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what was to be an embassy and private residence into the most sophisticated recording studio the world had ever known. The building had to be torn down in order to remove all the bugs.

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The open taps from where the information pours out may be from FAX's, computer communications, telephone calls, and everyday business meetings and lunchtime encounters. Businessmen need counselling on how to eliminate this information drain. Basic telephone use coupled with the user's understanding that someone may be listening or recording vital data and information greatly reduces the opportunity for others to purloin meaningful information.

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The professional discussions seen on the TV screen in your home reveals how to detect and disable wiretaps, midget radio-frequency transmitters, and other bugs, plus when to use disinformation to confuse the unwanted listener, and the technique of voice scrambling telephone communications. In fact, do you know how to look for a bug, where to look for a bug, and what to do when you find it?

Bugs of a very small size are easy to build and they can be placed quickly in a matter of seconds, in any object or room. Today you may have used a telephone handset that was bugged. It probably contained three bugs. One was a phony bug to fool you into believing you found a bug and secured the telephone. The second bug placates the investigator when he finds the real thing! And the third bug is found only by the professional, who continued to search just in case there were more bugs.

The professional is not without his tools. Special equipment has been designed so that the professional can sweep a room so that he can detect voice-activated (VOX) and remote-activated bugs. Some of this equipment can be operated by novices, others require a trained countersurveillance professional.

The professionals viewed on your television screen reveal information on the latest technological advances like laserbeam snoopers that are installed hundreds of feet away from the room they snoop on. The professionals disclose that computers yield information too easily.

This advertisement was not written by a countersurveillance professional, but by a beginner whose only experience came from viewing the video tape in the privacy of his home. After you review the video carefully and understand its contents, you have taken the first important step in either acquiring professional help with your surveillance problems, or you may very well consider a career as a countersurveillance professional.

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To obtain the information contained in the video VHS cassette, you would attend a professional seminar costing \$350-750 and possibly pay hundreds of dollars more if you had to travel to a distant city to attend. Now, for only \$49.95 (plus \$4.00 P&H) you can view *Countersurveillance Techniques* at home and take refresher views often. To obtain your copy, complete the coupon below or call toll free.

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3

THE MAGAZINE FOR THE ELECTRONICS ACTIVIST!

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BUDGET ROBOTICS

Robots, the lifelike vision from our imagination, is the workman of our industry today, assembling consumer products as small as pocket radios and as large as automobiles!

By Robin J. Dunitz

Drawing courtesy of Nation Research Council of Canada

□HOBBYISTS AND EXPERIMENTERS ARE KEY PLAYERS IN today's infant robotics field. Current robots are still only pale shadows of such fictional heroes as *Star Wars'* C3PO or Robbie the Robot of *Forbidden Planet*. It only has been in the last few years that computer advances, especially the microprocessor, have made it possible to build a machine that is both programmable and mobile. While some very expensive, and mainly experimental, equipment does have advanced capabilities in fields such as vision and speech recognition, what is available to the hobbyist on a limited budget is not nearly so sophisticated.

At the same time, today's robots can be extremely valuable as a means to delve into the new and exciting field of robotics. Commercially sold kits, and even already-assembled robots, can introduce the novice to programming, or show the advanced programmer whole new applications. And problems like robot locomotion through the obstacle-filled home environment offer a real challenge, one that occupies commercial developers and garage tinkers alike. So, here, then, are some of the products available today for those anxious to be part of the future.

Industrial Robots

It is in factory settings that robots are finding their first practical applications. Such industrial machines more resemble metallic arms than the androids of science-fiction lore. Their mobility is generally limited to movements of one or more joints, and so far they are proving most useful at singletask operations like parts manipulation, welding, handling dangerous substances, and painting. Those robots can cost tens of thousands of dollars and up, and thus are not in the reach of hobbyists.

It is predicted that use of industrial robots in the United States will increase dramatically in the next several years. According to one report (by Prudential-Bache Securities and Daiwa Securities America), use of robots in American factories is expected to go from 8100 units in 1985 to 21,575 units (of all types) by 1990.

There are only a few low-cost robotic arms of possible interest to the experimenter. Armatron, currently distributed by Radio Shack, costs just \$31.95. It is battery-operated and controlled by two joysticks. The rubber-coated grippers can pick up, rotate, grip, move, and release. It is 14-inches tall at maximum arm extension. According to one-seventh grade science student in New Mexico, it is possible to make an interface to connect Armatron to a home computer. He spent only an added \$30, connecting six motors to control the robotic arm's six joints. Using wood as bearing blocks, he connected motor shafts to the robot's gears. He used transistors as switches to power the motors with 6-volt power supplies. A 4-bit word from his Commodore Vic-20's port is decoded into 12 lines of data. Two lines are used to give the forward and reverse commands to each motor.

For the less adventurous, it is also possible to obtain a commercially produced interface from Analog Micro Systems in Colorado.

Spectron Instrument of Denver, Colorado, sells two robotic arms. The first is called Robot I and is a two-axis articulated arm. Under computer control, it can simulate general material handling operations as done by industrial models. Motion is accurate to ± 1 inch. Reach is 7-inches square. The gripper can carry a one-ounce load. Robot I sells for \$125 in kit form, \$210 fully assembled and tested.

Robot I is also available with vision module, called VIS. Included is a photo sensor with a close-up lens, and illuminator LED's. VIS can view a .04 inch spot on a table, can resolve black—as well as 256 gray levels. Each arm position can generate a vision input of up to 64,000, although only a few points can be examined each second. Using an interface adaptor to a home computer, and the BASIC language, data is entered using PEEK commands. The combination Robot-VIS kit sells for \$160, fully assembled \$265 (\$200/330 with computer adaptor).

Robot IV is a four-axis articulated arm, which can grip small objects and manipulate them in three dimensions. It has a two-fingered gripper, having 180-degree rotation capability. The arm can cover an area about 6 inches by 6 inches, and can carry a one-ounce load. The servo-drive circuit requires at least four analog inputs for lateral motion, lift motion, radial motion, and gripper rotation, as well as a single digital input for gripper operation.

To connect Robot IV to a home computer, two interface boards are necessary. POKE commands into five separate address locations determine arm motions. Robot IV costs \$250 for the kit, \$415 assembled. The combination package, including sensors and computer adaptors, sells for \$400 as a kit, \$660 tested and assembled.

Spectron Instrument also sells a variety of vision and

automation kits separately, plus servo motor actuators and drive circuits. For more information contact them at 1342 W. Cedar Ave., Denver, CO 80223: (303) 744-7088.

Personal Robots—are they good for anything?

During April, 1984, more than 1000 robotics experimenters, exhibitors and other enthusiasts met in Albuquerque, New Mexico at the First International Personal Robot Congress and Exposition. Most people who spoke there seemed to agree that personal robots can't help much yet with housework, or cook dinner, or even get the newspaper—if there are any obstacles, like steps, in the way. Limited home security is one possible use for some of the more sophisticated types. Really, though, for the time being, one of the best applications for personal robots is as a tool for learning.

Robots are computers that move. Some of the biggest challenges facing the designers of home robots involve figuring out how such a machine can move effectively on different surfaces (for example, over carpet as well as linoleum), and how it might sense and react to such common obstacles as furniture, walls, doors, toys, and people.

In order to move and detect external interference, a robot must have sensors of some kind. Most commonly used are sonar, light, tactile, and to a lesser extent, heat. A robot might use one, all, or a combination of such sensors. How it responds to an obstacle, upon detection, depends on how it has been programmed.

Software is the key in robotics, just as it is for computers generally. Once certain minimal hardware requirements are met, how intelligent a robot actually behaves depends on its

Feature	Hero 1	Hero Jr.
CPU	8-bit 6808	8-bit 6808
Memory	RAM = 4K ROM = 8K	RAM = 8K ROM = 32K (built-in routines)
Program Language	Machine language	Full pre-programmed (English) RS-232 port + BASIC cartridge
Input Devices	Hexadecimal keypad Remote control pendant RF Cassette recorder (not incl.) via serial port	17-key keypad for modifying personality Extra cartridges available
Power Supply	Rechargeable gel batteries, including external charger	Batteries operate 4-6 hrs (incl. 2) plug-in wall charger included
Movement	3 wheels Front wheel has 12 in. turning radius	3 wheels Single articulated rear-drive wheel 12V DC motor plus stepper for steering
Sonar Sensor	2 sensors; determines range and direction of object between 4-in. and 8-ft.	Ultrasonic Polaroid transceiver works with motion detector judges distances between 4-in and 25-ft.
Photo Sensor	1 sensor detects whole visible spectrum	1 256-bit resolution sensor—adjustable range 25 degree reception angle
Sound Detector Sensor	1 sensor hears sounds from 300-5000 Hz.	1 sensor with 256-bit resolution adjustable range 200-5000 Hz.
Speech	Optional synthesizer, 4 pitch levels Votrax, with 64 phonemes	Standard, 4 pitch levels Votrax, with 64 phonemes
Arm	Optional; includes gripper 5 stepper motors, 5 axis of motion opens 3½ in.; can lift 1 pound when fully extended	None
Clock	Includes calendar-real*time	CMOS processor (Motorola 146818) 100-year calendar
Price	kit: \$799.95 assembled: \$2199.95 w/arm and voice	Not available About \$1000

COMPARISON OF HERO I AND HERO JR.



The Pipe-Mouse (above) and Turn Backer (right) are two Movit Kits you can build and operate in one day!

in demonstration ROM is available for Hero I. Speech capability is built into Hero-Jr, as he can sing songs, speak and play games. Several independent developers have produced add-on products for Hero I. It is expected that the same will soon be true for Hero-Jr, although more entertaining.

Commercial Kits that Teach Robotics

Movit kits are inexpensive, computerized (and logic-controlled), battery-operated robot kits. They are manufactured in Japan in two forms. They come either needing both the



electronics and mechanical parts assembled, or else with the electronics already soldered and in place. Movit kits have been distributed in the U.S., since Fall 1983, and there are now 11 kits available (see chart for descriptions). According to Bruce Sanchez, President of New Tech Promotions, their major independent West Coast distributor, Avoider and Memocon Crawler are the two most popular kits. His favorite is the newest kit, Circular. The 11 kits (so far) teach the fundamental principles of robotic sensing and locomotion.

