

RADIO & ELECTRONICS CONSTRUCTOR

AUGUST 1979
50p

**IMPORTANT
ANNOUNCEMENT**

SQUARE WAVE TRANSISTOR TESTER

*WITH AUTOMATIC
POLARITY SWITCHING*



BEGINNER'S MEDIUM WAVE RADIO RECEIVER

A PROJECT WITH
PARTICULAR
APPEAL TO THE
NEWCOMER



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PART ONE: A comprehensive
jargon-free explanation
of microprocessors

RADIO & ELECTRONICS CONSTRUCTOR

AUGUST 1979
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Technical Queries. We regret that we are unable to answer queries other than those arising from articles appearing in this magazine nor can we advise on modifications to equipment described. We regret that queries cannot be answered over the telephone, they must be submitted in writing and accompanied by a stamped addressed envelope for reply.

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**THE SEPTEMBER ISSUE
WILL BE PUBLISHED
ON 6th AUGUST**

<p>MOTORS 1-5 to 6VDC Model Motors, 20p. Sub. Min. "Big Inch" Precision motors, 115VAC 3 rpm, 30p. 12VDC 5 Pole Model Motors 35p. 8 track 12VDC motors, new £1.25. Cassette Motors 6VDC ex. equip., 85p. Crouze geared motor, 115VAC 4 rpm new 95p. Smiths clock motor, synchronous 240VAC 1 rev per hour £1.75.</p>	<p>TRANSFORMERS All 240VAC Primary (postage per transformer is shown after price). MINIATURE RANGE: 6-0-6V 100mA, 9-0-9V 75mA and 12-0-12V 50mA all 73p each (15p). 12-0-12V 100mA 90p (15p). 0-8V, 0-6V, 280mA £1.10 (20p). 0-4-6-9V 200mA these have no mounting bracket, 65p (15p). 12V 500mA 95p (22p). 12V 2 amp £2.75 (45p). 15-0-15V 3 amp Transformer at £2.50 (54p). 30-0-30V 1 amp £2.75 (54p). 20-0-20V 2 amp £3.50 (54p). 0-12-15-20-24-30V 2 amp £4.50 (54p). 20V 2.5 amp £2.20 (54p).</p>	<p>FETS/SCRS ETC Union carbide N channel FET similar to 2n3819 15p each. 3N140 or BFV61 types 40p each. M203 dual matched pair of single gate mosfets in one can 40p. 2N5062 plastic (T092) SCR 100V 800mA 18p each. BX504 Opto isolators, 4 lead infra red led to photocell 25p each.</p>	<p>AEROSOL SERVICE AIDS, SERVISOL Switch Cleaner 226gm 54p. Freezer 226gm 65p. Silicone Grease 226gm 68p. Foam Cleanser 370gm 55p. Plastic Seal 145gm 55p. Excel Polish 240gm 40p. Aero Klene 170gm 45p. Aero Duster 200gm 58p.</p>	<p>TOOLS SOLDER SUCKER, plunger type, high suction, teflon nozzle, £4.75 (spare nozzles 65p each). Good Quality side cutters, insulated handles, 5" £1.35. Good Quality snub nosed pliers, insulated handles, 5" £1.35. Antex Model C 15 watt soldering irons, 240VAC £3.60. Antex Model CX 17 watt soldering irons, 240VAC £3.60. Antex Model X25 25 watt soldering irons, 240VAC £3.60. Antex ST3 iron stands, suits all above models £1.40. Antex heat shunts 12p each. Servisol Solder Mop 45p each. Neon Tester Screwdrivers 8" long 40p each. Miyama IC test clips 16 pin £1.75.</p>
<p>SEMICONDUCTORS All full spec. devices. 741 8 pin 6 for £1. No. 555 Timers 22p each. TBA800 audio IC's 50p. 741S (wide bandwidth) 35p. LM380 80p. ZN414 Radio IC 75p. LM3900 40p each. TIL305 alpha numerical displays £2.50. Miniature LDR's (same spec. as ORP12) 30p.</p>	<p>TRIAC/XENON PULSE TRANSFORMERS 1:1 (gpo style) 30p. 1:1 plus 1 sub. min. pcb mounting type 60p each.</p>	<p>DIODES IN4001 10 for 35p. IN4004 10 for 45p. IN4007 10 for 50p. BY127 10 for 75p. IN914 (numbered) 100 for £2.50. IN4148 (numbered) 100 for £2.25.</p>	<p>SURPLUS BOARDS No. 1, this has at least 11 C106 (50V 2.5A) plastic SCR's, one relay a unijunction transistor and tantalum capacitors £1.95. No. 2 I.F. Boards, these are a complete I.F. board assembly made for car radios, 465Khz, full set of I.F.'s and oscillator coils, trimmers etc., 40p each. No. 3 Lamp flasher board, suitable for low load 240VAC applications, approx. 1 flash per second but can be varied via preset pot. 38p each.</p>	<p>SWITCHES Sub. miniature toggles; SPST (8 x 5 x 7mm) 45p. DPDT 8 x 7 x 7mm 50p. DPDT centre off 12 x 11 x 9mm 75p. PUSH SWITCHES, 16 x 6mm, red top, push to make 14p each, push to break version (black top) 16p each. SLIDE SWITCHES, all DPDT; 15 x 8 x 12mm 12p, 16 x 11 x 9mm 12p, 22 x 13 x 8mm 12p, 22 x 13 x 8mm centre off 13p. Multipole slider, double action 12 tags 29 x 9 x 11mm 24p.</p>
<p>PROJECT BOXES Sturdy ABS black plastic boxes with brass inserts and lid. 75 x 56 x 35mm 53p. 95 x 71 x 35mm 62p. 115 x 95 x 37mm 72p.</p>	<p>MICROPHONES ECM105 Condenser, Omni Directional, 600 ohms, on/off switch £2.95. EM506 Condenser Cardiod, Uni directional, 600 or 50K ohms 30-18Khz, heavy chromed copper case £12.95. DYNAMIC Stick mike, 5,000 ohms, on/off switch, fitted with std. jack £2.95. EM104 Sub. miniature tie pin condenser microphone, 1,000 ohms imp., 50-16Khz., uses deaf aid battery (supplied) £5.25. STANDARD CASSETTE MIKES, 200 ohms, fitted with 2.5/3.5mm jacks, on/off switch £1.25.</p>	<p>MURATA MA401 40Khz Transducers. Rec./Sender £3.25 pair.</p>	<p>POWER SUPPLIES SWITCHED TYPE, plugs in to 13 amp socket, has 3-4.5-6-7.5 and 9 volt DC out at either 100 or 400mA, switchable £3.25. HC244R STABILISED SUPPLY, 3-6-7.5-9 volts DC out at 400mA max., with on/off switch, polarity reversing switch and voltage selector switch, fully regulated to supply exact voltage from no load to max. current £5.25.</p>	<p>MICRO SWITCHES Standard button operated 28 x 25 x 8mm make or break, new 15p each. Roller operated version of the latter, New 19p each. Light action micro, 3 amp make or break 35 x 20 x 7mm, 12p each. Cherry plunger operated micro, 2 normally open, 2 normally closed, plunger 20mm long (40 x 30 x 18mm) 25p each.</p>
<p>VERO POTTING BOXES 49 x 71 x 24mm, available in black or white with lid and 4 screws 39p each.</p>	<p>DYNAMIC PA MICROPHONES, suitable for mobile use, hand held with thumb switch, curly lead, 50k imp. £3.40.</p>	<p>PUSH BUTTON TV TUNERS UHF, not varicap, transistorised new £2.25</p>	<p>TOSHIBA LEDS TLG113 0.2" Green 13p. TLG115 0.2" Green diffused lens 14p. TLG1070 0.2" Green Flat top 14p. TLR120 0.2" Clear 17p. MAN3A min. (3MM) 7 segment LED displays Comm. anode 40p.</p>	<p>ROCKER SWITCHES 2 amp SPST, single nut mounting, various colours (red, green, white, blue, yellow, black) 19p each. 250VAC 6amp rocker (all white) 21 x 15 x 13mm 17p each.</p>
<p>VERO 'HAND HELD BOX' White ABS, 2.4" x 3.7" tapered, with screws 65p each.</p>	<p>REPLACEMENT CRYSTAL INSERTS 35mm diam. x 10mm deep 45p each</p>	<p>TELEPHONE PICK UP COIL Sucker type with lead and 3.5mm plug 55p</p>	<p>BUZZERS MINIATURE SOLID STATE BUZZERS, 33 x 17 x 15mm white plastic case, output at three feet 70db (approx), low consumption only 15mA, four voltage types available, 6-9-12 or 24VDC, 75p each. LOUD 12VDC BUZZER, Cream plastic case, 50mm diam. x 30mm high 60p. GPO OPEN TYPE BUZZER, adjustable, works 6-12VDC 25p each. SIRENS 125mm diameter gold coloured horn, high pitched wailing note of varying frequency, 12VDC £7.45.</p>	<p>TAPE HEADS Mono cassette £1.60. Stereo cassette £3.40. Standard 8 track stereo £1.75. BSR MN1330 1/2 track 50p. BSR SRP90 1/2 track £1.95. TD10 tape head assembly - 2 heads both 1/2 track R/P with built in erase, mounted on bracket £1.20.</p>
<p>MULTIMETERS Big price reductions on pocket size testers. Model KRT100, 1,000 ohms per volt, mirror scale, range selector switch 1,000 volts AC/DC, 100K resistance, 150mA DC current £4.65. Model KRT101, same spec. as the KRT100 but range selection is via prod insertion £3.75.</p>	<p>SPECIAL OFFER SEMICONDUCTORS Plastic voltage regulators, 1 amp all now reduced in price, 7805, 7812, 7815, 7824 all 75p each. 7905, 7912, 7915, 7924 all 99p each. 2N3055 - 36p. 1,000 volt 2 amp wire-ended bridge rectifiers, 37p. 723 14 pin regulators 40p each.</p>	<p>RELAYS Clare Elliot sub. min. sealed relay 10 x 10mm 2 pole C/O, 1.250 ohm coil, new 75p. Miniature encapsulated reed relay U.1 matrix mounting, single pole make, operates on 12VDC 50p each. Continental series, sealed plastic case relays, 24VDC 3pole change over 5 amp contacts, new 65p. Printed circuit Mtg., Reed relay, single make, 20mm x 5mm. 6-9VDC. coil, 33p each. Metal Cased Reed Relay, 50 x 45 x 17mm, has 4 heavy duty make reed inserts, operates on 12VDC 35p each.</p>	<p>TERMS: Cash with Order (Official Orders welcomed from colleges etc). 30p postage please unless otherwise shown. VAT inclusive. S.a.e. for new illustrated lists.</p>	<p>DOE TO VAT INCREASE PLEASE ADD 4% TO PRICES</p>
<p>CONTINUITY TESTERS Tubular with probe and croc. fly lead £1.35, with batts.</p>	<p>RIBBON CABLE 8 way single strand miniature 20p per metre.</p>	<p>DOE TO VAT INCREASE PLEASE ADD 4% TO PRICES</p>	<p>TERMS: Cash with Order (Official Orders welcomed from colleges etc). 30p postage please unless otherwise shown. VAT inclusive. S.a.e. for new illustrated lists.</p>	<p>ROCKER SWITCHES 2 amp SPST, single nut mounting, various colours (red, green, white, blue, yellow, black) 19p each. 250VAC 6amp rocker (all white) 21 x 15 x 13mm 17p each.</p>
<p>New arrivals, 12 volt car stereo motors with pulley 55p. Car radio RF/IF and audio preamp boards 2 transistors, LM382 IC trimmers IF's etc., no info 65p each.</p>	<p>8 track stereo playback heads only 75p each. Car radio boards, complete with 6 transistors, IF's choke etc., these are new but no info available 75p each.</p>	<h1>PROGRESSIVE RADIO</h1> <p>31 CHEAPSIDE, LIVERPOOL 2.</p>		

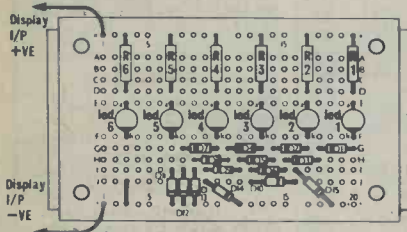
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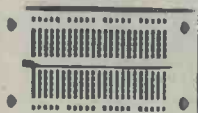
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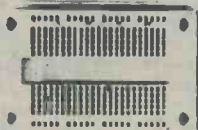


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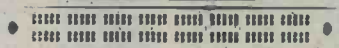


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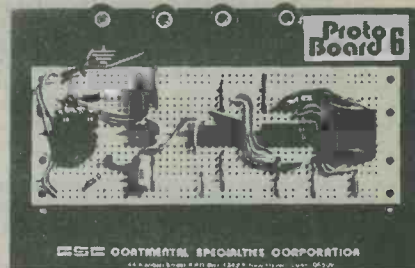
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10	6p	7p	7p	10p	13p	18p	32p	37p
25	6p	7p	7p	12p	16p	23p	32p	37p
50	6p	7p	7p	12p	16p	23p	32p	37p
100	7p	8p	13p	15p	24p	26p	—	—
250	12p	13p	15p	22p	36p	—	£1.10	£1.30
500	13p	15p	22p	30p	55p	—	£1.48	£1.60
1000	16p	27p	50p	60p	—	£1.05	—	—
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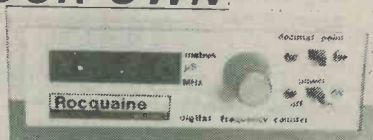
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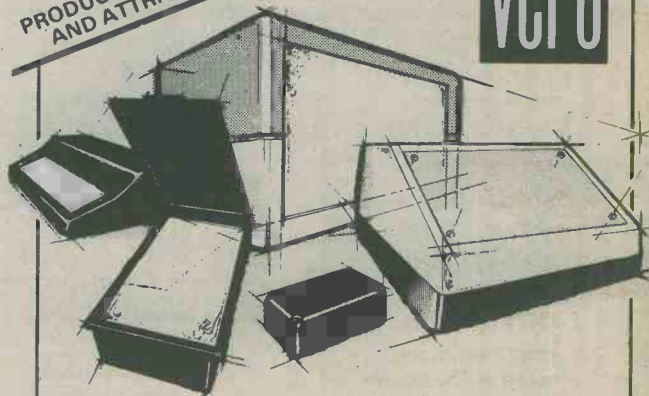
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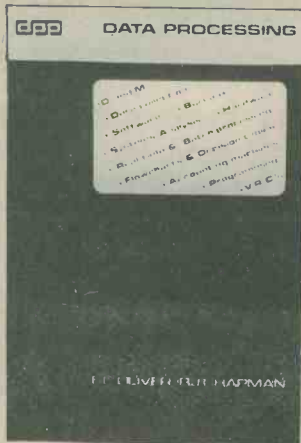
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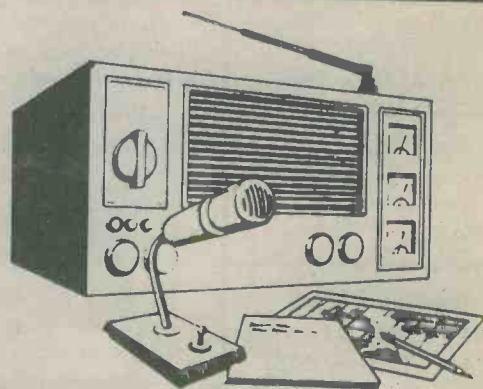
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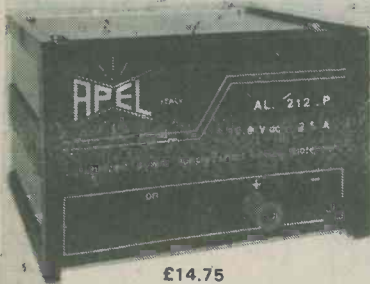
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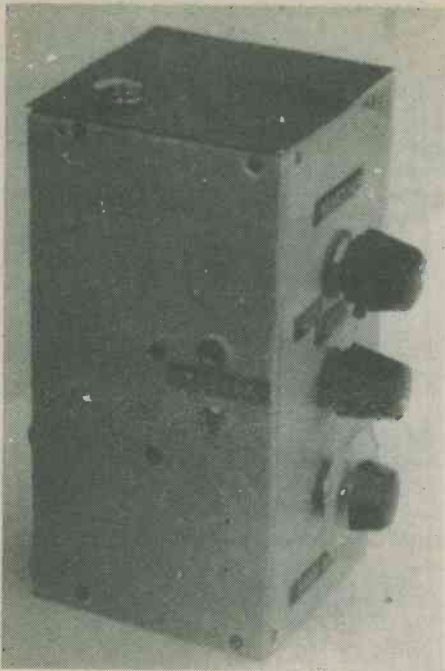
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THE "DORIC" 9 WAVEBAND PORTABLE

Part 1

By Sir Douglas Hall, Bt., K.C.M.G.

This opening article describes a complete 6-waveband short wave receiver, to which can be added an amplifier and a tuner covering v.h.f., medium and long waves.

This 4 part series describes a multi-band portable receiver which offers six bands spread short wave ranges covering 13.5 to 52 metres, medium waves, long waves and v.h.f. on Band II. The design can be built in stages, each stage resulting in a complete receiver or amplifier in its own right. The first part of the series commences by dealing with the short wave section which, when assembled, consists of a receiver suitable for use on its own with headphones. The following parts of the series will describe the addition of an amplifier and speaker to this short wave receiver, and further steps which provide for the reception of medium wave, long wave and v.h.f. signals.

SHORT WAVE CIRCUIT

The circuit of the short wave headphone receiver appears in Fig.1. The aerial signal is applied via C1 and VR1 to the emitter of TR1. VR1 is a selectivity control, and can also be used as a vernier reaction control. TR1 amplifies as a common base device, the signal at its collector being passed via C3 to the base of TR2 which, at r.f., is a common collector amplifier. Detection takes place at D1, and the consequent audio signal then passes through TR2 again, working now as a common base amplifier, followed by TR1 as a common emitter amplifier with some negative feedback due to the presence of VR1.

Variable inductance tuning is used, band setting being arranged by having a ferrite rod move into coil L2, the rod movement being controlled by the six positions of rotary switch S1. This has a tuning drive drum fitted to its spindle, and a nylon cord on the drum controls the amount of insertion into the coil of the ferrite rod. At the same time, one set of the switch contacts varies the parallel capacitance across the diode, to give optimum results for each position of the ferrite rod. The associated capacitors, C5 to C8, allow reaction in the Colpitts mode to be obtained. Reaction control is given by varying the impedance of the diode, and hence the damping on the tuned circuit, by altering the direct current which passes through the diode. Panel control VR2 varies this current (which is additional to that passing through TR2) and thereby controls reaction. VR3 is adjusted to compensate for different gain levels in the transistor used in the TR2 position, and D2 and D3 provide voltage stabilization as battery voltage falls with age.

The a.f. output is built up across the large winding of the interstage transformer T1, and high resistance phones (4,000 Ω magnetic or crystal) may be plugged into the lower jack socket. The upper socket is unused with the receiver in its present state of construction, and will be employed when the amplifier to be described next month is added.

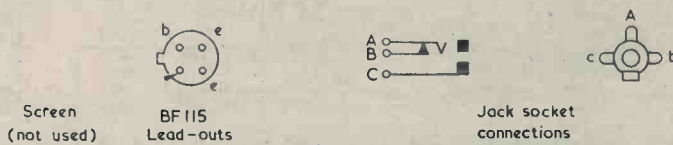
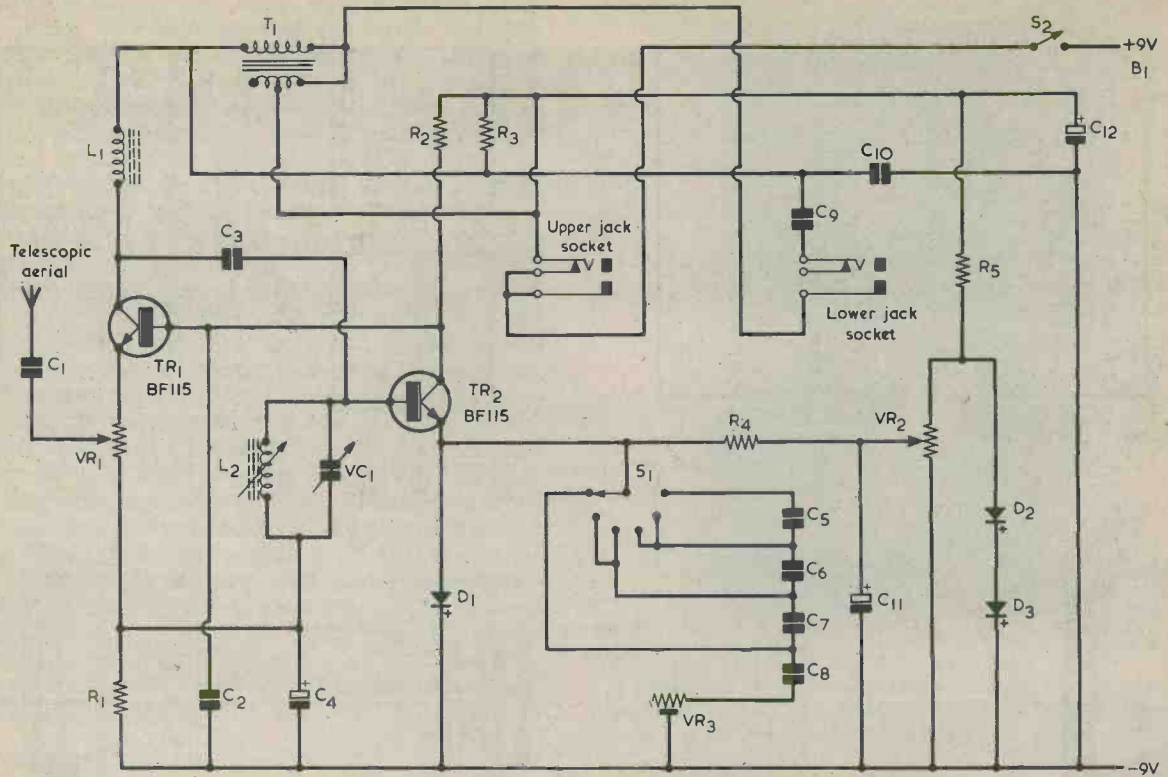


Fig. 1. The circuit of the multi-band short wave receiver. High impedance headphones are plugged into the lower jack socket, whilst the upper jack socket allows interconnection to the amplifier unit which will be described next month. L2 is permeability tuned by a ferrite rod moving to six positions inside the coll, these positions being mechanically controlled by switch S1

Resistors

(All fixed values 1/4 watt 10%)

- R1 1k Ω
- R2 33k Ω
- R3 12k Ω
- R4 1.2k Ω
- R5 8.2k Ω
- VR1 470 Ω potentiometer, linear, type P20 (Electrovalue)
- VR2 4.7k Ω potentiometer, linear, with switch S2, type P20 (Electrovalue)
- VR3 470 Ω pre-set potentiometer, 0.25 or 0.3 watt, horizontal

Capacitors

- C1 100pF silvered mica or ceramic
- C2 1,000pF silvered mica or ceramic
- C3 5.6pF silvered mica or ceramic
- C4 47 μ F electrolytic, 3V. Wkg.
- C5 220pF silvered mica or ceramic
- C6 220pF silvered mica or ceramic
- C7 330pF silvered mica or ceramic
- C8 100pF silvered mica or ceramic
- C9 0.47 μ F polyester
- C10 2,200pF silvered mica or ceramic
- C11 47 μ F electrolytic, 3V Wkg.
- C12 1,000 μ F electrolytic, 10V. Wkg.
- VC1 15pF variable, type C804 (Jackson)

Inductors

- L1 2.5mH r.f. choke (Repanco)
- L2 see text
- T1 transformer type LT44 (Eagle)

Semiconductors

- TR1 BF115
- TR2 BF115
- D1 OA90 or OA91
- D2 1S44
- D3 1S44

Switches

- S1 2-pole 6-way rotary, miniature
- S2 s.p.s.t. toggle, part of VR2

Sockets

2-off 3.5mm. jack sockets

Aerial

Telescopic aerial type TA10 (Eagle-Electrovalue)

Miscellaneous

- 10-way tagstrip (see text)
- 4 control knobs
- Ferrite rod, 4 or 4 1/2 in. by 3/8 in. dia (see text)
- 1 1/2. drive drum (Home Radio)
- 9-volt battery type PP3
- Battery connector
- Nylon cord
- Materials for case and "chassis" assembly

