

SEPTEMBER 1983

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Hobby

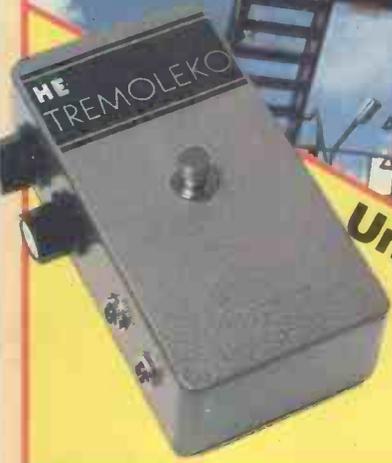
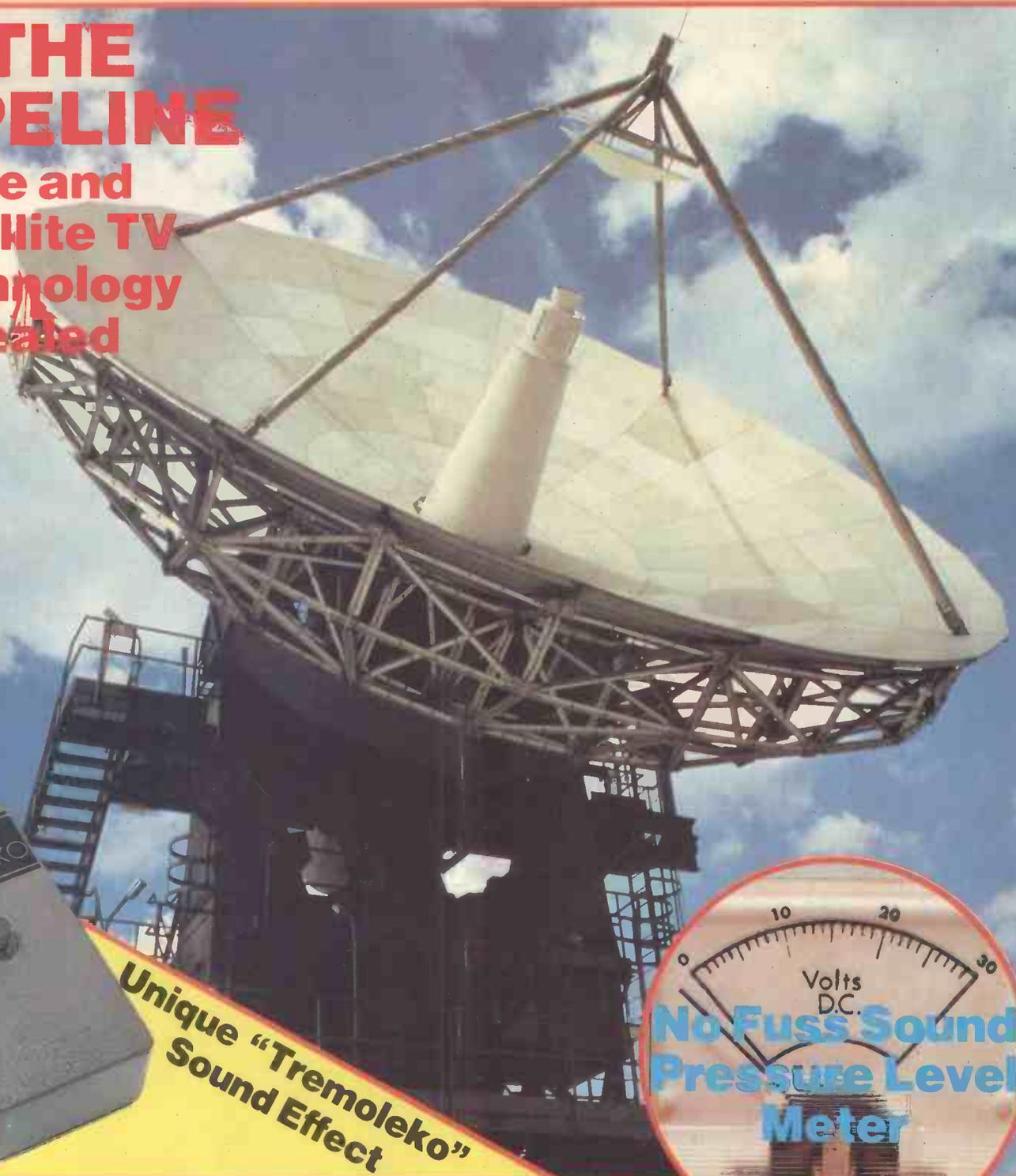
Electronics

Project Electronics For Everyone

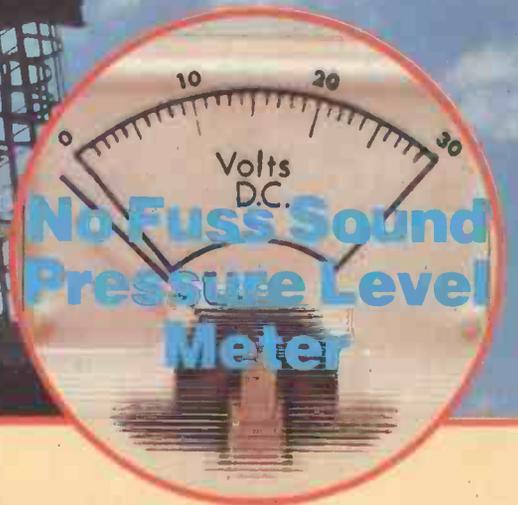
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IN THE PIPELINE

Cable and
Satellite TV
Technology
Revealed



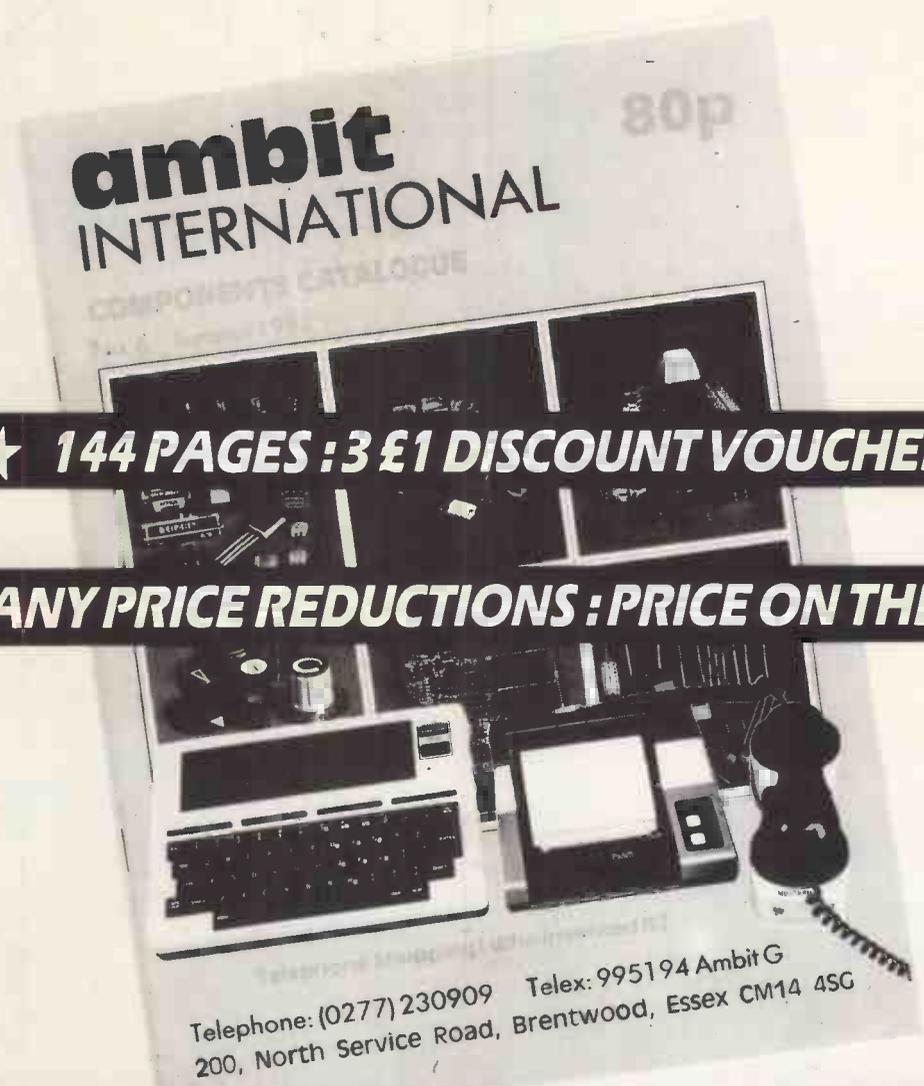
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Gripometer Project – Test Your Strength!

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Hobby Electronics

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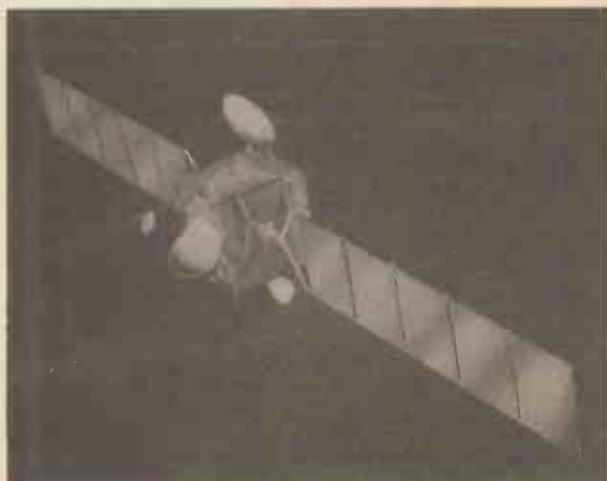
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Clever Dick has been despatched overseas to do some important technical research into the effects of solar radiation on the body, not to mention modifications caused by treating the body in question with alcoholic spirits. He'll let you know the results when (if?) he gets back...

Editor: Ron Keeley
 Assistant Editor: Helen Armstrong BA
 Technical Illustrator: Jerry Fowler
 Advertisement Manager: David Kitchener
 Assistant Advertisement Manager: Joanne James
 Managing Editor: Ron Harris BSc
 Managing Director: T.J. Connell



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Well Done, Sir

Readers who can tear themselves away from their soldering irons long enough to read the Daily Rag or listen to the radio news will have heard that legendary all-round computer manufacturing and marketing genius Clive Sinclair (Yes, Sinclair, Clive, as in Sinclair, Spectrum and Sinclair, ZX81...) has been honoured with a knighthood in this year's Birthday Honours list. The

rumours say that this came as a complete surprise to Mr. Sinclair, but not to the rest of us. We always knew that the man who enabled the nation to pick up its micro with its daily papers and scared hell into the opposition deserved something special. Apart from a few million quid, that is. So, from Hobby Electronics editorial team, technical department and Beasties, well done, Sir...

One problem. Do we address him as Uncle Sir Clive, or Sir Uncle Clive?

Beasties



The Future Is Here As Soon As You Can Afford It

Questions and answers time again: Grundig International, well-known perpetrators of video, hifi and TV, have initiated a Marplan survey to find out who does what with their television, how, where and when.

Marplan came up with a few interesting facts about the Youth of the Nation and their possessions, and preferences. For instance, 46 per cent of British homes have a second television (we presume they mean one in working order!) and the 'old' telly is often purloined by the younger generation. About 18 per cent of children have their own TV set (... that's nearly one in five. My mind begins to boggle. Where did Marplan do this survey??) and, having got it, they watch breakfast telly in their bedrooms!

Their survey also showed that whereas nearly every family in the land has its own radio but only 50% of children do, only 27% of families have a cassette player, but 27% of children do. Against that, 76% of families have a record player, but only 25% of children — this is the portable generation, by the look of it. The kids apparently, from this sample, have not yet moved into the VCR-owing class, but Grundig suspect that there may be specimens lurking out there, the first of a new species. It seems that videos have also eased the family relationships by making it easier to get the kids off to bed with the promise of recorded programmes the next day.

(I can confirm this from experience. My in-laws find it a great relief to leave us in the charge of a recording of *The Old Grey Whistle Test* while they go peacefully to bed — same principle, isn't it?)

Another little factoid which emerges, which we all knew in our hearts, is that people, especially children, like to record their favourite programmes and watch them over and over again (so that's why the In-laws won't release the videotapes till after they've retired to bed). Never mind information content *Top Of The Pops*, *Grange Hill*, *Fame* and *Kenny Everett* are among the favourites. A significant number of families (11 per cent) watch rented video tapes every day.

Your MONITOR person, being an old fogie who merely worships television but was actually raised by a portable radio, finds it encouraging that 92 per cent of children listen to the radio, and many of them like it because they can use their imaginations more than with TV, and they aren't tied to watching, but can get on with something else. Like writing MONITOR, for instance.

Grundig seem to have confirmed a few more things which we all thought we knew anyway, but which nobody had got round to telling us officially: we like video because we can record programmes we would otherwise miss and watch them later (have you any idea the suffering this sort of thing causes to someone who doesn't have a video? Like me?); and that 76 per cent of people who don't have videos would like to have one if only they could afford it (right again!). And that people with two televisions (chance'd be a fine thing. I can't even afford *one* at the moment...) and who don't have the second one purloined by their offspring (knowing my luck, if I had one, the cat would snatch it) prefer to have one upstairs in the bedroom (so that's what the In-laws get up to...) so they can watch it in bed. (Right yet again!) Slightly less expected is that some people watch breakfast television in bed. (How can they? How do they get their eyes open at that time of the day??)

Well, it's nice to know you're nearly normal.

Another factoid which tends to be confirmed by experience is that people want an integrated viewing/listening system, with all their hifi, video, television, radio, and whatever played through one system with 'speakers running anywhere they are desired.'

At this point, Grundig just are not adventurous enough. They conclude that people would like to be able to play everything back through their TV sets. Not round here, you don't! Is anyone out there going to spend £500 on a new compact disc player and then put it through the telly?? Surely the whole point of those things is that they don't sound as if they have been put through a telly... words fail me!

Let's think positive. When is Grundig,

or someone, going to come up with a decent, domestic-quality, domestic-priced multi-way switching amp? What about the household whose main problem is the inability to keep two cassette players, a record player, radio, television, video, home computer (come on. *Dream* a bit), closed circuit TV monitoring the food processor, several sets of headphones and an electric guitar running all at the same time? *This* is the future, believe me! These guys are just not thinking *big* enough.

Let's get off this provocative subject and onto something more mundane: Marplan have finally come up with some real observations on the effect of television in the bedroom.

For one, it's usually the man who has to leap out of bed to turn the telly off at the end of the evening's viewing. Either chivalry is not yet dead, or else it really is true that women are better at sleeping through a persistent din than men are. Having a television in the bedroom does interfere with other bedroom activities. 17 per cent said it was a problem trying to read and watch telly in bed at the same time. Others grumbled about the effect on knitting, Scrabble and pillow fights. Some even said that having a telly in the bedroom interfered with sex. Somebody ought to tell them to take the telly off the bed.

(Mind you, in a household where the main problem is getting the *cat* out of the bed, all this good advice isn't going to go very far, is it? These people don't know when they're well off, do they? Foam. Snarl.)

Apologies. This editorial bitterness is merely caused by the stress of having to be polite about the *Which Video* team so that we can use their TV occasionally. The things we go through... however, in order to deal with some of these problems, Grundig have produced a leaflet, *How To Choose And Use Your Television*. If you're interested in this, send a largeish SAE to "TV Leaflet Offer", Grundig Press Office, 50 Upper Brook Street, London W1Y 1PG. Unfortunately, it lacks a little bit of inspiration on the last range of points discussed above. How about a TV set with a book-prop on top? You have to think into the future, you know.



Cee Bee

At last, CB equipment for use on the 934 MHz UHF band is beginning to raise its head. A firm called BeeWare are producing a transverter, the LA83, which will convert a 27MHz transceiver to 934MHz by means of a PL Patch lead between the antenna output of the 27 MHz rig and the input of the transverter, and connection via an n-type connector to a 934MHz antenna.

For use as home base, the transverter needs a 5A PSU.

The 934MHz band, being UHF, is less prone to interference than 27 megs and (for the time being anyway!) as there are so few units able to access it, its twenty channels are far less crowded than the popular bands. How long will this last, we wonders? Perhaps the interest in UHF is another indication of a more "serious" approach towards hobby radio in general, along with the swing towards the more demanding rigours of Ham radio by people who began with an interest in CB.

The LA83 will retail for around £200.00, under the 'Grandstand' label. For further information, contact BeeWare, Adam Leisure Group Ltd., Ripon Road, Harrogate, North Yorkshire, HG1 2AU. Tel: (0423) 501151.

Splashproof Switch

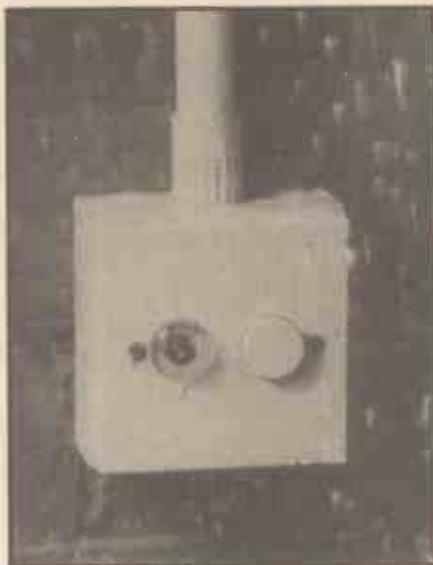
Superswitch Electric Appliance have added a splashproof, outdoor model to the indoor remotely controlled light switches in their range. The three models now available, all switched by a small, infra-red transmitter, offer the convenience of remote switching for all domestic applications in and around the home.

The splashproof version is in an attractive, white, surface mounting case with a remotely actuated switch and a manual switching button. The Superswitch hand held infra-red transmitter which actuates the switch can be used as much as 50ft from it, and will operate through glass. Coming home at night, a driver can thus turn on the outside light without having to get out of the car or even open the window.

The new splashproof remote control

switch (catalogue number 2715) will switch 5A maximum tungsten lamps or resistive loads, with a maximum of 2A5 for fluorescent or inductive loads. It can be mounted with conduit entry above, below or at the side of the box, with no danger of seepage from rainwater. The infra-red transmitter, measuring only 1.5 x 5.25 x 1 in, is powered by a 9V alkaline battery. It has been proven in use with the indoor switches in the range, and shown to give no interference with remotely controlled TV or video recorders.

Superswitch's latest product, which can be installed in one- or two-way switching circuits, has three modes of operation, set up by an internal switch during installation. The options are: switched on by infra-red beam, off manually; switched on as long as either



infra-red or manual switch is pressed, but goes off when released; switch on and subsequently off by either infra-red device or manual switch.

Superswitch say that they are in the business of providing convenience and security in the home. The model 2715 splashproof remotely controlled switch is the latest product with these objectives in mind. Further information from Superswitch Electric Appliances Limited, 7 Station Trading Estate, Camberley, Surrey, GU17 9AH. Tel: (0276) 34556.

Equipment Great And Small

New from Electronic & Computer Workshop is a particularly strong general purpose knife, precision engineered in vanadium stainless steel. With a blade measuring 3 1/4 in and a tough, moulded plastic amber coloured handle hinging down to encase completely and protect the blade when not in use, it fits safely and handily into pocker or tool box. The whole knife is of a very high quality, well engineered and

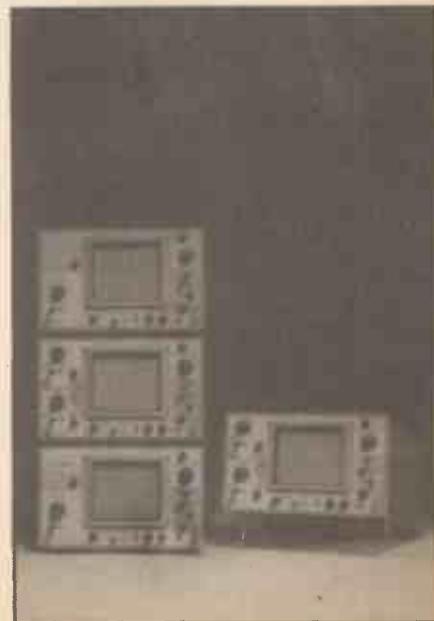
with no play on the rivets. The tensioned handle has finger and thumb grips and clips hold it open or firmly hinged shut. It is priced £2.50 plus 45p p&p and VAT.

The Crotech 3337 dual trace oscilloscope's specifications, overall size and rugged construction make it an effective instrument for the microcomputer and peripherals field service engineer. The front panel has related controls colour linked for ease of use.

A 30MHz bandwidth is specified for the vertical deflection system, but the smooth roll off designed into the amplifiers is said to extend its response to 40MHz. The rise/fall time of the fast transient or pulse can be readily displayed and analysed via a built-in signal delay line operative on both channels and a fast 11 ns7 rise time. The Post Deflection Accelerator (PDA) CRT operating at 10kV enables fast pulses at a relatively low repetition rate to be displayed. Deflection coefficients can range from 5mV to 20V/div. and are complimented by a variable control extending the range to 50V/div. This scope also features algebraic addition and subtraction (with Channel 2 inverted), valuable for the servicing and alignment of disk drives.

The 40ns to 1s/div. range on the horizontal deflection is covered by a 21 position calibrated timebase with x5 magnification. Vertical channel or external source selection and composite trigger for the investigation of non-frequency related signals, plus line frequency highlight the comprehensive triggering facilities of the 3337, which also gives selectable AC/DC trigger coupling. Further a single shot mode with a reset to capture intermittent or single transient signals is incorporated.

Additionally the 3337 will trigger up to 50MHz in either the Auto or Trigger level mode, the level mode ensuring reliable triggering for complex waveforms and the auto mode giving a bright line in the absence of an input



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signal (level selection is also operational here).

The 3337 is priced at £405 plus £12.00 p&p and VAT.

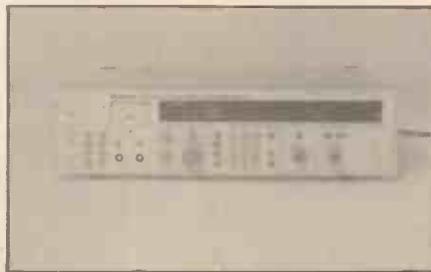
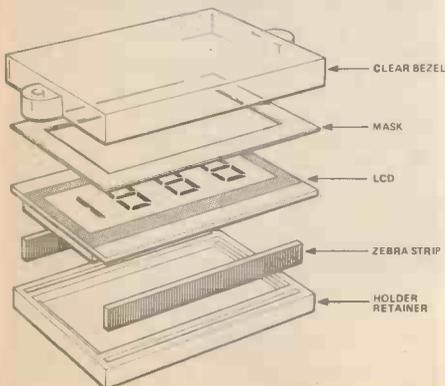
A microprocessor controlled EPROM programmer currently available from Electronic & Computer Workshop can be supplied in kit for £180 or built and tested for £270, plus £1.00 p&p and VAT.

The programmer, a stand alone unit complete with power supply, housing and test sockets, has facilities to test, verify copy and program the following EPROMs: 2716, TMS2516, 2732 and 2732A for 16 or 32K. Specified controls include a hexadecimal keyboard plus function keys incorporated into a 24 key pad with 12 address LEDs, four function LEDs (error, program, OK and size) and two hexadecimal displays.

Available functions make this microprocessor based programmer a comprehensive unit. Functions include blank test and error, verify test and error, reset, input or modify data in user RAM at a desired address, parallel load capability from a DMA controlled RAM field, OK indication for successfully executed functions, increment function storing the input data via the hexadecimal, and jumping to the next address in the user RAM.

Currently available is a 3½ digit LCD module, of first class professional quality with 12.7mm high characters, costing £7.50 (plus 45p p&p and VAT). The LCD has an attractive bezel which secures and protects the LCD and incorporates high reliability Zebra strips. These strips consist of alternating parallel layers of conductive and non-conductive silicone rubber. Thus mounted, shock and vibration protection for the LCD is ensured. The connectors further provide a gas tight seal of the contact surface to assure reliable operation in a hostile environment. The clear bezel ensures the LCD polariser is free from scratches. The assembly is available with a dual inline display, so that the viewing area is in the centre. Clever Dick says he's never seen a Zebra strip; can anyone advise him?

For more information, contact Electronic and Computer Workshop Ltd., 171 Broomfield Rd., Chelmsford, Essex CM1 1RY. Tel: (0245) 62149.



All Round Exhibition

A new home computing, video and electronics show with families in mind is going ahead at the Birmingham National Exhibition Centre on the 4th, 5th and 6th November (going off with a bang!!). Atari, Sinclair and Ideal Toys are among the suppliers who are exhibiting at Brainwave '83 where, we gather, the emphasis will be not only upon household and entertainments electronics, but on making the subject interesting to people of all ages and interest levels, not just for the very technically minded. More information will be appearing in the press, and doubtless in HE too, as it comes out.

Japanese CB Parts

Guildford CB has contacted us to say that, as well as stocking a large number of CB rigs and accessories, as well as a growing range of amateur radio gear (73s to you!), they specialise in hard-to-find Japanese transistors and CB rig components — obviously important for rig doctors who can't find replacement parts. Guildford also supply VHF and UHF aerials and some replacement high wattage valves, and standard tools, plugs and sockets, batteries and PSUs. Trade enquiries are welcome as well as the public, and credit cards are acceptable. I notice from their notepaper that they also do 'video' as well, although they don't specify what, exactly.

All enquiries to Guildford CB, 34 Aldershot Rd., Guildford GU2 6AF. Tel: Guildford 577550, 571439 or 573868.

DMM And Sig-gen

Thandar Electronics a new LED 3½ digit multimeter to their range of DMMs. There is still a large demand for a bench/portable LED instrument where dark conditions apply, and LCD are not suitable. Designated the TM355, the meter has a basic accuracy of 0.25%; AC and DC voltage ranges from 100uV to 1000V (750 AC), current ranges from 100na to 10M and resistance measurement of 100mR to 20MR plus diode check, and is priced at £75.00 plus VAT.

Thandar have also introduced three new AM-FM memory programmable signal generators to their Leader range of instruments. Designated the LSG-215, LSG-216 and LSG-217 they have the following specification: display tuning, address location and output level is indicated in digital format; a 100 point memory programmable for any mix of FM and AM modulation, plus output level and frequency (memory is supported by battery after switch off); full PLL synthesizer system with high stability oscillator; a peak indication meter; frequency ranges covering 0.1MHz to 115MHz (-9 to 120dBu). Accessories are also available to enable the use of remote controller and a plug in ROM unit to retain a specific programme. For further information please contact: Thandar Electronics Ltd., London Rd., St. Ives, Huntingdon, Cambs PE17 4HJ. Tel: (0480) 64646.

Look Into This

Do you wish to examine stress cracks, rod or tube dimensions, breaks in electronic circuits, etc.? If so, then according to Hirsh Jacobson Merchandising Co., what you need is the Micro Mike pocket microscope.

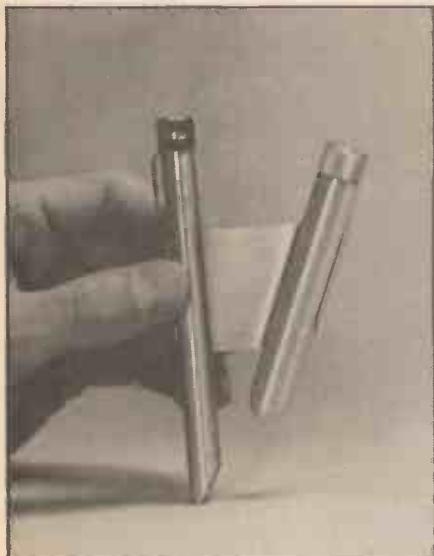
Jesting aside, a little microscope like this, which gives 10x, 20x, 40x and 50x magnification, has a myriad of uses for anyone doing fine work or quality checking. The Micro Mike is USA-made and is guaranteed to function accurately indefinitely. It is a precision,

MONITOR

professional instrument. The standard model is £8.80 (VAT and postage extra), or £10.80 for a model with a built-in measurement scale to 0.1mm. The model in our photograph shows the microscope on the left, with an attachment, the Microlite (£6.00) which is designed to shine a light precisely onto the field of the Micro Mike in dark places.

It clips into the pocket like a pen, is housed in a light, tough aluminium case, specially designed to focus light into the opening and protect its four lenses from dirt and scratches. Altogether a very handy little beastie — someone can give me one for my birthday, if they like!

Enquiries to **Hirsh Jacobson Merchandising Co. Ltd.**, 91 Marylebone High St., London W1M 3DE. Tel: 01 935 4709. They do a nice brochure with some photographic samples of the microscope's uses.



Speech Synthesiser

For anyone with a micro and the confidence to know what they're doing with it, **General Instruments Microelectronics** has introduced a voice synthesis module, the VSM 2128-AL2.

The module contains a single chip, N-channel MOS/LSI circuit that is able, through stored allophones, to synthesise any phrase in English, through a stored allophone system. The module is interfaceable with digital systems using a standard 15-pin edge connector. Once selected, the module requires no support from user circuits, and enunciates all allophones and signals when complete.

The chip in use is General Instrument's SPO256-AL2 single chip speech synthesizer. The allophone technique of speech synthesis has a low bit rate. Each allophone has a six bit address, and assuming ten to twelve allophones a second in speech, synthesis requires less than 100 bits per second. It does not, unlike earlier

techniques, require the synthesizing and storing of entire words as units.

The cost is around £50. For more information, contact **General Instrument Microelectronics Ltd.**, Times House, Ruislip, Middx. HA4 8LE. Tel: Ruislip 33355 or 35700.



permanently wired in. Power consumption is half a watt, so that it can be safely left on without running down the battery. The case is ABS plastic and measures 5 x 4 1/4 x 2 1/2 in. The price is £00.00 and it will be available from high street stores as well as from Sidha.

Enquiries to **Sidha Technology Ltd.**, 15 Pit Hey Place, West Pimbo, Skelmersdale, Lancashire WN8 9PS. Tel: (0695) 22141.