One of the simplest, called Turn Backer, includes a small (*turn to page 30*)

Name	Movement	Control	Batteries Required (not included)	Price (mech. assy/mech +electronics)
Turn Backer	3 legs on each side-	sound sensor including condensor microphone	4—1.5-V "AA"	\$39.95
Piper-Mouse	3 wheels driven by 2 DC motors	super sonic sound sensor including condensor mike	2—1.5-V "AA" 1—9-V	\$44.95
Sound Skipper	2 alternatively moving legs driven by crank motion	sound sensor including condensor mike	2—1.5-V "N"	\$24.95
Рерру	3 wheels driven by 2 DC motors	2-way sensor, responds to sound and solid objects in path	2—1.5-V "AA"	\$24.95/\$18.95
Memocon Crawler	3 wheels driven by 2 DC motors	Memory/electronics circuit through keypad—4-bit static RAM	2—1.5-V "AA" 1—9-V	\$74.95/\$46.95
Avoider	3 legs on each side crank	Infrared sensor including infrared diode/photo diode/IC	4—1.5-V "AA" 1—9-V	\$44.95
Line Tracer II	3 wheels driven by 2 DC motors	Infrared sensor incl. infrared diode/photo diode/IC	2—1.5-V "AA" 1—9-V	\$39.95/\$28.95
Monkey	2 alternatively moving gripper arms driven by crank motion	sound sensor including condensor mike	2—1.5-V "N"	\$24.95
Mr. Bootsman	6 legs-2-speed movement	control box	2—1.5-V "AA"	\$30.95
Circular	2 large wheels	hand-held remote control box	3—1.5-V "AA" 2—9-V	\$67.95
Medusa	2 legs on each side crank	sound sensor including condensor mike	2—1.5-V "N"	\$27.95

MOVIT KITS

Updating the EXPERIMENTER'S SHOP

Today's budget test equipment and tools make your hobby fruitful!

By Herb Friedman

□IF YOU'VE BEEN KEEPING YOUR SHOP UP TO DATE WITH modern technology, it's more than likely you've been out shopping for new hand tools and test equipment. Those purchases are necessary to bring your shop into the digital era, to what some are calling the *age of computers*. And if you're like most experimenters, you probably thought you were having a nightmare when you read the price tags. The cost of both hand tools and test equipment now represents a substantial investment rather than pocket change or a few hours of overtime or a part-time job.

When this writer was starting out in hobby electronics, I purchased my test-bench tools and accessories as the urge struck. If I saw a particularly intriguing tool or gadget, I would generally buy it for pocket change, or a dollar or two at most, three dollars. Same thing occurred with test gear. If it struck my fancy, I could usually buy it then and there! And if the equipment I wanted couldn't be squeezed into the budget, I could generally buy it *used* at an electronics flea market for a fraction of its cost. Fortunately, upgrades to electronic circuits and hardware were few and far between, so the same test gear and tools could be used year after year.

Unfortunately, that is no longer true, because the tolerances of the modern sophisticated solid-state circuit is often several magnitudes greater than that of older test equipment: the coarse tolerances of the older test gear can often conceal a defect in modern equipment.

Also, modern circuit components are smaller, more delicate, and highly sensitive to static-voltage damage. A large tool can easily crush several perfectly good components; an oversize test probe can overlap solder contacts and zap a handful of integrated circuits, before you even know that you've done something wrong—and walking across a carpet just before you touch certain components can instantly destroy them.

As a general rule, modern circuits require both new tools and test equipment. While the cost of both are often astronomical—thereby foreclosing the casual or impulse pur-

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Radio Shack 22-189-\$49.95



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chase—it's still possible to equip the shop for modern technology without having to take out a second mortgage on the farm.

Analog

Even though the world is fast becoming all digital, there's still need for the old-fashioned analog VOM (the Volt-Ohm-Milliammeter)—the kind whose reading is displayed on a meter having several range scales.

Why buy an analog meter when, dollar-for-dollar, a digital display meter provides greater accuracy and convenience? Because, it's hard to track a varying voltage with a digital meter. The reading of a typical experimenter-quality digital meter is upgraded every 1.5 to 2.5 seconds. A transient circuit disturbance that self-clears almost the instant it occurs will rarely be displayed by a digital meter. However sophisticated the test-bench setup, you'll need an analog VOM when you have to track a varying value.

While the *legendary* Simpson 260 VOM is still available, the various models are priced from \$100 up. That is often not only beyond the budget of most experimenters—the VOM's performance is well beyond what's needed. If you have no need for the high-performance features of a Simpson 260, or its equivalent, you're probably better off opting for a digital meter and a very low-cost VOM for those times you'll need to track a varying value.

Low-cost VOM's start out at \$8, the price rising very slowly as features are added. All models will measure voltage with an acceptable degree of accuracy and convenience for *brute-force* tests, such as checking the voltage of a car battery, the powerline, or the output of a battery eliminator. Resistance measurements are what create problems for the lowest priced VOM's. They generally have only one resistance range, which jams low and high values into a teeny area at the ends of the scale. Accurate, or even useful readings, are possible over a somewhat limited range of resistance. About \$15 or \$20 will buy a VOM with several resistance ranges, providing a finer resolution of low and high resistance values.

Also, there's the question of *meter loading*. Except for the current measurements, VOM's represent a resistance connected in parallel with the circuit being tested. The least expensive VOM's generally represent 1000-ohms-per-volt sensitivity for the total range. If your meter is set for a full-scale range of 5 volts, the meter represents a resistance of 5×1000 or 5000 ohms. If the full-scale range is 15 volts, the meter represents a load of 15,000 ohms.

Obviously, if you're trying to read the collector-to-ground voltage of a transistor with a 10,000-ohm collector-load re-

The VIZ bench-top/carry digital multimeter WD-763 is an auto ranging device that sells for \$249.00.



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SPECIALIZED BUDGET TEST EQUIPMENT



sistor, the 15,000-ohm load of the VOM is going to affect the circuit's operation, because it will appear in parallel with the 10,000-ohm circuit resistance.

About \$20 to \$30 will buy a meter rated anywhere from 20,000- to 50,000-ohms-per-volt sensitivity. If your test gear will be limited initially to only a VOM, it's probably better to trade-off features for a higher ohms-per-volt rating. Even the most sophisticated meter isn't too valuable if it seriously disturbs the circuit being tested.

Normally, when someone will be working with circuits that will be unusually sensitive to circuit loading, a special kind of analog meter called an FET solid-state VOM is recommended. The input to those meters is a field-effect transistor, which provides a load impedance of approximately 10 Megohms—which won't have any effect on the average experimenter circuit or project. Unfortunately, those meters



Science Fair 10-piece electronics tool set (64-2801) is a starter's set that sells for \$14.95.

CIRCLE 957 ON FREE INFORMATION CARD

are rather expensive. The least expensive falls into the range of \$150 to more than \$350. On the other hand, a DMM—a digital multi-meter—with the same input impedance sells for well under \$100. Other DMM's are closer to \$50. For many experimenters, and even service technicians, the DMM will be the better buy, even with its lack of ability to track continuously varying values.

Most DMM's work extremely well, regardless of price. As a general rule: If you're on a tight budget, don't buy the best meter hoping to save up for the other items you'll need. That idea rarely works out well. Instead, purchase the least expensive DMM, because, more often than not, all you will sacrifice is an accuracy that you probably won't need and possibly better overall construction. But if you give a DMM the same care you would an ordinary analog VOM, it will probably last one day short of forever.

Logic Probes

Next item on your list should be a *logic probe*. Digital circuits, from your home computer to the rare-roast-beef selector on the microwave oven, work by digital pulses rather than voltage levels. The pulse is over and gone before your meter—even a digital meter—gets a chance to respond. Logic probes stretch the displayed pulse so that an indicator—usually an LED—stays on long enough to be observed. Depending on the particular probe model, the LED might indicate single pulses or pulse trains, or lock on until manually released. Naturally, the more features, the higher the price—which starts at about \$20 and goes up, depending on features and the frequency rating. That's an indication of how fast a pulse it can freeze.

Batteries Low?

To get away from high-tech for a moment, the lowly battery checker that sells for about \$10 should have a prominent place

on any experimenter's test bench. Much equipment—from home-brewed projects to a portable DMM—is powered by batteries, and many of such equipment don't have a lowbattery indicator. Many are the hours spent troubleshooting a project or a perfectly good piece of equipment whose only problem is weak batteries. The first thing to check when anything goes wrong with battery-powered equipment are the batteries. Use one of the multi-volt, multi-load meters which allow you to switch-select a light, medium, or heavy current drain. Don't try to check batteries with your VOM or DMM because a battery will always indicate the proper voltage when it's unloaded (not supplying current).

Pictures Tell The Story

Every electronics teacher worth his paycheck always tells his class that if stuck on a desert island the one piece of test equipment he'd want is an oscilloscope, because it not only measures voltage but tells you what it looks like. If you're into audio, RF (low-band), even digital, a scope shows precisely what the signal waveform looks like.

Back in the the early days of electronics, any generalpurpose scope was all the average hobbyist needed. Today, a general purpose scope is almost useless. For digital work the scope must be triggered; for just about anything it needs a frequency response to at least 20 MHz. And for serious work, the scope should have a delayed sweep, possibly dual trace, and a calibrated time base. The price of such a scope is about \$500-\$900—not inexpensive by any means. The general rule here is if you can't afford at least that minimal performance and features don't buy anything! Wait until you can afford a decent scope. While you might get by with a what is called a TV service scope, for digital and RF work you'll need the features of the laboratory-type scope. It's best to wait until you can afford what's really needed. Of course, if your main interest is TV, get a TV scope. Their convenience of switchselected H and V sweeps is a big advantage for TV work.

1...2...3...

A digital frequency counter should be on every experimenter's wish list. Other than the megabuck laboratory signal generators, few are accurate enough for modern circuits, whether it be an audio null filter to squash hum when dubbing a friend's tape, or an RF-notch filter to keep the broadcast station down the block from swamping an FM receiver. But almost any signal source, no matter how inexpensive, can be accurately set to the desired frequency(s) by checking its output with a frequency counter.

Most hobbyists can get by with a battery-powered portable counter that covers from slightly above DC to about 100 MHz. Low-cost frequency-extender accessories are available for those who need coverage above 100 MHz. Several counters are available for about \$100-\$160 depending on the number of display digits (which determines the resolution) and the operating features.

When it comes to frequency meters and counters, anything is better than nothing. If you can't afford the best, try to get something.

But It Looks OK.