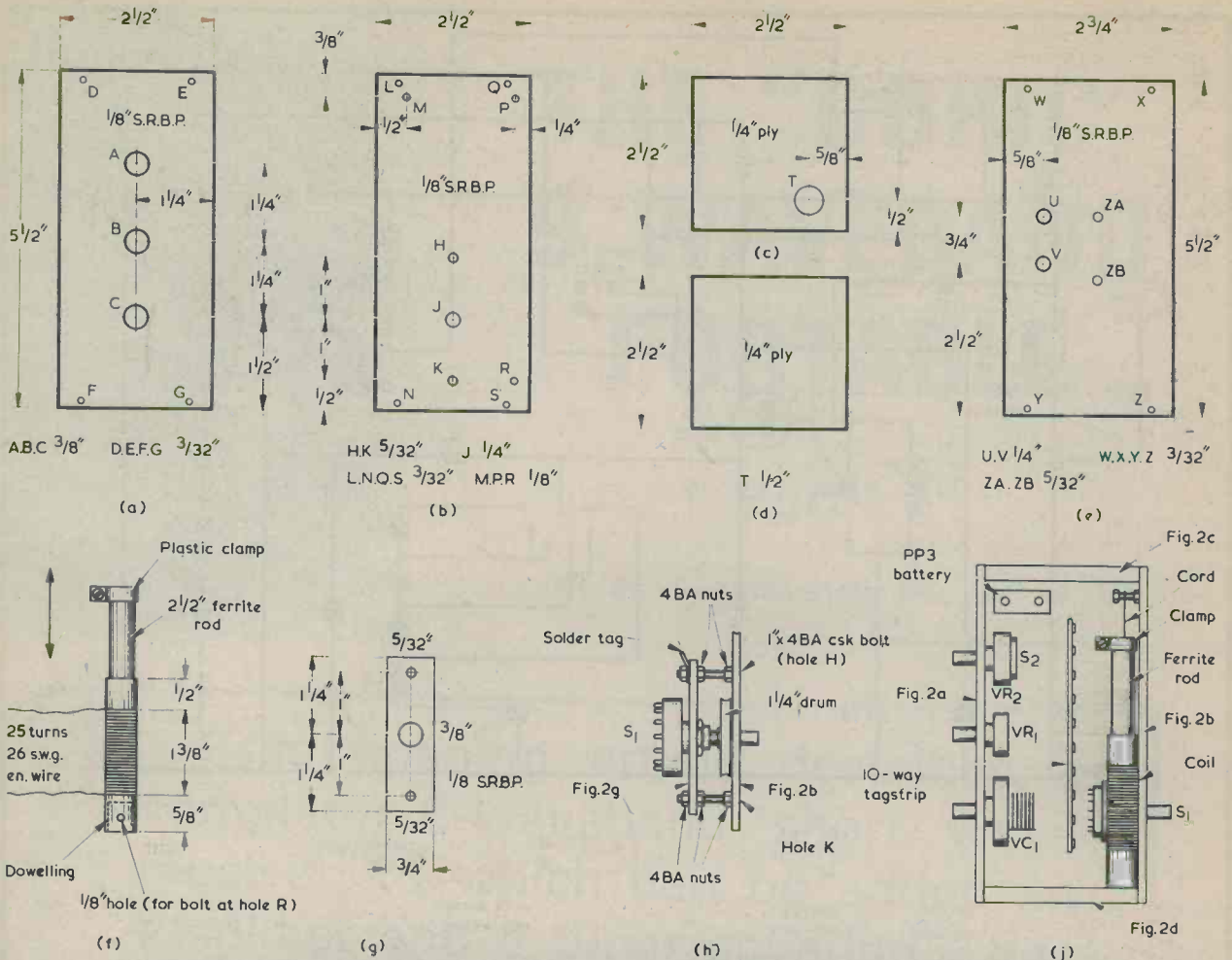
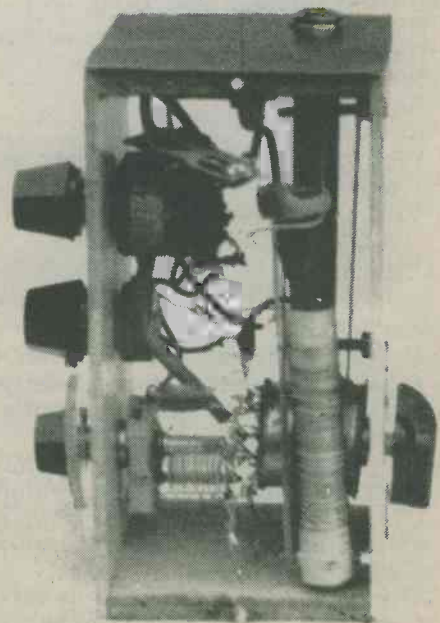


Fig. 2(a) (b) (c) (d) (e). Section of the receiver "chassis" and case (f) Details of the coil, in which the ferrite rod slides to give selection of the six waveranges (g) S.R.B.P. item onto which switch S1 is secured (h). The drive drum is fitted over the spindle of the switch, the spindle passing through hole J of Fig. 2(b) (i) Side view showing the internal assembly of the main parts of the receiver

CONSTRUCTION

Construction commences with the cutting out and drilling of the sections shown in Fig. 2(a) (b) (c) (d) and (e). These provide both the "chassis" and five sides of the case. A second piece of s.r.b.p. should be cut out identical to Fig. 2(e) but without holes U, V, ZA and ZB. This can be fitted opposite Fig. 2(e), forming the sixth side of the case, and can be the side which opens to provide access to the inside of the completed receiver. The small holes, D, E, F, G, and the corresponding four holes in Fig. 2(b) and Fig. 2(e) are for woodscrews used to assemble the parts together. Their exact positioning is not important provided that they are $\frac{1}{8}$ in. from the ends. The woodscrews then pass into the $\frac{1}{8}$ in. plywood edges. The sixth opening side could, instead, be fastened by short lengths of 6BA studding cemented into the plywood, 6BA terminals then securing the side in position. Holes W, X, Y and Z in the sixth side will then need to be $\frac{1}{8}$ in. in diameter. Holes ZA and ZB are for mounting the 10-way tagstrip, the latter being used to mark out their positions.

The coil is made next. Take a piece of Fablon, or Contact, 4in. by 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ in., and remove a small strip of

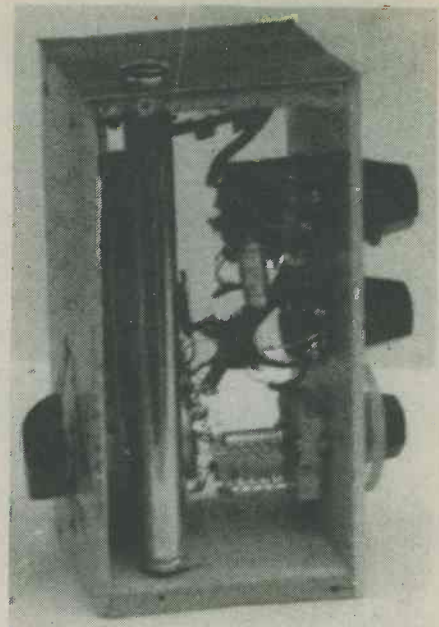


Looking into the receiver with coil L2 nearer the camera

the backing paper, $\frac{1}{8}$ in. wide, at one of the $2\frac{1}{2}$ in. edges. Wrap the Fablon around the ferrite rod with the exposed strip last, so that it secures the tube thus formed. The rod should be able to move in the tube easily but without wobble. Cut a piece of $\frac{3}{8}$ in. wood dowelling $\frac{1}{2}$ in. long, wrap a turn or two of Sellotape around it to ensure that it is a tight fit and insert it at one end of the tube. Drill a $\frac{1}{8}$ in hole through the tube and the middle of the dowelling as shown in Fig. 2(f). Insert the rod into the tube to strengthen it and, starting $\frac{1}{8}$ in. from the end remote from the dowelling, wind onto the tube 25 turns of 26 s.w.g. enamelled wire, spacing out the turns so that the winding ends $\frac{5}{8}$ in. from the dowelling end of the tube. Use Sellotape to secure the winding ends, but not along the coil.

The ferrite rod is orange grade and can be obtained in a 4 or $4\frac{1}{2}$ in. length from Amatronic, 396 Selsdon Road, South Croydon, Surrey CR2 0DE. A $2\frac{1}{2}$ in. length is required, and this is obtained from the longer length supplied by filing round it at the appropriate point and snapping off the excess. If other grades of ferrite are used, some experimenting may be necessary to see whether the number of turns in the coil need to be altered to obtain the required wavelength range.

Mount VC1, VR1 and VR2/S2 to the item of Fig. 2(a) as shown in Fig. 2(i) and Fig. 3 A piece of



A view from the other side of the receiver. The telescopic aerial is secured to the bottom panel and passes through a hole in the top panel

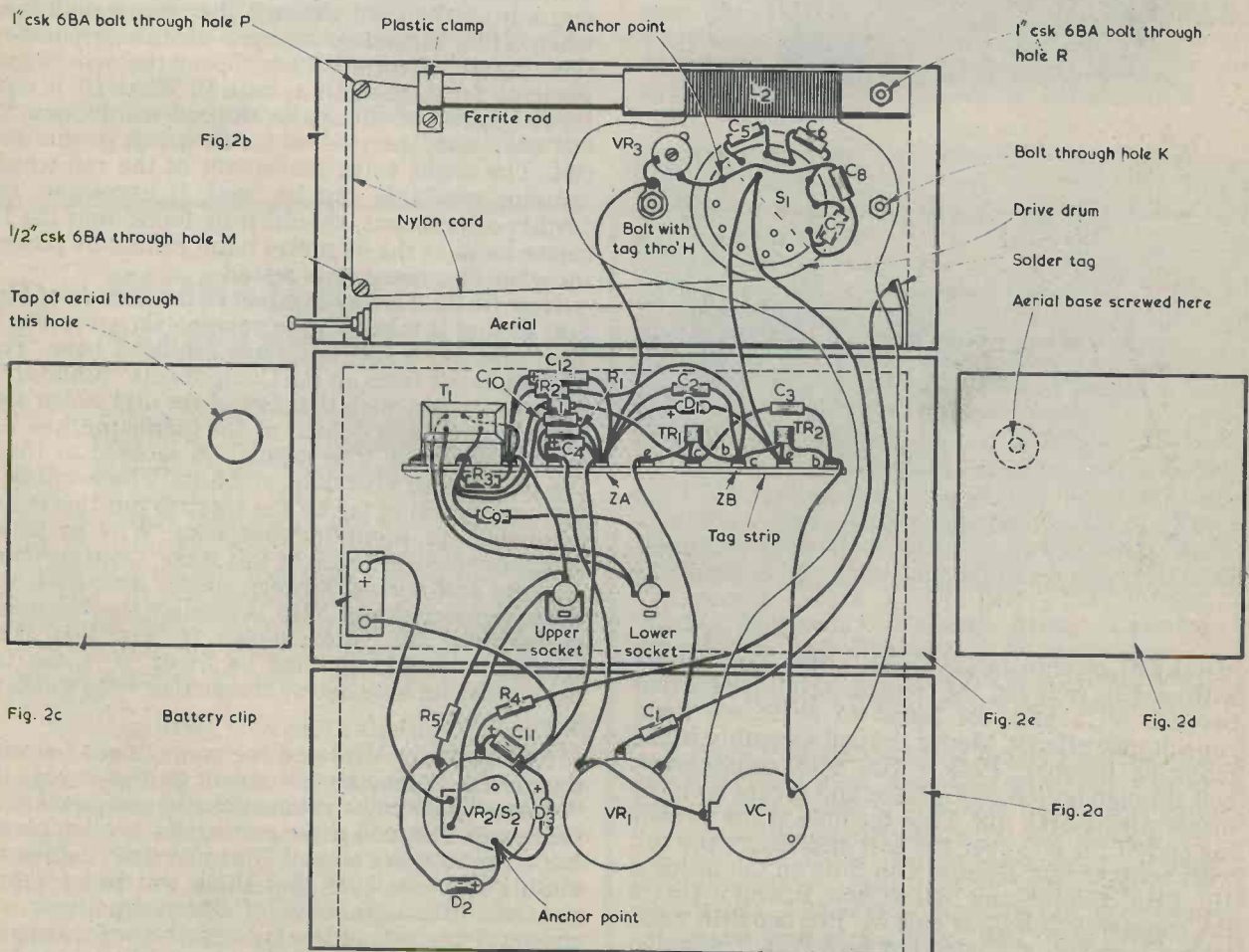
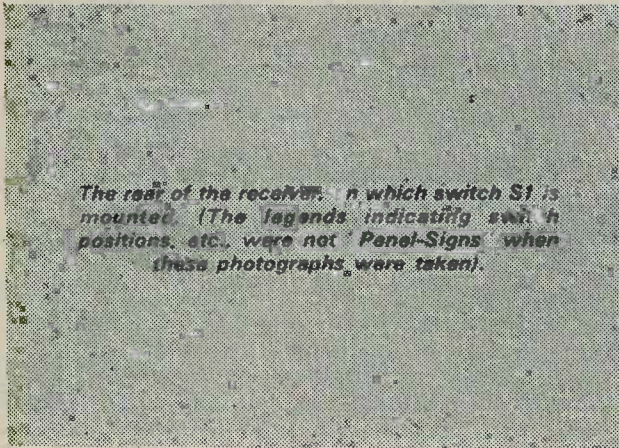
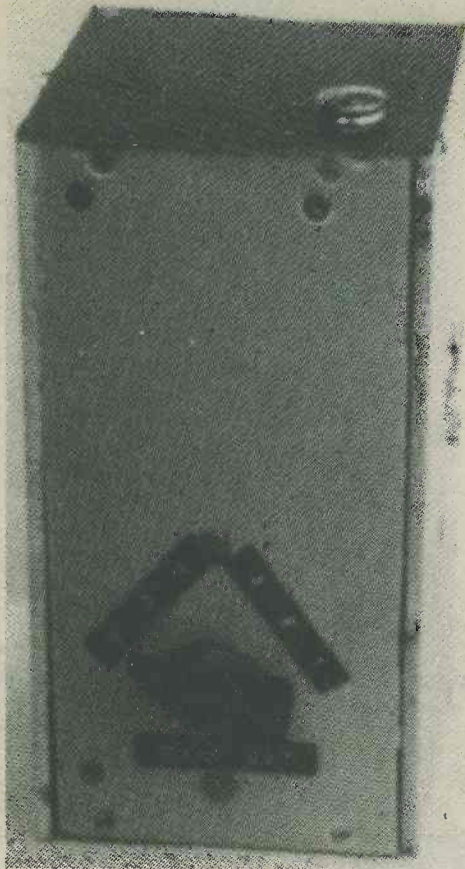


Fig. 3. Assembly and wiring of the components. The item of Fig. 2 (g) is omitted for clarity. Note how each setting of S1 allows the ferrite rod to move to a different position inside the coil. Before wiring to S1 confirm with a continuity tester the six outer tags corresponding to the inner switch arm tag. Similarly check the appropriate tags of S2 before wiring to it.



The rear of the receiver in which switch S1 is mounted. (The legends indicating switch positions, etc., were not Panel-Signs when these photographs were taken).

metal foil or thin metal sheet, about 2in. square with a $\frac{3}{8}$ in. hole at the centre, should be fitted between VC1 and the panel to overcome hand capacitance effects. Mount the coil assembly in the following manner. Pass a 1in. 6BA countersunk bolt through hole R of Fig. 2(b) and secure it on the inside with a 6BA nut. Pass the hole at the dowelling end of the coil over the bolt and secure the coil with another nut. Secure with nuts on the inside a 1in. 6BA countersunk bolt at hole P, and a $\frac{1}{2}$ in., 6BA countersunk bolt at hole M. Put two 6BA nuts, locked together, at the end of each bolt. The nylon cord passes over the bolts and the locked nuts prevent it slipping over the bolt ends.

Cut out the item shown in Fig. 2(g) and secure the bush of S1 to this. Fit the $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. drum to S1 spindle with the cord hook away from the switch and

the drum bush well against that of the switch. Make a loop in one end of the nylon cord and pass it through the hole in the side of the drum and over the cord hook. (The cord is fitted to the drum now as it is difficult to reach the hook later). Slip the item of Fig. 2(g) over two 1in. countersunk 4BA bolts passing through holes H and K of Fig. 2(b) and adjust the spacing nuts shown in Fig. 2(h) so that the forward surface of the drum presses lightly against the item of Fig. 2(b). Fit a solder tag over the bolt passing through hole H, then add a third pair of nuts to hold the assembly firm. The pressure on the drum should be just enough to add a little stiffness to the rotation of S1 spindle. The solder tag provides an anchor point, when wiring is carried out, for one of the connections to VR3.

Next required is a plastic clamp to secure the nylon cord to the upper end of the ferrite rod. This is made with a strip of pliant plastic about $\frac{1}{4}$ in. wide and $1\frac{1}{2}$ in. long. This has two holes drilled at the ends such that a 6BA bolt passed through the holes and fastened with a 6BA nut can tighten the clamp so formed on the rod. Take the nylon cord, already fitted to the drum, give it a turn round the drum then lead it over the 6BA bolt in hole M and the 6BA bolt in hole P and then under the ferrite rod plastic clamp. Sufficiently tighten the clamp bolt and nut so that it is just possible to move the cord passing under it. Pass a rubber band over the bolt at hole R and the plastic clamp securing bolt, and adjust the cord through the clamp such that when S1 is turned to its most clockwise position (looking at its spindle) the top of the rod is just about to touch the bolt at hole P. When S1 is now turned fully anti-clockwise the rod will be nearly, but not quite, inserted as far as it can go into the coil. The slight extra movement of the rod which remains available can be used, if necessary, for further adjustment, should it be found that the 13 metre band or the 49 metre band cannot be picked up when the receiver is tested.

Now fit the 10-way tagstrip to the section of Fig. 2(e) so that it takes up the position shown in Fig. 3. Two 4BA nuts and bolts are required here. The tagstrip is cut from an RS Components "Standard" 28-way tagstrip such that two of the tags which also provide mounting appear at the points marked ZA and ZB in Fig. 3. The tagstrip is secured at these two points with 4BA bolts and nuts. There will be a further mounting tag on the tagstrip but this is not employed for mounting purposes. Wire in small components as in Fig. 3, at this stage, omitting components and wiring between panels and, also, the telescopic aerial and VR3. Assemble the "chassis" to take up the form shown in Fig. 2(i). The telescopic aerial can then be fitted. A solder tag held under its base allows connection to be made to it.

Next, wire in VR3 and the connections between the panels. It may be convenient to disassemble the "chassis" and make connections to one panel first, then reassemble and make connections to other panels, but a preliminary assembly as just described is advisable to make sure that there will be no short-circuits. Although some of the components are shown to one side of the tagstrip this is for reasons of clarity only. T1 may, however, be mounted as shown, with its lugs soldered to two of the tags.

When wiring is completed, fit a PP3 battery. A simple home-made clip can be used to hold it in position, though this is not absolutely necessary.

TESTING

Extend the aerial and adjust S1 so that the ferrite rod is fully removed from the coil. Tune with VC1 and check that the 13 metre band is received when the vanes of this capacitor are nearly fully open. Greatest sensitivity is obtained when VR2 is set so that the receiver is just short of the oscillation point. Try all the switch positions and make sure that the 49 metre band is available when S1 is adjusted for the ferrite rod to be fully in the coil. If necessary, adjust the ferrite rod clamp and nylon cord as previously described. Test for overlap between the ranges; this should exist although it will be extremely small. If overlap does not appear at any switch position, this will mean that at that particular setting the turns of the coil are too close, and they should be separated with a small screw-driver. When all is well, put a little clear varnish on the winding.

While testing, use the setting of VR1 which gives the necessary selectivity. Adjustment of VR1 will have some effect on the settings for VC1 and VR2. If it is found that, with certain settings of VC1 and VR1, oscillation cannot be obtained with VR2 at maximum, adjust VR3 to insert less resistance into circuit. Conversely, if oscillation at some settings cannot be controlled, adjust VR3 to insert more resistance. A setting of VR3 to suit all wavebands should be found. So far as is possible, arrange matters so that VR2 never has to be set near its minimum position to prevent oscillation.

Wavebands can be marked, and the control functions indicated, by legends taken from "Panel Signs" Set No. 3 (white) or Set No. 4 (black), available from the publishers of this journal. When completed, the receiver case can be enclosed by the

s.r.b.p. item which was cut out at the same time as that of Fig. 2(e).

EDITOR'S NOTE

The 28-way tagstrip from which the 10-way strip is cut is a "Standard" tagstrip listed by RS Components. In its 28-way form it has a length of 267mm, whereupon the 10-way strip has a length of approximately one-third of this. The tags are vertical to the mounting surface, with every third tag providing a mounting. Other tagstrips of similar dimensions could be employed. RS Components do not supply directly to individuals, and readers wishing to obtain the particular tagstrip used by the author and who do not have access to RS Components will need to obtain it through a retailer. The small radio and television shops, and their service engineers, may be helpful here. RS Components parts may also be obtained from Ace Mailtronix Limited, Tootal Street, Wakefield, West Yorkshire, WF1 5JR, subject to a minimum order of £2. A further section cut from the 28-way strip is employed in the amplifier unit to be described next month.

A second TA10 telescopic aerial is employed in the v.h.f., medium and long wave tuner which concludes the "Doric" series and readers who anticipate making this may, if they wish, obtain the second aerial at the same time as the aerial employed for the short wave receiver which has been described here. The v.h.f., medium and long wave tuner also requires a further 4 or 4½ in. length of orange grade ferrite rod, and this is again available from Amatronix.

(To be continued)

WORLD RADIO TV HANDBOOK

The 33rd edition of "World Radio TV Handbook" has now become available. With 544 pages, the Handbook is crammed with information concerning radio and television transmissions throughout the world, and it lists the frequencies, schedules and other details of virtually every broadcasting station which is on the air. The edition takes in all the changes resulting from the Geneva Medium Wave Plan which came into effect in November 1978, and which applies to all countries outside the Americas.

The Handbook is of particular use to the short wave Dx listener who searches the bands for rewarding long distance reception. In addition to its frequency listings, the Handbook gives information on anticipated reception conditions in 1979, solar activity and similar subjects. Published by Billboard Publications Inc., the "World Radio TV Handbook" 33rd edition is priced at £8.50, and may be obtained from The Modern Book Company, 19-21 Praed Street (Dept. RC), London, W2 1NP. Price £9.15 inclusive of postage and packing.

WILMSLOW AUDIO CATALOGUE

Currently available from Wilmslow Audio Ltd. is their latest 40-page catalogue listing high fidelity speakers for all applications including domestic, group, public address and disco. The products of more than 30 manufacturers are presented in the catalogue, taking in such names as Celestion, Decca, E.M.I., Elac, Fane, Jordan, Watts, Motorola, Richard Allen, Tannoy, Wharfedale and Shackman. Products are illustrated by clear photographs and illustrations. Detailed product specifications are also provided.

It should be noted that Wilmslow Audio Ltd. now offer the widest range of speaker drive units and speaker construction kits in Britain, and have supplied loudspeakers to the BBC, IBA, the Forces, Rolls Royce and many other organisations in addition to individual hi-fi enthusiasts. The catalogue can be obtained from Wilmslow Audio Ltd., Dept. REC, Swan Works, Bank Square, Wilmslow, Cheshire, SK9 1HF. A charge of 15p is made to cover postage.

A UNIQUE COMPUTERISED SYSTEM

A unique computerised system to expedite the production and lower the costs of making animated films is now being used by the Swedish Broadcasting Corporation (SBC) for its television services.

Conventional methods of preparing animated films are enormously time-consuming. Most of the work is very repetitive since each second of finished film requires from 20 to 25 almost similar drawings.

Under the new system, utilising a SPERRY UNIVAC 1100/11 computer, SBC uses a technique developed by Alan Kitching, an animation and data processing specialist, who manages Grove Park Studios in Camberwell.

The technique, known as ANTICS, begins with a basic drawing being prepared and entered into the computer using a special light pen. By means of special command words and coded direction, speed and position specifications are also inputted into the computer. The basic drawing can then be modified in different ways, for example, it can be shrunk, enlarged, panned, skewed, shaken or reversed.



A technician with the Swedish Broadcasting Corporation uses a new computerised technique to produce an animated film for television.

It can also be induced to rotate, jump, rock, etc. The system now contains some 40 commands but Alan Kitching is working on further expansion.

PORTABLE RADIO TELEPHONE

New from Marconi Mobile Marine is the only Post Office approved radiophone which doubles as a portable. Marconi Mobile Radio, a division of Marconi Communication Systems Limited, is now an approved supplier of equipment to the Post Office Radiophone Service and the new "go-anywhere" telephone, the SV 1320A, opens up new uses for the service.

The equipment is designed to fit in the corner of a car boot with the control unit and handset installed easy-to-hand for the driver or passenger when the vehicle is on the move. By removing the control and radio units from the vehicle, an

operation which takes less than a minute, the equipment becomes completely portable and is ready for use by the swimming pool, on the golf course, in the garden or on the beach.

What has hitherto been a completely impossible use for a telephone has now become feasible. The equipment can, for instance, be used as a temporary telephone on a major construction site until land lines are installed, carried across fields to a temporary remote site, or even brought along when going fishing. Any person required to keep in immediate touch with the office can have the telephone with him or

her wherever located, and the system is completely secure.

The equipment operates from a 12 volt supply and is fitted with rechargeable batteries for use away from the vehicle. In normal operating conditions the batteries will last all day without recharging and, for use away from a vehicle for a long period of time, a desk-top charger is available. The SV 1320A is especially designed and manufactured for Marconi by OY Nokia AB Electronics, Finland, and is marketed exclusively in the UK by Marconi Mobile Radio.

The 9-channel set is fully approved by the Post Office and a new 55-channel set has been submitted for approval.

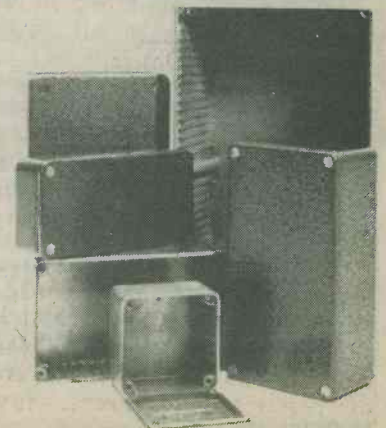
EXTENSION OF DIECAST RANGE OF BOXES

Recently introduced by BOSS Industrial Mouldings Limited, of 2 Herne Hill Road, London SE24 0AU, is another Diecast Aluminium BIMBOX which, as with all of this family of high quality boxes, is available in either natural or stove enamelled grey hammertone finish.

