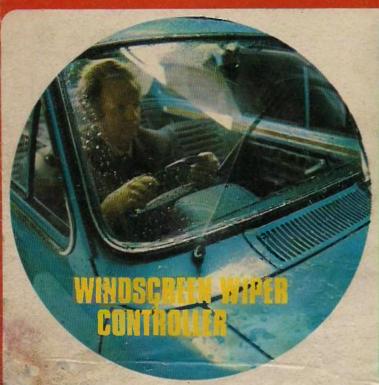
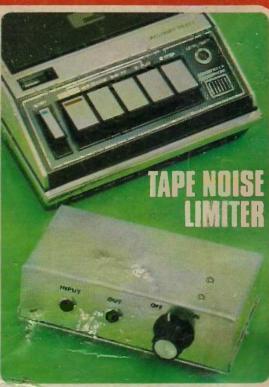
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* 24 Resistors * 21 Capacitors * 10 Transistors

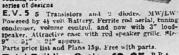
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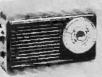
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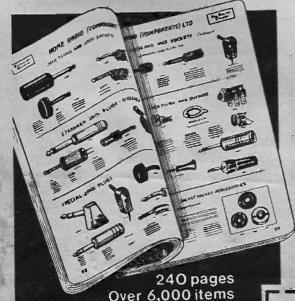
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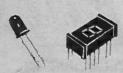
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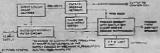
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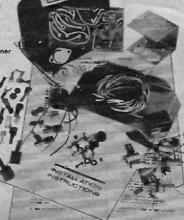
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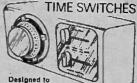


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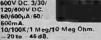
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U435 MULTIMETER

20,000 PM. Ranges: 75mW/2.5/10/25/10/25/100/25/0500/1000W DC. 25/10/25/100/ 250/500/1000W AC. Current: 50uA/1/5/ 25/100mA/0.5/2.5A DC. 5/25/100mA/0.5/2.5A DC. 5/25/100mA/0.5A DC. 5/25/100mA/0.5/2.5A DC. 5/25/100mA/0.5A DC. 5/25/100mA/0.5A

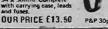
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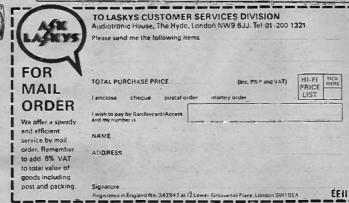
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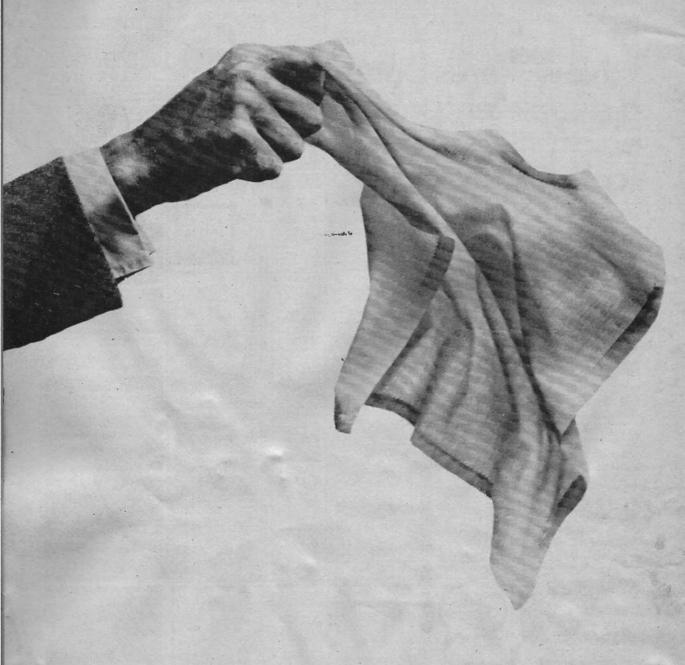
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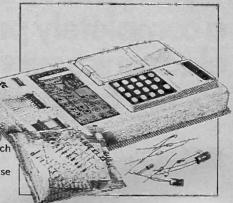
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- 1. Coil
- 2. LSI chip
- 3. Interface chips
- Case mouldings, with buttons, windows and light-up display in position
- 5. Printed circuit board
- 6. Keyboard panel
- Electronic components pack (diodes, resistors, capacitors, etc)
- 8. Battery assembly and on/off switch
- 9. Soft carrying wallet
- 10. Comprehensive instructions for use

Assembly time is about 3 hours.



Features of the Sinclair Scientific



- 12 functions on simple keyboard Basic logs and trig functions (and their inverses), all from a keyboard as simple as a normal arithmetic calculator's. 'Upper and lower case' operation means basic arithmetic keys each have two extra functions.
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PROJECTS. THEORY...

THE CONSTRUCTIONAL BUSINESS

Our business is to make the path easy for anyone who wishes to take up the hobby of building electronic projects. The designs we offer to the private constructor are simple and should present little difficulty even to the novice, since it is largely a question of just following the fully detailed diagrams which accompany the text.

The building of electronic circuits is no complicated operation, involving elaborate tools and

equipment. Quite the contrary, in fact.

Come to think of it, construction is perhaps not quite the ideal term to use in connection with electronics, for it usually conjures up visions of building operations conducted on the grand scale.

Bearing in mind the minute scale of components employed in electronics a rather more diminutive term might be appropriate to describe the more elegant operation of building, assembling, or putting together of an electronic circuit. But no suitable alternative comes to mind, so we are stuck with construction as the general and convenient term for describing this kind of operation.

All this is of no real consequence, except in as much as the word may help create a wrong impression, and distract from the delicate nature of the work involved in assembling an electronic circuit. Most seriously, it might cause newcomers to overlook one particular and special skill which does have to be applied in order to make a successful job in electronics, no matter how simple construction may seem, when viewed superficially.

THE ART OF SOLDERING

We are referring to soldering. Every electronic circuit depends upon soldered connections. The success or failure of a whole project rests in the quality of each joint made by the constructor. Thus in the final analysis it is the skill of the individual that determines the result obtained.

Soldering is a technique, perhaps better described as an art, which is fundamental to all practical work in electronics. Apart from the need for good soldering from a functional point of view, the overall appearance of the finished project is governed in large measure by the standard of this work. This is where the individual can shine and provide permanent proof of his ability as a craftsman with the soldering iron.

With present day small-size components, soldering is an exacting operation, and requires careful practice to acquire the necessary skill. We are devoting two and a half pages this month to this all important subject. Our advice to all newcomers is to master the art of soldering before tackling a complete project. Learn how to recognise a good joint and a dry joint and thus avoid disappointments and frustrations in those first attempts in the constructional business.

Fed Bennett.

Because of prevailing production problems, no firm publishing date can be announced for the December issue. Readers are advised to check regularly with their local supplier from mid-November onwards.

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EASY TO CONSTRUCT SIMPLY EXPLAINED



VOL. 3 NO. 11

NOVEMBER 1974

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By R.A. PENFOLD

Improve the performance of your cassette tape recorder with this inexpensive, ready to build device.

NEXPENSIVE portable cassette tape recorders are extremely popular, but suffer two main disadvantages when compared with reel to reel machines. They usually have only a rather limited output power, driving a small internal loudspeaker, and the noise level is rather high.

The first of these is easily overcome by connecting the unit to an amplifier having a higher output power, and driving a large loudspeaker during playback. The second cannot be entirely overcome, but a worthwhile improvement can be made by connecting the unit described in this article, between the output of the recorder, and the amplifier input.

PRINCIPLE OF OPERATION

Most of the noise encountered during playback consists of "tape hiss", or "tape noise" which it is also termed. This is at a comparatively high level due to the slow tape speed which must be used, in order to give a reasonable playing time from the limited length of tape which can be put into a cassette.

The noise consists mainly of very high frequencies, and the normal way to reduce it is to turn back the tone control, so as to reduce the treble response. This can reduce the hiss to a very low level, but of course, the high frequencies on the recording are largely lost.

One should bear in mind that the noise level of most of these recorders is about -40dB (one hundredth of the level of a fully modulated signal), which is not noticeable on loud passages, but is nearly as loud as the signal itself on quiet passages.

Therefore, if a device were connected between the recorder and the amplifier, which reduced the treble response of the set on low level signals, but gave no treble cut on strong signals, a much improved signal would be obtained.

On low level signals the treble cut would reduce the annoying tape hiss, and on high level

signals where this would not be noticed, the full response of the equipment would be available. This is the principle on which this circuit operates.

CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

A circuit diagram of the unit is shown in Fig. 1. Resistors R1 and R2 form a potential divider across the supply, and produce a low voltage supply for the field effect transistor, TR1. With only a small supply potential such as this, the d-s connections of the f.e.t. act as a simple resistor. With the gate terminal tied to earth via R4, its resistance is very low, at about 100 ohms, or even less.

Resistor R3, together with the d-s resistance of TR1, R5, and C3, forms an attenuator. The basic circuit of an attenuator is shown in Fig. 2 (a).

If one ignores the impedances of the circuits connected at the input and output, the mathematics of the attenuator is very simple. For instance, if both resistors (R_h, R_h) had a value of 1 kilohm, the attenuation factor would be (1+1)/1=2 (i.e. every two volts at the input produces one across the output). Another way of looking at it is to invert the formula, and this gives the output as a fraction of the input (1_2) in this case).

Shown in Fig. 2(b) is the effective circuit of the attenuator in the Tape Noise Limiter. This is slightly more complicated, but operates in the



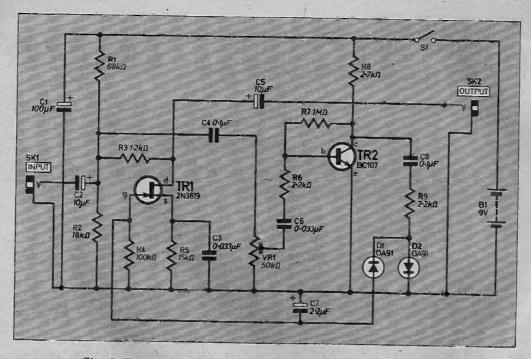


Fig. 1. The complete circuit diagram of the Tape Noise Limiter.

same manner. The main complication is C3, as its reactance (its resistance to a.c.) varies with frequency. As is shown in Fig. 2(b), it has a reactance of approximately 50 kilohms at 100Hz, but of only approximately 500 ohms at 10kHz.

This means that the attenuation factor of the circuit changes with frequency. If one calculates the attenuation factor of the circuit at 100Hz, and 1kHz, it will be found to be a little over one, which is barely noticeable.

If it is calculated for 10kHz, it will be found to be almost exactly three, which is of course considerable, and will increase still further at high frequencies. This gives the required treble cut.

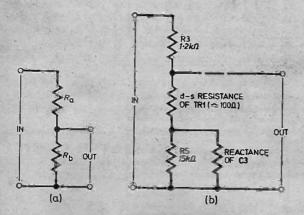


Fig. 2(a). Circuit of a simple attenuator where attenuation factor is defined by $(R_a + R_b)/R_b$ and (b) the circuit of the attenuator in the noise limiter.

Some of the input signal is fed via C4, VR1, C6, and R6, to the base of TR2. This is a high gain common emitter amplifier, and the amplified signal is fed from TR2 collector, via C8 and R9, to a voltage doubling rectifier circuit, D1, D2, and C7. The resultant negative d.c. bias is fed to the gate of TR1.

On low level signals, this bias voltage will have little or no effect, but on strong signals it will be large enough to cause the resistance of TR1 to be greatly increased, to as much as a few megohms. Components C3 and R5 are virtually switched out of circuit, and the treble cut is thus removed.

The tape hiss is less noticeable in the presence of high frequencies, than in the presence of low or middle frequencies; C4, C6, and C8 are given rather low values, so that the circuit responds more readily to high frequencies.

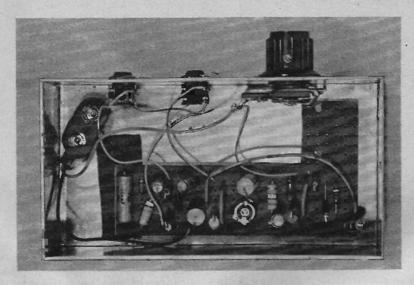
Capacitor C2 is the input coupling capacitor, and C5 the output coupling capacitor; C1 is the supply decoupling capacitor. Power is derived from a 9 volt battery (PP3) via on/off switch S1.

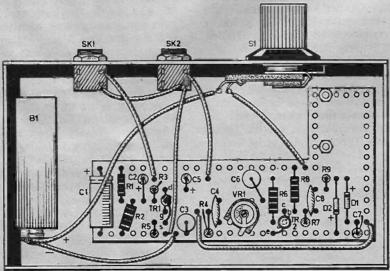
CASE

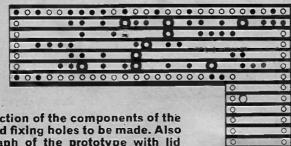
The unit is housed in a commercially available aluminium case type AB7 measuring 135×75×40mm, which has a removeable lid; the box is used upside down, and the lid becomes the base.

One of the 135×40mm sides is used as the front panel, and this should be drilled as indicated in Fig. 3 and components SK1, SK2, and S1 mounted in position as shown.

TAPE OSE LIMITER







Components....

Resistors

All 1 watt carbon 10%

Potentiometer

VR1 50kΩ sub-miniature preset, horizontal type

Capacitors

C1 100µF elect. 10V C2 10µF elect. 10V C3 0.033µF

C4 0.1µF

C5 10µF elect. 10V C6 0.033µF

C7 2.2 F elect. 10V

C8 0-1"F

Semiconductors

TR1 2N3819 n channel f.e.t. TR2 BC107 silicon npn D1, D2 OA91 (2 off)

Miscellaneous

B1 PP3 9V battery SK1, 2 3-5mm Jack socket (2 off) S1 s.p.s.t. rotary switch

Veroboard: 0-15in. matrix (see Fig. 3); battery clips for PP3; aluminium case 135 × 70 > 40mm with removeable lid, type AB7; control knob; connecting wire; 6BA fixings.

COMPONENT PANEL

The components are accommodated on a piece of 0.15in. matrix Veroboard and are positioned as detailed in Fig. 3. Begin construction by cutting the board to shape and making the breaks along the underside as shown. Drill the two 6BA clearance holes (No. 31 drill) for mounting purposes.

The board is to be mounted along the inside of the top of the case. Use the board as a template and mark the positions of the mounting holes on the case, and then drill these, again

using a No. 31 drill.

Now position and solder the components to the Veroboard as detailed in Fig. 3. Leave the transistors and link wire until last. The link

should be made with insulated wire.

