components list



The instrument to be described operates according to the principles already outlined. Integrated circuits are used as far as is possible and these are of the Texas Transistor-Transistor Logic (TTL) 74 Series, which require $a+5$ volt supply and are capable of operating at frequencies in excess of 15 MHz .

For this type of Logic the 'High' or logic ' 1 ' level is a voltage of greater than +2 volts and the low or logic ' O ' level is a voltage of less than 0.8 volts.

The numeral display employs Hivac neon numeral indicator tubes which operate from a 300 volt supply and give a clear bright display.

The clock crystal oscillator uses a 100 kHz quartz crystal and this frequency and two of the divided frequencies are brought out to sockets for calibrating receivers, etc.

The complete circuit is shown in Fig. 6.
The input stage consists of an f.e.t. source follower directly coupled through a transistor emitter fol-




Counter and display panel removed, showing the integrated circuits and numeral indicator tube. The position of the oscillator crystal and concentric trimmer can be clearly seen at the rear of the counter and display panels.


Rear view of the instrument. The crystal oscillator and divider outputs can be seen on the rear mefal panel.
lower to a Schmitt trigger circuit, which drives the TTL circuits through a further emitter follower.

Working backwards, the output from $\operatorname{Tr} 5$ must be sufficient to drive the TTL at frequencies up to about 20 MHz . This means that the output voltage must swing from greater than +2 volts to less than $+0 \cdot 8$ volts at this frequency.

An input at the base of $\operatorname{Tr} 3$ of greater than $+0 \cdot 8$ volts causes $\operatorname{Tr} 3$ to conduct, Tr4 to cut off and the output from Tr5 emitter to be $+4 \cdot 0$ volts, representing a logic " 1 ". An input to the base of $\operatorname{Tr} 3$ of less than 0.7 volts causes $\operatorname{Tr} 3$ to cut off, $\operatorname{Tr} 4$ to conduct and the output from $\operatorname{Tr} 5$ emitter to be +0.1 volts, representing a logic ' 0 '.

For small input signals Trl and Tr 2 have a gain of less than unity and an input of about 100 mV r.m.s. is sufficient to drive the Schmitt trigger circuit. To ensure that the output voltage at $\operatorname{Tr} 2$ emitter is at the correct level for switching $\operatorname{Tr} 3$, the gate of $\operatorname{Tr} 1$ is connected through R2 to a variable voltage provided by the 'LEVEL' control VR1. The LEVEL control is set at the position which gives reliable operation on small input signals. It will also allow the point of operation to be set to a particular level on a larger input signal.

For an input signal of a few volts peak-to-peak, $\operatorname{Tr} 1$ and $\operatorname{Tr} 2$ form an input clipping circuit having a high input impedance. At this signal level, $\operatorname{Tr} 1$ is cut off during the negative half cycles and $\operatorname{Tr} 2$ is cut off during the positive half cycles. This results in a square wave signal at the base of $\operatorname{Tr} 3$ having an amplitude which is more than sufficient to drive the Schmitt trigger reliably.

## Input Protection

The input to Tr gate is protected against excessive voltage by the clamping diodes D1 and D2. These diodes conduct at $+5 \cdot 6$ volts and $-5 \cdot 6$ volts respectively. R1 is included in the input circuit to limit the current that might be passed through the diodes, and Cl bypasses R1 for the higher frequencies. C2 is a direct voltage blocking capacitor which is in circuit in the ' AC ' position of S1 and blocks off any direct voltage which may be present on the input signal.

In the 'DC' position of $S 1, C 2$ is shorted out and a direct input is available for very low frequency signals and for use in the timer or period mode of operation.

## Clock Crystal Oscillator and Divider

The clock consists of a crystal oscillator running at 100 kHz followed by five $\div 10$ stages giving output frequencies and equivalent gate times as shown
ter to zero and the negative going edge sets ICla with $Q$ high and $\bar{Q}$ low. This causes the output of IC2b to be high and the output of IC2c to be low, causing the clamping diode D4 to conduct. The control oscillator multivibrator is rendered inoperative by the conduction of D4.

The output condition of ICla presets IClb so that at the next negative going edge of the clock period input waveform $Q$ of IClb will go high. This is the commencement of the gate period.
-continued on page 430

| Frequency | Gate time |
| :--- | :--- |
| 10 kHz | $100 \mu \mathrm{~S}$ |
| 1 kHz | 1 mS |
| 100 Hz | 10 mS |
| 10 Hz | 100 mS |
| 1 Hz | 1 Second |

## Grystal Oscillator

The crystal oscillator contains a 100 kHz quartz crystal connected in the feedback loop of a two-stage amplifier formed by Tr8 and Tr9. Simple biassing is provided by R16 and R18. C8 is connected between the base and collector of Tr8 to provide the correct gain and frequency response for reliable oscillation of the crystal.
(N.B. A surplus 100 kHz crystal was tried in the prototype and due to its lower activity it required C8 to be reduced to 200 pF .)

The crystal operates in series resonance and C9 enables a fine adjustment of frequency to be made. The output from the oscillator is coupled by C11 and R22 to the clipping stage $\operatorname{Tr} 10$. The square wave output at $\operatorname{Tr} 10$ collector has a suitable voltage swing for driving the first decade divider IC3.

Each decade divider consists of an integrated circuit decade counter connected to give a division of ten and a square wave output of unity mark space ratio. The outputs are fed to S2d and to the output sockets as shown in the circuit diagram.

## Control Oscillator and Gate

The gate actually carrying the signal through to the counter is IC2a. This gate is controlled by the $Q$ output of the JK flip-flop IClb which in turn is controlled by the JK flip-flop ICla and the control oscillator.
The simplified sequence of events is shown in Fig. 7 and is as follows:-
The leading edge of a positive pulse from IC2d resets the coun-


Fig. 7: Frequency counter gate waveforms


Fig. 8 : Frequency counter control oscillator waveforms

## miner STABILISED pOWEP Supply B.T.ENGLISH

Avery popular piece of equipment in any experimenters workshop is a variable low voltage d.c. supply. Most transistorised equipment operates from supplies of from $3-30 \mathrm{~V}$ and the unit described here was designed to give this output with a maximum current rating of 500 mA which should satisfy the needs of most experimenters. An added advantage is that the unit is cheap to construct and rugged in use. Virtually any PNP transistors capable of withstanding 30 V can be used in the unit and surplus transistors were found to give very satisfactory results. Tr4, of course, must be a power transistor capable of dissipating up to 10 W , but no difficulty should be experienced if it is mounted properly on the aluminium chassis.

The theoretical circuit diagram is shown in Fig. 1. Full wave rectification is achieved by the diodes D1-D4 in the form of a silicon bridge rectifier type BY164 giving a d.c. voltage on Cl of about 22 V . Two zener diodes in series provide the reference voltage on the base of Trl. The voltage across these diodes remains constant at 20 V over a wide range of current through the diodes. Consequently Trl will act as a constant current transistor with the potential developed across VR1 remaining fixed. Voltage control is achieved by varying the current through $\operatorname{Tr} 4$ connected in series with the load, this is done by VR1. Tr2 and $\operatorname{Tr} 3$ connected in the super-alpha configuration offer a high input impedance and prevent loading of VR1.

The prototype was constructed on a small tag board with flying leads to the transformer, power transistor, and output circuit. Details of the mounting and general layout are given in Fig. 2.


Fig. 1:
The circuit of the power supply


Fig. 2: A suggested component layout.


A rear view of the prototype.

| W |
| :---: |
| T |
| Z |
| T |



MONTHLY NEWS FOR OX LISTENERS

HE recent bad weather has probably been the cause of the large number of reports received this month. The first report this times comes from Martin Ward in Portchester. Martin's equipment consists of a Mullard 5 -valve domestic receiver and a 75 -foot end-fed antenna, his log included: -
7285 R. Warsaw, Poland with music at 1200.
9620 R. Yugoslavia in English at 1530.
9750 R. Pakistan, Karachi in English at 1945.
11920 R. Kuwait with music at 2000.
15105 WIBS, Grenada with music at 2000.
15250 R.S.A., South Africa in English at 1800.
17845 R. WNYW, U.S.A. at 1700.
The next report is from Alan G. Crookes of Sheffield who has a Veritone CR-150 and a 200 -foot long-wire at 20 feet, these enabled him to hear:-
6115 R. Berlin Int. in English at 2035.
6135 R. Free Europe in English at 2315.
9600 R. Baghdad, Iraq in English at 2030.
11860 R. Vilnius, Lithuania at 2335.
15160 R. Ankara, Turkey noted in English at 2205.
15345 R. Kuwait in English at 1800.
21520 SBC, Switzerland from Berne at 1530.
21535 R.S.A., South Africa at 1600.
Stephen John Mathews of Hull has used a Bush 4 -valve domestic receiver and a 90 -foot wire in his loft. This simple equipment brought in many interesting stations including:-
11672 Radio Pakistan in English at 0030. 11730 Radio Kiev in English at 0030.
11790 Radio Australia in English at 1710.
11760 R. Havana, Cuba in English at 0355.
11795 R. Nacional de Rio de Janeiro in Portuguese at 0210.

