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## $P \& P 10 p$



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VE 10 No. 4 APRIL 1974


## NEWS AND COMMENT

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## LIBERATED DESIGN

THIS month we speak up for those good old liberal attributes of compromise and tolerance, as opposed to analytical exactitude. All in relation to circuit design, we hasten to add.

Without doubt very many constructors (sometimes regardless of extensive practical experience) view the origination of electronic circuits as something of a mystic art indulged in only by mathematical geniuses who have undergone the necessary rigorous training. Textbooks aimed at satisfying the requirements of examining bodies help to preserve such a myth. Of course, a detailed analytical approach to circuit design is appropriate for the student who is hoping to make a career as a designer in the industry, or intent upon following some academic role in this same field. But it is likely that the deep mathematical treatment, with an inevitable attachment to the "equivalent circuit", which forms the keystone of standard textbooks and technical college syllabuses is off-putting, if not downright frightening, to quite a number of those who indulge in electronics purely as a hobby.

This is a pity, for clearly the ability to design from scratch -if only at a modest level-can add enormously to the enjoyment and satisfaction derived from constructional activities alone.

It has to be appreciated that the amateur designer has his own particular needs to meet, and he operates in an entirely different environment to the professional designer. The latter generally works in a commercial world where cost effectiveness often counts more than technical perfection. The amateur by contrast is able to adopt a freer, more realistic approach to certain aspects of electronic circuit design. For, after all, in the end it amounts to this: real components are never perfect, so production spreads and tolerances have to be allowed for, necessitating some compromise between calculated and practical values.

This month sees the appearance of the opening part of a specially commissioned series entitled First Steps in Circuit Design. This series is strongly recommended to all those who have previously limited their efforts just to the building of equipment from published designs. Nothing off-putting or frightening here, not even for the beginner (Readers of our companion magazine Everyday Electronics please note). Our author has an uninhibited down-to-earth approach and treats the subject of circuit design as an entirely practical operation based upon well known circuit devices, and not as a .cold academic exercise. He dispells some misconceptions. like the need for a high degree of arithmetic accuracy in all calculations, and presents a number of "home truths" with which experienced commercial designers will, we guess, quietly concur.

First Steps in Circuit Design will conclude with a fully worked-out, step-by-step design procedure for a useful project. A strictly practical design, of course.
F.E.B.

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THIS article describes the theory and construction of a digital alarm clock, with all the basic but complicated circuitry built into the main clock i.c. The only additions required are peripheral circuits to control power, drive the clock chip, activate radio turn-off, generate the alarm noise, link up the liquid crystal, and control the various facilities.
lts difficult to estimate a precise cost for the complete clock, but it will undoubtedly compare favourably with much earlier digital clocks based on 20 or more i.c.s, but lacking the comprehensive facilities provided by this one.

## THE CLOCK CHIP

The integrated circuit used is a National Semiconductors ${ }^{\circ}$ M M5316. It provides four display possibilities, any single one of which can be selected by switch at the user's choice. They are actual time in hours and minutes; the minutes and seconds counting linked with that time; the time at which the alarm is set; and the time remaining in minutes before the radio turn-off circuit operates.
The i.c. will interface directly with either liquid crystal displays or with seven-segment fluorescent tubes. The former is employed in this project.

The timekeeping function will operate from either 50 or 60 Hz mains frequencies, according to the way in which the i.c. is wired, and the display format can be either 12 or 24 hour format. In the former case, leading zeroes are blanked and an a.m. or p.m. indication is provided on both main time and alarm
set displays. This is important, of course, in order to make sure the alarm goes off at, say, 7 a.m. rather than 7 p.m.!

The a.m./p.m. indicator in the display also serves as a visual warning if there has been any form of power interruption. In such a situation, the i.c. causes it to pulse at a 1 Hz rate, which ceases automatically when the time is reset. This indication is important, because even a momentary power failure will cause the i.c. to reset and display an inaccurate time, which could easily mislead if the power failure had been brief, and the ensuing time indicated were taken at face value.

The device operates over a very wide power supply range of anything between 8 and 29 volts, and this need not be regulated. It is in the familiar d.i.l. package and has 40 pins.

## OPERATION

An operational block diagram of the clock chip is shown in Fig. 1 and the pin connections in Fig. 2.

The 50 or 60 Hz input at pin 35 is passed through a shaping circuit to square the incoming sine wave. This is a Schmitt trigger designed to provide about 6 volts of hysteresis. A simple external RC filter is employed with the i.c. to remove any possible line voltage transients that could either damage the device or cause it to gain time.

The output of the shaper then passes to a counter chain which performs the actual timekeeping function. The first part of this consists of a programmable prescale counter, set by external wiring to divide the incoming frequency by either 50 or 60 .

The resulting 1 pulse per second is then divided by 60 to obtain 1 pulse per minute, and again by 60 to obtain 1 pulse per hour.
The outputs from each of these dividing chains goes to the code converters and output drivers, and the alarm comparator circuits.
The alarm comparator senses coincidence between the alarm counters-which is the set alarm time in hours and in minutes-and the time counters-which is the actual time in hours and minutes. When coincidence is sensed, the comparator output is used to set an internal latch in the alarm circuit. The output of the latch turns on the external alarm driver transistor, which in its turn controls the external circuitry of the alarm noise generator.
The alarm latch remains set for 59 minutes, during which time the alarm noise will continue. If the latch is not manually reset before the 59 minutes are up, it will automatically reset at that point.

The "Alarm Off" control will reset the alarm for a full 24 hours, when it will once again operate at the preset time, or at whatever new time may have been set. The "Snooze" control, on the other hand, turns the alarm noise off for approximately 8 minutes, after which it starts again.
The "Snooze" control can be operated as often as the user wishes during the 59 minutes for which the alarm latch remains set. Clearly the most reluctant getter-up will be able to have seven or eight extra snoozes before he either rises, or abandons himself for the full 24 hours before the alarm sounds again!

## RADIO TURN-OFF

The sleep down counter operates with the sleep output to turn a radio (or any simple appliance) off after a preset time of anything up to 59 minutes. The sleep counter display (like all the other display possibilities) is selected by switching to be described shortly. It naturally counts down from 59 to 0 as the clock continues to count up.

As long as the sleep down counter has a minutes output, rather than " 0 ", an internal latch in the sleep circuit remains set. 'The latch output holds the external sleep driver transistor on, which in its turn maintains continuity in a simple relay circuit for the battery power of a radio.


Fig. 9. Block diagram of the MM5316 clock integrated circuit

## LIQUID CRYSTAL DRIVE

All of the display output drivers are open-drain devices with their sources common to pin 23, the output common source connection.

This facilitates the generation of the vital square wave drive voltages which are essential for liquid crystal displays. This is external circuitry which will be described later in the article.

Full control of the display possibilities is obtained by five different switching arrangements, all of them simple. First, time setting is achieved via the slow or fast set inputs. These, like the other three to be mentioned shortly, are obtained simply by applying the supply voltage ( $V_{\mathrm{ss}}$ ) to the appropriate pin. "Slow set" causes the clock to advance at 2 minutes per second. "Fast set" speeds up the advance rate to 60 minutes (or I hour) per second.
Normally the clock will display the actual time. To change the display to the alarm set time, $V_{\mathrm{gs}}$ is applied to the "alarm display" pin. The sleep time is displayed by the same method. With either of these displays, the "Slow" and "Fast" setting controls operate as described, excepting of course that the sleep time counts down rather than up.
When sleep time is being manually controlled, rather than coming under the control of normal clock operation, it will recycle at " 00 " straight back to " 59 " and continue counting down for as long as the manual control is applied. It will not do this when controlled normally by the clock-when " 00 " is reached, the counter becomes inactive, the output is removed, and the radio turns off.
This is obviously necessary if an attached radio really is to be turned off, rather than being momentarily interrupted during the one minute of " 00 " before coming on again to play merrily for another 59 minutes, and so on through the night!

The final display option is minutes/seconds, rather than hours/minutes. When this option is chosen, the units of minutes being displayed moves to the units of hours position, and the two-digit minutes display is replaced by a two-digit seconds display. With this display, the operation of the "Fast" and "Slow" set controls is automatically changed. The "Fast set" control now causes the seconds count to reset to " 00 " without a carryover to minutes, and


Fig. 2. Pin connections of clock chip


Fig. 3. Complete circuit diagram of the Liquid Crystal Clock. The diagram at top left shows the LM3900 i.c. The MC3401P is an equivalent to this and has the same pin connections.
further prevents any operation of the counting circuits until the control voltage is removed. The "Slow set" control, on the other hand, merely inhibits the input to the counters for as long as the control is applied, but does not cause any reset of seconds.

As will be seen later, this facility is invaluable for accurate setting of the clock against a known time source, such as the Greenwich time signal.

## ALARM CONTROL SWITCHING

As in the switching arrangements mentioned above, alarm control is achieved by a momentary or semi-permanent connection of $V_{s s}$ to the appropriate pin on the i.c.

It is worth mentioning that the alarm will remain off for as long as $V_{s i}$ remains applied. However, this project employs a push button to momentarily apply $V_{s s}$, rather than a toggle switch to apply it until the switch is operated again. The author has found it's only too easy to forget to turn the alarm back on, with disastrous effects the next morning! Those with good memories, on the other hand, may well wish to use a switch instead of the push button.

## ALARM NOISE CIRCUIT

Fig. 3 shows the full circuit for the clock. The alarm circuit uses three of the four available amplifiers in the quad amplifier i.c., and have been labelled in the circuit as A1, A2 and A3. A1 and A2 have been designed to operate as oscillators. R22 and R17 provide positive feedback in A1 and A2 respectively. Negative feedback in Al comes from R24 and C3, while in A2 it is provided by R20 and C4.

In A1, the slowly rising voltage on C3 is translated into current by R23, which causes the amplifier to switch when the value exceeds that provided by R14. C3 begins to discharge when this happens, and the process is then repeated. Al is operating as a low-frequency square wave oscillator with the component values chosen.

The operation of A 2 is almost identical, in that the voltage on C 4 causes, via the current-translating effect of R19, the amplifier to switch. This allows C4 to discharge, and the operation to continue repetitively. The frequency of operation is modified by injecting a current into it via R21, which couples the output of A1 into A2. Thus the oscilla-
tion of A2 has superimposed on it the oscillatory output effect of A1.
The total output is taken, via R18, to A3 which is serving in this application as nothing more than a loudspeaker driver. It is biased by R16 and overdriven by R18, so that its resultant output is a hard clipped square wave. This is capacitively coupled via C5 to the sound output device, which in this case is a simple crystal microphone insert.

Under normal conditions, the entire circuit is prevented from oscillating by injecting a relatively large current via R8 and D4. This current will flow when TR3, the transistor driven by the alarm output from the clock, is not conducting. However, when this is turned on by the alarm output, the junction of R8 and D4 is pulled down, and current is prevented from flowing into the amplifier, which allows oscillation to commence.

## POWER SUPPLIES

One simple power supply derived from a miniature 20-0-20 transformer (TI) is all that is required for the entire circuit. Normal rectification is provided by D1 and D2, with smoothing provided by capacitor C2.

RI and Cl form the external filter to guard the i.c. against any possible line voltage transients, which could either cause the clock to gain time or, in extreme cases, actually damage the i.c. It is from the junction of R1 and C1 that the synchronising mains frequency input to the clock comes.

## LCD DRIVE GENERATOR

TR1 and TR2 form a pulse generating circuit, triggered by the mains frequency via R2.

Diode D3 is used between the base of TRI and ground, rather than a mare conventional resistor, so that a smaller value can be used for R2. This ensures that turn on occurs very quickly at the start of the mains half cycle, and equalises the pulse lengths at the collectors of TRI and TR2.

The reason for two separate resistors R3 and R4 in the collector of TR1 is to reduce the amplitude of the pulse which is fed from their junction to the "b" segment of the I.c.d. tens of hours digit in the 24 hour version of the clock. This makes sure the amplitude of the directly supplied " $b$ " segment pulse is the same as that on the common connection to the 1.c.d. from the collector of TR2. This, in turn, matches the amplitude of the signals from the clock chip to the l.c.d. There is, of course, no connection at the junction of R3 and R4 in the 12 hour version of the clock.

## CHIP OUTPUT SWITCHES

Both TR3 and TR4 are acting as simple switches, under the control of the alarm and sleep outputs from the clock chip. Under normal circumstances, the base/emitter resistors R10 and R13 hold the transistors off. When either the alarm output or sleep output from the chip is activated, however, TR3 or TR4 is immediately turned on.
In the case of TR3 this immediately allows the alarm noise generator to operate. In the case of TR4, the transistor's operation is used to activate a simple reed relay, which will close the battery supply circuit to an external radio, whose power is being derived from its own battery, but only via the jackplug connected in series with the relay.

## LIQUID CRYSTAL DISPLAY

Time indication for the clock is provided by a Siemens liquid crystal display. Such displays are very new, but are now being used in a growing number of applications. They have several enormous advantages. For instance, they have extremely small power requirements, which means they can be used extensively in battery-driven circuits. Again, the low voltage and current needs means they can usually be addressed directly by m.o.s. circuits, without intermediate driver stages.

If we are to be fair, the two possible disadvantages of liquid crystal displays should also be mentioned here. First, they produce no light of their own, unlike l.e.d.s, luminescent anode tubes, Nixies and the like. That is to say, the display can only be seen if there is a light source of some sort available to illuminate it. For this reason, two small neon lights have been built into the project (LP1, LP2) at the base of and immediately behind the liquid crystal. These serve to light the digits up with a

## COMPONETIS . . .

| Resistors |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| R1 | 100k $\Omega$ | R9 | 22k $\Omega$ | R17 | $1.5 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ |
| R2 | 47k $\Omega$ | R10 | 22k $\Omega$ | R18 | 33k $\Omega$ |
| R3 | $4.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R11 | 5.6k $\Omega$ | R19 | $560 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R4 | $820 \Omega$ | R12 | $4.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R20 | 39k $\Omega$ |
| R5 | 680k $\Omega$ | R13 | $4.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R21 | $6.8 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ |
| R6 | $4.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R14 | $2.2 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ | R22 | $1.5 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ |
| R7 | $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R15 | $1.5 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ | R23 | 270k $\Omega$ |
| R8 | 22k $\Omega$ | R16 | $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R24 | 22k $\Omega$ |
| All $\frac{1}{2}$ W 10\% carbon |  |  |  |  |  |

## Capacitors <br> C1 $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$

C2 $50 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. 40 V
C3 $15 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. 40 V
C4 $6,800 \mathrm{pF}$
C5 $125 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ elect. 40 V
Transistors
TR1-TR4 BC107 (4 off)
Integrated Circuits
IC1 MM5316
IC2 LM3900 or MC3401P (Motorola)
Diodes
D1-D4 1N4001
Liquid Crystal Display
L.C.D.-AN4132 (Siemens)
including socket
Relay
RLA1 Reed relay, $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ coil, 9-12V (R.S. Components)

Switches
S1 2-pole 4-way d.i.I. switch type DS-16A
S2-S5 Single pole push to make switches (4 off)
Miscellaneous
T1 $20-0-20 \mathrm{~V}, 30 \mathrm{~mA}$ miniature mains transformer LP1, LP2 mains neons (2 off), Eddystone diecast box $7 \frac{1}{2}$ in $\times 4 \frac{1}{2} \mathrm{in} \times 2 \mathrm{in}$.
1-40 pin d.i.l. i.c. socket, $1-14$ d.i.l. i.c. socket, 14, 12BA $\frac{3}{4}$ in bolts, 42, 12 BA nuts, 3 M display film 3 in $\times 1 \frac{1}{4}$ in, 0.03 in thick, 28 degree angle JK1-miniature jack socket and plug to suit.
gentle red glow, if the clock is at the bedside at night. If the clock is being used in normal lighting, there will be no difficulty in seeing the digits. In fact, they have the advantage of being considerably larger than most comparable display methods.

The other disadvantage, if it can be called that, lies purely in circuitry. Liquid crystal displays must be driven with a reasonably symmetrical alternating voltage. Sine, square, sawtooth; almost any waveform will do, the aim being to avoid any d.c. element in the driving voltage as this will shorten the l.c.d. life, often dramatically.
L.c.d.s use a nematic liquid crystal film, sandwiched between two parallel glass plates. An electric field applied to this film causes it to become milky immediately. The field is produced very simply by applying a voltage to a transparent conductive coating on the inside of the glass plates. The opacity of the liquid crystal under the influence of the charge can be increased by increasing the voltage. Eventually, however, a saturation point is reached, after which no increase in the contrast ratio between the opaque and clear areas occurs.

The process reverses as soon as the driving voltage is removed when almost instantly the liquid crystal reverts to its normal completely transparent condition.

Two types of Siemens liquid crystal display are available for use, according to whether the ambient illumination is expected to come from in front or behind of the l.c.d. The transmissive type is normally completely transparent and is used with rear illumination. The reflective type has a thin mirror coating built in, and is used when the ambient lighting is from the front.

This project uses the transmissive Siemens l.c.d., but the two are quite interchangeable, and if anyone wished to use the reflective type there is no reason why this should not be done. Both have been tried, and the transmissive seems to be the better.

## DISPLAY FILM

Display film is a development from the 3 M Company, and is again extremely new. It is a thin (between 01 and 03 of an inch, according to type) plastic film, made of cellulose acetate butyrate. Actually inside the plastic are a large number of very closely spaced louvres, all at the same angle to each other. In other words, it is exactly like a tiny venetian blind. Placed behind an l.c.d., it allows natural light falling on the plastic at angleperhaps from a window, or a lamp behind and above the l.c.d.-to pass through the plastic and illuminate the active segments of the display.

When the display is viewed normally from the front, however, it appears to be backed by a completely opaque black sheet, against which the illuminated segments stand out very clearly indeed. The effect is quite clear in the introductory photographs.

The display film is not an essential, since the clock design places it in a case which is sprayed matt black, and has the l.c.d. mounted well forward on the top of the case. Thus the display is normally seen against a matt black background, and is clearly visible. Nevertheless, the project is considerably enhanced by using the film, and it is both inexpensive and obtainable from several of the outlets supplying the l.c.d.

## Next month: Full constructional details of the clock will be given.

## Rodidutr

## Information please

Sir-We belong to a group researching new techniques of energy provision, conservation and use in domestic dwellings.

In our new proposals we aim to make a maximum use of ambient solar energy by using simple. easy to construct systems for collection, storage and application.

During the past 12 months; operating an integrated prototype dwelling we have built and tested solar water heaters, recycling systems for liquid and solid wastes, various food production systems and for electrical generation using wind power, both high-speed propellers and slow-speed rotor devices.

We would welcome any advice on electrical generation, control circuitry and storage systems. We are interested in the possibility for using small electric motors, ex-car parts, surplus equipment (alternators and dynamos), and the winding of generators for power supplies ranging from $18 \mathrm{~W}-2 \mathrm{~kW}$.

Derek Taylor and John Shore. 36. Bedford Square, London, WC1B 3ES

## Group One

Sir-May I through the courtesy of your columns bring to the attention of Component Retailers the way we are attempting to deal with an urgent problem which affects all of us. I refer to the shortage of Electronic Components.

There are many buying Groups operating successfully in commodities ranging from Groceries to Television Sets. but we believe we are the first (and perhaps the only one) dealing in Electronic Components. We are the poor relation of this industry and it is the manufacturer who can buy bigger quantity who comes first. "Group One" has been functioning for about three years during which time it has prevented the total disappearance of many vital components by large purchases. To give us more buying power we would like to recruit more members. Would any Electronic Component Retailer who is interested please contact the writer at the following address.
A. Sproxton (Director),

Home Radio (Components) Ltd..
234-240 London Road, Mitcham, Surrey.

## POUNIF RAIFInT

## CONNOISSEUR BD1 KIT (February 1974, page 35)

The kit is available from most hi fi stockists throughout the country. It is not obtainable direct from the manufacturers, A. R. Sugden \& Co, as stated in our. report. This company wishes it to be made clear that they do not supply goods other than through the usual trade channels.
100W INVERTER/CHARGER (February 1974)
Veritronics supply the Printed Circuit Board only. Transformers and Inductors can be obtained from Zeta Windings.

## THE OTHER SIDE

It has not been the custom to report on the military side of the space activities. In doing so now it is a reminder that though the programmes for the future are not definite, with many astronauts and' technologists wondering about their future, the space activities will be kept alive for defence and offence Apart from the space shuttle and the Mars programmes nothing is definite for the rest of the 70 's, though this could change rapidly.
lt is a sad reflection that continuance on a grand scale for peaceful purposes should depend upon thoughts of aggression.

Last year Russia launched a whole series of spy satellites in the space of two weeks in October. There is little doubt that these satellites were directed to the events in the middle east.

Again, some of the more sophisticated equipment comes from the requirements set by the services. The returned film capsules must show details not otherwise needed for more formal research. This presupposes that the cameras alone will have had considerable development. These will be available later for peaceful purposes.