Solder the negative battery lead to the board and then solder all the flying leads to the board; the leads should be about 70mm long insulated wire. The board should now be mounted in the case by means of two 12mm long 6BA nuts and bolts. Metal spacers about 6mm long should be

interposed between board and case to eliminate possibility of short circuiting between the two. If necessary some insulation tape can be placed along inside top of the case as well.

Finally, wire up the flying leads to the case mounted components as shown in Fig. 3.

There is a space for the battery on the extreme left hand side of the case. Some foam rubber can be glued to the base plate opposite the battery, so that it is firmly held in place when the base plate is screwed into position.

ADJUSTMENT AND USE

Most cassette recorders have a 3.5mm jack socket at the output; a screened lead having a 3.5mm jack plug at each end will be required to connect the recorder to the limiter. A second screened lead will be required to make the connection between the limiter and the amplifier. This will have a 3.5mm jack plug to connect to the limiter, and a plug at the other end to suit the amplifier input socket.

The "tape" or "radio" input of most amplifiers or record players has a fairly high input impedance (50 to 100 kilohms), and should be used. The unit can be used with amplifiers having fairly low input impedances (5 to 10 kilohms), although it may be very slightly less

effective.

It can also be used with transistor m.w. tuners, and can make quite a large reduction in adjacent channel interference after dark.

Potentiometer VR1 adjusts the level at which the treble cut is removed. The best way to find the correct setting for this is to experiment a little using various settings. If this is set too high, tape hiss will be heard on low level signals. It should be set as high as possible (as far in an anticlockwise direction as possible), without this becoming evident.

If a tone control is fitted to the recorder, this should of course be set near, or at maximum treble.

We would like to thank LASKYS for the loan of the cassette recorder shown on the front cover.



Photograph of the completed prototype Tape Noise Limiter.

ULTRASONICS

By J. B. DANCE

Utrasonic waves can be generated by electronic equipment and have a wide variety of industrial applications, such as in signal and warnings systems and in the detection of flaws in metal. They can be employed to clean objects or to kill bacteria. In addition, they can be used in medical diagnosis to produce pictorial scans of parts of the body.

ULTRASONIC WAVES

Ordinary sound waves consist of pressure waves in some other medium. The human ear is sensitive to sound waves which have a frequency between some lower limit of about 20Hz and an upper limit of about 15 to 20kHz. Vibrations which have a frequency below the lower limit are "felt" rather than heard and are known as "infra-sound".

Ultrasonic frequencies are above the limit of human hearing. Young people can hear somewhat higher frequencies than older persons, but in general any vibrations above 20kHz are referred to as ultrasonic. The term supersonic is sometimes used instead of ultrasonic, but nowadays it is normal practice to reserve the term supersonic for velocities exceeding that of sound in air.

VIBRATIONS

Ultrasonic waves and sound waves can be generated by a vibrating object. For example, the vibrating cone of a loudspeaker generates sound pressure waves in air (see Fig. 1) which can travel to a receiver. The waves cause the latter to vibrate.

The receiver may be a human ear, in which case the eardrum will vibrate and the vibrations will be passed to small bones in the middle ear and hence to the brain. If the receiver is a microphone, the waves cause its diaphram to vibrate and hence to generate an electrical signal corresponding to the pressure of the air waves.



The Dawe Instruments ultrasonic leak detector shown in use.

A fairly large vibrating object is required to generate low frequency sound waves of a fairly high intensity, but smaller vibrating objects can be used to generate higher frequencies. Thus a high frequency tweeter speaker is smaller than

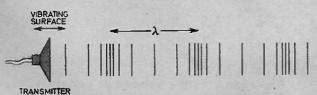




Fig. 1. An ultrasonic wave passing from a transmitter to a receiver. The regions of high pressure are shown by closely spaced vertical lines. The pattern moves from left to right with the wave.

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Fig. 2. The wavelength $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ is the length of one cycle.

a bass woofer speaker. Ultrasonic transducers are much smaller still—typically 2cm in diameter.

Devices which convert electrical signals into an ultrasonic wave or a wave into an electrical signal are known as ultrasonic transducers.

PRODUCTION

There are two main ways in which electrical signals may be converted into ultrasonic vibrations. One employs the piezo-electric effect, whilst the other uses magneto-striction.

The piezo-electric effect (discovered in 1880) occurs when an electric voltage is applied across the faces of a crystal such as a quartz. Small changes in the dimensions of the crystal occur. If the applied voltage has a frequency equal to the resonant frequency of the crystal, the movement of the latter can generate ultrasonic waves. Ceramic materials which show the piezo-electric effect are often used for generating fairly low frequency ultrasonic waves in air (perhaps 40kHz), but very high frequency ultrasonic waves are normally generated in a solid or a liquid.

The magneto-strictive effect was first observed by Joule in 1847. It occurs when a ferro-magnetic material such as iron or nickel is placed in a coil carrying an alternating current at the frequency concerned. The magnetic field generates small changes in the length of the magnetic material which in turn give rise to the ultrasonic vibrations.

Piezo-electric materials are liable to fracture at high amplitudes, but magneto-strictive devices do not suffer from this effect.

Ultrasonic waves are also generated at low amplitudes by friction between many types of surface. For example, brushing one's hair or rubbing one's hands together will generate high frequency vibrations.

VELOCITY

The velocity of sound and ultrasonic waves is determined by the elastic properties of the medium through which they are travelling. Ultrasonic waves travel at the same velocity as sound waves in a given medium.

The wavelength of a vibration, λ , is the distance between two peaks (or two troughs) of the pressure wave shown in Figs. 1 and 2. If the frequency of the vibrations is fHz, the wave travels f wavelengths per second. The velocity v is therefore equal to $f\lambda$.

One can write this equation as wavelength = velocity/frequency. The velocity of sound and ultrasonic waves in air is about 330 metres per second at normal temperatures. Thus a 330Hz sound wave has a wavelength of 1m. Typical wavelengths at various frequencies are shown in Table 1.

In water and many other materials the velocity is greater than in air and therefore the wavelength at a specific frequency is correspondingly greater.

DIFFERENCES FROM SOUND WAVES

Waves can bend around objects which have dimensions comparable with the wavelength concerned; this is, they can be diffracted. We can hear a musical instrument in a neighbouring room when the door connecting the rooms is open, since the waves bend at the edge of the door-way.

Ultrasonic waves (like light waves) have a much smaller wavelength than the door-way. Thus if the instrument is replaced by an ultrasonic transmitter, the observer will not detect any waves other than those which have undergone reflection at the wall.

In other words, ultrasonic waves (like light waves) tend to travel in straight lines.

Ultrasonic waves are attenuated by a much greater factor than sound waves as they pass through a given distance in air. The waves from a small ultrasonic transducer operating at 40kHz can be detected up to about 10 to 20m away in air. However, the attenuation increases greatly with frequency and 1MHz ultrasonic wave cannot travel, through an appreciable distance in air.

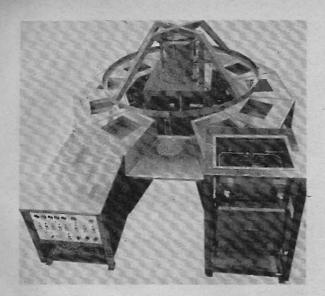
LONGITUDINAL WAVES

Unlike light waves, sound and ultrasonic waves cannot travel through a vacuum. They are pressure waves in a solid, liquid or gaseous medium. The particles of the medium move backwards and forwards along the direction of travel of the wave; these waves are therefore known as longitudinal waves.

In the waves on the surface of water, the particles move in a direction which is perpen-

Table 1. Wavelengths in air.

Frequency	Wavelengt	h
10Hz	33m	Infra-sound
33Hz	10m	
100Hz	3-3m	
330Hz	1m	sound
1kHz	33cm	
3⋅3kHz̄	10cm	
10kHz	3-3cm	j
33kHz	1cm	
100kHz	3-3mm	ultrasonic
330kHz	1mm	waves
1MHz	0-33mm	



A multi-tank cleaning system manufactured by Dawe Instruments Ltd. for cleaning hypodermic needles at the final production stage. The needles are automatically transferred from each tank to the next.

dicular to the direction of travel of the wave. Such waves are known as transverse waves. Light and radio waves are other examples of transverse waves.

Transverse waves show polarization and therefore we get optimum results if we use an aerial for television or f.m. radio signals when the direction of polarization of the wave (horizontal or vertical) matches that of the aerial. Ultrasonic waves, being longitudinal, show no polarization and therefore one can rotate the receiving transducer (whilst keeping its face pointing at the source) without producing any appreciable change in the received signal strength.

ULTRASONICS IN NATURE

Although human beings cannot hear frequencies above 20kHz, many animals can detect them. For example, dogs can be called by the use of a "silent" whistle which emits ultrasonic waves. Even dogs cannot hear very high frequency ultrasonic waves.

The bat uses the ultrasonic waves it emits to enable it to avoid objects in its flight path. The ultrasonic frequencies are emitted by the bat in short pulses of about 1/200 second in duration. The bat has a system for detecting the time interval between the emission of a pulse and the time at which the wave reflected from an object returns to the animal. This interval is proportional to the distance of the object.

The bat uses frequencies in the range 30kHz to 100kHz. A resting bat may emit 5 to 10 pulses per second, but when flying in the open the frequency is increased to 20 to 30 pulses per second. When the bat is flying near other objects,

the pulse rate may rise to over 50 per second.

The phase difference between the reflected waves arriving at the two ears of the animal provides some information on the direction of the reflecting object.

MEDICAL APPLICATIONS

Complex equipment known as the Diasonograph or Diagnostic Ultrasonic Scanner can be employed to find the position of structures, inside the body and to form an image of them on an oscilloscope screen. Many regions of soft tissue can be examined in this way when radiological techniques would provide insufficient constrast.

The equipment generates very low power ultrasonic waves at frequencies of the order of 500kHz to 10MHz. These high frequencies are employed because the wavelengths are less than 1mm and high resolution can therefore be obtained. The emitting transducer is placed in contact with the external skin of the patient, good contact being maintained by a film of liquid (such as olive oil). The direction at which the ultrasonic beam enters the patient can be accurately controlled.

The Diasonograph emits ultrasonic pulses with a typical frequency of 600 pulses per second. Echoes are detected from any discontinuities in the tissue material through which the beam passes. For example, bone reflects waves from its surface. The time which elapses between the transmission of an ultrasonic pulse and the reception of the echo provides a measure on the distance of the discontinuity from the transducer.

The probe moves over the skin of the patient emitting its rapid pulses and the echoes build up an image of the tissue structure inside the patient.

The Diasonograph can be used to examine organs such as the eye or the kidneys, to detect

Ultrasonic picture of a baby's head showing part of the brain (centre) (Queen Mother Hospital, Glasgow)



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The Wells-Krautkramer ultrasonic flaw detector which can examine steel from depths of 10mm to 5m. A recorder is shown at the top.

liver, heart or brain damage, etc. It is especially useful for producing an image of an unborn baby inside its mother. An image of the gestation sac can be made only a few weeks after conception and the heart movement can be detected from the seventh week. Later the size and position of the baby's head can be measured to an accuracy of 1mm. The size of the head provides an accurate measure of foetal maturity.

Ultrasonic examination before birth is especially useful when a multiple birth is expected. It was, for example, used to examine the Rosenkowitz sextuplets which were born in Cape Town in January 1974. The echoes are displayed as bright dots on a cathode ray tube screen.

The Diasonograph can be used for the display of moving structures, such as the mitral valve of the heart. Successive movements are displayed in slightly different positions on the screen. The pattern of movement can be used as an indicator of the severity of rheumatic heart disease, but this is only one example of the applications of the time display technique.

The Diasonograph presents no ionising radiation hazard to the patient, but it is important to keep the power level to a minimum to prevent the waves breaking up cells in the body. Normally a beam having a power level in the microwatt range is quite adequate. Ultrasonic techniques are certainly much safer than radiological techniques which can cause chromosome damage—especially when rapidly dividing cells (such as in a baby) are present. Ultrasonic examination

is relatively quick, the only patient preparation required being a light coating of olive oil over the area to ensure good contact with the probe.

BLOOD FLOW

Another ultrasonic technique has been developed to measure the rate of blood flow in arteries or veins. For example, a probe may be placed on the patient's wrist above the radial artery with a little oil or grease for good coupling. The frequency is typically 5MHz.

Each pulse from the heart drives blood along the artery into the hand. The blood is moving towards the probe and the reflected ultrasonic signals will have a higher frequency owing to the normal Doppler shift effect from a moving object. The reflected signal is made to beat with the transmitted frequency to produce an audible signal which can be fed to earphones or a loudspeaker.

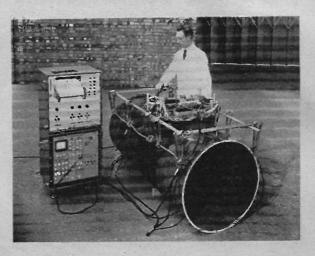
The sound of the beat notes can inform the experienced practitioner of the condition of the arteries of the patient. The technique can be used in the diagnosis of arterio-sclerosis, blocked arteries, etc.

BIOLOGICAL EFFECTS OF ULTRASONICS

Ultrasonic waves produce two effects on biological organisms. The first is purely a heating effect due to the energy contained in the wave, whilst the second effect is due to the breakdown of cell walls in the organism.

If some blood is subjected to a high power ultrasonic beam at a frequency of the order of 1MHz, the cells will be broken open and the red corpuscles destroyed. It will no longer be possible to remove the red cells by using a centrifuge.

The Wells-Krautkramer ultrasonic weld scanner which automatically passes the scanning head along the weld.



Liquids can be sterilised by a high frequency ultrasonic beam, since the cell walls of the bacteria are broken open. The power level may be IkW per square inch.

INDUSTRIAL APPLICATIONS

One of the most common applications of ultrasonics in industry is for the detection of flaws and cracks in metal ingots or castings. A probe containing an ultrasonic transmitter and receiver is placed on top of the metal, as shown in Fig. 3(a), good contract being obtained by means of a thin film of oil.

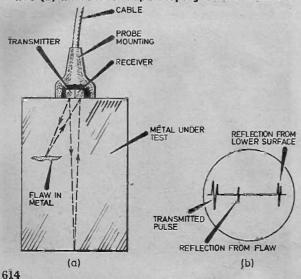
Ultrasonic waves are reflected from the flaw back to the receiver. They are also reflected from the bottom surface of the metal. The time between the transmitted pulse and the arrival of the echo at the receiver is a measure of the depth of the flaw from the top surface.

An oscilloscope may be employed to provide the type of display shown in Fig. 3(b). Any signals reflected from the flaws in the metal appear as blips on the trace between the pulse at the instant of transmission and the echo from the lower surface. In some instruments a trace similar to that of Fig. 3(b) can be obtained on a pen recorder; alternatively the oscilloscope trace can be photographed.