11805 R. Globo, Brazil in Portuguese at 0145.
11825 R. Jornal de Comercio, Brazil at 0040.
11914 Radio Nacional Lima, Peru at 2150.
11935 R. Clube Paranaense, Brazil at 2025.
15265 R. Afghanistan in English at 1810.
15290 Damascus Radio, Syria in English at 2040.
17765 VOA Tinang in English at 1700.
17855 NHK, Japan in English at 1020.
Hugh Cocks of Mayfield used his Unica UNR-30, 50 -foot long-wire and outdoor TV aerial to compile an extremely long log which included:-
6135 HCJB, Ecuador at 0845.
6540 Pyongyang, N. Korea at 1900.
7235 R. Australia, signing off at 1730.
7270 R.S.A., South Africa at 2000.
9525 R.S.A., South Africa at 2100.
9550 R. Australia at 1700 .
$9580 B B C$, Ascension Island at 0715.
9745 HCJB, Ecuador at 0930.
9912 All India Radio at 2000.
10040 Hanoi, N. Vietnam at 2000.

## THE BROADCAST BANDS

 Malcolm Connah
## Frequencies in kHz - Times in GMT

11675 Radio Pakistan at 2000.
11775 TWR, Bonaire, signing on at 0730.
11795 WINB, U.S.A. at 2100.
11835 Algeria in French at 1200.
11860 BBC, Ascension Island at 0700.
11910 ETLF, Ethiopia with news at 1930.
11955 BBC, Malaysia at 1645.
11960 VOA Thessaloniki, Greece at 1630.
15018 Hanoi, N. Vietnam at 2000.
15110 WIBS, Grenada at 2000.
15125 R. Australia at 0700.
15155 ELW A, Liberia in Arabic at 1615.
15185 Lagos, Nigeria at 0700.
15200 Lagos, Nigeria with news at 1530.
15295 TWR, Bonaire in English at 2145.
15325 Rwanda relay of Deutsche Welle at 0630.
Jeffrey Malina, London N.4, has a Skyrover Mk. II receiver and a 110 -foot long-wire which enabled him to hear:-
7245 BBC, East Med. relay at 2115.
9009 Israel, Jerusalem, English at 2115.
9480 Radio Kiev, Ukraine in English at 1930.
$9545 B B C$, Ascension Island at 2100.
9625 Israel, Jerusalem at 2045.
15250 R. Bucharest, Rumania at 1300.
17775 R. Afghanistan in English at 1815.
17875 VOA, Monrovia, Liberia in Russian at 2115.
21535 NHK, Japan in English at 0800.
21545 R. Accra, Ghana at 1445.
Colin Beesley of Bristol is another reporter with a Unica UNR- 30 receiver which he uses in conjunction with a 75 -foot aerial to hear stations which include:-
9725 R. Sweden in German at 1200.
9805 R. Cairo, Egypt with news at 2340.
11875 RAI, Italy in French at 1530.
11930 Radio Australia at 2230.
15160 R. Ankara, Turkey, news in English, 2300.
21545 R. Accra, Ghana, news in English at 1630.
25790 R.S.A., South Africa in English at 1625.
Christopher Gibbs in Camberley has a Trio 9R59DS receiver, a 20 -foot long-wire and a Joystick antenna which enabled him to hear:-
5035 R. Clube de Cabinda, Angola with music at 2000.

6025 R. Portugal with DX programme at 2100.
6090 R. Luxembourg at 2109.
7210 R. Norway noted at 1805.
7220 R. Budapest, Hungary at 2132.
9525 R. Warsaw, Poland with news at 2030.
11755 R. Finland with news at 1815.
11940 R. Bucharest, Rumania in French at 1900.
Reports should arrive by the 15 th of the month, and be addressed to the author at 5 Ranelagh Gardens, Cranbrook, Ilford, Essex.


## THE AMATEUR BANDS David Gibson, G3JJG Frequencies in kHz - Times in GMT

THE short skip conditions of the last month seemed to suggest that two metres should be showing some interesting results. However, logs from listeners did not bear this out. The skip was particularly noticeable on twenty where locals and near Europeans were coming in at colossal signal strength despite many of them using verticals, including some ground planes, which are often described in the antenna textbooks as just the thing for cutting down the local signals and picking up the DX.

Conditions have been about average for the time of year with most of the DX packing into 14 and 21 MHz . The lower frequency bands have not seemed to be too keen to part with any DX, at least, at this scribe's QTH. Ten metres has been up and down with the "down" being the more dominant of the two. Trouble is with ten, the moment you switch to another band the 28 MHz sector can quite easily jump to life and permit the keen listener to $\log$ five continents in about the same number of minutes.
Topband has been lively as far as G stations are concerned with the usual crop of mobiles (including G3JDG) putting up quite a bit of r.f. Apart from the odd OK this band appears to have become a G-band unless someone has been hearing things I haven't?

John Moore (Leicester) says that his c.w. is quite good and claims that not only does he now find c.w. DXing as easy as phone, but he has the extra pleasure of knowing that fewer listeners are hearing his best c.w. DX stations. Just goes to show what can be done with a bit of persistence and determination. John bagged a couple of OK's on Topband and even managed to $\log$ s.s.b. squeaks from: MP4MBC, UF6FAX (c.w.) ZC4MU, ZS4RO, ZS6AYW, 5H3LV, 9J2RA, 9J2TF on ten metres.
"There's no ' H ' in Witney," says Stefan Kaye (Witney with no ' H '). A peep at 80 metres with an AR88D and a 250 ft . long wire at ground level revealed: CT1UEG, EA4ITU, EP2BQ, PY1AJ, VE1AGH, ZL4JF/A, ZL3LE, ZSIMH, all s.s.b.
T. Wright (High Wycombe) seems to bear out my remarks about 160 by saying that there have been "hoards of G stations about this month". Tim's log for 14 MHz received on an R107 and 120 ft . end fed includes: JA3EP, JX8IL and KP4GM plus a long list of EU stations. Looks like the short skip was quite prominent for best part of the month.
D. Palmer (Bishopbriggs) observes that I do not appear to receive many logs for forty metres. Receiver is a modified 19 set with a 7 MHz dipole and a.t.u. which raised thirteen PY stations plus: CX1AA, CX1BBR, JW7UH, JW9QH, K1GZL, LU8AJG, VP2AA, ZB2A, 4Z4DX.
M. Bradford (Edmonton, N.9.) says that the l.f. bands have failed to produce anything interesting and that ten metres has been disappointing. This was not the case with 14 MHz which obliged with s.s.b. from: CN8MC, CT2BB, EA8DJ, K4RON, KG4AL,

KG4EQ, LU4ECO, PY4AEB, VK2NN, VK5AZ, VP2BGL, W3UBM/MM, 4X4AE, 4Z4JW, 9K2YG. A listen on 21 MHz produced: CE4ME, EA8GZ, JA4JBP, JA7EA, KZ5AA, LU2ECS, VS9MB, VS9MT, 9Q50A.

Les took his homebrew v.h.f. Rx and it didn't work (hard luck Les), this is only part of the story. Three conspirators pooled their gear to form a combined assault on the amateur bands. The results on 20 were: FG7TD, HK1CDK, HK3AUE, HRISO, HR5JDC, MP4BIN, TI2AAC, UL7NW, VE1AVM, VE2DVV, VE3DLC, VK3BM, W5DRW, XE1WA, YV5BPG, and on 15 metres: CR6GA, W2AMM, W9IYY, YV1AVU, 4X4AE, 4Z4HF: Will the real D. Lawley, A. Wade and L. Allen please stand up? Incidentally, D. Lawley also sent in an individual $\log$ which included 27 VK stations received on his CR7OA and 64 ft . end fed at about 18 ft .
S. Lamprey (Cardiff) has a 9R59DE which has had a few unspecified mods done to it. The aerial is 30 ft . of wire with a Joystick on the end. Signals received from: EP2SW, HV3SJ, JW5NM, JW7UH, JY1, M1ACH, MP4BJG, OD5FI, ST2SA, DJ3DH/TA, TU2AZ, $5 Z 4 \mathrm{MI}, 7 \mathrm{Z} 20 \mathrm{M}, 7 \mathrm{Z} 3 \mathrm{AB}, 9 \mathrm{~K} 2 \mathrm{AM}, 9 \mathrm{M} 2 \mathrm{CP}$, 9Q5IA. No mode mentioned.

DX letter this month comes from Tony Curtis (Canberra, Australia). Tony is 17 and has been an s.w.l. for about four months. His s.s.b. log, using domestic receiver (Circa 1950), is fitted with a homebrew b.f.o. which has a bad attack of the drifts. However, the log for 20 metres reads: G6IA, G7LB, JA1EPJ, VK1EP, VK2ACD, VK3AJP, VK4AZ, VK5EB, VK6RU, VK8JS, VK9XI, countless W stations, ZL1ALW, ZL2ON, ZL3FM.