Pocket Wear

People working on the move will be interested in **Semiconductor Supplies'** 130g digital multimeter, which is small enough to go easily into a pocket the DM 2350.

The meter has a 3 1/2 digit LCD display, 10mm high with unit symbol (auto/AC/BT/Lo) and a sampling time of 2s per sample. Features include low power ohms for in-circuit resistance (less than 0V4), three step protection by a bleep, a fuse and FET, AC/DC 10MR



Any Old Ion?

Y'all may have heard of the healthgiving virtues of the Negative Ion. What is a negative ion? Never you mind — it's enough to know that negative ions are found in bracing sea air and similar locations, and breathing them, deeply or otherwise, makes your heart beat faster, eyes brighter, head clearer, chest broader, etc. More to the point, stuffy enclosed places are deficient in negative ions, especially places filled with cigarette smoke, hydrocarbon fumes (plastics, petrol, etc.) and inactivity. Which is a fairly good description of the interior of a travelling car.

Ionisers for the home and office are now being followed up by ionisers for the car. The "Mountain Breeze" ioniser is made by **Sidha Technology**, a Lancashire company which 'specialises in environmental health and high technology'. The ioniser works by pouring out a stream of negative ions, clearing the air of dust, smoke and pollen, helping to relieve hay fever, stuffiness and car sickness and maintaining alertness and the ability to drive on safely with fewer brakes.

The unit can be plugged quickly into the cigarette lighter plug in the car, or



input impedance, high sensitivity with 200mV range and an adjustable bleep for continuity test work.

The DM 2350 costs £55 plus VAT, and comes with carrying case, leads, battery, spare fuse and manual. A shunt is supplied to extend the AC amps range to 20A.

Enquiries to **Semiconductor Supplies International Ltd.**, Dawson House, 128/130 Carshalton Rd., Sutton, Surrey SM1 4RS. Tel: 01 643 1126.

BACKNUMBERS



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Passion Meter, Win Indicator, Short Circuit Special, Kit Review Special, Into Electronics Construction Part 1.

May 1980

MiniClocks, 5080 Preamp, Model Railway Track Cleaner, 5080 Loudspeakers, Loudspeaker Crossover Design, Radio Controlled Model Survey.

June 1980

Microbe Radio Control System, Egg Timer, Two Watt Amplifier, Fog Horn, Short Circuits, LEDs and LED Displays.

July 1980

Sound-Operated Flash Trigger, 18 + 18 Car Stereo Booster, Hazard Flasher, Electronics in Photography, Electronic Espionage, Piezo Electricity.

August 1980

EquiTone Car Equaliser, Pass-The-Loop Game, Gaztec Gas Detector, OP-Amp Checker, In-Car Entertainment Survey, Introducing Microprocessors.

September 1980

MicroMixer, Reaction Tester, Guitar Phaser, Development Timer, Teletext Explained, Into Digital Electronics Part 1.

October 1980

Kitchen Timer, Tug 'o' War Game, Light Dimmer, Freezer Alarm, Intruder Alarm, Temperature-Controlled Soldering Iron.

January 1981

Car Rev-Counter, Bench Amplifier, Sound-Into-Light Converter, Chuffer, Electronic Games reviewed.

February 1981

Heartbeat Monitor, High-Impedance Voltmeter, Medium Wave Radio, Two-Tone Train Horn, Audio Signal Generator.

March 1981

Public Address Amplifier, Windscreen Wiper Controller, Bicycle Speedometer, Photographic Timer, Microcassettes.

April 1981

Pre-Amplifier Part 1, Super Siren, Guitar Tremolo, Russian Roulette Game, Doorbell Monitor, Anatomy of a Space Shuttle.

May 1981

Electronic Organ, Voice-Operated Switch, Infra-Red Controller, Pre-Amplifier Part 2, Audio Millivoltmeter.

June 1981

Power Amplifier Part 1, Continuity Checker, Envelope Generator, Early Radio, Gadgets, Games and Kits Supplement.

July 1981

Burglar Alarm, Doorbuzzer, Treble Booster, Electronic Aids for the Disabled, Power Amplifier Part 2.

August 1981

Electronic Ignition, Thermometer, Electronic Organ (final part), RPM Meter, Bench Power Supply, Radio Control Survey, Into Electronic Components Part 1.

All of the 1980 issues, except January and April, are still available together with the remaining issues from 1981.

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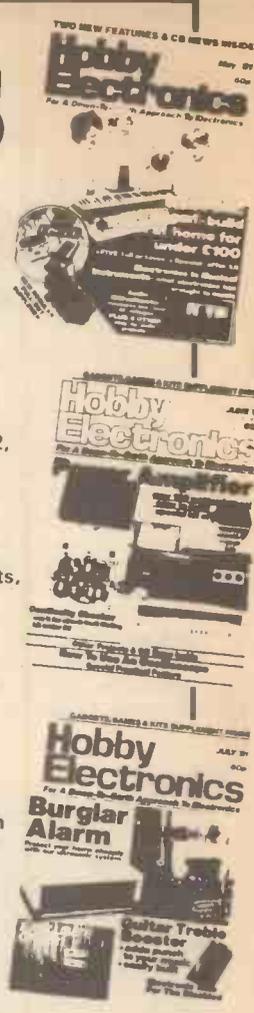
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FORWARD BIAS

Questions, answers and errata from readers and writers.

Telephone Timer

The Good News At Last

We have already apologised to readers for the regrettable failure of this project and announced our intention to correct the many design faults in it. The prototype *did* work and it was assumed that the circuit diagrams and PCB foil patterns supplied related to the working prototype, but it seems now that this was not the case. When we checked we found so many faults that the only recourse was to re-work the design and make new PCB foil patterns to ensure that it worked as described.

This task has been completed and all elements checked, double checked and checked yet again: not only does it work, but the circuit and PCB patterns exactly conform to the new prototype.

These new PCBs are now available and will be sent free of charge to any reader who sends us his old Telephone Timer PCBs together with an SAE adequate to cover the return postage (the boards are identical in size). This free replacement service is available only to readers who return their old boards to the HE editorial office (remember to remove at least the expensive components before you do!). First-time builders of the project must obtain their PCBs through our PCB service in the usual way.

We apologise again to readers both for the faults in the original project, which should have been spotted, and for the length of time it has taken us to correct matters: however we felt it was better to get it right the second time since we didn't the first.

We will be contacting all readers

who have written concerning the Telephone Timer project to ensure that they have the opportunity to successfully complete the project. Ample time will be allowed for other, less demonstrative readers to exchange their PCBs, but we regret that the free replacement offer cannot be maintained indefinitely: it closes without fail on 9th December 1983 and old boards received after that date will not be exchanged.

If any reader is either unable or unwilling to strip down the old boards, we will supply a new PCB component overlay and circuit to enable the necessary changes to be made, but we do not recommend this. Because of the complexity of the design and the faults, a large number of track cuts and bridges are required and such a highly modified PCB cannot be expected to operate reliably. We will, however, supply the modifications notes to any reader who insists and encloses an SAE with his demand.

HE DigiTester

Nearly The Good News

This project is a good example of a design that looked good on paper but completely failed to work in practice. The situation was compounded when the original author was transferred overseas, leaving us with a handful of notes and a cover project to complete!

Once more the project has had to be re-worked, practically from scratch, and although not yet finished work is proceeding rapidly so that we are confident that the Digital Test Unit, as we have re-named it, will be ready for publication shortly.

Hobby 'Scope

No Good News Here

We are currently pursuing every avenue in our efforts to complete this outstanding project. The Hobby 'Scope was offered to us, accepted and commenced in the June 1983 issue: it will be completed.

The Big Ear

Good News To Come

This project has proved unreliable, when made up by large numbers of readers, because of variations in component tolerances — particularly varying IC specifications (we'd like to design all our projects around MILSPEC components, which would guarantee reliable performance, but they do tend to be somewhat expensive...)

However, we have recently commissioned a modification to the circuit which should take care of the problem, so look out for it on this page, sooh.

Bat Light

Good News And Bad News

There were three errors in the published project: R12 was omitted from the component overlay; it should go between the two 'spare' pads that are between the supply voltage connections. The other two errors were in Figures 1a and 2 but since the PCB and overlay are otherwise correct, the project will work if it is constructed according to Figure 3, with R12 included.

All three corrections will be published in next month's Hobby Electronics.

COLLECTED BOOBS

Continuing excerpts from the Hobby Electronics Errata Box.

Short Circuit: Guitar Practice Amplifier (HE August '79)

On the Circuit Diagram, the +9V connection should be to pin 2 of IC1 and not pin 3 as shown.

Home Security System (HE August '79)

Figure 6: There is a track missing from the PCB for the siren. Link the junction of D1 and D2 to the adjacent pad where the 12V connection is made.

Figure 2: At the lower left corner of the Overlay, the wire marked Terminal Block 2 from R2 should be labelled Terminal Block 1. The OV connection to

Terminal Block 2 has not been shown — take it from any convenient point on the OV track.

Miniboard Projects (HE November '79)

This article suffered from incorrect page layouts. To correct these, swap over the Circuit Diagram. Figure 1 on page 21 and Figure 1 on page 27, and swap over the captions for Figure 1 on page 21 and Figure 1 on page 23.

All the circuits and Parts Lists will now make sense.

Figure 3, page 22: On the component overlay, the resistor labelled R6 is actually R4.

Guitar Tuner (HE November '79)

Figure 1: C1 should be 0.μF as in the Parts List, not 1μ0.

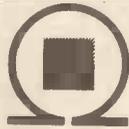
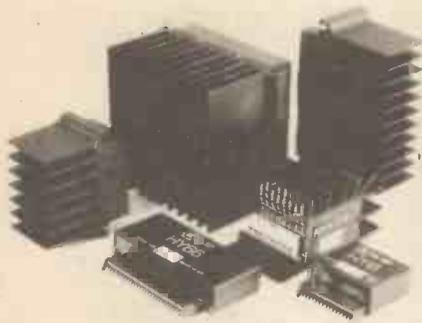
Figures 2 and 3: There should be a link from IC1 pins 8 and 9 to pin 7. C2 and R2 are transposed, but that won't affect operation.

Parts List: R3 should be increased to 100R to reduce current consumption.

R2D2 Radio (HE November '79)

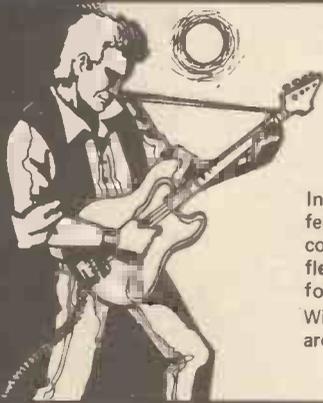
Circuit Diagram: Q1 emitter should go to OV; R5 should connect to the junction of C2, R1 and C3.

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BIPOLAR MODULES

Module Number	Output Power Watts rms	Load Impedance Ω	DISTORTION		Supply Voltage Typ	Size mm	WT gms	Price inc. VAT
			T.H.D. Typ at 1KHz	I.M.D. 60Hz/7KHz 4:1				
HY30	15	4-8	0.015%	<0.006%	± 18	76 x 68 x 40	240	£8.40
HY60	30	4-8	0.015%	<0.006%	± 25	76 x 68 x 40	240	£9.55
HY6060	30 + 30	4-8	0.015%	<0.006%	± 25	120 x 78 x 40	420	£18.69
HY124	60	4	0.01%	<0.006%	± 26	120 x 78 x 40	410	£20.75
HY128	60	8	0.01%	<0.006%	± 35	120 x 78 x 40	410	£20.75
HY244	120	4	0.01%	<0.006%	± 35	120 x 78 x 50	520	£25.47
HY248	120	8	0.01%	<0.006%	± 50	120 x 78 x 50	520	£25.47
HY364	180	4	0.01%	<0.006%	± 45	120 x 78 x 100	1030	£38.41
HY368	180	8	0.01%	<0.006%	± 60	120 x 78 x 100	1030	£38.41

Protection: Full load line. Slew Rate: 15V/ μ s. Rise time: 5 μ s. S/N ratio: 100db. Frequency response (-3dB) 15Hz - 50KHz. Input sensitivity: 500mV rms. Input Impedance: 100K Ω . Damping factor: 100Hz >400.

PRE-AMP SYSTEMS

Module Number	Module	Functions	Current Required	Price inc. VAT
HY6	Mono pre amp	Mic/Mag. Cartridge/Tuner/Tape/Aux + Vol/Bass/Treble	10mA	£7.60
HY66	Stereo pre amp	Mic/Mag. Cartridge/Tuner/Tape/Aux + Vol/Bass/Treble/Balance	20mA	£14.32
HY73	Guitar pre amp	Two Guitar (Bass Lead) and Mic + separate Volume Bass Treble + Mix	20mA	£15.36
HY78	Stereo pre amp	As HY66 less tone controls	20mA	£14.20

Most pre amp modules can be driven by the PSU driving the main power amp. A separate PSU 30 is available purely for pre amp modules if required for £5.47 (inc. VAT). Pre-amp and mixing modules in 18 different variations. Please send for details.

Mounting Boards: For ease of construction we recommend the B6 for modules HY6-HY13 £1.05 (inc. VAT) and the B66 for modules HY66-HY78 £1.29 (inc. VAT).

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PSU 43X	1 x MOS128	£16.70
PSU 51X	2 x HY128, 1 x HY244	£17.07

Model Number	For Use With	Price inc. VAT
PSU 52X	2 x HY124	£17.07
PSU 53X	2 x MOS128	£17.86
PSU 54X	1 x HY248	£17.86
PSU 55X	1 x MOS248	£19.52
PSU 71X	2 x HY244	£21.75

Model Number	For Use With	Price inc. VAT
PSU 72X	2 x HY248	£22.54
PSU 73X	1 x HY364	£22.54
PSU 74X	1 x HY368	£24.20
PSU 75X	2 x MOS248, 1 x MOS368	£24.20

Please note: X in part no. indicates primary voltage. Please insert "0" in place of X for 110V, "1" in place of X for 220V, and "2" in place of X for 240V.

MOSFET MODULES

Module Number	Output Power Watts rms	Load Impedance Ω	DISTORTION		Supply Voltage Typ	Size mm	WT gms	Price inc. VAT
			T.H.D. Typ at 1KHz	I.M.D. 60Hz/7KHz 4:1				
MOS 128	60	4-8	<0.005%	<0.006%	± 45	120 x 78 x 40	420	£30.41
MOS 248	120	4-8	<0.005%	<0.006%	± 55	120 x 78 x 80	850	£39.86
MOS 364	180	4	<0.005%	<0.006%	± 55	120 x 78 x 100	1025	£45.54

Protection: Able to cope with complex loads without the need for very special protection circuitry (fuses will suffice). Slew rate: 20V/ μ s. Rise time: 3 μ s. S/N ratio: 100db. Frequency response (-3dB): 15Hz - 100KHz. Input sensitivity: 500mV rms. Input impedance: 100K Ω . Damping factor: 100Hz >400.

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C1515
Stereo version of C15. **£17.19 (inc. VAT)**

Size 95 x 40 x 80. Weight 410 gms.

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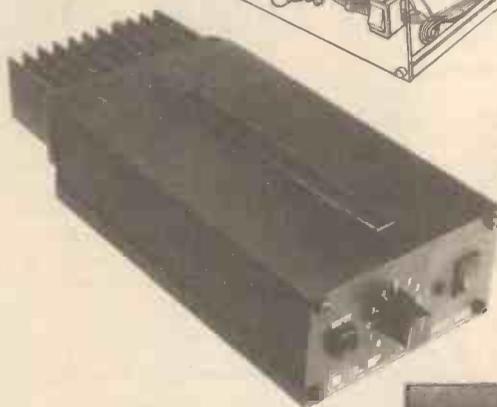
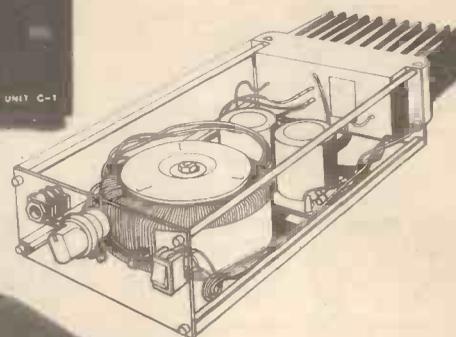
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UC1 PRE AMP UNIT: Incorporates the HY78 to provide a "no frills", low distortion, (<0.01%), stereo control unit, providing inputs for magnetic cartridge, tuner, and tape/monitor facilities. This unit provides the heart of the hi fi system and can be used in conjunction with any of the UP Unicase series of power amps. For ultimate hum rejection the UC1 draws its power from the power amp unit.

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UC1	Preamp				£29.95
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UP4X	120W/4Ω	Bipolar	Mono	HiFi	£74.95
UP5X	120W/8Ω	Bipolar	Mono	HiFi	£74.95
UP6X	60W/4-8Ω	MOS	Mono	HiFi	£64.95
UP7X	120W/4-8Ω	MOS	Mono	HiFi	£84.95
Power Slaves					
US1X	60W/4Ω	Bipolar	Power	Slave	£59.95
US2X	120W/4Ω	Bipolar	Power	Slave	£79.95
US3X	60W/4-8Ω	MOS	Power	Slave	£69.95
US4X	120W/4-8Ω	MOS	Power	Slave	£89.95

Please note X in part number denotes mains voltage. Please insert 'O' in place of X for 110V, '1' in place of X for 220V (Europe), and '2' in place of X for 240V (U.K.). All units except UC1 incorporate our own toroidal transformers.



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Sound Pressure Level Meter

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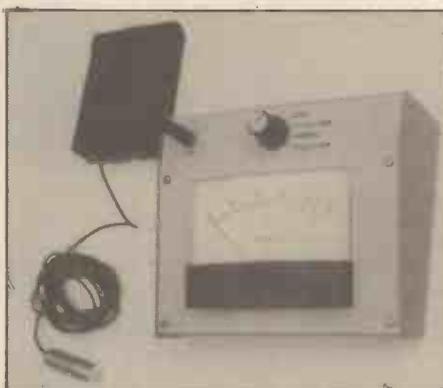
James E. Aman

The HE Sound Pressure Level Meter has been designed to provide a modestly priced and — most important — easily calibrated instrument for the measurement of sound levels in the range of 40 to 110 dB SPL. The range of sound pressure levels encountered in normal everyday living varies from about 50dB to around 100dB SPL (Figure 1), so the HE SPL meter is quite adequate for normal purposes, such as setting up a hifi system using a graphic equaliser and the SPL meter to check that the system is producing equal sound levels at all frequencies in the audio band. You can also use it for measuring the noise level from a neighbour's party before calling in the SAS!

On average the human ear can detect sound levels over a truly astounding range, from 0.0002 microbars up to 200 microbars, in fact (for comparison, the atmospheric pressure at sea level is 1,000,000 microbars). That is a range exactly of one million to one, and such large ratios are usually expressed as a logarithmic ratio with respect to an agreed reference level; in sound level measurement, the agreed reference level is 0.0002 microbars, corresponding to 0dB Sound Pressure Level (SPL). This level is also known as the Threshold Of Hearing and at the other end of the scale, around 120dB SPL, is the Threshold Of Pain, where a sound is so intense as to cause physical discomfort and possible injury. The level which is actually painful is very much an empirical level, different with different people, but 120dB SPL will cause degradation of hearing.

Traditionally the problem with SPL meters has been to devise a circuit which produces an accurate electrical analogue of the sound level, and then to calibrate a meter scale to accurately reflect changes in the sound pressure level. Normally the scale is logarithmic, since this is the only way to compress huge ratios into a meaningful scale (imagine a meter intended to read units from 0 to 1,000,000; that's an awfully long scale you've got there!)

The first problem is solved relatively easily by using a standard, known (but



inexpensive) microphone with a reliable linear response; that is, a given increase in the sound pressure level will produce a known increase in the microphone output.

The second problem is solved in a very radical manner, by using a digital integrated circuit to compress the linear scale of 1,000,000: 1 into a logarithmic scale ranging from 40 to 110dB SPL. The circuit, as you will see, consists of a switched range linear amplifier to boost the microphone signal; a precision rectifier to peak-detect the signal, and a logarithmic 30dB display driver coupled to a linear motor; the LM3915 LED bar-graph driver is used here as the linear answer to logarithmic metering! Now read on . . .

Sound Circuits

Sound is picked up by an electret condenser microphone, which produces a very strong output to give a good signal-to-noise ratio and freedom from hum and interference. This is fed to the non-inverting input of IC1 via a fixed attenuator consisting of R1 and R2, to reduce the signal to a manageable level.

IC1 is wired as a switched-gain non-inverting amplifier. The feedback around the IC is taken via SW1 so that three different gains are available; thus the sensitivity is selectable by plus or minus 20dB. The four positions switch from Off to Scale -20dB, Normal Scale and Scale +20dB.

The supply rails to IC1 are isolated from the main supply by two transistors, Q1 and Q2. The value of

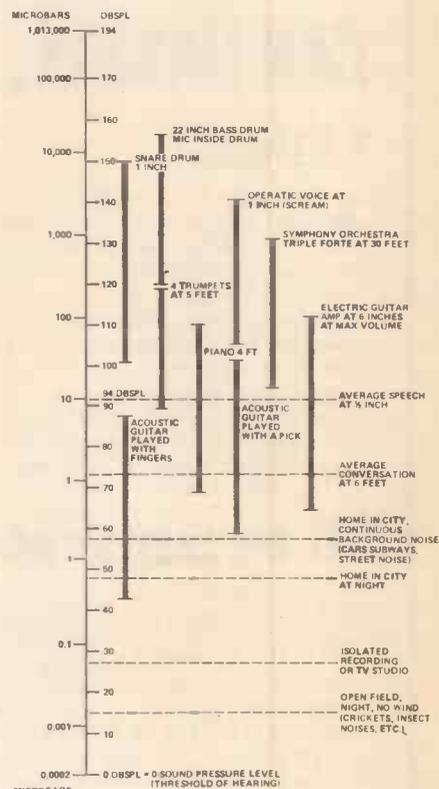
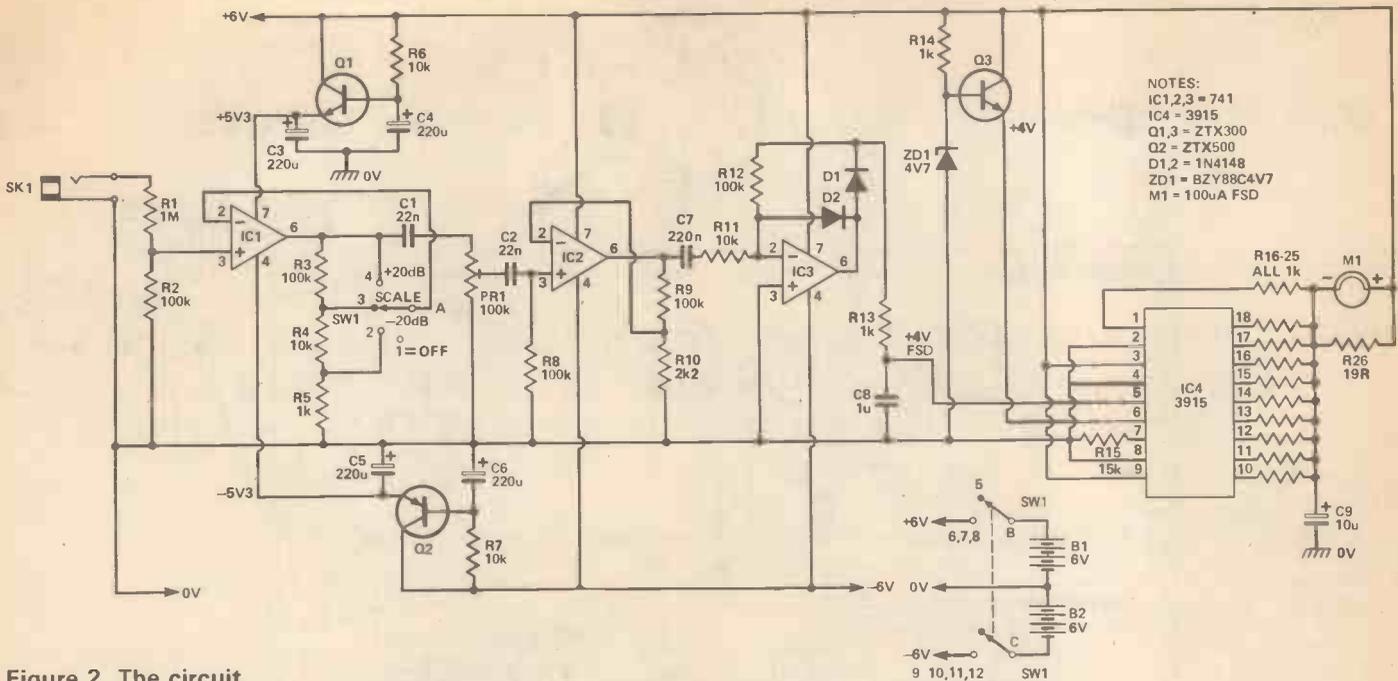


Figure 1. A sample of sound pressure levels encountered in everyday living (if you happen to live next door to a recording studio.).

the capacitors connected between base and earth are effectively multiplied by the beta (DC current gain) of the transistors, typically 100 for the types used, forming smoothing capacitors of around .02 farads. These keep the supply to IC1 rock steady, even when IC4 draws varying current, resulting in a very stable amplifier.

The output of IC1 is fed to IC2 for further amplification; it goes via PR1, which is used to set the overall system level.

IC3 is connected as a precision half-wave rectifier, where the threshold voltage (OV6) of the two diodes is effectively reduced by the equivalent of the open-loop gain of the op-amp. The precision rectifier is set-up as a peak detector; filter capacitor C8 is charged up on each positive peak, via R13, then discharges via R13 and R12.



NOTES:
 IC1,2,3 = 741
 IC4 = 3915
 Q1,3 = ZTX300
 Q2 = ZTX500
 D1,2 = 1N4148
 ZD1 = BZY88C4V7
 M1 = 100uA FSD

Figure 2. The circuit.

This arrangement gives the fast attack and slow decay times required for peak detection; to convert to average-reading, the values of R12 and R13 should be reversed, ie R12 should be 100k and R13, 1k.

The signal at the junction of R13 and C8 is a DC level, and this is fed to pin 5 of IC4, and LM3915.

This IC is normally used to drive an array of LEDs in either dot-mode, where only one LED is illuminated at one time, or in bar-mode, where the line of LEDs light up successively. It converts an analogue input voltage to directly drive up to ten LEDs, with the amplitude of the input determining the number of LEDs (in bar-mode) illuminated.

[Internally the LM3915 is very similar to the array of comparators driving the LEDs in this month's Gripometer project - See Figure 4, overleaf.]

Linear To Log

The LM3915 has logarithmic characteristics; each output is turned on by a successive 3dB increase in the input amplitude, which is exactly the required relationship for measuring sound pressure levels that vary linearly by a factor of over one million! Instead of tediously having to calibrate a logarithmic meter scale, this IC converts quickly and simply from linear scale to logarithmic.

Each output, which goes 'low' when it is 'on', normally drives an LED connected to V+, and for this reason the outputs are all open-collector, or 'uncommitted'; thus if each output is simply connected to V+ via individual resistors only, the total current that flows from the supply rail is the sum of the currents flowing into each output. In the circuit, the outputs are summed in resistors R16-25, while the total current is measured by M1.

Parts List

RESISTORS (All 1/4 watt 5% carbon)		SEMICONDUCTORS	
R1	1M	IC1, 2, 3	LF351
R2, 8, 9, 12	100k		JFET op-amp
R3	100R	IC4	3915
R4, 6, 7, 11	10k		log display driver
R5, 13, 14	1kR	Q1, 3	ZTX300
R10	2k2		NPN transistor
R15	15k	Q2	ZTX500
	(see text)		PNP transistor
R16-25	1k	D1, 2	1N4148 etc
R26	19R	ZD1	BCY88C4V7
	(see text)		
CAPACITORS		MISCELLANEOUS	
C1, 2	22n polyester	SW1	3-pole 4-way rotary (see Buylines)
C3, 4, 5, 6	220u 16V axial electro	SK1	3.5mm (1/4") mono
C7	220n polyester	M1	100uA panel meter
C8	1u polycarbonate		Altai EM-104 microphone; case; PCB; 2 x HP7 battery holders, PP9 clips; wire, solder, nus and bolts etc.
C9	10u 16V axial electro	BUYLINES	page 34

And since each output represents a 3dB increase at the input, the meter reading corresponds to the input level, on a logarithmic scale!

The outputs from IC4 are from pins 1 and 10-18; pin 9 is connected to V+ and sets the IC to bar-graph mode, so that as each output becomes active the current it draws is added to the others. Pin 7 is the 'reference output' normally used to set the size of the 'step' at which successive outputs turn on; it is not used for this purpose here, but the value of the resistor connected between pin 7 and 0V also sets the maximum current available to each output, so that R15 limits the total current to around six milliamps for full scale meter deflection (corresponding to 90dB SP on the normal scale).

The reference voltage needed to set the step size for this application is 4V, provided by the emitter follower/Zener diode circuit consisting of Q3 and ZD1; the OV7 base-emitter drop of Q3 is neatly offset by using a 4V7 Zener. The reference voltage is connected to the high end of the internal divider chain at pin 6, and the low end of the chain is connected to 0V, so that the maximum input voltage the IC can accept for full output is likewise, 4V. Pin 8, the 'reference adjust' input, is not used and is connected to 0V.

The specified meter is a 100 microamp type, which would not respond with pleasure to a maximum input sixty times higher, therefore it is shunted by R26 to increase the current range.

