

Ectronics

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Bumper Projects Issue!

easy-to-build projects



ELECTRONIC MEASUREMENTS

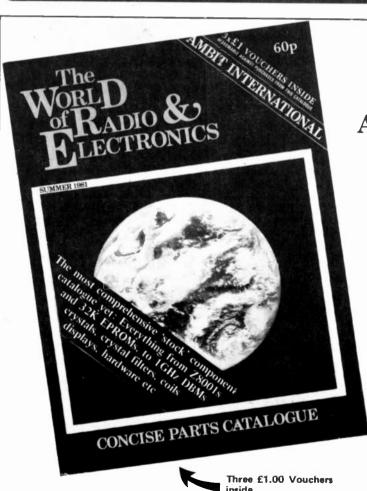
Electronic Metronome Simple Stylus Organ Scratch Filter
 Component Substitution Box Sound Level Meter Frequency Meter





Light Beam Telephone VHF Radio Fire Detector Ticking Egg Timer
 Flash Intensity Meter

TBA120S 1.00 SL1610P L200 1.95 SL1611P U237B 1.28 SL1611P U247B 1.28 SL1611P U257B 1.28 SL1612P U267B 1.28 SL1612P U267B 1.28 SL1623P U267B 1.28 SL1623P U267B 1.06 SL1623P LM301H 0.67 SL1623P LM324N 0.66 SL1623P LM324N 0.66 SL1623P LM324N 0.66 SL1623P LM324N 1.06 SL1623P LM339N 1.06 SL1623P LM339N 1.00 CA3089E LM380N 14 1.00 UM2283 LM380N 8 1.00 CA3089E LM381N 1.81 CA3089E LM381N 1.81 CA3089B LM381N 1.81 CA3088B LM381N 1.81 CA3089B LM381N 1.81 CA308B LM381N 1.8	1.60 HA11223 2.15 4000 series 4 1.66 HA11225 1.45 4001 0.13 4 1.125 1.46 4000 0.13 4 1.126 1.69 HA12017 0.80 4002 0.14 4 1.120 1.126	1060 0.95 1063 1.15 15466 1.59 1066 0.38 4588 2.18 1066 0.38 4589 2.18 1066 0.18 4592 0.89 1070 0.25 1086 0.18 4582 0.89 1070 0.25 1087 0.22 1087 0.23 1087 0.25 1087 0.25 1088	TABLE
TDA1028 2.11 KB4438 TDA1052 2.11 KB4437 TDA1054 1.45 KB4437 TDA1062 1.95 KB4441 TDA1062 1.95 KB4441 TDA1083 1.95 KB4446 TDA1080 3.05 NE5530 NHA1137 1.00 SL6370 TDA1220 1.40 SL6370 TDA1230 1.95 SL6640 MC1330 1.95 SL6640 MC1350 1.20 SL6690 HA1378 2.75 MSL9362 TDA1490 1.86 MSL9363 TDA1490 1.86 MSL9363 TDA1490 1.25 HA11221	1.35 100kHz 3.85 10.6985 2.25 10.6985 2.275 1.000MHz 2.95 10.7015 2.26 1.2768 2.76 1.200 2.275 1.200 2.201 11.20 2.201 11.20 2.201 11.20 2.201 11.20 2.201 11.20 2.201 11.20 2.201 11.20 2.201 11.20 2.201 12.20 2.201 12.20 2.201 12.20 2.201 12.20 2.201 12.20 2.201 12.20 2.201 12.20 2.201 2	RADIO CONTROL RC XTALS RC XTAL	ALL PRICES EXCLUDE VAT — CURRENTLY AT 15%. ALL PRICES EXCLUDE VAT — CURRENTLY AT 15%. POSTAGE 50p ORDERS UNDER £12 - FREE OVER £12. The lowest prices for prime, repeatable devices? We think so, and wait to hear to the contrary. Ambit's new bigger, cheaper and complete range of parts is covered in our new 12 page A4 format short-form and price list: available free with an SAE, and supplied with all orders. You can order by ACCESS/BARCLAYCARD, cheque, PO with order - or come into our refurbished retail shop and use 'real' money! Our 3 catalogues (£1,85 inc. or 75p ea incl cover the BIGGEST RANGE OF RF components in Europe as well as standard parts, so invest a set today. The saving you make on your first couple orders will soon repay th cost. DNE (STD 0277) 230909 TELEX 995194 AMBIT G POSTCODE CM14 4SG



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Prices appear on the page alongside the part numbers, and the catalogue is now updated quarterly - available either direct from here (60p all inc) or at most newsagents and bookstalls where you can find electronics publications. So as well as all the 'run-of-mill' items like resistors, capacitors, hardware, solder etc - you now have the first genuinely complete parts source for the radio, communication, electronics, computer user.

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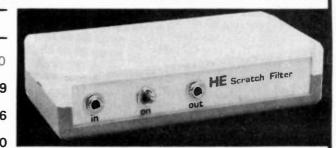
NOVEMBER 1981 Vol 3 No 13

Editor: Hugh Davies

Senior Art Editor: Andrew Sawyer

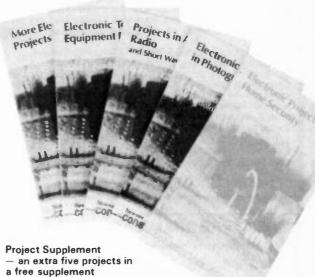
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Keep the beat - HE style, with our Metronome project

Assistant Editor: Keith Brindley Editorial Assistant: Judith Jacobs Drawing Office Manager: Paul Edwards Managing Editor: Ron Harris BSc Layout Artist: Enzo Grando Managing Director: T. J. Connell

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These chassis loudspeakers are of 8 ohms impedance by McKenzie, and are offered at £23 each, including postage within the UK

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MONITOR

Special Notice

THAT VERITABLE FOUNDATION stona of the electronics world, Modmags Ltd (ie, usl) — is Modmags Ltd no longer! As of this very instant we are . . . (wait for it)....

Argus Specialist Publications Ltd. Yes, we know it's a bit of a mouthful but please label any communication with our new name from now on. The company address remains as it was.

Two-way Wrist Radio By 2000

A TWO-WAY wrist radio will become a reality by the year 2000 as a result of communication satellite developments, according to the Lockheed Missile & Space Company.

Lockheed engineers are building a 180 ft mock-up of an antenna to be placed in orbit by the Space Shuttle and unfurled in space like an umbrella. It would be a very sensitive receiver of low power transmissions from earth which would be re-broadcast at high levels.

So, a low power two-way radio perhaps worn on the wrist and using a simple antenna, could transmit voices using the satellite as a signal booster.



THIS SET OF tools can come in handy if you build up circuit boards in the course of your hobby, for the set provides you with: a stainless steel brush for removing resin and oxidisation from boards; a fork for forming component leads and wire-wrapping; a knife for general cutting jobs; a hook for removing components

after desoldering; a reamer for emlarging small holes in a board; and a scraper for cleaning component leads.

Each of the three tools is double-ended and insulated, and measures 180 mm, weighing 10 gms. The set is supplied in a plastic waliet and costs £3.74 including VAT and p&p, from Teleproduction Tools Ltd, Stiron Hosse, Electric Avenue, Westcliff on Sea, Essex (tel 0702 352719).

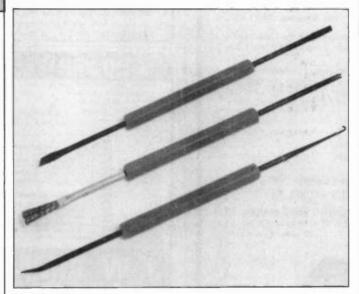


Semiconductor Data Book

A NEW EDITION (the 11th) of Semiconductor Data Book (formerly known as Radio Valve and Semiconductor Data) has been published by Newnes Technical Books.

Within the book's pages you can find detailed information on over 10 000 transistors, FETs, UJTs, diodes, etc, including device outlines and pinouts.

At £5.50, the book represents a worthwhile investment to the electronics enthusiast, whether amateur or professional. Newnes Technical Books, Borough Green, Sevenoaks, Kent (tel 0732 884567).



In Car Entertainment?

ONE OF THE fastest growing markets in electronics over the last couple of years has been that of in-car entertainment. Power boosters and graphic equalisers seem to become more powerful and more abundant daily, and they all seem to be of foreign origin.

Circolec has released more news of what the company claims is the first British designed and manufactured 100 watt power booster and 7-channel graphic equaliser for in car hi-fi use. If you remember we first reported on the future introduction of the device back in the August issue.

The Bell and Ansell Quadrapower 100 is a four channel power booster (25 W RMS per channel) with frequency

response of 35 Hz to 17 kHz. A bar graph LED display is provided on each channel and the graphic equaliser has seven frequency controls.

The booster/equaliser measures 166 mm by 54 mm by 148mm and will retail at £135.00. We hope to review a sample in a future supplement of Gadgets, Games & Kits. Circolec, 1 Franciscan Road, Tooting, London SW17 8EA (tel 01 767 1233).



Diana's Replacement Coil

CRESTWAY ELECTRONICS LTD contacted us recently to tell us about a ready-built coil head which the company produces and thinks may be of interest to builders of the HE 'Diana' Metal Detector. The coil head is of vacuum formed plastic and is foam-filled to produce a strong yet light body. It directly replaces the original home-made coil head, we are told.

Readers can obtain their coll head for £9.85. This price includes VAT and p&p. Crestway Electronics Ltd, Woodhill Lane, Shamley Green, Guildford, Surrey (tel 0483 893236.)



Electronics News



New Cat From BI-PAK

BI-PAK Semiconductors' new catalogue landed in our pigeonhole recently and a very impressive publication it appeared, too. It's full of semiconductors. hardware, cases, test gear, books, etc, all to do with elec-

You can obtain your own copy of the catalogue for £1.00 including 25p for p&p from BI-PAK Semiconductors, The Maltings, 63a High Street, Ware, Herts (tel 0920 3442).

Breadboard '81

BELIEVE IT OR not, we have received a press release from ourselves, Modmags SOFTY. delete that — Argus Specialist Publications Ltd, informing us when our company's electronics exhibition, Breadboard '81, is to be held. (The world, or rather Modmags — sorry, I'll probably get the sack for this — ASP Ltd. works in mysterious ways.)

Breadboard will be open for five days at the Royal Horticultural Society's New Hall, Greycoat Street, Westminster, London SW1:

Wednesday

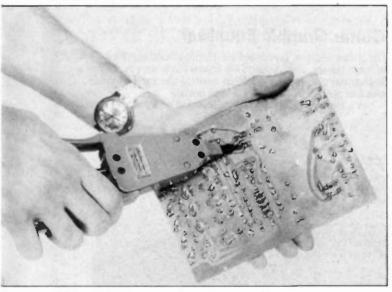
11th November, 10am-6pm Thursday

12th November, 10am-8pm Friday

13th November, 10am-6pm Saturday

14th November, 10am-6pm

15th November, 10am-4pm Cost of entry will be £2.00 for adults and £1.00 for children under 15 years of age and OAPs, although reduced rate advance tickets are also available - see page 45.



Wire Shaper/ **Cutting Tool**

IF YOU'VE EVER put together a fairly complex printed circuit board (PCB), you'll know how tedious a job fitting the components can be - pick up pliers, bend leads, put down pliers, pick up side cutters, cut leads.

Eraser International's Hand Component Lead Cutter Model TP-3 lets you bend and cut leads in a single action. Although it looks awkward and cumbersome, it in fact comes to hand easily and operation is simple insert the lead in the tool notch squeeze the handles together. The lead is bent and cut in one.

The stroke of the movable blade can be lengthened to increase its cutting and bending force. When the fixed and moving blades become worn, they can be

The Model TP-3 Hand Component Lead Cutter is available from Eraser International Ltd, Unit M. Portway Industrial Estate, Andover, Hants SP10 3LU (tel 0264 513547/8).



ZX Printer

SINCLAIR RESEARCH HAS introduced a printer designed to complement the existing range of ZX personal computers. Owners of the company's ZX81 and the ZX80 (with replacement 8K ROM) will now be able to obtain permanent copies of listings and computations.

inch, and printing speed is 50 characters per second. A 65 foot roll of aluminised paper (enough to print over 250 full screens of text) is supplied with the printer and additional rolls cost £11.95 per pack of 5.

The ZX Printer is available for £49.95 including VAT from: Sinclair Research Ltd, 6 King's Parade, Cambridge (tel 0223 312919).

Errata

WE HEARD FROM a reliable source that a few gremlins got into the HE Ultrasound Alarm of the July '81 issue.

Firstly, with the component values shown, the transmitting oscillator runs at 400 kHz - not as specified (ie, 40 kHz). Increasing the value of C8 tenfold decreases the frequency by the same amount, thus C8 should be 10n. It was (naturally) a typing er-

The second problem is a bit more serious — it appears that some 4093 gates don't trigger in the IC3c position. If your project

suffers because of this you can counteract it by: connecting a potential divider of two resistors from +9 V to 0 V (with a 4k7 resistor in the upper arm and a 22k in the lower arm); next disconnect the cathode of D3 (the side which originally connects to +9 V) and fasten it to the centre point of the above potential divider.

Lastly, R17 should be reduced in value to 22k to give a bit more drive to the output transistors.

In the HE 'Diana' Metal Detector of the September '81 issue. R11 was specified as 2M2; it should be 2k2 (that darned tvpist/).

Panasonic Speaks for Itself

PANASONIC BUSINESS SYSTEMS has introduced a talking calculator capable of storing and reviewing entries totalling up to 255 steps

10-digit calculator with the advantage of audible confirmation of each number, function and result as it appears on the display.

With mains adaptor, it should appear in your high street for around £85 plus VAT.



NEXT MONTH IN HE — NEXT MONTH IN HE — NEXT MONTH IN HE

Hobby Eeffonies

Don't miss the December issue — out November 13th

We've got lots of projects to interest musicians next month:

Drum Synthesiser

Yes, you know the noise — a sort of cross between a bomb hurtling down, and a seagull. Well, this machine can make these and many more sounds to help you keep your rhythm. This one's a super project; easy-to-build, easier to use and what's more, we reckon it won't cost you any more than about £30 - that's about a fifth the price of commercial counterparts.

Organ Pedalboard

This project was designed to match the HE Electronic Organ (see HE May to August 1981). It's a 13-note, free-standing, foot-operated pedalboard (phew — what a mouthful), which can be plugged into the same amplifier as your organ, or it can be used with its own internal amplifier.

Now, although it's primarily intended to complement our organ, you can, of course, use it to accompany yourself while you play any other instrument. Thus you can have bass accompaniment to say, a guitar, flute, piano, or even the HE Drum Synthesiser.

Car Electronics

There's no doubt that, although car manufacturers, overall, tend to be slow to change their ideas about the equipment that goes into their cars, they are at last waking up to the fact that electronics has a large part to play.

Guest writer Bill Mitchell tells you about the possibilities and probabilities of in-car electronics.



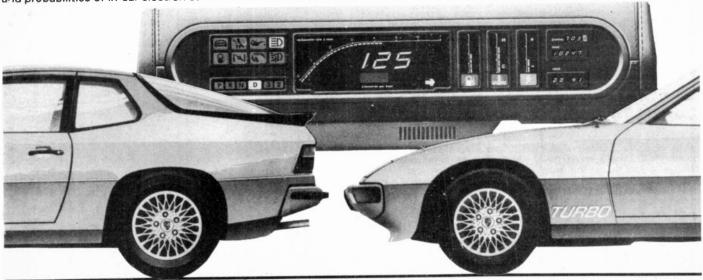
Guitar Graphic Equaliser

For those electric guitarists who enjoy building their own effects boxes, this project's a must! How do you fancy a 6-channel graphic equaliser to control the tone of your electric guitar? All in a small foot pedal!

It's battery operated, easy-to-build and sounds great.

Plus

News and information, circuits, regular features, your own views — all about the electronics world.



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ELECTROLYTIC CAPACITORS: (Values are in µF) 500V: 10 52p; 47 78p; 250V: 100 65p; 63V: 0.47, 10, 15.22, 2.5, 3.3 8p; 47 9p; 6.8, 10 10p; 15, 22, 12p; 33 15p; 47 12p; 100, 19p; 1000 70p; 50V: 47 12p; 68 20p; 220 24p; 470 32p; 2200 90p; 40V: 47, 15, 22 pp; 3300, 90p; 4700, 120p; 25V: 1.5, 6.8, 10, 22 8p; 33 9p; 47 8p; 100 11p; 150 12p; 220, 15p; 330 22p; 470 25p; 680, 1000, 34p; 2200, 50p; 3300, 76p; 4700 92p; 16V: 40, 47, 100 9p; 125, 12p; 220 13p; 470, 20p; 680 34p; 1000 27p; 1500, 31p; 2200 36p; 3300 7441 7442 7443 7444 7445 7446 7447 7448 7450 7451 7453 7454 74181 74182 74184 74185 74188 74190 74191 74192 74193 74194 74195 74196 74197 74198 74281 74281 74246 747C 748C 753 810 81LS95 81LS96 81LS97 9400CJ AY-1-0212 AY-1-1313A 74p, 4700 79p, 700, 4700, 245p, 64V: 3300 198p; 2200 139p; 50V: 3300 154p; 2200 110p; 40V: 4700 160p; 25V: 10,000 320p; 15,000 345p. TANIALUM BEAD CAPACITORS POTENTIOMETERS: Rotary, Carbon, OPTO POTENTIOMETERS: Rotary, Carbon. 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Til212 Yel. 7460 7470 7472 7473 7474 7475 7476 7480 7481 7485 7486 7489 7490 7491 7492 7493 7494 7496 7497 660 225 99 160 390 720 AY-1-1320 AY-1-5050 AY-1-5051 AY-3-8500 AY-3-8910 AY-5-1224A 71L212 Yel. ,2" Red ,2" Yllw, Grn Square LEDs ORP12 2N5777 LD271 SLIDER POTENTIOMETERS 0-25W log and linear values 60mm 5KM-500K11 single gang 10KM-500KM dual gang 1 Self Stick Graduated Bezel 74248 AT-5-122-0 450 AY-5-1230 450 CA3018 68 CA3020 186 CA3020 186 CA3023 191 CA3028A 80 CA3025 235 CA3045 365 CA3046 214 CA3059 195 CA3080E 65 CA3080E 70 CA3085 95 CA3080E 70 CA3081 190 CA3085 95 CA3080 96 CA3081 190 CA3085 95 CA3080 195 CA3080 96 CA3081 190 CA3085 95 CA3080 215 CA30300 90 CA3085 215 CA30300 190 CA3085 215 CA30300 215 CA3030 215 74LS FH205 TIL32 TIL78 PRESET POTENTIOMETERS Vertical & Horizontal 0.1W 50Ω—5MΩ Miniature 0-25W 100Ω—3.3MΩ horiz 0-25W 200Ω—4.7MΩ vert. 7 Segment Dis 8 7p 10p 10p 115 115 115 99 120 180 120 175 10pF to 1nF 8p; 1 5nF to 10nF 10p SILVER MICA (Velues in pFi 2, 33, 47 6 8 8 2, 10, 15, 18, 22, 27, 33, 39, 47 50, 56, 68, 75, 82, 85, 100, 120, 150, 180pf 15p each; 200, 200, 250, 270, 300, 330, 360, 390, 470, 500, 800, 820, 21p each 1000, 1200, 1800, 2200 30p each 3300, 4700pf 60p each Stability Low Noise. 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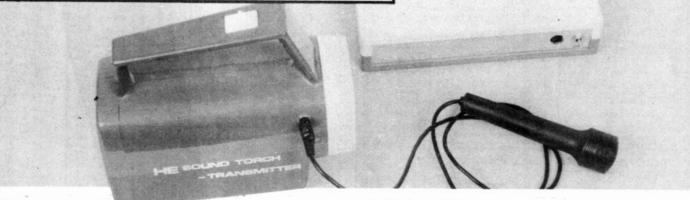
Trade Mark Acknowledgement October Project: ENTRYPHONE

'ENTRYPHONE' is a registered trade mark in the United Kingdom of the Entryphone Company Limited. In the October issue of this magazine, we featured prominently a project for the assembly of a telephone door security device. This project and the design had no connection with and was not authorised by the Entryphone Company Limited.

We are now aware and accept that the use by the magazine in this project of the word 'ENTRYPHONE' was an infringement of the registered trade mark 'ENTRYPHONE' and we apologise unreservedly for this innocent oversight. We also accept unreservedly that the word 'ENTRYPHONE' should only be used for telephone door security systems originating from the Entryphone Company Limited.

Project





Communicate at the speed of light with our light beam telephone project

WITH THIS PROJECT you can talk at the speed of light indoors or out, night or day. You can even use a mirror and talk round corners. The transmitter consists of an Ever Ready torch modified to produce pulse width amplitude modulated signals. The use of pulse width modulation means savings in battery power and a high efficiency cool-running output stage. If the technical details don't interest you just put the circuits together and talk. There are no adjustments to make in use and the units need no setting up provided you can point straight, that is!

The receiver uses an active load for the input phototransistor to compensate for a wide range of ambient light levels, and the filters remove high frequency hiss and cut down the interference from mains lighting.

Construction

Start construction with the receiver board first. Figure 1 shows the circuit diagram of the receiver; its overlay is shown in Fig. 2. Insert the wire links, followed by all the resistors, IC sockets and finally the taller components like capacitors, etc.

Insert the semiconductors into the printed circuit board (PCB) last of all, making sure you have them the right way round. When in doubt, check the pin-out against our drawings or manufacturer's data and cross-check

with the circuit diagram. (Does the emitter really go there? etc).

Connections to the receiver board are straightforward; power supply, loudspeaker and phototransistor. If all is well you should hear a hiss as you apply power. Rotate the volume control - okay? Now point the phototransistor at a mains powered light; you should hear a hum which becomes a raucous squawk as you approach the light. If it all works, switch off and grin.

Mark and drill the case for the receiver to fit the on/off switch and the hole, to allow light through for the phototransistor. Now fit all parts inside the case.

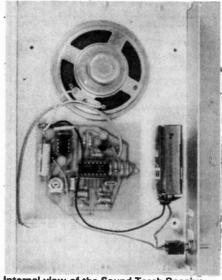
The transmitter board is equally simple to assemble and the overlay is shown in Fig.4 along with connection details. However, if you plan to use the same torch model that we did then solder IC3 directly to the PCB. Use of a socket in this position makes it impossible to fit the board into the case.

