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Our December issue will be published on November 3rd (for details see page 36)

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PROJECTS：V．H F．Tuner Module $\star$ A．M．Tuner Module $\star$ M．W．L．W．Diode Radio $\star$ Six Transistor V．H．F．Earpiece Radio 大 One Transistor M．W．L．W．Radio 太 Two Transistor Metronome with variable beat control three Transistor and Diode Radio M．W．L．W．大 Four Transistor Push Pull Amplifier $太$ Eight Transistor V．H．F．Loudspeaker Recelver $太$ Variable A．F．Oscillator $\star$ Jify MultiTester $\star$ Four Transistor and Diode M．W．L．W．Radio $\star$ A．F．R．F．Signal Injector $\star$ Five Transistor Push Pull Amplifier $t$ Sensitive Hearing Aid Amplifier $\star$ Three Transistor and Diode Short Wave Radio $\star$ Signal Tracer $太$ Three Tran－ sistol Push Pull Amplifier $\star$ One Transistor Class A Output Stage to drive Loudspeaker $\star$ Sensitive Tran－ sistor Pre－Amp $\star$ Transistor Tester $\star$ Sensitive Three Transistor Regenerative Radio $A$ Four Transistor Transistor V H F Tode $\downarrow$ Thre $\star$ Ransistor Transistor V．H．F．Tuner $\star$ Three Transistor Code Practice Osciliator $\star$ Five Transistor Regenerative Shor t Seven Transistor MW．LW Radio with Loudspeaker Push Pull output Rado


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Powered by P．P．9－9 volt Battery．


## ELECTRONIC

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## MODEL

R．K．I
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Practical Wireless, November 1978

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FEATURES: Very low disfortion-Integral heatsink-Load IIne protection-Thermal protecAPPLICATIONS: Hi-Fi-High
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SPECIFICATIONS
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$5 \cdot 1 \mathrm{v}, 5 \cdot 6 \mathrm{v}, 6 \cdot 2 \mathrm{v}, 6 \cdot 8 \mathrm{v}, 7 \cdot 5 \mathrm{v}, 8 \cdot 2 \mathrm{v}$, $9-1 \mathrm{v}, 10 \mathrm{v}, 11 \mathrm{v}, 12 \mathrm{v}, 13 \mathrm{v}, 15 \mathrm{v}, 16 \mathrm{v}$,
$18 \mathrm{v}, 20 \mathrm{v}, 22 \mathrm{v}, 24 \mathrm{v}, 27 \mathrm{v}, 30 \mathrm{v}, 33 \mathrm{v}$,
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Chaos Reigns

EACH new generation insists on wanting to prove for itself that hot things burn, that sharp things cut, that every warning or piece of advice which _elders might give really is sound. Perhaps in many ways it's just as well, for otherwise some very useful discoveries might never have been made. There are times, though, when we of more advanced years ponder "Will they never learn?"
The same question, it seems, might well be put to semiconductor manufacturers, who not only go on repeating the mistakes of the valve makers, but have thought up a whole host of new horrors of their own! In the heyday of valves, a multitude of different type-number "house-codes" was in use, and equivalent tables were essential to the serviceman, who might otherwise be looking in his spares holding for what was effectively the same valve under any one of half-a-dozen or more different type numbers. There was some standardisation in the American RMA and European Pro-Electron codes, and at least the "same" valve didn't appear in different shaped envelopes with different bases, with one or two notable exceptions such as the 807.
When transistors came along, they were expected to have a much longer life, and could be soldered straight into circuit. Most would have only three leads, so except where power dissipation requirements dictated otherwise, it would be nice and simple to arrange that all transistors had lead-outs in the same pattern . . . wouldn't it? It didn't happen, of course. In fact there are probably more permutations of case outline and lead-out arrangement for the bipolar transistor than there were valve bases ever invented.
$I^{1}$ is not too difficuli to understand why there should be metal-can and plastics-case versions of the same small-signal transistor. And at least there is some uniformity in the metal-can versions, where all TO-18 (e.g. BC107) and TO-39 (e.g. BFY50) devices have identical lead-out arrangements. When you get to the plastics end of the market, the manufacturers seem to have gone stark staring mad. They take one humble transistor, apparently at the request of some major customers, and produce it in several different shaped packages, with the option of leads pre-formed to match the lead-out patterns of yet other packages, and mark them all in microscopic, rub-off printing, with type numbers differing only by suffix. Is it any wonder that people get thoroughly confused? You need a whole library of data books to cope, and even then there are devices around on which there seems to be no published data.
There is a version of that work-horse f.e.t., the 2 N 3819 , which comes into this category.
Still, the manufacturers will have learned their lesson when they come to integrated circuits, won't they? Wait a moment, though . . . what about those 8 -pin and 14 -pin d.i.l. versions of the 741 ?

We are sorry that, due to continuing rises in our costs, we are having to ask you to pay more for your copy of Practical Wireless commencing with this issue. I hope that we will continue to enjoy your support-we have some great projects lined up for the future.

## Rob Mackie-Technical Artist

Although Rob spent his schooldays in Wantage, Oxfordshire, his professional life didn't begin in earnest until he came to live in Dorset and took a post as a draughtsman with a local company specialising in gas detection equipment. His arrival at PW's editorial office coincided with the magazine's move to Poole from London, only a few months after he had married and settled in Corfe

Mullen. He has a son and expects an addition to the family at any moment; his parents still live in Wantage, and his father is an electronics engineer at the Atomic Energy Research Establishment, Harwell.

Rob's interests include kite flying, squash, football, and progressive rock music. He also admits to an occasional thirst for the local brew!


## The British Vintage Wireless Society

An exhibition of vintage radio and TV equipment is being staged at the Guildhall Museum, off New Orchard Street, Poole from now until about the end of the year. Opening hours are 2 until 5 pm on Sundays, 10 am until 5 pm during the rest of the week.

## The RAC Amateur Radio Group Scheme

Membership of this scheme is open to all amateur radio enthusiasts and provides membership of the Royal Automobile Club at a discount of £1-50 below the normal subscription rate. Since 1st June 1978 the annual subscription for members of the group scheme has been $£ 9.50$.

Subscription renewal date is 17th May (World Telecommunication Day) each year, and all members renew on the same date. Anyone joining on any other date will pay at the pro-rata rate of 80 p per month for the remainder of the year. In addition, the once only joining fee of $£ 2 \cdot 50$ is also payable, regardless of the period remaining in the membership year. Those who are already members of the RAC will not be required to pay the joining fee. A desirable option is the RAC Recovery Service, the annual subscription for which is $£ 7.00$ for the whole or part of the year.

The scheme is administered by the RAC's Scottish Western Counties Office, 242 West George Street, Glasgow G2 4QZ. Further details from the coordinator of the scheme Mr A. W. Huchinson, 88 Broomfield Road, Chelmsford, Essex CM1 1SS.

## Dinner date

The Wessex Amateur Radio Group are holding a dinner-dance at the Yenton Hotel, Gervis Road, Bournemouth on Saturday 18th November. Dress is informal and those attending should meet at the Hotel around 7.15 pm . Anyone in the area wishing to attend can be assured of a warm welcome. Tickets may be obtained by contacting the Secretary Mr G. D. Cole G4EMN, 6 St. Anthony's Road, Bournemouth or Mr A. Hoggan, G8ASX, 23 Leaphill Road, Bournemouth.

## Good news, bad news

Doram the mail order component suppliers announce the launch in September of their new Electronic Hobbies and Equipment catalogue. Its 40 pages are full of micro-processor based and other kits, electronic project and hobbyist books, electronic and other tools, also audio and car accessories. The service will be supported by the Access credit facility. Order your free copy now.

Doram also give notice of their intention, later this year, to discontinue supplying electronic components. They plan to fully support the component range in the current Edition 4 catalogue until the end of September, after which time they will supply only on a 'whilst stocks last' basis. An end of season component list will eventually be made available.

## RRF special

We are informed of a course in the North London area primarily for students who have taken the RAE examination and failed, and do not wish to go back to the start all over again.
The college station is G4GA and special coaching will be given by the senior tutor Fred Barns G3AGP.
Held at the De Beauvoir I.L.E.A. Evening Institute, Tottenham Road, London N 1 , enrolment will be between the end of September and the end of October.
Further details from Fred Barns G3AGP, 60 Alveston Avenue, East Barnet, Herts.

## Diary date

The Amateur Radio Retailers Association are organising what they claim will be the 'Biggest and Best Hamfest in Europe', on the 2nd, 3rd and 4th November 1978.
The Seventh -Midland National Amateur Exhibition will be held at The Granby Halls, Leicester, and will be open between 10 am and 6 pm , admission 40 p with special concessionary prices for clubs, schools etc.

All the usual stands and events are planned including $£ 500$ to be won in voucher prices.

For further information contact Tom Darn G3FGY, 20 Mount Pleasant, Ripley, Derbyshire DE5 3DX.

## Sought After

A 1977 survey of Technicians and Technical Engineers engaged in electronics in the U.K. shows that they enjoy virtually full employment. In fact, shortages of suitably qualified staff in some types of job, and in some areas of the country, are also indicated.
The survey was conducted by The Society of Electronic and Radio Technicians into the remuneration and occupations of its 8,000 members. Their activities cover radio and television, industrial electronics, technical education and local government, civil service and nationalised industries, and broadcasting.

Other points from the survey show that there has been an increase in Trade Union membership from $36 \%$ to $41 \%$. During wage restraint between 1976 and 1977 increases in members salaries were $6 \%$ on average.

## Sorry!

The article "Wideband Calibrated Attenuator" in our September issue should have been attributed to the joint authors, Mike Tooley and David Whitfield. Our apologies to David for omitting his name from the credits.

## RRE reprint

For full details of availability and price, see page 35.

## Can I help you!

Are you the secretary, organiser or general dog's body of your local radio club or any other group whose functions may interest readers of PW. If so, let me know and I will endeavour to publicise your rally, get-together, whatever, through this column. Remember though, we compile the magazine some time ahead of publication day (e.g. this note was written in mid-Sept.), so, the earlier I can have details, the better.

Alan Martin


In my article "Aerial Performance Test Set", (Practical Wireless, January 1978) readers may have noticed the photograph of a 12 -element beam aerial. This is one of the "ZL" series, developed from the ZL Special, details of which were published in Practical Wireless, May 1977. At the time, the principle of employing two driven elements to produce 'end-fire' arrays was examined. The ZL Special two-element system is in fact an end-fire array but with a difference. The element lengths are cut to produce a reflector/director action which gives increased forward gain over that normally obtained with two half-wave elements spaced ${ }^{1} 8 \lambda$ and driven $135^{\circ}$ out of phase.

The ZL Special, apart from being a small beam aerial in its own right, is also a very useful primary driving system for relatively compact multi-element beams of higher gain. In this respect, the reader may find the article "Three and Five-Element Compact Beam Aerials for 2 Metres" (Practical Wireless, May 1977) of interest. The same arrangement can be used for ZL beams of up to five directors-i.e., six or seven elements total.

Beyond this however, if the gain is to be increased by additional directors and the size contained, the construction of the ZL Special as described in the above article must be modified.

The 12-element ZL beam to be described was developed nearly three years ago and up to the present time has been in use in two quite different locations. One of these was my former address in London and
the other my present home in the lovely countryside of Norfolk. It has been the means of establishing over 600 direct contacts with more than 10 countries outside the UK on 2 metres f.m. Operation into a number of continental repeaters, as well as distant UK repeaters, has been achieved with only slight tropospheric lift.

The basic ZL Special has a forward gain of about 6 dB over a dipole, which is much higher than can be obtained with a single driven element and reflector, the basis of the well-known Yagi. A ZL beam with directors does not require a reflector, as there is nothing from the rear to reflect. With the modified primary driving array and 10 directors as shown in Fig. 2 a forward measured gain of $13 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~dB}$ can be obtained with a beamwidth at the 3 dB down points of approximately $36^{\circ}$. The theoretical gain was 14 dB but calculated parameters are rarely, if ever, realised. For the sake of comparison with the dipole and other ZL beams however, the radiation pattern of 12 -element version is shown in Fig. 1; the field intensities are relative.
At this point it should be realised that if a highgain beam is used the increase in effective radiated power (e.r.p.) over a simple dipole is considerable. For example if 10 watts of actual radiated power is applied to a beam aerial having a gain of 13 dB , it will produce an e.r.p. of close to 200 watts (assuming no losses), 13 dB being a power ratio of approximately 20:1.

Before the constructor begins to build this aerial


Fig. 1: Field intensity patterns of the 12 -element ZL Beam and other ZL Series for comparison. Intensity levels are all relative to each other and a dipole
it should be stressed that only the materials specified must be used. As with most projects of this nature if the text is not followed closely, it is unreasonable to expect the results to function properly. The dimensions are fairly critical, and a tolerance of about one per cent should be aimed for in the longer lengths. In other words, about 2.5 mm in 254 mm . For shorter dimensions, 1 mm is adequate.

It seems a gremlin was at work when copy was written for the announcement about this article on page 43 of our October issue. We apologise for the wrong information given there.

## Construction

From Fig. 2 it can be seen that the overall length is some $3 \cdot 2$ metres but if the elements are made as described from 6.3 mm diameter aluminium rod or tube, a boom of 20 mm square aluminium is adequate for the purpose. The prototype built exactly as described in this article has withstood gale force winds and gusts approaching 90 m. p.h., suffering nothing more than one broken director.

The diagrams should be fairly self-explanatory. The layout of the two driven elements, the $300 \Omega$ ribbon phasing line, the rear tuning stub and the small coaxial capacitor across the feed point are shown in Fig. 3.

Note that the ribbon feeder forming the phasing line is somewhat longer than the actual spacing between elements and this will lie slack within the protection box. The box may be of pvc or built from hardwood. In the latter case it is advisable to fit sleeves of a good insulating material over the elements and the rear stub where they enter the box.

The small rear stub is made from $6 \cdot 3 \mathrm{~mm}$ diameter aluminium rod or tube. The lower parts of the elements run underneath the boom. They must not come into contact with it but extra support could be given with small spacers of Perspex or pvc located between the centres of the elements and the boom.