When thinking of the missiles and counter missiles it is usual to do so in the terms of a bomb or similar one-off device. The reality is now somewhat different. Taking the United States who do publish figures, the data shows that up to 1970 some 4,000 warheads were available. By 1975 this figure will have risen to something of the order of 10,000 .

As this target has more than halfway reached the number stated it is of interest to consider the type of vehicle which carries the warheads. By far the most advanced is the Multiple Independently Targeted Re-entry Vehicle, MIRV. This system enables a single vehicle to carry a number of warheads, which can be directed independently and at different intervals of firing, on a number of separate targets.

Details of Russian devices have not been released by Russia but America believes that a MIRV device has been tested.

## ACCURATE PICTURE

A knowledge of control devices enables a fairly accurate picture of the system to be made up. The multiple unit vehicle which carries several small satellites appeared quite early, by 1963 in fact. This system has been used for scientific purposes. The first experimental vehicles were not in fact related to defence directly.


B Y FRANK W. H Y DE
In the Able-Star system, which was to be a second stage to the Thor booster, the first stop-start control was tested. The Able-Star had restarting facilities with guidance control, an accelerometer and a programmer. The first test in space was as early as 1960 . In April of that year two satellites were launched by this type of vehicle. These were a Naval Research Laboratory satellite for solar studies and a Transit satellite.
By 1963 another system of vehicles was under way. This was the Allas-Agena combination. This time there was an entirely different programme for the satellites and they were placed in widely different orbits. In 1963 there was a Test Ban Treaty to be observed and the system was used to monitor that the signatories were complying with the ban. The satellites were called $V e l a$ and a pair of these were placed in orbits between 62,000 and 72,000 miles high and 180 degrees apart.

In the early 60 's the Titan $I I I$ was the largest of the United States booster rockets. A system called Transtage was used in 1966 to put eight satellites in different equatorial orbits. Each satellite weighed about 100 pounds and the orbits were at an altitude of 21,000 miles. This was an ingenious experiment and the procedure adopted was to achieve near circular orbit of the "mother" system using the stop start facilities. This near circular orbit gave a period of slightly more than $22 \frac{1}{4}$ hours. The successive releases resulted in longer periods decided by the amount of boost that each one received.

The system was proven by three further launches of a similar nature at intervals of several months. It was this series of successes that led to final stepping up of these programmes.

Without pursuing the reasons for the strategy or endeavouring to discover the exact situation by a detective exercise, the future progress is such that by 1978 the MIRV system will be able to carry up to 24 warheads of increased size and by 1980's larger warheads still.

A few investigators are seeking the answers as to what is being done where, but the only comfort so far, if indeed that is a correct term, is that the technology will not stagnate from lack of funds.

## VENUS AND ON TO MERCURY

The sling-shot Mariner 10 mission to Venus and Mercury has a special place in the Mariner series. Before the original planning for more sophistication than Mariner 9 could be implemented, a severe cut back of funds in 1969 made rethinking necessary.

A number of problems arise in the Mariner 10 programme for the reason that in approaching Mercury the thermal increase has to be taken into account without reducing the Venus activity value. For one thing a thermal shield or sunshade of Teflon impregnated glass was required.

Since the solar flux is three times as high in this mission there was no need for the usual four solar power panels and these were reduced to two. However, within the budget allowed ingenuity has made a number of new approaches possible. The weight of the vehicle is of the order of half a ton of which 170 pounds is the scientific payload.

The path of the vehicle will be highly elliptical taking about 170 days and the vehicle will visit Mercury twice. There will be two new cameras for television which will have wide and narrow angle facilities each with three times the original focal length of the Vidicon units. This is mainly because of the "real time" television transmissions. This scheme also required a much higher gain aerial.
The seven experiments mounted on the probe include two magnetometers. So far there has been no evidence of the two planets having magnetospheres and in consequence this is a vital experiment.

There is a charged particle telescope to observe the solar bombardment of Mercury and two ultraviolet spectrometers to scan the airglow of the Earth and also for atmospheric analysis. Other instrumentation deals with the protons and electrons in the solar wind and an infra-red radiometer is used to check Mercury for hotspots.

The results are important-for a number of well-known astronomers have made predictions with differing


THE DESIGN of equipment to commercial production standards requires wide experience, strong mathematical ability, and an almost encyclopaedic knowledge of current component prices.

A production line design must not only satisfy the specification claimed, it must also make money. This causes the designer to approach all products with a cost effective bias. He must often resist the temptation to include extra components which he, as an
eagineering purist, feels should be present, because of the watchful eye of the accounts department.

The amateur designer is free from most of these restrictions because he will be concerned with a "one-off" circuit. It will not matter the slightest if he pops in a 1 per cent tolerance resistor where a 20 per cent would hawe been sufficient. Neither will it matter if a potential divider chain carries a few more milliamps than it needs.

### 1.1. GETTING STARTED

A stock of resistors and capacitors can be purchased very cheaply from various component suppliers and as for transistors and diodes, they are almost as cheap.

A would-be designer should not be put off by the feeling that his mathematics is not good enough. It is possible to achieve reasonably predictable design even if your mathematical qualifications are G.C.E. "O" level (failed). The vast majority of design work entails little more than elementary arithmetic with a sprinkling of algebra as taught to 13 -year-olds.

## WHY SHOULD I LEARN TO DESIGN?

There is certainly no need to design your ows equipment because of the hundreds of constructional projects published in magazines. Most of these are contributed by old hands at the game who have often come up the hard way and such designs can be safely taken as thoroughly tested pieces of work.

However, there are a few of us who like "doing our own things". There is a tremendpus feeling of
satisfaction in creating even a simple piece of cireuitry particularly after a few voltage checks confirm that the predictions were correct. Practice in simple design is the finest way to get the real feel of electronics.

A word of warning: keep off complex circuitry until experience is gained-too many frustating failures in the early stages of a hobby can lead to a change of interests.

## TEST EQUIPMEMT

It is rather pointless designing without being able to test. The following items of test gear should be gradually acquired:

1. Electronic multimeter-This very useful item is quite cheap nowadays and well worth the investment. 2. Audio Signal Generator-Excellent construction kits are available.
2. Oscilloscope-Not essential but increases the fascination of electronics to an almost unbelievable degree. Well worth the $£ 30$ or $£ 40$ spent.

### 1.2. HANDLING THE ARITHMETIC

Answers to resistor calculations are seldom required to more than two figures. Transistors are subject to wide variations in specification and any so-called constants like $h_{\mathrm{PE}}$ are seldom guaranteed to within 50 per cent (unless a higher price is paid for selected specimens).

Bearing these factors in mind we can state the number one rule of circuit tesign :

Don't be toc fussy with arithmetic, and if you are, don't expect your voltmeter readings to reflect this or you will be disappointed.

Experience will soon teach you to distinguish beiween a normal variation due to toierances and an abnormal condition.

## HANDLING ROWS OF NOUGHTS

It is an unpleasant fact of life that amps and ohms are comparatively rare units in transistor circuitry. Most stages operate with currents in the milliamp or microamp range and resistors in the kilohm or megohm range.

To save writing rows of noughts after decimal points, remember that

$$
\text { volts }=\text { milliamps } \times \text { kilohms }
$$

and $\quad$ volts $=$ microamps $\times$ megohms
If you are proficient in handing powers of ten, note that $1 \mathrm{~mA}=10^{-3} \mathrm{~A}, 1 \mu^{2}=10^{-6} \mathrm{~A}, 1 \mathrm{k} \square=$ $10^{3 \Omega}, 1 \mathrm{M} \Omega=10^{68} \Omega$.

It is sometimes necessary to handle time constants, in which the formula is $t=C R$ in seconds, farads and ohms. It is usually more convenient to use $\mu \mathrm{F}$ and MI.

### 1.3. CHOICE OF TRANSISTORS

For amateur design work, almost any silicon transistor can be used, providing it is the smallsignal type usually classified as being in the "under $1 W^{\prime \prime}$ class.

It is best to keep away from germanium specimens as they suffer from severe leakage problems which complicate circuit calculations.

With regard to high power transistors, these again are best avoided until experience is gained with the smaller types. The design of power amplifier stages is not advisable in the early phases of the hobbythey are a little pricey and require considerable design know-how to counteract their intrinsic suicidal tendencies

The BC107, BC108 and BC109 or their equivalent "lockfit" versions BC147, BC148 and BC149 are perhaps the best bet for the beginner. They are available for a few pence each and large stocks.
particularly of the EC108 are held in most radio component shops or mail-order departments. The following notes are based on using the BC108 but it is not essential to use these, in fact a good design philosophy is to make circnits which are almost insensitive to transistor species. This is not possible in all cases but it is still a good guiding principle.

## CHOICE OF CIRCUITRY

Simple voltage amplifiers are ideal to practice with and can quickly be hooked up and tested out.

As mentioned above, power amplifiers should be left alone, but it is rather important to have one available to provide loudspeater drive. Very efficient and cheap power amplifier modules are advertised in mail-order columms of this magazine. They seldom require more than a few hundred millivolts to drive them to full power output.

### 1.4. HOW TO TREAT A TRANSISTOR

Superficially, a transistor is a crystal blob with three wires sticking out. How it is treated as an electronic device depends on your sense of curiosity.
If you are a stickler for mathematical rigidity and enjoy complexity, this harmless blot will be analysed by means of its equivalent circuit, which is a frightening array of fictitious generators, feedback loops, resistive networks and the odd capacitor or two.
Fortunately the amateur designer (and, if the truth was told quite a few professionals) will have little need to probe so deeply.

## THE VARIABLE RESISTOR MODEL

An absurdly simple, but in many cases quite adequate, way to visualise a transistor is shown in Fig. 1.1. Although the diagram shows an npn transistor the explanation below is equally valid for pnp types.

## ACTION OF THE SIMPLIFIED TRANSISTOR

The collector and emitter wires are the two ends of a resistor. The ohmic value of this resistor can be varied by "moving" the base up cr down. The movernent is obviously not a mechanical movement but a voltage movement.


Fig. 1.1. A simple model of transistor action. The collectoir to emitter resistor is varied by the voltage on the base

As the voltage on the base is moved downwards towards the emitter the resistor becomes larger; if the base voltage moves upwards towards the collector the resistor becomes smaller.

Thus the transistor passes a larger current when the base is up thatn when it is down. The veltage across the ends (collector and emitter) have little effect on the current through the "resistor".

To avoid the mistake of treating this simple analogy too literally, the resistor becomes almost infinite (open circuit) if the base is very low but never becomes zero ohms (short circuit) even if the base is very high.
The range of movement allowed on the base is seldom more than 100 mV or so.

## COLLECTOR AND EMITTER CURRENTS ARE EQUAL

The collector current and the base current added together equals the emitter current:

$$
i_{\mathrm{e}}=i_{\mathrm{c}}+i_{\mathrm{b}}
$$

However. in most transistors, with the exception of large power output types, the base current is so small in relation to the collector current that it can be safely ignored. This is because $h_{\mathrm{YE}}$, which is the ratio $I_{\mathrm{c}} / I_{\mathrm{b}}$ is usually greater than 50 and can reach 300 in some cases.

In virtually all arithmetic calculations it is quite in order to treat $I_{\mu}$ and $I_{e}$ as identical values. Transistor data manuals seldom give emitter currents, only collector currents.)

### 1.5. WHEN TO IGHORE GOMPONENTS

If a network contains, say, a $1 \mathbf{k} \Omega$ resistor and you sliap a $10 k$ !? or higher value across it, the network will hardly notice the difference.

For practical purposes the ten times rule may be used, i.e. ignore resistors in parallel which are ten or more times larger.

## SMALL RESISTORS IN SERIES

Slipping in an extra $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ in series with an existing 10k!? or higher will not make much difference.

For practical purposes the ten times rule can again be used, i.e. ignore resistors in series which are tea or more times smaller.

## IGNORING CAPACITORS

The ten times rule can be nsed to simplify capacitor calculations but the application of the rule is the reverse to that of resistance: i.e. ignore small capacitors in parallel with large ones and large capricitors in series with small ones.

### 1.6. THE IMPORTANCE OF THE VOLTAGE DIVIDER CHAIN

However a group of semiconductors is arranged, they will all require various voltages to set the d.c. operating conditions. It is inconvenient and costly to provide separate power supplies or batteries for each veltage and the usual solution to the problem is to use one common supply and tap various intermediate voltages by means of voltage dividers.

A voltage divider consists of two components which are usually (but not necessarily) resistors connected in series across a supply. The junction of the two is the output voltage tapping (see Fig. 1.2).

## THE RESISTOR CHAIN

The chain R1, R2 is the divider which produces the voltage $V_{z}$. The intention is to supply the load with voltage. The load is drawn as a black box which in practice could be the base emitter terminal, a diode, or indeed any two terminal device which requires some specific operating voltage.

Don't be misled by the apparent simplicity of the arrangement. It is important enough for its design to be treated as a very important operation. The predictability and stability of any complex circuit is, to a large extent, dependent on the correct choice of values for R1 and R2.
A common mistake is to imagine that $V_{2}$ remains the same value when the load is connected as when it was not. Suppose for example that the load requires 5 V but the supply rail is 10 V . Sticking a couple of $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistors across the rail will certainly deliver 5 V at the junction; the disappointment comes when the load is connected. If you are lucky the voltage may be nearly 5 V but the odds are that the value will hurtle down to a prohibitively low value.


Fig. 1.2. A simple voltage divider using two resistors

## DEFINE THE LOAD

The correct starting point should always be the load itself. It is vital to know not only the voltage it requires but the current it will draw at this voltage.
Assuming this knowledge is available, the basic principle is to ensure the current drain down the chain is much greater than the current required by the load.

As an example, suppose the load requires $\operatorname{lmA}$ and the divider chain is calculated to drain 1A from the supply. It is not too difficult to see that $V_{2}$ will remain rock solid whether the load is connected or not. The extra 1 mA drain in relation to 1 A would only cause negligible change in the output voltage.
This example (particularly with regard to values) is not intended to be a practical one. The wastage on 1A to supply a 1 mA load is carrying the principle too far. The examples which follow show how intelligent compromises can be made.

### 1.7. DESIGN OF A DIVIDER CHAIN

All design work is based on compromise. The voltage divider, because of the insistence on passing much greater current down the chain than is required to feed the load, is a classic example of design compromise.

How great is "much greater"? Since there is no absolute answer to this question, all that can be done is to examine the evils at both ends of the range.

Remembering that the only purpose of a divider chain is to supply the load with a reasonably fixed voltage, the following limits can be noted.

## NOT ENOUGH CURRENT DOWN R1, R2

Voltage at tap will fall appreciably when load is connected. Also if the load current is continuously changing, the voltage across the load will vary too much. This is because the current to the load comes from the supply rail via R1 and any changes in current demand will cause significant changes in volts drop across R1.

## TOO MUCH CURRENT DOWN R1, R2

This is excellent as far as stability of load voltage is concerned. Any change in current required by the load will be negligible in relation to the large drain current and voltage variations across R1 will be quite insignificant.

The heavy current drain in the divider, however, must be paid for in battery life. Even if the supply is a mains power pack, several dividers in a circuit, all tating excessive currents will mean an increase in the cost of the unit.

There is also another reason why the current should be kept within bounds. In amplifier circuits the signal input is often applied to the centre tap of the divider, which means the resistors will be across the signal input and obviously these will be low in value if they have been designed to pass a lage current. A low resistance shunted across a weak signal source will tend to short circuit the poor thing to ground before it is even given the chance to be amplified.

The compromise which strikes a reasonable balance between these two conflicting requirements is normally stated as follows:

Current down the divider chain should be at least five and preferably ten times the current required by the load.

If the load current normally varies the term "load current" should be taken to mean the largest value expected, i.e. worse case conditions.

In future the value ten times will be used as a rule of thumb except where special demands require it to be overridden.

### 1.8. WORKED EXAMPLE OF A DIVIDER CHAIN

Calculate suitable values for $R_{1}, R_{2}$ if the divider is to jeed $2 V$ to the base of a transistor. The transistor base current is about 0.1mA and the supply rail is 10 V .

First draw the circuit as shown in Fig. 1.3 including all known voltages and currents. The 2 V dop across R 2 is given and the 8 V follows from the knowledge that the total voltage drop along the chain must add up to the supply voltage.

The load on the divicer is the transistor base current, 0.1 mA . Adopting the ten times rule the current down the chain should be at least 1 maA . An extra little annoyance, however, is that the top resistor must also carry the 0.1 mA to the base, which means it should carry 11 times 0.1 mA which equals 1.1 mA .
Simple application of Ohm's Law now leads to values for $R_{1}, R_{z}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& R_{1}=\frac{8 \mathrm{~V}}{1 \cdot 1 \mathrm{~mA}}=7 \cdot 27 \mathrm{k} \Omega \text { (approx) } \\
& R_{r}=\frac{2 \mathrm{~V}}{1 \mathrm{~mA}}=2 \mathrm{k} \Omega
\end{aligned}
$$

## APPROXIMATION

It may be mentioned, however, that allowing for eleven times instead of ten times for R1 current is, in most practical applications, a case of being too fussy. After all, it is a little pointless to perform tiresome arithmetic with 11 in the bottom of a division rather than ten when the answer still has


Fig.1.3. Voltages and currents in divider chain and transistor, for example mentioned in text
to be rounded up or down to suit the nearest prefarred resistor value (try finding a $7.27 \mathrm{k} \Omega 2$ resistor!). The nearest you will probably find is $7.5 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ and even that is in the 5 per cent range.

In fact, the only reason for considering the $0 \cdot 1 \mathrm{~mA}$ in R1 is to guide you when searching for the nearest resistor amongst those available.

For practice purposes, try calculating $R$, and $R$, in the following cases:

1. A transistor base requires 002 mA at 4 V . The supply rail is 20 V .
2. The load is a resistor of $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega 2$ requiring 5 V . The supply rail is 50 V .

Continued Next Month

by K. Lenton-Smith

THE dividing line between music and pure noise, as generated electronically, is difficult to define these days. Much of the material in the "Top of the Pops" list is ambivalent in this respect, with white noise being widely used.
"What I enjoy most at the Disco"', said a friend recently, "is that the volume is so high that it goes right through your chest!' Being a mere male, he was not fitted with the shock absorbers that dissipate some of this power where the fair sex is concerned. It would seem that this love of decibels, together with an equally oppressive attack on the vision by strobes and frequency-controlled coloured lighting is a fate worse than deaf!
The reader will have noticed, no doubt, that certain security organisations are working on crowd control devices that have strikingly similar characteristics. In this case the stroboscope is geared as a weapon to interfere with brainwaves: low frequency sound at high power is also being used for its crowdstopping potential. This may explain how discotheque managements keep their patrons-by control!

## HYPNOSIS

There is no doubt that a regular and rhythmic beat has a mild hypnotic effect on most people: South American rhythms are fascinating, whilst Reggae is compelling. Western civilisation's jungle drums are welcome, in moderate doses, as a mild soporific to relax the listener. Primitive graphic art and music were mainly rhythmic and there has been little change over several millenia.

No doubt the psychologist can explain why patterns appeal aesthetically, whether to the audio or visual senses. Foot-tapping is a human trait that is by no means the prerogative of the jazz addict: concert orchestra musicians are equally prone-perhaps because of the need to count sixty-four bars rest!
In his day, Bach was a composer of popular music. Those who
attempt his works will appreciate that his patterns of both harmony and rhythm are extremely wellordered. He felt strongly enough to write his 24 preludes to underline the importance of equaltemperament tuning-and working to the twelfth root of two calls for the utmost regularity.

Perhaps all this is explained by the fact that we live by patterns?

## POLYPHONIC GENERATION

Whenever a group of enthusiastic organ builders get together, one topic of conversation is inevitable-the merits of various types of generators.
Divider organs, such as the P.E. Organ (no issues available), have much to commend them in terms of cost, weight, and relative simplicity. Assuming the use of discrete components, the principle is to use 12 master oscillators (probably Hartley) tuned through the top chromatic octave, each being followed by its own string of cascaded bistable frequency dividers. Because tuning is controlled by the master oscillator, each divider stage is identical and the shopping list is simplified. The waveform is normally square, though it is possible to produce sawtooth outputs from multivibrators. Blocking oscillators will also give a sawtooth waveform but the coil-winding involved makes this an unpopular project: the instrument would be hardly portable, either.
Phase relationship of any divider string will be locked and serious musicians criticise divider organs on this count for their lack of chorus effect. In practice, this disadvantage is less noticeable when reverberation is employed: the light organist will further break up the clinical divider signals with Leslie speakers and other gadgets and, bearing in mind that keying and couplers are easier to arrange, both the home constructor and commercial manufacturer tend to choose divider systems on economic grounds.

## FREE PHASE

The closest equivalent to the pipe organ is obtained with free phase generators. A separately tuned oscillator is used for each frequency throughout the organ and there is no phase relationship between octaves. A good pipe organ will never be precisely in tune, primarily because of temperature/humidity effects, and free. phase systems can duplicate the resulting chorus effect realistically.

