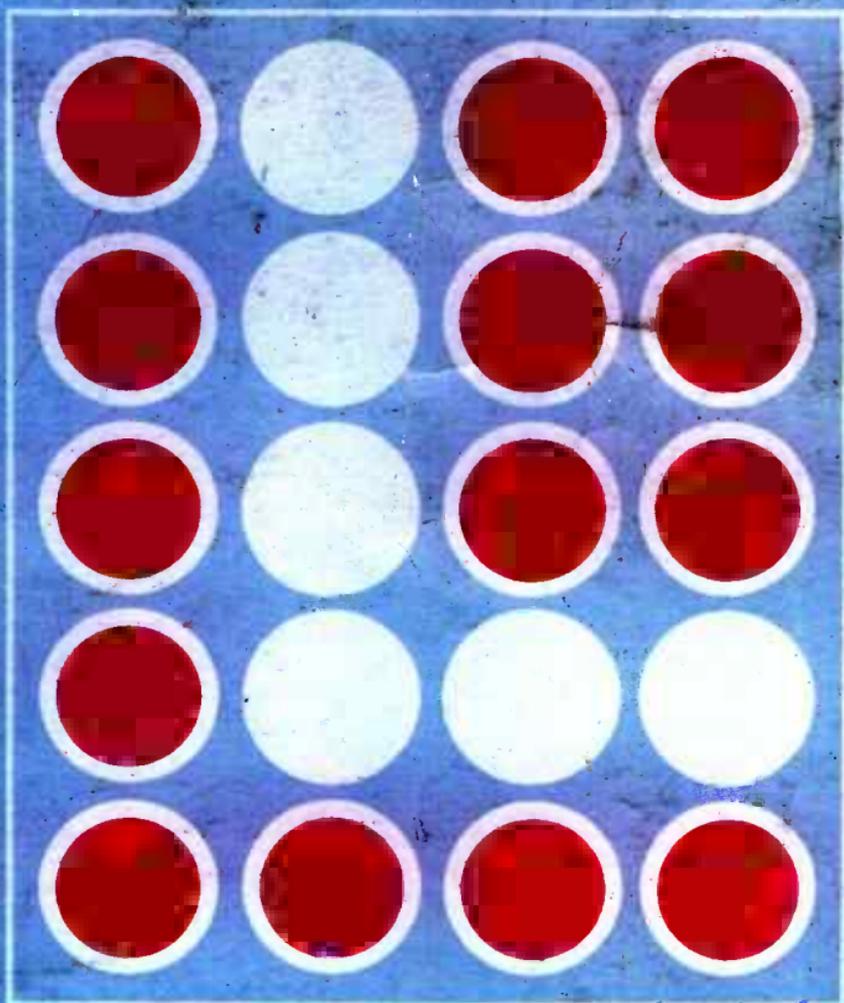


Electronic Projects for Beginners

F. G. RAYER, T. Eng. (CEI), Assoc. IERE



ELECTRONIC PROJECTS FOR BEGINNERS

Author: [Faint text]
Editor: [Faint text]
Publisher: [Faint text]
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ISBN: [Faint text]
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**ELECTRONIC PROJECTS
FOR BEGINNERS**

by

F.G. RAYER, T.Eng.(CEI), Assoc. IERE

**BERNARD BABANI (publishing) LTD
THE GRAMPIANS
SHEPHERDS BUSH ROAD
LONDON W6 7NF
ENGLAND**

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ISBN 0 85934 054 6

First Published – August 1978

Reprinted – September 1980

Reprinted – June 1982

Reprinted – January 1984

Reprinted – April 1986

Reprinted – February 1988

Reprinted – April 1989

Reprinted – August 1991

Printed and bound in Great Britain by Mayhew McCrimmon Printers Ltd.

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SECTION I "NO SOLDERING" PROJECTS

With these, connections are generally made with small terminals, or nuts and bolts. By this means components are connected together, and fixed to an insulated board or panel.

A project can be built using one size of bolt and nut throughout, but it will be found convenient to have two or three sizes. Small nuts and bolts can then be used for connections between components, while larger bolts with extra nuts, or terminals, can be used to connect external items, such as headphones.

For one size throughout, 6ba screws or bolts will be satisfactory, about ½ inch long. Only a few are needed for each project, but they are quite inexpensive in 50 or 100 packs. Some extra nuts will prove useful, and also a quantity of 6ba washers. If the insulated board or panel is not too thick, the ½ inch bolts with an extra nut each will do as terminals for connecting external items.

A 4ba bolt is larger than 6ba, and a few of these, ½ inch or more long, also with washers and nuts, can be used for terminals, if preferred. It is also possible to obtain terminal heads, so that bolts with nuts can be used as terminals.

The 8ba size is smaller than 6ba. These can be of advantage in a project where size is to be kept down, or for positions where several leads come close together (as at a transistor). Bolts, nuts and washers (8ba throughout) can be obtained together.

Naturally all sorts of nuts and bolts, to hand or obtained from constructional toys or old electronic equipment, can be used. Results are not going to depend on the sizes used, which are more a matter of convenience and appearance.

There is also considerable latitude in the insulated panels or boards used to carry the components. Some projects need only a few holes in a small board. Here, it is convenient to use 1/16 inch thick or similar paxolin sheet, cutting a piece of

the wanted size and drilling holes for the bolts or terminals. A small hand drill is satisfactory for this purpose. The drills used can be 3/32 inch for 8ba bolts, 1/8 inch for 6ba, and 5/32 inch for 4ba, or any similar sizes giving clearance.

Where drilling is inconvenient, a ready-perforated board must be used. For projects where size is not important, perforated 1/8 inch thick hardboard is suitable — holes are generally at 1 inch intervals, but this is not important. For this type of board, the size of the holes will generally mean that 4ba nuts and bolts will be beaded.

Plain perforated board (that is, without any conductor foil) can be obtained with holes at 0.1 inch or 0.15 inch spacing but these holes are too small and too close together. However, such boards can be used instead of plain unperforated paxolin sheet by drilling the holes larger in just those places where bolts must be placed.

There is also a type of eyelet board, with holes at 5mm spacing and just large enough to take 8ba bolts. This is handy for small projects.

It is also relatively easy to prepare a fully perforated board or panel, which can be used for a number of projects in turn.

For a board up to about 4 x 6 inch paxolin 1/16 inch thick is adequate, with 1/8 inch sheet for larger boards. It is also possible to use 1/8 inch or similar PVC or other transparent sheet, which allows connections to be seen on both sides. Plain hardboard, or thin plywood, is also satisfactory. Hardboard or wood should be given a coat of shellac or similar varnish, before use, to keep out damp.

Where size is not important, the board can be drilled with holes spaced 1 inch from each other throughout. Do *not* mark off a grid with pencil lines, as this may cause leakage between adjacent terminals. An easy method is to mark such a grid on paper, secure this over the board or panel with tape, and drill all the holes. Make these of an appropriate size for the terminals or bolts.

For small items, the board will need to be prepared to suit.

But where a board is going to be a general purpose support for several projects in turn, it can be much larger. It is also handy to support it on two strips of wood, about 1 inch high, so that there is clearance underneath for bolts and connections.

It will be found that neat and efficient projects can be assembled on such boards, and that it is easy to check connections or components, or to make changes for experimental or other purposes.

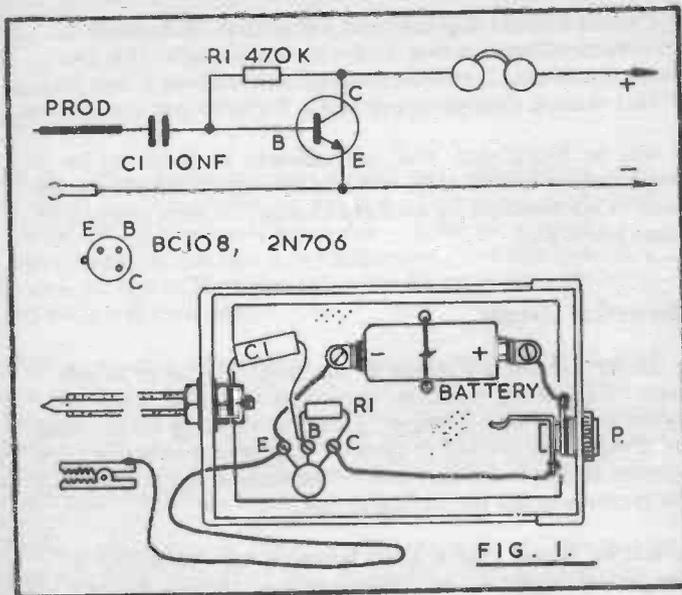
Theoretical Circuits

A theoretical circuits shows an electronic device in simple form. Capacitors, resistors, transistors and other items are shown by their own symbols. Lines representing connections are drawn from symbol to symbol. The layout of actual components in the device may not be the same as the positions of the symbols in the theoretical circuit.

It will be found that it soon becomes easy to follow a theoretical circuit. An understanding of such circuits develops when they are compared with an actual layout which shows components and the connections.

The Signal Tracer in Fig. 1 is an example of this. The main item here is the transistor, which has emitter (E), base (B) and collector (C) wires. For the transistors shown, these wires come from the base as in the diagram, which is of the underside of the transistor. (Emitter, base and collector wires may be in different positions in other transistors.) It will be seen that the emitter E is connected to negative at the battery, and to a clip on a length of flexible wire.

The headphones — or single earpiece — go between collector C and battery positive. A headphone jack, marked P, is used to take a plug for the phones. Generally, an on-off switch would be present in one battery connection, but this is not necessary here as the circuit can be interrupted (to switch "off") by unplugging the phones. Exactly the same results would be obtained if two separate sockets were used, to take two plugs from the headphones.



Resistor R1 is connected from collector C to base B, and it supplies a base current for the transistor, so that the latter can operate as an amplifier.

The signal to be amplified is obtained through capacitor C1. A capacitor has plates or foils separated from each other by an insulator. There is no direct current circuit through the capacitor, so placing the test prod on various points of a circuit being tested does not upset direct current working conditions.

It is clear, from Fig. 1, how the theoretical circuit is made up as a practical piece of equipment, with C1, R1, transistor, phones and battery connected together in the way required.

With later projects, the theoretical circuit and practical wiring diagram may be shown together in this way, or may appear as separate diagrams when they are larger. If the theoretical circuit and wiring diagram are compared, so that capacitors, resistors and other items on one are also found on the other,

it will soon be found that a theoretical circuit is readily followed and understood. It will be noted that the theoretical circuit could be built up in numerous ways, all equally satisfactory.

Signal Tracer

This locates and amplifies audio (sound) signals which may be present in a circuit. Construction is most easily carried out in a small plastic case (Fig. 1). An insulated board about $1\frac{1}{2} \times 2$ inch (or to suit the case) has three small bolts to secure emitter, base and collector leads of the transistor. Bolts also hold two small brackets, which press on the negative and positive ends of the 9v battery. String or elastic through holes in the board helps to secure the battery.

The prod is a long 6ba or 4ba bolt, or length of screwed rod. Lock one end of C1 lead with nuts, or loop it under the bolt head. Thread the clip flex through a hole in the case, and pass the prod through another hole, as shown. A washer and nut then fix the prod, with the board inside the case. The case lid can then be fitted, and the securing nut can be screwed on the phone outlet. Connections here can be tightly twisted round the outlet tags, and compressed with pliers. A piece of insulating sleeving is put on the test prod, and a clip with fixing screw is attached to the flexible lead.

Making Connections

For all the projects in this book, any thin insulated connecting wire can be used; or bare wire with insulated sleeving. It is handy to have two or more colours — such as red for positive, and black for negative circuits.

A loop is made at the bare end of the wire, and is put under the screw head, or under a washer. Where two or more leads go to the same bolt, it is convenient in some cases to have a washer or two extra, to go between loops. Each connection must be reasonably tight, and short circuits must not be allowed between wires or loops which are shown separated from each other.

Battery and external leads are generally of flexible wire. Positive and negative battery clips, with leads already attached, are available for transistor radio and similar batteries. Elsewhere it may be convenient to arrange contacts as in Fig. 1, or to twist wires to the battery tags.

The battery polarity (positive and negative) *must* always be correct, as shown.

When dealing with transistors, it will be found that some types have long wire leads, more than adequate for easy screwed connections. Others, such as the BC108 and similar types, have rather short wires, but can be held satisfactorily with 8ba bolts fairly near each other. (With other transistor types not used in this section, soldering may be essential for proper connections to be made.)

Circuit Tracing

To use the signal tracer, connect the clip to the earth return line of the receiver or amplifier. The prod is then touched one by one on points where the audio signal should be present, working systematically through the audio amplifier, or from the first point where the signal can be heard. Take in each capacitor, joint, or stage in turn. When signals cease to be heard, the fault lies between this point and the previous point, where signals were heard.

Do not test any mains operated or high voltage equipment, as this is a job for an engineer who will follow the necessary and essential precautions for safety.

Medium or high impedance phones are most suitable for this tracer. A 600 ohm DC headset will be ideal. The tracer can be utilised as an amplifier for a crystal diode radio receiver

Multivibrator

You will be able to use this as an audio oscillator for numerous test purposes, or for Morse Code practice, or as a signal device in place of a bell or buzzer.

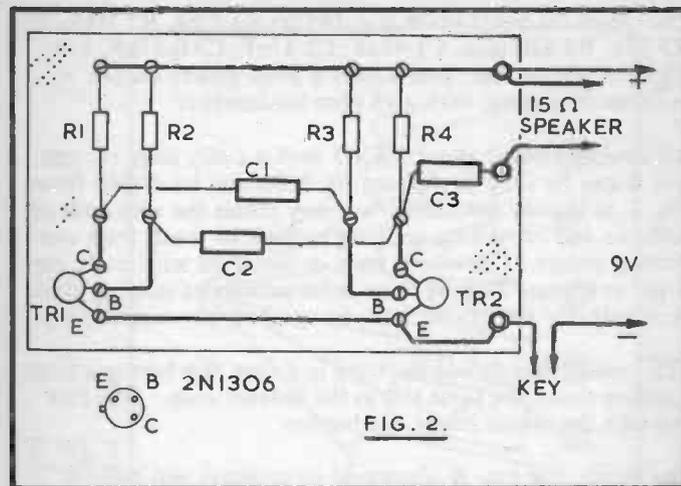


FIG. 2.

Fig. 2 shows the practical assembly of the device on an insulated board. A theoretical circuit is given in Fig. 14, and is not repeated here, so Figs. 2 and 14 should be looked at together.

R1 is the collector load resistor for transistor TR1. Collector current passes through this resistor, and an audio signal voltage is developed across it. Resistor R2 supplies base current for TR1.

TR2 has a similar collector resistor R4, and base resistor R3. Capacitor C1 couples the signal at the collector of TR1 to the base B of TR2, while C2 similarly couples TR2 collector to TR1 base. Amplification in the transistors and feedback by the capacitors in this way result in the circuit oscillating. That is, each transistor goes rapidly in and out of conduction in turn, so that a voltage at audio frequency is produced across the collector load resistors. C3 is a coupling capacitor, allowing the signal voltage at the collector of TR2 to be taken to a loudspeaker or headphones.

With a circuit of this type, the component values, transistors, and battery voltage will not be critical. However, resistor values, capacitor values, battery voltage, transistors, and the loudspeaker or other sound-reproducing device will all have an influence on the frequency of oscillation, or tone produced.

The values for Fig. 2 (as in Fig. 14) are R1 6.8k, R2 100k, R3 33k, R4 330 ohm, C1 47nF, C2 47nF, C3 0.47 μ F, and 2N1306 transistors. This allows a good power output at medium frequency, with a 15 ohm loudspeaker.

An insulated board about 2½ x 5 inch is easily large enough, and it can be fully perforated, or holes can be drilled from Fig. 2, as already described. In many places the wire ends of resistors and capacitors are long enough to reach their connecting points. Elsewhere, bare or insulated wire leads are fitted as shown. Provide three bolts with extra nuts, or three terminals, for the connections to speaker, key and battery.

The loudspeaker should be fitted in a case, this having a front aperture about the same size as the speaker cone. This case can take the circuit board and battery.

For Morse, the key is connected to emitters and battery negative as shown, with flexible leads of convenient length. If the multivibrator is to be used as a warning device then these leads can instead go to a door bell push, or to a relay or SCR, used to complete the circuit, as with some later projects. In this way the multivibrator, with its speaker, can replace a buzzer or bell.

If the frequency of the multivibrator is to be changed, this can readily be done by altering the values of capacitors C1 and C2 in particular. The two capacitors need not be of the same value. Larger values reduce the frequency (lower the tone) while smaller capacitors increase the frequency. C3 also has some effect, due to loading from the speaker.

Such a circuit can be used with a battery voltage as low as 1.5v, for headphones. Transistor types are very uncritical. But if PNP transistors are fitted, the battery polarity must be reversed. The transistors shown are NPN.

"C" Substitution Box

When experimenting with circuits or checking a suspected capacitor, a box bringing into circuit a range of capacitor values may be used. In many circuit positions an exactly correct value is not required for testing by substitute, so that a very large number of capacitors need not be provided.

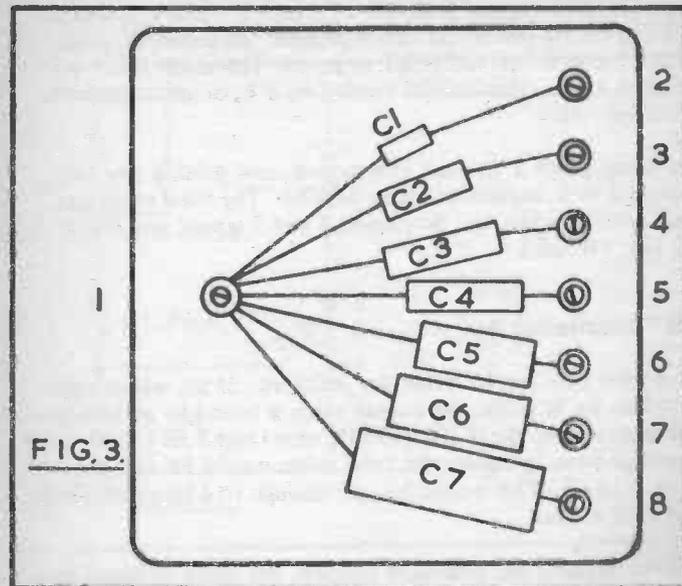


FIG. 3.

Such a box is easily made as in Fig. 3, using a plastic or other insulated case. Here, point 1 is common to all the capacitors, and any capacitor can be selected by connecting to points 2 to 8. Connections can be taken to 6ba bolts, using extra nuts. An alternative is to have eight sockets, with a pair of test leads equipped with plugs.

Suggested values are C1 100pF, C2 470pF, C2 1nF (1000pF or 0.001 μ F), C4 10nF (0.01 μ F), C5 0.1 μ F, C6 0.5 μ F, and C7 8 μ F. As the last capacitor will be polarised, mark its terminal to agree.

These values will be found sufficiently near for use in many coupling, decoupling, by-pass and similar circuit positions. The substitution box can be used in place of C1 or C2 in Fig. 2. But where a defective capacitor is found in a tuned circuit, it should be replaced by the exact value.

By ignoring terminal 1 and connecting leads to any pair of the terminals 2 to 8, two capacitors can be used in series. For those who like to work out the value of such combina-

tions, it can be found from $C1 \times C2$ over $C1$ plus $C2$, where $C1$ and $C2$ are the actual values present. As example, points 6 and 7 give $0.1\mu\text{F}$ and $0.5\mu\text{F}$ in series. The result is $0.1 \times 0.5 / 0.1 + 0.5$. That is 0.05 divided by 0.6, or approximately $0.083\mu\text{F}$.

By using point 1 for one connection, and joining any two points 2 to 8, capacitors are in parallel. The total value can be found by addition. So joining 6 and 7 would give $0.6\mu\text{F}$ ($0.1\mu\text{F} + 0.5\mu\text{F}$).

"R" Substitution Box

A similar box can be made for resistors. If so, where two resistors are in series, the overall value is found by adding the separate values. So if 10k (10,000 ohm) and 5.6k (5600 ohm) resistors were in series, the total value would be 10k plus 5.6k = 15.6k. This would be near enough to 15k to substitute for such a value.

Where resistors are placed in parallel, the value is found as for capacitors in series. That is, $R1 \times R2$ over $R1 + R2$. So for the 10k and 5.6k resistors, this would be approximately 3.6k.

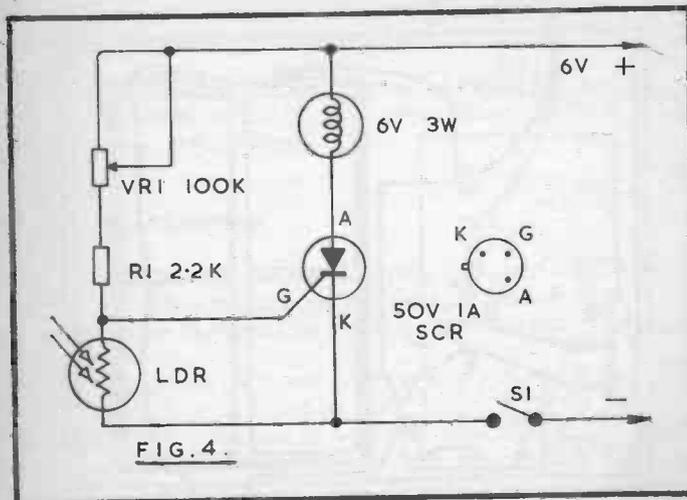
Naturally each resistor may be selected alone, as for the capacitors. If sufficient terminals are provided, a large number of resistors could be fitted. For most transistor circuits, values from about 150 ohm to 270k will fill most needs.

SCR Controlled Light

This device will switch on a light, when the level of general illumination falls below that for which triggering is set. It can thus be used for an automatic night light. Operation can be from a battery; or from a mains power supply, as described later.

Fig. 4 is the circuit, and introduces two new devices. One is the light-dependent resistor LDR. The resistance of this component depends on the strength of the light falling on it. The

resistance is low (some hundreds of ohms) with bright light, but rises to many thousands of ohms in dim light, or darkness.



The second device is the silicon controlled rectifier SCR. Normally, this does not allow current to pass from its cathode K to its anode A. However, a small current applied to its gate G will trigger it so that it conducts from cathode to anode. It remains in this state even when gate current is removed. It is restored to the non-conducting state by removing the voltage from its cathode, by opening switch S1.

In this device the SCR is controlled by the LDR. With illumination present the resistance from gate to cathode is low, so that when S1 is closed, current does not flow from the anode circuit through the 6 volt 3 watt lamp. As illumination falls, the resistance of the LDR rises. This continues until a sufficient gate potential is present to operate the SCR, which moves into its avalanche or conducting state, lighting the lamp. The potentiometer VR1 enables the resistance from positive to gate to be adjusted, to set the illumination level at which the circuit operates.

A 50v 1 amp SCR is more than adequate for this circuit, and it resembles a large transistor externally, and can be mounted by its wire ends.

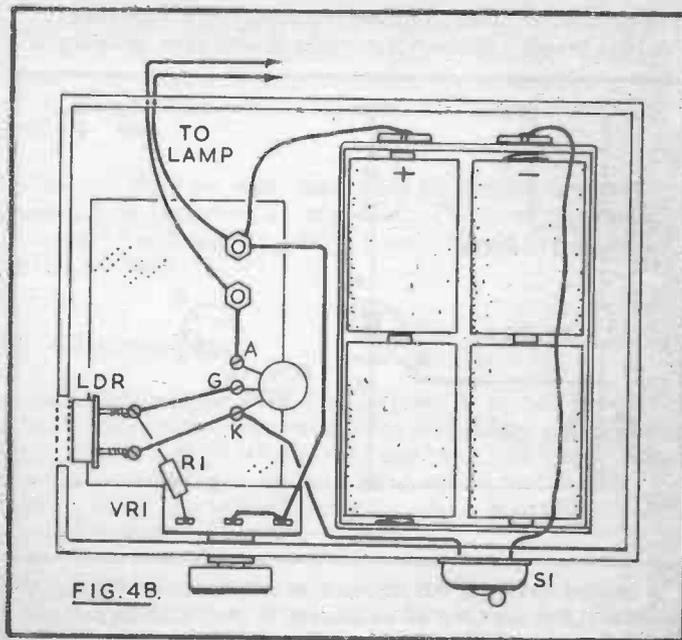


FIG. 4B shows constructional and wiring details. The SCR is mounted on a small insulated board. Clear bared wires are twisted tightly to the LDR, so that this also can be fitted by small bolts and nuts, as shown. The connections to VR1 are also tightly twisted and pressed together with pliers.

