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The 80-GRAFIX board is simple to install (note that this voids your Radio Shack warranty), and programming is done through BASIC. 80-GRAFIX opens up a whole new realm of software development and excitement never dreamed of for the TRS-80!

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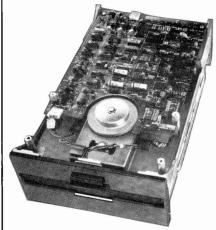
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INTERNATIONAL EDITIONS Electronics Today International, 145 Charing Cross Road, London WC2H 0EE, UK Electronics Today International, Ryrie House, 15 Boundary Street, Rushcutters Bay, Sydney, Australia Firad

Kommanditgesellschaft, Bissendorfer Strasse 8, 3000 Hannover 61, Germany Electronica Top Internationaal Postbus 93, Bilthoven, Holland

ETI Magazine is Published by:

Electronics Today International (Canada) Limited Newsstand Distribution: Master Media, Oakville. Ontario

SUBSCRIPTIONS \$16.95 (one year), \$29.95 (two years). For US add \$3/yr., other countries add \$5/yr. Please specify if subscription is new or a renewal.

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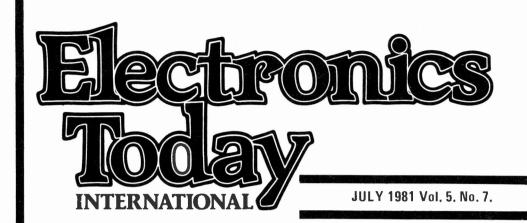
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Features

LM3914 Circuits 14 The LEDs ao up, the LEDs ao down . . . you could probably get them going around in a circle if you feed in cyclical voltages. This heavily useful chip is discussed by Ray Marston.

How To Solder 18 If you can't solder, you're in big Ever tried building a trouble. micro-computer by twisting the ends of the wires together? Read this brief work by Keith Brindley and your life will again have meaning.

Michael Faraday 25 I suppose this article comes a bit late as an obituary. On the other hand, it's probably too long, too. It deals with electronic pioneer Michael Faraday, without whom capacity would be measured in "micro-whatsits".

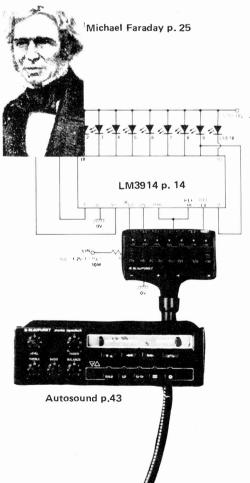
Current Affairs 29 I'll bet you don't think holes and electrons aren't too exciting. Well, surprise! They're not. But this article will make you brilliant, so you won't care. At least, that's what A.S. Lipson said when he sold it to us.

Auto Sound Survey 43

Ah, the joys of tooling down the highway in the trusty family jeep with the Grateful Dead playing in the back seat. Don't think you can get the whole Grateful Dead in the back seat? Maybe you need Auto Stereo. Wally Parsons certainly thinks so.

Project Fault Finding 62 If your newly constructed 2.5 megawatt per channel amplifier begins to blow out the three inch steel bars that serve as fuses, there is probably a fault in the project. Turn it off and read this article, by Keith Brindley.

IC Master 65 3400 pages of wild, sensuous data. The unspoken secrets of multiplex decoder chips. Passionate encounters with linear IC's. The dark, lustful truth about microprocessors. Steve Rimmer reviews this treasure trove of titillating spec sheets.



There's absolutely nothing to equal the splendor of meandering down a deserted country road in your chariot with trees as far as the eye can see, gurgling mountain streams, pure, unpolluted air, wildlife, peace, tranquillity and Deep Purple on the box at 120dB. Check out the box, on page 43.

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Universal Timer 10 Many applications call for a variable time delay. Sometimes a water clock isn't appropriate, and the atomic standard's out in the barn. You need this little creation.

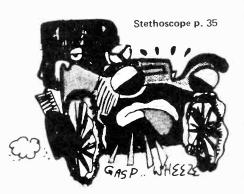
Bargraph Car voltmeter 22 If you have mice in your motor, they will eat through your insulation by and by, and do the back stroke in your battery. All of this will do the electricals no great deal of good. Build this circuit, and put a cat in your carburator.

Engineer's Stethoscope 35 Useful for detecting which engineers are dead and which are merely talking slow.

Motherboard 49 As motherboards go it's about what you'd expect. It calls you every Wednesday and asks you to come over for meatloaf and spinach. After a while it announces it's getting a divorce, and flies off to Rio with the man from PCO. When its daughter boards turn up pregnant it sends back post cards asking "Where did we ever go wrong."

Universal Timer p.10





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Universal Timer

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Columns

Paul Geiger Steve Rimmer

Wally Parsons

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Editorial Queries

Written queries can only be answered when accompanied by a self-addressed, stamped envelope. These must relate to recent articles and not involve the staff in any research. Mark such letters ETI-Query. We cannot answer telephone queries Binders

Binders made especially for ETI are available for \$6.75 including postage and handling. Ontario residents please add sales tax.

Sell ETI and ETI Special Publications ETI is available for resale by component stores. We can offer a good discount when the minimum order taining the magazine could ask their local elec-tronics store to stock the magazine.

Component Notation and Units

We normally specify components using an interna-tional standard. Many readers will be unfamiliar with this but it's simple, less likely to lead to error

and will be widely used everywhere sconer or later. ETI has opted for sconer! Firstly decimal points are dropped and substituted with the multiplier: thus 4.7uF is written 4u7. Capacitors also use the multiplier nano (one nanofarad is 1000pF). Thus 0.1uF is 100nF, 5600pF is 5n6. Other examples are 5.6pF = 5p6 and 0.5pF = 0.50.5pF = 0p5.

Resistors are treated similarly: 1.8Mohms is 1M8, 56kohms is the same, 4.7kohms is 4k7, 100ohms is 100R and 5.6ohms is 5R6.

PCB Suppliers

PCB Suppliers ETI Magazine does NOT supply PCBs or kits but we do issue manufacturing permits for companies to manufacture boards and kits to our designs. Con-tact the following companies when ordering boards. Please note we do not keep track of what is available from who so please don't contact us for in-formation on PCBs and kits. Similarly do not ask, PCB suppliers for help with projects.

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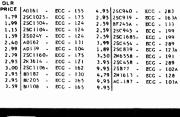
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NEV-'S

LICCE

Sharp's EL-7001 Memowriter is a pocket-sized alphanumeric calculator with a 10-digit liquid crystal display and 16-character-per-line impact printer. As many as 48 characters can be retained in the buffer memory.

The calculator provides basic functions plus constant, chain, reciprocal, power, percentage and round-off keys. It has a four-key memory plus a fixed or floating decimal.

Fast ADC

A new, low-cost flash (videospeed) analog-to-digital converter, the CA3300, available from RCA Solid State, uses CMOS technology to achieve sampling rates as high as 15 MHz (66 ns conversion time) with power consumptions below 200 milliwatts — the first CMOS flash ADC in the industry.

Operating from a single dc supply of 3 to 12 volts, the new CA3300 flash ADC develops a 6-bit latched 3-state output with an overflow bit and two "chip enables" at an accuracy to within \pm 0.5 LSB (least significant bit). It is designed for accurate digitizing of highspeed video signals and transient events in applications that demand both high-speed conversions and low power consumption. The CA3300 operates over a wide dynamic input-voltage range of 2.5 volts up to the dc supply voltage with typical low CMOS power consumptions. When operated

The typewriter has 40 word-memories which hold seven letters and 10 numerals — or 15 letters — per memory. The printer automatically switches over to a second memory when the first is full.

The EL-7001 Memowriter comes packed in its own soft carrying case with an ink ribbon, paper roll and instruction booklet. It is powered by a rechargeable Ni-Cd battery and can be adapted to an AC outlet.

Suggested retail price is \$159.95, available at Sharp dealers and selected retailers across Canada.

from a 5-volt supply at a clockgenerated sampling frequency of 11 MHz, the power dissipation of the CA3300 is less than 50 milliwatts. At a sampling frequency of 15 MHz, an 8-volt supply is required, and the amount of power consumed increases to about 180 mW.

The CA3300's overflow bit makes possible the connection of two or more CA3300's in series to increase the resolution of the conversion system. A series connection of two CA3300's in parallel doubles the conversion speed (i.e., increases the sampling rate from 15 MHz to 30 MHz). The feedforward technique (CA3300's combined with a high-speed 6-bit D/A converter, a binary adder, control logic and op amp, Resulting in a 12-bit submicrosecond A/D converter.

Further information on the CA3300 flash ADC may be obtained from RCA Solid State Division, Box 3200, Somerville, NJ 08876.

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Introducing "Jet Stock", a high priority service from ACA Electronic Centres that doesn't cost you anything extra With "Jet Stock" you get next day shipment of all orcers and prepaid delivery across Canada, all at ACA's highly competitive prices.

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11111

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Accessories and other products are also included. Additional items will be added as market demand and inventory guantities permit.

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EPROM Programmer

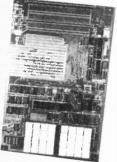
Designed and manufactured in Canada, the Z.800 is a small, por table, low-cost unit capable of pro gramming single 5 volt NMOS EPROMS without the use of personality modules or additional hardware. It is currently programmed for use with the following EPROM types: 2758, 2508, 2716, 2816, 48016, 2732, 2732A, 2532, 2764, 2564 and 68764.

A particular EPROM type is selected by making a simple keystroke entry. The Z.800 then accomodates the device pin-out and algorithm, all under softwar control. Software up-dates will be available to accomodate future EPROMS (if necessary, up to 512k in density).

The two 28 pin sockets allow two different EPROM types to be used at the same time for direct duplication and verfication without any intermediate steps. The master socket is 'cold' (no programming voltages applied) to ensure protection of the MASTER against accidental programming or damage.

Quantec Systems Ltd. P.O. Box 832 Station "A" Scarborough Ontario M1K 5C8 Tel (416) 291-8761

More on Multiflex



The response to our cover feature in May on the Multiflex Z80 computer from Exceltronix is said to be amazing. We believe it, too, 'cause when you go down to the Exceltronics store you see the people behind the counter looking very pleased with themselves, and walking around a foot off the floor.

As a result of the huge number of cards, letters, telephone calls, telegrams, emmisaries from Arabic shiekdoms and one peculiar

ETI-JULY 1981

Tiny TV Transmitter

A complete, single-chip miniature precision transmitter capable of generating a high quality television signal for transmission on a 75-ohm cable has been introduced by Motorola. This 14-pin plastic integrated circuit, the MC1374, is aimed at applications in video tape and disc players, home TV cameras, and subscription TV decoders, where a professional quality RF signal is required. While primarily characterized for the FCC guarded channel 3 and channel 4 operation, its balanced design and high frequency processing make special applications feasi-For example, the RF ble. oscillator and modulator can be operated at over 100 MHz, a requirement for the Japanese market.

The package contains the RF oscillator, balanced RF modulator, sound carrier oscillator, and FM modulator, thoughtfully arranged to permit "clean" printed circuit board layout and good isolation of sound and video circuits. The RF modulator closely resembles the highly regarded earlier MC1496 modulator, complete with dual inputs and adjustable gain. The RF oscillator is internally connected to the modulator, and has only 2 external pins, which can be used for LC tuning or crystal control. The modulator provides the means to generate a standard signal from video of either polarity, and levels of from 0.5 to 2.5 V p-p. The dual inputs also permit insertion of video and modulated 4.5 MHz sound carrier separately, thereby reducing the possibility of cross talk and unwanted mixing products.

The sound oscillator and FM modulator are actually one inseparable circuit within the IC. Two pins are brought out for the IC tuning components which establish the nominal carrier frequency. A third pin is used for audio input and, if desired, DC frequency control (AFC) of the sound oscillator. Also the sound oscillator power supply pin is brought out separately, permitting the sound section to be disabled. Price in 100 up quanities, is \$2.88.

fellow who showed up late the other night in a big silver thing marked 'UFO', all of which followed this report, Exceltronix have put a special ad in this issue to describe the functions, facilities and other highly useful whizzbangs of the computer in profound detail.

Check out page 67 and become illuminated.

Solid State Emitter Guide



A twenty-four page product guide providing tabulated data and outline configurations for RCA's line of Solid State Emitters has been released by RCA Electro-Optics and Devices.

The line includes the following types of IR emitters and injection lasers: infrared emitting diodes, pulse and CW operated injection lasers, stacked diode lasers, and laser systems.

The product guide, SSE-100 features an applications section depicting schematics of typical drive circuits for IR emitting diodes and injection lasers. Selection guides are also included.

Copies of the SSE-100 product guide may be obtained by writing to RCA, Box 3200, Somerville, NJ 08876.

64K Dynamic RAM Evaluation Kit



Motorola IC Division has introduced a 64K Dynamic RAM Evaluation Kit, priced at \$150.00 each. Motorola offers this kit to aid in the designer's evaluation of the MCM6665 64K Dynamic RAM. This Dynamic RAM is fabricated using HMOS high performance N-channel silicon gate technology. The Evaluation Kit contains: Ten (10) MCM6665L20 (200 nanoseconds), 64K Dynamic RAMs (usually \$49.00 each / 1-24), a Oualification Manual request coupon, two data sheets (MCM6664, MCM6665), A Motorola Memory Selector Guide, and a notebook for use in your evaluation. Kits are available now, limited to one per customer location. This kit provides an effective way of evaluating Motorola's Dynamic RAMs. For further information contact your local Motorola sales office or Motorola distributor.

Independent Videotext System

A Canadian-owned and managed videotex company, TeleMart International Ltd. of Toronto, is launching its independent videotex systems for immediate commercial use in North America and Europe.

The TeleMart "Series 50" systems are designed and manufactured for immediate use in business, government and education, rather than in the home. Because its systems are independent, TeleMart International has overcome the inherent disadvantages of dependent systems for private applications. Dependent systems require outside communications links, off-site data bases and computers which provide severe constraints on system effectiveness.

An important added advantage of independent systems is their inherent privacy and confidentiality. Users can be sure no one ,else has access to the type, scope and sequence of information sought. Security of the data is alsoguaranteed because access terminals cannot be used to modify data pages.

In terms of graphics, the Series 50 systems allow eight programmable graphic fonts to be used, on any page, in combination with eight basic colors and 14 shades. Of the eight fonts, four can be displayed in four different sizes and four are high resolution. Because the fonts are userprogrammable, the range of graphics and languages is unlimited.

The TeleMart search technique allows any page to be coded using up to one hundred million descriptors. Users can locate and call up any page in as few as three search steps. In combination with computer-generated indices, TeleMart's approach dramatically reduces the number of costly index pages otherwise required.

Manufactured in Canada, the new independent videotex systems can be used immediately without concern for the different videotex standards still being developed throughout the world. In addition, because they are independent, each system can communicate with its own data base. By using a popular international computer communications standard, the Series 50 terminals are also able to talk to other computers.

For more information, contact TeleMart International Ltd, at 361 Steelcase Rd. West Unit 1, Markham, Ontario. Our two-range (1-10 and 10-100 min) timer has excellent stability and produces a 30 second pulsed alarm sound at the end of each timing period. The unit is line powered, can switch 15 A loads and can give either make or break timing operation.

MOST analogue (pot controlled) longperiod timers published in electronics magazines use a 555 one-shot IC and a large electrolytic capacitor as their main Unfortunately. timing elements. conventional electrolytic capacitors have very wide tolerances (typically -50% to +100%) and suffer from relatively large and unpredictable leak-Consequently, these age currents. simple circuits cannot be relied upon to give accurate or repeatable timing periods or to give periods significantly exceeding 15 minutes or so.

Our ETI Universal Timer gets away from the conventional design approach, with its inherent disadvantages, by using an astable clock generator and a divideby-8192 CMOS counter as its main timing elements, the astable period being controlled by a pot and a highly stable polyester capacitor. Consequently, our timer has excellent accuracy and stability and can fully span the 1 min to 100 mins timing range in two switch-selected decade ranges.

Our timer has a few other unusual features. It is line powered and has a relay-switched power output socket that can be used to feed juice to external loads (heaters, lamps, etc.); the relay can switch currents of up to 15A and a mode switch enables the timer to give either make or break timing operations of the external loads.

Timing operations are initiated by a push-button start switch and a pulsedtone alarm sounds for 30 seconds to give an audible warning on the completion of each timing cycle. The unit has a variety of practical uses in the home, workshop, darkroom, etc.

Construction

Most of the circuitry (with the exception of T1, the relay, the switches and pot) is mounted on a single PCB, the construction of which should present few

Note that 1C1-3 (CMOS problems. types) should be mounted in suitable sockets and voltage regulator IC4 needs to be fitted with a small heat-sink.

UNIL TIMER

When construction is complete, fit the PCB in a suitable case, together with the power transformer and the heavyduty relay (which MUST be fitted in the specified socket) and proceed with the interwiring. Take special care over the interwiring of the relay contacts and SW2 and the 120V connections. Finally, drill a small hole (roughtly 4 mm) in the top of the case, bond the acoustic transducer below it and connect it to the rest of the circuitry.

Testing

When the unit is complete, give it a functional test as follows. First plug the unit in and check that its neon indicator illuminates when SW2 is set to TIMED BREAK position and turns off when SW2 is set to TIMED MAKE. Now set RV1 to its minimum position. set SW1 to the '1-10 min' range and firmly operate PB1. Check that the neon immediately changes state, indicating that the relay has turned on and the timing period has begun; also check that the relay turns off again at the end of the timing period (roughly one minute) and that the acoustic alarm operates and generates a pulsed-tone signal for roughly 30 seconds when the timing period is complete.

Calibration

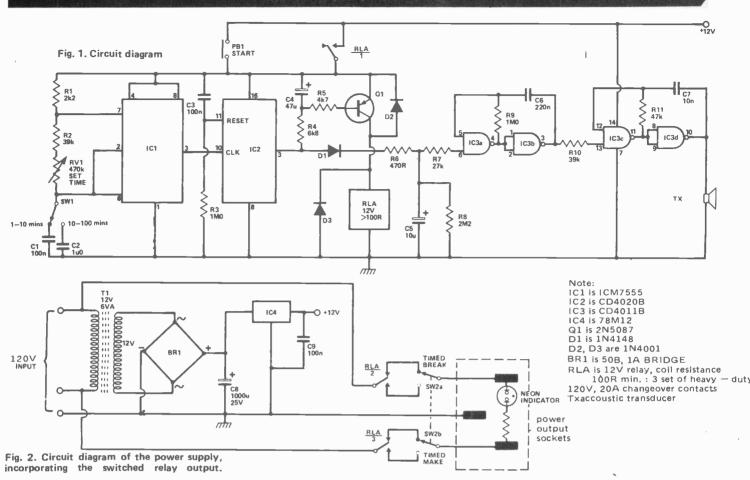
Once the unit is functioning correctly, you can proceed with the scale calibration. The obvious (and very time consuming) way to do this is to check the timing periods obtained by varying RV1 against a stop watch, by trial and error, until suitable RV1 calibration points are found,

Resistors all ¼ R1 R2,10 R3,9 R4 R5 R6 R7 R8 R11	W 5% 2k2 39k 1M0 6k8 4k7 470R 27k 2M2 47k
Potentiometer RV1	470k Linear
Capacitors C1,3,9 C2 C4 C5 C6 C7 C8	100n polycarbonate 1u0 polycarbonate 47u 25 V axial electrolytic 10u 63 V electrolytic PCB type 220n polycarbonate 10n polycarbonate 1000u 25 V axial electro- lytic
Semiconductor IC1 IC2 IC3 IC4 Q1 BR1 D1 D2,3	rs ICM7555 CD4020B CD4011B 78M12 or 7812 2N5087 50 V, 1 A bridge rectifier 1N4148 1N4001
Miscellaneous SW1 SW2 PB1 Tx1 RLA T1	1 pole rotary switch DPDT toggle 15 A 240 V momentary push button transducer 12 V coil resistance > 100R, 3 pole changeover, contacts rated at 120 V, 20 A and 11 pin relay base 25 A rated 12 V, 6 VA

- PARTS LIST -





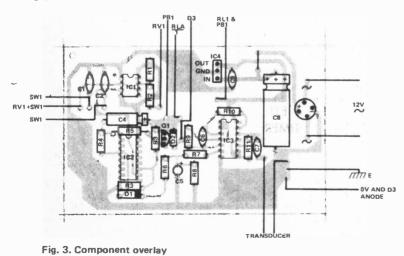


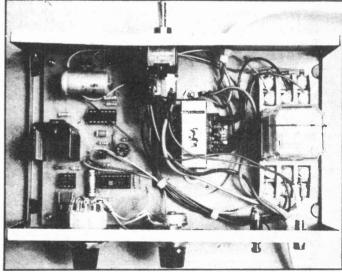
Alternatively

If you have access to a reasonably accurate scope, a far easier way to calibrate the timing scale is to directly measure the period of the IC1 clock waveform, noting that a period of 7.32 mS corresponds to a timing period of precisely one minute. Thus, 1 min = 7.32 mS, 5 mins = 36.6 mS, 10 mins = 73.2 mS, etc.

The upper timing range of SW1 is approximately a decade up on the lower range, so a single calibration scale can serve for both ranges. The tracking accuracy of the two ranges depends on the relative accuracies of C1 and C2 and will typically be within 10% if good polyester components are used. If you want precise tracking you can achieve it by replacing C2 with a 820nF polyester capacitor and then padding its value up by trial and error, until precise coincidence of the '5 min' and '50 min' points is obtained on the two range scales. PROBLEMS? NEED PCBs? Before you write to us, please refer to 'Component Notations' and 'PCB Suppliers' in the Table Of Contents. If you still have problems, please address your letters to 'ETI Query', care of this magazine. A stamped, self addressed envelope will ensure fastest reply. Sorry, we cannot answer queries by telephone.

Construction is fairly straightforward, IC4 needs a small heatsink and CMOS ICs 1-3 should be mounted in sockets,





The circuit comprises four main blocks, these being an astable clock generator (IC1), a multi-stage binary divider (IC2), a relay driver (Q1) and a gated alarm-call generator (IC3), all powered from a 12 V regulated line provided by IC4.

The clock generator is designed around IC1, a CMOS version of the 555 timer. The chip is wired in the astable mode and generates clock signals with periods variable over the 7.3 mS to 732 mS range via RV1 and SW1. The output of IC1 is used to clock the multi-stage CMOS binary counter designed around IC2, which is effectively wired in the 'divide-by-8192' mode; the output (pin 3) of this counter is normally low but goes high on the arrival of the 8192nd clock pulse.

The output of IC2 is used to drive relay RLA on via Q1 and to gate on the alarm-call generator (IC3) via the D1-R6-C5-R8-R7 network. This generator comprises a fast astable (IC3c-IC3d) and a slow astable (IC3a-IC3b). The slow astable is gated on by a momentary high output from IC2 and then gates the fast astable on and off at a rate of about 2 Hz.

The alarm-call generator part of the circuit is permanently connected to the 12 V supply lines, but the IC1-IC2-QI parts of the circuit are only connected to the supply rails when PB1 or relay contacts RLA/1 are closed. The complete circuit functions as follows.

Timing operations are initiated by momentarily closing PB1, thereby connecting the supply to the IC1-IC2-Q1 circuitry. As PB1 is closed, a reset pulse is fed to pin 11 of IC2 via C3 and causes the counter's registers to set to zero, driving the output of IC2 low. As IC2's output goes low it drives Q1 and the relay on via R4-R5, thereby causing contacts RLA/1 to close and maintain the supply to the circuitry once PB1 is released.

As soon as PB1 is closed, IC1 starts to

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1000

PROB

CHASSIS

oscillate and generate clock pulses, which are then counted by IC2. On the arrival of the 8192nd clock pulse the output of IC2 switches high, turning Q1 and the relay off and causing contacts RLA/1 to open and break the supply connections to IC1-IC2-Q1. The timing sequence is then complete.

C4 imposes a slight turn-off delay on Q1, so that the output of IC2 remains high for 100 mS or so before the relay turns off. This brief high period is sufficient for the IC2 output to fully charge C5 via D1 and R6, thereby activating the IC3 alarmcall generator, which produces an audible pulsed-tone signal in the PB-2720 transducer. Once the relay has turned off, the charge on C5 slowly leaks away via R8 until, after about 30 seconds insufficient charge remains to gate IC3a on, at which point the alarm-call generator turns off. The entire operating sequence is then complete

SW1b

Q1,2 MPS6514, MPS6515

Designer Circuits

SIGNAL INJECTOR -TRACER

There are two extremely useful pieces of test gear for both the serviceman and the amateur constructor. These are a signal source and a signal tracer.

Faced with a transistor radio that doesn't work, what do you do? It is important that a logical approach is taken and although this may sound obvious, it is very, very easy to become diverted.

First check that the battery is not flat (for this accounts for about 50% of so called faults) and then check that a good contact is being made on the cut-out switch of the earpiece socket if one is fitted. Always check these first but assuming there is still no joy what do you do?

The volume control is easily located, contacts can generally be made to it quickly and it is an excellent place to start.

If you inject a signal of the slider of the volume control and it is heard at a decent level from the loudspeaker you can be fairly sure that nothing is wrong with the amplifier. If nothing is heard there is obviously something wrong and the field is immediately narrowed.

Assuming that the audio stage is working you can then inject and IF signal at the collector of the mixer stage — the same rules apply as before.

Alternatively you can take the signal detect' approach. If instead of injecting a signal at the voume control you can listen at the same point to establish that the radio isd is working satisfactorily up to a certain point.

The above is a super concise lesson in fault finding but it does illustrate the tremendous use that a signal injector and a signal tracer can be put to.

The project described here is for a combined device — it can inject signals at RF IF and audio and can detect signals at the same frequencies assuming that they are high enough in level. The simplicity of circuit may lead you to doubt this claim but it does do all this.

The function switch, SW1, has

- No. 1 Off position
- No. 2 Trace Position
- No. 3 Inject Position

Position 1 merely disconnects the supply and the device is of course inoperative. As shown the function switch is in position 2 and in the trace mode.

One of the contacts is the common line and should be wired using a crocodile clip to the chassis of the equipment being investigated. The other connection is the probe.

This goes via DC blocking capacitor C1 whose working vol-

tage should be high — if a 500 V working component is used the circuit can be used on valved equipment working at high voltages.

02

R2 10k

1000

R3 2M2

1 0 SW1a

MAGNETIC

R4 10k

C3 1000p C4 10u

The signal is fed to Q1 which is arranged as a common emitter amplifier but which is biased nearly to cut-off which creates deliberate distortion at the same time as amplifying the signal. Distortion in such a manner leads to the detection of RF signals and so whatever the frequency fed in, assuming it is modulated, and audio output will be heard. The collector load of Q1 is R2 and the output of this stage is fed to a further one of similar design, but the collector load here is represented by a high impedance magnetic earpiece in which the signals are heard.

On inject, SW1 is in position 3 and the output of Ω_2 is coupled to R4, acting as the collector load and also to C3 which feeds back to the base of Ω_1 . The circuit, which was previously an amplifier, now becomes a multivibrator producing a square wave signal at approximately 1kHz and this is fed, again via C1, to the probe. A square wave can be described as a fundamental frequency plus all its harmonics and so in addition to 1kHz there is an output at 2kHz, 3kHz etc., going right up into the

B1 9V

RF range. In fact, these are still a useable output at 30MHz.

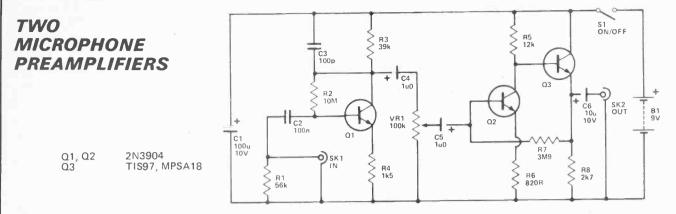
Holding the probe near the aerial will produce an output from a working radio as the injector is working as a very low power transmitter and an output at 1kHz will be heard from the loudspeaker.

High gain transistors are needed in order to hear really low signal sources and high frequency types are needed to handle the upper harmonics.

Note that only high impedance magnetic earpieces are suitable, though 2000 ohms headphones can be used instead.

Once completed and used the signal injector/tracer will be found to be almost indispensable and for this reason it is worthwhile building the circuit carefully and neatly into a small chassis.

