

# Electronics

THE MAPLIN MAGAZINE

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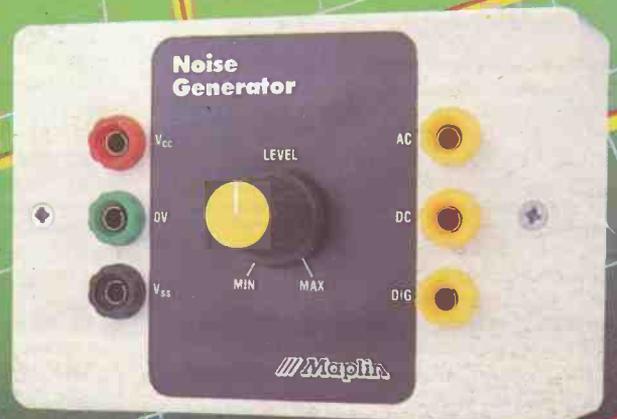
**By building this useful piece of test equipment you can generate as much noise as you want!**

**Also in this issue:**

**3-way Speaker system; Watt watcher; Telephony; Video add-ons and much more.**



**TUNE IN WITH THIS SUPERB FM RADIO!**  
Full construction details inside!



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Call in at a Maplin store and get what you want today. We look forward to serving you.

## PROJECTS

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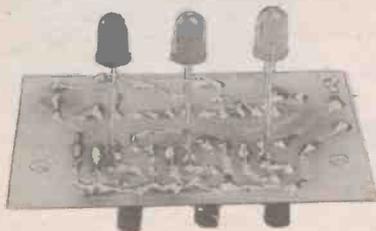
Improved version of this popular project using ready-wound RF coils. Complete kit now includes a case and aerial and at a realistic price. A superb project for any adult or child to build, as it is easy to construct and requires no alignment equipment.

### 3 Way Loudspeaker System ..... 13

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This novel project, which is simple to install, will tell you if you are overdriving your speaker system. It can be housed in the speaker cabinet or in a box of its own.

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The best way to learn Morse Code is to practice until you acquire the speed and accuracy necessary to pass the Morse Test. This practice oscillator was designed to help by producing a loud clean tone, with the option of a controlled level of simulated noise. Just like the real thing!

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The main use of a Noise Generator is in testing equipment on the bench which will be used in noisy environments in the field. An in-depth discussion on the types of noise to be encountered is also given.

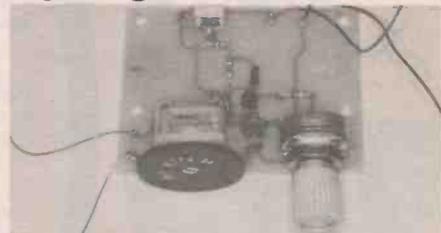
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This issue introduces the ZN414 AM tuner chip which is then used in the design of a MW radio. This little radio employs an earphone as the listening device and a PCB of the circuit is available.

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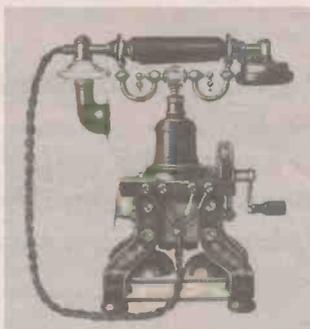
Looking at the current explosion in home video equipment, John Woodgate uncovers some useful 'extras' and reading material that could help to enhance your hobby.

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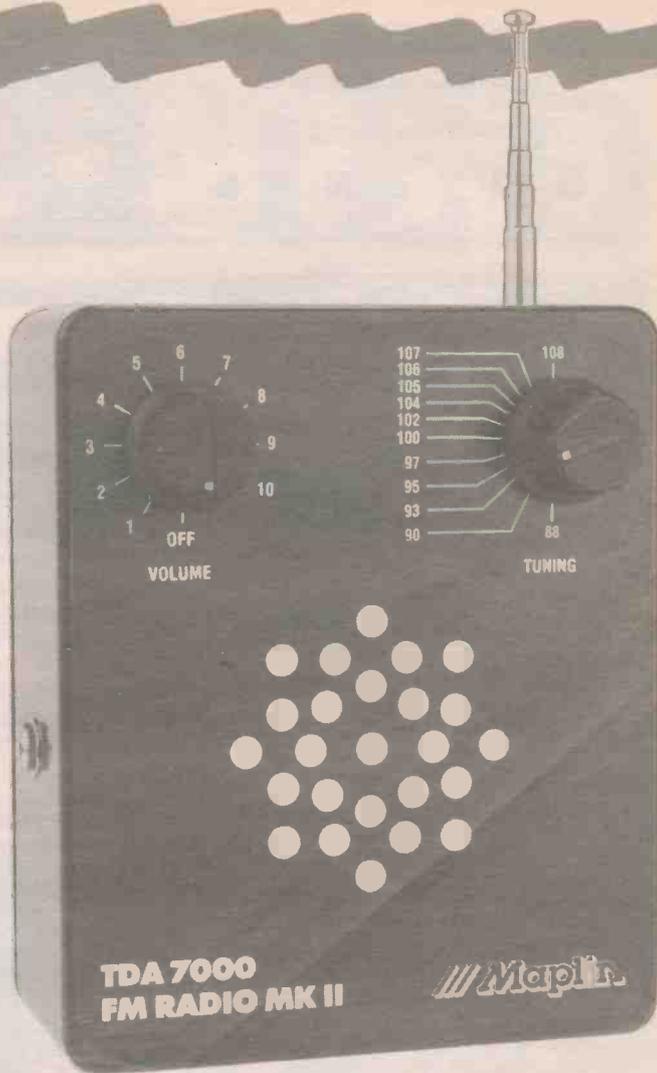
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# TDA 7000



## FM RADIO MK II

by Chris Barlow

- ★ No alignment equipment needed
- ★ Easy to build
- ★ Ready wound RF coils
- ★ On-board power amplifier
- ★ Headphone/earpiece jack socket

### Specifications of Prototype

Radio integrated circuit	: TDA7000
Audio integrated circuit	: TBA820M
Operating voltage	: 4V to 8V
Supply current at 6V	: minimum volume 13mA
	: maximum volume 80mA
Power output 8Ω speaker	: 250mW RMS
Frequency coverage	: 88 to 108MHz
Aerial	: 6 section telescopic

### Introduction

This project is an improved version of the radio originally presented in Electronics number 9 (now available as a Projects Book, see inside back cover). Conventional Band II VHF superheterodyne radios use a large number of tuned circuits as these are needed for filtering in the RF, mixer, oscillator, IF, and detector stages. Ceramic filters have become very popular in recent years, but these can only replace one or two IF transformers, and only marginally ease problems with alignment of the finished receiver. The TDA7000 is an imaginative integrated circuit which employs novel

techniques that enable a good quality FM broadcast receiver to have just two tuned circuits. The reason for this device being developed is that it offers radio manufacturers the advantages of reduced costs, both in terms of components and the setting up time for the finished receiver. For the home constructor it similarly gives the advantages of low cost and ease of alignment. In fact the finished receiver only needs to have the core of one coil and a trimmer capacitor adjusted to give the correct frequency coverage. A TDA7000 FM radio is actually no more difficult to align than a simple ZN414 based AM radio!

## Low IF

Strictly speaking the basic system used in the TDA7000 is not a new one, and is essentially the same as that used in the so called 'pulse counting' FM tuner designs that were popular amongst home constructors around twenty years ago (the original designs used valves!). The block diagram of Figure 1 shows the way in which these operate. The RF, mixer, and oscillator stages are fairly conventional, but usually quite simple with just a broadband (preset tuning) filter ahead of the mixer, but a more complex arrangement could be used if preferred. It is at the IF and demodulator stages where the real departures from a conventional superhet arrangement occur. The IF amplifiers are virtually ordinary high gain audio amplifiers, but filter capacitors are used to roll-off the response above about 200kHz and the coupling capacitors only need to be effective at frequencies above the audio range. This gives an IF centred at around 100kHz or so, and no tuned circuits to provide IF filtering are required. The low IF enables simple C-R filtering to give adequate results, and there is no lack of performance in this respect. A pulse counting circuit plus an RF filter provides the demodulation, and the pulse counter is merely a diode-pump frequency-to-voltage converter. Other

types of circuit such as a phase locked loop or even just a monostable multivibrator can be used here to convert the frequency variations into the corresponding audio signal. While this system has obvious attractions, it is not without its drawbacks as well. The main one is the lack of any image rejection, due to the very low IF and the spacing of only a few tens of Kilohertz between what would normally be the main and image responses. Thus, when tuning a receiver of this type there are two very closely spaced points on the tuning dial where each station can be received satisfactorily, with a very narrow gap between these where the station is received, but is very severely distorted. As Band II FM broadcast stations tend to be well spread out this is unlikely to give problems with co-channel interference, but does make tuning the set a little awkward.

## The TDA7000

Although pulse counting tuners were originally conceived as simple alternatives to conventional circuits, it would not be accurate to think of the TDA7000 as providing an inferior alternative to a conventional design. It uses a highly refined version of the pulse counting type of circuit, and in some respects it is

superior to more conventional designs. Figure 2 shows the arrangement used in this device, plus basic details of the discrete components required. The standard TDA7000 has an 18-pin DIL plastic package, but there is also a miniature 16-pin version, the TDA7000T. The input tuned circuit is formed by  $L_a$ ,  $C_e$ , and  $C_f$ . Internal resistors of the TDA7000 heavily damp this filter so that it has a very wide bandwidth and no RF tuning is needed.  $L_a$  can in fact be a zig-zag of printed circuit track, but in the design featured here it is a small moulded coil with a ferrite core. The aerial, which is a simple wire or telescopic type, is coupled to the input tuned circuit by way of a capacitive tapping. A voltage controlled oscillator feeds the other input of the mixer stage. This VCO is a straightforward L-C type which achieves voltage control using a couple of variable capacitance diodes. There are three IF filter stages, and the first of these uses a second-order low pass Sallen-Key circuit, which is the type of filter used in scratch filters and similar applications.  $C_q$  and  $C_r$  are the filter capacitors, but the filter resistors and other components are part of the TDA7000. The second filter is a simple bandpass type, and again, the only discrete components are two capacitors. The final filter stage is a straightforward passive first-order lowpass type which uses discrete capacitor  $C_g$ . The reason for using discrete rather than on-chip filter capacitors is simply that it is difficult and expensive to include even low value capacitors in an integrated circuit. The -60dB bandwidth of the filters is approximately 500kHz, which is perfectly adequate for an FM broadcast receiver.

After filtering the signal is amplified and limited in the usual way, and demodulated by a quadrature detector. Unlike a standard 10.7MHz quadrature detector, no tuned circuit is required, just

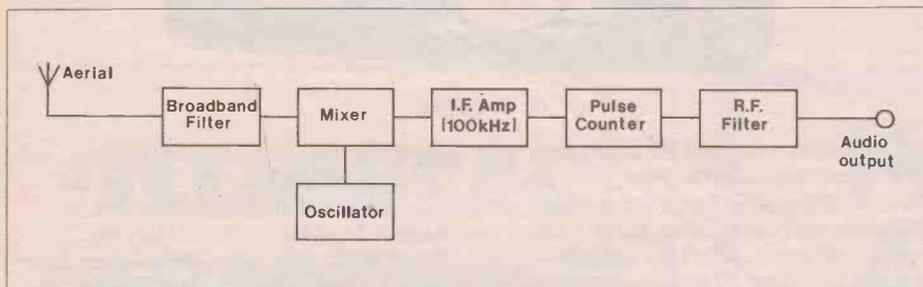


Figure 1. Block Diagram

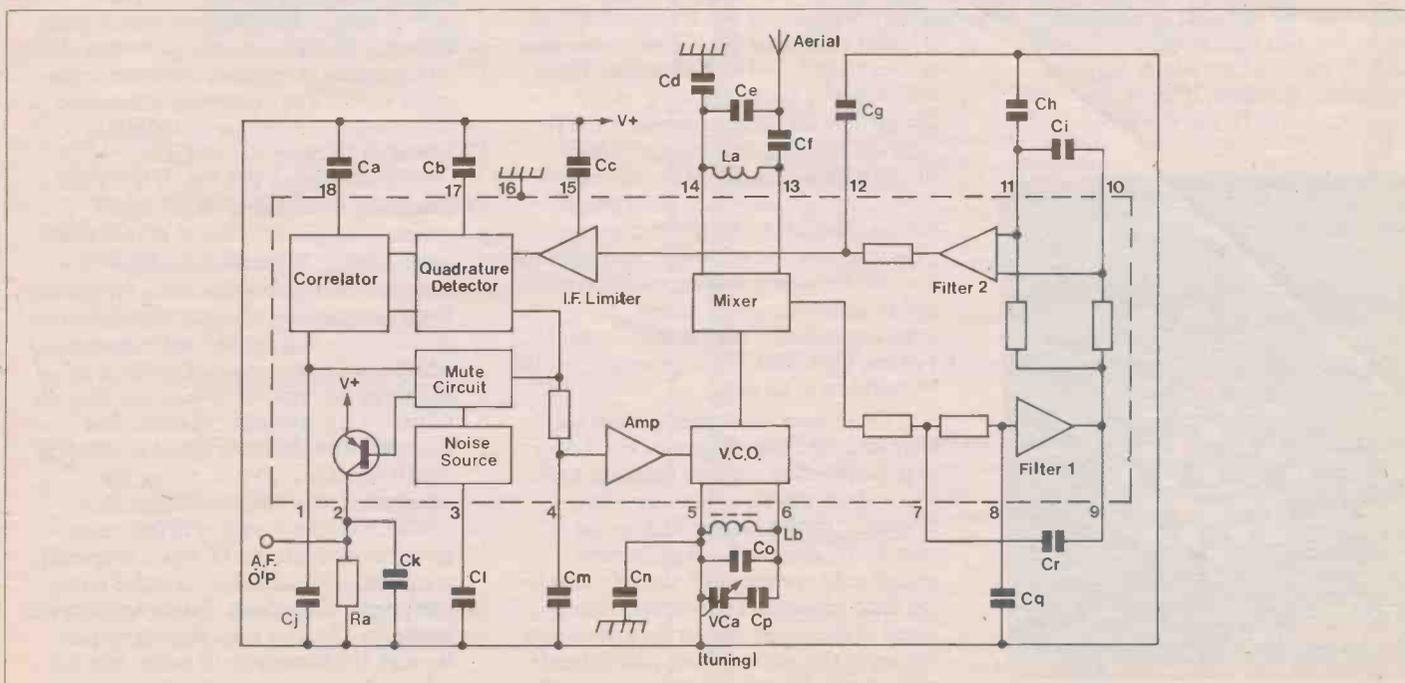
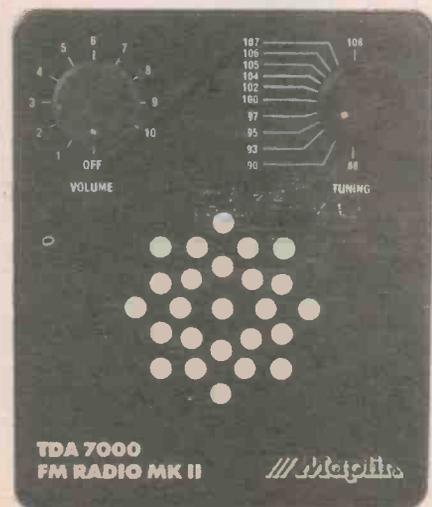


Figure 2. Connection Diagram for TDA7000

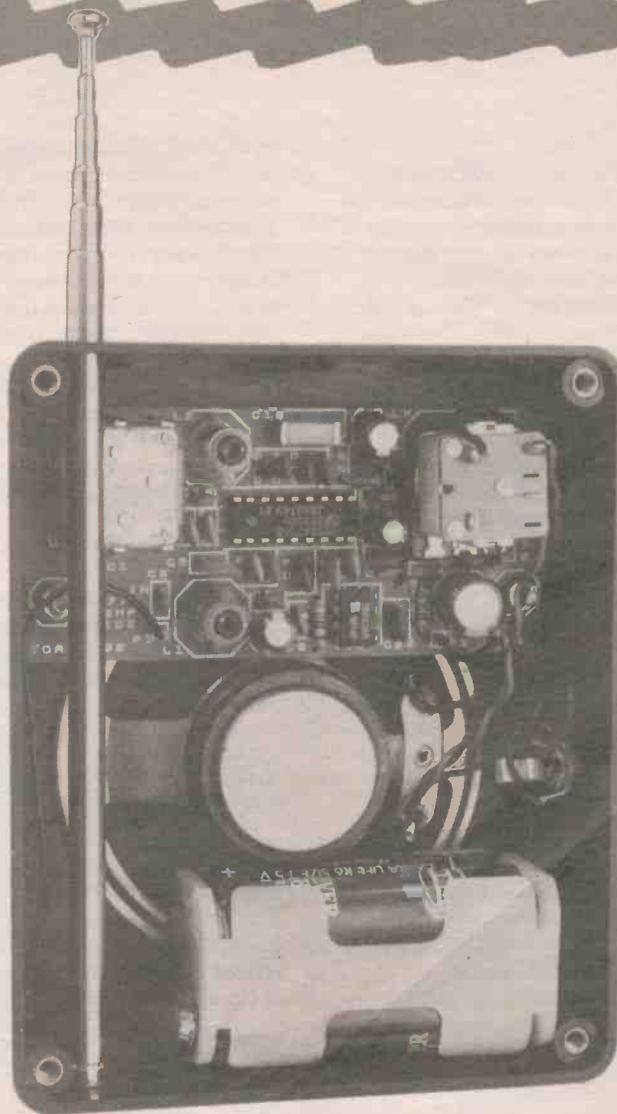
one phase shift capacitor (Cb). The intermediate frequency can be set at any reasonable figure by using the appropriate filter capacitor values, but a frequency of 70kHz would normally be used. Such a low IF eliminates any problems with the image signal of one channel interfering with reception of a transmission on the next channel. With the set tuned to one channel the image response falls roughly half-way between this channel and the next. The problem of using such a low IF is that it would result in severe distortion with signals having something approaching the full plus and minus 75kHz deviation. This problem is overcome by amplifying the audio output signal and feeding it to the VCO. This gives a form of negative feedback with the VCO following the input signal up and down in frequency. The deviation of the VCO is not quite equal to that of the input signal so that there is some variation in the frequency of the IF signal, but this is only about plus and minus 15kHz. The typical total harmonic distortion on the audio output is 2.3% at maximum deviation, which is satisfactory for portable radios and similar applications. A useful 'by-product' of the feedback to the VCO is that it gives a sort of automatic frequency control. Apart from counteracting any tuning drift, this effectively gives slow-motion tuning once the receiver has locked onto a transmission, and makes the set easy to tune even if only a small tuning knob is used.

## Correlator

The correlator and mute circuits of the TDA7000 are used to suppress the image response as well as giving a conventional 'squelch' action. The correlator operates by delaying the IF signal by an amount equal to the duration of one IF half cycle. This signal is then inverted and compared with the unprocessed IF signal. If the tuning is correct, the two signals will be virtually identical and will have a high degree of correlation. However, if the tuning is not very accurate the IF signal will be



View of front panel.



Inside the box.

displaced from its normal 70kHz figure, and the delaying circuit will not give a one half cycle delay. This introduces a phase difference and poor correlation, with the mute circuit switching off the audio in consequence. If the IF signal is noise, or largely consists of noise, this also gives very little correlation between the two signals and mutes the audio output. An interesting effect of this system of muting is that it eliminates the side responses that are normally found on FM radios. These are caused by the signal being 'slope' detected by the skirt responses of the IF filtering, and they can make accurate tuning a little difficult. Many FM radios have a tuning indicator to assist proper tuning. The TDA7000 muting system eliminates the side responses, and together with the frequency locking tuning system makes tuning very easy indeed. A detuning indicator can be driven from pin 1 of the TDA7000, but in practice it would be pointless to do so.

On its own the correlator does not eliminate the image response, but it does so in conjunction with the feedback to the VCO which was described above (the frequency locked loop or FLL as the IC manufacturer terms it). This locking system only operates with the set tuned to the main response, and not when it is tuned to the image, due to the inversion of the signal that occurs. If we take a simple mathematical example to demonstrate this point, let us suppose that the receiver is

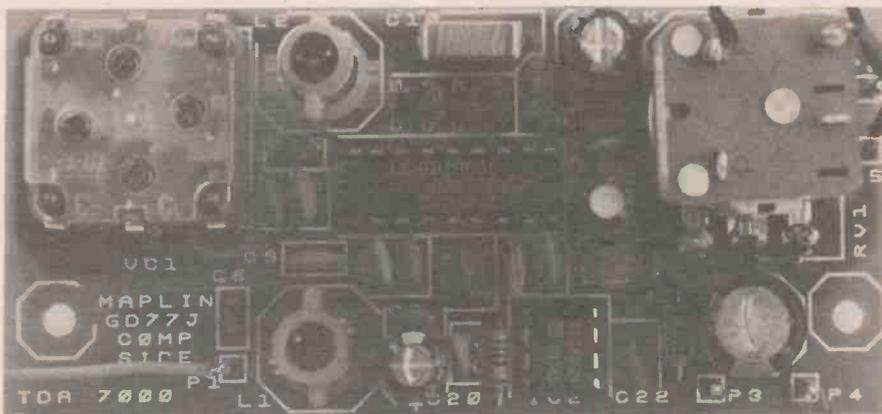
tuned to a transmission which deviates between 100 and 101MHz, and that the oscillator is at 99MHz. This gives an IF range of 1 to 2MHz (100-99MHz and 101-99MHz). Of course, these figures have been chosen for their mathematical simplicity, and are not meant to be practical examples. As the IF signal moves up and down in frequency the audio output voltage also rises and falls, feeding a control voltage to the oscillator that shifts its frequency in the same direction as the input signal. The image response would occur with the oscillator at 102MHz, giving an IF range of 2 to 1MHz (102-100MHz and 102-101MHz). This frequency inversion of the IF signal appears as a phase inversion of the audio output signal. Where the oscillator frequency was previously taken higher and lower in sympathy with the received signal to effectively reduce the level of deviation, when tuned to the image response it is moved in the opposite direction so that the deviation is effectively increased. For example, with the input signal at 100MHz the IF signal is at 2MHz, giving the maximum audio output voltage. This sends the oscillator higher in frequency, giving an even greater IF signal frequency, greater audio voltage, and positive rather than negative feedback. When tuned to the image the IF signal does repeatedly pass through the acceptable IF range, but the value of Cj is chosen to give the muting circuit a slow response time so that it

ignores these transients, and the image is suppressed. Ra is the load resistor for the audio output stage, and Ck is the de-emphasis capacitor. A slightly bizarre feature of the TDA7000 is a noise generator which gives a quiet noise signal at the audio output when the main audio signal is muted! This is included because it is otherwise very easy to tune over a station without realising it is there. The null in the noise signal as the set is tuned through a station helps to avoid this. However, if desired the noise can be eliminated by omitting C1.

### The Circuit

Figure 3 shows the circuit of a practical radio built around the TDA7000, and the circuitry associated with IC1 exactly follows the arrangement shown in Figure 2 and discussed earlier.

An audio output stage using a TBA820M (IC2) is included because of its low quiescent current, good ripple rejection and low crossover distortion. The signal from the TDA7000 (IC1) is fed via C19 to the top end of the volume control RV1. The wiper of RV1 is connected to the signal input pin of IC2, with R2 and C20 setting the gain of the amplifier. RV1 has an integral switch, S1 which is used to turn the DC power on and off to the circuit. C21 is connected to pin 1 for high frequency compensation and the zobel network R3 and C22 on pin 5 is connected to the negative rail. Pin 5 has a DC potential so a blocking capacitor C23 is used to feed the output of IC2 to a loudspeaker having an impedance in the range of 8 to 80 ohms. An output power of about 300 milliwatts RMS into an 8 ohm loudspeaker is available, and this is adequate for a portable radio. The output stage will also drive any magnetic type of earphone or headphones.



Top of PCB.



Side view of PCB.

### PCB Assembly

A suitable printed circuit layout for the radio appears in Figure 4. The TDA7000 is not one of the many radio IC's that tend to be unstable at every opportunity, and the low IF eliminates problems with harmonics of the clipped IF

signal being picked up at the input of the circuit. However, with frequencies in the region of 100MHz involved it is not advisable to use a different layout unless you are familiar with radio projects and know exactly what you are doing. The

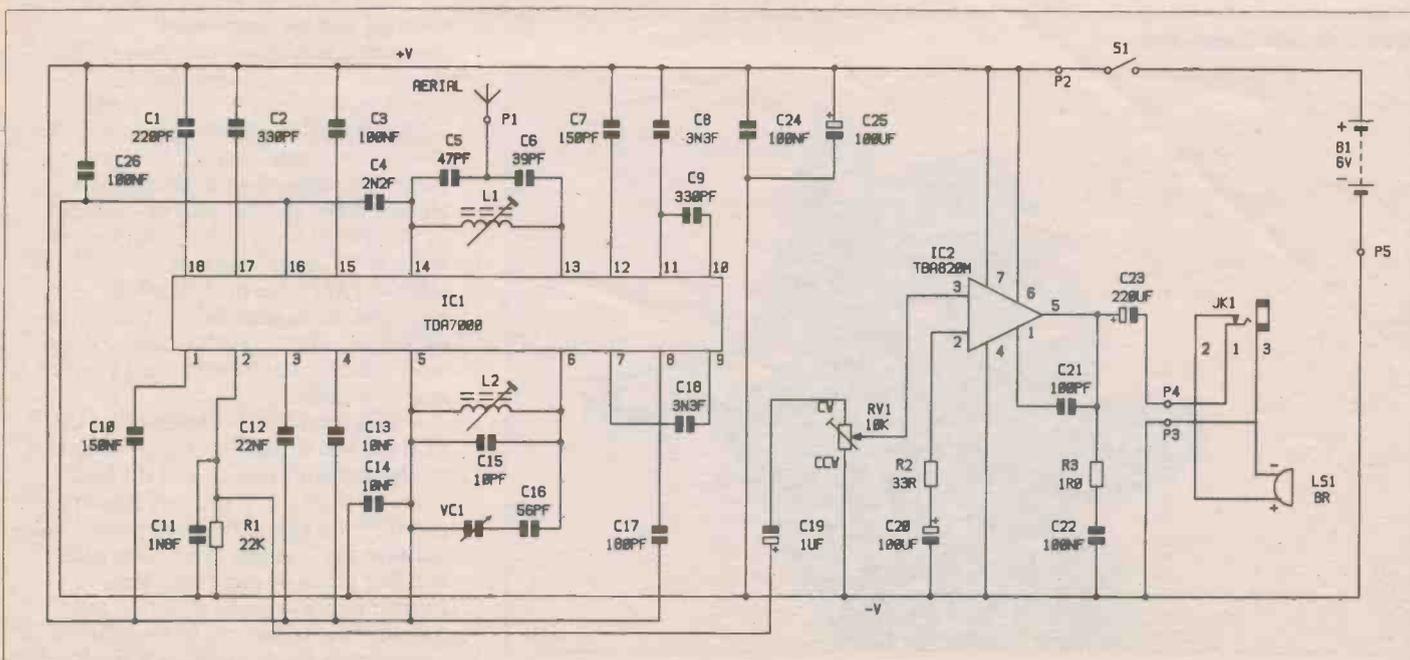


Figure 3. Circuit



## Wiring

If you purchase a complete kit from Maplin it should contain a length of hook-up wire. Carefully follow the wiring shown in Figure 6. The power on/off switch S1 is connected to P2 using a 50mm length of wire. Next cut the wires on the battery clip to 110mm and connect the red to S1, black to P5. DO NOT fit the clip onto the battery until it is called for during the testing stage.

Prepare a 100mm length of wire. Connect one end to the aerial input pin P1 and attach an M3 solder tag to the free end. This tag will be bolted to the base of telescopic aerial in the final assembly stage.

Finally, using four 65mm lengths of wire, connect the headphone socket JK1 to P3 and P4 and to the two terminals on the loudspeaker. When handling the speaker, be careful not to damage the paper cone, or the terminals on the back. This completes the wiring of the PCB assembly. Now check your work very carefully making sure that all the wires and solder joints are sound.

## Testing and Adjustment

All the tests can be made with an electronic digital, or analogue moving coil, multimeter. The following test results were obtained from the prototype using a digital multimeter and a 6V battery pack as the power supply. Before commencing the tests, set the rotary controls as follows, VOLUME OFF, TUNING 88MHz (fully-anticlockwise). Next set the two RF coils and the trimmer capacitor as shown in Figure 7. The ferrite cores in the coils are very brittle, you must use the hexagon trimming tool supplied otherwise damage may occur. A miniature flat blade screwdriver, or preset type trimming tool can be used when adjusting the trimmer capacitor C1. The aerial input coil L1 forms part of a very wide bandwidth tuned circuit. This results in a flat tuning peak in the sensitivity of the receiver, which should occur when the core is flush with the top of L1. The setting of the oscillator coil L2 is more precise and its final position may vary from that shown in Figure 7. This also applies to the oscillator trimmer capacitor C1, however the positions shown in Figure 7 should provide a good starting point. Make a temporary aerial out of a piece of wire about 0.5 to 1 metre long and connect one end to the M3 solder tag.

The first test is to ensure that there are no short circuits before you connect the battery. Set your multimeter to read OHMS on its resistance range and connect the probes to the terminals on the battery clip. Turn on the power and with the probes either way round a reading greater than 60Ω should be obtained. Remove the probes and fasten the negative terminal of the clip to the battery box.

Next monitor the supply current, set your meter to read DC mA and place it in the positive line of the battery box. With the volume set to minimum, a current

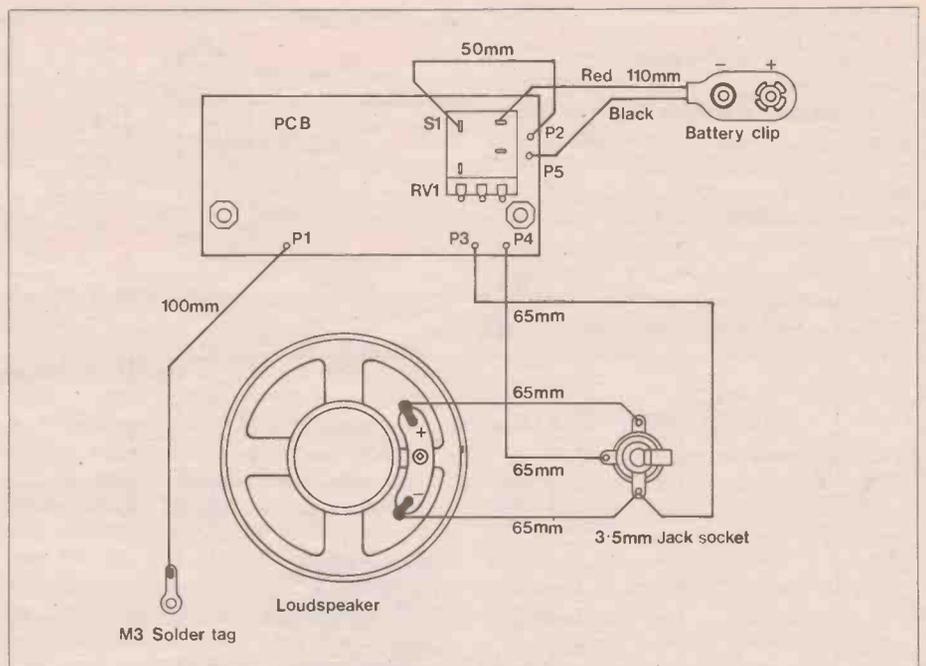


Figure 6. Wiring

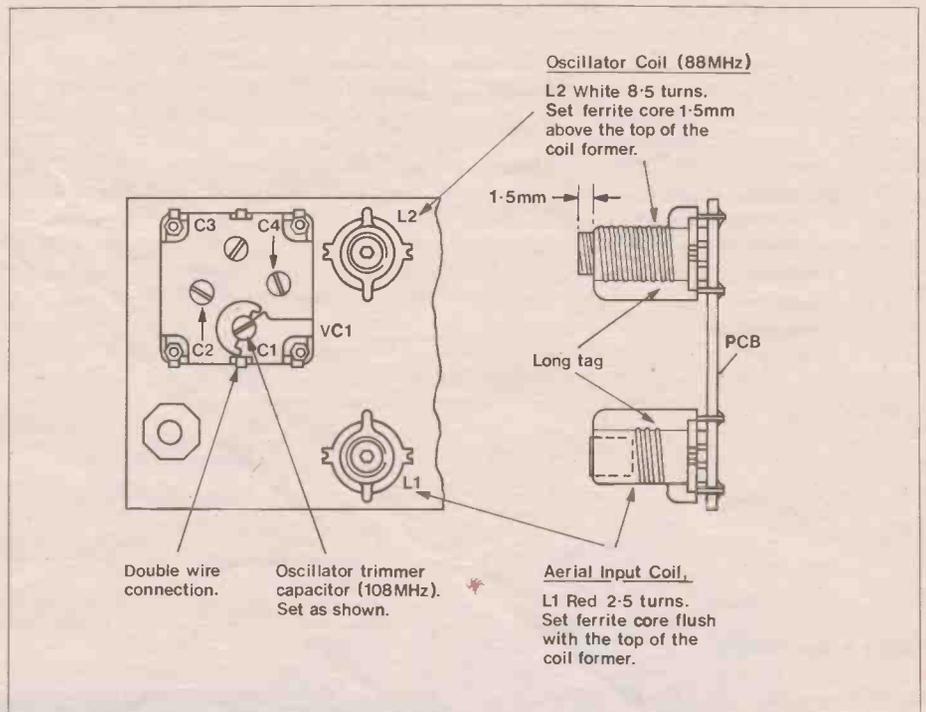


Figure 7. Receiver Adjustment

reading of approximately 13mA should be seen. As the volume control is advanced to its maximum setting, with no radio station tuned in, this reading will increase to approximately 26mA and a hissing sound should be heard. If a signal is received this reading can go as high as 80mA on sound peaks. However, when a headphone, or an earpiece is plugged into JK1 this reading will be significantly reduced. Remove your meter and fasten the clip to the battery box. Finally, check the tuning range, making any necessary adjustments to the oscillator coil L2 and the trimmer capacitor C1. You should set the low, 88MHz end of the band using L2 and C1 when adjusting the upper 108MHz limit. This completes the testing and alignment of the TDA7000 fm radio.

## Box Drilling

The box that the unit is designed to fit is the black plastic MB3. Carefully follow the drilling instructions in Figure 8. The self-adhesive trim can be used as a guide for checking the positioning of the holes in the front of the box. However, DO NOT stick the trim down until the final assembly stage is completed. Having completed the drilling, at the same time clearing away any plastic swarf, clean the box using a dry cloth.

## Final Assembly

Using a good quality impact adhesive, secure the loudspeaker to the inside of the box, but be careful not to get any glue on the paper cone of the speaker. Next mount

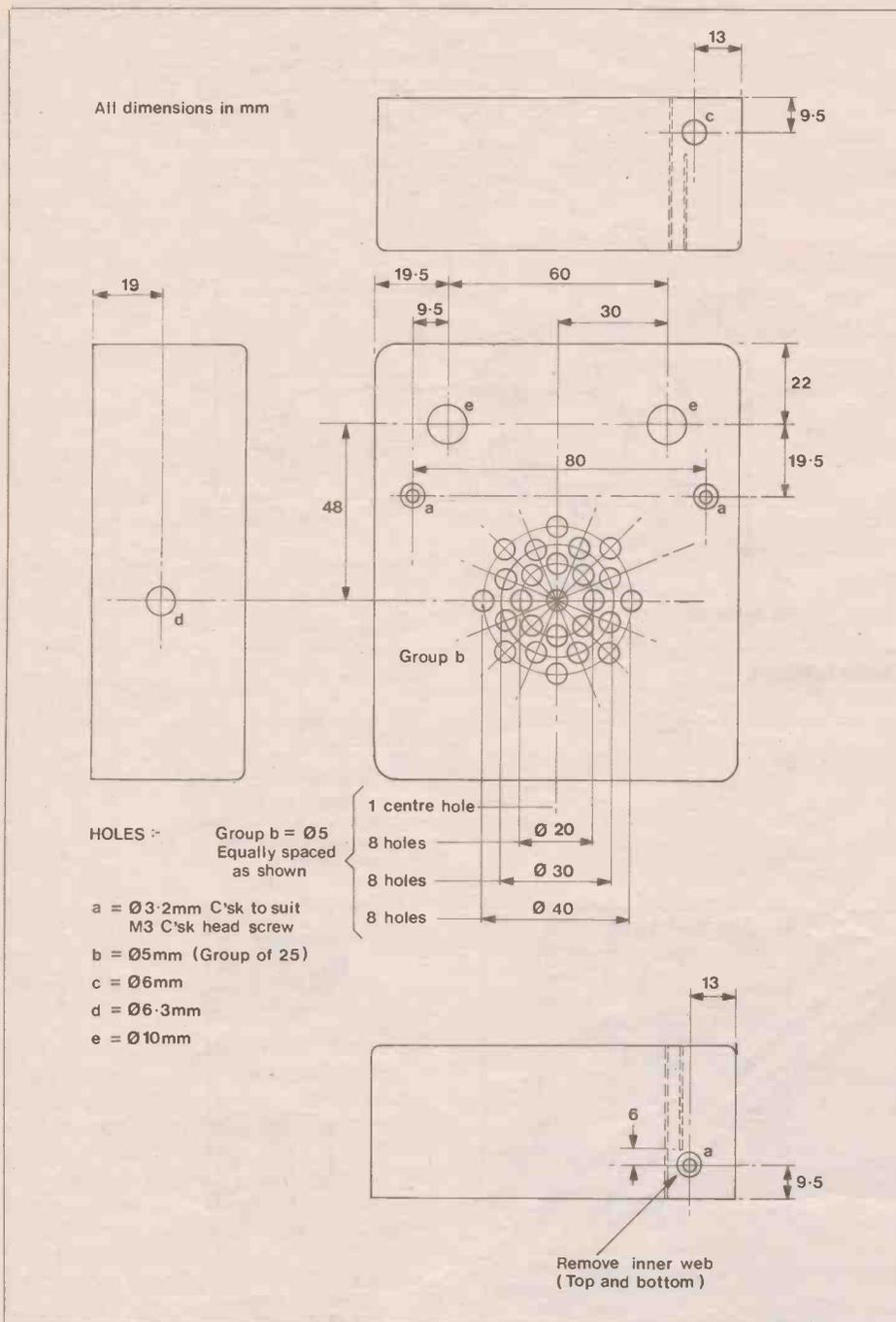


Figure 8. Box Drilling

the PCB assembly using the M3 hardware as shown in Figure 9. The 3.5mm headphone socket is then secured in the side of the box using the nut and washer provided. When fixing the telescopic aerial ensure that the M3 solder tag is tightly clamped under its base. Remove the protective backing from the trim and carefully position and firmly push it down using a dry, clean cloth until it is securely in place. Next fit the knobs so that their pointers are at the fully-anticlockwise position. Check that they travel smoothly round to the fully-clockwise position, without scraping on the front panel trim. Fit the power supply clip onto the 6V battery box and position it as shown in Figure 9. Before fitting the lid of the box, a small piece of foam rubber can be sandwiched between the battery and the inside of the lid. This will prevent the battery box from moving around inside the finished unit.

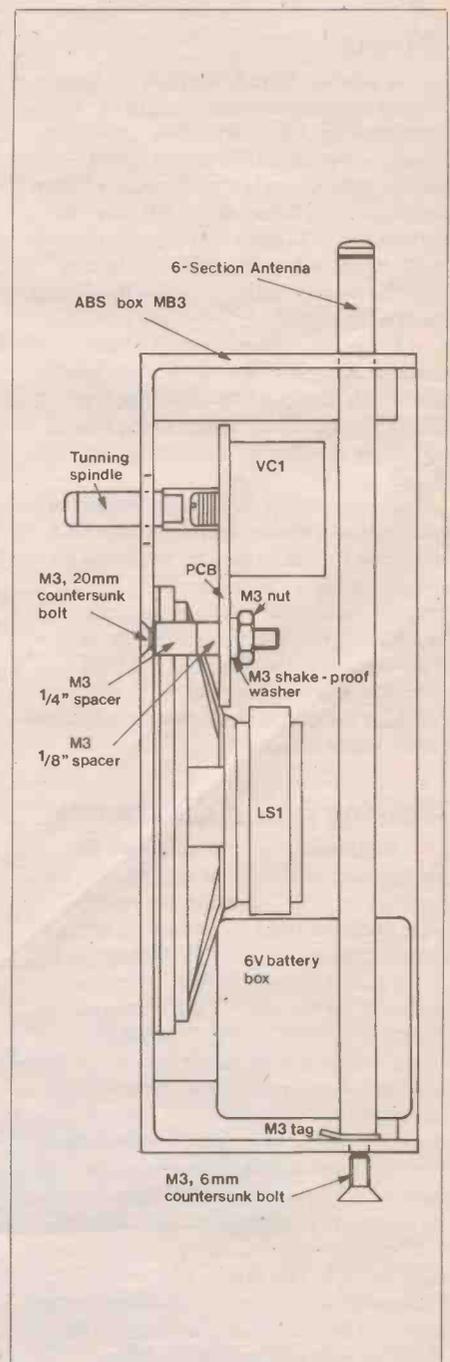


Figure 9. Final Assembly



View of headphone socket.

## TDA7000 FM RADIO MKII PARTS LIST

RESISTORS: All 0.6W 1% Metal Film

R1	22k	1	(M22K)
R2	33R	1	(M33R)
R3	1R	1	(M1R)
RV1/S1	10k Pot Log	1	(FW63T)

### CAPACITORS

C1	220pF Ceramic	1	(WX60Q)
C2,9	330pF Ceramic	2	(WX62S)
C3,22,24,26	100nF Minidisc	4	(YR75S)
C4	2n2F Ceramic	1	(WX72P)
C5	47pF Ceramic	1	(WX52G)
C6	39pF Ceramic	1	(WX51F)
C7	150pF Ceramic	1	(WX58N)
C8,18	3n3F Ceramic	2	(WX74R)
C10	150nF Polylayer	1	(WW43W)
C11	1n8F Ceramic	1	(WX71N)
C12	22nF Ceramic	1	(WX78K)
C13,14	10nF Ceramic	2	(WX77J)
C15	10pF Ceramic	1	(WX44X)
C16	56pF Ceramic	1	(WX63H)
C17	180pF Ceramic	1	(WX59P)
C19	1µF 100V PC Electrolytic	1	(FF01B)
C20,25	100µF 10V PC Electrolytic	2	(FF10L)
C21	100pF Ceramic	1	(WX56L)
C23	220µF 16V PC Electrolytic	1	(FF13P)
VC1	AM/FM Min Tuner Cap	1	(FT79L)

### SEMICONDUCTORS

IC1	TDA7000	1	(YH87U)
IC2	TBA920M	1	(WQ63T)

### MISCELLANEOUS

L1	RF Coil 0.066µH	1	(UF63T)
L2	RF Coil 0.450µH	1	(UF69A)
LS1	8Ω L/S Lo-Z 768	1	(YW83H)
	PC Board	1	(GD77J)
	Control Knob K14B	2	(FK39N)
	Veropins 2145	1 Pkt	(FL24B)
	Aerial 6-section	1	(RK49D)
	Box MB3	1	(LH22Y)
	Front Panel	1	(JG28F)
	Wire 7/0.2	1 Pkt	(BL00A)
	Battery Holder 6V	1	(HF29G)
	Battery clip (PP3) Type	1	(HF28F)
	RF Coil Trim Tool	1	(UF70M)
JK1	3.5mm Chassis Socket	1	(HF82D)
	M2.5 x 6mm Isobolt	1 Pkt	(BF54J)
	M2.5 x 20mm Isobolt	1 Pkt	(JD15R)
	M2.5 Isowasher	1 Pkt	(BF63T)
	M3 x 6mm C/sk. Hd. bolt	1 Pkt	(BF36P)
	M3 x 20mm C/sk. Hd. bolt	1 Pkt	(JC71N)
	M3 Isotag	1 Pkt	(LR64U)
	M3 Isoshake	1 Pkt	(BF44X)
	M3 Nut	1 Pkt	(JD61R)
	M3 1/8" Spacer	1 Pkt	(FG32K)
	M3 1/4" Spacer	1 Pkt	(FG33L)
	M3 1/2" Spacer	1 Pkt	(FG34M)

### OPTIONAL

Battery R6S Silver Seal	4	(FK59P)
Mag Earpiece 3.5mm	1	(LB24B)

A complete kit of all parts, excluding Optional items, is available:  
**Order As LM55K (TDA7000 FM Radio MKII Kit) Price £19.95**  
 The following items are also available separately,  
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# 'Hello Who's Calling?'

by J.K. Hearfield

## How Telephones were Invented

In 1854 a paper was published by Charles Bourseul in which he described an experiment. "Suppose", he wrote, "a man speaks near a movable disc sufficiently pliable to lose none of the vibrations of the voice. If this disc alternately makes and breaks currents from a battery, you may have at a distance another disc, which will simultaneously execute the same vibrations . . . It is certain that, in the more or less distant future, speech will be transmitted by electricity". In 1876, Alexander Graham Bell's assistant, Mr. Watson, was the first man to have his work interrupted by a telephone call, and life has never been the same since.

Picture 1 shows Bell's first telephone of 1876. Bell's telephone consisted of a mobile iron diaphragm placed in the field of a polarised electromagnet, so arranged that any movement of the diaphragm produced a change in field. The same principle was used for both transmitting and receiving, so a conversation could be held between two identical instruments.

Bell was invited to demonstrate his wonderful machine to Queen Victoria at Osborne House in January 1878, and in 1879 the Telephone Company Limited was formed. The company was given a

licence to use the Bell patents and opened its first telephone exchange in London the same year.

Picture 2 shows a fretwork fronted telephone, 1878 - one of the first used by the British Post Office. The user spoke into the microphone concealed behind the fretwork cover. Later in 1879, the Edison Telephone Company of London Limited opened a rival telephone exchange. Edison's design of microphone was more efficient and more practical than Bell's. It used the speech energy to compress a piece of carbon, thus varying its resistance. Two years later, the Reverend Hunnings built an even better microphone in which carbon granules replaced the single carbon block, and this design has formed the basis of most telephone microphones ever since. Picture 3 shows Edison's telephone of 1879 with its carbon transmitter and chalk receiver.

## Why the Post Office Intervened

In 1880, the two telephone companies amalgamated to become the United Telephone Company, holding patents for both systems. This new telephone system threatened the then sole means of long-distance communication: the telegraph. Telegraphs were already

under the control of the Post Office and, after successfully arguing that telephone calls were similar to telegrams, the Post Office was granted sole control of telephone systems by the High Court in 1880.

The Post Office then granted licences to such as the National Telephone Company to open and operate telephone exchanges. Usually the National Telephone Company operated within towns and cities, the Post Office providing the trunk lines and rural exchanges. London and Birmingham were linked in 1890, and London and Paris the following year.

The Post Office also opened a number of telephone exchanges in different cities and in 1899 an Act of Parliament enabled local authorities to operate their own exchanges. Of the few cities which took advantage of this, only the Hull system remains today as an independent telephone company.

Picture 4 is of the Gower-Bell telephone, circa 1881; the two flexible tubes were held to the ears. Elisha Gray's telephone of 1882 is shown in Picture 5 and Picture 6 shows the Smith and Sinclair coinbox.

The first public telephones were installed in shops as early as 1884. Only non-subscribers were required to use coins to pay for their calls - telephone company subscribers were issued with pass keys. The coinbox had separate

Picture 1. Bell's first telephone.



Picture 2. One of the first telephones used by the British Post Office.



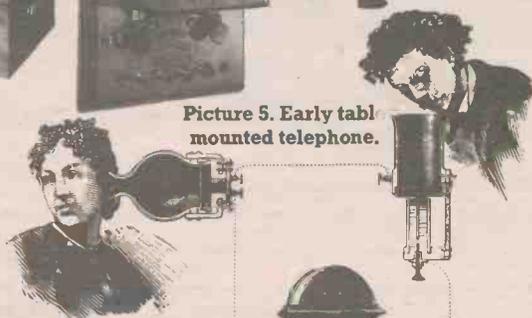
Picture 3. Edison's telephone, 1879.