A battery holder for four 1.5v cells is shown, and connections to this can be by means of clips which have leads attached. The switch S1 is the small, low-voltage type having small screws, as used for toy lighting circuits and similar purposes.

A hole is cut in the box level with the LDR, which may be directed towards the window of the room, or positioned as found to give the results wanted. The bulb, in holder, can be positioned on top of the case. If light from it reaches the LDR this will not stop the circuit working, as the SCR can only be returned to the non-conducting state by opening the switch S1,

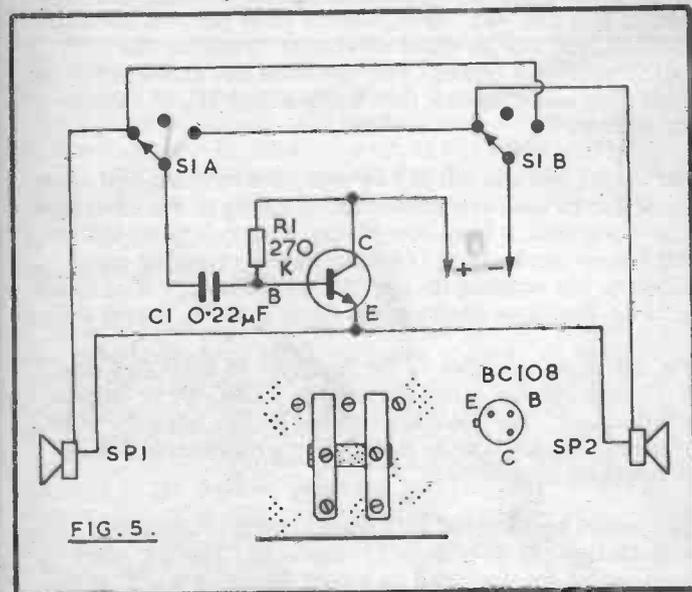
For an automatic night light or similar device, a case can be made from thin wood, with opening back or bottom. The device can also be used for various games, where momentarily interrupting the light falling on the LDR switches on the bulb.

If a detailed reference to the operation of the SCR is wanted, this can be found in "50 Projects Using Relays, SCRs & Triacs" (BP37, Babani Press).

One Transistor Intercom

A single high gain transistor will provide sufficient amplification for a 2-way loudspeaking intercom. This will allow communication between two rooms or other points.

Fig. 5 is the circuit. A 2-pole 3-way switch provides 2-way communication, with a central "Off" position. With the switch as in Fig. 5, section S1A takes loudspeaker SP1 to the base coupling capacitor C1. At the same time, section S1B connects the battery and transistor collector circuit to the



speaker SP2. SP1 then acts as a microphone, and sounds are reproduced in SP2.

With the switch in the opposite position, S1A selects SP2 as microphone, and amplified signals pass via S1B to SP1, so that speech can be in the other direction.

The switch, amplifier, battery and SP2 are assembled as the master control unit, and twin leads run to SP1. The person at SP1 should say "Over" so that the other person can operate the switch, and he in turn should say "Over" to signify that SP1 is again acting as microphone.

A simplified home-made change over switch is shown in Fig. 5. This is two strips of metal, pivoted so that they can be swung from side to side, and bearing on two of the three round-headed screws. A strip of insulating material is fitted so that both strips move together. In Fig. 5, this switch is in its "Off" position.

Ready made 2-pole 2-way switches can be obtained and used instead (see Fig. 49). Spring-loaded push switches are also available, and can be wired to provide "press to talk". A switch without a central "Off" position can also be used, a single pole on-off switch then being added in one battery connection.

The master unit can call SP1 by switching to speak, and allowing SP2 to be used as microphone. If calling in the other direction is required, a third connection, with bell push, battery and buzzer can be used. (An alternative, requiring more circuitry, but avoiding the need for a third wire, will be found in "Two Transistor Electronic Projects", (BP30, Babani Press.)

Fig. 5B shows assembly of the intercom in a wooden case. A 3½ inch speaker is suitable, so the whole can be quite a compact unit. The home-constructed switch, using the bolts below the speaker, can be replaced by a ready-made switch, as described, if preferred.

Best results are obtained with speaker units of quite high impedance — say 45 ohm to 75 ohm or so. The few other components are assembled on a small insulated board, as for earlier circuits.

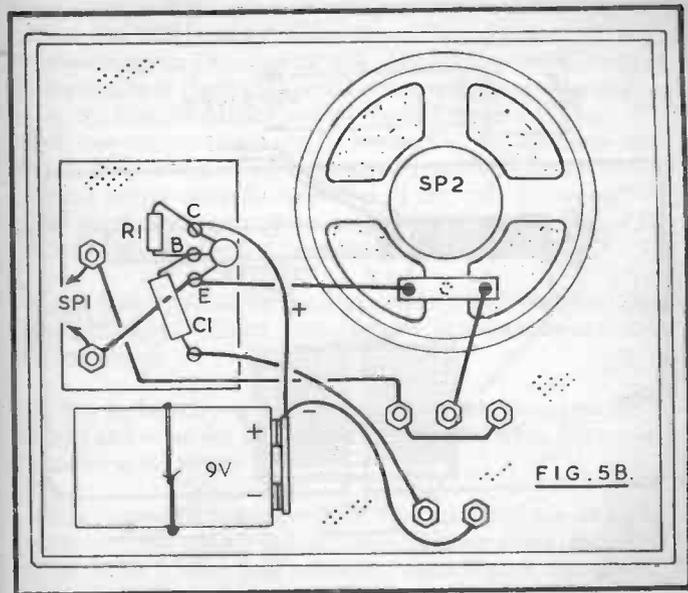
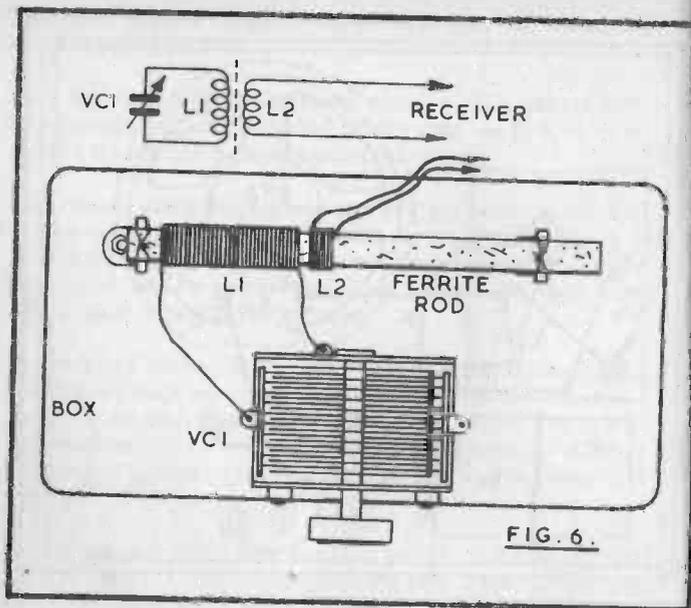


FIG. 5B.

The speaker at the remote point also requires a small case. Dimensions are not important, and it is possible to utilise plastic boxes of suitable type for each unit. Connections between units are by twin bell wire, or any similar twin conductor. With a transistor of other than the type shown, the value of R1 can be chosen to give maximum amplification.

Tuned Ferrite Aerial

This simple device will allow "portable" reception with the old type of receiver which normally requires an external aerial, and it can also give improved reception in terms of freedom from interference on the 160 metre amateur band and adjacent frequencies. As shown in Fig. 6, it consists of a tuned circuit with ferrite rod, and a coupling winding to connect to the receiver aerial and earth sockets. It will be found very useful with a communications type receiver, where a long extended outdoor or similar aerial results in a high level of noise and interference.



The device is constructed in a plastic lunch box about 6 x 4 x 4 inch or other *insulated* case. Some boxes of this kind, though strong, are of brittle material. These must be drilled without too much pressure, or they may crack. Drill points should also be sharp.

The rod is 6 inch long and 3/8 inch in diameter, and it is supported by two strips of insulating material, which are fixed with brackets. Each strip has a V-shaped notch, so that the rod can be held with thin string. L1 is the tuned winding, and it had sixty turns of 24 swg enamelled wire, side by side. Connections can be made to the frame (moving plates) and fixed plates of the capacitor VC1 by means of small bolts, or may be lightly twisted.

L2 is the coupling winding. Many communications type receivers have a low impedance input circuit, and twelve turns will be adequate for L2. The same wire can be used as for L1. With other receivers it may be worth while to experiment with the number of turns on L2, for best reception.

An air-spaced single gang capacitor of about 315pF is most suitable for VC1, and will allow the usual medium wave band of frequencies to be tuned as well. However, a smaller capacitor is suitable if the ferrite aerial is for 160m reception only, or for the high frequency end of the medium wave band. The actual frequencies tuned can be lowered by having more turns for L1, or by using a larger capacitance for VC1, or by having L1 more nearly towards the centre of the rod. Reducing VC1, or the number of turns on L1, or moving L1 to the end of the rod, will raise the highest frequency tuned.

The rod is directional, so the unit can be positioned for best signal pick up of wanted transmissions, or minimum reception of interference.

VC1 has to be adjusted in conjunction with tuning of the receiver and is set for best reception. Tuning with this control should be quite sharp.

A ready made MW transistor type receiver aerial can be useful for the medium wave band, and may in some cases reach 160 metres, if VC1 has a low minimum capacitance, and the winding is quite near the end of the rod. But should tuning not reach a high enough frequency, some turns will have to be removed.

Diode Radio

A lot of interest can be obtained from a diode radio receiver. It requires few components, no battery or other supply, and can give good headphone reception of a few of the more powerful transmitters. It can also be used as a tuner, as shown later, and will provide excellent audio quality for local station reception.

The circuit in Fig. 7 is intended for medium wave reception. That is, from about 200 metres to 500 metres, or 1500 kilohertz to 600 kilohertz.

The coil L1 is tuned by the variable capacitor VC1. At resonance with the wanted transmission, a signal voltage is developed across the coil. Detection or demodulation by the diode D1 allows the audio component of the signal to be

recovered, and taken to the phones or to an amplifier. Such "crystal sets" were used in very many homes, in the early days of radio.

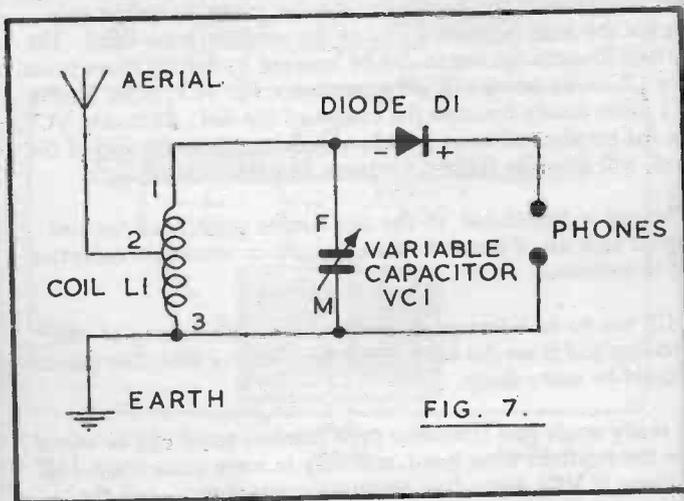


FIG. 7.

Fig. 7B shows the practical layout. It is convenient to use an insulated board larger than necessary, so that a transistor amplifier can be added later. A board about 5 x 8 inch is suggested, and it can be supported on 1 inch high runners (strips of wood) so that there is clearance for screws or terminals.

Coil L1 is wound with 26swg or similar wire, and has seventy turns, side by side. Secure the wire by passing it through two small holes, wind on about thirty five turns, and form a loop. Continue to wind in the same direction for a further thirty five turns, cut off the wire, and secure the end through two holes. The tube used can be 1½ inch to 2 inch in diameter, and can be paxolin, or can be made by winding thin card round a suitable object, smearing a little adhesive on to form a tube.

Point 1, the beginning of the coil, is taken to the fixed plates tag F of the variable capacitor, which is also connected to diode D1. The tapping 2 goes to the aerial terminal. End 3 is

taken to the moving plates connection or metal frame of the capacitor. Ends 1 and 2, and loop 3, are left long enough to reach these points, and the insulation is carefully scraped off the wire where connections are to be made. The capacitor VC1 can best be about 500pF, but this exact value is not essential.

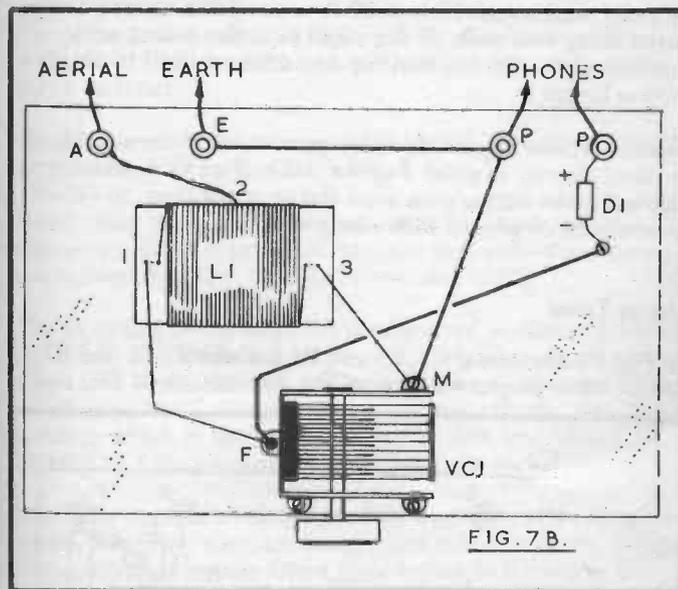


FIG. 7B.

Four terminals, for Aerial, Earth, and Phones, will complete the receiver. Best results will be had by connecting a good headset, of about 500 ohm to 2,000 ohm. Very low impedance earpieces, such as are employed with some transistor receivers, are not suitable here.

With a simple receiver of this kind it is necessary to employ a reasonably effective aerial and earth. Only in some circumstances will volume be great enough with no earth, or with a short aerial. The earth connection can be taken to a metal spike in the ground, or to a metal object buried in soil, or to any other available earth other than a mains circuit earth. (No connection must be made to any mains plug or other mains circuit.) A cold water pipe may provide a good earth. Gas pipes should not be used.

For the aerial, a length of aerial wire some 30 ft to 75 ft or so in all may form the aerial itself and lead-in. If this can be suspended quite high, and clear of buildings or earthed objects, signal strength will be improved. However, satisfactory reception may be obtained from an indoor aerial, or shorter aerial, if a good earth is present. A simple indoor aerial can be made from about 15 ft to 20 ft or so of thin insulated wire, fitted along two walls of the room near the ceiling with adhesive tape. (Do not fold the wire back on itself to obtain a greater length.)

Volume will be improved, with a poor aerial, if the aerial lead is taken directly to point 1 of the coil or F at VC1. However, this will make tuning even more flat or unselective, so cannot generally be employed with a long aerial.

Use as Tuner

In Fig. 8 components C1, C2 and R1 are added. C1 and R1 are to allow proper working of the detector diode D1, and

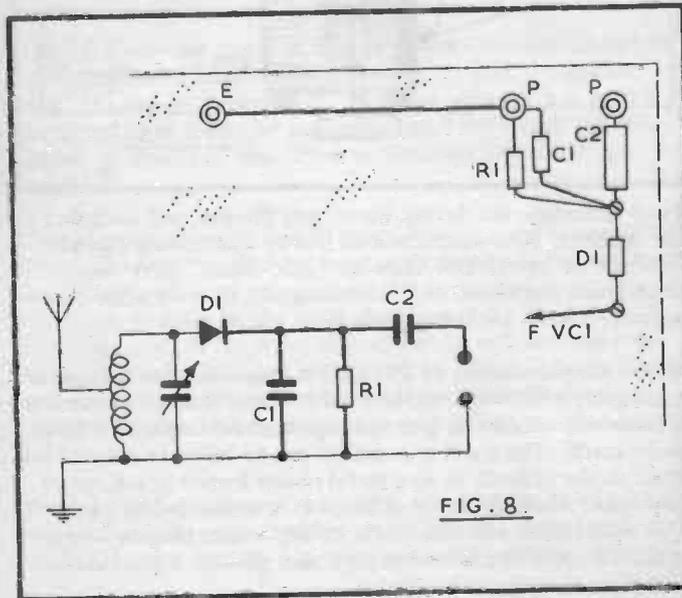


FIG. 8.

may be considered as replacing the headphones. C2 is a coupling capacitor passing audio signals to the following amplifier.

As with the previous circuit, any general purpose detection type diode is satisfactory for D1, such as the OA91 and many similar devices. The value of C1 is not critical, and this component can be about 470pF or 1nF. R1 can be 100k to 220k or so. C2 should be of quite large value, and can be 0.1 μ F to 0.5 μ F.

D1 can be moved from the position in Fig. 7B, and the few extra components added, as in Fig. 8.

When using the tuner to feed an amplifier, note that one phone terminal P is the earth line, and that audio signals are taken from the other terminal, connected to C2.

The earth line of the amplifier is connected to the earth line of the tuner. For a sensitive or powerful amplifier, a screened audio lead is recommended. This has an inner screened lead, which goes to C2, and a conductor former by the outer brading, which is the ground or earth. The lead should be fitted with a plug to suit the amplifier input socket.

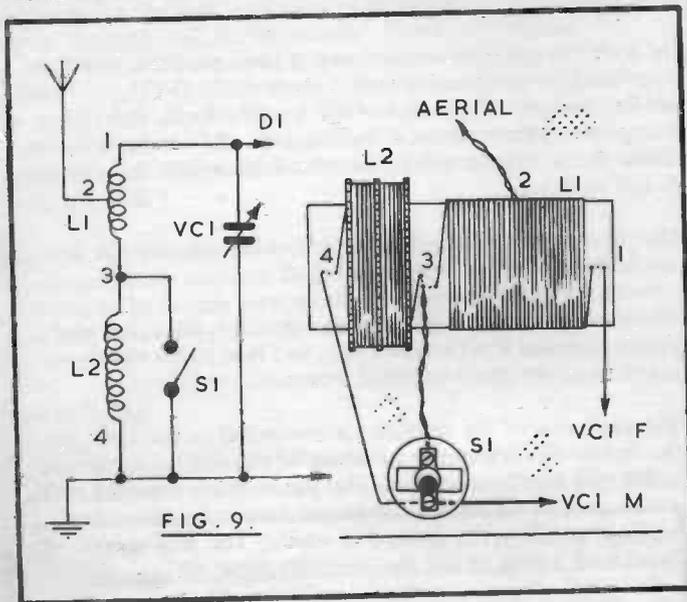
Where the tuner is to be followed by a small headphone or similar amplifier, a screened audio lead is not required. So then connections are merely taken from terminals P-P in Fig. 8, remembering to join amplifier earth and tuner earth circuits as explained.

Medium and Long Wave

The addition of long wave coverage is worthwhile in some areas, and the coil can be modified as in Fig. 9 so that both MW and LW can be tuned.

A tube about 3 inch long and approximately 1½ inch in diameter will be necessary. The section L1 is wound as before. L2 consists of about two hundred turns of 34swg or 36swg wire, in two compact piles of one hundred turns each. All turns throughout are in the same direction. The junction of L1 and L2 goes to the waveband switch S1. The second

switch terminal goes to 4 and earth line. MW tuning is obtained with S1 closed, and LW tuning with S1 open.



For accurate coverage of the usual MW and LW bands, and using a 1 1/4 inch diameter tube, L1 can be eighty-four turns of 32swg enamelled wire, with tapping 2 sixty turns from point 1. Leave a space of 5/8 inch and glue on a card disc cut to fit the tube. Also glue on two further discs, leaving spaces of 1/4 inch between them. L2 is wound with 32swg double cotton covered wire, with one hundred and twenty turns in each slot (making 240 in all for L2). The coil can be fixed with two screws or small bolts, with spacers or extra nuts to hold it a little clear of the board. The windings should not be varnished, covered with adhesive, or wax.

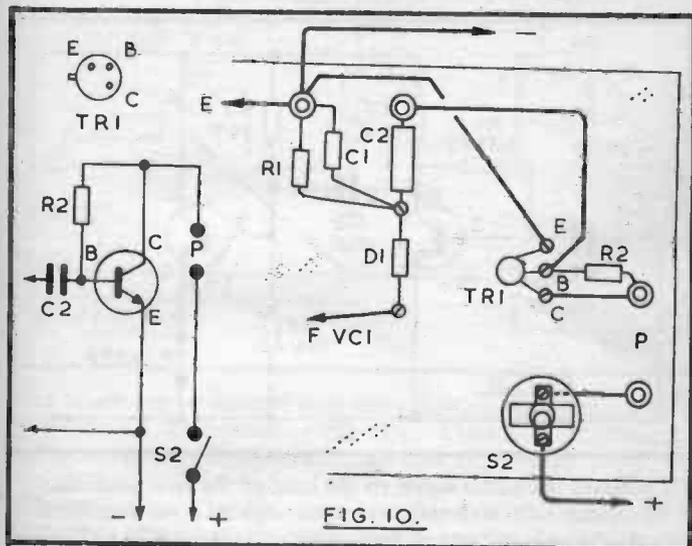
With circuits of this kind there is no ganged tuning, or need for exact tuning of a particular frequency band. This means that coil winding details (wire gauge and covering, and diameter, or number of turns) can be varied to suit materials to hand. Ready-made coils can also be tried. Some commercially made coils with cores can give a slightly better

performance than the air-cored home made type of coil. Coils can also be wound in a similar way to that in Fig. 6.

One Transistor Amplifier

Headphone volume obtained from the crystal diode receiver can be considerably boosted by adding a single transistor audio amplifier. Space for this can be found on the circuit board.

In Fig. 10, resistor R2 and the transistor have been added, with a switch S2 for on-off switching of the battery. R1, C1, D1 and C2 are already present, as shown in Fig. 8.



TR1, R2 and S2 are connected as shown. For TR1, a BC108, 2N706, or similar general purpose NPN transistor will be satisfactory. R2 can generally be 1 megohm with satisfactory results, but it can be worth while trying values from about 100k to 2.2 megohm here, as performance depends on the transistor, phones, and battery voltage.

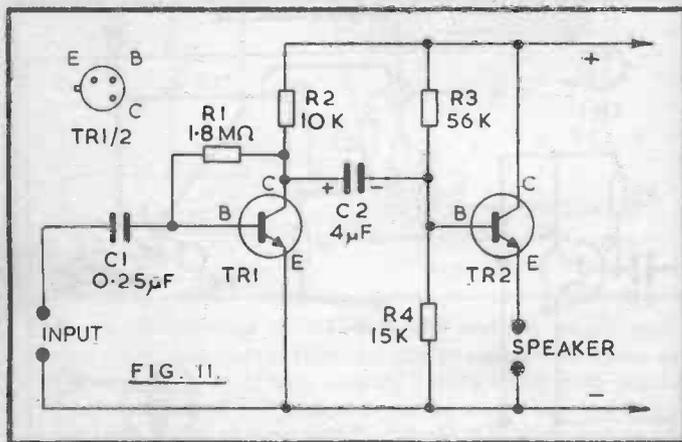
Medium and high impedance phones, such as a 600 ohm DC headset, will be most suitable. The battery can be 4.5v to 9v.

