## Easy to build projects for ejeryone

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# elcarombe ELECTRONIC IGNITION KIS OR READY BUIT 

# IS YOUR CAR AS GOOD AS IT COULD BE? 

K Is it EASY TO START in the cold and the damp? Total Energy Discharge will give the most powerful spark and maintain full output even with a near flat battery.

* Is it ECONOMICAL or does it "go off" between services as the ignition performance deteriorates? Total Energy Discharge gives much more output and maintains it from service to service.
* Has it PEAK PERFORMANCE or is it flat at high and low revs. where the ignition output is marginal? Total Energy Discharge gives a more powerful spark from idle to the engines max. (even with $\overline{3}$ cylinders).
t Is the PERFORMANCE SMOOTH. The more powerful spark of Total Energy Discharge eliminates the 'near misfires'whilst an electronic filter smooths out the effects of contact bounce etc.
* Do the PLUGS and POINTS always need changing to bring the engine back to its best. Total Energy Discharge eliminates contact-arcing and erosion by removing the heavy electrical load. The timing stays "spot on" and the contact condition doesn't affect the performance either. Larger plug gaps can be used, even wet or badly fouled plugs can be fired with this system.
Most NEW CARS already have ELECTRONIC IGNITION Update YOUR CAR with the most powerful system on the market - $31 / 2$ times more spark power than inductive systems $31 / 2$ times the spark power of ordinary capacitive systems, 3 times the spark duration

Total Energy Discharge also features:
EASY FITTING, STANDARD/ELECTRONIC CHANGEOVER SWITCH, LED STATIC TIMING LIGHT, LOW RADIO INTERFERENCE, CORRECT SPARK POLARITY and DESIGNED IN RELIABILITY.

* IN KIT FORM it provides a top performance system at less than half the price of competing ready built units. The kit includes: pre-drilled fibreglass PCB, pre-wound and varnished ferrite transformer, high quality 2 uF discharge capacitor, case, easy to follow instructions, solder and everything needed to build and fit to your car. All you need is a soldering iron and a few basic tools.

FITS ALL NEGATIVE EARTH VEHICLES
6 or 12 volt, with or without ballast.
OPERATES ALL VOLTAGE IMPULSE TACHOMETERS:
(Older current impulse types need an adaptor).

| STANDARD CAR KIT | £15.90 | PL |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Assembled and Tested | £26.70 | $\stackrel{\text { P. \& P. }}{\text { fl }}$ |
| TWIN OUTPUT KIT | £24.55 | Prices |
| For Motor Cycles and Cars with twin | on systems | include |
| Assembled and Tested | £36.45 | VAT |

tel: 0827281000

The basic function of a spark ignition system is often lost among claims for longer "burn times" and other marketing fantasies. It is only necessary to consider that, even in a small engine, the burning fuel releases over 5000 times the energy of the spark, to realise that the spark is only a trigger for the combustion. Once the fuel is ignited the spark is insignificant and has no effect on the rate of combustion. The essential function of the spark is to start that combustion as quickly as possible and that requires a high power spark.
The traditional capacitive discharge system has this high power spark but, due to it's very short spark duration and consequential low spark energy, is incompatible with the weak air/fuel mixtures used in modern cars. Because of this most manufacturers have abandoned capacitive discharge in favour of the cheaper inductive system with it's low power but very long duration spark which guarantees that sooner or later the fuel will ignite. However, a spark lasting $2000 \mu \mathrm{~S}$ at 2000 $\mathrm{rev} / \mathrm{min}$. spans 24 degrees and 'later' could mean the actual fuel ignition point is retarded by this amount.
The solution is a very high power, medium. duration, spark generated by the TOTAL ENERGY DISCHARGE system. This gives ignition of the weakest mixtures with the minimum of timing delay and variation for a smooth efficient engine.

* SUPER POWER DISCHARGE CIRCUIT A brand new technique prevents energy being reflected back to the storage capacitor, giving $31 / 2$ times the spark energy and 3 times the spark duration of ordinar; C.D. systems, generating a spark powerful enough to cause rapid ignition of event the weakest fuel mixtures without the ignition delay associated with lower power 'long burn' inductive systems.
$\star$ HIGH EFFICIENCY INVERTER A high power, regulated inverter provides a 370 volt energy source - powerful enough to store twice the energy of other designs and regulated to provide sufficient output even with a battery down to 4 volts.
- PRECISION SPARK TIMING CIRCUIT This circuit remóves all unwanted signals caused by contact volt drop, contact shuffle, contact bounce, and extérnal transients which, in many designs, can cause timing errors or damaging un-timed sparks. Only at the correct and precise contact opening is a spark produced. Cortact wear is almost eliminated by reducing the contact breaker current to a low level - just sufficient to keep the contacts clean.

| TYPICAL SPECIFICATION | Total Energy Discharge | Ordinary Capacitive Discharge |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SPARK POWER (Peak) | 140W | 90 W |
| SPARK ENERGY | 36 mJ | 10 mJ |
| STORED ENERGY | 135 mJ | 65 mJ |
| SPARK DURATION | 500 us | $160 \mu \mathrm{~S}$ |
| OUTPUT VOLTAGE (Load 50pF, equivalent to clean plugs) | 38 kV | 26 kV |
| OUTPUT VOLTAGE (Load 50pF |  |  |
| +500k, equivalent to dirty plugs) | 26 kV | 17 kV |
| VOLTAGE RISE TIME TO 20kV |  |  |
| (Load 50pF) | 25uS | 304S |

TOTAL ENERGY DISCHARGE should not be confused with low power inductive systems or hybrid so called reactive systems.

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# In the cut-throat world of consumer electronics, one of the 

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## THE COMPUTER AS ALLY

NThout doubt, 1982 was the year of the home computer. The only other innovatory electronic consumer product in a similar price bracket likely to have equalled it in popularity was the video-recorder; but the latter is more rightly considered as an extension of home entertainment, and not an inter-active device opening up an entirely new field like a computer.

The sales of home computers must have gladdened the hearts of manufacturers and retailers alike, providing (as they did) welcomed bright spots in an otherwise dull scene. It speaks volumes for the fascination of computers that in a time of recession thousands of customers have emerged to buy a piece of equipment they can have initially little understanding about and are prepared to venture upon a journey into the unknown, seeking-what? For many new computer owners, the destination will be simply "games". Just how many will persevere with the writing of programs for personal needs and thereby justify the considerable financial outlay is a matter for conjecture.

Be that as it may, what is now happening on a grand scale is the development of computer consciousness and "hands on" experience amongst a broad selection of the general public. For the younger generation in particular, all this can be extremely valuable since many of the jobs likely to be on offer in the future will require familiarity with computers and computing.

While there is bustle in the computer field, the home construction scene appears to be a trifle stagnant. One cannot be too sure and claim that the one is a consequence of the other. But even if so, it is likely to be but a transitory fall-off; in the longer term some of the interest now developing in computers will percolate into electronic technology itself, and produce new recruits for the hobby of circuit construction. Curiosity in the technology behind the keyboard could encourage a wish for practical involvement with electronics in general.

Support for this view was to be found at the Electronic Hobbies Fair last November (see review in this issue). It seemed that a very considerable proportion of visitors were interested in electronics, but indirectly. That is to say they were interested in (or attracted by) the ends, rather than the means-computers, of course, providing the chief and most striking example. But during their tour of the Fair awareness of the scope and possibilities of electronic construction must have been created in the minds of many non-technical visitors. Proof that converts were made is found in the large sales of educational kits reported by exhibitors. Similarly, much interest was shown in the Introducing Electronics series as featured on the EE stand. The solderless technique employed was favourably commented on and seems likely to win quite a few new recruits to our hobby.

The coming of the home computer and the new field of interest it creates should in no way detract followers of electronics from the practical business of designing and building circuits. In fact, the computer can become a valuable aid and ally to the electronics experimenter, by testing ideas and solving problems-as well as to the practically inclined at large, by controlling small machines such as the wood-turning lathe demonstrated on the EE stand.

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BY J. DUFFY


TODAY, when enough money has been saved to buy and insure a bike the last thing on the owner's mind is theft. Unfortunately, it is all too common but this project should set the minds of some readers at rest.

Two bike alarms are described-one for a motorbike and the other for a pushbike. They both use the same circuit employing a mercury tilt-switch, which triggers the horn and lights of the motorbike version, or an integral alarm unit on the pushbike version.

The motorbike unit also has an external trigger facility from a microswitch for further protection.

A pulsed output is more effective than a steady output and, apart from being easier to locate, reduces battery consumption.

## CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

The circuit diagram of the two versions of the Bike Alarm is shown in Fig. 1. The system has three basic sections: the trigger; low frequency oscillator; and the alarm output.

The first section consists of a monostable multivibrator which is triggered by the mercury switch, S2 (and in the case of the motorbike version, microswitch S3 will also trigger it). The time constant of this monostable circuit is governed by R3 and C2 and it functions as follows:

The monostable consists of two cmos 2 -input NOR gates and in the quiesent state, the output of IC1a (pin 3) is at logic 1 as both inputs (pins 1 and 2) are at logic 0 . As a result, the output of IC 1 b (pin 4) is held low as both its inputs (pins 5 and 6 ) are high (this gate is acting as an inverter).

Upon receipt of a positive pulse to pin 1 from the mercury switch, the output of ICla will go low causing the output of IClb to go high. The low on pin 1 provides a charge path for C2 via R3 and when this capacitor has charged to a sufficiently high voltage, the input of IC 1b reads this as a logic 1 and the output (pin 4) of this inverter is therefore returned to a logic 0 .

With the values given, the period of this monostable is in the region of one minute.

## OSCILLATOR

When the output of the monostable is high, it enables a low frequency oscillator consisting of NOR gates IC Ic and IC id. The output of this section is a squarewave of approximately one hertz. This frequency is controlled by R4 and C3.

When the output of the monostable is low, the oscillator cannot function since the time constant capacitor C3, will not charge up as current flows through D1 to the low (effective earth) on pin 4 of IC Ib.

## ALARM OUTPUT

On the motorbike version, the alarm output is in the form of a relay, activated by a high pulse from the oscillator and
driven by TR1. D3 protects the transistor from the back e.m.f. from the coil.

The contacts of this relay are used to control the horn and headlight from the host motorbike. Note that the positive supply to the light and horn is taken to the relay before the Alarm unit on/off switch.

## COMPONENTS

## MOTORBIKE

## Resistors

R1,2 $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ (2 off)
R3,4 $10 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ (2 off)
R5 $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$
All $\frac{1}{2}$ W carbon $\pm 5 \%$

## Capacitors

C1 $\quad 100 \mu \mathrm{~F} 16 \mathrm{~V}$ elect. axial lead
C2 $\quad 15 \mu \mathrm{~F} 16 \mathrm{~V}$ elect. axial lead
C3 $\quad 0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ polyester
Semiconductors
D1 1N4148
D2,3 1 N 4001 (2 off)
TR1 BC107 npn silicon
IC1 4001UB cmos quad
2 -input NOR gate

## Miscelianeous

$\begin{array}{ll}\text { S1 } & \text { s.p.s.t. key-switch } \\ \text { S2 } & \text { mercury tilt-switch } \\ \text { S3 } & \text { microswitch } \\ \text { RLA } & \text { miniature relay, } 12 \mathrm{~V}, \\ & 130 \Omega \text { coil with } 30 \mathrm{~A}\end{array}$ rated contacts
0.1 inch matrix stripboard 11 strips by 28 holes; plastic case; $100 \times 76 \times 41 \mathrm{~mm}$ (ABS case type MB2); M2 mounting screws 13 mm long; 14 -pin d.i.l. i.c. holder; terminal block 6-way; $7 / 0.2 \mathrm{~mm}$ connecting wire; 24/0. 2 mm wire.

Approx. cost Guidance only
$\mathbf{E 1 2}$

Completed alarm for a pushbike with the key-operated switch mounted on the side.


The pushbike version of the alarm has its own integral buzzer (WD1), and this is driven, again on a high pulse from the oscillator, by Darlington pair, TR1 and TR2. This is shown on the additional section of the circuit diagram, Fig. 1.

This unit has its own supply, a 9V PP3 type battery.


## Capacitors

C1 $\quad 100 \mu \mathrm{~F} 16 \mathrm{~V}$ elect. axial lead
C2 $\quad 15 \mu \mathrm{~F} 16 \mathrm{~V}$ elect. axial lead
C3 $\quad 0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ polyester

## Semiconductors

| D1 | 1N4148 |
| :--- | :--- |
| D2 | 1N4001 |
| TR1 | BC441 npn silicon |
| TR2 | BC107 npn silicon |
| IC1 | 4001UB CMOS quad |
|  | 2-input NOR gate |

## Miscellaneous

S 1 s.p.s.t. key-switch
S2 mercury tilt-switch
WD1 9V buzzer
B1 9V PP3 battery
0.1 inch matrix stripboard, 11 strips by 28 holes; battery clip; plastic case, $100 \times 76 \times 41 \mathrm{~mm}$ (ABS case type MB2); M2 mounting screws 13 mm long; 14 -pin d.i.l. i.c. holder; $7 / 0.2 \mathrm{~mm}$ connecting wire.

## Approx. cost

Guidance only
$£ 10$


## CIRCUIT BOARD

A plastic case measuring about $100 \times$ $75 \times 41 \mathrm{~mm}$ is used for both tbe motorbike and pushbike projects. Although any plastic or metal boxes around this size should be acceptable.

The component panel for both versions is a 0.1 inch matrix stripboard having 28 holes by 11 strips, and these are shown in Figs. 2 and 3. Construction of the board follows the normal pattern with the breaks in the copper strips being made first. Next, solder in all the links and the i.c. socket, after which the components

The motorbike alarm with lid removed to show positioning of the terminal block, circuit board and key-switch. The mercury "trip" switch is mounted in the bottom right corner.
may be soldered into place and Veropins fitted where connections to off-board components are to be made. Take care with the cmos i.c. since it may be destroyed by static.

In both units the board fits easily into the slots in the plastic case. In the motorbike version the holes for the key-switch, grommet, and the mounting holes for the terminal block should be made first. In the pushbike version only sound holes for WD1 and a key-switch hole are required. Care must be taken not to let the metal case of the buzzer touch any connections or switch terminals.

## MERCURY SWITCH

The mercury switch, S1, should be soldered to the component board on leads approximately 100 mm long and temporarily attached to the side of the box with a small piece of Plasticine or BluTak.

This is necessary, as the final position of this switch can only be determined after the Alarm unit has been mounted on

Layout of components inside the case of the pushbike alarm. The siren is temporarily held in position by Blu-Tak. The leads to the mercury switch can be seen top right.



Fig. 1. Circuit diagram of the two versions of the Bike Alarm. The siren circuit for
the pushbike is shown on the right. the pushbike is shown on the right.



Fig. 2 (Right). Component layout, underside, showing breaks in the copper strips and interwiring details for the Pushbike Alarm.



Finished circuit board for the Pushbike Alarm. The leads to the mercury switch, shown left, should be approximately 100 mm long.


The completed Motorbike Alarm circuit board.
the bike frame. A certain amount of experimentation will be required in order to achieve the optimum switch position to trigger the alarm when the bike is moved by an unauthorised rider.

The final location of the mercury switch is largely dependant on two factors, whether the alarm is to be triggered by a side-to-side movement or a forward and backward motion. Bearing in mind that a bicycle (or motorbike) is often left in an inclined position, for example against a wall or on a kick-stand, the former consideration can be utilised so that the alarm triggers when the bike is returned to the upright position.

Mercury switches of this type activate at around 10 degrees from the horizontal (that is, at this angle the mercury blob will roll to the end of the device and short out the contacts) so it will need to be mounted at something like this angle inside the case.

This type of triggering does mean that the bike will always have to be inclined to the same side.

## MOUNTING

When locating the Alarm unit on the bike, it is important to keep it as discrete as possible; a box that looks like an alarm could be removed and rendered inoperational by the prospective thief.


Fig. 4. Two suggested mounting positions for the completed Pushbike unit. Final arrangement will be governed by placement of the mercury switch.

For this reason, the lock of the keyswitch should not be visible but it must be accessible. The ideal orientation of the key-switch is downward facing.

The finished Alarm unit should be securely fixed to a frame member with a fixing bracket obtained from the local
bicycle shop. A suitable position is on the down tube just below the saddle or under the cross-bar as shown in Fig. 4.

For additional reliability, the Alarm unit can be water-proofed. The simplest way to do this is with a plastic bag or "Clingfilm" wrapped around the case. Another alternative would be to use a more expensive enclosure with a sealing gasket or to use a commercially available sealing compound.

## MICROSWITCH

The motorbike version of the Alarm has the option of an additional microswitch to trigger the circuit and this is connected in parallel with the mercury switch (via TB1 terminals 1 and 2).

The normally open contacts are used and the switch is placed where it will be activated when the motorbike is moved. One position could be under the seat so that when someone sits on it, the lever of the microswitch is depressed.

The additional wiring required for this version, that is the wires to the headlight and horn and to the 12 V supply, must be carried out with a stranded wire of sufficient current rating. A $24 / 0.2 \mathrm{~mm}$ wire is suitable and should be fitted with the correct type of connector to mate with the terminals on the electrical system of the bike.