You can't tell if a transistor is defective just by looking at it, but fortunately most either work or don't work. There is rarely such a thing as a *weak* transistor. While it's advantageous to know the transistor's actual leakage and beta values, in most instances all you really need to know is that

OSCILLOSCOPES



Hameg 60-MH2 HM605-\$965.00 CIRCLE 977 ON FREE INFORMATION CARD



Watsu 30-20-MH-z SS-5702---\$E35.00 C RCLE 949 GN FREE INFORMATION CARD

Leader LEO-522 20-MHz-S470.00 CIFCLE 945 DM FREE INFORMATION CARD

the transistor is working. That is, it is neither *burned* or open, and that can be determined by an under-\$20 transistor checker. The instrument won't measure beta, but it will tell you if (Continued on page 98)



MOST HOME COMPUTERS HAVE AN RF OUTPUT THAT ALlows them to be connected to a standard TV receiver via the antenna terminals. That allows you to use your TV set as a monitor, saving you extra cost. Unfortunately, after the novelty of the new computer wears off (about an hour at our house), the rest of the family wants the TV for something frivolous such as network programming.

Along with an RF output, many computers also have a direct video output designed to drive a standard monitor. So

it's usually not long before you begin looking for just such a monitor.

Most surplus computer monitors will use either a green or amber phosphor for the screen. That is great if your computer's video format provides for bright characters on a dark background. Many computers do not follow that format and you soon find out that no one knows how to correct the situation. The project we're about to describe, solves that problem.



PARTS LIST FOR PICTURE FIXER

SEMICONDUCTORS

- D1–D4--1N4148 diode
- Q1-2N2222 NPN transistor
- U1, U2—LM311 comparator integrated circuit
- U3—7486 or 74LS86 EXCLUSIVE-OR integrated circuit
- U4-7805 5-volt regulator integrated circuit

RESISTORS

(Fixed resistors are 1/4-watt, 5%, units)
R1, R8—4300-ohm
R2, R5, R13—1-Megohm
R3, R11—10,000-ohm, linear-taper, trimmer potentiometer
R4, R12, R9—10,000-ohm
R6, R14, R7—1000-ohm
R10—220-ohm

CAPACITORS

C1, C2—.1-μF, polyester, 10% C3—10-μF, 25-WVDC, tantalum

Fig. 1—Schematic diagram for the Picture Fixer. The circuit converts the output from a color computer such as the *TI-99/a* into a form suitable for display on a monochrome monitor

In the upside-down computer world this project flips your video right-side up!

U1, U2

PIN 3

U1-7

U2-7

U3-3

113-8

U3-6

The simple circuit, shown in Fig. 1, that makes up the Picture Fixer will accept the video signal from your computer, separate the sync pulses, invert just the video, add the new video to the old sync pulses, and then send them on to your newly acquired monitor.

Circuit Description

Refer to the schematic shown in Fig. 1, and the waveform timing-diagram shown in Fig. 2, for the following discussion.

The video signal is brought in through J1 and applied to a clamping circuit consisting of C1, D1, D2, D3, R1, and R2. The clamp circuit forces all of the sync pulses to line themselves up at the same DC voltage level.

With the video voltage clamped, the trip points of the comparators that follow can be set with trimmer resistors R3 and R11, and will not have to be readjusted. One comparator, U1, is adjusted to change states with a change in either video or sync-pulse levels. The other comparator, U2, is adjusted to trip on changes of sync-pulse levels only.

The output of Ul now consists of a logic level (0 to +5 volts) signal that contains both sync pulses and video. The composite signal is coupled to an EXCLUSIVE-OR gate, U3-a,

where it is either inverted or not inverted, depending upon the position of switch NORM/REV S1. The output, at pin 3 of U3-a, is next sent to U3-b. There the composite signal is combined with the *syncpulse only* signal from U2. The Ex-

ADDITIONAL PARTS & MATERIALS

S1--SPST, miniature toggle J1,J2-Phono jack Wall plug transformer (Radio Shack 273-1455 or equivalent), printed-circuit board, enclosure (Unibox #120 or equivalent), etc.

The following are available from Elephant Electronics Inc. P.O. Box 41770-P, Phoenix, AZ 85080: PF-1B—Printed-circuit board, \$6.55 each; PF-1—complete kit of all parts listed above, \$19.95; PF-1A—assembled and tested unit, \$29.95. Arizona residents add 6% sales tax. Please add \$2.50 per kit for first class postage and handling in the U.S., Canada, and Mexico. Other foreign orders add \$6.00 for shipping and handling, and remit payment via a cashier's check or international money order drawn on a U.S. bank. All orders allow 4 to 6 weeks for delivery.

Fig. 2—Timing diagram for the Picture Fixer. When S1 is set to INVERSE, the diagrams shown in A apply; when it is set to NORMAL, the diagrams shown in apply.

CLUSIVE-OR action of U3-b cancels out the sync pulses leaving only video at its output.

Since the sync pulses are inverted as they pass through U2, they must be inverted once more before being combined with the video signal. That final inversion is performed by U3-c, and that device's output is combined with that of U3-b via D4, R7, R8, and R9. The newly combined signal is buffered by emitter-follower Q1 and sent to the outside world via J2.

The circuit can be powered by a 9- to 12-volt wall-mount power supply. The supply voltage is regulated down to five volts by U4.

Construction

Although a printed-circuit board makes assembly much more convenient it is not a necessity. The project can be built on perfboard using wire wrap since layout and wiring are not critical. If you wish to use a printed-circuit board, an appropriate foil pattern is shown in Fig. 3; the corresponding partsplacement diagram is shown in Fig. 4.

Regardless of the construction technique you use. here is a pointer to keep in mind: Trimmer resistors R3 and R11 should



WINTER, 1985

BRITISH HEE-HAW SIREN

By Robert F. Scott Add this Scotland Yard touch to your burglar-alarm system!

A PAIR OF TIMER IC'S ARE THE HEART OF A CIRCUIT THAT simulates the warbling *hee-haw* of a British police siren. The schematic diagram of the circuit is shown in Fig. 1. One of the 555 timers (U2) is wired as an astable multivibrator operating at about 900 Hz. The other U1, operates at approximately 1 Hz. Its output at pin 3 is a squarewave with a 50% duty cycle (on and off cycles of about 0.5 second each). The output of U1 is applied to pin 5, the CONTROL VOLTAGE terminal of U2.

The frequency of a 555 timer IC is relatively independent of supply voltage but can be varied over a fairly wide range by applying a variable voltage between pin 5 and ground. When





an 8-ohm speaker, the value of that resistor is 68 ohms, as shown. For more information, see text.

U1's output goes low, U2 operates at about 1 kHz. When U1's output goes high, U2 operates at about 800 kHz. That switching between two frequencies produces the warbling *hee-haw* signal.

You can have quite a bit of fun by experimenting with various component values. For instance, you can vary the timing of the warbling by changing the value of C1 or by replacing R2 with a 200,000-ohm potentiometer. The range of frequencies covered by the warbling signal can be changed by selecting other values for C3.

When operating from a 15-volt DC supply, the 555 can deliver nearly 1 watt into a 75-ohm load, which is the ideal (Continued on page 95)



Why spend \$300 or more on a phototachometer when you can build this unit for less than \$70? It is easy to build, easy to adjust, and even easier to use!

Build PhotoTach

By W.N. Hubin*

ALTHOUGH IT HAS MANY MORE APPLICATIONS, PHOTOtach evolved from an urgent need to accurately measure the maximum propeller *rpm* (revolutions *per minute*) of an experimental aircraft. That *rpm* was the sole indicator of engine output, but the tachometer used to measure it was suffering from vibration-induced fatigue and its readings were more than a little suspect. Another important use for Phototach has been the calibration of commercial mechanical tachometers used on certificated aircraft. That calibration is particularly critical for aerobatic aircraft that commonly have a narrow range of propeller speeds that must not be used because of propeller/engine resonances.

nousands

Phototach

You may still be asking what a phototachometer is. Well, it's not a device to measure how fast you can take photographs! A phototachometer (and the Phototach) can be used for the precise measurement of the frequency of any periodically varying light source—that light can be either reflected or emitted. Phototach is easily adapted to measuring a varying voltage originating from sources other than a light source, as will be discussed later.

While commercial digital phototachometers will set you back about three hundred dollars, Phototach can be built for about seventy dollars from readily available components. It features two measuring ranges, a maximum count of 19999, crystal-based precision, and a large 0.75-inch liquid-crystal display for fine readability in the brightest sunlight. It is usable over a wide range of light intensities, and its power requirements are extremely modest. Phototach draws about 9.5 milliamperes from a 9-volt transistor-radio-type battery. That means that even a standard battery will give about 50 hours of use. Calibration is easily accomplished with the help of a fluorescent light.

*Professor, Kent State University

In the darkness of a hanger, the author uses Phototach to count the number of times the propeller blade interrupts the light coming through the open hanger door.

Light Pulses to Counts

Because it is inherently a digital measurement, Phototach will provide just as much accuracy as one wishes to wait for, unaffected by the electrical and mechanical gremlins that plague normal tachometers. The common two-bladed propeller interrupts the light from a source between you and it exactly two times for every complete revolution. To obtain the average number of revolutions per minute $(\pm 1 \ rpm)$ we would count those interruptions for a period of one-half minute, or 30 seconds. However, if we are willing to settle for ± 10 -rpm precision, we need count light interruptions for only 3 seconds; for ± 100 -rpm precision we need count for only 0.3 second.

Phototach is based on an LSI integrated circuit that combines a 4½-digit counter with all the drivers needed for a full liquid-crystal display of the count. The supporting IC's condition the signal from the phototransistor used as a sensor, provide a precisely-timed gating signal for the counter, transfer the count to the display at the proper time, and then reset the counter for the next timed interval.



GATE/POWER DRIVERS

Here are four packaged combos that will interface logic to action circuits!