The principle of operation may be compared with that of a miniature radar system. If the flaw in the metal must be located very accurately, short wavelength, high frequency radiation should be used (perhaps 20MHz). The pulse repetition frequency is often variable over a wide range.

Ultrasonic instruments operating on similar principles are employed for checking concrete structures for cracks and for testing the quality of bricks. etc. They will also detect cracks and rotting in the wooden beams of old property.

Fig. 3. Principle of operation of an ultrasonic flaw detector (a) the transmitter and path of the wave (b) an oscilloscope display of the result.



Some insurance companies use similar techniques for estimating frost, fire and bomb damage in buildings.

Specially designed fault locators are used in the testing of welded seams in plates and tubes. The equipment scans the weld automatically. In a typical case the test rate is about 6 inches per minute for thicknesses of 0.5 to 3 inches. Special types of equipment can examine steel tubes up to 50 feet in length and weighing up to 45 tons.

Flaws in very small objects may be detected by placing the object in de-aerated water and putting the probe in the water above the sample.

THICKNESS GAUGES

The same principle can be employed in ultrasonic thickness gauges; the time taken for the reflected signal from the far side of the specimen to reach the receiver is a measure of the thickness. This technique may be used to measure the thickness of most metals and plastic materials. Suitable probes can be designed for use when the sample is at high temperature.

One type of industrial thickness gauge, the Baugh and Weedon P.A.1040, can measure thicknesses from 1/100 inch to 10 inches. The result is displayed in digital form with 1 per cent accuracy, the range selection being automatic. Other instruments use a conventional analogue meter display.

Thickness gauges of this type are very useful when it is possible to have access to only one side of the surface. The method is ideal for the measurement of the thickness of the hull of a ship or of a metal pipe. The surfaces of such items may be affected by corrosion.

PLASTIC ASSEMBLY

Ultrasonic energy has been used since the early 1960's for the welding or sealing of plastics to plastics, the "staking" of metal or other materials to plastics and for the insertion of metal parts into plastics.

In each case the parts to be assembled are held together under pressure whilst ultrasonic vibrations force the parts to rub against each other. Highly localised frictional heating occurs at the interface of the materials so that the plastic melts within a very short time and flows into the area of the joint under the applied pressure. When the ultrasonic generator is switched off, the material solidifies to give a high bond strength.

Ultrasonic assembly is widely used throughout the plastics industry, millions of items being manufactured each year by this technique. A single ultrasonic transducer is often employed to deliver over IkW of power into a thermoplastic load. The frequency is typically 20kHz. The energy is applied to the work by a tool known as a "welding horn". This acts as a transformer which matches the source to the load so

that maximum power reaches the latter. The joint may be up to 10 inches from the end of the horn

If one wishes to fix a piece of metal into plastic, one can drill a hole in the latter which is slightly larger than the diameter of the metal. The metal is inserted under pressure with the application of ultrasonic energy so that the plastic melts around it. The hole guides the metal into position. The volume of the plastic which melts is quite small and there is no danger of the plastic fracturing. The whole assembly is free from stress. The ultrasonic energy can be applied either to the metal or to the plastic.

A typical example of this technique is the insertion of screwdriver blades into plastic

handles.

Plastic toys can be made far more easily by welding the parts together with ultrasonic energy than by the use of solvents. Plastic car reflectors are also made by ultrasonic techniques.

Layers of plastic material can be welded together by the use of an ultrasonic "sewing

machine".

ULTRASONIC CLEANING

Baths containing an ultrasonic transducer fixed to their base can provide intense mechanical agitation throughout their volume. A phenomenon known as "cavitation" occurs in which huge numbers of cavities of vapour are formed during the low pressure part of the wave. These cavities collapse violently as the pressure increases during the next half cycle.

The collapse of these bubbles produces an intense scrubbing action on surfaces immersed in the liquid. The bath may be quite small (perhaps 12 pint capacity) or it may contain many gallons.

The frequency is typically 25 to 50kHz.

ULTRASONIC DETECTORS

Equipment which can detect ultrasonic waves is extremely useful for the rapid detection of leaks in vacuum and pressure pipes. Any such leaks result in the emission of waves at frequencies of the order of 40kHz. Leaks in pressurised telephone cables can be found far more readily using an ultrasonic detector than by the former method of applying soap solution. The presence of a leak is normally indicated by a sound in a pair of headphones (see heading photograph).

Worn bearings can be detected, since they emit ultrasonic energy in proportion to the amount of wear. They can be replaced before major damage occurs. Troubles in large engines, generators and turbines often show themselves by the emission of ultrasonic waves long before

excessive vibration and noise occurs.

Electrical sparking on power line insulators can cause severe interference with radio and television reception. The approximate location of the interference is most easily found with a directional radio receiver, but the exact point at which the sparking is occurring is detected by means of the ultrasonic waves emitted with each spark. High voltage transformers are routinely tested by ultrasonic detectors.

Ultrasonic detectors can also be used to pinpoint defects in hydraulic systems, such as faulty valves. They are used to locate leaks in the pneumatic braking systems of large vehicles.

MISCELLANEOUS APPLICATIONS

A metal rod vibrating vertically at an ultrasonic frequency can be used to "drill" through a glass plate. The rod does not rotate and therefore the hole made in the glass need not be circular.

Ultrasonic soldering irons are available. The bit is heated electrically in the normal way, but it also vibrates at an ultrasonic frequency. This vibration removes oxide films from the metal surfaces and thus permits the soldering of metals such as aluminium.

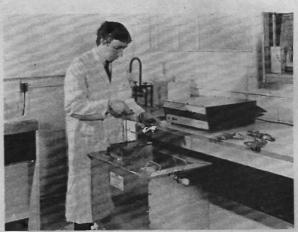
Ultrasonic power can be used to "homogenise" immiscible liquids such as mercury and water. This property is used in the alloying of certain metals and in the preparation of photographic emulsions.

Smoke and dust particles can be coagulated by an ultrasonic beam so that the particle size is adequate for them to be easily removed by filtration.

Small transducers can be obtained which enable an ultrasonic signalling system to be constructed for distances of up to about 20 metres. These devices can also be used in intruder alarms, for detecting leaks in car door sealing, etc.

Articles describing the construction and use of a simple ultrasonic remote control system will be featured in this magazine in the December "74 and January "75 issues.

A Dawe Instruments ultrasonic cleaning bath in use.





'and I followed all the instructions!

... perhaps you should study...

By PHIL ALLCOCK

oob soldered joints are essential to the success of any electronic project and so the following article has been prepared to assist beginners who have never used a soldering iron before.

A soldered joint normally provides two functions-mechanical support and electrical connection. Solder by itself is rather weak since it contains a high proportion of lead, therefore a joint should always be arranged so that it is not dependent on the solder for the whole of its mechanical strength.

MATERIALS INVOLVED

Usually in electronic work we are concerned with joining together metals such as copper, tin. gold or silver coated wires and printed circuit track and for all of these tasks the most common solder used contains 60 per cent tin and 40 per cent lead. The melting point of this solder is about 190 degrees centigrade and so the temperature of the soldering iron used must be greater than this.

If an electric soldering iron is switched on and solder is repeatedly applied to the bit the solder will not melt until the tip reaches the necessary temperature, and at first the solder will have a dull surface appearance and a pasty consistency. As the temperature rises further, the solder "flows" more easily and smoke is given off from the resin flux which is

contained in cores within the solder.

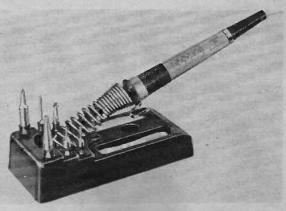
If the iron temperature is excessive the flux may tend to "spit" and the shiny surface of the molten solder will turn dull after a short time due to the formation of oxides. The resin cores in modern solder act as the flux and no additional flux is required. Under no circumstances should acid or other corrosive fluxes be used for electronic work.

SOLDERING IRONS

Experienced workers often have two or more irons to cover the various applications that arise but for the beginner a conventional electric iron of about 25 watts rating is about ideal. The bit diameter at the tip should be not more than 5mm and the bit should be of the replaceable type as it "wears away" during use, due to the copper slowly dissolving in the molten solder. A useful extra is a soldering iron stand which also affords protection from accidental contact and burns. A soldering iron can inflict a nasty and painful burn if you happen to rest your hand or arm on it!

Soldering guns and gas heated irons are in general unsuitable for beginners. Irons with

Photograph of an Antex soldering iron with stand and various bits.



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An Adcola soldering kit complete with solder spare bits and stand.

temperature controlled long-life iron bits are available but are more expensive and best suited to experienced workers.

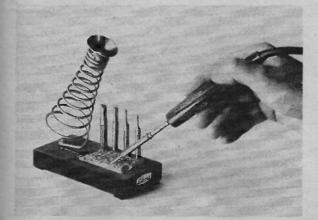
Always use resin cored solder which is available on reels of various sizes and comes in a range of thicknesses. The usual gauges preferred are 18 to 22s.w.g. and the finer gauge of 22s.w.g. is excellent for modern printed circuits, integrated circuits and Veroboard.

TINNING

For a good soldered joint the surfaces should be tinned (Fig. 1). This is done by heating the material, say a copper wire, with the soldering iron and touching the solder on to the wire surface. If the copper surface is dirty or greasy the solder will not make a good thermal contact and will not melt easily. Even when it does melt the solder will not flow on a dirty surface and will tend to form into a small globule. Fig. 2.

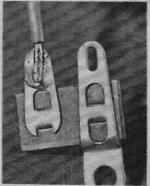
As copper oxidises very easily when heated, even by starting with a clean surface it is possible for new oxide to hinder the tinning process. To prevent this we use a flux contained in cores within the solder so that the solder and

The Litesold Conqueror iron with stand and spare bits and stand.



Everyday Electronics, November 1974





Two examples of bad joints. The photograph on the left shows a dry joint to a tag (see Fig. 2a). While that on the right a dry joint caused by moving the wire before the joint is solid.

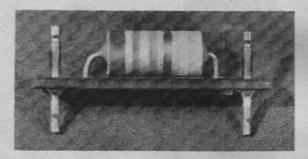
flux are applied simultaneously in the right proportions.

Some components and leads may be pre-tinned by the manufacturer but if these are dirty or greasy it usually pays to scrape the surface clean and tin again.

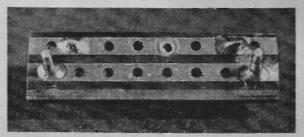
A problem that often results in poor soldering is surface contamination of printed circuits and Veroboard due to the effects of handling and moist fingers, etc. The cure here is to thoroughly scrub, wash and dry the board before use. A heated hair dryer is useful for drying the boards before use.

MAKING THE JOINT

When both surfaces have been tinned they



Two photographs showing how to afix a resister and insert connecting pins. The soldered joints show how a good joint should look.



SOLDERING for BEGINNERS

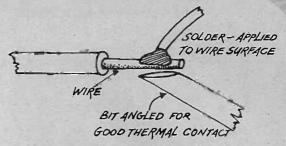
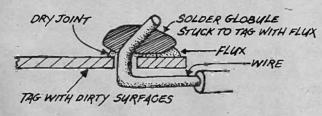


Fig. 1 Tinning a wire.



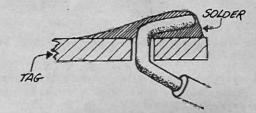


Fig. 2a A dry joint.

Fig. 2b. A good joint.

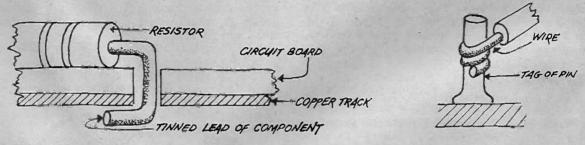


Fig. 3. Examples of good mechanical contact prior to soldering.

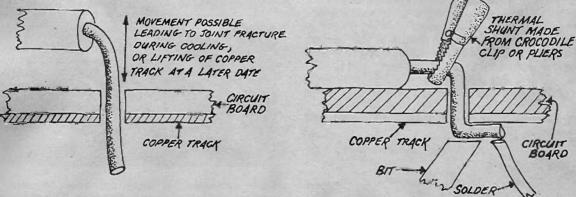
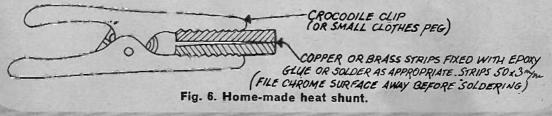


Fig. 4 Example of bad mechanical contact.

Fig. 5. Illustrating use of a heat shunt with sensitive components (e.g. diodes or transistors).



should be placed in contact in such a way that the area of contact is as large as possible (Fig. 3). Wires may be twisted together or bent round, or over, the item to which they will be attached. The soldering iron, carrying a small amount of fresh solder, is applied to the parts, to re-melt the solder on the tinned surfaces, and at the same time a small amount of cored solder is applied to the heated joint.

This extra solder should flow easily and once this has occurred the iron is removed and the joint allowed to cool naturally. The joint must not be disturbed as the solder cools down since this tends to fracture the solder as it solidifies and a "dry joint" results. This is usually apparent by the surface, which appears crystalline or dull

rather than bright.

The making of good joints requires practice so do not be upset if your first attempts are not correct. Always keep your iron clean and remove excess solder by wiping the tip on a moist piece of felt at regular intervals. Never allow your bit to become contaminated with excess flux or flakes of oxide from the bit surface. As the bit "wears away" restore the shape of the tip by filing (with the iron cold) and then retin the tip as the iron warms up. Always replace worn tips and never allow the bit to seize up—this makes replacement difficult later on.

Remember that most electronic components can be permanently damaged by excessive heat-

ing. Use a pair of pliers or other heat shunt to protect sensitive components such as diodes and transistors (see Figs. 5 and 6). It is usually safe to take (say) 2-3 seconds for a normal joint with an iron at the correct temperature. If your joints take much longer than this examine your technique and check that your surfaces and iron are clean.

The sketches and photographs illustrate the main points and should be studied carefully before trying out your first few joints. Remember, practice makes perfect—never be satisfied with a poor joint.

REMEMBER

Clean both surfaces—avoid greasy hands on printed circuit boards.

Tin surfaces—use a minimum of solder.

Arrange a good mechanical contact area.

Clean iron bit—"wet" bit with solder.

Apply iron to the joint to heat both parts.

Apply solder to joint, not to iron. (A small amount of fresh solder, on the bit, helps to give good thermal contact with the joint).

Use a heat shunt as required.

Remove iron when solder flows freely—avoid excess heating.

Allow joint to cool without movement.

Examine joint for quality.

Remove surplus solder from bit.