## JACK FIUA \& FWMMY...




## BASIC THEORY

The trolley provides the information with which the ZX81 will perform the calculations to determine velocity and acceleration.

The basic formulae of motion are as follows:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\text { velocity } & =\frac{\text { distance travelled }}{\text { time taken }} \\
\text { acceleration } & =\frac{\text { change in velocity }}{\text { time taken }}
\end{aligned}
$$

So, to calculate the velocity, the computer needs to know the distance travelled (this will be constant) and the time taken to travel that distance. In order to do this, the trolley will send 30 ultrasonic pulses and the computer measures the time taken for them to arrive. As previously stated, the distance the trolley moves to generate 30 pulses is always constant.

For the acceleration calculation, as the trolley starts from standstill, that is $0 \mathrm{~m} / \mathrm{s}$, the change in velocity will equal the total velocity and since this has already been calculated by the computer it can now calculate the maximum acceleration.

However, computers can be programmed to do much cleverer things so in this circuit, on obtaining the set number of pulses, it can time each individual pulse and provide acceleration figures for any point during the trolleys voyage, thus enabling a pupil to plot a graph from selected notational information; which is neatly displayed on the digital display.

## THE TROLLEY

As already mentioned, the microcomputer relies on a set number of pulses which are linked directly to the distance the trolley moves.

The trolley produces pulses whose rate of production is proportional to the speed of the trolley, that is, the faster the trolley moves, the more pulses are produced per second. It achieves these linked pulses by utilising its back wheel. First, however, the basic circuit of the pulse producer and ultrasonic transmitter will be explained. See Fig. 2.

Ultrasonics are a range of frequencies just beyond the limit of human hearing, normally about 30 to 50 kHz . This circuit transmits 40 kHz pulses to the receiver.

The 555 -timer IC1, is connected in an astable mode, oscillating at approxi-



Fig. 2 (Above). Circuit diagram of the trolley mounted ultrasonic transmitter. D1, D2, TR1 and associated components form an infra-red light activated switch to enable IC1.
Photograph (left) shows a close up of the rear wheel of the trolley. The infra-red emitter and receiver D1 and D2 can be seen set into the wooden body of the trolley either side of wheel.
(Below). The main unit and trolley showing the mounting of the ultrasonic transducer X 1 and X 2 . Note how SK1 is soldered to a length of 14 -way ribbon cable.

mately 40 kHz . An infra-red l.e.d. and an infra-red photodiode (D1 and D2) are positioned either side of the back wheel. The wheel itself has a hole bored through it. D2 is designed so that when infra-red light reaches it, it switches on allowing current to flow through it. In this circuit the light comes from D 1 .

As both D1 and D2 are on either side of an opaque material (in this case the rear wheel), the only time D2 conducts is when the hole in the rear wheel aligns itself between them. When this takes place, TR1 switches on generating a negative pulse. It is only a pulse since the light is cut off by the wheel's rotation.

This negative pulse gates the 555 off,
stopping momentarily the 40 kHz transmission. Thus, as the wheel rotates the hole aligns and dis-aligns, the 555 astable switches on and off. An ultrasonic transducer X1 is used to transmit the pulses.

The ultrasonic transducer is mounted, forward facing, on the front of the trolley as shown in the photographs. A compartment can be made for the electronics in the wooden body of the trolley.

When mounting D1 and D2, the single rear wheel of the trolley is drilled and the hole elongated (so as to produce a longer pulse) and the infra-red devices are mounted in the trolley body so as to align with the hole.

Resistors

| R1,13-19 | $330 \Omega$ (8 off) |
| :--- | :--- |
| R2 | $1.5 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R3 | $56 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R4 | $2 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R5,10 | $15 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ (2 off) |
| R6 | $4.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R7 | $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ |
| R8,9 | $560 \Omega$ (2 off) |
| R11 | $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R12 | $470 \Omega$ |
| All W carbon $+5 \%$ |  |

## Capacitors

| C 1 | 1 nF polystyrene |
| :--- | :--- |
| C 2 | $47 \mu \mathrm{~F} 16 \mathrm{~V}$ tantalum |
| $\mathrm{C} 3,7$ | 22 pF ceramic (2 off) |
| $\mathrm{C4}, 6,8$ | 10 nF polyester (3 off) |
| $\mathrm{C} 5,8$ | 10 pF ceramic |
| C 9 | $0.1 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ polyester |

## Semiconductors

| D1 | Infra-red emitter |
| :---: | :---: |
| D2 | Infra-red receiver |
| D3-5 | BAX13 silicon (3 off) |
| TR1-3 | BC108 silicon non ( 3 off) |
| IC1 | 555 timer |
| IC2 | TAA960 triple amplifier |
| IC3 | 74LS132 TL Low power Schottky quad |
|  | 2 -imput NAND |
|  | Schmitt gate |
| IC4 | 74LSO4 TLL low power Schottky hex inverter/buffer |
| IC5 | 74LS08 TTL low power Schottky quad |
|  | 2 -input AND gate |
| IC6 | 74LS 10 THL low power Schottky triple |
|  | 3 -input NAND gate |
| IC7,8 | 74LS373 TLLIOW power Schottky octal |
|  | latch (2 off) |
| LED1 |  |
|  | common cathode display (R.S. |
|  |  |
| X 1 | 40 kHz ultrasonic |
|  | transmitter transducer |
| X2 | 40 kHz ultrasonic |

## Miscellaneous

| VR1 | $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ miniature preset |
| :---: | :---: |
| VR2 | $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ miniature preset |
| VR3 | $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ miniature preset |
| B1 | 9 V PP3 battery |
| SK1 | $23+23$-way double sided 0.1 in . pitch edge connector (to suit finger set on ZX81) |




Fig. 3. Circuit diagram of the receiver, computer interface and display sections of the ZX81 Speed Computing System.

## THE RECEIVER

The complete circuit diagram of the receiver unit and the ZX 81 interface is shown in Fig. 3. The Ultrasonic pulses from the trolley-mounted transmitter are received by a second transducer, X2, and this is coupled to the first stage of IC2, a triple amplifier. This i.c., the TAA960, is specially designed for use with high impedance receivers.

The input impedance is high to ensure that the transducer has peak response at its anti-resonant frequency.

The combined three stages and sup-
porting circuit gives the amplifier a gain of about 100 dB , and the receiver is efficient up to a range of 8 metres.

The power supply for this circuit and for the interface circuitry is taken from the ZX81 finger set at the back of the computer. The +5 V and 0 V come from pins $1 B$ and 4 B , respectively.

The output from the receiver amplifier is fed to TR2 and TR3 and the resulting pulses are fed to a Schmitt trigger nand gate, IC3. This gate produces a clean 5 V pulse to be fed to the ZX81 to be processed. Fig. 1 (block diagram) shows the resulting waveform.

## COMPUTER INTERFACE

The G.E.m.N.I.F. unit is connected to the ZX 81 computer via the $23+23$-way finger set on the printed circuit board at the back of the computer.

A program, written in machine code, instructs the computer to read the data being inputed from the ultrasonic receiver and calculate the troliey velocity. The computer will only accept a set number of pulses (in this case, 30) as the number of pulses corresponds to the distance travelled and this must be constant in order to perform the calculations.


Main unit plus Sinclair ZX81 computer.


View inside prototype showing circuit board and ribbon cable connections.

When the 30 pulses have been received, the counting procedure stops and the display routine commences operation.

Six values of velocity of the trolley are taken at intervals of multiples of five pulses. So, for example, after five pulses the first velocity is calculated, again after 10 pulses, after 15 pulses and so on up to 30 pulses.

Once received, the stored values are used to provide the outputs to the display. They are both on screen (if a TV is being used) and on the integral 4 -digit display on the main unit (LED I).

## DISPLAY

Initially the display reads four flashing "eights". Whilst the trolley is actually rolling down the track and the computer is receiving data, the display will automatically blank. When all 30 pulses have been received, the display will read "VEL1", whereupon it will-go on to dis-
play the velocity calculated from the first five pulses. It will proceed to display the next five values under the headings of "VEL2", "VEL3" and so on up to "VEL6".

It continues in a loop displaying these values of velocity until the unit is reset. It will then show flashing "eights" until the trolley starts sending pulses once again.

The gates IC4, IC5 and IC6 and the octal latches IC7 and IC8 are used to decode and display the information received from the ZX 81 on the multiplexed display.

## PROGRAM

As previously stated, the computer program for use on the $Z X 81$ in conjunction with the G.E.m.N.I.F. Speed Computing System is written in machine code but unfortunately space does not permit the reproduction of it here.

However, interested parties can contact the editorial offices of Everyday

Electronics and arrangements can be made to supply a transcript or tape copy of the program along with more detailed instructions.

## CONSTRUCTION

No detailed constructional information is given for the building of the Speed Computing System as it was felt that, armed with the circuit diagram and background information, it should not prove too difficult to complete.

The original prototype was assembled in a plastic case $190 \times 110 \times 60 \mathrm{~mm}$ housing a single stripboard circuit panel. The transducer was mounted in one side and the $23+23$-way edge connector was soldered to a length of 14 -way ribbon cable.

The trolley was converted from a standard three-wheel trolley of the type found in the physics laboratory and runs on any flat track of minimum length two metres.

## BOOK REVIEWS

## TELEVISION AND RADIO 1983

Editor Eric Crostton<br>Price $\quad$ f3.50 limp<br>Size $\quad 190 \times 230 \mathrm{~mm} .224$ pages<br>Publisher Independent Broadcasting Authority<br>ISBN 0900485433

WITH our television viewing habits about to be changed beyond recognition with the advent of the fourth channel, breakfast viewing, satellite broadcasting and cable TV, this annually produced volume makes interesting reading.

1982 saw the birth of the first new national television service for 20 years-Channel 4 -and 1983 will be the year of TV-am, an additional three hours of programmes to wake-up to. This handbook discusses both these new services as well as the established ITV companies and sets out to illustrate the function of a nation-wide broadcasting network.

Many pages are dedicated to the programmes themselves, with sections on sport, drama, science, the arts and of course, news coverage, to name but a few. With over 400 illustrations,
many in full colour, the scope and quality of Independent Television can be seen.

Not to be forgotten is the constantly expanding independent local radio coverage, currently at 47 stations and new contracts are being granted all the time. Other chapters in this compulsive coffeetable book include advertising, finance, Oracle (teletext) and working in broadcasting.
G.P.H.

## ELEECTRONICS <br> FEBRUARY 1983

PROJECTS
12 V to 240 V Inverter
Twilight Warning
Radio Booster
Ultimum Computer Interface Part 4
FEATURES
Into The Real Worldinterfacing micros
Programmable Unijunction Transistors-a few PUTs are a useful investment
PLUS
Micro-File-Pull-out data on the 6502 Microprocessor

ON SALE NOW

Completed prototype of the Beehive Temperature Meter. The frame selector switch is on the right and the remote sensor input socket can be seen on the side of the case.

## REFERENCE VOLTAGE

Resistor R1 and IC 1, a programmable Zener diode, provide the reference voltage for the main circuitry. VR1 is set (programmed) to provide a stabilised voltage across IC1. R2 and R3 are padding resistors for VR1 to give finer sensitivity to VR1 wiper variation.

The potential divide effect of R4 and R5 across IC1 produces a value of 2.73 volts at their junction. This feeds the negative input of ME1, a 3-digit, 999 mV full-scale digital voltmeter. The significance of 2.73 volts will become-apparent later.

## SENSOR CIRCUIT

The other side of ME1, the + ve input, is fed by the outputs (one at a time) from each temperature sensor circuit. Each sensor is wired as seen in Fig. 2. The output at $X$ varies linearly with temperature,
and increases by 10 mV per degree Celsius. So at $0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, the output would be 2.73 V . Each output needs to be trimmed in using its associated preset, VR2 to VR11. All $X$ 's are commoned at the negative end of R6, but only one sensor is "on" at one time; which one is on, is determined by the setting of S1, which connects the sensor $\mathrm{V}^{-}$terminal to OV .

The sensors should be set up after the monitoring unit and remote sensors are in


Fig. 2. Temperature sensor circuit. The output at $X$ varies $10 \mathrm{mV} /{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{K}$.

COMPONENTS


## Potentiometers

| VR1 $\quad 2 \cdot 2 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ miniature |  |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | horizontal preset |

VR2-11 $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ miniature horizontal presets (10 off)

## Semiconductors

| IC1 | TL430C programmable <br> Zener diode |
| :--- | :--- | Zener diode

IC2-11 LM335Z precision temperature sensor (10 off)

## Miscellaneous

| ME1 | 1V d.c. digital (Digitron |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | model 8000 ) |
| SK1 | 21 -way socket |
| PL1 | 21 -way plug |
| S1 | 1 -pole 10 -way rotary |
| S2 | miniature on-off toggle |
| B1 $\quad 6 \mathrm{~V}, 4 \times 1.5 \mathrm{~V}(\mathrm{HP} 11$ ) |  |
| Pointer knob for S1; 21 -way |  |
| cable; battery holder for $4 \times \mathrm{HP} 11$ |  |
| cells. |  |

## Guidance only Approx. cost <br> £15 <br> excluding coninectors and meter

Fig. 1. Complete circuit diagram for the Beehive Temperature Meter. The circuit is drawn to include ten temperature sensors, but this number may be reduced or increased as required.



The "baseboard" removed from the case to show positioning of the main components. Four HP11 batteries are located in a holder which is sited across the rear of the baseboard.
their final positions. The sensor temperatures should be given time to stabilise. Place a thermometer beside a sensor when it is being calibrated, and adjust its preset until the readout on ME1 equals the thermometer reading. Repeat for all other sensors. Leave for a while and repeat the operation.

To read the temperature of each sensor, set S1 to the appropriate position. In the prototype, the reading was given directly in degrees Celsius, where the position of the decimal point could be selected on the rear of the specified meter.

Any digital voltmeter could be used here which is capable of displaying up to 1 V in 10 mV steps. Sockets could be fitted in place of ME1 to allow any suitable meter to be plugged in when required.

## USES

By monitoring the temperature in the hive, it is expected to be able to determine cluster movement (if any) during cold winter conditions. In such environments bees must cluster to keep alive. Disturbances, such as those from a nearby busy woodpecker could easily upset the bees
and cause them to disperse and so lose the heat generated by clustering.

Regular monitoring of the hive temperature in various positions within the hive would alert the keeper who could then take early measures to remove the disturbance and pacify the bees.

An interesting plan now being considered by the team who produced this unit is to connect it directly to a personal computer. With suitably developed software there are many possibilities including a display of the hive spatial density.



By Dave Barrington

## Sounds of ZON

All the latest reports indicate that probably the most popular gift this festive season will have been one of the $2 \times 81$ or Spectrum home computers. It is equally likely that thousands of people spent most of their holiday period mastering the wonders of their new acquisitions.

Having been hooked on their possible capabilities, owners will, by now, have soon spot-lighted any limitations and are eagerly seeking the add-on units available to expand their system. These will include printers and increased memory or RAM packs.

Although it does not expand the system, a wide range of sound effects can be added with the ZON X-81 Sound Box from Bi-Pak Semiconductors.


The unit is based on a three-channel-plus-noise sound chip and is so designed that the pitches and volumes of the three channels and overall attack/decay envelope can be controlled by simple BASIC instructions to the computer.

This means that piano, organ, bells, helicopters, lasers, explosions, space invaders, and so on, can be simulated and easily added to existing programs.

The circuit board is housed in a black plastics case with loudspeaker and manual volume control (in addition to programmed volume) and simply plugs in between the rear ZX81 "finger"' set and its RAM pack and/or printer. The power supply for the unit is taken from the internal power supplies of the computer, via the computers bus outlet or finger set.

For use with the ZX Spectrum a special adaptor is required. This is available for the sum of $£ 5.50$ plus VAT.

Included with the ZON X-81 are operating details which take the user through its operation step-by-step and also contain a number of example programs of useful sound effects.

The ZON X-81 Sound Unit costs £25.95 including postage and VAT. For more details, readers should contact: Bi-Pak Semiconductors, Dept. EE, P.O. Box 6, Ware, Herts.

## Drilling Machine

With the increase in designs built on printed circuit boards (p.c.b.), many readers must have tried their hand at making their own p.c.b.s and encountered particular problems. From the letters received, the most common and annoying of these would appear to be the accurate and time consuming task of drilling the component holes in the board.

This can now easily be accomplished with the latest addition to the Toolrange stocks. It is the ORYX Model B10 drilling machine designed for small-scale production work on p.c.b.s.

A feature of the drill is a built-in mains power supply which provides a low voltage source to an illumination "torch" for the work surface. The power supply also feeds the 24 V motor, which direct drives a quill spindle at a speed of 14,500 r.p.m.

An adjustable magnifier enables accurate location of the workpiece to drill point and there are adjustable depth stops for hand feeding. The maximum chuck-to-table distance is $1 \frac{1}{2}$ in ( 32 mm ).