A COMBINATION GATE AND DRIVER IN A SINGLE CHIP IS A handy item for applications such as driving incandescent lamps, relays, solenoids, and other interface devices. The Sprague Electric gate/power drivers discussed in this article have inputs compatible with DTL/TTL, PMOS, and CMOS devices. Power supplied to the devices can be as high as 80volts DC, and the device has a 500-milliampere output heatsink-current capability per gate. The M suffix after each gate/ power driver indicates a low-cost plastic case, ideal for experimenter's applications, and each device can be operated in the -20° C to $+85^{\circ}$ C range. The devices have no suppression diodes for transient protection, so those must be included in the circuit when the load to be switched is inductive. Sprague Electric makes available four gate/power driver chips that will be discussed in this article, They are:

UDN-3611M Dual AND Driver UDN-3612M Dual NAND Driver UDN-3613M Dual OR Driver UDN-3614M Dual NOR Driver

The Dual AND Driver

Pin-out and basic circuit of the dual AND driver version are given in Fig. 1. Each of the dual sections consists of a NAND gate and a follow-up bipolar transistor output. Check out the logic of the AND driver with the appropriate logic chart in Table 1 and Fig. 1. There is no direct pin-out for the output of the NAND gate. The Y output of the NAND gate (Fig. 1) is connected internally to the base of the bipolar transistor. The following bipolar transistor results in a logic inversion. Therefore, the output has a logic corresponding to that which would be obtained from an overall AND gate. Treating the UDN-3611M chip as a black box with one output, it appears to be an AND logic device. The AND operation is the result of

TABLE 1 AND Gate/power Driver Truth Table

A	В	Y	OUT
0	0	15	0
0	1	1	0
1	0	1	0
1	× 1	0	1

TABLE 2 NAND Gate/power Driver Truth Table

A	В	Y	OUT
0	0	0	1
0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1
1	1	1	0

the inversion of the logic that appears in the Y output of the NAND gate.

Pin-outs are identical for the AND, NAND, OR and NOR drivers. However, internal gate for the NAND driver has AND logic; internal gate for the OR driver, NOR logic; and, internal gate for the NOR driver, OR logic. Those relations are shown in the remaining truth listings in Tables 2, Table 3, and Table 4.

Gate/power drivers of that type are useful in driving peripheral loads such as incandescent lamps, displays, heaters,



Fig. 1—The UDN-3611M dual gate/power driver is shown schematically (A) within the physical outline of its DIP configuration. A simplified diagram (B) of one driver section is shown. Point Y is not electrically connected to one of the output pins. It is identified for circuit discussion in text.

TABLE 3 OR Gate/power Driver Truth Table

A	В	Y	OUT
0	0	1	0
0	1	0	1
1	0	0	1
	and a second	0	

A	В	Y	OUT
0	0	0	1
0	1	1	0
1	0	1	0
	1	14	0

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D-13 Magazine End Table

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D-16

D-10

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ages and backgrounds have successfully used the "Edu-Kit" in more than 79 coun-tries of the world. The "Edu-Kit" has been carefully designed, step by step, so that you cannot make a mistake. The "Edu-Kit" allows you to teach yourself at your own rate. No instructor is necessary.

PROGRESSIVE TEACHING METHOD

PROGRESSIVE TEACHING AMATHOD The Progressive Radio "Edu-Kit" is the foremost educational radio kit in the world, and is universally accepted as the standard in the field of electronics training. The "Edu-kit" uses the modern educational principle of "Learn by Doing." Therefore you construct, learn schematics, study theory, practice trouble shooting—all in a closely integrated pro-gram designed to provide an easily-learned, thorough and interesting background in radio. You begin by examining the various radio parts of the "Edu-Kit." You then learn the function, theory and wiring of these parts. Then you build a simple radio. With this first set you will enjoy listening to regular broadcast stations, learn theory, practice testing and trouble-shooting. Then you build a more advanced radio, learn more advanced theory and techniques. Gradually, in a progressive manner, and at your own rate, you will find yourself constructing more advanced multi-tube radio circuits, and doing work like a professional Radio Technician. Included in the "Edu-Kit" course are Receiver, Transmitter, Code Oscillator, Signal "breadboard" experiments, but genuine radio circuits, Constructed by means of professional "breadboard" experiments, but genuine radio circuits, constructed by means of professional "breadboard" experiments, but genuine radio circuits, constructed by means of professional "breadboard" experiments of the genuine radio circuits, constructed by means of professional "breadboard" experiments of the genuine radio circuits of professional "breadboard" experiments of the genuine radio circuits of a construction known as "Printed Circuitry." These circuits operate on your regular AC or DC house current.

wiring and soldering as "Printed Circuitry

THE "EDU-KIT" IS COMPLETE

You will receive all parts and instructions necessary to build twenty different radio and electronics cir-cuits, each guaranteed to operate. Our Kits contain tubes, tube sockets, variable, electrolytic, mica, ceramic and paper dielectric condensers, resistors, tie strips, hardware, tubing, punched metal chassis, Instruction Manuals, hook-up wire, solder, selenium rectifiers, colls, volume controls, switches, solid state devices, etc.

Mandais, nook-ip wire, solder, selenium rectrirers, tons, volume controls, writches, sold state devices, etc. In addition, you receive Printed Circuit materials, including Printed Circuit chassis, special tube sockets, hardware and instructions. You also receive a useful set of bools, a professional electric soldering iron, and a self-powered Dynamic Radio and Electronica Tester. The "Edu-Kit" also includes Code Instructions and the Progressive Code Oscillator, in addition to F.C.C. Radio Amateur License training. You will also receive lessons for servicing with the Progressive Signal Tracer and the Progressive Signal Injector, a High Fidelity Guide and a Quiz Book. You receive Membership in Radio-TV Club, Free Consulta-tion Service, Certificate of Merit and Discount Privileges. You receive all parts, tools, instructions, etc. Everything is yours to keep.



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FROM OUR MAIL BAG

FROM OUR MAIL BAG J. Stataitis, of 25 Poplar Pl., Water-bury, Conn., writes: "I have repaired several sets for my friends, and made money. The 'Edu-Kit' paid for itself. J was ready to spend \$240 for a Course, but 1 found your ad and sent for your En Valerio, P. O. Box 21, Magna. Utah: "The Edu-Kits are wonderful. Here i am scning you the questions and also reading you the questions and also work with Radio Kits, and like to build Radio Testing Equipment. I en-loyed every minute I worked with the different kits: the Signal Tracer works the intervent of the Signal Tracer works the of the last seven years, but like build Radio Testing Equipment. I en-loyed every minute I worked with the different kits: the Signal Tracer works the you do becoming a member of your Radio-TV Club." Robert L. Wa: "Thought I would dev lines to say that I re-tering a few lines to say that I re-pairing radios and phonographs. My get into the swing of it so quickly. The trouble-shooting Tester that comes with the Kit is really swell, and finds the values of the signal such a such throught, if there is any to be found."

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becoming popular in commercial radio TV sets. A Printed Circuit is a special insul chassis on which has been deposited a ducting material which takes the place wiring. The various parts are merely pluy in and soldered to terminals. Printed Circuitry is the basis of mo Automation Electronics, A knowledge of subject is a necessity today for anyone terested in Electronics.

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*Projects for Book 8 were in an advanced state at the time of writing, but contents may change prior to publication (due 13th August 1983).

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For Yourself

In fact, we have a sneaking suspicion that our readers like us because they think we're just as bug-eyed and downright crazy over great new project ideas as they are. And I quess they're right!

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TESTBENCH





with the panel. The holes for the panel can be located by using the circuit board as a template. Use either the left solder tab hole or the right solder tab hole and mark the panel of the selected chassis for each of the twelve switch positions.

Resistor R5 and capacitor C3 form a *Reset* timedelay RC network. Pin 39 of U1 is the *Reset* pin of the microprocessor. This pin has an internal pull-up resistor which keeps the terminal at 5 Volts. The *Stop* button places a brief pull-down path on the reset pin through C3. The momentary ground resets the system as C3 charges. When the *Stop* button is released, the charged capacitor discharges through R5. The *Play* switch has two extra solder pads marked A and B which allow an external switch to be wired in parallel with the *Play* switch so that the circuit can be activated remotely.

The microprocessor requires +5 volts, which is connected to pins 38 and 40 of U1. The 5-V supply is regulated by U2, a 7085 voltage regulator IC.



HOBBY DEPARTMENT



Capacitors C1 on the input to the regulator and C2 on the output of the regulator act as filter capacitors to remove high frequency noise. Pins 1, 20, and 21 of U1 are grounded. Pin 2 of U1 is connected through R4 to the +5-V supply. The value of R4 is typically 6.8 K ohms but can be decreased to cause the microprocessor to play faster, or increased to make the songs play slower. Pins 31, 32, and 33 of U1 are the column connections for the switch matrix. Pin 31 is column one, and requires three jumper wires to connect it to the top three switches in the matrix. Pins 34, 35, 36, and 37 the row connections to the switch matrix. The processor scans these lines to sense a closed switch.

The main power input is connected through diode D1. This is a 1N4001 rated for 50 volts at 1 amp. This diode protects against accidental voltage reversals. It can also be used as a rectifier diode for connecting a doorbell transformer as a power source. The doorbell transformer should not exceed 10 VAC, and C1 may need to be increased for extra filtering. The processor output is pin 4 which drives the three output transistors, Q1 Q2 and Q3. One side of the speaker connects to the positive supply voltage. Transistor Q3 switches the other side of the speaker to ground at a rate controlled by the processor. A four ohm, five-watt horn speaker will produce the highest sound level. If lower sound level is acceptable, a resistor can be connected in series with the speaker. Q3 is a power transistor capable of switching a 3-amp load; however, no heat sink is required for Q3 or U2. If extra clearance is required, Q3 and U2 can be mounted below the board as long as the same pins are soldered to the same pads on the circuit board and the metal tabs do not touch any metal surface. When Q3 switches open, the flyback voltage generated by the speaker can be quite high. Diode D2 is used to discharge this flyback transient pulse which might otherwise damage Q3.