Picture 4. Wall mounted Gower-Bell telephone.



Picture 5. Early table mounted telephone.



Picture 6. Coinbox, 1884.



Picture 7. Skeleton telephone, 1895.



Picture 8. An early telephone for the security-conscious, circa 1896.



Picture 9. The elegant Ericsson wall telephone.



coin slots for local calls (2d) and trunk calls (6d).

The rather elegant Ericsson skeleton telephone of 1895, also known as the Telephone No. 16 (shown in Picture 7), is an example of good industrial design, since the induction coil for the speech circuits is hidden inside the bell shape which supports the cradle for the handset (then called the 'microtelephone'), and the curved legs form the magnets for the hand generator. The local battery is accommodated in a separate box, enabling the telephone to be used as a table rather than wall-hung model.

By contrast, the horse-collar telephone shown in Picture 8 was widely disliked. The idea was simple: a caller who did not wish to be overheard could press his face against the rubber collar, emerging presumably from time to time in order to breathe. Users thought it too unhygienic, and the design didn't last long.

## Basic Telephony Principles

The simplest possible two-way telephone circuit is shown in Figure 1. It consists of a microphone, sometimes called a 'transmitter', and a receiver at each end of the line, with a battery somewhere in the circuit to provide the DC needed by the microphones. A microphone translates variations in sound pressure into variations of resistance, so that the current flowing around the circuit depends partly on the instantaneous

sound pressure at each microphone. A receiver works rather like a loudspeaker, translating the small current variations into varying forces on a diaphragm and hence back into variations in sound pressure.

This circuit has several major disadvantages. First, and perhaps most important, it is very inefficient. The resistance of a microphone is quite small compared to the resistance of the whole circuit, so variations in this resistance can produce only minute variations in the circulating current. In energy terms, there is a very poor impedance match between the source (the microphone) and its load.

Second, the same current flows through both receivers, so the person speaking hears himself at the same sound level as does the person listening. This

local reproduction of outgoing speech is known as 'sidetone', and too much sidetone has the unfortunate psychological effect of causing the speaker to lower his voice, further degrading the effective performance of the circuit. The DC flowing through the receivers is not in itself a problem, since early receivers used it to power the electromagnets they used. Modern receivers are designed around permanent magnets however, and would not work well in this circuit.

Third, there is no means of signalling in either direction. The circuit consumes the same amount of power whether or not it is actually in use.

The Local Battery (LB) circuit, shown in Figure 2, was devised to overcome at least some of these shortcomings. The microphone now sees just the low (and constant) resistance of the induction coil primary, which also improves its impedance match to the line. The match will rarely be exact, of course, because each telephone will be connected to a different length of line. The induction coil is a special type of transformer in which the magnetic circuit is deliberately not closed. This avoids the problems of core saturation that would otherwise occur due to the large DC flowing through one or both windings.

The simple LB telephone still has no means of signalling either that the user wishes to make a call or that an incoming call has arrived. The first attempts to provide signalling involved the use of a trembler bell, as illustrated in Figure 3. This circuit also illustrates how the hooks-

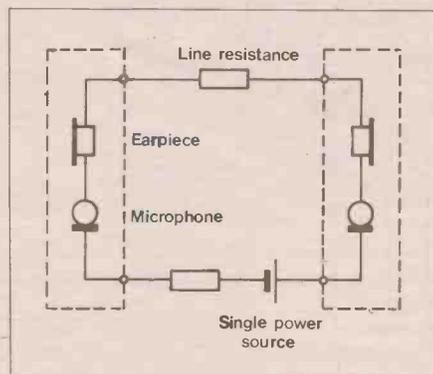


Figure 1. The simplest possible telephone connection.

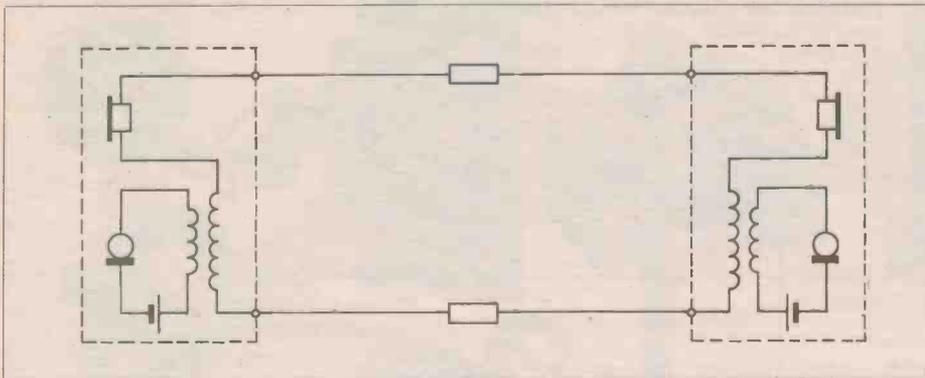


Figure 2. Local battery telephone principle.

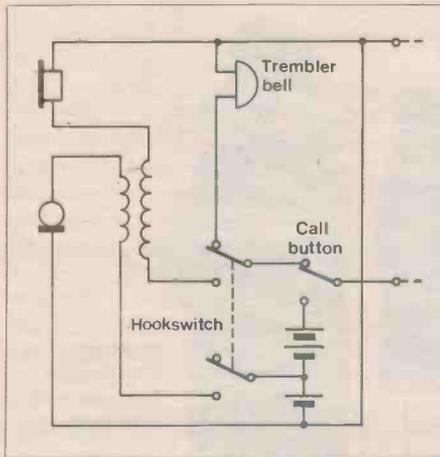


Figure 3. Local battery telephone with signalling.

switch (or 'gravity switch' as it was then called) is used to change the circuit configuration depending on whether or not the telephone is in use. In the idle state, the microphone circuit is broken, and the bell is connected across the line ready to detect an incoming ring signal (which in this case is just a battery applied across the line by the calling party). In use, the microphone is powered up and the receiver connected across the line in place of the bell. The user signals he wishes to make a call by pressing the CALL button, which connects the two batteries in series across the line in order to ring the bell at the distant end.

Trembler bells are however only suitable for signalling over quite short

lines. For longer lines, a more efficient solution is to use high voltage AC, and the magneto – a hand-cranked alternator – quickly became a standard fitment on telephones. It was used not only to alert the operator that the user wished to make a call, but also to signal the end of the call by ('ringing off'). A magneto generally included some means of switching itself into circuit only when the handle was turned, as Figure 4 illustrates, to prevent its low resistance from affecting the speech performance of the telephone.

Picture 9 shows the Ericsson LB wall telephone, the ornate casing concealed the magneto generator (operated by the handle visible on the right hand side) and the large and sometimes messy battery cells mounted underneath.

One of the most popular designs was the so-called 'candlestick' telephone, which was known in its various forms as the Telephone No. 2, No. 4 and No. 150. The circuit diagram of the Type 150 is shown in Figure 5, and though it appears to differ only slightly from earlier circuits, it was in fact designed to work within a quite new system concept, known as Central Battery Signalling, which will be discussed in the next article.

Acknowledgement: All telephone illustrations are reproduced by courtesy of the archivist at The Telecom Technology Showcase.

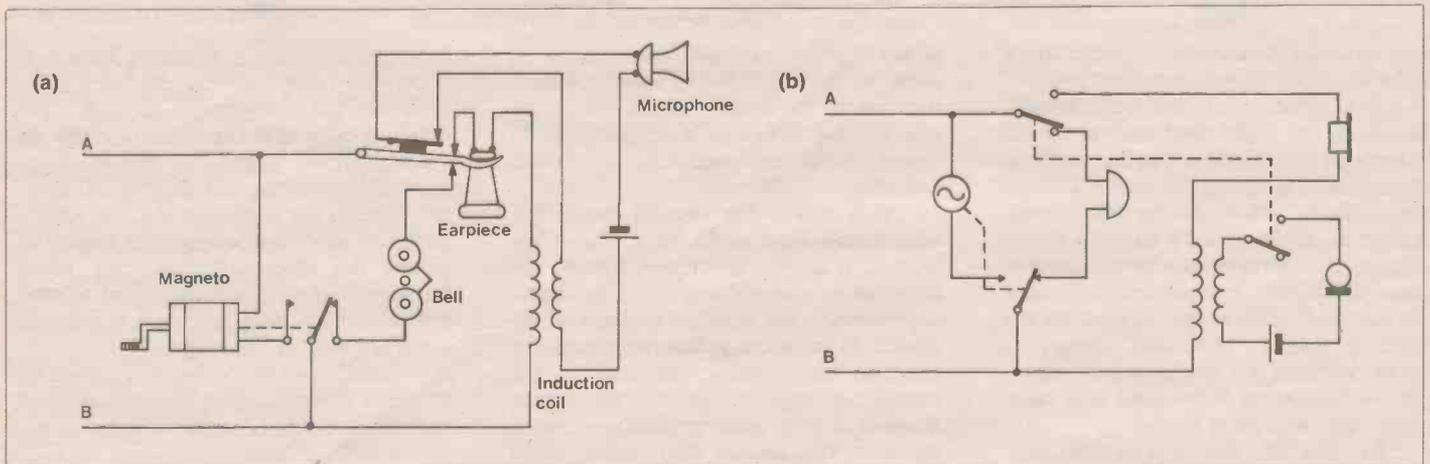


Figure 4. The Telephone No. 11 circuit (a) as it would have been drawn at the time, (b) redrawn with modern symbols.

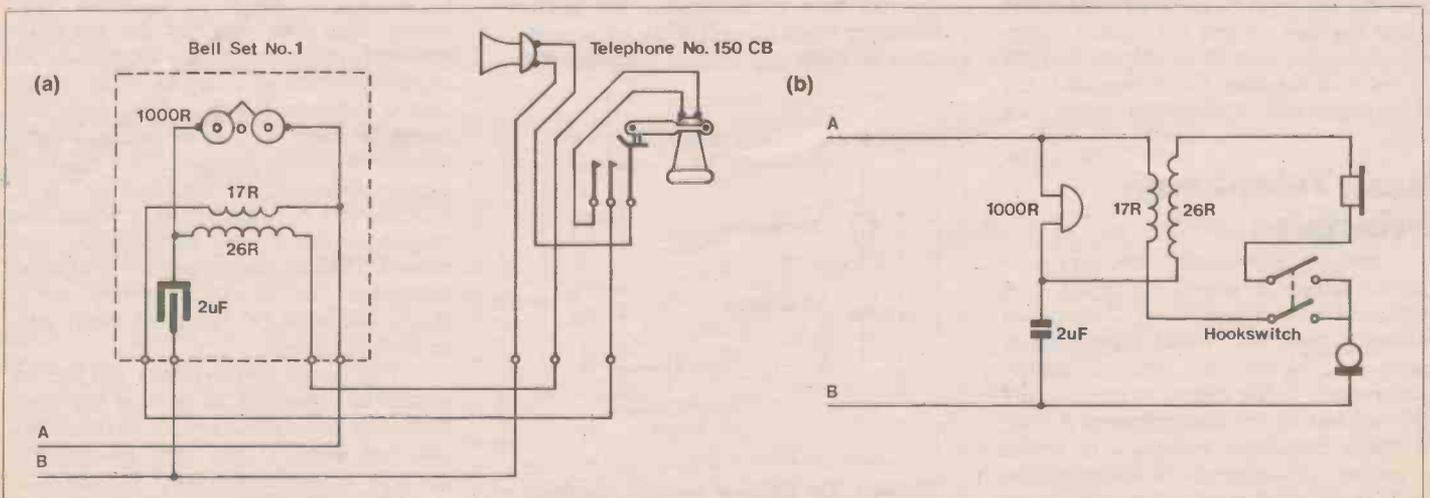


Figure 5. The 'candlestick' telephone circuit (a) in its original form, (b) redrawn with modern symbols.

# 3 WAY LOUDSPEAKER SYSTEM

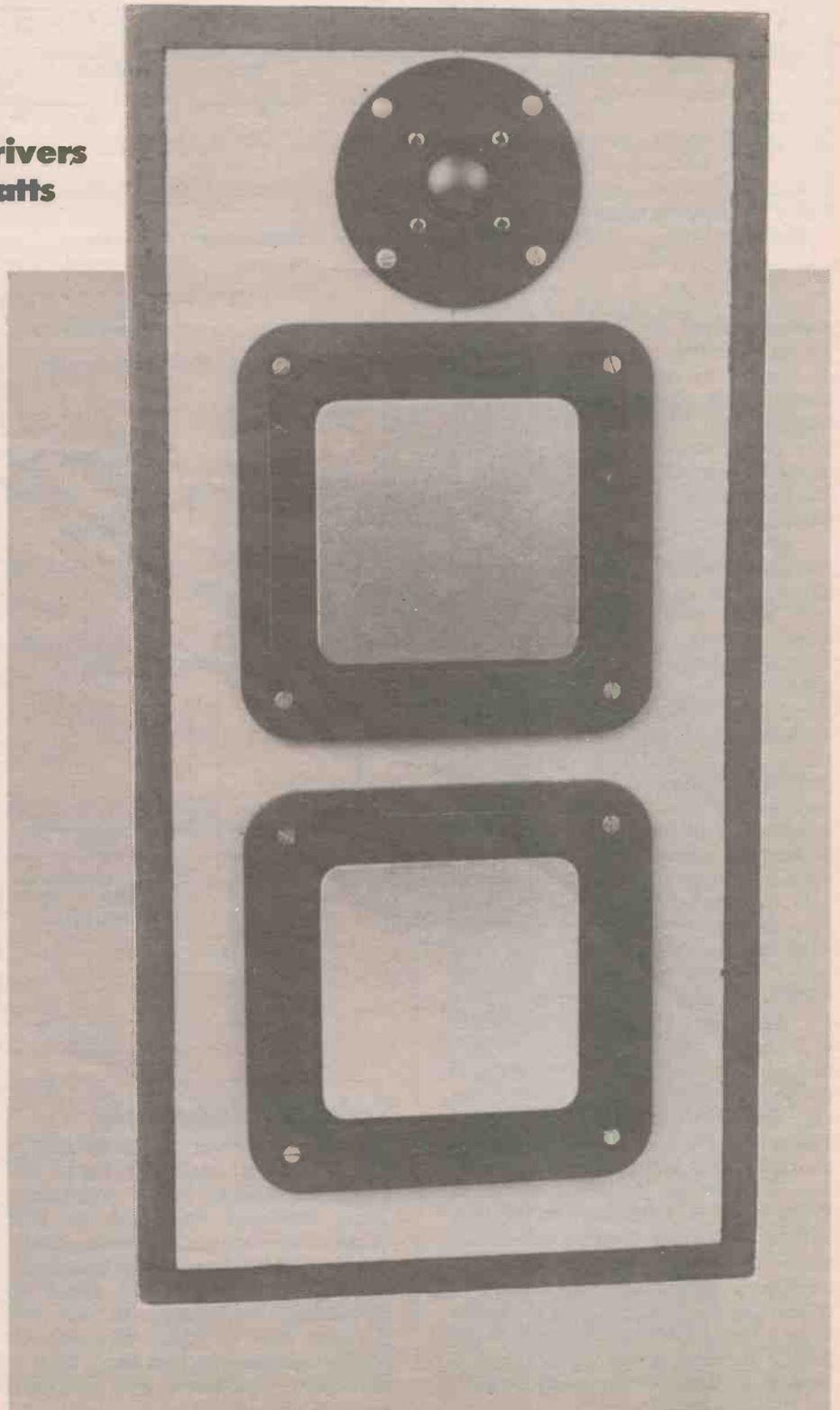
by Dave Goodman

- ★ **20 Litre cabinet design**
- ★ **3-way speaker system, HF, Bass and passive drivers**
- ★ **40Hz to 15kHz at 25 Watts**

A loudspeaker cabinet design based on the square bass transducer and matching passive radiator, developed for use in 20 Litre cabinets. The passive radiator does not have a magnet or voice coil and is not driven electrically at all; instead, the diaphragm - piston - is driven by changes in air pressure produced from the bass speaker. The amount of movement that the piston makes is determined by the transducer and cabinet resonance, piston mass/suspension compliance, frequency and power. As the transducer diaphragm moves inward the radiator moves outward, but not exactly at the same time, otherwise - if that were so - the sound waves would be 180° out of phase and cancel out! Of course phase cancellation does occur at different areas of the frequency spectrum in this type of system and fine tuning the radiator piston and cabinet wadding can minimise this effect.

Infinite baffle (sealed cabinet) and ported reflex cabinets are, by far, the most commonly used systems in use, mainly due to their excellent performance and design/manufacture simplicity. Both types have their relative merits for example: ported cabinets are usually much larger in volume, for a given loudspeaker type; sealed cabinets have a smoother low frequency response cut off; ported designs can have a lower frequency response, but exhibit a sharp cut off slope; sealed designs are simple to develop and make.

The passive radiator design fits between the two types and exhibits the properties of both cabinets in its simple, small construction and excellent low frequency response. Due to the small cabinet volume of 20 Litres, there is an inevitable peak or hump in the response as can be seen from Figure 1, similar in effect to a ported enclosure response. Booming, often associated with this peak in ported and sealed enclosures, is not



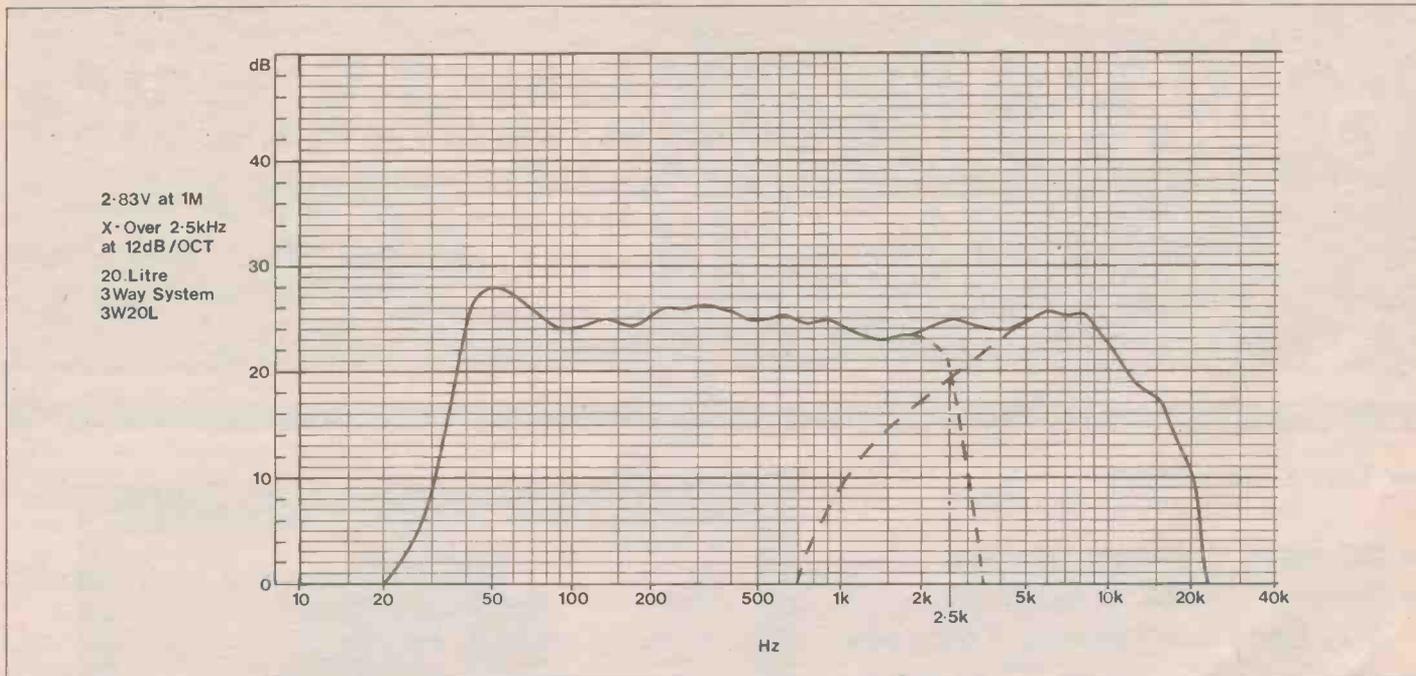
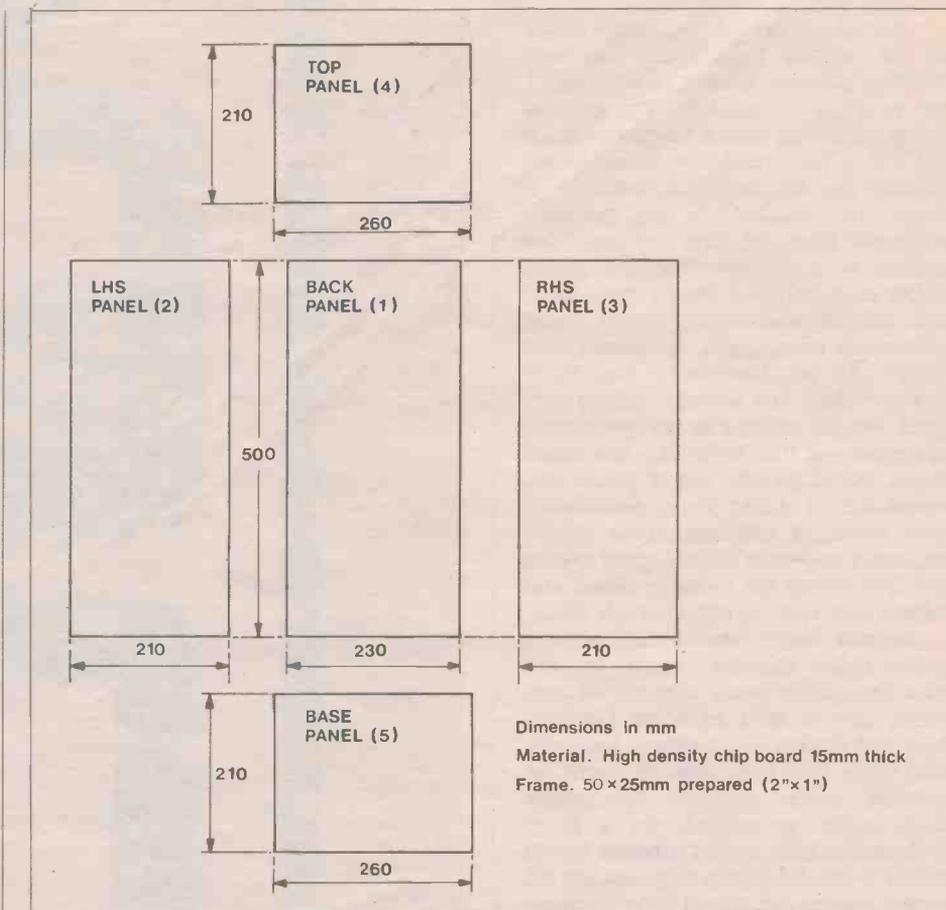


Figure 1. Frequency response.

Figure 2. Cabinet panel dimensions.



prevalent here, due to the transducer design, although its effect is mostly determined by room volume and resonance. Small volume rooms below 21 cubic metres – 2.5 x 3.5 x 2.4 for example may well resonate at 60 to 90Hz depending on wall ratios and proportions and under these circumstances the bass output will be enhanced (or reduced!).

Positioning of loudspeakers in a room is virtually a science by itself and cabinets that perform excellently in a Hi-Fi show room often sound lacking when installed in a domestic environment. High frequency sound waves are quite directional and easily deflected by hard, solid objects: walls, sideboards, windows, tables, etc., are all responsible for this and can add to the reverberative muddle experienced. Soft furnishings such as furniture, curtains and carpets will absorb high frequency sound waves, making the cabinet output more directional and, apparently, lower in intensity. Low frequency sound waves pass through solid objects quite easily and walls become transparent, as many of us have probably experienced with the neighbours choice of music perhaps!

When siting loudspeaker enclosures in a room, a general rule of thumb is to use the room corners to reflect some of the low frequency sound energy that emanates from the back of the cabinet. This sets up standing waves which travel across the floor and greatly enhance the 'feel' or 'solidness' of percussive sounds. Try to angle the enclosures so that they both face toward the listening area at 'ear' height and away from furnishings as much as possible. More often than not, this arrangement requires the enclosure to be raised a metre or more above the floor to be clear of obstructions, with a subsequent drop in bass performance – the choice is yours!

### Cabinet Assembly

The five cabinet panels, detailed in Figure 2, are not supplied in the kit and should be obtained by the constructor. 15mm laminated chipboard, or high density chipboard such as flooring grade, can be used for the panels as long as the top panel (4) and bottom panel (5) dimensions are altered to suit any deviation from the 15mm thickness. Do not use materials less than 15mm thick or fibreboard, blockboard and hardboard types of material.

Refer to Figure 3 & Figure 4. Position, glue and nail vertical (9) onto side panel (2) allowing for the back panel (1) thickness of 15mm or more, and do the same to vertical (8) on side panel (3). Drill six screw clearance holes in each side panel (2) & (3), 7mm in from the front edge and countersink for the 38mm screw heads. Apply wood glue to the long edges of the baffle board, fit side panels (2) & (3) ensuring all sides and edges are exactly in line and insert 3 x 38mm screws in each panel.

**Cutting list: (not supplied)**

15mm high density chipboard  
 2 panels 210 x 260mm (4 & 5)  
 2 panels 210 x 500mm (2 & 3)  
 1 panel 230 x 500mm (1)  
 1.5 metres 2 x 1 inch Prepared (44 x 21mm)  
 2 verticals 500mm long (8 & 9)  
 2 horizontals 188mm long (6 & 7)

**Miscellaneous parts: (not supplied)**

24 x 1.5 inch (38mm) csk chipboard screws  
 6 x 1.25 inch wire nails  
 Resin wood glue

**Optional parts: (not supplied in kit)**

Impact adhesive (FL43W)  
 Hot melt glue gun (YP71N)  
 Spare glue sticks (FS97F)  
 Flexible rubber sealer (YJ91Y)

Table 1.

Fit the back panel (1) in place and insert 3 x 38mm screws in each side panel, but DO NOT apply glue as the back panel will be removed later. Drill four screw clearance holes in each end panel (4) & (5), 7mm in from the edges and countersink as before (see Figure 5). Apply wood glue to the top edge of side panels (2) & (3) and top edge of the baffle board only, place panel (4) in position and insert the 4 X 38mm screws. Depending on panel thickness used, the top front screw may break through into the tweeter mounting hole, in the baffle. In this position only, use a shorter screw or cut/file the screw down after insertion. Apply glue to the side panel and baffle - bottom edges and fit panel (5) using 4 x 38mm screws. Remove the six back screws and back panel (1) before the glue dries. Wipe away any excess glue that may have been squeezed out from the joints and fit the two remaining horizontals (6) & (7), again using glue and nails. Drill a hole in the back panel, of a size suitable to take the cable used for connecting to an amplifier, leave the cabinet assembly for the glue to dry and proceed with the crossover module modifications.

**X-Over Modifications**

With reference to Figures 6 & 7, take the 10mm ferrite rod and cut a piece (A) 25mm long and another piece (B) 40mm long, using a hacksaw. Ferrite is a very brittle material which breaks easily if dropped or excessive pressure is applied whilst sawing! Orientate the x-over module, as Figure 7, and insert (A) into the former, apply adhesive or hot melt glue around the edge of the rod, to hold in place. Insert (B) into the HF filter coil on the right hand side. The 40mm long rod protrudes about 15mm above the former; again run a fillet of adhesive around the edge as shown. The driver transducer piston is covered with an

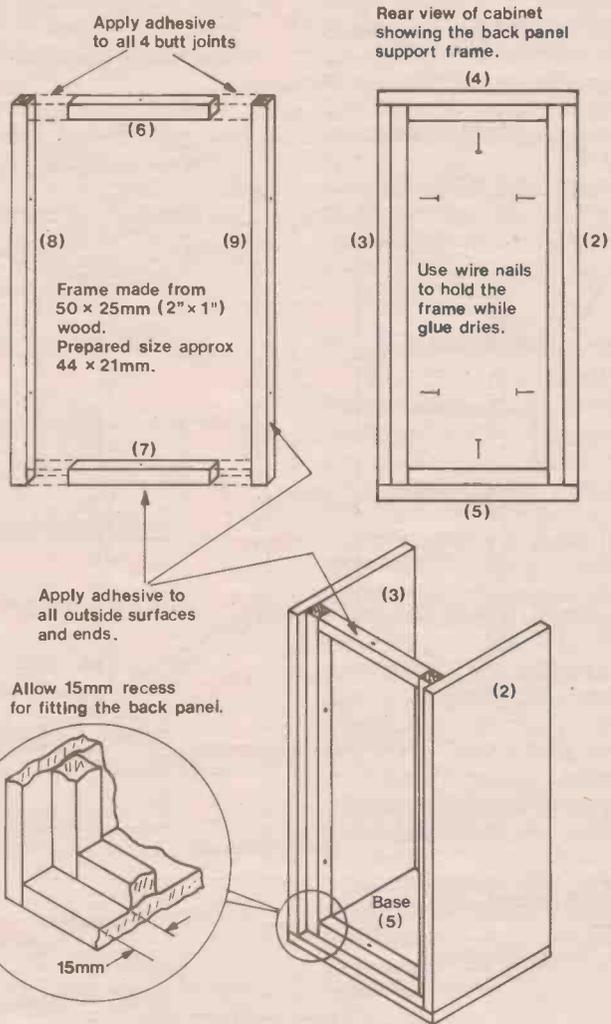


Figure 3. Back panel framework.

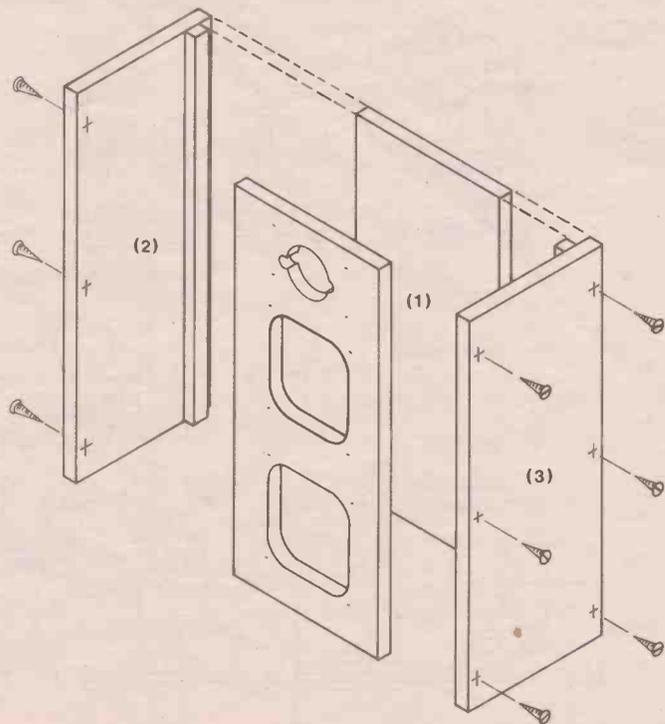


Figure 4. Panel assembly.

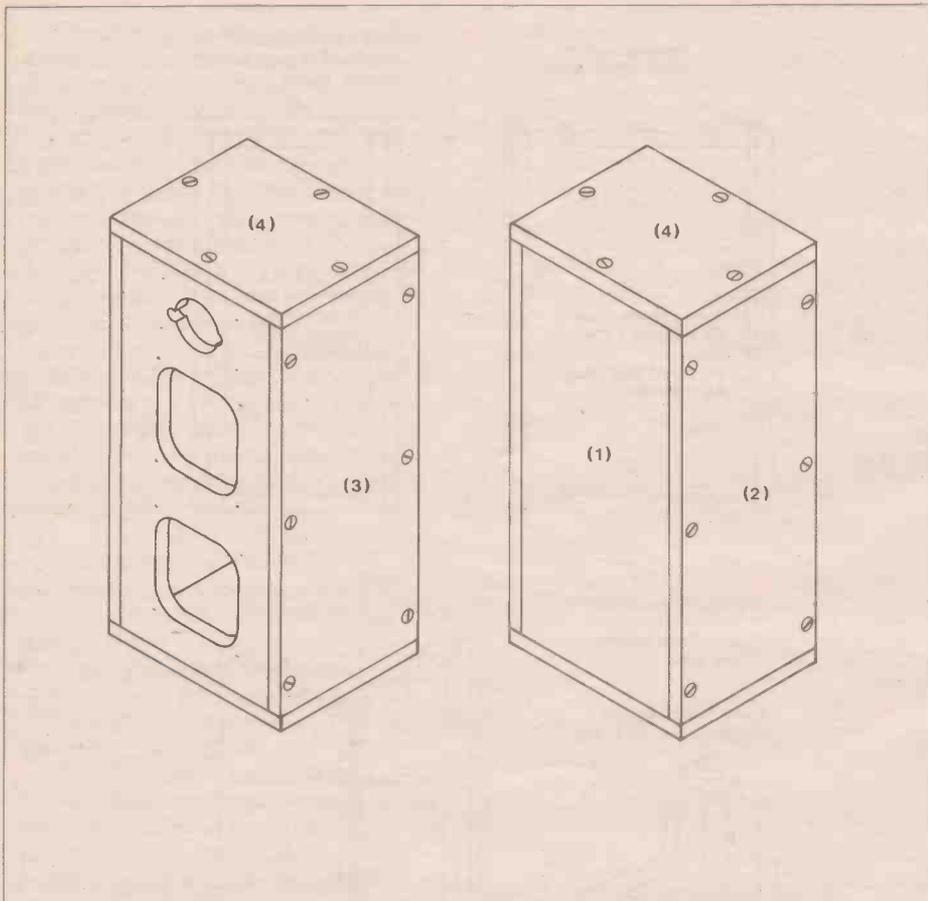


Figure 5. Completed cabinet.

aluminous polymer layer which emits a typical bandpass - peaking - effect in the upper speech area, around 3kHz. This phenomenon does nothing to enhance reproduction quality and disappears when the modifications are made to the x-over. Fit a  $10\mu\text{F}$  bipolar capacitor between common (0V - terminal C) and the bass speaker (Woofer - terminal W). The two  $22\text{R}$  parallel resistors need only be fitted between common C, and tweeter terminal T, if the high frequency output of the tweeter sounds excessive. This being so, fitting the resistors will attenuate the tweeter output by approximately 3dB, which might be found more acceptable!

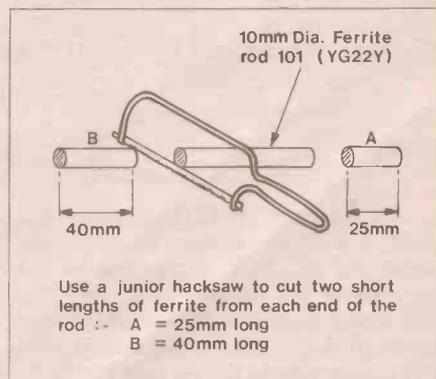


Figure 6. Cutting the ferrite rod.

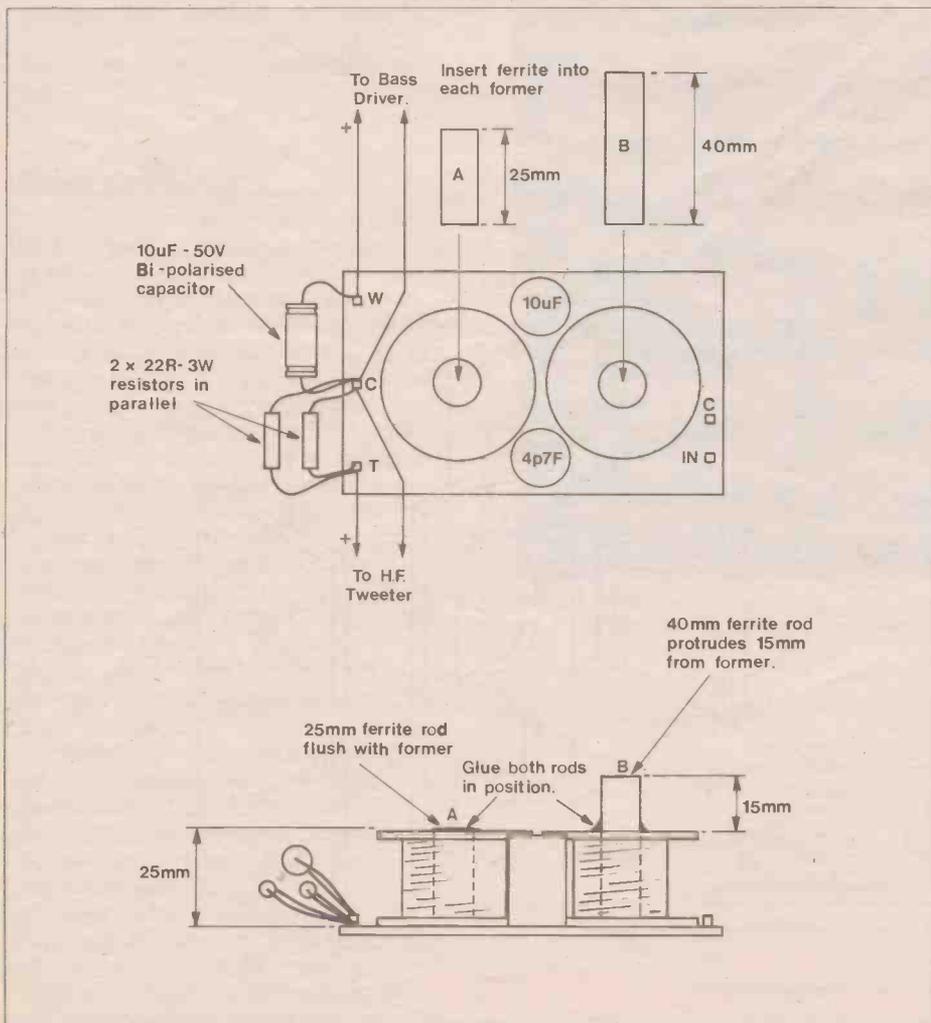


Figure 7. Modifying the crossover.

## Cabinet Wadding

Cut two pieces of wadding approximately 500mm x 150mm, to snugly fit each inside panel (2 & 3), behind the wood frame. Apply liberal amounts of adhesive to the panels and stick the wadding in position, as in Figure 8. Cut two smaller pieces of wadding 230mm x 150mm to fit inside on panels (4 & 5) and cut out a 100mm x 60mm section to clear the crossover, glue both in place. Cut and solder two lengths of wire to the crossover module with the black lined conductors connected to the common terminal, C (see Figure 9). Insert the module into the cut-out section of the wadding, and screw down with 4 x 0.5in self tappers. Finally, cut two 450mm x 180mm pieces of wadding for gluing one above the other, onto the back panel. Allow enough room around the edges for the wadding to clear the frame, once the panel is in position.

## Loudspeaker Fixing

The three loudspeakers are mounted into the baffle from outside and held in place with 4BA x 1.5in bolts. Take care when handling the square bass driver and passive radiator, as the aluminium polymer covering on the piston can be permanently damaged from mishandling. The tweeter dome can also be damaged very easily, therefore the dome grille should be fitted by; first removing the four pozi-screws on the tweeter plate, (do not remove the magnet or voice coil!) position the grille over the soft dome and replace the four screws.

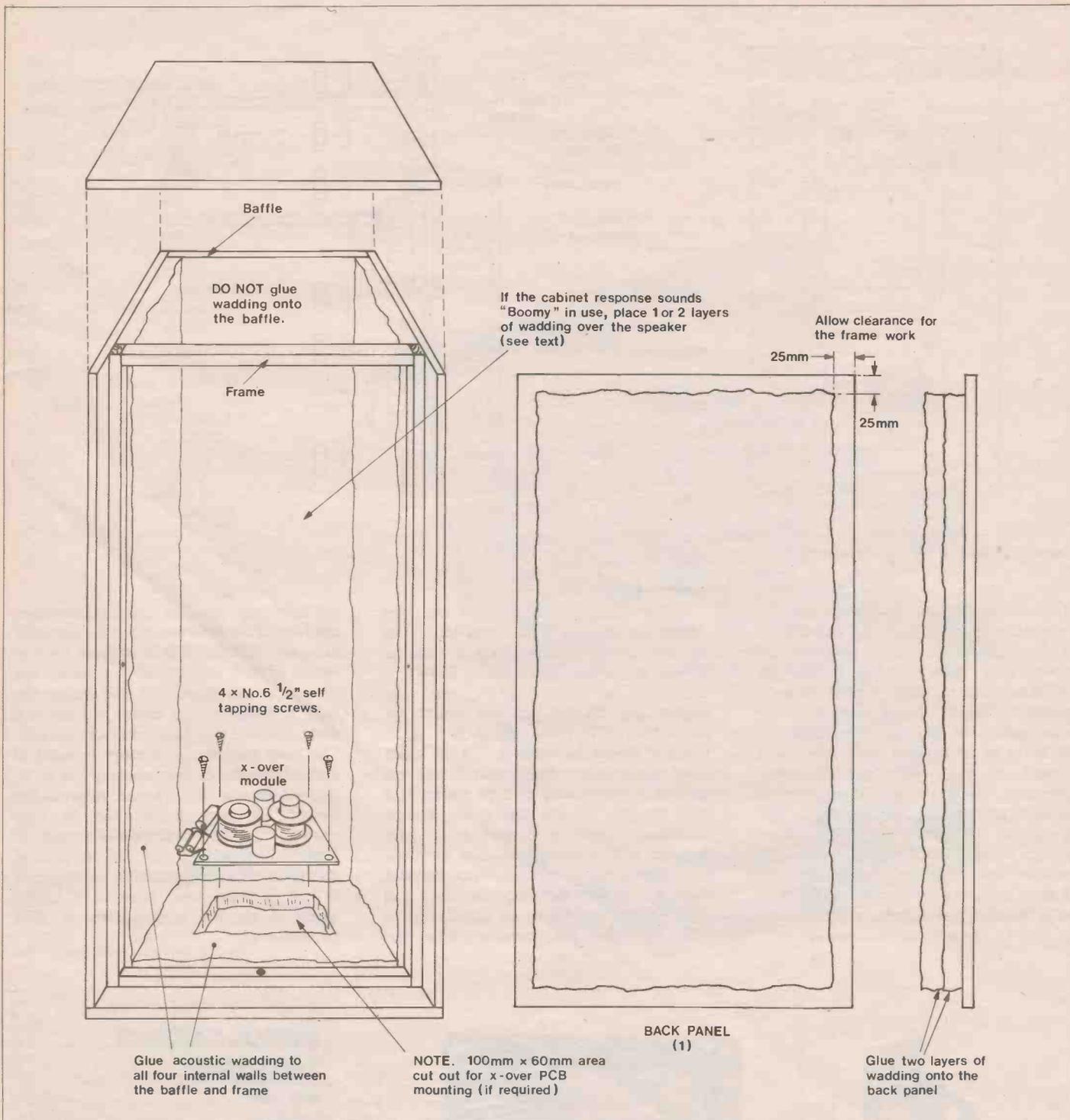
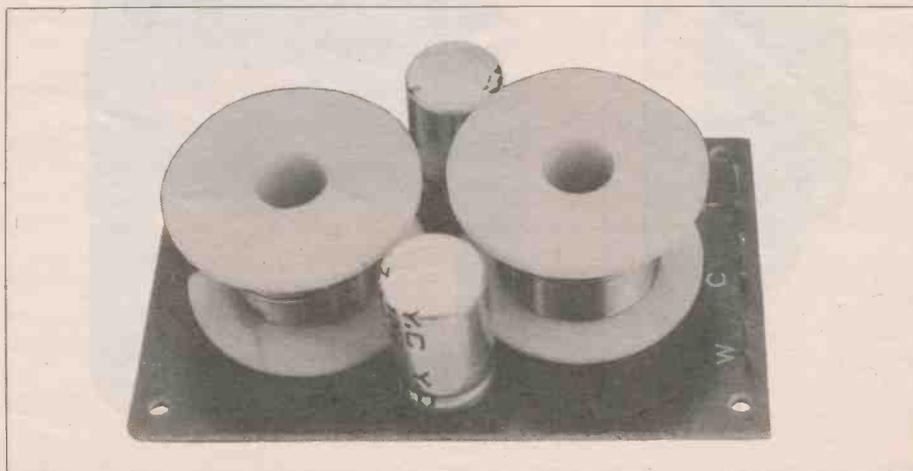


Figure 8. Fitting wadding and crossover unit.

Bring the tweeter connecting wire, from the crossover module, out through the baffle tweeter cut-out and solder to the tweeter terminals. The +V terminal must be connected to T on the module. Extend the bass driver wire through the baffle cut-out as before, connect the +V or red marked terminal to W on the module. Place both speakers into their mounting positions on the baffle, fit the plastic trim onto the driver and use four screws, shake washers and nuts to hold in place. Mount the passive radiator in the same way. Tighten the nuts well and squeeze a layer of glue or rubber sealer over each nut and bolt shank, to prevent them from shaking loose in use. Rubber sealer is recommended for squeezing along all



Crossover (unmodified).

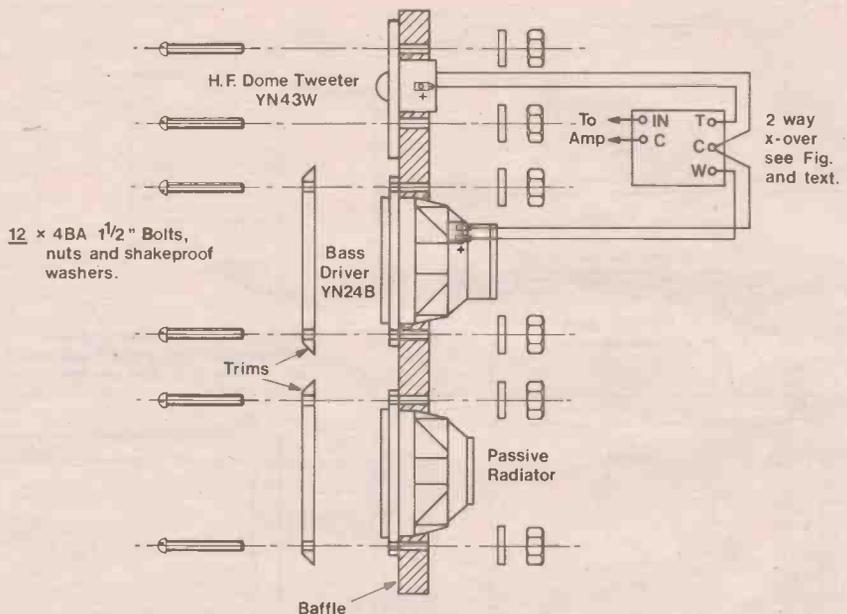
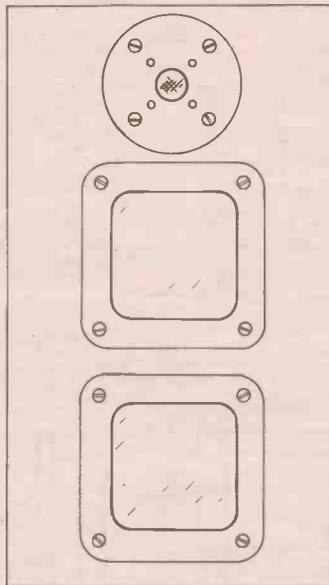


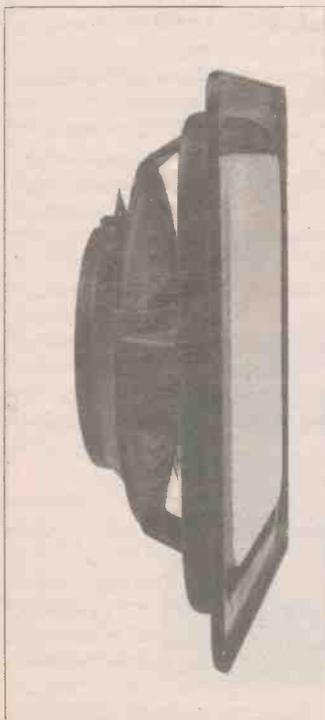
Figure 9. Installing the loudspeakers.

internal cabinet joints to ensure airtightness at the seams. A common source of air leakage comes from behind the loudspeaker units; spread a fillet of sealer around the outside edge of each speaker cut-out before mounting the loudspeaker, to prevent this possibility. Air leakage often manifests itself as a squeak or buzz and can be very annoying! Finally, tie both speaker wires securely so that they do not flap about, insert the amplifier connecting cable through the back panel (from the outside!) and terminate onto the crossover input terminals, +V to IN and 0V to C. Re-fit the back panel and screws and seal the four seams with rubber sealer.