Use shielded cable for the microphone lead. We used a jack socket on the torch case and capacitor C4 must be soldered into place where the microphone lead connects so that one end of C4 goes to the jack socket top connection and the other end goes to the inner conductor of the shielded cable.

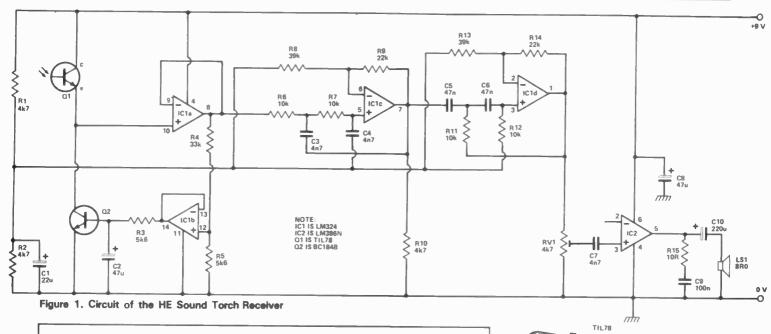
Similarly, mount C1 off the board with its negative lead connected with the wire from the PCB to the wire from

the torch switch (O V) and its positive end connected to the positive conductor track on the PCB. The easiest way to do this is to solder it to the top end of R1. It may sound a little complicated but it's really quite easy, just follow Fig.4.

We used the microphone from an old cassette recorder. The earpiece insert from a 'surplus' telephone also works: you can even try using a loudspeaker. The gain of the audio amplifier is fixed at about 450 by the ratio of resistors



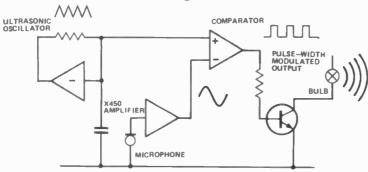
Internal view of the Sound Torch Receiver



How It Works

Sound Torch — Transmitter

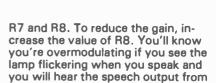
The triangle wave output from the electronic oscillator is squared up by the comparator to drive the bulb at half-brightness. Amplified signals from the microphone cause the width of the comparator output pulses to expand and contract in sympathy with the voice signal and this controls the power to the lamp and its brightness.



Integrated ciruit IC1 and its associated components (resistors R1,2,3,4, and capacitor C3) form a 40 kHz oscillator. The triangle waveform from R3, C3 is fed to the input of comparator IC3. As the other input to the comparator from audio amp IC2 is at about 3 V, the comparator outputs a stream of square waves as the triangle wave input crosses this level. Signals from the microphone are amplified by integrated circuit IC2, which has a gain of about 450, and the resulting swing in output voltage causes corresponding changes in the width of the comparator output pulses.

Lamp driver transistor Q1 turns on when the comparator output is high ie, most positive.

As the low level output of the comparator IC3 falls below 0.6 V the transistor turns off. This process happens so quickly that the bulb filament can hardly respond and we get the audio frequency modulation required while most of the 40 kHz chopping frequency is suppressed. The advantage of this system over a simple linear power amplifier is that very little power is lost in the switching transistor as it is only ever switched fully on or fully off. Low power dissipation means the transistor runs cool and no heatsink is required. The transistor chosen, ZTX650 has a high gain at quite high currents and is much more suitable than other power transistors like the BFY51, 2N3053 etc.



SHORT LEAD NEAREST FLAT IS COLLECTOR

the receiver breaking up.

Don't expect hi-fi quality from the project — you won't get it, and alignment becomes critical as the distance is increased. Nevertheless you can have a lot of fun — just switch on and talk. By the way, a useful trick to get increased range is to use a lower voltage torch bulb. Because the average power input is reduced they don't burn out — we used a 3.6 V bulb without mishap.

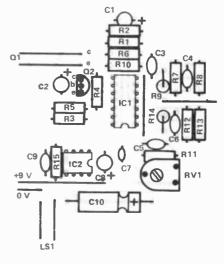
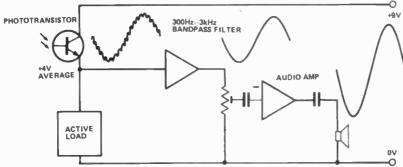


Figure 2. Overlay of the receiver PCB

How It Works

Sound Torch — Receiver

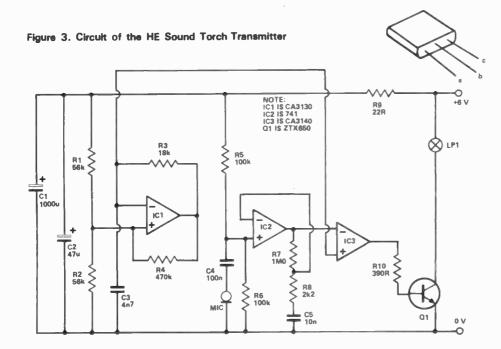
Changes in the light falling on the phototransistor result in corresponding changes in voltage. These are fed to a filter which removes high frequency hiss; the remnants of the ultrasonic oscillator signal; cuts down 100 Hz hum from mains powered lighting. The resultant audio signal is amplified and used to drive a loudspeaker or headphones.



An active load based on IC1a,b and Q2 is used to compensate for the wide range of standing currents caused by changes in the ambient light level. This system will control the bias of Q2 in such a way as to try to keep its collector potential at 4 V with reference to ground. Capacitor C2 reduces the response of the circuit so that audio frequency signals are not suppressed. The audio frequency components are amplified and filtered to remove noise and hum by filters built around IC1c and d. Cut-off frequencies of about 300 Hz and 3 kHz were chosen which

gives good results for speech. To increase the passband to 6 kHz just halve the value of C3, C4 to the nearest preferred value, 2n2, and keep all the remaining components unchanged. Audio signals may be taken directly from the output of IC1a. Resistors R10 and RV1 provide bias current for the amplifier outputs. Without them crossover distortion would occur causing very bad results.

The audio signals from IC1d are amplified by IC2 which drives a loudspeaker. Much of the circuitry needs a mid-rail bias and this is provided by R1, R2, C1.



Parts List

Sound Torch - Transmitter

RESISTORS (ALL %W, 5%) 56k R1,2 R3 18k **R4** 470k R5.6 100k **1MO** R7 2k2 RR 22R R9 R10 390R

SEMICONDUCTORS

3130 operational amplifier IC2 741 operational amplifier IC3 3140 operational amplifie ZTX650 NPN tran-01 sistor

CAPACITORS

1000u, 16 V electrolytic 47u, 16 V tantalum 4n7 ceramic C4 100n ceramic C5 10n ceramic

MISCELLANEOUS Microphone Jack plug and socket

Parts List

Sound Torch - Receiver

RESISTORS (All %W, 5%) R1,2,10 4k7 R3.5 5k6 33k R4 R6,7,11,12 10k 39k R8,13 R9,14 22k R15 10R

POTENTIOMETER

4k7 miniature horizon-RV₁ tal preset

CAPACITORS

22u,16 V tantalum 47u,16 V tantalum C2,8 C3,4 4n7 polyester C5,6 C7 47n polyester 4n7 ceramic C9 100n ceramic 220u, 16 V elec-C10

trolytic

SEMICONDUCTORS

LM324 guad operational amplifier

LM386N power IC2 amplifier

TIL78 phototransistor 01

02 BC1848 NPN transistor

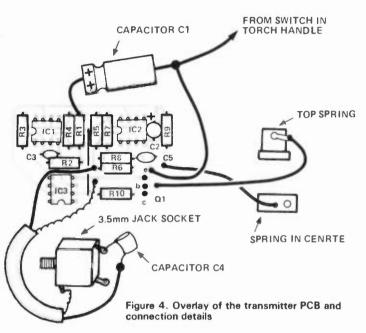
MISCELLANEOUS

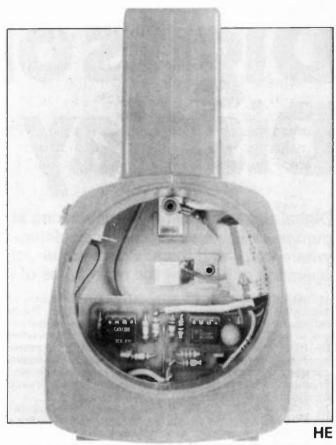
BRO miniature LS₁ loudspeaker

Buylines

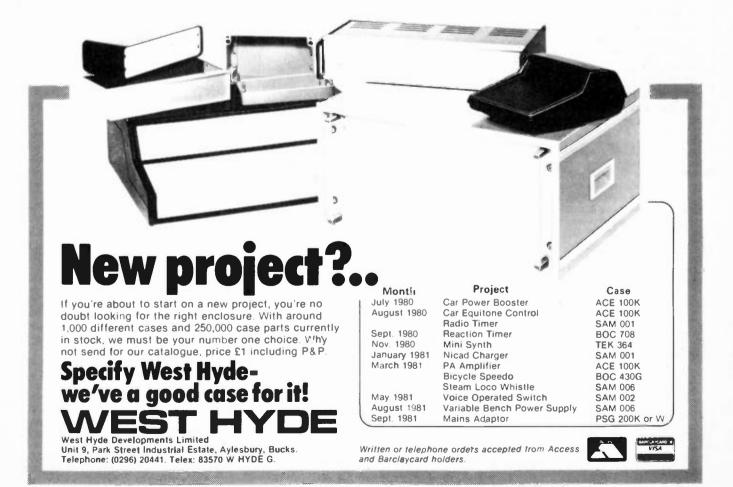
All parts for this project should be readily obtainable from any of the mail order companies who advertise in HE.

Approximate price of components will be £12 (excluding PCBs, case and torch).





No, it's not Jaws - just the HE Sound Torch Transmitter



Display Display

Digital electronic displays are winking at you wherever you go these days — petrol pumps, weighing machines, calculators and watches are just a few examples of where you'll find them. Guest writer John Gilliam describes the construction and operation of some of the main types of digital displays in use today

SLOWLY AT FIRST, then in leaps and bounds in recent years, electronics has become a readily accepted part of our lives. The main contributor to the recent acceleration has been the integrated circuit — the IC. Through its increasing complexity and miniaturisation it has enabled electronic equipment to become progressively more complex yet at the same time widely available. The electronic calculator and digital watch, despite being outstanding examples of advances in electronic microtechnology, are to many of us commonplace items.

A vital part of the process of our acceptance of electronics has been the way electronic circuits communicate with us. In this article we will look at some of the electronic devices that provide visual communication. Generically these devices are known as electronic numeric displays, and they can be divided into five main groups:

- light emitting diodes (LEDs)
- liquid crystal displays (LCDs)
- gas discharge displays (GDDs)
- vacuum fluorescent displays
- filamentary displays

Before dealing with each type we should first become acquainted with three terms used frequently when talking about electronic displays, namely:

- optical
- interface
- multiplexing.

Optical

From an optical point of view displays may first be divided into two types: active and passive. Most displays are of the active type which generate light, like the light emitting diode (LED). The passive types on the other hand only change the reflected light in the same way as print does when layed down on paper. An example of the passive type is the liquid crystal display (LCD).

The light generating types can be easily seen if the ambient (surrounding) lighting level is not too high and at night time they appear very bright. But as the sunlight becomes strong they suffer from 'washout' which can only be overcome by putting more power into the devices to make them brighter.

Passive types of display behave in the opposite way. They cannot be seen without a certain amount of ambient lighting and are most easily seen in bright sunlight.

Other optical characteristics that should be considered before choosing a display for a specific application are size, colour and format.

The size of the numeric displays discussed here ranges from character lights of 2 - 3 mm up to 9.5 mm. The smaller sizes are suitable for reading as far away as you would comfortably hold a book and are those used in watches and personal calculators. Most scientific instruments for use in a laboratory use displays with characters around 15 mm high. Applications for the larger types (say, 25 mm in height) are in such things as petrol pumps and weighing machines in shops.

As far as colour is concerned, displays with colours near the middle of the response of the eye are the best choice. Green and yellow displays are accepted as being 'easy on the eye' and therefore are most suited for sustained viewing in comfort. Any

display which is not monochromatic (having more than one colour) — notably neon gas discharge displays — may be used with a coloured filter in front so that only that colour can be seen.

Three different types of format: formed character; 7-segment; and dot matrix, are shown in Fig. 1. By far the most commonly used today is the 7-segment type because of its ease of construction.

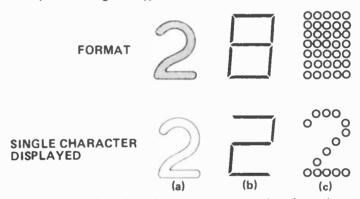


Figure 1. Examples of how characters are presented on electronic digital displays: (a) formed, (b) segmented, and (c) dot matrix

Interface

With regard to active and passive types of display it is not surprising to learn that passive displays require very little electrical power to drive them, which makes them suitable for portable equipment. Active displays require relatively high power — especially if they are to be seen in conditions of high ambient light.

In addition to the amount of power required when selecting a particular type of display you must be conscious of what a device requires in terms of voltage and current. Almost invariably the signal which turns the display on and off originates from an integrated circuit (IC) using TTL (transistor transistor logic) or MOS (metal oxide semiconductor) technology. The 'driving' capability of TTL is nominally 5 V and a few tens of milliamps. With MOS technology, this capability is 5-15 V and only microamps of current. Often an IC is found to be incompatible in voltage or current (or both) to drive a display directly, and for this reason special interface drive stages are used to link the display to the IC (see Fig.2). The interface takes the form of a special IC or a discrete transistor circuit.

The driver stage itself performs a useful 'logical' interface. Display circuits usually work in pure binary or binary coded decimal. In simple terms, the code (known in digital language as the 'word') associated with each digit of the display comprises four parts or 'bits'. Its proper title is a four-bit word. The display, on the other hand, will require some combination of a seven-bit word. This logical transformation is performed by a driver called a decoder. Figure 2 shows a schematic of this circuit — which interfaces both electrical and logical incompatibilities between the drive circuit and the display. Not surprisingly it is called a driver/decoder stage.

Multiplexing

Usually numeric displays are used in rows or registers of up to 10 digits, 4 and 8 being the most popular lengths. Indeed, many types of display are made with the required number of digits in a single envelope as well as individual digit versions.

In a register of more than two or three digits it is not economic to provide each segment of each digit with a separate correction and its own driver stage. By using a multiplexing technique fewer connections and fewer drivers are used as would otherwise be necessary. The multiplexing system shown in Fig. 3 makes a common connection between all of the same segments in the register. Each digit connection is still brought out individually. The number of drivers and connections to an 8-digit register is now only 15 instead of 64. The penalty for this saving in hardware is a complication in timing and drive power. Each digit has to be addressed (supplied power for a brief period) in turn and can only be addressed for an eighth of the time it takes to address the whole register. Thus each segment has its address period or time slot. During each time slot the particular pattern of segments to display the required digit is situated in the decoder. Since only one digit is turned on at any one interval how is it that the whole of the register appears to be activated at the same time? It is because the total time taken to address all of the digits in the register, called the field time or refresh time, has to be shorter than the persistence of vision on the retina of the eye if a flicker-free image is to be seen.

Finally if the image is to appear as bright as a statically addressed register then each digit must be made to pass eight times as much current (brightness is directly proportional to current) during its time slot. This requirement necessitates higher current ratings from the selection switches than if multiplexing were not

By now, you must be baffled by the technicalities of optical, interface and multiplexing! Things should become a little clearer as we look at the individual types of display, at their construction, materials used and their electrical requirements.

Light Emitting Diodes

The light emitting diode (LED) is a semiconductor junction diode

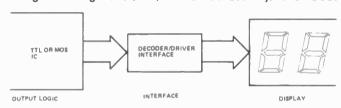


Figure 2. Position of decoder/driver interface stage between TTL or MOS logic and digital display

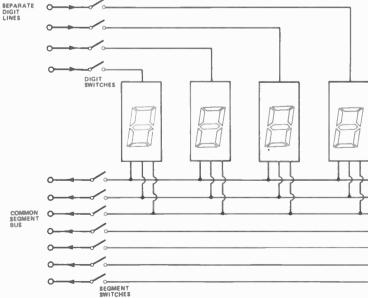


Figure 3. How the segments of a four-digit display are multiplexed. In practice all the switches are electronic end are contained within a single integrated circuit (multiplexing IC)

similar in many ways to the germanium and silicon diodes now commonplace in solid-state electronic circuits. LEDs were originally made in one of two ways. The first was by forming a PN junction from gallium phosphide (GaP). The disadvantage of this method was that it readily saturated and was not very suited to multiplexed operations in which high currents were required. On the other hand, it was a low resistance material. The second was by forming the junction from gallium arsenide phosphide (GaAsP). This has a super-linear characteristic of light output against current but also has a high resistance. An improved LED was made by forming a PN iunction in an epitaxial layer of GaAsP on a GaA (gallium arsenide) substrate. The disadvantage of this type of LED structure. however, was that the GaA substrate was opaque to the light generated at the PN junction. Therefore only light emitted in a forward direction was useful. Nowadays the super red lamp (Fig.4) uses GaP for its substrate which is translucent to the emission from the epitaxial layer above.

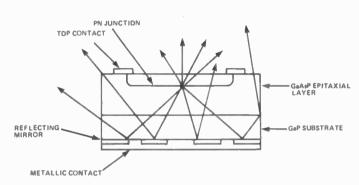


Figure 4. Section through high efficiency gallium arsenide phosphide (GaAsP) or gellium phosphide (GaP) LED

The high light output provided by this structure is optimised first by its mounting technique. The contact onto which the crystal is mounted is mirror polished, thus returning most of the incident light. Second, the display is made by using small dies (individual semiconductor chips) for each of the segments as opposed to the earlier monolithic (all-in-one) structure. This is not only an economical use of expensive material but allows light to emerge from the sides which in turn can be collected by a shaped light pipe and turned into useful emission (see Fig.5). Such a structure results in a LED which is a great improvement on its predecessors. Orange, yellow and green LEDs are made employing similar techniques.

LEDs have typical semiconductor diode characteristics with a knee voltage of about 1.5 V and an average current of about 20 mA/segment for a digit 20 mm high.

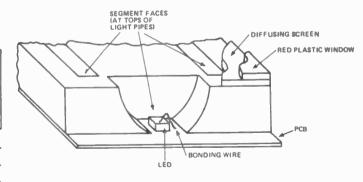


Figure 5. Section through a 7-segment LED display where light is transmitted to the segment feces by means of 'light pipes'

Liquid Crystal Displays

Liquid crystal displays (LCDs) are the most recent display technology to become established in high volume production. They are the only type of display to be discussed here which fall in-



to the passive or non-light-generating type. They therefore have limited application to multiplexing although it should be said that the latest LCD materials give good results when multiplexed in

short register lengths.

A simple cell showing the principle of the LCD is shown in Fig. 6. The liquid, in a completely relaxed state, takes up an orderly organisation in which the molecules, which may be regarded as rod-shaped, all point in the same direction. If now a thin layer (say, 10 um thick) is trapped between glass plates, the inside surfaces of which have been specially treated, then the layers naturally take up the twist shown in Fig. 6. The 'treatment' accomplishes two jobs. First, tin or indium is evaporated onto the glass to give the shape of the electrode structure required, typically a 7-segment display. Second, by a technique of rubbing or evaporating at a low angle, the surfaces of these electrodes exhibit a property by which the liquid crystal in immediate contact with the surface takes up the alignment laid down in the surface. Because the surface alignment of the top and bottom plate takes place at right angles, the molecules of the liquid take up the twist shown.

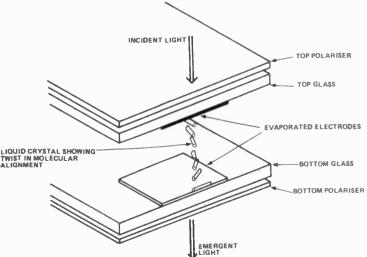


Figure 6. Operation of liquid crystal cell. Molecules of the liquid twist as shown when an electric field is set up across the cell. Under these conditions the passage of incident light becomes blocked

Now if light entering the cell is first passed through a plane polariser, then the plane of polarisation is twisted by 90° while passing through the liquid. If, as the light leaves the cell, it is passed through a second polariser placed at 90° to the first, then the cell will appear transparent. If now an electric field is set up across the cell, the molecule arrangement of the liquid is destroyed and light is blocked, giving an opaque deep blue or black colour.

The electrical characteristics of LCDs are ideal for interfacing to MOS integrated circuits; ie, they have negligible power consumption and require driver voltages anywhere between 2 and 20 V. These features make this technology well suited to battery-operated applications (ie, watches, calculators and portable instruments).

Gas Discharge Displays

A gas discharge display (GDD) generates light from the invisible plasma formed around a cathode electrode. The plasma is produced when a discharge path is established between the cathode and an anode, with both electrodes mounted in an atmosphere consisting mainly of neon at low pressure. The plasma is seen as a bright orange-coloured glow which entirely encloses the surfaces of the cathode electrode.

A typical GDD display is shown in Fig. 7. Each digit consists of an anode electrode and seven cathode electrodes in the shape of seven segments. This structure is enclosed in a low-pressure neon atmosphere. A plasma discharge is set up between the anode and the selected cathode segments. The glow has a broad spectrum and several colours can be produced by filtering.

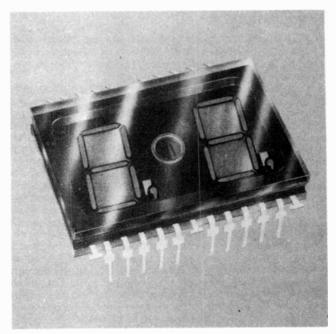


Figure 7. Example of typical gas discharge display (Mullard ZM1550) $\,$

Typically about 170 V is required to ignite the display (see Fig.8), and once ignited it requires a maintaining voltage of 130 to 150 V depending on the current. Below about 125 V the plasma is extinguished.

The device is not self-limiting in the amount of current it draws and therefore the drive circuit must have a defined current.

The presence of some argon in the neon helps to reduce the striking voltage, and the inclusion of a small amount of mercury vapour prevents sputtered material from fogging the viewing window or contaminating unselected cathode electrodes.