The small capacitor is formed from a short piece of $50 \Omega$ coaxial cable, trimmed at one end by about 20 mm for connection to the feed point and with about 12 mm of screening braid removed at the far end to prevent short-circuit or r.f. flashover.
The boom is 3.234 m long and 20 mm square. All the directors are secured to the boom at their exact centre points. For this purpose small clips could be used or holes drilled through the boom to take the 6.3 mm diameter rods, which can ultimately be secured by bolts or self tapping screws. Whichever method is finally decided upon it will be necessary to establish that the electrical contact is good.
When the aerial is finally tested, the slots where the elements enter the protection box can be filled with Plastic Padding or similar to prevent the ingress of water. After the lid has been fitted the box should be painted or varnished.


Fig. 2: Details of element and director lengths etc.
These are critical and should not be altered in any way


## Checking and Operation

This aerial will only operate with $50 \Omega$ coaxial cable which should be of good quality. Type UR67 is recommended for long runs but UR43 may be used for lengths of up to 10 to 12 metres without too much loss. It is advisable not to use old cable (eg cable which has been in use outside) as losses develop, usually due to moisture absorption and this will degrade the performance of the aerial.

Before fixing the lid to the protection box make sure all connections are secure. Large soldering tags, say 2BA, clamped under the element ends, are best for good soldered contact of the main coaxial cable, the phasing line and the coaxial capacitor. For testing, the full length of $50 \Omega$ cable should be connected. Set the aerial up in the garden, balanced on a pair of steps so that it is about 1 to $1^{1}{ }_{2} \mathrm{~m}$ above ground. If a v.s.w.r. meter (or power meter) is available and/or fitted to the transmitter, check at mid band ( 145 MHz ), that the v.s.w.r. does not exceed $1 \cdot 5: 1$. If it is higher then a problem, perhaps with connections, is indicated. If the v.s.w.r. is below $1 \cdot 5: 1$ then leave well alone! However, adjustment can be made to the coaxial capacitor length for minimum v.s.w.r. It may mean trying two or three pieces of say $90 \mathrm{~mm}, 100 \mathrm{~mm}$ and 125 mm but the trouble will be worthwhile. If you have available a 6 watt fluorescent tube it should light brightly when touching the ends of the driven elements and most of the directors when 10 watts or more of r.f. is present.

If the v.s.w.r. is plotted across the band the curve should approximate that shown as (b) in Fig. 4 provided the feeder cable is not too long. For runs of 20 m or more the curve will tend to flatten out as (c).

Fig. 3: Details of the driven element assembly

For comparison, an average v.s.w.r. curve for a long Yagi is shown in (a) and the increased rise at each end is due to the fact that such aerials are sharply resonant. The ZL series are broad-band hence the flatter v.s.w.r. curve. The beam width at 3 dB is about $36^{\circ}$, as in the polar patterns of Fig. 5 which were taken from the prototype. The solid line is for horizontal polarization and the broken line for vertical, but note that the spurious lobes in the vertical pattern, due to reflection from nearby conductors,


Fig. 4: VSWR plots, ZL Beam by comparison with long Yagi

Continued on page 80


## FM CIRCUITS-PERFORMANCE DETAILS

S/N Ratio: 26dB for $1 \mu \mathrm{~V}$ Sensitivity (Worst Case) Image Rejection: 60dB (Typical)<br>IF Rejection: 60dB (Typical)<br>Total Harmonic Distortion : 0.08\%<br>AM Rejection: 50dB<br>Stereo Separation: $\mathbf{4 0 d B}$ at $\mathbf{1 k H z}$

## RF and Mixer Stages

Although the UK is well served in terms of coverage by f.m. transmissions, to achieve the maximum performance a receiver must be capable of resolving a weak station adequately, and a strong station without overloading.
The "front end" (VTO2) was chosen to meet these exacting requirements, and a description of the internal circuit follows.

In keeping with current design techniques, the r.f. stage utilises a MOSFET, which provides good immunity to cross-modulation combined with a low noise figure. Clearly this is an important factor since any noise introduced at this stage will progressively degrade the overall performance. AGC is also applied here, and the r.f. stage is band-pass coupled to the mixer (another MOSFET), which, through its wide dynamic range, presents a high level of immunity to overloading.

The local oscillator, which is tuned 10.7 MHz above the signal frequency makes use of a bipolar device resulting in a stable circuit which tracks well. AFC is introduced at this point to combat any drift.

## Varicap Tuning

This technique was chosen eventually to suit a number of requirements. Most important of these was the fact that the original mechanical tuner unit shown on photographs in part 1 of the "Wimborne" suddenly became more expensive and of doubtful advantage. Less important, but more interesting in terms of the facilities which we could eventually build into the design, was the varicap pre-set tuning of stations which could be introduced by the constructor at a later stage if required. To some extent also, the physical needs of a fine tuning system are simplified, although it does necessitate a regulated supply. This wasn't a disadvantage however, since the design already incorporated such a supply.

Signal from the VTO2 (the i.f. signal at 10.7 MHz ) is then amplified by 2 bipolar transistors with one twopole ceramic filter per stage, thus providing the necessary bandwidth for the entire i.f. amplifier. These two gain stages are important not only because they overcome the insertion loss incurred by the filters, but also because they present a strong signal to the RCA 3189 enabling virtually its optimum $s / n$ ratio to be exploited.

## Capabilities

The 3189 provides one of the highest levels of performance currently available in a combined f.m./i.f. amplifier/detector. Apart from a slightly improved $\mathrm{s} / \mathrm{n}$ ratio, delayed a.g.c., a.f.c. facility, and signal strength meter output, it contains a deviation muting


Fig. 1: The internal circuit of the VTO2 f.m. tuner module
circuit which holds down the audio output until a station is correctly tuned. In addition, audio output can be set to any desired level to be compatible with following stages.
Editorial Note: A fuller treatment of the RCA3189's potential is given in our current "IC of The Month" in this issue. Also, the type no. of the BSR record player deck was incorrectly given as "BSR 162" in Part 1 of the "Wimborne Music Centre" (September issue). This should read "BSR 182".

## Detector and Decoder Stages

A double tuned quadrature detector is employed, which ensures a very low total harmonic distortion, and the recovered audio is then fed via a capacitor to the MC 1310 multiplex decoder. Extensive low-pass filtering is provided at this point to ensure that the multiplex signal does not find its way into the following amplifier stages. As can be seen from the f.m. performance figures, results are very good and are consistent with those obtained from a commerciallybuilt high quality stereo f.m. tuner. During tests in Wallington, Surrey, the author has been able to listen regularly to the three main national stations of ORTF (France) using a 6 element beam 30 feet above sea level. Yugoslavia was also heard during a tropospheric opening.

## Modified Supply Rail

A further stabilised supply of 15 V is necessary to supply the varicap bias for tuning, and this is derived from a modification of the existing 13 V stabiliser circuit, which also raises the original 13 V supply to 18 V for the r.f. board. The only changes necessary in this case are that R302 (150 ) is reduced to $33 \Omega$ ( ${ }_{2} \mathrm{~W}$ ) and the control Zener (ZDI) is changed to an 18 V 400 mW type. Tr5 (BD131) will still be operating well below its maximum rated current level, so no extra fuse precautions need be taken.

## Constructional Notes

The fine tuner could be a multi-turn potentiometer, and the arrangement of the drive system need not change from that of the mechanical unit, although the tuning drum size or reduction gear (necessary if a realistic tuning scale spread is to be achieved) selection is up to the individual constructor. This does not apply where the kit of parts is purchased.

It is as well to note that those capacitors shown on the circuit diagram with an angled positive connection are specifically for decoupling purposes, and should be mounted as close to the "hot" end of resistor (or active device) it refers to as possible. This applies to $\mathrm{C1}, \mathrm{C} 5, \mathrm{C} 7, \mathrm{C} 11, \mathrm{C} 20, \mathrm{C} 27, \mathrm{C} 29$, and C 79 .

In some cases, a small amount of Zener-produced noise may find its way into the receiver outputs or the cassette unit output signal. This can be suppressed by including a $100 \mu \mathrm{~F} 25 \mathrm{~V}$ electrolytic in the circuit. Connection is made on the back of the main amplifier/power supply module, positive to the junction of R303 ( $3 \cdot 3 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ ) and Zener + , and negative connection to chassis.

## Magnetic Equaliser Board

This contains the pre-amplifiers (LM387) for magnetic cartridges and should be mounted as close to the output connections of the cartridge as possible in order to minimise hum pick-up. Under certain conditions, not necessarily in the shadow of a transmitter, a condition known as "AM Rectification" may occur. This results in r.f. signals appearing at the output, usually a broadcast band short wave station or cochannel radiation from a t.v. receiver. It is generally caused by pick-up in connecting leads, and poor soldering can often emphasise the effect which is caused by the first high gain stage acting as an r.f. detector-this is quite understandable when it is realised that the upper frequency limit of the humble BC109 is something like 450 MHz !


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Fig. 2: Complete circuit of the f.m. stereo decoder
The best cure is to prevent, by keeping leads short, taking care over soldering, and running connecting leads close to the chassis. If the condition persists, it can usually be cured by connecting a small choke (about $10 \mu \mathrm{H}$ ) in series with the input, or bridging the input close to the LM387 + and - inputs with a capacitor approximately 150 to 300 pF .

## Magnetic Cartridge Pre-amplifiers

In order to maintain a good performance in terms of noise, and partly to continue the low topographical profile of the "Wimborne", a discrete approach to the requirement for equalisation to the RIAA stan-

## components

| Resistors |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\frac{1}{6}$ W carbon film 5\% |  |  |
| $270 \Omega$ | 2 | R403, 503 |
| $2 \cdot 7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | 2 | R404, 504 |
| $47 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | 2 | R401, 501 |
| $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | 4 | R402, 406, 502, 506 |
| $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ | 2 | R405, 505 |
| Capacitors |  |  |
| Polystyrene |  |  |
| 1nF | 2 | C405, 505 |
| 3.3nF | 2 | C404, 504 |
| Polycar | nate | 160 V |
| 100 nF | 1 | C402 |
| $1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 2 | C401, 501 |
| Electrolytics 63 V |  |  |
| $22 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ | 2 | C403, 503 |
| Semiconductors |  |  |
| IC3 | 1 | LM387 |

## Miscellaneous

p.c.b., mic. cable


Fig. 3: The dual pre-amplifier (equaliser) circuit for magnetic cartridge inputs (above), and the relevant component list (left). The complete components list for all the receiver circuits will appear in the December issue
dard for magnetic cartridges was ruled out, and it was decided that the LM387 should again be used to provide this function.

While it is true that in order to obtain a good match between the two amplifiers contained in the LM387 ("selected" items are clearly to be desired), it is equally the case that the problem exists in the event of opting for the conventional approach using four BC109 or BC149 transistors. The improvement obtained in noise figure for the LM387 made it preferable, as did its compact "image", matching the "Wimborne" character overall.

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Fig. 4 : Copper track pattern and component overlay for the magnetic equaliser board. Both are shown full size


Fig. 5: A view of the equaliser unit (above), and the f.m. amplifier circuit (right)-N.B.
"ZD1" should read "ZD2"




## Circuit Approach

The essential features of the pre-amplifiers needed for magnetic cartridge are that account should be taken of the fact that they operate as velocity devices, and that output is directly related to velocity. This means that a compromise has to be reached if the RIAA curve is to resemble a good match at maximum and minimum modulation levels. Eventually, this breaks down to a need for matching to $47 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ im-

Fig. 6: Copper track pattern (full size) of the complete receiver p.c.b. The m.w. circuits will appear in the final part in December
pedance and a cartridge output between 3.5 and 5 mV , which should cover the major differences in cartridge response and the velocity range in the original recordings.

A non-inverting configuration was chosen, since


One of the main differences between a professional piece of electronic equipment and one built by the average amateur is the appearance of the case and front panel.

Several attempts have been made to produce panel transfers and there must be many panels using rub-down lettering. Few of these, however, produce a professional look to a front panel and rarely match the appearance of a nicely produced satin finish aluminium panel.

Although the necessary material has been available to produce aluminium panels photographically, they have been almost impossible to obtain in small sizes suitable for the home constructor's projects. This has now changed with the introduction of the Photolab Kit by Mega Electronics.

This kit contains all the equipment necessary to produce aluminium or plastic front panels as well as prototype single and double sided printed circuit boards.

Both p.c.b.s and panels are produced using photographic techniques on pre-sensitised materials available in a wide range of convenient sizes from Mega. An ultra violet exposure box provides the means of exposing the sensitised material and the necessary chemicals, and plastic trays to develop and etch the p.c.b. material are also provided. A small electric drill and a selection of twist drills complete the kit.

The production of p.c.b.s is very simple once a transparent positive has been produced, using the transparent film and rub-down pads and tracks provided or drawn on film with a suitably dense black

ink or paint. It is of course necessary to ensure that you produce a positive, i.e. black where you want copper left. The positive artwork is placed face down on the glass top of the u.v. box with the pre-sensitised copper clad p.c.b. material on top of it. Close the lid and time the exposure as directed in the clear instruction sheet then develop in the developing tray, rinse in water and place face down on the surface of the etchant in the other plastic tray. When fully etched the holes can be drilled for the component leads and the board cut to size.

Care must be taken with the chemicals, especially the etchant, and it is advisable to wear an overall and rubber gloves when using the developing and etching trays.

The quality of the boards produced by the kit is very good and the material seems to be very tolerant of variations in exposure and developing time and the resist appears to stand up to the etchant well. The laminate material is epoxy glass and both single and double sided types are available. The instruction sheet explains how to make double sided boards and following these a sample board was made confirming that the system works and that the registration of the two patterns was good. The resist can be left on the copper tracks after etching and forms an easy to solder fluxed coating.

The 12 V d.c. drill supplied with the kit is quite capable of drilling the holes in the finished p.c.b.s but the concentricity of the collet chuck leaves a lot to be desired. Mega are now supplying their own very simple drill holder which improves the true running of the drill. A novel drill stand is available to take the drill, and Mega are about to launch a control unit and power supply for the drill.

A most interesting and exciting use of the kit is for the production of professional quality front panels. The process is very simple and involves the exposure to u.v. of the sensitised material through a negative artwork which can be easily prepared using rub-down letters and numbers and the film supplied. A range of colours is available and the material has a selfadhesive backing enabling the finished panel to be easily fixed to the main front panel.

The transparent overlay films which are available from the $P W$ Editorial offices for selected $P W$ projects make ideal artworks and produce excellent front panels. Using these films results in a panel which has silver lettering on a coloured background. To produce a silver panel with coloured markings requires the production of a reversed film available from Mega. After exposing the panel material, or reversal film, in the u.v. box the special developer supplied is spread over the sensitised surface and then rubbed with the lint-free pads supplied. This removes the unwanted coloured surface leaving the desired patterns on the surface. The panel can be cut to size easily using scissors or a sharp craft knife, and apertures are also easy to cut. The finished panel should be sprayed with a fixer varnish to provide a scratch-proof finish.