A piano or organ tuner usually makes each octave progressively and slightly sharp: the brilliance this imparts to a newly-tuned instrument is particularly noticeable. Free phase generators can also be tuned this way, but this is impossible with a divider system employing divide-bytwo stages after each oscillator. A trained musician will hear the difference between the two systems despite the tuning deviation being very small.
Sine waves are, of course, pure fundamentals: these have to be mixed in free phase systems to produce complex waveforms such as reed and string tones. Each oscillator's supply is usually keyed (rather than the signal itself) as it is easy to insert a time-constant at this point to control attack and decay to simulate the speech of a pipe. Keying becomes somewhat complex where several pitches have to be keyed simultaneously for resistive mixing.
The many inductances required make this type of organ less usual in the popular commercial field as portability is a selling point. However, the serious musician embarking on building his own instrument would probably choose free phase as the nearest counterpart to a pipe organ.

## MOS MASTER

The constructor now finds organ construction simpler than ever. In the December issue, the Hammond "Concorde" and "Regent" were mentioned. The top 12 notes are, in fact, obtained from one oscillator which tunes the complete instrument simultaneously.

A new 16-pin DIL device, type AY-1-0212, is now available to organ builders and, fed with a 2 MHz signal, produces the complete top octave between $8368 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~Hz}$ and $4434 \cdot 6 \mathrm{~Hz}$. The chromatic outputs may each be fed into a seven-stage i.c. divider (such as type AY-1-5050 in a 14 -pin DIL encapsulation) to complete an eightoctave generator system. For a cost of around $£ 35$, this competes strongly with discrete components: the 13 devices and single 2 MHz oscillator could be made compact and would generally seem to be the answer to the constructor's prayer-unless he happened to be a free phase addict!

## YATES ELECTRONICS (FLITWICK) LTO. DEPT. PE, ELSTOW STORAGE DEPOT KEMPSTON HAROWICK

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C.W.O. PLEASE. POST AND PACKING PLEASE ADD 10 D TO ORDERS UNDER E 2. Catalogue which contains data sheets for most of the components listed will be sent free on request. 10p stamp appreciated.

## AESISTORS

W lakra high scability carbon film-very low noise-capless construetion W Mullard CR25 carbon film-very small body size $7.5 \times 25 \mathrm{~mm}$ 2\% ELECTROSIL TR5

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E12
E24
E12
E12
E12

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Quantity price applies for any selection. Ignorefractions on total order.

## DEVELOPMENT PACK

0.5 watt $5 \%$ Iskra resistors 5 off each value 470 to 1 Ma

E12 pack 325 resistors $\mathbf{6 2 \cdot 4 0}$. E24 pack 650 resistors $\mathbf{6 4 . 7 0}$

## POTENTIOMETERS

Carbon track 5k』 to 2Mn, log or linear (log $\frac{1}{2} W$, lin $\frac{1}{2} W$ ). Single, 12p. Dual gang (stereo), 40p. Single D.P. switch 24p

## SKELETON PRESET POTENTIOMETERS

Linear: 100, 250, 500 n and decades to 5 M 月. Horizontal or vertical P.C Sub-miniature 0.1 W, sp each. Miniature $^{2} .25 \mathrm{~W}, 7 \mathrm{p}$ each

## TRANSISTORS

| ACl07 | 15p | AFI39 | 32p | BF\|77 | 28p | OC45 | 12p | 2N3710 | $11 p$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ACl26 | 12p | AFI78 | 32p | BF178 | 32p | OC70 | 12 p | 2N3711 | $11 p$ |
| AC127 | 15p | AFI80 | 40p | BFI79 | 32p | OC7I | 12p | 2N3819 | 32p |
| ACI28 | 15p | AFIBI | 40p | BFI80 | 32p | OC72 | 12p | 2N4062 | 12p |
| AC131 | 12 p | BCI07 | 12p | BFI81 | 32p | OC81 | 12 p | 2N4286 | 20p |
| ACl32 | 12p | BC108 | 12p | BFI94 | 14p | OC820 | 12p | 2N4289 | 20p |
| AC176 | 15p | BC109 | 12p | BFI95 | 14 p | 2N2646 | 60p | 40360 | 35p |
| ACI87 | 22p | BC147 | 12p | BF197 | 15p | 2N2904 | 20p | 40361 | 35p |
| ACI88 | 22p | BCI48 | 12p | BF200 | 32p | 2N2926 | 10p | 40362 | 40p |
| ADI40 | 50p | BCI49 | 12p | BFY50 | 20p | 2N3054 | 58p | 40408 | 40p |
| ADI49 | 45p | BC157 | 14 p | BFY51 | 20p | 2N3055 | 60p | ZTX108 | 15p |
| AD161 | 33p | BC158 | 14p | BFY52 | 20p | 2N3702 | 13 p | ZTX300 | 15p |
| ADI62 | 36p | BC159 | 14p | BUYIO5 |  | 2N3703 | 12p | ZT×302 | 20p |
| AFII4 | 20p | BC187 | 22p |  | 62-25 | 2N3704 | 13 p | Z $\mathrm{T} \times 500$ | 15p |
| AFII 5 | 20p | BD131 | 75p | OC26 | 45p | 2N3705 | 12p | ZTX503 | 20p |
| AFII6 | 20p | BD132 | $75 p$ | OC28 | 50p | 2N3706 | 11p |  |  |
| AFll 7 | 20p | BDI33 | 75p | OC35 | 50p | 2N3707 | 12p |  |  |
| AFl18 | 38p | BFIIS | 25p | OC42 | 12p | 2N3708 | 10 p |  |  |
| AFI 26 | 20p | BFI73 | 20p | 0 C 44 | 12p | 2N3709 | $11 p$ |  |  |

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\section*{DIODES

## DIODES

## DIODES

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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| BY127 | 1250 V | 1 A | 12p | OA85 |
| IN4001 | 50 V | 1 A | 7p | OA90 |
| 1N4002 | 100 V | IA | 8 | OA91 |
| IN 4004 | 400 V | 1 A | 8 p | OA202 |
| IN4006 | 800 V | +A | 10p | IN4148 |
| IN 4007 | 1000 V | 1 A | 10p | BAII4 |

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 SINGLE IOK, $25 \mathrm{~K}, 100 \mathrm{~K}$ log. or lin. 40p.
KNAL GANG, IOK + $10 K$ ete. log. or lin. 60 p . KNOB FOR ABOVE 12p
8 Gauge panel 12 p.
18 Gauge panel 12 in $\times 4$ in with slots cut for use plete with fixings for 4 pots

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| AB7 | 21 | $\times 5 \frac{1}{2}$ | $\times 1 \frac{1}{2}$ in |
| AB8 |  | $\times 4$ | $\times 1 \frac{1}{2}$ in |
| AB9 |  | $\times 27$ | $\times 1 \frac{1}{2}$ in |
| ABIO |  | $\times 5$ | $\times 1 \frac{1}{3}$ |
| ABII |  | $\times 2 \frac{1}{2}$ | $\times 2 \mathrm{in}$ |
| AB12 |  | $\times 2$ | $\times$ lin |

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| $0.47 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 35 V | $2 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 25 V |


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| :---: | :---: |
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3 pin 5A $\begin{aligned} & \text { line socket } \\ & \text { chassis plug } \\ & \text { line socket }\end{aligned}$

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## FIRST STEPS IN CIRCUIT DESIGN-2

The second article in this new series for Beginners deals with the "parameter jungle', input impedance and voltage gain equations.

## PRACTICAL <br> 卫 E D D D D D D

MAY ISSUE ON SALE APRIL 10, 1974

Subiect to the current National industrial situation at the time of going to press


## THE PAN-EUROPEANS

The loud and sour cries of "disaster" from the anti-Common Market lobby are by no means deterring British companies from investing in Europe. As most say, Britain's entry is essentially a longterm strategy as far as real benefits are concerned and there are yet a few years of plodding before the tariffs are finally down.

Of course, at the political level there is still a lot of wrangling. There is bound to be, just as in any free society of any size right down to the local Parish Council. But this need not and should not be a reason for entrepreneurs to hold back their plans for Europe.

You don't need to be a visionary to see the market openings. They are there for all to see as Waldo Thorn, managing director of Celdis Ltd., Reading, pointed out to me recently. Celdis is currently ranking about number five in the UK league table of 100 distributors of electronic components. Turnover is running at $£ 4$ million a year from the UK and subsidiaries in Germany and Italy.

Top priority for Celdis is establishment of a French company and this will be in operation within weeks. The German company, based in Bavaria, is to open further offices not only in other areas of Germany but also in Austria and Switzerland. Scandinavia could be next, followed by Spain and Portugal and Northern and Southern Ireland.

Altogether, 27 Celdis locations throughout the UK and Europe are planned and eventually they will all be linked to each other and to strategically located warehouses by data-link and video display terminals. This means that if a customer, say in Manchester, phones his local Celdis office, the
sales clerk will interrogate the central computer and perhaps establish that supplies are available in the German warehouse. The operation takes only seconds and he quotes price and delivery. The order is then placed over the network and the goods shipped by air-freight.

Unquestionably this will be the pattern of the future and it will become easier stifl when we have a Euro-currency and a Eurolanguage (which I fervently hope will be English!).

Thorn's concept has a touch of the grand design about it. But he is by no means alone. Rival distributors GDS set up a company in Amsterdam last year and have just opened another in Geneva.

Openings in Europe are good for service industries such as component distribution but not, at the moment, for manufacture because in all the main centres there are labour shortages and wage rates are considerably higher than in the UK. In labour-intensive operations it is still far cheaper to manufacture in the UK than in France or Germany, even ltaly, though of course things may well change.

## WHAT HAPPENED TO CUSTOM MOS?

When MOS techniques first came into prominence, the big ploy of the semiconductor manufacturers was to offer a custom-built service. For a fat fee they would design a device to meet your special requirements. You could even do a deal by owning your own circuit for which you had paid development costs and get a rake-off if it was sold elsewhere.

The pattern is now changing. When MOS caught on in a big way the usual shortages built up and of all products in short supply in 1973 MOS was among the leaders. And the semi-conductor manufacturers, having developed their own standard lines in MOS have been too busy making these to bother overmuch with the "specials".

The man who was once the most valued customer is now regarded as a fuss-pot and relegated to the end of the queue. Unless, of course, you'd care to order a million-off, in which case you can still expect the red carpet to be put out.

The situation, however, is not quite as bad as it sounds because the number of standard devices available is becoming so great that your circuit needs to be very very special if you can't satisfy your design specification with off-the-shelf units. In 1970 over 80 per cent of production was in custom work. In three or four years time, industry sources suggest, custombuilt circuits could shrink to five per cent of total production.

THE ENERGY PROBLEM
Round about 1960 I was invited to the official inauguration of the Royal Army Pay Corps' computer at Worthy Down. The RAPC had stolen a march over the RAF and Royal Navy by being the first of the armed services to get their pay and allowance accounts onto a computer.

It was a great day and 1 well recall my astonishment at seeing a most beautiful ornamental fountain in the middle of the airconditioned complex in which the installation was housed. Could this be the same British Army I knew all those years ago? Fountains indeed! I soon discovered that the fountain had a deeper purpose than ornamentation. It was part of the heat dispersal network for the megawatts dissipated by the huge YBM valve-model computer.

It is generally supposed that the advent of solid-state eliminated the heat problem. It is much less of course but still there. So much so that a big insurance company in the USA has already had its new building designed to be heated entirely by the IBM computer installation.

The joke is that the design was conceived purely as a financial economy measure before the world fuel crisis. Now the company has all the kudos of appearing to be in the vanguard of the 1974 drive for energy conservation.
Energy re-cycling will be big business from now on-electronicaily controlled, of course. Expect to see air-conditioning experts like Honeywell jumping on the bandwagon with a giant leap.

## CRISIS SPIN-OFF

Tough times may be ahead for consumer electronics but the capital goods sector of the industry retains a buoyant outlook. Big business deals in exchange for Middle East oil will keep many factories busy. A huge upsurge in use of nuclear power and an accelerated North Sea oil programme will inject plenty of gold into the industry. The big headache for the industry is not so much orders but shortage of development engineers and shortage of raw materials.

The British export drive rose to mammoth proportions last year. The British Overseas Trade Board reports having financially supported 1,805 businessmen in 105 outward sales missions to 60 countries as well as sponsoring 6,300 firms exhibiting at 322 overseas trade fairs and exhibitions in 1973.

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ALL eight percussion generators are contained on a single circuit board with a mixer/preamplifier containing six f.e.t.s. The concentration of components makes it necessary to use some care in construction to insure that everything is properly placed and that nothing is left out.

The only lines coming to and from this board are the eight input lines, one output line and the power and ground lines. Completion of the assembly of this board will make the Rhythm Generator ready for operation except for adjustments of the various percussion generators.

## BASS DRUM

The circuit diagram for the Bass Drum generator is shown in Fig. 2.1. The circuit is basically a "twin T ringing oscillator". The frequency selection network is shocked into oscillation by the input trigger and decays at a rate determined by VR3.

## Concluding Article

##  GENERATOR

## BY BRICE WARD

A positive five volt input signal is applied to the input end of R7 when the Bass Drum is to sound. Assume transistor TR4 has been biased off and the voltage on the collector is close to the full 18 volts.

When the input signal is applied, TR4 is driven hard on and the collector voltage will drop to near zero almost instantaneously. Capacitor C10 has been charged to the full 18 volts and will immediately discharge in about $1 / 10$ th of the time of one cycle of the natural resonant frequency of the twin $T$ network, shocking the oscillator into operation.

This oscillation will be sustained for a period of time determined by the setting of VR3. The result is a rapidly starting, slowly decaying oscillation at a frequency determined by the frequency selective network composed of C11, C12, C13, R11, R12, R13 and R14. Capacitor C9 will only serve to insure that should the input pulse be removed before C10 has had a chance to discharge com-


Fig. 2.1. Full circuit of the Bass Drum generator
pletely, the voltage will not rise before it is completely discharged.

R18 and C15 furnish some filtering and final shaping. The overall result is a reasonable simulation of a bass drum and is applied across VR4 where the amplitude of the signal going to the mixer can be adjusted.

## HIGH AND LOW BONGOS

The High and Low Bongo circuits are shown in Fig. 2.2. Outside of the difference in a single component value, the circuits operate in a manner similar to the Bass Drum circuit. VR5 and 7 control the length of time that oscillations are sustained and VR6 and 8 control the amount of signal going to the mixer.

## WOOD BLOCKS

The Wood Block circuit is a little different in construction but accomplishes essentially the same thing as the first three circuits. TR10 and 11 are connected as a Darlington pair (Fig. 2.3) to convert the five volt input pulse to a very square pulse at the collector of TR11. This is applied to a pulse shaping network composed of C30, R49, R48 and R 50 .

The resulting differentiated pulse is applied to the base of TRI2 causing it to oscillate for as long as the pulse is present on the base. The output is taken from the collector, through C35 and applied to VR9 which allows the amplitude of the signal applied to the mixer to be adjusted.

C31, C32, C33, R50, R51 and R52 are the frequency selective phase shift circuits that will determine the frequency of the damped oscillations.


Fig. 2.2. The High and Low Bongo circuits are virtually identical to the Bass Drum circuit


Fig. 2.3. The Wood Block signal is generated using this circuit

## SNARE DRUM



Fig. 2.4. The Snare Drum circuit uses a noise diode, D12, to provide the necessary sound

## SNARE DRUM

The circuits so far discussed are very simple, damped oscillators and all feed a single input to a mixer. The remaining percussion circuits use either shaped noise, filtered for a particular frequency or shaped but relatively unfiltered noise. Each of these circuits makes use of a Semitron Z1J noise diode for the generation of this.

In the Snare Drum circuit (Fig. 2.4) transistor TR13 serves to step the input pulse of 5 volts up to 18 volts with the input network consisting of C36, R57, D11, C37 and R58 shaping the input pulse as required for operation of the subsequent stage.

R59, C38, D12, R60 and C39 develop and filter the required noise which is applied, for amplification, to the base of TR14. VR 10 adjusts the bias level on the emitter of TR14 to insure that it remains off until the input signal is applied. L1, C40 and C41 are a tank circuit to emphasise certain frequencies.

When a signal is applied, the collector of TR13 drops to near ground potential. The overall effect is to ground the top of R64 removing part of the bias and allowing TR14 to operate for a period determined by C 36 and the resistance in circuit with it.

## CYMBAL

In the Cymbal circuit (Fig. 2.5) TR15 and the associated circuitry set up the width of the overall signal, while TR16 controls the decay with its associated circuitry.

The output of these two stages is applied to TR17 as a decaying waveform which gates noise through from the Zener diode and its associated circuitry in a controlled manner. The output resonant circuit, composed of C49 and the OL130, provide a natural sounding cymbal percussive attack.

Circuits of this type are, perhaps, not the best available but they represent a compromise between

## CYMBAL



Fig. 2.5. Circuit of the Cymbal generator

## LONG AND SHORT BRUSH



Fig. 2.6. The Long and Short Brush circuits are identical apart from C50/56
reasonably good operation and extreme complexity in terms of filtering, shaping and oscillatory circuitry.

## LONG AND SHORT BRUSH

The Long and Short Brush circuits are given in Fig. 2.6. Apart from a capacitor value change they are identical. Again, a Darlington pair is used to shape the input pulse and C50 and 56 are used to control the decay to effect the long and short brushes respectively. Beyond that the circuitry is similar to the Cymbal stage.

## MIXER AND PRE-AMPLIFIER

The Mixer and Pre-amplifier stages chosen use field effect transistors because of the inherent high input impedance and good signal separation afforded by these devices. Fig. 2.7 is the circuit diagram and illustrates the simplicity of the design.

Each input f.e.t. is fed from a capacitor and preset potentiometer to allow the overall output signal at the f.e.t. drains to be adjusted.

The output stage is arranged as a source follower and matches the high output impedance of the Mixer to the input of the Power Amplifier.

## MONITOR AMPLIFIER

The output is taken to VR2 for volume control and from there to a monitor Power Amplifier (Fig. 2.8) for final amplification. An output jack is also provided to allow the output to be fed to an external amplifier.

The amplifier circuit given is adequate in output to provide rhythm accompaniment to a home soloist, but for group work a larger external amplifier should be connected. Additional amplification also enhances the instrumental qualities of the generator.

## PERCUSSION GENERATOR BOARD

There is, outside of compactness, nothing difficult about the construction of the Percussion Generator Board. It might be a good idea to take the construction in stages beginning with the Mixer/Pre-ampli-


Fig. 2.7. Circuit of the mixer and pre-amplifier stages which use f.e.t.s to provide both good separation and high input impedance

## MONITOR AMPLIFIER



Fig. 2.8. Circuit of $3 W$ amplifier
fier. It would then be possible to build and test each generator as you progress.

The photograph shows the prototype board layout of components which can be followed for grouping the percussion generators.

## FINAL ADJUSTMENTS

Before making adjustments, set the volume control on the back panel for a comfortable listening level. Turn the "Stop/Run" switch to "Run" and select the Bass Drum. Press the "Write" switch with the tempo set fast enough to allow a quick program of drum beats to be written into each position. Now reduce the tempo and a steady drum beat should be heard. Adjust VR4 for this.

In a similar manner, select Low Bongos, High Bongos and Blocks. For Low Bongos, adjust VR7 until continuous oscillations occur and then back it off until you have the best sound. For High Bongos, adjust VR5 in a similar manner. Adjust VR6 and VR8 for a level that is compatible with the bass drum. Finally, adjust VR9 with Blocks selected. It will be necessary to fiddle these adjustments to get what you want but the above procedure should have four instruments working.

After adjusting the other four instruments, final volume adjustments can be made on VR4, 6, 8 and 9 with VR5 controlling the overall input to the mixer for these stages.

If, during any of the foregoing adjustments a steady hissing has been heard, VR10 should be adjusted to get rid of it.

Now erase all instruments by putting the instrument selection 'switches to the right and pressing the "Write" switch long enough to wipe out all sound. Adjust VR10 until a hissing noise is heard, then back it off until it just disappears. Now select the Snare Drum and adjust VR11 to make the volume compatible with the other instruments.
The final three instruments are selected in turn and the volume adjusted using VR12, 13 and 14.