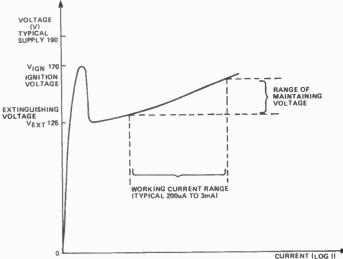


Figure 8. Typical electrical characteristic of a gas discharge display

Although GDDs require a high-voltage supply to strike them, the voltage required to select or extinguish individual segments is, for the device shown in Fig. 7, only 30 V. Because the current consumption of each segment is only about 200 uA for a character 15 mm high, GDDs can be driven by MOS decoder circuits.

Vacuum Fluorescent Displays

The principle of operation of the vacuum fluorescent display is the same as the magic-eye indicator used in domestic radio receivers and tape recorders using thermionic valves (remember valves?). It incorporates many of the techniques used in the thermionic triode valve.

In its modern form of construction the vacuum fluorescent display is housed in a flat pack glass envelope, a section of which is

Digits On Display

shown in Fig.9. An electron stream is given off from a very fine oxide-coated filament placed just under the viewing window. The heater would not be noticed by the observer because of its fine construction and because it is only heated to a dull red.

A fine grid in front of each 7-segment array of anode elements controls the electron flow to the anode. The arrays of anode elements are coated with a special low-energy phosphor which glows with a pleasing blue/green light when it is bombarded with the electron stream. The stream itself is collected by the metal anode elements underneath. An individual character is lit by applying about 30 V to the required configuration of anode electrodes.

Throughout the register within the envelope all similar anode segments are connected to a common bus. At any time only one grid electrode is made positive, and this facilitates multiplexed operation of the device.

In addition to the flat pack construction, recent developments have been the introduction of multi-coloured displays by filtering from the relatively broad spectrum blue/green phosphor. Also,

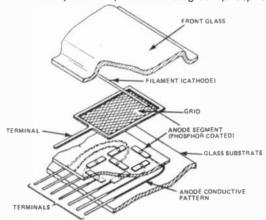
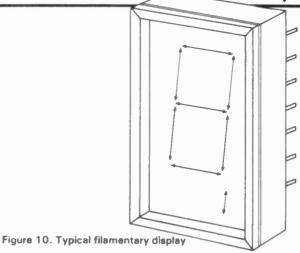


Figure 9. Typical construction of a vacuum fluorescent display (Futuba FDP)



screen printing techniques now used have helped to keep this type of device economical and more able to easily facilitate customised formats

Filamentary Displays

Filamentary (incandecent) displays, perhaps the first 7-segment display technology, still account for a sizeable share of the market. The staying power of these displays comes from their unrivalled brightness (up to 10,000 lux) which allows them to be seen in the brightest ambients. Hence their durability in aero and marine applications, and also in petrol pumps.

In spite of their spindly appearance (see Fig. 10), the filaments are made from a coiled length of tungsten wire. Unlike the domestic lamp the filament is run at a low temperature (typically 1500°C), and this gives it its long life — up to 100,000 hours. When filamentary displays are designed to emit white light, filters can be used to produce any colour. Each segment requires typically 15 mA at 5 V for a character height of 11 mm.

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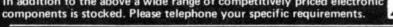


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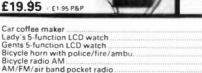
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IF YOU HAVE a record collection, then you almost certainly have at least a few records that would benefit from the use of our scratch filter. The problem with disc recordings is that even if they are well cared for they inevitably show signs of wear in the quality of reproduction obtained. This loss of quality appears as a loss of treble response and a background of almost constant clicking and popping sounds. As these sounds consist largely of high frequency components it is possible to reduce them substantially using a filter having a response that attenuates high frequencies, but does not significantly affect lower frequencies. The price that has to be payed for the reduced noise is the slight loss of wanted treble signals as well. However, it is probably true to say that most people prefer noise-free reproduction even if there is a loss of treble output.

Construction

Following Fig.2, make up the Veroboard. Start by breaking the tracks of the board at the shown positions. You can do this with a Veroboard cutting tool, alternatively a 1/2 " hand-held drill bit can be used for the job.

Next insert and solder the components one at a time, starting with resistors followed by capacitors and then semiconductors.

Mark and drill your chosen case, to fit the input and output sockets and the on/off switch. Two boards and two sets of input and output sockets are required for a stereo scratch filter, but the battery



and on/off switches are common to both channels in this event.

Finally, wire up your project as shown in Fig.2.

Using The Filter

Ideally the scratch filter should be connected between the preamplifier and power amplifier stages of the hi-fi amplifier or receiver, and in many cases this will be possible using the 'tape monitor' facility. However, as the circuit has a high input impedance it is possible to connect it between a crystal or ceramic pick-up and the input of the amplifier, and this method should also give good results.

It is also possible to use the filter between a magnetic cartridge and the input of the amplifier, if you put a 100k resistor across the input of the filter, to give a suitable input impedance to match the cartridge. However, this method is not recommended since it will give a significant reduction in the signal to noise ratio of the system, and it is quite likely that stray pick-up of mains hum and other interference will be a problem.

Parts List

RESISTORS (All 1/4 W, 5%)

R1 1M0 R2 2M2 R3,4,5 4k7

CAPACITORS

C1 100n polyester
C2 1u, 25 V electrolytic
C3 22n polyester
C4 3n3 polyetyrene
C5 10u, 25 V electrolytic

.00, 20 1 0.0

SEMICONDUCTORS
IC1 TL071CP low noise
operational amplifier
Q1 BC109C NPN transistor

MISCELLANEOUS

SW1 single-pole, single-throw toggle switch

Case to suit

Veroboard, 24 hole x 10 strip
Input and output sockets (SK1 and SK2)
PP3-size battery + connector

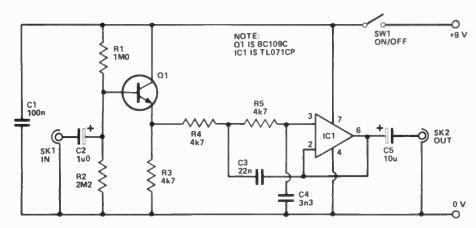


Figure 1. Circuit of HE Scratch Filter

Scratch Filter

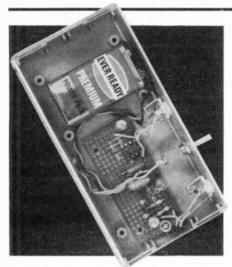
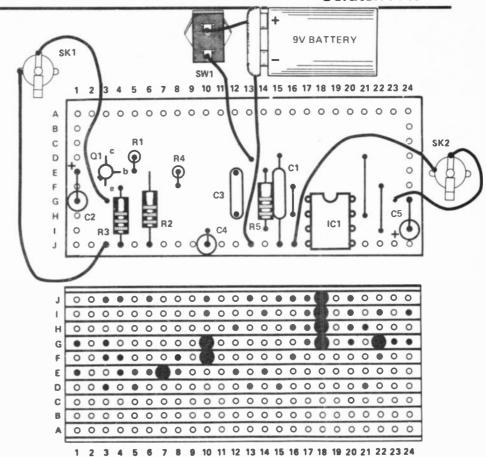


Figure 2. Veroboard layout, and underside view showing component locations and track breaks

Buylines

The TL071CP can be obtained from most of the mail-order companies which edvertise in HE. All other parts are easily available.

Approximate price for components in this project (excluding cese) will be £4.



How It Works

A sound signal, obtained from the cartridge of a record player, might have a 'flat' frequency response — so named because the output volume is level over a large part of the frequency spectrum. This output signal may contain surface noise from a worn record.

But noise (ie, surface noise) consists of high frequency components.

Passing the signal through a scratch filter gives an output signal amplitude which, above a corner frequency, decreases with increasing frequency. Thus unwanted surface noise is reduced in volume compared to the majority of the sound signal.

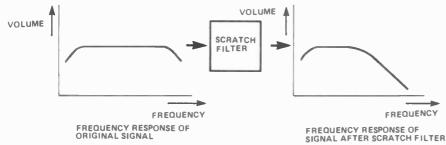


Figure 1 shows the circuit diagram of the filter, and this uses a conventional 12 dB per octave circuit (ie, above the corner frequency, doubling the frequency causes a four-fold reduction in gain).

Transistor Q1 is used as an emitter follower buffer stage at the input which gives the circuit a

high input impedance of about 500k, and ensures that the filter is fed from a relatively low source impedance and gives the required response.

The filter circuitry uses R4 plus R5 in series, together with C4, to give a simple RC low pass filter action. Integrated circuit IC1 is used with 100% negative feed-

back from its output (pin 6) to its inverting input (pin 2) so that it acts as a unity voltage gain buffer stage, and prevents loading on the output from affecting the response of the filter.

A simple RC filter provides a roll-off rate of only about 6 dB per octave, and tends to give only a very gradual initial roll-off, with the ultimate 6 dB per octave roll-off only being reached well above the point where the response starts to fall away significantly. This gives rather poor performance in practice with only limited noise reduction and a small but significant loss of signals at middle audio frequencies.

This problem is overcome by the inclusion of capacitor C3, which has no significant effect on the circuit at low frequencies.

The situation is very different at higher frequencies where C4 produces significant losses through R4 and R5, resulting in the output voltage change being less than that at the junction of R4, R5, and C3. Although C3 is always less than 100% effective, it does now have some effect on the circuit, producing additional losses through R4 at high frequencies.

The Editor replies to a selection of your letters

APART FROM enquiries about projects published in HE, we also receive a variety of general technical enquiries unrelated to material published in the

magazine.

By coincidence, two enquiries were received in August about hearing aids. The first letter came from H. Chester in Burton-on-Trent, who wanted to know where he could obtain ICs, microphones and earpieces suitable for building into the moulded cases of hearing aids. He also requested circuit

The second letter, from G.W. Tate in Bristol, is printed below.

Dear Sir.

On holiday last year, I met a man who, like myself, wore a behind-the-ear hearing aid. Besides this, he also had a home made, hand-held aid that he used at meetings, concerts etc. He claimed it was much better than the manufactured body-worn aids and only cost a fraction of these. It was of course much larger but as it was used only for special events that would hardly matter.

In your July issue you published an article on aids for the disabled. Deaf people are disabled too, so why not think up a few projects for us? If you really wanted to go to town you could work out an aid that would include a pick up from the loop system. If you think there are hardly enough of us to matter you should go to the audiology department of a hospital and you might be surprised how busy it is. And it isn't only older people who attend: there are children who haven't even started school.

In this instance I have only mentioned deaf aids, but if you went into the matter there is scope for quite a few other projects.

How about giving it a thought. G. W. Tate

Shirehampton, Bristol

I am aware of how distressing deafness can be and I would not underrate it as a disability. The problem is that each case of deafness must be treated individually - and by a qualified medical specialist. If we published a simple 'HE Deaf-aid' how could it cope with so many degrees of deafness, frequency response impairments and so on? Apart from these practical problems, we would also run into difficulties with the health authorities after all, none of us are medical specialists. As much as we'd like to help, our hands are tied on this matter.

A letter from South Africa next. Dear Sir,

I have been reading and collecting your magazine right from the start, and always enjoy reading it.

It was with great interest that in the April 1981 issue you published the first part of an exciting new stereo system. Everything went perfectly until the June 1981 issue, in which you published the Amplifier Circuit Diagram, along with the PSU Diagram, and a parts list for the PSU Diagram, but no parts list for the Power Amplifier.

l appreciate you can buy a complete kit from Capricorn Electronics for £155, but this proves to be difficult if you are living in South Africa, even provided that exchange control allows for such a transaction to take place.

I awaited the July issue, to see if you had rectified your omission, but only found that the final wiring diagram was published.

I would appreciate it if you would prove the subtitle on your magazine and show a down-to-earth approach to electronics - by publishing the parts list for the Power Amplifier, or by letting me have same per letter. Thomas R. Bradley Alberton 1450, South Africa

The Power Amplifier project, unlike most of our projects, was based on a pre-assembled module (two are used for stereo operation), as supplied by Capricorn Electronics. Readers who have not perfected their constructional technique might run into serious difficulty building up one of these modules, apart from the setting-up procedure required. We therefore decided to concentrate on the peripheral wiring of the modules to enable readers to obtain hi-fi results with little difficulty. For these reasons we do not intend publishing the usual parts list for this project.

Dear Sir,

Receiving Transmissions from UOSAT (HE Aug 81):

Is it possible to modify the short wave receivers in HE March 1980 and September 1981 to receive the "synthesised voice" telemetry from UÓSAT (after its launch of course) on 145.825 MHz (FM)?

If a modification is not possible could you suggest a simple circuit which would receive these transmissions? G. K. Fletcher Northampton

Both the receivers that you mention are designed for short-wave operation only: the UOSAT transmissions will be on a very high frequency (VHF) waveband and a receiver specifically intended for VHF operation will be required. Another important requirement of the receiver is that of narrow bandwidth. The HE short-wave receivers operate on the principle of regeneration (see Famous Names in this issue for an explanation of this). Although quite sensitive, regenerative

receivers have a wide bandwidth and might not sort out UOSAT's transmission from other transmissions close by on the waveband. (See also comments on reciever kit in UOSAT Launch Imminent, HE October '81, page 59).

Dear Editor,

Please would you put your next Index to Vol 3 of your great HE mag as a pull out in the centre page and add some DATA and JARGON with it so we can pull it out and put it in the back of the BINDER.

A. Ford Chesterfield, Derbyshire

PS I look forward to every mag.

We think that your suggestion is an excellent one. Just give us some time to think up some appropriate 'data' and 'jargon'. (No free BINDERS on this page!)

Dear Sir.

Having just become interested in electronics, buying your magazine I am slightly confused as to the way some components in your projects are described. For example, in the Low Power Pilot Light project in this month's (September) edition the resistor R1 is described as 1M2 and R5 as 1k8, also the capacitor C1 as 1u0. In the diagram, R5 is shown as 1k2. Please could you explain these. B. Mitcheson Kettering, Northants

So many abbreviations and symbols are used in electronics that it would only lead to confusion if we defined every one in every project. For some general advice I'd recommend that you refer to Ian Sinclair's Into Electronic Components series (we've reached Part 4 - see page 48).

Dealing specifically with the components that you mention:

R1 1M2 means 1.2 million ohms resistance (1,200,000 ohms), with the M for million taking the place of the decimal point

R5 1k8 means 1.8 thousand (kilo) ohms (1,800 ohms). For this one the k takes the place of the point. The value of R5 should be 1k2, as shown in the circuit in Fig.2. However, as the value is not critical in this circuit, 1k2 or 1k8 can be used

C1 1u0 means 1.0 microfarad or 1uF (0.000001 farads). The u symbol takes the place of the decimal point.

This practice of using the symbol in place of the decimal point is a practical one: tiny points have a habit of disappearing when printed in components lists and on components.

And we'll end it there for this issue. HE

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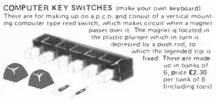
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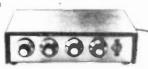


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Famous Names

Few of us are aware of the enormous contribution Edwin Armstrong made to the development of radio. Sadly, like many famous inventors, he was bedevilled by legal wrangling over his patents

THERE'S A VERY hallowed place in radio history not far outside New York City. After you escape from the confusion of Kennedy Airport, you cross the George Washington Bridge and take the green and pleasant Palisades Parkway, which points you towards upper NY State. Not far out, yet in wild, forested country, you'll see a transmitting aerial. Ask, and you'll be told that it is Edwin Armstrong's radio station.

On this side of the Atlantic we know the name of Marconi pretty well, and we could probably name a few other people associated with the development of radio and radar, but how many of us, hand on heart, could really place Edwin Armstrong? Yet of all the names which follow Marconi, his must be the most illustrious in radio history: radio, as we know it today, owes

more to Edwin Armstrong than to anyone else.

Edwin Armstrong was born in Manhattan, New York, in 1890. His folks were well-to-do: his father a publisher, his mother a former schoolteacher, and between them they fostered in their son a fascination for the mechanical and electrical gadgets with which he was constantly surrounded. The turn of the century in New York was the age of the inventor. A steady stream of inventions were being registered at the US Patent Office, and each was eagerly seized on to be marketed and advertised. In many ways it was an inventor's paradise, but as many were to find out, the paradise had a few traps in it. Young Edwin caught the mood and at the age of 14, decided that he would be an inventor. The newest thing around was radio, and it was this field that Edwin chose, surrounding himself with coils and crystals, earphones and morse keys.

We know very little of what he did in those days, because like many inventors, he was shy and secretive. The next milestone in his career was his entry to Columbia University to study science and engineering — and to chalk his name on the list of radio pioneers long before his studies were complete. Radio at that time (about 1910) had very limited uses, mainly because of the very low sensitivity of receivers. Lee de Forest had just invented his Audion — a three electrode valve of the type we now call a triode, and this permitted some amplification of the feeble signals from a tuned circuit. At university, Armstrong was able to lay his hands on one of the first of these valves, and to start making use of it. Within a few months, he had made one of the major discoveries in radio — that of

positive feedback.

First Milestone — Regeneration

The idea was simple enough. The primitive valve had a very low gain at radio frequencies. Armstrong hit on the idea of feeding the signal back to be amplified again, and he called the idea regeneration. A regeneration receiver was hundreds of times more sensitive than the average receiver of the day, so that Armstrong's invention was undoubtedly one of the milestones in radio progress. It was immensly successful and every radio, from then on, with any pretensions to sensitivity, incorporated regeneration. Armstrong himself had already found out that excessive positive feedback could cause oscillation, and so paved the way for all electronic radio transmitters to replace the crude spark-coil or alternator types which were then used.

It could have, and should have, been the moment of his greatest triumph, but it was soured in a way that was to haunt him for the rest of his life. His patents were challenged by de Forest, and judges and lawyers, ignorant of the principles involved, ruled that Armstrong's patents were invalid. To its great credit, the scientific community never accepted the legal

judgement, and recognised Armstrong with every honour they could bestow. Many inventors from that day on, however, have regarded patent rights as a playground for lawyers and have preferred to get in first with the manufacturing of an invention rather than trust to their ability to profit from licensing agreements.

Second Milestone — The Superheterodyne

At the outbreak of war in 1914, Armstrong was appointed to the US Army Signal Corps to research into improved radio communications. Details of his work are not easy to obtain even now, because of the secrecy which surrounded the 'back-room boys', but one invention of this period is outstanding, and will probably remain so as long as radio is used. Until then, all radio receivers were either crystal sets, using no radio frequency amplification, or tuned radio frequency (TRF) receivers which used coils and capacitors to tune each amplifying stage to the frequency which was being received. TRF receivers are useful up to a point, but they have great disadvantages when large amounts of gain are needed. One disadvantage is that the tuning of each circuit has to be changed whenever a different frequency is wanted. Another is that even very small amounts of signal, if fed back from the output to the input, can make the receiver oscillate and so radiate interference. All this was solved by Armstrong's invention of the superheterodyne (superhet) receiver.

In a superhet receiver, each incoming frequency is tuned, amplified and then converted to an intermediate frequency (IF) by mixing it with a signal from an oscillator. The same IF is used no matter what the input frequency on that particular range happens to be. Tuning becomes easier because there are fewer variable tuned circuits, feedback is less of a menace because the signal which is most likely to feedback (the IF) is not at the same frequency as the input. It's difficult nowadays to imagine radio without superhet receivers: from the pocket transistor radio right through to the mighty radar receiver, all use Armstrong's superhet principle.

This work earned Armstrong more than fame. During the 1914-18 war, he had met David Sarnoff, founder of the Radio Corporation of America. (Armstrong had, in fact, married Sarnoff's secretary). Sarnoff was utterly convinced of the entertainment possibilities of radio, and he bought many of Armstrong's patent rights. In the early twenties, the sudden blossoming of radio as an entertainment medium meant a boom in radio manufacture, and made Armstrong a dollar millionaire because of the royalties which were paid by radio manufac-

turers.

Third Milestone — Frequency Modulation

Despite his new wealth Edwin Armstrong remained withdrawn, and continued to work at Columbia University. His theme now was the elimination of radio interference, a topic which was to occupy him to the day he died. His work was fruitful: in 1933 he took out patents on the frequency modulation system — FM. The idea of modulating the frequency rather than the amplitude of a radio wave makes it possible to design receivers which are completely insensitive to the amplitude modulation caused by interference. At the time, though, only the Army Signal Corps

Famous Names

really saw the usefulness of FM. Armstrong found himself with an uphill struggle to convince even his friends that his new system was capable of providing broadcasting of a quality totally unknown at the time. He began the construction of an FM transmitting station, using his own personal wealth. It swallowed over \$300,000 and was completed in 1939 - just in time for the wartime economy drive to make it out of the question to operate the station, or for manufacturers to switch to making FM receivers. Frequency modulation was to prove its value in World War II, however, and once again, Armstrong worked in military research projects.

After the war, FM started to be accepted slowly. The problem was mainly cost, and what boosted sales more than anything else was the new craze for hi-fi which suddenly brought in its wake an appreciation of better quality radio broadcasting. These could have been the days of triumph for Armstong, but the nightmare which had haunted him from his early years was to recur. Once again, his patents were challenged in the courts, and he was put under the strain of trying to prove technical points to an audience of people who were technically ignorant and antipathetic to the quiet unassuming inventor. To add to his worries, his vast expenditure on FM was not yielding him any return, and in 1954, with his fortune spent and his brilliant invention being tossed about the courts by lawyers, Edwin Armstrong committed suicide.

He left behind him a monument as vast as any man can ever hope for. Every radio receiver and every FM transmitter in the world is the result of Edwin Armstrong's patient and littlepublicised achievements. Only his name deserves to be better known.



7 HUGHENDEN ROAD, HASTINGS, SUSSEX. TN34 3TG Telephone: HASTINGS (0424) 436004



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Quick Project: Substitution Boxes

Capacitance and resistance substitution boxes can be the most useful items of electronic test equipment anyone can possess. This Quick Project gives details of how to make your own, both simply and cheaply

When developing and testing circuits a substitution box can save a lot of time spent looking through component storage boxes in search of particular resistor or capacitor values. You see, a substitution box is simply a case which contains a range of resistors or capacitors selection of the desired value is with a switch (or switches). The selected component is connected to sockets on the front of the box, and from here it is connected into your circuit with a couple of test leads.