Happiness is JR-500S-shaped to J. Iredale (Llandudno). His pet is fed regularly with a dipole or 132 ft . end fed (nothing like a varied diet) and in return for this loving care produced 20 metre evidence of: CT2AK, CT2BB, DU1DBT, JA3AAW, JA6AV, JA9YBA, JW5NM, K2LQQ/TF, KV4AM, KZ5JF, LU1FKF, LU8DFB, OX3BD, PY2CSV, PY3BXW, PY7YS, TI2JO, TI2WA, TG9LM, WAINGK /TF, W6REH, ZB2A, ZL1PY, ZL2ABY, 4Z4HF.

A new CR7OA at the Coulsdon QTH of J. Iggleden is fed from a 215ft. network of wire (knit yourself an antenna kit?). Since installation it has produced 21 MHz s.s.b. from: EA7DJ, JA8NJO, K5HYB, K6HTM, PY2ERS, TR2AA, W6ATW/M, W6TUQ, ZM6UP, 4X4AE.

Busy month for keen types. August 7-8, WAE c.w.; 8, Woburn mobile rally; 9, 2 metre s.s.b. contest; $15,70 \mathrm{MHz}$ c.w. contest; 15 , Derby mobile rally; 15 , Torbay mobile rally; 22, Swindon mobile rally; 28-29, All Asia c.w. contest; 29, Stratford-upon-Avon mobile rally. September $4-5$, v.h.f. n.f.d.; September 4-5, Region 1 IARU v.h.f./u.h.f. contest.

Logs, in alphabetical order please, to arrive by the 15th of the month to:

12, Cross Way, Harpenden, Herts.

# practically Wireless commentary by LII 

THE more we get embroiled in that fringe area of wireless -what is now known as the hi-fi world-the less scrupulous salesmen seem to be. Trade Descriptions Act notwithstanding, some purveyors of audio equipment beg a great many questions when they prepare their sales brochures.

We are familiar with the 'what's a Watt?' argument, aware that output power can depend on all sorts of different measuring conditions, from the way you supply your amplifier voltage to the way you cock your head. By judicious juggling, one can make a humble ten-watter sound-on paper-like one of those monstrosities that pump P.A. around the local discotheque.

What we are not always ready, or able, to dispute, even if willing, is the more subtle business of distortion percentage, signal-to-noise ratio and overload. Even where these are stated, the trusting soul can be caught out.
Just lately, our illustrious contributor, Gordon J. King, has been insisting on applying more stringent tests. He would like makers to quote a true 'power bandwidth' and he requires more comprehensive distortion limits than a manufacturer is usually prepared to give. And what


Don't jump on me, Joe

Gordon wants, Gordon usually gets.

One of the things he wants is a statement of the output power over the rated frequency range of the equipment relative to the test frequency setting. The frequency limits where output falls by half then become the 'power bandwidth,' much more revealing than a single figure at a single frequency.
Moreover, he demands rms watts-none of your cheap and nasty Music Power for him. No use the amplifier designer arguing that real-life conditions do not encompass sinewave signals at full whack. Gordon and others argue that unless the rms test can be applied-continuous sinewave power--meaningful measurements cannot be taken and true comparisons can never be made.

Distortion is another matter for argument. A lovely low percentage at full power at 1 kHz may make a Class B amplifier seem impressive. Check it again at 'normal' listening level, and see what you have got.
Then do a 'distortion bandwidth' test the way you did the power bandwidth test, i.e., over the specified frequency range. Oh boy! You should see the curves obtained from some quite wellregarded amplifiers when we make them suffer that indignity.

Some of the high-falutin' chatter that is going on about lownoise tape recording and the superiority of cassettes conveniently overlooks the fact that the distortion figure for a run-of-the-mill machine may be a couple of per cent-against the $0 \cdot 1 \%$ we nowadays expect from a good amplifier and the $0.5 \%$ we usually get from a mid-price version. All right then-don't jump on me, Joe. I know that you cannot compute percentages like that.
But Henry would also like to see a regular set of standards applied. Even now, there is a committee advising another sub-committee, who are passing on their


## Driving our amplifiers by steam

findings to the British Standards Institution, who may-eventually -stir their sluggish feet and complete BSS 3860; 1968 and 1568 and Part 11970.
Mind you, there is some very odd audio around. Take the Bose system. At 250 -quid for a couple of speakers and an equaliseryou take it. Henry sticks his neck out in merely mentioning it for Dr. Aram Bose is currently sueing the American Consumer Association for more than they have got because they said his speakers needed tons of power to drive them and were not very effective when you did!

There is a review of the Bose 901 in the July 1971 issue of $\mathrm{Hi}-\mathrm{Fi}$ News, where Ralph West keeps on about the 'smoothness' of the sound. He theorises about violins and Rolls-Royces being 'run-in' and the good sound of paper-cone speakers because the bugs are worn away.
Then the Editor chips in with a dry footnote to the effect that the original 4 inch drive units (Bose has nine of these per speaker) were taken from a Fisher FM table radio. You see? Odd audio or not, we come back to wireless in the end. Just think, if Benjamin Franklin hadn't earthed his key, we would have been driving our amplifiers by steam.

JULIAN ANDERSON
No. 29
SLAVE FLASH TRIGGER

## A series of simple transistor projects, each using less than twenty components and costing less than one pound to build.

ELECTRONICS has brought about the introduction of excellent, inexpensive electronic flash guns. They are so cheap in fact that there is little demand for circuits to build one's own (though this is perfectly possible) but a number of ancillaries can be made for use with a flash gun.

One of the disadvantages with flash pictures is that the subjects often look harsh as narrow bands of dark shadow usually outline one edge of the subject. This, of course, is due to the flash point not being at exactly the point of the lens on the camera.

Bounce flash overcomes this but has the serious drawback that it is extremely difficult to calculate the exposure.

Another solution is to use two flash guns, one conventionally but a second one pointing from a very different angle whose job it is to soften the hard shadows and we can call this one a "slave flash". It would be possible to arrange some form of direct switching to trigger both from the shutter contacts but the one described here is completely unconnected electrically and is thus far more versatile.

The light from the master flash is arranged to trigger our little circuit, which in turn makes the contacts for the slave flash.

The reduction of components prices in recent years has made it possible for us to use some components that would not have been possible before in our series as the total cost would have exceeded the $£ 1$ limit. In this circuit we are using two such components: a light dependent resistor (LDR) and a thyristor or silicon controlled rectifier (SCR).

Light dependent resistors are exactly what their name implies. In bright light-such as produced by a flash gun--their resisitance is very low. The actual value varies considerably with the actual specimen but ranges between $10 \Omega$ and $200 \Omega$. On the other hand in complete darkness a good sample will have a resistance of several megohms and even poorer ones at least $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$.

This LDR is connected between the positive line and the base of $\operatorname{Tr} 1$. In the ordinary way, even in complete darkness, this would be sufficient to bias the transistor into conduction, but VR1 is connected between the base and the emitter, forming a potential divider.

Being a silicon transistor, $\operatorname{Tr} 1$ will be off (i.e. no current will flow from emitter to collector) until the base is at about 0.6 V above that of the emitter. It will thus be seen that, by correct setting of VR1, Trl can be arranged to be off in ambient light but as soon as extra light falls on the LDR, the potential at the base rises and the transistor is switched on.

The SCR in the collector circuit of Trl operates in much the same way as a relay. In normal conditions there is a very high resistance between anode


Fig. 1: The circuit of the slave flash trigger with the semiconductor connections shown on the right.

## components list

| Tr1 BC169C <br> SCR CRS1/05 Thyristor, $50 \mathrm{~V}, 1 \mathrm{~A}$ <br> LDR Light dependant resistor <br> VR1 $220 \Omega$ linear potentiometer <br> SW1 On-off toggle switch |  | 11p $\dagger$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | 25p* |
|  |  | 43p $\ddagger$ |
|  |  | 12p $\dagger$ |
|  |  | 71 $\mathrm{p} \ddagger$ |
|  |  | 981 p |
| $\dagger$ Electrovalue Ltd. |  |  |
| * G. W. Smith Ltd. or A. Marshall and Son. |  |  |
| $\ddagger \mathrm{J}$. Bull (Electrical) Ltd. |  |  |
| Prices are those advertised in Practical Wireless |  |  |
| July 1971 and may have changed. No allowance is |  |  |
| made for minimum order costs or for postage and |  |  |
| packing and these should be checked carefully before |  |  |

and cathode but when triggered with a pulse at the gate, the resistance falls to practically nothing. In this circuit, for convenience, the gate is constantly at supply potential and it is arranged for the cathode to be made more negative, but it comes to the same thing as pulsing the gate.

If the electronic flash switch contacts are connected across the SCR, these will thus be shorted out when the light level on the LDR reaches a certain level. This operation takes place at electronic speeds and although there will be a delay between the main flash and the slave flash, it can be measured as a few millionths of a second.

Flash guns are usually fitted with 3 mm coax plugs and the corresponding sockets can be obtained from most photographic shops, though the cost of this item takes us outside our fl limit.

Note that the flash contacts must be connected the right way round, positive to anode, negative to cathode, and the potentials at the flash gun's plug should be checked.