A wall charger type 9V, 200 mA power supply will make a good source for many of the projects such as this telephone ringer. A simple telephone ringer can be made by using a glass reed switch conected with a

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	A TUNE COMPUTER SONG LIST	
	TONE COMPOTER SONG LIST	
0 AMERICA	27 IN HEAVEN IS NO BEER	53 BUCKLE DOWN WINSOCKI
1 ANCHORS AWEIGH	28 JIMMY CRACK CORN	54 CHARGE
2 BATTLE HYMN REPUBLIC	29 JINGLE BELLS	55 DEAR OLD NEBRASKA U.
3 CAISSONS GO ROLLING	30 KING OF ROAD	56 THE EYES OF TEXAS
4 CALL TO COLORS	31 LA CUCARACHA	57 ABOVE CAYUGA'S WATERS
5 CAVALRY CHARGE	32 LONE RANGER	58 FIGHT ON USC
6 DIXIE	33 MODEL T	59 GO, NORTHWESTERN
7 HAIL BRITTANIA	34 THE OLD GREY MARE	60 HAIL PURDUE
8 YANKEE DOODLE DANDY	35 POPEYE	61 HEY LOOK ME OVER
9 LA MARSEILLAISE	36 RAINDROPS	62 HOLD THAT TIGER
10 MARINE HYMN	37 SAILORS HORNPIPE	63 ILLINOIS LOYALTY
11 REVEILLE	38 SAN ANTONIO ROSE	64 INDIANA, OUR INDINA
12 STARS & STRIPES	39 SEE THE USA	64 I'M A JAYHAWK
13 TAPS	40 OUT TO THE BALLGAME	66 IOWA FIGHT SONG
14 WILD BLUE YONDER	41 TIJUANA TAXI	67 LOVE YA BLUE
15 ALOUETTE	42 TWO BITS	68 MICHIGAN STATE FIGHT
16 AREVEDERCHI ROMA	43 WABASH CANNONBALL	69 MINNESOTA ROUSER
17 CAMPTOWN RACES	44 SAINTS GO MARCHING	70 NITTANY LION
18 CANDY MAN	45 WOODY WOOPECKER	71 NOTRE DAME FIGHT
19 CHATTANOOGA CHOO-CHOO	46 YELLOW ROSE OF TEXAS	72 OLE MISS
20 CLEMENTINE	47 ACROSS THE FIELD	73 UN, BRAVE ARMY TEAM
21 DALLAS THEME	48 AGGIE WAR HYMN	74 ON WISCONSIN
22 EL PASO	49 ARKANSAS FIGHT SONG	75 WRECK FROM GA. TECH
23 THE ENTERTAINER	50 BE SHARP	76 HOLL ON TULANE
24 JOLLY GOOD FELLOW	51 BOOMER SOONER	77 THE VICTORS
25 FUNERAL MARCH	52 BOW DOWN WASHINGTON	78 WASHINGTON/LEE SWING
26 HAVA NAGILAH		79 TEA ALADAMA

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The alarm you select is up to you. The minimum should be a flashing bulb rated at 15 watts or more located where you can't miss it when in or entering the


PARTS LIST FOR OVERFLOW INDICATOR

- B1-12-volt battery (to match coil of relay K1)
- D1-1N4148 diode
- **K1**—SPDT, 12-volt DC, miniature relay with contacts rated at 125-VAC at 3 amperes (Radio Shack type 275-206, or equivalent)
- Q1-2N3906 switching PNP transistor
- R1-33,000-ohm, 1/4-watt, 10% resistor
- SCR1—Silicon-controlled rectifier, any low-current type to match relay used (see text)

BUDGET LAMP DIMMER

No group of projects on lamp control can be complete without a budget lamp dimmer as shown in Fig. 5. The circuit does not go from full dark to full brightness immediately, it first must trigger TR1 at a medium-brightness level and then the potentiometer (R2) positioned to attain a suitable level of illumination from L1, either above or below the initial brightness level. What is nice about this circuit is the cost—it's mighty low and most of the parts are usually found in the junkbox. The neon gate serves the same function as a triggering diode (bi-directional avalanche switch), such as the D3202U and 276-1649 (Radio Shack).

Assemble the device in a plastic or aluminum chassis box. Triac TR1 can handle up to 400 watts of a resistive load without a heat sink.



PARTS LIST FOR BUDGET LAMP DIMMER

C1, C2-.1-uF, ceramic capacitor

- F1-Fuse, 3 amperes, 3AG type with holder
- I1-NE-2 neon bulb with wire leads
- L1—Household light bulb up to 400 watts may be paralleled together
- P1-power cord with molded power plug, 3-wire
- R1-12,000-ohm, 1/2-watt, 5% resistor
- R2-50,000-ohm. linear-taper potentiometer
- TR1-Triac 40502 (RCA), or equivalent



Here's Another Fuzz Box, a simple low-level output circuit that can be added to an existing amplifier or outboarded in an aluminum chassis box with a battery power supply. The drain is low so that a transistorradio battery will last several sessions with the band.

The quality of the two amplifying stages leave much to be desired, however, in a fuzz circuit they fill the bill. Diodes D1 and D2 clip the output. Capacitor C6 rolls off the high frequencies. When intensity potentiometer R1 is at the bottom of its travel (see Fig. 6), all of the input signal is fed directly to the output terminal. As the potentiometer's wiper is advanced upward, an

increasing amount of signal is fed to the fuzz circuit and less is fed to the output terminal directly. The degree of mix, if any is left to the musician's desires!

As in all audio projects, ground loops will degrade the program, so some careful work is in order. Connect a No. 14 or No. 12 solid copper wire between the ground terminals of the input and output connectors. The ground connections in the circuit should progress on the copper bus an seen in the diagram from left to right. The battery's negative terminal should be connected close to the gout terminal's ground.



- C7-100-uF, 16-WVDC, electrolytic capacitor
- D1, D2-IN914 diode
- Q1, Q2-2N2222 transistor
- R1, R4-1-Megohm, linear-taper potentiometer
- R6-10,000-ohm, ½-watt, 5% resistor
- R7, R8-1-Megohm, ½-watt, 5% resistor
- R9-3000-ohm, 1/2-watt, 5% resistor

EQUENCY CHECKER

The hurricane passed you by with only some blown trash on the lawn and loss of power. No problem at all. All you have to do is power up the gasoline-driven power supply and tie in the house's freezer and refrigerator to the supply. Your frozen food supply will be safe and the trash in the yard can wait till tomorrow. Life can be beautiful.

Sure it can! But not for you! The power supply starts up quickly and seems to be working fine. A 100-watt light bulb tied to it burns brightly indicating that the voltage is good - the unit's meter attests to that! But why did the refrigerator's motor overheat during the night and burn out; and why is the freezer motor laboring so hard? Oh! Oh! - more smoke coming from

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the freezer!

If you had a frequency meter to connect to the power-supply line you would have noted that the line frequency was about 47 Hertz—much too low. Sixtycycle motors can't operate for long at reduced line frequencies. If you only had a frequency meter.

Well, for a few pennies you an make your own! Refer to Fig. 7. The Power-Line Frequency Meter samples the 117-volt AC LINE by dropping the voltage across R1 and developing 6.8-volt square waves with Zener diode D1. The square wave is differentiated by capacitor C1. The meter circuit and the diodes (D2 and D3) average the current and an indication is obtained. In the low power frequency range, the average current through the meter is proportional to the frequency of the AC line. Calibration is simple: connect the circuit to the utility's power line (pre-hurricane) and adjust R2 for 60 milliamperes. Now, over the top two-thirds of the meter dial (on a 100-milliampere scale) will indicate power-line frequency very accurately within the 3% rating of the meter. You could use your multimeters 100-mA scale setting should a 0-100 mA DC meter be unattainable.

Make you Power-Line Frequency Meter today. Put into a metal or plastic box and include a 3-wire power cord with plug so that connection to the power-line's outlet can be done quickly. The power cord can be as as short as one foot. Now your family and home will be ready for the next tropical storm coming your way!



HARMONIC GENERATOR

If you are into shortwave listening, amateur radio, and other high-frequency activities, here is a harmonic generator that will produce harmonics up to 150 MHz from a 1000-Hertz input signal. See Fig. 8. Don't try to improve on the circuit by switching the germanium diode (D1) with a silicon type—that's a big mistake! The input signal required to drive the circuit can be between .15 to 1.0 volts input. If your interest lie in the broadcast band or there about, increase the size of C3 for more output.

Since the power required for the circuit can be delivered by a dry cell, use one and keep it simple. If you must get into circuit improving, try a tunnel diode in place of the germanium diode — if you can find one.



ONE-TRANSISTOR AUDIO MIXER

Sometimes we resort to whole console of circuitry to do the job that can be done by one transistor. In the example shown in Fig. 9, one transistor, Q1, and its associated circuitry is all that is required to mix three audio channels into one output line. It's a simple summing circuit with the base-emitter resistance being the summing resistor. The circuit offers a gain of about 20.



AUDIO OSCILLATOR

The simple two-transistor circuit shown in Fig. 10 produces enough volume to drive a small 4- to 8-ohm loudspeaker. The values of R1 and C1 may be varied over a large range and still get an audio output. The transistors used are not critical to the circuit operation so that you can make substitutions with similar audiotype transistors. A 9-volt transistor-radio battery can power the circuit.

Inset a key into the battery circuit and the device can be used to practice Morse code. Make the battery leg a perimeter loop and the device can be used to announce visitors and detect intruders.

PARTS LIST FOR AUDIO OSCILLATOR

B1—9-volt transistor-radio battery
C1—.02-.06-uF, disk capacitor
Q1—2N2222 transistor
Q2—2N3638 transistor
R1—5000-150,000-ohm, ½-watt, 10% resistor
SPKR1—Loudspeaker with 4- to 8-ohms voice coil



CIRCUIT FRAGMENTS THAT DO THINGS

By Curt Sim

The design of projects usually takes the form of an idea and a circuit fragment. The fragment is usually a circuit that is complete in that it does something all by itself, however, it can be expanded to do bigger and better things. This article will present some circuit fragments that are useful projects in themselves. Nevertheless, with a little thought, these circuits can be made part of a larger project that provides many more useful functions or improved performance.

The parts used in these circuits are common and may be available in your spare-parts box. The use of a solderless breadboard will give you an opportunity to play with each circuit without damaging the parts or leads from constant soldering and desoldering. The experience you obtain will be invaluable in future projects...Enough chit chat—on with the projects!

SIMPLE COIN TOSS

For just the price of a pushbutton switch (S2 in Fig. 1), an ordinary multivibrator circuit can be converted to something else, and you can flip electronic coins as long as you want until the battery drains dead! When the button of S2 is depressed, the circuit is a squarewave multivibrator running at about 800 Hz. Release the button and the circuit becomes a stable one shot-device that has only one transistor conducting. Under this condition, one of the lightemitting diodes (LED1 and LED2) will be on. The symmetry of the circuit indicates that the 800-Hz squarewave will have a 50-percent duty cycle. That is, the squarewave will be high for one half of the time, and low for the remaining half. Thus, when S2 is released,



PARTS LIST FOR SIMPLE COIN TOSS

- B1-9-volts DC, transistor-radio battery
- C1, C2-22-picaFarad disk capacitor
- LED1, LED2—Light-emitting diode, 20 mA, one red, one yellow or green
- Q1, Q2—2N2222, 2N2222A or BC108 PNP audioswitching transistor
- \$1-SPST, on/off switch (any suitable type will do)
- **S2**—Normally-open, single-pole, pushbutton switch (All fixed resistors are 5%, ¼-watt fixed units unless
- otherwise indicated) R1, R6-390-ohm resistor
- **R2---R5**---47,000-ohm resistor
- R7-100,000-ohm linear-taper potentiometer

Fig. 1. This free-running multivibrator switched the LED1 AND LED2 "on" and "off" alternately when \$2 is closed. When \$2 opens, only one light-emitting diode remains illuminated.

