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# MONITOR 

## Fourth London Computer Fair - 1983

The Fourth London Computer Fair is to be held from 14 to 16 of April at the Central Hall, Westminster. This year, the computer fair will be part of a larger London Computer Festival, which is being held to bring together all the activities organised by the Association of London Computer Clubs, and events held in London and the South East to mark Information Technology Year in 1982.

The Computer Fair is the latest of an annual event organised by the Association of London Computer Clubs (ALCC), a group of some fifteen local computer clubs in the London Area. The Fair started out when the North London Hobby Computer Club invited other clubs to join them in organizing the event, and since then it has become yearly more popular, so that now it has become one of the major exhibitions for micro-based systems and projects, attracting both major UK micro companies and the smaller companies in south east England.

This year, as part of the Computer Festival, the Computer Fair is being cosponsored by the ALCC and the GLC (with the actual running being done for the first time by a professional organisation, Goddard, Steadman and Partners).

The main aim of the ALCC and its member clubs is simply to spread knowledge about the use of micros, especially for home users, to put people with computers in touch with each other, and to run seminars, meetings and lectures to teach people what can be done with home computers. They want to establish new clubs, and help information to circulate between groups. Eventually, any kind of group with an interest in hobby computing should be able to join. There is a three-man executive committee, and the chairman and secretary from each member club will form a clubs council. There will be specialist subcommittees to deal with specific aims and projects within the ALCC, so there will be opportunities for people with particular interests to actively do something, about them.

Members of associated clubs can attend each other's meetings, and newsletter is circulated to club secretaries. Information is available on Prestel, starting on page 80080 , including a newsletter which is updated daily. Remember that Prestel terminals are now available for use in many public libraries. The ALCC also has various discount and bulk purchasing schemes for members.

The main clubs participating are the Croydon Micro Computer Club 101653 3207 or 764 4043), Harrow Computer Club (01950 7068), North London Hobby Computer Club (where the whole thing started) ( 01607 8349), East London Amateur Computer Club (01554 3288), North Kent Amateur Computer Club (Biggin Hill 71742), Richmond Computer Club (01 892 1873), South East London Micro Computer Club (01 853 5829), West London Personal Computer Club 101997 9437), and Worcester Park

Computer Club (01 337 1609), as well as in-house clubs in places like the Post Office HO, Home Office, etc. All these clubs have regular meetings, monthly or more often, and the North London Hobby Computer Club is run from the Polytechnic of North London, where it holds structured courses on a termly basis, open to members of the public.

The London Computer Festival is being organised by a consortium of computer interests, including the National Computing Centre Micro Systems Centre, and local authority computer centres. For information on the Festival, contact the Secretary to the Consortium, GLC Central Computer Service, Room 431, County Hall, London SE1 (01633 3348).

For more information about the ALCC, contact the ALCC at North London Hobby Computer Club, Polytechnic of North London, Holloway, London N7 8DB. Tel: (016072789).

## Going Up

Many a radio amateur wants to set up a radio mast in the back garden, but, having overcome all obstacles and finally put it up and into operation, finds that he's got the thing the wrong way round, or the mast isn't quite tall enough, or it's prone to blow over - and so on. Allweld Engineering's Altron SP1 Swing Post is a practical way to reduce access problems on radio masts: it is basically a hinged post which can be either latched upright, or swung into a horizontal position at about waist height for adjustments. The swing post will hold a mast made of any piece of aluminium tubing, from $13 / 4$ to 2 in in diameter and up to 6 m (20ft) long, and Allweld also supply 2 in tubing up to 5 m long at $£ 6.50$ a meter, if required.

The swing post is made of galvanised steel and simply sets into concrete, or impacted filling, in a hole in the ground (it could even double as a washing-line post, couldn't it?). The SP1 costs $£ 49.50$, inc. VAT and UK carriage.

For mobile broadcasters, the Altron PM1 portable mast is made in zinc-plated steel tube and is designed to telescope into 1.5 m sections for easy carriage. Thus it can be packed into any car and easily set up, with the car as a support, at any location. An adjustable-height bracket clamps to the guttering of most car roofs, while allowing the mast to be rotated. The PM 1 extends to 5.5 m ( 18 ft ) and costs £40.50, VAT and UK carriage inc.

Finally, a universal aerial mounting, for television, CB, amateur radio aerials, etc. The QM1 is a pressure-bar which fits across most window openings or similar from 25 to 42 in (or more with an extension) in a vertical or horizontal position. The fixing clamp takes tubes from $11 / 2$ to 2 in , and no drilling or brackets are needed for fixing. For rotatable or long masts, up to 8 ft long and 12 lb weight, an extra support arm is available which can mount on the QM1 itself, or be set into the wall. We don't have a price for this one, but all orders and enquiries should go to Allweld Enginearing, Unit 6, 232 Selsdon Rd., S. Croydon. Tel: 016816734 or 01680 2995.

## Shorts

Camtec Circuits and Systems have produced four new finger heatsink designs for use with SOT32 and TO220 case plastic transistors. The heatsinks, made from high-grade black anodised aluminium, come with composite drillings to allow a variety of devices to be mounted either flat, or on legs that pass through the PCB. They are also available undrilled or with special drillings if $\boldsymbol{r}^{-}$ quired.

For details and prices contact Camtec Circuits and Systems, 5 York Rd., Bognor Regis, W. Sussex. Tel: (0243) 862911

Electronic Hobbias have sent us a description of how to convert their $31 / 2$-digit Digital Panel Meter kit for use as a digital thermometer. The kit contians an IC, PCB, liquid crystal display, components and hardware to build a DPM on a single chip, run from a 9 V battery. Extra components needed for the conversion have to be obtained in addition to the kit. Other applications mentioned are input attenuator, AC voltage meter, multirange DVMs, current and resistance meters. Details from Caroline Stewart, Electronics Hobbies Ltd., 17 Roxwell Rd?, Chelmsford, Essex CM1 2LY. Tel! (0245) 62149.

Black Star are supplying the Sabtronics 8000 nine-digit frequency meter, a pottable, battery or mains operated meter. capable of measuring frequencies between 1 Hz and 1 GHz with 'impressive accuracy'. Frequencies are covered in threre ranges and three gate times are provided.



There are two BNC inputs 110 Hz to $100 \mathrm{MHz} / 1 \mathrm{MR}$ and 10 MHz to $1000 \mathrm{MHz} / 50 \mathrm{R}$ ) and a sensitivity control. Sensitivity ranges from 20 V to 10 Hz to 35 mV at 1 GHz . Maximum resolution is 0.1 Hz (on the 10 MHz range), 1 Hz (on the 100 MHz range) and 10 Hz (on the 1 GHz range), all using a ten second gate time.

The 8000 costs $£ 155.00$ plus VAT Specification and information from Black Star Ltd., 9A Crown St., St. Ives, Cambs PE17 4EB. Tel: (0480) 62440.

Stotron have added miniature relays by National to their catalogue, including subminiature DIP relays with single or double pole operation and very low operating power, for 12 or 24 V ; four pole miniature relays capable of switching 5A at 250 VAC , for 24 VDC or 220 VAC ; several kinds of low-profile relays, and various sealed terminals to give higher reliability and to prevent solder contamination.

General enquiries to Stotron Ltd., Haywood Way, Ivyhouse Lane, Hastings, E. Sussex TN35 4PL. Tel: (0424) 442160.

Electronic Hobbies have produced a range of 'Simplex' lightweight soldering irons. These are available for 24 or 48 V , and 18 or 23 W , and cost $£ 5.00$ plus $£ 1.00 \mathrm{p} \mathrm{\& p}$, with VAT to be added to the total cost. The irons conform with international CEE11 and BS 3456 safety regulations. A wide range of iron-clad soldering bits is also available.

Order or enquire: Electronic Hobbies Ltd., 171 Broomfield Rd., Chelmsford, Essex CM1 1RY. Tel: (0245) 62149.

Casio, who are already known for pacemaker watches for joggers and runners, have now produced a waterresistant watch (over a distance of 50 meters) for swimmers and people in training for other water sports.

One characteristic of these watches is their ability to bleep at regular, pre-set intervals, to help a runner keep his stride rate steady, important for athletic training. The water-resistant J30 also has a daily alarm, countdown timer alarm and stopwatch feature.

Price is $£ 14.95$ (RRP). For further information, contact Casio Electronics Co. Ltd., Unit 6, 1000 North Circular Rd., London NW2 7JD. Tel: 014509131.

## A New Hobby Shop

Hobbyists from South London and further afield will be interested to know of a new component and hardware shop opening in SW18, near Southfields and Earlsfield stations. JEE Distribution's shop will be open usual hours plus 10 am to 4 pm on Saturdays, and will be stocking over 4000 electronics items, with the aim of providing a complete equipment source for the hobbyist. A catalogue aimed specifically at hobbyists is available for 25 p, and you can write for a complete catalogue and mail-order prices to Roger Buckingham, JEE Distribution Ltd., 43 Strathville Rd., London SW18 40X. Tel: 018700075 ( 5 lines).

## Telephone Ringer

Inspired by our 'Telephone Repeater' project back in October '81, Tutchings Electronics have sent us information about the new 'Door Bell Repeater' they are producing. This can be set up just about anywhere that a length of wire will reach (Tutchings mention the garage and the garden, but do not say specifically that it is suitable to be mounted out of doors, so you will have to check that) and will sound a bell and flash a green light when the doorbell rings.

This is obviously useful for anyone some distance from their doorbell, or engaged in some noisy pursuit like watching the telly, and the light facility (an optional switch is available to switch off the bell when required) is especially handy when a silent alarm is wanted, or for the hard of hearing. The repeater can be set to sound as many times as you wish for each ring of the doorbell. Apparently, it doesn't work with chimes, but it might be possible to wire it in to some chime systems, so it may be worth asking.

The repeater can be powered either by PP9 battery or from an AC adaptor (which can be supplied for $£ 3.50$ ). The price of the Door Bell Repeater is $£ 11.50$ plus $£ 1.50$ p\&p, and it is guaranteed for one year. Write to Tutchings Electronics Ltd., Crest House, 3 Grange Rd., Southbourne, Bournemouth BH6 3NY. Tel: (0202) 424858.

## Nellie Goes Home

Still on the subject of computers, but going back a bit in time, one of the oldest first generation computers actually to be put to regular commercial use in Britain is being returned to its makers, STC (who no longer make computers now), for their archives.

The computer, known as Nellie, is a Stantec Zebra, 'which can be described as a serial digital computer with a 33-bit word length. Operation is based entirely on a magnetic drum rotating at 100 revolutions per second, 32 words per track giving a word cycle time of about 312 microseconds. Although this sounds slow compared with modern computers, the long word length enables a high degree of arithmetical precision to be combined with a multiplicity of switching
operations that could take place in one word time. For precision mathematics, the machine's efficiency is still close to that of the latest equipment available.' For comparison's sake, it takes three kW to heat up Nellie's 600 valves, and 21 fans to make sure they do not overheat. It then takes another four KW to enable her to calculate, when the high-tension circuits are switched on, and she requires a 270 sq ft computer room to herself. She has the capacity of a small desk-top micro today.

Nellie has had a fairly impressive history: she was the main computer at Woolwich Polytechnic until the mid1960s, when STC stopped making computers, which effectively made her obsolete. Later, she was acquired by a gentleman called Mr. MacRae as a backup computer for another Zebra that he was already using in his business - this was long before business computers were the commonplace they now are - and Mr. MacRae's computers were also used by a firm of sail designers, Bruce Banks Sails Ltd. The two computers were used together, each providing a backup for the other, but when the first machine was destroyed by fire in the early 70s, Bruce Banks Sails took over Nellie full-time '(such was her reliability that she had never required the backup) and used her for all their research and development work until January 1981, when all her programs were transferred to a modern micro.

By taking a gamble and relying on Nellie at a time when she was obsolete and when there was no outside source of maintenance, Bruce Banks Sails was able to use a computing facility which they would not have been able to afford in any other form, and gain a world lead in the scientific approach to yacht sailmaking, which is today a precise science. Nellie could be said to represent the birthplace of sail technology.

Comparing the dimensions and enormous power of old computers with the tiny size of modern micros which can do the same tasks is a awe-inspiring exercise. Here's hoping that other old machines like Nellie will be preserved in museums and by private owners so that we can look back on them in the future.


## Software For Sinclair

Sinclair Research have announced eighteen new software cassettes, mostly adventure games, for the Spectrum and ZX81.

The most expensive tape is The Hobbit, designed for the 48 k Spectrum, a fantasy game based closely on the book of the same name, and indeed the game package from Melbourne House publishers includes a copy of said book to give the player hints on what to do next. The game, of course, develops according to the player's decisions, and if he takes too long over them, it will develop without him! The Hobbit has been written to use the full potential of the 48 k Spectrum, and has a built-in 500-word 'inglish' vocabulary to instruct the computer. Will Bard the Bowman miss this time? Will Smaug the Dragon eat the thirteen dwarves and re-invest his hoard? Here's your chance to find out - it costs £14.95.

There will be a review of The Hobbit game in a future issue of HE.

Also for the Spectrum are four adventure games: Adventure A (Planet of Death) Adventure B (/nca Curse), Adventure C (Ship of Doom) and Adventure D (Espionage Island), all published by Artic at $£ 6.95$. Sounds like a normal day's work for Harrison Ford. Then there is Reversi, a modern version of the late nineteenth century board game (also known as Othello) with nine levels of difficulty, from Games Of Skill, price $£ 7.95$, and two practical programmes from ICL, the Collectors Pack, which enables collectors to hold a minimum of 600 records of up to nine items on one cassette, and the Club Record Controller, both $£ 9.95$.

All these are for the 48 k Spectrum, excepting Reversi, which is for the 16 k version, and Adventure A, which can be played on either the 16 or the 48 k model.

For $2 \times 81$ users, the four adventure games are available for use with the 16 k RAM pack, and are priced $£ 5.95$ each. Reversi costs $£ 6.95$ and needs 16 k . Also for the $16 \mathrm{k} \mathrm{ZX81}$ is Thro' the Wall/Scramble, and a tape with two interactive games in machine code, Super Glooper and Frogs, both from Psion/Microgen at $£ 4.95$.

For the 1 k ZX81 there is a Games Pack with eleven items ( $£ 6.00$ ) and a new ZX81 Chess tape (£2.95) - these are both from Artic.

For the experienced ZX81 operator, there is a new $Z X$ Toolkit (Artic, £5.95) which gives nine new functions: renumber, delete, MEM, dump, find, replace, save and append, and remkill.

Prices are all inc. VAT and the tapes are available now from Sinclair Research, Stanhope Rd., Camberley, Surrey, and from retail stockists.

## Oric the Third - and Forth

A 32k version of Oric Products International's Oric I microcomputer will be available from January 1983 - it should be in the shops now. It retails at $£ 139.95$ (inc. VAT), making a trio with the 48 k

Oric at $£ 169$, and the 16 k version (£99.95).

All the Orics run on extended BASIC, but for mail order purchasers only there is a free cassette containing FORTH as a second language with the 48 k model. This cassette is to be available as an optional extra for other buyers of the 48 k and 32 k Orics. More information from Oric Products International, Coworth Park, London Rd., Ascot, Berks SLL 7SE. Tel: (0990) 27686.

## OK, OK, OK

OK Machine \& Tool have now issued their 1983 catalogue with " 108 pages of information on tools and equipment for electronics, telecommunications, manufacturing, field services, labs, as well as schools and hobby users... It also features a unique product line of low cost tools and products, especially for educational and home use, and is full of useful technical and product information." Updates will be added every quarter.

Also from OK is a series of wire binding posts by BP which can be connected to a phono plug, banana plug, alligator clip, spade lug or wire, and plastic washers are available for complete insulation from PCB or chassis. For amateurs, these are available in packages of four (one red, one yellow, one green, one black); there are also bulk packages of 100 of any one colour.


A hand-held voltage and continuity tester, the Steinel Combi-Check, claims to be foolproof and fully protected against any damage to the unit (or the user) from wrong operation. Covering a voltage range of 6 to 660 V AC/DC in eight increments, it is shock protected by a high input resistance, and protected against voltage surges.

The Combi-Check can be used for phase-to-ground testing, polarity, continuity in the 0 to 2MR range, and diode testing, as well as AC/DC voltage testing. Its performance and display levels can be
checked on a voltage indicator before ot during voltage testing, and it gives visual and audible readouts.

For further news or catalogue, contact OK Machine \& Tool (UK) Ltd., Dutton Lane, Eastleight, Hants S05 4AA. Tel: (0703)610944.

## Open And Closed

Open Sesame? It's not quite as simple as that, but if you are fed up with climbing out of your car on wet windy evenings and struggling with the garage keys, you could consider a remote-controlled garage door mechanism. Slave-Dor, longtime specialists in automatic door control, are now handling the US-made Moore O Matic screw-driven remote-controlled garage door operator.

The newest model, called the Ultra Lift 838 , costs $£ 247.00$, and is operated by remote control from inside the car. The basis of the opening mechanism is a triplethread $3 / 4$ " hollow aluminium screw and belt-drive mechanism with a microprocessor controlled circuit board (easy to replace in case of failure). The 'door open' and 'door closed' limits of the screw, and the pressure needed to stop automatic opening or closing in case of obstruction are adjustable by the owner. The whole mechanism is designed to resist interference by ice, gravel and other driveway hazards, and includes an ingarage light which comes on automatically.

Slave-Dor haven't told us whether the unit is user-installable, or whether the remote is IR or ultrasonic, but they have told us that there is a cheaper version for $£ 181.75$, and that they will be introducing a version for domestic gates, which is user-installable.

For full details, contact Slave-Dor (UK), (Division of Amplite Electrical Ltd.), 1 Maidstone Rd., New Southgate, LondonN11 2TR. Tel: 018812905.

## Going Down

What lies at the bottom of Loch Ness? What lies at the bottom of the generations-old desire to know what lies at the bottom of Loch Ness? Everybody (just for once, we can use this oft-abused cliche with some accuracy) has heard of the Monster - generous time and resources have been spent on tracking it (him? her?). But the Loch Ness Explorers Club are taking an entirely different and down to earth track, by ignoring the palaeontology and getting on with the archaeology.

The Explorers Club are planning to survey the entire floor of Loch Ness, and record - on computer and video and any other appropriate method which is presented - the geography of the loch and any man-made remains which have sunk to the bottom during the loch's millenia-old history as a cross-country waterway (it's part of the Caledonian canal and was at one time the main route across Scotland). They have two sailing boats, video and computer equip-
ment and, far from trying to acquire more heavy-duty gear, want the whole project (which they expect to run for about five years) to be run entirely with the ideas and assistance of hobbyists. In their own words:
"What we are looking for is hobbyists who might fancy designing and building equipment that we can use to further the survey. The hobbyists may either send their built pieces to us and we will try them out and return them with a report of their performance, or better still, they are most welcome to bring them along and try them out themselves on Loch Ness on board our research vessel. This way the hobbyists get a chance to test their ideas and their prototypes under practical conditions. The kind of equipment we need is varied indeed. It ranges from robots, capable of working in 800 feet of water, remote-controlled grabs, TV cameras, water-tight cases, low level lighting systems, sonar (tight beamed), computer recording data methods, position fixing systems.
. .th that a hobbyist can dream up and wants testing. Timte is plentiful, so any modifications that may be needed to someone's idea will be able to be tried out, too. No project is too small, too trivial."

Members of the club will get a quarterly progress report, opportunities to visit the site and use the equipment, and contribute any ideas, even seemingly unlikely ones, which come to them.

This sounds like a good opportunity for inventors and adventurers, as well as down to earth hobby designers, to try out their ideas in the field.

The address to contact is: The Loch Ness Explorers Club, "John William". Foyers, Inverness-shire, IV1 2YB, Scotland.

## Prestel Editing

Continuing on the theme of computer clubs: The Association of Computer Clubs (ACC - not to be confused with the ALCC), acting in its role as the national body representing the computer hobbyist, has linked up with Micronet 800 to create Club Spot 800, a new way to involve the ordinary computer enthusiast in Prestel editing.

