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NOVEMBER 1992

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Anniversary  
Issue

## TOMORROW'S TECHNOLOGY

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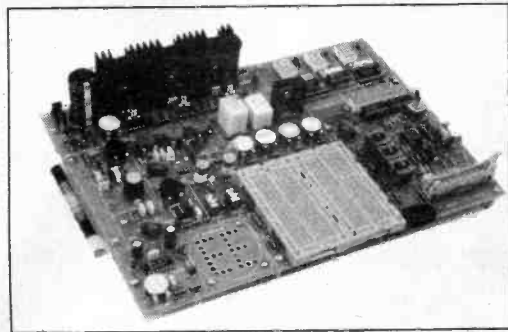
VOL. 21 No. 11 NOVEMBER 1992

The No. 1 Independent Magazine for Electronics,  
Technology and Computer Projects

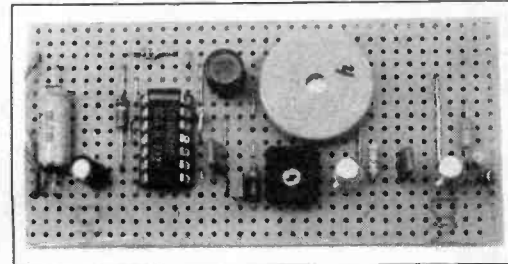
ISSN 0262 3617

PROJECTS... THEORY... NEWS...  
COMMENT... POPULAR FEATURES...

## Projects

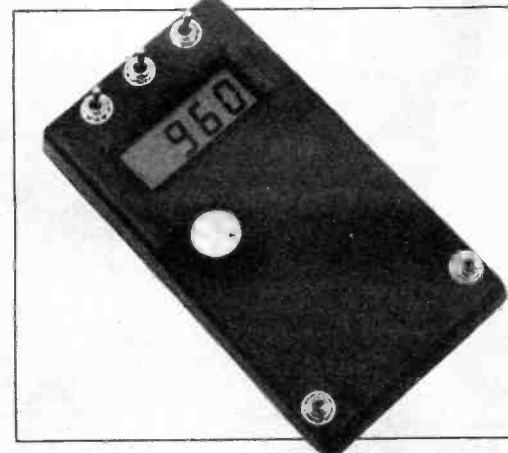


- EPE ALTIMET** by John Becker 694  
A self-contained "pocket" altimeter for anyone who reaches a high.
- REACTION TIMER** by T. R. de Vaux-Balbirnie 710  
Test your reactions with this inexpensive unit
- BATTERY TO MAINS INVERTER DAUGHTER BOARD** by Mark Daniels 718  
A fix for the obsolete chip in the original design
- PERSONAL STEREO AMPLIFIER** by I. A. Duncombe 720  
An excellent easy to build design with various power supply options
- MINI LAB** by Alan Winstanley and Keith Dye 736  
A versatile test, development and prototyping board specially designed for Teach-In '93
- VIBRATION ALARM** by M. G. Argent 742  
Ingenuous design that uses the piezo sounder as the vibration transducer



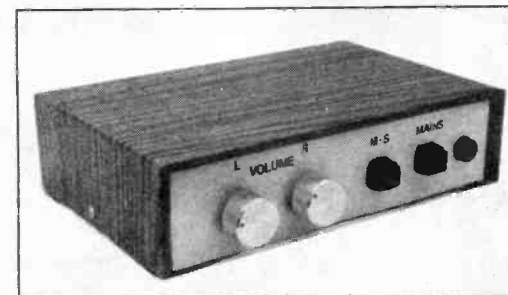
## Series

- ALTERNATIVE ENERGY - 4** 714  
by T. R. de Vaux Balbirnie  
Power from water; tides, waves, hydro-electric and hydrogen
- TEACH-IN '93 - 1** by Alan Winstanley and Keith Dye 726  
Our series for everyone learning about electronics and particularly GCSE and "A" level students
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Component substitution for project building
- CIRCUIT SURGERY** by Mike Tooley 744  
Clinic for constructors - your problems solved
- INTERFACE** by Robert Penfold 747  
Stepper motors; Pads-PCB program
- AMATEUR RADIO** by Tony Smith G4FAI 756  
What's in a name; Skilled involvement; Annual report; Numbers up



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A special PCB SALE (while stocks last) - boards for EPE projects
- FREE WITH THIS ISSUE - GREENWELD 196 PAGE CATALOGUE** Banded to the magazine
- ADVERTISER'S INDEX** 760



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Our December '92 issue will be published on Friday, 6 November 1992. See page 683 for details.

Readers Services • Editorial and Advertisement Departments 693





## **VERSATILE INFRA-RED REMOTE CONTROL**

*There are many applications for which constructors would like remote control. This versatile unit has been designed for application in a diverse range of equipment. Everything from one button operation of garage doors to 32 codes for three different receivers in one room, a total of 96 combinations.*

*The entire system, transmitter and receiver, uses just three i.c.s is compact and easy to build. Various output decoding and switching options are discussed and full detail of interfacing to our Mains Appliance Remote Control (MARC) system, published in 1990, are given. If you want remote control for almost anything this article should meet your needs.*

**FREE**

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# **BULL ELECTRICAL C A T A L O G U E**

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## **MIDI LEAD TESTER**

*This unit enables MIDI connecting leads to be quickly checked, and it will show up broken wires/connections or short circuits from one lead to another. In use it is much quicker and easier than using a multimeter or continuity checker. Checking leads with ordinary test equipment is easy enough provided you have four hands (two for the test leads and two for the plugs!) It should be possible to build the tester for less than the cost of ready made units, some of which seem to be rather crude in comparison to this device. It can help to greatly speed-up checks on a faulty MIDI system.*

## **COMBINATION SWITCH**

*The Combination Switch or Combination Lock is a versatile project which may be used to unlock a door or switch off an alarm etc. The user's password is held in memory, which is protected by a back-up battery in case of power cuts. The password may be re-programmed by the user at any time, and up to 12 digits can be stored. If the wrong password is entered more than three times, a siren output is activated for a minute or so. There is also provision for a switch input so that the siren sounds if the switch is closed before the correct password has been entered. This may be used to detect a door or window being forced. The project may be fully integrated with an alarm system if required.*

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**WITH PRACTICAL**

**ELECTRONICS**

**DECEMBER ISSUE PUBLISHED FRIDAY 6TH NOVEMBER.**

**EXTENSION**

# SURVEILLANCE PROFESSIONAL QUALITY KITS

## No. 1 for Kits

Whether your requirement for surveillance equipment is amateur, professional or you are just fascinated by this unique area of electronics SUMA DESIGNS has a kit to fit the bill. We have been designing electronic surveillance equipment for over 12 years and you can be sure that all of our kits are very well tried, tested and proven and come complete with full instructions, circuit diagrams, assembly details and all high quality components including fibreglass PCB. Unless otherwise stated all transmitters are tuneable and can be received on an ordinary VHF FM radio.

### UTX Ultra-miniature Room Transmitter

Smallest room transmitter kit in the world! Incredible 10mm x 20mm including mic. 3-12V operation. 500m range.....£16.45

### MTX Micro-miniature Room Transmitter

Best-selling micro-miniature Room Transmitter  
Just 17mm x 17mm including mic. 3-12V operation. 1000m range.....£13.45

### STX High-performance Room Transmitter

Hi performance transmitter with a buffered output stage for greater stability and range. Measures 22mm x 22mm including mic. 6-12V operation, 1500m range.....£15.45

### VT500 High-power Room Transmitter

Powerful 250mW output providing excellent range and performance. Size 20mm x 40mm. 9-12V operation. 3000m range.....£16.45

### VXT Voice Activated Transmitter

Triggers only when sounds are detected. Very low standby current. Variable sensitivity and delay with LED indicator. Size 20mm x 67mm. 9V operation. 1000m range.....£19.45

### HVX400 Mains Powered Room Transmitter

Connects directly to 240V AC supply for long-term monitoring. Size 30mm x 35mm. 500m range.....£19.45

### SCRX Subcarrier Scrambled Room Transmitter

Scrambled output from this transmitter cannot be monitored without the SCDM decoder connected to the receiver. Size 20mm x 67mm. 9V operation. 1000m range.....£22.95

### SCLX Subcarrier Telephone Transmitter

Connects to telephone line anywhere, requires no batteries. Output scrambled so requires SCDM connected to receiver. Size 32mm x 37mm. 1000m range.....£23.95

### SCDM Subcarrier Decoder Unit for SCRX

Connects to receiver earphone socket and provides decoded audio output to headphones. Size 32mm x 70mm. 9-12V operation.....£22.95

### ATR2 Micro Size Telephone Recording Interface

Connects between telephone line (anywhere) and cassette recorder. Switches tape automatically as phone is used. All conversations recorded. Size 16mm x 32mm. Powered from line.....£13.45

### UTLX Ultra-miniature Telephone Transmitter

Smallest telephone transmitter kit available. Incredible size of 10mm x 20mm! Connects to line (anywhere) and switches on and off with phone use. All conversation transmitted. Powered from line. 500m range.....£15.95

### TLX700 Micro-miniature Telephone Transmitter

Best-selling telephone transmitter. Being 20mm x 20mm it is easier to assemble than UTLX. Connects to line (anywhere) and switches on and off with phone use. All conversations transmitted. Powered from line. 1000m range.....£13.45

### STLX High-performance Telephone Transmitter

High performance transmitter with buffered output stage providing excellent stability and performance. Connects to line (anywhere) and switches on and off with phone use. All conversations transmitted. Powered from line. Size 22mm x 22mm. 1500m range.....£16.45

### TX900 Signalling/Tracking Transmitter

Transmits a continuous stream of audio pulses with variable tone and rate. Ideal for signalling or tracking purposes. High power output giving range up to 3000m. Size 25mm x 63mm. 9V operation.....£22.95

### CD400 Pocket Bug Detector/Locator

LED and piezo bleeper pulse slowly, rate of pulse and pitch of tone increase as you approach signal. Gain control allows pinpointing of source. Size 45mm x 54mm. 9V operation.....£30.95

### CD600 Professional Bug Detector/Locator

Multicolour readout of signal strength with variable rate bleeper and variable sensitivity used to detect and locate hidden transmitters. Switch to AUDIO CONFORM mode to distinguish between localised bug transmission and normal legitimate signals such as pagers, cellular, taxis etc. Size 70mm x 100mm. 9V operation.....£50.95

### QTX180 Crystal Controlled Room Transmitter

Narrow band FM transmitter for the ultimate in privacy. Operates on 180 MHz and requires the use of a scanner receiver or our QRX180 kit (see catalogue). Size 20mm x 67mm. 9V operation. 1000m range.....£40.95

### QLX180 Crystal Controlled Telephone Transmitter

As per QTX180 but connects to telephone line to monitor both sides of conversations. 20mm x 67mm. 9V operation. 1000m range.....£40.95

### QSX180 Line Powered Crystal Controlled Phone Transmitter

As per QLX180 but draws power requirements from line. No batteries required. Size 32mm x 37mm. Range 500m.....£35.95

### QRX180 Crystal Controlled FM Receiver

For monitoring any of the 'Q' range transmitters. High sensitivity unit. All RF section supplied as a pre-built and aligned module ready to connect on board so no difficulty setting up. Output to headphones. 60mm x 75mm. 9V operation.....£60.95

### A build-up service is available on all our kits if required.

UK customers please send cheques, POs or registered cash. Please add £1.50 per order for P&P. Goods despatched ASAP allowing for cheque clearance. Overseas customers send sterling bank draft and add £5.00 per order for shipment. Credit card orders welcomed on 0827 714476.

**OUR LATEST CATALOGUE CONTAINING MANY MORE NEW SURVEILLANCE KITS NOW AVAILABLE. SEND TWO FIRST CLASS STAMPS OR OVERSEAS SEND TWO IRCS.**

## ★★★ Specials ★★★

### DLTX/DLRX Radio Control Switch

Remote control anything around your home or garden, outside lights, alarms, paging system etc. System consists of a small VHF transmitter with digital encoder and receiver unit with decoder and relay output, momentary or alternate, 8-way di1 switches on both boards set your own unique security code. TX size 45mm x 45mm. RX size 35mm x 90mm. Both 9V operation. Range up to 200m.

Complete System (2 kits).....£50.95  
Individual Transmitter DLTX.....£19.95  
Individual Receiver DLRX.....£37.95

### MBX-1 Hi-Fi Micro Broadcaster

Not technically a surveillance device but a great idea! Connects to the headphone output of your Hi-Fi, tape or CD and transmits Hi-Fi quality to a nearby radio. Listen to your favourite music anywhere around the house, garden, in the bath or in the garage and you don't have to put up with the DJ's choice and boring waffle. Size 27mm x 60mm. 9V operation. 250m range.....£20.95

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## electronize electronic kits

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- ☆ Runs any motor up to 10 amp. continuous current.
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- ☆ Optional voltage regulator for single battery operation. (Type 43VR)

Type 43X (2 to 24 v motors) parts kit £17.75 Assembled £25.95  
Type 43VR (7 to 24 v motors) parts kit £19.45 Assembled £27.95

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This new type of alarm is triggered by a unique pressure sensing system. As any vehicle door is opened air is drawn out, causing a minute drop in air pressure. A sensor detects this sudden pressure change and sets off the alarm. A sophisticated arrangement of electronic filters and timers provide features to match more expensive ultra-sonic systems.

- ☆ Operates on all doors and tailgate - no switches needed.
- ☆ Automatically armed 40 seconds after leaving vehicle.
- ☆ 10 second entry delay with audible warning. (0.5 second available)
- ☆ Sounds horn or siren intermittently for 30 seconds - then re-arms.
- ☆ Easy fitting - only 3 wires to connect - no holes to drill.
- ☆ Controlled by ignition switch, hidden switch or coded remote control below.

MICRO-PRESSURE ALARM parts kit £15.95 Assembled £22.35

### Also available :-

VOLT DROP CAR ALARM parts kit £14.90 Assembled £20.95  
I.R. CODED TRANSMITTER parts kit £13.95 Assembled £17.95  
I.R. CODE RECEIVER parts kit £21.35 Assembled £26.55  
120dB PIEZO SIREN (optional for the above alarms) Assembled £11.95  
MICRO-PRESSURE TRIGGER parts kit £10.95 Assembled £14.95  
EXTENDED CDI IGNITION parts kit £22.75 Assembled £28.45

All the above include cable, connectors and clear easy to follow instructions. All kits include case, PCB, everything down to the last washer, even solder. All prices are mail order discount and include post, packing and VAT on U.K. orders. Same prices apply to all European countries. For delivery outside Europe please add £3. Telephone orders accepted with VISA or ACCESS payment. Order direct (please quote ref. EE6) or send for more details from :-

**ELECTRONIZE DESIGN** Tel. 021 308 5877  
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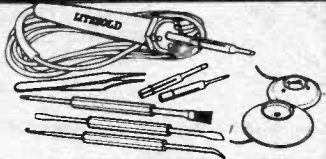
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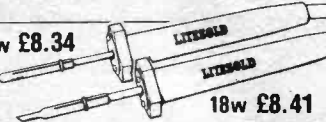
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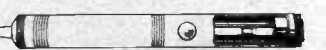
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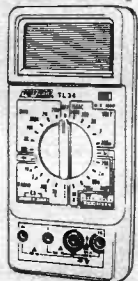
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Pocket size instrument  
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■ 7 Capacitance, 0/200 mfd  
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■ 7 Resistance 0/200 M ohm  
£69.95 incl VAT  
with leads and battery



#### TL34

33 Range 3 1/2 digit mm 24mm Large Display  
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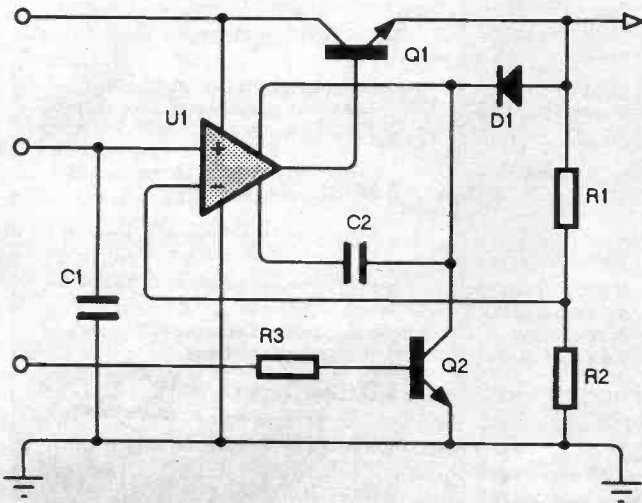


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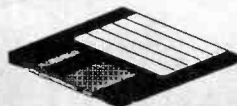
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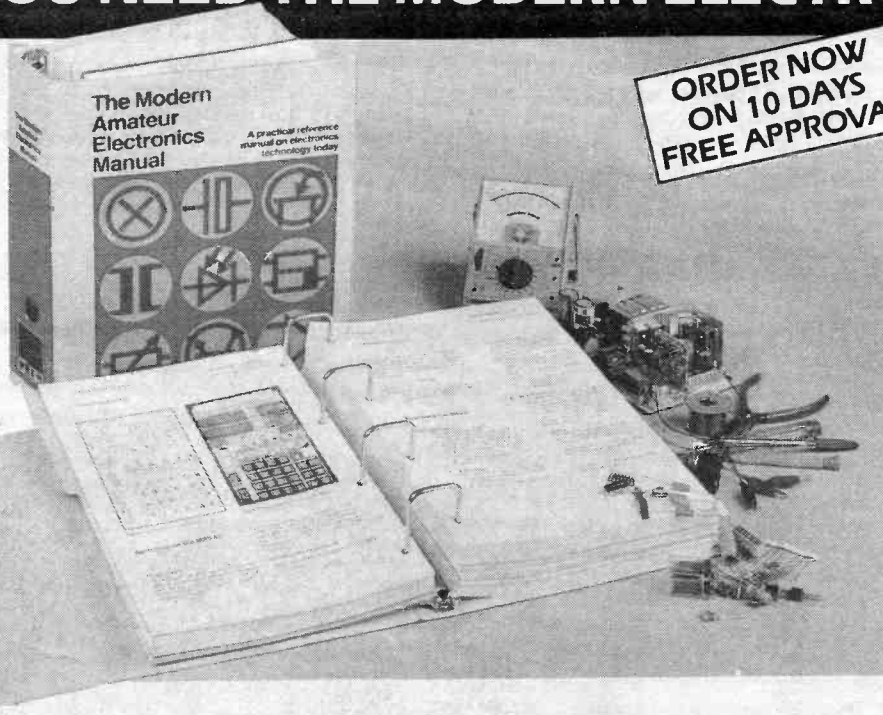
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The base manual contains information on the following subjects:

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**CIRCUITS TO BUILD:** construction techniques, radio, telephony, microcomputing, measuring instruments, vehicle electronics, security, audio, power supplies, electronic music (over 25 different projects).

**REPAIRS AND MAINTENANCE:** radio, television, audio/hi-fi, telephones.

**DATA:** diodes, transistors, thyristors and triacs, digital and linear i.c.s, microprocessors.

The manual also covers **Safety, Specialist Vocabulary with Abbreviations and Suppliers.**

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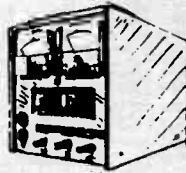
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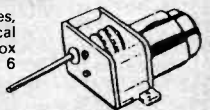
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## VOL. 21 No. 11 NOVEMBER '92

### HISTORIC

As regular readers will know this is a historic issue which not only represents 21 years of *Everyday Electronics* but also sees the merger of *Practical Electronics* with *Everyday Electronics*. We have tried to expand the magazine to meet the needs of both sets of readers and we hope and believe that this issue represents the best possible electronics magazine for hobbyists, students and technicians alike.

Never before have we encompassed such a wide spread of articles with plenty to read on new technology and general developments, plus a good range of constructional projects. However we do not intend to rest there, please let us know what you think of the magazine; especially if we are failing to cover something which interests you. We cannot promise to meet every requirement but we can try.

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There has been so much pressure on space this month that we have had to leave out one or two items. These include our *Readout* (EE) or *Wavelengths* (PE) readers letters page. We hope to fit this in next month so keep those letters coming, we should have room for a lively selection.



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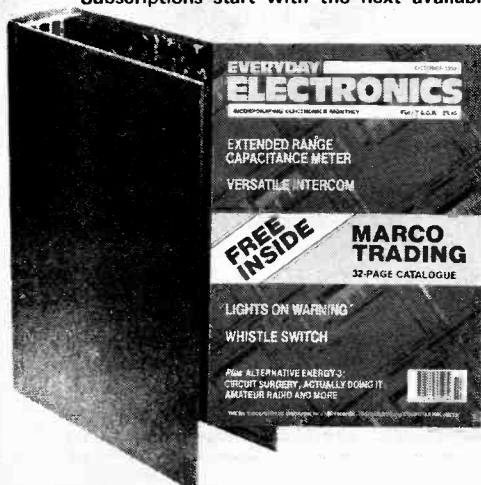
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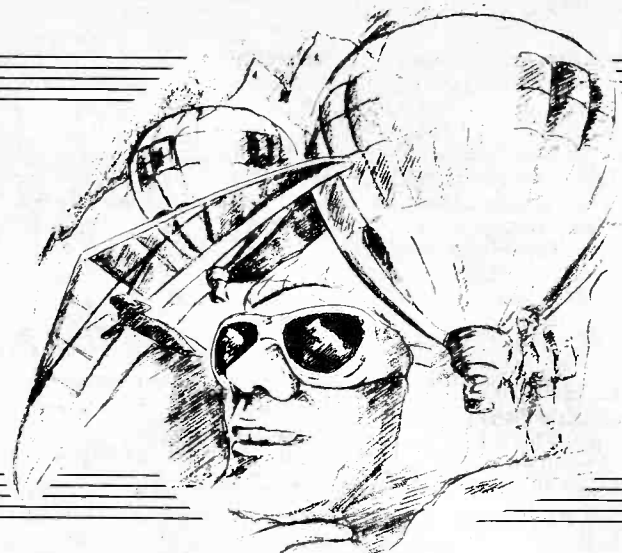
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# EPE ALTIMET

## JOHN BECKER



Measure up to the outdoor high-life with this handy pocket altimeter

ANYONE with an interest in the ups and downs of outdoor activities, walkers, climbers, cyclists, balloonists, hang-gliders, pot-holders and so on, will find their curiosity further satisfied through using the EPE Altimet. It is a handheld unit which uses two sensors, a DPM (digital panel meter) chip and an l.c.d. (liquid crystal display) to monitor and display data about altitude in metres and feet, barometric pressure in millibars, and temperature in Fahrenheit or Celsius.

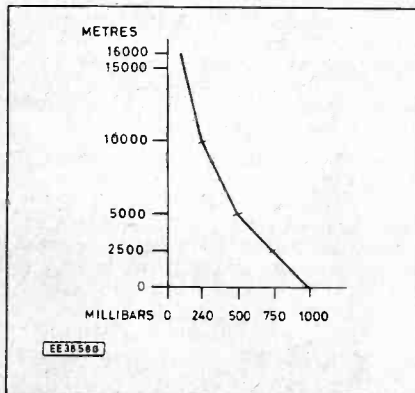
The maximum readout range is  $\pm 1999$  metres relative to sea level. To facilitate setting-up, access to a digital multimeter, a good thermometer and a nearby hill is recommended!

### PRESSING FACTS

The earth is surrounded by an envelope of air extending to around 500 miles above its surface and having an estimated total weight of 5,000 billion tons. At sea level, the pressure exerted by this mass of air is on average 14.72 pounds per square inch (PSI), or 1kg per square centimetre. This average is also defined as a pressure of one atmosphere, or one bar, although meteorologists more commonly regard it as 1013.25 millibars (mb).

As one rises higher into the atmosphere, so the air pressure decreases, reducing to about one half (500mb) at 5,000 metres – see Fig. 1. At 16,000 metres the pressure has dropped to 100mb, while at 100,000 metres it is barely 0.001mb.

Fig. 1. Basic altitude to millibar graph.



Although the pressure versus height relationship is not linear, for some purposes it may be regarded as such within the range of 0 to 5000 metres. It can thus be stated that up to a height of 5000 metres a

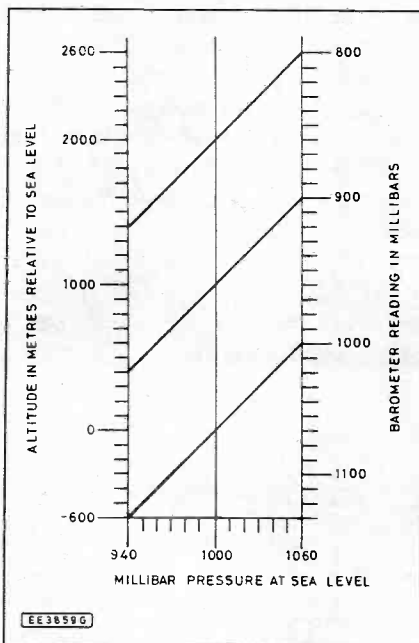


Fig. 2. Altitude to variable atmospheric pressure conversion graph.

change of 1mb represents a change of 10 metres.

However, the atmosphere is in a constant state of turmoil and the total weight of air above a given location can vary considerably. Under extreme conditions the pressure can range from about 940mb to 1060mb, as indicated by the scale on a standard aneroid barometer. Obviously, therefore, an altimeter using the barometric principle must have a separate control to adjust for natural changes in atmospheric pressure.

Variations in height plotted against millibars across the range of 940mb to 1060mb is shown in the conversion graph Fig. 2. If the pressure at sea level is 1000mb (horizontal axis) and a barometer shows a reading of 900mb (right hand column) the barometer is at a height of 1000 metres (left hand column). If the pressure at sea level is 1060mb and the barometer's altitude is 1000 metres it should show a reading of 960mb.

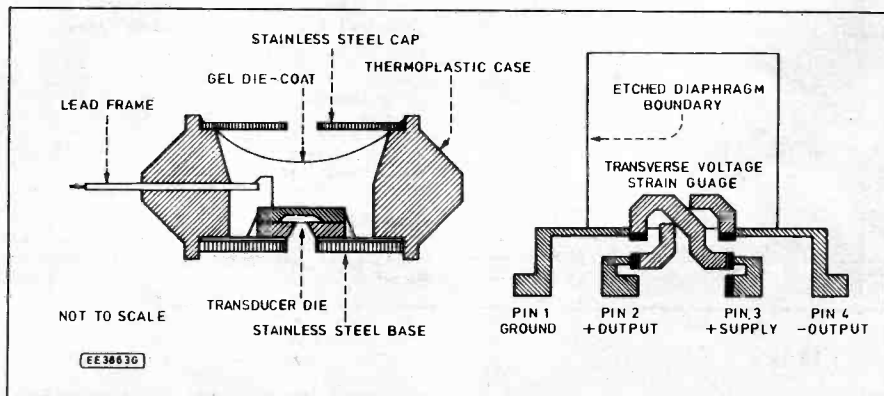
### PRESSURE SENSOR

A piezo-resistive device, the Motorola MPX100A, is used as the pressure sensor in the EPE Altimet. Its schematic functional details are shown in Fig. 3.

In manufacture, a transverse voltage strain gauge is diffused on a thin silicon diaphragm which is mounted across an evacuated cavity. In the presence of an excitation voltage across the strain gauge, when pressure is applied to the diaphragm the resistance of the gauge changes, causing a change in the output voltage directly proportional to the pressure applied.

The MPX100A produces a voltage change of between 45mV and 90mV,

Fig. 3. The MPX100A pressure transducer internal structure and function details.





the guaranteed minimum to maximum manufacturing tolerance range, for a pressure change of 100 kiloPascals (kPa). 100kPa equals 14.5 PSI, which is approximately equal to one bar.

Taking the typical output as 60mV per 100kPa, a 1mb pressure change will produce a voltage change of approximately 0.06mV. Likewise, a change in altitude of one metre (below an altitude of 5,000 metres) produces a change of 0.006mV.

Consequently, the interface between the sensor and the l.c.d. readout must convert the voltage changes by a factor which will cause each 0.006mV step to result in a barometric display change of one unit per millibar. This factor then has to be multiplied by 10 for the metres display, and by a further 3.28 for the feet display (1 metre = 3.280839 feet).

In the practical circuit, whose block diagram is shown in Fig. 4, the sensor output is in fact multiplied by a factor related to unitary changes on the feet scale, and then separately divided for the metres and millibar scales.

### SENSOR CIRCUIT

In order to ease the understanding of the EPE Altimet circuit, it has been divided into three sections: pressure sensor and psu; temperature and battery level; an l.c.d. display and controller.

The details of the sensor amplification and division scaling circuit diagram is shown in Fig. 5. It also shows the power supply details.

TX1 is the pressure sensing transducer. Its internal resistance is predetermined in manufacture within the range of 400 to 550 ohms. The value of the resistor R5 in series with TX1 is selected to suit the resistance of the transducer at 25°C.

Several of the transducer parameters are temperature dependent and the value of resistor R5 is instrumental in minimising part of the effect of their changes. This will be discussed later.

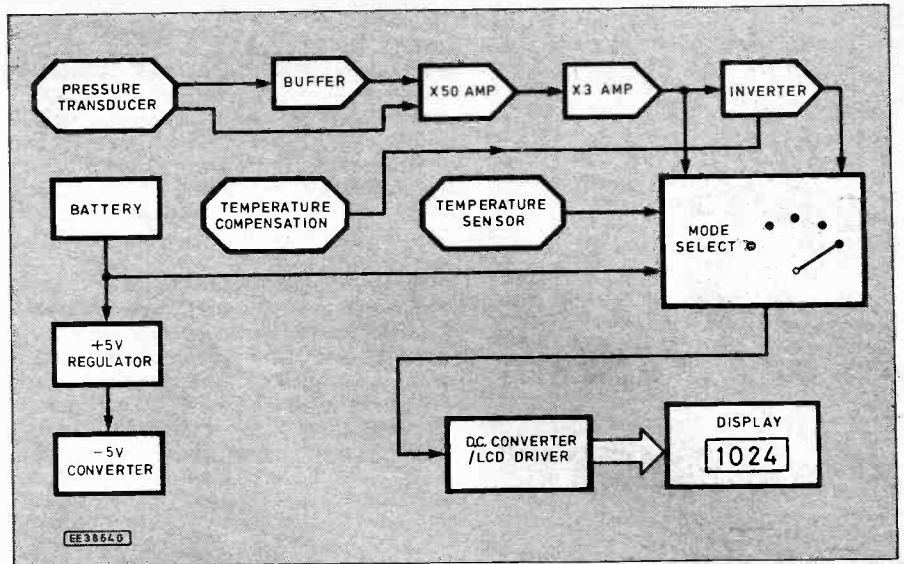


Fig. 4. Full block diagram for the EPE Altimet.

The transducer TX1 has two differential outputs, pins 2 and 4. The voltage span across them decreases as atmospheric pressure falls. Both are fed to the non-inverting inputs of op.amps IC2a and IC2b, which are configured respectively as a unity gain buffer and differential amplifier with a gain of about 50 set by the values of resistors R10 and R11.

From IC2b, the signal is inverted and is given an additional gain of around 3.3 by IC2c. Preset control VR2 in series with resistors R13 and R14 varies the bias at IC2c pin 12 so enabling the basic output voltage at IC2c pin 14 to be preset.

Before being further processed by IC2d, the voltage at IC2c pin 14 is tapped to provide barometric pressure data. Preset VR5 in series with resistor R20 divides the voltage by 32.8 presetting the span range required by the l.c.d. readout circuit. The inclusion of preset VR4 in series with resistor R21 is used to impose a bias voltage on

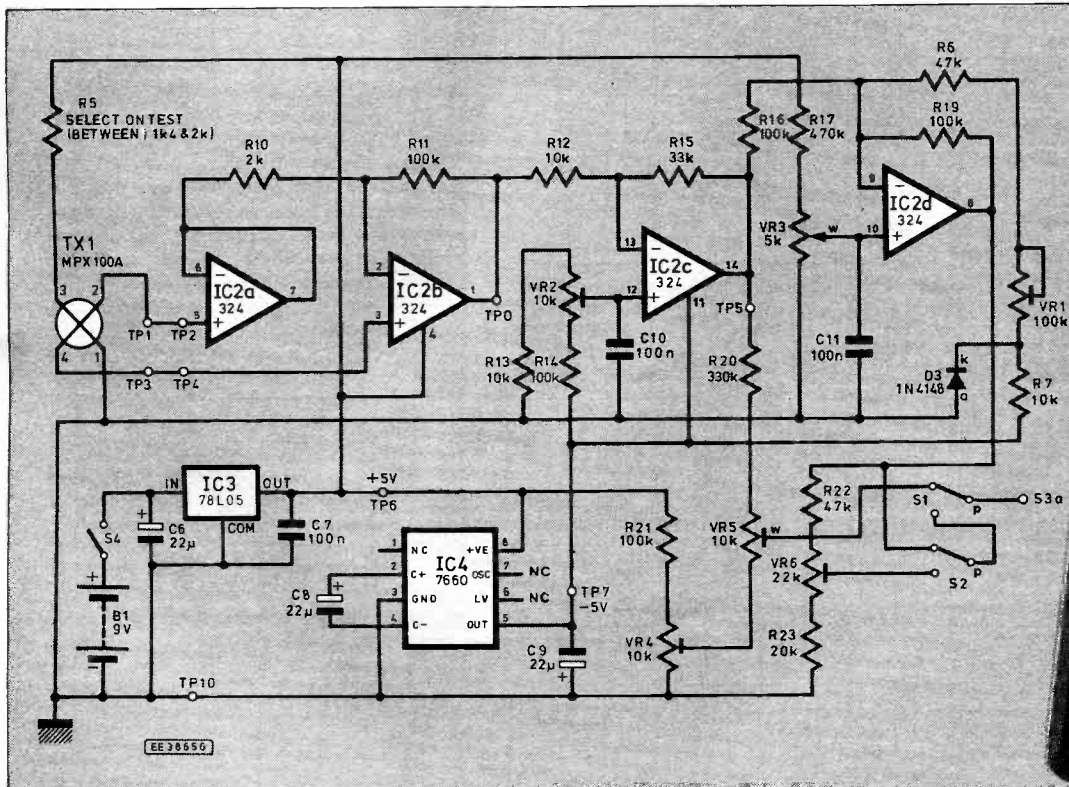
one side of VR5 to increase the barometer readout by approximately 1000mb.

Whereas a barometer shows a decrease in reading with a decrease in pressure, an altimeter has to show an increase. Consequently, IC2d is used to invert the voltage change direction but, within the tolerances of resistors R16 and R19, does not change the amplification.

A panel-mounted control VR3 provides IC2d with a variable bias voltage, allowing the altitude readout to be set to compensate for normal meteorological changes in atmospheric pressure. The range controlled by VR3 is about 300 metres. This may be increased by increasing the value of VR3 or by reducing the value of R17.

The output of IC2d directly provides the voltage data for an altitude readout in feet. For the metres scale, the output of IC2d is tapped by preset VR6 in series with resistors R22 and R23, dividing the voltage by 3.28. Switch S2 selects between

Fig. 5. Circuit diagram for the EPE Altimet sensor amplifier, division scaling and regulated power supply.



the Feet and Metres modes and feeds to switch S1 which selects between Height and Barometric modes.

## TEMPERATURE COMPENSATION

In any d.c. amplification circuit there is a tendency for voltage levels to change as temperature changes. The component which causes most drift in the EPE Altimet is the transducer TX1.

Even with resistor R5 chosen correctly, the transducer's offset voltage typically changes with temperature by about  $\pm 15$  microvolts per degree Celsius. In the test model, the offset drift after amplification was 63mV per 40°F (22.2°C).

Compensation for this and other minor drifts is effected by the temperature-related change in voltage across the forward biased diode D3. The voltage at the junction of D3 and resistor R7 increases by about 1mV with each 1°F increase (1.8mV°C).

A proportion of the change, as controlled by the values of resistor R6 and preset VR1, is fed into IC2d to counterbalance the majority of the circuit drift from the altitude readouts. The barometer output is left uncompensated since the attenuation by VR5 reduces the effect to only about 2mV per 40°F (22.2°C).

## TEMPERATURE AND BATTERY MONITORING

Another diode is used as the temperature sensing element, shown in Fig.6 as D4. Resistor R24 and preset VR9 form a potential divider across the +5V and 0V power lines providing a bias voltage to D4. The voltage across D4 changes at a similar rate to that across D3 (Fig. 5).

Preset VR9 adjusts the displayed temperature value and VR7 presets the voltage/temperature output span. The choice of whether temperatures are shown

in Fahrenheit or Celsius is made when setting up the unit, and simply entails adjusting VR7 for the desired ratio. S3a selects between temperature display and the modes routed via switch S1 as shown in Fig. 5.

Whereas height and barometric readings are shown as integer values, temperature is displayed to within one tenth of a degree. The decimal point control being switched in by S3b.

In height and barometric modes, the decimal point is pulsed in phase with the l.c.d. backplane clock, so rendering the point inactive. In temperature mode, the point is activated by connecting it via the OR gate around diodes D1, D2 and resistor R18 to two segments of the l.c.d. hundreds digit, one or other of which will

always be active irrespective of the number displayed.

Also shown in Fig.6 is a battery check facility. Resistors R8 and R9 form a potential divider across the battery input lines. The tapped voltage is switched to the l.c.d. circuit (Fig. 7) via switch S5, an action which switches the previous mode selectors out of circuit.

The R8/R9 ratio causes an l.c.d. readout of approximately 900 for a battery voltage of 9.0V. There was insufficient room in the case to fit a d.p.c.o. switch to activate a decimal point in a similar way to S3.

## L.C.D. READOUT

The circuit diagram which converts the monitored voltages levels into an equivalent l.c.d. display is shown in Fig. 7. The DPM chip IC1 is the heart of the circuit. It assesses the input voltage level and relates it to the reference voltage set by VR8 in series with resistor R2, timing the rate at which capacitor C4 charges and discharges.

The timing is clock controlled at a rate set by resistor R1 and capacitor C1 and an internal counter counts the number of pulses required to discharge capacitor C4. The counter outputs are internally decoded to control the four l.c.d. digits and a negative polarity symbol.

The backplane pulsing and phasing necessary for controlling l.c.d.s is automatically generated by IC1 and is internally set at a sub-multiple of the main clock frequency. (Note that l.c.d. segments should NOT be controlled by a d.c. voltage since this steady state could damage them.)

Irrespective of the reference voltage set, the full scale range for that voltage is represented by 1999 steps. Input voltages outside the reference range cause the l.c.d. to blank the three right-hand digits and turn on the left-hand digit.

Preset VR8 is used to vary the reference voltage to suit the output voltage span produced by the transducer's amplifier stages. In effect, VR8 serves as an additional gain controller. This means that

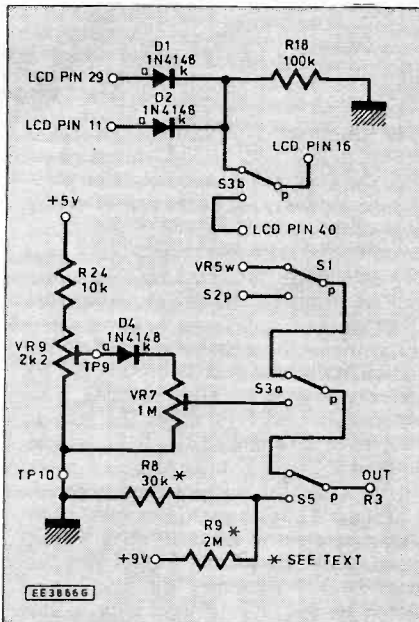
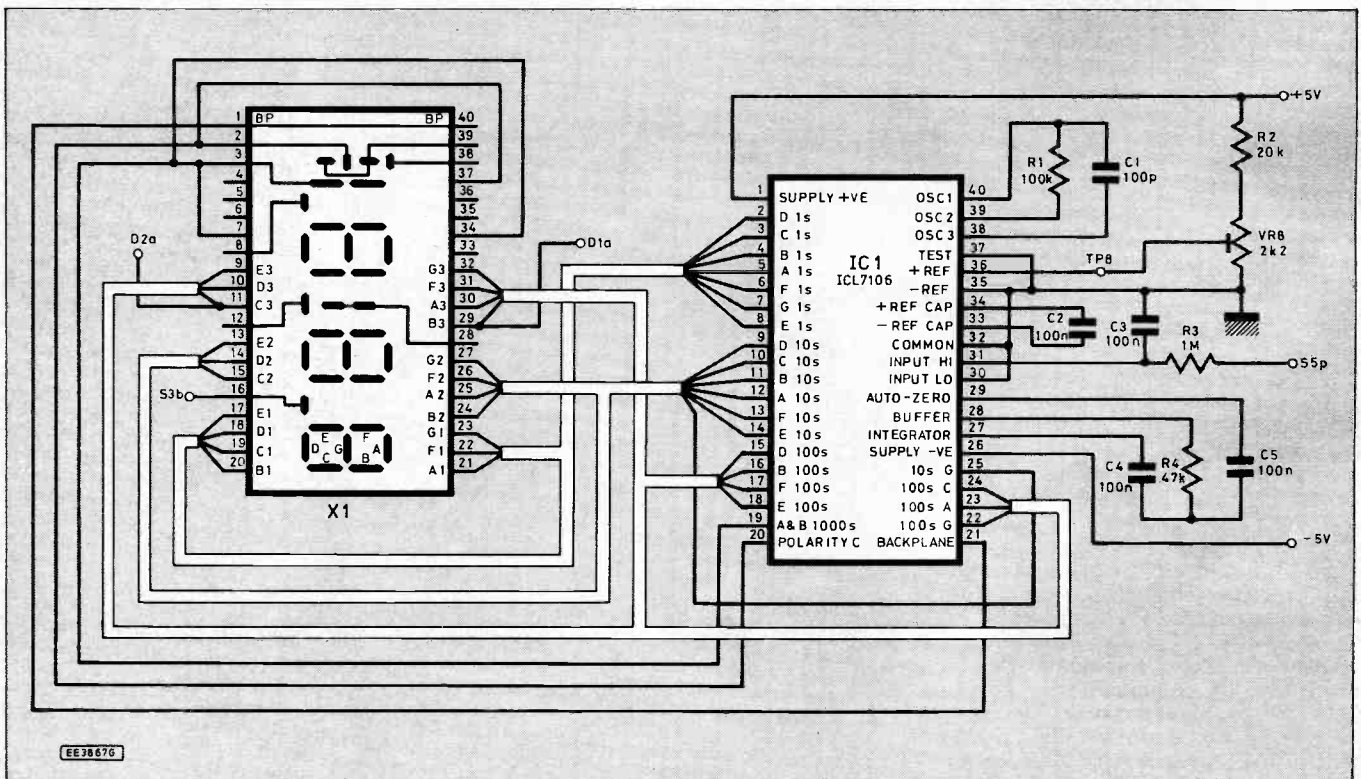


Fig. 6. Circuit diagram of the temperature and battery level section.

Fig. 7. Circuit diagram of the display section and interconnection details between the display driver IC1 and the l.c.d.



when VR5 and VR6 have been set to the relative span ranges for their mode scales, a common increase or decrease to the altitude and barometer mode gains can be effected by adjusting VR8.

It will be seen that the lines controlling the polarity symbol and the thousand's digit are apparently connected to unused pins of the l.c.d. These connections correspond with the equivalent 1000 and polarity segments of a 4-digit l.c.d. module which may be used in place of the 3.5 digit version.

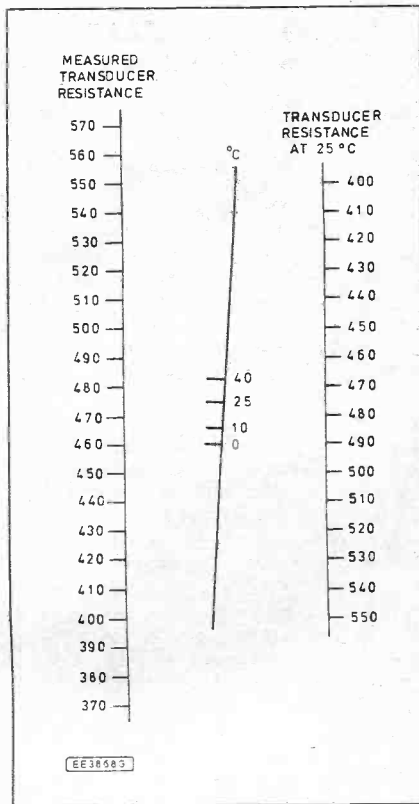


Fig. 8. Pressure transducer MPX100A resistance/temperature nomogram.

## POWER SUPPLY

A regulated  $\pm 5V$  supply is generated from a single 9V battery. Referring back to Fig. 5, the battery voltage is switched on by S4 and is regulated down to +5V by IC3.