Measuring 50 x 50 x 31 mm (2" x 2" x 1.2") this latest addition now becomes the smallest of the BIM5000 range of 6 sizes, with the largest being 190 x 110 x 60 mm (7.5" x 4.3" x 2.4").

Being readily drilled or punched, and thereby eminently suitable for prototype and production applications, the natural and hammertone finish versions are capable of withstanding 260°C (500°F) and 90°C (375°F) respectively.

The pricing structure of this whole range is very competitive, with the various sized natural versions ranging from £0.69 each to £2.25 each and the grey hammertone finish carrying only a small additional charge.



COMMENT

THE SILENT LISTENERS

Much interest amongst radio amateurs was produced recently by the showing of a T.V. programme by the Norwich BBC T.V. station, made by one of their team, Paul Wright, G3SEM, which dealt with the work done during World War 2, by British radio amateurs enrolled into the Radio Security Service as V.I.s as they were called, which stood for "Voluntary Interceptors".

This story has just been released from its secrecy after 40 years of silence, as all the participants in it had to sign the Official Secrets Act. The film traced the origin of radio intelligence from world War 1 to the establishment of the V.I. service in W.W. 2 and outlines much of the work done by this service in listening to secret radio communications within the enemy's territory and to their agents elsewhere. Much of this listening was done in the V.I.'s own homes using their own radio equipment and few realised just what the messages they were copying were all about!

Amongst those involved with this service were Professor Trevor Roper, Colonel Maltby, Colonel Hornsby, 'Dud' Charman, (G6Cj), Louis Varney (G5RV), Pat Hawker (G3VA), Hugo Lawley (G6ZG) and our own Director, Dr. Arthur C. Gee, (G2UK) who appears quite prominently in the programme, some of which was filmed in his radio shack.

RADIO TRANSMITTERS AND MODULATION TECHNIQUES — I.E.E. CALL FOR PAPERS

The Institution of Electrical Engineers is seeking papers for a Conference on Radio Transmitters and Modulation Techniques" to be held at Savoy Place on 24-25 March 1980. Those wishing to have papers considered should submit a 50-word synopsis to the IEE Conference Department by 3 September 1979.

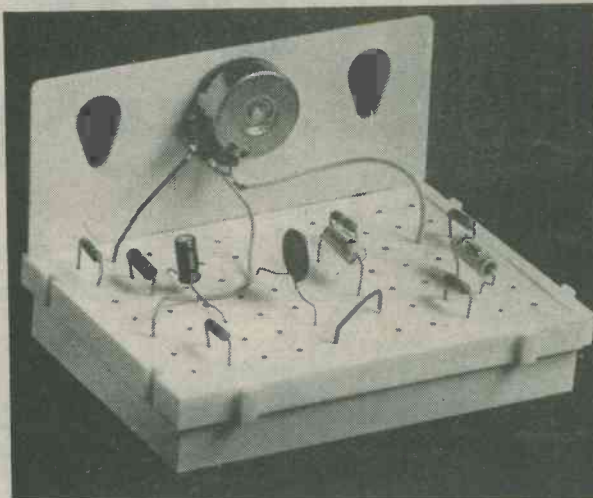
Subjects to be covered at the Conference include the following: transmitters for communication (fixed and mobile), broadcasting, television, and navigational aid; improvements in transmitting valves; impact of power semiconductors on transmitter designs; new methods of modulation; exploitation of Doherty and pulse-width modulation and other methods for the purpose of higher efficiency; transmitter control/tuning, protection and safety; common antenna working (filters and other means); linearity control; frequency and signal generation; automatic monitoring and correction; and spurious frequencies and noise radiation.

The Conference is being organised in association with the institution of Electronic and Radio Engineers and the Radio Society of Great Britain.

For further information please contact:

Annemarie Cunningham-Swendell, The Institution of Electrical Engineers, Savoy Place, London WC2R 0BL.

AVAILABILITY OF S-DECS



The manufacture and distribution of S-DeCs has now been taken over by Roden Products of 5 High March, Daventry. This photograph (which does not depict the assembly described in the Double Deccer article in this issue) demonstrates the neatness and simplicity which S-DeCs impart to temporary solderless circuits.

Back numbers containing numbers 1-8 of the Double-Deccer series are all still available from the publishers of this magazine.

WHO OWNS THE OLDEST RADIO?

Who owns the oldest radio that's still working? This was a competition organised by one of the BBC's local radio stations in Britain's East Midlands, Radio Leicester. And they got a bit of a surprise when the winning entry turned up.

How old do you think it was? 30 years, 40? No, more than that — there are many 40-year-old radios still in use in Britain today. This particular radio makes 40-year-old sets look like mere striplings — for the winning radio, still working, had seen service in the trenches during World War One (1914-1918) — one of the first valve radio sets ever made.

It still receives perfectly well the BBC's classical music channel and, of course, the local station that was running the competition, Radio Leicester.

It is mounted in a heavy wooden box with a leather carrying strap, and its works are completely exposed when the lid is opened. Inside the lid is a hand-drawn circuit diagram and hand-written instructions, not only telling how to use it for receiving, but also how to transmit in morse code. And the whole thing, with its batteries, is at least as heavy and big as a modern portable TV set.

BBC Radio Leicester presented the old set's proud owner, schoolmaster Gilbert King, with a prize — a new cassette recorder and radio combined.

SUGGESTED CIRCUIT

MULTIPLE 555 CIRCUITS

By G. A. French

The ubiquitous 555 timer i. c. has been employed in many home-constructor projects, featuring mainly as a one-shot timer or as an astable multivibrator. It is also possible to have applications in which one 555 switches on another 555, but these are rarely encountered. This article describes methods by means of which 555 switching of this nature can be carried out, particular emphasis being placed on techniques which result in low power supply current consumption. This last factor can be of considerable importance when the equipment incorporating the 555 is battery operated.

555 SWITCHING

The output of a 555, at its pin 3, can be either high (close to the positive supply rail voltage) or low (close to the negative rail voltage) according to the state of the voltage or voltages at its inputs. When the 555 output is high it can provide

currents up to 200mA through a load connected between the output and the negative rail, and when it is low the output can cause currents up to 200mA to pass through a load returned to the positive rail.

In Fig. 1 (a) the output of ICA controls the operation of ICB, turning on the latter when ICA output is high. The operating current of ICB (and its immediate circuitry) is supplied, when it is turned on, through the output stage of ICA. In Fig. 1 (b) a similar situation is given, except that ICB is turned on this time when the output of ICA is low. Again, the operating current for ICB is provided by way of the output stage of ICA.

At first sight, there may appear to be little to choose between the two modes of operation but, when we look at the internal output stage inside the 555, we find that there are considerable differences. This output stage is shown in Fig. 2. When the 555 output is high, the high

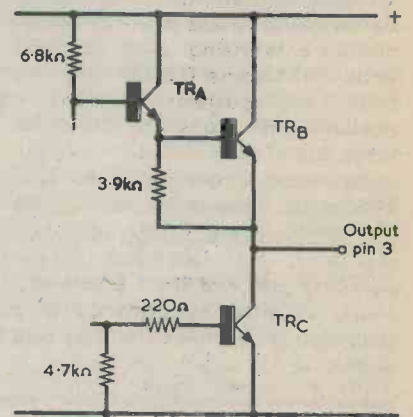


Fig. 2. The internal output stage circuit of the 555. Resistor values are nominal

voltage is maintained by the current passing through the 6.8K Ω resistor into the input base of the Darlington pair consisting of TRA and TRB. The bottom transistor, TRC, is cut off. It will at once be apparent that, even with a negligibly low load current, the output voltage must be less than the positive supply rail voltage by the base-emitter voltage drops in TRA and TRB these drops totalling about 1.2 volts. Further, the output voltage regulation, although quite adequate for normal 555 applications, is by no means perfect, and the output voltage can fall noticeably as load current increases. If, therefore, the switching circuit of Fig. 1 (a) is employed, the supply voltage provided through ICA to turn on ICB will be at least 1.2 volts below the positive rail and can be lower again if ICB draws a high current.

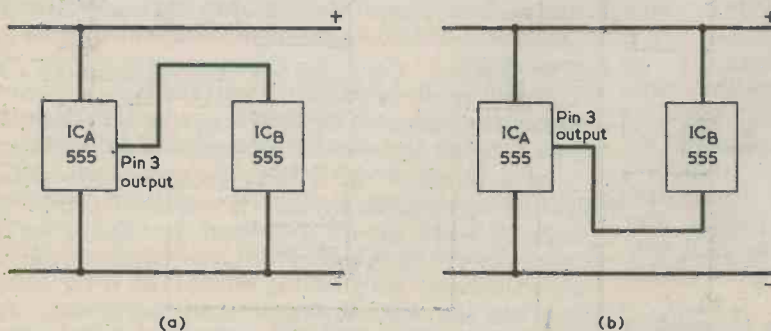


Fig. 1(a). One way of using a 555 i. c. to switch another 555. The second i. c. is turned on when the output of the first goes high

(b). With this alternative method the second i. c. is switched on when the output of the first is in the low state

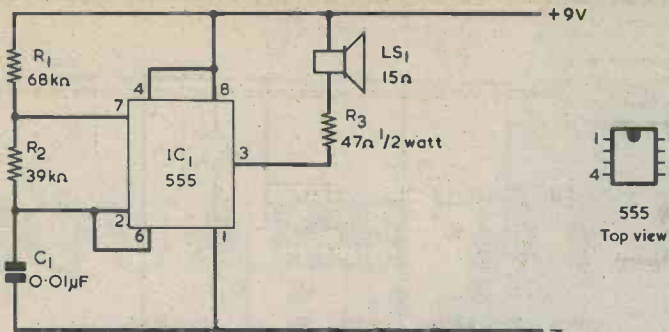


Fig. 3. A typical 555 multivibrator. This produces an a.f. tone with a frequency of 1kHz

Returning to Fig. 2 the output state given when the 555 output is low is provided by having TRA and TRB cut off, and TRC turned hard on. In this case the voltage drop between TRC emitter and collector will be typically less than 0.1 volt at low currents, rising to only slightly higher than some 0.2 volt at quite high load currents. Currently available 555 i.c.'s appear to be particularly good in this respect, those checked by the author exhibiting less than 0.2 volt drop at load currents of the order of 25mA and more. In consequence, the switching circuit of Fig. 1 (b) offers a better potential performance than does that of Fig. 1 (a): it allows very nearly the full supply voltage to be applied to the 555 which is controlled, and the applied voltage has good regulation. A further point not yet considered is that an unwanted amplification loop could be set up between the two i.c.'s when they share a common impedance. In Fig. 1 (b) the common impedance is a transistor which is turned hard on, and this can be almost completely relied on to break such a loop. As we shall see shortly, there can be another reason for preferring the approach shown in Fig. 1 (b).

MULTIVIBRATOR

Fig. 3 shows a standard 555 a. f. multivibrator driving a loudspeaker. The values of the timing components R1, R2 and C1 give a calculated running frequency (using Signetics data) of precisely 1kHz. The 555, when used as an audio oscillator, does not always perform satisfactorily if connected directly to a loudspeaker, and for this reason the 47Ω resistor is inserted in series. The a. f. tone produced is readily audible in normal circumstances. If the speaker is disconnected so that the i. c. oscillates without a load, the current drawn from the 9 volt supply is around 4mA.

The output at pin 3 is high during that part of the cycle when C1 charges via R1 and R2, and is low when C1 discharges through R2 on its own. With the component values shown, the output is high for about 75% of the cycle and is low for about 25% of the cycle. If we were to return the speaker to the negative rail, current would flow through it and through R3 for 75% of the cycle, whereas if we return the speaker to the positive supply, as is done in Fig. 3, the current flows for only 25% of the cycle. The average current drawn from the 9 volt supply will obviously be lower for the second mode of connection, and it is that which is to be preferred. In practice the total current drawn is about 25mA, this being the sum of the 4mA standing current in the i. c. and the average of the intermittent current passed by the speaker and R3.

In Fig. 4 we add a second 555, IC2, to form a 1-second bleeper.

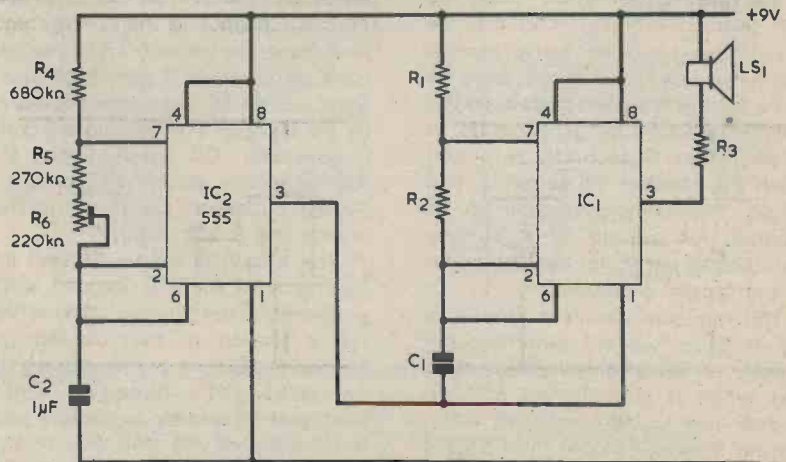


Fig. 4. Here, IC2 switches IC1 of Fig. 3 to form a 1-second bleeper. The average current consumption is considerably lower than that of the multivibrator on its own

The value of C2 is 100 times that of C1, whilst the value of R4 is 10 times that of R1. R5 and R6 in series can be set up to have 10 times the value of R2. With the capacitance value multiplied by 100 and the resistance values multiplied by 10, the frequency is divided by 1,000, whereupon the running frequency of IC2 is 1Hz. As with IC1, the output at pin 3 is high for about 75% of the cycle and low for about 25% of the cycle. If we used the switching circuit of Fig. 1(a), apart from any other difficulties the oscillator would be running for 75% of the time and the average current drawn from the 9 volt supply would be high. The arrangement of Fig. 4 employs the circuit of Fig. 1(b), with the result that the oscillator runs for only 25% of the time. Note that the *whole* of the oscillator circuit, including C1, is fed from the output of IC2. When pin 3 of IC2 is low the 1kHz oscillator draws its 25mA through the output transistor of IC2, and when pin 3 of IC2 is high the 1kHz oscillator draws no current at all.

The total current consumption of the circuit of Fig. 4 is the standing current of about 4mA in IC2 plus the 1kHz oscillator current of 25mA in IC1 for 25% of the time. These currents average out at slightly more than 10mA. So, by using the switching circuit of Fig. 4 we have obtained a bleeper whose average current consumption is two and a half times lower than the actual current drawn by the bleeper audio oscillator on its own! This large saving in current is almost entirely due to the technique of switching on the

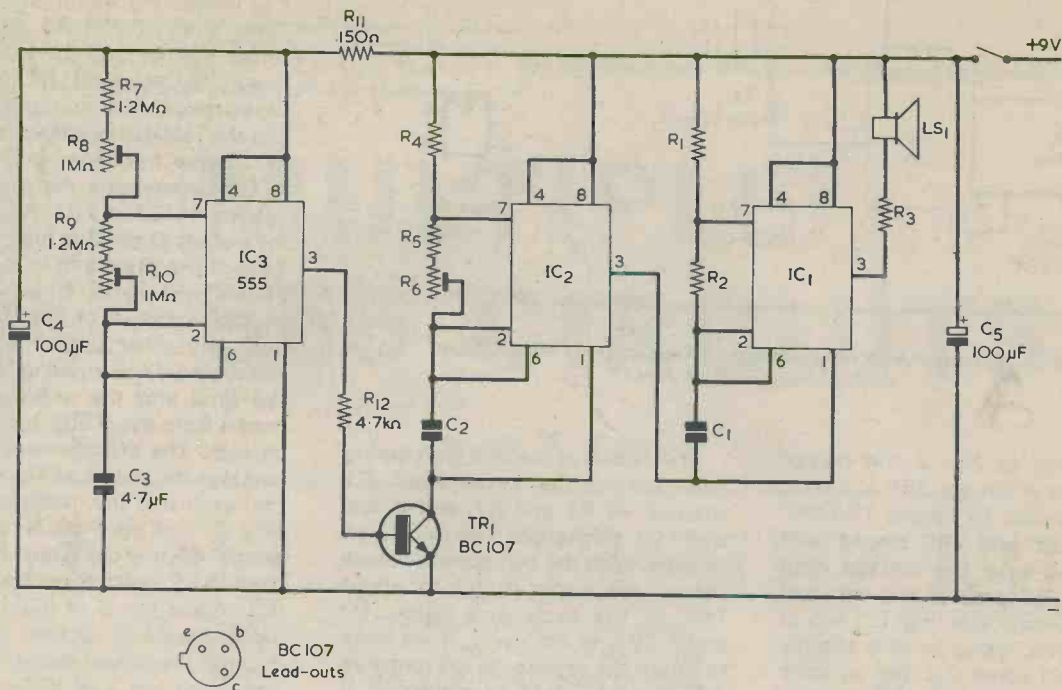


Fig. 5. Yet another 555, IC3, is added to the circuit of Fig. 4. The bleeper is turned off for 5 seconds and is then turned on for 10 seconds, giving a total cycle length of 15 seconds

oscillator from the output of IC2 when that output is in the low state.

In practice, the tolerances in the timing components of IC2 are taken up by adjusting R6 so that the bleeper runs as near to 1Hz as can be arranged. The bleeper can then function as a photographer's metronome or for timing other operations which are carried out in fixed numbers of seconds.

A THIRD 555

The metronome performance would be enhanced if we were to add a further 555 which caused the bleeper to sound for 10 seconds, to be silent for 5 seconds, to sound again for another 10 seconds, and so on. The complete cycle of 15 seconds, or quarter of a minute, would be of particular assistance for timing longer processes.

The requisite circuit is shown in Fig. 5. Since we are switching the bleeper on for a longer period than that when it is switched off, the bleeper has to be turned on when the pin 3 output of the third 555 is high rather than when it is low. The difficulties mentioned earlier will be present if we attempt to supply the bleeper directly from the pin 3 output when it is high, and there is

another problem in the present instance which is due to the switched pulses already present on the positive supply rail. These make it necessary to decouple the positive supply to the third 555 to prevent false triggering. If the bleeper were to draw current from its pin 3 that current would also flow through the decoupling resistor.

In Fig. 5 IC3 turns the bleeper on and off by way of the inverting transistor TR1. When IC3 output is low, TR1 is cut off and the bleeper section draws no current. TR1 is turned hard on when pin 3 goes high and it then passes all the current required by the bleeper. The decoupling components for IC3 are R11 and C4. Although not entirely essential, a bypass capacitor, C5, is also added across the 9 volt supply.

The circuit is set up by first adjusting R10 for a 5 second silent period from the bleeper, after which R8 is set up so that the bleeper produces 10 tone pulses during the period when it is turned on. It may be found necessary to slightly alter the values of R9 and R7. If it is found that the 5 second period is outside the range of R10 the value of R9 may be slightly increased or decreased as necessary. Similarly, the value of R7 may be slightly in-

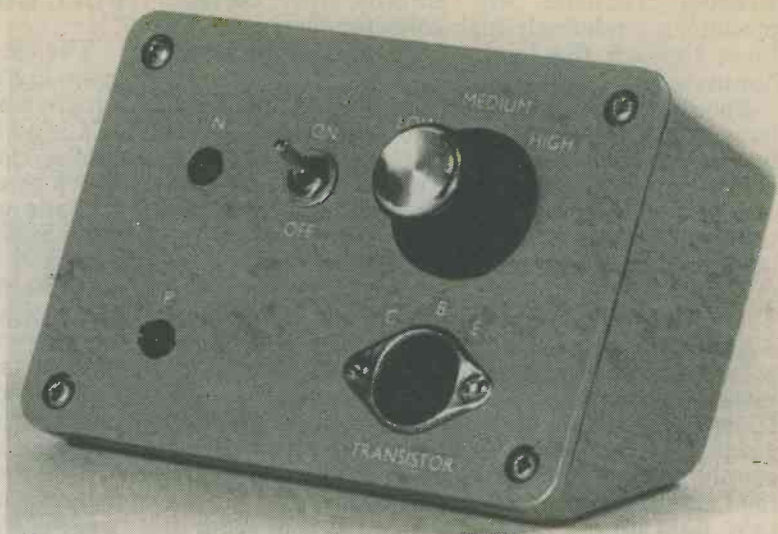
creased or decreased if the requisite series of 10 bleeps is outside the range of R8. With the prototype, the final settings in R8 and R10 were fairly close to the centres of their slider travel.

The total current from the 9 volt supply is now 4mA in IC3 when the bleeper is silent plus the current drawn by the bleeper and that flowing through R12 when the bleeper is turned on. The average current is therefore about 12mA, a slight increase on the average current of the continually running bleeper on its own.

Apart from R3, all the resistors in the circuits shown are $\frac{1}{4}$ watt, with a tolerance of 5% below 1M Ω and 10% above 1M Ω . Both C2 and C3 should be polyester capacitors. 4.7 μ F polyester capacitors are available from Greenweld, 443 Millbrook Road, Southampton. The three pre-set potentiometers can be 0.1 watt skeleton types.

A final point is that, after switching on the circuit of Fig. 5, the bleeper will produce more than 10 tone pulses before the circuit settles into its cycles of 5 seconds silence followed by 10 bleeps. The extra bleeps immediately after switch-on are given as C3 charges initially from its fully discharged state. ■

SQUARE WAVE



TRANSISTOR TESTER

By R. A. Penfold

N.P.N. AND P.N.P. TESTS WITHOUT POLARITY SWITCHING.

This very simple and handy device is not intended to give accurate measurements of current gain and leakage in transistors, but is meant to give a quick check of whether or not a transistor is serviceable, together with a rough indication of its gain. In most instances this is all that one needs to know about a transistor, and the device has the particular advantage that polarity switching for n.p.n. and p.n.p. transistors is carried out automatically. The unit can also be used to check rectifiers and diodes, and to indicate their polarity.

OPERATING PRINCIPLE

A basic test circuit for an n.p.n. transistor is shown in Fig. 1(a). When only the emitter and collector terminals of the transistor are connected into circuit the test transistor should pass only a very small leakage current. This flows through the light-emitting diode, D1, but will be too small to cause the diode to light up.

If the base terminal is next connected into circuit a small base-emitter current will flow via R1. A ser-

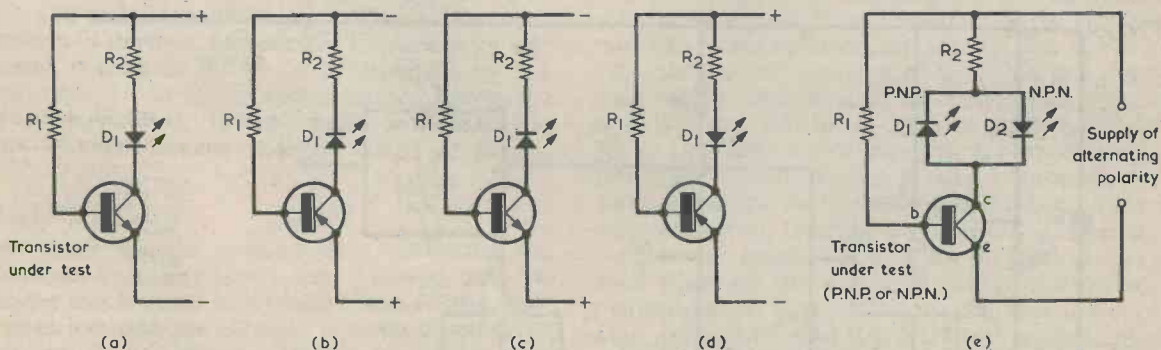


Fig. 1(a). A simple n.p.n. transistor test circuit. The l.e.d. should light when the test transistor is connected into circuit

(b). The supply and l.e.d. polarities have to be reversed for a p.n.p. test transistor
(c). Provided that the supply voltage is low, the l.e.d. will not light if an n.p.n. transistor is connected to the p.n.p. test circuit

(d). Similarly, a p.n.p. transistor will not light the l.e.d. in an n.p.n. test circuit
(e). The circuits of (a) and (b) can be combined in a single circuit powered by an alternating supply

viceable transistor will amplify this current, producing a relatively high collector current which flows through the l.e.d. and causes it to be illuminated.

Should the test transistor not be functional and have a high leakage current or a short-circuit between its collector and emitter, this will be indicated by the l.e.d. lighting up before the connection of the base terminal. An indication that the test transistor is open-circuit will be given if the l.e.d. does not light up when the base is connected to R1.

The same arrangement can be used for checking p.n.p. transistors except, of course, that the polarities of the supply and the l.e.d. have to be reversed. The required circuit is shown in Fig. 1(b). If, as in (c), an n.p.n. transistor is connected in a p.n.p. test circuit, assuming a fairly low power supply voltage, the transistor will not conduct and the l.e.d. will remain extinguished. Neither will the l.e.d. light up if a p.n.p. transistor is connected in an n.p.n. test circuit, as in Fig. 1(d).

These results enable the basic circuits of Fig. 1(a) and Fig. 1(b) to be combined into the single test circuit of Fig. 1(e). Here the supply continually alternates from one polarity to the other and D1 is replaced by two l.e.d.'s connected in parallel with opposite polarities. When a serviceable n.p.n. transistor is connected to the circuit it will pass collector current on the half-cycles when the upper supply rail is positive, and D2 will light up. On the alternate half-cycles, when the upper rail is negative, no current will flow and neither l.e.d. will be alight. Thus, D2 will flash on and off at the frequency of the alternating supply to indicate that the transistor is serviceable and that it is an n.p.n. type. A short-circuited test transistor will cause D2 to flash on and off, and also cause D1 to flash on and off out of phase with D2. A transistor with high leakage current will be indicated by D2 flashing on and off before the base terminal is connected. An open-circuit transistor will result in neither l.e.d. becoming alight.

