

ELECTRONICS & Wireless World

April 1985 85p

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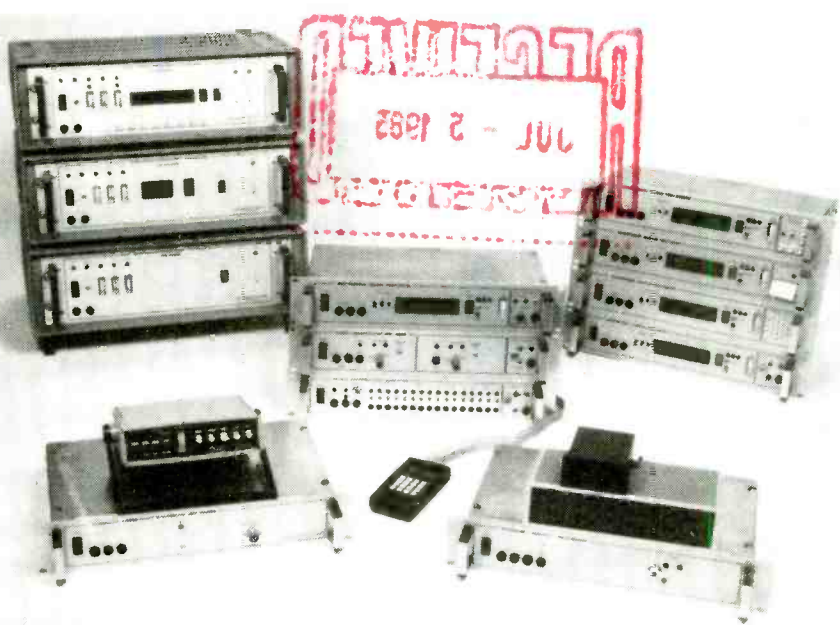


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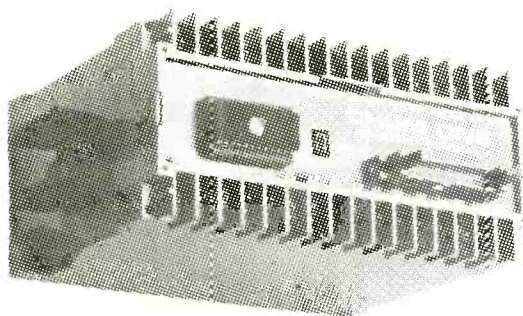
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The ICOM IC-125T's small size enables unobtrusive installation in any vehicle, a strong security factor.

This mobile transceiver from ICOM offers a great deal to dealers, suppliers and users of PMR mobiles for CBS message handling and small private installations where security is concerned. Despite its small proportions the IC-125T has 25 watt output and is synthesized.

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For more details contact your local ICOM dealer. If you are unable to locate an ICOM dealer in your own area or country, contact Thanet Electronics Ltd. at the address below.

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ELECTRONICS & Wirelessworld

over 70 years in independent electronics publishing

April 1985

JUL - 5 1985

Volume 91 number 1590

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Radar and television - interchange and spin-off

Continuing the survey of British invention and benefits of radar and television research.

In February 1953, a television set was shown at an exhibition in London. It was the first television set to be shown in the UK. It was a black and white set, and it was built by the BBC. It was a very simple set, and it was very expensive. It cost £100. It was a very important set, and it was a very successful set. It was a very good set, and it was a very nice set. It was a very beautiful set, and it was a very interesting set. It was a very useful set, and it was a very practical set. It was a very reliable set, and it was a very durable set. It was a very accurate set, and it was a very precise set. It was a very sensitive set, and it was a very responsive set. It was a very fast set, and it was a very quick set. It was a very efficient set, and it was a very economical set. It was a very safe set, and it was a very secure set. It was a very strong set, and it was a very sturdy set. It was a very solid set, and it was a very stable set. It was a very smooth set, and it was a very clean set. It was a very clear set, and it was a very bright set. It was a very sharp set, and it was a very detailed set. It was a very rich set, and it was a very vibrant set. It was a very colorful set, and it was a very lively set. It was a very exciting set, and it was a very entertaining set. It was a very enjoyable set, and it was a very relaxing set. It was a very pleasant set, and it was a very agreeable set. It was a very nice set, and it was a very lovely set. It was a very beautiful set, and it was a very attractive set. It was a very impressive set, and it was a very remarkable set. It was a very amazing set, and it was a very wonderful set. It was a very great set, and it was a very excellent set. It was a very good set, and it was a very fine set. It was a very nice set, and it was a very beautiful set. It was a very lovely set, and it was a very charming set. It was a very cute set, and it was a very adorable set. It was a very sweet set, and it was a very delightful set. It was a very cute set, and it was a very charming set. It was a very nice set, and it was a very beautiful set. It was a very lovely set, and it was a very charming set. It was a very cute set, and it was a very adorable set. It was a very sweet set, and it was a very delightful set.

by R.E. Young,
B.Sc.(Eng.), F.I.E.E.,
M.R.Ae.S.

Vehicle location in mines and metros

Leaky-feeder systems providing radio communication for mines and underground railways may be simply adapted to indicate positions of trains and other vehicles

Leaky-feeder systems for communication in mines and underground railways may be simply adapted to indicate positions of trains and other vehicles. This is because the same principle can be used for location as well as for communication. The leaky-feeder system consists of a series of antennas spaced along a cable. When a vehicle is in the system, it reflects the signal back to the source. By measuring the time delay between the transmitted and received signals, the position of the vehicle can be determined. This system is simple and reliable, and it can be used in a wide variety of applications. It is a very useful system, and it is a very practical system. It is a very accurate system, and it is a very precise system. It is a very sensitive system, and it is a very responsive system. It is a very fast system, and it is a very quick system. It is a very efficient system, and it is a very economical system. It is a very safe system, and it is a very secure system. It is a very strong system, and it is a very sturdy system. It is a very solid system, and it is a very stable system. It is a very smooth system, and it is a very clean system. It is a very clear system, and it is a very bright system. It is a very sharp system, and it is a very detailed system. It is a very rich system, and it is a very vibrant system. It is a very colorful system, and it is a very lively system. It is a very exciting system, and it is a very entertaining system. It is a very enjoyable system, and it is a very relaxing system. It is a very pleasant system, and it is a very agreeable system. It is a very nice system, and it is a very lovely system. It is a very beautiful system, and it is a very attractive system. It is a very impressive system, and it is a very remarkable system. It is a very amazing system, and it is a very wonderful system. It is a very great system, and it is a very excellent system. It is a very good system, and it is a very fine system. It is a very nice system, and it is a very beautiful system. It is a very lovely system, and it is a very charming system. It is a very cute system, and it is a very adorable system. It is a very sweet system, and it is a very delightful system.

by D.J.R. Martin
BSc, PhD,
FInstP, FIERE

The new logic symbols - 2

Since manufacturers' data sheets are already changing gradually to the new standard and more and more of the larger companies will comply, everyone concerned with digital electronics will sooner or later have to come to terms with the new standard.

by Ian Kampel,
M.I.E.R.E.

The new standard logic symbols are already appearing in manufacturers' data sheets. This is because the industry is moving towards a common standard. The new symbols are simpler and easier to use, and they are more consistent. This will make it easier for designers to work with digital electronics. It is a very good standard, and it is a very useful standard. It is a very accurate standard, and it is a very precise standard. It is a very sensitive standard, and it is a very responsive standard. It is a very fast standard, and it is a very quick standard. It is a very efficient standard, and it is a very economical standard. It is a very safe standard, and it is a very secure standard. It is a very strong standard, and it is a very sturdy standard. It is a very solid standard, and it is a very stable standard. It is a very smooth standard, and it is a very clean standard. It is a very clear standard, and it is a very bright standard. It is a very sharp standard, and it is a very detailed standard. It is a very rich standard, and it is a very vibrant standard. It is a very colorful standard, and it is a very lively standard. It is a very exciting standard, and it is a very entertaining standard. It is a very enjoyable standard, and it is a very relaxing standard. It is a very pleasant standard, and it is a very agreeable standard. It is a very nice standard, and it is a very lovely standard. It is a very beautiful standard, and it is a very attractive standard. It is a very impressive standard, and it is a very remarkable standard. It is a very amazing standard, and it is a very wonderful standard. It is a very great standard, and it is a very excellent standard. It is a very good standard, and it is a very fine standard. It is a very nice standard, and it is a very beautiful standard. It is a very lovely standard, and it is a very charming standard. It is a very cute standard, and it is a very adorable standard. It is a very sweet standard, and it is a very delightful standard.

by F.J. Lidgley
Ph.D., B.Sc.,
M.I.E.E.
and
C. Toumazou
B.Sc.

Accurate current follower

Current mirrors and a conventional op-amp combine to form an accurate current follower. Its advantages are illustrated in a universal voltage amplifier design exhibiting high gain, bandwidth and stability.

This current follower uses a conventional operational amplifier and a current mirror. It is a very accurate and stable circuit. It has a high gain and bandwidth, and it is very easy to use. It is a very useful circuit, and it is a very practical circuit. It is a very accurate circuit, and it is a very precise circuit. It is a very sensitive circuit, and it is a very responsive circuit. It is a very fast circuit, and it is a very quick circuit. It is a very efficient circuit, and it is a very economical circuit. It is a very safe circuit, and it is a very secure circuit. It is a very strong circuit, and it is a very sturdy circuit. It is a very solid circuit, and it is a very stable circuit. It is a very smooth circuit, and it is a very clean circuit. It is a very clear circuit, and it is a very bright circuit. It is a very sharp circuit, and it is a very detailed circuit. It is a very rich circuit, and it is a very vibrant circuit. It is a very colorful circuit, and it is a very lively circuit. It is a very exciting circuit, and it is a very entertaining circuit. It is a very enjoyable circuit, and it is a very relaxing circuit. It is a very pleasant circuit, and it is a very agreeable circuit. It is a very nice circuit, and it is a very lovely circuit. It is a very beautiful circuit, and it is a very attractive circuit. It is a very impressive circuit, and it is a very remarkable circuit. It is a very amazing circuit, and it is a very wonderful circuit. It is a very great circuit, and it is a very excellent circuit. It is a very good circuit, and it is a very fine circuit. It is a very nice circuit, and it is a very beautiful circuit. It is a very lovely circuit, and it is a very charming circuit. It is a very cute circuit, and it is a very adorable circuit. It is a very sweet circuit, and it is a very delightful circuit.

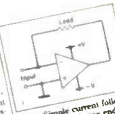


Fig. 1: Simple current follower circuit. Although one end of the load is held close to earth, the load is essentially floating and may not be grounded.

Many applications require a current follower. This circuit provides a simple and accurate solution. It is a very useful circuit, and it is a very practical circuit. It is a very accurate circuit, and it is a very precise circuit. It is a very sensitive circuit, and it is a very responsive circuit. It is a very fast circuit, and it is a very quick circuit. It is a very efficient circuit, and it is a very economical circuit. It is a very safe circuit, and it is a very secure circuit. It is a very strong circuit, and it is a very sturdy circuit. It is a very solid circuit, and it is a very stable circuit. It is a very smooth circuit, and it is a very clean circuit. It is a very clear circuit, and it is a very bright circuit. It is a very sharp circuit, and it is a very detailed circuit. It is a very rich circuit, and it is a very vibrant circuit. It is a very colorful circuit, and it is a very lively circuit. It is a very exciting circuit, and it is a very entertaining circuit. It is a very enjoyable circuit, and it is a very relaxing circuit. It is a very pleasant circuit, and it is a very agreeable circuit. It is a very nice circuit, and it is a very lovely circuit. It is a very beautiful circuit, and it is a very attractive circuit. It is a very impressive circuit, and it is a very remarkable circuit. It is a very amazing circuit, and it is a very wonderful circuit. It is a very great circuit, and it is a very excellent circuit. It is a very good circuit, and it is a very fine circuit. It is a very nice circuit, and it is a very beautiful circuit. It is a very lovely circuit, and it is a very charming circuit. It is a very cute circuit, and it is a very adorable circuit. It is a very sweet circuit, and it is a very delightful circuit.

Cover picture is a collection of quartz crystals, illustrating G. Huyler's piece on these often imperfectly understood devices. Photograph by courtesy of Cathodeon Crystals Limited.

NEXT MONTH

Enlarging timer by John Linsley Hood measures reflected, rather than transmitted light, cutting off the light source when exposure is complete.

Bench power supplies are the subject of our latest equipment survey, which will cover the units available on the UK market - characteristics, facilities, prices and other relevant information.

Altimeter and variometer for microlights and gliders is a true aneroid barometer, using a pressure transducer made by Motorola.

Printer buffer by Mike Catherwood takes over the job of sending text to a printer to free the microcomputer for other tasks.

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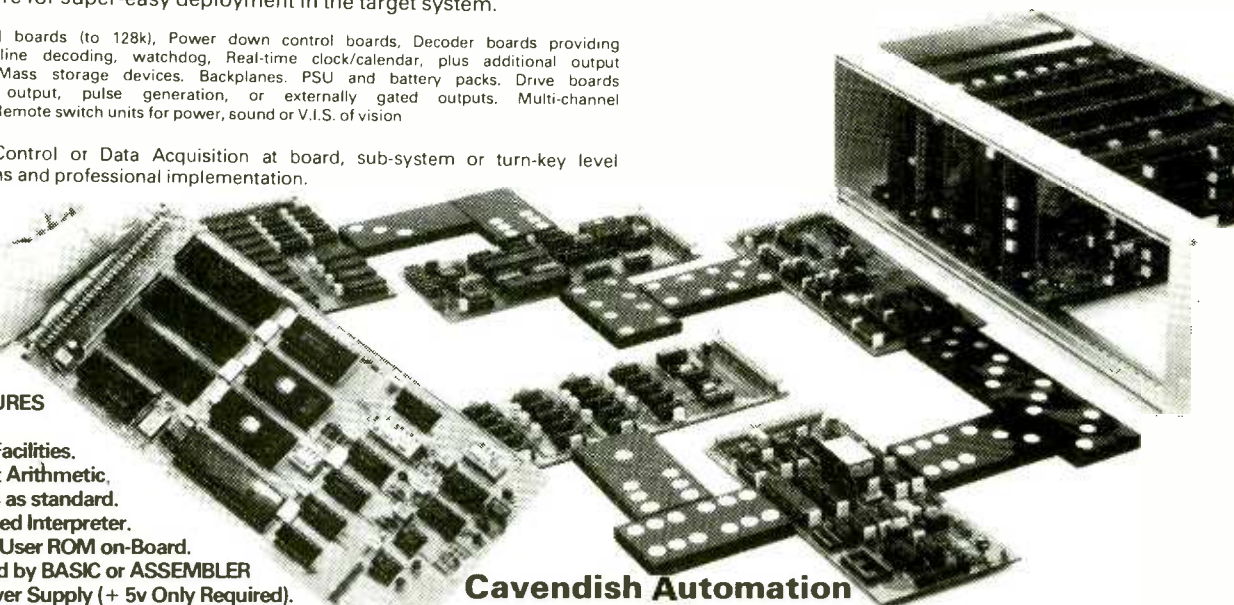
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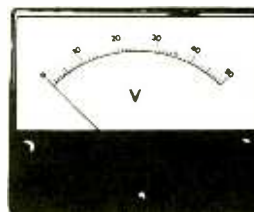
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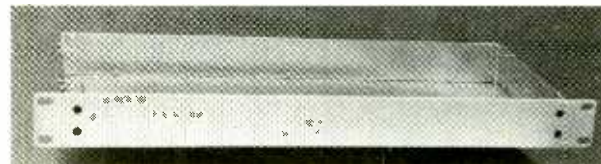
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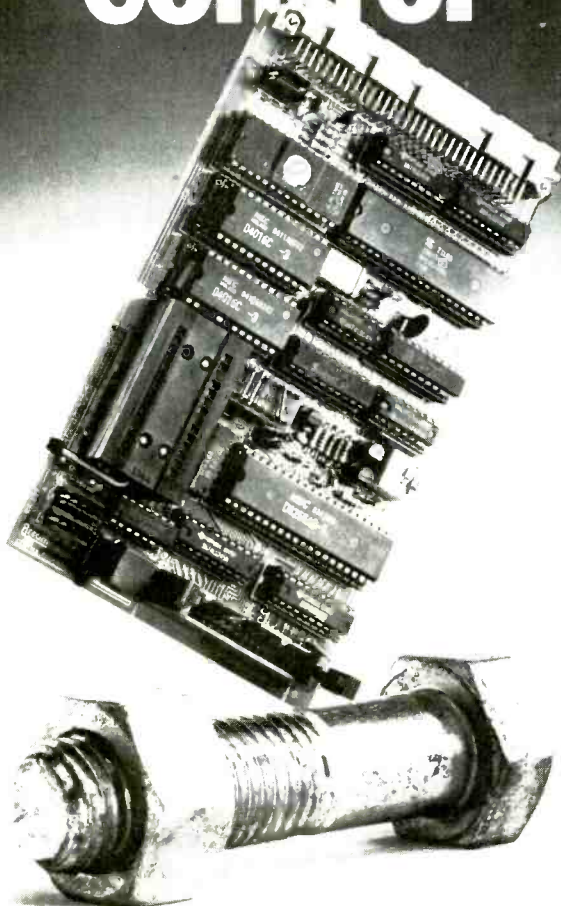
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CIRCLE 86 FOR FURTHER DETAILS.

Leapfrog

There are rumblings in the micro market. Some of the big names are gone and others look none too healthy. It would therefore appear that the public has realised that paying three or four hundred pounds for a machine to fill up spare room in a cupboard is not the most rewarding way of employing one's disposable income.

A quick survey among one's circle of acquaintances (non-engineering ones) reveals that around 70% of those with school-age children bought microcomputers for them about a year or eighteen months ago

because "the school had one" or because the children "plagued my life out for one" or simply as a result of being informed by advertisers that the modern school child would develop ingrowing toenails without one.

The acquisition of a computer by the average household has not, in the main, resulted in an explosion of enthusiasm for information technology. Indeed, after a short period for the novelty to wear off, a barely suppressed yawn has become the more common response to computer exposure. For, having bought the computer, parents' expectations of immediate and dramatic metamorphosis of child into technocrat have been blunted by the sight of their progeny playing games

involving frogs, invaders from space and monkeys climbing trees, the result of failure in most of the games being instant liquidation. After achieving proficiency at these somewhat recondite pursuits, the keen edge of enthusiasm for modern technology dulls and the computer is put away with the other expensive toys, such as skateboards.

The intention of the makers of computers, at least in the beginning, was to introduce users to computing easily and gently by means of games programs. But the notional progression from games — the programming of computers to do something useful and interesting — seems not to have happened. The introductory

booklets that come with computers do try to lead one into a programming attitude of mind, but many of them are quite difficult to follow, particularly for children, and with so many games available, many owners have been led to the belief that that is what computers — at least home computers — are for.

It is possible that a rapid change of direction on the part of those developing programs for sale may halt, or even reverse, the current trend towards computer rejection. But someone is going to have to do something rather rapidly, because there may not be many affordable machines to buy quite soon.

Britain lags in chip race

Despite Mr Pattie's assurances to the Americans, mentioned in our news of last month, that Britain was leading Europe in the use of integrated circuits, The Policy Studies Institute offer a different viewpoint. They have surveyed more than 3500 factories in Britain, Germany and France and have discovered that:

- Britain is behind Germany in using microelectronics in products, but ahead of France.
- In all three countries the most commonly expressed obstacle to the use of micro-electronics is the lack of people with specialist technical expertise.
- Twice as many British manufacturers, compared with German or French, blamed the economic recession for their lack of utilisation of the devices and a similar proportion found it difficult to get finance for new projects.
- One thing that was not a British problem was opposition by trade unions which was seen as a threat by half as many British as by their continental counterparts. Over half the British firms said that they consulted their workforce before introducing new technology compared with 40% in Germany and 23% in France.
- In all three countries about three-quarters of the factories using microelectronics report that there has been no reduction in the number of

people employed. Of the remaining quarter, some have had increases in employment but almost twice as many have cut staff. Where applications are used in products there has been a majority of increases in numbers employed, though there was detected an overall decrease of one or two jobs per factory. There is a possibility however that higher rates of use

and more advanced applications could lead to greater effects on employment but so also could the inability to keep up with our international competitors in making use of the new technologies.

- In all three countries there has been a slowing down in the introduction of new applications, compared with two or three years ago.

● Germany has more engineers with micro expertise than Britain or France. British firms send more engineers on training courses than the French but they send more technicians. The Germans train more of both. There is a considerable shortage of trained personnel in all three countries.

In conclusion the report recommend as vital the need to train more technical people, to provide finance for education and to kindle economic expansion. The British are not too far behind to catch up.

Space cooperation with China

A Memorandum of Understanding (i.e. some degree below a formal agreement) on space collaboration has been signed between Britain and China.

This marks an advance in Britain's relations with the Chinese space authorities, who are rapidly developing their own independent satellites and launching systems. The Memorandum will enable regular exchanges of space scientists to take place, as well as paving the way for cooperation in satellite technology developments.

Mr Li Xue, first Deputy Minister of Astronautics, who signed the Memorandum with our Geoffrey Pattie, also lead a large delegation of Chinese space technologists on a tour of British space research establishments including British Aerospace and Marconi Space

Systems.

- A different agreement has been signed between Marconi Electronic Devices Ltd. and the Chun Shu Rectifier plant in Beijing. MEDL have licenced the Chinese plant to establish a manufacturing plant for power thyristors and silicon rectifiers. The British company will also be providing know-how and

support for the Chinese plant and will be training Chinese technologists in the UK. The first stage of the agreement is the provision of a £100k technology transfer data pack coupled with the purchase of £300k of semiconductor devices and piece parts made by MEDL at Lincoln.

1Mbit d.ram from Japan

Toshiba have announced that they have succeeded in developing a one megabit dynamic ram. Using micro-lithography they have used a 1.2micron geometry to get 2.25 million elements onto a chip of silicon 4.78 by 13.23mm. The device has an access time of 70ns and consumes 270mW during operation and 15mW in

the standby mode.

The company claims that its success is due to a method of being able to reduce the area of isolation between elements while maintaining the isolation. This uses buried oxide isolation (or BOX) where grooves are etched into the silicon substrate and the grooves are then filled with an oxide film to perform

the isolation. In conventional methods, the oxide can protrude onto the areas where elements are formed and this both increases the useable size of each element and the size of the isolation zone, making it difficult to achieve a geometry of less than two microns. The

BOX isolation has the added advantage of forming capacitors on the side walls of the groove as well as on the surface, leading to a more efficient memory element. Toshiba have no plans yet to produce the device in quantity.

World plan for f.m.

More than 53000 stations in the band 87.5 to 108MHz are allowed for in the Agreement signed as a result of the Regional Administration Conference for the Planning of v.h.f. Sound Broadcasting. The conference was convened by the International Telecommunications Union following the 1979 WARC decision to extend

the band above 100MHz to 108MHz.

The frequency assignment plan, known as the Geneva Plan, takes in such considerations as the prevention of interference with aeronautical radionavigation stations which occupy the nearest band and the procedures for its own modification. The Plan is to become operative in mid-1987 and is planned to meet the requirements of sound broadcasting services with the f.m. band for a further 20 years.

Acorn rescued

One could hardly think of a computer company more stable than Acorn with its BBC marque and its wide use in education. Yet like so many other computer companies it was suddenly plunged into a "cashflow crisis" and nearly collapsed altogether. The crisis seems to have been brought about by the pre-Christmas over-estimate of the number of Electron computers to be sold and the post-Christmas decision to reduce the price of the Electron to that of the Sinclair Spectrum, compensating those dealers who had a stock of Electrons with the difference in price.

The rescue has come from a seemingly unlikely source,

Olivetti the Italian typewriter giant who have expanded into word processors and business computers and are themselves part owned by A T & T. They have bought a 49.5% share in Acorn and have the option to take a majority shareholding if they so desire. Hauser and Curry, Acorn's founders and joint managing directors are to stay on the board along with their recently appointed chief executive, Alex Reid, though it is thought that there will be a new supremo appointed by Olivetti.

The Italian company is rated second to IBM in the European IT market and tenth in the world. They produce the M24 Personal Computer which their extensive advertising claims is "significantly faster and more powerful than the IBM PC." Their investment in Acorn suggests an attack on the world educational computer market.

People in high places. Rick Boran is seen fitting a new antenna for the Cellnet telephone service to the IBA mast at Beulah Hill, South London. In the distance is the Crystal Palace mast. Up a pole, above a wintry landscape in Suffolk, Jill Barnes, one of a small, but increasing number of female telephone engineers, is clearing a fault in an overhead line. Others gain access by helicopter and snow-mobiles.



High-speed semi-conductor

The giant Japanese electronics company, NEC, have announced the development of a new semiconductor material which is constructed from several layers alternating between gallium arsenide (GaAs) and aluminium arsenide (AlAs). The material is produced by molecular beam epitaxial growth to enable very thin layers to be grown on the crystal's substrate. This 'super-doped' lattice structure greatly improves the conductivity of the electron supplying layers and enables the making of very high-speed devices with up to about 10 picoseconds per gate. Indeed at low temperatures, such as that of liquid Nitrogen at 77k, a switching speed of 5ps/gate is possible. Previous

tests on mixed crystals of AlGaAs proved that their conductivity was reduced by the active energy of doped impurities. It is thought that this was due to imperfections in the crystal structure around the dopants and the new material completely overcomes this while retaining the very low threshold voltage variation associated with the mixed material crystals.

NEC also claim that the new material will enable the control of the physical properties of materials artificially on an atomic level and permit the development of such new devices as hetero-bipolar transistors and high-power semiconductor lasers. The material might also be used in the production of components in ultra-high-speed computers as the switching speed approaches that of Josephson devices. A prototype ring oscillator is likely to be the first practical application of the material and this will confirm its theoretical properties.

Tentative plans for Band III

Geoffrey Pattie, Minister for IT, has announced the initial decisions on the future use of Bands I and III, left vacant by the demise of 405-line tv. Much of Band III is to be used for mobile radiotelephones using trunking and providing common base station and message handling services.

Prevailing opinion, following the responses to the governments consultative document, favoured the adoption of a common signalling standard for trunked systems and the preparation of such a standard is making good progress. However there is some conflict with the new cellular radio telephones which it is felt should not have to compete with a rival system until it is better established. There is still the possibility of operating a nationwide mobile service with no, or only restricted, access to the public switched telephone network. Such a service would

not conflict with cellular radio and could offer more efficient use of the band as calls are usually much shorter over radio than those interconnected with the telephone system.

So the plans will possibly include the introduction of one or two non-interconnected national networks with the further possibility of local networks which may have p.s.t.n. interconnection in the major conurbations. Further advice from the Director General of Telecommunications is being sought.

There were further responses to the Consultative document, including plans for Band I, which are still under consideration.

In brief

Advanced Micro Devices of California are to invest £144M on a new wafer fabrication plant at Greystones, Co. Wicklow, Eire. The plant will produce microprocessor, telecommunications and memory products and will create 650 jobs, over a third of them highly skilled. Construction of the plant will commence this year with production underway by the end of 1990.

Improved interlocking at British Rail

Two applications of information technology techniques have been installed in railways. The first is a solid-state interlocking (SSI) system for a new signal box at Leamington Spa. Interlocking systems have been very important in railway management as they ensure that no conflicting train movements are set up. Signals and points are locked and originally the interlocking was entirely mechanical, offering a severe restriction on the range of each installation. Later, and until now, electro-mechanical relays have been used in profusion to control electrically operated points and signals. The London Bridge signalling centre uses more than 34 thousand relays to control up to 100 trains simultaneously over 150 miles of track. The replacement of these by a solid-state system would need about 20 cabinets of equipment, reducing the space required by more than half and eliminating 12 small trackside buildings. The Leamington Spa system requires only one cabinet. It is

to be run in parallel with the existing relays without connection to the signals or points. Initially it is to be connected to a "dummy load", a computer which will simulate the equivalent of several years of operation. Gradually it will be tested on specific sections of the lines and will eventually take over. To the signalman and driver there will be no difference and they will continue to operate exactly as before.

With SSI the interlocking is performed centrally by microcomputers which communicate through serial data links with lineside terminals directly controlling the signalling equipment. Cross-checking duplicate and triplicate systems are used to ensure safety and availability. Built-in diagnostic facilities enable faults to be detected and rectified speedily. The system was conceived by British Rail and developed by them in conjunction with Westinghouse Brake & Signal and with GEC-General Signal.

Private science

Japan is often looked to as an example of how we should succeed commercially. If we look more closely at that success however, it is possible to see that they are very good at exploiting ideas, of turning them into commercial propositions, but that they also have a very thin basis of original thought, of generating the same ideas that they are so good at exploiting.

Now, the Department of Education and Science is trying to emulate the Japanese by finding private sector funding for science research. We understood that the Research Councils were set up to fund research so that it would be free from commercial pressures. The whole philosophy of the present Government is exactly the reverse of this; that public

funding (of almost anything) is inherently bad and that commercial pressure is somehow the return to a 'real' world.

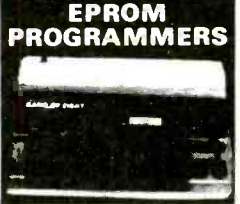
Great Britain has always been proud of its contribution to world scientific knowledge. Many practical and useful inventions have come from an academic study of apparently obscure phenomena but that have turned out to be commercially exploitable.

The private sector are looking for fast returns on investments. They are unlikely to be willing to finance basic research that may look as if it is going nowhere. But this is the very research which will eventually lead to closing the gaps in our knowledge and ultimately to products and services and so improve the quality of our lives.