Designer Circuits



Microphones provide only a minute output signal and cannot be used successfully with many items of equipment unless their output is augmented by a suitable preamplifier. For example, few stereo Hi-Fi amplifiers have an input that is an acceptable match for a microphone (a magnetic pickup input is unsuitable as it has RIAA equalisation with consequent bass boost and treble cut). Many simple mekers have only high level inputs and require separate preamplifiers for use with low level sources.

The first preamplifier circuit shown here is for use with low impedence (200 or 600 ohms) dynamic microphones. Most electret type microphones have an integral source follower JFET buffer stage which gives a low output impedence, and these should also work well with this circuit. Low impedence microphones have an extremely small output voltage which in normal use is unlikely to ever exceed 1 mV. RMS. This means that the preamplifier must have a high level of voltage gain and a very low noise input stage as well if a high signal to noise ratio is to be achieved. This circuit requires only about 200 uV. RMS at the input for an output level of 1 V. RMS, and the unweighted signal to noise ratio (input open circuit) is a little under --66 dB.

A common base input stage is used, and it is based on Q1 which is an ultra low noise — high gain device. Although the common base configuration is not often encountered in audio circuits it is ideal for this application as it gives the required low input impedance and high voltage gain. In order to obtain a really low noise level Q1 is operated at a collector current of only about 180 uA. C4 is an RF filter capacitor, and this reduces the risk of radjo signals picked up

Q1, Q2

Q3

by the input wiring breaking through to the output. With high gain circuits such as this RF breakthrough is not an uncommon problem, and ideally the unit should be built into a metal case so that the circuit is screened from RF signal sources.

The output from Q1 collector is fed by way of gain control RV1 and coupling capacitors C5 and C6 to a two stage amplifier circuit. Q2 is a common emitter amplifier and it provides the additional voltage gain that is required. Q3 is used as an emitter follower output stage and gives the circuit a low output impedance. Power is obtained from a 9 volt battery supply and the current consumption is only about 3 mA.

Many dynamic and electret microphones have an integral step up transformer which gives increased output voltage, but the available output current is of

2N3904

TIS97, MPSA18

S1 ON/OFF C4 100p R5 12k R3 39k R1 47k 1u 03 SK2 OUT + 0 VR1 100k log C3 50u 10V B1 9V 02 C7 10u 10V C1 1000 10V 01 4 C6 1u 0) SK1 IN R7 3M9 4 R8 2k7 R2 15k **R4** R6 120 R C2 10p 10V 12k

course decreased and so a preamplifier having a higher input impedance (usually 50k) is required. Aithough on the face of it there may seem to be no point in incurring the additional expense of the transformer plus the small loss of performance it inevitably gives, indirectly it gives improved performance. This is simply because a preamplifier designed to match the higher voltage, higher impedance signal tends to have superior performance to an equivalent circuit designed to match the direct output of the microphone.

The high impedance microphone preamplifier shown here requires an input level of approximately 5 mV. RMS for an output of 1 V RMS, and the unweighted signal to noise ratio (input short circuited) is well over -70dB. With reference to this output level. Apart from the input stage the circuit is virtually identical to the previous design, the only difference being that the emitter resistor for Q2 has been increased in value. This has been done because the circuit only needs to have a moderate amount of voltage gain, and the increased negative feedback produced by raising the value of the resistor gives the necessary reduction in voltage gain

The input stage is again run at a fairly low collector current (about 250 uA.) in order to give a low noise level. Only a moderate voltage gain and medium input impedance are required from this stage, and so Q1 is employed in the common emitter mode with non-bypassed emitter resistor R4 being used to introduce negative feedback to give increased input impedance and reduced voltage gain. The input impedance to Q1 is actually somewhat higher than is required, and so R1 is used to shunt the input and reduce the input impedance to approximately the required figure of 50k.

LM3914 CIRCUITS

This month Ray Marston takes an in-depth look at the LM3914 IC and shows a variety of ways of using it as an indicating instrument in the car and the workshop.

IF YOU LOOK at this month's 'Car Voltmeter' project you'll notice that it is based on the LM3914 Dot/Bar Display Driver IC from National Semiconductors. We've used this IC in several projects in ETI over the last few months and are greatly impressed with the device. We regard it as a very important new tool in the field of amateur and professional electronics.

The LM3914 is a highly versatile IC that is designed to sense an analogue input voltage and drive a line of 10 LEDs to give a visual analogue display of that voltage. The unit can give either a 'Dot' or 'Bar' display of the voltage. Figure 1 illustrates the appearance of the two alternative display modes when used to indicate 5 volts on a 10 volt scale. The unit acts as an inexpensive and superior alternative to the conventional analogueindicating moving-coil meter. It does not suffer from 'sticking' problems, is unaffected by vibration and can be used in any attitude.

			0		
			6		10V

Fig. 1a. 'Dot' indication of 5 volts on a 10 volt LED scale.

Fig. 1b. 'Bar' indication of 5 volts on a 10 volt LED scale.

The LM3914 can readily be used as the basis of a wide variety of 'indicator' and instrumentation projects in the home, the car, the workshop and in miscellaneous audio and musical projects. One of the great attractions of the device is that it is very easy to understand and use. You don't need to be a BA or MSc to be able to fully comprehend its operating principle and learn to adapt it to suit your own particular circuit requirement. We explain the essential details of the device and show several practical ways of using it in the next few pages.

The LM3914: Basic Principles

Figure 2 shows the equivalent internal circuit of the LM3914 IC, together with the connections for making it act as a 10-LED voltmeter with a full-scale sensitivity of 1.2 volts.

The first point to note about the IC is that it contains a 10-resistor potential divider, wired between pins 4 and 6. The IC also contains ten voltage comparator circuits, each with its non-inverting (+) terminal taken to its own particular tap on the potential divider, but with all inverting (-) terminals of the comparators joined together and taken to the output of an input buffer amplifier. This buffer amplifier gives an output that is, for all practical purposes, identical to the voltage applied to input terminal 5 of the IC. The output of each one of the ten

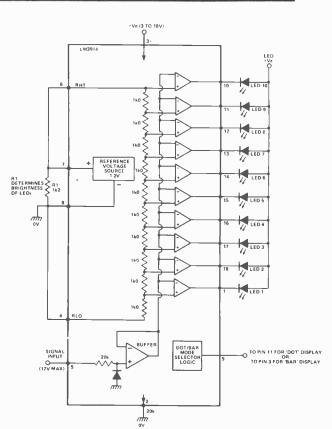


Fig. 2. Equivalent internal circuit of the LM3914 with connections for making a 0-12 volt dot or bar meter.

voltage comparators is individually available on one of the pins of the IC (pin 1 and pins 10 to 18) and is capable of 'sinking' a current of up to 30 mA.

The next point to notice is that the IC contains a built-in reference voltage source that provides a highly stable potential of 1.2 volts between pins 7 and 8. This source is of the 'floating' type, so that 1.2 volts is developed between pins 7 and 8 irrespective of whether pin 8 is tied to ground or is held at some voltage above ground. In the diagram of Fig 2 we've shown pins 7 and 8 externally connected to potential divider pins 6 and 4 respectively, so in this particular case 1.2 volts is developed across the 10-resistor potential divider network of the IC.

The final point to notice about the IC is that it contains an internal logic network that can be externally programmed to give either a 'dot' or a 'bar' display or action from the outputs of the ten voltage comparators. In the 'dot' mode, only one of the ten outputs is enabled at any one time. In the 'bar' mode all outputs below and including the highest 'energised' output are enabled at any one time.

At this point, let's put together the basic information that we have already learned about the LM3914 and the circuit of Fig 2, and see how the entire circuit functions. Let's assume that the logic is set for 'bar' mode operation.

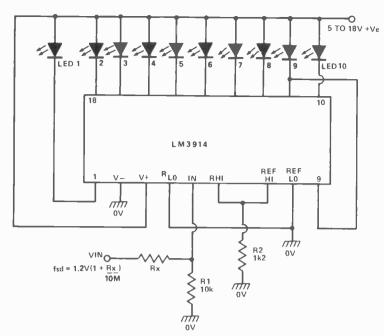


Fig. 3. 1.2 V to 1000 V FSD 'Dot' mode voltmeter.

We already know that a reference of 1.2 volts has been set up across the 10-resistor divider, with the low (pin 4) end of the divider tied to ground (zero) volts. Consequently, 0.12 V is applied to the '+' input of the lowest voltage comparator, 0.24 V to the next, 0.36 V to the next and so on. If we now apply a slowly rising voltage to input pin 5 of the IC, the following sequence of events takes place:

When the input voltage is zero, the outputs of all ten voltage comparators are high and none of the external LEDs are turned on. As the input voltage is slowly increased it eventually reaches and then rises above the 'reference' 0.12 volts value of the first comparator, which then turns on (it's output conducts) and energises LED 1. As the input is further increased it eventually reaches the 0.24 V of the second comparator, which then also turns on and energises LED 2. At this stage both LED 1 and LED 2 are on. As the input voltage is further increased progressively more and more comparators and LEDs are turned on, until eventually, when the input rises to and then exceeds 1.2 volts, the last comparator and LED 10 turn on, at which stage all ten LEDs are illuminated.

A similar kind of action is obtained when the LM3914 logic is set for 'dot' mode operation, except that only one LED turns on at any given time. At zero volts, none of the LEDs are on. At voltages above 1.2 (or whatever reference value is applied to the last comparator) only LED 10 is turned on.

At this stage, then, you can see that the LM3914 is a reasonably easy device to understand. Let's move on, then, and look at some of the finer details of its operation.

The LM3914: A Closer Look

There is one component in Fig 2 that we have not yet mentioned and that is R1. This resistor is wired between the pin 7 and pin 8 output terminals of the reference voltage source and determines or 'programmes' the ON currents of the LEDs. The on current of each LED in fact approximates ten times the output current of the Remembering that the reference develops 1.2 V, you can see that if a total resistance of 1k2 is placed across the pin 7 — pin 8 terminals the reference will pass 1 mA and each LED will pass 10 mA in the ON mode. In Fig 2 the total resistance across the reference terminals is equal to the 1k2 of R1 shunted by the 10k of the ICs internal potential divider, so the reference actually passes about 1.1 mA and the LEDs conduct 11 mA. If R1 were removed from the circuit the LEDs would still pass 1.2 mA due to the resistance loading of the internal potential divider on pins 7 and 8.

You'll notice from the above description that the IC can pass total currents up to 300 mA when it is used in the 'bar' mode with all ten LEDs on. The IC has a maximum power rating of only 660 mW, so there is a danger of exceeding this rating when the IC is used in the 'bar' mode. We'll return to this point later.

The LM3914 IC can be powered from any d.c. supply in the range 3 to 25 volts. The LEDs can use the same supply as the IC or can be independently powered from supplies with voltages up to a maximum of 25 V. The voltage across the internal potential divider can have any value up to 25 volts maximum.

The internal reference amplifier produces a basic nominal output of 1.28 volts (limits are 1.2 V to 1.32 V), but can be externally 'programmed' to produce effective reference values up to 12 V (we'll show how later).

The input buffer of the IC has integral overload protection and can withstand inputs of up to plus or minus 35 V without damage.

The IC can be made to give either a 'dot' display by wiring pin 9 to pin 11, or a 'bar' display by wiring pin 9 to positive-supply pin 3.

Practical Circuits: Simple 'DOT' Mode Voltmeters

The basic circuit of Fig 2 acts as a voltmeter that reads full-scale at an input of 1.2 volts. The range of the circuit can be changed in a variety of ways. The sensitivity can be increased, for example, by either interposing a d.c. amplifier between the input signal and pin 5 of the IC, or by reducing the reference voltage that is applied to the pin 4 — pin 6 terminals of the IC: in this latter case the IC will operate quite well with a reference voltage down to a couple of hundred mV.

The easiest and best way to reduce the sensitivity of the meter is to use the connections shown in Fig 3. Here, the basic circuit is that of a 1.2 V meter, but the input signal is applied to the IC via a potential divider formed by Rx and R1. Thus, the circuit can be made to read 12 volts full scale by giving Rx a value of 90k, so that Rx-R1 act as a 10:1 divider. This circuit can be used to read full scale voltages from 1.2 V up to about 1000V.

An alternative connection is shown in Fig 4. In this case the input voltage is applied directly to pin 5 of the IC, but the reference voltage on the internal devider is made variable from 1.2 V to 10 V via RV1. You'll remember that the 'reference voltage' develops 1.2V between pins 7 and 8, but this voltage is fully floating. By writing RV1 between pin 8 and ground we can ensure that the output current of the reference flows to ground via RV1, thus providing a voltage that raises the pin 8 (and also pin 7) value considerably above zero volts. This increased voltage is applied to the top (pin 6) end of the internal potential divider, which has its low end (pin 4)

grounded, and determines the full scale sensitivity of the circuit. This circuit has a useful voltage range of only 1.2 V to 10V. The IC supply voltage must be greater than the required full scale voltage.

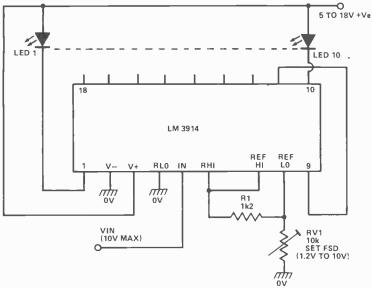


Fig. 4. An alternative 1.2 to 10 V FSD 'Dot' mode voltmeter.

Figure 5 shows how the LM3914 can be used as an expanded scale voltmeter that reads (say) 10V at minimum scale but 15 V at full scale. The secret of this circuit is that both the top and bottom ends of the internal potential divider (pins 6 and 4) of the IC are externally available, so the top and bottom limits of the scale can be individually set. In the diagram the top of the divider is fed from the 1.2 V reference, but the bottom is fed from

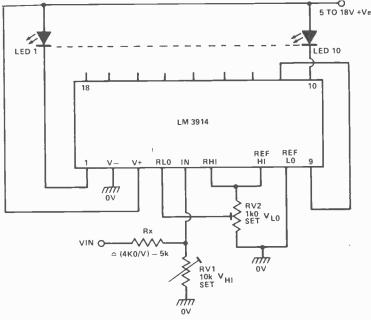


Fig. 5. Expanded scale (10 V - 15 V etc) 'Dot mode voltmeter.

the slider of RV2. The external input signal is applied to the IC via the Rx-RV1 potential divider. Thus, if 1.2V is set to the top of the divider and 0.8 V is set to the bottom and the input divider has a ratio of 20:1, the circuit will read 24 V at full scale and 16 V at minimum scale.

Practical Circuits: 'BAR' Mode Operation

The three basic voltmeter circuits of Figs 3 to 5 can be used with the IC connected in either the 'dot' or the 'bar' mode. When using the bar mode, however, it must be remembered that the power rating of the IC can easily be exceeded when all ten LEDs are on if an excessive voltage is allowed to develop across the output terminals

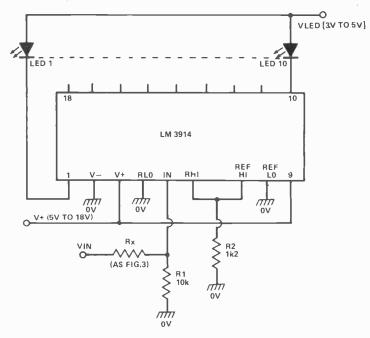


Fig. 6. Bar-display voltmeter with separate LED supply.

of the IC. LEDs normally drop about 2 volts when they are conducting, so one way around this problem is to power the LEDs from their own low-voltage (3 to 5 V) supply, as shown in Fig 6.

An alternative solution is to power the IC and the LEDs from the same source but to wire a current-limiting resistor in series with each LED, as shown in Fig 7, so that the output terminals of the IC saturate when the LEDs are on.

Practical Circuits: 20-LED Voltmeters

Figure 8 shows how two LM3914s can be interconnected to make a 20-LED dot mode voltmeter. Here, the input terminals of the two ICs are wired in parallel, but IC1 is configured so that it reads 0 to 1.2 volts and IC2 is configured so that it reads 1.2 volts to 2.4 volts. In the latter case, the low end of the IC2 internal potential divider is coupled to the 1.2 V reference of IC1 and the top of the divider is taken to the 'top' of the 1.2 V reference of IC2, which is raised 1.2 V above that of IC1.

The Fig 8 circuit is wired for 'dot' mode operation. In this case pin 9 of IC1 is wired to pin 1 of IC2 and pin 9 of IC2 is wired to pin 11 of IC2. Note that a 22k resistor is wired in parallel with LED 9 of IC1 in this mode.

Fig 9 shows the connections for making a 20-LED bar mode voltmeter. The connections are similar to those of Fig 8, except that pin 9 is taken to pin 3 on each IC, and a 470R current limiting resistor is wired in series with each LED to reduce the power dissipation of the ICs. **Practical Circuits: A 20-LED Car Tachometer** The LM3914 can be made to act as a car tachometer by

The LM3914 can be made to act as a car tachometer by simply wiring a frequency-to-voltage converter between

the vehicles contact breaker points and the input pin of the IC. Fig 10 shows the practical circuit of such a converter, designed to interface with either of the

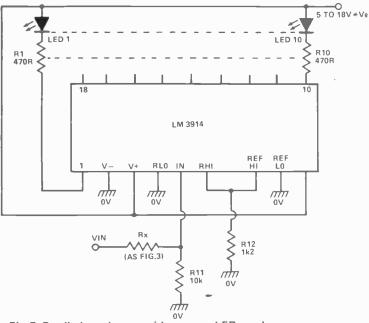


Fig. 7. Bar-display voltmeter with common LED supply.

20-LED voltmeter circuits of Figs 8 or 9. Note the LM2917 IC used in this circuit is a 14-pin device. The C2 value of 22n is the 'optimum' value for a full scale range of approximately 10 000 RPM on a 4-cylinder 4-stroke engine. For substantially lower full scale RPM values, the value of C2 may have to be increased. The value may have to be reduced on vehicles with 6 or more cylinders.

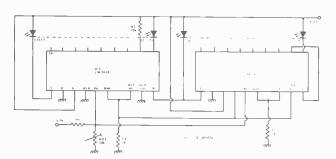


Fig. 8. Dot-mode 20 LED voltmeter. (FSD = 2.4V when Rx=1)

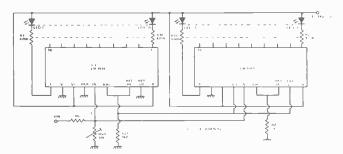


Fig. 9. Bar-mode 20-LED voltmeter. (FSD=2.4 V when R_=0).

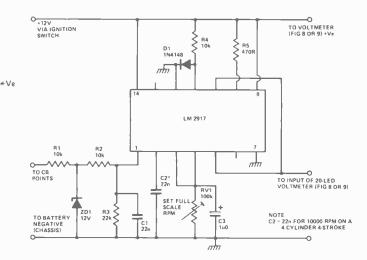
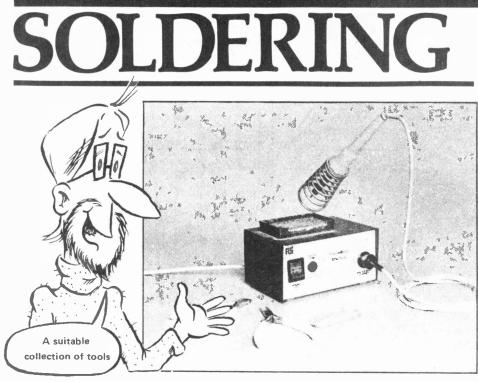


Fig. 10. Car tachometer conversion circuit for use with a 20 LED voltmeter. (Fig. 8 or 9).

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Circle No. 9 on Reader Service Card.



DON'T LET ANYBODY kid you into believing that soldering is difficult – it's not! There's no art to soldering, it's simply just a matter of applying the right rules at the right time. Nothing else! Once you know the rules, soldering is an easy as falling off a log, backwards.

First things first, you must have the equipment for the job: a soldering iron with a good tip; cored solder (not plumbers' stuff); and a good quality pair of long-nosed pliers and side-cutters. Irons are rated by their electrical power and any within the range 15-40W is normally adequate for PCB work.

What's it all about?

Now, just before we jump into soldering technique it might be a good idea to take a brief look at why we use solder at all. Well, the answer is simple – correct use of solder along with a PCB gives us a method of connecting the components of a circuit together in a permanent fashion which is the toughest, most resilient and neatest method available. The idea is that the joint is heated and solder is applied to 'alloy' the component to the copper track of the PCB.

Solder for electronic components consists of a mixture of tin and lead in about a 60/40 ratio and as such has quite a low melting-point (about 190° C) compared with the other metals in the joint. This low temperature melting-point of solder is the key to understanding the process — it means that the joint does not have to be heated up so much that component damage occurs, but

nevertheless, a strong join between the metals can still be obtained. Included in the solder are a number of thin veins of flux, which promote the fusion of the metals by preventing any rapid oxide build-up which would otherwise occur when the metals are heated.

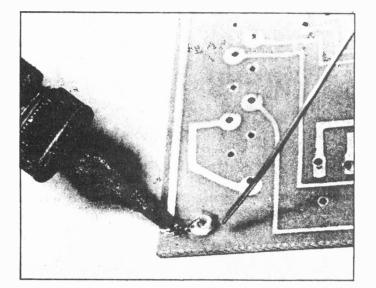
Everything to be soldered must be clean and greasefree, otherwise the solder cannot make a good joint. This is the area where most problems lie – any grease on the copper track or component leads may remain between the solder and metal, preventing a good electrical contact. Even if a total open circuit (ie no connection) doesn't occur, the joint may still possess an electrical resistance which could prevent your circuit from working. Methylated spirits, After the Prof's cartoon last month on incorrect soldering techniques, Xeith Brindley puts things straight with a few down-to-earth hints

wire-wool, fine emery paper or simple detergent powder can be'used to clean the two metals of the joint. The surface of copper in particular should be shiny clean — remember that copper oxidises in contact with air and the oxide layer needs to be removed before soldering. If your board has been left for more than just a few hours without being completed, you may have to clean it again.

One way of avoiding having to reclean the PCB is to make use of the fact that solder doesn't oxidise easily. because of its high percentage of tin. By heating the copper at each joint to be made and melting a thin layer of solder around the hole, the copper is protected against dirt and grease. This process is called 'tinning' and can be used successfully to keep the soldering iron tip clean too! Wipe the hot tip of the iron on a damp sponge to get rid of any gunge and simply melt some solder on it - letting the solder flow over the end ¼" or so. The tip should now have a silvery, shiny appearance and you should keep it so. In use, every time the tip loses the shiny appearance clean it on the sponge and tin it.

Te**chnique**

Well, that's got the equipment and its upkeep out of the way – we can move on now to the actual soldering process. The simple knack here is to remember



'Tinning' a hole on a PCB to ease future soldering

that the joint needs to be heated up to a temperature which exceeds that of the melting-point of solder. BUT, you must not heat the joint up so hot that you damage the component through excess heat!

So, how do you know when the temperature is correct? Short of a thermocouple and a meter, you don't - it's a matter of quesswork! However, there is a simple way to keep the amount of uncertainty to a minimum and this relies on the fact that heat should only be applied to the component itself at the very last minute. The copper. because of its large surface area compared with the component lead, needs far more heat and thus the tinned iron tip can be held steady on the surface of the copper so that maximum heat transfer takes place. At no time yet should the component lead be heated. Holding the iron tip at one side of the component hole, as in Fig. 1, you can now apply the solder - to the other side of the hole. When the copper is hot enough (which shouldn't take more than five or six seconds, depending on the power of the iron and the surface area of the copper), the solder will begin to flow onto the metal. You then know that the copper is just at the correct temperature! At this point, the iron can be moved up to the component lead (still touching the copper, as in Fig. 2) so that it also can be heated. In a couple of seconds the lead will be hot enough, and solder can be applied there.

As soon as the joint has been made, remove the soldering iron completely, to prevent heat damage to components. The large area of copper (a good heat conductor) will dissipate the excess heat rapidly. Let the joint cool naturally in air - don't blow on it, because this may make the solder brittle and it may break. If all goes well and you make a 'good' joint, the solder will flow into a smooth, arc-shaped form as pictured in Fig. 3, and have a shiny, bright appearance. Alternatively, if you make a mess of the joint, you will have a dreaded 'blob' - a more or less round ball of solder which doesn't make good soldered contact with either copper track or component lead.

Finally, all that remains is to cut off the excess component leads close to the board with your side-cutters, to avoid short-circuits between individual leads or between leads and printed tracks. After all that, it's just practice – you will soon reach a stage when soldering is second nature to you and it becomes difficult to solder a bad joint.

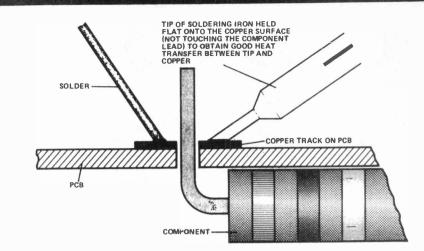
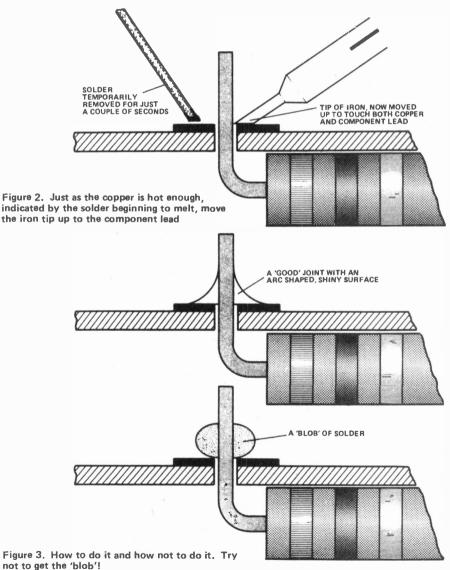


Figure 1. Heat one side of the component hole (not the component lead!) whilst holding the solder at the far side of the hole



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that might occur. Highly recommended to both the beginner and more advanced enthusiast alike.

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and 559 timers.

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The second secon the projects can be built by the beginner.

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theory. BOOK 3: theory. BOOK 3: Folows on semiconductor technology, leading up to transistors and integrated circuits. BOOK 4: A complete description of the internal work-ings of microprocessors.

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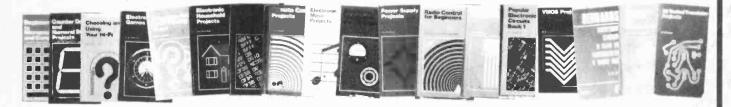
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This book is aimed primarily at the electronics en-This book is aimed primarily at the electronics en-thusiast who wishes to experiment with remote con-trol and many of the designs are suitable for adapta-tion to the control of other circuits published elsewhere. Full explanations have been given so that the reader can fully understand how the circuits work and see how to modify them. Not only are Radio con-trol systems considered but also Infra-red, visible light and Ultrasonic systems as are the use of Logic ICs and Pulse position modulation etc.

BP74: Electronic Music Projects

Although one of the more recent branches or amateur remely popular and there are many projects which fall into this category, ranging in complexity from a simple guidar effects unit to a sophisticated organ or synthesiser.

The purpose of this book is to provide the constructor with a number of practical circuits for the less complex items of electronic music equipment, in-cluding such things as Fuzz Box, Waa-Waa Pedal, Sustain Unit, Reverberation and Phaser-Units, Tremolo Generator etc.

BP75: Electronic Test Equipment Construction \$7.30

This book covers in detail the construction of a wide range of test equipment for both the hobbyist and radio amateurs. Included are projects ranging from a FET Amplfied Voltmeter and Resistance Bridge to a Field Strength Meter and Heterodyne Frequency Meter

Not only can the home constructor enjoy building the equipment but the finished project can also be usefully utilised in the furtherance of his hobby. An Ideal book for both beginner and advanced enthusiast alike.

BP76: Power Supply Projects

Power supplies are an essential part of any electronic project

project. The purpose of this book is to give a number of power supply designs, including simple unstabilised types, fixed voltage regulated types, and variable voltage stabilised types, the latter being primarily in-tended for use as bench supplies for the electronic workshop. The designs are all low voltage types for use with semiconductor circuits. There are other types of power supplies and a cassette supply, Nicad battery charger, voltage step up circuit and a simple inverter.

BP78: Practical Computer Experiments

This book aims to fill in the background to microprocessors by describing typical computer cir-cuits In discrete logic and it is hoped that this will form a useful introduction to devices such as adders, memories, etc. as well as a general source book of logic accurate. logic circuits.

An essential edition to the library of any com-puter and electronic enthusiast.

