

**CB RADIO** - News and views inside

# Hobby Electronics

February '81

ISSN 0142-6192

60p

**For A Down-To-Earth Approach To Electronics**

## OSCILLOSCOPE FEATURE-

**How they work &  
how to use them**

### Heartbeat Monitor

**-a project to put  
your pulse on  
display**

**Two simple bench instruments to build**  
**High-impedance Voltmeter**  
**Audio Signal Generator**

**-see inside**

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**Personal Radio**

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Even the old boys circuit is getting electronicized. With our help.

# Hobby Electronics

FEBRUARY 1981  
Vol. 3 No. 4

Editor: Hugh Davies  
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Hearty thanks are due to the Physics Dept. of Hammersmith General Hospital for allowing us to take pictures of the cardiograms shown on this month's cover. These waveforms were reproduced from those displayed on a cardiac monitor. See first part of our Heartbeat Monitor project on page 13.

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Hobby Electronics is normally published on the second Friday of the month prior to the cover date.  
Hobby Electronics, 145 Charing Cross Road, London WC2H 0EE, 01-437 1002. Published by Modmags Ltd. Distributed by Argus Distribution Ltd, 12-18 Paul St., London EC2A 4JS. Printed by QB Ltd., Colchester. Covers printed by Alabaster Passmore.

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**SIMPLY AHEAD**  
and staying there

# The range grows bigger... better...

## New Profile Amplifiers - Two New Series

### MOSFET

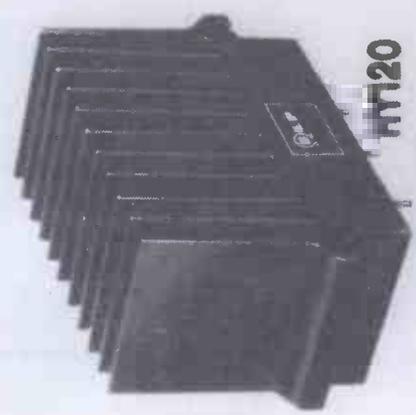
CHOOSE AN I.L.P. MOSFET POWER AMP when it is advantageous to have a faster slew rate, lower distortion at high frequencies, enhanced thermal stability, the ability to operate with complex loads without difficulty and complete absence of cross-over distortion. I.L.P.'s exclusive encapsulation technique within fully adequate heatinks has been taken a stage further with specially developed computer-verified 'New Profile' extrusions. These ensure optimum operating temperatures for MOSFETS and are easy to mount. Connections via five pins on the underside. **I.L.P. MOSFETS ARE IDENTICAL IN PERFORMANCE TO THE COSTLIEST AMPLIFIERS IN THIS EXCITING NEW CATEGORY BUT ARE ONLY A FRACTION OF PRICES CHARGED ELSEWHERE.**

Model	Output Power RMS	Distortion Typical at 1kHz	Slew Rate	Rise Time	Signal/Noise Ratio DIN AUDIO	Price & VAT
MOS120	60W into 4-8Ω	0.005%	20V/μs	3μs	100dB	£25.88 + £3.88
MOS200	120W into 4-8Ω	0.005%	20V/μs	3μs	100dB	£33.46 + £5.02

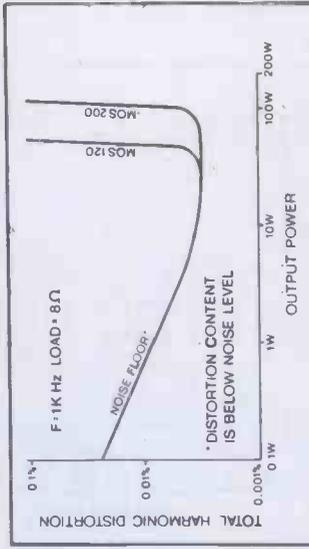
### BIPOLAR

CHOOSE AN I.L.P. BIPOLAR POWER AMP where power and price are first consideration while maintaining optimum performance with hi-fi quality and wide choice of models. From domestic hi-fi to disco and P.A., for instrument amplification, there is an I.L.P. Bipolar to fill the bill, and as with our new Mosfets, we have encapsulated Bipolars within our New Profile extrusions with their computer-verified thermal efficiency and improved mounting shoulders. Connections are simple, via five pins on the underside and with our new pre-amps and power supply units, it becomes easier than ever to have a system layout housed the way you want it.

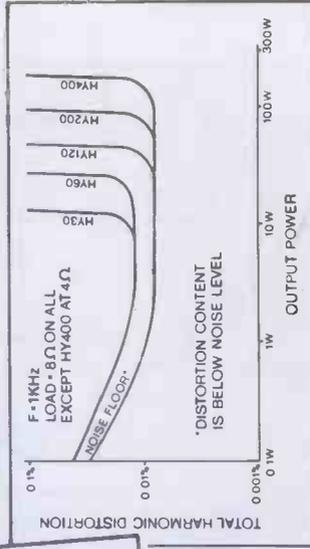
Model	Output Power RMS	Distortion Typical at 1kHz	Slew Rate	Rise Time	Signal/Noise Ratio DIN AUDIO	Price & VAT
HY30	15W into 4-8Ω	0.015%	15V/μs	5μs	100dB	£6.34 + 95p
HY60	30W into 4-8Ω	0.015%	15V/μs	5μs	100dB	£7.24 + £1.09
HY120	60W into 4-8Ω	0.01%	15V/μs	5μs	100dB	£15.20 + £2.28
HY200	120W into 4-8Ω	0.01%	15V/μs	5μs	100dB	£18.44 + £2.77
HY400	240W into 4Ω	0.01%	15V/μs	5μs	100dB	£27.68 + £4.15



**I.L.P. POWER AMPS ARE ENCAPSULATED FOR THERMAL STABILITY AND LONGER LIFE**



Load impedance both models 4Ω - ∞ Input sensitivity both models 100KΩ  
Frequency response both models 15Hz-100KHz - 3dB



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Input sensitivity all models 500mV Frequency response all models 15Hz-50KHz - 3dB

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# Monitor



## Philips-Simply Sears Ahead

YOU MAY WELL remember our major feature on video discs a couple of months ago. If you do then you may recall that at that time

Philips was referring to its system with the rather uninspiring title of VLP (video long play). Well, the powers that be at Philips have decided to re-name their product 'Laservision' which they hope will lead to a new market identity. The

worrying thing of course with the term laser is its unfortunate connection with the science fiction death ray. We just hope people will realise that the laser in the disc player is only a few milliwatts.

Still with Philips, they have also

announced that the Laservision will be one of the first video playback systems to have a deal with the good old BBC. You can imagine how much material the BBC must have just sitting about doing nothing!

## Recent Books

This month's selection concerns electronics and sound recording. Parr, E.A. 'Practical computer experiments' Bernard Babani (Publishing) Ltd., November 1980 (£1.75)

It is made clear from the outset that this book is *not* about the microprocessor (although it does have a small section on this beast). Instead it is about discrete logic circuits. Main divisions are Control circuits, Digital arithmetic and Computer architecture. Readers do not have to wade through deep discussions on computer theory: rather (in common with most books of this type) they are brought quickly to practical applications and simple circuits to build. Although some appreciation of electronics is required, the book provides a good introduction to the building blocks of computer systems.

Penfold R.A., 'Popular electronic circuits — book 1' Bernard Babani (Publishing) Ltd., November 1980 (£1.95)

Definitely a book for the enthusiast looking for more circuits to build or the person looking for a simple circuit to fit an application. A total of 73 are provided, covering general categories of audio,

radio, test gear, music and the household. Miscellaneous circuits include those for a touch switch, a sound-triggered flash and a rapid Ni-Cad charger.

One miscellaneous circuit of interest is for an 'LED pendant' — a novel way of introducing flashing LEDs to an item of jewellery.

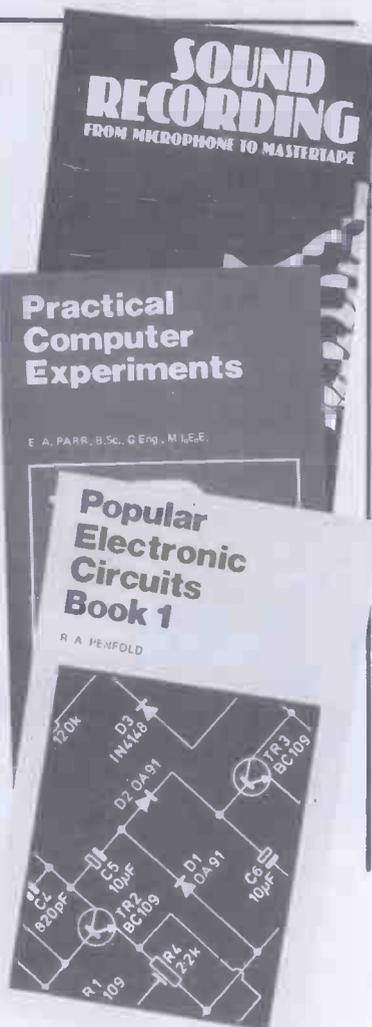
Back-up descriptions of the circuits are clear and concise in the well-accepted style of the author.

Tombs, D. 'Sound recording — from microphone to master tape' David & Charles, Newton Abbot, Devon, November 1980 (£7.95)

If you are about to launch into sound recording, or have just been disappointed with your results so far then this could be the book you've been waiting for. It gives a comprehensive coverage of microphones, recording machines, mono and stereo recording and techniques. The final chapter provides guidance on how to set up a recording studio in the home.

Definitely an easy-to-read book to have to hand for tips on how to solve specific recording problems, such as those encountered with drama and wildlife.

The author is a professional sound recordist who has worked with the BBC's Natural History Unit to pioneer techniques for stereo recordings of wildlife.



## Technical Queries

TIME FOR ANOTHER one of our reminders about technical enquiries. As you may well know by now we will answer any technical query you may have regarding a project that has been published in Hobby Electronics. We can answer your question in two ways. The first is by telephone on Tuesdays between 3.15 and 5.00 pm. The second method is by post, but, and here's the important part: we can only answer it if you enclose a stamped addressed envelope. We will only answer questions regarding projects that we have published: we cannot advise you on any modifications and unfortunately we cannot undertake to do any design work. Sorry if that sounds a little harsh but we really do have our work cut out producing the magazine each month. If you do send in a postal technical enquiry then please mark your envelope with the name of the project and the month that it appeared and please allow up to 28 days for a reply.



## Five Simple-to-build Kits

'You're about to start building an interesting and practical electronic kit'. Or at least that's what the instructions say in a new set of simple electronic kits from OK Machine & Tool U.K. Ltd.

Known as Electronic Hobby Assembly Kits, each one comes in a plastic box 3 3/4 by 4 1/2 by 1 1/2" (86 by 115 by 35 mm), and contains all the components (resistors, capacitors, transistors, etc) and accessories (wire, screws, terminals, etc). The plastic box is not wasted either: this doubles as a case for the kit.

HE was given samples of the first five to be launched in the UK:

- EK1 Quick Reaction (£5.80)
- EK2 Electronic Organ (£6.70)
- EK3 Digital Roulette (£8.80)
- EK4 Electronic Dice (£7.98)
- EK5 Morse Code Practice (£3.99)

These prices include post and packing.

We couldn't resist trying one out and opted for the Electronic Organ. Armed with a self-adjusting wirestripper, we went for the fastest assembly time (around 3/4 hour). The only extras we required were some solder and a 9 V battery. And yes — it worked first time, producing very loud tones picked out by a 'probe' over an eight-tone scale.

Despite translation from Japanese, the instructions were easy to follow, and contained passable descriptions

of the components used, and the electrical units ('The farad is a large amount of electricity' amused us). Also given was a list of components (including details of component markings), hints on soldering technique, step-by-step instructions and a 'Here's how it works' paragraph.

Construction was aided greatly by the clear printing on the pre-drilled PCB.

According to James Dornan, Marketing Manager of OK Machine & Tool UK Ltd., more projects of this type are due for release in the UK. The five mentioned above made their first public appearance at this year's Breadboard exhibition.

Kits EK1 to 5 are available from OK Machine & Tool Ltd., Dutton Lane, Eastleigh SO5 4AA.

## Do-it-yourself

### PCBs

A new range of 'pre-sensitised' PCBs called 'Fotoboards' is available from Marshall Electronics. The boards, designed by Fotomechanics, have a coating of photo-resist which is protected from light by a peel-off plastic sheet.

The printed-circuit pattern (mask) is reproduced on a sheet of clear plastic film by means of a transfer (such as a Hobbyprint), a tape master, photographic film or by other methods such as strip or scribing. With the backing sheet removed and the mask placed in close contact with the board, the exposed areas of photo-resist are flooded with ultraviolet light.

After exposure, the board is dunked in developer and washed in water: it is then ready for etching, washing and use.

Marshall is offering the following items:

- Fotoboards, in standard Eurocard sizes (for example, 100 by 220 mm: £1.95 single-sided and £2.05 double-sided)

- Kit for UV exposure unit for developing Fotoboards. Cost is £34.50., or £19.50 without box and glass screen

- Developer (1/2-litre) for £1.95 (this developer cannot be sent through the post)

- Drafting kit (grid, layout sheet and three plain sheets) for £1.80

- Reel of layout track (86p) and developing trays (£1 each)

According to Norman Mallett, Fotoboard's designer, it is important for constructors to learn how to make PCBs in a 'commercial way'.

'Fotoboard', he said, 'is for anybody who is interested in the electronic technology'.

The UV exposure kit comprises two UV lamps and the components to make a 12 VDC inverter to drive the lamps. It is possible to run the unit from two 6 V lantern-type batteries. Lamp life is claimed to be in excess of 1000 hours.

According to Mallett, developing time is about 4 to 5 minutes with this unit, but a UV sun-ray lamp could also be used, and would require an exposure time of about 10 minutes. Apparently, even sunlight can be used — but it takes about a day!

The need to warn users about the hazards of exposing the eyes to UV light was raised with Marshall, and assurances were received that the instructions supplied with the kit would contain such warnings.

## Winner of the Vero 4.30

The day — 27 November: the time — 4.30pm: the place — this year's Breadboard Show, London.

Here we have Mr. M. Clift, of Halesowen, West Midlands, being presented with first prize in Vero's draw of the day by Brian Gay, Sales Director of Vero Electronics.

Hugh Davies, HE's Editor, who was invited to draw the winning ticket, is seen standing on the right of Mr. Clift.

The prize, a Verowrap Hobby wirewrap tool kit (worth £39.50 + VAT) should be useful to Mr. Clift, who is a radio amateur (callsign G3VDM).

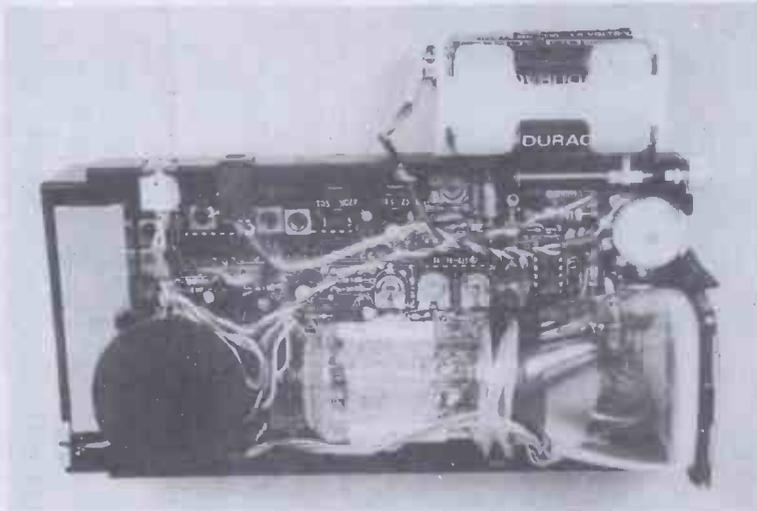
See page 10 for report on this year's exhibition.



XT MONTH. NEXT MONTH. NEXT MONTH. NEXT MONTH. NEXT MONTH.

ON SALE FEBRUARY 13th

# Hobby Electronics



## Beginnings Of Real TV

How did modern TV, something we tend to take for granted these days, originate? Did it have a single inventor? Many of you will not be aware that some of the research work behind TV dates back to 1817! For an explanation of how electrons took over from the 'wheels' used in the very early receivers you'll have to wait until the coming issue.

## PA Amplifier

If you're planning a Spring fête or an outside gathering this year then you'll no doubt need a public address amplifier (or a very loud mouth) to speak to the millions. Look no further — with this project all you need is a car battery strapped on your back (or mounted on a skate board) and people will hear you for miles.

## Photo Timer

You are in the darkroom (or bathroom, loo, or wherever else you do your developing) and you need to count developing or exposure time — in the dark. The luminous second hand has fallen off your timepiece, so how do you do it? The answer is to use this simple-to-build project from HE.

## Trainsound Project

This is the third and final project in this series for the model train enthusiast. (There *must* be more than *one* reading this!) But, as in last month's issue, we're keeping quiet about what it is. (Yes, we *do* know what it is!)

Items mentioned here are those planned, but unforeseen circumstances may affect the actual contents.



## Fuzz Box

This is a project which is guaranteed to ruin the sound from your electric guitar. (Mind you, some people *love* fuzzed music.) So if you want distortion — produced in a novel way — then build this one.

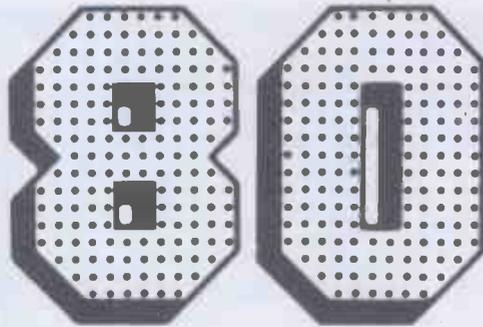
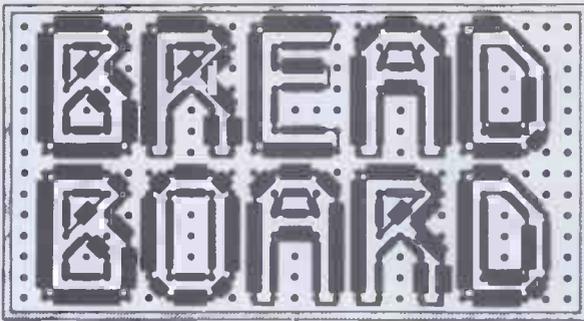
## Bike Speedo

Ever been pacing your 10-speed Tour-de-France ultra-lightweight bicycle with, say, a Jaguar XJS and been annoyed that you can't read the Jag's speedo? With this project this problem is a thing of the past: it gives you a digital display of MPH, and is robust into the bargain.

## Wiper Control

Does this electronic wiper control arrange for the *inside* of the windscreen to be wiped? Unfortunately it doesn't but it does offer some wiping options that you won't find as standard on some up-market cars.





## Were you at Breadboard 80? Hugh Davies gives a quick pictorial round-up of November's exhibition for the hobbyist

Overwhelming isn't too strong a word to use about the 1980 Breadboard exhibition — at least that's how it felt for us. It was held, as in the previous year, at the Royal Horticultural Halls, London, SW1.

Total attendance was in excess of 17,000, with around 2500 crowding the stands on the first day, Wednesday 26 November. The peak of the five-day event was, of course, on Saturday, with an estimated 5500 visitors. Even Sunday wasn't a day of rest for our exhibitors!

One thing was certain — with so

many people the corridors between the stands were rather crowded, as many of you must have experienced. We plan to widen the corridors in this year's exhibition.

Business was brisk on most stands, and the Modmags stand was no exception. Despite the din of synthesisers, rhythm generators and numerous other electronic gadgets it was good to meet and talk to so many of our readers. Some of the suggestions that we received from you face-to-face will help us to shape up future issues: thanks to all those who made their views known.

We hope that the pictures below help to capture a little of the atmosphere of Breadboard. One of its main aims is to bring electronics — as a hobby — to more people. Judging by the response there is no doubt that it achieved that aim in 1980.



1 Breadboard: a time to look, ask, listen . . . and buy. Visitors had the opportunity to see some of the latest products and to take advantage of the many special offers



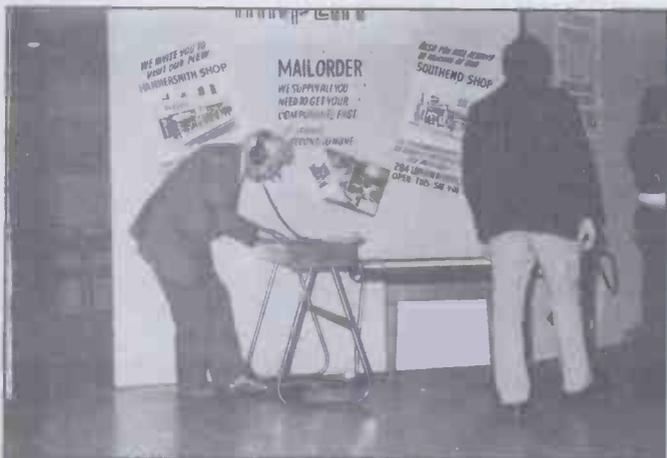
2 A view down one of the corridors between the stands (see comments above)



3 An indication of the many different electronic games on sale. Incidentally, the notice in the foreground reads: 'Faulty Stereo's . . . Radio/Cass £20.00 ea'. Wonder how faulty?



4 It's amazing how some exhibitors can remain so calm under battle conditions! Stands like this one with trays containing hundreds of small items proved to be big attractions.



5 A multitude of electronic musical instruments were on show and visitors had the chance to try them out for themselves. This portable organ on one of Maplin's stands appeared to have solved the problem of background noise



6 If portability wasn't your style then you could have visited the Heath stand. This organ deserves more than a pair of headphones



7 Just to prove that Breadboard wasn't a male domain, here's a lady on the left trying to catch the attention of one of the exhibitors. On reflection, though, well over 95% of those attending the exhibition were male — so it's time more women became turned on to electronics



8 Right in the thick of it on the Modmags stand, the line up behind the counter is Peter Green (Assistant Editor, Electronics Today International), Jim Connell (Managing Director), Hugh Davies and Tina Boylan (Editorial Assistant)



9 'Big ones, small ones, some as big as yer 'ead' according to the old song, and that was certainly true of the many different types of antenna on display. One of our exhibitors came to our stand with a tale of woe: his special CB antenna — the only one of its type in the country — appeared to have been stolen from his stand. He told us later that one of his staff had sold it by mistake



10 Near the end of the day, when the crowds subsided a little, this inflatable robot would go out on patrol from the Wintjoy stand. The fellow in the background appears to be in control

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61 built-in functions, including: Integrals (Simpson's rule). Linear regression, logarithmic regression, exponential regression and power regression.

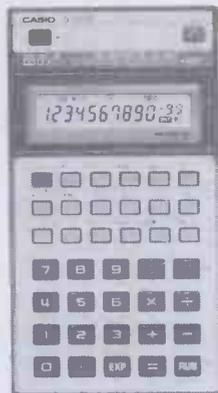
Hyperbolics, sexagesimal and co-ordinates conversions. 10 digit mantissa or 10+2 exponent. Two silver oxide batteries give approximately 1,000 hours continuous use with power-saving automatic cut-off, with data and memory protection.

Dims: 9/32 x 2 1/4 x 5/4 inches. Supplied with leatherette wallet.

**ALL THIS FOR ONLY £22.95**

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Our best selling scientific

46 scientific functions, clock, calendar, alarm, countdown alarm, interval alarm timer, 1/100 second stopwatch with lap timing.

Clock. Hours, minutes, seconds, am/pm.

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Countdown alarm. Can be set up to 10 hours, or,

Interval alarm timer up to 10 hours, or,

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Calculator. 8 digits or 8+2. 5 level parentheses, full access memory. Trigs, logs, hyperbolics, standard deviations, co-ordinates and sexagesimal conversions, fractions, %, cube roots, pi, sign change, register exchange, etc.

Two silver oxide batteries last approx. 1 year (continuous). Dims: 1/4 x 2 3/4 x 5 1/2 inches. Leatherette wallet.

**ONLY £24.95.** (RRP £27.95)

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**£19.95**

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**FREE!**

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Also a very useful melody calculator that plays "When The Saints Go Marching In." Full memory, %, auto power off facility. 1/2 x 2 1/4 x 4 1/2 in. MG-880.

MG-770. Credit card version of above

5/32 x 3 1/2 x 2 1/2 in. Kiss keys

**£10.95**

**£12.95**

## CASIOTONE KEYBOARDS

NEW MODEL. CT-301

Provisional specifications: As CT201 below but with 14 instruments and 16 rhythm voices.

**Provisional price; under £300**

The revolutionary CT-201

**ONLY £245 (rrp £285)**

A remarkable new concept in electronic keyboard Instruments using a totally new technology. Pitch, timbre and harmonics of 29 instruments have been measured, digitalised and stored in electronic chip memory for faithful reproduction. A 4-sound memory function allows switching between any 4 pre-selected instruments.

This polyphonic instrument can play full chords of up to 8 notes on its 29 white and 20 black keys spanning 4 octaves. Vibrato and tone switches. Foot volume and sustain pedal options. Echo jacks. 3x3 1/2 x 9 1/2 inches. Weight 15lb. Black or woodgrain finish. AC only.



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Our best selling watch

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Alarm. For 30 seconds with carousel display. Countdown Alarm. Normal and net times to 1 hour with amazing "Star Burst" flashing display. Time Signal. Half-hourly and hourly chimes. Tone control. Lithium battery. Light. Water-resistant case. 8.65mm thick. Mineral glass.

**AA81 Chrome plated £29.95**

**AA81G Gold plated £49.95**

**AA82 Stainless Steel £39.95**

**AA83 Dress watch, s/s £44.95**



AA81  
Analogue  
Display

AA82  
Digital  
Display

### 12 MELODY ALARM CHRONOGRAPHS

Countdown alarm  
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Hours, minutes, seconds, am/pm, 12 or 24 hour. Day, date and month auto calendar.

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# Heartbeat Monitor



Is your heart pounding as you read this? Here's a project that enables you to measure its rate

IMAGINE — your heart rate directly on display. Our Heartbeat Monitor samples a signal corresponding to your pulse and transforms it into a meter display of beats per minute (BPM). In addition to the meter, a LED flashes each time a beat is received.

In this issue we describe the circuit and a simple method of sampling heart rate: you operate a small push-switch each time your heart beats. In a future issue we will describe a sensor which, when it is attached to the body, will enable heart-rate to be detected automatically.

## Construction

The PCB is only 2¾ by 2¼" (70 by 57 mm) and very compact so great care should be taken when building it up. Integrated circuit sockets are advised for all four ICs. Remember that IC3 and 4 are fairly expensive but because they are not CMOS types, no special handling precautions are necessary.

Construct the board as you would any PCB, resistors first followed by capacitors (none are polarised) and finally semiconductors (these *are* polarised, so check carefully that you have them the correct way round, as shown in the overlay in Fig.4).

For initial test purposes LED1 should be hard-wired straight onto the board. Connect the meter, checking its polarity and set RV1 to mid-position. Now, connect a push-button switch as shown in the overlay diagram. You are now ready for testing.

## Testing

Connect a new 9 V battery and turn on the unit — the meter needle should jump to the right and stay there. Push the button once a second (an ideal timing aid is a watch fitted with a secondhand). At this rate (ie 60 BPM) the needle of the meter should settle at about ½ scale. Adjust preset RV1 clockwise or anti-clockwise until this is so. (Confirmation of pulse rate is also

provided by LED1).

Now, double the rate at which you press the button to twice a second (120 BPM) and the needle should now move up to about ¾ scale. If so, all is well.

## Calibration

The above method of testing is suitable for rough calibration of the monitor, and is fine for most applications. However, if you require a more exact calibration you will need a calibrated signal generator set at various frequencies:

Sig. Gen. setting (Hz)	Meter Calibration (BPM)
0.8	48
1	60
1.2	72
1.5	90
2	120
3	180

Table 1. Spot frequencies and equivalent beats per minute for calibrating meter against signal generator.