The kit provides a good investment for the home constructor allowing him to make trial p.c.b.s rapidly and economically and to provide his projects with professional quality front panels of which he can be proud.

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It is not very many years since the first scientific electronic calculators were introduced. In their speed, they rivalled the slide-rule, and had the advantage of positioning their own decimal point! In accuracy, they were equal to a set of mathematical tables. Thus they combined the best features of both, though functions were generally limited to $\log , \sin , \cos$, tan and their inverses. Prices of such instruments were pretty frightening-well in excess of £50, which was still quite a lot of money in those days.

Advances in the technology of design and manufacture of large scale integrated circuits soon meant that prices began to tumble, and all the while more functions appeared. Reciprocals, powers and roots, constants, conversions and statistics chased each other into the specifications, while memories and multiple sets of brackets added ease and power to calculations. Algebraic entry (this simply means that a problem is keyed into the calculator just as it would be written down on paper) became almost universal, though an alternative method known as Reverse Polish Notation still has its devotees. It was not long before a machine offering some thirty functions could be purchased for under £30.

The advantages of a calculator with functions such as those listed above were fairly obvious to anyone involved in any branch of engineering, though probably many that were bought were used mainly for the four basic arithmetic functions-for adding up bills, checking bank statements and the like. But there had appeared on the scene programmable calculators, some at prices around $£ 200$. Their advantages were not so obvious then, nor are they today for many people, other than those versed in computers. Prices have plummetted yet again, and this month we offer PW readers a scientific programmable calculator for just £26-95.

So, what is a programmable calculator, and what can it do? For those who are frightened off just by the word "program" (which simply means a series of instructions to be followed), it may be reassuring to realise that all calculators make use of programs, even if you're just asking them to add one and one! Far more complicated programs are needed in a scientific calculator, for instance to produce the square root of a number, or the sine of an angle. These programs are worked out by the designer
and come into operation when you press the appropriate button. They are preset and cannot be altered by the user. When we talk about a programmable calculator, we mean that the user has got control over the series of instructions that will be followed by it.
The instruction program is entered by the user as a sequence of key strokes. These are remembered by the calculator for later operation, and can be used over and over again. This is a particular advantage where you want to repeat a calculation with several different sets of data. Obviously, you could key in the instructions afresh with each set of data; this is what you are doing when performing chain calculations on a conventional calculator. The advantage of programming over manual operation is that the instructions have to be entered just once, taking less time and reducing the likelihood of error. All that is then necessary is to enter each new set of data into the appropriate memories, press the "RUN" key and the calculator will do the rest.
A programmable calculator can be used in an even more powerful way, to solve problems which would be impractical on a manual calculator. By means of a repetitive loop, a particular sequence of operations can be repeated as many times as required at the touch of one key. It is also possible to program a decision (called a conditional branch) whereby the calculator can be told to do different things according to the outcome of a previous calculation. Many programs can of course be shortened and speeded up by using standard pre-programmed functions within the program.