If the phones are first connected to terminals P-P in Fig. 8, then taken to terminals P in Fig. 10, a very considerable increase in volume should be obtained.

If a PNP transistor is to be tried in this circuit, the polarity of the battery *must* be reversed.

Two Transistor Amplifier

Fig. 11 is the circuit for an easily made 2-transistor amplifier which can provide reasonable loudspeaker volume. The audio signal is taken to the input terminals, battery negative being the grounded side of this circuit.

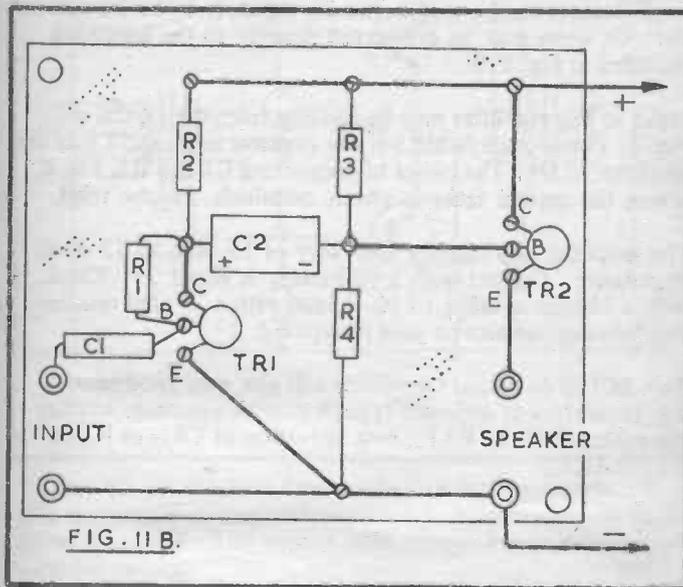


C1 couples the audio signal to the base of the first amplifier TR1, which receives base current through R1. An amplified signal is developed across the collector resistor R2, and is coupled to the base of the following amplifier TR2 by means of C2.

The two resistors R3 and R4 set the base operating conditions for TR2, and the output is taken from TR2 emitter.

Fig. 11B shows assembly of the components on a small insulated board. If preferred, connections between components can be on the underside of the board, in the way shown for

later circuits. Fit red and black flexible leads for battery connections. The amplifier, with its battery, can be fixed in an insulated box or metal case. Sockets can then be used for input and output circuits, and an on-off switch can be placed in one battery lead.



The board can be secured with bolts through its fixing holes, and through the bottom of the case. Extra nuts or other spacers must be placed between the case and board.

Whenever a metal box is used, remember that all connections and other circuits except the earth line must be insulated from the metal. The metal case itself is normally connected to the earth line, and a lead can be put under one of the fixing screws for this purpose. In Fig. 11, both input and speaker are returned to the earth line. So 3.5mm jack sockets of the type in which the outer or sleeve contact is common to the fixing bush could be used, as these points will be connected to battery negative and the earth line and metal box. But with some circuits it is necessary to use an insulated jack socket, or to insulate this from the metal. An example of this would

arise if the speaker were placed in the collector circuit of TR2, as the outer or sleeve circuit would then need to go to battery positive.

Instead of the type of socket which takes a jack plug, ordinary single sockets can be used — two for input, and two for output. Or wires may be connected directly to the terminals provided in Fig. 11B.

Input to this amplifier may be directly from the crystal set, Fig. 7. Connect earth and battery negative lines; and C1 of the amplifier to D1. The effect of connecting C1 and R1, Fig. 8, across the crystal receiver phone terminals, can be tried.

The amplifier can operate a speaker of 15 ohm to 75 ohm impedance. Current with a 9v battery is about 25–30mA with a 15 ohm speaker, or 10–15mA with a 75 ohm speaker. Headphones can also be used if required.

Two BC108 or similar transistors will give very good results. For transistors of different type, it may be necessary to alter the values of R1 or R2 for best operation of TR1, or R3 or R4 for TR2.

Push-Pull Output Stage

For good volume, with low battery current, some form of push-pull output stage is generally used. This has two transistors, and each amplifies one half of the audio signal. Base bias conditions of the two transistors are so arranged that only a low current flows during silent intervals. Overall battery drain is thus much lower than if a single transistor were used to obtain a similar level of volume.

Fig. 12 is a typical push-pull output stage. T1 is the input or driver transformer, and an audio signal is taken to its primary P. The secondary S is centre tapped. So for one half of the audio cycle one transistor base is driven positive and the other transistor base is driven negative, this being reversed for the remaining half cycle. Thus each transistor conducts alternately, and the centre-tapped output transformer T2 combines the collector currents, to operate the speaker connected to the secondary S.

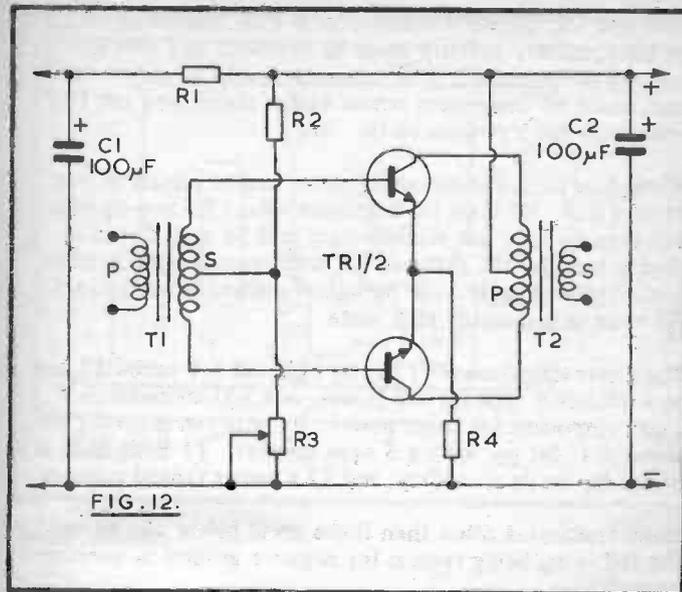


FIG. 12.

R2 and R3 set the base bias conditions for the transistors. Bias is arranged so that collector current is low, when no audio signal is present. The emitter bias resistor R4 limits peak collector current.

If R3 is a pre-set resistor, as in Fig. 12, operating conditions can be arranged to suit the transistors fitted. For best results TR1 and TR2 should be a matched pair. This means that they will have similar gain and current characteristics. However, two transistors of the same type number will generally be satisfactory.

It is assumed that the same battery will supply earlier stages of the amplifier, and current for this purpose is taken from C1 and R1. R1 and C1 prevent audio signals present in the positive line passing back to earlier amplifier stages. The by-pass capacitor C2 also helps in this respect. With simple circuits not giving much overall amplification, or small power outputs, R1, C1 and C2 might all be omitted.

TR1 and TR2 are NPN transistors. If PNP transistors are to be tried, battery polarity must be reversed, and also the polarity of C1 and C2. PNP transistors, with a positive earth line, could be convenient where earlier stages also use PNP transistors and a positive earth.

When first using the circuit, a meter can be placed in one battery lead. R3 is set for minimum value. Battery current will then be low, but reproduction will be very distorted. Slowly increase the value at R3 until reproduction is at its best. This will cause a rise in battery current, so do not set R3 to an unnecessarily high value.

The driver transformer T1 can be of about 5:1 ratio. T2 can be a miniature type for low power, or a 500 milliwatt or 1 watt component for larger power. Its ratio can generally be about 8:1, for use with a 3 ohm speaker. T1 must have a centre tap on its secondary, and T2 a centre tapped primary.

Many transistors other than those given below can be used, the following being typical for negative ground or positive ground.

Negative earth (NPN transistors). 2 x BC108. R1 1.2k. R3 100 ohm fixed or 250 ohm pre-set. R4 4.7 ohm.

Positive earth (PNP transistors). 2 x AC128 or 2 x AC142. R2 4.7k. R3 82 ohm or 250 ohm pre-set. R4 4.7 ohm.

R1 will generally be 1k to 2.2k, depending on the earlier amplifier. The primary of T1 can be connected to terminals P in Fig. 10; or alternatively to any audio source where a reasonably strong signal is present.

Where signals are too strong, an audio gain control needs to be fitted. In Fig. 8 this can be done by omitting R1, and disconnecting C2 from D1. Connect the outer tags of a 100k volume control or log pot from D1 to earth line. Take C2 to the centre tag or slider of the potentiometer. Any required audio level can then be taken off by adjusting the control knob.

Fig. 12B shows the board layout.

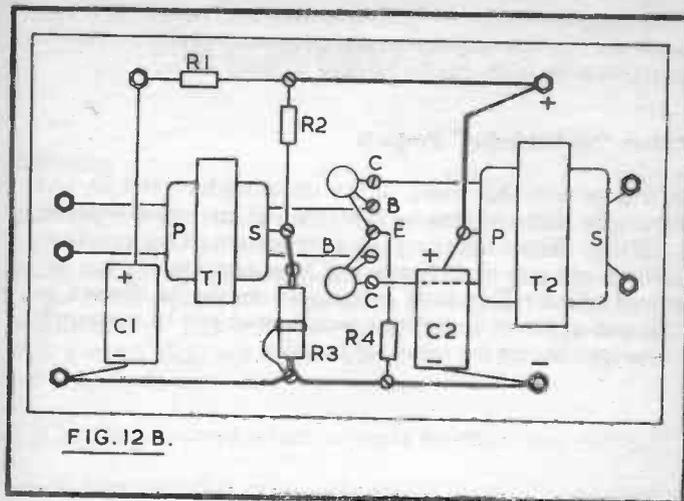


FIG. 12 B.

Boost Speaker

For best reproduction, a speaker needs to be enclosed in a cabinet or fitted to a baffle board. A cabinet can be made from wood, and can be about 6 x 10 inch and 4 inch deep, or as required for the speaker unit. Cut an aperture in the cabinet front to match the cone diameter, and glue thin fabric behind this opening. The speaker can be fixed with nuts and bolts, or short woodscrews driven in from behind.

Connect flexible leads, with separate plugs or a jack plug, to suit the equipment.

Small pocket receivers, which have a miniature speaker, can give much improved volume and reproduction when used with a larger speaker. If a headphone socket, operated from the receiver output stage, is present, it is only necessary to plug the speaker into this. A fairly large speaker, of sensitive type, will give best results. A unit 5 inch to 6 inch in diameter, or about 4 x 7 inch, will be convenient. The speaker has to be of approximately the correct impedance, which should be found in the receiver operating instructions. Where the speaker impedance is wrong, a matching transformer has to be employed between receiver and speaker.

Extension speakers are less frequently used today, but if two leads are run into another room programmes from a non-portable type radio can be listened to there also.

Other "No Soldering" Projects

It will be seen that many of the circuits which follow, and especially those of simpler type, can be assembled without soldering. Where necessary, an examination of the practical layouts will give an indication of how components can be placed. Generally a little extra space should be allowed so that nut and bolt connecting points need not be extremely close together on the insulated board.

SECTION 2 MISCELLANEOUS DEVICES

Soldering

Soldering for electronic wiring will be found to be a very easy and straightforward matter. An electrically heated iron is usual, and as large areas of metal do not have to be raised to the melting point of the solder, a 20 watt to 25 watt iron is satisfactory. This will be perfectly safe if correctly fitted with a mains plug, and if placed on a metal plate or tray when not actually in use.

It is best to use cored solder, as made for electronic wiring.

Leads, tags and other items to be joined should be clean and bright. They have to be raised in temperature to the melting point of the solder at the actual points where a joint is to be made, and the active core of the solder, or flux, must be present here when the joint is being made.

The iron should be tinned — that is, have melted solder on its tip — and have reached its correct temperature. Leads can be hooked or looped into position. The joint is then heated with the iron, and the solder is simultaneously applied to the joint, so that it melts and flows over the surfaces to be soldered. This usually takes place in a second or two. The solder and iron should be removed at once, as excessive heating may damage some components, and especially transistors or other semiconductors. The joint cools in a few seconds, and should be rigid, and solder having flown onto the items to be joined.

A probable cause of poor joints is insufficient heating of items to be soldered, or carrying solder to the joint on the iron, so that the activity of the flux is wasted.

Electronic items such as tags and the wire ends of components are generally designed for easy soldering. They will be copper, tinned copper, and similar metals and alloys which solder readily. For this reason, difficulties are unusual.

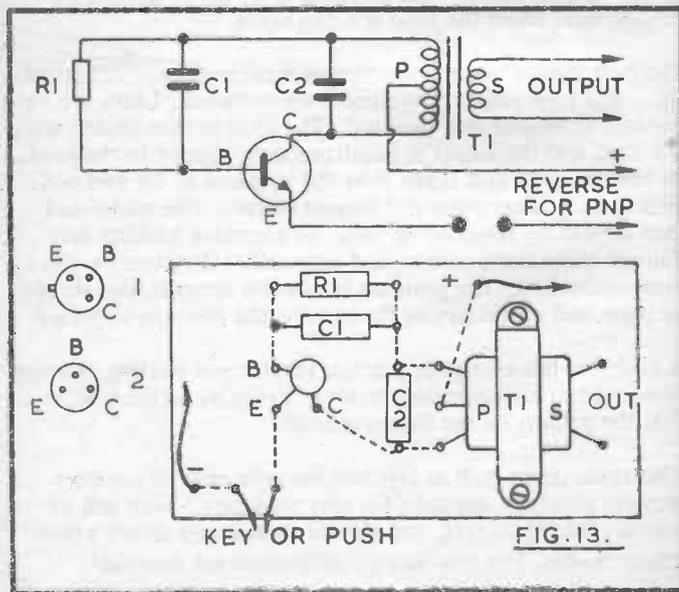
Some metals do not solder readily, or need special methods. Aluminium is one of these, and it is not used where popular cored solders intended for copper or general wiring are employed.

Make sure that heat from the iron does not damage furniture or other items, and keep the flexible cord away from the heated tip. Always switch the iron off at once when the work in progress is to be left.

One Transistor Audio Oscillator

This can be used instead of a bell or buzzer warning, or for code practice and similar purposes. It needs very few components, Fig. 13, and can be made to work satisfactorily with a wide range of transistors.

In Fig. 13, an NPN transistor is shown in the theoretical circuit, so battery polarity is as indicated, with negative to emitter. If a PNP transistor is fitted, battery polarity must be reversed.



(1) shows leads from a typical NPN transistor, such as the BC108, 2N706, and similar types. (2) is the base of the PNP AC128 transistor.

T1 can be a small speaker matching transformer, as used for push-pull stages. A centre tapped primary is necessary. The secondary S can be taken to a loudspeaker or headphones.

The values of R1, C1 and C2 can be varied considerably. C1 can be 0.1 μ F or so. R1 determines to some extent the power obtained, and can be about 22k, increased to 47k or 100k for lower power. The value of C2 has considerable influence on the note, or frequency of oscillation. Increasing the value of C2 lowers the pitch. C2 can be about 47nF to 4.7nF or thereabouts. A 9v battery can be used. Changes to the supply voltage will influence the note produced.

Fig. 13 also shows a layout for components, using either a fully perforated board, or a panel drilled to suit. Transformer T1 is fixed by screws. Small transformers of this type are usually wire ended, or have pins which pass down through holes in the board.

The wire ends of the resistors and capacitors are passed down through suitable holes, and bent over. The board is then turned so that the underside wiring can be carried out. In most places the wire ends of the components will be long enough to reach connecting points. Elsewhere, 24swg tinned copper wire, or similar connecting wire, will be used. Make the soldered joints as described, and snip off unwanted ends of wire. It is as well to leave the transistor to last, as this avoids heating it unnecessarily when soldering other items. Lengths of flex, anchored at holes in the board, are used for battery, key (or push) and speaker connections.

Multivibrator

Fig. 14 is the circuit of the multivibrator assembled in Fig. 2. Reference to Fig. 14B will show how this can also be prepared on a tag board.

The tag board has two rows of tags fitted to an insulated

board, and it is five tags long in Fig. 14B. Boards of this type can be obtained in many sizes. It is also easy to cut a section from a long tag board, to suit the needs of the item to be assembled. Such boards are very handy indeed for electronic assemblies, as the tags support resistors, capacitors and other items, and a neat layout is readily achieved.

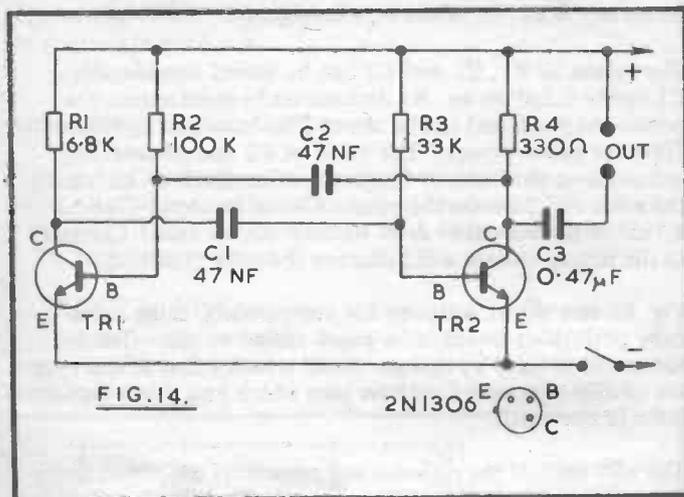


FIG. 14.

Tag strips are also useful for projects, and may have any number of tags required. Long tag strips can be cut down as necessary. Short tag strips have one tag for mounting the strip, longer strips having two tags formed as brackets for this purpose.

Place the components approximately as in Fig. 14B, and solder the wires to the tags. If any component values may be changed, do not twist the leads tightly round the tags before soldering, or removal will be difficult.

Wires which cross can be kept clear of each other, and then no insulated sleeving will be necessary. The transistors can be soldered on last, and can readily be changed without disturbing other parts.

The same layout can be used for the next project, though the component values are different.

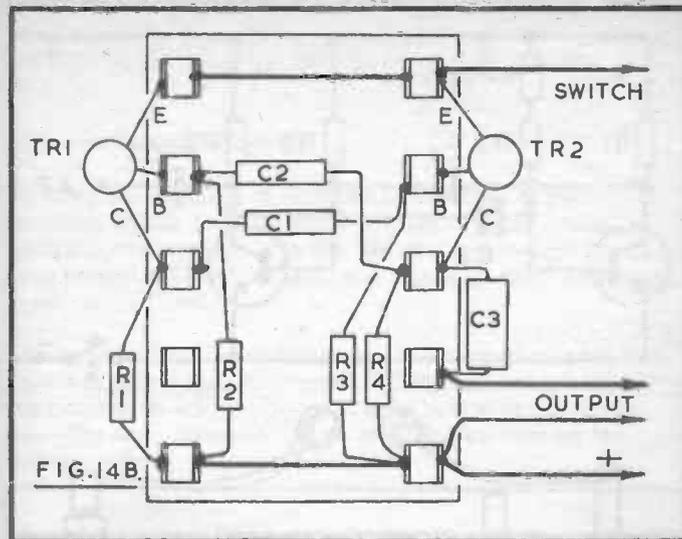


FIG. 14B.

Glissade

This device will produce swooping, rising and falling tones, for "effects" purposes, or can with additional skill be used to obtain musical notes through several octaves. The circuit is shown in Fig. 15, and reference can be made to Fig. 14B for a practical layout on a tag board.

In Fig. 15, suitable component values are:

R1	10k	C1	22nF
R2	12k	C2	22nF
R3	100k	C3	22nF
R4	10k	VR1	100k linear pot.

Transistors: 2 x BC108 or similar types.

The circuit is a wide frequency audio oscillator, in which the pitch can be controlled by VR1, and "on" switching is obtained by S. The oscillator is placed in a box, so that switch S and VR1 can be mounted on the top. The switch is a strip of springy metal, fitted with a spacer and bolt, so that it is just clear of a further bolt. A small downwards movement of the arm or knob completes the circuit.

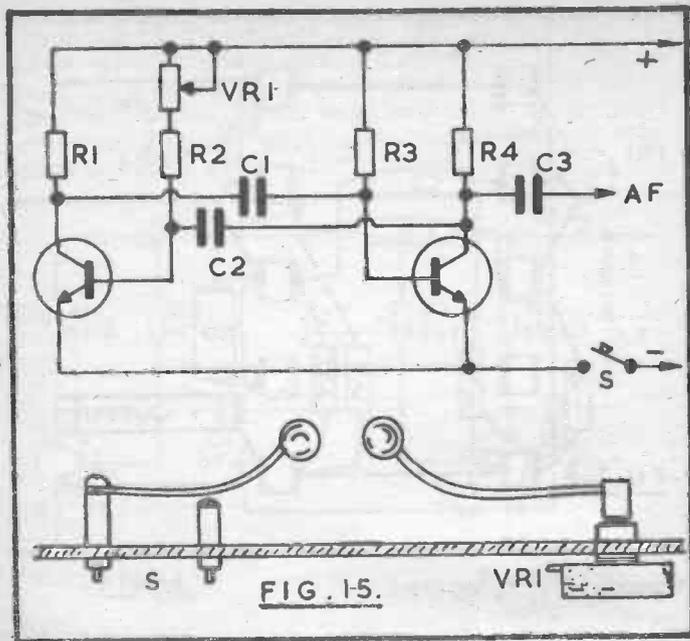


FIG. 15.

VR1 has a $\frac{1}{4}$ inch shaft coupler, into which is screwed a length of 4ba threaded rod. A knob is also fitted to the end of this rod. It can be swung backwards or forwards, to change the resistance of VR1. Connect VR1 so that movement of the knob towards the right raises the pitch.

Output from C3 can go to high resistance headphones, for amusement, but should be taken to an audio amplifier. Gain of the amplifier will have to be turned back somewhat, as the output from the glissade is at a quite high level.

Swooping tones are produced by holding down the switch-S and swinging the control knob attached to VR1 from side to side. For notes which do not swoop to frequency, switch S must be released while VR1 is rotated. A slight quivering motion of the hand controlling VR1 will produce a vibrate effect. It is useful to have an ordinary switch in parallel with the knob control S, and to have the amplifier audio gain control near the left hand, so that fading effects can be produced as well.

About 4.5v to 9v can be used, this influencing volume. Should other transistor types give an unsuitable range of frequencies, the note can be raised by reducing C1 or C2 (or both).

Morse Oscillator for Phones

By using the windings of magnetic headphones as part of the feedback circuit from collector to base, a single transistor oscillator can be made as in Fig. 16. Medium to high impedance phones are most suitable, and numerous other transistor types can be fitted.

The transistor and few other items are mounted on a tag strip. This is in turn bolted to a small insulated box, which can carry the battery. A 4.5v supply was found best with this oscillator. The note obtained can be modified by altering the voltage, resistor, or capacitor values.

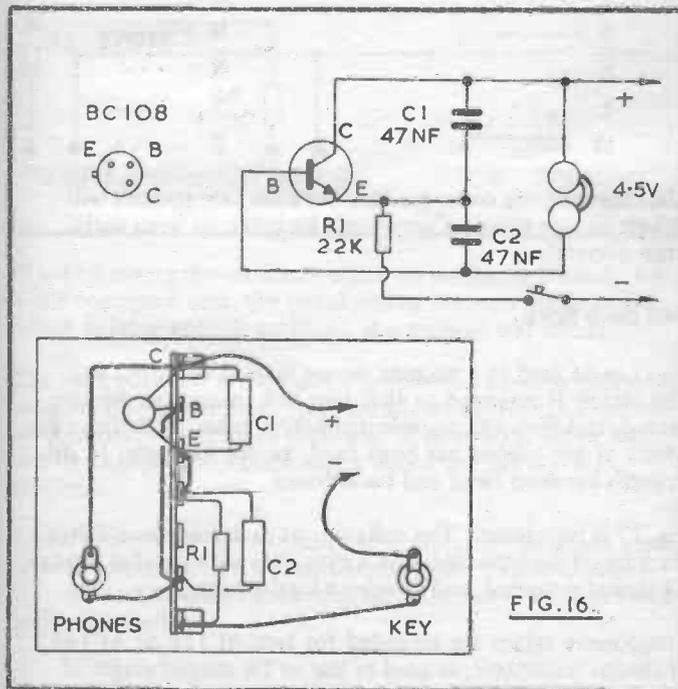


FIG. 16.