Drills of up to $\frac{1}{8}$ in shank diameter can be held in the interchangeable collet chucks. Three collets are supplied as standard, allowing drills from 0.6 mm to 2 mm shank to be used.

More details and price can be obtained from Toolrange Ltd., Dept EE, Upton Road, Reading RG3 4JA.

## CONSTRUCTIONALPROJECTS

Alarms for Push-Bike and Motor Bike
When ordering the 4001 i.c. for the Alarms for Push-Bike and Motor Bike project, be sure to ask for the "unbuffered outputs" type. This will have the suffix UBE or UB after the type number. This device should be stocked by most advertisers but in case of difficulty it is listed by Maplin.

The mercury switch used in our models are available from Magenta Electronics. This switch is also available from Tandy shops (order code 275-025).

Note that mercury is a toxic substance, therefore be careful not to break the glass encapsulation when installing in the case.

The 9 V buzzer used in the prototype was purchased from Tandy and is listed as D.C. Buzzer 273-052. Other suitable mechanical sirens are stocked by Electrovalue, Magenta, TK Electronics and J. Bull.

The 12 V 30 A miniature relay is available from Maplin and listed as $\mathrm{YX99H}(12 \mathrm{~V} 30 \mathrm{~A}$

Relay). This relay is listed for use in automotive applications.

The type of case used is not critical, but should be made weather-proof from the elements. An old cycle lamp could be adapted and the bulb reflector area used to house the siren; the glass being replaced by some gauze.

## Interval Timer

The 4-digit common cathode multiplex display, Type DL340M, used in the Interval Timer is available from TK Electronics.

They also supply a 9 -digit Bowmar display that could be used in this project for the sum of 55 p plus VAT. However, the pinning for this device is different and will have to be "hard-wired" to the board.

## ZX81 Speed Computer System

The ultrasonic transducers for the ZX81 Speed Computer System are available from Electrovalue, Magenta, Maptin and Rapid Electronics. When ordering ask for transmitter and receiver transducers with pin terminations.

The 4-digit 7-segment common cathode display is a RS Components device, stock code 587-507. The diodes D3 to D5, Type BAX13, are stocked by Cricklewood Electronics.

The $23+23$-way $2 \times 81$ edge connector is available from Maplin.

## Beehive Temperature Meter

The "programmable" Zener diode called for in the Beehive Temperature Meter is likely to cause purchasing problems. This is a three-terminal type with excellent temperature stability. Two external resistors set the Zener voltage to any desired value in the range 3 to 30 V .

The only source we have been able to locate for the TL430C is Maplin Electronic Supplies: Order code YY77J. However, RS Components stock an equivalent to this device which is listed as a programmable Zener diode arid should be ordered as RS 283-227.

Once again, we would point out that RS Components will only supply to bona fide traders and readers should order this item through their component supplier.

The temperature sensor Type LM335Z is available from Europa, Maplin and Rapid Electronics.

A 12 -way rotary switch with an adjustable end-stop will need to be used to make up the single-pole 10-way switch S1. Alternatively, a single-pole 12 -way switch can be used with two tags of the switch left unconnected or joined to the tenth position.

## EPROM Programmer for the Acorn Atom

It is not essential to use a zero insertion force (z.i.f.) socket for the EPROM Programmer for the Acorn Atom "Program" socket. This socket plugs into the low profile socket mounted on the circuit board and protrudes through the top of the case. The Vero 24pin Miniwrap i.c. socket, type 200-2133B, has been found to have a low insertion and withdrawal force and could be used as a cheaper replacement for "expensive" .z.i.f. sockets.


AST month we built amplifiers and oscillators. This time we'll extend our experiments from audio to radio frequencies and make a rather crude but reasonably effective a.m. receiver.

## DISTORTION

To make it work we'll turn to good account something which is usually regarded as an unmitigated nuisance: distortion. Distortion, in amplifiers, means a departure from perfection. In a perfect amplifier the output would be an exact reproduction, in enlarged form, of the input.

Let's take a closer look at what this means. The "signals" which most amplifiers have to deal with are mixtures. They' contain many different frequencies (in a hi fi music signal, from about 20 Hz to 20 kHz ). They contain mixtures of intensities (from pianissimo to fortissimo). There are all sorts of time relationships between components of the mixture and these may be important for stereo reproduction, for example. All these characteristics would be preserved in an ideal amplifier.

No real-life amplifier is perfect. It may not amplify all frequencies equally well. It may not preserve the original time
("phase") relationships between components of the mixture. Above all, it may not reproduce the intensities faithfully.

In electronic terms this means that the shapes of the signal waveforms may be distorted. For hi fi, this amplitude distortion is by far the most serious kind.

## OVERLOAD

When we turned amplifiers into oscillators by feeding back the output to the input positively we saw how oscillations


Fig. 5.1. A low value for R1 allows the transistor to be driven into overload.
can build up rapidly, starting with only the tiny amount of "noise" present in all circuits. This is amplified, fed back, amplified again, and so on, getting bigger and bigger.

Why doesn't this process of magnification go on for ever, eventually producing infinitely large voltages and currents? Because a point is soon reached where the transistors just can't handle larger signals. They overload. They can't deliver the output demanded of them.

If you repeat (in thought, at least) an earlier experiment (Fig. 5.1) you'll see why. Suppose we give R1 a lowish value, say $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$. Then with VR1 slider at the positive end, several milliamps of current flow into TR1 base. TR 1 will try to pass several hundred milliamps of collector current. It can't, because at a mere 20 mA or so all the battery voltage is used up in the Indicator, leaving nothing for the transistor. So as you turn up VR1 the lamp reaches full brightness and gets no brighter as VR1 is turned up further. TR1 is no longer following the input signal (the base current).

## LOW DISTORTION AMPS

In low-distortion amplifiers the transistors are given enough steady (d.c.) bias to turn them part-way on. The a.c. signals are added to the bias and as they swing positive or negative the transistors are turned on further or the reverse. Provided they don't get too large the output current and voltage can follow the input as required.

Figure 5.2 shows how the collector current and voltage of a transistor with a resistance load ( $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ ) vary as the d.c. base-to-emitter voltage is varied. With no input there is no collector current, hence no voltage drop across Rl so the collector voltage is the same as the battery voltage. As the collector current approaches 6 mA nearly all the battery voltage is dropped by R1 and the collector voltage falls to zero, nearly. It can go no further, whatever you do to the base.


Fig. 5.2. How collector current and voltage change as the base voltage changes.

For minimum distortion the transistor is biased to say 700 mV and a.c. signals added to the d.c. bias. So long as they are not too large the collector current never gets increased to its maximum (here 6 mA ) or reduced to zero and distortion is minimised (as shown in Fig. 5.3).

## DETECTION

In amplitude-modulated radio there is a high-frequency "carrier wave" whose strength (amplitude) is made to vary in sympathy with the audio (programme) signals (Fig. 5.4 a and b). (For clarity, far fewer cycles of carrier are shown than with real radio signals.)

To recover the audio from the modulated carrier, two steps are taken. First all the negative half-cycles of the carrier are suppressed (c). This leaves a train of pulses whose amplitudes are in step with the original audio. They form a sequence of samples of the audio.

To re-form the audio the gaps between samples must be filled in. This is done with the help of a capacitor which is charged by the pulses and retains charge when a pulse has ended.

There's a snag. A perfect capacitor will charge to the biggest pulse amplitude and stay like that, ignoring any smaller ones which follow. Goodbye, audio. To avoid this a resistance is connected across the capacitor, to allow it to discharge slowly. This gives it enough "memory" to bridge the very short time gaps between sample pulses while allowing the slow audio changes to be followed.

## TRANSISTOR DETECTOR

To use a transistor as a detector it is biased to a point such as $X$ in Fig. 5.3. Negative carrier half-cycles then reduce the collector current towards zero but positive ones increase it according to their size. The collector current is a train of sample pulses like Fig. 5.4c.

In our receiver (Fig. 5.5a) TR1 is the detector. Its collector current is low (about $20 \mu \mathrm{~A}$ ). Gap-filling is done by C3. This is normally charged to about 1.3 V in this circuit. If this voltage changes it can restore itself slowly by charging more via R1 or discharging via TR1 collector and TR2 base.

The incoming signal appears across L1. TR2 amplifies the programme audio.

## CONSTRUCTION

The terminal-block connections (Fig. 5.5 b ) are similar to last month's amplifiers. You need resistors of $33 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ and $220 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ and polystyrene capacitors of $39 \mathrm{pF}, 390 \mathrm{pF}$ and $1 \mathrm{nF}(1000 \mathrm{pF})$. The other components you should have from before, except L1, which you make. For this you need a rather long piece of insulated hook-up wire ( 4 metres) but it can be re-used later if need be.

Another new component is a ferrite aerial rod. Get a blank (unwound) rod 100 mm long (or longer). (If you have two shorter rods tape them end to end.)


Fig. 5.3. Biasing the transistor to a partly-on state enables small a.c. signals to be amplified with low distortion, but large ones get "clipped".

The coil Ll is wound on a hollow cardboard or plastic tube wide enough for the ferrite rod to slide easily inside. I used an empty Smarties tube. Most ferrite aerial rods are 6 mm or 9 mm diameter, which is a lot less than my tube but that doesn't matter.

To wind L1, fix one end of your wire to your tube, leaving about 100 mm free for connecting. Wind, spacing the turns to cover about 100 mm . My coil has 42 turns but anything between 30 and 60 will do. Tape the loose end to the tube, again leaving enough spare for connecting to your terminal block.

If the rod goes right inside the tube tape a handle to it: I used the barrel of an old ball pen. Wood can also be used, but not metal.

## OPERATING

Turn VR 1 spindle fully clockwise. This puts the full $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ in circuit and TR1 oscillates. Moving the ferrite rod slowly into the coil should produce a sequence of whistles. Each whistle results from the


Fig. 5.4. Amplitude modulation of a radio transmission. (a) Audio (programme) signal; (b) Amplitudemodulated carrier frequency waveform; (c) First step in recovering the audio: the negative half-cycles of the a.m. waveform are suppressed; (d) Second step: The gaps are filled in, leaving the original audio plus d.c.
oscillation interacting with an incoming carrier frequency. This produces a beat tone whose frequency is the difference between the carrier frequency and the local oscillation.

Tune in a strong beat then turn down VR1 until oscillation just stops. Slight retuning should then give you the station.

## TUNING RANGE

My coil tunes from 1.2 MHz to 2.5 MHz , which embraces the high frequency end of the medium-wave band of 0.52 MHz to $1.65 \mathrm{MHz}(550 \mathrm{kHz}$ to 1650 kHz ) where (in Britain) many of the local radio stations are to be found. After dark more distant ones can be heard.

You may be able to pick up a few more with the aid of atmetre of wire connected as a vertical aerial (dotted in Fig. 5.5). Have fun!


Fig. 5.5. An a.m. receiver circuit.


The a.m. receiver wired up on the screw terminal block with the ferrite rod taped to a plastic pen case. Moving the rod in and out of the coil which is wound on an empty "Smartie" tube, tunes the receiver.


## TUNED CIRCUIT

L 1 and C 1 form a tuned circuit. Earlier we saw how inductors and capacitors can store energy as fields and charges. We learned that when combined with resistors these energy-storage devices can give time delays. Here, however, an inductor and capacitor are connected to one another. This has a striking effect on the time behaviour.

If Cl is charged, it discharges through L 1 , and a magnetic field is set up. When C 1 is empty the field collapses, inducing a voltage which drives current from L1 into C1 (in the opposite direction from before). This to-and-fro oscillation of current goes on, gradually dying away because part of the energy is lost in the resistance of L 1 each time current flows.

This damped (dying) oscillation occurs at one special frequency, the natural frequency of the tuned circuit. If the circuit is energised from outside, by a signal whose frequency matches the natural frequency the oscillation keeps on getting little pushes which keep it going. Just as somebody on a swing can go higher and higher by moving in step with the natural motion of the swing so small input signals can produce large voltages and currents in the tuned circuit.

As the signal frequency is removed from the natural frequency the effect diminishes. Only signals close to the natural frequency get built up. Hence a tuned circuit is frequency-selective. In our receiver we enhance the selectivity (and the sensitivity) by positive feedback (also called "reaction" or "regeneration").

## SIDEBANDS

When a carrier frequency is modulated by an audio frequency extra frequencies on each side (above and below) the carrier frequency are created. These "side frequencies" are known collectively as sidebands and in an amplitude-modulated (a.m.) transmission they extend to each side of the carrier by the same amount as the audio frequency.

To transmit the full audio band, calls for some 20 kHz of space on each side of the a.m. carrier. Tough, as the stations are spaced only 9 kHz apart in the medium-wave band. Their sidebands overlap.

The only thing to do about it is to keep adjacent-frequency stations apart geographically and remove the higher audio frequencies before transmitting, to restrict the sideways spread to, say, 10 kHz , which still gives reasonable music quality.

The carrier frequency itself contains no programme information. It is needed merely to "decode" the sidebands. Moreover, the sidebands duplicate the programme. Each one contains all the audio "information."

The carrier and one sideband can be removed before transmission leaving only a single-sideband. This halves the bandwidth of the transmission and avoids the "waste" of carrier frequency energy. The price is that special and at present expensive techniques are needed to get back the audio at the receiver. Ordinary detection doesn't work.

At very high frequencies (v.h.f.)
transmitters have a short range so if spaced well apart don't interfere with one another. It is then feasible to use a bandwidth-hungry but high quality form of transmission based on frequency modulation. The carrier has a constant amplitude but its frequency is made to vary in sympathy with the intensity of the audio signal. Again, ordinary detectors won't work but the solution is less expensive than for single-sideband (s.s.b.) modulation.

## INVISIBLE COMPONENTS

There is a mystery about your receiver. Since it can be made to oscillate, positive feedback must be occurring. But how? Why should varying VR1 cause signals to be fed back from output to input?

Only TR1 is involved. The feedback is at radio frequencies. It is not from collector to base but from emitter to base. How? Through an invisible connection, formed by the internal impedance of the transistor between emitter and base.

Voltages across VR1 and C2 are fed back through this impedance to the tuned circuit. They get increased by a sort of transformer step-up property of the tuned circuit, which is just as well since the voltage at the emitter is less than the voltage at the base. This sustains the oscillation.

If the inductance of L 1 is too large oscillation may only be obtained at the high-frequency end of the tuning range. The remedy is to reduce the number of turns or to reduce C 1 (to, say, 150 pF ).

To be continued

## The Future . . .

This is the time of year when Old Moore Young attempts to see the future. The delightful thing about forecasting the future is that you can go as far ahead as you wish.

I can imagine that no-one goes to work and we all sit at home and tap out instructions on our computer, with all the manual work being carried out by robots. A start has even been made in the manufacture of cars.

Would the home constructor be able to tap out his requirements on his computer, and would we ever reach the stage where it could all be beamed down and land immediately on his bench, a la "Star Trek"? Then again with the progress of Physcokinetics he would not even have to press the buttons, only to think of the items he required. In time his arms and legs would atrophy, and he would move around in a programmed wheelchair, finally becoming a blob of jelly.

There are a few simple souls that worry about the computer taking us over completely, but just imagine the scientist programming his computer to carry out some original thinking, like discovering penicillin or cracking the D.N.A. code, the double helix, or the composer commanding it to compose a fugue that will excell all J. S. Bach's famous 48 .

I will conclude by quoting a few words by Christopher Booker in a recent edition of the Daily Mail, talking about a friend. "Until a few years ago he was a brilliant computer expert. Financially, and in terms of job prospects he had the world of electronics at his feet. But he has thrown it all up to spend his time as a builder, as a potterand looking after his children-for no other reason that he eventually found the glittering world of electronics utterly dead and boring.'

Now I don't subscribe to his view and neither, I am sure, do our readers but I do agree with the Irishman who said, "All predictions are unreliable, particularly those dealing with the future," but in case I have depressed our reader's, I decided I would cheer them up by looking backwards instead of forward.

## The Past

Looking for a "spark" from the past with an electronics connection that might interest readers is very difficult. But suddenly I have an inspiration, Russian Ambassador I. M. Maisky.

He is particularly appropriate if only for the following reason. Ask any British schoolboy who invented radio and the answer will come back, "Marconi". Ask a Russian schoolboy the same question and he will answer with equal speed, "Popoff"

Now although the Russians may claim to have invented the aeroplane, the internal combustion engine and the telephone, their claim to the invention of radio has considerable substance. Alexander Stepanovich Popoff was transmitting radio messages up to 30 miles in 1898 , and it was used by the Russian navy for communications between ships, and ship to shore . The Marchese Guglielmo Marconi established radio communication between France and England in 1899 and in 1901 succeeded in spanning the Atlantic.

In 1936 my father worked for a short time as a humble clerk in the Russian Trading Mission at Bush House, London. Perhaps the O.G.P.U. had a file on him, and noted that he had a son who was a radio technician at Philips. Now their ambassador in London his Excellency Ivan Mikhailovich Maisky had a Philips radio at the embassy and was getting bad interference on his reception from electrical apparatus in the vicinity. I was asked to provide a cure

So one afternoon in the autumn of 1936 saw me clambering on the embassy roof in Kensington Palace Gardens armed with a long coil of screened cable. Fortunately was able to greatly improve reception by cutting out the noise and I was asked to demonstrate this to his Excellency who thanked me warmly for my trouble.