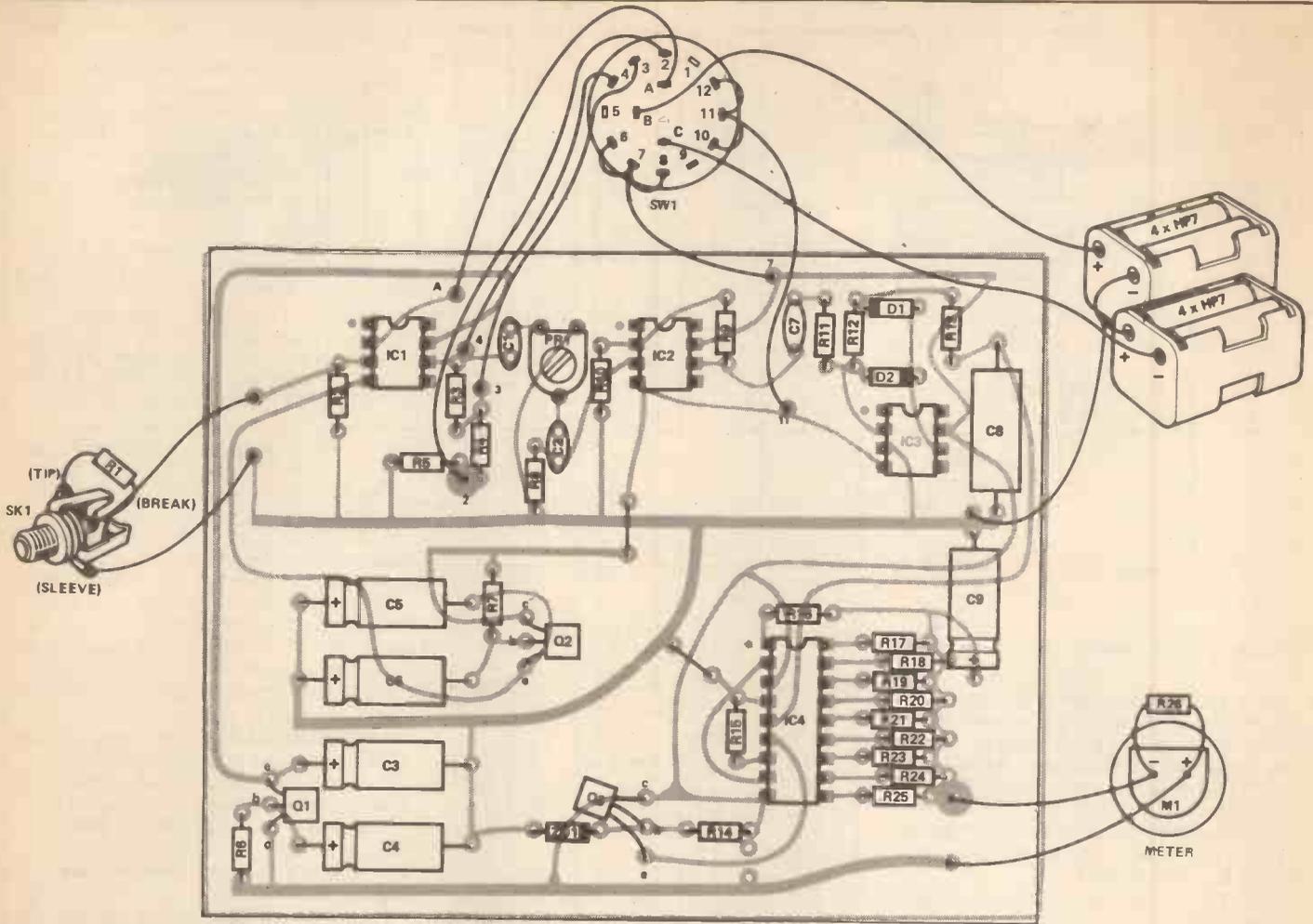


Figure 3. The PCB and components for the Sound Pressure Level Meter.

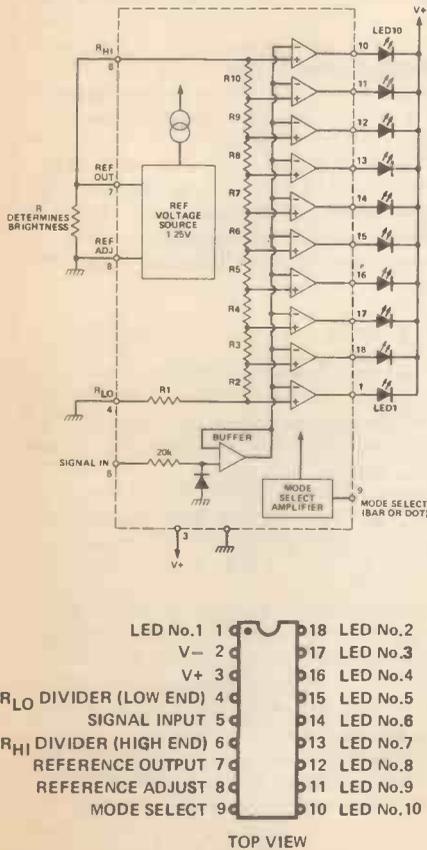


Figure 4. Inside the IC4, the LM3915 (see page 15 above).

Construction

Assembling this project should present no unusual problems. The PCB together with the component layout diagram (Figure 3) facilitate construction.

When wiring the microphone jack to the board, a twisted pair or screened lead should be used to minimise hum problems and R26 should be mounted directly on the jack socket. The one specified has an extra shorting contact which opens when a jack is inserted and this spare compact can be used to mount the R2-end of R1.

The meter shunt resistor R26 is made up from a 22 ohm resistor in parallel with 150 ohms, and these should be soldered across the meter terminals.

The range/power-on switch, SW1, should present few problems provided the specified type is used; it is a CK 3-pole, 4-way switch, readily available from most suppliers, and all the pins are numbered so they are simply connected to the numbered points shown in the overlay diagram.

Please note that the circuit is intended for use with an Altai EM-104 electret condenser microphone, which has a high level output and an exceptionally flat response for its type. They are readily available, but if another type is used then the calibration becomes a matter for the dedicated experimenter!

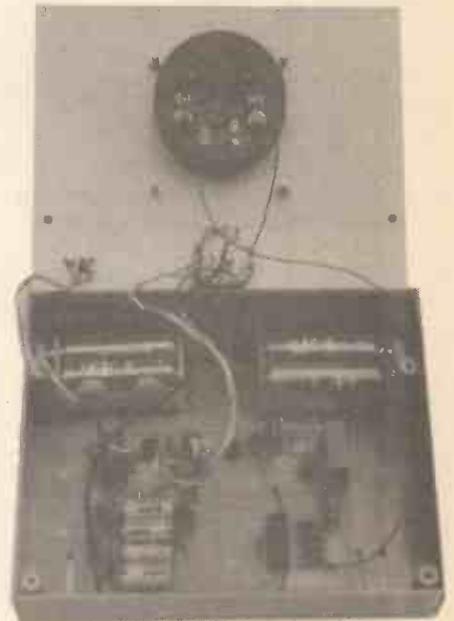
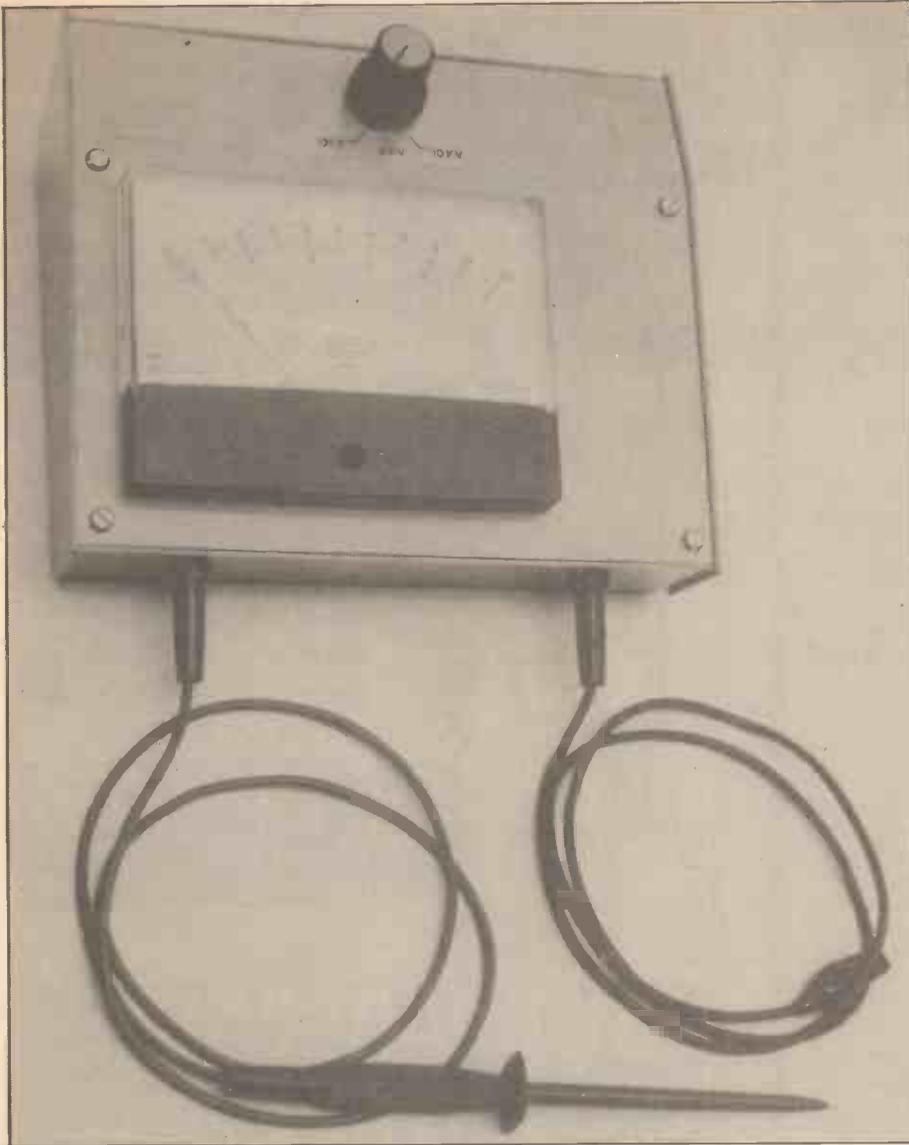


TABLE 1	
SW1 POSITION	IC1 PIN 6
SCALE -20dB	150mV p-p
NORMAL SCALE	15mV p-p
SCALE +20dB	1.5mV p-p



Calibration

With most sound pressure level circuits, accurate calibration requires an extensive range of test equipment and near-perfect acoustic conditions] but not this time! So long as the specified microphone is used, calibration of the HE SPL Meter is simplicity itself. For best results, an oscilloscope should be used, but an ordinary multimeter will do if less accuracy is acceptable.

First disconnect the microphone from the input jack and connect instead the output of an audio signal generator; the signal should be 15mV peak-to-peak at a frequency of $\approx 1\text{kHz}$. Now, with an oscilloscope if one is available, observe the output of IC1 at pin 6; it should follow the readings given in Table 1 as the range switch SW1 is rotated.

Leave the range switch on Normal Scale, move the 'scope probe to monitor the output of IC2 and adjust PR1 to bring this to 500mV p-p. Now you should be able to observe 2.5VDC at pin 5 of IC4 and a meter reading of 84, equivalent to 84dB SPL.

If the needle fails to come up to 84 — don't despair! It can be "tweaked in" by adjusting the value of either R15 or R25; reducing the value of R15 increases the current drive to the meter while increasing the resistor reduces the current; making R26 lower reduces the current but increasing it makes the meter read higher.

For those purists who doubt the effectiveness of the circuit, Table 2 gives the voltages on pin 5 of IC4 for meter readings at selected points (the meter current is also given to allow a different meter to be used, if necessary — the value of the shunt, R26, will need to be re-calculated though).

The simple circuit of Figure 5 can be connected between pin 5, IC4 and OV, first lifting R13, to check the calibration of the IC4 circuit against: the values given in Table 2, if desired.

Scopeless

If an oscilloscope is not available, the SPL meter can be calibrated with a multimeter set to the AC volts range. (*Pop Amp No. 9, the High Impedance Millivoltmeter, is ideal for this purpose*).

With the meter set to its most sensitive AC range (eg 3V FSD), connect it across the signal source as shown in Figure 6 and adjust the generator for a reading of 1VAC; then with the attenuator network shown, the required 15mV p-p can be applied to the input for a reading of 2.5VDC at IC4 pin 5, and a meter reading of 84dB SPL.

The meter scale face plate should be removed by its two screws and rescaled from 60 to 90dB across its 11 graduations, ie 60, 63, 66, 69, 72, 75, 78, 81, 84, 87, 90dB SPL.

Table 2

PIN 5 (V)	METER READING	CURRENT
4.0	90dB	6mA
2.8	87	5.4
2.0	84	4.8
1.4	81	4.2
1.0	78	3.6
0.7	75	3.0
0.5	72	2.4
0.36	69	1.8
0.25	66	1.2
0.17	63	0.6
0.	60	0.0

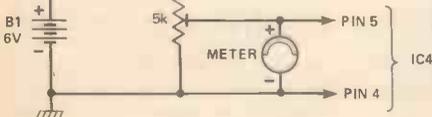


Figure 5. This circuit can be used to calibrate the IC4 circuit.

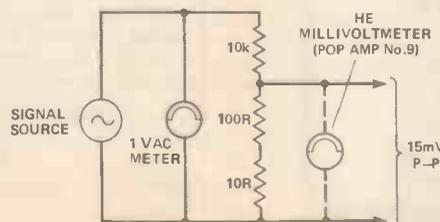


Figure 6. Using a millivoltmeter to calibrate the SPL meter.

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WHEN it was proposed that there should be a Grand Computer Controlled Model Railway Competition for the 1983 Breadboard exhibition, we rapidly became bogged down with seemingly endless complications. We spent most of the time during discussions simply explaining jargon: what, to a computer hardware man, is a "dead frog"? Something unpleasant by the roadside, was the popular answer! On the other hand our modelling consultant was somewhat bemused by the many acronyms that punctuate conversations between computer buffs: who, or what is a PIA? Bits of what? What is a multiplexer, and so on, and on, and on . . . !

In the end we were all quite bewildered — but this confusion ultimately gave us the clue to our Computer Controlled Model Rail Competition: no one, it seems, truly knows how best to marry a computer to a complex model rail layout or what it should do and, particularly, how it should be done.

We decided, finally, that the simplest and best approach would be to throw the thing wide open, with only a few essential restrictions. The only rule of the competition, then, is that the winning entry will be that which demonstrates the most ingenuity,

usefulness and practicality in adapting a modern home computer to control a model railway layout — the what, how and why we quite happily leave to our readers!

The essential limitation we felt obliged to impose is that the layout should measure no more than 6ft by 2ft — in other words, something that can be transported to the Breadboard exhibition in Hammersmith in late November this year.

We anticipate that most of the entries will be from constructors who have an existing computer interfaced layout, but the competition is open to all comers so anyone who wants to "have a go" will be welcome in the lists. For the benefit of those who fancy their chances at the Grand Prize, here are a few ideas that resulted from the meeting of the minds in Hobby's editorial offices (we won't mention the ideas that evolved later, down at the Royal George!).

● A fairly simple software application would be to write a program for storing and modifying timetables and operating schedules; an extension of this idea would be an interface to position sensing circuits so that an operator

would know not only when the next train was due to leave, but also when it was safe to start down the track.

● One of the most obvious ideas proposed was to program a mimic board which could show not only the track layout but the condition of signal lights and with 'train in section' indication: colour would be necessary for user-friendliness!

● Ways to adapt microprocessor technology to model train control: one option that might be easily constructed would be to computer-control sections of track rather than individual trains. However completely automatic running is not the goal of most railway modellers, so any system should allow lots of room for the operator to control the layout himself.

And that is about the limit of the ideas we came up with before brain fog set in. We'll leave it to the inventiveness and competitive spirit of our readers to stun the judges with brilliant projects we should have thought of . . . but didn't!





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Hot off the production line, an Oric 48K colour computer, donated by Oric Products International Ltd.

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Entry forms, together with an entrance fee of £1.00 (cheque or money orders only, please) should be sent to:
The Exhibition Manager, BB83, ASP Exhibitions, 145 Charing Cross Road, London WC2H 0EE.
 Closing date is 31st October 1983. Judging will take place at Breadboard '83, Cunard Hotel, Hammersmith, London W6, on either Wednesday 23rd or Thursday 24th November 1983. Entrants will be informed of the day on which they will be required to present their layouts at the exhibition. Finalists will be asked to demonstrate their layouts at some time(s) during the open days of Breadboard '83 (25, 26, 27th November) and layouts will be available for collection between 1600 and 1800 hours on Sunday 27th November. The judges decision will be final and no correspondence will be entered into.

Entry Form

PLEASE USE BLOCK CAPS

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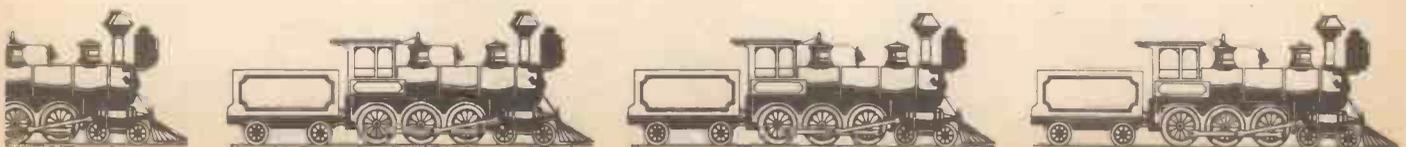
TEL NO: AGE ON 30TH NOV. 1983:

BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF LAYOUT AND FUNCTIONS:

SCALE: SIZE OF LAYOUT: (MAX 6FT X 2FT):

COMPUTER USED:

COMMERCIAL PERIPHERALS USED:



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CABLE AND SATELLITE TV

Helen Armstrong
Graham Brant

The arrival of television distributed by cable and by Direct Broadcast Satellite will give a wider viewing choice than ever before. We explain how the different systems will function and interact.

Thanks to British Telecom and BTI for permission to reproduce line drawings from their brochures.

IT IS APPROPRIATE that 1982, as Information Technology Year, saw the green light for both satellite and cable television, as well as the launching of Channel 4. The technological advances of the past decade have resulted all at once in a rapid expansion in the electronic media, which seems likely to change the face of broadcasting as we know it in a surprisingly short time. The technical and political aspects of these sudden changes present problems, not only new, but highly complex, considering the international nature of broadcasting. The debates go on. Only time will tell what form of programme networking will emerge, or how it will affect the TV system we have at the moment. Television has already invaded the territory of the cinema with video, and the uncertainties attending the arrival of rival video systems may be thrown into deeper confusion as television diversifies still further.



Courtesy of British Telecom

Cable Sources

Cable transmission began as long ago as 1929, with the distribution of radio programmes. The first television systems in this country started in 1948 with companies such as EMI, British Relay and Rediffusion being the early pioneers. From the start the cable systems in the UK have been localised, providing only BBC, IBA and some local community television programmes.

In the USA however, where cable TV is already a fact of life, the lack of a single national television network prompted the growth of cable in areas with little or no service, which was in the vast majority of areas away from the big city centres. VHF systems were generally used since VHF television sets were readily available.

Cable television systems have been set up in various new town developments around the country on an experimental

basis, starting in 1966 with Washington, Co. Durham, and extending later to Irvine in Scotland, Craigavon in N.Ireland, Brackla in Wales and Milton Keynes, Walderslade and Martlesham in England. The networks used dual cables, coax for the television signal and telephone cable for the audio. These were all set up and run by British Telecom. But all the schemes set up in the sixties and seventies ran into the Government's refusal to let them carry anything other than the two BBC and one ITV channels.

In November 1980 the Home Secretary licenced several pilot subscription TV schemes until December, 1983. Apart from British Telecom, companies involved were Rediffison, Visionhire, Philips Cablevision, Greenwich Cablevision and Radio Rentals — mostly big TV rental companies. The new schemes included general release feature films

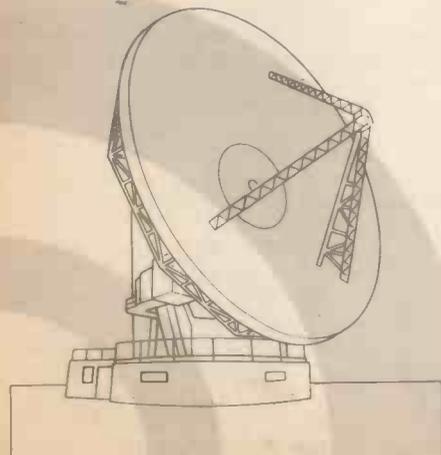
and independent TV channels. However, what will happen when the initial period runs out is not known — except that it is now generally accepted that cable TV is here to stay and that it will include material completely independent of the BBC and IBA/Independent ITV companies. One result of this is bound to be an expansion of independent programme-making companies, with no involvement in transmission at all, simply making their own features to market to television companies. Cable networks are also allowed to supply feature films after one year's general release, as opposed to three years for the BBC and IBA — a purely economic arrangement.

Cable networks often use recording and transmission equipment which does not entirely match the 'broadcast standard' used by the big organisations, but this is hardly likely to cause a serious degradation of picture and sound quality — certainly less than that occurring with an ordinary domestic VCR, probably less than that caused by a slightly ill-adjusted telly — not a serious problem.

The System Today

With the present UHF television network the programme source, whether live or prerecorded, is generated at the studio or by an outside broadcast (OB) unit. Programme selection is carried out at a main broadcasting centre, or network switching centre, before the transmitter network is fed with the desired signal. The main UHF signal is then broadcast from about fifty or so high powered transmitters. Some, Crystal Palace for example, transmit at a power of 1MW from the aerial complex. Together these signals reach about 85% of the population of the UK through the extensive network of relay stations, either in operation or in the process of being built, which provide 'fill in' signals in areas of poor reception. Some of these are very localised indeed, particularly in mountainous areas where small valleys can be completely shielded from signals by surrounding hills.

The relay station building programme



A 'spider man' services undergrounds cables.

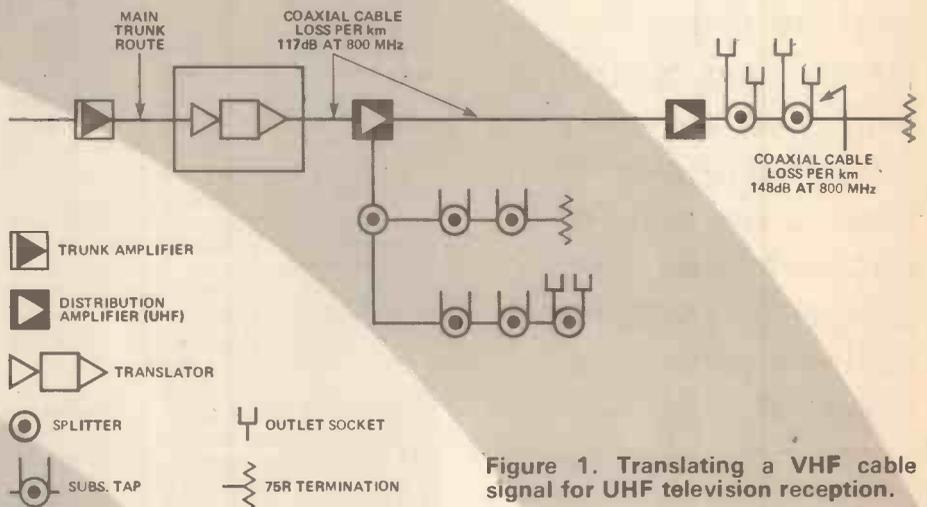


Figure 1. Translating a VHF cable signal for UHF television reception.

has now achieved an overall coverage of 99% of the population, which is perhaps one of the highest in the world from a terrestrial system — one of the advantages of being in a small country where networking efforts can be co-ordinated into a single system.

The initial costs were low, about £1 per potential viewer, but with small relay stations serving communities of down to 200 people the cost is more like £100 per head. With such an extensive network already in existence, it is perhaps not surprising that many people are sceptical of the future success of cable and satellite TV. Both the IBA and the BBC view cable with suspicion because of the potential loss of viewers and the higher costs generated by more programme competition. The BBC needs a large audience to justify the television licence fees, and the IBA likewise needs viewers to generate advertising revenue.

It is worth remembering that the large UHF stations are near population centres which could easily be cabled, whereas the relays tend to be located

in rural areas which are unlikely to be served by cable. Even plans to run TV cables along sewer networks will not succeed in carrying cables to many country areas!

Cable Works

There have been two approaches to cable distribution systems: Frequency Division Multiplex (FDM) and Space Division Multiplex (SDM) systems. With FDM, a number of television channels are sent down one cable, usually coaxial, whereas with SDM a separate cable is used for each channel, usually with balanced feeders rather than coaxial.

Anything up to seven channels can be provided, but many of the old experimental systems cannot even take Channel 4. About half of the existing channels are VHF, but most are UHF, and will therefore not need an adaptor for the average domestic television set. There are a few systems which use VHF for main trunk distribution and convert to UHF for local distribution. Although most of these systems only relay BBC

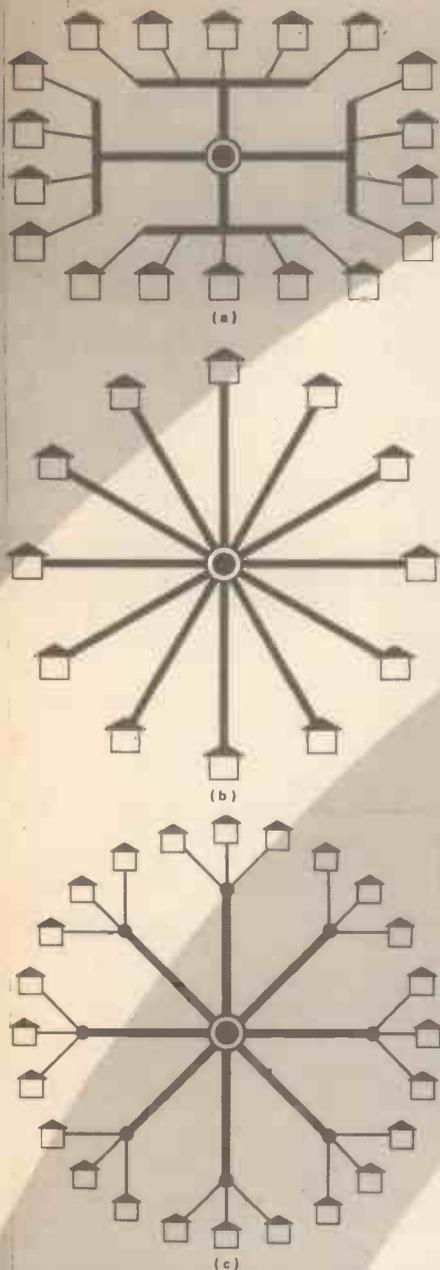


Figure 2. Alternative distribution networks: a) Tree and Branch b) Star and c) Multi-star.

and IBA programmes, there are a few which provide a pay-TV service, for example in such places as Milton Keynes and Greenwich, London. Most of these existing systems are technically worn out, and further developments have been slow to take place due to the good terrestrial broadcast system. On the Continent, operators have been allowed to broadcast foreign programmes as well as those produced locally, but development has still not taken place on the scale of that in the USA.

The USA cable systems were initially of six to twelve channel capacity using VHF frequencies, mainly relaying a number of channels from an off-air reception point. These later developed into thirty-channel systems, which included channels provided specifically by the specialist cable TV companies. There are now a few 'super' systems in

the cities such as New York and Los Angeles, and these provide up to 104 channels along two cables each of 52 channels capacity. Frequencies used are 54 to 400MHz, with the 5 to 35MHz spectrum available for viewer feedback, electronic voting, etc.

Star And Branch

While it might appear straightforward to connect every television consumer into a cable system, the architecture is not simple. There are two distinct systems in use in the UK, both using FDM: the 'Tree and Branch' system and the 'Star' system. The most common is the Tree and Branch, which is easiest to implement. With Tree and Branch all consumers are simply looped together with all services available to each consumer. The system is rather inflexible and has a number of drawbacks. The signal is continually split up on the outward transmission, requiring large numbers of distribution amplifiers which are very prone to producing distortion and unwanted by-products. In a similar fashion any unwanted signals on the network are continually added if they are feeding back to the source, ie the television company. This problem is usually apparent with random noise — and noise in the network can be a problem when added up. To overcome this a very high standard of network screening is required, because any extraneous interference has the potential of disturbing the whole system. If a two-way service such as electronic voting is desired, then a very complex digital protocol is required to sort out the mass of data which would arrive at the TV company at the same time.

The Star system has a more complex architecture, but is more versatile and can be readily expanded over a period of time after the main system has been constructed. The disadvantages are very much less than the Tree and Branch, especially with regard to distortion and interference problems at one point in the network, which would be very unlikely to be transmitted to any other part. The technology is very much newer though, and more technical research may be required, unlike the Tree and Branch system, which could be implemented tomorrow. This would provide a good chance to export British technology rather than import foreign products, such as happened in the rush for CB. The architecture is very similar to British Telecom's 'System X' telephone system, and it could well be that they are the best candidates to install any future network.

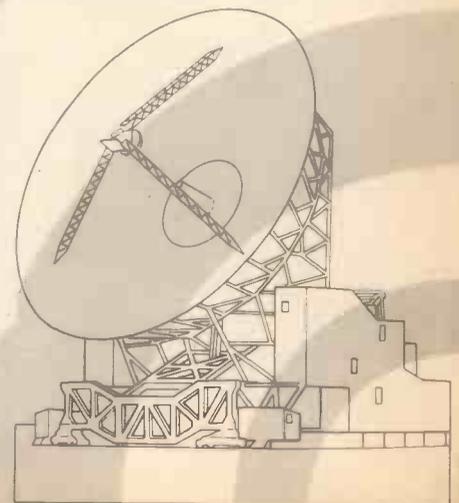
Forty Into One Won't Go

It is unlikely that any future service would be permitted to use VHF, as there are too many mobile radio, aeronautical and general communication services present in the UK, and any break in a large scale cable TV distribution system would provide a potentially major source of interference. It is likely

that frequencies would be restricted to those in the UHF TV band. This provides theoretically a maximum of forty channels per cable; there are however a number of factors which drastically reduce this figure. Local TV transmission channels must be avoided to prevent mutual interference. Local oscillator radiation must also be considered; when a TV receiver is tuned to one channel, then the local oscillator will usually be at the frequency very near that of another channel in the UHF band. This signal is often radiated from the receiver and can cause problems to a view in the network viewing the channel. Adjacent channels cannot be employed either, since the normal domestic receiver is not selective enough to differentiate between any two consecutive channels. Having taken these factors into account, it seems that it is only possible to utilise between seven and nine of the forty channels at any one time! For interference-free reception, optical fibre distribution would provide a solution, but the high cost of a decoder for each consumer is unlikely to prove attractive in the near future. Perhaps the best solution is provided by the Star system.