The circuit of Fig. 1 shows a simple capacitor substitution box which gives a wide range of values. Not every preferred value is included, but using this unit it is possible to get reasonably close to almost any desired value, and the box is quite simple and inexpensive. In use, multiway switches SW1 or SW2 (as appropriate) are switched to select the desired component, and SW3 selects the correct multiway switch. Switching cannot be achieved using a single switch as a suitable component is not available. Switches SW2 and SW3 can be 12-way rotary types having their adjustable end stops set for 10-way operation.

A resistor substitution box can be produced instead, simply by replacing the capacitors with resistors having values of 1R, 2R2, 4R7, 10R, 22R, 47R, 100R, etc, up to 10M.

Figure 2 shows the wiring of the capacitor substitution box and is perfectly straightforward. The circuit can be housed in any suitable small plastic or metal case, but you must make sure the intended case has sufficient depth to take the components which are mounted on SW1 and SW2.

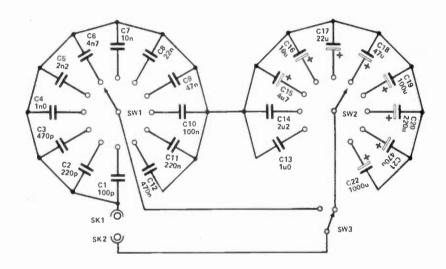


Figure 1. Circuit of an HE Capacitance Substitution Box. By replacing capacitors with resistors (see text) a resistance substitution box can also be made

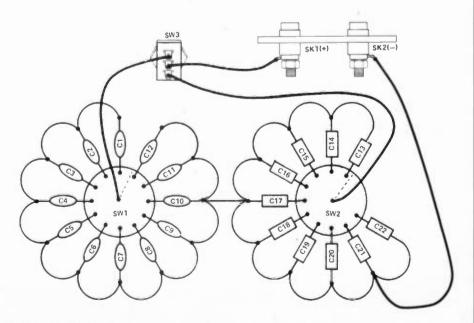


Figure 2. Wiring diagram of the Capacitance Substitution Box

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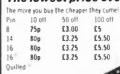
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synthesiser Secrets

In this occasional series on the innards of musical synthesisers, Ron Keeley explains how sounds are made and how a synthesiser is capable of imitating them

THE FIRST PRACTICAL music synthesiser was built by Robert Moog: it used the special voltage controlled circuit elements developed by Moog to determine the musical qualities of pitch, tone and loudness. All synthesisers, except the more recently developed digital instruments, now use the voltage control technique because it permits fine and accurate dynamic control. Although it's not immediately obvious, it is this ability of a synthesiser to be *dynamically* controlled which makes the instrument a powerful one indeed, and it is worth considering this ability closely to understand why.

The problem of control goes back to the very beginning of electronic music synthesis. In 1952, the first synthesiser, RCA's Electronic Music Synthesiser, was built. It consisted of seven separate racks of equipment, each one six feet high. Music was synthesised by specifying seven characteristics for each note. These characteristics had to be encoded on a punched paper roll, much like an old-time pianola roll. Obviously, it was impossible for a musician to simply sit down at a keyboard (there wasn't one!) and actually play this complicated 'instrument'. That is to say, in the jargon of computer technology, it couldn't be controlled in 'real time'. There was a considerable delay (while a new section of paper was encoded and spliced in) in changing the sound of even one note: the synthesiser could obviously not be dynamically controlled.

Voltage controlled synthesisers, however, are controllable in real time - hit a key and a note sounds, turn a knob and it sounds different instantly. It's this facility for instant control which allows modern synthesisers to be played as real instruments, whether imitating more traditional instruments or creating new and unique sounds.

Making Music . . .

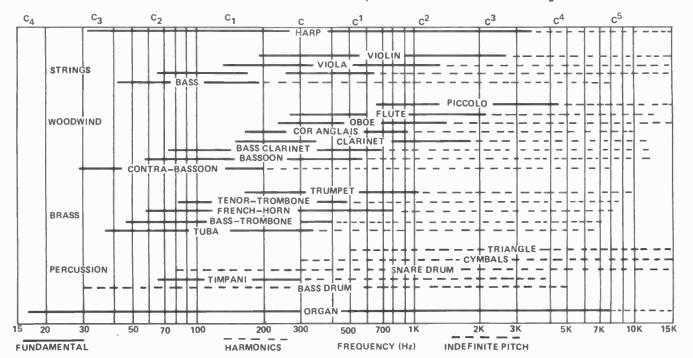
The three basic qualities of a musical sound — pitch, tone and loudness — are the 'handles' by which musical ideas can be grasped, and which are manipulated by composers to create an individual piece of music. By deciding that a melody will be played on, say, a violin, a composer is also deciding that: the melody will be played within a certain pitch range (see Fig. 1);it will have particular tonal qualities (see Fig. 2);and it will be within fixed limits of volume (see Fig. 3). Had he selected a different instrument — a trumpet, for example — he would in effect be selecting different pitch, tone and loudness ranges.

The choice of an instrument determines the broad outlines of the music. The detail and colour, the fine texture, are each determined by the way the composer handles the pitch, tone and loudness capabilities of the instrument. He will actually compose the melody by writing down, in musical notation, the pitch of each note and its length; he may decide to vary the tonal quality by specifying that a certain passage should be played (again using the example of a violin) with the heel of the bow, rather than the flat, while loudness variations may be indicated on the score by words such as Piano (soft) or Fortissimo (very loud). In addition, a composer may decide to use one of the many techniques, such as portamento, staccato or pizzicato, which affect both tone and loudness.

. . . Electronically

If a synthesiser were to be used to play this particular melody,

Figure 1. The frequency ranges of some instruments. The range of a synthesiser is wider than that of an organ



exactly as it was intended to sound, it would need to be a very complicated instrument indeed, and it would need a very clever synth-player, as well. Together they would have to duplicate exactly the musical qualities of the instrument to be imitated, right down to the minute changes in pitch, tone and volume that take place during even the shortest note, and all the playing techniques which are possible on that instrument.

In fact few synthesisers, if any, have the capability to imitate exactly any traditional instrument; most though, will permit a good synth-player to produce a close copy, depending on the exact facilities of the synthesiser - what can be controlled and how finely it can be controlled - and on the abilities of the

On the other hand, a musician or composer working directly with a synthesiser can specify musical notes or sounds that are totally beyond the range of any traditional instrument. These sounds, however, must still be thought of in terms of the three basic qualities of pitch, tone and loudness, because these are the three musical elements which a synthesiser can control.

Admittedly there is a small problem here, in that there is no accepted way of describing synthesised sounds.

Can anyone, for example, suggest how they might write down, in any musical notation, the sound of a flying saucer whistling through the air, gradually changing into the sound of bird's wings flapping, as it passes from left to right?

Anyway, that's just something to be going on with! In the next part of this series we consider what is actually being constarting with oscillators: voltage controlled oscillators (VCOs), of course!

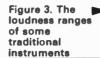
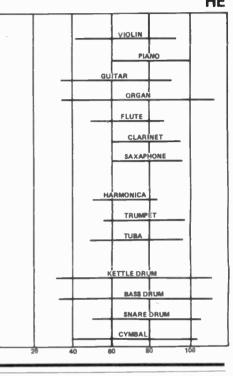
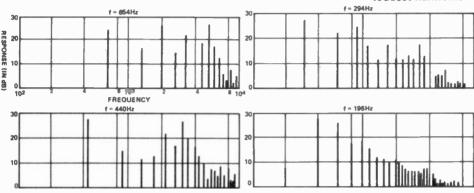


Figure 2. The harmonic content of the four open strings of a violin. Note that the fundamental frequency (F) is not always the loudest harmonic





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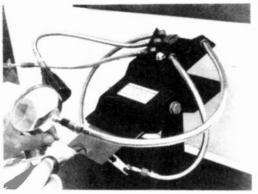
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LED VU Meter dB

If you require a quality VU meter to use with your tape recorder, or if you simply want a pretty audio display on the front of your hi-fi system, then build this five LED VU meter. Better still, build two for stereo

ORDINARY VU METERS respond to the average signal level, because they are quite slow to operate - we say they have a slow attack rate. This means that a signal waveform such as that of a piano or any other percussive instrument (ie, a waveform with a rapidly occurring initial peak followed by a long, average amplitude section) will produce a deceptively low reading on the meter. The signal peaks may thus be over-recorded and distortion will occur.

The HE LED VU Meter can be used as an inexpensive alternative to the ordinary type of VU meter, and it has the advantage of having a fast attack rate. Five LEDs provide indications at signal levels of: -20; -10; -3; 0 and + 3 dB.

Construction

Build up the Veroboard as shown in Fig. 2. Make all track breaks first, using a cutting tool or an %" hand-held drill bit. Hold the cutting edge against the hole to be broken and twist gently clockwise until the track breaks in a clean circle. Make sure there are no loose bits of copper swarf. Insert and solder all components and links as shown.

The project can either be constructed as a self-contained item of equipment having its own case and power source (such as two 9 V batteries connected in series), or it may be possible to build it into the main equipment, depending upon individual circumstances and preferences. If built as a separate unit, an on/off switch must of course be included in the positive supply line.

In order to give RV1 the correct setting it is first necessary to apply a signal to the main equipment that corresponds to a 0 dB level, and then RV1 is adjusted for the lowest sensitivity that causes LED4 to light

Parts List

RESISTORS (All % W. 5%)

15k 2M7 R2 56k

POTENTIOMETER

100k miniature vertical preset

CAPACITORS 4u7, 25 V electrolytic 100n polyester

SEMICONDUCTORS

U267B bargraph driver IC1 **BC109C NPN** transistor Q1 1N4148 diode 0.2" LEDs (3 yellow, D1.2

LED1-5 1 green, 1 red)

MISCELLANEOUS

Veroboard, 24 hole x 10 strip LED panel clips

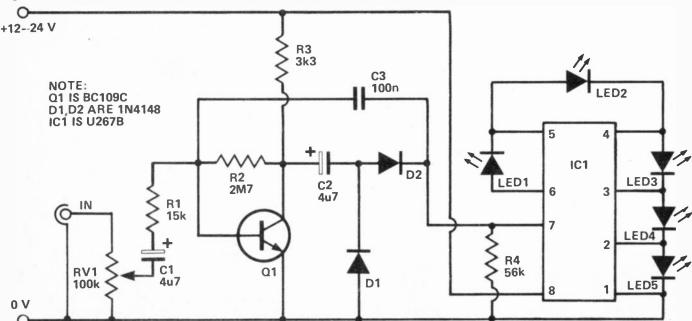


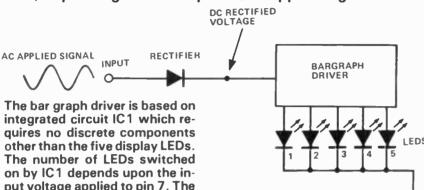
Figure 1. Circuit of the HE LED VU Meter

How It Works

The circuit consists of two basic sections — a rectifier (shown very simply as a diode) and a bar graph driver.

The bar graph driver requires a DC voltage. When no signal is applied to the project the DC voltage must obviously be zero. No LEDs are therefore lit.

As the amplitude of the AC signal increases from zero, so does the DC rectified voltage. As the rectified voltage increases the bar graph driver switches on each LED in turn, depending on the amplitude of applied signal.



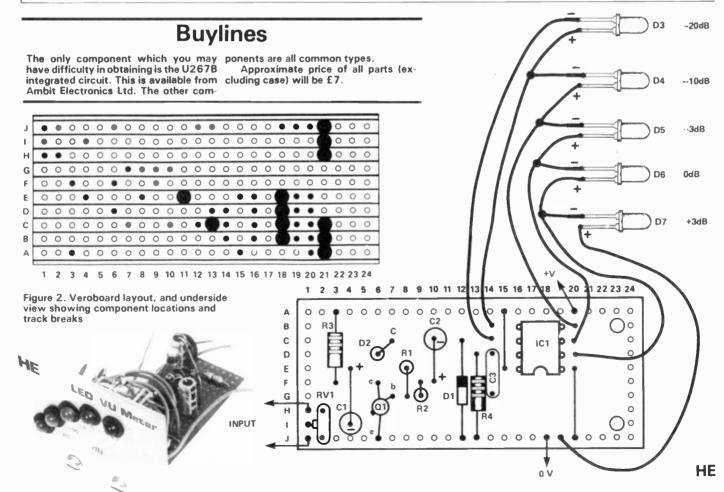
The bar graph driver is based on integrated circuit IC1 which requires no discrete components other than the five display LEDs. The number of LEDs switched on by IC1 depends upon the input voltage applied to pin 7. The switching thresholds for the LEDs are 0.1 V for LED1, 0.32 V for LED2, 0.71 V for LED3, 1 V for LED4 and 1.41 V for LED5. This non-linear sequence is needed to give the five conveniently spaced VU levels, and the U267B is specifically designed for use in this type of equipment.

An active rectifier is needed ahead of IC1 to give a DC input voltage that is proportional to the peak level of the audio input signal. A simple passive rectifier circuit would not be suitable due to the forward voltage drop through semiconductor diodes. This would increase all the LED

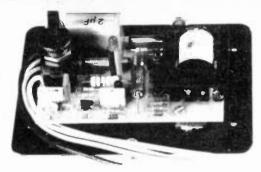
threshold levels by a similar amount, and would therefore alter their relative levels so that the unit would be hopelessly inaccurate. An active rectifier uses a high gain amplifier and generous negative feedback to effectively remove the forward voltage drop and thus give accurate results.

The amplifier is a straightforward common emitter stage which uses transistor Q1 in a conventional arrangement. The negative feedback is provided by capacitor C3 which also acts as a smoothing capacitor. The circuit has a fast attack time so that the unit responds properly to transients, but a slow decay time so that a comparatively long and clear indication is provided by such signals.

Preset RV1 is a simple variable input attenuator that enables the sensitivity of the unit to be set at the correct level. At maximum sensitivity about 200 mV RMS is needed at the input to give a reading of 0 dB. The circuit requires a supply voltage of between 12 and 24 V, and the current consumption is virtually constant at about 25 mA.



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JUNE '81 ISSUE

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DIMENSIONS:

Length 12.5 cm Width 8.9 cm Height 4.3 cm Lead length 100.0 cm

TECHNICAL DETAILS

The basic function of a spark ignition system is often lost among claims for longer 'burn times' and other marketing fantasies. It is only necessary to consider that, even in a small engine, the burning fuel releases over 5000 times the energy of the spark, to realise that the spark is only a trigger for the combustion. Once the fuel is ignited the spark is insignificant and has no effect on the rate of combustion. The essential function of the spark is to start that combustion as quickly as possible and that requires a high power spark.

The traditional capacitive discharge system has this high power spark but, due to it's very short spark duration and consequential low spark energy, is incompatible with the weak air/fuel mixtures used in modern cars. Because of this most manufacturers have abandoned capacitive discharge in favour of the cheaper inductive system with It's low power but very long duration spark which guarantees that sooner or later the fuel will Ignite. However, a spark lasting 2000µS at 2000 rev/min. spans 24 degrees and 'later' could mean the actual fuel ignition point is retarded by this amount.

The solution is a very high power, medium duration, spark generated by the TOTAL ENERGY DISCHARGE system. This gives ignition of the weakest mixtures with the minimum of timing delay and variation for a smooth efficient engine.

SUPER POWER DISCHARGE CIRCUIT A brand new technique prevents energy being reflected back to the storage capacitor, giving 3½ times the spark energy and 3 times the spark duration of ordinary C.D. systems, generating a spark powerful enough to cause rapid ignition of even the weakest fuel mixtures without the ignition delay associated with lower power 'long burn' inductive systems.

HIGH EFFICIENCY INVERTER A high power, regulated inverter provides a 370 volt energy source — powerful enough to store twice the energy of other designs and regulated to provide sufficient output even with a battery down to 4 volts.

PRECISION SPARK TIMING CIRCUIT This circuit removes all unwanted signals caused by contact volt drop, contact shuffle, contact bounce, and external transients which, in many designs, can cause timing errors or damaging un-timed sparks. Only at the correct and precise contact opening is a spark produced. Contact wear is almost eliminated by reducing the contact breaker current to a low level — just sufficient to keep the contacts clean.

TYPICAL SPECIFICATION

	TOTAL ENERGY DISCHARGE	ORDINARY CAPACITIVE DISCHARGE
SPARK POWER (PEAK)	140 W	90 W
SPARK ENERGY (STORED ENERGY)	36 mJ 135 mJ	10 mJ 65 mJ
SPARK DURATION	500 µS	160 µS
OUTPUT VOLTAGE (LOAD 50pF EQUIVALENT TO CLEAN PLUGS)	38 KV	26 KV
OUTPUT VOLTAGE (LOAD 50pF + 500 K EQUIVALENT TO DIRTY PLUGS)	Ω 26 KV	17 KV
VOLTAGE RISE TIME TO 20 KV (Load 50pF)	25 µS	30 µS

TOTAL ENERGY DISCHARGE should not be confused with low power inductive systems or hybrid so called reactive systems.



Feature

ilding Site

w when and where to use which type of connector? y lets you in on the secret

IRE about the many plug and socket conlly all they want to know is which sort of th application - do you use a jack plug and amplifier, or can you put a phono socket wer supply?

simple answer! It's largely a matter of Jus connectors are capable of connecting. In out, listed below are some of the more Jef plugs and sockets which you are likely to Just aren't of any real significance to HE readers e were to use any unusual connectors in one of we would always say what it was.

Innectors are used at the inputs and tape outputs of hi-fi ars. Figure 1 shows a typical plug and socket. The socket directly on to the metal case of the amplifier and this proa good earth point for the inserted plug. The centre, signal, nection is isolated from the outer, but because the two are so ase together and may easily short circuit if not wired carefully, c's advisable not to use phono plugs and sockets for high current (above say, 0.5 A) connections.

Phono plugs and sockets are good quality connectors and are ideal for audio work.

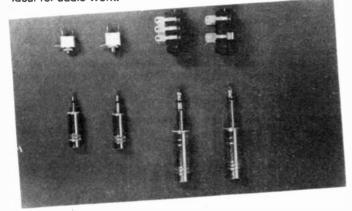


Figure 2. A selection of jack plugs and sockets. Mono and stereo $\,\%''$, 3.5 mm and 2.5 mm

DIN

A complete range of DIN plugs and sockets exist; from two connections to seven connections, a selection (two-, three- and five-pole) is shown in Fig.3.

Two-pole DIN plugs and sockets are the standard loudspeaker connectors on low power (up to about 30 W) amplifier outputs.

Three-and five-pole connectors are often used at the inputs and tape outputs of hi-fi amplifiers.

Because all connections are so close together in DIN connectors, two things should be remembered — they are not ideally suited to high current applications; and crosstalk (ie,interference from one connection to another) can occur.

DIN plugs and sockets make good quality and neat audio connectors.

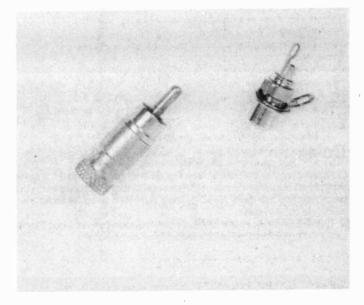


Figure 1. Phono plug (left) and socket. The socket bolts directly onto the case of the circuit.

Jack

There are three main sizes of jack connectors available to the hobbyist: ¼ ", 3.5 mm, and 2.5 mm (see Fig.2). The ¼ " varieties are commonly used on guitar or microphone inputs to amplifiers etc, or headphone outputs. Mono (two connections ie, signal and earth) and stereo (three connections ie, left signal, right signal and earth) versions exist and the connectors can be used anywhere a fairly rugged and easily repairable connection is needed.

If a ¼" plug and socket is too big then either of the two smaller varieties, 3.5 mm or 2.5 mm, may provide an alternative. In all three types the internal connections are quite close together so jack connectors shouldn't normally be used in high current

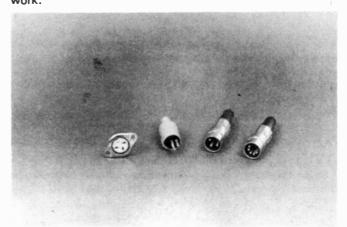


Figure 3. Two, three, and five pole DIN plugs with a typical socket

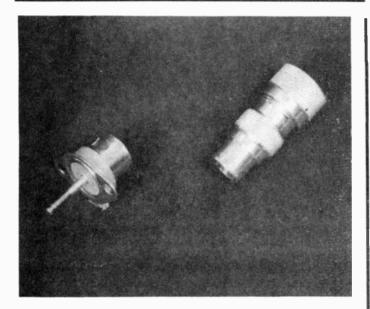


Figure 4. A co-ax plug and socket

Co-ax

Co-axial plugs and sockets (see Fig. 4) are typically used for aerial downlead connections (ie, from an aerial to a TV, tuner etc.) but because they are quite reliable, they are often used for input connections to test gear.

These connectors are ideal in high-frequency work but can be used with success as audio frequency connectors.

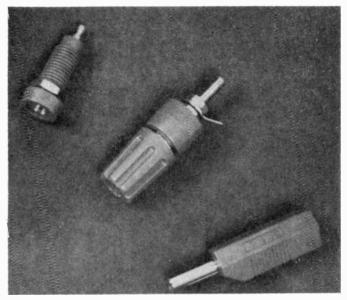


Figure 5. Two 4 mm sockets and a 4 mm plug

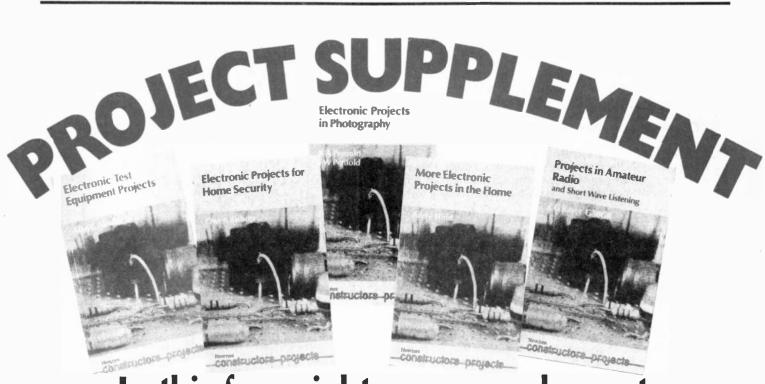
4 mm

If you intend making connections to bench power supplies, multitesters, test gear etc, then this type of connector is ideal. The plugs and sockets are very robust and easy to connect (see Fig.5), and different coloured bodies are available to allow coded inputs and outputs.