# SHORT INTERVAL TIMER 



This instrument has been designed to measure time intervals of up to one second with a resolution of 0.0001 seconds, and with an accuracy of better than one per cent.

The stop/start can be activated by mechanical, electronic, or photoelectronic means, enabling the instrument to measure pulse widths, the time between two pulses of either polarity (the period), passage times of moving objects, and so on. The display is a 4-digit calculator type l.e.d. display.

## CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

A block diagram of the system is shown in Fig. 1. The incoming pulses are gated to produce the required polarity. Where the interval between two pulses is to be measured, the pulses are fed through a flip-flop. The resulting waveform is shown.

The rising edge of this pulse triggers a reset pulse which zeros the counter. The falling edge of the pulse (the end of the period to be timed) sends a pulse to the latch which then transfers the information in the counter to the display.

The clock oscillator, nominally at $9,999 \mathrm{~Hz}$, continuously feeds timing pulses to the counter. Thus the display at the end of the period shows the number of clock pulses counted during the timing pulse. For a 4 -digit display, this will be a direct reading of the time in microseconds. The decimal point is to be before the most significant digit.

The reset and latch pulses are of microseconds duration, and therefore do not encroach significantly into the period to be timed.

## POLARITY

Fig. 2 gives the circuit diagram. IC1 is a cmos quad 2 -input Schmitt trigger nand gate. The input is fed in via ICld and any effect of switch bounce or input signal jitter will be minimised by the switching characteristics of this type of
gate. S 1 is set for the appropriate signal polarity, this switch brings in an additional Schmitt gate, IC1c, for the negative input pulse position.

The signal is then fed either through IC2 or direct to IC3 depending on the position of S2. IC2 is a dual D-type flipflop, only one of which is used in this circuit. This flip-flop changes output state every time a rising edge signal is applied to pin 3. So if the time interval between two successive pulses is to be measured, the first pulse will switch the output to high, and the second pulse will switch it to low again, thereby activating the RESET and latch pulses in sequence.

## RESET

The circuitry associated with S2a (C1 and R2) is designed to put the flip-flop into the right state when initially switched into this mode, by applying a momentary positive pulse to the RESET input pin 4.

The leading edge of the timing pulse is coupled via C3 and R3 to pin 12 of IC4 to produce a momentary RESET pulse. The trailing edge is fed to pins 11 and 5 of IC3, a CMOS dual monostable multivibrator, to produce the LATCH pulse from one of the monostables.

The other monostable has an l.e.d. connected to the output which illuminates when a new reading is made. The l.e.d. remains alight for a period determined by the values of R 4 and C 4 , which for the
given values is a few tenths of a second.
IC1a and IC1b form the clock oscillator to provide the timing pulses. The frequency is set byVR1 and should be $9,999 \mathrm{~Hz}$.

The counting, latch and display drive functions are all done by IC4, a 74 C 925. IC5 contains five individual transistors, four of which are used as current sources for the digits of the display. The display is a dual-in-line (d.i.l.) 4-digit common cathode display for a calculator. The decimal points are not used, since extra circuitry would be required to drive them.

Finally, a stablised power supply of 5 V is obtained using a voltage regulator, IC6. This is necessary to stablise the frequency of the oscillator and for IC4, which requires a +5 V supply. The instrument is driven using a 9 V PP3 battery. It can also be driven using a 9 V mains adaptor via a suitable socket. The power supply circuit diagram is shown in Fig. 3.

## COMPONENTS

IC5 may be replaced by an LM3086, a pin-for-pin equivalent of the CA3046. VR1 should be a multiturn preset potentiometer.

The display used on the prototype is a DL-340M common cathode calculator display. This is a d.i.l. display with four digits, all of which were used in this project. Other displays may be used, the best being d.i.l. for easy mounting. The p.c.b. layout may need to be modified to accommodate different pin configurations. Individual common cathode displays may also be used.

With the exception of C 2 , the values of the resistors and capacitors used are not at all critical, and the other values may be used. R7 to R13 affect the brightness of the display. Increasing the value will decrease the brightness by reducing the current, but will increase the battery life.


Rear view with top cover removed.



Fig. 2. Main circuit diagram of the Short Interval Timer.


## CIRCUIT BOARD

The unit is built on a single sided p.c.b. $138 \times 75 \mathrm{~mm}$, the layout of which is shown in Fig. 4. Holders are used for the i.c.s as this prevents any soldering damage and facilitates any necessary debugging.

The display is mounted using a special 14-pin d.i.l. holder with both sets of pins bent at 90 degrees to allow the socket to sit at right angles to the board. As previously mentioned, if a different display is used, the p.c.b. connections may need to be altered. This should not be beyond the capabilities of the constructor.

If a multi-digit display is used, for example, from a calculator, this can be mounted behind the front panel of the instrument case and hard wired to the p.c.b. This type of display can have anything up to ten digits of which only four will be used.

## CASE

The unit is housed in an aluminium instrument case, $45 \times 105 \times 150 \mathrm{~mm}$, with a vinyl covered lid, a type readily available. The p.c.b. is mounted using


Fig. 3. Power supply circuit diagram. Optional external power socket not shown.
three spacers approximately 13 mm long. Holes for the three switches and l.e.d. are drilled on the front panel, and a window for the display approximately $13 \times$ 34 mm must also be cut. Ensure that the position of this window is such that the display appears to be central.

The input terminals are two 4 mm banana sockets located at the rear of the instrument. If the instrument is also to be powered using a 9 V calculator adaptor, a hole for a 2.5 mm jack socket will also be required.

The battery is secured to the box by a double-sided adhesive tab. D1 is mounted with the standard black bezel clip.

A red filter is glued to the inside of the front panel to increase the display contrast. The switches are labelled using "Letraset" or similar dry print transfers and secured with a clear varnish to make them more durable.

If a mains adaptor jack socket is used, ensure that the terminals are wired so that
the battery is disconnected when the jack plug is in place and that the polarity is correct.

A diagram showing all interwiring is given in Fig. 4.

## CALIBRATION

If a calibrated frequency source is available, with an $0-10 \mathrm{~Hz}$ range, then this can be used for calibrating the instrument. With S2 set to measure the time between two pulses, the period is measured. This period is the reciprocal of the input frequency.

So, for example, a known 2 Hz signal is applied to the input and VR1 is adjusted until the display reads 5000 (0.5 seconds).

In the absence of a calibrated source, it is possible to use the 50 Hz mains frequency. Using the unrectified secondary output of a low voltage mains transformer in the range 5 to 12 V fed into the input via a 10 kilohm resistor, adjust VR1 until the display reads 0200 (0.02 seconds).

When using this latter method, the instrument is taking 50 readings per second, and the last digit may appear to change rapidly.


Front view clearly showing the labetling of the three switches.

## SHORT INTERVAL TIMER



Fig. 4. Full size printed circuit board artwork and component layout. Topside also shows interwiring details. Note that switches are shown as if the front panel had been folded flat.

| Resistors | Se |
| :---: | :---: |
| R1 | 100k $\Omega$ |
| R2 | 18 k ת |
| R3 | $6.8 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R4 | $1 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ |
| R5 | $4.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R6-13 | $220 \Omega$ (8 off) |
| All $\frac{1}{4} \mathrm{~W}$ ca | bon $\pm 5 \%$ |
| Capacitor |  |
| C1,3,5 | $\begin{aligned} & \text { 680pF polystyrene } \\ & (3 \text { off) } \end{aligned}$ |
| C2 | 4.7 nF polyester |
| C4 | $1 \mu \mathrm{~F} 6.3 \mathrm{~V}$ tantalum |
| C6,7 | $47 \mu \mathrm{~F} 10 \mathrm{~V}$ tantalum or electrolytic (2 off) |

## Semiconductors

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { D1 } \\ & \text { IC1 } \end{aligned}$ | TIL209 red l.e.d. |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | 4093B смоs quad |
|  | 2-input Schmitt triggered |
|  | NAND gate |
| IC2 | 4013B cmos dual |
|  | D-type flip-flop |
| IC3 | 4098B cmos dual |
|  | monostable |
| 1 C 4 | 74C925 cmos 4-decade |
|  | counter/driver with |
|  | multiplexed 7-segment |
|  | outputs |
| IC5 | CA3046 or LM3085 |
|  | silicon npn transistor |
|  | array |
| IC6 | $78 \mathrm{~L} 05+5 \mathrm{~V}, 100 \mathrm{~mA}$ |
|  | regulator |
| $\times 1$ | DL-340M 4-digit |
|  | common cathode |
|  | multiplexed display in |
|  | d.i.l. package (see text) |

## Miscellaneous

S1.3 s.p.d.t. miniature toggle (2 off)
S2 d.p.d.t. miniature toggle VR1 $50 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ multiturn preset
SK1 $\quad 4 \mathrm{~mm}$ bañana socket red
SK2 4 mm banana socket black
B1 9V PP3 battery
Aluminium instrument case, 150 $\times 105 \times 45 \mathrm{~mm}$; single sided p.c.b. $140 \times 76 \mathrm{~mm}$; red display filter approx. $50 \times 30 \mathrm{~mm}$; battery clip; 16-pin d.i.l. holder (2 off); 14-pin d.i.t. holder ( 3 off); vertical mounting 14 -pin dii.l. holder (for X1); $7 / 0.2 \mathrm{~mm}$ wire; rubber feet ( 4 off); mounting hardware

Approx. cost
Guidance only

## CIRCUIT OPTIONS

The constructor may wish to extend the time range, for example, 0 to 10 seconds. This can be achieved by either changing VR1 or C2. The oscillator frequency is inversely proportional to the resistance and capacitance, so to have a maximum period of 9.999 seconds, Cl would have to be 0.047 microfarads or VRI would have to be 500 kilohms.

Should more than one range be required, the appropriate number of preset potentiometers will need to be added, and another switch to select the range.

## TROUBLE SHOOTING

The following should be of use to identify any problems which may occur when the instrument is first switched on.

The four digits should light, or possibly a random number appear, when first switched on. Any missing digit or segment will be either a wiring error or a fault in IC 4 or IC 5 .

A momentary short of the input terminals should cause D1 to flash (S1 in NEGATIVE position, $S 2$ in PULSE wIDTH position). The new display reading should coincide with this flash. If this does not occur and the oscillator is known to be working, the function of IC4 may be checked by putting pin 5 (LATCH input) of IC4 to $V_{D D}$.

However it will be necessary to disconnect pins 10 and 12 of IC3. Do this by putting IC4 in another d.i.l. holder and bend pin 5 of this holder out so that it protrudes from the side, and plug into the board socket.

When the new protruding pin 5 is connected to $V_{\mathrm{DD}}$ the display will count continuously. If it does not, and assuming the RESET pin 12 of IC 4 is at 0 V , the i.c. may be considered faulty.

If the timer gives completely wrong readings, then it is likely that there is a wiring error to one or both of $S 1$ and $S 2$.

## USING THE TIMER

The polarity of the pulse to be measured must be known before the measurement is taken.

The switches can now be set to the appropriate mode. These are as follows:

To measure the duration (pulse width) of a positive pulse, S1 is in the positive position (up) and S 2 must be down, pointing to the pulse symbol.

To measure the duration (pulse width) of a negative pulse, $S 1$ is switched to the NEGATIVE position (down). S 2 is unchanged.

To measure the interval between two positive pulses (the period), S 1 is set to the positive position (up) and S 2 is switched to the up position, pointing to the symbol representing two pulses.

To measure the interval between two negative pulses (the period), S 1 is simply switched to the NEGATIVE position (down) and $S 2$ is unchanged.

## SOURCE IMPEDANCE

If a measurement is being taken from a circuit or piece of equipment with an output impedance of greater than 33 kilohms, then R1 will have to be sub stituted with a higher value, for example one megohm.

The Short Interval Timer has been designed for pulses of 5 V peak and signals of greater amplitude require an additional resistor in series with the input. A 10 kilohm resistor is sufficient, and the reason that it is required is that the input protection diodes on IC1d will start to conduct at voltages greater than the positive supply rail.

## PHOTOCELL

If a phototransistor is to be used to trigger the timer, for example a TIL81, then all that is required is to connect the collector to the positive input terminal (SK 1) and the emitter to the negative input terminal (SK2). R1 acts as the load resistor for this device and may need adjustment to suit the transistor used.

If the time interval to be measured is the interruption of incident light falling on the phototransistor then the Timer must be set up for the measurement of a positive pulse width.

To measure the time interval of light actually falling on the phototransistor, the Timer is set to measure a negative pulse width.

A microswitch can also be used to trigger the timer. In this case the Timer would be measuring the interval of a mechanically moving object which activates the switch. Using the normally open contacts, put in the NEGATIVE position; and for the normally closed contacts, in the positive position.

## APPLICATIONS

An example is to use a phototransistor to measure the shutter speed of a nonautomatic camera. With a light in front of the lens and the phototransistor behind the lens, the shutter speed can be checked for accuracy. The waveform seen by the input would correspond to measuring a negative pulse width.

The Timer can also be used to measure the r.p.m. of a rotating object. For example, a white strip painted or stuck on the rotating object will reflect light to the photocell (held in close proximity) with every revolution, and thus giving a continuously up-dated display of the time between each revolution, which for a constant speed calr be converted to r.p.m. by dividing 60 by the time displayed. $\square$


The finished prototype p.c.b. assembly mounted in the case. This layout differs slightly from that given in Fig. 4.


FROM the opening of the doors on Thursday, 18th November, the Alex andra Pavilion in North London became a bustling scene with visitors of all ages circulating among the stands which of fered a wide range of products from com ponents of all descriptions to complete units and instruments representative of all branches of electronic technology.

## SPECIAL ATTRACTIONS

The crowds swelled appreciably on the Saturday and Sunday when the family presence was particularly noticeable. Non-technical members of visiting families soon discovered plenty to amuse and interest themselves amongst the special attractions. Handel's Water Music, Bach's Toccata and Fugue and Jeremiah Clarke's Trumpet Voluntary issued forth at regular intervals from the mighty four manual electronic organ built
by a member of the Electronic Organ Constructors' Society. There was no dearth of volunteer players hence the nearly continual flow of music from this example of the king of instruments.

Ham radio and holography may seem poles apart but they occupied adjoining stands as if to demonstrate how wide and divergent are the activities to be found within the sphere of electronics. Holographic Developments demonstrated 3D holograms and offered for sale products related to this the very latest field for the hobbyist to explore.

Radio is as old as electronics, and the Radio Society of Great Britain carried the banner for this most popular hobby, aided and abetted by two other satellite organisations, the British Amateur Radio Teleprinter Group and the North London Raynet Association. The latter participated actively in guiding fellow hams to the Fair via VHF and UHF links.

## ELECTRONIC MILESTONES

Approaching the entrance to the Alexandra Pavilion visitors passed between two metaliic objects each highly significant in technology terms. On the left, rising from the East Tower of the old Alexandra Palace, is the mast that radiated the world's first TV service. On the right, on the ground just before the entrance to the Pavilion, stands a 2-metre diameter dish aerial designed to receive Russian national TV programmes from a satellite hovering over the USSR.

Forty-four years of electronic history neatly symbolised by two aerials standing less than 100 yards apart in the grounds of Alexandra Palace North London

Nearby the Army had a display of its own very special kind of radio equipment and this was demonstrated by young members of the Royal Signals from the Army Apprentice College. Exhibits in cluded an operational radio station, teleprinter and a "rolling road" on which visitors were invited to ride a bicycle and try their luck at beating the speed record.

Just across the way in a railed off arena, radio was being put to another use by Model Land. Model cars, buggies, helicopters and planes were put through their paces and demonstrated their manoeuvrability at high speed when under the control of a skilful operator.

On the first day Leonard Bliss of Model Land, reported a near disaster when his radio-controlled helicopter went out of control and "crash landed", by providence, on his stand. Damage to the stand was minimal and fortunately they had a standby helicopter to hand.

## ROBOTS

Not far away stood a family of life size robots belonging to Advanced Robotics. Now and again the father of the quartet felt the urge to take a wander around the neighbouring area of the Pavilion, and in one instance even ventured outside to greet visitors to the show. During the course of these perambulations he chatted up visitors much to their amazement.

These robots were featured in the ITV programme, "The Six O'clock Show" on the Friday evening. The activities of the outside broadcast unit supplied an added attraction to visitors who stayed on to watch this live telecast from the Fair.

Over on "the other channel" the BBC's important role in education was illustrated by displays of the BBC Computer, electronic teaching modules and other items featured in BBC sound and TV programmes. The stand was crowded most of the time with visitors glued to the demonstration video film monitors.

BBC representative Robin Gwyn said the numbers of visitors and the interesting enquiries concerning the BBC's activities in education was, in his experience, unprecedented. Many parents wanted guidance about computers, often because they felt the need to keep up with their children. Others involved in teacher/parent associations wanted advice regarding suitable computers for schools.