Using an internal pulsed inverter, IC4 generates an almost equivalent *negative* voltage from the +5V supply. The load driven by IC4, though, will slightly reduce the voltage from the nominal -5V to around -4.7V.

Capacitor C8 is associated with the chip's internal switching and C9 is the output reservoir capacitor. There is inherently a very slight residual ripple of IC4's clock frequency left on the negative line, though the final effect of this upon the signal input to IC1 is nulled by the inclusion of resistor R3 and capacitor C3 in Fig. 7.

The current drawn by the circuit is around 13.5mA. If, as intended, the unit is used intermittently throughout a journey, a PP3-sized battery could last for weeks or even months.

Under continuous switched-on use, a PP3 battery life of around eight hours seems a reasonable expectation. The battery may be run down to about 7.3V before IC1 fails to regulate satisfactorily. A NiCad battery may be used.

## COMPONENT TOLERANCES

Standard carbon-track miniature skeleton preset potentiometers and 5 per cent 0.25W carbon film resistors were used in the prototype, providing accuracy and stability well within the author's own requirements. A more tightly controlled performance can be obtained by using cermet presets and one per cent 0.25W metal film resistors. The main advantage of cermet over carbon presets in this application is the smooth linearity of their tracking, allowing more precise adjustment of their settings.

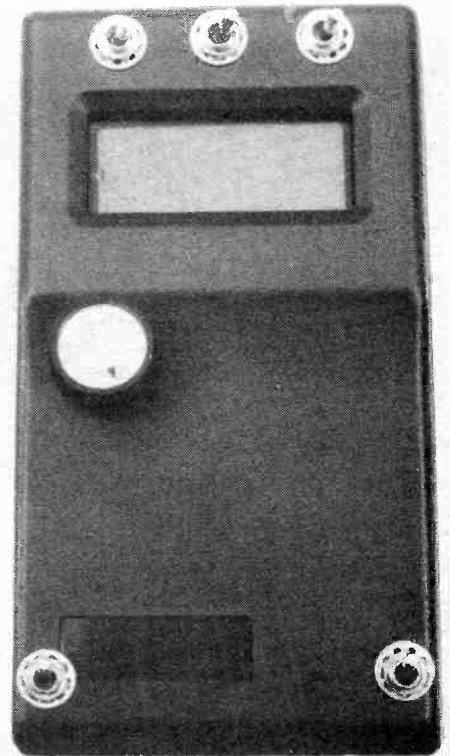
Metal film resistors have a better temperature stability than the standard carbon film variety. Typical temperature coefficients for the latter are  $-150$  to  $-800$  parts per million (ppm) per  $^{\circ}C$ , whereas for metal film they are typically  $\pm 50$  ppm per  $^{\circ}C$ . Even though temperature compensation is provided, the use of metal film resistors could still be beneficial.

## RESISTANCE MATCHING

Since the correct value for resistor R5 is related to TX1 transducer's resistance at  $25^{\circ}C$  ( $77^{\circ}F$ ), it is preferable to take into account the transducer's temperature at the time that the measurement is made. The Nomogram in Fig. 8 shows how the resistance at a known temperature can be converted to its equivalent at  $25^{\circ}C$  ( $77^{\circ}F$ ).

Clip the leads of a digital multimeter to the transducer pins 1 and 3, and switch the meter to a range suitable for measuring up to about 550 ohms. Place a thermometer alongside the transducer and allow the temperature to stabilise.

Measure the resistance and note the temperature. Place a ruler so that its edge passes through the resistance value in the chart's left hand column and the temperature in the centre column. Read off the value in the right hand column and multiply it by 3.577 (a factor specified by the transducer manufacturer). This is the optimum value for R5.

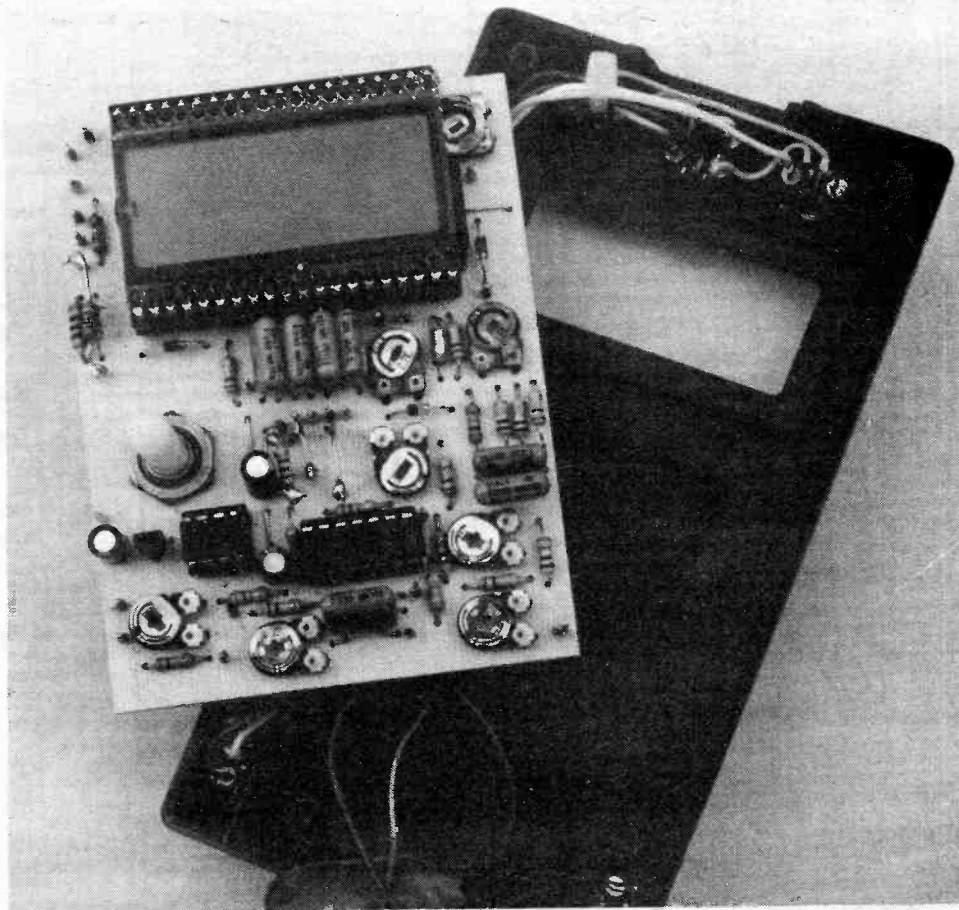


The transducer used in the prototype has a resistance of 433 ohms at  $25^{\circ}C$  and the value for R5 was calculated as 1548 ohms (1k548). The resistor with the measured value closest to this which was conveniently available was 1567 ohms. Although not the precise calculated value, the tolerance margin has proved to be acceptable.

Two or more resistors in series or parallel may be used to optimise the value. (There was not enough space on the p.c.b. to substitute a preset potentiometer for R5.)

## CONSTRUCTION

The topside printed circuit board component layout and full size underside copper foil master pattern is shown in Fig. 9. This board is available from the *EPE PCB Service*, code EE807.



# COMPONENTS

## Resistors

R1, R11, R14,	
R16, R18, R19,	
R21	100k (7 off)
R2, R23	20k (2 off)
R3	1M
R4, R6, R22	47k (3 off)
R5	Between 1k4 and 2k - See Text
R8	30k - See Text
R9	2M - see text
R7, R12,	
R13, R24	10k (4-off)
R10	2k
R15	33k
R17	470k
R20	330k
R25	10

All 0.25W 5% carbon film or better.

## Potentiometers

VR1	100k min. skeleton preset, horiz.
VR2, VR4,	
VR5	10k min. skeleton preset, horiz. (3 off)
VR3	5k rotary carbon, linear
VR6	22k min. skeleton preset, horiz.
VR7	1M min skeleton preset, horiz.
VR8, VR9	2k2 min. skeleton preset, horiz. (2 off)

All presets carbon or cermet.

## Capacitors

C1	100p polystyrene
C2 to C5,	
C7, C10,	
C11	100n polyester (7 off)
C6, C8, C9	22µ radial elect., 16V (3 off)

## Semiconductors

D1 to D4	1N4148 signal diode
IC1	ICL7106 ADC/display driver
IC2	LM324 quad op.amp
IC3	78L05 +5V 100mA voltage regulator
IC4	ICL7660 voltage converter

## Switches

S1, S2,	
S4, S5	miniature s.p.c.o. toggle (4 off)
S3	miniature d.p.c.o. toggle

**See SHOP TALK Page**

## Miscellaneous

TX1	MPX100A pressure transducer
X1	3½ digit l.c.d. display

Handheld, calculator style palastic case, size 148mm x 60mm x 36mm (with 50mm x 20mm display window cutout); 8-pin d.i.l. socket, 14-pin d.i.l. socket; 40-pin d.i.l. socket (3-off - see text); PP3 battery and snap connector; knob; p.c.b. stand-off spacer; rubber grommet for VR3 shaft; connecting wire; fixings; solder etc.

Printed circuit board available from EE PCB Service, code EE807 (see PCB page 754).

Approx cost guidance only

**£50**

Before mounting the components, check that the board fits the case satisfactorily, trimming off any excess fibre-glass if necessary. It may also, with some models of the case, be necessary to trim down the internal partitions to allow the board to fit lengthwise while still allowing for the battery and switches to be inserted.

The front panel drilling measurements and layout used in the prototype model is shown in Fig. 10. Check that they apply to your case before drilling any holes!

## CIRCUIT BOARD

There are several link wires required on the p.c.b., some of which go below i.c. positions (see Fig. 9), and these should be inserted and soldered first, but omit links TP1/TP2 and TP3/TP4 until later. The preset "pots" and d.i.l. sockets for the i.c.s and the l.c.d. should be inserted next.

The board has been designed so that the display is mounted above IC1. This is achieved by first soldering two 20-pin s.i.l. (single-in-line) sockets into the l.c.d. position. If s.i.l. sockets are not available, cut a 40-pin d.i.l. socket in half. Once assembly is complete, a second level of s.i.l. sockets to hold the l.c.d. is plugged into the first.

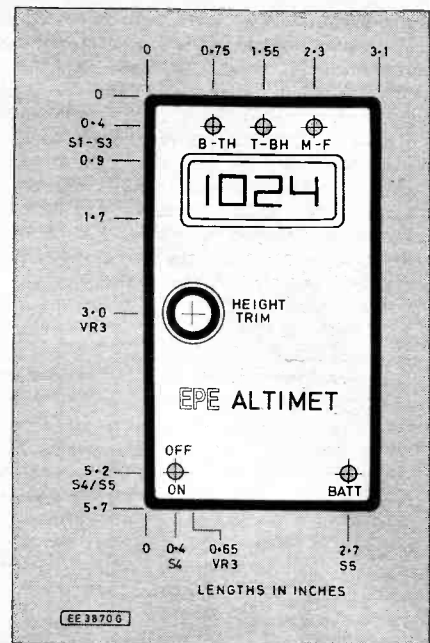


Fig. 10. Case drilling details.

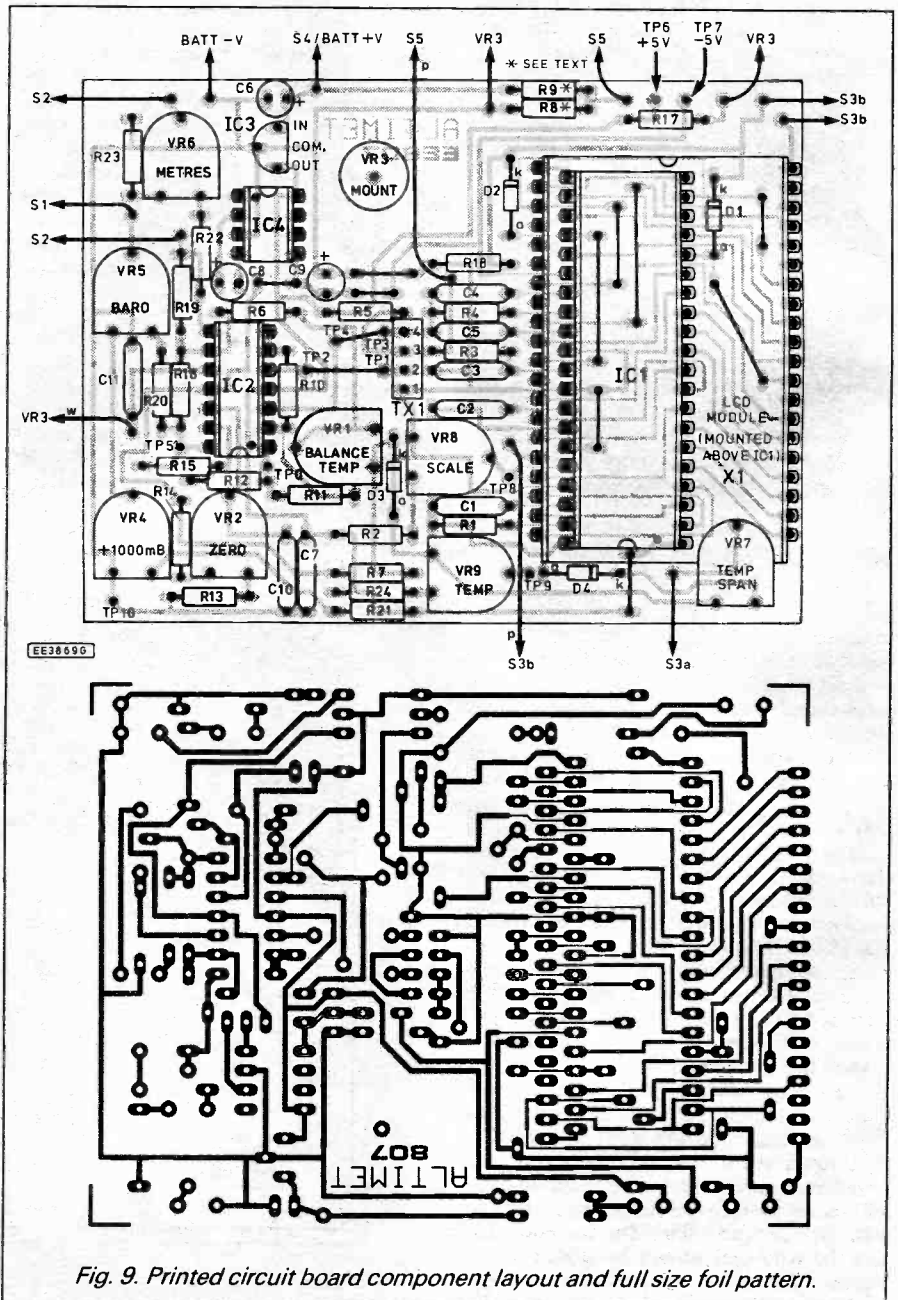
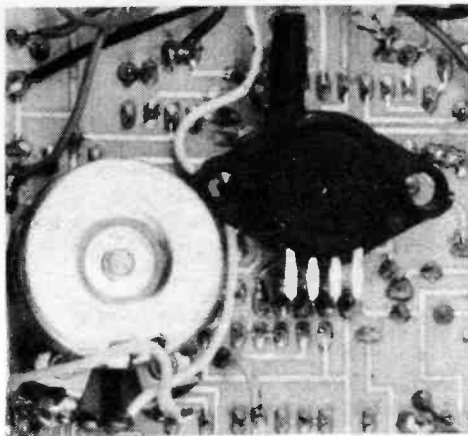


Fig. 9. Printed circuit board component layout and full size foil pattern.

Solder in the components in order of resistors, diodes, capacitors and voltage regulator IC3. Next mount the rotary potentiometer VR3 in its p.c.b. hole, shaft protruding from the component side, using an insulating washer between its body and the back of the board to prevent shorting across soldered joints. The transducer TX1 is also mounted on the trackside of the board, carefully bending its leads through ninety degrees so that its body lies parallel to the p.c.b. in the direction of IC2.

Two versions of the MPX100A may be available (Fig. 12), one enclosed in a plastic case, the other not. Either may be used, but the unenclosed version must have insulating tape placed between its body and the p.c.b. tracks. Do NOT cover the hole in the transducer's centre, and under no circumstances poke anything into the hole below which is the very delicate pressure diaphragm.



(above) Transducer TX1 and VR3 mounted on the board track side and (below) the completed circuit board.

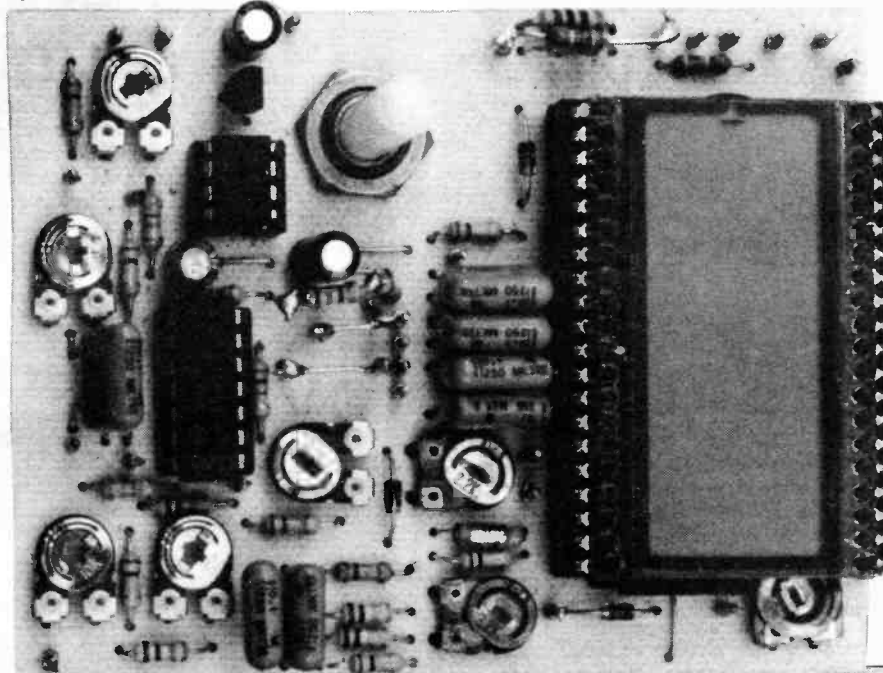


Fig. 11 (right). Interwiring from off-board components to the p.c.b. Note, VR3, TX1 and all wires are connected to trackside.

Details of the interwiring from the circuit board to all off-board components is shown in Fig. 11. Wire up all control connections from the trackside of the board and then thoroughly check with a close-up magnifying glass that there are no shorts between joints and adjacent tracks.

### INITIAL TESTING

It is suggested that for the setting-up procedures the unit should be powered from a bench power supply delivering 9V, or that a 9V battery of greater size than PP3 be used. A 12V supply, such as a car battery, may be used though to avoid overtaxing IC3, a 390 ohm 0.5W resistor should be connected in series with the positive battery lead, so reducing the supply to about 9V when full load is applied.

Several test points (TP) are provided on the p.c.b. For ease of use it is recommended that terminal pins are soldered into these positions. All test measurements are made with respect to the negative terminal of the 9V battery which should be regarded as the 0V or "ground" line. The common lead of the voltmeter should be clipped to test point TP10.

For the first test, with IC3 and IC4

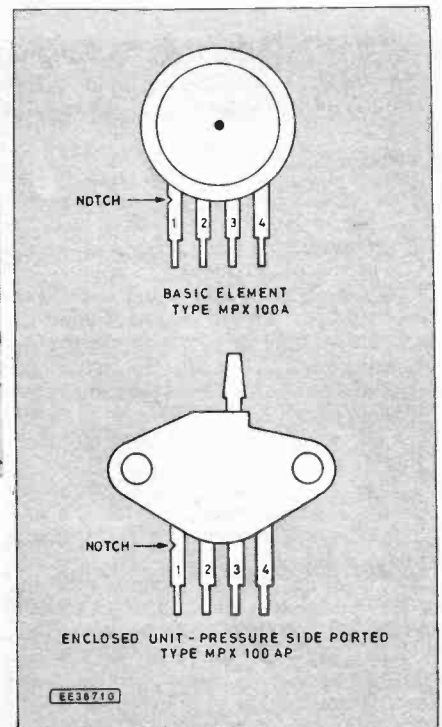
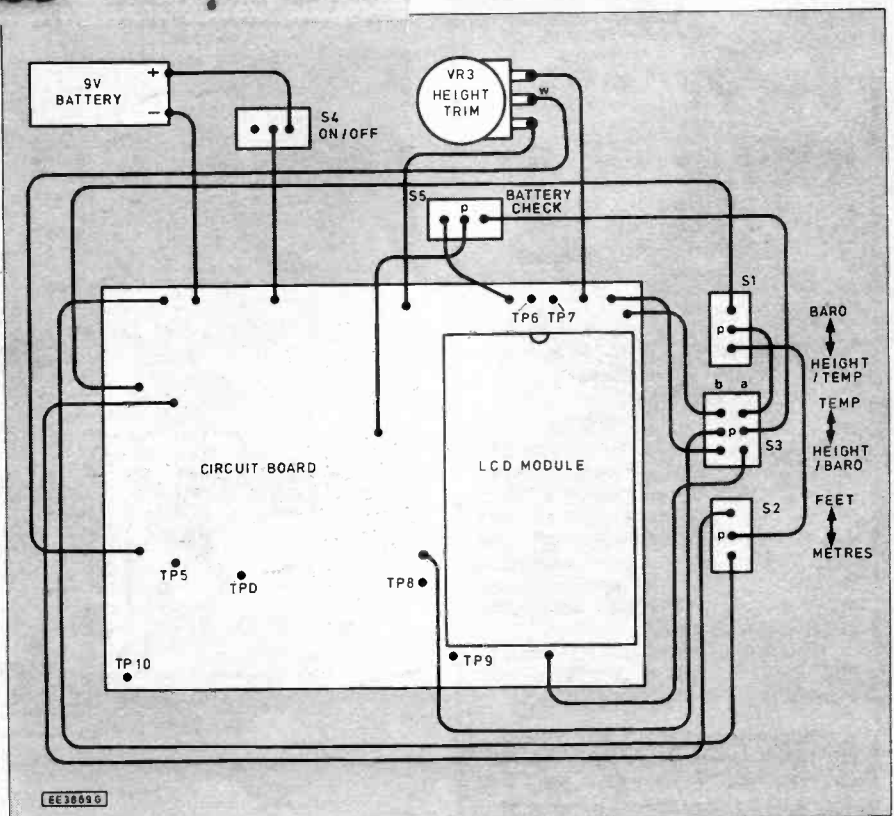


Fig. 12. Pressure transducer pintout details.

in circuit, but the l.c.d. and other i.c.s omitted, switch on and check that close to +5V is present at TP6 and that about -5V is present at TP7. Check the voltages at TP6 and TP7 again when IC1, IC2 and the display X1 have been inserted, but note that TP7 may now have fallen to about -4.7V. Any large deviation of the supply voltages will indicate a fault condition, such as a wrong component polarity or a track short or break.

### BENCH SETTING

Throughout this section of the setting-up, the figures obtained from the model are quoted in square brackets as an example. They will vary slightly for other units.



Setting-up falls into two parts, "workshop alignment" and fine tuning under "field conditions". Since the response of the transducer can vary in manufacture between 45mV and 90mV per 100kPa, the final alignment can only take place after subjecting the unit to known changes in barometric pressure, such as those experienced when using it at the top and bottom of a hill of known height.

However, the millibars and metres presets VR4 to VR6 are aligned without the transducer fully in circuit, using the test circuit shown in Fig. 13. The circuit consists of R24 and VR9 from the temperature readout circuit, with the addition of a resistor R25 across VR9 to temporarily reduce its span range.

Temporarily link the outer terminals of the rotary control VR3 to TP6 and TP7 instead of to their normal designated points in Fig. 9. Set presets VR1, VR2 and VR3 midway, VR4 to ground, VR5 and VR6 to maximum output, and set VR8 for a reference voltage of about 200mV at TP8.

Clip a digital voltmeter across TP9 and TP10 and on its lowest suitable range measure the voltage when the wiper of VR9 is at its maximum resistance [4.9mV]. Link TP2 to TP9 and TP4 to TP10 (as links TP1/TP2 and TP3/TP4 have been left out, the transducer is not presently connected to IC2).

Assume for the moment that the transducer will have a span of 60mV per 100kPa and that 1000 metres = 10kPa. Therefore, 1000 metres represents a 6mV swing from the transducer which equals 3,280 feet ( $1000 \times 3.28$ ). Calculate the number of feet that the measured millivolt span range of VR9 represents:  $[3,280\text{ft}/6\text{mV} \times 4.9\text{mV} = 2,678 \text{ feet}]$ .

## FEET

Set the switches for Feet mode. Set VR3 midway and adjust VR2 and VR3 until the display X1 shows a reading of about zero (within a hundred units or so). Note the

*Layout of function switches on the front panel and position of the p.c.b. inside the case, showing wiring to track side and switches S4, S5 either side of the battery compartment.*

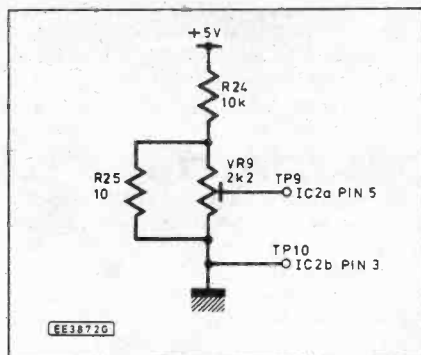


Fig. 13. Alignment and setting-up test circuit diagram.

total l.c.d. readout range with VR9 at its minimum and maximum settings.

Adjust VR8 until the full range controlled by VR9 is close to that calculated  $[-1305 \text{ to } +1373 = 2678, \text{ TP8} = 178.4\text{mV}]$ . Set VR9 to maximum output [l.c.d. = 1373]. (If the feet range span obtained is not exactly that calculated, for the next calculations use the maximum output figure actually obtained.)

## METRES

Switch S2 to the Metres range. Divide the maximum feet reading by 3.28 to produce the metres integer equivalent  $[1373/3.28 = 418.597561 = 419]$ . Without touching VR8, adjust VR6 until the l.c.d. reads as close as possible to the calculated metres value [419].

Set VR9 to minimum and check that the l.c.d. readout is the metres close equivalent to the minimum feet readout  $[-1305/3.28 = 397.865854 = 398]$ . There is likely to be a slight non-linearity between the feet and metres conversion figures within about 10 metres either side of a zero height readout.

Switch S1 to the Millibars range, set VR9 midway and adjust VR4 until an l.c.d. readout of about 1000 is produced. Do not adjust VR8. From the measured swing

range of VR9 [4.9mV] calculate the millibar range that this represents:

$$[60\text{mV} = 1000\text{mb} \text{ therefore } 4.9\text{mV} = 1000/60 \times 4.9 = 81.66\text{mb} = 82\text{mb}]$$

Swing VR9 back and forth across its range and adjust VR5 until the total l.c.d. range difference is the calculated millibar value  $[975 \text{ to } 1057 = 82]$ .

## TRANSDUCER BALANCING

The next step is to put the transducer fully into circuit and adjust preset VR1 to compensate for l.c.d. readout drift with temperature. Remove "test" resistor R25 from across VR9, disconnect the temporary TP10/TP4 and TP9/TP2 links, link TP1 to TP2 and TP3 to TP4, and correctly reconnect VR3. Switch to the Feet or Metres range, then raise and lower the unit between floor and ceiling and observe that the display registers the height changes, even though accurate altitude setting has not yet been made.

After leaving the unit switched on for a few minutes to allow temperatures to stabilise, note the room temperature (as shown on a good mercury-filled thermometer). Switch to the metres range, set VR1 midway, adjust preset VR3 and/or VR2 for an l.c.d. readout of about zero. Note the l.c.d. readouts with VR1 at *minimum*, *midway* and *maximum* resistance settings.

Allow the room temperature to rise by as many degrees as is feasible, 20°F or 10°C for example. Note the l.c.d. readings at the three VR1 settings and judge approximately which value of VR1 produces the minimum readout change.

(A hair dryer blowing low heat across both sides of the p.c.b. was used in the original tests, allowing the temperature to rise slowly over about 15 minutes. Cooling to low temperatures was assisted by a fridge!)

Beware, though, that rapid temperature changes and uneven p.c.b. heating can produce misleading results. If condensation forms on the unit when removed from the fridge dry it off using the hair dryer.)

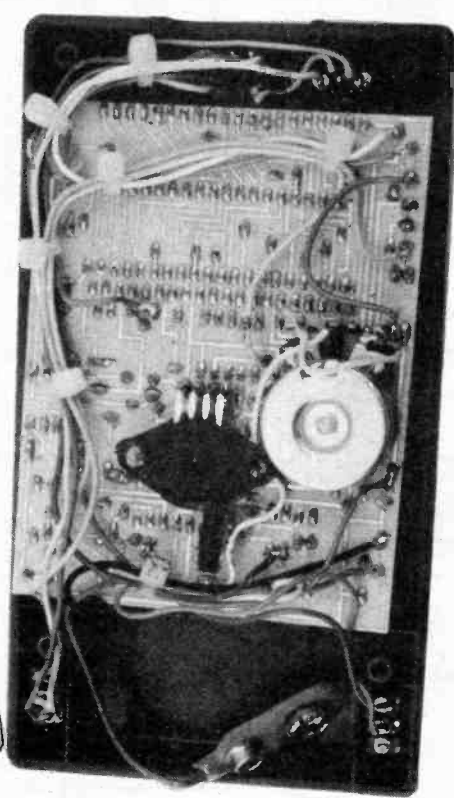
Let the room and the unit cool naturally back to the original temperature, set VR1 to two or three positions close to the estimated value noting the l.c.d. readings. Allow the temperature to rise again and note the l.c.d. figures at each chosen VR1 position. Set VR1 to the resistance setting at which the minimum output change occurs.

The transducer TX1 and temperature compensation diode D3 may respond at different rates affecting the apparent stability of the readout during the early minutes of a significant temperature change. Once the transducer and diode reach the same temperature the readout should have returned to its original figures.

## HYSTERESIS

It should be recognised that there are component hysteresis factors which affect the maximum practical balance obtainable. Hysteresis applies particularly to the transducer and dictates that at any given pressure or temperature there will be a difference in the output voltages produced depending on whether this pressure or temperature is approached upwards or downwards.

The MPX100A has typical pressure and temperature hysteresis factors of  $\pm 0.05\%$  and  $\pm 0.5\%$  of full scale (100kPa) respectively. Without temperature drift correction the l.c.d. output



change on the test model was about 15 metres per °F (27 metres °C) the equivalent of around 1.5mV per °F (2.7mV °C). Although impaired by hysteresis, the compensation circuit allowed the drift to be kept down to only 20 metres over a massive 40°F (22.2°C) temperature change.

Hysteresis and drift factors, however, should be seen in context with the scale of potential atmospheric changes. A barometric change of only one millibar will cause an apparent change of 10 metres on the altimeter. At the time of writing, the weather forecast predicts a 15mb change from 1020mb to 1035mb over the next 24 hours. The effects of normal ambient temperature changes become minor by comparison.

## TEMPERATURE AND BATTERY READOUTS

The unit may be set for either Celsius or Fahrenheit temperature readout scales, depending on the range set by preset VR7. Set VR9 and VR7 midway, switch to Temperature mode and note the display reading and that of a thermometer alongside the p.c.b.

Allow the room temperature to change across a reasonable range and note the difference in the l.c.d. reading and the difference in temperature. Adjust VR7 up or down as appropriate and again change the room temperature. Repeat until the temperature and l.c.d. spans are the same, and then adjust VR9 so that the l.c.d. reading matches the thermometer reading.

The values for resistors R8 and R9 should be selected after IC1's final

reference voltage has been set by VR8. The ratio of R8 to R9 should cause the l.c.d. to show a reading of approximately 900 with a battery voltage of 9.0V. If the reading is low, increase the value of R8 or decrease R9.

## FIELD SETTING

Final altitude alignment can only be done by checking the unit's height readout against a known height change. Consult a local Ordnance Survey (OS) map, preferably the large scale Pathfinder (green) series, and find two locations where the heights are known and of several tens of metres apart.

Go to one location and using the rotary control VR3 set the height on the l.c.d., also noting the temperature. If the temperature is changing and the unit's temperature balance is not exact, while still at the same location note the l.c.d. height reading at different temperatures. Go to the other location and repeat.

Take two readings made at the same temperature and calculate the difference between the l.c.d. change and the actual height change. Slightly reduce or increase the setting of preset VR8 as appropriate and repeat the procedure until the actual and displayed height spans correspond. An l.c.d. reading change of 55 metres compared to an actual height change of 60 metres, for example, would require adjustment of VR8 to decrease IC1's reference voltage.

It is preferable for the time between high and low readings to be kept short to minimise the likelihood of atmospheric pressure changes occurring between readings. It is advisable, for the same reason, to choose

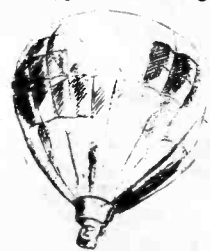
a day when the *BBC TV* weather forecast maps show the isobars well spaced out.

Once VR8 has been finally set, the current millibar setting for your area (watch *BBC TV* again!) can be set by adjusting VR4. It should be remembered that weather forecast charts give millibar figures referenced to sea level. If you live significantly higher than sea level, the true atmospheric pressure for your location can be calculated from the simple equation + 10 metres = - 1mb.

## USING IT

Since atmospheric pressure is constantly changing throughout the day, the height trimming control VR3 should be adjusted prior to each outing, setting the display to show the correct height in metres for the starting location as established from an OS map. If significant isobar changes are forecast it is advisable to re-trim VR3 in association with an OS map occasionally throughout a prolonged land-bound journey.

It is assumed that balloonists and other leisure-aeronauts will not be aloft long enough for meteorological changes during their flight to have any significance. Try to avoid subjecting the EPE Altimeter to rapid or excessive temperature changes. □



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# Innovations

A roundup of the latest Everyday News from the world of electronics

## Amateur Radio Morse Test

**T**HE Radiocommunications Agency has announced proposed changes to the format of the 12 words per minute *Amateur Radio Morse Test*.

It is claimed that the new format will prepare candidates better for the sort of operating conditions they can expect to encounter "On Air". It follows the same lines as the five words per minute test which was successfully introduced last year.



The new style test will come into operation from January 1, 1993. Candidates who have studied under the old format will still be able to take the old test until March 31, 1993 when the new test will become compulsory.

Simultaneously with the introduction of the new style test, 1 January, 1993 will also see a new procedure for the identification of candidates. Instead of written proof of identity, candidates will have to bring to the test centre two recent passport sized photographs of themselves. — *Shades of code breaking?*

In the new test, the candidate will be required to receive a minimum of 120 letters and 7 figures in the form of a typical exchange between radio amateurs. A manual Morse key will be used to send the message. This portion of the test will last approximately 2½ minutes and a maxi-

mum of six uncorrected errors will be permitted.

In the sending test, the candidate will be given a text to send by hand on a straight Morse key consisting of not less than 75 letters and five figures, also in the form of a typical exchange. This portion of the test will last approximately 1½ minutes. There must be no uncorrected errors in the sending and not more than four corrected errors.

The Radio Society of Great Britain conducts both the five and 12 w.p.m. Morse tests on behalf of the Agency. Further information on taking the test may be obtained from: **Radio Society of Great Britain, Lambda House, Cranborne Road, Potters Bar, Herts EN6 3JE.**

## Patent News

The first ever report published by the Patent Office since becoming a Trading Fund on 1 October, 1991, and its accounts, prepared for the first time on a full commercial basis, show a surplus of £603,000 for the six month period to 31 March, 1992.

However, in volume terms, patent applications in 1991 were two per cent down on 1990, while trade mark (including service mark) and design applications were down by 12 per cent respectively. A similar trend was evident in the European Patent Office where a down-turn in activity was recorded for the first time.

## THE PHILIPS LECTURE

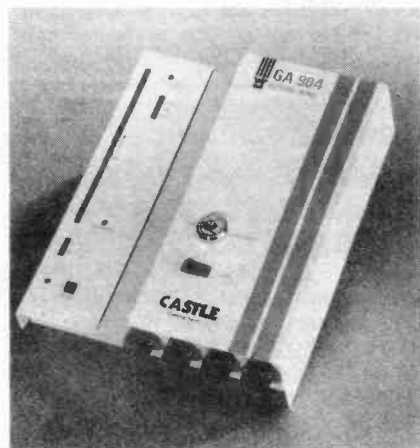
Established in 1980 under the sponsorship of Philips Electrical, the Philips Lecture is given annually on the theme of science in industry. This year's lecture is entitled "Thermal Imaging - A New Eye On The World" and is being given by Dr. C. T. Elliott of the Defence Research Agency, Malvern.

A thermal imager produces a visible, television-like image using the infrared radiation that warm objects emit. It sees in complete darkness and through smoke and mist. This enhanced vision capability has given rise to numerous military and civil applications such as a pilot aid for military aircraft flying at low level in the dark, helping firemen to find people in smoke-filled buildings, and possibly, in future, helping to drive cars at night.

The development both of high performance imagers, based on cooled semiconductor detectors, and moderate performance imagers, using uncooled pyroelectric detectors, will be outlined together with illustrations of some of the applications.

The lecture will take place at the following venues and further details can be obtained from **The Royal Society, 6 Carlton House Terrace, London SW1Y 5AG. Tel: 071 839 5561.**

Venues: 7 October, 17.30 at The Royal Society, 6 Carlton House Terrace; 12 October, University of Surrey and the University of Durham on 16 October.



## Orange Aid

No its not a new fizzy drink but a new approach which may help anyone who has been a victim or does not want to be the perpetrator of excessive noise. Thanks to the Castle "Electronic Orange", the annoying sounds which may be escaping from the local disco may be a thing of the past.

The sound pressure (noise) within the room is picked up by a microphone and when the noise reaches the threshold, which is adjustable, a spherical yellow coloured lamp, "the orange", lights up. If the noise rises further, the device removes the power to the amplifiers. After resetting the electronics, either manually or automatically, the volume must be reduced to prevent another trip condition from occurring.

Further information and prices from **Castle Associates Ltd, Salter Road, Cayton Low Road Industrial Estate, Scarborough, North Yorks YO11 3UZ.**

## BOOKSHOP

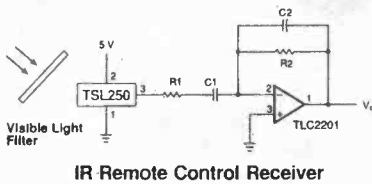
To help make their renowned range of technical publications more readily available to industry and educational establishments alike, Texas have formed a "Technical Bookshop" and issued a catalogue.

The 1992 Technical Bookshop Catalogue contains a brief description of titles available and lists data books, user guides and applications manuals for engineers and students.

**Texas Instruments Ltd, Dept EPE, Manton Lane, Bedford MK41 7AP. Tel 0234 270111.**

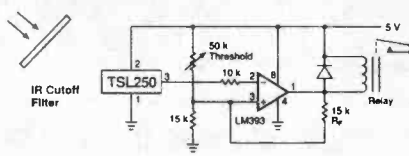


## Typical Applications for the TSL250



IR Remote Control Receiver

The TSL252 and a simple active filter can be used as an IR remote control receiver. A visible light filter is used to reject visible light and pass infrared, thus reducing interference.  $R_1$ ,  $C_1$ ,  $R_2$ ,  $C_2$  and the TLC2201 form an active band pass filter. The actual values are chosen based on the data rate of the IR transmitter.



Adjustable Light-Activated Switch

The IR cutoff filter prevents the switch from being activated by infrared. Resistor  $R_F$  provides hysteresis to prevent false activation due to noise.

# BRIGHT LIGHTS

Changes in light intensity can be used or monitored with high accuracy using one of the new family of light-to-voltage optical sensors (types TSL250/51/52) from Texas Instruments. The devices combine, in a single three-pin package, a large area photodiode, an operational amplifier and feedback components.

The devices operate from a single variable supply voltage (3V to 9V), and each device provides a voltage output proportional to the incident light intensity. Because the output is a voltage level, the devices can be easily interfaced to comparators or A/D converters.

Integrating an amplifier and a photodiode together on the same chip not only simplifies designs, but also enhances the noise immunity of the device. Thus they are particularly useful at low light levels or in noisy environments.

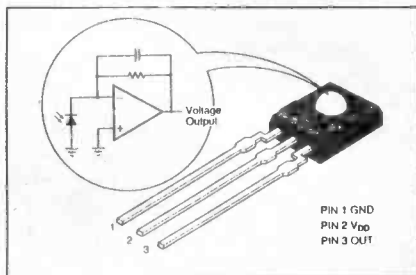
Potential applications for the TSL250/1/2 include light control, IR remote control, security systems and medical chemical testing.

Further details from: **Texas Instruments Ltd, Dept EPE, Manton Lane, Bedford MK41 7AP.**

## Cable Gains

The number of homes connected to broadband cable systems rose in July to 330,630, according to the Independent Television Commission's (ITC) latest cable statistics. This was a net increase of 39,000 (13.5%) over the last three months and of 139,000 (72.5%) over the last year.

Because research has shown cable households to be larger than average (3.1 people aged four years and over), it is claimed this means that over one million viewers now receive multichannel television via one of Britain's cable franchises. The take-up rate has increased by 2.25 percentage points over the last year.



# In-Car Stereo CD

The closest thing yet to a sound studio on wheels is one of the claims from Maplin for their new add-on In-Car Stereo 6X CD Autochanger System. – Mind you at £329.95 its only what you'd expect.

The unit takes standard 5 in. discs and also 3 in. types with adaptors (not supplied). A stereo pair of phono sockets are supplied for the audio output, but if the radio cassette does not have spare CD inputs, there is no problem. The CD autochanger includes an ingenious v.h.f. f.m. modulator which can be simply inserted between the plug of the aerial lead and input socket of the radio unit – in principal just like a video recorder between antenna and TV at home.

The f.m. modulator provides an interface between the CD autochanger and the f.m. stereo radio. But please note: The radio unit *must* be f.m. stereo – the unit cannot work with MW and LW receivers.

The main CD autochanger player can be fitted distant from the existing stereo system, and is remotely controlled via a small keypad which can be fitted on the dashboard by means of the self-adhesive Velcro pad supplied.



The Car CD Multiplay (code GK74R) from Maplin.

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# THE NEXT 21 YEARS

**BARRY FOX**



FOR at least ten years the Japanese electronics companies have been trying to engineer the marriage of audio and video. They have many times promised consumers a single AV centre in the living-room, with TV screen, hifi sound system, video tape and disc and surround-sound speakers, perhaps with a computer keyboard and telephone tagged on. But most consumers – if only for convenience in room layout – still prefer to have a separate TV set and hifi system in different parts of the room, a telephone on the wall or table, and a computer in another room.

The situation is likely to change over the next ten years, because it becomes increasingly hard to draw any dividing line between audio, video and telecommunications. Also consumers are becoming increasingly unhappy with the proliferation of different boxes which serve related functions and all require their own cobweb of wiring. The time will soon, finally be right for a more unified approach to electronics in the home.

## DIGITAL RECORDING

No-one can yet predict which of the two competing new digital home recording systems (DCC or Mini Disc) will win the standards battle due this winter, or whether both will fail and let recordable CD fill the gap. Whatever happens, digital sound recording will become a way of life, and with it legislation and technology to restrict cloning but at the same time legitimize some degree of copying – probably with the implementation of a tax on blank media.

Until now, making an audio recording has been a relatively troublesome business, with the need to set gain controls to avoid overload, or rely on automatic gain control circuitry which compresses the sound. With digital recorders, making a copy is as easy as copying computer data from disc to disc.

Once the public gets a feel for this there will be no turning back – just as people who have bought CD players seldom go back to playing vinyl LPs. It is not so much the sound quality which sells CDs, but the glorious convenience of the system.

## ARMCHAIR RECORD STORE

From the success of any home digital audio recording format, it will be a logical step to combination units, which hard wire a CD player to a digital recorder. Digital audio broadcasting, whether by terrestrial transmitter or satellite, will open the door to what has been dubbed “the armchair record store”. This is a digital recorder

which copies broadcast material, for a fee, and with copyright payment, as an alternative to record retailing.

Digital TV, whether conventional or high definition, will provide more channels from available terrestrial and satellite bandwidths. Viewers will need a digital decoder, which will probably double as a de-scrambling device for subscription entertainment and very probably control a VCR to tape and decode only what the viewer has paid to watch.

The advent of digital TV transmission will create the need for a new kind of home video recorder, which works digitally. This will tape the raw broadcast data stream for later decoding. Where several programmes are interleaved into the same stream, the video recorder will tape them all. When the tape is replayed the viewer will be able to decide which one to decode and watch. If some or all of the programmes are scrambled, the viewer will have to pay a fee to decode and watch them.