As far as the camera aperture is concerned, this will depend on the film used and the direction in which the slave flash is pointed. Black and white film is not so critical as colour as far as exposure is concerned and no adjustment is necessary.

# VARIABIE FREDUENCY/ MMMW J.B.WILLMOTT A.I.P. .R.E. 

MANY constructors will have in their spares box a selection of 1.4 V filament battery valves taken from discarded "All Dry Portable" receivers. It occurred to the author that, when only intermittent operation over short periods is required, battery type valves of the B7G based miniature range form an excellent basis for the construction of simple test equipment. The one which forms the subject of this article was a wide range variable frequency audio oscillator, an extremely useful piece of equipment for testing audio amplifiers or the audio section of radio receivers. The majority of the old type battery portable receivers used a standard line up of four "DK" type valves, typically DK96, DF96, DAF96 and DL96. The requirements of the instrument described here are for two general purpose triode valves, and it was found that using the DF96 and DAF96 (or the older 1T4 and 1S5) connected as triodes, gave very satisfactory results.
The completed instrument will give a generous output (somewhere in the range of 2 V peak) over a wide range of frequencies, from approximately 40 Hz to 20 kHz , the latter of course beyond the range of human hearing, but desirable when testing audio equipment. The coverage is given in three switched ranges (a fourth position of the range switch is the "Off" position), each of which slightly overlaps its predecessor. The waveform produced is good, and if an oscilloscope is available, the response of the amplifier under test can be accurately displayed and and tendency to distortion at certain frequencies becomes readily apparent.

## Circuit Description

The circuit composes two triode connected valves, linked together by conventional RC coupling by the components R3, C7 and R4. The output from the anode of V2 is applied in the form of negative
feedback via the capacitor C9, and the potential divider network provided by VR2 and VR3 to the cathode (filament) of V1. Simultaneously, positive feedback is applied to the grid of V1 through the potential divider network comprising C1, C2 or C3 (as selected by the section " $A$ " of the range switch) and VRla, together with C4, C5 or C6 (selected by section " $B$ " of the range switch) and VR1b.

Provided that the amount of positive feedback at the grid of V1 exceeds that of the negative feedback applied to its cathode, oscillation will take place and be maintained, the frequency depending on the setting of the range switch and the ganged potentiometer VR1. Both VR2 and VR3 are adjustable, and the circuit can be so "balanced" that steady a.f. oscillation is maintained throughout the range. The values specified for Cl to C 6 are such that each "sweep" of VR1 provides the desired range of audio frequencies. It is important that VR1 is a dual ganged potentiometer of the linear type, otherwise a steady increase in frequency as the control is rotated clockwise will not be obtained. The third "pole" ("C") of the range switch is utilised to provide on/off switching, in the maximum anticlockwise position, the LT supply to the valve filaments is broken, and hence the instrument is "off", as no HT current can flow unless the valve filaments are heated by the passage of the L'T supply through them.
The audio output of the intrument is picked off from the anode of V2 via C8, and taken to the coaxial output socket. In order to minimise the effect of connecting external apparatus of widely varying output impedance, a $27 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistor is connected permanently across the output socket (R6).
-continued overleaf


## Testing the Instrument

Connect the output of the instrument to the input sockets of any available audio amplifier (valve or transistor) known to be in good working order, or to the pick-up sockets of a radio receiver. Set the fine frequency control to the mid-point of its range, and also set VR2 and VR3 to approximately midway setting. Switch on the amplifier (or radio receiver) and in the case of valve equipment, allow time to warm up. The volume control should be set approximately at the level required for normal radio (or record) reproduction. Now, having first made sure that the HT and LT batteries have been connected, turn the range switch to position 3, i.e., the middle range of frequencies. A note of approximately 400 Hz should be heard in the loudspeaker. Adjust VR2 for maximum output, then reduce the setting of VR3 (by turning it anticlockwise) until oscillation ceases. Now re-advance VR3 until the oscillation just recommences. Next vary the setting of the fine frequency control VR1 and ensure that oscillation is maintained at all settings. VR3 should be set at the "minimum" consistent with maintained oscillation. Now set the switch to Range 1 (lowest), and finally to Range 3 (highest) frequency settings, and make sure that all positions of VR1 oscillation is maintained. Adjust VR3, and VR2 if necessary, to ensure that this is the case. The instrument is now completed and ready for use.

## TOPIC OF THE MONTH

"Electronic Vandals" continued from page 383. why not join the society and take part in properly conducted explorations!
How does all this square up with the publication last month of the P.W. Treasure Tracer? In the first place let it be said that your editor is not only professionally involved in the making and using of electronic devices but is also an active archaeologist, a foot in both camps as it were. Basically it is felt that there is no reason why people should not enjoy innocent amusement with metal locators. It is generally thought that some site looters are unaware of the irreparable damage they can do so quickly, but a little thought will show that the robbing of archaeological sites is as indefensible as looting the showcases in a local museum. These sites are not only part of our heritage but also of future generations. So, don't get carried away with ideas of a vast fortune just waiting to be dug up-try the pools for that! And don't go tramping about on farmland without having first obtained permission from the owner.
W. N. STEVENS—Editor.

## BACK NUMBERS

We regret that the back numbers department of P.W. has now closed and consequently we are unable to supply these.
Requests for specific back issues can usually be included in our 'CQ' section; there is no charge for this but it is a service between readers and P.W. are unable to meet any of these requests.

## HARMONIC SIX-continued from page 398

of the cores should be needed.
Once the i.f. amplifier is aligned it should not be touched further as it is pointless to alter these cores again while aligning the mixer stage.

## MIXER ALIGNMENT

All the cores are adjusted so that about $3_{8} i n$. of brass rod projects. Screw TC2 about half down. Switch to the lower frequency range and tune in a signal with VCl/2 nearly fully open. Peak up the signal by rotating VC3. If VC3 is nearly fully open, screw down TC2 a little. With a signal peaked with VC3, tune towards the l.f. end of the band. When signals are tuned in, adjust the core of L2 for best volume. Continue until VC1/2 is nearly fully closed. If much adjustment of L2 core is needed, repeat from the h.f. end of the band. The purpose is to adjust TC2 so that signals peak with VC3 near the h.f. end of the band, with VC3 about half closed, then to set the core of L2 so that the minimum re-adjustment of VC3 is necessary, while tuning to the l.f. end of the band.

When this is done, switch to the h.f. range and repeat, adjusting the core of L1 near the l.f. end of this range.

If necessary, actual band coverage can be altered by moving the core of L3 near the l.f. end of the bands, and adjusting the trimmer TC2 near the h.f. ends of the bands. After any such change to coverage, adjust L1 and L2 to match, as mentioned.

## AERIALS

For a short rod or wire aerial, TCl can be about half closed but for a longer aerial it should be unscrewed somewhat.

The aerial in use will influence the setting of VC3. Provided VC3 can be peaked for best results, at any frequency, and is not fully open or fully closed, there is no loss of efficiency due to wrong alignment. However, when alignment is correct, little or no adjustment of VC3 will be wanted while tuning, except perhaps to peak up very weak signals.

## NOTES

Resistors R4 and R5 are to prevent squegging and violent oscillation near the h.f. end of the oscillator range. With the coils and values shown, good results should be obtained without experiment.

In some cases a change in one or both values will be more suitable for the actual transistor fitted for Tr 1 . It may be found that R5 can be omitted, Trl emitter being wired directly to pin 5 . With some transistors, R4 could also be omitted, or could be of lower value. R4 and R5 should be of the lowest values which do not result in numerous whistles and oscillation accompanying all signals tuned in near the higher frequency ends of the wavebands.

A 3 -ohm speaker is suitable and should be in a cabinet, or fixed to a baffle board. A headset with headband is more convenient than a miniature or single earpiece for this type of reception. Medium or low impedance phones will generally be satisfactory.
The tuning dial may consist of a numbered dial, or two scales can be drawn on thin card, and marked with frequencies. The card can extend over the whole panel, and may be covered with thin transparent material.


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## NOVEL DOOR ALARM

AS the author's doorbell needed replacing, it was decided that an electronic replacement would be a good idea. It would be simple, but rather dull, to replace this by a simple audio oscillator feeding an amplifier and for this reason a two-tone version was designed, that is one that would provide two notes in rapid succession. Readily available components were used in the construction and on the prototype many of the components were found on discarded computer board panels.

The sound produced by this circuit has many uses other than for a door alarm and works equally well as a burglar alarm. This is especially useful as the sound produced can be made to sound almost exactly like that of a police siren-enough to worry any potential burglar!

DAVID CROSS
When Trl is switched on, diode D1 conducts, this provides an additional conducting path for C 2 , thus shortening the time taken for the capacitor to discharge and trigger $\operatorname{Tr} 2$, which does exactly the same for C 3 in the next half cycle. As it can be seen, if the resistance is high in VR2, VR3, the frequency is hardly altered, but as the resistance is decreased, C2, C3 alternately discharge through it, shortening their discharge times and therefore the frequency. The two pots used were actually salvaged from exequipment computer circuit boards, as were the transistors and some of the resistors.
The output from this multivibrator is picked up from the collector of Trl and is fed via C1 to the volume control of the amplifier.