The main distribution trunks could then be optic fibres feeding flexibility points, while the individual cables feeding the consumer would use UHF. To overcome the shortfall in capacity of these local cables, programme selection could be carried out remotely at the flexibility points; in the ideal case the consumer would merely type in the programme of his choice. Unlike the Tree and Branch system, therefore, each consumer would not necessarily be in receipt of every channel.

Programmes are received, firstly, by an aerial array, and then processed into a form which can be routed along trunk cables, which may be up to 12km long. This requires the signal to be converted down to VHF to prevent disastrous attenuation in the cable — even then, amplification is needed every 420m. Subsequently, a translator link restores the signal back to UHF, with a VHF bypass for 405 line transmission, and radio. From there the signal goes through a series of cable splitters and subscriber taps to TV and radio outlets



Cable And Satellite TV

in subscribers' homes. Another option which has only been tried experimentally so far is the use of optical fibres for cable transmissions. The economics of cable are such that the cost is approximately £12,000 per mile. It could cost £6M alone to cable Bromley in London! To cable the large UK cities and achieve a 50% population penetration could cost 2½ to 3½ billion pounds.

Bearing in mind the controversy over Channel 4, it is likely that some organisation will need much more convincing on potential returns before committing themselves to such an investment. The coming of cable-TV is unlikely to create more than a few hundred jobs in the long term, not the thousands predicted in the popular press. A scheme of thought against cable TV is that with the increasing ownership of VCRs, the younger generation are happy with what they have, and the older generation are perfectly content with existing media. This is, however, a rather pessimistic view.

Direct Broadcast Satellite

While cable television shows some signs of being a more conspicuous public issue, as well as a more established basic technology, 'satellite TV', referred to as DBS (Direct Broadcast Satellite) TV, to distinguish it from transmissions which make part of their journey from source to main transmitter via satellite links, is going to be with the general public first. It is, ironically, easier to put up a satellite to carry TV signals than it is to install ground cables to every television owning household in the UK.

DBS will also be different from cable TV in that it will be under the control of the public broadcasting concerns, the BBC and the IBA. They are under obligation to make the service available to everyone; therefore, the transmissions need to be capable of being received by all households. However, the responsibility for obtaining the dish aerials needed to receive DBS is of course in the hands of the viewer, not the broadcasting organisations!

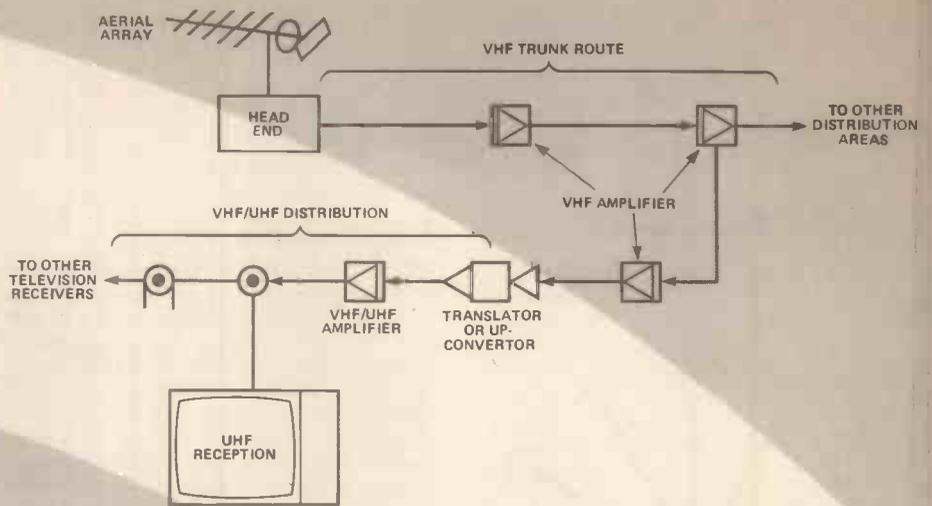
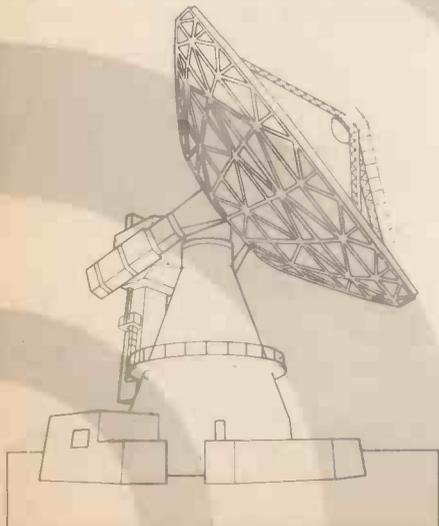
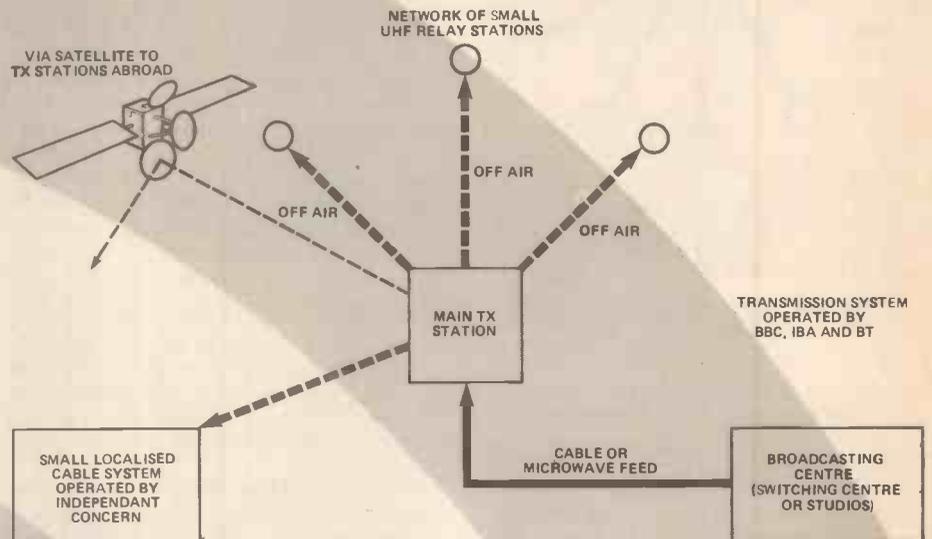


Figure 3. A typical hybrid VHF/UHF cable system.

Figure 4. Modes of distribution in the existing television network.



Government gave the go-ahead for DBS in the UK in 1982, with the BBC scheduled to start transmission in 1986. The international Telecommunications Union, of which Britain is a member, allocated five satellite channels to each member country in 1977. After thinking about opting out of DBS altogether, the BBC has chosen to participate and has been given two of the UK's five channels. The IBA has not yet been given one, but it is improbable that it won't; however, the remaining three channels remain unallocated as yet. One plan put forward is that one of their channels will be run on an extra license, and concentrate on 'quality' material from archives and foreign programmes — the best of everything, as it were; the other channel would then be a 'commercial' channel, funded by some form of subscription.

The UK's first DBS satellite, Unisat 1, a Eurostar class satellite 21 metres from 'wingtip' to 'wingtip', is being built by United Satellites Ltd., a company jointly owned by British Aerospace, British Telecom and GEC. British Aerospace is responsible for the design of the satellite itself, with GEC-Marconi doing the transponders, and the actual

operation of the transponders carried out by British Telecom. Unisat 1 will carry the BBC's two channels, so other satellites will eventually follow to carry channels used by other authorised broadcasters on the remaining three UK channels. In 1978, the European Space Agency (ESA) launched its Orbital Test Satellite (OTS), for experiments with television and telecommunications in general. The OTS is now being used already by one British company — Satellite Television PLC — for broadcasting, but only into Europe.

FM Transmissions

The transmission system employed is different from that used for terrestrial services, in order to achieve maximum efficiency from the power available in the satellite. The TV signal is modulated onto an FM carrier in a 27MHz wide channel. The use of FM, as opposed to AM, saves about 20dB of transmitting power for equal performance. Each adjacent channel uses different polarisation, which together with the signal capture effect of FM systems, allows a degree of channel overlap so that there are forty channels between

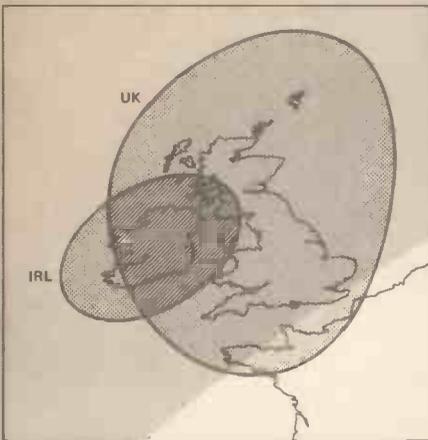


Figure 5. The Direct Broadcast Satellite's likely 'footprints' over the UK and Ireland.

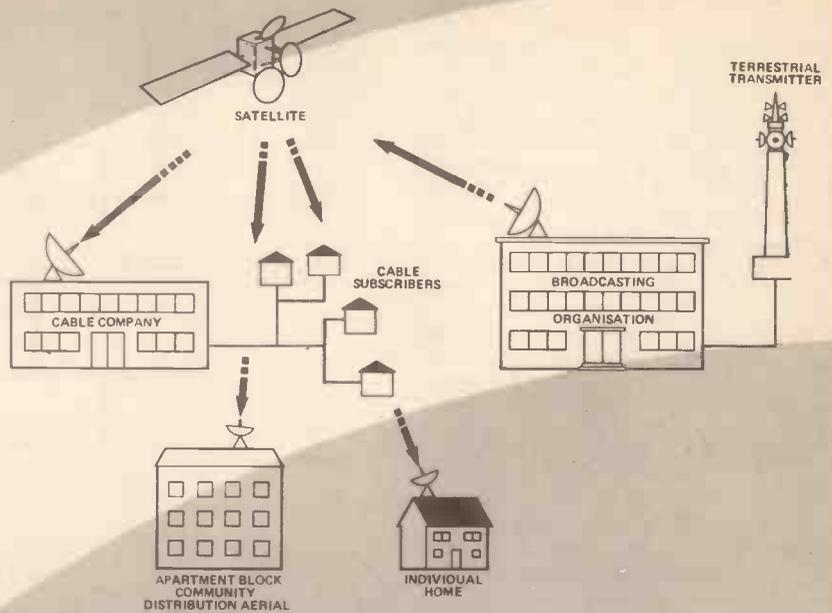
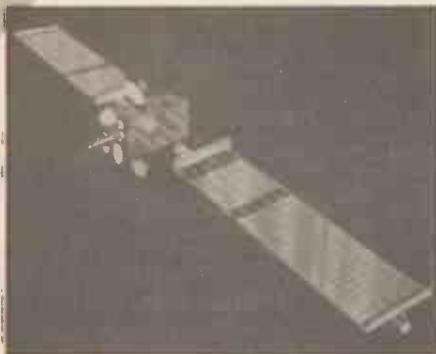


Figure 6. The integration of all modes of transmission.

British Aerospace Photograph



An artist's impression of the Unisat satellite.

11GHz7 and 12GHz5, with 19MHz2 channel spacing. With each channel being 27MHz wide, and the spacing between only 19MHz2, side-by-side channels are only assigned to countries in widely differing geographical positions. Also, circular polarisation is used — whenever the same channels are being used by countries which are not widely geographically divided (as must happen in some cases) opposite polarisations are used. Satellite locations above the equator, spaced at intervals of six degrees, were allocated to countries according to the suitability of their position in relation to their prospective satellite.

The UK's satellite position is 31°W, just off the eastern edge of Brazil, with Ireland, Iceland, Portugal and Spain in the same position (so that these related countries can receive each others' transmissions without complicated aerial adjustments). Our channel numbers are, 2, 6, 10, 14 and 18, with right-handed polarisation; several other countries in Europe share the same channels, but with left-hand polarisations.

The satellite must send its transmissions to fall over a narrow area, the UK being only a small land mass. The region 'covered' by the beam when it falls on the earth is shaped, because of the shape of the Earth and the angle of the beam, like an elongated egg, and is called the 'footprint' (a term normally used to describe the area covered by signals or noise affecting the

ground from above it). There will be a fringe area where reduced signals will be obtainable, but within our own footprint the signal strength will probably be around 140uV per metre, needing a dish aerial of about a metre in diameter to get a good signal.

Get The Picture?

Obtaining a good signal, however, will require a far more precise alignment than with a UHF aerial (and no twiddling it about on top of the TV set, either!) The beam will be narrow and quite low in the sky, and the accuracy of the alignment will have to be within about 0.1°, probably needing special measuring equipment to get an accurate fix — a professional job. This means that the expectation of being able to rotate the aerial easily to pick up European stations, which has been aroused in the popular press somewhat, will not be fulfilled unless some kind of precision mount with predetermined positions is provided (and this is, of course, without taking into account the different European Television standards, some of which are incompatible or only partially compatible with the British PAL system).

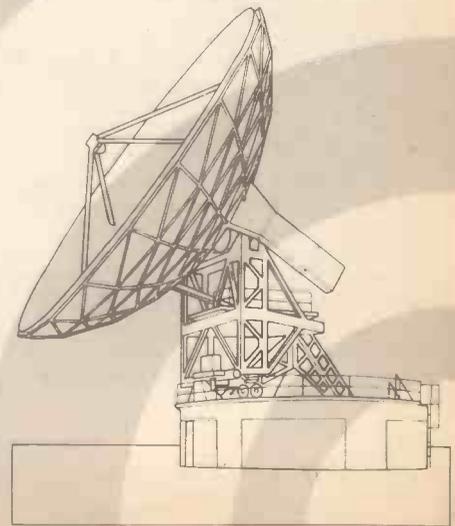
The low elevation of the satellite beam will also mean that places to the north, or in hilly areas, or simply behind massive buildings, may not be able to receive the signal. Fortunately, in many cases planners are already looking at communal receiver dishes and distribution systems to keep costs down, and this may be the answer.

So, there is more to DBS reception than merely putting a dish aerial on your roof. The dishes will have to be stabilised against the effects of temperature change, rain and hail, wind etc. and possibly fully enclosed. Other equipment will be needed to sort out the polarisation, to alter the frequency of the received signal for normal UHF TVs, and to convert it from FM to AM. The signal from the dish aerial may also be

amplified by a low noise amplifier before being converted to UHF frequencies. The UHF signal is then routed to the set top terminal where the decoding process takes place.

The aerial itself simply comprises a reflecting surface — the 'dish' — which focuses the signal to a central point, and a 'feedhorn', which actually picks up the microwaves; this is sited on a tripod or similar support, and can be adjusted for the best reception. The dish itself is made of aluminium (or aluminium over a fibreglass support), as though popular pictures show a round dish, by the time they become common a quadrilateral shape is more likely to abound, as this is easier to transport.

The 27MHz bandwidth for each DBS channel is wider than the 8MHz channel width used for UHF telly in the UK, which gives a lot of opportunity to improve on the present PAL-based system with the help of the extra signal space. In fact, the BBC has already presented a system known as E-PAL (Extended Pal) for just this purpose. However, IBA has come up with a completely new system, known as MAC (Multiplexed Analogue Component)



which has now been chosen by an Advisory Panel set up to examine alternative television systems for use with satellite broadcasts, and accepted by the Government. (The document to consult is *Direct Broadcasting By Satellite: Report of The Advisory Panel On Technical Transmission Standards*, HMSO Cmnd 8751, 1982, £5.20.)

A New Standard

MAC has been developed entirely to suit DBS's FM system, is technically more advanced than E-PAL, and is better suited to adapting for High Definition TV, which is still far off but definitely in sight in the future. It's a forward-looking system, much more than E-PAL, whose primary virtue (other than the fact that it is a good TV system) is that it is compatible with current TV receivers.

MAC has found favour with the commercial interests involved as well, including the cable TV companies since, as we said above, much DBS programming will make the final leg of its journey along the cables, being a cheaper option than each of us setting up a private dish aerial. Modifying E-PAL to meet all the cable companies' requirements looks like being uneconomic, so the Advisory Panel recommended MAC on this basis as well as that, having no sub-carrier, it would have been better suited to cable TV. They also decided, ironically, that it would be easier to adapt present receivers to MAC than to E-PAL, for comparable quality. MAC will also be easier to scramble to prevent unauthorised reception of DBS broadcasts — ie ones that haven't been paid for!

At the moment, the European Broadcast Union members are looking at the possibility of a single standard for the whole of Europe — a great boon if television is to have an international audience, and seen decidedly as a means of generating more revenue for the individual television companies. One effect of the increased diversification of television away from the licence-funded BBC with, effectively, only one (two since the arrival of Channel 4) commercial rival, is increased competitiveness between programme-makers and television transmitting bodies.

It is felt that MAC has a likelihood of being chosen as a common European standard, gradually superseding the variations on PAL and SECAM being used in Europe at present. It remains to be seen, of course, whether Europe will opt for MAC as a common standard at all! But EACEM, the European TV manufacturers' Association, has shown some interest in MAC. If television is to look into the future and not simply cling to existing technology, which is slowly but surely becoming outdated, then it makes sense to make bolder moves to help the new developments along.

You Pays Your Money . . .

The questions of exactly how

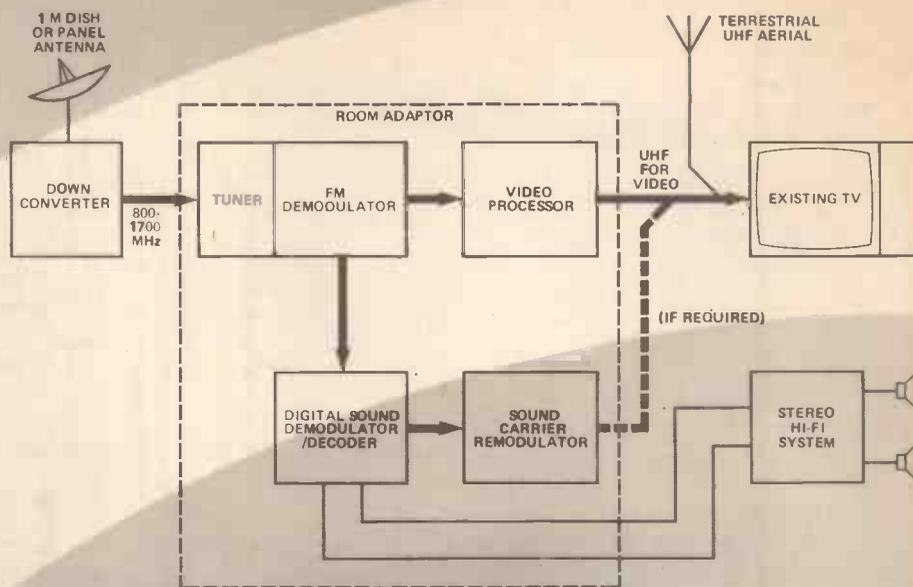


Figure 7. Stages in translating a DBS signal for a UHF receiver.

consumers will pay for their cable and DBS programming is far from being resolved. The government has decided against the 'pay-as-you-go' method for cable TV, and so it seems likely that this will be the case for DBS too, especially if DBS and cable are as intimately linked as it looks as though they might be. One projected method of getting a choice of channels to cable and DBS viewers' receivers is to have subscription channels, so that the viewer only receives the channels which he has paid to view. This also relieves the problem of a limited number of channels being available to any one receiver at one time.

Obviously some method of protection is required to prevent unauthorised viewing. There are two possible approaches to this problem, the negative, where the original signal is left intact, and the positive, where the signal is electronically encoded in some way.

An example of the first approach is the fitting of a filter in the consumer's feed which removes any channels which have not been paid for. There are two drawbacks to this: firstly there is an initially large capital expenditure in supplying filters, and secondly, the system is not very tamper-proof.

With this in mind, most systems have opted for some form of encryption. This can range simply from inverting the video to give a negative picture to nonconverting receivers, to the Rascal-Oak system, where each frame is randomly sent positive or negative modulated, with the sound sent as 'packets' of digital pulses inside the sync pulse. Of course, the more complex the encryption system, the higher the cost of the equipment needed by each consumer to decode the signal. If an operator accepts a protection ratio of about 90%, then an optimum system can probably be found.

Satellite and cable TV complement each other. And for a future National



British Aerospace Photograph

An array of solar cells, destined for a communications satellite, takes shape at British Aerospace.

Broadcasting System it is likely to be mandatory that all cable companies will distribute BBC and IBA programmes plus the DBS channels. This, together with single satellite receiving terminals for community TV distribution systems should prevent a sudden rash of unsightly dish aerials sprouting all over the countryside and will save the consumer money. But the individual in a rural area without cable will not miss out — a single dish aerial can be installed, for less than the price of a video recorder.

One thing looks certain: the terrestrial TV network is here to stay. Some areas, without cable, and also (especially in the north) facing more problems with clear DBS reception, will be largely reliant on the present system for many years to come. Nevertheless, the future would appear to be rosy, with plenty of exciting and innovative developments in the air — or should that be "in the pipeline"?

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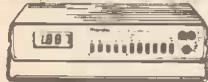
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POINTS OF VIEW

Feel like sounding off?
Then write to the Editor stating your Point of View!

Alternator Alternatives

Dear Editor,

In HE May '83, you replied to M. J. Maddison regarding the use of car alternators. Perhaps the following information may be of assistance in what is usually a very misunderstood subject.

Firstly, the different categories must be appreciated.

1. Six diode alternators: these require an external source of current to energise the motor, usually via a relay. (Examples: Lucas 11AC, Duceillier AC28, Simms (early model), CAV AC7 (early model), etc.)

2. Nine diode alternators: self-exciting, that is, they have some residual magnetism in the rotor. (Examples: Lucas 15AC, 16AC, 17AC, 20AC, etc., CAV AC7, AC203, BUTEC A10, Bosch, Ducellier, Motorola, Hitachi etc.)

3. Permanent magnet alternators, usually single phase and usually fitted to motor-cycles but there are exceptions.

4. Nine diode alternators with the voltage regulator fitted as in integral unit. These are a modification on category 2.

The current output of the alternators using a wound rotor is achieved by sensing the output voltage which in turn is used to control the current flowing through the rotor. Permanent magnet rotor alternators again sense the voltage, but utilise thyristors to control the output current.

In regard to using any alternator driven by a windmill, what must be looked at is the desired voltage (bearing in mind batteries will have to be used) and the speed at which the alternator produces a current of 0.5A (cutting-in speed).

Obviously by using a 12V regulator on a nominal 24V alternator suitable control can be achieved with a lowering of the cutting-in speed. However, if the alternator is chosen with this in mind, an alternator can be found which will begin to charge at 250 rpm.

In the main these units are those which are direct drive on a diesel engine, which are slow running anyway.

In this country the two units which are suitable are the 12V or 24V BUTEC H10 units as fitted to Gardener diesel etc. The 12V unit gives up to 100A at full stick with the 24V unit giving over 30A. The CAV AC203 from a bus (note: not a coach) is completely sealed and gives 80A at 28V and uses a voltage and a current

regulator. The snag is that these are expensive.

The choice of what he uses in Kimbali depends on what is available. It is probably that an oriental unit is a better choice out there.

Fancy electronic control systems are not required as the standard units are usually OK. The BUTEC regulator is completely repairable with a 6V7 Zener, a BC108 and a 2N3055 plus a few other bits.

If a small car gearbox is used driven backwards, ie the windmill blades driving the gearbox at the propshaft end and the alternator mounted where the clutch is normally four or five differing alternator speeds would be available. You could even drive the alternator backwards and be astounded that it worked exactly the same as forwards!

Finally, Bosch manufacture a special unit which fits on the axle box of a railway wagon to supply power for lighting, refrigeration etc. This works as soon as the train moves, no matter how slowly.

Yours faithfully,
H. D. Briggs,
Telford,
Shropshire.

PS. Regarding the "Stall Thief" (HE May '83), this can be achieved to a great extent by supplying the relay winding from the warning light terminal on the alternator. This terminal is the auxiliary output from the three diodes whose purpose is to supply the rotor energising current. The voltage goes from 0V when stationary to system voltage 12V or 24V at cut-in speed.

This means that any relay so connected will function at tickover or a slightly higher engine speed. With the relay fitted as in the Stall Thief on a mini, for example, the engine will be governed to a speed of about 550rpm, which means it takes about fifteen minutes to drive it off a pub car park.

Extra connections on the coil or distributor are a giveaway to the "tea leaf". The old Triumph 1300 got over this by using a thin but sturdy coax which looked like standard car-type cable.

Thanks for the suggestion. The Stall Thief author says, yes, this is a simple and ingenious adaptation which should present no problems.

Incidentally, the Police reckon that if you can stall your Tea Leaf for fifteen or twenty minutes, he will tend to feel that easier pickings can be had elsewhere. "If he's really determined to get in", they say "He will". The art is to confuse him into giving up!

Ignition Transformations

Dear Sirs,

I have just made the HE electronic ignition from HE April 1980 and have a small problem with it.

The spark is small and weak and therefore cold-starting is non-existent, but once running it seems to be ok. Instead of the large 47k resistor I have had to put a 56k one in, the storage capacitors although the correct value are a higher voltage, and thirdly there is a small possibility that the transformer may be a 12V one.

Please could you indicate which of the above three might cause the problem or anything else that might cause a very poor spark.

Yours faithfully,
Richard Stummer,
Dibden,
Hampshire.

You have three problems here. First, there is no 47k resistor in the circuit to change; the large resistor R9 is 47R, not "k", and the correct value (47 ohms) should be used.

The transformer is used as a step-up transformer, and the larger the ratio the larger the voltage induced in the primary. Since 9:240 equals 1:26 and 12:240 equals 1:20, a 12V transformer will not produce as much primary voltage.

The third problem you may not be aware of: the transformer is a 9-0-9V type, and a centre-tap must be connected to the V+ line, immediately below T1 on the circuit diagram. This connection was omitted from a published circuit.

As long as the voltage rating of the capacitors is higher than that specified, you're quite safe.

Ignition Transformation Part II

Dear Sir,

Some time ago I built the HE CD Electronic Ignition system from HE April '80. The design performs very well. I noticed that you recommend this unit for use with four or six cylinder negative ground cars, 12V. What if I wanted to use your design on my Honda CG125 motor cycle? Is this possible? It's 6V, single cylinder four stroke).

I thought that a change in the transformer voltage - say a 6-0-6 secondary, might compensate for the 6V ignition system - but do I need to change any other values? eg C3, C4 and/or R7 and 88? I would be very grateful if you could advise me.

Thanking you for your time and hoping to hear from you soon.
Yours faithfully,
C. S. Thompson,
Levenshulme,
Manchester.

There is no easy answer to this one — it effectively needs a redesign on the circuit, which we are not able to do. Have any other readers tried adapting this system for a motorbike?

Components Quest

Dear Sir/Madam,
I have written to you to ask for some information. The problem is that in your magazine the majority of addresses of electronic component suppliers are in the south and I would like to know the addresses of suppliers in the Birmingham area. This would be very convenient as I live in a small town near Birmingham.
Yours faithfully,
A. Patel,
Bilston,
West Midlands.

That's interesting — I hadn't noticed that there was a southern bias in our components directory. It's not intentional. We contacted every supplier whose address we actually had, and with a few exceptions who either did not want hobby custom or had moved away, we published details from all of them.

Your first and best recourse is the Yellow Pages phone directory, which you will find in your public library. Try phoning names under "Electronics Components Suppliers" and "Radio Equipment Suppliers" and anything similar. When you ring up, ask the person you speak to if he or she knows of any other suppliers locally. Do that a few times and you will be able to build up a file of suppliers in your area.

Your other solution, of course, is to go mail-order.

Look What The Cat Dragged In . . .

Dear Ed,
With reference to my Radio Controlled Gerbil project (HE April '83): I was perturbed to see some of your readers thought this was a 'joke'. As a professional electronics designer, such correspondence put into print could seriously damage my career. Indeed, the Arts Council have already rescinded their grant so work on follow-up projects such as the Robot Muskrat and Solar Powered Tortoise have been put in jeopardy (a small town in Suffolk, I believe.) I am currently trying to raise funds from the RSPCA, but if this dogged criticism continues my chance of sponsorship will be catastrophically affected.

Don't these people realise that without such advances in rodent technology the human race would

never have been able to put non-stick frying pans into space?? It's time they took their heads out of the sand, and stuck them in the nearest microwave.
Yours sincerely,
Dave Fountain,
2 Rat Terrace,
Clacton-on-Sea,
Essex.

PS. Whatever you do, don't print my address in the magazine.

You don't know when you're well off, mate! Never mind the outraged readers. Hibernia The Balrog wants to see you about your abuse of semicolons, and our technical department who has been scouring restaurants in vain for Artificial Gerbil Fur, wants a word with you, too. All he was offered was a load of 'fresh' stuff, and that was full of bullet holes, too. On the bright side, some minor modifications made in the office mean that you can apply to the British Confections Council for further sponsorship. Where did you say you lived?

Instant Assistants

Dear Sir,
I am writing with reference to a letter in HE April '83 from Paul Jenkin of Cornwall. In this letter he raised a couple of queries. 1: I have traced some references to an MOC3020 in an old RS catalogue which describes it as an opto-coupled triac. This is in the July to October 1981 edition of the catalogue. I take the liberty of quoting data from the catalogue:

Technical specification: diode: 1f max. 50mA at 25°C; Vr max. 3V; Vf max. 1.5V at 1f 10mA; triac: Vorm 400V; It (rms) max. 100 100mA; Vtm 3V at It 100mA; coupled characteristics: input current to trigger triac 5mA typ. 20mA Max. (main terminal voltage 3V, 150R load); isolation voltage (peak withstanding) 7500VAC for 5s; operating temperature range -40°C to +100°C. Pin 1 is the anode, pin 2 is the cathode and pin 5 is labelled 'substrate, do not connect'.