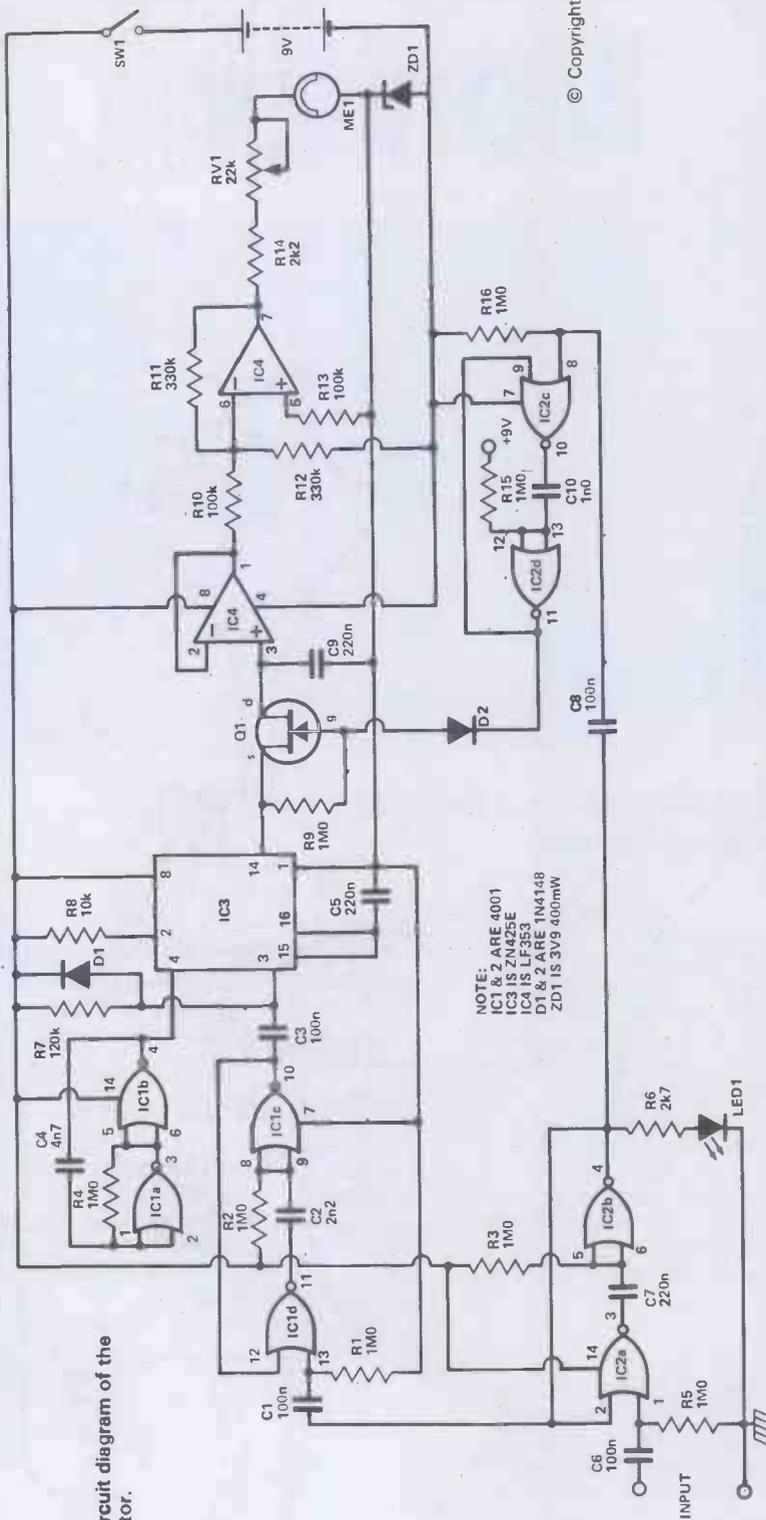


Figure 1. The circuit diagram of the Heartbeat Monitor.

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## How It Works

and the output of the counter will be the number 200, in binary. This is converted by the DAC to an analogue voltage and is displayed on the meter.

To produce a continuous display on the meter certain things have to be taken into account.

- The counter in the above sequence was stopped by the pulse of the second heartbeat, but to obtain a reading over more than just one beat, this second heartbeat must also reset and restart the counter ready for the next beat. Control circuits need to be included for this task.
- As the counter counts the number of squarewave pulses, the binary output will be constantly changing. This would produce a constantly changing meter reading.

There are a number of problems associated with electronic measurement of heart-rate, the main being the slow nature of beats; ie only once or twice per second. For a quick display of heart-rate we cannot simply count the number of beats over, say a minute — this is the standard way of checking your own heart-rate by feeling your pulse.

The HE Heartbeat Monitor uses a different method to obtain a quick reading. Figure 3 shows the principal parts of the system: an oscillator producing a square wave with an approximate frequency of 200 Hz, a digital counter which counts the square wave and gives the counted output in binary code, a digital-to-analogue converter (DAC) which converts the digital binary output of the counter to an analogue (ie DC) voltage; and a meter to measure the DC voltage. The first heartbeat resets the counter to zero and then starts it. The second beat stops the counter, if the heart-rate is say, 60BPM, there will be one second between pulses and so 200 square waves will be counted

By sampling the output once per heartbeat and metering only that sampled voltage a continuous reading can be obtained — we use a circuit called a sample-and-hold for this function.

The overall block diagram of the circuit is shown in Fig.4. The counter and DAC are contained within one device, IC3, in the circuit diagram. The oscillator is formed by an astable multivibrator comprising IC1 a and b, R4, C4. The sample-and-hold circuit is built around Q1 and IC4a and the control circuits comprise three monostable multivibrators. The complete project works in the following manner:

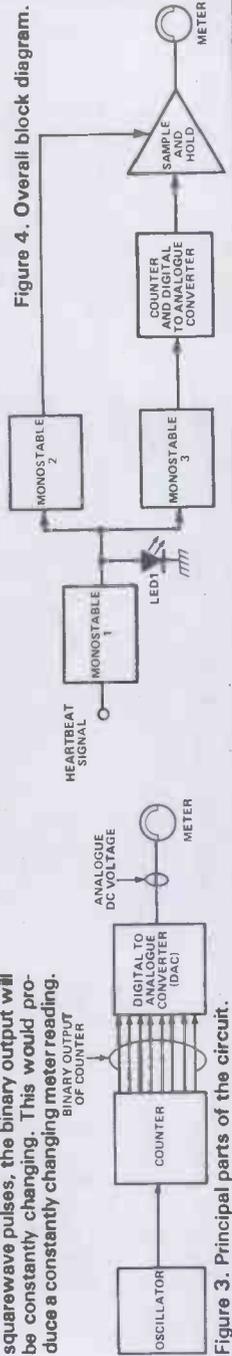


Figure 3. Principal parts of the circuit.

Figure 4. Overall block diagram.

An electrical signal corresponding to the heartbeat triggers Monostable 1 (IC2a and b) which illuminates LED1, to show its 'on' state. The on state of this multivibrator triggers both monostables 2 and 3. Monostable 2 (IC2c and d) triggers the sample-and hold, and Monostable 3 resets the counter to zero allowing it to start counting again. Every heartbeat signal repeats the operation, producing a reading which corresponds to the heart-rate.

The final stage of the circuit is a simple amplifier, IC4b, to drive the meter.

# Parts List

## RESISTORS (All 1/4 W, 5%)

- R1,2,3,4 1MΩ
- 5,9,15,16 2k7
- R6 120k
- R7 10k
- R8 100k
- R10,13 330k
- R11,12 2k2
- R14

## POTENTIOMETER

- RV1 22k miniature horizontal preset

## CAPACITORS

- C1,3,6,8 100n polyester
- C2 2n2 ceramic
- C4 4n7 ceramic
- C5 220n polycarbonate
- C7,9 220n polyester
- C10 1n0 ceramic

## SEMICONDUCTORS

- IC1,2 4001, quad NOR gate
- IC3 ZN425E, DAC
- IC4 LF353, dual JFET operational amplifier
- Q1 2N3819, N-channel FET
- D1,2 1N4148, diode
- ZD1 3V9, 400 mW zener diode
- LED1 0.125" green LED

## MISCELLANEOUS

- SW1 single-pole, single-throw toggle switch
- ME1 200 uA meter (see Buylines)
- IC sockets (2 x 14 pin, 1 x 16 pin, 1 x 8 pin)
- Push button switch
- Battery (type PP6) + clip

Suitable input test points for a generator are shown on the overlay. Mark the meter scale at the above rates and the project is complete.

By finding a strongly-defined pulse and pressing the push-button after every beat, the meter will show the corresponding heart-rate (in BPM) after a response of about three seconds. A suitable pulse can be found at either side of the neck in one of the two carotid arteries — by feeling the pulse with one hand and pressing the button with your other you should have success.

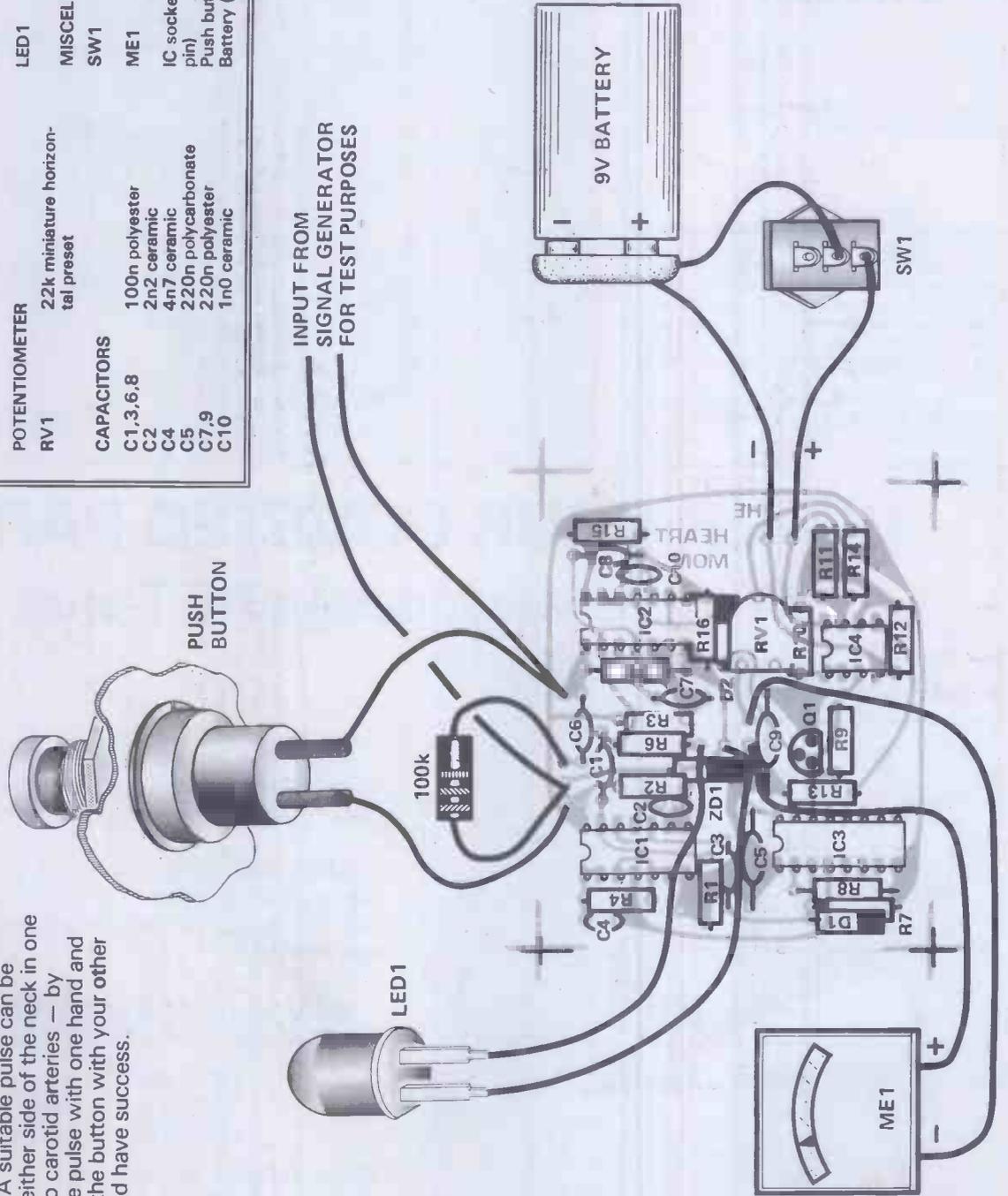
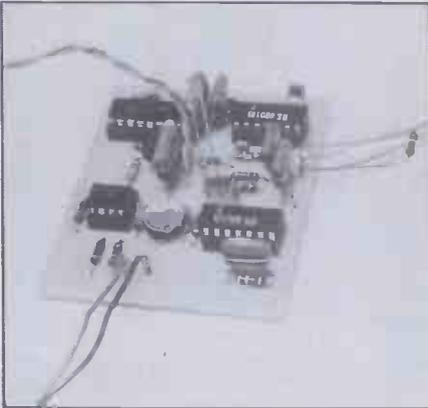


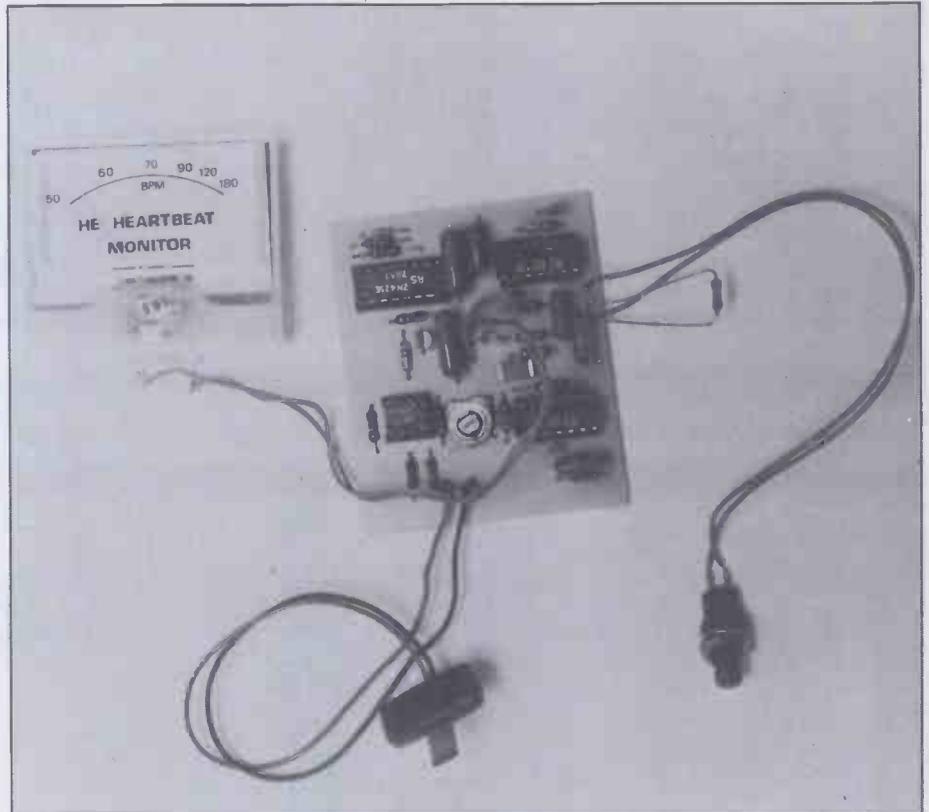
Figure 2. PCB overlay with connection details to calibrate the Monitor and use it. The resistor is not used for calibration.

## Important Note

The complete circuit of the Heartbeat Monitor operates from a single 9 V battery. We stress that the circuit must not be connected to a mains-operated supply. This warning is particularly important when the Monitor is to be used with a sensor attached to the body, as will be described in a future issue.



The Heartbeat Monitor board shown above and right with all connections.



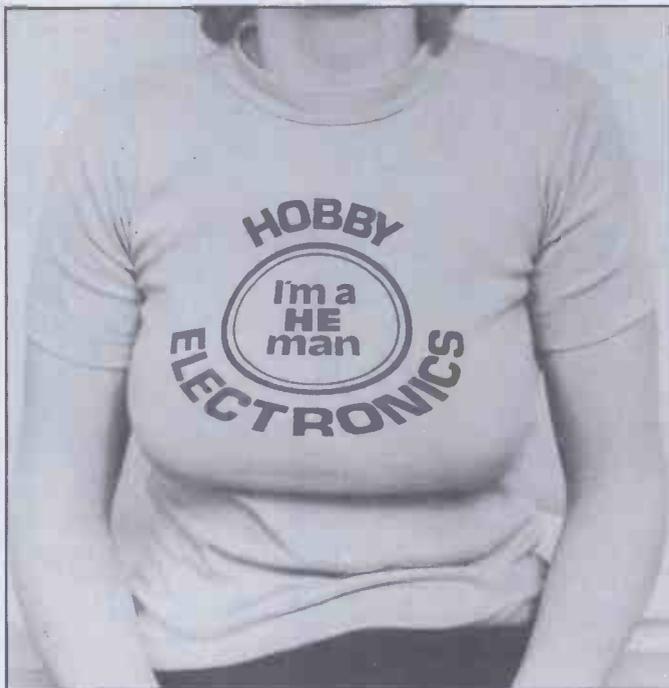
## Buylines

The meter we used in this project comes from **AMBIT INTERNATIONAL** and the type number is **920**. Integrated circuits **IC3** and **4** may not be easily obtainable from your local stockist but one or two of the mail order companies advertising in **HE** have them listed (eg Technomatic or Watford).

The approximate price of components (excluding PCB and case) will be £20.

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7405	18p	74390	200p
7406	36p	74393	200p
7407	36p	74490	225p
7408	17p	74502	100p
7409	19p	74500	100p
7410	15p	74502	16p
7411	24p	74503	18p
7412	20p	74504	16p
7413	30p	74505	25p
7414	17p	74508	22p
7414	20p	74509	21p
7416	27p	74510	20p
7417	27p	74511	40p
7420	17p	74513	40p
7421	40p	74514	50p
7422	22p	74520	20p
7423	34p	74521	40p
7425	30p	74527	38p
7426	40p	74530	20p
7427	34p	74532	27p
7428	36p	74533	30p
7429	17p	74538	38p
7432	30p	74542	70p
7433	40p	74547	75p
7437	35p	74551	24p
7438	35p	74555	30p
7440	17p	74573	50p
7441	70p	74574	27p
7442A	60p	74575	36p
7443	112p	74576	45p
7444	112p	74583	70p
7445	100p	74585	80p
7446A	95p	74586	40p
7447A	75p	74590	40p
7448	80p	74592	70p
7450	17p	74593	60p
7451	17p	74596	110p
7453	17p	745107	45p
7454	17p	745109	80p
7460	36p	745112	80p
7470	36p	745113	90p
7472	30p	745114	45p
7473	34p	745122	80p
7474	30p	745123	60p
7475	36p	745124	180p
7476	32p	745125	40p
7480	50p	745126	50p
7481	100p	745132	60p
7482	84p	745133	30p
7483a	90p	745136	55p
7484	100p	745138	65p
7485	110p	745139	65p
7486	34p	745145	20p
7489	210p	745147	220p
7490A	30p	745148	175p
7491	80p	745151	80p
7492A	46p	745153	60p
7493A	36p	745154	20p
7494	84p	745155	80p
7495A	70p	745156	90p
7496	65p	745157	60p
7497	180p	745158	60p
74100	130p	745160	90p
74107	34p	745162	40p
74109	55p	745162	140p
74116	200p	745163	100p
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74119	210p	745165	140p
74120	110p	745166	180p
74121	34p	745167	40p
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74132	75p	745192	100p
74136	75p	745193	100p
74137	50p	745195	140p
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74142	200p	745197	90p
74145	90p	745221	20p
74147	190p	745240	175p
74148	150p	745241	175p
74150	130p	745242	170p
74151A	70p	745243	170p
74153	70p	745244	150p
74154	120p	745245	250p
74155	90p	745247	45p
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74163	100p	745273	170p
74164	120p	745279	90p
74165	130p	745283	90p
74166	120p	745298	160p
74167	200p	745301	100p
74170	240p	745324	200p
74172	450p	745348	200p
74173	120p	745365	48p
74174	90p	745367	70p
74175	85p	745368	100p
74176	90p	745373	150p
74177	90p	745374	150p
74178	160p	745375	120p
74180	93p	745377	160p
74181	160p	745378	140p
74182	90p	745390	100p
74184A	150p	745393	120p
74185	150p	745399	200p
74186	500p	745445	140p
74188	325p	745670	400p
74190	120p	4000 SERIES	75182
74191	120p	4000 SERIES	75182
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74217	150p	4000 SERIES	75182
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74250	150p	4000 SERIES	75182

93 SERIES		74S SERIES	
9301	160p	74S00	60p
9302	175p	74S01	60p
9303	316p	74S02	60p
9310	275p	74S08	75p
9311	275p	74S10	60p
9312	160p	74S20	60p
9314	165p	74S30	60p
9316	225p	74S32	90p
9317	225p	74S37	90p
9322	150p	74S64	60p
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CA3180E	100p
CA3181E	140p
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CA3280	160p
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LM318	200p
LM319	225p
LM324	45p
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LM380AN	180p
LM388	95p
LM393	100p
LM399	36p
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FND507	110p
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BC149	9p
BC157/8	10p
BC159	11p
BC160C	12p
BC172	12p
BC177/8	12p
BC179	18p
BC182/3	10p
BC184	11p
BC21/2	11p
BC21/3	11p
BC214	12p
BC237	15p
BC327	16p
BC337	16p
BC338	16p
BC341	16p
BC461	36p
BC477/8	30p
BC516/7	40p
BC547/8	16p
BC549C	9p
BC549C	9p
BC557/8	16p
BC559	18p
BCV70	18p
BCV11/2	22p
BD131/2	50p
BD139	56p
BD140	60p
BD189	60p
BD232	95p
BD233	75p
BD235	85p
BD241	70p
BD242	70p
BDV56	200p
BF200	32p
BF244B	35p
BF256B	35p
BF257/8	32p

# The Oscilloscope

There's no substitute for 'looking inside' a circuit when you really want to know what's going on. The oscilloscope must surely be the most versatile electronic instrument ever invented. Les Bell and Roger Harrison take you on a guided tour, from how they work to what type to buy

ONE OF THE BIGGEST barriers people face when they take up electronics is cultivating the ability to visualise what is happening in a circuit. It is fairly easy to work out the DC conditions in a circuit, but electronic circuits are generally dynamic in nature; that is, the voltages and currents in a circuit change according to an applied signal or function of the particular circuit (as in amplifiers and oscillators, respectively).

The problem is, you can't see what's happening! The "good books" may tell you what happens *ideally*, but the real world is very often quite different.

What's needed is some kind of 'window' into the circuit, to enable you to 'see' what's happening, to get that intuitive 'feel' which will make understanding that much easier. The window is, of course, the oscilloscope. Without it, the circuit designer may very well be 'blinded'.

## Oscilloscope Basics

The heart of a Cathode Ray Oscilloscope (CRO) is the *cathode ray tube* (Fig. 1). It consists of an evacuated, tubular glass envelope, flared at one end. In the tubular portion, or the neck, is an "electron gun". This generates a narrow, focused beam of fast-moving electrons which are directed towards the flared end, past a set of parallel plates (the deflection plates), the large end of the tube being covered in a special coating (on the *inside*) called the 'phosphor'. When the electrons strike the phosphor, it emits light ('fluoresces') and you see a spot. Spot deflection is achieved by varying the electrostatic field between the deflection plates. Some CRTs use electromagnetic coils around the neck of the tube for spot deflection (TV tubes for example!)

The electron gun contains a *heated cathode* (K) which 'boils' off electrons. These are attracted to an *anode* (A<sub>1</sub>)

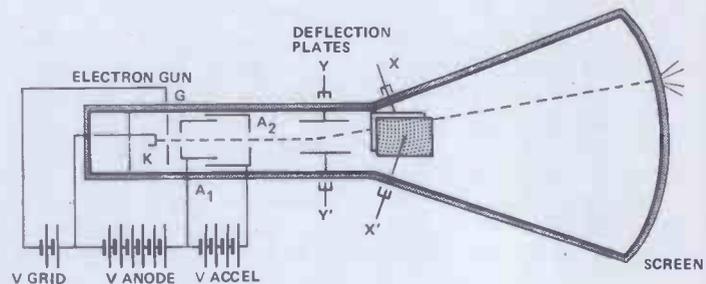


Figure 1. The internal structure of a typical cathode ray tube.

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which is very much more positive than the cathode, at least several thousand volts. As they accelerate towards the anode, the electrons pass through a *control grid* (G), which is a cap of metal around the cathode and somewhat negative with respect to it. This electrode is used to control the brightness of the spot. If the negative potential on G (with respect to K) is increased, fewer electrons will pass and the spot brightness will decrease, and vice-versa.

Between the control grid and the focusing grid there may be a second grid, the *screen grid*, which is usually around 300 V positive. Following the *focusing anode* (A<sub>1</sub>) there is usually a *second anode* (A<sub>2</sub>). Voltage on the final anode is very high — usually several thousand kV. Alternatively, between the control grid and the second anode, there may be an *Accelerator* electrode (sometimes called a 'pre-accelerator') at the full final anode voltage. This arrangement constitutes a focusing scheme called an 'einzel lens'. Varying the potential between K and A<sub>1</sub> will vary the spot size. This is used to focus the spot.

The result of all this accelerating and focusing is a well-focused, high energy beam of electrons travelling straight down the centre of the tube. To deflect the electron beam and create a display,

a pair of electrostatic deflection plates are provided for each axis (X and Y). An electric field will deflect the electron beam, providing spot movement over the face of the tube.

The electron beam passes between the plates in order to be deflected, but after the first set of plates the beam can be anywhere in quite a large area. This means the second set of plates must be larger, with an associated increase in capacitance. Usually, the vertical deflection plates come first, since the Y channels require greater bandwidth, while the X channel or timebase requires a lower bandwidth.

Following the deflection electrodes, many electrostatic CRTs have a *post-deflection accelerator* which usually takes the form of a graphite spiral around the envelope funnel between the neck and the face of the tube.

## Tube Types

Electrostatic deflection types are commonly employed in measuring instruments as they offer much greater bandwidth operation than magnetic deflection tubes which are principally limited by yoke inductance. On the other hand, electrostatic deflection tubes are limited to beam deflection angles less than 20° off axis while electromagnetic systems can achieve a

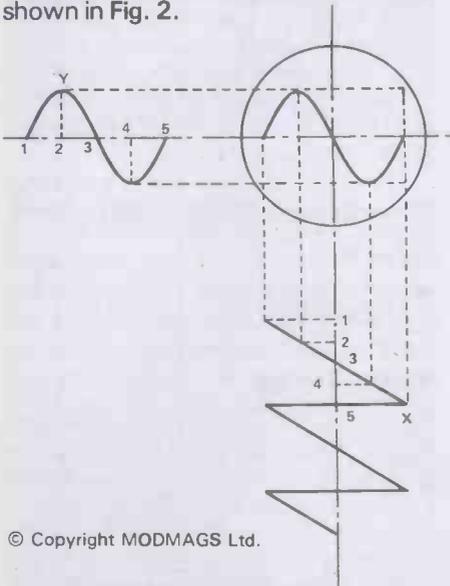
maximum deflection of  $\pm 55^\circ$ . This is why oscilloscope tubes (electrostatic types) are so much slimmer than TV tubes (which use magnetic deflection) of similar length.

Some demonstration and teaching oscilloscopes use standard TV tubes with magnetic deflection. Whilst the display is much larger than a standard oscilloscope, the bandwidth limitations allow them to display only signals generally less than 100 kHz. Oscilloscopes using electrostatic CR tubes may have bandwidths of 10 MHz commonly, and up to 100 MHz without using special techniques.

The general purpose of an oscilloscope is to examine voltages (or sometimes currents) as they change with time. There are other modes of operation, but as this is the fundamental one, let's start with it.

In order to display a waveform that is varying with time, we must draw the 'spot' across the face of the tube, from left to right, return to the starting point and repeat. To do all this, the voltage impressed on the X deflection plates is increased at a linear rate with time, to draw the spot from left to right, then reduced to zero (or the starting voltage) suddenly to return the spot to the starting point, and so on. This establishes a 'time base' as the spot takes a known amount of time to travel from left to right across the screen.

At the same time, the waveform to be examined (suitably amplified) is applied to the Y direction plates. The spot will then trace out a graph of the waveform on the CR tube screen as shown in Fig. 2.



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Figure 2. Showing how the deflection waveforms applied to the X and Y plates of a cathode ray tube cause the electron beam spot to trace out a faithful replica of the Y-input waveform.

If the time taken for the spot to travel across the screen has a definite relationship to the frequency of the waveform being examined and if the start of the trace (at the left-hand side) is arranged to commence at some definite point on the waveform (ie synchronised), then a stable trace will result on the screen.

For example, say we wish to display two cycles of a 50 Hz mains voltage. The horizontal deflection, or timebase, would have to 'sweep' the spot from left to right in the length of time it takes to complete two cycles at 50 Hz — 40 mS. The timebase would make 25 sweeps per second: that is, it would be running at 25 Hz.

In a practical oscilloscope, during the 'return' sweep of the X deflection (the 'flyback'), the electron beam of the CR tube is turned off, or 'blanked', so that it is not displayed — otherwise, the resultant squiggle would become confused with the desired display!

The signal applied to the X deflection plates of the CR tube is often referred to as the 'sweep' voltage, or just 'the sweep', although the term 'timebase' is generally more common.

Oscilloscope manufacturers include a 'graticule' on the screen of their instruments as a convenient reference, enabling quite accurate time and amplitude measurements to be made. The graticule may be a transparent plastic cover placed over the CR tube face, scored with grid lines at convenient intervals (generally 10 mm) or, as in the more expensive types, it may be scanned directly on the face of the CR tube during manufacture. The latter provides a more accurate reference than having a separate, external graticule.

The general form of most general-purpose oscilloscopes is shown in Fig. 3. As you can see, there are four basic components: the Cathode Ray Tube, the Vertical Circuits, the Horizontal Timebase Circuits and the Power Supplies.

## The Timebase and X Amp

So that waveforms of widely varying frequencies can be displayed, the timebase must be variable over a very wide frequency range. Accordingly, oscilloscopes are made with the timebase 'range' switched at convenient increments. The actual ranges included on an instrument depend on the applications for which it is intended, but typically the minimum sweep rate may be 20 s for a full sweep (generally 2 s/division) ranging up to a maximum of 1 us for a full sweep (0.1 us/division).

The range steps generally go in intervals of 5, 2, 1. A vernier control is always provided so that a display may be varied for some convenient purpose.

The timebase generator provides a 'sawtooth' waveform (that's what it resembles) for the X deflection. This is amplified and applied to the X plates of the CRT. The 'width' of the timebase deflection on the CRT depends on the amplitude of the sweep waveform. Thus a *width* control may be provided by having a potentiometer to control the gain of the X amp. A DC voltage or bias applied to the X plates will determine the horizontal *position* of the trace on the CRT face. Thus, a potentiometer to vary the DC bias on the X plates is provided as a *horizontal position* control.