READERS' LETTERS

Mathematical Error

In the For Your Entertainment, column Sept. '74, Adrian Hope gives the result of the calculation $11-2+4\times2$ on an electronic calculator as 26. However, this is the wrong result!

As any schoolboy will tell you, multiplication and division take precedence over addition and subtraction (i.e. are performed first), so the correct answer to the

above sum is 17.

To obtain this result from the calculator, one would have to arrange the calculation to $4\times2+11-2$ which is contrary to Mr. Hope's idea of entering the calculations in the order written.

I have yet to be convinced that there is a better system than the "reverse polish" one used by several manufacturers, whereby the operation is entered after the figures; the calculation becomes $11+2-4+2\times+$.

Dr. I. K. Livingstone Harringay, London

When I went to school the rule was that multiplication and/or division had to be worked out before addition or substraction and could be considered as "bracket" operations.

Thus Adrian Hope's free flow logic example $11-2+4\times2$ should according to the rules be interpreted as $11-2+(4\times2)=9+8=$

Not 10 or 26, the answers he obtains; to get the answer 26 the sum would have to be $(11-2+4)\times 2$.

Unfortunately it matters not if you use a calculator or pencil and paper if you don't know the rules, you wont get the right answer.

W. G. Jenner Bulkington, Warks. We thank you for your mathematical observations and reminding us of a basic mathematical rule that multiplication (and division) should be carried out before addition and subtraction in a sum

As the sum was originally printed, the answer is of course a wrong one. Brackets enclosing the first three digits were omitted in error, which is obvious from the text. The correct way of writing the intended sum is $(11-2+4)\times 2$?

Announcement

I would be grateful if you would announce that a Radio Amateur's Course is being run at the South Gwent College of Further Education, Nash Road, Newport, on Wednesday evenings from 6.30 p.m. to 9.30 p.m.

Associated with this course is a Radio Constructors' Course on Tuesday evenings.

D. A. R. Dobbins Vice Principal



W HEN a telephone is installed in your flome it can become something of an inconvenience in that the bell is not always audible.

This becomes especially apparent if (after one has had much trouble from the wife!) the hobbyist decides to remove his treasures from the kitchen table to the garden shed and alas, away from the phone.

The "Telephone Remote Monitor" described here will mean an end to all those moments of thinking "is that the TV or our phone," more so if you have a large house or where an occupier

is hard of hearing.

It must be stressed that the Post Office will not allow tampering of any kind with their installations, the idea therefore had to be based on a system which does not contravene their wishes. It was decided to "pick up" the rings with a microphone and turn the received signal via an amplifier and slave relay into an electronic switch.

The switch can then be used to operate a lamp, bell or any device suitable to the user.

CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

The circuit diagram of the unit is shown in

Fig. 1.

Signals received at the input socket SK1 from the microphone MIC1 are fed into the amplifier via capacitor C1. The amplifier proper is a twostage d.c. coupled circuit in the common emitter mode, whose output operates a relay, which in turn can switch on lamps, bells or any other transducer the user employs. The load in the collector circuit of common emitter amplifier TR1 is a 2.5 kilohm potentiometer, and as it is directly coupled to the base circuit of TR2 it also governs TR2 base/collector current. As the resistance of this potentiometer is reduced the collector current in TR2 increases, thus providing us with a "sensitivity" control to facilitate final setting up.

The relay employed here has a coil resistance of 700 ohms, but this can vary from 500 to 1,000 without complication, as the operating current of TR2 is ample. Diode D1 is wired in parallel with this coil to stop any back e.m.f. affecting

TR2

Due to the basic "on/off" function of our amplifier an elaborate power supply is not required. Therefore, the 8 volt a.c. output from the transformer (T1) is earthed at one end, the other being fed to the anode of a BY127 rectifier. The half-wave output at the cathode of this diode is then simply applied to the $2,000\mu$ F smoothing capacitor C2. If required a 240 volt neon could be wired in parallel with T1 primary to provide an on/off indication.



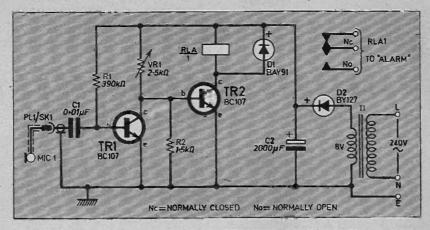


Fig. 1. The circuit diagram of the Telephone Remote Monitor.

THE MICROPHONE PLATFORM

The microphone was mounted on a platform of 25mm plywood cut to suit the base outline of the telephone and then stained and polished to match the telephone table. Details of the platform are given in Fig. 2.

CIRCUIT CONSTRUCTION DETAILS

The circuit board is made from a small piece of 0.1in matrix Veroboard 16 holes by 9 strips: the size and number of components permit such small dimensions. The copper track covering the

last 3 rows was removed to allow insulated fixing to the case.

All components are mounted as shown, and 6 lengths of wire fixed to allow connection to other components separate from the board. Care must be taken to ensure no heat is allowed to reach the semiconductor devices, also care must be taken to wire in the diodes, transistors and C2 with correct polarity.

The mounting hole is drilled for 6BA clearance. The wiper of VR2 contact is cut short and a short length of sleeved wire used to reach the connection to the base of TR2. The four flying leads to various other components are initially cut at a reasonable length and later cut to appropriate lengths. Due to the shortness of input leads these can also be single connecting wirescréened lead was not found essential inside the ĉase.

Ensure on final assembly that the board is sufficiently raised from the floor of the box to prevent shorting. When all components are fitted in the box and wiring is taking place ensure a good earth from the mains plug to the case.

omponents....

Resistors

R1 390kΩ R2 1-5kΩ

½W ±10% carbon

Capacitors C1 0.01µF

C2 2,000µF elect. 12V

Semiconductors

TR1 BC107 silicon npn TR2 BC107 silicon non

BAY91 or similar small silicon diode D1

D2 **BY127**

Miscellaneous

MIC1 moving coil or balanced armature microphone (40 to 300 ohms)

PL1/SK1 co-axial plug and socket

VR1 2.5kΩ skeleton preset potentiometer RLA1

6V to 12V operated relay, coil resistance 500 to 1000 ohms, with at least one set of normally open

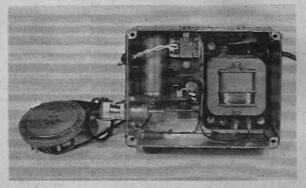
contacts.

mains to 8V bell transformer.

Metal box approx. 115 x 90 x 55 mm, 6BA fixings, connecting wire, screened lead-length as required, Veroboard 16 holes by 9 strips, mains lead and fused three pin plug (1 amp fuse).

SETTING UP PROCEDURE

When the construction is complete, it is a good idea to carry out a few d.c. checks to make sure nothing is wrong.



The completed prototype with lid removed.

TELPHONE MONITOR

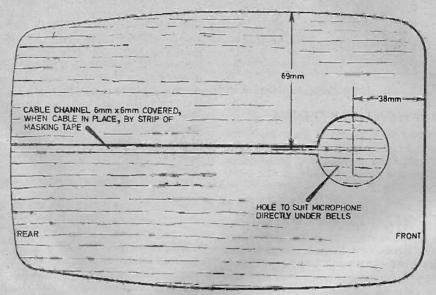


Fig. 2. Details of the wooden telephone platform.

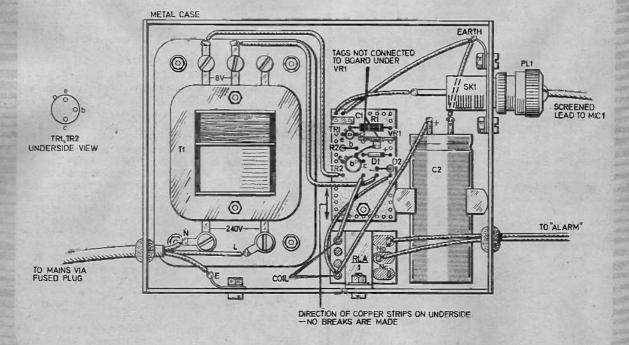


Fig. 3. Layout of components on the Veroboard and complete wiring up details within the case.



Wire the microphone to a piece of coaxial cable, the length you will require, and terminate the other end to the co-ax plug. Turn VR1 to maximum and plug in the microphone.

Plug the unit into the mains supply, and if you have incorporated a neon indicator, check that it is glowing. Measure the voltage at the positive terminal of the smoothing capacitor, with respect to earth. This should be around 11 volts (the transformer secondary is rated at 8 volts but the capacitor charges to the peaks).

Adjust the slider of VR1 to a point at which the relay will be heard to switch. Connect a small battery and lamp in series with two normally open contacts on the relay. With the lamp on, slowly rotate VR1 until it just goes out, making sure that the relay is not "chattering." At this stage it is possible to blow into the microphone causing the lamp to glow in sympathy.

The unit is now ready for use. With the microphone fixed in its housing and the metal box finished in the painted shade of your choice the monitor is both useful and discreet.

.Counter Intelligence

BY PAUL YOUNG

A retailer discusses component supply matters.

COMPETITION

Know many of my fellow component sellers tremble at the arrival of a new competitor and quite needlessly! I do not myself, I welcome the new-comers. This is not being complacent, I have always understood that a little fair and healthy competition is a good thing, keeps us on our toes so to speak. Not that the majority of my colleagues are not on their toes already, they are, but a far greater danger than another rival, is the attraction of another hobby.

Now I think that electronics is one of the most facinating hobbies in the world, and we shall only lose supporters if they suffer from frustration. I need hardly say that the most likely cause of frustration will be difficulty in supplies. A bigger choice of suppliers means less likelihood of this occurring.

After all I am always telling my readers, that they will not get all their requirements from one source and despite the profusion of wonderful names that appear in the journals, like Trannies and Trampus and Ziggies, none of my friends have reported a falling off in business. All of which bears out my contention.

NEWCOMERS

There are I notice, two newcomers which I find most interesting. One is Tandy, the other Doram Electronics. The group behind Tandy is "The Radio Shack" of America, and they in effect sell a franchise. One could almost say, that Tandy is to the electronic components trade what the Wimpy Bar is to the restaurant business.

I have 'several friends in different parts of the country and most of them report a Tandy opening near them, indeed one has just opened up within about two miles of us. Having heard so much about them, I naturally went along and had a look. They have a very impressive catalogue and their goods are nicely presented. Their wares all seem to be pre-packed and if I venture any criticism it is that their prices seem rather high. Certainly 6 yds of single microphone cable for £2.88 plus V.A.T. seems excessive.

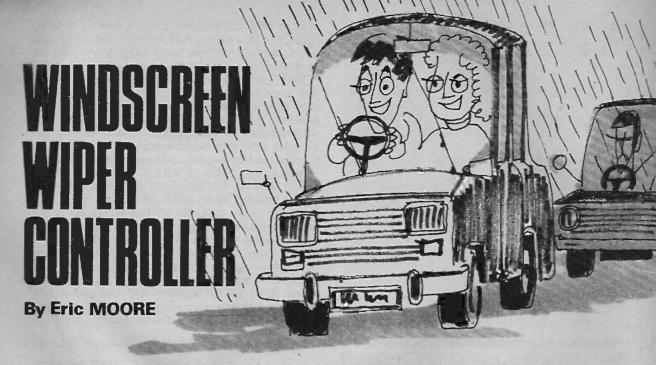
However I have no doubt they will put that right, perhaps even before this article goes into print.

My other newcomer is even more intriguing because Doram Electronics is our old friend Radiospares or R.S. Components in a new guise. Why I am tantalized, is because a few years ago, their directors were even considering the same course of action, and I was particularly flattered, that they came to ask me my opinion. For the record, what I told them was this. "With your excellent organisational ability if anyone can make a success of this venture your firm can, but I think you might come unstuck". The directors thanked me politely and said they had reached the same conclusions.

DOWNFALL

When I made my prognostication, the I.T.T. business was very much in my mind. They had had the same idea and produced a splendid catalogue running to over 1,600 pages, but in just over two years they wound it up. However, I feel sure my R.S. friends will make a success of Doram Electronics, the only thing that puzzles me, that they should have thought it worth their while.

I wonder, do they really think that the floors of electronic component dealers are covered in gold, and that we swop our Rolls for a new one every time the ash trays are full? For a firm with a turnover exceeding the six million mark, can it boost the turnover all that much? I doubt it, but in the meantime you the hobbyist will benefit and I trust we will not suffer, and so, to "The Rivals", welcome!



A simple circuit to provide timed delay of wiper operation.

THE circuit described in this article has proven itself very useful—indeed almost a necessity—in a climate such as our own where drizzle and fog occur frequently. Driving in drizzle and fog means that the car windscreen wipers have to be switched on and off repeatedly or left on causing rubbing and scraping which in time causes annoyance and distraction.

The circuit shown in Fig. 1 has worked satisfactorily for over six months and has coped with the worst weather without requiring any attention at all. The system is suitable only for cars which have self parking, single or two-speed wipers.

CIRCUIT

In order to keep the explanation short the internal description of the NE555 has been simplified so as to show the basic principle of operation.

The two resistors R_x and R_y (Fig. 1) make up a potential divider holding input a of the comparator at a constant voltage. The output of the comparator is zero therefore the two transistors TR1 and TR2 are switched off.

As the capacitor C1 charges via VR1, VR2 and VR3 the voltage on input b of the comparator approaches the voltage on a; when a and b are

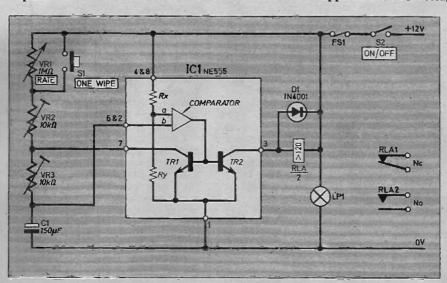


Fig. 1. Circuit diagram of the Windscreen Wiper Controller. Circuitry of IC1 is representative only.

equal then the comparator gives an output to TR1 and TR2, the two transistors swing over to the conducting state, the relay RLA operates

and the capacitor begins to discharge.

The discharge time, hence the relay hold on time, is a function of (VR3×C). The comparator senses that the two inputs are not equal and returns to the original state. The rest time between pulses is governed by (VR1+VR2+VR3)×C1.

Variable resistor VR1 sets the pulse rate of the circuit; VR2 merely sets the fastest running speed and should be set to give a speed equal to or slightly slower than the car's wipers. The hold on time of the relay is determined by VR3

as previously described.

It was found that if for some reason an extra wipe was required eg., a passing car wets the screen—a push-button can be connected in parallel with VR1, which shorts it out and provides a single wipe after a short delay (S1).

CONSTRUCTION AND SETTING UP

Assemble the circuit on a piece of 0·lin matrix Veroboard as shown in Fig. 2 and mount the circuit in a diecast box along with VR2 and VR3. Use a socket to mount IC1 and plug in the i.c. after checking all wiring. The setting up of the circuit can thankfully be done before installation in the car. Set all the presets to about half

Components...