The amplifier used by the author was taken from


Fig. 1: The circuit of the two tone door alarm.

## THE CIRCUIT

The circuit comprises three main parts; two multivibrators and an audio amplifier. One of the multivibrators controls the rate of switching of the two notes, $\operatorname{Tr} 3$ and $\operatorname{Tr} 4$ provide this function and $C 4$ and C5 control the rate of change. $\operatorname{Tr} 4$ has a reed switching coil in the collector circuit and a $1 k \Omega$ preset potentiometer is wired across this. VR4 controls the division between the two notes; it can be set for equal division or for any other spacing.

The second multivibrator is designed to operate at audio frequencies, the actual notes generated depend on the settings of VR2 and VR3.
an old battery tape recorder but any of the commercial amplifiers are suitable such as the Eagle EG 2004250 mW model. Many simple audio amplifier circuits have been published in Practical Wireless and these are also suitable.

Construction is a matter of personal choice but all the components can be mounted on plain Veroboard, the main wiring being provided using Cir-Kit strip. The existing bell wiring can be used and the bell push is represented by S 2 .

Once completed VR2 and VR3 can be adjusted for a pleasant couple of notes and VR4 adjusted for the balance between them.

# THE <br> \#naue olumn 

THE new station at Kinshasa in the Congo has been widely heard in the U.K. with African style music and announcements in French. Listen before 0300 hrs GMT while the channel is clear of QRM. On weekdays Deutschlandsender is off the air from 0130 to 0300 hrs but on Sunday there is only a 15 minute break from 0245 hrs . The north/ south path is usually good during the summer. Gerry Wood from a QTH near Cape Town reports regular reception of the more powerful Europeans using a modified car radio.
Medium Wave stations in Newfoundland are often conspicuous in summer from 0200 hrs GMT until sunrise. The strongest signal is from CBN 640 kHz in St. John's which is the outlet of the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation. Satellites CBNA 610 kHz in St. Anthony and CBNM 740 kHz in Marystown usually carry the same programme which is announced as the CBC Radio Network. VOCM 590 kHz in St. John's is the key station of a commercial network which is also represented by CKCM 620 kHz in Grand Falls and CHCM 560 kHz in Marystown. All three carry the same programme and have a common identification. CJOX 710 kHz in Grand Bank and CJCN 680 kHz Grand Falls relay the CJON Radio Service which has its chief station CJON 930 kHz in St John's. Newfoundlanders are logged regularly in this country and are often noted
before sunrise as a cluster at the bottom of the band.
Broadcasting Stations of the World Part 2 is published at intervals of approximately 18 months by the Foreign Broadcasting Information Service of the United States Government. All known broadcasting stations in the long, medium and shortwave bands in the range 150 kHz to 26 MHz , in order of frequency, with some data on location, power and station identification, are listed except for MW stations in the U.S.A. The latest edition of the FBIS list, correct to January 1971, is now available. It can be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington DC20402, U.S.A., by quoting catalogue number PX EX 7.9.971 part 2, and sending a money order for $\$ 2$ in U.S. currency.

Leslie Smith of Witham, Essex, R. T. Johnston of Christchurch, Hants, and Frank Jeniker of Spur Tree Jamaica have written asking for information on MW loops. Anyone who would like to see an illustration of a loop should write to Radio Nederland and ask for the Frame Aerial Data Sheet. It can be obtained free of charge from Postbus 222, Hilversum, Holland.

Arthur Cushen of Invercargill, New Zealand, has recently verified his 2000th medium wave station. He sends the following details which will surprise many DXers. His QSLs are from stations in 132 different countries and 114 of them are from Europe and include every country. Arthur, who is blind, was awarded the MBE for his services to broadcasting. DXers, including the writer, who met him during his visit to this country in 1969 will be happy to congratulate him on his latest achievement. All reports and information concerning Medium Wave DXing may be sent to me at the following address:

Practical Wireless Editorial Department, IPC Magazines Ltd., Fleetway House, Farringdon Street, London, EC4A 4AD.

Charles Molloy



ALTHOUGH integrated circuits have largely taken over in the field of miniature electronics, it is still possible to construct a miniature audio amplifier which is economically competitive with an i.c. and which will give far more satisfaction to build.

The amplifier which is the subject of this article measures approximately $2 \times 1 \times 1$ inches, and will deliver about 250 mW to a $25 \Omega$ impedance loudspeaker. Its most obvious use is in the role of the audio stages of a small transistor radio, but it may be used for many other purposes. It is possible to buy all the components (excluding the various miscellaneous items) for under $£ 1$.

## THE CIRCUIT

The circuit is given in Fig. 1. Four transistors are used, and these are all silicon types. Tr 1 is an NPN, low noise type, which is used as the input stage. The input signal is coupled to the base of this transistor by C1, after having first passed the volume control. It is biased by the potential divider formed by R1 and R2, R3 being the load resistor.

C2 is a frequency correcting capacitor which is used to give negative feedback at high frequencies, where it has a lower reactance, and thus attenuating the higher frequencies.

Tr2 is a PNP type, and is used as the driver transistor. Biasing is performed by R4 and R5. As R5 is connected to the junction of the emitters of the two output transistors, as the voltage at this junction goes positive and negative with the input signal, the biasing of $\operatorname{Tr} 2$ will alter, and thus negative feedback is applied. R6 and R7 allow a small current to flow through the output transistors under quiescent conditions. This prevents crossover distortion which would otherwise occur as the input pulses change from one polarity to another. R6 and R7 also form the load for the driver stage.

## OUTPUT STAGE OPERATION

A complementary output pair are used, the BC159 being a PNP transistor, and the BCI 47 being the NPN type. These transistors are used as emitter
followers and so have a very low output impedance, and thus require no output transformer. The bases of these transistors are directly coupled to the driver transistor.

When a negative pulse is applied at the bases, the NPN transistor will shut off, and the PNP one will amplify, and its resistance will fall accordingly. This will cause the voltage at the junction of the two emitters to swing down to a very low level.

If a positive pulse is applied to the transistors, the PNP one will shut off, and the resistance of the


## * components list


-continued on page 425


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AT the outset of the present series of articles it was pointed out that full constructional details could not be given in each article due both to the flood of new devices released on the market and the complexity of some of the i.c.'s reviewed. As a result some inexperienced constructors may have found themselves uncatered for as it would be too much to expect of them to draw up their own printed circuit and layout designs. This month, however, a very useful i.c. is reviewed and a layout pattern illustrated so that a relatively inexperienced constructor may approach it with confidence. Few external components are needed so that success is virtually guaranteed.

## Circuit

Photocell devices have always fascinated constructors as their uses are so varied and diverse from such things as counters and position sensors to the more familiar burglar alarm units. Considered in this month's article is the RCA type CA3062, described as a photo-detector and power amplifier and which is particularly suited for operations from either visible light sources or the newer infra-red Gallium Arsenide emitters.

Simple light dependent resistor control circuits suffer from two major drawbacks. First of all their response time is slow and secondly small variations in light intensity are not registered unless amplification follows. The photo-transistor is a much more


Fig. 1. Circuit of the photo-detector amplifier.
sensitive device especially when a pair of them are connected in a super-alpha configuration as in the present design. In fact the photo transistors themselves give a variation in current from a mere 4 microamps in the absence of light to 2 mA with a light intensity of 100 lumens per sq. ft. This current variation is usually used to develop a corresponding variable voltage across a $22 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ load resistor which in turn controls the biasing on either $\operatorname{Tr} 2$ or $\operatorname{Tr} 3$.


This photograph of the CA3062 is $2 \frac{1}{2}$ times its actual size. The i.c. itself can be seen in the centre of the package which is a modified 12-lead TO-5 style.

In Fig. 1 a complete circuit diagram of the unit is shown and it can be seen that $\operatorname{Tr} 2$ and $\operatorname{Tr} 3$ form a differential pair with Tr8 acting as a constant current source. From this configuration it follows that phase inversion occurs between the collectors of Tr 2 and $\operatorname{Tr} 3$ which in turn control the current in the output pair $\operatorname{Tr} 6$ and $\operatorname{Tr} 7$ via $\operatorname{Tr} 4$ and $\operatorname{Tr} 5$ which prevent loading of the differential pair. Some constructors may notice the great similarity in circuit design between this i.c. and an earlier one manufactured by the same company, type CA3020, and featured in the May 1968 issue of P.W. The main amplifier in both are almost identical except for the inclusion of a constant current sink Tr8 in the CA3062 replacing a simple resistor in the earlier i.c. to provide better stability and greater amplification. The same type of specially fabricated output transistors are used in each to enable them to carry the higher currents they draw as output transistors. In fact, up to 100 mA can be taken from the output stage and this is more than adequate to directly drive a relay or thyristor.

## Operation

For proper on-off operation the voltage on either pin 1 or pin 7 (either may be connected to the photo transistors) should not exceed 3 volts. This can be achieved by limiting the current through the photo transistors or on the other hand by inserting a
clamping diode between whichever pin is used and earth.