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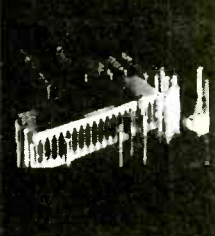
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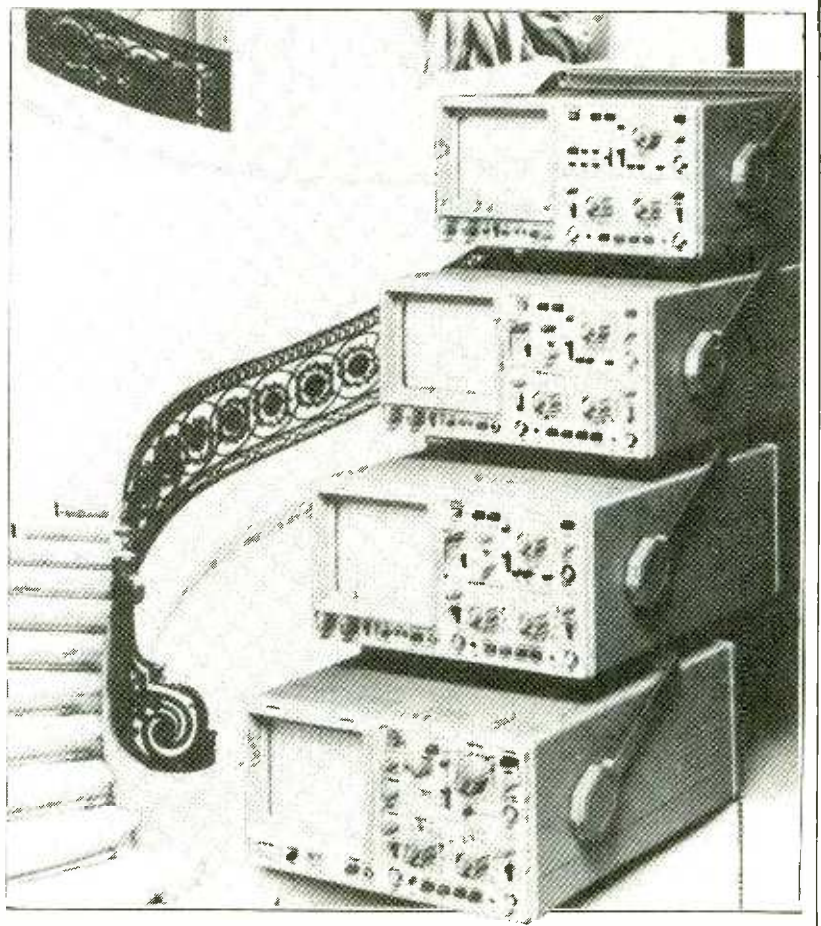
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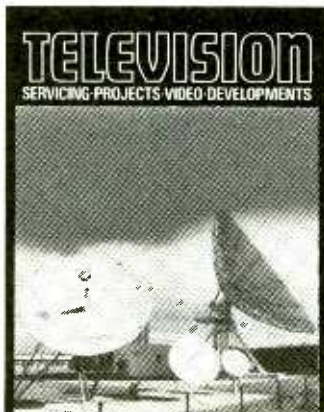
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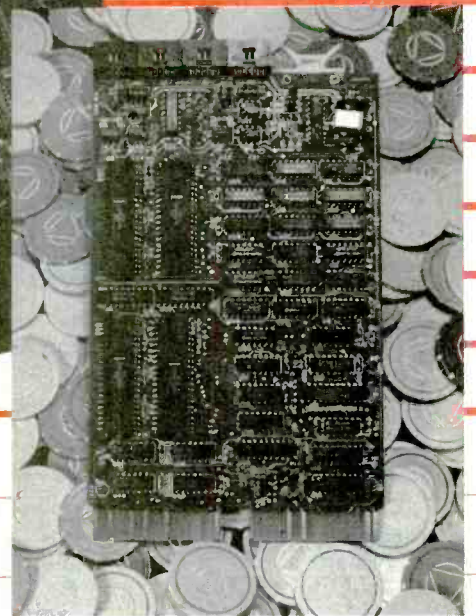
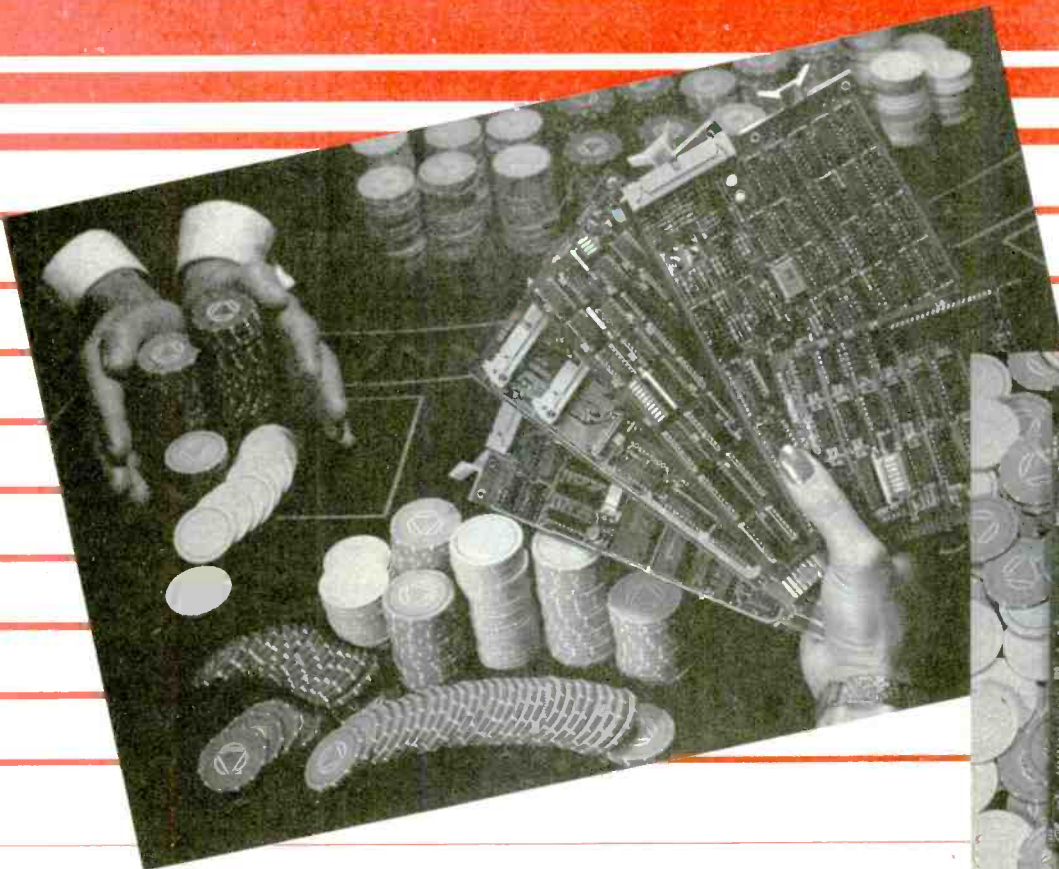
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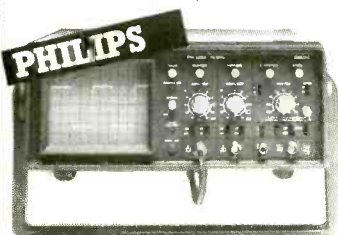
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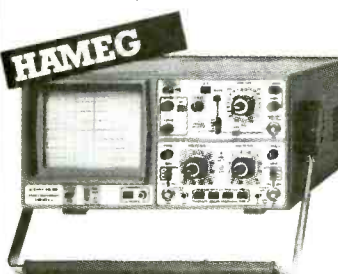
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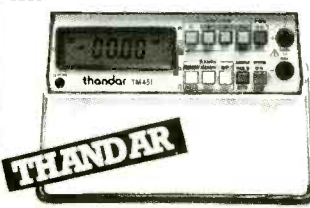


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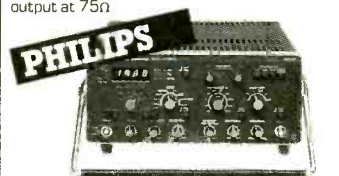
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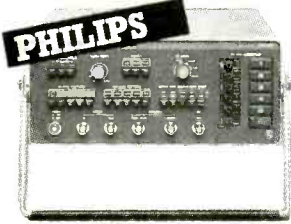
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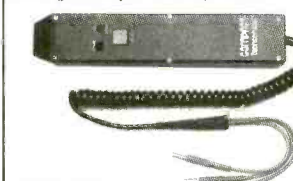
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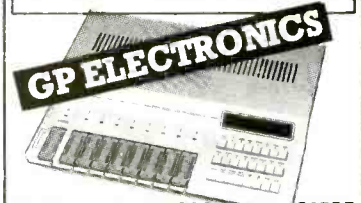
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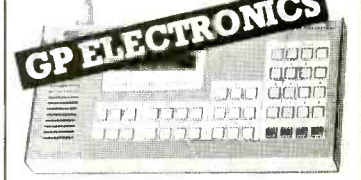
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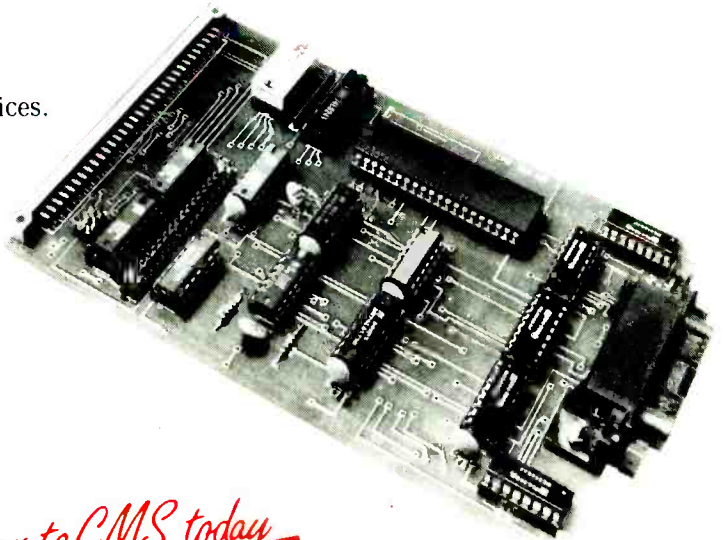
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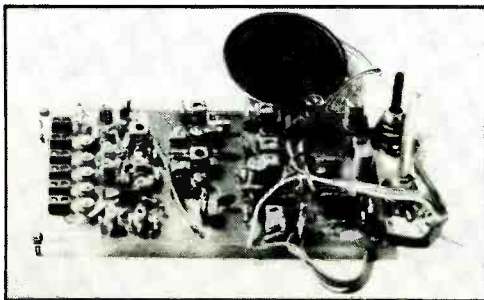
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Consumption: 68mA(sq.in).
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Second IF: 455Khz
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C.O.R. out
S-meter out, O-meter out
P.C. Board dim.: 17,5x10cm.

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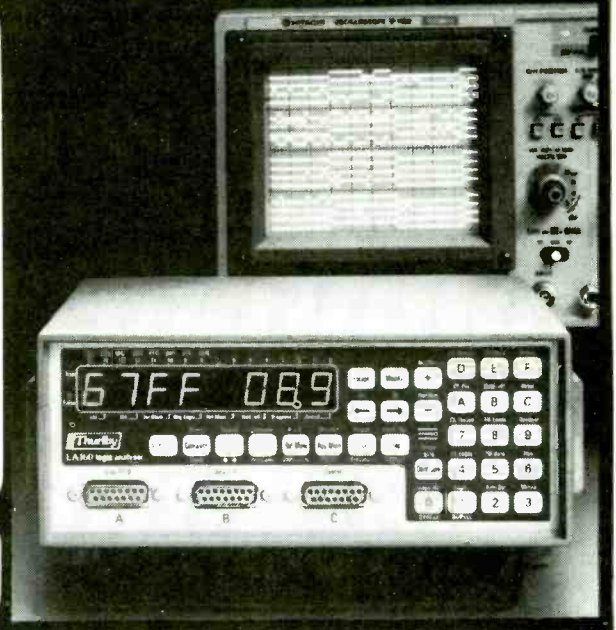
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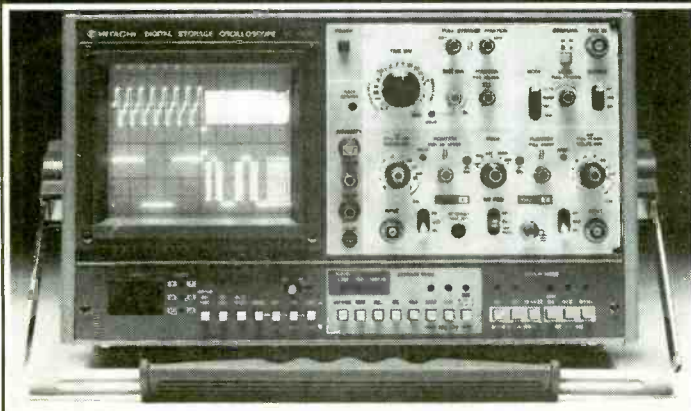


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Accurate current follower

Current mirrors and a conventional op-amp combine to form an accurate current follower. Its advantages are illustrated in a universal voltage amplifier design exhibiting high gain, bandwidth and stability.

This current-follower circuit uses a conventional operational amplifier and two current mirrors. We analyse the circuit to show its most-significant characteristics, and a prototype is shown to perform well in practice. Using this circuit together with two voltage followers we have constructed a universal voltage amplifier. Theoretically, this universal amplifier structure is extremely stable and exhibits high gain and bandwidth simultaneously; experimentation has shown this to be true.

A current follower is the antithesis of a voltage-follower. The ideal current follower has zero input impedance, infinite output impedance and unity current gain. The circuit is effectively a current-buffer enabling the maximum available current to be transferred from a signal source and fed into a nonzero-impedance load. This application together with others has been discussed by Nordholt¹ and Lidgley².

In this article a simple current-follower circuit is developed using a conventional op-amp and current-mirror circuits. The current-follower produced is then employed in a universal amplifier as described in the second reference. This amplifier uses only voltage and current-follower circuits together with resistors to define the closed-loop gain. The performance of such an amplifier is extremely good. The bandwidth is wide and it is not inversely related to the closed-loop gain, and no stability problems exist as there is no direct feedback from output to input.

Improved current-follower circuit

In order to appreciate the final

design, it is worthwhile considering the simple current-follower circuit, Fig. 1. One end of the load is held close to zero volts by feedback action of the op-amp, however the load is essentially floating as neither side may be connected directly to ground. Despite this drawback, the circuit does have some interesting features. Input impedance is extremely low as nearly all the input current is drawn through the load by the action of negative feedback. Input current only differs from the load current by the current flowing into the op-amp which is extremely small due to the high open-loop voltage gain and input impedance of the op-amp.

Most applications require a circuit able to feed a grounded load and so a modified version of Fig. 1 is needed, Fig. 2. The feedback path from the inverting input to the op-amp output is now a short circuit which further reduces the input impedance compared with the circuit of Fig. 1.

As before, input current is drawn around the feedback path by the op-amp. Positive input current flows in a path around the feedback loop into the op-amp output and through to the supply lead of the op-amp to the negative power supply. Widlar's current-mirror current-sink³ is used to sense this supply lead current via the diode connected transistor Tr_2 and then reflect this current in Tr_1 to the load. Similarly negative input current results in an equal positive supply current which is reflected into the load by a p-n-p current-mirror current source comprising transistors $Tr_{1,3}$.

The circuit is essentially that of an op-amp configured as a trans-resistance stage, the output of which is taken through the power

supply leads. As the op-amp is directly coupled, the output effectively phase splits and the two complementary current mirror source and sink circuits recombine the split phases into a ground connected load.

Accuracy of the current following action is limited by the current mirror performance. As discussed by Lidgley⁴ the ratio of image to reflected current, K , in the simple Widlar type of current mirror is given by

$$K = \beta/(\beta+2) \quad (1)$$

Clearly an accuracy of 2% will result if the current gain, of the mirror transistors is 100. This is not regarded as acceptable and the improved current-mirror developed and analysed by Wil-

by F.J. Lidgley
Ph.D., B.Sc.,
M.I.E.E.
and
C. Toumazou
B.Sc.

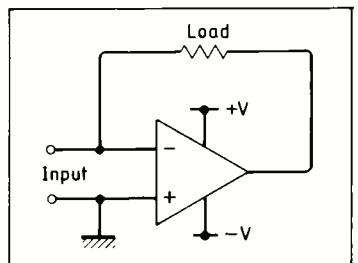


Fig. 1. Simple current follower circuit. Although one end of the load is held close to zero volts by feedback action, the load is essentially floating and may not be grounded.



Christopher Toumazou completed an OND in Technology in 1980 from North Gloucestershire College of Technology. He then joined Oxford Polytechnic obtaining a first class honours BSc in Engineering in 1983. Currently he is studying for an M.Phil/Ph.D on op-amp circuit design, supervised by the co-author of this article. His research programme also includes part-time lecturing at the Polytechnic.

John Lidgley is Principal Lecturer in electronics at Oxford Polytechnic. His teaching and research are both in the area of analogue circuit design and applications. In addition he is actively engaged in industrial electronics consultancy.

CURRENT FOLLOWER

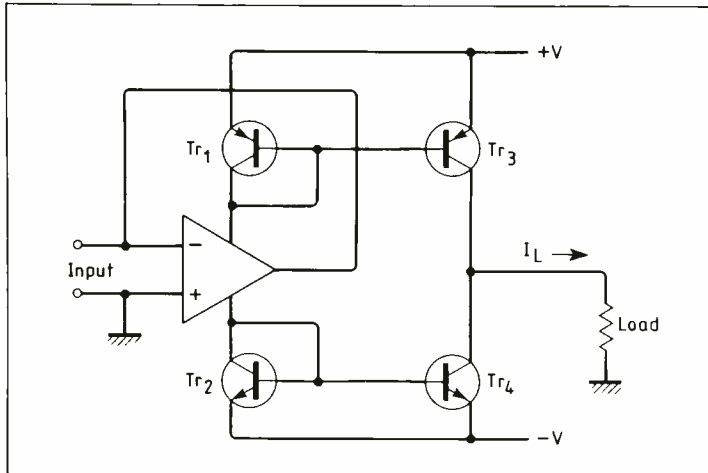


Fig. 2. Most applications require a current follower load to be grounded. Modifying Fig. 1 as shown allows this.

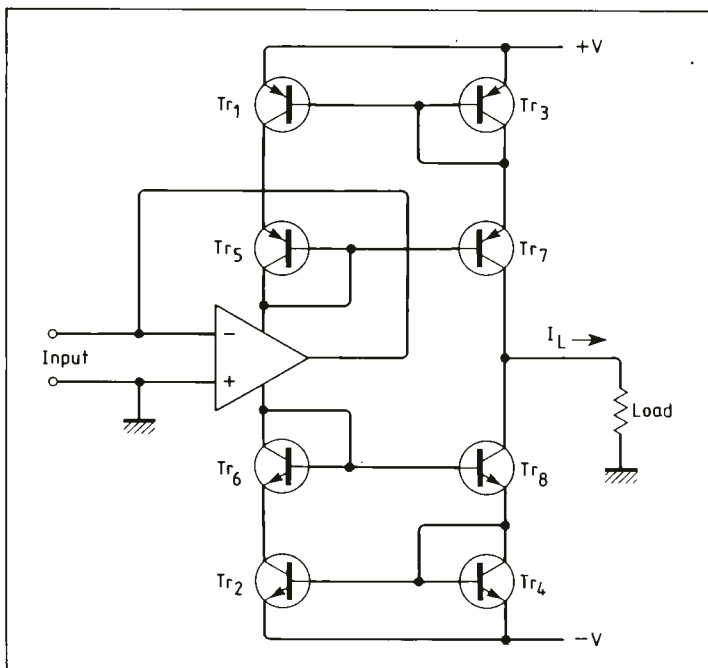


Fig. 3. Final current follower design with improved current-mirror circuits.

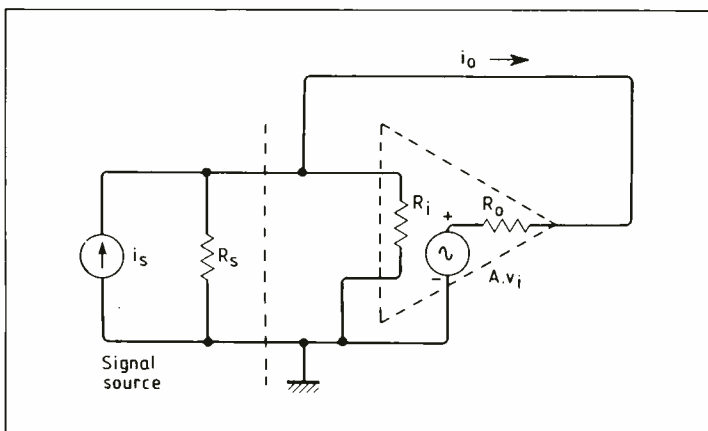


Fig. 4. Incremental model of the current follower input stage. Open-loop input and output impedances, R_i and R_o , are typically 1M and 100Ω respectively.

son⁵ is used to replace the two Widlar type current mirrors. Figure 3 shows the final current follower circuit design using these improved current mirror circuits.

Follower analysis

The incremental model of the op-amp is shown in Fig. 4. Resistance R_i , typically 1MΩ or so, is the open-loop input impedance and R_o , typically 100Ω or so, is the open-loop output impedance. The dependent voltage generator, $A.v_i$ represents the high open-loop differential voltage gain of the op-amp, where A is of the form

$$A = A_o / (1 + jf/f_p) \quad (2)$$

Factor A_o is typically 10^5 or so and is the d.c. open-loop voltage gain of the op-amp. Frequency f_p , the upper -3dB cut-off frequency, is typically 10Hz or so. This upper cut-off is introduced by the manufacturer through an internal on-chip frequency compensation network to ensure that the op-amp will not oscillate when used with any value of resistive negative feedback.

Analysis of the circuit yields the current transfer ratio i_o/i_s of

$$i_o/i_s = \frac{1}{[1 + R_o/(R_s(A+1)) + R_o/(R_i(A+1))]} \quad (3)$$

Practically, as $R_o \ll R_i$, then (3) reduces to

$$i_o/i_s \approx (A+1)/(A+1+R_o/R_s) \quad (4)$$

Clearly from (4) the current transfer ratio is close to unity for high values of A . Solving for the small-signal input impedance Z_{in} gives the following equation

$$Z_{in} = \frac{v_{in}}{i_{in}} = R_o / [(A+1)(1 + R_o/(R_i(A+1)))] \quad (5)$$

Again, since $R_o \ll R_i$, (5) reduces to

$$Z_{in} \approx R_o / (A+1) \quad (6)$$

It is interesting to note that load resistance R_L is effectively isolated from the op-amp output and as a result the effect of changing the load has negligible influence on the closed-loop performance

of the op-amp. Furthermore compared with Lidgley's follower circuit which gave an input impedance of

$$Z_{in} = (R_o + R_L) / (A+1) \quad (7)$$

the follower described here has a lower and therefore more ideal value of input impedance.

Consider now the frequency response of the follower. Substituting for A into (4) using (2) and so obtaining the frequency response of the current transfer ratio, then

$$i_o/i_s \approx [1 + jf/(f_p(A_o+1))] / [1 + K_2 + j(f.K_1)/(f_p(A_o+1))] \quad (8)$$

where K_1 is $(R_s + R_o)/R_s$ and K_2 is $R_o/(R_s(A_o+1))$.

Substituting the symbol GB for the gain-bandwidth product of the op-amp, which is equal to $f_p(A_o+1)$, and neglecting K_2 as generally $A_o \gg R_o/R_s$, then (8) reduces to,

$$i_o/i_s \approx (1 + jf/GB) / (1 + jf/(GB/K_1)) \quad (9)$$

To a first order approximation one may assume that the frequency response of the current-mirror section of the circuit is much higher than the remainder and so the frequency response of the follower, dominated by the op-amp section, is given by

$$i_o/i_s \approx (i_o/i_o) \cdot (i_o/i_s) = -K(1 + jf/GB) / (1 + jf/(GB/K_1)) \quad (10)$$

where K is the mirror performance ratio of reflected to image current.

Equation (10) demonstrates that the bandwidth of the follower is essentially independent of the load impedance used.

General purpose voltage amplifier

Any of the four basic amplifier configurations may be constructed using up to two voltage followers and up to two current followers as described by Lidgley. The circuit of Fig. 5 is a voltage amplifier built using two voltage followers cascaded with a central current follower. Resistors R_1 and R_2 define the voltage gain, A_v ,

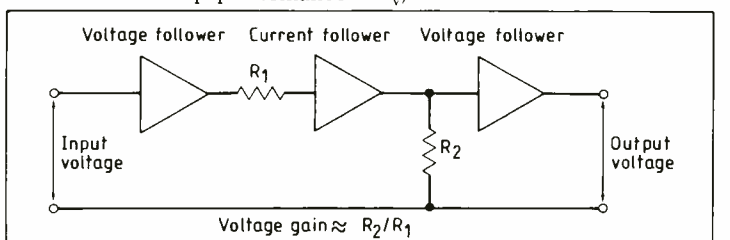


Fig. 5. Universal voltage amplifier using 741 op-amps and current mirrors constructed from bipolar transistor arrays.

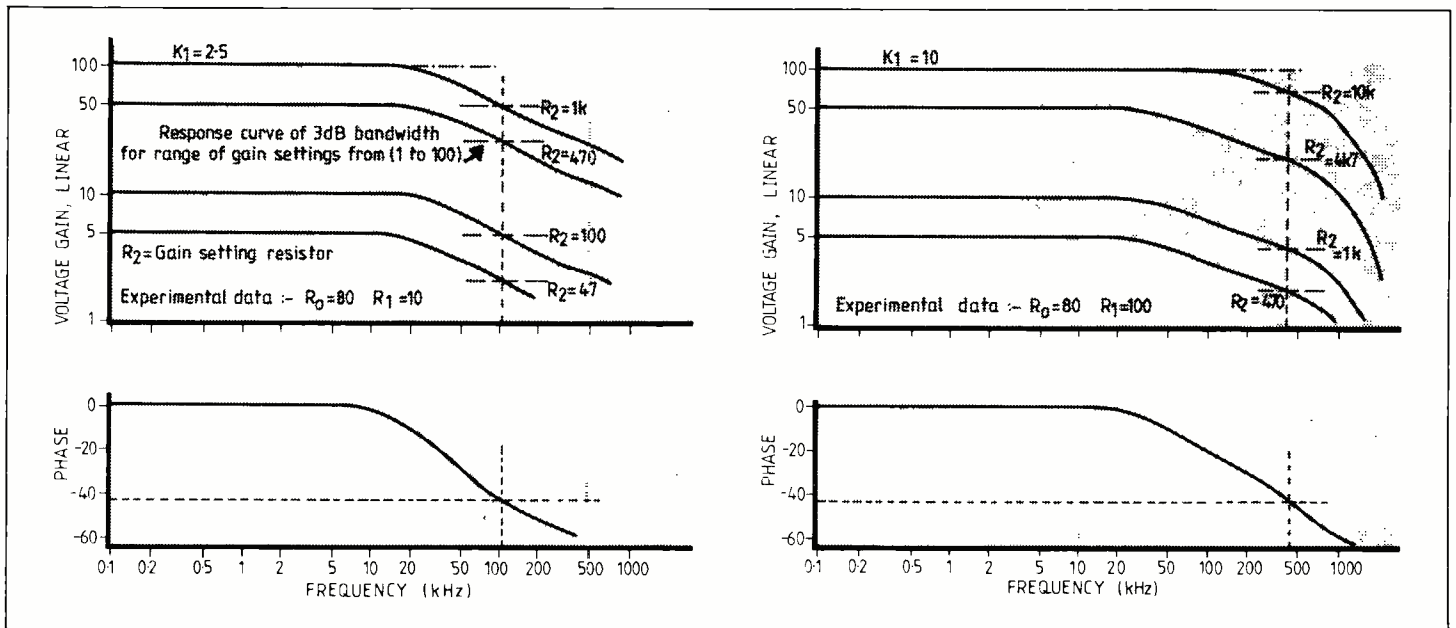


Fig. 6. Frequency response of the voltage amplifier for $K_1 = 2.5$ (a) and $K_1 = 10$ (b).

$$A_v \approx R_2/R_1 \quad (11)$$

assuming that each of the three followers has precise unity gain.

A prototype circuit of Fig. 5 was built using 741 op-amps and current mirrors constructed from two bipolar transistor arrays, these being a 2N3046 and a CA3096. It is essential to use single-chip well matched transistors for current mirror circuits¹. Frequency response of the prototype is shown in Figs. 6a,b for two different values of K_1 , the voltage gain being set by R_2 .

One can see from the experimental results that the bandwidth does not alter when R_2 is changed to give different values of voltage gain. It is interesting to note that

the conflict between gain and bandwidth generally encountered with more conventional designs using internally compensated op-amps, does not occur with this structure of amplifier.

Bandwidth of the voltage followers is approximately 1MHz and the frequency response of the circuit is limited mainly by the current follower. Increasing R_1 results in a reduction of K_1 and hence an increased frequency response of the current follower circuit, as indicated by equation (9). Although bandwidth will tend to increase by increasing R_1 , to maintain a fixed voltage gain R_2 must be increased in proportion. However there is a limitation on

the size of R_2 and hence the voltage gain possible due to the finite output impedance of the current follower; measured at 10kHz to be $3M\Omega$.

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BOOKS

Ascent to Orbit, a scientific autobiography by Arthur C. Clarke: John Wiley and Sons, 226 A4 pages, hard covers. Sumptuous coffee-table book celebrating the technical writings of one of *Wireless World's* tutelary heroes. Includes numerous facsimiles of papers published both here and elsewhere, on astronautics, astronomy, tv waveforms, astrominos, flight, rocketry, the space elevator and of course communications satellites.