Capacitor

C1 150µ elect. 15V

Potentiometers

VR1 1MΩ linear carbon

VR2 10kΩ multiturn preset \ (Skeleton or t.v.

VR3 10kΩ multiturn preset }

SHOP

(Skeleton or t.v.)
type could be used)

Switches

S1 s.p.s.t. push to make push button S2 s.p.s.t. toggle switch

Integrated Circuit

IC1 NE555 timer and holder

Miscellaneous

LP1 12V 0·1 amp panel mounting lamp and holder

FS1 1 amp fuse and holder

RLA2 12-24V, 110Ω (minimum) relay with one set of normally open and one set of normally closed contacts rated at 7 amps or two sets of each rated at about 5 amps. Die cast case 115 x 90 x 55mm, connecting strips 4-way and 6-way, 4BA fixings, heavy (10 amp) connecting wire for relay contact wiring, ordinary connecting wire, aluminium if required for dash mounted panel. Veroboard 12 holes by 24 strips, 0.1 in. matrix.

travel, wire in the control panel (Fig. 4) and set VR1 to its lowest resistance. Make sure the relay is connected between pin 3 (IC1) and the positive rail. Connect a 12V battery, observing polarity, the relay should be clicking in and out slowly.

First adjust VR3 so that the hold on time is around 12 second, as this is all the time needed to start the wipers. Next adjust VR2 until the relay is operating approximately as fast as the car's wipers. The unit can now be fixed into position.

INSTALLATION AND WIRING

A convenient place under the bonnet, close to the wiper motor if possible, should be found to house the unit.

The only components inside the cab of the car are VR1, which can be calibrated directly in time, S1, LP1 and S2. These can be mounted on a single panel and wired to the control box as shown in Fig. 4.

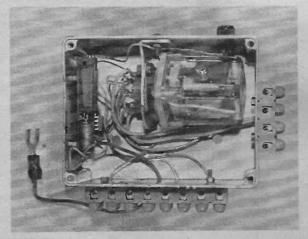
To wire the system into the car first look in the handbook and see whether the system employs a permanent magnet or field coil motor, i.e. three- or two-wire connection to the motor. Twospeed motors are dealt with later.

For the two-wire system simply connect to the two wires from the panel switch (wiper switch) and connect to the normally open contacts of

the relay.

For the three-wire system identify the ground wire on the back of the wiper switch. Switch on the ignition and switch on the wipers. Pull off one of the other two wires until the one is found which does not interfere with the running of the wipers, mark it as being the normally closed wire. To check that the correct wire has been found switch off the wipers and observe their position on the windscreen when they come to rest. If the correct wire has been chosen then they will stop at any position on the screen i.e., the self-parking facility has been removed.

Photograph of the construction and wiring of the prototype unit.



WINDSCREEN WIPER CONTROLLER



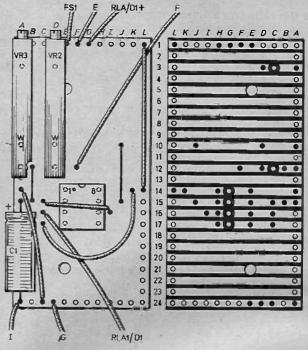


Fig. 2. Layout and wiring of the components mounted on the Veroboard.

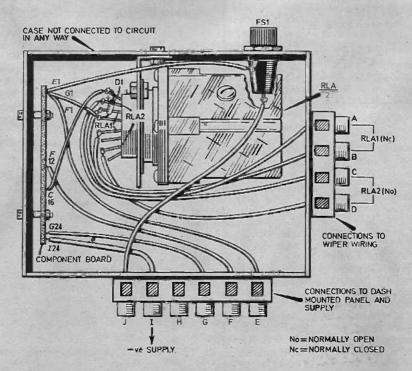


Fig. 3. Layout and wiring of the main unit. Letters on the connecting block tie up with Fig. 4.

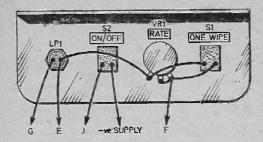


Fig. 4. Layout and wiring of control panel.

Next insert the normally closed relay contacts between the normally closed wire and the tag from which it was removed on the switch. Then insert the normally open contacts of the relay across the two remaining tags/wires.

TWO SPEED WIPERS

If the car is fitted with a two-speed field coil motor there may be three wires from the motor, however none of these will disconnect the self-parking only. In this case connect the normally open contacts across that tag/wire which affects both speeds (i.e., stops the motor completely when removed) and that which affects the fast speed only.

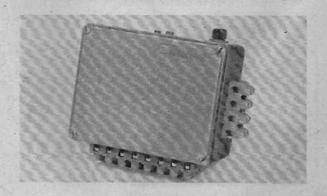
Cars with two-speed permanent magnet motors will have four wires connecting the motor. The procedure is the same as for the three-wire system mentioned previously except that the "two remaining tags/wires" will now be three and the necessary pair will need to be found by the following process.

Connect one contact to the tag/wire which prevents all motor operation when removed and the other to the tag/wire that prevents fast-speed operation only.

Connect the positive and negative wires from the unit to earth and the ignition switch, observing correct polarity, and switch on.

The control cannot be damaged by switching on the wiper switch whilst the control is in operation. The wiper switch will simply override the control

The system cannot be used with some cars fitted with wipers the speed of which is continuously variable.



Ruminations By Sensor

Don't abandon ship

A SCANDINAVIAN company is manufacturing an equipment for use in small seagoing craft, particularly fishing boats, which gives the skipper a visual indication of the stresses and strains upon his vessel. I gather that the information is presented on a small screen located on the bridge to which signals from sensors in strategic positions throughout the vessel are routed.

The purpose of the installation is to present the skipper with an accurate picture of the effect of wind and waves at any given moment. He can thus change course, or speed required, so as to operate most effectively, without jeopardising his craft. The equipment is said to be both cheap and reliable.

The system takes some of the guesswork out of sailing—although it is hardly fair to describe a skilled seaman's knowledge of the effects of bad weather upon his ship as "guesswork". But nevertheless, listening to the creaks and groans of a small craft in heavy weather and interpreting these sounds and vibrations in the light of his experience, has been the skippers only method of staying afloat and profitable until now.

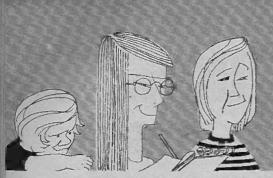
For some years now, large aircraft have carried bad weather radar for the purpose of warning the pilots of what lies ahead so that he may change course to avoid it. I do not know of any stress-monitoring equipment currently in use in commercial aviation, but there may be such.

Home James

It is reasonable to suppose that the systems I have described could be coupled into a small computer together with data concerning economic speed, desired course, estimated time of arrival, maximum working stress and other necessary parameters so that a suitable course would be computed automatically. It would then be just a small matter of feeding this computed course into an automatic pilot and sitting back with a chocolate biscuit and a stewardess for company.

Of course the more complex the system becomes the more prone it is to breakdown and the more limited it's use due to the cost factor. There are probably few fishing boat skippers who would allow a bundle of electronics to take the helm although they might be reluctant to leave port with a defective radar set, for radar has proved its value over the years. The simple system is obviously right for the small craft, the sophisticated all singing all dancing version is perhaps appropriate for the expensive jet airliner.

Anything which makes life safer and more comfortable for those who sail the seas or fly in the sky in adverse weather conditions, is to be welcomed.



Physics is FUN!

By Derrick DAINES



HOME-MADE ELECTROSCOPE

Last month we did some experiments with static electricity and found that a charged plastic film will make your hair stand on end. Now we will find it rather inconvenient to stick our head into something every time we wish to test for the presence of static electricity! What we need is a simple gadget that will test for us. It is proposed to describe two; a simple one and one more sensitive one.

Find a small metal tin—tobacco tin, pill tin, or similar—and in the centre of the lid punch a small hole with a nail.

Through this hole pass a piece of stiff wire about 15mm long, with a small bend at the end, see Fig. 1. Now solder the wire securely to the underside of the lid so that when the lid is replaced on the tin, the wire sticks straight up.

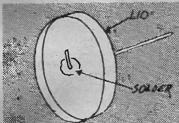


Fig. 1. Fixing a piece of stout wire to tin lid.

Cut some narrow strips of tissue paper and stick them across the top of the wire, this way and that, so that they form a tuft hanging down 8mm or so. Uhu glue or balsa cement are ideal. The electroscope is now ready, Fig. 2.

Lay a piece of plastic film on the table, rub it vigorously with a woollen cloth, then stand your electroscope on it. Nothing happens! However, if you pick up the film with the electroscope on it, the tufts will fly apart, just as your hair did, and can be used

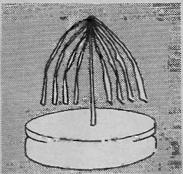


Fig. 2. Shows the strips of tissue paper attached to the stout wire.

at any time to indicate the presence of static electricity.

This must give us cause for thought—clearly, we must revise our opinions to what actually happened when we passed an electrified film above our heads. If you will repeat the experiment you will see that the individual hairs of the head are not simply lifting up towards the charged film, but are also moving away from each other.

Remembering that like poles repel, we can say that because the tufts on the electroscope (and the hairs of the head) are repelling each other, all must have the same electrical charge.

The thoughtful reader will point out that the hairs of the head have not been rubbed, nor are they in contact with anything that was rubbed, as is the electroscope, but I will leave you to puzzle over that one while I describe the other electroscope.

For this you need a larger tin screwed to a wooden block.

Next obtain a small glass phial such as tablets are sold in, with a small cork to fit, and some of the aluminium foil that is found in cigarette packets, Wrapping foil will also do, but as it is not so thin, the electroscope will not be so sensitive.

Carefully remove the tissue backing from the foil and cut two fine strips 35mm long and about 3mm wide. Cut the cork down the centre and sandwich the strips of foil between the two halves of the cork, including a 50mm length of stiff wire. Fig. 3.

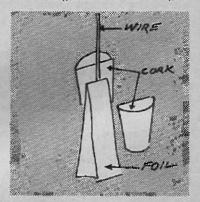


Fig. 3. Making the cork assembly for the second electroscope.

Now place the cork in position so that the foil strips hang inside the phial and the wire sticks out.

Drill or punch a hole in the protective tin big enough to take the phial and glue it into place. The electroscope is now ready and the two leaves of aluminium strip will move apart whenever a static charge is brought anywhere near the wire. Fig. 4.

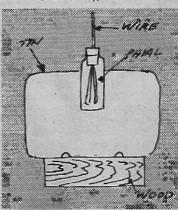


Fig. 4. The completed, more sensitive electroscope.

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BATTERY ELIMINATOR

BY R.A. PENFOLD

A very simple unit to replace the battery in your transistor radio.

I N MANY households, mains powered broadcast receivers have now been replaced by the larger type of battery powered transistor portable receiver. These have the advantage of being relatively small, and inexpensive to buy, as there are no trailing wires are easily transported from one room to another. They can of course be used away from home, as they are independent of mains power.

The main disadvantage of these sets is that they are relatively expensive to run. A modern transistor receiver requires only a couple of watts of power, and if run from the mains would cost only about one penny (1p) per 500 hours to run.

Battery operation would cost many times more than this. This is especially so if the set is only used occasionally, as the battery will have a limited life (shelf life), regardless of whether it is used or not.

This article describes a 9 volt mains power unit which is the same size as the popular PP7 battery, and will fit into the battery compartment of any radio which uses this battery or a similar size battery such as the PP9. This enables the set to be inexpensively run from the mains.

Since the power unit simply plugs into the receiver in the same way as a battery, if at any time it is required to use the set on battery power, say to take on holiday, the eliminator is merely swopped for a battery.

The only modification required to the receiver with which it is to be used, is to cut a small notch in the back of the set, through which the mains lead can pass.

Obviously, in order to be economically viable the unit must have a reasonably low initial cost, or the advantage of cheap mains power is lost. This has been achieved, as the total cost of the prototype was about the same as a 9 to 10 month supply of batteries. Therefore, after about a year of use, the initial cost should have been more than recovered.

For anyone involved in the design or construction of battery operated equipment, a small mains power supply unit such as this is very handy to have around for testing purposes.

THE CIRCUIT

A circuit diagram of the Battery Eliminator is

shown in Fig. 1.

Transformer T1 is a mains type with an 18 volt centre tapped secondary. Therefore between the centre tap and each extreme of the secondary winding there is a voltage of 9 volts; this can be considered as two 9 volt windings in series.

Diodes D1 and D2 are arranged to provide full-wave rectification.

If we consider the output from the upper secondary of T1, this will give an a.c. output, as shown in Fig. 2(a). Diode D1 will allow positive pulses to pass, but will block negative ones. The



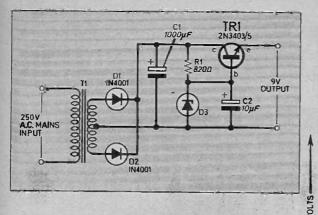


Fig. 1. The circuit diagram of the Battery Eliminator.

output from D1 will therefore be shown in Fig. 2(b).

Diode D2 will rectify the output from the lower secondary in the same way, but there is a slight difference, since this winding goes in the opposite direction, downward away from the centre tap.

The output from D2 is shown in Fig. 2(c), and the combined output of D1 and D2 in Fig 2(d).

While this output is d.c., it is a pulsating d.c., and is not suitable to power a radio in this form. Capacitor C1 is a smoothing capacitor.

A capacitor has the ability to store an electrical charge, and Cl therefore charges up on the peaks of the output from Dl and D2, and discharges during periods of low output. This gives an output as shown in Fig. 2(e), which is almost level d.c., with only a small ripple content.

Components....

Resistor R1 820Ω

½W ± 10% carbon

Capacitors

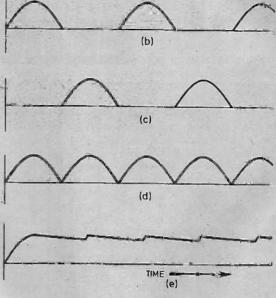
C1 1000µF 16V elect. C2 10µF 16V elect.

Semiconductors

D1 IN4001 D2 IN4001 D2 IN4001 D3 BZY88C10, 10 volt 400mW Zener TR1 2N3403 or 2N3405 silicon npn

Miscellaneous

T1 Mains/9-0-9V 100mA secondary Veroboard, 0-1in. matrix 20 strips x 17 holes; connecting wire; hardboard for case; exhausted battery (for connector plate); length of mains lead; fused mains plug.



(a)

Fig. 2. Waveforms at different parts of the circuit—see text for details.