## PERCUSSION GENERATOR BOARD



Table 2.1

|  | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | TIME SIGNATURE |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| VIENNESE WALTZ | a | h |  |  | h | h | a | h |  |  | h | h |  |  |  |  | 6/8 |
| FOX-TROT | a |  | h | h | a |  | h | h | a |  | h | h | a |  | h | h | 4/4 |
| SAMBA | a |  | $f$ | a | a |  | h | h | a |  | f | a | a |  | h | h | 4/4 |
| QUICK-STEP | g/h |  | h |  | h |  | h |  | g/h |  |  |  | h |  | h |  | 4/4 |
| CHA-CHA | a |  |  | 1 | a |  | c | c | a |  |  | 1 | a |  | b | b | 4/4 |
| RHUMBA | a | d |  | d | a | d | a | d | a | d |  | d | a | d | a | d | 4/4 |
| BOSA-NOVA | a | c | c | a | a | c | c | c | a | c | c | a | a | c | c | c | 4/4 |
| TANGO | a |  |  | $\dagger$ | a |  | a | 1 | a |  |  | 1 | a |  | a | 1 | 4/4 |
| ROCK-N'-ROLL | a |  | b | b | a |  | b |  | a |  | b | b | a |  | b |  | 4/4 |
| MARCH/POLKA | a |  | h |  | a |  | h |  | a |  | h |  | a |  | h |  | 4/4 |
| WESTERN | a |  |  | c |  |  | a |  |  | b | b |  |  |  |  |  | 6/8 |
| BEGUINE | a | $g$ | c | c | b |  | c |  | a | g |  | b | c |  | c |  | 4/4 |

Drum-a
High Bongo-b
Low Bongo-c
Blocks-d

Snare Drum-e
Cymbal-f
Long Brush-g
Short Brush-h

## RHYTHM PATTERNS

After final "tuning", the Rhythm Generator is ready to use. A layout, Table 1, displays rhythms with the counter number indicated above and the instruments indicated on the left.

Rhythms from various sources are programmed and illustrated here but others can, of course, be extemporised.

The sequence of events for programming is as follows

1. Turn the unit on and adjust the volume for a comfortable level, listening to the random sequence that results at switch on.
2. Set the tempo to a fast rate, place all instrument switches to the right and press "Write", This procedure effectively clears every location in storage.
3. Place the "Stop/Run" switch at stop and press reset. This sets the counter to the beginning of the sequence indicated in the program.
4. Set the instrument switches for those instruments indicated in that position to the left and press "Write" . . . then press "Step" to advance to the next position. Repeat step 4 to the end of the rhythm pattern and return the "Stop/Run" switch to "Run".

## PROGRAMMING

Programming the final instrument is not a complex thing and requires perhaps 30 seconds to a
minute once a little practice has been gained. The "Stop/Run" switch is placed in the stop position. This stops the free-running tempo generator and allows the counter to be stepped through its 16 positions manually.

The second step is to push the Reset switch. This resets the counter and associated circuitry. The Minitron will indicate 0 . During the course of programming a $4 / 4$ rhythm, the counter will go through 16 counts but the Minitron will go from 0 to 7 twice for a total of 16 indications.
With the counter reset, place those instrument switches to the left where that instrument should sound on the down-beat and press the "Write" switch. Push the "Step" switch to advance the counter to the next position. To have a musical rest, simply leave all instrument switches at the right and push the "Write" switch. Additionally, to wipe out a complete programme, place all instrument switches to the right, set the "Stop/Run" switch to "Run" and the tempo control fully clockwise. Now press and hold the "Write" switch. The counter will now continue to run but no instruments will sound.
Finally, having programmed the desired rhythm, set the "Stop/Run" switch to run and the tempo control to the desired tempo. The instrument will now repeat the programmed rhythm of any 8 instruments at any of 16 beat positions repetitively until stopped or re-programmed.


P.E. TAKES A LOOK AT ELECTRONIC SYSTEMS IN CAMERAS

LECTRONIC circuits are being used in more and more types of consumer products, i.e. products used by individuals rather than professional people. About twenty per cent of cameras now use some form of electronic circuit, but this percentage is likely to increase significantly in the near future. Some cameras employ discrete electronic components, but, as in other fields, integrated circuits are becoming more widely used in current designs.

APPLICATIONS
The main application for electronics in cameras is for the measurement of light intensity and for the control of mechanical shutter speeds. In many cameras the electronic circuit automatically adjusts the exposure lime according to the amount of light entering the lens.

Most of this article will be devoted to the electronic control of mechanical shutters, but cameras using electronics for other purposes are gradually becoming available.

HISTORY
Although the use of electronic circuits in commerclal cameras is a comparatively recent development, the idea is certainly not a new one. As long ago as 1902, Carl Eisner was granted a German patent entitled "A mechanism for the automatic regulation of exposure time in mid-lens shutters according to the Intensity of the light". The Carl Eisner Company later became part of the Compur Company who are renowned for their shutters.

Some types of shutters driven by electromagnets were designed in the 1930s but they required a large amount of power and were unsuitable for portable cameras. Little further progress could be made untll semlconductors became readily available at economic prices.

ADVANTAGES OF ELECTRONIC SHUTTERS
Modern electronically controlled shutters can provide accurate and reproducible exposure times without the necessity for close tolerance moving parts. The very long exposure times which are often required by prolessional photographers can be obtained more easily with electronic systems than purely mechanical ones.
For the amateur one of the most important advantages of the electronically controlled shutter is its use in automatic and semi-automatic exposure control systems. These make it possible for any user, however inexperienced, to obtain correct exposure times with certainty.

## TYPES OF SHUTTER

In cameras with automatic shutter speed control the correct exposure is automatically set according to the intensity of the incident light. A light sensor in the camera feeds information about the light level (as an electric current) to the electronic circuit which controls the speed of operation of a mechanical shutter. In some cases the operator can override the electronic timing.

In semi-automatic exposure control systems the light intensity is measured and indicated on a meter. As the lens aperture and/or the shutter speed is varied an indicator may move past the meter needle to show whether the exposure setting is satisfactory.

In both systems the film speed is set on a dial which is connected to a variable resistor in the circuit. Either mechanically or electronically timed shutters may be used with semi-automatic systems but fully automatic systems use electronically timed shutters.

Semi-automatic systems are easier to use with less probability of error than a separate meter. Automatic systems provide very accurate exposure times at widely differing light intensities.

Amateur cameras using automatic exposure control are very simple to use and no time is wasted making preliminary adjustments.

## LIGHT SENSORS

Selenium cells used to be used as light sensors as they produce current directly from the light without the need for a battery. The use of cadmium sulphide (CdS) photoconductive cells is now more common as they are more sensitive at low light levels. Both types of cell are used because their spectral response matches that of the eye and the modern photographic emulsions whose response is similar.

Cadmium sulphide cells have the disadvantage that their response time to a change in light level is rather long; over ten seconds being required for equilibrium to be reached when the light intensity changes by a factor of 100 . This is not normally a difficulty but it should be kept in mind.

## THROUGH THE LENS

Almost all cameras have some form of built-in exposure meter. The modern trend is to design cameras in which a fraction of the light entering through the lens is deflected into a photosensitive cell.

Through the lens is often seen referred to as TTL, not to be confused with the electronic abbreviation for transistor-transistor logic.

The Zeiss-Ikon "Contarex Super" is a high class camera which uses a TTL semi-automatic exposure system. The paths of the light beams
are shown in Fig. 1. The main reflex mirror is partially silvered and a fraction of the incident light passes through this mirror and is deflected by a secondary mirror onto a cadmium sulphide photoconductive cell.

The reading of the exposure meter is displayed in the viewfinder and also in an additional exposure meter window.

The light intensity is measured over a fairly narrow angle in the centre of the field of view (about seven degrees when the normal type of 50 mm focal length lens is employed).

The light intensity is measured with the lens aperture wide open. The focusing of the camera can be carried out in this condition where any focusing error shows up most clearly.

## OTHER THROUGH THE LENS SYSTEMS

The Leicaflex SL employs a system which is rather similar to the Contarex except that the photocell is differently placed. However, the secondary mirror folds up into the frame of the reflex mirror when
the latter rises, immediately before the exposure is made. During the exposure the secondary mirror prevents light from the viewfinder from passing through the partially silvered reflex mirror into the interior of the camera.

The Leica M5 also employs a CdS cell for semi-automatic exposure control.
The Rolleiflex SL35 is a single lens reflex with a TTL semi-automatic exposure control system using two CdS detectors. One of these cells is placed at each side of the camera in such a way as to give an integrated reading of the light intensity from the viewfinder screen of the pentaprism unit.
The meter reading is a centre weighted one, light at the edges of the field making only a small contribution to the reading.

The Olympus M1 is another single lens reflex with semi-automatic exposure control.

## ELECTRONICALLY TIMED SHUTTERS

The electronic shutter timing systems available at the present time employ electronic circuits to con-


Fig. 1. The light paths in the Contarex Super. A fraction of the incident light is deflected by the small secondary mirror onto the photosensitive cell.


Fig. 2. A mechanically timed and a comparable electronically timed shutter. (a) In the mechanically timed system, the time taken for the timing lever to move controls the exposure. (b) in the electronically timed system the exposure is controlled by the time at which an electromagnet releases the armature.
trol the movement of mechanical shutters. The link between the electronic circuit and the shutter blades is normally an electromagnet

The mechanical components in an electronically timed shutter may be very similar to those employed in a comparable mechanical shutter as shown in Fig. 2. The metal sector plates of both types of shutter swing about fixed pivot pins when the sector driving ring rotates through a small angle. Rotation of the sector ring can thus cause all of the sector plates to be removed so as to open the shutter.

The mechanical shutter in Fig. 2a uses the priming lever to operate the shutter driving shaft on which the driving spring is wound.

The shutter closes after an interval which is controlled by the braking force applied by the mechanical timing mechanism.

Fig. 2b shows the mechanical shutter employed in the Compur/ Prontor 500 electronically controlled shutter, this shutter is used in the Vitessa 500AE camera the circuit of which will be described later. The mechanical timing lever is replaced by an electromagnet in the shutter closing mechanism. The return of the shutter driving ring to close the shutter is prevented by a sprung locking lever. The armature is released by the electromagnet at a time determined by the electronics.

When the priming lever of the shutter is operated to prepare for the next exposure the armature moves to touch the pole piece of the magnet. It is held mechanically against the polepiece until the current flows through the electromagnet to delay the shutter closure.

## THE AGFA SELECTRONIC

The Agfa-Gavaert "Selectronic" camera is an example of a camera with an automatic exposure system. The intensity of the light passing through a small window near the top of the camera is measured by a photosensitive cell. The settings of the aperture and film speed each determine the value of variable resistors and these together with the photocell determine the exposure time.

The type of display is shown in Fig. 3. The aperture setting is seen at the top. If the amount of light is too large for the shortest exposure time $(1 / 500 \mathrm{sec})$ the needle of the meter will move to a red warning mark. At the other extreme the needle will point to a tripod symbol if the exposure is so long that a tripod would be required

## BASIC CIRCUIT

The basic resistance-capacitance timing circuit used in a large number of applications is shown in Fig. 4.
When the shutter is operated switch S1 closes and the shutter


Fig. 3. The appearance in the view finder of the Agfa-Gevaert Selectronic camera. Both the aperture and the exposure time are automatically shown.
opens. The capacitor then commences to charge through the variable resistor VR1. When the voltage on the capacitor is sufficient to trigger the circuit the current to the electromagnet is switched off. A spring then pulls the shutter blades into the closed position.

The variable resistor controls the capacitor charging rate and hence the exposure time.

## MAGNET OPERATION

Because the shutter blades must be moved extremely quickly it is generally more satisfactory to use the electromagnet to close the shutter rather than open it. This means just switching off the electromagnet, letting a spring do the work.

The circuit of Fig. 4 may be arranged to do this by causing the trigger circuit to produce a current which opposes the magnetic field. The magnet then releases an iron armature connected to the shutter driving ring.

## BLOCKING OSCILLATOR CIRCUIT

The blocking oscillator shown in Fig. 5 is a typical trigger circuit.

When the shutter is operated S1a closes and S1b opens causing the capacitor to charge up and after a predetermined time the circuit to oscillate.

Initially, the output transistor TR2 is conducting, therefore current passes through the electromagnet. When oscillation starts a current is applied to the base of TR2, causing it to stop conducting thus releasing the armature and closing the shutter.

This causes S1a to open and S1b to close causing C 1 to discharge in preparation for the next exposure.

## FOUR LAYER DIODE

One of the simplest circuits for timing the closure of a camera shutter is that using a four layer diode. This is a pnpn device which conducts when the potential across it reaches a certain value (about 20 V ) and continues to conduct until the current through it falls below a holding level.

When the shutter is operated the shutter is opened and the start switch of Fig. 6 is closed. As the potential across the capacitor C1 rises a point is reached where the four layer diode "fires" and current is passed to the coils surrounding the permanent magnet. The field of the magnet is cancelled and the soft iron armature is released.

## FOUR TRANSISTOR CIRCUIT

Another circuit is shown in Fig. 7. It employs four transistor stages in cascade forming a high gain amplifier. When the shutter is released S 1 closes and the shutter opens causing TR4 to conduct, energising the magnet and attracting the armature.

When the base voltage of the first transistor reaches the threshold value for conduction the current is greatly amplified and TR4 is suddenly cut off, releasing the armature and closing the shutter.


Fig. 5. A blocking oscillator timing circuit.

Fig. 6. A simple timing circuit using a four layer diode.


Fig. 7. A timing circuit using four cascaded transistors to provide high gain.

## SCHMITT TRIGGER

One of the most commonly used circuits for timing in cameras is the well-known Schmitt trigger. The circuit is used, for example, in the Compur "Electronic 3". The circuit and part of the operating mechanism is shown in Fig. 8.

As the voltage across the capacitor rises a point is reached at which the circuit switches very suddenly by feedback action so that TR2 is cut off and TR1 conducts. The current to the magnet is therefore cut off at this instant.

This type of circuit can provide exposure times over a very wide range of values (typically 10,000 to 1) with a single capacitor.

The shutter exposure scale of the Compur "Electronic 3 " is $1 / 200$ to 32 seconds.

## REMOTE OPERATION

The Compur 5FS is a shutter designed for remote operation. The transistor circuit is contained in the, control unit and not in the shutter itself.

The shutter unit itself contains motors for the operation of the shutter and for aperture control. No adjustments are made on the shutter itself. Shutter speeds from $1 / 60$ to 32 seconds are available.

The circuit is shown in Fig. 9. TR1 and TR2 form a Schmitt trigger which switches when the voltage on C2 reaches a preset level. A pulse is then applied to TR3 which causes the magnet to close the shutter spring sectors, and S2 to short circuit C2. The motor tensions the shutter spring automatically. While this is happening the shutter cannot be used and a red warning light appears.

The aperture is controlled by a servo system not described here.

## T'HE VITESSA 500AE

The Prontor "Vitessa 500AE' was introduced in May 1968. It employs a circuit which automati-


The Compur 5FS electronic shutter with its remote control unit. (The connecting cable may be much longer than that shown.)


Fig. 8. Diagrammatic representation of the Compur Electronic 3 shutter before operation.


Fig. 9. The timing circuit of the Compur 5 FS remotely operated shutter.
cally sets the exposure over the range $1 / 500$ to 10 seconds.

The timing mechanism is silent so a lamp is used to indicate when the shutter is open. The lamp also functions as a battery tester.

Fig. 10 shows the circuit in its quiescent state. When S1 is closed the light falling on the photoconductive cell PCC1 causes the meter ME1 to deflect by an amount dependent on the light intensity. When the shutter is actuated S2 is switched on so that the current passing through PCC1 is diverted to the time measuring circuit. The shorting switch S3 is operated when the shutter release is pressed so that the current from PCC1 can pass to the capacitor C1.

Switch S1 can now open since the current can pass through S 3. After the preset time the circuit is triggered and current ceases to flow through the magnet, thus closing the shutter.

## ULTRA-MINIATURE CAMERA

The Minox $C$ is one of the smallest cameras available. It was introduced in 1969 after five years' development, and is only $13.9 \mathrm{~cm} \times$ $2.8 \mathrm{~cm} \times 1.6 \mathrm{~cm}$.

The basic circuit is shown in Fig. 11. Two magnets are used in this system: one to open and one to close the shutter, this being necessary to obtain the relatively


Fig. 10. The circuit used in the Vitessa 500AE. The photoconductive cell initially provides an indication of the light intensity, but is switched into the timing circuit immediately before the exposure.
high speed of $1 / 1000$ second. Although the magnets themselves take longer than this to operate it is only the time between their actuation which is important.

When the shutter release lever is pressed, the switch S1 closes and electromagnet M2 is actuated, opening the shutter and contacts S3.
When C1 reaches the threshold voltage after charging through PCC1 the amplifier switches on electromagnet M1 which closes the shutter and opens S2.
The light measuring system is a centre-weighted one; more account


The electronic shutter used in the Kodak Instamatic reflex camera with the cover plate removed.
is taken of light in the centre of the field than near the edge.

## THE CONTAREX SE

The Contarex "Super Electronic" camera was introduced in February 1969. It is similar to the Contarex Super already described but an electronic shutter is used. The basic Contarex SE is a semi-automatic camera in which an internal CdS photocell is used to measure the amount of light entering through the lens.

The circuit used in the Contarex SE is shown in Fig. 12. When the shutter speed is selected the appropriate shutter timing resistor R1 is switched into the circuit.

When the shutter release is pressed the shutter opens, the battery is connected and contacts S1 close. The electromagnet holds the shutter open.

When the current passing through R1 has charged C1 up to the threshold voltage, the trigger circuit switches off the current to the electromagnet and the shutter closes. Contacts S 2 close to discharge C1.

If the battery fails the shutter operates at only the shortest exposure of $1 / 1000$ second.

## REGULA 35

The Regula "Electronic 35 " employs a CdS photocell to provide fully automatic shutter speed control. The aperture is set in the range $1 / 2 \cdot 8$ to $f / 16$ and the shutter closes when the correct exposure has been achieved (in the range $1 / 250$ to 15 seconds).

The circuit of the "Rectormatic $350^{\prime \prime}$ shutter employed in the Regula uses a TAA580 integrated circuit as the trigger circuit (Fig. 13). Initially the capacitor is


Fig. 11. The basic circuit of the Minox C ultra-miniature camera.


Fig. 13. The circuit of the Regula Electronic 35 camera.


Internal view of the Minox C. The electromagnets which open and close the shutter are shown to the right of the batteries and the circuit is near the centre.
shorted by $S 2$, and $S 3$ is in the measuring position. The current passing through the photocell passes through the indicating meter in the viewfinder.

The main switch Si is closed before the timing circuit is used. When the shutter release is operated S2 opens and S3 moves to the timing position so that current through the photocell is passed to the capacitor.

The integrated circuit switches at a predetermined level resulting in the magnet being switched off and the shutter being closed. S2 then shorts the capacitor ready for the next exposure.

## POLAROID CAMERAS

The Polaroid Company is well known for its cameras which produce fully developed black and white photos in 15 to 30 seconds or colour in 1 minute after exposure.

Polaroid cameras employ be-tween-lens shutters but they do not use sectors fitted to a driving ring. When the shutter release is pressed one or two metal plates move to let in the light. After the required exposure time an electromagnet releases another metal plate which is pulled by a spring to close the shutter. The exposure time is automatically controlled by the light intensity.


Fig. 12. The shutter timing circuit used in the Contarex SE. Other circuits are employed in the accessories available for use with this camera.


Fig. 14. The circuit used in the Polaroid 340 and 350 cameras.

In the case of model 350 the exposure ranges from $1 / 1200$ to 10 seconds.
The circuit of models 340 . and 350 Polaroid Land cameras is shown in Fig. 14. It consists of a Schmitt trigger circuit which is controlled by current from a photoconductive cell.
Both of these cameras produce pictures $4 \frac{3}{4}$ in $\times 3 \frac{1}{4} \mathrm{in}$ and incorporate an automatic exposure system for flash photographs.

The model 320 is the most economical of the range and model 330 has a non-electronic development timer.

## ELECTRONIC DEVELOPMENT TIMER

Model 350 has an electronic development timer which uses two integrated circuits, and a potentiometer to set the required development time. When the exposed film is pulled out the timer is automatically started.

The second integrated circuit forms the timer. A lamp is illuminated during the development period but at the end of this time it is extinguished and the first integrated circuit operates as an oscillator emitting an audible warning.
The Colourpack 82, introduced in April 1973, has a non-electronic development timer and produces pictures $3 \frac{3}{8} \mathrm{in} \times 3 \frac{1}{4} \mathrm{in}$ in colour or black and white. For black and white the aperture is so small that the depth of field is great making focusing unnecessary.

## SEIKO ES SHUTTER

The Japanese Seiko ES shutter is a between-lens shutter using interleaving segments and two electromagnets. It is interesting as no iris diaphragm is employed, the shutter sectors themselves acting as the aperture limiting device.

The shutter opens at a definite rate and closes as soon as the correct amount of light has entered the camera.

Fig. 15 shows the components of this shutter arranged around the lens. The shutter blades are opening in this diagram.

At high light intensities the sectors close without ever having fully opened. At lower light levels
they may take about 0.06 seconds to open fully and then remain open until the correct exposure has been attained.

This type of aperture-exposure time system is said to reduce aberrations, provide greater depth of field by using only the minimum necessary aperture, and give clearer images.

## THE MINOLTA HI-MATIC E

A Seiko shutter of somewhat similar design is used in the Hi matic $E$ manufactured by the Minolta Company of Japan. The circuit is shown in Fig. 16.

It was found necessary to use two CdS photocells and an external resistor R6 to obtain the required response curve.