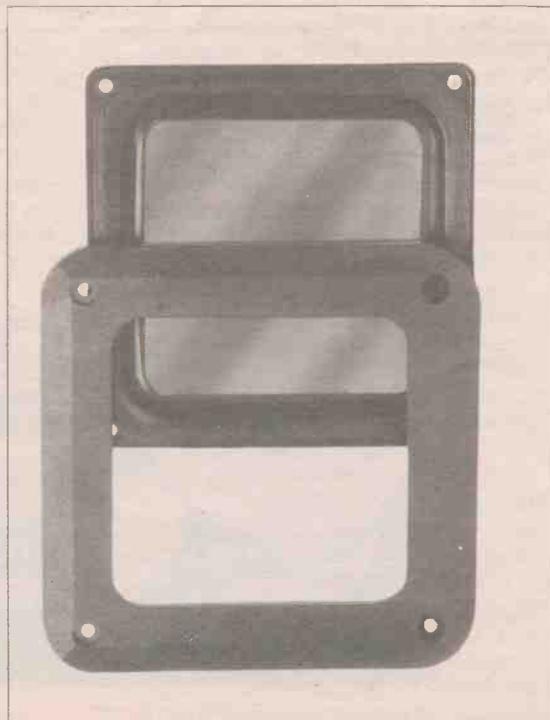
## Conclusion

The loudspeakers used in this design are rated at 60W to DIN 45573, this does not mean that they can be fitted to power amplifiers rated up to 60W! For maximum possible reliability and life-expectancy do not run this system at more than 25W RMS, which is a good average figure for these speakers when used continuously. Music waveforms are generally composed of high peaks and low troughs, where the peak signals produced from an amplifier can far exceed 25W, especially at low frequencies. The driver transducer voice coil and former is of high temperature rating and will happily handle peak signals up to 60W. Running a low power amplifier 'flat

out' into any speaker invariably causes the reproduced waveform to be severely clipped. Allowing this to happen for any length of time dramatically increases the energy in the voice coil and hence the heat generated will cause mechanical distortion and total breakdown of the unit. The bass transducer is more tolerant of abuse than the dome tweeter, due to its larger heat dispersion areas, whereas the tweeter is very susceptible to high energy, clipped waveforms. The cabinet design is intended for use in smaller domestic type environments, as opposed to hall or stage use, where it is hardly likely to be run continuously at 25W power levels.



Passive Radiator.



Bass Driver.

## 3W20L CABINET PARTS LIST

Baffle board		(XJ67X)
Bass driver		(YN24B)
Dome tweeter		(YN43W)
Passive radiator		(XJ68Y)
Crossover 2-way		(WF02C)
4BA x 1.5in Bolts	2 Pkt	(LR52G)
4BA Shake washer	2 Pkt	(BF25C)
4BA Nut	2 Pkt	(BF17T)
No.6 x 0.5in Sif-Tpr	1 Pkt	(BF67X)
Ferrite rod 101		(YG22Y)
10µF Reversolytic		(FB06G)
22R 3W Resistor	2	(W22R)
Acoustic Wadding	2 Mtrs	(RY06G)
HD Loudspeaker Cable	2 Mtrs	(XR60Q)
Grille for dome tweeter		(FD93B)

A complete kit of the above parts is available:  
**Order As LM54J (3W20L Cabinet Kit)**  
**Price £39.95**

The following items are also available separately, but are not shown in our 1988 catalogue:  
**3W20L Baffle Order As XJ67X Price £2.95**  
**Passive Radiator Order As XJ68Y Price £8.95**

# ELECTRONICS

## BY

# EXPERIMENT

Part 3 by Graham Dixey C. Eng., M.I.E.R.E.

### Introduction

Logic circuits fall into two classes, known as 'combinational' logic and 'sequential' logic. The principles and some applications of combinational logic were the subjects of Parts One and Two. Now it is the turn of sequential logic. This, as the name implies, is to do with events taking place in some particular order. The broad divisions of circuits that come under the heading of sequential logic are 'counters' and 'registers'. There is more 'action' in a sequential circuit than in a combinational one. For this reason they tend to generate more interest. Also there is a great variety of possibilities for both counter and register circuits, so many in fact that, in this issue a selection of counter circuits only will be described, registers being covered in the next issue.

The basis of the sequential circuit is the 'flip-flop', also known as a 'bistable' (because it can take up one of two stable states) and sometimes, in particular applications, as a 'latch'. It is best, for practical purposes, to regard the flip-flop as just a 'black box' that performs some prescribed function. Textbooks for students of electronics invariably show the flip-flop function as being performed by combinations of gates, which is quite true. However, once these gates are packaged up to perform as a particular flip-flop type, there is little to be gained by considering it other than as a functional package. With this in mind look at Figure 1.

### The JK Flip-flop

This figure shows the most commonly used flip-flop type, known as the 'JK flip-flop'. The symbol is shown in (a) and the truth-table in (b). The symbol is generalised to show three inputs, known as the 'steering inputs', J and K and a 'clock' input; also two complementary outputs, Q and  $\bar{Q}$  (not-Q or Q-bar).

The truth-table describes the performance of the flip-flop when all possible combinations of logic levels are applied to J and K. Note the columns called  $Q_{NOW}$  and  $Q_{NEXT}$ . These are the logic levels at Q immediately before (NOW) and after

(NEXT) clocking. So what is clocking?

In order to cause a counter circuit to go through its designated sequence it must be clocked. This is done by applying pulses, known generally as clock pulses to the clock input. A clock pulse is shown in Figure 2, which defines the 'edges' and

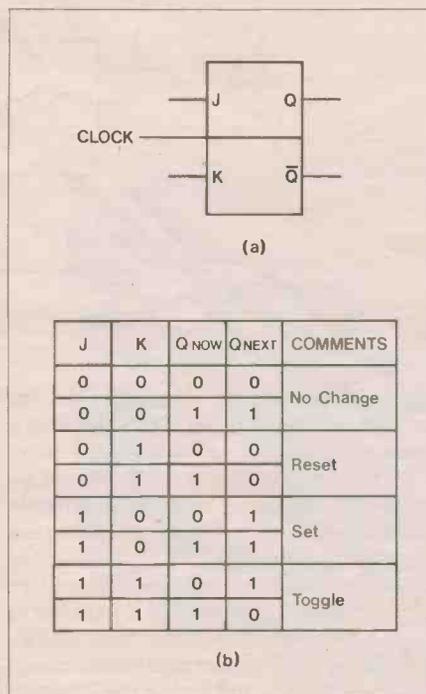


Figure 1. The JK Flip-flop, symbol (a) and truth table (b).

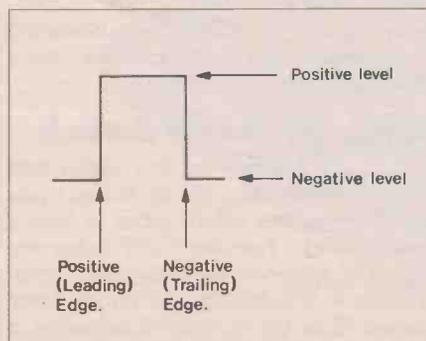


Figure 2. Clock pulse definitions.

'levels' of the pulse. The JK flip-flops that we shall be using are known as 'master-slave' types. All that this means is that the flip-flop will change state at the negative or trailing edge of the pulse.

Imagine the pulse arriving at the clock input. From logic 0 it rises abruptly to logic 1 (this is the positive or leading edge); the flip-flop does not respond at this point. Instead it waits until the logic level falls back to logic 0 when the negative or trailing edge arrives. If the J and K inputs are set up so as to demand a change of state then, at this instant of the clock pulse, the flip-flop will change state. That is, Q will either go from logic 0 to logic 1 or from logic 1 to logic 0. It is this sort of information that the truth table tells us. So back to Figure 1.

The first possible combination of J and K is that they are both logic 0. It is obviously possible for  $Q_{NOW}$  to be initially either logic 0 or logic 1. Thus the truth table has two lines for  $J = K = 0$ . Notice that for both lines Q does not change when the flip-flop is clocked. Not very exciting but, nonetheless, important. This condition is known as 'no change'.

The second possible combination is  $J = 0$  and  $K = 1$ . Note what happens for these two lines. If  $Q = 0$  initially, it remains at 0 after clocking; if  $Q = 1$  initially, it becomes 0 after clocking. The flip-flop is said to be RESET when  $Q = 0$ . Thus these two lines describe the 'reset' mode.

Now reverse the logic levels of J and K so that  $J = 1$  and  $K = 0$ . If  $Q = 0$  initially, it becomes 1 and if  $Q = 1$  initially, it stays at 1. The flip-flop is said to be SET when  $Q = 1$ , so that these two lines describe the 'set' mode.

Finally, there is the case when J and K both equal 1. Notice that whatever the value of Q initially, after clocking it changes to the other logic level. It is said to 'toggle' backwards and forwards between the set and reset states every time it is clocked. This is, therefore, known as the 'toggle' mode.

In order to be able to understand how any counter or register works, it is essential that the effects of the logic levels

at J and K on what the flip-flop does when clocked are thoroughly grasped. This understanding, together with the realisation that the flip-flop (if it is going to change when clocked) will only do so at the negative edge of the pulse, holds the key to a proper appreciation of counter and register operation.

## Level-triggered and Edge-triggered Flip-flops

There is sometimes some confusion about the meanings of 'level triggering' and 'edge triggering'. After all, both terms seem capable of describing what is happening. The triggering of the flip-flop from one state to the other may be said to occur when the 'level changes' from logic 1 to logic 0 or, in other words, at the 'negative edge' of the pulse. Let us put the matter straight. Most flip-flops that will be met are level-triggered and change state when there is a change of level, usually from logic 1 to logic 0. The clock pulse responsible for the level changes at the clock input of the flip-flop is usually fairly long. This can cause certain problems, as seen by considering what may be regarded as the normal sequence of events.

First the required inputs (to perform one of the actions described previously) at J and K are set up; next a clock pulse arrives - rising from logic 0 to logic 1 (having no effect) - then 'staying at logic 1 for a certain time period' - then falling to logic 0 (causing the action to occur). The problem is caused by the part in quotes in the centre. In effect the situation that exists during this time is that the J and K logic levels to cause the desired action to occur have been established and we are merely waiting for the end of the pulse for this action to occur. Because of the delay, it is sometimes possible for either J or K (or both) to change to some other incorrect value before the negative end of the pulse arrives, with the result that when it does so the action occurring is the wrong one.

Edge triggering is the remedy in these circumstances. The clock pulse is short and fast, giving little time for the J and K levels to change since they were established. The action is achieved by capacitive coupling that differentiates the clock pulse to give a short spike. This type of flip-flop should always be used when there is any danger of J and K changing erroneously.

## The Divide-by-Two Action of the JK Flip-flop

The JK flip-flop, when in the toggle mode, acts as a basic binary or 'divide-by-two' element. This means that any train of pulses applied to its clock input at a certain frequency  $f$  will result in a train of pulses at Q of half this frequency, namely  $f/2$ . A look at the oscillograms shown in photograph 1 will make it clear why this is. Because only the negative edges of input

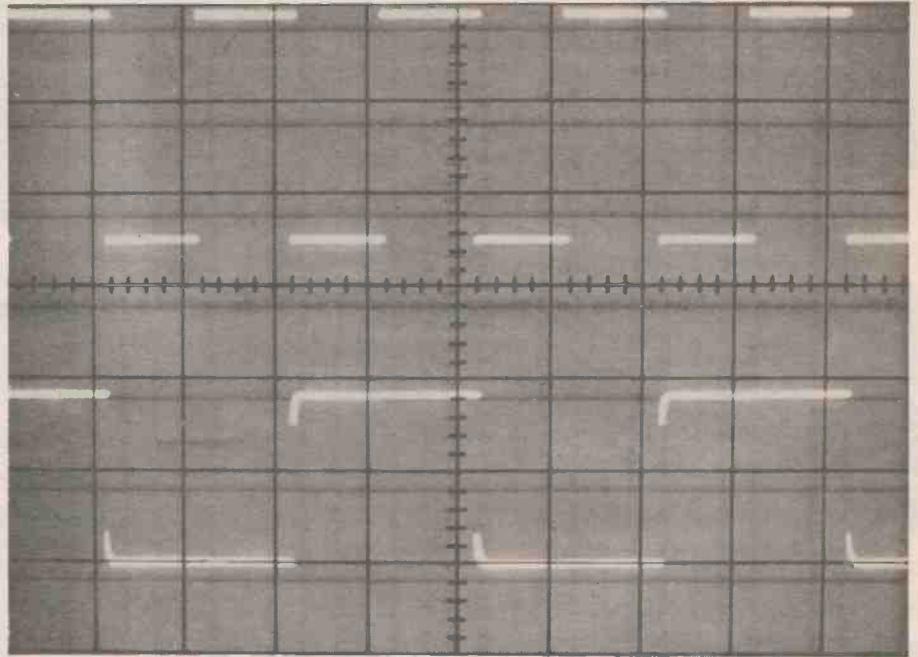


Photo 1. Oscilloscope traces for clock input (upper waveform) and Q output (lower waveform) of a JK flip-flop wired in the 'toggle' mode. Note that the Q output changes only when the input goes 'down', hence the divide-by-two action.

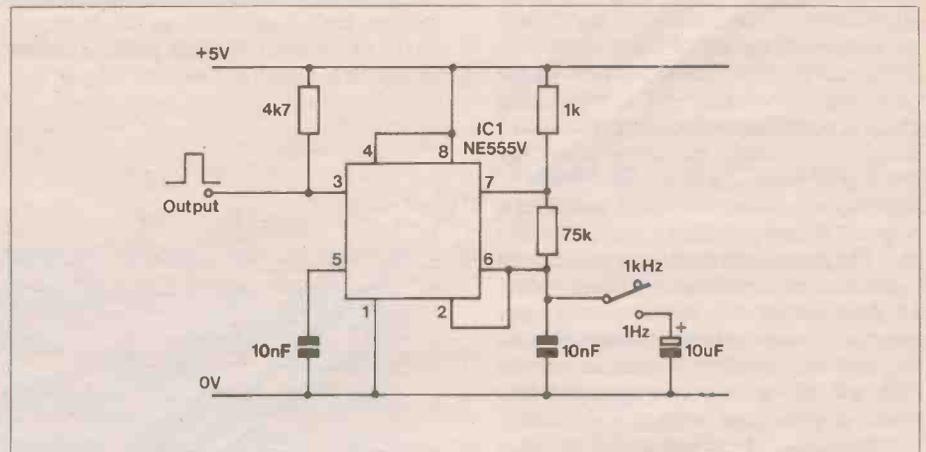


Figure 3. TTL 1Hz/1kHz oscillator.

clock pulses cause changes, all the positive edges of these input pulses are ignored. Thus, for every negative edge transition at the clock input there will be an output transition that is alternately positive and negative, hence dividing the input frequency by two. This is the basis of the counter so it is a very good idea to try this in practice. Just tie J and K together to logic 1, put in a train of pulses from the TTL oscillator (that you have now constructed!) at the clock input and look at the Q output. If you have a CRO, set the pulse frequency to 1kHz, since this will be easier to see on a 'scope. Otherwise, set the pulse frequency to 1Hz and, with LEDs on both clock and Q terminals, judge for yourself the binary dividing action.

## A De-bounced Switch

Figure 4 shows another useful little circuit that you can make up. It uses a pair of cross-coupled NAND gates to form a simple latch. The feedback holds the circuit in whatever state the push-button triggers it into. Pushing the button down causes Q to go to logic 1; releasing it allows it to come back to logic 0. Thus, it generates a single pulse, very useful for

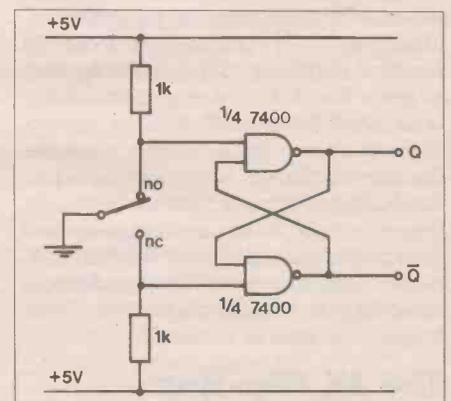


Figure 4. De-bounced switch with complementary outputs.

stepping counters (and registers) through their sequences for examination. It might be thought unnecessarily complex for such a simple task but it is not called a 'de-bounced' switch for nothing. The contacts of the average mechanical switch actually oscillate briefly between the open and closed states when the switch is operated. For many applications this effect goes unnoticed. But TTL logic devices are fast enough to follow such

changes - standard TTL can respond in 10ns. Thus the circuit gets several pulses when it only needs one. The above circuit responds only to the first transition and 'masks out' those following, generating a genuine single pulse. The only awkward component is the c/o push-button switch, these mostly being push-to-make or push-to-break. If one cannot be located, a microswitch can be adapted since these usually have SPDT contacts.

## Binary Asynchronous Counters

An asynchronous counter is also often known as a 'ripple through' type because the flip-flops change state one after the other, the effect appearing to 'ripple through' from first to last. Only one stage, the first, is clocked directly from the pulse train input. The others are clocked from the Q outputs of the previous stages. It is this connection that causes the ripple through action. The circuit of a three-stage counter of this type is shown in Figure 5. Since all flip-flops are connected in the toggle mode, each divides by two so the overall division ratio is  $2^3$ . In general, for a counter using 'n' flip-flops the division ratio (also known as the scale or modulo) is equal to  $2^n$ . Another feature of this counter, being a practical circuit, is the 'reset' line. It has nothing to do with the reset mode in line two of the JK truth-table. Instead it is a separate pin provided to reset the flip-flop; it has to be taken to logic 0 to enable this to happen. Such a connection is said to be 'active low' or, alternatively, 'negative acting'.

To investigate and learn something of the operation of this circuit, it is recommended that it is connected up, using either the TTL oscillator or de-bounced switch as input, and with LEDs on all the Q outputs. The counter should be reset to start with, so that all LEDs read 0. Pulsing the circuit through the complete sequence should take it from 000 to 111, eight states all told. From the point of view of the circuit diagram, the binary number shown by the LEDs is actually 'backwards', since the first flip-flop FFA is the Least Significant Bit (LSB) of the number. Having satisfied yourself that it does count in binary, the next step that can be tried is to connect the LEDs to the  $\bar{Q}$  outputs instead. Since these are complementary to the Q outputs, the sequence will be reversed, i.e. the counter will count 'down' from an initial value of 111 to a final value of 000. Thus, the counter can be used to count up or down just by the choice of where the outputs are taken from, either Q or  $\bar{Q}$ .

There is a small modification that can be made to this circuit that is worth looking into - especially as it is very easy to do. Leave FFA clock input as it is but connect the clock inputs for FFB and FFC to the  $\bar{Q}$  outputs of the previous flip-flops instead of the Q outputs. Record the sequences at both the Q and  $\bar{Q}$  outputs, as was done before. You might like to ask yourselves whether the results are what you expected.

## Binary Synchronous Counters

A disadvantage of asynchronous counters is their slowness. It should be evident that they will be slow because it is necessary to allow all flip-flops to change state before a new clock pulse can be applied. Try to clock the circuit too quickly and it becomes confused. In a synchronous counter all clock inputs are clocked from a common source, the pulse train input. This presupposes that the counter knows in advance when certain flip-flops should change state and when they shouldn't. What is not wanted is the whole lot changing whenever a clock pulse appears. It would be somewhat tedious, not to say time consuming to go through the design method of synchronous counters. Suffice it to say that some extra gating is usually needed (quite a lot sometimes) in order to sort out when any

given flip-flop should change state in the sequence. From the hobbyist's point of view, it is sufficiently interesting to hook up the circuit (shown in Figure 6) and pulse it to see that it does indeed work. However, it can be taken a stage further.

While the counter is being pulsed, a logic probe can be held on the J and K inputs of FFC (that is the output of the AND gate). The output of this gate can only be either logic 0 or logic 1, putting FFC into either the 'no-change' or 'toggle' modes. Determine when it is in one mode or the other and why. Investigation of this type teaches one a lot. Try to think of other aspects of the circuit to investigate. You may well have realised that this counter is not actually a full synchronous counter. Only FFA and FFC are truly synchronous; FFB is clocked from the output of FFA. Such a circuit is a compromise between speed and simplicity.

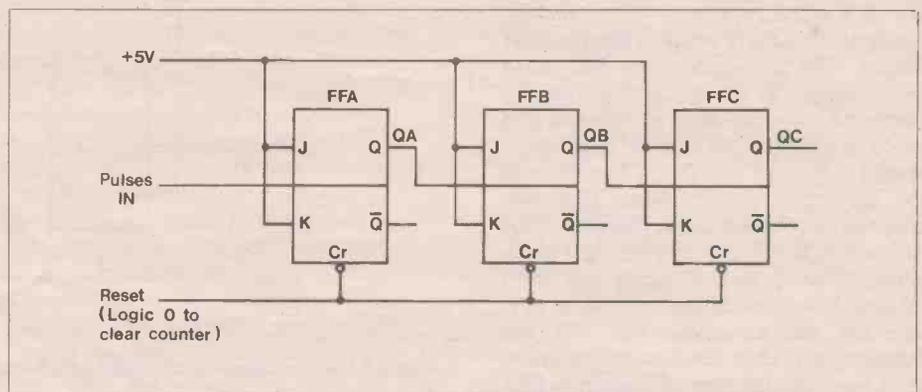


Figure 5. Scale-of-eight asynchronous (ripple-through) counter.

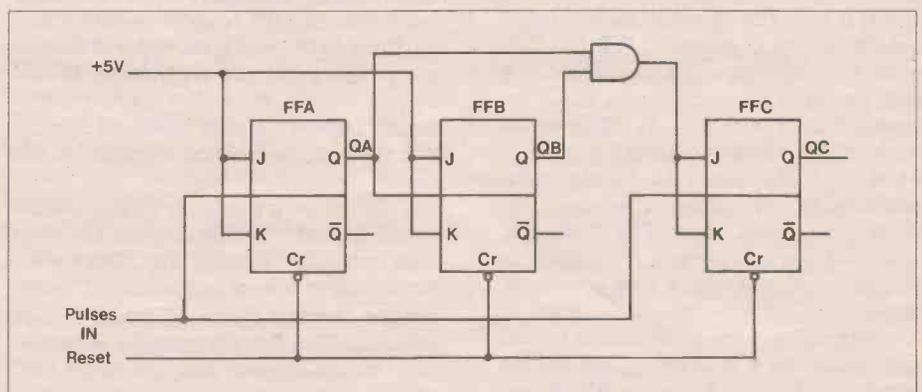


Figure 6. Scale-of-eight synchronous counter.

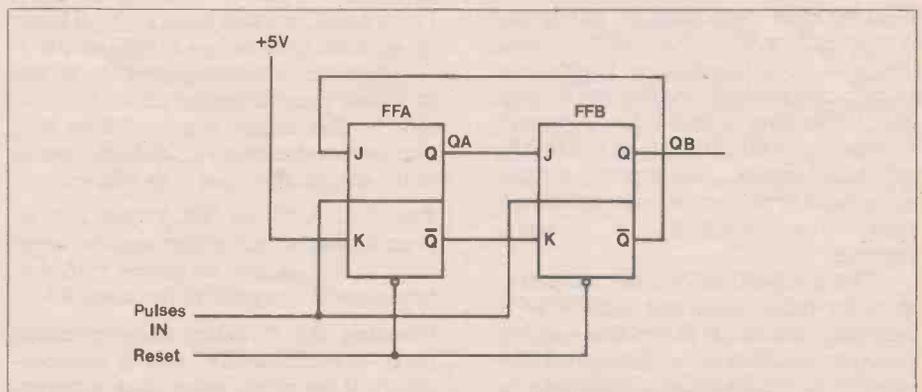


Figure 7. Scale-of-three feedback counter.

## Counters to other Bases

The basic binary dividing element, the JK flip-flop, is only capable of division by two, yet there are times when division by numbers that are not a power of two is needed. As an example of this, consider the simple non-binary counter of Figure 7. This is a 'scale-of-three' counter, the three states being 00, 01 and 10; the state 11 is avoided. The circuit is forced to reset to 00 on the fourth pulse by means of the feedback between the  $\bar{Q}$  output of FFB and the J input of FFA. The action of this feedback is as follows.

Assuming that the counter is initially reset, so that its first state is FFA = 0, FFB = 0, the  $\bar{Q}$  output of FFB will be at logic 1 which is fed back to the J input of FFA; the K input of FFA is wired to logic 1 anyway, so FFA is in the toggle mode. The J and K inputs of FFB are fed from the complementary Q and  $\bar{Q}$  outputs of FFA, so that FFB will always be in either the SET mode or the RESET mode; it has no other choice. The first clock pulse will cause FFA to toggle, its Q output going to logic 1; this same pulse will have no effect on FFB since its inputs, at the moment of clocking were J = 0 and K = 1 (RESET mode) and the flip-flop is already reset. The state after the first clock pulse is, therefore, FFA = 1 and FFB = 0. But after this first clock pulse, FFB's J and K inputs will have reversed because of the toggling of FFA and we can anticipate that FFB will become SET after the next clock pulse. Sure enough, this is what happens, FFA toggling at the same time, so that the state after the second clock pulse is FFA = 0 and FFB = 1. This is where the feedback comes in. The  $\bar{Q}$  output of FFB has now gone down to logic 0; this means that FFA is no longer in the toggle mode, but in the reset mode (J = 0, K = 1). What is the mode of FFB? Look at its J and K inputs, J = 0 and K = 1. This means that it is also in the reset mode. Therefore, after the next pulse, FFA 'stays' reset, FFB 'becomes' reset and the final state of the counter is also its initial state for a new sequence, namely 00.

Taking the idea of feedback further and combining it with gating, we get the circuit of Figure 8, the 'scale-of-five' counter. If you followed the discussion about the 'scale-of-three' counter, you shouldn't have much difficulty in proving to yourself how this one works. However, there's nothing like putting theory into practice so it is suggested that you wire up this counter, reset it and follow it through its sequence (000, 001, 010, 011, 100, 000, etc). Make use of LEDs at the Q outputs and a logic probe on the gate inputs and output. You should find it a useful exercise.

The 'scale-of-five' counter converts to an even more important type if it is preceded by a single JK flip-flop wired in the toggle mode, as shown in Figure 9. The result of the two successive divisions is to produce an overall result of 'divide-by-ten', that is a decade counter. This has

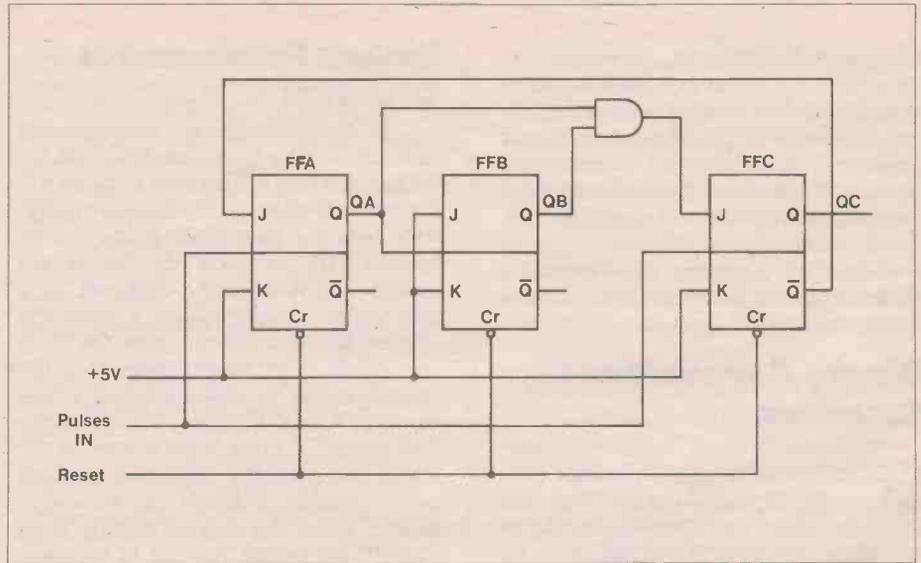


Figure 8. Scale-of-five feedback counter.

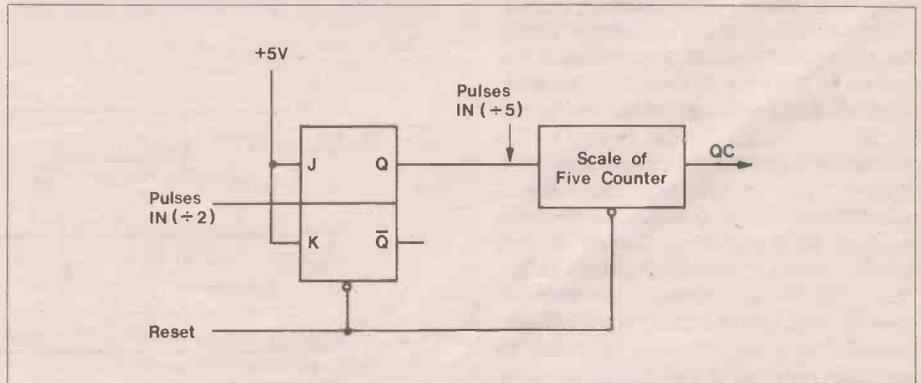


Figure 9. Decade counter constructed from basic divide-by-two stage and the circuit of Figure 8.

obvious practical applications. It is worth wiring this up, especially if you've already breadboarded the 'divide-by-five' counter. Then try reversing the order of the two component parts, that is drive the 'divide-by-two' section from the 'divide-by-five' circuit. Do you think the order will matter? You may (or may not) be surprised at the result!

Of course, if you really want to build a circuit around a decade counter, you don't have to build it up in this way. There are a number of single-chip circuits, of which the one shown in Figure 10, the 7490, is an example. This actually contains the separate 'divide-by-two' and 'divide-by-five' circuits, which can be accessed separately or wired in series by connecting pin 12 ( $Q_1$ ) to pin 1 (pulses in for 'divide-by-five'). Pins 2 and 3, or 6 and 7 can be used to set up an initial state of 0 or 9 (0000 or 1001).

Another interesting circuit is the so-called 'programmable' series of counters, 74160-3, shown in pin-out form with sample waveforms in Figure 11. A resumé of the circuit operation is as follows:

**Features:** A 16-pin DIL IC that can be programmed to start at any required initial state in the binary sequence 0-15 and terminate at any point in the sequence.

**Clearing the Counter:** Some counters clear 'asynchronously', that is independently of the clock; some clear 'synchronously', that is on the next positive clock transition.

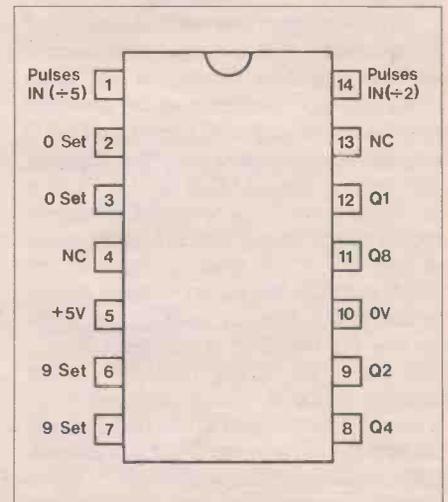


Figure 10. The 7490 decade counter chip.

**Programming the Counter:** 'Data in', corresponding to the required initial state (ABCD) is applied to pins 3-6. The 'load' line is taken low and the counter presets on the next positive clock edge.

**Enabling and Disabling the Counter:** Two control lines, P and T, are provided. They are both taken high to start the counter. Taking either low will disable (inhibit) the counter.

**Carry 'look ahead' output:** Used for successive cascading of stages without extra gating being needed. A carry pulse

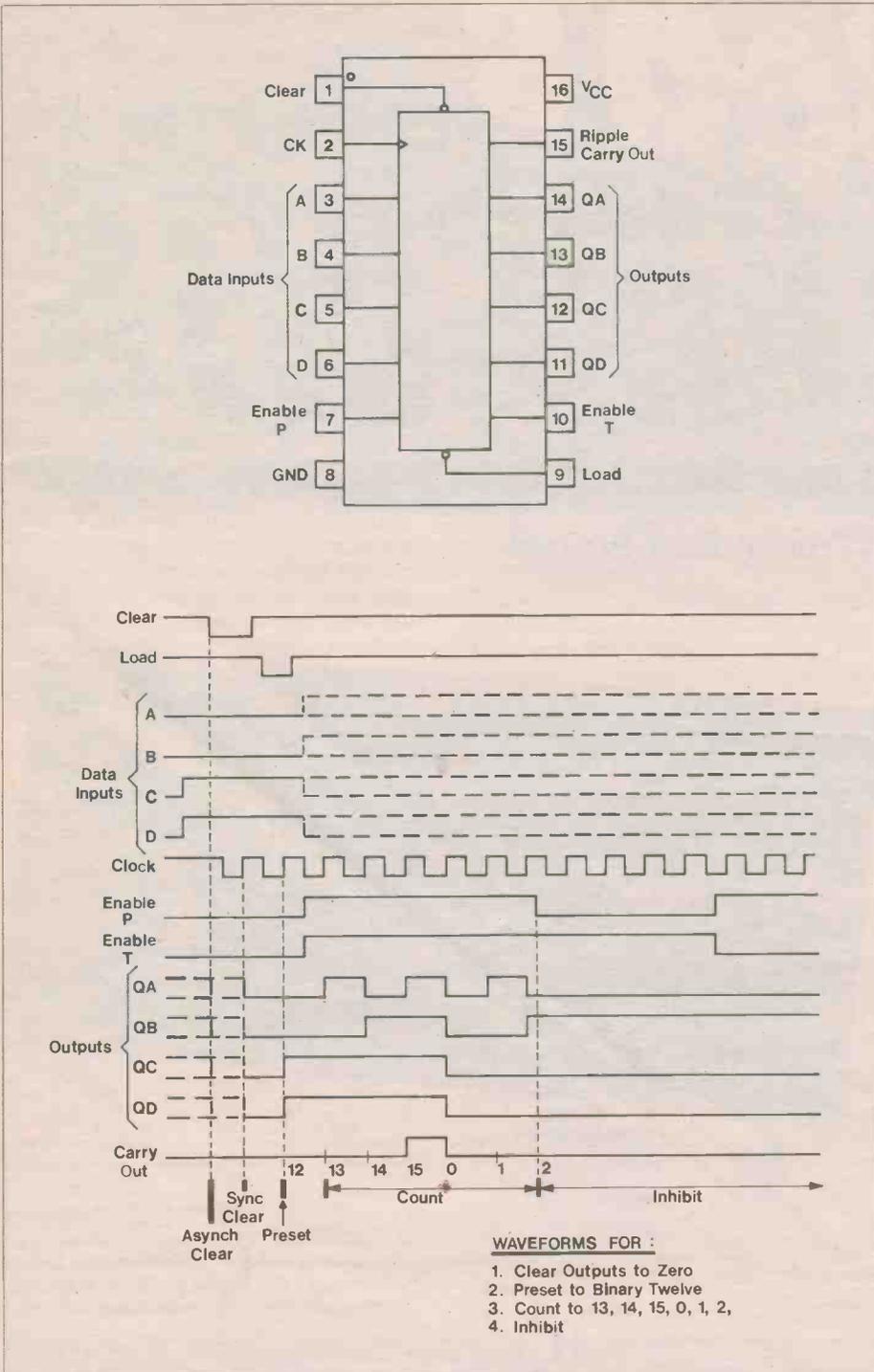


Figure 11. The SN74160-3 programmable counters.

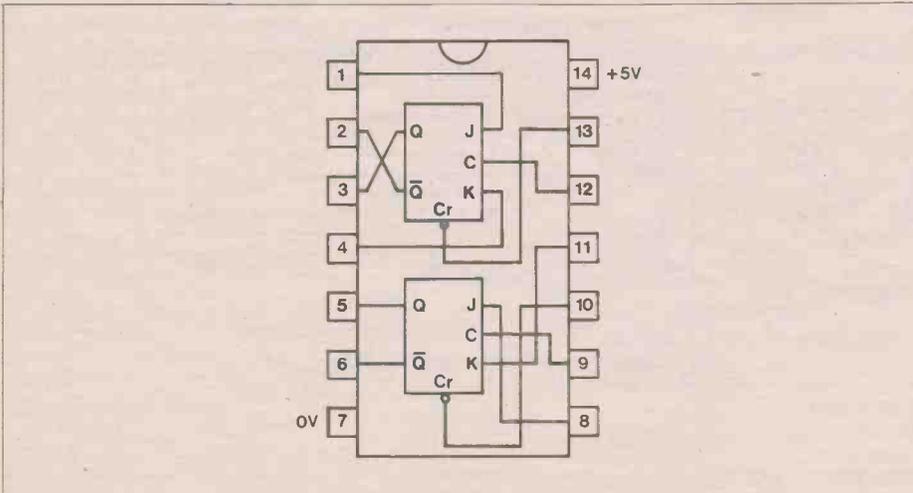


Figure 12. Pin-out for 74107 dual JK level-triggered flip-flops.

is generated and is enabled by the T enable line (must be high).

The set of waveforms of Figure 11 should help to make the operation clear.

A negative-going pulse is required to clear the counter, the asynchronous and synchronous 'clears' being shown at the bottom of the diagram. The load pulse is also negative going and, at its leading edge, the 'data in' (binary 12, i.e. 1100 in order DCBA) is preset into the counter ( $Q_D$  to  $Q_A$ ) - see output waveforms lower down. The clock pulse is a regularly recurring square wave that governs the counting rate - the changes at  $Q_D$  to  $Q_A$ , 1100, 1101, 1110, 1111, etc., can be seen quite clearly to occur at the leading edges of the clock pulses. The action of the enable lines, P and T, is also seen. During the count period both are high but, at a count of 2, the P line goes low, stopping the count. If both were taken high at any subsequent instant, counting would resume from the last value. In fact, in the example shown, when P goes high again, T goes low, so the counter remains inhibited. The point that is made is that the operation of the counter is under the control of two independent lines, P and T, and how these are actually used is up to the individual.

There should be enough practical work there to while away a few evenings. Building and testing the circuits described will help in gaining a good understanding of a subject that is often imperfectly understood. As already said, a similar look at registers will be the subject of the next part of this series.

## Appendix - Problems with TTL

Because TTL gates often use a type of output stage known as a 'totem pole', it is possible to generate, in normal use, short duration current spikes while conduction is changing over from one half of the totem pole to the other, a process that occurs when the output switches between logic levels. Thorough decoupling of TTL circuits is, therefore, advised. The following guidelines are suggested to cure or avoid problems of this type.

- Use one 10nF - 100nF short-lead disc ceramic capacitor across the supply lines for every four gate packages.
- Use one similarly for every two MSI packages (e.g. counters and shift registers).
- Use a separate such capacitor for every package that is further away than 3" (75mm) from the nearest bypass capacitor.
- Use a 10 $\mu$ F 6V tantalum electrolytic capacitor where the +5V supply lines enter the board.



LM3915N, but there must be many other applications which require dual bargraph displays, and where this circuit could be used to good effect. Although the unit is based on a single driver chip, it has two separate inputs and can be used exactly as if it had two driver chips.

Multiplexing is very straightforward in principle, and it merely involves repeatedly driving first one display and then the other. The switching frequency must be high enough to avoid display flicker, which means that each display must be pulsed on at least twenty five times per second, and preferably somewhat more frequently than this. With most digital displays there is no difficulty in doing this, but with a bargraph display there is a slight problem in that the input is an analogue signal. The two input signals must be switched in unison with the switching of the displays, but analogue electronic switches are available at low cost, and this does not represent a tremendous technical problem.

In this circuit the analogue switches are two of the SPST types in a CMOS 4016BE quad analogue switch (IC1). The other two switches are not used and are simply ignored. The outputs of the two switches are connected together and coupled through to the input of the bargraph driver chip (IC3). A two phase oscillator is needed in order to drive the control inputs of the switches out-of-phase, and IC2 operates as this oscillator. It is a 4001BE quad 2 input NOR gate, but in this circuit all four gates are wired to act as simple inverters. IC2c and IC2b operate as a standard CMOS astable having an operating frequency of very roughly 100 Hertz. The other two gates act as inverter/buffers which generate the anti-phase output signals.

Each output of the bargraph driver drives the corresponding cathode terminal of both displays. The appropriate display for whichever input is currently connected is selected by connecting its common cathode terminal to the positive supply rail. Emitter follower switching

transistors TR1 and TR2 provide this switching, and are driven by the two phase output signal of the oscillator. On the prototype the bargraphs are made up from individual 5 millimetre diameter LEDs, but proper bargraph displays can be used if preferred. These mostly have separate cathode and anode terminals for each LED, but components which do not are only suitable if they are of the common anode variety.

IC3 is used in the 'dot' mode in order to keep the current consumption down to an acceptable level. R2 sets the LED current at 10 mA, but as this is split between two displays it only represents about 5 mA per LED. The output current can be boosted somewhat if desired, and changing the value of R2 to 560  $\Omega$  will give a nominal LED current of just over 10 mA per LED. The input sensitivity is the standard 1.2 volts for this series of chips, but this can obviously be changed by the addition of an input amplifier or attenuator.

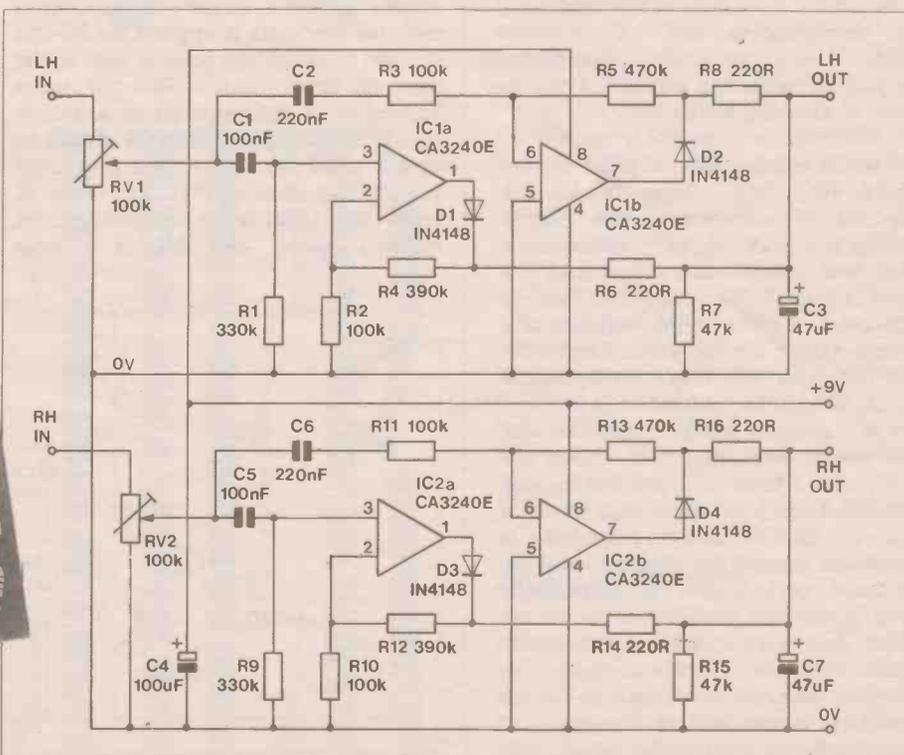
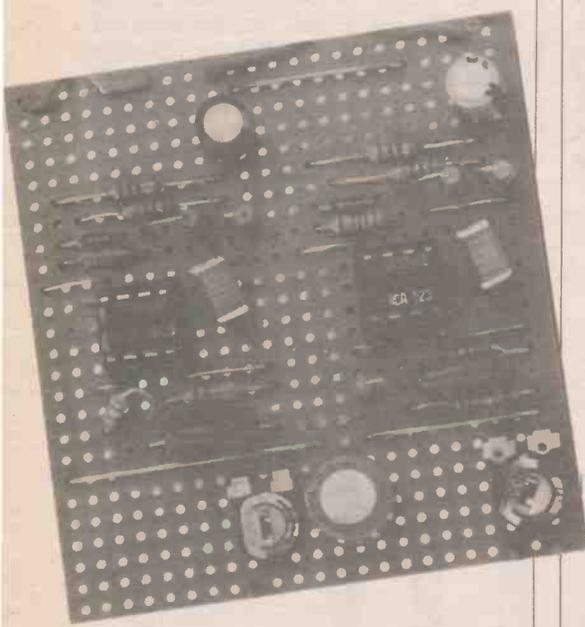
## Stereo Vu Meter

This circuit was designed primarily as an add-on to the stereo bargraph unit described elsewhere in this feature. It converts the twin bargraph circuit into a stereo Vu meter of the peak reading variety. Using the LM3915N bargraph driver the unit provides indications at 3dB intervals. Just what level each LED corresponds to obviously depends on how the unit is calibrated, but typically the unit would provide indications from -21dB through to +6dB, or perhaps -24dB to +3dB. At maximum sensitivity the circuit requires only about 200 millivolts rms for full scale indication, and each channel has a separate variable attenuator to permit accurate calibration. The input impedance is in the region of

47k. If a conventional Vu meter is preferred to a LED bargraph type, the bargraph circuit can easily be replaced with two (moving coil) Vu meters.

Many Vu meters are simple average reading types, but these offer what is generally accepted as less than totally reliable results. The problem is simply that meters of this type are calibrated using a sine wave test signal, and this type of waveform has a fairly high average level relative to its peak amplitude. A signal which has a spiky waveform will then produce quite a low average reading even with the peaks of the waveform going well beyond the clipp-

ing level. Much more reliable results are obtained using a circuit which has a fast attack time and a very much longer decay time. Typically these times are around 2 milliseconds and 5 seconds respectively. The meter then reads the peak amplitude of the signal, and with the hold-on provided by the very slow decay time, any readings beyond the 0db level should be clearly indicated. In fact with most designs the odd transient exceeding the 0dB level will pass undetected, but in practice signals of this type are few and far between, and would not significantly degrade the audio quality anyway.



Stereo Vu Meter

Stereo Vu Meter Circuit

This circuit is a fairly conventional type, and as the two channels are essentially the same we will only consider the operation of one of them (the left hand channel). The circuit is basically just a precision fullwave rectifier. Semiconductor diodes introduce a forward voltage drop, with a substantial drop of about 0.6 volts being produced in the case of silicon types. With the bargraph circuit having a full scale sensitivity of about 1.2 volts, this would give very poor accuracy. Not all types of diode are as bad in this respect as silicon types, but none provide quite the degree of accuracy required for this application. The diodes are therefore included in the negative feedback networks of operational amplifiers, and the feedback precisely compensates for the forward voltage drops through the diodes. In

order to give fullwave rectification, two precision rectifiers connected in parallel are used. One is based on a non-inverting amplifier (IC1a), and this processes the positive half cycles. The other is built around an inverting amplifier (IC1b), and this inverts negative input half cycles to give a positive output. Note that the CA3240E is a type that can operate with a single supply rail, and that most other types (the 1458C for example) will not function properly in this circuit unless a dual supply is used. C3 is the smoothing capacitor, and a fast attack time is obtained due to the low source impedance from which it is driven. Its only significant discharge path is through the much higher resistance of R7, which gives the circuit its long decay time.