The broadcasters are already using digital video recorders to originate and edit programmes. The advantage of digital recording is that it allows repeated copying, through many generations, without loss of quality. For special effects work, TV producers may well have to copy through a dozen generations. There are several different digital formats on offer to professionals and as the technology matures it will become cheap enough to spin off into the domestic market.

## HOME VIDEOS

Many people already use camcorders to make point and shoot video movies. An increasing number of hobbyists edit their home videos. These people will welcome the chance to use digital technology, and so avoid generation loss.

Recordable discs systems will let editors work much faster than they can from tape. Sony's Mini Disc may well find applications in video, with first generation units recording video as an f.m. analogue signal and later as digital code.

All the new digital audio and video formats will rely heavily on compression, with data rate drastically reduced by real time analysis of the signal by a coder which discards any redundant information.

## INTERACTION

The new audio and video transmission technologies will be used with cable systems, and with the added benefit of interaction. Viewers will be able to control the choice of programmes and services sent to them by feeding signals back up the same cable. They will be able to vote too,

whether in quiz shows or political ballots.

Although a lot of effort has been made to provide interaction control without a keyboard, this will change. To anyone who uses a keyboard, it is infuriatingly clumsy to have to type text by using a mouse or similar control to select letters from a displayed alphabet. And more and more people are growing up with keyboards. Within a few years it will be commonplace to provide TV viewers with a portable keyboard which connects to the TV set by infra red link.

The growth of cable will be stimulated by growing realisation by the public that the Mercury service already offered or promised by twenty cable franchises gives a hassle-free alternative to British Telecom's practical monopoly to date.

Much of the talk about video phones is ill-informed, because few people need or want to watch who they are talking with by phone. Picture information can most easily be sent by fax. But cable links and/or the new ISDN phone lines should make it easier for video phones to provide security surveillance. This will marry the phone to a domestic TV screen.

## CD-I

Although no-one knows how long it will take, interactive CD (almost certainly Philips CD-I format) will become a way of life, with games probably seeding a new revolution in home entertainment and education. Kodak's Photo CD looks likely to be a short lived product, simply because the compatibility bridge between CD-I and Photo CD has already made the Photo CD player little more than a CD-I player with a few microchips or wires removed to justify the lower price.

With full motion video, and Photo CD imaging technology, and the ability to play CD audio discs, the CD-I player could become the CD player of the future. There is likely to be a second standard, which quadruples the amount of information stored on disc, thereby doubling picture quality and playing time. This makes the five inch disc a carrier for movies as well as games, education, audio etc. So although digital FMV picture quality cannot yet match the twelve inch analogue Laser Disc, this will change. Pioneer, currently relaunching Laser Disc in Europe, is researching digital video technology.

## STANDARD

The big advantage of digital video disc is not that the programme can be easily copied many times. Indeed this is seen by the movie studios as a very real disad-

vantage, and they will press for electronic copy controls similar to the Serial Management Copy System already adopted as a standard feature for digital audio recorders. The real advantage is that digital video can be made standards-independent. One disc or tape will play in any country, regardless of local TV standard.

This will apply both to conventional TV formats, and the new widescreen and high definition formats that will move into the home over the next decade. It is too early yet to predict which formats will prevail, except to be sure that the long term future must be digital.

The transition from conventional 4:3 TV screens to widescreen 16:9 displays will be governed more by artistic, than technical, considerations. Producers and broadcasters have to decide how to make programmes shot in 16:9 format acceptable to viewers with 4:3 sets, and how best to display 4:3 programmes in widescreen ratio.

All these strands lead to some simplification and rationalization of the mess of equipment now cluttering homes. Quite simply homes of the future will run out of space for separate boxes, and will stop buying unless they are presented with an acceptable alternative.

At the same time there should be a trend towards portable information centres, a Data Discman/CD-I player which sits on the desk or by the telephone, providing information such as telephone numbers from Yellow Pages or the standard telephone directory. But this will only happen when colour l.c.d. screens of reasonable size become affordable – and when British Telecom abandons its policy of charging over £2000 a year for use of directory data on a disc that cost only around £1 to press.

Public concern for the environment may help here. Why spend around 30 million a year on cutting down trees to print paper directories when all the information can be stored on a single piece of plastics, five inches in diameter?

## CHOICES

Over the next decades it is clear that the consumer will be asked to make many choices between competing new technologies. It is also clear that legislators will be asked to make choices, for instance on the type of technology to be used for digital audio and TV broadcasting, and on the vexed question of taxing blank media.

The already tangled relationship between consumers' freedom of choice, natural rivalry between manufacturers and the need for governments to keep some kind of control on broadcasting, will become increasingly difficult to unravel.

Only one factor will remain constant. While the hardware industry struggles to keep prices down, the software industry will struggle to keep prices up. This, of course, is why the cash-rich Japanese electronics companies are already buying Western music, film and TV archives – and why they will continue to do so until the West has nothing left to sell.

## HISTORY FORETELLS THE FUTURE

Here history foretells the future. Just look in your local electronics store and see how much of last year's hardware is still on sale. Then look in your local record and video shop and see how much old software is still being repackaged at a healthy price.

## Special Feature

# TOMORROWS TECHNOLOGY

IAN POOLE

**T**ECHNOLOGY is advancing at an ever increasing rate. The necessity to stay ahead of the competition feeds companies with the incentive to spend many millions of pounds each year on research and development. This brings many advantages to the electronics enthusiast.

New components which are much better than anything previously available are constantly being launched onto the market. It does not normally take long after they are launched for them to fall in price quite dramatically and become normal every day devices.

## BRIEF HISTORY

To illustrate this fact it is worth looking back over technological advances of the past 21 years. Some of the components we take for granted today were very much at the forefront of technology, if they were even available, at that time. The one which stands out above all the others must be the introduction of the microprocessor.

The first processor was in fact launched 21 years ago in 1971. Designed by the Intel Corporation, microprocessors arose out of the first calculators which were beginning to hit the market.

The first microprocessor was the 4004. It contained about 2500 transistors – a very large number for a single i.c. at the time, and it used a 4-bit word.

Along with the processor itself Intel launched a number of other companion i.c.s. These included a RAM i.c., memory control, and an I/O expansion chip.

A year later Intel announced their first 8-bit processor, the 8008. Then in 1974 this was followed by the 8080. This processor was a great improvement on the previous chips. It used NMOS technology for increased speed and it soon became an industry standard.

Intel was not the only company in the microprocessor race, many other manufacturers started to produce them. These included many famous names. One was Motorola who launched their 6800, also in 1974.

## MICRO-PROCESSOR DEVELOPMENT

The introduction of the microprocessor was a revolution in itself. It reflected many of the advances which were taking place particularly in i.c. manufacture. However, developments within the whole field of electronics were involved. If these had not been made then the idea of a microprocessor would not have been possible.

One of the major advances which enabled the very large scale integration used in microprocessors to become possible was the development of MOS technology. Bipolar i.c.s were limited in the number of transistors which could be placed on a single chip. This was because of the current they consumed and the resulting heat which had to be dissipated.

The foundations for MOS technology were laid in 1959 when the first f.e.t.s were produced. They caught on only slowly because they were expensive and unreliable. However development continued and improvements came. By 1970 MOS technology was well established and it was widely used. Suitably refined silicon was available. In addition to this complementary MOS (CMOS) was becoming a standard because it enabled less power to be used than ordinary bipolar technologies.

The development which led to all of this was the integrated circuit itself. Two people are credited with its discovery. One was Jack Kilby who worked for a small company called Texas Instruments. The other was Bob Noyce of Fairchild (who later co-founded Intel). They were both investigating ways of making electronics equipment smaller. By the end of 1961 their work had led to both their companies producing small quantities of i.c.s.

During the 1960s and 1970s a tremendous amount of effort was placed into research of i.c. technology. The American defence and space industries gave impetus to these developments and gradually their cost fell and they became far more widely used.

In fact, today much of the research and development in the electronics industry is devoted towards i.c. technology. Some of it may not bear any fruit, but some of it may be just as revolutionary as the i.c. or the microprocessor.

## CURRENT EXAMPLES

Today a very large amount of research is allied to improvements in computer related technologies. This is not to say that other areas of electronics are not seeing major developments. However computer sales represent one of the major electronics sales areas.

Within the computer related developments there are a number of main areas of research. Size is obviously one major concern. Although today's personal computers represent a considerable achievement in terms of miniaturisation there is still a need to make the basic elements within i.c.s smaller. If this can be done then operating speeds can be increased

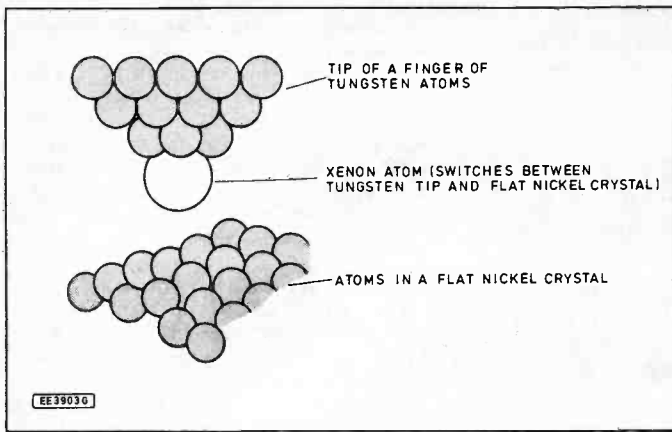


Fig. 1. Structure of the atom sized switch.

and production costs for the final units can be reduced.

One interesting development is being undertaken at IBM's Research Centre in California. It is aimed at enabling much more to be packed into integrated circuits. Currently the dimensions of the smallest transistors are around  $0.5\mu\text{m}$ . It is expected that this will be reduced to about half by the end of the century. This naturally limits the ultimate size of any i.c. which is made.

To make any major reductions in the size of basic i.c. components a complete review in thinking is needed. This is exactly what the IBM researchers have been doing. They have performed some experiments which have shown how the movement of a single atom can act as a switch.

In these experiments a single atom was successfully moved between two electrodes spaced apart by a few atom diameters (Fig. 1). The effect was monitored by looking at the change in tunnelling current as the atom changed its position. The two different values of current can then be equated to the different logic levels.

Unfortunately it is not easy to demonstrate the effect. A temperature of  $-269$  degrees C is required together with some very specialised equipment. It is hardly surprising that the effect is not in a state where it can be used commercially. However it is likely to have an impact on future generations of miniaturised devices. Also if a method is found whereby it can be incorporated into an i.c. then it could help solve many of the problems facing i.c. designers today.

## SUPER-CONDUCTING I.C.S

Another interesting idea which is more likely to bring some direct results in the near future uses superconducting technology in i.c.s. The advantage of it is that it enables i.c.s to operate at very fast speeds whilst dissipating only minute amounts of power. This is a great advantage because today's fast i.c.s are power hungry. This is a problem because the heat generated by the i.c. has to be removed otherwise the chip will overheat.

Using this superconducting technology, a company in the USA, called Hypress Inc. has made a shift register. It can operate at frequencies up to 4GHz whilst only dissipating  $40\mu\text{W}$ . In fact it is estimated that i.c.s using these techniques could be able to operate at 25GHz and more.

Another advantage of these devices is that the fabrication process uses temperatures of only 150 degrees C. This means that it is ideal for making i.c.s with both

silicon and gallium arsenide on the same chip.

The first superconducting i.c.s are likely to find uses in military equipment, particularly in radar systems where very high speed signal processing is required. Another use is in radio communications equipment where very high speed analogue to digital converters

could be made and used with high speed processors for advanced digital signal processors.

Longer term aims are very exciting. It is hoped to build a complete computer processor with them. Current estimates indicate that it should be possible to make a computer processor out of 16 chips. It would have 1000 times the processing power of a VAX11/780 and it would consume less than one watt in power.

## GALLIUM ARSENIDE RISES TO THE FRONT

Gallium arsenide has long been thought of as the answer to many problems. It has many advantages over silicon, especially in terms of speed, but until recently it has only been used in applications where current consumption is not of major importance. Accordingly its uses tend to be confined to high performance r.f. circuits and very high speed logic. In none of these applications can it compare with the low power used by fairly standard silicon technologies like CMOS.

The high current consumption and power dissipation of gallium arsenide i.c.s has also limited the scale of integration of any i.c.s made from it. Honeywell have been looking at ways of reducing this power requirement. It has long been accepted that complementary circuits like those used in CMOS are the key to low power consumption. However until now it has not been possible to make this

type of structure in gallium arsenide. By generating a new type of structure called a complementary HFET (C-HFET) Honeywell have been able to create complementary structures.

The first departure from the normal is that these chips do not consist of straight gallium arsenide. Instead they use a structure containing aluminium gallium arsenide and indium gallium arsenide to achieve much better results. Like CMOS this new structure only draws current when it changes state. This means that power consumption is considerably reduced and integration levels can rise.

To produce the new structures required for this process it has been necessary to use a process called molecular beam epitaxial deposition. This enables the very precise structures required for the C-HFETs to be made (Fig. 2).

Although the development of these devices is still in its very early stages, a 4K bit static RAM has been produced. In tests this had an access time of only 4nS and it dissipated only 100mW. This is about one fifth of that used by a standard gallium arsenide memory of the same size. These new devices are not available yet because there is still plenty of work to do. However they are likely to be very much in demand when they hit the market place.

## 3-D STORAGE

Memory development is one area of electronics which is also receiving plenty of attention. Whatever the capacity of disc drives people always want more. This has fuelled development of various storage media for many years. It is only about 15 years since disc drives for anything apart from a personal computer were housed in 19 inch rack mounting units. Now with much smaller disc drives available, development is still progressing quickly.

One of the major problems with disc storage is that it is relatively inefficient in terms of space because it can only use the surfaces of the discs. When the two sides of the disc are insufficient then several discs can be stacked to increase the capacity. Unfortunately this does not really overcome the root of the problem.

To overcome this a new idea of using 3-D storage blocks is being developed. Data can be stored in all positions in the cube and this means that the storage capacity can be dramatically increased.

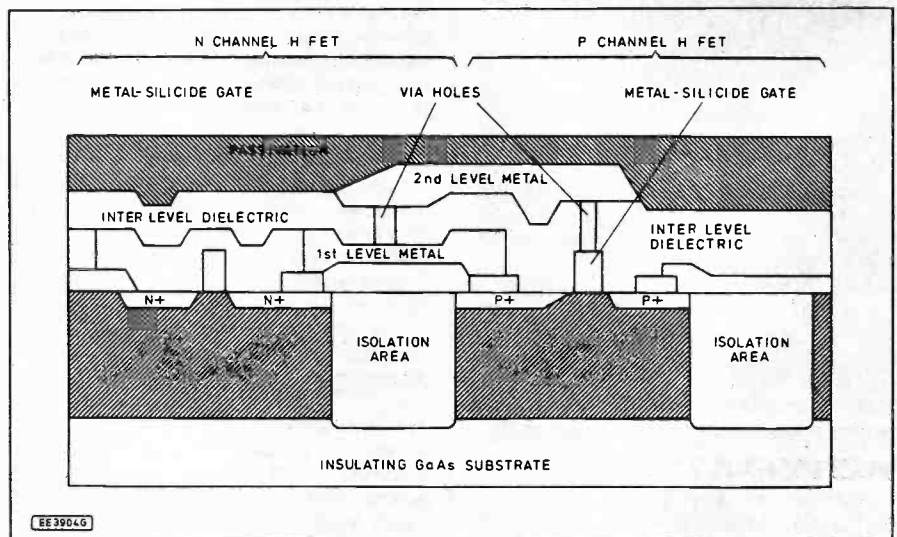


Fig. 2. C-HFET structure. In view of the complicated nature of the C-HFET it can be seen that it was not easy to develop.

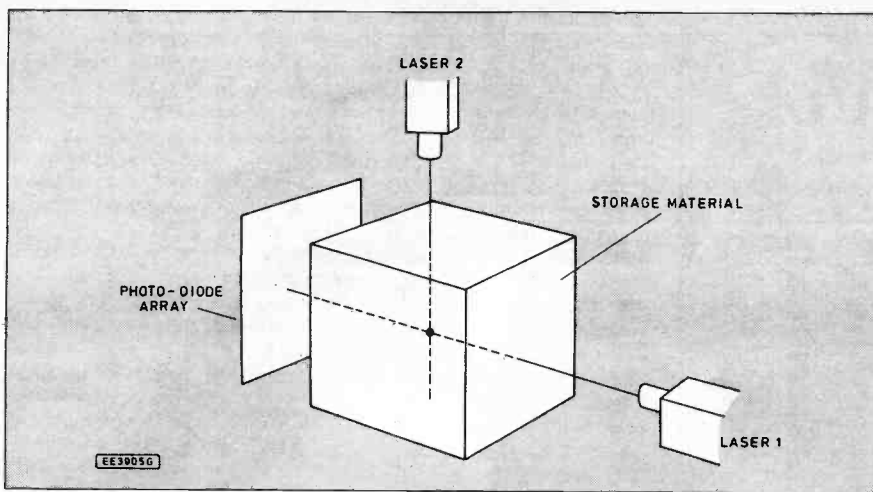


Fig. 3. 3-D storage medium.

## NEW MATERIALS

To achieve this, radically new techniques and materials are needed. The basic idea involves the use of a specialised organic material which changes state when it is energised by two intersecting light beams. It is very fast and its storage density is very high. In fact the density is limited by the definition and registration of the light beams and not the material, which works at the atomic level.

The system is based around the fact that the material is normally absorbent to UV light and clear to wavelengths in the visible section of the spectrum. However when it is excited by two intersecting beams of light, its absorbency changes (Fig. 3). It then starts to absorb light in the red/green part of the spectrum. These two states of absorbency can be used to represent the two digital states.

To read data from the material an equivalent process is used. Two intersecting UV beams detect the absorbency of the material. The resulting light can then be detected by an array of photodiodes which convert the information into electrical signals.

Although the write process is fast, it can be speeded up even further by projecting an array or pattern of data onto the material. The second light beam is then used to fix the data in the correct plane in the cube. Using the process in this way large amounts of data can be stored exceedingly quickly.

Work on this idea is still very much in its experimental stages and there are many problems to be overcome. One is that the storage material which is used at the moment is only stable at low temperatures. If the process is to be widely used then it must be able to operate at room temperature. To achieve this other substances are being investigated.

The possibilities of this new technology are very exciting. Its size and speed mean that it could very quickly out-perform any other type of storage for many years to come. There are even further possibilities. Being an optical form of storage it could be ideal in linking into optical computers which are being discussed as the next revolution for the future. Not surprisingly many companies are taking a keen interest in this work.

## NEW BATTERIES

Not all the developments which are taking place in electronics are associated with computers. Some are equally important and likely to have a large impact on the electronics world. One interesting area for research is in batteries.

Existing technologies have many drawbacks. Non-rechargeable or primary cells are expensive. They have to be discarded once they are used despite the fact that they remain basically intact after use. Their disposal also poses problems in this age when people are rightly conscious about the environment.

Rechargeable cells offer a very attractive alternative. Of the technologies which are available NiCads hold a virtual monopoly despite a number of difficulties. Firstly they only produce 1.2 volts instead of the 1.5 produced by a primary cell. They also have a finite number of charge/discharge cycles. Under ideal conditions this can be as many as several thousand, but under normal use it is somewhat less. One major mode of failure occurs as a result of the mechanical stresses which are set up in the cathode as a result of even normal use.

A new battery technology which is emerging could overcome these problems. The batteries use a form of ceramic called a ternary oxide. There is a wide variety of these ceramics and by choosing the correct types voltages over a relatively wide range can be generated. This means that it is possible to make batteries using this technology which will give a voltage of 1.5 volts.

The other advantage of these ceramic batteries is that they can endure an almost unlimited number of charge/discharge cycles. This results from the fact that there are almost no internal stresses set up during normal use: a fact which has been verified using X-rays.

Work is progressing quite rapidly on developing these cells. Although the results look very promising it will still be a few years before they are available.

## SILICON LIGHT

Light emitting diodes are now a standard component, used in a wide variety of applications. However they have always been made from gallium arsenide. Whilst gallium arsenide performs very well it is difficult to handle and more expensive than silicon. If a process could be devised to use silicon then enormous savings could be made in view of the extensive use of l.e.d.s.

Some progress is now being made towards this goal. The key to it is based around a process being developed by Siemens. It involves an electrochemical process which creates minute pores in the silicon about 1nm in diameter.

These holes have the effect of restricting the movement of the charge carriers i.e. holes or electrons. In turn this causes the silicon to exhibit properties more like that

of gallium arsenide where light emission and absorption are concerned.

Work is still in its early stages. Experiments using the treated silicon have shown that it can be stimulated into generating red or yellow light when exposed to a blue laser. The actual colour of the light which is generated is dependent upon the size of the pores. Now it remains to generate light using an electric current.

## FOR THE FUTURE

It is very difficult to gaze into the future and predict how the electronics world is likely to be in 21 years time. A few people have managed to produce predictions which have come true. For example Isaac Asimov talked about a man using a small hand-held calculating machine with its red numerals. This was many years before the calculator with either l.e.d. or l.c.d. displays was available.

To have an idea of what technology may be like in a few years time it is possible to look at today's research and see where it could lead. Alternatively one can look at today's needs and see how this could stimulate research and development.

## SMALLER AND FASTER

Much of today's research seems to be associated with faster, more powerful and smaller computers with more memory. The need for this seems to have been amply demonstrated by the fact that whenever a more powerful computer comes on the market then it can be used immediately. The same can also be demonstrated with even the comparatively humble PC. Ever larger programs are being written which require more memory and higher speeds.

The original 8080 or 8086 machines cannot cope with most programs on the market today. Even the 286 machines are becoming obsolete and the 386 is being overtaken by the 486.

Storage is another area where there will be major advances. PCs today now have the disc storage capacity which only a large machine would have had ten or fifteen years ago. With this in mind it is quite possible that ideas like the 3-D storage system could become a reality relatively soon.

However one area which desperately needs to be addressed is that of the user friendliness of computers and computer related products. Even video recorders and similar items can be far too complicated for the non-technical man in the street. Far more research needs to be put into the man-machine interface. Currently this is the most difficult area of any computer product.

Apart from computer products there will be major advances in personal communications. Cellular phone technology has proved to be a great success and has shown that there is a need for flexible mobile communications. In the years to come this form of communications will become cheaper and more reliable. However whether there is a real need for a global system remains to be seen. After all most people really only want to speak regularly to someone less than 30 miles away.

Like all technology, the developments we see in the next 21 years will vary. Some will be good and others may seem like a retrograde step. What is certain is that the developments will be exciting. With what currently appears to be on the horizon the next 21 years will be just as exciting as the last 21 if not more so! □



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# REACTION TIMER

T. R. de VAUX-BALBIRNIE

Just how fast do you think you are?

**T**HIS Reaction Timer project was originally designed for fun at a party. However, it could have other more serious applications – in school science lessons, for example.

Reaction time is the time taken for a person to detect something (a stimulus) and for the brain to process it and make something happen. For example, when a child runs out in front of a car, the motorist applies the brakes as quickly as possible. The time elapsing between seeing the child (stimulus) and producing an action (pressing the brake pedal) is the reaction time.

The Highway Code uses the term *thinking distance* since here the reaction time is translated into the distance travelled at various speeds. This is more easily understood by motorists. For example, if a car is travelling at 30mph, the Highway Code tells us that the thinking distance is 30ft. A simple calculation can turn this into a reaction time:

$$\begin{aligned} 30\text{mph} &= 44\text{ft/second.} \\ \text{So } 30\text{ft.} &\text{ is covered in} \\ 30/44 \text{ second} &= 0.7\text{s approx.} \end{aligned}$$

Fig. 1. Complete circuit diagram for the Reaction Timer.

## THINKING TIMES

Thinking distance or reaction time depends on several factors. Firstly, the person concerned – some people have faster reaction times than others and, to some extent, this depends on the person's age. Secondly the state of alertness. The time will be greatly increased if the subject is tired or not concentrating.

Finally, the *type* of stimulus – the reaction time for a *visual* stimulus may not be the same as that for an *aural* one. Also, the effect of alcohol and some medicines (such as cough mixtures and so-called "cold cures" containing certain antihistamines) – these will increase the reaction time.

**IMPORTANT WARNING:** Under no circumstances must this reaction timer be used to indicate the ability to drive safely or to judge any impairment on driving due to the effects of alcohol.

The Reaction Timer is a battery-powered circuit housed in two interconnected units each built in a small plastic box. The main section has an on-off switch, a row of nine l.e.d.s (light emitting diodes) and a push-button (Freeze) switch. It also contains the



circuit panel and battery. The remote section has a Start/Reset pushbutton switch mounted on top.

## TESTING TIMES

Two people are needed to perform the test. The person performing it (the tester) sits with the remote section in such a way that the person being tested (the subject) cannot see the Start/Reset switch and possibly anticipate the start. The subject sits in front of the main unit with his or her finger ready on the Freeze button.

The unit is switched on and the tester presses the Start/Reset button whereupon the first l.e.d. in the display lights up. After some random time the button is released.

At this point, the l.e.d.s in the display operate one by one in rapid succession. As soon as the subject sees the first l.e.d. go off, he or she presses the Freeze button and keeps it pressed. This stops the display and the l.e.d. which remains lit indicates the reaction time against a scale of values marked alongside.

The button is now released ready for another try. Normally, several trials will be performed on the subject and an average time taken.

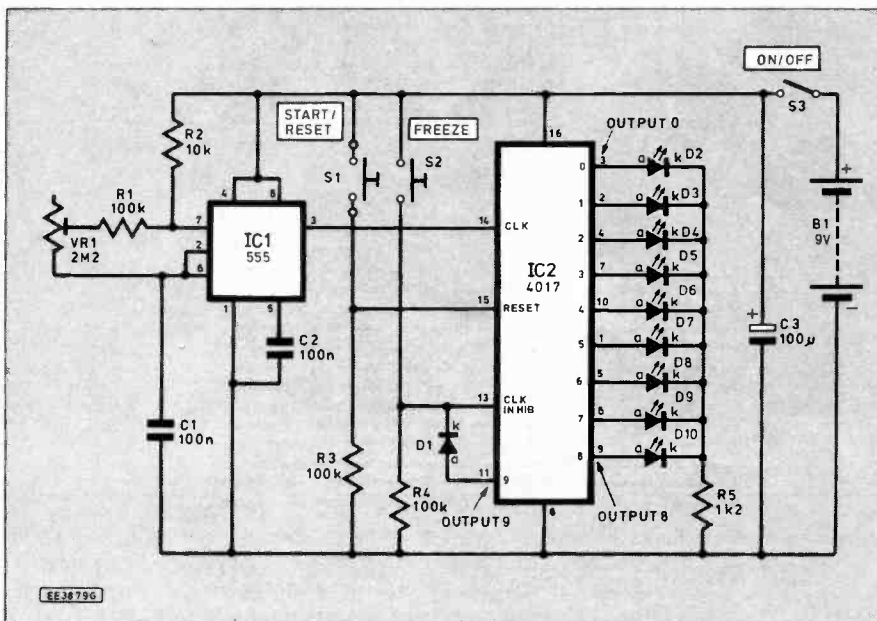
The prototype unit measures the reaction time in 0.1 second (100ms) increments up to 0.8s (800ms). If there is a delay of more than 0.8s between observing the display and pressing the button, the unit "locks out" automatically and all l.e.d.s go off. The circuit could be adjusted at the setting-up stage to go up in larger steps, say, 150ms giving a maximum display readout of 1.2s.

In the prototype model, the first three l.e.d.s are green, the next three yellow and the last three red. These could be used to indicate Good, Fair and Poor reaction times.

## CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

The full circuit diagram for the Reaction Timer is shown in Fig. 1. IC1 is a 555 timer i.c. which is connected as an *astable multivibrator*. Thus, while a supply exists – that is, with On-Off switch S3, on, pulses are produced continuously from the output, pin 3, at a nominal rate of 10 per second (10Hz).

The exact frequency depends on the values of fixed resistors, R1 and R2, preset potentiometer VR1 and capacitor, C1. To allow for component tolerances, and to enable different rates of operation, VR1 forms the adjustment for the pulse repetition frequency. The setting-up procedure for getting this right is described at the end.





The pulses supplied by IC1 are applied direct to the clock input pin 14 of IC2, a CMOS decade counter. This device has ten outputs, 0-9, each one (apart from number nine) being responsible for lighting one l.e.d. in the display, D2 to D10.

As each pulse is received, successive outputs 0-9 (pins 3, 2, 4, 7, 10, 1, 5, 6, 9 and 11 respectively go high (supply positive voltage) and each l.e.d. lights in sequence. Since only one l.e.d. is on at a given time, they can all share the same common current-limiting resistor, R5.

Normally, on the tenth pulse, IC2 would self-reset and begin a further cycle. To prevent this happening, so that timings above 0.8s are invalid, output 9 (pin 11), which has no l.e.d. connected to it, disables the i.c. by applying a high state to *clock inhibit* pin 13 through diode, D1.

Thus, output nine remains high continuously, further clock pulses then have no effect and all l.e.d.s are off. In use, the subject will try to press the Freeze button, S2, before the display reaches the last l.e.d. - this action also inhibits the clock by making pin 13 high.

The Start/Reset switch, S1, on the remote section resets the display by applying a high state to IC2 reset input (pin 15). In the reset state, output 0 goes high and the first l.e.d., D2, lights.

When S1 is released, pin 15 goes low via resistor R3 which enables the clock. The test then proceeds in the manner already described.

Since IC2 cannot supply a large output current, low current l.e.d.s were used in the prototype unit coupled with a relatively high value of current-limiting resistor, R5. Standard l.e.d.s could probably be used but they would not be very bright.

## CIRCUIT BOARD

Construction of the Reaction Timer is based on a circuit panel made from a piece of 0.1in. matrix stripboard, size 15 strips x 27 holes. Fig. 2 shows full top-side component layout and the track breaks required on the copper strip side.

Begin by cutting the material to size, drilling the single fixing hole and making all track breaks and inter-strip links as indicated. Follow with the soldered on-board components but do not insert the i.c.s into their sockets until the end of construction. Note that diode D1 and capacitor C3 are polarity-sensitive components and must be connected the correct way round.

Leave the anode (a) end of diode D1 unconnected for the moment. Solder a short stalk (clipped-off resistor end) to board matrix position H19. At the end of construction D1 anode end lead will be soldered to this stalk so completing the connection. The reason for doing this is to help in the setting-up procedure at the end.

It will help construction if 10-way "rainbow" ribbon cable is used for the edge connections to strips D, E, G, H, I, J, K, L, M and O on the right-hand side of the circuit panel. This will keep the wiring

neat and help in avoiding wiring errors later.

Solder a 10cm piece of red light-duty stranded wire to strip C and solder the black battery connector "negative" wire to strip N as shown in Fig. 3. Solder a similar piece of wire to strip J on the left-hand side. Leave VR1 adjusted to approximately mid-track position.

## COMPONENTS

### Resistors

R1, R3, R4 100k (3 off)  
R2 10k  
R5 1k2  
All 0.25W 5% carbon film

See  
**SHOP  
TALK**  
Page

### Potentiometer

VR1 2M2 skeleton preset, horiz.

### Capacitors

C1, C2 100n ceramic (2 off)  
C3 100µ p.c.b. mounting elect., 10V

### Semiconductors

D1 1N4148 signal diode  
D2 to D10 Low current l.e.d.s: red (3 off); yellow (3 off); green (3 off)  
IC1 555 bipolar timer  
IC2 4017 decade counter

### Miscellaneous

S1, S2 Miniature push-to-make switch (2 off)  
S3 Miniature toggle switch  
B1 PP3 battery and connector  
Stripboard, 0.1in. matrix, size 15 strips by 27 holes; plastic boxes, size 114mm x 76mm x 38mm and 50mm x 37mm x 24mm; 8-pin d.i.l. socket; 16-pin d.i.l. socket; 10-way "rainbow" ribbon cable; stranded connecting wire; twin multi-strand connecting cable; stand-off insulator; fixings; solder etc.

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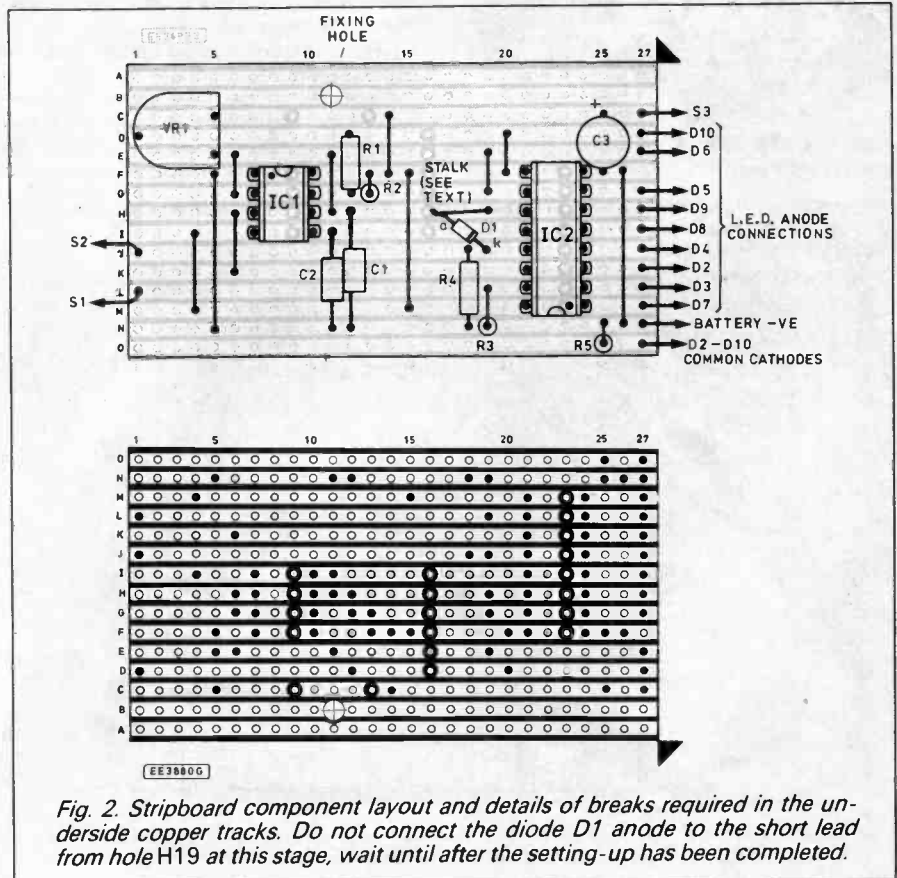
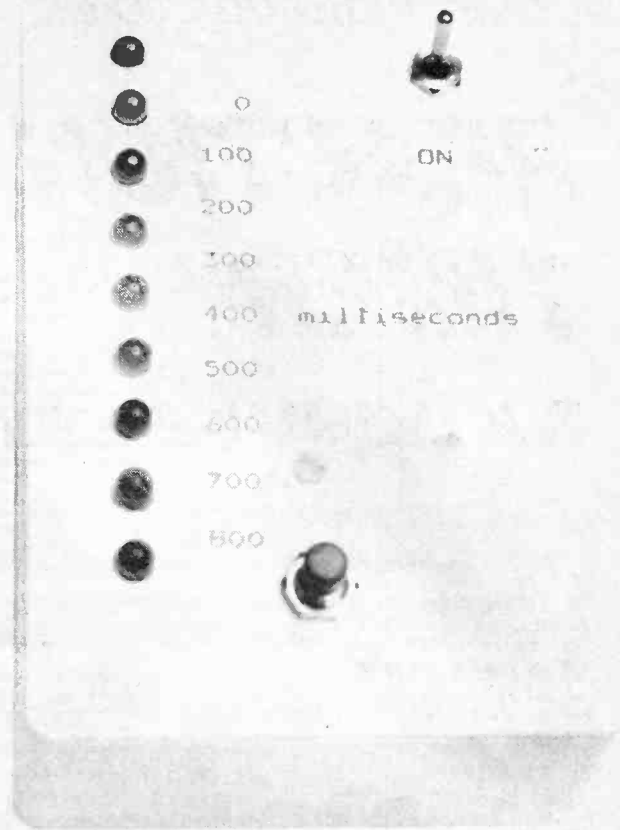


Fig. 2. Stripboard component layout and details of breaks required in the underside copper tracks. Do not connect the diode D1 anode to the short lead from hole H19 at this stage, wait until after the setting-up has been completed.

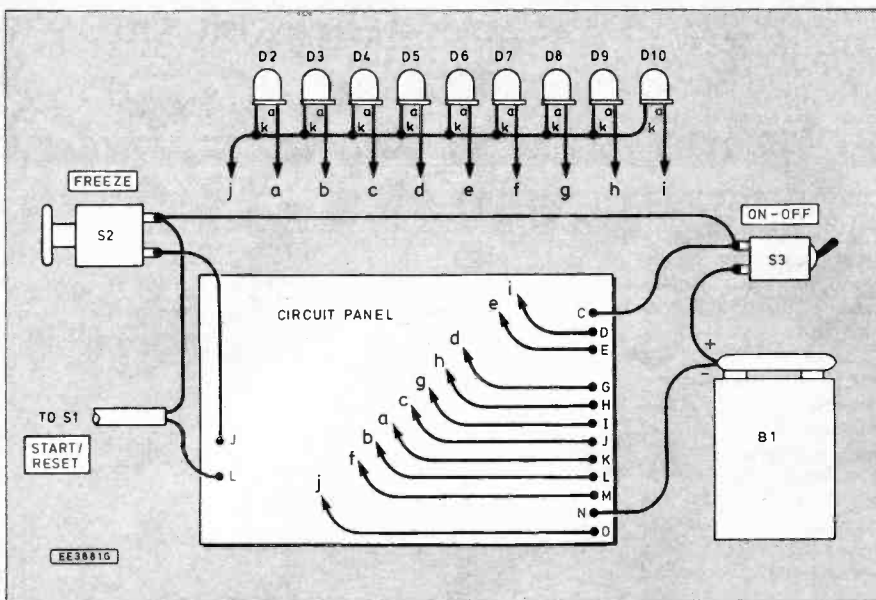


Fig. 3. Interwiring from the circuit board to the display l.e.d.s and other off-board components. Switch S1 is mounted inside the remote "tester" box.

## MAIN UNIT

Referring to Fig. 3 and photographs, prepare the main unit box by drilling holes for S2 (Freeze) and S3 (On-Off) also a small hole in the side for the interconnecting wire to pass through. Drill holes for the nine l.e.d.s – it is worth measuring the positions of these carefully since the appearance of the finished project depends largely on the display being neat.

The holes should be of such a diameter that the l.e.d.s are a tight push-fit. They may then be secured with a little glue. Alternatively, l.e.d. mounting clips could be used.

Mount all remaining components. Note that everything is secured in the *main section* of the box with nothing on the lid – this avoids strain on the interconnecting wires.

Complete the internal wiring – note particularly the common connection for all l.e.d. cathode (k) ends. Follow the colours of the ribbon cable carefully so that the l.e.d.s end up lighting in the correct sequence.

*Layout of components inside the completed main unit. The remote case is similar but only houses the Start/Reset switch S1.*

Do not cut the end leads of the l.e.d.s too short and take care when bending them not to break them off. Solder the l.e.d. connections quickly to avoid heat damage. Note that l.e.d.s are polarity-sensitive and will not work if connected the wrong way round.

To avoid a lot of inconvenience later, try to get the polarity of the l.e.d.s right first time. Note the "flat" on the body and the shorter end lead – both these denote the cathode (k) end.

Cut off a suitable length of light-duty twin wire to use as the interconnecting lead between boxes and solder the two wires at one end to strip L on the left-hand side of the circuit panel and the other to switch S2. Tie a knot in the wire to provide strain relief and pass it through the hole in the side of the case from the inside. (Note: Never tie a knot in a *mains* carrying lead to act as a strain relief).

Attach the circuit panel above the l.e.d. display in the position shown in the photograph. Use a plastic stand-off insulator long enough for the copper strip

side to be held clear of the l.e.d. connections. A long 6BA nylon bolt with three nuts was used for the purpose in the prototype – one nut to secure the bolt and two to sandwich the circuit panel.

Use a piece of thin plastic p.v.c. tape to provide some insulation for the copper strips if necessary. Secure the battery to the base of the case using an adhesive fixing pad.

## REMOTE UNIT

Drill holes in the remote box for Start/Reset switch, S1, and for the interconnecting lead to pass through. A keyboard-type switch was used in the prototype but any small push-to-make switch will do.

Mount switch S1, pass the twin wire interconnecting cable through the hole and tie a knot in it to provide strain relief. Solder the two end wires to S1 terminals leaving some slack in the wire so that it cannot pull free in service.

Back to the main unit. After a check for errors, insert the i.c.s with the correct orientation – note that IC2 is "upside down" compared with IC1. In theory at least, as IC2 is a CMOS device it can be damaged by any static charge which may exist. To be safe, touch a water tap or other earthed object before removing it from its packaging. Alternatively, avoid touching the pins when inserting it into its socket. Switch S3 *off* before proceeding.

## TESTING AND ADJUSTMENT

Commence the testing and setting-up by connecting the battery and switching S3 *on*. The l.e.d.s should light rapidly one by one in sequence then start again (the cycle keeps repeating because one end of diode D1 has been left *disconnected*).

If any l.e.d. fails to light, suspect that it has been connected the wrong way round in the circuit. If any l.e.d.s operate out of sequence, they have been connected to the wrong IC2 outputs.

By timing ten complete cycles and adjusting preset VR1 to make this exactly 10 seconds (since it cycles through ten outputs), you will know that the time taken for the display to advance by one l.e.d. is 0.1s (100ms). This rate was found to be satisfactory in practice but it could be speeded up or slowed down as required by suitable adjustment to VR1.

Once this operation has been carried out, the wire stalk at board matrix position H19 may be soldered to diode D1 anode. When tested, the unit should behave as before except that *all* l.e.d.s will go off after the first cycle.

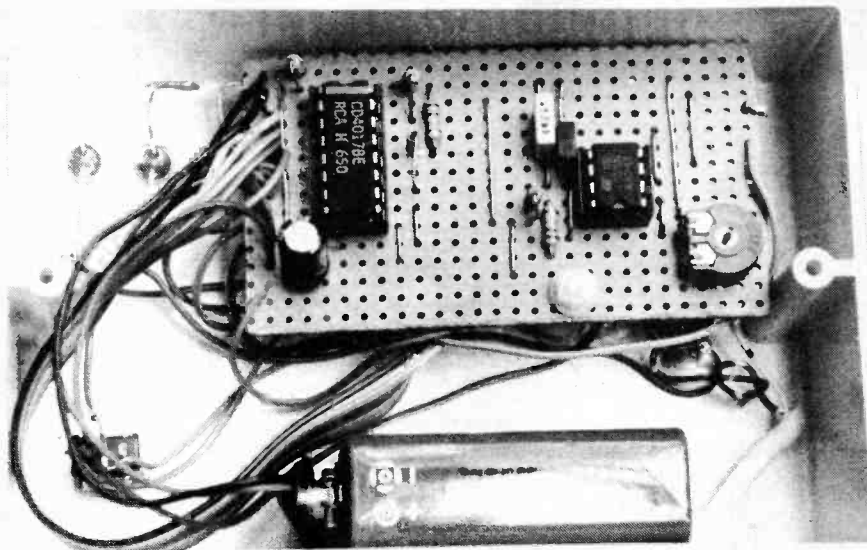
It only remains to label the switches and l.e.d. display – this may be done in *milliseconds* i.e. 0.100, 200 so on – see photograph. Use dry print lettering to give a professional appearance.

## REACTION

It is interesting to note that most people have a reaction time shorter than the *Highway Code* seems to suggest. This is probably because the situation in driving is not the same as here.

In these tests, the level of concentration is greater since it only needs to be kept up for a relatively short time. In driving, it would be impossible to maintain this degree of concentration.