It should also be noted that the device can also respond linearly to light variations by connecting a potential divider network between pin 6 and earth with the tap joined to pins 9 and 12 (two $20 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ ). However, in this mode of operation the output current is limited considerably as greater heat dissipation takes place in the silicon chip.

## Practical Circuit

A suitable layout pattern for the photo-detector is shown in Fig. 2 and use could profitably be made of a TO-5 12 lead i.c. holder to prevent damaging the i.c. during the soldering process.


Fig. 2. The top circuit shows the two capacitors, one resistor and the relay needed to provide a practical circuit around the CA3062. The bottom diagram is a suggested layout for a circuit board using a TO5 12-lead i.c. holder.

In conclusion it may be pointed out that this device can provide light beam detection of up to 100 yards when used in conjunction with the new Helium-Neon lasers and which in the past year or so have appeared on the American market and no doubt will eventually filter over to this side of the Atlantic. The prohibitive prices of these devices severely limited their uses to industry and research centres but now one of these laser tubes sells for $£ 20$ and a suitable power supply to operate it can be built for under $£ 5$. No doubt this offers intriguing possibilities especially in the field of intrusion alarms and we can continue to expect in the future further developments along these lines.

MINI-AMP-continued from page 422
NPN one will fall. This will cause the voltage at the junction of the two emitters to swing to a very high level.
In this way the emitter voltage will swing up and down with the input signal. This voltage swing is coupled to the speaker via C5.
Under quiescent conditions the voltage at the emitter junction should be approximately half the supply voltage. This voltage is set by the values of resistors R4 and R5.

If the amplifier is to work properly, the output transistors should be fairly evenly matched. These transistors are not generally available in matched pairs, but some semiconductor suppliers will match transistors, although there may be a small surcharge for this.
Current limiting resistors are often connected between the emitters of the output transistors and the output capacitor, to prevent thermal runaway. Silicon transistors, however, do not suffer from runaway to anything like the extent that germanium types more usually found in this type of circuit do, and these resistors were found to he completely unnecessary.
Although the amplifier will operate using speaker impedances outside the range $15 \Omega$ to $30 \Omega$, this is not recommended as it will mean either a loss in available output power, or an increase in the level of distortion.

## CONSTRUCTION

The amplifier is built on a $2 \times 1$ inch piece of $0 \cdot 1$ inch matrix Veroboard, with the copper strip running lengthwise. This has to be cut from a larger piece of Veroboard using a small hacksaw. A wiring diagram of the panel is given in Fig. 2.
Great care will have to be taken with the connections to the Veroboard, and this project should not be attempted by the complete beginner. A soldering iron with a very fine bit is required, and some sort of stand to hold the board steady will be found to be extremely helpful.


Fig. 2: The component layout on Veroboard.
All transistors are fitted with special leadouts which plug into the Veroboard. These leadouts are very short, and although silicon transistors are very hardy, these should be soldered quickly into place, and should be left until last.

The capacitors will have to be subminiature types, and like many of the components may have to be mounted vertically so as to fit into the available space.

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TIC $946=12 \times \mu \mathrm{A}$

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UIC42 $=5 \times 7450 \mathrm{~N} 50 \mathrm{p}$ UIC50 $=12 \times 7450 \mathrm{~N} 50$ $\begin{array}{ll}\text { UIC51 }=12 \times 7451 \mathrm{~N} & 50 \mathrm{p} \\ \text { UIC60 }=12 \times 7460 \mathrm{~N} & 50 \mathrm{p}\end{array}$ UIC60 $=12 \times 7460 \mathrm{~N} \quad 50 \mathrm{D}$
UIC70
$8 \times 7470 \mathrm{~N}$
50 $\mathrm{UIC72}=8 \times 7470 \mathrm{~N} 50 \mathrm{p}$ UTC73 $=8 \times 7472 \mathrm{~N} 50 \mathrm{D}$ $\begin{array}{ll}\mathrm{UTC73}=8 \times 7478 \mathrm{~N} & 50 \\ \mathrm{UIC74}=8 \times 7474 \mathrm{~N} & 50 \mathrm{p} \\ \mathrm{UTC} 5=8 \times 7475 \mathrm{~N} & 50 \mathrm{p}\end{array}$ UIC74 $=8 \times 7474 \mathrm{~N} \quad 50 \mathrm{D}$
$\mathrm{UIC} 5=8 \times 7475 \mathrm{~N}$ $\begin{array}{ll}\mathrm{U1C76}=8 \times 7475 \mathrm{~N} & 50 \mathrm{p} \\ 5 \times 7476 \mathrm{~N} & 50 \mathrm{p}\end{array}$
PAK Ko.

UIC80 $=5 \times 7480 \mathrm{~N} 50$
UIC82 $=5 \times 7482 \mathrm{~N} \quad 50$ UIC83 $=5 \times 7483 \mathrm{~N}$
UIC86 $\mathrm{U1C96}=5 \times 7486 \mathrm{~N}$
UC VIC90 $=$ $\mathrm{VIC93}=5 \times 7492 \mathrm{~N}$ UIC93 $=5 \times 7493 \mathrm{~N}$

U109 $\begin{array}{ll}\text { UIC94 }=5 \times 7494 N & 50 \mathrm{p} \\ \text { U1C95 } & 5 \times 74\end{array}$ | IC95 | $=5 \times 7495 \mathrm{~N}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| UIC 96 | $=50 \mathrm{p}$ | UTC946=12 $\times \mu \mathrm{A} 946$ Packs cannot be split but 25 Assorted Pieces (our mix) is available as Pack UICX9 Every Pak carries our BI-PAK Satisfaction or money back guarantee.

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FOLLOWING our brief mention of the type LS3 valve in 'Going Back' for June we were pleased to hear from George Jessop, G6JP, who has been with one of the leading valve manufacturers of this country for many years. George points out that the LS family of valves was introduced to make available larger output powers than were currently available with the ' $R$ ' type valve which had first appeared around 1915 (see 'Going Back' July 1971).
'LS' indicated a loudspeaker valve and applied to the earlier series LS1-6 and to several later types such as the LS7, 8, 8A and 9 although these had little in common with the earlier series, having oxide coated filaments and being specially manufactured for the Post Office.
The most famous valve of the early range was undoubtedly the LS5 which was for general purposes while the LS5A was meant for use as an output valve. The higher impedance LS5B completed the range and was intended for use in resistancecapacity coupled stages.
Both the Post Office and the BBC used these valves in their high quality audio amplifiers while, with the radio amateurs, the LS5B reigned supreme in frequency multiplier stages and the LS5 did duty in the power amplifier output stage. G6JP mentions that in 1936 his first 10 -metre transmitter used these valves and that a very early 2 -metre oscillator, illustrated in "Short Wave Communication" by Ladnor and Stoner (1932), used two 'de-based' LS5's. Since the circular base of the standard LS5 was of metal a considerable reduction in self-capacity was possible by removing the base thus enabling an output of some 5 watts to be obtained from this particular oscillator.

Readers may like to know that this famous range of valves has been graced with CV numbers:

| LS5 | Metal 4-pin UX base | VT24-CV1636 |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| LS5 | Standard | British base | VT25-CV1637 |
| LS5A | $"$ | $"$ | $"$ |
| LS5B | $"$ | $"$ | VT66-CV1650 |
| VT40-CV1647 |  |  |  |

All these valves had an anode dissipation of 10 watts but the later LS6A had this figure increased to 25 watts.

Our thanks to George Jessop for all this interesting information and we are sure that if he cared to put his reminiscences on paper they would prove very absorbing reading.

## \#intage $\mathfrak{E}$ quipment

One of our correspondents has sent this photograph of an ancient piece of gear and asked us to assist in identifying it. Unfortunately we can't help so we are passing the buck to our older but nevertheless revered readers in the hope that someone can recognise the equipment.


Two of the terminals are marked 'aerial' and 'earth' and the other two 'cell'. A couple of coils, a buzzer and a knifeswitch complete the 'thing'. The switch looks rather like a Morse key and no doubt could be used as such with a bit of ingenuity.

Our correspondent did connect a 1.5 volt 'cell' as instructed and reports "it did no good to our TV set". We can imagine! We think it is a crude transmitter for test purposes which could be left running while a receiver was adjusted. Any other ideas?

## Zneuices

Assuming that one or two readers of 'Going Back' have been coerced into using solid state devices, they have probably endeavoured to follow the advice of their betters by using a heat-sink when soldering the leads of transistors and keeping the metal clips on certain FET's until they are safely tucked in. (The FET's, not the readers!)

However the early users of valves also suffered a barrage of injuctions on how to handle their new toys. The following directions, taken from the wireless press of 50 years ago, should raise a smile or two!

## BREVITIES FOR VALVE USERS

1. Remember that your receiving apparatus is not a crude collection of switches, but that the operation of every switch should receive due consideration.
2. Turn on your valves slowly.
3. Do not burn them too brightly.
4. Signals are not necessarily stronger the brighter the valves are lighted.
5. Do not let your valves 'howl'. Your neighbour may report you and you risk having your licence cancelled.
6. Having roughly tuned in on your inductance and accomplished finer tuning with your variable condenser, bear in mind para. 5.
7. Remember there is a proper arrangement for the valves. Interchange them from left to right, having tuned in a station, such as FL, until you find the best position for each.