Construction of the unit should prove to be quite easy, but remember that the

CA3240E is a MOS input type, and the usual anti-static handling precautions should be taken when dealing with IC1 and IC2. If moving coil V<sub>u</sub> meters are preferred, two Maplin (RW73Q) V<sub>u</sub> meter movements are suitable, and these should be driven from the outputs via 15k series resistors. This gives lower sensitivity and a shorter decay time than using the stereo bargraph circuit, but performance in both respects is still perfectly adequate.

In order to calibrate the unit, a steady signal at the 0dB level is applied to both inputs. RV1 and RV2 are then adjusted for the lowest sensitivities that result in their respective 0dB LEDs lighting. If meters are driven from the outputs, then the presets are adjusted for precisely 0dB indications from both meters.

## Simple Fibre-Optic Link

Most fibre-optic audio link designs use a frequency modulated carrier wave, and the system described in Issue 20 of this magazine falls into this category. An f.m. system enables good range with a low signal to noise ratio to be obtained, but probably its main attraction is the low distortion level that can be attained. There is inevitably a degree of non-linearity through the transmitting LED and the receiving photocell (normally a photo-diode), but this lack of linearity does not affect the audio quality of an f.m. system. The photocells are merely handling pulse signals, and it is the frequency of the pulses rather than their precise waveform that is of importance. The linearity of the system is largely governed by the quality of the modulator and demodulators, and with modern circuits a distortion level of well under 1% can be achieved without having to resort to anything too exotic.

While there is probably no serious alternative to some form of pulse system where very high quality results are required, a somewhat more simple approach is perfectly valid where just a basic link is required. For example, if a voice link is all that is required there is little point in going to the expense of a system having the full audio bandwidth plus hi-fi noise and distortion figures. A simple amplitude modulation (a.m.) system will provide perfectly good results. The system described here shows just how simple a fibre optic link can be, and although I expected quite high levels of distortion from the design, provided it is not driven beyond the clipping level the distortion performance is surprisingly good. It certainly provides a speech link which has substantially better audio quality than an average intercom or telephone link. For someone who has yet to dabble in the field of fibre-optics it provides a very inexpensive introduction to this fascinating subject.

## Transmitter

The system is designed to be fed from a microphone at the transmitter, and to drive an earpiece or headphones from the receiver. At the transmitter, TR1 is the microphone preamplifier, and this is a common emitter amplifier which provides over 40dB of voltage gain. The input characteristics of this stage are best suited to medium impedance dynamic (communications) microphones, but good results also seem to be obtained with low and high impedance dynamic microphones, or any types with similar output characteristics.

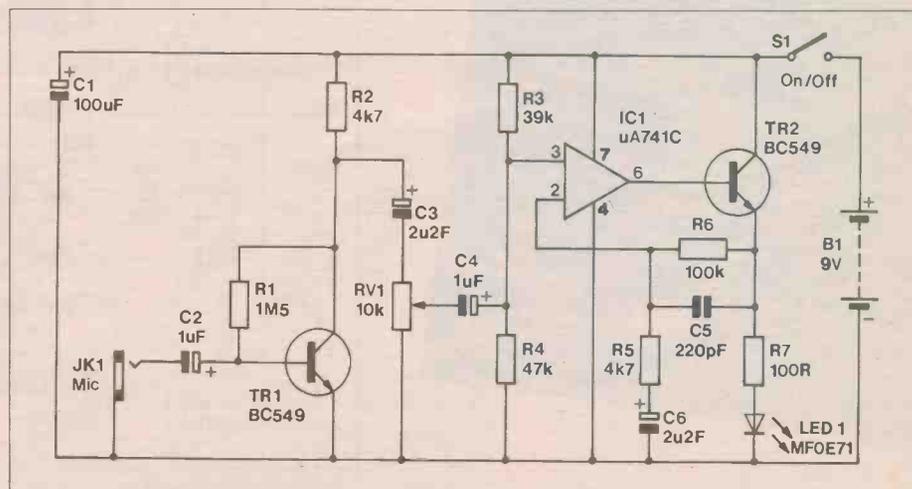
RV1 is the microphone gain control, and from here the signal is coupled to the output amplifier. This has IC1 as a non-inverting amplifier and TR2 as a discrete emitter follower output stage. Overall negative feedback is applied via R5 and R6, and these set the voltage gain at just over 20 times (26dB). The full audio bandwidth is not required in a simple system of this type, and so C5 is used to give a small amount of high frequency roll-off. This gives an improved signal to noise ratio. LED1 is the transmitting light emitting diode, and this is a type

specifically designed for fibre optic applications. R7 sets the quiescent LED current at approximately 35 mA. When the unit is fully driven the output current varies between zero and about 70 mA, giving an average of 35 mA. This is comfortably within the 100 milliamp maximum current rating of the MFOE71 used in the LED1 position.

## Receiver

The photocell at the receiver is a photo-diode that is designed to complement the LED at the transmitter. Both have peak response in the visible red to near infra-red part of the spectrum, and both work well with the Maplin fibre optic cable. Normally photo diodes are operated in the reverse biased mode, and generate an output signal due to the increased leakage caused by received light. In this application a stronger output seemed to be obtained using LED2 in the voltaic mode. In other words, it acts rather like a solar-cell, with the received light being converted directly into electrical signals. In this mode the polarity of LED2 is unimportant.

Only a very low output level of typically under 1 millivolt peak to peak is



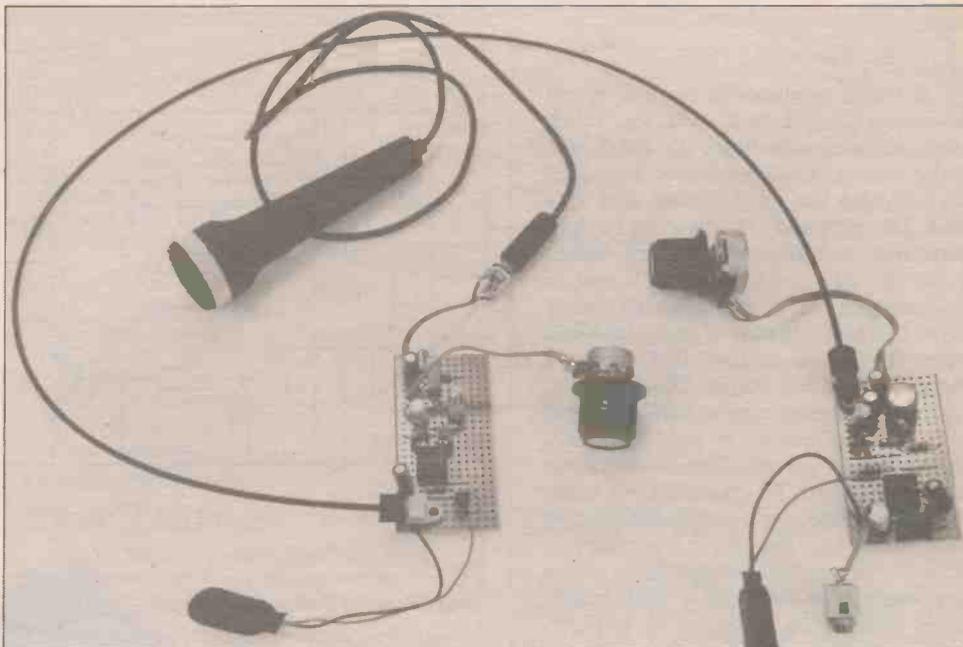
Fibre-optic Transmitter Circuit

produced by LED2, and consequently a great deal of amplification is needed in order to produce a strong enough output to give good volume from headphones. A two stage amplifier is used, and this has obvious similarities to the transmitter circuit. It differs mainly in that the emitter follower output stage has been omitted, and the feedback values for IC1 have been altered slightly in order to give increased voltage gain. IC1 provides about 40dB of gain, giving an overall gain in excess of 80dB (10000 times).

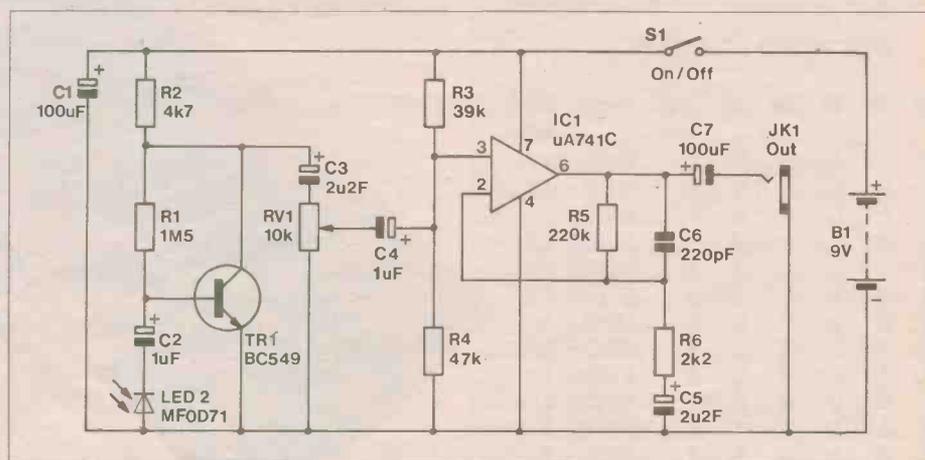
The output will drive a crystal earphone, or most types of headphone. With high impedance types it is preferable to use parallel connection of the earphones if possible, but with low and medium impedance types series connection will almost certainly give better results. Note that it is only possible to drive reasonably sensitive headphones from the unit, and types which are intended for direct connection to loud-speaker outputs are unsuitable. The current consumption of the unit is only about 3 mA, but this might increase somewhat when the unit is used at high volume levels with some types of headphone.

Construction does not present any great difficulties, and although both units contain high gain amplifiers, these do not seem to be especially fussy about the component layout. However, the leads which carry the microphone signal and the signal from LED2 at the receiver must be screened types unless they are no more than about 20 millimetres or so in length. The photocells both have a sort of screw terminal arrangement that is used to hold the cable in position, but the ends of the cable must be suitably prepared first. This is a matter of first cutting the ends of the cable cleanly at right angles with a sharp modelling knife, and then removing about 3 to 5 millimetres of the outer sleeving at both ends of the cable. Make sure that the cable is fully pushed into each photocell, and only tighten the 'terminals' just enough to firmly lock the cable in place.

When initially testing the system it is probably best to use a piece of cable about 30 millimetres or so in length. Talking into the microphone should be so strong that the volume control (RV1 at the receiver) has to be almost fully backed off. For optimum results the microphone gain control should be advanced as far as possible without the signal becoming clipped and seriously distorted. The volume control is then adjusted to give the required volume level. Although the gain of the unit might seem to be excessive when tested with a short cable (and is in fact about 40dB too high), bear in mind that losses through a fibre optic cable are generally far higher than those through an ordinary audio cable. The maximum range of the unit is therefore unlikely to be more than about 10 to 20 metres. If necessary, R6 can be made a little lower in value so as to boost the gain of the receiver.



Fibre-optic Transmitter and Receiver



Fibre-optic Receiver Circuit

## Serial-Parallel Converter

When a computer is used to control electric motors, solenoids, etc., the data is generally extracted from the computer via a parallel port of some kind. For example, the user ports of the BBC model B and certain Commodore computers are often used for this sort of thing. In some applications it can be much better to use a serial output, and this mainly means applications like control of a 'turtle' or other robot. Serial communications has the advantage of requiring as little as two connecting wires, and even at high baud rates quite long ranges are readily achieved without compromising reliability. With parallel communications there can be difficulties over ranges of more than about 2 metres, and a thick ribbon type connecting cable is often less than convenient.

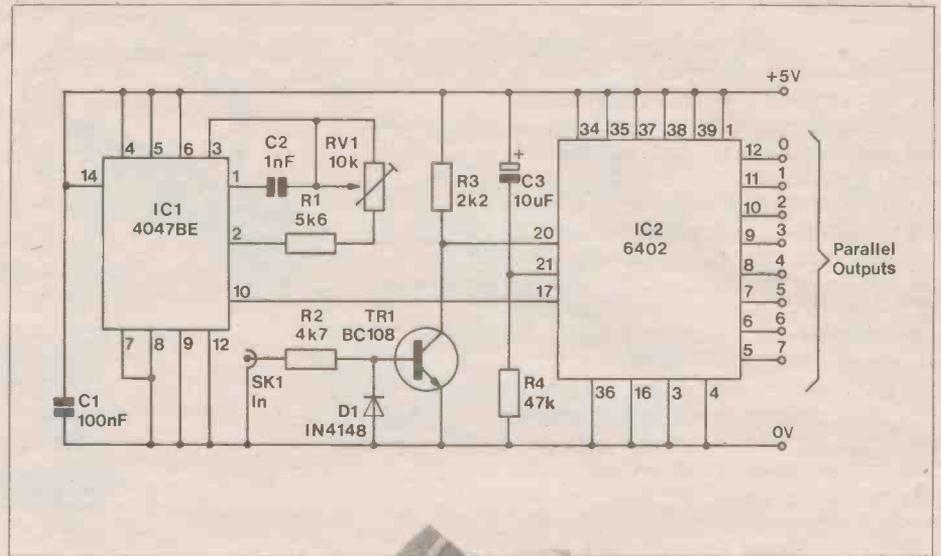
The obvious drawback of using a serial port for this sort of thing is that the robot (or whatever) must include a serial to parallel data converter, with the individual outputs then being interfaced to motors, etc. The serial to parallel conversion can be achieved much more easily than you might expect, and without

consuming large amounts of supply current. This data converter is based on the industry standard UART (universal asynchronous receiver/transmitter) and just a handful of other components, but it can handle any standard baud rate and word format. The current consumption of the unit is only around 4 milliamps. It can be driven from any standard RS232 or RS423 output, and it gives from 5 to 8 CMOS compatible latching outputs (the number of outputs depends on the word format used).

The UART (IC2) does most of the work, with data on the serial input being clocked into a shift register where the start, stop and parity bits (if used) are stripped off leaving the data. The received byte is then transferred to an eight bit latch which provides the parallel output data. A reset pulse is needed at switch-on, and this is provided by C3 and R4. The input signal will be at approximate levels of plus and minus 12 volts, and this must be converted to an ordinary 5 volt logic signal before it is applied to the serial input of IC2. An inversion of the signal is also required. The necessary signal conditioning is provided by the simple common emitter switching stage

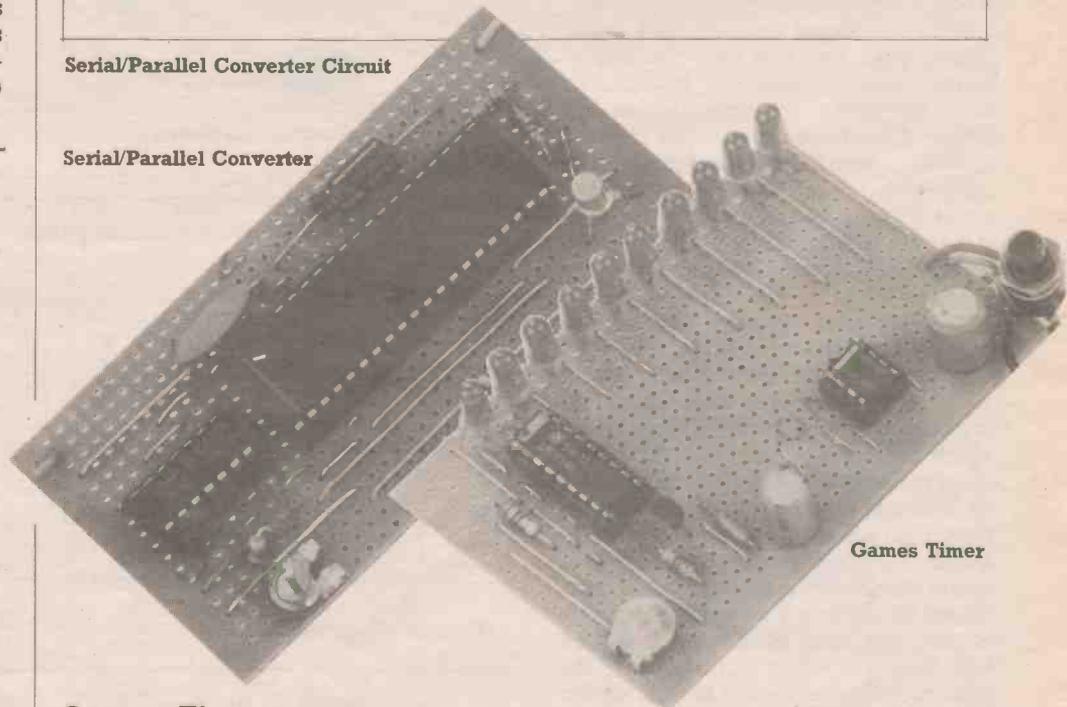
based on TR1.

A clock oscillator is needed to set the correct baud rate, and the clock frequency is sixteen times the baud rate. In this circuit, a C-R oscillator based on IC1 provides the clock signal, and RV1 must be trimmed to give an output frequency of adequate accuracy. There is no difficulty in adjusting RV1, and in the absence of a suitable frequency meter it is just a matter of using trial and error to find a setting that gives a correctly decoded output. The specified values are for operation at 1200 baud, but by using the output at pin 13 of IC1 (instead of pin 10) operation at 2400 baud can be obtained. By changing the value of C2 it is possible to accommodate other baud rates, and the clock frequency is inversely proportional to the value of this component. For example, a 2n2F component would give operation at 600/1200 baud.



Serial/Parallel Converter Circuit

Serial/Parallel Converter



Games Timer

### 6402 WORD FORMATS

35	36	37	38	39	Data Bits	Parity	Stop Bits
L	L	L	L	L	5	ODD	1
L	H	L	L	L	5	ODD	1.5
L	L	L	L	H	5	EVEN	1
L	H	L	L	H	5	EVEN	1.5
H	L	L	L	X	5	NONE	1
H	H	L	L	X	5	NONE	1.5
L	L	L	H	L	6	ODD	1
L	H	L	H	L	6	ODD	2
L	L	L	H	H	6	EVEN	1
L	H	L	H	H	6	EVEN	2
H	L	L	H	X	6	NONE	1
H	H	L	H	X	6	NONE	2
L	L	H	L	L	7	ODD	1
L	H	H	L	L	7	ODD	2
L	L	H	L	H	7	EVEN	1
L	H	H	L	H	7	EVEN	2
H	L	H	L	X	7	NONE	1
H	H	H	L	X	7	NONE	2
L	L	H	H	L	8	ODD	1
L	H	H	H	L	8	ODD	2
L	L	H	H	H	8	EVEN	1
L	H	H	H	H	8	EVEN	2
H	L	H	H	X	8	NONE	1
H	H	H	H	X	8	NONE	2

H = High, L = Low, X = either state will do.

Table 1

IC2 is programmed for the required word format by tying 5 inputs (pins 35 to 39) to the appropriate logic levels. The circuit diagram shows the connection needed for the most popular word format of eight data bits, one stop bit, and no parity. Table 1 gives the input levels for all the other available formats, and should be consulted if you wish to use a different one. Note though, that the number of outputs available is equal to the number of data bits used, and that using other than eight data bits results in a reduction in the number of outputs available. For word formats of less than eight bits it is the most significant bit or bits that are unused.

### Games Timer

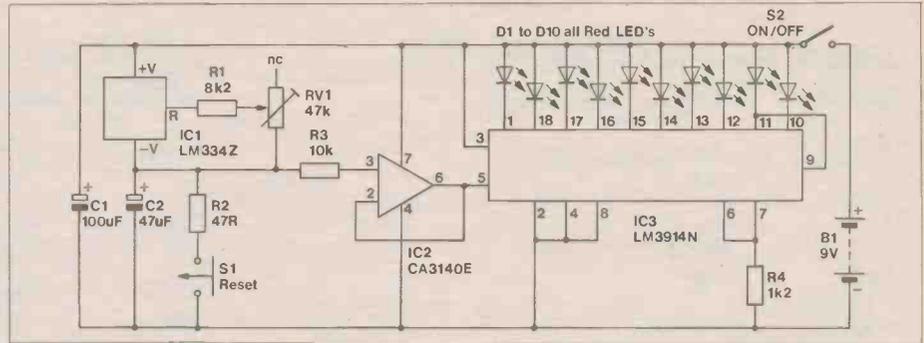
A lot of board games, including chess and draughts, can easily become very slow and drawn out with players taking ever longer to make their moves. The obvious solution to this problem is to have a time limit on moves, but some convenient method of keeping time is then needed. This is the type of application in which a simple electronic timer can be used to good effect, and the simple timer described here was designed specifically for games use. It is very easy to operate, and elapsed time is indicated on a bargraph type display. Strictly speaking it is not a true bargraph as the driver device is operated in the 'dot' mode, where only a single LED is switched on at any one time. There are ten LEDs, and the time taken for the display to increment from one LED to the next can be set at anything from around one to five seconds, giving full scale times of between about 10 and 50 seconds. The unit can easily be modified to provide times outside this range though. It is useful to be able to see how much time has elapsed (even if only a rough indication is provided), rather than simply having a unit which suddenly

provides a 'time-out' signal. When a player makes a move, he or she operates a reset button which sets the display back to zero and starts the next timing run.

This type of timer could be based on digital or analogue circuits, and this particular design is of analogue variety. It consists basically of a C-R timer circuit driving a bargraph driver via a buffer stage. A drawback of a standard C-R timer circuit in this application is that the output voltage rises exponentially. In other words, it starts off rising at a relatively fast rate, but gradually slows down as the charge voltage rises. This could give (say) 2 seconds for the first LED to be activated, but around 20 seconds between LEDs nine and ten being switched on. The problem is easily overcome by charging the timing capacitor via a constant current generator instead of using a resistor to control the charge rate.

In this circuit, IC1 is the constant current generator, and the LM334Z is specifically designed for use as a current regulator. R1 and RV1 set the output current, and RV1 is adjusted to give the required full scale time. S1 is the reset

switch, and this merely discharges timing capacitor C2 when it is operated. R2 provides current limiting to prevent contact sparking that could otherwise result in S1 having a very short operating life. In order to ensure proper operation of the circuit it is essential that there is minimal loading on C2, and IC2 is therefore used to buffer the output voltage. This is an ultra high input resistance device which has an input resistance of around 1.5 million megohms. It is also a type which is suitable for single supply operation. Few other devices will function properly in the IC2 position of this circuit. The bargraph driver is the popular LM3914N which is operated in the 'dot' mode in order to keep the current consumption down to a satisfactory level. R4 sets the LED current at about 10 milliamps. A lower LED current can be used satisfactorily with some displays, and raising R4 to about 2.2k ohms in value will then give a useful



**Games Timer Circuit**

reduction in supply current.

Construction of the unit is reasonably straightforward, but if the display LEDs are individual types, they must be mounted in a row and in sequence in order to give a neat and meaningful readout. If preferred, a proper ten LED bargraph display can be used for D1 to D10. IC2 is a MOS input device, and consequently requires the standard anti-static handling precautions. As IC3 is a

fairly expensive device it should be fitted in a holder.

Adjusting RV1 for the required full scale time is a matter of using trial and error. Delay times outside the normal adjustment range of RV1 can be obtained by altering the value of C2, and delay times are proportional to the value of this component. Very long timing periods are not feasible though, as the value of C2 would need to be impractically large.

## SERIAL-PARALLEL CONVERTER PARTS LIST

RESISTORS: All 0.6W 1% Metal Film

R1	5k6	1	(M5K6)
R2	4k7	1	(M4K7)
R3	2k2	1	(M2K2)
R4	47k	1	(M47K)
RV1	10k Sub-min Hor Preset	1	(WR58N)

CAPACITORS

C1	100nF Ceramic	1	(BX03D)
C2	1nF Poly layer	1	(WW22Y)
C3	10µF 50V PC Electrolytic	1	(FF04E)

SEMICONDUCTORS

IC1	4047BE	1	(QX20W)
IC2	6402	1	(QQ04E)
TR1	BC108	1	(QB32K)
D1	1N4148	1	(QL80B)

MISCELLANEOUS

SK1	Phono Socket	1	(YW06G)
	14 pin DIL Socket	1	(BL18U)
	40 pin DIL Socket	1	(HQ38R)

## STEREO V<sub>U</sub> METER PARTS LIST

RESISTORS: All 0.6W 1% Metal Film

R1,9	330k	2	(M330K)
R2,3,10,11	100k	4	(M100K)
R4,12	390k	2	(M390K)
R5,13	470k	2	(M470K)
R6,8,14,16	220Ω	4	(M220R)
R7,15	47k	2	(M47K)
RV1,2	100k Sub-Min Hor Preset	2	(WR61R)

CAPACITORS

C1,5	100nF Poly Layer	2	(WW41U)
C2,6	220nF Poly Layer	2	(WW45Y)
C3,7	47µF 25V PC Electrolytic	2	(FF08J)
C4	100µF 10V PC Electrolytic	1	(FF10L)

SEMICONDUCTORS

IC1,2	CA3240E	2	(WQ21X)
D1,2,3,4	1N4148	4	(QL80B)

MISCELLANEOUS

	8 pin DIL Socket	2	(BL17T)
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## STEREO BARGRAPH PARTS LIST

RESISTORS: All 0.6W 1% Metal Film

R1	1M	1	(M1M)
R2	1k2	1	(M1K2)

CAPACITORS

C1	10nF Poly Layer	1	(WW29G)
C2	47µF 16V Axial Electrolytic	1	(FB38R)

SEMICONDUCTORS

IC1	4016BE	1	(QX08J)
IC2	4001BE	1	(QX01B)
IC3	LM3915	1	(YY96E)
TR1,2	BC547	2	(QQ14Q)
DISP1,2	5mm LED	20	(WL27E)

MISCELLANEOUS

	14 pin IC Socket	2	(BL18U)
	18 pin IC Socket	1	(HQ76H)

## GAMES TIMER PARTS LIST

RESISTORS: All 0.6W 1% Metal Film

R1	8k2	1	(M8K2)
R2	47R	1	(M47R)
R3	10k	1	(M10K)
R4	1k2	1	(M1K2)
RV1	47k Sub-min Hor Preset	1	(WR60Q)

CAPACITORS

C1	100µF 10V PC Electrolytic	1	(FF10L)
C2	47µF 25V PC Electrolytic	1	(FF08J)

SEMICONDUCTORS

IC1	LM334Z	1	(WQ32K)
IC2	CA3140E	1	(QH29G)
IC3	LM3914N	1	(WQ41U)
D1 to D10	5mm Red LED	10	(WL27E)

MISCELLANEOUS

S1	Push to Make Switch	1	(FH60Q)
S2	SPST Ultra-min Toggle	1	(FH97F)
B1	Battery 1.5V	6	(FK35E)
	Battery Holder	1	(HQ01B)
	Battery Connector	1	(HF28F)
	DIL IC Holder 8 pin	1	(BL17T)
	DIL IC Holder 18 pin	1	(HQ76H)

## FIBRE OPTIC TRANSMITTER PARTS LIST

RESISTORS: All 0.6W 1% Metal Film

R1	1M5	1	(M1M5)
R2,6	4k7	2	(M4K7)
R3	39k	1	(M39K)
R4	47k	1	(M47K)
R6	100k	1	(M100K)
R7	100Ω	1	(M100R)
RV1	10k log pot	1	(FW22Y)

### CAPACITORS

C1	100μF 10V PC Electrolytic	1	(FF10L)
C2,4	1μF 100V PC Electrolytic	2	(FF01B)
C3,6	2μ2F 100V PC Electrolytic	2	(FF02C)
C5	220pF Ceramic	1	(WX60Q)

### SEMICONDUCTORS

TR1,2	BC849	2	(QQ15R)
IC1	μA741C	1	(QL22Y)
LED1	MFOE71	1	(FD14Q)

### MISCELLANEOUS

B1	9 Volt Battery (PP9)	1	(FM05F)
S1	SPST Ultra-min Toggle	1	(FH97F)
JK1	3.5mm Jack	1	(HF82D)
	8 pin DIL Socket	1	(BL17T)
	Battery Clips	1	(HF27E)
	Microphone	1	(YB31J)
	Fibre-optic Cable	As req	(XR56L)

## FIBRE OPTIC RECEIVER PARTS LIST

RESISTORS: All 0.6W 1% Metal Film

R1	1M5	1	(M1M5)
R2	4k7	1	(M4K7)
R3	39k	1	(M39K)
R4	47k	1	(M47K)
R5	220k	1	(M220K)
R6	2k2	1	(M2K2)
RV1	10k log pot	1	(FW22Y)

### CAPACITORS

C1,7	100μF 10V PC Electrolytic	2	(FF10L)
C2,4	1μF 100V PC Electrolytic	2	(FF01B)
C3,5	2μ2F 100V PC Electrolytic	2	(FF02C)
C6	220pF Ceramic	1	(WX60Q)

### SEMICONDUCTORS

TR1	BC849	1	(QQ15R)
IC1	μA741C	1	(QL22Y)
LED2	MFOD71	1	(FD12N)

### MISCELLANEOUS

B1	9 Volt Battery (PP3)	1	(FK58N)
S1	SPST Ultra-min Toggle	1	(FH97F)
JK1	3.5mm Jack	1	(HF82D)
	8 pin DIL Socket	1	(BL17T)
	Battery Clip	1	(HF28F)
	Earphone	1	(LB25C)

# Maplin's Big Heart

By J. Rose

On the 19th of June this year, on a field in south London around 20,000 people will gather to join in on one of the most popular fund raising events in the cycling calendar – the annual London to Brighton bike ride. This year the line up will include at least two members of the Maplin team. From the Birmingham branch Dave Kirk, who regularly cycles the Midlands ride, and myself being foolish enough to ride the 56 miles for the second year. All proceeds from the event will be donated to the British Heart Foundation who will use the money for invaluable research work, as well as providing much needed equipment for heart disease sufferers. If you would like to help by sponsoring the Maplin team, get in touch straight away! All sponsorship is very welcome, but I must stress that any approach must be made direct to Dave or myself at the Birmingham shop, Sutton New Road, Erdington B23 6TH. Look in the next issue to see how we get on.



# 1988 CATALOGUE PRICE CHANGES

The price changes shown in this list are valid from 16th May 1988 to 13th August 1988. Prices charged will be those ruling on the day of despatch.

For further details please see 'Prices' on catalogue page 20.

## Price Changes

All items whose prices have changed since the publication of the 1988 catalogue are shown in the list below.

A complete Price List is also available free of charge - order as XF08J.

**Key**  
**DIS** Discontinued.  
**TEMP** Temporarily unobtainable.  
**FEB** Out of stock; new stock expected in month shown.  
**†** An additional £5.50 carriage charge must be added.  
**∞** Indicates that item is zero rated for VAT purposes.  
**★** See 'Amendments To Catalogue'. Note that not all items that require amendments are shown in this list.  
**†** Whilst stocks last

1988 Catalogue Page No.	VAT Inclusive Price	1988 Catalogue Page No.	VAT Inclusive Price	1988 Catalogue Page No.	VAT Inclusive Price	1988 Catalogue Page No.	VAT Inclusive Price	1988 Catalogue Page No.	VAT Inclusive Price			
<b>AERIALS</b>												
<b>Page 38</b>												
XQ23A	Mushkiller FM1083	£13.45	HR61R	Sonotone V100	£7.95	RL34M	Book NB189	£9.95 NV	LH51F	Verobox 305	£3.30	
XQ25C	Mushkiller FM1085	£21.45	HR95D	Sansui SM28	£7.95	RR39N	Towers Transistor Bk.	TEMP	LH14Q	Verobox 401	96p	
XQ27E	Mushkiller FM1087	£33.95	HR79L	Hirachi ST103	£8.95				L030D	Flip-Top Box 601 Bk.	£3.80	
XQ29G	Trucolour TC10 Grp A	£12.65	FV28F	Sharp STY104	£8.95				LH30H	Verobox 705	£7.95	
XQ30H	Trucolour TC10 Grp B	£12.65	FV23A	Panasonic EPS270	£8.95	<b>Page 74</b>						
XQ31J	Trucolour TC10 Grp C/D	£12.65	<b>Page 52</b>			WP67X	Elec Pocket Book	£9.95 NV	<b>Page 98</b>			
XQ32A	Trucolour TC13 Grp A	£14.95	YP45Y	CD Clean System	£4.95	<b>Page 75</b>				F638R	Sink 20	74p
XQ33L	Trucolour TC13 Grp B	£14.95	<b>Page 55</b>			WA10L	TI Linear Circuits	£11.00 NV	F639N	Sink 40	£1.10	
XQ34M	Trucolour TC13 Grp C/D	£14.95	CT33L	Scotch XSMIV-C90	DIS	WP31J	TI TTL Data Vol 1	£14.95 NV	<b>Page 103</b>			
XQ35Q	Trucolour TC18 Grp A	£18.40	CT02D	TDK D-50	£1.50	WG58N	Book FT1193	£13.20 NV	RY06G	Acoustic Wadding	80p	
XQ36P	Trucolour TC18 Grp B	£18.40	CT08J	TDK AD-60	£1.20	<b>Page 76</b>				XR01B	6A Mains Black	37p
XQ37S	Trucolour TC18 Grp C/D	£18.40	CT09K	TDK AD-90	£1.45	WG23A	Book JW568	DIS	XR02C	6A Mains Orange	37p	
XG24B	Trucolour TC18 Grp E	£18.40	CT23A	TDK SA-60	£1.60	WA06G	TI MDS Memory Data	£12.50 NV	XR09K	HD Mains Black	58p	
XQ38R	Extragain XG5	£19.95	CT24B	TDK SA-90	£1.98	<b>Page 77</b>				XR11M	HD Mains Orange	58p
<b>Page 39</b>										XR85G	Clr Cd IDC Cable 50W	£1.45
XQ39N	Extragain XG6 Group A	£30.95	CT27E	TDK SA-X90	£2.50	WG01B	Book NB447	JUL88	<b>CABLES</b>			
XQ40T	Extragain XG6 Group B	£30.95	CT31J	TDK HX5-90	DIS	WP50E	Intro Electronics	£2.95 NV	<b>Page 104</b>			
XQ41U	Extragain XG6 Grp C/D	£30.95	CT39N	TDK MA-R90	£5.95	WM60Q	Mastering Electronic	£4.25 NV	PA56L	100m Bell Wire Bk.	£2.10	
XQ42V	Extragain XG6 Wdbnd	£30.95	<b>Page 57</b>			<b>Page 78</b>				PA57M	100m Bell Wire Blu.	£2.10
XQ43W	Extragain XG14 Group A	£59.50	XJ11M	Video Enhancer 406	£16.95	RH30H	Book BP37	£2.95 NV	PA59P	100m Bell Wire Grn.	£2.10	
XQ44X	Extragain XG14 Group B	£59.50	YP47B	Video-Cine Adaptor	£16.95	XW30H	Cost Effectv Constr.	£5.95 NV	PA60Q	100m Bell Wire Drn.	£2.10	
XQ46A	Extragain XG14 Wdbnd	£59.50	<b>Page 58</b>			<b>Page 79</b>				PA61N	100m Bell Wire Red.	£2.10
XQ50E	Extragain XG21 Wdbnd	£84.95	YP84F	Surge Protector RS232	£3.95	WP41U	Prog in Microelet.	DIS	PA62S	100m Bell Wire Wht.	£2.10	
YM56L	Hi-Tech TV Aerial	£10.75	<b>Page 60</b>			RB10L	Book NB269	£7.95 NV	PA65T	100m Bell Wire Wht.	£2.10	
XQ51F	Super-Set Top	£10.35	F782D	10 D/S Q/D Disk 5.25	£1.80	<b>Page 80</b>				BL01B	7/0.2 Wire 10M Blu.	30p
YX20H	Caratenna	£12.65	YJ72P	10 D/S Q/D Disk 5.25	£14.95	WG53H	Book NB529	£5.95 NV	PA29G	100m 7/0.2 Wire Blu.	£22.50	
XQ52G	Mast Bracket Type 2	£3.95	<b>Page 61</b>			R030H	Book NB355	£8.95 NV	BL02C	7/0.2 Wire 10M Brn.	30p	
XQ53H	Mast Bracket Type 8	£13.95	YK97F	Minibox 10	DIS	XW28R	Book NB480	£8.95 NV	PA47B	100m 7/0.2 Wire Brn.	£2.50	
XQ54J	Mast Bracket Type 8	£13.95	<b>BATTERIES &amp; POWER SUPPLIES</b>			R065W	Book BP550	DIS	PA30H	100m 7/0.2 Wire Brn.	£22.50	
<b>Page 63</b>										PA48C	100m 7/0.2 Wire Grn.	£2.50
BW44X	Mast Bracket Type 14	£3.95	FK55K	Blue Seal R6B	21p	WP00A	Flp Op Laser Handbk	£13.20 NV	PA31J	100m 7/0.2 Wire Grn.	£22.50	
BW45Y	Loft Bracket EM4	£2.50	FK56L	Blue Seal R14B	36p	WP77J	Build Fibreg/Lasr Prj	£12.40 NV	BL04E	7/0.2 Wire 10M Gry.	30p	
XQ55K	Lashing Kit Type 4	£10.35	FK57M	Blue Seal R20B	40p	XW07J	Book BP60	DIS	PA49D	100m 7/0.2 Wire Gry.	£2.50	
XQ57M	Lashing Kit Type 7	£19.50	FK59B	Blue Seal PP3B	75p	WP51F	Audio Projects	£7.95 NV	PA50E	100m 7/0.2 Wire Gry.	£22.50	
XQ59N	Lashing Kit Type 9	£13.75	FK60D	Silver Seal R14S	51p	<b>Page 82</b>				PA50E	100m 7/0.2 Wire Grn.	£2.50
XQ60D	Mast D	£4.35	FK61R	Silver Seal R20S	62p	WG82D	Book FT1364	£8.45 NV	PA33L	100m 7/0.2 Wire Drn.	£22.50	
<b>Page 41</b>										PA51F	100m 7/0.2 Wire Pnk.	£2.50
YK73D	Indoor Amp XB1	£25.95	FK62S	Silver Seal PP3S	£1.07	XW09K	Book NB391	£5.95 NV	BL07H	7/0.2 Wire 10M Red.	30p	
YP59P	Aerial Amp 22.5dB	£37.95	FK63P	Gold Seal LR3	63p	<b>Page 83</b>				PA52G	100m 7/0.2 Wire Red.	£2.50
YP41U	2 Outlet TV Amp	£12.95	FK64U	Gold Seal LR6	63p	XW54J	Book NB439	£3.95 NV	PA35N	100m 7/0.2 Wire Red.	£22.50	
YQ22Y	Xtra Set Amp	£24.95	FK65V	Gold Seal LR14	£1.15	<b>Page 84</b>				BL08J	7/0.2 Wire 10M Vio.	30p
<b>Page 42</b>										WG95D	Book FT1305	£8.70 NV
YP42V	2 Outlet TV/FM Amp	£16.95	FK66W	Gold Seal LR20	£1.28	WP57M	DX Power	£8.00 NV	PA36P	100m 7/0.2 Wire Vio.	£22.50	
BK75S	Xtra Set 3 Amp	£29.50	FK67X	Gold Seal LR22	£2.39	WG80B	Book FT1185	£8.45 NV	BL09K	7/0.2 Wire 10M Wht.	30p	
YN42Z	Xtra Set 4 Amp	£36.95	FM02C	Trans Pwr PP1 6V	£1.99	<b>Page 85</b>				PA54J	100m 7/0.2 Wire Wht.	£2.50
BK76H	TV Amp XB12	£16.45	FM03E	Trans Pwr PP6 9V	£1.69	WM99H	Satellite TV Guide	£9.25 NV	PA37Q	100m 7/0.2 Wire Wht.	£22.50	
<b>Page 43</b>										PA55J	100m 7/0.2 Wire Yel.	£2.50
YP57M	Aerial Combiner A/E	£9.95	FM05F	Trans Pwr PP9 9V	£1.69	WG89V	Book NB132	£9.95 NV	BL10L	7/0.2 Wire 10M Yel.	30p	
YP58N	Aerial Combiner AB/CD	£9.95	FM06J	Trans Pwr PP9 9V	£1.69	WG98V	Book AW868	£3.95 NV	PA38R	100m 7/0.2 Wire Yel.	£22.50	
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BW55K	Flush Co-Ax Outlet	£1.99	OY67X	Photo-Test PX28	£3.64	<b>Page 86</b>				FA28F	16/0.2 Wire 10M Brn.	54p
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<b>Page 44</b>										FA29G	16/0.2 Wire 10M Grn.	54p
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<b>Page 47</b>										XR68Y	50m HC Wire Red.	£10.95
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<b>Page 48</b>										XW79L	Book C300	£17.95 NV
FV16S	ME70-B Shure Cart.	£13.95	FM23A	Merc Batt RM675H	58p	WM77J	Working dBase II	£9.95 NV	PB02C	25m Min Ext Flex Red.	£2.05	
FV13P	ME75-6S Shure Cart.	£14.95	FM24B	Merc Batt BP675	48p	<b>Page 90</b>				BL16S	EC Wire 2.0mm 14swg.	57p
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FV14Q	ME75-ED 2 Shure Cart.	£23.95	FS75S	Silver Batt B-SR57L	TEMP	<b>Page 91</b>				BL24B	EC Wire 1.6mm 16swg.	55p
FV18U	ME95-ED Shure Cart.	£26.95	<b>Page 65</b>			tVW80B	20 ZX81 Projects	£6.45 NV	YN80B	250 ECW 1.6mm 16swg.	£2.10	
FV17T	ME97-HE Shure Cart.	£39.50	YJ89A	1.2Ah L/Acid Bat 12V	£13.95	WG61R	Book HD192	DIS	BL25C	EC Wire 1.25mm 18swg.	55p	
HR39N	BSR TC	£1.50	<b>Page 66</b>			WM37S	Und Auto Syst	£14.50 NV	YN81C	250 ECW 1.25mm 18swg.	£2.10	
HR51F	Renetta BF40	£1.50	FE09Q	Ni Cad AAA	£1.80	<b>BOXES</b>				YN82D	250 ECW 0.9mm 20swg.	£2.15
FV27E	BSR ST4	£2.20	YG00A	Ni Cad AAA	£1.38	<b>Page 92</b>				BL27E	EC Wire 0.71mm 22swg.	64p
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HR87U	Philips AG3006	£2.20	WP46A	Micro Elec Dictionary	£1.95 NV	LH56L	Potting Box Min	18p	YN84F	250 ECW 0.5mm 24swg.	£2.45	
HR60D	Sonotone 91TAHC	£2.20	WA20W	Understanding Electrnics	£14.50 NV	LH57M	Potting Box Small	28p	BL23G	EC Wire 0.45mm 26swg.	68p	
HR42V	BSR ST10	£2.20	XW64U	Book NB449	£5.95 NV	D99F	Potting Box Medium	38p	YN85G	250 ECW 0.45mm 26swg.	£2.50	
YX27E	Sony NID 15P	£7.95	WA21Y	Understanding Dig Elec	£14.50 NV	FN59P	Potting Box Ex Large	48p	BL23N	EC Wire 0.375mm 28swg.	69p	
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HR53H	Garrard KS40A	£2.20	RL27E	Book NB147	£9.95 NV	WG90X	Smil Remote Cntrl Bx	£3.50	BL40T	EC Wire 0.315mm 30swg.	72p	
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HR47B	BSR ST17	£2.20	<b>Page 72</b>			<b>Page 94</b>				BL41U	EC Wire 0.28mm 32swg.	78p
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JC77J Pozzi Screw M4 40mm	34p
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JG80W Pozzi Screw M3 35mm	30p
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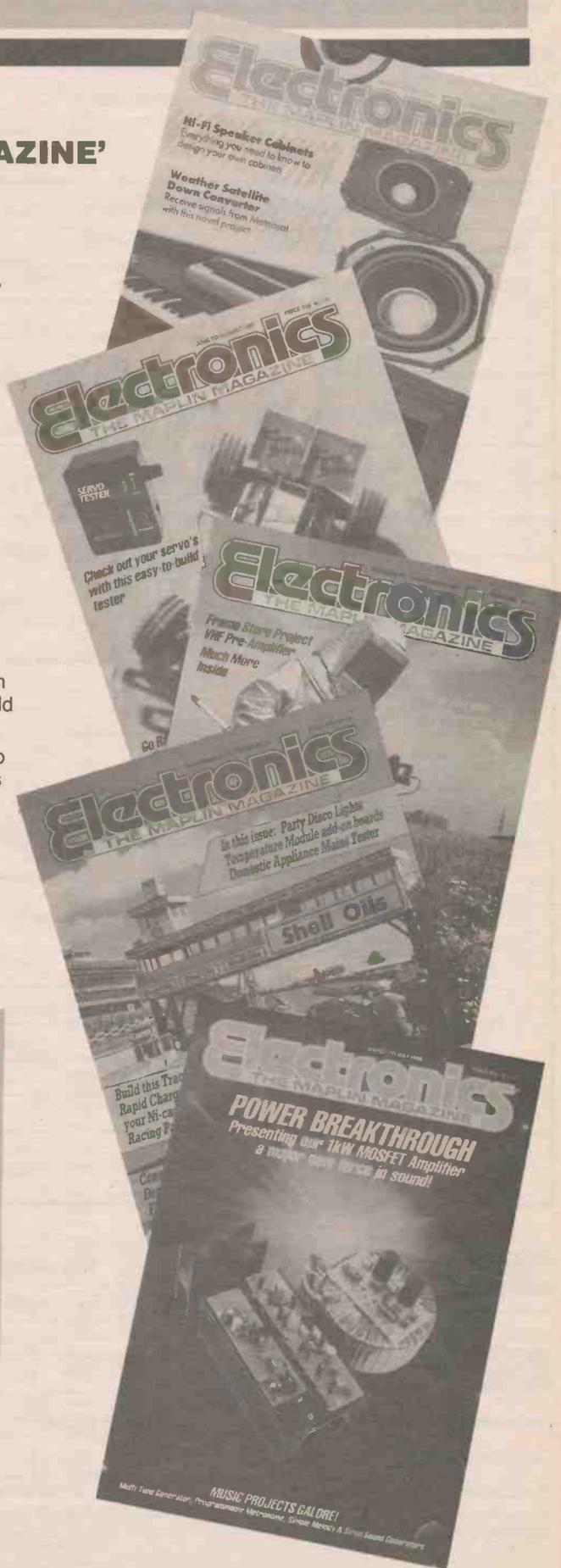
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WP79L Build Robot 2nd Edition	Price £10.35 NV
WP80B Electronics for E & E	Price £9.95 NV
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LM44X Simple Melody Generator (V2) Kit	Price £2.50
LM45Y Simple Melody Generator (V3) Kit	Price £2.50
LM46A Simple Melody Generator (V4) Kit	Price £2.50
LM47B Multi-Tune Generator Kit	Price £8.95
LM49D Metronome Kit	Price £29.95
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# AMENDMENTS TO 1988 CATALOGUE

**Cordless Phone** (Page 130). The range of our cordless phone, YM81C, is 100m not 200m.

**Light Fittings** (Page 170). Lampholder FQ02C and batten holder LB63T are approved to BS 5042, BSS2 is now withdrawn.

**Guitar Amp** (Page 205). A strap is not provided with Guitar Amp YP49D.

**Digital Master Oscillator DM02** (Page 227). In Figure 1, the plus and minus symbols on REC2 are incorrect. Pin C is the negative line.

**Gold Contact Wire** (Page 230). Due to a change by the supplier, this product is now supplied in 1 yard lengths, not 1 metre lengths.

**Ultrasonic Intruder Detector** (Page 245). The pcb's for this kit are: GB00A (Ultrasonic Xvr PCB) Price £1.95 and GB01B (Ultrasonic IF PCB) Price £1.95.

**Frame Store** (Page 287). In the additional parts list the transformer should be a YK09K not a YK11M.

**Spectrum RS232 Interface** (Page 294). The pictures for this and the VIC 20 Talkback have been transposed.

**Chassis 1 1/4in. Fuseholder** (Page 300). A new style is now being supplied. Dimensions are 53mm long x 18mm high x 12mm wide, and a solder or screw connection is available.