With a p.n.p. test transistor the circuit will behave in the same way as with an n.p.n. transistor, except that all indications which were previously given by D2 will now be given by D1, and vice versa.

FULL CIRCUIT

The complete circuit of the transistor checker is given in Fig. 2. The alternating voltage is given by a square wave generator comprising IC1 and TR1. IC1 is a 555 operating in the astable mode, and its timing components, R1, R2 and C2, have values which give a running frequency of about 2.3Hz. R2 is made very high in value relative to R1 so that what is virtually a 50:50 square wave is obtained. The 555 output appears at its pin 3 and this provides one of the alternating supply points. Pin 3 also connects to the base of TR1 via current limiting resistor R3, whereupon TR1 functions as an inverter, providing the second alternating supply point at its collector. When pin 3 of the 555 is positive the collector of TR1 is negative, and when pin 3 is negative the collector of TR1 is positive.

Comparing with Fig. 1(e), the supply point at the collector of TR1 connects to the emitter of the test transistor. The supply point at pin 3 of IC1 couples via R5 and the two parallel connected l.e.d.'s to the collector of the test transistor. There are slight differences with Fig. 1(e) in that the single resistor coupling to the base of the test transistor now consists of one of the three resistors selected by S1, and also that these resistors are returned to the junction of R5 and the l.e.d.'s rather than to the upper rail, as in Fig. 1(e). This connection merely means that a slightly lower voltage, of either potential, is applied to the series base resistor.

When pin 3 of the 555 is positive the voltage it provides is about 1.2 volts lower than the positive supply rail. When pin 3 is negative and the collector of TR1 is positive, the positive supply to the test circuit is made via the series resistor R4. With transistors other than open-circuit types connected to the test terminals, there will be a voltage drop of up to some 2 volts in R4. This voltage drop does not affect the basic functioning of the circuit.

Having three resistors in the base circuit enables approximate indications of test transistor gain to be given. R8 gives the highest base current and even a low gain transistor should turn hard on when this resistor is selected. A much smaller base current is provided by R7, and only medium and high gain transistors will cause the appropriate l.e.d. to flash on at full brilliance. R6 gives an even smaller base

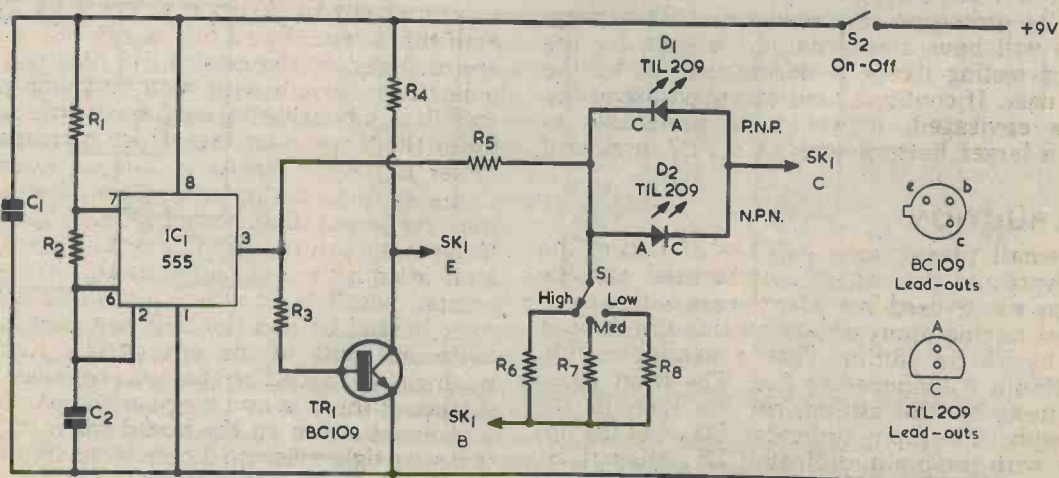


Fig. 2. Full circuit of the transistor tester. One rail of the alternating power supply appears at pin 3 of IC1, the other rail being given, after inversion, at the collector of TR1

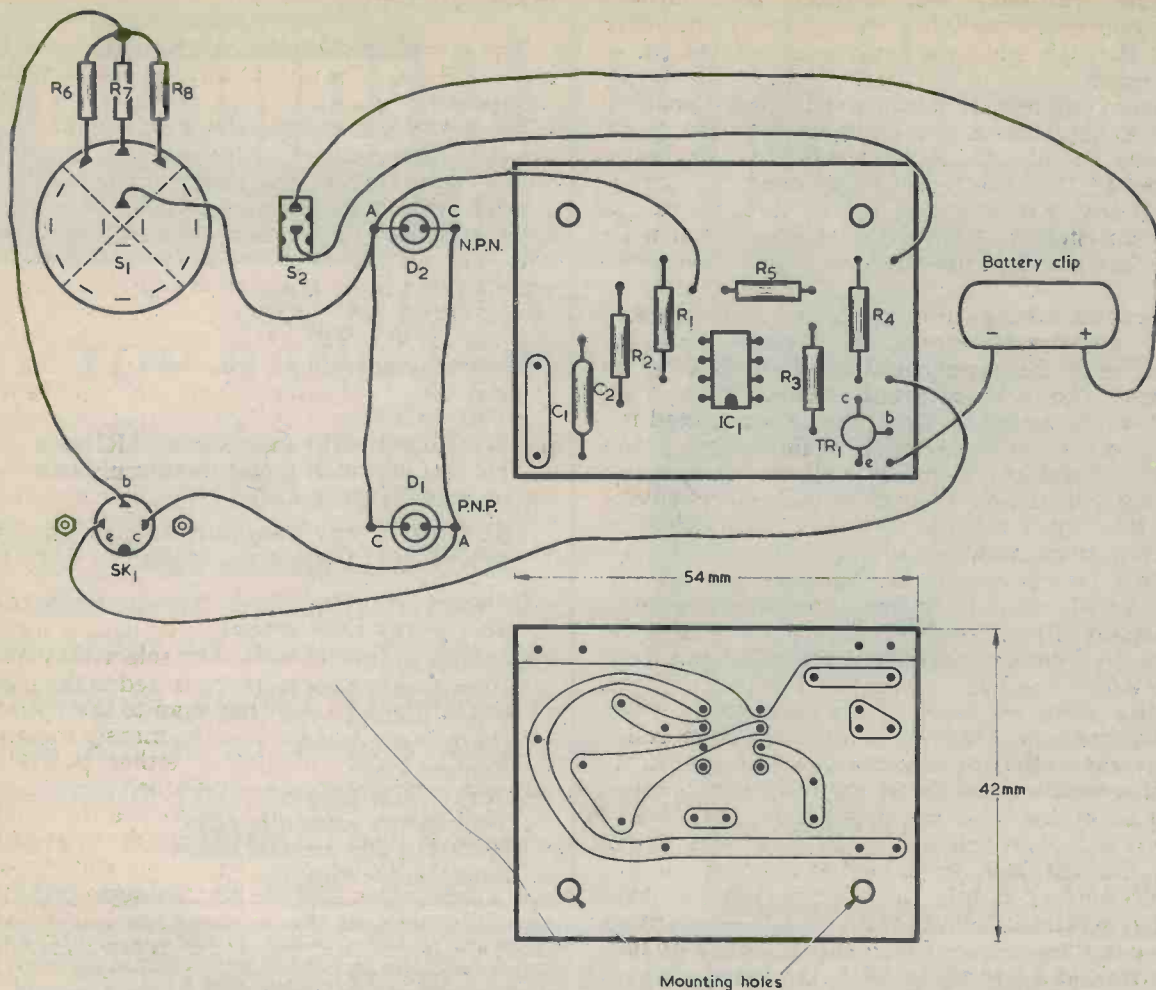


Fig. 3. Preparation of the printed circuit board and the point-to-point wiring in the transistor tester

current, and only high gain transistors will produce full brilliance from the l.e.d. when this resistor is switched in. In consequence, it is possible to obtain a reasonable idea of the test transistor gain by adjusting S1.

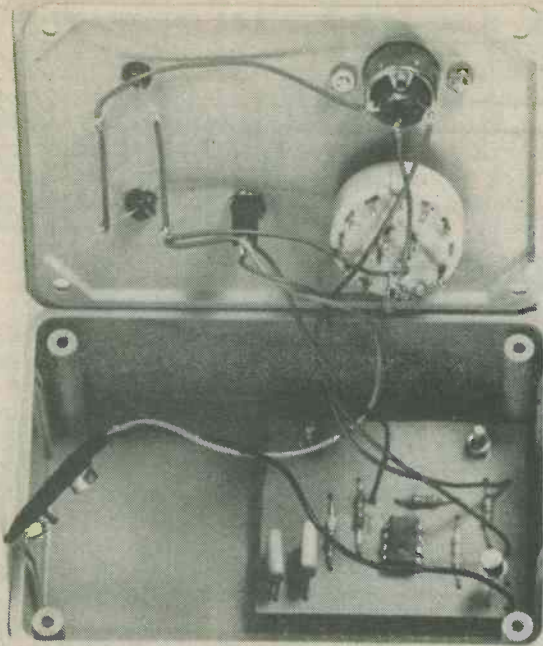
S2 is the on-off switch and C1 is a supply decoupling capacitor. The current consumption from the 9 volt battery is of the order of 16 to 18mA. The prototype unit employs a PP3 battery, and this will have a reasonable life span for the transistor testing likely to be carried out by the average user. If continual and extended use of the tester is envisaged, it would be preferable to employ a larger battery such as a PP7 or even a PP9.

CONSTRUCTION

Any small plastic case capable of taking the components and the battery may be used, and the prototype was housed in a plastic case with a sloping panel having approximate outside dimensions of 107 by 75 by 43mm. This is available from Home Radio (Components) Ltd. The front panel layout used by the author can be seen in the photographs. The n.p.n. indicator, D2, is at the upper left, with the p.n.p. indicator, D1, below it. S1 is at upper right with the test transistor socket below it, and S2 appears between D2 and S1. The l.e.d.'s are held in place by panel mounting bushes, and connections are made direct to their lead-outs.

The test transistor socket is a 3-way DIN socket, and many small transistors will plug directly into this. To cater for those which will not it is necessary to make up a test lead set. This simply consists of a 3-way DIN plug to which are connected three flexible leads of different colours terminated in miniature crocodile clips.

Most of the small components are assembled on a printed circuit board measuring 54 by 42mm., and this is reproduced full size in Fig. 3. R6 to R8 are mounted on the tags of S1. This is a 3-way 4-pole rotary switch with with only one pole used, and it is advisable to confirm with a continuity tester the three outer tags which correspond to the inner tag before wiring to this component. With some switches the relative positioning of the tags may vary from that shown in Fig. 3. The mounting holes in the printed circuit are for 6BA or M3 bolts and, when all the wiring is finally completed, the printed board is mounted on the rear panel of the case, behind S1 and the DIN test socket, by short bolts and nuts of the appropriate size. Spacing washers are needed on the bolts between the inside surface of the case and the printed board underside to prevent strain on the board when the nuts and bolts are tightened up. There is plenty of space for the PP3 battery in the remaining space on the rear panel and this can be held in place with a home-made metal bracket. Alternatively, the battery can be secured by a piece of Bostik Blue Tack.

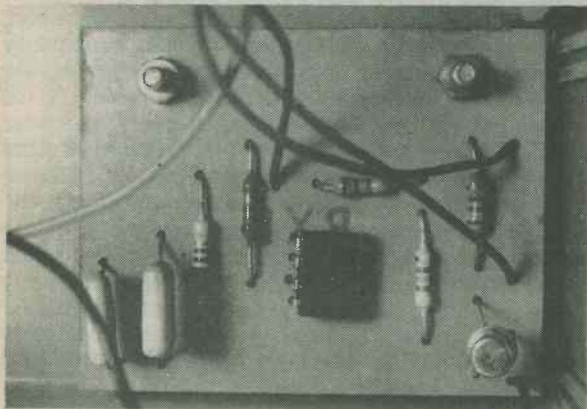


The printed board and the battery are positioned at the rear of the case. The remaining components are mounted on the front panel

USING THE UNIT

After completion the unit should be switched on with no test transistor connected. If either of the l.e.d.'s flashes even dimly there is a wiring error which has to be corrected.

When testing transistors, only the emitter and collector of the test transistor should be initially connected to the unit, whereupon neither l.e.d.'s should light up. Germanium transistors have higher leakage currents than silicon types and it is possible that a functional germanium device may cause one of the l.e.d.'s to light up rather dimly. However, the author tested a number of germanium transistors including small power output types, and none of them exhibited a sufficiently high leakage current to cause a visible glow in either l.e.d. When the base of the test transistor is



The printed circuit board is quite a simple assembly, with the components arranged as shown here

COMPONENTS

Resistors

(All $\frac{1}{4}$ watt 5% unless otherwise stated)

R1 1.2k Ω	R5 1k Ω
R2 6.8M Ω 10%	R6 1M Ω
R3 15k Ω	R7 100k Ω
R4 560 Ω	R8 10k Ω

Capacitors

C1 0.1 μ F type C280
C2 0.047 μ F type C280

Semiconductors

IC1 555
TR1 BC109
D1 TIL209 with panel-mounting bush
D2 TIL209 with panel-mounting bush

Switches

S1 1-pole 3-way miniature rotary (see text)
S2 s.p.s.t. subminiature toggle

Socket

SK1 3-way DIN socket

Miscellaneous

Plastic case (see text)
9-volt battery type PP3 (see text)
Battery connector
Control knob
3-way DIN plug
3 miniature crocodile clips
Materials for printed board
Nuts, bolts, wire, etc.

connected to the checker, either D1 or D2, as appropriate to the transistor type, should flash on and off at a rate of the order of 2 times a second.

If both l.e.d.'s flash on and off when the emitter and collector terminals are connected to the checker the test transistor is short-circuited and is unusable. Should neither l.e.d. flash when all three terminals are connected then the transistor is open-circuit and is similarly unusable.

For these tests, S1 is always set to the position which brings R8 into circuit. S1 is brought into use when a medium or high gain transistor is suspected of having inadequate gain or when it is desired to select transistors in approximate terms of gain. After confirming the general serviceability of the transistor with R8 selected, S1 then switches in R7 and R6. With R7 in circuit the test transistor needs to have a gain of about 50 times or more in order to bring the appropriate l.e.d. up to about full brightness. A current gain of at least a few hundred times is required for the same indication with R6 selected. On the prototype unit, the corresponding positions of S1 are indicated on the front panel by the legends "LOW", "MEDIUM" and "HIGH". These legends are cut out from "Panel-Signs" Set No. 3, available from the publishers of this journal.

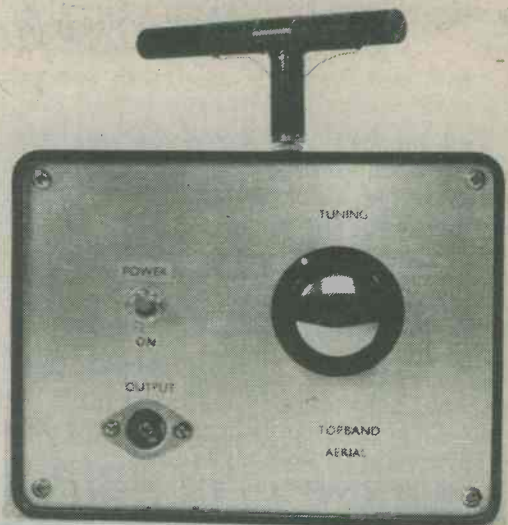
Rectifiers and diodes may also be checked. The cathode (usually marked by a coloured band around the body of the component) is connected to the emitter test point and the anode to the collector test point. This should result in D2 (n.p.n.) flashing on and off. If the connection causes D1 to flash then the cathode has been connected to the collector instead of the emitter test point. If neither l.e.d. flashes the rectifier or diode is open-circuit, and if both l.e.d.'s flash the device is short-circuited. ■

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VISUAL METRONOME WITH DOWNBEAT

by Paul M. Jessop

A really useful aid for the musician

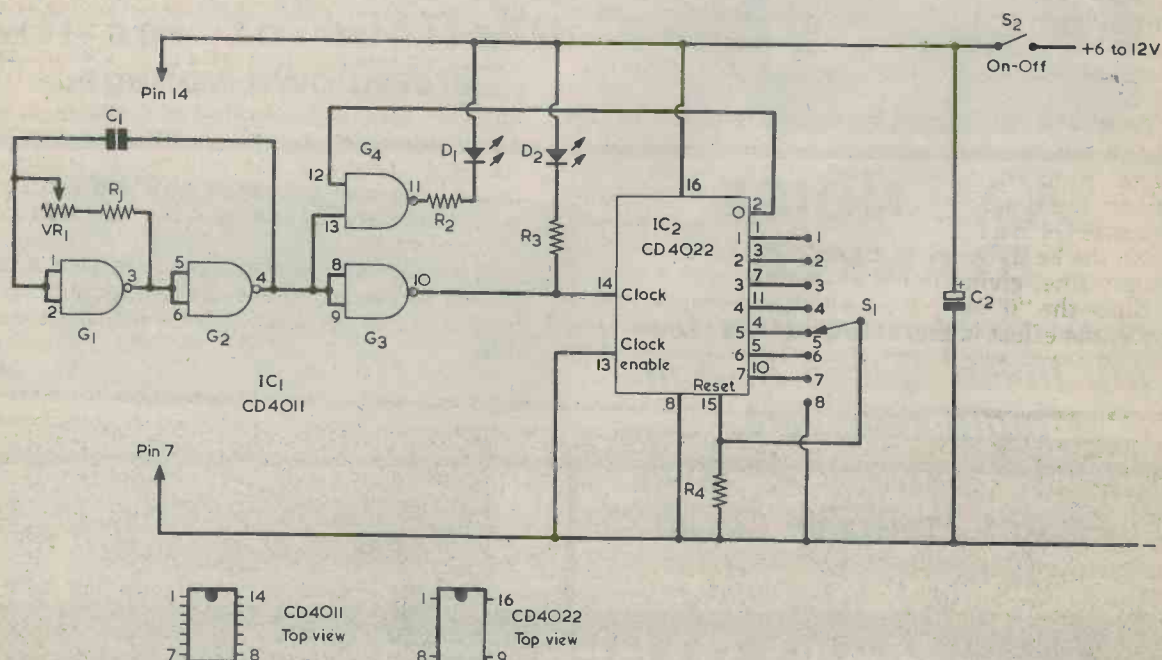
The mechanical metronome was invented by Maazel around 1800 and has proved remarkably durable as an aid to musicians. Its basic principles have not been altered but for a few minor additions since its conception. One of these additions, found on some modern models, is a counter which rings a small bell on the first beat of each bar. This is known as the "downbeat" since it is the beat on which a conductor would bring his baton vertically downwards. The counting is done mechanically and the counting ratio, i.e. the number of beats per ring of the bell, can be altered by means of a knob to give varying time signatures.

The metronome is used largely by musicians when learning to play a piece so that they can accurately gauge the pace of the piece when they come to perform it. However, it would be useful if conductors could also make use of such an instrument when conducting to ensure an even pace throughout. It is not suggested that *all* music requires this, but some specifically calls for it and some would benefit from it. For this purpose the

"click, click" of the mechanical metronome is clearly unacceptable, and so it was decided to use an l.e.d. to indicate the beats. It was also decided that the downbeat facility was useful and, initially, the downbeat was to have been indicated by making the l.e.d. flash more brightly. This approach was abandoned, however, because the display was not nearly clear enough. The method decided upon was to have two l.e.d.'s, one flashing on every beat and the other flashing only on the downbeat. The overall effect is similar to the initial method but is much more readily noticeable.

THE CIRCUIT

The circuit of the metronome is shown in the accompanying diagram, and it operates in the following manner. The NAND gates G1 and G2 form a free running astable multivibrator whose frequency is determined by VR1, R1 and C1. R1 is included to limit the upper frequency available, which would otherwise be unnecessarily high. The output



The circuit of the metronome. The downbeat is indicated by D1 flashing in unison with D2, the number of beats in each bar being selected by S1

COMPONENTS

Resistors

(All fixed values $\frac{1}{4}$ watt 10%)

R1 150k Ω

R2 390 Ω

R3 390 Ω

R4 12k Ω

VR1 2.2M Ω potentiometer, linear

Capacitors

C1 0.47 μ F type C280

C2 10 μ F electrolytic, 16 V. Wkg.

Semiconductors

IC1 CD4011

IC2 CD4022

D1 light-emitting diode, red

D2 light-emitting diode, red

Switch

S1 1-pole 8-way rotary

S2 s.p.s.t., toggle or slide

Miscellaneous

Circuit board

Battery, 6V, 9V or 12V

2 knobs

Case

of G2 is fed to both inputs of G3 which acts as an inverter giving an output signal with steeply rising edges. This output feeds an l.e.d., D2, through a current limiting resistor. The l.e.d. is taken to the positive supply line so that it is on when the output of G3 is low, and therefore when the output of G2 is high. The output of G3 also feeds pin 14 of IC2. IC2 is a divide-by-eight counter with eight decoded outputs and pin 14 is the clock input. To make the counter operate it is necessary to take the clock enable input (pin 13) low, and in this application the enable pin is wired permanently to the negative supply line.

On each rising edge of the clock input the counter advances by one and the corresponding output goes high. The reset pin (pin 15) is switchable between any of these outputs and this has the effect of altering the divide ratio of the counter. Consider what happens if the reset pin is connected to the "4" output. The chip counts from zero to three in the normal manner and then, on the next rising edge of the clock input, the "4" output goes high. This is of course connected to the reset input so the latter is also taken high, setting the counter to zero. Thus the counter spends practically no time with the "4" output high. In all, four pulses on the clock input cause the "0" output to go high once; this means that the counter is operating in a divide-by-four mode.

Now, the "0" output is fed to one of the inputs to G4, whose other input takes the original clock signal from the multivibrator. The output of G4 drives the l.e.d. which indicates the downbeat. Because G4 is a NAND gate, it is again necessary to drive the l.e.d. between the output and the positive supply line, giving inverted operation.

Since the "0" output goes high once per complete cycle, the effect is that D2 flashes at a regular rate, and on every, say, fourth flash D1 flashes with D2,

indicating the downbeat. The fact that when D1 flashes, D2 flashes at exactly the same time gives great visual impact. Naturally, setting S1 to alternative positions controls the number of flashes in D2 for every downbeat flash in D1. With S1 at position "8" the counter itself divides by this number.

CONSTRUCTION

Layout is not critical and the metronome can be built in any way favoured by the constructor. The author's prototype was assembled using plain 0.1 in. perforated board and i.c. sockets, and a wiring pencil dispensing solder-through enamelled wire. Since the integrated circuits are CMOS devices, the sockets enable the wiring to be completed and checked before the i.c.'s are removed from their shorting foam or foil and inserted in their holders.

Switch S1 can be a single pole 12-way rotary type with adjustable end stop set for 8-way operation. The supply voltage may have any value between 6 and 12 volts.

The housing is very much a matter of personal taste, although if the unit is to be used for concerts the traditional pyramidal housing might best be neglected in favour of a more unobtrusive box which can rest on the conductor's podium. Both the tempo control, VR1, and the beats-per-bar switch must be clearly calibrated and easily accessible. The calibration of VR1 is an easy matter, consisting of counting the number of flashes of the faster l.e.d. in a minute at different settings of the potentiometer. This value is the number found on a musical score.

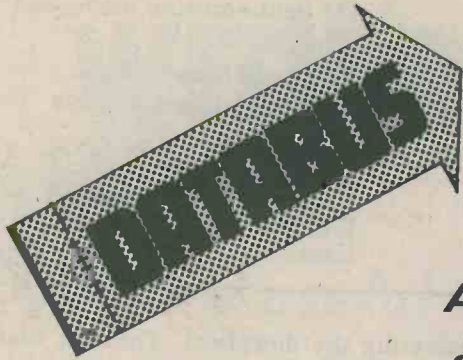
It would be unreasonable to say that a box such as this will ever replace the conductor, but it may help to make his task at least a little less demanding. ■

BACK NUMBERS

For the benefit of new readers we would draw attention to our back number service.

We retain past issues for a period of two years and we can, occasionally, supply copies more than two years old. The cost is 63p, inclusive of postage and packing.

Before undertaking any constructional project described in a back issue, it must be borne in mind that components readily available at the time of publication may no longer be so.



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PREFACE TO THE SERIES

Have you ever had a guilty feeling that you really ought to know something about microprocessors? Have you then found that all the books and articles you looked at seemed to be written in a foreign language? If so, this series is for you. It's written in English, and the aim is to explain microprocessors from the beginning, for the beginner, rather than from halfway on for the committed micro-nut. We have to assume some starting point, and the one we've taken is that the reader has some clue about digital signals (1 or 0), knows a little about logic gates (AND, OR) and has heard of a shift register. If you're rusty or uninformed on these topics, then you'll find this series a lot easier on the aspirins if you do a little bit of homework on these topics. If you're up to date on these (and we'll remind you about them), then you're ready to start!

The three basic questions that anyone starting to take an interest in microprocessors has to ask are: what are they, what do they do, and how do they work? We can't answer these questions in one part of a series, and the last question couldn't be answered *in detail* even in a large book. The microprocessor has been with us for ten years now, and progress has been really fast so that catching up is a painful process.

It is not helped, either, by some of the books that are around. The genuine manufacturers' databooks are useful, and some of the texts are well put together, but it's only too easy to lash out several pounds for a few scappily-duplicated sheets which tell you very little.