We are sure that reading these 'instructions' will bring back many memories to those who fiddled about in those pioneering days. At least one could see when a valve had failed which is more than one can do with today's 'devices'!


This year we are sponsoring another Project Autumn competition. The rules have been amended so that the PW "Designer's Trophy 1971" will be awarded to the author of the best constructional article published in PW issues dated July 71 to March 72 inc. This allows submitted articles to be published as soon as possible and for authors to be paid without delay.

## SUBMIT YOUR ARTICLES NOW

## MAXWELL



[^3]

Items in this section are carried free of charge as a service to readers. We resulting and reimburse postage and all reasonable expenses. We cannot guarantee inclusion and requests for inclusion will not be acknowledged. Material for inclusion should be sent to Practical Wireless Editorial. Fleetway House, Farringdon Street, London, E.C.4.

## INFORMATION WANTED

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mitting valve.-P.A.G. Price, 56/57 The Mall, Meerut, Cantonment. U.P., India.
mitting valve.-P.A.G. Price, $56 / 57$ The Mall, Meerut, Cantonment, U.P, India. connections and handbook.-J. H. McGee, 6 Ripon Road inf the valve line-up, supply Durham.
...any info. on converting the 19 set Rx/Tx-T. Izard, 41 Clumber Drive, Radcliffe on-Trent, Notts.
Na fault-finding chart No. 2 which was issued with the May 1968 issue of P.W.--
Norman Quinn, E.B.E. Limited, Postbus 6275 , Rotterdam, Holland.

## ISSUES WANTED

ham Crescent, Greenford, Middx. 1955 ) dealing with mods to the R1155.-D. Sager, 92 Marnham Crescent, Greenford, Middx.
...P.W. for Jan, and Feb. 1971 and P.E. for Jan. to Oct. 1970 inclusive and P.E. for an. and Feb, $1969 .-\mathrm{J}$. R, Rourke, 12 Daisy Grove, Edge Hill, Liverpool, L7.IOR. . Roche, Arna, Florence Road, Bray, Co. Wicklow, Containing the article on PCR Mods -

## DIGITAL FREQUENCY COUNTER TIMER

## continued from page 411

With $Q$ of IClb high, the signal gate IC2a allows the input signal to produce an output which passes to the counter.
The $\bar{Q}$ output from IClb is now low and this clears or resets ICIa directly so that the Q output of ICIa now becomes low and the $\widehat{\mathbb{Q}}$ becomes high.

As the $\bar{Q}$ of IClb is low, IC2b and IC2c maintain the clamping action of D4.

The condition of ICla with Q low presets IC1b so that on the next negative going edge of the clock period signal, IClb will set to Q low, thus producing a continuous high output from the signal gate IC2a and terminating the gate period by isolating the input signal from the counter.

The $\bar{Q}$ of IC1a and the $\bar{Q}$ of IC1b are now both high causing IC2b output to be low and IC2c output to be high and rendering the clamping diode D4 non-conducting. The waveforms of the control oscillator are shown in Fig. 8. The state of the control oscillator whilst in the clamped condition is with Tr6 non-conducting and Tr7 conducting. When D4 is made non-conducting, the current through R13 and D3 causes Tr6 to conduct producing a negative-going step at $\operatorname{Tr} 6$ collector from +5 V to 0 V .

## TO BE CONTINUED



## High fidelity Monolithic Integrated

Two years ago Sinclair Radionics announced the World's first monolithic integrated circuit $\mathrm{Hi}-\mathrm{Fi}$ amplifier, the IC.10. Now we are delighted to be able to introduce its successor, the Super IC. 12 This 22 transistor unit has all the virtues of the original $1 C .10$ plus the following advantages:

1. Higher power.
2. Fewer external components.
3. Lower quiescent consumption.
4. Compatible with Project 60 modules.
5. Specially designed built-in heat sink. No other heat sink needed.
6. Full output into $3,4,5$ or 8 ohms.
7. Works on any voltage from 6 to 28 volts without adjustment.
8. NEW 22 transistor circuit.

Output power 6 watts RMS continuous ( 12 watts peak).
Frequency Response 5 Hz to $100 \mathrm{KHz} \pm$ 1 dB .
Total Harmonic Distortion Less than $1 \%$ (Typical 0.1\%) at all output powers and all frequencies in the audio band.
Load Impedance 3 to 15 ohms.
Power Gain 90dB ( $1,000,000,000$ times) after feedback.

Supply Voltage 6 to 28 volts (Sinclair PZ-5 or PZ-6 power supplies ideal).

Size $22 \times 45 \times 28 \mathrm{~mm}$ including pins and heat sink.
Input Impedance 250 Kohms nominal.
Quiescent current 8 mA at 28 volts.

Circuit Amplifier
With the addition of only a very few external resistors and capacitors the Super IC. 12 makes a complete high fidelity audio amplifier suitable for use with pick-up. F.M. tuner etc. Alternatively, for more elaborate systems, modules in the Project-60 range such as the Stereo 60 and A.F.U. may be added. The comprehensive manual supplied with each unit gives full circuit and wiring diagrams for a large number of applications in addition to high fidelity. These include car radios, oscillators etc. The very low quiescent consumption makes the Super IC. 12 ideal for battery operation.


Price, inc. FREE printed circuit board for mounting.
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Project 60 modules are more versatile - using them you can have anything from a simple record player or car radio amplifier to a sophisticated and powerful stereo tuner-amplifier. Either power amplifier can be used in a wide variety of applications as well as high fidelity. The Stereo 60 pre-amplifier control unit may also be used with any other power amplifier system, as can the AFU filter unit. The stereo FM tuner operates on the unique phase lock loop principle to provide the best ever standards of sensitivity and audio quality. Project 60 modules are very easily connected together by following the 48 page manual supplied free with all Project 60 equipment. The modules are great space savers too and are sold individually boxed in distinctive white and black cartons. With all these wonderful advantages, there remains the most attractive of all - price. When you choose Project 60 you know you are going to get the best high fidelity in the world. yet thanks to Sinclair's vast manufacturing resources (the largest in Europe) prices are fantasticaliy low and everything you buy is covered by the famous Sinclair guarantee of reliability and satisfaction.

Typical Project 60 applications

| System | The Units to use | together with | Cost of Units |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Simple battery record player | 2.30 | Crystal P.U., 12 V battery volume controt | £4.48 |
| Mains powered record player | Z.30. PZ. 5 | Crystal or ceramic P.U. volume controletc. | £9.45 |
| $20+20 \mathrm{~W}$. stereo amplifier for most needs | $\begin{aligned} & 2 \times 2.30 \mathrm{~s} \text {, Stereo } 60, \\ & \text { PZ.5 } \end{aligned}$ | Crystal, ceramic or mag. P.U., F.M. Tuner, etc. | £23.90 |
| $20+20 \mathrm{~W}$. stereo amplifier with high performance spkrs. | $\begin{aligned} & 2 \times 2.30 \mathrm{~s}, \text { Stereo } 60, \\ & \text { PZ. } 6 \end{aligned}$ | High quality ceramic or magnetic P.U. F.M. Tuner. Tape Deck, etc. | £26.90 |
| $40+40$ W. R.M.S. <br> de-luxe stereo amplifier | $2 \times 2.50$ s, Stereo 60 PZ.8, mains trsfrmr | As above | £34.88 |
| Indoor P.A. | Z.50, PZ.8, mains transformer | Mic., guitar, speakers, etc., controls | £19.43 |

# from a simple amplifier to a complete stereo tuner amplifier with Project 60 modules 

## Z. 30 \& Z. 50 power amplifiers



The Z. 30 and $Z .50$ are 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 $\mathrm{Z}$..30 or Z .50 amplifiers in your Project 60 system will depend on personal preference, but they are the same size and may be used with other units in the Project 60 range equally well. SPECFFICATIONS (Z. 50 units are interchangeable with $Z .30$ in allapplications).
Power Outputs
Z.30 15 watts R.M.S. into 8 ohms using 35 volts: 20 watts R.M.S. into 3 ohms using 30 volts. 2.5040 watts.R.M.S. into 3 ohms using 40 volts: 30 watts R.M.S. into 8 ohms using 50 volts.
Frequency response: 30 to $300,000 \mathrm{~Hz} \pm 1 \mathrm{~dB}$.
Distortion: $0.02 \%$ into 8 ohms.
Signal to noise ratio: better than 70 dB urweighted. Input sensitivity: 250 mV into $100 \mathrm{Kohms}$.
For speakers from 3 to 15 ohms impedance.
Size: $14 \times 80 \times 57 \mathrm{~mm}$.
2.30

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Z.50

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## Power Supply Units

Designed special for use with the Project 60 systern of your choice. Use PZ. 5 for normal Z.30 assembltes and PZ. 6 where a stabilised supply is essential.
PZ.5 30 volts unstabilised $£ 4.98$ PZ 635 volts stabilised $\mathbf{f 7} 98$ PZ. 635 volts stabilised $£$
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If within 3 months of purchasing Project 60 modules directly from us, you are dissatisfied with them, we will refund your money at once. Each module is guaranteed to work perfectly and should any defect arise in normal use we will service it at once and without any cost to you whatsoever provided that it is returned to us wou whatsoever provided that 2 years of the purchase date. There will be a small charge for service thereafter. No charge for postage by surface mail. Air-mail charged at cost.