Club Spot 800 will be on Prestel * $8008+$, and will contain news and ideas about micros and micro clubs, programs, sales, wants, views etc.

The ACC is holding an editors conference on Saturday 26 February, at the Institute of Grocery Distribution, Grange Lane, Letchmore Heath, Watford, Herts. The nearest station is Watford Junction, and lifts can be arranged from there. Registration is free in advance, or $£ 5.00$ on the door, subject to space. There will be an introductory talk on Prestel editing, a hands-on session and questions and discussions.

For information, contact Rupert Steel, ACC National Prestel Committee Secretary, St. John's College, Oxford 0X1 3JP. Tel: (0865)512811.

Starting February 12th we will be open from 10am to 4pm every Saturday to sell our vast range of components at bargain prices. You will easily find us in Daventry on the A45, opposite the John O'Gaunt Hotel.


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HOWEVER long you have been building your own electronic projects, the problem of how to house them remains a perennial one. No matter how well the project works, you won't want to show it off to the girlfriend, boyfriend, neighbour, mother-in-law, budgerigar, cat etc. unless it looks good . . . will youl

Over the next couple of pages you'll find all of the information you need to be able to put a project into a box or case and give it the high-quality appearance that it deserves. When you've finished reading this article we think that, even if you have never put a single electronics project into a case before, you will agree that housing a project is just a matter of following a few simple rules.

First things first. What sort of housing are you going to use? There are hundreds of different boxes and cases on the market - some cheap, others not so cheap. You might even make your own if you can, but the problem remains the same, whatever box you decide to put your project in: how do you make it look presentable? After all, you might argue that it doesn't matter what it looks like inside, it's what is outside that people see, so the box itself is important to the final appearance of your project.

Assuming that you have already built up your project on a printed circuit board (PCB) or piece of Veroboard and tested it to make sure it works and does everything it's supposed to, the peripheral components (called panel hardware) such as potentiometers, meters and connection sockets will be joined to the PCB by short lengths of wire.

Write a list of all these controls sockets, meters etc. - which need to be accessed from outside the case. Other examples of controls are the volume, treble, bass and balance on a stereo amplifier, while input and output sockets are almost always needed. Now, take a few minutes and try to visualise a layout for the front panel of the project box. Some projects will have an obvious layout - for example an amplifier looks 'right' in a case having a long, thin front panel, with all controls in a straight line. Front panels of other projects could take a bit more thought.

There are two ways of going about this, depending on whether you already have your box or not. If you have a box then the size and shape of the panel is fixed. However, if you haven't got a box you can decide your own front panel size and shape - but then you have the problem of finding a box to suit your requirements. Keep a few catalogues from mail-order companies handy because they will give you a good idea of what boxes you can get (and how much they cost!). Above all, don't rush this stage; take your time, perhaps draw out in pencil on paper a few rough-sketched panel layouts until you've got the one most suitable for your project.

It's worthwhile remembering, while you are designing your front panel, the rule of the 'Five Ps' - Prior Planning Prevents Poor Performance. In other words, a bit of careful thought before you put your project in its box will help stop you making any mistakes. Don't make a move until you are sure you have every-
thing plannedl Don't drill a hole, don't even mark the case until you are positive you haven't missed anything out; once you've marked or drilled the case you can't go back and start again - you have ruined the casel

Centres of all holes for all panel hardware should now be marked using a hammer and punch; a punchmark will keep a drill bit in the right place and prevent it from slipping, scratching or scoring the panel. Small holes can be drilled out using a hand-drill and bit, but a power drill fitted with the correct sized bit is better still. Large holes can be a bit trickier. There are two general methods punching, or sawing and filing. Punching gives by far the neatest and cleanest of holes, but you have to have the correct sized punch. If you want a lot of different sized holes you need a good selection of punches, and the problem here is that punches are quite expensive. If you can't afford to buy more than a couple then it's best to buy sizes which you will use most often. For example, a punch which gives a hole to suit potentiometers is a good size to buy because most projects use at least a couple of 'pots'

Using a punch is simple. Drill a pilot hole in the panel to fit the centre bolt of the punch. Now, following the instructions which will be supplied with it, handtighten the parts of the punch until the



## Keith Brindley

# With patience, a few sim a home-built project can as "a bou 

cutting edge bites onto the panel. Now, using a spanner or Allan key tighten the punch until the hole is cut. It really couldn't be simpler.

The other method of making large holes is a bit more fiddly and takes more care, but is decidedly cheaper. Using a pair of dividers or compasses, mark out


Top left: the professional touch custom metalwork for the HE TV Amp by Newrad Instruments Ltd, assembly and finish by Paul Coster.

Above: A project wired-up for testing. Later it will have to be disassembled for mounting in a case.

Left: A range of simple metal and plastic enclosures.


## ple tools and a little skill, be made to look as good ght one".

the exact size of the hole in its correct position. Next, punch-mark and drill a number of holes around the inside of the circumference of the hole. Now, using a padsaw, or junior hacksaw, cut round the marked hole, keeping fractionally to the inside edge of the circumference, going from each small drilled hole to the next.

When you have cut all the way round, the centre will fall out. Then, using a halfround file, carefully file all round the inside edge of the hole until it is the correct size.

Take extreme care when you do any metalwork, because one slip with a drill bit, scriber, file etc. could make a scratch on the panel which you can never remove - the appearance of your project will be ruined.

## The Inside Story

When you've made all the necessary holes in the front panel, it's time to think about how you are going to mount the project's circuit board. Plastic pillars are ideal; alternatively simple nuts, bolts and washers can be used to do the job. Whatever method you use, you will need to drill more holes to suit, but in the bottom of the case this timel

Next step on the agenda is to label the front panel so that all controls and switches etc. can be clearly identified. Rubdown transfer lettering is the best for this; there are many different makes of transfer letters but they are basically the same in use. The surface of your project must, first, be perfectly clean and free from grease - the lettering won't stick unless the panel is grease free so spend a bit of time cleaning the case. You can use a piece of rag sparingly damped with methylated spirits or, alternatively, one of
the commercially available kitchen scouring creams. Make sure your hands are clean at this pointl

Transfer lettering is bought as a sheet with a quantity of each letter of the alphabet and the numbers ' 0 ' to ' 9 ' on it. Have a good look at the selection of styles of lettering (called 'faces') you can buy; most manufacturers produce a catalogue for the purpose. Choose a face which you like and which will suit the project. A good tip is to buy a fairly plain face (so the style will suit more than just the one project) and one which is quite small in size (so that you get more letters per sheetl).

Transferring a letter is simply done by laying the sheet ink side down over the panel, making sure the letter you want is exactly over the place you want it. Now, with a soft-leaded pencil or a ball-point pen, slowly rub over the letter so that it sticks to the panel and stays behind when you remove the sheet. There are three useful tips here:

- lightly rule a pencilled line where the label is to placed; this way, the word will be 'straight'
- where a label is to be central, above or under a definite point (such as a pot) start labelling with the middle letter; this ensures the word is not lop-sided
- make sure your spelling is correct; once you've misspelt a word, you'll have to redo itl


Above: Front panel artwork for the HE Incremental Timer, drawn up from the printed circuit board.

Top right: Even a small bench drill is suitable for drilling PCBs, plastic and light metalwork.

Right: Panel mounted displays require square or rectangular holes, made by drilling, cutting and filing as described in the text.


If you do make any mistakes, ordinary cellophane adhesive tape can be carefully used to remove the offending letters. Lay a piece of adhesive down over the error, rub it down then pull the tape off; the letters underneath the tape will be removed with it. Be careful it doesn't catch any letters you don't want removed!

## Spray it Again, Sam?

Transfer letters can be easily scratched and damaged so they have to be protected from mishandling. Clear protective lacquer is available in aerosol form, and this gives a hardwearing finish to your project's front panel, preventing all but


Above: Plastic mounting strips simplify the problem of securing a PCB or Veroboard within a case.

Below: Using rub-down lettering; a soft pencil will do as well as the special burnishing tooll

the fiercest of scratches from damaging the lettering. Most manufacturers of rubdown letters also produce their own forms of aerosol lacquer.

After you've sprayed the front panel, let the lacquer dry thoroughly. There's nothing more irritating than a messy (and irremovable) thumbprint on an otherwise perfect front panel, so allow at least the


## Above: A neatly completed Hobby

Electronics project and . . . Middle: A not-so-neatly completed project; the 'birds nest' effect could have been avoided by the use of ribbon cable or . . . Below: Cable ties, such as these self-adhering types.
manufacturer's recommended drying time before you touch it!

When the panel is perfectly dry, the time has arrived to put the whole project into the completed case. Unsolder all connecting wires which were on the PCB for testing, and discard them. Now, mount all panel hardware and the PCB in their respective places in the case. At this stage you can put all control knobs onto any pot shafts, too. You may have to shorten the pot shaft to suit - but don't do this with the pot in the case, other wise you might damage the case; take the pot out and, holding it in a vice, cut the shaft to the correct length using a hacksaw.

We're at the point now, where we commence final wiring-up of the project. Following the projects's circuit, cut each connecting wire to the correct length; this helps to keep the project looking neat inside. Make each connection in two steps:

1. Solder one end of the connecting lead to one point, say the PCB.
2. Take the lead around the case to the other point, cut it to length; then solder it.

Make all connecting leads go around the case in the same fashion so that generally they group together. Then, when all connections have been made and you have checked the project, (making sure it still works), tie the group of leads together with a cable tie. Plastic cable-ties, lacingcord or simple string can be used for this job. Forming all connecting leads into such a bunch gives a very neat appearance to the inside of your project, much better than the "bird's nest" appearance you get when a project is wiredup with all connecting leads simply taking the shortest distance between two points. It really is worth the extra few centimetres of wire you might use in forming the group of leads.

Now, the only thing to do is put the lid onto your case and then you can take a step back to admire your fully housed and completed project. Neat, isn't it!


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# COMPONENTS computing <br> Paul Kelly 

## Like elephants, ROMs never forget (unless you want them to).

Last month we outlined the different types of memory used in microcomputing systems and discussed, in detail, RAMs (Random Access Memory). We continue this month by looking at the other main memory type, ROMs (Read Only Memory). A ROM is in fact a type of random access memory (but rarely referred to as a RAM), in that it consists of a number of memory cells organised as a number of randomly addressable data words, each of one or more bits wide. The most significant difference between a ROM and a RAM is that the data stored in a RAM may be freely altered during normal operation of the device whereas in a ROM, the data is fixed at manufacture or by a programming procedure (depending on the type of device) and is unalterable in-circuit. The property enables ROMs to retain data when no power is applied to the device and is called 'non-volatility'. Such devices are of particular use in microcomputer systems where it is desirable to have the machine's operating software available immediately from powerup, whether it be a BASIC interpreter in a home microcomputer, a Disc Operating System (DOS) of a business machine or an industrial control system.

There áre a huge variety of ROMs, in general use, which vary in the technologies of fabrication, in the means of data fixing and, of course, in their capacities and organisations. Most of the devices fall into one of the following broad categories: mask programmed ROMs, bipolar programmable (fusible link) ROMs, UV-Erasable ROMs (EPROM) and electrically alterable ROMs (EEPROM).

In a mask programmed ROM, the stored data is determined by the set of masks used in the manufacture of the device. It is unlikely that these devices will ever be used by hobbyists, as the manufacturer's masking charge, although steadily falling, is of the order of $£ 2,000$ I Mask programmed ROMs are used widely by high volume manufacturers of microprocessor based equipment (eg microcomputers) where the overall cost per unit (over, say 10,000
devices) is very small.
EPROMS are the most popular ROMs, used almost universally by hobbyists, small volume equipment manufacturers and Research \& Development departments. The popularity of these devices lies, firstly, in their field-programmability, and secondly in their ability to be erased (by ultra-violet light) and reprogrammed many times. We will be looking at these devices, in particular, in the final half of this article.

EEPROMS have only recently hit the market and are, at present, too expensive to be in general use though no doubt they will completely replace EPROMS in the long term. EEPROMS vary in type. Generally they are programmed in the same manner as EPROMs but can be erased electrically (rather than by UV).


Pictures courtesy Ferranti Ltd.

## some devices one location at a time and

 others, all locations together.Bipolar PROMs are almost always programmed by a method of "blowing' fusible links within the device. The programming process is irreversible - oncè a data bit has been programmed lusually from ' 1 ' to ' $O$ ') it cannot be reversed. The basis principle of fusible links is itlustrated in Figure 1; when the cell is selected (addressed) by its row drive, it will pull the column output high if the link is intact - if the link is blown the column output remains low. The fuse, which is usually made of nichrome, is blown by momentarily passing a high current: through the transmitter and for this, Vce is often increased to a high voltage (although the particular programming requirements vary widely from one manu


Figure 1. (a) The physical structure of a bi-polar fusible link PROM cell; (b) the circuit of a single cell; (c,d) these drawings, showing the fuse intact and then blown, were made from a pair of photomicrographs of a PROM cell.


Figure 3. The structure of a UV erasable EPROM memory cell.

Table 1

| TYPE | ORGANISATION | TECHNOLOGY | SUPPLY | CURRENT | PINS | COMMENTS |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2708 | $1 K \times 8$ | NMOS | $+5,+12 \mathrm{~V}$ | 65 mA | 24 | Now obsolete. |
| 2716 | $2 K \times 8$ | NMOS | +5 V | 100 mA | 24 | Low cost type. |
| 2532 | $4 K \times 8$ | NMOS | +5 V | 100 mA | 24 | No OE pin. |
| 2732 | $4 K \times 8$ | NMOS | +5 V | 100 mA | 24 | Uses OE pin. |
| 2764 | $8 K \times 8$ | NMOS | +5 V | 150 mA | 28 | Pin compatible with 2732; expensive. |
| 2564 | $8 K \times 8$ | NMOS | +5 V | 150 mA | 28 | Pin compatible with 2532; expensive. |

The essential characteristics of the most common EPROM types are tabulated above. As chip densities have increased lowcapacity ICs such as the 2708 have become obsolete. However, the very high density chips remain expensive.
facturer to another). Bipolar PROMS offer an advantage in speed when compared with other PROMs, which are usually MOS (access time of the order of $20 n S$ versus 200 nS for MOS). Because this extra speed is not required by the average microcomputer system, and because of the high cost and difficult programming procedures, bipolar PROMs are rarely used for storing software in microcomputers. However they are used in minicomputers and mainframes, within the CPU microprogram control unit (where speed is crucial); a more frequent use is as a substitute for a logic array, as shown in Figure 2. Each of the PROM's outputs is a logical function of the input (address) lines; if any required function is tabulated (as in a truth table) by storing the contents of the table as data in the PROM, it will then function as an equivalent array of combinational logic


Figure 2. An EPROM can be used as a look-up table; the 8 -bit result is stored at an address corresponding to the values of the 4 -bit multiplier and multiplicand.

$i_{s}=$ SET-UP TIME
$i_{h}=$ HOLD TIME
Figure 4. The timing diagram of a single program cycle for the 2716 EPROM.
which might otherwise be used to implement the function. The example given is of a 4-bit multiplier used to give an eight bit product, implemented with one ROM chip - an equivalent circuit with NAND and NOR gates would require many chips!

We return, now, to the subject of EPROMs because, as a hobbyist, this is the type you are most likely to encounter (particularly if you build the programmer presented in this issue). A profile of the 'silicon slice' of one memory cell is shown in Figure 3. Each cell is based on a single MOS transistor, with a 'floating gate' implanted in the silicon dioxide insulator normally placed between the transistor control gate and the drain-source conduction channel. During programming, a high potential applied between drain and control gate causes an injection of electrons into the floating gate across the $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ barrier, but when the high potential is removed, a charge remains on the floating gate indefinitely. This charge on the floating gate inhibits the control gate, preventing it from turning on the transistor; thus two logical states exist for the cell, depending on whether the floating gate has been charged or not. The presence of UV light raises the conductivity of the $\mathrm{SiO}_{2}$ sufficiently to permit a gradual leakage of charge from the floating gate. Typically, an EPROM will take 30 minutes to complete erasure using a commercial UV erasing unit. The UV light of sunlight is not strong in the required spectrum (short wavelength UV) and could take several weeks to erase an EPROM. However, erasure boxes can be purchased as cheaply as $£ 40$, these days, with tubes running at about $£ 12$ each, if you wish to DIY.

In Table 1 we have presented some of the characteristics of most of the popular EPROMS on the market, together with their pin configurations. Most of the devices are in 24-pin DIL packages (except the larger $8 \mathrm{k} \times 8$ ) EPROMS, which are 28 -pin) and have a glass 'window' at the top of the package to allow UV light to strike the exposed silicon chip. After programming, a paper label or similar must be placed over the window to prevent gradual erasure in sunlight or artificial flrouescent lighting.

We have not gone into the internal architecture of a ROM, as the interconnection of memory cells within the device is basically the same as for RAMs (see last month's installment). Externally, the devices are very similar as well; they have an address bus (the number of lines being determined by the memory capacity), a data bus (which for most devices, being intended for microcomputing applica-
tions, is eight bits wide) and a chip select line (CE) which allows many devices to connect onto the data bus (when high, the CE pin disables the data output drivers). Obvously, for a ROM, there is no R/W (Read/Write) line, and in its place a Program Voltage pin is provided.

The earlier EPROM types (eg 2708) were quite complicated to program, in that it was necessary to cycle through all address locations many times so as to avoid localised heating of the chip. Most of the modern EPROMS, though, are fairly standardised and may be programmed a byte at a time; we will consider the 2716 EPROM (probably the most popular, at £2.50 each) in particular. A programming cycle for the 2716 is illustrated by the timing diagram of Figure 4. With the device enabled (CE low) and the programming drive, VPP, at 25 V , a stable address and data word are presented to the appropriate pins of the device; the OE (Output Enable) pin is also taken high to avoid conflict with the data 'blanks' already present in the ROM. The data is then programmed by applying a high to the PGM/CE pin for a period of 50 mS . It is important to note that a blank EPROM as supplied by the manufacturer has all its bits 'high' and that, during programming, the appropriate bits are forced low; it is not possible to bring a bit back from a low to a high without erasing the entire device. For a 2716, it takes about a minute and a half to program all 2048 locations on an automatic programmer and it takes at least 20 mins to erase the device. This gives the software developer a very fast turn around on modifications he makes during program development.

It is also worth mentioning some details of commercial programmers, although they are priced from 'as little' as $£ 200$ ! Some of the cheaper programmers are simple copiers, and therefore of limited use to software developers (but of considerable use to 'pirates', most noticeably of video games!) For manufacturers, bulk copiers (to program several EPROMS at a time) have become a cheap time-saving device - again not much use to the amateur. The 'intelligent' EPROM programmers, now beginning to flood the market, are becoming just within the reach of the amateur's pocket, and offer all the facilities he could wish. Most of these have video displays (as opposed to the earlier LEDs) and, in conjunction with an integral keyboard, allow data to be entered and manipulated as required before programming. The project presented in this issue, however, is a compromise between what one would like and what one can afford

# COMING SOON TO 



## RADIO CONTROLLED GËRBIL PROJECT

The April issue of Hobby Electronics features a special project of particular interest to all radio control enthusiasts and connoiseurs of digital devices.
You've seen HEBOT, now meet HOPPY, the Hobby Electronics Radio Controlled Gerbil! This unique project uses special circuitry to create a remarkable, life-like toy that will provide hours of fun for all the family (with the possible exception of the household cat).

Look for it only in the April issue of Hobby Electronics!

## TOOL AND TEST EQUIPMENT FOR THE ELECTRONICS HOBBYIST

Also featured in next month's issue is another great Hobby Electronics survey, this time providing all the information needed to select the most useful items of tools and test equipment for your workshop.

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## EPROMmer

Our two-part EPROMmer for 6502-based home computers is rounded off next month with full constructional details and a complete listing of the operating program.

Naturally, the April issue of HE will also include our popular regular features such as THE ELECTRONIC REVOLUTION and COMPONENTS FOR COMPUTING, plus your own letters in POINTS OF VIEW; despite all our efforts to restrain him, CLEVER DICK will be here as usual.