So that the timebase generator may be synchronised to the waveform being examined (to provide a stable trace as explained previously), a 'trigger' circuit is included. The timebase may be triggered internally by sampling some of the signal going to the Y deflection plates or from an external signal. This is very convenient in particular applications which are explained later.

For some particular applications (phase measurement, frequency comparison) a sawtooth sweep is undesirable for X deflection, so that direct access to the X amp is required. For this purpose the input of the X amp can be switched to a front panel socket generally marked *horizontal input* or an abbreviation of the same.

## The Vertical Or Y Amp

The signals one may wish to examine might range from microvolts to hundreds of volts! The lower level signals will require amplification (as the deflection voltages required may be tens of hundreds of volts), the higher level signals will require attenuation. Accordingly, a *sensitivity* switch is provided ahead of a high gain, low distortion amplifier — the Y amplifier.

The most sensitive range of common oscilloscopes is typically 5 mV to 10 mV per centimetre (one graticule division). More expensive types may have a maximum sensitivity as high as 10 uV/cm. The insensitive end of the range will generally be around 50 V/cm for run-of-the-mill CROs but special instruments (eg: those used for electrical supply applications) provide for levels as much as ten times higher. As with the timebase range control, sensitivity steps are generally 5, 2, 1 intervals. A *vernier* sensitivity control is provided for convenience.

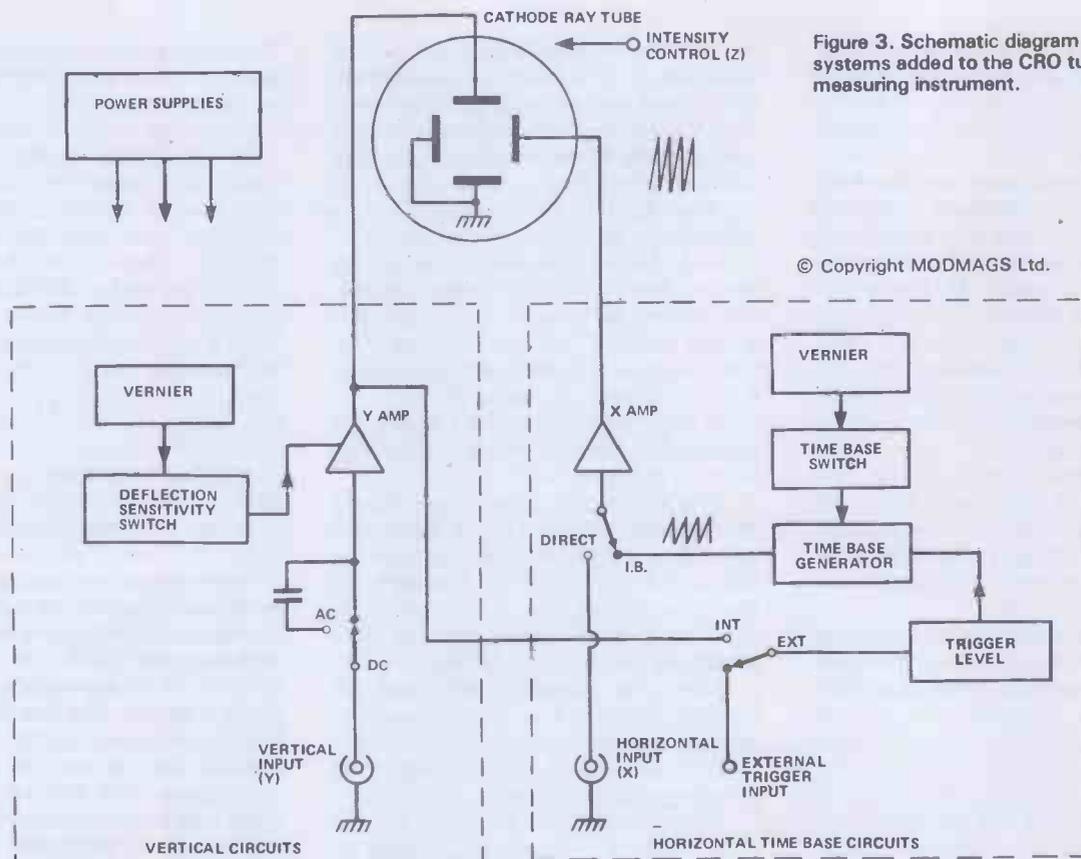


Figure 3. Schematic diagram of essential sub-systems added to the CRO tube to make it a measuring instrument.

The bandwidth of the Y amp is an important factor in the selection and application of an oscilloscope. A general purpose instrument may have a bandwidth extending from DC to 10 MHz or 15 MHz. Inexpensive units may only extend to 3 MHz. Magnetic deflection units (generally for demonstration or teaching applications) may only reach 20-50 kHz, few struggle as high as 100 kHz. High quality instruments (££££!) may have bandwidths as great as 350 MHz. Special instruments, using 'sampling' techniques, may reach 1 GHz (1000 MHz!).

To examine AC waveforms superimposed on a DC voltage, the Y amp must be AC-coupled. Accordingly, a switch is provided that inserts a capacitor in series with the input.

The range of input sensitivity may be extended by the use of *probes* which can provide such facilities as very high voltage attenuation and increased input impedance.

The *vertical position* of the trace is determined by a DC bias applied to the Y plates of the CRT, in the same manner as for the X plates.

### The Z Input

If 'Y' represents the vertical axis and 'X' represents the horizontal (time) axis, then what on earth is the 'Z' axis?

The only thing left to vary on a CRT display, after moving the spot vertically and horizontally, is the intensity of the spot. Accordingly, most CROs will include a Z input. In general this allow for *blanking* and *brightening* of the display or for making particular types of measurements.

That completes the description of your 'basic' oscilloscope.

### Dual-Trace Operation

It is often helpful to be able to display two waveforms at the same time — for example, to measure the phase change on a signal passing through an amplifier stage. This can be achieved in two different ways.

One can simply build two completely separate guns and two sets of deflection plates into a single CRT envelope. These dual-beam CRTs are complex and expensive, and they require two completely separate sets of drive amplifiers — more expense.

The alternative used in most modern dual-beam scopes is 'dual-trace' operation in which a single-beam tube is used to display two traces by switching between them. Two methods of beam-switching are used; one can either switch between traces at the end of each sweep, which is suitable for high-frequency waveforms, or at lower fre-

quencies one can switch alternately between the waveforms as the sweep progresses across the display. The first method is called *alternate trace*, the second is *chopped trace* operation.

These basic principles apply to all oscilloscopes, except some types which are intended for specialised applications. Of course, oscilloscopes are more complex than this in practice. Perhaps the best way to see some of the more sophisticated facilities is through the controls on the front panel of an oscilloscope of medium complexity.

### Choosing (Not Using) A Scope

There comes a time in every young man's life when he can't figure out what on earth the circuit's doing, so he decides to buy an oscilloscope. Of course everyone has different requirements — digital circuitry, RF, high fidelity, process control, computer equipment — these applications all have widely varying characteristics — so what should one look for when evaluating the performance of a CRO?

The most obvious consideration is bandwidth. The bandwidth of a general purpose oscilloscope is the frequency at which the total gain of the

oscilloscope is 3 dB down on its mid-band performance. There are several limitations on the bandwidth of an oscilloscope, ranging from the bandwidth of the amplifier stages themselves to the time which the electron beam takes to pass between the deflection plates and the amount of energy required to make the phosphor glow. For example, if the input waveform goes through a complete cycle during the time that an electron is passing between the plates, then the deflections will average out, giving a net deflection of zero!

In the DC mode, there is no problem with low frequencies right down to DC, particularly when using long-persistence phosphors. The bandwidth figure given in specifications is therefore the upper frequency limit of the scope.

Closely related to bandwidth is the risetime of the scope. This is the time taken for an input square (really square)

wave edge to go from 10% to 90% of its value on the screen. Unfortunately, on high performance CROs, this is well nigh impossible to measure. It is usually calculated from the bandwidth instead, using the formula:

$$\tau = 0.35/BW$$

The vertical amplifier system of a scope should ideally have a risetime five or more times faster than the risetime of the fastest signal it is intended to examine. In this case risetimes measured on the scope will have less than 2% error.

It is generally important to get the highest bandwidth and fastest risetime your money will allow. When examining a square wave signal, for example, Fourier analysis tells us that the square wave is actually composed of a series of harmonics of the fundamental frequency.

If the vertical amplifier and tube of a scope lop off the fifth and higher harmonics, the square wave will be

noticeably rounded. In this case, risetime measurements will be virtually meaningless.

Glitches in digital circuitry will virtually disappear on the narrow bandwidth CRO rendering it almost useless for digital troubleshooting. Thus, although you may be working with quite slow logic, a high speed scope is still very useful. For a typical hobbyist, with no specific requirements or interests, a 15 MHz oscilloscope would probably be ideal.

## Probes

A point to watch for, particularly with high frequency scopes is the selection of suitable probes. The capacitance of the probe leads can severely limit the bandwidth of an instrument so it is essential to use the appropriate probes.

Most oscilloscopes have an input resistance of 1M $\Omega$  and x1 probes will give this resistance at the probe tip plus a capacitance which is in parallel with the scope input capacitance (usually around 20-30pF). For higher input resistance, x10 probes are available. They include a 9M $\Omega$  resistor, thus raising the input resistance to 10M $\Omega$ .

Probes require compensation for capacitance effects which limit their bandwidth. For very wide bandwidth operation, complex compensation networks may be used. Typical probe circuits are illustrated in Fig. 4.

## Sensitivity and Accuracy

The sensitivity of an oscilloscope is usually expressed in mV/cm or mV/div, and in general, a higher sensitivity scope is more useful than an insensitive one.

Accuracy, in the absolute sense, is probably less important than with other pieces of test equipment, as an oscilloscope is generally used for qualitative analysis. Most oscilloscopes have an accuracy of  $\pm 5\%$ , but as one moves into a laboratory, as opposed to service/general purpose machines,  $\pm 3\%$  accuracy is more common. It is tempting to suppose that by buying a more accurate oscilloscope, one could save money on other test equipment, but this is not the case. Modern digital test equipment is now quite cheap, while accurate oscilloscopes are not, even leaving aside the inconvenience of making measurements by counting divisions on the graticule.

## Other Facilities

In deciding on an oscilloscope, several other factors ought to be taken into consideration. The obvious question is:

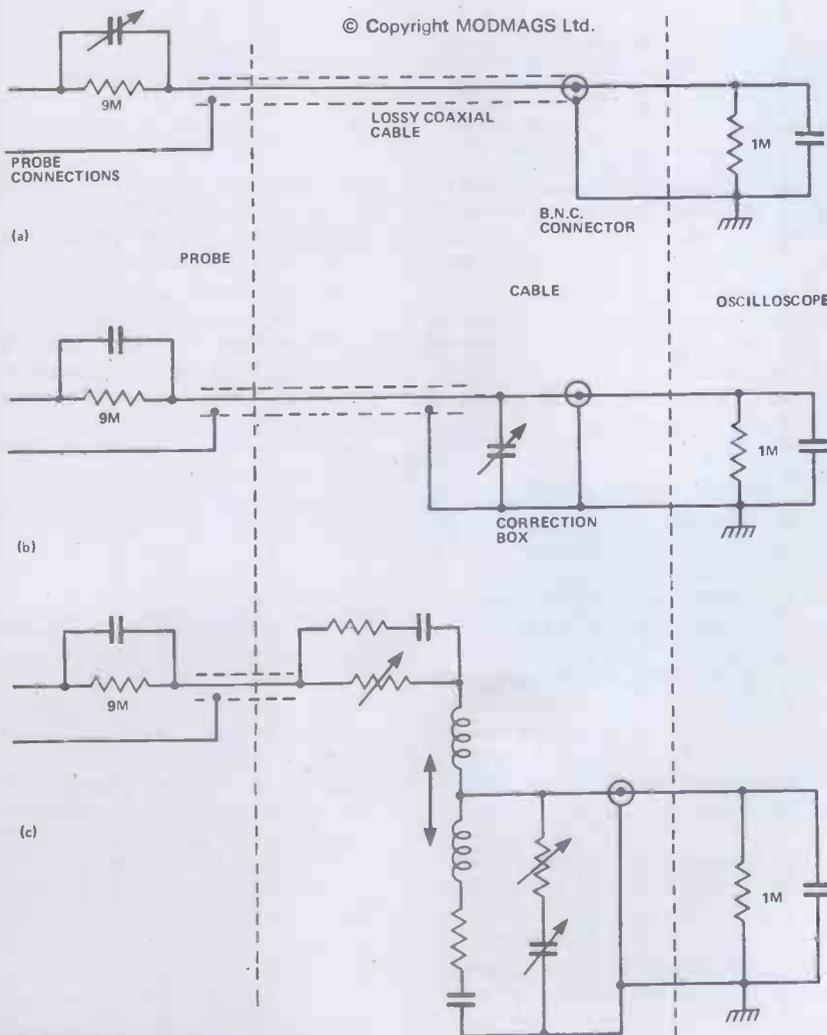


Figure 4. Schematic of attenuator probes (a) simplest concept (b) capacitive loading to extend bandwidth (c) inductive.

# The Oscilloscope

will I need a dual-trace scope? There is very little to be said about this choice; you pay your money (as much as you can afford) and you take your choice. Single-trace scopes are becoming quite rare beasts, in fact, as the dual-trace types are considerably more versatile.

The triggering facilities of a prospective purchase should also be carefully examined. It's probably true to say that poor triggering on a scope can render it the greatest bugbear of the user's life — virtually useless, in fact.

Unfortunately, there is no universal way to specify the triggering performance of an oscilloscope. It is best to arrange a demonstration, either by the dealer or by an associate or friend who has used the oscilloscope in question. In any case, it is generally wise to ask around for other users' impressions when considering such a major purchase.

A useful facility on some oscilloscopes is the provision of two timebases with delayed sweep facility. In this mode of operation, for the first timebase, the delaying sweep is triggered by the trigger circuitry, and continues for selected delay time. When this time is reached, the second timebase takes over (usually at a higher speed), providing accurate resolution of an event which can occur some time after the trigger event.

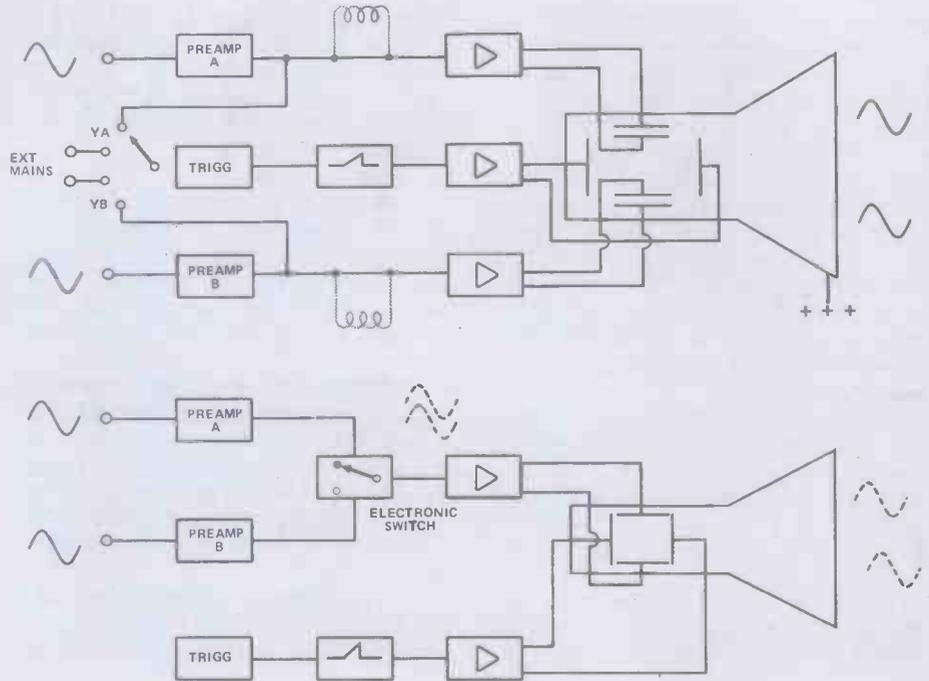
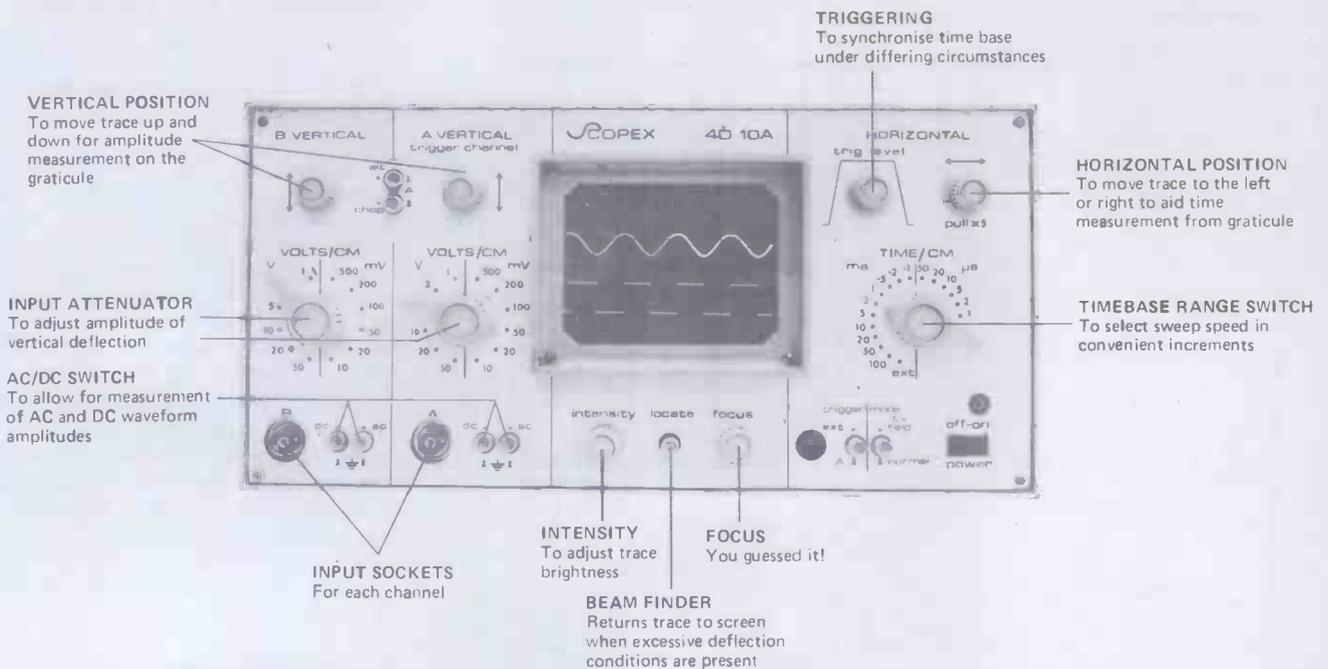


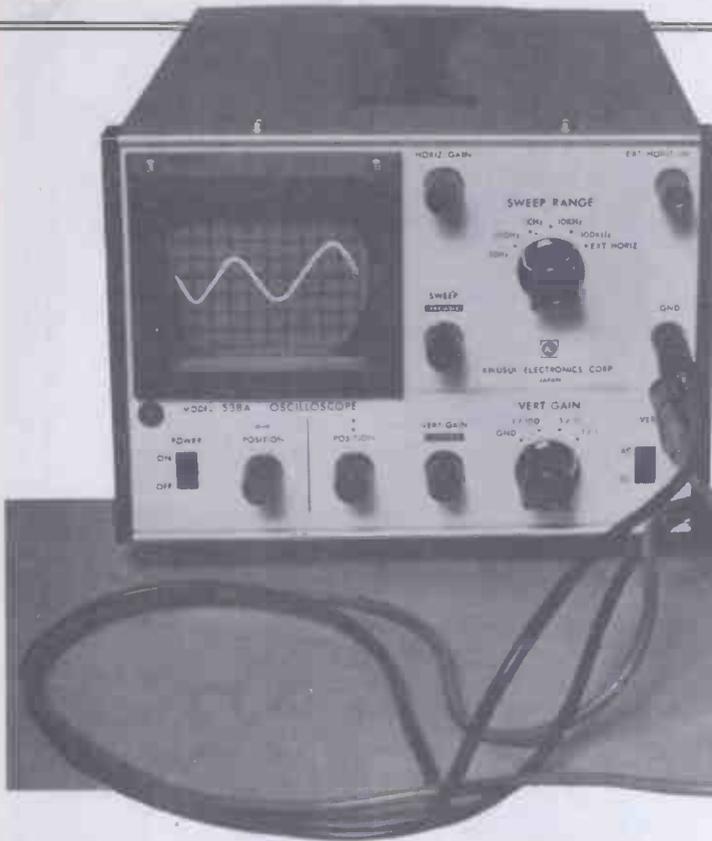
Figure 5. Dual-trace oscilloscopes can be implemented in two ways: using a dual beam cathode ray tube or using a single beam tube and electronic switching of the trace. The block diagram at the top is of a Philips model 3232 and is typical of dual-beam types. The block diagram at the bottom shows the electronic switching technique of obtaining dual-trace operation with a single beam cathode ray tube.

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A typical oscilloscope front panel layout, showing the positions of the major controls.

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**TRANSFORMERS.** All 240V DC primary (postage per transformer is shown in brackets after price). MINIATURE RANGE: 6-6V 100ma 9-0-9V 75ma. 12-0-12V 50ma all 79p each (15p). 12V 200ma 75p (15p). 0-6-0-5 200ma E1.20 (20p). 6V 500ma E1.10 (22p). 12V 2A E2.35 (45p). 12-0-12 2A E2.75 (60p). 15-0-15V 1A E2.25 (45p). 30-0-30V 1A E2.85 (54p). 20-0-20V 2A E3.65 (65p). 0-12-12-20-30V 2A (4.75) (54p).

**TRIAC XENON PULSE TRANSFORMERS.** 11 (GPO style) 32p. 11plus 1 sub. mm pcb mounting 65p.

**PROJECT BOXES.** Sturdy ABS black plastic boxes with brass inserts and lid. 75x56x35mm 65p. 95x7x35mm 75p. 115x9x37mm 87p.

**VERO HAND HELD BOX.** White ABS, 24h x 3.7 in tapered, with screws 65p each.

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**KRT101 M/METER.** 1,000 opv. 1KV AC/DC Volts. 150ma DC current, Resistance 0-100K. 0-100K. E4.35.

**NM55 M/METER.** 2,000 opv. 1KV AC/DC Volts. 100ma DC. Resistance 0-10K. 0-1 MEG. E5.50.

**YN360 M/METER.** 20,000 opv., 1KV AC/DC Volts. 250ma DC. 4 resistance ranges to 20 Meg. also has built-in transistor tester with leakage and gain ranges E12.50.

**HANDY BENCH VICE.** 1" jaw opening E2.95. 6" E4.95.

**MOTORISED ALARM BELLS.** 65ma. 8848 E7.95.

**AUDIO/VIDEO CAR STEREO CASSETTE PLAYERS.** 3 watts per channel output. Hi output amp. auto stop mechanism (approx) E12.50.

Terms. Cash with order (offer orders welcomed from colleges etc) 30p postage price unless otherwise shown. VAT inclusive prices. S.A.E. for illustrated lists.

## PROGRESSIVE RADIO

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 ALL ORDERS DESPATCHED BY RETURN POST

# Clever Dick



Potholers and nut cases, they're all here in this month's Clever Dick

WELCOME to the very first Clever Dick of 1981. May I take this opportunity (somewhat belatedly I fear) to wish you all the very best for the coming year and hope that you continue to keep your amazing letters coming.

So now, without more ado here's this year's first letter from W. Blackledge.

Dear CD,

*Despite being impressed by the possibilities of the HE Minisynth, as a musician I am concerned with its limitations.*

*Is it necessary to programme all 32 notes of the sequence? If this is the case, only time signatures which divide evenly into 32 (or certain added combinations) will be possible. This imposes a limit on tune structuring, 5/4 and 9/8 time signatures being impossible (for example).*

*Therefore, is there any way in which the sequence may be reset after a chosen number of notes have been played?*  
W. Blackledge  
Leeds

I think that possibly you have misunderstood the workings of the Minisynth. In the first place the memory facility can store up to 32 notes and spaces. You can of course make the sequence as long or as short as you need. The second point is that we never intended the Minisynth to be a serious musical instrument. Of course how it is ultimately used is up to the individual but to talk of its limitations is a little unfair. Remember this though, a semi-professional synthesiser will cost several hundred pounds. Ours, whilst nowhere near as complex as a commercial instrument costs under £30 to build yourself.

Still with the Minisynth we have another letter in the same vein, this time from C.L. Hutchinson.

Dear Clever Dick,

*After taking your mag from the start in November 1978, I have been waiting for a keyboard project in which the chords could be played, in-*

*stead of these one note at a time things that keep cropping up. If there isn't one in the near future, could you tell me where I can get hold of a project that was in your sister mag (ETI) in July 1979, called 'String Thing'.*

*Yours every month.*  
C.L. Hutchinson  
Rotherham

Firstly thanks for being a regular reader, you must be a man of taste. Your main point concerns our lacking of polyphonic musical instruments. There is a very good reason for this: in general it would be impossible for us to design one that would cost less to build than a commercially-available instrument. Our sister mag ETI does publish such designs, usually in conjunction with a manufacturer: the String Thing was a case in point. Backnumbers are sometimes available but it's always best to check by ringing the backnumbers department on 01-437 1002.

Our sister mag gets another free mention, this time from M. Broughton who has a problem.

Dear CD,

*A couple of weeks ago I was feeling rich and silly and I was walking past my newsagents where I noticed an exceptionally large pile of ETIs (the one with the free PCB on the cover). On impulse I decided to buy sixty. I am now lumbered with fifty seven circuit boards (and three working projects) and I was wondering if anyone would like to buy them back. Please . . . Help!*

*M Broughton  
Barnsley*

Either you are a nutter or you're having us on. If you are a nut case then next time you're feeling rich and silly send your money to the Clever Dick Beer Fund c/o the usual address. Just in case you're serious if anyone writes to us asking for 57 November ETIs, we'll give them your address.

Oh well, back to more down to earth matters. (that's a rather feeble joke but you won't get it until you read the next letter from Pete Czerwinski).

Dear CD,

*Here's a nice idea if I do say so myself (and I do).*

*I go potholing, and I use a lamp known as a carbide lamp. This lamp burns a gas called acetylene. The lamp, whilst giving a good light has some nasty disadvantages. It won't work underwater and is easily extinguished by drips of water and draughts. This leaves the poor potholer in the dark, and is, to put it mildly, a pain in the nether regions. My idea therefore is to use a small back up electric lamp controlled by a light (oops, lack of light) sensing switch. Thus when the carbide lamp goes out the circuit would sense the dramatic loss of light and switch on the back-up light. Suitable positioning of the photocell would be needed so as to only sense light from the carbide lamp. This would save potholers many an embarrassing situation. Do I get a binder?*

*PS. I use the HE Slave Flash Trigger when I go on photographic trips down caves. So far the unit has survived a trip down Pipkin Pot proving that HE projects go where no circuit has gone before. OK, so its a long letter, shoot me!*

*Pete Czerwinski  
Sheffield*

Wouldn't dream of shooting you, you've got enough problems without us adding to them. Now, I'm the first to admit that I know nothing about potholing but I find it difficult to believe that potholers rely on acetylene lamps — I thought these holes filled with gas. Oh well, I'll have to take your word for it. Your suggestion for an automatic back-up lamp sounds very sensible, the only modification I would suggest is to replace the opto sensor with a thermal sensor as the lamp could be prone to spurious triggering and the heat of the gas flame would provide a much more positive switching.

Before I go, I must remind you that we can't give written replies — unless it's life-or-death. Until next month, take care.

HE

# High-Impedance Voltmeter

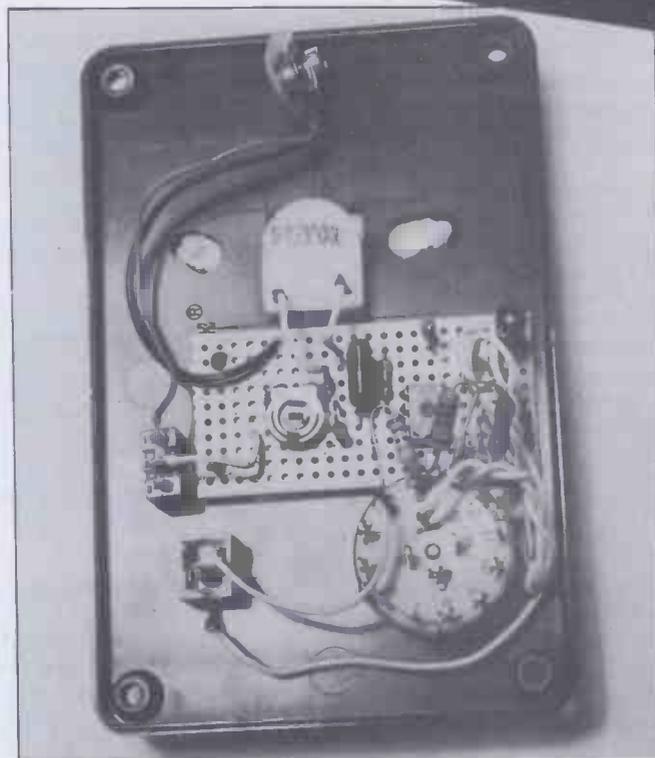
A simple-to-construct and useful piece of test gear from HE

ALTHOUGH AN ordinary multimeter can normally be relied upon to tell the whole truth, complete truth, and nothing but the truth, it can sometimes give misleading results when making DC voltage measurements. The problem arises when making measurements on high-impedance circuits where there is a current flow of only a few  $\mu\text{A}$  or less. With most multimeters requiring about  $50 \mu\text{A}$  to produce full scale deflection (FSD) of the meter, the current in the circuit under test is obviously inadequate to drive the meter. Thus there might be 6 V at the test point until the multimeter is connected, when the voltage could fall to less than a volt because of the loading effect of the meter. The meter would truthfully record this low reading, misleading the user.