For serious code practice a good Morse key is required. It is adjusted so that only a small movement of the wrist is needed to operate it. Each letter consists of short and long sounds, shown as (•) and (—). The (—) has three times the length of the (•)

A • —	N — •
B — •••	O — — —
C — • — •	P • — — •
D — •••	Q — — — •
E •	R • — •
F •• — •	S •••
G — — •	T —
H ••••	U •• —
I ••	V ••• —
J • — — —	W • — —
K — • —	X — •••
L ••••	Y • — • —
M — — —	Z — — ••

After learning the code, practice between two persons will be best to gain speed. Care should be taken to form each letter correctly.

Two Door Siren

This can be used as a warning device instead of a door bell. The circuit is arranged so that two bell pushes can be connected, and they will provide distinctive notes. It is thus clear which of the pushes has been used, as, for example, to distinguish between front and back doors.

Fig. 17 is the circuit. The collector of each transistor drives the base of the other through a capacitor with parallel resistor. T1 is centre tapped, and couples a loudspeaker.

Component values are intended for two AC128 or AC142, or similar transistors, as used in $\frac{1}{2}$ w to 1w output stages of

receivers and small amplifiers. Other transistors will of course operate in this circuit. The pitch obtained can be modified by changing C3. The circuit shown is for PNP transistors, and battery polarity has to be reversed for NPN transistors.

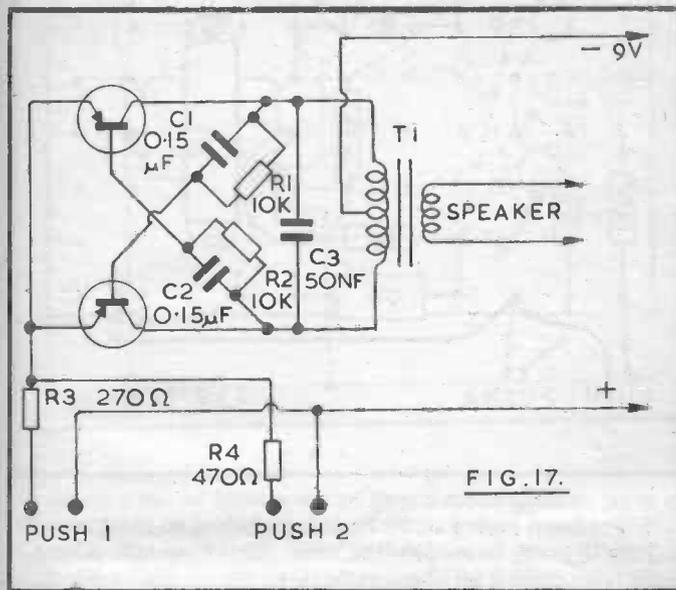


FIG. 17.

Fig. 17B shows the oscillator wired on perforated board. For a self contained unit, the board can be screwed inside a case which is large enough to house the speaker and battery.

The note obtained when Push 1 is operated depends on the value of R3. In the same way, R4 allows a different note to be obtained when Push 2 is closed. If necessary, R3 or R4 can be changed, to obtain notes which are readily distinguished.

Transformer T1 is best of fairly high ratio, or can be the usual type of transistor output transformer, with a ratio of about 8:1. T1 and loading by the speaker influence the volume and notes obtained.

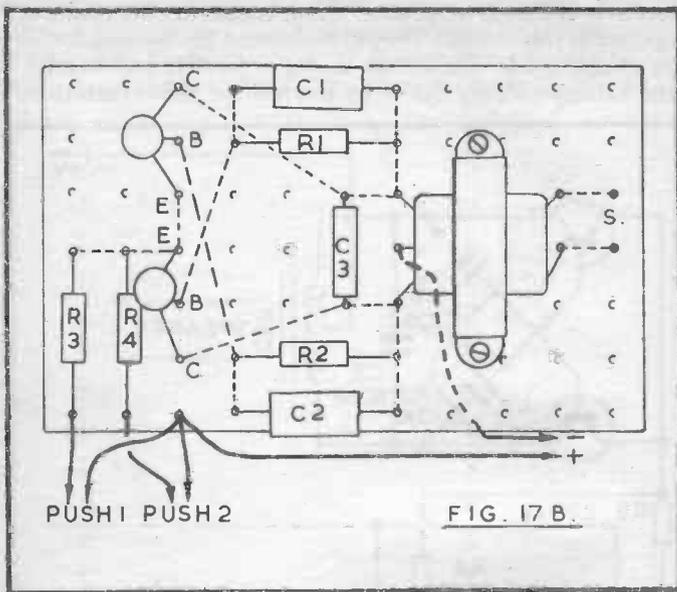


FIG. 17 B.

In some circumstances it may be convenient to run a single twin lead from Push 1 on to Push 2, including an extra resistor at Push 2 itself, to modify the tone. This may save taking leads from Push 2 all the way back to the oscillator board.

UJT Oscillator

The uni-junction transistor is a device having emitter, Base 1, and Base 2, Fig. 18. B2 receives positive bias, in this case through the headphones. When forward bias on the emitter E is reached the UJT conducts.

In Fig. 18, the emitter potential rises as C1 charges through the resistor R1. When the UJT conducts, C1 is discharged, and the process is repeated. This can take place over a very wide range of frequencies, depending on the values used for R1 and C1. Here, these are chosen to produce an audio tone.

A battery supply of 3v to 9v will be convenient. For use of the UJT oscillator during code practice, place the key in one battery lead.

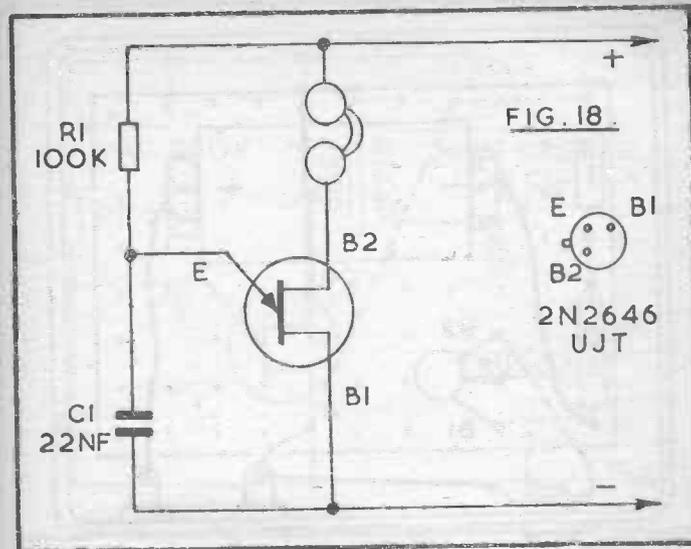
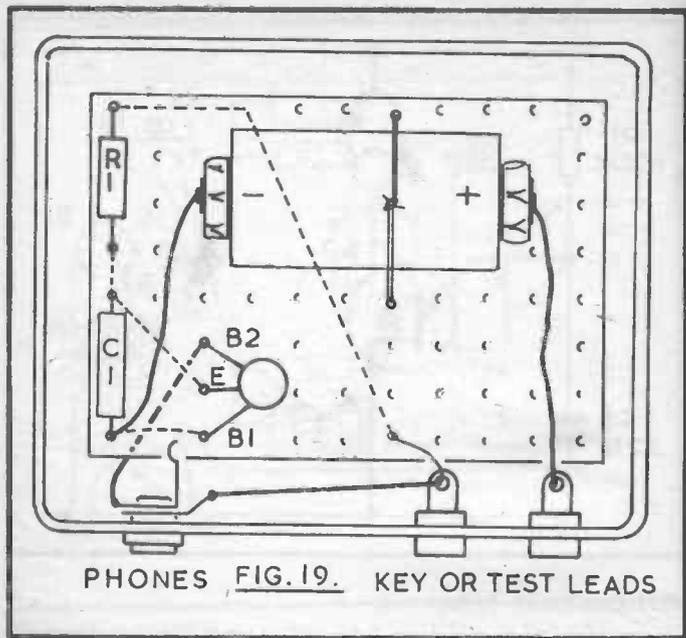


FIG. 18.

UJT Continuity Tester

Fig. 19 shows actual assembly of the circuit in Fig. 18 on a small perforated board. This is fitted in an insulated box, which carries a phone jack socket, and two sockets for Morse key or test leads. A 9v battery is used, secured with string or elastic.

For continuity tests, take prods or clips on the test leads to the suspected item. If the circuit is in order, the UJT oscillator will produce an audio tone. Oscillation will be obtained with a series resistance between the prods of up to 20k or more, so various components can also be tested, and some idea of the resistance in circuit can be gained from the sound obtained. The tester can also be used to check bulbs, lamps, fuses, extension and other leads, and similar items — these must of course be removed or disconnected from the equipment, before being tested.

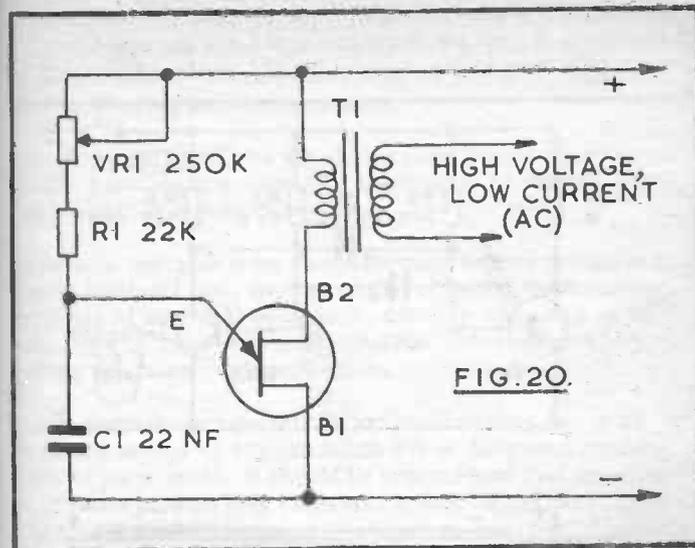


PHONES FIG. 19. KEY OR TEST LEADS

UJT High Voltage Producer

The UJT oscillator can be used to produce a high voltage, at very low current, by connecting a transformer as in Fig. 20. A loudspeaker transformer, as would be used in valve equipment, is suitable, and will have a ratio of about 45:1 or so. The usual secondary, or low-resistance winding, is connected to B2 and positive, so that a step-up of voltage is obtained. This should be found to light a small neon lamp.

VR1 is fitted to allow some adjustment, to find the most suitable frequency of oscillation. For maximum possible high voltage output, if required, operating voltage and current should be raised. No rating of the UJT must be exceeded. For the 2N2646, the supply should not exceed 30v, emitter current should not be over 50mA, and dissipation of power in the device should not be more than 300 milliwatts. (Dissipation can be found from Voltage x Current.)



A small mains transformer can be used for T1, with a low voltage winding, such as that for a 6.3v heater circuit, as primary, and the 200/250v winding as secondary. The high voltage output is alternating current.

Signal Blinker

Fig. 21 is a multivibrator in which the feedback capacitors C1 and C2 are of high value, so that conduction alternates between TR1 and TR2 at a low rate. A light emitting diode is placed in the collector circuit of TR2, and so flashes on and off.

This device can be used for various instruments and other equipment, and a flashing indicator draws attention to a greater extent than does one continuously illuminated. The LED can be located at any required point, with leads running to it.

Transistors other than the types shown can be utilised. R4 can usually be about 150 ohm for a 3v supply, 470 ohm to 1.2k for 6v, or 680 ohm to 1.5k for 9v. This depends on some

extent on the amount of light required when the indicator is operating. Lower resistor values at R4 will increase light, but current must in any case be limited to the LED rating.

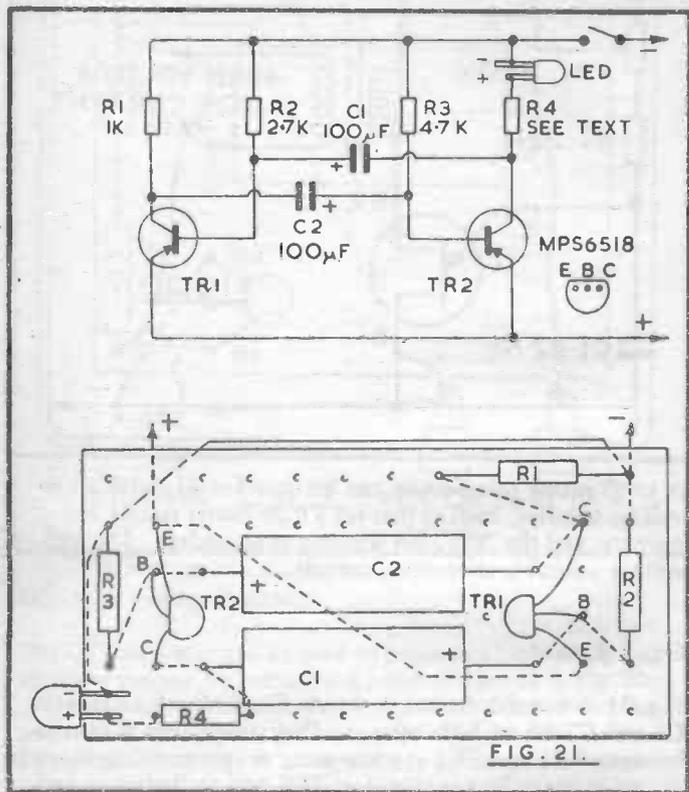


FIG. 21.

C1 and C2 need only be 6.4v working, and the device can be assembled on a very small perforated board. See p.61 for LED polarity.

Mains Wiring

All the devices described so far have operated from low voltage batteries, so that no shock hazard exists with them. However, it is necessary to employ mains power for some units, and proper care must then be taken to avoid any danger.

Power should be drawn from a 3-pin plug, and this should have a 3A or other low rating fuse installed. The live or L, neutral or N, and earth or E conductors must be correctly connected, both at the plug and the equipment.

The plug must always be withdrawn from the supply socket, before touching any internal connections, or making any adjustments or checks of any kind.

Apparatus operated from the mains must be constructed in a strong insulated box, such as can be obtained from various suppliers of electrical equipment; or when built in a metal box, the box must be soundly earthed. This is achieved by bolting the mains cord earth conductor to the box.

Boxes or cases can have ventilation holes or slots, but must be closed so that no one can touch live or dangerous connections or parts inside. It should be remembered that unskilled or unaware persons may eventually handle or use the equipment, so it must be arranged to present no unexpected hazards such as live terminals or parts, or openings for the fingers.

If these points are remembered, mains operated equipment can be safe to use and handle. No switch or other means of interrupting the circuit is put in the earth conductor, and any switch or equivalent device is placed in the live or L conductor. This leaves both earth and neutral permanently connected, for maximum safety.

Dimmer/Heat Control

It is often convenient to dim a filament lamp, or reduce the heat of a soldering iron to be left on for long periods, or the power of a low wattage heater. The silicon controlled rectifier circuit in Fig. 22 can be used for these purposes.

When the switch marked "Full" is closed, current for the load passes through this, so that full power is obtained.

When this switch is opened, current passes through the SCR. This device conducts only when the gate has been triggered, and the instantaneous point in the alternating current cycle

where this arises is determined by the setting of the potentiometer VR1. Triggering is advanced as the wiper of VR1 is moved towards R1. The average power supplied to the load can thus be adjusted between wide limits. Since the device is operating as a half wave controller, full power is not obtained with VR1 at maximum, so the switch is closed as described.

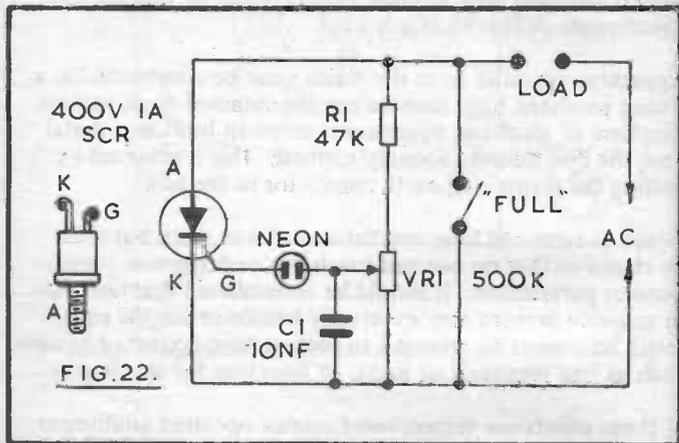


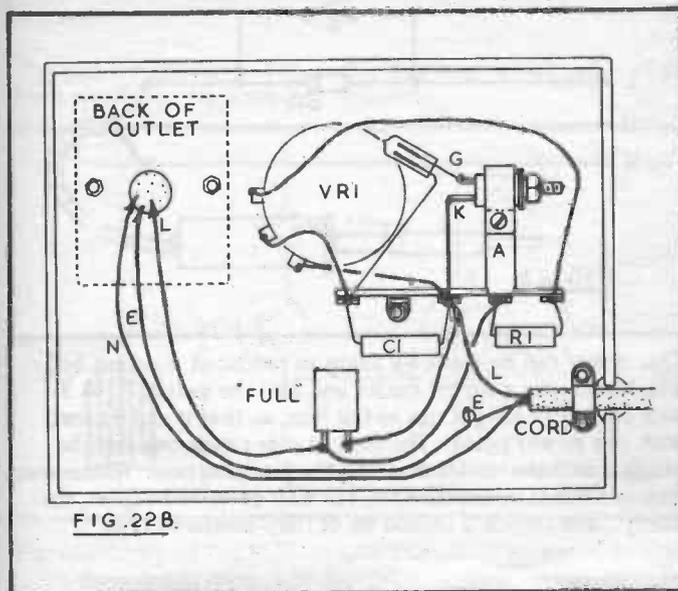
Fig. 22B shows construction of the SCR controller in a metal box. The front of this carries a socket outlet, and the mains cord has a 3-pin plug, wired as explained earlier. It is thus easy to plug the controller into an outlet, and insert the plug of the lamp or other item to be used in the new outlet.

The mains cord is secured with a clamp, and passes through an insulated grommet. The tag strip supporting the small items is mounted by an unused tag. A strip of metal is cut to clamp round the body of the SCR, and is soldered to one tag, as shown. Run earth and neutral leads from the cord up through a hole, and connect them to the E and N terminals of the socket outlet. Also earth the case, at E. A well insulated wire runs from the L terminal of the outlet, to the "Full" switch. The outlet can be secured with bolts and nuts.

R1 should be 1 watt, and C1 is a 500v capacitor. The neon is a small type as used for indicators, etc.

After checking that the controller operates correctly, the back

of the box should be screwed in place. A suitable size is about 4 x 5 x 2 inch deep.

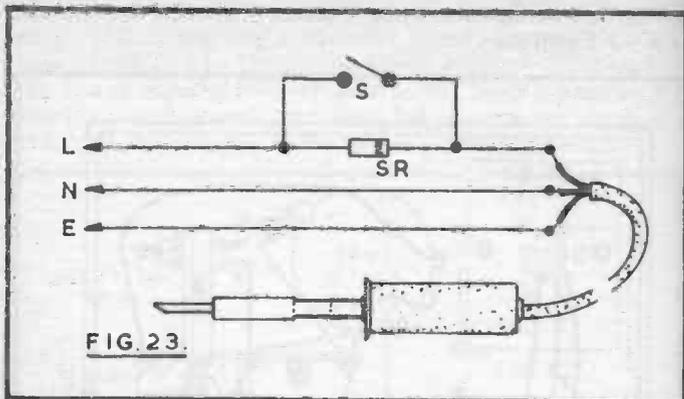


If a fully insulated box is used instead, then the bush of VR1 and of the switch should both be earthed by wires, except when these items are constructed wholly with insulated material. (This precaution is necessary to avoid any chance of metal parts outside the box becoming "live".)

Two Power

A circuit which will allow half or full power can be useful to reduce the heat of a soldering iron, or for dimming a filament lamp.

Fig. 23 is an easy circuit of this type. Full power is obtained when the switch S is closed. With S open, the silicon rectifier allows current to flow in one direction only, so that power is approximately halved. A 600v 1A or 1000v 1A rectifier is suitable.



This device can be made by using an insulated junction box which will take a socket outlet and also the switch S. A 3-core cord with plug is run to the box, so that it can be used with any power point. The iron or other item can then be plugged into the outlet fitted to the junction box. Remember to make mains connections in the way described earlier, for safety. The switch S should be of fully insulated type.

Sensitive Touch Switch

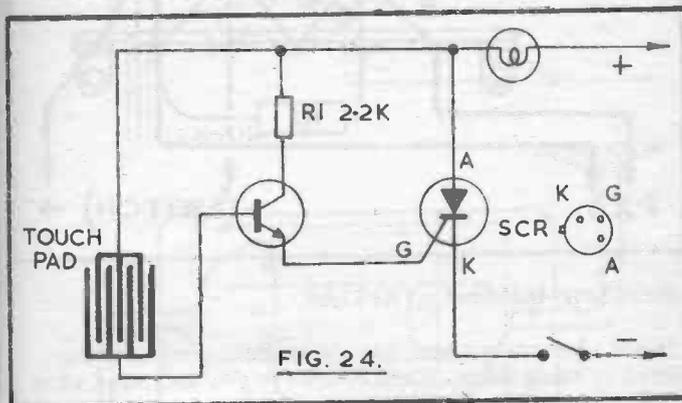
In Fig. 24, finger contact with the touch pad switches on a low voltage bulb. This circuit is suitable for a battery operated portable bedside light, and for some other devices.

Normally the silicon controlled rectifier is not conducting, so the lamp is extinguished. Finger contact with the pad provides positive base bias for the transistor so that it conducts. This moves the transistor emitter and SCR gate positive, triggering the SCR. Current then flows from cathode K to anode A, and through the bulb. The SCR remains in the conducting condition until the battery circuit is interrupted by opening the switch. A push switch, normally closed, is most suitable here. Pressing it then switches off the bulb.

This touch pad is easily made from a piece of circuit board with foil strips. It can be about 2 x 1 inch, or of any convenient size. Join together alternate foils — e.g., 1, 3, 5 and 7 — by

soldering a connecting wire through the holes. This will provide one connection to the pad. The other foils — 2, 4 and 6 — are similarly joined together for the other pad connection.

The pad is fixed to the top or side of a box, which can contain the battery and electronic components.

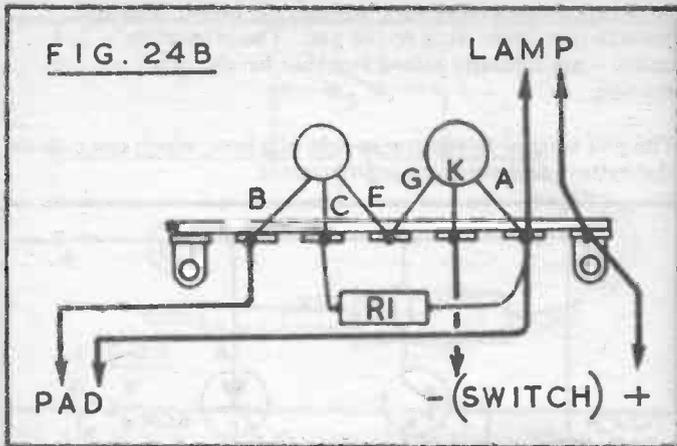


The sensitivity of the SCR, or gate current or potential needed to produce conduction, will depend somewhat on the individual device, while the gain of individual transistors will also be different. Numerous NPN types are suitable. If it is found that the switch is too sensitive, this can be corrected by placing a resistor from transistor base to SCR cathode or negative line. This resistor can be about 470k to 1 megohm or so. Excessive sensitivity will be apparent if the circuit is switched on by dust, damp air, or similar effects. The pad should be kept clean by wiping it with a dry cloth.