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the transistor that was on will continue to conduct.

You could expect 50 heads for every 100 "tosses!" But, that will only occur when potentiometer R7 is so set that all unbalances in the circuit are equaled. With R7 set to some unbalance, the number of heads verses tails will be other than 50-50. The device could be adjusted for 60-40 splits, or other desired ratios. Don't try this with friends who become upset when they discover that you hoodwinked them!

If you want to slow down the free-running frequency to as low as one Hertz or less, increase the value of C1

FET AWAY TIME

and C2 equally to 10 microFarads. Of course you will be able to see the light-emitting diodes switch on an off so that releasing S2 can control the indication read out of either heads or tails. In this case, use a remote switch so the player cannot see the readout until after he releases the switch.

Potentiometer R7 may be any taper type, but linear potentiometers are best. Values from 50,000- to 100,000-ohms may be used. If you wish, two series 50,000-ohm resistors may replace R7. The center tap comets to S2.

Why is it that whenever a timer circuit is required the IC is called to do the task even when simpler ways are available? By that we mean, take a gander at Fig. 2 for the FET Timer and compare it to any other circuit using a chip. Which one is simpler? Now you know the answer, and you know why the circuit appears here.

Note that the junction FET, Q1, serves as a switch that turns on high-impedance piezoelectric buzzer, Z1. Do not use a mechanical buzzer here for fear that the device's low impedance would burn out Q1.

Using a capacitor, C1, rated at 500-uF and a 1-Megohm potentiometer, R2, a time delay of more than two minutes is possible. A SPST toggle switch, S1, is kept at the reset position until the timing cycle is to begin. When S1 is set at TIME, C1 discharges through R2. To decrease the delay, reduce the setting (resistance) of potentiometer R2. When the potential at point A is near ground, the FET will conduct and the piezoelectric buzzer, Z1, will sound until S1 is returned to RESET, or the power is removed.

For much briefer periods, reduce the size of C1 so that the adjustment range of the potentiometer will be in the mid-range position. Resistor R1 limits the current flow through Q1 so that its rating will not be exceeded. Should a mechanical buzzer be used, and it worked, the inductive kick caused by the counter-electromotive force produced by its inductance would destroy the FET. Also, since R1 is required in the circuit to protect Q1, there would not be enough current flow to actuate the buzzer. In other words, stick with the diagram the way it appears!



PARTS LIST FOR FET TIMER

C1—5- to 500-uF, 16-WVDC, electrolytic capacitor Q1—2N3819 junction field-effect transistor (FET)

R1-1000-ohm, ¼-watt, 5% resistor

R2-1-Megohm, linear- or audio-taper potentiometer

s1—SPDT toggle switch

Z1-Piezoelectric buzzer (almost any hobby type will work)

Fig. 2. Capacitor C1 charges to the battery potential with S1 at "RESET". Then C1 discharges through the variable resistor, R2.

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CIRCUIT FRAGMENTS

BLINKING NEONS

The bow-tie blinker circuit (Fig. 3) was first used by the editor to blink two lights in a bow tie, and we have since seen it used in eyeglasses, ear rings and other personal applications to raise excitement. Lets assume that I1 is on first so that C1 will charge through R2 and I1. When the voltage across C1 exceeds the firing potential of I2, that neon lamp will fire and I1 will be turned off. Now C1 takes a reverse charge through R1 and R2 until the firing potential of I1 is exceeded, causing to fire, and I2 to go off. That cycle will continue as long as power is supplied to the circuit by B1.

Each lamp will be illuminated for an equal period provided that R1 and R2 are equal in resistive value. This selection is usually preferred. However, you may want to experiment with different timing periods so that different effects may be obtained for special purposes. Vary the resistive value(up and down) of R1 or R2 about ten percent and observe light action.

Why neon bulbs? The main reason is that no amplifier or electronic switching device is necessary.



MORE LIGHT

The output of an CMOS circuit may require a visual indicator brighter than a light-emitting diode to indicate a circuit high on a test panel or remote site. However, should you connect a filament lamp directly across the opamp output without regard for the remaining circuit, you most probably would introduce problems that are not tolerable. The diagram in Fig. 4 shows how a buffered lamp can be connected so that it will cause no problem to the circuit to which it is connected. When a circuit high is present (+5-volts DC) the transistor will conduct and the lamp, I1, IN Q1's emitter circuit will be powered on. Actually, this circuit is a relatively simple logic probe you may want to construct for other purposes.



FRAGMENTS

9-VOLTS MOBILE

One big problem with 9-volt batteries is that they often go dead just when you need them most. If you are a highway dictator you record business letters and notes while driving from one business appointment to another, then use the car's power to drive the recorder and save the batteries for those moments when no other power source is available. The car power tap (see Fig. 5) delivers up to 800 milliamperes of regulated 9volt power from your car's cigar lighter or any power jack you may install.

Just plug in the circuit (see Fig. 5) and a 2N222 NPN

transistor in conjunction with a 9.1-volt Zener diode does all the work. Should you need a bit more than 80 milliamperes, then use a 2N3055 for Q1. Play it safe, be sure to attach either transistor to a heat sink. The heat sink may be a store-bought item or made from a piece of copper sheet approximately 2 square-inches in surface area.

It is always a good idea to include a protective fuse in the circuit. Try one that is about .5 amperes. Stay away from slow-blow types or else you may pop some fuses in the car during an accidental short.



Fig. 5. Be careful when you connect the polarized components of this circuit.

MOST POPULAR CIRCUIT

Here is a simple light-activated relay circuit that is sensitive to room light conditions. (See Fig 6.) The light-sensitive device is PR1 a CdS- or CdSe-type photoresistor that is placed in the base circuit of an NPN transistor, Q1. When no, or insufficient, light falls

on the photoresistor, PR1 transistor Q1 is biased to cut-off and the solenoid of the relay, K1, is unenergized.

As light strikes the photoresistor the base current in Q1 begins to flow and Q1 conducts enough current to



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energize the coil of K1, pulling down the relay contacts to the energized position. The contacts are electrically isolated from the circuit, and they can be used to provide control of a circuit using standard line voltages and even high currents. As the light diminishes, the photocell internal resistance increases, reducing the

current to the base of Q1 and shutting down the transistor, and the relay. The relay should be a low-current type so that the normal non-destructive current through Q1 is sufficient to power on the relay. Relays of this type can be found in Radio Shack's catalog.

Diode D1 eliminates the bucking voltage created by the relay coil when the relay is turned off, thus preventing the destruction of the transistor. Adjust potentiometer R1 so that the circuit actuates at the light level you desire. Also, mask photoresistor PR1 should the light intensity be too high to turn off the circuit at the level you desire.

BATTERY-VOLTAGE MONITOR

Tired of playing guessing games with your batteries? With this battery-voltage monitor (See Fig. 7) you'll know at a glance whether or not batteries need replacement. The circuit's compact size, which comes about because it's a meterless voltage monitor, makes it easy to build into an existing piece of equipment. To use the device, press S1 and, if LED1 lights up, your batteries are still good. If not, get ready to throw them away.

Transistors Q1's gain makes the monitor very sensitive to changes in voltage. Consequently, LED1 is either ON or OFF with little ambiguity most of the time. The voltage level being sensed is determined by Zener diode D1's rating and the base-emitter voltage drop of Q1. Specifically, the switching point is equal to the Zener voltage plus 0.75-volts. For example, a 5.6-volt Zener diode will set the trip level at approximately 3.35volts.

The voltage level you choose should be less than the battery's nominal voltage when fresh. A 9-volt battery, for example, might be useless when its voltage drops to 7.5-volts; however, the exact point at which a battery becomes useless depends both on the battery and on the application. Finally, it's best to test the battery with a normal load current being drawn from it by the project or gear.



LED DISPLAY

Who said you need an IC chip to operate a LED-bar graphics display? The diagram in Fig. 8 takes advantage of the forward voltage drop exhibited by silicon diodes. Each leg of the circuit showns a light emitting diode in series with a current limiting resistor and a different number of diode voltage drops, from 0 to 5. You may use any kind of diode you wish, including germanium, silicon, even expensive hot carrier types (although they won't exhibit quite as much drop, they're very expensive, and too large a current could burn them out).

Depending on the diodes you choose, each will exhibit a forward voltage drop between 0.3 and 0.7 volts! For consistency, stay with diodes of the same type, or at least the same family. Those twenty-for-adollar "computer" diodes will do just fine. To expand OCTOBER 1986 / 71

INDUCTANCES & CAPACITANCES

By Jan Drover

The lowly resistor is the solid citizen of electronics. It can be relied upon the behave with the same, predictable performance, whether confronted with AC or DC. Unruffled by excursions into the higher frequencies, it continues to live by the guiding rule— Ohm's law—and declares that, no matter what, the current (I) it permits to flow shall depend solely on the applied voltage (E) divided by its own resistance (R).

However, the resistor's component cousins—the inductor and the capacitor—are by no mens so stolid in the face of changing frequencies. The inductor, for example, grouchily shuts off more and more of the current flow as the frequency of the current passing through it gets higher and higher; while the capacitor reacts to higher frequencies in just the opposite manner—it happily allows more and more current to flow as the frequency rises.

Fortunately, the reactionary behavior of these components is just as predictable as is the singlemindedness of their resistive cousin. If we study the strange conduct of these apparently erratic citizens, we not only discover the rules which govern their odd behavior, but also perceive that ultimately, they too, are faithful to Ohm's law—in their fashion—just as are all electronic components and circuits.

Reactionaries in the Lab

To begin our study, let's set up the lab experiment shown in Fig. 1.

Here, we have an audio oscillator set to produce an output of 60 Hz, and a power amplifier to amplify that signal to the 100-volt level. The power amplifier drives a load consisting of a large, 25-watt, 390-ohm resistor connected in series with an ordinary 1½-volt (0.25-ampere) flashlight bulb. An AC meter reads the output voltage from the power amplifier.

Turning on the equipment, we set the audio oscillator to 60 Hz, and gradually turn up the amplifier gain till 100 volts appears at the output. (Note: The ordinary hi-fi amplifier won't do this—you will need a public-address amplifier with a high-voltage (70-volt, or 500-ohm) auxiliary output if you actually want to carry out this experiment.) At this point, the bulb will light to its normal brightness, indicating that the 100 volts is pushing about 0.25 ampere through the combined resistor/light-bulb circuit. Using Ohm's law, we can easily check this:

Note that light bulb's resistance, R, is

R = E/I = 1½ volts/¼ ampere = 6 ohms

1



Please also note that it's the 390-ohm resistor, not the bulb, which is the chief authority in establishing the current. The lamp current will change very little, whether the bulb is 6 ohms, 12 ohms, or near zero ohms.