## Project 60 Stereo F.M. Tuner



The phase lock loop principle was used for receiving signals from space craft because of its vastly improved signal to noise ratio. Now. Sinclair have applied the principle to an F.M. tuner with fantastically good results. Other original features include varicap diode tuning, printed circuit coils, an I.C. in the specially designed stereo decoder and squelch circuit for silent tuning between stations. Good reception is possible in difficult areas, and often a few inches of wire are enough for an aerial. In terms of a high fidelity this tuner has a lower level of distortion than any other tuner we know. Stereo broadcasts are received automatically as the tuning control is rotated, a panel indicetor tighting up as the stereo signal is tuned in. This tuner can also be used to advantage with any other high fidelity system. SPECIFICATIONS-Number of transistors: 16 plus 20 in I.C. Tuning range: 87.5 to 108 MHz . Capture ratlo: 1.5 dB . Sensitivity: $2 \mu \mathrm{~V}$ for 30 dB quieting: $7 \mu \mathrm{~V}$ for full limiting. Squeich lever: $20 \mu \mathrm{~V}$. A.F.C. range: $\pm 200 \mathrm{KHz}$. Signal to noise ratio: $>65 \mathrm{aB}$. Audio frequency response: $10 \mathrm{~Hz}-15 \mathrm{KHz}( \pm 1 \mathrm{~dB})$. Total harmonic distortion : $0.15 \%$ for $30 \%$ modulation. Stereo decoder operating level: $2 \mu \mathrm{~V}$. Cross talk: 40 dB . Output voltage: $2 \times 150 \mathrm{mV}$ R.M.S. Operating voltage: 25-30 VDC. Indicators: Mains on: Stereo on; tuning. Size: $93 \times 40 \times 207 \mathrm{~mm}$,

## Stereo 60 Pre-amp/control unit  <br> 

Designed for Project 60 range but suitable for use with any high quality power amplifier. Again silicon epitaxial planar transistors are used throughout, achieving a really high signal-to-noise ratio and excellent tracking between channels. Input selection is by means of push buttons and accurate equalisation is provided for all the usual inputs.
SPECIFICATIONS-Input sensitivities: Radio-up to 3 mV . Mag. p.u. 3 mV : correct to R.I.A.A curve $\pm 1 \mathrm{~dB}: 20$ to $25,000 \mathrm{~Hz}$. Ceramic p. C . - up to 3 mV : Aux-up to 3 mV . Output: 250 mV . Signal to noise ratio: better than 70 dB . Channel matching: Within 1 dB , Tone controls: TREBLE +15 to -15 dB at $10 \mathrm{KHz}: \mathrm{BASS}+15$ to -15 dB at 100 Hz . Front panel: brushed aluminium with black knobs and controls. Size: $66 \times 40 \times 207 \mathrm{~mm}$. $\mathbf{£ 9 . 9 8}$
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## A.F.U. High \& Low Pass Filter Unit



For use between Stereo 60 unit and two $Z .30 \mathrm{~s}$ or $Z .50 \mathrm{~s}$. and is easily mounted. It is unique in that the cut-off frequencies are continuously variable, and as attenuation in the rejected band is rapid ( 12 dB /octave). there is less loss of the wanted signal than has previously been possible. Amplitude and phase distortion are negligible. The A.F.U. is suitable for use with any other amplifier system. Two filter stages - rumble (high pass) and scratch (low pass). Supply voltage - 15 to 35 V . Current - 3 mA . H.F. cut-off ( -3 dB ) variable from 28 KHz to 5 KHz . L.F. cut-off ( -3 dB ) variable from 25 Hz to 100 Hz . Distortion at $1 \mathrm{KHz}(35 \mathrm{~V}$. supply ( $0.02 \%$ at rated output. Size: $66 \times 40 \times 90 \mathrm{~mm}$.

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| 0ode | Power | Folerane | Ratite | Valutas avaliable | 160 | $\begin{aligned} & 10 \text { to } 90 \\ & \text { (wee note below) } \end{aligned}$ | 100 up |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| c | 1／20w | \％\％ | 58， 220 k R |  | 9 | 8 | 7. |
| C | 1／6\％ | 8\％ | $4.78 .970 \mathrm{~K} \Omega$ | $\underline{0} 24$ | 1 | 0.8 | 0.7 |
| C | 1／4W | 10\％ | 4.7 \％－10M $\Omega$ | W14 | 1 | 0.8 | 0.7 |
| C | 1／2W | 5\％ | 4．7月－10M8 | 204 | $1 \cdot$ | 1 | 1．80 |
| C | 3W | 10\％ | 4.7 －10M 2 | ${ }^{\text {FP12 }}$ | $\frac{2}{4} 5$ | 2， | 3.8 |
| MO． | 1／2w | $10 \%+1 / 20 \Omega$ | ${ }_{0}^{10} 824 \Omega 8$ | 612 | 7 | 7 | f |
| W\％ | 8w | 10\％ | 12§－10K | 212 | 7 | 7 | 6 |
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SAQ 206 Amplifter，SP25 111 Plinth and Cover，G800 cartridge，pair large 3＂way speaker system size $18^{\prime \prime} \times 10^{\prime \prime} \times 7^{\prime \prime}$ Would normally cost $£ 85$ complete．Our price $£ 59.95$

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 series: BYZ13 300 piv 20 p . BYZ 12600 piv 25 p . BYZ11 900 piv 30 p . BYZ10 1200piv 35p. (Charges $6 \frac{1}{2}$ up to 11, paid for 12 and over). Sub-Min Transformers: OUTPUX $3 \Omega$ for-
 Details and other in list. SOLDERING IRON. Slim, modern, British highspeed 84, all parts replaceable, highest quality, full guarantee: \&1.07/ (10p). DIAMOND STYLM Replacements for BSR TCS/LP, TC8/S, TC8LP/STEREO: , all at 400 ( 6 p ). ACOS GP73, GP91; BSR ST4 (ST3, ST5), ST8 (ST9): SONOTONE BTA, 9TA, 9TAHC: PHILIPS AG3306, $3060(3063,3066,3301,3302,3304)$ ) Garrard GKS25, GCM21, GCS23, and many more 'Garrard' etc. types. All at 75p. (6p). Alt are of the very bighest quaity. Dor GP92 DIAMOND: ST4 (STB, ST5); ST10 (ST9, ST8): 9TA, 9TAHC, 3306 , GP91, (For GP92, OP93, GP94 earridges: GPIISC tor afiting and stylii. Mono GP67/2 80p. STEREOCOMPATIBLE (MONO) GP91/SC $£ 1 \cdot 10$ STEREO GP93 21.30 STEREO CERAMIC GP94 51.95 SONOTONE STEREO 9TAHC (DIA.) $52 \cdot 40$ GOLDRING G850 54.87 F .
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 hand-grip $£ 1 \cdot 00$. CN21 Grey hand desk $62!\mathrm{p}$. Stick ' 60 ' $\mathbf{5 1} \cdot 02 \frac{1}{4}$. CM70 "Planet" machined metal tapered stick type with neck cord, adaptor to fit Hoor stands E1-472 (ain 9 p . LAPEL (or hand) with clip 32tp (6p). All are fited wit wsit Similar bnt fixed on swivel swan tapered with base and side-out adaptor evig7. Type 209 Cardioid ball, $50 \mathrm{~K} / 600 \Omega$, omnineck to swhit yol control, on toff switch, special lead, handle (as good as money can buy) f6.30. UD130 Uni-Dir. Ball., mesh, $50 \mathrm{~K} / 600 \Omega$, Adap., cable, jack plug $\mathbf{~} 4.80$. (20p). DM160. ommi-dir., Ball, 50 K Cable adaptor $23.87{ }^{2}$ (all at 271p). MICROPHONE INSERTS. Dia., $1^{177^{\prime}}$ OR 0.9" either size 27ip (6p). EARPIECES with lead and min. jack plug (2.5 Or 3.5 mma, state which). Magetic $9 p$ Crystal (2. 47 .
 ohm. Adjustabie 922 p ( 70 p . SPEAKERS $12^{\prime \prime}$ ROUND fitted tweter, 3 or $15 \Omega$ (state which) $\mathrm{fi} 1.87 \frac{1}{(271 p}$ ) or for Stereo $£ 4.25$ pair, carr. paid $2 \frac{1}{2}^{\prime \prime} 3$ OR $8 \Omega$ (state which) $37 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{p}$ ( 6 p ). EMI $13^{\prime \prime} \times 8^{\prime \prime}, 3,8$ or $15 \Omega$ (state which) 22.22, (25p): with two tweeters and
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