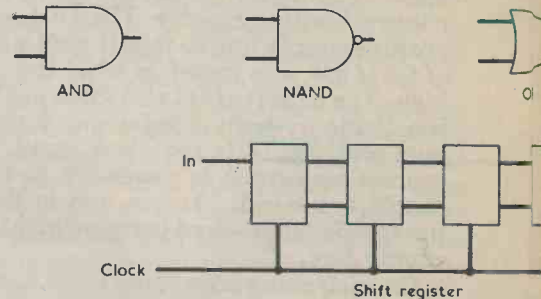


Fig. 1. Standard gate types and a shift register.

WHAT ARE THEY?

This is the easiest of the questions to answer. A microprocessor is a large scale integrated circuit (LSI circuit) which contains logic gates and shift registers arranged so that digital signals can be directed from one part to another under the control of other signal inputs. Let's compare it to something which has been around a bit longer. A telephone exchange exists to direct messages from one place to another by making connections. The connections are made automatically, by dialling a number code which causes the telephone line selectors to operate. You can imagine the microprocessor as a shrunken telephone exchange. The messages are digital signals, each consisting of eight digits or bits, and the code which decides which connections are made is called the program. If you've followed the "Tune-in to Programs" series, you'll know quite a bit about the idea of programming already.

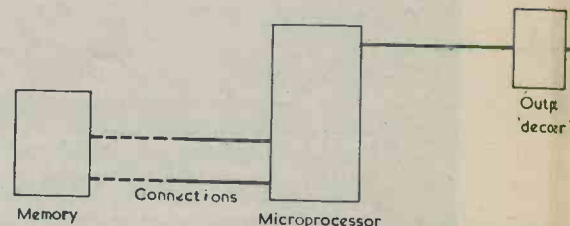


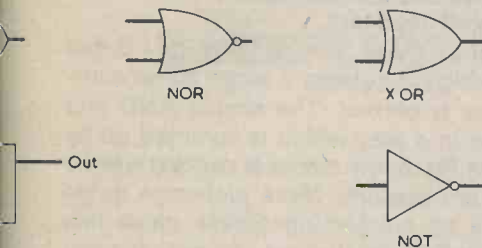
Fig. 2. The hardware surrounding a microprocessor would need at least

JS No. 1

HOW MICROPROCESSORS WORK

Explanation of microprocessors written by a person who understands elementary logic.

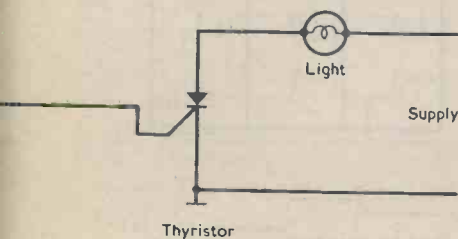
By Ian Sinclair



These are the bread and butter components of circuits

WHAT CAN IT DO?

By itself, it can do practically nothing. A microprocessor by itself is about as useful as a car wiring loom, with no car. To be of any use, the microprocessor needs two important collections of items. One set is called hardware, and it consists of all the i.c.'s, relays, thyristors, motors and other gadgets that are needed to make use of the microprocessor signals. Even if the microprocessor only has to switch on a light, you still need to make the microprocessor signal operate a switch — you can't just connect a microprocessor to a lamp bulb and hope for the best. Similarly, you need i.c.'s to provide the program for the microprocessor, to store any signals that need to be kept in memory, and even to act as input or output stages. After all, you wouldn't buy a radio i.c. without expecting to have to connect an aerial and a loudspeaker!



Even to operate a light, a microprocessor needs the items shown

The other set of essentials is called software, and consists of the program instructions. These might be a set of numbers written down, a tape cassette recorded with signals, punched paper tape, or even an i.c.; but absolutely nothing can happen without these program instructions. There's an important difference here. The hardware items, once designed,

Address	Data
0200	A510
0202	A611
0204	8511
0206	8610
0208	00

Fig. 3. Software — a tiny chunk of program. This example takes a number from memory and then returns it

can be churned out by factories in huge quantities and at reasonable prices. Software, even if only a short program, takes hours of thought and effort to develop, is *always* expensive, and must be 100 per cent correct. One single program may cost more than all the hardware put together.

At this point, a small warning is needed. Lots of people are in the business of persuading you to buy microprocessor development kits. There's nothing wrong with these kits as such, they are intended to make life easier for the professional engineer who is writing programs for machine control applications and they are ideal for the job. Unless you have such

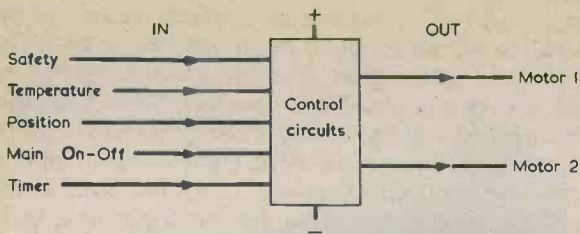


Fig. 4. Logic control. In this example various control signals fed into the controller are used to produce two output signals

a task in mind, though, they aren't so useful unless you really have an interest in programming. The capability of these devices for useful programs isn't a patch on a programmable calculator, and you'll find that even a simple program to add two fairly small numbers together takes a lot of learning.

Of course, many of these kits can be expanded into micro-computers. But do you really need a computer? If you do, then it'll be cheaper in the long run to consult IBM — at least all the snags will be ironed out, and there will be plenty of software at reasonable prices. What you save on hardware by buying or building a computer (which can still cost £400 upwards when all the necessary "extras" are bought) you lose in lashing out £50 or more for each program, or in countless hours of work writing your own. Of course, if you want to learn programming the expensive way, or if you're the only guy in the road without one...

When we're honest with ourselves, very few people *need* a computer, and very few will design control circuits. Nevertheless, we are going to find microprocessors cropping up in useful applications (as distinct from toys and status symbols) and we need to understand them. Just because we couldn't design a TV receiver is no cause for not understanding how it goes about its job, and the same is true for the micro. This series, then, will prepare you for the workshop manuals that will come with the next generation of washing machines, control heating systems and car electrics.

HOW DO THEY WORK?

Now we start on the answer to the third question, the one which will take up all the rest of this 12-part series. To start to understand how a microprocessor works, we really have to go back ten years in time to the events that led to the design of the first microprocessor. Visualise, if you can, the range of control applications for which t.t.l. and CMOS i.c.'s were being used some ten years ago. These applications included the control of machines like lathes, chemical processing plants, some air-conditioning systems and of course, computers; all large and costly machinery. In each case a large number of inputs was taken to a logic circuit, which produced outputs that turned motors or valves on or off, adjusted settings, changed temperatures. These logic circuits consisted of gates, like the familiar AND and OR gates, along with the very useful components called shift registers.

Remember what these components do. Gates give an output which is at logic 1 when some combination of inputs is correct. The simple AND and OR gates behave in a way which is summed up by the truth tables of Fig. 5; the output is decided entirely by what inputs are present. More elaborate gates can all be made by connecting simple gates like these into logic circuits, so that we can design a circuit to have any truth table we choose. For example, the truth table of Fig. 6 can be carried out (or *implemented*) by the circuit of Fig 7; the really complicated truth tables for machine control would, of course, need a large number of logic gates and would take a long time to design.

Shift registers do something quite different — they store a set of binary digits. A binary digit (or bit) is a 0 or a 1, and a set of eight is usually called a byte; these sets of eight are the groups that are used in microprocessors. When a set of bits, which may be any number but is often an 8-bit byte, is loaded into a shift register, it can be stored there. The shift register consists of flip-flops, each of which can be set to give a 1 or 0 output, and which can be clock-

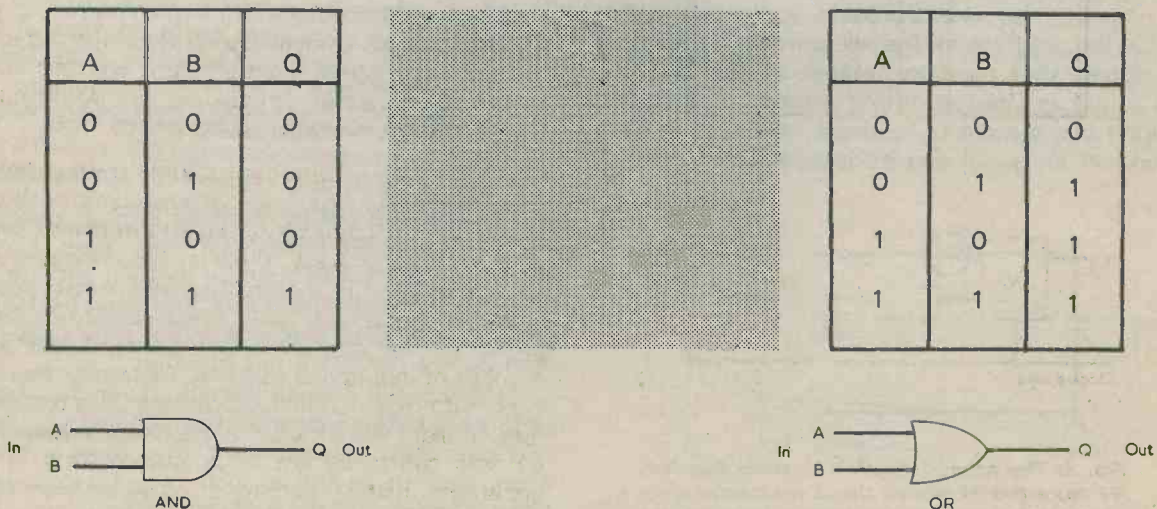


Fig. 5. Two "standard" gate types, and their truth tables. The truth table shows what the output will be for any possible combination of inputs. Two-input gates are shown

A	B	C	Q
0	0	0	0
0	0	1	0
0	1	0	0
0	1	1	1
1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	1
1	1	1	1

Fig. 6. A truth table which might be needed in a control system. The output is 1 only if at least two of the inputs are at logic 1

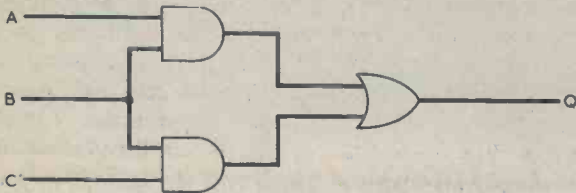


Fig. 7. An arrangement of gates which can produce the truth table of Fig. 6

Pulse No.	Q ₀	Q ₁	Q ₂	Q ₃
0	1	0	0	0
1	0	1	0	0
2	0	0	1	0
3	0	0	0	1
4	0	0	0	0

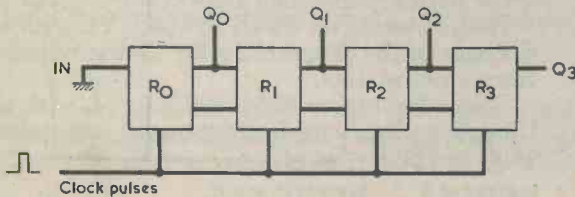


Fig. 8. The action of a shift register. Flip-flop R1 has a 1 at its output, the others have 0's. At each clock pulse, the 1 is shifted right into the next flip-flop. Any pattern of 0's and 1's stored in the flip-flops of the register would also be shifted. Left shift is also possible

ed. "Clocked" means that a clock pulse, a brief pulse repeated at intervals, is applied to each flip-flop in the shift register, causing the bits to shift one place from one flip-flop to the next in line. A direction control can decide whether this shift is to the left or to the right by altering the voltage on one pin of the i.c., perhaps 0 for left, 1 for right. Such a shift register can be filled either by sending a bit to an input pin for each flip-flop, a system called parallel entry, or by feeding a bit in at each clock pulse, a system called serial entry. Similarly, a register can transfer its bits along a set of lines (eight for a byte) in parallel, or one at a time along one line in serial form. If the output of the final flip-flop of the shift register is connected back to the input, then a complete set of clock pulses will leave the register just as it was before the clock pulses, even if each pulse has operated a gate on the way. A complete set of clock pulses means one clock pulse per flip-flop, eight for a byte. The bits can be stored unchanged therefore until a new set of inputs is loaded into the register. Now if all this is new to you, you aren't ready for reading about microprocessors yet. The aim of this very brief summary is to refresh the memory, not to teach from scratch, and to indicate where we start from.

Using shift registers along with gates, we can carry out any operation we like, providing that it can be done using binary digits. We can, for example, add binary numbers, subtract, multiply and divide them, decide when one number is equal to, greater than or less than another. We can also load numbers in, store them, and read them out; anything provided that what we operate on must be binary numbers. All of these operations can be carried out by digital circuits using gates and shift-registers.

Now the more elaborate our requirements to control machines become, the bigger the circuits get. The obvious thing to do, considering how many circuits can be built on a chip, is to make a circuit which has a huge number of gates and shift registers, and use the same chip for all control circuits. You can just imagine what a monstrosity this would be, with several inputs for each gate, and an output, each needing a pin. To use such a chip, we would need to connect the correct pins together to get the logic circuit we wanted. If we then wanted to change what the circuit did, we would need to rewire the connections between the pins.

It's just not on, and the solution to the problem is the device we call the microprocessor CPU (or MPU) chip. It contains gates and registers, but the connections *between them* are also made by gates under the control of a code of one or two bytes. In addition, operations are carried out one at a time rather than altogether, so that we don't need a huge number of inputs and outputs. To ensure that it can cope with really complex problems, it operates on a byte of eight bits at a time. The whole system is timed and controlled by clock pulses from a clock generator, usually running at 1MHz or more, so that a lot of operations can be carried out every second.

What are the advantages? Well, one is that the same component can be put to an incredible variety

of uses. If we want to change the action, we don't have to lift a soldering iron or a pair of cutters, we simply change the program instructions. Working with a complete byte at a time lets it cope with a lot of signal information — if we need larger numbers we can spread it over 2 or more bytes. Incidentally, pocket calculators use only 4 bit units for working with numbers up to 9.9999999×10^{99} — working with large numbers just takes longer.

The sequence of operating means that we can have practically as many inputs and outputs as we

like, providing we don't expect them to be absolutely simultaneous.

The important points about the microprocessor therefore are how we connect it up to other devices (to pass signals in and out) and how we program it to carry out the sequences of operations we want. We'll start next month by looking at some of the chips which are needed to make the microprocessor work, and the first and most important of these is memory.

(To be continued)

SHORT WAVE NEWS

FOR DX LISTENERS



By Frank A. Baldwin

Times = GMT

Frequencies = kHz

●NEWSCASTS FROM INDIA

All India Radio, Delhi, operate a News Broadcasts Service in their Domestic Services, these programmes being in English, English/Hindi or in Urdu. The newscasts last from 5 to 15 minutes at various time periods from 0030 through to 1740 on many differing channels. Reception of some of these broadcasts here in the U.K. would represent quite a feat of Dxing for beginners — 'chasing' these transmissions can provide quite a lot of 'fun and games' — try it and find out!

Listed here are the afternoon transmissions (correct at the time of writing) which are most likely to be heard here in the U.K..

From 1230 to 1240 in English/Hindi on 3235, 3355, 6120, 9575, 9590, 11620, 11735 and on 15430.

From 1430 to 1435 in English on 3255, 3925, 4860, 6145, 7135, 7195, 7280, 7412, 9950 and on 10335.

From 1530 to 1545 in English on 3235, 3255, 3315, 3355, 3925, 4860, 6145, 7135, 7195, 7280, 7415, 9950 and on 10335.

From 1730 to 1740 in English/Hindi on 3255, 3925, 4860, 6145, 7195, 7412 and on 9950.

AROUND THE DIAL

In which are listed some of the transmissions recently logged which we hope will be of interest to many readers.

●LIBYA

Tripoli on 11700 at 1120, OM with Arabic chants in the Domestic Service, scheduled here from 1000 (variable) to 1615. The Foreign Service operates here from 1700 to 2200.

●CLANDESTINE

"Radio Freedom from South Yemen" on a

measured 9953 at 1928, OM with songs in Arabic, local-type music. The schedule is from 1130 to 1430 and from 1630 to 2000 at the time of writing this article.

"Voice of the Malayan Revolution" on 15790 at 1520, childrens choir plus piano, YL with identification at the end of the English programme at 1530. Schedule of the English transmission is from 1450 to 1530 daily.

"Voice of Lebanon" on 6550 at 1932, OM with songs in Arabic, Arabic music. The schedule is from 1900 to 2105 in Arabic (English newscast at 1745).

●CHINA

Radio Peking on 9860 at 1940, YL with Chinese songs in the Portuguese programme to Europe and Africa, scheduled from 1900 to 2000.

Radio Peking on 9880 at 1945, OM with the English programme to North and West Africa, scheduled from 1930 to 2030.

Radio Peking on 9900 at 1900, chimes 'East is Red', identification in the Hausa programme to West Africa, scheduled here from 1900 to 1930.

Radio Peking on 9945 at 1530, YL with song in Chinese in the programme for Vietnam, scheduled from 1500 to 1600.

Radio Peking on 9965 at 1520, YL with song in Chinese in the Bengali programme, scheduled from 1500 to 1600.

●CHINA — REGIONAL

Nanning on 4905 at 2012, YL in Chinese with a relay of Peking 1. The schedule is from 2000 to 2200 (May to October from 2000 to 2300 and 1100 to 1735).

●TAIWAN

BCC Taipeh on 9765 at 1940, YL with the French programme for Europe, the Middle East

RADIO AND ELECTRONICS CONSTRUCTOR

and Africa, scheduled from 1930 to 2020. Newscast until 1942 then YL with a song in Chinese.

● **NORTH KOREA**

Radio Pyongyang on **6600** at 2054, light music Euro-style, 4 low plus 1 high pitched 'pips' time-check at 2100 followed by identification and news in the Korean Domestic Service, also logged in parallel on **11350**. The schedule is from 2000 to 0830 and from 1500 to 1800.

● **JAPAN**

Tokyo on **9585** at 2104, OM with a newscast in English after station identification, schedule (in English and Japanese) is from 2100 to 2130.

● **VATICAN**

Vatican City on **9625** at 2001, YL with Rosary to Europe and Africa, scheduled here from 1945 to 2005 and also in parallel on **9645**.

● **ISRAEL**

Jerusalem on **9815** at 2018, OM with the English programme to Europe, the Middle East, North America and South West Africa, scheduled from 2000 to 2030.

● **SEYCHELLES**

Mahe (FEBA) on **11860** at 1750, OM with the Arabic programme to North East Africa and the Middle East, YL with identification in this Far East Broadcasting Association transmission scheduled from 1700 to 1800.

● **MADAGASCAR**

Radio Netherlands Relay on **11730** at 1835, OM with a newscast in the English programme for Africa, scheduled here from 1830 to 1920.

● **GREECE**

Athens on **11730** at 1546, YL with songs, typical Greek music in the Greek programme to North America, scheduled from 1500 to 1550.

● **SPAIN**

Madrid on **11840** at 2039, OM with news of local events — including maximum and minimum temperatures at many Spanish resorts — in the English programme for Europe, scheduled from 2030 to 2130.

Madrid on **11880** at 0550, YL with a newscast in the English programme to North America, scheduled from 0515 to 0615.

Madrid on **11920** at 1130, YL with identification and a newscast in the Spanish programme for Latin America, North Africa and the Middle East, scheduled from 1100 to 1235.

● **ITALY**

Rome on **11800** at 1940, YL with the local news in the English programme for the U.K., scheduled here from 1935 to 1955.

● **FINLAND**

Helsinki on **11755** at 1930, OM with news of the Nordic Countries in the English programme to Europe and Africa, scheduled from 1930 to 2000.

● **KUWAIT**

Radio Kuwait on **11990** at 1917, local-type music in the Arabic Domestic Service, scheduled here from 1830 to 2110.

● **ROMANIA**

Bucharest on **11720** at 0540, YL with the news in the English programme to Africa, scheduled from 0530 to 0600. Also logged in parallel on

11830.

Bucharest on **15335** at 0650, OM and YL alternate with news items in the English programme for the Pacific, scheduled from 0645 to 0715.

● **BURUNDI**

Bujumbura on **3300** at 1809, OM with the local news in French. This is the Home Service 1 in French and vernaculars, being scheduled here from 0330 to 0600 (Sundays through to 2100) and from 1500 to 2100 weekdays. The power is 25kW but the channel is anything but a good one!

● **RWANDA**

Kigali on **3330** at 1813, OM with a newscast in French in the Home Service, scheduled here from 0300 to 0600 (Sunday until 0900), 0900 to 1200 (Saturday and Sunday until 2100) and from 1330 to 2100. The power is 5kW.

● **ANGOLA**

Luanda (R.Nacional) on **3355** at 1919, OM and YL alternate with announcements in Portuguese. The schedule is from 1530 to 2400 and the power is 10kW.

● **VENEZUELA**

Radio Occidente, Tovar, on **3225** at 0220, religious service in Spanish, extended schedule — which is normally from 1030 to 0200. The power is 1kW.

Radio Universidad, Merida, on **3395** at 0230, OM with identification, jingles, LA music. The schedule is from 1000 to 0400 and the power is 1kW.

● **COLOMBIA**

Ecos del Combeima, Ibague, on **4875** at 0653, OM with identification as "Radio Super" followed by Sambas etc. The schedule is on a 24-hour basis and the power is 5kW.

Radio Cinco, Villavicencio on **5040** at 0659, OM with a lullaby in Spanish, OM with identification at 0701. The schedule is around the clock and the power is 3kW.

Emisora Nuevo Mundo, Bogata, on **4755** at 0500, OM with full identification followed by a newscast in Spanish. The schedule is around the clock and the power is 1kW.

Ondas del Meta, Villavicencio, on **4885** at 0453, OM with commercials, identification and Sambas etc. The schedule is from 0900 to 0500 and the power is 1kW.

● **ECUADOR**

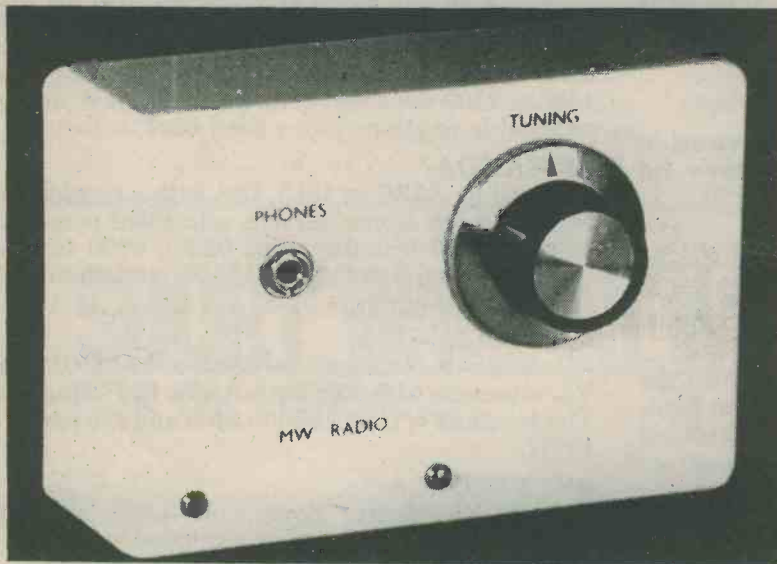
Radio Popular, Cuenca, on a measured **4801** at 0507, OM with identification as "Radio Popular" (sometimes identifies as "Radio Amiga Popular de Cuenca"). The schedule is around the clock and the power is 2kW. This one is best received after Radio Lara, Barquisimeto, Venezuela, on **4800** closes at 0400.

Radio Splendit, Cuenca, on **5025** at 0242, OM with a love song in Spanish, OM with announcements and identification at 0245. The schedule of this one is from 0900 to 0500 (variable 0430-0530) and sometimes around the clock. The power is 5kW.

● **BRAZIL**

Radio Aparecida, Aparicida, on **5035** at 0249, OM with announcements in Portuguese, local-style dance music. The schedule is from 0900 to 0300 and the power is 1kW.

BEGINNER'S MEDIUM



The receiver has only one control, this being for tuning. It switches on automatically when the crystal earpiece plug is inserted in the jack socket

By

I. M. Attrill

This simple receiver is easy to construct and uses readily available components. It is a t.r.f. (tuned radio frequency) design having a single transistor regenerative detector followed by a high gain i.c. audio amplifier stage, and the completed set requires no alignment. The radio is powered by an internal 9 volt battery of PP3 size, which provides many hours of use as the current consumption is only about 3mA. A ferrite rod aerial is employed and gives sufficient sensitivity to receive the local BBC medium wave stations as well as Luxembourg and a few other Continental signals during the hours of darkness. The output is suitable for a crystal earpiece. Magnetic phones or a magnetic earpiece cannot be used.

CIRCUIT DIAGRAM

The full circuit of the "Beginner's Medium Wave Radio" appears in Fig. 1. L1 is the tuned winding of the ferrite aerial, and it can be tuned over slightly more than the medium wave band by means of variable capacitor VC1. The low impedance coupling winding, L2, passes the signal picked up by the tuned winding to the base of the high gain common emitter amplifier, TR1, via C2. R2 provides base bias.

The r.f. collector load for TR1 is R4, which couples to the positive rail via R3 with C3 acting as a bypass capacitor at radio frequencies. TR1 offers greater gain to positive signal half-cycles than it does to negative half-cycles because the positive half-cycles cause it to draw a higher collector current. The result is that the average collector current of TR1 varies with the amplitude of the received signal. Since that amplitude itself varies with the modulating broadcast a.f. signal, it follows that the a.f. modulation is recovered at TR1 collector. The r.f. carrier is present also at TR1 collector

and is prevented from passing further by the filter consisting of R4 and C3. This capacitor has a relatively high reactance at audio frequencies, whereupon a proportion of the recovered a.f. at TR1 collector is passed to the receiver a.f. amplifier via C4.