This problem can be overcome by using our high-impedance voltmeter. This uses a current amplifier ahead of the meter circuit to reduce the input current requirement to a level that ensures reliable results when testing any normal circuit. It has three measuring ranges of 1, 10, and 100 V FSD and the input impedance is over 11 megohms.

## Construction

The circuit is easily accommodated on one of our standard (24 by 10 holes 0.1" matrix) Veroboard using the component layout shown in Fig. 2. Resistors R1 to R3 are not mounted on the board as it is more convenient to mount them directly on SW1, as shown in the diagram.



Internal view of the project — everything fits on the inside of the case lid

The two mounting holes and breaks in the copper strips should be made before fitting the components and link wire to the board. As IC1 has a MOS input stage and is vulnerable to damage by large static charges it should be connected last, and should be left in its protective packaging until then. It should either be fitted in a socket or soldered in place using an iron having an earthed bit.

A large mounting hole in the case is needed for the meter, and plastic or aluminium cases can usually be cut quite easily using a fretsaw, or a

copying saw. Another method is to drill a series of closely-spaced holes with an  $\frac{1}{8}$ " drill within a pencilled outline of the hole. The centre piece is then removed with the aid of a small round file, which is also used to provide a smooth rim to the hole.

To calibrate the unit, switch SW1 to the 10 V range, adjust RV1 for maximum resistance (fully clockwise) and connect the positive input to the positive supply rail. Use a multimeter to measure the supply voltage, and then adjust RV1 to give the same reading on ME1. The unit is then ready to use.



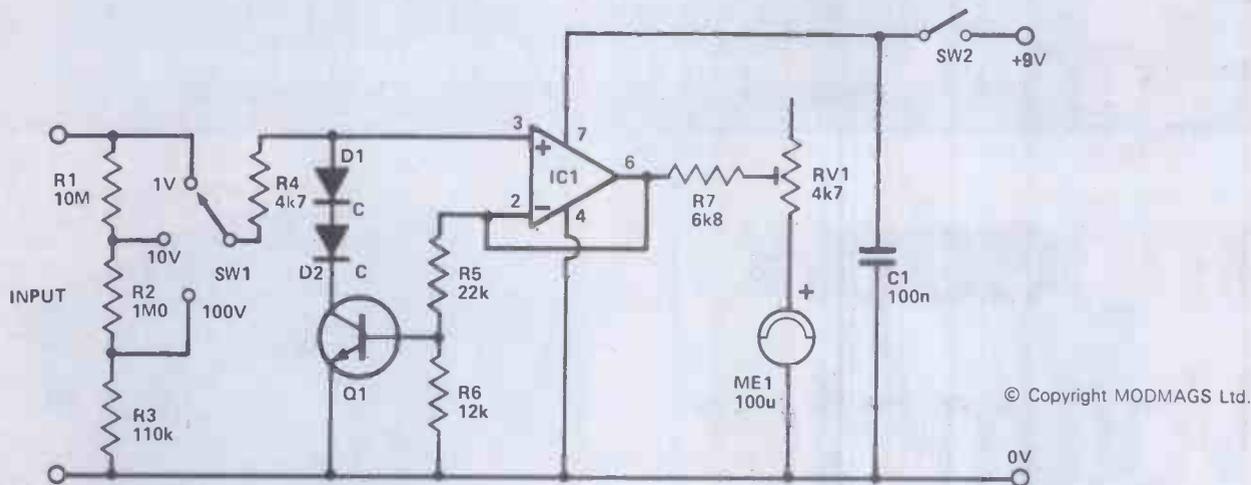


Figure 1. Circuit diagram of the High-Impedance Voltmeter

© Copyright MODMAGS Ltd.

## How It Works

The unit is based on an operational amplifier, and has its circuit shown in Fig.1. Operational amplifier IC1 has 100% feedback from its output to its inverting input, and therefore gives unity voltage gain. Resistor R7, preset RV1 and meter ME1 form a voltmeter at the output of IC1, and RV1 is adjusted for a full scale sensitivity of 1 V. Thus an input of 1 V is needed at the non-inverting input of IC1 to produce an FSD on ME1, but IC1 has a MOS input stage that consumes no significant input current.

Most of the input current drawn by the unit is that which flows through input attenuator R1-R2-R3. By means of SW1 this provides three switched attenuation settings of 1, 10, and 100, giving the unit

its three measuring ranges.

Normally Q1 is switched off, but if the circuit is overloaded and much more than about 1 V appears at the output of IC1, the voltage fed to Q1's base is sufficient to switch this device on. Diodes D1 and D2 are then effectively connected as a low-voltage zener across the input to IC1, which limits the input voltage to only about 1.3 V. This method of overload protection does not interfere with the accuracy of the unit in normal use, but prevents the meter from being overloaded by more than about 30% (which is nowhere near enough to do it any harm). The protection circuitry also prevents an excessive input voltage to IC1.

The circuit has a current consumption of only about 1.2 mA.

## Parts List

### RESISTORS (All 1/4 W, 5% unless stated)

R1	10M
R2	1M 2% or better
R3	110k 2% or better
R4	4k7
R5	22k
R6	12k
R7	6k8

### POTENTIOMETER

RV1	4k7 miniature horizontal preset
-----	---------------------------------

### CAPACITOR

C1	100n polyester
----	----------------

### SEMICONDUCTORS

IC1	CA3140E op amp
Q1	BC207 NPN transistor (see Buylines)
D1, D2	1N4148 diode

### MISCELLANEOUS

SW1	four-pole, three-way rotary switch
SW2	single-pole, single-throw toggle switch
ME1	100 uA moving-coil panel meter
10 strip by 24 hole, 0.1" Veroboard	
Battery and clip	
2 x 4mm sockets	

## Buylines

Any of the larger component retailers should be able to supply all the components. Transistor Q1 can be any high-gain silicon NPN device (BC107, BC108, BC109, etc) if you can't obtain a BC207.

You should find that the cost of this project is about £6 (excluding the case) depending on where you buy the meter.

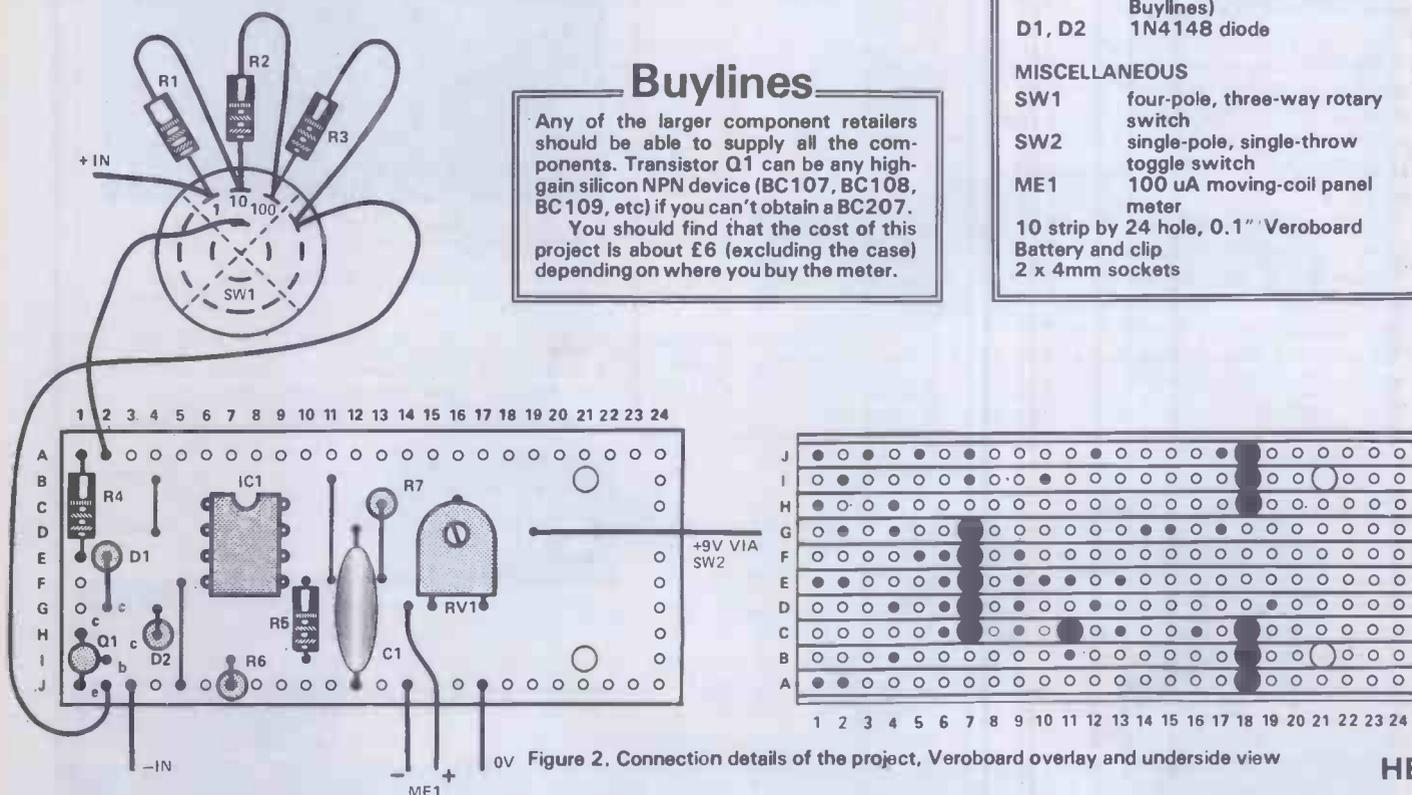


Figure 2. Connection details of the project, Veroboard overlay and underside view

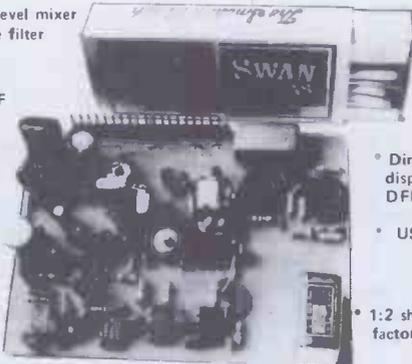
Please send an SAE with all enquiries. Phone orders by ACCESS - but minimum £5 Callers welcome

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TELEPHONE (STD 0277) 230909 TELEX 995194.AMBIT G POSTCODE CM14 4SG

SSB transceiver module - based on G4CLF designs

- \* High level mixer
- \* 8 pole filter
- \* 1 W AF on the PCB
- \* Direct freq. display with DFM7
- \* USB/LSB
- \* 1:2 shape factor

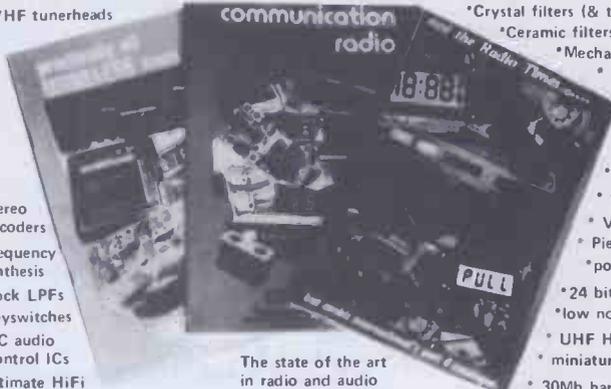


Add an LO and the RF selectivity, and you have a very simple yet high performance signal processing 'heart' of an SSB transceiver in the range 100kHz to 1000MHz (with the correct LO/RF stages). The Ambit 91600 costs just £44 +vat, and includes an 8 pole SSB crystal filter, SL1600 signal processing circuitry, double balanced schottky diode mixer and full USB/LSB electronic switching.

The use of 10.7MHz, instead of 9MHz (as in the original unit) now enable direct connection to an AMBIT DF7 for 1kHz frequency readout with far greater ease and accuracy than can be achieved with mechanical dial systems. Buy them both and save 15%..DFM7+91600= £69.46 inc.

The AMBIT catalogue - now with the new Part 4 for 1981  
The most complete range of specialist radio components in Europe.

- \* VHF tunerheads
- \* Stereo decoders
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- \* Ceramic filters for AM/FM
- \* Mechanical filters
- \* Fixed chokes
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- \* flat top LEDs
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- \* 24 bit NC plotters
- \* low noise RIAA ICs
- \* UHF Helical filters
- \* miniature electrolytics
- \* 30Mb hard disks



The state of the art in radio and audio

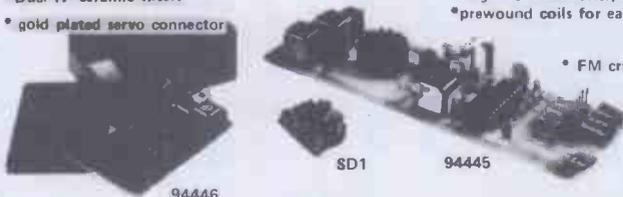
You need all three sections for a complete picture. Each section is revised on a triennial cycle - so this year the part 4 contains the revised remnants of the original part 1 - plus all the many new items for 1981. £1.75 for the lot, or 60p each for parts 2 & 3, and £0.75p for the bumper part four section. (prices include postage).

Special Offers... each catalogue is supplied with a 'special offer' order form that will enable you to save the cost of the catalogues with your first few purchases.

Radio Control Systems

As well as the parts for constructing sophisticated digital proportional radio control systems, we offer kits of parts for complete receivers and transmitters (now including hardware). Only state-of-the-art FM systems, readily adapted to 35MHz if required.

- \* Dual IF ceramic filters
- \* gold plated servo connector
- \* single IC transmitter/encoder
- \* prewound coils for easy alignment
- \* FM crystals extra



The RCRX4	8 channel FM receiver with triple ceramic filtering, complete with case.	£16.10
94445	4 channel FM transmitter based on ETI October 1980 system	£8.57
94446	5 channel FM receiver, based on ETI October 1980 system (inc case)	£14.26
TX Case	Complete transmitter case hardware, with two joystick controllers	£26.62
SD1	NE544 based servo driver electronics kit (no mechanics)	£3.28

- \* Matching 'Signal', 'Tune' and 'VU' scales.
- \* Custom scales OA



Moving coil indicator meters: over 10,000 in stock for immediate delivery  
The new part 4 catalogue lists many of the stock designs, but a much wider range is available to order (subject to minimum requirements). Meters for nearly all occasions, including precision voltmeter and ammeters.

- \* Signal level
- \* 'tuning'
- \* VU

NEW:  
Miniature electrolytics 0.01CV leakage

- \* smaller than tants
- \* vastly lower priced



\* many standard types

Miniature PC mounting 12v relays  
2A/24v contacts, single or dual changeover types available

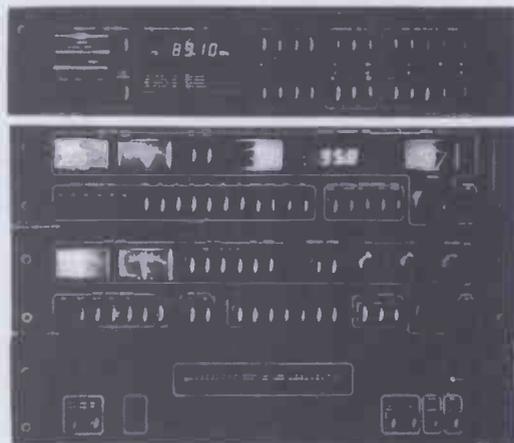


- SPDT: £1.65
- DPDT: £1.85
- \* sealed against flux

\* ideal antenna changeover etc

- \* Clock timer switching

The Mark III Series of DIY HiFi.



The Mark III series of HiFi is the ultimate DIY audio system. There are probably more features and facilities to the square inch of front panel than any other commercial HiFi around - let alone DIY systems. From the twin 500VA PSUs of the HMOSFET 100W power amp, to the 1dB tracking of the DC controlled preamp and the versatility of the CMOS MPU controlled tuner, there is no match for performance, style or sound quality - come and hear for yourself in our foyer.

Mark III synthesised tuner	£175.00 + vat
Mark III B FM-only tuner	£185.00 + vat
Mark III DC controlled signal preamp	£175.00 + vat
Mark III 100W rms/channel MOS PA	£160.00 + vat



LCD modules: including various clock/timer/alarm systems, DVM, serial data decoder/displays. The clock shown is the CM161 - 12/24 hrs, day/date, alarm, backlight. All for just £11.44 including VAT.

The FC177 (alongside) displays AM/LO's up to 3.9999MHz directly - and with the prescaler unit (DFM7) the system displays SW and VHF in 1kHz and 10kHz resolution resp. FC177: £26.16; DFM7: £36.22 (prices include VAT)



# What's In A Name

**Listen to Rick Maybury as he discusses devices for detecting sound**

OVER THE PAST FEW MONTHS we have been looking at electronic components that duplicate our own human senses. Last month we began to look at electroacoustic devices starting with an introduction to the loudspeaker. Our theme this month is the exact opposite, we will be looking at the microphone, a device that changes sound waves into electrical signals.

It was Alexander Graham Bell who first devised the microphone, or to be more precise, the telephone, as he could hardly have used the microphone on its own. His prototype microphone used the principle of magnetic induction — similar to the principle of operation of the loudspeaker we described last month. Without doubt though, the most common type of microphone in use today is the carbon microphone — found almost universally inside telephone mouthpieces. The carbon mike usually consists of a thin metal diaphragm covering a small cavity filled with carbon granules. Inside the cavity there are two electrodes in constant contact with the carbon granules. Under silent conditions the carbon granules are quite static and exhibit a resistance of a few hundred ohms between the electrodes. When the diaphragm vibrates as a result of being struck by a sound wave the spacing between the granules changes and consequently the resistance between the electrodes changes. Thus the resistance of the microphone changes in sympathy with the sound.

In a Lo-Fi application like telephones the carbon microphone is ideal. Sound is converted into large changes in voltage, which means that no amplification is required (over a few miles, that is) between the microphone and the distant earpiece. But frequency response, although fine for the 'phone, is severely limited. Where a little more quality is needed (such as for music and high quality speech) then a variety of different types of electroacoustic devices become possible, all requiring amplification of the signals they produce. Next to the carbon microphone the most common type of microphone in use today is the piezo-electric mike.

Referring back to last month's What's In A Name you'll remember that we said that piezo-electric crystals (usually quartz) will physically distort when a voltage is applied across the face of a crystal. Well, the opposite is also true. If piezo-electric crystal is bent, distorted or vibrated then the electrons within the structure become dislodged and appear as a voltage across the face of the crystal. If we mechanically link the crystal to a thin metal diaphragm then any sound wave striking the diaphragm will cause the crystal to vibrate thus generating a small voltage in sympathy with the vibrations.

In practice the crystal microphone has a very high treble response, too high in most cases to be used in serious Hi-Fi applications. For true Hi-Fi the most common type of microphone is the ribbon mike. This consists of a thin metallic ribbon suspended between two permanent magnets. Wires coupled to either end of the ribbon will have a very small voltage developed across them as the ribbon moves between the magnetic fields. The voltage is low because the impedance (AC resistance) of the ribbon is very small compared with that of the connecting leads. In fact the voltage would disappear over a long length of wire! For this reason, a small transformer (usually mounted inside the body of the microphone) is used to convert this low impedance and low voltage to values suitable for an amplifier input.

Lower down the quality scale but using a similar principle is the dynamic microphone. This time, instead of a mechanically fragile ribbon there is a metal diaphragm linked to a thin coil of wire that moves inside a magnetic field

similar, of course, to the loudspeaker we described last month. This type of microphone is also called moving coil.

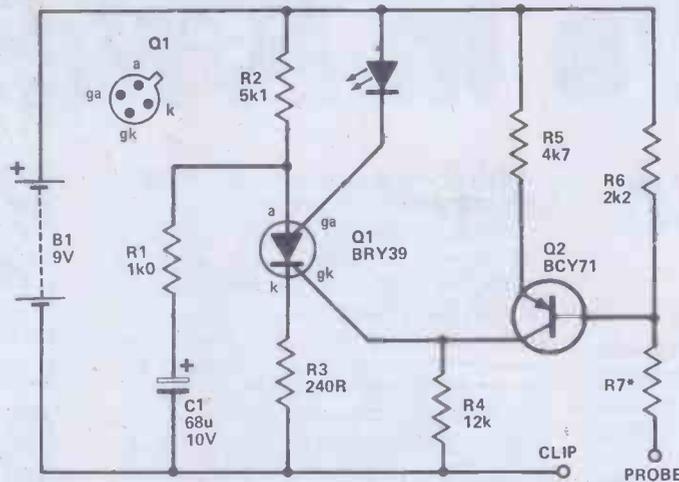
The last family of microphones we'll look at are usually known as capacitor or condenser mikes. They operate in exactly the same manner as a capacitor. Two thin metal plates placed very close to each other will exhibit a capacitance between their facing surfaces. When one plate is vibrated by an incident sound wave then the gap between the two plates will alternately increase and decrease causing the capacitance to rise and fall in sympathy. The main disadvantage for ordinary condenser microphones is the necessity of a high bias voltage across the plates, and this problem is solved in the electret microphone. The electret microphone is also a condenser microphone but the high voltage charge is provided by an 'electret' material that has the strange property of possessing a permanent static charge. Although the quality of the electret microphone is not as good as the condenser microphone it does cost about one tenth of the price. This is one reason why many portable cassette recorders have electret microphones built-in.

Well, that about covers sound: next month we shall be looking at the sense of touch and how we go about duplicating it electronically.



Two microphones from the Shure range

# Short Circuit



## Suppressor Tester

Few motorists think of checking ignition leads or caps, yet these resistive components can be notoriously unreliable. For adequate interference suppression (required by law) the resistance between distributor cap and spark plug must be at least 10k. However, for most efficient operation of the system the resistance should not exceed 20k. Also, any open circuit will allow arcing,

causing high levels of interference and rapid deterioration of the suppression components.

The circuit is based upon a programmable unijunction transistor (PUJT) oscillator which flashes a red LED when the suppressor resistance is correct. The oscillator will function only when the voltage on the cathode-gate of Q1 is within its operating range. This voltage is determined by the current flowing through Q2, which is

controlled by the suppressor resistance connected across the input wires of the tester. Since the position of the working range is determined by component tolerances and by the gain of Q2 it is necessary to select a value for R7 (between 100R and 10k).

With an 8k2 resistor across the input wires, D1 should give a steady light. With 22k it should not light. Alter the value of R7 until the range of suppressor values

which allows D1 to flash is centred about 15k. The probe can be made from a brass screw and an old spark plug top. A crocodile clip is used to make the connection inside the distributor cap. No on/off switch is required as current drain is negligible with D1 'off'.

**WARNING:** the engine *must not* be running while the suppressor components are being tested.

## 24HR. CLOCK/APP. TIMER KIT

Switches any appliance up to 1KW on and off at preset times once per day. Kit contains AY-5-1230 IC, 0.5" LED display, mains supply display, drivers, switches, LEDs, triac PCBs & full instructions.

CT1000KB with white box (56 x 131 x 71mm) **£17.40**  
 CT1000K Basic Kit **£14.90** Ready Built **£22.80**

## DVM THERMOMETER KIT

Based on the ICL 7106. This kit contains a PCB, resistors, presets, capacitors, diodes, IC and 0.5" liquid crystal display. Components are also included to enable the basic DVM kit to be modified to a Digital Thermometer using a single diode as the sensor. Requires a 3mA 9V supply (PP3 battery).

**£19.50**

## AND NOW A DIMMER THAT MAKES TOUCH DIMMERS OBSOLETE

Two years ago TK Electronics launched a touchdimmer kit, the TD300K, which made knob controlled dimmers obsolete. This was such a great success that many magazines and more retailers soon produced similar designs. SO THAT OTHERS MAY FOLLOW, TK have designed a touch dimmer kit with an Infra Red Remote control enabling you to switch and control the brightness of your lights from the comfort of your armchair etc. (as well as manually by touching the frontplate or by using the TDE/K extension kit).

As with all our kits, these come complete with all components including RFI suppression, frontplate, a neon to help you find the switch in the dark and a neat box for the transmitter. The plastic frontplate has no metal pads to touch ensuring complete safety and enabling the plate to be covered with a decorative finish to blend with your room decor.

We have designed the light dimmer unit to fit a standard wall box, the transmitter to fit your hand and the price to fit your pocket.

In two years time everyone will be selling remote control dimmers but you can have your TDR300K kit NOW for only **£14.30** for the dimmer unit and **£4.20** for the transmitter.

For the more athletic of you the TD300K is still available at **£6.50** and the TDE/K at **£2.00**. DON'T FORGET to add 40p P&P and 15% VAT to your total purchase.

## MINI KITS

These kits form useful subsystems which may be incorporated into larger designs or used alone. Kits include PCB, short instructions and all components.

**MK1 TEMPERATURE CONTROLLER/THERMOSTAT**  
 Uses LM3911 IC to sense temperature (80°C max) and triac to switch heater 1 KW **£4**

**MK2 SOLID STATE RELAY**  
 Ideal for switching motors, lights, heaters etc. from logic. Opto isolated with zero voltage switching. Supplied without triac. Select the required triac from our range **£2.80**

**MK3 BAR/DOT DISPLAY**  
 Displays an analogue voltage on a linear 10-element LED display as a bar or single dot. Ideal for thermometers, level indicators etc. May be stacked to obtain 20 to 100 element displays. Requires 5-20V supply **£4.75**

**MK4 PROPORTIONAL TEMPERATURE CONTROLLER**  
 Based on the TDA1024 Zero voltage switch, this kit may be wired to form a burst fire power controller or a proportional temperature controller enabling the temperature of an enclosure to be maintained to within 0.5°C **3KW £5.55**

**MK5 MAINS TIMER**  
 Based on the ZN1034E Timer IC, this kit will switch a mains load on (or off) for a preset time from 20 minutes to 35 hours. Longer or shorter periods may be realised by minor component changes. Maximum load 1KW **£4.50**

## DISCO LIGHTING KITS

Each unit has 4 channels (rated at 1KW at 240V per channel) which switch lamps to provide sequencing effects, controlled manually or by an optional opto isolated audio input.

**DL1000K**. This kit features a bi-directional sequence, speed of sequence and frequency of direction change being variable by means of potentiometers. Incorporates master dimming control. **£14.80**

**DL21000K**. A lower cost version of the above, featuring unidirectional channel sequence with speed variable by means of a preset pot. Outputs switched only at mains zero crossing points to reduce radio interference to minimum. **£8.00**

Optional Opto Input (DLA) **£1.60**

## INTEGRATED CIRCUITS

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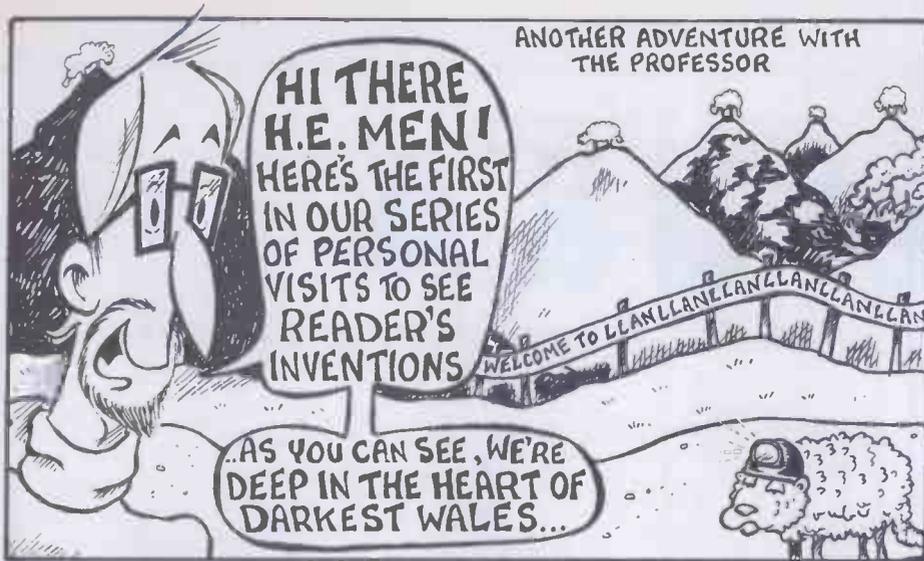
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SNARL

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I SAID NICE DOGGY

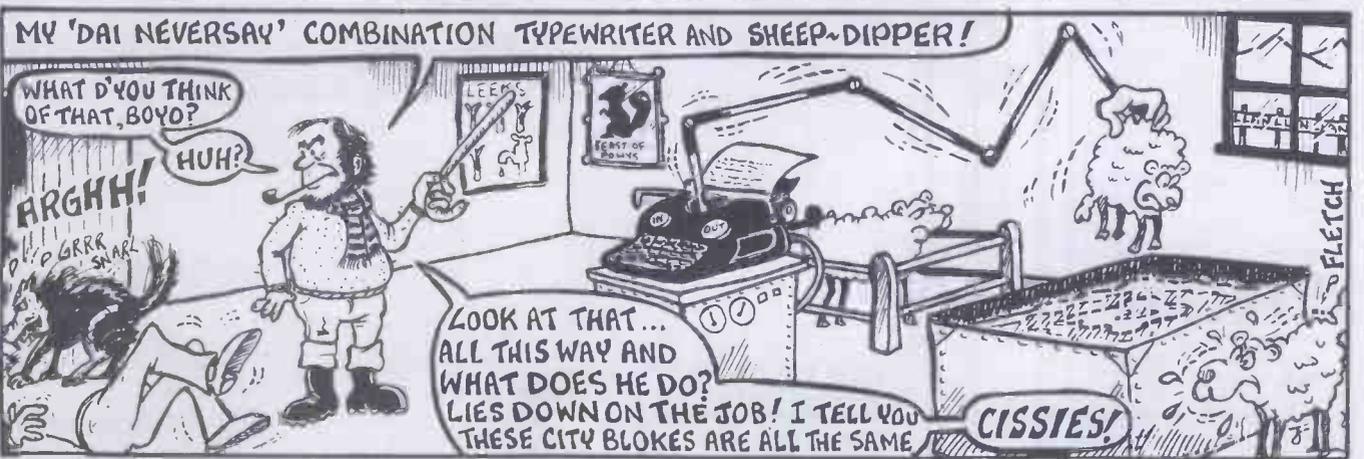
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HUH?