Typical applications for a programmable calculator include:

```
    Solving quadratic equations
    - Complex arithmetic
    - Matrices and determinants
    - Vector problems
    Differential equations
    - Co-ordinate geometry
    - Statistical analysis
    - Probability calculations
    - Series
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涫 Burley $\frac{1 . c}{}$ W.S.POEL

## Introduction

## Introduction

Just as most aspects of electronics have advanced mercilessly over the past five years, leaving a trail of prematurely redundant devices and systems in their wake, so the humble p.s.u. has recently received a jolt with the introduction of the L200 current and voltage regulator from SGS ATES. The L200 is supplied primarily in their versatile pentawatt packagealthough a TO8 can is provided for some applications. The specifications are, however, the same except that the pentawatt package apparently has a better junction/case thermal gradient.

## The Regulator Unit

This device provides adjustable voltages from $2 \cdot 85$ to 36 volts, and variable current from 0 to 3 amps , when the input/output voltage differential permits. The regulator includes thermal and safe area of operation (SOA) protection that makes it virtually blowout proof (the actual maximum current being determined by the case temperature), shown in Fig. 4. The L200 does away with many of the past standards of the electronics industry by providing a five-pin regulator that can replace the 723 and "pass" transistor combination, and many of the more complicated discrete approaches that still manage to find their way into modern designs. The 7800 and LM340 series of regulators are still suitable for strictly fixed voltage applications, but the L200's versatility will certainly be favoured in many applications.

## The Circuit

The applications circuit of the L200 as a variable current, variable voltage p.s.u. is quite straightforward, and makes some more costly p.s.u. regulator modules look embarrassingly overweight. Precautions are taken in the construction of the unit to eliminate as much r.f. interference as possible.

A mains filter is used, and since this also incorporates an IEC connector, the mains input lead is taken care of at the same time. Such a filter may seem unnecessary to some constructors, but the

## specification of prototype

## specification of prototype

Output voltage 2.8 to 30 V continuously adjustable Output current-see SOA graph
Output regulation $0.1 \%$ at 1.5 A
Output Impedance $1.5 \times 10^{-3}$ in SOA operation Output noise voltage $80 \mu \mathrm{~V}$ at 1 MHz (may be reduced by 55 dB with GA1A5) Typically below measurement floorona spectrum analyser sweeping d.c. to 100 MHz
average level of noise pollution on the 240 V mains is quite sufficient to get "through the works" and cause trouble on sensitive r.f. equipment. These units attenuate everything above 400 kHz by over 50 dB , making their inclusion a useful feature in quite a few mains-operated units.

Further r.f. decoupling precautions are taken close around the L200 itself, since despite its unassuming appearance, deliberate attempts to excite it into misbehaviour produced a very passable 20W topband transmitter. All that was necessary was to misdirect some of the decoupling slightly-so that a simple positive feedback loop existed, For users with a requirement for a very pure output, a second filter may be used-the GAlA5 ( 5 amp ) provides a further reduction 55 dB above 500 kHz and also keeps r.f. out of the p.s.u. itself. A 5 amp filter provides surge suppression, and the use of the p.s.u. in connection with r.f. transmitter work should automatically include the second filter at the output terminations.

## Setting Meters for F.S.O.

The metering circuits are straightforward enoughexcept to mention that these employ the Ambit "Meter Made 930" series, where the same basic blank meter is used with the scale selected and fitted by the user to suit the application in hand. The meters come with details of shunt and multiplier design, and in this context the calculations are as follows: meter type $930,200 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ f.s.d. unit resistance 750 ohms. To

provide a 30 V f.s.d., then according to Ohm's Law $30=\left(200 \times 10^{-6}\right)(\mathrm{R}+750)$ where " R " is the value of multiplier required reducing to $\mathrm{R}=150 \mathrm{k}-750$ ohms. To permit accurate trimming of the f.s.d. a 68 k and 47 k are used in series with a 50 k preset-the trimmer is then adjusted in conjunction with a known reference meter.

To provide a 2 amp f.s.d. for the current meter, ( $200 \times 10^{-6}$ ) $750=2 \times \mathrm{R}$ (the $200 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ is insignificant in $2 \mathrm{amps}) \mathrm{R}=0.075 \mathrm{ohms}$. This is not the sort of value that grows on trees-and so it must be made. The easiest way is to wind a non-inductive resistor using ordinary cored flex ( $7 \times 0.2 \mathrm{~mm}$ ). 70 cm of a typical RS type was found to be the right value-and by over-cutting it, then trimming back, the exact value can readily be found using the reference multimeter as before.

## Bang!

Note the protection diode placed across the output. The only way so far discovered to blow the L200 is to connect a fully charged $1000 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ (or greater) capacitor the wrong way across the output pins. When working on equipment, it is going to be quite likely that this can occur if the circuit is momentarily connected in reverse. Be careful about this point, regardless of the protection afforded by the diode.

## Construction

The case used is chosen from the Swift series by West Hyde developments. It is a costly approach, but since poor presentation nearly always lets down the home constructed equipment-it is well worth the expense. The rear panel makes an ideal heatsink for the L200, and by virtue of the construction of the case, it is also the best location for the transformer and all the mains connectors and fuse circuit components. The voltage setting potentiometer is a multi-


An internal view, showing the location of the major components
turn unit-again this may be substituted by a cheaper component with a loss of setting resolution. The current limit potentiometer must be a reasonable quality wire-wound unit. The current carrying output and input wires on the L200 should be reasonably sturdy to provide as little resistance as possible.

The bridge rectifier and reservoir capacitor are fixed to the base plate with double-sided adhesive tape. The prototype bears one or two scars of misplaced holes, but a brief experiment with the tape revealed that it was more than sufficient for the purpose and so nuts and bolts were omitted. In this way, holes and protrusions from the underside are avoided.
The mains transformer can be a straightforward 240 V primary, and 24 V (12-0-12 in series) secondary. The 930 series meters have internal 12 V illumination which is run from the raw a.c. side of the secondary (in series).


Fig. 2: (above) Copper track layout of the $\mathbf{L 2 0 0}$ connection p.c.b. (shown full size) and Fig. 3: (below) The component layout

## Regulation

The current is regulated according to the value of the current regulator potentiometer where Iout max $=\frac{0.6}{\mathrm{VR1}}$. The current limiting is of a foldback natureso simply short-circuiting the output will not necessarily give an accurate idea of the maximum current available at high voltage. The same effect can be seen when connecting the p.s.u. to an uncharged capacitor, where the voltage at the output falls momentarily to zero, since this may instantaneously cause the Vin/Vout to trip the SOA protection circuit, effectively latching up the whole works.

The "on" current surge of filament lamps will create the same effect again, so keep the d.c. input voltage to below the switch-off point on the SOA graph of around $34 \mathrm{~V} . \mathrm{C} 5$ is used in the circuit to supply a clean reference for the error amplifier-a ten-turn wire wound control will produce a "whirring" effect in the output voltage when spun, if this is not included.

The d.c. output is terminated without direct connection to earth, permitting either positive or negative chassis operation. A series-connected switch is included at the output terminals to isolate the sup-
plied equipment when setting up. The chassis must be at mains earth for the purposes of supply filtering, and in a situation where the transformer is not of the preferred split/isolated bobbin type, it is necessary to provide primary/secondary breakdown fusing.

## $\star$ components




Fig. 4: Graph showing L200's current/voltage link with safe area of operation (SOA)

## Using the Unit

The p.s.u.can be used to provide up to 3 amps (with an appropriately rated transformer) according to the limits of Fig. 4. If you have a specific need for high current, low voltage work, then use a transformer to give a lower d.c. unregulated voltagekeeping the Vin/Vout differential across the L200 to the range below 18 V where most current is available. The maximum regulated output voltage will be approx. 2 V less than the d.c. input voltage to the regulator-and in high current applications, depending on the transformer regulation, this may be increased to 5 or 6 volts at maximum output.

The unit may also be used for charging Ni-Cad batteries, etc. Set voltage to maximum (fully charged) required voltage, and attach the battery, slowly bringing up to the permissable level.

# Introduction to S.A.MONEY 

So far we have seen that flip-flops can be used as latches, or as shift registers for converting data between serial and parallel formats. Flip-flops can be, and often are, applied to other useful activities, such as those of counting and frequency division. We shall now investigate these applications of the flip-flop.

## Frequency Dividers

When we examined the JK type flip-flop it was noted that an interesting action occurred if both the J and K inputs were held at 1 . Under these conditions the $Q$ output simply changes state each time a clock pulse is applied. If the clock input is a square wave with equal half cycles at the 1 and 0 levels the resultant waveforms for clock input and Q output will be as shown in Fig. 42. Now the output waveform has the same shape as the clock signal but it has exactly half the frequency. We have produced a nice little circuit which will divide frequency by two.
You don't have to use a JK fip-flop to produce a divide-by-two circuit however, because a D flip-flop can also be connected to perform the same action. This is done by connecting the $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ output back to the D input as shown in Fig. 43. Now when a clock pulse is applied, the $\bar{Q}$ output will take up the state previously held by the $\bar{Q}$ output. In other words the $\mathbf{Q}$ output changes state in the same way as it did with the JK flip-flop. We now have another version of the divide-by-two circuit.
Suppose we connect several divide-by-two stages in cascade as shown in Fig. 44. Here the $\overline{\bar{Q}}$ output from each stage is used as the clock drive for the



Fig. 44: A 4-stage binary divider


Fig. 45 : Normal counter waveforms
following stage. At the output of the first stage the frequency is half that of the clock input. At the second stage the frequency will be a quarter of the clock frequency and so on. For four stages we could produce half, quarter, one eighth and one sixteenth of the input frequency (Fig. 45).

If the $Q$ output of each stage were used for the clock of the next stage we should still get the frequency division but each frequency would be in phase with the others. This is shown in Fig. 46.

This technique of frequency division is in fact used for quartz analogue watches. In this type of watch a tiny electric motor drives the hands and is pulsed at a rate of one pulse per second. For accurate timekeeping a quartz crystal oscillator is used to produce the pulses. Such an oscillator is not really practical at one cycle per second so the primary oscillator may run at a much higher rate and the frequency is divided down to produce one pulse a second for driving the hands of the watch.

Often the crystal frequency will be $32 \cdot 768 \mathrm{kHz}$ which when divided by two a total of fifteen times produces a frequency of one hertz. So the crystal oscillator will be fed through a chain of fifteen divide-by-two circuits to produce the required output signal.


Fig. 46: Waveforms where $Q$ is used as clock drive
Sometimes the crystal may operate at even higher frequencies, such as 2.0968 MHz in which case a 21 stage frequency division chain might be used to produce the one hertz output. The same type of divider chain is also used for the initial frequency division in a digital watch or clock running from a crystal.

Normally in our everyday lives we use the decimal system of numbers. Here each of the digits of the number is allocated a weight value so that we have units, tens, hundreds, thousands and so on. If we take the number 103 as an example it can be broken down as follows:

$$
(1 \times 100)+(0 \times 10)+(3 \times 1)=103
$$

Numbers can also be represented by using a binary system. Here the digits can have only the value 1 or 0 and the weights allocated to each digit will be units, twos, fours, eights, sixteens and so on. Let us now see what our decimal number 103 looks like in its binary form. It will in fact be 1100111 which can be analysed as;

$$
(1 \times 64)+(1 \times 32)+(0 \times 16)+(0 \times 8)+(1 \times 4)+(1 \times 2)
$$

$$
+(1 \times 1)=103
$$

Why do we need to know about binary numbers? Well our logic system uses the binary states 1 and 0 so it is convenient to represent numbers in binary form. Each of the digits has a weight which is twice that of the next digit. Now we can, as we have just seen, divide frequency or numbers of pulses by two quite readily, and this lends itself to the production of counter systems which present the answer as a binary number.

## Binary Counters

Suppose we have a chain of four divide-by-two stages as shown in Fig. 44 and that we start off by having all four stages set at 0 . As clock pulses are applied at the input the four stages will go through the sequence of logic conditions shown in Table 9.

From this sequence of logic states we can see that after each clock pulse the pattern of 1 s and 0 s stored in the four flip-flops represents the binary number of clock pulses that have been applied. Here the state of flip-flop FF1 represents the units digit whilst FF2, FF3 and FF4 give the twos, fours and eights of the binary number.

Let us see how such a counter might be used. Suppose we have a production line making radio sets and we arrange that as the sets leave the line they pass through a light beam falling on a photocell. Each time a set passes the photocell a pulse will be produced and this can be fed as the clock input to the first stage of a binary counter chain. At the beginning of the day the counter can be set at zero and
when production stops at the end of the day a binary number will be stored in the flip-flops making up the counter. This binary number represents the total number of sets that have been produced during the day.

If we wanted to count the number of pulses occurring in a second in some electronic circuit a similar approach might be used. Here an input gate is needed to control the application of the pulses at the clock input. The gate is opened for a period of exactly one second allowing pulses to reach the counter and be counted. Assuming that all of the stages of the counter were set at zero before the gate is opened then at the end of one second the gate will stop the incoming pulses and the counter will show the number that occurred in the last second whilst the gate was open. The gate timing might also be derived from a counter chain driven by a crystal oscillator as shown in Fig. 47.

## BCD Counters

So far we can divide frequencies and count pulses using the binary system and the answers might be displayed on a series of lamps as a pattern of 1 s and 0s forming the binary number. Unfortunately, human operators are used to seeing numbers in their decimal form and will generally be confused by patterns of Is and 0 s forming binary numbers. What we need is some scheme where we can use binary logic to perform the counting process but where the display is presented in the more familiar decimal form.


Fig. 47: A gated counter system

Table 9

| Clock Pulse | Logic State |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | FF4 | FF3 | FF2 | FF1 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 2 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 4 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 6 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 7 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| 8 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 9 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 10 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 11 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 12 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 |
| 13 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 14 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 |
| 15 | 1 | 1 | 1 | , |

Converting pure binary numbers into decimal numbers is a rather complex process but it is possible to code our decimal numbers into a binary form so that they can be processed by logic. A 4-digit binary number can, as we have seen represent the numbers from 0 up to 15. To avoid confusion between binary and decimal digits let us introduce a new term. The binary digit is usually called a Bit so we can now say that a decimal digit may be represented by a 4-bit binary number. If we apply this scheme to our number 103 it will become;

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
0001 & 0000 & 0011 \\
1 & 0 & 3
\end{array}
$$