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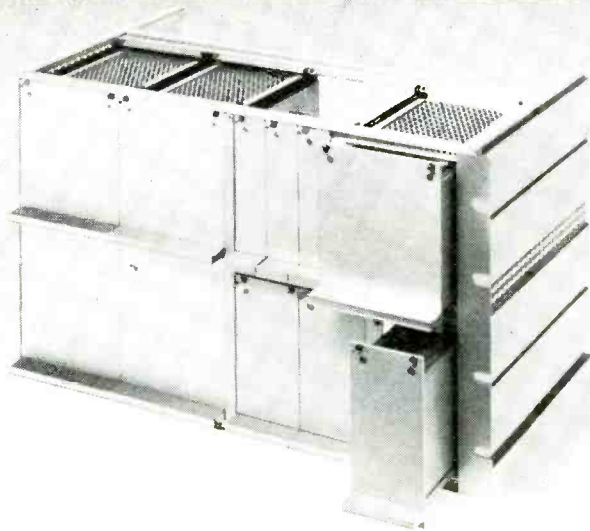
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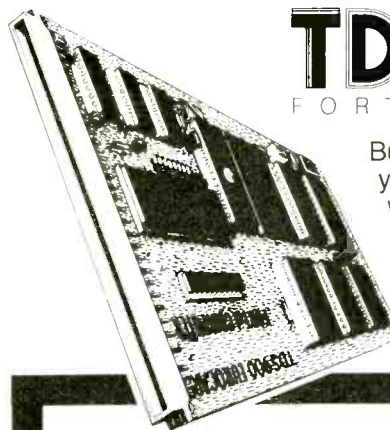
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40 pin	200p

MISC CONNS

21 pin Scart Connector **2**
 8 pin Video Connector **2**

by J.J.
Wiseman

How long is a piece of wire?

The International Maritime Organisation is presently rearranging maritime radio with greater emphasis on use of 2182kHz for distress and intership working. There will be a temptation to use only whips. At 2182kHz they will have a small radiation resistance, under 1 ohm, and the current problem of 500kHz short-wire aerials having this kind of radiation resistance, swamped by leakage losses in rough weather, will then be repeated. Nothing will have been gained by the change over...

Efficiency and radiation resistance of electrically short transmitting antennas — especially of the inverted-L kind — leave a lot to be desired.

Technical literature on transmitting antennas, as found in libraries and bookstores or published in popular journals, seems to fall into two categories. The subject is either presented as page after page of complex mathematics, written by PhDs to be read by other PhDs, or it comes as a cookbook or catechism, which everybody 'knows' by heart but few really understand in-depth but find convenient for every day practical use. Thus "A quarter-wave vertical has 50ohm feed, a half-wave dipole 74 ohms, end-fed half-waves have 600ohm line" and there are similar psalms to be sung for Yagis, rhombics and other exotica. As all have a radiation resistance far greater than any likely losses, they all work without problems and with good and predictable efficiency. Amen and praise the mathematicians, who made it all possible and put it in a book of revelations. When multiband specials are described, their design often contains more 'art' than science, and performance is assessed subjectively.

They are usually justified in terms of s.w.r., which doesn't necessarily say everything about efficiency as a radiator.

People to whom 'bigger' usually means 'better' have become accustomed to seeing very satisfactory mobile communications carried out with antennas less than a metre in length (at v.h.f./u.h.f.), and some have come to believe that 'short' is good enough at any frequency, and it is the layman — the coathanger bender — more often than not who puts up the money and 'does it himself'. In h.f. mobile applications, land vehicles, small boats (and even large boats), the whip or short wire antenna will be all that is possible, yet may be required to operate over a wide frequency spectrum. Accurate information on performance is hard to find. All that the ARRL Antenna Book has to say is that "Information about the radiation resistance of antennas of less than quarter wavelength is difficult to come by" and leaves it at that. This is the 'no mans land' of aerials.

other short antennas.

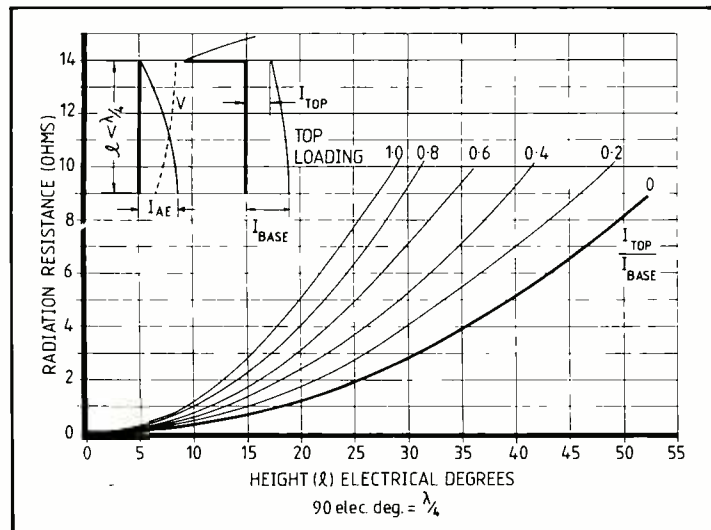
Radiation resistance is plotted against *actual* antenna height in the graph below in degrees ($1/4 = 90^\circ$). Various 'rules of thumb' exist for computing radiation resistance for short antennas. The 1930 Admiralty Handbook of Wireless Telegraphy, offers the rule $R_r = 160\pi^2 h^2/\lambda^2 = 1580h^2/\lambda^2$ and Martin and Carter of RCA Laboratories, N.Y., (1961) repeat the same equation. 'h' is the effective height of the antenna, equal to actual height (l) when base current is equal to top current. For any other current distribution, effective height is that of a rectangle having equal base and equal in area to that under the curve of current distribution. Laport gives $R_r = 10G_0^2$ where G_0 is the electrical height of the antenna in radians and transforms this into $R_r = 0.1215A^2$ where A is the degree-ampere area of the plot of current distribution. In any event, the curve of R_r ; l is a parabola, or a family of parabolas. For $R_r = 1\text{ohm}$, aerial height (without top loading) has to be about 18 electrical degrees, or with top loading, giving linear current distribution, 9 degrees. Compare this with R_r for a $1/4$ grounded vertical: 36.57ohms according to Everitt, who provides the full mathematical derivation. This R_r will be "the same for an antenna 2.5 metres high at 30MHz, 250 metres high at 300kHz or 777 miles high at 60Hz". Similar considerations will apply for antennas of less height. How fortunate were the early aviators who could reel out their trailing aerial to any convenient $1/4$!

Antennas of less than $1/4$ are not supposed to exist, but at very low and low frequencies they cannot really be avoided; it is hardly possible to erect a $1/4$ 1500-metre vertical for a 50kHz military transmitter. It is in this area that the performance of the electrically short antenna has been most thoroughly studied; the enormous cost in engineering structures involved has made it essential. Such antennas may have to operate with radiation resistance of only 0.05ohm. The subject had been well covered by the 1930s but was published not in books, rather in *Proceedings of I.R.E.*, and similar, and therefore inaccessible to the general reader. The experience is transferrable to

A '22-foot' whip is a popular antenna for small water craft. It can be required to operate in marine R/T bands, at, or close to 2, 4, 6, 8, 12, 16 and 22MHz.

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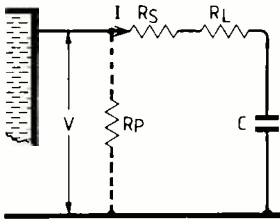


The 22ft whip has a physical length of 6.7 metres, $\lambda/4$ at 11.19MHz (neglecting 'and effect'), near $\lambda/4$ at 12MHz, $3\lambda/8$ at 16 and $\lambda/2$ at 22MHz. But at 2MHz it is only 0.045 λ , and at 6MHz only 0.13 of a wavelength. At these frequencies it is "electrically short." Table 1 reveals the shift in performance.

Losses will occur by inductive heating of material of the whip and any adjacent metal, and in the earth connection. Low-loss connection to the water may be difficult to achieve with a wood or glass fibre hull. Assuming lumped losses of 1, 3 and 5 ohms then

$$\text{efficiency} = \frac{R_r}{R_r + R_{\text{loss}}} \times 100\%$$

Efficiency is given in Table 2 for a 22ft whip, Tables 3 & 4 give equivalent data for a 12 ft whip. When the whip is operating at less than $\lambda/4$ it is capacitive. Parallel leakage at the base insulator can be converted to series equivalent resistance



R_p Insulator leakage
 R_s Series equivalent of R_p
 R_L Copper losses & radiation resistance (constant)

For equivalence, power absorbed in R_p must equal power absorbed in R_s :

$$\frac{V^2}{R_p} = I^2 R_s = R_s \left(\frac{V^2}{R_s^2 + X_c^2} \right)$$

$$\frac{1}{R_p} = \frac{R_s}{R_s^2 + 1/\omega^2 C^2}$$

$$\therefore R_p = \frac{1}{R_s \omega^2 C^2} + R_s$$

As R_s is very small compared to R_p , last term can be neglected, giving

$$R_p \approx \frac{1}{R_s \omega^2 C^2} \text{ and } R_s \approx \frac{1}{R_p \omega^2 C^2}$$

series equivalent leakage being inversely proportional to f^2 & C^2 . If $C = 40\text{pF}$, $f = 2\text{MHz}$, and $R_p = 1\text{M}\Omega$, then R_s is about 4 ohms, about doubling or tripling the existing lumped losses. If this halves Q, then I_{ac} is also halved,

and so is Z_r , resonant input impedance of parallel circuit formed by the whip and its associated tuning inductance. If the coupling can't cope, the reduced load offered to the p.a. valve or transistor reduces its efficiency as a generator, further reducing I_{ac} .

With a wire antenna, given the voltage distribution — highest at the far end, then leakage at the far end will have worse effect than the same leakage at the feed point ($Z_r = E/CR_s$).

Merchant ship antennas

Forty metres of wire bent into an L, with a 15 metre vertical portion is not untypical. This length is better than $\lambda/4$ at 2MHz (vertical portion 36 degrees, $R_r > 16$ ohms and low L/C ratio), better than one wavelength at 8MHz or higher; radiation resistance is 30ohms or more in any h.f. band, and h.f. efficiency is high under any conditions. At 500kHz, the vertical portion has an actual height of 9 electrical degrees, the remaining 15 degrees (25 metres) being 'top loading'. According to the commercial designers, the top loading does not radiate; it is called the 'suppressed portion'. They concentrate attention on radiation from the vertical portion to achieve a desired field strength at a given distance, and include any radiation from the top and its associated radiation resistance in the 'losses'. A well designed symmetrical top with equal currents flowing in opposite directions might not radiate much at all (e.g. T-antenna), but an inverted-L is going to radiate two components, that from the vertical section being the most predictable and most useful.

The full 40 metres of wire (24°) in the inverted-L has a potential radiation resistance of about 1.9ohms at 500kHz, (not necessarily fully realised). As shown right, the current distribution in the vertical portion is, for practical purposes, a trapezium of the dimensions indicated

$$\text{Area} = \frac{(0.2588 + 0.04067)}{2} \times 9 = 2.995$$

$$\text{Effective height} = \frac{2.995}{0.4067} = 7.36^\circ (12.27\text{m})$$

$$\text{Radiation resistance} = 1580 \left(\frac{h}{\lambda} \right)^2 = 0.66\text{ohms}$$

Table 1. Performance of 22ft whip aerial

Frequency (MHz)	2	4	6	8	12
Length (electrical deg.)	16	32	48	64	96
Radiation resistance (Ω)	0.78	3	7	12	37
Current to radiate 50W(A)	8.0	4.08	2.67	2.04	1.16
Power radiated by 1A current (W)	0.78	3	7	12	37

Table 2. Efficiency of 22ft whip aerial

Frequency (MHz)	2	4	6	8	12
1 Ω loss	44%	75%	87.5%	92%	97.4%
3 Ω loss	20.6%	50%	70%	80%	92.5%
5 Ω loss	13.5%	37.5%	58%	70%	88%

Table 3. Performance of 12ft whip aerial

Frequency (MHz)	2	4	6	8	12
Length (electrical deg.)	8.8	17.5	26.3	35	52.6
Radiation resistance (Ω)	0.25	1.0	2.0	3.7	8
Current to radiate 50W(A)	14	7.1	5	3.7	2.5
Power radiated by 1A current (W)	0.25	1.0	2.0	3.7	8.0

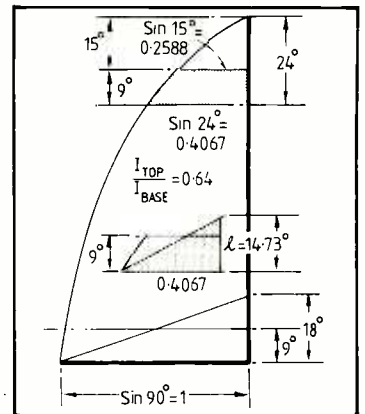
Table 4. Efficiency of a 12ft whip aerial

Frequency (MHz)	2	4	6	8	12
1 Ω loss	20%	50%	67%	85%	89%
3 Ω loss	7.7%	25%	40%	55.2%	72.7%
5 Ω loss	4.8%	16.7%	28.6%	42.5%	61.5%

Looking at it another way, the trapezium is equivalent in area to a triangle of equal base and height 1, so that $0.4067 \times 1/2 = 2.995$, so that $l = 14.73^\circ$ (24.55 metres).

So the top loading effectively increases actual antenna height, as far as the vertical portion is concerned, from 9 to 14.73°. An antenna of this height without top loading also has $R_r \approx 0.66\text{ohms}$, as can be verified from the curves on page 24.

If a 400-watt transmitter puts 10 amps up such an aerial, the power radiated from the vertical portion, omnidirectional and vertically polarized, will be 66 watts, and best efficiency about 16.5%. If leakage causes I_{ac} to fall to 1 amp, then power radiated drops to 0.66 watts, and transmitter-antenna efficiency down to a miserable 0.165%! Current in the capacitive branch of a parallel resonant circuit (the aerial) = $I_c = QI$. Introduction of 20 Ω series resistance, equivalent to 20k Ω parallel leakage, would decimate the Q, and the loss of resonant impedance Z_r that goes with it adds loss of p.a. generator efficiency, or simply trips the overload. At the same time it is difficult to ignore the fact that at 10 amp base current, current at the 'bend' is $10 \times 0.2588/0.4067 = 6.4\text{A}$. The top is 15° in length, R_r at least 0.68ohm, and power radiated from the top = $(6.4)^2 \times 0.68 = 28\text{W}$, most of it fired off in the direction of other planets, and



not to other ships. Total power radiated is 23.5%, 16.5 usefully. When radiation from the flat top exceeds that from the vertical portion, a limit is reached.

Perhaps an inverted-L is not a very good investment. The optimum top loading for this antenna would be about 81° non radiating, producing a rectangular pattern of current distribution in the 9° vertical and accepting more current at less potential. Area of current distribution is then 9, and a triangle on the same base has height 18°, R_r about 1ohm. Further increase in R_r would require an increase in vertical height beyond the present 9°.

Optimum top loading doubles the effective height and quadruples radiation resistance (R_r for a simple 9° aerial is 0.25 Ω). Even then, to maintain a radiated 10 watts, 3.2A aerial current is required.

Auto repeat for Hall-effect keys

Surplus Hall-effect keyboards can be obtained cheaply, but they often lack a repeat key or auto-repeat function. Many Hall-effect keys produce a single pulse when pressed, as opposed to a continuous output, and so do not lend themselves to this function. This design provides delayed auto-repeat on such keyboards and requires only three connections to the existing circuit.

The key matrix of a Hall effect keyboard is powered by a d.c. source, usually +5V or +12V. The pulse produced by pressing a key is translated into an ASCII value and a strobe pulse by the keyboard controller. This additional circuit switches the power supply to the matrix so that while a key is pressed, a pulse is produced each time that the supply goes from low to high, resulting in multiple strobe pulses. Supply to the controller is continuous of course.

Auto repeat at 10Hz starts about 1s after pressing a key. Repeat frequency is determined by R_1/C_1 and delay period by

the 4518 dividers; both are adjustable. The only connections between this and the existing circuit are the strobe pulse, power supply and key-matrix supply driver. Keys on which auto-repeat is not required may be connected to the continuous supply.

An extended strobe pulse is available. This is for use in terminals or computers using keyboard polling where the normal strobe pulse may be too short. All i.c.s are cmos so adaptation for other supply voltages is easy. Note that the transistor is not intended to switch large capacitive loads, so make sure that there are no large decoupling capacitors in the key-matrix supply circuit.

In steady state or after power up, IC_{3a} is reset and IC_{4a} pin six is low. Pins eight and nine of IC_{4b} are both high so the transistor is saturated and a continuous current flows through the key matrix.

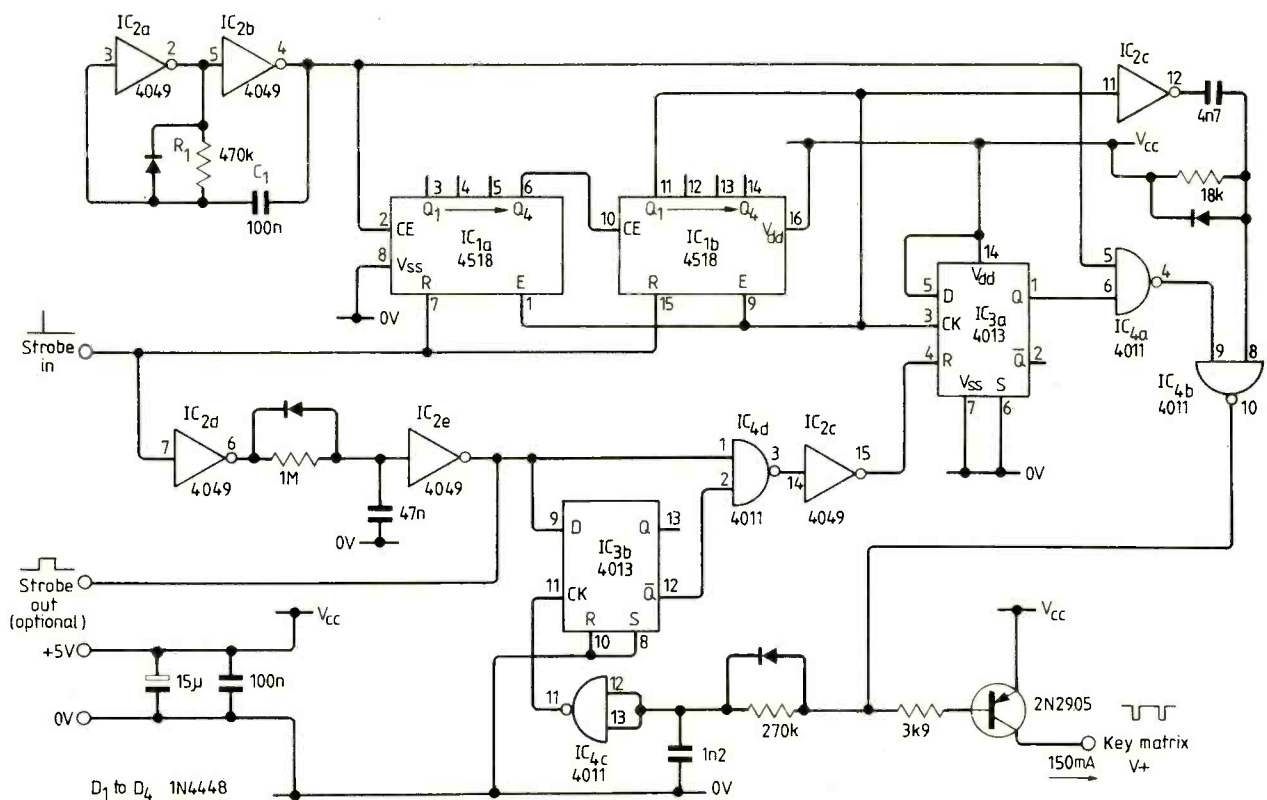
Pressing a key produces a positive strobe pulse at the input and resets both counters, $IC_{1a,b}$. After this narrow pulse, both counters count up to 20, output Q_1 of IC_{1b} becomes high and the counter stops.

The counter output low-to-

high transition generates a pulse to drive the transistor base and clock input of IC_{3b} . The transistor opens for a short time, producing one pulse in the matrix. If at this point the key is still pressed, a new strobe pulse occurs and restarts the counters; this pulse is stretched to around 10ms by the circuit around $IC_{2d,e}$. This strobe pulse is fed to the D input of a bistable device, IC_{3b} . Clock input of this device is triggered by the delayed matrix pulse through IC_{4c} . IC_{3b} is set and the reset condition of IC_{3a} is removed through IC_{4d} and IC_{2f} .

At the next counter time-out, IC_{3a} is set and asymmetrical clock pulses from $IC_{2a,b}$ are sent through $IC_{4a,b}$ to the transistor. The matrix is now switched at the clock rate until the key is released. After release, the strobe pulses disappear, IC_{3b} is reset and the circuit returns to its steady state.

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Asynchronous data separator for modems

An economical solution is shown for the asynchronous data separator requirement in modems having a three-to-two frequency ratio.

Timings shown relate to a standard recommended by the EEA* for data transmission over radio systems. At 1200 baud, a logical one is defined as one cycle of 1200Hz and a logical zero as one and a half cycles of 1800Hz, transmitted with phase continuity, Fig. 1. The signalling rate may also be 600 baud, when a logical one is two cycles of 1200Hz and a logical zero three cycles of 1800Hz.

The system is a synchronous one in that the receiver must be brought into synchronism with the transmitter in order to retrieve the data with the least chance of errors. Since it is necessary to derive the bit rate from the data transitions themselves, a means of asynchronous data separation must be used first, Fig. 2.

Received tones are limited to provide a square wave sequence with zero crossings corresponding to those of the input waveform. The sequence is then delayed by one and a half bit periods at 1200 baud and exclusive or'd with itself. This process is then repeated, but with a delay of one sixth of a bit period, to provide the retrieved data, as shown in the timing diagram. No modification is required for 600 baud operation. The bit pattern used in the example is 110011 at 1200 baud or 101 at 600 baud.

The practical example shown uses a 4731 quad 64-bit shift register as the delay element. Three of the registers are connected in tandem to provide the half bit-period delay.

Dividing a 3.6864MHz crystal oscillator by eight conveniently provides the 460.8kHz clock. Since the delay is achieved by a sampling method, a one-bit uncertainty on the 460.8kHz clock exists in the delay value. This takes the form of glitches

varying in width between zero and two microseconds at the output. These are removed by RC filtering at the output gate. L. Thomas
Comdial Communications
Cardiff
Wales

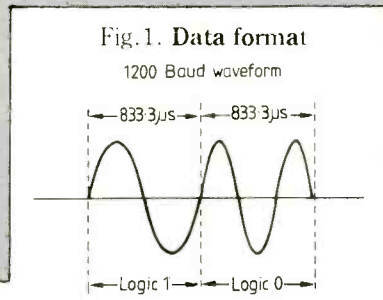


Fig. 2. Separator

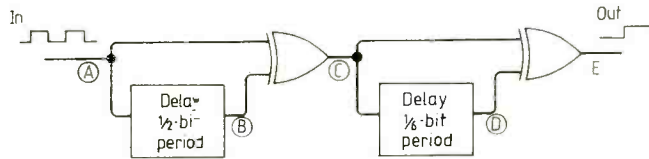


Fig. 3. Timing diagram

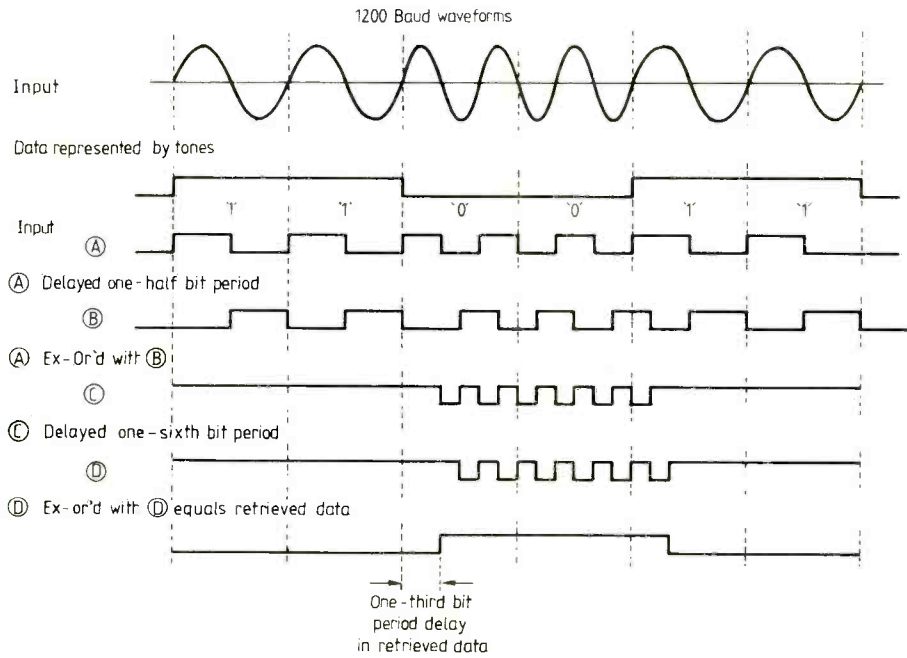
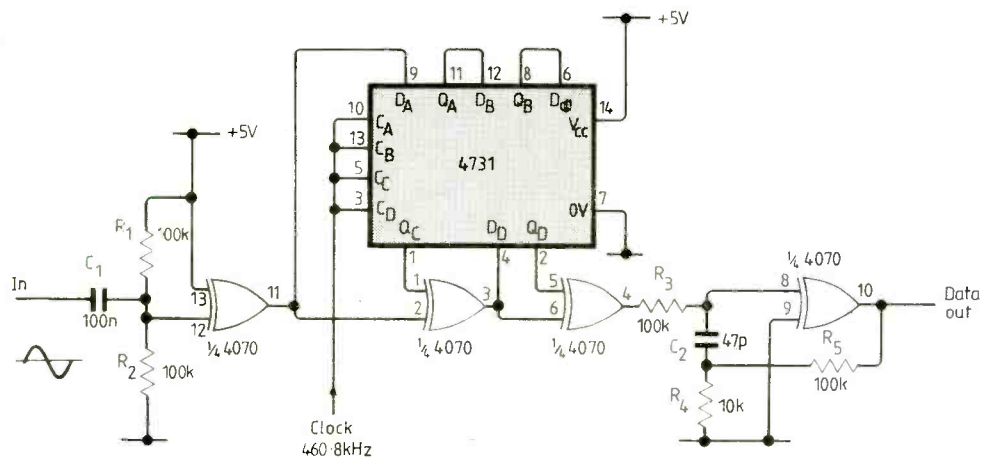


Fig. 4. Practical implementation



*Electronic Engineering Association, Leicester House, 8 Leicester Street, London WC2H 7BN.

Digital distorter

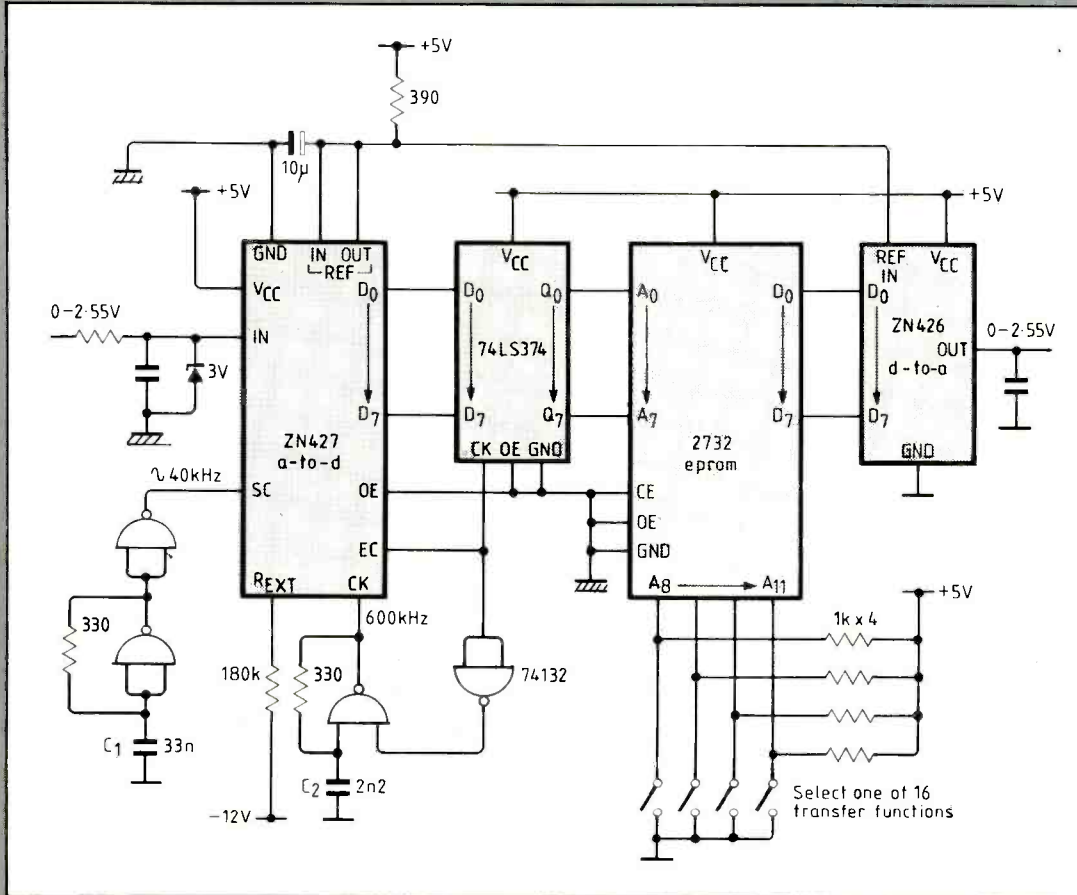
While working on a digital sound processing system, I hit upon the idea of using an eprom to distort the waveform coming into the system. Distortion can vary from simple clipping, which simulates an overdrive pedal, to as complex a non-linear function as required.

In my system, two eproms provide 16-bit resolution and 16 transfer functions are stored including linear, which has no effect on the signal, and full-wave rectify which doubles the frequency of a sine wave input. This circuit is an 8-bit version for simplicity and cheapness. One of 16 functions is selected using four switches.

Capacitors C_1 and C_2 are chosen to give the required sample rate and conversion times respectively. Input and output low-pass filters are essential and it is also useful to be able to adjust input gain for the best s/n ratio.