ARGHH!

LOOK AT THAT... ALL THIS WAY AND WHAT DOES HE DO? LIES DOWN ON THE JOB! I TELL YOU THESE CITY BLOKES ARE ALL THE SAME

CISSIES!

# 0 Level Q & A

At last — we've arrived at transistors. Nick Walton gives you a gentle introduction to these clever little devices

AFTER FIVE ARTICLES we now come to the little beast at the heart of it all and our London Board Syllabus makes it necessary for us to examine the NPN transistor, to explain its action and to sort out some of the technical terms you might meet. If this is all new, you would be well advised to take it a bit at a time.

Last month we saw that by taking a single crystal of pure semiconductor like silicon and diffusing into its crystal lattice certain impurities which had either a valency of three or five it was possible to alter its conduction properties pretty drastically.

The presence of traces of the three-valent substance gives rise to the p-type semiconductor with its excess of positive holes, and the n-type doped with its five-valent impurities gives rise to an excess of conduction electrons. Put p-type next to n-type (in a single crystal, remember) and you have a PN junction which allows conventional current to flow one way only, in fact P to N.

A transistor takes things a step further by adding one more layer (see Fig. 1). So it can either have an n-type layer at each end with a p-type layer sandwiched in the middle (called an npn transistor, the more common sort today) or the n-layer can be sandwiched in the middle with a p-layer either side, called a PNP transistor. A connection is made to each layer and that to the middle is called the base while those to the outside are called the emitter and collector.

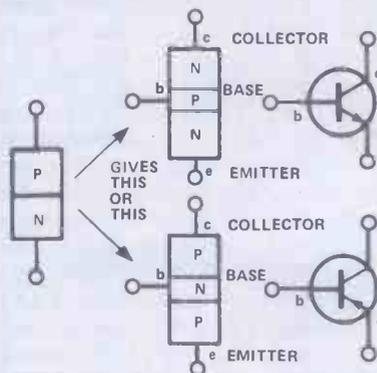


Figure 1. Three-layer device is either a pnp or npn transistor (with corresponding circuit symbol)

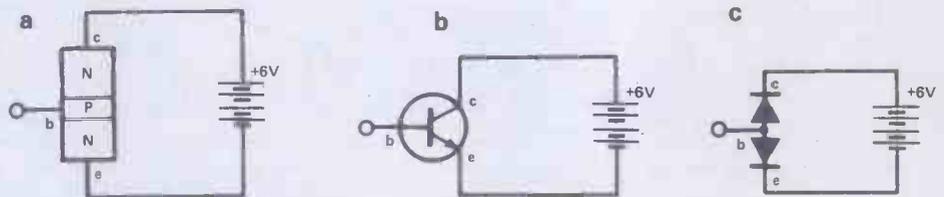
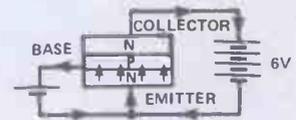


Figure 2. Transistor connected unhelpfully to a 6 V battery: a) the device, b) the circuit symbol, c) showing it to be equivalent to two pn-junction diodes

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Figure 3. Transistor conducting because the left-hand battery is giving the base-emitter junction a forward bias (arrows indicate electron flow)



## Transistor In A Circuit

At this stage you might wonder how on earth this makes it one of the most useful devices ever invented. This is not easy to see at first sight, so let us try to examine more closely how it behaves. Put in series with a battery (of, say, 6 V) we seem to be little further on. Figure 2a shows the device connected, Fig. 2b the circuit diagram and Fig. 2c suggests that it is equivalent to two PN diodes in opposition. Whichever way you connect the battery one of the diodes will block any current flow. There is, however, one vital difference between a pair of diodes like this and a transistor. It is that the base layer is made as thin as possible. Starting with Fig. 2a we add a small battery (the left-hand one in Fig. 3) which now puts the base-emitter junction into forward bias. This makes it conduct with electrons moving into the p-region as shown by the array of arrows. But because the base region is made so thin, the electrons which

rush across this emitter-base junction under the influence of our small forward-biasing battery have mostly rushed on into the collector region before they realise what was happening. Electrons in this collector region are attracted to the positive pole of the 6 V battery and thus current flows round the right-hand circuit. Indeed the size of this current (called the collector current,  $I_c$ ) is determined by the much smaller current flowing out of the base (called the base current  $I_b$ ). In practice the small base current is controlling a much larger collector current and this is the basic principle on which an amplifier relies for its operation: it controls a large current by means of a small one. Figure 4 shows how this can be achieved. Figure 4a shows how it could theoretically be set up and Fig. 4b shows how it is often done in practice. The transistor can be any old small-signal general-purpose NPN transistor, and the resistor value can be anything from about 1k $\Omega$  to 20k $\Omega$ . The bulb is just a very simple and

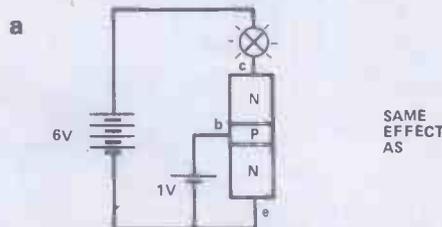
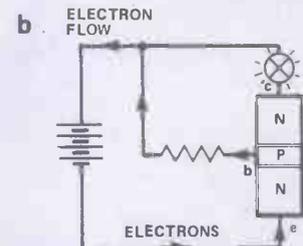


Figure 4. a) how we would theoretically get a transistor to conduct by forward-biasing the emitter-base junction, b) how it is usually achieved in practice (note arrows indicate electron flow)



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crude way of showing whether a current is flowing through the transistor. The small base current provided will allow a sufficiently large collector current to flow to light the bulb. The vital thing is to keep your base-emitter junction in forward bias and the collector at a more positive voltage than the base. (Note that since we have been talking about what the electrons have been up to, on this occasion the arrowheads are taken to indicate electron flow).

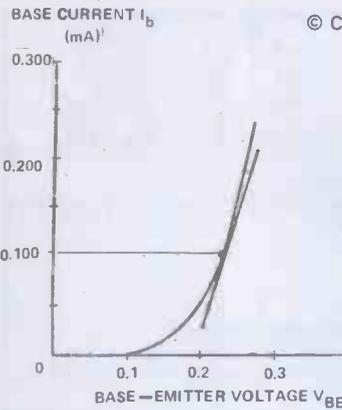
So what it all comes down to is this: fact number one is that if you just put a voltage between collector and emitter you get no current flow, so the transistor appears to have a very high resistance. Fact number two is that with a forward-biased emitter-base junction (or if you like, the appropriate base current) the transistor will conduct (between collector and emitter) displaying an apparently much lower resistance.

## Transistors As Switches?

At this stage it is worth noting one further point. With no base current a transistor does not allow current to flow between collector and emitter and so can be regarded as being a switch in the 'off' (or open) position. Give it the necessary base current and it now conducts. So it can be regarded as being a switch in the 'on' (or closed) position. Indeed descriptions of how circuits work often talk about a transistor being switched on or switched off for just this reason. Actually it is rather a clever sort of switch because it can be switched on and off with no moving parts in the conventional sense; and if you think that the guts of a computer or your calculator consist of a huge number of switches it is good to have all those switches operating with no moving parts (except, of course, the electrons that we cannot see). If you accept that, you might begin to see how the transistor comes in so useful.

## Gain And $h_{FE}$

If you make a serious study of transistors you will not be able to avoid sooner or later coming across the concept of current gain for a transistor. This is how many times the collector current is bigger than the base current. Looking at Fig. 5, let us suppose that we have a base current ( $I_B$ ) of 0.1 mA and that this results in a collector current ( $I_C$ ) of 5 mA. Thus the collector current is 50 times the base current



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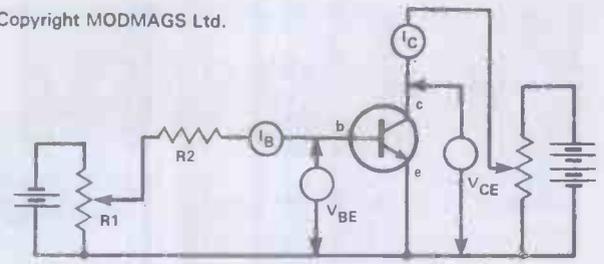


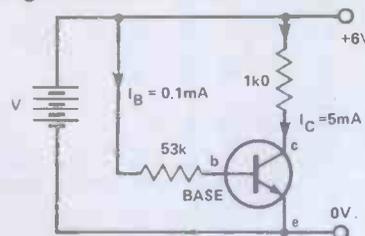
Figure 7. How to measure  $V_{BE}$  and  $V_{CE}$

Figure 6. Common-emitter input characteristic

and so we say that the current gain is 50. This current gain is most properly referred to as  $h_{FE}$ . Thus:

$$h_{FE} = \frac{I_C}{I_B}$$

The FE subscript is written in capital letters when dealing with DC. The  $h_{FE}$  is still frequently referred to as a  $\beta$  (beta, the Greek letter 'b') and its full title is the magnificent mouthful 'the common emitter static value of the forward current transfer ratio'. The phrase 'common emitter' means that the emitter is involved in the input end of the circuit as well as the output end. If you are feeling clever you might try applying Ohm's law to parts of this circuit. If we suppose (still looking at Fig. 5) our NPN transistor is silicon, then the voltage between emitter and base could have a value of 0.7 V. Check that this fits with the 0.1 mA base current and the marked value of 53k for the base resistor (not a preferred value but never mind). If that presents no difficulty how about finding the value of the collector-base voltage? This is often ignored but it does in fact have a small value which you can find once you have calculated the voltage across the 1k $\Omega$  collector resistor. You know the emitter-base voltage is 0.7 V, so what is left. . . ? If you enjoy this sort of analysis of circuits, you might enjoy being an electronic engineer — it's one of the things he or she does.



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Figure 5. Circuit to illustrate  $h_{FE}$ . The base current is 0.1 mA and the collector current is 5 mA; that is, 50 times larger: so  $h_{FE} = 50$

## AC Conditions

A closely related quantity is one called  $h_{ie}$  (where the convention of having lower-case letters refers to the fact that we are considering AC). If we put an AC signal into the base we are effectively increasing the base current as the input signal hits maximum. This in turn produces a change in the collector current and this ratio of collector current change to base current change is the way  $h_{ie}$  is defined.

The third quantity we have to knock off is called  $h_{ie}$ , and it is the input resistance. Very loosely this is the resistance you 'see' at the input. It is the input voltage (ie base-emitter voltage,  $V_{BE}$ ) divided by the input current  $I_B$  (remember resistance is voltage over current — volts per amps is ohms). Its full title is the 'small-signal short-circuit input resistance'. It is termed short circuit because where we had a collector resistance before (ie, the 1k $\Omega$  resistor in Fig. 5) we now have nothing. Instead we have a short circuit; that is, no resistor on the collector in Fig. 7. It can perhaps best be understood by reference to the graph shown in Fig. 6 which is called the common-emitter input characteristic. It shows how the base current ( $I_b$ ) and the base-emitter voltage ( $V_{BE}$ ) depend on each other. It might help to refer back to Fig. 3 and suppose that we are somehow increasing the base-emitter voltage and seeing how the base current changes as a result. Actually, the full details of the circuitry that achieves this are shown in Fig. 7. At, say, a base current value of 0.1 mA we can define the input resistance as a small change in the base-emitter voltage divided by the corresponding small change in base current. Or if you are familiar with graphs, look at the slope (the change in the vertical per unit change in the horizontal) in Fig. 6 at 0.1 mA base current. The slope is in terms of amps per volt, so taking the reciprocal of the slope you have volts per amp or input resistance.

## Summary

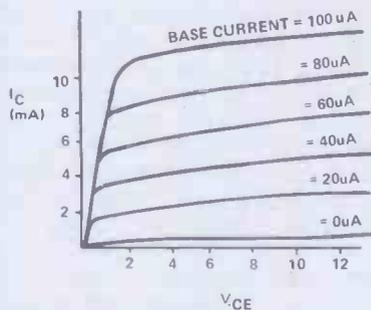
DC current gain  $h_{FE} = \frac{I_C}{I_B} = \frac{\text{Value of collector current}}{\text{Value of base current}}$

AC current gain  $h_{fe} = \frac{\delta I_C}{\delta I_B} = \frac{\text{Small change in collector current}}{\text{Corresponding small change in base current}}$

Input resistance (impedance)  $h_{ie} = \frac{\delta V_{BE}}{\delta I_B} = \frac{\text{Small change in base-emitter voltage}}{\text{Corresponding small change in base current}}$

## Load On The Line

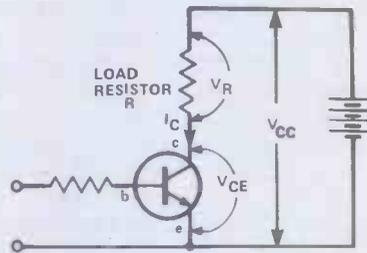
The last thing we need to look at is the concept of the load line. To understand this we need to know what we mean by the output characteristic. We can again use the circuit in Fig. 7 to see how the current *through* the transistor ( $I_C$ ) varies with the voltage *across* it ( $V_{CE}$ ). A graph can be plotted of  $I_C$  against  $V_{CE}$  and the result depends on the base current used. So for a series of base currents we get a series of graphs, as shown in Fig. 8.



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Figure 8. Collector current ( $I_C$ ) plotted against collector voltage ( $V_{CE}$ ) for different values of base current ( $I_B$ )

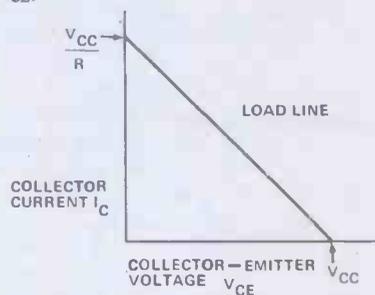
If you now had a typical single transistor amplifier you could well have the bit of circuit you see in Fig. 9. Note that there is now a resistor  $R$  (called a load resistor) between the collector and the positive terminal of the supply. Now, if you draw a graph of how the voltage across the transistor ( $V_{CE}$ ) varies with the collector current  $I_C$  for



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Figure 9. Circuit appropriate to load line (arrows show conventional flow)

a fixed supply voltage, you get the line shown in Fig. 10. As the collector current, which is the same as the current in  $R$ , goes up, the voltage across  $R$  will also go up giving a smaller voltage remaining across the transistor itself ( $V_{CE}$ ).



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Figure 10. Load line on a graph of collector current ( $I_C$ ) against collector-emitter voltage ( $V_{CE}$ )

Skip the maths if you must, but it is not really all that desperate. It is all based on the idea that the supply voltage ( $V_{CC}$ ) is shared between the

load resistor and the transistor. Mathematically this is expressed as:

$$V_{CC} = V_R + V_{CE}$$

and since by Ohm's Law:

$$V_R = I_C R,$$

then:

$$V_{CC} = I_C R + V_{CE}$$

which with rearrangement gives:

$$I_C R = V_{CC} - V_{CE},$$

so:

$$I_C = -\frac{1}{R} V_{CE} + \frac{V_{CC}}{R}$$

We can see from the straight line graph theory ( $y = mx + c$ ) that if you plot  $I_C$  against  $V_{CE}$  for constant  $R$  and  $V_{CC}$  you get a straight line with the slope  $-1/R$ . The negative slope shows that  $I_C$  increases as  $V_{CE}$  decreases. It cuts the  $I_C$  axis at  $V_{CC}/R$  when  $V_{CE} = 0$ . This means that in the extreme case of  $V_{CE} = 0$  (and the transistor conducting so well that there is theoretically no voltage across it) all the voltage of the supply is across  $R$ . The current  $I_C$  is given by

$$I_C = \frac{V_{CC}}{R}$$

This is the greatest current that goes through the transistor under these circumstances and it is now said to be saturated (or with no voltage across it to be 'bottomed').

What this really all comes down to is that when we are using the transistor as a simple amplifier the collector current  $I_C$  will vary under the influence of the changing base current and the corresponding voltage  $V_{CE}$  across the transistor will just move up and down the load line.

## Don't spoil your appetite!

I hope you have not found it all too heavy going. The nice thing about transistors is that they still function whether or not you understand what they are really doing. Don't forget the famous mathematician who made the same point by asking: 'Shall I refuse to eat my dinner just because I do not understand the process of digestion?' Even if you have not understood a circuit design, you can still solder in the trannies and they work (you hope!). Talking of which, there is that practical project you should have thought about starting — and you need not look much further than the pages of HE. More next month — keep forward biased. Cheers!

HE

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# Audio Signal Generator

Our second do-it-yourself test gear project is a simple-to-build signal generator with many features found on expensive designs

THERE IS NO doubt — if you dabble in electronics much and build more than just the odd project, then test gear of all descriptions is a must. Furthermore, if the project is in the audio category, then somewhere along the line you will need an audio source.

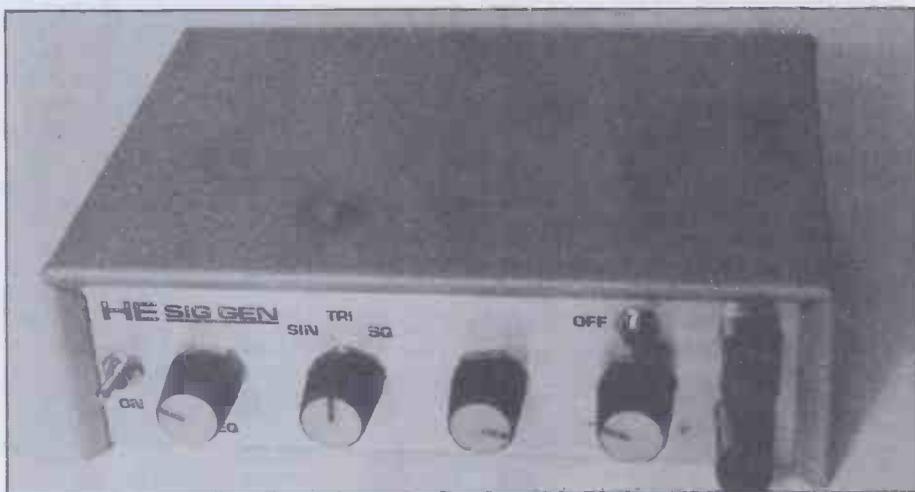
Of course, using a bit of ingenuity, the clever HE reader might use the auxiliary output of his stereo system as a signal but there are disadvantages with such a method: neither the amplitude (size) nor the frequency (pitch) of the signal can be accurately specified. What you really need is a signal generator like this project — providing a selection of waveforms (sine, triangular or square) with fully variable amplitudes with the added facility of a controllable DC bias to the output signal. All this is achieved with only a two-IC circuit which operates from two 9 V batteries.

## Construction

There is nothing critical in the construction of this project if you use our design of printed circuit board. Everything is quite straightforward. Solder in resistors first, followed by capacitors and IC sockets and finally insert the two ICs.

Following the connection diagram in Fig.2 you should now connect the switches, potentiometers, battery clips and output sockets and test out the project before insertion into its case. Set all presets and pots to mid-position and switch on. By connecting the output to a suitable amplifier (eg your stereo system or last month's Bench Amplifier project), adjust the output to a suitable level using the amplitude control, RV6.

Now, turn SW1 to 'sine' and open SW3 (ie switch off the DC



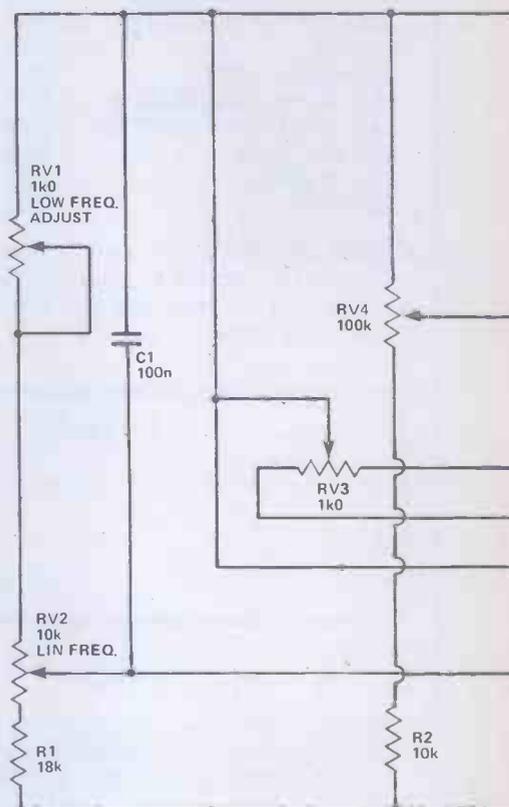
bias). Adjustment of RV4 and RV5 should remove any distortion and a perfectly 'clean' note should be heard. Turn the frequency control RV2 fully anti-clockwise to its lowest frequency setting and adjust RV1 until the lowest note possible from the generator is heard. One further adjustment can be made with RV3 if you have an oscilloscope — varying the preset will alter the duty cycle (best observed on square wave) which should be 50%; ie, high for half the wavelength and low for the other half. If you don't have the use of a 'scope leave this preset at mid-position — the adjustment won't be far out.

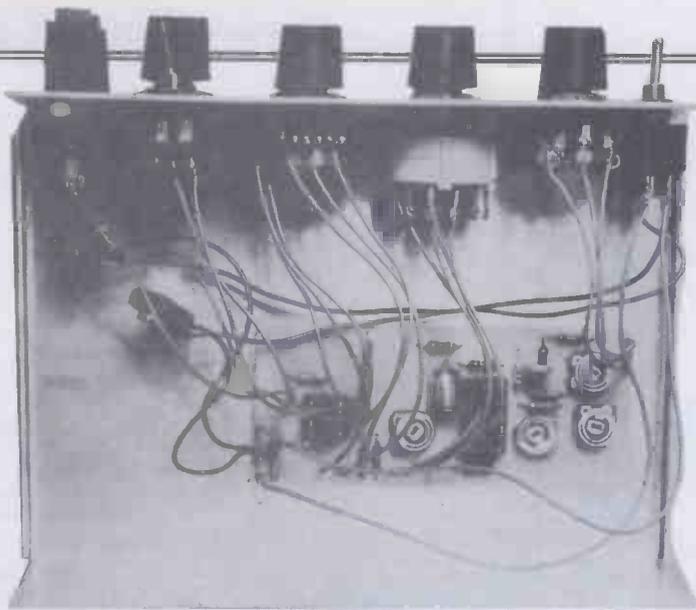
Finally the project can be housed in a suitable case.

## Buylines

Integrated circuit IC1 may be difficult to obtain at your local component stockist but most mail order companies will be able to supply it. All other components should be easily obtained.

The price for this project (excluding the usual case and PCB) should be around £11.





## How It Works

Integrated circuit IC1 is a purpose-built device, capable of generating sine, triangular or square waveforms (or derivations of these), to a high accuracy. The frequency of the waveforms is primarily defined by the charge and discharge rate of capacitor C2. This capacitor should be, ideally, a type whose value is very stable with temperature — so we specify a mica variety — although others are usable, with a lower accuracy.

The charge rate of the capacitor is also a function of the value of resistor R3. Likewise R4 controls the discharge rate. For a symmetrical waveform R3 and R4 should be of equal value. Preset RV3

allows adjustment of these two resistors to ensure that the charge rate of the capacitor exactly equals the discharge rate and so the waveform is symmetrical.

The voltage at pin 8 of the integrated circuit also controls the frequency of the generated waveform (over a 1000:1 range). Thus, by sweeping the control voltage on this pin between  $V_{cc}$  and  $(\frac{1}{2} V_{cc} + 2 V)$  ie 5 to 9 V, the frequency of the waveform varies from 20 Hz to 20 kHz. The control voltage is derived from potential divider RV1,2 and R1.

Presets RV4 and 5 allow sine wave distortion to be minimised to only 0.5% and this is best achieved by listening to the sine wave and adjusting the two

presets until distortion is no longer audible.

The outputs of this integrated circuit are found at pins 2 (sine), 3 (triangular) and 9 (square). Switch SW1 selects one of the wave shapes and connects it to the amplifier circuit of IC2, via RV6, the amplitude control. The amplifier is configured as a mixer although in its simplest mode (ie with SW3 open) the IC is just an inverting amplifier, whose output is centred symmetrically about 0 V. However, with SW3 closed, a DC bias voltage is mixed with the waveform and the output can be moved up or down in voltage, still having the same AC amplitude.

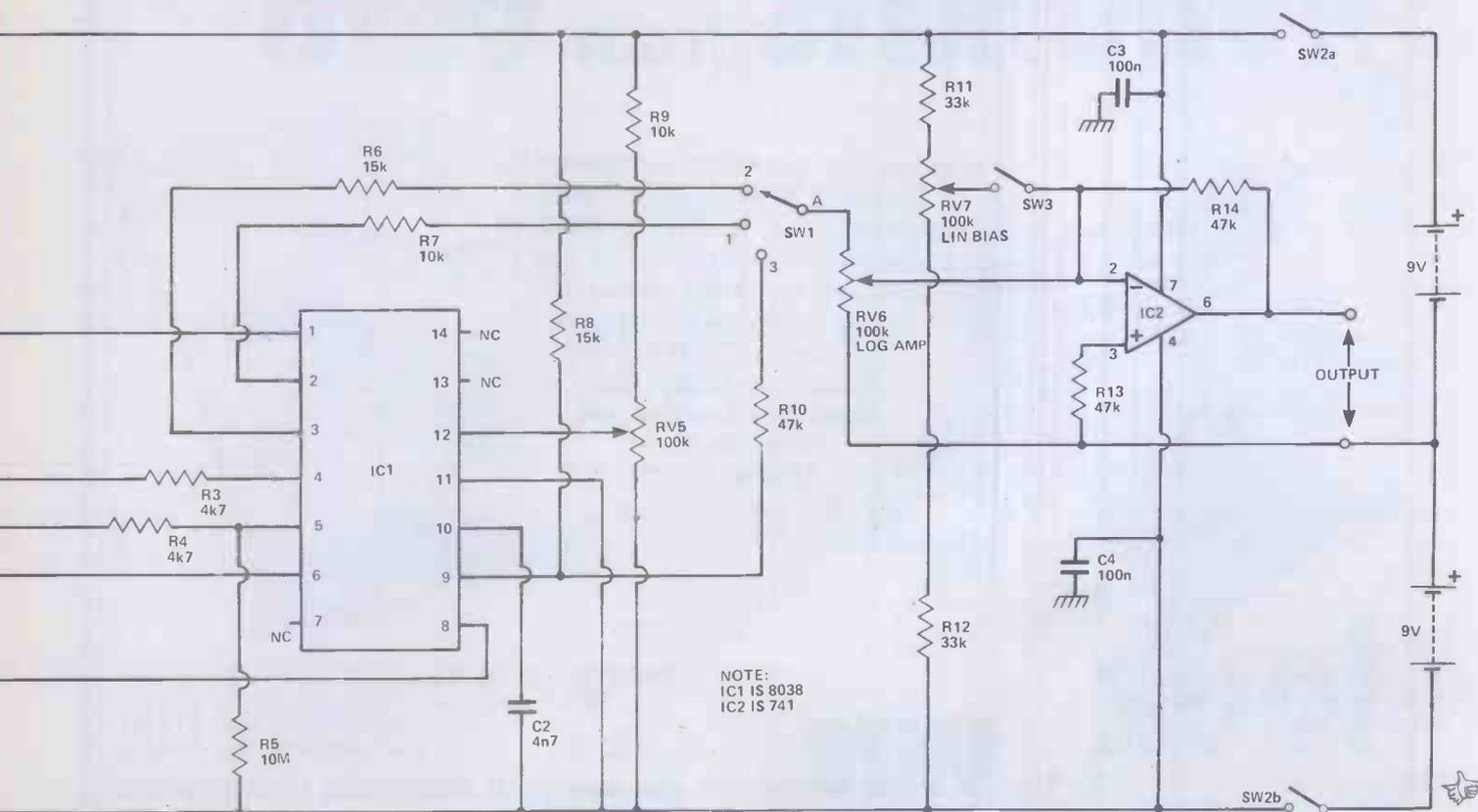


Figure 1. The HE Audio Signal Generator circuit diagram.