When the shutter release button is pressed the shutter sectors are mechanically opened, S2 is closed, the magnet activated and S3 opened. Capacitor C1 charges through the photocell and the Schmitt trigger circuit switches off the shutter release magnet at the end of the correct exposure time. The lamp is used as a battery check and as a warning indicator.

If the light intensity is below a certain level the Hi-matic E operates a flash automatically and shows in the viewfinder that it is going to do so.

## MINOLTA 16 QT

The Minolta Company also manufacture a sub-miniature camera, the Minolta QT which measures only $11 \mathrm{~cm} \times 3 \mathrm{~cm} \times 4.5 \mathrm{~cm}$. Although this camera is semi-automatic the circuit is interesting since it uses active devices.

It has two shutter speeds, 1/250 and $1 / 30$ second. The semi-automatic system indicates in the viewfinder the direction in which the aperture must be changed to achieve a suitable exposure. When the correct setting has been made the lamps in the viewfinder flash alternately.

The circuit is shown in Fig. 17. The four transistors and three resistors are contained in an integrated circuit. The circuit is basically a bridge network in which the unbalance voltage between points $A$ and $B$ is fed to a transistor differential amplifier.

When the incident light intensity is high the resistance of the photocell is low and the potential at A is thus nearer to that of point $C$ than that at D. TR2 and TR4 are therefore non-conducting and lamp LP1 is not illuminated. However, TR1 drives TR3 into conduction and lamp LP2 lights. When the aperture is changed the value of VR1 is attered and the bridge can be balanced, i.e. the potentials at A and $B$ are made equal.
At balance the capacitor connected to the unlighted lamp charges and the current through
this lamp increases until it is illuminated and the other lamp extinguished. Thus the circuit is astable, the two lamps flashing alternately.

## TL ELECTRO-X

The Yashica "TL Electro-X" is a 35 mm single lens reflex which uses two CdS photocells at each side of a pentaprism unit in a through ,the lens measuring system.

An electronically timed metal focal plane shutter is used to give exposures from $1 / 1000$ to 2 secs.

The circuit uses an integrated circuit. If the amount of light entering the camera as detected by the photocell at the selected aperture is too low for the exposure setting chosen, a lamp is illuminated in the viewfinder, a red arrow indicating the direction in which the correction should be made.

If the light is bright enough to produce over-exposure the integrated circuit switches on another lamp showing an arrow pointing in the other direction.

At the correct exposure setting neither arrow is lit.

When the shutter release button is pressed the front sector of the shutter travels downwards under the action of a spring, and electromagnets are energised to hold the rear section of the shutter in place.

When the threshold voltage on a charging capacitor is reached, current to the electromagnets is cut off and a spring pulls the rear section of the shutter downwards to end the exposure.

## ASAHI PENTAX ES

The Japanese Asahi "Pentax ES' is a 35 mm SL.R which uses CdS photocells located beside the viewfinder eyepiece in a through the lens light measuring system.

It employs a horizontally moving focal plane shutter whose speed is set by the light intensity in the range $1 / 1000$ to 8 seconds.

The electronics is fairly complex consisting of an integrated circuit containing 50 transistors, diodes, etc.

The light intensity, aperture setting and film speed are fed into the circuit by a photoresistor and two mechanically set variable resistors. The current passing through each is fed into separate logarithmic compression circuits which generate an output proportional to the logarithm of the input current.

The integrated circuit then takes these values, makes the necessary computation and produces an output current whose value is proportional to the reciprocal of the required exposure time.

The current is fed to a capacitor from the instant the shutter opens. When the capacitor charges up to a threshold value a trigger circuit switches off the current to the electromagnets and the shutter closes.

## MEMORY

During the exposure, light does not fall on the photocell so the output from the logarithmic



Fig. 19. The electronic speed control system used in the Leitz "Super 8".

Fig. 18. Aperture control system used in the Moviflex $\mathbf{S 8}$.
Fig. 20. The optical system used in the Leitz Autofocus projector.
generator in the light intensity measuring circuit is fed to a memory circuit which consists basically of a capacitor connected to a field effect transistor, the high input impedance of the f.e.t. preventing the capacitor discharging.

The meter in the viewtinder of this camera provides an unusually wide indication of exposure times: from 1/1000 to 1 second.

## CINE CAMERA <br> EXPOSURE CONTROL

As an example of exposure control in a cine camera, the principle used in the Zeiss-lkon "Moviflex S8'" will be considered. The system employed is shown in simplified form in Fig. 18. Since the exposure time is partly determined by the speed of the film, it is more convenient to control the aperture.

The light from the object to be photographed passes through the iris diaphragm which controls the aperture. The rotating shutter is a conical sector which is silvered on the outside. It covers the aperture leading to the film during the time that the film is moving between successive photographs. In this period the silvered surface reflects the light onto a photocell.

The photocell forms one arm of a bridge which, when balanced, passes no current to the motor which drives the iris diaphragm.

A fall in light produces an inbalance which causes the motor to be driven in such a direction that the iris diaphragm continues to open until the amount of light reaching the photocell reaches its
previous value, when the bridge is again balanced. An increase in light drives the circuit into unbalance in the opposite direction reducing the aperture.

The other resistors in the bridge circuit are altered to set film sensitivity, the number of frames per second, and exposure if the photographer wishes to alter it for some reason.

## ELECTRONIC SPEED CONTROL

As an example of electronic film speed control the system used in the Leitz "Super 8 " will be discussed, the circuit being shown in Fig. 19.

The driving motor has a small tachogenerator connected to it which produces an alternating voltage at a frequency equal to the motor speed.

Transistors TR1 and TR2 produce rectangular pulses of constant amplitude which are fed to the diode pump circuit D1 and D2 which charges C 2 with such a polarity as to tend to cut off TR3. The greater the motor speed the greater the current fed to C2.

A current also flows through VR1 and the switch to C 2 which tends to oppose this current. When the voltage on C2 reaches more than 0.5 V the transistor conducts and reduces the base voltage on TR4 which conducts, thus passing current to the motor.

The current to the motor, and hence its speed, is thus controlled by the current fed into C2 from VR1 minus the current from D2. Resistors 'R3 to R5 are used to select operating speed.

If the motor goes too fast current from D2 is increased and TR3 and TR4 reduce current to the motor.

## AUTOFOCUS

The Pradovit-Color-Autofocus is a system designed by the Leitz Company for keeping the image formed by a projector in focus. The first slide (or first frame of a film) is focused manually, after which time a servo system keeps the image in focus.

The optical system is shown in Fig. 20. A subsidiary optical system forms an image of a slit on the reverse side of the film and the light from this image passes through a converging lens and a filter which only allows the infrared frequencies to pass to a photocell. This cell is divided into two parts and uses cadmium selenide which responds to infra-red.

When each half of the cell receives equal light as detected by a bridge circuit the image is focused. Any imbalance causes the electronic circuit to drive a motor which corrects the film-to-objective distance.

## THE FUTURE

It is only a few years since electronics began to make an important impact in this field of amateur photography. It is probably too early to speculate on the possibilities it offers for the future, but it seems certain that it will be more widely employed as manufacturers gain experience in what, even to them, is a relatively new development.


The Polaroid 350 Land Camera.


The Zeiss-Ikon M811 cine camera.

The Minox C ultra-miniature camera.


The Regula Electronic 35 camera with automatic shutter timing.


The Yashica TL. Electro $X$ single lens reffex.

# Boolean 

## By B. J. Wood <br> Design and construction of a simple adder subtractor

IN PART 1 of this series a number of logic functions and the basic circuit elements needed to carry them into effect were discussed. Now some more complex elements will be considered and the various parts of a simple Adder/Subtractor will be described in function and basic construction.

## ADDING THE SINGLE DIGIT

It is an unfortunate fact that none of the simple logic elements so far discussed will actually add two binary bits A and B under all circumstances. Thus for example, the OR works with $\bar{A} . B$ or $A . \bar{B}$ but it gives a 1 output for $\bar{A} . \bar{B}$.

Again, the NAND is similarly satisfactory but gives a 1 output for A.B. It can be seen that if the two outputs are combined with logic 0 taking precedence over logic 1 the correct answer is produced.
If integrated circuits are to be used in a practical application then the OR function is only obtained by using some other element and manipulating either the input or output. They are a 2 -input device.

For example, NANDs are available, in the two input form, four to a package and an OR can be formed by inversion of the NAND inputs as discussed in Fig. 1.2 f in Part I.
This brings us to the Exclusive OR.

## EXCLUSIVE OR

In Fig. 2.1 the logic diagram of an Exclusive OR (EX. OR) is shown at "a" with the Truth Table at "b". The element is a combination of two NANDs,
two NOTs and an AND which, as discussed above, now provide the correct conditions for the addition of binary bits A and B. The output is a logic 1 only when one or other of the inputs is a 1 .
When A and B are both at logic 1 the upper NAND output is 0 whilst if $A$ and $B$ are both 0 the output from the lower NAND is 0 . The diode AND which follows will produce a 1 output only when both NAND outputs are at logic 1.

## EXCLUSIVE NOR

At Fig. 2.1c the circuit of Fig. 2.1a has been altered to operate the other way about. This gives a logic 0 when the two inputs are different and a logic 1 when they are the same. The Truth Table for an EX.NOR is the reverse of Fig. 2.1b.

The new function is the Exclusive NOR and it is interesting to note that it can be achieved with exactly the same circuit elements.

Reverting to the Exclusive OR, this can be obtained in i.c. form, four to a package. It is what is normally termed a half-adder. That is to say it can only add the bits A and B and produce the sum S.

## DECIMAL/BINARY

For simplicity the logic dealing with the decimal number 1 will be called the 1's logic and that dealing with decimal 2 the 2 's logic. Thus as in the conversion from binary to decimal we have binary numbers equivalent to $1,2,4$ and 8 , we have 1 's, 2's, 4's and 8's logic.

(b)

| EXCLUSIVE |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| OR |  |  |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 |



Fig. 2.1. The Exclusive Or (EX.OR) logic diagram together with the NOR version and Truth Table


Thus the Exclusive OR elements which are halfadders are in fact suitable for the 1's position addition, needing only an AND with inputs A and B to provide the carry bit needed for further computation.

## TRUTH TABLE

When any binary position above the I's stage is considered it has to cater for the carry bit $C$ which can appear from the preceding stage. The Truth Table 2.1 caters for these positions.

The logic functions inside the dashed box are those of the EX. OR. $C_{\text {in }}$ represents the carry forward from a preceding stage and $C_{\text {out }}$ the carry to be passed on to a following stage. S is of course the sum output.

For A and B the second group of lines is a repeat of the first.
The table shows that when the $C_{\mathrm{in}}$ is a logic 1 the sum is inverted and in fact if one writes out a table for $S$ and $C_{\mathrm{in}}$ it is found that a further EX. OR function accepting inputs $S$ and $C_{i n}$ will deal with the problem.
In this sense the EX. OR may be described as a conditional inverter since when one of the inputs is held at logic 0 the output becomes a copy of the other input but that when an input is held at logic 1 the output becomes the inversion (complement) of the other input.

Of course, the device for which Table 2.1 is effective is a three-input device. The carry $C_{\text {out }}$ becomes logic 1 if any two of the three inputs are at logic 1 . Now we are approaching a true adder.

## SUBTRACTION

Before becoming involved in circuitry for the $C_{\text {out }}$ function, subtraction is important. Table 2.2, which is similar to Table 2.1 in layout, is the Truth Table for a subtraction function. Here, both B and the two carry bits have been given a minus sign. The S should be changed as well.
Comparing the tables, the only difference is in the $C_{\text {out }}$ column. The condition B.C is the same in both tables. In the Add mode the other carries are A.B or A.C. The other borrows on Subtract are $\bar{A} . B$. and $\overline{\mathrm{A}} . \mathrm{C}$.


Fig. 2.2. Basic logic circuit for a simple ones Adder/Subtractor

## A CIRCUIT

The logic diagram of Fig. 2.2 shows a simple Adder/Subtractor for 1's.
A NAND cannot output a logic 0 while one of its inputs is held at 0 . The Add/Subtract switch decides which of the NANDs will be disabled so that only appropriate 1's appear in the final output of the 5 -input NAND.

Here a 3 -input NAND is used with extra diodes attached to one of the inputs.

A modification is needed for the 1's adder. On Add, only A.B must produce a carry so that the NAND with inputs A.C is not required. B.C, which is a common factor in the full carry/borrow circuit, must not be allowed to operate on Add and has a third input which is earthed in the Add mode.

Fig. 2.3 is the logic circuit diagram for the simple Adder/Subtractor using elements of the types so far discussed. The carry, add and subtract lines can be identified easily. Additionally, the word borrow will be replaced from now on with the word carry, it being assumed that this means borrow where appropriate.
The carry from the 4 s adder to the 1 ss adder poses a problem. It should be remembered that the top carry must remain available so that we know the sum in digital terms is greater than 7.

As has been noted, an EX. OR is prevented from inverting if one of the inputs is held to logic 0 . Thus

Table 2.1 : Add

| A | B | $\mathrm{C}_{\text {In }}$ | S | Cout |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 50 | 0 | $\overline{0}^{-}$ | 01 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 11 |  |
| 10 | 1 | 0 | 11 | 0 |
| 11 | 1 | 0 | 01 | 1 |
| 0 | 0 |  | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

Table 2.2: Subtract

| $A$ | $-B$ | $-C_{\text {in }} S$ | $-C_{\text {out }}$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 |

if the input $C$ to the adder is provided with two diodes in an AND configuration, one fed from the C8 line and one from the subtract line the input will be held at 0 in the Add mode but allowed to take either 0 or 1 in the Subtract mode.

## PRACTICAL CIRCUIT

As can be seen, the AND diodes deal with the 4's adder carry problem outlined above.

From the table in Part 1 it will be seen that there are some identical results which are either positive or negative. When they are positive no action needs to be taken as regards the sign of the result. When the answer is negative the fact must be displayed.

If the two input AND connected to the top carry and the subtract line is used it will produce an output $\mathbf{N}$ of logic 1 only when the mode is Subtract and the result is negative. Under other conditions the output will be 0 . This can be used to operate the minus indicator.

It also has another use. When the result is negative the complement of the answer has to be displayed. The complement is an inversion which is conditional on the negative indication $N$ being at logic 1 .

Once again we use an EX.OR element. It is fed with the inputs N and S 1 and will invert only if N is logic 1 .

In fact there are four EX.ORs in the output section fed from S1, S2, S4 and C8 and producing outputs $\mathrm{X} 1, \mathrm{X} 2, \mathrm{X} 4$ and X 8 .


## DECODING

The binary information so far produced is in hexadecimal format. That is it is to the scale 16 , and it gives binary numbers up to decimal 14. In practical terms it is simplest to convert this information to decimal for display by using a binary/decimal decoder, of which a number are available.

But if such a decoder is used it will refuse to give any output if the binary input to it is greater than 9 (binary 1001). Thus when adding, the 8 input to the decoder must be suppressed when the answer exceeds 9.

In fact the output bits $\mathrm{X} 2, \mathrm{X} 4$ and X 8 are in a unique condition when the answer is 8 or 9 . As a result, if X2 and X4 are inverted three 1's will be produced for an 8 or 9 answer. Feeding these to an AND gives a 1 output for 8 or 9 and a logic. 0 for all other conditions. The AND output is fed to the decoder 8 input.

## TENS

It is necessary to decide when to display a 1 (decimal) in the tens position. In fact this is when the X 8 output is at logic 1 but the 8 input to the decoder is at logic 0 . That is to say when the number is greater than 7 but is not 8 or 9 .

When the answer is 10 or greater the X2 and X4 bits will in fact supply the wrong information. The X2 will be an inversion and we can use the EX. OR element to clear up this problem.

The X 4 is not so simple. There are two ways of examining the problem. In the first place ask the question-"When will the decoder 4 input be logic 1 ?" or for that matter not 1 . The first seems to be when T (input TR2), X2 and X4 are at logic 1 but this would be wrong because the 4 input might be at 1 when the number is less than 10 .

The second method gives the correct answer. The 4 input must be sunk to logic 0 when T.X2.

Thus the X 4 output is linked to the 4 input of the decoder and a NAND with inputs $T$ and X 2 feeds the 4 input in a similar fashion.

Thus the 4 input is now free to follow the X 4 output unless the answer is 12 or 13 in which case it is pulled down to logic 0.

## DOUBLE NEGATIVE

If the logic for the l's adder is redrawn as in Fig. 2.3 it can be seen that the sum of A1 and B1 is inverted when the end-around-carry, C8, is 1 and the mode is Subtract. But it is again inverted when N is 1 . These two conditions always arise together since N is C 8 . Subtract.

In the $S$ columns of Table 2.1 and Table 2.2 the arrangement of 1 s and 0 s is identical for both positive and negative results. So the second and third elements may be replaced by a piece of wire. The end-around-carry is still required to produce a "borrow 2 ". when necessary. In fact these elements are not included in the final circuit.

## ALGEBRAIC ADDITION

As it stands, the machine always treats $A$ as positive while $B$ is accepted as either plus or minus according to the position of the Add/Subtract switch. On subtract, the answer is the difference between $\mathbf{A}$ and $B$ and the minus sign comes up when $B$ exceeds $A$. If the mode is subtract and the signs of $+A-B$

## COMPONENTS . . .

Resistors<br>R1 $1 \cdot 8 \mathrm{k} \Omega \frac{1}{4} W$. See text R3 $12 \Omega 2 \mathrm{~W}$<br>R2 $1 \cdot 8 \mathrm{k} \Omega \frac{1}{4} \mathrm{~W}$. See text R4 $27 \Omega 2 \mathrm{~W}$<br>Capacitors<br>C1 $1,000 \mu \mathrm{~F} 15 \mathrm{~V} \quad \mathrm{C} 21,000 \mu \mathrm{~F} 15 \mathrm{~V}$<br>C3 $0.01 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ disc ceramic<br>Transistors<br>TR1 2N706<br>TR2 2N706<br>Diodes<br>D1 to D39 General purpose miniature silicon diodes, 1 N914, 1S914, OA5<br>D40 $\quad 750 \mathrm{~mA}, 50 \mathrm{~V}$ PIV<br>D41 5.1V, 1.5W Zener<br>Integrated Circuits<br>1 off 7404<br>6 off 7410<br>1 off 7447AN<br>3 off 7486<br>Switches<br>S1 \& S2 SPDT toggle or slide<br>S3 \& S4 SP, 11-way rotary or similar<br>Miscellaneous<br>T1 $6 \mathrm{~V}, 1 \mathrm{~A}$ mains transformer<br>Display Minitron 3015F, 2 m.e.s. bulbs, 6V, 40 to 60 mA<br>Veroboard 0.1 in Matrix, $5 \mathrm{in} \times 3.75 \mathrm{in}$ and small offcut $2 \mathrm{in} \times 1 \mathrm{in}$<br>Bulbholders, case, wire, etc.

are interchanged the numeric answer will be correct but the sign of the answer will be wrong.

If the mode is add and $+A+B$ is changed to $-A-B$ the same applies only the sign is wrong.

Two rules may now be stated-

1. If the signs are alike, add--otherwise, subtract.
2. If the sign of $A$ is minus, invert the sign of the answer.
There are a number of ways of implementing these rules but a fairly simple one is shown in Fig. 2.3. Switch S 1 is the sign of digit A and switch S 2 the sign of digit $B$. The two switches form an EX.OR with a 1 output when the signs are different and 0 when they are alike. The subtract line (earthed on Add) is fed directly from $A / S$ with an inverter to feed the opposite state to the add line.

If the sign of $A$ is negative, bit $R$ (reverse) is raised to a logical 1 which inverts bit N to give M which now feeds the minus sign for the display. With this arrangement, a zero answer may sometimes be given a minus sign. For example, when the input is $-3+3$ the answer is 0 but the N bit, theoretically logical 0 , is inverted to 1 because the sign of $\mathbf{A}$ is negative.

In practice, this will not always be so. The carries form a loop. On Subtract, with A and B both 7, a negative pulse, applied to any input on a carry output NAND will cause that carry to take on a 1 state. The next carry in the chain, sensing B.C, will turn on and the carries will maintain each other. This can arise with other combinations. It is not important, since N is then 1 and inverts 1110 to $0000-$ the binary 1 bit is not affected-so that the answer still appears as zero.

## PRACTICAL DETAILS

The power unit is shown in Fig. 2.4. A small mains transformer T 1 with a secondary giving about 6 volts feeds a half wave rectifier D40 with a smoothed output of 8-9 volts. R3 drops the voltage to feed the i.c.s, with D4I, a Zener diode, as stabiliser.

R4 is purely a dummy load used only for testing the power supply so that the dissipation of the Zener diode is not exceeded. If battery operation is required, two heavy-duty $4 \frac{1}{2}$ volt batteries in series may be used in place of TI secondary.

The capacitors may then be reduced to $10 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ but it is advisable to retain D40 to protect against accidental reverse connection of the battery supply.

The power unit should be built first so that progressive testing may be made on the rest of the equipment.