G. Hardy

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Nottingham University

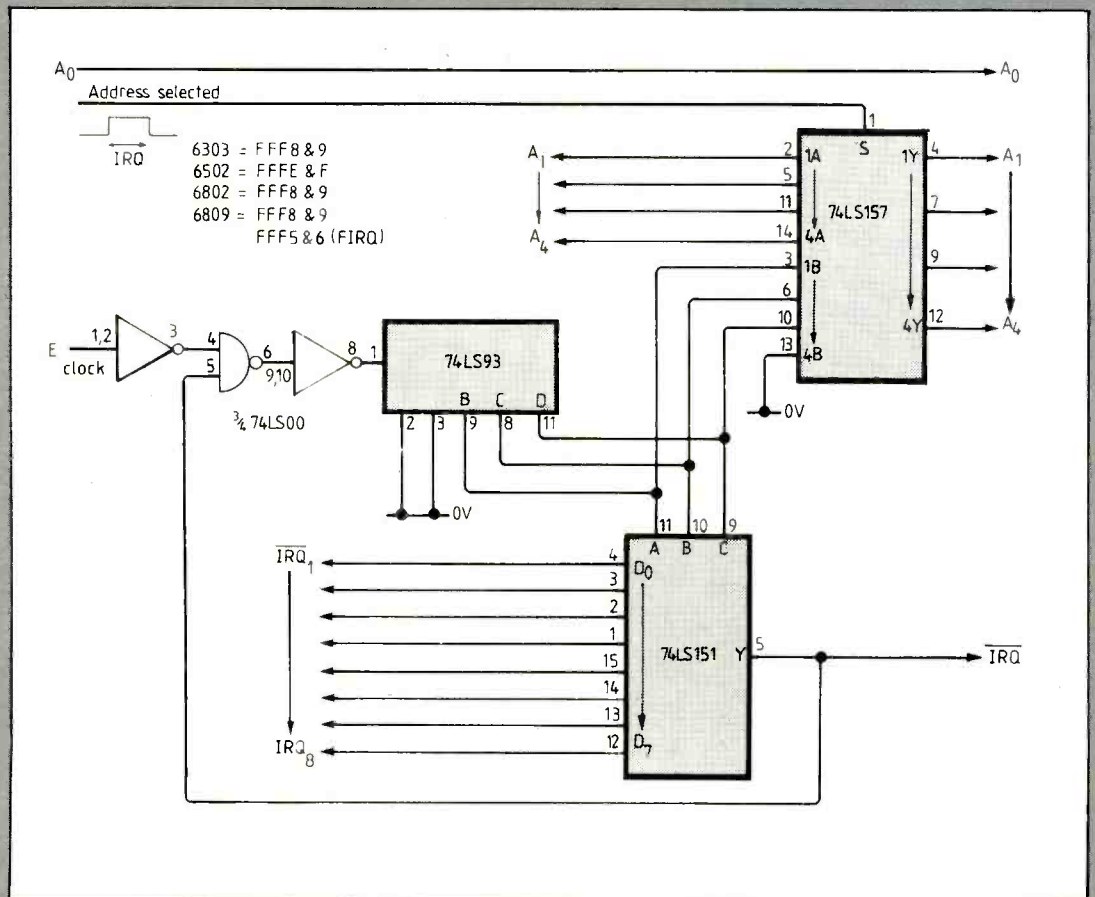


Vectored interrupts on 68-series processors

There is only one IRQ interrupt-request address for all peripherals on 68xx-series microprocessors but eight or more are possible using continuous scanning under control of the processor E clock. When an interrupt signal is detected, it is latched and the counter holds a value corresponding to the interrupting peripheral. The counter content is used by the processor as part of the service address for its interrupt-service routine; note that address line A_4 is changed to zero. This gives a pair of bytes to each peripheral in the range $FFE0$ to $FFFF_{16}$.

The number of peripherals can be increased to 16 by an extra 74LS150 and gates to make A_5 zero when the IRQ service occurs. On the 6809, a dual system can be implemented for IRQ and FIRQ.

A.W. Roscoe
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- *HZ65 Scope Comp. Tester £24.00
- *TC1 Transistor Tester £24.30
- *CM200 Bench Dig. Cap. Tester £89.00

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- *KD615 10A DC Hfe Tester (R) £34.75
- 6010 10A AC/DC (PB) £37.83
- 7030 10A AC/DC 0.1% (PB) £46.91
- *KD55C 10A AC/DC (R) £38.70
- *DM3350 10A AC/DC Auto (R) £43.44
- *KDS28T Miniature with Hfe test £29.52

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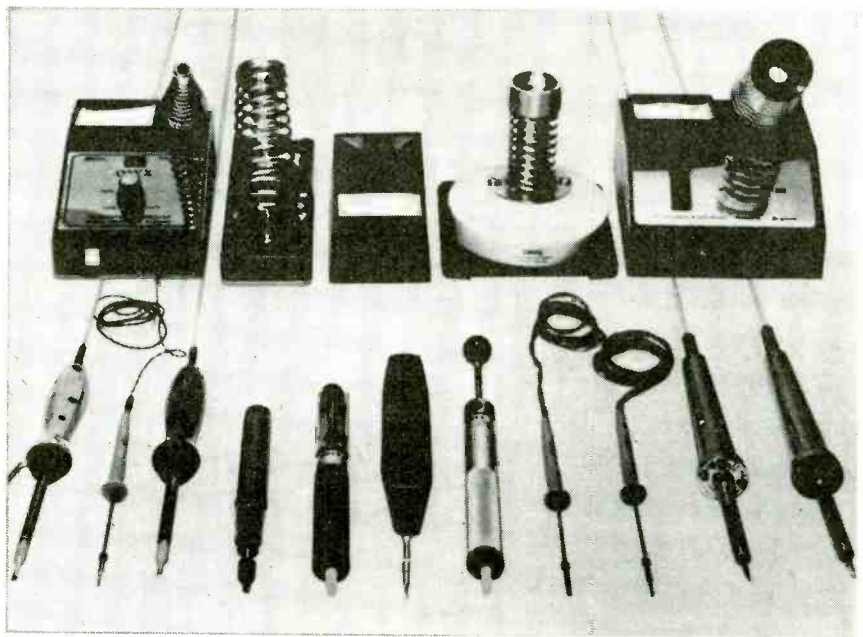
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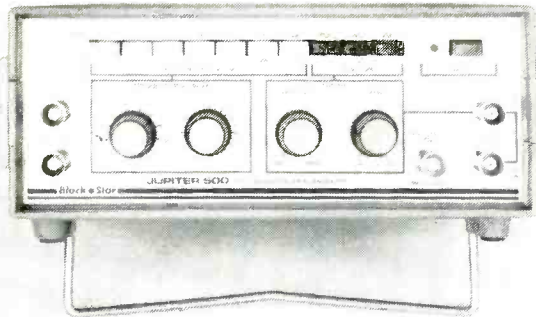
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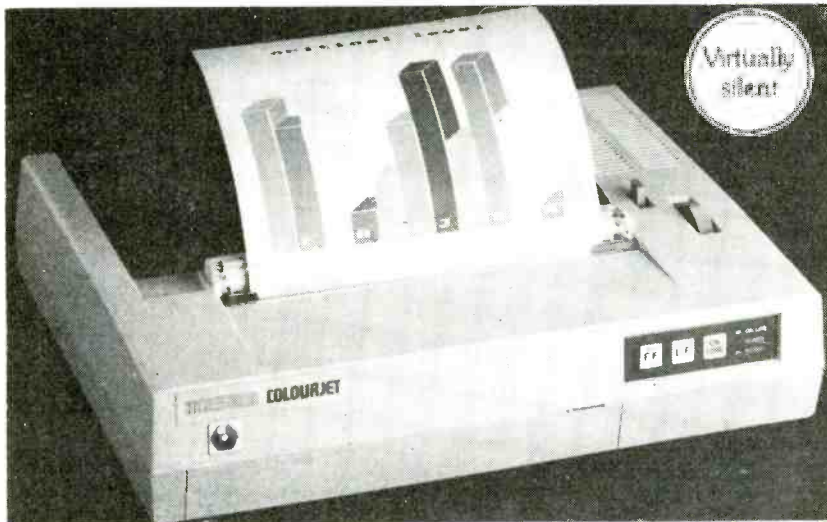
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CIRCLE 9 FOR FURTHER DETAILS.

GPIB instruments

Some additions to our March list

Anorad produce a range of precision servo-controlled positioning tables. Their Intelligent Axis Control System is a rack-mounting unit capable of accepting up to six axis control cards. Inputs can be from optical or mechanical switches, or direct from laser interferometers. Automatic calibration is provided. Laser Lines Ltd, Beaumont Close, Banbury, Oxfordshire OX16 7TQ. EWW250

Aerotech's Unidex III positioning system is a fast programmable movement controller for use with d.c. servos or stepping motors. The rack-mounting control unit can store up to 99 randomly-accessible programs. Up to 32Kbytes of battery-backed storage can be provided. Laser Lines Ltd, Beaumont Close, Banbury, Oxfordshire OX16 7TQ. EWW251

Bentham: the model 266 a-to-d converter is a dual 12-bit integrating converter with programmable sensitivity. It can poll up to 16 inputs and can read any two of them simultaneously. The price is £750. There is a dual drive unit for stepping motors complete in a box with its own power supply at £605, for use with (among other things) a range of movable positioning stages giving up to 250mm of travel with a positioning accuracy as close as 0.5 microns. A programmable monochromator photometer system allows the user to analyse optical radiation in the ultra-violet, visible and infra-red regions. Applications include measurements of spectral loss in optical fibres and end-point detection in plasma etching. Two software packages are available for the HP-85 microcomputer. Bentham Instruments Ltd, 2 Boulton Road, Reading, Berkshire RG2 0NH. EWW252

Druck make a range of pressure-measuring equipment based on silicon strain-gauges. Instruments with GPIB interface include digital pressure indicators for up to 15 channels (from £920), available with a variety of integral or remote transducers for pressures great and small (from about £300 extra); and a pressure controller-indicator (from about £2500). Druck Ltd., Fir Tree Lane, Groby, Leicester LE6 0FH. EWW253

IMS offer a multi-channel measurement and control interface. The chassis unit holds up to four modules which can be chosen from a range embracing high-resolution a-to-d and d-to-a converters,

thermocouple inputs and relay units. Optional extras include a penal-mounting dot-matrix printer and a 32K ram module. IMS Electronics, Unit R6, Riverside Industrial Estate, Bridge Road, Littlehampton, West Sussex BN17 5DF. EWW254

Kepeco produce in the USA an extensive range of linear and switch-mode power supplies, including modules for o.e.m. use, hardware and accessories. The range includes models for bench or laboratory use and for automatic test systems and there are high-voltage and bi-polar versions. All programmable models are GPIB-compatible, and in some cases even such features as over-voltage protection can be programmed. Techmation Ltd., 58 Edgware Way, Edgware, Middlesex HA8 8JP. EWW255

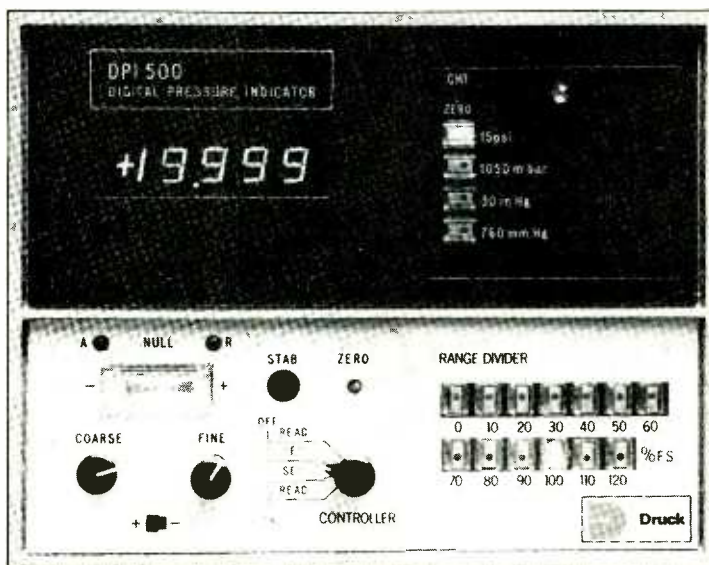
Microlink is a low-cost modular interface for connecting laboratory instruments to microcomputers. Plug-in units are available for applications in electronics and physics, engineering, chemistry and life sciences. Among them are counters and timers, a real-time clock, a stepper-motor controller and a heart-rate timer. Basic mainframe for seven modules costs £420; module prices range from £105 for an analogue input to £450 for a temperature unit. Control software can be supplied for Apricot, Apple, BBC, CBM, IBM, Hewlett-Packard and Sirius microcomputers. Biodata Ltd, 6 Lower Ormond Street, Manchester M1 5QF. EWW256

Mowlem Microsystems' Autonomous Data Acquisition Unit allows monitoring of up to 16 transducer channels simultaneously. An internal microcomputer with battery-backed memory offers a wide range of data logging functions, giving the unit a substantial degree of independence from the host computer. Modules include a-to-d inputs, signal conditioners, analogue outputs, cards for thermocouples and platinum resistance devices, a dual stepping-motor controller card, a relay card and a choice of strain-gauge cards. For closed-loop control an optional process control interface is available. Prices for a working system start at about £2,900. Mowlem Microsystems Ltd, Eastman Way, Hemel Hempstead, Hertfordshire HP2 7HB. EWW257

Rikadenki produce a series of graphics plotters extending from one-pen and two-pen flat-bed types to multi-pen recorders with up to 10 channels. Plug-in input modules can be chosen from a range which covers temperature, pressure and torque as well as a.c. and d.c. electrical measurements. Other modules offer features such as auto-ranging and automatic zero suppression. Rikadenki Mitsui Electronics (U.K.) Ltd, Oakcroft Road, Chessington, Surrey KT9 1SA. EWW258

Saunders and Associates manufacture two GPIB-controllable crystal impedance meters. Low and high frequency versions are available, covering quartz crystals

Below: An A3-size graphics plotter from Rikadenki; and (bottom) the Druck DPI500 pressure instrument which can measure or control pressures in any specified units.



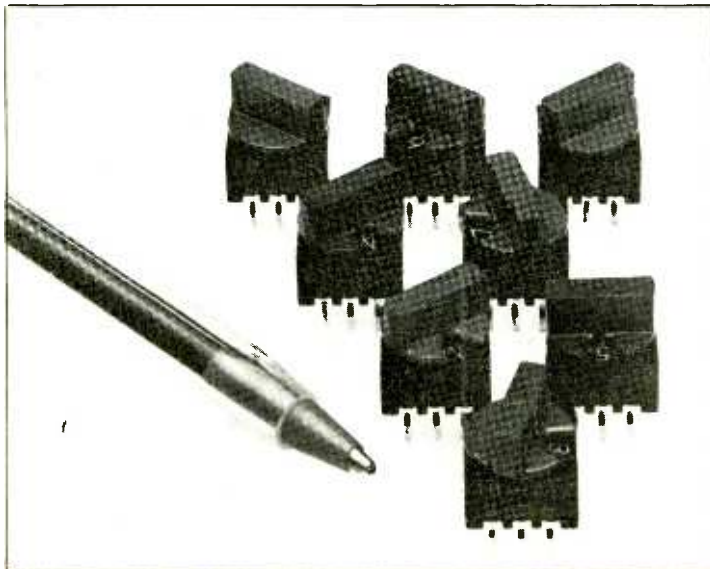
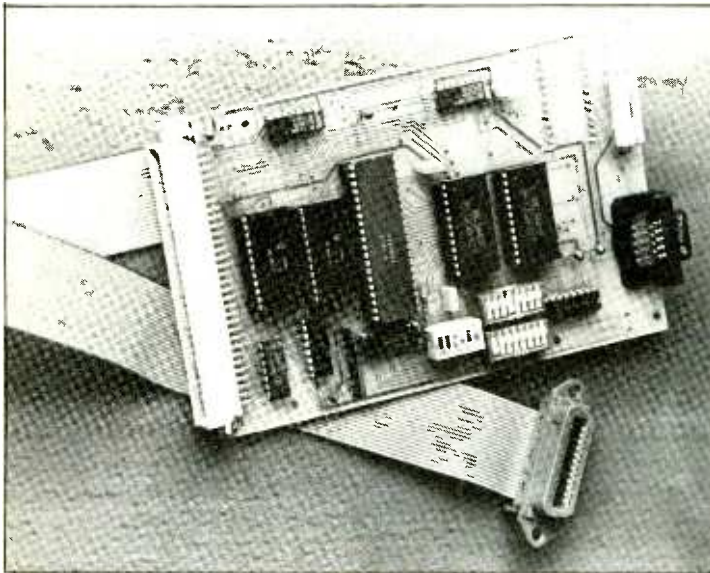
The Guildline digital platinum resistance thermometer mentioned in last month's survey costs less than we thought: the current price is £1,780.

in the ranges 8kHz to 1MHz and 1MHz to 60MHz. The crystal to be evaluated is mounted in an environmental test chamber (also bus-controlled) where it can be heated or cooled as required. Roditi International Corporation Ltd, Carrington House, 130 Regent Street, London W1R 6BR. EWW259

Techne make a range of laboratory equipment which includes environmental test enclosures, thermo-regulators, water baths, stirrers, coolers, sample concentrators and density gradient columns. **Techne Cambridge Ltd.**, Duxford, Cambridge CB2 4PZ. EWW260

Time Electronics specialize in calibration instruments. Their 9800 series includes voltage and current sources and calibrators (from £975), resistance boxes (from £820), a 24-way relay-switch unit with six command modes (£580), two precision power supplies (from £595), a speech synthesizer with a 280-word industrial vocabulary, a rotary trimmer adjuster (£620) and

Below: **IEEE488 communications card for the Triangle TDS900 Forth computer; and (bottom) an Amplicon model 87 digital panel meter with GPIB control software running on an IBM personal computer.**



a scanner system (master control frame costs £490, 10-channel modules £120 each). All can be supplied free-standing or in rack mounts. Also available is a complete multimeter calibration set based on an HP86 microcomputer. Calibration certificates can be provided and are traceable to the National Physical Laboratory. **Time Electronics**, Botany Industrial Estate, Tonbridge, Kent TN9 1RS. EWW261

YEW products are available from **Martron Ltd**, Park Street, Princes Risborough, Buckinghamshire. EWW262

GPIB and your micro

As an alternative to the purpose-built GPIB controllers available from several of the manufacturers in our lists, it is possible to use a microcomputer with a suitable interface and software. Sources of interfaces for some common micros are listed below:

Apple II: £250 from **E.D.A. (Software) Ltd**, 10 Victory Road, Chertsey, Surrey. EWW263

Apple II: £130 from **CIL Microsystems Ltd**, Decoy Road, Worthing, Sussex BN14 8ND. EWW264

BBC Micro: IEEE interface and software in rom, £282. **Acorn Computers Ltd**, Fulbourn Road, Cherry Hinton, Cambridge CB1 4JN. EWW265

BBC Micro (CST Procyon) and Sinclair QL: from **Cambridge Systems Technology**, 30 Regent Street, Cambridge. EWW266

Apricot (£285), Apple II (£242), BBC (£235), IBM-pc (£376): interface cards and software (from £95) from **Biodata Ltd**, 6 Lower Ormond Street, Manchester M1 5QF. EWW267

DEC Rainbow and IBM-pc: **Amplicon Electronics** supply an IBM interface card (£499) by **National Instruments**. Software includes a comprehensive program for configuring the bus (£66) and **Labtech Notebook** (£975), a program for data acquisition, control and analysis (it also interfaces to Lotus 1-2-3 and Symphony). **Amplicon Electronics Ltd**, Richmond Road, Brighton, East Sussex BN2 3RL. EWW268

Sharp MZ80B: GPIB card (£149) and cable (£49) from **Sharp Electronics (U.K.) Ltd**, Thorp Road, Newton Heath, Manchester M10 9BE. EWW269

Several microcomputer board systems have GPIB controllers either as a standard feature or as options:

CMS: Cambridge, Microprocessor Systems, 44a

Hobson Street, Cambridge CB1 1NL. EWW270

IBS Z80 computer: **Irvine Business Systems Ltd**, 1 Montgomery Place, Irvine, Ayrshire KA12 8PN. EWW271

Triangle TDS900 Forth computer: **IEEE communications card** from **Triangle Digital Services Ltd**, 100a Wood Street, London E17 3HX. EWW272

Instrument distributors

Carston Electronics Ltd, (second-hand test equipment, new and used computer equipment): 99 Waldegrave Road, Teddington, Middlesex TW11 8LL. EWW273

Electronic Brokers Ltd, (new and used electronic test and measuring equipment, computers and peripherals): 140-146 Camden Street, London NW1 9PB. EWW274

Electroplan Ltd, P.O. Box 19, Orchard Road, Royston, Hertfordshire SG8 5HH. EWW275

Instrument Rentals: this company also has some second-hand instruments for sale. **Dorcan House**, Meadfield Road, Langley, Slough, Berkshire SL3 8AL. EWW276

Lawtronics Ltd, 139 High Street, Edenbridge, Kent. EWW277

Livingston Hire, Shirley House, 27 Camden Road, London NW1 9NR. EWW278

Rental Electronics Ltd, 7 Arkwright Road, Reading, Berkshire RG2 0LU. EWW279

STC Instrument Services, Edinburgh Way, Harlow, Essex CM20 2DF. EWW280

Further reading

International Electrotechnical Commission IEC publication 625-1.
IEEE Standard Digital Interface for Programmable Instrumentation. The Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers, 30 November 1978.
IEEE bus standard. P.R. Ellefsen, *Wireless World*, June 1980, pp. 75-78.
Fisher and Jensen's Pet and the IEEE488 from Osborne (1980), although written specifically for Pet users, gives a technical description of GPIB and lists manufacturers, mainly in North America, of controllers, instruments, connectors and peripheral devices. It also includes a comprehensive bibliography.
 Many manufacturers produce application notes and technical descriptions relating to GPIB.

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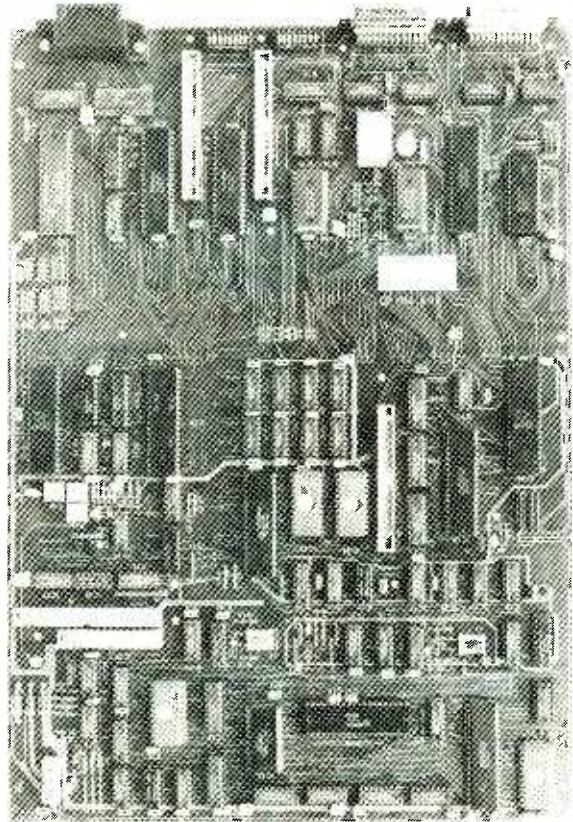
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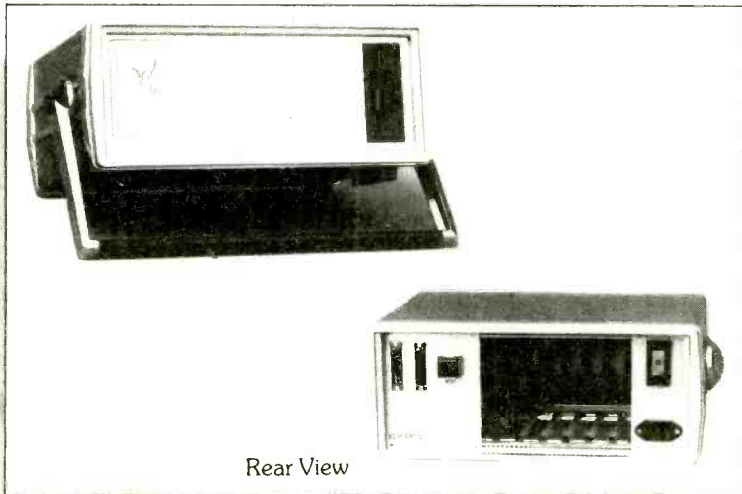


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4002	18	4043	42	6821	1.20	Z80A CTC	1.55	3mm yellow	12	5mm yellow	12			
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4011	18	4047	55	REGULATORS				Rectangular, square, arrow or triangular (flat face)						
4012	18	4049	32	78L05/12/15	30	7805/12/15	50	Red 15	Green 18	Yellow 18				
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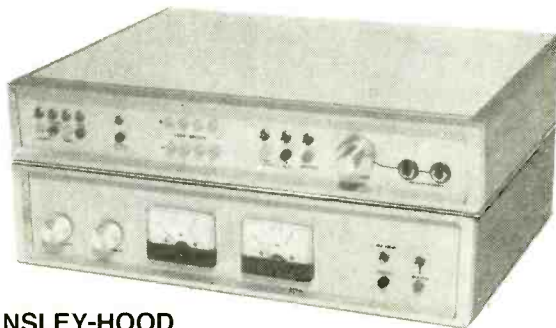
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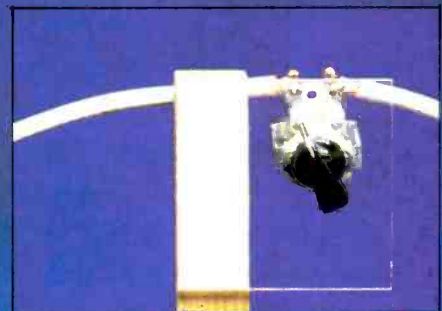
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CIRCLE 68 FOR FURTHER DETAILS.

Indoor loop aerial for short waves

by S. Mukherjee

Used with a communications receiver, a loop can help to reduce the effects of interference.



Loop antennas are useful indoors, where they often provide rather more protection than a rod aerial against noise from electrical appliances. If an outdoor whip or long wire antenna cannot be used for short wave reception, it may be worth constructing a compact indoor loop.

The loop antenna illustrated here has a main loop which is tuned to the band being received, and a small coupling loop which extracts the signal at a low-impedance level for connection to the receiver via coaxial cable. Both loops are screened against interference by making them from coaxial cable with a short

gap in the outer conductor at the top of the loop. The screening (coax. outer) is earthed symmetrically at the bottom of each loop, using the outer of the downlead as an earth connection.

You can make a frame for the loop from wooden laths or bamboo poles using simple tools. Ideally, the frame should allow for easy rotation of the antenna (to maximize pickup and avoid unwanted nulls in the figure-eight shaped directional pattern). It should also be easy to move about to find the best spot in the room which, in general, is likely to be a short distance behind a window, but which varies from building to building.

Best results will be obtained using a well-screened communications receiver fitted with a low impedance (50-80 ohm) antenna socket: with poorly screened receivers, stray pickup will bypass the loop and increase vulnerability to interference.

Tune the loop to a weak but steady transmission, using a large, insulated knob on the tuning capacitor to reduce hand effects (better with an insulated extension spindle as well). Mount the capacitor on a panel or platform of insulating material fixed near the top of the main loop.

In some receivers the antenna terminals sit at a d.c. potential above 'earth'; with these, insert blocking capacitors (say 10nF) between antenna and receiver.

The table gives dimensions for circular loops but square loops of equal area may also be used.

Diameter of main loop	700	440	350	mm
Diameter of coupler	140	105	80	mm
Tuning cap. max.	500	200	100	pF
Tuning range	4-9	8-18	18-26	MHz

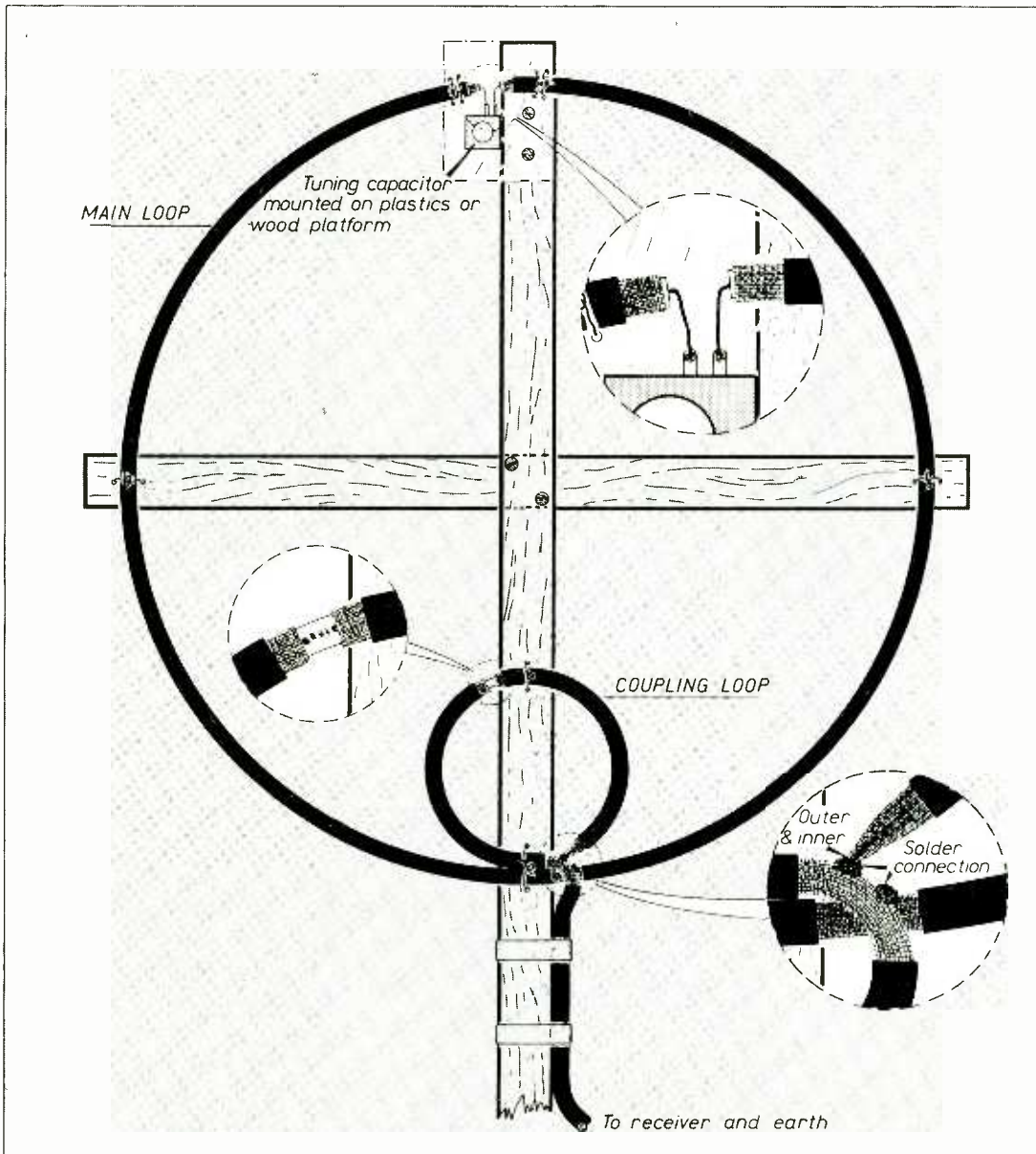


Fig.1 (facing page). Finished aerial, with (inset) detail of tuning capacitor.