**1 1/4" Quickblow Fuses** (Page 301). WR96E is now a 160mA type not 150mA.

**R-C Network** (Page 301). Due to a change by the supplier, the contact suppressor is now made up from a 120Ω resistor (±30%) and a 0.1µF (±20%) capacitor.

**Door Guard Battery** (Page 307). The order code for the recommended battery for use by 'Door Guard' should be FK67X and not FK64U.

**UM3561** (Page 380). The list of pin connections are transposed. Where it says Pin 1 it should be Pin 6 and vice versa.

**NE544** (Page 389). In the application circuit, C1, C2 and C5 values are shown in µF, they should be in nF. 2764 EPROM (Page 412). The Vpp of this device is +12.5V not +21V.

**Fan** (Page 423). Standard fan WY08J's cable has no earth connection and should only be used inside equipment that is suitably insulated or earthed.

**Hi-Fi Speaker** (Page 432). WF12N is a 40W 8" speaker with a plasticised paper cone and soft polymer suspension. The acoustic output is 90dB.

## CORRIGENDA

**Vol. 7 No. 26. 1kW High Power Mosfet Amplifier.** In the description of the Monitor module on page 7 it should read: "Diodes D2 & D4 are reverse biased, IC1 pin 11 output is low, and D3 conducts;".

**Simple Melody Generator.** In the text it refers to C3 and C4; these should be C1 and C2 respectively. It should also be noted that both IC1 and TR1 should be laid flat on the pcb as can be seen in the photograph, and that the + leg of C1 is nearest the outside edge of the pcb.

**Multi-Tune Generator.** In Figure 4, the pcb track has a small link missing, there should be a connection between C10 and R12 (ends closest to TR3). If you have an issue 3 pcb, this mod will be required. Issue 4 pcb's should have this problem corrected.

**Siren Sound Generator.** In Figure 4, the polarity sign shown on C2 should be on the other side, i.e. connected to R2 and Pin 3.

## MAPLIN'S TOP TWENTY KITS

THIS LAST MONTH	DESCRIPTION OF KIT	ORDER CODE	KIT PRICE	DETAILS IN PROJECT BOOK
1. (1)	◆ Digital Watch	FS18U	£2.00	Catalogue
2. (3)	◆ Live Wire Detector	LK63T	£3.95	14 (XA14Q)
3. (2)	◆ Car Battery Monitor	LK42V	£6.95	Best of E&MM
4. (6)	◆ Partylite	LW93B	£9.95	Best of E&MM
5. (4)	◆ 150W Mosfet Amplifier	LW51F	£19.95	Best of E&MM
6. (5)	◆ U/Sonic Car Alarm	LK75S	£17.95	15 (XA15R)
7. (10)	◆ Car Burglar Alarm	LW78K	£7.95	4 (XA04E)
8. (8)	◆ I/R Prox. Detector	LM13P	£8.95	20 (XA20W)
9. (11)	◆ 8W Amplifier	LW36P	£5.95	Catalogue
10. (15)	◆ 15W Amplifier	YQ43W	£5.95	Catalogue
11. (13)	◆ PWM Motor Driver	LK54J	£9.95	12 (XA12N)
12. (12)	◆ Ultrasonic Intruder Detector	LW83E	£11.95	4 (XA04E)
13. (16)	◆ 27MHz Receiver	LK56L	£8.95	13 (XA13P)
14. (20)	◆ 27MHz Transmitter	LK55K	£7.95	13 (XA13P)
15. (-)	◆ Car Digital Tacho	LK79L	£19.95	Best of E&MM
16. (14)	◆ VHS Video Alarm	LM27E	£11.95	24 (XA24B)
17. (19)	◆ 50W Amplifier	LW35Q	£17.95	Catalogue
18. (18)	◆ Noise Gate	LK43W	£9.95	Best of E&MM
19. (-)	◆ TDA7000 Radio Kit	LK32K	£12.95	9 (XA09K)
20. (17)	◆ Stepper Motor and Driver	LK76H	£16.95	18 (XA18U)

Over 150 other kits also available. All kits supplied with instructions.

The descriptions above are necessarily short. Please ensure you know exactly what the kit is and what it comprises before ordering, by checking the appropriate Project Book mentioned in the list above - see inside back cover for details.

# Exploring Radio

by *Graham Dixey C. Eng., M.I.E.R.E.* Part 3

## Introduction

The Ferranti ZN414 is a single chip AM tuner developed quite a few years ago now, using a type of integrated circuit technology known as Collector Diffusion Isolation (CDI). In this integration technique a much higher packing density is possible than with conventional bipolar technology. As a result, the ZN414 is able to pack a 10 transistor RF circuit into a small 3-lead plastic encapsulation. Naturally, there are some components that cannot be integrated, especially those used for tuning, but also those needed to set the d.c. supply and AGC levels. Nonetheless, a very low component count is possible to provide the basic AM tuner, needing only an audio amplifier to develop enough power to drive an earphone or loudspeaker. There is also an enhanced version of the ZN414, known as the ZN415E, that includes an audio amplifier with just enough power to drive personal phones.

## The ZN414 in Detail

Figure 1 shows the internal arrangement of the ZN414 and also the external components needed to put it into a basic configuration,

using a 1.3V d.c. supply. The first stage is a very high input impedance buffer, which simplifies the tuned circuit design, followed by three stages of r.f. amplification, capacitively coupled, and a transistor detector as the final stage. The output from the latter is, of course, the demodulated signal, that is about 30mV r.m.s. of pure audio to drive a suitable amplifier.

The d.c. supply requirements are 1.2–1.6V @ 0.3–0.5mA; optimum supply voltage is 1.3V. The drive circuit that derives this voltage also sets the AGC level, and Figure 2 shows three possible drive circuits for use with this chip. If the AGC action is not correctly set up, it is possible for a strong signal to swamp the receiver with an apparent broadening of the response. When

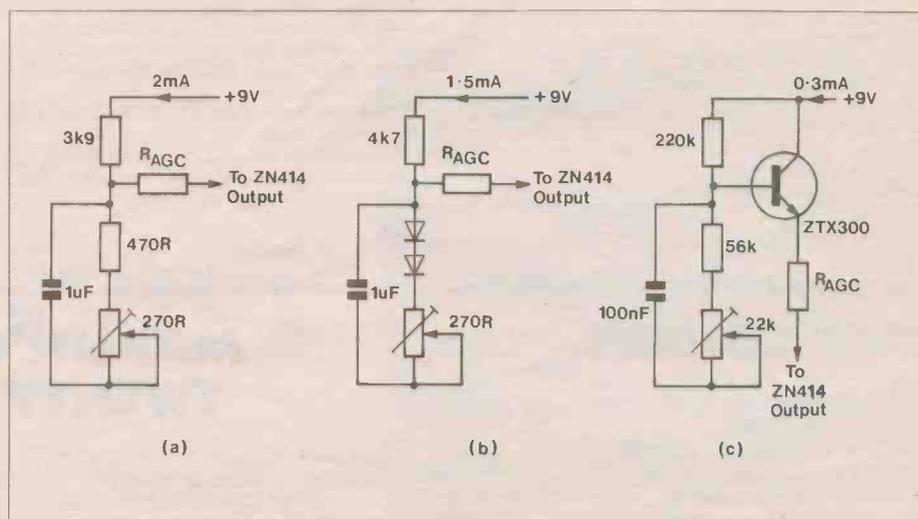


Figure 2. Drive circuits for the ZN414, (a) Resistor network, (b) Diode drive, (c) Transistor drive. In all cases the preset is a sensitivity control.

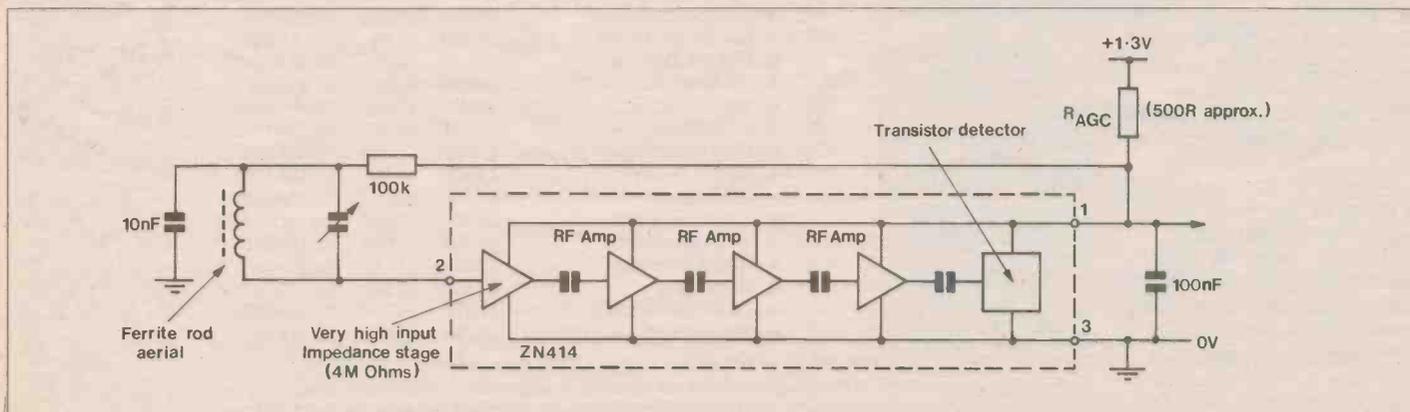


Figure 1. The ZN414 (within chain outline) in its most basic circuit configuration.

correctly set up, the selectivity approaches that of a superhet receiver. This presupposes that the tuned circuit is efficient, with a high 'Q value'. The coil-capacitor combination specified here meets those requirements.

The ferrite rod aerial size is not particularly critical. The one used with the prototype receiver was a 10cm rod cut down to 7.5cm, but it can be left at the full length and will, in fact, then be more directional. Be prepared, if necessary, to experiment with the number of turns wound onto the ferrite rod but, as a starting point, 80 turns closewound, of 30 SWG enamelled copper wire should bring in a good selection of medium wave broadcast stations. This was tuned with the aerial section of a miniature AM tuner capacitor (141.6pF). The winding of the aerial coil can be secured with electrical tape though, in this instance, a dab of superglue was used instead, to give a tidier look to the finished component.

The power gain of the ZN414 is of the order of 72dB in a typical case, though it is dependent upon the supply voltage to some extent. To give some idea of the possible selectivity, a bandwidth of about 4kHz can be achieved with correct setting up. The useful frequency range is from about 150kHz to 3MHz, making it ideal for AM reception on both medium and long waves. It can, however, be used at higher carrier frequencies by using it as the intermediate frequency (I.F.) amplifier in a superhet receiver, one application being in the radio control field (27 - 35 MHz).

All of this should give some idea of the versatility of the device. A variety of circuits are obviously possible, some of which will be presented in this series.

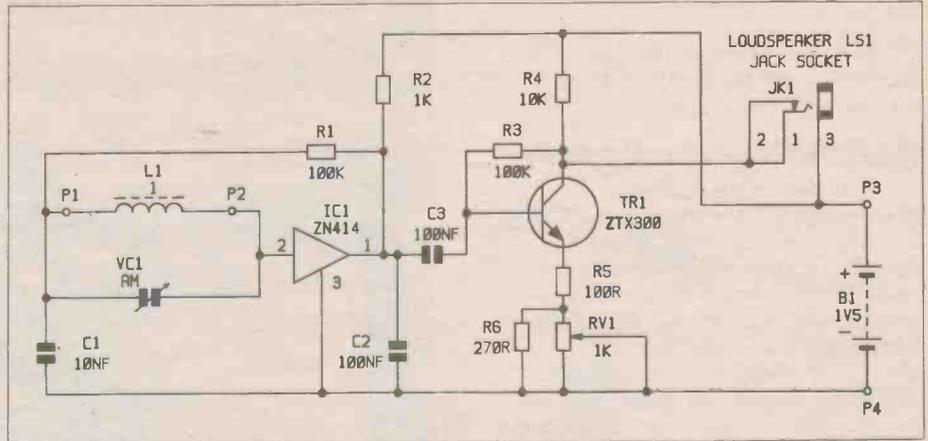


Figure 3. Earphone Radio circuit.

### Circuit Layout

Any layout problems disappear if the construction is based on the PCB that has been designed to go with this project. However, for those who don't want, for whatever reason, to use the custom PCB, a few words of warning are in order.

- The decoupling capacitor across the output (100nF shown in Figure 1) should be wired as close to the chip pins as possible. Its value is related to that of the AGC resistor as follows.
 
$$C \text{ (farads)} = \frac{1}{2\pi \times R_{AGC} \times 4 \times 10^3}$$
- All leads should be kept as short as possible, especially those running directly to the ZN414.
- The aerial and tuning capacitor should be as far as possible from the battery and earphone and their wiring.
- The 'earthy' side (moving vanes) of the tuning capacitor should be connected to the junction of R1 and C1.

### The MW Earphone Radio

In this particular design, see Figure 3, a discrete single-stage audio amplifier is driven from the output of the ZN414. The collector load consists of the crystal earpiece in parallel with a 10k resistor, which provides the d.c. path to the collector and presents the right value of impedance to the output of the stage in order to develop the audio voltage. The ZN414 output is a.c. coupled to the input of this stage through a 100nF capacitor and the stage is biased by a 100k resistor between collector and emitter. The emitter circuit effectively consists of a fixed 100 ohm resistor in series with a variable component that gives a measure of control over the volume, should it be required. A 250 ohm potentiometer was called for, but a small carbon one of this value not being available, a 270 ohm fixed resistor wired in parallel with a 1k variable produces the same approximate value. Naturally the transistor used, a ZTX300, is not a power transistor but gives a sufficient boost to the signal level to drive the crystal earpiece in areas of adequate signal strength. The receiver operates from a 1.5V cell and the components

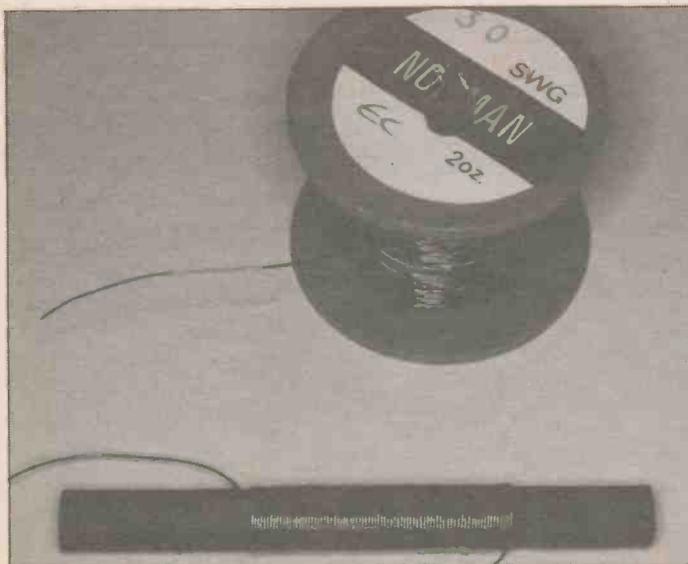


Photo 1. The tuning coil consists of 80 turns, closewound on a short length of ferrite rod, which then acts as an aerial.



Photo 2. Birds eye view of the assembled PCB. The earphone socket was an afterthought at this stage.

for AGC and drive for the ZN414 (R1, R2 and C2) are proportioned accordingly.

## Assembling the Receiver

Full details, including photographs of the prototype PCB, are given even for what is quite a simple circuit so there should be no real chance of error! With resistors getting ever smaller and the colour bands on them becoming less distinct, the biggest headache is probably identifying the correct resistor. For the less than eagle-eyed a small magnifying glass can be very useful. The pin connections for the ZTX300 transistor and the ZN414 are given, viewed from the underside in each case; obviously it is important to ensure that these go in the right way round, see Figure 4.

The assembly takes a few minutes only, a lot quicker than winding the aerial coil, Figure 5 should assist you. If you've never wound a coil like this before, the procedure is to 'rotate the rod' to wind on the turns, not to wind the turns 'round and round' a stationary rod. The coil will take about five feet of wire so rather more than this can be cut off and one end secured in a vice. Remove all kinks from the wire by pulling it, with a fair amount of tension, between your thumb and a pencil. Then secure the free end of the wire to the ferrite rod by your chosen method and, keeping the wire tight, rotate the rod to wind on each turn right alongside the last, walking (and counting!) as you go. When all 80 turns are on, secure the other end. Finally, scrape off the enamel at the extreme ends and tin them ready for soldering to the wiring pins on the board.

Once the circuit is completely assembled, the battery clipped into its holder (check polarity before doing so) and the personal earphone jacked in, you can have the pleasure of listening to your favourite station. There is no alignment to do whatever.

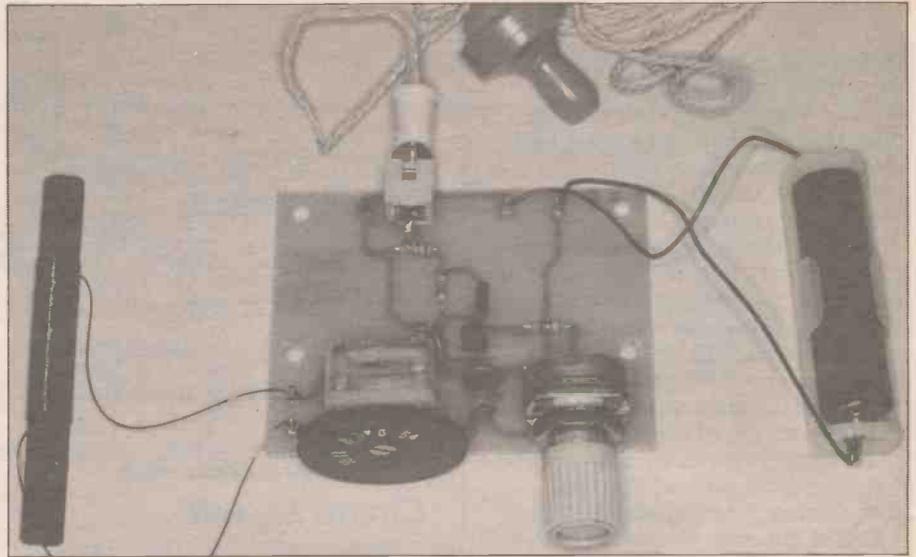


Photo 3. The fully assembled receiver, showing how simple it is!

Don't expect ear-blasting volume but there should be enough output for comfortable listening in a quiet environment. Next time we shall use the chip a little more ambitiously by giving it rather more 'voice' plus the benefits of an extra waveband.

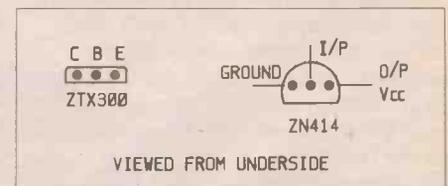


Figure 4. Pin-outs.

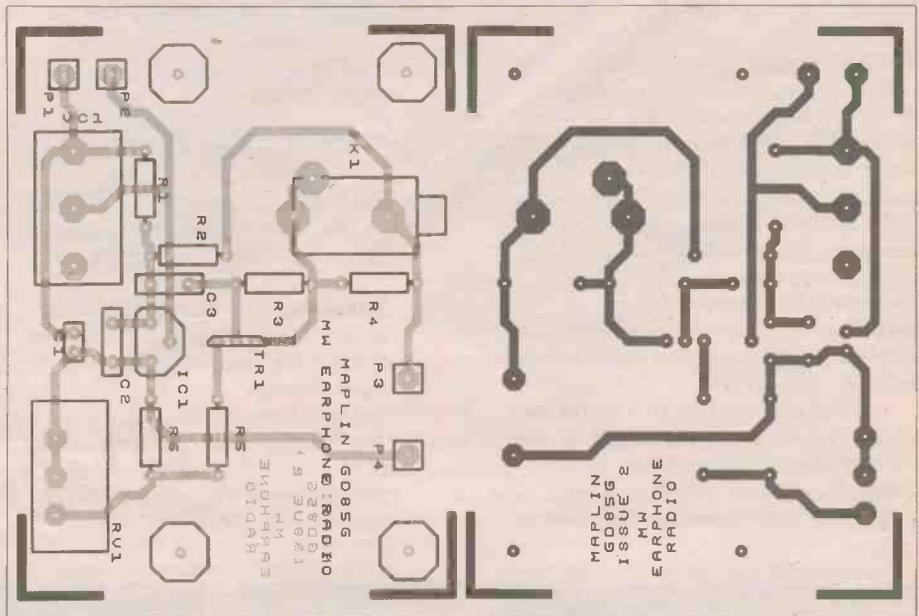


Figure 5. Track and overlay of PCB.

## EARPHONE RADIO PARTS LIST

### RESISTORS: All 0.6W 1% Metal Film

R1,3	100k	2	(M100K)
R2	1k	1	(M1K)
R4	10k	1	(M10K)
R5	100Ω	1	(M100R)
R6	270Ω	1	(M270R)
RV1	1k LIN Pot	1	(FW00A)

### CAPACITORS

C1	10nF Minidisc	1	(YR73Q)
C2,3	100nF Minidisc	2	(YR7 S)
VC1	AM Tuner	1	(PT78K)

### SEMICONDUCTORS

IC1	ZN414	1	(QL41U)
TR1	ZTX300	1	(QL48A)

### MISCELLANEOUS

LS1	Crystal Earpiece	1	(LB25C)
L1	Ferrite Rod B10	1	(YC20W)
JK1	3.5mm Jack Socket	1	(FK02C)
	Veropin 2145	1 Pkt	(FL24B)
	Battery Box 1.5V	1	(YR59P)
	LR6 Battery	1	(FK64U)
	PCB	1	(GD85C)
	30 SWG E.C. wire	1	(BL40T)

The following item is available, but is not shown in our 1988 catalogue:  
Earphone Radio PCB Order As GD85G Price £1.95

When running a speaker system it is useful to have an idea of the approximate level of power being used. In particular it is important that the loud speaker manufacturer's specification is not exceeded as this could result in severe damage to the speaker. The Watt Watcher is a simple circuit that may be fitted into a speaker cabinet to provide an indication of the relative power level and uses three LED's: a green LED lights when the power is at a relatively low level indicating that the system is running; a second (orange) LED indicates an intermediate level of power and a third (red) indicates an overload condition. The level at which the orange and red LED's (LD2 and LD3) light is set by fitting resistors of selected value, depending on the required power range. The Watt Watcher derives its power from the speaker line and hence requires no external power supply.

### Circuit Description

With reference to the circuit diagram of Figure 1 it may be seen that the Watt Watcher effectively consists of three similar transistor switches. Each switch is biased to switch on LEDs LD1 to LD3 at different input voltages and these correspond to different power levels

depending on speaker impedance. The power, which is taken from the speaker terminals, is rectified and smoothed by two separate networks: R1, D1 and C1 provide a relatively smooth DC voltage for the supply rail, while R2, D2 and C2 provide a less smooth DC voltage for the transistor bias resistors to allow for fast changes in audio power level. Bias resistors R3, R4 and R5 determine the voltage at which the transistor will switch on and light the LED; TR1 is biased to switch on at the lowest voltage and TR3 at the highest. Zener diodes ZD1 to ZD3, serve to limit the brightness of the LEDs at higher voltage levels. Diodes D3 and D4 increase the voltage threshold at which LD2 and LD3 light, as orange and red LEDs have a lower voltage threshold than the green type. The current through the LEDs is limited to a few mA by R6, R10 and R14.

### PCB Assembly

Insert and solder the components onto the PCB referring to the legend shown in Figure 2, starting with the resistors. R9 and R13 should be selected, depending on the speaker impedance and the power with which the Watt Watcher is to be used (refer to Table 1). The levels of power



shown (RMS) refer to the approximate power at which LD3 will light. Capacitors C1 and C2 are fitted observing the correct polarity; the negative lead is indicated by a negative sign (-) on the side of the capacitor which goes away from the hole marked positive (+) on the PCB legend. Diodes D1 to D4 are then inserted with the correct polarity (the cathode is marked by a band at one end of the diode). Transistors TR1 to TR3 are positioned so

that their cases correspond exactly with the outline on the PCB legend. LEDs LD1 to LD3 are then installed on the track side of the board (see Figure 3). The length of the LED leads may be cut to suit individual needs, depending where the unit is to be fitted; it is important that they are inserted with the correct polarity (the short lead on the flat side of the LED is the cathode). Finally insert PCB pins P1 and P2. For more detailed information on construction

techniques please refer to the Constructor's Guide included in the kit.

## Testing

Before testing the unit make sure that all components are soldered and that there are no dry joints or solder short circuits. If a multimeter is available the DC resistance between P1 and P2 can be measured; this should read several thousands of ohms. Connect P1 and P2 to

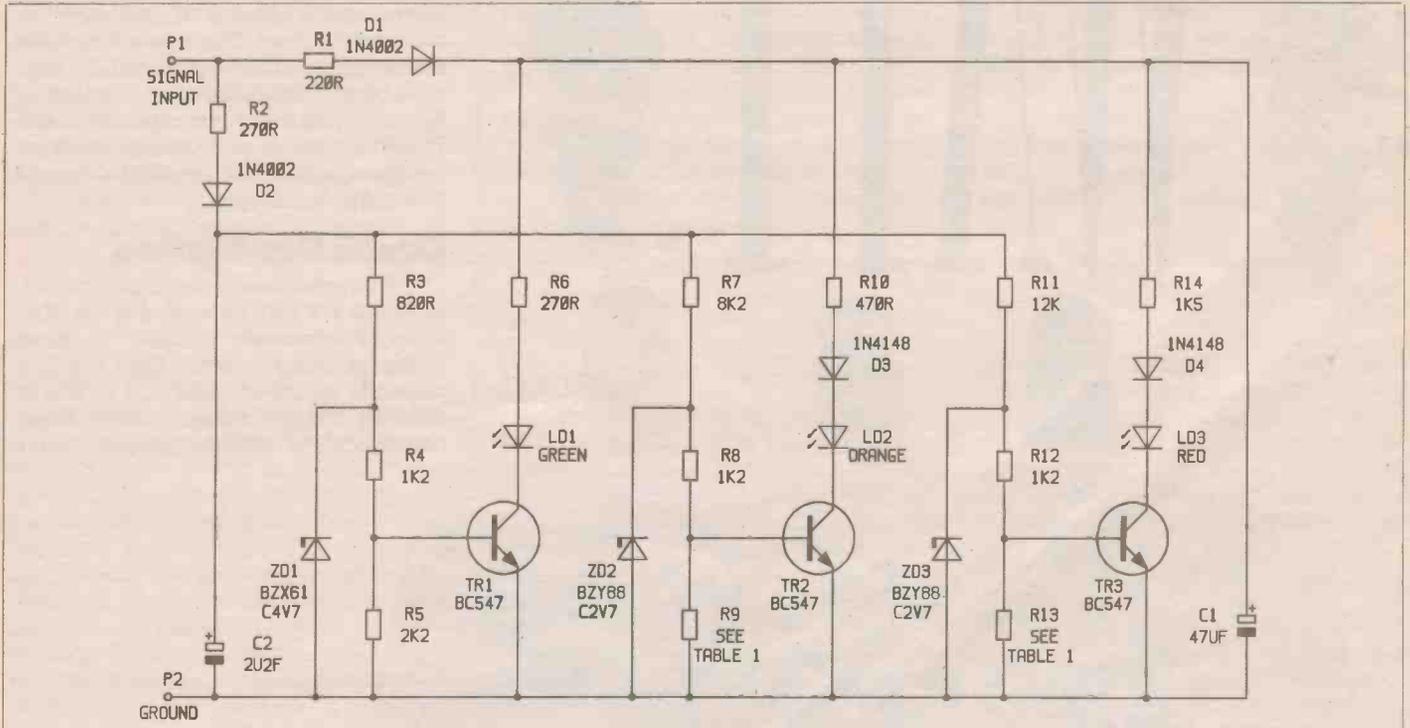


Figure 1. Circuit Diagram.

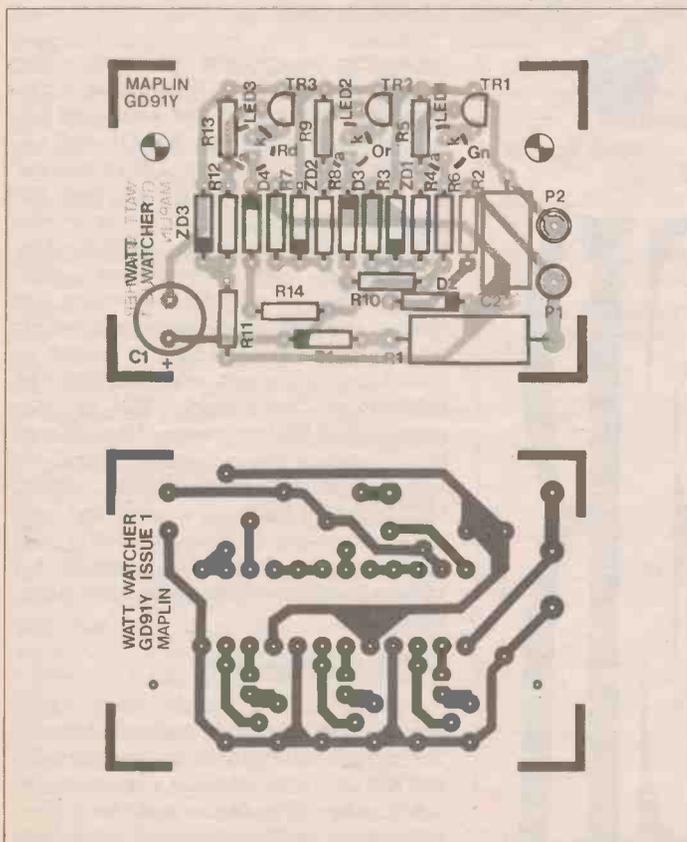


Figure 2. PCB Track and Overlay.

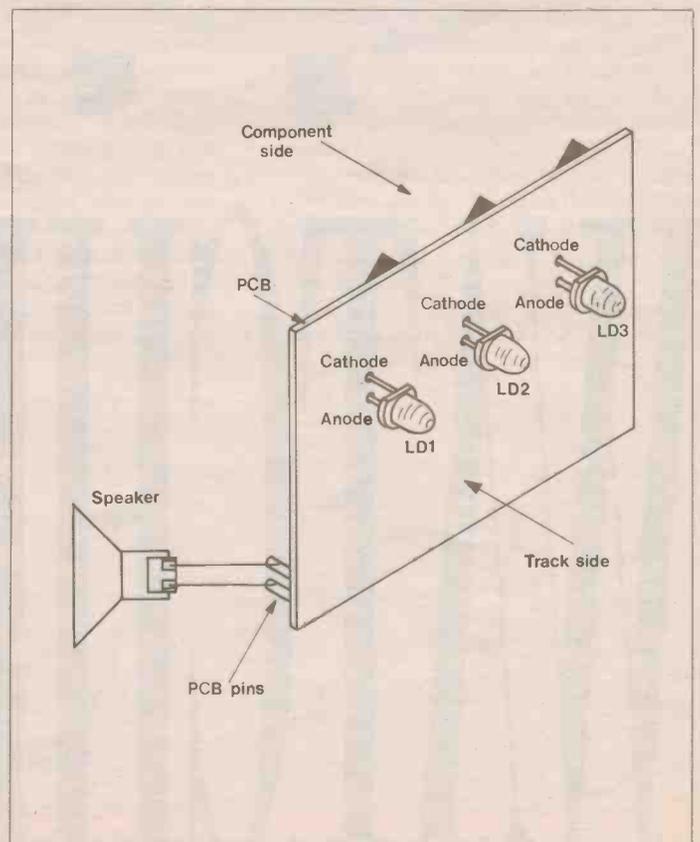


Figure 3. Mounting the LEDs.

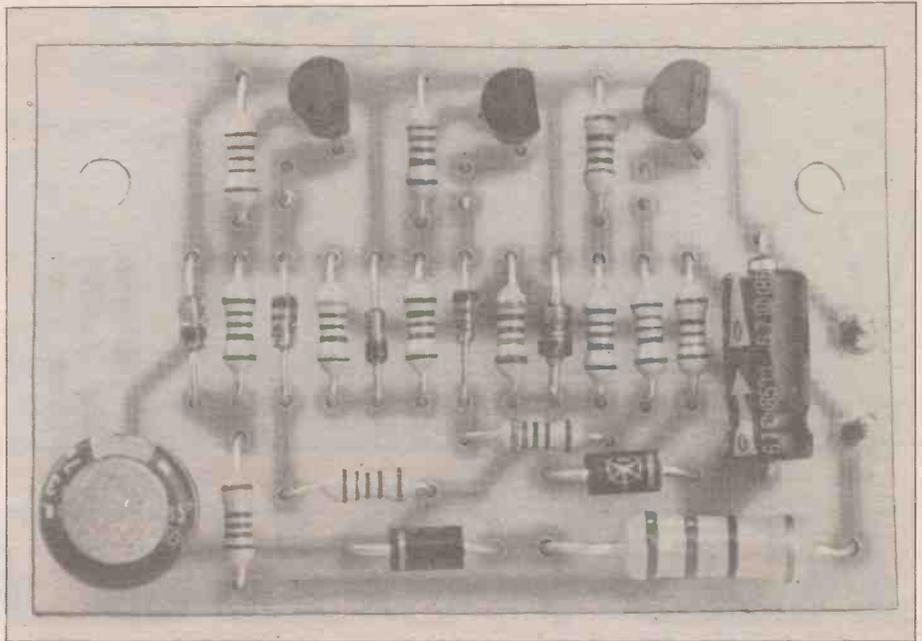
the speaker terminals using insulated wire. Switch on and slowly increase the volume. The green LED LD1 should start to light at around 3 to 5 watts depending on speaker impedance. As the volume is increased LD2 should start to light indicating an intermediate level of power. The red LED LD3 should only light when the power level chosen from Table 1 is reached; this is intended to indicate an overload condition and under normal operating conditions should not light (other than perhaps an occasional flicker). An overload condition is indicated when LD3 is lit for the majority of the time. Table 2 shows the approximate input voltage levels at which LD2 and LD3 light for each power range. If all is well the Watt Watcher may be installed into the speaker cabinet or alternatively can be housed in a separate box. It should be noted that the Watt Watcher should not be used with systems running at power levels above the chosen range or with speaker impedances other than those specified as severe damage could result.

POWER		Resistor Value	
		8R Speaker	4R Speaker
25 Watts	R9	1k5	2k2
	R13	1k0	1k5
50 Watts	R9	1k0	1k5
	R13	820R	1k0
100 Watts	R9	820R	1k0
	R13	680R	820R

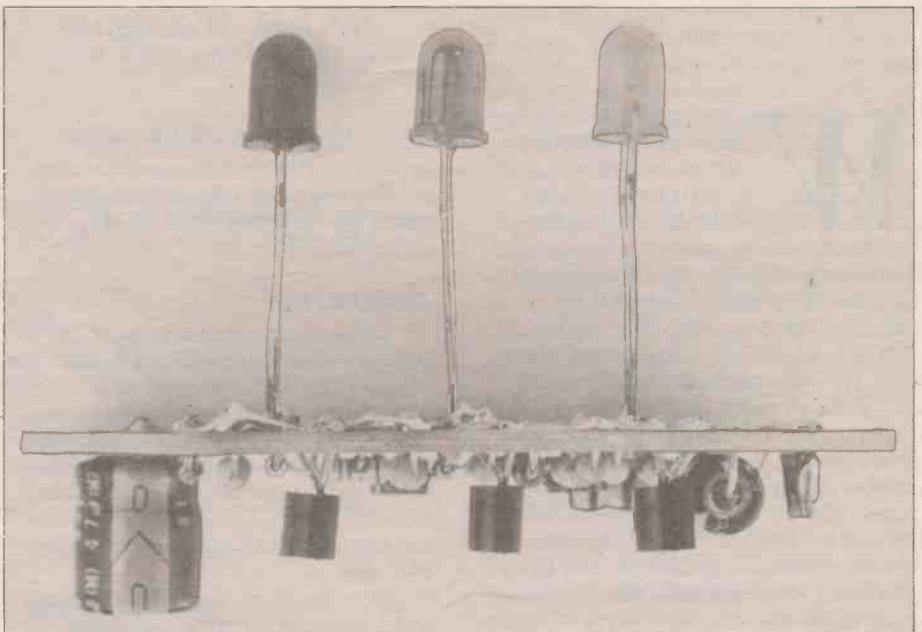
Table 1. Resistor values for various power levels and speaker impedances.

POWER RANGE (RMS)		Input Voltage (RMS)	
		8R Speaker	4R Speaker
25 Watts	LD2	9V	7V
	LD3	14V	10V
50 Watts	LD2	14V	9V
	LD3	20V	14V
100 Watts	LD2	18V	14V
	LD3	28V	20V

Table 2. Approximate input voltage levels required for LD2 and LD3 to light. Values shown for input frequency - 1kHz (sinewave).



Component side of pcb.



Side view of pcb.

## WATT WATCHER PARTS LIST

RESISTORS: All 0.6W 1% Metal Film (unless specified)

R1	220Ω	1 Watt Carbon Film	1	(C220R)
R2,6	270Ω		2	(M270R)
R3	820Ω		1	(M820R)
R4,8,12	1k2		3	(M1K2)
R5	2k2		1	(M2K2)
R7	8k2		1	(M8K2)
R9,13	See Miscellaneous and Table 1			
R10	470Ω		1	(M470R)
R11	12k		1	(M12K)
R14	1k5		1	(M1K5)

### CAPACITORS

C1	47μF 63V P.C. Electrolytic	1	(FF09K)
C2	2μ2F 100V Axial Electrolytic	1	(FB15R)

### SEMICONDUCTORS

D1,2	1N4002	2	(QL74R)
D3,4	1N4148	2	(QL80B)
ZD1	BZX61C4V7	1	(QF45Y)
ZD2,3	BZY78C2V7	2	(QH00A)

LD1	LED Green	1	(WL28F)
LD2	LED Orange	1	(WL29G)
LD3	LED Red	1	(WL27E)
TR1,2,3	BC547	3	(QQ14Q)

### MISCELLANEOUS

	Constructor's Guide	1	(XH79L)
	P.C. Board	1	(GD91Y)
	Pin 2141	1 Pkt	(FL21X)

Select R9 and R13 from the following:

680Ω	1	(M680R)
820Ω	1	(M820R)
1k	1	(M1K)
1k5	1	(M1K5)
2k2	1	(M2K2)

A complete kit of parts is available:  
**Order As LM57M (Watt Watcher Kit) Price £3.98**  
 The following item in the above kit is also available, but is not shown in our 1988 catalogue:  
**Watt Watcher PCB Order As GD91Y Price £2.95**

# The

# V · I · D · E · O

# REVOLUTION

by *J.M. Woodgate*

*B.Sc(Eng.), C.ENG., M.I.E.R.E., M.A.E.S., M.Inst.S.C.E.*

**W**hile audio has always been very popular with home constructors, only a few enthusiasts in the past involved themselves in video. This was because the equipment was expensive and not generally available, although these difficulties did not put off members of the British Amateur Television Club and others, many professionally involved in television.

Today, however, video recorders, cameras and even video digitisers are quite freely available at sensible prices, and the number of home experiments with video is rapidly growing. Recognising this, Maplin are now stocking a hardback book, 'Video Handbook (2nd edition)' (WP81C), by Ru van Wesel, which is aimed at the experienced enthusiast and covers everything from basic optical theory and audio for television to pcb layouts for constructional projects, together with video recorders and disc players and TV production techniques. It deliberately does not cover the elementary ideas of scanning and synchronisation, and there are some new developments which will be of particular interest to readers of this magazine. It is the purpose of this article to fill in some gaps and provide an update.

Video techniques cover simple low-power linear circuits, using transistors no more exotic than BC107's, and pulse circuits which are easily designed with cheap IC's. Even digitising requires no more than 7 or 8 bits and speeds within the scope of bipolar TTL devices. For precision amplifiers, there are devices such as the LM592/LM733 which provide gains up to 400 with few external components and very wide bandwidth, but, odd as it may seem, the low-noise audio op-amps NE5532 and NE5534 can also be used for video at modest gains. Keep the feedback resistor below 10k ohm, though. Comparators are often used in video circuits: in some cases the high-speed

device LM319 may be needed, but any circuits using the old 710 type devices that required two supply rails can be simplified with single-rail devices such as LM311 and LM339/MC3302.

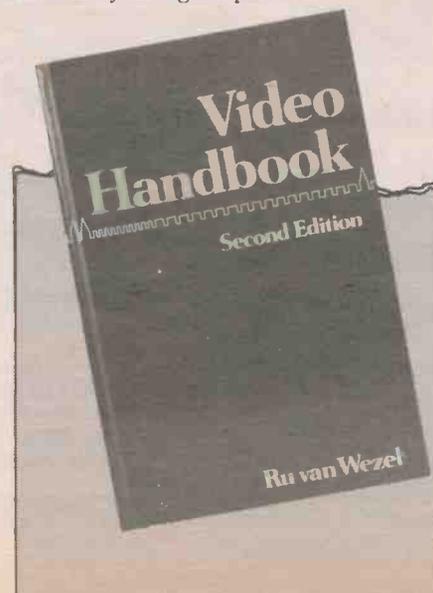
## Scanning

Converting sound into an electrical signal is in principle very simple, because the (time-varying) instantaneous sound pressure at the microphone is a single value, a one-dimensional quantity, which translates into a single, time-varying, electrical signal. Conveying directional information is rather more difficult, but Ambisonic theory shows that only four signals are necessary to do even that.

By contrast, the simplest visible thing that is worth converting to an electrical signal is (barring some techniques allied to primitive radar displays) a two-dimensional scene, either real or in the form of a projected picture. One way of doing this would be to have an array of hundreds (at least) of photodetectors connected individually through amplifiers to a

corresponding array of light-emitters. Unfortunately, this is impracticable because to get reasonably sharp pictures the arrays need to contain about a quarter of a million elements, and to get reasonable moving pictures, each of the 250,000 amplifiers needs a bandwidth of about 50Hz. So, even with multiplexing techniques, a broadcast transmission bandwidth greater than 12.5MHz would be required. However, while there does not appear to be any future for this technique as a whole, the problem of making the arrays themselves is being vigorously studied in order to develop solid-state cameras and new types of display device to replace the heavy, large and fragile cathode ray tube.

The most practical method of converting a two-dimensional scene into an electrical signal is known as 'scanning', and was discovered by Paul Nipkow in 1883, long before television could be achieved in a practical form. Imagine a room in darkness, with a photodetector 'looking' at it. If we shine a narrow beam of light at a point in the room, the photodetector will respond to the amount of light reflected from the point where the beam lands. Moving the beam about will produce a varying signal from the photodetector, as the beam falls on points of different colour and brightness. Of course, moving the beam about at random isn't likely to be very helpful, but if we could make the movement systematic, we might be able to reproduce this systematic movement at the picture display device (whatever that is), and thus re-create the original picture. In principle, we could move the beam up and down, from side to side, or in a spiral, either inwards or outwards. In fact, all of these techniques have been used for various special purposes, but it turns out, because of the properties of the human eye and brain system, that for television the side-to-side scanning system is the best. It is still possible to do this in two different ways; the



beam could move across, and then back at the same speed, or it could scan across and then flick back quickly. It appears that the use of the second way, which is now almost universal, is a relic of Nipkow's original ideas. Having flicked back to the starting position, the beam is moved down a little, so that it then scans across the scene just below its previous path. When the beam reaches the bottom of the scene to be televised, it flicks back to the top. Instead of moving the beam down a little when it returns to the start, ('indexed scan'), it is more usual to move it down gradually and continuously, so that the 'horizontal' movement actually takes place at a small angle downwards, see Figure 1.

The horizontal motion of the beam is called 'line scan' and the vertical motion is called 'field scan'. In the British television system (CCIR system I), the line scanning rate is 15,625Hz and the field rate 50Hz. Each field thus consists of 312.5 lines, and the odd half line means that the lines of one field fall between those of the previous and following fields; this technique is called '2:1 interlace' and is something of a mixed blessing nowadays since, while it reduces flicker on televised scenes, it increases it, in a sense, on graphics and text displays by making the display 'vibrate' vertically. A complete picture is made up of two fields, called a 'frame'. Television systems are often described by their 'scanning standards', expressed as the number of lines in a frame, followed by the field frequency. The British system is thus one of the group of 625/50 systems.

The technique of televising a dark scene with a moving beam of light is called 'flying spot scanning', and was widely used in the early days, in spite of the inconvenience of working in darkness, and was also used for

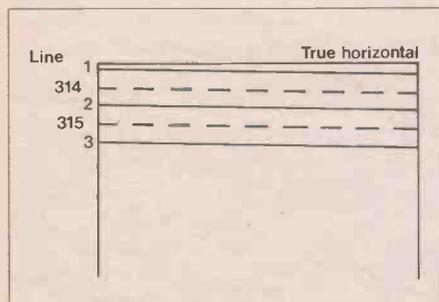


Figure 1. Principle of scanning: The first lines of two consecutive interlaced fields in a 625 line system.

televising films. In modern cameras, the scene is optically projected on a photosensitive target, which is scanned by an electron beam to produce the electrical output signal. The principle of scanning is precisely the same.

## Synchronisation

The process of keeping the scanning of the display device exactly in step with that of the camera is called 'synchronisation' (from Greek, syn = same, chronos = time). To achieve it we have to add timing signals to the picture signal output from the camera, in such a way that we can separate them again easily in the display equipment and use the timing signals to control the exact instant when the line and field scans of the display device start.

There are two steps to this synchronisation process. First, we have to make the display scans run at the same frequency as the camera scans, but this is insufficient by itself. We also have to make the scans start at the same instant (allowing for any delay due to the signal path from camera to display). These two steps can be described by the terms 'frequency-synchronous' and 'phase-synchronous', respectively.

Audio signals are built up from sine-waves, so they are pure alternating signals with no direct current component. Consider, however, the output from the photodetector of a flying spot scanner. A deep black object will reflect nearly no light towards the detector, as the output will be zero volts. A bright object will produce a maximum positive or negative direct voltage, depending on how the detector is connected in its circuit. Nothing will produce an output of opposite polarity, which would correspond to 'blacker-than-black'. As the beam scans across one line, a varying positive (or negative) voltage is produced, and when the beam flicks back to the start, a reversed high-speed copy of the same voltage will be produced. It won't be a very good copy, for several reasons:

1. The 'flyback' scanning speed is too fast for the photodetector to respond properly.
2. The track of the flyback beam does not follow the scan exactly, because the field scan is continuously moving the beam down slowly.

3. Even where the photodetector responds to the high-speed signals, its associated amplifier probably will not.

The video signal during the flyback period is thus not very useful and can be thrown away. This is done by switching off the photodetector (e.g. by removing its supply voltage), with a pulse signal known as a 'blanking pulse'. In the resulting 'gap' in the video signal we can put a pulse signal for synchronisation. We can make this pulse easily distinguishable from the video signal caused by a white strip by making it of opposite polarity, i.e. blacker-than-black. The 'width' (duration) of this 'sync pulse' is made slightly less than that of the blanking pulse to allow for timing errors, see Figure 2. We can do exactly the same thing at the end of each field, to produce field blanking and a field sync pulse. However, the field flyback time is 25 line periods in 625/50 systems, so that the sync pulse would be about 1.3ms long if it took up the whole of the time available for it. To reproduce this properly, all amplifiers for the combined video, sync and blanking signal (CVBS) would require an extended low-frequency response, to below 50Hz. To avoid this, the sync pulse is shortened to 160µs, and is interrupted by short 'equalising' pulses which further serve to reduce distortion of the sync pulse shape in amplifiers. For further details, and an explanation of the generation and encoding of colour signals, see the 'Video Handbook'.

## Video Equipment

To get started in video, you need a monitor or a TV with video input, and, probably, a VCR and a camera. You can start with a monochrome camera, which could be a second-hand one from a security system, for instance. A new one would cost about £150. Don't buy a lens with an iris: they cost about £100 more than a simple lens without one, and the camera a.g.c. will cope with a wide range of lighting levels. You may be able to buy a second-hand colour camera from someone who has graduated to a camcorder: a separate camera is preferable for serious video.