> March issue on sale at your newsagent from 11th February. Place your order now!

Although these articles are being prepared for the next issue, circumstances may alter the final content.
$\qquad$















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## FLOPPY DISC INTERFACE

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Single drive $5 \%^{\prime \prime} 100 \mathrm{~K} £ 235+£ 6$ carr. Dual drive 5 \% " $800 \mathrm{~K} £ 799+$ f8 carr. BBC COMPATIBLE DRIVES
These are drives with TEAC FD50 mechanism and are complete with power supply SINGLE: 100K £190; 200K £260; 400K £340 DUAL: 200K £360; 400K £490; $800 \mathrm{~K} \mathbf{£ 6 1 0}$

## MICRO TIMER

The programmable clock/timer is a 6502 based dedicated micro computer with memory and 4 digit 7 segment displays to form an extremely versatile timing device with following features: - 24 hour 7 day timer

- 4 completely independent switch outputs
- 6 digit 7 segment display output to indicate
real time turn-off times and reset times Individual outputs to day of week, switch and
status LEDs - Data entry through a simple matrix pad


# EPROMmer For 6502-Based Computers <br> Ian Hickman 

# Originally designed to operate in conjunction with a UK101 computer, the HE EPROMmer can be made to work with any computer using the 6502 MPU . Full construction details, including the PCB, component overlay and the operating program listing, will be presented in the April ' 83 issue of HE. Part 1: The Circuit and How It Works. 

OVER the last few years the cost of PROMs (Programmable ROMs), and particularly UV Erasable Programmable Read Only Memories, has dropped sharply, while single rail 5 V types have largely displaced the earlier and less convenient three-rail types. For the budget conscious home constructor, the beauty of EPROMs is that. if you get it wrong, the PROM can be 'wiped' and used again, unlike a fusible link PROM, where one "burns one's boats" the first time it is programmed. To erase an EPROM, one simply exposes it to short wavelength Ultra-Violet light from, for example, a 12 in 8 W uncoated fluorescent tube. The "black light" tubes sold for such purposes as demonstrating the fluorescence of various minerals or rock samples are not suitable for erasing PROMs, as they only emit longer wavelength, less harmful, ultra-violet light. The author purchased an EPROM Eraser replacement tube and found that this works perfectly in a 12 V transistor fluorescent ballast which, at other times, is used as a tent light run from the car's cigar lighter socket when camping. The short wavelength UV radiation from the tube will completely erase an EPROM in twenty minutes or less, but on no account look at the tube when lit as the radiation is very bad for the eyes.

This EPROM Programmer is designed to program Ultra-Violet Erasable Programmable Read Only Memories, namely 2 K by 8 EPROMs such as the 2716 and 2516 , and 4 K by 82732 s. The author designed it to work with his Compukit UK101, but it should work
equally well with any 6502-based personal computer. The EPROM Programmer contains a 25 V power supply for the programming voltage VPP, but draws the small current that it needs at +5 V from the host computer.

It was decided before the design was commenced that operation should be simple. Thus, the only controls on the EPROM Programmer are two toggle switches; one selects 2716 or 2732 ( 16 K or 32 K ) operation whilst the other selects Read or Program. Reading, programming and verifying are all carried out under the control of a "user friendly" operating system written in BASIC. The Programmer has been in use for many months now, and has proved extremely useful and completely reliable.

## Circuit Design

To cope with 2716 and 2732 EPROMs, the circuit must be able to change the functions of pins 18,20 and 21 of the PROM socket - all other pin designations for the two devices are identical. Table 1 shows the functions of these three pins for the two different PROMS, and it can be seen that the logic level applied to pin 18 needs to be inverted for the 2732 (relative to the 2716) in the PROGRAM mode, but not in the READ mode. This can be achieved by using an EXOR (Exclusive OR) gate which inverts the signal to pin 18 only when +25 V is applied to pin 20 . How this is arranged will shortly become clear.

Figures 1 and 2 show the complete circuit of the HE EPROM Programmer.

Figure 1 shows the circuit board, with a 40 way DIL socket J 1 . This socket is connected by a 40 way jumper lead to the expansion socket of the host UK101 computer, though the EPROM Programmer does not use all of the signals available. Addresses A8 - 15 are decoded to define the position of the 6821 PIA (Peripheral Interface Adapter) in the UK101's memory map. With the connections shown, this is 32768. Addresses AO and A1 are also used by the PIA directly, to provide access to Control Register A, Peripheral Register A, Control Register B or Peripheral Register B as appropriate. For those who have not used the 6821 PIA before, Figure 3 shows its internal structure RSO and RS1 are connected to address lines A0 and A1 of the host computer's address bus and route the PIA's data bus (connected to the UK101's data bus) as shown in Table 2. When RSO,

## TABLE 1

|  |  |  | PROGRAM |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| EPROM | PIN | READ | START | INHIBIT |
| 2716 | 18 | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| 2732 |  | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| 2716 | 20 | 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 2732 |  | 0 | +25 V | +25 V |
| 2716 | 21 | +5 V | +25 V | +25 V |
| 2732 |  | A11 | A11 | A11 |
| 2716 | IC5a | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 2732 | PIN1 | 0 | 1 | 1 |

Two switches are used to change the logic functions according to the programming operation and the type of EPROM, as shown above.


Figure 1. The main circuit board carries the sockets connecting to the host computer (J1) and to the EPROM (J2), the PIA (IC3) and its address decoders (ICs 1 and 2), plus the EPROM address latch (IC4). IC5 and 01 are concerned with the EPROM pin functions; two spare gates are used to drive the 'Busy' LED.


Figure 2. The power supply and pin function logic circuits are designed as separate modules.

RS1 $=1.0$ respectively, access is provided to Control Register A. Then, writing a ' $O$ ' in bit two of the eight bit Control Register A-CRA2 $=0$ provides access to Data Direction Register A (DDRA) if RSO, RS $1=0,0$. For each bit in DDRA which is then set
to a ' $O$ ', the corresponding bit in Peripheral Interface A (PAO - 7 ) is set as an input, whilst a ' 1 ' sets it as an output. That is, RSO, RS1 $=0,0$ accesses DDRA if CRA2 $=0$, or Peripheral Interface A if CRA2 $=1$. In the latter case, PAO - 7 are all inputs if

DDRA holds zero and are all outputs if DDRA holds 255. (The EPROM
Programmer uses all eight lines, PAO 7, as all inputs or alternatively as all outputs, although under control of DDRA, any mixture of inputs and outputs can be set up).

TABLE 2

| RS0 | RS1 | CRA2 | CRB2 | LOCATION SELECTED |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :--- |
| 1 | 0 | x | x | CONTROL REGISTER A |
| 0 | 0 | 0 | x | DATA DIRECTION REGISTER A |
| 0 | 0 | 1 | x | PERIPHERAL DATA REGISTER A |
| 1 | 1 | x | x | CONTROL REGISTER B |
| 0 | 1 | x | 0 | DATA DIRECTION REGISTER B |
| 0 | 1 | x | 1 | PERIPHERAL DATA REGISTER B |

The 6821 Register selection programming. Control signal RS1 selects either control Register A or B, while RSO selects either the Data Direction Register or the Peripheral Data Register of the selected side.


Figure 3. The internal architecture of the 6821 PIA. Not all the functions are used by the EPROMmer circuit!


Figure 4. Detail showing the PIA address decoding circuitry. With the connections shown, this places the PIA at 32768, though other addresses can be arranged by selecting the appropriate outputs from each decoder section.

We do not use bits 0, 1, 6 or 7 of CRA, but in addition to bit 2 we also need bits 3, 4 and 5. These control line CA2, and we configure this as an output, which is set to a 0 or a 1 as appropriate by the BASIC operating system, as will be explained later.

Similar comments apply to the B sidr of 6821, as shown in Table 2.

The arrangement of the 6821 thus provides access to a total of six registers whilst only occupying four consecutive memory addresses. The present circuit does not take advantage of this economy of address space since for simplicity and economy, partial

## Building Blocks

The 74LS139 is a dual 1 -of-4 Decoder/Demultiplexer IC containing two independent decoders. Each decoder accepts two binary inputs and produces a single, unique active LOW output for each combination of inputs, as shown in the Truth Table. Each decoder has an active LOW ENable (E) input which forces all four outputs HIG! when it is taken HIGH itself.

In the EPROM Programmer, two 74LS139s are used to provide address decoding for the PIA as shown in Figure 4; when the correct address is presented on the host computer's address bus, pin 12 of IC2 goes low. ENabling the PIA.


The circuit of one half of a 74LS139.

| INPUTS |  |  | OUTPUTS |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\bar{E}$ | $A_{0}$ | $A_{1}$ | $\overline{0}$ | $\overline{1}$ | $\overline{2}$ | $\overline{3}$ |
| H | X | X | H | H | H | H |
| L | L | L | L | H | H | H |
| L | H | L | H | L | H | H |
| L | L | H | H | H | L | H |
| L | H | H | H | H | H | L |

H = HIGH VOLTAGE LEVEL

> L = LOW VOLTAGE LEVEL

The Truth Table for the decoder; each combination of inputs produces a single unique output.

## How It Works

THE HEART of the Programmer circuit is the 6821 Peripheral Interface Adaptor (PIA). This contains two independent sets of DATA registers, PAO-7 and PBO-7, each controlled by separate control Registers CRA and CRB, plus a pair of Data Direction Registers DDRA and DDRB. Register PB is used to store the data to be programmed into the EPROM, while register PA is used to hold the address in the EPROM where the data is to be located. Both sets of information are transmitted via the host computer's Data Bus.

Thus storing a single byte of data requires two separate operations; first the EPROM address is sent to register PA, then the data to be stored in the EPROM at that address is sent to Register PB. These operations are carried out under the control of the
operating software.
However, since only eight address bits are supplied, only 256 bytes of EPROM can be programmed, therefore it is necessary to increment the EPROM address after each block of 256 addresses. Before the low-order address bits are sent to Register PA, four address bits are first loaded into the four-bit latch IC4, and these are presented to the EPROM address bus at the same time as PAO-7 loads the low-order address into the EPROM. That is, programming one byte of data actuelly required three operations; first, EPROM addresses A8-A11 are latched into IC4; then address bits AO-A7 are presented via PAO-7, then the data is loaded via PBO-7.

Since the Programmer is designed to program both 2716 and 2732 EPROMs, which have some slightly
different pin functions, the appropriate logic levels are derived from two switches and a small amount of control logic; the switching and logic circuit is described fully in the text and Table 1.

Finally, ICs 1 and.2, a pair of 1 -of-4 line decoders, are used to ENable the PIA when the appropriate address appears on the host computer's address bus. Address lines A8-A15 are decoded by ICs 1 and 2 while AO and A1 are applied directly to the PIA (see text and Building Blocks for further details). This system locates the PIA's Control and Data Direction Registers at 32768 32771 . However, because address lines A2 - A7 are not decoded, the register's addresses also occur at the next four addresses, the four after that and so on.

address decoding is used. Address bits AO and A1 are applied to the 6821 directly and, in conjunction with A8 to A15 decoded by IC1 and IC2, locate the PIA's four registers at 32768-32771. But as address bits A2 to A7 inclusive are not used, the PIA could equally well be addressed at the next four memory locations or the four after that and so on. This is satisfactory in the author's set-up as the 256 addresses following the PIA are unused, but the point must be borne in mind if you wish to relocate the PROM
Programmer's PIA address, say to tuck it away in one of the odd spaces near the top of RAM.

Returning then to Figure 1, it can be seen that address lines 0 to 7 of the EPROM are driven by Peripheral Register A, PAO - 7, of the PIA. Do not confuse the EPROM's address lines with the computer's address bus; the EPROM address is written into PAO - 7 via the computer's data bus. The data bus also supplies the data to be stored in the EPROM, and this program data is held in Peripheral Register B, PBO - 7, of the PIA. That would be the end of the story if the EPROM only held 256 bytes, but
in fact it holds 2048 bytes (2716) or 4096 bytes (2732), so the eight address bits held in PAO - 7 must be augmented by three or four more EPROM address lines. These extra address bits are held in four bit latch IC4. The latch inputs D1 - 4 are from the four low order outputs PAO - 3 of Peripheral Register A; the appropriate address data is stored in Peripheral Register A and then latched in IC4 by momentarily taking PIA control output CA2 high. This extra operation only represents a tiny overhead as EPROM addresses A8 - 10 (or A8-11 in the case of the 2732) only need updating once for every 256 lower order addresses.

Having set up the complete EPROM address in latch IC4 and PAO - 7 of the PIA, and with the corresponding data byte to be stored sitting in PBO -7 , PIA control line CB2 is taken high for 50 mS . Provided VPP is at +25 V , this has the effect of "burning' the data into the EPROM at that address. If a 2732 is in course of being programmed, then +25 V will be present at pin 20 of the PROM. This is detected by Q1, which places a ' 1 ' on pin 1 of EXOR gate IC5a,
causing it to act as an inverter, as required (see Table 1). Under all other conditions (2732 read or verify, 2716 all operations), there will be a ' 0 ' at pin 1 of IC5a and the CB2 signal is therefore not inverted. This looks after pin 18's requirements, and the functions of pins 20 and 21 for the two types of PROM are sorted out by switches SW1 and SW2, again in accordance with Table 1.

Two of the spare EXOR gates have an input tied to PA3. Thus during reading, programming or verifying, as successive addresses are set up in Peripheral Register A, red LED 1 will blink on and off, showing that it is "all happening"; PA3 was chosen as giving a suitable blink rate. A green LED driven from the +25 V supply indicates that the mains supply to the EPROM Programmer is on, whilst a yellow LED powered from +5 V indicates that the Programmer is indeed receiving this supply from the host computer. The +25 V supply is actually more like +24 V 7 nominal, using as it does a 7824 regulator with the common leg propped up on a small signal silicon diode D2.

# SinclairZX <br> Spec 

## 16K or 48K RAM... full-size movingkey keyboard... colour and sound.... high-resolution graphics...

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Yet the price of the Spectrum 16K is an amazing $£ 125$ ! Even the popular 48 K version costs only $£ 175$ !

You may decide to begin with the 16 K version. If so, you can still return it later for an upgrade. The cost? Around £60.

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There's no need to stop there. The ZXPrinter - available now - is fully compatible with the $Z \times$ Spectrum. And later this year there will be Microdrives for massive amounts of extra on-line storage, plus an RS232/network interface board.


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- High-resolution-256 dots horizontally $\times 192$ vertically, each individually addressable for true hi resolution graphics.
- ASCII character set - with upper-a lower-case characters.
- Teletext-compatible-user softwar can generate 40 characters per lin or other settings.
- High speed LOAD \& SAVE-16K in 1 seconds via cassette, with VERIFY MERGE for programs and separate data files.
- Sinclair 16K extended BASICincorporating unique 'one-touch' keyword entry, syntax check, and report codes.



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

## Gordon Channer Again!

Now, replies to a reader's query, from other readers:

Dear Sir,
With regard to Gordon Channer's letter (HE January '83) may / suggest he contacts Black Star Ltd., who advertise in ETI /they appear in Monitor and in our suppliers' surveys from time to time, too - Ed.). They stock a range of Crotech oscilloscopes, two of which may be operated from a 10 V to 15 V DC supply. I hope this information will be of use. J.M. Oakley,

Ormskirk,
Lancs.
Thanks, J.M. - you've furthered the cause of hydro-electronics. (Anybody who doesn't understand that hasn't read their January HE properly - shame on you.)

Dear Sir (or Madam),
In answer to Gordon Chänner's letter in HE January ' 82 about a 12 VDC oscilloscope, the instrument he is looking for is obviously the superb instrument that was offered by ETI in their May ' 82 issue and the following couple of issues.
C. Williams,

Willenhall,
West Midlands.
This letter continued with various facetious comments coricerning Clever Dick, Steven Spielberg, binders and the dotted lines on our survey sheet . . . all of which are being referred to the proper authorities, who will doubtless be round with rubber truncheons one evening quite soon. As for the query about whether ETI is actually extra-terrestrial, we can't reply to that one as we can't understand a word their editorial team says. Sorryl

## Generating Some Curiosity

Dear Sir,
I have just read the 'Wireless Goes To War' article in HE January '83 and found it very interesting. Can I suggest that John Biggins writes about the wartime development of radio during World War Two, which should also make interesting reading.


The caption for Fig. 3 on page 56 states that the purpose of the 'fan (propellar)' is not known; I think the purpose is quite obvious. It is an air driven generator to provide power for the aeroplane's radio, to save the weight of battery power packs. What do other readers think?
C.M. Daw,

Flitwick,
Beds.
It's easy when you know howl We had one or two readers contact us about this propellor, and they all agree with you. Now, when will our modern electronics companies think of something similar for personal stereos? I'm sure we'd all be willing to walk a bit faster to avoid the frustration of batteries conking out in. the middle of a loud bit!

## Flash It Again, Please

Dear Sir,
Last year I built the circuit you published using two 555 timers and LEDs to make the 'Twinkling Star' tree decoration, and it worked perfectly. However, when I made the 'Christmas Tree Lights Flasher', neither of the 555 timers would work the relay specified. When put back into'the 'Star' circuit they both functioned perfectly. Both circuits were powered by new PP3 batteries, which pulled the relay in when directly connected.

Could you offer any explanation for this, or should / boost the output of the 555 with a small transistor in order to power the relay?
Robin R. Davies,
Horley,
Surrey.
Uh oh. Deeply involved as you are in building this circuit, your description of it must seem to you all-embracing. Unfortunately, to us, with our miles of files and lengthy editorial history, it sounds pretty much like any of a dozen other circuits.

As a matter of general policy, please can you try to name the month and year of the Hobby you were working from when writing about circuits? If you send an SAE, you will get a personal reply; if you don't, you will eventually appear in POV; but if we can't work out what you're talking about, you may never get a reply which makes any sense! So please, gentle readers - name, rank and serial number when you're reporting projects for misconduct.

## Ear Errata

## Dear Sir,

May I point out what I think are a number of errors concerning the project 'Big Ear' in HE December '82.

1) Reference page 80 (Circuit Diagram): The volume control RV1 has the bottom end connected to OV. This would place a dead short across C5 and R6.
2) Reference page 81 (Component Layout): R2 is shown as going to Pin 2 of the IC1 (TLO82). Circuit Diagram shows R2 going to Pin 3.
3) In the description of the Circuit (page 81) it is stated that "The input from the mic is fed to the non-inverting -ve input of IC1a", but the Circuit Diagram shows the input from.mic to the + ve input of IC1a.
4) The article states that "The junction of the two resistors is bypassed to OV by C3'", but the Circuit Diagram shows the bypass capacitor to be C5 at the junction of R3/R6.
A. Lord,

Southport,
Merseyside.
Dear Sir,
An electronics engineer has informed me that at least one error is present in the Circuit Diagram of the directional microphone published in HE December '82.

I would be grateful if you would send me a correct circuit diagram should the
statement be true. I have already purchased the components and am keen to complete the project.
P.E. Philpotts,

## Brentwood,

Essex.
Weil, notwithstanding what we say about feedback sometimes taking months to come through, where the errors are less subtle they come back to us pretty fast! Here are the errata from our own correction card:
a) Page 80, Fig 2: Junction of R6, C5 and RV4 should not go to OV.
b) Page 81, Fig 3: R2 should go to pin 3 of IC1, not pin 2.
c) Page 81, Text: Input from mic is to non-inverting ( + ve) input.
d) Page 81, Text: Junction R2
$R 3 / R 6$ is bypassed to ground by C5, not C3.

## A Bit Off The Beat

Dear Sir,
I have constructed the circuit board and components for the Metronome project in HE November '81. The accented beat is very unreliable. After a few seconds the 4017 IC breaks down and the accented beat is at random intervals. I have tried two fresh ICs, but the same fault develops after a couple of minutes. I have tried various voltages, and breakdown seems to occur soon after 7 V . I am quite convinced that it is not a circuit fault.