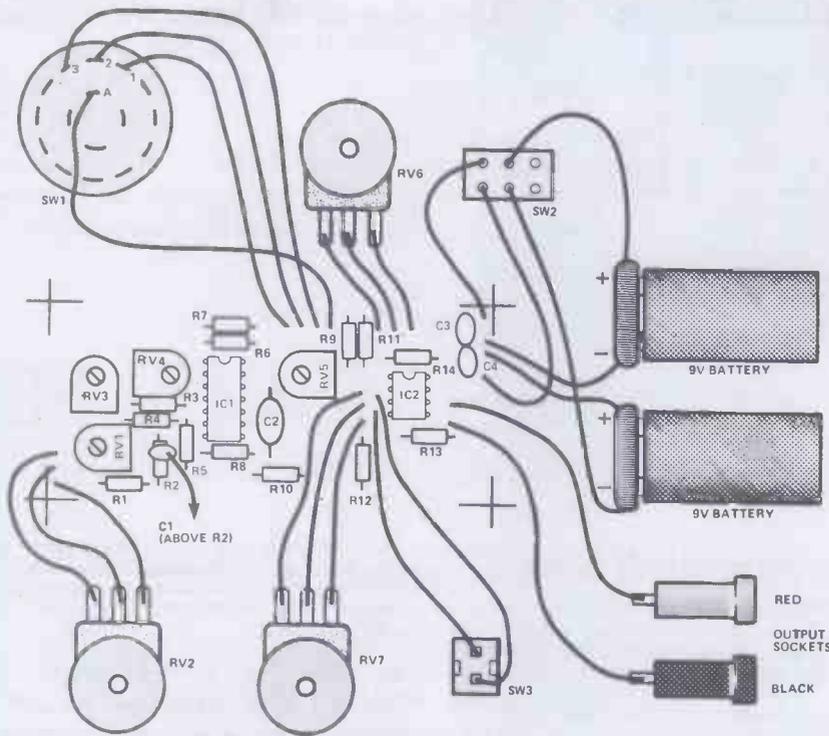


Figure 2. Overlay of the PCB and connection details of the Audio Signal Generator.

## Parts List

### RESISTORS (All 1/4 W, 5%)

R1	18k
R2,7,9	10k
R3,4	4k7
R5	10M
R6,8	15k
R10,13,14	47k

### POTENTIOMETERS

RV1,3	1k $\Omega$ miniature horizontal preset
RV2	10k linear potentiometer
RV4,5	100k miniature horizontal preset
RV6	100k logarithmic potentiometer

### CAPACITORS

C1,3,4	100n ceramic
C2	4n7 mica

### SEMICONDUCTORS

IC1	8038 waveform generator
IC2	741 operational amplifier

### MISCELLANEOUS

SW1	single-pole, three-way rotary switch
SW2	double-pole, single-throw toggle switch
SW3	single-pole, single-throw toggle switch

Case to suit

Battery clips and batteries

Knobs, output sockets, IC sockets

HE

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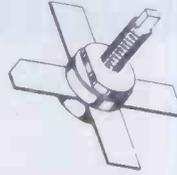
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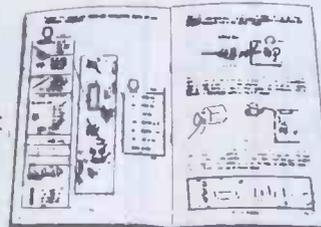
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# Background Noise Simulator

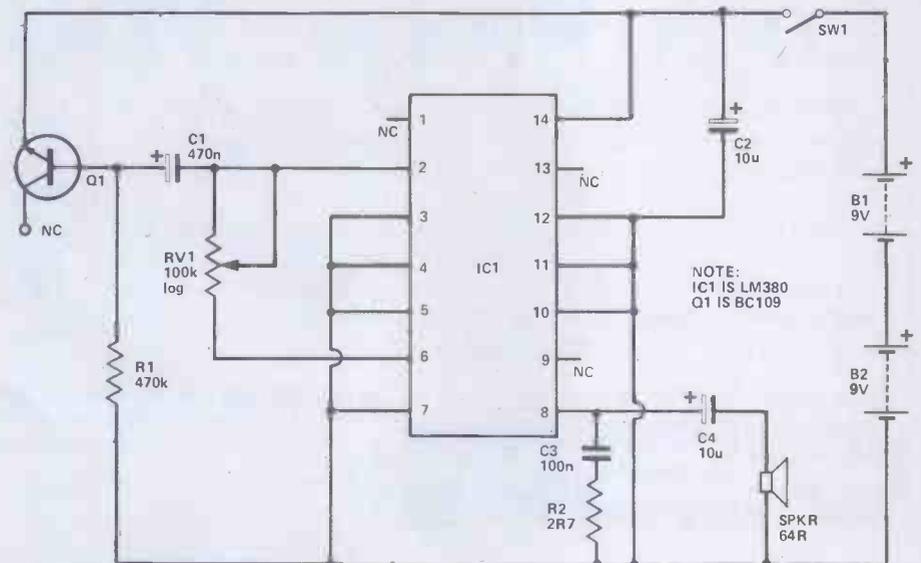
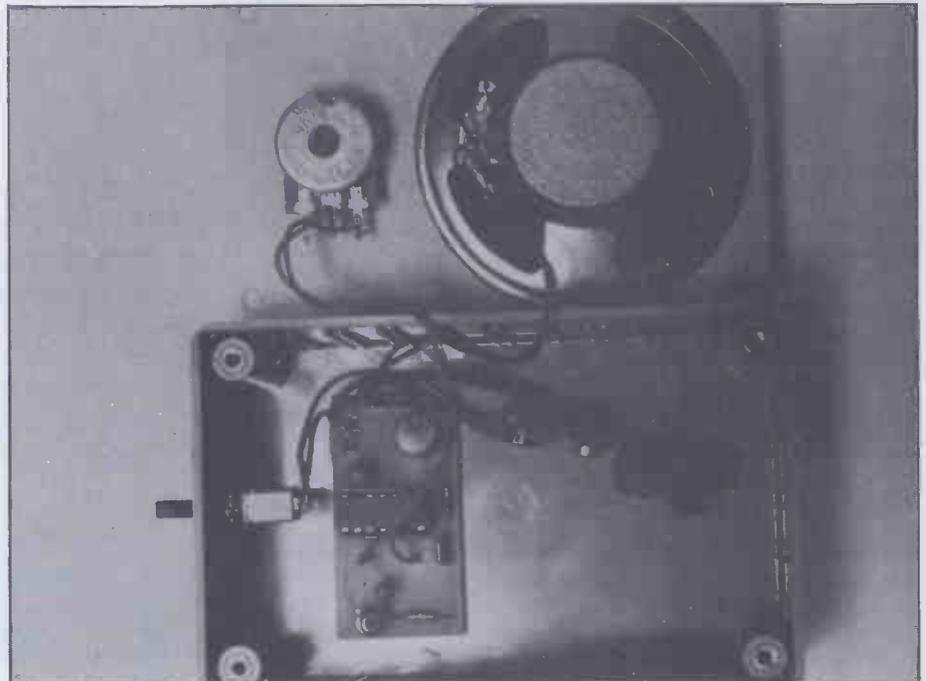


At last — a psycho-physical project, which helps you concentrate and relax

IT IS A medical fact that human concentration operates in short bursts (up to about 20 minutes) after which the individual requires a few seconds of relaxation before continuing with the work at hand. You can see this effect yourself when reading a book or studying: every now and again you break from concentration and look up, perhaps simply to see what time it is or to make a cup of coffee.

It is also known (and fairly obvious) that the level of background noise can affect the *length* of concentration bursts — for instance, too much noise prevents you from working at all (just try concentrating when workmen are digging up the road outside!). Not so obvious is the effect caused by too *little* background noise. Concentration under such a condition becomes very difficult and can be impossible with absolutely *no* background noise.

Well, the HE Background Noise Simulator has been designed to deal with the last problem. After building this project readers who suffer from lack of concentration, due to lack of background noise, can breathe sighs of relief. Of course, we can't guarantee that you will all be transformed into geniuses able to rewrite relativity theories, but we can promise that you should be able to experiment with some interesting psychological effects. For instance we tried the project out with our colleagues, along the corridor in the Electronics Today International offices and they told us that if we didn't go down our machine in the nearest bucket of water and let them get back to sleep, they wouldn't invite us to next year's Christmas party. With that threat in mind we left them to it.



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Figure 1. From this circuit diagram you can see the unusual way Q1 is in circuit.

## Construction

This project offers a choice of construction techniques: either Veroboard or PCB can be used to build it up. Overlay and connection details are given for them both in Figs. 2 and 3.

When using Veroboard, remember to break the tracks where necessary, as indicated in the underside view of the board in Fig. 2 and check that no short circuits are formed by loose swarf or solder bridges between tracks. Track breaks can be made using either the correct tool or simply a hand-held  $\frac{1}{8}$ " drill bit, by holding it on the hole in question and twisting gently clockwise.

Insert resistors first, followed by capacitors and finally semiconductors. The diagrams show component position and connection details. Follow them carefully, making sure all polarised components are inserted the same way round as indicated.

After connection of the speaker and a suitable power supply, the project should work satisfactorily first time. It then only remains to build the board into a suitable case.

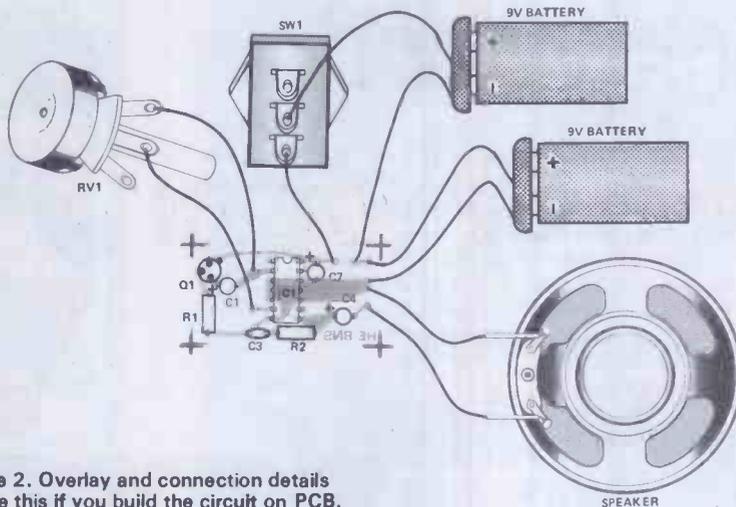


Figure 2. Overlay and connection details — use this if you build the circuit on PCB.

## Buylines

All parts for this project will be easily obtained and should cost you around £4 (excluding the case and PCB).

## How It Works

The heart of this project is none other than our old friend the LM380. The IC has all the necessary circuitry to form an amplifier with over 2 W of output power. Of course we don't need all of that power in this application — in fact only  $\frac{1}{4}$  W is ample — but the LM380 remains one of the cheapest amplifier ICs around (regardless of output power) so we stuck with it.

Transistor Q1 forms the noise generator. It is connected in a rather unusual manner (see the circuit diagram in Fig. 1), with its emitter positive relative to its base. In this mode, a transistor is transmogrified into what is essentially a zener diode — a noisy one at that, providing a fairly large amplitude (50 mV) of noise at its base. Integrated circuit IC1 amplifies the noise (RV1 acting as a volume control) to drive the speaker and give the background noise.

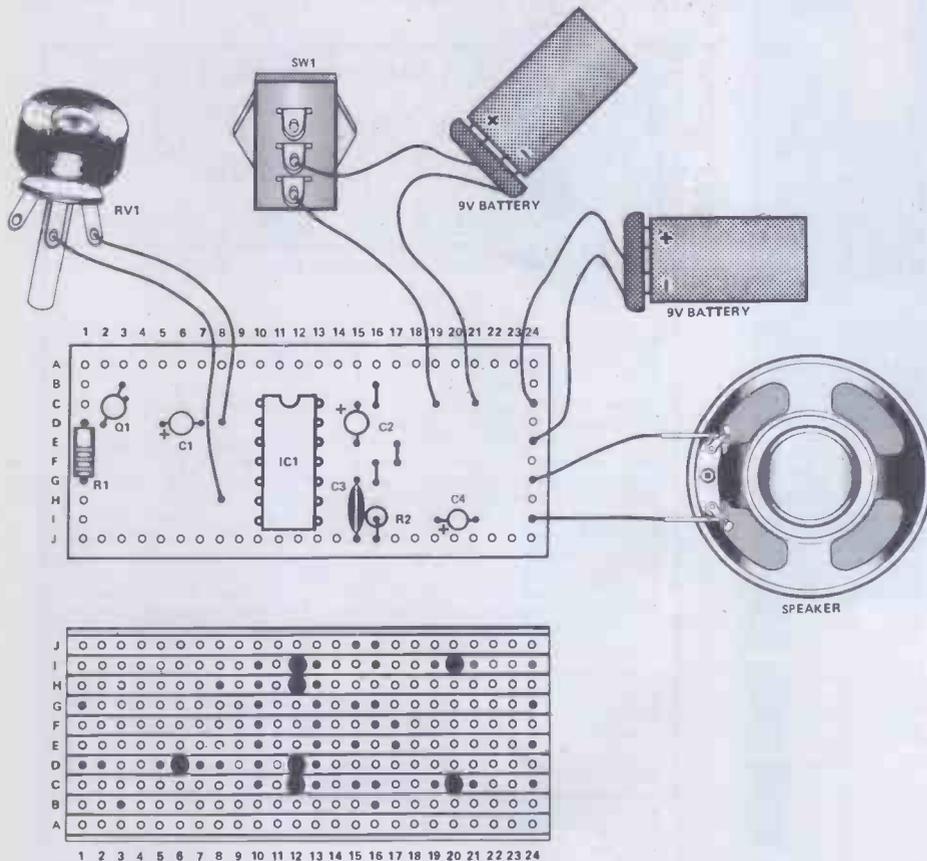


Figure 3. Veroboard layout and connections along with underside view.

## Parts List

### RESISTORS

R1 470k  
R2 2R7

### POTENTIOMETER

RV1 100k logarithmic potentiometer

### CAPACITORS

C1 470n, 16 V tantalum  
C2,3 100n polyester  
C4 10u, 16 V printed circuit mounted electrolytic

### SEMICONDUCTORS

IC1 LM380 2 W power amplifier  
Q1 BC109 NPN transistor

### MISCELLANEOUS

SW1 single-pole, single-throw toggle switch  
IC socket (14-pin)  
Miniature speaker — 64R  
Batteries + clips

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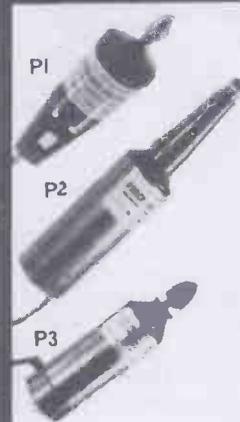
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HE2

# Building Site

More ways of how to do it from HE's Master Builder — Keith Brindley

If ever there was a project which has generated enthusiastic interest from readers it's the Jack Lead Tester in the December issue. We've received numerous letters from you suggesting ways in which it could be adapted to test other types of leads. Perhaps the most comprehensive piece of advice came from a Mr. Blair of Lancashire who supplied us with a circuit diagram (see Fig. 1) complete with explanatory text.

I want to talk in detail this month about the fundamentals of project construction using Veroboard or printed circuit (PCB) — and show you one or two hints worth knowing.

Starting right at the beginning, your empty PCB must be spotless and greasefree. This point cannot be overstressed — there is nothing like a dirty circuit board to cause a dry joint and then — wham, the project won't

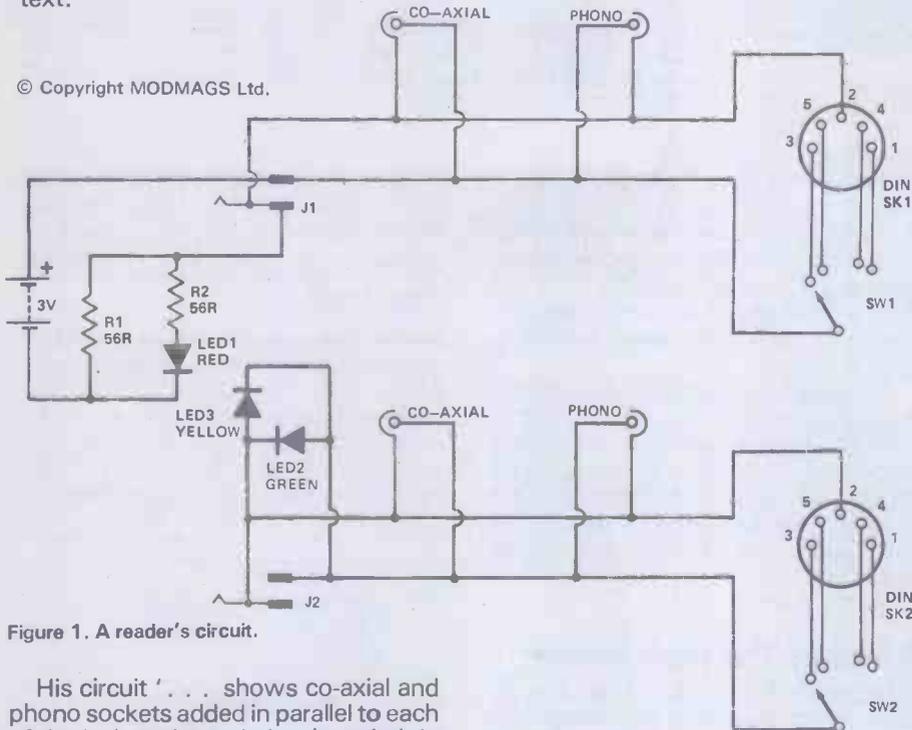


Figure 1. A reader's circuit.

His circuit . . . shows co-axial and phono sockets added in parallel to each of the jack sockets. A 4-pole switch in each part of the circuit also allows a similar connection to a DIN socket. By switching SW1 and 2, the four leads in a DIN cable placed between the two DIN sockets can be tested separately and when there is a DIN cable ending horribly in a co-axial or four phono plugs do not despair. For the latter SW2 is left at position 3 (DIN) and each phono plug is inserted in its turn in the adjacent phono socket and then connected to the appropriate pin of the DIN plug in DIN socket 1 by switching SW1. All you have to remember is which switch does what.

Well, Mr. Blair's suggestion seems fine to us!

work. You can clean your board easily with a clean rag and some methylated spirits. Tinning the board (see Building Site in the December issue) is also helpful but not essential. Incidentally, Veroboard is coated with a solder flux so unless the board is really filthy you needn't clean it at all.

## Missing Link

Quite often, links across the board may be necessary and these are best made using short lengths of single-strand tinned copper wire (uninsulated). Carefully bend the end of the link  $\frac{1}{4}$ " or so at right-angles, using a pair of snipe-nosed

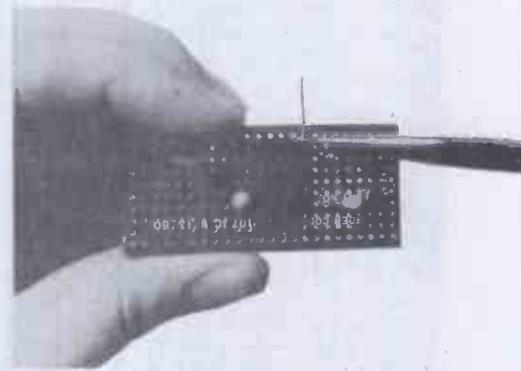


Figure 2. Making a link exactly the right size for the circuit board.

pliers and insert this end into its hole in the board. Now, the other end, at the point where it is to be bent to re-enter the board, can be held again with the pliers. Carefully remove the wire without releasing the pliers and bend the link again at right angles (in the same direction as the previous bend). You will now have a link of exactly the right size to fit the board — solder it in, flush to the board.

The technique of using snipe-nosed pliers can also be used successfully to insert passive components (resistors and capacitors!). Their leads should never be bent simply by hand. As a point of good practice the component lead should be held with pliers close to its body and the lead bent on the far side of the pliers — this prevents body fracture.

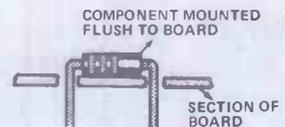


Figure 3. Make sure your components don't have longer leads above the board than necessary.

Generally speaking, the component should be soldered into circuit flush to the board. If the device needs to be mounted slightly free of the board (to allow for increased heat dissipation) then we'll say so in the construction section of the project.

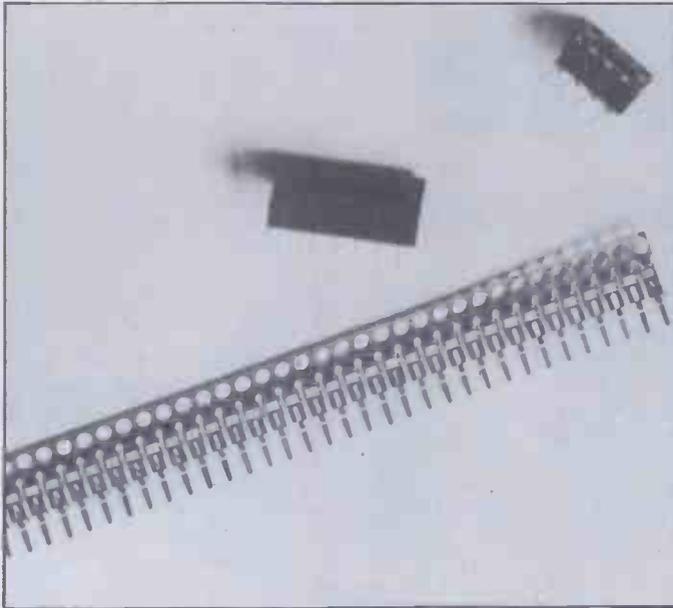


Figure 4. Typical sizes and types of IC sockets including the 'do-it-yourself' kind.

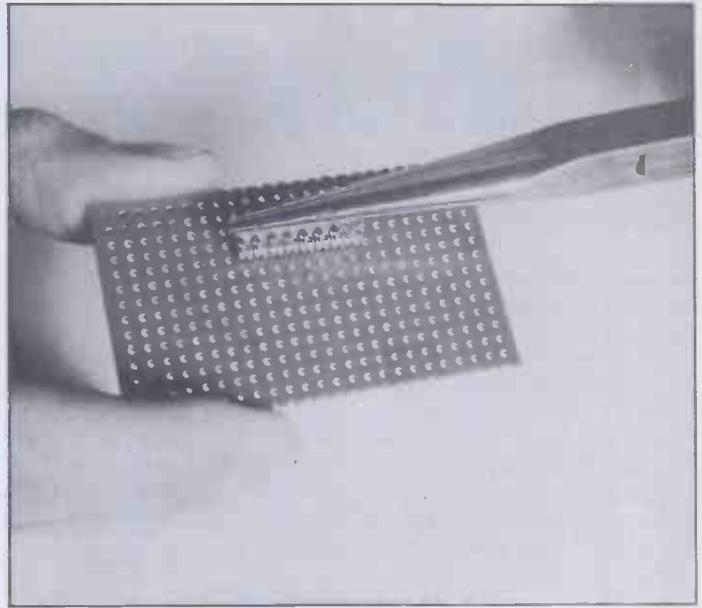


Figure 5. Break off the top common connector using your snipe-nosed pliers. This leaves one side of a ready-made IC socket.

## Semiconductors

Sockets of some description are advised for ICs, for two reasons. The first is that ICs can be the most expensive items in a project so a socket system allows their re-use in future projects (saving your money!) The second reason is purely to prevent damage to the chip either by excess heat or static discharge when soldering.

The most common varieties of IC socket consist of a thin body, made of some insulating material, with a number of pins (8, 14, 16 etc) underneath at the correct spacing (ie two rows 0.3" apart spaced at 0.1"), which are simply soldered into the board where the IC would have gone. On the top of the body the pins open out to small clips which the IC pushes into and is firmly held by.

## Socket to me

Now, such IC sockets can be quite expensive, depending on the method of manufacture and materials used — in fact they can cost more than some of the cheaper ICs available. A cheaper method (only a couple of pence per IC) is a system of 'pins and clips', as above, but without the insulating body. The pins and clips are bought in strips of 60 on a common connector which runs along the top. To use them, first cut off the number you need, say a block of seven (for a 14-pin IC) and solder this block of seven into the board in the IC holes. Now with a pair of snipe-nosed

pliers (handy tools these pliers, aren't they?), carefully grip the top common connector and twist it from side to side till it breaks off leaving the seven individual pins in the board. Do the same for the other side of seven pins and hey presto — you've got yourself a cheap IC socket.

One word of warning if you use this sort of socket system — remember that the pins are not housed in an insulating body and therefore may accidentally touch each other if bent over. Check that no such short-circuits occur after you insert your IC and before you switch on.

## Keeping The Heat Down

Of course, ICs can be soldered directly into circuits (as are other semiconductors such as transistors, diodes etc.) but it's advisable to solder only *one* lead at a time, letting it cool before moving on to the next — some semiconductors are easily damaged by excess heat and this simple procedure will help prevent unnecessary harm.

My final constructional hint this month is to use circuit board pins to make all offboard connections (eg to pots, switches, batteries etc). This allows you to mount the PCB into its final position in the case before you start wiring up. With the board and all case hardware in position it becomes a fairly simple job to neatly wire up your project with leads of exactly the right length — preventing a 'bird's-nest' ar-

rangement. It's much neater and it's easier trace through if you are fault-finding too!

## The Last Word

Remember that 'neatness is the key' when you're building your project. Make that your motto and at least there's less chance that you'll go wrong. Well, time's run out again so I'll just wish you the best of luck with this month's projects and say — see you next month.

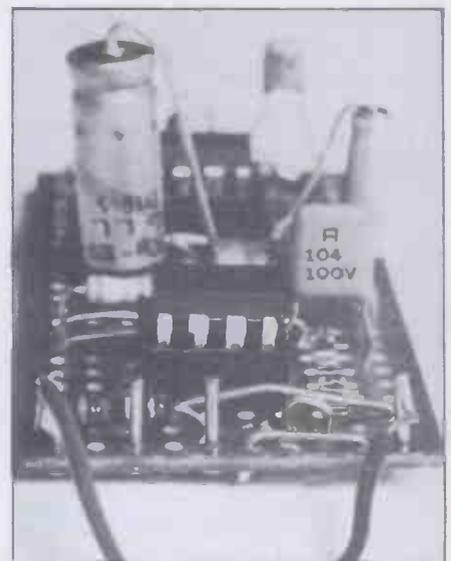


Figure 6. PCB pins are useful to make off-board connections.

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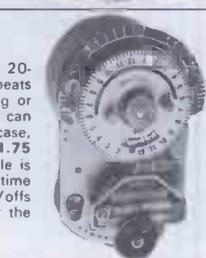
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# Two-Tone Train Horn

We've had more fun with our train set this month, designing yet another sound

THIS SECOND project in our series of model train sound effects allows you to electronically simulate, with fair realism, the noise of a diesel-train horn. The so is triggered automatically as the train reaches a desired place on the track so you can produce the sound as the train approaches stations, level crossings etc.

The two-IC circuit is simple-to-build and uses readily obtainable parts. Both ICs are 555s, one of the most common types of integrated circuits available and this accounts for the circuit's simplicity: with only a couple of component changes the 555 adapts to many different applications.

Output power from the HE Two-Tone Train Horn is adequate to drive a miniature loudspeaker directly so all that is required is a single 9 V battery to get your circuit up and running.

## Construction

Veroboard construction on a standard sized 10 strip by 24 hole board means that this project is quite easy to build. The usual procedures and precautions should be followed but you will find that very few of the components are critical. In fact you may like to experiment with different values to get other sounds.

Make your track breaks first with either the purpose-made tool or simply

a hand-held  $\frac{1}{8}$ " drill bit. Next, insert all links and IC sockets, followed by resistors, capacitors and finally semiconductors.

Figure 2 shows connection details of the project along with overlay and underside-board views and you should follow it carefully.

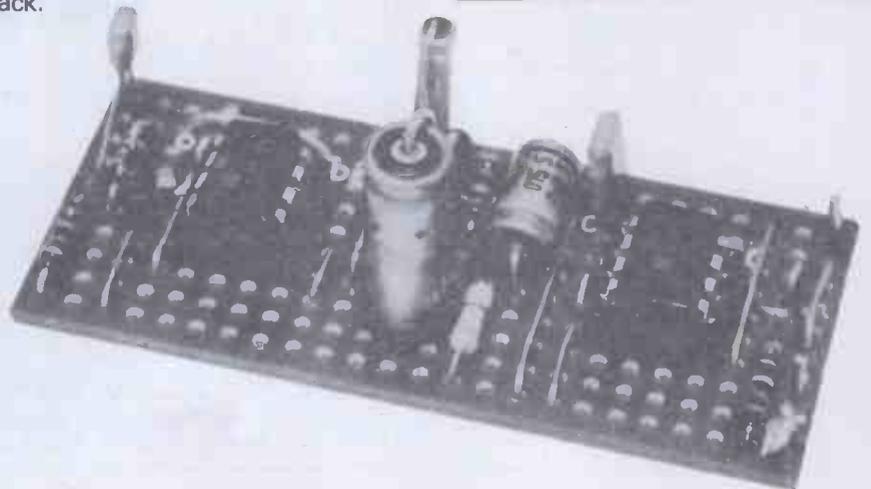
To generate the two-tone sound automatically, mount a reed switch under the track at whatever location you require. A magnet attached to the bottom of the train will operate the reed switch as it passes. You can connect as many reed switches as you wish, in parallel, to trigger the sound at various places around the track.