With regard to his query on data for the Ferguson 3400, has Mr. Jenkin checked his local reference library? They might have copies of Electrical and Electronic Trader magazine, who may have done one of their excellent service sheets on the 3400. I hope that some of this information may be of assistance.

To change the subject, I have noticed that magazines specialising in CB Radio are fast disappearing from the market, but there must still be a considerable interest in CB. As HE was one of the first UK mags to cover CB (if not the first?) how about resuming some coverage of CB?
Yours faithfully,
M.L. Peake,
Bilston,
West Midlands.

PS What is an HE binder?

Thank you very much, Mr. Peake. To show that CB is far from a lost cause, not only is our relation CB Radio Today still flourishing but we have also had a new arrival recently in Ham Radio Today. Ironically, one spinoff of CB radio has been an increase in the popularity of amateur radio. Can't be bad! On top of that, HE still runs articles (our popular Radio Rules series concluded last month) and projects on amateur and CB — see our CB Selective Caller project in HE January '83, for instance.

Dear Sir,
With reference to the letter published on page 17 of your April issue from Mr. Paul Jenkin, I am enclosing some information concerning the device about which he enquired and would be obliged if you would kindly pass it on to him in the stamped envelope also enclosed.
Yours faithfully,
J. G. Lewis,
Saintfield,
Co. Down.

Dear Sir,
In the April issue a reader enquired about a device marked MOC3020 . . . this is manufactured by Motorola and consists of an LED optically coupled to a silicon bilateral switch. They are for applications requiring isolated triggering of triacs.
Ray Harris.

There you are . . . ask and it shall be given unto you. Our thanks to Mr. Lewis and Mr. Harris. We will pass on the information to Mr. Jenkin as soon as we can extract his address from our April file.

HEBOT Hint

Dear Sir,
In HE November '82, you showed the HEBOT II compatible with the ZX81. I own a 16K ZX Spectrum. Will HEBOT work on this, will I need an interface, if so which one and will all the poles be the same in the programs? I am a new learner to computers and electronics so please can you reply advising me on these matters.
Yours gratefully,
A. J. Arnsby,
Cleestanton,
Shropshire.

No, the interface actually supplied with HEBOT II will not operate on a ZX Spectrum. The HEBOT decodes address lines A6 to A15, and if you look at the table of edge connector functions accompanying the ZX Sound Board project (see HE June '83), you will see that the Spectrum and ZX81 edge connectors, while very similar, are not compatible for addresses above A12. HEBOT's address will be different, but if you use the interface board published in HE September '82, you will have full use of your 16K memory because, when set up to operate from the Spectrum, this board addresses I/O space, rather than memory space.

BUYLINES

Tremoleko

An important point to remember when building this project is that it is going to be subject to heavy wear and tear, probably kicked around on if not off a stage and regularly stomped by heavy footed guitarists! To protect the delicate PCB and components, then, it's worth investing a few extra pence in a solid die-cast aluminium box that can stand up to the worst abuse!

The cost of the parts for the project, including a die-cast box, heavy duty switch is £8.30 (and this covers VAT, p&p) as usual is supplied by our own PCB Service.

SPL Meter

One component in this project is critical if the easy calibration procedure is to be followed, and that is the electret condenser microphone. The specified type is an Altai model EM-104; if some other microphone is used then the calibration procedure will not produce accurate SPL measurements and the ambitious constructor will have to devise his

own method of setting up the meter!

Fortunately this microphone is readily available from a number of sources, and to make things even easier, Greenwell Electronics (443 Millbrook Road, Southampton SO1 0HX) have kindly offered to supply all the components for the SPL Meter, including the EM-104, the 100uA panel meter and box, for just £19.95 including VAT, p&p. The PCB can be made at home from the pattern published on the PCB Printout page, or purchased from Hobby's PCB Service.

Gripometer

All the electronic components may be easily purchased from a mail-supplier such as Cricklewood or Europa Electronics, though there may be some difficulty with the slide potentiometer (essential) and the orange LED (nice but not essential — use another another red or yellow instead). The cost of the components should be around £5.00.

A certain amount of persistence and ingenuity may be needed to complete

the mechanical construction — but we know that HE readers have plenty of both!

Our prototype was constructed from a simple three-sided framework of 1"x1½" timber, covered top and bottom by appropriately sized sheets of hardboard, but any construction method may be used so long as it works.

The prototype was covered in bright yellow Fablon to provide an inexpensive and bright appearance, with the opening edge of the framework uncovered to allow access to the "cheat switch". But if you want to be a little bit clever, mount the cheat switch so that the tip of the plunger is just inside the framework and carry the Fablon down across that edge, sealing it off. Then the switch is concealed but can still be operated through the flexible Fablon covering — if you know it's there!

Variable Power Supply

A complete kit of parts for this project is available from J. Bull for £13.80.

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6800C	4000
6802	3400
6809	8450
6809B	13300
6809E	12950
6810	1200
6821	1400
68B21	2150
6840	3000
6840A	3500
6844	12950
6845	7950
6850	1400
6852	2000
6854	6800
6875	4000
6878A	1200
6878B	1200
6878C	1200
6878D	1200
6878E	1200
6878F	1200
6878G	1200
6878H	1200
6878I	1200
6878J	1200
6878K	1200
6878L	1200
6878M	1200
6878N	1200
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6878R	1200
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6878T	1200
6878U	1200
6878V	1200
6878W	1200
6878X	1200
6878Y	1200
6878Z	1200

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6116L3-150S	900
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4116-200AS	4500
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8035Z	2900

OPTO ELECTRONICS

3mm Red	10p
3mm Green	15p
5mm Red	10p
5mm Green	15p
5mm Yellow	15p
Panel Ctg 3mm or 5mm	4p
Chrome Bezel 3mm	35p
42p	42p
Square LED 5mm x 5mm	25p
Red	30p
Green or Yellow	30p
Ti Colour LED	70p
A Red and a Green LED which produces Yellow when both are on	45p
Red Flashing LED 3mz at 5V	45p
INFRARED	
TL32 PIN InGaAs	54p
IR Emitting Diode	54p
Power Output Typ 12mW	54p
TL38 PIN Gallium Arsenide	55p
IR Emitting Diode	55p
Power Output Typ 12mW	55p
TL78 NPN Silicon Phototransistor	70p
TL100 Large Area Silicon PIN Photodiode	70p
7 SEGMENT DISPLAYS	
TL312 0.3" Red Common Anode	105p
TL313 0.3" Red Common Cathode	105p
HA1141R 14mm Common Anode	140p
HA1143R 14mm Red Common Cathode	140p
25mm Height Common Anode	250p
INCANDESCENT BULBS	
Lilliput LES (T1 T2)	18p
5V or 12V	18p
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ORP12	95p
CRYSTALS	
32.768kHz	100p
1.000MHz	320p
1.843MHz	240p
3.000MHz	228p
3.5795MHz	228p
3.686MHz	240p
4.000MHz	130p
4.194MHz	150p
5.000MHz	150p
5.098MHz	240p
6.000MHz	240p
6.800MHz	180p
8.000MHz	170p
16.000MHz	190p
18.432MHz	150p
18.432MHz	240p
18.432MHz	240p
27.000MHz	170p
40.000MHz	170p
40.000MHz	170p

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EC951/1 0.031" 30, 45, 60 Bends	195p
EC952/2 0.061" 30, 45, 60 Bends	195p
EC953/1 TO-5 Transistor Pads	195p
EC993/1 IC Pads	195p
EC997/1 IC Pads with Traces between Pads	195p
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25mm Height Common Anode	250p
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Aftac Precision Grids	40p
Polyester Film, matt finish, 0.14mm Thickness 20 lines/inch	100p
A3	195p
Double Sided Fibreglass Board 1/16" Thickness 1/2 Copper 5" x 4" 35p	
1/2 Copper 5" x 4" 35p	
Duo Etch Resist Pen	85p
Ferric Chloride Crystals	85p
Dissolve in 1 Litre Water	85p
RELAYS	
PCB TYPE	
Microminiature Printed Circuit Relay Single Pole Change over Contacts Resistor 2A or 125V maximum Contacts are made on Silver Palladium Pins on 0.1" Grid	240p
5V dc 50 ohm	240p
12V dc 320 ohm	240p
24V dc 1250 ohm	240p
CHASSIS MOUNTING	
6-0-6V	120p
6-0-9V at 100mA	125p
12-0-12V at 100mA	145p
15-0-15V at 0.5A	350p
60-0-60V at 1A	270p
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Operating Current 4mm	
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2 x 15V at 100mA	
2 x 20V at 67mA	
2 x 20V at 500mA	
2 x 12V at 250mA	
2 x 15V at 200mA	
2 x 20V at 150mA	275p
SCREEN MOUNTING	
6-0-6V	120p
6-0-9V at 100mA	125p
12-0-12V at 100mA	145p
15-0-15V at 0.5A	350p
60-0-60V at 1A	270p
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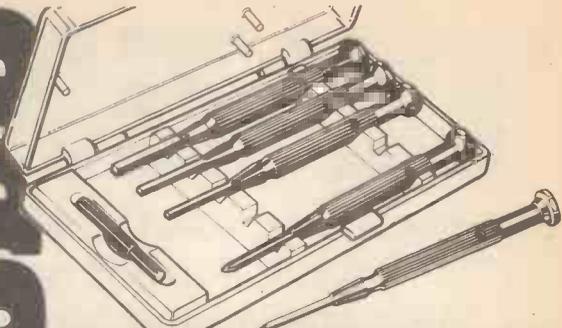
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TREMOLEKO

A classic echo-effect unit is expensive to make, but the HE Tremoleko not only gives a fair echo effect, but is inexpensive and straightforward to build — ideal for the guitar player who wants to experiment with different effects.

R. A. Penfold

THE CONVENTIONAL WAY of electronically processing a signal to give an echo effect is to use a delay line of some kind, to give a delay of between 100ms and 1 second, and to feed the delayed signal back to the input of the line. The signal is therefore fed through many times, getting weaker each time it is fed back to the input and giving a good analogy of a natural echo and an excellent sound effect.

An obvious drawback of this system is the cost of a delay line which gives a sufficiently long delay time for this application. A bucket brigade type, having a few thousand delaying stages, is the lowest cost approach but even this method is not particularly cheap.

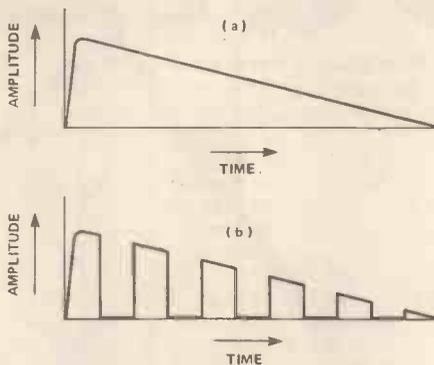
But there is an alternative system which is very simple and inexpensive indeed. Results obtained are not as good as those using more sophisticated techniques, which give a true echo effect, but it is a system well worth trying if a true echo is not feasible within your budget, or if you like experimenting with simple effects units.

The technique is simply to "chop" up the signal from a synthesiser or any other electrical or electronic instrument which has a suitable output signal. The main requirement is that the instrument should have a fast attack plus a relatively slow decay, like the envelope shown in Figure 1(a). Any monophonic synthesiser should be capable of giving a suitable output signal, and a guitar also gives an output of the correct type. When the signal is



"chopped" by effectively just switching it on and off at a rate of a few Hertz, this gives an envelope of the type shown in Figure 1(b).

This gives a signal which is similar to that obtained if a short burst of signal is applied to an echo effect unit, with an initial high signal level followed by a signal bursts of identical length but steadily decreasing amplitude, and quite interesting results can be obtained in practice, especially if the unit is used in conjunction with other effects such as



spring-line reverberations. However, it is important to realise that the effect obtained is not a genuine echo, and that a signal having a long decay is needed at the input to give an output which sounds like a short percussion signal. Results are not likely to be very convincing if the input signal does not have a suitable decay characteristic, or if the signal changes considerably as it dies away. A voice signal, for example, would probably not give good results when used with the unit (although you might find the effect interesting even though it might not be as convincing as an echo effect).

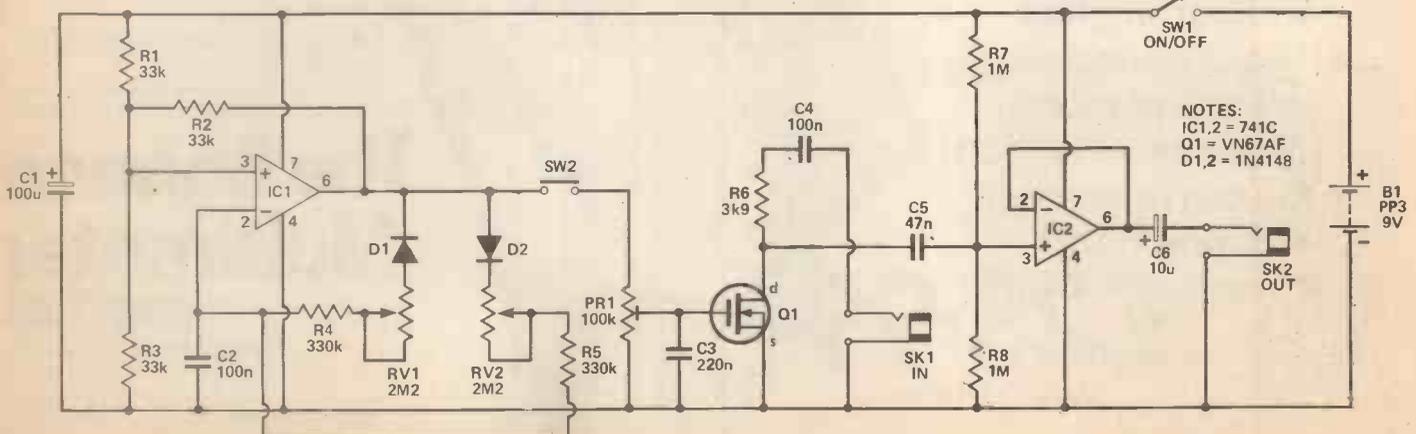
The Circuit

A simple VCA based on a VMOS transistor is used as the basis of the unit, as can be seen from the circuit diagram of Figure 2.

A VMOS transistor has a very high drain-to-source resistance if the forward gate bias is zero (or very low), but this resistance drops to about 2 ohms if a forward gate bias of a few volts is applied to the device. In this circuit the VCA is formed by R6 and the drain-to-source resistance of Q1. There is very little voltage drop through R6 when Q1 is switched off,

Figure 1. How the input signal is 'chopped' by the Tremoleko.

Figure 2. The circuit.



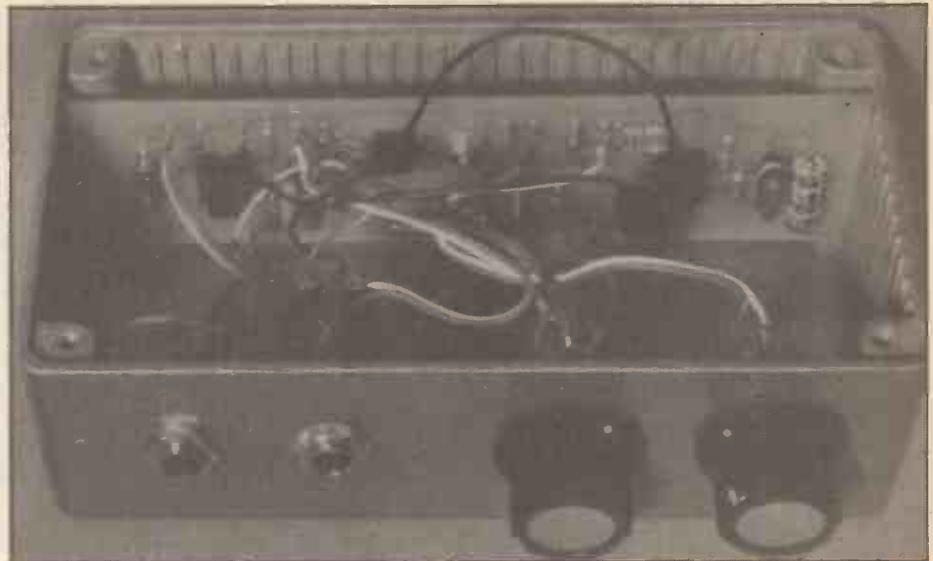
due to the high input impedance of the buffer amplifier formed by IC2 and its associated components, so the signal reaches the output virtually unattenuated, but when Q1 is switched on, most of the input voltage is dropped across R6 and a high level of attenuation (typically about 66dB) is produced.

Although this is a fairly crude form of VCA it is adequate for the present application, and does have an important advantage over most of the more complex alternatives in that there is no DC shift at the output as the circuit switches from the high attenuation state to the low attenuation one, and vice versa. This avoids the generation of "clicks" or "thuds" which would inevitably result if even a small DC voltage shift was produced by the circuit.

"Clicking" sounds could also be generated if the VCA was switched very rapidly between states so that the "chopped" signal had a very rapid rise and fall time. This would give a very unnatural effect, and much better results are obtained if the switching speed is slightly, but significantly slowed down. This is the purpose of C3.

IC1 is used in the pulse generator circuit, in what is basically a well known and frequently used configuration. However, it is slightly different to the standard circuit in that steering diodes D1 and D2 have been included in the timing circuit, and this gives separate timing resistances for the high and low output periods of the circuit. R4 and RV1 control the low output time while R5 and RV2 control the high output period. Apart from permitting the mark-space ratio of the control signal to be adjusted, these two controls also give a substantial degree of control over the operating frequency of the pulse generator. The frequency range is from about 2HZ with both RV1 and RV2 at minimum resistance to over 10HZ with both controls set at maximum.

SW1 enables the output of the pulse generator to be disconnected from the VCA; Q1 is then cut off, the input signal passes straight through to the output, and the effect is cut out. RV3 is needed to match the output voltage swing of the pulse generator to the input requirements of the VCA, and to an extent the effect obtained

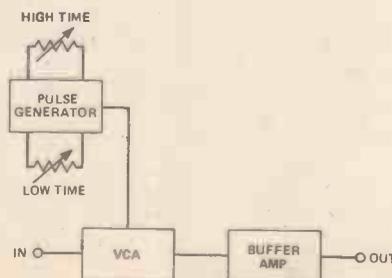


How It Works

The input signal is passed through a voltage controlled attenuator (VCA) and then to the output signal socket by way of a buffer amplifier. The latter is simply needed to give the unit a low output impedance and to ensure that the output of the VCA is not excessively loaded. The VCA will provide an easy path for the input signal if the control voltage is low, but it will provide a very high level of attenuation and effectively block the input signal if the control voltage is a few volts or more.

A pulse generator is used to generate the control voltage, and as this has an output voltage which switches between virtually the negative supply voltage and almost up to the positive supply potential, the VCA is switched between its minimum and maximum attenuation levels. This gives the required "chopping" of the input signal to give the quasi-echo effect.

Two controls enable the high and low output times of the pulse generator to be independently adjusted, and this gives a useful degree of control over the effect obtained. Apart from enabling the "chopping" frequency to be adjusted, it enables short bursts of signal to be allowed through the VCA, short gaps to be placed in the signal, or the on and off periods of the signal to be roughly equal.



Parts List

RESISTORS

(All 0W25 carbon)

R1, 2, 3	33k
R4, 5	330k
R6	3k9
R7, 8	1M

POTENTIOMETERS

RV1, 2	2M2
	1 in carbon
RV3	100k
	0W1 horizontal preset

CAPACITORS

C1	100u 10V
	axial elect
C2, 4	100n
	polyester
C3	220n
	polyester
C5	47n
	polyester
C6	10u 25V
	axial elect

SEMICONDUCTORS

IC1, 2	741C
	op-amps
Q1	VN66AF or VN67AF
	VMOS transistor
D1, 2	1N4148
	g.p. silicon diodes

MISCELLANEOUS

SK1	6.32mm jack
	with DPDT contacts
SK2	6.35mm jack
B1	9 volt PP3
SW1	heavy duty
	push button switch
	105x80x50mm diecast aluminium
	box; battery connector; two control
	knobs; printed circuit board; two 8-
	pin DIL IC sockets; Veropins; wire,
	etc.

BUYLINESpage 34



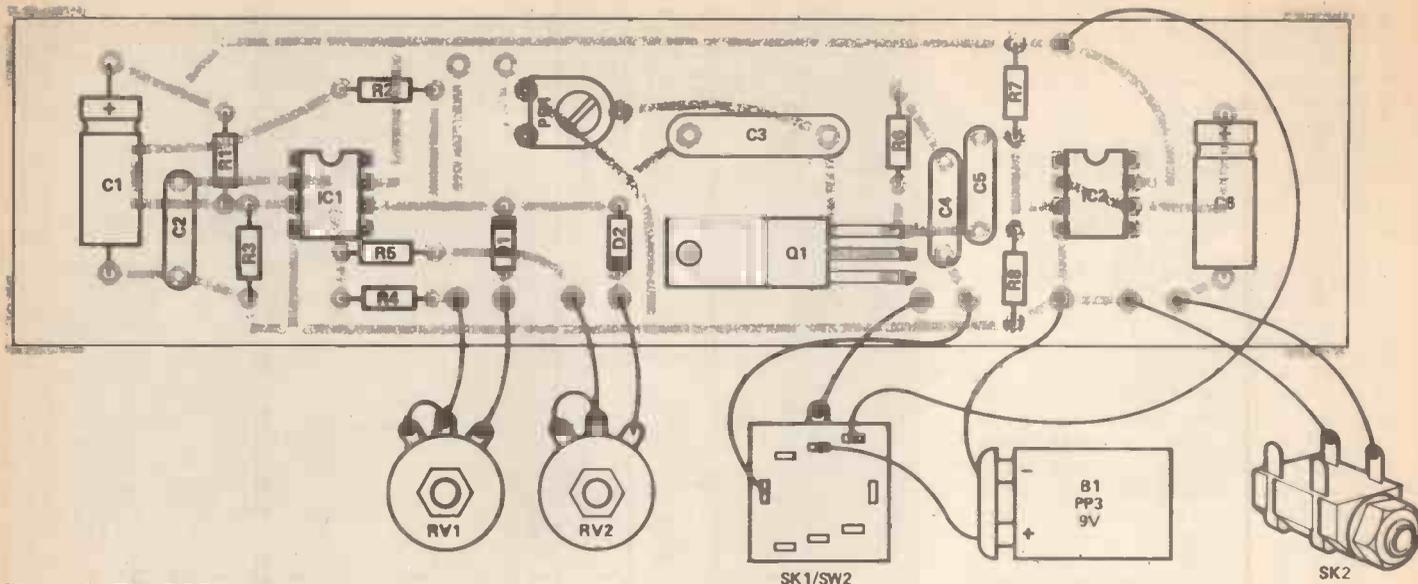


Figure 3. The PCB and components.

can be varied using RV3 since it sets the depth of the amplitude modulation.

The current consumption of the circuit is about 4mA, so a PP3 9V battery is an adequate power source.

Construction

Details of the printed circuit board are shown in Figure 3. Q1 is a MOS device, but both the VN66AF and VN67AF types have built-in 15 volt Zener protection diodes which render normal MOS handling precautions totally unnecessary. These devices are power types, but lower power VMOS devices (such as the VN10KM) should have a low enough "on" resistance to give good results in this circuit. Also the two devices specified are reasonably inexpensive and are readily available! Q1 is mounted horizontally so that it does not protrude too far above the board and prevent it from being installed in the case. This device dissipates an insignificant amount of power and obviously does not require a heatsink, but it is a good idea to bolt it to the printed circuit board so that it is firmly anchored in place.

In other respects construction of the board is quite straightforward, but the careful to fit the semiconductors the right way round. Also, it is helpful to fit Veropins at points where connections to off-board components will be made.

A diecast aluminium box having approximate outside dimensions of 150 x 180 x 50mm is reasonably inexpensive but makes a very tough and neat housing for the project. SW1 can be a heavy duty push button type fitted on the top panel of the case, and it can then be operated by foot (although an ordinary toggle or other type can be used if preferred). The two other controls and the two sockets are mounted on the front panel (one of the 150 by 150mm sides of the case), and SW2 is a set of

make contacts on input socket SK1. The unit will therefore switch on and off automatically when a jack plug is inserted into or removed from SK1. A socket having a single set of make contacts does not seem to be available so a type having DPDT contacts is used for SK1, but note that only two of the six switch tags of this component are connected into the circuit and that the other four are ignored. Of course, if preferred SW2 can be an ordinary switch and SK1 can be a standard unswitched socket.

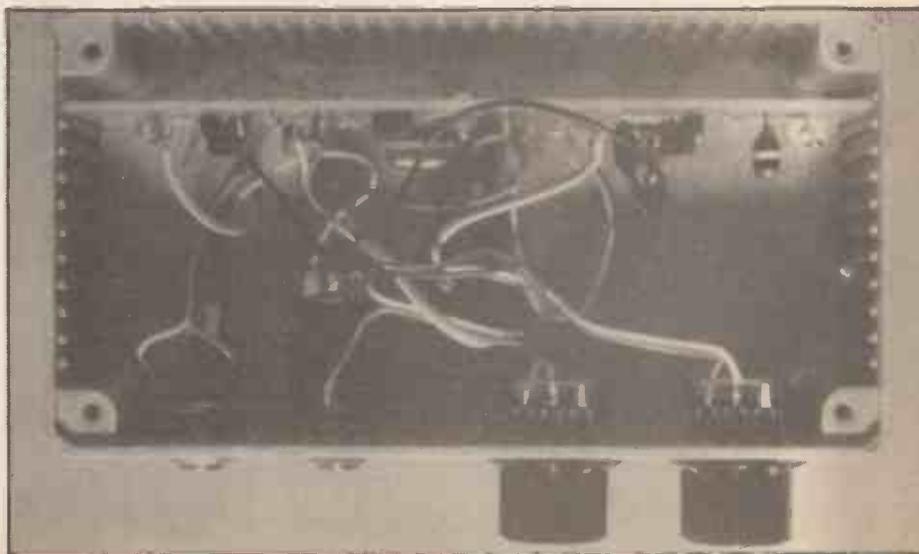
When the printed circuit board has been connected to the rest of the unit using the usual multistrand hook up wire, the board can be fitted in place inside the case. It slots into a set of guide rails, fitting into the set nearest the rear of the unit with the component side of the board facing towards the front of the unit. There are several suitable spaces where the battery can be positioned.

In Use

The unit is simply coupled between the instrument and the amplifier using normal screened jack lead.

Signals of up to about 5 or 6 volts peak to peak can be processed without clipping and severe distortion being produced, and as the noise level of the unit is quite low there should be no difficulty in using it with a fairly low level signal such as that obtained from a low output guitar pick-up. Thus, in most cases there should be no problems when the unit is connected into a system, but it would be advisable to use some preamplification if the unit is fed from a very low level source such as a microphone.

A little experimentation with the two pulse length controls plus the controls of the synthesiser or other instrument should soon show what settings give the best effects. Similarly, a little experimentation with RV3 will enable it to be set for optimum results. In general, the further RV3 is advanced in a clockwise direction the deeper the amplitude modulation of the input signal, but if RV3 is advanced too far it will probably be found that Q1 becomes permanently switched on and little output signal at all will be obtained!



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Shelley Partridge

LAST MONTH we looked at starting a career as a Transmitter Engineer with the Independent Broadcasting Authority or the BBC. This month we will concentrate on opportunities for trainee Engineers and Technical Operators in television and radio stations.

Some of you may well be attracted by the idea of playing a creative part in TV or radio programme making through operating sound or camera equipment in a studio. Perhaps you have used video cameras at school or college, or built your own hi-fi equipment; perhaps you belong to a cine club, are a radio ham or work for a hospital radio station, and therefore you would like to make your career working with technical equipment in broadcasting. Because so many people want to work in broadcasting, competition for trainee posts is always fierce. However, you are someone who has a clear idea of the job you would like to do, have found out what qualifications you need to apply for training, and are determined to obtain these qualifications and you are already a dedicated amateur and the kind of person who can work in a team, and cope with some pressure and hassle, then your chances of getting started in a broadcasting career have never been so good as they are now and will be over the next few years.

Both radio and television broadcasting are expanding. The BBC now provides two and a half extra hours of television each day in its Breakfast TV show; Independent Television's new company TV-AM began transmitting in February this year; Channel 4 went on air in autumn '82. Channel 4's money has stimulated the setting up of many independent film and video production companies. Facilities companies providing television studio space, post-production services and technical expertise to these independents to make programmes for broadcasting and other purposes (training, sales, corporate communications), have been springing up, particularly in London, but also now in other regional centres. Cable and satellite television are only just around the corner, as you know only too well from this month's cover feature.

So let's consider which organisation may offer trainee opportunities, and what they will expect from you in the way of personal and academic qualifications, then look at recruitment and training patterns for each major broadcasting organisation, and conclude by offering some basic tips on how to get started.

Where The Work Is

The BBC employs some 28,000 people in radio and television, with a substantial concentration in various locations in central and west London, but also at regional centres throughout the country. The BBC is the only broadcasting organisation which recruits school and college leavers regularly as trainees into a limited number of job categories. For the

CAREERS IN ELECTRONICS

Hobby Electronics looks at the varied world of Studio Engineers in broadcasting.

'83



Picture courtesy BBC.

financial year 1983/84 the BBC are recruiting far more technical trainees than in recent years and anticipate that trainee recruitment will remain at a high level over the next several years.

Collectively the sixteen Independent Television Companies (including TV-AM), plus Independent Television News (owned by all the ITV companies except TV-AM which has its own news service), employ nearly the same

numbers in television broadcasting. These employees are, however, dispersed in much smaller units. Thames Television, for example, the largest ITV company, employs about 2,500 people in its Teddington and Euston studios. There are now forty Independent Local Radio stations on air, spread throughout the country, and another ten due to come on air in the next year or so. They vary in size from



Monitoring sound and vision signals before transmission.