Some types of 4 mm sockets have a screw down clamp, which will allow you to fasten a bared wire to the socket as well as a plug.

Oh well, time's up - see you next month!





In this free eight-page supplement we have five extra projects for you to build. They are reprinted from a series of new books, published by Newnes, for electronics constructors

Flashmeter

Pentold, R.A. and Pentold J.W. Electronic Projects in Photography pp 63-69

Determining the correct exposure when using electronic flash is not quite as straightforward as it might at first appear. Guide numbers give correct results only under certain conditions, and a substantial increase in exposure is normally needed out of doors, or in a large, dark room. In small rooms it is usually necessary to reduce the exposure. Even for an experienced flash photographer it is impossible to guarantee perfect exposure without repeating each shot at several aperture settings.

Using a flashmeter overcomes this problem, since the flashmeter measures the amount of light falling on the subject, and therefore shows what effect the surroundings are having on the exposure.

The circuit

The circuit diagram of the flashmeter appears in Fig. 12.1. Phototransistor TR1 and its load resistor R1 are used to produce a negative output pulse having an amplitude which is roughly proportional to the intensity of the light pulse received from the flashgun. The pulse of light from an electronic flashgun is only very brief, usually only about 1 ms, and sometimes very much less than this. The photocell circuit must therefore be capable of responding very quickly, as it must produce a pulse of virtually the same duration as the light pulse. The BPX25 silicon phototransistor seems to be perfectly adequate in this respect.

C1 couples the output pulse from TR1 to a simple rectifier

circuit consisting of D1 and D2. These ensure that the pulse of current fed to the subsequent stage is not rapidly leaked away as the pulse decays. The subsequent stage is actually a Miller integrator which uses TR2, R2, C2, R3 and R4. Initially, reset switch S1 is briefly operated, so that TR2 gate terminal is taken to the negative supply potential. TR2 is then biased as a conventional common source amplifier, and C2 charges to the potential at TR2 drain terminal. C2 therefore tends to hold TR2 in this state when S1 is released.

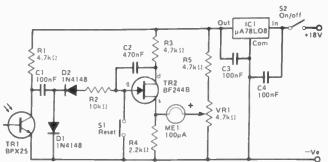


Figure 12.1
The circuit diagram of the flashmeter.

The negative pulse from the rectifier circuit when the flash is fired takes TR2 gate negative, and it causes C2 to steadily charge through R2. This negative signal at TR2 gate causes TR2 drain terminal to go positive, and this results in C2 charging at

Supplement

a virtually constant rate for the duration of the input pulse. Of course, the rate at which C2 charges is controlled by the amplitude of the input pulse. The final charge on C2 is thus dependent both upon the intensity of the light from the flashgun, and on the duration of the light.

It is essential that the circuit responds to both these factors,

since they both have an effect on the exposure.

At the end of the pulse the integrator retains its new state, since C2 cannot discharge through the high reverse resistance of D2, or into the high input impedance of TR2. In practice the charge on C2 will very gradually leak away through these two paths, and through the leakage resistance of C2 itself. However, the circuit remains in the new state for a length of time which is more than adequate to enable a meter reading to be taken.

The meter is connected in a sort of bridge circuit, and VR1 is adjusted so that there is initially zero voltage across the meter, and accordingly it reads zero. When the circuit responds to the light pulse from the flashgun, TR2 source goes negative by an amount similar to the gate terminal, giving a deflection of the meter which is proportional to the change in voltage at TR2 source.

The circuit requires a stable supply voltage of about 8 to 10 V. This is provided by a small monolithic voltage regulator from an 18 V battery supply (the latter being provided by two PP3 batteries connected in series). An 8 V regulator is used in the prototype simply because it happened to be at hand, but a 9 or 10 V regulator could be used if one of these is more readily available than an 8 V type. The current consumption of the circuit is only about 5 mA.

Construction

The components, apart from the controls and batteries, are assembled on a 0.1 in matrix stripboard which has 15 copper strips by 13 holes. The component layout of this board is shown in Figs. 12.2 and 12.3. There are no breaks in the copper

strips incidentally.

Mount the finished panel in the case (after it has been wired to the rest of the unit) so that TR1 is mounted behind a hole of about 10mm diameter drilled in the case. TR1 should be positioned no more than about 10mm behind this hole. It is advisable to have a diffuser mounted over the hole, as the unit will otherwise be highly directional, producing inconsistent and unreliable results. The diffuser can consist of a thin piece of translucent white plastic, and some foods come packed in containers made from a suitable material. Thin paper is a suitable alternative, but it would be advisable to reinforce this with some perspex.

Adjustments and use

When the unit is first switched on, immediately depress S1 and adjust VR1 to zero the meter. The meter can be zeroed after each reading has been taken by means of S1. VR1 may need occasional readjustment to correct slight drift in the circuit.

To calibrate the unit it is necessary to find the points on the scale corresponding to one-stop intervals in light value. The most reliable way of doing this is by varying the flash-to-meter distance. Increasing the distance by a factor of 1.414 (the square root of 2) reduces the intensity by half, which is

equivalent to the required one-stop intervals.

The meter should be set up in an average size room in a position where it is at least 1m away from any wall or similar reflective surface. The flashgun should be directly facing the light receiving surface. Half a metre is a suitable distance for the highest reading. The flashgun should be fired (as soon as the ready light comes on, to ensure repeatable results) and the meter reading noted. The flashgun should then be moved $0.707 \, \text{m} \, (0.5 \, \text{m} \, \times \, 1.414)$ away from the meter and fired again, with the scale reading being noted. This procedure is repeated at distances of 1 m, $1.414 \, \text{m}$, $2 \, \text{m}$, $2.828 \, \text{m}$, $4 \, \text{m}$, and so on, to give a scale covering 7 or 8 stops.

A calculator chart like the one shown in Table 12.1 can be

Figure 12.2
The 0.1 in matrix stripboard layout for the flashmeter

drawn up to convert the scale readings into apertures for the various film speeds. in practice, the top line of this chart is marked with the meter readings for the various flash distances,

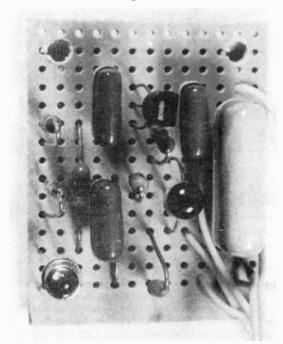


Figure 12.3
The flashmeter unit

and not the numbers shown in the diagram which are only given as examples. An alternative method is to remove the original scale from the meter, and replace it with a scale of numbers from 1 to 7 (or 8) marking the 1 stop intervals. These numbers are then used on the top line of the chart.

ASA	20	27	35	43	51	60	69	77
25 50 100 200 400	11 16 22 32 45	8 11 16 22 32	5.6 8 11 16 22	4 5.6 8 11 16	2.8 4 5.6 8 11	2 2.8 4 5.6 8	1.4 2 2.8 4 5.6	1.4 2 2.8 4

Table 12.1 Example of a chart based on a flashgun with a guide number of 14 (in metres) for a film speed of 100 ASA, used at the distances mentioned.

Initially the chart can be based on the guide number of the flash unit used for calibration, but it may be necessary to modify it slightly in the light of experience.

When calibrating the unit it may be found that the sensitivity is too high or too low, although this is unlikely as the range covered by the unit is somewhat more than is absolutely necessary. However, a lack of sensitivity can be corrected by using a thinner diffuser, or the value of C2 can be reduced. An excess of sensitivity can be corrected by adding more layers of material in the diffuser, or C2 can be increased in value.

Table 12.2 Components list for the tlashmeter

```
Resistors (all miniature 1/4W, 5%)
             4.7 k\Omega
R)
             10 kΩ
R3
             4.7kQ
R4
             2.214.0
R5
             4.7k0
VRI
             4.7 kΩ lin. carbon
Capacitors
             100 nF, type C280
(2
             470 nF, type C280
(3
             100 nF, type C280
(4
             100 nF, type C280
Semiconductors
TRI
             BF244B
TR2
             1N4148
D1
D2
             1N4148
101
             μA78LO8 (8, 9, or 10V, 100mA regulator)
Switches
             Push to make - release to break push button type
51
             SPST miniature toggle type
Meter
# 1E T
             100 μA moving coil panel meter
Miscellaneous
0.1 in matrix stripboard
Two PP3 size batteries and connectors to suit
Control knob
Wire, solder, etc
```

Fire Detector

This device warns of fire by detecting any excessive increase of temperature. It can be set to sound the alarm when the temperature exceeds 50°C (122°F), a temperature that is not likely to occur under normal weather conditions. Several sensors may be placed in strategic positions at various parts of the house.

How it works

The sensor is a thermistor, which is a rod of semiconducting material. As temperature increases, its electrical resistance decreases. In Fig. 4.1 the thermistor R1 and the variable resistor VR1 are joined as a potential divider. The potential at the input terminal depends on the values of R1 and VR1. For the average i.c. operating on a 12V supply a potential of 6V or lower is taken as a 'low' input. A potential above 6V is taken as a high input. There is variation between i.c.s in this respect and the threshold potential may lie anywhere between 3.6V and 8.4V for any given gate. This variation is taken care of by using a variable resistor in the circuit.

At 25°C, R1 has a resistance of 47kΩ. Assuming that VR1 is set to about $18k\Omega$ the potential at the input is 3.3V. This is effectively a 'low' input. As temperature rises, and the resistance of R1 decreases, the input potential rises. At 45°C the resistance of R1 has fallen to about $21k\Omega$, producing a potential of 5.5V at the input. This is still a 'low' input. At 50°C, R1 has the value $17k\Omega$ and the potential is 6.2V. This is a 'high' input.

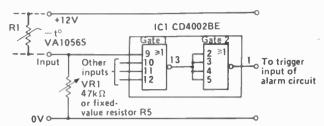


Figure 4.1

Heat detecting fire alarm detector circuit (thermistors R2, R3 and resistors R6, R7. R8 not shown)

Gate 1 is a 4-input NOR gate. For as long as all its inputs are low, (i.e. if any one or more of the thermistors connected to it becomes hotter than 50°C) its output goes low. This output is fed to the other gate in the i.c. which is wired so as to invert the output of gate 1. Consequently, fire causes the output of gate 2 to go high. This output is used to trigger an alarm to sound.

Construction

The first point to consider is whether this detector is to be built as a self-contained unit, or whether it is to be linked with the main domestic alarm system. A separate system gives the advantage that it can have its own distinctive alarm sound. One

Table 4.1. Components needed for fire alarm

Resistors

R1-R4 VA1056S thermistor (4 off)

carbon resistors (1/2W or 1/4W) approx. 18kΩ (see text) (4 off) R5-R8 VR1

47kΩ required temporarily for calibrating

Integrated circuit

CD 4002 BE dual 4-input NOR IC1

Miscellaneous

0.1in matrix stripboard 63mm and 25mm (Vero 14354); terminal sockets (4 off); terminal pins for 0.1in matrix board 7 off; 6 BA bolts (2 off); 6 BA nuts (6 off); 6 BA shakeproof washers (2 off); connecting wire; solder. (If the alarm is to be built as an independent unit, components will be required as listed in Table 2.1, 2.2 or 2.3, with the exception of R1)

can then tell whether to telephone for the police or for the fire brigade! A disadvantage of the self-contained alarm is that it needs its own sound-generator circuit and its own power supply, both of which increase installation costs considerably.

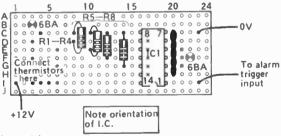


Figure 4.2

Layout of the circuit board for the fire alarm, on the underside of the board cut strips at C4, D17, E17, F17, G17, 117. (not C17. H17) E21. F21. G21 Solder blobs join six strips: C20 to D20 to E20 to F20 to G20 to H20

Since only one i.c. is involved construction is very simple. The layout of Fig. 4.2 provides for four thermistors. Each of these needs to be matched to the i.c. as described below.

Connect a thermistor to its input pin and to the 12V rail. Connect all other input pins temporarily to the zero volt rail. Temporarily connect a 47kΩ variable resistor to the input pin and the zero volt rail. Connect a voltmeter to the output of gate 2 (IC1, pin 1). The voltmeter should now read close to zero. Place the thermistor in a cup of water heated to approximately 50°C and leave it for about 1 minute to reach the same temperature as the water. The voltmeter may go high at this stage. Carefully adjust the variable resistor until you find the point at which the output changes from low to high. Disconnect the variable resistor without altering its setting. Use an ohmmeter to measure its resistance. Select a fixed-value resistor of equal value and solder this in position on the board (R5 to R8). The value of the variable resistor will probably not be exactly equal to one of the standard values for fixed resistors: select the next higher value, as this will ensure triggering at a temperature slightly less then 50°C. Finally check the circuit with the fixed-value resistor in place. The output of gate 2 should go high soon after the thermistor is placed in the warm water, and should go low a minute or so after removing it from the water.

The procedure should be repeated for each of the other thermistors in use. It may seem that this is an unnecessarily complex operation, when one could use four preset variable resistors instead. The chief danger in using variable resistors as a permanent part of the circuit is that if their settings should accidentally be altered, the fire alarm could be inactivated unknown to the user.

The four thermistors are placed in different parts of the house, where there is greatest danger of fire. In general they should be mounted high in the room, preferably close to the ceiling. Suitable places are just above any fireplace, cooker or central-heating boiler, and in any room in which there may be risk of fire (e.g. a hobby room). It is also worth while to place one at the top of the stairway. Each thermistor requires a twin lead to connect it to the alarm unit. If fewer than four thermistors are to be used, join the unused pins of IC1 to the zero volt pin.

Direct Reading Frequency Meter Alnelle, A.C. Electronic Test Equipment Projects pp 50-55

Here is a simple design (Fig. 9.1) for a unit that will enable a 0–1mA meter to display frequency directly on a linear scale over the useful audio range of 20Hz to 20kHz. Measurements can be made on any waveform, with a sensitivity of less than 100mV. Applications apart from frequency measurement include tachometers and speedometers for cars.

Circuit

The input signal is amplified by IC1 (Fig. 9.2) to a level suitable for driving the Schmitt trigger IC2. Diodes D1 and D2 reduce the gain of IC1 for large input signals. Regardless of the input waveform, the output from IC2 is a series of pulses of the same frequency as the input.

A monostable is built around IC3, a 555 timer, triggered from the output of IC2. The output of the 555 on pin 3 is normally 0 volts, but when triggered by a pulse on pin 2, pin 3 goes high for a period dependent on the value of C5 and the resistor selected by S1. As the input frequency increases so does the proportion of time that pin 3 is high, increasing the deflection on the meter. Zener diode ZD1 ensures that the pulses passed to the meter are all of a defined level, the averaging of the meter movement then produces a deflection linearly proportional to the input frequency.

Timing of the monostable period is achieved by varying the voltage on pin 5 of the 555 with P1. This changes the overall period that pin 3 is high on all ranges and is used for calibration.

Construction

All of the components with the exception of the meter, S1 and R12/R15 are mounted on a printed circuit coard as in Fig. 9.3.

In Fig. 9.4, provision is made for using either eight or fourteen pin packages for IC1 and IC2. The pin numbers on the circuit are for eight pin devices which are mounted on the PCB in such a manner that pin 1 of the package fits into the hole drilled for pin 3 of the 14 pin package. Take care to locate the i.c.s correctly. Both the diodes and the electrolytic capacitors also have to be located correctly.

Solder pins are inserted into the board for the external connections, which can be made with instrument wire, although if the input leads are long it would be better to use screened cable.

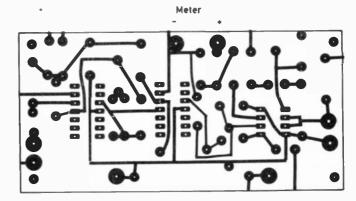


Figure 9.3

PCB layout

R12, R13, R14 and R15 are connected directly to the rear of S1 and in many cases the common connection can be supported on a spare tag on the switch.

Figure 9.2
Circuit diagram of the frequency meter

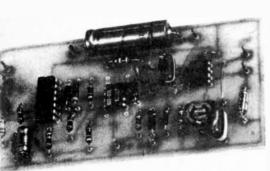
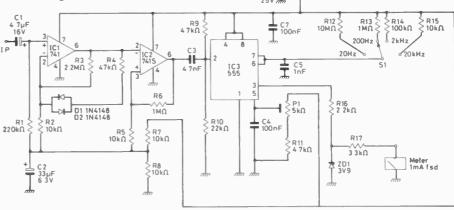


Figure 9.1
Direct reading frequency meter



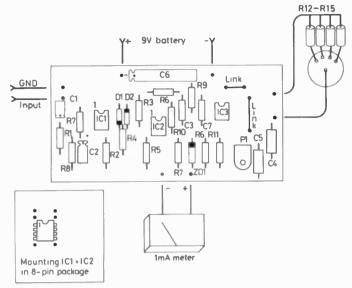


Figure 9.4 Component layout on the PCB

Virtually any convenient 1mA meter can be used or alternatively the frequency meter can be assembled as an add-on unit for a multirange meter set to the 1mA range.

Calibration

Only one calibration adjustment is needed to calibrate all of the ranges. This adjustment can be made at any frequency for which a convenient standard is available, P1 is trimmed so that the meter correctly indicates the input frequency.

50Hz mains derived from a low voltage isolating transformer is a standard available to all constructors, but is not really suitable as the 50Hz point is only one quarter f.s.d. on the 200Hz range.

N.B. BEWARE OF LIVE VOLTAGES AND POSSIBLE LIVE CHASSIS

Alternative calibration can be achieved by reference to a calibrated signal source, or an oscillator at 200Hz referenced to 50Hz mains by Lissajous frequencies on a CRO.

Use

Any signal above 100mV will be sufficient to trigger the meter which will then indicate the frequency of the applied signal. It is possible to use the instrument to indicate revolutions per minute by arranging contacts which close once per revolution (rotating magnet past a reed switch?) An extension of this would be to feed the meter from a phototransistor which would enable r.p.m. readings to be taken without contact if a contrasting line is painted on the rotating object. To eliminate the conversion from hertz to r.p.m. (×60) it is possible to recalibrate directly in r.p.m., convenient ranges achieved without changing any components other than resetting P1 being:

0 – 500 r.p.m.

0 - 5000 r.p.m.

0 – 50,000 r.p.m.

0 – 500,000 r.p.m.

Changing C5 to 10nF will change the ranges to

0 – 50 r.p.m.

0 – 500 r.p.m.

0 - 5000 r.p.m.

0 - 50,000 r.p.m.

It may be necessary to connect a capcitor of value $5\mu F$ across the meter to stop needle flutter on the lower ranges.

Table 9.1 Components for direct reading frequency meter

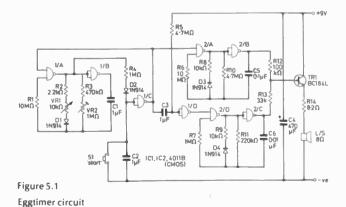
/.C.s				
IC1	741, 8 or 1			
IC2	741S, 8 or	14 pin		
IC3	555			
Resistors				
R1	220kΩ	R10	22kΩ	
R2	10kΩ	R11	4.7kΩ	
R3	$2.2M\Omega$	R12	10MΩ 5%	
R4	47kΩ	R13	1MΩ 2%	
R5	10kΩ	R14	100kΩ 2%	
R6	1ΜΩ	R15	10kΩ 2%	
R7	10kΩ	R16	2.2kΩ	
R8	10kΩ	R17	3.3kΩ	
R9	4.7kΩ			
(¼W unles	ss stated)			
Capacitors				
C1	4.7μF, 16\	/		
C2	33µF, 6.3\			
C3	4.7nF	•	1	
C4	100nF			
C5	1nF			
C6	160μF, 251	V		
C7	100nF			
Diodes				
D1	1N4148			
D2	1N4148			
Miscellane	eous			
P1	5kΩ, 50m	W		
S1		, two-pole L	orlin	
Meter			eter on 1mA range	
PCB				

Ticking Eggtimer

Flind, A. More Electronic Projects in the Home pp 20-23

It was originally intended that this should be one of the simpler circuits in this book, but it was not to be! It was in fact for this project that the pulsed timer circuit explained in the previous project was originally developed, as the author likes his breakfast boiled egg timed to a slightly better tolerance than that available with most electrolytics; -50 to +100%! When one stops to think about it, there's quite a lot in an eggtimer circuit. In addition to the actual timer, an output tone generator is required to signal the completion of the timing period, and a second timer is needed to time the operation of this. One further objective was specified for the prototype. Your author tends to stagger down early in the mornings bleary-eyed and late for work, and a complex machine with lots of knobs and dials was strictly out! The final design was to have just two controls; a knob for setting the time, and a button to bash in order to start it. Even an on-off switch was ruled out.

The use of CMOS throughout solved the on-off switch problem, as when it's not running it draws no current. In the



Supplement

circuit of Fig. 5.1, IC1 A, B and C form the timer. Pressing S1 discharges C2 and sets the timer running, as with the timer circuit of the previous project. VR1 sets the oscillator's rate and is used as a calibrator to set the range. When the timer completes its run, IC1C's output goes low. This pulls IC1D's input low via C3, and its output goes high and stays high for about 5 seconds, until R5 manages to charge C3 sufficiently to take it low again. Whilst it is high the oscillator comprising IC2C and D is able to run, producing an audio tone. This completed the circuit as specified, but left two spare gates available in IC2. It seemed a shame to waste them, so they have been wired to form a second astable, IC2A and B, with a

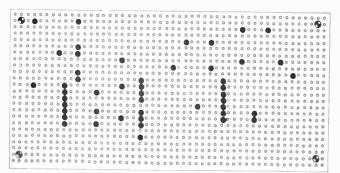


Figure 5.2 Eggtimer, copper side

frequency of about 2Hz, gated on whilst the timer is running. The outputs of the two astables are fed to the output stage, so the net result is a quiet ticking noise whilst the circuit is running, culminating in a 5 second bleep when the set time is reached. D3 and D4 cause the output to consist of short pulses rather than a square wave, as this greatly improves battery economy. R14 keeps the volume to a reasonable level; if you have a large kitchen reduce it, for sensitive ears increase it.