This general view of a thronged aisle indicates the popular appeal of the Fair


(Top left). Skulduggery by Holographic Developments. Holographer Ken Harris is pictured beside a dramatically realistic 3-D hologram.
(Top right). The family of robots being interviewed during the ITV telecast from the Fair.
(Left). An Army P.E. instructor advises a visitor before she attempts to break the speed record! This racing cycle was linked to a microprocessor to record the rider's speed.
(Above). All is perfectly clear through this magnifier, one of the attachments available for the Absoglen Minibench.


## COMPUTERS

Talking of computers, the visitor could scarcely step in any direction without soon encountering the screen of a VDU alive with readout from one of the wellknown personal computers.

There was no shortage of eager fingers to manipulate the keyboards, whether a game or a more professional problem was being tackled. It was not uncommon to see a youngster clutching his own hand written program eagerly awaiting the chance to try it out.

Maplin had a particularly impressive array of computers, including Atari, Vic and Dragon modules, and these attracted crowds. Roger Allen of Maplin reported a brisk trade in computers, software and publications.

Amongst other exhibitors featuring personal computers were Electrovalue, Chromasonic Electronics, Midwich, Kansas City Systems, SEDAC and Army Apprentice College, with some selling software and computer accessories.

## COMPONENTS AND KITS

The constructor and practising designer or engineer alike had much to feast their eyes on. The whole gamut of electronic components was on display, as well as tools and instruments, materials and cases. If it was a new soldering iron you were after then a visit to the Light Soldering Developments stand was the place to call.

Bargain packs were offered by many components firms.

Calling in on the Bi Pak stand, Bill Baines informed us that apart from component packs, cases and their new ZON X-81 Sound Unit were in big demand.

The ZON X-81 is a sound effects box that plugs directly into the back of the ZX81 home computer. This allows the user to produce such sounds as: helicopters, lasers, explosions, space invaders, and so on.

Electronic kits provide a convenient alternative for the constructor in a hurry as well as for the less experienced to assemble. Some fine collections of kits were on display covering electronic gadgets such as musical doorbells to hi fi


Bargains galore! Brisk business in the market place area.
(Left). The Roadrunner wiring system being demonstrated.
equipment. Vellerman, for example, offered a good selection of kits and furthermore had a working model of each on display so that the intending purchaser could see and try for himself the operation of a completed assembly.

Electronic ignition is still extremely popular judging by the sales reported by Peter Biddle of Sparkrite. Apart from an ignition system, they also market a comprehensive anti-theft device.

## CATALOGUES

Apart from cash sales, most retailers disposed of considerable numbers of their catalogues. Taken away by visitors, these will be consulted time and time again in the coming months and many an order will be placed by this means. Indeed, some firms have already reported a large amount of business subsequent to the Fair that must be directly attributed to the selling power of the catalogue.

Maplin inform us they sold a few thousand copies of their mammoth opus. Another household name, Vero Electronics, gave away several thousand copies of their catalogue. Mrs Mary Pearce, who was in charge of their stand, told us they have high hopes of extending the uses of their well-known products as a result.

Talking of follow-ups, Global Specialities were delighted with the large proportion of professional enquiries and business buyers amongst visitors to the Fair. Managing director Tina Knight told us they are confident that large amounts of business will materialise from the nature of the enquiries at their stand.

Global's breadboard system, for one, attracted the attention of the professional and looks like being introduced into more than one industrial R\&D department as a result. Global also report lively business in their educational kits. Dads were much in evidence buying these kits for their sons (a likely story!).

Global seized the opportunity (and challenge) offered by their commanding site at the front of the house: a warm introduction to the Fair was induced by the carefully arranged and festively decorated stand.

## MARKET PLACE

One corner of the Pavilion was reserved for "small holders" of the electronic retail trade. Trestle tables laden with component goodies of all shapes and forms, and enticing bargain bags of capacitors and the like, attracted crowds.

Everyone likes a rummage, it seems! Except perhaps certain component retailers who felt that business on their stands had suffered as a consequence of the market trading area. The more typical view, however, was that the market area added a desirable touch to the whole scene, and since no-one can obtain all his requirements from these less orthodox trading pitches, the retailer with a wide selection of first class components will always be sought out.

## WE THREE

The centre piece in the Pavilion was a large circular stand shared by the three sponsoring magazines, PE, PW and EE. The EE stand featured, the Introducing Electronics series for the beginner using solderless techniques, and this attracted considerable attention.

Another focal point was a smali lathe under the control of the BBC Computer. Here visitors could see a length of plain wooden dowel being machined to a complex shape-the pattern being displayed on the VDU.

The fiye-digit combination lock provided a source of frustration to countless visitors as they strived to "crack the safe". However, we must congratulate Miss R. Mitchell of Gidea Park, Essex on showing her brother, and others on how it is done.

A new collection of test instruments for the hobbyist, musical effects units, computer add-ons and a variety of miscellaneous pieces of equipment were also on show.

Winning projects were demonstrated on the SEDAC stand by students from the successful schools in last year's competition. Considerable interest was aroused in this national competition for secondary schools sponsored by Mullard Ltd and Everyday Electronics, and requests for entry forms for the 1983 contest were frequent.


By BARRY FOX

## Mysteries Of Hi Fi

A fascinating gadget is being demonstrated by Sony at hi fi shows and trade exhibitions around Europe.

A transparent plastic case stands on a tape-recorder. Inside the case an ordinary audic cassette hangs suspended by a couple of thin black threads.

There's no visible drive for the suspended cassette, no playback heads and no electronic circuitry. But as you operate the controls of the tape-recorder underneath, the floating cassette runs, re-winds, fast winds and produces music through an unseen amplifier and loudspeaker. It's all very eerie.

In fact the demonstration is intended to show off the extraordinary small size of the tape drive mechanism used in a Walkman portable stereo. The two black threads suspending the cassette are electric wires which feed power to a Walkman drive motor attached to the underside of the suspended cassette. You can just see it if you peer underneath and up at the right angie.

The controls of the recorder underneath operate not only the main recorder drive, but also (via the threads) the unseen motor underneath the suspended cassette. So, as the main recorder re-winds, so does the suspended cassette, and so on.

The sound you hear is actually coming from the recorder, not the suspended cassette. So in some respects the demonstration is a phoney. But it's an interesting talking point, and it does prove the point that tape drive mechanisms are now incredibly small.

## Jargon Generator

A few years ago $\mid$ wrote about a computer jargon generator. Now there's a hi fi jargon generator. It's published, but so far only for the benefit of the trade, by Celestion Loudspeakers.

Like all jargon generators it's simple to use. There are three columns of technical terms, each with a number. At random you take one phrase from each column and drop it casually into a sentence.

Celestion reckon that any one of the 9000 permutations of hi fi expertise offered by their generator is enough to silence a hi fi salesman, confuse a friend, or serve as a basis for an impressive letter to a hi fi magazine. Here are a few examples:
' 1 am having trouble with my (1) transient (2) mosfet (3) bucket brigade". If that doesn't work you could try. 'I've now got doubts about (12) digitally processed (16) comb filtered (7) linear interpolation.

## Hot Shot

Pooled information will often solve problems you hadn't yet recognised.

Recently a chance remark by a studio engineer raised an interesting question. The studio had built a digital timer and clock from a package of chips. One day one of the junior engineers was idly playing with an anti-static pistol that's kept in the studio to clear the static from gramophone records after they have been wiped clean. He was "playing guns" with the pistol, pointing it close to the clock and squeezing the trigger. Soon afterwards the studio found that the clock wasn't working. All the chips had blown.

No-one will ever know for sure whether it was the ion stream from the pistol that blew the chips or whether there was some quite unrelated fault, like, for instance, a power supply failure. Since then I've tried gunning an old calculator with an anti-static pistol and it's done no damage. But there's a lingering doubt.

Have any readers ever encountered blown chips after using an anti-static pistol near them? If so, let's hear about it and pool information.

It's obviously important because more and more gramophone turntables now incorporate integrated circuits and microprocessors, and many people use anti-static pistols to clear the charge from a disc while it is sitting on a turntable.

## Shopping In Tok yol

## Digital Audio

I spent a few hours shopping in Tokyo recently, which is always an interesting experience.

Digital audio Compact Discs and players went on sale in early October. It's too early yet to say whether any are actually being bought. The price is low compared to that expected in Britain when Compact Discs go on sale in March 1983.

In Japan the price of a player is under $£ 400$ and discs around $£ 7$ each. It's likely that players will cost between $£ 500$ and $£ 600$ in Britain and the discs $£ 10$ each.

This is why many people feel that Compact Discs will take longer to take off here than the trade originally expected. It will be too expensive for all but the most dedicated hi fi enthusiast.

## Video Disc

The Philips LaserVision video disc system has been on sale in Japan since October 1982. But it is backed over there only by Pioneer and it's very hard for any one company to do anything alone in Japan.

As a result LaserVision hasn't been selling well. This is also one reason why the rival VHD system, developed by JVC and backed by twelve Japanese companies, hasn't yet been launched.

Although many hi fi and video shops in Japan still have Pioneer LaserVision players on working demonstration, they don't seem to attract much interest. Neither, incidentally, did the Compact

Disc demonstrations I saw. But this is probably because many customers in department stores and record shops where Compact Disc is being demonstrated, didn't really recognise the significance of what they were seeing and hearing.

## Solar Power

The most interesting gadget I saw was a solar power pack, costing around $£ 25$. It's a panel of solar cells, with rechargeable Nickel Cadmium batteries, and in sunshine it delivers enough power to drive a portable radio or cassette player.

One shop was demonstrating it with one of the new portable Sony flat screen televisions. These cost a little over $£ 100$ and use a flat, squashed cathode ray tube similar to the type originally proposed by Sinclair of Britain. The rechargeable NiCads keep the set running while the sun goes behind a cloud.

## In-Car TV

Probably the daftest new development in Japan, is the craze for in-car television. I saw several electronics shops showing in-car TV systems. One even had a mockup of a car with a hi-fi stereo and TV installed alongside the driver's seat.

I've always thought that pocketportable TV's were a pointless extravagance. After, all who wants to watch TV while they are walking down a road. But the idea of anyone watching TV while they drive is really ridiculous:

## By Pat Hawker, gзva

## Exit The Pirates?

In Radio World-November 1982, in discussing the complex legal maze surrounding so much of our use of modern electronics technology, I observed that the Wireless Telegraphy Acts had fallen into disarray although new legislation was threatened.

Over recent years "pirate" (unlicensed) use of radio transmitters has multiplied many times over. Although there have been a number of successful prosecutions brought by the authorities, these have been rendered very difficult by what amounts to the need to catch offenders "microphonehanded" so to speak.

The 1967 Act, for example, made it illegal to import certain types of 27 MHz CB equipment, but there proved to be glaring loopholes in the legislation and there was nothing to prevent the open sale and advertising of equipment that would have been illegal to import in working order or manufacture. Then again the fines imposed on "pirates" have often made it hardly worth the bother of bringing prosecutions.

## Piracy

Apart from the continued sale and use of amplitude-modulated CB equipment, and equipment capable of operating outside the 40 UK 27 MHz CB channels, there are many other forms of "piracy" including illegal operation that causes interference to broadcast services or other licensed users of radio frequencies.
These include the many "broadcast" stations on both medium-wave and v.h.f./f.m. that can be heard most weekends and evenings in many cities. In London some have been active for many years despite occasional prosecutions and seizure of equipment, often using tapes which are produced openly.
There are also a number of so-called 'international CBers' using modern h.f. s.s.b. transceivers on frequencies between $6600-6700 \mathrm{kHz}$. Then again there are the pirate or "bootlegger" stations who operate inside the amateur bands using the callsigns of licensed radio amateurs. (I have had the experience of listening to someone calling CQ de G3VA in execrable morse !)

There are the CBers who have been infesting the 28 to 29.7 MHz amateur band using equipment designed originally for both amateur and CB use, or else modified for this band. There are also a number of misguided individuals who for some five years or so have taken a delight in interfering with and abusing the use of amateur 144 MHz "'repeaters'

All such pirates may soon be contronted with altogether tougher opposition.

## Telecommunications Bill

In November 1982, terms of a new "Telecommunications Bill" were published. This is an extremely long and complex Parliamentary Bill aimed primarily at preparing the way for the "privatisation" of British Telecommunications, abolishing many of its monopoly powers and setting up a Director General of Telecommunications to license firms wishing to provide telecommunications services. But one part of this Bill-Part V, which runs to 150 pages is concerned with amendments to the Wireless Telegraphy Acts 1949 to 1967 "and to make further provision for facilitating enforcement of these Acts"

While, of course, the Act may be modified during its passage through Parliament, the Bill as published promises to be very tough indeed on pirates and those causing interference to other services. in particular it proposes that the restrictions on specified apparatus should be extended to cover not only use and importation but also:

Manufacture (whether or not for sale). Manufacture is defined as including "construction by any method and the assembly of component parts"

Selling or offering for sale, letting on hire or offering to let on hire, or indicating (whether by display of the apparatus or by any form of advertisement) one's willingness to sell or let on hire.

Having in one's custody or control. This is thus far more wide ranging than Section 7 of the existing 1967 Act and creates entirely new offences.
It is clearly aimed not only at stopping the sale of equipment which it would be illegal to use-but also at making "possession" of such equipment a breach of the law. It will also be possible to specify equipment by the use to which it is put, rather than the frequencies on which it can operate.

There are clauses relating to seizure and disposal of equipment; arrest without warrant; a clause making it an offence to obstruct intentionally the seizure of equipment.

There is little doubt that if Part $V$ of the Telecommunications Bill becomes law in a few months time it will immensely strengthen the power of the authorities to clamp down on radio pirates and the use of unauthorised frequencies. This is long overdue, although in giving the State so much more power it does, or should, impose on the authorities an equal obligation that the licensing process should be reasonable and fair.

It also strengthens the case for amateur radio "novice" licences and legal low-cost "community" radio broadcasting.

## Simple Radio-Costly TV

The advent of video cassette machines combined with rental of tapes (whether "pirated" or genuine) has tended to make viewers forget the very high cost of producing high-quality TV programmes. With VCR it may appear to cost only one or two pounds an hour to have your own programme.

In the talk about 30-channel cable TV networks, and whether these should be based on co-axial cable or optical fibres, most of the debate has been concerned with the cost of the network. Less attention has been given to the cost of worth while programmes and how much greater these would be than, for example, the making of radio programmes for local stations or national networks.

Production costs for cinema films can amount to millions of pounds for each hour of material; network television drama is costing $£ 100,000$ to $£ 200,000$ per hour or even more, while production costs of some TV commercials can reach $£ 100,000$ for 30 -seconds, not including the cost of airtime. By comparison programme budgets for radio are usually modest in the extreme.

One reason is that radio programmes are produced much faster with far smaller production teams and far less hassle.

Recently I had personal experience of this while taking part in various TV and radio programmes. In each case what was required was a brief one-or-two minute session of off-the-cuff replies to questions.
The prime-time TV current affairs programme took up two mornings, including one morning with the full film production crew of eight people. The network radio spot, on the other hand, required a ten-minute visit to my office from a presenter/researcher with his own portable recorder. The local radio recording was a matter of an interview conducted over a noisy telephone line.

With the artival of the integrated TV camera/recorders such as the RCA "Hawkeye" and the Sony "Betacam" it would in theory be possible to produce TV news and current affairs almost as simply as with radio's portable audio recorder. But there are many reasons why, even with such equipment, production costs are likely to remain far, far higher for TV than radio.

This is one reason why truly local TV is never likely to be possible to full broadcastquality standards-even a tightly-budgeted TV national programme channel represents £100-million-plus per year in programme costs.


MARCH 1983 ISSUE ON SALE FRIDAY，FEBRUARY 18


## INTRODUCING



An easy and economical way to equip your workshop．Start ＂collecting＂these useful instruments．Full details will be published over the next six months．The first unit appears in the March issue and is a LABORATORY POWER SUPPLY． This provides dual outputs to cater for most needs of the hobbyist and experimenter．
1）Variable Supply： $0-20 \mathrm{~V}$ constant current overload protection within range $0-1.2 \mathrm{~A}$
2）Fixed Supply：5V 1A specifically designed for powering TLL circuitry．


MULTI－CHANNEL INTERCOM CAR THERMOMETER EXPANDED KEYBOARD FOR THE ZX81

## ALSO

## PLUS

# THE ELECTRONICS OF 

ONE method of sending a number of different signals through a single common medium without mixing them up was described in last month's article on carriers. Frequency division multiplex (f.d.m.) makes use of the time of occurrence of electrical events (Part 1), as manifested in the different periods of the various oscillation frequencies.

Another technique for achieving the same result-putting byways on to highways, so to speak-uses time inter vals more directly. Called time division multiplex (t.d.m.), it is now taking over from f.d.m. in trunk telecommunications and becoming increasingly important in local data transmission.

The whole purpose of multiplexing is to keep line and cable installations fully loaded with information so that they are utilised economically. In this way we save space, materials and money. But first a small digression on the subject of timing.