Fig. 24B shows assembly of the components on a tag strip. A small 50v 1A SCR is more than adequate. The bulb can be a screw in type, and can be 6.3v 0.15A, or 6.3v 0.3A. A 6v 3W (0.5A) bulb is also suitable, provided the battery is fairly large.

It is convenient to make a wooden box which will take the battery, and leave a little space for the tag strip assembly.

FIG. 24B



Water Level Indicator

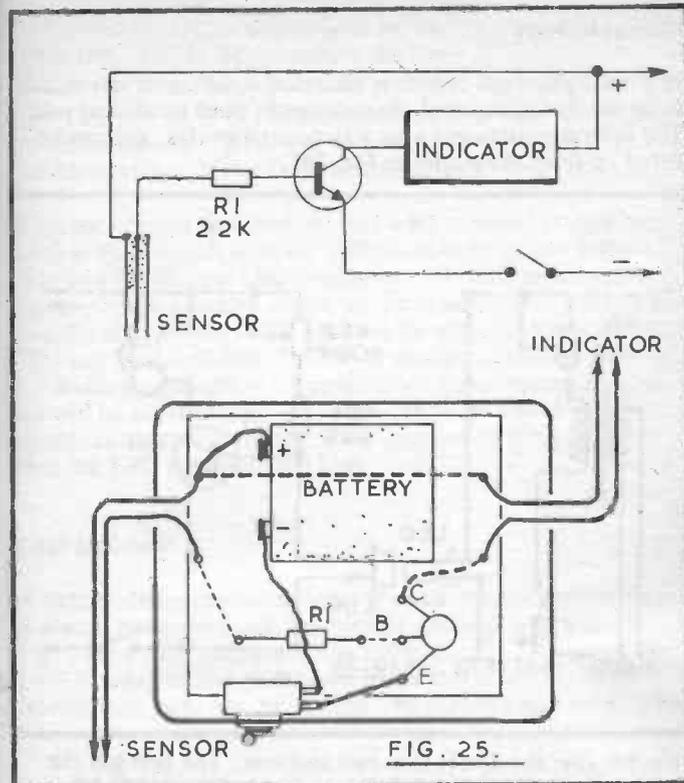
This is a battery operated low voltage device, which is triggered by rising water. It can be used to give indication when a tank, cistern, fish or swimming pool has filled to the required level.

Fig. 25 shows the circuit, and also assembly on an insulated board. This also carries the battery, and it is fitted in a metal or plastic box.

In use, the base normally has no positive bias, as the sensor passes no current. When water reaches the sensor, it conducts, and the transistor passes collector current, to operate the indicator. RI limits base current.

This circuit will operate satisfactorily with a wide range of PNP or NPN transistors, but battery polarity must be reversed for the PNP types.

The indicating or warning device can be one of the multi-vibrator or other audio oscillators shown earlier. These will give an audible warning, and will draw only a small current, so that a large transistor is not required.

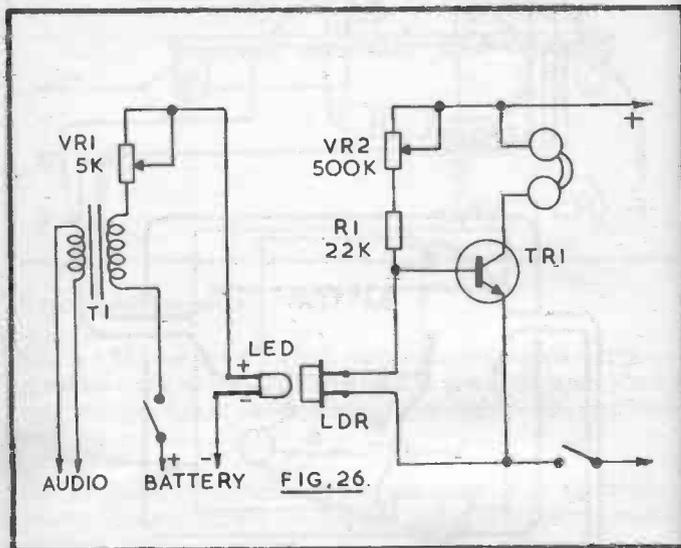


For indoor use or in a location protected from rain, the sensor can be two bare wires, about ¼ inch apart, bolted to a strip of insulated material. Where rain could operate the device, it needs to be covered. Alternatively, it can be made from a piece of metal tube, with a central wire, as in Fig. 25. The wire is bound with insulating tape for about half its length, to fit tightly in the tube. Flexible leads are soldered on, and the joints covered with tape. The sensor can be suspended inside the tank or pool, with its bottom at the required water level.

If the transistor is a high gain one, so that damp operates the indicator, sensitivity can be reduced by connecting a 100k resistor from base to emitter.

Optical Isolator

In some equipment complete electrical isolation of one circuit from another is required, though signals must be able to pass. The optical isolator is a neat way to arrange this, and can be fitted up from the circuit in Fig. 26.



Electrically, the device is in two sections. The first has the light emitting diode LED, VR1, and transformer T1. When the battery is switched on, current flowing through the LED is adjusted by VR1, so that the LED glows dimly. A signal voltage in the secondary of T1 then modulates the LED light intensity.

To operate this circuit from a radio having a 2/3 ohm or similar speaker, a speaker matching transformer with a ratio of about 45:1 can be used. (The actual ratio is not very important.) Connect the usual transformer secondary to the radio speaker, so that T1 provides a step up effect.

The second part of the equipment has the light dependent resistor LDR, forming part of the network providing TR1 with base bias. VR2 allows adjustment of conditions for best

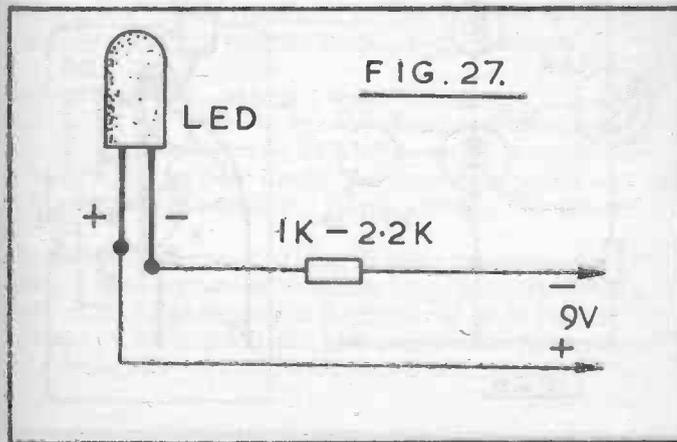
amplification, which will depend on the transistor, and also the LDR, or stray light reaching the latter.

The LED and LDR can be enclosed in a card tube, or should at least be shielded from light, which will swamp the modulated illumination of the LDR, obtained from the LED.

With the circuits switched on, and VR1 adjusted so that the LED is illuminated, turn the radio to give fairly low volume. Adjust VR2 for best bias conditions. When these are reached, signals should be heard clearly in the headphones. VR1, VR2 and the audio input to T1 can then be adjusted for best results. TR1 can be the BC108, 2N706, or similar transistors suitable for audio amplification. A medium or high impedance headset will be satisfactory. Assembly can be on a perforated board, as for other circuits. Take care not to adjust VR1 so that the LED current is too high.

LED Indicator

A light emitting diode can be used as an indicator on battery powered equipment and the current required is very small. Fig. 27 is a LED indicator circuit. Here, the long wire of the LED is negative, but with some LEDs this is not so. A flat side may, or may not, be present. So polarity may have to be

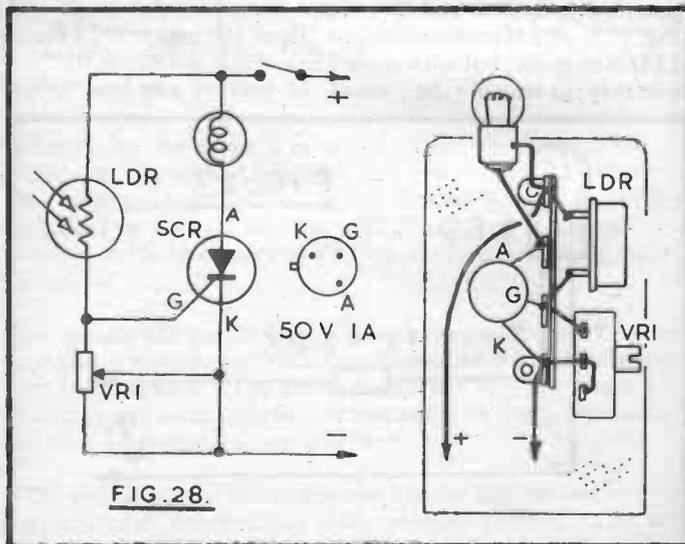


found by trial — the correct connections are those allowing the LED to light. The series resistor may be about 150 ohm to 1k or more, depending on the actual voltage, and brightness required. Current drawn varies with different LEDs, and with voltage and series resistance, but can be about 5mA or less, without reducing the brightness too far.

The LED indicator with resistor is connected to the circuit where voltage is present when the equipment is on. LEDs are available in red, yellow, green and other colours, with grommets or clips for panel mounting. Different circuits may be identified by a range of colours.

“Magic Candle”

The triggering of a silicon controlled rectifier can be used for slave photoflash and similar purposes. In Fig. 28 it is employed to switch on a light when a match or lighter is brought near. Sensitivity is best in somewhat subdued light, and it will then be found that striking a match at some distance can bring on the light.



The LDR has a high resistance when in darkness or subdued light, so that the gate potential of the SCR is not sufficiently high to trigger this device. When light reaches the LDR, its resistance falls, and the SCR gate voltage rises. The SCR then moves into its conducting condition, so that current flows through the bulb. The sensitivity of the circuit, or level of illumination needed to trigger the SCR, is set by VR1.

Components can be assembled on a small tag strip. This, with a battery, can occupy a tubular case, with the lamp on top. An opening is necessary opposite the LDR, and a hole is also made so that VR1 can be adjusted with a screwdriver. Here, a miniature pre-set 50k or 100k linear potentiometer is most suitable. It is necessary to have a small push switch to interrupt the battery current, as the SCR remains in the conducting condition until the circuit is momentarily broken. A 6V battery and bulb can be used. SCRs may fail to operate at all if attempts are made to use them with extremely low voltages, such as a single 1.5v cell.

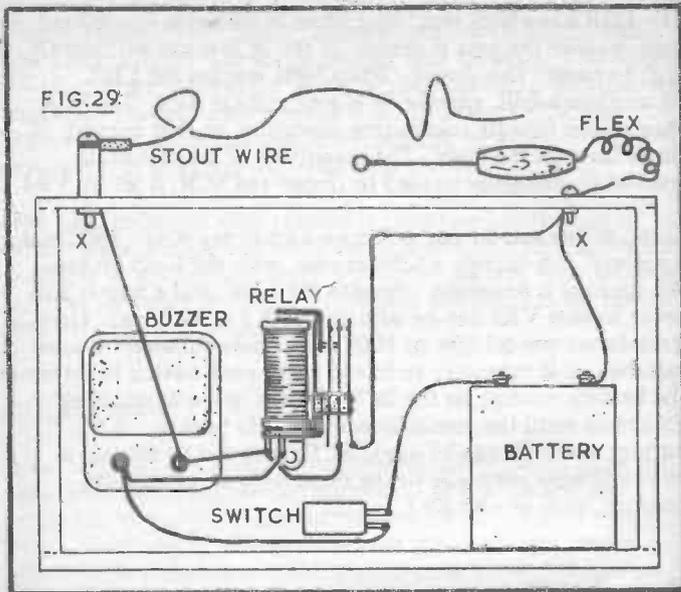
“Nerve Tester”

This device tests the nerve, concentration, and steadiness of hand, and always provides amusement.

Connections and construction will be seen from Fig. 29. A wooden box at least 10 inch or 12 inch long will be used, and large enough to take the battery and other parts.

A stout bare wire — at least 14swg — is mounted with a bolt and spacer, and is bent in any way found appropriate, and according to the degree of difficulty wanted. A similar wire is fitted with a wooden handle, and has a loop bent at one end. A flexible lead of convenient length is soldered to this wire.

The problem is to pass the loop all along the shaped wire, without allowing contact, until the loop can be rested on a piece of insulated sleeving at the fixed end, as in Fig. 29. The size of the loop will also have considerable influence on the ease or otherwise of the likelihood of success.



If loop and wire touch, current flows from the battery to the buzzer, which sounds. Current also flows to the relay winding, so that the relay contacts close. Even a momentary contact between loop and wire will thus cause the buzzer to sound until the switch is used to break the circuit.

Any 4.5v, 6v or similar battery and buzzer will be satisfactory, with a relay which operates on a similar voltage. Connections are to the relay contacts which remain open until the relay is energised.

In use, the device can stand upright. A back is attached with small screws.

Burglar Alarm

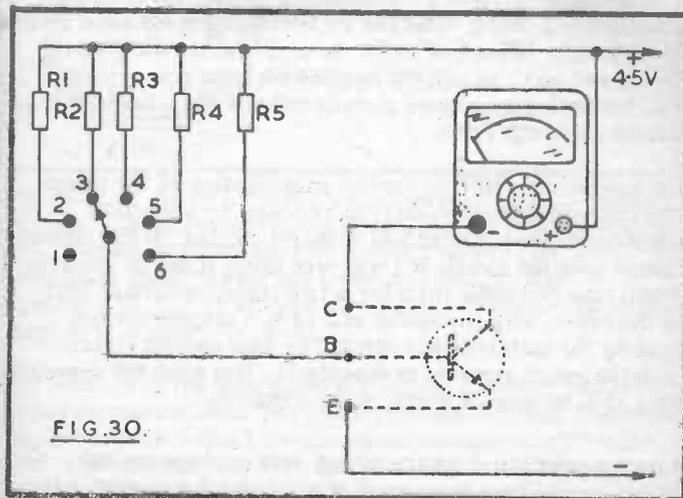
The same circuit arrangement as in Fig. 29 will provide a burglar alarm operated by pressure mats. The latter are available in various sizes, and consist of a thin pad which can be placed under a carpet or ordinary mat.

Leads from the mat or mats will run to the terminals at X-X. The buzzer should be changed for a bell, which need not be fitted in the box, but can be situated where it is best heard. Momentary weight on any of the mats will then switch on the bell, which will be locked on by the relay as described, and will ring until the unit is switched off.

Transistor Tester

A very useful check of transistors can be made with the aid of a multi-range test meter, with a selection of base resistors to provide base current, as in Fig. 30. This method does not give an exact indication of transistor gain, but it does allow defective transistors to be eliminated, and provides a good idea of the performance to be obtained from surplus or other unknown transistors.

A 6-way switch allows the base to be open circuit, or to receive current through one of the resistors R1 to R5. These values are R1 330k, R2 110k, R3 33k, R4 11k and R5 3.3k. After allowing for the base-emitter potential, switch positions and corresponding base currents are near the following: 1, zero; 2, 10 μ A; 3, 30 μ A; 4, 100 μ A; 5, 0.3mA, and 6, 1mA.



Polarity is shown for NPN transistors. Reverse polarity of both meter and battery for PNP transistors.

For all tests, initially set the switch to 1, and the meter to its highest range (say 1 ampere). Afterwards, switch the meter to a lower range, after adjustment of the 6-way switch, as may prove to be necessary to obtain an easy reading.

With the switch at 1, a high reading on the meter shows that the transistor has a short circuit from emitter to collector, and is defective.

With germanium transistors, collector current (with the switch at 1) may be 0.1mA or so up to perhaps 0.5mA for small types, and up to some milliamperes for larger types. This small leakage current does not show that the transistor is defective.

In the case of silicon transistors, the leakage current (with switch at 1) will be zero or extremely small, if the device is in good condition.

The switch is then turned to one of the positions 2 to 6. If collector current does not rise, the transistor is defective. If current rises at each step, do not go beyond the switch setting which results in a safe collector current for the device actually being tested. This can be 10mA or less for some small transistors, or 100mA or so for those able to handle greater power, and up to an ampere or more for large power transistors, but limitation of base current will not allow full collector current with large types.

The approximate hFE or current amplification of the transistor (common emitter mode) can be found by noting the approximate base current and collector current. If the collector current with the switch at 1 was very small, it can be ignored. If not, take this value from the actual collector current read by the meter, with the switch at 2 to 6. Collector current (read by the meter) is then divided by base current (taken from the switch position as described). This gives the approximate hFE, or amplification, of the transistor.

It is convenient to mark the switch with the base current figures, and to have three small clips to attach a transistor to

the circuit. Switch, clips, and battery can all be fitted to a small box. A development of the circuit would be to include a current meter, with switch and shunts, to replace the external general purpose test instrument.

Treasure Locator

This locator is among the simplest that can be constructed, as it uses an ordinary small portable radio as part of the detection circuitry. No modifications or connections to the radio are needed.

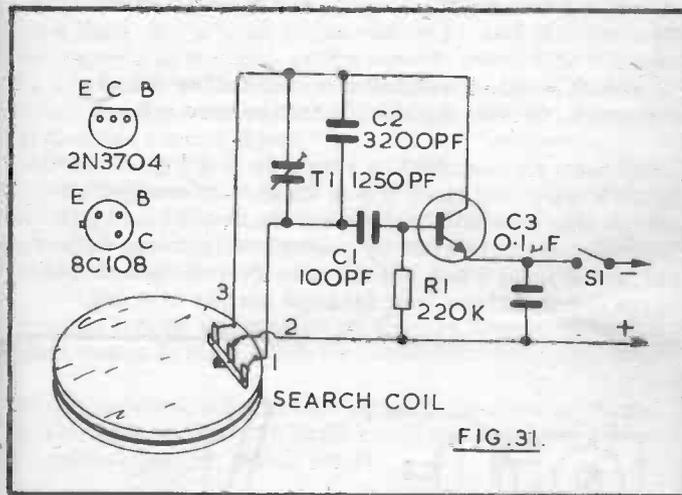


FIG. 31.

Fig. 31 is the circuit. It has a single transistor as a low radio-frequency oscillator, operating in conjunction with the search coil. Oscillation is obtained by having a tapped coil, with outer leads going to base and collector circuits. The frequency of oscillation depends on the coil, and the parallel capacitors, trimmer T1, and C2.

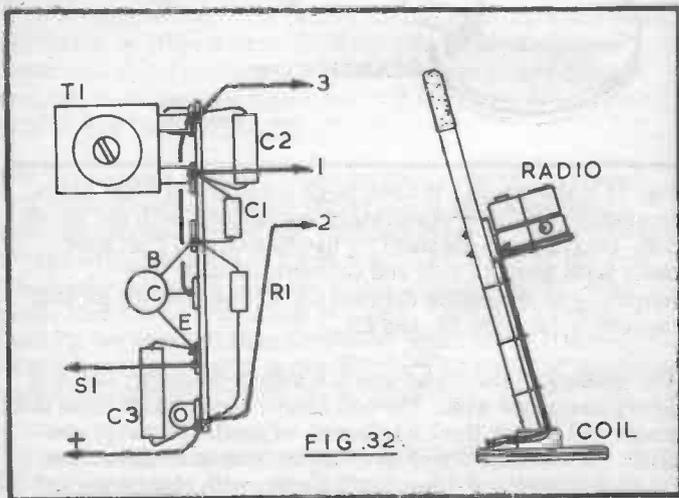
The winding of the search coil is 6 inch in diameter, and is of 34swg enamelled wire. The coil former can be made from three pieces of 1/8 inch thick hardboard, or similar insulated material. Cut one disc 6 inch in diameter, and two others about 6½ inch in diameter. Smooth the edges with glasspaper, and

cement them securely together, with the small disc between the larger discs. This provides a former with a channel to take the winding. The adhesive should be allowed to dry with the discs under pressure, so that there is no gap into which turns can fall. The former should also be varnished, and allowed to dry, before winding.

The wire is passed up through a small hole, this being point 1. Wind on fifteen turns. Make a loop and pass this up through a hole, for point 2. Wind a further twenty-five turns in the same direction, finishing off at point 3. These leads are scraped and soldered to a small tag strip. This is an anchor point for insulated leads which will run up the handle of the locator (Fig. 32).

Cut a block of wood, and drill it to take the bottom of a broomstick. Cement the block to the prepared coil.

Components are assembled on a tag strip as in Fig. 32. Mount this strip in a plastic lunch box or similar container, which will also take a small 9v battery, and the switch S1. A test for oscillation can be made by placing a meter in one battery lead, and shorting 1 and 3 of the coil. Meter current should change slightly. If not, look for some mistake in wiring.



A shelf is bolted to the handle, and the detector rests on this, with connections passing down to the search coil. A few loops of tape or string will secure these to the handle.

Operation in Great Britain can be on frequencies under 100kHz. Initially tune the radio receiver to 200kHz on long wave, and place it near the coil. Adjust T1 until a strong whistle is heard in the receiver speaker. This is the 2nd harmonic of the oscillator. T1 is then screwed down very slightly from this position.

The small portable radio is placed on top of the locator box, and can be held here with elastic. It is tuned to the medium wave band. Some small adjustment of T1, and of the receiver tuning, may be required, until a suitable heterodyne is produced by a harmonic or multiple of the oscillator. It will then be found that the pitch of the note changes when the search coil approaches a metal object.

It should generally be found that sufficient coupling is obtained with the receiver when they are situated as in Fig. 32. If not, run a few inches of insulated wire from the transistor collector tag up through the box and place this under the receiver.

For best results, adjustments are directed towards obtaining a good change in pitch, when the search coil approaches metal.

For those interested in details of other detectors, reference can be made to "How to Build Your Own Metal and Treasure Locators" (No. 32, Babani Press).

SECTION 3 RADIO AND AUDIO FREQUENCY

MW Booster

This unit can be employed in conjunction with any ordinary portable having a ferrite rod aerial, and will provide a considerable increase in range and sensitivity to weak signals. It has two functions – to allow the use of an external aerial and earth, and to amplify and couple signals to the portable receiver.

Tuning coverage is for medium waves. That is, about 200–550 metres, or 1500–550kHz. Many overseas and other stations can be picked up on this band, and distant reception can be particularly common on the higher frequencies, during the hours of darkness.