Fig.2 Construction of aerial

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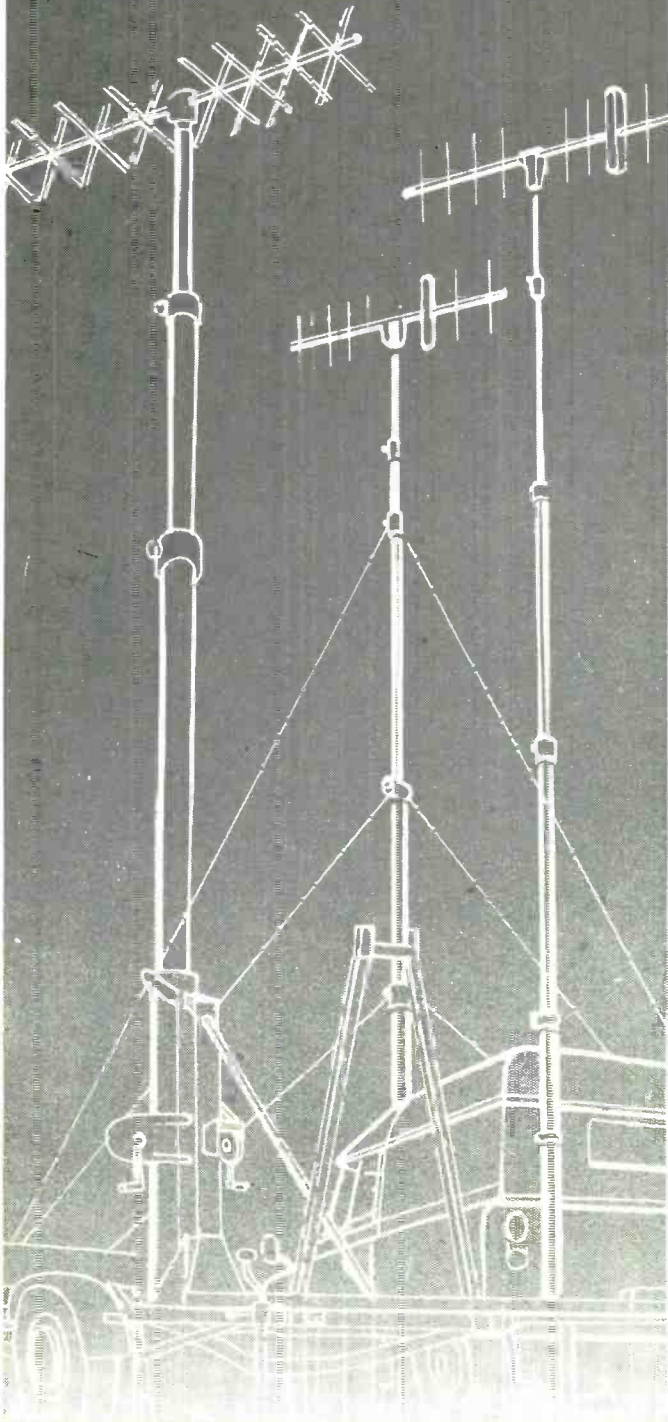
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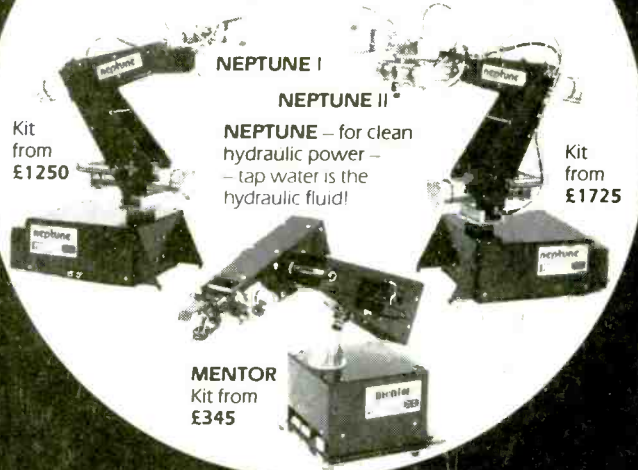
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The receiver is available in free standing or rack mounting form and all the original features are retained. The new am detector board achieves exceptionally low distortion: THD, 200Hz-6kHz at 90% modulation -44dB, 0.6% (originally 20dB, 10%). Reviewed Broadcast Sound, March/April 1984

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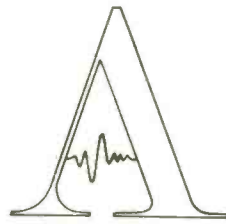
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CIRCLE 64 FOR FURTHER DETAILS.

Principles of optical storage – 2

by J.R. Watkinson

Focus and tracking mechanisms

The requirement for a monochromatic light source is economically met using a semiconductor laser. The laser output requires stabilization, since the output is very temperature dependent. To prevent thermal runaway, a feedback photodiode controls the current source feeding the laser. To extract a useful signal, the pickup must be capable of separating the reflected light from the incident light. Fig.7 shows two schemes to do this.

In (a) a half-silvered mirror reflects some of the returning light into the photosensor. This is not very efficient as some of the reflected light is lost by transmission. In the example shown at (b) the separation is by polarization. A polarizing prism passes light from the laser which is polarized in a plane at right angles to the page. This light is passed through a quarter-wave plate that rotates the plane of polarization through 45°. Following reflection from the disc, the light is again rotated through 45°, making the plane of polarization parallel to the page. The polarizing prism reflects this light into the sensor.

Stresses set up by moulding plastic can cause birefringence, so there have been some reservations about the feasibility of the second approach. The quality of disc moulding achieved, however, meant that birefringence could be neglected, and the polarizing beam splitter is used widely in the Sony consumer CD players, for example. Sony professional players and Philips players retain the semi-silvered mirror approach.

As the frequency response of the replay mechanism (unrelated to the audio response) of the spot size, care must be taken to keep the beam focused on the information layer. Disc warp and thickness irregularities

cause focal plane movement beyond the depth of focus of the optical system, and a focus servo is needed. The depth of focus of the optical system, and a focus servo is needed. The depth of field is related to the numerical aperture which is defined, and the required accuracy of the focus servo follows from that: approximately $\pm 1\mu\text{m}$.

The focus servo moves a lens along the optical axis to keep the spot in focus. Because dynamic focus changes are largely due to warps, the focus system must have a frequency response in excess of the disc rotational speed. A moving coil actuator is often used for this owing to the small moving mass which this permits. A cylindrical magnet assembly is used, coaxial with the light

beam; Fig.8 shows that it is almost identical to that of a loudspeaker.

Focus error system

A focus error system is necessary to drive the lens: Here are a number of ways in which this can be derived.

A cylindrical lens is installed between the beam splitter and photosensor, Fig.9. its effect is that the beam has no focal point on the sensor. In one plane, the lens appears parallel-sided, and has negligible effect on the focal length. The image is an ellipse whose aspect ratio changes as a function of position. Between the two foci, the image will be circular. The aspect ratio of the ellipse, and hence the focus error, is determined by dividing

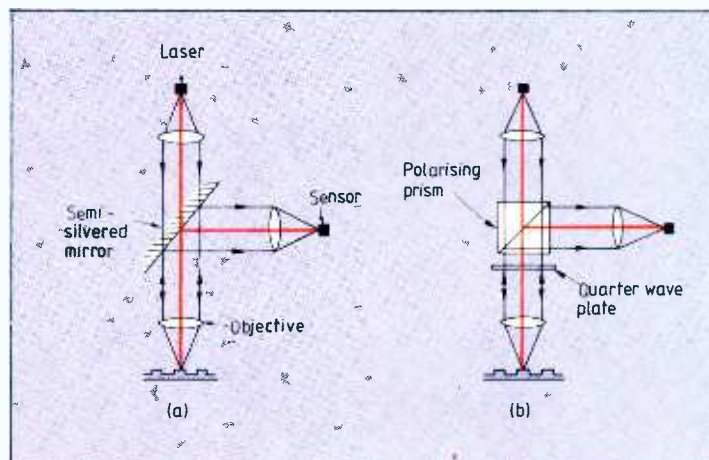


Fig.7. Two schemes to separate reflected and incident light. Light from the disc can be directed to the sensor by a semi-silvered mirror (a), or a combination of polarizing prism and quarter-wave plate can separate the beams (b).

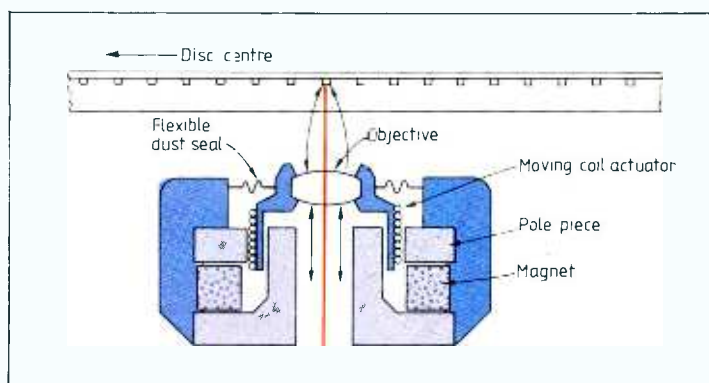


Fig.8. Moving-coil focus servo can be coaxial with the light beam. Magnet assembly is almost identical to that of a loudspeaker.

Fig. 9. In the cylindrical lens or astigmatic focus method an elliptical spot on the sensor, whose aspect ratio is detected by its four-quadrant nature, produces a focus error signal.

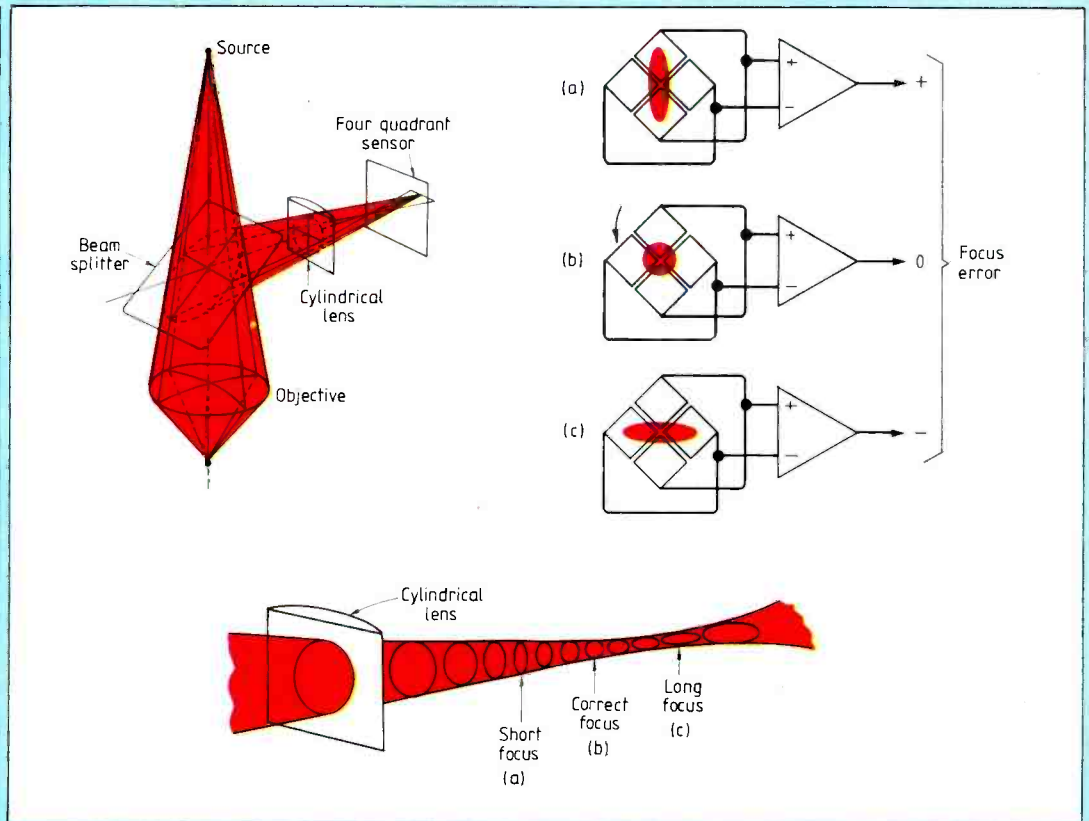
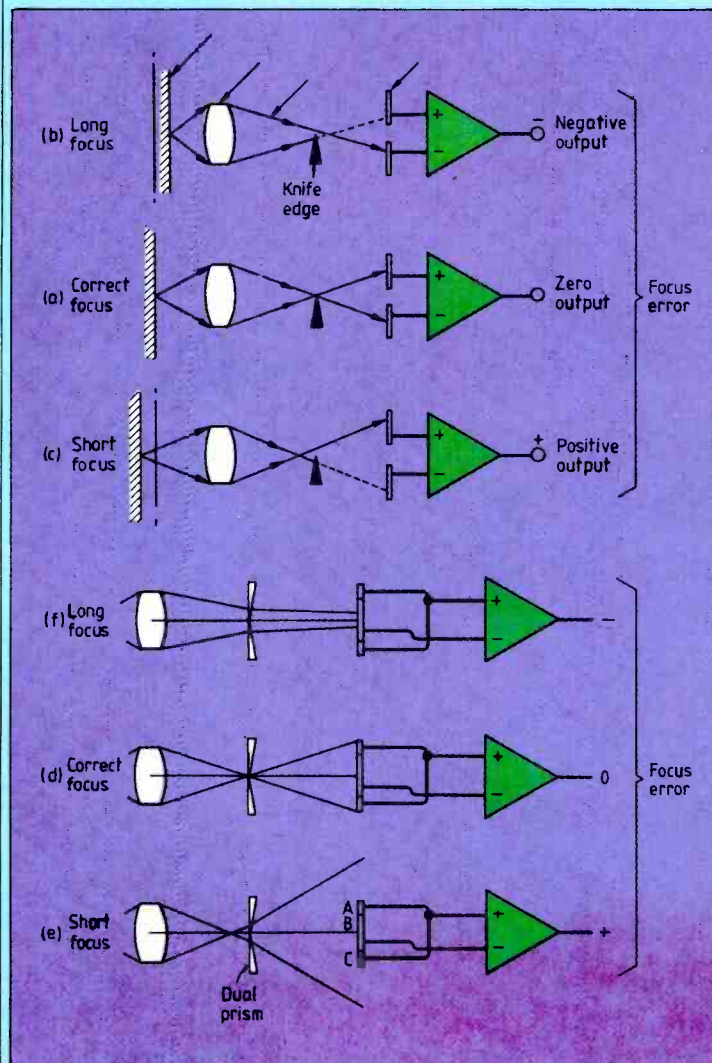


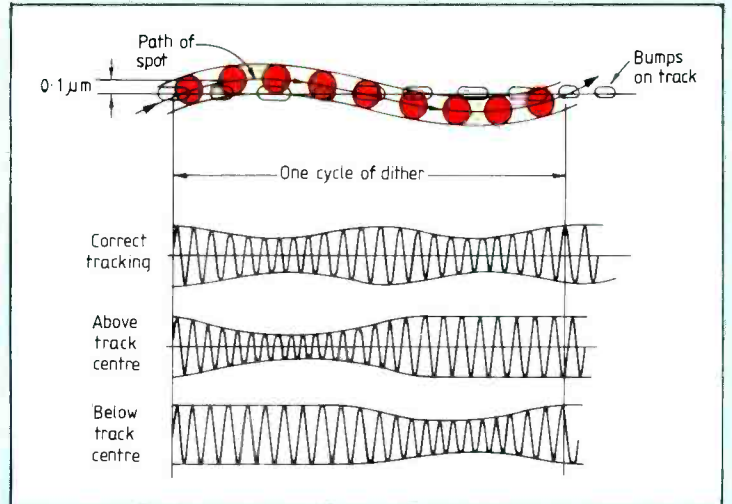
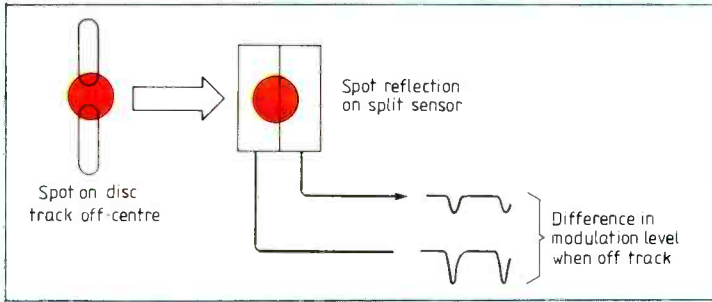
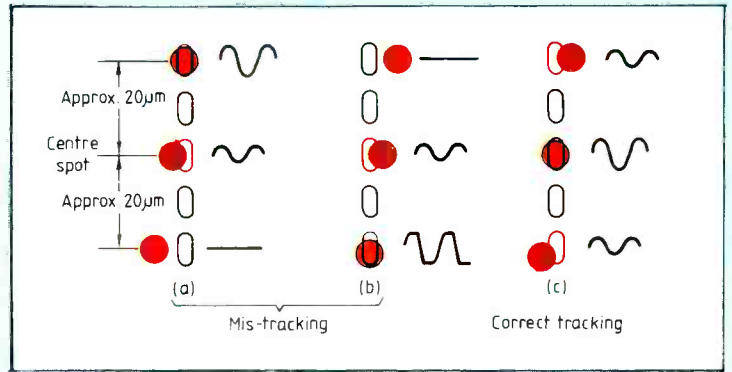
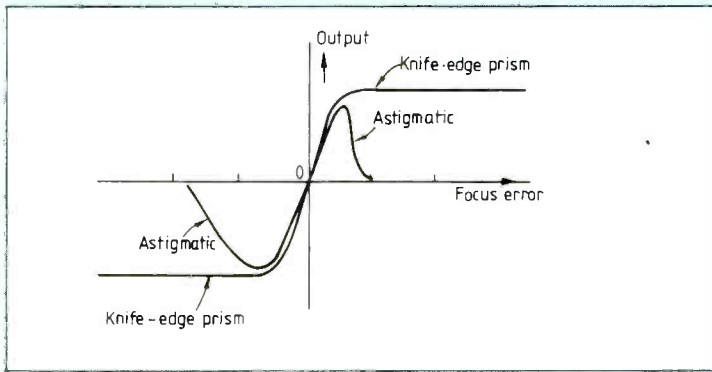
Fig. 10. Knife-edge focus method requires only two sensors, but is very critical on knife-edge position.



the sensor into four quadrants. Connected as shown, a focus error signal is generated. The readout signal is the sum of the four quadrant signals.

In the knife-edge method of determining focus, a split sensor is also required, Fig. 10. At (a) the focal point is coincident with the knife-edge, and it has no effect on the beam. At (b) the focal point is to the right of the sensor. At (c) the focal point is to the left of the knife-edge and descending rays are interrupted, reducing the output of the lower sensor. The focus error is produced by comparing the output of the two halves of the sensor. A drawback of the knife-edge system is that the lateral position of the edge is critical, and adjustment is necessary. To overcome this problem, the knife-edge is replaced with a pair of prisms, shown at (d) to (f). Mechanical tolerances only affect the sensitivity, without causing a focus offset.

The cylindrical lens method is compared with the knife-edge prism method in Fig. 11, which shows that the cylindrical lens method has a much smaller capture range. A focus-search mechanism will be required, which moves the focus servo over its entire travel, looking for a zero crossing. At this



time the feedback loop can be completed and the focus servo will remain on the linear part of the characteristic. The spiral track of CD starts in the centre and works outwards. This is deliberately arranged because there will be less vertical run-out near the hub, and initial focusing easier.

The dither-based system resembles in many respects the track following mechanism of C-Format v.t.r.s. A sinusoidal drive is fed to the tracking servo, Fig. 14, causing a radial oscillation of spot position of about $\pm 50\text{nm}$. This results in modulation of the envelope of the readout signal, which can be synchronously detected to obtain the sense of the error. The dither can be produced by vibrating a mirror in the light path, which enables a high frequency to be used, or by oscillating the whole pickup at lower frequency.

It is interesting to compare different designs of laser pickup. In the Philips laser head (Fig. 15) the dual-prism focus method is used, which combines the output of two split photosensors to produce the focus error. The focus amplifier drives the objective lens which is mounted on a parallel motion

Fig. 11 Knife-edge method may have a capture range of 1mm, whereas the astigmatic (cylindrical lens) may have a range of only 40µm, requiring a focus-search mechanism.

Fig. 12. Three-spot method of producing tracking error compares amplitude of side spot signals. Side spots are produced by a diffraction grating and require their own sensors.

Fig. 13. Split-sensor method of producing tracking error focuses image of spot onto sensor. One side of spot will have more modulation when off-track.

Fig. 14. Dither applied to readout spot modulates the readout envelope, to enable a tracking error signal to be derived.

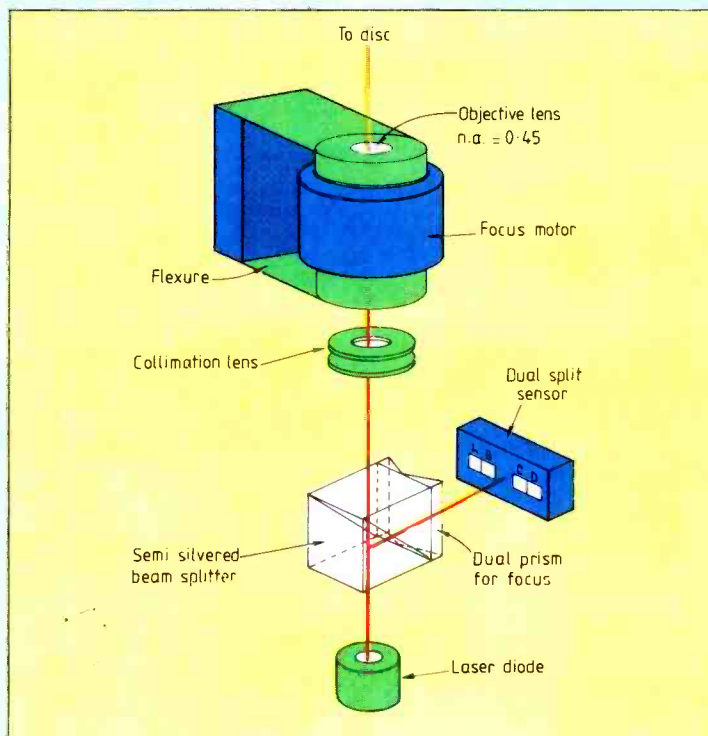
Fig. 15. In the Philips laser head, focus error is derived by the dual prism method, using split sensors. Focus error $(A+D)-(B+C)$ drives focus motor which moves objective lens on parallel action flexure. Radial differential tracking error is derived from split sensor $(A+B)-(C+D)$. Tracking error drives entire pickup on radial arm driven by moving coil.

Track following

The track pitch is only $1.6\mu\text{m}$, much smaller than the accuracy to which the player chuck or the disc centre hole can be made. A track-following servo keeps the spot centralized on the track in one of several ways.

In the three-spot method, two additional light beams are focused on the disc track, one offset to each side of the track centreline. Fig. 12 shows that the amplitude of the side spot modulation changes differentially with tracking error. The laser head contains a diffraction grating to produce the side spots, and two extra photosensors onto which the reflections of the side spots are focused. The side spots feed a differential amplifier.

A tracking error can be derived from a split sensor, because one side detects more modulation than the other when off track, Fig. 13. Such a technique may be prone to develop an offset, due either to component drift or to contamination of the optical system and a further tracking system may be necessary to obviate periodic adjustment.



formed by two flexural arms. Capture range of the focus system is sufficient to accommodate normal tolerances without assistance. A radial differential tracking signal is extracted from the sensors as shown in the figure.

Additionally a dither frequency of 600Hz produces modulation which is synchronously rectified to produce a drift-free tracking error signal. Both errors are combined to drive the tracking system. As only a single spot is used, the pickup is relatively insensitive to angular errors and a rotary positioner can be used, driven by a moving coil. The assembly is statically balanced for good resistance to lateral shock.

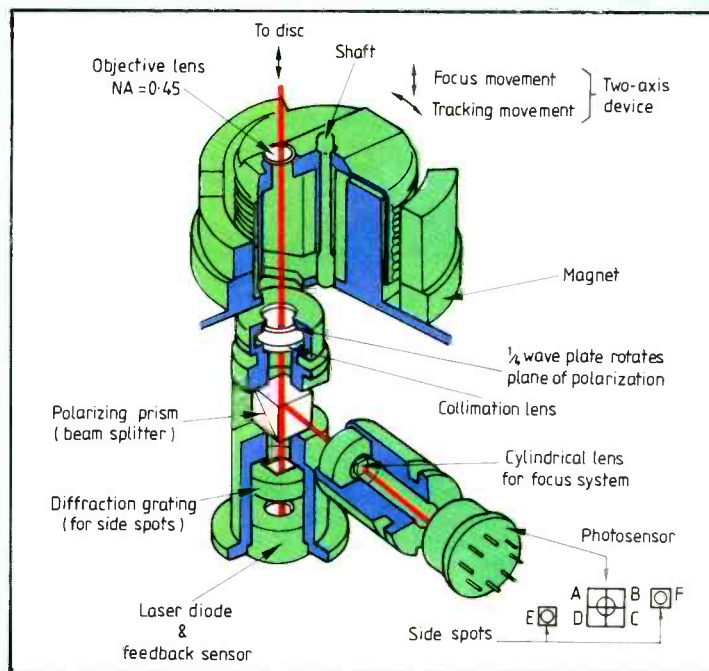
In the Sony laser head, used in consumer players, Fig. 16, the cylindrical lens focus method is adopted, requiring a four quadrant sensor. As this method has a small capture range, a focus-search mechanism is necessary so that when a disc is loaded the

Fig. 16. The Sony laser head uses a four-quadrant sensor and two extra sensors (E,F) for the side spots. Tracking error (E-F) and focus error (A+C)-(B+D) drive the two-axis device.

objective lens is ramped up and down while the focus circuit looks for a zero-crossing in the focus error. The three-spot method is used for tracking; the necessary diffraction grating can be seen adjacent to the laser diode.

Tracking error is derived from side spot sensors (E - F). Because the side-spot system is sensitive to angular errors, a parallel-tracking laser head is essential. Cost-effective linear motion is obtained by using a rack and pinion drive for slow coarse movements, and a laterally moving lens in the light path for rapid fine movements, and a laterally moving lens in the light path for rapid fine movements.

The same lens is moved up and down for focusing by the



so-called two-axis device, which is a dual moving-coil type of mechanism. Unfortunately the two-axis device is not statically balanced in many players,

making them more shock sensitive than necessary, though the problem was overcome in laser heads designed for portable players.

Background note on optical polarization

Polarization. In natural light, the electric field component is in many planes. Light is said to be polarized when the electric field direction is constrained. The wave can be considered as two orthogonal components. When these are in phase, the polarization is said to be linear. Where there is a phase shift between components, the polarization is said to be elliptical, with special cases at $\pm 90^\circ$ known as circular polarization.

To create polarized light,

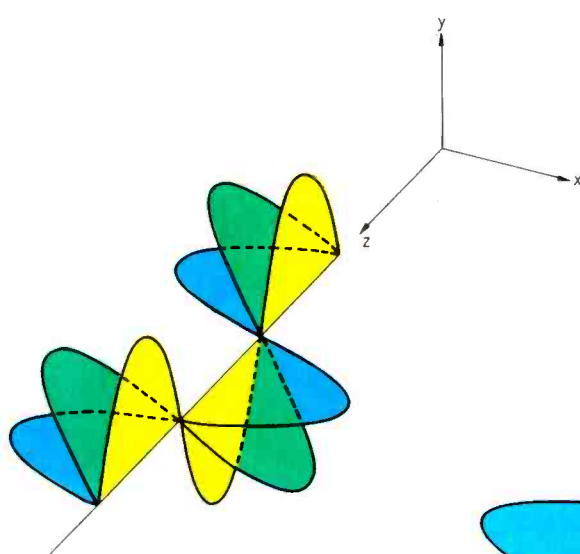
anisotropic materials are generally necessary. Polaroid material, invented by Edwin Land, vinyl which is made anisotropic by stretching whilst hot. Oriented long-chain molecules form a structure that is rendered conductive by soaking in iodine. The transmission axis is perpendicular to the direction of stretching, since electric fields parallel to the long chains are absorbed.