Next let us vary the frequency of the audio oscillator; first down to 30 Hz, and then, up to 120 Hz. We notice that the bulb stays at the same brightness, indicating that the 390-ohm resistor is behaving in its normal, stolid fashion—that is, it is steadfastly ignoring frequency changes, and permitting its current flow to be determined solely by Ohm's law. Even if the frequency were zero (which is another way of saying DC), the bulb's brightness would, remain the same, if we applied 100 volts to it.

Enter the First Reactionary

Now let's go to our parts supply bin, pick up a 1-Henry inductor, and make a few preliminary measurements on it. Using an inductance bridge, we discover that its real value is 1.05 Henry. We next connect it to an ordinary ohmmeter as shown in Fig 2, which informs us that the inductor has a resistance of 45 ohms.



Now, let us replace the 390-ohm resistor of Fig. 1 with this 1-Henry inductor as shown in Fig. 3, and predict what will happen when we turn on the equipment. Since the ohmmeter said "45 ohms" we can predict that the current will be



With this large current — nearly 8-times normal — the light bulb should burn out almost instantly! However, when we apply 100 volts of 60 Hz to the inductor-plusbulb, we are surprised to see that the bulb lights to normal brightness! This means that the inductor is behaving like a 390-ohm resistor, and is establishing a ¼-ampere flow of current — not the nearly-2 amperes calculated from the above ohmmeter measurement.

To compound the mystery, let us now vary the frequency of the oscillator, first, up to 120 Hz—and the bulb gets dimmer!—and then gingerly, down, just a little, to 50 Hz—and the bulb gets uncomfortably brighter. Here, in the lab, is the actual behavior forecast

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by theory—the inductor grouchily shuts down the current flow for high frequencies, causing the bulb to go dim at 120 Hz, but it is willing to let low frequencies through, thus allowing the bulb to get brighter for 50-Hz input.

A Little Compassion for the Reactionary

To understand this "reactionary" behavior, we must understand how an inductor "feels" about an alternating current. An inductor is, after all, an electromagnet. If a steady direct current flows through it, it fills the space in its vicinity with a magnetic field.

If we attempt to cut down the inductor's current, it reacts, quite understandably, by collapsing its magnetic field. But this collapsing field moves across the inductor winding in just the same way that a dynamo or generator field moves through the generator windings to make an output voltage. The inductor, then, reacts to any attempt to change its current by acting as its own generator, generating a new voltage of the correct polarity to try to keep its own current from changing. So, in its own way, the inductor is a solid, but conservative citizen—a citizen who tries to maintain the status quo.

Furthermore, the faster we try to change its current, the harder the inductor works to keep the current from changing. Therefore, the inductor sees a high frequency as an attempt at rapid changes—a threat to the *status quo*—so it works very hard to generate an opposing voltage (a 'counter-EMF' or 'counter-electro-motive-force') to keep its current from changing. This internally-generated voltage opposes the applied voltage more and more as the frequency rises; hence the actual current which flows drops lower and lower as the frequency rises. *This means that the apparent resistance of the inductor rises with frequency.* But this apparent resistance is not called *resistance*—since it is the inductor's reaction to the frequency applied to it, it is called *inductive reactance*.



Fig. 4. A 6.8 uF capacitor substituted in the test circuit for the inductor. If the capacitor acted as an open (as it would for DC) no current would flow.

A Resistance by Any Other Name

But whether you call it "apparent resistance" or "inductive reactance", it is still measured in ohms, and can be used as a part of the familiar Ohms law formula. Where a simple resistive circuit answers to the expression.

I = E/R.

A similar circuit with resistor replaced by an inductor (coil) is described by the formula:

I = E/X,

where X is the symbol for reactance. But since the amount of reactance (X) changes according to frequency, we must have a way to calculate its value at the frequency we are using. The following simple formula does that for us:

Inductive Reactance = $2 \times 2 \times \pi \times$ frequency \times inductance or, in the familiar algebraic shorthand, or

$$X_{L} = 2\pi fL$$

where, L is the inductance in Henrys, and the subscript following the X indicates we are talking about inductive reactance. Therefore, the current in an inductive circuit is:

 $I = E/X_{L}$ $= E/2\pi fL$



Fig. 5. Test circuit load is now the combination of the inductor (1.05 Henry) and the resistor (150 ohms). As the text explains, their combined reactance is computed by adding them at right angles!

For Example

Let's take the 1.05-Henry inductor and calculate its reactance at 60 Hz:

$$X = 2 \pi f L,$$

= 2 × π × 60 × 1.05
= 395.8 ohms.

which, as you can see, is very close to the 390 ohms of the resistive circuit of Fig. 1. This explains why the bulb lit to about the same brightness for the inductor as for the resistor. (This also explains why we selected a 1.05 Henry inductor—we wanted you to see like values in examples.)

When we crancked the audio oscillator up to 120 Hz, the inductive reactance became.

$$X_{L} = 2 \pi fL,$$

= 2 × π × 120 × 1.05
= 791.7 ohms.



The new current becomes, ignoring, for the moment, the 6-ohm bulb:

which is about half the rated current of the bulb. Hence, it would be dim at this frequency. You can easily calculate that at 50 Hz, the X becomes 329.9 ohms and the current rises to the excessive value of .303 amperes; any further lowering of frequency could burn out the bulb!

Enter the Capacitor

Returning to the parts-supply bin, we now take a large, *oil-filled* (—Don't try this with an electrolytic!) capacitor, and, measuring it on a capacitance bridge, find that its true value is 6.8 uF. An ohmmeter placed across the capacitor's terminals registers an upward 'kick' of the needle as the ohmmeter's internal battery charges the capacitor, but the ohmmeter then settles down to indicate that, as far as *it* is concerned, the capacitor is—as it should be—an open circuit.

We now replace the 390-ohm resistor of Fig 1. with the 6.8 uF capacitor, as shown in Fig. 4.

Again set the oscillator to 60 Hz, and turn on the equipment. Since the capacitor is really an open





sound and signal that we are accustomed to hearing, and that the existing receivers are capable of decoding. See Fig. 1 The *Left* minus *Right* (L-R) Portion of the signal is then used to frequency modulate the carrier. The composite radiated signal is then a combination of AM and FM.

When this combination is carefully and properly balanced, the mono signal sounds at least as good as the pre-stereo transmission. In addition receivers with the proper decoding circuits can "hear" the signal in stereo.

In Practice, this system has proven to have some faults. A phenomenon known as *platform motion* occurred. This cause a very undesirable sensation that as one listens, the platform that the musicians are on is shifting from side to side. When I experience this phenomena, I feel that I am falling to one side or the other. Perhaps this is akin to vertigo. There are several causes of platform motion, but for this brief discussion, suffice it to say that it is phase related.

In the Kahn-Hazeltine system, a somewhat different approach is used. Mr. Kahn decided to put the left channel on the upper sideband and the right channel on the lower sideband. See Fig 2.

The envelope detectors that are in common use today hear the two sidebands as the composite or monoural signal. By using the proper circuitry, the two independent sidebands are heard as the two channels of stereo. Since the sidebands are independent of each other, this system is often referred to as the *independent sideband system*. Two of the advantages of this system are that there is no platform motion and the stereo effect is present even at extreme broadcast range.

They Are There!

There are presently well over 400 AM stations in the U.S. and Canada that are transmitting in AM stereo using one of the systems that we have discussed here or one the other systems that had been produced earlier, but are no longer in competition. Some that have dropped out of the running are Magnavox, Belar and Harris. All of these used some form of the AM/FM method of stereo transmission.

At this time, the two remaining contenders for the AM stereo market are Motorola and Kahn. A recent poll of broadcast engineers revealed that they favor the Kahn system by a margin of 12 to 1, a most interesting finding since Motorola has over 200 system in service while Kahn has about 100. Perhaps the station owners are not listening to their engineering staff.

At this writing, receiver manufacturers have been somewhat slow to place receivers on the market that have AM stereo capability. Perhaps this can be blamed partly on the unavalaibility of an IC chip that will decode all of the system. However, Kahn Communications recently introduced a chip that will decode all of the system in present use. The manufacturing rights were given to Sony and the chip will be available to all interested manufacturers. The cost is comparable to the one presently offered by Motorola so we should soon see receivers on the market that can hear all of the AM stereo systems.

What system will emerge as the dominant one? I surely can not say. However, it seems that with advent of multi-mode receivers (five manufacturers are expected to be in production soon) the listener will have a strong voice in the matter and will vote with the tuning knob for the system that sounds best to him.

OSCILLATING AMPLIFIERS By Rodger D. Connith

s any slightly cynical experimenter can tell you, if you want an oscillator, build an amplifier—it's sure to oscillate. Conversely, if you want an amplifier, (this same cynic will tell you), build an oscillator—it's sure to fail to oscillate, and you can then use it as an amplifier! This is well known as a corollary to Murphy's famous law, "If anything can go wrong—it will!"

Our informed cynic must have had long and unhappy experience with negative-feedback amplifiers, which are known to have at least two outstanding characteristics:

1. They function beautifully if carefully designed and built.

2. Otherwise, they oscillate!

Why do they oscillate? Or, more basically, how does a feedback amplifier differ from an oscillator?

The fundamental block diagrams of an oscillator and an amplifier with feedback bear a strong resemblance



Fig. 1. Two block diagrams compare an inverting amplifier (A) to an oscillator (B).

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to each other, as you can see from Fig. 1. From a block diagram viewpoint, both diagrams are very similar. Both contain some type of amplifying device, and both have part of their output signal fed back to their input. There are only two major differences between them:

1. The amplifier with feedback contains an *inverting* amplifier; the oscillator contains a *non*-inverting amplifier.

2. The oscillator doesn't have an input.

The circuit action obtained from these two circuits is entirely different. In the amplifier with feedback, the output waveform is upside down with respect to the input, so when it is fed back to the amplifier input, it cancels a portion of the input waveform. The output is less than it would be without feedback. See Fig. 2.

The feedback signals from inverting amplifiers are not "in phase" with the input signal and subtract (or reduce) the input signal level to the amplifier. When a feedback signal does this, it is called *negative* feedback.

So Why Negative Feedback?