This method of writing numbers is called Binary Coded Decimal (BCD) and has the advantage that it is relatively easy to convert to and from real decimal numbers whilst giving a binary form of number which can be handled by logic systems.

So let us see how we might build a counter system using this Binary Coded Decimal numbering scheme. For the units digit of the decimal number we can use a 4 -stage binary counter. Starting off with all stages set at 0 the clock pulses will cause the 4 -bit binary pattern from the counter to step through the numbers 1 to 9 . On the tenth clock pulse we must arrange that the pattern returns to zero and a clock pulse must be produced to drive the tens decade of the counter chain. The return to zero after the ninth clock pulse is achieved by using a gate to detect the pattern for 10 and using its output to reset the four counter stages. This is shown in Fig. 48.
For the tens decade a second group of four divide-by-two counters with a reset gate is used and this pattern is repeated for the hundreds, thousands and so on. Thus there will be a 4-bit binary pattern from the counter for each decade of the decimal count.

In the reset gate only two inputs are used. Looking at the table of logic states in Table 9 it will be seen that only at the count of 10 will both the " 2 " and " 8 " bits of the binary number be at 1 together. The other two bits of the pattern do not matter since they are only effective for counts above ten and we are going to reset the counter at ten anyway. When bits " 2 " and " 8 " go to 1 the output of the NAND gate falls to 0 and this is applied to the reset lines of all four stages to force them into the 0 state. Here a TTL type counter has been assumed. If the counter requires a 1 input to the reset line to produce the reset action the gate would be replaced by an AND type.
As the counter resets at the tenth clock pulse the $\bar{Q}$ output will go from 0 to 1 and this transition can be used as the clock pulse drive for the next decade counter.


HDOS2
Fig. 48: A decade counter


Fig. 49 : Principle of a decimal decoder
Because decade counters are regularly-used devices it is common to find a complete decade counter with its reset gate built into a single package. Typical of these is the 7490 in TTL which provides one decade of a BCD-type counter chain. The 7493 contains just the four divide-by-two stages and can be used as a simple 4-bit binary counter. In CMOS similar functions are found in 4518 (BCD) and 4520 (binary) counters except that there is a pair of decade counters or binary counters in the single package.

## Display Decoders

Having produced a decimal count and obtained the binary pattern for each decimal digit the next problem is that of displaying the answers. One solution is to use each bit output to light a lamp and read off the binary pattern of $1 s$ and 0 s from the array of lamps, but this is not very attractive.

By using a series of gates we can select out each of the binary combinations from 0 to 9 . In Fig. 49 we show how this is done for the first few digits. The basic scheme is to use a 4 -input AND gate to detect the pattern. Where the bit should be a 0 the input to the AND gate is inverted so that when the desired pattern occurs all of the inputs to the AND gate go to 1 and the gate gives a 1 output. Now as the output from the counter stages is stepped through from 0 to 9 each gate will produce a $l$ output in turn as its particular count pattern occurs.

A simple display scheme is to have a bank of ten lamps, numbered 0 to 9 , for each decade. Now the answer can be read off by simply noting which lamp is lit in each decade to give the hundreds, tens and units of the result. In TTL the 7442 provide this one-from-ten decoding system in a single chip. The 4-bit outputs from the counter are fed to the 7442 and one of its ten outputs will go to 0 according to the binary pattern at the input.

A more convenient display system makes use of Nixie-type display tubes. These consist basically of a neon lamp which has a common anode and ten separate cathodes. Each cathode is formed in the shape of one of the numbers from 0 to 9 . With a suitable supply to the anode, if one of the cathodes is taken to 0 volts a discharge will strike between it and the anode. The glow will be in the shape of the symbol formed by the cathode selected.


Fig. 50: A typical counter with Nixie displays
The Nixie tube can be driven by a special logic decoder such as the 74141 in TTL which carries out a one-from-ten selection and provides the appropriate drive for the cathodes of a Nixie tube. The system for a 3 -decade BCD counter system and display might now be as shown in Fig. 50.

## Seven-Segment Displays

Although Nixie tubes are still used for displays a more popular technique today is to use a light emitting diode or liquid crystal display. In this type of display the numbers are formed by selectively lighting up seven bar segments as shown in Fig. 51 and the resultant number shapes will be as shown in Fig. 52.
The segments of the display are switched in much the same way as the cathodes of a Nixie tube but a rather more complex decoder is required. This consists basically of a one-of-ten decoder to select the numbers to be displayed and each output of this drives a further set of gates to select the pattern of segments needed to display that number. Typical de-

Fig. 51 : Seven segment display layout

Fig. 52: Seven-segment number patterns


HD056
vices of this type are the 7447 in TTL and the 4511 in CMOS. In some 7 -segment l.e.d. displays the anodes are separate with a common cathode, and for these a 7448 decoder might be used.

Sometimes for multi-digit displays a single 7 -segment decoder is multiplexed to feed all of the displays. The general idea of such a scheme is shown in Fig. 53. The segments of all of the displays are fed in parallel from a 7 -wire bus driven by the 7 segment decoder. At the input to the decoder the 4-bit pattern for each decade of the counter chain is switched in sequence and at the same time the anode voltage to the appropriate display is also switched on so that only the selected display digit will light. The displays are now continuously scanned at a rate fast enough that persistence of vision will eliminate flicker as the displays flash on and off. This type of display scheme is often used on the large scale integrated circuits since it reduces the number of pins needed on the package in order to drive a bank of displays. A similar scheme can be used equally effectively with the Nixie tube type of display.
Often in such devices as digital clock circuits or multi-stage counters in one integrated circuit the display decoding, multiplexing and drive circuits are built into the chip giving only the seven cathode outputs and the anode outputs to the display system.

## Digital Clocks

Having produced decade counters and displays we now have the basic ingredients for a digital clock. However, we do need one more type of counter which will divide by six. This can be achieved in much the same way as a decade count but in this case the reset gate is arranged to respond to the binary pattern for six instead of ten. So for the seconds


Fig. 53 Principle of a multiplexed display system


Fig. 54: A seconds counter system
section of the clock the system might be as shown in Fig. 54. Here the seconds are counted off by using a 4-bit decade counter whilst for the tens of seconds a 3-bit counter is used since it will only count up to five and then will be reset to zero on the sixth count. The 8 -bit input to the tens of seconds display driver is permanently set at 0 to produce the correct display. A pulse is taken from the tens of seconds counter each time it resets to 0 and this pulse is used to clock the minutes stage of the clock.

The overall system for a digital clock would be as shown in Fig. 55. In the hours stages, assuming a 24-hour system, both the tens of hours and hours must be set to zero when their combined count reaches 24. This is done by gating the " 2 " bit from tens of hours and the " 4 " bit from hours into an AND gate and using its output to reset both counters. For a 12 -hour clock system a similar scheme is used, but this time it is arranged to reset the hours counters when the total count reaches 12 instead of 24 .

Most digital clock and watch systems use special large scale integrated circuits to carry out the counting, decoding and display drive functions. In some cases these circuits may also include further counters for day, month and year to provide an automatic calendar as well as time.

## Identity Gates

Suppose we want to build an alarm clock. How can the alarm be organised? Basically the scheme is to compare the binary pattern representing the alarm time code with the count pattern coming from the clock counter chain. When the two patterns are identical a flip-flop can be triggered. This flip-flop will then control the alarm circuit itself. The alarm code may be selected by a multiway switch or it may be entered into a bank of flip-flops in the clock system.

To compare two binary numbers for identity we can use a set of EXCLUSIVE OR gates as shown in Fig. 56. In the EXCLUSIVE OR gate you will recall that if both of the inputs are at 1 or both are at 0 the gate output will be 0 . In an identity gate one bit from one of the numbers to be compared is fed to one input of the gate, whilst the other input is fed by the corresponding bit in the second number. This is done for all of the bits in the numbers to be compared, one EXCLUSIVE OR gate being used for each bit in the numbers. When the two numbers are identical all of the outputs of the EXCLUSIVE OR gates will be at 0 . These signals can now be inverted and gated together in an AND gate to produce a single output which will be 1 when the input numbers are identical and 0 when there is a mismatch. For an alarm system the output of the AND gate is used to set a flip-flop which then operates the alarm device.

This technique of comparing two binary or BCD numbers may be used in other applications where identity between a pair of numbers is to be detected.

## Synchronous Counters

In the counters we have considered so far each stage produces the clock pulse for the following stage in the chain. Because of propagation delays in each stage the clock pulse to the next stage will be delayed slightly. Suppose we have a 3 -stage binary counter set at 111 and apply a clock pulse. In theory the counter should switch to the 000 state immediately but in practice the sequence of logic states shown in Fig. 57 will occur. Here the delays have been exaggerated to show the effect more clearly. The stages switch one after another to give a rippling action and for this reason this type of counter is usually referred to as a "ripple-through" counter.

Problems can arise when gates are used with ripplethrough counter chains to detect a particular count state. In Fig. 57 it is seen that the states 110 and 100 appear briefly at the output of the counter and any gates set to respond to these patterns may be activated. As a result a short pulse, usually referred to as a "glitch", may appear at the output of these gates. This can cause havoc in a logic system by mistriggering of other logic circuits by the glitch pulses.


Fig. 55: A typical digital clock counter


Fig. 56 : An Identity gate


To overcome the problem of glitches caused by ripple-through counters an alternative type of circuit known as a synchronous counter may be used.
In the synchronous counter a master-slave flip-flop is used for each divide-by-two stage. Now the input clock is applied to all stages simultaneously and hence output logic states tend to change synchronously for all stages, thus reducing the problems of glitches in selector gates operating from the counter.
Most synchronous counters come as 4 -bit units and may be designed for either pure binary or decade counters. Typical devices are the 74160 and 74162 decade counters and the 74161 or 74163 binary counters in TTL. In the CMOS range the 4518 and 4520 provide dual decade or dual 4 -bit binary counters.

## Up/Down Counters

Sometimes instead of counting upwards we may wish to count downwards, say from 9 down to 0 . In a simple binary counter this is easily achieved by inverting the output signals from the counter stages. This effect is shown in Table 10 where the binary
counts and their decimal equivalents are shown for both the normal and inverted outputs of the counter stages.
An alternative approach is to take the clock drive for each stage from the $Q$ output of the preceding stage instead of from its $\overline{\mathbb{Q}}$ output. Now assuming we start with say the count state 000 when the clock pulse is applied the first stage will set to 1 . This will in turn clock the other stages to 1 to end up with the count 111 which gives a count of 7 after the 0 count. On the next clock pulse the count will reduce to 6 and so on. You can work through these states to check that the count decreases for each clock pulse.

For a decade counter things are a little more complex. Now after the counter reaches 0 its next count is to 15 (1111). This must be detected by the reset gate and then the counter must be forced into the 9 state to produce the correct count sequence.

Fortunately Up/Down counter devices are available as single integrated circuits with the required control logic built in. Sometimes a control line determines whether the counter will count forwards or backwards. In TTL the 74190 (decade) and 74191 (binary) counters use this technique. Alternatively two separate clock inputs may be used, with one for up counting and another for down counting. This is the case for the 74192 (decade) and 74193 (binary) types.

## Presettable Counters

Many of the integrated circuit counter devices have facilities for direct parallel loading of data to force the counter into a desired count state. This can be of use where a variable time delay is required such as in a darkroom timer. The technique is to preset the counter to the desired number of seconds and then to count down until the zero count is detected. At this point the alarm or other circuit may be triggered. For other count times the value preset into the counter is altered but the reset detection gate remains set for the zero state. This count down to zero technique may be used for any application where a variable number of pulses must be counted, before another circuit is triggered.

## TO BE CONTINUED

Table 10

| "8" | $\text { " } 4 \text { " }$ | " 2 " |  | '1" | $\begin{gathered} \text { Decimal } \\ \text { Digit } \end{gathered}$ | " 8 " | "4") |  | '1" | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Decimal } \\ & \text { Digit } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | - | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | , | 15 |
| 0 | 0 | 0 |  | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 14 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 |  | 0 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 13 |
| 0 | 0 | 1 |  | 1 | 3 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 12 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 |  | 0 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 11 |
| 0 | 1 | 0 |  | 1 | 5 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 10 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 |  | 0 | 6 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 9 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 |  | 1 | 7 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 8 |
| , 1 | 0 | 0 |  | 0 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 1 | 7 |
| ${ }^{*} 1$ | 0 | 0 |  | 1 | 9 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 6 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |  | 0 | 10 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 5 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |  | 1 | 11 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 4 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 |  | 0 | 12 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 3 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 |  | 1 | 13 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | , |
| 1 | 1 | 1 |  | 0 | 14 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 1 | , | 1 |  | 1 | 15 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

## Slot Car Brake Lights



AD219

This simple, but effective, circuit adds working brake lights to slot racing cars. The brake lights are out when the car is accelerating or running at constant speed, but come on as the car slows down.

The circuit is shown in Fig. 1. When the motor is drawing current, diode D1 is forward biased, and LED1 and LED2 are both off. If power is removed the motor acts as a generator and current flows through LED1 and LED2, R1 and R2. The two l.e.d.s light and stay lit until the car is almost stationary. Capacitor C1 stops the l.e.d.s flashing as the car passes over dirty track, and prevents them lighting on the troughs in the normally unsmoothed supply. Diode D2 protects capacitor C1 from reversed supply. This diode will short the supply, but slot racing supplies are protected by a current limit or cut-out. Diode D1 introduces a 1 volt drop to the motor, but this has not been found deleterious in normal home sessions. It might make a small difference in a serious slot car competition but could probably be compensated for in the motor design. The weight of the components might be advantageous if correctly positioned inside the car.

Although the circuit has been shown driven from a positive supply, reversal of all polarity sensitive components will allow operation from a negative supply. The l.e.d.s can, of course, be replaced by other suitable indicators. The unit can be built on a small piece of $0 \cdot 1$ in Veroboard, but the components could be positioned anywhere convenient inside the model car if space is at a premium.

The circuit has been tried on Revell and the more powerful of the Scalextric range of cars, but some experimentation with the value of $\mathbf{R 2}$ might be necessary in individual cases.


Fig. 1

## * components