A material whose refractive index is anisotropic is said to be

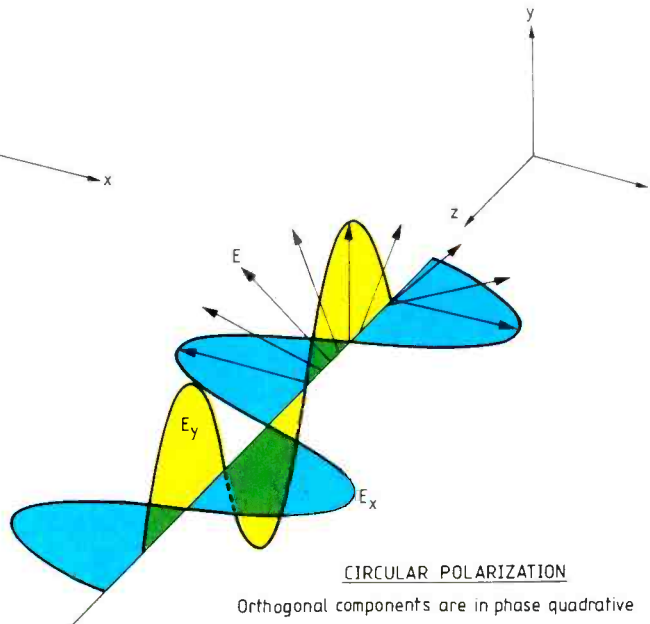
birefringent. If a linearly polarized wavefront enters such a medium the two orthogonal components propagate at different velocities, causing a relative phase difference proportional to distance. Where the thickness of the material is such that a 90° phase difference is caused, the device is a quarter-wave plate. Where the plane of polarization of the incident light is at 45° to the axes of greatest and least refractive index, the two orthogonal components will be

equal in magnitude, and the result will be circular polarization.

Similarly, incident circularly-polarized light will be returned to the linear state. Thus linearly-polarized light which has passed through a quarter-wave plate and been reflected back again will be linearly polarized but in a plane at right angles to that of the incident light. This principle can be used in conjunction with a polarizing prism that passes light in one plane but reflects light in the other plane.



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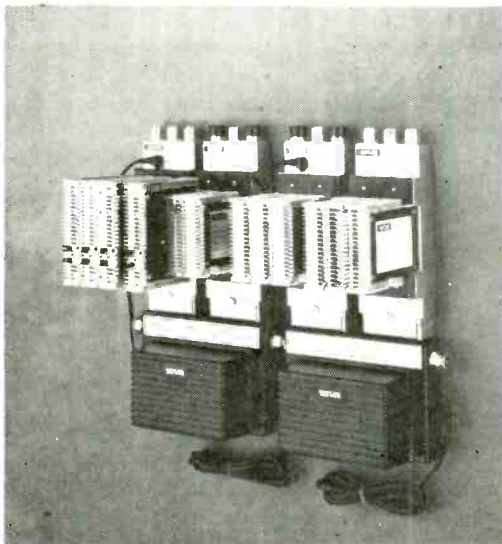
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TS1040S Single channel UHF driver amplifier. 10dB gain. Maximum output 40dBmV. Power requirement 14V 10mA. (Quote channel required).

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TS2046 40-860MHz. Gain 20dB UHF. 18dB VHF. Maximum output 46dBmV.
TS2846 40-860MHz. Gain 28dB UHF, 22dB VHF. Maximum output 46dBmV.
TS2845 Separate UHF/UHF inputs. Gain 28dB UHF, 22dB VHF. Maximum output 46dBmV.
TS2054 40-860MHz. Gain 20dB UHF, 18dB VHF. Maximum output 54dBmV.
TS2060 40-860MHz. Gain 20dB UHF, 18dB VHF. Maximum output 60dBmV.
TS5565 Gain 55dB UHF, 55dB VHF, 42dB FM. Maximum output 65dBmV.

REPEATER AMPLIFIERS

TSC3660 Repeater. Gain 16-36dB UHF, 10-30dB VHF. Maximum output 60dBmV.
TSC3665 Repeater. Gain 16-36dB UHF, 10-30dB VHF. Maximum output 65dBmV.
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CIRCLE 34 FOR FURTHER DETAILS.

Variable-speed video playback

The series concludes with a discussion of digital filtering

The type of digital filter used in TBCs is the equivalent of the analogue delay-line comb filter. The entire approach to TBC design is that delay is easy to achieve in the digital domain, and this applies equally to the delays in the filters.

The operation of an analogue filter will be examined first, since this will be used as an analogy in the description of the digital filter.

Reference to Fig. 9(a) shows that an input signal enters an operational amplifier both direct and via an analogue delay. The phase difference between the ends of the delay is a function of the input frequency, and is given by:

$$\frac{\text{delay period}}{\text{signal period}} \times 360^\circ$$

The op-amp output is the vector sum of the two inputs:

$$\frac{1}{2}V_{in} + \frac{1}{2}V_{in} \sin \theta$$

where θ is the phase angle between the inputs. When the delay period exceeds the signal

period, the phase difference given by the first expression will exceed 360° , and clearly subtracting 360° or multiples thereof does not change the vector sum. There will thus be a series of signal periods all of which have the same gain. The frequency response becomes repetitive, hence the term 'comb filter'. Figure 9(b) shows several frequencies, all of which suffer complete cancellation due to effective inversion by the delay, and Fig. 9(c) shows frequencies which give unity gain because the delay is an integer multiple of the signal period. Figure 9(d) shows the overall frequency response, which has a rectified cosine shape. Note that the peak spacing is at the reciprocal of the delay period.

A sharper response peak can be achieved by using two delays, as in Fig. 10(a). The op-amp now has three inputs. Figure 10(b) shows the situation where a frequency which suffers 180° shift in each delay is applied. Since the twice delayed signal and the input

signal will add, they must receive half as much gain as the signal from the centre tap. The op-amp thus has input gains of $+\frac{1}{4}$, $-\frac{1}{2}$ and $+\frac{1}{4}$. The frequency response shown in Fig. 10(d) is a cosinusoid, in which the peak spacing is the same as for Fig. 9.

Figure 11 shows a relative of the two-delay filter of Fig. 10. The difference is that the weights and phases of the inputs are all the same at $+\frac{1}{3}$. When the input frequency suffers a phase shift of 120° there will be complete cancellation. The system acts as a comb filter with the response shown in Fig. 11(b), where the first null is at one third of the reciprocal of the delay.

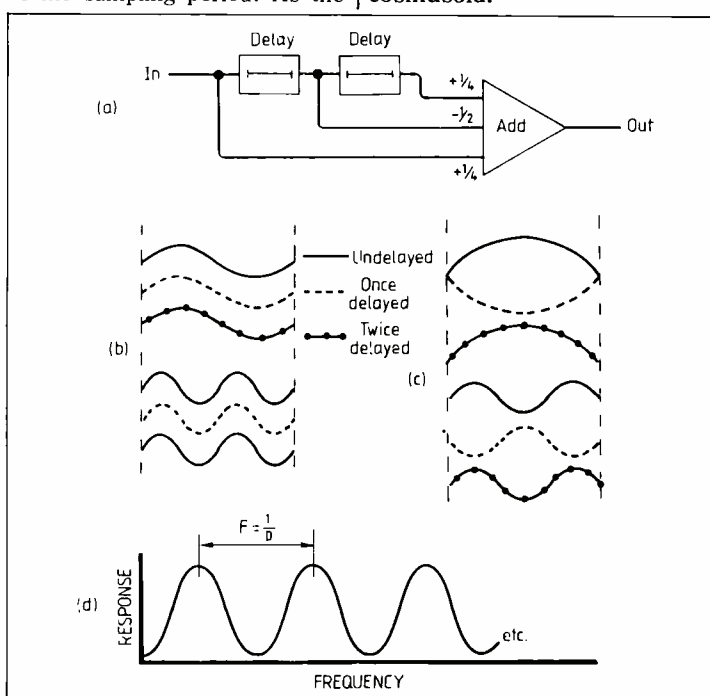
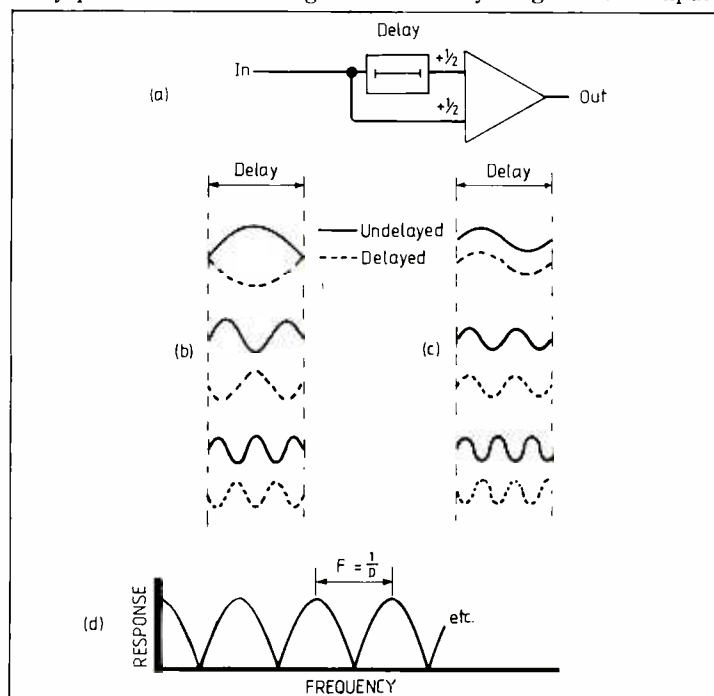
Transferring to the digital domain, signal voltage is represented by a binary number, delay is achieved using latches, and a full adder performs the function of the op-amp. Figure 12 shows the digital equivalent of Fig. 10. The constraint in this kind of digital filter is that the delay periods available are all integer multiples of the sampling period. As the

By
J.R. Watkinson,
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Ampex (G.B.) Ltd.

Fig.9. Simple comb filter at (a) has delay in one input of **adder**. At some frequencies, (b) delay causes cancellation, whereas at others (c) delayed and undelayed signals are in phase. Frequency response shown at (d).

Fig.10. Two-delay comb filter at (a). In (b) certain frequencies suffer 360° shift in one delay, but since once-delayed signal has twice the weighting, there is cancellation. At (c) is 180° resultant phase shift in one delay, removed by inverting input, permitting unity gain. Response at (d) is cosinusoid.



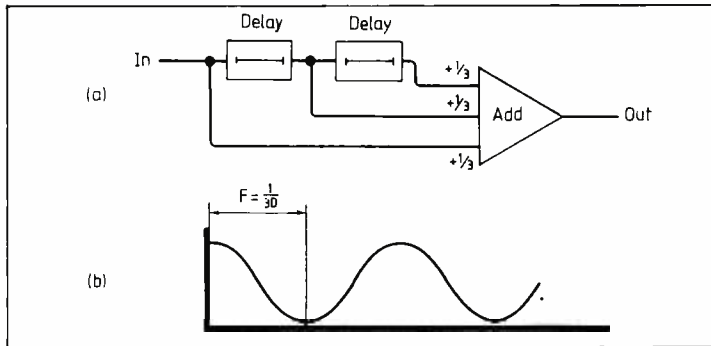


Fig. 11. Comb filter working on 120° delays to give cancellation. Response at (b). Nulls are 1/3D, 2/3D, etc.

Fig. 12. Digital Y/C separation at $4 \times F_{sc}$ uses pairs of latches to give 180° phase shift at subcarrier frequency. Binary adders and dividers give weighting of $+1/4$, $-1/2$, $+1/4$ to three samples. Chroma output is subtracted from the input to give luminance. Compare with analogue filter of Fig. 10. There is only one response peak at F_{sc} , since Nyquist limit for $4 \times F_{sc}$ sampling is reached at $2 \times F_{sc}$.

delay period is intimately related to the frequency response, the desired response and the sampling rate largely determine the filter configuration. It is also important to note that there is an upper frequency response set by the Nyquist limit at half the sampling rate, so that only a few teeth of the comb will be visible.

Y/C separation requires selective response around subcarrier frequency, and sampling rate will be $3 \times$ or $4 \times$ subcarrier. Figures 10 and 12 show filters where a phase shift of 180° is necessary at the null frequency. 180° of phase shift in the digital domain is conveniently achieved by a delay of two samples at $4 \times F_{sc}$ sample rate, and this configuration would be used for a TBC working at that rate. Figure 11 showed a filter which needed a delay of 120° at the null frequency, which corresponds to a single sample period

at $3 \times F_{sc}$. Figure 13 shows a digital filter for a $3 \times F_{sc}$ TBC. Since division by three is difficult in binary, a close approximation is given by multiplying by 85 ($64 + 16 \times 4 + 1 \times 1$) and dividing by 256 (eight-bit shift).

The $4 \times F_{sc}$ filter of Fig. 12 has a gain peak at subcarrier frequency, and the output will be chroma. To obtain luminance, chroma samples are simply subtracted from input samples. The $3 \times F_{sc}$ filter of Fig. 13 has a gain null at subcarrier, and the output will be luminance. In this case chroma is obtained by subtracting the filter output from the input samples. In each case separate sample streams of luminance and chrominance result.

Owing to V-switch it is necessary to store two lines of chroma, but only one of luminance, and this storage can be ram or shift registers. During a dropout, samples from the luminance memory and the appropriate chroma memory are selected instead of input samples. A dropout during the burst will leave the luminance intact, but will destroy the chroma for the entire line. This is usually referred to as chroma dropout, and is dealt with by using 2H previous chroma for the entire line, in conjunction with the current luminance.

Figure 14 shows the $3 \times F_{sc}$ DOC of the Ampex TBC-2. Input

data are Y/C separated and the chroma is subject to a 1H delay before being combined with the luminance once more. This has the effect of adding previous line chroma to current luminance. The composite signal then suffers a further 1H delay, making the output the requisite 1H prior luminance with 2H prior chroma. The elegant position of the Y/C adder eliminates the need for a separate 1H Y delay. During dropout, the multiplexer selects memory data instead of input data, and these data are also recirculated to the memory inputs to prevent bad data entering the system. This DOC precedes the main memory and is operated almost directly by the v.t.r. r.f. level.

At the opposite extreme is the Sony BVT 2000 shown in Fig. 15. Since this unit offers colours in shuttle and Y interpolation during odd/even field mismatch, it is necessarily complex. As luminance interpolation requires a dedicated 1H delay, there are three memories, luminance, +V chroma and -V chroma. This DOC resides after main memory, so that it works at reference timing. The dropouts which it corrects took place several lines earlier owing to the advance of the v.t.r. The TBC must store for each line of video additional data which records where any dro-

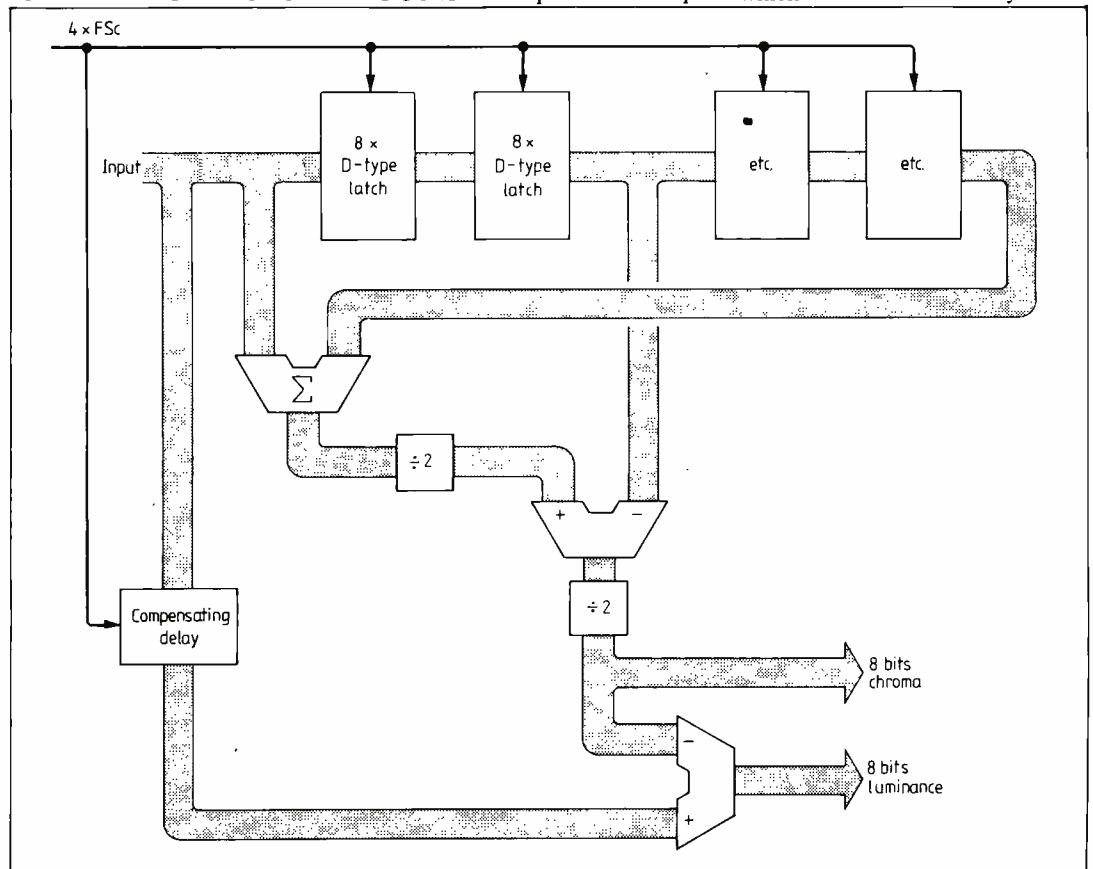
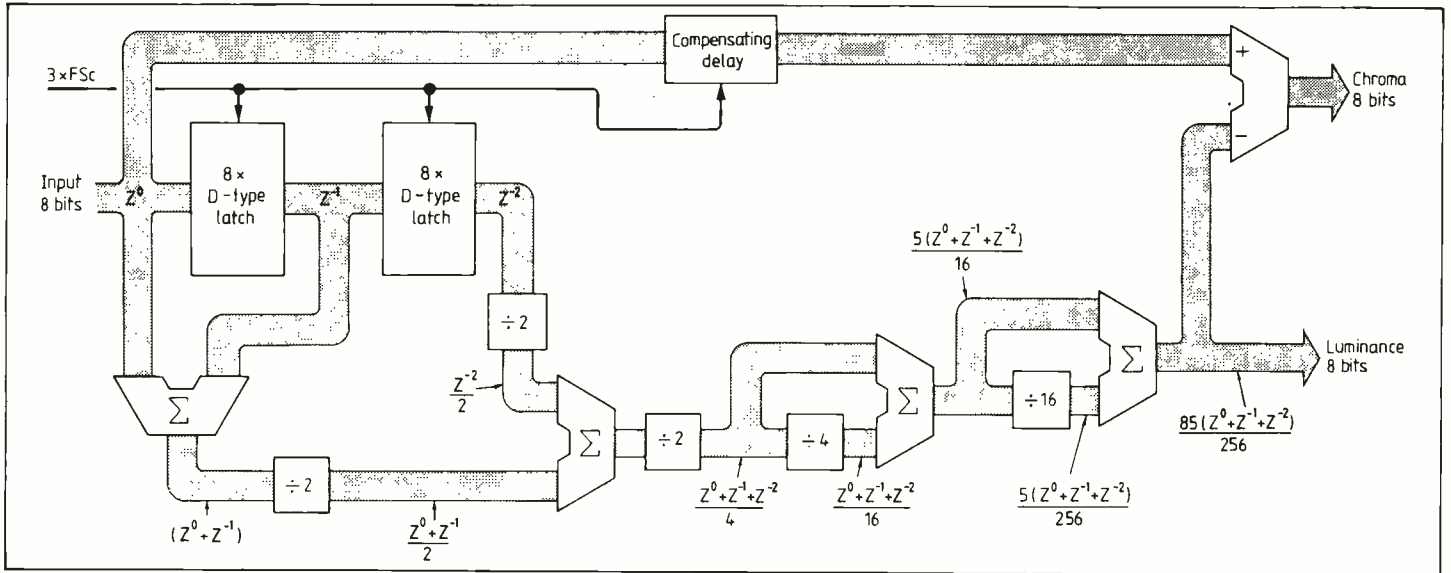


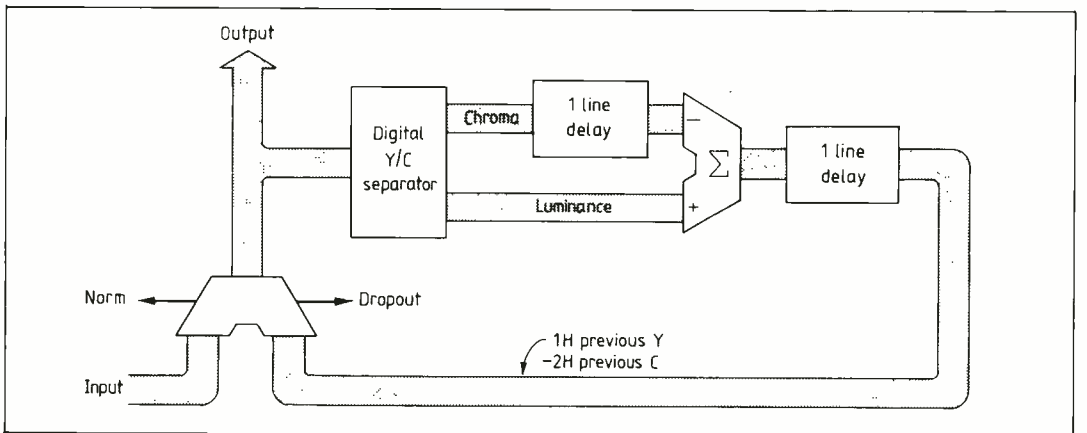
Fig. 15. Opposite page BVT-2000 DOC incorporates luminance interpolation for second field synthesis. Plus and minus V chroma memories are selected alternately at 7.8kHz. During long dropouts in shuttle, plus/minus control inverts chroma every two lines (3.9kHz). Dropout inhibits writing the delays, preventing corrupt data entering the system.



pouts occurred. This is the function of the Y DO memory. Similarly burst dropouts are remembered in the C DO (Chroma Dropout) memory.

Normal dropout compensation consists of selecting 2H previous chroma for the entire line, and 1H prior luminance at the points determined by the YDO memory. In shuttle, the head may jump within the field, causing a long dropout as the head crosses the guard band. In this case, the data from before the dropout are repeated until valid video from the new track resumes. Owing to the PAL four line sequence, the chroma must be taken on alternate lines from the +V and -V memories, (7.8kHz) and every pair of lines, chroma must be inverted by subtracting it from luminance instead of adding (3.9kHz).

During interpolation, the Y



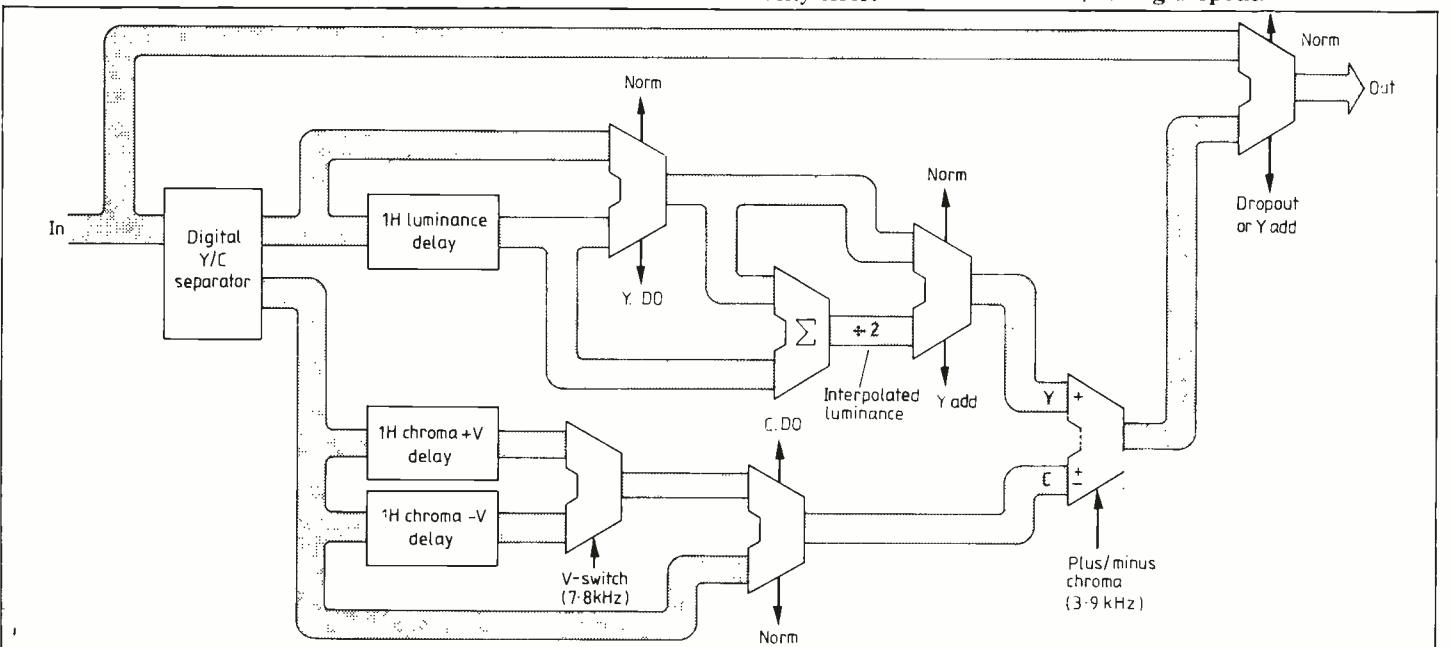
ADD signal will cause 1H prior luminance and current luminance to be averaged by adding and dividing by two. Chroma with the appropriate V-sense is then added. Since Y interpolation depends on spatial alignment of samples on adjacent lines in a field, the BVT 2000 uses phase

alternate line encoding (see Part 2) to overcome the 3.9kHz rate burst inversion relative to H sync.

The memory system of this unit thus has five separate elements: video, luminance dropout position, chroma dropout status, chroma inversion status and velocity error.

Fig. 13. $3 \times F_{sc}$ Y/C separation approximates closely to divide by 3 of Fig. 11.

Fig. 14. DOC of TBC-2 saves 1H of memory by combining Y and C after first chroma delay. Input MUX switches to previous line information during dropout.



Choosing quartz crystals

These complex components are seldom properly understood — even by those who specify them



There are two aspects of quartz crystals used as frequency controllers which are opposite yet equally valid. One is that they are essentially simple components with only two terminals; that simplicity has ensured their continued and expanding use since they were first used for radio more than 40 years ago. The other is that they are complex components, seldom properly understood even by those who specify them for use in electronic circuits.

It is this second aspect that this article seeks to expound in the interests of users, because failure to specify the correct type of unit for a specific task can result in unnecessary cost as well as failure in performance. For example, it pays to be very specific about the temperature range within which the unit will operate. Failure to do so may result in a crystal exhibiting unwelcome errors in service.

Furthermore, the most important development of quartz crystals in recent years has been the improvement in long-term stability or ageing properties, as a result of improved cleaning and

encapsulation techniques, so it is important to make the right choice in relation to this, among many other parameters.

Because quartz crystals are piezoelectric devices, relying on mechanical motion to generate electrical properties, they are susceptible to mechanical as well as electrical problems. Thus stiction (static friction) manifests itself, in electrical terms, as a variation in crystal impedance with drive level; and as with mechanical stiction, the impedance characteristic has hysteresis. For this reason, it is extremely difficult to specify a quartz crystal in such a way that it will operate reliably in an unspecified semiconductor circuit — particularly a circuit designed for low power consumption, as this is usually associated with a situation where the crystal is being driven at a low drive level, i.e. in the region of maximum stiction.

The crystal

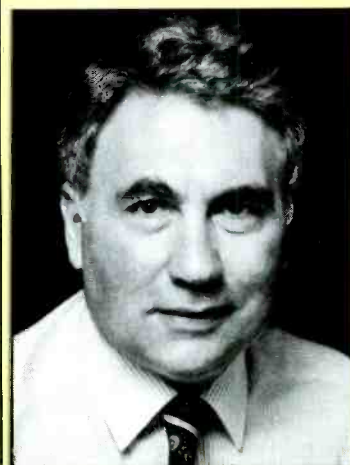
Need for care in specifying crystal units arises from the methods employed to manufacture them. In fact a specification will effect-

ively determine how the unit is or has been made, and with the now widespread use of integrated circuits instead of discrete components it has become even more important to exercise care.

Each crystal unit is cut from the mother crystal at a precise angle in relation to the crystallographic axis; this angle — usually the “AT angle” — is chosen in relation to Young’s modulus of the material, the piezoelectric coupling, and the acoustic velocity, in such a way as to produce a crystal which, in its performance, will be as nearly independent of temperature as possible. After cutting, the crystals are individually sorted into several grades, and then all are lapped to within a half light-band of flatness. Electrodes subsequently deposited on the opposite faces of the crystal serve not only as electrical contacts but also finalise the frequency of the unit: by precise, automatic deposition of the thin gold or silver electrode the physical mass of the unit can be adjusted to give the desired frequency.

The required operating temperature range and frequency tolerance will therefore determine

by Gordon Hulyer



Gordon Hulyer is quality assurance manager at Cathodeon Crystals in Linton, Cambridge. He is active on both British and international standards committees for piezoelectric devices.

Raw material and finished product — a group of glass-holder quartz crystals.

What is a quartz crystal?

A quartz crystal is cut from a bar of manufactured quartz. It is cut very precisely in relation to the crystallographic axis of the crystal and is formed into a thin disc, rather like an optical lens. Two electrodes are secured to it, one on each side, by vacuum deposition of silver, gold or aluminium.

When a voltage is applied to the electrodes the crystal changes its shape due to its piezoelectric properties, thus causing a stress to be applied to the crystal. If this stress is varied by reversing the applied voltage, the crystal will be subjected to an alternating stress and will tend to vibrate at its natural frequency. Thus resonance is initiated. The frequency of resonance is so precise with quartz crystals that they can serve as frequency determining devices, and they are considerably more precise than a tuning fork because of the high purity of the quartz material.