BP79: Radio Control For Beginners

\$7.30

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The aim of this book is to act as an Introduction to Radio Control for beginners to the hobby. The book will commence by dealing with the conditions that are allowable for such things as frequency and power of transmission. This is followed by a "block" explana-tion of how control-device and transmitter operate and receiver and actuator(s) produce motion in a

and receiver and actuator(s) produce the model. Details are then given of actual solid state transmitting equipment that the reader can build. Plain and loaded aerials are then discussed and so is the field-strength meter to help with proper setting up. The radio receiving equipment is then dealt with, this includes a simple receiver and a crystal controlled superhet. The book ends with electro-mechanical means of obtaining movement of the controls of the model.

No.223: 50 Projects Using IC CA3130

In this book, the author has designed and developed a number of interesting and useful projects using the CA3130, one of the more operational amplifiers that is available to the home constructor. Five general categories are covered: Audio Projects, Test Equip-ment, Household Projects and Miscellaneous Pro-instructure. jects.

BP80: Popular Electronic Circuits-BOOK 1 \$8.25

Another book by the very popular author, R.A. Penfold, who has designed and developed a large number of circuits which are accompanied by a short text giving a brief introduction, circuit description and any special notes on construction and setting up that may be proceeded.

special notes on construction and setting up that may be necessary. The circuits are grouped under the folowing headings; Audio Circuits, Radio Circuits, Test Gear Circuits, Music Project Circuits, Household Projects, and Miscellaneous Circuits.

An extremely useful book for all electronic hob-byists, offering remarkable value for the number of designs it contains.

BP83: VMOS Projects

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\$4.50

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\$4.25

Although modern bipolar power transistors give ex-celient results in a wide range of applications, they are not without their drawbacks or limitation. With the advent of field effect devices it seemed that it would only be a matter of time before improved power tran-sistors became available, this has happened and a number of different power FETs are now available to the hothylet

number of different power FETs are now available to the hobbylst. This book will primarily be concerned with VMOS power FETs although power MOSFETs will be dealt with in the chapter on audio circuits. A number of varied and interesting projects are covered under the main heading of: Audio Circuits, Sound Generator Circuits, DC Control Circuits and Signal Control Circuits.

No.213: Electronic Circuits For Model Railways

The reader is given constructional details of how to build a simple model train controller; controller with simulated inertia and a high power controller. A signal system and lighting for model trains is discuss-ed as is the suppression of RF interference from model railways. The construction of an electronic steam whistle and a model train chuffer is also covered.

No.215: Shortwave Circuits & Gear For Experimenters & Radio Hams \$3.70

Covers constructional details of a number of projects Covers constructional details of a number of projects for the shortwave enthusiast and radio "Ham". In-cluded are: an add-in crystal filter, adding an "S" meter in your receiver; crystal locked H.F. Receiver; AM tuner using phase locked loop; converter for 2MHz, 40 to 800MHz RF amplifier, Aerials for the 52, 144MHz bands, Solid State Crystal Frequency Calibrator, etc.

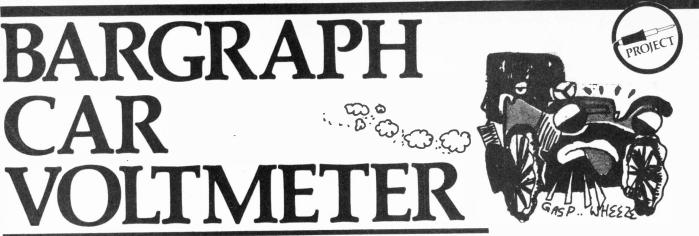
No.221: Tested Transistor Projects

Author Mr. Ricahrd Torrens has used his experience a san electronics development engineer to design, develop, build and test the many useful and in-teresting circuits In this book. Contains new and in-novative circuits as well as some which may bear resemblance to famillar designs.

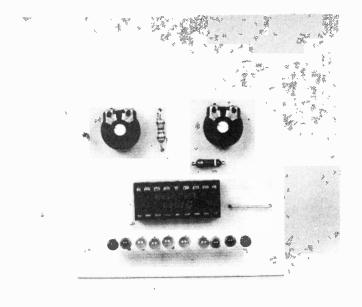
No.224: 50 CMOS IC Projects

CMOS IC's are suitable for an extraordinary wide range of applications and are now also some of the most Inexpensive and easily available types of ICs. The author has designed and developed a number of interesting and useful projects. The four general categories discussed in the book are: Multivibrators, Amplifiers and Oscillators, Trigger Devices and Special Devices. Special Devices.

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LEDs (light emitting diodes). The unit has excellent long-term and thermal accuracy once it has been initially calibrated to span the range 10,5 to 15 volts. The unit is very easy to install in the vehicle and has a total building cost of only 10 dollars or so. The unit gives a 'dot' display in which only one of the ten LEDs is illuminated at any one time.

Construction And Use

The entire circuit, including the ten LEDs, is built up on a small PCB and construction should present very few problems. Note that IC1 is an 18-pin device and also that it should be fitted to the PCB via a suitable holder. We advise testing each one of the LEDs, to confirm it's functioning and polarity, before fitting it to the PCB.

To check each LED, connect it in series with a 470R resistor and then connect the combination across a 12-volt supply If necessary switch the LED connections until the LED illuminates, under which condition the lead closest to the positive supply rail is the anode.

When construction is complete, double-check the circuit wiring and connect the unit to a variable voltage DC supply that can span the 10-15 volt range. Monitor the supply voltage with a reasonably accurate meter and calibrate the unit as follows.

Set the supply to 15 volts and adjust RV1 so that LED 10 just turns on. Reduce the supply to 10 volts and adjust RV2 so that LED 1 just turns on. Recheck the settings of RV1 and RV2. The calibration is then complete and the unit can be installed in the vehicle by taking the 'O' volt lead to chassis and the '+12 volt' lead to the vehicle's battery via the ignition switch.

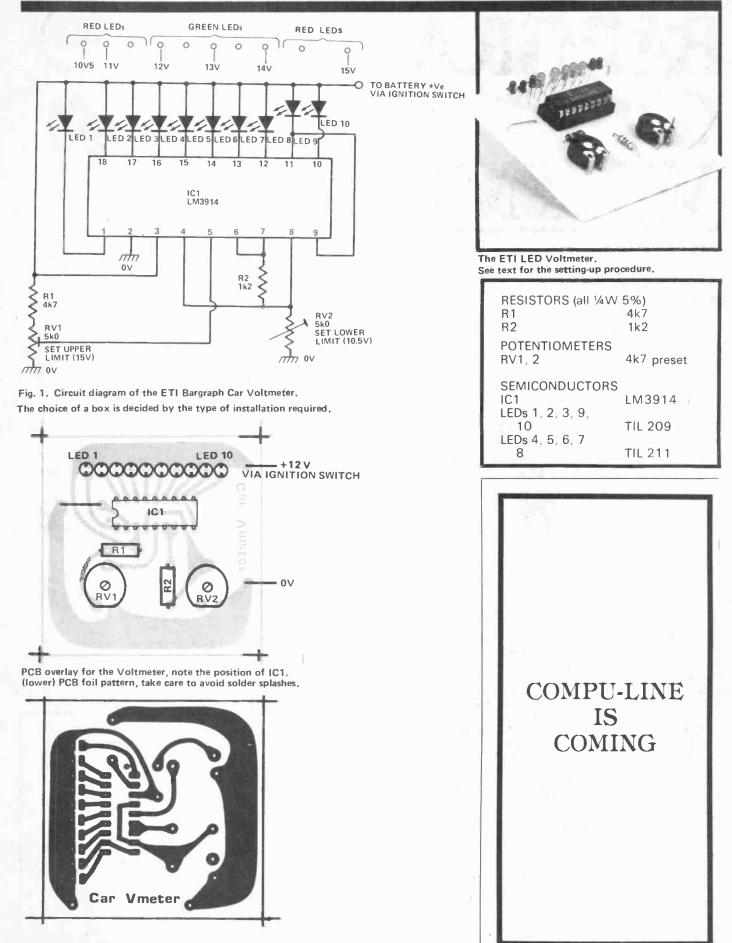
PROBLEMS? NEED PCBs? Before you write to us, please refer to 'Component Notations' and 'PCB Suppliers' in Table of Contents. If you still have problems, please address your letters to 'ETI Query' care of this magazine. A stamped, self addressed envelope will ensure fastest reply. Sorry, we cannot answer queries by telephone.

HOW IT WORKS

There is little we can say other than the ICl acts as a LED-driving voltometer that has its basic maximum and minimum readings determined by the values of R2 and RV2. When correctly adjusted, the unit actually spans the approximate range 2.5 volts to 3.6 volts, but is made to read a supply voltage span of 10-10.5 volts to 15 volts by interposing potential divider R1-RV1 between the supply line and the pin-5 input terminal of the IC.

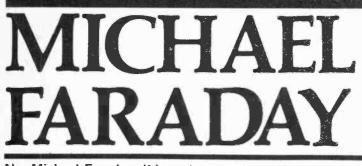
The IC is configured to give a 'dot' display, in which only one of the ten LEDs is illuminated at any given time. If the supply voltage is below 10.5 volts none of the LEDs illuminate. If the supply equals or exceeds 15 volts, LED 10 illuminates.

A comprehensive description of the functioning of the LM3914 IC is given elsewhere in this issue.



Circle No. 20 on Reader Service Card.





No. Michael Faraday did not invent electrolytic capacitors. This month, we'll have a look at the life of this brilliant pioneer of electrical engineering.

EVER FELT TOTALLY baffled by a bit of theory? Ever found that you could learn more with a hot soldering iron in your hand than using a book? Take heart, for your condition is in some respects like that of Michael Faraday, who did more for the progress of electricity than almost anyone else in the history of this subject.

Faraday was born in 1791, at Newington, Surrey, the son of a local blacksmith, who must have taught him much about the machines of the day. These, remember, were times of considerable and violent change. The Americans had declared successfully unilateral independence, the French were having a revolution, and machines had been invented to do the work of three men and a boy! The results were that there was a huge expansion of trade, a demand for machine-made goods, and jobs for anyone who wanted them. There's nothing new under the sun - the Luddites broke machines because they thought there would be less employment, yet within a few years there was such a scarcity of people to do the jobs that children were working in factories.

In Faraday's youth, the blacksmith was the man who was the machine repairer, because his skills were well fitted to this job. The family moved to North London, to take advantage of this new and lucrative source of income but Michael, at the age of 14, decided that he would not be a blacksmith, and was apprenticed instead to a bookbinder who also had a bookselling business. As he bound the books, Faraday read them and was fascinated by the many books dealing with physical science. Determined to increase his knowledge, he went to hear Humphry Davy lecture at the Royal Institute. This experience convinced him that he should make his career in scientific research, and he wrote to Davy asking for a job, enclosing a complete transcript which he had prepared of the lecture he had attended. Davy was impressed and appointed Faraday, now aged 21, as his assistant at the Royal Institute.

converted mechanical movement, and so the electric motor was born.

> The two men worked as a team. touring Europe with lecturedemonstrations concerned with discoveries which they had jointly made. These tours put them in touch with many of the most famous names in electrical science, in particular Biot and Savart, who were working on a theory of magnetism, and these subjects were to remain the most fascinating of all for

Davy did not regret this step -

Faraday proved to be an extraordinarily

astute experimenter, able to devise ap-

paratus to prove or disprove any theory

when the Danish scientist, Oersted,

reported that a magnetic field existed

around any wire which was carrying an

repeated Oersted's experiments to

confirm the principle, and then went on

to construct an ingénious piece of

apparatus, shown in Fig. 1, which

demonstrated the shape of the magnetic

field. By passing current through the

wire and the mercury, Faraday showed

that the magnet moved in a circular

path around the wire - a path which he

concluded must be the shape of the

magnetic field round the wire. Davy

and Faraday also saw that this device

electric

One early opportunity occurred

Faraday at once

current · into

which might be put to him.

electric current.

Faraday. In 1825, aged 34, he was appointed as Director of Laboratories at the Royal Institute and one of his first actions was to start a series of formal lectures, to be held each Friday. describing new advances in some branch of Science. These Friday lectures have continued ever since. Faraday had a gift for clear and simple language, and his lectures were invariably crowded out. This is one aspect of Faraday's work which is often overlooked, and we may probably never know how many students were set an excellent example both by Faraday's meticulous practical work and by his clear and concise lectures.

sh

In 1831, Faraday published the results of work which was to mark a huge step in our understanding and application of electricity. The experiment was the 'induction ring' - an iron ring (Fig. 2) with two separate windings. One winding was connected through an on/off switch to battery, and the other winding was connected to a sensitive galvanometer (micro-ampmeter). Faraday was looking for a way to convert magnetism to electric current, and his was the first of many such attempts to succeed. There were two reasons for this. One was that Faraday had built his own apparatus in his usual meticulous way, and the galvanometer in particular was very much more sensitive than

MICHAEL FARADAY

most. The other was that Faraday observed and noted everything. On this occasion he observed and noted something which earlier researchers might not have bothered about: that the galvanometer needle flicked each time the switch was made or broken. Everyone expected that the galvanometer would read continually while current was flowing from the battery, and disregarded these transient effects. To Faraday, these were the important results, and he concluded that a current flowed to the galvanometer only when

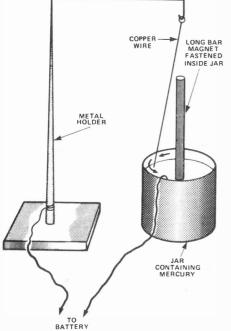


Fig. 1. Faraday's motor experiment. A magnet was fastened inside a pot containing mercury. When a wire was dipped into the mercury, and current was allowed to flow through the wire, the wire rotated around the magnet.

the current from the battery was changing. He had, of course, discovered the transformer principle and by doing so, laid the foundation for all our use of electricity. It was only a small step onwards to disconnect the battery and show that a magnet pushed into or out of the ironring would also cause the galvanometer to deflect. The essential point, which no-one else had grasped, was that *change* was the key, change of current when the arrangement was used as a transformer, or change of positon when the arrangement was used with a magnet.

The next step was to produce a continuous current from continuous motion. Faraday realised that a practical generator must use circular motion, and devised the disc dynamo (Fig.3), which we now call a homopolar generator. As shown it consisted of a copper disc rotated between the poles of a strong magnet. Rubbing connections were made to the shaft and also to the rim of the disc, and a small voltage could be detected when the disc was spun round. Oddly enough, this arrangement, which has only ever been a curiosity in the past, is now coming under investigation again. The reason is that though the voltage is very low, the current can be very large, and lowvoltage high-current supplies are just what we need for modern semiconductor circuits. Since the output of the homopolar genreator is DC, not just a fullwave rectified output such as we get from most dynamos, the homopolar generator is ideal for providing an emergency supply for electronic equipment.

Faraday was content to move on to other topics, and leave the development of the dynamo to others, later, notably Siemens and Edison. His interest was still in the understanding of the mysterious relationship between electricity and magnetism, and he was fascinated by the representation of magnetism in terms of lines of force, an idea which he could express as a drawing. His intuitive feeling was that electrostatics, current electricity, and magnetism must be part of the same thing, but he lacked the mathematical facility to prove what he was sure must be true. The complete proof was left to Clark Maxwell just after Faraday's death.

By 1844, Faraday was busy tying up other aspects of electricity, still pursuing his hunch that electricity was the key to all science. In his early years with Davy, he had made many chemical investigations, some of which had been concerned with glass. Now glass is not a single chemical compound but a mixture, and so thousands of different types of glass can be made. One which Faraday had made and christened

Fig. 3. The homopolar generator. The disc revolving between the poles of the magnet generates a small voltage between the contacts, it's magnitude depending on the speed of the disc and the strength and size of the magnet.

'heavy glass' turned out to be guite remarkable. This particular glass polarised any light which passed through it, acting in the way we all know now from Polaroid sunglasses. What was extraordinary about Faraday's 'heavy glass' was that the polarisation varied when a magnetic field was applied to the glass. To be precise, the plane of polarisation was rotated when a magnetic field was applied. This was a clear indication of a link between light and magnetism, and the 'Faraday rotation' as it is called is an effect which is used nowadays to control laser beams, enabling us to modulate a laser beam directly by an electric current.

Faraday retired in 1858, after a career which had touched on and improved practically every branch of We've concentrated here on science. just a few of his major discoveries. leaving out all his chemical and electrochemical work, which included the discovery of electroplating. He died in 1867, an experimenter of genius with a teacher's gift of clear explantion. He left behind him an extraordinary number of discoveries which still bear his name, an organisation which still delivers lectures in his name, and a new branch of engineering - electrical engineering. Few men have made such an overwhelming contribution to our present century.

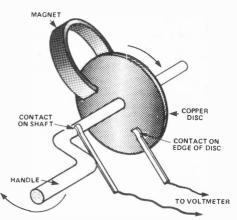


Fig. 2. The iron ring experiment. Faraday found that the arrangement, the first transformer, produced a pulse of current indicated on the galvanometer, at the instants when the switch was opened or closed.



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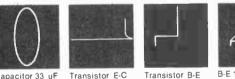
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CURRENT **AFFAIRS**

We seem to take for granted that circuits work, but why is it that conductors, semi-conductors and insulators do just what their names imply? A.S. Lipson takes us step by step through the whys and wherefores of atomic structure.

MOST OF US ARE reasonably familiar with what electricity is - the movement of electrons through a conductor. But there are some things that we tend to take for granted. For instance, why is it that some materials, like metals, conduct easily, whereas others - insulators don't, and still others - semiconductors - seem to be somewhere in the middle; conducting, but not as well as metals? In order to find out why, we'll first have to learn something about atomic structure...

First Theory

Essentially, the atom consists of a central, very small positively-charged lump called the nucleus, surrounded by negatively charged electrons. Many books - particularly old ones - tend to give the impression that the electrons are just like little planets orbiting a sun (the nucleus) and that the atom is like a miniature solar system. This is wrong. Electrons do not behave just like little billiard balls, or little solid lumps. It is in fact more accurate (although not quite so simple) to visualise the electrons in an atom as being spread out 'charge clouds' around the nucleus, with most of this charge being concentrated at specific distances from the nucleus. The comparison between the two points of view is made in Fig. 1.

The electrons within an atom can have different energies. If they obtain more than a specified amount of energy (for any particular type of atom), then they can actually break free from the atom. It is clear that the more energy a particular electron has within an atom, the less energy that electron will need to have added to it in order for it to break away from the atom; in other words, the easier it will be for that electron to escape.

Conduction and Insulation

But what has all this to do with conduction of electricity? In metals, some of the outer electrons present have

quite high energies within their atoms and, in a solid lump of metal, one or two electrons from each atom are more or less free of their own atoms, although they are held into the metal as a whole. The positively charged ions left when electrons are removed from atoms are packed closely together and, in between them, the free electrons move about at random, (acting as a sort of 'atom glue'). This negative charge attracts the remaining positive charge on the ions, and holds the whole thing together,

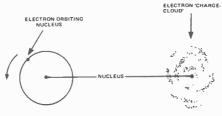


Fig. 1. A hydrogen atom according to (a) The 'Solar System' model (b) The 'Charge Cloud' model.

(See Fig. 2.) The charge-clouds of all the free electrons join together, and form what is often known as an 'electron sea'. Because of this structure - the way that they are held together metals can conduct electricity. Why? Because of all those free electrons. which aren't held by any particular atom, only by the metal as a whole, They are so loosely attached that if you apply a potential difference across the metal, they can drift along under its influence, and so cause a current to flow. In insulators, on the other hand, the electrons are held much more tightly by the atoms, there is no 'electron sea', and the atoms are bonded together by other means. Consequently, if a potential difference is applied, the electrons are unable to break free from their atoms, and so no current can flow. Our problem is thus solved - we now know how electrical current is conducted in metals, and why it isn't in insulators. Or do we? This theory was widely

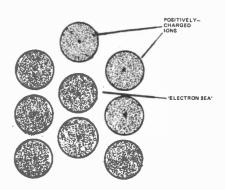


Fig. 2. The structure of a metal. Positively charged ions are surrounded by an electron 'Charge Cloud'.

accepted for some time, and in fact it's still accepted as being broadly true, but there are just one or two things it doesn't explain. Semiconductors, for instance? And why should metals hold their electrons less tightly than non-metals? Our theory is obviously incomplete.

The New Approach

It was the physicists to the rescue. We return to the atom. . . .

In the first decades of this century, a startling new branch of physics -Quantum Mechanics - made its debut. This was the work of several men, including Einstein. Heisenberg and Schrodinger. One of the first results Quantum Mechanics produced was embodied in a conclusion that Niels Bohr published in 1913. This was that, contrary to what had previously been assumed, the electrons within an atom could not have just any energy level, but could only exist at certain set energy levels. (See Fig. 3a.) This was a radical departure from what had been believed up until then, but it has been proved and is now unquestioned by physicists.

So electrons in atoms can only exist at certain set energy levels. But if you get more than one atom together, the situation changes again - energy levels are split. If, for example, you put two atoms close together, and then look at what has happened to a particular energy level in each atom, you will find that, in one atom, it has shifted up fractionally, in the other atom, it has shifted down slightly. The two atoms act as though the single energy level has

been split into two (See Fig. 3b), one very slightly higher than the other. In a solid, where there are millions of atoms all together, the energy levels are split into so many 'sub-levels', all very close in energy, that they act like continuous held by this atom and so it requires only a very small amount of energy, which can be obtained from an applied potential difference to raise it to a higher energy but still within the conduction band. From the other energy bands by forbidden gap. At normal temperatures the conduction bands are not completely empty. Why? Because in semiconductors the forbidden gap is much smaller than insulators - about

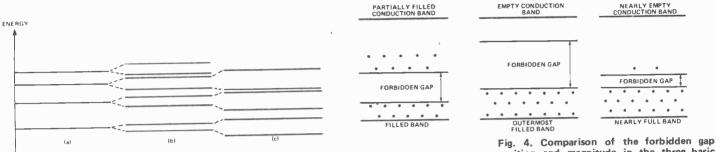


Fig. 3a. The electrons within atoms can exist only at set levels. b) When two atoms interact with each other, their energy levels are split. c) In a solid, millions of atoms all interact with each other, and the energy levels are split into so many 'sub-levels' that they behave like continuous bands.

band, (Fig. 3c). In a solid, instead of there being several separate energy levels at which the electrons can exist there are, instead, several energy 'bands', within which electrons can have a whole range of energy levels. Between these bands however — and this is the important bit — there are still 'forbidden gaps'; energy ranges in which electrons cannot exist because there are no allowable energy levels present. So how does all this help us to understand electrical conduction? Patience, we're just coming to that.

Electron Distribution

The way a material behaves electrically, whether it acts as a conductor or an insulator or whatever, depends on the arrangements of its energy bands, and the way that the electrons are distributed within them. The energy bands of a) a conductor, b) an insulator and c) a semiconductor are shown in Fig. 4. Firstly we will deal with the conductor. The energy bands shown in Fig. 4a are fairly typical of a material like copper. As in any material, the lower energy bands tend to fill up with electrons more easily than the higher energy bands, and consequently, they contain all the electrons that they can possibly hold. There is then a 'forbidden gap' of energies, and above this is another band - known as the conduction band. This band, unlike those below it, is not full, but is capable of holding more electrons than it in fact does. An electron in this band is relatively loosely

It can now drift along within the metal under the influence of the potential difference. Thus, in a metal, which has either a partially-filled conduction band (eg. copper) or an empty conduction band which overlaps a full energy band, (as in magnesium) it is possible for current to flow quite easily. So far, so good. What about insulators? The energy-band theory can also explain behaviour of non-conducting the materials (Fig. 4b). In such substances, there are still full energy bands at the lower energy levels, but the conduction band is empty. In other words in insulators, electrons do not normally exist with enough energy to be in the conduction band. And it is only in this conduction band that electrons are free enough to take part in a flow of electrical current. If it were possible to get the electrons out of the lower energy bands into the conduction band then these materials could conduct electricity, but in order for that to happen electrons would have to cross the forbidden gap, and the energy required to make them do this is much more than can be supplied by a normal potential difference. In terms of eV (the eV, or 'electron-volt', is a measure of energy which atomic physicists find it convenient to work with, 1 eV being the energy picked up by an electron in passing through a potential difference of 1 volt), the forbidden gap in insulators is normally about 5 eV, hence, under normal circumstances, insulators do not carry electricity.

What About Semiconductors?

Semiconductors are really an 'inbetween' case. Like insulators, very pure semiconductors such as silicon or germanium have empty conduction bands when the temperature is 'absolute zero' (about minus 273°C), separated Fig. 4. Comparison of the forbidden gap position and magnitude in the three basic types of material. Far left: a conducting substance. The lower energy bands are full of electrons and the forbidden gap is easily bridged by sufficiently energetic electrons which then enter the conduction band. Center: insulators. Note the empty conduction band and the wide forbidden gap in which there are no permissable energy levels. On the right: semiconductor materials in which the energy gap is around 1 eV and at room temperature sufficient energy is imparted by heat action to allow some electrons.

1 eV. It is so much smaller, in fact, that at normal temperatures, the vibration of the atoms in the semiconductor is sufficient to give enough energy to a few electrons to reach band. Eventually the conduction they fall back to the lower energy bands - but more electrons are entering the conduction band all the time, so eventually a balance is struck, with the number of electrons entering the conduction band in any period of time being equal to the number falling back. At normal temperatures, therefore, there are always just a few electrons in the conduction band of a semiconductor, and so it is able to conduct electircity, though it conducts less well than a metal, since there are far fewer electrons in the conduction band.

But That's Not All....

There is, however, another means by which a semiconductor can carry electricity. Every time an electron leaves a lower energy band for the conduction band, it leaves an electrically neutral space where there was previously some negative charge. These neutral spaces, by negatively-charged, surrounded electrons, can behave almost like a poditively charged particle, and when a potential difference is applied, this 'hole' as it is called travels in the opposite direction to that of the electrons. То understand how this happens, imagine a row of chairs, with someone sitting in each of them except the one at the end. (Fig. 5) If the first person in the row moves into the empty chair, the next person moves into the chair left empty by the first person, and so on, the 'space' where no one was sitting appears to move in the opposite direction to the people, and that's exactly how it works with 'holes' in semiconductors. While it appears that the hole is moving in one direction, carrying positive charge, what is really happening is that the electrons in the lower energy bands are travelling in the other direction, carrying negative charge, and are moving into the spaces left by electrons which have gone into the conduction band.

Conclusion

Therefore, in a semiconductor, there are two types of charge carriers involved in the conduction of electricity; electrons and 'holes'. Various experiments indicate that in germanium, for example, about one third of all the current is carried by the 'holes'!

You will remember that, in semiconductors, electrons reach the conduction band because of the vibration of the atoms. This fact is guite important. At higher temperatures the atoms vibrate more, and so more electrons (and 'holes') are available for conduction extent that purposes. To the above about 100°C for germanium, and 150°C for silicon, the conduction is no longer really under control, and so devices like transistors, which use semiconductors, have to be kept below these temperatures, if they are to remain reliable during operation. The fact that silicon is useful as a semiconductor at high temperatures than germanium was the major reason for the increased use of silicon rather than germanium devices.

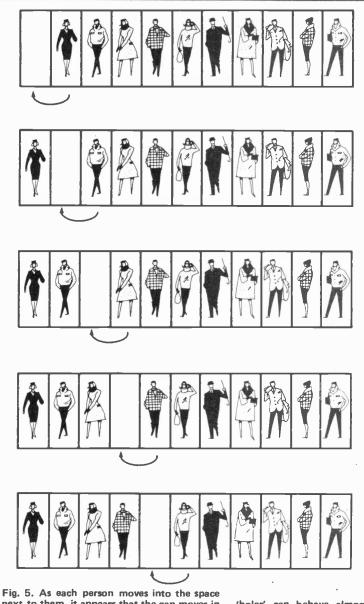


Fig. 5. As each person moves into the space next to them, it appears that the gap moves in the other direction. In the conduction band this is an electrically neutral space where there was previously a negative charge. These

'holes' can behave almost like a positively charged particle. When a potential difference is applied this 'hole' moves in the opposite direction to the electrons,



Excuse me M'lady, could you pass me a pear?

Yes, this woman has just been noticed by her dinner companions to be somewhat naked. This is due in no small part to her having no clothes on to speak of. Sometimes you can get away with this sort of thing, but it is something of an embarrassment if someone catches on during the

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course of the evening. Nothing like being at a party where everyone is whispering behind your back and firing off Polaroid cameras in front of you every few minutes. Think of the trouble this lady might have saved herself with an ETI T-shirt.