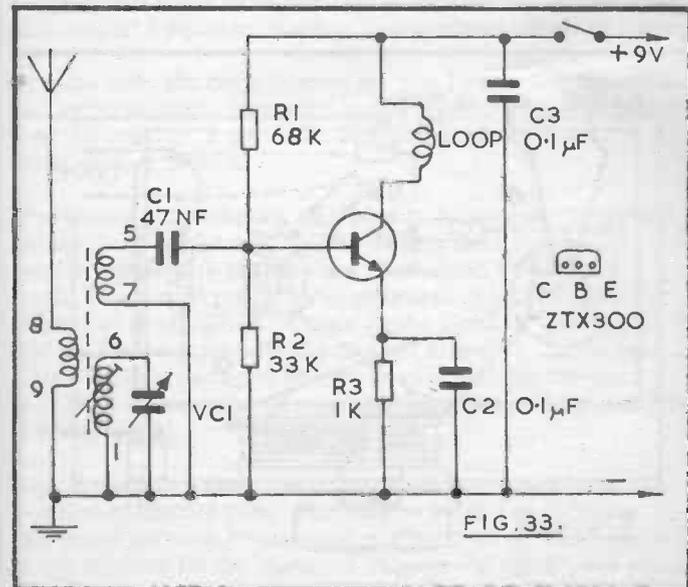
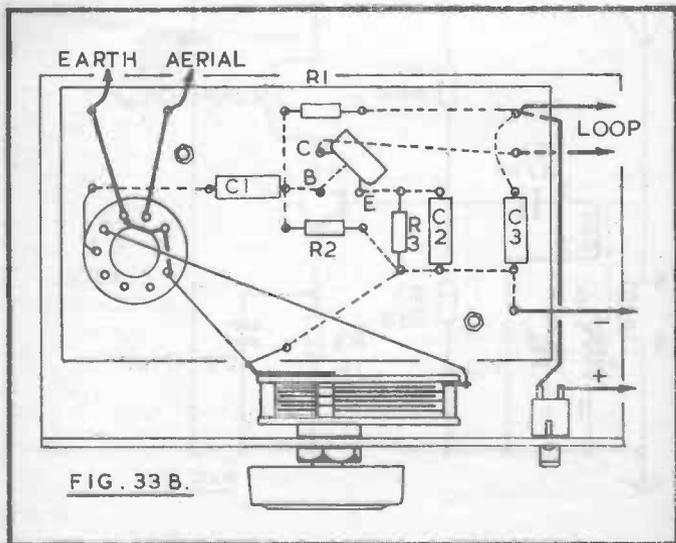


Fig. 33 is the circuit, and it uses a cored tuning coil with aerial coupling winding 8-9, tuned winding 6-1, and base coupling coil 5-7. These numbers are for the pins of the Denco (Clacton) "Blue" Range 2 component. It will be apparent that other coils, or surplus or home-wound inductors, can be substituted.

For the coil mentioned, VC1 is 315pF. However, this value is not too critical, provided the capacitor fitted allows tuning the wanted frequencies. A solid dielectric capacitor can be used, though the air spaced type is likely to be a little more efficient.

Coupling to the base is by C1, and resistors R1 and R2 set the base bias conditions, with R3 for emitter bias. These values will suit numerous RF transistors.

Fig. 33B shows assembly of the components on an insulated board. The coil is mounted by its threaded bush. When the board has been wired, it can be mounted by means of bolts with extra nuts. The case is preferably metal, for screening purposes, but the booster can be used satisfactorily with a plastic or similar box.



Fit a small slide switch to the box front, and aerial and earth sockets to the back, near the coil. A 9v battery is accommodated in the case.

Coupling to the transistor receiver is by means of a loop which is placed on the receiver ferrite rod, or near the rod. The loop can be about twenty turns of thin insulated wire, about 1/2 inch in diameter, and bound with cotton to keep the turns together. The ends can be left long enough to reach the two connecting points in Fig. 33B.

If the case is metal, the booster and receiver can be near each other, so the loop leads will only need to be a few inches long. But when an insulated case is used, coupling from the receiver ferrite aerial or other circuits, to the booster coil, may cause instability. This will become apparent as whistles accompanying most signals. If this arises, the booster and receiver should be moved some inches apart. The aerial lead must not run near the loop connections.

Some receivers have an internal winding which is intended to couple an external aerial, and it may be possible to connect to this, so that a separate coupling loop is not required.

In some cases the earth connection may be omitted, though it can improve range. The aerial can be some 20ft to 40ft or so long. If possible, it should be high and clear of walls and other earthed objects.

If necessary, the coupling afforded by the loop to the receiver aerial circuit can be modified by moving the loop. Initially, tune in signals with the receiver, then adjust VC1 for resonance. This should provide a very considerable increase in the volume of weak signals. A scale can be fitted to the booster, and marked to agree with the receiver tuning by this means. This will allow tuning to be kept in step, and the booster should allow reception of transmissions which will be inaudible if it is removed.

Actual tuning coverage can be modified by adjusting the position of the coil core. This may be helpful in obtaining agreement between booster and receiver tuning. The booster is not required for the reception of powerful signals, and the

receiver automatic gain control circuit will tend to mask any increase in signal strength obtained with such transmissions.

Midget MW Diode Radio/Tuner

A small, compact tuner can be of utility in allowing radio reception through an amplifier, and a diode receiver can give excellent quality of reception. Such a unit can also be employed alone, with headphones, for personal listening.

Fig. 34 is a receiver/tuner which can be built in a very small plastic or other insulated box. VC1 is a compression type trimmer, fitted with a small knob for adjustment by hand. To do this, it is necessary to remove the short screw (generally 6ba) and replace this with a longer one, which projects to take the knob. The latter can be a terminal head, or the cap from an empty tube of adhesive, secured with lock nuts.

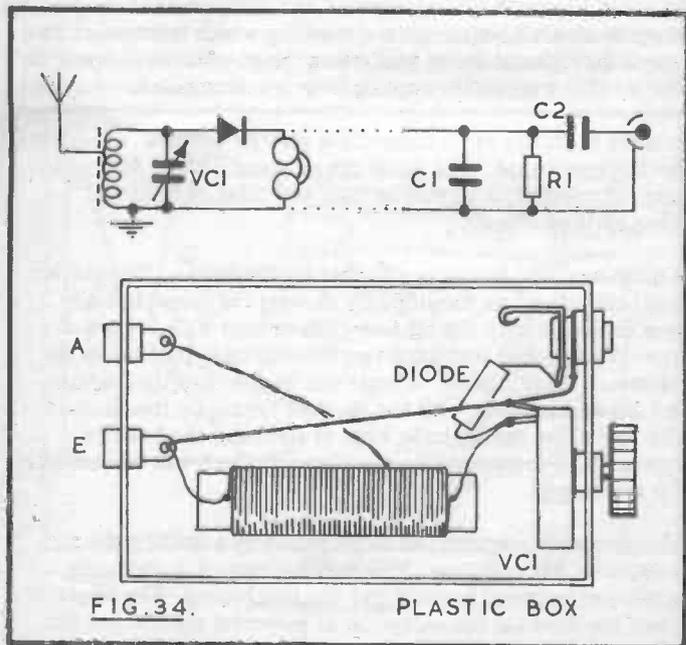


FIG. 34.

PLASTIC BOX

For best efficiency and small size, the tuning coil is wound on a piece of ferrite rod. It consists of seventy turns of 24swg or similar enamelled wire, on a rod about 1½ inch long and 3/8 inch in diameter. Actual details will not be critical. A piece can be obtained from a longer rod by cutting a notch round the rod with a file and snapping at this point with the fingers. A few touches of adhesive will hold the ends of the winding secure. The loop for the aerial connection is about one-third the total number of turns from the diode end of the coil. (Moving this tapping towards the earthed end of the coil will increase selectivity or sharpness of tuning, but reduce volume.)

Aerial and earth sockets, and a 3.5mm jack outlet, complete the receiver. Headphones can be plugged directly in here.

The aerial and earth can be provided as explained for the diode radio in Fig. 7.

To use the radio as a tuner, C1, R1 and C2 may be added. Suitable values are C1 470pF, R1 220k, and C2 0.25µF. A screened lead with jack plug should be made up to connect the tuner to the amplifier input socket.

One Transistor VHF Receiver/Converter

The super-regenerative receiver is well known for its great sensitivity, which equals that of a multi-stage superhet. It has no alignment difficulties, and few components, so is an interesting project. Its main disadvantages are its background hiss, but this ceases when a signal is tuned in, and its lack of selectivity. The latter is however relatively unimportant on the VHF bands. The circuit here is particularly intended for 2m reception, but is easily modified. It is not intended for FM signals.

In Fig. 35 the detector is a VHF FET, and the field effect transistor will be found very satisfactory in circuits of this kind. T1 is the pre-set tuning capacitor, which allows adjustment over a fairly wide band of frequencies. Tuning is by VC1, which does not require a reduction drive.

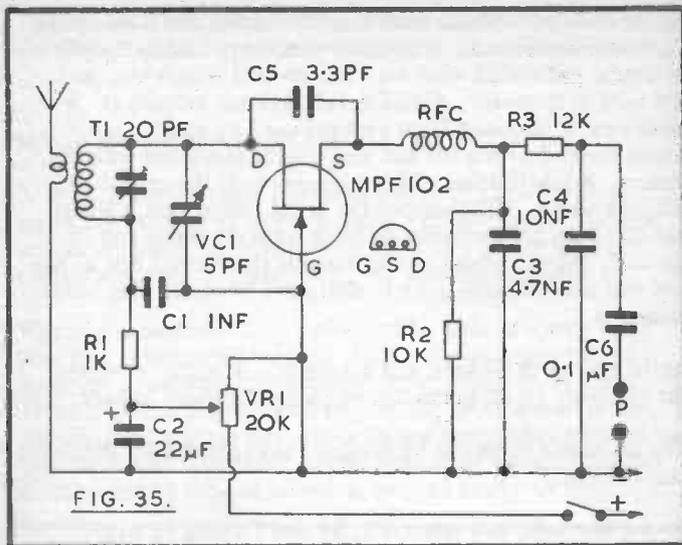


FIG. 35.

Control of super-regeneration is by means of the potentiometer VR1, which adjusts the FET drain potential. The value of VR1 is not very important, but a linear potentiometer is necessary.

C5 provides feedback from source to drain, for regeneration. R3 and the associated components form the quench network, with C6 feeding headphones, or an audio amplifier.

For best results, VR1 should enable the transistor to go smoothly into super-regeneration, which is shown by the hiss mentioned. Achieving this depends somewhat on the transistor, value of C5, adjustment of T1, and aerial loading. However, matters are not too critical.

Transistors unsuitable for VHF cannot be used. Individual FETs of the same type will also differ somewhat, so that in some cases it might be necessary to omit C5, or change the value. Alternatively, a small pre-set (not over 10 pF) may be fitted. It will be found that a very small capacitance is required.

Another cause of failing to obtain super-regeneration is too tight aerial coupling, and this is easily corrected by moving the aerial coupling winding a little further from the larger winding.

The RF choke can be a VHF type, or can consist of seventy five turns of 36swg enamelled wire, side by side on a ¼ inch diameter insulated rod. Touches of adhesive may hold the end turns only.

Short leads are essential, and assembly on a tag board is shown in Fig. 35B. The variable capacitor is fitted first, and it can later attach the finished board to a panel, by means of an extra nut.

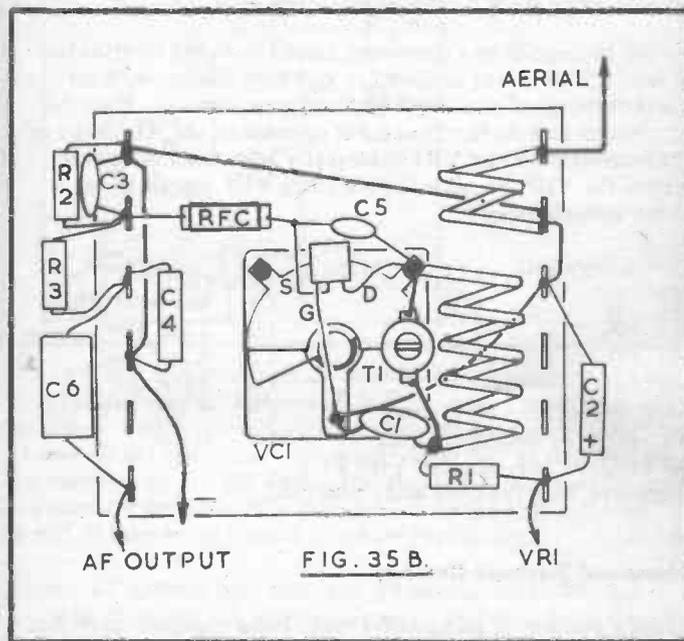


FIG. 35B.

The larger coil has five turns of 18swg wire, and is ½ inch in diameter and ¾ inch long. The smaller coil has two turns. Wiring to VC1, T1, C5, the coil and C1 must be as short as can be arranged. Connections elsewhere are reasonably direct. A ceramic disc capacitor may be used at C1. T1 should be a low loss trimmer.

The board can be fitted in a case which will carry VR1, and large enough for the battery and on-off switch. The case can be used to support a telescopic aerial, some 30 inch or so when extended.

Frequencies tuned by VCI can be raised by unscrewing T1, or by stretching the larger coil to separate the turns more, or by using a coil with fewer turns, or of smaller diameter. The receiver is most suitable for use over the 70MHz to 200MHz range.

For the single transistor alone, a sensitive pair of medium or high resistance phones will be needed. Audio output from C6 can be taken to an amplifier, for more powerful reception with phones, or to allow a loudspeaker to be used.

To use the circuit as a converter, tune a portable receiver to around 1500kHz (or as found to give best results, with no break through of unwanted medium wave signals). Place the receiver so that its ferrite aerial is coupled to the RF choke of the converter. When VR1 is correctly adjusted, conversion within the VHF circuit will then allow VHF signals to be heard with the receiver.

Component List

R1 1k	C1 1nF VHF disc
R2 10k	C2 22 μ F 10v
R3 12k	C3 4.7nF disc
VR1 20k linear pot.	C4 10nF disc
VCI 5pF air-spaced variable	C5 3.3pF VHF type
T1 20pF air spaced trimmer	C5 0.1 μ F
MPF102/BF244, or other VHF FET	
Tagboard, wire for coils and choke, etc.	

Morse and Sideband Resolver

Quite a number of inexpensive multi-band transistor receivers have frequency coverage which includes one or more Amateur bands. That is, 1.8, 3.5, 7, 14, 21, or 28MHz. On these bands transmissions are often in Morse code or CW, or single sideband. CW or SSB can be resolved by the specialised Amateur receivers and transceivers, but not with the general purpose home receiver. To receive CW or SSB with the latter type of radio, it is necessary to add an oscillator. This either generates a heterodyne or beat note for code reception, or replaces the carrier which was eliminated from the single sideband transmission.

The circuit in Fig. 36 may be used for these purposes. It generates a carrier of about the same frequency as that used in the intermediate frequency stages of the receiver, exact adjustment of frequency being by VCI,

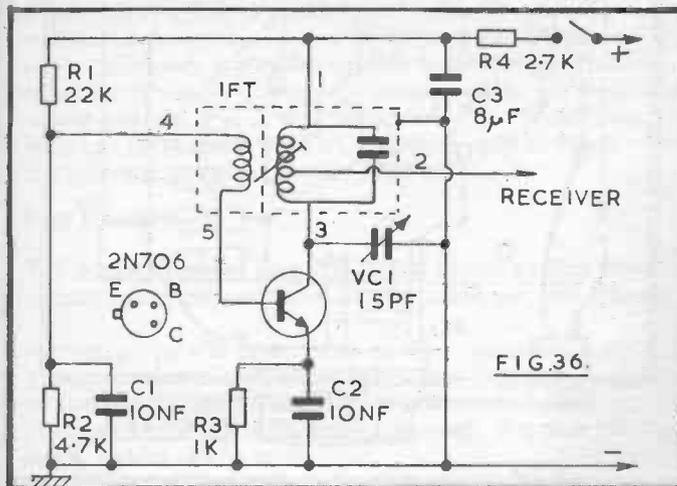


FIG.36.

Most popular receivers have an intermediate frequency of about 455kHz to 470kHz. The circuit in Fig. 36 uses an intermediate frequency transformer of similar type, and adjustment of its core allows operation with any IF from 455 to 470kHz. Pin numbers are for the Denco (Clacton) IFT13, normally intended for 465kHz. The connections to the base winding (4 and 5) have to be phased to secure oscillation.

R1 and R2 provide base bias, and R3 emitter bias. R4, and the large capacitor C3, allows current to be drawn from the same battery as is used to run the receiver, if wished. Alternatively, a separate 9v battery may be employed here.

Fig. 36B shows the practical layout of components, and wiring to them, using a perforated board. Connections and joints are kept close against the underside of the board. When wiring is finished, the board is mounted in a metal box, using 1/2 inch bolts with extra nuts for clearance.

VCI can best have a dial with a central zero mark, this showing when the plates are half meshed.

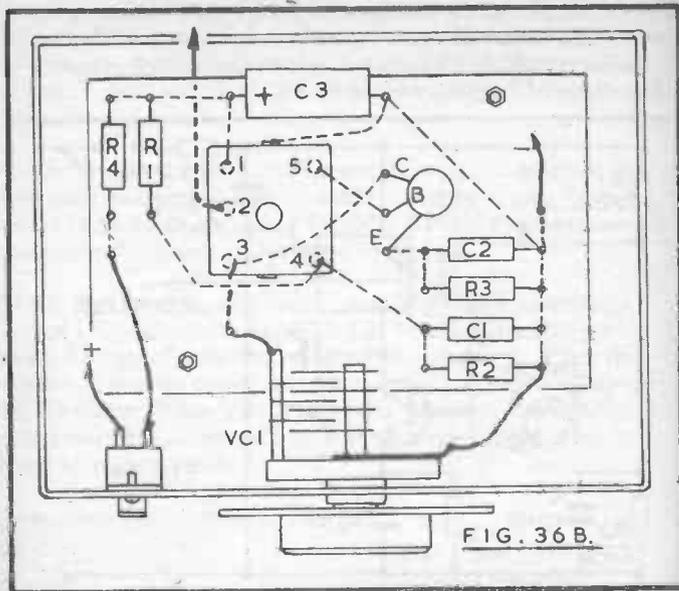


FIG. 36 B.

An insulated lead is run from 2 on the IFT, and is placed near the receiver. This lead may be so positioned as to give best coupling into the IF stages of the receiver. If coupling is too weak, the signal from the CW/SSB Resolver will be inadequate. On the other hand, tight coupling will allow the carrier to swamp weak signals tuned in on the receiver. Fortunately the degree of coupling is not at all critical.

To set up the oscillator, first of all tune in any normal broadcast with the receiver. Set VC1 half closed and switch on. The core of the IFT should now be slowly adjusted until a loud heterodyne or beat note is heard accompanying the signal received. Set the core so that this note falls to about zero, or to a low pitch. It will then be possible to rotate VC1 either way from this central zero beat position, in each case producing a note which rises in frequency as VC1 is rotated.

To receive CW or Morse code, it is only necessary to tune in the code signal with the receiver, and then to adjust VC1 to

obtain a note of the most suitable pitch. VC1 can be rotated either way from its central or zero beat position, to obtain best freedom from interference.

When receiving SSB, a more critical adjustment of VC1 is needed and the carrier produced must be at the right side of the SSB signal. (One side is used for the low frequency bands, and the other for the higher frequency bands.) If the carrier is the wrong side, the speech will be "inverted" or unintelligible. With careful adjustment of VC1, a setting will be found where the sideband signal is correctly resolved.

Easy Preampifier

This amplifier can be placed in circuit before a larger amplifier, to boost the input, or it may be used alone with headphones.

A preamplifier will be added to existing equipment when a pickup or microphone having only a low output has been found to give insufficient volume. An amplifier may be able to provide a signal at a sufficiently high level. But with low input levels, output can be inadequate.

The stage in Fig. 37 can provide considerable gain. Audio input is to C1, and R1 provides base current for the transistor. Amplified signals are obtained across R2, and pass to the main amplifier (or phones) via the isolating capacitor C2.

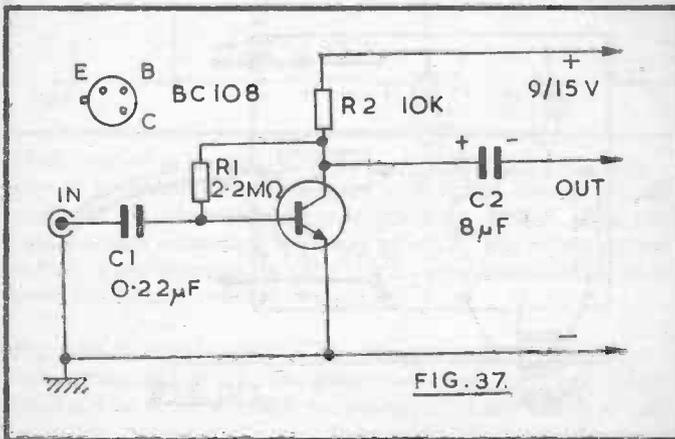


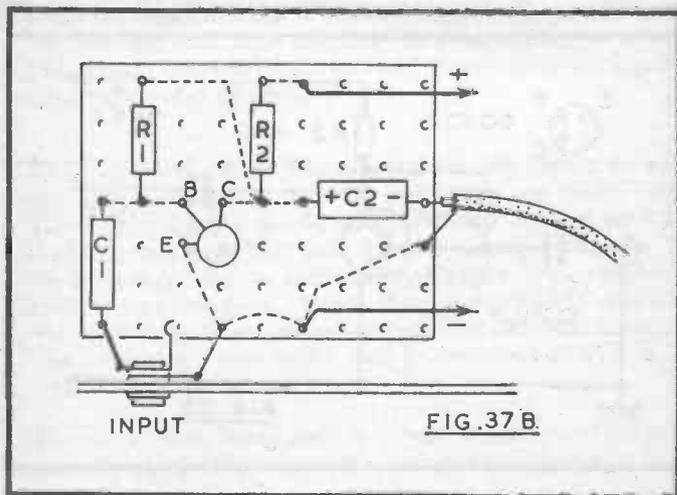
FIG. 37.

With a BC108 or similar transistor, the supply can be about 9v to 15v. Numerous NPN transistors, intended for preamplifier use and of low noise type, will perform well. Current may be from a separate battery. Or it may in many cases be drawn from the main amplifier. To avoid instability or similar troubles, the positive supply should be from a well decoupled and smoothed point in the main amplifier. If this is not available, connect a $220\mu\text{F}$ capacitor from positive to negative in Fig. 37, and draw the positive supply through a 1k resistor. Negative is returned to the negative line of the main amplifier.

Should the main amplifier have a positive earth line, then the transistor can be a PNP type, R1 and R2 being changed to suit.

Fig. 37B shows assembly on a perforated board. When the circuit provides input to a main amplifier, it should generally be in a metal case. Input is by a screened lead, and a screened lead is also fitted for the audio circuit to the main amplifier. The case should be earthed to the negative line. This can be by means of one of the bolts securing the board.

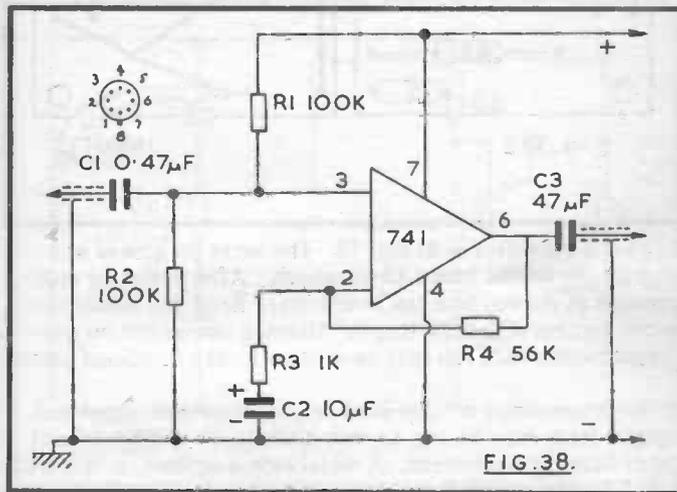
Screening to avoid hum or instability will generally prove to be unnecessary when using the stage to operate headphones. So two sockets, or a jack socket, will be more convenient for the phone circuit.



741 Preamplifier

Integrated circuits have several stages of amplification, formed as a single chip and enclosed in a small case. The 741 is an easily obtained audio IC which can be used in many circuits. The uA741CE or metal can 741 is convenient, as its leads may be spaced to suit any ready perforated board. The dual in line 741 is electrically similar.

Fig. 38 shows a preamplifier using the metal can 741. Input is via C1 to 3. As shown, 7 and 4 are positive and negative, while output is from 6. Negative feedback is applied to 2, via R4. C3 is an isolating capacitor.