This could be investigated by allowing a long time before releasing the Start/Reset switch. This will usually be found to increase the reaction time of the subject. □

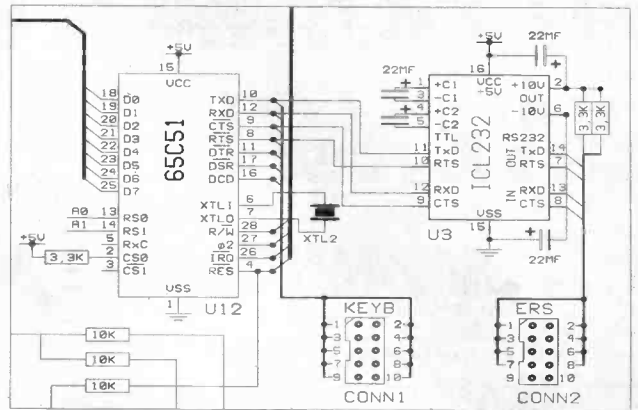


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## HIGHLIGHTS

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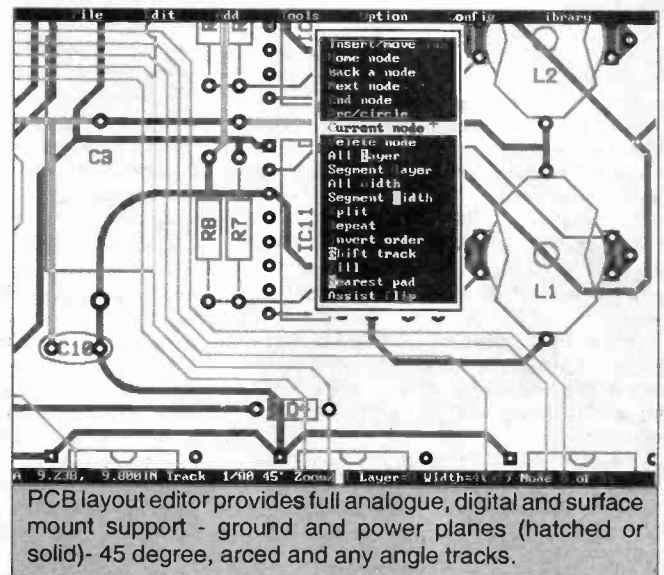
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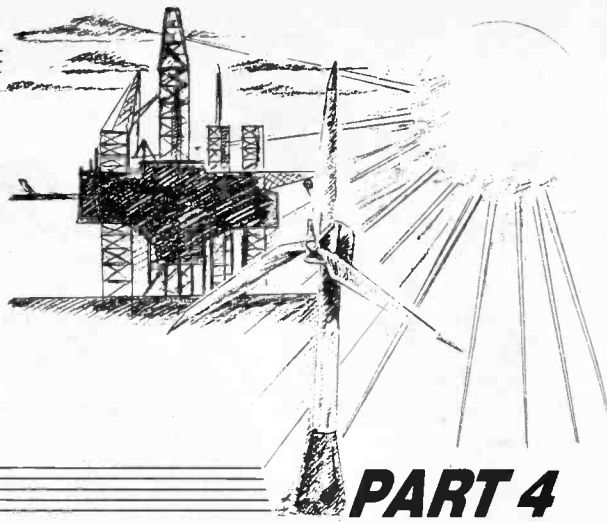
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# ALTERNATIVE ENERGY

T. R. de VAUX BALBIRNIE

PART 4

Developments using renewable energy sources. Energy from water.



THIS is the fourth article in a short series about renewable energy – that is, sources of power which will last for ever unlike those derived from the fossil fuels – coal, oil and natural gas – which will eventually run out. This month we shall examine various ways of using water power.

The Department of Energy has funded a programme of research and development into alternative energy methods since 1974. Some ideas turn out to be economically and technically attractive, some could be promising in the medium term and others are long shots and unlikely to be used in the foreseeable future.

The Government is working towards an electrical generating capacity of 1000MW from renewable energy sources by the end of the century – equivalent to the output of one large coal-fired power station. Technically, renewable energy sources could furnish all our needs but they are *diffuse* – that is, the power is spread out over a large area and this often makes exploitation difficult and therefore expensive.

## WATER, WATER EVERYWHERE

Water power in its various forms, together with on-shore wind energy, geothermal energy and schemes producing energy from waste material (of which more will be said next month), are likely to make a significant contribution to Britain's total

energy needs in the 21st century. This, together with nuclear power and a smaller contribution from the dwindling supplies of fossil fuels, should maintain our increasing energy needs.

Water power in some form is an ancient technology – water wheels have been used for milling corn and other purposes for centuries. There is a reference to water power having been used in Greece during the First Century A.D. and in the Middle Ages the water wheel was in widespread use in several countries.

The traditional *overshot* and *undershot* types of water wheel are shown in Fig. 1. Today, the water wheel would be described as a *turbine* where the water turns blades on a shaft which can then provide useful work.

There are several ways of obtaining energy from water and hence to generate electricity – from the tides, from waves and from the power of falling water – that is, *hydroelectric power* schemes. It is also possible to use naturally-occurring hot water – springs and geysers – and this method will be discussed in more detail next month. Unlike tides, springs and geysers, both wave energy and hydroelectric schemes actually use indirect solar power.

Waves are caused by the wind blowing across the surface of the sea and it is the sun which causes the differences in temperature which cause the wind to blow. As well as causing horizontal currents, the water is

made to move up and down. It is this movement which carries vast amounts of energy and which may be exploited to generate electricity.

Hydroelectric power is also derived indirectly from the sun since it is the heat of the sun (solar radiation) which evaporates the water in the first place and carries it up as vapour to the high ground where it falls as rain. The energy held by the water on the high ground is called *potential energy* (energy due to position). As it falls, the power may be transferred to a turbine which rotates the shaft of a generator and produces electricity.

We saw in a previous article that approximately 20 per cent of solar energy falling on the earth causes evaporation of water but much of it happens very diffusely with small amounts of flowing water spread out over a very large area. It would be uneconomic to extract the energy from such small amounts of slow-moving water.

## EBB AND FLOW

Tidal energy is an "odd man out" because here the power has not come from the sun. Tides are caused chiefly by the gravitational pull of the moon and, to some extent, the sun on the mass of water which makes up the oceans of the world. Although the sun is massive in comparison to the moon, it is also much further away so it is the moon which has the greater influence. The gravitational force causes the water to pile up and it moves as the earth turns on its axis.

Most parts of the world experience two tides each *tidal day* – that is, every 25 hours and 5 minutes. When the sun aligns with the moon there is a larger than normal gravitational force and a particularly high tide results. This occurs twice a month and is called a *spring tide*.

When the sun and the moon are in opposition, a smaller gravitational force results and this gives rise to a lower tide than usual called a *neap tide*. Even so, tides are very complex and far removed from the pattern suggested by simple theory. The size of a tide is influenced by the shape of the coastline with funnelling effects tending to increase the tidal range.

Advisors to The Department of Energy believe that tidal energy and wind power (which has been discussed in previous parts of this series), have a promising future and together have the potential to generate a

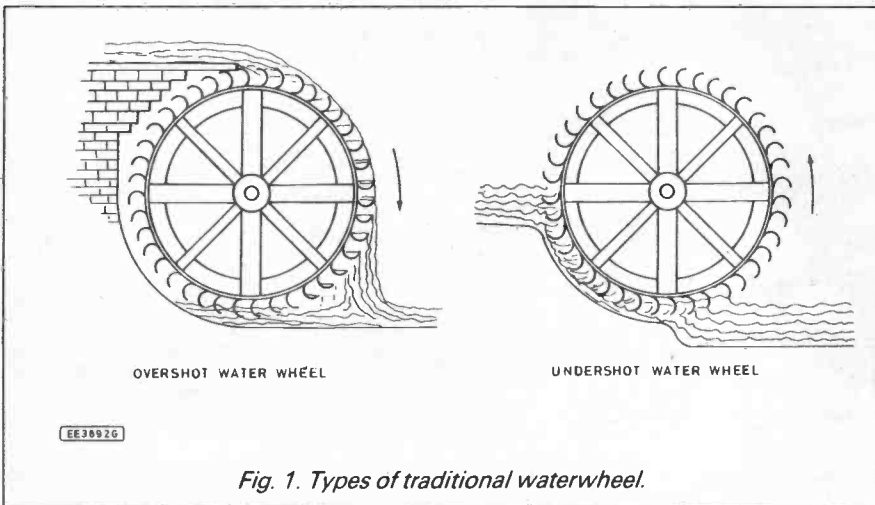


Fig. 1. Types of traditional waterwheel.



Potential sites for tidal barrage schemes.

significant fraction of the total electricity needs of the U.K. We may draw on the experience of the French, Americans and Canadians who have had large-scale tidal power schemes in operation for several years.

In Britain, we are fortunate in having some of the highest tides in Europe and these are ideal for economic exploitation. It is thought that the tidal range needs to exceed about five metres to make this method commercially worthwhile and many such sites are to be found around the west coast and elsewhere – see the map of potential barrage scheme sites.

In the Severn Estuary, funnelling and other effects combine to provide one of the largest tidal ranges in the world – over 11 metres in the region between Barry and Weston-Super-Mare (see Fig. 2). The flow of water carries a vast amount of energy and using this to generate electricity is a very attractive and economically viable proposition.

By maximum commercial exploitation, we could generate at least 20 per cent of Britain's total electricity needs by tidal power alone – rather more if we did not look too coldly at the commercial aspects but weighed them up against the indirect benefits. Even if we abstracted energy only from the largest tides – those of the Severn,

the Mersey and a few more, 10 per cent of our total energy needs could be realized. The eight largest schemes used together could save Britain about 25 million tonnes of coal per year.

We presume that by drawing energy out of the tidal system, we are slowing down the rate at which the earth spins on its axis. However, this effect is so small as to be imperceptible and is happening all the time anyway.

### TIDAL BARRIERS

To exploit tidal energy, a *barrage* or dam needs to be built to control the flow. A river basin is thus formed. The barrage has a number of turbines set into it and as water flows in and out of the basin with each change of the tide, the turbines rotate, turn generators and make electricity (see Fig. 3).

The proposed Severn Tidal Barrage scheme is, at the moment, undergoing extensive study. The Severn Tidal Power Group has completed a programme of investigations and has confirmed that a suitable barrage could be constructed using existing technology. It is further believed that, once built, the scheme would be capable of delivering electricity to the public supply network for more than a century.

The Severn Barrage project, if put into operation, would be the largest tidal power scheme in the world. The barrage itself would be enormous – some 16km (10 miles) in length stretching between Lavernock Point (between Barry and Cardiff) to a point near Weston-Super-Mare (see Fig. 2). The basin would enclose an area of 480 square kilometres.

Into the barrage would be set 216 turbines each with a diameter of 9m and each having a generating capacity of 40MW giving a total power output of 8640MW – that is, it would exceed the output of eight large coal-fired power stations. This would provide seven per cent of the total electrical energy requirement of England and Wales.

Despite the great capital cost – some £8 billion (at 1988 prices) – the potential for saving fossil fuels would be vast – some 8 million tonnes per year. The reduction in carbon dioxide emission would be almost 18 million tonnes per year with consequent relief from the greenhouse effect.

Construction of the Severn Barrage would probably involve floating large hollow concrete sections to the site. Each section – called a *caisson* – would carry one of the turbines. It would be necessary to provide locks to allow the largest ships to pass to the ports along the river and some means of allowing fish through without harm. The

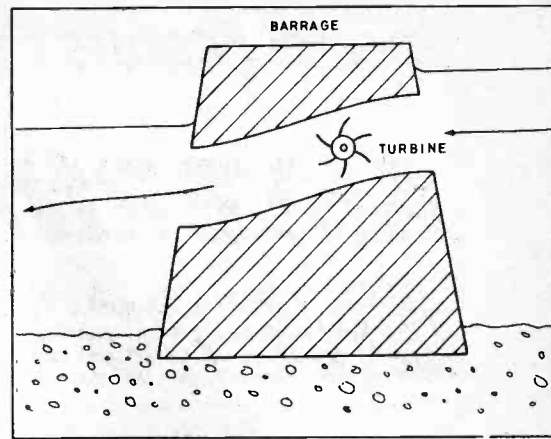


Fig. 3. Principle of the tidal barrage.

construction time scale would be approximately 14 years – about five years for preparation, a further seven for construction and first power production and a further two years for full-stream operation.

### ACROSS THE MERSEY

A similar but much smaller *Mersey Barrage project* would use a dam 2km in length with a basin enclosing 61 square kilometres. There would be 28 turbines set into it, each having a diameter of 8m and each with a generating capacity of 25MW. This would provide a total peak output of 700MW. The Mersey is well suited to such a scheme with spring tides reaching a range of 8m.

The preferred siting for the barrage is between the Liverpool Garden Festival site near the city centre and a point close to New Ferry on the Wirral – see Fig. 4. As in the Severn project, a system of locks would be required to allow the passage of ships to the Manchester Ship Canal.

The Mersey Barrage scheme would save some 700,000 tonnes of coal per year. Constructional cost is estimated at £880M (at 1989 prices). If the scheme were approved by Parliament, the project could be complete and generating power within two years.

In addition to the two largest projects outlined above, Britain has the potential for several less ambitious schemes each making a small but significant contribution. A study made in 1986 identified 34 such sites each with the potential to generate between 30 and 150MW.

A feasibility study on a possible Conway (North Wales) Barrage shows the potential to generate 33MW while a Wyre Barrage (near Fleetwood in Lancashire) could

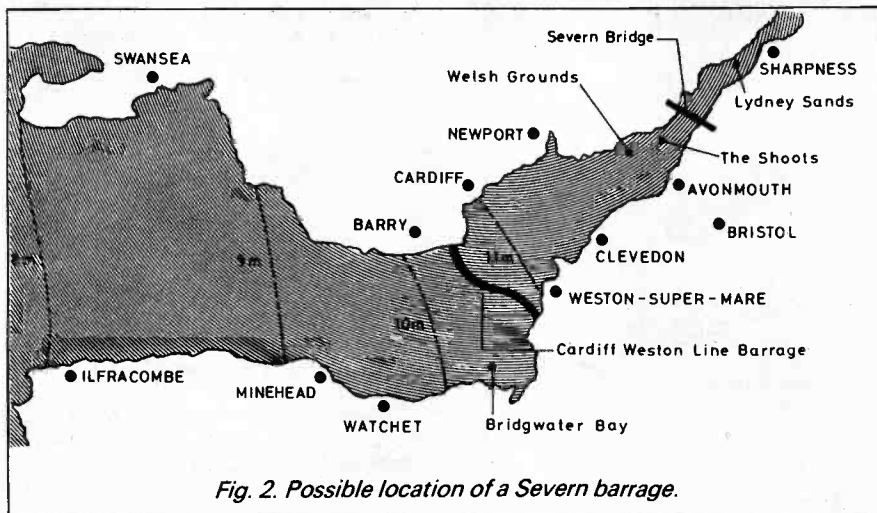


Fig. 2. Possible location of a Severn barrage.

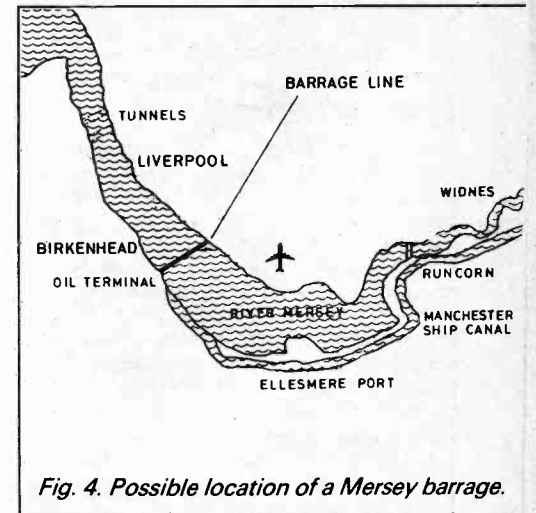


Fig. 4. Possible location of a Mersey barrage.

produce 47MW of electricity. Scotland tends to have lower tides so there are fewer commercially attractive sites there. However, Scotland has a greater potential for hydroelectric schemes than England and Wales.

## EFFECTS ON THE ENVIRONMENT

Tidal energy has the advantage of being less diffuse than many other forms of renewable energy. Also, the energy in moving water is easily turned into electricity by well-known and relatively inexpensive technology. However, the use of tidal energy is not without some cost to the environment.

Abstraction of tidal power alters the pattern of water movement and lessens the speed of the currents. This can cause sediment build-up and lower turbidity with possible effects on wildlife. Within the river basin, the tidal range would be reduced and the low-water level raised.

It is thought that lower turbidity could increase the availability of food for fish and birds but, on the negative side, there would be a reduced mudflat area for feeding wading birds. However, taking everything into account, tidal power is thought to rank with the wind in being among the most environmentally-friendly sources of power.

Because a tidal energy scheme controls the flow of water, it prevents flooding along large stretches of the river during extreme high tides. Other methods of flood prevention would therefore not be required and the savings made here offset some of the constructional-costs of the barrage itself.

## WAVE ENERGY

It is well known that waves carry an enormous amount of energy. Our coast has a history of broken seawalls and seaside piers having been destroyed during violent storms. Research into abstraction of wave energy has been carried out since the mid-1970's and extensive studies have been made to find the best types of device for the job – some 300 ideas in all.

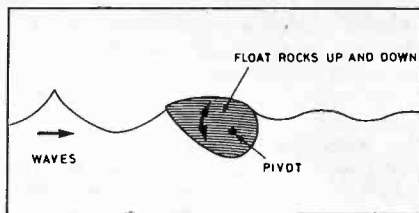
The best places for large-scale wave energy exploitation lie between latitude 40 and 60 degrees and many parts of Britain have a near-ideal situation. Off the West Coast, in the NW approaches, there is said to be available some 70MW of power per km of coastline – that is to say, over a stretch of approximately 15km (about 10 miles) there is available the equivalent energy of a large coal-fired power station.

In fact, the waves around our coast carry all the energy we need but its abstraction would prove very expensive and difficult. Also, the power of the waves is notoriously unpredictable depending as it does on wind speed and the exact way and time for which the wind blows across the water surface.

## OFFSHORE

There are basically two wave energy extraction technologies – *offshore* and *shoreline*. Large off-shore wave energy projects are exciting and once seemed attractive on account of the vast amounts of energy available. The up and down wave energy could be extracted by transferring the motion to floating *nodding ducks* in the manner developed by Professor Salter of Edinburgh University (see illustration). The motion would then be transferred to an electrical generator. However, off-shore wave technology is difficult.

The mighty 2000MW off-shore proposals originally investigated by the Department of Energy now seem far too expensive to imple-



Salter's Ducks, method of operation.

ment. The technique of bringing the energy ashore and difficulties in maintenance of the equipment would also raise problems. It appears that the economic viability of using off-shore waves as a source of energy would depend on other methods rising in price.

## SHORELINE

On the other hand, due to the relatively low cost involved, small-scale *shoreline* projects seem to hold much promise. These would be of value as local power sources in remote regions where it is expensive to lay on a supply of electricity – perhaps by using diesel generators.

One such scheme under investigation is the Shoreline Rock Gully System developed by Queen's University, Belfast and funded by the Department of Energy. This is presently undergoing trials on Islay in the Inner Hebrides (see below). In this scheme, the energy is extracted from waves in a natural gully so greatly reducing construction costs.

The waves force water into a large chamber (a *capture chamber*). This rises like a piston and forces the air through a turbine which then operates an electrical generator. As the water retreats, the air re-enters the chamber and the turbine is operated once again.

A special air turbine developed by Professor Alan Wells – the *Wells Turbine* – can operate without reversing whichever way the air is moving through it and this is a great advantage. The output from the generator varies from a peak of some 100kW during a storm to some 75kW during normal working conditions. Work began on the project in 1985 with construction commencing in 1987. The output was connected to the National Grid in 1991.

One advantage of wave energy which is not always true of other alternative energy sources is that production tends to track

demand – in winter, when more electricity is needed, the waves are generally larger and so more electricity is produced.

## HYDROELECTRIC POWER

The technique of producing energy from falling water has been well established in Britain – as in many other parts of the world – for many years. Unfortunately, there is little room for expansion since all the major resources are already in use.

Currently, about two per cent of U.K. electricity needs are supplied in this way – mainly in Scotland which holds 90 per cent of the total resource. Really large amounts of energy are only available where the head (height of fall) exceeds 50m and these provide 85 per cent of the total energy produced by H.E.P. technology.

Britain is not as fortunate as certain other countries (Canada and Sweden, for example) in having large masses of falling water. Perhaps the future lies in developing many small-scale projects which would nevertheless, provide a useful contribution to our total energy needs.

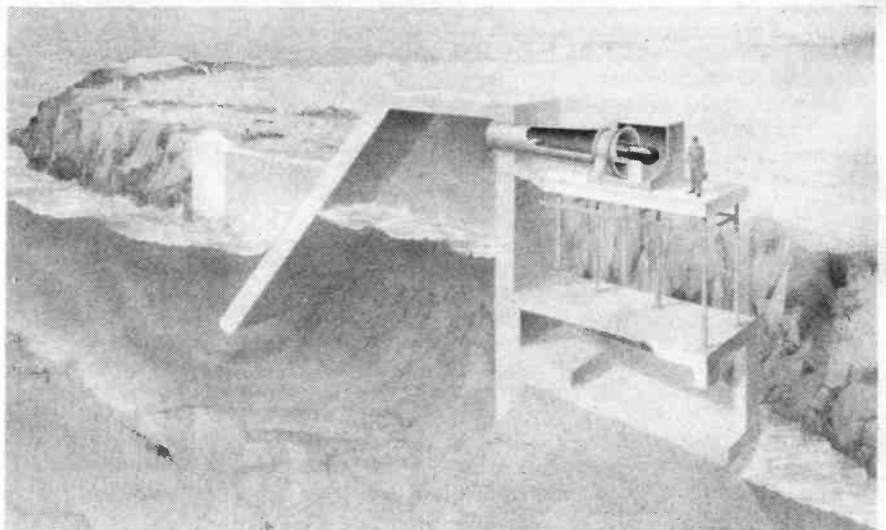
Work by the University of Salford has shown that some 300MW of power is available where the head is little more than three metres. It could be argued that 300MW is too small to be worthwhile – it is, after all, only one-third of the output of a large conventional power station, but the energy is available using well-established technology and at a reasonable price.

Many such schemes could provide up to one per cent of our total requirements in the future. This would be helpful to island communities too remote from the nearest conventional electricity supply.

## PUMPED STORAGE

Although not a source of alternative energy as such, this month's work would not be complete without a brief mention of *pumped storage* power stations because these schemes provide an indirect saving in the use of fossil fuels and a consequent reduction in carbon dioxide emission.

To understand the principle of pumped storage power generation, we need to know that the public demand for electricity varies throughout the 24 hour cycle. During the night, the requirement both by private



The shoreline generation system, this cutway artists diagram shows the principle of operation.

homes and industry falls off considerably. The generating companies wish to boost demand in the off-peak period to provide a better balance between off-peak and on-peak usage since this makes for more efficient operation of the network.

Schemes such as *Economy-7* help to do this by offering electricity to the consumer at a discounted price between certain hours of the night and early morning. In this way, storage heaters and other pieces of equipment may be used to take advantage of the lower price.

On a much larger scale, off-peak power may be used to pump water from a lake at the bottom of a mountain to a reservoir at the top. At times of peak demand or perhaps when there is a sudden unexpected need for power such as during a spell of cold weather, the water is allowed to flow downhill again, turn the turbines, and generate electricity just as in a conventional hydroelectric scheme.

At Dinorwig in North Wales, this method is used to provide full generating capacity within ten seconds. The turbines which generate the electricity when the water flows downhill may be operated in reversing as pumps to drive the water up again. It is true that some energy is lost in the process – that is, some is turned into heat in the water and therefore unavailable for use. In modern systems this amounts to 10 per cent approximately.

A pumped storage system does not make much use of a renewable energy resource since mainly fossil fuel energy is used to raise the water to the higher level in the first place. However, by providing a more even demand, the overall efficiency of the distribution system is increased. Even taking into account the "lost" 10 per cent, this means an ultimate saving in the use of fossil fuels.

## HYDROGEN AS A FUEL

A further way of obtaining energy from water – this time a *chemical* one – is to use *hydrogen gas* as a fuel. Water consists of only two basic materials (elements) – the gases *hydrogen* and *oxygen*. If hydrogen is removed from water, it may then be used to power a car. A conventional petrol-burn-

ing engine may be adapted to use hydrogen. However, as every schoolboy chemist knows, hydrogen must be treated with respect since it forms a highly explosive mixture with air.

To remove the hydrogen (and the oxygen) from water involves passing an electric current through it – that is, to perform *electrolysis*. Obviously, in order to do this, the electricity has to come from somewhere and this may be derived from fossil fuels, nuclear energy or some renewable energy source.

When the hydrogen burns and delivers power to the engine, we are simply regaining the energy which generated the electricity in the first place. However, there are some advantage in doing this. Firstly, the relatively inexpensive and well-known technology of the internal combustion engine may continue to be used. Also, hydrogen is a perfectly *clean* fuel.

The only product of combustion is water – that is, regaining the water which was electrolysed. This means that the exhaust is totally harmless and non-polluting. There is no carbon dioxide produced and therefore no contribution to the greenhouse effect.

## GAS CAR

Since the early 80's, the German car manufacturer, BMW, has been carrying out a research programme to examine the use of hydrogen as a fuel for motor vehicles. The idea is to use solar cells to generate electricity which is then used to electrolyse water and produce hydrogen gas.

In the BMW system, the hydrogen is *liquefied* and so stores much more energy in a given space than the gas. This method brings certain problems, however. The greatest of these is that liquid hydrogen only exists at a temperature of  $-253^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

In practice this means that the storage tank must be very well insulated to prevent the fuel from boiling off rapidly into the atmosphere. The fuel tank specially developed for the purpose is double-walled with very sophisticated insulation. This is capable of holding 93 litres (20.5 gallons) of liquid hydrogen which provides a range of 300km (190 miles approximately).

The tank is fitted in the 6-cylinder 3.5 litre long-wheelbase 735iL model across the lug-

gage compartment. This avoids problems with the rear seating which is unaffected.

Developing engines to produce maximum power using hydrogen fuel demands difficult and expensive technology. BMW see one possible way forward in not trying to develop maximum power but to reduce it by some 30 per cent compared with using petrol. A lean mixture is then used and this simplifies the procedure and reduces costs.

## HAZARD

Even with the high degree of insulation used on the fuel tank, liquid hydrogen does boil off and is released through safety valves – a maximum of two per cent of the fuel is lost to the atmosphere this way each day. There are concerns about the safety aspects associated with this free hydrogen and also the possibility of damage to the fuel tank in an accident leading to large-scale release of gas into the atmosphere.

It is impossible to remove all risk but this must be compared with the hazard due to the storage of petrol. At least, unlike petrol, hydrogen is non-toxic and when released into the air is quickly diluted, and rapidly becomes harmless.

An interesting feature prevents accidental build-up of hydrogen in the passenger compartment. If a predetermined concentration of gas is exceeded, a sensor detects it and an electronic circuit causes the sliding roof, windows and boot lid to open so preventing an ignitable mixture accumulating.

In the event of an accident, the doors unlock, the windows and boot lid open and the sun roof slides back. Taking everything into account, it is doubtful if a car burning hydrogen as a fuel involves any more risk than a conventionally-powered car.

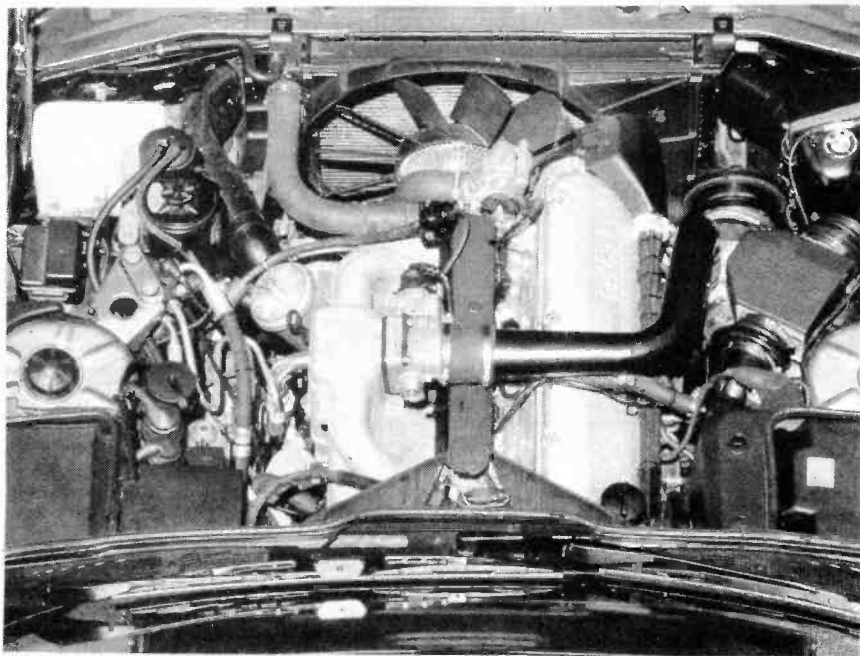
BMW are taking their Hydrogen Drive research project very seriously. To improve the development of hydrogen-burning engines they started to use the world's first purpose built test bed in March, 1989. This uses a complete data processing system with results being recorded electronically in a measuring and control room. Data is then analysed and optimum working conditions determined.

## VIABLE

Research into hydrogen-powered cars suggests that this fuel could make a viable alternative to petrol. At the moment costs are still too high, however, and problems still remain. Experimental cars have been built using hydrogen compressed into cylinders but the quantity of gas is not sufficient to provide a satisfactory range. A further idea is to absorb the gas into various materials but this method has not been altogether successful either.

A variation of the method is to use *fuel cells*. Here, instead of burning the hydrogen in an engine, the hydrogen and oxygen obtained by electrolysis are passed over special porous plates. The two gases re-combine to provide water and in the process a voltage is formed between the plates. Thus, electrical energy is produced *direct* from the fuel. This may then be used to operate an electric motor to power the car. At the moment fuel cells are rather bulky but further research could possibly bring them down to a manageable size.

**Next month** we shall look at some further examples of renewable energy sources – those using household waste, biomass and geothermal energy. We shall also look at some aspects of nuclear power to see how this fits into the complete *Alternative Energy* picture.

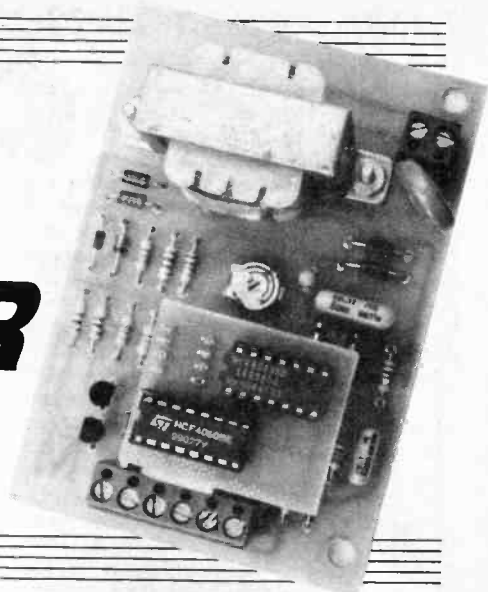


The BMW hydrogen drive engine in a 735iL.

# BATTERY TO MAINS INVERTER DAUGHTER BOARD

MARK DANIELS

An add-on board for a past project.



**T**HE Battery to Mains Inverter project which appeared in the March 1991 issue of *Everyday Electronics* used an M706B1 timebase i.c. to generate the accurate 50Hz timing signals required for its correct operation. Unfortunately, it would appear that this device is no longer readily available and no direct replacement or substitute for it is known to be in existence. To help readers already constructing this project or contemplating its construction an add-on daughter board has been designed to take the place of the now elusive M706B1. (The March '91 issue is available as a back number from the Editorial office - see the Editorial page for details - Ed.

## CIRCUIT REQUIREMENTS

The M706B1 i.c. which was specified for IC1 in the original design was supplied in a standard 8-pin d.i.l. package and provided complementary 50Hz square wave outputs from a 3.2768MHz crystal reference.

Ideally the circuit which replaces this device should make use of the existing components and i.c. socket for its connections. To enable us to mount extra components in place of the original device a small daughter board carrying the substitute parts is mounted above the main p.c.b. and connections between the two boards are made using tinned copper wire.

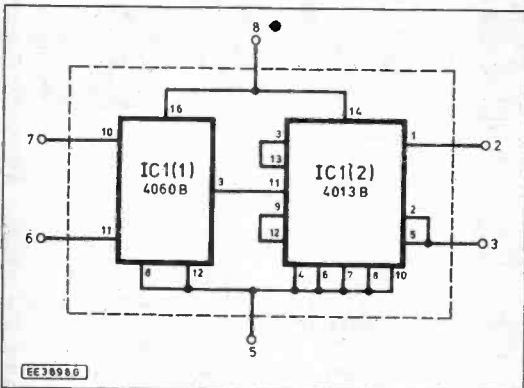


Fig. 1. Circuit diagram of the Daughter Board. Numbers outside the dotted line correspond to the original pin numbers.

Fig 2. (right) P.C.B. construction.

## CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

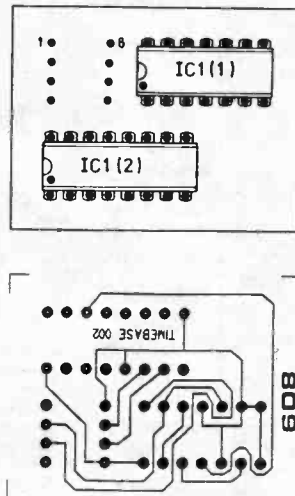
The circuit shown in Fig. 1, comprises two standard low power CMOS i.c.s., IC1(1) and IC1(2). IC1(1) is a 14 stage binary counter with an on board crystal oscillator section designed for connection to an external crystal. A number of the stages are made available on the device pins, but in this application the largest division ratio is chosen, giving an output of 200Hz at pin 3, using the original crystal, X1 (see original article).

The counter/oscillator IC1(1) has only a single output and a division ratio which is insufficient for our requirements, so extra stages in the form of a dual bistable, IC1(2) are added at its output.

The two bistables in IC1(2) are cascaded to provide a further division by four thus reducing the 200Hz at its input to the required 50Hz complementary outputs. Reference to Fig. 1 will show how the replacement components connect to the pins of the original IC1 position, using all other existing components on the parent board in their original positions and with no changes in their values.

## CONSTRUCTION

The full size foil pattern and component overlay for the small daughter board are given in Fig. 2. For ease of construction it



is recommended that sockets are used for the two i.c.s.

Eight lengths of 20 s.w.g. tinned copper wire (30 amp fuse wire) approximately 30mm long are soldered to the remaining pads on the reverse of the p.c.b. to make the connections to the parent board.

If the parent board is already assembled IC1 and its socket (if fitted) will need removing before the daughter board can be offered up.

Feed the tinned wires into IC1 holes in the parent board allowing sufficient clearance above the parent board components to preclude the possibility of short circuits in the future. Check that the board is correctly aligned; the figures on the daughter board corresponding to the original IC1 connections, before soldering the connections. Reference to the photograph should clarify any obscurities.

Before fitting the two new i.c.s. it may be sensible to check that the power rails are all present and correct. 0V on IC1(1) pins 8 and 12 and IC1(2) pins 4, 6, 7, 8 and 10. Twelve volts should be present on IC1(1) pin 16 and IC1(2) pin 14.

## TESTING

Fit the two i.c.s, observing CMOS handling precautions and polarity requirements and switch on.

The inverter should start immediately if the parent board was working prior to modification. If not, fault finding is pretty much the same as in the original design, with the possibility of a check for 200Hz at pin 3 of IC1(1). Use Fig. 1 of this article in conjunction with the main schematic of the original article if fault finding should become necessary.

## CONNECTION CLARIFICATION

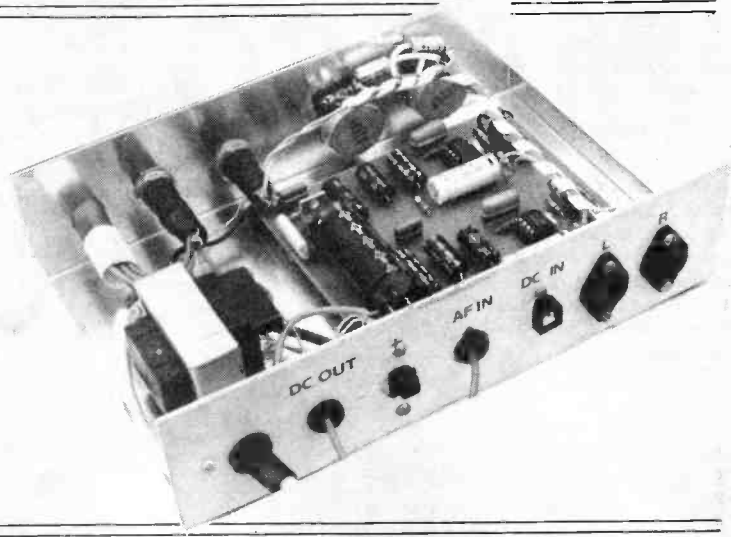
The small transformer T2 in the original article appears to have caused confusion among some readers, as its secondary is incorrectly labelled in the main circuit diagram, Fig. 2. It should be labelled 12V-0V-12V, not 0V-12V as shown. The p.c.b. layout of Fig. 3 is also incorrectly labelled, and should be marked 12V-0V-12V, the centre-tap lead being cut off as it is not required in this application.

**Editorial Note:** The author is presently working on a 250W inverter design together with an uninterruptable power supply add-on, which we hope to publish in a few months time.





# PERSONAL STEREO AMPLIFIER



I. A. DUNCOMBE

A versatile, low cost, add-on stereo amplifier (approx. one watt) for your personal stereo.

Let your friends hear your "top ten" to.

**P**ERSONAL stereos (Walkmans) are excellent for the purpose they were designed, i.e. personal listening. If a wider listening audience is envisaged, then the output power is hardly adequate for the purpose.

This unit may be used directly from the mains supply or, as will probably be the case, from the personal stereo's own a.c./d.c. adapter. The output power has been chosen to be deliberately small for two reasons:

**Cost** - It is hardly worthwhile designing a larger more powerful amplifier as they already exist in the form of the home music centre etc.

**Flexibility** - The amplifier will work into a variety of loudspeaker impedances, and accept a wide range of inputs. Finally the amplifier may be varied to suit the users' individual requirements and pocket!

## CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

The complete circuit diagram of the audio stages of the Personal Stereo Amplifier is shown in Fig. 1. It is based upon the very popular audio amplifier i.c., the TBA820. This is capable of delivering a maximum of 1.6W, although in this design it is slightly lower than this.

The incoming stereo signal is applied, via plug PL1, to the individual volume controls VR1/VR101 and hence to the input, pin 3 of IC1 (left) and IC101 (right channel). Resistor R1, (the remainder of the description applies equally to the right hand channel - prefixed with one hundred), sets the input impedance and R2 the gain. The open loop gain is 70dB but is reduced substantially in this design.

Capacitor C4 provides for ripple rejection of the power supply. Capacitor C6 provides for a degree of "bootstrap" feedback and C5 adjusts the frequency response. Components R4 and C7 form a Zobel network.

The output signal is passed to the speaker via the electrolytic capacitor

C8. This is a non-standard value and some constructors might wish to insert a 470 $\mu$  type. This will not affect the performance.

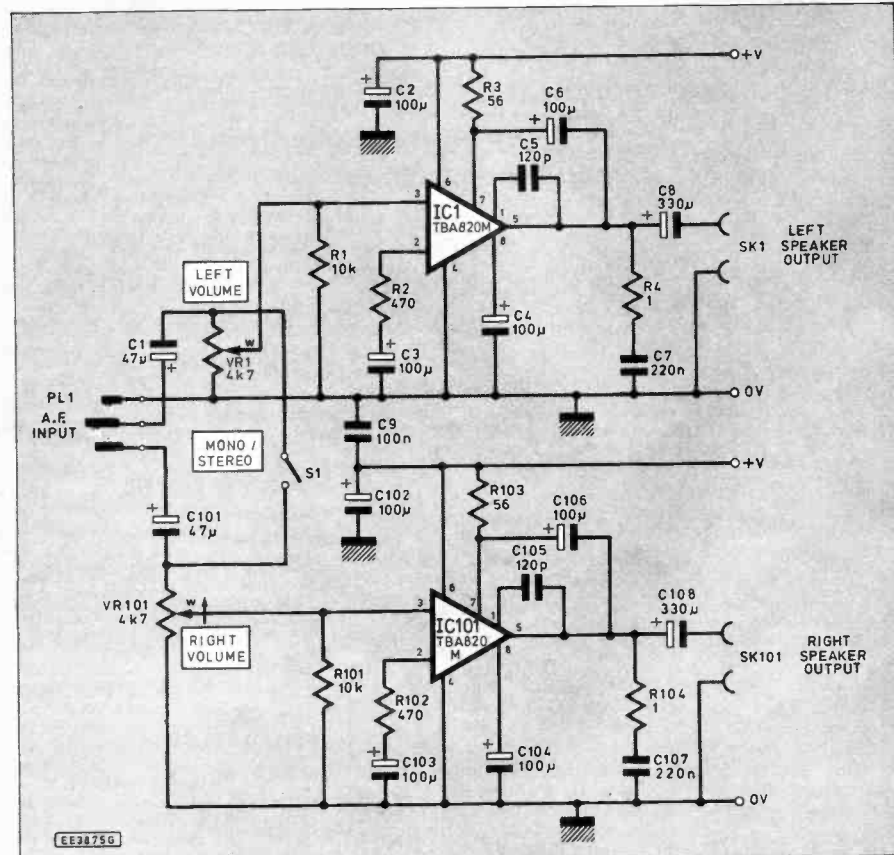
No tone controls are provided as it is assumed that the personal stereo will already possess these, even if it is in the form of a simple tone control rather than combined bass/treble controls.

## POWER SUPPLY

The power supply (Fig. 1a) is a conventional full-wave one and consists of a 6VA transformer T1, "bridge" diodes D1 to D4 and smoothing capacitor C10 and provides a basic 14V to the main amplifier. The voltage regulator IC2, enables a variable stabilised voltage to be produced, which can be used to power most personal stereos.

The output voltage from IC2 may be varied, using preset-potentiometer VR2, from 5V (the regulator voltage) up to around 12V, thus making it fairly universal for most applications. A changeover switch S3 is provided to change the polarity of the d.c. applied to the personal stereo's d.c. input.

Fig. 1. Full circuit diagram of the audio section of the Personal Stereo Amplifier. The "preset" power supply circuit is shown opposite, output voltage is set by VR2.



Socket SK2 allows for the user to use an already existing a.c.-d.c. adapter instead of the internal mains supply. A changeover switch is not necessary here as the bridge rectifier formed by D1 to D4 protects the circuit from any reverse voltages.

## DESIGN OPTIONS

One or two features of the present design could be omitted or changed if desired. For example, the internal mains supply could be omitted – saving the cost of the transformer and associated components – and utilising the existing a.c./d.c. adapter. Note that the main amplifier will work off a variety of voltages and does not need the voltage to be especially stable.

The design used two separate volume controls as this is the writers' preference although it is probably more convenient to use a "ganged" stereo variable potentiometer. Note that whichever method is used, the control(s) must be of LOG law type.

A bridge rectifier in a single encapsulation could be substituted for the four separate diodes if this is more convenient. The author also preferred push switches for S1 and S2, (mainly because these were already to hand!) as they look more attractive than toggle switches. The constructor may wish to change these, in which case the mains neon could be omitted as the toggle



switch will show if the unit is switched on or off.

The Mono/Stereo switch could also be omitted as most cassette tapes and radio programmes are in stereo, but was considered to be useful for a.m. medium wave broadcasts.

## CONSTRUCTION

The amplifier is built on a single-sided printed circuit board (p.c.b.), the topside component layout and full size underside copper foil master pattern being shown in Fig. 2. This board is available from the *EE PCB Service*, code EE808.

Some readers may note that the p.c.b. is reasonably spacious, not using in its construction any vertical mounting components (except the regulator). This allows a degree of flexibility in the size of components, particularly that of the capacitors. If desired (not part of the PCB Service) the p.c.b. could be scaled down to fit whatever case you may have.

If desired the circuit could also be constructed on plain perforated board following a similar layout as in the p.c.b. design. Stripboard is NOT recommended due to the capacitive effects of the unwanted tracks.

Before continuing with construction decide carefully on the options described earlier and vary the construction as you go.