Of course, if you merely want the biggest possible gain for your money, negative feedback's not your game. However, negative feedback offers other advantages, which can be summed up by saying that the amplifier's output, though smaller, is always nearly constant for the same input signal. For example, if the amplifier weakens, with age, and the output tries to drop, there is less signal to be fed back; hence there is less cancellation, and the output is restored almost to its former level. Similarly, if you feed a high-frequency signal through the amplifier—so high in frequency that the amplifier can barely amplify it—the resultant drop in output reduces the fed-back voltage, produces



Fig. 2. Signal flow diagram illustrates how feedback in an inverting amplifier circuit reduces overall gain.

almost no cancelling feedback signal, and keeps the output nearly the same as it was at lower frequencies. Moreover, any clipping or other distortion of the waveform inside the amplifier produces an output waveform which does not match the input; hence the non-matching part is not cancelled, and the distortion is removed, or at least greatly reduced. Without this action, hi-fi amplifiers would not exist.

So the loss in output you obtain from negative feedback repays you by providing less distortion, better long-term stability, and better frequency response—that is, the best and most uniform output in response to all input frequencies.

On the Flip Side

The oscillator, on the other hand, is not supposed to give the best output from all input frequencies, but is instead made to give an output at a *single* frequency with no input at all. It's not surprising that the opposite type of internal amplifier (non-inverting) is used to obtain this opposite result. See Fig. 3.



Fig. 3. Signal flow diagrams shows how teedback signal from a non-inverting amplifier provides the positive feedback to produce an output signal larger than it would otherwise be without feedback.

In the oscillator, any output at all (probably the result of some random noise in the internal amplifying device) is fed back, non-inverted, to the input, where it does not cancel but instead serves as the signal at the input. This feedback signal causes an even larger output, which results in an ever larger signal fed back, further reinforcing the input signal, and so on

You guessed it—this type of feedback signal is

commonly referred to as *positive feedback*. In theory, the output waveform should continue to get larger forever. In practice, the amplifier is limited in the maximum size of the signal it can deliver, so the output waveform stops growing in this amplitude. As it stops to grow, so does the positive feedback signal. Now the signal reduces rapidly and the positive feedback signal lends a hand until the signal can get no lower. This is the beginning of the first cycle of many to follow.

All well and good, you say, but if the major difference between feedback amplifiers and oscillators is the inverting or non-inverting nature of their internal amplifiers, why does an amplifier sometimes oscillate? What turns an inverting amplifier into a non-inverting one?

To answer this question, first observe that an inverting amplifier, in passing a sine-wave signal, *effectively* shifts the signals phase by 180° as shown in Fig. 4. We say *effectively*, because it doesn't really shift the timing by delaying the signal (which is what a real phase-shifter does) but, by turning the signal upside



Fig. 4. The apparent phase shift of the output signal from the input signal is 180 degrees.

down, the amplifier makes it look like a signal which has been delayed (phase-shifted) by 180°.

A real phase-shifter, on the other hand, is normally nothing but a fistful of judiciously connected resistors and capacitors (and sometimes inductors) which can be designed to give a 180° phase shift at a single frequency, such as 1,000Hz, for example. In contrast to an inverting amplifier, it provides this phase shift by actually delaying the signal. See Fig. 5.



Fig. 5. The passive phase-shift circuit actually delays the output signal by a time interval measured in degrees by that portion of a sine wave so delayed. This effect appears to the apparent delay of an inverting amplifier.



Fig. 6. Combining an inverting amplifier and 180degree phase-shift circuit results in a 360-degree phase shift at 1000 Hertz only, which results in a non-inverting amplifier circuit. How can one "inadvertently" make a phase-shifter? It's easier than you might think. The circuit shown in Fig. 8A will provide 60° phase sift, at 1,000 Hz. Three such networks connected in a "ladder" (see Fig. 8B) will provide $3 \times 60^{\circ} = 180^{\circ}$ of phase shift. (But not at 1,000 Hz. Because of the way the networks load each other, the 180° shift occurs at 707 Hz. However, if an amplifier were located between each network, then the amplifier will oscillate at 1,000 Hz.) This network, if dropped into a normal feedback amplifier circuit, will convert it to an oscillator.

Phase-Shift Oscillator

This circuit (Fig. 9) is known as a *phase-shift* oscillator and is widely used in electronics. When you



Fig. 7. Since the 180-degree phase shift is frequency selective, this non-inverting amplifier will oscillate at 1000 Hertz.

What happens if we combine an inverting amplifier and a 180° phase-shifter? Take a look at Fig. 6.

This combination will shift the phase of a given frequency by a total of 360° (an entire cycle) so the output is identical to the input. In effect, this combination (at 1,000Hz) will behave the same as a non-inverting amplifier. See Fig. 6.

Therefore, if we build a feedback amplifier which contains the normal inverting amplifier but also (inadvertently) contains a 180° phase-shift network, the resultant circuit will oscillate at the particular frequency, (1,000Hz in the figure) for which the phaseshifter provides 180° phase shift. See Fig. 7.



Fig. 8. In this diagram, a simple network (A) offers 60-degrees of phase shift at 1000 Hertz. Ladder three such circuits in series and the total phase shift at 1000 Hertz will be 180 degrees.



Fig. 9. Two inverter amplifiers are shown here with one having a 180-degree phase-shift network added to induce positive feedback. The RC elements limit this oscillation to a fixed frequency.

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Fig. 10. External parts in this amplifier circuit have the same effect as the phase-shift circuit in Fig. 8A. However, values for the resistance and capacitance are selected to produce almost no phase-shift within the amplifiers normal frequency bandpass.

set out to build a phase-shift oscillator, you *deliberately* insert a phase-shifter to make the circuit oscillate. How could one ever *inadvertently* place such a circuit in a feedback amplifier, thereby producing unwanted oscillations?

Phase-shift circuits can "hide" within an amplifier, posing as other circuits. For example, vacuum-type amplifiers often have grid circuits arranged as shown in Fig. 10A. Does that resistor/capacitor circuit look familiar? In form, it's just like the phase-shift circuit above. And transistor amplifier circuits often take the form shown in Fig. 10B.

Again, the coupling/biasing network looks just like the basic phase-shifter network. At some frequency, this network will provide 60° of phase shift. If we use three such identical networks in a three-stage amplifier we have a 180° phase-shift network "buried" inside the amplifier, masquerading as three normal coupling networks. If this three-stage amplifier is used as part of a feedback amplifier arrangement, the amplifier will







Fig. 12. An inverting amplifier may oscillate do to stray capacitance in these external circuit amplifiers providing a 180-degree phase shift at some very high frequency. Output signal is within frequency bandpass of the amplifier before phase shift causes oscillation (positive feedback).



Fig. 13. Low frequency feedback occurs because the capacitor C1 is not effective at these low frequencies. Thus, any portion of the output signal that will cause a ripple in the power supply will serve as a positive feedback.



Fig. 15. Divide and conquer—separate input connections from output connections to different buses, and a good deal of the unwanted signal mixing will not occur. The resistance of the power supply must be very low otherwise all that is gained using this construction technique will be lost.

oscillate at some frequency, and be quite useless for the purpose for which it was intended.

More Trouble

This is not the only way an amplifier can get into trouble. There are other types of phase-shifters that can creep into amplifiers, unrecognized, and drive the unwary experimenter up the nearest wall. This circuit (shown in Fig. 11A) can also produce a phase-shift of 60° at 1,000Hz. Three of them, can produce the 180° phase-shift required for oscillation. See Fig. 11B. This particular network can invade amplifiers in an even more insidious fashion. The "masquerading" part of the circuit is shown heavy in Fig. 11C. The dotted capacitor doesn't appear physically in the circuit, because it is the so-called "stray capacity" associated with wires, sockets, terminals, etc.

Three of these circuits hiding in an amplifier, can produce an unwanted oscillation. See Fig. 12. Since the stray capacities are so small, this "osciplifier" will oscillate at a very high frequency; often so high that it is undetected as an oscillation. However, such oscillation



Fig. 14. A ground bus has a finite resistance, and, when high-current output signal mix with low-level signals in the same bus, positive feedback may result with the attending possibility of oscillation.



Fig. 16. A good idea is to split up the voltage distribution to many circuit points by two or more power supply decoupling networks. Compare this diagram to Fig. 13.

can make an amplifier behave erratically; sometimes distorting, sometimes not; sometimes overheating, sometimes not. Fig. 7 and Fig. 12 have a lot in common.

Are feedback amplifiers the only culprits in this oscillating-amplifier business? Absolutely not! Often, so-called "straight" amplifiers—with no *intentional* feedback—will gaily oscillate away. But watch that word *intentional*. Close inspection of these misbehaving circuits usually uncovers an *unintentional* feedback path hiding within the amplifier.

Consider the innocent-looking circuit in Fig. 13. This is an ordinary two-stage amplifier, obviously assigned the task of converting a small, positive-going signal into a large, positive-going signal. To help it along, the designer has even provided a decoupling network, R1 and C1. At high frequencies, C1 acts like a short circuit, effectively isolating (decoupling) the amplifier's power bus, Ecc +, from the main power bus, Ecc ++. But at low frequencies, the capacitor acts like an open circuit—it just isn't there! A small part of the output voltage now appears across R1, and is coupled through the (Continued on page 96)





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FROM OUR MAIL BAG Ben Valerio, P. O. Box 21, Magna, Vith: "The Edu-Kits are wonderful. Here am scending you the questions and also Radio for the last severie ears. but work with Radio Testing Equipment. I en-poyed event the start severie works to work with Radio Testing Equipment. I en-poyed event the signal Tracer works the severie works with the difference of the severie works of the read of the severies and the severies to work with the severies of the severies to work with the severies of the severies to work with the severies of the severies the severies of the severies of the severies of the trouble-shooting Tester that comes with the severies is any to be found."

SOLID STATE

Today an electronics technician or hobbylst re-quires a knowledge of solid state. as well as vacuum tube circuitry. The "Edu-Kit" course teaches both. You will build vacuum tube. 100% solid state and combination ("hybrid") circuits.

PRINTED CIRCUITRY

At no increase in price, the "Edu-Kit" now includes Printed Circuitry. You build a Printed Circuit Signal Injector, a unique servicing instrument that can detect many Radio and TV troubles. This revolutionary new technique of radio construction is now becoming popular in commercial radio and TV sets.

becoming popular in commercial radio and TV sets. A Printed Circuit is a special insulated chassis on which has been deposited a con-ducting material which takes the place of wiring. The various parts are merely plugged in and soldered to terminals. Printed Circuitry is the basis of modern Automation Electronics. A knowledge of this orbitation enversion today for enverse

subject is a necessity today for anyone in-terested in Electronics.