The collector of TR1 is coupled back to the ferrite aerial tuned circuit by way of R1, the connection being phased so as to give positive feedback. This regeneration considerably improves the sensitivity of the receiver, since it increases the efficiency of TR1 as a detector by enhancing its ability to give increased gain on positive half-cycles. The feedback also improves the selectivity of the set, enabling it to pick out just one of several closely spaced transmissions.

The a.f. output from the detector is still not very great, being typically in the region of 1 millivolt. A large amount of audio amplification must therefore be used to bring the signal up to a sufficiently high level for the crystal earpiece. This amplification is provided by IC1, which is an operational amplifier used in the inverting mode. The non-inverting input (marked with a plus sign) is biased to half the supply voltage by the equal value resistors, R6 and R7. R8 causes the inverting input (marked with the minus sign) to take up the same potential as the non-inverting input and also, with R5, provides a negative feedback network. The two resistors limit the gain of IC1 to a level which is approximately equal to the value of R8 divided by the value of R5. The consequent a.f. gain is 1,000 times, and this high level of amplification ensures that a good volume level is obtained from any signal of reasonable strength.

The earpiece is driven direct from the output of IC1, and as it is a crystal type there is no need for an output d.c. blocking capacitor. The earphone

WAVE. RADIO

A PROJECT WITH PARTICULAR APPEAL FOR THE NEWCOMER.

COMPONENTS

Resistors

(All $\frac{1}{4}$ watt 5% unless otherwise stated)

R1 680k Ω (see text)

R2 2.2M Ω 10%

R3 3.3k Ω

R4 1.2k Ω

R5 10k Ω

R6 22k Ω

R7 22k Ω

R8 10M Ω 10%

Capacitors

C1 100 μ F electrolytic, 10V Wkg.

C2 0.1 μ F type C280

C3 0.047 μ F type C280

C4 0.22 μ F type C280

VC1 300pF variable, "Dilecon" (Jackson)

Inductors

L1, L2 medium wave aerial coil type
MWC2 (see text)

Semiconductors

TR1 BC109C

IC1 CA3140E (8-pin d.i.l.)

Socket

JK1 3.5mm. jack socket (see text)

Miscellaneous

Plastic case (see text)

Veroboard, 0.1in. matrix

Ferrite rod, 9.5mm. diameter (see text)

2 ferrite rod mounting clips (see text)

9-volt battery type PP3

Battery connector

Control knob

Crystal earpiece with 3.5mm. jack plug

8-way d.i.l. i.c. holder (see text)

Wire, solder, etc.

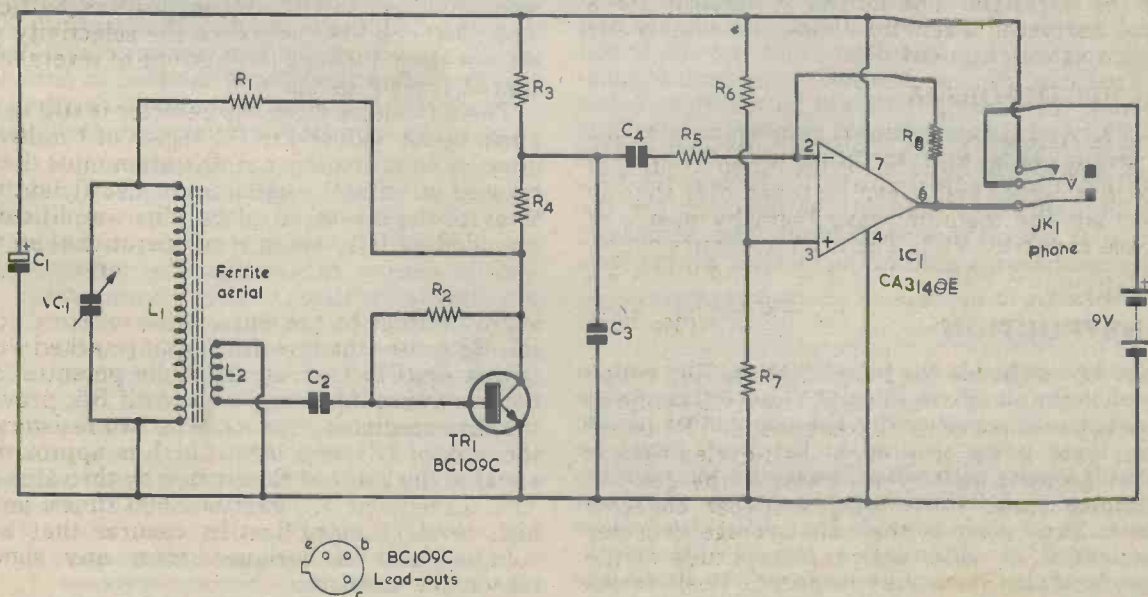
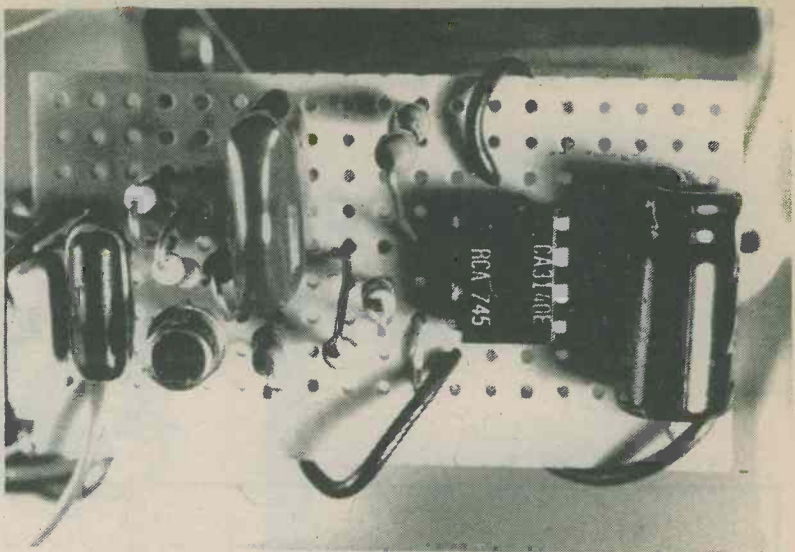


Fig. 1. The circuit of the Beginner's Medium Wave Radio. This drives a crystal earpiece

The parts which are assembled on the Veroboard component panel. If desired, an i.c. holder may be employed for the CA3140E



jack socket has a "make" contact which automatically switches the set on when the earphone is plugged in, and switches it off again when the plug is removed. There is in consequence no need for an on-off switch.

COMPONENTS

The receiver is housed in a plastic box type PB1, having dimensions of 114 by 76 by 38mm., which is available from Maplin Electronic Supplies. A metal case cannot be used because this would screen the ferrite rod and prevent the reception of signals. It is necessary, also, for VC1 and the phone jack socket to be mounted on an insulated panel because the modification to the phone jack results in its mounting bush having a different potential to that at the mounting bush of VC1. The phone jack should be a type having an "open" construction, i.e. it should not have an insulated body.

The ferrite aerial coil and the CA3140E used for IC1 are both available from Ambit International, who can also supply the two plastic clips which hold the ferrite rod in place. As is described shortly, the ferrite rod will in most instances have to be a longer rod which is cut down, and the longer rod required can also be obtained from Ambit International. (In passing it should be mentioned that the 1978 Ambit International catalogue states that the ferrite aerial coil specified is "not suited to bipolar discrete inputs." However, its characteristics are perfectly satisfactory for the particular circuit described here). The remainder of the components used in the receiver are generally available.

CONSTRUCTION

The layout inside the plastic case can be seen in the photograph of its interior. The ferrite rod is mounted at the bottom by the two Ambit plastic clips, these being secured to the front panel by short 6BA bolts with nuts. The ferrite rod requires a diameter of 9.5mm. and a length of about 100mm., and it is probable that difficulty will be experienced in obtaining a rod of this length. Because of this it may be necessary to obtain the length from a longer rod. The procedure here is to file a fairly deep V-shaped groove all round the rod at the point where it is to be broken and to then

lightly tap the required length of the rod against the edge of a wooden table or bench. It does not matter if there is a rough finish to the rod at the point of the break. Rods with lengths of 140, 160 and 175mm. can be obtained from Ambit International. Since it is not easy to shorten a rod which is only slightly over the required final length, it would be preferable to start off with the 160mm. or 175mm. rod.

The variable tuning capacitor is mounted on the right hand side of the front panel, as viewed from the front, and this requires a mounting hole of 10mm. diameter. The jack socket is fitted to the left of the tuning capacitor and requires a hole with a diameter of about 6.5mm.

The jack socket will normally have contacts which break a circuit when the plug is inserted, these usually being employed to mute a speaker when an earphone is connected. The appearance of the contacts is as shown in Fig. 2(a). It is merely necessary to carefully bend back the thicker fixed contact and then bend it downwards so that it is below the springy moving contact. The fixed contact should be finally positioned so that, without a plug inserted, the moving contact does not touch it. At the same time the two contacts should connect together when the plug is inserted in the socket.

Apart from the battery and its connector, the remaining components are assembled on a

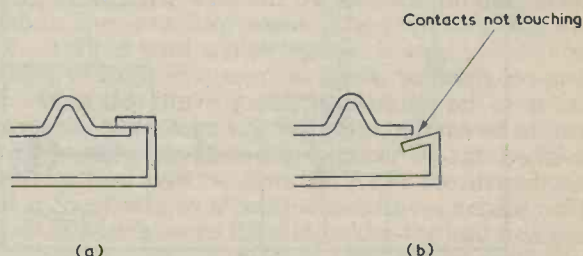


Fig. 2(a). The rear ends of the contacts of the jack socket before modification
(b). One of the contacts is bent so that the two contacts only make when the jack plug is inserted

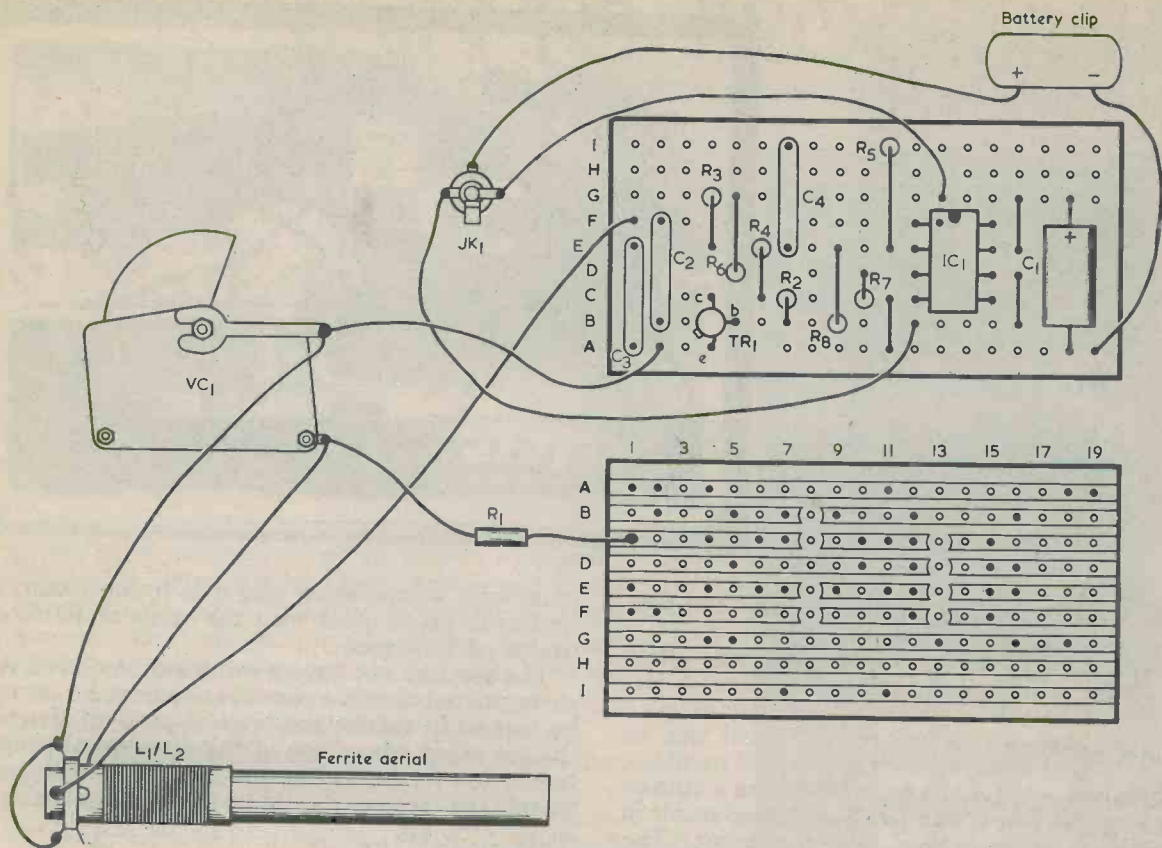


Fig. 3. Component layout on the Veroboard panel and the general wiring of the receiver

Veroboard of 0.1in. matrix having 19 holes by 9 copper strips. Details of this panel are given in Fig. 3, which also illustrates all the point-to-point wiring of the receiver.

Start by cutting out the Veroboard to the correct size using a hacksaw, and then make the eight breaks in the copper strips. The breaks can be made with a Vero spot face cutter or a small twist drill held in the hand. The three link wires and the components should then be soldered to the board at the positions indicated in Fig. 3.

IC1 should be the last component to be soldered to the board. This device has a PMOS input stage and it can be damaged by high static voltages if these should appear at the inputs. The i.c. will almost certainly be supplied with its pins imbedded in a piece of metal foil or conductive foam, and it should not be removed from this until it is time for it to be connected into circuit. All soldering should be carried out with an iron having a reliably earthed bit. Chances of accidental damage are much reduced if an 8-pin i.c. holder is employed. This holder is soldered to the board in place of the i.c., and the latter is then inserted in the holder at a late stage of the construction.

The point-to-point wiring is next carried out, and it should be noted that one lead of R1 is soldered to strip "C" on the copper side of the board. Its other lead connects to the fixed vanes tag of VC1, as shown. The leads to the jack socket, to VC1 and to the aerial coil employ single strand p.v.c. covered wire, and they should be kept short and direct. It

will then be found that they are sufficient to hold the component board in position, making any further mounting unnecessary. The board fits into the space between the jack socket and the ferrite aerial, with the component side towards the aerial and C3 nearest VC1. Its position is clearly shown in the photograph of the inside of the receiver case. The battery is fitted above the phone jack and may be held in place by means of Bostik Blue Tack.

If any difficulty is experienced in identifying the tags of L1 and L2, this should be cleared up by visually inspecting the coil and comparing it with the circuit diagram of Fig. 1. It should then be apparent which two tags connect to the negative supply rail and which connect to VC1 and C2.

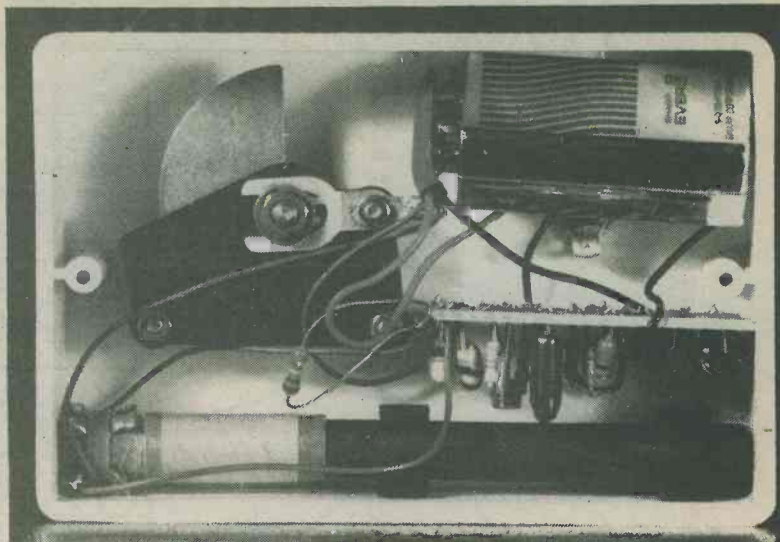
ADJUSTMENT

Provided that the aerial coil is positioned right at the end of the ferrite rod the set should work correctly without any alignment. If it does not, switch off at once and check the wiring thoroughly for errors.

It is just possible that the regeneration provided by R1 is too great, causing the detector to oscillate and resulting in a whistle of varying pitch as the set is tuned across a station. This is unlikely but, should it occur, the trouble can be cured by experimentally increasing the value of R1 until satisfactory results are obtained.

It is more likely that the level of regeneration will be below optimum, but this will not prevent the

The internal layout inside the receiver case. The ferrite rod is secured by two plastic clips, one slightly left of its centre, as shown here, and one near its right-hand end



receiver from exhibiting good selectivity and sensitivity.

Experimentally minded constructors can, if they wish, try the effect of reducing the value of R1, whereupon it may be found that reception of weak signals is improved. However, R1 must not be made too low in value or the detector will oscillate, producing the whistle of varying pitch as a station is tuned in. Too low a value in R1 can also result in the receiver giving a low quality output. The prototype receiver gives good results with less than

maximum regeneration and it is by no means essential to experiment with the value of R1 to optimise performance.

The set does not have a volume control. If a very strong signal should cause overloading the set may be turned to reduce the level of pick-up. Turning the set takes advantage of the directional properties of the ferrite rod aerial. Similarly, with weak signals the receiver should be oriented for strongest signal pick-up.

AN ENTREE TO SOLDERLESS BREAD BOARDING

For those interested in getting their feet wet in solderless breadboarding without wringing their wallets dry, Continental Specialties Corporation recommends their model PB-6 Proto-Board® Kit, low cost (£9.20) way of quickly learning and appreciating the advantages of

the solderless breadboarding approach.

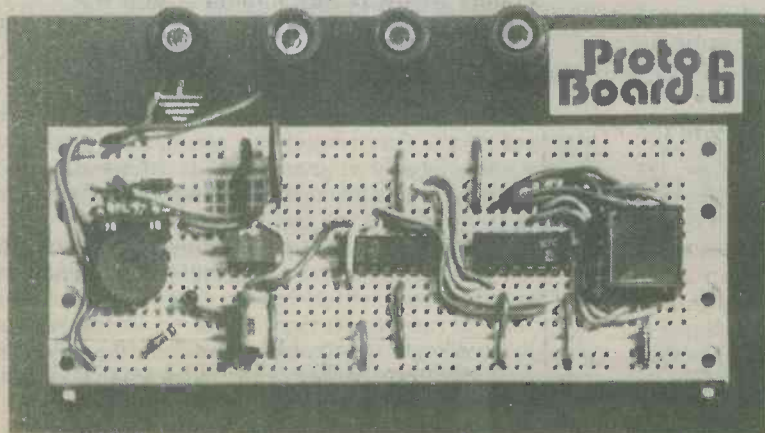
The PB-6 Proto-Board Kit comes complete with a pre-assembled breadboarding socket, two pre-assembled solderless bus strips, four five-way binding posts, a metal ground base plate, non-marring feet

and all required hardware. When complete, its six hundred and thirty tie points permit flexible configurations of as many as six 14-pin DIP ICs.

Despite its low cost, the PB-6 provides a very confident breadboarding base. Of the four binding posts, one is grounded to the ground base plate permitting high distributed capacitance and low distributed inductance for enhanced high-speed circuit operation. The three remaining five-way binding posts can be used to interconnect the circuit on the PB-6 to power and signal lines and the outside world.

Following the easy assembly instructions enclosed, using only pliers and a screwdriver, assembly time for the PB-6 is less than ten minutes.

For further information, contact Continental Specialties Corporation (U.K.) Ltd., Shire Hill Industrial Estate, Saffron Walden, Essex.



TUNE-IN TO PROGRAMS

PART 7

By
Ian Sinclair

BUG HUNTING

We've all done it — we've written a program, checked it, entered it into the machine and all we get when we run it is a flashing display or a silly answer. Obviously something's wrong, but what? There are several things we can do, some with the calculator, some without, to debug a program, but before we start we should check the following:

1. Is each store loaded up with the numbers that are to be used in the calculation?
2. Is each [STO], [RCL], [GTO], [Lbl] or [SBR] instruction followed by the correct reference number?
3. Have we used an [=] or [()] to complete calculations where these are needed? Some operations, like [1/x], do not need [=], others, like [+], [-], [X], [÷], do. If in doubt, check out a sum with the calculator used simply as a calculator (not running a program).

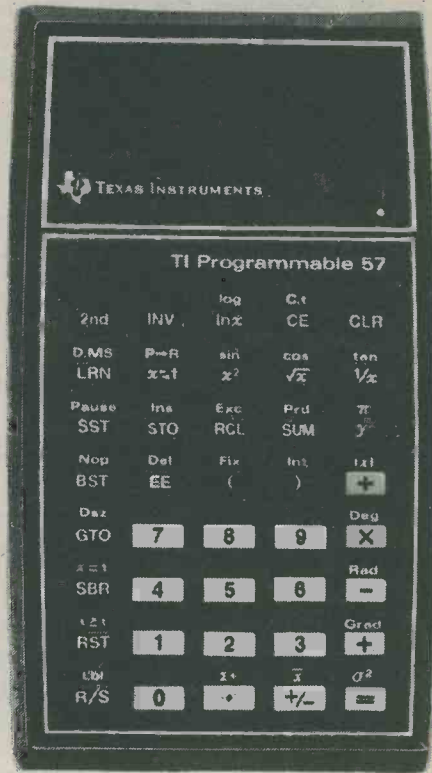
PROGRAM CHECK

A particularly good way to check a program before running it on the calculator is to imagine yourself as the calculator, writing down the effect of each instruction and acting on the number you have written down with the next instruction. This way, if we do only what the program dictates, we can often spot omitted [=] or other signs which make a calculation impossible or incorrect.

If the program seems perfectly correct (and if it has run before then it must be correct), the next step is to check that this is the program that is actually entered. We may quite easily have missed a step or even added one which was not intended. How, then, do we trace through a program?

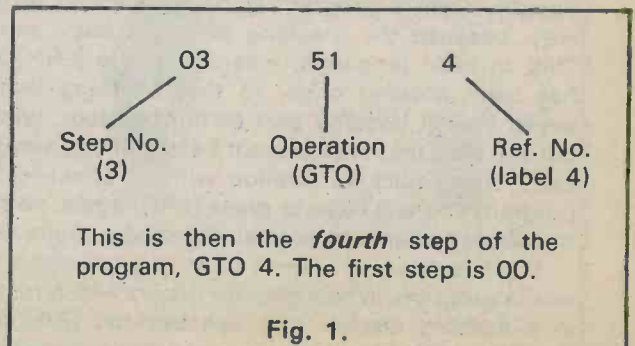
The answer is that the TI-57, along with the PR-100, has editing facilities, enabling us to look at each step of a program which is in store. To make use of these facilities load up the memories as required by the program, set up just as you would for running the program, press [RST] so that the program is reset to the beginning, and then press the [LRN] key.

The display then splits off, as in Fig. 1, to show the program step number on the left, along with the code number for the program instruction on the right. Remember your step codings? The code is a



The keyboard of the Texas Instruments TI-57 programmable calculator. Most keys have a second function, whereupon facilities are nearly double the number of keys provided.

two-digit number in which the first digit represents the key row, starting at the display end of the calculator. The second digit represents the key column, starting at the left hand side with number 1, and moving from left to right along the normal functions (the ones printed on the keys) then back again at No. 6 to number the upper functions (marked above the keys and again from left to right). Examples of these key codings are shown in Fig. 2. Any number in addition to the two-digit key code is a reference number such as a memory number, a label number, etc.



[INV] always codes as [-] before the operation code, so that [INV] [SBR] is [-61], [INV] [sin] (or arcsin) is [-28], and so on. Numbers are not coded, but entered normally.

Operation	Code	Operation	Code
Pause	36	y^x	35
GTO	51	sin	28
Dsz	56	cos	29
SBR	61	tan	20
x=t	66	(43
RST	71)	44
R/S	81	÷	45
Lbl	86	X	55
STO	32	-	65
RCL	33	+	75
SUM	34	=	85
x^2	23	+/-	84
\sqrt{x}	24	log	18
1/x	25	antilog	-18

Fig. 2. SOME IMPORTANT KEY CODINGS

In this condition, we can check the program step by step, using the [SST] key. Pressing the [SST] key advances the program by one step, showing the step number and the code for the operation that will be carried out. The [BST] key has a similar effect, but runs the program one step back on each press. Take great care not to press any other key unintentionally while a program is being checked in this way, because the machine is in the *learn* mode. This, in plain language, means that the [LRN] key has been pressed once, so that anything that is keyed in will become part of the program, wiping out the step that was present before. If you want to carry out a quick calculation without affecting the program you will have to press [LRN] again, so that the display returns to normal, showing a single zero.

You may not, of course, have to go through the whole program. When an error occurs which results in a flashing display, you can use the [R/S] and [CLR] (or [CE]) keys to freeze everything, then press

[LRN]. That should get you to the place where things started to go ape, so you can backstep using [BST] until you find what went wrong. Another possibility is that you may have a hunch that the root of the trouble is around step 25. You can get there by the key sequence [GTO] [2nd] [25] [LRN], which will result in the machine showing step 25. Once there, you can [SST] and [BST] your way around until you find the trouble. Note, by the way, that this [GTO] method needs a two-digit number. If, for example, you are looking for step 7 and you press [GTO] [2nd] [7], the machine will look for *label* 7. To get program step 7, you must key in [GTO] [2nd] [07] — the use of two digits makes a great difference.