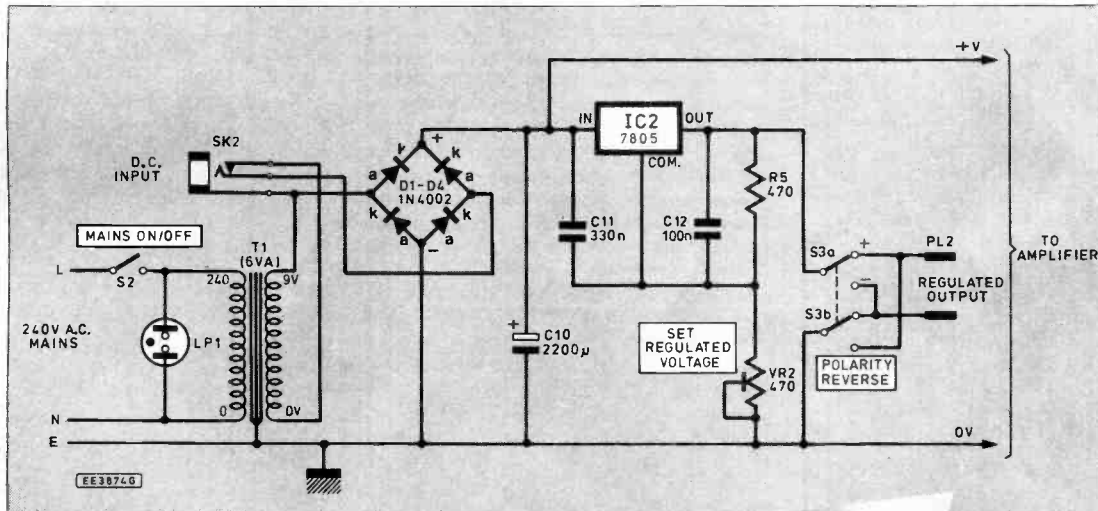
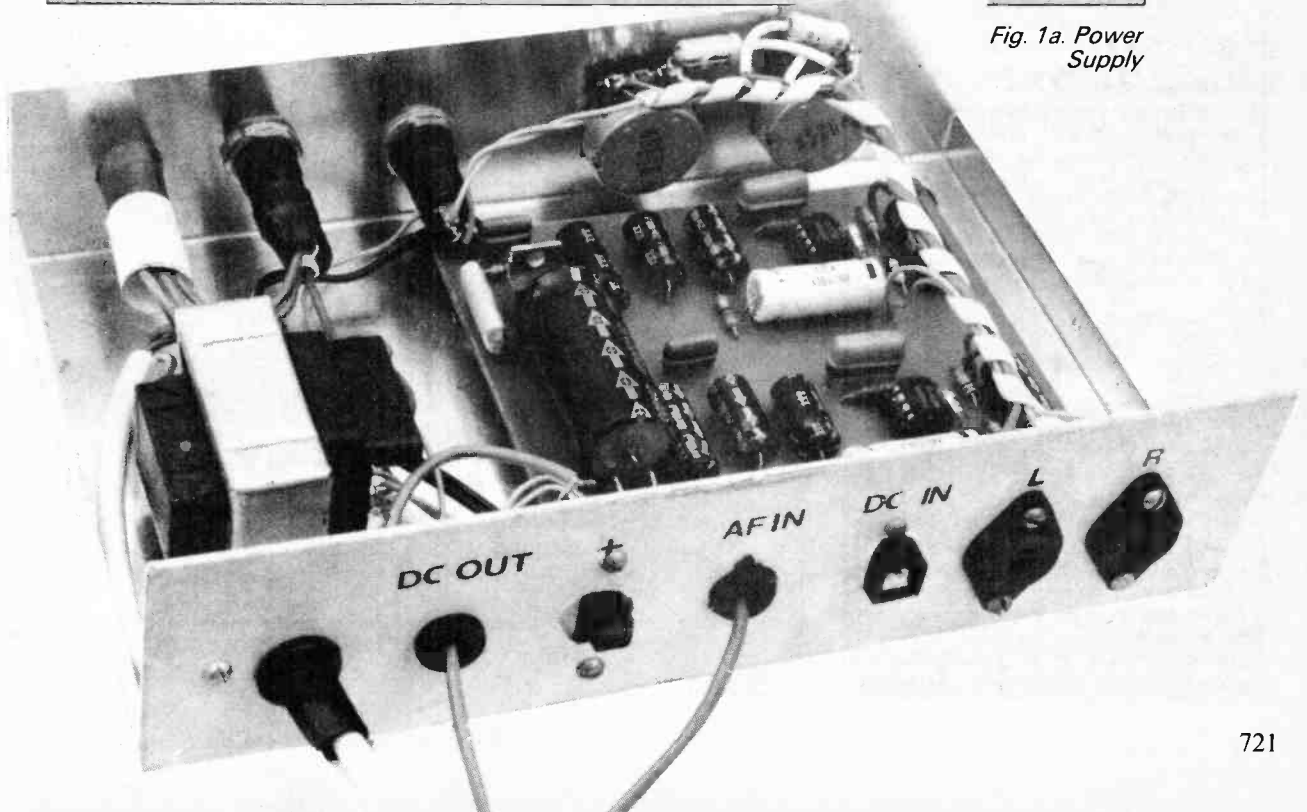


Fig. 1a. Power Supply



# COMPONENTS

## Resistors

R1, R101 10k (2 off)  
 R2, R5, R102 470 (3 off)  
 R3, R103 56 (2 off)  
 R4, R104 1 (2 off)  
 All 0.25W 5% carbon film

See  
**SHOP  
 TALK**  
 Page

## Potentiometers

VR1, VR101 \*4k7 min. rotary carbon, log (2 off)  
 VR2 1k horizontal p.c.b. mounting preset, lin.

## Capacitors

C1, C101 47 $\mu$  axial elect., 25V (2 off)  
 C2, C3, C4, C6, C102, C103, C104, C106 100 $\mu$  axial elect. 25V (8 off)  
 C5, C105 120p polystyrene (2 off)  
 C7, C107 220n polyester (2 off)  
 C8, C108 \*330 $\mu$  axial elect. 25V (2 off)  
 C9, C12 100n polyester (2 off)  
 C10 2200 $\mu$  axial elect. 25V  
 C11 330n polyester

## Semiconductors

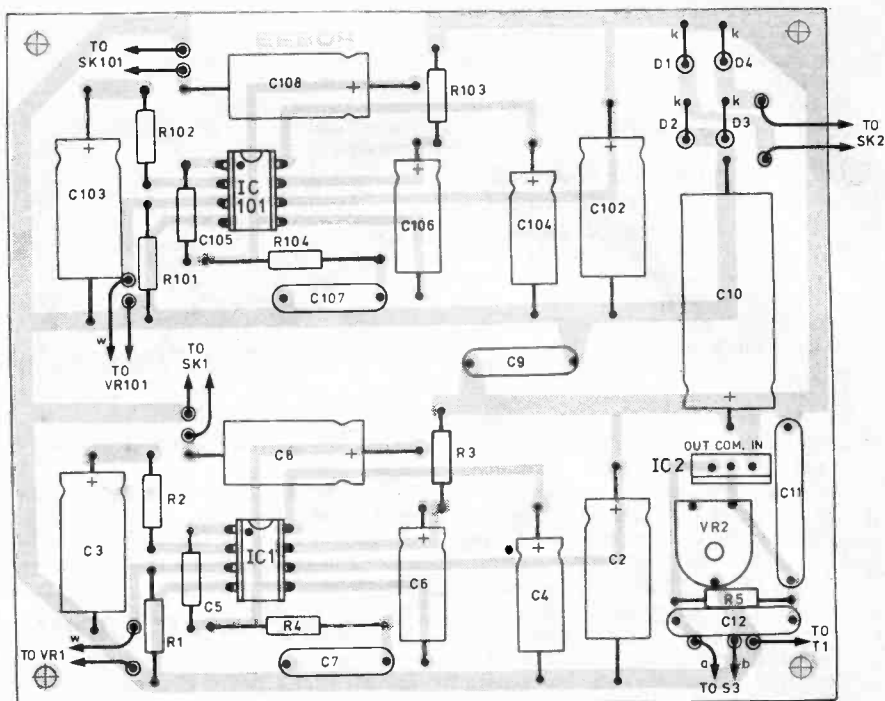
D1, D2, D3, D4 \*1N4002 1A 100V rectifier (4 off)  
 IC1, IC101 TBA820M audio amplifier (2 off)  
 IC2 7805 5V 1A positive regulator

## Miscellaneous

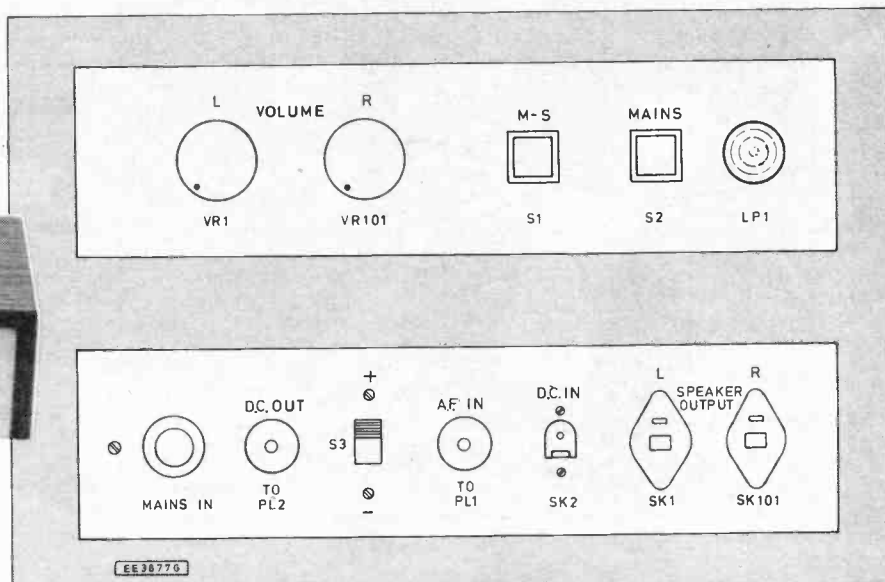
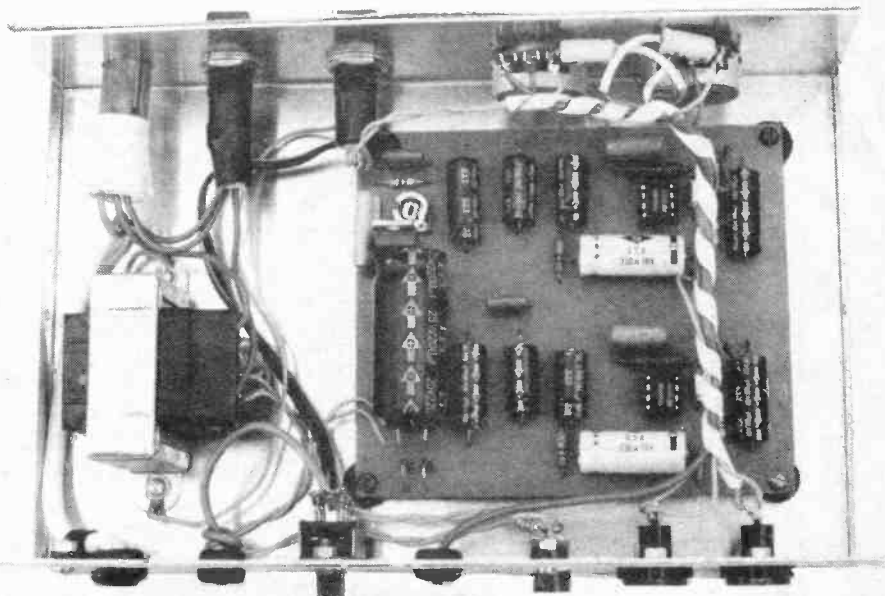
PL1 \*Stereo jack plug 2.1mm or 2.5mm  
 PL2 \*Mono line jack socket 2.1mm or 2.5mm  
 SK1, SK101 Loudspeaker chassis socket (2 off)  
 SK2 \*Chassis mounting jack socket 2.1mm or 2.5mm  
 S1, S2 \*Single pole push or toggle switch  
 S3 Standard d.p.d.t. slide switch  
 LP1 Mains neon 240V  
 T1 Mains 6VA transformer, mains primary; two secondaries 0-9V at 300mA or one secondary 0-9V at 600mA

Printed circuit board available from *EE PCB Service*, code EE808; metal case, leather-grain finish, size 200mm x 125mm x 50mm; two control knobs; 8-pin d.i.l. socket (2 off); stereo screened cable; mono screened cable; 3-core mains cable; connecting wire; solder; hardware etc.

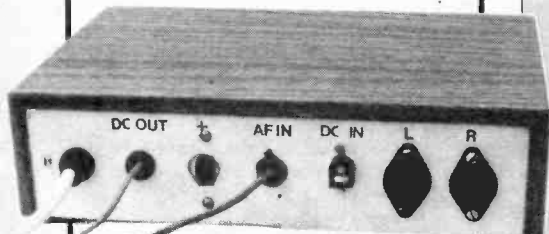
Items marked \* - See text



EE38766



EE38776



Approx cost  
 guidance only

**£25**

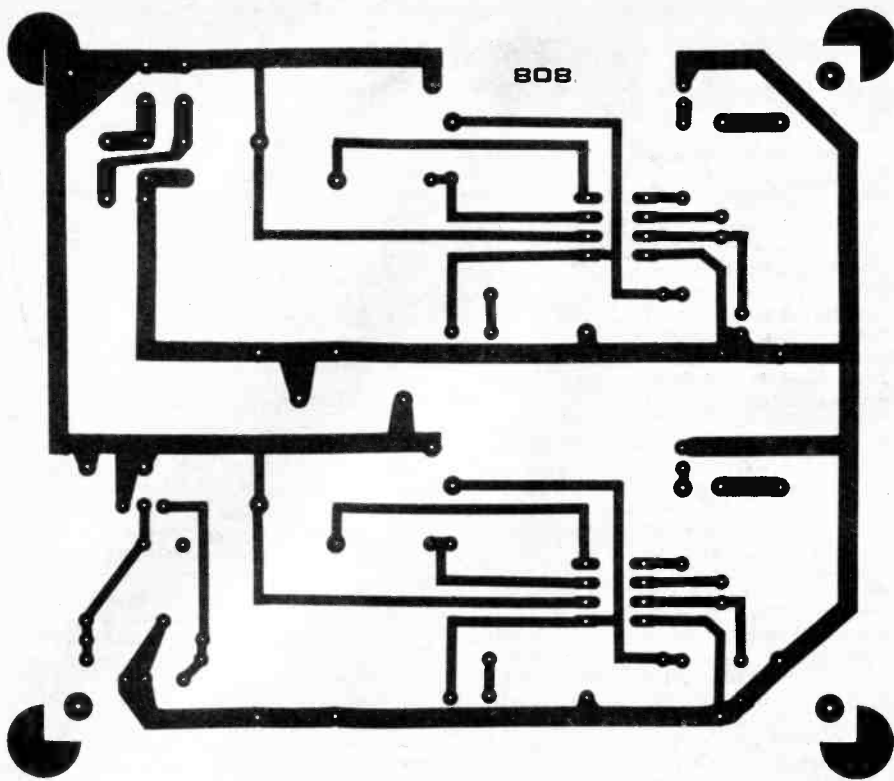
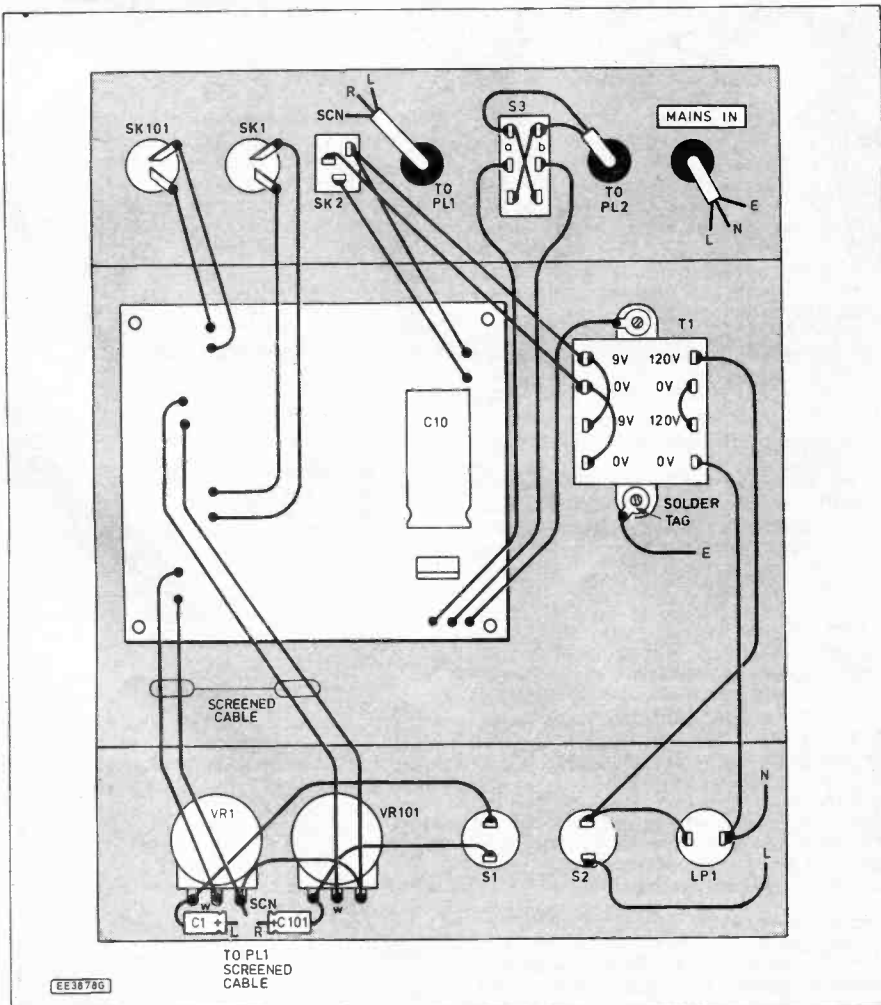


Fig. 2. The printed circuit board component layout (above left) and the full size underside copper foil master pattern (above).

Fig. 3. (bottom left). Suggested front and rear panel component layout.

Fig. 4. Interwiring details from the circuit board and front and rear panel mounted components. Layout of components inside the completed unit is shown in the photograph left centre.



First though, examine your personal stereo and ascertain the diameter of the d.c. input socket and the headphone output socket. They will either be 2.1mm or 2.5mm, choose the correct type and fit them where shown.

The recommended layouts of the front and rear panels are shown in Fig. 3 and could, of course, be varied as desired. It is important though to use a metal case to provide a certain amount of screening.

## INTERWIRING

The final wiring details are shown in Fig. 4. Check carefully the connections to the transformer as those shown may not correspond exactly to the type you are using. It is most important to insulate ALL mains wiring using either sleeving or insulating tape.

It is very important that the p.c.b. "earth" be connected to the metal case chassis, by means of a solder tag under the transformer mounting. Also, if you are using the mains supply connect the Earth lead of the mains input to a similar tag.

Remember to use screened cable when wiring from the potentiometer(s) to the p.c.b. and input plug to the potentiometers. The left-hand channel is normally the "tip" connection on the jack plug, but do check first.

If you are going to use the amplifier with just one type of stereo, then switch S3 may be omitted and the d.c. output cable can be connected permanently in whatever polarity is required. Use screened cable for this.

Some readers may note the lack of heatsinking on the amplifier i.c.s. and regulator. In the prototype version this was not a problem, although the regulator did operate slightly warm.

If needed then small squares of aluminium may be Superglued to the amplifier i.c.s. and bolted to the regulator. No more than one square centimetre will be needed for the i.c.s., and perhaps slightly larger for the regulator.

Finally, remember to fit a 3A fuse in the mains plug, as the unit is not itself fused.

## IN USE

Using the Personal Stereo Amplifier is quite straightforward. Simply plug the "A.F. In." lead into the Headphone output socket of the personal stereo, and the "D.C. Out." lead into the D.C. In socket of the stereo. If you are not using the internal mains supply then you will need to plug the stereo's a.c./d.c. adapter into the "DC In" socket on the amplifier.

Remember to adjust preset VR2 for the voltage required for the type of personal stereo you are using. Set the volume control of the stereo to three-quarters of maximum output - absolutely no more - if you do so distortion will be introduced and will overload the amplifier. It will be wise to experiment with the setting of the stereo's volume control to achieve a correct balance.

**ON NO ACCOUNT** connect the output from the amplifier to headphones of any type. Even with just over one watt output damage to the ears could result.

Remember that resistor R2 sets the gain, the smaller the value the larger the gain and hence larger the output. Conversely, increasing the value reduces the output and this may be a consideration if the output of the personal stereo overloads the amplifier even if the volume is well turned down. □

# SHOP TALK

with David Barrington

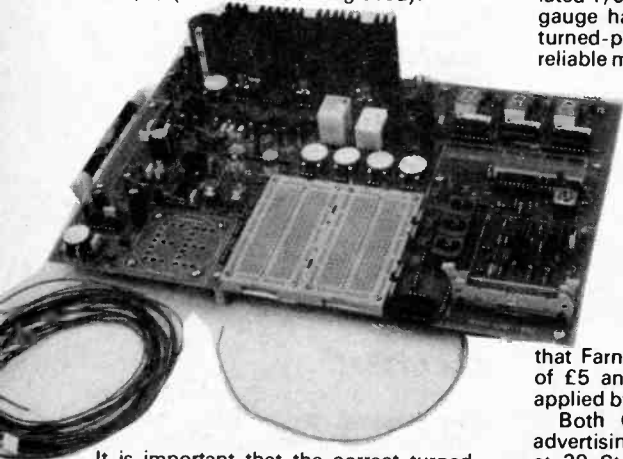
## Mini Lab

It is important when buying components for the *Teach-In '93* series *Mini Lab* project that the items will fit on the p.c.b. and are suitable for use with the series. These restraints mean that a number of components **must** be of the correct type and manufacture and therefore we have provided the following detailed information.

The variable resistors are PIHER fully enclosed types with the optional clip-on thumbwheel, available in various colours, these come from **Cricklewood Electronics**. Toggle switches are from the C&K Z101 range available from **Farnell**, 148-705, or **Maplin**, FH00A. Although designed for panel mounting, they fit the p.c.b. without adaption.

The current rating is important because this switch later turns the 5V rail on/off, and 1A+ rating is required. Other types either will not fit the p.c.b. or have low ratings. **ElectroValue** also sell C&K toggle switches but they haven't been tried. We think they will also fit.

The push switches are from the MEC range available from **Farnell** as follows (a limited range is listed by **Maplin** - part no.'s. in brackets): switch body 148-464 (FP51F); red bezel 148-474 (FP53H - black); buttons engraved 1, 2 or 3 149-245/6/7/ (UH58N red unengraved).



It is important that the correct turned-pin s.i.l. sockets are used. We recommend beginning with two 32-way strips: **Farnell** 170-715 or **Cricklewood Electronics** also supply. The RS 402-642 (available from **Electromail** - see note below) is the more expensive wire-wrap version. These are repeatedly used in future parts, so buy in a small stock. No other types are suitable.

The buzzer or audible warning device is the RS 245-017 only. Very cheap, others won't fit the board. Otherwise, stick a wire-ended type onto the board and solder the leads to the p.c.b.

Relay, recommended RS 346-637 or **Farnell** 103-080. Again very cheap. 6V 0.1A M.E.S. bulb and holders, the p.c.b. was designed to fit the **Maplin** JX87U. The 6V 0.6W M.E.S. bulbs are commonplace.

P.C.B. mounting "Jacks", **Farnell** 149-318/9 or RS 434-712 will fit directly. **Farnell** 149-319 is recommended because it's gold plated. P.C.B. 0.5in. insulated shorting link plug, **Farnell** 149-315/6/7 (black/red/blue) is the only source we know for this part. The RS version won't fit. These components are used in future projects as on-board selector switches for frequency, i.e.d. voltmeter f.s.d. selection, etc.; in total the *Mini Lab* needs 17 "jacks" and four shorting plugs.

P.C.B. mounted "pluggable" screw terminals. The Pluggable types permit the terminal blocks to be unhooked without having to screw/unscrew terminals, thus reducing strain on the p.c.b. track. The screw terminal mates with a board-mounted pin header. Extremely convenient to use. RS 426-142 (2-way) and 426-143 (4-way) plus 24-way pin header 426-165.

Trouble is, RS only sell in packs of five. Therefore, choose the identical **Farnell** 105-499 (2-way), 152-007 (4-way) and one pack of 25 loose pins 105-503, all available singly. Alternatively, use normal screw terminal blocks but you need a screwdriver to unhook wires all the time.

Breadboard (solderless prototyping board) - **Veroblock**; check the prices carefully before buying! **Maplin** YL11M; **Greenweld Hobbiblock** looks suspiciously similar; **ElectroValue** or **Cirkit Hobby Bloc**.

P.C.B. mounting pillars and screws: 20mm length or more. Fully insulated nylon types are O.K. - they are needed to keep the p.c.b. clear of any working surfaces where the tracks might be shorted out.

In later parts, a loudspeaker is mounted under the board so it has to be stood off anyway. The central stand-offs also impart mechanical strength to the board and stop it from flexing when you press down on it.

Interconnecting wire - single core insulated 1/0.6mm (0.28mm<sup>2</sup>) as required. This gauge has been proven to work with the turned-pin sockets to provide a quick and reliable means of connection.

All RS items are available to anyone with an RS account directly from RS Components or via mail order from **Electromail**, PO Box 33, Corby, Northants NN17 9WZ (☎ 0536 204555) (many schools and colleges keep either an RS or an **Electromail** catalogue) **Farnell Electronic Components** are at Canal Road, Leeds, West Yorkshire LS12 2TU. Please note

that **Farnell** have a minimum order charge of £5 and post and packing charges are applied by all the companies.

Both **Cricklewood** and **Maplin** are advertising in this issue. **ElectroValue** are at 28 St. Judes Road, Englefield Green, Egham, Surrey TW20 0HB. (☎ 0784 433603). The **Greenweld** catalogue supplied free with this issue should also prove very helpful.

The *Mini Lab* p.c.b. is only available through the **EPE PCB Service** see page 754. Please remember that in consideration of the effort by both Authors which went into the *Mini Lab* design, the copper track layout remains Copyright **Dytronics** 1992.

We think the design of the *Mini Lab* is the most ambitious and versatile educational system undertaken in recent years by any magazine, and will be a credit to *Everyday with Practical Electronics*: we're justifiably proud of the system and hope it will capture the imagination of young readers and more mature students alike.

Since it contains everything needed for even quite advanced circuit development, the convenience of the *Mini Lab* might even appeal to experienced electronics technicians and enthusiasts.

## EPE Altimet

The special pressure transducer type MPX100 called for in the *EE Altimet* project comes in two versions, plastic cased and uncased.

Either type can be used, but it is preferable to use the cased version and this one carries the type prefix MPX100AP. The MPX100AP version is stocked by **Maplin**, code UH37S

The uncased one is marked MPX100A and if this is to be used it must be insulated from the p.c.b. copper tracks. If any readers have difficulty in locating the voltage converter, ICL7660, or the display driver, ICL7106, they are listed by **Viewcom** and **Electromail**. The handheld case is also listed by **Electromail** (507-983) but it can now be obtained from most of our components advertisers.

The altimeter printed circuit board is available from the **EPE PCB Service**, code 807.

## Personal Stereo Amplifier

We do not expect too many problems when shopping around for parts for the *Personal Stereo Amplifier*. The plugs and sockets used in the model were purchased from **Cricklewood** but they also appear in many of our advertisers listings. When ordering the volume control potentiometer, be sure to ask for a "Log" type.

The TBA820M 2W power amp i.c. seems to be fairly widely stocked and most suppliers should also be able to offer a suitable 6VA mains transformer. The ones used in the prototype came from **Maplin**.

The woodgrain finish aluminium case used in the model no longer seems to be in existence. However, one of the "leather-grain", p.v.c. covered aluminium boxes from **Marco Trading** (☎ 0939 232763) seem ideally suited for this unit: **Marco** code Box/J9. You could opt for the "black" vinyl-cover type, available generally.

## Vibration Alarm

Some readers may experience local difficulties sourcing the p.c.b. mounting choke for the *Vibration Alarm*. Looking through the **Cirkit** (☎ 0992 4444111) catalogue, their range of inductors, including chokes, is probably one of the largest in our market today and one of their RB series should fit the bill.

Although the photograph of the prototype model shows the use of a toggle switch, the slider version seemed to be more readily available and was used in the final version, hence its inclusion on the working diagram. It may seem strange to include the switch in the battery negative lead, but it ensures that capacitor C2 in fully discharged each time the unit is switched off.

## Reaction Timer

We cannot see that there will be any component buying problems for those wishing to build the *Reaction Timer* project.

Be sure to make it clear that you require "low current" types when ordering the i.e.d.s. The multi-colour ribbon cable is now stocked by nearly all component advertisers.

## Battery/Mains Inverter - Daughter Board

This time around, the i.c. used in the *Battery/Mains Inverter - Daughter Board* are from the ever popular 4000 series of i.c.s. and should be widely stocked. They are certainly listed in the current **Viewcom** (☎ 081 471 9338) advertisement and in the latest **Greenweld**, **Cricklewood** and **Maplin** catalogues.

The small printed circuit board is available from the **EE PCB Service**, code EE809.

As a footnote and at the time of going to press, we understand that although the original M706B1 50Hz timebase i.c. is still being listed in the very latest **Maplin** catalogue they are only carrying stocks in the region of "tens" not hundreds; their quote!

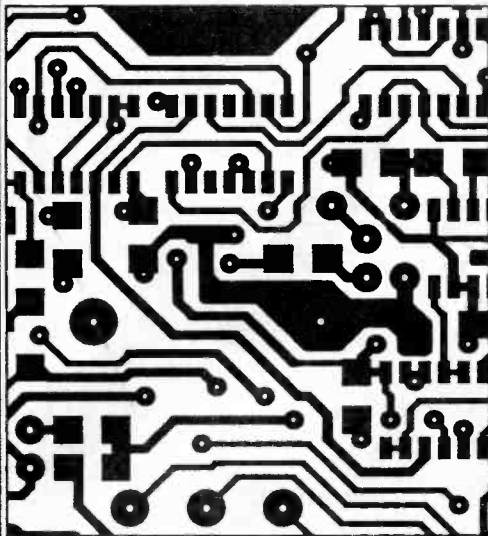
## PLEASE TAKE NOTE Quicktest (Sept '92)

The op.amp (IC2) used in the *Quicktest* project is, of course, the ubiquitous 741.

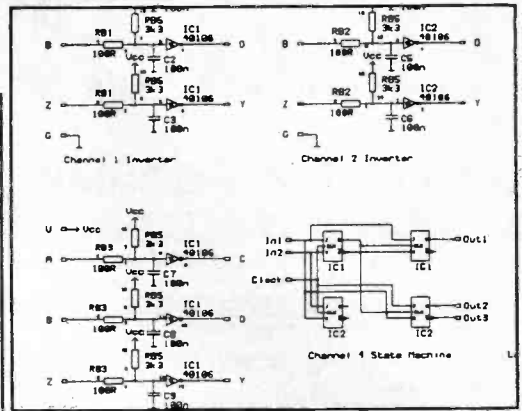
Quite how the error escaped three checks we do not know, but please be assured we do try very hard.

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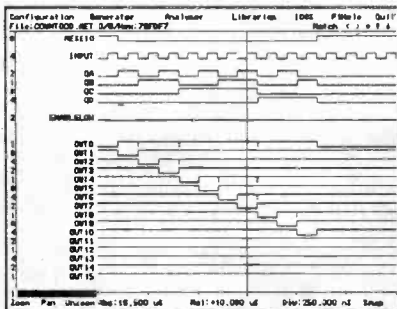
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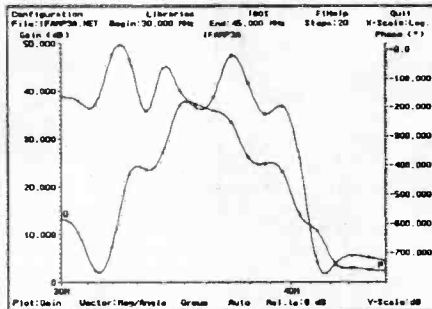
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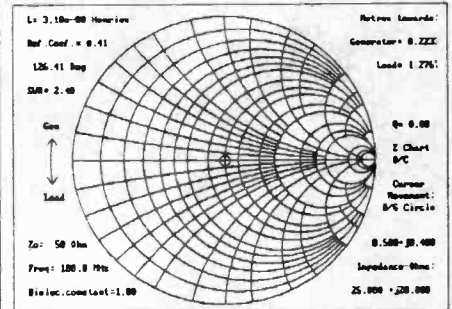
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# Teach-In '93

with Alan Winstanley  
and Keith Dye B.Eng(Tech)AMIEE

Part 1

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*Teach In '93 continues a tradition of offering an interesting and thorough tutorial series aimed specifically at the novice or complete beginner in electronics. The series is designed to support those undertaking either GCSE Electronics or GCE Advanced Levels, and starts with fundamental principles to give the student a solid foundation before proceeding onto further topics.*

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IN ACCORDANCE with the recommendations contained in the various GCSE Electronics Syllabuses, which themselves comply with the National Criteria for Science, no attempt is made to explain the "physics" behind any electronic components. Instead, we are much more interested in what they look like and *how to use them*, rather than what makes them work in the way they do. Many text books on electronics start with the very dry theory of atoms, electrons and semiconductor physics, much of which in our opinion may deter the less able candidate:

apart from being of academic interest only, it can also be a bit boring!

We invited a highly-qualified and experienced Moderator and GCE A Level Examiner to join us and the text incorporates his very valuable suggestions to enable *Teach In* to have maximum appeal to those candidates undertaking GCSE or GCE examinations and coursework. *Teach In* we hope will also appeal to the experienced *Everyday with Practical Electronics* reader who might like to brush up on his or her theory.

## INTRODUCING THE MINI LAB

As a means of helping to demonstrate various topics, the authors have designed a unique electronics "Mini Lab" which should be of great assistance to the novice or student following the series. Once the series has been completed, the Mini Lab will be of on-going use to help readers develop ideas of their own, no doubt utilising many principles gleaned from *Teach In*.

The Mini Lab consists of a single printed circuit board (p.c.b.) which is divided into various areas. As we proceed through the *Teach In* course, the areas will gradually fill with a variety of interesting and economical circuits which demonstrates a topic and forms a useful piece of equipment to aid the student.

Although it is necessary to solder components to the board, the use of a p.c.b. helps to ensure a high success rate for candidates, with less chance of any disappointing failures. The component count is spread over many months, and the use of plastic boxes and enclosures is avoided, helping to keep construction costs down. A solderless plug-in prototyping board is incorporated which is regularly used to connect up reusable electronic components to form a circuit.

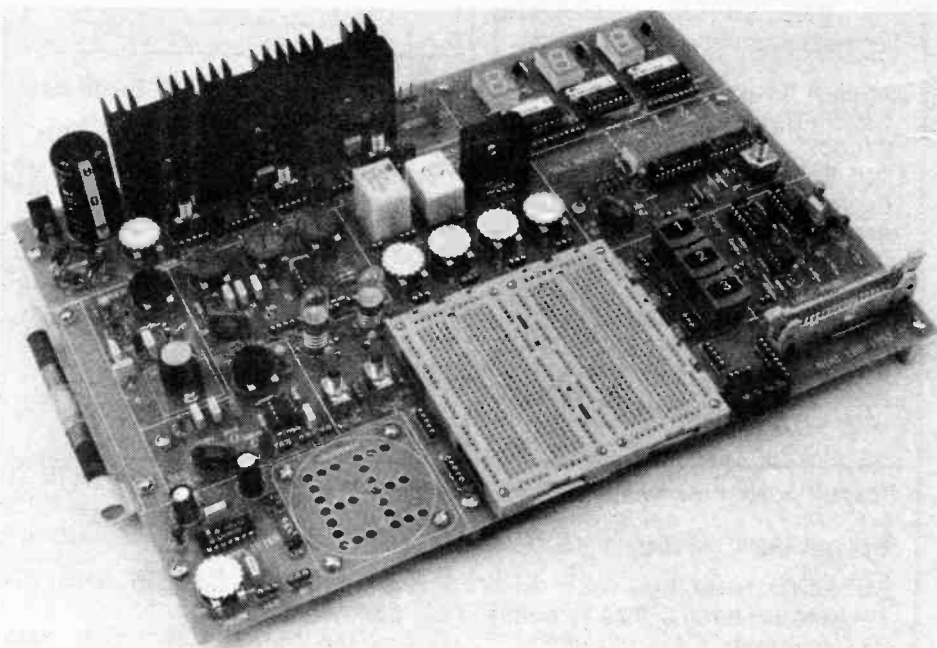
The Mini Lab develops from basic principles, working all the way through from switches, batteries and bulbs to a microprocessor development system – the "Micro Lab" – which is connected to the Mini Lab through an expansion unit. Constructional details relating to the Mini and Micro Labs are given separately, as and when required.

## BREADBOARD

We'll shortly be using the plug-in "breadboard" area of the Mini Lab. This is essentially a set of spring contacts interconnected to form a pattern of conducting rows. You can simply push components into them and connect parts together, without the need for soldering. Obviously you can remove and re-use the parts too. The breadboard

we have chosen is the popular "Veroblock" type, and several blocks can be joined together to form larger units for more ambitious designs.

Take care of your new breadboard: the wires of components should slide in and out easily. Don't force unduly large wires into the socket strips, and avoid bent or deformed wire ends which might damage individual



*The complete Mini Lab which is used for the tests and experiments in Teach-In.*



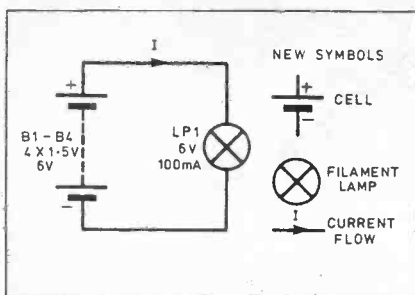


Fig. 1.1(a). Basic electrical circuit.

sockets. A pair of fine-nose pliers might help when inserting or removing wires. Used with care, your breadboard will last many years. In the meantime, welcome aboard to *Teach In!*

Our analysis of electricity starts with some simple battery and bulb experiments, and the Mini Lab is immediately pressed into service to help demonstrate a few basic principles. We won't let you proceed until the foundations are firmly laid!

## ELECTRICITY - WHAT IS IT?

For the first two parts of *Teach In* the Mini Lab is operated by a battery at a safe low voltage. Later, as the Mini Lab grows, a mains power supply is described which you will be able to build with complete confidence. Take a look at Fig. 1.1(a), which shows a very simple electrical circuit consisting of nothing more than four 1.5 VOLT (V) "dry cells", labelled B1 to B4, and a bulb (LP1).

Don't worry too much about any symbols which may be unfamiliar, because soon you will be able to read a circuit diagram as easily as reading this text (we hope!). We will always introduce new symbols by highlighting them separately next to the circuit diagram. The symbols which you see represent the cells and bulb: B1 to B4 are four 1.5V cells, and the circle with a cross is a simple indicator bulb, like a torch bulb.

All four cells are connected together one after the other to make a six volt battery - just like you might need in a radio or cassette recorder for example. It's important that they are all connected the right way round with respect to each other or the circuit simply won't work.

As you will doubtless know, cells have two terminals marked "+" and "-" and the negative terminal of one is connected to the positive of the next. The diagram shows you which terminal is which. Often designers don't bother showing all four cells in the circuit diagram, just the "first" and "last".

The bulb is labelled "LP1" for "Lamp 1" and the supplier's catalogue says that it's rated at "6V 100mA". What do these ratings mean? To find out, let's build the circuit shown in Fig. 1.1(a).

## BATTERY PACK

As we have said in the initial stages of this series, your Mini Lab is powered by an external battery pack. In Part Three it becomes mains-operated via a versatile power supply unit. For now, you must select the "EXT BATT" option as your source of power by inserting a selector shorting plug between the appropriate sockets of the "Power Supply" section: this is clearly marked on the board. You *must* do this, otherwise your battery pack will remain disconnected.

An on-off switch is also fitted to the Mini Lab, so that you can easily turn the 6V battery supply on or off when required. It's best to switch off before making any modifications to your experiment.

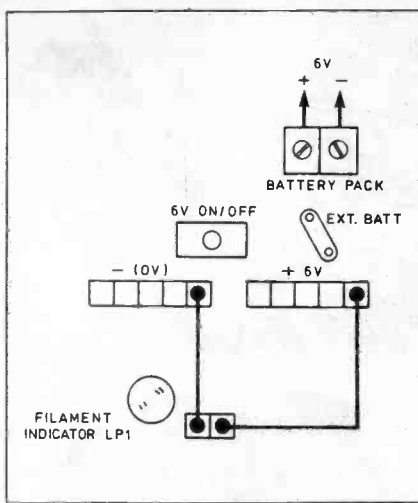


Fig. 1.1(b). The electrical circuit built on the Mini Lab. The 6V Battery Pack is connected externally by screw terminals. Use the ON/OFF switch as needed, and ensure the "EXT BATT" option is selected with a shorting plug. See the Mini Lab constructional details. The "6V ON/OFF" switch is not shown in any demonstration circuit diagrams.

Refer to the constructional details of the Mini Lab which describes the assembly and connection of the 6V battery pack. The positive and negative terminals of the 6V supply are available on distribution socket strips mounted on the Mini Lab board, and you can now build the circuit as shown in Fig. 1.1(b). Insert solid-core jumper wires as shown, to connect the battery to either one of the filament indicators clearly marked on your board.

The bulb should illuminate. (If not, check the bulb is screwed fully home, and the cells are the right way round.) So far so good! What is happening is that electric current is flowing out of the positive terminal of the 6 volt battery pack, through the bulb which lights up, and back into the negative terminal. (Take care not to "short out" the battery or a very high current will flow, which could ultimately damage it.) So what's the difference between voltage and current?

## VOLTAGE

Batteries are a source of electrical energy. We call this the "electromotive force" or e.m.f. for short. The energy is still there in the battery even if you disconnect it from the circuit (unless the battery is flat).

Across the terminals of each individual 1.5V cell exists a potential difference of 1.5 volts. Fitting B1 to B4 together in the holder connects the cells in series to make an overall potential difference of 6 volts. So a potential difference (p.d.) can exist between two points in a circuit, compared with an electric current which flows through the circuit. This is the most fundamental of all rules in electronics.

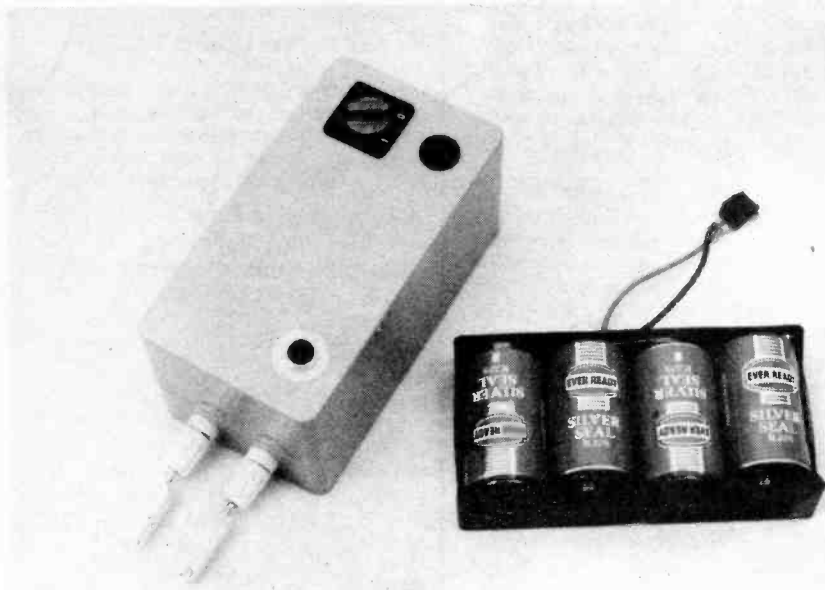
Strictly speaking it's wrong to talk of "+6 volts and -6 volts" because this implies that the p.d. is actually 12 volts. More accurately we should say "+6 volts with reference to 0V", the p.d. is then 6 volts. This becomes important when we talk later about split power rails, which have both positive and negative voltage supplies with reference to 0V.

If no p.d. exists between two points, then no electromotive force is present and so no current can flow if you try to make a circuit. A voltage needs to exist before current can flow, and the current always flows from the higher voltage (the most positive one) to the lower voltage (the least positive/ most negative one) in the circuit.

Because the current only flows one way in this instance, it's called direct current or "d.c." for short. In other areas of electronics, we will be looking at currents which flow forwards then backwards - alternating current or "a.c." for short. You might see "240V a.c." marked on an electrical appliance designed to be plugged into the mains. When you're dealing with batteries, the voltages are always understood to be d.c.

## CURRENT

The electric current which flows through the circuit is actually a measure of the rate of flow of electric charge past any given point. Electric charge is the fundamental "raw material" of electric current, which in simple terms consists of nothing more than a flow of electrons. More electric charge on



The mains supply unit (detailed in a later issue) and battery pack used with the Mini Lab.

the move implies a greater rate of flowing electrons – this means that a “faster” or higher current is flowing.

By convention it's easiest to think of current flowing from the most positive to the most negative potential: this theory dates back to the days of the earliest discoveries of the principles of electricity. The trouble is, we now know that the theory isn't true!

Scientists have since discovered that electrons have a negative charge and are attracted to a more positive charge (just like dissimilar poles of a magnet are attracted to each other), so in real life electrons actually flow from the most negative to the most positive potential and not the other way round.