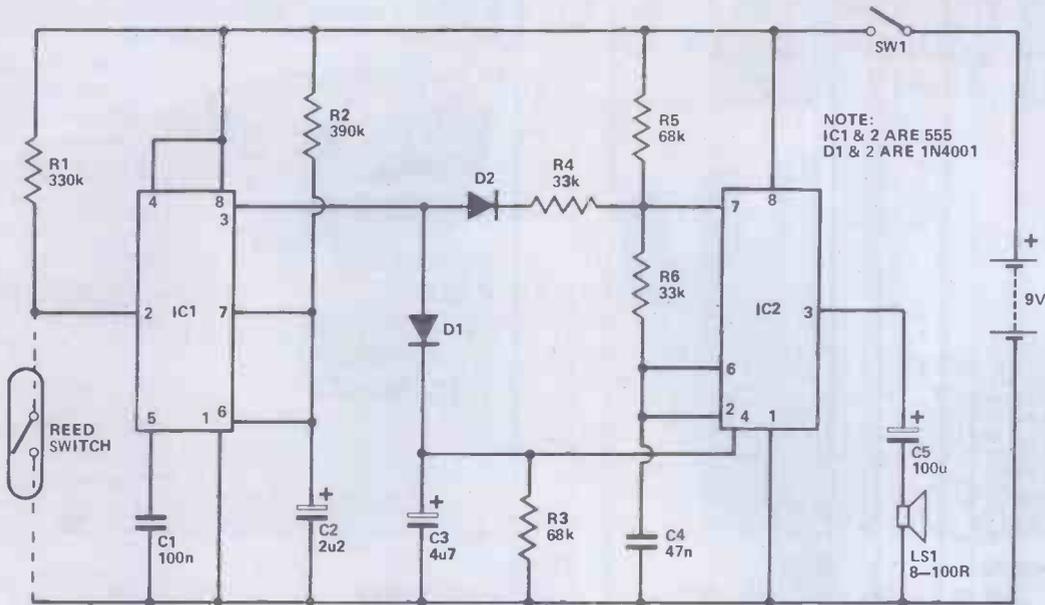
## How It Works

The sound generating part of this circuit is formed by IC2, a 555 connected as an astable multivibrator. The frequency of the sound varies with the overall charge and discharge times of capacitor C4. So, when the junction of D1 and 2 is high, the frequency of oscillation is set by the current through R4 plus that through R5, charging the capacitor. Similarly, when the junction of D1,2 is low the frequency is set by the current through R5 (no current can flow through R4). When the charge current is less, therefore, the frequency is lower.

Integrated circuit IC1, another 555, forms a monostable multivibrator with an 'on' time of about 2 s. The multivibrator output (pin 3) is connected directly to the junction of D1,2 and hence when the monostable is 'on' the frequency is higher than when it is 'off'.

A reed switch under the track is operated by a magnet attached to the train as it passes and this triggers IC1 into its 'on' state thus generating the two-tone horn sound.

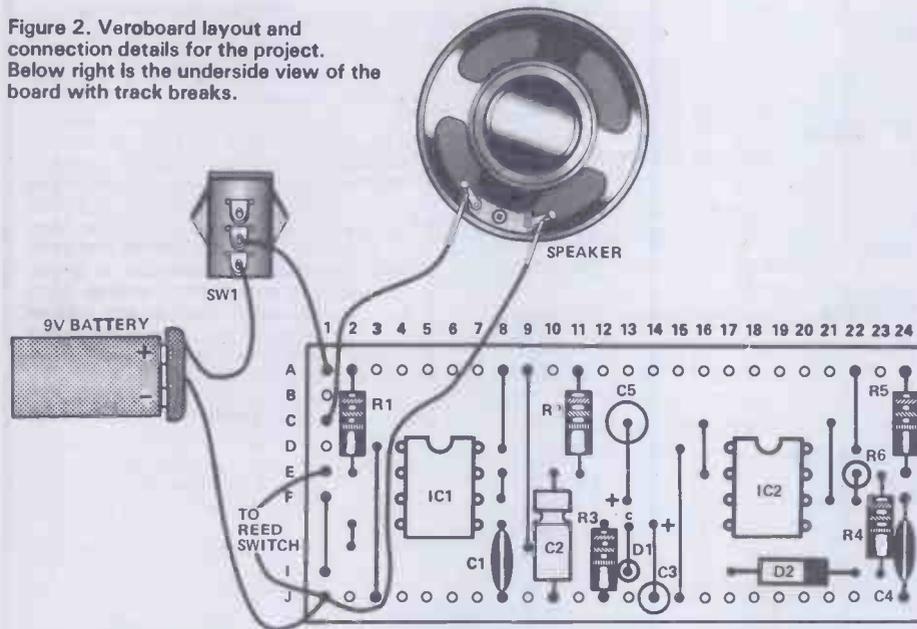




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Figure 1. The HE Two-Tone Train Horn circuit diagram.

Figure 2. Veroboard layout and connection details for the project. Below right is the underside view of the board with track breaks.



## Parts List

### RESISTORS (All 1/4 W, 5%)

R1 330k  
R2 390k  
R3,5 68k  
R4,6 33k

### CAPACITORS

C1 100n ceramic  
C2 2u2, 10 V electrolytic  
C3 4u7, 10 V electrolytic  
C4 47n ceramic  
C5 100u, 10 V electrolytic

### SEMICONDUCTORS

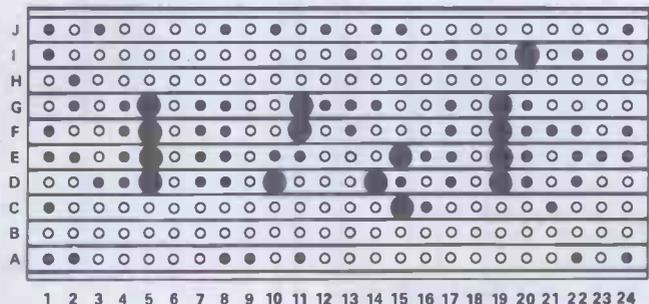
IC1,2 555 timer  
D1,2 1N4001 diode

### MISCELLANEOUS

SW1 single-pole, single-throw toggle switch  
Reed switches + magnets  
2 x 8-pin IC sockets  
10 strip x 24 hole, 0.1" matrix Veroboard  
Miniature speaker (8 to 100 R)  
Battery + clip

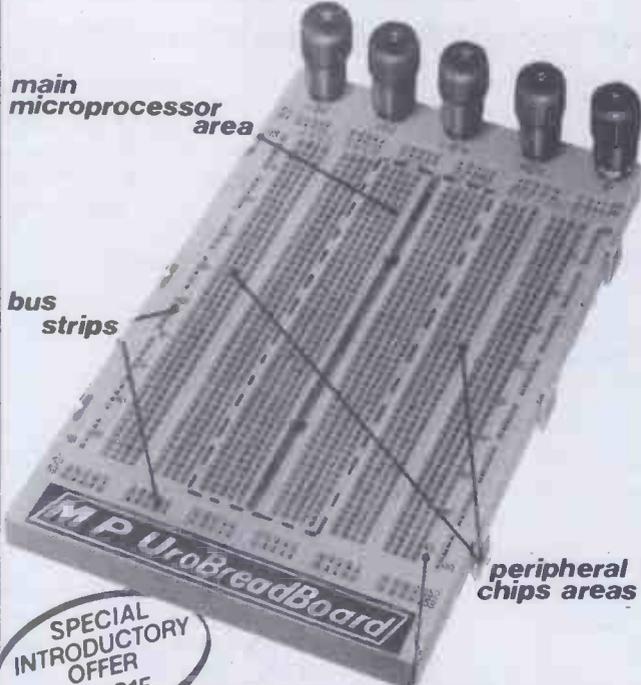
## Buylines

The components used in this project are all easily obtainable and should cost approximately £5.



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K008 Extended range, as above, also including 220, 470 and 1000µF. Total of 100 for £6.35.

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# Into Digital Electronics

It's adders and other digital reptiles this month. Ian Sinclair takes you from the simplest adders through algorithms to microprocessors

THE GATES AND flip-flops that we've used so far will make a variety of circuits but for some types of circuits which need a lot of gates to construct, an IC which contains all the gates in one chip is easier to use.

One type of gate circuit which is well worth the trouble of making in IC form is the BCD-to-seven-segment decoder which we used last month. Another is the *adder*, and adders are the circuits we shall start off with this month.

## Half An Adder

The simplest adder is called the half-adder, and its truth table is shown in Fig. 6.1. It has two inputs, labelled A and B, and two outputs, labelled S (for sum) and C (for carry). Two ways of making a half-adder are shown in Fig. 6.2. One uses standard gate units, the other makes use of an AND gate along with a type of gate called the exclusive-OR (X-OR). The X-OR gate has almost the same logic as the OR gate, but does NOT give 1 at its output when both inputs are at 1 (that's what is excluded). Its symbol and truth table are shown in Fig. 6.3. The X-OR gates are available in IC form: an example is the 74LS86 quad X-OR gate.

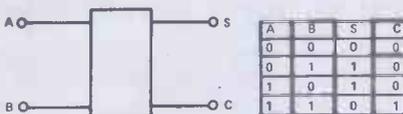


Figure 6.1 Half-adder symbol and truth table

The action of the half-adder is quite simple. Bits at the two inputs A and B are gated so as to produce outputs at S and C. The bits aren't actually added in the sense of being joined up, but the outputs are the values you expect from binary addition. For example, with both inputs zero, S and C are also zero. If either input bit is 1, then S = 1 and C = 0. If both inputs are 1, then S = 0 and C = 1 because in binary 1 + 1 = 10 (C is 1 and S is 0).

A half adder can be used only for the lowest bit of two numbers, because for each other pair of bits, there is a third bit to add in, the carry from the previous addition. For exam-

ple, when we add 11 and 11, then the lowest bits add to give a sum of 0 and a carry of 1. The next addition is of bits 1 and 1 with a carry of 1, so that the final result is 110. In denary, just in case you're wondering, these numbers are 3, 3 and 6.

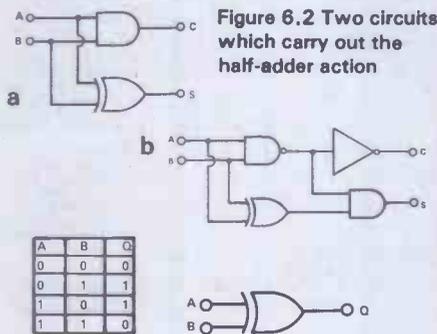


Figure 6.3 X OR gate symbol and truth table

A circuit which carries out the function of a full adder is a bit more complicated than the simple half-adder. Figure 6.4 shows a full adder circuit, one half of the circuitry inside the 7482 adder. Each half consists of seven AND gates, an OR gate and an

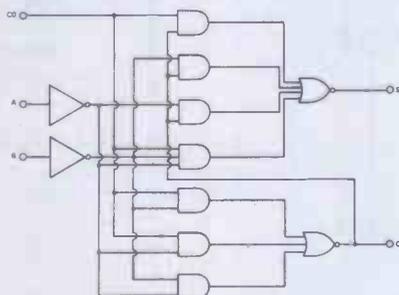


Figure 6.4 Circuitry for a full adder. Inputs are the bits to be added, plus a carry from the previous stage: outputs are the usual sum and carry bits

inverter. The inputs are the binary digits A and B, with a carry-in C0; the outputs are the sum S and carry-out C1. The truth table for the full-adder is shown in Fig. 6.5.

We can set up an adding circuit on the Eurobreadboard, with the help of the usual range of switches and LEDs. The 74LS82 two-bit adder is a suitable gentle introduction to binary arithmetic; if the 74LS82 is hard to

come by then the old fashioned 7482 can be used in place, though it takes a higher current (about 17 mA). When it's the only chip on the board, that doesn't matter too much, even if you're using battery supplies.

A	B	C0	S	C1
0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	0	1	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	0
1	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1

Figure 6.5 Truth table for a full-adder

In the circuit (Fig. 6.6) each switch contributes a binary digit. Switches SW1 and 2 give one number, with SW1 giving the higher digit and SW2 the lower. Switches SW3 and 4 are

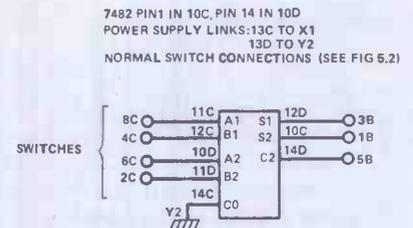


Figure 6.6 Using the 74LS82 full-adder. The switches provide the inputs, and the LEDs provide the outputs. The 74LS132 can be removed if desired

used for the second binary number, with SW3 for the higher digit. The outputs are indicated by the LEDs — LED2 shows the highest digit, the carry from the second stage of addition, with LED3 showing S2 and LED4 showing S1. The LEDs will therefore indicate the binary output if you read them from left to right.

Set 'em up, Joe, and adjust the switches as shown in Table 6.1, completing the table of outputs for C = 0, which will be the truth table for two bits of addition, with no carry-in. Once you've completed that, change the link at line 14C transferring it from Y2 to X1 so that C0 is at logic 1. Now try the truth table again, filling in the columns under C0 = 1 this time. If you want to see the results in decimal form, you can plug the 74LS48 decoder and the seven-segment

WORD A	WORD B	SWITCHES				C0 = 0				C0 = 1				
		1	2	3	4	C2 (LED3)	S2 (LED2)	S1 (LED1)	C2 (LED3)	S2 (LED2)	S1 (LED1)	C2 (LED3)	S2 (LED2)	S1 (LED1)
00	00	L	L	L	L									
00	01	L	L	L	H									
00	10	L	L	H	L									
00	11	L	L	H	H									
01	00	L	H	L	L									
01	01	L	H	L	H									
01	10	L	H	H	L									
01	11	L	H	H	H									
10	00	H	L	L	L									
10	01	H	L	L	H									
10	10	H	L	H	L									
10	11	H	L	H	H									
11	00	H	H	L	L									
11	01	H	H	L	H									
11	10	H	H	H	L									
11	11	H	H	H	H									

display on to the board (replacing the 74132 and the 74LS76) and connect the lower (A, B) pins of the decoder inputs to the S1 and S2 outputs of the 7482, with input C coming from C2, as shown in Fig. 6.7.

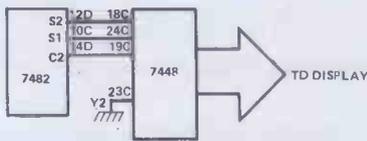


Figure 6.7 Connecting the adder outputs to the 74LS48 decoder so that results can be displayed in denary if wanted. The D input of the decoder must be earthed

## Multiplexing

There are two other types of circuits that are worth knowing about, though we're not going to use them in this set of exercises. They are both combinational circuits, using gates, and they have a wide range of uses. Figure 6.8 shows the internal circuit of the 74LS157, which is a quad two-to-one line selector or multiplexer. The inputs consist of pairs of binary digits 1A, 1B or 2A, 2B or 3A, 3B or 4A, 4B. There is also a select input and a strobe input.

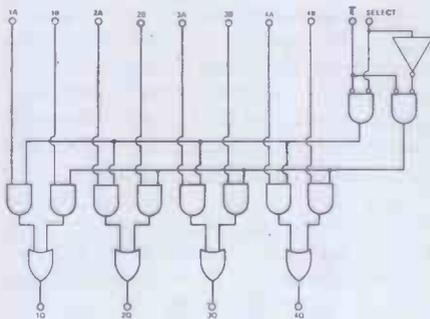


Figure 6.8 Internal circuitry of the 74LS157. This is why we use ICs!

The strobe input is a 'shut-off' input. With the strobe input high, the outputs are low whatever the input voltages are, so that this can be used to select a zero output. With the

strobe input low, the select input can be used to decide which input is connected to the corresponding output. With the select input low, each Q output is the same as the corresponding A input, and the B inputs are ignored. When the select input is high each Q output is the same as the corresponding B input, and the A inputs are ignored. We can use this circuit to select either one of the two four-bit numbers to appear on the output pins, or we can reset the outputs to zero by making the strobe input high. The 74LS157 is a comparatively simple multiplexer, and some of the more complex types are even more interesting. The truth table and pinout of the 8230 are shown in Fig. 6.9. This IC uses eight inputs, any one of which can be selected by the voltages of three 'address' lines, A0 to A2, to appear at the output. An inhibit 1 input will cause the output to be zero for any other inputs. The idea of using three address lines to switch the output eight ways is an important one, and it's used a lot in microprocessor circuits.

ADDRESS			DATA INPUTS								OUTPUTS			
A2	A1	A0	I7	I6	I5	I4	I3	I2	I1	I0	INH	F	T	
0	0	0	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	1	0	1	0
0	0	1	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	1	0	1	0
0	1	0	x	x	x	x	x	x	1	x	x	0	1	0
0	1	1	x	x	x	x	x	x	1	x	x	0	1	0
1	0	0	x	x	x	1	x	x	x	x	0	1	0	1
1	0	1	x	x	1	x	x	x	x	x	0	1	0	1
1	1	0	x	1	x	x	x	x	x	x	0	1	0	1
1	1	1	1	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	0	1	0	1
0	0	0	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	0	0	0	1	1
0	0	1	x	x	x	x	x	x	0	x	0	0	1	1
0	1	0	x	x	x	x	x	0	x	x	0	0	1	1
0	1	1	x	x	x	0	x	x	x	x	0	0	1	1
1	0	0	x	0	x	x	x	x	x	0	0	0	1	1
1	0	1	0	x	0	x	x	x	x	0	0	0	1	1
1	1	0	0	x	0	x	x	x	x	0	0	0	1	1
1	1	1	0	0	x	0	x	x	x	0	0	0	1	1
x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	1	0	1	0	1

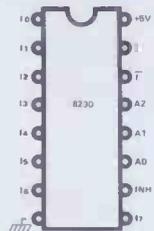


Figure 6.9 Pinout and truth table for the 8230 (Signetics) multiplexer

## Demultiplexing

A demultiplexer does exactly the opposite. It has a few inputs which can be switched to a large number of outputs. The 74LS138 is our example, whose pinout and truth table is shown in Fig. 6.10. The inputs labelled A0, A1, A2 are address or select inputs, and the inputs labelled E1, E2, E3 are enable inputs. When either of the E inputs is high, all of the eight outputs will be high, no matter what voltages (0 or 1) are placed on the address/select pins. Similarly, if E3 is low, the outputs will all be at logic 1. With E3 high and both of the E inputs

(E1 and E2) low, one of the outputs will go low. Which one? That depends on the voltages on the address pins, and the truth table shows which output pin will go low for various addresses. Notice that the address pins have been labelled so that the binary number represented by taking the pin signals in A2, A1, A0 order is also the number of the output. For example, with A2 = 0, A1 = 1, A0 = 0, the binary number is 010, decimal 2, and it is 2 which is low when this address is selected. Similarly when A2 = 1, A1 = 0, A0 = 1 (decimal 5), 5 is selected as the low output.

The demultiplexer is a very useful decoder of binary numbers into single lines: the most common numbers of lines are four (two address lines), eight (three address lines) and sixteen (four address lines). There is also a BCD version, the 74LS42, which converts BCD signals on four lines to decimal outputs (0 to 9) on ten lines.

ENABLE		ADDRESS			OUTPUTS									
ET	E2	A2	A1	A0	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	x	x	x	x	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
x	1	x	x	x	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
x	x	0	x	x	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
x	x	1	0	x	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
0	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1



Figure 6.10 Pinout and truth table for the 74LS138 demultiplexer

## Take it away, Ramsbottom

So far, arithmetic has consisted of addition, using the full adder circuits. In fact, binary arithmetic starts and finishes with addition — there's nothing else! Now, before you write in saying that your calculators can add, subtract, multiply, divide, find square roots and the number you first thought of, hold everything! I didn't say those actions weren't done, what I said was that addition is done in binary and no other action is. The reason is that all arithmetic can be fiddled so that only addition needs to be done, and the only other processes which are needed are the use of shift registers.

I know what the next question is. If you can multiply and divide, take square roots and find sines of angles all by simple addition, why don't we do this in everyday life? The answer is speed. Doing a multiplication or a square root by addition might involve

several hundred additions, and it's too tedious for a human. For a brainless machine operating as fast as its clock pulse rate will let it, though, there's nothing to it.

## Algorithms And Two's Complement

There's nothing to it — at least for the machine. For the guy who designs the machine, though, there's a lot to it. The routines which are used to break down comparatively complicated processes like finding sines of angles into simple additions are called algorithms, and there's nothing simple about most algorithms. They're not new: many of them have been known for centuries and were used long before multiplication tables or other aids to mental calculations existed. We'll look at just two simple algorithms here.

Subtraction is the top priority, because it's a process which is needed just as often as addition. Straightforward binary subtraction (on paper) is illustrated in Fig. 6.11, and it would be simple enough to devise a gate circuit which gave the necessary outputs from the two binary number inputs. The reason we don't do this is that we don't need to.

$$\begin{array}{r}
 11001010 \\
 -00110101 \\
 \hline
 10010101
 \end{array}
 \quad
 \begin{array}{l}
 0-1=1 \text{ BORROW } 1
 \end{array}$$

Figure 6.11 Binary subtraction: 1 from 1 gives 0, 0 from 1 gives 1, and 1 from 0 gives 1 borrow 1. The technique is the same as in scale-of-ten subtraction

By using a subtraction algorithm, we can simply add two numbers in an adding circuit, ending up with the same answer as a subtraction would have given. The algorithm is called 'two's complement' addition.

Two's complement goes something like this. To start with, you must have an agreed size of binary number — four digits, eight, sixteen or whatever. Suppose we settle on eight, which is the number of digits that a microprocessor handles (pocket calculators usually use four). That means we'll always write eight digits even if most of them are zeros. For example, binary 1 will be 00000001 and 2 (binary 10) will be 00000010. Both numbers are written in this form. The number which is to be subtracted or taken away from the other one is now complemented. That means writing 0 for each 1, and 1 for each zero: it's the action which an inverter carries out. The complement of 00000101 is 11111010 for example. Then 1 is added to the

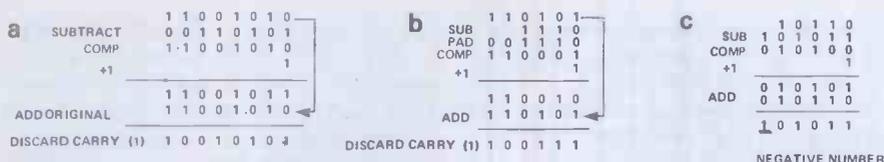


Figure 6.12 Two's complement subtraction. The number to be subtracted is put into two's complement form, equivalent to placing a negative sign in front. The numbers are then added, and the carry is discarded

lowest bit of the complement. For example, the complement 11111010 becomes 11111011 when the extra 1 is added, and a complement which was 11111011 would become 11111100 (remember your addition  $1 + 1 = 0$  and carry 1).

This last figure is called the 2's complement, and is added to the other number. The result is the number we should expect if a subtraction were carried out. Notice that we deal with 8-digit numbers only. If there is a carry-out from the eighth place, we ignore it, we don't make the carry into a ninth digit. Fig. 6.12 shows some examples of subtractions done using the two's complement algorithm.

Now there's one point you'll notice from all these examples. When you take a large number away from a small one, the result is negative in ordinary decimal numbers, but there's no sign visible in the binary numbers. That's because binary doesn't have signs, only 0 and 1. Looking a bit more closely, though, you'll see that when a subtraction of this sort has been carried out, the highest order digit (the one on the left, lad, on the left) is always a 1. This is, in fact, how we indicate sign. A zero in the left indicates positive sign, a 1 indicates negative sign.

Simple, isn't it? But what if the number you are using happens to be positive and yet big enough to have a 1 on the left-hand side (any number between 127 and 255, for example)? Incredibly enough, it doesn't matter! The arithmetic works out correctly no matter how the numbers are arranged, and it's possible to use a few additional gates to signal to you if there's a booboo going on somewhere, like a number which is positive but has a 1 on the left-hand side or a number which should be negative but has a 0 on the left hand side. For the moment, we'll leave that one.

A number which uses the highest order digit to indicate the sign (+ or -) is called a signed binary number, and it's the assistance of such numbers which makes binary subtraction possible with only adder circuits. If, by the way, you need to use

larger numbers than eight bits can cope with (+ 122 to - 128 for signed numbers, 0 to 255 for unsigned) then another eight bits can be used, so that signed numbers up to 32,768 or unsigned numbers up to 65,536 can be used. If that's not enough, a third group of eight can be used, and so on. For very large numbers, scientific notation is used, with each number represented as a binary fraction and a power of two so that it isn't necessary to use a large number of digits to represent very large numbers. Scientific notation in decimal numbers is illustrated in Fig. 6.13: binary representation follows the same scheme.

1300 IN SCIENTIFIC NOTATION IS  $1.3 \times 10^3$   
 (BECAUSE 1300 IS  $1.3 \times 1000$  AND  $1000 = 10^3$ )  
 SIMILARLY 101101 CAN BE WRITTEN AS  
 $1.01101 \times 2^6$   
 OR  $.101101 \times 2^6$

Figure 6.13 Scientific notation. Any number can be expressed as a small number (or fraction) multiplied by some power of the base. In denary (ten) scale, the base is ten, in binary it is 2. Scientific notation enables us to work easily with very large or very small numbers

## Multiplying The Species

Binary multiplication can also be carried out using adding circuits, but with the addition of shift registers. All multiplication is addition anyhow: when we say 5 by 7 (or 5 sevens), we mean the number we get by adding five sevens together. Even for a machine, this is a bit tedious, and binary multiplication is carried out very simply by adding a shift. The number of adds and shifts is equal to the number of digits in one of the two numbers being multiplied.

Take, for example, the multiplication of 1101 by 101 (13 by 5 = 65) which is shown in conventional form in Fig. 6.14. The numbers are

$$\begin{array}{r}
 1101 \\
 \times 101 \\
 \hline
 1101 \\
 0000 \\
 1101 \\
 \hline
 1000001
 \end{array}$$

Figure 6.14 Multiplying two binary numbers. When a 1 is used as a multiplier, the number being multiplied is written down, when a 0 is used the result is 0. These lines are shifted left for each new digit of the multiplier, and then added

multiplied on paper by using exactly the same scheme as we use when we're multiplying two large scale-of-

ten numbers, multiplying by the units digit, shifting one place and multiplying by the next digit and so on.

What makes this so much easier in binary scale is that the digits must be 0 or 1. If the multiplication is by 0, then the result is 0, if the multiplication is by 1 then the result is a copy of the number which is being multiplied.

For the next digit along, the procedure is the same, except that each digit is shifted one place to the left. The result is added to the first result. This is repeated for each digit of the number which is the multiplier, and the sum of all these steps is the final answer.

## Practical Multiplication

It's easy enough on paper, less easy to do in practical terms. Figure 6.15 gives an example of the sort of hardware that is needed — the registers must be large enough to cope with all the figures in the answer. For our example, we've used 8-bit registers, since this is a very common register size these days. The procedure goes something like this. The number to be multiplied is contained in one register, labelled R1 and the number we shall multiply by in another register R2.

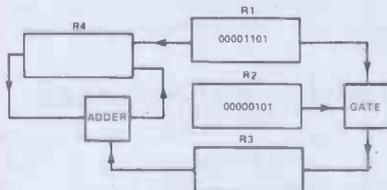


Figure 6.15 An arrangement of registers which could be used to multiply two numbers, provided that the correct sequence of control pulses could be obtained

Register R2 is now shifted right by a clock pulse and the digit which comes out is used to control a gate. If this digit is 1 (and in this example it is) then the number in R1 is gated into another register, R3. If the digit from R2 is 0, then register R3 is cleared, so that it contains 00000000.

The next clock pulse shifts R1 one place left and latches the contents of R4, one empty register into an adder. At the same time, the number in R3 is also latched to the adder. At the next clock pulse the sum (still 1101) is fed back into R4.

Now that R4 contains 00001101, the process starts again. The digit which comes from R2 on the next clock pulse is zero, so that R3 is cleared, and R1 is then left-shifted again. With R3 cleared, the adder adds 00000000 from R1 and 00001101 from R4, and places the

result, still 00001101 back into R4.

The next clock pulse feeds out another 1 from R2 so that R1 delivers 00110100 (remember it has been shifted twice) into R3 and the adder. This is added to the sum so far, giving 01000001. When R2 is an 8-bit register, the shifting will continue until eight bits have been shifted out of R2, but since the next five bits are 0 in our example, there will be no change in the final answer which is stored in R4.

This, of course, is just one possible way of arranging a multiplication, and there are many others. In particular, one way shifting is more desirable on each register so that a rotation of seven places may have to be used in place of a left shift if only right shift and rotation are possible. The principles are the important things here, though, namely that multiplication can be carried out using only addition and shifting, and that the same is true of division, though the process is a little more complicated.

## Other Tricks

Once you can carry out division and multiplication, all other processes can be done using repeated steps. Just to give an example, Fig.6.16 shows how a square root can be found using division and addition. You make a guess at the root — quarter or one-third of the number is as good as any — and then add the guess number to the result of dividing the original number by the guess. Take half of the sum, and use this as a guess again,

FORMULA:  $R1 = \frac{1}{2}(\frac{N}{R1} + R1)$   
 $R2 = \frac{1}{2}(\frac{N}{R2} + R2)$   
 $R3 = \frac{1}{2}(\frac{N}{R3} + R3)$   
 etc.

EXAMPLE:  $\sqrt{30}$  GUESS 7  
 $R1 = \frac{1}{2}(\frac{30}{7} + 7) = 5.6428$   
 $R2 = \frac{1}{2}(\frac{30}{5.6428} + 5.6428) = 5.4796$   
 $R3 = \frac{1}{2}(\frac{30}{5.4796} + 5.4796) = 5.4772$   
 $(\sqrt{30} = 5.4772255)$

N = NUMBER WHOSE ROOT IS NEEDED  
 R = 1st GUESS AT ROOT  
 R1 = BETTER APPROXIMATION  
 R2 = CLOSER APPROXIMATION  
 etc.