In audio, the accent is on amplification, because loudspeakers need power, but for video this is not so. In any case, it is about as usual to build your own display unit as to build your own loudspeaker drive unit. Monochrome monitors can be obtained quite cheaply these days, intended either for use with computers (these have better picture geometry) or security cameras, and more and more television sets are fitted with video input connectors, either 6-pin DIN or 21-pin peritelevision 'SCART' connectors, see Figure 3.

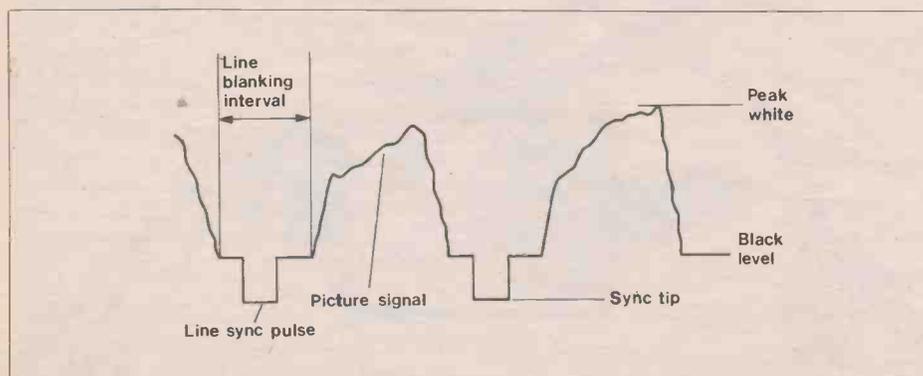
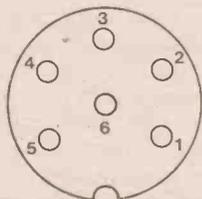


Figure 2. Video signal waveform showing line sync pulses and line blanking interval.

**ON NO ACCOUNT MAKE ANY INTERNAL CONNECTIONS TO A TELEVISION SET, AS YOU ARE VERY LIKELY TO ELECTROCUTE YOURSELF OR SOMEONE ELSE IF YOU DO.**

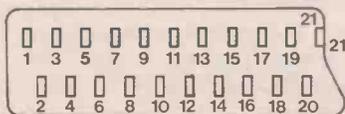
- 1: Switching 0V - 2, 4, 6 are outputs +12V - 2, 4, 6 are inputs
- 2: Video 75 ohms
- 3: Common (earth)



WIRING SIDE OF SOCKET

- 4: Audio (Left)
- 5: +12V
- 6: Audio (Right)

- |                         |                                   |
|-------------------------|-----------------------------------|
| 1: Audio Out (Right)    | 13: Red Common                    |
| 2: Audio In (Right)     | 14: Data Bus Common               |
| 3: Audio Out (Left)     | 15: Red In                        |
| 4: Audio Common (earth) | 16: Fast Blanking (for captions)  |
| 5: Blue Common          | 17: Composite Video Output Common |
| 6: Audio In (Left)      |                                   |
| 7: Blue In              |                                   |



WIRING SIDE OF PLUG

- |                                                                                |                                  |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| 8: Switching: 0V - Display Off-Air signal +12V - Display signal from connector | 18: Composite Video Input Common |
| 9: Green Common                                                                | 19: Composite Video Out 75 ohms  |
| 10: Data Bus                                                                   | 20: Composite Video In 75 ohms   |
| 11: Green In                                                                   | 21: Shell (earth)                |
| 12: Data Bus                                                                   |                                  |

Figure 3. 6 contact DIN and 21 contact peritelevision (SCART) connectors.

If you don't have a monitor or a TV with a video input connector, you can use one of the UHF modulators stocked by Maplin to feed your signals in via the TV's antenna connector.

For colour, you need a monitor with composite video analogue input, unless you are going to work exclusively with RGB signals or make PAL encoder and decoder units. With modern IC's, such as the LM1889 encoder, neither of these is too difficult, but it is not easy at present to obtain the decoder IC's in small quantities. Monitors with 'digital' (two-state) video inputs are, of course, unsuitable because they cannot reproduce brightness variations.

## Handling and Processing Video Signals

Once it is understood that a video signal consists of two parts with separate functions, the picture signal and the sync, the problems of handling and processing can be understood. The video signal requires a bandwidth ideally from zero frequency to 5.5MHz, but watchable pictures can be obtained with a bandwidth from about 250kHz to 3MHz or so, otherwise household VCR's wouldn't work!

Video processing consists of cutting,

mixing or superimposing video signals from different sources, and effects processing, where the original picture is distorted in some way. The difficulty of achieving these processes varies greatly.

## Cutting

This is the simplest process, and only requires that the two video signals are of more or less the same amplitude and black level. Picture signal amplitude controls the contrast of the picture, and black level controls the brightness. A standard video signal has black level at zero volts, peak white at +0.7V and sync pulse tips at -0.3V, so the peak-to-peak amplitude is 1V. Colour information can increase the peak picture signal to +0.93V. Video signals are normally carried on 75 ohm coaxial cable. To cut between two standard signals only requires a switch, provided you don't mind the occasional 'frame roll' if you happen to cut during the field sync pulse of one of the signals. The signals don't even need to be frequency-synchronous, within limits.

## The Major Problem with Mixing, Fading and Superimposing

These are the most useful video processes but unfortunately they only work with phase-synchronous signals. In a television studio this is no problem because all the cameras, etc., are synchronised with a master sync generator (MSG). Special techniques have to be employed to synchronise outside-broadcast equipment with the studio. In the home, however, you may have a camera, a VCR, an off-air signal and a home computer all producing video signals. Only the camera and the VCR (if they are running together) will be synchronous. It is possible to buy a semi-professional 'genlock' unit to overcome this, but it will cost as much as a good VCR. This is the only solution where you cannot get at the sync generation processes of the two signals to be mixed (e.g. the off-air signal and the home computer), but where you can, or there is an input for external sync, it is possible to make your own Master Sync Generator: instructions are given in the Video Handbook for a device using discrete components and SSI, while it is

possible to obtain complete LSI integrated circuits, such as the Ferranti ZNA134E, which provide standard sync with only a few peripheral components. There is also a new Motorola device, MC1378, which is primarily intended, with the Motorola Raster Management System (RMS) IC's to allow microcomputer video to be locked to an external video or sync signal, but could be used in principle for locking together any two signals.

## Effects Processing

These can be divided into those which operate on a single video signal and those, such as wipes and dissolves, which require two or more. The latter need phase-synchronous signals and are relatively simple to arrange when these are available: full details are given in the Video Handbook of analogue methods and digital methods are also very widely used in the professional field. It should be possible to achieve some of these effects with simple video digitisers and a microcomputer.

Effects processing of single signals is a field which has considerable attraction for the home constructor, because there is no synchronisation problem to be solved. It is quite easy to produce inverted video, compress and expand contrast and even to produce false colours. Several circuits are given in the Video Handbook: note that to invert the video to make a negative picture, you have to invert the picture signal but leave the sync the right way up! These effects can be applied to off-air signals, or video recordings or signals from your own camera. You can also produce effects by pointing your camera at the TV screen and using the camera focus, zoom and other controls, recording the result on the VCR.

## Video Enhancers

Maplin offer two of these very useful units (XJ11M and XG59P), which can produce dramatic improvements in picture quality on second-generation recordings and on camera signals. They work by separating the higher video frequencies and non-linearly amplifying them. Some also improve the shape of the sync signals and stabilise the black-level. The Maplin units also include two audio channels.



Video and Audio enhancer (Maplin code XJ11M).



Video enhancer with sharpness control (Maplin code XG59P).

## Video Distribution Amplifiers

These are constructable items consisting of an input buffer amplifier feeding, say, six output amplifiers designed to feed 75 ohm coaxial cable. With one of these, you can watch a picture on a monitor while feeding it also to a recorder and a digitiser, for example. You couldn't connect all this equipment in parallel to one source of signals.

## Video Mixers

A mixer will allow you to do cross-fades between phase-synchronous sources, cuts, overlays (superimposing part or all of one picture on another, adding captions, etc.) and even wipes and dissolves. The Video Handbook describes two designs suitable for the experienced constructor: to some extent these could be simplified or expanded. It is, of course, necessary to make provision for mixing and processing the associated audio signals (unless you are making silent videos), and the Handbook deals with this as well.

## Copying Cine Film to Video

The Maplin video-cine adaptor (YP47B) makes this very easy to do, and there are a large number of people who would like their home movies copied in this way. It is also possible to do it by projecting on a steadily supported screen the smallest picture that will fill the frame of your camera at its shortest focusing distance, but this is quite difficult compared with the use of the adaptor. You need the smallest possible picture to get enough light to work the camera properly. The projector and camera should be set at equal angles to the screen so as to cancel as far as possible the keystone distortion of the picture, see Figure 4.

## Digital Video and the Digitiser

A digitiser, such as the extremely inexpensive Maplin kits (LK59D/LK60E), enables you to take video pictures from any source and process them on a suitable micro-computer; still pictures can even be stored on floppy disk. Once a picture is in digital form, there is no end to the ways in which it can be processed. This is much more fun than video games, and you can print out the results as works of art.

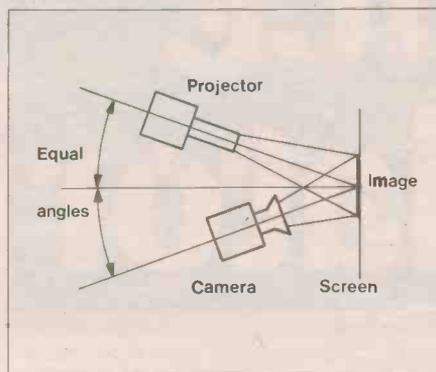


Figure 4. Cine film copying showing compensation of keystone distortion (not perfect).

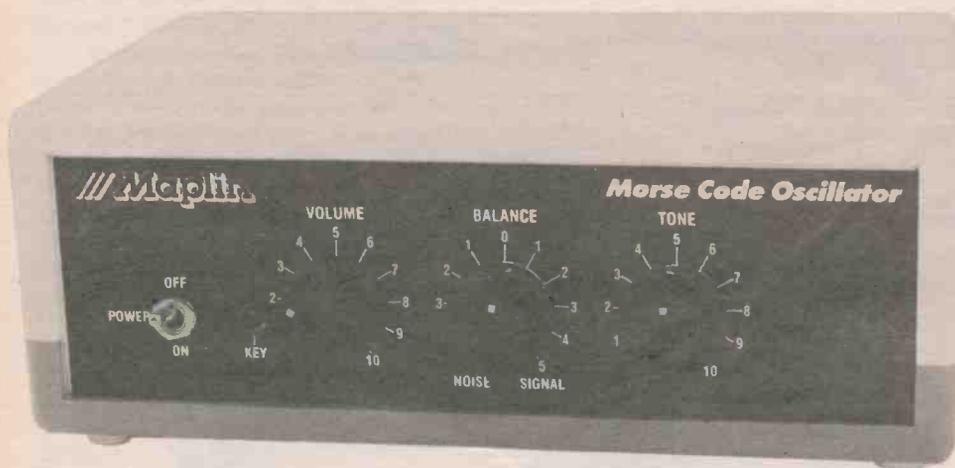
## Future Developments

There are plans to introduce a fifth, land-based TV channel and presumably we shall eventually actually have DBS channels available, whether they use one of the versions of the MAC system or PAL. Video recorders are offering more and more facilities all the time. (For crazy instance, a VCR offers you by far the easiest way of making long uninterrupted audio recordings, up to at least 4 hours!) All these developments, together with the increasing availability of IC's for complex video functions, mean that home-constructor video could become a very big thing in the next few years.



Cine to video copying adaptor (Maplin code YP47B).

# Morse Code Practice Oscillator



by Chris Barlow

- ★ Easy construction
- ★ Minimum of tools and test gear required
- ★ No setting-up required
- ★ Variable volume, tone and signal to noise ratio
- ★ On-board power amplifier
- ★ Audio output for external amplifier or tape recorder

## Specification of Prototype

Operating voltage :	6V to 12V
Supply current at 9V :	10mA @ min. volume 157mA @ max. volume
Oscillator frequency :	370Hz to 1.093kHz
Oscillator waveform :	digitally constructed analogue
Noise generator :	digital pseudo-random bit pattern
Amplifier power output :	1W when using a 12V supply

Amplifier output impedance :	8Ω loudspeaker or headphones
Tape output :	200mV peak to peak into a 47kΩ load
Morse key switching current :	800μA at 9V
Maximum contact resistance :	4.7kΩ
Printed circuit board (PCB) :	double-sided fibre glass
PCB dimensions :	130mm x 110mm

## Introduction

Morse code is one of the most effective means of long distance (DX) radio communication and thousands of stations can be picked up on the short wave bands. These carrier wave (CW) transmissions can be news, weather, shipping, police, military, or amateur radio 'ham radio'. To transmit your own messages a class A radio amateur licence must be obtained from the department of trade and industry. In order to qualify for this licence you must meet the following requirements:

1. Be of British nationality.
2. You must be fourteen years or over.
3. Have passed the radio amateurs examination (RAE).
4. Have passed the Morse test.

The only way to learn Morse code is to keep up the practice until you acquire the speed and accuracy necessary to pass the Morse test. The Maplin Morse code practice oscillator was designed to produce a loud clean tone, with the option of a controllable level of simulated radio noise. This added feature will help train your ears in picking out the weaker signals, from the interference commonly found on the crowded short wave bands. Having mastered this mode of communication the whole world of CW DX radio listening is made available.

## What is Morse code?

The code was first devised in 1837 by Samuel Morse, in collaboration with Alfred Vail, for the telegraphic transmission of information. The messages were sent as a series of long and short DC currents tapped out on a switch, now known as a Morse key. At the receiving station these DC currents would then be converted using an electromagnetic device into a sound, or a visual display. The short current was known as the DOT and the longer current as the DASH. The code was revised in 1844 and again in 1851 when an international conference combined four similar codes into the system we now know as the Morse code.

In radio communication a dot is represented as an audio tone of short duration and the dash, a tone of the same frequency but of longer duration. When learning the code it is easier to think in terms of dit, or di, pronounced 'dee' for a dot and dah for a dash. For example the letter R dot-dash-dot is easier to think and say in terms of di-dah-dit. The complete international Morse code giving the phonetic pronunciation of each letter and number is shown in Table 1.

## Circuit description

In addition to the circuit shown in Figure 2, a block diagram of the complete system giving the signal paths are detailed in Figure 1. This should assist you when following the circuit description or fault finding in the completed unit.

The internal DC power is provided by a 9 volt PP3 type battery and when an external supply is plugged into JK4, the battery is switched out of circuit, see Figure 5. Any DC supply entering the circuit must have the correct polarity, otherwise damage may occur

Table 1.

**International Morse Code**

Letter	Code	Phonetic
A	.-	di-dah
B	...-	dah-di-di-dit
C	-. -.	dah-di-dah-dit
D	.- .-	dah-di-dit
E	...	dit
F	..-.	di-di-dah-dit
G	---.	dah-dah-dit
H	....	di-di-di-dit
I	..	di-dit
J	.- - -	di-dah-dah-dah
K	-. -	dah-di-dah
L	.- . -	di-dah-di-dit
M	---	dah-dah
N	-. .	dah-dit
O	---	dah-dah-dah
P	.- - .	di-dah-dah-dit
Q	-. - .	dah-dah-di-dah
R	.- . -	di-dah-dit
S	... .	di-di-dit
T	-. -	dah
U	.. -	di-di-dah
V	... -	di-di-di-dah
W	-. - -	di-dah-dah
X	-. . -	dah-di-di-dah
Y	-. - -	dah-di-dah-dah
Z	--- -	dah-dah-di-dit

Number	Code	Phonetic
1	.... -	di-dah-dah-dah-dah
2	... - -	di-di-dah-dah-dah
3	.. - - -	di-di-di-dah-dah
4	. - - - -	di-di-di-di-dah
5	.....	di-di-di-di-dit
6	.... -	dah-di-di-di-dit
7	... - -	dah-dah-di-di-dit
8	.. - - -	dah-dah-dah-di-dit
9	. - - - -	dah-dah-dah-dah-dit
0	-----	dah-dah-dah-dah-dah

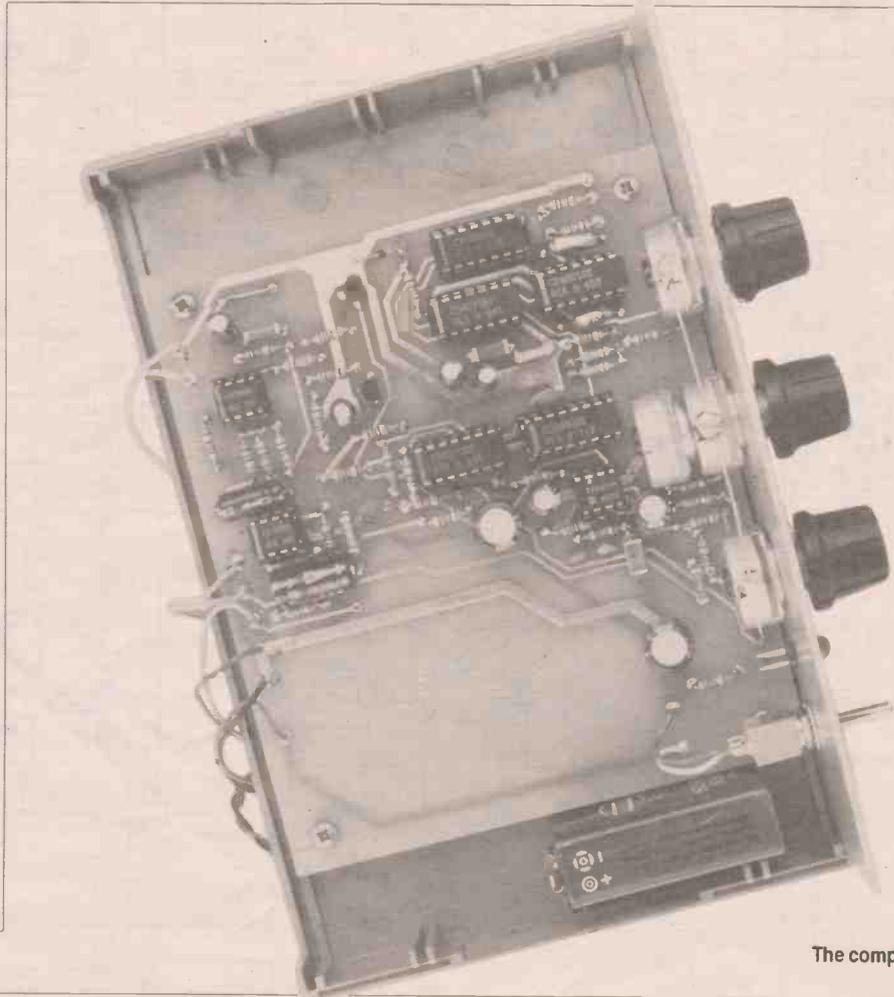
Punctuation	Code	Phonetic
Full stop (.)	... - -	di-dah-di-dah-di-dah
Comma (,)	.. - - -	dah-dah-di-di-dah-dah
Question mark (?)	. - - - .	di-di-dah-dah-di-dit

**Procedure signals**

Code	Phonetic
Error (eight dots)	..... di-di-di-di-di-di-di-dit
Preliminary call (CT)	-. - . dah-di-dah-di-dah
Wait (AS)	-. - . di-dah-di-di-dit
Break sign (=)	-. - . dah-di-di-di-dah

**Fraction bar or stroke (/)**

End of message (AR)	.. - . . dah-di-di-dah-dit
End of work (VA)	.. - . . di-dah-di-dah-dit
Invitation to transmit (K)	- . - . dah-di-dah



The completed unit

Table 1. The international morse code

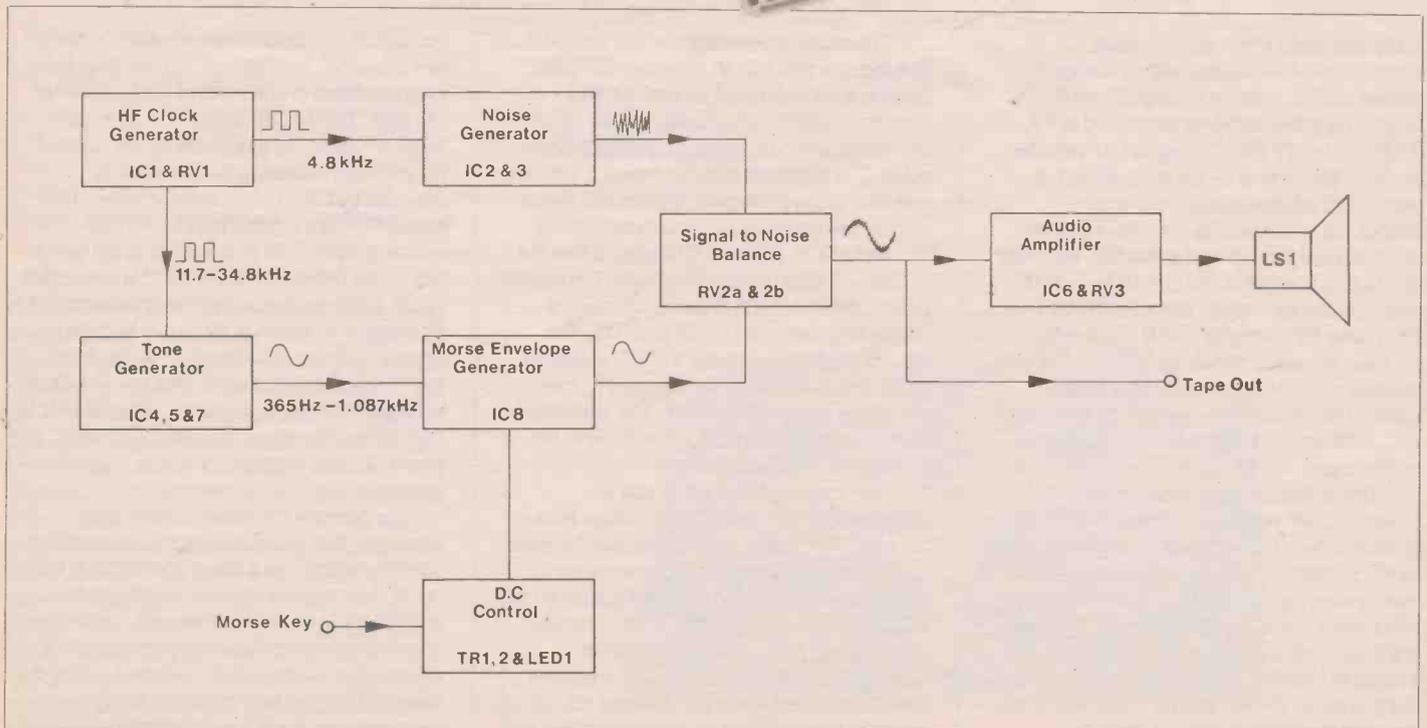


Figure 1. Block diagram

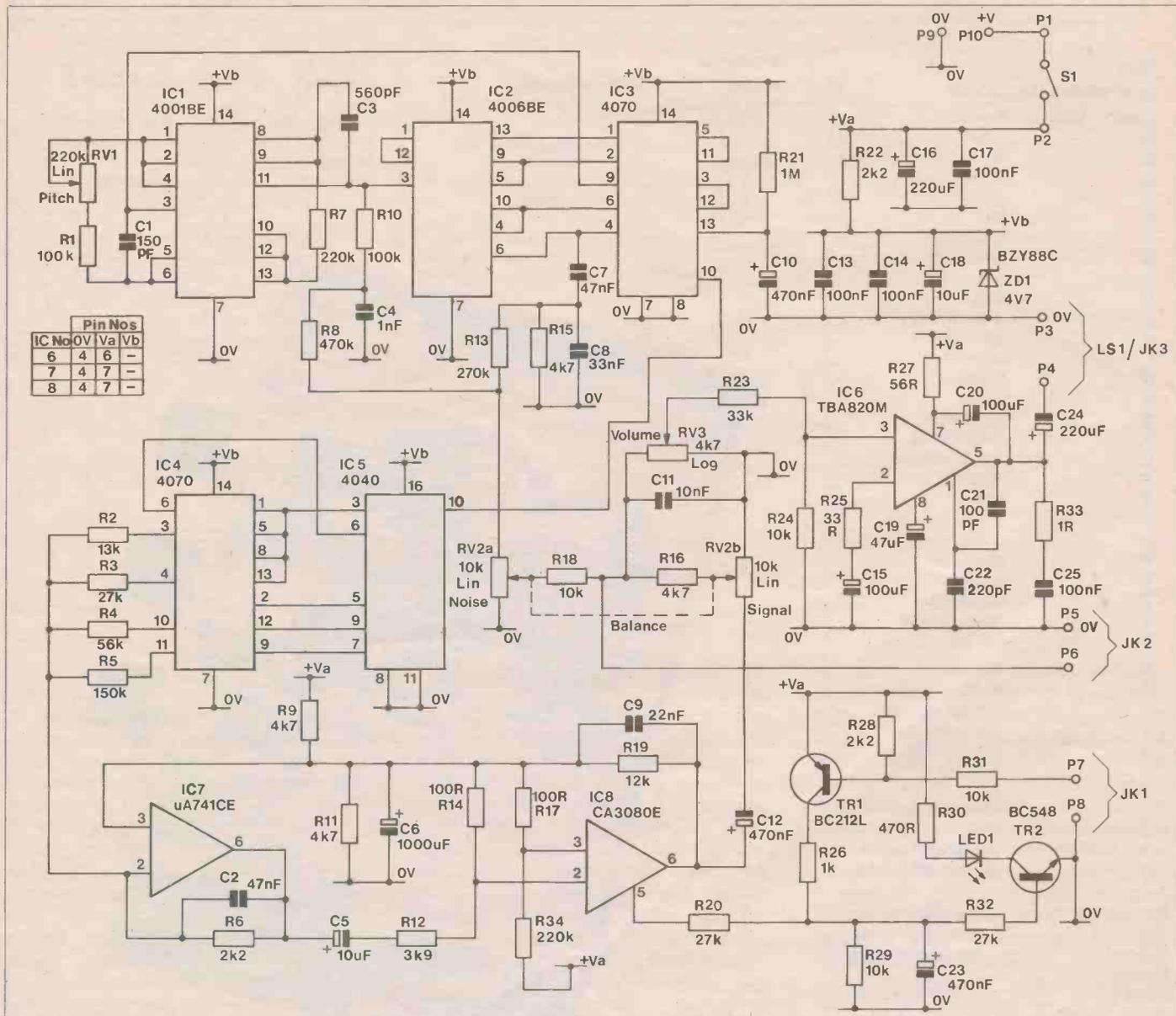


Figure 2. Circuit

to the semiconductors and polarised components. The positive supply voltage is applied to P10, passing through S1 on P1, P2 and the negative supply is connected to P9, the ground or 0V line. Capacitor C16 provides the main decoupling for the +Va analogue supply and additional high frequency decoupling is supplied by C17. NOTE when using an unregulated mains adaptor, the value of C16 must be increased to a 1000µF at 16V single-ended electrolytic capacitor (FF17T). The power for the digital IC's is derived from the main analogue supply by R22 and the zener diode ZD1. To prevent digit noise getting back to the main supply rail, capacitors C13, C14 and C18 are used to decouple the +Vb supply.

The digital tone and noise generators require a clock signal to set the correct timing of each circuit. These signals are generated by IC1, a 4001BE, used as two independent free running oscillators. The clock frequency required by the noise generator is 4.8kHz and this is set by the values of R7, C3. To provide a variable tone the frequency of the other clock is set by R1, C1 and RV1, this allows the output to be adjusted from 11.7kHz to 34.8kHz.

The noise is generated by IC2 an 18-bit shift register and IC3 an exclusive OR gate. Several feedback loops around the shift register cause it to produce a pseudo-random bit pattern which closely approximates white noise. The feedback is taken from the 5th, 9th and 18th stage in the shift register and these outputs are gated by IC3 which controls the 'D' input of IC2. R21 and C10 ensure that the system will start up from switch on. The noise output on pin 4 of IC3 is passed through a simple filter network C7, C8 and R15. The 4.8kHz clock signal on pin 3 of IC2 is filtered by C4 and R10, these two signals are then combined using R8 and R13. This simulated radio interference is then fed to RV2a in the signal to noise balance circuit.

The tone is generated by IC4 an exclusive OR gate and IC5 a 12 stage binary counter. This configuration produces 16 digital codes, which are sequentially generated at the rate of the incoming clock frequency on pin 10 of IC5. The output of IC4 is then changed into an audio tone by using a digital to analogue converter. Four bits of the counter feed the resistor ladder R2, 3, 4 and R5, either in true or inverted form to give the positive and negative half cycles. It is the state of the fifth

counter bit that determines whether or not the four bits are to be inverted, by changing the logic condition of one input of each exclusive OR gate. The 741 op-amp IC7 is used as a buffer amplifier, its gain is set by the value of R6 and high frequency suppression is provided by C2. The op-amp requires a half supply DC bias applied to pin 3, its non-inverting input. This bias voltage is set by the two 4.7kΩ resistors R9, R11 and is decoupled by C6. Each analogue cycle is constructed of 32 steps, this results in the audio tone being exactly 32 times less than that of the clock frequency. Since the clock runs from 11.7kHz to 34.8kHz the tone produced will be 365Hz to 1.087kHz. This signal then passes through C5 and R12 to the input of the Morse envelope generator.

To produce the correct Morse tone envelope, IC8 a CA3080E transconductance amplifier is used as a linear gain control. With no DC bias applied to pin 5 the gain of the amplifier is at minimum. However, as the bias voltage increases the signal output on pin 6 will reach its maximum. This level is set by the value of R19 and any undesirable high frequency signals are suppressed by C9. This has the effect of smoothing out the individual

steps that make up the waveform, thus leaving the tone as clean as possible. The bias for IC8 is generated by TR1 in the DC control stage. This PNP transistor is normally biased off by R28. However, when the Morse key switch contacts join P7 to P8 the hold off bias voltage is reduced by R31 and the +Va supply will appear on its collector. If this hard on/off voltage condition was used, the shape of the envelope would be as seen in Figure 3A. This will produce a sharp clicking sound with the tone when keying the Morse characters. To prevent this, the envelope should resemble the one shown in Figure 3B. This soft on/off option has a short attack and decay slope which results in a more pleasant sound being produced. The rate of attack is set by the time constant of R26 and C23. While the decay is controlled by the combined effect of R20, R29 and R32. The resistor R20 is necessary in limiting the amount of DC current fed to pin 5 of IC8 and R32 limits the drive current to the base of TR2. This NPN transistor is used as a saturated switch to control the red light emitting diode LED1 and R30 acts as a collector current limiter. Each time the Morse key is pressed TR2 is biased on and LED1 will light until the key is released. The envelope controlled audio signal from pin 6 of IC8 is fed via C12 to RV2b in the signal to noise balance circuit.

The balance stage is a simple crossfade control and when it is rotated in a clockwise direction the wiper of RV2a moves towards the 0V line. Thus reducing the level of simulated radio noise, while the wiper of RV2b moves towards the output of the Morse envelope generator. The signals are joined by

two resistors R16, R18 to a common mixing point, which feeds the volume control of the on-board power amplifier and the tape output on P6.

The amplifier circuit uses a TBA820M, IC6, which was chosen for its low quiescent current, good ripple rejection and low crossover distortion. C11 is placed across the volume control, RV3, to reduce the pick up of stray external RF interference. The wiper of RV3 is connected to the signal input pin of IC6

via the potential divider, R23 and R24. Resistor R25 on pin 2 in conjunction with C15 are used to set the gain of the amplifier. C19 is connected to pin 8 for ripple rejection and C21, C22 to pin 1 for high frequency compensation. The bootstrap components R27, C20 are attached to pins 5 and 7, with the zobel network R33, C25 connected to the 0V rail. Pin 5 has a DC potential so a blocking capacitor, C24, is used to feed the output of IC6 to the 8Ω loudspeaker or headphones on P3 and P4.

## PCB assembly

The PCB is a double-sided, plated-through hole type, chosen for maximum reliability and stability. However, removal of a misplaced component is quite difficult with this kind of board so please double-check each component type, value and its polarity where appropriate, before soldering! The PCB has a printed legend to assist you in correctly positioning each component, see Figure 4.

The sequence in which the components are fitted is not critical. However, the following instructions will be of use in making these tasks as straightforward as possible. It is usually easier to start with the smaller components. Begin with the resistors as usual, then the ceramic, polystyrene, polyester and electrolytic capacitors. The polarity for the electrolytic capacitors is shown by a plus sign (+) matching that on the PCB legend. However on some capacitors the polarity is designated by a negative symbol (-) in which case the lead nearest this symbol goes away from the positive sign on the legend.

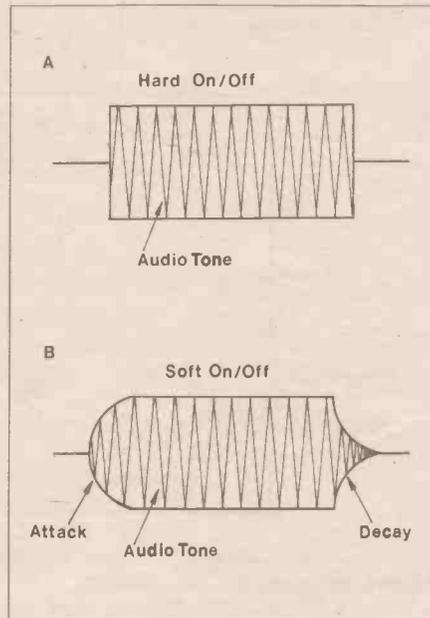


Figure 3. Morse signal envelope shaping

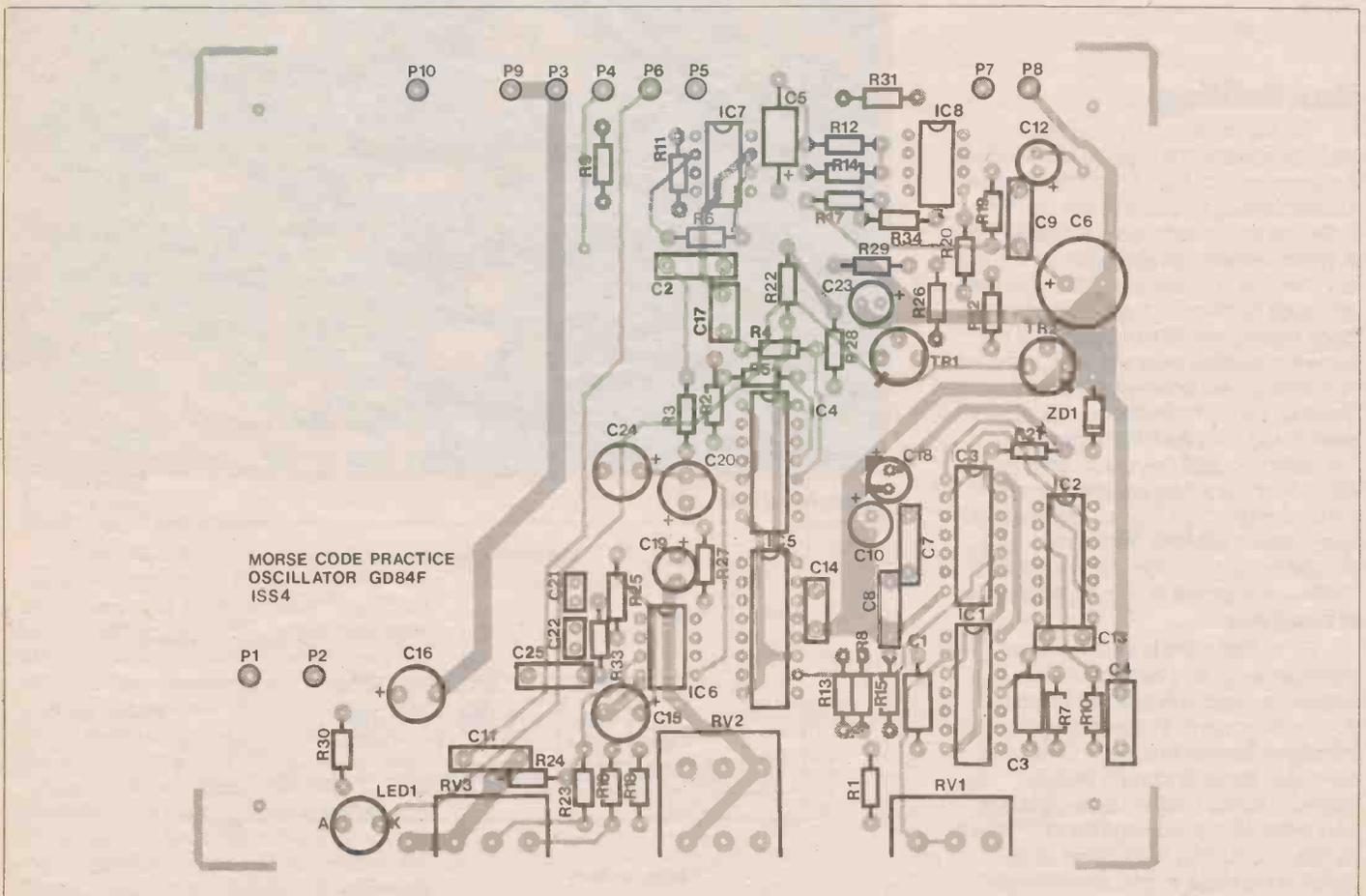


Figure 4. Track and layout of the PCB

The zener diode has a band at one end to identify the cathode connection. Be sure to position it according to the legend. There are only two transistors in the entire project, but you must carefully identify each type and match the case to the outline shown on the legend. Next, install the IC sockets ensuring that you fit the appropriate holder in each position, matching the notch with the block on the legend. Now fit the IC's in the sockets, making certain that they are the correct way round and pushed down firmly into each holder. When mounting LED1 it must be 11 millimetres above the board and bent over at 90°, see Figure 6. The LED has a short lead and a flat edge on one side of its case to identify the cathode (K) connection. When inserting it into the board make sure that it is the correct way round, otherwise it will not light.

Next prepare the three rotary potentiometers by cutting the spindles to a length of 10mm. Install them into the board making certain that they are pushed down firmly on to the surface, see Figure 6. An earthing strap is then soldered to the metal body of each pot and then to the 0V ground near to RV3, see Figure 6.

This completes the assembly of the PCB. The remaining components are connected to the circuit board by wires at a later stage. You should now check your work very carefully making sure that all the solder joints are sound. It is also very important that the track side of the circuit board does not have any trimmed component leads standing proud by more than 4mm. Further information on soldering and assembly techniques can be found in the Constructors Guide included in this kit.

## Box drilling

The box that the unit is designed to fit is the Vero type 215. It is supplied with anodised aluminium panels, four self-adhesive feet and four self-tapping screws to secure the PCB. Follow the drilling instructions in Figures 7 and 8. When preparing the aluminium panels, the self-adhesive front and back trim can be used as a guide for checking the positioning of the holes. Having completed the drilling, at the same time clearing away any swarf, clean the aluminium panels and apply the trim by removing the protective backing. Carefully position and firmly push them down using a dry, clean cloth until they are securely in place. Next drill out the loudspeaker holes in the lid of the box, see Figure 8. Using a good quality impact adhesive, secure the loudspeaker to the inside of the lid, but be careful not to get any glue on the paper cone of the speaker.

Fit the front panel to the three rotary potentiometers using the shake-proof washers and nuts provided with the pots. Secure the knobs so that their pointers are at the fully-anticlockwise position. Check that they travel smoothly round to the fully-clockwise position, without scraping on the front panel. Next position the red LED through its hole, but DO NOT fit the power on/off switch at this stage. Finally, mount the four chassis sockets at the correct positions on the back panel.

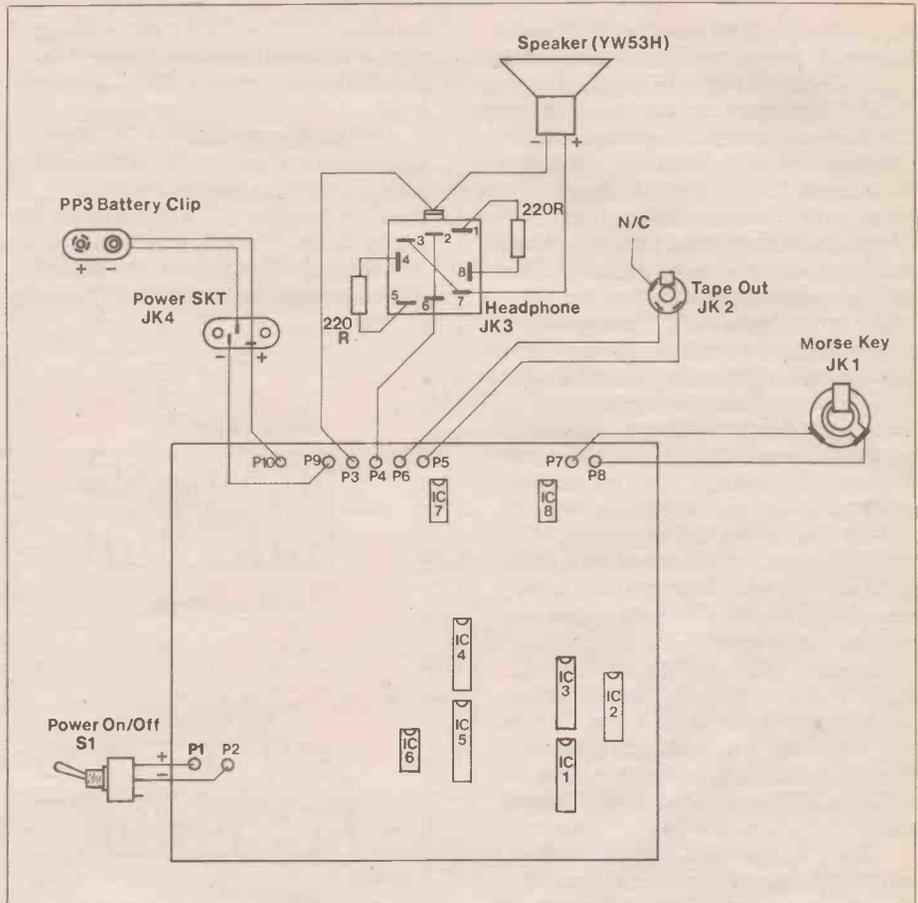
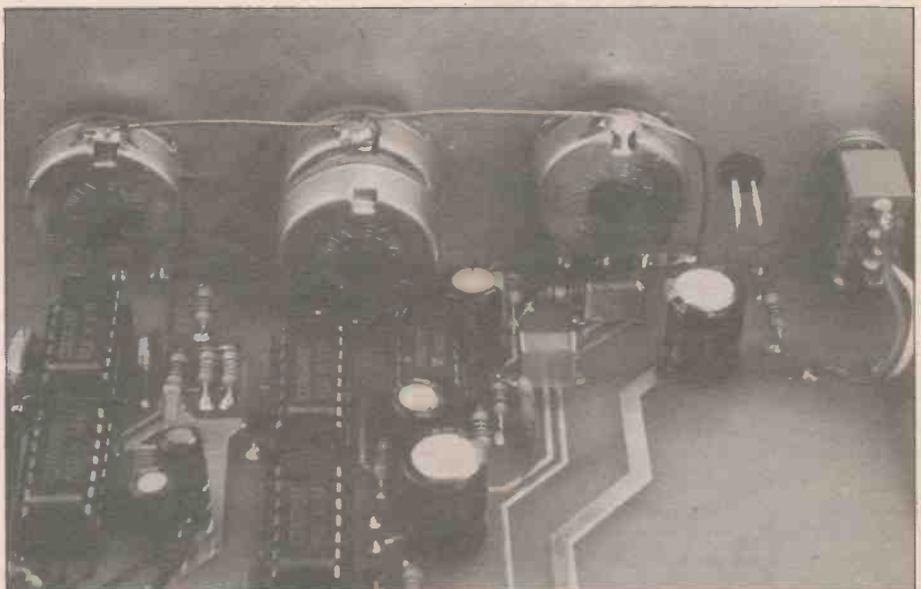


Figure 5. Wiring diagram



View on rear of pots

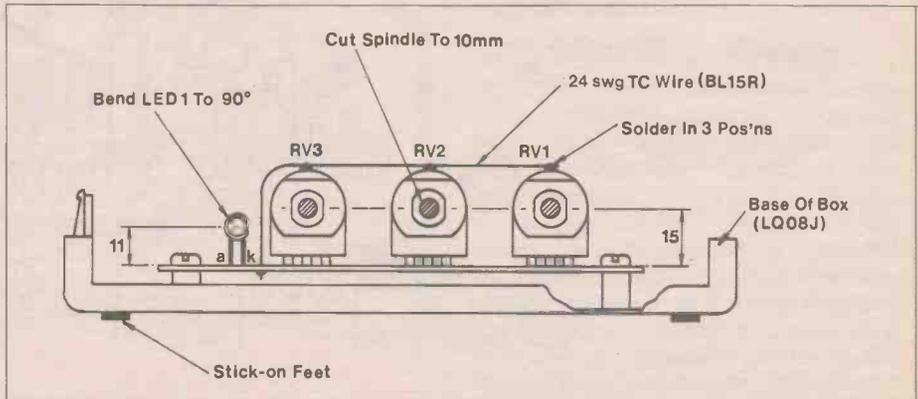


Figure 6. Assembly drawing

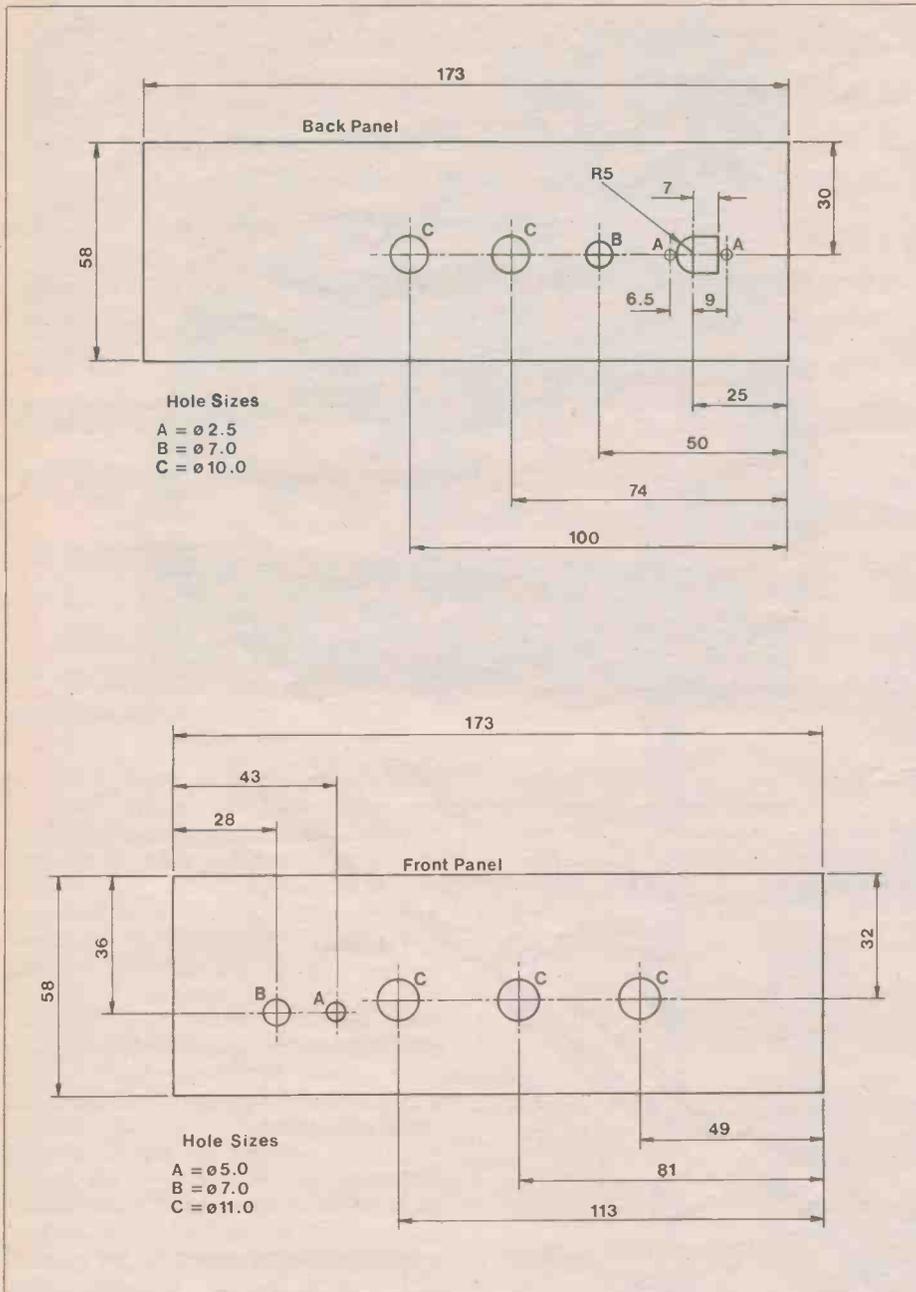


Figure 7. Front and back panel drilling

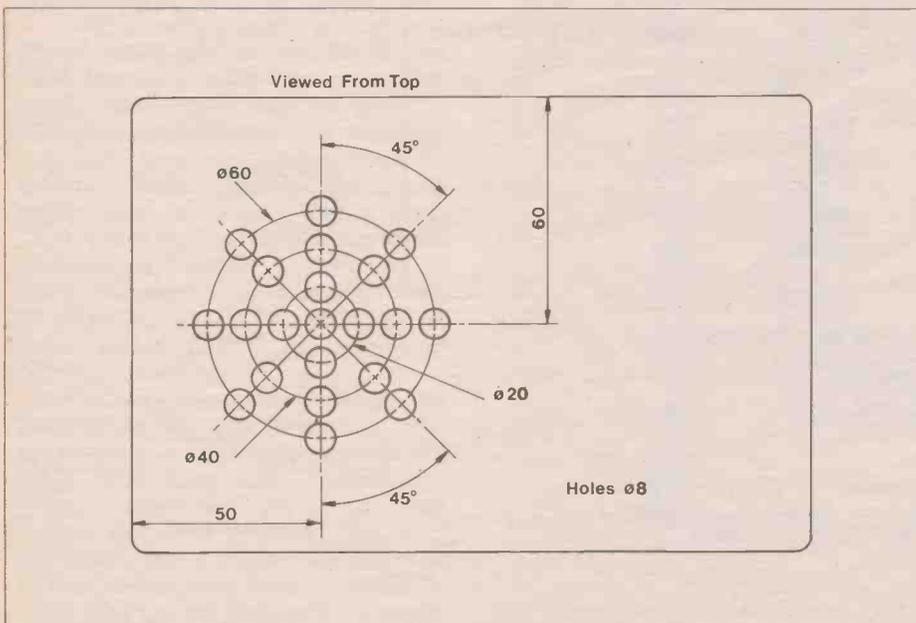


Figure 8. Box lid drilling

## Wiring

If you purchase a complete kit from Maplin it should contain a length of ribbon cable. No specific colour has been designated for each wire connection, it is entirely up to you. The use of coloured ribbon cable is to simplify matters, thus making it easier to trace separate connections to off-board components, just in case there is a fault in any given part of the circuit. Strip off from the main group whichever colour you prefer for each installation.