Fig. 2.4. Circuit diagram for a suitable power supply for the Adder/Subtractor

## MAIN BOARD

A suggested Veroboard layout for the logic circuit elements is shown in Fig. 2.5. All the i.c.s and the lamp driver transistors are mounted directly on the Veroboard. For convenience some of the components are mounted on the reverse, copper strip, side of the board.

## TESTING

After assembly make a thorough check of all connections, and trace and remove any stray pieces of copper from the board. When this has been done, connect a wire to the Subtract line so that it may be earthed when required. With the meter across the supply connect up the 5 volt supply.

Check the Add line for logic 0 and the Subtract line for logic 1. All A and B bits should be logic 1 so the instruction to the equipment is $7-7$. Check lines C2, C4 and C8. They should be all 1 s or all 0s. Check the 7447 inputs, 1, 2, 4 and 8. They should all be 0 .

With the testmeter on a low ohms range test the 7447 output making sure that the testmeter positive lead is connected to earth. All outputs except $g$ should give continuity. If C 2 etc. are $0, \mathrm{~N}$ should be 0 . If this is the case, briefly earth any input in one of the carry NAND output sections.

All C s should then become $1, \mathrm{~N}$ is then 1 but the inputs to the 7447 should still be zeros. If C 2 etc. are all 1 s , briefly earthing the subtract line should bring them to Os. If there is any difficulty, the value of every bit is checkable-it would be as well to force the carry chain to the all 1 s state because this is the more stable.

When the Subtract test is satisfactory, earth the Subtract line. The Add line should become 1. The set-up is now for $7+7$, all carriers are 1.X2, X4 and $X 8$ are 1 s . T is 1 . On the 7447 inputs only 4 is 1,2 having been inverted by $T$ and 8 is suppressed.

In the foregoing, remember that 1 V downwards is $0,1.6 \mathrm{~V}$ up is 1 , where inputs are concerned.

## OUTPUT DISPLAY

The digital display used in the prototype was a Minitron 3015F seven segment type. The connections, from the underside, are given in Fig. 2.6. A small piece of Veroboard is used to mount the 3015F. Pins are inserted to carry the wires from the main circuit board.

With the main circuit board wired up and the a to $g$ connections made between the two units and a 5 V supply to the 3015 F as indicated, a nought should be displayed. The diodes D30 and D39 shown in the transistor circuits in Fig. 2.3 may not be required.

Test M for logical $\mathbf{l}$ if the lamp does not light. Earth pin $R$ if necessary to make $M$ into a 1. Decreasing the value of the $1.8 \mathrm{k}!2$ resistor R1 will increase brightness and vice versa. The Ten lamp is tested with the Subtract line earthed. If either lamp remains on with logical 0 input, insert a diode to control it. When satisfied, wire the board up.



Fig. 2.5. The main circuit Veroboard and component layout for the Adder/Subtractor


Fig. 2.6. Point-to-point wiring and a suggested case layout for the Adder/Subtractor, together with a Veroboard liayout for the display device

## INPUTTING

Single-pole, 11-way switches were used for the $A$ and $B$ inputs. This gives three spare contacts to wire the irput diodes up to. Each input switch is the same. After wiring test each 1, 2, and 4 lead with the testmeter on ohms.

Finally, the unit may be tested in toto before mounting in its case. Make all connections between the various units with the strip side of the main board eventually uppermost. Switch on with a meter
in position as before. Set $+0+0$. Run A through to 7. With A at 7 run $B$ through to 7 checking each result. Set the B sign to -. Run B down to 0 . If any answer is wrong, consider by how much. Is it 1, 2 or 4 out? These are the likely errors and give a guide to the cause. If the $\mathbf{A}$ and B inputs are checked, then carry bits, followed by display correcting circuits, any fault should be traceable. The tables and logic diagrams will be a help.

The "Anyone at Home" began life as a simple programming circuit intended to switch on a room light at dusk when there was no-one at home, thus giving potential intruders the impression that the house was occupied

The use of integrated circuits has, however, made it possible to expand the flexibility of the programmer to make allowance for variations in ambient light level and to give a timing function.

Clearly, if someone were actually in occupation of a house, lights would go on at dusk and be switched off some time later when everyone went to bed. Using a synchronous motor controller to effect this is not ideal as power cuts will upset the timing and in any case the switched-on interval is always constant. Both give-away factors to the would-be thief.

## LOGIC ELEMENTS

The logic diagram of Fig. 1 illustrates a simple system using readily available logic i.c.s to give flexible control dependent on both available light conditions and a timing function.

The two inputs to the system are a very slowrunning astable with a period of 17 mHz (one cycle per minute) and a light-operated switch which gives an output of 0.2 V during daylight (logic 0 ) and of between 4 and 5 V during the dark (logic 1).

The most complex items in the circuit are the two 4 -bit binary counters COI and CO2, each a 7493 chip. The two are connected in series so that from their combined 8 -bit output we can obtain 16 sequences of 16 or a total count of 256 .
With these counters, they operate on a negativegoing input pulse fed to input A. Each has two reset inputs and when both are at logic I the counter is reset. This makes all outputs go to logic 0 . With one or both of the resets at logic 0 the counter is enabled and can count incoming pulses.

## FUNCTION SEQUENCE

As can be seen, one reset input of each counter is permanently connected to $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{cc}}$ and is thus permantly at logic 1 . Now both counters can be reset simply by connecting the other reset input to a 1 , or can be enabled by connecting the reset to a 0 .
During daylight hours both resets of each counter are at logic 1 . Thus the counters cannot count the input pulses from the multivibrator via gate Gl. The room light relay remains inactivated.
At dusk, when the available light level has fallen sufficiently, the light operated switch changes state and one reset of each counter is switched to a 0 . This enables the counters and, at the same time provides a second 1 input at Gate G6, actuating the room light relay and switching on the controlled lights.


Fig. 1. Logic diagram of the domestic security system provided by six integrated circuits to control operation of electric lights and radio as a deterrent to would-be intruders.

For a period of 4.25 hours the counters count up to 255. At this point in time all eight inputs to gate G3 are at logic 1 and the output will go to 0 .

Gate G6 reverts to the 0 state and the room lights are switched off. Gate Gl is prevented from passing any more pulses to the counters, which remain at 255.

At dawn, as the ambient light increases again the light operated switch reverts to the 0 condition. This resets the counters and logic conditions are now reverted to the original state until the next evening.

The reader may like to work out just what happens if for example there is very heavy cloud during the day, activating the light operated switch or if there is a power cut. It will be seen that the sequence is again back in synchronism by the following dusk, whatever happens.

## A PROGRAMMING SWITCH

For the purposes of controlling a radio during the evening the circuit also provides a programming switch function. This is effected via gates G4, G5 and G7.

The radio relay is actuated when G7 output is at 0 which means that G5 must be at 1 and this in turn occurs when first counter $D$ output is at 1 and second counter outputs $A$ and $B$ are at 0 . Reference to the counting table for the SN. 7493 counters indicates that this would occur for a period of 8 minutes (counts 8 to 15 of CO ) every 64 min utes, starting from dusk.

As can be seen, it is comparatively easy to alter the periods of time chosen by simply selecting other
sets of inputs for gates G4 and G5. Equally, removal of the inverting gate G7 reverses the sequence of actuation.

The circuit uses several gate types as can be seen. Gates G1, G2 and G3 are all NAND. For G1 and G2 the 7400 chip has been used which carries four gates so we have two to spare. G3 is a 7430,8 -input NAND and all inputs are used.

Gates 4 and 7 are NORs and are two of the four on a 7402. Again we have two to spare. Finally, gate G5 and G6 are ANDs on a 7408 carrying four, so there are two to spare again.

These spare gates may be used as required to wire up other control functions. For example, a tape recorder could be automatically switched on with various household noises recorded to give apparent audible evidence of someone at home. Equally, arrangements can be made for the coffee pot to be switched on at a given instant if required.

Obviously, many ideas will spring to mind.

## LIGHT OPERATED SWITCH

A suggested circuit for the light-operated switch is shown in Fig. 2. As can be seen it is simple in the extreme and operates from a 5 volt supply, making it compatible with the logic circuitry.

As shown, reduction in light intensity increases the resistance of the light dependent resistor, X1, lowering the potential applied to the base of TR1. At a value set by selection of R1 the transistor switches off and the output rises to almost positive rail potential, or logic 1 .

Reversing the position of R1 and LDR reverses the effect and switching occurs as light increases if this is required.


Fig. 2. Circuit diagram of the light-operated switch used with the logic system of Fig. 1. Resistor R1 may be replaced by a variable $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistor if variation of set-point is required.

## ASTABLE MULTIVIBRATOR

The multivibrator used in the prototype is shown in Fig. 3. The circuit is conventional but of course uses high values of $\mathrm{R} 5, \mathrm{R} 6, \mathrm{Cl}$ and C 2 to give a rate of oscillation of about 17 mHz (millihertz). As current drain on the circuit, if the counters were fed directly, is too high for convenience, T.R4 forms a buffer which not only cuts down current drain but sharpens up the output pulse as well.

If the periods of operation of the system parts need to be altered then the frequency of the multivibrator can be changed to effect this. For example, extra capacitors can be switched in to Cl and C 2 .


Fig. 3. The slow astable multivibiator which drives the counters in the logic system. C1 and C2 may need selecting for low leakage current in order to ensure the necessary long pulse period.

## RELAY CIRCUITS

The relay operating circuits for the room lights and radio or other items can take the form of the circuit of Fig. 4. The relay contacts are not shown as they can take any form required, actuate to make, to break or perhaps changeover. In this way a variety of control functions can be achieved.


Fig. 4. A relay operating circuit which will accept drive from the logic outputs of the main system. Again simplicity is the keynote.

## POWER SUPPLY

A suitable power supply is illustrated in Fig. 5. As can be seen, it is conventional and simple. Of course, the equipment can be battery powered if required using a 6 V source.

Alternately, any one of the many published designs for a logic power supply should suffice.

## CONSTRUCTION

Fig. 6 shows a suggested Veroboard layout carrying all the logic circuitry, the astable and the lightoperated switch. Construction is fairly straightforward and only a few points need watching. For example note that IC5 and 6 are reversed with respect to the remainder of the i.c.s.

Further, several links are included. These may be made using wire or, in the case of adjacent tracks, using blobs of solder though it is always best to use wire where possible.

The layout is not critical and the constructor may for example juggle the light operated switch components around to make room for more i.c.s if further logic is required for other functions.

The connection points marked "To J" and "To K" are the relay control outputs, J for the lamp and K for the radio.

Probably it is best to assemble the astable first and check its period to see if this suits requirements.

## TESTING

The logic used is positive, that is it swings up to +5 V in logic 1 state. Testing the astable is simple, just connect a meter to the collector of TR3. It should indicate about 30 seconds of logic 0 and 30 of logic 1. The period can be altered as suggested earlier if needed.

The light switch output can be tested by looking at the output and covering and uncovering the LDR with the hand. The output should go from a 1 to a 0 state.

The operation of the counters can be checked by looking at the outputs with the counters running. This is achieved by covering the LDR to simulate darkness. The sequence of count should follow the tables published by Texas but a simple test is to ascertain that the outputs of COl will all go to 0 and output A of CO2 will go to 1 on count 16 . It takes 4 hours or so to check through in detail but probably for the first time it is worth the effort.

If any error in sequence is discovered then check all the wiring to make certain there are no open circuits or dry joints, shorts or the like. A persistent


Fig. 5. A suggested power supply for the system. The rectifier diodes can be replaced by a bridge with suitable alteration to the circuit and choke L1. is possibly surplus to requirements.


## COMPONENTS . . .

## Resistors

| R1 | $5 \cdot 6 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| R2 | to $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R5 | $120 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R9 | $22 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R2 | $33 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |  | R6 | $120 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R10 |
| R3 | $1.5 \mathrm{k} \dot{\Omega}$ | R7 | $2 \cdot 7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R11 | $56 \Omega$ |
| R4 | $2.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R8 | $2.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |  |  |
| All $5 \% \frac{1}{4} \mathrm{~W}$ carbon |  |  |  |  |  |

## Capacitors

| C1 | $250 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | C | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | C | $500 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| C 2 | $250 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | C 4 | $500 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | C 6 | $250 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ |

Integrated Circuits
IC1 SN7400; Quad, 2-input NAND, G1 \& G2
IC2 SN7493; 4-bit binary counter, CO1
IC3 SN7493; 4-bit binary counter, CO2
IC4 SN7402; Quad 2-input NOR, G4 \& G7
IC5 SN7408; Quad 2-input AND, G5 \& G6
IC6 SN7430; 8-input NAND, G3
Transistors
$\begin{array}{llllll}\text { TR1 } 2 N 2926 & \text { TR3 } & 2 N 2926 & \text { TR5 } & \text { 2N2926 }\end{array}$
TR2 2N2926
TR4 ZXT302

## Diodes

| D1 | 1N4148 | D3 | BYZ13 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| D2 | BYZ13 | D4 | BYZ88 C5V1 |

Miscellaneous
RLA Type 40 (Radiospares), $185 \Omega$ coil for 6-12V operation Contacts and ratings to suit application
T1 Mains transformer with $10-0-10 \mathrm{~V}$ secondary
LP1 Neon indicator with integral resistor
F1 1 A socket and fuse
F2 1A socket and tuse
S1 DPDT mains toggle switch
L4 $\quad 50 \mathrm{mH}$ choke (use is optional)

- X1 5SP5 (Bi-Pre-Pak)

Veroboard; wire; solder; materials for case

Fig. 6. Veroboard and component layout for the main parts of the system. This unit carries all the logic, the astabie and the light-operated switch. The relay actuator and powersupply may be mounted on smaller Veroboard sections or, for the relay controls, on the relays themselves.
fault may be disposed of by connection of a $0 \cdot 1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ capacitor between the supply and ground to decouple unwanted spikes.

## HOUSING

The total consumption of the unit is only in the region of 150 mA so it does not need to be housed with a view to heat dissipation. Equally, the power supply will be physically small so the whole could be housed together in a fairly small case or box to suit.

As most constructors will wish to effect their own particular version of this flexible device, detailed construction information has been omitted.

## OTHER APPLICATIONS

An obvious area of application, for times of better power availability perhaps, is in window display work where the unit could be adapted to actuate a variety of display activities either during dark or, by reversal of the light detection system, during daylight hours.

Of course, other inputs can be applied in place of the light operated switch and the astable making the system suitable for counting applications and other control functions.

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Ref．
No．
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93
$\begin{array}{ccccc}\text { Ref．} & \text { VA } & \text { Weight } \\ \text { No．} & \text {（Watts）} & 10 & \text { oz } & \\ 07 & 20 & 1 & 8 & 7 \\ 149 & 60 & 3 & 12 & 9 \\ 150 & 100 & 5 & 8 & 9 \\ 151 & 200 & 8 & 0 & 12 \\ 152 & 250 & 13 & 12 & 12 \\ 153 & 350 & 15 & 0 & 14 \\ 154 & 500 & 19 & 8 & 14 \\ 155 & 750 & 29 & 0 & 17 \\ 156 & 1000 & 38 & 0 & 17 \\ 158 & 2000 & 60 & 0 & 21\end{array}$

| Sizecm． | $P \& P$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $7.0 \times 6.0 \times 6.0$ | 2.32 | $p$ |
| $99 \times$ | $7.7 \times 8.6$ | 3.45 |
| $9.9 \times 86$ |  |  |
| $12.1 \times 8.3 \times 10.2$ | 3.79 | 52 |
| $12.1 \times 11.8 \times 10.2$ | 6.45 | 52 |
| $14.0 \times 10.8 \times 11.8$ | 11.20 | 67 |
| $140 \times 13.4 \times 11.8$ | 16.25 | 82 |
| $17.2 \times 14.0 \times 14.0$ | 22.10 |  |
| $17.2 \times 16.6 \times 14.0$ | 29.87 |  |
| $21.6 \times 15.3 \times 18.1$ | 49.25 |  |

AUTO TRANSFORMERS

| VA | Weight | Size cm． | Auto Taps |  | 8 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| （W） | ib oz |  |  | C | P |
| 20 | 10 | $5.8 \times 5.1 \times 4.5$ | 0－115－210－240 | 1.22 | 22 |
| 75 | 24 | $7.0 \times 6.7 \times 6.1$ | 0－115－210－240 | $2 \cdot 40$ | 30 |
| 150 | 4 | $8.9 \times 7.7 \times 7.7$ | 0－115－200－220－240 | 2.89 | 6 |
| 300 | 64 | $9.9 \times 9.6 \times 8.6$ | ，．． | 5.63 | 2 |
| 500 | 128 | $12.1 \times 11.2 \times 10.2$ | ．．．． | 8.36 | 67 |
| 1000 | 198 | $14.0 \times 13.4 \times 14.3$ | ， | 15.19 | 82 |
| 1500 | $30 \quad 4$ | $14.0 \times 15.9 \times 143$ | ，． | 21.99 |  |
| 2000 | 320 | $17.2 \times 16.6 \times 14.0$ | ．．． | 28.70 |  |
| 3000 | 400 | $21.6 \times 13.4 \times 18.1$ |  | 39．17 |  |

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$\begin{array}{lllllllll}131.0 & 0.5 & 1 & 4 & 4.8 \times & 2.9 \times & 3.50 .12 \mathrm{~V} \text { at } 0.25 \mathrm{~A} \times 2 \\ 11 & 2 & 1 & 12 & 7.8 \times & 6.4 \times & 4.1 & 0.12 \mathrm{Vat} 0.5 \mathrm{~A} \times 2\end{array}$
$\begin{array}{lllllllll}18 & 4 & 2 & 2 & 12 & 83 \times & 8.4 \times & 5.1 & 0.12 \mathrm{~V} \text { at } 1 \mathrm{~A} \times 2 \\ 70 & 6 & 3 & 3 & 8 & 89 & 8.12 \mathrm{~V} \text { at } 2 \mathrm{~A} \times 2\end{array}$
$\begin{array}{lllllllll}10 & 6 & 3 & 3 & 8 & 89 \times 8.0 \times & 7.7 & 0-12 \mathrm{~V} \text { at } 3 \mathrm{~A} \times 2 \\ 08 & 8 & 4 & 5 & 8 & 9.9 \times 8 & 8.9 \times 8.6 & 0.12 \mathrm{~V} \text { at } 4 \mathrm{~A} \times 2\end{array}$

17
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$\begin{array}{llllllll}15 & 8 \\ 226 & 60 & 150 & 32 & 8 & 140 \times 12.1 \times 1180.12 \mathrm{~V} \text { at } 15 \mathrm{~A} \times 2 & 15.36 \\ 22\end{array}$
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$\begin{array}{rrrrrrrr}118 & 8.0 & 18 & 0 & 14.0 \times 12.7 \times 11.8 & 13.51 \\ 119 & 10.0 & 25 & 0 & 17.2 \times 12.7 \times 14.0 \\ & & \quad 00 \text { VOLT RANGE }\end{array}$


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## PRTENTS REDTETM。

The outcome of a patent conference to be held in Luxembourg during early May could well have considerable effect on the future activities of inventors and firms working in the electronics field. Already a patent conference held in Munich last October has decided certain issues that will inevitably have some far reaching effects in the not too distant future.

Because the legal issues are complicated, the practical issues easily pass unrecognised. It is perhaps for this very reason that some legal issues have been agreed rather than more hotly argued by the official negotiators for this country.

## CURRENT BRTIISH PATENT PRACTICE

For the last 350 years or so Britain has had its own patents system. Although virtually every other country in the world also has its own national system, the British system is one of the oldest.

No two patent systems in the world are exactly the same but all have in common the feature that a national patent protects an invention for a limited number of years (16 in the UK and 20 in some other countries) for that country only. Thus a British patent is active only in the UK, and so on.

The inventions reported monthly in Practical Electronics are all the subject of British patent applications that have been accepted and published by the British Patent Office but some of them may, of course, be patented in other countries. Patenting in most foreign countries is more expensive than in the UK.

## EUROPEAN PATENT SYSTEM ALREAOY AGREED

- In Munich, last October, 21 European countries hammered out and finalised the details for a socalled Europatent scheme to come into force within the next 3 or 4 years. Europatents will be dealt with via a central European Patent Office to be built at Munich.

Under the Europatent Scheme an Applicant will be able to choose between English, German and French as the main language for his application. Once an Applicant has chosen the language for his application it will stay with that application for the rest of its mortal span.

Because British language Europatent applications will originate not only from England but also from USA, Canada, Japan and other countries with English their main language, current estimates are that between 60 and 80 per cent of the applications filed will be in English. This makes a Munich siting look an odd choice and the reasons behind this choice were largely political. Because so few British Patent Office Examiners have so far expressed willingness to live and work in Munich some British language work from Munich will be sub-contracted to the existing British Patent Office to avoid what would otherwise be total chaos. Even so it is now officially regarded as inevitable that some British language applications will be dealt with by foreign speaking Examiners.