The output from the mains transformer is 9 volts r.m.s. and the peak value of the output is nearly 50 per cent more than this. The unloaded output across C1 will be about 13 volts, which is too high to connect to piece of equipment intended for 9 volt operation.

Under load conditions this voltage will drop, but most transistor radios use class B output stages, which under quiescent conditions have a very low current consumption, and would cause

little voltage drop.

A simple method is used to reduce the output voltage under low load conditions; R1 and D3 form a simple shunt regulation circuit, and give a stabilised potential of 10 volts at the base of TR1 which is used in the emitter follower configuration. The output potential of this type of circuit is the same as that at the input, minus about 0.7 volts for a silicon transistor, as is used here.

By stabilising the input voltage at the base of TR1, the output at its emitter will also be stabilised.

The output impedance of an emitter follower is low, and so the circuit will easily supply the required current (about 100mA maximum). Capacitor C2 is required to smooth noise spikes produced across D3, as these would otherwise appear across the output.

The output voltage will be about 9.3 volts (10V-0.7V), although this is subject to slight variation due to the tolerance of the Zener diode.

BATTERY ELIMINATOR

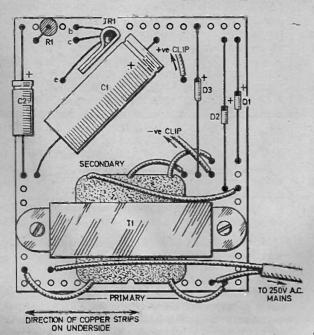
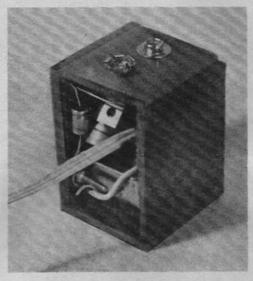
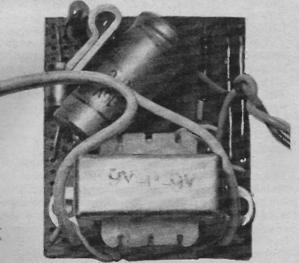


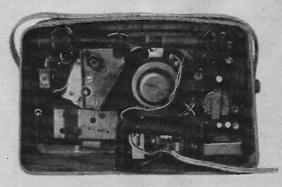
Fig. 3. The layout of the components on the topside of the Veroboard. There are no breaks on the underside.



The prototype unit in case ready for fitting into the radio cabinet.



Photograph of the completed prototype component board.



The prototype unit fitted in the battery compartment of the radio.

This is about the same voltage as is given by a

fresh battery.

An added bonus of the stabilisation circuit is that it will virtually eliminate the ripple present on the voltage across Cl. giving an almost pure d.c. at the output.

CONSTRUCTION

All the components are mounted on 0.1in matrix Veroboard size 20 strips by 17 holes as illustrated in Fig. 3. There are no breaks in the copper strip on the underside.

Two of the holes in the panel are enlarged using a No. 31 twist drill, to enable them to

accept 6BA mounting bolts for T1.

The transformer flying leads are cut to length, and soldered to the appropriate points on the panel. The remaining components should then

be mounted and soldered into position.

A soldering iron with a miniature bit is really required for use with 0.1in matrix board, and even then care must be taken not to short circuit adjacent copper strips with any excess solder. Remember to use a heatshunt when soldering TRI in place.

A mistake in the wiring could easily cause damage to one or more of the components, and the completed component assembly should be thoroughly checked for mistakes and short circuits before it is connected to the mains.

CASE DETAILS

In order to leave no exposed mains wiring, and to make the unit a snug fit inside the battery compartment of the radio, the device should be housed in a wooden case built to the same dimensions as the battery it is to replace. Hardboard pinned and glued will make a suitable

The component panel is secured to one face of the case by means of the transformer mounting bolts. The top of the case is salvaged from an exhausted battery top (the part containing the connectors). With the component panel fitted in place the appropriate two wires should be soldered to the connectors and the top panel secured. The mains lead should be led out through a hole in one of the side panels.

Most battery operated receivers have a removeable back, or a battery compartment with a removeable back, in order to facilitate battery changing. This back should be removed and a small notch made at a strategic point in one edge, through which the mains lead can pass when the back is replaced. The notch is easily made using a file, or a fret saw.

The Battery Eliminator then just plugs into the receiver in place of the battery. The unit gives a very pure output, and when the prototype was tested, no mains hum was audible on the output

from the receiver.

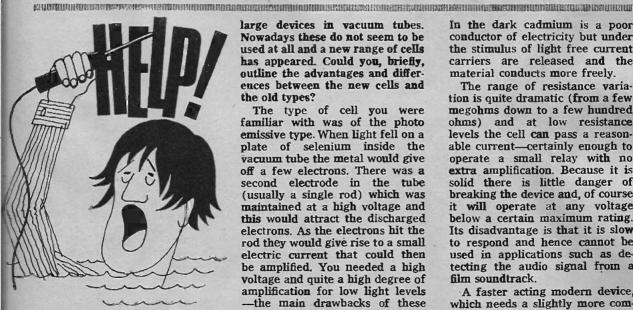


Photo-cells

First of all, my apologies for what might seem a rather open ended question. I took up an interest in electronics a long time ago and amongst other things learned a bit about how to use photo-cells - which were quite

large devices in vacuum tubes. Nowadays these do not seem to be used at all and a new range of cells has appeared. Could you, briefly, outline the advantages and differences between the new cells and the old types?

The type of cell you were familiar with was of the photo emissive type. When light fell on a plate of selenium inside the vacuum tube the metal would give off a few electrons. There was a second electrode in the tube (usually a single rod) which was maintained at a high voltage and this would attract the discharged electrons. As the electrons hit the rod they would give rise to a small electric current that could then be amplified. You needed a high voltage and quite a high degree of amplification for low light levels the main drawbacks of these old devices. However they had the distinct advantage of having a very fast response.

The most common modern device is photo-resistive cell which operates on an entirely different principle. It contains a material called cadmium sulphide which is deposited between two electrodes.

In the dark cadmium is a poor conductor of electricity but under the stimulus of light free current carriers are released and the material conducts more freely.

The range of resistance variation is quite dramatic (from a few megohms down to a few hundred ohms) and at low resistance levels the cell can pass a reasonable current-certainly enough to operate a small relay with no extra amplification. Because it is solid there is little danger of breaking the device and, of course it will operate at any voltage below a certain maximum rating. Its disadvantage is that it is slow to respond and hence cannot be used in applications such as detecting the audio signal from a film soundtrack.

A faster acting modern device. which needs a slightly more complicated circuit to make it work, is the photo-diode (sometimes called a photo-voltaic cell). There is a forward voltage drop across a silicon pn junction (typically 600mV) and this can be made to vary in level by a small amount under the action of light. This voltage is detected and amplified.



EVERY year the Association of Professional Recording Studios holds a two-day exhibition in London. Although only professional equipment is on show and entrance is restricted to broadcasters, studio engineers and press concerned with professional recording, there are always a few exhibits of wider interest.

It is also one of the most pleasant exhibitions to wander round, because the only sounds being played are over headphones and although a few exhibitors have impressive banks of high-power loudspeakers on display, they are mercifully silent. What a change it all makes from the annual cacophony at Olympia.

CHANGED ATTITUDE

The exhibition also makes an interesting social comment. Nothing on sale at the exhibition is cheap, with most multi-track tape decks and studio mixing consoles costing many thousands of pounds a time. The company representatives selling them are usually conventionally dressed and it is fascinating to watch them greeting long-haired, bearded youngsters in jeans as bread and butter customers.

Gone are the days when only a man in a suit, a starched collar and a club tie had money to spend. Nowadays it is more likely to be the long-haired studio engineer who will have a cheque book and £30,000 cash to spend.

As someone who was once refused a job with BP because I had no parting in my hair, I am the first to welcome the disappearance of a few arbitary prejudices. It may also come as a comfort to older readers with electronically talented children, who regularly fail their school

exams, to learn that a disgraceful ignorance of Latin or Greek is no longer an all-time bar to a creative career in broadcasting or recording.

DUPLICATING

But I digress, although relevantly I hope. This year the Japanese firm, Otari, was showing some tape duplicating equipment which is being handled for them in this country by Industrial Tape Applications.

As most people realise, it takes far longer, and thus costs far more, to duplicate tapes than to press discs. It also costs more to produce a cassette or cartridge than a flat piece of vinyl. So it is small wonder that cassettes and cartridges still cost more than discs. The real wonder is that cassettes and cartridges don't cost even more than they do.

One way of bringing the price down is to speed up duplication and there are various techniques

around for doing this.

Clearly it would be grossly uneconomical to duplicate tapes on the simplest one to one basis—it would take an hour to dub a C60 or two hours to dub a C120. The first step is to dub all four cassette tracks at the same time, two running backwards and two running forwards. Of course it makes no difference which way the tapes are dubbed because the final product will still be an accurate replica of the original.

The next step to economy is to use several (usually up to 10) slave machines copying from one master machine. This way ten tapes are produced in the time taken to produce one, and by dubbing all four tracks at once, the total length of time is halved. But this is still uneconomical.

HIGH SPEED

The answer is to run the tape at high speed through the player and at commensurately high speed through the slaves. This will reduce the time taken to dub and again (because the relative speeds are the same), the final products will be accurate replicas of the original.

There are also techniques of copying the tapes by a magnetic sandwich method (putting master and blank tapes together and blasting a magnetic field through to imprint a replica of the original on the blank) but that would be another digression in the present context.

The problem with dubbing at high speed is that the tape becomes unmanageable and the audio frequencies involved become extremely high.

If, for instance, the audio range recorded on the original master tape is 40Hz to 15kHz, then to double the playback speed and double the recording speed (to produce a correct speed replica) will involve handling frequencies of 80Hz to 30kHz. These may be manageable frequencies, but double the speed again and the quality of electronic engineering required starts to look worrying.

The Otari duplicator uses a playing machine which runs I inch wide master tape round at the staggering speed of 240 inches per second. This is incidentally the kind of speed that tape was run at around 15 years ago when someone first had the bright idea of using ordinary tape machines to record video.

To cope with the high frequencies needed to record television they used massive spools and ran the tape through at frighteningly high speed. The machine shook like a spin dryer, behaved like a gyroscope and cut off any fingers that happened to get too close. Mercifully helical scanning for video was invented and high linear tape speeds were no longer necessary.

The way that the Otari inventors have overcome the problem of handling tape at such high speed is to forget about take-of and take-up reels altogether. A continuous loop of master tape simply stacks up in a closed bin like film on a cutting room floor. Photo-electric gadgetry senses the



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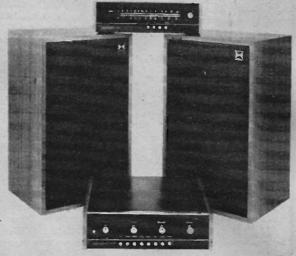
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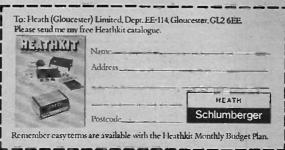
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C	1	4-7-10M	3-2	2.5	1-92 nett
MO	1/2	10-1M	4	3.3	2·3 nett
ww	1	0.22-3.9₽	51	10	8
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3	2-2	Ξ	-	-	-	11p	_	8p	9p
1	4-7	_	-	-	11p	-	80	9p	8p
п	10	-	_	-	_	8p	9p	8p	8p
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۱	100	9p	8p	8p	8p	9p	100	12p	19p
1	220	8p	8p	9p	10p	10p	11p	17p	28 p
1	470	9p	18p	10p	11p	13p	17p	24p	45p
П	1,000	11p	13p	13p	17p	20p	25p	41p	=
ı	2,200	15p	18p	23p	26p	37p	41p	-	-
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beginning and end of each loop run and controls the ten slave machines.

TELEVISION FREQUENCIES

The master playhack machine (running at 240 inches per second) is reproducing tape originally recorded at 7½ inches per second and is thus playing back at 32 times the original recording speed. This means that an original audio frequency range of

40Hz to 15kHz becomes a reproduced band of 1 28kHz to 480 kHz which is around 0.5MHz.

In other words the audio frequencies on the original tape have become television frequencies during reproduction, and T.V. engineering and electronic standards start to apply.

So that the copy tapes produced on the master machines will be the necessary exact replicas, the ¹8 inch cassette tape (which incidentally runs between large

open reels and is later automatically cut up and loaded in cassettes) must also run at 32 times its correct speed (1 78 i.p.s.) which is 60 inches per second.

Think for a moment about running 18 inch wide cassette tape reliably at 60 inches per second and you will have another insight into the problems involved in copying. So next time you buy a cassette or cartridge and moan abont its price, spare a thought for how it was made.

New products and component buying for constructional projects

SHOP TALK

By Mike Kenward

A PARTICULAR component buying problem came to light from past projects. It is a problem that we were not aware of and concerns diecast cases. A reader phoned us in early September to ask where he could buy a diecast case, we of course said almost anywhere. However, he had already checked most of the larger suppliers and all to no avail.

Some suppliers probably still sell these cases but they seem to be rare. However, if readers do have difficulty they can get them from Doram at prices ranging from 55p to £1·14 for the various sizes.

Tape Noise Limiter

Quite often we get a project where we say all components are readily available and sometimes readers write to us saying "I cannot get these parts in my area" or "where can I buy these parts near . . .?" The point is that we cannot check all suppliers for availability, we can only check

those suppliers who provide us with catalogues (most advertisers) and we can only check them at the time this column is written—about five weeks before you read it

If a particular item is listed in most of the catalogues then we say it is readily available, unfortunately, component shortages may alter this situation for short periods. Anyway, having said all that, all components for the Tape Noise Limiter should be readily available.

To amplify the point a little, we are also unable to provide a "directory" of suppliers, e.g. some readers write to ask if we can supply the name of their nearest stockist of particular components. This is simply impossible as we may not even know of all the suppliers in their area, we can only keep tracks on those suppliers that advertise in our issues or in other "electronic publications."

Telephone Monitor

Woolworths, the best place to get components—well not usually, but they do sell bell transformers quite cheaply, and that's just what is needed for the Telephone Remote Monitor. The only other parts likely to cause problems in this unit are the relay and microphone.

The relay should be available from the larger suppliers—most will have something to do the job but prices do vary considerably. As for the microphone, you will have to hunt around for the cheapest—telephone inserts are suitable and one was used in the original. Or you could use a 75 or 80 ohm miniature loudspeaker; although this is just under the specified impedance you can get away with it.

The alarm system used for this project is a matter of choice—bell, lamp or buzzer can be used.