```
Resistors
        +W 5%
        R1 47\Omega
        R2 220n
        Capacitor
        C1 }250\mu\textrm{F}25\textrm{V}\mathrm{ electrolytic
        Diodes
        D1,2 1N5401
        LED1, 2 Any suitable l.e.d. (TIL209)
```


## Porch Light Timer

This simple timer was originally designed for the purpose of switching on an outside light for about five minutes by simply pressing a bell-push once. It was connected in parallel with the original light switch and does not affect its normal function, but, by providing a means of running the light for only a specified period it has proved to be most convenient for getting the car out during hours of darkness.

The five minutes of illumination given by the timer has proved to be adequate to cover removal of the car from the garage and the embarkation of the family in the driveway.

The timer could also be used as a delayed "on" switch, so that, for instance, a car alarm could be made to switch on after five minutes delay allowing the motorist ample time to alight, close doors etc., and eliminating the need to drill the
car body for the mounting of an external key-switch. The circuit is convenient in that it uses the popular NE555 i.c. It is also adaptable in that by varying the values of two components the delay can be adjusted to anything from a few milliseconds to an hour.
A bell-push is connected across SK1 (see Fig. 1) so that a press on the button supplies power to the timer circuit from the 9 volt supply. At this stage, capacitor C1 is discharged, making a short circuit between pin 6 of the i.c. and 0 volts. This causes pin 3 of the i.c. to rise to the supply voltage, energising the relay and shorting out the push button. At the same time, it causes capacitor C1 to charge up via resistor R1 until pin 6 of the i.c. reaches two-thirds of the supply voltage, when the i.c. drops the output at pin 3 back to 0 volts. This switches off the relay and in turn the power supply to the timer circuit. Capacitor C1 then discharges itself via R1 and the relay coil so that the timer is ready for the next cycle of operation.

In this application, the timer is used to hold the mains contacts on the relay closed for the specified period, but It is of course a simple matter to reverse the action of the timer by using a relay having contacts which are normally closed.
In the prototype, a $700 \Omega$ relay was used, but any type which will operate comfortably on 9 volts is satisfactory provided that its resistance is not below about 180 2 , otherwise the i.c. will be damaged. With a $700 \Omega$ relay the current drain from the battery is only about 9 mA , so a small capacity 9 volt battery will last for some hundreds of operations. A mains power supply could be used quite easily providing the output was well smoothed and between 5 and 15 volts d.c., but the prototype uses a PP9 battery which has been in use for about a year and shows no sign of needing renewal.
The circuit was constructed on a piece of printed circuit board as shown in Fig. 2, but 0.1 in Vercboard could easily be used as an alternative. The circuit board and battery are mounted rigidly in a suitable box, with a 4 -way terminal
block mounted on the outside of the box for SK1 and SK2. If the box is made of metal and the device is to be used for mains switching, the box should be properly earthed and the relay contacts suitably insulated from the casing.

An i.c. socket should be used so as to avoid the risk of damaging the NE555 by overheating.


Fig. 1


## components

## Resistor <br> R1 $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega \frac{1}{4} \mathrm{~W}$

Capacitor
C1 $\quad 500 \mu \mathrm{~F} 15 \mathrm{~V}$ electrolytic
Semiconductor
IC1 NE555 timer
Relay
RLA 2-pole changeover, $185 \Omega$ coil, R.S. type 348-908

## Miscellaneous

Bell push, PP9 battery and clips, 4-way terminal block rated 2A, p.c.b. approx. $25 \times 65 \mathrm{~mm}$, suitable case.


Fig. 2

## STD Charge Timer

Most telephone calls within Britain are made using subscriber trunk dialling (s.t.d.) these days, and this system is faster and more convenient than its predecessor. One problem with this system is that it can be difficult to calculate the cost of a call.
STD calls are charged in units which have a uniform cost (3p at the time of writing) regardless of the distance over which the call is made. However, the length of time which constitutes one unit does vary with the distance of the call, and there are three main categories; ' $L$ ' or local area, ' $A$ ' which is for calls up to 56 km , and ' $B$ ' for calls over 56 km . The time allowed per unit also depends on the time of day, with three categories; peak rate, standard rate, and cheap rate. Detailed information on this can be found in the telephone directory or dialling code booklet.

In order to calculate the cost of a call it is necessary to check the applicable time per unit, time the call, and then calculate the number of units used (parts units being charged as whole units). The charge timer simplifies the procedure slightly. Having looked up the time per unit for the call, a switch on the timer is set to the corresponding position. Then when the number has been dialed and the call answered, the timer is switched on, displaying digitally the number of units used.
The timer is especially useful where a telephone is used by à number of people as it enables each person to keep an accurate account of their share of the phone bill. It can also be very useful when making calls at the higher charge rates. A unit can be as short as 10 seconds, and losing track of the time when making such a call can prove very expensive. Using the timer avoids this possibility.

## The Circuit

On the face of it the circuit merely needs to consist of a simple $C-R$ oscillator of some form to provide the clock signal, and a straightforward two digit counter circuit. There are a couple of complications though.
The clock frequency is very low, being between a few seconds and a few minutes per cycle. In order to generate this kind of frequency with a C-R oscillator it is necessary to use high valve components in the timing network, and this necessitates the use of an electrolytic capacitor. Unfortunately, electrolytics tend to have comparatively high leakage resistances and do not always work well in this type of circuit. Another problem with many C-R oscillators is that the first output cycle is longer than subsequent cycles (this is the case with the NE555 for example).
The second complication is that subscribers are charged the full rate for any part units that are used. Therefore, the counter must start at one rather than zero, since one unit is charged as soon as the phone is answered.

## components

| Resistors |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |
| $330 \Omega$ | R2 | 4.7 | 1 | R4 |
| $390 \Omega$ | R6 | $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | 1 | R5 |
| $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R1 | 18k $\Omega$ | 1 | R8 |
| $2 \cdot 2 \mathrm{~K} \Omega$ | R3 | 27k $\Omega$ | 1 | R9 |
| + W 2\% |  |  |  |  |
| $56 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | R10 | 220k $\Omega$ | 1 | R13 |
| 82k $\Omega$ | R11 | $330 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ | 1 | R14 |
| 110k $\Omega$ | R12 | 1.2M $\Omega$ | 1 | R15 |
| Sub-min. horiz. preset |  |  |  |  |
| $220 \mathrm{k} \Omega 1$ | R7 |  |  |  |
| Capacitors |  |  |  |  |
| Ceramic plate 1.5 F |  |  |  |  |
| $1 \cdot 5 n \mathrm{~F} \quad 1$ | C1 |  |  |  |
| Polyester 250 V |  |  |  |  |
| $0 \cdot 1 \mu \mathrm{~F} \quad 3$ | C3, 4, 5 | 47nF | 1 | C2 |
| Polycarbonate 5\% |  |  |  |  |
| $0 \cdot 1 \mu \mathrm{~F} \quad 1$ | C6 |  |  |  |
| Semiconductors |  |  |  |  |
| Transistor |  |  |  |  |
| BC109 1 | Tr1 |  |  |  |
| Integrated Circuits |  |  |  |  |
| CD4026AE 1 IC2 |  |  |  |  |
| CD4033AE 1 IC1 |  |  |  |  |
| ZN1034E 1 IC3 |  |  |  |  |
| 7-segment l.e.d. displays |  |  |  |  |
| FND500 2 Display 1, 2 |  |  |  |  |
| Switches |  |  |  |  |
| 1p. 12w. 1 S1 (adjustable end-stop) |  |  |  |  |
| s.p.s.t. 1 S2 (sub-min, toggle) |  |  |  |  |
| Miscellaneous |  |  |  |  |
| Plastics case $150 \times 80 \times 50 \mathrm{~mm}$ (Verobox 65-2520J or similar). Printed circuit board. PP3 battery and connector. Red Perspex or display filter material. IC sockets ( 2 off 16 -pin d.i.l., 1 off 14 -pin d.i..I.). Control knob. |  |  |  |  |

Fig. 1 shows the complete circuit diagram of the call charge timer. The clock signal is generated by a $2 N 1034 \mathrm{E}$ precision long timer i.c. consisting basically of a high quality $\mathbf{C - R}$ oscillator feeding a twelve stage binary divider circuit. The oscillator thus operates at over 4,000 times the output frequency, and the necessary low output fre-
quencles can be generated without using a high value tlming capacitor. C6 is the timing capacitor.

The eight unit times (not nine as standard 'L' and cheap 'a' rates are both 3 mins ), are produced by eight different timing resistors (R8 to R15) with the appropriate resistor being selected using S 1 .

R7 enables the output times to be trimmed to the correct values, although there will be small descrepancies between ranges due to small errors in the timing resistor values. The ZN1034E has an integral 5 volt regulator circuit of the shunt type, and R6 is the load resistor for this. The ZN1034E is actually a monostable, but it is made to perform as an astable by coupling the $\mathbf{Q}$ output to the trigger input via R-C network R5-C5.

The counter circuit consists of two c.m.o.s. decade counters/seven segment display decoders directly driving two low current seven segment l.e.d. displays. No current limiting resistors are needed between the decoders and the displays due to the low output current drive capability of the c.m.o.s. i.c.s. The output current of about 5 mA per segment is a good match for the specified FND500 displays. A 4033 device is used in the IC1 position as this has zero blanking, and will not drive the display until the count reaches ten. This eliminates unnecessary battery drain displaying a superfluous zero.

When switch S2 is initially closed and power is applied to the circuit, C1 and R1 produce a brief positive pulse which resets both counters to zero. Tr1 is used as an inverter, and is fed from the $\overline{\mathbf{Q}}$ output of IC3 by way of current
limiting resistor R4. The $\mathbf{Q}$ output will be at logic 0 at first, and so Tr1 will be cut off. Its collector voltage will therefore rise to the positive supply, rail voltage. It will be delayed slightly by the presence of R2 and C2 in the collector circuit, and so the counters will rest before this positive pulse is applied to the input. The purpose of this pulse is, of course, to make the counter circuit effectively start from one rather than zero.
Each time IC3 reaches the end of a timing period the Q output will briefly go positive and switch on Tr1 until C5 discharges to a sufficient level via R5 to retrigger the timer. Tr1 is then cut off again and a positive pulse is fed to the counter circuit, causing it to be incremented by one.

## Construction

The project is built into a Verobox and most of the components, including the two displays, are mounted on a printed circuit board. Fig. 2 shows both the copper side of the board and Fig. 3 the component layout. IC1 and IC2 are c.m.o.s. devices and normal handling precautions should be taken when dealing with these two devices. The completed panel is mounted on two of the threaded pillars on the base section of the case using long M3 screws. Spacers are used over the mounting screws to raise the panel so that the displays are close to the lid of the case when it is fitted into position. This also provides a space for the battery beneath the circuit board. It is a good idea to fix some self adhesive foam material to the


Fig. 1


Adjustment
Start with the slider or R7 set at about the middle of its track. Set S1 to the ten second position, turn the unit on, and measure the actual time taken between each increment of the display. It will almost certainly be necessary to adjust R7 to obtain the correct clock frequency, clockwise rotation decreasing the length of each clock cycle.
With the clock frequency reasonably accurate on the ten second range, S 1 is switched to one of the longer rainges so that R7 can be adjusted more critically. When
good accuracy is achieved on the longer ranges the unit is ready for use.
It is possible that at some future date it will be necessary to amend some of the times provided by the unit. Assuming C6 is left at 100 nF , the required timing resistance is equal to $1.8 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ per second. Where the calculated value does not coincide with a preferred value, choose the nearest value in the E24 series and use a close tolerance component to minimise the maximun possible error. Alternatively the required value can be made up from two resistors wired in series.


Door Bell Changeover Unit
This circuit was designed to meet the conflicting requirements of a door bell loud enough to be heard when working in the garden, yet not ear-shattering in normal use. The repeater bell operates only on the second operation of the push.

When the bell-push is operated, RLA makes and C1 is charged to supply voltage. At the same time the solenoid of the Ding-Dong bell moves to strike the first note. When the bell-push is released, the solenoid returns, to strike the second note, RLA releases and the charge on C1 is applied to base of Tr1 which conducts and switches Tr2. Tr2 in turn operates RLB, and the trembler bell is then in
circuit via the bell push if required. With values of C1, R1 as shown, RLB holds on for about 75 seconds. When the charge on C1 falls, Tr1 and Tr2 switch off, RLB releases and the circuit reverts to its original state. The circuit could be assembled on a small piece of Veroboard.
The circuit could also be used to switch on a light for a deaf person's door call.
components


Fig. 1

## Automatic Outside Light

This simple circuit will turn your outside light on as darkness approaches and turn it off again at dawn, unless you decide to switch it off earlier.

The design is based around the ORP12 light dependent resistor a useful component which changes resistance with the amount of light falling on its active surface. This change in value is used to switch a BC109 transistor which in turn switches a 2 N3053 transistor to operate a small relay.

The required threshold level at which the relay switches is set by VR1 and the amount of hysteresis, the difference between the switch-on and switch-off levels, is varied by VR2.
The unit is powered from the mains via a small 6 V transformer and a full wave rectifier system.

The circuit can be built on a small piece of Veroboard and fitted inside a waterproof bulkhead fixing outside light fitting. The ORP12 I.d.r. should be mounted through a small hole drilled in the top or one side of the light fitting with a suitable tube to act as a shield to prevent the unit being switched off again by the light from the unit.

Care must be taken in positioning the unit inside the housing to avoid a position where it will be affected by the

## $\star$ components


heat generated by the lamp. If the housing is physically small then it would be better to err on the side of safety and mount the unit in a small plastic case away from the light.


Fig. 1

## Battery Indicator

There have been many designs for battery state monitors and indicators published in various magazines and journals. These are a very useful addition to any piece of battery
operated equipment, but most seem to suffer from one major disadvantage; their quiescent current consumption is of the order of 10 mA or so and is often as great or greater than that consumed by the equipment in which they are incorporated. The current consumption of the unit described is a mere $8 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ in its quiescent state. Fig. 1 shows the circuit diagram of the complete indicator.


Fig. 1


Fig. 2

## $\star$ components



Transistors Tr1 and Tr2 form a Schmitt trigger. R1, VR1, and R2 are connected across the supply rails and form a potential divider. This provides the reference potential for the base of Tr1 and determines when it changes state. With the values shown the switching point of the Schmitt can be varied between about 5 V and 15 V .

The output of the Schmitt, which is normally high and goes low when the battery voltage falls below a preset level, is fed to the input of a CMOS inverter (actually a NAND gate with its inputs connected together). The output of this is connected to the control input of an oscillator constructed from two of the remaining gates in a CD4011 package. The output of the oscillator is connected to the base of Tr3 which turns the l.e.d. on and off at a rate of about $2 \cdot 5 \mathrm{~Hz}$ as a visual indication that the battery voltage is low. The time-averaged current consumption of the indicator is approximately 5 mA when in this state. This can be reduced further, with a corresponding decrease in l.e.d. brightness, by increasing the value of R8.

The inputs of the remaining gate in the CD4011 should be connected to either supply rail in this version. In the original version, the remaining gate was used in conjunction with a 1 kHz signal to turn the l.e.d. on and off rapidly to indicate that the equipment was switched on. This is shown in Fig. 2.

The time averaged current for the battery low indication in this case is reduced to about 2.5 mA .

The unit can be built on a simple p.c.b. as shown in Figs. 3 and 4. It is recommended that you use a socket for the i.c. and observe the usual precautions when handling c.m.o.s. devices.


Fig. $\mathbf{3}$


Fig. 4


Many of our readers will be familiar with an f.m. device used as a 10.7 MHz amplifier/limiter and demodulator which is marketed as the type number 3089 and as the TDA1200. Quite a number of designs using this device have appeared in our pages, since it offers a wide range of facilities on a single chip. Although first introduced by RCA in 1971 as their CA3089E, the 3089 has since become an "industry standard" type which is available from many manufacturers; indeed, it is probably the most widely used of all f.m. i.f. devices.

## The CA3189E

The new RCA type CA3189E has been developed as an improvement on the 3089 type device. RCA have had prolonged discussions with many manufacturers of high quality f.m. receivers who use the 3089 before designing the new CA3189E to meet the manufacturer's requirements as closely as possible. The CA3189E was conceived and designed by RCA at Sunbury-on-Thames, England, but the wafer and device fabrication is carried out in the USA.
The CA3189E is encapsulated in a 16 pin dual-inline package. The connections are similar to those used in the 3089 device except for pin 16 (which is not used in the 3089), but both the internal and external circuits differ from those of the 3089.
The internal circuit of the CA3189E is quite complex and provides the following functions: (i) a high gain i.f. amplifier (ii) a quadrature demodulator circuit (iii) an a.f.c. output (iv) an a.g.c. output with an adjustable threshold ( v ) an output to drive a signal strength meter (vi) a noise muting circuit to reduce inter-station noise (vii) a deviation muting circuit to mute the audio signal as the receiver is tuned through a sideband.


## Pin-out details of the CA3189E

## Typical Circuit

A typical circuit for the use of the CA3189E which provides a very high performance is shown in Fig. 1. The $10 \cdot 7 \mathrm{MHz}$ input signal from the output of an f.m.
tuner is fed to the base of the BF594 transistor amplifier stage and then to a pair of Toko type CSFE ceramic filters connected in cascade. A similar transistor amplifier stage follows and the output from this second stage is fed into a further pair of cascaded CSFE filters.

The circuit shown provides a signal-to-noise ratio of 40 dB for an input of only $3 \mu \mathrm{~V}$. A somewhat simpler circuit can be made by employing only one transistor stage and one pair of CSFE filters. In this case the input signal is fed through Cl to the base of Tr 2 and the Trl circuit is omitted. However, the signal-to-noise ratio with a single transistor input stage is about 20 dB for a $3 \mu \mathrm{~V}$ input signal, so it is wise to use two transistors if you wish to receive any weak signals.