An Applicant for a Europatent will be able to choose (or "designate") which of the 21 countries he wishes his Europatent to cover. Because the European scheme will cost a considerable amount of money to run, Applicants selecting only a few countries will pay a disproportionately high fee, but the scheme should be a bargain to Applicants wishing to spread their blanket of protection over most of Europe.

## PROPOSED COMMUNITY PATENT

The Luxembourg conference to be held in the near future seeks to establish the wherewithal for a single indivisible community patent for the nine EEC countries. If the UK signs the convention, any British Applicant (e.g. a small electronics company with a new invention) wishing to protect that invention with a Europatent in any one of the nine EEC countries, will be forced automatically to protect it in all nine. Also, to maintain the patent in one country will require maintaining it in all nine.

There is some doubt on the matter of language as applied to EEC patents. It seems clear however that the translation of the patent claims into all Community languages (probably excepting Irish) will be obligatory and it may also be that the application as a whole (i.e. including the descriptions of specific circuits given by way of example, etc) will require translation into English, German and French.

## COST

One of the main reasons why interested observers are so off-put by the European schemes (especially the Community scheme) is that the only thing certain about the cost is that it will be high. Because the Munich Patent Office is to be self-supporting and will be built at a cost of around 45 million pounds in loans repayable to the Governments making them, it has been estimated that each Applicant will be contributing something like $£ 1,000$ per patent simply to pay for building the Munich Office. This is quite apart from what it will cost to staff the office and pay for the extensive patent novelty searches which are to be sub-contracted to The Hague.

The cost of applying for a patent via Munich and arguing it through to acceptance is still anybody's guess. But no one has disputed that an estimated cost of maintaining a patent after it has been granted will be around $£ 5,000$. Thus it looks likely that securing and maintaining in force an EEC patent will cost an inventor something in the order of $£ 7,500$. Thus the Community Patent Scheme could well put patenting beyond the pale for anyone but the largest commerclal enterprises.

It is an EEC aim to minimise the effects on the Common Market of national patents (such as we now have in the UK) and thus it seems highly unlikely that relatively cheap British national patents will continue to flourish if and when this country accedes to the community patent scheme. More than likely most inventors will simply deliberately disclose their ideas to the public so as to prevent anyone (including themselves) securing patent rights.


## The Scientists Investigate

The subject of ESP has at last become respectable in circles where once it was passed-off as coincidence, freak phenomena or even rubbish. Qualified scientists are now investigating many aspects of ESP the world over. Not only thoughttransference, or telepathy, either. Captain Ed Mitchell, of an earlier Apollo mission, has set up a foundation whose aim is to investigate thoroughly many aspects of ESP and related phenomena.

A while ago John Dunne interviewed Mitchell on the John Dunne Programme, BBC Radio 2, in which Mitchell spoke of the remarkable feats of (then little-known) Uri Geller. He spoke of how Geller had, under strictly-controlled and monitored laboratory conditions, caused a gold ring (stated to have been 18 ct . gold) to fracture merely by concentrating his mind upon it. The ring was later placed on a table and constant watch kept on it for an hour or two, whilst it was seen to twist until it took up a shape like the letter " S ".

More recently, we in Britain have been able to watch Geller in one or two BBC TV programmes, and to hear his original introduction on Jimmy Young's programme. In the latter, phone calls poured in from housewives who said their spoons and forks were curling up before their eyes as they laid their tables for the midday meal.

Again, to apply logic to this last situation, if the facts are true, and Geller can bend by mind power alone, we have experienced something truly remarkable. This accepted, how can we not consider the fact that the energy (or catalyst which releases this energy) may be carried to places afar by the medium of transmitted radio waves. Only a fool, in these circumstances, would reject the slightest possibility of this being possible, having once witnessed, without doubt, the first phenomenon.
TV 亚

Geller's performances were only part of the remarkable series of experiments that Ed Mitchell's team have recorded in their investigations, and at some time in the future the entire findings and results will be published for the World to read! One point that Mitchell made was that he tries to keep all experiments free and easy, yet very carefully scientifically controlled, in such a way that his subjects are not held in a state of tension, which, he believes, is the worst enemy to getting results, as appears to be the case if too many highly-sceptical persons are present.

## Now to Plant ESP

Let us now go to another, rather unusual aspect of ESP. This concerns the reaction of plants to . . . yes, thought. All right, you are entitled to your point of view, and I grant you this wholeheartedly. But please continue to read, I was a sceptic. . . once!

A man by the name of Backster, in the United States of America, was carrying out experiments on tomato plants. He had hooked a plant up to a sort of lie-detector circuit, to measure the electrical resistance of a lead, while he intended to carry out various "tortures" on the plant. He expected that the plant would show a reaction of some sort when other parts of it were interfered with or disturbed.


After trying various stimuli, and obtaining resistance changes, which were indicated on his super-sensitive equipment, he suddenly had a brainwave. Surely fire would give a strong reaction, as this, of all elements, must be the most dramatic for plant life. As he reached for the lighter, he noticed the meter deflection give a sudden reaction. Being a scientist, he would have been well aware that his sleeve or other parts involved in his sudden movement might well have caused the reaction, perhaps disturbing an electrode or something. But no, after careful analysis he discovered that whenever he decided to apply a flame to the plant, the plant gave the same reaction to . . . his thoughts!
Backster was apparently so engrossed with the evidence of this experiment, that he, in a typical American fashion, took the subject to the greatest possible extreme by monitoring the resistance of a plant or plants in one room, isolated in all ways from the first room. The contraption consisted of a sort of crane-jib suspending a large container of brine-shrimps (live and kicking) over a vat of boiling liquid.

At one time, unknown to anyone in the plant room, the shrimps were dropped into the boiling vat. Yes, you have guessed it, the meter pretty well wrapped its needle around the end stop of the scale... and at the very instant that the shrimps hit the hot fluid. Dropping dead shrimps into the vat caused no reaction, but the plant would become "numb" to the effect if live ones were killed in quick succession.

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I was personally so taken up by the quoted results of Backster's experiments that I tried out the thought-transference version. I connected a "busy-lizzy" (some call them "wandering sailors" I think) to a high-gain i.c. amplifier, and fed the output to the control line of a voltage-controlled oscillator, which I fed to an audio amplifier. After careful setting of the wire electrodes on one leaf, I adjusted the oscillator frequency to about mid-audio range.

After allowing time for any change in audio pitch to take place. which took about a minute, 1 waited a little longer to be sure that the pitch was as constant as I could determine by ear. Then I concentrated on the thought of dripping battery-acid on to the leaf. I chose this, because I remember from school-day experiments the taste of sulphuric acid and also, there was an old car battery in the workshop under the bench, and I felt able to dwell on the thought better for these reasons. As the taste came back to me, the oscillator pitch rose sharply, and proceeded to rise out of audibility. To those interested, this was due to the increase in resistance of the plant leaf, bearing in mind the way I had phased the circuits at the time.
This was not all. I satisfactorily repeated the experiment with the same results, for no less than six times altogether. But when I tried it out of direct line-of-vision with the plant, it failed, only to work again when I came back and looked at the plant.

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\sqrt{3} \quad \sqrt{3}
$$

These experiments were all done in one session, in the evening in Summer, and have not been tried again. Also, I do not know whether Backster found his plants responded with increased resistance like mine. but it would be interesting to find out if the two results tallied.

Next month: "Phantom Photos by Physicists".


Fig. 20c. A $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ f.s.d. linear scale ohmmeter


Fig. 20d. A $1 \Omega$ f.s.d. Iinear scale ohmmeter


Fig. 21a. Linear voltage to frequency converter


Fig. 21b. Graph of control voltage against output frequency for the voltage to frequency converter


Fig. 21c. Alternative voltage to frequency converter


Fig. 22. Zener diode tester using a constant current source
must be drawn on the meter or a calibration chart must be prepared.

The linear scale ohmmeter circuit shown in Fig. 20b enables a conventional voltmeter to be used without any alteration to the meter scale. For instance, it a 1 mA current generator is used, a 5 V f.s.d. meter will measure resistance up to 5 kilohms.

With the same current, a 1 kilohm scale can be produced by the use of a IV meter. The meter scale is only linear if the current through the resistor is large compared to the meter current. For a maximum error of $2 \%$ from this cause the current source must provide 50 times as much current as the meter f.s.d. current. So if a $20 \mathrm{k} \Omega / \mathrm{V}$ meter is employed, the current generator should supply at least 2.5 mA .

## HIGH RESISTANCE MEASUREMENTS

If measurements of high resistances are needed, the test current cannot conveniently be more than a few microamps. This imposes a limit of a few nanoamps on the meter current.

A circuit for a $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ meter is given in Fig. 20c. The input current is less than 5 nA at $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$ and the error caused by nonlinearity in the amplifier is small. The $5 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ potentiometer is used to set zero and the $500 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ resistor is set for f.s.d. with a test resistor of $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$.

## CONNECTION ERRORS

One problem associated with ohmmeters designed to measure low resistances is that the resistance of the test leads and the resistance of the connections made by the clips to the resistor being tested can cause quite large errors.

With the circuit shown in Fig. 20d for measuring resistances up to one ohm these errors are avoided. The voltmeter connections are separate from the current generator connections so that the voltage measured depends only on the current and the resistor being measured.

The contact resistance of the current source connections is thus left out of the measurement.

## LINEAR VOLTAGE-TO-FREQUENCY CONVERTER

Another circuit which cannot easily be produced without the use of current sources is a linear voltage to frequency converter. The method used is similar to that described earlier in connection with sawtooth generators.

An example of a voltage to frequency converter is shown in Fig. 21a and in Fig. 21b a graph of control voltage against frequency for this circuit is shown.

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| 881 | 10 | Reed Switches, ${ }^{* *}$ long t" dia. Highspeed P.O. type | 55p |
| 899 | 200 | Mixed Capacitors. Approx. quantity, counted by weight Post \& packing 15p. | 5 |
| H4 | 250 | Mixed Resistors. Approx. quantity counted by weight Post \& packing 15 p | 5 |
| H35 | 100 | Mixed Diodes. Getm. Gold bonded, etc. Marked and |  | bonded, etc. Marked and Unmarked

H38 $30 \begin{aligned} & \text { Short lead Transistors, } \\ & \text { NPN Silicon Planar type }\end{aligned}, ~$
H30 6 Integrated circuits 4 gates
H41 $2 \begin{gathered}\text { Eary Plastic Transistors }\end{gathered}$
D Unmarked Untested Paks
-1 $50 \begin{aligned} & \text { Germanium Transistors } \\ & \text { PNP, AF and } R F\end{aligned}$ 55p
B66 $150 \begin{gathered}\text { Germanium Diodes } \\ \text { Min. giass type }\end{gathered}$
B84 $100 \begin{aligned} & \text { Silicon Diodes DO. } \\ & \text { equiv. to OA203s }\end{aligned}$
55p
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B86 $100 \begin{aligned} & \text { Sil. Diodes sub. min. } \\ & \text { IN9l4 and IN9i6 type }\end{aligned}$
55p
H16 I5 Experimenters' Pak of
55p supplied
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { H20 } & 20 \begin{array}{c}\text { BY126/7 Type Silicon Recti- } \\ \text { fierst } \\ \text { volts amp. plastic. Mixed }\end{array} \\ \text { 55p }\end{array}$
H34 $15 \begin{aligned} & \text { Power Transistors, PNP. } \\ & \text { Germ. NPN Silicon TO-3 55p }\end{aligned}$

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The BC184 transistors act as controlled current sources.
The multivibrator frequency is proportional to the current provided by the BC184 transistors which is proportional to the control voltage. Another voltage to frequency converter is shown in Fig. 21c.

## SEMICONDUCTOR TESTING

Another field of application for constant current generators is the testing of many semiconductor devices. For instance, to find the voltage of a Zener diode without a constant current source, it is necessary to measure simultaneously the voltage across the diode and the current through it. The diode is connected to a power supply and the supply voltage is adjusted until the diode current reaches the desired value, when the Zener voltage is read on the voltmeter.

With a current source, the test procedure is simplified. The test circuit is given in Fig. 22. The current generator ensures that the correct current flows through the diode with no need for any adjustment; the Zener voltage is simply read on the meter.

It will be noticed that the circuit of the Zener tester is similar to that of the linear scale ohmmeter and, in fact, the ohmmeter can be used to test Zener diodes provided that the supply voltage of the meter is greater than the sum of the Zener voltage and the knee voltage of the current source.

If a variable current generator is used, the slope resistance of the Zener diode can be found by noting the change in Zener voltage as the current is varied. This circuit can also be used to determine the material from which a semiconductor diode is constructed.
The diode is connected to a current source providing between 1 and 10 mA using the circuit of Fig. 22. The diode should be forward biased. If the voltage across the diode is about 0.1 to 0.3 V at 1 mA or 0.2 to 0.4 V at 10 mA , the diode is made of germanium.
A silicon diode has a forward voltage of about 0.5 to 0.7 V at 1 mA and 0.6 to 0.8 V at 10 mA . The diode, of course, could be one of the junctions of a transistor.

## BREAKDOWN VOLTAGES

With only slight alteration, this circuit can be used to measure the breakdown voltages $V_{\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{CEO})}, V_{\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{CBO})}$ and $V_{\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{EBO})}$ of transistors. For these measurements, a current of about $100 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ is required and the supply voltage must be higher than the expected breakdown voltage. Therefore the constant current generator itself must have a breakdown voltage greater than the supply voltage.
Fig. 23 shows a circuit using a cascode current source with a high breakdown voltage.
To measure $V_{\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{CEO})}$ of an $n p n$ transistor, the base is left unconnected, the collector is connected to terminal $\mathbf{A}$ and the emitter is connected to terminal $\mathbf{B}$.
To measure $V_{\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{CBO})}$ the collector is connected to terminal A, the base is connected to terminal B and the emitter is not connected.
The $V_{\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{EBO})}$ is measured in the same way as $V_{\mathrm{B}(\mathrm{CBO})}$ except that the emitter and collector connections are reversed.
To test pnp transistors the connections to the tester are reversed. The meter requires an amplifier since the test current is so low. A simple emitter follower as shown in the circuit diagram is suitable in this application because the 0.5 V error it causes is unimportant.

## MEASURING CURRENT GAIN

Transistor current gain $h_{\text {FE }}$ is the ratio of collector current to base current and is usually measured at a specified collector current. The simple method of measuring $h_{\mathrm{FE}}$ by applying a known base current and measuring the resulting collector current is unsatisfactory if transistors with a wide gain spread are being tested.

One solution is the use of a current generator to define the emitter current which is virtually the same as the collector current. The test circuit is shown in Fig. 24. The emitter current is set by the f.e.t. current source and the base current is measured by the microammeter. The $h_{\mathrm{FE}}$ can then be calculated from the equation:

$$
\begin{aligned}
h_{\mathrm{FE}} & =\frac{I_{\mathrm{E}}-I_{\mathrm{B}}}{I_{\mathrm{B}}} \\
& \approx \frac{I_{\mathrm{E}}}{I_{\mathrm{B}}}
\end{aligned}
$$

This test circuit has the additional advantage that the collector voltage $V_{\mathrm{Cc}}$ can be carried independently to study the effect on the operation of the transistor. If a variable current source is employed, the transistor gain at various currents can be determined.

The circuits described above have necessarily covered only some of the possible applications of constant current generators and many more uses will no doubt occur to the reader.


A selection of readers' suggested circuits. It should be emphasised that these designs have not been proven by us. They will at any rate stimulate further thought.
This is YOUR page and any idea published will be awarded payment according to its merits.

## SIMPLE TRANSISTOR TESTER

This CIRCUIT (Fig. 1) uses an ACl28 or similar ing an approximate value for the common emitter current gain of small signal transistors, and will also indicate whether the transistor under test is npn or pnp.

When the transistor under test is npn, and the top of the circuit is positive relative to the bottom, the transistor will conduct, its base current passing through R1. Part of its collector current flows through D2, the meter and the base emitter junction of TRI. TRI turns on and l.e.d. D3 lights, indicating npn. The meter is proportional to the gain of the transistor under lest.

When pmp devices are under test conduction occurs via the other half of the bridge causing l.e.d. D4 to light.

Potentiometer VR1 shunts some of the collector current preventing the base currents of TR1 or TR2 becoming excessive whilst the collector current of the transistor under test is kept reasonable.

If ME1 is a $200 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ type calibrated 0 to 500 then the value of the shunt should be a ninth of the entire meter and bridge resistance, the prototype using a 100!2 preset. A transistor of known gain is used to set VR1. TR1 and TR2 are any high gain silicon types. The transformer secondary should not have an output in excess of 2.24 volts.
A. D. Baily, Loughborough, Leics.


Fig. 1. Circuit diagram for'a simple transistor tester


THE switch circuit of Fig. 1 uses an n-channel transistor which should be fitted with a heatsink. The battery takes around 250 mA but varies with the secondary load.

The secondary voltage varies with the load (a load should be present with the battery connected to prevent heating of TR1).

The choice of transformer is not critical but it should have two l.t. windings with L1 at least twice the voltage of $\mathrm{L} 2 . \mathrm{Cl}$ is chosen to have a high reactance at the frequency of operation.
J. Hollis, Derby.

## SWITCH-ON SURGE ELIMINATOR



ANUMBER of audio amplifiers suffer from switch-on current surge through the loudspeakers, particularly low impedance speakers.

The circuit of Fig. 1 overcomes the problem by connecting the speakers to the amplifier only after the initial current surge to the output capacitors has occurred.

When the amplifier is initially switched on by SI, Cl starts to-charge. At the same time the amplifier output capacitor C2 charges up through R2. When C1 reaches the potential required to operate the relay coil the contacts are switched over replacing the dummy load R2 with the loudspeaker.

The value of R1 is best found by experiment or can be calculated by dividing the supply voltage by the relay rated current and then subtracting the resistance of the relay coil.

Cl should be about. $2,500 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ so as to allow the relay contacts to remain open long enough for the output capacitors to become fully charged.

This is normally about 3 to 5 seconds. Only one channel is shown here but for stereo the relay should be two-pole and of course of an operating voltage less than the power supply rail voltage.
J. Farrimond, Wigan, Lancs.

## ELECTRONIC SWITCH

THE switch circuit of Fig. I uses an n-channel f.e.t. (e.g. 2 N 5457 or MPF102, etc.) to present either a high or a low impedance earth return path to the signal to be switched.

The main advantage of such a system is that it removes the need for audio r.f. signals to be fed to switches, the signal switching can occur on a circuit board whilst the mechanical switch handles only a d.c. signal. This helps reduce hum pick-up and other undesirable strays problems.

As can be seen, in the "off" state the f.e.t. is biased to conduct heavily, thus effectively shorting the a.c. signal to earth. Switching the f.e.t. to the "on" state biases it into the non-conducting region thus presenting a high impedance down the earth path. This allows the a.c. signal to continue virtually unattenuated.
In fact a large number of these switches can be driven from one d.c. switch without risk of crosstalk, thus reducing the number of multiple-pole switches needed. In addition, the control voltage could be obtained from logic outputs.


Fig. 1. Switch circuit diagram
Switch performance can be improved if required by biasing the gate slightly positive, about IV, in the off position.

P-channel f.e.t.s may be used with suitable reversal of the gate voltage. The two capacitors act as d.c. blocks to prevent d.c. appearing at the f.e.t. The stage following the f.e.t. switch should have an impedance in excess of $50 \mathrm{k}!2$ to avoid excess loading. C. G. Louisson,

Imperial College, London.

## NEON TESTER



Fig. 1. Circuit diagram for the neon tester
Component values, particularly that of R1 which may be as high as 200 M S2, are selected such that an acceptable neon causes the first timing network to reach its striking voltage prior to the second.

When this happens SCR1 will fire and the accept lamp will light up. Releasing the test switch resets the unit for the next test.
Should the neon be rejected through high leakage current, a cracked glass or too high a striking voltage, C3 will become charged more quickly so as to fire SCR2 and 3 and thus illuminate the reject lamp.

Diode D3 and resistor R6 discharge C3 at the end of a test so that the second timing circuit always

There are many simple timer circuits which make use of neon discharge devices in conjunction with an RC circuit. As is well known, long time delays require large $C$ values and, of course, components with good insulation qualities since the ultimate time period length is usually set by the limitations caused by leakage currents.

The circuit of Fig. I is capable of testing neons to assess their suitability as time delay elements.