A large piece of *Vero* was used to hold all this circuitry, 24 strips of 50 holes. Fig. 5.2 shows the 48 breaks, and Fig. 5.3 the component layout, including 23 links. Wire VR1 to decrease resistance when rotated clockwise. VR1 and VR2 then both increase the period for a clockwise rotation. To set the circuit up, turn VR1 fully anti-clockwise (minimum period) and adjust VR2 to provide a time of just under one minute. Then check that VR1's maximum setting gives over 6 minutes. The control can then be calibrated by trial and error for times of 1 to 6 minutes. The current drawn by this circuit is minimal at all times, even when giving the output tone it is no more than 5mA, so a PP3 battery should last for a very long time.

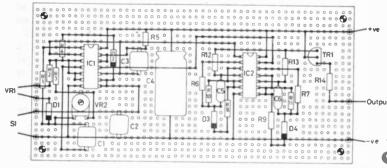


Figure 5.3
Eggtimer, component layout

The board completed is shown in Fig. 5.4.

A note on troubleshooting these timer circuits will probably not be amiss here. If they refuse to operate for any reason, probably the first test you'll want to make is whether there is a voltage present on the timing capacitor, and whether it is

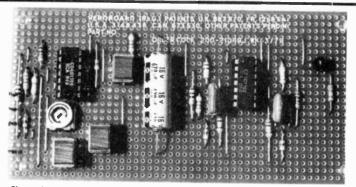


Figure 5.4 Ticking eggtimer

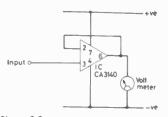


Figure 5.5
Using a CA3140 op-amp as a buffer to measure voltage at high impedance points

increasing when it should be. Unfortunately it can't be simply measured with a meter as the current drawn by most meters would discharge it immediately. The answer to this is to buffer the meter with a 3140 op-amp which has a CMOS FET input stage. Fig. 5.5 shows how to do this using a 3140 as a simple unity-gain voltage follower. No components are required apart from the op-amp itself, and the supply can be taken from the circuit under test. Note that the op-amp can only follow the voltage up to about 2V below the positive supply rail, but it can follow all the way down to negative rail.

Table 5.1 Components list for eggtimer

Resistors R1, R6 R2 R3 R4, R7 R5, R10	10MΩ 2.2kΩ 470kΩ 1MΩ	Semicondu D1, D2, D3, D4 TR1 IC1, IC2	
R8, R9 R11 R12 R13 R14	4.7ΜΩ 10kΩ 220kΩ 100kΩ 33kΩ 8.2Ω	Switch, SPS	oard, 24 strips of 50 holes T push-to-make IL i.c. sockets

Potentiometers **Potentiometers**

VR1 10kΩ linear

VR2 1MΩ sub-min. horizontal preset

Capacitors

View from below

BC184L

C1, C2, C3

C4

470 \mu F polycarbonate

C5

0.1 \mu F polyester

C6

0.01 \mu F polyester

Super-Regenerative VHF Receiver

Rayer, F.G. Projects in Amateur Radio and Short Wave Listening pp 83-90

Regenerative circuits feed back part of the amplified signal into the aerial, or input of the regenerative stage, in correct phase to add to the original signal. This provides a considerable increase in sensitivity to weak signals. With a superregenerative circuit, regeneration can be carried beyond the usual limits, because the stage is quenched, or repeatedly brought out of oscillation, at a frequency above audibility.

Because of the high sensitivity obtained by this method, super-regenerative receivers were very largely used for VHF reception, though they are now mostly replaced in commercial applications by superhet receivers. Thus a super-regenerative VHF receiver offers one of the simplest methods for the reception of VHF AM transmissions, and it can be adjusted to cover a wide frequency band with the minimum of difficulty.

Receiver circuit

This is shown in Fig. 11.1. Signal pick-up is by a short telescopic aerial, connected to L1, coupled to L2. L2 with T1 in parallel tune very flatly, and fully variable tuning is not required here. Signals are taken to gate 1 of the dual-gate FET, TR1. Gate 2 receives its operating voltage from the divider formed by R1 and R3, and R2 is for source bias. Output from this stage is from the drain to L3.

TR2 is the grounded gate super-regenerative detector, and operating frequency is determined by L4. VC1 is the panel operated tuning capacitor. T2 allows adjustment of band cover-

Regeneration in this stage is controlled by the potentiometer VR1, which allows adjustment of the drain voltage (via R5 and L4). The source supply is through the radio frequency choke RFC, and R6. C5, R7, C6 and C7 are the quench network and for coupling of audio signals to the audio amplifier.

The latter is a relatively simple two stage circuit, TR3 and TR4, stabilised by direct current feedback through R9. This section will give moderate volume with a small 75Ω or 80Ω loudspeaker, and the output jack socket allows headphones (up to $2k\Omega$ resistance) to be plugged in, silencing the speaker.

Operation is from a 9V or 12V battery supply. The latter can be two 6V battery holders, for four small 1.5V cells each, in series.

TR1 is not expected to provide significant amplification, but is intended to help isolate the aerial from the oscillating stage TR2. This reduces radiation. In addition, the power level at which TR2 operates is extremely low.

L4, made as shown, allows tuning from 110MHz to 180MHz. VC1 covers only a part of this total range, which is chosen by the setting of T2. So long as VC1 is of low value (5pF or 10pF) no reduction drive is necessary with it, tuning being sufficiently flat for control by means of a fairly large knob.

The optional capacitance Cx may not be wanted with some samples of TR2. Cx is not necessary when super-regeneration is obtained over the frequencies required. Where Cx has to be added, it is of very low value, and is made by looping a turn or two of thin insulated wire around a bare wire soldered to VC1.

Super-regeneration is indicated by a hissing noise arising when VR1 is advanced. This hiss ceases when a signal is tuned in.

Case preparation

The case is made from a universal chassis box 204×127 mm (8 × 5in) and all assembly is on the flat plate, which serves as panel or front. The universal chassis sides are secured together with 4BA bolts and nuts. If the plate is to fit *inside* the flanges, as illustrated, then a little must be cut from two edges, or it may prove to be slightly too large.

First drill or punch holes for VR1 and VC1. Four countersunk holes are used to secure the two tag strips near VC1. Two countersunk holes also take bolts, with extra nuts or spacers, to allow the audio board to be fixed, as shown in Fig. 11.5. An aperture must also be cut to match the speaker cone. This can be done with an adjustable tank cutter; with a large screw-up punch; or by drilling a ring of small holes, removing the piece, and finishing off with a half-round file.

After construction, and having checked that the plate will fit inside the flanges, as mentioned, the front is completely covered with loudspeaker fabric or similar material. This is held taut by adhesive round the edges of the plate.

TR1 stage

Components for this occupy the top tag-strip in Fig. 11.2. L2 is 4½ turns of 28 swg wire, and L1 two turns, immediately against L2.

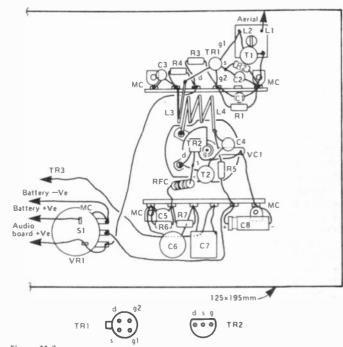


Figure 11.2 TR1 and TR2 stages

Connect C1 and R1 in parallel, from tag MC (metal panel) to the tag taking gate 2 connection from TR1. Similarly connect C2 and R2, for the source lead. Take gate 1 to the top of L2, and connect T1 across L2 here. L3 is a single turn of thin insulated wire, 12mm outside diameter, and C3 goes from here to MC. Connections to TR1, and to capacitors C1, C2 and C3, and to the coils, should be as short as can be reasonably arranged. L1/L2 is shown a little removed from the tag strip and TR1, in Fig. 11.2, to clarify connections. Positive for this stage runs from R3 and R4, at the anchor tag provided, as shown.

Fig. 11.3 shows the RF and detector stages assembled on tagstrips.

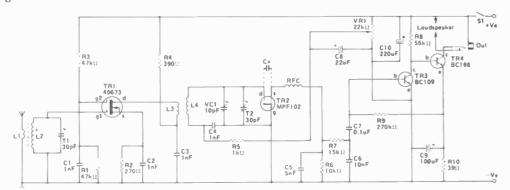


Figure 11.1
Circuit of the VHF receiver

Supplement

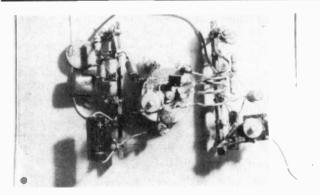


Figure 11.3 RF and detector stages assembled on VC1 and tagstrips

Detector stage

This is mainly centred on VC1, and leads to L4, C4, drain and gate of TR2, and T2, in particular, are as short as can be

arranged.

L4 is three turns of 20 swg wire, wound on any object which will provide an outside diameter of 12mm. The coil is removed and turns spaced so that L4 is 15mm long. Solder one end to VC1 stator (fixed plates) tag as shown. Connect a stout lead from VC1 rotor (moving plates) tag to TR2 gate, joining on also C4 and T2. The free end of C4, and R5, go to the second end of L4. Solder TR2 drain lead to VC1 stator tag, and also T2.

The RF choke is 35 turns of 36 swg wire on an insulated former 4mm in diameter and 10mm long. Adhesive can be applied at the ends only. The choke is supported by stouter wires at its ends – one running to TR2 source (centre lead) and

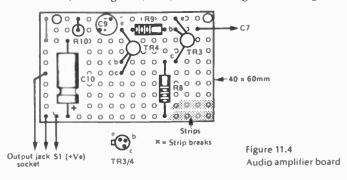
the other to the tag shown.

Other components are supported by the lower tag strip, Fig. 11.2. From here, leads run away against the panel to the centre tag of VR1, and to the base of the first audio amplifier.

Audio board

This is shown in Fig. 11.4. Do not overlook the essential strip break under R9.

The board is later fixed about 8mm to 10mm or so clear of the panel by means of bolts with extra nuts (Fig. 11.5). Check that the outermost strip, forming the negative return for TR3 emitter, C9 negative, R10, and C10 negative, is in good



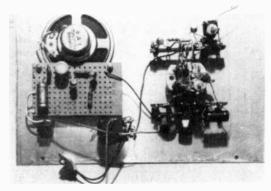


Figure 11.5 Speaker, audio board and other items

electrical contact with the metal panel. This is most easily done by securing a tag under the board, soldered to this strip. At the same time, check that the second strip (TR3 base, C9 positive, etc.) is not grounded by contact with the tag or nuts.

Table 11.1. Components for super-regenerative receiver

rable i iii c	omponents to super t	-8	
Resistors			
R1	47kΩ	R6	10kΩ
R2	270Ω	R7	15kΩ
R3	47kΩ	R8	56kΩ
R4	390Ω	R9	270kΩ
R5	1kΩ	R10	39Ω
(resistors 5%	, 1/4 watt)		
VR1	22kΩ linear potentiom	eter with swi	ch S1
Conneitor	•		
Capacitors C1	1nF disc ceramic		
C2	1nF disc ceramic		
C3	1nF disc ceramic		
C4	1nF disc ceramic		
C5	5nF disc ceramic		
C6	10nF disc ceramic		
C7	0.1µF		
C8	22µF, 12V electrolytic		
C9	100μF, 6V electrolytic		
C10	220 µF, 12V electrolytic		
VC1	Small 10pF air spaced		riable capacitor
VCI	(Jackson C.804 type), of		riable capacitor
T1	Miniature 30pF VHF tri		
T2	Miniature 30pf VHF tr		
12	williature sopr viir ti	iiiiiiei	
Transistors			
TR1	40673		
TR2	MPF102		
TR3	BC109		
TR4	BC108		
Miscellaneo	us		
	r: approx. 60mm, (2½ir	n) 75Ω or 80Ω	
Jack socket,	3.5mm fully insulated		
Telescopic a	erial, about 430–600mn	n	
Two 6-way ta	igstrips (2 earthed)		
	0mm (1% × 2%in) 0.15	in matrix	
Small knob,	large knob with dial		
	n (8 \times 5in) universal cha	assis box with	extra 204 × 127mm
	Radio, Mitcham)		
Coil former	10 $ imes$ 4.5mm with VHF ${ m g}$	rade core	

Negative circuits are completed also by a lead to the mounting bush of VR1, by the tags MC of the tag strips, and by the bush of VC1.

As the output jack socket is in the positive line, it must be a completely insulated type, or must be isolated from the panel by means of insulating washers. The actual position of tags varies somewhat. Wire the socket so that it completes the circuit from TR4 collector to the loudspeaker, when no plug is inserted. When a plug is put in the socket, the contacts supplying the loudspeaker are opened, and the circuit to the headphones is by the sleeve and tip contacts.

Adjustments

Battery connectors, wire, etc.

The aerial can be a hinged telescopic type fitted to the top of the case near L1/2, or a sliding-down type fixed to the side of the case here. The securing screws (or screw) must be insulated from the metal case. This can be done by placing a strip of Paxolin or other insulating material between aerial mounting and case, and passing the bolts through holes allowing ample clearance. Further insulation is of course necessary before putting on the nuts inside.

T2 is open for the higher frequencies mentioned, and closed to reduce frequencies. With VR1 advanced about two-thirds, a hiss should be heard in the loudspeaker. This shows superregeneration is present. Without this, reception will not be obtained. When a transmission, or carrier, is tuned in, this hiss ceases. VR1 is adjusted for best results.

The best position for L3 was found with this turn between the turns of L4. Band coverage can be extended by changing L4 slightly. If necessary, Cx may be added as explained, but the capacitance used here is very small indeed.

The operation of a super-regenerative detector provides some degree of 'automatic volume control' effect. Because of this, and inherent damping and losses at these frequencies, no sharp resonant peak will be found for the setting of T1. HE

,	TTLs by 1	EVAS	24 6 650		4023	20p	A2 CEDIFO	_	240.00	DIEC	745114	120p	TRANSISTORS	-
١	7400 7401 7402 7403	11p 11p 12p 14p	74LS SER 74LS00 74LS01 74LS02	12p 14p 14p	4024 40 25 40 26	40p 20p 130p	93 SERIES 9301 9302 9308	160p 175p 316p	745 SE 74500 74504 74505	60p 60p 75p	74S124 74S132 74S133	300p 160p 75p	AC126 25; AC127 8 20; AC176 25; AC187/8 25;	p
l	7404 7405 7406	14p 18p 27p	74LS03 74LS04 74LS05 74LS08	14p 15p 15p 16p	4027 4028 4029 4030	32p 60p 75p 40p	9310 9311 9312 9314	275p 275p 160p 185p	74S08 74S10 74S20 74S30	75p 60p 60p 60p	74S138 74S139 74S157 74S163	225p 225p 250p 300p	AF116 50 AD149 70 AD161/2 45	p
I	7407 7408 7409	27p 16p 16p	74LS09 74LS10 74LS11	15p 15p 15p	4031 4034 4035	170p 160p 80p	9316 9321 9322	225p 225p 150p	74S32 74S37 74S64	90p 90p 60p	74\$174 74\$175 74\$194	250p 320p 350p	AU107 200 BC107/B 13 BC109 14	p
١	7410 7411 7412	15p 20p 20p	74LS13 74LS14 74LS20	25p 45p 15p	4036 4039 4040	295p 295p 55p	9334 9 368 9370	360p 250p 300p	74574 74585 74586	90p 300p 180p	74S241 74S260 74S373	450p 70p 400p	BC117 20 BC147/8 9 BC149 10	p p
۱	7413 7414 74C14	25p 35p 60p	74LS21 74LS22 74LS26	15p 20p 20p	4041 4042 4043	70p 55p 60p	9374	200p	74511	2 120p	745374	400p	BC157/B 10 BC159 11 BC169C 12	P
۱	7416 7417 7420	25p 25p 17p 30p	74LS27 74LS30 74LS32	18p 15p 16p	4044 4046 4047	70p 70p 75p	AN103 AY1-0212 AY1-1313		200p 650p 668p	MC14 MC14 MC14 MC14	58 95L	150p 40p 350p 70p	BC172 12 BC177/8 17 BC179 18	p
l	7421 7422 7423	20p 22p	74LS37 74LS38 74LS42	16p 16p 40p	4048 4049 4050	55p 27p 27p	AY1-1313 AY1-5050 AY3-1270))	320p 90p 840p	MC33 MC34 MM57	40P 03	120p 75p 620p	BC182/3 10 BC184 11 BC187 30	p
ı	7425 7426 7427 7428	28p 30p 25p 30p	74LS47 74LS51 74LS55	40p 15p 30p	4051 4052 4053	60p 80p 60p	AY3 8910 AY3 8912 CA3046)	700p 625p 70p	NE531 NE555 NE556	5	150p 18p 55p	BC212/3 11 BC214 12 BC237 15	p
ı	7430 7432 7433	15p 25p 27p	74LS73 74LS74 74LS75	25p 20p 28p	4054 4055 4056	130p 125p 120p 500p	CA3048 CA3080E CA3086		225p 60p 48p	NE564 NE565 NE566	4 5	420p 120p 155p	BC327 16 BC337 16 BC338 16 BC461 36	p
l	7437 7438 7440	27p 30p 17p	74LS76 74LS83 74LS85 74LS86	20p 45p 65p 24p	4059 4060 4063 4066	90p 100p 35p	CA3089E CA3090A CA3130E	Q	225p 375p 90p	NE561 NE571 NE551	1	140p 425p 250p	BC477/B 30 BC516/7 40 BC547B 16	p
ı	7441 7442A 7445	70p 50p 60p	74LS90 74LS92 74LS93	35p 40p 35p	40 67 40 68 40 69	400p 18p 18p	CA3140E CA3160E CA3161E		45p 100p 140p	PLL02 RC413 \$5668	36 3	500p 60p 240p	BC548C 9 BC549C 18 BC557B 16	p
١	7446A 7447A 7448	93p 45p 45p	74LS95 74LS96 74LS107	45p 110p 45p	4070 4071 4072	18p 18p 18p	CA3162E CA3189E CA3280		450p 300p 160p	SAD1 SFF96 SN760	364 013N	1250p 800p 170p	BC559C 18 BCY70 18 BCY71/2 22	p
l	7450 7451 7453	17p 17p 17p	74LS109 74LS112 74LS113	30p 34p 30p	4073 4075 4076	20p 20p 60p	DAC1408 HA1388 ICL8038	-8	200p 260p 300p	SN764 SP851 TA712	1 5 20	175p 750p 200p	BD131/2 50 BD135/6 54 BD139 56	p
l	7454 7460 7470	17p 17p 36p	74LS114 74LS122 74LS123	30p 42p 50p	4081 4082 4086	16p 20p 72p	ICM7555 LC7120 LC7130		80p 600p 475p	TA720 TA720 TA722 TA731)5 ?2	250p 200p 200p	BD140 60 BD189 60 BD232 95	P
ı	7472 7473 7474	30p 30p 23p	74LS124 74LS125 74LS126	30p 30p	4089 4093 4094	150p 40p 150p	LF351 LF356P LM10C LM301A		48p 90p 425p	TBA6	31 41B11	200p 150p 300p 200p	BD233 75 BD235 85 BD241 70	p
۱	7475 7476 7480 7481	38p 30p 50p 100p	74LS132 74LS133 74LS136	30p 30p	4095 4096 4097	95p 95p 340p	LM311 LM318 LM319		27p 70p 200p 225p	TBA8	00 10	90p 100p 90p	BD242 70 BDY56 200 BF200 32	p
l	7482 7483A 7484	70p 45p 100p	74LS138 74LS139 74LS145	36p 36p 75p	4098 4099 40085 40097	90p 120p 90p	LM324 LM339 LM348		45p 65p 75p	TBA9	50 20	300p 350p 175p	BF244B 35 BF256B 70 BF257/8 32 BF259 36	p
۱	7485 7486 7489	90p 25p 210p	74LS147 74LS148 74LS151 74LS153	90p 70p 60p	40098 40102 40103	£120p 120p 180p 180p	LM358P LM377 LM380		50p 175p 75p	TDA1	800	300p 320p 225p	BFR39 25	
ı	7490A 7491 7492A	30p 60p 30p	74LS154 74LS155 74LS156	200p 40p 40p	40106 40109 40163	50p 100p 100p	LM381AN LM386 LM393	N	180p 80p 100p	TDA10	024 034B	570p 100p 250p	2101-4L 2102-2L 2107B	1 5
I	7493A 7494 7495A	30p 50p 50p	74LS157 74LS158 74LS160	35p 36p 40p	40173 40174 40175	120p 90p 100p	LM709 LM710 LM725		36p 50p 350p	TDA1	002V 020	300p 325p 320p	2111-4 2112-4 2114L	3
١	7496 7497 74100	45p 120p 85p	74LS161 74LS162 74LS163	40p 40p 40p	40193 40257 4502	120p 160p 75p	LM733 LM741 LM747 LM748		75p 16p 70p 35p	TL071 TL072 TL074 TL084	/82	45p 75p 130p 110p	2114-2L 4027-3 4044	3
١	74107 74109 74116 74118	30p 40p 90p	74LS164 74LS165 74LS166	48p 100p 90p	4503 4507 4508	50p 40p 200p	LM2917 LM3302 LM3900		200p 100p 55p	UAA1 ULN2	70 003	175p 100p 300p	4116 4118 5101	5 3
l	74119 74119 74120 74121	75p 90p 70p 30p	74LS170 74LS173 74LS174	70p 60p	4510 4511 4512	65p 50p 65p 150p	LM3909 LM3911 LM3914		70p 130p 225p	XR220 ZN414 ZN419)6 1	300p 90p 225p	6116 (150ns) 6514-45 6810	2
	74122 74123 74125	45p 48p 40p	74LS175 74LS181 74LS190	50p 140p 50p 50p	4514 4515 4516 4518	150p 75p 45p	LM3915 LM3916 LM13600)	225p 225p 125p	ZN424 ZN425 ZN427	4E SE	135p 350p 650p	71301 74\$18B	7 2 3
Ì	74126 74128 74132	40p 40p 45p	74LS191 74LS192 74LS193 74LS195	50p 60p 50p	4520 4521 4526	70p 150p 75p	MB3712 VOLTAG		200p	ZN103	34	200p	74S287 74S471 74S571 CPUs	6
	74136 74141 74142	32p 65p 200p	74LS196 74LS197	60p 65p 60p	4527 4528 4532	90p 75p 90p	Fixed Pla 1A 5V	stic T()-22 0 ve		ve 7905 791 2	55p 55p	1802CE 2650A 6502	7
١	74145 74147 74148	70p 100p 75p	74LS221 74LS240 74LS241 74LS242 74LS243	90p 90p 80p	4534 4536 4 5 38	500p 300p 120p	12V 15V 18V	78 78 78	15 55p 18 55p		7915 791B 7924	55p 70p 70p	6800 6802 6809	5 12
I	74150 74151A 74153	80p 45p 45p	74LS244 74LS245	80p 80p 90p	4539 4543 4553	110p 100p 290p	24V 100mA 5V	78 TO- 78	92 L05 30p		79L05 79L12 79L15	60p 60p 60p	8080A 8085A 1NS8060	4 5
I	74154 74155 74156 74157	70p 50p 50p 50p	74LS247 74LS251 74LS253 74LS257	70p 40p 40p	4555 4556 4560 4569	50p 60p 180p 180p	12V 15V OTHER R	78		78H	GKC	600p	TM59980A Z80 Z80A	
I	74159 74160 74161	100p 60p 60p	74LS259 74LS259 74LS266	45p 45p 90p 25p	4572 4583 4584	30p 100p 45p	LM309K LM317T LM323K LM723		135p 200p 500p 37p	78M	O5KC IGT2C GKC	550p 135p 600p 300p	EPROMs 1702A 2708	
I	74162 74163 74164	60p 60p 65p	74LS273 74LS279 74LS283	90p 45p 45p	4585 4724 14411	100p 150p 700p	OPTO-EL 2N5777	ECTR		ÓRP		120p	2716 (+5V) 2532 2732	6
١	74165 74166 74170	70p 160p	74LS298 74LS323 74LS324	160p 250p 150p	14412 14599	900p 290p	OCP71 ORP12		180p 120p	ORP TIL7	61	120p 55p	SUPPORT DEVICES 3242	,
I	74172 74173 74174 74175	300p 75p 70p 70p	74LS348 74LS352 74LS353	150p 100p 100p			OPTO-IS ILD74 MCT26 MCS2400		130p 100p 190p	TIL1 TIL1 TIL1	12	90p 90p 90p	3245 6522 6532	4
١	74176 74177 74178	50p 70p 100p	74LS365 74LS367 74LS368 74LS373	36p 36p 50p 80p	INTERFA ICs AD561J AD7524	1400p 600p	LEDS 0 125	U	1300	0 266 TIL2	6 20 Red	16p	6821 6845 6850	
I	74180 74181 74182	60p 160p 90p	74LS374 74LS375 74LS377	80p 50p 90p	DM8131 DP8304 DS8835	375p 450p 250p	TIL32 TIL209 R TIL211 G	P	55p 13p 20p	TIL2:	22 Gr 28 Red angular	18p 22p	6852 6875 8154 8155	
I	74184A 74185 74186	90p 120p 500p	74LS378 74LS390 74LS393	70p 55p 50p	DS8836 DS8838 MC1488	150p 225p 65p	TIL212 Y TIL216 R	ed	25p 18p	NSB TIL3	11	30p 570p 600p 110p	8205 8212 8216	
١	74188 74190 74191 74192	325p 70p 70p 70p	74LS399 74LS540 74LS541	135p 135p	MC1489 MC3446 MC3480	65p 300p 850p	DISPLAY 3015F DL704 DL707 R		200p 140p 140p	TIL3: TIL3: 7750	21/2 30	130p 140p 200p	8224 8226 8228	
١	74193 74194 74195	70p 70p 60p	74LS670	170p	25S10 75107 58174	350p 160p €12	FND357 FND500 FND507	eu	120p 110p 110p	DRIV 9368	/ERS	250p	8251 8253 8255	
	74196 74197 74198	60p 60p 100p	4000 SEF 4000 4001	12p 14p	75107 75110 75114 75150	160p 160p 160p 140p	MAN364 MAN464		175p 200p		6118 6184	300p 320p 320p	8257 8259 8279	
ı	74199 74221 74251	100p 75 70p	4002 4006 4007	16p 65p 16p	75154 75182 75324	150p 230p 375p							PROGRAMN	
	74278 74279 74283 74284	150p 80p 75p 200p	4008 4009 4010 4011	60p 35p 40p 14p	75361 75363 75365	150p 150p 150p	debug	g/ver	ify and	then co	ommit t OMS, £	hem to	EPROM.	
	74285 74290 74293	200p 100p 100p	4012 4013 4014	16p 35p 60p	75451/2 75491/2 8T26 8T28	72p 70p 120p 140p	A term						ION PCI	
	74298 74365 74366	100p 55p 55p	4015 4016 4017	60p 30p 45p	8795 8797 81LS95	140p 140p 140p 90p	Superbo EPROM	ard. (socke	Compacets for 2	t memo	32 or 25	nsion Pi 32 EPR	N ATOM, UI CB. 8K RAM (2 OMS. Alterna	2114 tivel
	74367 74368 74390	55p 55p 100p	4018 4019 4020	60p 32p 60p	81LS96 81LS97 81LS98	140p 90p 140p	Sockets of	can b	e used toles. Fu	or 2K s	static RA oded an	MS giv	ring further 8K ered lay-out. F £12.50.	of
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200KHz 370p 10MHz 320p 1.00MHz 320p 2.45760MHz 250p 2.45760MHz 250p 2.7576MHz 175p 2.50 2.76MHz 2.50p 2.76MHz 2.50p 2.76MHz 2.50p 2.76MHz 2.50p 2.76MHz 2.50p 4.19MMtz 2.50p 6.144MMtz 3.00p 5.55MMtz 3.00p	RO 3 25 SN74S2 KEYBOA ENCODI AY-5-23	13 L C 262AN ARD ER 76	700 £1	
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700p 225p 350p 650p 650p