You still can't see where it's gone wrong? There's still hope for you because we can also check what the calculator does to each number. Enter in a nice easy set of numbers, like 1, 2, 3, into the memories that are to be used. Calculate what the result of each step should be. Now load up the program in the usual way, press [RST] when the machine is out of program mode (after the second press of [LRN]) and, instead of pressing [R/S], press [SST]. What will be displayed this time will be the result of the first step of the program. For example, if the program starts with [RCL] [1], and memory 1 is loaded with the number 1, then pressing [SST] at the start of this program will bring a 1 into the display. The next press of the [SST] key carries out the next instruction. If the next step is [+], [-], [X] or [÷], the display does not change. Instructions like [1/x], [\sqrt{x}] or [x^2] will cause the results of such steps to be displayed. This way, we can [SST] our way through the program looking at the results. Note that [BST] does not work in this mode. The results should agree with the old-fashioned arithmetic which you tried earlier. If it doesn't agree somewhere, you've found the fault.

EDITING

Both the TI-57 and the PR-100 allow a number of editing operations to be carried out on programs which are in store. These operations are insertion, replacement and deletion. Of these, the easiest edit is to write over a program step. You may find, for example, that your written program says [5] [SUM] [2], and the program in the calculator is displayed as 25 32 2, meaning that this is step 25 and that the key strokes programmed were [STO] [2] (since 32 is the code for [STO]). Note that the PR-100 shows these as separate steps since merged codes are not used.

While the calculator is in the [LRN] mode, this incorrect program step can be written over simply by keying in [SUM] [2] in place of the [STO] [2] which was there. Once this is done, the display will show the next step of the program, so that we have to use the [BST] key to go one step back to check that the program is now as we want it.

Another editing step which is sometimes useful is the [Nop] step (obtained by pressing [2nd] [BST]). When the program is being checked in the [LRN] mode, any step can be erased by using [Nop] (No-

Program Example

```
LRN RCL 1 SBR 0 1/x
X ( RCL 2 SBR 0 ) X
RCL 0 = R/S
Lbl 0 X RCL 3 + 1
= INV SBR LRN
```

Program Listing Using SST Key

Press LRN to start, then SST:

00	33	1	11	81	
01	61	0	12	86	0
02	25		13	55	
03	55		14	33	3
04	43		15	75	
05	33	2	16	01	
06	61	0	17	85	
07	44		18	-61	
08	55		19	00	this indicates
09	33	0			the end of the program.
10	85				

Load in the following values: 150 STO 0, 22 STO 1, 125 STO 2, 0.0036 STO 3. With the program loaded and the machine out of LRN mode, the use of SST will now run the program one step at a time, as follows:

22.	1.
22.	1.3435878
22.	1.3435878
0.0036	1.3435878
0.0792	1.3435878
1.	150.
1.0792	201.53818
1.0792	201.53818
0.9266123	201.53818
0.9266123	201.53818
0.9266123	0.0036
125.	0.7255374
125.	1.
125.	1.7255374
0.0036	1.7255374 End
0.45	0 of program.

Fig. 3. USING THE SST KEY

operation), leaving a space which will be skipped when the program runs. A No-operation space can be filled with another instruction later if one is needed.

A very useful editing step is the [Ins], meaning Insert, key, reached by [2nd] [STO]. Using this key shifts all the program steps, leaving a space into which another step can be placed. To use the [Ins]

step, locate the step in the program *after* which you want to add another instruction, then press [Ins]. There is a short delay as all the registers shift the program down, then the display shows a set of zeros after the step number. The new step can then be keyed in. If there's another new step to add, the [Ins] key must be pressed again. Once again, the calculator must be in the [LRN] mode before these operations can be carried out. A point to watch when steps are inserted is the overall length of the program — if the program filled up the calculator previously, using the [Ins] key will cause the last step of the program to be lost.

The final key of the editing set in the TI-57 is the [Del] (Delete) key, obtained by pressing [2nd] [EE]. Pressing this key when the calculator is in the [LRN] mode removes the step which is being displayed, and closes up the gap.

DEBUGGING SUMMARY

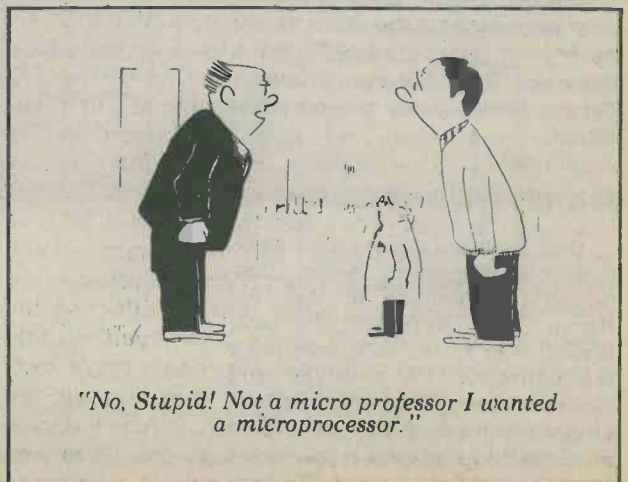
1. When a program is first entered by pressing [LRN] and programming, the key codes are *not* displayed.

2. To check key codes, the program must be entered and the machine kept in [LRN] mode. Alternatively, the [LRN] key must be pressed to enter [LRN] mode if the program has been run. The [RST] key must have been used out of [LRN] mode to reset the program, and then the [SST] key can be used to examine the program step by step. The [BST] key also operates in [LRN] mode to backstep the program.

3. The [SST] key works out of [LRN] mode also. Out of [LRN] mode, the [SST] key will run a program step by step, showing the result of each step on the display.

4. The edit keys, [Nop], [Ins] and [Del] can be used in [LRN] mode only.

(To be continued)



In your workshop -shop

PROBLEMS WITH SYNC

"Our darned bog-roll has gone out of sync again!"

Dick shut the Workshop door behind him noisily and stumped, scowling, over to his bench.

Smithy looked up at him.

"How d'you mean, out of sync?"

"There's something wrong with the perforations," replied Dick aggrievedly. "The perforations in the top layer are displaced by about two inches from the perforations in the bottom layer."

"I can't begin to understand what you get up to out there," remonstrated Smithy mildly. "The bog-roll always seems to be all right for me."

Dick suddenly cast a suspicious glance at the Serviceman.

"Here," he asked, "you haven't been getting in some sub-standard rolls on the cheap, have you?"

"Certainly not," retorted Smithy in a deeply shocked tone. "I would never even dream of skimping on an important item like that. I always get the finest quality two-ply toilet tissue."

"Humph!"

MORE SYNC TROUBLE

Dick slouched down on his stool, looked at his empty bench, then turned his attention to the "For Repair" rack. Resignedly he rose, walked over to the rack, selected a monochrome TV receiver and carried it back to his bench. He next plugged it into the mains, connected an aerial and switched it on. As the sound signal from one of the local

channels became audible from the speaker, he waited for the picture tube to warm up.

The screen flickered into life, to reveal a picture which was completely out of horizontal lock. Dick turned the set round and located the horizontal hold control. Looking at the screen he adjusted the control carefully. He was able to find a critical setting which caused the picture to be momentarily resolved, but it very soon went out of horizontal lock again.

"Just my luck," he grumbled to himself. "I've got another problem with sync now."

Smithy, carrying a serviced

cassette recorder over to the "Repaired" rack, turned round at the sound of his assistant's voice.

"Don't tell me," he said irately, "that you're *still* chuntering on about that sync business."

"It's this TV," stated Dick. "There's not a trace of horizontal sync in it at all."

"Let's have a look."

Smithy walked to Dick's side and, in his turn, experimentally turned the line hold control. He was similarly able to obtain a momentarily resolved picture, which soon fell out of lock once more.

"There's almost certainly a snag in the line flywheel sync circuit," he

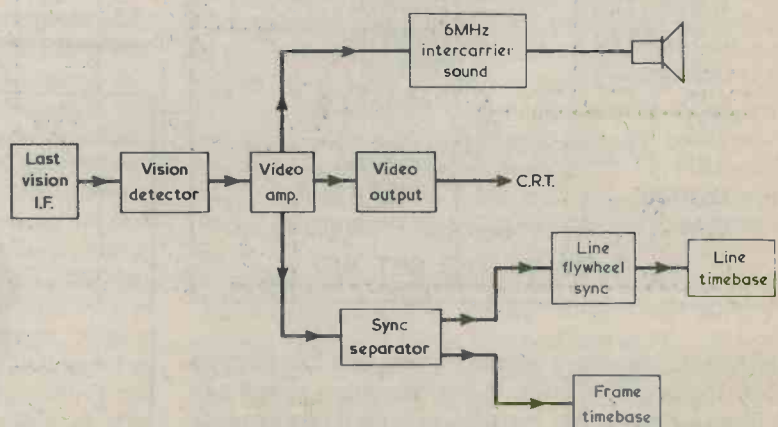


Fig. 1. Typical stage line-up for a monochrome television receiver following the last vision i.f. amplifier. The sync separator provides sync pulses which are applied to the line flywheel sync circuit

pronounced, as he switched off the set. "We're getting a picture and we can hear the intercarrier sound. So there must be a signal getting through all the way to the video output stage. Also, we're getting frame hold, which means that the sync separator circuits are at least passing frame sync pulses to the vertical timebase. Since we're able to get the line timebase on to the correct frequency, even if only momentarily, that timebase can be assumed to be all right. All that's left is the horizontal flywheel sync circuit." (Fig. 1).

"How d'you know that this set has got a flywheel sync circuit? Couldn't it have direct line sync, in which the line sync pulses trigger the horizontal timebase oscillator?" (Fig. 2).

"Direct line sync went out of use ages ago," replied Smithy. "You might come across it in some extremely old valve TV sets, but you certainly won't find it in any solid-state sets like the one you've got there. Apart from some of the most recent sets, which have got the line oscillator and sync stages packed away inside an integrated circuit, line flywheel sync arrangements have become standardised with

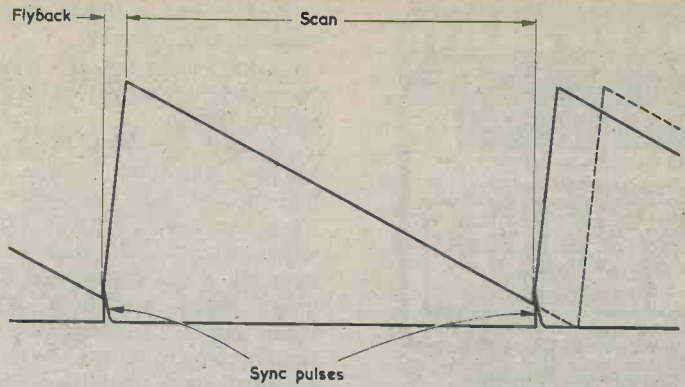


Fig. 2. Graphical presentation illustrating the action of a direct line sync system. The waveform represents a signal in the line timebase oscillator, and the sync pulse initiates the start of the flyback period before it would naturally occur. If the sync pulse were absent the waveform would continue as shown in broken line

time as an inexpensive and reliable circuit which uses two silicon diodes connected in series. These two diodes are caused to become conductive when the transmitted line sync pulses are passed to them. Let's get out the service manual for this set and I'll show you."

Quickly forgetting his complaints about the Workshop's ultra-mural

facilities, Dick rose with alacrity and made his way to the filing cabinet. He soon found the appropriate service manual and brought it back to his bench opening it out at its circuit diagram.

"There you are," said Smithy, pointing to a section of the circuit. "There are the two flywheel sync diodes." (Fig. 3).

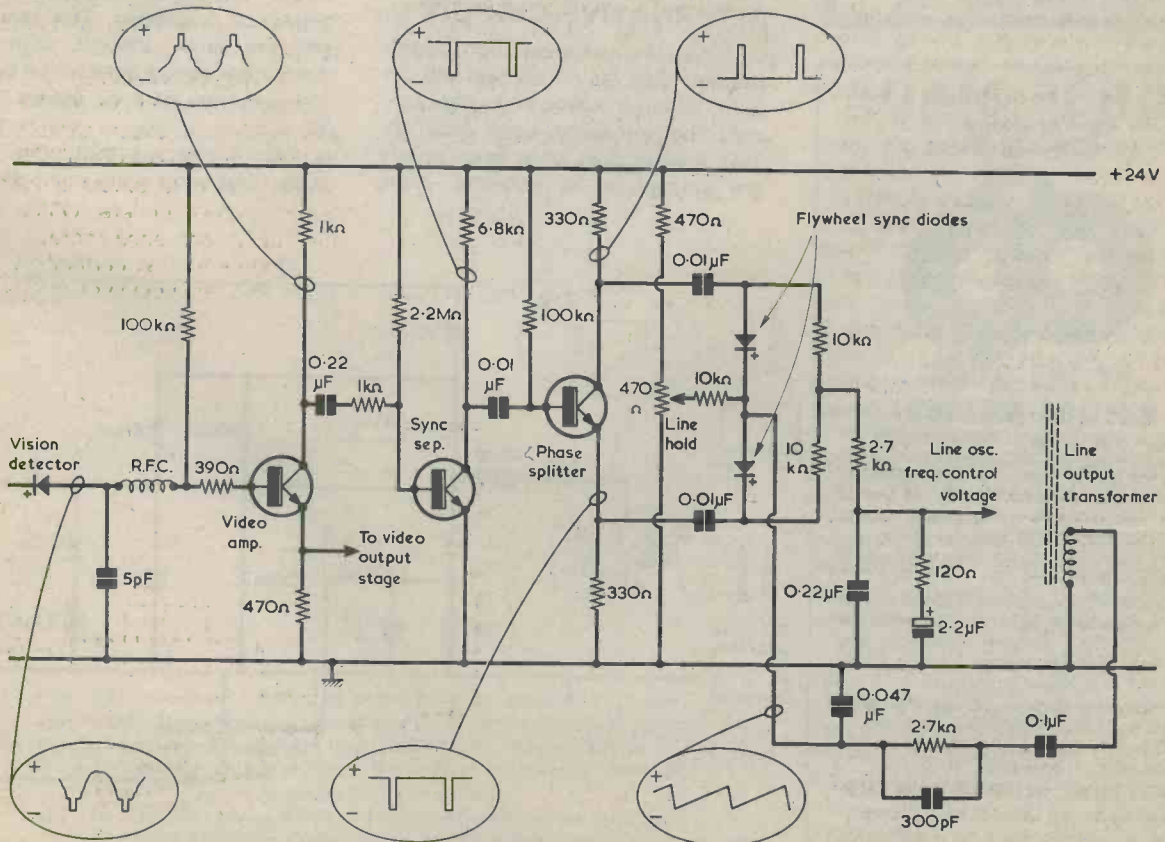


Fig. 3. Slightly simplified circuit representative of monochrome TV practice illustrating how the line sync pulses are fed to the two flywheel sync diodes to turn them on in the presence of the pulses. The components between the line output transformer winding and the sync diodes provide waveform shaping

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Dick looked at the diodes in the diagram and frowned.

"I don't quite see," he remarked, "how they get turned on by the line sync pulses."

"They're coupled to a phase splitter," explained Smithy, "which follows the sync separator. Let's trace the circuit through from the video detector. On 625 lines the sync pulse tips correspond to maximum signal amplitude, and the video detector is connected with a polarity which causes the detected signal to have negative-going sync pulses. This signal is passed to the base of the video amplifier transistor, whereupon the signal at the collector of this transistor must have positive-going sync pulses. These are fed to the base of the sync separator transistor, which amplifies the sync pulses only. This it does by a very simple process. The series 0.22 μ F capacitor in its base circuit becomes charged such that the more positive parts of the sync pulses turn the base-emitter junction of the transistor hard on. The transistor is then simply cut off for the remainder of the signal, which takes the base well negative of the 0.6 volt forward voltage needed to cause the junction to conduct."

ALTERNATIVE CIRCUIT

"That seems fair enough," commented Dick, as he studied the circuit. "When the sync pulses are present the transistor turns fully on. This means that only sync pulses are present at its collector. Also,

they must be negative-going."

"That's right," confirmed Smithy. "These negative-going pulses are next coupled to a phase splitter. This produces negative-going pulses at its emitter and positive-going pulses at its collector, and these pulses are applied to the flywheel sync diodes via series 0.01 μ F capacitors. The result is that the diodes become conductive when the sync pulses are present and are fully turned off between the sync pulses. As you can see, the two diodes are connected in series, with the anode of the lower one connecting to the cathode of the upper one."

A thought suddenly occurred to Dick.

"Just a minute," he said slowly. "I seem to remember seeing a TV circuit in which there were two diodes connected back to back. That is, their two cathodes were connected together."

"That's an alternative method of connecting the flywheel sync diodes," stated Smithy. "When the diodes are connected like that they're fed sync pulses from a single point instead of from a phase splitter. They could, for instance, be fed negative-going sync pulses direct from the collector of the sync separator transistor. The result is still the same, though, with both diodes becoming conductive only in the presence of sync pulses." (Fig. 4).

"Ah, I can see that now," said Dick, "but what's the point of mak-

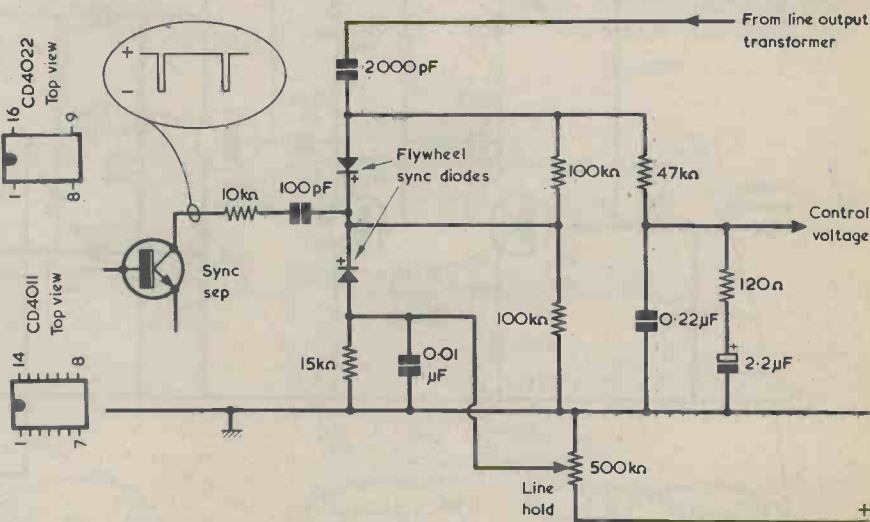


Fig. 4. An alternative arrangement in which the flywheel sync diodes are fed direct from the collector of the sync separator instead of through a phase splitter. An incidental feature is that the 100pF capacitor causes differentiated spikes to be fed to the diodes instead of the full pulses

ing the diodes conductive during sync pulses anyway?"

"When the diodes conduct," said Smithy in reply, "they pass a voltage derived from a winding on the line output transformer to the line timebase oscillator via a sort of smoothing circuit. The smoothed voltage controls the frequency of the line oscillator, which is usually of the blocking oscillator variety. This control voltage normally couples via a series resistor to the base of the blocking oscillator and it then varies the time between one flywheel period and the next."

"I don't quite get that."

"Well," said Smithy, "a blocking oscillator normally has positive feedback given by way of a transformer with a small soft iron core or iron-dust core in it. During

the scan period of the oscillation cycle, the collector or emitter current in one of the windings on the transformer continually increases until the core becomes saturated. The line oscillator then goes into the quick flyback part of the cycle, after which it starts the next scan period. As you can guess, the instant at which core saturation takes place will occur earlier if the control voltage applied to the oscillator base goes more positive. Got it?"

"Yes I have, now. What's this voltage which is derived from the line output transformer?"

"It's a voltage with a waveform like this," replied Smithy.

He took a ball-point pen from his pocket and sketched out the waveform in the margin of the service manual. (Fig. 5(a)).

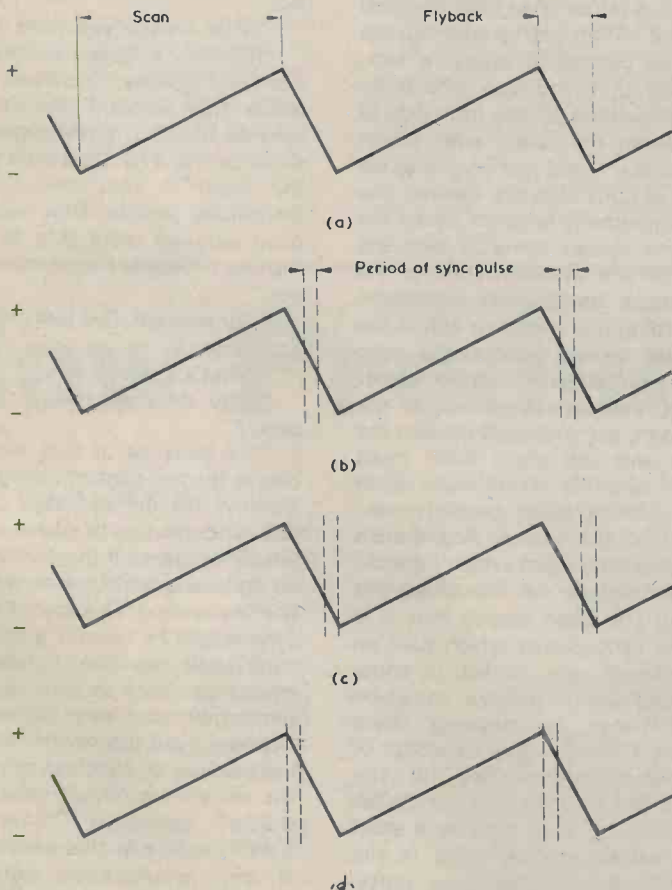


Fig. 5(a). Idealised version of the waveform applied from the line output transformer winding of Fig. 3 to the flywheel sync diodes. (In some receivers the polarity of the waveform is reversed if the line oscillator frequency decreases with a positive-going control voltage)
 (b). The situation given when the sync pulse coincides with the centre of the flyback period of the waveform
 (c). Condition given when the line oscillator tends to run at too high a frequency
 (d). The sync pulse coincides with an early part of the flyback period if the line oscillator attempts to run too slow

"As you can see," he continued, "it has a slowly rising section during the scan period of the waveform and a sharply falling section during the flyback period. What the flywheel sync diodes do is to turn on during the flyback period and pass the voltage present on the waveform at that instant to the smoothing circuit which produces the control voltage for the line oscillator. Now, let's say for argument's sake that the desired line oscillator running conditions are given when the sync pulses coincide with the centre of the flyback period. They will then cause a voltage to be passed to the control voltage smoothing circuit which is just right to keep the line oscillator running in the desired manner."

Smithy added several broken vertical lines to his waveform to indicate the voltage sampling process. (Fig. 5(b)).

"What happens," asked Dick, "if something causes the line oscillator to try to run at a higher frequency?"

"In that case," stated Smithy, "the flyback periods will be produced earlier than they should be, and the turning on of the flywheel sync diodes will coincide with a later part of the flyback section. This will cause the control voltage, after smoothing, to go negative and counteract the tendency of the line oscillator to run at too high a frequency."

Smithy pointed his pen at the appropriate parts of the waveform. (fig. 5(c)).

"This is all making sense now," said Dick thoughtfully. "I suppose that, if the line oscillator tries to run at too low a frequency, the flywheel sync diodes turn on at an early part of the flyback period, causing the voltage applied to the control voltage smoothing circuit to go positive." (Fig. 5(d)).

"That's exactly right," concurred Smithy. "The flywheel sync circuit keeps the line oscillator running at correct frequency provided that the transmitted sync pulses coincide with any part of the flyback period in the line output transformer waveform. In the set we have here the d.c. conditions in the flywheel sync circuit can be varied by adjusting the slider of a 470 Ω potentiometer, whereupon this potentiometer acts as the line hold control. It is adjusted to bring the whole circuit into the correct operating state for control to take place. In some sets the d.c. conditions are fixed and the line frequency is controlled by adjusting the position of the core in the line blocking os-

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cillator transformer. This adjustment then becomes the line hold adjustment."

RANGE OF CONTROL

"There's something here," said Dick, "that's puzzling me a bit."

"What's that?"

"You've just shown me that you can get line synchronism when the line sync pulses coincide with either the beginning, the end or the middle of the flyback period of the line output waveform."

"Yes," said Smithy, "there's quite a wide range over which control is given."

"Well, say the sync pulses coincide with a late part of the flyback period. This could mean that the receiver will have gone into flyback before the end of the transmitted picture information has reached the set."

"That's true," agreed Smithy, "and it's a minor snag with flywheel line sync. When you've adjusted the line hold control to obtain a lock, you find that you can effectively move the whole picture from side to side within the range over which lock occurs. I said just now that we would assume that the desired line hold adjustment is given when the line sync pulses coincide with the centre of the flyback period of the line output transformer waveform. In practice, it is better to adjust the line hold control so that the sync pulses coincide with a rather earlier part of the flyback period in the waveform, say midway between the centre and the start. With most modern sets this will normally result in the picture being properly centralised on the screen. And there's one other little point which I should mention before we finish on this subject. I've been saying that it is the line sync pulses which turn on the flywheel sync diodes. In some sets the sync pulses may be differentiated by passing them through a lowish value capacitor or capacitors before they hit the diodes. The result is that the diodes are turned on each time by a short spike whose leading edge is the leading edge of the sync pulse, rather than by the full sync pulse itself. The result is the same, of course, but the short spike allows the flywheel sync circuit to have increased resolution because a smaller section of the line output transformer waveform is sampled in each cycle."

"Well," said Dick, "that certainly clears up this flywheel sync business."

He scowled as his earlier

grievances rose up in his mind.

"It's a pity," he went on dismally, "that we can't clear up the bog-roll sync problem as easily."