Is it possible that there is an inate problem with the 4017 when the reset pin is connected to one of its output. pins? I once used the 4017 as a divide-by-five counter, but eventually had to resort to other means because of its poor reliability. In any event my niece who was so looking forward to having the metronome is very disappointed. C.A. Bearfield,

Sale,
Cheshire.
Unfortunately, there was more than one error in this project, so we can't correct it in a few words. Anyone who thinks or knows, that there is an error in a project they are building, send us an SAE. Mark your own envelope 'project errata' and we'll forward a correction sheet as a matter of priority. The only snag can be that some project problems are subtle and may not come to light for months after a project is published, so anyone writing for corrections too soon after publication may not find what they're looking for. It's safest to do what Mr. Bearfield has done: test out all the possibilities to see if it's a construction or a component fault, and then contact Hobby.

Faults in projects seem to be inevitable because Hobby projects are effectively production designs - they're being made up in multiple copies by different people with components from different sources in different places. Designs for commercial production can have months of strenuous testing under all sorts of conditions before they're released for cloning - if we did that,
your Hobby would shoot up to about $£ 3.00$ a copy. So we rely on careful testing and - er - proofreading, and feedback from designers and readers, and cheer loudly when we get a design for publication that has been tested in the field for a year or two - not, alas, all that common, but nice if we can get it.

## Heat But No Light

Dear Sir,
Some months ago you published an article on solar cells which I found very interesting. We are interested in using these solar panels to provide lighting in some of the bush missions and outstations. You mentioned one particular type of panel which appeared suitable. We would be very grateful if you could send us the name and address of the manufacturers and/or suppliers. We would also like to have an idea of the cost.

When we get your magazine (which is unfortunately very seldom) we find it very interesting and instructive. Keep up the good work.
Martin O'Neil,
Mansa,
Zambia,
Central Africa.
We have to admit that, unli; .. Jear old England, you have no shortage of sun out there. The cells, unfortunately, might prove a problem. The cells we featured were at the time listed in the RS Components catalogue, but on checking, they no longer appear to be available. Can any reader or supplier help? If so, contact us at POV. Meanwhile, somebody had better get HE onto the Bush Telegraph double quick and make sure Mr. O'Neill gets our reply!

## Seeking The Light

Dear Sir,
I am a student at East Ham College of Technology, studying my final year in a TEC Diploma Electrical Engineering course.

The class has been asked to carry out a full year project. I have therefore decided to make and research on the Light Dimmer featured in HE October '80.

Can you therefore please be kind enough to send me some information based on this project.
"yas Syed,
Forest Gate,
London E7.
I'm afraid we don't keep files of extra information on our projects - what we have is what we publish in the magazine. Of course, back issues are always obtainable through our backnumbers service (details in most Hobby issues - not this one, alas. Check out February or April. Cost is $£ 1.25$ per issue or article). Also, there are in London some very good libraries that
have stocks of technical magazines going back many years which you can look at for reference, even if you don't live in the same local area. Try asking your local library for advice.

## Microlog Mistake

Dear Sir,
HE Microlog (December '82).
Thank you for this excellent project which I am in the process of building. I think this is a good introduction into the world of analogue computing. With reference to Fig. 6, there appears to be a misprint. The top part of the secondary of T1 is taken straight to regulator IC3, instead of into the top part of BR1. Thanks for this great magazine and please keep up the good work.
H. Meidner,

Kensal Rise,
London NW10.
Yes, we caught that one, unfortunately, just too late to stop it from getting into print, but the correction was published in January's Hobby as part of Monitor, with the corrected diagram on page 72. Thank you for contacting us anyway it might have been something no-one else had yet spotted. Just to recap, the top of T1 should go to the top of the diode bridge BR1, but not to IC1.

## Might As Well Stay Home . . .

Dear Sir,
I read with interest both the letter from Mr. Gordon Channer IPOV HE January '83) and the article 'Light and Power', both of which dealt with DC/AC inverters. I had already drafted out a letter to you on the same subject, now disposed of. I was going to state, and I do now, that l'm sure there are many people like myself who garage their car some distance from their home and would welcome such an inverter to enable them to use an electric drill, etc. That would mean something with a power capability of around 4-5000 watts. Perhaps your engineers can come up with something in the near future.

The other point I would like to raise, again for your engineers. What I would like to see is a project on a digital scoring device, like two seven segment displays that would retain their respective figures until they are updated, but only using one key-pad that could be switched lby a two-way switchl from one to the other. This could be used for many games like darts, cards, dominoes, etc.
A. W. Guy,

Forest Gate,
London E7.
As stated in the article on supplies, power in excess of around 200 watts is very difficult to realise, so it's unlikely that a more powerful supply will appear as a Hobby project, regrettably.

However, as for the scoring systems: we have something in mind, so watch this space!

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## Project



# Simple circuits based on operational amiplifiers 

## No 6: Linear Ohmmeter

BOTH of this month's Pop Amp circuits are concerned with the measurement of resistance. Like the previous circuits in this series, they are low-cost add-ons which give an inexpensive multimeter those extra facilities normally found only on the high grade models. You need only add a simple voltmeter or a multimeter switched to a DC voltage range.

Most multimeters include a circuit for measuring resistance; Usually it is powered by a cell hidden inside the case of the meter. This is wired in series with the coil of the meter and one of a set of standard resistors which can be switched into the circuit according to the range required (Figure 1). There are four snags to this arrangement: one is that the accuracy of the reading depends on the cell delivering the correct voltage. If it is not fresh; the reading is wrong. The second is that this circuit inevitably produces a non-linear reading. You will notice that the multimeter has a special scale for resistances; this is a non-linear scale with the lower gradations widely spaced and the higher values crowded toward the left-hand end. This highlights a third disadvantage which is that the scale reads from right to left, instead of the direction to which we are all more accustomed. Finally, there is the serious limitation that the amount of current flowing through a resistor of several megohms is usually far too small to be measured precisely with the kind of
microammeter found in the average multimeter. Consequently, resistance in excess of about 1 M ohms can not be measured with precision, if at all.

This circuit provides a linear reading, using the ordinary scale of a 10 V voltmeter, and reads from left-to-right. Its accuracy is not affected by battery condition until the batteries are really worn out, and it gives equally precise readings on all ranges, up to 9 M ohms.

## Operating Amps

The op-amp is wired as a inverting amplifier, with the resistance which is to be measured (Rx, in Figure 2) as the feed-back resistor. The op-amp used in the prototype is a 7611 CMOS amplifier; the output of this device can swing fully between +9 V and -9 V , giving the maximum range of readings on one range setting.

The way the op-amp works as an inverting amplifier is explained for the benefit of readers who have missed earlier circuits in this series. The first point to note is that the amplifier has a balanced power supply of ++9 V and -9 V , provided by the two batteries. The two inputs to the amplifier have extremely high impedance - $10^{12}$ ohms (one teraohm) - and for all practical purposes we can consider that no current can flow into these terminals.

The amplifier detects the potential of each input, and when they are equal, the output of the amplifier is OV . If the potential at the non-inverting input (positive) is greater than that at the inverting input (negative), the output
swings to a positive voltage; if the positive input is less than that of the negative input, it swings negative. In this circuit, the positive input is wired directly to the OV line and all input voltages to the negative input are positive. Consequently the potential at the negative input is either equal to or greater than that of the positive input, so the outputs are OV or less. This is why the meter is connected with its negative terminal to the output of the amplifier and its positive terminal to the OV line; the output voltages are actually negative, but we read them as positive.

The positive input to the inverting input comes from a reference voltage source, which will be described in a moment. A current flows toward the input through a resistance, called the input resistance, RIN. In practice, this may be any one of a number of different resistances, each made up from a fixed resistor in series with a variable resistor, which can be switched into circuit. This allows changing the range of measurement. Because of the high input impedance referred to above, however, virtually no current can enter the inverting input, so the current flows along unchanged, through the test resistor, Rx to the output of the amplifier. Since this has swung to a negative voltage (for a positive input), the current flows into the amplifier's output.

RIN and RX are in series and the same current flows through each, so they act as a potential divider. Think of it as a seesaw which turns around a point at a distance from its middle (Figure 3). The high end is at VIN (a positive voltage), and the low end is at Vout (a negative


Figure 1. The resistance measuring circult of a typical multimeter.


Figure 2. Figure 2. Circuit diagram of the Linear Ohmeter.
voltage), and somewhere between positive and negative there must be OV. The amplifier adjusts Vout until this OV point is located exactly at the negative input, then both inputs are at OV and the circuit becomes stable. In this condition, the voltage drop across RiN is VREF, so the current through Rin is $\mathrm{I}=$ Vref/Rin. Also the voltage across Rx is Vout, so $1=$ Vout/Rx, and the same current, $I$, is flowing through both resistors, so VREF/RIN = Vout/Rx. We already know Vref and Rin, and we can measure Vout on the meter, so we can easily calculate Rx.

Vref is provided by a band gap reference IC (ICI) which acts in a way similar to a reverse-biased Zener diode but
with much greater precision; the voltage across this is typically 1 V 26 . If RiN is exactly 1 V 26 R and the voltage across it is exactly 1 V 26 , the current flowing through it is 1 mA , and if $R x$ is exactly 9 kR , it requires a voltage of 9 V to make 1 mA flow through it. In other words, with a 9kR resistor as the test resistor, Vout swings to -9 V , and remains there - the meter reads 9 V .

If $R x$ is $8 k R$, then Vout swings to -8 V ; the current through Rx is 1 mA , as before, and the voltage at the negative input is OV as before. Now the 'see-saw' is tilted less steeply, with its long arm only 8 times longer than the short one, and the meter reads 8 V . The same happens for all


Figure 3. The voltage see-saw around an op-amp.


Figure 4. Component layout of the circuit board; note that the track cuts are shown viewed from the component side.
other resistances up to 9 kR ; the meter reading in volts equals the resistance of $R x$, in kilohms.

If we make Rin equal to $12 \mathrm{k} 6, \mathrm{I}$ 'is reduced to 100 uA , so to obtain full-scale deflection of $9 \mathrm{~V}, \mathrm{Rx}$ must be 90k. Then the meter reading in volts equals the resistance of Rx in tens of kilohms. Table 4 shows the details of the four ranges which this circuit provides.

To obtain a 900R range we would need to make Riv equal to 126 ohms, and the current would be 10 mA . The IC is not able to hold VAEF steady when the current is as large as this. If you would like a lower range, make Ris 252 ohms, giving a fullscale reading equivalent to $1 \mathrm{k8}$; take the scale reading, divide it by five and call it kilohms.

The only other part of the circuit which needs comment is the zero adjustment. The inputs of the amplifier behave as if there is a very small voltage difference between them, even if there is not, and when amplified, this small difference would appear as a significantly large reading on the meter. We compensate for this by setting RV1, as explained later.

## Construction

A board of the size recommended has room for four sets of fixed and preset resistors but you can leave out some of

## Parts List

## RESISTORS



Table 1

| Rin | R2-5 | RV2-5 | CURRENT | FULL SCALE |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 k 26 | 1 kR | 470 R | 1 mA | 9 kR |
| 12 k 6 | 10 k | 4 k 7 | 100 uA | 90 k |
| 126 k | 100 k | 47 k | 10 uA | 900 k |
| 1 M 26 | 1 M | 470 k | 1 uA | 9 MR |

Table 1 shows the input resistance, the values of the input resistors and potentiometers which make up Rin, the reference current I, and the full scale resistance reading for each range of the Linear Ohmeter.

these if you do not want all the ranges listed in Table 1. If you are unable to obtain a 2 k 2 preset for RV1, use a 4 k 7 preset instead.

Wire up the whole circuit before testing it; it can readily be powered by two PP3 batteries though you can use other types, or a mains power pack, if you prefer. Switch on the power and first check that ICl is working; the voltage across C1 should be close to 1V26.

To make the offset null (set zero) adjustment, temporarily connect pins 2 and 3 of IC2 together, using a lead with crocodile clips, and adjust RV1 until the needle of the meter rests at OV. This operation requires patience, since the needle tends to swing violently to either side of zero, but it can be achieved with a little care. Then remove the connection between pins 2 and 3 .

You will need a standard resistor to test each range; a $1 \%$ tolerance resistor is best. Choose a value which is near the upper end of the scale you are calibrating, attach the probe clips and select the range on SW2. Adjust the corresponding preset until the meter reading shows the value of the standard resistor; all other readings on that range will now be correct. When all the ranges have been calibrated, the circuit is ready for use.


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£1.37 120 minutes
30 minuten
81.37
$\mathbf{8 1 . 3 7}$

BLEEPERS - SIRENS - BELLS - BUZZERS
Siren/Hoover - Delta 6 or 12 V DC or 24 VAC


## COUNTERS

6 digit counter. Mains operated. Not resettable
Ditto, But even numbers only
SWITCHES - ROCKER, TOGGLE, ETC.
Rocker switches: white push into hole 1 " $\times 7 / 16^{\prime \prime}$. All rated
10 amp, AC 250 volt. on/off
changeover centre o
on/aif with neon
on/otf with neon
push to make spring return
push to make spring return
Larger two circult one on one with mounting plate
13 amp rocker switch. Car Fastener (DOT)
Pistol Grip Switch: with lock-on as in electric drills Interlocking switch: blow heater, 3 rockers, 10 amp Micro switches. V3 types. 10 amp c/a contacts
mains button operated: $\quad 15 \mathrm{amp}$ c/o contacts 10 amp offlon
15 amp offlon
Lever operated add
Ministure iypes: Burgess V4 TB c/o
Two mounted with roller aperator
flat multi stackable 60 wbit
Operating coils for reed switch multi voltage 3, 6, 9, or 12
Ceramle magnots
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MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS
Neon Mains indicators. Standard
Bench isolation mains in $230 / 240 \mathrm{v}$ output. 250 Watis
Mains input. Porcelain removable fuse
․ E 1.2
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Ditto, Tufnol, price per lb.
Varicap P.B. TV tuner
Battery holder takes 6 U 2 batteries, snap connecto
Battery holder takes 62 batteries, snap connector
Car Battery clips, as for charger, + and - . per pair
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6 volt 1 amp.
6.3 volt 2 amp
12 volt $\% / 4 \mathrm{amp}$
12 volt $3 / \mathrm{amp}$


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22.00

MOTORS - MAINS \& BATTERY
3. 6 volt battery motor, very small

3 . 12 volt battery motor, very low current
Mains motor with gear box. 5 rev minute
80 rev per minute
110 rev minute
110 rev minute
200 rev minute
Mains motor, double ended fan motor
Ditto slingle en
Fan blade for above
Mains motor, double ended, very poweriul $1 / \%$ stack
Mains instrument motors $J^{3}$ rev 24 hours
with gear box:
3 rev 24 hours
1 rev 1 hour.
16 rev 1 inute. 46 rev minute 4 rev minute
2 rev minute 1 rev minute.
Motor clockwork, set up to 1 hou
Motor, clockwork set up to 1 hour with ringer
Malns motor \%h.p. 1425 revs, ex computer
Vent opening motor with end stop switches.
12 volt motors, Smiths, single ended $11^{\prime \prime}$ " spindle
12 volt motars, Smiths, double ended $1 / 4^{\prime \prime}$ spindle 12 volt motors, $P$ magnet type, single ended
it ho motor 3450 rpm 100 volt. BOHz . New

SPECIAL TERMS. For items in this column. Order no less than 10 of any item. Then add VAT at $15 \%$, and $20 \%$ for carriage in the case of transformers and electric motors. All other items in this column are free post \& packing.


## Pop Amps

We do not usually give sources of supply for the components used in these simple projects because they are generally easily availablel This month though, there are several that are a little hard to get hold of. These are: the ZN423 precision voltage reference, the 7611 CMOS op-amp (used in the Linear Ohmeter, Pop Amps No.6) and the 3342 programmable current source used in the Low Range Ohmeter (Pop Amps No.7).

The calibration resistors for the Linear Ohmeter should ideally be 0.4 watt $1 \%$ tolerance metal film types, for best accuracy, and these are not stocked by every supplier either. The values required are $8 \mathrm{k} 2,82 \mathrm{k}, 820 \mathrm{k}$ and 8 M 2 , though lower values in each range would do at a pinch. Fortunately, though, almost all of these components are stocked by Rapid Electronics.

## Loudspeaker Protector

The difficult items in this project are the 1N5349B 12V/5W Zener diode and the TIP31C transistor; note that a TIP31A will not do, herel Also, the 12 V PCB mounting relay and the 2 k 22.5 W resistor may be somewhat hard to
locate; a 5 W resistor will do instead. You may find all these at your local supplier or in your favourite catalogue but if not, try Watford Electronics or MS Components, who stock all the hard to find items. MS Components are at Zephyr House, Waring Street, West Norwood, London SE279LH, 'phone 01-670 4466.

Since the Protector circuits are designed to fit into the loudspeaker cabinets, cases are not required and the cost should be in the region of $£ 6.00$, excluding the price of the PCB.

## CHECK LIST

## RESISTORS

(All $1 / 4$ watt $5 \%$ unless noted) $1 \times 47 \mathrm{R} ; 1 \times 2 \mathrm{k} 2,2.5 \mathrm{~W}$ or greater; $2 \times 47 \mathrm{k} ; 2 \times 100 \mathrm{k} ; 3 \times 470 \mathrm{k} ; 1 \times 220 \mathrm{k} ; 1$ $\times 2 \mathrm{M} 2 ; 1 \times 10 \mathrm{M}$.

## POTENTIOMETERS

$1 \times 20 \mathrm{k}$ miniature carbon trimpot.

## CAPACITORS

$1 \times 1000 \mathrm{u} 25 \mathrm{~V}$ axial electrolytic; $2 \times 220 \mathrm{n}$ polyester.

## SEMICONDUCTORS

$1 \times$ CD4050; $1 \times$ TIP31C; $1 \times 1$ N5349B; $4 \times 1$ N4004; $4 \times 1$ N914, 1 N 4148 etc. miscellaneous
$1 \times 12 \mathrm{VDC}$ PCB relay; PCB, wire, solder etc.

## Overvoltage Cut-Out

Once again, there are a couple of hard $t$ get items; the 2N3904 transistor, which is however stocked by ElectroValue, and the 2N6403 SCR, which appears to be available only from Ambit. However, Greenweld stock a suitable substitute for the SCR (the C126M, rated at 12 A and 400 V PIV) and also the last awkward item, the OR47 5 watt resistor; thus they are a convienient source for all the components used in this project.

The cost of this project excluding the PCB should be about $£ 3.50$; a suitable two-part aluminium case can be had for around $£ 1.00$.

## CHECK LIST

## RESISTORS

(All $1 / 4$ watt $5 \%$ carbon unless noted)
$1 \times 2 \mathrm{k} 2 ; 2 \times 22 \mathrm{k} ; 1 \times 5 \mathrm{k} 6 ; 1 \times 2 \mathrm{M} 2$;
$1 \times 330 \mathrm{R} ; 1 \times 330 \mathrm{R}$; $1 \times$ OR $475 \mathrm{~W} 10 \%$.

## CAPACITORS

$1 \times 10 \mathrm{u} 25 \mathrm{~V}$ axial electrolytic.
SEMICONDUCTORS
$1 \times 2$ N3904; $1 \times$ CA3140; $1 \times 2$ N6403 or C126M; $1 \times$ BZY88C6V8; MISCELLANEOUS
Chassis mounting 20 mm fuse holder; 20 mm quickblow fuse, current rating as required; input and output terminal; optional case (as above); mounting fixings, PCB, wire, solder etc.


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thandar tmas 31/2 DIGIT LCD QIGITAL POCKET Multimeter - OC volts 1 mV to 1000 V - AC volts V to 500 V AC rms - DC current 1 Na to $2 \mathrm{~A} \bullet$ Resistance 152 to 2 MO . Diode check $\bullet$ Basic accuracy $\pm$ ( $0.75 \%$ of reading +1 digit) - Battery life typically 2000 hrs - leads inc. - $£ 45.94-40 \mathrm{KV}$ Probe $£ 34.95 \bullet$ Universal test lead set $\$ 12.95$.