With the neon under test connected as shown, supply of power by depressing the push-to-test switch energises two timing circuits. The first is via R1 and C1 whilst the other is via R2, the accept lamp, R3 and C3.
starts from the same condition.
A. J. Woolward,
Roborough, Plymouth.
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PARVALUX TYPE SDI9 230/250 VOLT A.C REVEASIBLE GEARED MOTORS 30 r.p.m. 40 lb. ins.
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50 cycle 50 HP RPM 900
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| 58 | 5-9 | $6 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{o}$ |
| 150 | 4-9 | $2 \mathrm{c} / 0$ |
| 185 | 8-12 | 6 M |
| 308 | $9-14$ | 4 clo |
| 410 | 10-18 | $4 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{o}$ |
| 700 | 16-24 | 4M 2B |
| 700 | 16-24 | $4 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{O}$ |
| 700 | 15-35 | $2 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{OHD}$ |
| 700 | 6-12 | $1 \mathrm{c} / 0 \mathrm{HD}$ |
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| 5,800 | 24-26 | $2 \mathrm{c} / 0$ |
| 9.000 | 40-70 | $2 \mathrm{c} / \mathrm{o}$ |
| $15 k$ | $85-110$ | 6M | 60p*

80p
70p
60p
$75 p^{*}$
$70 p^{*}$
$60 p^{*}$
$80 p^{*}$
$70 p^{*}$
50p
80p
$60 p^{*}$
$60 p^{*}$
$60 p^{*}$
$60 p^{*}$
$60 p^{*}$

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 \begin{tabular}{ll|ll|l}
$2 G 302$ \& 0.16 \& $2 N 3393$ \& 0.18 \& $3 N^{2} 200$ <br>
26303 \& 0.20 \& $2 N 3394$ \& 0.13 \& $3 N 201$

 

26303 \& 0.20 \& $2 N 3394$ \& 0.18 \& $3 N 201$ <br>
26306 \& 0.20 \& $2 N 3402$ \& 0.18 \& 40030
\end{tabular} $\begin{array}{llllll}2(1) 304 & 0.30 & 2 N 3402 & 0.18 & 40050 \\ 20304 & 0.80 & 2 \mathrm{~N} 3403 & 0.19 & 402 \mathrm{~J} 1\end{array}$

 \begin{tabular}{llll|l}
26351 \& 0.18 \& $2 N 3405$ \& 0.24 \& 40309 <br>
26310 <br>
$2 G 374$ \& 0.15 \& $2 N 3414$ \& 0.10 \& 40313

 

$2 G 4374$ \& 0.15 \& $2 N 3414$ \& 0.10 \& 40313 <br>
$2 N 174$ \& $1.4 U$ \& $2 N 3415$ \& 0.10 \& 40316

 

$2 N 174$ \& $1.4 U$ \& 2N341i \& 0.10 \& 40316 <br>
$2 N 4 U 4$ \& 0.43 \& $2 N 3416$ \& 0.15 \& 40318

 $\begin{array}{llllll}2 \mathrm{~N} 444 & 0.48 & 2 N 3416 & 0.18 & 40318 \\ 2 \mathrm{~N} 455 & 4.75 & 2 N 3417 & 0.91 & 40360\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{llllll}2 N 456 & \text { U.75 } & 2 N 3417 & 0.21 & 40360 \\ \text { iN4 } & \end{array}$ 

$2 N 456 A$ \& 0.75 \& $2 N 3570$ \& 1.25 \& 40361 <br>
$2 N 477 A$ \& 0.80 \& $2 N 3571$ \& $1.12 t$ \& 40362

 

$2 N 477 A$ \& 0.80 \& $2 N 3571$ \& 1.121 \& 40362 <br>
$1 N+491$ \& \hline-68 \& $2 N 3572$ \& 0.97 \& 40363

 

$2 N 696$ \& 0.15 \& $2 N 3702$ \& 0.11 \& 40389 <br>
$2 N 697$ \& 0.15 \& $2 N 3103$ \& 0.12 \& 40394 <br>
$22^{2}$ \& 0.
\end{tabular}

 \begin{tabular}{ll|ll|l}
$2 N 706$ \& 0.18 \& $2 N 3704$ \& 0.12 \& 40406 <br>
$02 N 70.09$ \& 40407

 

N 706 A \& 0.18 \& 2 N 3707 \& 0.18 \& 40408 <br>
2 N 708 \& 0.145 \& 2 N 3708 \& 0.70 \& 40404

 

$2 N 3708$ \& 0.145 \& $2 N 3708$ \& 0.70 \& 40404 <br>
$2 N 709$ \& 0.38 \& $2 N 3709$ \& 0.11 \& 40410

 

$2 N 711$ \& 0.30 \& $2 N 3710$ \& 0.12 \& 40410 <br>
$2 N 718$ \& 0.21 \& $2 N 3711$ \& 0.11 \& 40414 <br>
$2 N$

 

$2 \mathrm{n}^{2} 718$ \& 0.21 \& 2 N 3711 \& 0.11 \& 40414 <br>
$2 \mathrm{~N}^{2} 18 \mathrm{~A}$ \& 0.49 \& 2 N 3712 \& 0.88 \& 40467

 

$2 N 718 A$ \& 0.49 \& $2 N 3712$ \& 0.98 \& 40467 <br>
$2 N 720$ \& 0.50 \& $2 N 3713$ \& 1.20 \& 40468 A

 

$2 N 3714$ \& 1.88 \& 40600 <br>
$2 N 914$ \& 0.28 \& $2 N 3715$ \& 1.50 \& 40601
\end{tabular}

 \begin{tabular}{ll|l|ll|l}
$2 N 918$ \& 0.47 \& $2 N 3773$ \& 2.65 \& 40603 <br>
$2 N 929$ \& 0.30 \& 2 N 3779 \& 3.16 \& 40604 <br>
\hline 2 N 930 \& 0.48 \& 2

 

2 N 930 \& $0-48$ \& 2 N 3790 \& $2 \cdot 40$ \& 40636
\end{tabular}

 | $2 N 1091$ | 0.32 | $2 N 3792$ | 2.89 | AC10 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2 N 1132$ | 0.54 | 2 N 3794 | 0.10 | AC1 |

 \begin{tabular}{cc|cc|c}
2 N <br>
21303 \& $0.18 \frac{1}{4}$ \& 2 N 3820 \& 0.38 \& $\mathrm{AC121}$ <br>
2 N 1304 \& 0.24 \& 2 N 3823 \& 1.42 \& AC 126

 

$2 N 1305$ \& 0.24 \& NN3824 \& 1.42 \& AC12 <br>
2N 1306 \& 0.31 \& $2 N 3826$ \& 0.23 \& AC12

 

$2 N 1307$ \& 0.22 \& $2 N 3854$ \& 0.18 \& AC141 <br>
$2 N 1308$ \& 0.25 \& $2 N 3854 A$ \& 0.16 \& AC1 $1:$
\end{tabular}






| $1-56$ | ASY 24 |
| :---: | :---: |
| Y.49 | ABY |
| 1.14 | ASY |

 \begin{tabular}{l}
ABYO <br>
ASY <br>
BCLU <br>
\hline

 

0.86 \& BCY 22 <br>
0.20 \& HCY <br>
0.15 \& BCY 88 <br>
0.16 \& BCY <br>
U.15 \& HCZ 10
\end{tabular} - mion óo

18 BFY11 $13 |$\begin{tabular}{l|l}
13 \& BFY <br>
\hline 1 \& BFY

 

0.16 \& BCY8 \& $\mathbf{2} \cdot 42$ \& BFY18 <br>
0.15 \& BCZ \& 0.97 \& BFY19
\end{tabular}



 0.12 BD116 \begin{tabular}{l|ll|l}
0.50 \& BC11J \& 0.15 \& BD12 <br>
BC116 \& 0.15 \& BD12

 

0.98 \& BC1 \& 0.15 \& BD 123 \& 0 <br>
0.46 \& HC116A \& 0.18 \& BD 124 \& 0 <br>
0.48 \& BU117 \& 0.21 \& BD 131 \& 0
\end{tabular}

 |  | 0.67 | BFY 51 |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| BC118 | 0.21 | BD131 | 0.40 | BFY |
| HC11 | 0.11 | BD13 | 0.60 | BY | 0.86

0.85
0.4
0.38
0.60
0.58

0.68 $\begin{array}{ll}08 & \text { B } \\ .44 & \text { B } \\ 0.33 & \text { H } \\ 0.60 & \text { B } \\ 0.58 & \\ 0.58 & \end{array}$ | BCL 26 | 0.15 | 0.20 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| BDD138 |  |  |
| BC13: | 0 | BD |
| BC13 | 0.11 | BD | $\mathrm{BC13:}$

BC 134
BC 13. BC13
BC13
BC 2.25
3.55
0.69
0.44

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0.08 \\
& 0.87 \\
& 0.46 \\
& 0.68
\end{aligned}
$$

0.46
0.68
0.56
1.10

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0.70 \\
& 0.25 \\
& 0.16 \\
& 0.20 \\
& 0.13
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0.20 \\
& 0.13 \\
& 0.25 \\
& 0.25
\end{aligned}
$$



 \begin{tabular}{ll|ll|l}
$2 N 2192 A$ \& 0.40 \& $2 N 3903$ \& 0.32 \& ACY22 <br>
ACY 28 <br>
$2 N 2913$ \& 0.40 \& $2 N 3904$ \& 0.27 \& ACY 30

 

$2 N 2913$ \& 0.40 \& $2 N 3904$ \& 0.27 \& ACY <br>
ACY 30 <br>
$2 N 2193 A$ \& 0.81 \& $2 N 390 \overline{0}$ \& 0.24 \& ACY 39 \& 0 <br>
$2 N 2194$ \& 0.78 \& $2 N 3906$ \& 0.27 \& ACY 40
\end{tabular}

?

 \begin{tabular}{ll|ll|ll}
N $2219 . A$ \& 0.86 \& $2 N 40.59$ \& 0.09 \& AD 142 \& 0 <br>
2N2220 \& 0.48 \& $2 N 4060$ \& 0.11 \& AD143 \& 0

 

$2 N 22221$ \& 0.41 \& $2 N 4060$ \& 0.11 \& AD 143 \& 0. <br>
2 N 4061 \& 0.11 \& AD 249 V \& 0.6 <br>
2 N 2221 A \& 0.88 \& 2 N 4062 \& 0.11 \& AD 150 \& 0.69

 

$2 N 2222$ \& 0.80 \& $2 N 406 \%$ \& 0.11 \& AD 150 \& 0 <br>
$2 N 4302$ \& 0.25 \& AD161 \& 0.

 

$2 N 2368$ \& 0.31 \& $2 N 4303$ \& 0.47 \& AD162 <br>
$2 N 4916$ \& 0.11 \& AD161,
\end{tabular}

 | $2 N 2646$ | $0-77$ | $2 N 4919$ | 0.84 | AF114 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2 \mathrm{~N}^{2} 2647$ | 1.12 | $2 N 4920$ | 0.99 | AF11 |

 | 2 N 2713 | 0.17 | 2 N 4922 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2 N 492 |  |  |






 \begin{tabular}{ll|l}
$2 N 2907$ \& 0.38 \& 2 N 5192 <br>
2 N 0192

 

\hline $2 N 2907 A$ \& 0.41 \& $2 N 5195$ <br>
2N 2923 <br>
\hline
\end{tabular}

 \begin{tabular}{ll|l|l}
$2 N 2925$ \& 0.17 \& $2 N 5458$ \& 0 <br>
$2 N 0459$ \& 0

 

$2 N 2928$ \& \& $3 N 128$ <br>
$2 N$ \& 0.7
\end{tabular}



 |  | 0.11 | NN 141 | 0.08 | AF2 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2N $30 \overline{3} 3$ | 0.82 | 3N 142 | 0.58 | AF28 |

 \begin{tabular}{ll|ll|l}
$2 N 3390$ \& 0.28 \& $3 N 152$ \& 0.82 \& AL103 <br>
2N 153 \& 0.81 \& ASY2

 

2 N 3391 \& 0.28 \& 3 Nl 14 \& 0.81 \& $\mathbf{0 . 8 4}$ \& ASY26 <br>
\hline
\end{tabular}



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| 72704 | 35 D | 33p | 30p |
| -2710 | 450 | 43p | 40p |
| 72741 | 40p | 38p | 35 p |
| 52741 C | 45D | 43D | 40D |
| $72741 P$ | 38D | 36p | 34p |
| 72748P | 38 p | 36D | 34] |
| *L2016 | 50p | 45D | 401 |
| SLT016 | 50D | 45D | 40p |
| sL7026 | 50D | 45p | 40D |
| TAA263 | 80 p | 70p | 60D |
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| MA711 | 45D | 430 | 40] |
| 2N414 | £1.20 |  |  |


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|  | High Characters. | 1.80 |
| CDi6 | Side Viewing "NIXIE |  |
|  | TYPE" Tube $16 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{m}$ | 1.87 |
| GR116 | Sule Viewing "NIXIE |  |
|  | TYPE' Tube $13 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{m}$. | 1.70 |

*Av 3M Indicator
*Av 3M Indicator
DIBPLAY 0.127
Side Viewing "NIXIE

$\begin{array}{lrl}\text { Type } & \text { Price } & \text { Type } \\ \text { BC145 } & 50 & \text { MD115 } \\ \text { BC147 } & 11 & \text { BD116 }\end{array}$ $\xrightarrow{7}+$
 88
88

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7407
7408
7409
7410
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1.07
0.17



Type $\quad$ Pr
$2 N 130 \overline{1}$
$2 N 1308$

$\begin{array}{cc}\text { p } & \begin{array}{c}\text { Type } \\ \text { 2N39 }\end{array}\end{array}$ Type
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ZN414
2G301

$2 G 30$
$2 G 30$
$2 G 30$
$2 G 3$
2G30
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$2 \mathrm{G34}$
2 G 345
2 G 3
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29373
2 G 373
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26377
$2 \mathrm{G37}$
$2 \mathrm{G381}$
2 G 388

| 2 G 41 |
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| 2 N 388 |
| 2 N 38 |

2 N 404
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$2 N 706$
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$2 N 727$
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2N92
2N93
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$2 N 113$
$2 N 130$
2N1303
2N 1304
2N 1305
2N 1306

| 2N1307 | 88 |
| :---: | :---: |
| $2 \mathrm{~N}^{2} 308$ | 28 |
| 2N1309 | 28 |
| 2N1613 | 28 |
| 2N1711 | 22 |
| 2 N 1889 | 35 |
| 2N1890 | 50 |
| 2N 1893 | 41 |
| 2N2147 | 79 |
| 2N2148 | 88 |
| 2N2160 | 88 |
| 2N2192 | 38 |
| 2N2193 | 89 |
| 9N2194 | 39 |
| 2 N 2217 | 24 |
| 2 N 2218 | 28 |
| 2N2218 | 28 |
| 2N2220 | 24 |
| 2N2221 | 22 |
| 2N2222 | 82 |
| 2N2368 | 19 |
| 2N22369 | 16 |
| 2N2369A | 16 |
| 2N2411 | 27 |
| 2N2412 | 27 |
| 2N2646 | 52 |
| 2N2711 | 23 |
| 2N2712 | 23 |
| 2N2714 | 23 |
| 2N2904 | 19 |
| 2N2904A | 23 |
| 2N2905 | 28 |
| 2N2905A | 88 |
| 2N2906 | 17 |
| 2N290fA | 20 |
| 2N2907 | 22 |
| 2N2907A | 24 |
| 2N2923 | 16 |
| 2N2924 | 16 |
| 2N2925 | 18 |
| 2N2926(G) | 14 |
| 2N2926(Y) | 12 |
| N2928 ${ }^{\text {O }}$ | 11 | ${ }_{2}^{2 N} 2926(1)$ N30 $2 N 30$

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2 N 3 2N370
2N37
2N37 2N3707 2N 370
2N 371
2N 371 2N3711
2N3819 2N3820 2 N 3821
2 N 3823
2 N 3903 2N3904 DIODES AND RECTIFIERS

| A 1119 | 0.09 | BY114 | 0.13 | BYZ18 | 0.39 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| AA120 | 0.09 | [ BY 126 | 0.16 | BYZ19 | $0 \cdot 31$ |
| AA129 | 0.08 | BY127 | 0.17 | CG63 |  |
| AAY 30 | 0.10 | [3Y128 | 0.17 | (0A91 Eq.) |  |
| AAZ13 | 0.11 | HY130 | 0.18 |  | 0.06 |
| BA100 | 0.11 | BY133 | 0.83 | CG651- |  |
| BA11f | 0.23 | 13Y164 | 0.55 | (0A>0-OA79) |  |
| BA129 | 0.24 | $\mathrm{BIX}_{5} \mathrm{C}$ | 0 |  | 0.07 |
| IBA149 | 0.16 |  | 0.48 | OAS | 0.31 |
| BA154 | 0.13 | EYZ10 | 0.30 | OAüg L | $0 \cdot 23$ |
| BA155 | 0.16 | BYZ11 | 0.33 | OA10 | 0.89 |
| BA156 | 0.15 | ${ }^{\text {B }} \mathrm{YZ} 12$ | 0.33 | 0 A 47 | 0.08 |
| BY100 | 0.17 | EYZ13 | 0.88 | OATO | 0.08 |
| BY101 | 0.13 | BYZ16 | 0.44 | 0 079 | 0.08 |
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| Pak No. Con | Price | Pek No, |  |  |
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| $1 \mathrm{COO}=$ | 0.65 | UIC | $=5 \times 7446$ |  |
| $1 \mathrm{COL}=12 \times 740$ | 0.55 | Ule48 | ¢ 7448 |  |
| $\mathrm{IC} 02=12 \times 740$ | 0.55 | U1 | 50 |  |
| UIC03 $=12 \times 7403$ | 0.55 |  |  |  |
| $1 \mathrm{ICO4}=12 \times 740$ | 0.55 |  |  |  |
| $1 \mathrm{CO}=12 \times 740$ | 0.55 | 53 | $12 \times 745$ |  |
| U1C06 $=8 \times 7406$ | 0.56 | ${ }^{\text {¢ }}$ | $12 \times 74$ |  |
| UIC07 $=8 \times 7407$ | 0.55 | U 1 C60 $=$ | $=12 \times 746$ |  |
| UIC10 $=12 \times 7410$ | 0.55 | UIC:0 | $=8 \times 7470$ |  |
| UIC20 $=12 \times 7420$ | 0.85 | UIC72 | $=8 \times 7472$ |  |
| UIC30 $=12 \times 7430$ | 0.65 | U IC73 | $=8 \times 7473$ |  |
| C40 $=12 \times 7440$ | 0.65 | U | 7474 |  |
| C41 $=5 \times 7441$ | 0.85 | IC76 | $\times 7476$ |  |
| UIC42 $=5 \times 7442$ | 0.86 | UIC80 $=$ | $=5 \times 7480$ |  |
| $\mathrm{C} 43=5 \times 7443$ | 0.85 | UIC81 $=$ | $5 \times 7481$ |  |
| C44 $=5 \times 7444$ | 0.56 | C82 | 7482 |  |
| UIC45 $=5 \times 7445$ | 0.55 | UIC83 | $5 \times 7483$ |  |
| Paks |  |  |  |  |
| 2 Amp. BRIDGE RECTs. ${ }^{\text {d }}$ (1689 NPA SILICON |  |  |  |  |
| 50 v RMS 3 | 35 p each | DUAL TRANSISTOR | TRANSISTOR |  |
| 100 v RMS 4 | 40p | (Similar to 2N2060) |  |  |
| $400 \sim$ RMS 8 | 800 | 1 | 25100 | 00+ |
| ze $18 \mathrm{~mm} \times$ |  |  | 0.8 |  |


| Pak No. Contenta | Price | POST OFFICE |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| UIC86 $=5 \times 7486$ | 0.55 | TELEPHONE |  |  |
| UIC90 $=5 \times 7490$ | 0.55 | DIALS | 80p | each |
| UIC91 $=5 \times 7491$ | 0.55 |  |  |  |

## $\begin{aligned} & \text { UIC92 }=5 \times 7491 \\ &=5742\end{aligned}$

 UIC92 $=5 \times 7492$UIC93 $=5 \times 749$ UIC 93
$\mathrm{UIC}=54$
$=5 \times 7494$ UIC95 $=5 \times 7495$ UIC96 $=5 \times 7496$ $\begin{array}{ll}\text { UIC100 }=5 \times 74100 & 0.55 \\ \text { UIC101 }=5 \times 74121 & 0.55\end{array}$ $\begin{array}{ll}\text { UIC121 }=5 \times 74121 & 0.55 \\ \text { UIC1 } & 0.55\end{array}$ VIC141 $=5 \times 74141 \quad 0.5$ $\begin{array}{ll}\mathrm{UIC154}=5 \times 74154 & 0.85 \\ \text { UIC103 }\end{array}$ UIC193 $=5 \times 74193$
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| 7 A TO48 | 0.52 | 0.55 | 0.82 | 0.67 | 0.84 | 0.98 |
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| 50 | 0.05 | 0.06 | 0.05 | 0.08 | 0.15 | 0.21 | 0.60 |
| 100 | 0.05 | 0.07 | 0.06 | 0.10 | 0.17 | 0.23 | 0.75 |
| 200 | 0.08 | $0 \cdot 10$ | 0.07 | 0.12 | 0.22 | 0.25 | 1.00 |
| 400 | 0.08 | 0.15 | 0.08 | 0.15 | 0.30 | 0.88 | 1.85 |
| 500 | 0.09 | 0.17 | 0.10 | 0.18 | 0.36 | 0.45 | 1.00 |
| 800 | 0.12 | 0.10 | 0.11 | 0.20 | 0.88 | 0.65 | 8.10 |
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