Figure 6.16 An algorithm for the square root. Unlike some series of this kind, this one converges rapidly, which means that only a few repetitions are needed to obtain a quite accurate result

going through the same procedure. After a few repetitions, you find that the 'guess' is almost unchanged from one attempt to the next, and so the 'guess' is now a very close approximation to the square root.

This is a good example of an algorithm in action — this example is a good algorithm which ends up with a correct value after only a few repetitions. Similar methods, called iterative (meaning repeating)

methods are used for all the other functions which a calculator uses, from squares through sine, cosine, tangent and their inverses, to logarithms and powers of numbers.

## Another Process?

Looking back, we've now used or mentioned quite a large number of digital ICs — enough to construct most of the digital circuits you're likely to come across. Wouldn't it be useful if someone could just make all these chips into one large device which you could connect in any way for any sort of digital circuit?

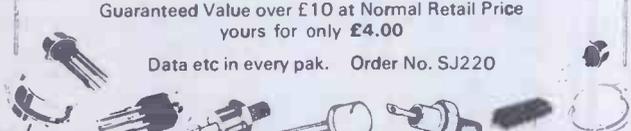
That's not an original thought, and the answer is that such a chip would have so many pins and need so many interconnections that the job would be impossible. The idea of a 'universal' digit chip is not such an impossible dream, though. It's been done, and the device is called the *microprocessor*.

How can a chip with only forty pins carry out the job of any number of digital ICs? The answer is one at a time! If you're only carrying out one action at a time, you only have to feed in one group of digits at a time, and all the connections inside the unit can be made or broken by gates. The way we decide what is done is by a program, a set of instructions which cause gates to be opened or closed inside the microprocessor. At each step in a program, bits will be transferred into or out of the microprocessor, or from one shift register to another. These bits can pass through adders, be complemented, gated by AND, OR or XOR gates, shifted or rotated in registers and under go all the various actions which should now be familiar. The important difference which makes it all possible is that the action is always sequential. For example, a microprocessor which is programmed to AND three bits will not carry out the operation in one step the way a three-input AND gate would. Instead, one bit is put into a register and stored. The next bit is then taken in and ANDed with the first, with the result stored in the same register. Finally, the third bit is taken in (or read) and ANDed with the bit in the register. If this is done fast enough, the results are as useful as those produced by a three-input gate, with the added advantage that most microprocessors can handle eight bits at a time, so that eight lots of AND-ing can be 'ANDled'!

Enough of this, though. We're almost MICROPROCESSING — and I haven't written that yet!

HE

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<p><b>PLUGS &amp; SOCKETS</b></p> <p>Set of 4 1-metre Colour coiled leads with phono plug ends - ideal for audio and test use. Outstanding Value.</p> <p>O/No. SJ122. £1.00 per Pak</p> <p>1mm Plugs &amp; Sockets in Red &amp; Black.</p> <p>O/No. SJ123. 5 pks £1.00</p>	<p><b>RESISTORS</b></p> <p>SJ1 200 Resistors mixed values. <b>£0.50</b></p> <p>SJ2 200 Carbon resistors <math>\frac{1}{2}</math> watt preformed. <b>£0.50</b></p> <p>SJ3 100 <math>\frac{1}{4}</math> watt miniature resistors mixed values. <b>£0.50</b></p> <p>SJ4 60 <math>\frac{1}{2}</math> watt resistors mixed values. <b>£0.50</b></p> <p>SJ5 50 <math>\frac{1}{2}</math> watt resistors mixed pot values. <b>£0.50</b></p> <p>SJ7 30 2-10 watt wirewound resistors mixed. <b>£0.50</b></p>	<p><b>POTENTIOMETERS</b></p> <table border="0"> <tr> <td>16173 15 Assorted Pots</td> <td>£0.50</td> </tr> <tr> <td>SJ54 20 Assorted Slider Pots</td> <td>£1.00</td> </tr> <tr> <td>SJ56 10 100 K Lin Slider Pots 40mm</td> <td>£0.50</td> </tr> <tr> <td>16186 25 Pre-sets Assorted</td> <td>£0.50</td> </tr> <tr> <td>SJ49 8 Dual gang carbon pots log and lin mixed values</td> <td>£1.00</td> </tr> <tr> <td>SJ50 20 Assorted slider knobs - chroma/black</td> <td>£1.00</td> </tr> </table>	16173 15 Assorted Pots	£0.50	SJ54 20 Assorted Slider Pots	£1.00	SJ56 10 100 K Lin Slider Pots 40mm	£0.50	16186 25 Pre-sets Assorted	£0.50	SJ49 8 Dual gang carbon pots log and lin mixed values	£1.00	SJ50 20 Assorted slider knobs - chroma/black	£1.00	<p><b>MISCELLANEOUS</b></p> <p>SJ20 2 Large croc clips 25A rated - ideal for battery chargers etc. <b>£0.30</b></p> <p>SJ21 Large 7<math>\frac{1}{2}</math>" Mains Neon Tester - screw-driver chrome finish. <b>£0.85</b></p> <p>SJ22 Small pocket size Mains Neon Tester screwdriver. <b>£0.55</b></p> <p>SJ23 Siemens 220v AC relay DPDT contacts 10 amp rating - housed in plastic case. <b>£1.00</b></p>																
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# BI-PAK

# Medium Wave Radio

Comb the airwaves with our pocket-sized, low cost personal medium wave radio

THERE HAS BEEN no shortage of designs for simple medium wave personal radios over the past few years, and these almost invariably seem to be based on the popular Ferranti ZN414 device. One could be forgiven for thinking that there is no viable alternative to the use of this IC, but it is in fact possible to produce a simple medium wave receiver circuit that will give good results using just a couple of transistors as the active devices. Just for a change then, we decided to use *transistors* in the present design.

The set provides good reception of reasonably strong signals, and by adding a couple of leads to purposely introduce positive feedback the sensitivity can be boosted to the point where numerous stations can be received at a good volume. The output is for a crystal earpiece — magnetic types are not suitable for use with the set.

## Construction

Most of the components, including the ferrite aerial, are mounted on one of our standard size (24 holes by 10 strips) 0.1" matrix Veroboard. Details of the component layout and wiring of the receiver are shown in Fig.2.

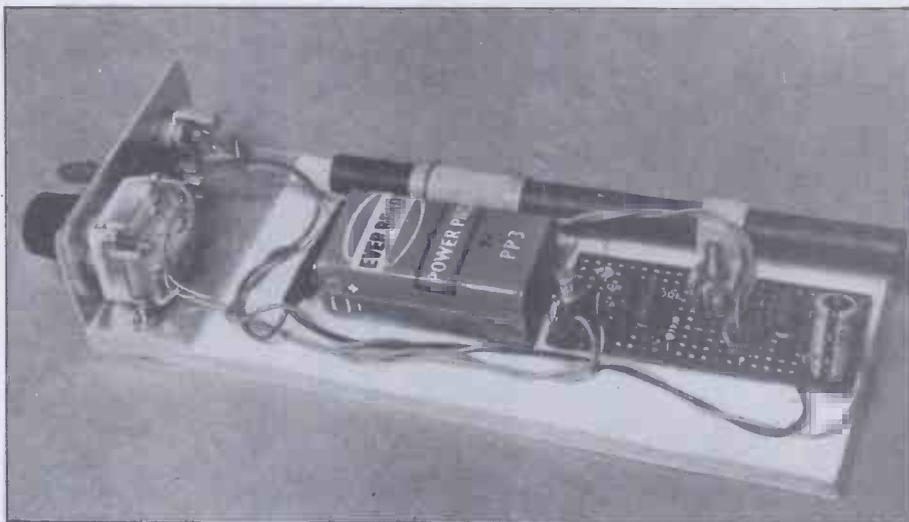
A P-style cable grip is used to mount the ferrite aerial on the component panel, and apart from this the board is assembled in the usual manner. Be careful that you do not overlook the single break in the copper strips, and it is advisable to make this before fitting the components into place. The leadout wires of T1 are made of a special type of wire called Litz wire (which has a very low resistance at radio frequencies) and have ready-prepared ends. It is recommended that these leads should be left full length as Litz wire can be difficult to tin with solder, and you may find it

difficult to connect these leads if you trim off the prepared ends!

There are a number of plastic cases available which will comfortably accommodate the set, but be careful not to underestimate the size of the case required. The ferrite rod is about 125 mm long and the case must obviously have an internal dimension of at least this figure. A metal case is not suitable as it would screen the ferrite aerial and no stations would be received!

The set should cover the entire MW band if the aerial coil is positioned almost right at the end of the ferrite rod, and it should be glued or taped in place here. The set has a slight excess of coverage and so the position of the coil on the rod is not too critical.

It should be possible to receive a few stations quite well when the set is first tested, but improved results can be obtained by adding the two single-strand insulated leads, as shown in Fig.2. These will increase the feedback applied over the RF amplifier and, up to a point, the closer together the wires are brought, the better the performance of the set. However, bringing them too close will result in the set oscillating and blocking proper reception. The two wires should therefore be positioned as close together as possible without this occurring at any setting of CV1. Once the optimum position has been found, the leads should be secured with insulating tape. If moving the two leads closer together results in reduced performance the phasing of T1 is incorrect, and the two leads from the small winding of T1 should be transposed.



By mounting the project on a suitable board it can be carefully inserted into a case — such as the one we used for a Keystone camera

## How It Works

Figure 1 shows the circuit diagram of the radio, and the circuit breaks down into three basic stages: an RF (radio frequency) amplifier, a detector, and a single audio amplifier stage.

The RF amplifier uses Q1 as a straight-forward common-emitter amplifier which gives high gain. T1 is the ferrite aerial, with tuning capacitor CV1 giving coverage of slightly more than the whole of the standard medium wave broadcast band. The tuned winding of T1 has quite a high impedance, and signals from this winding cannot be fed directly to the relatively low-input impedance of Q1 as this would give a very inefficient signal transfer and unacceptable results. A low-impedance coupling winding on T1 is therefore used to match the output of the aerial to the input of Q1.

Coil T1 is connected so that a phase inversion of the signal is produced, and a further phase inversion takes place through Q1. This brings the collector of Q1 and the hot end of T1's main winding in phase, and there is inevitably a certain amount of stray feedback between these two points. This feedback results in some of the output of Q1 being fed back to the input where it is amplified once again. This boosts the sensitivity and selectivity of the receiver. By purposely encouraging this feedback it is possible to obtain a very substantial increase in performance, although excessive feedback (or 'regeneration' as it is often called in this application) must be avoided. Otherwise the circuit will break into oscillation and the set will not function properly.

The output of Q1 is fed to a simple detector circuit which uses diode D1 to provide rectification and C2 to give RF filtering. Resistor R3 gives D1 a slight forward bias which gives improved detection efficiency.

Capacitor C3 couples the audio output of the detector to a second common-emitter stage which uses Q2 and directly feeds the crystal earphone. The current consumption of the circuit is only about 2.5 mA, and a PP3 size battery is sufficient to give many hours of use.

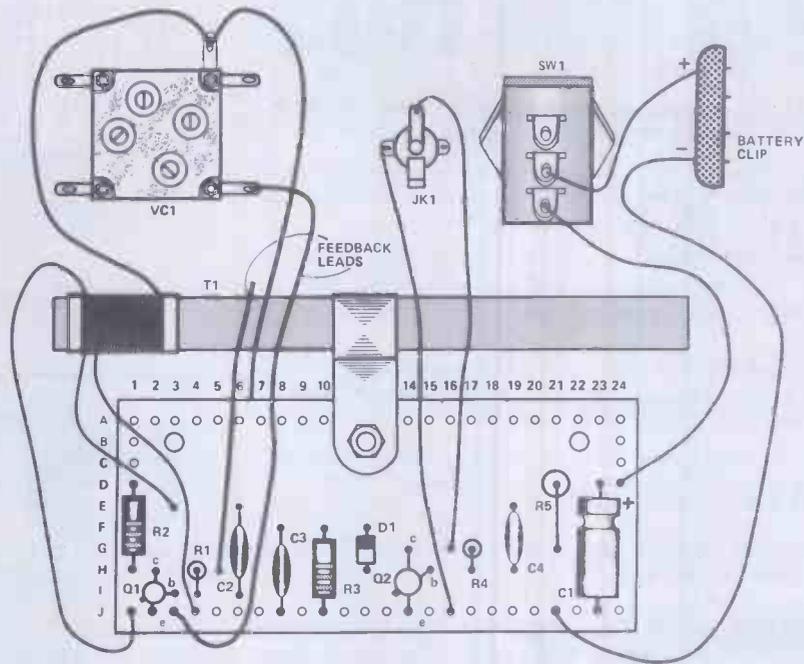
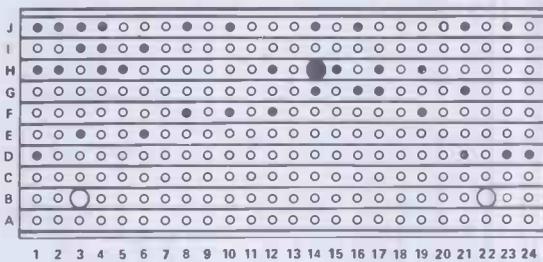


Figure 2. Connection details of the project along with Veroboard overlay and underside track break.



## Buylines

The only unusual components are T1 and CV1. Ferrite aerial T1 can be obtained from Watford Electronics and the variable capacitor CV1 from Ambit International. An outlay of only £7 should buy you the parts for this project.

## Parts List

### RESISTORS (All 1/4 W, 5%)

R1	1M2
R2	1k5
R3	1M0
R4	2M2
R5	6k8

### CAPACITORS

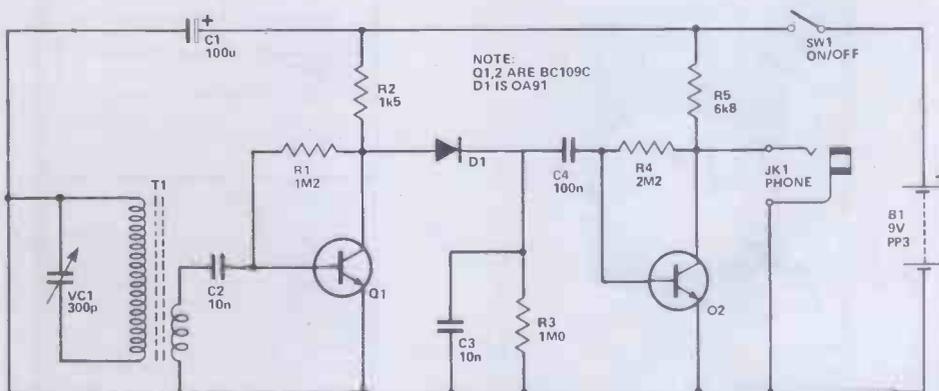
C1	100u, 10 V electrolytic
C2, C3	10n polyester
C4	100n polyester
CV1	266p polyvaricon variable capacitor

### SEMICONDUCTORS

Q1, Q2	BC109C
D1	0A91

### MISCELLANEOUS

SW1	single-pole, single-throw toggle
T1	Denco MW5FR ferrite aerial
JK1	3.5mm Jack socket
	10 strip x 24 hole Veroboard
	Crystal earphone
	Case to suit
	Battery and clip
	Knob to suit, P-clip



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Figure 1. The circuit diagram of the HE Miniature MW Radio

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Our new FREE booklet entitled, 'Planning, Installing and Maintaining Home Intruder Alarm Systems', gives advice on how to do just that.

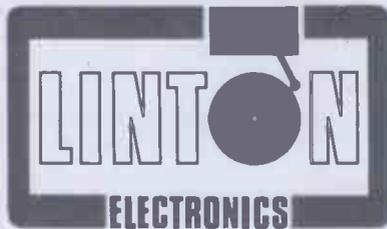
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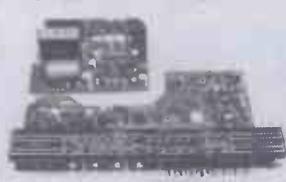
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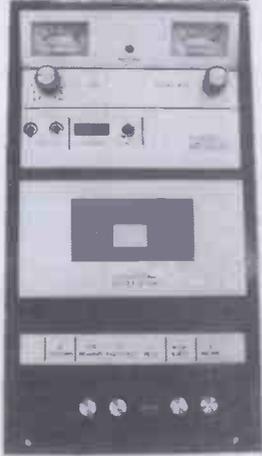
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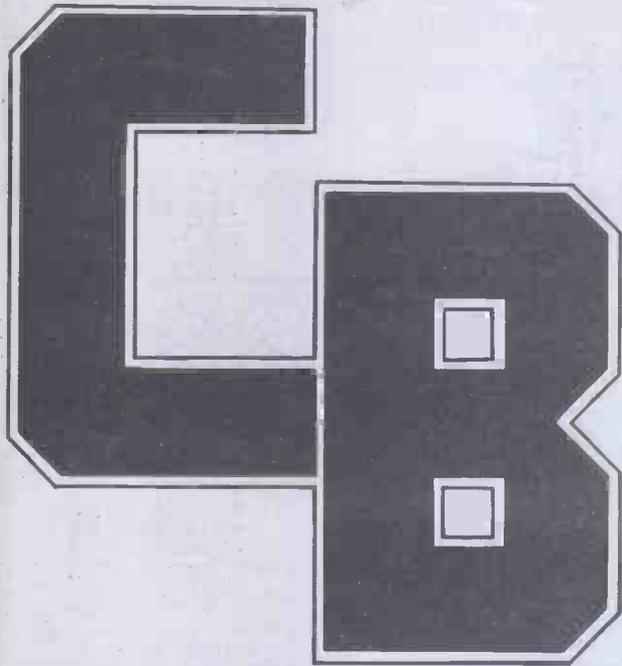
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**We've heard a lot of rumours about official CB proposals, but we're still no nearer knowing the truth. Rick Maybury cogitates on recent events**

THERE'S AN old joke about the way they measure time in South America: they count in revolutions per minute. In the last few weeks I've been tempted to reckon in demonstrations per month, there have been so many lately I'm beginning to wonder if anyone's taking any notice. Largest one for some time was on the 6th of December, organised by the UBA. It consisted of a couple of hundred cars doing their best to bring central London to a standstill on a Saturday afternoon. Apart from the obvious annoyance it caused the pre-Christmas shoppers it was largely ignored by the national press and TV. Oh well, it was a nice try.

We've finally heard from the Home Office about the replies to the Open Channel document. It appears that some 11,000 submissions were made and that, according to an official source, was the second biggest response they've ever had. The biggest was to the abortion bill some time ago. The result of the paper will not be made public for some time but an informed source has made it known that they are seriously reconsidering the wisdom of 928 megs as a viable frequency for public two-way radio.

Apart from demonstrations, this month has produced more than the average number of silly rumours. Favourite so far is the one about the licence application forms that someone somewhere claims to have seen. Apparently we are to have CB on 27 megs, with 22 channels FM at 2 watts output. One day we're going to ignore one rumour too many! Please, next time someone comes up to you with a rumour like that telephone the Home Office to check it out before you call us. We really do feel that it is more likely to know the truth.

## Club Call

Quite a few new clubs for your notebooks this month but for the most up-to-date club information refer to the club section in Citizens Band magazine.

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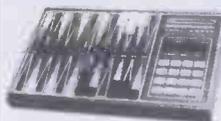


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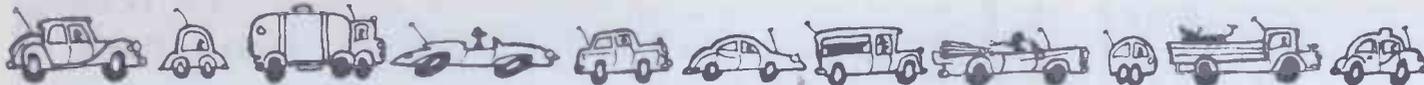
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Full reports from all of these clubs appear in the club directory section of the February issue of Citizens Band.

## New Monitor

We've seen just about every CB monitor on the market in the last few months but the one we have pictured here is probably the best yet! It's made by a company called Everco and covers the full 40 CB channels. As well as CB it will receive a wide range of other 'specialist' transmissions ranging from minicabs, amateur radio and aircraft landing approach control. All in all this little unit is several times more sensitive and selective than many other so-called monitors. Our review sample was quite capable of resolving individual CB channels, which is the most severe test imaginable, considering the usual congestion. One little touch that sets this monitor apart from other, lesser, receivers is the inclusion of a very useful 'squelch' control that actually works, albeit slowly.

If you would like to examine an example of this monitor then get yourself round to NIC at 61 Broad Lane, Tottenham. If you press £21.95 into Nick's hot little hand then one of these excellent receivers will be yours.



## More Demos

We return to the subject of demonstrations for our last item this month. On the 22nd of November the Plymouth CB Club organised a CB 'Convoy' for about 100 cars, lorries and even a cement mixer. Representatives from as far afield as Exeter, St Austell and London took part on the 30 mile cruise and according to the organiser everything went very smoothly. As you can see from the photograph Andy Donovan (Disco One) was in attendance to keep an eye on things. According to a press cutting from a local paper one local businessman, incensed by the demo, urged the local Customs and Excise to take action against anyone using a CB transmitter during the demonstration. The ironic thing about this man's protest is the fact that he is a national spokesman for the Car Radio Independent Specialists Association and owns a shop called Car Radio in Plymouth itself. I would have thought that a shop like that stood to benefit from the introduction of CB.



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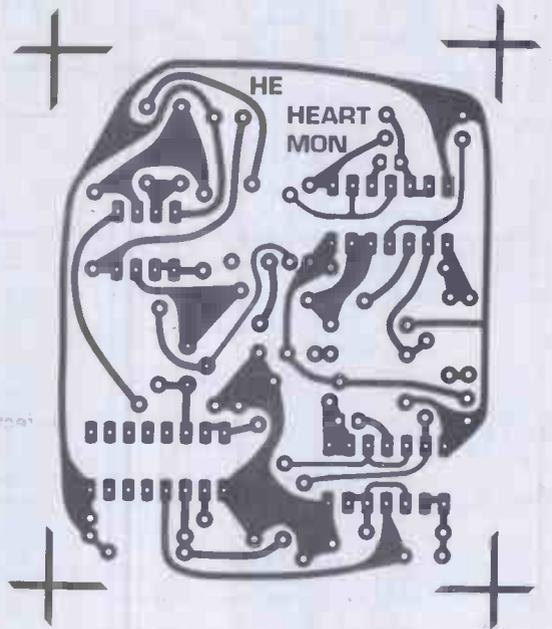
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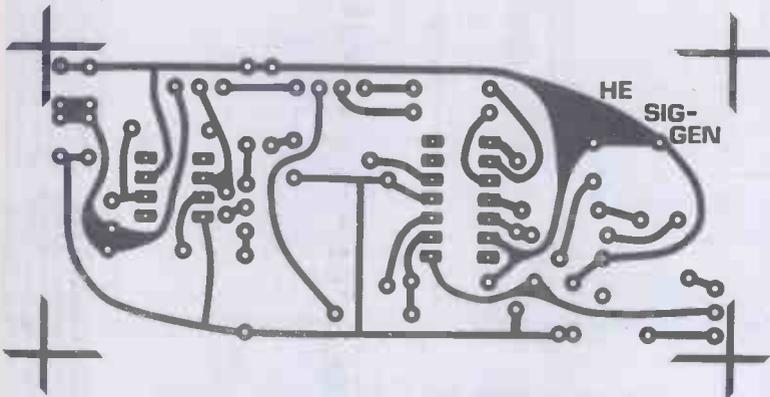
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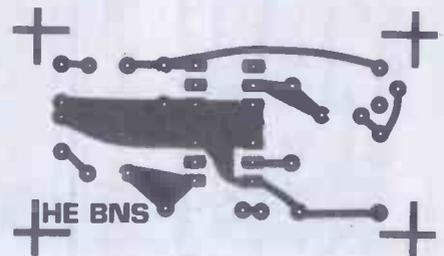


Above: The printed circuit board of the Heartbeat Monitor

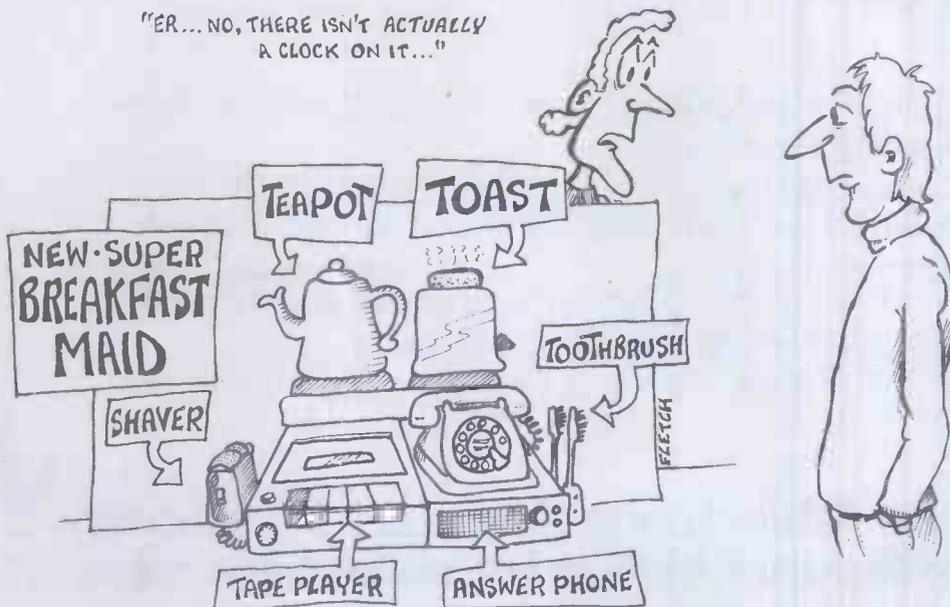


The foil pattern of the Audio Signal Generator

Below: The Background Noise Simulator



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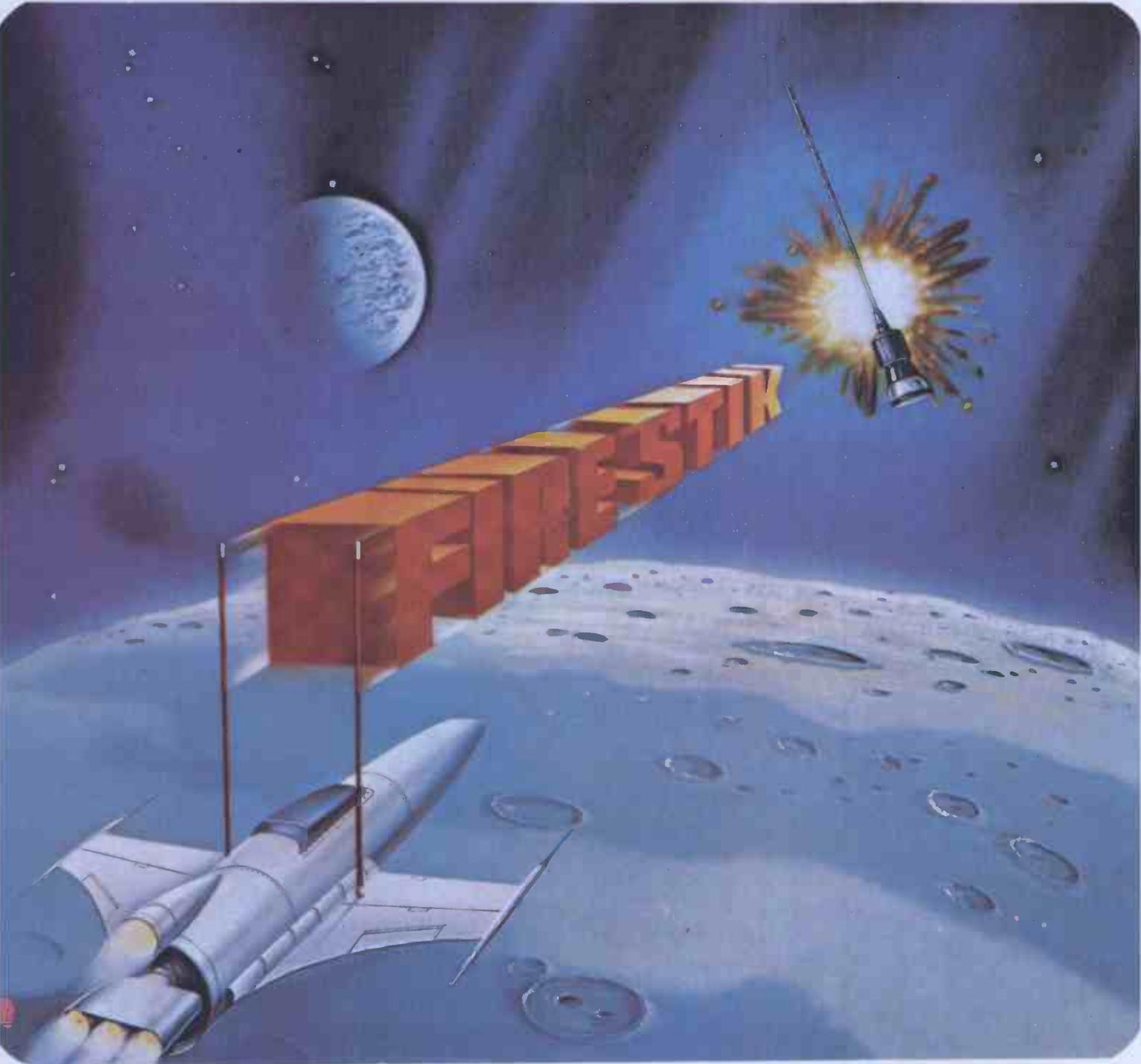


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