## IMPORTANCE OF TIMING

In your bank account the presence or absence of a mere " 0 " at a particular position on paper can make a lot of difference to the size of your balance or your overdraft. All digitally represented information is sensitive in this way. When such information is electrically transmitted from place to place, what then becomes significant is the occurrence or non-occurrence of an electrical symbol (for example, voltage or current value) at a particular time. Small variations in the value of the electrical quantity itself make no difference at all to the situation: what matters is whether the symbol is there or not there.

So in the digital electronics of IT systems the timing of electrical events is all-important. Indeed it is only through the relative timing of the electrical events that digital signals carry any meaning at all. Some of these relationships are internal to a given item of information. For example, in transmitting sequentially the group of binary digits 1101 , the whole
meaning of the group could depend on whether you start with the least significant digit or with the most significant digit.

The timing of the electrical events can also be in relation to some outside time reference such as an electronic clock.

The electronic clock is, in fact, a prominent feature of many digital IT systems. Often in the form of a crystal controlled pulse generator, it measures out the precise intervals of time in which the electrical values representing digits are permitted to occur. It's rather like an orchestral conductor-or more prosaically a metronome-defining the beat of a piece of music and hence the duration of its bars. Into the intervals so defined the performers insert notes and rests (the information) to produce sounds with a formal rhythmical structure and therefore a meaning as music.

BY T.E. IVALL C.Eng., M.I.E.R.E.
Place your two hands together so that the fingers of one hand are positioned between the fingers of the other. The finger time slots are now interleaved and so provide the timing conditions for multiplexing signals $L$ and $R$.

## INTERLEAVING

A rather more advanced analogy will show the interleaving of more than just two signals. Imagine the heads of several garden rakes laid on a table with the prongs pointing upwards. Line them up one behind the other so that the sets of prongs are staggered with respect to each other, as shown in Fig. 4.2(a). If you now view all the prongs from the side at table level they will appear interleaved as shown in (b).

What emerges clearly from (b) is that the time slots available for each individual signal are spaced some distance apart on

Multiplexer for data communications made by Racal-Milgo. This is a statistical multiplexer (see text) which takes data from up to 32 sources and issues the interleaved information sequentially on a single line at speeds up to 19,200 binary digits per second.


## TIME SLOTS

A t.d.m. transmission system, as sketched in Fig. 4.1, makes use of these "time slots". It assigns the common path successively to the different signals by allocating different time slots to pieces of these signals. You have a simple mechanical analogy right in front of you. Spread out the fingers of your two hands. The left-hand fingers represent time slots available for signal $L$ (imagine a line across the base of the fingers as the time scale) and similarly the right-hand fingers represent time slots for signal $R$.


Fig. 4.1. Outtine of a multiplex transmission system, for sending a group of separate signals (A to E) along a common path without mixing them up. In time division multiplex, portions of the separate signals are taken in turn, interleaved and transmitted in a continuous sequence along the common path.
the analogue of the time scale. How, then, can they be used to convey the information in the signal?

If we want to send an analogue signal like a speech waveform, it can be sampled at intervals corresponding to the occurrence of the time slots for that signal (see discussion on pulse code modulation in Part 2). But the t.d.m. system must be designed so that for each signal the intervals between time slots, and hence the sampling rate, will convey all the information we require (see relevant footnote in Part 2).

If, however, the signal consists of discrete binary digits, as in data transmission, this digital data can be generated at a rate that fits into the time slots available in the t.d.m. system (for example, eight digits per slot).

Figure 4.2 is only a rough analogy. In using the rake prongs to represent the time slots it suggests, wrongly, that there are gaps between the t.d.m. time slots. In reality the time slots follow directly after each other. In Fig. 4.2 you could convey this continuity by imagining the gaps to


Fig. 4.2. Mechanical analogy of interleaved time slots: (a) a view looking down on a group of five garden rake heads with the prongs pointing upwards; (b) a side view through all the rakes showing the interleaving of the five sets of prongs. Distance along the rakes is an analogue of time. Each set of prongs represents a sequence of time slots for conveying one signal.
be completely closed up by fatter prongs-or more rakes. The actual electrical conditions on the common path of a t.d.m. transmission system are something like Fig. 4.3 --though the voltage steps will not be so sharp, for reasons to be explained later in the series.

## ELECTRONIC HARDWARE

But how are the time slots shown in Fig. 4.3 actually established in the electronic hardware? It is simply a matter of switching the common path in Fig. 4.1whether twin-wire circuit, coaxial cable or optical fibre-to carry a piece of each signal in turn. The highway scans the byways, accepting their offerings one by one.

The principle can be illustrated by the analogy of a railway with a single-track section which takes trains coming from the "up" and "down" pairs of lines. This is operated by points, shown as selector switches in Fig. 4.4. Imagine, however, that the arrangement is not being used normally for trains going in opposite directions (trains $P$ and $X$ ) but for trains going in the same direction (trains $P$ and Q).

For the time that the points are switched to line 1 as shown, train $P$, representing an encoded signal sample, can travel from one end of line 1 to the other. This is one time slot. When train $P$ has completed the single track part of its journey, both sets of points are switched over to line 2 . For the time they are in this position, train $Q$-representing a piece of


Fig. 4.3. Successive time slots for portions of the five signals $A$ to $E$ in Fig. 4.1, with one extra slot per group to carry synchronising information. Each signal's time slot contains a group of binary digits formed from two voltage levels. These groups are binary coded samples of analogue signais (for example voice) or codes for alpha-numeric characters (for example data transmission).
another signal-can travel along the common track in a similar way. This is another time slot.

And this imaginary railway could of course be extended to allow the common single track to take trains from further lines, as indicated by the chain lines in the diagram. The right-hand set of points acts like the de-multiplexer in Fig. 4.1.

So the time slots are defined by the actions of the points at each end of the single-track section. In the real t.d.m. system the time slots are similarly defined by electronic switches at both ends of the common highway in Fig, 4.1. But to
make sure that all the pieces of signals go to their right destinations (for example, that train $P$ goes back on to line 1 and is not switched to line 2) the two electronic switches must work in exact synchronism.

## SYNCHRONISING

In Fig. 4.4 the two sets of points could be automatically operated together, at regular intervals, by a common electrical equipment controlled by a clock, as shown at the bottom of the diagram. The t.d.m. system in fact uses its elcctronic


Fig. 4.4. Railway analogue showing how coded samples from several different signals are interleaved into successive time slots by electronic switching. The lefthand set of points corresponds to the multiplexer in Fig. 4.1 while the right-hand set corresponds to the demultiplexer.
clock to synchronise the switches. This process takes the form of synchronising pulses sent along the common path by time division multiplexing just as if they were portions of actual signals, as shown in Fig. 4.3.

In telecommunications this t.d.m. principle is employed throughout the world for pulse code modulation trunk transmission systems (see Part 2). More locally it is being used to allow a number of terminals to work into a remote com puter via a single telephone line. A "statistical multiplexer" is one that takes advantage of any inactivity in signals to fill up the otherwise empty time slots with information from other, active signals, thereby increasing the number of signals that can be multiplexed for a given rate of transmission along the common path.

## BUSES AND INTERFACES

To transmit information between electronic units we must make sure that what comes from the output of one unit is effective as an input for another unit. It is not only a matter of getting the wires, plugs and sockets right but ensuring that
the electrical representation of the information on these conductors is compatible with the functioning of the units connected. If communication is to be achieved the "talker" must first make himself heard to the "listener". Then he must use a language that the listener can understand.

If a single manufacturer designed and produced all the units concerned he could make sure of these requirements himself. But because IT equipment is introduced by different firms at different times in the development of the technology there is a real problem to deal with. For example, we might need to connect together a computer, modems (Part 3), a multiplexer and several terminals of different kinds-all of which could come from different makers.

## STANDARD

## INTERFACE AND BUS

A sensible way of dealing with this problem is to have a standardised method of connection and information transmission that will cover all eventualities. This is the reason for the emergence of the


Videotex systems (formerly called Viewdata in the UK) send digitally-encoded information along telephone lines using the serial method shown in Fig. 4.5(a). This videotex business terminal made by Pye TMC can be used with the public Prestel service or in private information retrieval systems. (In Prestel, digital informa tion is sent from the computer data base to the terminal at a rate of 1200 binary digits per second; from terminal to data base at 75 binary digits per second.)
standard interface, as it is called, for connecting separate units, and the standard bus*, for connecting internally the different parts of a single equipment.

Typically, the interface is used for connecting terminals to a computer, while the bus is used inside a computer to transfer information between its central processor, its memory and its input and output devices. (The distinction between them is not rigid, however. One widely used connecting system, for example, is called the General Purpose Interface Bus.)

But because technology develops as an historical process influenced by commercial pressures, there is no single standardised interface and no single standardised bus. Instead we have a number of "standard" interfaces and buses, most of them originated by manufacturers or their trade associations. Nevertheless a few of them have been accepted world-wide and ratified by international bodies-which helps to avoid the utter confusion that would otherwise occur.

Although buses and interfaces can be very complicated in their electrical and mechanical detail they are simple in principle. They all depend on the three aspects of an electrical quantitymagnitude, position and time of occur-rence--that are used throughout IT to represent and convey information (see Part 1). The position of the electrical quantity is, of course, the particular conductor on which it occurs; the magnitude is, typically, a voltage or current; and the time of occurrence is when that voltage or current acts as an electrical symbol.

In this article we are mainly concerned with digital information. For analogue signals it certainly helps to standardise your system of connection between units, but the magnitude and time aspects of the electrical quantity are not so critical. One need only specify rąnges of, say, amplitude and frequency to transmit information successfully between units.

## SERIAL AND

## PARALLEL SYSTEMS

So in digital systems, magnitude, position and time are manipulated by engineers to produce different kinds of "standard"" buses and interfaces. For practical and economic reasons two main groups have emerged: serial and parallel. In serial systems the different magnitudes of the electrical quantity are sent one after the other. In parallel systems the different magnitudes are sent simultaneously.

As an analogy, consider the process of reading this magazine. The individual words (or perhaps small groups of words) forming a sentence enter the eye and brain serially. When one looks at a diagram, however, the component parts of its two-dimensional pattern are perceived simultaneously-in "parallel".

[^1]For serial transmission only one electrical circuit is needed to connect electronic units--the type of simple information path discussed in Part 3. For parallel transmission there have to be several such circuits between the units. Fig. 4.5 is a comparison between these serial and parallel methods of representing and conveying an item of information-here a number, or other character, encoded as the binary digits 1011.

In the serial case (a) the electrical magnitudes representing these four digits can only be sent one after the other through the single circuit connecting Units A and B. In the parallel case (b), however, all four electrical magnitudes representing the digits can be sent simultaneously on the four circuits (which share a common return conductor) between Units C and D.

So if each of the successive electrical symbols for the digits has a duration of 1 microsecond, the serial system (a) will take 4 microseconds to send the whole character while the parallel system (b) will take only 1 microsecond to send it.

This illustrates the general point that serial systems are slower in transmitting information than parallel systems. But in practice the single circuits of serial systems are extremely useful as interfaces because our existing telephone networks, both public and private, usually end up in simple pairs of wires running to individual instruments in homes, offices and factories. These single pairs are used in IT, for example, to connect terminals to distant computers or to connect facsimile machines to each other.

## SHORT DISTANCES

Where the distances between units are short and the cost of installing many parallel circuits is not very high, the system in (b) can be utilised, to take advantage of the high speed of information transmission it allows. In practice this means connections within a machine (for example, a computer) or within a room (example, test instruments working automatically together). The multiple conductors required are sometimes on printed circuit boards, sometimes in flat flexible cables.

Associated with these interfaces and buses one finds electronic devices which allow serial information to be converted to parallel information and vice-versa. An integrated circuit commonly used for this purpose is the "universal asynchronous receiver-transmitter (u.a.r.t.)".

Figure 4.5(b) could be an elementary bus. Practical buses in IT are, however, extremely complicated devices. One commonly used in microcomputers, for example, has 100 conductors altogether. Some of its circuits carry encoded characters (data), some convey encoded information on the storage locations of characters (addresses) and others carry control signals.

A bus provides a means for several different units to be connected to a common


Fig. 4.5. Two ways of transmitting the group of binary digits 1011 between units: (a) serial transmission on a single circuit, the electrical values representing digits following one after the other; (b) parallel transmission, with the four electrical values sent simultaneously on four separate circuits. Assuming equal durations of digit signals, (b) is much faster than (a). Note in (a) that the least significant digit (1.s.d.) is sent first and the most significant digit (m.s.d.) last.


Fig. 4.6. Parallel connections between Units C and D in Fig. 4.5(b) are here extended to a further electronic unit, Unit $E$. The connections become a bus, or common highway, which, by suitable time-sharing arrangements, can carry parallel information in either direction between any of the units. More units could be connected to the bus on the same principle.
highway, as shown in Fig. 4.6, allowing two-way transfers of parallel information (in Fig. 4.5(b) form) between the various units. But electrically only one transfer can take place at a time, so there have to be careful arrangements for time sharing using clock-defined "time slots" as described earlier.

## MICROPROCESSORS

Within a microprocessor, for example, where parallel information is continually being transferred between storage registers, a bus is electronically switched, in each time slot, to connect the output of one register to the input of another register. Buses are essential to IT systems using microprocessors, partly because these devices are designed to work with parallel information and partly because
the small physical size of integrated circuits limits the number of pins that can be put on them and so makes the time sharing of a common set of conductors absolutely necessary.

Even a standard interface based on the serial principle in Fig. 4.5(a) can be quite complicated in practice, as conductors for sending characters are not sufficient in themselves. Other circuits, carrying monitoring and control signals, are needed to ensure that the units at each end-say teleprinters-are in proper electrical contact and operating in synchronism (compare with time division multiplex). As an example, the V. 24 international standard serial interface (known also as RS232C in the USA) provides 25 conductors to cope with all the functions that may be required.

To be continued

## HEADACHE CURE

A unique new instrument from Canada promises to assist sufferers from tension headaches and is now being marketed in the UK.

Working on biofeedback principles, the Antache instrument has been developed for research, clinical and home use. It consists of a pair of headphones and electronic circuitry to which is attached an elasticised headband and electrodes.

In operation, the Antache continuously monitors and averages the wearer's electromyogram (EMG) and converts it into a pleasantly modulated tone. Using the pitch of this tone as a guide, it is claimed that the user soon learns how to relax the muscles in the scalp, face and neck which, when they become too tense, bring on the symptoms of tension headaches.

Providing the headache condition has first been diagnosed by a medical doctor and provided, too, that the doctor has approved the use of the device for the patient concerned, the Antache is quite safe for use in the home.

The major advantage of using biofeedback principles for the treatment of headaches is that, unlike drugs, there are no side effects and the user is not restricted in his activities immediately following treatment.

For more details of the Antache, readers should contact: Beam Components Ltd., Dept. EE, 108 High Street, Strood, Rochester, Kent ME2 4TR.

## Video games Shock

Video games help kids co-ordinate manual and visual skills. No doubt. But games manufacturers in the USA are reeling after a shock attack by opponents who claim on psychiatric grounds that as most kids prefer violent rather than educational games; they breed acceptance of violence as the norm.


## OVERTAKEN

Cars, until now the largest in money terms of Japanese imports into the UK, have been overtaken by video-cassette recorders. But discussions between the UK Department of Industry and Japan's Ministry of International Trade and Industry may result in establishment of manufacturing plants in the UK, possibly as joint ventures with UK companies, in the hope of stemming the import flood.

## LASER-FI

Playing your favourite pop or classical disc takes on a new meaning with the announcement from Pioneer of the introduction of the LaserDisc LD1 100 player.

Launched just in time for Christmas, the new player uses a laser beam to read a special disc and reproduce both hi fi stereo sound and "action" video pictures. It is claimed that the sound reproduction is on par with, or better than, f.m. radio and that picture quality is equal to "off-air" broadcasts.
Over 54,000 individual video frames are contained on each side of the acrylic encased disc and a random access facility enables the user to locate and "freeze" any individual frame. Slow motion operation is also possible.
Unlike the audio stylus the optical laser system makes no physical contact with the disc so there is no deterioration in sound or visual quality, no matter how many times the disc is played.
Additional user benefits claimed for the player include a CX noise reduction system and the facility to link with teletex and interface with computers.


## Cash Mountains

Leading British electronics manufacturers continue to beat the recession with growing order books and even money in the bank. Biggest cash mountain is at GEC with more than $£ 1$ billion. In comparison Plessey's liquidity is more like a molehill at $£ 180$ million following a 30 per cent rise in profits.

Cash in hand means takeover possibilities such as Plessey's recent acquisition of Stromberg Carlson in the USA.

## Solar Flight

Lockheed Missiles and Space is reported to have developed an aircraft powered entirely by solar cells.

With a wing span of up to $300 f t$ with the upper surface covered with solar cells it is claimed to fly non-stop for months at an altitude of $70,000 f$. Payload is only 1001b, sufficient for a spy-in-the-sky camera and associated radio telemetry and control equipment.
st -by-step fully illustrated assembly and fitting instructions with circuit descriptions.