Windscreen Wiper Control

Some of the parts used by the author in the prototype Windscreen Wiper Control are rather expensive and the shrewd reader can save a few pence by careful buying—the cost box reflects these savings in part. The relay is the first item that should be carefully looked at—any type that will meet the specification should be considered. original was an R.S. type costing OVET £2 (suppliers, Doram). Similar, non plug-in, relays are available for about £1.25. The contacts should be rated at about 7 amps but two 5 amp contacts wired in parallel will suit.

The second saving can be made by using skeleton preset or t.v. type preset potentiometers instead of the multiturn type which cost about 60p or more each. However, the multiturn types are easy to mount, provide a neat finished appearance and are easily adjusted.

Battery Eliminator

Only one component in the Battery Eliminator requires special mention—the 2N3403, 4 or 5 transistor specified. This device is rather unusual in that it has a heatsink attached. A look through the advertisements should locate suppliers.

The case for the prototype unit was home made from hardboard but if required it may be possible to find a suitable plastics case—the size is critical.

The Extraordinary
Experiments
of
Professo
Ernest
Eversure



Professor Ernest Eversure, or the Prof. as his friends call him, has been experimenting in electronics for more years than anyone can remember and we thought that you might like to hear of, and perhaps repeat, some of his extraordinary experiments. Anthony J. Bassett will be recounting some of the experiments every month so why not follow the Prof's work and learn along with young Bob, his friend.

Come on, Prof., quickly," said Bob. "Let's get out of here!" but to his surprise, the Prof. was walking calmly towards the strange piece of equipment. It shuffled to a halt in front of the Prof. The dial readings all changed, and a different set of lights began to flash. The machine emitted a strange sounding series of clicks and whistles. Amazingly, the Prof. pursed his lips and clicked and whistled back at the machine, which promptly turned around and trundled off.

"One of my latest experimental robots," remarked the Prof.

"What was all that clicking and whistling?" asked Bob.

"That is a form of audible communication which enables me to hold a conversation with the robot, exchanging information and giving it my instructions."

Bob was about to ask the Prof. how the robot worked, and what instructions he had given it, but the Prof. began once more to talk about how Bob can make his own components. He pointed out to Bob that the resistor he had just made was of unknown value. Even

though he had just made a resistor, which functioned quite well in the Note Generator, neither the Prof. nor Bob knew how many ohms the resistance was!

"We can alter the resistance quite easily," said the Prof. "To make it higher, just remove some of the carbon track." He switched on the oscillator once more, and a musical note came again from the earpiece at a constant pitch. The Prof. removed a tiny portion of the carbon track by rubbing it gently with very fine emery cloth or sandpaper. The pitch of the note became lower. "To make the resistance lower," said the Prof.,
"we must add more carbon to the track. This can be done by putting on more graphite paste. To make smaller alterations in the value of the resistor, rub it gently with a soft graphite pencil or a lump of artist's graphite. If you put too much extra graphite on the resistor in this way, it can be removed by rubbing with a typist's

Bob found a soft lead pencil and asked: "Does this pencil contain graphite, Prof?"

The Prof, replied: "I know that

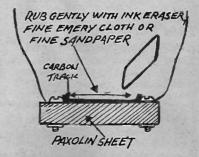
some black pencils are made of almost pure graphite, and others are made of coloured wax compositions which are entirely unsuitable for our experiments. Fortunately it is quite easy to find out whether the pencil is a graphite one. By using an ohm meter, you can easily find out whether the pencil will conduct electricity."

Whilst Bob hunted around unsuccessfully for an ohm meter, the Prof. pursed his lips and emitted a short series of clicks and whistles. From amongst the fantastic arrays of scientific equipment in the laboratory came the strange answering sounds of the robot.

"The robot will bring an ohm meter," the Prof. told Bob.

While they waited for the robot to locate an ohm meter from the huge selection of equipment, Bob

Altering the value of the Prof's resistor.



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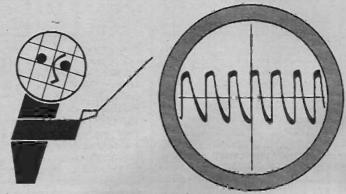
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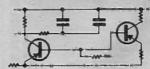
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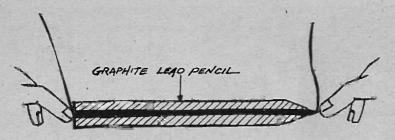
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RAPY



A graphite pencil can be used as a resistor by connecting a wire to each end.

disconnected the Prof's. experimental resistor from his oscillator, and connected the two wires of the oscillator to the ends of the graphite pencil. A high pitched note immediately sounded from the earpiece. "It's graphite!" he exclaimed, "This pencil is acting as a resistor!"

"This is because there is a continuous length of graphite from one end of the pencil to the other," said the Prof., "and because of this, a word of warning. always keep pencils, or anything which might carry current, away from mains live wires, because if you touch a live wire with a conductor, electricity can flow along it and give the person holding it a dangerous shock. It is quite safe to connect a pencil to your oscillator, however, because only a low voltage is present from the battery."

Bob picked up several pencils and tested them with the oscillator. Each one produced a different note. "Prof! I've just discovered that the harder pencils produce a lower note than the soft ones! The 5B pencil produces an extremely high note, the 8H pencil produces the lowest one, and the others are in order between!"

"The results of this simple experiment are very interesting," observed the Prof., "because you can now demonstrate one method which is used by resistor manufacturers to determine the values of produce. the resistors they Graphite is normally a soft black solid, and lumps of pure graphite are so soft that when they are rubbed on paper, some of the graphite rubs off and marks the paper. For harder pencils, the graphite is mixed with finely powdered clay, and this gives it higher electrical resistance. This is why the hard pencils give a lower note with your oscillator. Resistor manufacturers use the same principle to produce different values of carbon composition resistor."

"If you examine the construction of a commercially made carbon composition resistor, you will easily notice that it is very similar to the construction of a graphite pencil. Both consist of a graphite rod inside a tube. The resistor has small metal caps on the ends of the rod, so that connecting wires can be attached by soldering, welding or crimping. By changing the proportion of clay which is mixed with the graphite, the value of the resistor in ohms can be altered."

BRASS END CAPS PRESSED
ONTO GRAPHITE ROD

CONNECTING
WIRE

PLASTIC MOULDING
WITH COLOURED CODING

Basic construction of a commercial carbon composition resistor.

Bob had drawn a thick black pencil line on a piece of paxolin, and whilst listening to the Prof., he had gone over it several times using a soft graphite pencil. Now he applied the two wires which he had used to connect the oscillator to the pencils, to the ends of the pencil line. A series of clicks came from the earniere.

Bob moved the two wires closer together, whilst keeping them in contact with the pencil line. The clicks sounded at a faster and faster rate until the result was a low, buzzing note. As he moved the wires even closer to each other, the pitch of the note became higher and higher. By connecting the wires to different parts of the graphite pencil track on the paxolin, Bob found that he could produce different musical notes.

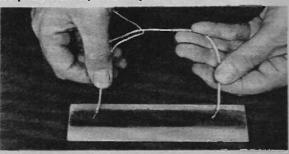
"Fantastic!" he exclaimed. "This gives me an idea for the School Science Fair!"

He began trying to play a tune!
Just at that moment the Prof's.
experimental robot, which he had
earlier sent to find an ohm meter,
appeared from another part of
the-laboratory. As it approached,
Bobs attempts to play a tune
with his oscillator began to have
a remarkable effect on the robot!
What he had not noticed, was that
his efforts were producing a series
of clicks and whistles very similar
to those sounds which the Prof.
had earlier used to give his instructions to the robot!

As the robot approached to deliver the ohm meter to the Prof., each note of Bob's oscillator caused peculiar and somewhat sinister movements. The Prof. watched with awed fascination as the big metal robot drew nearer and nearer. The reader may well imagine that the clicks and buzzes from the oscillator were not giving the robot the proper instructions at all! Could it be that the tune he was playing might drive the powerful robot berserk?

Continued next month!

A type of variable resistor that Bob made by drawing with a graphite pencil on a piece of paxolin.



DOWN TO EARTH TO

By GEORGE HYLTON

"The man in my local component shop finds the turns ratio of a transformer by comparing the resistances of the primary and the secondary windings. Does this work?"

No, it doesn't. At least not in most cases. The one case in which it does work, in theory, anyway, is when the turns ratio is unity: i.e. when it's a "1 to 1 transformer". This is a good point from which to start so let's look at the problem in a simplified form. Suppose a transformer has a oneturn primary and a one-turn secondary, giving unity turns ratio. If the turns are the same length and made from the same thickness of wire then they must have the same resistance, so in this case the resistance ratio is the same as the turns ratio.

CONSTRUCTION

In a good transformer the primary and secondary should together fill the bobbin which holds the windings, and the space should be divided equally between them. A cross-section of our one-turn design is then as shown in Fig. 1a. Here the bobbin is of the two-slot kind with a central partition to insulate primary from secondary. However, we aren't interested in the bobbin itself so from now on I'll leave it out and just show the windings.

You'll have noticed that we have used square wire. That's best, in this case, because it fills up the space completely, as a good winding should. We will use whatever shape of wire does so, in this article—even if there's no

such wire in real life. Changing to round wire doesn't affect the argument. But it's not so easy to visualise what's up when, as in Fig. 1b, the primary is given two turns by using rectangular wire—made by splitting a length of the original square wire down the middle!

Now, each turn of this rectangular wire has half the cross-sectional area of the square, so each turn has twice the resistance. Since there are two turns, each with twice the resistance, the total resistance is four times the resistance of the square turn. So the resistance ratio (primary to secondary) is 4, or, if you insist 4 to 1. This is twice the turns ratio, so the component shop's method doesn't work now.

In Fig. 1c, the wire is split again, giving four turns, each of four times the original "square" resistance, that is 16 times the secondary resistance when the turns ratio is 4. Now, 16 is 4 squared and 4 is 2 squared. If you try splitting the primary into other numbers of turns, say 3 or 8 you'll find that the resistance ratio is always the square of the turns ratio. So the shopkeeper says the ratio is 100 to 1 when it's really only 10 to 1!

PRACTICAL TRANSFORMERS

You ought to be able to find the turns ratio, by taking the

Fig. 1. Cross section of various side-by-side wound transformer bobbins.

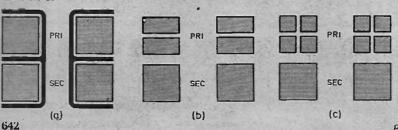






Fig. 2. Practical transformer bobbin showing secondary wound over primary.

square root of the resistance ratio. Unfortunately it still doesn't work. The reason is that real transformers aren't like Fig. 1. Most bobbins aren't divided. The windings are put one on top of the other, e.g. as in Fig. 2.

Here the primary turns, being on the inside of the bobbin, are shorter than the secondary turns, which are on the outside. So even if primary and secondary are wound with the same wire, and have equal numbers of turns, the primary has a lower resistance. So the rule doesn't work, in practice, even for a 1 to 1 transformer.

If the turns ratio is unequal, the insulation on the winding which uses the thinner wire wastes a greater proportion of the space and leaves less room the conductor, and this further distorts the picture. In many transformers, the winding isn't equally divided between primary and secondary, as it should be, and this upsets the resistance ratio too. So even the square root of the resistance ratio is a pretty poor guide to the turns ratio in practice.

That being so, how do you measure the turns ratio?

For audio transformers (and most mains transformers) the best method of all is to use a bridge (Fig. 3). The potentiometer is set for balance (sound in phones vanishes). Then the turns ratio (L1 to L2) is the same as R1/R2. If the bridge won't balance, reverse the connections to one winding.

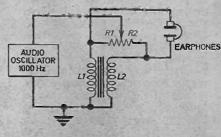


Fig. 3. A bridge method for determining turns ratio.

Sinclair's 4th dimension in high fidelity

Project 80

The slim modules for building stereo hi-fi with FM

Project 805

Project 80 made even easier to build

Project 805S0

The add-on assembly that gives you quadraphony

016 Loudspeakers

The square speakers for 4 channel

Four channel listening has arrived!

Thanks to Project 80 versatility and marvellous compactness, adding two more channels is easy, efficient and economical - you simply add on Project 805SQ, or select the necessary modules from the Project 80 range detailed on the fourth page of this advertisement. Another way is to start with the new Project 805 (which is Project 80 complete in one pack) and add 805SQ to it. Our technicians have adopted the CBS SQ matrix principle to carry the rear left and right channels since it is already clearly the most widely used method in quadraphonic recordings. The decoder, however, can be modified to discrete systems without difficultly. Sinclair suitability for quadraphonics by no means stops with Project 805SQ.TheQ.16 .always a superb loudspeaker in its own right becomes one of the best ways of creating effective ambience without taking up too much space or money. Project 80 quadraphonic modules are ready now for you to enjoy both stereo and true quadraphonics right away with better reproduction from mono records as well.











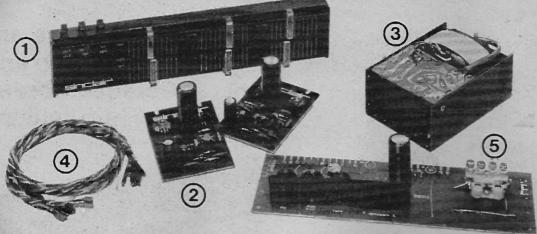






Everyday Electronics, November 1974

Forward with Project 80 into



Everything you want in one pack to build the world's most advanced modular hi-fi WITHOUT SOLDERING

- Stereo 80 Control Unit For mag. and ceramic cartridges, radio and tape.
- 2 Project 80 power amplifiers Two Z.40s to give 8/8 watts R.M.S. output per channel.
- 3 Power supply unit One PZ.5.
- 4 Connecting wires
 All wires plus nuts, bolts, screws etc.
- 5 Project 805 Masterlink For input and output connections
- 6 Mains switch block and instructions manual (not illustrated).



SINCLAIR RADIONICS LTD London Rd, St. Ives, Huntingdon PE17-4HJ Telephone St. Ives (0480) 64646

This is Project 80 made even easier to build

You have seen how the marvellously compact Project 80 modules (only 2" high x 1" deep) are so adaptable and easy to install. Now, with Project 805, this wonderful system is made easier still to put together. In this, you have not only all the Project 80 modules in one pack for building an 8/8 watt R.M.S. hi-fi amplifier — there is also a loom of colour coded wires cut to length and tagged for ctipping on so that you don't even have to solder! Input and output connections go via the 805 Masterlink panel. With the explicit stage-by-stage large 32 page instructions manual included, it becomes easy for anyone, no matter how inexperienced to install an ultra-modern assembly so advanced in appearance and design that it sets brand new concepts in domestic hi-fi— and of course, you can convert to quadraphony just whenever you wish by adding 805SQ. Only Sinclair know-how and manufacturing facilities could hope to bring you such quality and versatility.