750p £16 450p 370p 500p 1260p 450p 550p 1000p £20 370p 500p

500p 300p 400p 600p 600p

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BFR80 BFR81

BFR81 BFX29 BFX30 BFX84/5 BFX86/7 BFX88 BFY50 BFY51/2 BFY51/2 BFY51/2 BFY90 BRY39 BSX19/20

2N3902 700p		PLASTIC
2N3903/4 18p 2N3905/6 20p	DIODES	3A 400V 60p
2N4037 65p	BY127 12p	6A 400V 70p 6A 500V 88p
2N4061/2 18p	BYX36-300 20p OA47 9p	8A 400V 75p
[2N4123/4 27p	OA81 15p	8A 500V 95p
2N4125/6 27p 2N4401/3 27p	OA85 15p	12A 400V 85p
2N4427 90p	OA90 9p	12A 500V 105p 16A 400V 110p
2N4871 60p	OA91 9p OA95 9p	16A 400V 110p 16A 500V 130p
2N5087 27p	OA200 9p	12B00D 130p
2N5089 27p	OA202 10p	
2N5172 27p 2N5191 90p	1N914 4p	THE TORC
2N5194 90p	1N916 7p 1N4148 4p	THYRISTORS 1A 50V 70p
2N5245 40p	1N4001/2 5p	1A 400V 90p
2N5296 55p	1N4003/4 6p	3A 400V 100p
2N5401 50p 2N5457/8 40p	1N4005 6p	8A 600V 140p
2N5459 40p	1N4006/7 7p	12A 400V 160p 16A 100V 160p
2N5460 60p	1N5401/3 14p 1N5404/7 19p	16A 400V 180p
2N5485 44p	IS920 9p	BT106 110p
2N5875 250p		C106D 40p
2N6027 48p 2N6041 160p	HEATSINKS	MCR101 36p TIC44 27p
2N6041 160p	For TO220 Volt	TIC44 27p 2N3525 130p
2N6052 300p	age Regs and transistors 22p	2N4444 140p
2N6059 325p	For TO5 12p	2N5060 34p
2N6107 65p	101.100	2N5064 40p
2N6247 190p 2N6254 130p	BRIDGE	7
2N6290 65p	RECTIFIERS	LOUD.
2N6292 65p	1A 50V 19p	SPEAKERS
2SC1172 150p 2SC1306 150p	1A 100V 20p 1A 400V 25p	Size
2SC1306 150p	1A 600V 30p	2 ¹ 2 64R 80p 2 ¹ 2 8R 80p
2SC1307 250p 2SC1307 250p 2SC1957 90p 2SC1969 200p 2SC2028 120p 2SC2029 250p	2A 50V 30p	2 8R 90p
2SC1969 200p	2A 100V 35p	112 BR 100p
2SC2028 120p	2A 400V 45p	
2SC2029 250p	3A 200V 60p 3A 600V 72p	MODULATORS
2SC2078 200p 3N128 120p	4A 100V 95p	6MHz UHF 375p
3N140 120p	4A 400V 100p	BMHz UHF 450p
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3N140 120p LOW PROFILE DIL S 8 pin 9p 18 pin 14 pin 10p 20 pin 16 pin 11p 22 pin WIRE WRAP SOCKE 8 pin 25p 18 pin	OCKETS BY TEXAS 1 16p 24 pin 24p 1 18p 28 pin 26p 22p 40 pin 30p	SMMz UNF 450p ZERO INSERTION FORCE SKT 24 pin £6 HEADER PLUGS 14 pin 40p 16 pin 50p 16 pin 50p 12 4 pin 90p
3N140 120p LOW PROFILE DIL S 8 pin 9p 18 pin 14 pin 10p 20 pin 16 pin 11p 22 pin WIRE WRAP SOCKE 8 pin 25p 18 pin 14 pin 35p 20 pin 16 pin 40p 22 pin	OCKETS BY TEXAS 16p 24 pin 25 pin 25 pin 25 pin 25 pin 25 pin 26 pin 26 pin 30	SZERO INSERTION FORCE SKT 24 pin £6 HEADER PLUGS 16 pin 50p 16 pin 50p 24 pin 90p 40 pin 250p
3N140 120p LOW PROFILE DILS. 8 pin 9p 18 pin 14 pin 10p 20 pin 16 pin 11p 22 pin WIRE WRAP SOCKE 8 pin 25p 18 pin 14 pin 35p 20 pin 16 pin 40p 22 pin COUNTERS	4A 400V 100p OCKETS BY TEXNS 16p 24 pin 24p 18p 28 pin 26p 22p 40 pin 30p TS BY TEXAS 50p 24 pin 70 60p 28 pin 80 65p 40 pin 100 TTL & ECL	BMML UHF 450p
3N140 120p LOW PROFILE DIL S 8 pin 9p 18 pin 14 pin 10p 20 pin 16 pin 11p 22 pin WIRE WRAP SOCKE 8 pin 25p 18 pin 14 pin 35p 20 pin 16 pin 40p 22 pin COUNTERS 74C925 550p	4A 400V 100p OCKETS BY TEXAS 16p 24 pin 24p 18p 28 pin 26p 12p 40 pin 30p TS BY TEXAS 50p 24 pin 70 60p 28 pin 80 65p 40 pin 100 TTL & ECL MC4024	BMML UHF 450p
3N140 120p LOW PROFILE DILS. 8 pin 9p 18 pin 14 pin 10p 20 pin 16 pin 11p 22 pin WIRE WRAP SOCKE 8 pin 25p 18 pin 14 pin 35p 20 pin 16 pin 40p 22 pin COUNTERS	4A 400V 100p OCKETS BY TEXPS 16p 24 pin 24p 18p 28 pin 26p 22p 40 pin 30p TS BY TEXAS 50p 24 pin 70 60p 28 pin 80 65p 40 pin 100 TTL & ECL MC4024 325p	BMML UHF 450p
3N140 120p LOW PROFILE DIL S B pin 9p 18 pin 14 pin 10p 20 pin 16 pin 11p 22 pin 16 pin 11p 22 pin 14 pin 35p 20 pin 16 pin 40p 22 pin COUNTERS 74C925 550p 74C928 600p	4A 400V 100p OCKETS BY TEXAS 16p 24 pin 24p 18p 28 pin 26p 22p 40 pin 30p TS BY TEXAS 50p 24 pin 100 60p 28 pin 80 65p 40 pin 100 TTL & ECL MC4024 325p MC4044	BMML UHF 450p
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TIP30A TIP30C TIP31A TIP31C TIP32A

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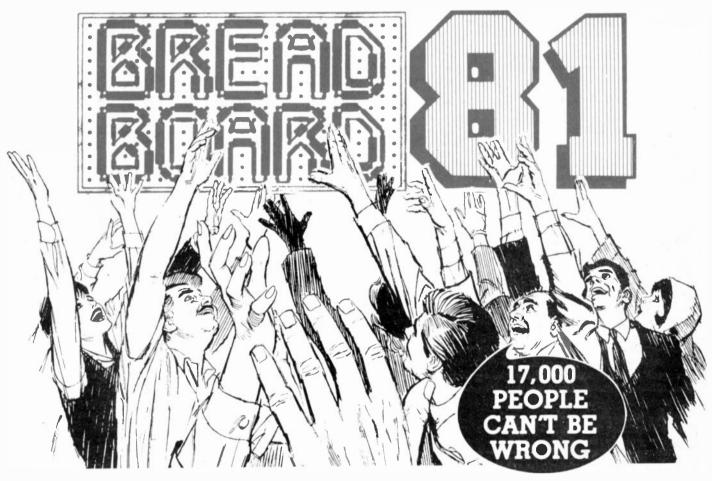
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Glever Dick

Just back from his summer holidays, Dick answers your queries

LAST MONTH I started with a long letter: I'll go to the other extreme this month.

Dear CD, Do Ionisers work? Will you publish a circuit? Can I have a binder? Richard Payne, Coleme, Wiltshire

Answers: Yes. No. No.

Our thanks, by the way, to Colin Ashman in Suffolk, Christopher Bowman in Kent and James Mercer in Glasgow, who all said that they would like to correspond with Peter Degerlund in Finland. I'll pass your details on to him.

The next writer appears to be OK for formers but stuck for cores — if you follow what I mean.

Dear Intelligent Richard,
Can you tell me of anywhere that I
could get some 5 mm coil formers, and
suitable cores for 28 MHz AM working.
Also screening can to suit. I've had no
problems finding the formers and cans
(thanks to Electrovalue) but I can't find
the cores anywhere.
A. Docherty, 12 years
Brentwood, Essex.

We got on the line to Watford Electronics for this one. Watford supplies Neosid coil 'kits' comprising cans (13 mm by 13 mm by 14 mm high), formers and cores (about 4 mm diameter). These are sold together under the code number 722/1, for 36p. (You'll find Watford Electronics' address on page 9 of this issue.)

Help to Eton College is offered by the University of East Anglia in the next letter.

Dear Clever (or not quite so?...) Dick. Reference your column, September '81, and the Correspondence from Eton College, a Mr. Dick Gibbons, which poses the question as to the source of 3.5 mm stereo jacks and sockets. These can be obtained from Farnell Electronic Components, Canal Road, Leeds. Indeed, in their latest catalogue, there are listed two types of plug and a socket, all three pole (stereo) and 3.5 mm gauge.

I hope this information is of some use to Mr. Dick Gibbons, for we institutions of learning have to stick together!

R.M. Ames, Technician University of East Anglia, Norwich.

PS. How about a binder, talking of togetherness!?

PPS. I have no connection with the above company, other than satisfactory trading relations.

Similar help from William Leung in Essex:

Dear CD.

I would like to comment on your reply towards Dick Gibbon's letter: "Rubbish!".

Have you ever tried Maplin? They supply a STEREO 3.5 mm jack plug for 25 pence (code HF98G). William Leung, Harlow, Essex.

PS. For me being so helpful, how about sending something in return? (hint!)

Richard Smedley in Montgomery, Powys supplied the same information as William Leung but added: '...an inline socket is available from Ross Electronics (No. RE-207) as part of an adaptor from a ¼ " jack plug, priced 75p'.

75p'.
William gets the binder because his letter arrived here first.

The on-going saga, starting with Ben Chaston's letter in the July '81 issue, goes on. (See last month's suggestion under CD from F.R. Maher.) We were looking for the shortest letter that could still make sense. Try this one for size:

Dear CD, Y? A.J. Shave, Bournemouth.

We'll give you one more issue before the winning entry is declared.

Dear CD,
Looking back through old issues I
noticed that there was a short wave
radio in March '79 with ranges from
0.5 to 30 MHz (I'm a CB fan). I built
the project but to my dismay found an
extra hole in my PCB where an aerial
should be connected. I could find no
description of this aerial so could you
please advise.
A.J. Shave,
Bournemouth.

(Just a minute, what a coincidence: there must be two A.J. Shaves in Bournemouth.)

I tried this question out on the HE Team of Technical Experts. Silence at first but then one of them woke up. His advice was simply: 'Use a long length of wire!' (How long is a piece of string?)



Dear CD, BREAK GLASS

My purchase of HE September '81 is my first ever step into the fascinating world of Electronics, as I have only just begun to be interested in this subject. I find the magazine very interesting and am planning to purchase several of the advertised items.

I am 16 years of age, extending my education and am contemplating the idea of studying electronics in the near future.

I have a problem — I don't have sufficient money (but who does) and am surprised and gratified at some of the incredibly low prices in HE. N. Ghedda, London SW9.

PS. I am wondering if you would be able to send me a ''project'' for a MW & FM radio-receiver?

Funny you should say that - I've got the same problem: I don't have sufficient money either.

An AM receiver? (See the Short Wave Receiver project in the September '81 issue (copies available from us at HE if your newsagent hasn't got one).

An FM receiver? You must mean a VHF receiver. If so, see this month's special projects supplement.

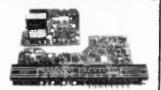
Final letter coming up, flavoured with Latin.

Dear Ingeniosus Dicius, Anything wrong with the GSR Monitor in June '79 edition of HE?? Gratias tibi ago, A. Richardson, Fareham, Hants.

I blew the dust off our '79 file, tracked down the GSR Monitor on page 8 of the June '79 issue but could find nothing wrong. (This project helps you to relax scientifically by monitoring your galvanic skin response.)

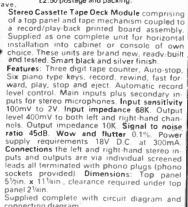
Stay lucky till the next issues. Finis for now.

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Dictation Machines

Dictation machines are not just boring items of office equipment — without their development through the years, hi-fi records and cassette players would not exist. Guest writer Ted Jennings traces the history of dictation machines from first beginnings to present-day use and casts his eye to the future

THOMAS EDISON FIRST saw the possibility of recording a voice onto a soft wax cylinder medium in the late 19th century. It was quickly recognised that such a system could enable a person to dictate some of the more mundane office material (such as letters, reports etc) in the absence of a secretary or typist—the material could later be transcribed when a typist was available. Of course, once the cylinder had been recorded it was permanent, and had either to be filed for future reference or thrown away. (Actually, there was one method of erasing the cylinder for re-use—the typist, having completed the transcription, could put the cylinder onto a lathe-like machine and shave it clean!)

Although the prime use of dictation machines, in the early part of the 20th century, was in the office, manufacturers were quick to realise the potential of pre-recording music for the domestic market. Consequently a great deal of research was undertaken which culminated in a flat disc of hard material (the forerunner of modern records) which was suitable for recording music. Some readers will, no doubt, remember the playing equipment of the time — a gramophone with a winding handle and a large speaking

The Birth Of Magnetic Tape

At this stage in the development of recording equipment, the market remained unchanged for a few decades. It was the possibility of a world war in the 1930s that spurred further research and development with the result that the first magnetic tapes were developed. This obviously created a new appraisal of recording media on the domestic and dictation machine market, with manufacturers such as Grundig and Philips (see Fig.1) pressing forward with their development of magnetic tape recording, while others like Dictaphone continued with the concept of cutting their own recordings onto a wax sleeve that was now thin and flexible.

It became clear in the period up to the early 1960s that magnetic tape was likely to be the medium which would eventually be adopted in the home and office. (Unlike other recording media tape can be easily re-used many times.) All manufacturers were pressing hard with the aim of becoming leaders in this field. Grundig and Philips were using a reel-to-reel principle on their dictation equipment and had started to manufacture their first transistorised machines. This transistorised equipment gave an inkling of the revolution in miniaturisation that was to follow.

One of the amazing anomalies of the 1960s was that Philips developed the compact cassette which became the set standard on the domestic market, but in the dictation machine market all the large manufacturers were each using their own media. The compact cassette — being small — opened up another market of pre-recorded music as occurred earlier with the record or disc. However, the main object of dictation machine manufacturers at this time was to provide facilities to make the typist's job easier.

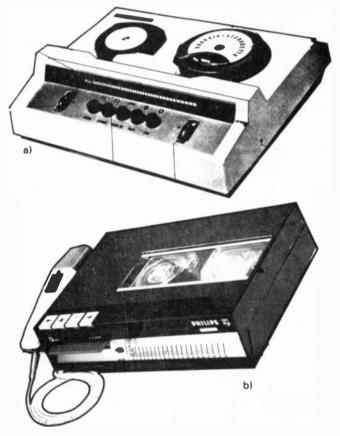


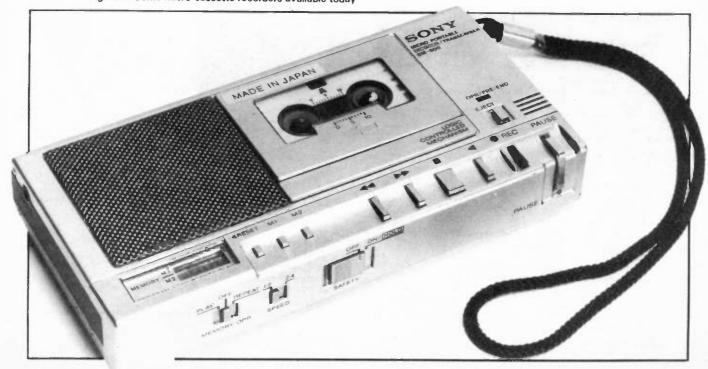
Figure 1. Reel-to-reel dictation machines produced by (a) Grundig and (b) Philips

These included remote control (that is, a remote microphone which controls the functions of record, playback, start and back space), also a foot control and headphones that could be plugged in therefore leaving the typist's hands free. No effort was put into improving sound quality as this was considered unnecessary

During the 1960s most manufacturers placed greater emphasis on the domestic market and the production of quality sound machines, eventually leading to stereo and hi-fi equipment. However, Philips did not lose sight of the dictation machine market and by the end of this period had developed the



Figure 2. Some micro-cassette recorders available today



first mini-cassette machine - the Philips 85 - because it recognised the need for absolute portability. This machine opened up the possibility for recording while out of the office.