Picture copyright Thames Television.



Picture courtesy BBC.

Tape editing in a BBC television sound gallery.

fewer than thirty employees to over one hundred. The Independent Broadcasting Authority is responsible for selecting and appointing ITV and ILR companies; supervises programme planning; controls the advertising and transmits the programmes for all the Companies.

Each ITV and ILR company recruits staff individually. Most of the ITV companies recruit trainees from time to time, the five largest — Thames, London Weekend, Yorkshire, Granada, Central Independent — taking the majority. Although one or two ITV companies (notably Thames and ITN) recruit technical trainees regularly and provide systematic training, in general trainees are recruited on an ad hoc basis when needed, and training is informal.

Basically both the BBC and ITV companies are looking for the same sort of young people to train as engineers and technical operators, in terms of qualifications and qualities, the numbers taken on by the ITV companies being just simply much smaller. This means that competition is always severe for the relatively few trainee posts which do arise in Independent Television, most recruitment being of people with relevant experience. However, in 1983 due to the current

expansion in broadcasting generally and difficulties in finding suitably experienced technical staff, a number of ITV companies are recruiting engineering and technical operations trainees.

Channel Four is a programme commissioning, not a programme making company. Its staff consists of experienced broadcasters and producers (who plan and coordinate programming), administrators and transmission engineers. The Channel is currently commissioning up to 50% of its programmes from independent film and video companies as well as from the other ITV companies. A few independents are large enough to have their own small studios and editing facilities; many use the studio and post-production services of the television facilities companies. Some of these companies are now beginning to recruit trainee operators and audio/video engineers since qualified and experienced people in these fields are in short supply.

Recruitment And Training

Broadcasting organisations demand a variety of pre-entry qualifications from

young people who apply for trainee positions. These employers are also at least as concerned to see how you have demonstrated keen interest through practical amateur activities. Applicants selected for training are more likely to have participated, for example, in a local cine or photographic club; college video or radio programme making, hospital or local radio; may have built hi-fi and electronic equipment, run a disco, recorded a pop group, or play a musical instrument. Appreciation is not enough; you need practical experience gained preferably on your own initiative rather than through school studies alone . . . in other words the sort of people who read *Hobby Electronics*!

Whatever the differences between broadcast radio and television and the video industry in terms of recruitment and training, the personal qualities you need to succeed in these organisations are similar. You should be able to work as a member of a team, long often irregular hours and remain calm and efficient under pressure. You need lots of common sense, a cheerful co-operative personality, and a bright, alert, inquiring mind. All these employers would like to encourage more suitably qualified women to apply for training; opportunities are very good. So make sure you choose to study the right subjects — particularly physics and maths.

The BBC

The BBC recruits Technical Assistants (trainee engineers) for network radio and television studios in London and the regional centres (Birmingham, Bristol, Manchester, Wales, Scotland, N. Ireland). 'Technical Assistants/Television and Radio studios' are trained to test, repair and maintain all equipment used to broadcast programmes, and control switching and routing; also to set up and align broadcasting equipment and in some areas operate it.

Training is completed in approximately three years, beginning with the twelve week 'A' course at the BBC Engineering Training Centre at Evesham. This course goes over basic principles studied in 'A' level Physics and introduces trainees to studio operations — studio layout, camera techniques, sound desk operation. Those who pass (any who fail have to leave the BBC) then proceed to induction and on the job training in television or radio for about eight months before returning to Evesham for the 'B' course. This is ten weeks in-depth study of basic principles and radio and television applications. Then follows another ten to twelve months 'on-the-job' experience before the final return to Evesham for the 'C' course — a detailed study of broadcasting engineering theory, how equipment works, fault finding, using manuals. On successful completion of the 'C' course the TA qualifies and becomes a Reserve Engineer.

To apply for a Technical Assistant's post you need 'O' Levels grades A/C or CSE '1' in maths, physics and English

Careers In Electronics

plus maths and physics studied to 'A' level or a TEC certificate/diploma in electronics/electrical engineering (with merit passes). You should have a keen interest in and knowledge of electronics possibly audio or video systems.

The BBC also recruits young people with Higher TEC or degree qualifications in Electronics, Electrical Engineering or Applied Physics for direct appointment as Engineers. The BBC's system of recruiting TAs aged 18 to 21 as potential engineer, as well as direct entry graduate engineers, provides suitably qualified young people with an unique choice and opportunity. For, if you have developed an interest in broadcasting engineering early, have studied the right subjects at school and then join the BBC as a TA you can do as well as the graduate engineer. Promotion after training is up to the individual.

Technical Operators

The BBC has recently created a new grade, Recording Operator, to deal with the increased work-load resulting from the great amount of pre-recording of BBC programmes on video-tape, and is currently offering a number of trainee opportunities in West London — at Television Centre, Lime Grove and New Enterprises Studios. Recording Operators prepare and operate video



Picture courtesy IBA.

film and tape equipment used for recording, editing, transmitting TV programmes and studio inserts. They are responsible for lining up programme material on magnetic tape or film and for ensuring equipment gives the highest standard or reproduction. You must be over 18, with 'O' Levels grade A/C or CSE '1' in maths, physics and English, plus science study — particularly physics — to 'A' Level or the equivalent TEC. You need good visual ability (an interest in film-making or art), and aural and technical ability (shown by such interests as sound recording, music, hospital/amateur radio or electronics. Training will be begun with the 'A' course at Evesham; then five months 'on-the-job' in video tape and five months in tele-cine, plus further courses at Evesham.

The BBC also recruits Camera Operators to work in television studios



Picture copyright Thames Television.

Directors and vision mixers in a Thames Television control room.

at Television Centre, Lime Grove and the Open University at Milton Keynes, Audio Assistants to work in radio and television studios in the Regions; and Technical Operators, Radio to work in Broadcasting House and External Services, Bush House. All Technical Operators start with the 'A' course at Evesham followed by on-the-job training and experience, and reach qualified operator status in three years.

Camera and Sound Operators work as junior members of a technical operations team in television studios or outside broadcast unit. They set up and operate cameras and associated equipment or sound reproduction equipment, sound booms and microphones, working closely with the production team. Radio Technical Operators route sound programme sources and completed programmes in the main control room, and operate sound reproduction equipment in radio stations. They are responsible for maintaining high technical quality of sound output.

For all Technical Operator grades you must be 18 plus with 'O' levels in maths, physics, English or TEC in electrical engineering. You need a good grasp of electricity and magnetism and appropriate practical interests.

The BBC has a small annual intake of Trainee Sound Managers; mainly graduates, for network radio — people with both technical and creative ability. They recruit periodically for the Local Radio Station Assistant's Registry and look for potential broadcasters from University/Polytechnic media studies type courses, with radio experience.

Independent Television

Only Thames Television among the ITV companies offers a formal Technical Training Scheme. About twelve trainees are recruited each Spring to begin nine months at the Teddington

Training Centre in October. The 1983 scheme is recruiting sound technicians, engineers and two film editors. Successful candidates are in age range 20 to 30, have completed a Higher TEC or degree course relevant to TV engineering (eg Ravensbourne College Higher TEC) or a film/television course or offer relevant professional experience.

ITN recruit six Trainee Broadcast Television Engineers each year to begin training in September and ask for Higher TEC in electrical/communications engineering with a broadcasting bias.

Facilities Companies

In the past the Facilities Companies have recruited only experienced staff, but are now also beginning to take on trainees. They look for technically minded young people with an interest in video systems and a background in electronics, usually over 18. You could be recruited as a trainee video tape operator or audio/video engineer or as an operator to do high quality transfer and cassette duplication work.

Getting Started

Broadcasting attracts many highly intelligent and well qualified people. Many of the trainee engineers and operators offer qualifications and relevant experience whether amateur or professional above the minimum required. Because so many talented young people like the idea of working in broadcasting, both the BBC, and ITV Companies can take their pick from many hundreds of able young people who apply each year.

The BBC has produced a comprehensive series of leaflets on training schemes, different jobs and careers with the Corporation which they



Picture courtesy BBC.

A BBC engineer setting up a video tape recorder.

will send on request. Be sure to specify the kind of work which interests you. These leaflets may also be available in your local careers office. The individual ITV companies provide information leaflets on jobs within their organisations which they will also send on request. In addition, The Independent Television Companies Association is preparing an information pack on behalf of all the ITV companies which will shortly be available; again, when writing be sure to specify the jobs which interest you.

For information on engineering and technical operator recruitment at the BBC write to:

The Engineering Recruitment Officer,
BBC Broadcasting House,
London W1A 1AA.

The IBA will supply up-to-date list of ITV and ILR companies; write to:

The Information Officer,
The Independent Broadcasting
Authority,
70 Brompton Road,
London SW3.

These addresses are also in the IBA handbook *Television & Radio 1983* published each year and obtainable from most bookshops. For The Independent Television Companies Association, write to:

The Training Adviser,
ITCA Ltd.,
Knighton House,
52-66 Mortimer Street,
London W1N 8AN.

Looking For The Opening

The BBC advertises vacancies in specialist publications such as the amateur electronics and radio press (according to type of work), in *The*

Listener, and sometimes *The Guardian* media page (Mondays). Details of trainee schemes aimed mainly at graduates are notified to University and Polytechnic careers services; those open to school and college leavers are notified to Local Authority Careers Offices in Central London and the South East, and in the Regional centres. Ask your careers officer for details (address and phone number in local telephone directory).

Trainee vacancies with the ITV companies must first be notified to the Trade Union (ACTT), 3 Soho Square, London W1. They are occasionally advertised in the national/specialist press, and are sometimes filled without advertising from the suitable speculative applications already held on file. So make sure you get your letter on file when you feel you have a realistic chance of being considered.

A small but interesting number of technical trainee vacancies with video production and facilities companies are notified to Inner London careers offices and to the Capital Radio Jobfinder service. You should also try making direct approaches to some of these companies. There are various reference books which will give you company details (eg *Contacts in Stage, Television, Screen & Radio; The Video Yearbook; The Creative Handbook*) held at the Westminster Central Reference Library and other good reference libraries.

If you are interesting in working in Independent Local Radio you should apply direct to the stations which interest you. You could also look into the courses offered by the National Broadcasting School, 14 Greek St., London W1, which provides training in radio production, engineering and journalism for ILR. Unfortunately, although these course are subsidised by the IBA, they are still expensive and Local Authority grants are not usually available.

Finally some tips for all would-be broadcasters:

- Achieve as high a standard of education as possible ensuring you are studying the appropriate subjects.
- Join a cine club or still photographic club at school, college or in your local area. If you are keen on sound, get involved with hospital or local radio, run a disco, record your local group.
- Find out as much as possible about the industry by reading books available on working in radio and television, by talking to people who work in the industry, by obtaining free audience tickets for a television studio show recording, by attending the Inner London Education Authority's Christmas Careers Lectures for sixth formers on television broadcasting if you live in the London commuting area (information from your careers officer).
- Watch films and television programmes analytically — which techniques make different programmes work?
- Look into the relevant further and higher education courses. If you decide to apply for a course, check the prospects well in advance to ensure you will be able to offer the right entry qualifications. Make your application as early as possible in the year before you wish to begin the course, and make early enquiries about your grant aid which may be available from your local education authority.



Picture courtesy IBA.

- Prepare yourself to go to interviews, sometimes at short notice; be ready to ask questions.
- Seek further advice and guidance from your local careers officer.

Don't consider a career in broadcasting simply because you think it will be exciting and glamorous. The glamour soon wears off. A camera operator with a heavy cold filming in filthy weather, who has to spend hours waiting for the weather to clear will hardly find the job glamorous.

Good luck with your search!

Shelley Partridge is a Careers Officer working for the Inner London Education Authority's Careers Service and specialises in the Broadcasting, Film and Video Industries.

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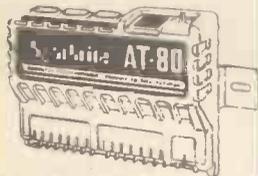
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7407 18p	74145 40p	74LS15 25p	74LS247 70p	4042 40p	CA3048 200p	LM3912 125p	UPC1158H275p	BU406 45p	2N2905A 25p	1N5408 14p	
7408 14p	74147 75p	74LS16 25p	74LS250 30p	4043 40p	CA3059 285p	LM3915 200p	UPC1185 85	BUX80 400p	2N3064 25p	1N5409/7 12p	
7409 14p	74148 60p	74LS17 13p	74LS251 30p	4044 40p	CA3060 350p	LM3916 225p	XR2206 300p	BUY69C 200p	2N3053 25p	S920 5p	
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7432 18p	74170 120p	74LS32 14p	74LS266 140p	4059 45p	DAC1800 200p	MC6039 37p	ZN450E 790p	MJF105 30p	2N4037 65p		
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7438 22p	74173 50p	74LS34 25p	74LS268 140p	4061 15p	HA1366 190p	NE533 140p	ZN450E 790p	MJF105 30p	2N4037 65p		
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7474 18p	74197 40p	74LS52 20p	74LS286 140p	4079 90p	LF357 110p	RC4136 60p	ZN450E 790p	MJF105 30p	2N4037 65p		
7475 22p	74198 80p	74LS53 20p	74LS287 140p	4080 90p	LF357 110p	RC4136 60p	ZN450E 790p	MJF105 30p	2N4037 65p		
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7485 60p	74207 100p	74LS62 36p	74LS296 140p	4089 100p	LF357 110p	RC4136 60p	ZN450E 790p	MJF105 30p	2N4037 65p		
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7490A 20p	74210 100p	74LS65 36p	74LS299 140p	4092 100p	LF357 110p	RC4136 60p	ZN450E 790p	MJF105 30p	2N4037 65p		
7491 35p	74211 100p	74LS66 36p	74LS300 140p	4093 100p	LF357 110p	RC4136 60p	ZN450E 790p	MJF105 30p	2N4037 65p		
7492A 25p	74212 100p	74LS67 36p	74LS301 140p	4094 100p	LF357 110p	RC4136 60p	ZN450E 790p	MJF105 30p	2N4037 65p		
7493A 24p	74213 100p	74LS68 36p	74LS302 140p	4095 100p	LF357 110p	RC4136 60p	ZN450E 790p	MJF105 30p	2N4037 65p		
7494 35p	74214 100p	74LS69 36p	74LS303 140p	4096 100p	LF357 110p	RC4136 60p	ZN450E 790p	MJF105 30p	2N4037 65p		
7495A 35p	74215 100p	74LS70 36p	74LS304 140p	4097 100p	LF357 110p	RC4136 60p	ZN450E 790p	MJF105 30p	2N4037 65p		
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7497 30p	74217 100p	74LS72 36p	74LS306 140p	4099 100p	LF357 110p	RC4136 60p	ZN450E 790p	MJF105 30p	2N4037 65p		
74100 24p	74218 100p	74LS73 36p	74LS307 140p	4100 100p	LF357 110p	RC4136 60p	ZN450E 790p	MJF105 30p	2N4037 65p		
74107 22p	74219 100p	74LS74 36p	74LS308 140p	4101 100p	LF357 110p	RC4136 60p	ZN450E 790p	MJF105 30p	2N4037 65p		
74109 25p	74220 100p	74LS75 36p	74LS309 140p	4102 100p	LF357 110p	RC4136 60p	ZN450E 790p	MJF105 30p	2N4037 65p		
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74111 55p	74222 100p	74LS77 36p	74LS311 140p	4104 100p	LF357 110p	RC4136 60p	ZN450E 790p	MJF			

Step-by-step fully illustrated assembly and fitting instructions are included together with circuit descriptions. Highest quality components are used throughout.

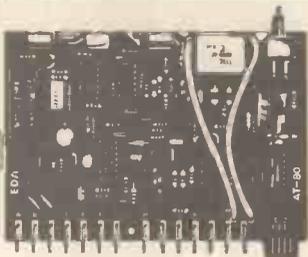
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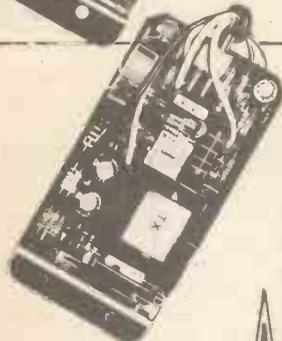


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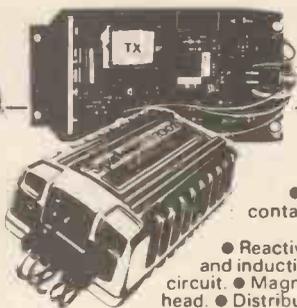
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I PROMISED in the August issue of HE that I would discuss electronic components in this month's All About Electronics. And the first component family that we all need to know about in any study of electronics is the family of resistors. We've already talked about resistance of course; we know that a resistor is something which allows an electric current to flow through it. But the current is actually *controlled* by the value of the resistor. For instance, if the voltage across the resistor is maintained constant, increasing the value of the resistor would automatically reduce the current flowing through it. The three variables of current, voltage and resistance are totally described by Ohm's Law, which says simply that the ratio of the voltage across a body to the current through the body equals a constant which is the resistance of the body. Ohm's Law can be summarised by the formula

$$\frac{V}{I} = R$$

from which

$$V = IR \text{ and } \frac{V}{R} = I$$

can be derived. These three formulae mean that if we know any two of the three variables associated with a resistance, the third can be calculated.

We can express Ohm's Law and these three formulae graphically, as Figure 1 shows. The graph in Figure 1 shows three important points about the relationship between voltage across and current through a resistance:

- it is linear, ie a straight line
- it passes through the origin
- it occurs for negative values of both voltage and current.

A relationship which is defined for negative values of voltage and current is important because it means that Ohm's Law can be applied to resistors used with AC usage — where voltage and

current alternate between positive and negative values.

What Is A Resistor?

With our knowledge of the interdependence of each of these variables of current, voltage and resistance we can now go on to look at the make-up of a resistor. As you know, in electronics there are specific components which we call resistors. Size of each type is not necessarily related to value — in other words you could have a resistor of value 10MR (ie 10 megohms = 1×10^6 ohm) which is smaller than a 10R resistor. No — size is normally related to the power which a type of resistor can dissipate (ie, release as heat to the surrounding air — more of that later!).

One type of resistor which we met two months ago was simply a length of nichrome wire. Now, nichrome wire is made with a very even and constant diameter throughout its length. If you were to do a couple of experiments with two lengths of such wire — having different diameters — you would find that their resistance is proportional to length and inversely proportional to cross-sectional area. So: the longer the wire, the higher the resistance; the thicker the wire the lower the resistance (both fairly obvious, I think!). The actual resistance of the wire can be calculated by using the formula

$$R = \rho \frac{l}{a}$$

where l = length, a = cross-sectional area and ρ is the *resistivity* of the wire.

Any material has its own resistivity: for example, the resistivity of copper is 1.72×10^{-8} ohms per metre and the resistivity of aluminium is 2.82×10^{-8} ohms per metre, and the resistivity of nichrome is 1.10×10^{-8} ohms per metre.

So the resistance of a length of material can be calculated from knowledge of these three variables.

If we take the example of nichrome wire and calculate the resistance of a one metre length of wire, of cross-sectional area 0.1mm^2 , it will give us a good idea of the use of this resistance formula. Now, the resistivity of nichrome is 110×10^{-8} ohm metre, so the resistance is

$$\frac{1}{a} = \frac{110 \times 10^{-8} \times 1}{1 \times 10^{-7}} = 11R$$

From this result, it is fairly obvious that although a material such as nichrome wire exhibits the principles of resistance we couldn't use it to manufacture resistors to any great value — just think of the length of wire needed to make a 1M resistor.

To make high value resistors a material with a higher resistivity must be used. The most common material used is carbon. Carbon belongs to a group of substances we call semiconductors. For one reason or another (as we'll find out over the coming months) semiconductors are the most important elements in the electronics world. Other semiconductors often used are germanium and silicon.

Carbon's high resistivity (about 180×10^{-8} ohms per metre) means that high resistances can be manufactured with quite small body sizes. Two main types available are:

- 1) solid carbon resistor (Figure 2). Graphite (a form of carbon) is compressed into a thin rod and metal leads are connected to each end. The rod and connections are encased in an insulating body.
- 2) Carbon film resistor (Figure 3).

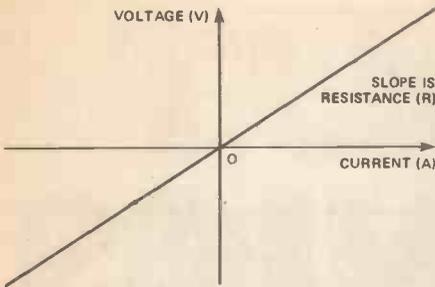


Figure 1. Showing the graphical relationship between voltage across a resistor and current through it.

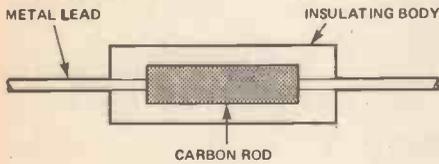


Figure 2. Make-up of a solid carbon resistor.

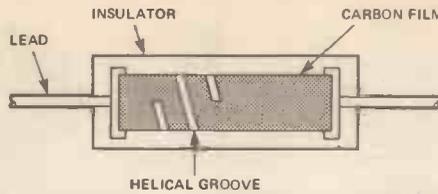
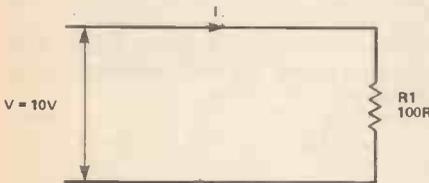


Figure 3. How a carbon film resistor is made-up.

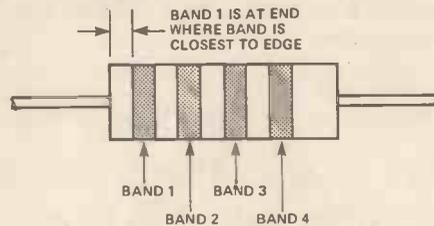


Figure 4. The resistor colour code and a table relating to each band and its colour to a resistor's value. The bulk of the colours (red to violet) are the colours of the spectrum.

Figure 5. Simplest resistor circuit it is possible to make — a single resistor connected to a 10V power source.

Graphite is deposited as a thin film on a ceramic insulating body. A groove is cut into the film until the required resistance is reached. Then metal caps are crimped to the ends to form connections and the whole resistor is coated with an insulator.

Resistors made from carbon are cheap and can be made to quite a high accuracy (say, within 5% of the required value). They are therefore used a lot in electronics. But they do, however, have some disadvantages:

- their resistance varies a great deal with changing temperature
- they are prone to resistance changes due to mechanical shock or just age.

So, for more exacting requirements we use other types

- metal film
- metal oxide film.

Construction is similar to carbon film resistors but a layer of metal or metal oxide is deposited on the insulating body. These make much more stable resistors and generally speaking better accuracy can be achieved (say, ± 1% of the required value).

NPV

Generally speaking a wide range of values of resistors is needed — anything from a fraction of an ohm to

several million ohms can be seen in any common piece of electronic equipment. It would obviously be impossible to manufacture every possible value: and anyway, resistors are rarely their exact quoted value — some are made with a tolerance of ± 20%, ie they could have a value within the range 20% under to 20% over the specified value. So to provide reasonable coverage of all possible values, resistors are made to standard ranges. A typical standard is the E12 range shown in Table 1.

Other standard ranges give different resistance. For example, common American resistances may have values such as 3K32 and 6K65. When we specify a particular resistor calculated for a circuit, then we have to use the nearest value to it from the standard range. The standard range value is known as the *nearest preferred value* (NPV). To differentiate values of

resistors (they all look the same, after all, don't they?) we code them with an internationally accepted code known as the *resistor colour code*. Resistors are coloured with thin loops or bands around their bodies. Coding and decoding what the different bands mean is quite straightforward and is shown in Figure 4.

Each of the first two bands stands for a digit. The third band stands for the 'multiplier' — quite simply the number of zeros behind the first two digits.

Thus a colour-coded resistor whose first three bands are red, violet, yellow would be of value 270000: red = 2, violet = 7, and yellow = four zeros, ie 27k. The fourth coloured band (if used at all) gives the resistor's tolerance.

Now we've looked at resistor values and codes it only remains to look at power ratings, and then we can go to look at circuits using resistors. Last month we discovered the heating effect of an electric current. Power is dissipated in the form of heat whenever a current flows through a resistor, and, if that heat is too great, the value of the resistor may change, or worse still, the resistor may be damaged — it may 'burn-out'. Manufacturers give resistors power rating, and the actual power which a resistor dissipates must always be less than its power rating.

Power dissipated by a resistor is calculated from the power formula we saw last month

$$P = IV \text{ (measured in watts)}$$

or because $V = IR$ and $I = V/R$.

$$P = I^2R = \frac{V^2}{R} \text{ watts}$$

So, knowing the voltage across a resistor, or the current through it, or both, the power dissipated by a resistor in a particular application can be calculated and a resistor can therefore be used of high enough rating.

Resistors In Circuits

We have looked at some simple circuits using resistors over the last two months. It's worth repeating them here, I think, before moving on to more complex circuits. The simplest circuit we could possibly build is shown in Figure 5.

E12 Resistance Values

10	100	1K	10K	100K	1M
12	120	1K2	12K	120K	1M2
15	150	1K5	15K	150K	1M5
18	180	1K8	18K	180K	1M8
22	220	2K2	22K	220K	2M2
27	270	2K7	27K	270K	2M7
33	330	3K3	33K	330K	3M3
39	390	3K9	39K	390K	3M9
47	470	4K7	47K	470K	4M7
56	560	5K6	56K	560K	5M6
68	680	6K8	68K	680K	6M8
82	820	8K2	82K	820K	8M2

Table 1. Resistor values in the E12 range. The first column lists the basic resistor values; all other resistors are simple decades of the basic resistors

The voltage across the resistor, V , is indicated by the arrow shown beside the resistor. The arrow head indicates the more positive side. Current is indicated by the arrow head within the circuit, which should always point in the direction of current flow, ie from positive to negative.

In the circuit of Figure 5, if $V = 10$ volts and $R1 = 100R$ the current, I , must equal (from Ohm's Law)

$$\frac{V}{R} = \frac{10}{100} = 0A1$$

The resistor must therefore be capable of dissipating at least

$$\frac{V^2}{R} = \frac{100}{100} = 1 \text{ watt}$$

Figure 6 shows a more complex example of a circuit using two resistors. Such a circuit is often known as a voltage, or potential, divider because the voltage at the junction of the two resistors is always a strict ratio of the voltage across the whole circuit. We can think of the two resistors as forming a circuit which will provide an output voltage which is always a particular ratio of an input voltage.

The voltage at the resistor junction (classed as the output voltage, V_{out}) is given as the ratio of the output resistor ($R2$), to the total resistance ($R1+R2$), times the input voltage (V_{in}). As a formula

$$V_{out} = \frac{R2}{R1+R2} \times V_{in}$$

And, in the circuit of Figure 6

$$V_{out} = \frac{500}{1500} \times 12 = 4V$$

Certain types of resistors (potentiometers — called 'pots' for short) make use of this potential dividing capability to allow a continually variable output voltage to suit the application. The volume controls of a hi-fi system or TV are good examples of this. Such a pot is placed at the amplifier input of the equipment, and the output voltage is controlled by the ratio of the two resistors. Figure 7 shows the make-up of a simple pot. By varying the position of the 'wiper' (ie, the junction of the two resistors), the ratio between the two resistors is changed and so the output voltage changes. You should have gathered, from the example of a pot used to control volume from an amplifier, that pots (in fact all resistors too) can be used with AC voltages and signals as well as DC. Figure 8 shows the circuit symbols of a pot.

More Complex Circuits

Electronic circuits, of course, are usually far more complex than those of say, potential dividers and some methods must be established to help us understand them. Take for example the circuit in Figure 9. As the resistors are in series, the current, I , must flow through each of them. The voltage across each of these resistors depends

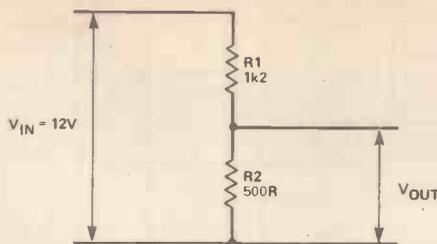


Figure 6. A voltage divider or potential divider is made with two resistors. The output voltage, V_{out} , is a ratio of the input voltage, V_{in} .

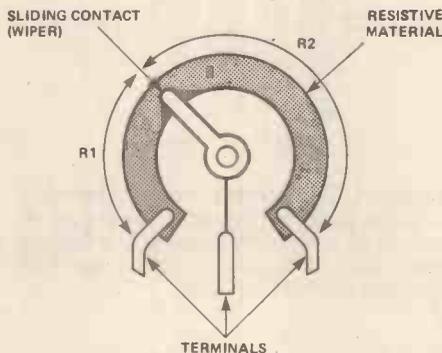
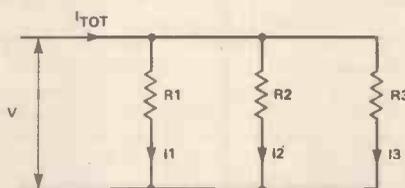


Figure 7. Make-up of a pot — a potentiometer. The wiper can rotate around the resistive material altering the ratio between $R1$ and $R2$.



upon each resistor's value according to the formula.

$$V = IR$$

and the total voltage, V_{tot} equals the sum of the individual resistor voltages, ie

$$V_{tot} = V_1 + V_2 + V_3$$

However, when resistors are in parallel, as in Figure 10, the voltage across each resistor is equal, therefore the current through each is dependent on its resistance, according to the formula

$$I = \frac{V}{R}$$

and the total current, $I_{tot} = I_1 + I_2 + I_3$.