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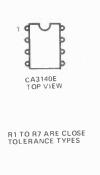
-Designer Circuits

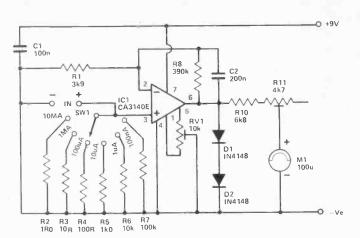
NANOAMP METER

It is not possible to accurately measure currents of a few microamps or less using an ordinary panel meter or multimeter. In order to make such measurements it is necessary to use an active circuit such as the one shown here. It can be built as a self-contained unit or used as part of an instrument requiring a highly sensitive current meter. The sensitivity is from 100 nA to 10 mA FSD in six ranges; the higher ranges being included to permit calibration, and because many multimeters have very few low current ranges.

M1 is connected in a 1 V FSD voltmeter circuit which also uses R10 and R11. The latter is adjusted to give the unit the correct sensitivity. IC1 is an Op Amp connected in the non-inverting mode and having a DC voltage gain of about 100 times (set by feedback network R8-R1). C2 reduces the AC gain to only about unity so as to improve stability and immunity to stray pick-up. The non-inverting input of the IC1 is biased to the 0 V rail by whichever of the range restance.

741C TOP VIEW



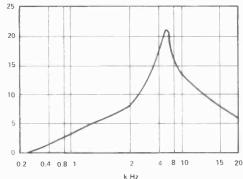


istors (R2-R7) is selected by SW1. In theory this gives zero output voltage and no meter deflection, but in practice it is necessary to compensate for small offset voltages using offset null control, RV1.

If an input current is connected to the unit, a voltage will be developed across the selected range resistor, this voltage being amplified to produce a positive meter deflection. With R2 switched into circuit, 10mA is needed to give full scale deflection of M1, since 10mA will cause 10mV to be developed across R2 (E=I x R, = 0.01 A x 1 ohm, = 0.01 V or 10 mV), and this will be amplifier one hundred fold by IC1 to give one volt at the output. On successive ranges the range resistor is raised by a factor of ten, reducing by a factor of ten the current required at the input to develop 10mV and give full scale deflection of M1.

This arrangement relies on the amplifier having a very high input impedance so that it does not drop a significant amount of input current, and this is achieved by using a FET input op amp having a typical input resistance of 1.5 million meg ohms. D1 and D2 prevent the output voltage of IC1 from exceeding more than about 1.3 volts, and they thus protect M1 against overloads.

When adjusting RV1 start with its slider at the pin 5 end of the track (there should be a strong deflection of M1), and then back it off just far enough to zero the meter, and no further.







A treble booster circuit can be used with an electric guitar (and also electronic instruments) to boost the higher order harmonics and give a more "brilliant" sound. A circuit of, this type gives a fairly flat response at bass and most middle audio frequencies, with the uppermiddle and lower treble frequencies being given a substantial amount of boost. It is normal to

0-0-1 SW2 ON/OFF R3 1k0 4 1 C1 1n0 C6 100u 40V R4 C3 100u 40∨ 1004 101 R2 6k8 õ OUT 5k6 C5 LNL -11 10u 25V C4 470n SW1 R5 100k ROOST FLAT ised

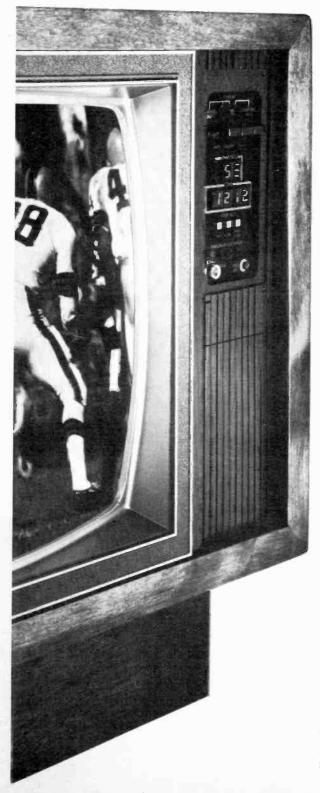
give only a modest amount of emphasis to the upper-treble in order to give good stability and a low noise level, and this also prevents the output from sounding too harsh. The frequency response of this treble booster is shown in the accompanying graph.

The circuit is basically just an op. amp. (ICI) used in the noninverting amplifier mode. The noninverting input is biased by R4 and R5 via a decoupling network which is comprised of R3 and C3. C4 and C5 give DC blocking at the input and output respectively. With SW1 open there is virtually 100% negative feedback through R1, R2, and C1, giving the circuit unity gain and a flat response. Closing SW1 brings C2 into circuit, and this decouples some of the feedback through R1 and R2 at frequencies of more than a few hundred Hz, giving the required rising response. Feedback through C1 at high treble frequencies causes the response to fall away about 5.5kHz, and prevents the very high frequency harmonics from being excessively emphas-

As the unit has unity gain at frequencies where boost is not applied it can simply be connected between the instrument and the amplifier.



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ENGINEER'S STETHOSEQPE



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THIS VERY UNUSUAL project enables you to effectively and effortlessly get right inside an engine and listen to, or locate, all of its internally-generated sounds, such as the noises of bearings, pistons, valves, etc. The device is fitted with a double filter network that can be used to pick out one set of sounds (such as those of the bearings or the valves, etc.) from all others, thus facilitating fault-finding on engines.

The Stethoscope project comprises an acoustic probe unit, a 'boxof-tricks' and a pair of conventional headphones. The headphones help muffle ambient sounds, so that you can concentrate on the sounds of the stethoscope even in a very noisy environment. The probe unit is used to make mechanical contact with the engine or mechanism under test and is coupled to the 'box-of-tricks' by flexible leads.

The probe unit relies on mechanical coupling or contact between itself and the engine (or whatever) for acoustic pick-up. The coupling can be achieved either directly or by a metal rod. The rod can take any one of a variety of forms eg a screwdriver or a needle. If a needle probe is used, the stethoscope can even be used to listen to the sounds of individual jewelled bearings in a watch mechanism.

Operating Principles

The stethoscope operation relies on the simple fact that what is commonly called sound is a series of mechanical vibrations transmitted through a medium of some sort — air, Thus, all the water, metal etc. internally-generated sounds of a gasoline (or any other) engine, such as the sounds of valves, pistons, bearings, etc, are transmitted throughout the engine block and can readily be further transmitted down a metal rod (or screwdriver, etc) to the body of an acoustic pick-up device such as a microphone.

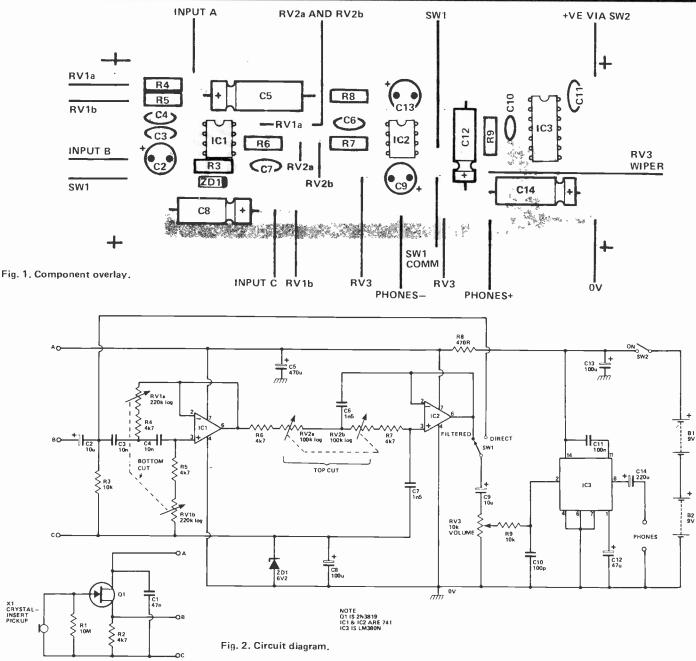
Our stethoscope relies on this mechanical coupling principle. We use a crystal mike as the pick-up device, with all of its air holes blocked off (to exclude dirt) and with the coupling made to its body either directly or by some kind of metal rod. The use of rod coupling enables the source of a given sound to be precisely located within (say) an engine block, by simply probing to find the position of maximum noise. If a needle probe is used, the sound source can be located with pin-point accuracy.

Construction

The Stethoscope circuit is fairly simple and construction should present very few problems. Wire up the PCB first, noting the use of 20 Veropins to facilitate interwiring, as shown in the component overlay. When wiring up RV1 and RV2 take special care to connect the two halves of each component in the same phase, so that the resistances increase or decrease together.

On our prototype we've fitted the two 9V batteries into the top half of the case, secured by double-sided tape. We've fitted a small jack socket to the case top to facilitate connection to the external low-impedance headphones and have used a 3-pin socket for connecting the probe unit.

Finally, to complete construction, wire up the probe circuit as shown in the circuit diagram, taking care to fit Q1 and R1 as near as possible to the crystal mike terminals and connect the assembly to a suitable plug and lead.



At this stage, give the unit a simple functional test by placing the head against the speaker of a small radio. Check that tone quality and volume can be varied with the three controls. When the above test is satisfactory, complete the probe construction by blanking off (with tape) any airholes in the mike (to exclude dirt and oil) and encapsulate the electronics in wax or resin. On the completed circuit the probe can be used as it stands or can be epoxied to a screw terminal or clip (or both) that can be used to make connections to a variety of probe types (metal rods, a screwdriver, etc). The Stethoscope is intended for use with a pair of headphones of not less than 8R0 impedance.

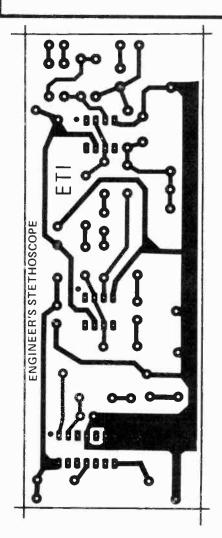
PARTS LIST Resistors All 1/4 W 10% C10 100p ceramic **R1** 10M C11 100n polyester R2,4,5,6,7 4k7 C12 47u 25 V axial electro-R3,9 10k lytic **R**8 470R C14 220u 25 V axial electrolytic Potentiometers RV1a,b 220k dual logarithmic Semiconductors RV2a,b 100k dual logarithmic IC1,2 741 RV3 10k logarithmic IC3 LM380 Q1 2N3819 Capacitors C1 47n polycarbonate Miscellaneous C2.9 SW1,2 10u 63 V electrolytic, DPST miniature toggle PCB type SK1 3-pin socket C3.4 10n polyester SK2 3.5mm jack socket C5 470u 25 V axial Case Vero No. electrolytic 202-21040 C6,7 3 off knobs to suit 1n5 polycarbonate 100u 25 V axial electro-C8,13 Crystal mike lytic

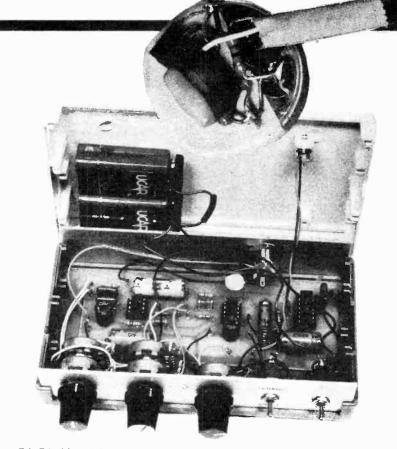
HOW IT WORKS

A common crystal mike is used as the pickup device, with the external mechanical sound vibrations being fed to its body either directly or by a metal rod from the engine (or whatever) under test. FET source follower Q1 is wired directly to the output of the pick-up device, to give a lowinpedance output from the resulting probe. The output of the probe circuit is then fed, either directly or through a double filter network, to a power amplifier stage (IC3) and then on to a pair of headphones.

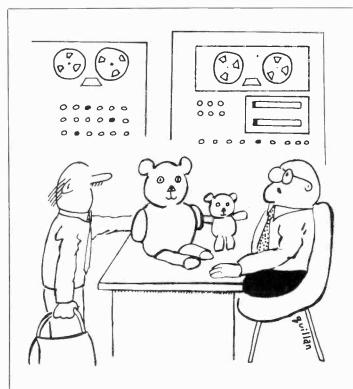
When the stethoscope is used in the filtered mode, the output of the probe circuit is first passed through high-pass (bottom-cut) filter IC1 and then. on to the power amplifier via low-pass(top cut) filter IC2. Both of these filters are second-order variable types. The IC1 filter can be used to reject signals below roll-off frequencies that are variable from 80 Hz to 3 kHz via RVI and the IC2 filter can be used to reject signals above roll-off frequencies that are variable from 700 Hz to 15 kHz via RV2. These two filters can be used to pick out specific sounds, such as the low-frequency rumble of bearings or the high-frequency rattle of valves, from the broad spectrum of sounds that are generated by an engine.

The complete stethoscope is powered by a pair of 9 V batteries and typically consumes about 15 mA when driving a pair of 8R0 headphones. The split power supplies to the ICI-IC2 op-amp filters are generated with the aid of ZD1 and C8.





R1, R2, C1, and Q1 are wired directly across the mic. insert. We fixed our batteries to the top half of the case.



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AC VOLTS (5 RANGES): 200mV to 1000V lull scale. RESOLUTION: 0.1mV, ACCURACY: $\pm 1\% + 2$ digits, 45 Hz to 1kHz, $\pm 5\% + 5$ digits to 5 kHz. INPUT IMPEDANCE: 10mQ, OVERLOAD PROTECTION, 1000V DC/750 RMS

RESISTANCE (7 RANGES): 20Ω to 20Mg full scale except no 20Ω range on MX331, RESOLUTION: 0.01Ω on MX333, 01Ω or MX331, ACCURACY: 0.1% + 1 digit except 0.2% on 20Ω, 1% on 20MQ, and 3% on 20Ω ranges. OVERLOAD PROTECTION: 500V DC on RMS all ranges plus 2A luse on 20Ω range. TEST VOLTAGE: Low power. 0.25V max of full scale.

DIODE TEST (1 RANGE): Measures forward voltage drop across diode and transistor junctions at 2mA nominal current AC/DC CURRENT (5 RANGES): 2mA to 10A full scale. RESOLUTION: 1 μ A. ACCURACY: $\pm 1.2\% + 1$ digit DC $\pm 2.5\% + 1$ digit AC OVERLOAD PROTECTION: 250V @ 2A all ranges except 10A, max 15A on 10A range.

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Projects: Real-Time Analyser, Electronic Race Track, Proximity Switch, Accenuated-Beat Metronome.



electronics today August 1979

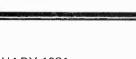
Features: Casing Survey, Smoke Detectors, TV Antennas, Reed Switches, Magnetic Field Audio Amp, Industrial Electronics.

Projects: Audio Power Meter, Shootout, ETI-Wet Plant Waterer.

December 1979

Features: LM10 Circuits, Police Radar Speed Meters, Practical Guide to Triacs, Fluorescent Displays. Projects: High Performance Stereo Preamp, Photographic Development Timer, Logic Trigger.

The back issues shown and described above are available direct from us. Please order by Issue, not by feature. They are \$3.00 each or 5 for \$10.00. Use handy order form, which lists other back issues available, or just send to:



BACK ISSUES ETI Magazine Unit 6, 25 Overlea Boulevard Toronto, Ontario M4H 1B1

Help Us To Help You

Dear Reader.

In January 1978 we ran a reader survey to find out just where we stood with respect to the market in Canada. Since that time, however, ETI has undergone many changes and we would like to know if we are doing as good a job as we hope we are.

You may have been with us since the beginning, you may have just started subscribing or this may be the first copy you've ever seen. Whatever the circumstances, we want to hear from you. ETI is your magazine, and only you can ensure its continuing success.

Please take some time to complete this questionaire and send it in to us. We promise to faithfully read every one, even the rude ones. Furthermore, we promise that all information will be used solely to improve the magazine.

A-The Magazine

1-Please rate this month's articles on a scale of 1 (pathetic) to 10 (excellent). If you did not read the article, please do not give it a score

	Score	Comments
Autosound Survey		
Project Fault Finding		
LM3914 Circuits		
IC Master		
Michael Faraday		
Current Affairs		
How To Solder		
Engineer's Stethoscope		
Bargraph Car Voltmeter	1	
Universal Timer		
Motherboard		
2-Please rate our regular fe	atures	also on a scale of 1 to 10

2-Please rate our regular features, also on a scale of 1 to 10.

	Score	Always Read	Sometimes Read	Never Read
Audio Today What's New News Digest Fun Of Electronics Tech Tips Designer Circuits				

3-Have you constructed any of our projects? Yes No 4-How many projects have you built in the last year (from ETI or other sources)

Yes□ No□ 5-Do you make your own printed circuit boards? 6-When building up a circuit, do you usually use:

Printed Circuit Veroboard Perfboard Wire Wrap Other

7-Please indicate (in order of preference) the types of projects you would prefer to see. Assign the projects you would like to see most a 1, the least an 8. DO NOT use the same number twice.

-test equipment

-games and novelty

- _-audio
- -automotive
- _-musical _-alarms and switches
- _-computing
- -photography
- Others (please specify) _

8-Articles in the magazine come under various general categories. Please indicate your interest in each of the following:

Interest	High	Fair	Low
Complex Projects Simple Projects Circuit Features (including Tech Tips) News Computing Applications of Electronics HiFi/Audio Educational Historical Photography			

B-Buying Habits

1-When buying components or equipment, do you use:

- □ Mostly mail order
- □ Mostly over the counter
- □ A mixture of both mail order and over the counter
- Other (please specify)_

2-Do you find that advertisements in ETI are useful when buying components or equipment?

- □ Yes, definitely
- Usually, but not always
- □ Sometimes but rarely
- □ No not at all

3-Do you own:	Yes	No	Plan To Buy
A multimeter (not electronic) An electronic meter (VTVM) A digital multimeter An oscilloscope A function generator			·

4-How much a) did you spend on yourself b) do you intend to spend in the coming year and c) how much of your employer's money do you spend each year on these products (where applicable).

	Α			В						С						
	up to \$50	up to \$150	up to \$500	up to \$1500	up to \$5000	up to \$50	up to \$150	up to \$500	up to \$1500	up to \$5000		up to \$500	up to \$1000	up to \$2500	up to \$5000	up to \$10000
Audio equipment Test equipment Video equipment Electronic components Tools Computers Computer Peripherals Books on Electronics																

ETI-JULY 1981

C-Distribution Information

1-Do you read ETI each month? Yes No 2-How long do you keep your copies of ETI? 1 month □ 2 months □ 3 months □ 6 months □ 1 year □ Indefinitely 3-How did you obtain your copy of ETI? From a newsstand □ From a component store □ Subscription 4-If you subscribe to ETI, does your issue arrive: □ Early (before the cover date) □ On time □ One week late □ More than one week late If it does NOT arrive early, please give the first letter of your postal code (eg, for M4H 1B1, enter M) 5-If you bought your ETI from a newsstand: i) Was it available at the beginning of the month? Don't know Yes 🗆 No 🗆 ii) Do you find it hard to find a newsstand that sells ETI? Yes 🗆 No 🗆 6-How many people read your copy of ETI? □ Nobody else □ 1 other person □ 2 other people □ 3 other people □ 4 other people □ more than 5 other people (please specify) 7-How did you find out about ETI? From a friend □ Saw it on a newsstand □ Through promotional literature in the mail □ Other (please specify) **D**-Reader Profile Information

The following is for statistical use only and will be handled in confidence. Do not answer questions that you feel are objectionable or none of our business.
1-How old are you? _____years
2-Sex Male □ Female □
3-To what level were you in full time education?

i) High school (grade 12 or 13)
ii) Community college
iii) University (Arts)
iv) University (BSc)

4-Do you hold any credit cards, and if so which ones?

□ Visa
□ Mastercharge
□ American Express

- □ Other (please specify) _
- 5-What is your annual income? \$ ____

6-How do you rate ETI against other magazines? Use a scale from 1 to 100 with ETI scoring an arbitrary 50.

read	regularly	often	Used to	never	rating
ETI Popular Electronics Radio Electronics Science and Electronics Byte Kilobaud	×				50

7-Are you employed or otherwise occupied in electronics?

Yes 🗆 No 🗆

- If yes, in what capacity?
 - Management
 R & D
 - Production
 - Maintenance and servicing
 - □ Buying
 - □ Sales
 - Clerical
 - Technical
 - □ Other _
- 8-Are you a student studying full time? Yes 🗆 No 🗆
- If so, are you currently in
 - University
 Community College
 - □ Correspondence course
 - □ High school

9-Are you considering further education in electronics? Yes
No

10-What suggestions do you have for improving ETI?

11-What do you like about ETI?

12-What do you dislike about ETI?

Please address completed forms to: The Editor Electronics Today International, Unit 6, 25 Overlea Blvd., Toronto Ontario M4H 1B1

40NIII time of going to press, the articles mentioned are in an advanced stage of preparation. However, circumstances may result in changes to the final contents of the magazine.

At the

Holography

INTERNATION

Holography is the creation of true three dimensional photographs using A tricky business, laser illumination. this. Too little light and you wind up under exposed. Too much and you're medium rare. Find out why the new Polaroid One Step won't be offering a hologram attachment; next month.

Anatomy of a Micro



This article isn't recommended for gets pretty intense, young eves you know. It explains all about the internal workings of microprocessors, and that does include how they reproduce. All the details are given, including many lurid photographs of processors and printers, printers and processors, and even a whole data processing system all there at once. Hey, listen, where did you think calculators came from?

Wired Sound

So, you've just brought home your brand new album, "The Plasmatics play Mozart", and you'd like to give it a listen whilst reclining upon the veranda and lobbing hand grenades at the groundhogs and gophers in the yard. •What a drag that the Victrola's down in the root cellar. You have several options. - You could disturb the venomous pit viper that lives atop it and bring it up-stairs (not too good), or you could put some more rocks on the tone arm to increase the volume until it makes the house vibrate or vou could build our sound distribution project. Next month.

Recording Tape and Tape Recordina



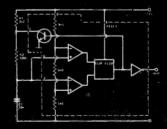
No sweat, taping stuff, you just heave a cassette into the machine, hammer down the "Rec" button, machine munches the tape, grinds it all up inside, wraps it around all the moving parts, jams the motor, which overheats, burns out and fills the room with a thick, choking pall that poisons all the fish in your aquarium. After a while you press the "Eject" button and eight cubic miles of brown spagetti leaps out and smothers you. If you manage to surface, read this bit next month and see what else you can do with your tape recorder.

Infra Red Alarm



Ever lie awake at night thinking that you could be pounced upon at any moment by a second storeyman carrying a 500 watt french fry warming light? This morbid fear has afflicted one of our more loony-tune engineers, as well, so we're presenting this pro-Maybe you guys should get ject. together being kidnapped by Martians is a big threat too.

555 Astables



Those 555 chips are really amazing bits of technology, when you think about it. If you hook them up in circuits, they'll chunk out square waves whenever you want, and there isn't a single reported case of one ever running out. They must pack an awful lot of waves into those little guvs. Find out how to coax them out, next month.

AUTO SOUND

There has yet to emerge a car stereo with a built in 16-track recording studio. Just about every other feature is available, as Wally Parsons explains.

AUTOSOUND HAS COME A LONG WAY from the days when it referred to "super" car radios and speakers for teen-agers with hot-rods, and sported brand names which seemed aptly to describe an acid-head. Although it is still possible to buy enough power to blow the windows out of your car (a documented fact) and holes between your ears, things have calmed down and the hucksters with the electric ties have gone out of business, leaving the field to saner heads.

Herewith, then, we present a summary of equipment available to the audiophile desirous of sane, high quality sound in his home on wheels. No claim is made to be all-inclusive; we have concentrated on the best of the serious manufacturers, rather than toymakers.

A brief summary of each line is followed by a tabulation of the products.

Standards In Transition

I should mention here that no official standards have yet been adopted as applicable to autosound equipment, unlike the IHF standards used with home gear. At the time of writing this state of affairs is in the process of correction. Consequently, there is some inconsistency from one manufacturer to another and even between different products of the Frequency same manufacturer. response, for example, is taken from the manufacturer's claims, and usually refers to cassette response, under worst conditions. Use of Dolby, high quality tapes, etc, may well result in better performance. Likewise with regard to power output and distortion. Generally the most conservative set of figures is guoted.

There is simply no room to list all special features. Therefore, one or two are singled out for each product, but may well be included in others of the same line.

And if there are any mistakes, they are probably those of Ye Olde Audio Editor who had to wade through mountains of data.



Alpine

Now there's a name to conjure up dreams of Gran Turissimo as you tool about the slopes in an open top Alfa Romeo or a muscular Lamborghini. In fact, the line has a very European feel to it, although fully at home in North American machines, it would even be comfortable in the boss's Ford wagon, or my own T-Bird.

Here's a true specialist, who even makes available a variety of accessories, including noise suppressors. This is definitely a high end line which even features digital time delay unit, but prices are surprisingly modest.

Tastefully sporty.

Blaupunkt

The image here is that of Mercedes and the Autobahn, and movies and TV shows starring people like Roger Moore and Patrick McGoohan.

Blaupunkt will not offer you a selection of umpteen gazillion different models, but the six reciever models cover the range in performance from the simplest to the most elaborate. In addition, the line covers suppression kits, automotive burglar alarms which go off if anyone even contemplates theft, and manual and automatic antennas.

You're no more likely to find Blaupunkt in your local discount tire shop than you are to find Pirelli tires. Contact Robert Bosch, or try a Mercedes or Volkswagen dealer. And check out the original remote control on a flexible stalk, part of the Berlin 8000 model.

Stylish and businesslike:

Craig

What can we say; I understand the name is unknown on Gilligan's Island, but that's the only place.

Craig specializes in autosound aimed at the vast middle market, people who want sensible equipment at reasonable prices. That they've succeeded is attested to by the widespread popularity of their products. The line includes a couple of 8-track units, and possibly the only bass reflex autosound speaker on



The Craig R3 and Blaupunkt Berlin 8000.