Carefully follow the wiring shown in Figure 5. The power on/off switch S1 is connected to P1 and P2 using two 35mm lengths of wire. Cut the wires on the PP3 battery clip to 70mm, use the off cuts to connect the power socket JK4 to P9 and P10. Socket JK3 has two 220Ω resistors to reduce the output power level when using headphones. This socket is connected to P3 and P4 on the PCB using two 70mm lengths of wire. Next fit two wire links and the 140mm speaker leads, but do not connect the loudspeaker at this time. The Morse key input JK1 and the tape output JK2 are both connected to the PCB using 60mm lengths of wire. This completes the wiring of the PCB assembly. Now check your work very carefully making sure that all the wires and solder joints are sound.

## Final assembly

Mount the four stick-on feet on the base of the unit and secure the board using the self-tapping screws supplied with the Vero box, see Figure 6. Install the power switch on the front panel and slot the back panel into the base. When handling the loudspeaker, be careful not to damage the paper cone or the terminals on the back. Connect the speaker to the wires from the headphone socket and lay the lid to one side of the base.

The PP3 battery is fixed to the base, near to the power switch using a Quickstick self-adhesive pad. Each time the battery is exchanged the pad is destroyed, so a strip of ten pads (HB22Y) is recommended in the optional parts list. DO NOT fit the clip onto the battery until it is called for during the testing stage.

## Testing

All the tests can be made with an electronic digital, or analogue moving coil, multimeter. The following test results were obtained from the prototype using a digital multimeter and a 9V PP3 battery as the power supply. Before commencing the tests, set the three rotary controls as follows, VOLUME 0, BALANCE 'signal' 5 and TONE 5.

The first test is to ensure that there are no short circuits before you connect the battery. Set your multimeter to read OHMS on its resistance range and connect the probes to the terminals on the battery clip. Turn on the power and with the probes either way round a reading greater than 60Ω should be obtained. Remove the probes and fasten the negative terminal of the clip to the battery.

Next monitor the supply current, set your meter to read DC mA and place it in the positive line of the battery. A current reading of approximately 10mA should be seen and the red LED should not light up. Using a piece of

wire, place a temporary short circuit across P7 and P8 on the PCB. The 'KEY' LED should now light and a current reading of approximately 26mA will be observed. As the volume control is advanced, an audio tone of approximately 550Hz should be heard and at maximum output the current drain will be approximately 140mA. The frequency can be varied by altering the position of the tone control, 370Hz at the '0' setting to 1.093kHz when set fully-clockwise. As the balance control is swung from SIGNAL to NOISE the strength of the tone will decrease as the level of simulated radio noise increases.

Remove your meter, fasten the PP3 clip to the battery and disconnect the wire link from P7, P8 on the PCB. This completes the testing of the Morse code practice oscillator. Before fitting the lid to the base, a small piece of acoustic wadding (RY06G) can be placed inside the box to reduce cabinet resonance.

## Morse key preparation

For best results the key should be secured to a stabilising base, made from a sturdy material. The prototype used a 17mm thick wooden base, measuring 230mm by 100mm, see Figure 9. To prevent the base from slipping, four stick-on feet are mounted underneath the unit. The key is held in place by two fixing screws and the cable is fastened using a round 3.5mm plastic cable retainer.

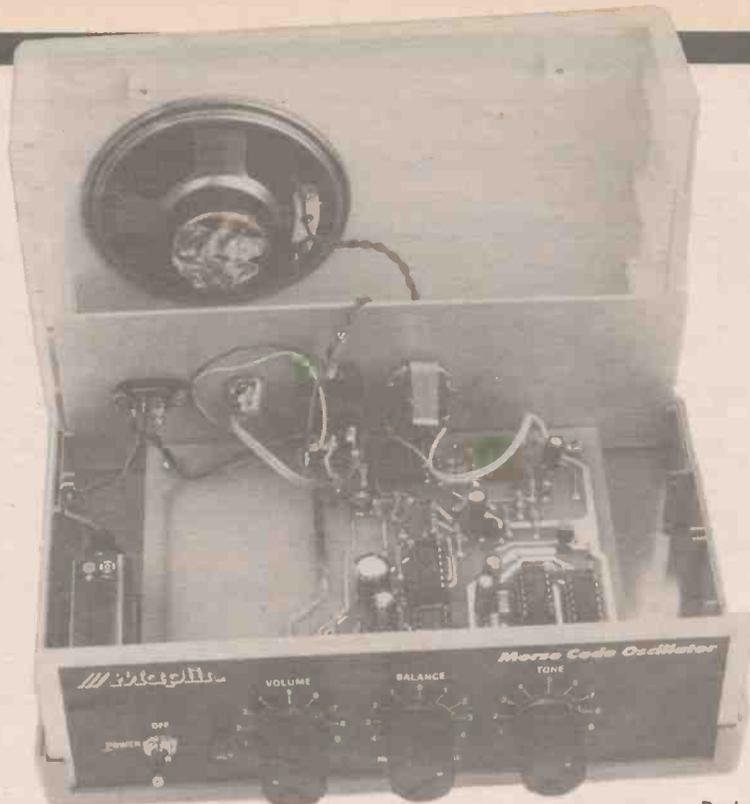
The movement and pressure of the key is controlled by the two adjusting screws and once set are fixed by the locknuts, see Figure 9. As your Morse skills improve, you may need to reduce the amount of movement and pressure to allow for higher operating speeds. The tune up lever is used if both hands are required in setting up the Morse oscillator or any other equipment.

## Using the Morse Code Practice Oscillator

The DC power for the unit is supplied by the internal alkaline PP3 9 volt battery. However, if long practice sessions are employed, external power can be fed into JK4 from a 9V regulated mains adaptor (YB23A). If you use an unregulated adaptor (XX09K), its voltage output must be set to 7.5V and the value of C16 inside Morse unit be increased to 1000µF at 16V (FF17T). This is done in an attempt to reduce the level of hum, which is caused by the high amount of ripple found on this basic type of supply. When using either adaptor, its polarity must be set to produce the positive voltage, on the centre pin of the 2.5mm power plug.

With the addition of the simple circuit shown in Figure 10, the Morse unit can be controlled by a TTL logic source, i.e. a computer. The minimum voltage required to key the unit is approximately +1V, while the maximum input should not exceed +12V or go below 0V.

For your private listening and so you won't disturb others, the unit has a headphone jack which cuts out the speaker as the plug is inserted. When you begin to learn the Morse code it is advisable to use the clean tone, i.e. balance control set fully-clockwise. However, to train your ears in picking out the weaker signals from the interference commonly found on the short wave bands, the noise level can be progressively increased. The way this is



Back panel wiring

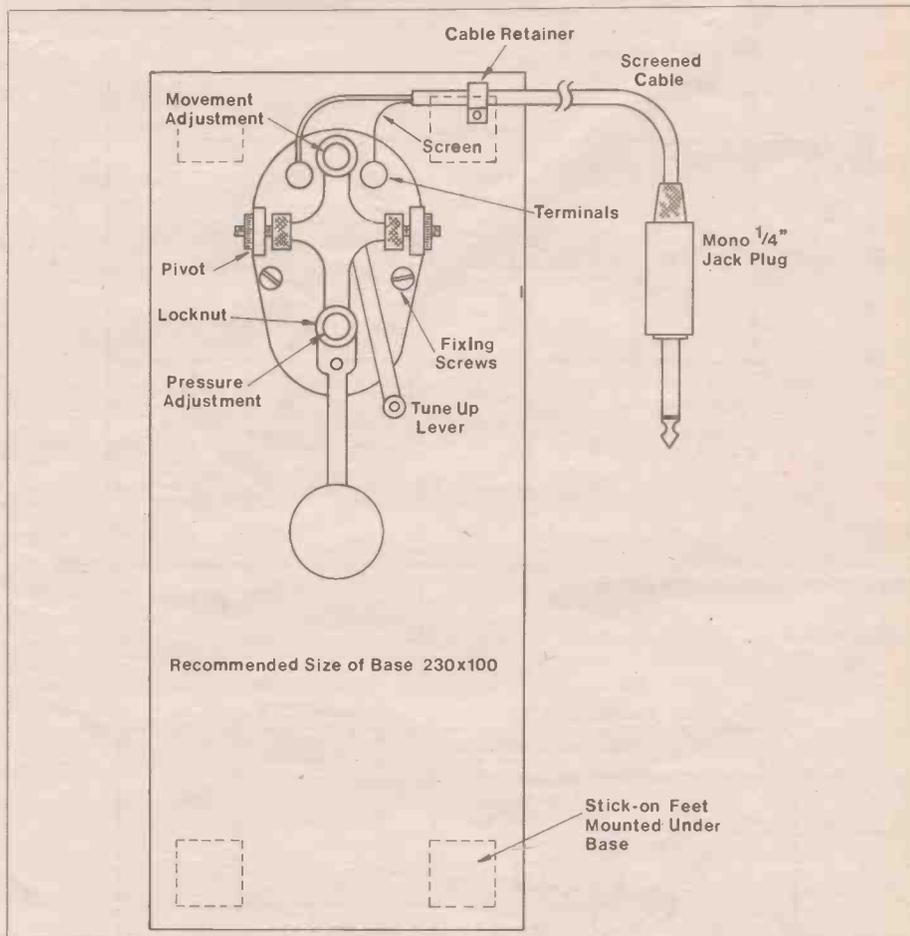


Figure 9. Morse key assembly

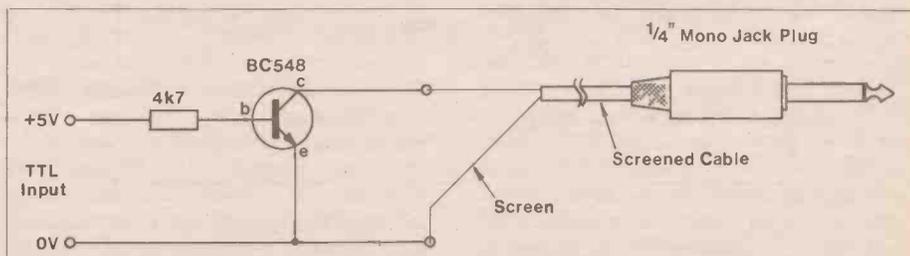


Figure 10. TTL interface

expressed is the RST code, readability, strength and tone, see Table 2.

Further information on learning Morse code can be found in the following publications:

- A guide to amateur radio, by Pat Hawker G3VA
- Amateur radio questions and answers, by F.C Judd G2BCX.
- The secret of learning Morse code, by Mark Francis.

All of these are available from the Radio Society of Great Britain (RSGB) publications, Lambda House, Cranborne Road, Potters Bar, Hertfordshire EN6 3JW.



Rear view showing the morse key and headphones

Table 2

**The RST code**

**Readability**

R1	Unreadable
R2	Barely readable
R3	Readable with difficulty
R4	Readable with practically no difficulty
R5	Perfectly readable

**Strength**

S1	Faint signals, barely perceptible
S2	Very weak signals
S3	Weak signals
S4	Fair signals
S5	Fairly good signals
S6	Good signals
S7	Moderately strong signals
S8	Strong signals
S9	Extremely strong signals

**Tone**

T1	Extremely rough tone
T2	Very rough tone
T3	Rough tone
T4	Rather rough but better than T3
T5	Reasonably clean tone
T6	Clean tone
T7	Nearly d.c. tone i.e. a little mains hum audible
T8	Good d.c. tone, slight trace of hum
T9	Pure tone

Table 2. The RST code

**MORSE CODE PRACTICE OSCILLATOR PARTS LIST**

RESISTORS: All 0.6W 1% Metal Film

R1,10	100k	2	(M100K)
R2	13k	1	(M13K)
R3,20,32	27k	3	(M27K)
R4	56k	1	(M56K)
R5	150k	1	(M150K)
R6,22,28	2k2	3	(M2K2)
R7,34	220k	2	(M220K)
R8	470k	1	(M470K)
R9,11,15,16	4k7	4	(M4K7)
R12	3k9	1	(M3K9)
R13	270k	1	(M270K)
R14,17	100Ω	2	(M100R)
R18,24,29,31	10k	4	(M10K)
R19	12k	1	(M12K)
R21	1M	1	(M1M)
R23	33k	1	(M33K)
R25	33Ω	1	(M33R)
R26	1k	1	(M1K)
R27	56Ω	1	(M56R)
R30	470Ω	1	(M470R)
R33	1Ω	1	(M1R)
RV1	220k Pot Lin	1	(FW06G)
RV2	10k Dual Pot Lin	1	(FW85G)
RV3	4k7 Pot Log	1	(FW21X)

**CAPACITORS**

C1	150pF Polystyrene	1	(BX29C)
C2,7	47nF Polylyer	2	(WW37S)
C3	560pF Polystyrene	1	(BX33L)
C4	1nF Polylyer	1	(WW22Y)
C5	10μF 25V Axial Electrolytic	1	(FB22Y)
C6	1000μF 16V PC Electrolytic	1	(FF17T)
C8	33nF Polylyer	1	(WW35Q)
C9	22nF Polylyer	1	(WW33L)
C10,12,23	470nF 50V PC Electrolytic	3	(FF00A)
C11	10nF Polylyer	1	(WW29C)
C18	10μF 25V PC Electrolytic	1	(FF04E)
C13,14,17	100nF Mini Disc	3	(YR75S)
C15,20	100μF 25V PC Electrolytic	2	(FF11M)
C16,24	220μF 16V PC Electrolytic	2	(FF13P)
C19	47μF 25V PC Electrolytic	1	(FF08J)
C21	100pF Ceramic	1	(WX56L)
C22	220pF Ceramic	1	(WX60Q)
C25	100nF Polylyer	1	(WW41U)

**SEMICONDUCTORS**

IC1	4001BE	1	(QX01B)
IC2	4006BE	1	(QX03D)

IC3,4	4070BE	2	(QX26D)
IC5	4040BE	1	(QW27E)
IC6	TBA820M	1	(WQ69T)
IC7	μA741C	1	(QL22Y)
IC8	CA3080E	1	(YH58N)
TR1	BC212L	1	(OB60Q)
TR2	BC848	1	(OB73Q)
ZD1	BZY88C5V1	1	(QH07H)
LED1	Red LED	1	(WL27E)
<b>MISCELLANEOUS</b>			
S1	Sub-Min Toggle A	1	(FH00A)
LS1	Loudspeaker Lo-Z 768	1	(YW53H)
	Morse Code Practice Oscillator PCB	1	(GD84F)
	PP3 Battery Clip	1	(HF28F)
	Ribbon Cable 10 Way	1 Mtr	(XR06C)
	8-pin DIL Socket	3	(BL17T)
	14-pin DIL Socket	4	(BL18U)
	16-pin DIL Socket	1	(BL19V)

**OPTIONAL**

JK1	Jack Skt Open	1	(HF91Y)
JK2	Jack Skt 3.5mm	1	(HF82D)
JK3	DPDT Jack Socket	1	(BW80B)
JK4	2.5mm Chassis Socket	1	(FT97F)
	220Ω Headphone resistors	2	(M220R)
	Quickstick Pads	1 Strip	(HB22Y)
	Knob K14B	3	(FK39N)
	Acoustic Wadding	1	(RY06G)
	Verobox 215	1	(LQ08J)
	Front Trim	1	(JG26D)
	Back Trim	1	(JG27E)
	Morse Key	1	(LQ01B)
	Screened Cable	1 Mtr	(XR13P)
	Jack Plug Plas	1	(HF88G)
	Battery 6LF22 (PP3)	1	(FK67K)
	Regulated AC Adaptor	1	(YB23A)

A complete kit of all parts, excluding Optional items, is available:  
Order As LM48C (Morse Code Oscillator Kit) Price £19.95

The following parts are also available separately, but are not shown in our 1988 catalogue:

Morse Code Practice Oscillator PCB Order As GD84F Price £8.95  
Front Trim Order As JG26D Price £1.98  
Back Trim Order As JG27E Price £2.20

# Diodes

by R. Richards

A material such as metal is a good conductor with low resistivity and is only slightly affected by changes in temperature, materials such as plastics are good insulators with very high resistivity and are also only slightly affected by temperature changes. Semiconductor materials have a resistivity somewhere between that of a conductor and an insulator. The resistivity of this material can be accurately changed by adding small quantities of impurities and its conductivity approximately doubles for each 20 degree centigrade temperature change.

The commonest materials used in the manufacture of diodes are silicon and germanium. These are treated with impurities to alter the conductivity and this is known as doping. One half of the diode is treated with indium aluminium or gallium which forms the P region, the other half is treated with phosphorous arsenic or antimony to form the N region. The area where the P and N type materials are fused together is known as the P N junction or potential barrier. To understand how diodes behave in a circuit is simple, but one would require a sound knowledge of physics to fully understand the operation of semiconductors, so for simplicity we shall deal with basic principles only.

The P type material contains the positive carriers and the N type material the negative carriers, the potential barrier is formed between the two types and acts as a kind of insulator, see Figure 1a.

When the negative pole of a battery is connected to the P type region and the positive pole to the N type region, the carriers are drawn apart widening the depletion zone and preventing any flow of current. Under these conditions the diode is said to be reverse bias, see Figure 1c.

If, on the other hand, the positive pole of the battery is connected to the P region and the negative pole to the N region, the carriers will be drawn across the PN junction allowing current to flow. The diode is now said to be forward biased, see Figure 1b.

The P region of the diode is called the Anode (denoted as A) and the N region is called the Cathode (denoted as K), so from the previous explanation you will appreciate that the conventional current can only flow in one direction, i.e. from anode to cathode.

Diodes are used quite a lot in electronic circuits and rely on the unidirectional nature of the component and will repel the flow of current from cathode to anode until the pressure builds up to the breakdown voltage, and if heavy current is allowed to flow it will

damage the diode. This breakdown voltage is known as the peak inverse voltage (P.i.v.), it is therefore essential when choosing diodes that the P.i.v. should be greater than the maximum voltage the diode is expected to carry.

It must also be noted that a diode will not conduct until a certain voltage is reached to overcome the junction barrier. These values are known as the potential barrier and are different for each type of material. Typical threshold voltages are silicon 0.5 to 0.7 volts and germanium 0.1 to 0.2 volts. Germanium diodes are used where a low forward voltage is required, but the P.i.v. is much lower than the silicon diode.

There are two kinds of diodes, namely the signal diode and the rectifier diode. Signal diodes are used for demodulation, clamping and gating. They have a very small junction which can only pass small amounts of current with low capacitance, which is a very desirable factor for use in high frequency circuits.

Rectifier diodes are used for power supplies of low frequency, normally used for rectifying AC voltages derived from mains transformers prior to smoothing and regulator circuits.

The modern types of diode are made from silicon and are encapsulated in plastics, but the larger types are encapsulated in a metal stud device, which has provision for mounting on a metal heatsink to dissipate the heat generated internally in the diode during operation. For example, the current flow and voltage drop across the diode causes a power loss which must be dissipated in the form of heat. Power diodes are therefore mounted on heatsinks to improve the cooling of the diode.

The circuit symbol for a diode is shown in Figure 2a. It will be noted that the arrow part of the symbol points in the direction of conventional current flow. Figure 2b illustrates the identification for plastic diodes with the ring marking the cathode end, usually this type is used for currents up to 1 ampere. Diodes from 1 to 3 amperes are also encapsulated in plastic but are generally larger, see Figure 2c. Diodes above 5 amperes are usually metal stud types and the screw end is normally the cathode and the diode symbol is often marked on the body, see Figure 2d.

There are many different diodes available, varying with peak inverse voltages from 8 to 1250 volts and capable of dealing with currents from 30mA to 20A. The most popular ones are listed in Table 1.

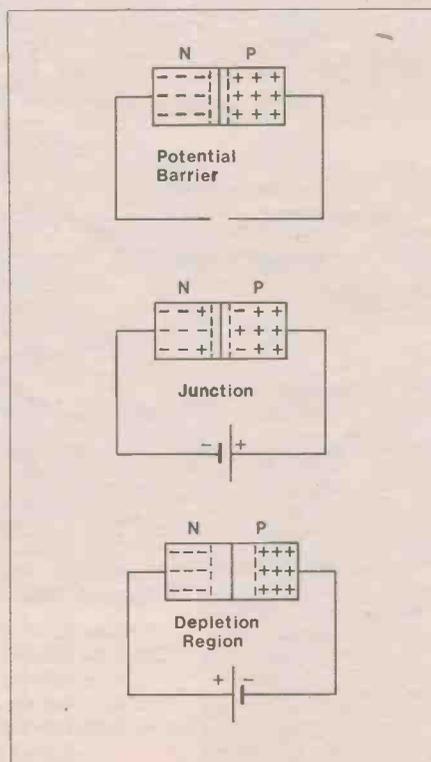


Figure 1. a) Unbiased junction, b) Forward bias, c) Reverse bias.

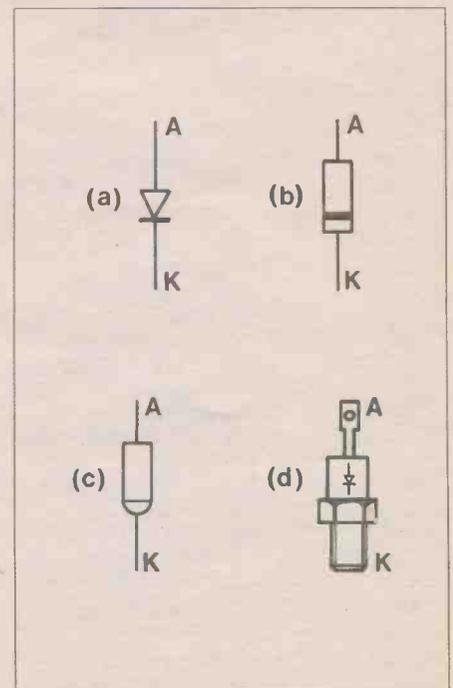


Figure 2. a) Diode symbol, b) 1 amp case, c) 3 amp case, d) Stud mounted, over 5 amp.

### Low Power (signal) Germanium

Device	Volts	Amperes
OA47	25	0.11
OA90	30	0.03
OA91	115	0.05

### Low Power (signal) Silicon

Device	Volts	Amperes
OA202	150	0.08
1N4148	75	0.075
1N914	75	0.075
BA154	50	0.03
BA155	100	0.1

### Power Rectifier Diodes

Device	Volts	Amperes
1N4001	150	1
1N4002	100	1
1N4003	200	1
1N4004	400	1
1N4005	600	1
1N4006	800	1
1N4007	1000	1
1N5400	50	3
1N5401	100	3
1N5402	200	3
1N5403	300	3
1N5404	400	3
1N5405	500	3
1N5406	600	3
1N5407	800	3
1N5408	1000	3
BYX71-350	350	7
BYX71-600	600	7

Table 1. The commonest diodes in use.

## Zener Diodes

The most common way of providing a fixed reference voltage is with a zener diode. Ordinary diodes will break down if the reverse voltage increases to the breakdown point. This occurs at a precise voltage which can be varied by adding specific amounts of dope to the semiconductor material. It is therefore possible to manufacture diodes which will break down at a fixed and predictable voltage. Zener diodes are made in such a way that the breakdown region is not damaged at the breakdown voltage providing the current is limited by a series resistor to a safe value.

The zener diode forms an excellent constant voltage source because in the breakdown region of operation the voltage drop across the diode remains constant and independent of the current flowing through it.

Zeners are specified by their breakdown voltage and their power rating, so by dividing the power rating by the breakdown voltage, the maximum current that can be safely allowed to flow can be deduced and is expressed in formula as  $I = P/V$ . For example, if we wish to know what is the safe current allowed to flow in a BZX61C5V6 where  $P = 1.3$  and  $V = 5.6$  we get  $I = 1.3/5.6 = 0.232$  or 232mA.

Figure 3a illustrates the circuit symbol used for a zener diode. It should be noted that the arrow part always points towards the positive supply rail. Low powered zener

diodes are encapsulated in plastic with a ring marking the cathode. The body is usually marked with the series code and the breakdown voltage, see Figure 3b. High current zeners are normally stud mounted in a similar fashion to their silicon cousins, see Figure 3c.

The most common use of zener diodes is for voltage stabilizing and so they are manufactured in a number of standard power ratings and breakdown voltages as shown in Table 2.

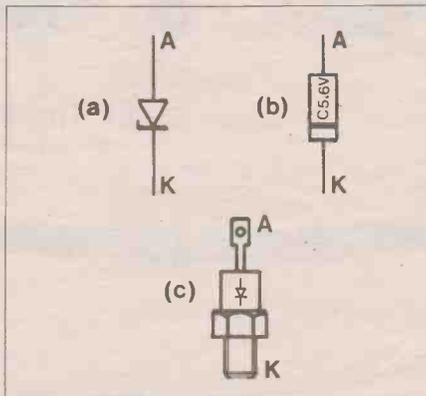


Figure 3. a) Zener diode symbol, b) Plastic case, c) Metal stud.

Series Code	Volts	Power in Watts
BZY88	2.7 to 33	0.4
BZX85	2.7 to 6.8	1.3
BZX61	7.5 to 72	1.3
1N5333	3.3 to 24	5
BZY93	9.1 to 75	20

Table 2. Zener diode ratings.

## Light Emitting Diodes

These diodes (which are often abbreviated to LED) are made of transparent semiconductor material which has the property of emitting light when forward biased. When the electrons cross the potential barrier in a forward bias the energy they lose will appear in the form of light. This is achieved by making the diode with gallium arsenide phosphide which produces light in the visible region when forward biased. The voltage drop across the LED is rather higher than that of a normal diode. Forward current of 10 to 50 milliamperes can produce a voltage drop of 1.5 to 2 volts. An LED is usually a two terminal device which will only allow current to flow in one direction, i.e. anode to cathode, see Figure 4a.

The P.i.v. of the LED is very low and if the device is subject to any reverse voltage then it should be protected by fitting an ordinary diode with reversed polarity and connected in parallel with it, see Figure 4c.

Colour	Diameter	Forward volts	Reverse volts	Max current	Max power
Red	0.2"	2V	5V	40mA	125mW
Green	0.2"	2V	5V	40mA	125mW
Yellow	0.2"	2V	5V	40mA	85mW

Table 3. LEDs.

The current flow through the LED must not exceed 50mA. To achieve this a resistor is inserted in series with the LED. The value of the resistor is calculated by the following formula:

$$R = \frac{E - 2}{I}$$

Where R = resistance, E = battery voltage, 2 = the voltage drop across the LED and I = the current flowing through the LED. See Figure 4d for example.

The circuit symbol for the LED is illustrated in Figure 4b. Note that the arrow part again points in the direction of conventional current flow. Apart from the single LED, arrays of LEDs can be combined to form a 7 segment LED display, as used in calculators and electronic recording devices for example. Single LEDs are manufactured in many colours although red, green and yellow are the most common, and are used for multitudinous purposes. Basic LED details are shown in Table 3.

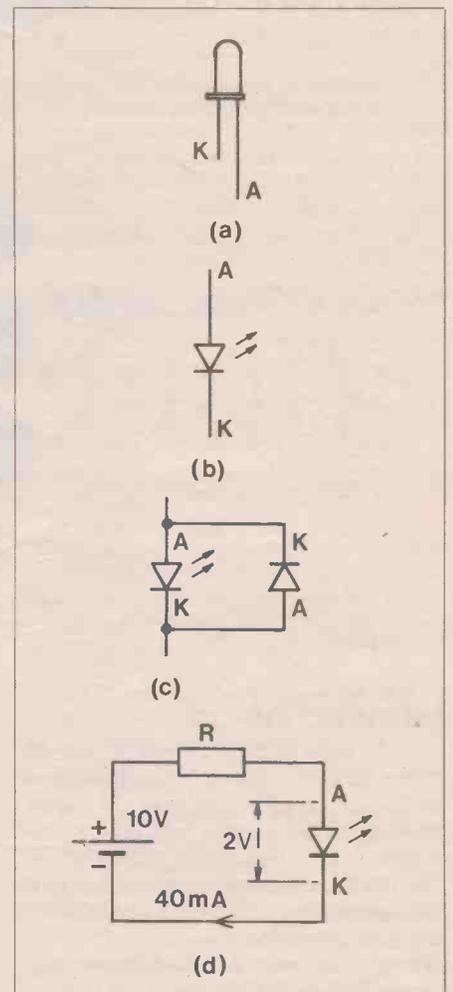


Figure 4. a) LED outline, b) symbol, c) Protected LED, d) Calculation for series resistor.

# NOISE

by Tim Watson  
BSc. (Hons), AMIEE.



## Introduction

The purpose of this article is twofold. Firstly, to give an introduction to types of noise and possible sources of noise. Secondly, a design, and full constructional details, for a noise generator are given. The main use of a noise generator is in testing equipment on the lab bench which will be subjected to noise in the field. For example, a modem designed to work over normal telephone lines may work fine in a noise free lab with zero line length, however as we all know, telephone lines can be very noisy, especially as they get longer. If you have ever built something which worked fine in the lab, but failed in the field, then noise may be the problem.

Virtually any signal in a system that is not desired might be classified as noise. However, the term noise is usually taken to mean an unwanted signal that has random properties. A few types will now be considered.

## White Noise

The noise power of white noise is flat across the frequency spectrum. That is to say, there is the same power of noise in each hertz, and it occurs at all frequencies. What ever frequency an item of equipment operates at it cannot escape white noise. The term 'noise bandwidth' is sometimes used with respect to an item of equipment. This means the bandwidth to which the item of equipment is sensitive to noise. For example, if a particular piece of equipment is designed to observe a low level analogue signal with a frequency of DC to 100Hz, then to help bring the signal out of the noise it would be sensible to low pass filter the signal, with a filter cut-off frequency just above 100Hz. The signal would be unaffected by the filter, but the unwanted noise above 100Hz would be rejected. The noise bandwidth would be said to be 100Hz. Of course, noise below 100Hz

would still be present.

Now let us consider some origins of white noise. Noise is often caused by thermal effects (including problems like thermal drift). All resistors generate white noise merely because they have a temperature, sometimes called 'Johnson' noise. The RMS noise is proportional to the square root of absolute temperature. The only way to get rid of the noise is to operate the resistor at 0°K (-273°C), not exactly an easy condition to meet!

The second most well known source of white noise is shot noise. This noise is due to the fact that current is not constant and smooth flowing, but consists of a stream of electrons. This causes current flow to fluctuate.

Both thermally generated and shot white noise are due to fundamental principles and as such can not be reduced by making better quality components, for example a carbon film resistor and a metal

film resistor of the same value will cause the same amount of thermally generated white noise. We have to live with this noise.

## Flicker Noise

Flicker noise is also known as  $1/f$  noise and pink noise. It is known as  $1/f$  noise since this describes the noise power spectrum, noise power is proportional to  $1/f$ , where  $f$  is frequency.  $1/f$  noise has equal power per frequency decade.  $1/f$  noise is an extra in that it is due to manufacturing imperfections. For example, a carbon film resistor will generate more  $1/f$  noise than a metal film resistor, simply because carbon film resistors are of lower quality than metal film resistors.

## Interference

Most other types of noise are commonly put into this class. It includes things such as mains 50Hz pickup, which is not at all random, and impulsive interference such as electrical motors, car ignitions, lightning, etc. Impulsive interference is broad band in the frequency spectrum.

## The Noise Generator

As mentioned at the start of this article any unit which may have to work when subjected to noise/interference will require testing on the lab bench before it can be placed in the field. To test noise performance a controllable noise source is needed. The noise generator design to be described here produces band limited white noise from virtually DC (0.0001Hz) to around 250kHz. The generator requires a supply between +5V (or  $\pm 2.5V$ ) and +18V (or  $\pm 9V$ ), split supply rails are not required, but can be used. The supply will typically be taken from the unit under test. A noise level control is provided to allow the noise output level to be adjusted. The absolute maximum output level is dependent on the supply voltage. Three outputs are provided, DC coupled, AC coupled and digital, the use of these outputs is described later.

## Pseudo Random Bit Sequences

The noise is generated using a pseudo random bit sequence (PRBS). A pseudo random bit sequence is a sequence of logic ones and zeros that appears to have random properties, that is the sequence has the same probability properties as that produced by repeatedly tossing a coin and calling logic one for heads, logic zero for tails. The bit sequence is produced using a digital shift register with exclusive OR feedback, thus the sequence is entirely predictable, however any portion of the sequence looks random. Since the sequence in this design is 8, 589, 934, 591 bits long and takes over two hours to repeat, it can be assumed to be as good as random in just about all circumstances.

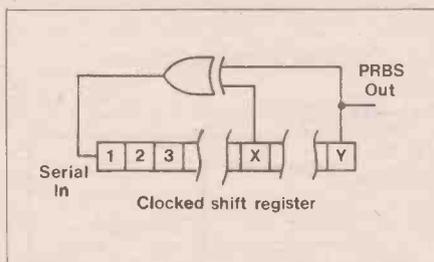


Figure 1. PRBS generator.

The basis of a PRBS generator is shown in Figure 1, a  $Y$  bit long shift register with EXOR feedback from the  $X$  and  $Y$  bits. In Figure 1, only two feedback taps are shown, in fact more than two taps may be needed, depending on the shift register length. The circuit described here uses a 33-bit shift register with feedback from bits 20 and 33. The feedback taps must be chosen correctly to give a maximum length bit sequence. The maximum number of different states for a  $Y$  bit shift register is  $2^Y$  (i.e. all binary permutations). However, the state of all zeros causes feedback of zero and the register stays stuck at zero. The maximum sequence length possible is  $2^Y - 1$ .

PRBS generators have other uses such as, encipherment of data, radar ranging codes, error checking (typically on disks, cyclic redundancy check characters, CRCC), digital signature analysis, etc. For the applications involving data, the data is fed into the shift register by adding it to the EXOR feedback. PRBS generators can be implemented in software, and are sometimes used as the basis of random number generators.

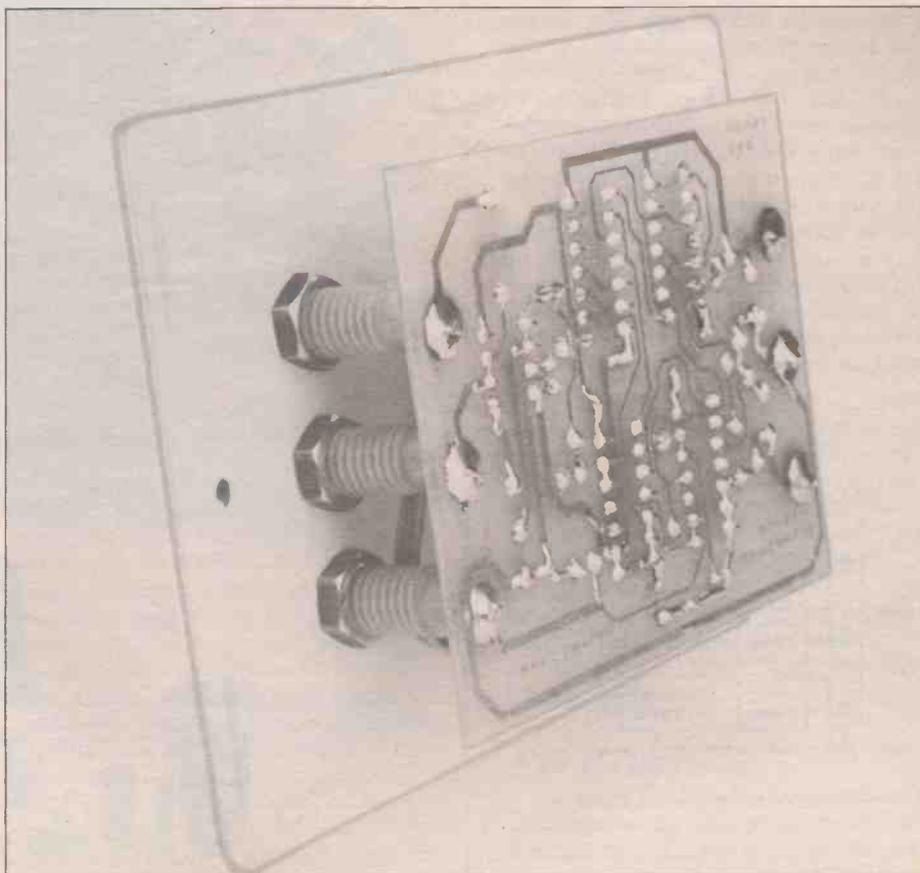
Analogue based noise generators can be built. They usually work by amplifying

the noise produced by a diode or resistor. Since the noise generated by resistors and diodes is reasonably low level, a lot of amplification may be required, this causes sensitivity to interference pickup. The main advantages of using a digital noise source are, the ability to produce noise of known spectrum, all circuits built to the same design will behave the same, that is better repeatability of design and finally insensitivity to supply variation and other interference pickup.

## Circuit Description

The noise spectrum generated by a PRBS is almost flat up to a frequency 26% of the shift register clock frequency. At this frequency the noise power is  $-1\text{dB}$  down. Band limited white noise is simply produced by low pass filtering the PRBS output.

Referring to Figure 2, the shift register clock does not need to be particularly stable or accurate and a simple RC oscillator, using IC3d, has been used. This gives a clock frequency of approximately 1MHz. Increasing the clock frequency increases the bandwidth of white noise, the higher the clock frequency the better. The maximum clock frequency is limited by the propagation delays to 1.5MHz. The 4000 series CMOS integrated circuits used are rather slow, but do have the advantage of operating from a wide supply variation, it was for this reason that they have been used. The schmitt trigger NAND gates and EXOR gates could be replaced by 74HC series equivalents, which are around ten times faster. Unfortunately, there is no 74HC equivalent



Rear view.

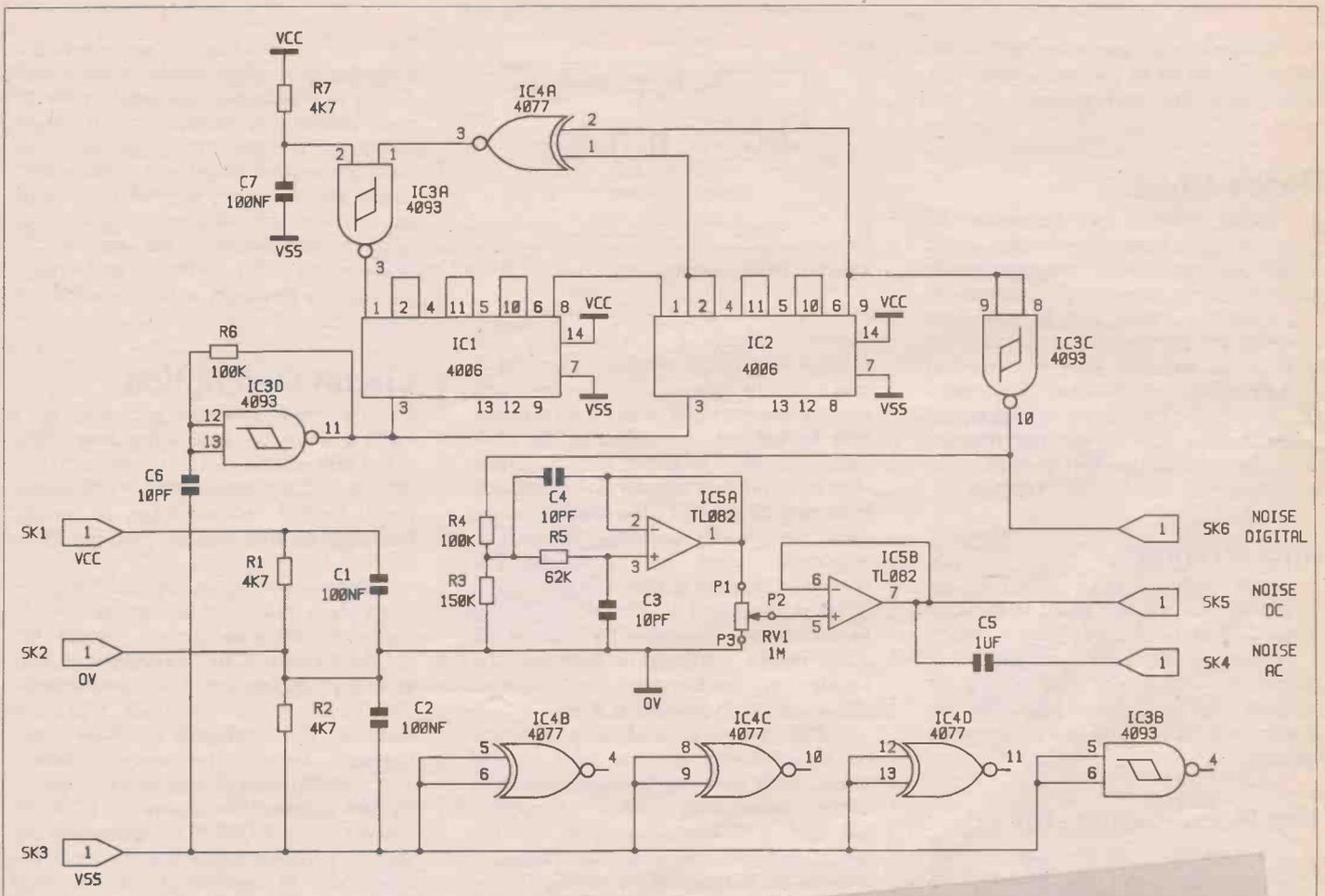


Figure 2. Noise generator circuit.

lent of the 4006 (IC1 and IC2) 18 bit static shift register. The 4006 is internally organised as shown in Figure 3, it consists of two four bit shift registers with outputs after the fourth stage available, and two five bit shift registers with outputs at the fourth and fifth stage available, all registers are operated from the same clock. IC1 is used as a 16 bit shift register and IC2 is used as a 17 bit shift register, this gives a total length of 33 bits.

As stated earlier, PRBS generators have a 'stuck at zero' state. At power up this state must be avoided. The usual trick to get round this is to use EXNOR feedback, all data is then inverted and the 'stuck at zero' state becomes 'stuck at

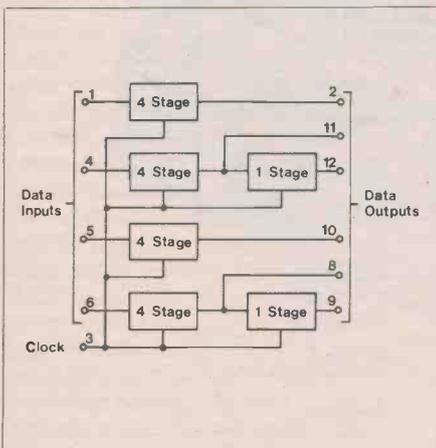
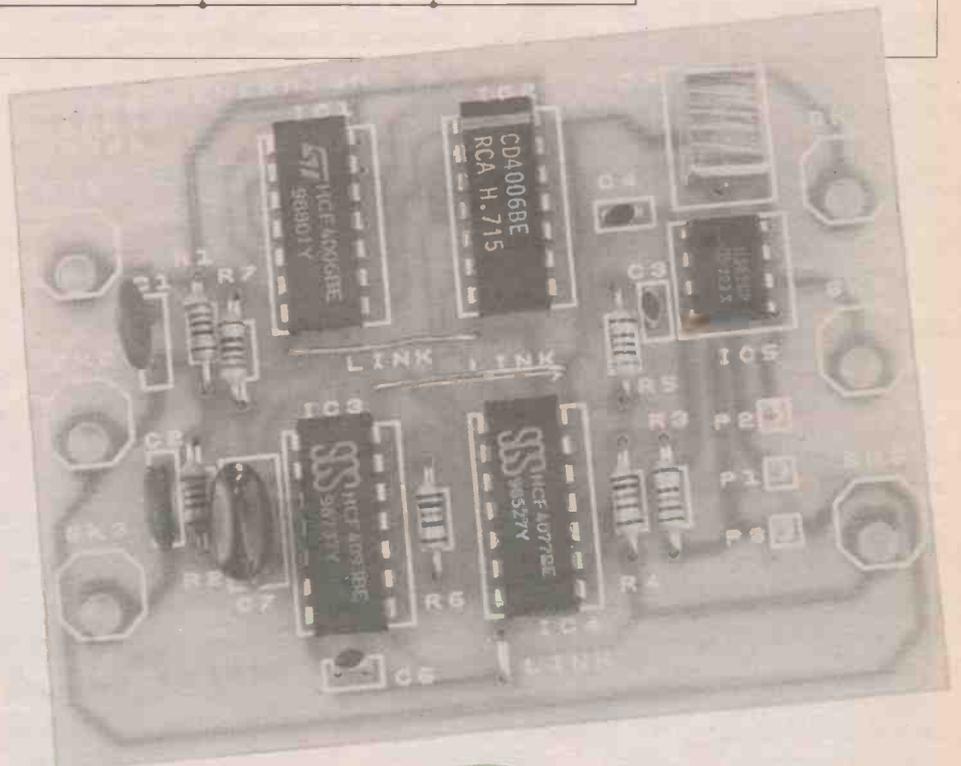
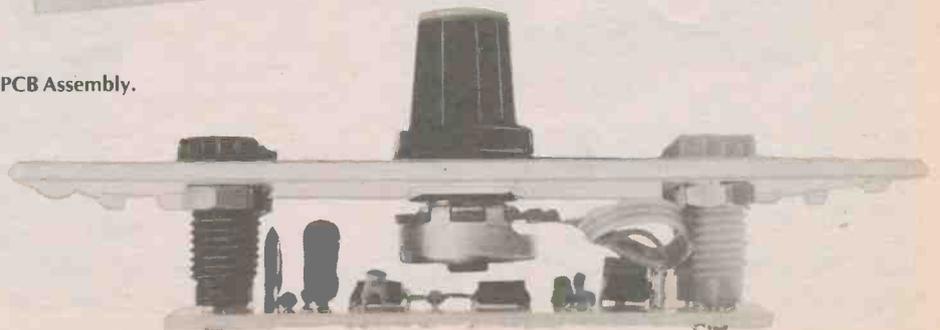


Figure 3. Pin-out of the 4006.