Equivalent Circuits

We can simplify complex circuits which may seem difficult to understand into equivalent circuits — circuits which theoretically perform the same job with a minimum of components. (I say 'theoretically' because these equivalent circuits might not work in a practical

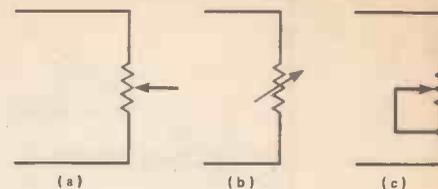


Figure 8. a) Symbol of a pot used as a potential divider. b) Symbols of a pot used as a variable resistor — either symbol is correct, but version c shows correctly how the pot is physically connected in a circuit.

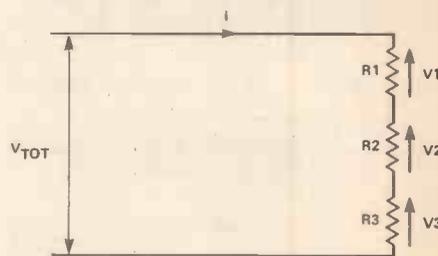


Figure 9. A more complex circuit, consisting of three resistors in series. The total voltage is made up of three voltages across each resistor. The current flows equally through each resistor.

Figure 10. Three parallel resistors. In this circuit the voltage across each resistor is the applied voltage, V , but the total current I_{tot} , is made up of the three separate currents through each resistor.

arrangement — they are often only used to aid our understanding of complex circuits.)

A simple example can be made of the circuit in Figure 9. The series resistors can be replaced by a single equivalent resistor. Its value can be found by using the formulae associated with Ohm's Law. We know the total voltage, V_{tot} , and we know the current, I . Therefore, the equivalent resistor.

$$R = \frac{V_{tot}}{I}$$

But, we also know that $V_{tot} = V_1 + V_2 + V_3$.

$$\text{So: } R = \frac{V_1 + V_2 + V_3}{I}$$

But, $V_1 = IR_1$, $V_2 = IR_2$, $V_3 = IR_3$, so

$$R = \frac{I(R_1 + R_2 + R_3)}{I}$$

therefore $R = R_1 + R_2 + R_3$

In other words, if resistors are in series (and this applies to any number of resistors), their equivalent resistance is found by simply adding their individual resistances. Likewise in the circuit of Figure 10 where three resistors are in

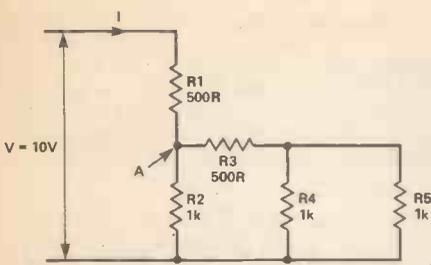


Figure 11. Quite a complex electronic circuit, but we can reduce it in complexity to an equivalent circuit.

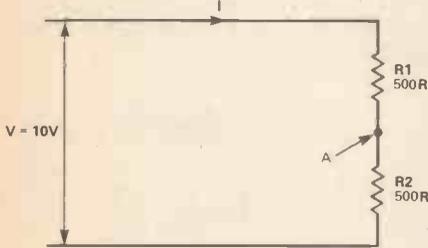


Figure 12. An equivalent circuit of that in Figure 11, used to calculate the voltage at point A.

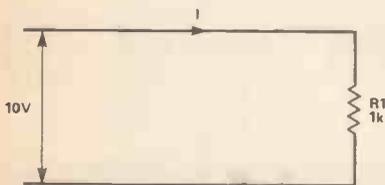


Figure 13. Another equivalent circuit of that in Figure 11, used to find the current, I, in the circuit.

parallel, we know that the equivalent resistance

$$R = \frac{V}{I_{tot}}$$

But, we know that $I = I_1 + I_2 + I_3$, and

$$I_1 = \frac{V}{R_1}, I_2 = \frac{V}{R_2}, I_3 = \frac{V}{R_3}$$

$$R = \frac{V}{\frac{V}{R_1} + \frac{V}{R_2} + \frac{V}{R_3}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3}}$$

or, inverting both sides

$$\frac{1}{R} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3}$$

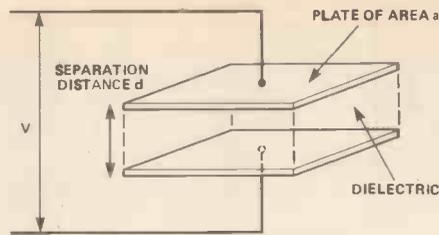


Figure 14. Basic form of a capacitor — two parallel conductive plates separated by a dielectric.

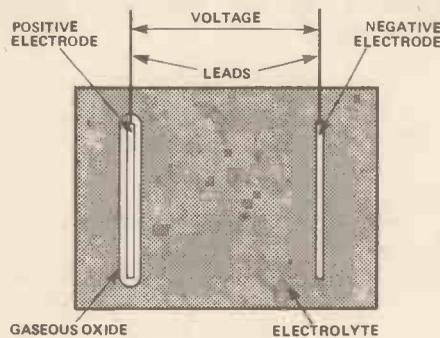


Figure 15. An electrolytic capacitor. The 'plates' are formed by the positive electrode and the surface of the electrolyte. The dielectric is the gaseous oxide layer around the positive electrode.



Figure 16. The circuit symbol for an electrolytic capacitor, showing that it is polarised and must be inserted the correct way round into a circuit. The solid bar indicates the negative lead.

In other words, for parallel resistors (any number) the reciprocal of the equivalent resistor is found by adding the reciprocals of the individual resistors.

Don't be put off by all of this: it's often easier to calculate the equivalent value of paralleled resistors than it would first appear. For instance, if two equal valued resistors are in parallel (say, two 10k resistors) the equivalent value is half of the value of a single resistor (ie, 5k). If three equal valued resistors are in parallel the equivalent value is one third the value of a single resistor (ie, 3k3, following the above example). With four equal resistors, the equivalent is one quarter, and so on.

The equivalent resistance of two unequal resistors (R_1 and R_2) in parallel can be calculated quite easily by the simple formula:

$$R = \frac{R_1 \times R_2}{R_1 + R_2}$$

However, if there are three or more unequal resistors in parallel then you'll have to use the reciprocal formula, but that doesn't happen often, thankfully.

Armed with all this knowledge, it is possible now to simplify some quite

complex circuits. An example might be something like that in Figure 11.

We might have to calculate the current I, and the voltage at point A in the circuit. It looks complicated but, in fact, isn't. Take it in the following stages:

- 1) Calculate the equivalent resistance resistors R_4 and R_5 — ie, two resistors of 1k in parallel = 500R
- 2) Calculate the equivalent resistance of R_3 in series with that in stage 1 ie, two resistors of 500R in series = 1k
- 3) Calculate the equivalent resistance of R_2 in parallel with that in stage 2 ie, two 1k resistors in parallel = 500R
- 4) The circuit has now been reduced to that in Figure 12. The voltage at point A must be 5V ie, it is at the mid-point of the potential divider formed by the two resistors
- 5) The total equivalent resistance is formed by two 500R resistors in series (= 1k) and so the final equivalent circuit is as shown in Figure 13.

From the formulae associated with Ohm's law, the current.

$$I = \frac{V}{R} = \frac{10}{1000} 10\text{mA}$$

QEDI Simple, isn't it?

The second component family we need to look at is that of capacitors. Any capacitor (Figure 14) consists essentially of two parallel plates of conducting material separated by an insulator (called a dielectric). When a capacitor is inserted in an electric circuit (such as that in Figure 14) so that the voltage appears across the capacitor plates, electrons gather on the negative side. Similarly electrons are repelled from the positive side so that a depletion of electrons occurs there. The circuit symbol for a capacitor is shown in Figure 15.

If the capacitor was instantly disconnected from circuit in this condition this gathering of electrons on one plate and depletion on the other will remain — the capacitor is said to hold its 'charge'.

The capacitance of a capacitor is a measure of its ability to hold this charge and is measured in Farads (abbreviated F). One Farad is a large unit in electronic terms and so capacitors of values in uF (microfarad ie, 10^{-6} F); nF (nanofarad ie, 10^{-9} F); pF (picofarad ie, 10^{-12} F) are often used.

In the same way that resistance of any material can be calculated from the formula

$$R = \rho \frac{l}{a}$$

so can capacitance of a capacitor be calculated from the formula:

$$C = \epsilon \frac{a}{d}$$

where a is the area of the capacitor plates and d is the distance between plates. The constant, ϵ , is the permittivity of the dielectric used in the capacitor (I suppose it could be called

'capacitance' but that's a bit of a mouthful!). Different insulators have different permittivities and in the same way that conductors are chosen for resistors because of their resistivity, so insulators are chosen for capacitors because of their permittivity.

Although the basic idea of a capacitor consisting of two plates separated by a dielectric remains true whatever dielectric is used, the actual shape and appearance is altered due to the physical characteristics of the dielectric. There are three common solid dielectrics: polyester, ceramic and mica. In addition, there is a capacitor whose dielectric is the thin layer of metal oxide which occurs due to electrolysis — this is known as an electrolytic capacitor. The four types are:

1) Ceramic

Ceramic is very brittle and cannot be easily shaped so capacitors are formed on the simple parallel plate basis already described. Ceramic has a high permittivity and so quite high capacitor values can be made with small body sizes.

2) Mica

Like ceramic, mica is very brittle and cannot be shaped, so again mica is only used in a parallel plate arrangement. Mica's permittivity is not so high as ceramic's, so for the same body size only lower capacitor values can be made. Mica's main advantage is the fact that it allows highly accurate capacitors ($\pm 1\%$) to be achieved.

3) Polyester

Polyester film is easily shaped and can be rolled between aluminium foil (the plates) to give large areas of plates therefore high capacitor values can be made with small body size.

4) Electrolytic

Electrolytic capacitors depend on the electrolysis of a liquid electrolyte to form a layer of gaseous oxide on one of two electrodes inserted into the electrolyte (Figure 16).

The two 'plates' consist of the positive electrode and the liquid electrolyte (not the negative electrode!) The distance between the plates is the thickness of the gaseous oxide. Electrolytic capacitors are *polarised* and so must be inserted into circuit the correct way round otherwise damage will occur. In practice they are marked with a symbol (+) or (-) to indicate polarity, or sometimes the positive end of the capacitor body is ridged. The circuit symbol of an electrolytic capacitor is shown in Figure 17.

It is impossible to manufacture accurate values of capacitors using electrolytic dielectrics but nevertheless they are extremely useful due to the fact that very high values (say, 10000F) can be made with relatively small body sizes.

All capacitors have a voltage rating and the potential difference applied to a capacitor's leads must never exceed the rated voltage (which is normally printed

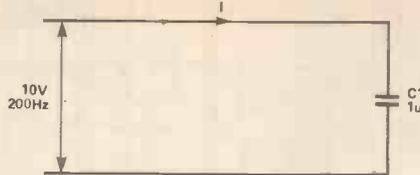
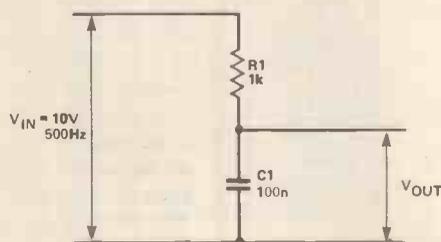


Figure 17. The simplest AC capacitor circuit. Calculation of the current flowing in the circuit is identical to a resistor circuit as long as we know the reactance of the capacitor] and that depends on the source voltage frequency.



$$\text{The reactance of } C1 \text{ at } 500\text{Hz} = \frac{1}{2\pi \times 500 \times 100 \times 10^{-9}} = 3k2$$

$$\text{Therefore } V_{OUT} = \frac{3k2}{4k2} \times 10 = 7V6$$

Figure 18. A potential divider using a capacitor circuit. The output voltage depends not only on the value of the capacitor but also on the frequency of the input voltage!

on the capacitor's body). In a lot of cases the voltage rating will be high enough for the majority of applications but electrolytic capacitors for example have quite low ratings eg 10V and care should be taken to make sure the rating of any capacitor is not exceeded.

Now capacitive effects are very different in DC circuits from AC circuits. So different in fact that I am going to leave their DC effects until another month. For the rest of this instalment I will concentrate on capacitors in AC circuits.

I have already pointed out that resistors can be used in AC or DC circuits and all calculations are identical in either. The circuits used with resistors can be used with capacitors too, however the similarities between resistor circuits and capacitor circuits only occur when the power sources of the capacitor circuits are AC.

For example, the circuit of Figure 18 shows a capacitor of value 1uF connected to an AC source of 10V at 200Hz. Note that even though the power source is AC, I have assumed the circuit to be drawn in an instant in time — and at the particular instant in question the voltage at the top of the circuit is positive (hence the voltage arrow is pointing upwards and the current arrow heads points to the right). The voltage and current could equally have been the opposite way round if a different instant were chosen.

Now, how can we calculate the current in the circuit?

The answer comes from the fact that any capacitor has *reactance* (don't worry about what it is — just think of it for the time being as an AC resistance!) measured like resistance, in ohms, but given the symbol X. Now, a capacitor's reactance is given by the formula

$$X = \frac{1}{2\pi f}$$

From this formula, you will see that the reactance is inversely proportional to frequency of the source. So the capacitor's reactance will go down as the frequency goes up.

In other words, we need to know the frequency of the source to define exactly what the circuit does.

At 200Hz a capacitor of value 1uF will have a reactance

$$X = \frac{1}{2\pi f c} = \frac{1}{2\pi \times 200 \times 1 \times 10^{-6}} = 800R$$

So, the current I in the circuit of Figure 17.

$$I = \frac{V}{R}$$

or, more correctly speaking.

$$I = \frac{V}{X} = \frac{10}{800} = 12\text{mA}5$$

Likewise, any other of the circuits using resistors, that we have looked at this month can be used with capacitors (but AC only remember!)

Let's take a last look at the potential divider circuit but with a capacitor instead of one of the resistances, as in Figure 18.

The output voltage is defined exactly as before (but using reactance X, instead of resistance R2) in the formula. That is

$$V_{out} = \frac{X}{X+R_1} \times V_{in}$$

But, we know that reactance, X, changes with frequency, so the output voltage of the potential divider must also change as applied frequency changes! This concept is an important one — it forms the basis of many things, eg tone controls of an amplifier, and we will be studying it a great deal.

But that's enough for this month: we have seen a lot of new things — components, circuits, formulae etc. Next month we will look at another family of components — the most important as it happens. Like resistors, this family uses semiconductors as its main elements but with very different effects.

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G. Macaulay

NO MATTER what your interest in electronics, there are two items of test gear that are essential. One is the common or garden multimeter and the other is a good power supply unit.

Most projects which appear in this publication need a power supply in the range of 3-30V, with a current consumption from a few hundred microamps to several hundred milliamps. Sometimes projects can be run from batteries — but since it costs nearly two thousand times more for battery power than for mains electricity, it obviously makes good sense to use the latter!

Looked at this way, a PSU can be seen as a good investment which will pay for itself in a short time. The design presented here is both simple to build and inexpensive, moreover it has a professional performance. The design is also tried and tested, since several hundred have already been supplied in kit form over the the last couple of years.

The desirable features of such a PSU are fairly easy to summarise.

Firstly, it must be capable of delivering about an amp of current; this will allow items such as power amps to be driven directly from the supply. It must also have a metered output so that the voltage can be set accurately, while low ripple is an important requirement, especially when powering audio and logic circuitry; this design has less than 10mV ripple voltage on the output.

Apart from these specifications, short circuit protection is essential — otherwise you will soon end up with a dead supply, and have to replace the output stage.

Considering the confined space in which many constructors work, it is almost inevitable that the output will be shorted out sooner or later! No power supply can be guaranteed to operate into a short indefinitely, but the present design will withstand limited duration short circuits without damage.

Last but by no means least the power supply must be portable. 'Murphy's Law' will dictate that the power supply will always be needed in the most inaccessible places!



The Current

The PSU has been designed specifically for experimenters and so meets all the requirements just outlined. Its output is fully variable from three to thirty volts and has automatic current limiting set at approximately 1.1 amps; the ripple voltage is typically 3mV peak-to-peak, 1mV RMS.

The circuit diagram is shown in Figure 1. For descriptive purposes it can be broken down into three parts: first, raw DC at about 30V is generated from the secondary (24V) winding of T1 by the bridge rectifier BR1 and is smoothed by the 2000u capacitor formed from C1, C2.

The next section, based on IC1, generates a very stable, ripple-free reference voltage. The IC is connected as a comparator with a gain of two; at

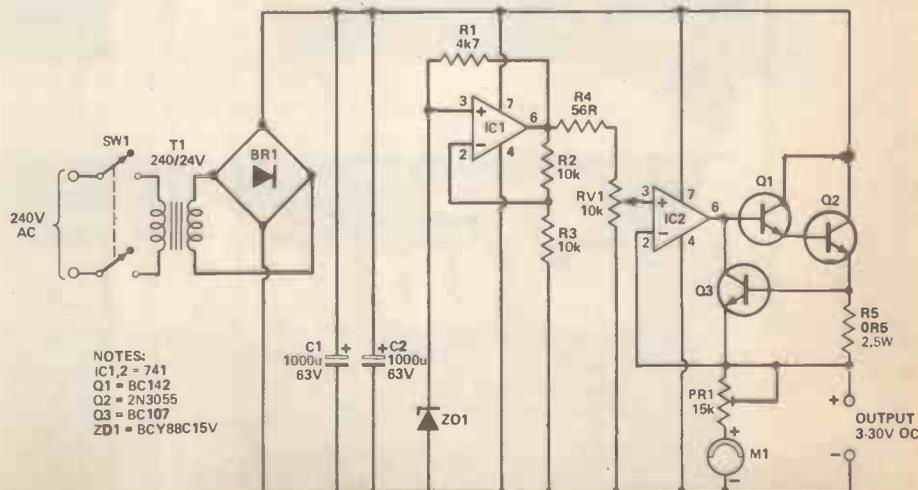
the switch-on, the Zener ZD1 presents a high impedance and therefore almost the full output voltage appears at pin 3 (the drop across R1 due to an input current of microamps is negligible). The output is also coupled to the inverting input, pin 2, via the voltage divider formed by R2 and R3, so that about half the input is applied to pin 2. Therefore no matter what the condition of the output when power is first applied, the non-inverting input is always more positive than the inverting input, so output *must* swing towards the positive rail.

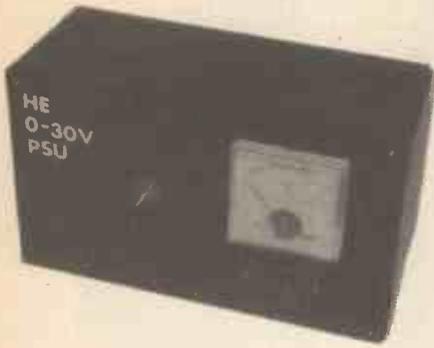
But as it passes the Zener voltage, pin 3 stabilises at 15V, and the output remains rock steady on 30V. Once stabilised, the current drive to ZD1 is virtually constant and this results in very little ripple voltage on the reference output.

A proportion of the reference voltage is picked off by RV1 and drives the non-inverting input of IC2, another comparator but with a gain of one.

(Editorial Note: Although this circuit is tried, tested and has been proved to be generally reliable, it may not work as described with some 741 ICs. If any instability is encountered, reliable operation can be guaranteed by connecting a resistive divider of 10k and 4k7 between the 30V rail and 0V, and

Figure 1. The Circuit.





connecting a 1N4148 signal diode from the junction of the resistors to the cathode end of ZD1 (connect the cathodes together). Then, at power-on, the diode is forward biased, placing about 10V across ZD1 and ensuring a positive output from IC1. As soon as the voltage on the inverting input passes 10V, the new diode is reversed biased and the op-amp will maintain a constant current drive to ZD1. However this modification will only be required in exceptional cases - and it may be simpler just to use a 741 from a different batch.)

Parts List

RESISTORS

(all 1/4 watt 5% carbon, except as noted)

- R1 4k7
- R2, 3 10k
- R4 56R
- R5 OR5
2 1/2 watt wire-wound

POTENTIOMETERS

- RV1 10k
1in carbon
- PR1 15k
vert pre-set

CAPACITORS

- C1, 2 1000u 63V
axial electro

SEMICONDUCTORS

- IC1, 2 741
op-amp
- Q1 BC142
- Q2 2N3055
- Q3 BC107
- ZD1 BCY88C15V
- BR1 1A6/200V
PIV
bridge rectifier

MISCELLANEOUS

- SW1 DPDT
(part of RV1)
- T1 240/24V, 1 1/2A
- M1 2mA panel meter
PCB; case (see Buylines); control knob; 2 x sping-clip terminal; cable clamp; wire, solder, nuts and bolts etc.

BUYLINES page 34

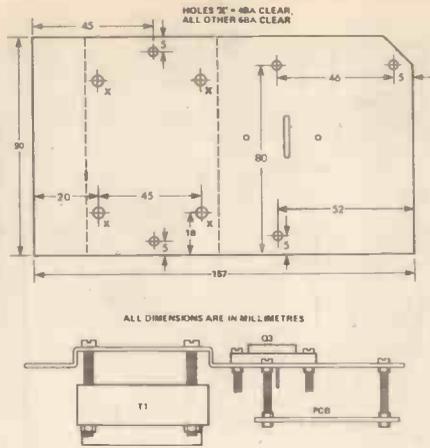
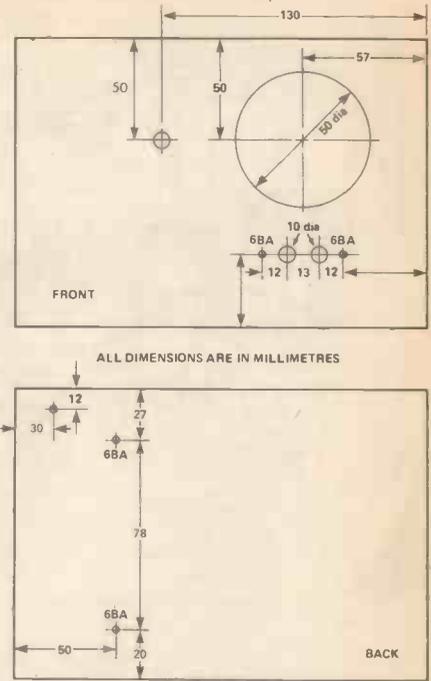


Figure 2. Assembly positions for the power supply's internal mountings: above, where and how to drill; below, the assembly seen from above.

Figure 3. The external mounting positions: above, the front; below, the back.



Pin 6 of IC2 drives the Darlington pair, Q1, 2. Because these are connected in the feedback loop around IC2, the output voltage at the emitter of Q2 will exactly equal the input voltage on pin 3, since the pin 6 voltage will be forced slightly higher to compensate for the base-emitter voltage of the two transistors, plus the voltage dropped across R5. At the same time, any fluctuation in output voltage caused by varying load currents will be reflected around the feedback loop, and will be similarly compensated for at the output of IC2.

The output voltage is monitored by M1 via scaling resistor PR1; current limiting and short circuit protection are provided by monitoring the voltage across R5, which is in series with the load. If excessive current is drawn from the supply, this voltage will go above the OV6 level required to turn on Q3, which then shunts current away from the base of Q1, thereby limiting the output current.

The circuit provides limited protection against operation into a short, and this should be avoided for prolonged periods because Q1 will eventually (and sooner than later) overheat and blow out. However at current of 1A or less, there is no danger of this occurring.

Construction

The work involved here falls neatly into two parts, mechanical and electronic; however it is far easier to do the mechanical part first. Start with the meter; examine the back of this and you will see two brass nuts. Undo these and remove the retaining shroud.

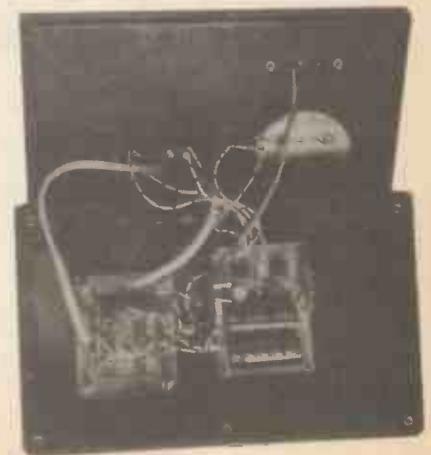
Next, following Figure 2, drill the front of the case. Attach the pot, SK1 and meter into position. Once this has been accomplished attention can be

turned to the heatsink. Figure 2 shows the position of all the mounting holes whilst Figure 3 shows the general arrangement of the completed assembly. Although it is possible to mark out all the hole positions it is easier, in practice, to use the PCB and transformer mounting holes as a template, as this also saves a considerable amount of time.

The transformer and Q2 can now be mounted. The mounting holes for the latter are already drilled in the heatsink; Q2 does not require an insulating kit in this application.

Lastly the mounting holes for the heatsink assembly should be drilled in the back of the box as shown in Figure 2, and this completes the mechanical assembly.

Now the electronics can commence. The overlay and interwiring is shown in Figure 4. The PCB should be wired first, paying attention to the correct orientation of the electrolytics and semiconductors. Once the board has been completed it should be checked for solder blobs, dry joints etc before



Variable Power Supply

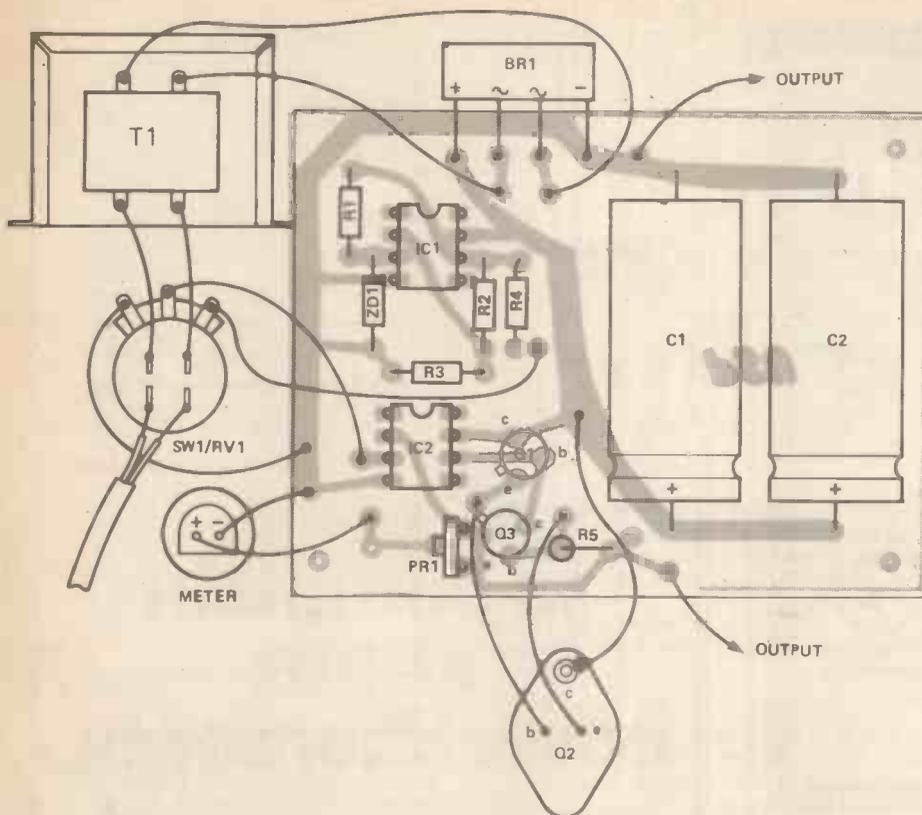


Figure 4. The components. The trick is to get the wire links short enough so that they don't make a 'rat's nest' and long enough so that they don't pull off if any components work loose in transit.

being mounted onto the heatsink.

As shown in the diagram the board is mounted by means of long 6BA screws, secured in position by nuts either side of the board. Ensure that the board is about 1½ in above the heatsink to facilitate connection to Q2. Before mounting the board, solder flying leads to it, leaving each about a foot long.

Once the PCB is mounted final assembly can commence. Connect the flying leads to their respective destinations, shortening them as required, then fit the completed assembly to the back of the case and the construction is completed.

Setting Up

Adjust PR1 to the half-way point and RV1 to minimum, then switch on. Now if you take RV1 to about the mid-point, there should be an indication on the built-in meter.

Connect a multimeter, set to read at least 30VDC, across the output and tweak RV1 until it reads 30V. Then with the lid removed — and being extremely careful not to come into contact with the mains wiring! — adjust PR1 until the PSU meter also reads 30V. This completes the set-up adjustments and rotating RV1 should now produce an output voltage between 3 and 30V for you to use as you please.

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GRIPOMETER

How strong are you? The answer's in your hands!

Ian Hickman

ARE YOU still feeling your way in the Wonderful World of Electronics? Or beginning to get the hang of it and looking for an interesting project to tackle? Either way, look no further! Here is a project which is not too complex, is educational and at the same time fun to build — and use. The components are all standard and inexpensive, so there's no problem there. Furthermore, just to keep your feet on the ground and remind you that electronics has to interface with the everyday world of people and things, the project involves just a wee bit of mechanics. (Did I hear you say UGH! — never fear, for those who can't face the construction work, a full kit of parts is being made available).

When I visited the annual fair as a lad, beside the big attractions like the steam roundabout with its mechanical organ, and the Dodgems there were smaller attractions as well — perhaps there still are. Among these were various "try-your-strength" stalls, like the punch bag and the one with a bell twenty feet up in the air which you could ring (if you were Superman) by wielding an enormous mallet. There was also one with a couple of handles you could squeeze, and a dial which measured the strength of your grip. This last one always fascinated me, though as a lad I couldn't even reach the handles and in any case preferred to save my pennies for the Helter-Skelter.

The fairground Test-Your-Grip machine was doubtless all done with good-old fashioned mechanics, but HE now presents an *all electronic* Gripometer. This is a gripometer with another difference too: with the aid of a secret "go faster" button, you can astound your friends with your superhuman strength!