A quartz crystal may operate in its fundamental mode — generally up to 30MHz — or at the

third, fifth, etc., overtones, as shown below. The mode of vibration is in thickness shear, so the critical dimension controlling the frequency is in "Y", i.e. the thickness of the plate. The vibrations are shown extending to the edge of the plate, but in practice the plate is designed to confine the vibrations to the centre, in the area of the exciting electrodes.

Strictly speaking, this unit is a resonator. When it has been encapsulated — in one of several possible ways — it then becomes what is generally known as a "quartz crystal". If the quartz crystal is then built into an appropriate electronic circuit it becomes a quartz crystal oscillator, i.e. a complete frequency controlling system.

Relevant crystal theory is summarized on page 54. For those who wish to study the relevant standards, refer to British Standard 5069, for standard outline and pin connections of quartz crystal units, and to those listed on page 54.

section headed "Parameters").

The crystal electrode material, its method of deposition, and mass are all determined by what is specified by the user. In the event of a particular parameter not being specified, it will almost certainly mean that the unit supplied may not necessarily be the one needed. It will have been made by one of the manufacturer's standard methods, which may or may not match the user's requirements.

Holders

Crystal holders are of four types, and are universally known by their names: solder seal, resistance weld, cold weld, and glass.

Solder-seal holders, the least expensive, suffer from poor long-term ageing performance as it is impossible during manufacture to completely eliminate the flux residue. Also it is extremely difficult to achieve the low level of leaks required for good long-term performance. They should therefore be considered only when there is nothing of equivalent dimensions available in one of the other types.

Resistance-weld holders are currently the most popular form of encapsulation. They are a distinct improvement on solder seal holders, but they require local heating during the welding operation and are therefore not as reliable as cold-weld or glass holders. Except where ultra-high long-term stability is required, resistance-weld holders can be used for all applications. Typical uses are for microprocessors, data communication modems, paging systems, mobile and portable radio, and military communications. The resistance-weld method gives a good clean construction at relatively low cost.

Cold-weld holders are more expensive, but they give an improvement in long-term ageing units, and a significant improvement over solder seal. The encapsulation is achieved by heatless welding of the can and base — a very high pressure being applied over a localized area to cause the two surfaces (usually copper) to flow together to form a homogeneous bond. The process is carried out in a vacuum or in nitrogen. There is thus neither flux residue nor local heating of any significance. The two surfaces, however, must be

free of contamination and oxidation, and this is usually ensured by depositing a thin layer of nickel place on each surface so that the nickel ruptures during sealing. For applications similar to those for resistance-weld holders, cold-weld holders may therefore be preferred if price constraint is not a major factor.

Glass holders are 'a must' for applications where ageing is of paramount importance. The base and envelope are sealed together by radio-frequency heat melting the two surfaces so that they fuse together. By means of a ring of Kovar (a nickel-iron alloy having the same coefficient of expansion as glass), the heat is concentrated in the contact area, and the whole process is carried out under vacuum after de-gassing at about 500°C to remove any organic matter. The main applications for glass holders are frequency standards, satellite navigation, measuring instruments, microwave beacons, and synthesizers.

Parameters

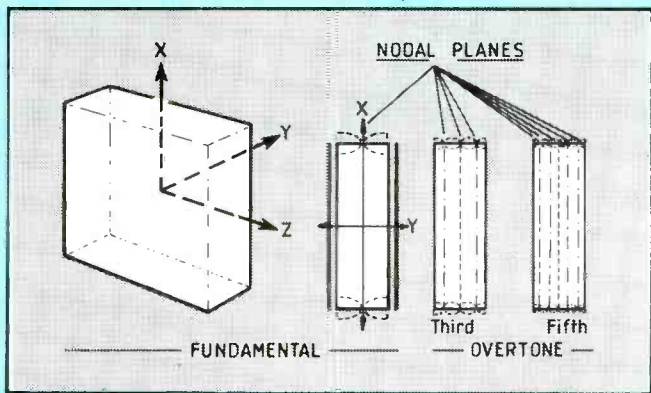
There are at least ten parameters affecting the choice of a quartz crystal unit. The properties of a quartz crystal can be represented by an equivalent circuit consisting of an inductor L, capacitance C_1 , resistance R, shunted by a second capacitance C_0 , as shown on page 54. Capacitance C_1 is an external load capacitance specified, if required, by the user.

These four parameters are constant and independent of frequency and amplitude changes, providing the crystal unit is operated in the correct way. The parameters L, C_1 and R are termed the "motional parameters" of the unit; f_s is the series mode, f_p the parallel mode.

A manufacturer or supplier needs to know, in addition to the nominal operating frequency, the following, which significantly affect the design criteria:

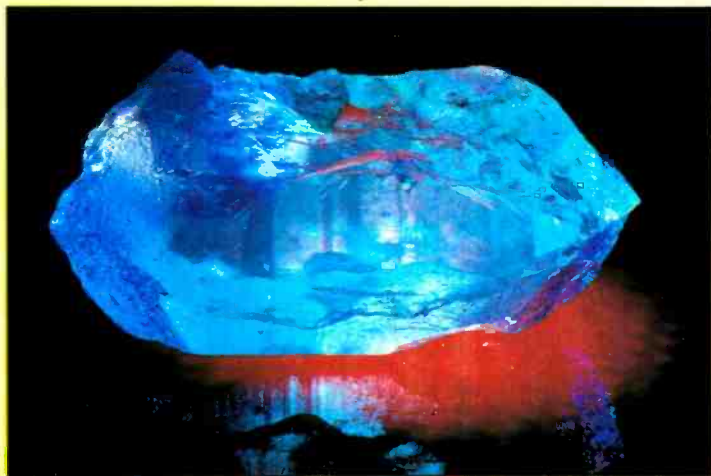
- frequency accuracy (calibration or adjustment tolerance)
- frequency stability with temperature
- frequency stability with time (ageing).

These first three parameters constitute the 'accuracy' of the crystal. They should be selected with care as unnecessary over-specifying only serves to make the crystal more expensive. Typical values for the four types of holder are given in Table 1. Other



Pretty, but seldom used nowadays in the manufacture of crystal units, except in very low frequency applications: yield is much higher with synthetic quartz.

how the crystal plate is cut in relation to the crystallographic axis of the raw material. Its geometric shape and diameter are determined by the parameters L, C_1 , R, and C_0 amongst others (see



- important parameters are
- operating temperature range
- maximum resonant resistance (e.s.r.) (R)
- motional inductance L or motional capacitance C_1
- parallel capacitance C_0
- power dissipation (drive level)
- unwanted responses
- holder style
- load capacitance (C_L)
- environmental factors.

The choice of holder is determined mainly by (1) the long-term stability required, (2) environmental factors, (3) operating frequency (blank diameter), and (4) the price the user is prepared to pay. If the crystal is to be used in a potentially hostile environment, e.g. guided missile and satellite applications, it is important to consult the manufacturer as a ruggedized mounting can be chosen to suit the particular application.

Applications

Table 2 gives typical application in order of cost, starting with the most expensive, set against certain general parameters and other features.

From a manufacturing point of view, the lower unit costs are associated with the larger volumes of production. It is not practicable to correlate the four types of holders directly with this list, though the glass holders would normally only be used for the upper group of applications and some of the second group. It is advisable to consider resistance-weld holders for all other applications.

Whenever conditions permit it is always advisable to discuss your application with the manufacturer; experience in other areas could be extremely beneficial when considering your particular needs.

Crystal oscillators

It is possible to produce RC or LC oscillators which have a stability of 0.1% under ideal conditions, but this is unlikely to be sufficient if the "Rule of 10" is followed, i.e. over-specify to a factor of 10, or even 100, to be sure of the required reliability and integrity. Thus a desired accuracy of 0.1% becomes ideally a requirement for a frequency source with an accuracy of 0.001%, or 10ppm.

Even the simplest of crystal oscillators will achieve an overall accuracy of 100ppm for all reasons (setting accuracy, temperature, ageing, etc.). Such devices therefore provide a cost-effective solution to the less stringent electronic requirements.

These "clock oscillators" are available in various outlines to suit situations where either height or area (as on p.c.bs) is limited. A survey of models commercially available has shown that they have accuracies in the



Setting accuracies of ± 0.1 minutes of arc prior to cutting are needed in positioning quartz to achieve the required performance.

Table 1. 'Accuracy' of crystals comprises three parameters

	Solder seal	Res. weld	Cold weld	Glass
Adjustment tolerance, ppm	± 15	± 10	$\pm 7\frac{1}{2}$	± 5
Frequency/temperature tolerance, ppm at -10°C to $+60^\circ\text{C}$	± 15	± 10	± 10	± 10
ppm at -40°C to $+90^\circ\text{C}$	± 40	± 30	± 30	± 30
Ageing at 85°C , ppm/annum	$\pm 10-15$	$\pm 3-5$	± 2	$\pm 1-2$

These values are dependent on other factors, particularly frequency.

Table 2. Quartz crystal applications against features

Applications	Features
Frequency standards	Excellent long-term stability
Satellite navigation	Good quality factor
Measuring instruments	Frequency precision
Microwave beacons	Vibration immunity
High-resolution radar	Radiation hardened
Airborne radar	
Missile control	
Military communications	Good stability
Base stations	Custom frequencies
Synthesizers	Clean spectrum
Instrumentation	Low noise
Navigation aids	Local supply
Airborne radio	Auditable quality
Radar	
Satellite tv	
Mobile and portable radio	Rugged
Pageing systems	Custom frequencies
Security alarms	Wide temperature range
Automotive electronics	Rapid delivery
Mainframe computers	
Rescue beacons	
Television sets	Low price
Microprocessors	Standard frequencies
Microcomputers	Adequate performance
Data communication modems	High volume
"Timing" crystals	

Increasing cost (upward arrow on left), Increasing volume (downward arrow on right)

Table 3. Stability of four main types of crystal oscillator

	Accuracy in ppm	Remarks
Clock oscillators	50 to 2000	Low cost Logic compatible
Simple package	5 to 100	Standard crystal oscillator Tunable to frequency
Temperature compensated	0.2 to 5	Low power consumption Instant warm-up Modest cost
Oven controlled	0.001 to 1	High precision Long warm-up High power consumption Expense rises rapidly with stability

The clock oscillator is the basic crystal oscillator. A distinction is drawn between simple-package and clock oscillators, as clock oscillators often do not incorporate any means of frequency adjustment.

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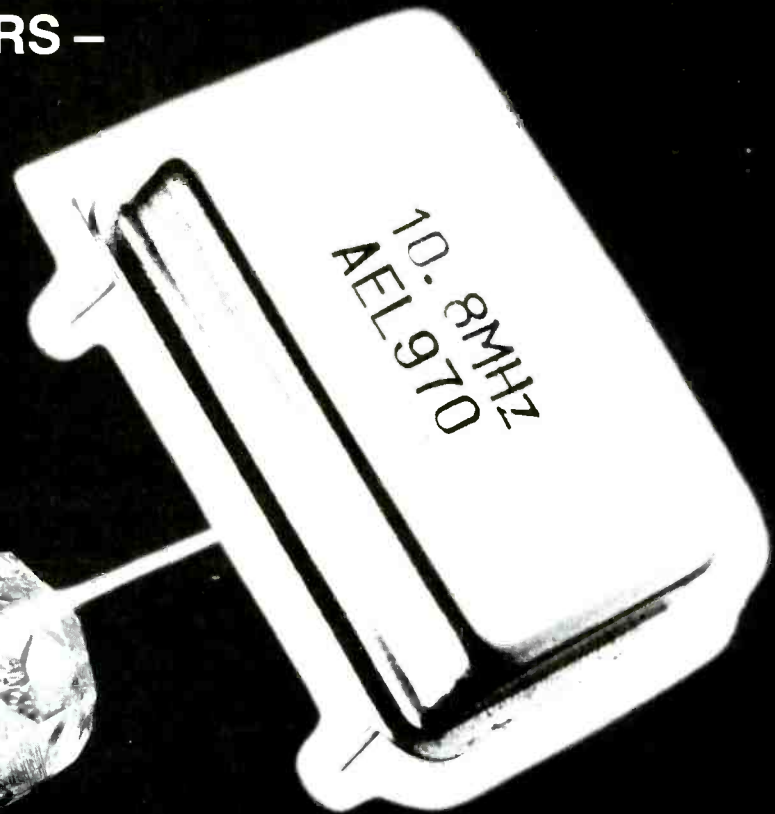
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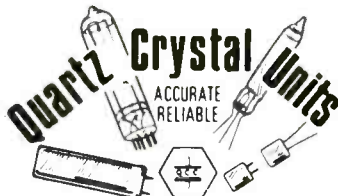
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range 50 to 1000ppm (0.005 to 0.1%).

For more demanding applications, crystal oscillators which are temperature compensated or oven controlled are recommended. Table 3 shows the stability of the four main types of crystal oscillator.

Simple packaged oscillators (SPXO) are the least complex. Some have a remote frequency control capability, i.e. they incor-

porate a variable capacitance diode in the frequency circuitry, and are called voltage-controlled crystal oscillators (VCXO). They are more susceptible, in frequency control, to variations in power supply voltage, but the user can add extra voltage immunity.

Temperature-compensated oscillators (TCXO) are characterized by a temperature-dependent reactance in the frequency control loop, designed to compensate for variations of frequency with temperature. They are expensive because the reactance has to be synthesized to make it complementary to the cubic-shaped dependence of the AT-cut crystal, and this has to be

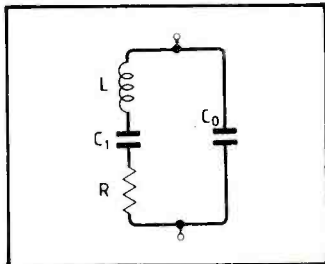
optimized for each crystal.

Oven-compensated oscillators (OCXO) achieve stabilities of 1pp 10¹⁰ per day by means of extremely precise temperature control using a built-in double oven and vacuum flask, together with careful circuit design. These crystal oscillators are used as "secondary standards". For most applications, however, a single-oven design is adequate, giving stabilities of 0.1ppm in respect of temperature variations.

The physical dimensions of the space available for the crystal oscillator may also have a bearing on the choice. The height or area may be restricted; in either case there will be a specific unit which is suitable.

CRYSTAL THEORY

EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT



- L — Dynamic or motional inductance (mH)
- C₁ — Dynamic or motional capacitance (fF)
- R — Equivalent series resistance (ohms)
- C₀ — Parallel or static capacitance (pF)

Note 1. L, C₁ & R are not true electrical components. They are apparent values of inductance, capacitance and resistance which serve to model the mechanical/piezoelectric performance of the vibrating crystal in the region of resonance.

2. Units shown in brackets are those normally used for AT-cut crystals.

CIRCUIT EQUATIONS — basic crystal

Series resonant frequency

$$f_s = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC_1}} \quad (\text{MHz})$$

Parallel resonant frequency

$$f_p = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}} \quad \text{where } C = \frac{C_1 C_0}{C_1 + C_0}$$

In practice, an allowance usually has to be made for 'strays' (C_{L2} opposite).

Quality factor

$$Q = \frac{2\pi f_s L}{R} = \frac{1}{2\pi f_s C_1 R}$$

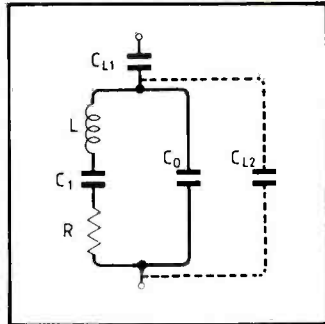
Capacitance ratio

$$r = \frac{C_0}{C_1}$$

Figure of merit

$$M = \frac{Q}{r} = \frac{1}{2\pi f_s C_0 R}$$

CIRCUIT EQUATIONS — with external load



Frequency deviation from resonance

$$D = \frac{C_1 \times 10^6}{2(C_0 + C_{L1})} \quad (\text{ppm})$$

- Note
1. Series capacitance (C_{L1}) shifts frequency upward.
 2. Parallel capacitance (C_{L2}) shifts frequency downward.
 3. Deviation (D) from resonance (f_s or f_p) is the same but of opposite sign if C_{L1} = C_{L2}.
 4. The effect of a trimmer may be readily assessed by calculating D & D' for C_{L1} & C_{L1}' and subtracting.
 5. Units are correct for C₁, C₀ and C_{L1} in pico farads. Also below

Pulling sensitivity

$$S = \frac{-C_1 \times 10^{-6}}{2(C_0 + C_{L1})^2} \quad (\text{ppm/pF})$$

Apparent series resistance (with C_{L1})

$$R_e = R \left(1 + \frac{C_0}{C_{L1}} \right)^2 \quad (\text{ohms})$$

Parallel impedance (with C_{L2})

$$R_p = \frac{1}{R [2\pi f_s (C_0 + C_{L2})]^2} \quad (\text{k}\Omega)$$

Further reading

- Virgil E. Bottom. Introduction to Quartz Crystal Unit Design. Van Nostrand. 1982.
- Marvin E. Frerking. Crystal Oscillator Design and Temperature Compensation. Van Nostrand, 1970.
- Benjamin Parzen: Design of Crystal and other Harmonic Oscillators. Wiley, 1983.
- Ballato. A. Resonance in Piezoelectric Vibrators, *Proc IEEE* vol 5. Jan 1970, pp.150-151.
- Holbeche & Allen: The Influence of Series Reactance on Quartz Crystal Resonators. *Proc IEE* vol 130, part G no.4, August 1983, pp.145-152

International standards

- IEC 122: Quartz crystal units for frequency control and selection.
- IEC 122-1 (1976): Standard values and test conditions.
- IEC 122-2 (1969): Guide to the use of quartz oscillator crystals.
- IEC 283 (1968): Methods for the measurement of frequency and equivalent resistance of unwanted resonances of filter crystal units.
- IEC 302 (1969): Standard definitions and methods of measurement of piezoelectric vibrators operating over the frequency range up to 30 MHz.
- IEC 444 (1973): Basic method for the measurement of resonance frequency and equivalent series resistance of quartz crystal units by zero phase technique in a pi-network.
- 444-2 (1980): Phase offset method for measurement of motional capacitance of quartz crystal units.
- BS 9610 (1982): Quartz crystal units of assessed quality: generic data and methods of test.

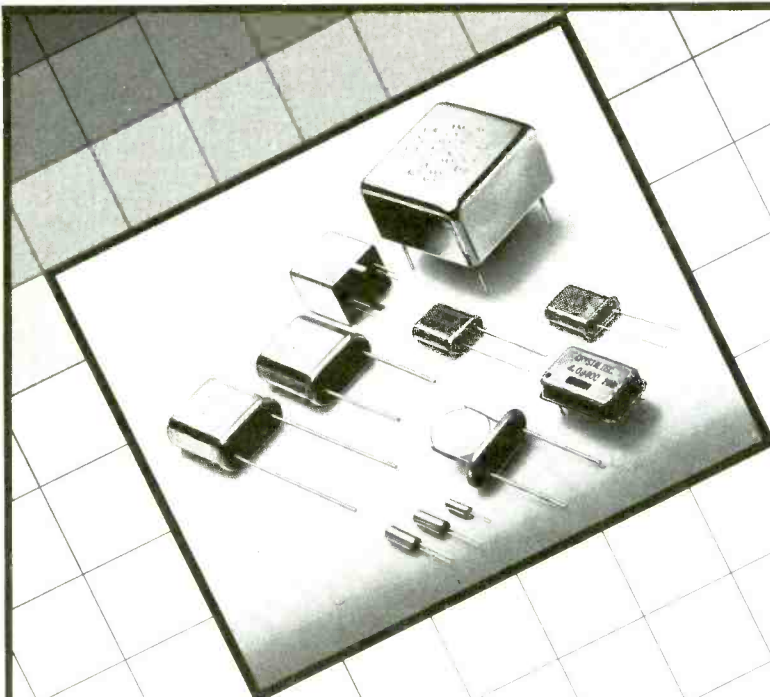
Thick amorphous metals

Amorphous metal alloys can have interesting properties, such as hardness combined with ductility, magnetic softness and very high corrosion resistance. Until recently they could only be produced in strips of less than 0.05mm thick but much thicker nickel-titanium and nickel-zirconium compounds have now been produced using a technique known as rapid diffusion.

To create amorphous metals, extremely rapid cooling from the molten state is required to ensure that a crystalline structure has no time to form during solidification. Current

techniques involve spraying the melt onto a cooled rotating copper drum but to achieve a sufficiently high cooling rate the resulting layers must not be more than 0.05mm thick. Rapid diffusion, however, has been used to produce strips of up to 1mm thick and even tubes.

This new technique involves rolling together alternate, 25µm-thick layers of nickel and zirconium. Subsequent annealing for around 150 hours at between 300 and 350°C causes the nickel atoms to diffuse into the zirconium layers. At these temperatures, the zirconium atoms are practically immobile and an amorphous structure stable up to about 500°C is formed.



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Sampled-data servos — a new analysis

by D.M. Taub,
M.Sc., Ph.D.

Sampling and aliasing are explained in this second part of Dr Taub's analysis

One can regard a sampled-data signal as being formed by taking the corresponding continuous signal and multiplying it by a sampling waveform which consists of impulses occurring at regular intervals, see Fig. 2 (February issue). Such a waveform is shown in Fig. 5 and because of its shape is sometimes called a 'comb function.' Each impulse in the waveform is considered to have infinitesimal duration and infinite magnitude, but its integral with respect to time is finite.

The sampling process

The literature on the subject generally takes the integral as being unity, so that each impulse becomes what is known as a Dirac function, see section 4.2 of ref.5. However, the mathematical expressions become simpler if one takes the integral as being equal to the sampling interval T, and this is what is done here*. There is nothing against this provided that one does it consistently, and that the corresponding change is made when converting a sampled-data signal back to continuous form (part 3).

We can thus say that the sampling waveform consists of Dirac pulses of weight T occurring every T seconds. In Fig. 5 and other diagrams showing sampled-data waveforms, the height of each impulse shown should be taken as representing its integral with respect to time.

In many cases, something very close to the sampling process described above actually takes place: that is to say, a continuous signal is gated with a sampling waveform consisting of very narrow pulses. In other cases, such as the one quoted in part 1, no continuous signal exists; nevertheless, the sampled-data signal is the same as if the continuous signal had existed and the sampling process had taken place.

Representation of trigonometric functions by exponentials

Throughout this paper, trigonometric functions will be represented by their exponential equivalents. As a reminder, the relationships between the two are

* To help relate the theory as presented here with the general literature on the subject, the principal expressions for a sampling-impulse weight of unity are given in the Appendix.

$$\cos \theta = \frac{1}{2} (e^{j\theta} + e^{-j\theta}) \quad \dots 2.1$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{j}{2} (e^{j\theta} - e^{-j\theta})$$

Spectrum of the sampling waveform

The sampling waveform is periodic and can therefore be expressed as a Fourier series. The fundamental frequency is the sampling frequency $f_s = 1/T$ and the corresponding angular frequency is $\omega_s = 2\pi/T$ (The term 'frequency' used in this paper will often relate to ω rather than f , but this will be clear from the context).

Using the exponential form of the Fourier series (Section 3.2 in ref.5) the sampling waveform $p(t)$ can be expressed as

$$p(t) = \sum_m \left[\frac{1}{T} \int_{-T/2}^{T/2} p(t) e^{-jm\omega_s t} dt \right] e^{jm\omega_s t} \quad \dots 2.2$$

Between the integration limits $-T/2$ and $+T/2$, $p(t)$ consists of a single Dirac pulse of weight T occurring at $t = 0$, i.e.

$$p(t) = T\delta(t), \quad -T/2 < t < T/2$$

where $\delta(t)$ represents the Dirac pulse. Equation 2.2 therefore simplifies to

$$p(t) = \sum_m \left[\int_{-T/2}^{T/2} \delta(t) e^{-jm\omega_s t} dt \right] e^{jm\omega_s t}$$

From the definition of the Dirac pulse, $\delta(t)$ is zero everywhere except at $t=0$, and so it is only at $t=0$ that the integrand in the above expression can have a finite value. $e^{-jm\omega_s t}$ can therefore be taken as constant at its $t=0$ value, i.e. as 1, and brought outside the integral sign. This gives

$$p(t) = \sum_m \left[\int_{-T/2}^{T/2} \delta(t) dt \right] e^{jm\omega_s t}$$

from the definition of the Dirac pulse, the integral in the above expression is 1, and so

$$p(t) = \sum_m e^{jm\omega_s t} \quad \dots 2.3$$

The term in this summation corresponding to $m = 0$ can be looked on as a constant vector lying along the real axis, while those corresponding to positive and negative values of m represent counter-clockwise and clockwise-rotating vectors respectively. All these vectors have unit magnitude, and at $t = 0$ they all lie along the real axis, i.e. they have zero phase angle. They can thus be represented in the form of a line spectrum as shown in Fig. 6.

Another way of representing $p(t)$ is in terms of trigonometric functions. The line at $\omega = 0$, corresponding to $m = 0$, represents a d.c. component of unit magnitude. From equation 2.1, the lines at ω_s and $-\omega_s$, corresponding to $m = \pm 1$, represent the term $2 \cos \omega_s t$; those at $2\omega_s$ and $-2\omega_s$ ($m = \pm 2$) represent $2 \cos 2\omega_s t$, and so on. Therefore equation 2.3 can be expressed as

$$p(t) = 1 + 2 \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \cos m\omega_s t \quad \dots 2.4$$

Spectrum of sampled cosine wave

The cosine wave that is to be sampled is given by

$$q(t) = Q \cos (\omega_0 t + \phi_0)$$

or, using the equivalent exponential form of equation 2.1,

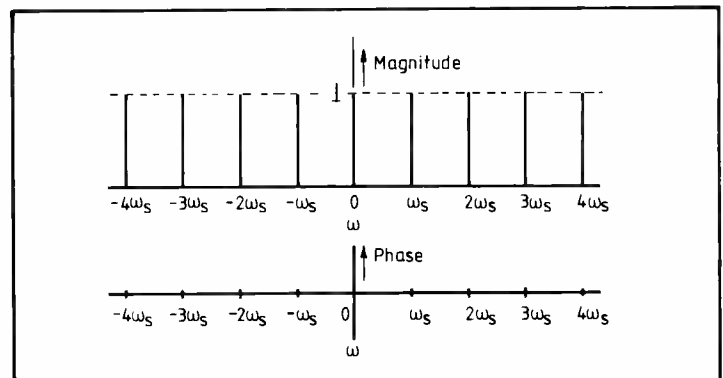
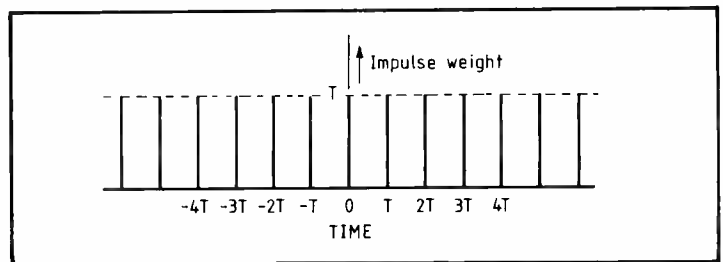
$$q(t) = \frac{Q}{2} (e^{j(\omega_0 t + \phi_0)} + e^{-j(\omega_0 t + \phi_0)})$$

$$= \frac{Q}{2} (e^{j\phi_0} e^{j\omega_0 t} + e^{-j\phi_0} e^{-j\omega_0 t}) \quad \dots 2.5$$

The spectrum of $q(t)$ thus consists of two components, both of magnitude $Q/2$. One occurs at $\omega = \omega_0$ and has a phase angle ϕ_0 , and the second at $\omega = -\omega_0$ with a phase angle $-\phi_0$. That is to say, the component at $-\omega_0$ is the

Fig. 5. Sampling waveform consists of impulses of weight T occurring every T seconds.

Fig. 6. Frequency spectrum of the sampling waveform. All the components have an amplitude of 1 and a phase angle of Φ



complex conjugate of the component at ω_0 . The spectrum is shown in Fig. 7.

The effect of sampling is to multiply $q(t)$ by the sampling waveform $p(t)$, i.e. to multiply equation 2.5 by 2.3.

The product, $v(t)$, is

$$v(t) = \frac{Q}{2} \left[e^{j\omega_0 t} e^{j m \omega_s t} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{j n m \omega_s t} + e^{-j\omega_0 t} e^{-j m \omega_s t} \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{j n m \omega_s t} \right]$$

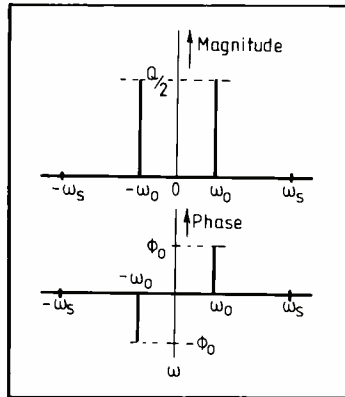


Fig. 7. Frequency spectrum of cosine wave $Q \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi_0)$. The components at $+\omega_0$ and $-\omega_0$ have the same amplitude but opposite phase angles.

$$-\frac{Q}{2} \left[e^{j\omega_0 t} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{j(m\omega_s + \omega_0)t} + e^{-j\omega_0 t} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{j(m\omega_s - \omega_0)t} \right] \dots 2.6$$

The spectrum representing this equation (Fig. 8) consists of an infinite set of components at $\omega = m\omega_s + \omega_0$, all of phase angle ϕ_0 , and another set at $\omega = m\omega_s - \omega_0$, all of phase angle $-\phi_0$. The magnitude of every component is $Q/2$.

The effect of sampling has thus been to cause each of the spectral components of $q(t)$ to be repeated indefinitely at intervals of ω_s .