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| ExP-300 | 8 mm | 152 mm | 53 mm | 550 | 110 | ${ }^{5} 14$ pin | ¢..¢ |
| EXP-4B | $n / 3$ | 152 mm | 25 mm | 160 | 32 | $\mathrm{n} / \mathrm{s}$ | 0.81 |
| EXP-650 | 15 mm | 91mm | 61 mm | 270 | 54 | ${ }^{1} 10$ pin | E4.80 |
| EXP. 350 | 8mm | 91 mm | 53mm | 270 | 54 | ${ }^{3} 14 \mathrm{pin}$ | E.\% |
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# Clevep michr 

## Still half full of Christmas Spirit, CD attempts to answer another motley selection of reader's letters.

Christmas comes but once a year . . .
fortunately. Letters like this next one
arrive more frequently, though.
Dear CD,
I am writing to ask you this question: what are the units of conductance?

If you cannot answer the question then I think that a binder would compensate me, don't you?
Yours hoping that you don't answer, A. Sutton,

Rishton.
Lancs.
PS I'm trusting you not to consult a dictionary, nor to ask anybody else. Don't cheatl

Who needs a dictionary? The unit of conductance, as you seem to know already, is the 'mho'; that is, the inverse of resistance which is measured in 'ohms'. Get it? Good.

The author of the next letter receives the CD Bright Idea award . . . a very large raspberry.

## Dear Clever Dick,

I think HE is fantastic, brilliant, clever etc. BUT your printers are chronic. Here is a solution (how about a binder?): rebuild all your projects after the designs have been mangled by the printer, ie build them from the finished article.
M. Cummings,

Chepstow,
Gwent.
Well . . . yes. It sounds like a good idea, in theory. Unfortunately, it just can't be.

First, though, any errors which occur in HE are certainly not the fault of our printers. We manage them ourseives, thank you very much! Second, the editor takes every precaution to catch errors in circuits or projects before the issue is sent to the printers. Last, your suggestion is impractical for the simple reason that it is far, far too late to correct errors which are found only after tens of thousands of copies of the magazine have been printed

And if there was an award for Dumb Letter of the Month, this next one would win hands down

## Dear Clever Dick,

I was wondering if you could tell me whether or not it would be safe to wire a single-wired intercom, that is mains operated, through the earth of the mains socket?

Could you also please tell me where I could buy an Eagle LT700 transformer and the ZN4 14 silicon chip?

## S. Williams,

Keighley,
West Yorks.
PS Is it true that the OC71 transistor is going out in place of the AC128?

Is this man winding me up?
On the basis of the information supplied, I can only reply - No! Better to be safe than sorry, you see. I'm tempted to say "yes" but I do hate to lose readers!).

For the transformer, why don't you try Eagle International? Their address is: Precision Centre, Heather Park Drive, Wembley HAO 1SU. The telephone number is 019028832 . The ZN4 14 is widely available from most of the compenent suppliers advertising in Hobby Electronics . . . TK Electronics, for example.

As usual, the subject of my precious binders arises once more. Anybody would think I had thousands to sparel

## Dear Clever Dick,

Would you mind telling me who I could send off to, and how much I would pay if I actually want to (wait for it . . . BUY a HE binderl? It's all very well you sitting there with your pile of binders, carelessIy discarding them in the direction of grovelling electronics enthusiasts when the whim takes you; how about telling us unfortunate and wretched beings how we can obtain these priceless gems to keep our equally priceless HEs in without grovelling to some anonymous "wit".

Incidentally, I've been buying HE regularly since February 1979 and I desperately need some binders - how about sending me one immediately land free) so I don't have to bother to write off again?

## P. Spring,

Bath,

## Avon.

PS Notice the lack of scrounging, squirming, crawling, truckling, scraping and fawning land any other nasty words of such like meaning) in this letter.

Of one thing I can assure you: my binders are never discarded "carelessly", or on a whim!

Astute readers may have noticed in last month's issue, that I have actually agreed (under considerable pressure, it must be said) to award one of my blue and gold masterpieces free of charge to any reader clever enough to fill out a subscription form for Hobby Electronics.

And now for something a little more exotic, to borrow a phrase.

Clever Dick Sir,
I am a guitar player in a rock group and would like to build a radio transmitter/receiver for use with my instrument, as / and many other guitarists are tied to our equipment by leads, cables etc.

Commercially I fear, those units are very expensive (hundreds of pounds) and I would be very pleased if you have any ideas or could put me in touch with anyone who has plans for such a project.

Finally, would I have to apply for a licence, as the range would only need to be approximately 100 ft ?
E.C. Mountford,

Stone,
Staffs.
I felt this question required an expert answer, so I contacted Mr. Steve Stow of Martellow Sound Ltd., manufacturers of the popular 'Rello' range of radio mics.

First, a licence is required to operate any such system and will only be issued for Home Office approved equipment. This means it is most unlikely that you will ever see a radio mic system project.

Second, it is virtually impossible to design a guitar transmitter/receiver system at a reasonable price, that will satisfy all guitarists. Any inexpensive system must incorporate a limiter, making it unrealistic for those players who use a wide dynamic range (a system that did not use limiting would cost over $£ 10001$ ).

However, Martello will shortly be releasing a new narrow-band system designed primarily for speech transmission. It will be shown at the annual APRS event in June ' 83 and will retail for approximately $£ 299$ plus VAT. Martello Sound will be able to supply individual modules at a slightly lower price to anyone who wishes to experiment. See you at the APRS?

I'm continually amazed by the poetic nature of some of my fans. Not so much by their poetry, though.

## Dedicated to Seedy.

Being a nice sort of fellow
I'm sure you will oblige,
Now that I've forty issues
Down in a scruffy old drawer,
Eventually they're going to get torn,
Rendering them pretty messed up.
But you have just the cure,
If only you'll read from the top,
Next to the left hand side
Downwards towards the bottom,
Ending then starting again;
Read carefully and you will see
the perfect cure for me!
The Poet,
C/O S.A. Lilleyman,
Sale,
Cheshire.
I hate to be seen to encourage any more of this appalling stuff, but it is the cleverest letter of the month - not that that's saying very much. You win. The Binder is presently being despatched.

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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | T.M.D. Trp* 1 KHz | $\begin{gathered} \text { I.M.D. } \\ \text { SOHz } \\ 7 \mathrm{KHz} 4: 1 \end{gathered}$ |  |  |  |  |
| -11, | 13 | 2-1 | 12.015\% | < $0.006 \%$ | $\pm 18$ | $76 \times 68 \times 10$ | 240 | ¢8.40 |
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| HV:154 | 180 | 1 | 0.01\% | <0.006\% | $\pm .45$ | $120 \times 78 \times 100$ | 1030 | £38.41 |
| нуY.бiн | 18 O | B | 0.01\% | <0.006\% | 160 | $120 \times 78 \times 100$ | 1030 | E38.41 |

Protection: Full load line. Stew Rete: $15 \mathrm{v} / \mathrm{\mu s}$. Risetime: 5 sus. S/N ratio: 100db Frequency response $(-3 \mathrm{dBl}) 15 \mathrm{~Hz}-50 \mathrm{KHz}$. Inpur senstivit

RE. AMP SVSTEMS

| Module Number | Module | Furstions | Current Required | Price inc. VAT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| liv6 | Mulin pre amo | Mic/Mag. Cartridge/Tuner/Tape/ Aux * Vol/Bass/Trable | 10 mA | 17.80 |
| 11766 | Sterea pre ums | Mk/Mag. Cartringe/Tuner /Tapel Aux + Vol/Bass/Treble/Balance | 20 mA | ¢14.32 |
| hYr's | (iuts pre jmo | Two Guitur ftass Leadt and Mic * separate Volume Bass Treble * Mix | 20 mA | C15.36 |
| 11478 | Starmu pre ump | As HYC6 less tone controls | 20 mA | $¢ 14.20$ |

Most pre-amp modules can be driven by the PSU driving the main power amp.
A separate PSU 30 is avaliable purely for pre amp modules if required for
[5.47 (inc. VATI. Preame and miming modules in 18 different variation
Pease send for detank.
For ease of construction we recommend the B6 for modules HYE-HY 13 £ 1.05 and the 866 for modules HY66-HY78 $£ 1,29$ linc. VAT).

| Module Number | Output Power Watts rms | Loadmpedtance $\Omega$ | distortion |  | Supply Voltage Typ | Size mm | WT \$ms | Price inc. VAT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  | T.H.D. Typat 1 KHz | $\begin{gathered} \text { I.M.D. } \\ \text { 6OHz } \\ 7 \mathrm{KHz} 4: 1 \end{gathered}$ |  |  |  |  |
| Mcos 128 | 60 | 4.8 | <0.005\% | <0.006\% | $\pm 45$ | 120×78×40 | 420 | £30.41 |
| MOS 248 | 120 | 4.8 | <0.005\% | <0.006\% | $\pm 55$ | $120 \times 78 \times 80$ | 850 | f39.86 |
| MESS 364 | 180 | 4 | <0.005\% | <0.006\% | $\pm 55$ | $120 \times 78 \times 100$ | 1025 | ¢45.54 |

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$£ 17.19$ (inc. VAT)
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| :---: | :---: | :---: |
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| PSU 53x | 2x MOS 128 | £17.86 |
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| Model Number | For Uso With | Mict ince VAT |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
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| PSU 73x | $1 \times \mathrm{HY} 364$ | [22.54 |
| PSU $74 \times$ | 1: HY368 | ¢24.20 |
| PSU 75x | $2 \times$ MOS248. $1 \times$ MOS 368 | ¢24.20 |

$X$ in parino. indicates primary vol:age. Please insert "O" in olace of
$X$ for $110 \mathrm{O} . " 1 "$ in place of $X$ for 220 V , and " 7 " in place of X for 240 V .

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A GREAT DEAL of the trouble with television in its early days stemmed from the fact that it came so close upon the heels of radio broadcasting. The first publicservice wireless broadcasts took place in the USA late in 1920. Within ten years, the first regular mechanical-scan TV transmissions were being made and at the end of 1936, still a month short of the BBC's fourteenth birthday, the worid witnessed the gtart of the first television service using the all-electronic system which is the direct ancestor of TV as we know it today. All in all, an astonishingly short time-scale when you consider how long it had taken public electricity supply, for instance, to get established in the mid19th Century.

An amazingly rapid development perhaps, but it was also a remarkably difficult one when you compare it with the birth of sound broadcasting in the years immediately after the Great War. The trouble with television was quite simply that the idea existed long before anyone had much idea of how to put it into practice. With wireless broadcasting it had been the other way around, of course: the basic technology - radio telephony had lain there virtually unnoticed for nearly two decades before the idea had dawned, some time in 1919, that there was enjoyment to be had (and perhaps money to be made) from using it to talk to a mass audience. But, once the idea of sound broadcasting was firmly established, about 1923, people naturally began to wonder why you couldn't broadcast pictures as well.

The problem was that in the early 1920 s , no more than a tiny handful of visionaries around the world had even the remotest idea of how this was going to be put into practice. In fact, most of the Informed Opinion in the electronics world thought that if the transmission of moving pictures could be achieved at all (which was far from certain) it would take at least half a century to do it. The next fifteen years were to prove the doubters dramatically wrong, but only at the cost of one near-disastrous false start, great expense, and a legacy of bitterness and illfeeling which was to plague television for years to come.

## Early Days

The possibility of transmitting pictures electrically over long distances had been

> The idea of transmitting pictures electrically over long distances had been around since the middle of the 19th Century, but it took nearly 100 years to develop the technology.

examined half-heartedly since the 1850 s, when French experimenters had managed to pass a few slow, fuzzy reproductions of still pictures along telegraph wires. The idea never really caught on but it remains one of the curiosities of technological history that in the end, a reasonably fast and reliable system for telegraphing press photographs came into use in the early 1930 s, only a couple of years before the start of the first high-definition TV service. In fact it was rather as if the steam engine had been invented only a few years before the aeróplanel

The idea of pictures-from-afar was given a major boost in 1873 with the discovery of selenium and its photoelectric properties. After a few years' research, though, this line of enquiry appeared to lead to nothing, as it was realised that the new substance was too slow in responding to light variations for it to be much use in transmitting a moving picture. In 1888 the German experimenter Nipkow achieved a major breakthrough (though it was scarcely recognised as such at the time) by cracking the problem of image dissection - how to break a picture down into separate elements capable of being transmitted over a single wire as a succession of electrical pulses. His solution was the Nipkow disc: a spinning disc with a series of holes spiralling inwards from the edge, so that as each successive hole passed between the subject and a photo-electric cell, the light reflected through the hole onto the cell would give an electrical analogue of the light/shade
pattern on that part of the subject which the hole had just scanned. With this process reversed at the receiving end, a crude picture could be built up, with the number of lines corresponding to the number of holes in the disc. Although well ahead of its time - it had to wait for the invention of the valve as an effective current amplifier - this device was to form the basis of the first attempts at a working TV system.

Mechanical scanning, then, was the obvious starting-point when researchers began to think seriously about television - but it took a long time for them to begin thinking about it at all! Prior to the First World War, a few scientists had toyed with the idea as part of their researches into something else. Boris Rosing in Russia and A. A. Campbell-Swinton in Britain, for example, whose early work on cathode ray tubes had given them an inkling at least that they might one day be used in television systems, if only at the receiverend. It is only in looking back on it, though, that we can see the beginnings of television, and in later years CampbellSwinton used to become very annoyed when journalists described him as the 'Father of Television'. The Great War did nothing for TV, since its military value was far from clear. In fact, it set research back by a good few years when the Russian Revolution broke up Rosing's team of scientists at St. Petersburg. Then, when the War ended, attention was focussed for several years on the business of setting up sound-broadcasting in America and Europe. But a's life returned to normal a few pre-War experimenters got working again.

John Logie Baird in Britain and C.F. Jenkins in the USA were pursuing the task of marrying the Nipkow scanning system to the valve-based radio transmitter, while an obscure Russian immigrant called V.K. Zworykin, an old pupil of Rosing's, was beavering away in the Westinghouse research laboratories in Pittsburg, developing the all-electronic iconoscope scanning system which was eventually to drive all before it.

## Flying Spots

At the beginning of 1924 though, when Baird gave the first demonstrations of his TV system in London, it looked very much as if mechanical scanning systems would be the basis of all future work on televi-
sion broadcasting. Baird's television camera in these demonstrations was really little more than an up-dating of Nipkow's apparatus. The main innovation was that the subject was scanned by a spot of light shone onto it through a Nipkow disc by a lamp mounted on the camera. The light reflected back - only a tiny percentage of that given out by the lamp - was focussed onto the photoelectric cell by lenses fitted over the successive holes in a second Nipkow disc, synchronised to spin with the first. The current given out by the cell modulated a medium-wave radio signal. The receiver, for its part, was a disarmingly simple contraption consisting of a neon light whose output was varied by the signal from the transmitter. It shone through another motor-driven Nipkow disc, synchronised with the camera, onto the back of a ground-glass screen. Given luck with synchronising the spin of the camera and receiver discs, the result was a postcardsized picture made up of twenty-five curved, vertical strips of yellowish light and greyish shade in which those with a good imagination might discern the smudgy, distorted semblance of a human face or some similar-sized object.

It was this rather unpromising system which Baird and his motley, quarrelsome crew of financial backers set out to perfect and sell to the British public during the years 1924-30. Before they could do so, however, they first had to win over the GPO and the BBC to the idea of a television service: the former so that it would grant the Baird Company a sizeable slice of the already-crowded MW band for experiments and the latter so that it would relax its statutory monopoly of broadcasting, lend a transmitter and eventually (it was hoped) take the new invention aboard as the BBC Television Service. Contrary to later legends, the Post Office and the BBC seem in fact to have been interested in the idea of television, and tolerably helpful despite the difficulty of negotiating with Baird (who was an outstandingly poor businessman) and his financial partners (some of whom were more than a little shady).

Demonstrations for the benefit of the GPO's engineers and then the BBC, in the autumn of 1928, seem to have given far from outstanding results even for an experimental system, and while the general verdict was that television was an idea


A Mihaly mirror-drum scanner, in use around 1929; the arrows show the path of the light.
[Photo. Science Museum, London.]
well worth developing, the GPO thought that it would need to have a lot of work done on it before they could inconvenience radio users by giving it part of the medium-wave band for trial broadcasts. Baird's associates were furious and immediately began a press campaign, accusing the Post Office and "the BBC bureaucrats" of trying to strangle the new invention at birth. This lead to the Postmaster-General twisting the BBC's arm until it agreed to lend the Baird Company a transmitter at Brookman's Park in North London, for six months of the experiment, problems with the transmitter led to a typically British compromise whereby the vision and the sound were broadcast on alternate days! Once the service was working properly however, the BBC (who were producing the programmes) were quite adventurous about what they broadcast. In May 1930 they put out the world's first television play, Pirandello's "The Man With A Flower In His Mouth", undetered by the fact that the entire cast had to act seated around a


John Logie Baird's 1925 experimental TV camera.
British Crown Copyright. Science Museum, London.
four foot-wide table. In June 1931 the Derby was televised in the first outside broadcast, the Nipkow disc being replaced on this occasion by a rotating drum of mirrors, each angled slightly from the next. In the autumn of 1932 the BBC formed a television committee and agreed with the Baird Company to provide two programmes per week until the spring of 1934.

Unfortunately public interest in the new service was minimal, however much of a stir TV demonstrations might cause on the stands at the Radiolympia exhibitions. Baird manufactured "televisors" at 25 guineas a time, to be on sale for the opening the experimental broadcasts but few of these were ever sold. Only thirty were known to exist when the broadcasts began in September 1929 and eighteen months later, only about 10,000 were in operation. True, most of these were home-built from kits of parts, since the receiver was simple enough for most radio amateurs to make for themselves. But as a public service, mechanical-scan TV failed to catch on, despite the fact that the Brookman's Park transmitter gave theoretical coverage over a large part of southern England. This was partly due to the fact, no doubt, that sound-broadcasting was only just becoming accepted as a regular public service. The main reason, certainly, was that the picture was simply not good enough.

Studio productions were very limited because the most the camera could take in was one or two people in head-andshoulders close-up. Any larger scene or outside broadcast had to make use of the clumsy intermediate film process, which involved shooting it first with a conventional cine camera, developing the film and running it through a scanner a minute or so later. Those appearing in the studio had to be thickly painted with a coating of flat white and dead black make-up, so as


One of Baird's Televisors; the serial number on the bottom left corner of the cabinet reads "1936-647".
(British Crown Copyright. Science Museurn, London.)
to get the maximum constrast from facial features. Then, sitting in the tiny blackedout studio being scanned by a brilliant, flickering light was unpleasant for most people, and it was even said to trigger epileptic fits in some. Nor were the results particularly impressive when they arrived in the living-room: the screen was about 3 in by 7 in, the picture swayed up and down the whole time, it smeared and it often lost sync and dissolved into a rushing smudge of light and shade. Even when the picture was received at its best, viewers said that it compared unfavourably with the early cine-films. All in all it was something people might watch out of interest but scarcely something they would pay to watch for pleasure!

## The End of the Beginning

Baird tinkered with the system for three years in an effort to achieve acceptable definition and screen-size, but the mechanics and the electrics were both against him. A larger screen meant a larger scanning disc; a larger scanning disc had to spin faster and this inevitably led to loss of synchronisation and smearing of the picture, as the photo-electric cell found itself unable to keep up with the changing light values. In any case, better definition would have meant taking up an even larger slice of the MW band. Baird was a formidably stubborn man and his backers tended to blame the BBC for not trying hard enough to make mechanical TV work. But there were other opinions to be considered: wireless-users were complaining about interference from the TV transmissions and, in the USA and Germany, RCA and Deutsche Rundfunk (using the Mihaly-Traub system) were preparing to abandon their own TV experiments at the end of 1932 as a waste of time and money. Early in 1933, then,
the BBC announced to the Baird Company that it would end the broadcasts from Brookman's Park in September 1935.