BRAND	MODEL	PRODUCT TYPE	AM?	FM?	STERE0?	DOLBY?	CASSETTE?	S/N RATIO, dB	FREQUENCY RESPONSE	WOW, FLUTTER, %	PWR, IN OR OUT	DISTORTION %	IMPEDANCE, OHMS	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS	WOOFER SIZE (Inches)	SPECIAL FEATURES	M.S.L.	
Alpine (Alpine Electronics 101 Amber st. Units 18, 19,20 Markham, Ont L3R 382)	7124 7327 7100 7111 7114 7120 7121 7128 7201 7203 7204 7205 7206 7205 7206 7212 7213 7217 7307 7308	Receiver Cassette Player Receiver (Expandable system) Receiver	**** *******	****	****	X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X X	****	55 55 50	40-12K 40-12K 40-12K 40-12K	1.1	2.2	8	444			Auto Reverse Music Sensor 5 Presets Cassette Glide Auto Replay Locking FF Key off eject 5 Presets PLL Digital Tuning Auto Replay Noise Elimination 5 Presets Tone Controls Permalloy Head Direction Ind Metal Tape Locking FF Music Sensor 4 Pwr Amps	349 99 599 99 299 99 299 99 299 99 365 99 566 99 566 99 569 99 569 99 529 99 629 99 629 99 639 99 639 99 639 99 639 99 1199 99	
Alpine	3000 3001 3002 3003 3004 3006 3006 3007 3008 3011 5000 6001 6001 6002 6003 6004 6104 6204 6302 6302 6302 6202	Graphic Eq Digital Time Dei Pwr amp Graphic Eq Pwr Amp/Preamp Pwr Amp Graphic Eq Graphic Eq Speaker Full range of ac- cessories are available for use with all imodels			- -				20-20K 30-30K 20-20K 100-17K 40-20K 100-17K		20 65 20 20 18 18 40 20 20 20 25 40 20 65 50 20	.2 8 8	4	3 3 3 3 3 3 1 2 3 2	6 ¹ /4 6x9 4 x10 5*7 5x6 7 6 ¹ / ₂ 4	5 Bands, 4 CH 2 IC's Auto Rem, Pwr Sw Bi-Amp Sw LED Ind, Electronic Rhythm Micro Size LED Level Ind, Piezo Tweeter Titanium Dome Tw. Dual Cone Detachable Tweeter Dynamic Tweeter	299 99 149 99 399 99 219 99 99 99 259 99 259 99 249 99 149 99 149 99 149 99 149 99 149 99 149 99 299 99 559 99 299 99 159 99 59 99 59 99 59 99	
Blaupunki	CR2000 CR4000 CR4001 CR3001 CR3001 Bea 100 Bea 100 Bea 200 7 444 230-120 LA6687 LA6688 LA6725 LA6728 LA6729 LA6731 LA6526 LA6640 LA6545 LA6665 LA6668	Receiver Graphic Eq Eq./Amp Amplifier Speaker (rear)	x x x x x x x x x x	× × × × × ×	x x x x x x x x	*****	*****	53 53 54 53 56 56	35-10K 40 14K 35 14K 40-14K 63 14K 30 15K 30-40K 80 16K 40 16K 80 18K 80-18K 50 15K 70-20K 70-20K 70-20K 70-20K 125-14K 100-12 5K 140 14K 115-14K	15 15 15 15 15 < 2	5 7 5 15 16 20 15 15 15 20 15 15 15 15 15 15 5 5 5 5 5	10 10 10 10		2 2 3 1 2 2 1 1 1	142 mm 240 160 160 160 140 x 212 205 x 1150 1150 1150 1150 1150 1170 x 1173 x 110 1173 x 110 1153 x 110 1173 x 110 1173 x 110 1173 x 110 1173 x x 1173 x 1173 x 1173 x 1173 x 1173 x 1173 x 1173 x 1173 x 1173 x 1173 x 1173 x 1173 x 1173 x 1173 x 1173 x 1173 x 1173 x x 1173 x 1173 x x 1173 x x 1173 x x 1173 x x 1173 x x 1173 x x x 1173 x x x x x x x x x x x x x x x x x x x	ASU Noise Sup 4 Amplifiers, ASU ASU, 5 Presets Sep 4 Ch Rem Control 4 Ch 4 Sep units 5 Bands 4 Ch 7 Bands 7 Ch 7 Ch 7 Bands 7 Ch 7 Ch 7 Bands 7 Ch 7 Ch	389.95 489.95 679 95 679 95 879.95 1795 000 219 95 349 95 349 95 149 95	
Biaupunkt Craig	LA6723 LA6724 LA6726 LA6727 V451	Door/Rear Spkr Also Available, Antennas, Suppres- sion Kits, Alarm Systems, Ac cessories Speaker							70 15K 70-15K 80-15K 70-15K 60-20K		8 10 8 10 40		4 4 4 4 4	1 1 1 4	129 121 133 134 134 134	Small Size Large Magnet Square Grili Useable near win- dow crank		
(Withers-Evans 5925 Ambler Dr Mississauga, Ont L4W 2K2)	V350 V362 V362 V240 V241 V321 V304 V102 V304 V102 V300 V102 V300 V101 V301 V300 V101 V300 V101 V300 V102 V380 V180 V731 V771 V772								60-20K 65-16K 60-20K 70-18K 80-15K 90-20K 70-20K 70-20K 70-20K 130-13K 120-14K 120-20K 120-20K 120-20K 120-20K 120-20K 120-20K 120-20K 50-17K 50-17K 50-17K 50-17K		40 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 25		6 6 8 4 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 7 7 7 7 7	3 2 1 1 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	6x9 6x9 6x9 4x1C 4x1C 5 5 5 5 4 3 4 4 3 x5 5 4 4 3 x5 5 4 4 5 5 4 5 4 6x9 6x9	Separates Mesh/Chrome Grill Twin Cone Late GM Dash Mt Dash Use Twin Surface Mount Padded Grill Horn Dome Convertible Mount Trans-Ribbed Cone Bass Reflex		

	BRAND	MODEL	PRODUCT TYPE	AM?	FM?	STEREO?	DOLBY?	CASSETTE?	SIN RATIO, dB	FREQUENCY RESPONSE	WOW, FLUTTER, %	PWR, IN OR OUT	DISTORTION %	IMPEDANCE, OHMS	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS	WOOFER SIZE (Inches)	SPECIAL FEATURES	M.S.L.	
	Craig	T687 T689 T689 T681A T619 T634 T618 T618 T616 T617 T610 T617 T610 T617 T610 T617 T610 T617 T610 T617 T610 T617 T610 T617 T610 T617 T610 T632 S609 V930 T103 R551 F510 R551 R551 R551 R551	Receivers Cassette Player Equalizer Pwr Amp	* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	××××	* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	75	20-20K 20-20K 30-20K 30-20K 20-60K 30-20K	2 .15 .09 .12 15 12 12 12 15 12 15 12 .2 15	12 5 12 14 12 8 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	1 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4		2ch 4ch 4ch 4ch	Amps		
	Concord Paco Electronics ttd 20 Steekcase Rd.W Umi 10 Markham Ont L3R 182	HPL-101 HPL-112 HPL-115 HPL-506 HPL-506 HPL-515 HPA-41 HPA-45 HPA-70 HPS-150 HPS-201	Receiver Power Amp Speaker Powered Spkr	× × × × × × × × ×	× × × × × × × ×	× × × × × ×	****	× × × × × × × × ×	58 58 58 58 58 58 58	30-20K 30-20K 30-20K 30-20K 30-20K 30-20K 20-20K 20-20K 20-20K 50-20K 50-20K	08 08 08 08 08 08	5 5 12 12 12 20 20 50 12 24	8 8 8 8 8 06 06 06 05	4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	1 2	5 6×9	Line output jacks Sim chassis 3-Band bass eq Quartz clock No amp 3 band eq DC servo Bi amp crossover Dual line outputs Output protected Dynamic com pliance Dynamic com pliance Thin design self powered with mounted dynamic compliance amp	349 95 449 95 549 95 649 95 579 95 649 95 749 95 199 95 259 95 539 95 74 95 249 95	
	FUJITSU Ten (NORESCO Canada Inc. 50 Wingold Ave Toronto Ont M6B 1P7	SP 600S4 SP 770 SP 780 SP 785 DP-1000 DP-1006 GP-1010 CR-1030 CR-1030 CR-1130 EP-820 DP 7874 DP 7874 DP 7881 DP 644 GP 1010 CA 200Q GP 1010 CA 200Q CA 200Q CA 200Q CA 100 PA-150 PA-150 PA-150	Under-Dash Cassette Reciever (in-dash) Preamp-deck-tuner Reciever (in-dash universal) (DIN STD) Graphic Eg/Preamp Pre-Amp Graphic Time Delay Reciever/Preamp Reciever/Preamp	*****	*****	*****	x x x	*****	70 70	65.12.5K 65.12.5K 65.12.5K 65.12.5K 30.15K 30.15K 30.15K 30.15K 30.15K 30.15K 30.15K 30.15K 30.15K 30.15K 30.15K 30.15K 30.15K 30.15K 30.15K 30.15K 30.15K 30.15K 30.20K		4 4 4 16 4 4 4 5 5 4 10 4 12 12 12 40 40	10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 1	4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4			Auto Eject Silde Controis Auto Reverse Hall Effect I C Dial in door Short Chassis 5 Presets MOSFET Front End Soft Muting 5 Band Graphic Eq Adjustable Shafts No Pwr Amps Pwr Ant Lead Auto Reverse Noise Blanker Visual Curve 500-2500 mSec Visual Curve 500-2500 mSec Visual Curve For component systems Power Ind 4 Ch Die Cast Heat Sink 4 Ch	179 50 159 50 199 95 229 50 229 50 299 50 329 50 329 50 329 50 299 50 139 50 139 50 139 50 139 50 139 50 249 50	
	Fuµtsu Ten	SSB-864 SSB-4G57 SSB-4G64 SG-1602 SG-1002 SG-1003 SG1002 SSB-4B37 SSB-4B37	Speaker Door Mount Spkr Enclosure Spkr Wide Range of Ac- cessories For Above							60-15K 60-15K 50-20K 50-20K 90-16K 90-16K 70-22K 70-22K		20 20 20 30 30 70 40 60		8 4 4 4 4 4 4	1 2 1 1 2 2	6 5 6 4 4 4 4		54 95 pn 74 95 99 95 79 50 59 95 89 95 199 95 249 95	
(Grundig (Interpal 1055 Yonge St Suite 303 Toronto, Oni M4W 2L2)	GEM5000 GCM4650 GCM8100 GCM9200 GCV9200 GCV9300 WKC2035 GAA7500 GAA7700	Receiver Receiver Receiver Receiver Receiver Receiver Receiver Eq Eq	× × × × × × × × × × × ×	× × × × × × × × × × ×	× × × × × × × × × × × × × × × × × × ×		× × × × × × × × × ×						4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	2 4 4 2 2 2 2		8 Track Bias switch Motorglide Flatnoze Motors Electr Tuning Metal Tape Din HiFi tuner 4 × 15 W 4 × 20 W LED peak	229 00 299.00 379 00 629 00 639.00 489 00 409 00 159 00 229 00	
	Hepner (Paco)	6930-4 6928-4 6924 6910 4128 5216	Speaker							35-20K 35-20K 40-4K 35-18K 70-20K 60 20K		100 75 100 25 50 50		4 4 8 8 8 8	1 2 2	6x9 6x9 6x9 6x9 4x10 5 ¹ / ₄	Available in 8ohms Sub-woofer	239 95PR 189 95 144 95 109 95 129 95 139 95	
	lensen Series II	E2000 E1001 E1033 E1130 E1124 E1037 E1201 E1041 E1041 E1044	Enclosure Spkr Speaker system Speaker kit							43-40K 35-20K 38-40K 43-40K 58-40K 38-20K 55-20K 55-20K 58-40K 63-40K 1000-40K		55 50 100 50 75 90 50 75 50 35	2 1 2 1 8 1 1 2 6	4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	3332222	4'2 6×9 6×9 4×10 5'4 6×9 6 ¹ /2 5'4 4 ¹ /2	Passive radiator Separate drivers Triax Separate bass unit co ax Tweete-midrange module	289 95 259 95 219 95 219 95 219 95 159 95 149 95 132 00 125 00	

	BRAND	MODEL	PRODUCT TYPE	AM?	FM?	STERE0?	DOLBY?	CASSETTE?	S/N RATIO. dB	FREQUENCY RESPONSE	WOW, FLUTTER, %	PWR. IN OR OUT	DISTORTION %	IMPEDANCE	SPEAKERS	WOOFER SIZE (Inches)	SPECIAL FEATURES	M.S.L.
	iensen	E 1242 E 1066 E 1107 E 1177 E 1069 E 1069 E 1083 E 1745 E 1083 E 1745 E 1083 E 1745 E 1283 E 1174 E 1073 E 1177 E 1073 E 1079 T097	Speaker Kit (All include Mounting Hardware And Grills For 1 Pr.) Convertible/Thin- mount speaker kits Replacement spkrs (kit, no hardware) Speaker Kit (Complete)							40 20K 40-20K 45 20K 60-20K 40-18K 58-18K 65-18K 65-18K 65-18K 65-14K 40-14K 60-14K 65-14K			55 50 45 50 45 45 40 25 40 30 15 12 40 40 40		4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4 4	4 3 3 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	$\begin{array}{l} 6 \times 9 \ 4 \ Way \\ 6 \times 9 \ 3 \ Way \ Triay \\ 4 \times 10 \\ 5^{1/2} \\ 6^{1/2} \\ 5^{1/3} \\ 4^{1/2} \\ 6^{1/2} \\ 5^{1/3} \\ 4^{1/2} \\ 6^{1/2} \\ 5^{1/3} \\ 4^{1/2} \\ 6^{1/2} \\ 5^{1/3} \\ 4^{1/2} \\ 6^{1/2} \\ 5^{1/3} \\ 6^{1/2} \\ 5^{1/3} \\ 6^{1/2} \\ 5^{1/3$	219 0.0 169 95 169 95 175.00 109.95 109.95 109.95 95.00 59.95 99.95 64 95 49.95 39.95 39.95 67 95 59.95
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	2 JEANSON								-			H						

Concord

Here is another name which may not be well known to audiophiles, but is quickly making a reputation in the field of autosound. Like many component quality specialists, the line does not offer more models than the GM lineup, and their idea of a simple basic car radio would make many home systems look like fancy portables.

The emphasis is on performance specifications, especially low distortion with relatively high power output. This is the only line to my knowledge which uses a form of motional feedback which they claim acts as an automatic all band equalizer to smooth out response of the speaker and its acoustical environment. Trade named "Dynamic Compliance" it is also featured on the HPS-201 self-powered speaker.

There is an extensive applications guide, to assist in matching car and sound system.

Fujitsu Ten

Like most of the manufacturers presented here, Fujitsu Ten specializes in autosound products. Many of the receivers have memory functions in their tape facilities, and Dual Gate MOS FET front ends for improved FM performance under the unpredictable reception conditions encountered on the road.

In addition to universal in-dash and under-dash models, the line includes mini models for use in compact cars and a series meeting European DIN specifications for European vehicles. There is also a cassette player, Model SP-600S4 designed specifically for the Datsun 280ZX.

The Graphic Time Delay incorporates a unique display consisting of a window which changes colour from green to red as reverb increases. Most intriguing to watch.

18



Grundig

Grundig is the name which appeared on the best portable short wave reciever ever made. It appeared on this side of the big pond in the form of Hi Fi consoles which never claimed to be hi fi but kicked the bejabbers out of all the big department store coffins sold at the time. This was our first taste of German technology, and we liked it. You can still get it in their autosound line, high quality products with a definite understated European look.

Their best units feature "Motorglide", which is not exactly an automatic transmission, but a system which automatically takes the cassette from your hand as you begin to insert it, then finishes the job. Very handy when driving along the Queen Elizabeth Way surrounded by maniacs playing "chicken" with their tractor trailers.

Jensen

One of the oldest and most experienced manufacturers in the field, Jensen can trace its lineage all the way back to Danish audio pioneers. It's reputation was built on high performance professional speakers, the best known of which was the original Triaxial. Jensen entered the auto sound arena when everyone else thought it was a big joke, and became best known for its Triaxial automotive speaker.



Besides expanding it's speaker line, Jensen now produces a full range of electronics, including such unusual products as the EQ400, a 15 band graphic parametric equalizer, and the J2000 Mini Speaker.

Jensen's product application guide is one of the most extensive, and covers just about any combination of car and sound system imaginable.

Panasonic

Most autosound manufacturers are specialists, but Panasonic is one of the few broad line manufacturers who is also represented.

Best known to audiophiles for the Technics line, Panasonic autosound features the variety of models and the design innovation which as we've come to expect. To the best of my knowledge, their RM-710 is the only complete system designed for use as an overhead console. Dubbed "The Cockpit", it even includes a dome light, low distortion high power amplifiers and separate front and rear channel amplification. Must be seen to be appreciated.

Roadstar

With a name like that you expect an autosound specialist, and that's exactly what you get. Design emphasis is on solving the kinds of problems peculiar to the automotive environment, such as power supply fluctuations. Roadstar includes a regulated power supply on most models as a matter of routine.

The line includes the "Cobra Head", a remote control unit mounted on a flexible stalk. Unusual, and most practical.

Sound Barrier

This is a relatively new name, which first appeared with a miniature loudspeaker, one of the first of the super compacts boasting very high performance for the size. Since then they've branched out into a full line of speakers and electronics, but perhaps their most interesting products are their self-powered speakers.

A major problem with any high powered autosound system is the placement of a separate power amplifier. Unually it winds up in the trunk, often exposed to some danger if the owner often carries a lot of stuff in the trunk. Self-powering integrates the amplifier chassis into the speaker frame, for more efficient use of space.

Con't on page 78



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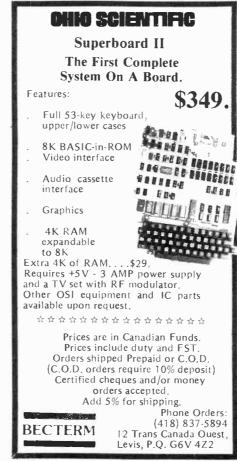
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MOTHERBOARD

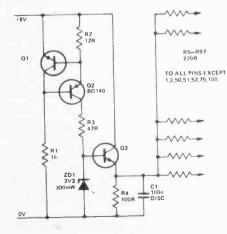
THE MOTHERBOARD described here is a low-cost 'starter' for the hobbyist who has blown all his cash on more important things, like the CPU and a speech synthesizer. Mounted in a cheap case, or even standing alone, the board will connect and support up to seven S-100 cards, and can be expanded.

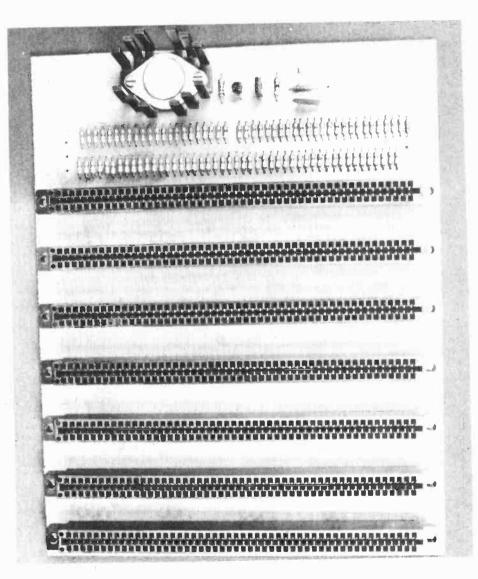
Construction of this board is very simple. Once the pcb has been made, it's a good idea to check for continuity along the length of the tracks. After this has been done, the sockets should be soldered in, and a second check done, this time looking for shorts between adjacent tracks. Keep in mind that adjacent tracks don't go to adjacent pins on the sockets, but to opposing ones.

Next, the active termination resistors can be soldered into place, if required, and the regulator assembled. After a final eyeballing, the board should be ready to use.

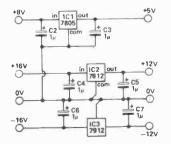
The capacitance between the tracks of the board is fairly high, which will limit things slightly. One could extend the artwork for the pcb out to hold, say, fourteen sockets, but this would add to it still more. For instance, 4 MHz Z-80 cards may experiance problems with the motherboard, in which case they should be switched to 2 MHz if possible.

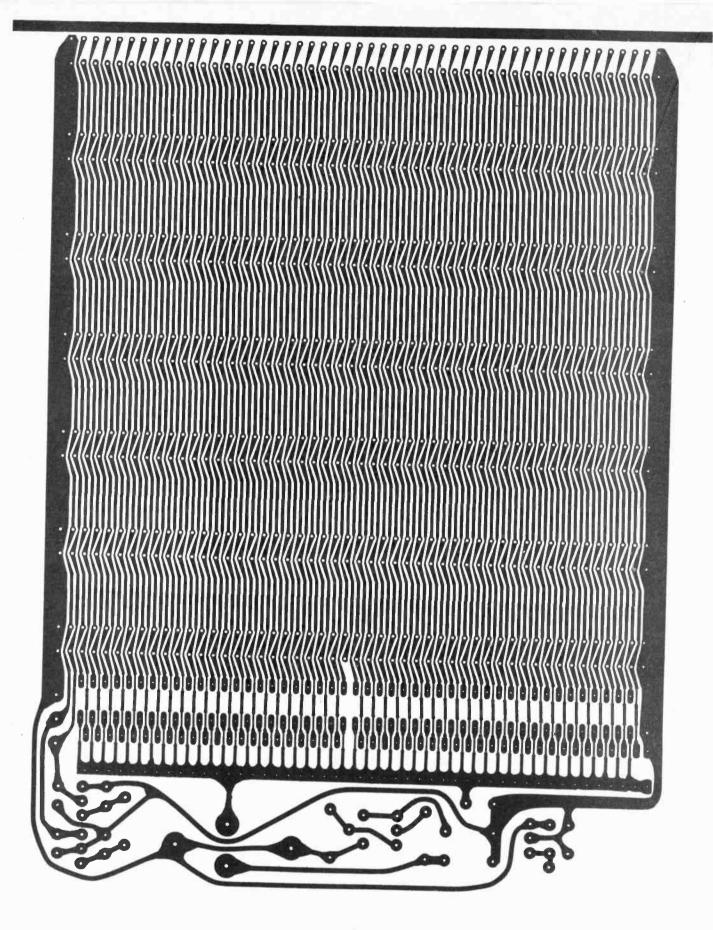
Ideally, the motherboard should come to live in a case, with plastic card guides to support the cards and reduce the stress on the board. If you're really bent on doing it 'on the cheap', two pieces of hardwood with slots cut to accept the S-100 boards will serve almost as well as commercial card holders.

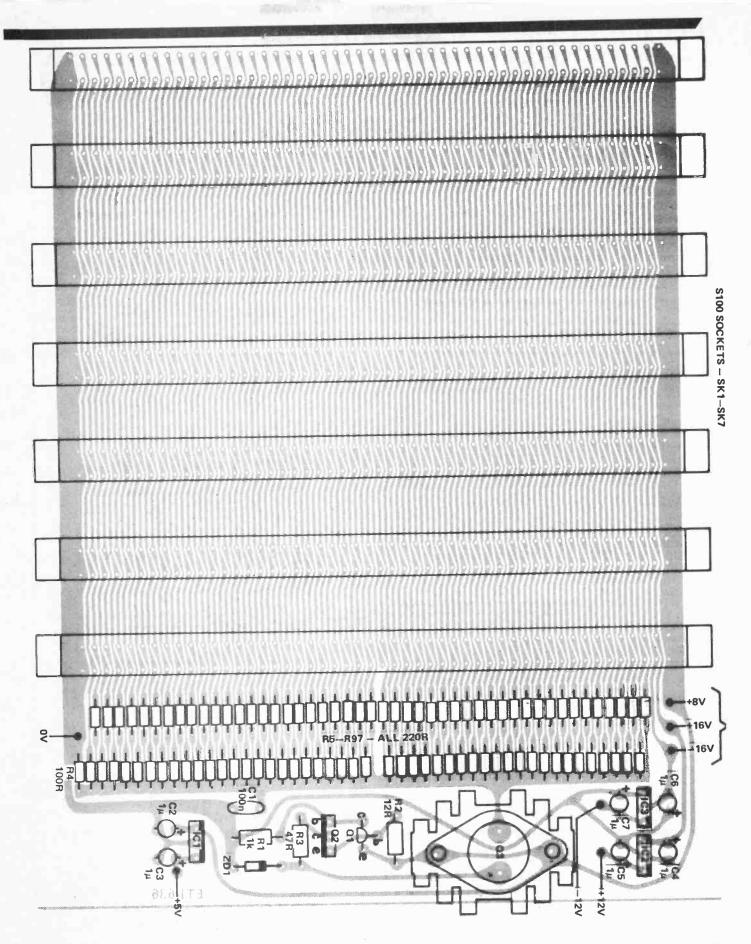




Overall view of the S-100 Motherboard. We have not mounted the extra power supply regulators and components on the board.







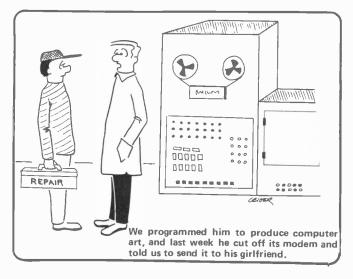
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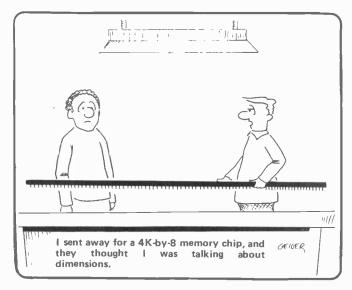
The Fun of Electronics

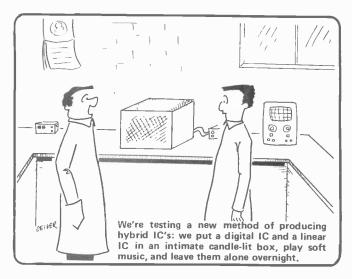




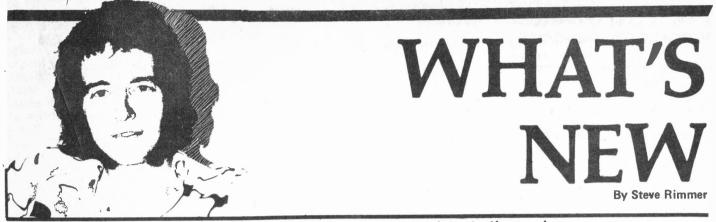
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The Tale of the Wombat and the Aardvark

THERE ONCE WAS AN AARDVARK, and a very fine aardvark he was, as aardvarks go. He lived on a slime island in a beautiful festering swamp, where he ate bugs that would have grossed out most other creatures, and caught diseases at a rate of one a month. However, he was happy, because pretty well everyone in the swamp was coated with slime, so it was pretty difficult to tell that he was actually an aardvark...he looked like an ambulatory landfill sight, just like everyone else.

One day, a big truck backed up to the swamp and heaved a whole pile of agent orange into the swamp, because they couldn't figure out what else to do with it. Almost immediately, the bull-rushes started turning brown, the slime dried up, and the bugs started mutating 'till they were too gross, even for the aardvark. After a while the neuronsin the aardvark's brain started misfiring, and he went a little crazy. He began running as fast as he could, until he came to the highway, where he started trying to suck in bugs off the asphalt. He shortly had an unpleasant experience with a '65 Ford Fairmont. He wandered up and down the soft shoulder until he was discovered by a middle aged lady from a local wildlife group, who had never seen so wretched a creature as he, and felt he might be endangered. She put him in the back of her pick-up, and took him back to headquarters.

At headquarters, the lady put the aardvark into a cage, which, by chance, was right beside that of a furry brown wombat, who had recently escaped from a research lab, where he had been eating acne cream for science. There had been a few good headlines' about him being the last living wombat in North America. That was until someone found out that wombats came from Australia.

The wildlife society was determined to save the wombat at all costs. He had, to date, had eighteen operations. He had had an artificial liver installed, a genetically cloned right lung, an electric heart with an atomic power cell to run it, one bionic leg, a synthetic eye capable of rendering thirty two shades of grey, a microminiature subcutaneous implanted dialysis unit in place of his kidneys, a micro-computer to control the epilepsy caused by the lesions in his brain inadvertently created when his hypothalmus was replaced with that of a monkey, and a Dow-Corning stomach made of materials invented for use in space.



The wombat had, to date, cost \$1,137,985.89 to keep alive... He was 78% synthetic. A regular, natural wombat could have been flown in from Australia for \$235.00. In fact, the Australian consulate had offered to do it for free if the wildlife society would just let the thing die in peace.

Needless to say, they had too much invested. The middle aged lady tapped on the bars of the wombat's "Wommy wommy wombat", cage. she cooed. This was a mistake. For some reason, it caused the wombat's computer to malfunction. It triggered a seizure, which overloaded the atomic power pack, which in turn switched out the dialysis machine, and sent a reflex nerve pulse to the bionic leg, which drove itself right through the bars of the cage, finishing off the aardvark. The atomic pile went critical, and the state had a new glow in the dark landmark for light aircraft.3

This is a story about synthysis, and the hazards involved in going too far. This month, we're going to look at guitar synthesizers. Guitar Synth.

A synthesizer isn't actually played ... it's controlled. This relationship can be thought of as being very much like that of Tory politicians. It is a very important distinction, no matter which side you voted for, as a synthesizer is not, by definition, an instrument in the same way as a guitar or a harpsichord. Like a "real" instrument, it has bits to produce sounds and bits to effect their control by the musician, but, unlike in an acoustic noisemaker, these two aspects are wholly separate, in a comfortable, modular sort of way. The sound producing parts do not specify the nature of the sound controlling parts. This is kind of useful, because it means that if you don't like the controller you are presently working with. you could possibly have it done away with, and replace it with something... new and improved.

Now then, there are all sorts of controllers. Most are pretty ginchy. Some, like Moog's ribbon controller, were devised so as to make the synthesizer most accessible, but without much regard for what was going to be done on it . . . hopefully, to play something similar to music. As the evolution of the instrument progressed, its designers began to realize that contemporary instruments, which operated by essentially acoustic and mechanical means, had gone through no end of tedious development to get to where they were, and represented fairly nice optimized trade-offs in versatility verses manipubility. Thus, it has come to pass from up on high, or wherever it is that things come to pass from in Southern California, that synthesizers usually come equipped with something that looks like a familiar traditional instrument.