BRANDLEADING ELECTRONICS NOW AVAILABLE IN KIT FORM


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## Electronic Car Security System

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- A most sophisticated accessory. Utilises a single chip mask programmed microprocessor incorporating a unique programme designed by EDA Sparkrite Lid. Affords 12 functions cenired on Fuel, Speed. Distance and Time. Visual and Audible alarms warning of Excess Speed, Frost/Ice, Lights-left-on. Facility to operate LOG and TRIP functions independently or synchronously - Large 10 mm high $400 f t-t$ fluorescent display with auto intensity Unique speed and fuel transducers giving a programmed accuracy of + or $-1 \%$ Large LOG \& TRIP memories. 2.000 miles. 180 gallons 100 hours. Full Imperial and Metric calibrations. Over 300 components to assemble A real challenge for the electronics enthustast!


## S×1000

Electronic Ignition

- Inductive Discharge
- Extended coil energy
storage circuit
- Contaci breaker driven
- Three position changeover switch - Over 65 components to assemble - Patented clip-to-coil fitting - Fits all 12 v neg. earth vehicles



## SX2000

## Electronic Ignition

- The brandleading system on the market today - Unique Reactive Discharge
- Combined Inductive and

Capacitive Discharge

* Contact breaker driven
- Three position changeover switch - Over 130 components to assemble - Patented clip-to-coil fitting


## TX1002

## Electronic Ignition

- Contactless or contact triggered - Extended coil energy storage circuit - Inductive Discharge Three position changeover switch Distributor triggerhead adaptors included Die cast weatherproof case - Clip-to-coil or remote mounting facility Fits majority of 4 G 6 cyl . 12V. neg. earth vehicles Over 145 components to assemble.



## Electronic Ignition

TX2002

- The ultimate system - Switchable contactless Three position switch with Auxiliary back-up inductive circuit - Reactive Discharge. Combined capacitive and inductive. Extended coil energy storage circuit Magnetic contactless distributortrigger head - Distributor triggerhead adaptors included - Can also be triggered by existing contact breakers - Die cast waterproof case with clip-to-coil fitting 0 Fits majority of 4 and 6 cylinder 12 v neg. earth vehicles - Over 150 components to assemble
- Fits all $12 v$ neg. earth vehicles



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Throw dispiayed for 10 seconds

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BOOSTS AVERA GE LEVEL OF SOUND WITHOUT INCREASING PEAK LEVEL
SUITABLE FOR CONNEGTION BETWEEN MICROPHONE AND AMPLIFIER

ASPEECH processor is a device which is used to process a speech signal in such a way that the strength of the signal is effectively boosted without any increase in the peak level of the signal.

Units of this type rely on the fact that a speech signal has a rather high peak level when compared to the average level, and the increase in "talk power" can be obtained by boosting the signal but clipping the peaks so that there is no increase in the peak level. Thus the peak level remains unchanged, but the average signal level is greatly boosted, and the volume of the signal is effectively boosted by a substantial amount.

Speech processors are mainly úsed in communications equipment; sometimes as an integral part of a transceiver, and sometimes as an add-on unit which connects between the microphone and the transceiver. Speech processors can also be used to good effect in other types of equipment, such as a public address system.

The unit described here is a reasonably simple but effective device which is battery powered, and is simply connected between the microphone and the transceiver or other equipment. It is intended for use with a high impedance dynamic microphone or an electret type, having a built-in step-up transformer, and this should present no problems since most communications and PA microphones are the high impedance dynamic type.

## PROCESSOR SYSTEMS

There is more than one way of obtaining the limiting of signal peaks, and one method is to use a form of automatic gain control circuit. Here the processor adjusts the level of gain so that it is automatically reduced during periods of high dynamic level and increased during periods of low dynamic level.

This obviously gives the required narrowing of the difference between the peak and average signal amplitudes, but the circuit must be designed to respond very rapidly to changes in signal level if it is to be of real benefit. This can easily result in the signal waveform being seriously distorted with a lot of distortion being evident on the output signal.

Slower response times give reduced distortion, but also give a reduction in effectiveness. Of course, a certain amount of distortion is quite acceptable in this application, but more than several per cent distortion would impair the intelligibility of the processed signal and obviously reduce the benefit of the unit.

## DISTORTION REDUCTION

A very simple method of speech processing is to use a clipping circuit which prevents the output signal voltage from exceeding a certain level. The circuit is adjusted so that most of the signal is below the clipping level and is unaffected by the unit, but so that the high signal peaks are held down and kept well below their normal level.

This system has the advantage of simplicity plus instant attack and decay
Upper Trace: Soft-limited sinewave, Lower Trace: 800 Hz sinewave input signal.

times, but in this basic form it produces quite high levels of distortion. The distortion products produced consist mainly of harmonics, and harmonics are simply multiples of the frequencies in the clipped signals.

In order to obtain really good results from a clipping circuit it is necessary to include additional circuitry to minimise the distortion generated. The most sophisticated method of achieving this is to use an r.f. clipping circuit, and with this system the input signal is first processed to raise all the input frequencies by a substantial amount so that they are increased into the radio frequency (r.f.) range.

For example, the input frequencies could be raised by 100 kHz , and then they would be at frequencies from just over 100 kHz to about 120 kHz . After clipping, harmonics would still be generated, but these would be at frequencies of about 200 to $240 \mathrm{kHz}, 300$ to $360 \mathrm{kHz}, 400$ to 480 kHz , and so on. These are well clear of the input frequency range, and can be filtered from the output to leave a distortion-free signal which is then processed to restore the original audio frequencies.

The severe drawback of this system is
Upper Trace: Hard-limited sinewave. Lower Trace: 800 Hz sinewave input.

the cost and complexity, unless it is an internal part of an s.s.b. transmitter. For use with other types of equipment an addon processor of this type could cost more than the main item of equipment!

## SIMPLIFIED DESIGN

What is needed is a simpler method of obtaining a similar effect, and a system of this type is used in the processor described here. Fig. I shows the arrangement used in this processor in block diagram form.

The microphone signal is first amplified and then fed to a further stage of amplification by way of a variable gain control. This amplification is needed because the output of a microphone is at a fairly low amplitude, and it is not easy to produce a clipping circuit which operates at such low signal levels.

The signal is therefore boosted to a level where clipping can be achieved more readily. The gain control enables the unit to be adjusted to give the desired degree of clipping.

The next stage is a high pass filter, and this removes the lower frequencies in the signal. Frequencies below about 300 hertz contribute nothing to intelligibility, and can even impede it. These frequencies would be most troublesome if not removed as they would produce numerous harmonics right through the middle and upper audio range when the clipping was applied, and the removal of these frequencies substantially reduces the distortion level at the output.

## SOFT CLIPPING

Distortion can be further reduced by using a soft clipping circuit rather than a normal hard clipping type, and so a soft limiter is used here.

The difference between the two is that a hard limiter permits no significant increase in the output level once the clipping level has been reached, no matter how large the input signal is made, whereas a soft limiter permits a slight increase in the output ampitude as the impue is incieased above the clipping threshold.

The use of soft limiting gives only a very marginal reduction in efficiency, and the fundamental signal is significantly stronger and the harmonics significantly weaker when compared to results using a hard limiter.

A l.e.d. indicator is switched on while the limiter is driven beyond the clipping threshold, and this makes it much easier to adjust the gain control correctly.

Most of the harmonics on the output signal will be at frequencies of about 3 kHz and above, and frequencies in this range aid the intelligibility of a speech signal very little. A low-pass filter at the output of the unit is therefore used to severely attenuate signails at these frequencies, thereby greatly reducing the level of distortion on the output.

The final section of the unit is simply an attenuator which reduces the output level to one that is comparable to the

Fig. 1. Block diagram of Speech Processor.

input signal level. This enables the processor to be connected between the microphone and the main equipment without introducing any compatibility probiems.

This system does not completely eliminate distortion from the output since some input frequencies (those at about

300 Hz to about 1.5 kHz ) will be fed to the limiter and will produce at least one distortion product that will not be removed by the low-pass filtering at the output. However, the distortion is kept down to acceptable levels provided an excessive amount of clipping is not employed, and the unit certainly seems to make a very

## COMPONENTS Wiat

| Resistors |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| R1 | $47 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R2 | $15 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R3 | $15 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R4 | $270 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R5 | $2.7 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ |
| R6 | $6.8 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R7 | $22 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R8 | $220 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R9 | $220 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R10 | $4.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| R11 | $4.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| All $\frac{1}{3}$ watt carbon $\pm 5 \%$ |  |


| R 12 | $560 \Omega$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $R 13$ | $180 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| $R 14$ | $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| $R 15$ | $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| $R 16$ | $100 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| $R 17$ | $3.9 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| $R 17$ | $3.9 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| $R 18$ | $3.9 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| $R 19$ | $3.9 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| $R 20$ | $4.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |
| $R 21$ | $470 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |

All $\frac{1}{3}$ watt carbon $\pm 5 \%$

100nF polyester (C280)
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { C3 } & \text { 47nF polyester (C280) } \\ \text { 330pF ceramic plate }\end{array}$
C4 $\quad 1 \mu \mathrm{~F} 16 \mathrm{~V}$ elect.
C5 $\quad 0.47 \mu \mathrm{~F} 10 \mathrm{~V}$ elect. radial leads
C6 220nF polyester (C280)
C7 $\quad 10 \mathrm{nF}$ polyester (C280)
C8 $\quad 10 \mathrm{nF}$ polyester (C280)
C9 $\quad 0.47 \mu \mathrm{~F}$ iov elect. radial leads
Clo 47 pF cenamic plave
C11 100nF polyester (C280)
C12 22 nF polyester (C280)
C13 $\quad 3.3 \mathrm{nF}$ ceramic plate
C14 $\quad 10 \mathrm{nF}$ polyester (C280)
C15 $2 \cdot 2 \mathrm{nF}$ polystyrene
C16 120 pF ceramic plate
C17 22 nF polyester (C280)

## Semiconductors



worthwhile improvement when used with communications equipment under adverse operating conditions.

Of course, if conditions are such that proper contact is easily achieved with no interference and good signal strengths, there is little room for improvement and a speech processor can be of little help. It is only when conditions are poor that the effect of a speech processor will become apparent.

## THE CIRCUIT

Fig. 2 shows the complete circuit diagram of the Speech Processor.

ICl is an operational amplifier used in the inverting mode and this acts as the microphone pre-amplifier. This stage has its voltage gain set at a modest level of about six times by R1 and R4, and R1 also sets the input impedance at a suitable level of about $47 \mathrm{k} \Omega$.

C3 is an r.f. filter capacitor and helps to prevent problems with r.f. breakthrough and consequent instability if the unit is used in a strong r.f. field.

IC1 is a low noise device having a j.f.e.t. input stage and this gives the unit a good signal to-noise ratio.

VRI is used to control the degree of clipping and the output from its wiper is fed to a high gain common emitter amplifier which uses TRI in the standard configuration. The gain of IC1 together with the gain provided by TR1 enables the microphone signal to be readily boosted to a level of several volts peak-topeak, and this is sufficient to drive the clipping circuit.

## SIGNAL CONTROL

The high-pass filter is an active type which uses the Sallen and Key configuration and has a nominal attenuation rate of 12 dB per octave below the 300 Hz cut off frequency. There is unity gain through this stage at frequencies of 300 Hz and above.



Fig. 2. Complete circuit diagram of Speech Processor.

Fig. 3(a). Topside of stripboard showing component layout.

Fig. 3(b). Underside of stripboard showing breaks in copper strips.

Fig. 4. Exploded view of unit showing interwiring for off-board components.


D1 and D2 are used as the basis of the clipping circuit, D1 processing negative half-cycles and D2 processing positive ones. If the input signal level is less than about $\pm 0 \cdot 5$ volts neither D1 or D2 will conduct and the signal can pass straight through R11 to the next stage of the unit.

If the signal level should exceed about 0.5 volts, either D1 or D2 (depending on the polarity of the signal) will be biased past its forward threshold voltage and will conduct heavily. This produces a voltage drop through R 11 which tends to hold the signal voltage at little more than 0.5 volts even if the input level should be much more than this.

R12 introduces the softening of the clipping action since a current flowing through D1 or D2 must also flow through R12 as well, producing a small voltage across R12, which is proportional to the current flow. Thus the output signal at the junction of R11 and R12 can go slightly above the clipping threshold and the soft clipping is obtained.

## CLIPPING INDICATOR

IC2 is used as the 1.e.d. driver, and in this application IC2 is a comparator rather than an operational amplifier. R13 and D3 form a simple voltage regulator circuit which biases the inverting input to about $\pm 0.5$ volts. The non-inverting input will normally be at a lower potential than this so that the output will be at zero volts and l.e.d. indicator D4 will be switched off.

During positive signal peaks if the clipping level is exceeded, the non-inverting input will be taken above 0.5 volts so that the output of IC 2 switches to virtually the full positive supply voltage and D4 is pulsed on to indicate that clipping is occurring.

The output filter is another Sallen and Key active filter, but this time a four section circuit has been used so that a nominal attenuation rate of 24 dB per octave is achieved. It is of course a low-pass filter that is used here, and the cut off frequency is about 3 kHz . Further low-pass filtering is provided by R22 and C16.

C17 is the output d.c. blocking capacitor and VR2 is the pre-set output attenuator.

As the circuit has a current consumption of only about 4.5 mA a small (PP3 size) 9 -volt battery will give many hours of use before needing replacement.

## CASE

An aluminium box having approximate outside dimensions of $133 \times 102 \times$ 38 mm makes a suitable housing for the processor, and this is about the smallest case that will comfortably accommodate all the components. SK 1, D4, VR1 and S1 are fitted on the front panel, and SK2 is mounted on the rear panel. SK 1 and SK2 are both standard ( $\frac{1}{4}$ inch jack sockets).


Plan view showing component layout inside case.


Rear view showing front panel component wiring.

## CIRCUIT BOARD

The component panel is a 0.1 inch matrix stripboard having 24 strips by 36 holes, and this can conveniently be a standard 37 holes by 24 strips board with one row of holes trimmed off or just ignored. Drill the two 3.3 mm diameter mounting holes (which accept M3 or 6BA fixings) and make the numerous breaks in the copper strips before fitting the components on to the board. There are also six link wires to be soldered in place on the board. Use pins at the points where connections are to be made to the off-board components. Fig. 3 gives full details of the component board.

The completed component panel is mounted on the base panel of the case leaving sufficient space for the battery between the board and the components on the front panel. Use 6 mm spacers over
the mounting screws to keep the connections on the underside of the board well separated from the metal case. The remaining wiring is then completed using ordinary p.v.c. insulated connecting wire, and finally the battery clip is wired in place. All this wiring is illustrated in Fig. 4.

## ADJUSTMENT

Only one internal adjustment is necessary before the unit is ready for use, and that is to set VR2 to give an output level which is comparable to the output of the microphone used with the unit.

If suitable measuring equipment to assist with this is not available, then it is really a matter of connecting the processor to the main unit using a suitable lead, plugging the microphone into the processor, and then adjusting VR2 by trial and error to a setting which
gives results similar to those obtained without using the processor. While doing this VR1 should have a setting that is just high enough to cause clipping, which will be indicated by D4 just flashing briefly on signal peaks.

In normal use VR1 would be advanced somewhat further than this so that D4 lights up quite brightly whenever an input signal is present. It is probably best to monitor the output signal using an amplifier and headphones, or using a taperecorder perhaps, when initially experimenting with various settings of VR1. This soon shows the benefit in apparent volume increase as VR1 is taken above the clipping threshold, and how excessive clipping simply gives increased distortion and no further increase in volume. Best results are obtained with VRI advanced, just far enough to give a well clipped signal.

## BOOK REVIEWS

PRACTICAL ELECTRONICS FOR<br>RAILWAY MODELLERS<br>Author Roger Amos<br>Price $\quad € 7.95$<br>Size $\quad 240 \times 156 \mathrm{~mm} .160$ pages. Hardback<br>Publisher Patrick Stephens Ltd<br>ISBN O-85059-555-X

ANYONE who has watched the operation of a modern model railway will realise that there is ample scope for using electronics in the control system. But as this excellent book shows, the railway modeller can make good use of electronic circuitry in many other ways. There is for example a chapter on Sound Effects, with circuits for simulating a steam whistle, the "chuffing" of steam engines, and so on.

The reader is assumed to be familiar with switches and volts but not with electronic devices. These are briefly explained as
they are introduced in specific projects. A section of Practical Information near the end of the book gives more general information.

Topics covered include controllers, train detection systems, automatic signalling and points controls, and lighting systems, including high-frequency supplies. The only conspicuous lack is of detailed constructional information.
G.S.

## BEGINNER'S GUIDE TO BASIC PROGRAMMING

| Author | A. P. Stephenson |
| :--- | :--- |
| Price | £ 3.95 |
| Size | $186 \times 120 \mathrm{~mm}$. 192 pages |
| Publisher | Newnes Technical Books |
| ISBN | $040801184 X$ |

THIS paperback is an introduction to newcomers to computer programming. It is aimed at teaching the use of BASIC computer language as used on microcomputers, rather than large mainframe computers. It should therefore be of use to the newcomer who wants to take up computing as a hobby and to do more than just slavishly copy other people's programs.

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G.S.