PCB Assembly.



one', a reset input on the register is then used at power up to ensure that it starts operation in the all zero state. The 4006 has no reset input so this trick can not be used. The problem has been solved by forcing logic ones into the 33 bit shift register at power up. This is done by IC3a, at power up C7 takes one input low, the output is high regardless of the other input. After a period given by R7 & C7 time constant, the input goes high and IC3a then inverts the output of IC4a. The shift register feedback is thus EXOR and the 'stuck at zero' state has been avoided by shifting in ones at power up. The R7 & C7 time constant is much longer than 33 clock periods, this ensures the shift register always starts in the state of all ones.

Band limited white noise is produced by low pass filtering the shift register output, in fact any shift register tap will do. IC5a and associated components form a second order low pass filter. This gives a roll off of 40dB per decade, starting at 250kHz. The circuitry around IC5 requires a mid-supply rail. This rail, called 0V, is derived by R1 and R2 from the logic supply rails, Vcc and Vss. R3 and R4 reduce the input voltage swing to IC5, to avoid clipping distortion. IC5a is followed by the noise level control, and finally IC5b, a unity gain buffer. Three outputs are provided, the unfiltered output of the shift register buffered by IC3c, a DC coupled output and an AC coupled output. The AC coupled output is DC decoupled by a 1µF polylayer capacitor. This capacitor needs to be as large as possible because when the output is connected to a load impedance it will cause high pass filtering and thus attenuate the low frequency noise. For example, with a 10k resistive load, noise below 16Hz will be filtered out. Electrolytic capacitors have not been used to DC decouple, because they have poor high frequency performance.

## Construction

The PCB does not contain many components and should be easy to construct, use Figure 4 to help in building it. The 4mm sockets are mounted in the case lid, drilling details shown in Figure 5. The PCB is then mounted directly onto the rear of the sockets, component side to the case lid, see Figure 6. Connections to the noise control are made by flying leads. Since once the PCB has been soldered onto the sockets it is difficult to remove, the unit should be tested before final assembly. Testing will require temporary connections to the socket PCB pads. The best method to test the noise source is to check the noise output on a spectrum analyser. Since not many people own a spectrum analyser the next best method is to use an oscilloscope, the noise output should look reasonably the same for any timebase setting upto around 20µs/div. Since the signal is random, it is difficult to say exactly what it will be!

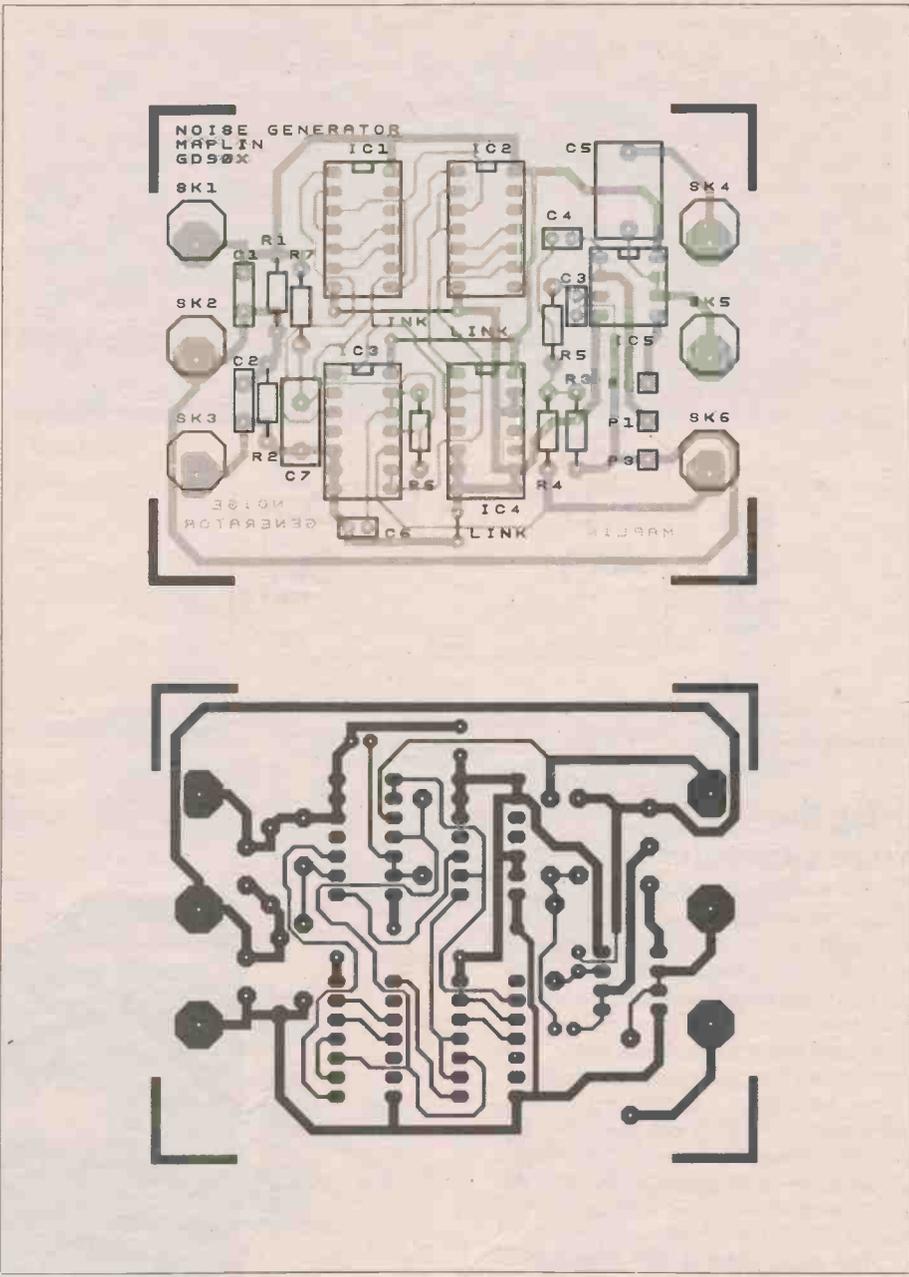


Figure 4. Track and overlay of PCB.

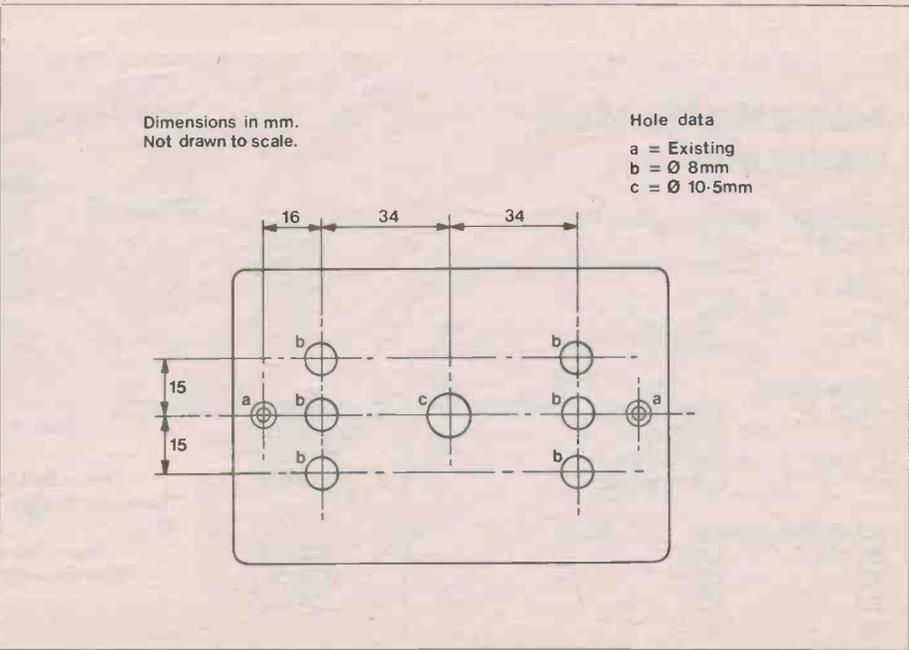


Figure 5. Case lid drilling details.

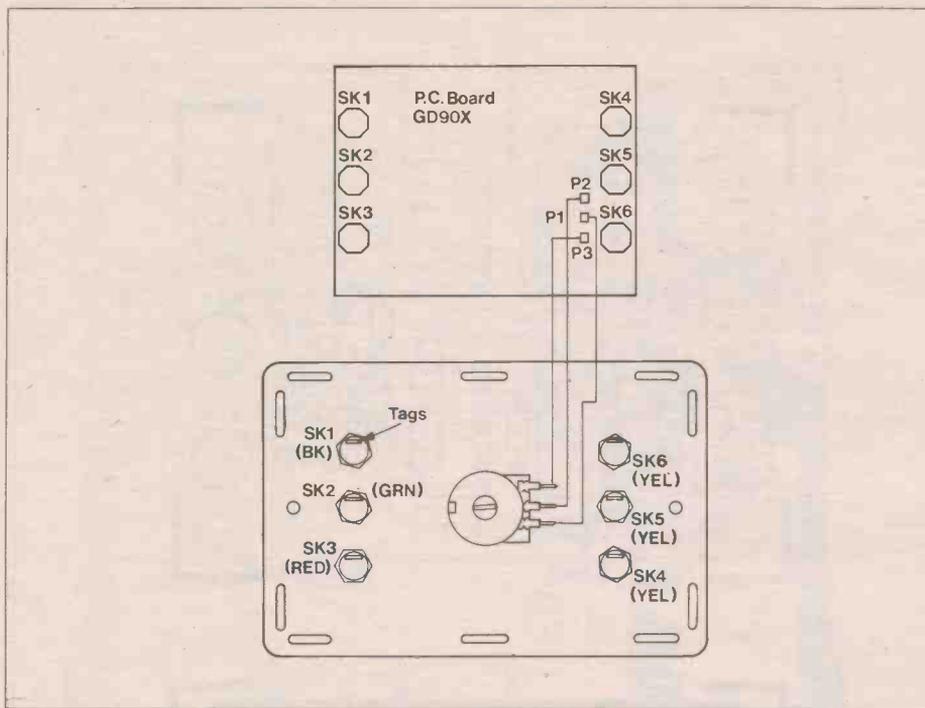


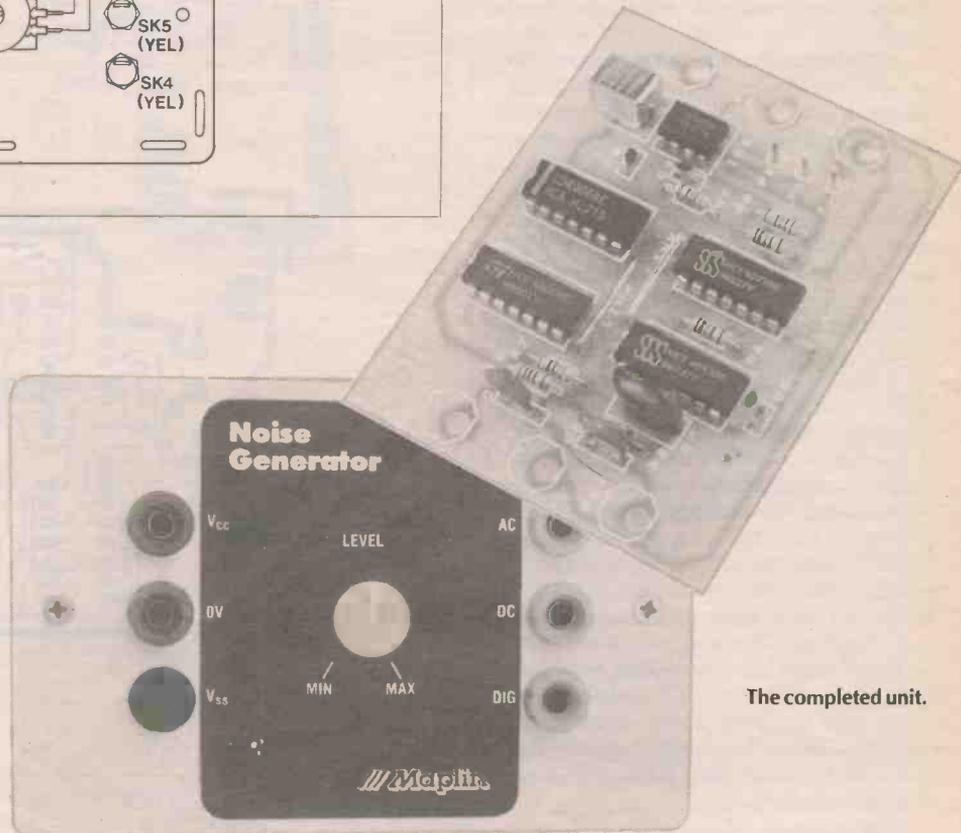
Figure 6. Assembly.

## Using the Noise Generator

It is intended that the noise generator is operated from the power supply of the equipment under test, of course there is no reason why it should not have its own supply. A supply between +5V and +18V should be connected from  $V_{SS}$  to  $V_{CC}$ , black and red sockets respectively. The green 0V socket can be left unconnected. If the equipment under test has a mid-supply rail then it can be connected to the 0V socket. This ensures the 0V rails will be at the same potential and thus the DC coupled noise output will have no DC offset with reference to the equipment 0V.

The exact method for coupling the noise into the equipment under test will depend on the exact nature of the equipment. Basically the noise must be

added to the signal for which noise rejection is being tested. The simplest method is by means of a high value resistor, however this may be too basic in some cases. The DC coupled noise output should be used whenever possible as this output will not attenuate low frequency noise. Indeed when very low frequency noise performance is being tested this output must be used. If equipment DC bias levels must not be upset then the AC coupled output can be used, but remember the high pass filtering problem discussed above. In some cases this may not matter, for instance when testing equipment that works in the audio range (about 30Hz to 20kHz).



The completed unit.

## NOISE GENERATOR PARTS LIST

### RESISTORS: All 0.6W 1% Metal Film

R1,R2,R7	4k7	3	(M4K7)
R3	150k	1	(M150K)
R4,R6	100k	2	(M100K)
R5	62k	1	(M62K)
RV1	1M Lin Pot	1	(FW08J)

### CAPACITORS

C1,C2	100nF Minidisc	2	(YR76S)
C7	100nF Mylar	1	(WW21X)
C3,C4,C8	10pF Ceramic	3	(WX44X)
C5	1µF Polylayer	1	(WW53H)

### SEMICONDUCTORS

IC1,IC2	4006	2	(QX03D)
IC3	4093	1	(QW53H)
IC4	4077	1	(QW47B)
IC5	TL082	1	(RA71N)

### MISCELLANEOUS

SK1	4mm Socket Red	1	(HF73Q)
SK2	4mm Socket Green	1	(HF72P)
SK3	4mm Socket Black	1	(HF69A)
SK4,SK5,SK6	4mm Socket Yellow	3	(HF78S)
	Collet Knob	1	(YG40T)
	Yellow Knob Cap	1	(QY06G)
	Box PB1 White	1	(LF01B)
	PCB	1	(GD90X)
	Front Panel	1	(JG29G)
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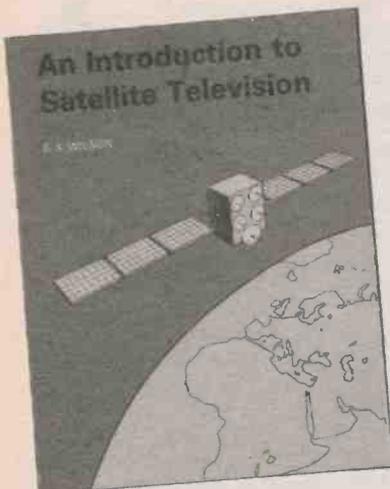
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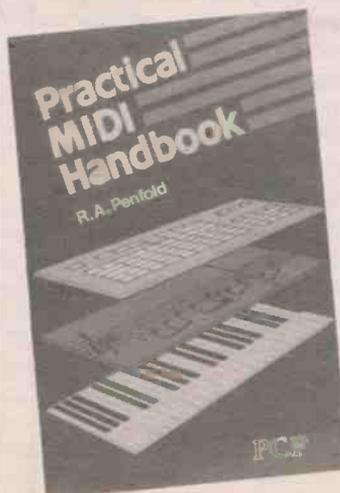
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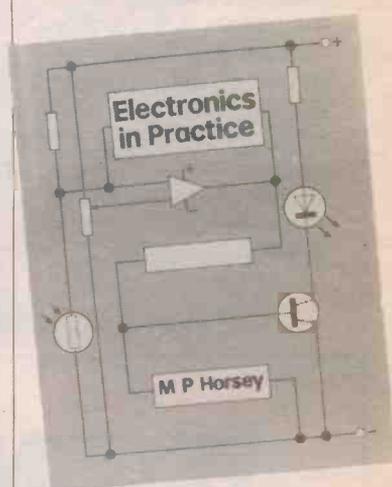
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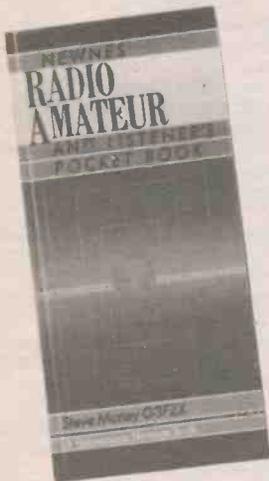
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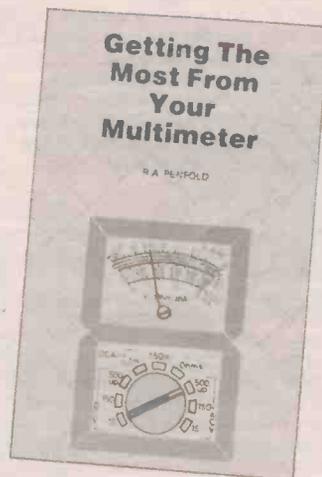


## Radio Amateur and Listener's Pocket Book

by Steve Money G3FZX

A unique collection of useful and intriguing data for the traditional and modern radio amateur and the hi-tech listener. Familiar radio topics are probably covered more concisely than in any similar book (for example, abbreviations and codes, symbols, formulae and frequencies) but the most interesting sections of the book deal with the newer features of the ham's world; AMTOR, Packet Radio, Slow Scan TV, computer decoding, airband and maritime glossaries and so on. Radio amateurs, hackers and monitors will all find this book the best single-source, quick reference guide to an increasingly wide-ranging subject. 160 pages, 95mm x 196mm, illustrated.

Order As WP91Y (Ham's Pocket Book) Price £8.50 NV



## Getting the Most from your Multimeter

by R. A. Penfold

The first piece of test equipment that most electronic hobbyists normally buy is a multimeter. This is probably because it is one of the least expensive items and, also if you know how to use it properly, one of the most useful. This book is primarily aimed at beginners and those of limited experience of electronics. The basics of analogue and digital multimeters are covered, discussing the relative merits and limitations of the two types. Various methods of component checking are described, including tests for transistors, thyristors, resistors, capacitors and diodes. Circuit testing is also covered with subjects such as voltage, current and continuity checks being discussed. In the main little or no previous knowledge or experience is assumed. Using these simple component and circuit testing techniques the reader should be able to confidently tackle servicing of most electronic projects. 112 pages, 111mm x 178mm, illustrated.

Order As WP94C (Get More Multimeter) Price £2.95 NV

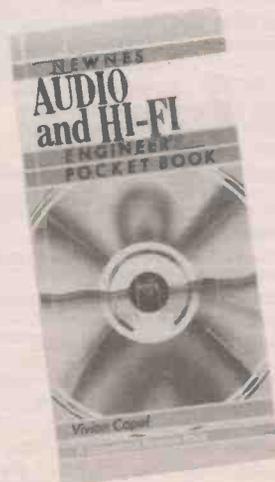
## Introducing Digital Audio CD, DAT and Sampling

by Ian R. Sinclair

Digital recording methods have existed for many years and have recently become familiar to the professional recording engineer, but the compact disc (CD) was the first device to bring digital audio methods into the home. Compact discs are now well established, to the extent that newspaper reviews of new releases concentrate more on CD than on other media such as tape or LP, and digital audio tape (DAT) equipment has now appeared.

All this development has involved methods and circuits that are totally alien to the technician or keen amateur who has previously worked with audio circuits. The principles and practices of digital audio owe little or nothing to the traditional linear circuits of the past, and are much more comprehensible to today's computer engineer than the older generation of audio engineers. This book is intended to bridge the gap of understanding for the technician and enthusiast. The principles and methods will be explained, but the mathematical background and theory will be avoided other than to state the end product. The aim is to show what is involved in the digital part of audio signals, particularly in the newer devices such as CD, DAT and sampling, rather than go into esoteric details. 112 pages, 138mm x 216mm, illustrated.

Order As WP95D (Intro Digital Audio) Price £5.95 NV



## Audio and Hi-Fi Engineer's Pocket Book

by Vivian Capel

A concise collection of practical and relevant data for anyone working on sound systems. The topics covered include microphones, gramophones, compact discs, tape recording, high quality radio, amplifiers, loudspeakers and public address.

Acoustics is not often dealt with in audio books, nor is it too well understood; so a lengthy section has been included dealing with most aspects the technician is likely to encounter, from human hearing to sound insulation. Apart from providing reference material, it should serve to give a basic grounding in the subject. From this ancient art to the modern wizardry of digital recording and the compact disc is an enormous leap that illustrates the wide range of knowledge required of the audio engineer; one that encompasses mechanics, heat, magnetism, semiconductor technology and electronics. 190 pages, 95mm x 196mm, illustrated. Order As WP90X (Audio Pocket Book) Price £9.95 NV

# CLASSIFIED

## VARIOUS FOR SALE

**Stereo 2 x 24W amp/tuner** (SX-636), two speakers (all by Pioneer), Aiwa AD-6300 cassette and Goldring-Lenco record decks, Shure cartridge. £115 altogether. A. R. McCrae, Port Erin, I.O.M. Tel: 0624 834141.

**Valved Oscilloscope 3"**, scratch built from PW project. Working but needs a complete service. £45 ono. Spare CRT 3" for above, £20. Phone: 021 426 4471. **High quality copper clad circuit board** for sale, 280mm x 216mm, single sided £1, double sided £1.50. Send cheques to: M. Fitch, 56 Hall Green Lane, Hutton, Brentwood, Essex CM13 2QU. **Switch mode PSUs**, monitors, fans, heatsinks, transistors, (ex mainframe), for sale. (To empty my garage!) Send SAE for list to: A. Burnham, 1 Woodside, West Horsley, Surrey KT24 6NA.

**Two, Pye Bantam**, transceiver, radio-phones, ready to use. Rechargeable batteries. Leather case. Very good condition. Offers around £200. Pye Pocket Phone, transmitter and receiver, boxed, (police type talking brooch), working, good condition. £46 ono. Phone: 021 426 4471.

**FREE Television magazines** some from 1964 till 1980's. Interesting for beginners. Contact Mr. M. Alter, 18 Twyford House, Chisley Road, London N15 6PA. Phone: 01 800 7636.

**Yaesu FT-1 HF** transceiver, all options fitted, £1100. Latest Kenwood portable TH-205E, plus extras, £160. ATV transceiver with built in monitor, £75. Tel: Rotherham (0709) 554665.

**Phillips PM3230** dual trace scope, manual, Maplin probe kit. £125. Audio component clear-out, wondercaps, etc. SAE for list: 8 Church Row, Carharrack, Cornwall, TR16 5RP. Tel: 0209 820066.

**Electronic components**, resistors, capacitors, semiconductors, transformers, stripboard, etc. Too many to list, plus test gear and tools, will sell or exchange for disk drive. Cheshire area. Tel: 060684 6438.

**Garrard 401** transcription deck with strobe/turntable, SME 3009 tone arm, Shure VN35HE cartridge, all fitted in solid wooden cabinet, £90. Oric 4 colour printer/plotter, £40. Gould Alpha 4 digital multimeter, LCD, bench model, £45. Contact: M. Saunders, 7 Drumcliff Road, Thornby Lodge, Leicester LE5 2LH.

**Hitachi 9" black & white** video monitor, £40. Spectrum 48K with recorder and 10 games, £70. Tel: Southend (0702) 461893.

**Bargain Bags**, contain many useful electronic components including PCBs. Mostly new components at least £10 worth, only £3 per bag. Mr. J. Norman, 25 Milton Road, Corby, Northants NN17 2NY.

**Tune Generator kit**, ideal for beginners. Brand new. Includes easy to understand instructions, all parts, etc. £6 (including postage and packing). D. Gaunt, 11 Barber Street, Eastwood, Nottingham NG16 3EW.

**Relays for sale**, 240V 10A 8 pin 2 pole, RS stock 348-762, £1.50 each or 4 for £5. 8 pin relay bases, 50p each. P & P add 50p. Octal timer relays 240V 3A, all time ranges available, £3 each. SAE for details. P. M. Green, 6 Stilecroft, Harlow, Essex CM18 6LN.

If you would like to place an advertisement in this section, here's your chance to tell Maplin's 200,000 customers what you want to buy or sell, or tell them about your club's activities - absolutely free of charge. We will publish as many advertisements as we have space for. To give a fair share of the limited space, we will print 30 words free of charge. Thereafter the charge is 10p per word. Please note that only private individuals will be permitted to advertise. Commercial or trade advertising is

strictly prohibited in the Maplin Magazine. Please print all advertisements in bold capital letters. Box numbers are available at £1.50 each. Please send replies to Box Numbers to the address below. Please send your advertisement with any payment necessary to: Classifieds, Maplin Mag., P.O. Box 3, Rayleigh, Essex SS6 8LR.

For the next issue your advertisement must be in our hands by 8th July 1988.

**Have LEDs**, will sell, rectangular red and green from 7p each. For list please send SAE to Box 8, Maplin Magazine, P.O. Box 3, Rayleigh, Essex SS6 8LR.

**Component clear out**, full spec unused Op-amps, digital, caps, etc., eclectic selection, value £80, lost interest, £40 including post. Tel: 01 299 0867.

**Enamelled copper wire**, various gauges on 1 to 2kg reels. PVC covered wire, assorted colours and sizes. All under half new price. Magnifying glass on stand, £5. Phone: 01 568 6014.

**Realistic PRO-31** handheld FM scanner. 60 - 512 MHz, 10 memories, as new, £110. Tel: Colchester 210878.

**50pF variable capacitors**, panel mounting, £1.50. 100kHz crystals, B7G glass type, £1.50. Valves, new, ten mixed £6. Postage included. Mr. Greenough, 2 Bexley Close, Glossop, Derbys SK13 9BC.

**Metrix 210** wobblulator £39. Tech RMS/dB audio millivoltmeter £27. Sabatronics digital multimeter £29. Intracept N7118 TV colour bar generator £39. Tel: 0502 66026.

**Neos mouse and cheese**. Brand new mouse for all computers, also has a joystick mode for best compatibility. Cheese CAD package on disk for C64. £15. Phone: Fareham (0329) 235370.

**Two Digiplan stepper motor drive cards** size CD20, as new, will split. £80 each. Tel: 0772 314980.

**Building a mixer console**? 25 22k LOG single and 55 220k LIN dual sliders. £25 the lot. Phone D. Stephen, Banbury 810859.

## COMPUTERS FOR SALE

**Pet CBM 8096** c/w 8050 twin, cased drives and 'Silicon Office' £235. Commodore 8026 daisy wheel type writer/IEEE printer (Olympia ES100 type) £195 inc ribbons, lift-off tape, spare D-wheel. Tel: (0903) 200111 evenings.

**Spectrum 48K** computer, plus Maplin speech synth, interface, joystick and 18 programs, £75. Fidelity sensory 8 chess challenger £38. Tel: 0502 66026.

**Commodore MPS-801** printer. Brand new, will suit any Commodore computer. Includes 2 ribbons, paper, books, plus superb Supercom chip giving 24 type-styles. Cost £200, bargain £85. Phone: Fareham (0329) 235370.

**Atari ST/Mapsat** weather satellite project software. Demo disk £3, requires computer only. Refundable against full program and manual, £19.95 inclusive. GEM based machine code, data and processed screens (Degas) to disk. Orbit forecast, construction tips,

interfacing and more. Contact Les Kaye, Fieldvale, Park Lane, Snitterfield, Warwicks CV37 0LS.

**BBC 'B'** mathematics educational software package for young children. 4 programs covering addition, subtraction, multiplication, division. Multiple difficulty levels. Sound, colour, graphics. Disk only. £6.25. More details from Box 9, Maplin Magazine, P.O. Box 3, Rayleigh, Essex SS6 8LR.

## CLUBS

**19th June 1988**. Denby Dale Mobile Rally will be held at Shelley High School, approx. 5 miles SE of Huddersfield, West Yorkshire. Rally opens at 1100 (disabled 1030). Usual traders, good food and sideshows for all the family. Talk in on S22, SU22 and 10FM. Details from G3SDY on 0484 602905. Also club meetings take place every Wednesday at the Pie Hall, Denby Dale at 8 pm. Further info from C. J. Bond (G4CJB), Wolvelay House, Woolley, Wakefield (or QTHR).

**How would you like to make local and world-wide contacts**, using Morse Code, on simple home made equipment you could build yourself for under £30? If the answer is 'Yes' then for more information on a Novice 'Ham' radio transmitting licence please send an SAE to Ian Abel G3ZHI, 52 Hollytree Ave, Maltby, Rotherham, Yorkshire.

## MUSICAL FOR SALE

**Casio CZ-2305** digital synthesiser keyboard, 8 octaves, polyphonic, 100 voices, rhythm, programmable memory, MIDI in/out. £220. Tel: Colchester 210878.

**Maplin Rhythm Generator**, plus 96 note 5 footage organ generator board, plus drawbars with data, £48 inc P & P. Tested/unused. Phone: Helensburgh (0436) 71181.

**Bargain audio cassettes!** Blank TDK-D tapes, nine D90's, two D60's. Plus red/black lockable cassette case, gold colour fastening, etc. Worth £20, bargain at £10! Phone now! Fareham (0329) 235370.

**MIDIations**: cassette of easy listening synthesiser music prepared by David Howard using MIDI. Price £3.50 (inc P & P) from: MIDIations, 9 Cavendish Drive, Leytonstone, London E11 1DN. **Solid oak organ console** with space for two manuals. Full size pedal board. Originally housed valve organ. £50. Phone: Richard Creak, Danbury (0245) 413725.

**Electronic Organ**. Technics U40, immaculate condition, big sound, even a beginner will sound good and the

experts won't get bored. £499 or offers. Phone: Godfrey on 01 958 5113.

**Toshiba rack system**, SB-M20 amp, ST-U20L tuner, PC-G10 cassette deck, SR-B20 turntable in cabinet with glass top and front. Original packing. £200. Ring 051 677 3670 (Wirral).

**MES 53**, two 4 octave keyboards. All boards complete, partly built console, Leslie, etc. Tel: 0463 782163.

**Nivico solid state stereo tape deck**, model TD344U. Two mics, many connecting leads, 12 x 7 inch (one new) and 3 x 5 inch tapes, 6 tape cases, many extras, little used equipment, £120 ono. Tel: 0726 66984.

## WANTED

**Copies of 'Electronics - The Maplin Magazine'**, issues 1 to 19 and if possible 20 to 22 and issue 24. Send replies to: 13 Westfield Road, Stonehaven, Kincardineshire, AB3 2EE or phone (0864) 64584.

**Patchboard YB08J** (with patch plugs if possible); Patchboard HF00A; 5600 front panel XQ01B; Sequencer interface PCB YQ59P; VC filter PCBs (2), the earlier 4600 type, not the 5600 type BB65V. Would consider purchase of abandoned project, etc., in order to obtain these items. Details and price to D. Parsons, 62 Mill Lane, Woodhall Spa, Lincs, LN10 6QZ.

**Wanted books**: 'Electronic Music Circuits', 'Servicing Electronic Organs' and 'Musical Applications of Microprocessors'; good payment (exc. if mint!). Contact G. Calderini, Via Ardeatina 222, 00042 Anzio (Rome), Italy.

**Wanted**: Please any information about a Heathkit MCP-1, contact Bill McGill, Rotherham S14010.

**Maplin magazine**, volume 4 issue 14. Will someone sell the issue to me? Or will you lend it to me for 3 weeks. Write to: R. Heland, Legdesvingen 21A, 5030 Landas, Norway.

**Wanted end check set (XY96E)** for 'Matinee'. Ring: 0234 68433 anytime, or write G. C. Rogers, 39 Goodmayes Close, Bedford MK42 0LX.

**Hawaii 5-0 siren**; 1983/84 catalogue number LH98G, or complete schematic diagram. Contact J. Golding, 97 Langton Road, Norton on Derwent, Malton, N. Yorks YO17 9AE or Tel: 0653 600027.

**Does anyone have an M147** integrated circuit to sell please? Contact J. D. Jenkins, 3 Orchard Court, Pontillanfraith, Gwent NP22 2NG.

**Information please**. Where can I get two 16 swg aluminium chassis for valve amplifiers made up to requirements? F. D. Cosgrove, 89 Fenton Road, Bournemouth, Dorset BH6 5BS.

**ZX81 and 16K RAM pack** for GCSE technology project. Doesn't matter about condition as long as it works! Will pay for postage. Ring Tim after 6 pm on Bradford 492911.

**Wanted**. Synthesiser Maplin 5600S, built, part built, kit or parts of. Anything considered. Also consider sequencer or other synths. Contact Paul (0274) 734009, 9 am to 5 pm.

**Mapsat Equipment Users**. Please contact me. I need your help and advice. Postage refunded. Jon Larcombe, 2 Farmhouse Drive, Frome, Somerset BA11 2SS.

# DID YOU MISS THESE ISSUES?

**Project Book 1 Universal Timer.** Programmable mains controller. **Combo-Amplifier.** 120W MOSFET power amp. **Temperature Gauge.** 10°C - 100°C, LED readout. **Pass The Bomb!** Pass-The-Parcel with a difference. **Six easy-to-build Projects on Veroboard.** Car batt. monitor; Colour snap game; CMOS Logic Probe; Peak Level meter; Games timer; Multi-colour pendant. **Order As XA01B (Maplin Project Book No. 1) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 2 Digital Multi-Train Controller.** Controls up to 14 model trains. **Home Security System.** Six independent channels. **Digital MPG Meter.** With large LED display, a must for more economical motoring. **Order As XA02C (Maplin Project Book No. 2) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 3 ZX81 Keyboard.** 43 keys, plugs directly into ZX81 with no soldering. **Stereo 25W MOSFET Amp.** 25W r.m.s per channel; Disc, Tape, Tuner & Aux. **Radar Intruder detector.** 20 metres range, may be used with our security system. **Remote Control for Train Controller.** Remote control by infra-red, radio or wire. **Order As XA03D (Maplin Project Book No. 3) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 4 Telephone Exchange.** Up to 32 extensions on 2-wire lines. **Remote Control for Amplifier.** Volume, balance and tone controlled via infra-red link. **Frequency Counter.** 8 digit DFM, 10Hz - 600MHz range. **Ultrasonic Intruder Detector.** Areas up to 400 square feet can be covered. **Order As XA04E (Maplin Project Book No. 4) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 5 Modem.** 300 baud transmission speed over normal telephone lines. **Inverter.** 240V AC 60W from 12V car battery. **ZX81 Sound Generator.** 3 tone generators fully controlled from BASIC. **Central Heating Controller.** Optimised performance with this advanced system. **External Horn Timer.** Exterior intruder alarm. **Panic Button.** Add on to our Home Security System. **Model Train Projects.** Add on to our Multi-Train Controller. **Interfacing Micro processors.** How to use parallel I/O ports, with circuits. **Order As XA05F (Maplin Project Book No. 5) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 6 VIC20 & ZX81 Talkbacks.** Speech synthesis projects. **Scratch Filter.** Tunable active circuit 'reclaims' scratched records. **Bridging Module.** Converts two 75W MOSFET amps to one 400W full bridge amplifier. **Moisture Meter.** Finds damp in walls and floors. **ZX81 TV Sound and Normal/Inverse Video.** TV sound and inverse video direct. **Four Simple Veroboard Projects.** Portable Stereo Amp; Sine Generator; Headphone Enhancer and Stylus Organ. **Order As XA06G (Maplin Project Book No. 6) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 7 CMOS Crystal Calibrator.** For amateur radio receiver calibration. **DX'er's Audio Processor.** Improved sound from Communications Receivers. **Enlarger Timer.** An accurate timer for the darkroom. **Sweep Oscillator.** Displays AF frequency response on an oscilloscope screen. **VIC20 and ZX81 Interfaces.** RS232 compatible. **Order As XA07H (Maplin Project Book No. 7) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 8 Spectrum Modem/RS232 Interface.** 2400 baud self contained operating system. **Synchime.** Simulates bells, gongs and other chiming sounds. **Dragon 32 RS232/Modem Interface.** Plugs into ROM expansion port. **Codelock.** Programmable electronic lock. **CMOS Logic Probe.** Digital display shows logic states. **Minilab Power Supply.** Versatile unit for the test bench. **Dragon 32 I/O Ports.** Two 8-bit ports. **Doorbell for The Deaf.** Flashing lamp attracts attention. **Order As XA08J (Maplin Project Book No. 8) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 9 Spectrum Keyboard.** 47 full travel keys. **VIC ExtendiBoard.** Three expansion ports, one switchable. **Oric Talkback.** Speech synthesiser for the Oric 1. **TDA7000 FM Radio.** Complete FM receiver on a chip. **ZX81 High Resolution Graphics.** 256 x 192 fine pixel display. **Nine Projects!** Personal Stereo Dynamic Noise Limiter; Logic Pulser; TTL/RS232 Converter; Pseudo Stereo AM Radio; and more. **Order As XA09K (Maplin Project Book No. 9) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 10 Spectrum Easyload.** Helps cassette loading with the Spectrum. **80m Receiver.** Simple SSB direct conversion receiver. **Fluorescent Tube Driver.** 8W 12V for camping and caravanning. **Auto-Waa.** Automatic waa-waa effects unit. **Digi-Tel Expansion.** Expands Maplin Telephone Exchange to 32 extensions. **Oric 1 Modem Interface.** Adapts the Oric 1 to the Maplin Modem. **Dragon 32 Extendiport.** Makes the Dragon's cartridge socket more accessible. **Order As XA10L (Maplin Project Book No. 10) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 11 Mapmix.** Six channel audio mixer. **Xenon Tube Driver.** Xenon flash tube module with strobe. **Enlarger Exposure Meter.** Simple inexpensive tool for the darkroom. **8 Channel Fluid Detector.** Check/control fluid level in up to 8 containers. **Servo & Driver Module.** Servo mechanism with driver module kit. **Mk II Noise Reduction Unit.** Improves signal/noise ratio of tape recordings. **Cautious Ni-Cad Charger.** Controlled charging of ni-cad cells. **Motherboard for The BBC Micro.** Gives easy access to ports. **Order As XA11M (Maplin Project Book No. 11) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 12 RTTY Unit.** The TU1000 receives/transmits Radio Teletype; connects to computer via RS232. **Computadrum.** Use your computer as a drum synthesiser. **Light Pen.** Draw onto the TV screen or select menu options. **PWM Motor Drive.** Reversible model motor driver for 6V and 12V. **Order As XA12N (Maplin Project Book No. 12) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 13 Explosive Gas Alarm.** Flammable gas detector. **Flash Meter.** Get your exposure right when using your flash gun. **Musical Announcer.** A doorbell with a difference. **Mains Controller.** An add-on for the 8-Channel Fluid detector. **Order As XA13P (Maplin Project Book No. 13) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 14 Live Wire Detector.** Invaluable aid for the handyman. **Trundle.** The line follower robot as featured on Channel 4. **4-Channel PWM Controller.** Digital control of motors and servos. **Display Driver Module.** How to use our LED bargraph display ICs. **Control-A-Train.** Full inertia control of model trains. **Spectrum I/O Controller.** Buffered 2-way 8-bit data bus and 8 control lines. **Order As XA14Q (Maplin Project Book No. 14) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 15 Z80 CPU Module.** Expandable CPU based controller. **Sharp MZ-80K Serial Interface.** Get into communications with this project. **Ultrasonic Car Alarm.** Stop car thieves. **Active Crossover.** Includes matched output power amplifiers. **Guitar Equaliser.** Specifically for six string electric guitars. **Fabulous Five.** A selection of interesting circuits. **Order As XA15R (Maplin Project Book No. 15) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 16 Floodlight Controller.** Both power supply and mains switching unit for the Infra-red Intruder Detector Kit. **Spectrum Parallel/Serial Interface.** Provides 8-bit I/P and O/P parallel or serial transfer with programmable UART. **Mains Tx/Rx Data Communications System.** Sends or receives data via the mains wiring. **16-Channel Logic IC Tester.** Simultaneously displays logic states for any logic IC of up to 16 pin-outs on your oscilloscope. **Order As XA16S (Maplin Project Book No. 16) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 17 Video Digitiser.** Interface a TV camera to your computer. **Mixing It.** A comprehensive range of audio amplifier modules. **Hobbyist's Temperature Controller.** General purpose electronic mains power thermostat. **ASCII Keyboard.** Professional computer keyboard with standard ASCII output. **Play Along Mixer.** Play along to your favourite records and tapes on your own instrument. **Order As XA17T (Maplin Project Book 17) Price 85p NV.**

**Project Book 18 Weather Satellite Receiver.** Display regional weather systems on your TV or monitor. **Mixing It Part 2.** Mono/stereo Hi-Z mic input, mixer and line amplifiers; VU/headphone driver. **Stepper Motor Driver.** How to build and start using the Stepper Motor Kit featured in the Catalogue. **Amstrad Expansion System.** The Maplin Amstrad External ROM Card System for the CPC 464, CPC 664 and 6128. **Sealed Lead Acid Battery Charger.** Special high stability output

with automatic trickle charge mode for sealed lead acid batteries. **Fantastic Five.** Veroboard projects comprising HF tremelo unit, crystal checker, clap switch, low-Z ohmmeter, snooze timer. **Order As XA18U (Maplin Project Book 18) Price 85p NV.**

**Electronics Issue 19 Active Aerial and Aerial Tuning Unit.** Get more from SW. **Amstrad Expansion System.** 6 x 8-bit parallel I/O card and PSU. **ADA Digital Echo.** RAM based low cost echo machine. **Mixing It.** Mixer Modules' Volume. **Order As XA19V (Maplin Magazine Volume 5 Issue 19) Price 75p NV.**

**Project Book 20 Weather Satellite Decoder.** Displays output from Satellite Receiver on TV or monitor. **Infra Red Proximity Detector.** Short range heat or movement detector. **Fibre-Optic Link.** Sends AF signals over up to 20m of fibre-optic cable. **Low-Z Microphone Pre-amp.** For 200-600Ω mics plus gain adjustment. **Order As XA20W (Maplin Project Book 20) Price 85p NV.**

**Electronics Issue 21 6 Channel Burglar Alarm.** Develop a complete security system. **Six Circuits.** Bass Fuzz, Voice-Over Unit, Noise Gate, Envelope Tremolo, RTTY Decoder and Scratch & Rumble Filter on veroboard. **Notch Filter.** AF processor for communications receivers. **12V Public Address System.** 10W per channel from car battery. **Tungsten Lamp Controller.** AC phase control for mains lamps. **Order As XA21X (Maplin Magazine Volume 6 Issue 21) Price 85p NV.**

**Electronics Issue 22 MIDI Interfacing Techniques.** Connect MIDI instruments to the VIC20 or CBM64. **Hi-Fi Speakers & Enclosures.** Two high quality loudspeaker cabinet designs. **Keypad for Z80 CPU.** At last a keypad I/F & ROM for the Z80 CPU kit. **4½ Digit Counter.** Versatile basic counter module to 4½ digits. **Weather Satellite Down Converter Part 1.** Aerial & freq. converter for MAPSAT Receiver to tune into the Meteosat satellite. **Mini Circuits.** Veroboard Audio Level Tester, Sound Triggered Flash, In-Circuit Resistance Meter, I/R Audio Isolator. **Order As XA22Y (Maplin Magazine Volume 6 Issue 22) Price 85p NV.**

**Electronics Issue 23 MAPSAT Frame Store #1.** Z80B CPU controller. **Servo Tester.** Proportional servo tester. **Weather Satellite Down Converter Part 2.** Channel Switching Unit. **Capacitance Tester.** 5 ranges, 3 digit display. **More Mini Circuits.** Movement alarm, Stepper Motor Driver, Pink Noise Generator, Optical Port Data Link, 'Metal Pedal'. **Order As XA23A (Maplin Magazine Volume 6 Issue 23) Price 85p NV.**

**Electronics Issue 24 Nuclear Radiation Monitor.** Alpha, Beta, Gamma & X-ray gieger counter. **VHF Pre-Amp Module.** MAPSAT VHF pre-amp. **External Horn Programmable Timer Update.** Modifying the module for use with other than the Maplin Home Security System. **MAPSAT Frame Store #2.** The Video Graphics Card. **VHS Video Alarm.** Battery powered portable movement alarm built into a VHS Video Cassette. **Order As XA24B (Maplin Magazine Volume 6 Issue 24) Price 85p NV.**

**Electronics Issue 25 Track side Rapid Charger.** Model radio control car ni-cad battery pack charger using 12V car battery as power source. **Slow Charger.** Mains powered trickle charger for model cars. **Temperature Module Expansion.** Relay switch board and serial to parallel converter add-ons. **Disco Partylite.** High quality, 3 channel party lights. **Mini Metal Detector.** Detects ferrous and some non-ferrous metals such as iron wall board nails or brass screws. **Tester for Electrical Domestic Appliances.** Check the safety of any new appliance before you plug it into the mains. **Bob's Mini Circuits.** A pulsed speed controller, a train controller & an electronic lock. **Order As XA25C (Maplin Magazine Volume 7 Issue 25) Price 85p NV.**

**Electronics Issue 26 1kW High Power Mosfet Amplifier.** Superb amp primarily aimed at use in halls, auditoriums, etc. **Simple Melody Generator.** Versatile musical project with four tunes available. **Multi-Tune Generator.** Built around the UM3411A giving 16 tunes etc. **Siren Sound Generator.** Gives 4 different types of siren notes. **Programmable Metronome.** Useful musicians aid. **Order As XA26D (Maplin Magazine Volume 7 Issue 26) Price 85p NV.**

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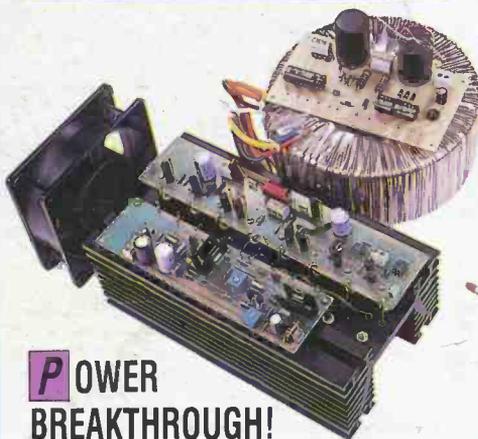
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