This has, in the past, usually been a keyboard, because keyboards operate very much like switches, and switches are fairly easy dealtwith by engineers. They can be encoded, matrixed, pulsed, keyed, overheated, fuzed, burned out and replaced by updated versions having 18.925 more operations if used in atmospheres of liquified nitrogen. Not altogether a bad scene, either, because keyboards are played, to some degree, by quite a number of musicians. Lot of piano lessons when they were six, one might suppose. However, this left out a whole lot of other heads, with caluses and short fingernails on one hand, yes, my brothers, I speak to you today of the most noble, most elegant, most splendid . . . electrical guitarist.

You see, the keyboard of your average synthesizer produces not notes, but voltages, which then go on to produce notes somewhere else. Not so with a guitar, which actually churns out notes right from the start. Your basic synth doesn't have the first thought about what to do with pitches; it wants DC levels and that's, like, it. Period. Mojo uptight that way.

The electric guitar, however, is a superbly playable instrument, and, if it were, in fact, usuable as a controller, a lot of rather nice things would come down. There are things easily done on guitar that aren't pleasant at all to have to try on keys. (The same is, of course, also quite true in reverse). However, the problem of getting those strings interfaced with a Moog type synthesizer is quite a hassle.

Look, Ma, No Strings.

The first approaches along this line were the touch sensitive guitars . . . eez seemple, no; wee yust tek off ahl dee streengs, hokay? This was, in effect, a guitar shaped bit of wood with ribbon controllers in the neck representing strings. The idea was that you touched the ribbons instead of fretting the strings, and, in some incarnations, tapped little short strings or bars down where the pickups would have been to provide triggers. Quite a novel approach to the problem, and, boy, was it awful.

As any good calculator manufacturer known, when you gots yer fingers coming in contact with mechanical objects and/or devices, you've gotta have tactile feedback, or your digits won't know that they've done anything. It takes significantly longer for one to do something. witness the result through another sense, such as hearing, even if it is instantanieous . . it frequently is not with a synthesizer . . . and then affirm that one's fingers are cool and wonderful, as opposed to getting that information directly through the skin. Thus, whereas a stringless guitar is, in theory, faster to play, it isn't really all that cool because you have to wait a lot longer to make sure you're actually playing what you had in mind.

Would have been great if it had worked.

The problem in using a guitar as a controller still remained one of interfacing a real guitar. The next approach to this got into something a little closer to practicality . . . the pitch to voltage converter. This is, in fact, the heart of a usable guitar oriented synthesizer system . . . something to take notes and derive control voltages from them. However, it isn't as easy as just ordering up a pitch to voltage converter chip and applying power. Nothing worth doing is ever that easy.

Something to take notes and derive control voltages from them

This sort of circuit has a number of conflicting demands made on it. Chief among these is that it have a wide range and a fast settling time. Your average guitar has better than three octaves of sound from the low E to beyond the twelfth fret of the high E. At the same time, it has a very fast attack. The converter has to take any incoming pitch in this range and churn out a DC voltage linearly proportional to it. It has to do so very quickly, and without slewing from one level to the next for a period long enough so as to be audible. It has to be accurate to within about a twelfth of a semi-tone, so the thing doesn't sound like a washtub bass. All this isn't easy . . . in fact, until quite recently, it wasn't even really possible.

The earliest attempts to do this compromised on the range, in a rather clever fashion. Guitars, as we all know, have six, count 'em, strings, of which each is responsible for a portion of the range. Thus, the early guitar synth systems came with special pickups to be installed in the guitars to be used with them. Instead of having all the coils essentially tied together, they were each run out seperately, with the result that the signal was neatly divided into several bands of somewhat more restricted range. It wasn't quite so difficult getting converters to handle these. More recently, multiple pole, ultra-steep filters have been used to arrive at much the same sort of result. There are designs, however, for contemporary converters, that can actually handle the range.

Like the more common keyboard type synthesizers, guitar synths have gradually metamorphosed into two types; the pure studio machine, in the classical Moog configuration, and the normalized stage model. The differences between these two are largely dictated by the requirements of where they're played. In the studio, it's not really important how long it takes to set up a patch, just so long as the maximum capability of the instrument is taken advantage of. The patching system can be as clumsy as one likes, right down to the venerable old patchcords of the first synthesis designs. On the other hand, when you're up on stage in front of nineteen screaming fans and a cocker spaniel, you don't want to be stopping the show after every song to change the knobs and wires, now, do you? You also probably won't want to be synthesizing crump horns or East Indian nose harps, so those sorts of capabilities can be done away with. Stage machines, then, make use of a finite number of presets and fixed, switch operated patch matrixes, so as to be operable real quick like.

Most of the current crop of guitar boxes are of the stage oriented design. The reason for this is rather nebulous . . . it has more or less just happened that guitarists don't seem to want to fool around with knobs as much as keyboard players. Unlike keys, which have been responsible for creating a lot of the "new wave" sounds and other suchlike abominations, the roll of the guitar synthesisist seems to have become more of the provider of other acoustic instruments. With a presettable synthesizer, the lead player can do horns, violin, bass, and so on. This hasn't really had much appeal for studio work, as it is quite simple, in this context, to drag in real horns, violins, basses and etceteras . . . not economical, mind you. Etceteras command a pretty high price these days.

The Works

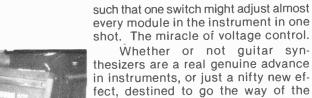
The accompanying block diagram should give some insight into the innards of a typial guitar synthesizer. Some systems include other things not shown here, like artificial reverberation or some sort of chorusing, but these are not, strictly speaking, part of the synthesizer. They represent the fine art of guilding the lily . . . necessery, actually, because of the inherant simplicity and "dryness" of purely electronic sound.

The guitarist . . . or whatever he is ... plugs the output of his instrument into a preamp. This is usually more than just a bit of gain. It can be adjusted, usually with the assistance of some sort of level detection circuitry, to get the range of the incomming signal into the neighbourhood of activating the trigger circuitry, but not to the point where upon it clips out and gets distorted ... the high frequency harmonics produced by distortion can confuse the workings. This gets sent on to the envelope detector, which detects the changing amplitude of the signal. When it reaches a given level, the Schmitt trigger gets Schmitted and possibly triggered, firing off several soon to be mentioned bits.

At the same time as all this is happening, the pitch to voltage converter is doing its scene, as previously discussed. Because the guitar signal dies off shortly after it is initiated, the pitch to voltage converter's output is fed into a sample and hold. This is a circuit which charges a capacitor to a given value. ... the output of the converter ... and, upon command (a pulse from the Schmitt trigger), remembers it. It gets buffered through a very high impedance amplifier, so the charge on the capacitor will remain effectively constant for the foreseeable future; a few minutes, anyway. Thus, the guitarist can pack up and go home, and the synthesizer can still hold its note. Neat, huh. . .

The sample and hold churns out what is, in essence, the main control voltage, the one that's proportional to ' the incoming pitch. This may be fed into an octave divider, which would chop it by a half or amplify it by two. One could also have the same effect by putting a frequency divider either between the pre-amp and the converter, or between the VCO's and the ' VCF's.

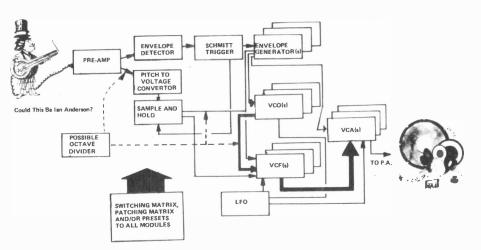
The control voltage meanders along to the VCO(s) to get them to the same pitch as the guitar, and to the VCF(s) to get them to track the VCO(s). As you may have gathered, the number of these modules is indeterminate ... one will suffice, but two or more, even if they're on the



in instruments, or just a nifty new effect, destined to go the way of the flanger and the fuzz box, remains to be seen. Probably more important is whether they actually do something creatively useful, or are they just an expedient to permit hiring fewer musicians. Great toys, though.

Hail and Farewell

How many wombats are needlessly sent into critical mass and atomic self destruct each year by middle aged ladies with good intentions?/More than you might think, but certainly fewer than you need worry about, unless you live due North of Nebraska in a three story split level light house backing onto a stream. Can an aardvark that's stoned on industrial waste and defoliants reasonably be expected to make a liv-



The

Fig. 2. The interior decorating of a synthesizer

changes, as in a horn.

After all this, the amplitudes of the various signals are set and controlled by the VCA(s), which are also fed by the low frequency oscillator, which produces tremolo, as in a flute sound, and by still more envelope generators, which impose the characteristic amplitude dynamics of whatever instrument is being' synthesized.

Fig. 1. The Korg, a typical guitar synth.

same frequency, will sound much

oscillators and filters are also

modulated by a low frequency

oscillator, to effect vibrato, such as in

a violin sound, and by envelope

generators, to effect dynamic timbral

richer due to phase errors.

Lastly, we have that big box marked "Switching Matrix . . .". This can be any one of a number of things, determined by the of synthesizer in question. As can be seen in the accompanying photographs, the little Korg box uses quite a sophisticated system of presets, ing ingesting insects while people are starving in South America? Finally, if a chicken and a half can lay an egg and a half in a day and a half, how long would it take a monkey with a wooden leg to kick all the seeds out of a dill pickle?

Very heady stuff, this. Something to meditate on while picking away on your guitar synthesizer. Next month, we'll be back... or, at least, I will be, with a brand new topic, and many of your favourite words. Now, be a good head. Turn down the volume on the magazine so you don't keep the folks next door awake.

And do stay tuned.

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INTO ELECTRONICS(Part 10)

Having spent the last nine chapters at the basics of electronics, Ian Sinclair now turns his attention to bigger things. This month, AM & FM radio.

WE'VE COVERED A LOT of ground in these past nine chapters, looking at the components and the circuits that make up the building-blocks of electronics systems. Now it's time to look at what we build with these circuits, the electronics systems which we make so much use of these days. We'll start with one of the oldest of electronics systems, radio.

The history of radio started when Heinrich Hertz in 1888 showed that electromagnetic waves, which had been predicted by Maxwell some twenty years earlier, actually existed, and could be transmitted from one place to another. The waves that his apparatus generated had quite a short wavelength, and the distance of his first transmission was comically short, a few metres, but he had demonstrated the first principles of radio, that a high-frequency (short wavelength) signal will leave a wire and travel through space. Another wire placed in the path of this signal will have signal voltages induced by the wave, so that the signals can be received.

Old Spark

The early transmitters generated radio waves by making use of the oscillations caused by sparks. These spark transmitters worked, but they generated a huge mixture of waves of different frequencies — fine when only a few transmitters existed, but useless now. Nowadays we need to generate a high-frequency radio wave which is of a single selected frequency, and to avoid interference with the thousands of other transmissions, we need to be able to keep the frequency constant to within a few Hertz (Hz). Every radio transmitter, then, apart from some low-power or mobile types, starts with a crystalcontrolled oscillator.

This is only a starting point, though. The frequency which is to be used for transmission may be much higher than the frequency of the crystal. To obtain the higher carrier frequency from the lower crystal oscillator frequency, distorting amplifiers called frequency multipliers are used. A frequency multiplier stage is simply an amplifier with deliberate under- or over-biasing. The input is tuned to the (low) frequency of the crystal oscillator, which then switches the current in the multiplier on and off at the crystal frequency. This causes pulses of current in the collector circuit, whose load is a tuned circuit, tuned, that is, to an exact multiple of the oscillator frequency (such as twice, three times, etc). Each pulse of current through this load sets the tuned circuit into oscillation, and the oscillation will not have died away too much before the next pulse of current sets it off again. The point about having the load

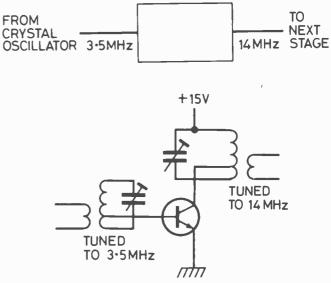


Fig. 1. Frequency multiplication using tuned circuits.

tuned to an exact multiple of the oscillator frequency is that each pulse of current will then arrive in just the right phase to keep the oscillation going in the tuned load. If the load is not correctly tuned, there will not be a continuous steady signal at the collector. The output from this lot is therefore a high frequency signal which is a sinewave, whose frequency is controlled by the crystal oscillator.

Dah, Dah Dit...

So far, so good. We have a high frequency signal which will radiate from a wire, an antenna (or aerial). How do we use it? In the early days, the only way we

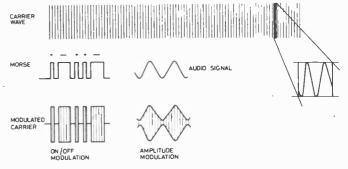


Fig. 2. Ampiltude modulation of a carrier wave.

knew to use a radio wave was the way we used the current in a telegraph wire — we started and stopped it in the pattern called Morse code. Now the Morse code is a fairly simple code, but the idea behind it is important. You can't convey much of a message with a steady signal of any kind, telegraph or radio. To make your radio signal useful, you have to change it, modulate it, either in the form of a stop-start code like Morse code, or in some other way.

A Morse message takes a long time to send, even when automatic transmitters and receivers are used. What was needed was a way of coding an audio signal on to the radio wave, and one of the most frequently used methods is called amplitude modulation. Remember what we mean by amplitude. It's the size of the wave, measured to the peak, in volts. Amplitude modulation means changing the amplitude of the high frequency carrier wave, the one that can be transmitted from an aerial, in a way which allows the carrier to take the information of a low frequency signal along it.

Take a look at Fig. 2. This shows a high frequency wave; the frequency is so high that individual cycles cannot be distinguished in this scale. Along with this carrier wave is shown an audio wave, the type of signal we get, after amplification, from a microphone. Amplitude modulation means making the amplitude of the carrier wave vary at the same rate and with the same voltage changes as the signal wave, and the result of such amplitude modulation is shown in Fig. 2. This modulated wave is still a high frequency wave, it can still be radiated from an aerial, but its amplitude now varies in a way that carries all the information on the amplitude and frequency of the audio signal that we want to transmit.

The final stages of an AM transmitter therefore consist of amplitude modulation and power amplification, very often carried out together. One wellestablished method of amplitude modulation consists of feeding the carrier signal to a power amplifying stage whose collector voltage is then modulated by ananother transistor (Fig. 3.). Large transmitters, of course, use vacuum tubes rather than transistors, but the types of circuits that are used are similar. Fig. 4. shows a block diagram for a complete fixed- frequency AM transmitter.

So far, so good, but there's not much point in having transmitters sending out modulated carrier waves unless we can receive them. Receiving the carrier wave is one thing, a piece of wire will do that, though some design work and cunning is needed if we want to make the best use of the modulated wave. The problem now is what to do with the modulated carrier. The trouble is that it's still a radio frequency wave, even though it's modulated. No matter how much we amplify this wave, no loudspeaker or earphone will vibrate at the frequency of the carrier wave, large amplitude or small. The modulation cannot do anything because the modulation waveform of the opposite peaks of the carrier is in antiphase - one part of the modulation cancels out the other. What we need is some method of recovering the original audio signal from the modulated carrier wave.

Detective Work

The process of recovery, called detection or demodulation, is practically always carried out by a diode, making use of the principle that a diode conducts in one

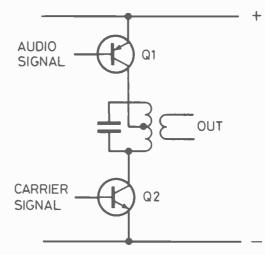


Fig. 3. AM by means of an emitter follower.

direction only. A modulated carrier fed to a diode will cause the diode to conduct for only half of each cycle of the carrier wave, and so the waveform at the other side of the diode looks very different (Fig. 5.). We can then use this waveform to charge a capacitor which is allowed to discharge through a resistor. If we choose the time constant of the capacitor and resistor well, the capacitor will not discharge noticeably during the time from one carrier peak to the next, but will discharge fast enough to follow the changes in the audio waveform. The effect of the capacitor also ensures that there's hardly any carrier wave left, and the small amount that remains can be filtered off, leaving the audio signal.

Wait a minute, though. We've been assuming that we have a signal of large enough amplitude to pass through a diode. We don't in fact get that much signal from an aerial unless the transmitter is very close or very powerful, and we still need to make sure that we have selected the correct carrier wave from the thousands that are around. How do we do that?

Tuning In

Selecting a frequency, of course, is the job of a tuned circuit, and the obvious way to construct a radio is to have several stages of amplification each using a tuned circuit as load. Obvious, yes, and this was the method that was once used. It's called TRF — tuned radio frequency (Fig. 6.), but it isn't suited to modern needs, and here's why. To start with we need to be able to

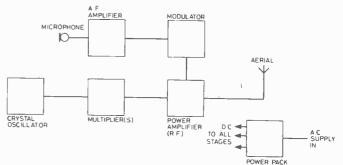
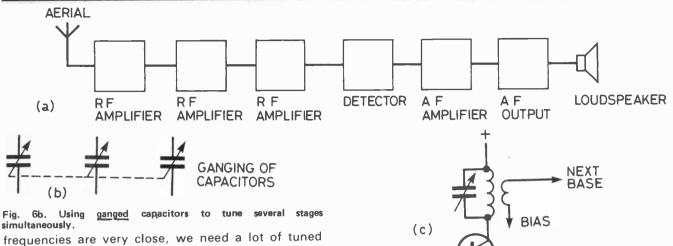


Fig. 4. Block diagram of a complete fixed frequency AM transmitter

change the tuning of each tuned circuit if we want to be able to tune from one carrier frequency to another.

At the same time, if we want the radio to be selective enough to pick out one carrier wave from others whose



frequencies are very close, we need a lot of tuned circuits. It's not entirely impossible, because we can make ganged tuning capacitors, variable capacitors with one shaft operating several capacitors, but it's difficult. In addition, and just to make a difficult job almost impossible, we have our old friend positive feedback lurking around. We may have to amplify the radio signal by quite a bit using perhaps a gain of one thousand or so. With so much amplification of a carrier that can launch itself off a piece of wire so easily, it's very hard to stop some of the amplified signal from getting back to the input. Working on the 'butter-side-down' principle, such feedback is always positive at some frequency or other, so that the whole amplifier oscillates.

The fact that an oscillating receiver is useless as a receiver is bad enough, what makes it worse is that it radiates the oscillating signal back into the aerial and so to any other receivers that are around. When your receiver oscillates, no one listens to the show. We don't like TRF receivers, folks.

Supersonic Changes

All is not lost, though, because a brilliant invention of more than fifty years ago lets us have lots of tuned circuits, along with easy changes of frequency and less chance of feedback. It started with the name of supersonic heterodyne but not surprisingly lost a few letters and ended up being called the superhet receiver. How does it work? Pin your eyelids up and read on.

At the input of a superhet receiver, the signal is tuned in the usual way, using a variable capacitor which is part of a two-gang capacitor set. Instead of amplifying this tuned signal, though, its frequency is changed in a mixer stage. Two frequencies are fed into the mixer stage the carrier signal that has been selected by the tuning, and a sinewave generated by an oscillator (called the local oscillator) which is part of the receiver. Most small receivers do not use a separate oscillator stage; the mixer is connected so that it will oscillate. Now we've mentioned the idea of signal mixing before (beat-frequency oscillator, remember?) but let's run over it again. When we feed two radio signals into an amplifier which is not biased for linear amplification, the output signal will consist of the sum and difference frequencies as well as the frequencies we put into the mixer. More remarkable and useful is the fact that if one of the input frequencies is modulated, then the sum and difference frequencies will also carry the identical modulation. We choose the difference frequency, called the intermediate frequency (IF) and use as the load of the mixer a tuned circuit which will resonate at this intermediate frequency.

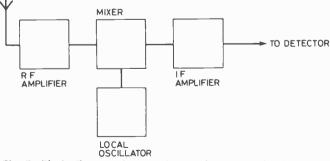
Fig. 5. Using a diode and CR network for detection and demodulation.

Fig. 6c. A single RF stage and connections to the next stage.

Tracking Down the IF

BIAS

What's so smart about changing the frequency? Well, it's not just that we change the frequency, but that we change *any* input carrier frequency into the same IF frequency. The frequency of the local oscillator is controlled by a variable capacitor, the other half of the ganged pair whose first half is used to tune the carrier. Now with a bit of cunning we can arrange it so that these two tuned circuits, the input and the oscillator, will 'track' together, meaning that when we change the tuning of the carrier by 50 kHz, then the tuning of the





oscillator will also change by 50 kHz. If this tracking is accurate, then the difference between oscillator frequency and carrier frequency stays constant, so that when we tune from one carrier to another the frequency at the output of the mixer, the IF, stays constant.

We now have the easy job of amplifying a signal which is at a fixed frequency. The tuned circuits for this lot can be kept inside metal cans to reduce radiation of IF signal, so that positive feedback can almost be eliminated. Any feedback to the input of the mixer is not particularly important, because it's at a different frequency from the carrier frequency and will be rejected by the tuned circuit at the input. A few high-class receivers use an additional IF trap at the input, just to make sure. Very cunning, very useful.

Automation

Summing it all up so far, Fig. 7. shows a block diagram of a superhet receiver up to the detector stage, and Fig. 8. shows the actual circuit diagram of a typical pocket transistor radio. There's one little bit of cunning that we haven't mentioned yet - it's called the AGC circuit, meaning Automatic Gain Control. This AGC is needed because of the way in which radio waves reach us. Radio waves are electromagnetic waves, like light, and they L travel through space in the same way, at the same speed of 300 million metres per second, obeying the same laws. Apart from the effects of diffraction, the only way a radio wave can reach us from a distant transmitter (because of the curvature of the Earth) is by reflecting from the Heaviside or Appleton layers. These are belts of ionised gas that surround the atmosphere, with lots of loose electrons floating about, and they reflect radio waves at most of the lower frequencies. Any radio signal of up to around 30 MHz can then reach us by several paths, a direct path if the transmitter is not too far away. and various reflected paths (Fig. 9.) depending on the height of the reflecting layers, which is generally around 30 to 50 miles.

To Be Or Not To Be. . In Phase

At the receiver, then, signals arrive from several different directions having travelled by different path lengths, and there is no chance that they will always arrive perfectly in step. At 1 MHz for example, the wavelength of a carrier

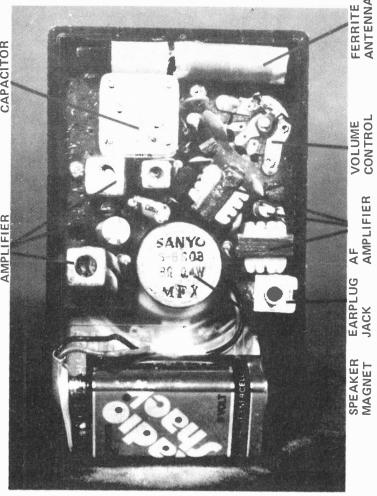
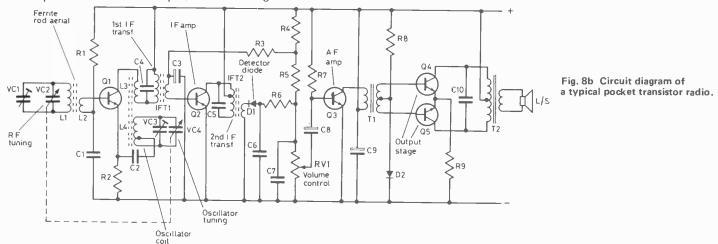


Fig. 8a The various parts of a pocket A.M. ratio.



is 300 metres. A path difference of only 150 m at this frequency will cause one wave to be inverted relative to the other, and any odd multiple of 150 m difference in path length will also cause the waves to be in antiphase.

The reflecting layers are constantly on the move, so that reflected waves have to cover different distances from one minute to the next. At one instant, the waves reaching the receiver may reinforce each other, at the next instant they are just as likely to cancel. The result is that the signal received at the aerial varies greatly in amplitude from one moment to the next.

We could, of course, sit with one hand on the receiver volume control turning up the gain each time the signal became faint and turning it down again when the signals were strong, but it's easier to use a form of negative feedback to do the job. AGC makes use of the fact that the detector diode rectifies the carrier signal, so that there's a steady (DC) voltage at the detector. The amplitude of this steady voltage is equal to the peak amplitude of the carrier, and we can filter out the audio signal changes which go along with it (Fig. 11.). We an separate this DC signal out and use it to control the gain of the receiver, usually by feeding it to an IF amplifier stage, sometimes to the mixer as well. Now when the carrier is strong there's a large DC signal at the detector, and this is used to bias the IF amplifier so that its gain is low. When the signal fades, the DC voltage at

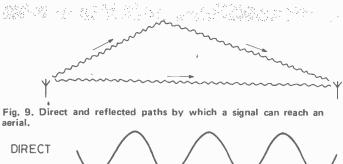
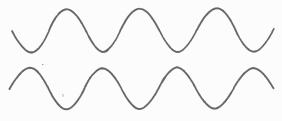




Fig. 10a. Constructive interference (waves in step),



OUT OF STEP (OUT OF PHASE)

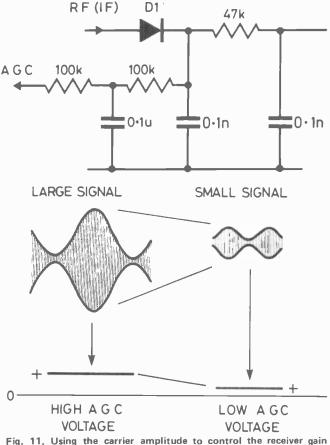
Fig. 10b. Destructive interference (waves out of step).

the detector drops, the IF amplifier bias changes, allowing more gain so that there is more amplification of the signal. All getting clear?

FM

Modulating the amplitude of a carrier isn't the only way of getting a high frequency carrier to take a low frequency signal for a ride. Another of the many types of modulation is FM, frequency modulation. In this type of modulation, the carrier amplitude does not change, but the audio signal causes changes in the frequency of the carrier. The greater the amplitude of the audio signal the greater the frequency change (deviation) of the carrier. The higher the frequency of the audio signal the more rapid are the frequency changes of the carrier.

Frequency modulation is easy to carry out, though demodulation needs rather more than the simple diode circuit that is used for AM receivers. The main advantage of FM is the freedom from noise and interference which can be achieved when well-designed equipment is used. For this reason, FM is used for all high quality sound broadcasting, and exclusively for stereo broadcasts, of which more later.





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PROJECT FAULT FINDING

Keith Brindley comes up front to discuss a largely ignored topic in the art of project building and gives a few hints how to go about fault finding.

IN THE BEGINNING there's the first project — a fuzz box, a light chaser or a photographic timer — and it doesn't work!! You spend hours going through the circuit, checking that you have got all the components in as the diagram says and you *still* can't figure out what the fault is. Blast — throw it in the bin. But wait a minute, it cost you \$30.00. Well maybe you can re-use the components in your next project. Let's see, what's in this monter is copy of ET1?

Bang — and before you know it, you have caught the bug (No, not 'flu' you fool — the electronics bug). And if you are like countless thousands of others you'll never get rid of it. Every time you go into a newsagent's your eyes will wander to the magazine section looking for the new edition of ETI. You may even sink low enough to look at some of our competitors — not buy, just look (of course, you will only buy ETI).

Be that as it may, your first project doesn't work and what is more your second probably won't either. But don't let me put you off or depress you. After all, YOU are our livelihood. In fact, figures would probably show that a beginner only stands about a one in 10 chance of first time success. However, looking on the brighter side, the chances are that the reasons for your circuit not working are only minor.

The trick is to be able to detect a fault, because unfortunately they don't jump up and shout to be found. Normally this knack will only be acquired with practice of building circuits, but that is not to say that it can't be learned!

Troublesome Twosome

Faults can broadly be classified into two groups:

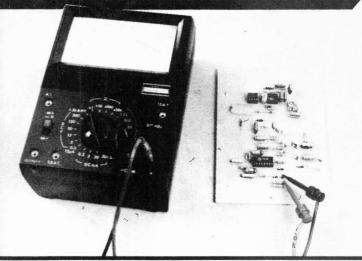
1) user induced

2) component fault

Of the two groups, the most likely to cause a fault would be group one — user induced faults. This is mainly to do with the fact that the beginner, not knowing the right techniques, can make unintentional mistakes to his or her disadvantage. The obvious example of a fault in this category is a dry soldered joint.

Components, if bought from reliable dealers are not normally prone to faults if handled correctly, but it has been known.

Sometimes the two groups overlap — the reason being that the user has somehow induced a component fault. An example of this might be damage of a transistor by overheating when soldering.



Every home should have one. The multimeter is the first and probably most useful piece of test-gear you can buy.

A Fault is A Fault is A Fault

Anyway, however caused, once the fault is there, it is not going to remove itself! It has to be located and repaired and the aim of this article is to suggest a few hints and clues how to go about this.