TAGGED WIRES CUT TO LENGTH NO SOLDERING

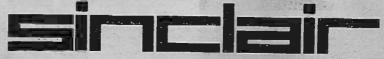
Project 805

the complete ready-to-build hi-fi STEREO AMPLIFIER

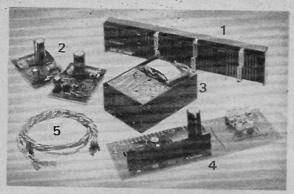
Project 805 comprises a Stereo 80 Pre-amp/Control Unit with input for both magnetic and ceramic cartridges, radio, tape; separate bass and treble cut/lift, and volume controls $2\times Z.40$ power amplifiers, PZ.5 power unit, 805 Masterlink, wire loom, instructions manual, etc. down to nuts, bolts and washers.

£39.95

+£3.20 VAT (R.R.P.)



true quadraphonics... NOW!



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- 1. Project 80SQ decoder with controls.
- 2. Two Z.40 power amplifiers.
- 3. PZ.5 power pack
- 4. Project 800 Masterlink unit.
- Wire loom, with clip-on tags NO SOLDERING!
- 6. (Not illustrated) Instructions manual, nuts bolts, washers, etc.

Add a fourth dimension to your stereo sound

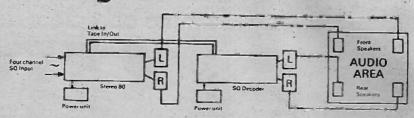
It's so simple to convert to quadraphonics when you already have Project-80, or are about to start with Project 805. Project 805SQ is a complete add-on system at the heart of which is the Project 80SQ decoder. It uses the CBS.SQ matrix principle, by now the widest used method of containing four sound channels within the groove of the record. Project 805SQ includes two power amplifiers, power supply unit, connecting wire loom, 805Q Master-link, switch block and instructions manual. The 80SQ decoder (also obtainable separately) has independent tone and volume slider controls on the two rear channels for matching true four channel sound to domestic environment. Project 805SQ is money saving too since you do not have to scrap existing Project 80 equipment to enjoy the newest and most exciting form of home listening in the entire history of sound, and your Project 80 quadraphonic assembly is compatible with stereo and mono records.

Project 80SQ Decoder (available separately)
£18-95 +£1-52

- Frequency response 23db 15 Hz=25kHz
- Rated output 100mV
- S/N ratio 58d8
- Distortion 0-1%
- Power requirements 22-35 volts
- Phase shift network 90° ± 10, 100 Hz-10kHz
- Adaptable to discrete (CD4) use



Project 805SQ



The output from any good stereo cartridge feeds into Stereo 80 and passes via the tape outlet to the 80SQ decoder. Here the signal is separated into its constituent 4 channels, those for the front being accepted by the Stereo 80, those for the rear going from the decoder to the two additional power amplifiers and speakers.

£44.95

+£3.60 VAT (R.R.P.).

Guarantee If, within 3 months of purchasing any product direct from us, production of receipt of payment, Many-Sinclair Appointed Stockists also offer this guarantee. Should any defect arise in normal use within 2 years, we will service it without charge. For damage arising from mis-use a nominal charge will be made.

All Project 50 modules, Project 805 and Project 805SQ are obtainable from your local Sinclair stockist or direct, post free, in case of difficulty

The Project 80 programme to date

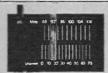
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Stereo 80 pre-amp/control unit



260 x 50 x 20mm (10½ x 2 x 3 ins.) separate slider controls on each channel for treble, bass and volume. INPUTS - Mag. P.U 3mV (RIAA. corrected) ceramic - 300mV, Radio 100mV, Tape 30mV, S/N ratio 60dB. Frequency range - 20Hz to 15KHz ± 1dB. OUTPUTS - 2.5V rms max (30V. supply) and tape plus AB monitoring. PRESS BUTTONS for P.U., Radio and Tape. Operating power - 20 to 35V. Black case with white £13.95 ** (B.R.P.)

Project 80 F.M. tuner



Size 85×50×20mm (3½×2×2 ins.). Tunes 87.5 to 108MHz. DE-TECTOR - I.C balanced coincidence (I.C equivalent to 26 transistors) Distortion - 0.2% at 1 KHz for 30% modulation. SENSITIVITY microvolts for 30dB quieting. Output - 300mV for 30% modulation. Aerial imp. - 75 Ω or 240-300 Ω . Dual Varicap tuning. 4 pole ceramic filter. Switchable A.F.C. Operating power 23-30 volts.

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Project 80 stereo decoder

Size 47×50×20mm For adding to Project 80 FM tuner. With one I.C equal to 19 transistors, and LED indicator which glows on tuning in stereo signal.

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Project 80 active filter unit (A.F.U.)



Size 108 × 50 × 20mm. Useful where there is need to eliminate unwanted high frequencies (scratch, whistle, etc) or low (rumble). Voltage gain minus 0-2dB. Frequency response (filter at zero) 36Hz to 22KHz. H.F cut (scratch) variable from 22KHz to 5.5KHz 12dB/octave slope. L.F. cut (rumble) - 28dB at 28Hz, slope 9dB/octave.

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Project 80 power amplifiers

Intended for use in Project 80 installations, these modules readily adapt to an even wider range of applications. Both incorporate built-in protection against short circuiting and risk of damage from mis-use is greatly

reduced Z.40

Size - 55 x 80 x 20mm 9 transistors Input sensitivity - 100mV

Output - 12 watts RMS continuous into 8 Ω (35v) Frequency response - 10Hz - 100KHz + 1dB

S/N ratio - 64dB

S/N ratio = 64db Distortion = 0.1% at 10 watts into 8 $\,\Omega$ at 1KHz $\,\pm\,5.95\,^{+48\rho}_{
m VAT}\,(R.R.P.)$

Size - 55 × 98 × 20 mm 12 transistors

Input sensitivity - 100-250mV Output - 25 watts RMS

continuous into 8 \O(50V) Distortion - 0.02% at 10W/8 Ω/1KHz

Frequency response - 10Hz to more than 200KHz + 3dB

S/N ratio - better than 70dB

Built-in protection against transient overload and short circuiting Load impedance - 4 \(\Omn; \) max, safe on open circuit

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PZ.8 Stabilized. Output adjustable from 20 to 60V. approx Re-entrant current limiting makes damage from overload or even shorting impossible. Without mains transformer.

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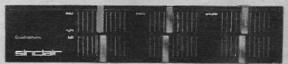
Project 805 (previous pages)

£39.95 +£3.20 VAT (R.R.P.)

Project 805SQ quadraphonic

add-on kit £44.95 +E3.60

Project 80SQ quadraphonic decoder



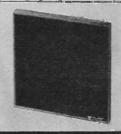
Size 260 x 50 x 20mm, matching Stereo 80 in style. Connects with tape socket on stereo 80 or similar facility on any stereo amplifier. Frequency response 15Hz to 25KHz ± 3dB. Distortion 0.1%. S/N ratio 58dB, Rated Output - 100mV. Separate bass and treble slider controls on each channel, also volume. Phase shift network 90" ± 10, 100Hz to 10KHz. Operating power - 22-35V.

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AC128	18p BC107	13p BC186	25p BF182	41p OC71	12p 2N2926	12p
AC141K	22p BC108	13p BC187	25p BF183	43p OC72	12p 2N3053	31 p
AC142	. 25p BC109	14p BC212	13p BF184	32p QC75	12p 2N3054	60p
AC165	20p BC115	15p BC212L	15p BF185	32p OC81	12p 2N3055	60p
AC178	18p BC116	15p BC214L	19p BF194	14p OC82	12p 2N3702	150
A C187	22p BC117	23p 8CY70	21p BF195	17p OCP71	35p 2N3703	14p
ACL88	22p BC125	15p BD112	52p BF196	15p ORP12	65p 2N3704	20 p
AC193K	28p BC142	24p BD115	75p BF197	16p TIP29A	49p 2N3705	20p
AD140 .	53p BC143	21p BD116	60p BF200	40p T1P30A	58p 2N3706	19p
A D143	73p BC147	12p BD124	81p BF259	25p TIP31A	62p 2N3707	20p
AD149	70p BC148	12p BD131	60p 8F262	26p TIP32A	74p 2N3708	20 p
AD161	42p BC149	12p BD132	64p BF263	26p TIP33A	98p 2N3709	190
AD162	42p BC153	18p 8D140	66p BF337	48p TIP34A	148p 2N3710	190
AF114	25p BC154	18p BDY32	57p BFY50	250 TIP41A	79p 2N3711	190
AF115	25p BC157	15p BF115	32p BFY51	22p TIP42A	90p 2N3819	321
AF116	25p BC158	15p BF158	22p BFY52	22p TIS43	35p 2N4062	·25p
AF117	25p 8C159	14p BF159	22p BRY39	41p ZTX108	18p 40360	46p
AF118	50p BC169	15p BF160	23p MJE340	47p ZTX300	18p 40381	430
AF121	50p BC171	13p BF161	26p MJE370	68p ZTX302	20p 40362	450
AF126	50p BC172	22p BF164	22p OC26			
AF127	50p BC177	20p BF173	28p OC28	90p ZTX341	18p 40363	88p
AF139	53p BC182	15p 8F177	29p OC35	90p ZTX500	18p 40406	44p
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0-1	0.15	JACK P
26p	22p	Standard
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130p	105p	D.I.N. P
#6p	72p	2 pln. 3 p
	51p	Plug 12p
-	18p	4 way scr
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62p	820	
52p	520	BATTER
20p	29p	9V mains
	26p 24p 28p 34p 95p 130p 86p	28p 22p 28p 28p 34p 34p 95p 67p 130p 10p 86p 72p — 15p — 15p 62p 82p 52p 52p

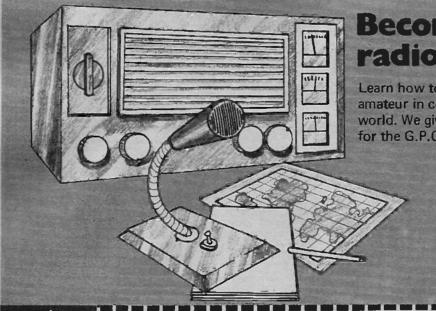
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2.NAS93 A 1-38	2N456 0-75	2N2647 1 12	2N3905	0-24	, ACY28	0.20	BC169B	0-13	, BD132		BFY19 0-62	MI490 0-98
2.MASS A 1-36 2.MASS A	2N456A 0.75	2N9042 0-22	2N3906	0 · 27	ACY30	0.58	BC169C	0-13	BD135	0 - 43	BFY70 0-50	M1491 1-38
2N499 3-16	2N457A 1-35	2N2904A	2N4036	0.63	AD142	0.57	BC170	0.11	BD136	0.49		
2N491 3-58 2N290S 0-24 2N4058 0-16 AD149V 0-06 BC172 0-11 BD138 0-13 BFYS1 0-12 MIESSS 0-12 N499 0-16 12 N4096 0-15 2N4059 0-16 12 N5096 0-16 12 N5096 0-17 2N509 0-16 12 N5096 0-16 12 N5096 0-17 2N509 0-16 12 N5096 0-16 12 N5096 0-17 2N509 0-16 12 N5096 0-17 2N509 0-16 12 N5096 0-17 2N509 0-16 12 N5096 0-18 12 N5096 0-18 12 N5096 0-18 12 N5096 0-19 12 N509	2N490 3-16	0.24	2N4037	0.42		0-45				0.55		
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A. A. A. A. A. A. A. A.											BU105 2-25	MPSA06 0-26
2N/180 0 - 10			2N4919	0 -84					BF119	0.58	C106A 0-46	MPSA55 0-26
2N799 0-17 2N2924 0-14 2N3926 0-11 2N3922 0-84 AFIBI 0-55 BC208 0-11 BFI25 0-27 C106E 0-43 NE550 4-48 NE550 1-12 N3101 0-50 2N31053 0-32 ZN4923 0-88 AFI22 0-30 BC212K 0-10 BF152 0-20 C106E 0-43 NE550 4-48 NE550 1-12 N3101 0-12 ZN31053 0-32 ZN4923 0-89 AFI23 0-30 BC212K 0-10 BF152 0-20 C106E 0-43 NE550 4-48 NE550 1-12 N3101 0-12 ZN3101 0-12	2N706A 0 · 16	0.24			AFI16		BC187	0.27	BF121	0.25		
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2.00 2.00			AC117		BC140	0.34	BCY39		BF258	0.59		
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BA7	7"	×	5*	× -	24"	70
BA8	8" .	. ×	6"		3"	90
BA9	6"	×	4"	× -	11 21 3 3 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	58
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The versatility of their design makes them ideal for use in record players, tape recorders, stereo amplifiers and casette and cartridge tape players in the car and at home.

Parameter	Conditions	Performance
BARMONIC DISTORTION	Po = 3 WATTS f=1KHs	0-25%
LOAD IMPEDANCE		8 - 16 Ω
INPUT IMPEDANCE	f-1KHz	100 kΩ
FREQUENCY RESPONSE ± 34B	Po=2 WATTS	50 Hz - 25KHz
SENSITIVITY for RATED O/P	Ve=25V. Rl=8Ω f=1KH2	75mV. RMB
DIMENSIONS		3" × 21" × 1"

The above table relates to the AL10, AL20 and AL30 modules. The following table outlines the differences in their working conditions.

Parameter	AL10	AL20	ALSO
Maximum Supply Voltage	25	30	30
Fower output for 2% T.H.D. (RL = $8\Omega i = 1 \text{ KHz}$)	3 watts RMS Min.	5 watta RMS Min.	10 watts RMS Min.

AUDIO AMPLIFIER MODULES

AL 10. 3 watts AL 20. 5 watts AL 80. 10 watts

POWER SUPPLIES

PS 12. (Use with ALIO, ALZO, ALZO) 889 SPM 80. (Use with ALGO) 23 25 PRONT PANELS SP 12 with Knobe

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There are two stereo inputs, one has been designed for use with "Ceramic cartridges while the auxiliary input will suit most †Magnetic cartridges. Full details are given in the specification table. The four controls are, from left to right: Volume and on/off switch, balance, base and treble.

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Scansitivity 4mv

± 12dB at 60Hz Bass control-

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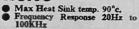
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Harmonic Distortion
Input: 1. Tape Head
2. Radio, Tuner
3. Magnetic P.U.

SPECUTICATION

Frequence Response

Harmonic Distortion

Large Head

2. Radio, Tuner

2. Radio, Tuner

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All input voltages are for an output of 250m; Tape and P.U. inputs equalised to RIAA curvs within \(\pm \) 14B, from 29H to 20KHz.

4. 150B at 20Er

1. 150B at 20 All input voltages are for at equalized to RIAA curve w Bass Control Treble Control Filters: Rumble (Higb Pass) Scratch (Low Pass) Signal/Noise Ratio Input overload

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