There's no need to worry: mercifully everyone still talks in conventional current terms, where current is deemed to flow from positive to negative potentials. This doesn't affect circuit design or our understanding of electronics whatsoever. Those studying atomic physics, for instance, might talk in terms of what's happening in real life at sub-atomic level – but in electronics, we don't need to.

Some substances are very good at letting current flow through them. Copper is commonly used as the conductor in electric wire because it lets current flow through it extremely easily – it has plenty of loose electrons available which can carry lots of electric current. Other conductors include aluminium, steel, lead, gold, silver and tin. Gold is a particularly useful element which is often used to plate electrical contacts, so that they don't corrode with age and become unreliable.

## INSULATORS

An insulator contains hardly any free electrons and so is very poor at letting current flow. For example, an electrical cable supplying your TV will have copper cores carrying “live” electric current, each core being insulated with a plastic such as P.V.C. The insulator will not allow current to flow through, so it protects you from electric shock. Other examples of insulators are glass, wood, ceramic and rubber.

Current is given the symbol *I* and is measured in **Ampères**, or often “Amps” (A) for short. Voltage is given the symbol *V* and, not surprisingly, is measured in **Volts**.

Sometimes the units of volts and amperes can be too large to be of use in electronics. Designers often have to use prefixes when talking about volts and amps to make them more manageable units. Common prefixes which we will use a lot when describing current and voltage are:-

SYMBOL	PREFIX	FRACTION
m	milli	1/1000
μ	micro	1/1000,000

Example:

1mV = 1 millivolt = 0.001 volts.

so 100mV = 100 millivolts = 0.1 volts.

1 μA = 1 microamp = 0.000001 amps.

To answer our question posed earlier, LP1 is rated at 6V (the bulb's maximum reliable operating voltage), at which voltage a current of 100mA (0.1 amperes) will flow through the bulb. We'll talk about milliamps, microamps, and also millivolts, as necessary from now on – it saves having to write lots of zeros. There are other prefixes which we use in other areas of electronics, which we'll introduce when appropriate.

## SWITCHES

On its own, our circuit of Fig. 1.1(a) isn't much practical use (except as a torch!) but

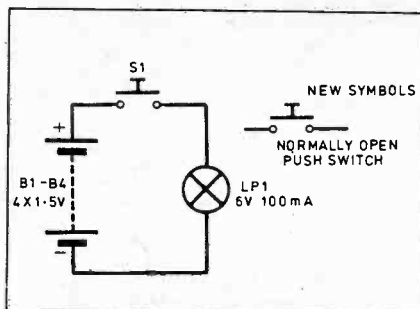


Fig. 1.2(a). Circuit with push switch.

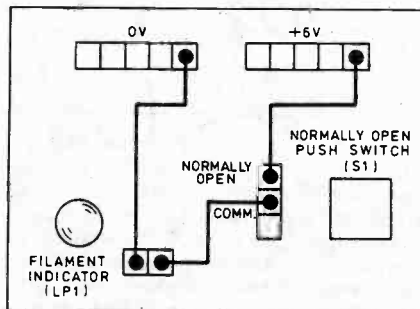


Fig. 1.2(b). Interwiring diagram – be sure to use the correct pins of the switch.

we can add some useful functions if we introduce some **switches**. The simplest of all switches is a basic push switch, see Fig. 1.2(a), which also shows the circuit symbol for this component (S1). This can be demonstrated with the Mini Lab as shown in Fig. 1.2(b), which places a normally-open (n.o.) push switch in **series** with LP1. Pressing S1 completes the circuit and the bulb lights – releasing it extinguishes the bulb.

A reverse effect can be achieved with a normally-closed (n.c.) switch, as shown in the circuit diagram of Fig. 1.3(a), which is wired up on the Mini Lab as shown in Fig. 1.3(b). Make sure you connect to the correct socket strips adjacent to the switch.

Here, pressing the switch actually **breaks** the circuit, interrupting the supply to the bulb. Releasing it restores power once more. Normally-closed circuits like this are used a lot in burglar alarms, for instance, where deliberately cutting a security wire or releasing a n.c. switch causes an alarm to sound.

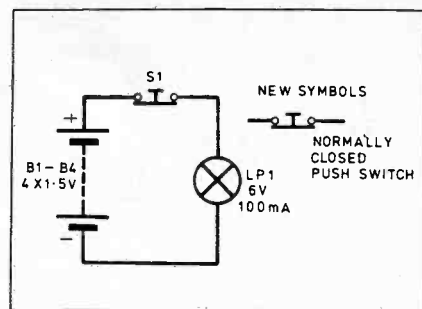


Fig. 1.3(a). Circuit with normally-closed switch

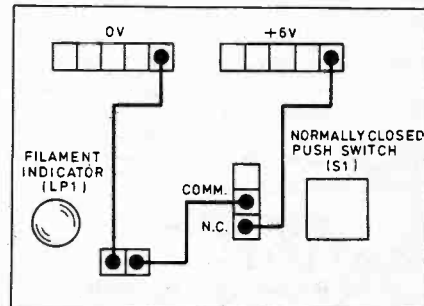


Fig. 1.3(b). Using the normally-closed contacts of a push switch.

Toggle switches are very widely used on equipment as on-off or control switches, and their circuit schematic symbol is shown in Fig. 1.4(a). S1 is a “changeover” toggle switch which can be switched between two circuits. Here, the two circuits are LP1 and a buzzer (audible warning device) labelled WD1. The moving contact (or “wiper”) of S1 can be moved by operating the toggle (or “tang”) between two positions.

Build this circuit on your Mini Lab by referring to Fig. 1.4(b), and compare your wiring with the circuit diagram so that you can see how we wired the circuit up. Now by operating S1, you can apply power alternately between the Mini Lab buzzer and the bulb. This type of switch is known as a **single pole double throw switch** or s.p.d.t. for short.

An interesting variation of this circuit is shown in Fig. 1.5(a) which utilises two s.p.d.t. toggle switches and a bulb. Connect up this circuit on your Mini Lab as shown in Fig. 1.5(b). What happens every time you

### RESISTOR COLOUR CODE

Most resistors you see have four coloured stripes to indicate their *resistance and tolerance*. How do you know which way round to read the resistor? The gold or silver stripe features last in the code.

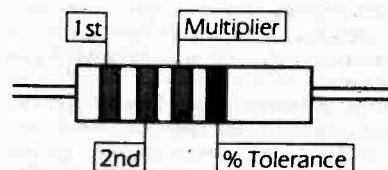
### COLOUR NUMERAL MULTIPLIER TOLERANCE

	1st & 2nd	%
Black	0	x 1R
Brown	1	x 10R
Red	2	x 100R
Orange	3	x 1k
Yellow	4	x 10k
Green	5	x 100k
Blue	6	x 1M
Violet	7	x 10M
Grey	8	
White	9	
Gold		5%
Silver		10%

### EXAMPLES

Red/Red/Red/Gold =  
 $22 \times 100R = 2,200$  ohms or 2k2 5%  
 Yellow/Violet/Orange/Gold =  
 $47 \times 1k = 47k$  5%  
 Grey/Red/Green/Silver =  
 $82 \times 100k = 8,200,000$  ohms  
 or 8M2 10%

We nervously offer the following mnemonic which might help you to remember the order of the colours: “**B**ad **B**oys **R**ape **O**ur **Y**oung **G**irls **B**ut **V**iolet **G**ives **W**illingly!” (Don't blame the authors.)



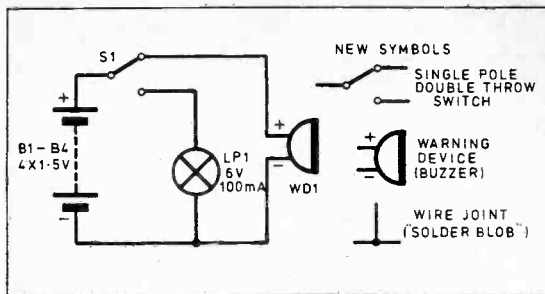


Fig. 1.4(a). Introducing a changeover switch to control a buzzer and bulb.

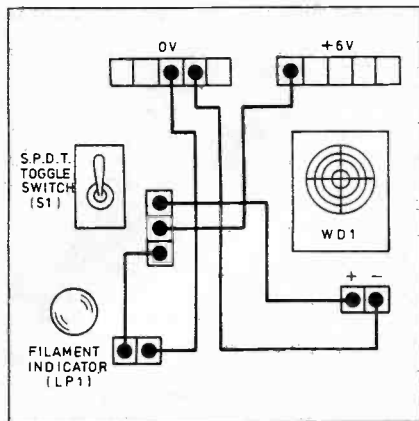


Fig. 1.4(b). Connecting diagram for a changeover circuit. The buzzer must be correctly polarised or it won't work. Use S1 to switch between the buzzer and bulb.

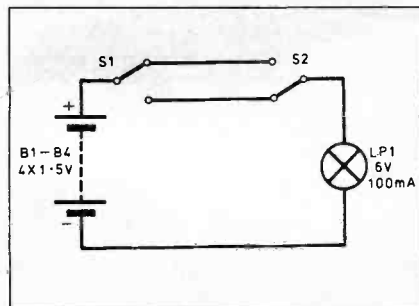


Fig. 1.5(a). Electrician's staircase lighting circuit.

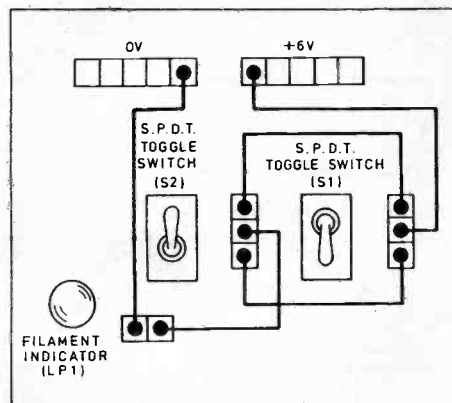
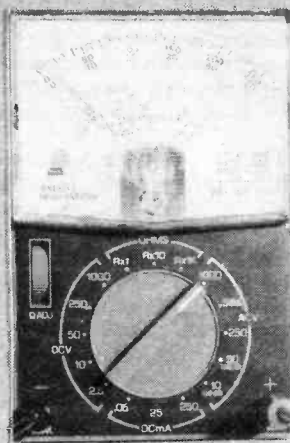


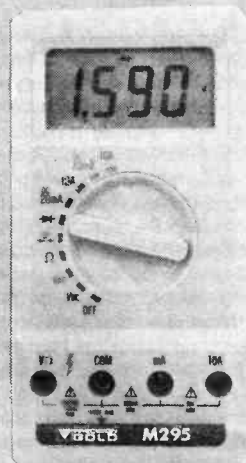
Fig. 1.5(b). Using both s.p.d.t. toggle switches to control a lamp.

operate a switch? You might find this sort of circuit in everyday use as a lighting circuit in a house – switches at the top and bottom of a staircase can control the light at the top of the stairs.

There are many other types of switches available. Some types have two wipers, and can switch two completely separate circuits at the same time. These double pole (d.p.) switches, and some more switches besides,



An analogue multimeter.



A digital multimeter.

## USING YOUR MULTIMETER

Multimeters are available in two types: *analogue* which uses a standard moving-coil meter movement, and *digital* which is much easier to read and generally more precise. They can measure current, voltage and resistance. Some can also measure other additional parameters like frequency or capacitance or even test transistors.

Multimeters, especially moving-coil types, are not perfect. When used to measure voltages, meters "look like" resistors in a circuit and can affect the circuit under test (see "Potential Dividers" for an explanation of loading effects). Typically, an analogue meter will be described as "20,000 o.p.v." (ohms per volt), which means that on, say, a 2V d.c. range, the meter acts like a 40k resistor. The higher the o.p.v. specification, the more accurate your voltage readings will be. In GCSE Electronics, "perfect" meters are always assumed so you need not worry about accuracy.

### VOLTAGE MEASUREMENTS

When reading voltages, you need to make sure that your multimeter doesn't load your test circuit too much or you will obtain misleading results. Try to use a voltmeter on the highest range setting possible, so that the resistance of the meter is as large as practical. However, it's pointless trying to read a voltage of 500mV on a 50V f.s.d. (full scale deflection) scale, so you will have to compromise somewhere.

Voltmeters are of course used to measure potential differences across components such as resistors. It's wise to ensure that the resistance of your voltmeter (calculated from its o.p.v. rating) is at least ten times greater than any resistor across which you are measuring a voltage – see the "Ten Per Cent Rule". This way, you will not load the circuit excessively and will obtain acceptable accuracy.

### CURRENT MEASUREMENT

Current flows from the most positive potential to the most negative, so connect the positive and negative test leads from your meter the right way round – see

the section on "Resistance and Ohm's Law" where we measure current through a resistor.

Always de-energise the circuit first, then insert the ammeter before powering up again. Start with a high current range, so that you avoid damaging the meter by overloading it. You can always switch to a lower range afterwards, but you should disconnect the power from the circuit in between switching ranges – unless you have an autoranging digital multimeter, which will take care of itself.

An ammeter "looks like" a short-circuit (almost) between its terminals. Never treat an ammeter as a load in itself – don't put it across a battery or power supply to see what happens, because any high short-circuit current which flows (several amps, in the case of an alkaline battery) may damage your meter and the battery.

### RESISTANCE

If you have an analogue meter, you will notice that zero ohms is on the extreme right of the scale. Higher resistances are on the left, but the scale is *non-linear* and the calibrations tend to become cramped on the left. You should always "zero" your meter before testing resistance: do this by shorting the leads together and adjust the meter's zeroing control accordingly. You have to repeat this every time you change the resistance range.

Testing resistors etc. *in situ* in a circuit can often give strange results: this is generally because there might be other components actually in parallel with the component, which affects the resistor value – see "Resistors In Parallel" and "Potential Dividers" in the text.

Ohmmeters use an *internal battery* to enable them to measure resistance. You must **always** ensure that the circuit under test is **fully de-energised** when the meter is set to any resistance range, or damage may result.

### RESISTOR COLOUR CODE

Most resistors you see have four coloured stripes to indicate their *resistance* and *tolerance*. How do you know which way round to read the resistor? The gold or silver stripe features last in the code.

are summarised in Fig. 1.6. We also show a one pole 3-way rotary switch.

Some switches are **biased** which means that they are spring-loaded in one direction. Press them to operate them, and release them to return to the previous state. An electric lawnmower uses this sort of switch – why?

Alternatively, some push switches are **latching**, which means that you press them once to operate them, and they stay like that when you release the actuator. Press them again to return to the previous state. A table lamp might use such a switch. Have a look through some catalogues to see if you can recognize different sorts of switches yourself.

In fact, we cheated a little when we designed the Mini Lab; you will have noted that both the n.o. and n.c. push switches (Figs. 1.2(b) and 1.3(b)) are both one and the same switch. It's actually a s.p.d.t. push switch which can form either a n.o. or n.c. function by selecting the relevant socket strip on your Mini Lab. Check it out by using the battery pack and bulb to confirm how it works.

Switches have **electrical ratings** which are indications of how large a voltage they can be allowed to switch without being damaged, and how much current their

is like squeezing the hosepipe to slow the water down.

We can examine the operation of the resistor by taking some measurements with a **multimeter**. We show you separately how to use your test meter – if necessary, read that section in conjunction with this part.

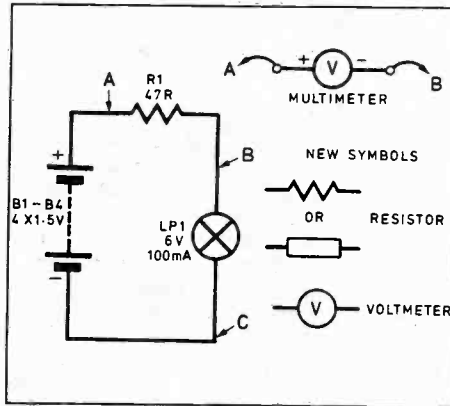


Fig. 1.7(a). A resistor in a circuit with the bulb. Also shown is the basic connection for using your multimeter when set to its voltage range. Connect the right way round!

voltmeter is represented by a circle containing the letter "V" and because voltmeters are **polarised**, you must connect them the right way round.

## MULTIMETER

Connect the + terminal of your multimeter to location "A", and the – terminal to location "B" and read the voltage from the scale, noting it down as "Result 1" in the table below. Then repeat, with the + terminal to "B" and the – terminal to "C" (Result 2), and finally read the voltage at "A" (+) and C (–) to obtain Result 3.

### OUR READING TEST RESULTS:

Result 1 3.15V  
(Voltage across the resistor)  
Result 2 3.08V  
(Voltage across the bulb)  
Result 3 6.3V  
(Voltage across the battery)

What has happened is that the potential difference (p.d.) across the battery pack has been split up between the resistor R1 and the bulb. The 6.3 volts of the battery is no longer placed solely across the bulb – some

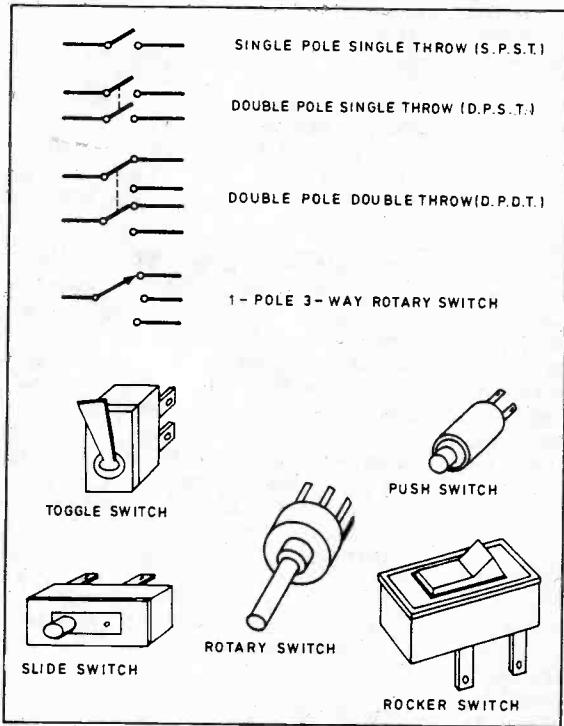


Fig. 1.6. A selection of switch types and styles.

contacts can carry. Exceeding these ratings could be dangerous. This is of particular importance when we examine how to safely switch mains electricity supplies, which is discussed in Part Three of *Teach In*.

## RESISTANCE AND OHM'S LAW

Take a look at the circuit diagram of Fig. 1.7(a) – it's just like the battery and bulb of earlier experiments but included in series with the bulb is a zig-zag symbol, R1. (Many Examining Boards use an equally acceptable rectangle symbol instead of the traditional zig zag.) This new component is a **Resistor** and not surprisingly, its job is to introduce **resistance** to electric current. If you imagine electric current as water flowing through a hosepipe, introducing a resistor

Resistors all look the same, though they have different sizes and can be made of different materials. We measure resistance in **ohms**. The value of their resistance is shown in a series of coloured stripes printed on the body of the resistor. For now, you need to acquire a **47 ohm resistor**. The coloured stripes to look for are yellow/ violet/ black/ gold. Buy a "quarter watt carbon film" type. (We'll explain the jargon later.)

Using the breadboard area of the Mini Lab, construct the circuit as shown in Fig. 1.7(b), connecting the battery pack and indicator bulb using jumper wires. (The bulb will glow when the circuit is completed.) Select the **voltmeter** function of your multimeter by choosing the "d.c. voltage" range, say 10V full-scale deflection (f.s.d.), which is safe for our circuit where the maximum voltage anywhere will be 6 volts. A

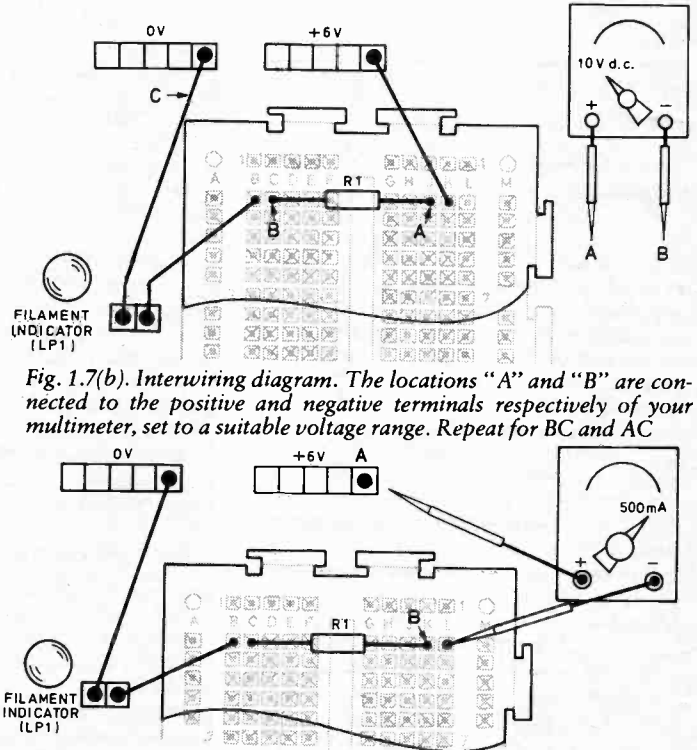


Fig. 1.7(b). Interwiring diagram. The locations "A" and "B" are connected to the positive and negative terminals respectively of your multimeter, set to a suitable voltage range. Repeat for BC and AC

Fig. 1.7(d). Measuring current through the resistor and bulb.

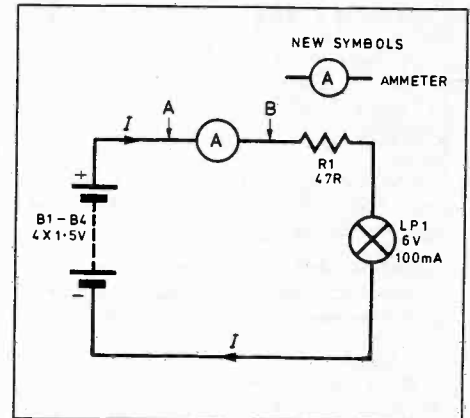


Fig. 1.7(c). Measuring current with an ammeter (Amps range of your multimeter).

of it appears across the resistor. In our own results, a small voltage (0.07V) actually appeared across the meter, which proves that meters aren't perfect, or all the battery voltage would be split between the bulb and resistor.

## CURRENT MEASUREMENT

Now we are going to use the multimeter for another function, to measure the current flowing through the circuit. The symbol for an **Ammeter** is depicted in Fig. 1.7(c). To measure current, we have to break the circuit and insert the meter so that the current in the circuit flows through the meter to produce a reading. This is different to reading a voltage, where we simply take a measurement *between two points in a circuit*. Don't attempt to measure the current "across" the battery, because you will short out the battery pack and probably damage your meter.

Construct the circuit on the Mini Lab as in Fig. 1.7(d). Set your multimeter to "d.c. current" and select a high full scale deflection (f.s.d.) to be on the safe side, say 500mA (0.5 amps), and simply touch the + meter probe to point "A" (battery + terminal), and the - probe to "B" (resistor R1). This will complete the circuit, current will flow through the meter and the bulb will glow. Note the reading on the current range of your multimeter. We took a reading of 62mA. Call this Result 4, and note it here:

OUR READING	TEST RESULTS:
Result 4 62mA (Current flowing through the circuit)	

In this simple circuit, the current flows through the ammeter, resistor and the bulb, and the current will be the same wherever you measure it. Putting the ammeter in the circuit say between the bulb and the battery negative terminal instead, will produce the same result. Try it.

Now short out the resistor with a jumper wire and repeat the experiment. What happens to the bulb? This is in effect exactly the same as the very first circuit we saw in Fig. 1.1(a), because the resistor is now bypassed and no longer has any effect. What is the current reading on your multimeter now? We measured 97mA. Call this Result 5, and note it here:

OUR READING	TEST RESULTS:
Result 5 97mA (Current flowing through the bulb, resistor shorted out)	

## OHM'S LAW

The Ohm's Law Equation states that:

$$R = V / I$$

where V is the voltage appearing across the resistor,

I is the current flowing through the resistor and R is the value of the resistance measured in Ohms.

From Fig. 1.7(a)  $V = \text{Result 1} = 3.15V$

From Fig. 1.7(c)  $I = \text{Result 4} = 62\text{mA}$  (0.062 Amps)

Using our actual measurements and Ohm's Law, the resistance of R1 works out as 50 ohms ( $3.15 / 0.062$ ). Looking at our various test results, we can also state that by adding a resistor into a circuit, two things happen:

- 1 It reduces the current flowing through the circuit. Compare Result 4 (resistor in circuit) with Result 5 (resistor shorted out with a wire). More resistance causes less current to flow. Current always takes the path of least resistance.
- 2 A voltage appears across the resistor. Not all the voltage of the battery now appears across the bulb. Some of it is wasted by the resistor. We say that the resistor has produced a "voltage drop".

But wait! We reckoned we had put a 47 ohm resistor into our circuit (identified by its colour code), but our calculation using Ohm's Law showed it to be actually 50 ohms! (You might get slightly different results from ours.) Don't worry, here's why:

Manufacturers of resistors have a tolerance to work to. This means that the resistor values might not be exact, but will be within a certain range. The gold band of the colour code tells us that the tolerance is  $\pm 5$  per cent, so in fact our 47 ohm resistor could be anywhere between roughly 44 to 50 ohms. Rarely do you need a "tighter" tolerance, though sometimes you might see precision one per cent or two per cent types for critical circuits.

## COLOUR CODE

We show separately the **RESISTOR COLOUR CODE** which enables us to identify the ohmic value of any common resistor. Rather than have an infinite number of different resistances, manufacturers also produce resistors in a range of preferred values. The so-called E12 values you will commonly use are:-

10, 12, 15, 18, 22, 27, 33, 39, 47, 56, 68, 82 and their multiples of ten. Larger resistor values are abbreviated and simplified by using prefixes to describe their value. We say *kilohm* (or letter "k") to mean thousands of ohms, and *megohms* (letter "M") for millions. The letter is a multiplier abbreviation which is often used in place of the decimal point to indicate the resistance value. You might see the letter "R" used instead of the Omega symbol (or nothing at all) just for ohms. Here are some examples:

47R = 47 ohms.  
820 = 820 ohms.  
1k = 1 kilohm = 1,000 ohms.  
2k2 = 2.2 kilohms = 2,200 ohms.  
10k = 10 kilohms = 10,000 ohms.  
390k = 390 kilohms = 390,000 ohms.  
1M = 1 megohm = 1,000,000 ohms.  
4M7 = 4.7 megohms = 4,700,000 ohms.

When current flows through a resistor, the electrical energy is turned into heat. The temperature of the resistor will increase though you might not notice. We say that the resistor is **dissipating power**.

An electric fire element is an example of a large resistor which is deliberately allowed

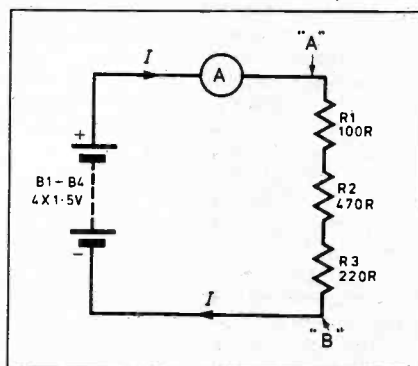


Fig. 1.8(a). Three resistors in series.

to dissipate so much power that it becomes red hot and warms the room. The filament of a light bulb is actually a resistor which dissipates so much power that it becomes white hot. (They are actually much more efficient sources of heat than light!)

The power dissipation, or rate at which the resistor converts electrical energy into heat, is determined by the simple formula:

$$P = I \times V$$

where P = Power dissipation (Watts, symbol "W")

I is the current flowing through the resistor (Amps)

and V is the voltage across the resistor (volts.)

In our earlier experiment of Fig. 1.7(b) the power dissipated by the 47 ohm resistor will be  $0.062 \times 3.15 = 0.19$  Watts. The 47R resistor is rated at 0.25 Watts which is satisfactory. Exceeding the power dissipation rating of a resistor may damage it.

Substituting Ohm's Law into the above formula, we obtain two further formulae which can be very useful:

$$P = I \times I \times R = I^2 R$$

Alternatively,

$$P = V / R \times V = V^2 / R$$

Different materials are utilised by manufacturers when making resistors but the most common type you will use will be cheap and cheerful *carbon film*. Larger resistors can dissipate more power; for instance the electric fire element is actually a large *wirewound* resistor. Have a look through some supplier's catalogues to see if you can now recognise other types. What values are available? What tolerance (%) do they have? How much power can they dissipate? Lastly, how do they compare for cost?

## RESISTORS IN SERIES

Three resistors in series are shown in Fig. 1.8(a), values 100R, 470R and 220R, connected across the 6V battery pack. Obtain suitable 0.25 watt carbon film five per cent resistors and build this circuit on the breadboard of the Mini Lab as per Fig. 1.8(b).

Firstly measure the voltage across the resistor chain at points "A" and "B", using your multimeter set to a d.c. voltage range of 10V f.s.d. Also record the voltages across each resistor. Then break into the circuit and measure the current I with your multimeter set to its "d.c. current" range, say 10mA f.s.d., recording all your readings below. Again, we show you what we obtained when we ran the experiment.

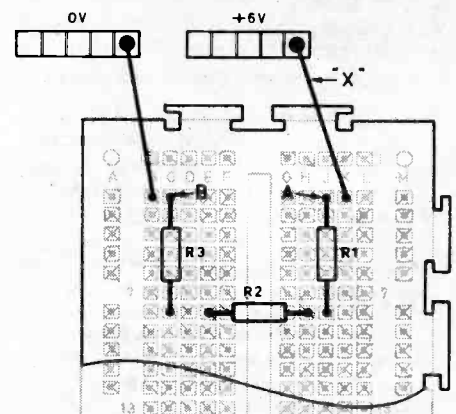


Fig. 1.8(b). Resistors R1 to R3 in series on the breadboard. Measure the current by placing your multimeter (set to 10mA) at the location "X". Then substitute with a jumper wire and measure the voltages as per the text.

**OUR READING**

Voltage "AB" 6.2V  
 V across R1 0.8V  
 V across R2 3.7V  
 V across R3 1.7V  
 Current I 7.9mA

**TEST RESULTS:**

The voltage A-B represents the voltage across the ends of the resistor chain. Of course, it's the same as the voltage across the battery in this example. Using Ohm's Law, we can calculate the actual value in real life of the overall resistance chain:

$R_{total} = V/I$       **YOUR CALCULATION:**  
 = 6.2 / 0.0079  
 = 784 ohms.

Don't worry if your results are a little different to ours. Remember that resistors have a tolerance, so results are likely to vary somewhat in practice.

The formula for any number of resistors in series is simply:

$R_{total} = R1 + R2 + R3 \dots etc.$

Thus in our circuit of Fig. 1.8(a) we could simply replace all three resistors with a single component of 100 + 470 + 220 ohms = 790 ohms, if one existed.

Having calculated the overall value of the resistance chain, a practical alternative approach is to measure the resistance with a multimeter set to its Ohms range. Try this:

Disconnect the breadboard from the battery pack. Choose a low resistance range (say 1k f.s.d.), adjust your meter for zero ohms if required, and measure the resistance between points "A" and "B" in Fig. 1.8(b). We noted an overall resistance of 780 ohms using our digital multimeter, which compares favourably with the value of 784 ohms we calculated using Ohm's Law. Your own multimeter reading should be almost exactly the same as the value you calculated yourself with Ohm's Law.

In actual fact, if each resistor in the chain has a tolerance of five per cent, then the tolerance on the overall value of the resistors in series will also be five per cent. So our own actual reading of 784 ohms falls within the expected resistance range for the resistors in series, namely 750 to 829 ohms (790 ohms  $\pm 5\%$ ).

The other aspect to note is that by connecting several resistors in series, the potential difference applied across the chain (voltage AB) is split up across the resistors. Total up the voltages across R1, R2 and R3 and compare against the p.d. across the chain: they should be the same. We promise we didn't fix our results!

**RESISTORS IN PARALLEL**

Two resistors, both connected to our 6V battery pack are shown in Fig. 1.9(a). We also show a current I which is flowing into the resistor network. At the junction where R1 and R2 are joined, I divides into two currents Ia and Ib, which themselves are determined by the values of the associated resistors.

Assemble the two resistors onto the Mini Lab breadboard using 0.25W types, and measure the three currents with your multimeter. Set it to a "d.c. current" range of about 100mA, and break into the circuit at locations A, B and C in succession, as shown in Fig. 1.9(b). Simply unhook one end of the resistor and link it back into circuit via the test leads of your ammeter, to measure the current flowing through the component.

Then fill in the results in the table below, and compare against our results.

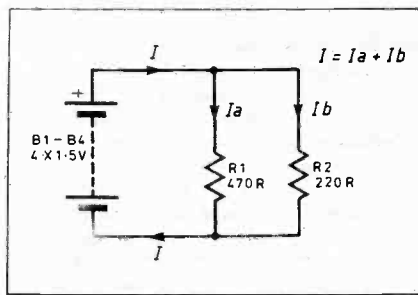


Fig. 1.9(a). Two resistors R1 and R2 in parallel across the 6V battery pack.

**OUR READING**

A: Current I 42mA  
 B: Current Ia 13mA  
 C: Current Ib 29mA

**TEST RESULTS:**

Clearly what happens is that current I splits into two components Ia and Ib. This leads us to Kirchhoff's First Law (or Current Law) which states that the amount of current flowing into the junction of the resistors is the same as the sum of the currents flowing out of it – because 42mA flows into the junction which divides into two currents coming out of 13mA and 29mA. The same is true if you have three or more currents coming out of a junction: they all add up to the value of the single current going in.

In Fig. 1.9 the two resistors are said to be connected in parallel. The formula for calculating the overall resistance of two resistors in parallel connection is:

$R_{total} = R1 \times R2 / (R1 + R2)$

An alternative formula yielding the same result is:

$1/R_{total} = 1/R1 + 1/R2 \dots + 1/Rx etc.$

(Take the reciprocal of 1/Rtotal to reveal the answer.)

Our 470R and 100R resistors could thus be replaced by a single resistor of 150R. It's useful to remember that by placing two resistors in parallel, the overall resistance will always be smaller than either of the two individual resistors. It's impossible to make a resistance larger by placing another resistor in parallel with it.

Additionally, when you have two or more resistors in parallel with each other, the potential difference or "voltage drop" across each of the resistors is bound to be the same. In our example, the p.d. across both resistors happens to be that of the battery voltage.

**POTENTIAL DIVIDERS**

Earlier we saw how a potential difference placed across a chain of resistors in series, is divided up amongst those resistors. A p.d. appears across each resistor and when added together, they equal the p.d. across the extreme ends of the resistor chain.

A simple network consisting of two resistors is shown in Fig. 1.10. Vin is the voltage from the 6V battery pack and Vout is the output voltage from the potential divider.

Three different sets of values are shown in the table for Ra and Rb; construct this simple network on your breadboard using 1k, 2k2 and 4k7 0.25W five per cent carbon film resistors, then measure the voltage Vout – the p.d. across Rb – with your multimeter and record this in the table. Our results are shown too. If you are uncertain of the resistors' colour codes, double-check their values using your multimeter set to an ohms range.

This type of circuit is called a potential divider and is very useful in electronics for reducing the level of an input or output voltage. The output voltage from the divider depends on the ratio of the values of the two

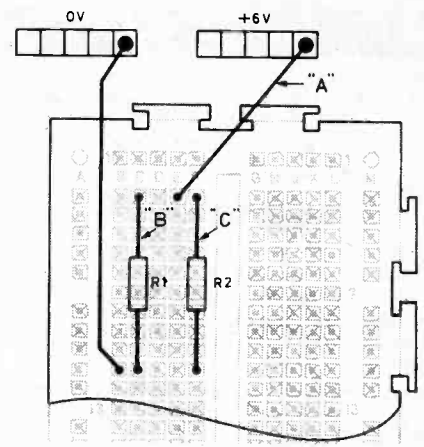


Fig. 1.9(b). Measure the currents using your multimeter at locations "A", "B" and "C".

resistors. In fact it's possible to calculate the output from a simple formula:

$V_{out} = V_{in} \times R_b / (R_a + R_b)$

Now try calculating the values of Vout and compare it against your actual test readings just recorded.

Our formula assumes that there is no current (Ib) drawn by anything connected to the output. By adding a "load" as shown in Fig. 1.11, in effect you reduce the resistance of the bottom half of the potential divider, by adding Rl in parallel with Rb. This has the effect of lowering the output voltage of the divider as it is "pulled down" towards 0V.

There comes a point when the potential divider formula may give misleading results, because it does not take into account the "shunting effect" – if any – which a load connected to the divider may have on Rb. How much effect the load has depends on its resistance – a lower resistance will pull down the output even more. We'll see in future parts of Teach In, how the load could be something more complex than a resistor,

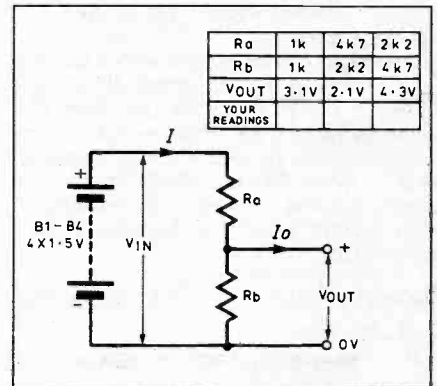


Fig. 1.10. The Potential Divider. Build this on the Veroblock yourself, and measure Vout (the voltage across Rb) – fill in your results in the table.

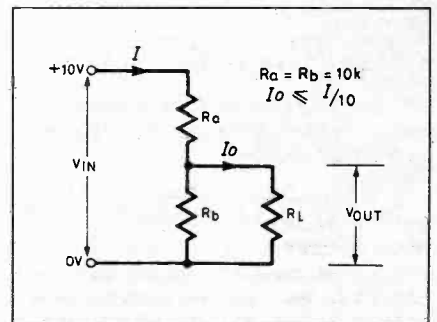


Fig. 1.11. The Ten Per Cent Rule. The output current should be no more than 1/10th the current I flowing into the divider.

# GCSE QUESTION

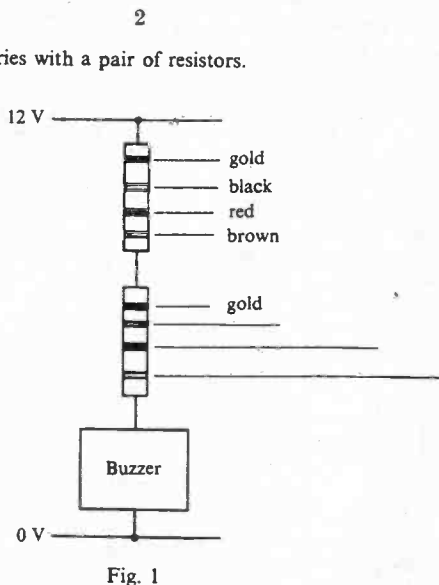
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1751/1

PAPER 1

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1 Fig. 1 shows a buzzer in series with a pair of resistors.



(a) The coloured bands on one of the resistors are labelled. Use the colour code to find the resistance of that resistor. [2]

.....  $\Omega$

(b) The buzzer is rated at 6 V. When connected to a 12 V supply, it must have a resistance of 60  $\Omega$  in series. What is the value of the unlabelled resistor of Fig. 1? [1]

.....  $\Omega$

(c) Select a suitable value for the unlabelled resistor from this table of preferred values. Draw a circle round your choice. [1]

10	11	12	13	15
16	18	20	22	24
27	30	33	36	39
43	47	51	56	62
68	75	82	91	100

(d) Write in the colours of the bands on the unlabelled resistor. [3]

(e) Draw on Fig. 1 a voltmeter which measures the potential difference across the buzzer. [2]

MEG 704

like the input of an amplifier section, where a.c. signals may be involved.

## THE TEN PER CENT RULE

It's best to ensure that the output current from the divider is no more than 10 per cent of the current flowing through the divider itself, so that you don't unduly load the divider. Firstly work out the current  $I$  flowing through both  $R_a$  and  $R_b$  with no load attached. This is calculated very simply with Ohm's Law:  $I = V_{in} / (R_a + R_b)$ .

We know that the current  $I$  into the div-

ider will equal the current through the two resistors plus the output current, refer to Fig. 1.11. Ignoring the load current  $I_o$ , and with the values for  $R_a$  and  $R_b$  set at 10k for example, utilising a 10V supply the current through the divider is 0.0005 amps or 0.5mA.

The output current should be no more than 10 per cent of this, i.e. 50 microamps. This means that the load resistor should preferably be the equivalent of 100k or more, i.e. 5 volts ( $= V_o / 50$  microamps).

The circuit of Fig. 1.12 shows a 4k7 resistor and a normally-open push switch connected between the 6V and 0V rails of the

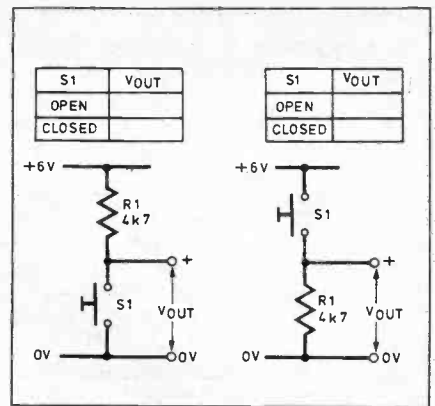


Fig. 1.12 (left). Switching System with Pull Up Resistor. Build this on the Mini Lab and record your voltage measurements in the table.

Fig. 1.13 (right). Switching System with Pull Down Resistor.

battery pack. Build this circuit on the Mini Lab yourself, and measure the d.c. voltage output using the multimeter, recording the result both when the switch is open and closed.

Resistor R1 serves as a *pull up* resistor because it "biases" the output towards the +6V rail when the switch is open. Pressing the switch shunts the output to 0V. This is one way of obtaining a signal which is normally at 6V (or whatever the supply rail happens to be) and which is sent to 0V as a result of an operation.

A similar circuit is shown in Fig. 1.13 but this time a *pull-down* resistor R1 biases the output to 0V. Thus the output will be at zero potential when the switch is open, but a "high" signal of +6V is generated when the switch is closed. Prove it by building it on your Mini Lab.

These simple "input systems" enable us to obtain a suitable electrical signal – normally high or normally low, whichever we need – as a result of performing a mechanical operation. Both these functions are of great importance when we come to look at the world of *digital systems*. These only have two states – on and off, or high and low. It's even more relevant when we introduce the Micro Lab, an optional microprocessor expansion unit for the Mini Lab, later on.

## VARIABLE RESISTORS

The simple switching systems just introduced enable one of two states – "high" or "low" – to be obtained from simply pushing a button. There will be many times when you will want to *vary* a voltage. A very common method of doing this is based on a variable potential divider. Fig. 1.14(a) introduces the **potentiometer** (pronounced "po-ten-she-oh-meter") which is a three terminal variable resistor. It has a moving contact B which forms a *wiper* on a resistance material.

By connecting the potentiometer as a voltage divider to an input voltage  $V_{in}$ , it's easy to change the output voltage  $V_o$  by rotating the shaft of the potentiometer. The varying voltage output is available at the wiper of the pot. Thus by performing a mechanical operation (rotating the spindle), an electrical function is carried out.

A very common application of this arrangement is a **volume control** of a radio or a hi-fi. Sometimes you need to adjust a voltage just once, in order to set up a signal, perhaps on a television circuit board. Small "trimmer resistors" or "preset potentiometers" are available, and these are generally fitted to a circuit board so that they

## GCSE QUESTION (see previous page)

The Teach In Reader would have no problems with this straightforward question which concerned resistors in series. The following answer would have earned you full marks.

- Simply use the resistor colour code. The brown and red bands mean that the numerals of the code are 12. The black band means that the multiplier is  $1R$  ( $\times 1$ ). **Answer 12 ohms (12R).**
  - Use the formula for resistors in series. We are told that the total resistance in series with the buzzer must be 60 ohms. We have shown one of the resistors to be 12 ohms – the unlabelled component must therefore be **48 ohms**
  - The nearest preferred values to 48 ohms in the table are **47** or **51** ohms. Either was marked as correct.
  - Resistor Colour Code again. 47R is **yellow/violet/black**. 51R is **green/brown/black**.
  - The voltmeter is drawn in *parallel with* the buzzer. Voltmeters measure the voltages (p.d.) *across* components, i.e. between two points in a circuit.
- N.B.** No extra marks would have been awarded by mentioning the resistor tolerance. Also, the Resistor Colour Code was shown on the Exam Paper for reference.

to enable the switch contacts to join together. The contacts themselves may be capable of switching very heavy currents, in the order of several amps or more. Fig. 1.15(a) is a demonstration circuit of a relay RLA, the coil of which is activated by pressing switch S1. The relay actually has *changeover contacts* (RLA1) so that a load can either be switched on or off when the coil operates. Here, a bulb LP1 is connected as the load. The whole circuit is powered by the 6V battery pack.