While all this was going on, Zworykin had been at work in the United States, first for Westinghouse and later for the Westinghouse associate RCA. He had taken out a patent on his iconoscope TV camera as early as 1923 , but it was not until 1931 that he and his growing research team had developed it to a point where its picture could be compared with mechanical-scan television. The principle of the iconoscope was that an electron beam was fired obliquely at a metalmosaic plate, being electromagnetically deflected in the process to scan back and forth across the plate from top to bottom. The camera lens focussed the image onto the plate and as the electron beam traversed, it created a succession of tiny electron discharges corresponding to the light and shade of the image; these were amplified to modulate a VHF signal. Secondary emission of electrons was a serious problem, at first, and the haloes which it caused around the brighter parts of the picture were so persistent that at one point, late in 1932, RCA was preparing to give up its experiments with allelectronic TV and go back to mechanical scanning. But the problem was gradually overcome during the early months of 1933 to the extent that by mid-year Baird - who had once confidently said that "there is no hope for television by means of cathode ray tubes" - was sufficiently alarmed to begin his own experiments with electronic TV, borrowing the American inventor Philo T. Farnsworth's image-dissector tube (a primitive cathode-ray device) for the purpose.

Part of Baird's alarm was caused, no doubt, by the talks which were in progress between the BBC and RCA's British sister-company, EMI, following a very promising demonstration of electronic-


This exotic piece of glassware is an EMITRON camera tube, dating from 1935.
(Lent to the Science Museumby Electrical \& Musical Industries Lid.)
scan TV in April 1933. The BBC was determined to try the new system in an experimental public service, but the newspapers were beating the patriotic drum about American competition with the all-British Baird system. Baird's supporters, like the journalist Sydney Moseley, had always believed that the BBC was operating a vendetta against the Company, and they had sufficient influence in Parliament and Fleet Street for the Postmaster-General to be wary of doing anything which might lead to accusations that the Government had killed off Baird's Television by favouring foreigners. The result was that, however much the BBC might be impressed by the superiority of the EMI system over Baird's, it had to allow some sort of comparison when the Corporation's television service began broadcasts on 2 November 1936.

## ''String and Sticky Tape"

The arrangement was that each company's system would be used in alternate weeks: the EMI 405-line, 50 -scan per second transmissions going out from the Alexandra Palace in North London and the Baird 240 -line, 25 -scan broadcasts from Crystal Palace on the other side of town. In the event, though, it was hardly much of a competition. The Baird pictures, put out by a hastily-assembled jumble of mirror-drums, image-dissectors and intermediate filming, were so patently inferior to those from the EMI cameras that it hardly needed the bad luck of the Crystal Palace fire to bring about the Baird system's demise after only three months, in February 1937. From then on, electronic scanning was to rule the world's television systems, with only minor changes like the introduction of orthicon cameras in the late 1940s and the European switch to 625 lines in the mid-1960s.

The technical argument was over, but television took many years to live down the collapse of mechanical scanning and the bitter quarrels which followed. Development was slow during the years 1936-39, both in Britain and in the USA. In fact, by the time the Alexandra Palace transmitter was closed down abruptly at the end of a Mickey Mouse film on the morning of 1 st September 1939 (it was feared that the Luftwaffe would use it as a navigation beacon), the number of sets in
use had barely reached 20,000. Transmissions went out for a mere twenty hours per week and they could only be picked up within a radius of about 25 miles from Alexandra Palace. True, sets had got markedly cheaper over the three years - from around 95 guineas to 21 guineas for some of the most basic models - and they had also become noticeably less bulky, as improvements were made to the large iron-cored transformers needed to provide the 2,5000 volt anode potential. But 21 guineas was still 3-4 weeks' wages for a skilled workman in 1939 and, in any case, people were extremely reluctant to invest such a large sum in a set which might well end up as a useless relic like the 1930 televisors, if the BBC decided to abandon TV at some future date. Television excited little public interest in the last years of peace, either here or in the States, where NBC began regular broadcasts only in February 1939.

Radio was still the dominant medium and TV was regarded as a faintly crankish and unreliable experiment for years, even after it became a regular service. Indeed, there have been some historians in recent years who have said that much of the British Government's interest in television around 1936 arose from the fact that the Air Ministry needed a cover-story to explain the mass production of cathode ray tubes for use in the chain of top-secret radar stations which it was building along the South Coast!


Not a prototype Dalek, but an eariy EMI TV camera.
(British Crown Copyright. Science" Museum, London.)

The War put paid to television services the world over. The USA's embryonic TV network was closed down by order from Washington early in 1942, to free tubemanufacturing capacity for the Navy and, by the end of 1943, the German experimental transmitters had been bombed out of existence - though for some mysterious reason the Wehrmacht was


A pre-war (1938) EKCO TV receiver; the size of the screen can be judged against the operating knobs!
(British Crown Copyright. Sclence Museum, London.)
tinkering with transmissions from the Eiffel Tower right up to the liberation of Paris in 1944. The story of television begins once more on 7th June 1946, the day before the Victory Parade, when the BBC resumed television broadcasts from the Alexandra Palace. TV was back on the air, but it was there only as a rather threadbare version of the pre-War service. The number of sets in use had actually gone down as a result of the Blitz, and new manufacture was a very fitful affair as the electronics industry readjusted to peace. A few skilled enthusiasts managed to build their own sets from surplus radar equipment, but for most people a TV set was an undreamed-of luxury item; the climate of Austerity Britain was not at all favourable to expensive new services like television. It was not until 1949 that the BBC got its second TV transmitter, at Sutton Coldfield, and during 1950 set manufacture stopped altogether because of the Korean War. The actor's unions and the theatre managers were hostile while BBC radio broadcasting was reluctant to share its immense wartime prestige with this upstart newcomer.

## Towards the Future

In spite of all these difficulties, television was busy preparing itself for its great take-off in the mid-1950s. The production teams were rapidly learning their new trade in the dingy, cluttered studios of the Ally Pally and the realisation slowly dawned, even on the BBC management, that television was a completely separate medium from radio: a process of education which was greatly helped by a disastrous attempt to put on Tommy Handley's "ITMA" programme as a simultaneous TV and radio broadcast. Scriptwriters began to cater exclusively for television and the first "personalities" began to emerge at the beginning of the 1950s: people like Gilbert Harding and MacDonald Hobley and Philip Harben. Sets were still expensive, though, and worse than that - the populace at large
still regarded TV as a slightly suspect plaything for the rich. It needed some major event to force TV in to the public consciousness.

That event came with the Coronation in June, 1953. Unlike the earlier Coronation in 1938, the BBC was allowed to televise the whole ceremony, including the scene inside Westminster Abbey. Large numbers of sets were hired for the occasion by people who would normally no more have thought of acquiring a TV set than a Rolls Royce. In the event, the whole proceeding turned out to be such an impressive spectacle that few of the sets went back to the showrooms afterwards. The number of licences had risen to two and a half million by the end of the year and, from then on, the television era had really arrived, both in Britain and in the United States where the three major networks CBS, NBC and ABC were soon able to parcel out the national TV audience among themselves much as they had shared out wireless broadcasting in the 1930s.


A Bush model TV22 9" television set from 1950; millions of viewers watched the 1953 Coronation on sets such as this.
(Photo, Science Museum, London.)

Technical improvements were few after 1950. The size and weight of sets were reduced still further as transformers were made more compact and scanning angles were increased to allow a wider screen for a given length of tube, eventually doing away with the early solution of mounting the tube vertically and placing an angled enlarging mirror over the top of it. At the studio end, the orthicon camera replaced the iconoscope and the zoom lens replaced the earlier four-lens turret, which made it necessary to cut from one camera to the other while changing focus. Video recording arrived in 1956, live satellite relay in 1962 and colour TV at the end of the 1960 s . With these developments television came to cover the whole Earth and the last stimuli to the imagination were removed. TV's direct influence on the world has been small in comparison with radio's. But the era of cable, satellite, home video and high-definition digital TV can only confirm it in its undisputed position as the world's most popular pastime.

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COMPLETE

## Pop Amps

## Simple measuring circuits based on operational amplifiers.

## No. 7: Low Range Ohmmeter

THIS CIRCUIT has two ranges, $O$ to $9 R$ and. 0 to 900 mR . A typical multimeter rarely has the ability to measure resistances as low as these, yet there are occasions on which you want to know the value of a resistance with some degree of precision. You may have made your own low-value wire resistor for use as a dropper in a current regulating circuit, for example; or you may want to measure the resistance of the coil of a loudspeaker or of a solenoid. Such devices often carry high currents when in use, and possibly the circuit is operating close to its limits. In this event the difference between 3.5 ohms and 3.7 ohms may make all the difference between safe operation and dangerous overloading of the other components. This device measures such resistances precisely. It can also be used for measuring the resistance of short lengths of cable, enabling you to calculate the resistance of a longer run. It can measure contact resistance in relays and similar devices, which usually have resistances of a few tens of milliohms.

## Low Class Circuits

As in the previous circuit, the op-amp is wired as an inverting amplifier. The amplifier works in the same way as in that project, but the input to it is derived in a slightly different way. The principle is that a known current is made to flow through the unknown resistance, Rx, and the amplifier is used to measure the voltage developed across Rx. Since RX is very low, the voltage is very low too, but this is amplified to give a voltage which is measurable by an ordinary voltmeter.

The constant current is derived from ICI, which is a programmable constant current generator. Provided that the voltage across ICI exceeds about 1V5, the current flowing from ICl remains unchanged no matter what the operating voltage may be; this means that the current is independent of the freshness of the battery. The IC is programmed by the value of R1. With R1 $=10 \mathrm{R}$ as in Figure 1, the constant current is 6 m 77 A at $25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$. It varies in proportion to the absolute temperature


Figure 1. The Pop-Amp No. 7 circuit, a Low Range Ohmeter.


Figure 2. The stripboard component overlay, showing track cuts viewed from the top.
but, unless you are likely to be using the circuit at sub-zero temperatures, this results in an error of less than $1 \%$ in the readings.

Suppose that Rx has the value 9R; the voltage developed across it is $9 \times$ $6.77 \times 10^{3}=60 \mathrm{mg} 3 \mathrm{~V}$. If the voltage at point ' $A$ ' is 60 m 93 V , the current flowing through R2 is 6u093A. Note that the measuring circuit draws less than a ten thousandth of the current coming from the current
generator, making virtually no
difference to the voltage across Rx.
This current flows on through R4 and R5. Since R4 and R5 have a combined resistance 1 M 47 , the voltage at the output must fall to $6.093 \times 10^{6} \times$ $1.47 \times 10^{6}=8 \mathrm{~V} 96$.

When $R x$ is $9 R$, the meter reads 8 V 96 , so the meter reading, in volts, is approximately equal to the resistance in ohms. To give a more precise reading it would be necessary to substitute an

## Parts List

## RESISTORS

(All 0.4 watt $1 \%$ metal film, unless noted)

| R1............................ 10 R | MISCELLANEOUS |
| :---: | :---: |
| OW25 5\% carbon | SW1 . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . DPDT |
| R2 . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 10k | toggle or slide switch |
| R3 . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 1k | SW2 . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . SPDT |
| R4 . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 1 MR | toggle or slide |
| R5 . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 470k | M1 . . . . . . . . . . . . 10VFSD meter |
| POTENTIOMETERS | Stripboard, $27 \times 63 \mathrm{~mm}(24$ holes $\times 10$ |
| RV1 . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 2k2 | strips); 8-pin DIL socket (IC2); $7 \times 1 \mathrm{~mm}$ |
| horizontal sub-min preset | terminal pins; $2 \times$ crocodile probe clips; |
|  | connecting wire, solder etc. Optional |
| SEMICONDUCTORS | case. |
| IC1 . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . 3342 |  |
| programmable constant current source | BUYLINES . . . . . . . . . . . . page 34 |

8.2 resistor and 4 k 7 preset for R2, but in this application it is probably not worth while.

On the other scale, which covers 0 to 900R, the voltage across Rx has a maximum value of $6 \mathrm{mO93V}$, which is a tenth of the maximum of the $O$ to 10 R range. This means that amplification must be ten times greater, so R3 has the value 1 kR range. This means that amplification must be ten times greater, so R 3 has the value 1 kR . Then a full scale reading of 9 V corresponds to a resistance of 900 mR .

You will have noted in Figure 1 that there are two wires going to point ' $A$ '; this is to allow for a possible error due to the probe lead resistance. One wire delivers current direct to point ' $A$ ' - the whole current goes to this point. The other wire makes a direct connection between point ' $A$ ' and the voltage measuring circuit and the current in this lead is so small that the resistance of the wire causes negligible voltage drop at the IC.

As explained in Pop Amps No. 6, an op-amp may deliver an appreciable
output voltage even when its inputs are at equal potential. This 'offset voltage' is compensated by adjusting the setting of RV1.

## Construction

The circuit fits easily onto the smallest standard size of Veroboard, though you may want to use a larger board if you intend to fit trimmer presets for the two resistance ranges. The circuit requires so little current that it can be powered by two PP3 batteries. Note that the terminals of RV1 have to be slightly bent out of alignment in order to fit it into a convenient place on the board.

Complete the circuit before testing it, then clip the two probe wires together and switch on the power. The inputs of the op-amp are then joined together so they are at the same potential and the output should be zero; if not, adjust the setting of RV1 until the needle of the meter rests at OV. Unless you have decided to fit trimmer presets, no further adjustments are necessary. Clip the probes to a known resistance in the 0 to 10R range, and select the range using SW2. The voltmeter should indicate the resistance. Use two or more 1R resistors wired in parallel for testing the lower range.

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## "Holy Smoke", exclaimed Robin, "that's another bass driver gone up in a puff". The Caped Crusader reached for the stereo headphones. "I warned you, Robin. You should build the HE . . .



NOT with a bang, not even with a whimper - most loudspeakers, when subjected to intolerable strain, simply stop, cease and desist from operating. The vital signs no longer present, the hapless audiophile sits for a moment in wonder at the pallid absense of sound before filling the air himself with tones of electric blue.

Usually, the power amplifier has gone faulty and applied the full DC supply to the loudspeaker terminals. Without some form of protection, the result is at least an open circuit bass driver - or worse. A protection circuit prevents this by monitoring the loudspeaker lines for the presence of DC, opening a set of relay contacts if this occurs and disconnecting the speakers from the faulty amplifier.

However, conventional speaker protection circuits suffer from two disadvantages: first, they are active devices, and thus require a separate power supply, either from batteries or from mains. The second problem results from the type of filter used to distinguish between DC and the audio signal; a standard passive.filter, set at around 10 Hz , is often used, but it is possible that a large amplifier will produce sufficient energy at low frequencies to trigger the protector, even though there is not actually a fault present.

These problems are both overcome
by this new circuit. The result is a particularly small, compact circuit board which can be mounted inside a loudspeaker enclosure. Thus it is not necessary to run mains power leads, or to continually check and replace batteries (the unit, while suiting all types of loudspeakers in general, is therefore very suitable for sound reinforcement systems). The solution used in this project is to power the protection circuit from the audio signal itself.

This is done by placing a full wave rectifier across the speaker lines and charging a 1000u capacitor through a $47 R$ resistor. The worst possible load presented to the speaker lines is therefore 47 ohms - and this is only while charging the capacitor and for signal voltages in excess of 12 V . This ensures that the unit has no discernable effect on audio quality but makes possible a truly 'set and forget' speaker protector that can, if required, be mounted inside the enclosure.

The second problem, that of the filter, is solved by a new design which has an almost 'brick wall' response; it enables the unit to be used with very high power amplifiers without danger of false triggering by very low frequency content.

## Power Monitor

Another cause of speaker failure is the
application of too much power for too long - a problem that is most often encountered in professional applications where the sound level can peak into the red and stay peaked for minutes, unless the sound engineer is alert. The Signal Powered Protector also tests for overpower, with an adjustable level control, and disconnects the speakers should the amplifier exceed the limit for more than a certain period.

This feature needs to be adjusted carefully when the unit is being used in a hifi set-up; if the trigger level is too low, the speakers. will be cut out by the sudden dynamic peaks which normally occur in some types of music.

The maximum power is determined by the type of regulator transistor (Q1) used; we have specified a TIP31C for this device. It has a collector-to-emitter breakdown voltage (VCEO) of 100 V , and since the emitter is at 12 V , the maximum voltage that can be aplied to the unit is 112 V . This is equivalent to an amplifier capable of supplying approximately 784 watts into an 8 R load, or 1568 watts in four ohms. If the amplifier to be used is capable of powers greater than this(!), the regulator transistor should be changed for a device with a higher VCEO rating.

The relay pulls about 40 mA when operated, so power dissipation in the regulator transistor will be around ${ }^{5}-1$ watts when there is 100 V acros


Figure 1. All there is to know about the circuit of the Signal Powered Loudspeaker Protector.


Figure 2. The component layout drawn on the PCB pattern; the full-sized foil is reproduced on the PCB Printout page.

Although this is not particularly high, it is high enough to be outside the safe operating limits of many high voltage transistors, so be careful when choosing a substitute.

## Protection Circuit

The signal from the power amp is rectified by the fullwave bridge formed by D1-D4. The output from this is fed through a 12 V regulator circuit formed by 01 and the associated components, with ZD1 setting the regulated voltage. Capacitor C1 is charged to this level, and powers the remainder of the circuit. The output of the bridge rectifier also feeds the input of the DC sense circuitry and the over-power detector.

Buffers IC 1 a and c form the DC filter. Resistors R4, 6 with IC2a form a
Schmitt trigger with a small deadband. When the signal goes above the trigger voltage, the output of IC 1a swings hard to the positive supply rail, charging C2 through the 220k resistor, R6. Buffer IC1c, together with R10 and R11, form a second Schmitt trigger, monitoring the voltage across C2. If this reaches the second trigger voltage then its output goes toward the positive rail, activating IC1d, $e$ and $f$, which pull in the relay and disconnect the loudspeaker lines.

It takes about 100 ms to charge C2 via R8. However, the input to IC 1 a is fullwave rectified unsmoothed DC. The output, therefore, will switch between high and low as the input swings above and below the trigger voltage. With a normal audio input, then, the output of

## Parts List



IC1 a will go low before $\mathbf{C} 2$ can charge to the second trigger level, and it will discharge rapidly into the low output via diode D6. Thus only signals which do not have a zero crossing for longer than 100 ms will trigger the protector.

The over-power detector consists of a voltage divider, formed by R3 and RV1, driving a third Schmitt trigger. Whenever the voltage exceeds the trigger level, the output of IC1b will be driven high and C3 will commence to charge. If this condition persists for long enough, the output buffers will drive the relay, disconnecting the speaker lines.

Note that both the DC sense and the over-power detector charge C3 when a fault condition occurs. The circuits are decoupled from the capacitor by diodes, so that it can only discharge through R12 (the effect of the input impedance of the buffers is negligible). Together, R12 and C3 have a time constant of about one second, therefore the relay will hold on for this length of time. Thus the speaker lines are re-connected approximately one second after a fault condition has been detected.

## Construction

Construction is straightforward since all of the components are mounted on the PCB. The usual precautions should be taken to ensure that all polarised
components have been mounted with the correct orientation. The IC used is a CMOS type and is therefore static sensitive. Solder this last, and preferably using an earthed soldering iron. It is a wise precaution to discharge yourself before handling the device by first touching an earthed metal appliance.

It is a wise precaution, also, to space the 2.5W resistor, R2, off the PCB slightly. In the case of a high powered loudspeaker going faulty with DC this component will get quite hot, and spacing improves ventilation around the component and prevents the possibility of charring the board. If you can't obtain a 2.5 watt type then a 5 W type may be substituted.

Before mounting the unit check operation by connecting around 20VDC across the speaker input terminals on the PCB. The relay should cut in after about one tenth of a second. If the protector passes this test, connect the speaker wiring. If the preset is turned fully down (turn it anticlockwise when viewing the board with the components on top and the relay to the right) the relay will cut in when the power exceeds around 20 watts for an extended period. The protector allows transients to the full supply rail to pass but will prevent a continuous 20W from being applied to the loudspeaker. To increase this, turn the preset clockwise until the desired response is achieved.