Putting On The Squeeze

Figure 1 shows a block diagram of the Gripometer. The "linear displacement transducer" is quite simply a slider type potentiometer with 60mm travel, and it is operated by a level with a spring return. If you have grappled with the "O" level physics syllabus, you will recognize the three types of lever in Figure 2. The type-3 lever is the one which provides the least mechanical advantage for the "effort" — your hand — and is therefore just the one for our Gripometer! Your handgrip is opposed by a spring and the resultant

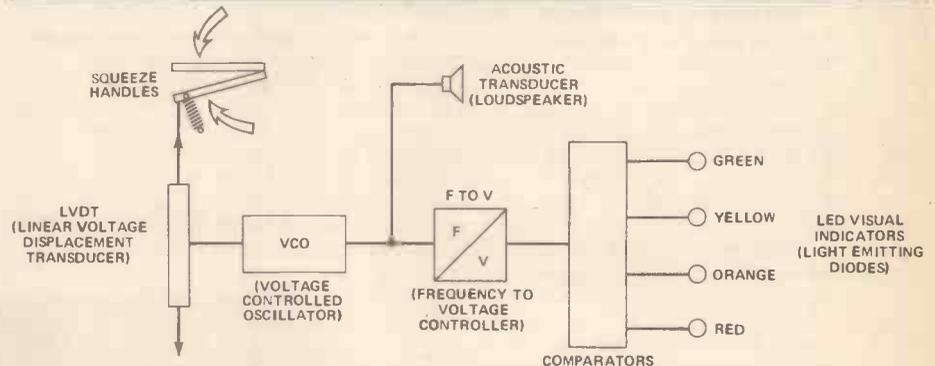
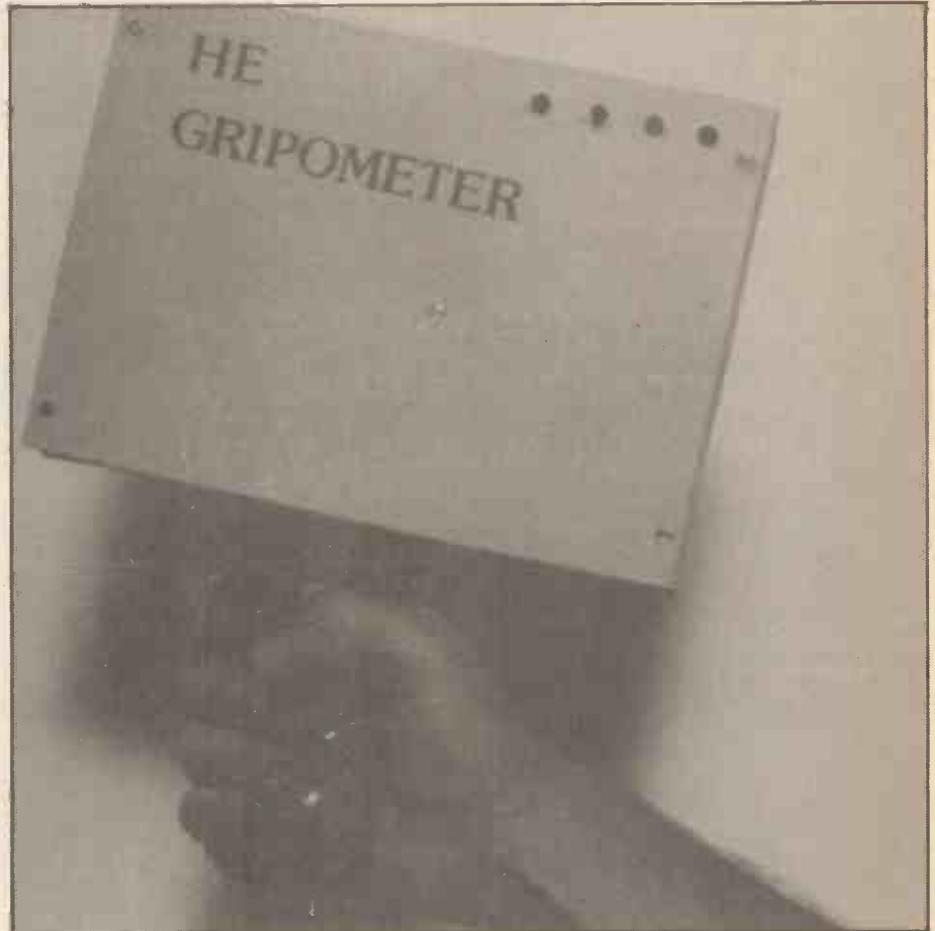
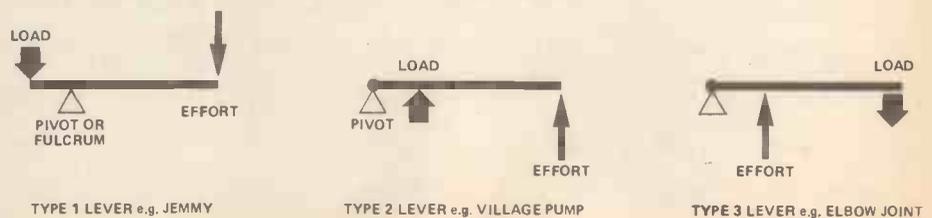


Figure 1. A block diagram of the HE Gripometer.



TYPE 1 LEVER e.g. JEMMY

TYPE 2 LEVER e.g. VILLAGE PUMP

TYPE 3 LEVER e.g. ELBOW JOINT

Figure 2. The three basic types of lever.

Gripometer

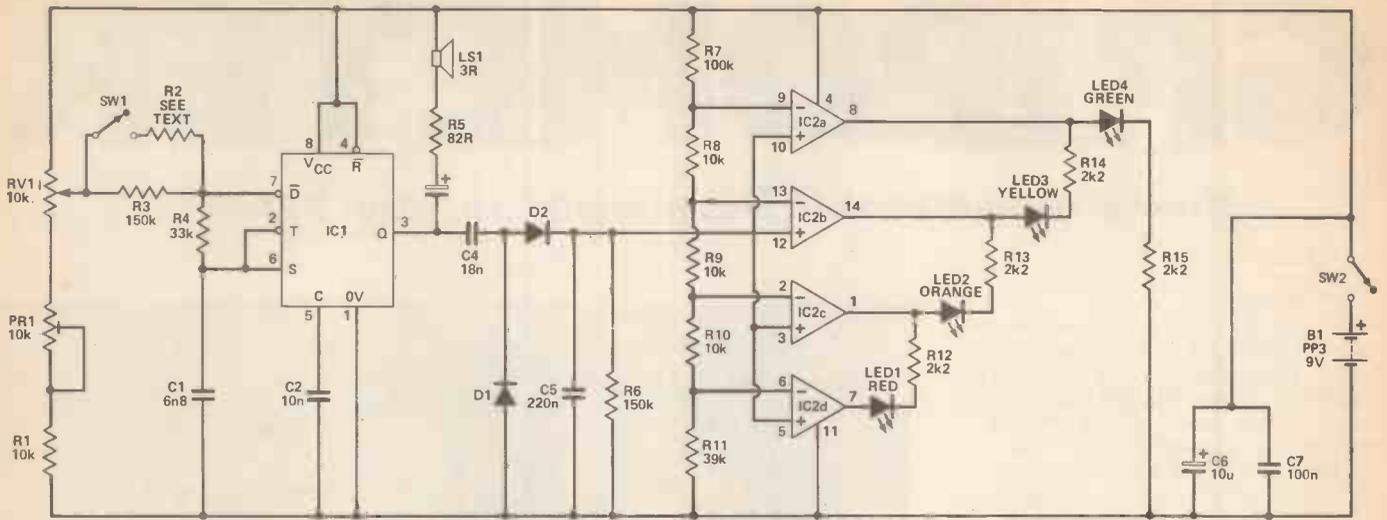


Figure 3. The Gripometer circuit.

movement of the lever works the linear potentiometer as in Figure 4.

This brings us to the circuit diagram of Figure 3, in which the linear potentiometer is RV1. The normal position of the wiper is near the bottom end of its travel, due to the action of the spring. In this position, the voltage at the wiper is less than $\frac{2}{3}$ of the battery voltage, with the result that (as explained elsewhere) the timer IC, IC1, will not oscillate. As the handgrip is squeezed, the wiper of RV1 moves upwards towards the positive supply rail, +9V. IC1 thus starts to oscillate as a low frequency, getting higher and higher as the wiper moves upwards. The output at pin 3 of IC1 is drives the loudspeaker, giving a higher pitched sound the harder you squeeze the handles.

The pulse output waveform at pin 3 of IC1 is also applied to a simple frequency to voltage converter circuit, consisting of C4, D1 and D2, C5 and R8. On the negative going edge of a pulse at pin 3 of IC1, D1 conducts, leaving C4 discharged. On the following positive going edge, D2 turns on and the pulse voltage is shared between C4 and C5. As C5 is the larger, only a little of the voltage appears across it, but C4 is discharged again on the next negative going edge and adds a little charge to C5 on the next positive going edge again, and so on. The charge added to C5 on each positive edge builds up the voltage across C5 until a balance is reached with the discharge current through R8. The higher the frequency of the waveform at pin 3, the more charge per second is fed via D2 onto C5, and so the higher the voltage across it, although the relationship is not linear. This voltage is applied to the non-inverting (+ve) inputs of all four op-amps of IC2. The inverting (-ve) inputs of the op-amps are connected to voltages derived from the potential divider chain R9, 10, 11, 12 and 13. When IC1 is not oscillating, there is of course no voltage across C5, so the non-inverting input of each op-amp is at a lower voltage than its inverting input.

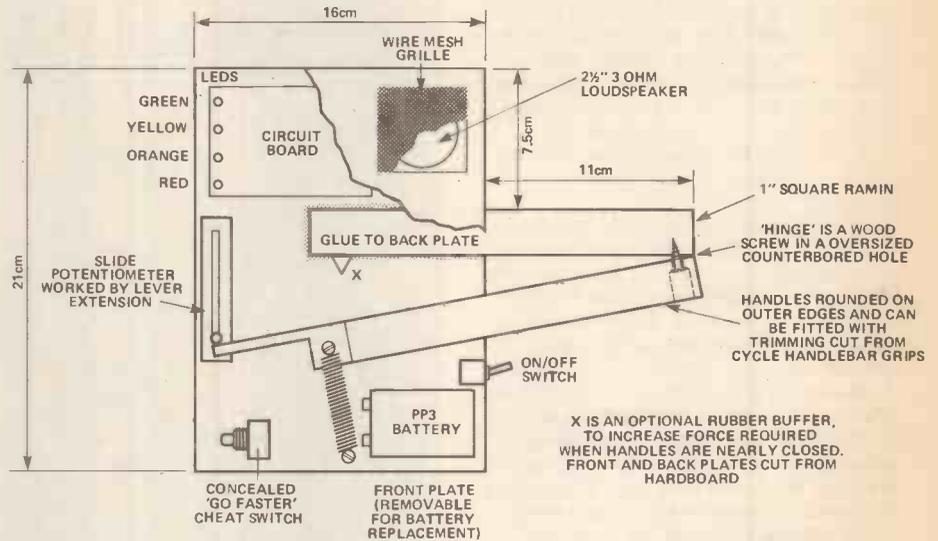


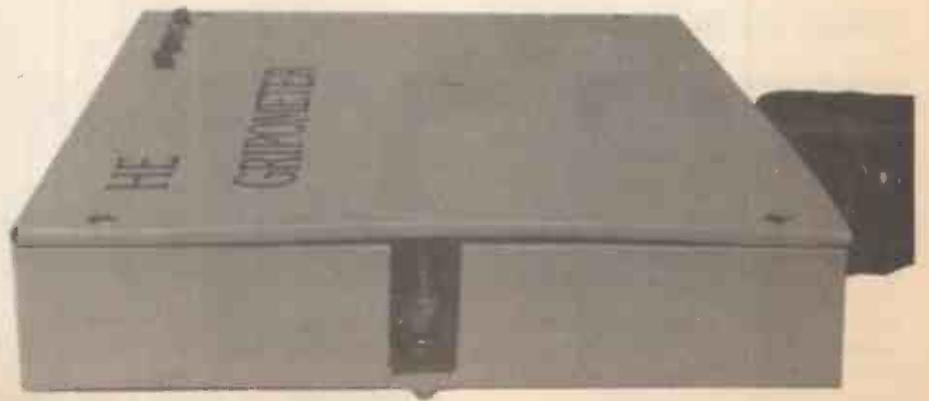
Figure 4. The mechanics of the Gripometer.

Consequently, the output of each and every op-amp is at 0V and none of the LEDs (light emitting diodes) LED1 - LED4 is lit.

As you squeeze the handles harder and the pitch of the sound rises, the voltage at the non-inverting input of op-amp IC2d will exceed that at the inverting input. Thus the output voltage of IC2d will rise to +9V, turning on LED1. As the pitch, and the voltage across C5, rises even higher, the output of IC2c will rise to +9V, extinguishing LED1 and lighting

up LED2. Then LED3 lights up and finally — if you are very strong — LED4 lights. Due to the deliberately arranged ripple on the voltage across C5, between one LED extinguishing and the next one lighting there is an intermediate state where both are alight. Thus although there are only four LEDs (red, orange, yellow and green) there are eight states: All Off, Red, Red+Orange, Orange, Orange+, Yellow, Yellow+Green and Green.

Note that there is no feedback around the four op-amps — they are



Parts List

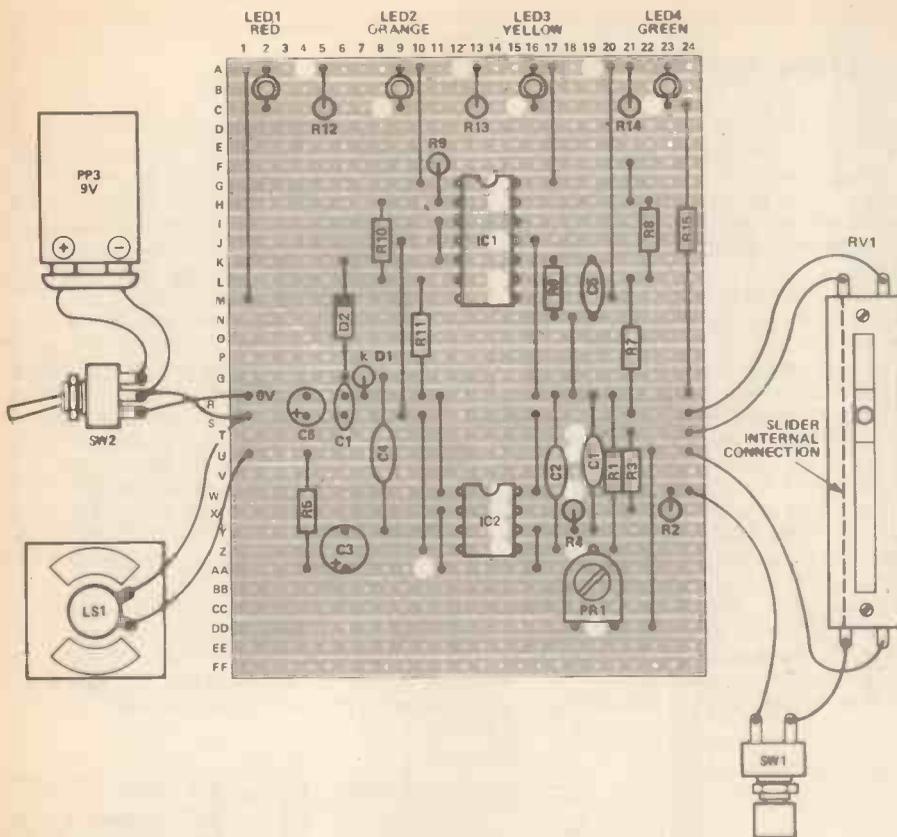


Figure 5. The Veroboard layout.

used "open loop", as simple comparators.

So that is basically how it works. The naughty bit is associated with SW1. The frequency of oscillation depends not only on the voltage at the slider of RV1, but also on the resistance between there and pin 7 of IC1. Closing SW1 connects R4 in parallel with R5, and results in a higher frequency of oscillation for any given setting of RV1. That is to say, the same frequency of oscillation will be achieved for a lower setting of RV1 which is equivalent to making your grip seem much more muscular than it really is!

Construction

No detailed dimensions are given as you will want to make your gripometer to suit your particular handgrip — you may even want to make the whole thing back to front if you are left handed! However, Figure 4 gives typical leading dimensions, and the construction method should be clear from this figure and the photograph. Note that for convenience a tension spring is used in place of the compression spring shown diagrammatically in Figure 1. You should be able to find a suitable spring at your local DIY or junk shop. By fitting it further from or close to the fulcrum (hinge point) you will make the handles harder or easier to squeeze respectively, and this provides a convenient method of adjusting the effort required. You

should aim to enable yourself to move the wiper of RV1 about $\frac{2}{3}$ of the way up. Then, when the whole unit is complete, if R4 is around 220 (you can experiment with different values here) you should be able to light the yellow LED, whereas with SW1 open the strongest man in the world won't be able to!

The electronics can be built up on a small piece of Veroboard as shown in Figure 5. This fits at the top of the unit so that the four LEDs are easily visible by the person trying his strength, as well as by bystanders. The loudspeaker (2.5in, 3R) fits next to the Veroboard, whilst the battery and on/off switch can be fitted at the bottom of the unit. The "cheat" switch SW1, which is of the "push for ON, push again for OFF" variety, was mounted so as to be readily accessible but not too obvious.

Setting Up

Before switching on for the first time, thoroughly check out the construction of the Veroboard circuitry and the wiring to other components — loudspeaker, RV1, SW1 and SW2. In particular, make sure that all the diodes, including the LEDs are connected the right way round. Next, disconnect RV1 from the spring lever and set it at the top of end (+9V) of its travel. Momentarily connect the 9V battery and you should hear a high pitched note from the loudspeaker. If you don't, disconnect the battery immediately and look for the fault.

RESISTORS

(All $\frac{1}{8}$ watt 5%)

R1, 8, 9, 10	10k
R2	220k
	see text
R3, 6	150k
R4	33k
R5	82k
R7	100k
R11	39k
R12, 13, 14, 15	2k2

POTENTIOMETERS

RV1	10k
	65mm slide pot
PR1	10k
	horiz. preset

CAPACITORS

C1	6n8
	polyester
C2	10n
	polyester
C3	47u 16V
	radial electro
C4	18n
	polyester
C5	220n
	polyester min. layer
C6	10u 16V
	radial electro
C7	100n
	disc ceramic

SEMICONDUCTORS

IC1	555
IC2	LM324
	quad op-amp
D1, 2	1N4148
LED1	0.2" Red
LED2	0.2" Orange
LED3	0.2" Yellow
LED4	0.2" Green

MISCELLANEOUS

SW1	SPST
	push-on/push-off
SW2	SPDT
	toggle
LS1	2 $\frac{1}{2}$ " 3R
	Veroboard, 32 strips x 24 holes;
	Veropins; PP3 battery and clip;
	wire, solder, nuts and bolts, etc.

BUYLINES page 34

This could be a missing connection, but could just as easily be an unintentional extra one, where you have failed to cut completely one of the tracks of the Veroboard, say. It is worth examining each cut individually with a watchmaker's eyeglass, even more so if you have used a twist drill rather than a proper VERO track cutter.

When you have the sound responding to the movement of RV1, check that one or other of the LEDs lights. With RV1 reconnected to the spring lever, check that its rest position is near the PR1 end of its travel. Adjust PR1 so that there is no sound from the loudspeaker, but so that a low pitch is emitted as soon as the handles are squeezed. With a fresh PP3 battery and SW1 closed, you

Inside the 555

The figure below shows the internal architecture of the versatile 555 timer integrated circuit, a popular IC made by most manufacturers. It can be used in a number of ways, either as a monostable (a "one shot", which produces a single output pulse each time it is triggered) or as an astable (a free-running circuit which produces a repetitive pulse train). In this project we use it as an astable and do not need the facility for resetting the flip-flop, so we connect the RESET input, pin 4, to the positive supply at pin 8.

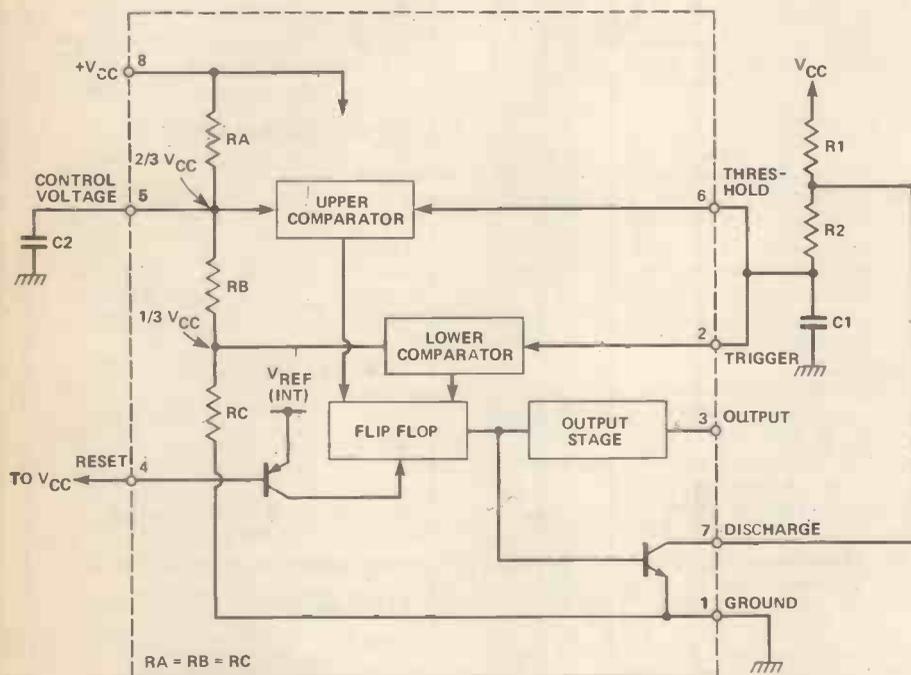
Whenever the voltage at pin 2 (TRIGGER) falls below $\frac{1}{3} V_{CC}$, the lower comparator sets the flip-flop, which turns off the DISCHARGE transistor at pin 7 and drives the output at pin 3 high. Whenever the voltage at pin 6 (THRESHOLD) rises above $\frac{2}{3} V_{CC}$, the upper comparator resets the flip-flop which turns on the discharge transistor and drives the output low. The absolute values of the

internal resistors RA, RB and RC which set the trigger and threshold voltages are not very accurate, but their ratios are precise. C2 is simply a decoupling capacitor. The operation of the stable connection shown is as follows.

The voltage at pins 2 and 6 will rise as C1 charges up through R1 and R2 in series, aiming at +Vcc. However, when it reaches $\frac{2}{3} V_{CC}$, the upper threshold is exceeded, the upper comparator will reset the flip-flop and the discharge transistor will turn on hard. This will effectively ground the junction of R1 and R2. The voltage at pins 2 and 6 will therefore start to fall as C1 discharges via R2, aiming at ground potential (zero volts). However, as soon as the voltage across C1 falls below $\frac{1}{3} V_{CC}$, the trigger voltage level, the comparator sets the flip-flop, turning the discharge transistor off again and the cycle repeats.

The voltage at pins 2 and 6 is

therefore a sawtooth waveform oscillating between $\frac{1}{3} V_{CC}$ and $\frac{2}{3} V_{CC}$ and back again, whilst the output at pin 4 sits alternatively "high" (nearly at Vcc) and "low" (near 0V ground). If R1 is increased, the frequency of oscillation will fall and vice versa, and similarly with R2. If instead of increasing R1, we return it to a voltage less than +Vcc, this will have the same effect. As we return it to a progressively lower voltage, less than $\frac{2}{3} V_{CC}$, the frequency will fall right down to zero, since the voltage across C1 can never operate the upper comparator, and the circuit stops oscillating altogether. Of course when the discharge transistor is ON, C1 is discharged via R2 regardless of R1, so the negative going half of the oscillation always takes the same length of time. Thus at low frequencies, the "square" wave driving the loudspeaker in Figure 3 becomes very asymmetrical.



GROUND	1	8	+V _{CC}
TRIGGER	2	7	DISCHARGE
OUTPUT	3	6	THRESHOLD
RESET	4	5	CONTROL VOLTAGE

Figure 6. The diagram (left) and table (above) show the internal architecture of the 555 timer IC used in the Gripometer. This is described in detail in the box above.

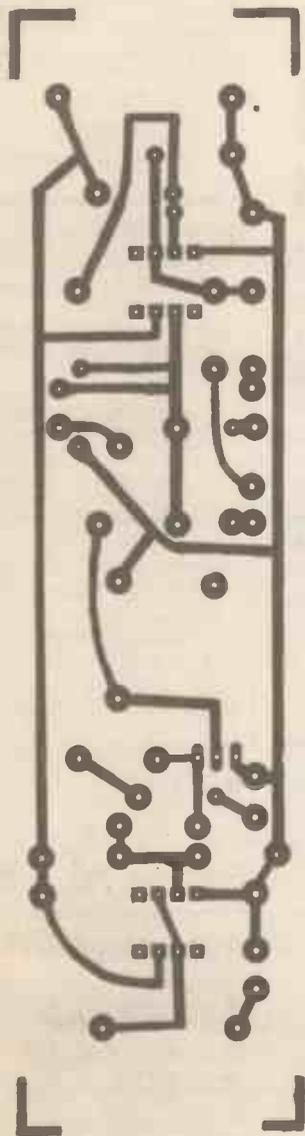
should just be able to light LED4. If you can close the two handles completely, you should fit a stronger spring, but you should have sorted that out early in the constructional stage! With SW1 open it should not be possible to light LED4 even with the two handles completely closed. Note that a fresh battery should be used — as the battery voltage falls the audible output is largely unaffected, but it gets harder and harder to light the last two LEDs!

Having got it all working, you can fit the front panel and decorate it as you will. The Gripometer handles can be finished off using brightly coloured cycle handlebar grips, cut to fit round the outside edge of the handles. This not only provides a comfortable grip, it also adds a professional touch to the finish.

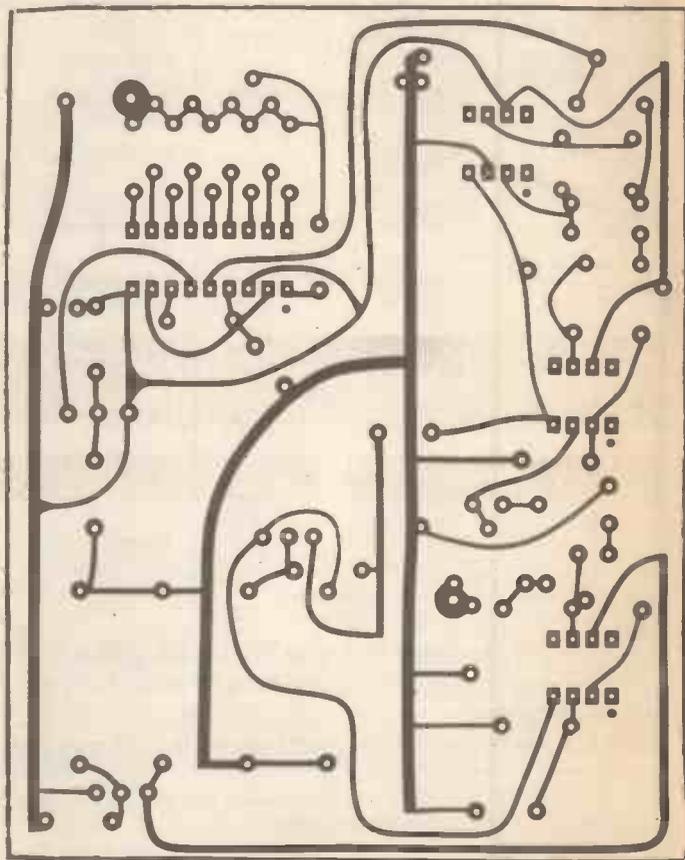
Naturally, when you hand it to your friends to try, SW1 will be open. Before demonstrating your own amazing strength, a little stagecraft — exaggerated adjustment to your grip and loud clearing of the throat — will provide the necessary cover for you to push SW1. And for your next trick . . . !



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Above: The PCB foil pattern for the Tremoleko project.



Above: The master pattern for the SPL Meter.

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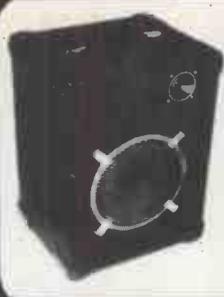
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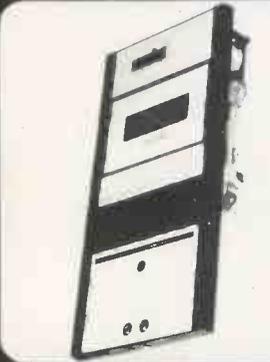
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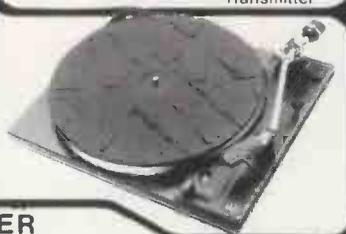
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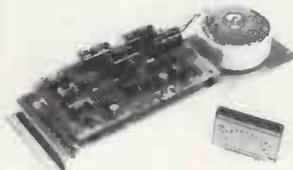


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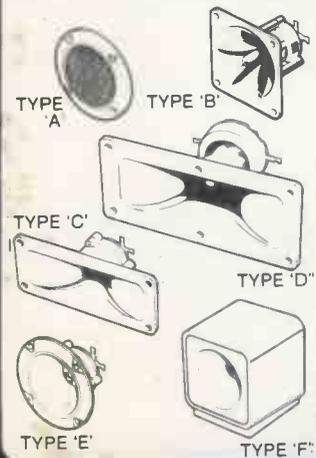


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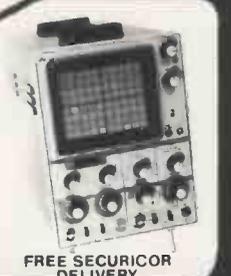
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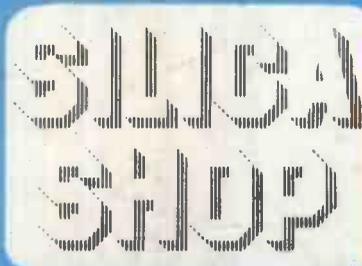
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