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# EPROM PROGRammer FOR THE ACORI ATOM 



BY D. C. GRINDROD

THE device to be described here will provide a simple, fast and relatively inexpensive method of programming and reading 2 K and 4 K byte single supply rail ( +5 V ) erroms (Erasable and Programmable Read Only Memory) using the Acorn Atom computer.

It is able to program the following EPROMS (1) TMS2516, 2716 and other manufacturers' pin compatible types; (2) TMS2532 and other manufacturers' pin compatible types. It is not suitable for use with Intel 2732 type EPROMS or other manufacturers' compatible types.


Fig. 1. Pin-out diagram for the 2716 and 2532 EPROMS. Note the different functions for pins 18 and 20 for the two types.

Although specifically designed for use with the Acorn Atom (for which it was developed to overcome loading of frequently used long programs from cassette), it could also be used with other computers with modifications to connecting cables and suitably developed software.

The software controls all pulses and addressing, leaving the user to select only MODE (READ/PROG) and SIZE ( $2 \mathrm{~K} / 4 \mathrm{~K}$ ).

To be able to address up to 4096 bytes (4K) address lines A 0 to A 11 are required. A0 to A7 are provided by port A (£B801) of the VIA and A8 to A11 by the four lowest bits of port C ( $£ \mathrm{~B} 002$ ) of the 8255 . This break is not as awkward as would first be thought, as it occurs on a 255 byte boundary. The maximum number held in a single byte is 255 , hence a carry procedure would be needed anyway.

Figure 1 and Table 1 show the pinning, programming and reading requirements of the two types of EPROMS catered for by this programmer from which we can see that they differ in the following respects:
(1) $\overline{\mathrm{CE}} / \mathrm{PGM}$ is a different pin
(2) 2532 has an extra address line
(3) The pulse required for programming is -ve going for the 2532 and + ve going for the 2716
The first two differences are overcome by a d.p.d.t. switch, S 1 , while the third is dealt with by the software.

## PROGRAMS

The original idea was to use EPROMS as a semi-permanent storage medium for long programs that were used often and hence reduce the time needed for loading from cassette.

Since each byte programmed needs a 50 ms pulse the programming time is not greatly affected by the language used, thus, it was decided to use a Basic progam to control programming of the EPROM.

Table 1 : Mode selection for the 2716 and 2532 Eproms

| TYPE | 2716 (2K) |  |  |  |  | 2532 (4K) |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | CE/PGM <br> (18) | $\begin{aligned} & \overline{0 E} \\ & (20) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & V_{p p} \\ & (21) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & V_{C C} \\ & (24) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Outputs } \\ & (9-11, \\ & 13-17) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \overline{C E} / \mathrm{PGM} \\ & (20) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & V_{p p} \\ & (21) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & V_{C C} \\ & (24) \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Dutputs } \\ & (9-11, \\ & 13-17) \end{aligned}$ |
| Read | $V_{1 L}$ | $V_{1 L}$ | +5 | +5 | $\mathrm{D}_{\text {OUT }}$ | V 11 | $+5 \mathrm{~V}$ | + 5 | $\mathrm{D}_{\text {OUT }}$ |
| Standby | $\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{HH}}$ | Don't Care | +5 | +5 | High 2 | $V_{\text {H }}$ | $+5 \mathrm{~V}$ | + 5 | High Z |
| Program | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Pulsed } \\ & V_{I L} \text { to } V_{I H} \end{aligned}$ | $\mathrm{V}_{\text {IH }}$ | +25 | +5 | $\mathrm{D}_{\text {IN }}$ | $\begin{gathered} \text { Puised } \\ V_{\text {IH }} \text { to } \\ V_{\text {II }} \end{gathered}$ | $+25 \mathrm{~V}$ | + 5 | $\mathrm{D}_{\mathrm{N}}$ |
| Program Venty | VIL | $V_{1}$ | +25 | + 5 | $\mathrm{D}_{0 \text { OT }}$ | - | - | - | - |
| Program Inhibit | VIL | $V_{\text {IH }}$ | $+25$ | + 5 | High 2 | $\mathrm{V}_{\text {IH }}$ | +25V | +5 | High Z |

[^2]

When reading the EPROM however, the time taken is determined by the language, therefore a fully re-locatable machine code program was developed which is small enough ( 79 bytes) to fit above the floating point variables at $£ 2890$. EPROM/RAM start and EPROM end addresses are stored in the two lowest bytes of the integer variables $\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{B}$ and C , respectively.

## CIRCUIT DESCRIPTION

The complete circuit diagram for the Eprom Programmer is shown in Fig. 2. Nearly all the circuitry is for the generation from the mains supply of the +5 and +25 volt supply lines. We shall discuss this section first.
A.c. mains voltage enters the unit and reaches T1 primary winding via the onoff switch S3 and fuse FS1. T1 is a stepdown transformer having two independent secondaries, each developing 20 V a.c. across their windings.

The diode bridge D3-D6 provides fullwave rectification of the upper secondary voltage. The resulting pulsed d.c. is smoothed by C3 to reach the input of IC1. The latter is a monolithic voltage regulator i.c. which normally provides a stabilised 15 V output. However, in this circuit the output voltage is stepped-up to 25 V by the action of VR2 in series with the common connection.

## 

| Resistors |  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { SK3,4 } \\ & \text { SK5 } \end{aligned}$ | 16-pin d.i.l. (2 off) 24-pin d.i.l. +24 -pin zero insertion force socket |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| R1 | $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$$390 \Omega$ |  |  |
| R2 |  |  |  |
| R3 | $4.7 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ |  |  |
| All $\frac{1}{4}$ W ca | rbon $\pm 5 \%$ | SK6 | 4-way inter-p.c.b. |
| Capacitors page 85 |  |  | ${ }_{7}$ connector |
| C1,4 | $0.047 \mu \mathrm{~F} 35 \mathrm{~V}$ tantalum (2 off) |  | $5-w a y 270^{\circ}$ DIN |
|  |  | $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{PL2} \\ & \mathrm{PL} 3,4 \end{aligned}$ | 16 -pin d.i.l. header |
| C2,5 | $0.022 \mu \mathrm{~F} \mathrm{35V}$ tantalum(20ff) | PL6 | (2 off) |
|  |  |  | 4-way inter-p.c.b. |
| C3,6 | $100 \mu \mathrm{~F} 35 \mathrm{~V}$ elect. <br> (2 off) | $\begin{aligned} & \text { VR1 } \\ & \text { VR2 } \end{aligned}$ | connector $5 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ multiturn preset |
|  |  |  | $1 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ miniature |
| Semiconductors |  | FS1 | horizontal skeleton |
| D1 | bi-coloured (red/green) |  | preset |
|  | l.e.d. |  | mounting fuseholder |
| D2 | TIL220 red l.e.d. | T1 | mains primary/ $/ 0-20 \mathrm{~V}$, |
| D3-6 ? | VM18 1A 50V bridge |  | $0-20 \mathrm{~V} 6 \mathrm{VA}$ |
| D7-10) | rectifier d.i.l. (2 off) |  | secondaries p.c.b. |
|  | 7815 15V 1 A voltage |  | mounting-see text |
| IC2 | 7805 5V 1 A voltage regulator (TO-220) | Stripboard, 0.1 inch matrix; 17 |  |
|  |  | strips $\times 51$ holes, 25 strips $\times 25$ holes; 6BA mounting hardware for |  |
| Miscellaneous |  | circuit boards; Speedbloc cable or other: case, plastic size $190 \times$ |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| S1,2,3 | d.p.d.t. miniaturetoggle ( 3 off) | or other; case, plastic, size $190 \times$ <br> $110 \times 60 \mathrm{~mm}$ (Tandy 270-224): |  |
|  |  | 2-core mains cable; clips and bushes for l.e.d.s.; self-adhesive |  |
| SK1 | toggle (3 off) 64 -way ( $\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{b}$ ) in-line |  |  |  |
|  | indirect connector 5 -way $270^{\circ}$ DIN | rubber feet for case ( 4 off); sleeving. |  |
| SK2 |  |  |  |  |
| Guidance only. Appox. cost |  |  |  |



Fig. 2. Complete circuit diagram of the EPROM Programmer. The power supply section is shown above and the circuit (left) gives the interconnections from the 24pin d.i.l. socket to the Acorn Atom computer.

Cl and C 2 are included for reasons of stability. Similarly, a smooth voltage level of about 28 V reaches the input of IC2 to provide a +5 V output stabilised. C4 and C5 are included for reasons of stability. R3 acts as a bleed resistor for IC2.

The power supply is more than adequate, the maximum requirements being for the 4 K EPROM: 5 V at $150 \mathrm{~mA}, 25 \mathrm{~V}$ at 30 mA .

The power supply is built on a circuit board separate from the remainder and
connects to it by means of p.c.b. inter sockets/plugs (SK 6/PL6).

The +5 V and 0 V rails reach pins 24 and 12 , respectively, of the EPROM socket SK 5.

The bi-coloured l.e.d. D1 is an optional extra which was included to show the mode of operation. This was also marked around $S 2$ on the top panel. In the prototype it was orientated so that it lights up red for PROGramming mode, and green in the READ mode. VRI needs to be set to give equal brightness of the two colours, this will be described later.

The address and data for the EProm are made available by the software at various pins on PL6 on the Atom and the cassette port. These signals are under full software control.

The 25 V supply is only needed for programming and therefore only reaches pin 21 of the eprom when $S 2$ is in the PROGramming mode. In the READ mode $V_{\text {pp }}$ should be at +5 V .

The only other control is S1, the R $\mathbf{R} 0 \mathrm{~m}$ SIZE switch. This routes the program signal to the appropriate pin according to Fig. 1, and brings in A 11 as required.


Next Month: Construction and Testing


IC2 forms a slow-running astable multivibrator the output of which is fed to the reset pin of IC1. The chirping will be switched on and off because IC1 can only oscillate when pin 4 is positive. VR1 alters the time between each burst of
"chirps". The component values are by no means critical and may be experimented with.

> Mark Robinson, Winsford, Cheshire.

## CHIRPING BIRD

This circuit produces a sound similar to a chirping bird. TR1 and associated components form a sine-wave oscillator which runs fairly quickly. Increasing the values of C1, C2 and C3 would slow down the chirp rate, but they must all be the same value to produce the required phase shift.

The output of this oscillator is fed to the control pin (pin 5) of a 555 astable multivibrator IC1 which produces a high frequency square-wave at pin 3. R7 may be increased to lower the volume but the sum of R7 and the speaker resistance must not be less than 100 ohms, otherwise the current drawn by LSI could damage IC1.

The output, therefore, is a square-wave modulated by the sine-wave which produces the characteristic "chirp" sound.


MORE ON PAGE 118


THE trouble with earphones, head phones and allied devices is that it is only too easy to take them for granted. You make your miniature personal radio, say, and then you think: Ah, yes; it'll need an earphone. The chances are that you try some old earphone salvaged from a defunct radio and plug it in, hoping for the best.

## IMPEDANCE

Quite often, it doesn't work, or at least doesn't work well. The most frequent explanation is that its impedance is too low or too high to suit the circuit to which you attach it. Most of the little plastic earphones which come with pocket radios have low impedance, often 8 ohms. This

A common arrangement was to have two earpieces each of whose impedances was 1000 or 2000 ohms. These could be connected in series to give 2000 or 4000 ohms or in parallel for 500 or 1000 ohms. They were extremely sensitive: they had to be to give any volume from a crystal set whose only power was what the aerial picked up. They were-usually poor quality sound reproducers with a huge resonance at about 1 kHz .

Today's two-earpiece headphones are usually very different. A typical pair of low-cost "stereo phones" contains in its rather large and comfortably padded earpieces a couple of small loudspeakers. These are usually of 8 ohms impedance and they are connected as shown in Fig. 1a. The connections are often brought out to a jack plug with three contact segments.

For stereo listening (b) the "live" sides of the two audio channels are connected to points 1 and 3 ; point 2 is the common or earthy connection.

For non-stereo use you have the option of using the two in series (c) to give an impedance of 16 ohms or in parallel (d) for 4 ohms. It is possible to obtain stereo phones of other impedances. Sound engineers may use 600 -ohm phones for instance. But $2 \times 8 \mathrm{ohms}$ is by far the commonest impedance. Actually this too

The low-impedance earphones contain a little coil of fine wire, a magnet, and some sort of diaphragm which is moved either by the magnetic field or by movement of the coil in the field.

The crystal types contain a thin piece of special material (an insulator) metallised on both sides to form a capacitor. The material bends under the influence of an audio voltage, to produce the sound. Being a capacitor, a crystal earphone does not pass d.c. Its resistance is infinite. But it offers an impedance to a.c. which falls as the frequency rises. This tends to make it accentuate treble notes.

In circuits like Fig. 2, where the audio is developed across a fairly high resistance (here $10 \mathrm{k} \Omega$ ) a crystal earphone is the natural choice. Since it passes no d.c. it may also be connected as shown dotted, no coupling capacitor being needed.

## TRANSFORMER MATCHING

There are times when it is necessary to match a low impedance earphone to a high impedance audio source. This is a job for a transformer (Fig. 3).

Transformers need to be specified with care since many factors affect their performance. But when correctly designed


Fig. 1. The wiring configuration for stereo headphones is shown in (a) with the audio channels connected at points 1 and 3 (b) and earth at point 2. For mono use the headphones may be connected in series (c) or parallel (d).


Fig. 2. In this circuit the audio is produced across a high resistance, so a crystal earphone is used since it passes no d.c.
is fine if they are connected so as to replace an 8 -ohm loudspeaker. But many home-built radios are designed to work into earphones of very much higher impedance.

In the old days of radio, the crystal set era, people listened on headphones whose two earphones were magnetic devices with an impedance of as much as 4000 ohms. In fact that was the d.c. resistance; the impedance to audio frequencies was very much higher.
is really the d.c. resistance but the a.c. impedance at most audio frequencies is about the same.

## CRYSTAL EARPHONES

For really high impedance nowadays you must use crystal earphones. The single type looks just like one of the lowimpedance magnetic earphones, and beginners sometimes come to grief by mistaking one for the other. But inside they are totally different.
and used they multiply the impedance of the earphone by the square of the ratio of turns on the primary to turns on the secondary. Thus a turns ratio of 10 multiplies 8 ohms to 800 ohms.

The current is multiplied by the same number which is why the use of a matching transformer can produce a big increase in volume, though only when conditions allow this. A transformer can't make energy, it can only enable you to make the best use of the available energy.


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## JOGGER'S PACEMAKER

This circuit produces a pulsing tone that can be used to heip joggers keep a constant pace and, by increasing the pulse rate, improve their running.

By counting the number of steps the jogger takes it is also possible to calculate the approximate distance that has been run. This is achieved by changing the frequency of the puising tone every 500 or 1000 steps.

ICla and ICIb form an oscillator that generates a tone of about 1000 Hz . A second oscillator is formed by IC 1c and ICId and this controls the running pace by switching the first oscillator on and off. The pulse rate is set by potentiometer VRI.

To count the steps, the puises from the slower oscillator are fed into a 14 -stage binary counter IC2. When approximately 500 (exactly 512) pulses havę been counted by IC2, pin 14 goes high and changes the frequency of the tone produced by ICla-IClb. After a furtier 512 puises pin 14 goes low again and the tone changes back to the first frequency. If the

tone is to change every 1024 steps switch S1 should be set to pin 15 of IC2.

To calculate the distance you have run simply multiply the number of steps with
the length of your steps. For example: $1500 \times 1$ metre $=1.5 \mathrm{~km}$.

Joachim Ramkull,
Lund, Sweden.

## DISCO TRAFFIC ilGHTS

During the past few years many sound-to-light units have become
available. A variation on the normal light sequencer is presented here, which provides a traffic light sequence. The operation of the circuit is as follows:


An audio input of greater than 200 mV is amplified, and high frequency components of the signal are reduced by the inclusion of a low-pass filter. The signal then enters IC2a, a Schmitt trigger, which is included to reduce spurious pulses entering IC3. IC 3 is a 4 -bit binary counter, though this application utilises only two of its four outputs.

IC2b causes high level signals entering IC4a. IC4b and IC4d to be modulated at around 1 kHz . This is required for the operation of the transformers. The triacs should be chosen to suit the power rating of the bulbs.

The sequence is as shown below:

| Q0 | Q1 | Output |
| :---: | :---: | :--- |
| 0 | 0 | Green |
| 1 | 0 | Amber |
| 0 | 1 | Red |
| 1 | 1 | Red and Amber |

Since this cycle repeats, the standard traffic light sequence (Red, Red and Amber, Green, Amber and back to Red) is followed.
A. Marshall, Old Basford, Nottingham.

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BIG EAR'
As in December Hobby Electronics. Designed originally for wails or from long distances. Complete kit including the case f $f 950$
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[^0]:    Our March 1983 issue will be published on Friday, February 18. See page 99 for details.

[^1]:    * The term "bus" is of course an abbreviated form of the Latin omnibus, meaning "for all" (cf. "busbar" in electrical engineering).

[^2]:    $V_{I L}$ logic low, $V_{I H}$ logic high

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