The best technique is to adopt a system of logical progression, eventually isolating the cause, or causes of non-function. There should be no guesswork involved.

First check the printed circuit board, making sure that all components are in their correct place. What about electrolytic capacitors — are they the right way round? Are all semiconductors ie diodes, transistors, integrated circuits in the correct way? Remember that there is a possibility that a semiconductor which had previously been inserted incorrectly, could be damaged by this, and reinsertion in the correct manner may not repair the fault. A new component may be necessary.

As a matter of good practice it is better to undertake all of these suggested checks before even the first switch on — it may save the expense of a replaced component.

Look for dry joints (they have a knurled, grey appearance). Later in this article we look at a simple procedure for isolation of dry joints, which a visual check might not find.

Next, get a good idea of how the circuit works. This is done by reading the "How It Works" section which we publish with every project in ETI. You may even have to read it a few times before it sinks in. As a general rule we try to describe a circuit in as simple a fashion as space allows, to help the amateur constructor. Try to picture what is going on in there eg in an audio amplifier bear in mind that a small input produces a large output. The input signal may be about 200 mv, but the output signal could be 10 volts. The popular integrated circuit amplifier, the LM 380 provides a useful case-study. Figure 1 shows the IC in a typical circuit, a two watt audio amplifier.

All Boxed Up

It can, however, be visualised in a much simpler fashion, the ''black box''. This term probably arises from the work of H. S. Black, who designated boxes into his circuit diagrams to represent complete amplifiers. In fact the modern representation of an operational amplifier in a circuit, as in figure 4, is really only a 'Black Box'. The area in broken lines in figure 1 can be termed a black box and can be redrawn as in figure 2. In order for the black box amplifier to function correctly, certain connections obviously have to be made — power supply, volume control, i/p and o/p capacitors, etc, as shown in figure 1, although they are not shown in figure 2. But as

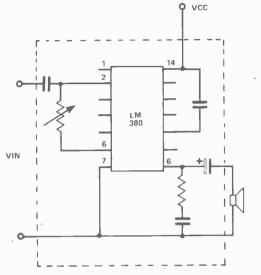


Fig. 1. The area inside the broken lines can be regarded as a 'Black Box' amplifier.

long as we appreciate this then there is no reason why we can't think of an amplifier as a box. The same logic can be applied to literally any electronic circuit. As an aside, it is well worth remembering that a fault in a circuit using ICs, is much more likely to arise from these peripheral connections and components than from the main IC.



Fig. 2. A 'Black Box' amplifier. Note the complete lack of external circuitry.

Let Your Mind Do The Work

Try to reduce the whole circuit in your own mind to a number of black boxes, (as many as you need) say 2 or 3. Let us take for an example a typical mains to low voltage D.C. power supply as in figure 3.

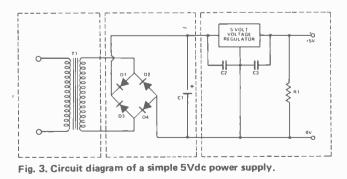




Fig. 4. Black box representation of mains power supply.

Reducing the circuit diagram, which consists of ten components to black box symbols gives us something as in figure 4. The supply can be seen to have three main stages; a method of reducing the high voltage A.C. to low voltage, an A.C. to D.C. converter and a method of regulating the voltage. This is a much simpler representation of the supply than its corresponding circuit diagram but if we remember that there are certain peripherals to connect then it is every bit as accurate.

If the supply is malfunctioning then we should begin to check each individual black box in turn. It is wise to start at the first box and work to the last, because if the first box is not working then any following it won't either. In the example, therefore, we would look at the input to the transformer first (be careful — mains voltage can be lethal!). An A.C. voltmeter should give a reading of 120 V. If not, the fault is prior to this — perhaps a blown fuse?

Next, measure the output voltage of the transformer, which will depend on the transformer itself. In our theoretical example it should be about 6 volts. If all is correct so far we can move on to the next black box, the A.C. and D.C. coverter, whose output voltage should be approximately $\sqrt{2}$ x transformer output voltage = 8 volts D.C. After verifying the second black box is operational then we move to the final one and check this.

If you obtain any results at all from your project, for instance the power supply output might be 8 volts, then knowing this may help you to reduce the fault. In this example the problem is probably the IC voltage regulator itself, not functioning.

Remember, there may be more than one fault, in which case you will have to repair one at a time until the project fully works. The idea at this stage is to be as methodical as possible, isolating the area in, which the fault lies and then finally pin-pointing the fault itself.

The worst faults of all to find are intermittents. There one minute — gone the next. These were often caused in old tube circuits by rising temperature as the tubes warmed up. Happily, a disappearing problem with the almost universal use of solid-state electronics.

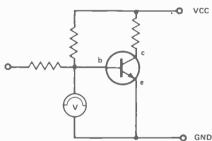


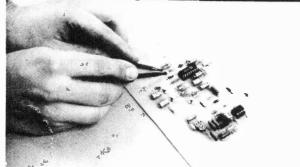
Fig. 5. The voltage from base to emitter for a silicon transistor should be 0.6 volts.

To (V)Be Or Not To (V)Be

In transistor circuits the voltage from base to emitter (Vbe) can be measured, giving a clue as to whether it works or not. In a silicon transistor this should be about 0.6 volts (see figure 5).

You can estimate unknown voltages, as in figure 6 and measure them to see if they correspond. Of course this is only an approximate method because the voltage depends on the resistance of the next stage after point A (which should if possible be taken into account in the voltage calculation).

PROJECT FAULT FINDING



Take care not to short any test clips when probing your circuit.

components with the

With the use of a resistance meter, soldered joints can be checked in the vicinity of the fault by touching the probes onto component leads, which should be connected underneath the board by joints and copper track (see figure 7). If the meter shows zero resistance then all well and good, but it it shows a high resistance or even one of just a few ohms (probably due to dirt on the copper underneath the solder) then you have located a faulty joint.

If the fault still remains stubbornly hidden, the next step is to sub-divide the black boxes into smaller and smaller sections, checking each in turn, until finally you

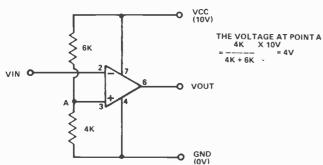


Fig. 6. Estimation of the voltage at point A. (With respect to 0 V.)

are considering individual components. These can be unsoldered and tested out of the printed circuit board if necessary.

Non electrolytic capacitors; can be checked out of circuit with a resistance meter, they should have a high (almost infinite), resistance. Electrolytics, when measured, should normally appear to have a lower resistance then slowly increase to a high one. Lower values, 1-10uF will change considerably faster. This is because they charge up using the current available from the meter. Again, the ideal procedure is to check all of this before construction, in an attempt to reduce possible causes of faults. However, a component which seems perfect on insertion, can be damaged if there is a fault nearby, by high current, temperature etc. So testing of a component before use only reduces risks of faults and doesn't eliminate it.

The Last Straw

Finding faults in a project can be a very difficult task, but one which every aspiring electronics genius will have to go through! There are no easy methods — although a logical approach to the symptoms is advisable. Remember also that fault finding can be very rewarding and great pride can be taken in the finished article.

However, if after all this time, energy and strenuous brain activity you still haven't got a working project — the alternative is still the bin! $\hfill \ensuremath{\bullet}$

MOTHER	CBU A	AKD	1.74
Continued	from	page	51

PARIS LISI MANAGEMENT							
L ¼ W, 5%							
1k							
12R							
47R							
100R							
220R							
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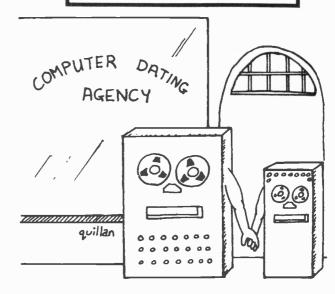
DADTS I IST

HOW IT WORKS

Transistors Q1 to Q3 are the active termination circuitry. Q1 and Q2 provide a constant current source for for ZD1, clamping the base of Q3 at 3.3 volts. Q3 is a series regulator, producing about 2.7 volts across R4. Resistors R5 to R97 (there are a lot of them, aren't there) terminate the bus lines to a common bus, connected to the emitter of Q3. R4 is bypassed by C1. Open lines will by held at 2.7 volts, by terminated by a resistive impedance at RF. High clock speeds shouldn't produce any reflections back down the bus.

Most processors running at up to 4 MHz will have no problems with the board...it has been used on 2 MHz systems even without the termination.

The three additional regulators are not, strictly speaking, necessery for an S-100 system...although they're nice for peripherals...and can be omitted if they aren't needed.



IC MASTER

The gods do not smile upon those who do not have data sheets. Bring good fate and healthy children unto your house with an IC Master. By Steve Rimmer.

The IC Master

Spec sheet for an LM301, huh? Oh ya, right, that's filed under the pile of surplus vacuum tube computer circuit modules, which I seem to recall seeing on top of the broken dish washer, right out behind the work bench with the three 1958 Edsel carbs on it. Or is that where I put the manual for the power finger nail clipper? Well, if it is where the thing's stuck, it's near the bottom of the pile. You'll know it cause that's the one Mrs. Furnshredder's rabbit started chewing up to make a nest.

A large hassle, this spec sheet business. First of all, you've got to talk them out of the component store guy, who will, after several minutes of heated innuendo, usually only produce Xerox's anyway, usually with the edge of the page blurred beyond recognition. Then you've got to find the nasty scraps when it actually comes time to do whatever you got them for in the first place. And if the inspiration for a new and improved digital mousetrap hits you at two AM on Sunday morning, forget about scarfing up data for that sixteen channel binary rodent detector chip. If you use integrated circuitry to build anything more complex than a one chip phono pre-amp, you might need an IC master.

The IC Master is a two volume, boxed collection of manufacturers data sheets. It's quite a wonderful little library. The entries are divided into nine catagories; digital, microprocessor, military, MPU Development systems, Microcomputer boards, interface, linear, and memory. On top of that, there are several sections of ancillary indexing systems to help you wade through the 3400 pages of information.

Index Fingers

The first of these is, actually, the index of indexes, so you can quickly locate the index you're after. Beginning to get

an idea of the size of the work? Following this, we have the master selection guide, which takes specific device functions and translates them sorts generic of device into For instance, if you nomenclature. needed a Bidirectional transceiver chip. it would send you scrambling for "Interface-Line circuits, Line Transceivers". This is particularly useful if you find yourself in an area of electronics with which you aren't terribly familiar.

Next, we have the part number index, which is a prize all in itself. Let us suppose that one has a circuit diagram drawn crudely by a baboon on a lunch bag, listing a chip designated as, say, a 339. Now, who makes a 339? Usually there's a letter prefix that tells one this. Well, the part number index takes the base number and lists all the manufacturers who source it. It also supplies the number with its proper prefixes, LM for National, uA for Fairchild, and so on. Did you know there are fourteen sources for a 741? Hmmm.

Then, there's the part number guide, which explains the codes imbedded in the part number. These are peculiar to each manufacturer, in most cases. For example, TMS4027-15JL means: TMS (MOS Memory/Microprocessor,) -15 (150ns Maximum access time), J (Ceramic DIP package), L ($n^{\circ}C$ temperature range). Betcha didn't know all that stuff. It's actually quite interesting the amount of data actually available from many manufacturers' part numbers ... if you know the code.

There's also an advertiser's index, which lists the abbreviations used to refer to IC manufacturers. A list of logos is also provided which often helps in identifying otherwise orphan parts.

There's a list and source guide for a library of application notes, a list of the ICs for which data is given in the guide, along with page references, a list of alternate sources for each chip, along with the alternate part numbers, and, finally, a list of the names and addresses of the manufacturers and their dealers and distributors.

The selection of data sheets in the master is pretty good . . . naturally, it doesn't list everything in the master index, but it has a fairly good crop. It is, however, heavily weighted toward digital, and particularly toward micro-processors. This isn't wholly unreasonable . . . most of the ICs made have somthing to do with this area. There's even a batch of stuff on built up boards for micros and their associated whizz-bangs.

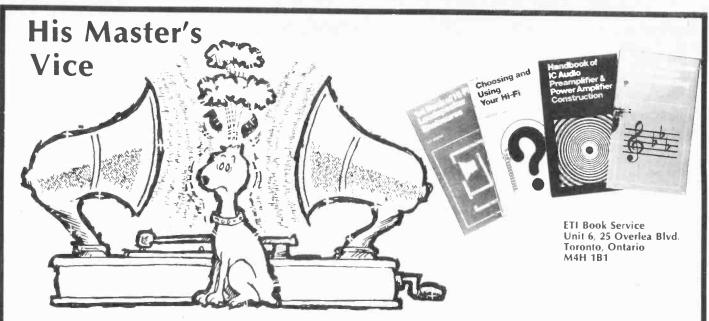
Lastly, there is a fairly good introductory bit on custom IC's. Naturally, it doesn't even begin to completely cover this very complex subject. However, it provides a comprehensive grounding on who can supply what, and who to contact for more information.

Do You Need One?

First off, one should be aware of the price of this wonderful, highly useful book. \$100.00 buys you the whole shooting match, boxed, with a year of quarterly updates. This is, admittedly, fairly steep, probably too much so for any but the most grimly serious, or affluent, of hobbyists. However, if you're doing any sort of developement, circuit design or suchlike, it's about as indispensable as your soldering iron.

The IC Master represents a single source listing for virtually all the ICs one could normally expect to encounter in any typical applications. If you use reference data a lot, it can be expected to pay for itself in time saved alone.

The IC Master is available from Active Component Sales, ... there are several locations, too numerous to mention ... about five, actually, which are listed on the back cover of this very magazine. The actual price is \$99.99.



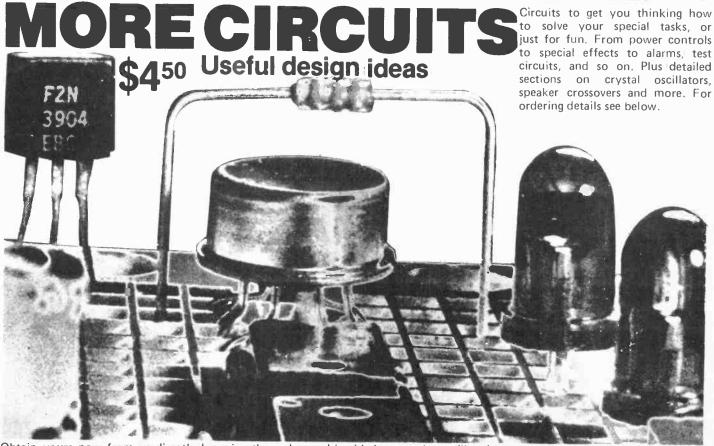
If it happened to be streaking through the local mall, shoplifting bamboo toe picks out of Nigerian novelty boutiques, hunting sparrows with a howitzer or even running around town spray painting nuns, Nipper here wouldn't mind a bit. However, bad luck for the unfortunate mutt, the old guy's into audio reproduction. Just last week, the poor beast came home to find two hundred watt speakers in his dog house playing a demonstration record of the U.S. Air Force on manoeuvres. Nothing worse than an amp that goes up to thirty five thousand hertz if you're a dog.

We here at ETI feel sorry for dogs with masters that have loud cheap

stereos. Dogs usually aren't tall enough to reach the medicine cabinet to get the ear plugs, and if they manage to chew through the line cord to shut the thing off, the shock usually blows out their teeth and the other dogs laugh at them. Thus, they are forced to endure lifetimes of Pat Benatar at 11% distortion. a truly lamentable fate.

For those of you who feel like doing something kind for your dog, we have a few books here to help you out. The 1st Book of Loudspeaker Enclosures (BP205, \$3.55) will provide all sorts of alternatives to suspending a 6×9 in a milk crate. Choosing And Using Your Hi-Fi (BP68, \$7.25) explains all sorts of useful things, like why your neighbour's Mac amps sound better than you Close'n'Play. Handbook of IC Audio Preamplifier & Power Amplifier Construction (BP35, \$5.50) is just the tome for those interested in blowing out their eardrums with something home made. And Electronic Music And Creative Tape Recording (BP51, \$5.50) will help you go clear off the deep end drown in a sea of really peculiar sounds.

Buy these books. They will make you really smart, and if you learn lots from them ... your dog will probably clear out for good within the week.



Obtain yours now from us directly by using the order card in this issue, or by mailing \$4,50 + 45c for postage and handling to MORE CIRCUITS, Electronics Today Magazine, Unit 6, 25 Overlea Blvd, Toronto, Ontario, M4H 1B1.

What you should know about the Multiflex Z80A computer

MULTIFLEX is a young, fast-growing Canadian com-puter company. Most people have only just heard of us within the past year, because previous to that we were involved in intensive, low-profile research and development.

THE Z80A SYSTEM was developed over a two-year period. The company's intent was to produce a computer suitable for both hobbyists and industry, capable of functioning as a stand-alone trainer yet infinitely expandable. That goal has been attained, with the added benefit of a very low price.

STAND-ALONE FEATURES

of the system, selected for maximum usefulness and lowest cost, include the following:

- Separate motherboard and CPU card, which communicate over the industry-standard S-100 bus. The motherboard can accommodate up to four S-100 cards.
- Space on the CPU card for up to 4K of RAM and up to 16K of EPROM. The RAM is organized as two blocks of 2K bytes each, (200 nS 2114 devices are used) which can be located within any 2K block in the address-space by hardware jumpers. An 8K or 16K block size may be selected for the EPROMs and this, too, may be located at any address. 2708 and 2716 devices may be used exclusively or in combinations.
- A resident 3.5K Monitor which facilitates machine-language program entry, execution and debugging, and controls all input/ output hardware on the motherboard. The Monitor is in two 2716 EPROMS which may be removed and re-used if the user wishes to implement a more powerful operating system.
- A has keyboard, fourteen Monitor function keys, and two unas-signed keys for user routines.
- A six-digit hex LED display organized as a four-digit address
- field and a two-digit data field.
 An interface to a conventional cassette recorder, which sends and receives data at 2000 bits per second with exceptional reliability. The Monitor includes a special routine which
- simplifies precise calibration of the recorder and interface. An EPROM programmer for 2708 and 2716 devices. The contents of any block of system memory may be written out to EPROM, and programmed EPROMs may also be read into RAM through the programming socket for duplication. Many industrial buyers have have used Multiflex 280A systems just to download data from
- larger computers, to be programmed into EPROMS. A parallel interface based on the 8255 PPI chip. Twenty-four I/O lines are available, which can be programmed in several configurations.
- An optional RS-232C serial interface, already wired on the motherboard. The components for this may be purchased and installed at any time, allowing communication with a modem, prin-ter, or other device using the RS-232C standard. Eight jumper-selectable baud rates are available, from 110 to 9600 baud.
- A 40-chip wire-wrap area on the motherboard for custom hardware development or modifications. The wire-wrap plane is centrally located for easy access to bus signals and all I/O hardware.

Read the independent review of this product in ETI May 1981.

\$395. in kit form.

\$450. Assembled & tested.

EXPANDABILITY is assured by the use of

the S-100 bus system. Almost any product, made by any manufacturer for use with S-100 computer systems, may be used with the Multiflex 280A. Also, all bus signals are heavily buffered in the Multiflex computer, to facilitate expansion to many extra boards. Multiflex is now developing an entire line of support products designed specifically for the Z80A. These include:

- A 64K dynamic memory board with automatic refresh, based on the Intel 8202 Dynamic Memory Controller chip. Each board may be loaded with 16K, 32K, 48K or 64K of 4116 RAM devices, and up to eight full boards may be used on the same bus because of the bank-select feature.
- A low-cost video board for displaying text on an ordinary blackand-white television set, with an interface to a standard ASCII keyboard.
- A high-resolution colour text/graphics board and I/O subsystem, based on the Motorola 6847 Video Display Controller. The video circuitry offers eight display modes and can be interfaced to a standard ASCII keyboard. The I/O section includes two 8255 PPI chips for up to 48 bits of parallel I/O, an 8253 programmable real-time clock, a fully handshaked RS-232C interface with baud rate programmable through the 8253, and up to 6K of static RAM. The board may be used with any colour television set, because a complete RF modulator is provided on-board.
- An EPROM emulator for use in the development of stand-alone microprocessor systems. This board appears to a host computer as ordinary RAM on the S-100 bus, but to an external device con-nected to it by a 24-pin DIP jumper, it completely simulates a 2716 or 2732 EPROM.
- A bipolar PROM programmer which connects directly to the EPROM programming socket of the Z80A system. This board and the soft-ware packace sold with it, are capable of programming all of the popular Schottky PROMs.

All of the above-mentioned products except the PROM programmer may be interfaced to any S-100 computer, regardless of manufacturer.

MULTIFLEX products are available from



319 College Street TORONTO, ONTARIO M5T 1S2 Phone 921-5295

Write, phone, or come in soon for information on all Multiflex products.



AT THE LAST audio show I attended, I encountered a display which included a separate turntable, arm and pickup assembly, and although all three components came from the same manufacturer, they required assembly by the user.

When I first met him, the gentleman demonstrating the equipment was complaining about inexplicable distortions.

Even the most casual observer would quickly have noticed that the pickup/arm assembly had been improperly installed, with a large amount of lateral tracking error built into the system. To my amazement, when I pointed this out, I was treated to the information that tracking error wasn't really important.

I don't think we need dwell on the patent absurdity of this last assertion. But it really is quite remarkable how often a pickup and arm are fitted together then mounted on a turntable incorrectly, and I've even observed this with integrated units where you would think there was no opportunity for installer error.

There's really little excuse for it, outside of inebriation or excessive blowing of smoke out of the ears. The appropriate arm geometries have been well known since the acoustical days, and the only real question is how much error is to be permitted, and over what parts of the record surface is tracking accuracy most important.

Finding the Right Track

First we had best define what we mean by "Tracking". Generally, to track means to following step, so as to maintain some fixed relationship betwen the tracker and the trackee, so to speak. The function of a pickup arm, then, is to support the pickup in such a way as to allow it to follow a path across the record surface which tracks the movement of the cutting head which made the original master. More precisely, the stylus orientattion, and its vibrational axis should be maintained identical to those of the cutting stylus.

Standard practice in modern recording dictates that lateral modulation occurs at right angles to a line tangent to the groove arc: Since such an angle also parallels a radius line intersecting the tangent, modern lathes achieve this modulation angle by carrying the cutter in a straight line parallel to the radius, with the cutting stylus coincident to the radius. This is illustrated in Fig 1.

The obvious way to ensure perfect tracking by the playback pickup is to arrange a straight line tracking carrier, with the pickup stylus following the radius, and indeed, this is the principle of the new straight line tracking systems currently on the market.

Throwing a Curve

However, for a variety of reasons, the earliest of arms, and most of the better units in current production mount a pickup at the end of an arm which is pivoted at the opposite end. This is where life becomes complicated. because, as Fig 2 shows, the pickup cannot follow a straight line; consequently, the pickup orientation is never parallel to the groove tangent if the arc of travel crosses the centre of the record and the amount of error, that is, the angle between groove tangent and pivot/stylus axis, increases with the radius of groove spiral. The amount of error can be calculated using the following equation:

 $\emptyset = 57.3((r/2L) + (D/r))$ degrees Eq.1

where Ø is the tracking angle, or error,

L = stylus-to-pivot length, r = groove radius, and D = shortest distance between record centre and stylus, or overhang.

It is, of course, quite possible to arrange for tangential orientation at one radius only, by underhanging the stylus, that is, arranging for its arc to pass between the record centre and the arm pivot.

Solving Eq 1 for various negative values of D shows that for a given arm length, it is possible for a straight arm to have less deviation from either side of tangence, even though the total angular deviation range is greater than for zero underhang.

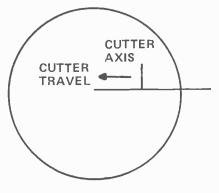


Fig. 1. Cutting geometry

However, look what happens if we overhang the stylus, that is have its arc pass beyond the centre of the record. The amount of tracking error at *all* radii is greater than with no overhang, and at no radius is it possible to achieve zero error. This can be visualized from Fig 2, and verified using Eq 1 for various values of overhang, D.

The Deviate Track

What may be less obvious, but more interesting, is the fact that, although tracking error is greater it varies less

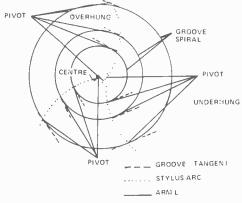


Fig. 2. Effect of under and overhang

from inner ot outer radius, and, in fact, for any radius, another can be located at which the error is identical, except for one radius.

All of the above are illustrated in Fig 3.

Further examination of Eq 1 and Fig 3 will disclose two other useful features. First, there is a correct amount of overhang for a given length; any other value will give a greater range of error.

The second point is that the longer the arm, the less variation in angle.

The significance of this is about to become clear.

Getting Bent

Suppose we have an arm whose pivotto-stylus length, L, is 10.75". If it is mounted with an overhang of 0.6", at groove radii of 2.25" and 5.75" the error will be about 21°, while at 3.75" it will be 19°. These represent minimum and maximum radii on a long play record, as well as a median point. At 2.5" and 5.0" the error will be 20°, the mean value of the two extremes.

Now, if we rotate the pickup so as to provide an offset angle of 20°, then at 2.5" and 5" radii the error will be zero, while at 2.25" and 5.75" the error will be +1° and at 3.75" it will be - 1°.

These figures are calculated using Eq 1 and rounding the answers.

Despite the simple math involved, this is still a cumbersome trial and error method, and, in fact, there are two equations, the famous Bauer equations, which are useable to calculate overhang and offset when length and minimum and maximum radii are known.

Optimum arm geometry is obtained when the overhang D is ۲ 2

$$D = \frac{r_2}{L[\frac{1}{4}(1 + r_1/r_2)^2 + r_1/r_2]}$$

and offset angle B is

$$B = \frac{57.3r_1 (1 + r_1/r_2)}{L[\frac{1}{4}(1 + r_1/r_2)^2 + r_1/r_2]} degrees$$

where r_1 and r_2 are minimum and maximum groove radii of interest, respectively.

Notice that the expressions (1 + r, /r,) and r, /r, appear in several places and in both equations the denominator is the same, which greatly simplifies calculations, especially if your calculator has several memories.

It should be remembered that the effect of tracking error is more severe at high frequencies in the inner grooves. It is possible, then, to optimize D and B for inner and middle radii and allow some increase in the outer grooves, but we are talking about very small values, small enough that they are likely to be far less than errors introduced due to mounting inaccuracies.

In setting up a commercially manufactured arm, it is a relatively simple matter to measure the values of L and B and calculate D. It's also instructive to calculate the errors which result. In most arms it is possible to vary L and B slightly by altering the pickup mounting, shifting it fore and aft, and rotating it in the mounting.

I should also point out, in the interests of accuracy, that Eq 1 incorporates some simplifications, and is derived from \mathscr{A} = arcsin (r, + 2LD -D²)/2rL). Under conditions normally

how to, limit the output of this

amplifier? Not with a volume

control but in preset increments of,

say, 50-100-150 watts, etc, with a

this project.

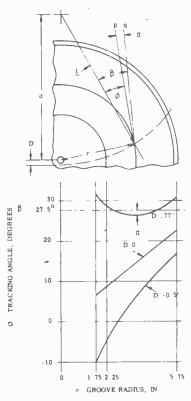


Fig. 3. Tracking angle relationships for 7½-inch arm.

encountered it is satisfactory to assume that the sine of the angle is equal to the angle and to neglect D² within the parenthesis. The equation then becomes $\mathcal{P} = (r/2L) + (D/r)$ radians, which can be converted to degrees, or use Eq 1.

The resulting error is around 0.02%.

That's certainly less than the inflation rate.



2) Is there a way to switch R19 I am building the 300 W amplifier (10 K/8 Ohm load) to 6k8/4 from your August issue, and I have Ohm load? Or is the bias to be a few questions that I believe would reset whenever this resistor is be of general interest to builders of changed. In this way the amplifier could be matched easily to 1) Would it be possible to, and different loads.

> 31 You mentioned where the power transistors could be had. Can the 2500 uF/80 VRTP Elna capacitors be obtained from the

AUDIO TODAY LETTERS

same place. I've tried the big dealers here in Montreal, and they look at me like I'm stupid asking for such a thing.

G.H. Montreal.

1) A volume control does not limit the output of the amplifier; it mearely sets the level input, or input gain. Output level is often limited by adjusting output protection circuitry so that it will cut in at some specified value of output voltage/current, but I don't recomment this method unless the amplifier is specifically designed for it.