Build this on your Mini Lab as shown in Fig. 1.15(b). When you press S1, you will hear the relay click and the bulb will illuminate. Now add the audible warning device (correctly polarised) between the n.c. terminal (buzzer +) of RLA and 0V (buzzer -). What happens now when you press the switch?

The relay used on the Mini Lab has the

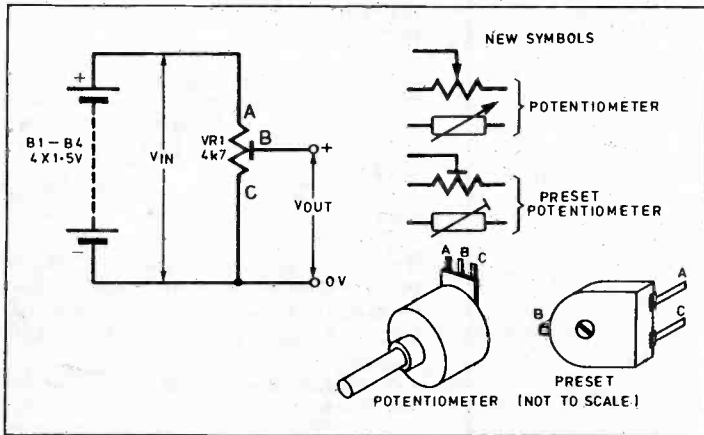


Fig. 1.14(a). A preset variable resistor. Physical forms are also shown.

Fig. 1.14(b) (below). Connecting one of the preset potentiometers mounted on your Mini Lab. Measure the voltage between "B" and 0V, when you rotate the control.

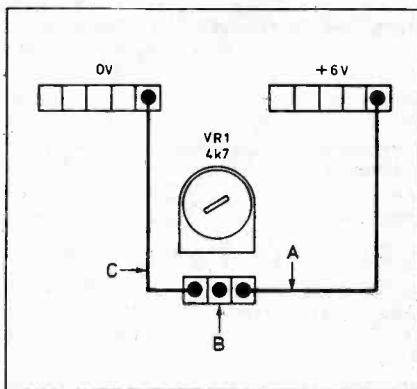
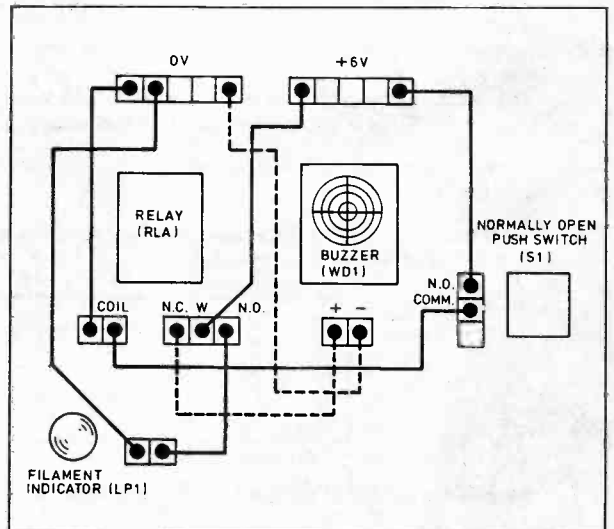
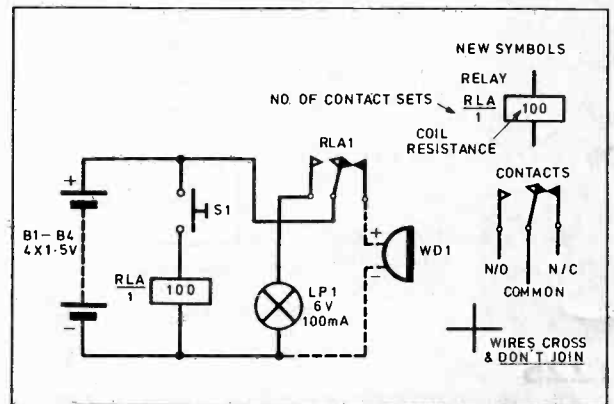


Fig. 1.15(a) (above right). The Relay, used here to switch between a bulb and the buzzer. Add the buzzer (WD1) after building and testing the rest of the circuit.

Fig. 1.15(b) (right). Operating the buzzer and bulb with the changeover contacts of the relay. Connect WD1 the right way round.



can be adjusted with a screwdriver. The symbol for a preset (or trimmer) is also shown in Fig. 1.14.

Potentiometers and trimmers are specified by the ohmic value of their tracks. Anything between 100R to 1M is common. Additionally, the power dissipation of the track, in watts, is also generally given. Small presets might only be 0.15 watts, but large "wirewound" potentiometers could dissipate up to 25 watts of power. Look through a catalogue to check out some other variable resistors, comparing specifications and prices.

The Mini Lab incorporates a selection of preset resistors which can be used as volume or level controls in future experiments. Fig. 1.14(b) shows how to try out a 4k7 preset mounted on the Mini Lab, by connecting it to the 6V battery pack. Measure the voltage between "B" (positive)

and "C" (0V) with your multimeter set to a d.c. voltage range. See what effect rotating the control has on the meter reading.

## RELAYS

The simple switching systems we have looked at so far are limited by the current they can carry and the voltage they can switch. The smallest switches available can only carry a few tens of milliamps and switch up to 20V d.c. or so. In some applications, this could be far too restricting when we want to switch a heavy load such as a motor.

A **relay** is an *output device* in which a small current can be used to control a much larger current. They take advantage of the *electromagnetic effect* where a potential applied to a small coil turns it into an electromagnet. This magnetically operates some contacts to form a switch.

Only a small current is needed in the coil

following specification:

- Coil Resistance: 100 ohms
- Coil Voltage: 6 volts
- Contact Current: 3 amps maximum
- Contact Voltage: 24V d.c./120V a.c. maximum
- Contact Configuration: single pole changeover

What will be the current flowing through the coil when 6 volts is applied? Use Ohm's Law ( $I = V / R$ ) and compare your answer (60mA) against the much higher contact current which the relay can safely switch.

We need to take certain precautions when using relays in transistorised circuits. Next month we see how relay coils can generate some unbelievably high voltages when they are switched off. This can ruin certain electronic components unless precautionary measures are taken. We also introduce more electronic devices.



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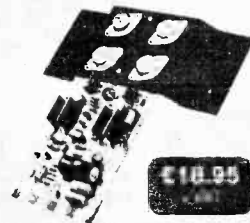
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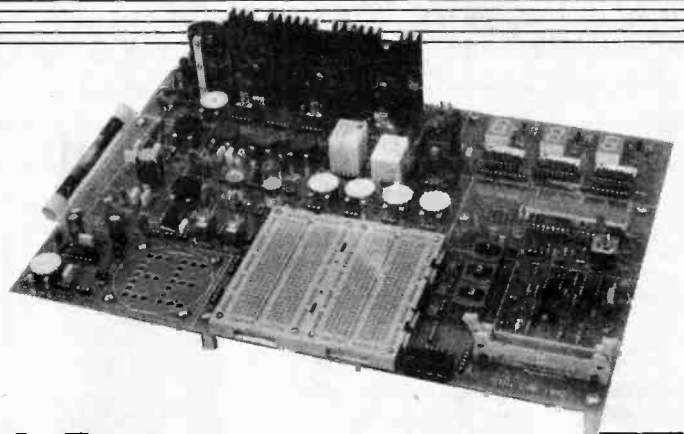
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# MINI LAB



**Alan Winstanley & Keith Dye B.Eng(Tech)AMIEE**

*The Everyday with Practical Electronics Mini Lab has been created to accompany Teach In '93, and enables the reader to assemble demonstration circuits by following the clear instructions and diagrams contained in the main text, with every chance of it working first time. The Mini Lab is an exciting learning aid which brings electronics to life in an enjoyable and interesting way: you will both see, and hear, the electron in action.*

A SPECIALLY-DESIGNED printed circuit board (p.c.b.) forms the heart of the Mini Lab which includes a "breadboard" area or plug-in contact block with which basic circuits can be tested. One Veroblock breadboard is required initially and the Mini Lab has room for another.

Ancillary components such as presets, switches and buzzers etc. which cannot be plugged directly into the breadboard are also permanently fitted to the Mini Lab board, and are easily connected to the Veroblock through breadboard-type sockets which are conveniently located nearby.

All the areas are interconnected to a common power supply and the Mini Lab becomes mains-operated in due course. However, only low voltages are ever present on the Mini Lab, so the unit is completely safe to use at all times. A microprocessor expansion port facilitates connection to our Micro Lab microprocessor add-on system which is introduced later in the series for GCE A Level.

When the Mini Lab is finished, you will possess an excellent self-contained development unit complete with a range of test and demonstration items which will help you to widen your knowledge and produce your own designs. We hope that you will enjoy building and using your Mini Lab, and find it of continued use when *Teach In '93* draws to a close. Thereafter, we hope to follow up with occasional articles which will utilise the Mini and Micro Labs in some interesting applications.

Should you have any particular queries or problems, please write to us c/o The Editor – we'll be only too glad to help. We also welcome any comments and constructive criticism from both teachers and students alike, so do get in touch with a progress report: we'll be delighted to hear from you!

*Alan Winstanley and Keith Dye.*

The printed circuit board designs of the Mini and Micro Labs are © Copyright Dytronics 1992.

## FIRST STEPS IN CONSTRUCTION

The *Teach In* Mini Lab is constructed on a p.c.b. measuring approximately 295mm × 210mm (the size of a page of EPE) and is divided into distinct sections. Every month *Teach In* discusses a particular topic and accompanying the text will be a brief constructional article describing a relevant circuit which fills one of the sections on the Mini Lab board. There is, however, the requirement to solder a number of components to the board each month, so a little practice with a soldering iron will be useful. Space precludes us from exploring the circuits in any depth: the main thing is to build them!

For Part One of *Teach In*, it is necessary to assemble the "general-purpose" central area of the Mini Lab which contains the plug-in breadboard and other components. The breadboard readily copes with most of the electronic components used in *Teach In*, but cannot directly handle certain parts like switches, bulbs or preset potentiometers. These components are instead soldered directly to the Mini Lab p.c.b., then

the components' terminals connect via the p.c.b. to adjacent groups of contact strips which form breadboard-style connection points for these parts.

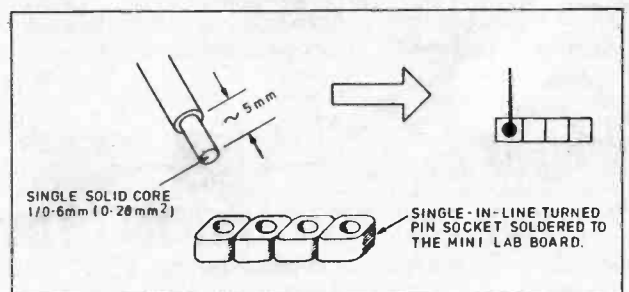
It therefore becomes very easy to connect switches, pots etc. to the breadboard with standard solid core 0.28mm<sup>2</sup> insulated wire, see Fig. 1. Simply cut some wire to length, strip about 5mm of insulation from each end and push the jumper wire into the relevant sockets on the Mini Lab and connect over to the Veroblock. You might often find it easier to use a pair of fine-nose pliers to grip and locate the wires into the sockets. The system works perfectly but it's impor-

tant that you use both the correct socket strips and also the right gauge of wire so that a reliable connection can be made each time.

## COMPONENTS

The Components List gives all those parts which you can solder to the Mini Lab board for Part One. It does not list the extra parts required to fill the other sections of the board: these will be gradually introduced as required in each month's article which makes the Mini Lab extremely cost-effective. Also, rest assured that we have chosen the most economical components wherever

Fig. 1. Using a jumper wire to connect a s.i.l. socket on the Mini Lab printed circuit board.



# Mini Lab Components

## Variable Resistors

VR1	4k7
VR2	47k
VR3	100k
VR4	2M2

See  
**SHOP  
TALK**  
Page

## Switches

- S1 to S3 S.P.D.T. sub-miniature toggle switch (3 off)
- S4 to S6 2-pole n/o + 2 pole n/c mom. action push switch, p.c.b. mounted with bezel and button (3 off)

## Miscellaneous

- WD1 6V p.c.b. mounted audio warning device
- RLA 6V 100ohm s.p.c.o. p.c.b. mounting relay
- LP1, LP2 6V 100mA M.E.S. bulbs with skeleton holders (2 off)

Mini Lab Printed Circuit Board 295mm x 210mm approx. (available from the *EPE PCB Service* - order code MINI LAB); p.c.b. mounting "jacks" (3 off); 0.5 inch shorting selector plug; single-in-line turned-pin sockets, 2 x 32-way; "pluggable" p.c.b. mounting screw terminals, 1 each 2-way, 4-way; Veroblock breadboard; M2.5 x 12.5mm screws and nuts to mount breadboard (4 off); 20mm p.c.b. stand-offs with screws (8 off); wire - single core insulated 1/0.6mm (0.28mm<sup>2</sup>) as required.

A detailed Buyers Guide is given in *Shop Talk* which shows all part numbers, alternative sources and additional information.

**Price**

**£38**

Approx

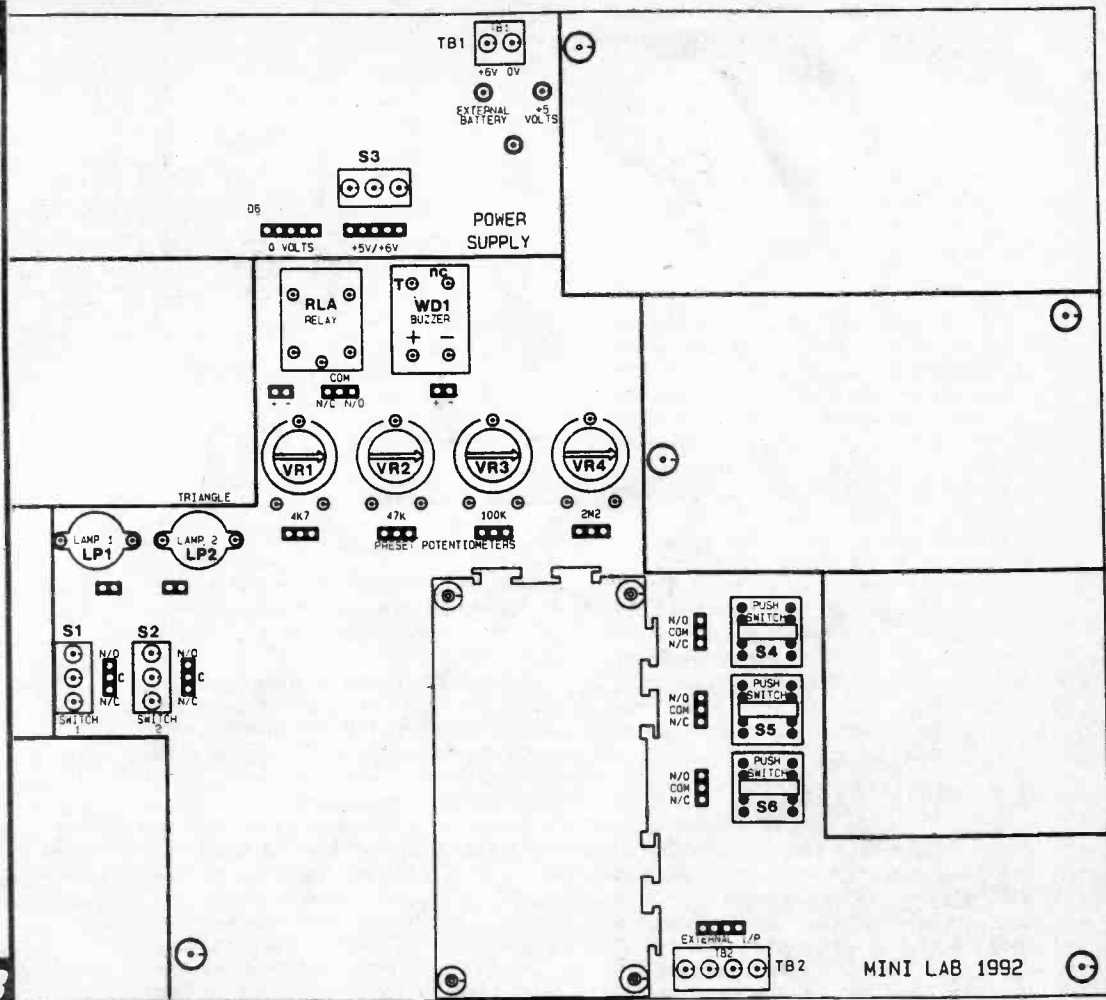
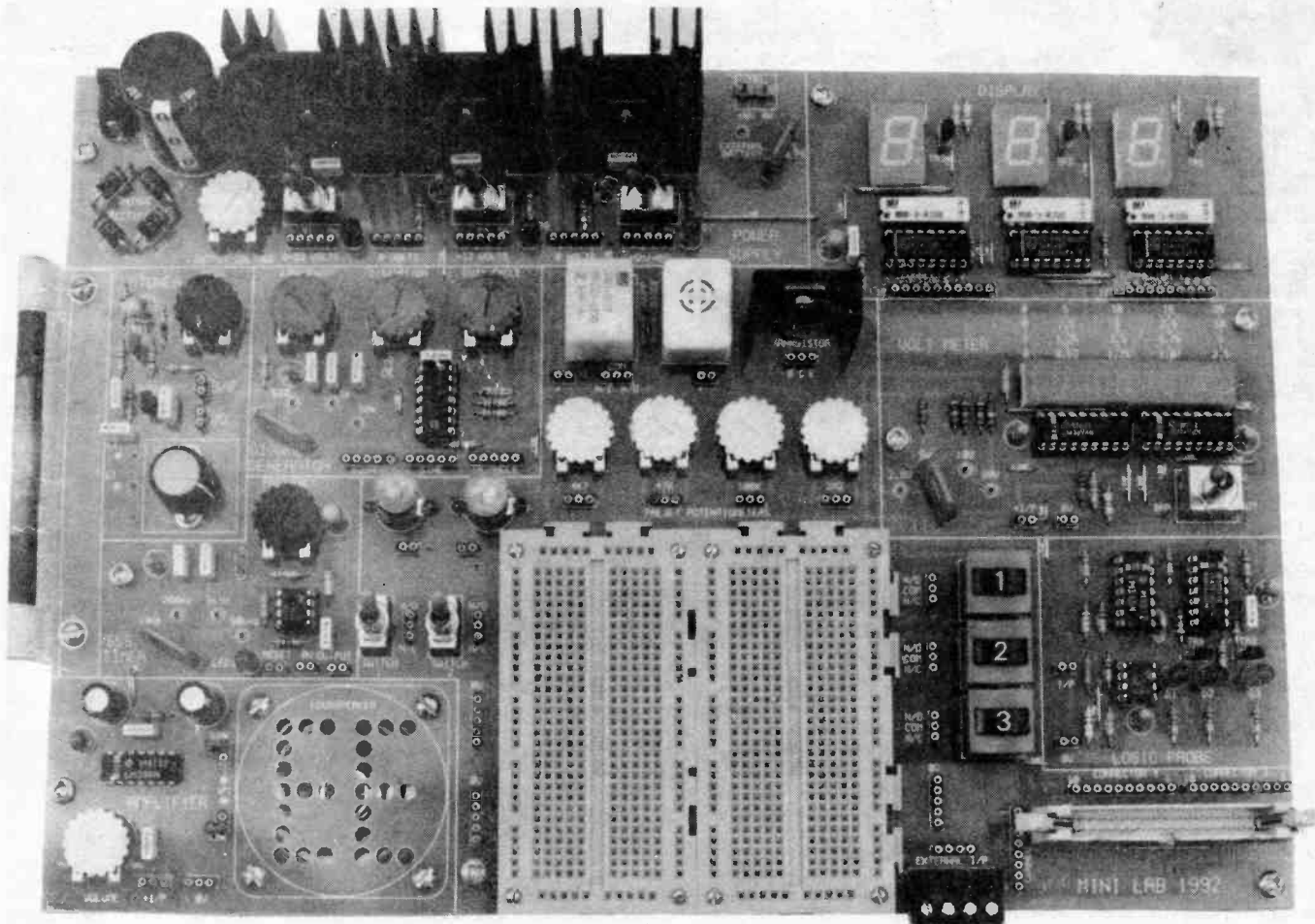


Fig. 2. Construction of the central part of the Mini Lab as required for Part 1 of Teach-In. The photograph below shows the complete Mini Lab.



possible. We also give a list of other requirements for tools, etc. which the newcomer might find useful.

The top side of the Mini Lab p.c.b. is fully silk screen printed with the descriptions and locations of the various components, and you should find the initial assembly very straightforward. Fig. 2 shows the arrangement of the central part of the Mini Lab which can now be constructed.

## BATTERY PACK

Also assemble the battery pack (B1 to B4); use four 1.5V cells such as R20S types and connect them the right way round into a suitable holder to make 6 volts. It is connected to the Mini Lab through screw terminals on the printed circuit board, see Fig. 3. We recommend "pluggable" terminals, so that the relatively bulky battery can be conveniently unhitched when desired, without straining the printed circuit board.

The battery must be selected for use by inserting a shorting plug (see Parts List) between two small sockets marked "EXT BATT", and also a d.c. on-off switch is fitted, so that you can readily disconnect the battery. Later, this switch serves a different purpose: it turns a 5V supply on and off for digital circuits, once the battery has been replaced with a very comprehensive Mains Power Supply.

## I.C. MOUNTING

The s.i.l. ("single in line") socket strips are designed to carry integrated circuits and mainly come in lengths of 32 terminals, and these are snapped off as required to form small groups which can then be soldered to the p.c.b., perhaps using sticky tape to hold them down while you solder the pins. Because they are central to the whole design, we again emphasise that *only* "turned pin" s.i.l. sockets should be used: other types will not work in this application. Invariably, some terminals will break, so allow for a little wastage.

Many parts have to be pin-compatible with the hole layout in the p.c.b. or they will not fit, so consider the Components List and *Shop Talk* carefully. The recommended parts should solder directly to the board without any problems. A 4-way screw ter-

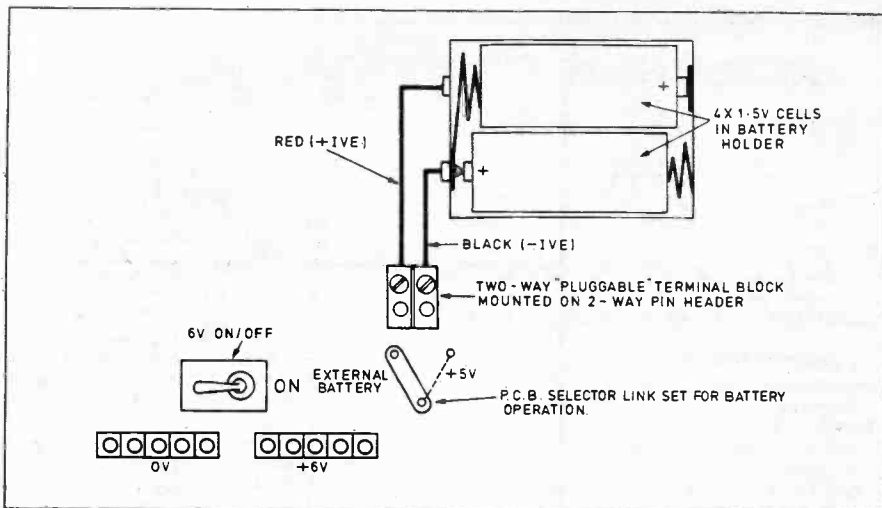


Fig. 3. Connection arrangement for external battery pack. The connection link for selecting "External Battery" is shown.

minal is fitted at the bottom of the board so that later on, components with long wire leads can be made to connect to the Mini Lab.

The bulbholders can be mounted by soldering their tags to a couple of solder pins fitted to the board. The push switches must be the approved type or they will not fit the board: those used on the prototypes used a bezel with engraved buttons marked 1 to 3 as a nice touch. They are, incidentally, the only p.c.b. switches we know of which have an acceptable current rating for our purposes.

Finally, to finish off, the board requires quite a number of 20mm stand-off pillars as shown so that the board can stand on a desk or table top. They stop the whole p.c.b. from flexing unduly when engaged in frenzied experiments!

To avoid confusion, it's important to note that the component designations (VR1, VR2, S1 etc.) shown both in the Components List and Fig. 2 are only used here for the purpose of helping you to assemble this part of the Mini Lab. In the main tutorial of *Teach In*, you will find that the components are given different designations in various circuit and interwiring diagrams.

## TOOLS

The following is a list of basic requirements for tools and equipment, and is given as guidance to those approaching the subject for the first time:

- Fine-pointed long nose pliers with serrated jaws.

- Wire stripper, variable gauge, with built-in wire cutter.

- Round-jaw pliers (luxury, useful for bending leads neatly).

- Screwdrivers, small flat-bladed and cross-head No. 0 and No. 1 types.

- Soldering iron, 15 Watt mains operated pencil type with fine tip, preferably with bench stand.

- Soldering Iron Tip Cleaner and Tinner (Multicore TCC1).

- Solder 60/40 22 s.w.g.

- Suction Desoldering Tool (luxury but useful to have).

- Small Freezer aerosol (handy)

- Multimeter, 20,000 ohms per volt or higher: reading 250V d.c./500mA d.c. minimum plus resistance range. Or Digital Pocket Multimeter, same readings or better. A modest multimeter will be quite adequate for following *Teach-In*

Next month: L.E.D. Voltmeter Module.

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# Techniques

## ACTUALLY DOING IT!

by Robert Penfold

**L**AST MONTH the topic of customising projects was discussed. This is something that the majority of constructors indulge in, and it adds to the interest and enjoyment obtained from the hobby. You do need to be slightly careful when doing your own thing though, and in particular, you need to be careful when using substitute or equivalent components.

### SUBSTITUTION

There are several possible reasons for using substitutes. One is simply that you cannot find exactly the right component listed in any of the component catalogues.

Another is that you have almost the right component in your spares box, and that you would prefer to use this rather than buy the right component. A third possibility is that the project under construction is an old design, and that some of the components used in the original unit are no longer available.

It is clear from readers' letters that many constructors are simply not sure if certain components are the right ones or not. A fair percentage of queries from readers who are having difficulty getting projects to work include inquiries about the suitability of one or more components. In most cases the components in question seem to be perfectly suitable, but in a few cases a misunderstanding has resulted in a totally unsuitable component being used.

For complete beginners at electronic construction the best advice is to only build projects using what you are certain are the correct components. When building a project from "Everyday with Practical Electronics" remember to consult the *Shoptalk* feature.

If for one reason or another you cannot obtain all the right parts, then it is best not to go ahead with the project. Once you have gained a small amount of experience it is probably safe to start making some simple substitutions.

### SWITCHES

In theory, provided a switch has the right number of ways (contacts) and a sufficient number of poles ("moving contact"), it will do the job. It does not matter whether you use a pushbutton, slider, rotary, or rocker type.

In reality you need to be very careful that the switch contacts have suitable current and voltage ratings. The most important point to watch is that you do not use an unsuitable switch on the mains supply. This could be lethal for the switch and anyone who uses it!

Generally speaking, miniature switches are *not* intended for operation on the 240V a.c. mains supply. Most of those that are intended for use on mains supplies are only suitable for continental and US supplies of around 110V to 120V. For mains operation use the larger switches that are intended for on/off switching of the 240V UK mains supply.

Sometimes a components list specifies that a switch should be a *make-before-break* or a *break-before-make* type. These terms only apply to changeover and multi-way switches, not simple on/off types.

With a "make-before-break" switch, as the moving contact is shifted from one terminal to the next it momentarily short circuits the two terminals together.

With "break-before-make" switches the moving contact (pole) becomes briefly isolated from both terminals as it is switched from one to the other.

In most cases it does not matter which of these switch types is used. However, where one type or the other is *specifically* called for in a components list it is essential to use the right kind. Otherwise you might, for example, find that the power supply is short circuited each time you operate the switch. At best the switch would be short lived, and at worst expensive damage would be caused to other components in the circuit.

### CAPACITORS

If you look in one of the larger electronic component catalogues there will almost certainly be more than a dozen different types of capacitor on offer. Capacitors that operate well in some respects tend to be less impressive in others.

Circuit designers therefore have to look at the important requirements for each capacitor, and choose a type which measures-up to these requirements. Using a capacitor having the right value, voltage rating, etc., but having the wrong type of construction, may not be a safe substitute.

Ceramic capacitors provide good performance at high frequencies. They are often used for supply decoupling and signal coupling in radio frequency circuits. In other respects the performance of ceramic capacitors tends to be poor.

The tolerance figures are mostly quite high, and the values drift significantly with changes in temperature and the passage of time. They can also give problems with microphony in audio circuits (i.e. they act like crude microphones). It is unwise to substitute another type of capacitor for a ceramic

type, or to use a ceramic capacitor where some other kind has been specified.

The various plastic foil capacitors, such as Mylar, polyester, polystyrene, and polycarbonate types have broadly similar characteristics. In fact components list sometimes just specify "plastic foil" capacitors rather than a particular type within this category.

Provided the electrical ratings are suitable it is unlikely that there will be any problem if one kind of plastic foil capacitor is substituted for a different type. Bear in mind though that there are substantial variations in the sizes and shapes of plastic foil capacitors. A substitute capacitor might have suitable electrical characteristics, but can it be fitted onto the circuit board?

### POLARISED

Higher value capacitors are mostly of the electrolytic and tantalum types. The latter are physically very small, and have superior electrical characteristics. Accordingly, a tantalum type can be used instead of an electrolytic type. A substitution in the opposite direction is unlikely to give good results though. In a timing circuit for instance, the higher leakage of an electrolytic capacitor could result in greatly extended times, with the times possibly carrying on indefinitely.

Tantalum and electrolytic capacitors are polarised components which must be connected the right way round if they are to function properly. It is not a good idea to use a polarised capacitor in place of a non-polarised type. The signal across a polarised capacitor must include a d.c. component if the component is to function reliably.

If a large non-polarised capacitor is called for, it is likely that this d.c. component is not present, or that the application is a critical one where the quality of a polarised component would simply not be good enough anyway.

Silvered mica capacitors are sometimes specified for radio frequency circuits. These are very high quality components with price-tags to match.

Mica capacitors are still available, but are becoming increasingly difficult to track down. A good quality polystyrene capacitor is about the only reasonable substitute for a mica type.

### LOUDSPEAKERS

The main ratings of loudspeakers are the physical size, the power rating, and the impedance. Using a slightly smaller or larger loudspeaker than that specified is fine, but only if the substitute component has a high enough power rating. Be especially careful about using a loudspeaker that is smaller than the specified size.

In general, the larger the physical size of a loudspeaker, the higher its power rating. Some miniature loudspeakers have very low power ratings. Bear in mind that seriously overloading a loudspeaker can burn out the coil, or (more probably) result in it literally ripping itself apart.

If an eight ohm impedance loudspeaker is required there should be no difficulty in obtaining a suitable component, since virtually all loudspeakers have this impedance. The main exceptions are the high impedance types, where there is a definite lack of standardisation.

A variety of impedances from about 50 to 80 ohms are used. Using a loudspeaker of not quite the right impedance should not cause any difficulties. A 64 ohm component should work perfectly well in place of (say) a 50 ohm or 80 ohm loudspeaker.

Never use an eight ohm loudspeaker instead of a high impedance type. This could damage the semiconductors in the circuit driving the loudspeaker, and (or) result in severe overloading of the loudspeaker. Substituting a high impedance loudspeaker for a low impedance type should be quite safe, but the maximum output power and volume will both be substantially reduced.

## DIODES

Occasionally a special diode of some kind will be required, but in most cases projects just use "bog standard" silicon types such as the 1N4148 and 1N914, or very occasionally germanium diodes such as the OA90 and OA91. Substituting one silicon diode for another, or one germanium device for another should not give any problems.

However, do not use a germanium device in place of a silicon type, or vice versa. They have very different characteristics, and are not usually interchangeable.

On the face of it there is no problem in using a silicon rectifier such as a 1N4002 instead of a silicon diode such as a 1N4148. In practice this is not usually a good idea. There are subtle differences between the two types of component which could cause difficulties.

Rectifiers generally have lower forward voltage drops which could cause problems in biasing applications. They also have slow response times which could produce poor results in a.c. applications.

Substituting a rectifier having a higher than specified voltage or current rating is perfectly safe. For example, a 1N4002 (1A 100V) rectifier can be used in place of a 1N4001 (1A 50V) type. Going up to a higher current rating is safe from the electrical point of view, but bear in mind that a higher current rating usually means a much larger physical size as well.

Never use rectifiers having lower voltage or current ratings than the specified components. Apart from the almost certain and spectacular destruction of the substitute rectifiers, other components in the circuit could be damaged.

## RESISTORS

Most components list specify something like "0.25 watt 5 per cent carbon film" for all the resistors. This is a minimum requirement, and it is quite in order to use higher quality components such as one per cent metal film resistors.

It is also in order to use a higher wattage than that specified in the "Comps list." However, note that in many cases this would mean trying to use resistors that were far too large to fit into the available spaces on the circuit board.

In the vast majority of cases you can get away with using one value up or down from the correct one (e.g. a 12k or 8k2 resistor instead of a 10k type). This may cause some loss of performance though, and it is advisable to fit the correct value as soon as a suitable component can be obtained.

If you try using a "logarithmic" (log.) potentiometer instead of a "linear" (lin.)

type, or vice versa, the project will work properly. The substitute potentiometer will have rather an odd control characteristic though.

For example, suppose you used a logarithmic potentiometer instead of a linear type for the balance control in a stereo amplifier. This would provide the correct channel balance with the control set almost at one end of its adjustment range, rather than at a roughly middle setting. This is again fine for a temporary fix until you can obtain the right type, but does not provide a satisfactory long term solution.

## TRANSISTORS

With projects that operate from a small 9V battery and use transistors as simple amplifiers and switches, BC549s and BC559s can respectively be used in place of virtually any *npn* and *pnp* transistors. There are plenty of other transistors which are suitable as general purpose *npn/pnp* substitutes (BC109/179, BC547/557, etc.).

When using substitutes make sure that you connected the transistors correctly. The fact that two transistors have the same case style does not necessarily mean that they have the same pin leadout configuration.

Using substitutes where higher powers and higher frequencies are involved is rather more tricky. Even very experienced constructors can run into difficulties when attempting this type of thing. For the beginner the best advice is to not bother trying substitutes for any transistor that is at all out of the ordinary.

## INTEGRATED CIRCUITS

In general it is not possible to use substitutes for integrated circuits (i.c.s.) due to their specialist nature. However, one exception is operational amplifiers.

There are plenty of operational amplifiers which are designed to be superior versions of the industry standard  $\mu$ A741C. This includes popular devices such as the TIL071CP, TIL081CP, CA3140E, and LF351N. Using one of these instead of a  $\mu$ A741C, or in place of another "super" 741C device is almost invariably all right.

Using a  $\mu$ A741C instead of a "super" 741C is more dubious. The project is almost certain to work, but with some reduction in performance.

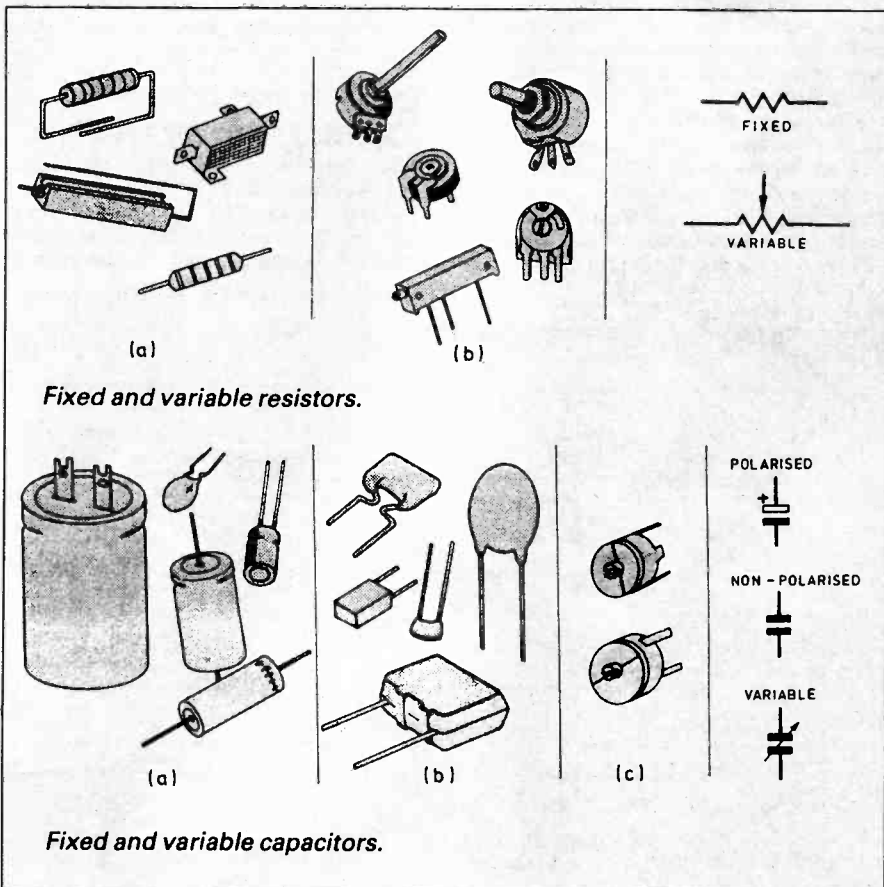
Some circuits make use of the CA3140E's ability to operate with a single supply rail in situations where other types require dual supplies. Using a substitute in such a circuit is more or less guaranteed to prevent it from working at all.

There are various families of TTL logic integrated circuits, with each family having "pin-for-pin" equivalents to the devices in the other families. Compatibility between these logic families is actually quite an involved topic, but there is a fairly high degree of compatibility between most of them.

Compatibility is to some extent dependent on the exact way in which a device is used. A substitution might be successful in one circuit, but unreliable in another.

Compatibility is very good between the original 74 series, the popular 74LS series, and the increasingly popular 74HCT devices. It is highly unlikely that an unsuccessful substitution will cause any damage, so the "suck it and see" approach is quite acceptable.

In practice with 74 series substitution you seem to be able to get away with rather more than the theory would dictate. Unfortunately, this is not the case with most component substitution.

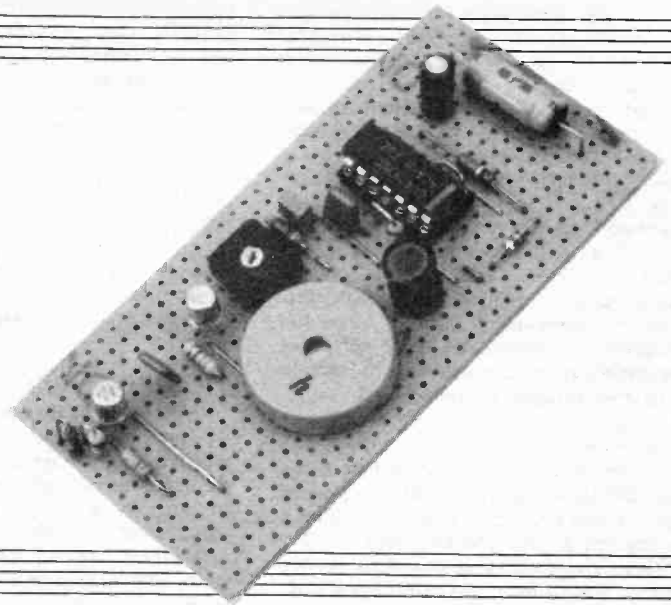


Fixed and variable resistors.

Fixed and variable capacitors.

# VIBRATION SENSITIVE ALARM

M. G. ARGENT



Safeguard your valuables with this novel alarm. Endless possible applications in and around the home.

**T**HE VIBRATION alarm circuit to be described here consists of a piezoelectric sounder (which is used both as a vibration sensor and also a mini speaker), a latch and two oscillators formed by a CMOS quad 2-input NAND Schmitt trigger i.c., and two transistor amplifiers.

## HOW IT WORKS

The circuit block diagram is shown in Fig. 1. Vibration of the piezoelectric transducer WD1 generates small voltages which are amplified by the transistor amplifier TR2 and provides a negative "feedback" pulse to flip the latch IC1a and IC1b.

When the unit is switched on, the latch automatically resets itself. When triggered by TR2, the latch changes over, and remains in this "alarm" state until the unit is switched off.

The output of the latch enables two oscillators, creating the required pulsed tone for the alarm sound. The output from the last oscillator is connected to the same transducer WD1 as is used for the alarm sensor. This eliminates the need for two piezoelectric devices and also provides a

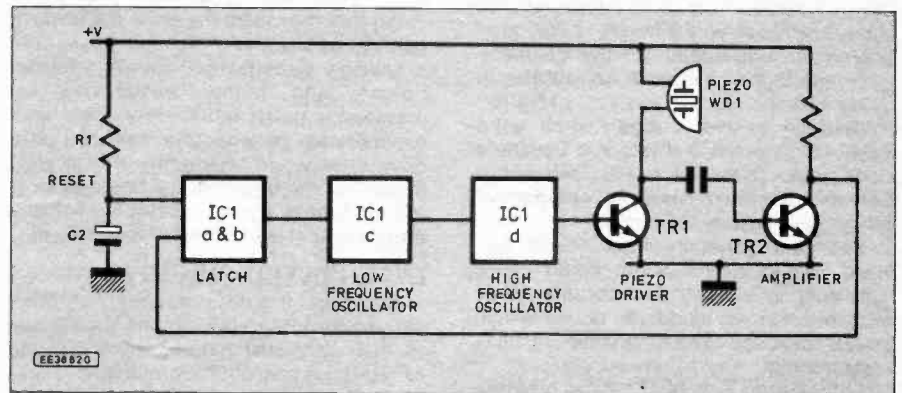


Fig. 1. Block diagram for the Vibration Sensitive Alarm.

regenerative action, guaranteeing positive triggering.

## CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

The full circuit diagram for the Vibration Sensitive Alarm is shown in Fig. 2. The latch, IC1a/IC1b, mentioned earlier is reset by the resistor capacitor combination R1/C2. Capacitor C2 always starts up from

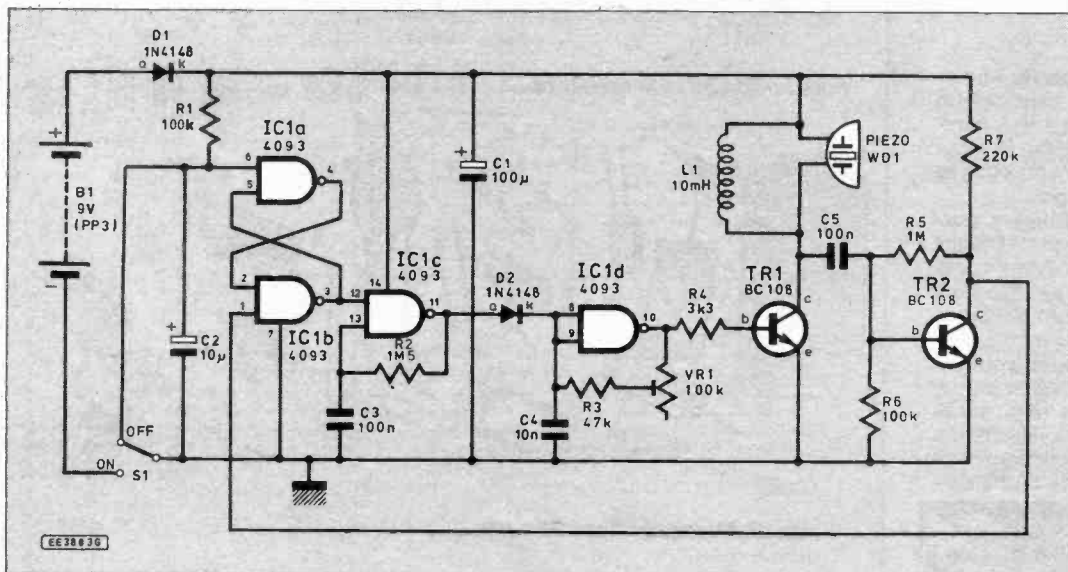
the uncharged state due to it being shorted out by the On/Off switch S1 each time the unit is switched off.

The latch output at IC1 pin 3 will be "low" (0V) when the unit is on but not triggered. When the latch changes state, due to a negative pulse from TR2, its output goes "high" (+9V) enabling the low frequency oscillator formed by IC1c.