During the early 1970s Philips dominated over 60% of the dictation machine market. This domination was mainly the result of the proven reliability of the Philips 84 desk machine and the poularity of the mini-cassette machines. Philips also produced a mini-cassette adaptor for the desk machines so that minicassettes could be transcribed in the office without the need for two machines to transcribe two different types of tape media. Grundig held the second largest portion of the market with its machine, the Grundig Stenorette L, which operated on the reelto-reel principle.

Move Towards Micro

Mini-cassette recorders have one main drawback: the reels within the cassette are rim driven, and so it is impossible to maintain a constant tape speed throughout the length of the tape. (This variation in speed can become apparent when a rim-driven cassette is transferred from one machine to another.) Because of this drawback and because the sound quality of some of the early machines was not particularly high, manufacturers began to look at ways of improving the overall quality of 'mini' cassette equipment. A breakthrough was made — in 1974 by Olympus the camera people — with the first micro-cassette machine, although at first the significance of this went unrecognised.

What Is A Micro-cassette?

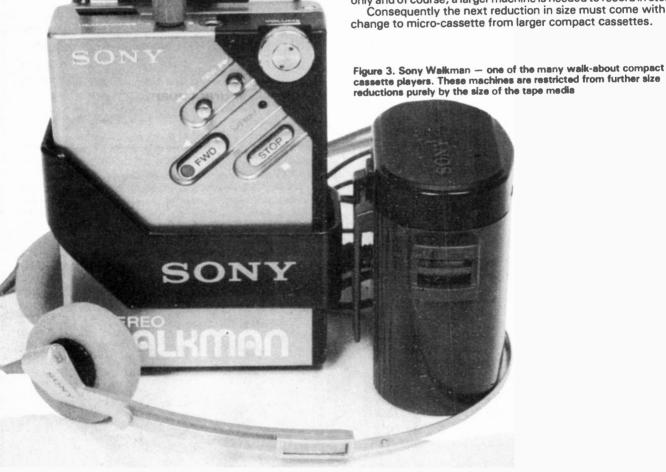
Readers of the March issue of HE will know what a microcassette is - it is the smallest tape medium and an MC-60 micro-cassette will run for 1 hour at 2.4 cm per second, although many machines are dual speed and an MC-60 will run for 2 hours at 1.2 cm per second. The Olympus machine (Pearlcorder) was extremely small but it was considered at the time that the micro-cassette would have no significant influence on the domestic market because it would be impossible for tapes of this size to match the stereo or high fidelity standards. (How wrong preconceived ideas can be in this technological world!)

ple to produce constant speed (this was the proven form of drive used on all domestic cassette machines) but because microcassette recorders are pocket-sized (see Fig.2) they were considered to be fun machines rather than useful equipment.

At the end of the 1970s, Sony UK Limited decided the time was right to market two ranges of dictation machines, one using the standard compact cassette, and one using the microcassette. The high quality and reliability of the compact cassette machines (BM40 and B45) is comparable with that of other products from Sony and these machines were designed to bridge a gap until the general public because aware of the micro-cassette revolution. Also the BM45 compact cassette has a microcassette adaptor allowing the machine to play both tape media. Olympus had already increased its range of products although most of its machines fell between the domestic and the dictation machine markets. Also Sanyo, Mitsubishi and most other associated Japanese companies were making steady progress with micro-cassette dictation products.

Over the last decade portability has become part of life and from such machines as the Philips 85 we have seen great developments on the domestic front with stereo compact cassette machines that are only slightly larger than the compact cassette itself (for example, the Sony Walkman - see Fig.3.) These walk-about stereo machines are without doubt of superb quality and unenvisaged 10 years ago, but they are for playback only and of course, a larger machine is needed to record in stereo.

Consequently the next reduction in size must come with the change to micro-cassette from larger compact cassettes.



cassette players. These machines are restricted from further size reductions purely by the size of the tape media

Dictation Machines

With the dictation machine market very successfully priming the public with micro-cassettes, it only needed some development on the domestic market to make the micro-cassette the new international standard cassette. This year we have already seen some domestic micro-cassette machines with a very favourable response from the public, one of the most recent of these being the AlWA CS-M1 (featured in Monitor in the September issue of HE and in the Gadgets, Games & Kits supplement of the October issue). (See also Fig.4.) These portable micro-cassette machines herald only the beginning of the next generation of tape playing equipment — they will be followed in

the next year or two by micro-cassette machines for in-car use and finally high-quality mains machines for the home.

What Next?

The micro-cassette will probably be the last tape media used for recording. Already there is electronic equipment which 'talks' from a digital memory — it is only a question of time before selected storage of music or voice on plug-in microchips becomes possible.

How long? Dare I give an estimate of less than 10 years?





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If you want to make music — cheap, cheap music — this Quick Project is for you. For about a fiver you can build yourself a simple stylus organ

This easy-to-build project uses two 555 timers in conventional astable oscillator circuits.

Integrated circuit IC2 is an audio frequency oscillator. Its frequency is primarily controlled by the resistance between pins 2 and 7. Thus the setting of presets RV4-11 control the oscillator frequency and by touching a stylus (connected via limiting resistor R5 to pin 2), to each preset, different notes can be played.

Integrated circuit IC1 is a low frequency oscillator (running at approximately 3-10 Hz), the frequency of which is variable by RV1. The output of this oscillator is connected through depth control RV2 and limiting resistor R3 to the voltage control input (pin 5) of the audio frequency oscillator. A vibrato effect occurs.

Figure 2 gives details on how to build and wire up your project. We leave probe and keyboard details up to the builder — we used an old multimeter prod for a probe, and a piece of Veroboard into which the presets were positioned as the keyboard, but readers may like to use their own ingenuity at this stage.

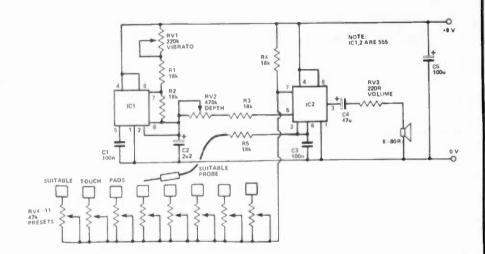


Figure 1. Circuit of Simple Stylus Organ

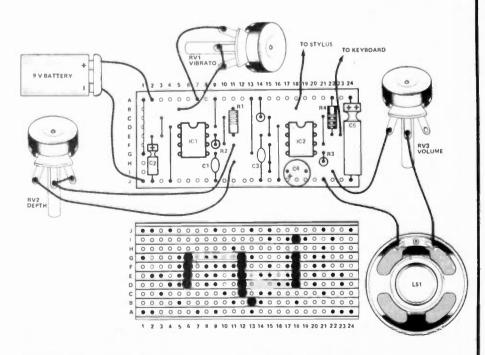
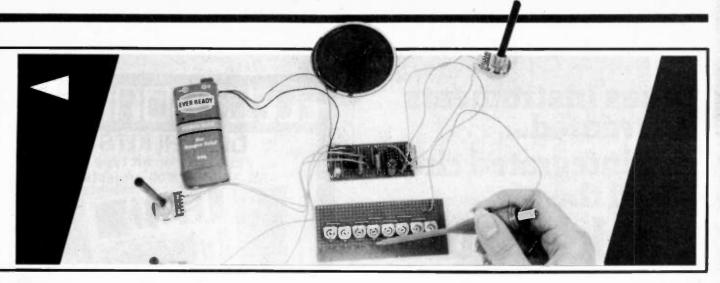


Figure 2. Veroboard layout, connection details and underside track break positions of the project



Touch Lamp Update

Readers may recall that in the HE Touch Lamp project of last month's issue, we stated that the How It Works section of the article would be printed in this November issue of HE

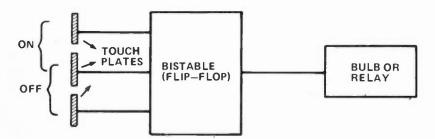
How It Works

The HE Touch Lamp circuit consists of a simple bistable. A common name for a bistable is a flip-flop, and this helps to explain the action of the circuit.

When the top two touch plates (the ON plates) are touched, the bistable is turned on and its output voltage goes positive (ie, it 'flips') and stays in this state.

When the lower two touch plates (the OFF plates) are touched, the bistable is turned on and its output voltage goes to zero (ie, it 'flops').

The output of the flip-flop is used to turn a bulb or a relay on and off.



The full circuit diagram is shown in Fig.1 on page 51 of last month's HE. When power is first applied, the circuit takes up a state where transistor Q1 is biased into conduction by way of the load and resistor R1. This gives practically O V at the drain terminal of Q1, and transistor Q2 is therefore cut off as it receives no significant bias voltage via resistor R4. Both transistors are VMOS types and are therefore voltage operated - unlike ordinary bipolar devices which are current operated.

If the two 'ON' touch contacts are activated, the skin resistance of the operator is placed between Q2's gate and the positive supply rail. Although this resistance is almost certain to be very high, the high input impedance at Q2's gate ensures that the gate of Q2 is taken a few volts positive so that Q2 is biased into conduction. The load is therefore switched on.

Transistor Q2's drain terminal is now at a very low potential, and is further reduced by the voltage divider action of resistors R1 and R2 so that Q1 now becomes

switched off. The voltage at the drain terminal of Q1 thus rises to virtually the full positive rail voltage, and Q2 will be biased into conduction by way of R4 when the operator's finger is removed from the touch contacts. This latches the circuit in the 'ON' state.

The circuit can be returned to the 'OFF' condition by touching the two 'OFF' contacts. This places the skin resistance between the positive rail and Q1's gate so that Q1 is biased into conduction. Its drain voltage falls back to almost zero so that Q2 and the lamp are both switched off. Transistor Q2's drain voltage rises to almost the full positive supply voltage again so that Q1 is latched in the on state as a result of the bias voltage received via R1. Thus the circuit stays in this state with the lamp switched off when the touch contacts are no longer operated.

The circuit can obviously be triggered from one state to the other indefinitely by operating the appropriate pair of touch contacts, and capacitors C1 and C2 are used to filter out any electrical noise which could otherwise produce spurious operations.

VMOS devices require no significant input current and will work at very low drain currents. This makes possible a circuit having a low stand-by current: the quiescent current consumption of this circuit is typically only about 1 uA.

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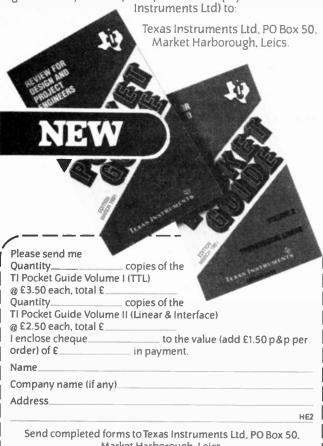
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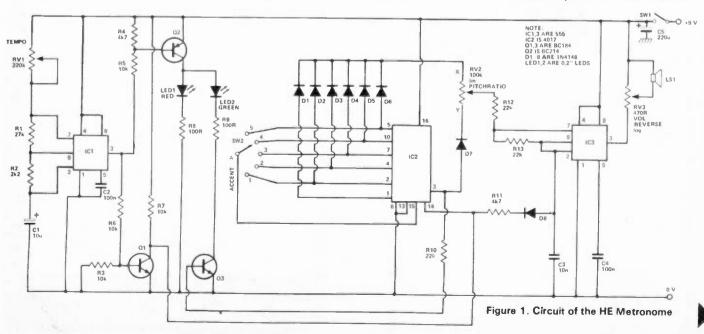


Although the clockwork pendulum type of metronome has been around for many decades, we reckon that it is about time (pun intended) to replace it with a modern electronic counterpart

IF YOU PLAY a musical instrument, especially if you're a beginner, then a metronome can be a valuable aid to help you keep in the correct time.

Clockwork varieties of metronome are fine, but they can only keep a basic rhythm — the musician still has to keep a count of the beats in a bar. The HE

Metronome, however, apart from keeping basic rhythm, can also play accented rhythms in 2/4, 3/4, 4/4 and 5/4 times. The pitch of the accent and



Project

main beat are fully variable, and beat rates of 50 to 240 beats per minute can be obtained.

As well as audible indication of time there is a visible indication supplied by two flashing LEDs - a red LED for main beat and a green LED for accented beat. Thus if you turn the volume right down so that no sound can be heard over the music, the musician can still keep good time with the help of the flashing LED beat indication.

Construction

Carefully following the details shown in Fig.3 make all necessary track breaks in the copper track side of the board. Use a Veroboard cutting tool:

Buylines

Magenta Electronics has produced a full kit of parts for the HE Metronome, the price of which is £11.88. Please add 40p to cover p&p.

Parts List

RESISTORS (All 1/4 W, 5%) R1 27k 2k2 R2 R3,5,6,7 10k R4,11 4k7 R 8,9 100R R10, 12,13 22k

POTENTIOMETERS

RV₁ 220k linear potentiometer with doublepole, double-throw switch (SW1) RV2 100k linear potentiometer

470R antilog poten-RV3 tiometer

CAPACITORS

10u, 16 V tantalum C1 C2,4 100n polyester C3 10n polyester 220u, 16 V elec-C5 trolytic

SEMICONDUCTORS

IC1,3 555 timer IC2 4017 decade counter 1N4148 diode D1-8 0.2" red LED + clip LED1 0.2" green LED + LED2 BC184 NPN tran-Q1,3 02 BC214 PNP tran-

MISCELLANEOUS

2-pole, 6-way rotary SW₂ switch

75R loudspeaker Veroboard, 24 strip x 50 hole PP3-sized battery + clip Knobs and case to suit

alternatively a small (about 1/6") handheld drill bit can be used for this job.

Insert and solder all low-level components first, eg, resistors and diodes, in the positions shown in Fig.2. Fit links where indicated.

Next insert and solder capacitors followed by the remaining semiconductors.

Push in and solder circuit board pins where all off-board connections are to be made.

Now mark and drill the case to fit the three potentiometers, the switch and two LEDs.

Mark and drill a matrix of holes to form a grille for the loudspeaker. Glue the loudspeaker to the inside of the case using contact adhesive, but make sure you get no glue on the loudspeaker cone.

Fit the controls and LEDs to their correct places and then wire up your project as Fig. 2 shows.

How It Works

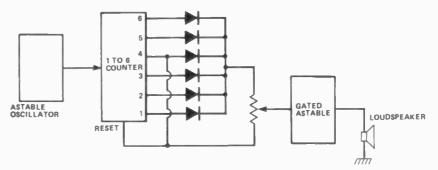
An astable oscillator provides clock pulses for a 1 to 6 counter. On every positive pulse from the astable, the counter moves on to its next state, eg, 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 etc.

In our example output 4 of the counter is connected to the reset input so that whenever output 4 goes high the counter

immediately resets to state 1.

The counter outputs of all six states are connected to one end of the potentiometer, but the state 4 output is also connected to the other end of the potentiometer. The frequency of the 'bleep' thus changes on the reset pulse. Varying the position of the potentiometer wiper alters the frequency difference between the reset and the other states.

Integrated circuit IC1 is a 555 operating in a familiar astable configuration. It generates a train of short negative clock pulses from pin 3. The frequency of these pulses is variable from about 50 to 240 beats per minute by adjusting potentiometer RV1. Transistor Q1 converts the negative clock pulses to positive ones which are then fed to the clock input of IC2.



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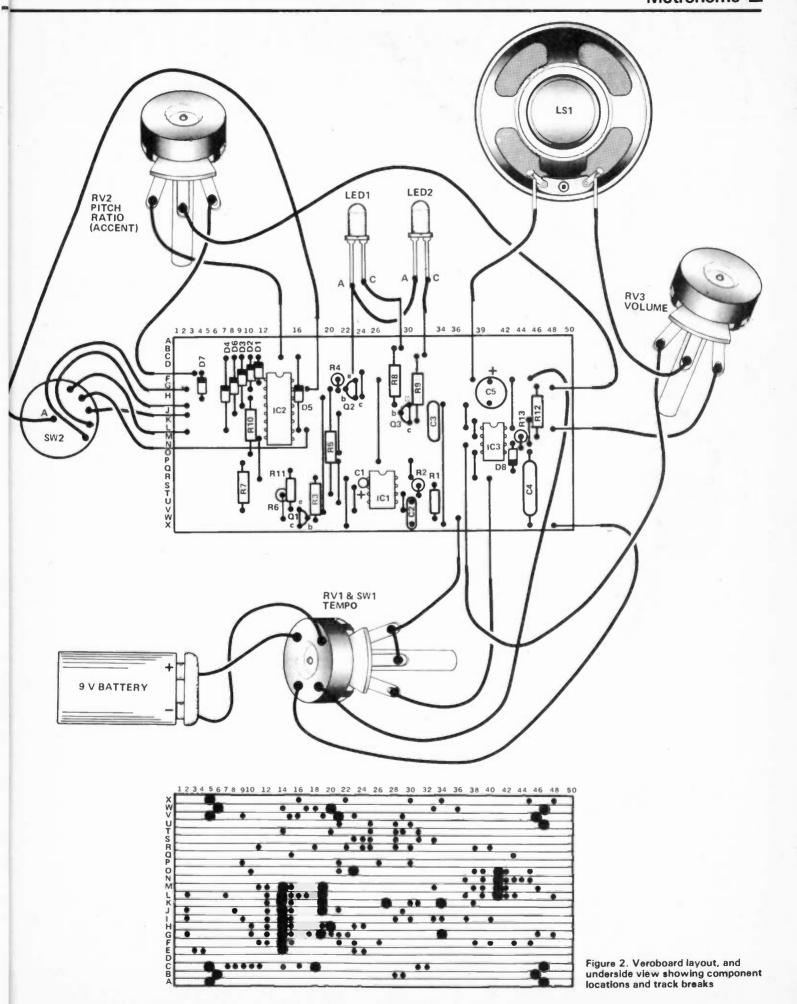
Switch SW2 allows the IC2 reset pin to be connected to one of its own outputs. These outputs are selected so that the IC will reset after 1,2,3,4 or 5 pulses.

Another 555 astable oscillator is used as IC3. It drives the loudspeaker via the volume control RV3. It can only oscillate

when the voltage at pin 7 is taken high through R12 and RV2. The frequency of oscillation depends on the setting of RV2 and whether the high voltage is derived from D7 or D1-6.

Integrated circuit IC3 is also gated by the voltage derived from D8 and R11 which clamps pins 2 and 6 to 0 V except during the brief clock pulses. This produces a short 'bleep' of sound on each

Light emitting diode LED1 is driven from IC1 and Q2, and flashes on every beat. Light emitting diode LED2 only flashes during the accented beat when Q3 is turned on by the first output of IC2.



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HY30	15w 4 8t2	0.015%	- 0 006%	-18-20	76:68:40	240	£7.29	£1 09					
HY60	30w 4 812	0.015%	~0.006%	-25-30	76+68+40	240	€0.33	£1 25					
HY120	60w 4 892	0.01%	<0.006%	- 35 - 40	120:78:40	410	£17.48	£2 62	HY120P	120+26+40	215	£15.50	€2 33
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HY400	240w 412	0.01%	<0.006%	-45 - 50	120 = 78 = 100	1025	£31 83	[4 77	HY400P	120=26=70	375	€28.33	£42

Protection: Load line momentary short circuit (typically 10 sec). Siew rate: 15V µs. Rise tillie: 5µs. S.N. ratio: 100db. Frequency response i: 3dBi: 15Hi: 50kHi: Input sensitivity 500mV rms Input impedance 100kΩ Damping factor (81: 100Hz -400

HEAV	Y DUTY	with h	eatsinks							Without h	eatsir	nks	
HD120	60w 4 812	0.01%	<0.006%	-35-40	120×78×50	515	€22.48	£3 37	HÖ 120P	120=26=50	265	£19.84	€2 98
HD200	120w 4 852	0.01%	<0.006%	-45-50	120×78×60	620	€27.38	€4.11	H0200F	120:26:50	265	£23.63	1354
HD400	240w 452	0.01%	<0.006%	•45 • 50	120×78×100	1025	£38.63	£5 79	H0400P	120:26:70	375	€34 28	£5 14

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M05200	120w 4 8Ω	<0.005%	<0.006%	-55-60	120×78×80	850	£33.46	£5 02	MOS200P	120 ± 26 ± 80	420	£28.53	£4 28
M0S400	240w/452	<0.005%	<0.006%	-55 -60	120 = 78 = 100	1025	£45.39	£6.81	M0S400P	120 = 26 = 100	525	£38.91	[5 84

Protection: Able to cope with complex loads, without the need for yery special protection circuitry ituses will suffice

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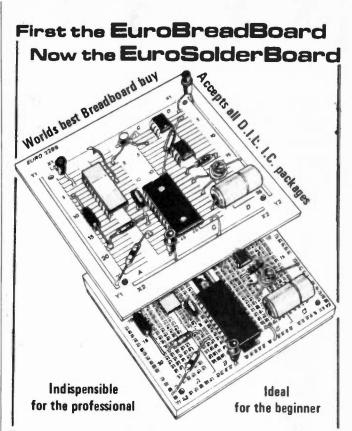
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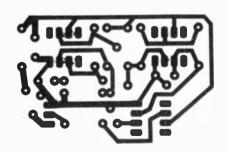
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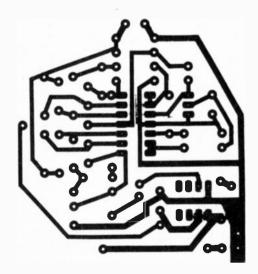
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