Since output power into a given load is determined by the supply voltage, you can reduce maximum output by reducing supply voltage in proportion to the square root of the desired output change.

The best method, though, would be to use a peak limiting amplifier at the input, set to limit at an input level corresponding to the desired output. This is the only method which allows convenient switch selection.

I question your reasons for wanting to do this. 300 Watts is a lot of power, only likely to be used on peaks. Most decent speakers can handle this without trouble even though they may be rated much lower. If your average level is 10 Watts, it doesn't matter how much above this the amplifier is capable of, you'll still be using only ten watts, with the remainder providing headroom.

In any case, if you do have good reason for limiting output to, say, 50 Watts, why not build a 50 Watt amplifier and save a buck.

2) R19 is a feedback resistor and sets the gain, as well as feedback factor. There is a way to switch it: with a switch. You shouldn't have any bias problems, but you might want to check it for yourself.

3) You don't have to use Elna capacitors. As a matter of fact, you might consider using computer grade units mounted on the chassis, with small mylar units of around 50 nanofarads in place of the Elnas. Use the largest capacitors you can get, but don't skimp on the rectifier. The latter should be selected for very high surge current.

Using about 15000 uF capacitance will really make it sound like the high power amplifier it is, and tighten up bass response considerably.

Don't worry about the salesmen, They get that expression from looking in the mirror too much.





\$550.

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6.

HM 312

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Y: Bandwidth DC-20MHz (-3dB) • Sensitivity 5mV-20V/cm (±3%) X: Timebase 0.2s-40ns/cm incl. x5 Magn. • Trig. 3Hz-30MHz (4mm) Dual trace • X-Y Operation • Calibrator • Screen 8x10cm • 2kV

HM 412

\$1277.

Y: Bandwidth DC-20MHz (-3dB) • Sensitivity 2mV-20V/cm (±3%) X: Timebase 2s-40ns/cm incl. x5 Magn. • Trig. DC-40MHz (5mm) Dual trace • Algebr. addition • X-Y Operation • Screen 8x10cm Sweep delay • Overscan, Trigger, Delay indications • Trigger filter Z-Modulation • Calibrator • Graticule illumination • 2kV

HM 512

\$2070.

Y: Bandwidth DC-50MHz (-3dB) • Sensitivity 5mV-50V/cm (±3%) X: Timebase 5s-20ns/cm incl. x5 Magn. • Trig. DC-70MHz (5mm) Dual trace • Algebr. addition • X-Y Operation • Screen 8x10cm Delay line • Sweep delay • After delay triggering • Trigger filter Single shot + Reset • Overscan, Trigger, Ready, Delay indications var. Hold-off • Z-Modulation • Graticule illumination • 12kV

HM 812

\$4630.

Y: Bandwidth DC-50MHz (-3dB) • Sensitivity 5mV-50V/div. (±3%) X: Timebase 5s-20ns/div. Incl. x5 Magn. • Trig. DC-70MHz (0.5div.) Dual trace analog storage with var. Persistence and Auto-Storage Algebr. addition • X-Y Operation • Screen 8x10div. (7.2x9cm) Delay line • Sweep delay • After delay triggering • Trigger filter Single shot • Overscan, Trigger, Ready, Delay, AS indications var. Hold-off • Z-Modulation • X-Guard circuit • Calibrator • 8.5kV



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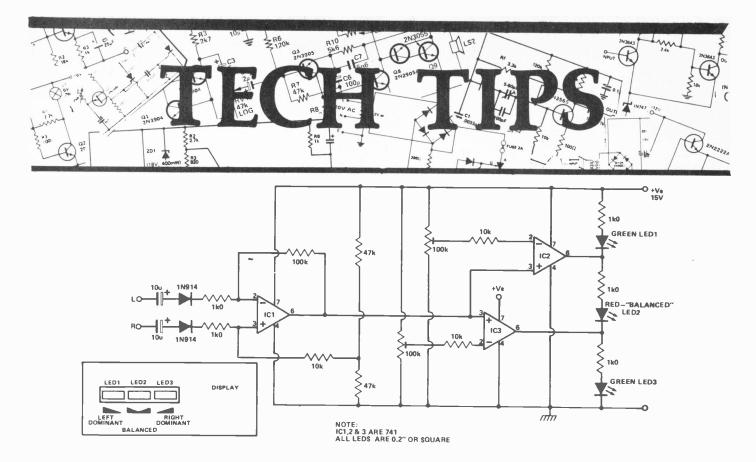
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Stereo Balance Meter G. Durant

Balance on a stereo amplifier is usually set by ear, but this of course can be very difficult to judge. If an amplifier has a balance meter at all, it is usually of the centre-zero moving coil type — bulky, old-fashioned looking and expensive. This circuit is designed to overcome all of these problems.

The outputs from each channel are fed to the two inputs of IC1, this being connected as a differential amplifer. If the left and right channels are of equal levels, the output of IC1 will have its output at about halfway between the supply rails. If

Micropower LED Flasher D. Stewart

The circuit will brightly flash an LED, yet has a supply current of only 150 uA. In a normal 555 astable, the timing capacitor is discharged straight to ground. Here, the charge is made use of by discharging it throught the LED. A suggested use is for an on-off indicator in a battery-powered circuit.

With slight modification the circuit can be used as a good battery indicator. A potential divider is connected to pin 4 (reset) from the supply rail of the circuit whose battery is being monitored, so that when the suppthe left channel gets above the level of the right channel, the output of IC1 will approach the 0 V rail. If the right channel is loudest, the output becomes positive.

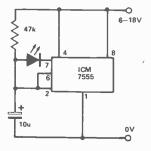
IC2 and 3 are also differential amplifiers, but in this case they are driven by the output of IC1. LEDs form a dispiay at the outputs of the two ICs. Pin 2 of ICs 2 and 3 each go to a preset across the supply. In practice, the preset in conjunction with IC2 is set to hold pin 2 slightly above 0 V and the preset connected to IC3 is set to hold pin 2 just below supply voltage. These settings, however, must be set by trial and error so that the circuit works accurately.

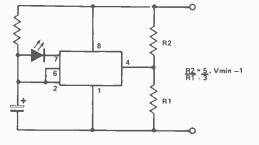
The output of IC1 is connected to

ly drops below a predetermined voltage, then the voltage on pin 4 drops below 0V7. Thus the LED will only flash if the supply is higher than the non-inverting inputs of IC2 and 3. If the output of IC1 approaches the supply rail, the outputs of ICs 2 and 3 will also go high, thus illuminating LED 3. This would happen if the right channel were dominating. If the left channel were dominant, the outputs of ICs 2 and 3 would be low, thus illuminating LED 1. If the two channels were equal in amplitude, the outputs of ICs 2 and 3 would be high and low respectively, lighting up LED 2.

The circuit can easily be added on to a ready constructed unit without using up large amounts of panel space, or used as a add-on unit for a hi-fi system. The unit draws about 20 mA, so battery operation is practical.

the predetermined voltage. Keep the value of the resistors high to reduce current consumption (eg 1M0 for R1).





DYNAMIC



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C	8610A	600 MHz 8 Digit		
		Frequency Counter	\$159.00	\$209.00
D	5020A	Function Generator		
		.2 0 200 KHz	NIA	\$184.00
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~	2037A	DMM LCD Hand Held	\$126.00	\$159.00
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	pedan	ce DVM to 30,000V. Ac	curacy 2%.	
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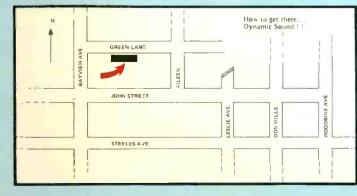
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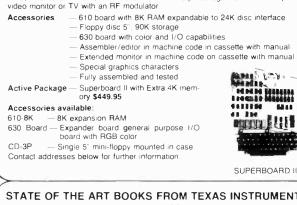
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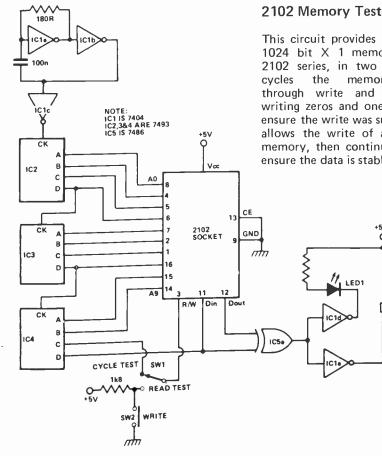
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Q Vdd

1C3 4017

NOTES IC1 IS 4049 IC2 IS 4025 IC3 IS 4017 BATT SUPP

Y 9 VOLT

1C2#

1C2

101

R4 1k0 Vđđ

CLOCK

C1 47

SPIN SWITCH

Q Vdd

R3 10k

GND

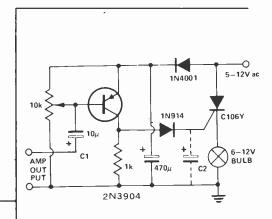
2102 Memory Tester

This circuit provides for the testing of 1024 bit X 1 memories, such as the 2102 series, in two modes. Mode-1 memory continuously through write and read, alternately writing zeros and ones then reading to ensure the write was successful. Mode-2 allows the write of a signal onto the memory, then continuously reads it to ensure the data is stable.

LS1

In both modes, the output from the memory is compared with what should be there, and if there is a difference, an LED flashes, accompanied by a click from the speaker. In Mode-2, on power on, a continuous noise will be heard from the speaker; on pressing the 'WRITE' button this should vanish. Similarly, a brief pulse of noise will be heard in Mode-1 before the write is completed. The oscillator frequency is about 20 kHz with components shown.

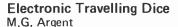
In Mode-2, when the supply voltage drops below 4.5V, memory is not stable for more than a fraction of a second. although this does not show up using Mode-1.



Sound-Modulated Light Source Michael Thong

This circuit modulates a light beam with voice or music from the output of an amplifier. If the 10k pot is adjusted to slightly less than the Vbe of the transistor, the circuit forms a peak detector.

This drives the gate of the SCR, lighting the globe, the brightness of which will vary as the sound level varies. C2 may be removed for a faster response.



CLOCK OSCILLATOR

OA вO

OF GO

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ICI

R2 1204

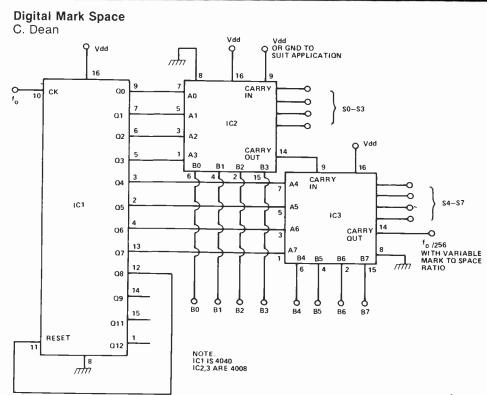
The heart of the unit is the 4017 divide by n counter, IC3. The outputs in turn give a logic 1 level (+9V) with each To divide by six as clock pulse. required by a dice, the seventh count (output six, confusingly) is connected to the reset (RST) input. This resets all outputs to logic 0 and the count starts all over again ad infinitum.

So long as the clock enable input is connected via the 10k resistor to VDD, the count carries on as normal. If it is connected to 0 V the counter stops and remains in the state it was in at that time. This is achieved by a normally open push switch which acts as the SPIN switch. When the switch is operated it stops the counter.

GND

Tech-Tips is an ideas forum and as such is not aimed at the beginner; we regret that we cannot answer queries on these items. We do not build up or test these circuits prior to publication.

ETI is happy to consider ideas or circuits submitted by readers; all items used will be paid for. Drawings should be as clear as possible and the text preferrably typed. Anything submitted should not be subject to copyright. Items for consideration should be sent to the Editor.



Hey, It's Not Their Fault...

Sure, it's a drag when the newsstand runs out of ETI, and it's understandable that you might feel a little bummed out over it. This circuit provides a mark/space ratio at the C_{out} pin which depends on the binary value set up on B0 and B7. As Q0 to Q7 gradually increases in value, due to incoming clock pulses, $C_{out} = 0$ if Q0. . .Q7 + B0. . .B7 X 1111111 and $C_{out} = 1$ if Q0. . .Q7 + B0. .B7 X 1111111. The higher the value of B0. .B7, the quicker C_{out} will become 1 after Q0. . .Q7 is automatically reset, and the higher the value of the mark space ratio. The proportion of time that C_{out} is 1 is given by:

(Value of B0. . .B7) + C_{in} (=0or1) 256

Note that for C_{out} to be permanently 0 C_{in} must be 0 (and B0. . .B7 = 00000000) and that the C_{out} to be permanently 1 C_{in} must be 1 (and B0. . .B7 = 11111111).

The circuit could have its clock input connected to a microprocessor clock, B0...B7 connected to the data bus and C_{out} to moving coil meter or a red/green LED (RS 587-080). Then the meter reading will be proportional to, or the colour of the LED will depend on, the value of B0...B7.

However, atomic weapons never solved anything. It's probably just an odd coincidence that there was one fewer copies this time around . . . I'll bet it was something silly like a roving Bedouin mattress merchant came by and bought one to peruse whilst on the road, perchance atop his camel . . . no, I don't know the coordinates for Bedouin land off the top of my head, and I'd hardly tell you if I did. Listen, the old guy who runs that thing probably has a weak heart. Maybe you (should put out the pilot light on the flame thrower and let him resume breathing. And I think that fuse is burning a bit short.

Yes, I realize that you're going to Yes, I realize that you're going to miss quite a lot of really neat stuff, features, circuits, news. . . excuse me, could you put the safety on that thing. I'm allergic to being sawn in half by a hail of bullets. You know, what you could do to avoid all this in the future would be to subscribe. That way, you'd have your ETI delivered to your front door once a month, with no hassle, and you could keep your artillery in the garage where it wouldn't get rusty. It would almost be like signing a

Oh, uh, did I say something wrong. Just ease the pin back into that grenade, /would you. ..subscribe to ETI and prevent armageddon. \$16.00 for one year. \$29.95 for two. Lower rates for orders of one century or longer. 7% provincial pinch for On-/tario residents.

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 (Listen, this can be worked out, man. You look hungry have a cyanide pill...)

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SP100 Oscilloscope Probe

X10 Oscilloscope Probes P100 2P150 2P100 cification Specificatio Specification 100 MHz Bandwidth Bandwidth. Risetime 2.3 nanoseconds 10M 9 when used ise Time put Resistance 10 MΩ when used Input Resistance Input Resistance with oscilloscopes with a 1MO input with Oscilloscopes with 1MO input (Probe resistance (Probe resistance 9M12 + 1%) 11.0 pF when used 9MΩ + 1%) 9.5 pF, when used nput Capacity Input Capacity Input Capacity with oscilloscope which have 30 pF with oscilloscope which have 30pF nput capacity. input capacity. 10-60 pF Compensation Range Compensation Range 10 60 pF Compensation Range 600 Volts D.C Working Voltage Working Voltage Working Voltage (including Pk.A.C 1 5 Metres (including Pk A.C.) 2 Metres able Length Cable Length: Cable Length





D.C. to 100 MHz 3.5 nanoseconds 10M£ when used with oscilloscopes with 1M£ input $\begin{array}{l} (\text{Probe resistance} \\ 9\text{M}\Omega + 1^\circ _{\circ}) \\ 13.5 \, \text{pF when used} \end{array}$ with oscilloscopes which have 30 pF input capacity 10-60 pF 600 Volts D.C. iding Pk A.C. 2 Metres



					\$2660	
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position slide switc	incorporates a three- h in the head and has a metres. The specification		4	N.O.		
Position x 1				1000		
Bandwidth:	D.C. to 10MHz			1P20		
Input Resistance:	$1M\Omega$ (oscilloscope	Input Resistance:	10MΩ when used			
Input Capacity:	input) 40 pF. Plus oscilloscope capacity		with oscilloscopes which have 1MΩ input, (Probe	X1 Osc	illoscope P	robe
Working Voltage:	600 Volts D.C. (including Peak A.C.)		resistance $9M\Omega$ ± 1%)	Specification Bandwidth:	D.C. to 20 MHz	
Cable Length:	1.5 Metres	Input Capacity:	11.5 pF when used	Input Resistance:	$1M\Omega$ (oscilloscope	
Position Ref.	Luio QM() register		with oscilloscopes which have a 30pF	I lanut Canaait	input)	
Probe tip grounded oscilloscope input (input capacity.	Input Capacity:	47 pF. Plus oscilloscope input	
Position x 10	Broandea	Compensation Rang		Working Voltage:	600 Volts D.C.	
Bandwidth:	D.C. to 100 MHz	Working Voltage:	600 Volts D.C.	inoring totage.	(including Peak A.C.)	
Risetime:	3.5 nanoseconds		(including Peak A.C.)	Cable Length:	1.5 Metres	

(including Peak A.C.) Cable Length:

1.5 Metres

Circle No. 3 on Reader Service Card.

	om page 47 SOUND BRAND	MODEL	PRODUCT TYPE	AM?	FM?	STEREO?	DOLBY?	CASSETTE?	S/N RATIO, dB	FREQUENCY RESPONSE	WOW, FLUTTER, %	PWR. IN OR OUT	DISTORTION %	NUMBER OF SPEAKERS	WOOFER SIZE (Inches)	SPECIAL FEATURES	M.S.L.	
	Roadstar	RS400 RS6011 RS6012 RS6013 RS6022 TR5420 TR6420 RS910X RS912X RS914X RS921X RS921X RS921X RS923X RS923X RS923X RS934X RS948X	Speaker Door Mount Spkr Convertible Mt Spkr Spkr Conv Mt Spkr Flush Mt Spkr Conv Mt Spkr Surface Mt. Spkr			-				450-20K 100-15K 100-15K 70-18K 85-16K 80-18K 80-18K 80-18K 80-18K 80-18K 80-18K 80-18K 80-18K 80-18K 80-18K 80-18K 80-15K 60-20K 70-20K 50-22K		10 4 15 10 25 75 125 15 15 20 20 30		1 1 1 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	2'2 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 4 4 4 4 4 5 5 5 4	Mid/Tweeter 20-ax Tri Range Tri Range Two Way Co-ax UD ax UD ax Subject State Values Sim 2 way Adjustable Mid/High Fwenter Pad	69 00 35 00 49 00 79 00 99 00 105 00 119 00 59 00 59 00 59 00 59 00 19 00 179 00 179 00 179 00 179 00 245 00	
	Roadstar (Roadstar CDA 395 Norman Ville St Pierre, PO H8R 1A3)	R\$2030U R\$2290U R\$290U R\$2907U R\$2901U R\$2901 R\$2200 R\$2200 R\$2200 R\$2200 R\$2505 R\$600 R\$60 R\$60 R\$501 R\$551 R\$551 R\$5691 R\$5691 R\$61 R\$61 R\$61 R\$61 R\$61 R\$61 R\$61 R\$6	Receiver – In-Dash N Amer Cars Din Size Receiver Pwr Amp Pwr Booster Underdash Cassette Player	* * * * * * * * * * * *	* * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * * *	****		****	45 50 45 50 50 45 50 50 50 50 50	60 12K 50 13K 30 14K 30 14K 30 14K 30 14K 30 14K 50 11K 30 14K		322222222222222222222222222222222222222	10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 10 15 60 60 60 60 10			Loc/cx Fader Graphic Eq Mono/St Sel 8 Sin Preset Line Output Auto Stop Auto Eject Auto Reverse Double Auto RCA Line In Sim Line Tone Controls 5 Band Graphic Eq Pwr Defeat Cobra Head Separate control unit Auto Stop High Power	189 00 259 00 379 00 325 00 359 00 359 00 359 00 310 00 695 00 149 00 695 00 115 00 215 00 389 00 1169 00 229 00 229 00 259 00	
	Sciand Barner Tenco Electronics 75 Denison St Markham Ont M4H 181 or P O Box 24804 Station C Vancouver B C V5T 4E9	F 15 F 11 Mirage F 18 F 10 F 104 F 104 V F-16 V F-16 V F-16 V F-17 Bravo 303 Commander II DC-10XE Galaxy DC 12 Bravo 202 Bravo 202 Bravo 202 Phantom III B 757 Phantom III B 757	Reciever Cassette Player EQ/AMP Power Amp Graphic Eq Powered Speaker Powered Speaker Powered Speaker Speaker	x x x x x x x	x x x x x x x	x x x x x x x x x		x x x x x x x x x x x		30.14K 50.12K 50.10K 50.10K 50.10K 50.10K 50.10K 50.10K 40.12K 40.12K 40.12K 25.40K 30.30K 20.30K 20.30K 80.15K 50.22K 80.22K 80.22K 80.22K	2 25 25 25 25 25 25 25 35 35	2 10 10 10 10 10 50 50 50 50 50 60 44 30 55 55 25 25 30	15	1 3 2 3	5 4 6x9 4	Double Auto 5 Band Graphic Eq Super Compact Clock.digital display Auto Reverse 5 Stn presets Digital display 5 Band graphic eq Compact 5 Band graphic eq 7 Band graphic eq 6 Bands Auto power switch 7 Bands slim profile compact Dual cone Enclosure Horn tweeter enclosure	359 00	
	Sound Barrier	Phantom HA 220 Concord 880 767 737R 717R Bonanza 25 Siera 25 DC 9R Star Fire 990 L 1011RA 767 747RE	Speaker Universal Spkr. Rear Mount Spkr							50-20K 100-18K 60-21K 80-20K 60-20K 30-20K 150-15K 130-15K 130-15K 130-15K 130-15K 130-15K 130-15K 130-15K 150-15K 150-20K 60-20K 80-20K		30 15 30 40 30 20 20 10 10 10 10 10 10 75 50 25	,	2 2 3 3 2 1 1	4 3 6 ^{1/2} 5 ^{1/4} 5 ^{1/4} 4 4×6 6 2 ^{1/2} 6×9 5 ^{1/4} 6×9	Surface mt soft dome tweeter High output twin drivers Soft dome Bridgeless Bi-amp Capability Universal mounting boards Water protection cover horn tweeter Cone tweeter Cone tweeter Convertible mount Dual cone Dual cone Dual cone Dash mount md- high unit 3/Way bridgeless bi amp capability convertible mount Horn tweeter		
78	Sound Barrier	Falcon 20 Bellanca-25 Bonanza-20 DC 87 DC 67 DC 67 DC 68 NK-1 AC-1	Door Mount Speaker Slim Line Noise Killer system		and the second s	100 M 100	1411 20 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0			0220X 80-17K 150-17K 80-15K 100-13K 100-10					51+ 4 5 5 5	Slim line Dual cone Slim line Dual cone Reduces static and FM multipath Connects amplified speaker to eq		



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280-C1C 2.5 MH; 7.09 2.5 MH; 21.91 280-C1C 4.0 MH; 9.95 280-S10/9 4.0 MH; 28.00 280-C1D 4.0 MH; 29.95 280-S10/9 4.0 MH; 28.00 280-C1D 4.0 MH; 29.95 280-C107 4.0 MH; 29.01 280-C1D 4.0 MH; 29.94 280-C107 4.0 MH; 19.31 MOS Static RAM's Part No C101-35 IK (256 ± 4) 350NS 22 PIN 5.14 202:25 IK (K ± 1) 250NS 16 PIN 1.42 201:1-35 IK (256 ± 4) 350NS 82 PIN 5.14 202:25 IK (K ± 1) 250NS 16 PIN 1.42 201:1-35 IK (256 ± 4) 350NS 18 PIN 3.87	8080A CPU 8.79 6808 CPU 18.79 8085 CPU 8.39 6809 CPU 25. 8155 S 9.04 6810 4. 8212 2.57 6820 3. 8214 4.49 6821 3. 8216 2.57 6845 38. 8226 2.57 6852 3. 8226 6.47 9822 3. 8221 6.44 6502 2. 8225 6.47 9. 9. 8251 6.44 6502 2.9 8251 6.44 6502 2.9	39 C2708 \$ 6.18 1 K x 8 450 ns \$ 9.07 75 C2716/TMS2516 (intel version) \$ 9.07 15 15K 450 Ns \$ 50 pby 15 TMS2522 T I P no Out) \$ 38.94 15 22K (4096 x 8) 450 ns \$ 24.38 32K (4096 x 8) 450 ns \$ 24.38 32K (4096 x 8) 450 ns \$ 24.38	7406N 47 74278N 3.09 74L578N 38 7407N 47 7429N 77 74L583N 90 7408N 31 74293N 127 74L583N 90 7408N 31 74293N 127 74L585N 109 7409N 31 74293N 94 74L586N 49 7410N 31 74298N 1.09 74L580N 51 7412N 49 74351N 2.66 74L591N 1.16 7413N 51 743665AN 75 74L592N 60 7414N 51 74366N 90 74L593N 51 7416N 47 74367AN 75 74L595N 62 7417N 46 743568AN 75 74L595N 62
P2112-35 IK (256 x 4) 350NS 18 PIN 3.45 2114L Low Power 4K (1024 x 4) 300NS 4.49 2147 4K (4K x 1) 55NS 12.94 2147 4K (4K x 1) 70NS 11.64 UART'S 11.64 40 Khz Single 5V Supply IK CMOS RAM 5101 1K (256 x 4) 450NS 22 PIN Low Power 4.49	8255 6.44 6505 CPU 92 8257 10.34 6520 7.4 8259 10.34 6522 10.3 8270 10.99 6532 14.1 8748 46.80 6551 14.2 8755 41.60 745288 3.25 256 bit 16 PIN 745288 3.25 256 bit 16 PIN 745188 3.25 256 bit 16 PIN	56 64K (8K x 8) 450 ns 14 14 1 16K STATIC RAM Special 529.84 TMM2016:3 16K (2K 8) 300NS 16K MOS DYNAMIC RAM'S (16 PIN) 4116:20 (200NS) 54.49	7420N 38 73390N 1.25 74LS107N 47 7422N 47 7339N 1.68 74LS109N 47 7423N 47 7380N 1.68 74LS112N 47 7425N 42 74SOQN 47 74LS12N 47 7425N 42 74SQQN 49 74LS12N 62 7426N 51 74SQN 49 74LS12SN 77 7427N 42 74SQAN 49 74LS12SN 77 7428N 55 74SQAN 73 47LS12SN 57 7430N 52 74SQAN 74LS12SN 57 74G3N 52 74LS12SN 57 7430N 51 74SQAN 62 74LS132N 52 74LS12SN 57 7432N 51 74SQAN 62 74LS132N 52 74LS132N 52 7433N 51 74SQAN 77 74LS136N 57 74LS136N 77
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ZENER DIODES IN4728A IN4752A (1 watt) 16 IN4753A IN4754A (11 watt) .33 IN746A IN759A (400 mW) 12 IN5236A IN5278A (5 watt) 62 SWITCHING DIODES 15 184 IN914B .05 15	TIC216B 1.29 Trac 6 amp 200V 10-22 TIC216D 1.29 Trac 6 amp 400V 10-22 TIC226D 1.42 Trac 8 amp 400V 10-22 TIC236D 1.81 Trac 12 amp 400V 10-22 TIC236D 1.81 Trac 12 amp 400V 10-22 TIC245D 2.93 Trac 5 amp 400V 10-22 ZNE595 1.16 SCR 1 amp 50V 10-52 ZNE401 2.03 SCR 16 amp 100V 10-22 METAL CAN TRANS	0 TL082CP 1.11 Dual J-Fei Input 0 TL082CP 1.11 Dual J-Fei Input 0 TL095CN 6.44 Switch Volt Reg 25mA 1L495CN 3.87 Switch Volt Reg 500mA 0 TL430CLP 9.0 Aq Shuni Volt Reg 0 TL431CLP 1.01 Aq, Pos. Volt Reg 0 SISTORS	74164N 83 74LS348N 345 74165N 83 74LS30N 22 74LS352N 1.76 74166N 88 74LS01N 22 74LS352N 1.76 74170N 2.57 74LS02N 29 74LS362N 1.29 74172N 6.44 74LS03N 29 74LS365N 1.68 74173N 1.03 74LS06N 29 74LS365N 68 74174N 75 74LS06N 29 74LS367N 68 74175N 75 74LS06N 29 74LS367N 68 74175N 75 74LS06N 21 74LS367N 68 74176N 29 74LS367N 68 74158N 1.63 74176N 1.42 74LS07N 1.63 1.63 1.42 74180N 1.42 74LS01N 31 74LS37AN 1.63 74180N 1.42 74LS01N 31 74LS37AN 1.63 74180N 1.42
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