Modification to the values of R3 or R4 allow feedback and gain to be adjusted between quite wide limits, but for general purposes the values shown are satisfactory. A wide range of voltages (not exceeding 36v) may be used. The actual output is from a complementary pair, and is easily adequate for very good headphone volume, if required.

Fig. 38B shows assembly of the integrated circuit amplifier on a perforated board. For phone working, input and output need not be screened. But for preamplifier use before a main amplifier, these circuits need to be made by means of screened leads.

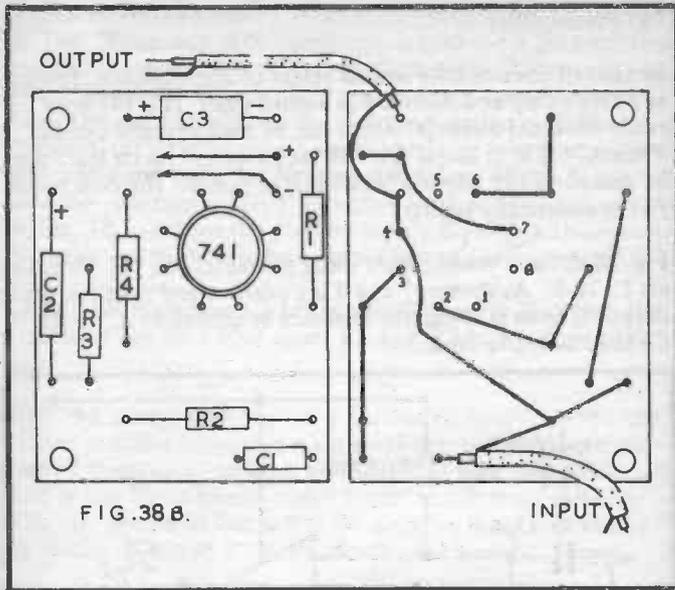


FIG. 38 B.

Lead 8 is identified as in Fig. 38. The wires are spread out slightly, to fit the board perforations. After inserting components as shown, turn the board over. Bend and solder the wires, cutting off excess length. Sleeving can be put on any connections which run very near other leads or soldered joints.

If the preamplifier is to be used as a separate unit, input and output leads may be run to jack sockets, or sockets to suit other items of equipment. A metal case is advised, as this will help to avoid any pick up of hum, or other troubles due to coupling to the board wiring. The board can be secured to the metal box or case with 1/2 inch 6ba bolts, and extra nuts to give a little clearance.

The amplifier may be run from its own battery; or from a supply used with a main amplifier. For the latter, it is wise to provide a decoupled point, in a similar manner to that described for the transistor preamplifier. This consists of a quite large capacitor (say 220 μ F to 470 μ F) from positive to negative across the preamplifier supply circuit, and a resistor of 1k to 2.2k or so from preamplifier positive to positive on the main amplifier.

Tone Control for Your Discs Etc.

The preamplifiers shown have a substantially flat response. That is, they do not purposely emphasize bass or treble, or have similar effects in modifying the audio frequencies present. In some circumstances it is necessary to boost treble or bass, or reduce the emphasis of these frequencies, in order to obtain the most satisfactory reproduction.

This may be achieved by making a fully adjustable tone control, and Fig. 39 is a suitable circuit. A volume control is also incorporated, as this has not been present in the preamplifiers.

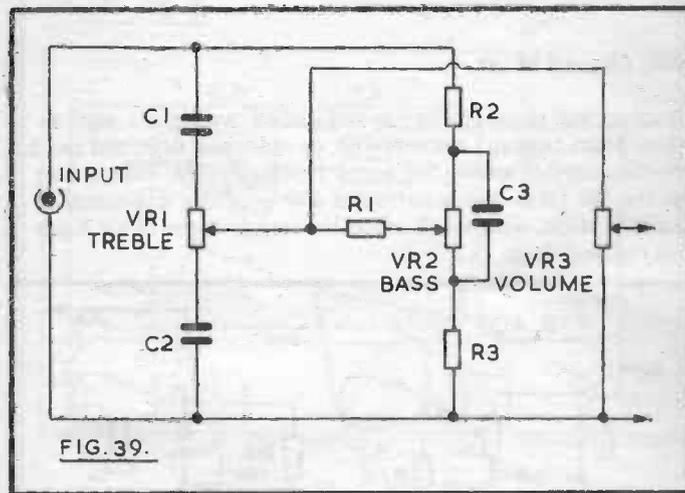


FIG. 39.

The tone control is a passive circuit, needing no battery, and it can be placed between the source of audio signals (generally a microphone, pick-up, or radio tuner) and the amplifier or preamplifier. It may also be located between preamplifier and main amplifier, if wished.

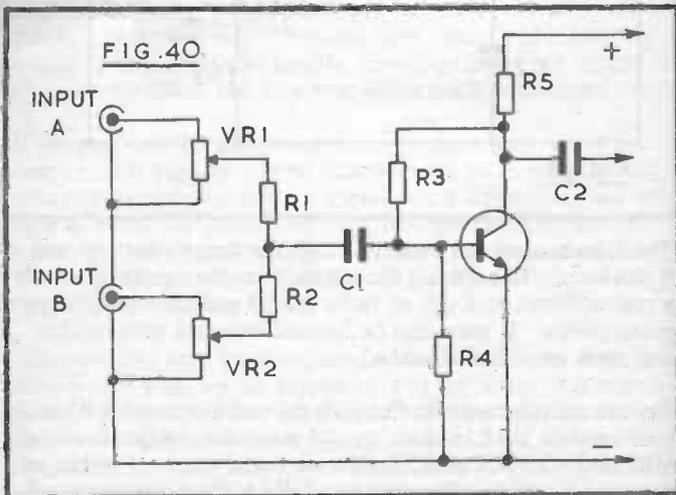
Results are substantially flat with the treble control VR1 and base control VR2 in their central positions. Adjustment of VR1 and VR2 will provide separate boost or cut of treble, or boost or cut of bass frequencies. VR3 is the volume control.

The degree of control afforded by circuits of this type may be adjusted by alterations to the component values. In practice, it will be found that there is little point in having extreme levels of adjustment, which will never be required. The following values may be used: C1 and C2, 270pF; R1, 390k; R2 and R3, 100k; C3 680pF; VR1 and VR2, 2 megohm linear potentiometers; VR3, 2 megohm log potentiometer.

Components should be assembled in a metal case, for screening. The case is grounded to the earth line. Input and output sockets can be near the ends of the case, with VR1, VR2 and VR3 between. Components can be soldered directly to the potentiometer tags.

Two Channel Mixer

A mixer will permit fading in and out of two signals, such as these from tape and microphone, or radio and disc, and can be of considerable utility for home entertainment. The mixer in Fig. 40 takes two inputs, and also provides additional amplification, which will often be useful where input levels are not very high.



Input A has its individual volume control VR1, and Input B is similarly provided with VR2. Resistors R1 and R2 prevent short circuiting one input when the other potentiometer is set at zero. Coupling to the transistor base is by C1. R3 and R4 set base bias conditions, with R5 as the collector load and audio output from C2.

Component values are not very critical, though R3, R4 and R5 need to be selected to suit the transistor fitted. The mixer is connected and used in a similar way to that explained for the preamplifiers.

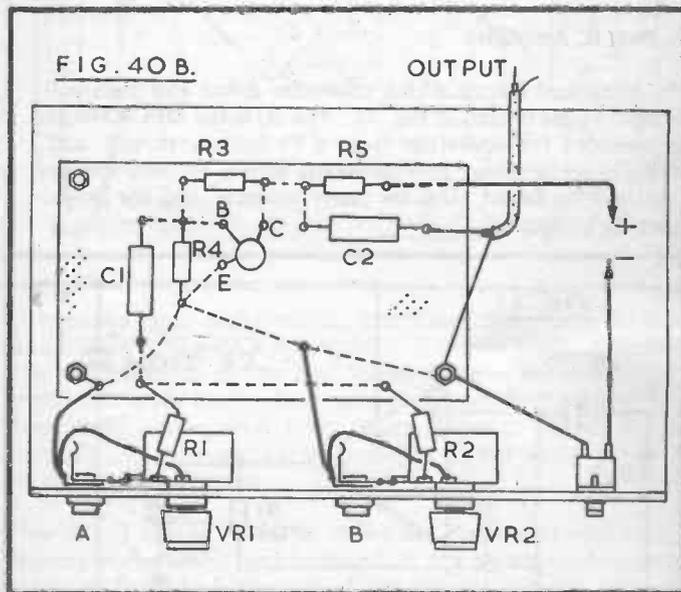


Fig. 40B is the layout, using a metal case or box. A screened output lead is provided. Input sockets A and B may be chosen to suit the type of plugs on existing equipment. The on-off switch is separate from the potentiometers, so that these can be left at pre-set levels if wished.

Component values may be chosen to suit low or high impedance inputs, if wished. Or the following may be used for general purposes:

Components List:

VR1, VR2, 1 megohm log potentiometers.

R1, R2, 200k

C1 0.5 μ F

C2 0.5 μ F

R3 330k

BC109

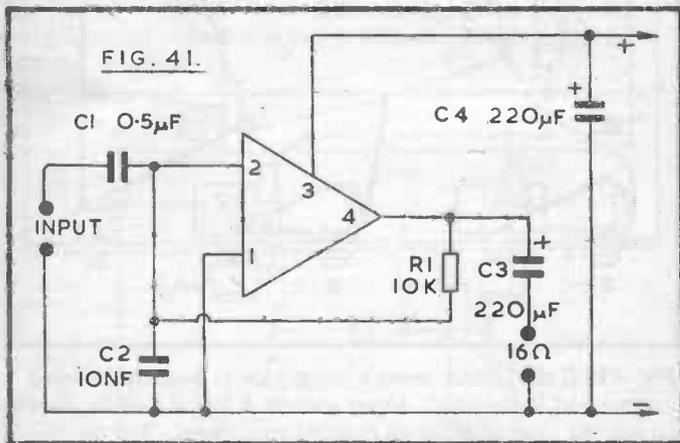
R4 22k

R5 10k

This is when using a 9v supply.

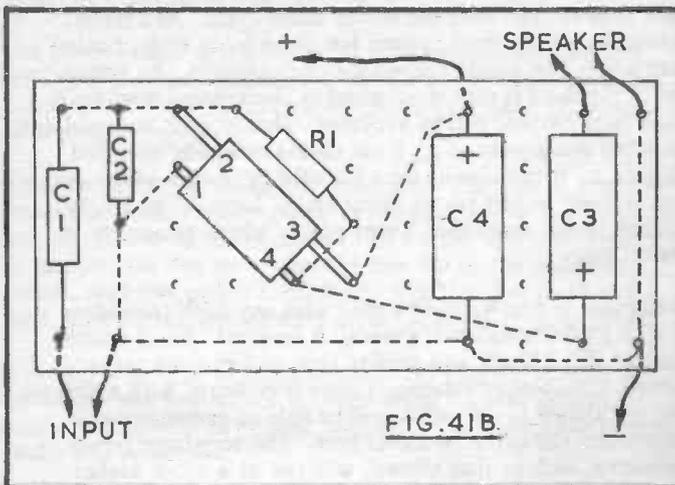
¼ Watt IC Amplifier

An integrated circuit which combines driver and push-pull output stages is used in Fig. 41. The IC is the MFC400B and is intended for operation from a 9v battery supply, and delivers up to about 250 milliwatts into a 16 ohm speaker. This will be found ideal for many projects, and for loud-speaker reception.



Audio input is to 2 of the IC, from the isolating capacitor C1. C2 is a by-pass capacitor to maintain stability. The IC has only four connections, 1 going to the negative line, and 3 to the positive supply. Audio output is from 4, and to the loudspeaker via C3. R1 provides negative feedback and bias to point 2.

The assembly of this amplifier on 0.15 inch matrix board is shown in Fig. 41B. Pin numbering is when looking at the top of the IC and the component side of the board.



A screened input circuit will be found necessary when the IC amplifier is used with a preamplifier or similar items. Connect the outer brading of this lead to the negative line, and the inner conductor to C1. Such screening is not necessary with very short connections from other stages to the IC amplifier, or when using it to amplify a crystal diode radio, or for similar purposes.

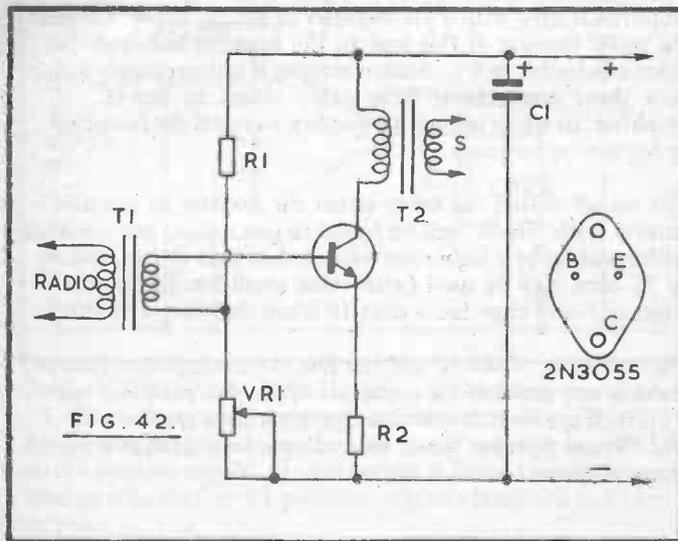
The on-off switch can be in either the positive or negative battery lead. The IC will be found to give a good performance with speakers of a higher impedance than that shown, and up to 75 ohm may be used (with some small loss in output). Units of lower impedance than 16 ohms should not be fitted.

The small size of this IC and the few extra components needed make is very suitable for miniature apparatus, probably with a 2½ inch speaker. It will also operate a large speaker well (see "Boost Speaker") and at a volume level adequate for many purposes.

Class A Amplifier

A Class A amplifier uses a single transistor, Fig. 42, which must thus operate over the whole audio cycle. As a result, the resting or no-signal current has to be fairly high, if other than a very low power output is to be obtained. An amplifier of this kind is thus most usual in circumstances where a fairly large current will be available. That is, with accumulator operated equipment (e.g., a car radio) or mains operated amplifiers. It can also be used for other purposes where operation is more or less on an intermittent basis (as in a Loud Hailer), or for somewhat lower power where simplicity is important.

The circuit in Fig. 42 can be used with any NPN transistor, or with PNP transistors if polarity is reversed. Small transistors of the 300mW and similar type will provide rather modest loudspeaker volume. Larger transistors, with a dissipation of 500mW to 1W or so, will be able to give reasonable power, and can often be useful here. The very large power transistor, such as that shown, will run at a much higher current level, and deliver several watts output.



T1 is the coupling or driver transformer, which may receive audio signals from a radio receiver, smaller amplifier, or other equipment. A step down ratio of about 5:1 to 10:1 will generally prove to be suitable.

For smaller Class A amplifiers, T1 may be omitted. R1 and VR1 may then be of about 1k, and the audio signal can be coupled to the transistor base by means of a fixed capacitor, as in earlier circuits.

T2 is the output or speaker transformer. This can be omitted when the speaker is of suitable impedance, and is able to carry the required collector current. This means that a 75 ohm or similar unit can be connected directly in the collector circuit, with low power transistors. If a 2/3 ohm speaker is used, then T2 is required with these for impedance matching.

With the large type of transistor, current may be 500mA to 1A or so, and this means that the usual speaker cannot be connected directly in circuit. Instead, a transformer or tapped choke will be needed.

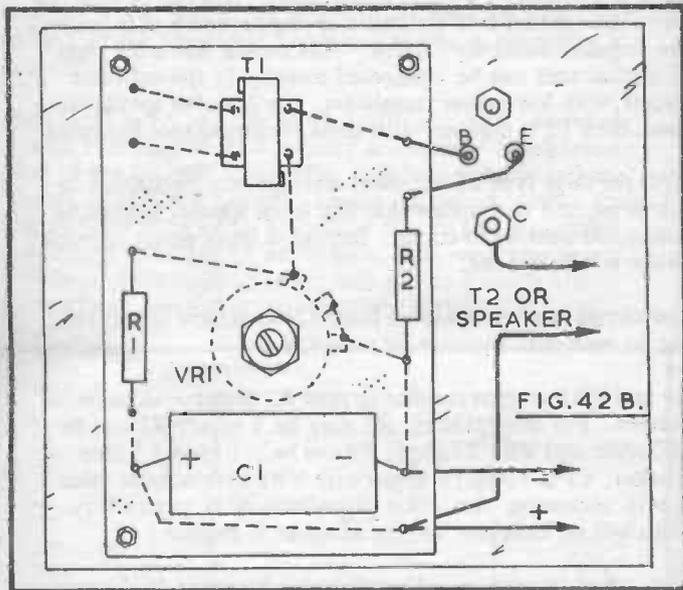
The circuit is often operated from 12v (a vehicle supply) but can be used with 9v, or more than 12v.

R1 and VR1 set bias conditions, and R2 limits peak collector current. For the 2N3055, R2 may be 1 ohm. R1 can be 100 ohm, and VR1 25 ohm. T2 can be 2:1 for a 3.5 ohm speaker. C1 is 3200 μ F. Begin with VR1 at minimum value, slowly increasing this until reproduction is satisfactory. (This will set collector current at about 1/2 ampere.)

With other transistors, adjustment can be made in the same way, by slowly increasing the base bias until best results are secured. Raising the value of VR1 in Fig. 42, or reducing the value of R1, will increase collector current, and thus raise the power which can be handled. However, current is limited by the power handling capacity of the transistor, so a meter should be put in one battery lead, and a check made that the power dissipation of the transistor is not exceeded. With small transistors, current can be limited to 50mA or so.

Fig. 42B shows assembly of the circuit in Fig. 42. The power

transistor is mounted on an aluminium plate, which acts as a heat sink to carry away heat from the transistor itself. Note that this plate is common to the collector. Base and Emitter pins pass through clearance holes. Smooth off any burr round the fixing and clearance holes, so that the transistor can rest flat on the metal. Where it is awkward to have the plate or case common to the collector, the usual insulation set can be fitted. This consists of bushes for the fixing bolts, and a thin mica washer to go under the transistor, so that electrical isolation is obtained.

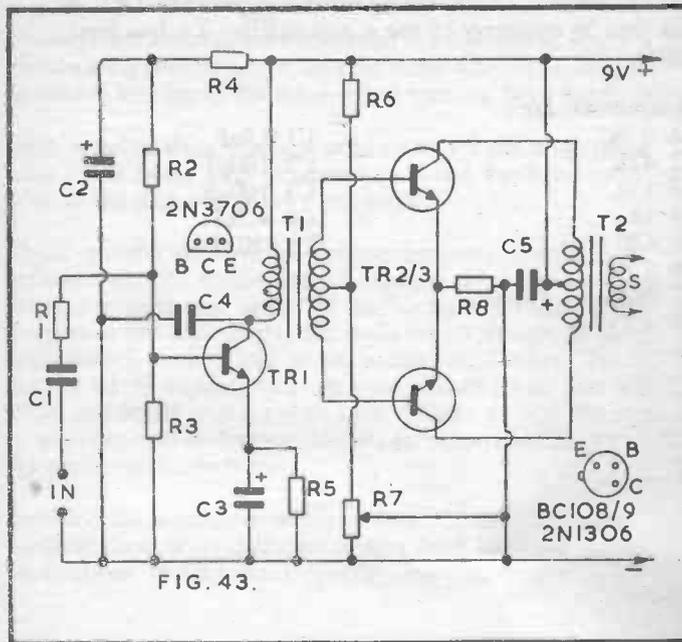


The insulated board carrying the other components is mounted by long bolts with extra nuts. A large Class A stage transistor of this type will grow very warm to the touch, if run at anything like maximum power rating. This does not indicate any defect.

Two Stage Amplifier

The circuit of a 2-stage amplifier is shown in Fig. 43, and this can be used for loudspeaker reproduction. Input to the driver

stage is by the isolating capacitor C1. Operating conditions in this stage depend largely on the values of R2, R3, and the emitter bias resistor R5.



T1 is the driver transformer, with centre tapped secondary, so that TR2/3 may be operated in push-pull (see Fig. 12). T2 couples output to a 2/3 ohm speaker.

With the values shown, a BC109 will give very good results in the TR1 position, with 2 x BC108s for the output stage. R7 is set so that battery current is around 10mA, with no signal present. Current rises from 20mA to 60mA or so, according to volume, when the amplifier is driven.

A pair of 2N1306 transistors may be used for the output stage. Other transistors are also possible here, as operating conditions can be adjusted by R7.

The 2N3706 will operate in the TR1 position, though with

lower gain than the BC109. Numerous other small audio transistors can also be used here.

For full volume, a fairly strong input is required to TR1. It will thus be necessary to use a preamplifier, for low level signals.

Components List:

R1 3.3k
R2 47k
R3 15k
R4 1k
R5 680 ohm
R6 2.7k
R7 500 ohm pre-set
R8 4.7 ohm

C1 0.5 μ F
C2 100 μ F
C3 100 μ F
C4 4.7nF
C5 470 μ F

SECTION 4 POWER SUPPLIES

Mains power supplies are convenient for equipment which will receive long periods of use, and for items where the current needed is too heavy for economical running from batteries.

Such supplies should be operated from a 3-pin plug, fitted with a low rating fuse. Connect L, N and Earth correctly, both at the plug and at the equipment.

Those circuits where mains voltages are present must be so arranged that no shocks can be experienced. Mains voltage circuits include any means of anchoring the mains conductors in the equipment, the main on-off switch (if used), and primary connections of the mains transformer. Enclosing the whole equipment in an insulated or metal case will avoid accidental contact with such circuits or with the tags of switches or transformer. If the case is metal, earth it by the mains earth conductor.

Provided the secondary or low voltage circuit is correctly earthed, there is normally no danger from handling these connections, or equipment operated from the supply.

Easy PSU

A useful power supply suitable for many purposes can use the circuit in Fig. 44. Mains L (live) and N (neutral) conductors go to the primary P of the transformer. A switch is placed in the L circuit.

The secondary S can deliver any wanted low voltage, and also give isolation from the mains.

Almost all equipment will need direct current. The four separate rectifiers, or an equivalent single device, produce pulsating DC. The reservoir capacitor C1 smoothes this. Resistor R1, with the second capacitor C2, gives additional smoothing. Output from the supply is then substantially smooth DC, as would be obtained from a battery.

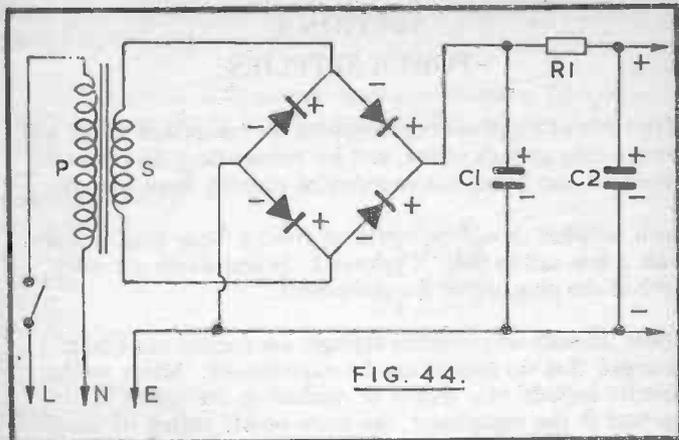


FIG. 44.

Sometimes $R1$ and $C2$ are omitted. Should hum accompany reproduction from an amplifier, this shows that smoothing is probably inadequate, and if so the cure is to add $R1$ and $C2$.

Any wanted voltage can be obtained by using a transformer with an appropriate secondary, with rectifiers and capacitors to suit.

$C1$ may charge up to approximately 1.4 times the RMS or usual voltage rating of the secondary S . Thus, if S were a 6.3v winding, about 8.8v would be expected across $C1$. But should $R1$ be present, a voltage drop will arise in it, the figure depending on the resistance value of $R1$, and current flowing.