The signal from the two transistor pre-amplifier is fed into pin 1 of the CA3189E, this being the input of a high gain amplifier/limiter. The bandwidth of this internal amplifier has been limited to 15 MHz (as opposed to the 25 MHz typical bandwidth of the 3089 device), since this not only improves circuit stability and renders the printed circuit board layout less critical, but also improves the noise performance of the circuit. Two signals outside the receiver pass band can interact to form noise in the band, but this is reduced by restricting the bandwidth.

## The Demodulator

Two coils are required in the demodulator circuit. A $22 \mu \mathrm{H}$ coil is connected between pins 8 and 9 , the Toko coil type 144LZ 220 K having been found very suitable for the purpose. A tuned circuit resonant at $10 \cdot 7 \mathrm{MHz}$ must be connected between pins 9 and 10 , but the miniature Toko type KACS K586 HM is ideal for this purpose; it was designed for a similar function with the 3089 type device.

The typical third harmonic distortion with the circuit of Fig. 1 is about $0.3 \%$. It is possible to reduce it to less than $0 \cdot 1 \%$ by the use of a double tuned circuit between pins 9 and 10 instead of the single tuned circuit so as to obtain better phase linearity over a wider bandwidth. Although Toko offer suitable components to make a double tuned circuit, the alignment requires an oscilloscope and the writer would advise readers to use the single tuned circuit unless they have the necessary equipment and experience.

## Noise

Great efforts have been made in the design of the CA3189E to reduce the noise level at the audio output. We have already mentioned how the noise has been reduced by restricting the i.f. amplifier/limiter bandwidth, but further improvements have been made by using a Zener diode in the regulator section of the device which produces very low noise. Unlike

the 3089 , the CA3189E requires an external audio load resistor (R15 in Fig. 7) so that pin 10 can be decoupled by C 9 ; this produces a small improvement in the noise level.

## Muting

A noise muting circuit is required for silencing the receiver when tuning between stations. A noise muting circuit in the CA3189E detects the absence of a signal or sufficient holes in the limited carrier wave and produces a voltage change at pin 12; a portion of this voltage is tapped off by VR2 and is fed to pin 5 where it is used to reduce the audio output to zero.
This noise muting circuit alone is sufficient to produce excellent inter-station muting, but unfortunately it is not very satisfactory for providing the muting required when tuning through sidebands rapidly. The sudden voltage changes at the audio output produce a "thump" in the loudspeaker when passing through the station frequency. The deviation muting circuit incorporated into the CA3189E reduces the maximum voltage shift at pin 6 when the circuit switches to or from the muted state and provides a considerable improvement over the 3089 type of device which has only noise muting. When R14 has the value shown in

Fig. 1 the circuit will stay in its muted state until the tuning comes within $\pm 40 \mathrm{kHz}$ of the correct tuning point for the station; this resistor controls the sensitivity of the deviation muting circuit by determining the deviation at which muting ceases.

## A.G.C.

There was considerable disagreement as to the optimum threshold level at which the automatic gain control circuit should start to become effective. This threshold level had been set at about 10 mV r.m.s. input to pin 1 in the 3089 device, but to meet the requirements of the various circuit designers RCA decided to provide a variable a.g.c. threshold level in the new CA3189E. They use pin 16 for this purpose, the only pin which is not used in the 3089 device.

As shown in Fig. 1, the control voltage tapped off by VR1 is fed to pin 16 , so VR1 controls the a.g.c. threshoid level. When the control voltage is obtained from pin 13, as shown, the threshold of a.g.c. action can be varied from a signal level of $200 \mu \mathrm{~V}$ up to as much as 200 mV at pin 1. The a.g.c. characteristic shown in Fig. 2 has a very sharp "knee" and is therefore very satisfactory.

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Fig. 2: The a.g.c. characteristic of the CA3189E

## S Meter

The voltage at pin 13 increases in a way which approximates closely to the logarithm of the input signal to pin 1 . Thus a voltmeter may be connected from pin 13 to ground to provide an indication of a very wide range of signal levels. The $S$ meter characteristic is shown in Fig. 3.

The S meter may have a full scale deflection of 150 to $200 \mu \mathrm{~A}$, in which case R20 of Fig. 1 may have a value of about 33 k , since a voltage in the region of 5 to 7 V will then produce a full scale deflection. However, any high impedance voltmeter or a voltmeter made from the resistor R20 in series with a suitable microammeter may be employed.

A centre reading voltmeter connected between pins 7 and 10 can be used as a tuning indicator. When the circuit is correctly aligned, the meter will swing through zero when passing through the correct tuning point.


Fig. 3: The S meter characteristic of the CA3189E

## De-emphasis

The capacitor C17 in conjunction with the load resistor R15 provides the de-emphasis time constant of about $50 \mu \mathrm{~s}$ which is required for the correct frequency response in Europe. This capacitor must be removed if the output is fed to a stereo decoder, since two separate de-emphasis capacitors will then be required at the outputs of the decoder.

The audio output amplitude from pin 6 increases in a fairly linear fashion with the value of the load resistor R15, but the signal will be distorted to a greater extent if the value of R3 is too high. An excessively low value of R15 will result in a noisy output. A change in the value of R 15 will also necessitate a change in the value of C17 in a monaural system, since the product of the values of these components must provide the required time constant for deemphasis.

When R15 has a value of 12 k , the audio output level is about 1V r.m.s. (or about 3V peak-to-peak). The signal-to-noise ratio is typically about 75 dB for input voltages exceeding 1 mV at pin 1 , whilst a.m. rejection exceeds 60 dB for similar inputs.

In order to preserve stability, all decoupling capacitors except C7 should be grounded at pin 14. Only C7 should be grounded at pin 4.

## Conclusion

The wide range of facilities and the high performance offered by the 3089 type device have resulted in it being adopted for many high quality receivers. The CA3189E offers all of the facilities provided by the 3089 together with an improved performance. One may therefore expect that it will be widely used in high quality f.m. receivers during the next few years. The use of complex i.c.s together with ceramic filters has greatly simplified the task of the f.m. receiver constructor.

## HInlu notet

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The manufacture and testing of radio frequency inductors often poses problems for radio constructors. It is not easy to obtain a specified inductance value and, even if an inductance bridge is available, it is usually a matter of "trial and error" before satisfactory results can be obtained. Furthermore, since most r.f. inductors are usually associated with resonant circuits, a simple form of ' $Q$ ' meter is a more convenient instrument for use in the construction of coils.
A ' $Q$ ' meter provides a variable radio frequency signal source together with a calibrated capacitor and an r.f. voltmeter. It may thus be used to determine the resonant frequency and ' $Q$ ' factor of a capacitor/ inductor combination, to establish the tuning range of a variable resonant circuit, and even to measure unknown capacitance or inductance. The instrument described forms a most useful addition to the range of test equipment in any radio constructor's workshop and will certainly help to alleviate the frustration which is often associated with "trial and error" coil winding. The r.f. output of the ' $Q$ ' meter, in the frequency range 1 MHz to 30 MHz , is available so that the instrument may also be used as a signal generator.

## Yoder

A series resonant circuit is shown in Fig. 1. This consists of a coil connected in series with a capacitor. The coil possesses both inductance, $L$, and a series loss resistance, $R$. If the circuit is supplied with a low voltage at the frequency of resonance, magnified voltages are developed across both the capacitor and the inductor. The amount of voltage magnification depends on the ' $Q$ ' or "magnification factor" of the circuit. The greater the ' $Q$ ' factor of the circuit, the larger will be the voltage magnification. The ' $Q$ ' factor of the series resonant circuit is defined as the
ratio of capacitor (or inductor) voltage to the applied voltage. In most resonant circuits the capacitor can be considered to be "loss free" and the loss can then be entirely attributed to the d.c. resistance of the coil together with a resistance due to losses at r.f. The bandwidth and selectivity of a tuned circuit are dependent on the ' $Q$ ' factor and, in order to obtain a high ' $Q$ ' factor, the loss resistance of the circuit must be very small. The higher the ' $Q$ ' factor the narrower the bandwidth will be and the greater the selectivity achieved.

## specification

'Q' ranges: $\quad 0$ to 20 and 0 to 100
Frequency range: 1 MHz to 30 MHz in the following six overlapping bands;
A 950 kHz to 1.6 MHz
B 1.5 MHz to 2.6 MHz
C 2.5 MHz to 4.6 MHz
D $\quad 4.5 \mathrm{MHz}$ to 8.5 MHz
E 8.0 MHz to 17.0 MHz
F 15.0 MHz to 32.0 MHz
Internal capacitor: variable from 20 pF to 365 pF
RF output:

Measurements:
500 mV r.m.s. typical over the above frequency range measured in an open circuit

Resonant Frequency (using either internal or external capacitors), ' $Q$ ' factor, Inductance, Capacitance and Quartz Crystals (see text).


Fig. 1: This example illustrates a resonant circuit with a ' $Q$ ' factor of $\mathbf{2 5}$

Fig. 2 shows the basic arrangement of a simple 'Q' measuring device. This consists of an r.f. signal and a high impedance r.f. voltmeter connected to the resonant circuit. The variable r.f. signal source must have an output impedance which is very low compared with the series loss resistance of the coil. The exact resonant frequency of the tuned circuit is first determined for a specified capacitor value by varying the signal generator frequency and noting the point at which the voltage in position 2 rises to a maximum. S1 is then switched to position 1 and the r.f. voltmeter then reads the voltage applied to the resonant circuit. In position 2 the voltmeter measures the magnified voltage developed across the capacitor and thus the ratio of the voltages in the two positions of $S 1$ gives the ' $Q$ ' factor of the curcuit.


Fig. 2: Basic arrangement of a ' $Q$ ' measuring device

## Circuit Description (Fig. 4)

Trl operates in the common base configuration and forms a wide range r.f. oscillator, the frequency of which is varied by VCl. The oscillator operates in six switched ranges with a different inductor, selected by Slb, for each range. In order that adequate output with low harmonic content is obtained over the entire frequency range, Sla selects capacitors to vary the feedback conditions and, on the two highest frequency ranges, the emitter current of TrI is increased by means of R4. Tr2 forms a buffer stage and also acts as an impedance converter. This emitter follower stage presents a high impedance to the oscillator tuned circuit and a low output impedance. This arrangement helps minimise loading effects on the oscillator tuned circuit and improves frequency


Fig. 3: (above) Block diagram of the ' $Q$ ' meter
Fig. 4 : (below) Complete circuit diagram of the ' $Q$ ' meter

stability. The resistor chain, R7 to R11, provides an attenuation of twenty or a hundred times depending on the setting of S2. VC2 is a calibrated capacitor for use with the inductor under test. Tr3 operates as a source follower and acts as a buffer stage with a very high input impedance and low output impedance. This arrangement is vital in order to prevent loading
effects which would otherwise reduce the ' $Q$ ' of the circuit under test. D1 and D2 form a conventional voltage doubler rectifier and act as a wideband r.f. detector. The rectified current is measured using a moving coil meter. VRI is used to set the meter current to full scale deflection with S3 in the 'Set' position.


Fig. 5: Copper track layout of the printed circuit board, shown actual size


Fig. 6: Component placement and wiring of the printed circuit board

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Internal view showing the front panel controls and the printed circuit board

## Using the 'Q' Meter

The normal procedure for determining the resonant frequency and approximate ' $Q$ ' factor of a coil/capacitor combination is as follows. Connect the coil to the 'L' terminals and set the desired parallel capacitance value on VC2. If a value greater than 365 pF is required, an extra capacitor may be connected to the ' C ' terminals and its value is then added to the reading on VC2. If possible, estimate the approximate resonant frequency and set the ' $Q$ ' meter tuning to this value. If this is not possible, the ' Q ' meter tuning will have to be swept across each band slowly whilst looking for a peak on the meter. A peak should be found with S2 in the ' 20 ' position, S3 in the 'Read $Q$ ' position and VR1 set to about mid-position. Very small peaks may occur at several frequencies lower than the correct resonant frequency. These are due to harmonics present in the signal waveform and they should be hardly noticeable compared with the peak at true resonance. After establishing that the correct peak has been obtained, S 3 should be switched to 'set' and VR1 should be carefully adjusted for full-scale deflection (100) on the meter. The ' $Q$ ' factor can then be read, on a scale of 0 to 20 or 0 to 100 depending on the setting of $S 2$, with $S 3$ in the 'Read Q' position.

## Other Measurements with the ' $Q$ ' Meter

1. Unknown Inductance

This method is satisfactory for inductors in the range $1 \mu \mathrm{H}$ to $250 \mu \mathrm{H}$. The accuracy does not depend on the ' $Q$ ' factor of the coil but on the accuracy of calibration of the ' $Q$ ' meter frequency scale and on VC2. With VC2 set to 100 pF , connect the unknown inductor to the ' L ' terminals and vary the frequency of excitation until resonance is obtained. Note down the resonant frequency and then calculate the inductance from the approximate expression:
$\mathrm{L}=\frac{250}{\mathrm{f}^{2}}$
Where L is in $\mu \mathrm{H}$ and f is in MHz .
Example: If $\mathrm{f}=5 \mathrm{MHz}$ then $\mathrm{L}=250 \div 25=10 \mu \mathrm{H}$.

## 2. Unknown Capacitance

This method is useful for values of capacitance in the range 20 pF to 350 pF . The accuracy of this method depends on the calibration scale of VC2. Connect an inductor, preferably one which will be resonant with 20 pF between 3 MHz and 8 MHz , to the ' L ' terminals and the unknown capacitor to the ' C ' terminals. Set the internal capacitor at 20 pF and vary the frequency

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by Eric Dowdeswell G4AR

The advent of TV may have been a boon to many people but it did nothing for the amateur radio movement. Unless one lives out in the country away from any neighbours, or stays up half the night when TV is QRT, it is now virtually impossible to construct and test a transmitter without causing QRM on nearby TV sets. The very wideband nature of the input circuits of colour TVs, in particular, has not helped.

Screening and filters are ineffective when one is experimenting with a transmitter. If power inputs are restricted to a few watts then one might get away with it, which may explain the increasing popularity of QRP operation. The use of a dummy load when testing does not help all that much especially if one's own TV is only the thickness of a wall away!

The result, of course, has been for the frustrated amateur to buy commercial equipment, generally imported, which is generally well screened and able to meet requirements in respect of harmonic radiation. In the process, however, the amateur has had to forgo the pleasure and satisfaction of making his own gear, thereby failing to learn anything on either the constructional or theoretical sides.

There are now thousands of licensed amateurs in this country who have never known the pleasure of building even the simplest of transmitters and getting it on the air. Believe me, even a few watts of homeproduced c.w. is much more satisfying than 400 W of s.s.b. from a commercial rig that one dares not touch inside.

The only hope is that the transmitting amateur or listener will at least try to construct his own aids such as frequency measuring equipment, audio filters, converters for v.h.f. and u.h.f., and perhaps gear for RTTY or SSTV operation.

Remember that the more commercial gear we buy and use the more we become "communicators" rather than experimenters, and the greater the possibility of losing amateur band frequencies to those whose job it is just to communicate: commercial and government interests.

## General Notes

No newcomers to the column this month so straight on to the letters from regular writers. Following the request for a manual for his Skywood CX203 receiver Paul Bown of Theale, near Reading, is very pleased with the 'stat copy he was able to get from a reader. He hopes to have the set working properly on 10 and 15 m before long. Paul wonders if a loop aerial of the classic $P W$ medium wave type would be any good on the 80 m band. Well, I'm afraid that it probably wouldn't help very much. Since most signals there arrive via sky wave there would be little directional effect. Some listeners on 160 m have reported using loops to good effect especially in reducing local manmade interference.
Greg Duffy (East Kilbride, Glasgow) is getting down to the handbook stuff and playing around with aerials for his Yaesu FR50B and logging some interesting calls on 10 and 15 m . Ian Marquis A9140 of Leigh-on-Sea, Essex, points out that the call of the schoolboy net on 3780 kHz should have been GW4GIA and not GMA. Ian said he was "sprawled out in the garden on his back" while writing his letter. Funny, I must have missed the summer this year! But I'm off to SV land shortly so perhaps I can make up for it there!

## On the Bands

J. Goodier, near Stockport, Cheshire, was surprised to find not one but two rare ones, from Western Samoa, 5 W 1 AX and BN . Well, one can go for years and never hear 5 Wl and then up they come. That was on 15 m s.s.b. and they were indeed heard by several readers. J.S.G. was intrigued when TI2CF reduced power, at the request of a German station, from 1 kW to, he said, 1 watt! when he was still just about copyable. There's a motto there somewhere!
Back to Ian Marquis who found such breathtaking stuff as 5 W 1 , KH6, KG6, VR8, KX6 and the like on 15 m s.s.b. not to mention TF6M on 20 m from beneath a glacier at Kirkjubaejarklaustur! If I've got the spelling wrong, blame Ian.
Looks like we shall be losing Dave Greenhalgh (Poynton, Cheshire) to the opposition v.h.f. column before long. Dave is just getting a QM70 2 m converter and about to knock up some kind of suitable aerial from an old Band I TV beam. However, BRS39965 admits to logging some good DX on bands from 10 to 40 m including the aforementioned 5 Wls .
Bernard Hughes BRS25901 of Worcester is now the proud owner of a Drake R4C receiver and his log
bristles with rare stuff. Seems it is the set of his dreams, having tried just about everything else. So OM, what about getting down to it and getting on the air??