This oscillator pulses on and off a high pitched audio oscillator IC1d, providing the alarm sound. The frequency of the second oscillator is adjustable by VR1 to set the loudest (and most nauseating) frequency. This is then buffered by transistor TR1 to drive the piezo sounder WD1.

Piezoelectric devices are excellent for low power consumption but are not generally loud enough to be heard far away. This problem is easily overcome by connecting an inductor L1 across it. When transistor TR1 is switched on an off at the high pitched audio frequency, L1 "rings" and provides a large voltage swing across the transducer WD1, giving a greatly increased volume than otherwise available.

Fig. 2. Complete circuit diagram for the Vibration Sensitive Alarm.





If an inductor is not readily available, it can be substituted with a resistor, typically 10 kilohms, and the unit will function as normal except for the reduced volume, which might still be sufficient in many cases.

Diode D1 is provided to protect the unit against accidental battery reversal.

## CONSTRUCTION

The complete unit can be built up on a piece of 0.1in matrix stripboard, size 36 holes by 17 strips, and the topside component layout is shown in Fig. 3. There are 14 copper track breaks required and these are shown in the underside plan view.

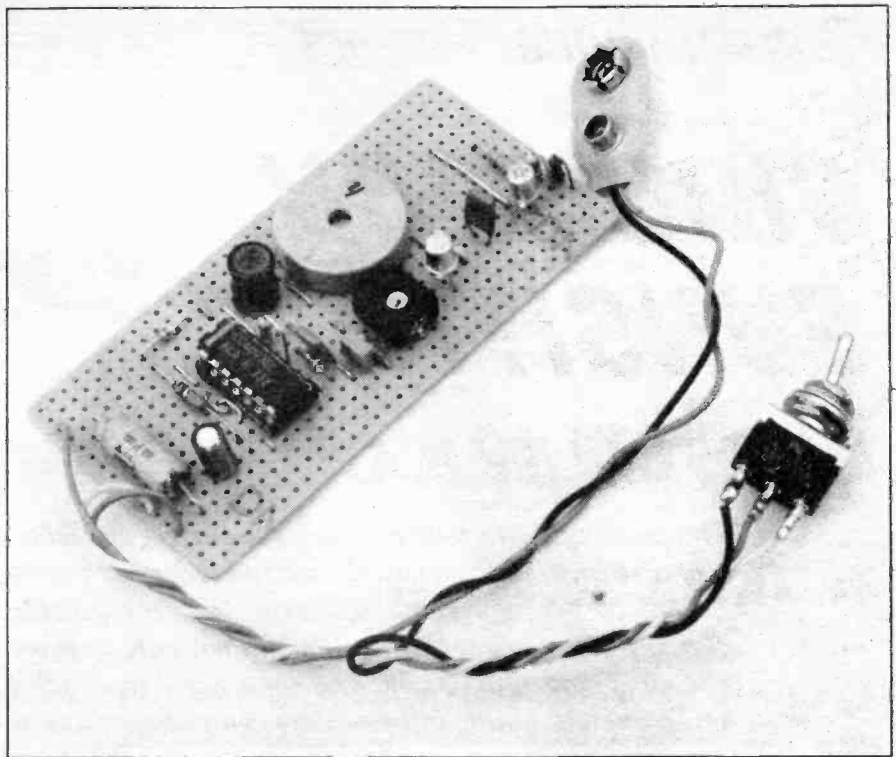
Commence construction by inserting the 11 link wires and i.c. socket. This provides a good reference point when mounting components later. The i.c. should not be mounted in its socket until all wiring has been completed and checked.

The small links can be made with bare off-cuts from component leads, but the longer ones should be made with insulated wire. Before adding the components, double check the position and wiring of the links; this will save a lot of headaches at the testing stage.

The rest of the components should now be mounted and soldered on the circuit board. The order should be in ascending size, i.e. diodes, resistors, capacitors . . . transistor.

It might be wise to leave the transistors until last as they are not so happy about being exposed to heat and they must be put in the right way round. Also, be careful to check the polarity of the diodes and the electrolytic capacitors.

It only remains to wire the slide switch to the board and the battery clip leads to the board and switch. In this design, the On/Off slide switch is wired in the negative,



black, battery lead. This is to ensure that in the off position the electrolytic capacitor C2 is discharged.

No details have been provided for a case and this has been left to individual choice. However, a small hole or series of holes should be drilled in the case above the sound transducer.

## TESTING

Once assembled, check the board for any errors or solder shorts across copper

tracks, plug the i.c. into its socket and connect up the battery. The diode D1 protects against reverse battery polarity.

Switch on and wait a few seconds while the unit resets itself, via R1/C2. Tap the piezoelectric transducer WD1, this should give out a pulsed high pitched sound.

Leave the alarm running and adjust preset VR1 for the loudest and most annoying output. This type of sound carries a long way and would, hopefully, deter most unwanted intrusions. □

## COMPONENTS

### Resistors

R1, R6	100k (2 off)
R2	1M5
R3	47k
R4	3k3
R5	1M
R7	220k
All 0.25W 5% carbon film	

See  
**SHOP  
TALK**  
Page

### Potentiometer

VR1	100k skeleton carbon preset, lin.
-----	-----------------------------------

### Capacitors

C1	100µ axial elect., 35V
C2	10µ radial elect., 16V
C3, C5	100n ceramic or poly (2 off)
C4	10n ceramic or poly

### Semiconductors

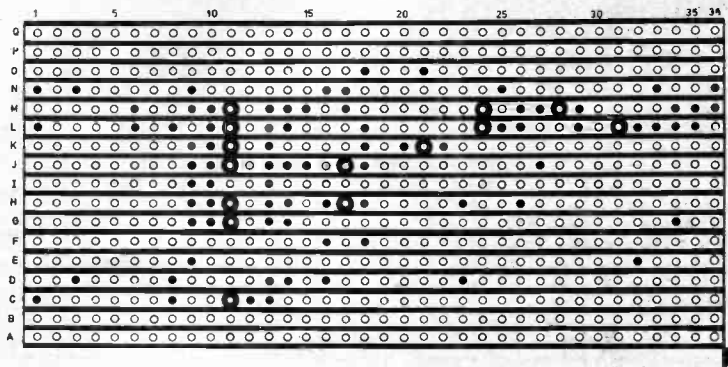
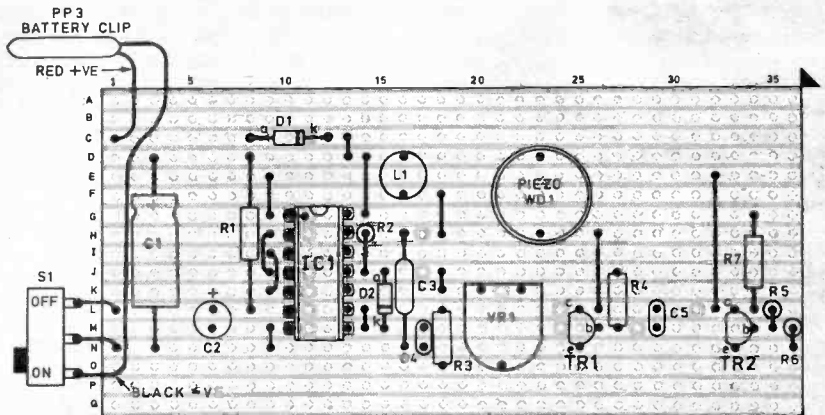
D1, D2	1N4148 signal diode
TR1, TR2	BC108 npn silicon transistor (or similar)
IC1	4093 quad 2-input CMOS Schmitt trigger

### Miscellaneous

L1	10mH p.c.b. mounting choke
S1	Single-pole slide or toggle changeover switch
WD1	Piezoelectric transducer
Stripboard, 0.1in. matrix, size 36 holes x 17 strips; 9V PP3 battery and connector leads; plastic case to choice; board spacers; fixing nuts and bolts; solder etc.	

Approx cost  
guidance only

**£4**  
plus case

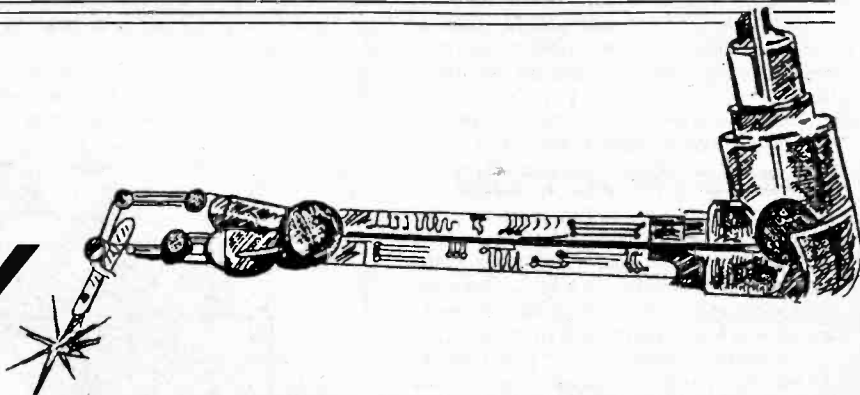


EE3864G

Fig. 3. Stripboard component layout and underside details of breaks required in the copper tracks.

# CIRCUIT SURGERY

MIKE TOOLEY B.A.



Welcome again to Circuit Surgery, our regular clinic for readers' problems and a particularly warm welcome to readers of Practical Electronics. For the benefit of our new readers, Circuit Surgery provides a regular "self-help" forum for readers problems. We aim not only to provide a regular cocktail of practical hints and tips but also some rapid feedback (including modifications and trouble-shooting information) concerning many of the projects which have appeared in the pages of both Everyday and Practical Electronics. Naturally, this column relies almost entirely on input from readers, so please drop me a line and let me know what topics you would like me to cover.

This month's *Surgery* should have a particular appeal to the audio enthusiast. We shall be describing some simple circuitry for compressing audio signals, a power supply for a low-noise pre-amplifier stage, and also suggesting some useful background reading on "digital audio".

Finally, for those who may not be so interested in audio, we include some information on the popular RS-232 serial communications interface.

## Constant level

Audio enthusiast *Chris North* writes from Bristol with a request for a simple circuit which will help him keep the level of a microphone signal reasonably constant. *Chris* writes:

*"I am regularly involved with public address work and often have difficulty with varying microphone levels. I need a circuit which will accept a signal from a medium impedance dynamic microphone and deliver a constant output signal to the power amplifier."*

The output signal from a microphone can vary from less than a hundred microvolts to several tens of millivolts depending upon the distance of the source and the intensity of the sound and such varying signal levels can be a real problem with public address equipment.

Unfortunately, inexperienced public address users are often blissfully ignorant of this fact and frequent adjustment of the volume control may be required in order to provide an acceptable output level (neither deafening an audience nor straining their ears).

The solution to this particular problem is a circuit which will provide a rapidly falling voltage gain as the amplitude of an input signal is increased above a threshold level. Such a circuit is known as a "compressor" and a practical example (based on two commonly available operational amplifiers) is shown in Fig. 1.

The compressor circuit can be used to replace an existing microphone pre-amplifier but offers the advantage that its output remains reasonably constant (at about 2V peak-peak) for any input greater than 20mV peak-peak. The circuit has a frequency response which extends from 100Hz to over 10kHz and thus should be more than adequate for most public address work.

Preset VR1 sets the amount of compression provided by the circuit and the correct setting for this component will usually require a little experimentation. If no compression is required, VR1 should be set to minimum (slider at 0V). In this case, the

circuit will operate as a "straight" pre-amplifier with a voltage gain of about 750 (the signal shunt, TR1, will never be driven into conduction).

If high-quality low-output microphones are to be used, greater sensitivity may be required. In this case both R2 and R7 can be increased to 470k. The onset of compression will then be reduced to approximately 5mV with VR1 at maximum setting.

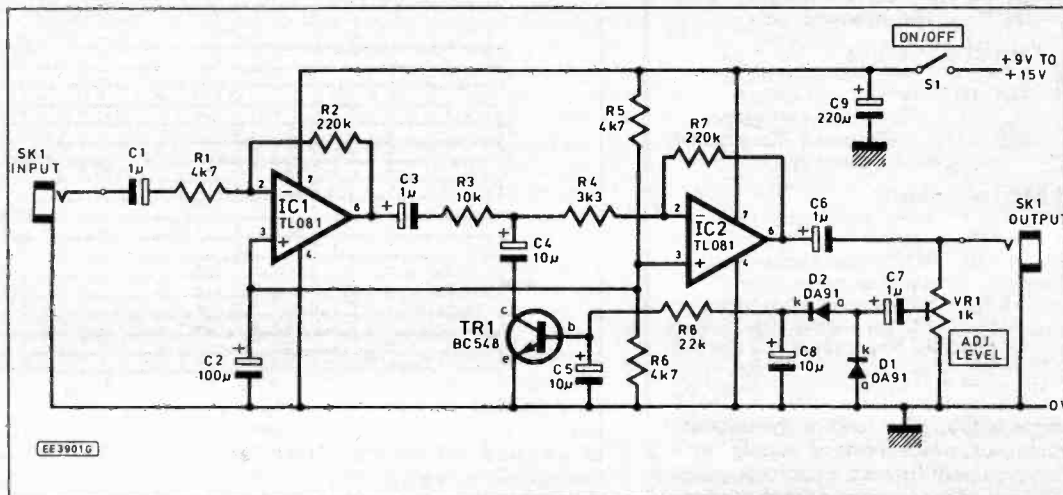
## 30V power supply

Regular reader *Simon Jones* writes from Liverpool with a request for information on the design of a 30V power supply. *Simon* writes:

*"I am constructing an ultra low-noise pre-amplifier based on a TDA3410. This requires a 30V power supply. Can you provide me with a circuit which can power two identical pre-amplifiers using this chip?"*

The TDA3410 requires a fairly modest supply current (approximately 10mA) and thus a simple

Fig. 1. Circuit of the audio compressor.



transformer/rectifier/regulator combination should suffice, see Fig. 2.

The 14-pin d.i.l. regulator (IC1) is capable of operation over a very wide voltage range (2V to 37V at a maximum load current of 150mA) and thus should be more than adequate for this application. The output voltage of the power supply is set by means of VR1 whilst the current limiting resistor (R2) has been chosen so as

connected in series. Maplin's WB10L is ideal for use in this circuit. The bridge rectifier, D1-D4, is a W01 device (100V PIV) rated at 1A.

It is worth pointing out that care should be taken when positioning the power supply within the pre-amplifier enclosure. The transformer, T1, and mains wiring should be kept well away from the input connections to the TDA3410 devices in order to

## Digital audio

Judging from a number of readers' letters "Digital Audio" is quite a "hot" topic these days! Unfortunately, the subject often does not feature in many of the older textbooks and several readers have asked me to suggest sources of information. Two books which are well worth reading are:

*The Art of Digital Audio* (Focal Press, ISBN 0-240-51270-7) by John Watkinson provides an excellent introduction to the subject. It contains all of the essential theory of digital audio and should appeal to those with little previous experience of the subject. John Watkinson provides a very detailed description of digital audio coding, processing and conversion without getting too bogged-down in complex mathematics. The book then continues with a description of a number of current digital standards and error correcting techniques before describing a variety of equipment.

*Digital Audio and Compact Disk Technology* (Heinemann Newnes, ISBN 0-434-91868-7) is edited by staff from the Sony Service Centre (Europe) and contains a wealth of information relating to a wide variety of digital audio equipment. The book provides a useful introduction to the principles of digital signal processing, sampling, quantization, conversion and coding and also contains chapters on Compact Disk players, Video 8, Digital Audio Tape (DAT) and Digital Audio Stationery Head (DASH) formats.

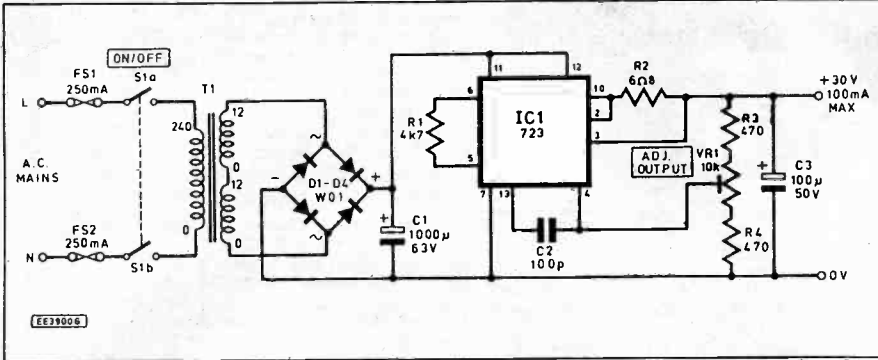


Fig. 2. Circuit of the 30V power supply.

to provide a maximum output current of 100mA (sufficient for several TDA3410 devices).

The mains transformer, T1, should be rated at 6VA (or more) and should have two 12V secondaries (each rated at 250mA)

prevent hum and induced noise. Furthermore, an earthed metal enclosure should be employed (with ground connections taken to a single common earth point in order to prevent earth loops) and all internal signal wiring should use screened audio cable.

## Modem connections

George Smith writes from Edinburgh with a query relating to the the serial port connections on a BBC Micro:

"On reading your Circuit Surgery article in which you supplied Mr Ron White with connection details of the SCART connector, I wonder if you could help me with a similar problem.

I purchased a British Telecom Mainstream modem model FM 1200 from a sale. Unfortunately it did not contain any technical data. The problem is that there is a 25-way D-socket on the rear panel of the modem which I wish to connect to the 5-pin domino DIN socket fitted to the RS-423 port of a BBC Micro.

The pins on the RS-423 port are: A - data in; B - data out; C - 0V; D - CTS; and E - RTS. Do you have any idea of the pinout of the 25-way D-socket?"

The RS-232/CCITT V.24 interface undoubtedly reigns supreme as the most widely used standard for serial communication between microcomputers, peripheral devices, and remote host computers, which were not defined under RS-232C. The standard was first defined by the Electronic Industries Association (EIA) in 1962 as a recommended standard (RS) for modem interfacing.

RS-232 relates essentially to two types of equipment; Data Terminal Equipment (DTE) and Data Circuit Terminating Equipment (DCE). Data Terminal Equipment (e.g. a microcomputer) is capable of sending and/or receiving data via an RS-232 serial interface. It is thus said to "terminate" a serial link.

Data Circuit Terminating Equipment (formerly known as Data Communications Equipment), on the other hand, is generally thought of as a device which can facilitate serial data communications and a typical example is that of a modem (modulator-demodulator) which forms an essential link in the serial path between a microcomputer and a conventional analogue telephone line.

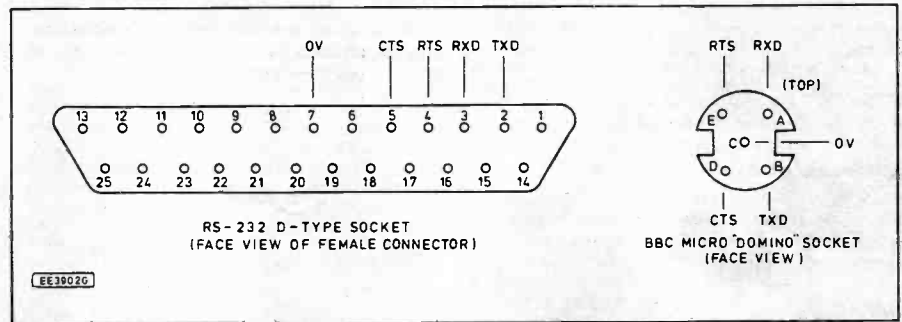


Fig. 3. Pin connections for the 25-way D-Connector.

Data terminal equipment (DTE) is normally fitted with a male connector whilst data circuit terminating equipment (DCE) conventionally uses a female connector (note that there are a few exceptions to this rule!).

Fortunately the solution to Mr Smith's problem should be fairly straightforward since the BBC Micro uses only a subset of the full set of RS-232 port connections. Furthermore, the wiring of the 25-way

modem connector should be reasonably standard and should obey the following convention in respect of the most important signals present:

### Pin Signal Function no:

Pin no:	Signal	Function
1	FG	Earth connection to the equipment frame or chassis.
2	TXD	Serial data transmitted from DTE to DCE.
3	RXD	Serial data received by the DTE from the DCE.
4	RTS	When active, the DTE is signalling that it wishes to send data to the DCE.
5	CTS	When active, the DCE is signalling that it is ready to accept data from the DTE.
6	DSR	When active, the DCE is signalling that a communications path has been, properly established.
7	SG	Common signal return path (0V).
8	DTR	When active, the DTE is signalling that it is operational and that the DCE may be connected to the communications channel.

### Next month:

In next month's *Surgery* we shall be attempting to explain the mysteries of "safe area protection". We shall also be taking a look at several probes which can be used to extend the functions provided on basic test equipment. We also have a "round-up" of hints and tips sent in by readers over the past six months.

In the meantime, if you have any comments or suggestions for inclusion in *Circuit Surgery*, please drop me a line at: Faculty of Technology, Brooklands College, Heath Road, Weybridge, Surrey, KT13 8TT. Please note that I cannot undertake to reply to individual queries from readers however I will do my best to answer all questions from readers through the medium of this column.

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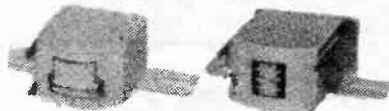
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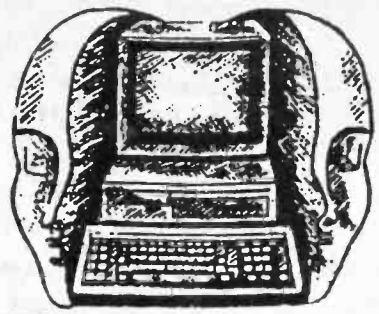
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# INTERFACE

## Robert Penfold



JUDGING from readers' letters, playing around with stepper motors is currently a popular pastime for the electronic hobbyist. Driving stepper motors is actually much more simple than many people seem to imagine. It looks complex because most stepper motors have about six leads, as opposed to the two of an ordinary d.c. motor.

Also, stepper motors are normally driven via special driver circuits which are almost invariably based on dedicated integrated circuits. The circuit diagram therefore gives few clues as to what is going on.

### Next Step

The stepper motors that are available to the hobbyist are virtually all of the four-phase variety. You need to be slightly wary of cheap surplus stepper motors as these are often something other than four-phase types, and could be very difficult to drive properly. Fig. 1 shows the basic way in which a normal four-phase stepper motor functions.

The basis of the motor is two electro-magnets in an "X" formation. Each electro-magnet has two coils wound in anti-phase, so that the polarity of the magnetic field can be changed by switching over from one coil to the other.

Obviously the same thing could be achieved by having a single coil and changing the polarity of the drive voltage. However, the driver circuit can be more simple if twin anti-phase windings are used.

A bar magnet is fitted to the drive shaft, and the orientation of this magnet will depend on the polarities of the electro-magnets. Bear in mind here that like poles repel, and unlike poles attract.

As you will see from Fig. 1, by altering the polarities of the electro-magnets in

the correct manner the bar magnet can be dragged round in 90 degree increments. By repeating the sequence over and over again the magnet can be made to rotate continuously. By reversing the sequence it can be moved in the opposite direction.

In a practical stepper motor there are usually several sets of electro magnets, giving much smaller steps. The Maplin stepper motor for instance, has 7.5 degree steps, or some 48 steps per complete turn.

Clearly a much finer degree of control will be needed in most applications, but this can be provided by some step-down gearing. For example, with an eight-to-one step-down ratio there would be 384 steps per turn, and slightly better than one degree resolution.

### Stepping Power

An important point to bear in mind is that stepper motors are not very powerful, and even with the aid of step-down gearing they can only drive light loads. It should also be borne in mind that they are not really a good choice where continuous rotation is required. An ordinary d.c. electric motor can usually handle that type of thing perfectly well, and at a fraction of the price.

Four-phase stepper motors have six leadout wires. Two of these are "common" leads which simply connect to the positive supply rail. The other four are driven from open collector outputs, which should include protection diodes because the solenoids in the motor obviously provide highly inductive loads.

One way of handling things is to simply control the solenoids directly from some digital outputs of the computer. Outputting the appropriate values in the correct order then steps the motor in the required direction. Most people prefer to use a proper driver circuit, which usually means one based on the SAA1027 integrated circuit. Control of the motor is then very straightforward, and is achieved using two outputs. Pulses on one output provide stepping of the motor, while the logic state of the other output determines the direction of the motor.

Next month we will consider some practical stepper motor interface circuits.

### P.C.B. Shareware

In the past there has been plenty of high cost software for producing printed circuit board designs on a computer, but there has been little low cost commercial or shareware software of this type. In recent times some good low cost p.c.b. software has appeared, some existing programs have been subjected to spec-

tacular price cuts, and some good shareware p.c.b. programs for the PCs have appeared. I reviewed the British produced "Quickroute" a couple of months ago, and this was probably the first shareware program to offer a real alternative to the low cost commercial p.c.b. programs.

### Pads-PCB

Now there are two new shareware p.c.b. programs for the PCs in the form of "Pads-PCB" from the USA, and "LAYO1" from France. These are both sophisticated programs, and "Pads-PCB" would seem to be the most advanced shareware p.c.b. program currently available. It has facilities which rival the cheaper and mid-priced commercial offerings.

Unfortunately, it is sufficiently advanced to be unusable on many PCs. To run this program you require at least an 80286 based PC fitted with 640K of RAM and a hard disk with at least seven megabytes of free space. A V.G.A. display is also needed, and some super V.G.A. modes are also supported.

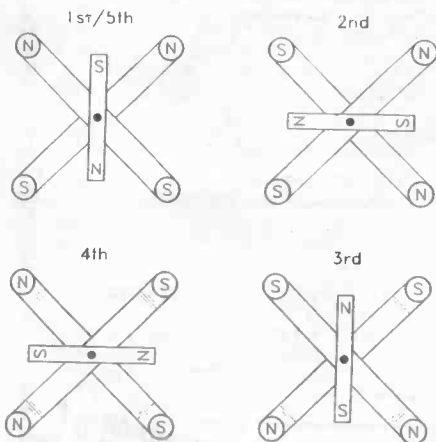
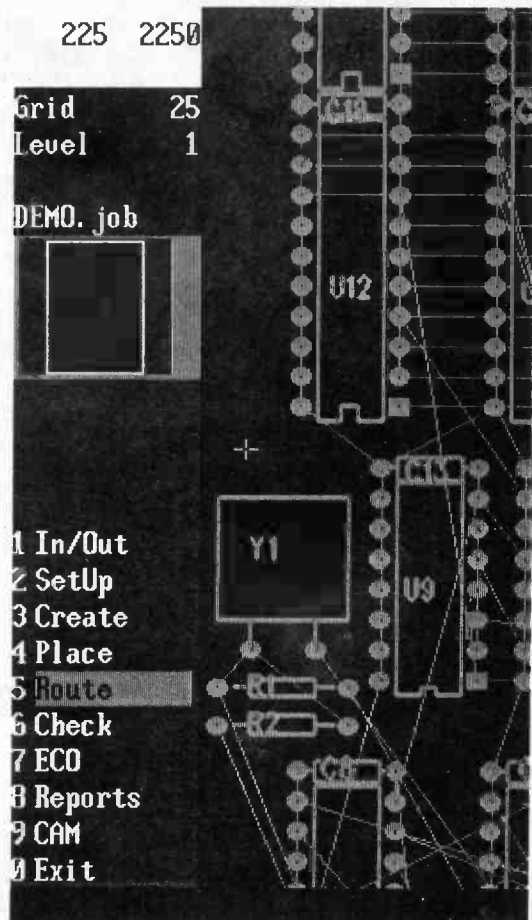


Fig. 1 Method of operation used in a four-phase stepper motor.



Part of a screen dump from "Pads-PCB". Showing a zoomed "ratsnest" and menu bar and status information.

Control of the program is via a combination of the keyboard and a Microsoft compatible mouse. The program is supplied on three high density 3.5 inch or 5.25 inch disks.

There are really two programs, one of which is a front-end which is used to produce circuit diagrams (or "schematics" in American terminology), and to produce netlists which are fed to the second program. A netlist is basically just a components list together with details of all the interconnections.

The second program takes the netlist and converts it into physical representations of the components, complete with a "ratsnest" of interconnections. The components can be placed onto the board manually, or there is an auto-placement facility which can be used. This is quite an advanced feature which is normally only found on very expensive p.c.b. design programs.

In the "ratsnest" each connection runs straight from one pin to the next, probably crossing several other tracks and a few pads on the way. Each track therefore has to be carefully routed to avoid any short circuits. The routing can be performed manually, and there are plenty of editing tools which permit corners and angles to be placed in the tracks, the track width to be varied, etc.

### Auto-Routing

There is also an automatic routing facility with various options that can alter its approach to routing a "ratsnest". In common with other auto-routers which use "maze-search" and other relatively simple methods, it will work quite well with certain types of board, but is virtually useless with many other types.

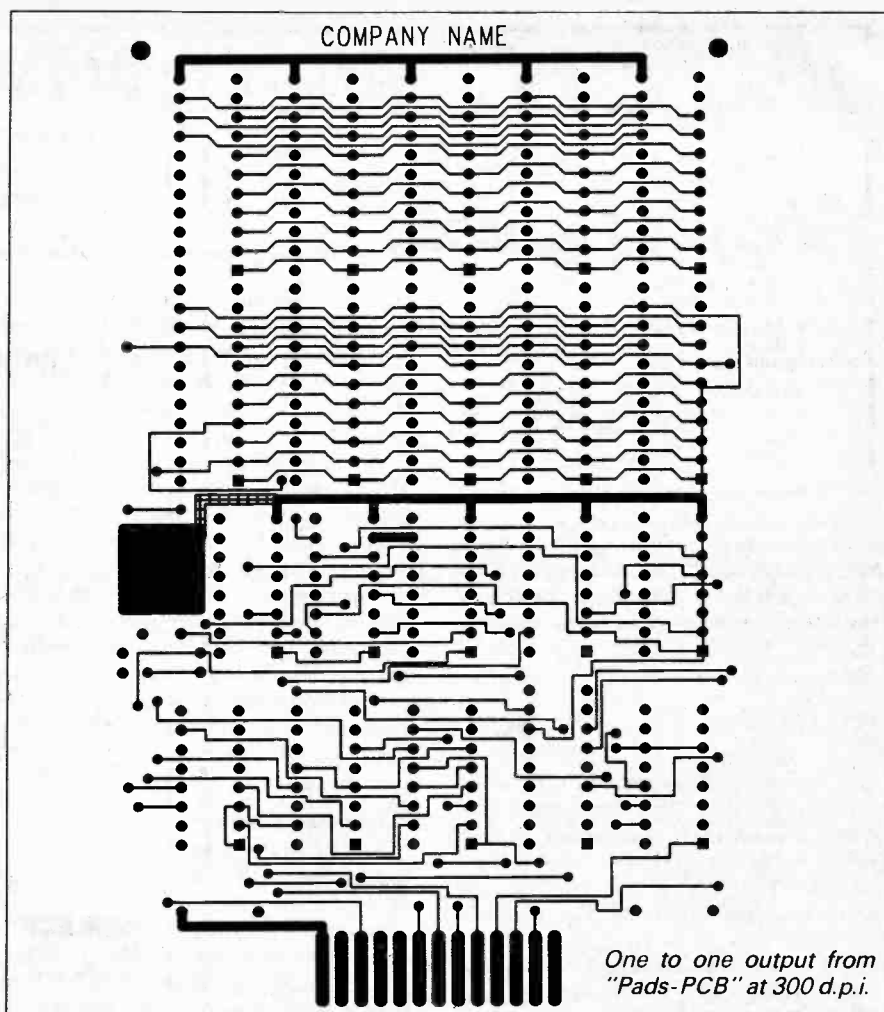
The problem with virtually all auto-routers is that they tend to produce complex two-sided layouts, whether or not the design really justifies it. Also, they generally complete about 90 per cent or so of the tracking, leaving the user to finish the rest.

This would be fine, but most auto-routers tend to "paint you into corners", possibly leaving a board that is impossible to finish without some substantial redesigning. Simple auto-routers are great fun to try out, but are not usually of much practical help.

The "Pads-PCB" actually has two auto-routers, and these seem to be better than most. Although the success rate is not exceptionally high, the routers do seem to route the tracks more sensibly than much of the competition.

Both routers are also much faster than many other auto-routers I have tried. Great claims are made for the 100 per cent rip-up-and-retry and "power" routers, but unfortunately these are not included in the shareware version of the program.

The netlist approach is the one favoured by most professional p.c.b. designers, but it is a bit over the top if you only need to draw up relatively simple printed circuit designs. Like most p.c.b. design programs, "Pads-PCB"



allows you to use the p.c.b. design part of the program as an electronic drawing board if that is all you need.

The program can output to a wide range of devices, including dot-matrix printers, laser printers, plotters, and photo-plotters. I tried printing out one of the demonstration designs on a 24-pin dot-matrix printer and a 300 d.p.i. laser printer, and the quality seemed to be about as good as the printers would allow.

In a short review of this type it is impossible to cover such a complex piece of software in detail. It is a very sophisticated and well thought out program, and it seems to be reasonably bug-free. There is plenty of documentation in the form of ASCII files on the disk, and the documentation is very concise and complete by shareware standards.

If you have a suitable computer and you are interested in electronics, then this is a program that you should definitely give a try. The running demonstration for the p.c.b. section of the program will give you a good idea of what "Pads-PCB" can do.

The shareware version is limited to logic boards having about 30 integrated circuits, or analogue boards having an equivalent number of interconnections. However, this should be sufficient for the majority of do-it-yourself projects.

If the shareware version is sufficient for your needs, then "PADS Software Inc." are apparently quite happy for you to go

on using their program, with no registration fee being required. All you pay is the £18-00 (including V.A.T. and postage) for the three high density distribution disks. This must be one of the best software buys of all time!

### LAYO1

It is difficult to comment on the "LAYO1" program. It is produced in France, but the on-disk documentation is in English. At least, it is almost in English. Unfortunately, the documentation is rather cryptic and contains more than a few errors. The program seems to be fairly sophisticated - it includes an auto-router for example. I found it difficult to get this program to do anything worthwhile though.

The hardware requirements seem to be similar to those of "Pads-PCB", and the program is supplied on a single high density disk. Be warned that the installation program generates a large sub-directory structure which it fills with dozens of files. If you have suitable computer equipment it is probably worth giving this program a try, but you will need plenty of time to work out how to use it!

"LAYO1" and "Pads-PCB" are available from *The PDSL, Dept EE, Winscombe House, Beacon Road, Crowborough, Sussex, TN6 1UL* (☎ 0892 663298), and are on disks H027 and H031A/B/C respectively. They might be available from other shareware libraries, but will have different catalogue numbers.

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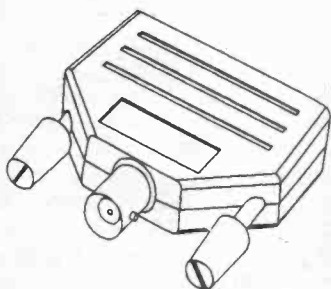
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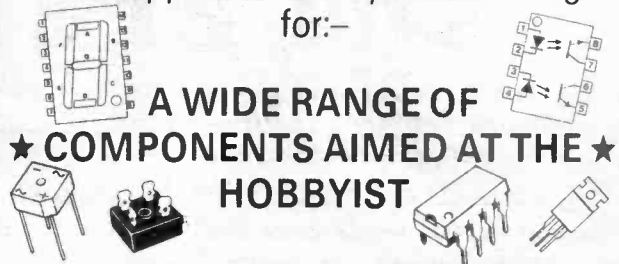
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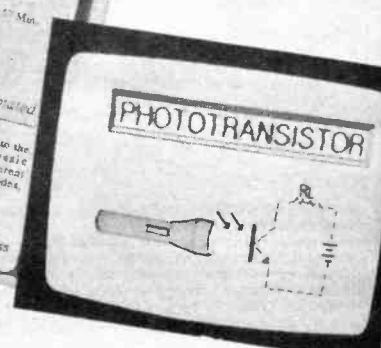
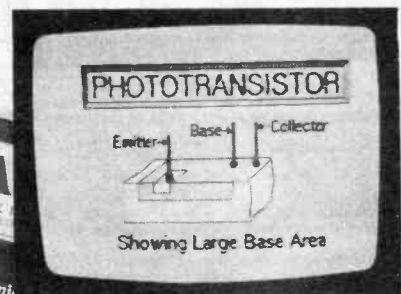
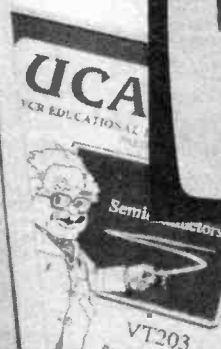
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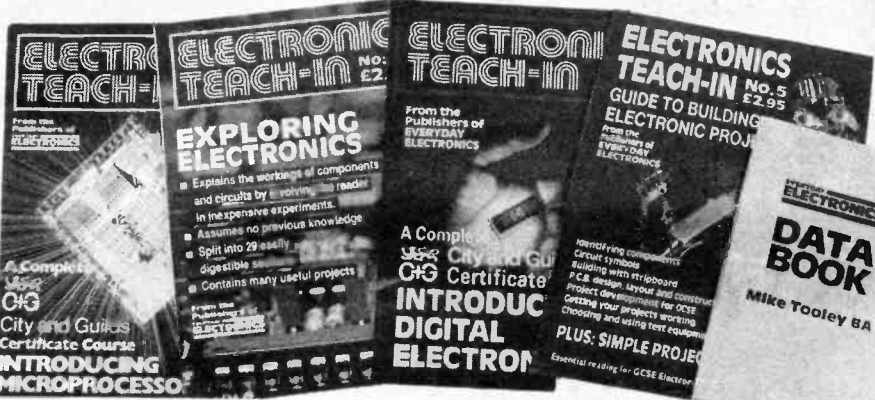
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## TESTING, THEORY AND REFERENCE

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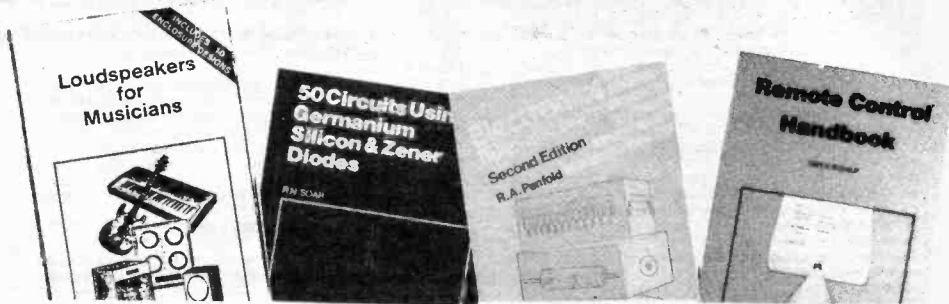
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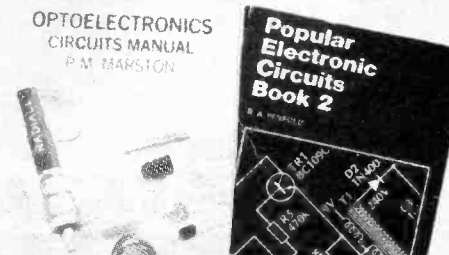
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R. A. Penfold

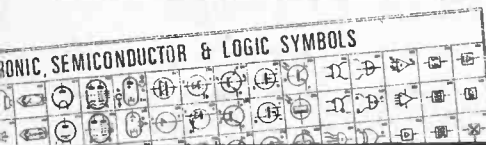
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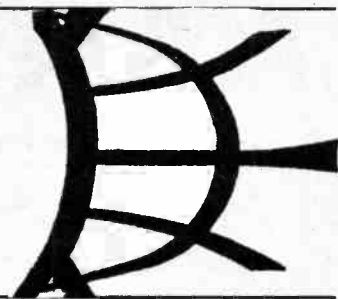
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# REPORTING

# AMATEUR RADIO

**Tony Smith G4FAI**



## WHAT'S IN A NAME?

From the earliest days, radio amateurs in the United States have been known as "radio hams", or simply "hams", although amateurs in some countries have resisted the term for various reasons, preferring to be known as "radio amateurs". Some are simply resisting the spread of "Americanisms", and others see it as a derogatory term, wrongly implying a less than satisfactory level of competence.

There are any number of different explanations of the origin of the term. One version credits three amateurs whose combined initials spelt out the word HAM to provide their station's call-sign. This particular station is said to have been discussed by Congress when considering a Wireless Regulations Bill in 1911, and nationwide publicity of the proceedings resulted in the term being used from that time on to describe all amateur radio stations.

Another version describes how *Home Amateur Mechanic* magazine, in the early 1900's, published details of how to build the "Home Amateur Mechanic" (HAM for short) radio. Thus, those who built and used these sets became known as HAM radio operators.

A less complimentary explanation is that landline Morse operators used the word to describe inexperienced or poor operators. I have a copy of *The Telegraph Instructor* by G. M. Dodge, proprietor of Dodge's Institute of Telegraphy in Valparaiso, Indiana, 4th edn, 1908, for instance, which defines a "ham" (or alternatively a "plug") as a telegraph operator who is not proficient. It has been suggested that the professionals extended this term to apply to the new amateur radio operators who were trying to emulate their skills.

## SKILLED INVOLVEMENT

There are any number of other sug-

gestions that amateur radio operators. This policy was revoked early this year after taking into account "the increased use, public understanding and acceptance of the expression to denote a radio amateur without any derogatory intent; the meanings of 'ham' and 'amateur' in the Australian Macquarie dictionary; and the need to explain amateur radio in terms easily understood by the public and so raise their awareness of our hobby."

Having said that, the WIA added a conciliatory note for the benefit of the "anti-hams" to the effect that it was not actively advocating the use of the word "ham", but was simply no longer objecting to people using it when describing an amateur radio operator.

## ANNUAL REPORT

The 1991/92 Annual Report of the Radiocommunications Agency, as ever, covers the whole range of the Agency's activities, national and international, involving many different types of radio service from amateur to popular radio and TV broadcasting, including technical issues, law enforcement, and much more. Space permits reference here only to hobby radio but a free copy of the full report can be obtained from the RA Information and Library Service, **Tel: 071-215 2352**.

In the year under review, a contract for amateur licence distribution was awarded to Subscription Services Ltd (SSL), a subsidiary of the Post Office, the aim of which was to achieve cost savings and an improved licence issue service.

The Agency and the Radio Society of Great Britain have been working to improve the management of the amateur repeater network and a new licensing procedure has been introduced. A scheme for reporting interference on the amateur bands to the Agency has also been established already led to some

see the launch of (Novice) Licence, rage young people and the first licences onally by John Red-r for Corporate Af-ow aims to improve tributions have been ted parties about the ing course and the

telecommunications cy has sought views radio community on third party traffic by cy continues to spon-*teur of the Year Award*, e given in this column,

h 1992, there were

33,280 Amateur Radio "A" Licences, 27,738 "B" Licences, 46 Novice "A" licences, and 378 Novice "B" Licences, representing an increase of 558 in the total number compared with the previous year.

The Radio Investigation Service continued to investigate interference and other problems over the whole range of licensed transmissions covered by the Agency. Four amateurs were prosecuted and convicted for activities contravening the licence regulations, and warning letters were sent to three others.

Virtually all amateur radio information sheets published by the Agency were revised during 1991/92 and of particular interest to those considering taking up the hobby is RA 190 *How to become a Radio Amateur* - March 1992, available free of charge by telephoning 071-215 2072 (24-hour answerphone service).

In the CB field, a consultative exercise confirmed the view of users that CB should continue to be a licensed service and licensing was centralised through SSL. The new arrangements are expected to save some £200,000 which would otherwise have had to be recovered by increasing the licence fee.

As at 31 March 1992, there were 64,944 CB licences on issue compared with 69,803 the previous year. 112 persons were prosecuted and convicted for licence offences and 655 warning letters were sent out. A revised set of CB information sheets has been published and these are available from the Library Service, as above.

An intriguing implication of the licence statistics suggests that if the present trend continues the number of amateur licences next year may well exceed the number of CB licences on issue. This compares dramatically with the situation following the introduction of CB in the UK when the number of licences surged initially to around a quarter of a million.

## AMATEUR SSB ENHANCER

A recently unveiled amateur radio version of its Link-Plus digital signal processing technology, called the MULE (Multi-Use Link Enhancer), is claimed by Link Plus Corp. of Columbia, Maryland, USA, to eliminate most noise and interference from single sideband voice communications, thus producing a significant boost in effective signal strength.

In 18 separate tests, carried out on three days, over an 1800 mile path under a variety of transmission conditions, Link-Plus processing produced an average 22dB improvement in HF-SSB signal-to-noise ratio. In layman's terms, the unprocessed signal had, on average, 160 times more noise content than the Link-Plus signal.

The MULE connects to any HF radio by external cables, but at \$2,995 it is probably beyond the reach of most amateurs at the present time. (*W5YI Report*).













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