For these reasons, the actual output may not be exactly the figure expected. This will often be unimportant, and such power supplies are largely used for all sorts of equipment.

For apparatus generally operated from a 9v or similar battery, a bell transformer with 3v, 5v and 8v output tapplings is suitable. If $R1$ is 22 ohm, this will give around 9v at 100mA, with the 8v tap in use.

It is convenient to use 50v or 100v rectifiers, and the rating can be 1 ampere, with a 1 ampere transformer secondary. Four individual wire ended rectifiers can be mounted on a

tag strip, and connected as in Fig. 44. A combined rectifier will have AC, positive, and negative tags (see Fig. 45) and can be fitted instead.

The capacitors need to be of large value, and have a voltage rating higher than the actual voltage which will be present. The 12v capacitors could be fitted in the circuit described. $C1$ can be 2500 μ F or larger, and $C2$ can be of similar value.

Easy Regulated PSU

With the circuit in Fig. 44, the exact voltage will depend on the current drawn, rising when current is low. To avoid this, some means of regulation may be employed.

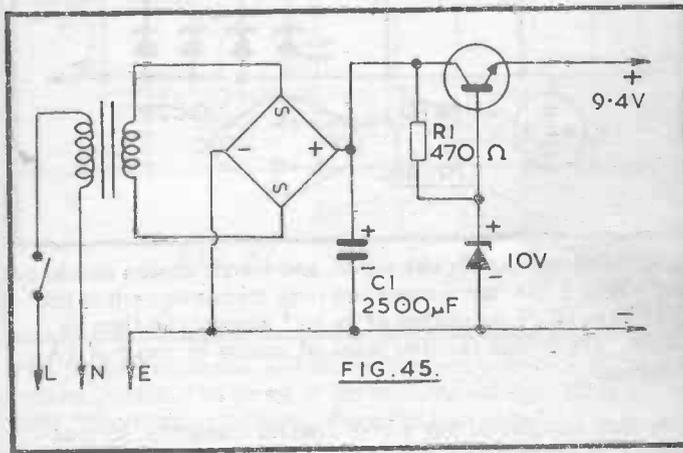
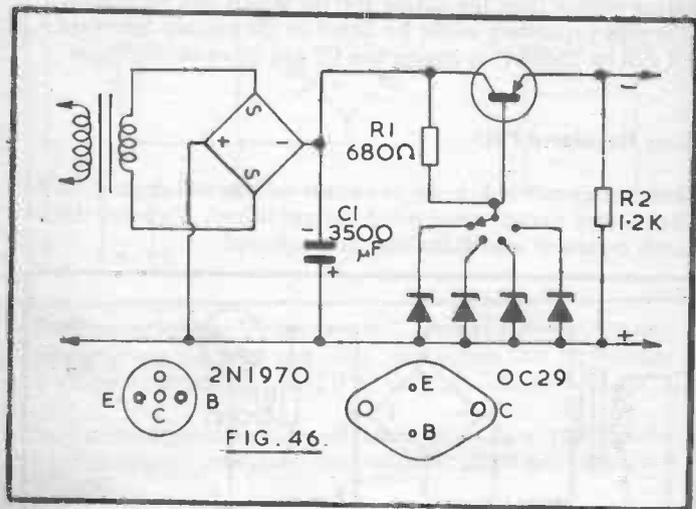


FIG. 45.

Fig. 45 shows a typical regulation circuit, giving an output of approximately 9.4v. The output from the rectifier needs to be of somewhat higher voltage than required at the output, and a transformer with a 10v secondary is suitable. Current through $R1$ supplies the Zener diode, which holds the base of the transistor at virtually the same voltage for all current loads. Some voltage is lost in the transistor, so the output is nearly the same, for any current load. For up to about 200mA, a BFY51 or equivalent transistor is adequate, so this will do well for many purposes.

Multi-Voltage Regulated PSU

Fig. 46 is a somewhat similar circuit, but it has a switch, to select any one of the four Zener diodes. These may be chosen so that 6v, 9v, 12v and 15v will be available.



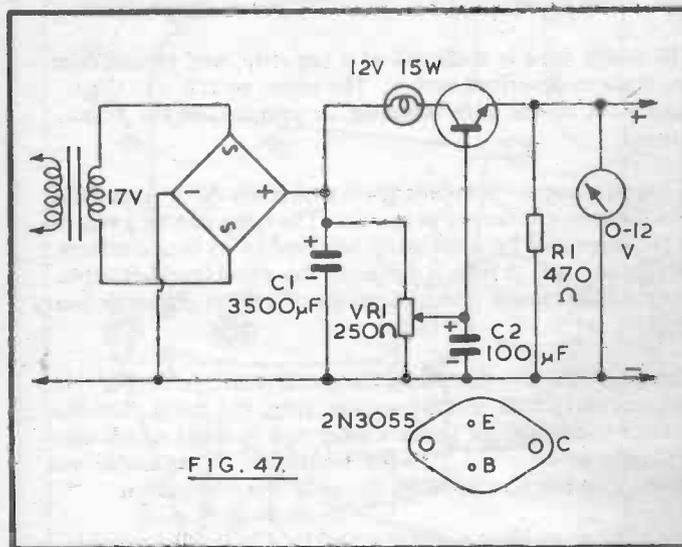
R1 supplies current for any diode, and 1 watt diodes should be used. With a 24v transformer and large transistor such as the 2N1970 or OC29, an output of up to 1 ampere can then be drawn. The bridge rectifier must of course be rated at 1A or higher.

Note that this circuit has a PNP control transistor, so that polarity is obtained as shown. (Compare with the NPN transistor in the previous circuit.) However, either positive or negative can be grounded, and a separate earth terminal can be provided to allow this. A flying lead is placed between earth terminal and positive, or earth and negative, as required. The permanent negative earth connection shown in Fig. 45 must of course then be omitted.

More details of actual construction will be found later.

One Transistor Adjustable PSU

Fig. 47 is the circuit of a simple power supply unit which can be set to provide any output from zero to 12 volts. The transformer has a 17v secondary, rated at 1 ampere or higher. After rectification, DC is obtained from the reservoir capacitor C1.



VR1 is panel mounted, and allows the base potential of the control transistor to be set at the required voltage. C2 provides "electronic smoothing" from the base circuit.

The 12 volt 15 watt bulb is for short circuit protection. With relatively low currents, little voltage is lost here. But if a short circuit arises in the output circuit, current is limited to a little over 1A by the bulb. This reduces the chances of any damage due to temporary shorts in leads or equipment.

R1 is a bleeder resistor, drawing some current even when no external load is connected. The meter is the usual high resistance type, scaled from zero to 12v. VR1 is adjusted until this instrument shows the wanted voltage.

The regulation of this supply is not so good as that of supplies using a number of transistors. But it will be found suitable for all ordinary purposes, and to supply power for circuits in this book, as only a small change in voltage arises, with changes to the load, or current drawn.

Fig. 47B shows practical construction of this PSU. A similar layout can be adopted for the other power supply units.

The mains cord is anchored at a tag strip, and connections are made as described earlier. The mains switch is in the L conductor to the 240v winding, or primary, of the transformer.

A tag strip supports the rectifier, which has AC (~), positive and negative connected as shown. The lamp can be a vehicle type, supported by stout wires soldered to its base contacts, or side and tip. A hole is drilled in the panel level with this lamp, so that it will give indications of a short circuit or heavy load.

The transistor is mounted on the metal panel, to enable this to carry away heat, but is insulated from the metal. Use the correct insulation set (mica washer and bushes) which can generally be obtained with the transistor. A tag under one of the securing nuts provides the collector connection.

For voltage readings, a meter scaled 0-12v is most suitable. Or a 1mA meter, with 12k 1% series resistor, may be used. If so, a new scale, marked 0-12, can be drawn for it.

A 3 watt linear potentiometer is used. Earth and negative are connected to the metal panel, for equipment with a negative ground line. The positive output terminal or socket is insulated from the metal.

The case can be metal, or wood. It should have a few ventilation holes. The transistor can be expected to run quite warm, at maximum current. Heating here rises as the output voltage is reduced by VR1, as in these circumstances more voltage is dropped in the transistor.

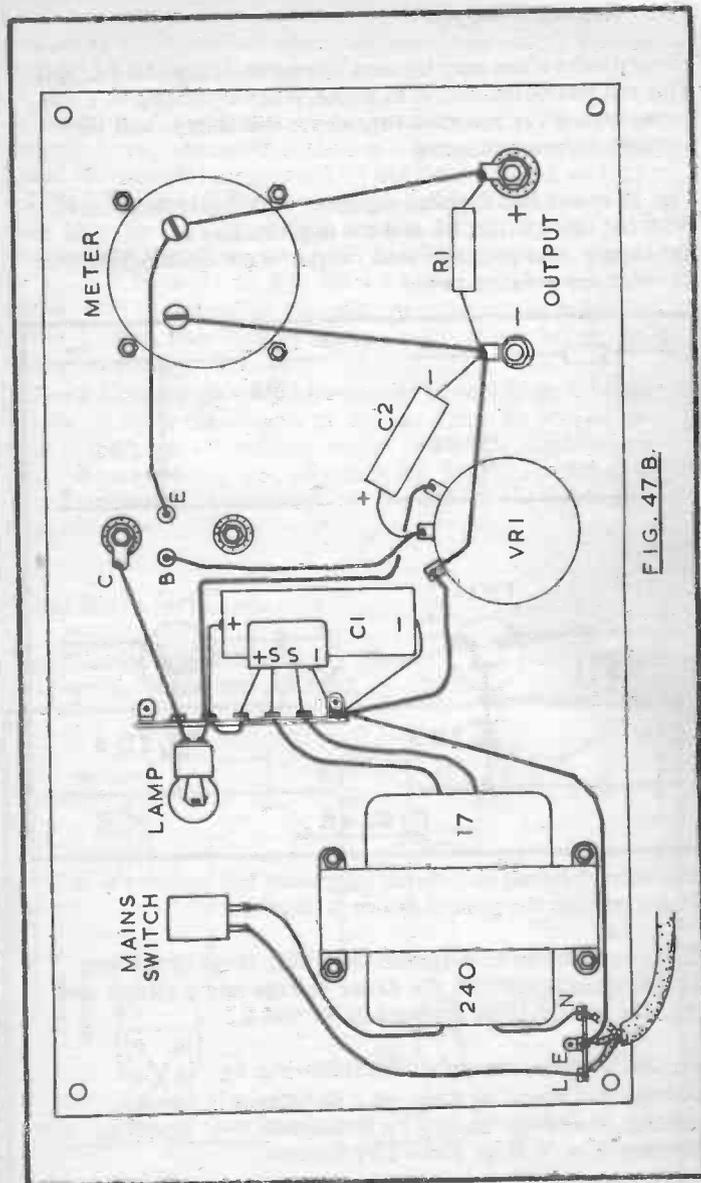
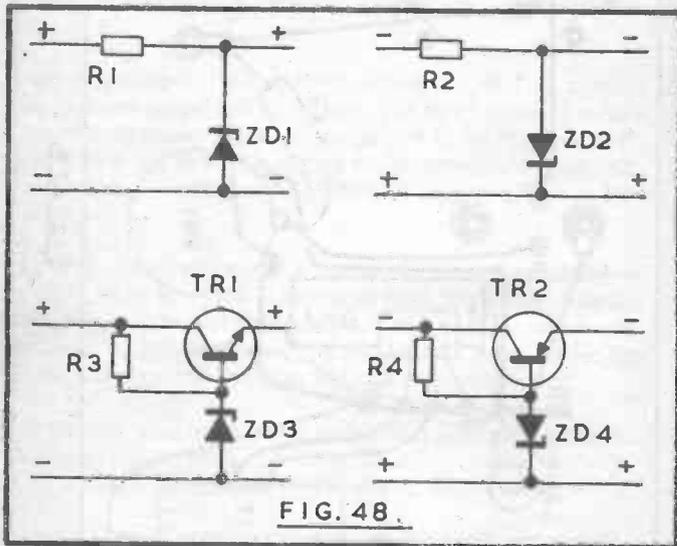


FIG. 47B.

Zener Regulated Supply

Zener diodes alone may be used to provide a regulated supply. This can be convenient, as example, when operating 9v equipment from a car accumulator, where the voltage will vary somewhat during charging.

Fig. 48 shows two supplies regulated by a Zener diode only. With the first circuit, R1 and the negative line are taken to the supply, and the regulated output is obtained across the Zener in the polarity shown.



The second circuit is virtually the same, but polarity is reversed, so that the ground return is positive.

These circuits can be prepared for a wide range of voltages, by taking into account the Zener voltage and wattage, and thus the voltage to be dropped in R1 and R2.

For calculations, remember the following:

Voltage = Current in Amperes \times Resistance in Ohms.

Current = Voltage divided by Resistance.

Resistance = Voltage divided by Current.

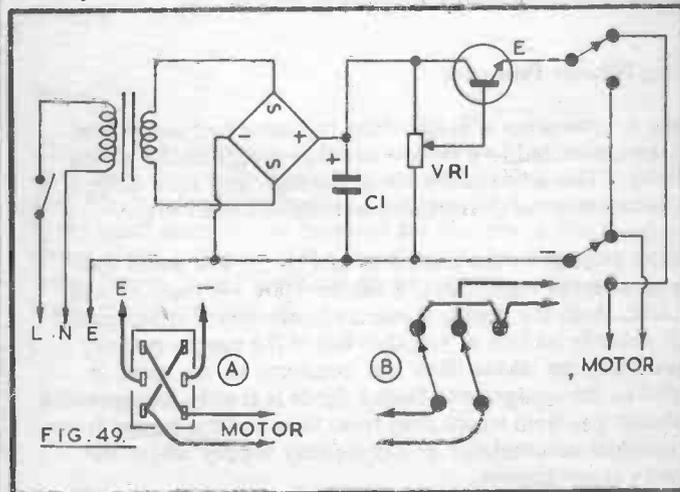
The units employed are ohms, amperes, and volts. Wattage may be found from Voltage \times Current.

Select R1 or R2 so that the wattage rating of the Zener is not exceeded, with the smallest current ever to be drawn by the load. As example, suppose a 7.5v output is wanted, so that a $1\frac{1}{2}w$ 7.5v Zener is fitted. Approximately 200mA may thus flow through the Zener, if no current is taken by the load. Suppose the supply is up to 15v. It will be necessary to drop or waste 7.5v in R1 or R2. So a 42 ohm resistor may be fitted, with a little safety latitude. Any current from zero to about 150mA may then be drawn, without any important change in voltage.

Where a Zener diode would have to be of very large wattage, it may be more convenient to use the Zener to control the base potential of a transistor, as also shown for negative and positive earths in Fig. 48. (See also Fig. 45.) R3 or R4 then only need provide a relatively low current for the Zener and transistor base.

Motor PSU with Reverse

Fig. 49 is the circuit of a supply for model motors, and giving both speed control and reversing.



A transformer with a 12v secondary will be suitable for the usual model requiring up to 12v. The circuit is similar to that of the supply in Fig. 47. The potentiometer VR1 gives speed control. C1 can be around $2,000\mu\text{F}$.

"A" is one type of ready-made switch, and it can be obtained with a central off position. "B" shows a home-built switch, similar to that described in Fig. 5. The switch must not short circuit the supply when changing over polarity, and one with central off is recommended.

Motors reversed in this way must be of the permanent magnet type, in which a change of polarity causes the armature to run in the opposite direction. Train and many other model motors are of this construction. Motors with a wound field will not be reversed by changing the polarity of supply.

A controller of this kind should be constructed as shown earlier, so that it is safe to use, and so that no joints in the mains circuits can be touched.

Earthing can only be omitted when a double-insulated transformer, of the type specifically made to avoid any need for earthing, has been used. The whole controller should be so constructed that, even if a fault develops, mains voltages cannot reach the secondary circuit or model.

Wrong Polarity Protector

There is sometimes a danger that transistorised equipment may be connected to a vehicle or other supply in the wrong polarity. This will usually cause damage, and may destroy the semiconductor devices, or electrolytic capacitors.

Adding a diode to the circuit as in Fig. 50 will avoid this. For most small equipment, a silicon 100v 1A rectifier will be ideal. With the supply connected correctly, current passes with virtually no loss of voltage. But if the supply polarity is reversed, the diode does not conduct, so no harm is caused to the equipment. Such a diode is readily incorporated in almost any item which may from time to time be run from an external accumulator or dry battery supply where the polarity is not known.

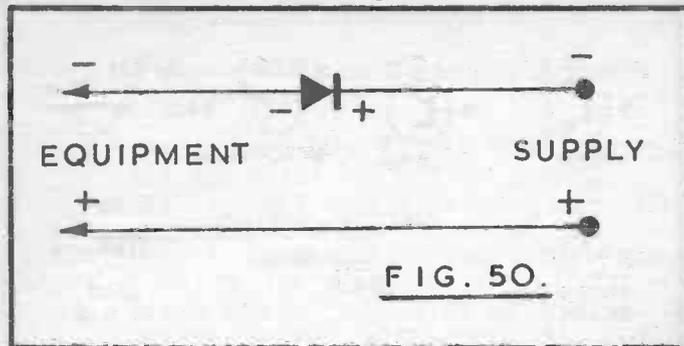


FIG. 50.

Component Tolerances

For circuits in this book, exact component values are generally not too important. Capacitor values such as 47nF ($0.047\mu\text{F}$) and $0.05\mu\text{F}$ may be regarded as interchangeable. In the same way, a $125\mu\text{F}$ capacitor may replace $100\mu\text{F}$, or $200\mu\text{F}$ can be used instead of $220\mu\text{F}$, and so on.

Resistors will generally be the standard 5% tolerance types. In some circuits exact resistor values are not at all critical. In others, and especially base, emitter and collector circuits, the values which provide best results can have much less latitude.

Bases

The lead-out positions of base, emitter and collector wires have been shown for typical transistors. However, it is felt that Fig. 51 should be useful. This gives lead information for types most likely to be required for circuits in this book. Other types of transistors may of course be used successfully, but it is not practical to list all these, or show connections for them all.

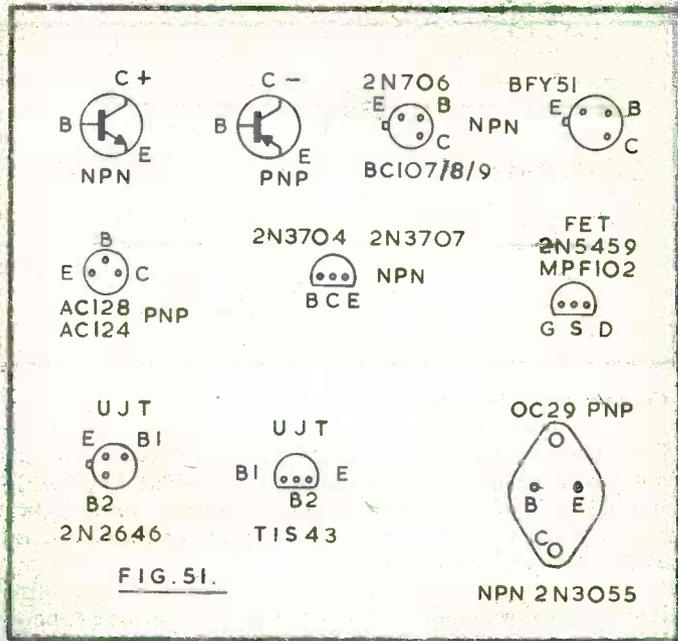


FIG. 51.

EQUIVALENT SEMICONDUCTORS

To help our overseas readers the following list of possible equivalents is shown below:—

- AC128** CV9778, OC74-318, NKT281, 2N467, 2SB222-415, AC117-124-153, GET110, NKT302, SFT232, 2N659-1373-1384-1926-2001-2431-4106, 2SB370, SK3004, RS276-2005.
- AC128 PNP** CV9475, NKT243, ACZ10, 2N652-2303-2801.
- AF117** 2N642, 2SA155, AF102-105-127-133-137, BFX48, BSW19-73, GM1213B, NKT603F, SFT354, SK3006, 2N2273-2635-3324-4916-5354, RS276-2003.
- BC107** CV9780, AM251, BC147-167-207-317, MPS6566, SK3020-3122, ZTX107, TT107, RS276-2009.
- BC108** CV10541, AM252, BC148-168-208-318, MPS6520, SK3020, ZTX108, TT108, RS276-2009.
- BC109** CV10769-10806, AM253, BC149-169-209-319, MPS6521, SK3020, ZTX109, TT109, RS276-2009.
- BC147** BC171-182/L-207-317, MPS6566, SK3020, RS276-2013.
- BC148** BC172-183/L-208-318, MPS6520, SK3020, RS276-2009.
- BC149** BC184/L-209-173-319, MPS6521, SK3020, RS276-2009.
- BF200** BF162-173-225-271-311-314, SE5020/1/2/3/4, SK3018, 2N616-2708-3288-3693, RS276-2011.
- BFY51** CV7723-7726-10827-11238, BFX51-68A, BFR19, BSX45/X, BSY46-85, SK3024, 40347, 2SC708, ME6102, 2N2193/4-2218-2410-3053-3252-4046, RS276-2009.
- BSY95A** CV7648-9379, BC108A, BSX51-73-91, BFX96, BSY20-58-62, ME9022, SK3122, 2SC321, 2N744-914-1708-2218-2369-5187, RS276-2011.
- MPF102** E305, SK3116.
- OA81** AA117-118-132-144, AAZ15, OA91-95-161, SD38, 1N38-56-476-618, 1S33.
- OC26** CV8560, NKT452, 2N257-297-458-553-1021, 2SB3, AD130-131-138-140-149, OC28, SK3009, TF80, T1156-3027, 2N174-1073-2870-RS276-2006.

- OC29 CV7083-8356, NKT402, 2N457, 2SB85-425, AD150, ASZ16, ADY21, OC28-35-36, SK3009, T13028, 2N174-1073-2870, RS276-2006.
- OC44 CV5710-7003, OC170-171-410-613, 2N1303, 2SA15, AF101-117-126, ASY55, AC191, BC126, NKT211, SKT358, SK3005, 2N36-1191/2-1352-1373-1384, RS276-2003.
- OC70 CV5457, OC303-602, NKT214, 2N279-1305, 2SB75, AC122-125-151-163, ACY27-34, ASY27, BC213-206A, BSX36, SK3003, 2N1193-1352-1375-2429, RS276-2004.
- OC71 CV5712-7005-8344, OC70-304-604, NKT214, 2N280-1305, 2SB77, AC122-125-151-163, ACY35, BSX36, OC3041, SK3003, 2N1193-1352-1375-1384-2429, RS276-2004.
- OC72 AC122/3-125/6-131-151 IV-152-162-191, BC126-213-206A, NKT211, SFT353, 2N282-1190-1352-1371-1384-1991-2431, CV5713-7006-8440, RS276-2005.
- OC76 CV5714, OC307-6025, 2N284-1305, NKT212, 2SB82, AC128-131-151-152, ACY28, ASY58-76, BC126-213-260A, SK3004, 2N394-1191-1352-1371-1384-1991, RS276-2004.
- ORP12 RS276-116, LDR03, RPY25.
- 1N4001 BY127, EM502, RS276-1101/1135, 1S100.
- 1N4002 BY127, EM502, RS276-1102/1136, 1S100.
- 2N1306 CV7350-10686, NKT736, 2N634-635-636-1891-1993-1994-1995, ASY26-29, BSX19-20, RS276-2001.
- 2N1613 CV7440-8843, BFY33-34-67, BSY44, 2N698-699-717-1711-1889-1890-1893, BFY41, BSX45/6, BSY53, MPS6530, 2SC708, 2N2101.

N.B.: Although equivalent semiconductors may have similar electrical properties, physical dimensions may be different and this must be born in mind if space is tight and for mounting details. Remember polarities if replacing PNP with NPN types and vice versa. If in doubt always be advised by your dealer for suitable equivalent semiconductors.

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