The offer of an R1155 receiver in the September issue produced several replies, all from young readers, all anxious to get going on the s.w. bands with something better than a domestic set. I wonder just how many more sets there are sitting around doing nothing that would give so much pleasure to young beginners? If any regular reader wants to give such a set he, or she, has only to give me brief details and I'll try to arrange for some suitable applicant to pick it up without any further bother. As one applicant said "Us schoolkids just can't afford to lash out on reasonable receivers".

Some late but excellent news from two of our regular contributors. Martin Liezers (Newport) has passed the May RAE and hopes to be on 2 m very soon. Likewise Simon Robinson BRS40093 in Stocksfield, Northumberland, has done the trick with a distinction in each part and now goes on for the code test. In the meantime he will be on 2 m with a Belcom FS1007P, a 16 -channel scanning transceiver. Incidentally, Simon wants to swop a Shibaden SV700ED video recorder for something similar that uses lin tape. Good luck to you both as you depart this column!

## Clubs and Societies

The Bury RS continues to meet every Tuesday evening at Mosses Centre, Cecil Street, Bury, with the club station on the air and constructional projects under way, not to mention the odd "noggin and natter". October 10th sees the annual construction competition, with a surplus gear sale on November 14th. The new RAE course is already running at the Metropolitan College of Further Education, with G8NOF lecturing. Details from Eric Thirkell G4FQE, at the centre.
TARS Talk is a jolly good 10 -pence worth from the Torbay ARS, with at least a couple of down-to-earth articles every month, conned from members' experiences. Write to F. J. E. Bolton, G3VTQ, 2 Lower Combe Road, Kingsteignton, Newton Abbot, Devon, for info on the club and magazine.
Don't forget the newly formed Shirehampton ARC meeting every Friday evening at Twyford House, High Street, Shirehampton. Club call is G4AHG and RAE courses are envisaged soon. Fortunately the club premises can be used for RAE exams which should help the more nervous candidates! Write to R. Ford G4GTD at 2 Jersey Avenue, St. Annes, Bristol.

Members of the East London Silverthorn RC are also lucky to have such a fine magazine as their Spurious newsletter. Five technical articles plus all the usual chatter can't be bad for an annual club fee. Don't forget Friday nights at Friday Hill House, Simmons Lane, Chingford, London E4, or details from C. J. Hoare at that QTH. CARA News of the Cheltenham ARA deserves an equal mention, likewise wellproduced and a mine of info. Their previously mentioned TVI clinic quotes a member fixing TVI on a neighbour's hi-fi outfit "within the hour, before he had time to get uptight". That kind of action can only do good all round. Contact Garth Martin G3IER, 88 Tennyson Road, Cheltenham.

Reports by 15th of month please. Club meeting info at least seven weeks ahead!

## Log Extracts

B. Hughes:- 20m A3BHF (Tonga) KC6BNQ YB3AE 5WIAT 8R1DT 15m JD1AHS (Marcus Is.?) 5V1TA 10m KC4QMN 5V1JH
D. Greenhalgh:-40m EA8SS 20m HK0EDF JX3P (Jan Mayen) VP2VBK TF6M 8R1R 15m A2LAV C5EE HH2A YS1WP 5W1AX 10m C31QR PYoRO
I. Marquis:- 80 m HI8RPB VE3BWK/4X4 40 m VP2MBB 20m TF6M VR3AK 15m F0CH/FC KX6MP VP5SI VR80 5WIAX 9V1SR 10m 8RIJ
G. Duffy:-20m VP2DAW HP1MU VP2MZZ YB0CR 15m SV1JJ CX8CV 5W1BN
J. Goodier: - 20m HH2SD KZ5GE VP2MBB VP9L VE8RCS 15m FY7OG HS1WR TU2GM WD9FCC/VQ9 ZF2AA 5W1BN 5W1AX
M. Liezers:- 80m OA3I VP1RDT VP2MBB 7X2GOK 40 m CO2KK HI8RDH LU3MCO ZP5EF 20 m C5ABK FM7AC FP0MG HR1JAG VP2EEN VP2KG VP2MZZ VP2SSA YK4ACW YK6JBK 4D6DO (Philippines) 5J4RCA 5V3YJ 15m FH8CY HK4EU HM2JV


MEDIUM WAVE DX

by Charles Molloy G8BUS

Following on from last month when a number of Asiatic and African stations operating in the gaps between Europeans were highlighted, it might now be useful to have a look at a few Europeans, mainly low power, which transmit on non-standard frequencies. Why they do so is not clear though it may be to avoid interference. One would expect these broadcasters to be moved onto official channels after the introduction of the new band plan that comes into operation on the 23 rd November this year. If this happens then it will no longer be possible to eavesdrop into local broadcasting at the eastern end of the Mediterranean where currently some of these outlets are located.

## Low Power Greek Stations

Broadcasting in Greece is carried out mainly by the state-owned ERT and by YENED which provides a service to the armed forces. There are also a few privately-owned locals, two of which operate just beyond the highest European channel. Bob Bell (Blyth Northumberland) reports hearing an unidentified Greek on approximately 1620 kHz at 2350 using an FRG-7 receiver and a 20 in mini-loop aerial. This is probably Radio Terapetra, situated on the south coast of Crete, which operates on a nominal 1614 kHz with a power of 500 watts. This station has been known to QSL and the address for reception reports is Radio Ierapetra, Anatolikis Kristis, Crete, Greece. Do not forget to enclose an International Reply Coupon. The other station in this part of the band is Radio Aegion on 1610 kHz . Although inclined to wander off frequency these two locals are not too difficult to pick up in the UK.

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Crystal calibrators are available commercially either as completed units or in kit form. Kits are available from two advertisers in $P W$. Rocquaine Electronics, Aldebaran, Le Coudre, St Peters, Guernsey, C.I. offer their RQ-1 which has outputs of 1 MHz , 100 kHz and 10 kHz with optional c.w. or modulated outputs, while Cambridge Kits have a calibrator with outputs of $1 \mathrm{MHz}, 100 \mathrm{kHz}$ and 25 kHz which provides markers up to v.h.f.

## DX Clubs

The World DX Club has recently released the 3rd edition of its QSL Statistics which contains details of 16576 QSLs received by members from 1969 to 1976. Copies can be obtained from the WDXC, 17 Motspur Drive, Northampton, NN2 6ZY for 50 p (UK) or 5 IRCs seamail and 7 IRCs airmail. The WDXC can also supply copies of two new publications issued by the European DX Council. The first is the Reporting Guide which contains advice, vocabularies and report models for reporting in English, French, Spanish and Portuguese. The other is the EDXC Landlist which lists 274 radio countries and contains an ITU zone map. The EDXC publications can be obtained by UK and Irish DXers from 39 Sollershott Hall, Letchworth, Herts for 80p each.

The inaugural meeting of the North England Radio Club took place in Birkenhead on July 29, the new club being formed out of the old Merseyside DX club. A sample copy of the club bulletin Radio Spectrum is available for two 9p stamps (UK) or for two IRCs (abroad) from the secretary who is Norman Monti, 66 Chesnut Grove, Birkenhead, Merseyside, L42 0MZ.

## DX

Radio Japan has been picked up on 21535 kHz in the 13 m band by Charles Kaberry (Fleetwood) who heard the English programme at 0800 with his FRG-7 and Joystick antenna. Bill Stevenson (Swinton) also heard this transmission with his Vega 206 plus 40 ft loft aerial and he received a QSL card within 3 weeks. Bob Bell (Blyth) logged Radio Colombia on 5985 at 0335 and ORF (Austria) on 15410 and 15440 at 0830 using his FRG-7 and long wire. Davis Stevenson (Thurso) has an Astrad 17 and 100ft long wire with which he picked up Radio Australia on 6035 at 2100 , 15410 at 2240, 11880 at 1900, 17825 at 0140 and 17725 at 0200, none of which are beamed to the UK. The address for reception reports is Box 428 G , Melbourne, Australia 3001.

Harmonics are reported by P. R. Sixe (Cambourne) on $23670(2 \times 11835)$ and $23940(2 \times 11970)$ both being from Radio Free Europe and on $23660(2 \times 11830)$ this time from Radio Moscow. DX heard on 60 m included Lagos 4990 at 0430, Radio Colosal Colombia 4945 at 0445, Radio Reloj Costa Rica on 4832 also at 0445 and a station mentioning Paramaribo Surinam on approx 4850 at 0425 (nothing listed here). Roy Patrick (Derby) has also been active on 60 m with his Trio 9R59D and he pulled in ELWA Monrovia on 4770 at 2215 and a Chinese station on 5020 at 2200. Jim Edward (Wigan) has an FRG-7 and a 60ft loft aerial plus a.t.u. DX heard included Radio Nacional Colombia on 15335 at 0200 and Uganda on 15325 at 0400 , the latter being a test transmission with a request for reception reports.


by Ron Ham BRS15744

Guy Stanburys letter to the Editor in our August issue about interest in Band II has certainly prompted comments from my readers and I know that Guy is delighted with the response he has already received. John Branegan, GM80XQ, Saline, Fife, says "I wonder if many of the youngsters realise what a good band for DX Band II is, with my ordinary commercial stereo and a simple 3-element beam, fixed on Kirk of Shotts, i.e. $215^{\circ}$, I still get plenty of Polish, Slav and French stations on f.m. whenever the barometer is up".

Mike Gaskin, a new reader from Croydon, Surrey, uses a Trio KT600S on Band II with a dipole at 30 ft and says that Hilversum 1 was audible for 4 days from July 13th to 18th and Ian Rennison, Horsham, Sussex, writes "The MUF increased to 100 MHz for about 15 minutes at 1805 on July 27th allowing a number of Spanish stations to be heard in Band II'". Between 1200 and 2200 on July 12th, Frank Luman, Glasgow, heard several Norwegian stations between 89 and 97 MHz and recommends that DXers should use some form of r.f. pre-amplification as well as a good aerial on Band II.

## Sporadic-E

Both Ian Rennison and myself frequently received strong television pictures, identified by their test cards, from stations in eastern Europe, Russia, Spain and Scandinavia during the sporadic-E disturbances which occurred for some period on 21 of the 30 days between July 19th and August 18th. Signals from Norwegian television were often very strong and test cards labelled Norge, Gulen and Steigen were seen on Ch.E2 and Gamlem and Hermnes on Ch.E3. Mike Gaskin uses a JVC 3050, 625-line TV receiver for DXing on Bands I, III and V and around 1830 on July 15th he saw, as I did, a caption which read "Granada Television International", we think on Ch.E2. Any gen about this will be welcome.


A picture received in Sussex by sporadic-E from Finland. The JVC 3060 receiver was fed by a simple dipole aerial

Throughout each event, a large number of strong signals were received from east-European broadcast stations between 65 and 73 HMz , a variety of Continental radiotelephone signals between 40 and 50 MHz and often signals from the German 10 m beacon, DL0IGI.

## Solar Activity

Although very little solar noise was recorded at 136 MHz between July 19th and August 18th, Cmdr Henry Hatfield, Sevenoaks, Kent, has observed several very dense prominences and filaments with his spectrohelioscope. Henry is building a 23 cm radio telescope and intends to find out if there is any positive relationship between solar noise at 1296 MHz and 136 MHz when sunspots are present.

## The 10 Metre Band

John Branegan also noticed the lack of solar activity and writes, "This is a very sudden change from a month ago, 10 m is dead, 15 m poor, OSCAR-8A superb into USA with 4 -minute QSOs right down to the horizon with no trace of fading, so the ionosphere is very quiet". Mr M. Mrzyglod, Wallingford, Oxford, has been DXing on the m.w. band for about two years, and, after reading about the International Beacon Project stations, in this column, and hearing distant amateurs on 10 m , he is going to give this band a try.

Sporadic-E was very prominent on July 27th and Harold Goble, G4FDQ, Lancing, worked OD5ID, a French Embassy station in Beirut, who was using 10 watts and 7X2BIC, Algeria, who was only using 2 watts. Harold Brodribb, St Leonards-on-Sea, now using an AR88LF receiver, heard DM5TML calling CQ and LV9DM calling SM. Both Harolds have heard Rhodesian and South African stations on 10 m during sporadic-E disturbances. On August 8th stations were again heard calling $C Q$ sporadic-E on 10 m and at 1832 on the 10th and 0913 on the 18th, the Cyprus beacon, 5B4CY was heard.

## Microwaves

Both Ern Hoare, G8BDJ, Southwick, Sussex, and Ern Downer, G8GKV, Worthing, worked Don Hayter, G3JHM/P, from Chanctonbury Ring, near Worthing, during a recent RSGB Microwave Cumulative contest. However, during the evening of August 11th Don, holidaying near Parfleur, used his 3 cm gear with the callsign, F0AKD/P and, at a distance of 155 km he had 59 plus QSOs with both G8BDJ/P and G8GKV/P on Mill Hill, some 400ft above Shoreham, Sussex, which means that Ern Downer now qualifies for the RSGB's award, for a contact on 3 cm above 150 km . Further congratulations go to Ern who has completed 3 cm contacts with stations in 5 QRA Locator Squares and qualifies for another Society award. He may well be the first UK amateur to hold both microwave awards.

## Readers' Special Events

On July 22/23rd, members of the Chichester Radio Club established a station, G8NMF/P at the Goodwood Show, in aid of charity, along with military
displays and vintage vehicles. During the event, club chairman Mike Rowe, G8JVE/M, was a passenger in a TR7 with a 2200 G between his knees, and a whip aerial inside the car being driven around the famous Goodwood motor circuit by a chief racing driving instructor. At 100 m. p.h., Mike worked their exhibition station and his signals were also heard by a listener, in nearby Chichester, who reported hearing the squeal of tyres via Mike's microphone.

Early in July, Jack Brooker, G3JMB, Hassocks, Sussex, had a camping holiday in Orkney and Scotland and managed a few f.m. contacts on 2 m . Jack did very little mobile operating in the three days he took to travel 770 miles to Scrabster, Caithness, "Mainly", says Jack, "because in the head winds my $5 / 8$ magnetic mount would not stay on the roof of the car". During his holiday he worked numerous GMs, G, ON, and LA via the Aberdeen repeater GB3GM, R7, and while parked on the old Flintstown to Kirkwall road he heard the Stavanger repeater, LA5VR, competing with GB3GM on R7 and used it to work LA2FV in Stavanger.
Ian Rennison has produced some fine transparencies of the sporadic-E television signals he received from Austria, DDR, Italy, Iceland, Spain and Russia. His brother David, in the same QTH, has a special interest in 2 m DX using a NR56 in his car with a $5 / 8$ whip aerial and a Microwave Modules converter into a Trio 9R59-DS in his shack. David built a 3 -element beam for s.s.b. DXing and uses a $5 / 8$ ground plane for the repeater network.

Alan Baker, G4GNX, Newhaven, worked W8FUP on 20 m who told him that there are over 100 repeaters on 2 m within a 50 mile radius of Cincinnati, Ohio, and some of them are over 800 ft a.s.l.

## Tropospheric

Between 2000 and midnight on July 27th a tropospheric disturbance followed the sporadic-E and Mike Rowe worked $3 \mathrm{Fs}, 3 \mathrm{HB} 9 \mathrm{~s}$, and 1 ON on 2 m s.s.b. During the early evening of July 22nd, Roy Bannister, G4GPX, heard PA0s and ONs on 2 m s.s.b. and Alan Baker had 2 m c.w. contacts with F6DOP in Paris and F9LT in Versaifles. A brief lift occurred around 2000 on August 8th when I heard G3GDW in Northampton contact Constance Hall, G8LY, Hampshire, through our local repeater, GB3SN, R5, and at 2010 Ian Rennison watched a news programme, with a YL announcer on Ch.E6, 182MHz.

At 1600 on August 14th, G4GPX heard repeaters FZ2THF, FZ3THF, GB3BC, and GB3PO, and at 2146, G4GNX worked F1ENH, Boulogne, and ON6FI and ON5AN in Ghent. Conditions were good for v.h.f. during the spell of fine weather on August 17th, 18th, and 19th, when many repeater signals were heard well above their normal range. At 0722 on the 19th I heard G8DD in Nottingham and G8MLC on the Isle of Wight have a QSO through the Bristol Channel repeater, GB3BC.

## OSCAR

John Branegan has now worked transatlantic s.s.b. on both satellites, on all four modes, 7A, 7B, 8A and 8J. "On my first test transmission up to OSCAR-7B", writes John, "I called CQ test and DB5KF/P came straight back" and later he worked a K4 in West Virginia.

## What do the VHFs

 have to offer?Apart from the general enjoyment of operating on the v.h.f. bands, the scientific aspect of hearing or working DX is exciting, especially when a given region of the earth's atmosphere is well and truly disturbed. Although a great deal is already known about the strange behaviour of v.h.f signals under abnormal conditions, we still have a lot to learn and the observations which we make during each new event will be of value to the scientists of the future.

Owing to the limited range of v.h.f. signals and the careful planning by both national and international bodies, the hundreds of transmitters required to meet the needs of a thickly populated area like Europe, must share the same or similar frequencies, within a particlar band. This arrangement works well until a natural disturbance occurs and increases the normal range of signals from about 100 to more than 1,000 miles. Remember the old saying "One man's meat is another's poison" well, this is very true in the world of v.h.f., because, when we radio enthusiasts are enjoying that super DX on 2 m and 70 cm , the Band III and Band V televiewers are pestered with interference on their sound and pictures from the unwanted signals, of the distant stations, which are sharing the same channel.

## Solar Noise

Radio waves from a solar event are most likely to be heard between 100 and 200 MHz and will sound like a massive increase in the receiver background noise. whoooooosh, and covering several megahertz These waves, which originate on the sun $8 \cdot 3$ minutes before they are heard on earth, tell us that a solar event, like a flare, has taken place and that particles from the sun may reach us within the following 50 hours.

Because the earth's atmosphere is so very complex it is worth taking a look at the different regions and their effect upon v.h.f. signals.

## Aurora Borealis

Briefly, if a stream of particles from a solar flare enter the earth's polar atmosphere they are likely to randomly ionise the surrounding gases for several hours. This phenomenon, called aurora, has a strange effect on radio signals, for instance, the letter X in Morse code normally sounds like dah-dit-dit-dah, but when reflected from an aurora it will sound raspy, ror-rit-rit-ror and likewise, an s.s.b. signal is like a ghostly whisper and no amount of b.f.o. will improve it. Another point to remember is, that whatever the geographical location of the transmitter from which the auroral reflected signals originated, your receiving aerial beam must point toward the north. By careful tuning it is possible to detect signals from stations some 2,000 miles away. For our readers in the southern hemisphere, a similar effect-Aurora Australis-occurs at the South Pole.

## Sporadic-E

The E region, or, as in early technical literature, the Kennelly-Heaviside layer, of the ionosphere, forms some 60 miles up at sunrise and disperses at sunset. But, during the months of April to August this region will suddenly break up into clouds of densely ionised gas and deflect radio signals within the range $30-80 \mathrm{MHz}$ more than 1,000 miles off their intended course. Because of this extended range, UK televiewers, still using Band I, $40-67 \mathrm{MHz}$ for BBC, will receive a wide variety of continental radiotelephone, RTTY, and beacon signals on top of their pictures. While those viewers gnash their teeth, the TV DXers among us look in Band I for pictures from stations in Europe, the Mediterranean area, Russia, and parts of South Africa.
Most sporadic-E events last for only a few hours, during which time the 4 m amateur band may be blotted out by strong f.m. signals from broadcast stations in Poland, while broadcast signals from several other east-European countries, using the range $65-73 \mathrm{MHz}$, pound into the UK and interfere with Private Mobile Radio transmissions in "low band". Readers like Anthony Mann in Australia, keep us informed about the sporadic-E disturbances which affect other parts of the world at different times of the year.



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## R. H. WARRING

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