## Performance

We tested the loudspeaker protector for its effect on audio performance as well as its reliability. A variety of powe amps were used to ensure that the loa represented by the protector would no affect audio performance. Even a very low power amplifier, with a comparatively small damping factor (high output impedance) could drive the unit with no degradation to the sound quality. During every test the protector worked well and cut in at the correct time to prevent damage to the loudspeakers.

## NOTE. Some amplifiers are unstable when driven into an open circuit.

 This is particularly true of valve power amplifiers, some of which destroy themselves the moment the speaker is disconnected.Loudspeaker protectors are, however, not usually required for use with valve power amps, since the possibility of DC on the speaker lines is remote. But over-power protection may be required.


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# RADIO RULES <br> IanSinclair <br> Propagation and aerials 

YES, AERIALS! I know that all of the US magazines use the word antenna, but what Marconi called it is good enough for me. As you might have gathered by now, this Part is about how you get that modulated carrier winging its way from the transmitter to the receiver, which means that we're dealing with the most tricky of all electronic components, empty space.

As it happens, most of the space that we use is not exactly empty, but the presence of air makes so little difference to the way a radio wave behaves that it might as well be empty space. One of the great mysteries that baffled great brains for centuries was how light waves could reach us from the sun if there was no material between us and the sun to carry the waves. The problem was finally solved by Clark Maxwell (see Famous Names, HE May '81) who, in a brilliant piece of theoretical reasoning, showed that a wave consisting of both electrical and magnetic fields could move through empty space. In this respect, electromagnetic waves are totally unlike the more familiar waves of sound and of water.

Both electrostatics and magnetism are involved in the electromagnetic field. A varying voltage between any two points causes a magnetic field, and a varying magnetic field causes a voltage. The electric and magnetic fields chase each other along, needing no matter to contain them or be affected by them, and their speed is around 300 million metres per second. What we call 'light' is just one of the huge range of electromagnetic waves, all of which travel at the same speed in space, and which are distinguished from each other only by their different frequencies and wavelengths. These two quantities are, incidentally, related, because frequency $\times$ wavelength $=$ speed, and the speed is constant - see Table 1. For radio waves, then, we can always find what the wavelength is for any given frequency, or the other way round, and Figure 1 shows some examples.

Electromagnetic waves can travel in insulators, though at a lower speed than in air or in free space, but they cannot travel in their normal form through good conductors, because a good conductor will short-circuit the electric field part of the wave. Waves can travel along the surface of a metal, however, and can be reflected from conducting surfaces. For many of our purposes, the electric field component of a wave is the important one, and most of our transmission systems cause the electric field to move in one particular direction. When this is so, the wave is said to be plane-polarised. If the electric field is parallel to the surface of the Earth, the wave is horizontally
polarised, and if the electric field is $90^{\circ}$ to the surface of the earth, the wave is vertically polarised. The direction of the magnetic field is always at $90^{\circ}$ to the direction of the electric field, and both fields are at $90^{\circ}$ to the direction of motion (Figure 2).

WAVELENGTH $\times$ FREQUENCY $=$ VELOCITY

| (in metres) | (in Hertz) | OF LIGHT <br> $\left(3 \times 10^{8} \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}\right)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| WAVELENGTH | FREQUENCY |  |

FREQUENCY $=11.24 \mathrm{MHz}=11.24 \times 10^{6}$
WAVELENGTH $=\frac{3 \times 10^{8}}{11.24 \times 10^{6}}=26.69 \mathrm{~m}$
Table 1. Calculations on wavelength and frequency.

(a)

Figure 1a. The electric and the magnetic waves are at $90^{\circ}$ to each other and also at $90^{\circ}$ to the direction of movement.

## Propagation

Propagation means the way in which a wave travels from one place to another. Over short distances, the path of a wave can be taken as a single straight line, the 'line of sight' from the transmitter to the receiver. For many of the distances we are interested in, however, the path of the wave will involve at least one reflection from the ionosphere, which is the reflecting layer above the atmosphere of the Earth (Figure 3). This reflecting layer is created by the action of sunlight on the low-pressure gases more than 70 miles above the surface of the Earth. The highenergy ultra-violet rays of the sun (which at that height would burn you up to a frazzle in seconds) separate the oxygen and nitrogen of the air into charged particles, called ions, so making the low-pressure gas behave like a conductor. In darkness, these particles recombine (sometimes causing a glow in the sky, hence the Northern Lights or Aurora Borealis), which is why there are such considerable differences between daytime and nightime radio ranges. There are also considerable


Figure 1b. Another representation of the polarisation of electromagnetic waves.


Figure 2. How waves bounce from the ionosphere for long-distance communications.
variations in the ultra-violet output from the sun, which leads to the degree of ionisation varying considerably from time to time.

The way in which radio waves travel by bouncing from the ionosphere also accounts for reception problems. Fading is caused because waves that have travelled along different paths can be received simultaneously. Because the path length is never constant as the ionosphere churns around, waves which meet at the receiver may be in phase, out of phase, or any amount of phase degrees apart, causing the amplitude of the received signal to vary considerably, right down to almost zero at times. For some reflecting conditions, the phase of the reflected wave may depend on its frequency, so that the two sidebands of the AM signal may be out of phase, causing severe distortion. This is why suppressed-carrier SSB signals are so often -superior in signal quality.

## Launching-Pad

An aerial is a form of launching-pad for waves, and since all of our aerials are made of metal, they create an electric field in the air around them, so that what you acutally launch is the electric-field part of the wave. Like Mary's little lamb, its magnetic field is sure to go every where with it.

Launching a wave into space (Figure 4) is like transferring power to anything; it needs some matching of impedance. You can't, for example, expect to transfer much power to an eight ohm loudspeaker from an amplifier with a $2 k$ output resistance, and the same applies to aerials, so that the action of an aerial depends to a large extent on the imedance of space. What on earth do we mean by the impedance of space? Just this: a radio wave carries power, and power means volts and amps. When a radio wave travels through space, we can measure the volts between two points in the wave, and we can also measure the amps that are flowing. The ratio of volts to amps is called the impedance, and it is measured in ohms (R). The ratio of peak voltage to peak current in a wave is called the characteristic impedance of free space, and that's a figure which can be calculated (rather than measured) at about 377 ohms. When we put an aerial into this space, however, the aerial acts as a contact which alters the impedance to some extent; so that what we have to match is not the impedance of free space, but the impedance of aerial plus space, which is usually a lower quantity.

The most efficient aerial for transmitting purposes is one which has the maximum amount of electric field between its ends when a wave is sent to it. The shortest possible aerial of this type, called a half-wave dipole (yes, it's half a wavelength long) will also have a fairly low impedance, around 70 ohms, and is almost perfectly resistive - it dissipates power into space with no reflections. In general, an efficient aerial needs to be cut to a length which is a whole number of half-wavelengths. For example, the wavelength of a 28 MHz wave in space is 10.7 metres, and if we allow for the wavelength on the wire of the aerial being
about five per cent less than this, we arrive at the figure 10 m . Half a wavelength is 5 m , so that aerial lengths of $5 \mathrm{~m}, 10 \mathrm{~m}$, $15 \mathrm{~m}, 20 \mathrm{~m}$ and so on would be acceptable. Table 2 shows the half-wavelength lengths corresponding to some popular amateur bands.

The reason for preferring aerials of this half-wave length can be understood more easily if we superimpose against a drawing of the aerial a diagram of the voltage in a wave (a 'standing wave'), using the same scale. A half-wave aerial has a pattern of the type shown in Figure 5. The maximum voltage is at each end, so that the electric field across the aerial is large, and the maximum current is in the middle. The conditions for drawing these standing waves are that there should always be maximum voltage at the ends and maximum current in the middle - the

| FREQUENCY <br> $(\mathrm{MHz})$ | HALF-WAVE <br> (metres) |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1.8 | 74.9 |
| 3.5 | 39.0 |
| 7.0 | 20.1 |
| 14.0 | 10.05 |
| 21.0 | 6.7 |
| 28.0 | 5.02 |
| 70.0 | 1.8 |
| 144.0 | 0.97 |
| 430.0 | 0.32 |

Table 2. Half-wave lengths in metres for the popular amateur bands.


Figure 3. A half-wave dipole radiates waves, behaving as far as the transmitter is concerned like a 75 ohm resistor (which radiates heat).


Figure 4. Wave pattern of a half-wave dipole aerial. The maximum wave voltages are at the ends, and the minimum in the middle.

Figure 5. The wave pattern for a full- wave aerial. There are three maximum positions and two minimum positions.
wave cannot be stable otherwise. Figure 6 shows the standing-wave pattern fore full-wave aerial length.

The ratio of voltage to current obvious ly varies from one part of an aerial to another, being very large at the ends of a half-wave aerial, and very small at the middle. Note, however, that if the aerial is correctly cut to length, there is no phase difference between current and voltage - they rise and fall in step. These standing-wave patterns are permanent on an aerial of the correct length - there will never be a time when the voltage at the centre of the half-wave aerial is large and the current small, for example.

An aerial which is cut to a number of half-waves in length is said to be resonant, and an aerial of this type works most efficiently at the frequency for which it is designed, though it may radiate at some harmonic frequencies as well, because it will also be a number of halfwaves long for some harmonic frequencies. The radiation of a horizontal halfwave aerial is not equally strong in all directions; it tends to be strongest along a line at right angles to the aerial's length, following the pattern shown in Figure 7. Longer resonant aerials, (one-wave, one-and-a-half-wave, two-wave, etc.) radiate over a wider range, and very long resonant aerials will radiate almost in the direction of the wire, but few people, unless they live on farms, can use long resonant aerials, particularly on the lower frequency, longer wavelength bands. When the half-wave aerial is used ver-


Figure 6. Theoretical radiation patterns for aerials - these show how the wave goes out in different directions.


Figure 7. A three-element Yagi, made by adding a director and a reflector to the dipole. The director is shorter than the dipole, and the reflector is longer.


Figure 8. Quarter-wave sections. A shorted quarter-wave piece of cable acts like an open circuit; an open circuit quarter-wave section acts like a short circuit because of the wave patterns, shown here.
tically, however, its radiation pattern is omnidirectional - equal in all directions around it.

These patterns are theoretical and are found in practice only when aerials are spaced well away from the ground and any other conducting objects, but they form a reasonable guide to what we can expect. We can modify the patterns very considerably by adding 'dummy' aerials or parasitic elements parallel to the main half-wave aerial and spaced some distance away from it. One popular arrangement is the three-element Yagi of Figure 8 in which a slightly longer element, the reflector, is set at 0.15 wavelength from the radiating aerial, and a shorter element, the director, is set at 0.1 wavelength in the opposite side. This arrangement gives a very much more directional beam, and if you want to change the direction of transmission, you will have to turn the whole assembly just about possible for a 10 m wavelength.

## Feeding the Power

One of the most critical parts of radio transmission practice is the correct feeding of power from the transmitter to the aerial, and it's all a matter of wavelengths again. We get accustomed to the idea that if you have a voltage on one end of a piece of wire, you'll have exactly the same voltage on the other end. That's true of AC and DC generally when no current flows, but not when the length of the wire is something like the wavelength of the AC. When a piece of wire is some appreciable fraction of a wavelength long, like a quarter wavelength, then it can have very different voltages on its ends, simply because a wave has formed on the wire.

Normally, this effect doesn't bother us. Our electronics equipment is made so that the dimensions of conductors are all very small compared to the wavelength of the signals that they are handling. This becomes much more difficult for UHF signals, and that's why UHF is so tricky to work with. In any transmitter circuit, however, there is one piece of connecting wire which just has to be long - the wire that connects the output of the transmitter to the aerial, called the tranmission line. For best results, an aerial should be placed as far away from buildings as possible, and that means that the transmission line, or feeder, will be long, often considerably longer than one wavelength. Ideally, we want the waves to travel along this line from transmitter to aerial, but if we get things wrong, the waves may be reflected back to the transmitter, causing a loss of radiated power. The transmission line can, if not correctly designed, waste a lot of that precious power.

What happens? The line is carrying a wave and it, like the space round the aerial, has a characteristic impedance, usually of 75 ohms or 300 ohms, depending on the construction of the line. Unlike space, though, we can do things to a line, such as shorting or open-circuiting the ends. When we do such things, the line can behave very differently, as we can demonstrate by drawing wave diagrams. A shorted line one quarter wavelength
long, for example, will behave like an open circuit for waves of that length, (Figure 9) and an open circuit quarterwave line will behave like a short circuit. Pieces of line attached to the main line can therefore be made to act like transformers, or as resonant filters, making the way the waves behave work for us instead of against us.

## Standing Waves and Travelling Waves

Our ideal transmitter rig would feed waves from the transmitter, up the transmission line to the aerial where they would be wholly radiated into space. The speed of the waves along the transmission line is not as high as their speed in free space, and can be taken as about $66 \%$ of free space speed in coaxial cable and $85 \%$ of free space speed in twin-line feeder. These ideal conditions are met if the transmitter output impedance, the feeder impedance and the aerial - plus -space impedance are all identical at the frequency of transmission. This is what is termed a perfectly equalised load condition, with a non-resonant feeder. Such conditions can be-approached even if the equalisation is not perfect, providing that


Figure 9. Using a matching stub to match an aerial to a transmission line. The stub acts like a transformer.


Figure 10. Reflection in lines. (a) Pattern of a wave travelling along a line with no reflections. (b) A wave travelling along a line, with some reflection which causes a wave to travel in the opposite direction. (c) Total reflection, so that the pattern shown, a standing-wave pattern, forms. No energy is being radiated from the line now.
the length of the feeder can be adjusted, or some other means of matching used. As transmitters are universally constructed nowadays to have an output impedance of 50 ohms, aerials can be constructed to a variety of impedance values, and feeders generally have an impedance of 75 ohms or of 300 ohms . We usually have to take some steps to match these different impedances to each other.

At the aerial, this is achieved by the correct shaping of the aerial, or by the addition of 'matching stubs', which are the short sections of line that behave like transformers (Figure 10). At the transmitter, the transmission line is matched to the output impedance of the transmitter by using a wideband variable transformer which is called an aerial tuning unit (or antenna tuning unit, if you must), shortened to ATU.

How do we know when we have achieved matching? The answer lies in the way that waves behave when a mismatch is present. The worst possible mismatches are open circuits or short circuits, and these will both cause power to be completely reflected back down the line (Figure 11). Even a small mismatch, however, will reflect some power, so that measuring the reflected power is a good way of measuring the closeness of the matching. When a reflection occurs, standing waves form on the line, causing some parts of the line to be permanently at higher voltages than other parts. The ratio of the amplitude of such a standing wave to the (desirable) travelling wave amplitude (the one which goes up the spout and radiates away) is another good measure of matching, and we can obtain instruments which measure this standing wave ration, SWR for short. The SWR meters use a type of bridge circuit to balance the amplitude of waves travelling up the transmission line against the amplitude of waves reflected back, and the lower the SWR reading the better is your system. The minimum possible value (because of the way the SWR is defined) is one, but it's practically impossible to obtain such a reading - if you do it's time to have the meter checkedl A SWR reading of less than two is pretty good, and if the line is a low-loss type, then you work with SWR values greater than two without greatly reducing the efficiency of your system, because in such circumstances, the amount of power which you get out will not be greatly affected by the SWR value. If the line is lossy (low-grade coax, for example), then high SWR spells low power output, and there is also the danger, whenever the SWR is high, that the reflected power will damage PA stages. Valve output stages are very much less likely to be damaged in this way than transistor stages.

Note by the way that the ATU will be used to match the transmitter to the transmission line. If the aerial is not correctly matched to the line, then no amount of fiddling with the ATU will get the SWR really low.

## Aerial Shapes and Sizes

One thing that will strike you when you look through magazines and books is the $C$ huge range of aerials that you will find described, and the claims that are made


Figure 12. A trap dipole aerial. The trap is the parallel resonant circuit in each arm of the aerial.
for them. You might easily conclude that almost anything could act as an aerial and you're quite close to the mark. Almost any piece of wire will act as an aerial for reception and for transmission anything that can be matched reasonably well will get a signal out. To get the best from the power of your transmitter, though, a correctly designed, constructed and matched aerial is essential.

The simplest type of aerial to construct is the half-wave dipole. This means a length of wire or rod equal to half a wavelength (allowing for the length of a wave on a wire being about 80 per cent of the length in free space), and cut at the centre to allow two connections. The impedance at the centre of such an arrangement is about 70 ohms, and resistive for the frequency at which the aerial is one half wavelength long, or an odd number (one, three, five, seven etc) of halfwavelengths long. An aerial of this type looks like a good impedance match for 70 . ohms coaxial cable, but there is one snag. - the aerial is a 'balanced' arrangement, requiring signals of opposite phase on its two arms, and arranged so that the sum of the signals is zero. Coaxial cable, by contast, is unbalanced, with all of the signal on its inner core, and the outer core earthed. To ensure correct matching of a dipole aerial with coaxial feeder, then, we need a unit which will obtain balanced signals at the end of the coaxial cable; such a unit is called a 'balun', short for balanced to unbalanced transformer (Figure 12). This can be constructed - it consists of tightly-coupled windings on a ferrite core - but is more easily bought. Coaxial cable is convenient because most transmitter outputs are unbalanaced, so the coax is the most obvious type of feeder to use, being comparatively cheap, and with a balun at the end it operates


Figure 13. A folded dipole. Folding increases the impedance fourfold.


Figure 14. A simple vertical aerial. The snag is getting an efficient earth.


Figure 15. A horizontal (Hertz) type of aerial, and matching section.


Figure 16. A Marconi aerial, much favoured at low frequencies.
very satisfactorily. If you use a transmitter which has a balanced output, then you must use either twin line (balanced line) or the correct impedance (usually 300 ohms), and no balun at the aerial end, or you can use coax with a balun at each end of the cable. In general, the fewer devices like baluns that you need to use, the better, because each device must lose some power.

Because the simple half-wave dipole is a one-frequency (plus odd-numbered harmonics) aerial, many variations on the design attempt to extend its use to other bands. The most successful of these variations is the 'trap dipole', which uses two sections in each half of the aerial, separated by a parallel LC circuit (tuned circuit). At its resonant frequency, its impedance is so high that it completely isolates the outer sections of the aerial, so that only the inner sections radiate. Figure 13 shows the arrangement of a trap dipole aerial that can be used at amateur frequencies ranging from 3.75 MHz to 30 MHz . The trap uses a 10 uH coil and 50 pF capacitor, making it resonant at around 7.1 MHz . The inner dipole is of 9.85 m and the outer of 6.46 m . It can give SWR figures of less than 2.5 on all the amateur bands within its range.

At 7 MHz , the resonant trap completely isolates the outer sections of the aerial
from the inner ones, so that the inner sections are used as a straightforward 7 MHz dipole. At 3.5 MHz , the total length of the aerial, plus the equivalent length of the inductor of the trap, gives an aerial which will operate well at this low frequency. Above 7 MHz , the end sections are not isolated but, with the operating frequency well above the resonant frequency of the traps, the traps act as capacitors which will resonate with the inductance of the outer sections of the aerial at frequencies which are odd harmonics of the fundamental frequency. At 14 MHz , for example, with a wavelength of around 17 m in wire, the half-way length is 8.57 m , and $3 / 2$ wavelengths (three half-waves) amount to 25.7 m . The combination of the $2 \times 6.45 \mathrm{~m}$ outers with $2 \times 9.75 \mathrm{~m}$ inners, plus the capacitance of the trap, produces the same effect as this length of aerial. Similarly, it acts as a five-halfwave aerial at 21 MHz , and as aseven-halfwave aerial at 28 MHz . The aerial matches well to a 75 ohm line, but, like all multiband arrangements, will not have the same high performance in every band. You can't have it all ways.

A simple dipole matches to 750 hms , but if the dipole is folded, as shown in Figure 14 then its impedance is four times as much, 300 ohms, and this arrangement can be fed by 300 ohm twin line, providing that suitable matching exists at the transmitter. A dipole can always be matched by using 'matching stubs':
quarter wavelength pieces of transmission line (Figure 10) with the feeder attached at any point which gives the minimum SWR reading.