"If you keep on about that," warned Smithy sternly, "I'll get in some of that hard single layer public loo stuff. You won't have any problems with *that* going out of sync."

Dick was aghast.

"You wouldn't," he said in a trembling voice, "do anything like that, would you, Smithy?"

"I will if you don't stop complaining."

"Oh, all right then," grumbled Dick. "I suppose I'd better have a go at repairing this set, then."

He disconnected the receiver from the mains and proceeded to take off its back.

"I should check the sync diodes themselves," suggested Smithy. "One of them may have shorted out."

"What makes you think that?"

"It's only a guess on my part," admitted Smithy. "However, if one diode has shorted out it would provide a circuit path between the slider of the 470 Ω line hold pot and the input to the control voltage smoothing circuit. That would explain why we were able to control the line timebase frequency with the pot."

"Fair enough. I've just thought of something."

"What's that?"

"Why do they call it 'flywheel sync'?"

"It's because of that smoothing circuit for the control voltage," said Smithy. "In the old days of direct line sync, the line timebase could be falsely triggered if the receiver picked up interference pulses, and you'd get line tearing. This meant that line sync would be lost for a number of lines until the line timebase oscillator got back in step again with the transmitted sync pulses. With flywheel sync the control voltage is held steady by the first capacitor in the smoothing circuit, which is the 0.22 μF capacitor following the 2.7k Ω resistor in this particular set. If any interference pulses get through they won't have much effect on the voltage across the capacitor, and that's what gives the flywheel effect." (Fig. 6).

By now, Dick had unhooked the printed board and was examining it closely. He turned his head briefly and looked at the 0.22 μF capacitor in the circuit diagram.

"There's another resistor and capacitor in that circuit," he remarked. "There's a 120 Ω resistor and a

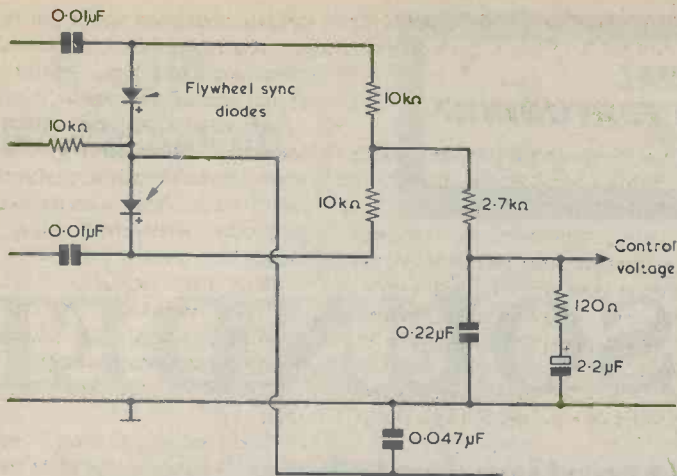


Fig. 6. Detail of the circuit of Fig. 3. The control voltage "smoothing" components are the 0.22μF capacitor, the 120Ω resistor and the 2.2μF capacitor. The last two components also reduce any tendency towards hunting in the sync system

2.2μF electrolytic in series."

"Those are anti-hunt components," said Smithy. "If you just had the 0.22μF capacitor on its own the circuit could have a tendency to hunt around the correct line frequency. It would be the same sort of hunting effect that you get in a servomechanism. The resistor and the capacitor modify the time constant of the flywheel sync loop so that any

hunting that takes place is negligibly low. Have you located those two diodes yet?"

"Yes, I've just found them."

"I should check them both ways round with an ohmmeter," said Smithy. "If my hunch is right you'll soon be able to find the short-circuited one."

And, indeed, Smithy's prediction proved to be correct, and Dick dis-

covered that the lower diode in the circuit diagram was now conducting fully in both directions.

PROBLEM SOLVED

Smithy watched his assistant contentedly as the latter went to the spares cupboard to find a new diode and then soldered it into circuit in place of the faulty one. He waited until Dick had checked the receiver, to find that the horizontal sync circuit was now functioning properly, then quietly made his way out of the Workshop.

Over the years we have followed Smithy into many strange and out of the way places, and modesty would prevent us from accompanying him on his present mission were it not for the fact that his actions solve a minor little mystery. After he had settled himself comfortably, Smithy thoughtfully took the top ply of the paper positioned at his side and passed it once around the roll. The sets of perforations became aligned perfectly. Some time later he just as thoughtfully took the top ply once around the roll again, to give the out-of-sync characteristic which was proving so troublesome to his unsuspecting assistant.

New Product

Z.I.P. D.I.P. SOCKET

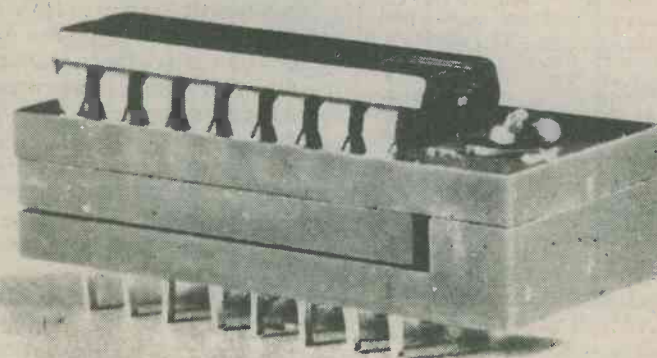
The letters Z.I.P. stand for Zero Insertion Pressure and they are applicable to the dual-in-line i.c. holder shown in the accompanying photograph. The socket has been introduced by BFI Electronics Limited, 516 Walton Road, West Molesey, Surrey, KT8 0QF, and is currently available in 16-pin, 24-pin and 40-pin versions will be in production in the near future.

Using the socket is extremely easy. The dual-in-line i.c. is simply dropped into the open socket, after which the small screw at the end is given a quarter turn. This clamps all the i.c. pins inside the socket and ensures excellent mechanical and electrical contact over the life of the i.c. and the socket. The i.c. can be released by turning the screw back to its original position, which will certainly make life easy for service personnel who wish to replace or check the i.c.

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SIREN SOUNDER

A real attention-catcher

There are simple circuits which can be built on a single S-Dec and which will give a two-tone siren note, but a more difficult proposition is the "sliding-note" siren of the type which is familiar to followers of U.S. Cops and Robbers TV, and which is extensively used in the U.S.A. for emergency vehicles of all sorts. The note from such a siren starts at a high pitch, slides down to a fairly low pitch, then returns to the high pitch again, repeating about twice per second to form a sound that simply cannot be ignored. The circuit of this project provides such a sound pattern, and has enough power output to make a most intrusive noise. It makes an ideal warning sound as well as being extremely useful as a sound effect.

SEVEN TRANSISTORS

The circuit consists of a sawtooth generator, a buffer amplifier and inverter stage, an astable oscillator and an output stage. Six n.p.n. transistors and one p.n.p. transistor are used.

TR1 and TR2 are connected to form an oscillator which simulates the action of a unijunction transistor. TR1 is n.p.n. and TR2 is p.n.p.; their emitters are connected together and there is also a resistive link between the collector of TR1 and the base of TR2. The circuit acts in the following manner. Imagine that the circuit is switched on with C1 discharged. The base of TR1 will then be at the potential of the negative rail, causing TR1 to

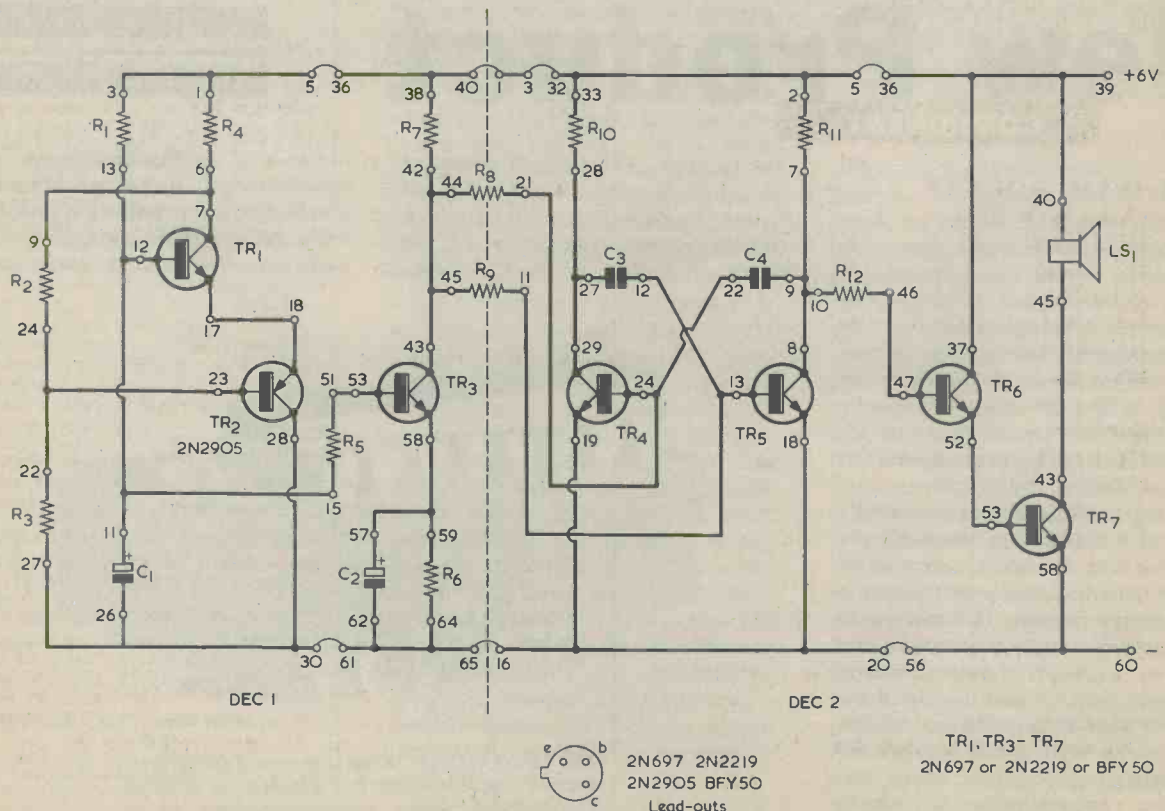


Fig. 1. The circuit of the siren sounder. Component leads and link wires are inserted in the S-DeCs at the numbered points indicated

be cut off. The junction of R2 and R3 will be at about 2 volts positive of the negative rail and TR2 will also be cut off. This is because TR2 is a p.n.p. transistor, which requires the base to be negative of the emitter if it is to conduct.

C1 charges through R1 at a rate determined by the time constant of these two components. When the voltage at point 12 of DeC 1 reaches a level of about 3.2 volts (the 2 volt bias at the base of TR2 plus two base-emitter voltage drops of 0.6 volt each) both TR1 and TR2 start to conduct. With TR1 conducting its collector voltage falls, so that the base voltage of TR2 falls also. The emitter current flowing in the transistors then turns them both hard on. C1 discharges very rapidly through the base-emitter junction of TR1 and through TR2, the voltage across it falling to about 0.8 volt (the base-emitter voltage of TR1 plus a voltage of about 0.2 volt across TR2). The two transistors then turn off, C1 commences to charge again via R1 and another cycle starts.

The waveform at point 12 of DeC 1 is a sawtooth with a positive-going ramp, but we need a negative-going ramp to generate in a multivibrator a note which descends in pitch. We also need rather more amplitude if we are to provide a realistic sound. TR3 is a buffer amplifier which amplifies and inverts the sawtooth. At point 43 of DeC 1, therefore, the waveform is a negative-going sawtooth with a peak-to-peak amplitude of about 6 volts.

ASTABLE OSCILLATOR

TR4 and TR5 form an astable oscillator with cross-coupling capacitors C3 and C4, and collector load resistors R10 and R11. This functions in the familiar multivibrator manner with the capacitors charging through R8 and R9. The rate of charging

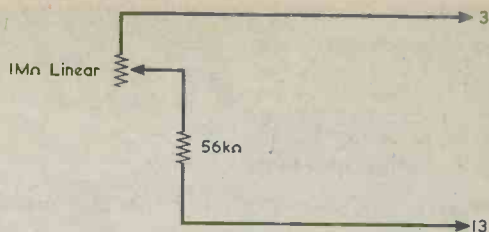


Fig. 2. A variable control of sawtooth frequency can be obtained by replacing R1 with a potentiometer and fixed resistor in series

is faster if the charging resistors are returned to a high voltage, as consequently is the frequency of oscillation. R8 and R9 couple to the collector of TR3 and, at the start of each negative-going ramp of the sawtooth at this collector, the astable frequency will be high. The frequency falls as TR3 collector goes negative until, at the end of each sawtooth ramp, the frequency abruptly goes high again.

The square waves generated by the astable at the collector of TR5 are directly coupled to the output stage, which consists of emitter follower TR6 and the common emitter transistor, TR7. R12 ensures that the astable is not excessively loaded by driving the output stage, and the gain provided by TR6 ensures that TR7 is driven between the fully bottomed and cut-off conditions. The loudspeaker should preferably be a high resistance type, with an impedance of 60Ω to 80Ω. However, a 15Ω speaker can also be used if your ears can stand it!

Several circuit changes can be made if needed. The range of notes can be shifted down in frequency by replacing C3 and C6 with 0.02 μF or 0.05 μF capacitors. The rate of the sawtooth can be increased by connecting another 150kΩ resistor in parallel with R1. The added resistor can be inserted in holes 4 and 14 of DeC1. The rate can be made variable by removing R1 and connecting a 1MΩ potentiometer and a series 56kΩ resistor in its place, as indicated in Fig. 2. The 56kΩ resistor ensures that the potentiometer cannot be adjusted to a low resistance setting which would cause the sawtooth generator to "stick", with both TR1 and TR2 conducting heavily.

CONSTRUCTION

Start construction by clipping two S-DeCs together to form one long DeC. Connect the loudspeaker leads using single-core wire. If stranded wire must be used twist and tin the ends to ensure that there are no loose strands. Plug in the wire links, seven in all, and also the two resistors, R8 and R9, which link the two DeCs together. Next plug in the capacitors, remembering that C1 and C2 are electrolytic and must be connected with correct polarity. The transistors can now be plugged into circuit. TR2 is a p.n.p. type, but its lead-out layout is the same as the other transistors. The assembly of the astable follows the "mirror-image" style, with both emitters connected to the central line of the DeC. Finally, plug in all the remaining resistors.

Add the 6 volt battery leads and prepare to unleash the siren-sound on an unsuspecting world.

COMPONENTS

Resistors

(All ¼ watt 5%)

R1 150kΩ	R7 4.7kΩ
R2 22kΩ	R8 56kΩ
R3 12kΩ	R9 56kΩ
R4 1.8kΩ	R10 1.8kΩ
R5 22kΩ	R11 1.8kΩ
R6 1.8kΩ	R12 56kΩ

Capacitors

C1 10μF electrolytic, 16V Wkg.
C2 10μF electrolytic, 16V Wkg.
C3 0.01μF polyester or mylar
C4 0.01μF polyester or mylar

Semiconductors

TR1 2N697 or 2N2219 or BFY50
TR2 2N2905
TR3-TR7 2N697 or 2N2219 or BFY50

Speaker

LS1 60Ω to 80Ω (see text)

Miscellaneous

2-off S-DeC
6V battery

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Most of us look upon 10M Ω as being the highest value of resistor we're liable to use but, of course, there are applications where much higher resistance values are required. These can be met by a new range of metal glaze resistors announced by SASCO, P.O. Box 2000, Crawley, Sussex, RH10 2RU.

The resistors form the Mullard VR37 Series, and their values range from 1M Ω to 33M Ω . They are designed for applications where high resistance values, high stability and reliability are required. They are also suitable for voltages up to 2.5kV r.m.s.

In their manufacture, a metal glaze is first of all deposited on a high grade ceramic body, the ends of which are then fitted with metal caps to which are welded solder-coated electrolytic copper leads. The required resistance value is obtained by cutting a helical track through the metal glaze. The resistors are protected by multiple coats of a light-blue insulating lacquer, and are colour coded according to E24 preferred values.

Resistance tolerance is 5%, and temperature coefficient of resistance is plus or minus 200 parts per million per degree Centigrade. Maximum power dissipation at an ambient temperature of 70 degrees Centigrade is 0.5 watt and stability is typically within 0.5% over 1,000 hours' operation at 0.5 watt dissipation.

DISPLAY BEZEL

The above photograph illustrates a moulded display bezel, specifically intended for covering unsightly panel cut-out tool marks, which can now be obtained from Vero Electronics Limited. It is available in two sizes and provides an attractive frame as well as highlighting the display behind it. A choice of lenses is offered, these be-



Framing the numeric display at the upper left edge of the panel is the new Vero rectangular display bezel. Simple to fit in place, the bezel not only covers unsightly tool marks but also gives an attractive frame and highlights the display

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Further details are available from Vero Electronics Limited, Industrial Estate, Chandler's Ford, Eastleigh, Hampshire, SO5 3ZR. Enquiries should refer to the "Display Bezel AB 064".

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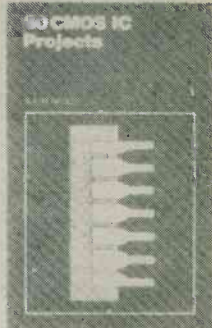
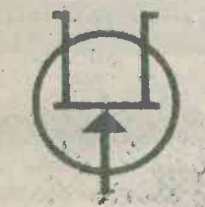
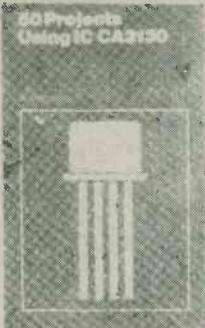
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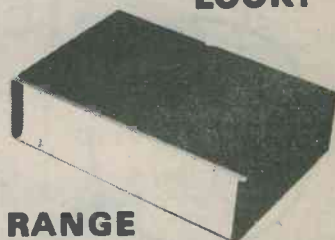
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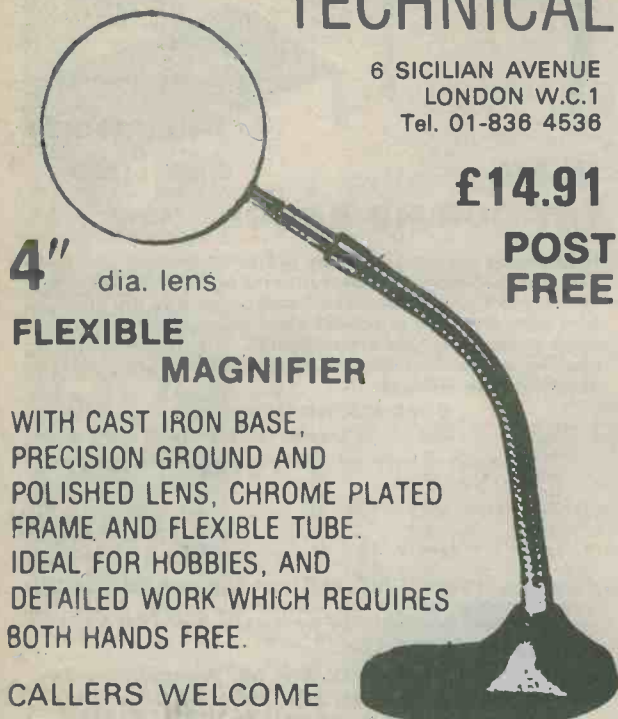
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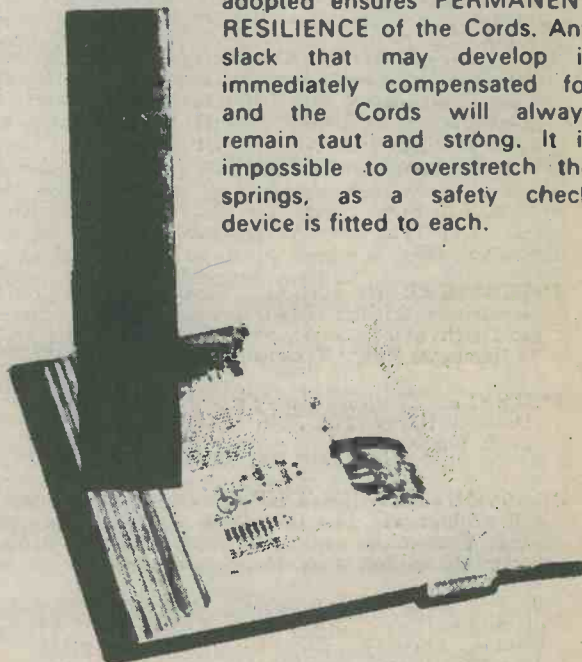
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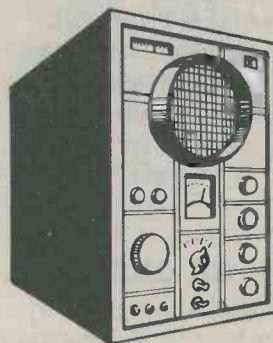
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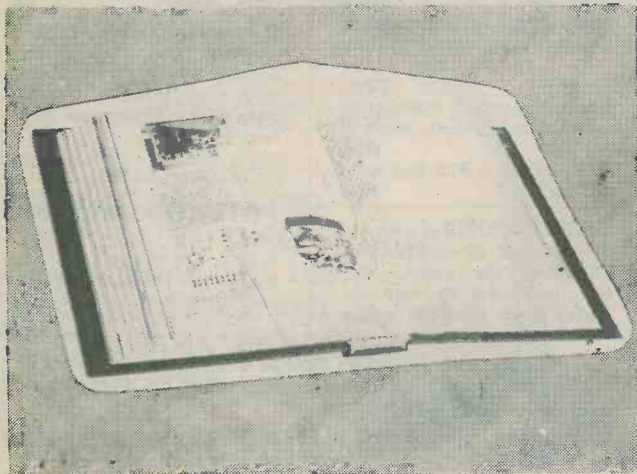
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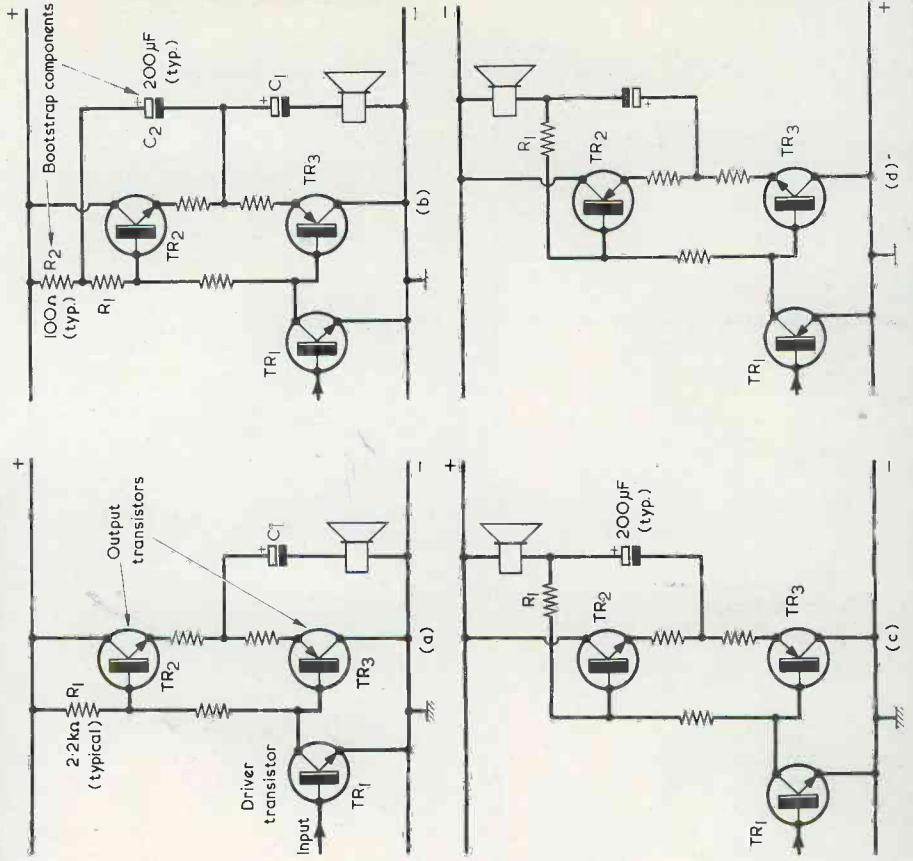
BOOTSTRAPPING

A typical emitter follower audio output stage is shown in (a). In series with the output emitters are two low value resistors which prevent thermal runaway. A further low value resistor (or resistive device) between the output bases prevents crossover distortion. All three resistors may be ignored in the present discussion. The output emitters normally sit at half supply voltage. R_1 is TR_1 collector load resistor. When an input signal causes TR_1 collector to go negative, so also does the base, and consequently the emitter, of TR_3 . When TR_1 collector goes positive so, similarly, does the emitter of TR_2 .

As TR_1 collector goes more and more positive the voltage across R_1 reduces until a level is reached where the current this resistor passes to the base of TR_2 is insufficient to drive the speaker. This constrains the maximum positive excursion of TR_1 collector before the onset of distortion.

Bootstrap components C_2 and R_2 are added in (b). C_2 causes the upper end of R_1 to "follow" the audio output signal so that, if TR_1 collector and TR_2 emitter go highly positive so also does the upper end of R_1 . Ample current is now available for TR_2 base and the only limit to positive excursion at TR_1 collector is the positive supply rail. Since the voltage across R_1 remains virtually unaltered at audio frequencies the resistor offers a very high a.f. resistance and consumes negligible a.f. power, causing the circuit to be more efficient.

A neat version of the bootstrap circuit which saves a capacitor and a resistor is shown in (c). If the upper supply rail is negative all polarities are reversed, as in (d).





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