Dipoles can be formed into Yagi arrangements by adding reflector and director wires parallel to the dipole. A Yagi is much more directional than a plain dipole, so that it's useful mainly if you are trying to get out with maximum power in one direction only. The impedance of a dipole is considerably reduced by adding the other sections to make a Yagi but, by folding the dipole part, a reasonable match to 75 ohms can usually be achieved.

## Unbalanced Aerials

An aerial can be fed from one end rather than from the centre, and in such a case unbalanced coax cable is appropriate as a feeder. One form of unbalanced aerial is the vertical type, using a quarter-wavelength of vertical wire fed by 50 ohm coaxial cable (Figure 15). This type of aerial needs an earth under the wire, and because satisfactory low-resistance earth connections are difficult to make unless you live in a bog (I mean a peatbog, of course), the 'ground-plane' construction, using wires a quarter of a wavelength long arranged as radii of a circle on, or just under, the ground can be used in place of an earth connection (Figure 16). For VHF, the roof of a car makes a good ground plane, and lower frequencies can
be catered for by using a loading inductor to increase the effective length of the aerial.

Another type of unbalanced aerial is the end-fed horizontal wire of Figure 17, which, for best results, should be half a wavelength long. Careful matching is needed to avoid harmonic radiation, and it's usually better to use a dipole unless you are keen on experimenting. An aerial of this type for the lower amateur frequencies needs a lot of wire, and shorter lengths can be used in what is called the Marconi aerial. This one uses an inductor connected at the far end of the aerial (remote from the feeder), with an autotransformer and capacitor at the feeder end for matching purposes (Figure 18). An earth directly into soil (NOT to mains earth or to a water pipe) will be needed.

In general, if you want to make your own aerial, then you must consult some of the magazines and books which are published by the RSGB (in Britain) or the ARRL (in the US). These are gold-mines of information on amateur radio, and if you are a determined constructor you will find in their pages information on every imaginable thing which has any application to amateur radio transmission and reception.

Next month: interference problems, and what to do about them.



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## WITCHED MODE PSUs

pecially for those interested in extending their knowledge of lectronics (which must be about $100 \%$ of you), we are eturning to the Designer's Notebook feature with not one ut two articles. As you may gather from the heading, one of hese is not a million miles away from the subject of switched Tode power supplies, one of the design fields often regarded s a no-go area for the hobbyist - that is, until that hobbyist eads ETI. The other Designer's Notebook will be on voltage inultipliers, so start queueing at the newsagents now.

## 2EAL-TIME CLOCK CALENDAR

t project for all those readers with 6502 -based micros that 'an't tell the time, or remember what day it is. If you liked the 3502 Sound/DAC card this month, you'll love this project: only in the April edition of ETI.

## ZX81 MUSIC BOARD

This is a quite sophisticated though cost-effective music board or the ZX81. The board is capable of playing music without continuous CPU maintenance, and three notes may be played at once, each with independently variable volume. If you want more out of your micro, get next month's.ETI.

## NDFL

NDF what? We're afraid you'll have to wait until the next ETI is published to find out what those letters stand for, but it will culminate in an entirely new audio amplifier design.
Sounds interesting. Meanwhile, here are a few clues ...


# LOOK OUT FOR THE APRIL ISSUE ON 

 SALE MARCH 4th
# VOYAGER CAR COMPUTER Keith Brindley Ex HE-Man Keith returns with a tale about a kit designed for more economical motoring. 

THE Voyager kit arrives through the post, from Sparkrite, securely packed in a polystyrene foam box, which has formed spaces for each main part. Everything you need to build and fit the kit (except tools) comes with it, and that includes wire, solder, nuts \& bolts, and screws. All you have to supply are the necessary tools la small soldering iron, long-nosed pliers, wire cutters, a small screwdriver and a small cross-head screwdriver) plus a reasonable competance at soldering.

There are, apparently, over 300 parts (mechanical and electronic) in the kit (1 didn't stop to count them) and it took about five hours' continuous work to get the Voyager ready for installation into a car. A very good instruction booklet takes the builder through each stage, in a clear and concise, step-by-step way. The tasks are divided into the assembly of three printed circuit boards (PCBs):

> 1) Ice-warning PCB
> 2) Main display PCB
> 3) Keyboard PCB
followed by instructions for fitting the ice-warning PCB into its metal housing and fitting the other two boards into the plastic Command Module housing.

Without a doubt, the most difficult board to construct is the main display board. There are about 80 electronic components to insert and solder; including a fair number of polarised components, so great care must be taken to select the correct components. This PCB holds all main integrated circuits and they all are soldered directly into the board - no IC sockets are used. But the instructions are quite clear on how to solder them in without damage. The vacuum fluorescent display also mounts onto this board, but is raised (by about 5 mm ) from the board's surface.

The keyboard PCB contain sixteen push-button switches and a bank of six small bulbs (to backlight the front panel); only three other components are soldered onto this board.

These two PCBs are interconnected in a number of places but, instead of wired connections (which can mean a 'birds-nest' of leads), the connections are made by fixed PCB connector plugs and sockets. Thus, the two boards are literally pushed together and pulled apart. A thin sheet of plastic film fits between them to prevent possible shortcircuits. The whole arrangement makes a neat and professional combination

which fits easily into the plastic Command Module housing which is then ready for its front panel and fitting into the car.

Three sensors, one to measure temperature for the ice warning, one for fuel-flow and one for distance/speed measurement, have to be fitted to the vehicle. Temperature is detected by a thermistor, which should be mounted somewhere away from possible sources of heat which could affect accuracy. The Voyager fitting instructions, in a separate fold-open booklet, suggests that the temperature sensor be mounted either in the space behind the vehicle grille (but well clear of the radiator) or behind the front bumper.

Fuel-flow has to be measured by inserting the sensor, the right way round, into the carburrettor feed pipe. All
necessary clips and connection pieces, for all standard petrol-engined cars but not high-pressure fuel systems such as diesel or petrol injection), are supplied.

Next, the speed sensor and magnets have to be fitted to the vehicle so that the magnets rotate past the sensor at a rate proportional to the speed of the car. The magnets are tied securely onto the car's propellor shaft on a rear-wheel drive car, or to one of the two drive shafts of a front-wheel drive car. The number of times a magnet passes the sensor is proportional to the number of times the road wheels turn, and hence proportional to vehicle speed. This, incidentally, is the same system used in the HE Digital Speedometer of the December 1980 issue.

I fitted my Voyager Command Module centrally, above the dashboard


The collected parts of the Voyager kit.


The manual is
well written and clearly illustrated.
of my car, using the special windscreen fitting, self-adhesive pad and short, balljointed connecting rod. A variety of fitting methods are supplied in the kit to enable the module to be mounted above or below the dash in most required positions.

Connections between the various sensors and the Command Module are made by joining the leads from each sensor to one end of a length of ribbon cable. The ribbon cable is fitted with a female connector to mate with the male connector in the rear of the Command Module. At the sensor end of the cable, individual plugs and sockets are used to connect to the sensor leads. Power connections are all made using fuses and the special cliptype connectors supplied. Again, easily understandable instructions make the module fitting an easy - if timeconsuming - job. Voyager is, at this time, ready to test, calibrate and use.

## Road Test

Testing is a straighforward procedure, given in the operating handbook, to make sure all functions are up and running.

The microcomputer, within Voyager, needs to be programmed to suit the car it is fitted to. This entails driving over a measured distance and keying in that distance (to calibrate the distance/speed sensor) and then using a measured amount of fuel and keying in that amount (to calibrate the fuel sensor). At the end of this calibration period, Voyager can be programmed to provide two figures which the user should note. Then if, at some future date, Voyager is removed for any reason, or if the car battery is taken out and Voyager's internal memory is erased, the figures can simply be re-inserted, thus saving the bother of having to go through the whole calibration procedure again. The kilometrespaced marker-posts on a motorway are a convenient measure of the distance to programme into Voyager.

Eating up the miles, my car went through about seven gallons of petrol on a motorway trip, so I was very quickly


Installation of the speed sensor.


The two PCBs are fitted back-to-back.


The assembled PCBs before installation.
able to see Voyager fully operational.
One of the most amazing things you become aware of on a 'consumption now' reading ie, how many miles-pergallon the car is doing on a second-bysecond basis, is how little fuel is used cruising at high speed, and how much fuel is being guzzled around town, in lower gears. For example, at a constant 70 mph in top gear my car registered about 32 mpg , whereas in second gear the car registered no higher than 12 mpg (at any engine speed) and in third gear: 22 mpg . The most economical speed of
all was about 60 mph , when the car returned over 40 mpg .

All-in-all, Voyager represents good value for money as a well presented and well produced kit. It's fun to build, and can, in fact, save you money if you watch your fuel consumption figures. If you feel that you're not capable of building it yourself, Voyager is also available from Sparkrite, (at 82 Bath Street, Walsall, West Midlands WS 1 3DE) as a ready-built and working device - all you have to do is fit it to your car.


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# Herman Hollerith 

Ian Sinclair

# An inventor who made a fortune from...a piece of cardboard? 

THE HOLLERITH CARD was a device which was widely used in the dawn of computing, but the life and work of Herman Hollerith is not as well-known as it might be, despite this major contribution to the 20th Century.

Herman Hollerith was born in 1860 in Buffalo, New York State in the USA, of German immigrant parents. He went through school with little distinction, and graduated from Columbia University School of Mining in 1879. He is, therefore, yet another example of an inventor who made his name in a field of activity for which his training was virtually irrelevant. The moral of this is, that it's a background knowledge of subjects like maths, chemistry and, especially, physics, along with that indefinable urge to solve problems which motivates the true inventor that counts, rather than what you specialise in - though it sharpens your mind to have specialised in something. Hollerith, in fact, never pursued a career in mining engineering.

## Computer Challenges

One of the lecturers at Columbia at that time was William P. Trowbridge, who was placed in charge of the 1880 census by the US Government. Trowbridge found that Hollerith was interested in what he (Trowbridge) was doing, and appointed Hollerith as his assistant in the slow and laborious process of gathering and' analysing statistics for the census. When most of the work was finished, Hollerith took a teaching job at the newlyfounded Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and after that, for the best part of ten years, he worked for the US Patent Office in Washington as a Patent examiner. There must be something about this type of work that provokes curiousity, because this is the job that Einstein also was doing while he formulated the Laws of Relativity.
Hollerith seems to have spent most of his time outside the office in brooding over the problems of the census. The tabulation work in the 1880 census had been done by hand, and even by that time the job was clearly becoming too much, with the looming danger that the results of one census would not be analysed by the time of the next one! Hollerith realised that only an automated system could possibly cope with the information from the next census in 1890, because of the huge increase in the population of the US and the number of new headings that would have to analysed. There were, for example, several hundred new job titles to account for, and the flood immigrants to the US meant that the statistics on the
origins of new citizens were expanding enormously. Hollerith set about designing a system that would cope with the expected flood, and the results of his work were the beginning of data processing, the foundations of information technology.

## A Simple Idea

The idea he came up with was, like so many good ideas, basically quite simple. Each census result was tabulated by punching holes in a card, using a card of as many columns (for headings) and as many hole positions (for data under each heading) as were needed. Modern cards use ten hole positions 40 columns. Each of these columns would be used to represent some measurable quantity, such as age range, and the position of the hole punched in that column would show the answer of that particular respondant. Similarly other answers on the sex, employment, marital status, number of children and educational achievement of the people who replied could be coded into one small card by the position of the hole punched in each column. The holes were punched by a small machine, like a cash register, and the rate at which a skilled operator could prepare cards from census forms was an enormous improvement on the filling-in of tables by hand.
The Hollerith cards were made from a non-conducting material, cardboard, so that the presence of a hole in a card could be detected electrically. This meant that comparatively simple electromechanical machines, using contacts and relays (no electronics in these days!) could carry out sorting. Even nowadays, the sight of a Hollerith card sorter in operation is rather awe-inspiring, as the cards are whipped across the sorting slots and pushed into the correct piles by small solenoids. Hollerith hoped, incidentally, that letters would be sorted in the same way, but this development did nottake place.

## Beasties



## Statistical Breakthrough

Hollerith's cards, and the punches and readers that he had developed to make use of them, were just the breakthrough that statisticians needed, because methods of tabulation that depended on metal rods fitting into the cards had proved to be much too slow and cumbersome, By using electrical contacts on each side of the card, Hollerith's system ensured very rapid reading, so that the results of a census could be available in a few months. His system was ready for the 1980 census, and it proved enormously successful, drastically shortening the time that was needed to obtain results from the census. It would probably be no exaggeration to say that this prompt availability of statistics laid the foundation for the expansion of the US economy which persisted for the next 40 years. Oddly enough, though, despite the clear advantages of the system, and the undoubted success that it had, it was not. widely adopted in the US outside the census office. For some curious reason, companies in the US at that time did not appear to realise the usefulness of Hollerith's data processing system.
In a strange reversal of the normal procedure, Hollerith took his invention to Europe, where it was enthusiastically taken up for statistical purposes (but not, at that time, in the conservative UK), and encouraged by this success, Hollerith returned to the US to form the Tabulating Machine Co., incorporated in New York in 1896, to manufacture tabulators of 'all types. This time the idea caught on, and tabulating machines bearing the Hollerith imprint started to appear in the accounts offices of organisations all over the world. The name 'Comptometer' started to be used - how many readers remember the number of job vacancies for comptometer operators in the late 40s and early 50s? The punched-card system became a world standard, and when I first started computer programming, the program had to be punched onto Hollerith-type cards. Herman Hollerith himself died in 1929 in Washington, D.C.
Whatever became of the Tabulating Machine Co.? Well, it's a fact of life that a lot of companies that start off with a few employees, and are successful, will eventually grow to be very big companies. The Tabulating Machine Co. was absorbed by one take-over after another, devoured other companies in turn, and eventually changed its name to International Business Machines, now the jolly green giant of computer manufacturers. I wonder if Acorns grow as fast?

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# Overvoltage Cut-out 

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WHEN a stabilised supply becomes faulty, this often results in a substantial increase in the output voltage, but the first indication that a fault has occurred is likely to be when the supplied equipment fails due to semiconductors or other delicate components being damaged by the excessive supply potential! The voltage difference between the unregulated and regulated supplies can be surprisingly large, incidentally, with an overload in the region of $50 \%$ being quite possible if the unregulated supply finds its way to the output.

A simple method of protecting equipment against an excessive supply voltage is to use an overvoltage cutout between the power source and the equipment concerned. The circuit described here is of the 'crowbar' type that instantly short circuits the power supply if an input potential above a certain threshold level is detected. The virtual short circuit that is placed across the supply almost instantly pulls the supply voltage down to a safe level, and limits the duration of the overload to an insignificant period of a fraction of a millisecond. A fuse, in series with the input of the cutout, then blows so that power is cut off altogether until the fault has been rectified and the fuse has been replaced.

It is possible to have a purely electronic cutout, and this 'crowbar' method may seem a little crude. However, it has the advantage of a negligible voltage drop through the fuse (which is the only component in series with the supply), so that adding a unit of this type should give no degradation of performance.

## The Circuit

The circuit diagram of the Overvoltage Cutout is shown in Figure 2. Operational amplifier IC1 is used as the comparator, while R5 provides a small amount of positive feedback over IC1 so that the output triggers either to the high state or low state, but cannot be at an intermediate level. The output is low if the inverting input (pin 2) is at a higher voltage than the non-inverting input (pin 3 ), or the high state if the comparative input levels are reversed.

The inverting input is held at a stable


Figure 1. The circuit diagram of the Overvoltage Cut-out.


Figure 2. The PCB component overlay. The full-sized foil pattern is reproduced on the PCB Printout page.
potential of 6 V 8 by the simple Zener stabiliser circuit formed by R2 and ZD1. The non-inverting input is fed from the supply lines via a potential divider which is formed by R1, R2 and R3, and this divider
circuit supplies a little under half the supply voltage to the non-inverting input. R1 and C1 form a simple filter which prevents transients on the supply from producing spurious triggering of the unit.

With a nominal 12 V supply (allowing for the fact that some items of equipment, such as a mains power supplies for CB transceivers, actually give about 13.8 V, and a car supply can reach a similar level), the potential fed to the noninverting input of IC1 is still below the

6 V 8 reference potential applied to the inverting input. IC 1 's output is low, Q1 is biased off and SCR1 is switched off.

The situation is different if a fault occurs; if the supply voltage rises above about 14.3 V , the non-inverting input is then the one at the higher potential. This

## How It Works

A COMPARATOR is used as the basis of the circuit; this compares the supply voltage with a stable reference voltage. Normally the difference between the reference potential and the supply voltage is quite small and the output of the comparator is consequently at a low voltage. The thyristor, which it drives via Q1, is therefore switched off and has no effect.

If the supply voltage rises to a high enough level the potential difference between the reference and supply
voltages is sufficient to trigger the comparator to the high state and the thyristor is then switched on via Q1. It virtually short circuits the supply, so that the voltage is reduced to a low and safe level, but the high current flow causes FS 1 to blow and completely cut off the supply from the output. The unit is primarily intended for use with 12 V equipment such as power supplies for mobile CB transceivers. The nominal trigger voltage is 14.3 V .


## Parts List



2N3904
IC1
CA3140
SCR1
2N6403 or similar

## MISCELLANEOUS

FS 1 . . . . . . 20mm quickblow fuse current rating as required
Chassis mounting 20 mm fuseholder; input and output terminals; printed circuit board; case; 6BA fixings, connecting wire, solder etc.

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Page 34
causes the output of IC1 to be triggered to the high state, turning on Q1 and SCR1; the supply is 'crowbarred', with SCR1 effectively short circuit, and fuse FS1 blows. The output current ot IC 1 is insufficient to reliably operate most thyristors, and Q 1 is therefore used as an emitter follower buffer stage to produce a suitably high drive current; R6 prevents excessive gate current from flowing into SCR1. R7 gives a certain amount of current limiting when SCR1 is triggered, although this is probably not, strictly, necessary as SCR1 only has to conduct for a few milliseconds before FS 1 disconnects the supply, and a considerable current overload could probably be tolerated for such a short duration.

FS1 is a 1 amp fuse on the prototype, but the rating of this fuse must obviously be varied to suit the particular item of equipment fed from the output. It should have a current rating approximately equal to or a little, higher than the maximum current drain of the equipment being powered. For example, a current consumption of 1.8 A would require a 2A fuse, this being the nearest current rating available, but higher than the 1.8A figure.

## Construction

All the components (including FS1 and its chassis mounting fuseholder) are mounted on a printed circuit board which is detailed in Figure 2. This is constructed in the usual way, but bear in mind that IC 1 has a MOS input stage and therefore needs the standard MOS handling precautions. Both the CA3140E (which is an 8 pin DIL package) and the CA3140T (which has an 8 pin TO-99 metal package) will readily fit onto the printed circuit board. Note that SCR1 does not need a heatsink, as it conducts too briefly to heat up significantly. Any thyristor having a current rating of about 12A or more should be satisfactory in this design, and it is not essential to use a 2N6403.

The printed circuit board is small enough to fit into practically any small metal or plastic case. Pairs of spring terminals are fitted at each end of the case to provide an easy way of connecting the input and output leads to the unit, and these are colour coded red and black to indicate the polarity of the supply lines. Clearly mark which set of contacts are the input terminals and which are the outputs, and be sure to connect the unit correctly. There will be dire consequences if a mistake is made here since, if the unit is triggered, the fuse will not blow because it would be at the output of the unit instead of the input.

A simple way to test the unit is to use a bench power supply to provide an input voltage which is steadily increased from about 10 volts until the circuit triggers; a voltmeter is used to monitor the voltage. The current limiting facility of the supply can be used to prevent FS 1 from blowing, and the circuit can then be reset by reducing the supply voltage and momentarily disconnecting the supply from the input of the unit. If necessary, the trigger voltage can be reduced slightly by decreasing the value of R2, or increased by raising the value of this resistor.

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