Aliasing

Figures 7 and 8 were drawn showing ω_0 as being less than $\omega_s/2$, but the equation for $v(t)$ is true no matter what the value of ω_0 . It is important therefore, to see what happens to the spectrum as ω_0 increases. Referring to Fig. 7 as ω_0 increases, the lines at $\omega = \omega_0$ representing magnitude and phase move to the right, and those at $\omega = -\omega_0$ move to the left. The effect of sampling is to cause all these lines to be repeated at intervals of ω_s , and

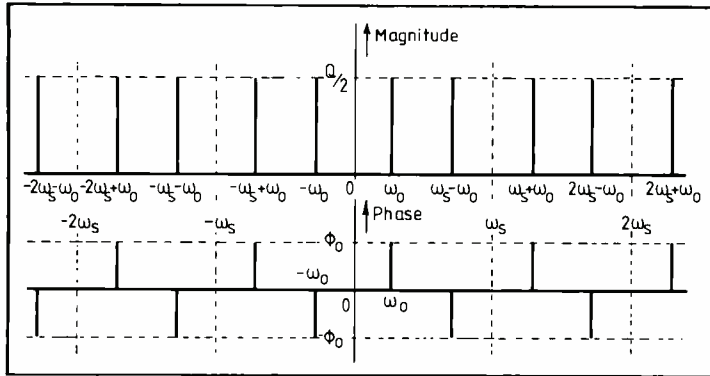


Fig. 8. Spectrum of the sampled cosine wave. The effect of sampling is to cause the two components to be repeated indefinitely at intervals of ω_s .

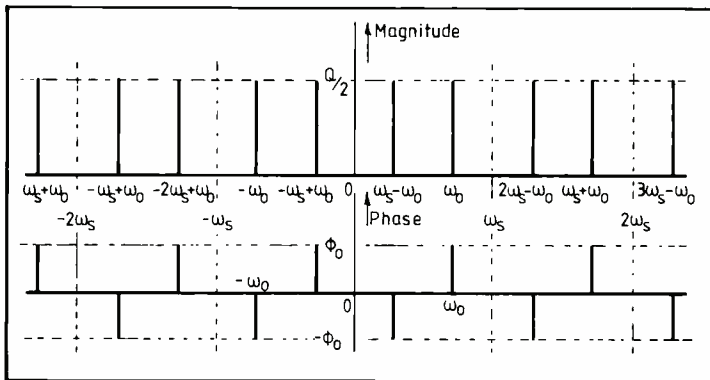


Fig. 9. When ω_0 lies between $\omega_s/2$ and ω_s (i.e. cosine-wave frequency between 1 and 2 times the Nyquist frequency) the spectrum is exactly the same as if we had sampled $Q \cos[(\omega_s - \omega_0)t - \phi_0]$.

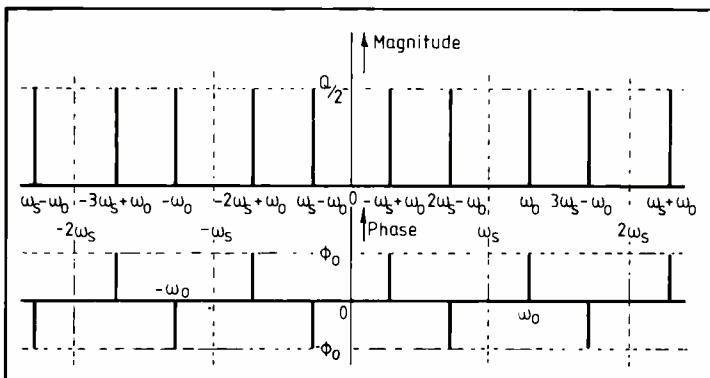


Fig. 10. For ω_0 between ω_s and $2\omega_s/3$ the spectrum is the same as if we had sampled $Q \cos[(\omega_0 - \omega_s)t + \phi_0]$.

so transferring attention to Fig. 8, all the lines at $m\omega_s + \omega_0$ will move to the right, and all those at $m\omega_s - \omega_0$ will move to the left.

When ω_0 passes the value $\omega_s/2$, all the right-moving lines and left-moving lines pass each other, and so while ω_0 is in the range $\omega_s/2$ to ω_s , the sampled-data spectrum appears as in Fig. 9. The point to note is that this is the same as would be produced if $q(t)$ had an angular frequency of $\omega_s - \omega_0$ and a phase angle of $-\phi_0$.

As ω_0 passes the value of ω_s , a second crossing of the right-moving and left moving lines takes place, so that for ω_0 between ω_s and $3\omega_s/2$ the spectrum is as shown in Fig. 10. This is seen to be exactly the same as Fig. 8, so that within this range of ω_0 , the sampled-data spectrum is indistinguishable from what would be produced if $q(t)$ had an angular frequency $\omega_0 - \omega_s$ and its phase angle were unchanged at ϕ_0 . As ω_0 continues to increase, further crossings of the right-moving and left-moving lines take place, causing the above two spectra to repeat alternately.

Thus when one encounters a spectrum of the type shown in Fig. 8, there is no way of telling whether it arose from sampling $Q \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi_0)$, $Q \cos[(m\omega_s + \omega_0)t + \phi_0]$ or $Q \cos[(m\omega_s - \omega_0)t - \phi_0]$, where m is any positive integer. Equally well, it could have resulted from sampling a combination of these frequencies with appropriate amplitudes and phase angles. This phenomenon of the sampled version of one frequency looking exactly like that of another, is known as aliasing.

To complete the picture, we examine what happens when ω_0 is an odd multiple of $\omega_s/2$ i.e. $(m + 1/2)\omega_s$, and when is an integral multiple of ω_s .

When $\omega_0 = (m + 1/2)\omega_s$ every spectral component with a phase angle $+\phi_0$ will coincide with one whose phase is $-\phi_0$. As they are equal in magnitude, the effect of adding them is to add the real parts and cancel the imaginary parts, giving the spectrum shown in Fig. 11. A similar combining of spectral components takes place when $\omega_0 = m\omega_s$, and the resulting spectrum, shown in Fig. 12, is the same as would be produced by sampling a d.c. signal of magnitude $Q \cos \phi_0$.

Gain of sampled-data signal processor

A sampled-data signal processor accepts a sampled-data signal at its input and produces the same type of signal at its output. Suppose that the input is the sampled version of $Q_1 \cos(\omega_0 t + \phi_0)$ or any of the frequencies and phase angles giving the same spectrum, shown in Fig. 8. Then provided that the processor is linear, the output will have a similar spectrum, the components recurring at the same values of ω , though of course their magnitudes and phases will be different. Let the output components have a magnitude $Q/2$ and phase $\pm\phi_1$ as shown in Fig. 13. then the gain at all

the values of ω represented by $m\omega_s + \omega_0$ (m any positive or negative integer) will be

$$H[j(m\omega_s + \omega_0)] = \frac{Q_1}{2} e^{j\Phi_1} - \frac{Q_0}{2} e^{j\Phi_0} = \frac{Q_1}{Q_0} e^{j(\Phi_1 - \Phi_0)}$$

and at all values of ω represented by $m\omega_s - \omega_0$, it will be

$$H[j(m\omega_s - \omega_0)] = \frac{Q_1}{2} e^{-j\Phi_1} - \frac{Q_0}{2} e^{-j\Phi_0} = \frac{Q_1}{Q_0} e^{-j(\Phi_1 - \Phi_0)}$$

This equation draws attention to two important properties concerning the gain of a sampled-data signal processor. The first is that the magnitude and phase are periodic, repeating at intervals of ω_s ; the second is that between $\omega_s/2$ and ω_s the magnitude characteristic is the laterally-reversed form of that between 0 and $\omega_s/2$, and the phase characteristic is laterally-reversed and of opposite sign. Thus if the gain over the range 0 to $\omega_s/2$ is known, it is known everywhere.

A typical sampled-data gain characteristic is shown in Fig. 14.

APPENDIX

Effect of using unit impulses in sampling waveform

To keep the mathematical expressions as simple as possible, it has been assumed in the main text of this paper and in the programs, that the sampling waveform consists of impulses of weight T (part 2), and that on conversion back from a sampled-data signal to a continuous signal, the output immediately following a sample of weight T has unit value (part 3). In practically all the published literature, however, sampling is assumed to be done with unit-weight impulses. Therefore to help relate the material presented here to other publications, the principal equations for unit-weight sampling pulses are given in this Appendix. The equations are numbered as in the main body of the text but with the prefix U to indicate unit-weight impulses.

Sampling waveform:

$$p(t) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{jm\omega_s t} \quad \dots U2.3$$

$$= \frac{1}{T} \left[1 + 2 \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} \cos m\omega_s t \right] \dots U2.4$$

$$v(t) = \frac{Q}{2T} \left[e^{j\Phi_1} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{jm\omega_s + \omega_0} t + e^{-j\Phi_0} \sum_{m=-\infty}^{\infty} e^{jm\omega_s - \omega_0} t \right] \dots U2.6$$

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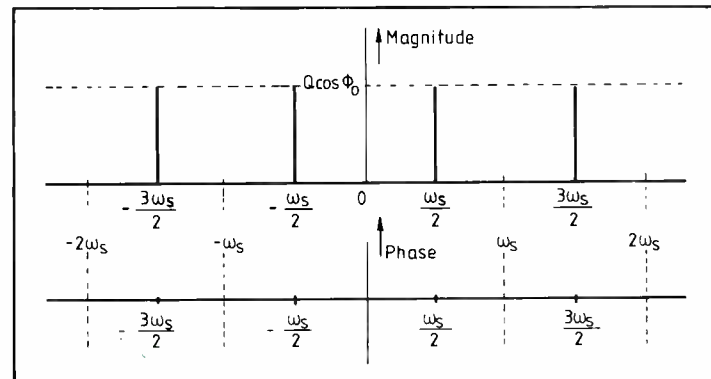


Fig. 11. When ω_0 is 1, 3, 5, 7, etc times $\omega_s/2$ all components have an amplitude $Q \cos \phi_0$ and zero phase angle.

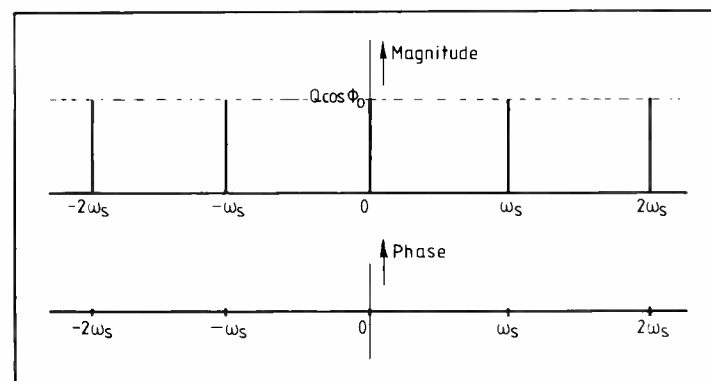


Fig. 12. When ω_0 is 2, 4, 6, 8 etc times $\omega_s/2$ the spectrum is the same as if we had sampled a d.c. signal of amplitude $Q \cos \phi_0$.

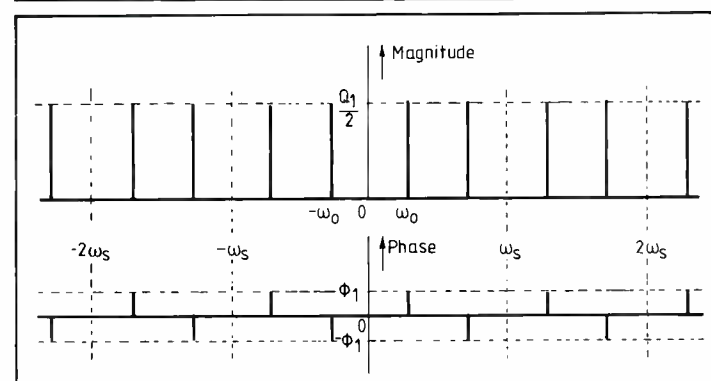


Fig. 13. The output spectrum of a sampled-data signal processor has the same repetitive nature as the input spectrum.

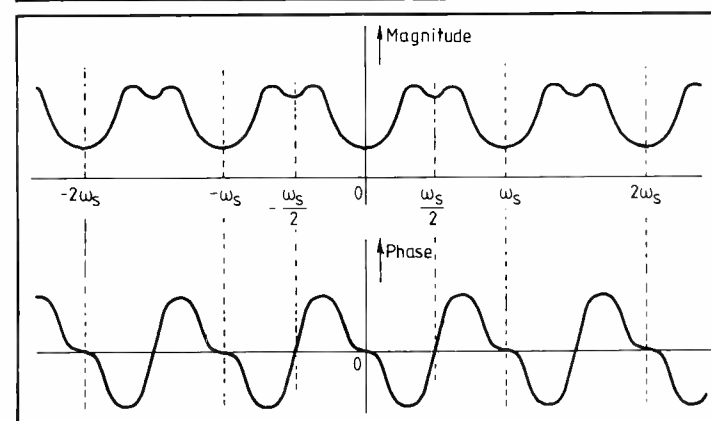


Fig. 14. Typical sampled-data gain characteristic showing its repetitive nature.

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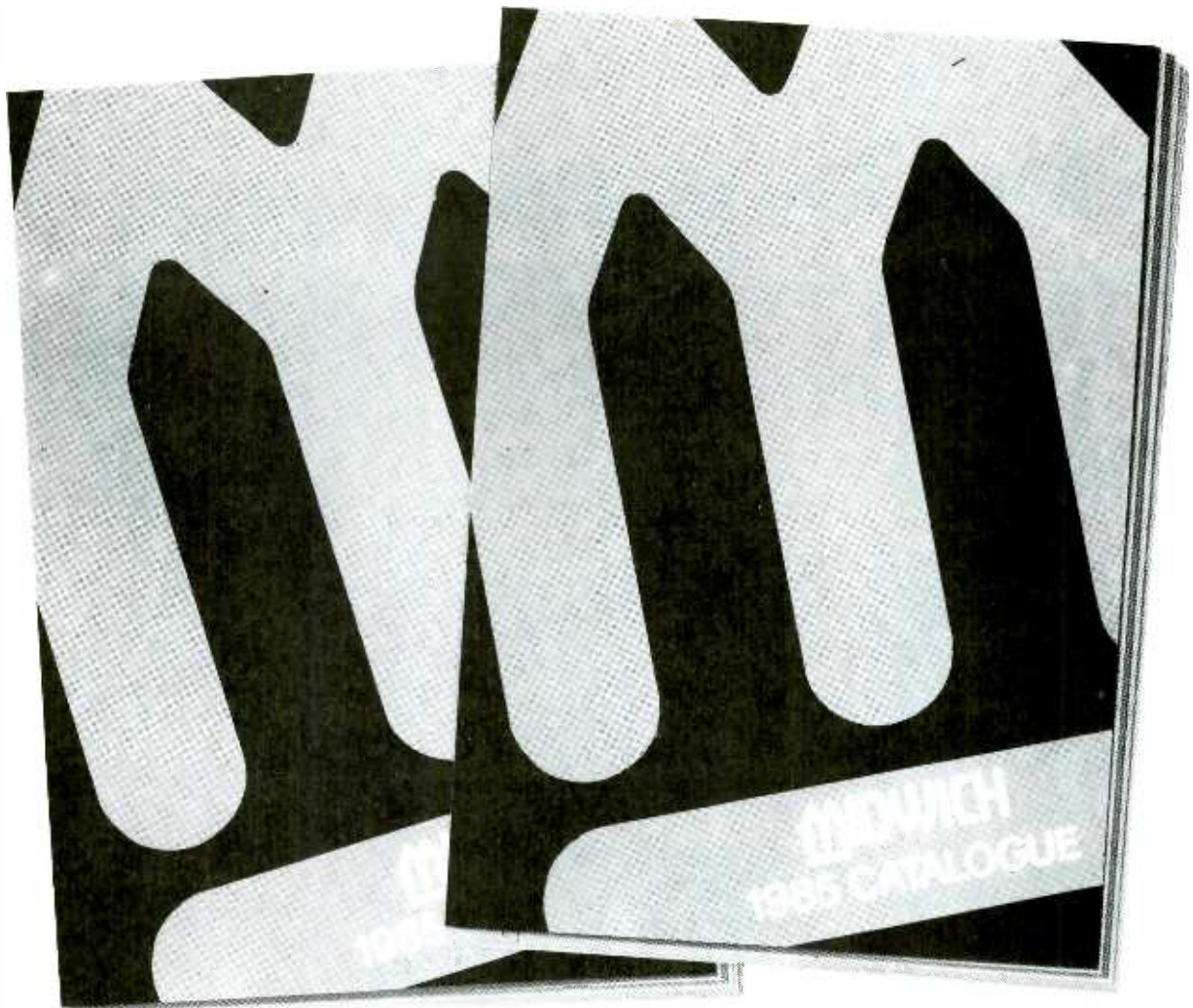
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Thin-lines?

Sir Donald Maitland, introducing the 130-page report of the Independent Commission for Worldwide Telecommunications Development, of which he was chairman, showed how the gap in telecommunications facilities in industrial countries and those in developing countries is widening rather than narrowing, and is now grossly unbalanced. He said: "There are more telephones in Tokyo than in the whole of Africa. Three-quarters of the 600 million telephones in the world are concentrated in just nine countries. Half the world's population live in countries with less than one telephone for every 100 persons. With certain exceptions the services in developing countries are poor or indifferent and in more remote areas there is no service at all." Some African countries have less than one telephone per thousand of the population compared with 500 in London which is by no means top of the table.

The report identifies the problem, shows how good telecommunications can become the future trade routes of the world and proposes the setting up of a new "Centre for Telecommunications Development (CTD)" under the aegis of the ITU among its 59 recommendations. Less happily, if one digs into the report, one discovers why it will prove extremely difficult to reverse the processes by which those rich in telecommunications get richer, the poor get ever poorer. Poor countries have to beg or borrow the hard currency for such capital-intensive projects; aid tends to go to what are regarded as higher-priority projects and tend to restrict choice of systems to specific exporting countries; revenues from the system are in local "soft" currencies; advanced digital technology requires software expertise often not available locally; modern telecommunications economics favour high-capacity broadband all-digital systems, whereas the most urgent requirement is often for thin-line links to community telephones in the interior.

When I drew Sir Donald's attention to the clear disparity

in the comments received by the Commission from Third World administrators/operators and the advice tended by manufacturing countries, he insisted that the way ahead must be digital rather than analogue, making full use of satellite communications rather than less ambitious "alternative technology" or older electromagnetic systems.

The Commission's 59 recommendations fall into four main groups: encouraging national and international organizations to give higher priority to investment in telecommunication; encouraging the upgrading and expansion of existing networks; methods of financing the required investment of some \$12 billion/year; and recommendations aimed at making the ITU more effective.

The Commission was set up as a result of ITU's Plenipotentiary Conference, Nairobi 1982 and had a remit to identify and recommend methods, including novel ones, for stimulating telecommunication development in the developing world. In practice the report is stronger at identifying the problems than finding easy or novel ways of overcoming them. Sir Donald is convinced there is no single remedy, novel or otherwise. The ITU Administrative Council may establish the CTD at its meeting in July, but it will be many years, if ever, before the gross unbalance seems likely to be reversed and everybody is within reach of a telephone.

Cold crash

The loss of a tall television antenna-support mast is a serious matter at any time, but even more so when the cause is not immediately obvious. The history of tubular steel masts, as contrasted with triangular lattice masts or concrete towers, has been chequered. In the UK, a three-year-old 1265 ft tubular mast at Emley Moor collapsed in cold weather in March 1969, ascribed to a combination of asymmetrical icing of the guy wires and oscillation of the mast due to vortex shedding at relatively low wind speeds. This led to the installation of counter weights to dampen oscillation

on the Winter Hill and Belmont masts of basically similar design. Earlier a tubular mast at Waltham collapsed during construction. Ground subsidence at the Mendip site at one stage caused concern.

In mid-January, Westdeutscher Rundfunk suffered the loss of a 977 ft (298m) tubular steel mast in the Teutoburger forest for reasons that are by no means clear. The mast, completed in 1970, comprised 2.2m-diameter sections formed from 9mm-thick sheet steel bolted together in 5m sections for the first 230m, then thinning to 1.5m diameter.

It fell at 6.26 a.m. after a calm but cold night in temperatures around -20°C following a week in which temperatures had not risen above -15°C . Although such a long cold period is unusual in this region, similar masts in higher sites in other parts of West Germany are subject to more severe conditions. Two guy cables and four cable-to-tower connections apparently gave way but neither wind nor ice loading seem to have been the cause; subsidence or ground movement has not been ruled out, but it remains a mystery why the 15-year-old mast collapsed in circumstances apparently linked with an extended period of sub-zero temperatures.

Phone in-flight

With cellular mobile/portable radio, pay-phones on some British Rail intercity trains, cordless telephones, radio-pagers capable of displaying 90 character messages, submerged fibre-optic cables and more and more satellite circuits it may seem that, in some countries, the ability to talk to anyone, anywhere, anytime is fast approaching. The snag is that the usable electromagnetic spectrum is finite and can be rendered ineffective by overcrowding.

The FCC has recently ruled that pay phones in civil aircraft are in the nature of a luxury for the privileged few and have refused to allocate frequencies around 900 MHz specifically for this purpose, requested by Airfone Inc. to expand its present experimental service (in

22 aircraft) to more than 300 aircraft operated by 26 American airlines. The system provides direct links to ground rather than via satellite.

The use of satellites to upgrade aviation communications, navigation and air traffic control as part of the proposed National Airspace Plan is not arousing much enthusiasm from the Federal Aviation Administration who oppose the adoption of unproven technology in an all-embracing system and are currently up-grading its a.t.c. computers, secondary radar data subsystem (Mode S) and installing microwave landing systems at the rate of about 100 airports a year.

Sound archives

There is a well-founded belief that those of us who live in London make less use of its facilities than visitors. It was only recently that I discovered the British Library National Sound Archive at 29 Exhibition Road, London SW7 (01-589 6603) with its remarkable free listening service available by appointment on weekdays. The NSA (formerly British Institute of Recorded Sound) now holds nearly half a million discs and 35,000 hours of recorded tape. Its collection reflects recorded sound from early wax discs to digital compact discs, plus recordings of many BBC broadcasts. While the emphasis is on music (Western art music, international music, jazz, pop etc.) there are also specialist areas such as wildlife sounds, drama and spoken music. Recordings are supplemented by printed catalogues, discographies, periodicals, reference books etc., which can be consulted without prior appointment. It also runs information and transcription services, including the supply of tape copies of deleted commercial recordings to companies and organizations, provided they have copyright clearances.

TV in 1881?

Whether or not you agree with Herb Brodtkin's dictum that "Television is busily destroying the world" the current series of 13 hour-long programmes

produced by Granada is certainly attempting to show how the medium has captured the world. The second programme "The Race for Television" attempts to trace the early history up to 1945 during which technology had not then been overwhelmed by the power of the programmes. This episode will have been transmitted by the time these notes appear.

According to the synopsis, it traces Baird's sad history, from his early days to his eventual defeat by the rival electronic system and I suspect treats his story rather more sympathetically than did Professor J.D. McGee in his "Rutherford Memorial Lecture" delivered at Christchurch, New Zealand in October 1982 and published recently in *Proc. R. Soc. Lond.* A393 pp193-214 (1984).

Prof. McGee, who, with W. Tedham, was responsible for electronic camera development at Hayes from January 1932, considers that the first demonstration of "real television" was that given by Ayrton and Perry at the Royal Society of Arts, London in 1881 using two oscillating mirrors and modulating a light beam passing through a Kerr cell, though limited by mechanical inertia of the moving parts. Ayrton & Perry however postulated the minimum requirements for worthwhile television as 15 pictures per second, and 100 lines of 100 pixels per line — significantly more than Baird was able to achieve 45 years later.

Of the later mechanical systems, McGee considers they were doomed to failure for reasons that Campbell Swinton repeatedly emphasised, adding: "Of course there could be no objection to experimenters exploring the possibilities of mechanically-based methods, but what was inexcusable was the propaganda and political pressure exerted to have the mechanical system adopted by the broadcasting tv system. Anyone who saw the quality of the pictures then (as I did) would have had to be incredibly naive to accept the system as being worthwhile for a public broadcasting service."

Amateur Radio

Cable e.m.c.

The cabling of UK cities, seen euphorically by some as the first step to a broadband electronic grid, has receded almost out of sight. It is now clear that the high-tech., 30-channel, star-switched interactive systems planned to give wideband channels into and out of millions of homes has stalled, perhaps for decades. The newly formed Cable Authority has made it clear that applicants for the franchises being offered this year will not be rejected if they offer something less ambitious.

Yet the Electrical Research Association has just completed a major study that underlines the need for high technical standards if the many problems of electromagnetic compatibility (e.m.c.) with cable systems are to be avoided.

ERA Report No 84-0059 (£135 to non-members, £99 members) investigates r.f. leakage into and out of both tree-and-branch and switched star cable systems. The report confirms that two components stand out as having significantly more effect on e.m.c. performance than others: the tap-off units and the safety isolators.

ERA concludes that whilst radiated emissions from the systems examined might not cause unacceptable interference (though experience at Milton Keynes and in the USA must surely lead to some doubts), the immunity to external fields required substantial improvement to avoid interference, particularly from amateur and mobile radio transmitters. But with the present commercial doubts on cable, it will be surprising if the stringent technical standards called for by ERA are engineered into all systems.

GaAs fets on 144 MHz

For several years there has been increasing use by radio amateurs of high-gain, low-noise pre-amplifiers based on

the use of gallium arsenide field effect transistors not only on microwaves but also on the 144 MHz v.h.f. band. These devices tend to be more expensive than even the best performance on the higher-frequency bands. Unfortunately they are easily destroyed by transient voltages unless care is taken in the switching sequences when used as mast-head amplifiers in conjunction with transmitters and are more vulnerable than silicon devices to static electricity during construction.

A number of American amateurs have recently been strongly advocating the use of GaAs devices on 144 MHz, partly on the basis of "wide dynamic range," despite doubts expressed in the UK whether this is achieved with conventional circuitry. Third-order intermodulation distortion intercept points appear to be more likely to be in the region of OdBm than the 10-12dBm often claimed. Noise performance around 1dB, achievable with good silicon devices, is often the highest usable sensitivity due to external noise levels on 144 MHz.

An exception to the general rule, permitting an input third order intercept of 10dBm and output intercept of 23dBm, with a noise figure of under 1dB, has shown to be achievable with an MGF1202 device on 144 MHz by the use of "noiseless" non-dissipative negative feedback. This is generally regarded as suitable only for high-cost amplifiers for professional applications but Chris Bartram, G4DGU of muTek has been marketing a switched pre-amplifier of this type (Model GFBA 144e) with the feedback adding only about 0.15dB to the noise figure but almost 10Db to the intercept point.

But without non-dissipative feedback there is little evidence that these devices live up to the myth of wide dynamic range.

Fortunately for 12 GHz dbS receivers, for which GaAs devices are virtually essential, dynamic range is of little consequence since the signals from geostationary dbS transmissions tend to show only a moderate spread of signal strengths, with fading limited to conditions of very heavy rain, wet snow and some variation of polarization during hail storms.

In brief

The British Amateur Radio Teleprinter Group now has a s.s.b. a meeting point for amateurs interested in any aspect of data communications, including r.t.t.y., Amtor and "packet radio." BARTG transmits an r.t.t.y. news bulletin on 3.5, 14 and 144 MHz at various times on Sundays. Information on these and other BARTG services is available in leaflet form ("BARTG and the Eighties" and "BARTG and data communications") available free (large S.A.E.) from John Beedie, GW6MOK, PO Box 3, Llandeile, Dyfed, Wales (telephone 0558 822286).

Slow-scan television at low-cost is possible using home computers though not all the software being offered for this application is entirely successful or as flexible as it might be. Dutch amateurs are setting up an amateur-television repeater (input 1252.5 MHz output 1285.5 MHz) at Soest in central Holland with 40W peak erp and horizontal polarization. A 1.3 GHz a tv repeater is also planned for Crawley, Sussex expected to cover North Sussex and Surrey as GB3CT. The repeater has been built for £150.

The possible standardization of 134 MHz as the nominal centre frequency of home DBS receivers, with a 30 MHz passband (110 to 149 MHz) is causing some anxiety to the many thousands of 144 MHz users who fear e.m.c. problems due to direct break-through. Tests carried out by the DTI show that harmful interference can be avoided but the margins are narrow and would be lost unless the indoor units, cable connectors, etc., provide a degree of isolation unusual in consumer equipment.

Even if British manufacturers follow DTI recommendations and, for example, use fully screened metal enclosures for the indoor units, it would be difficult to ensure compliance of imported equipment.

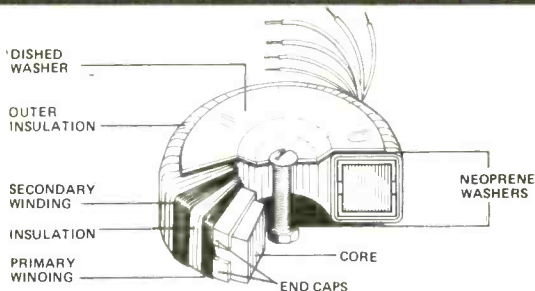
Kelso Amateur Radio Society is organising a 2nd Anglo-Scottish rally at Kelso's Tait Hall on Sunday, May 5. Other rallies include: March 24 White Rose Rally, University of Leeds (details G4NDU);

Pat Hawker, G3VA.

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0x012	12+12	0.63	2x012	12+12	2.08	4x012	12+12	5.00	6x014	18+18	6.25	8x018	35+35	7.14
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0x016	25+25	0.30	2x016	25+25	1.80	4x016	25+25	2.40	6x018	35+35	3.21	8x042	55+55	4.94
0x017	30+30	0.25	2x017	30+30	0.83	4x017	30+30	2.00	6x026	40+40	2.81	8x028	110	4.54
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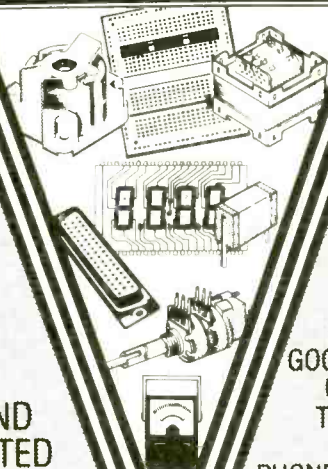
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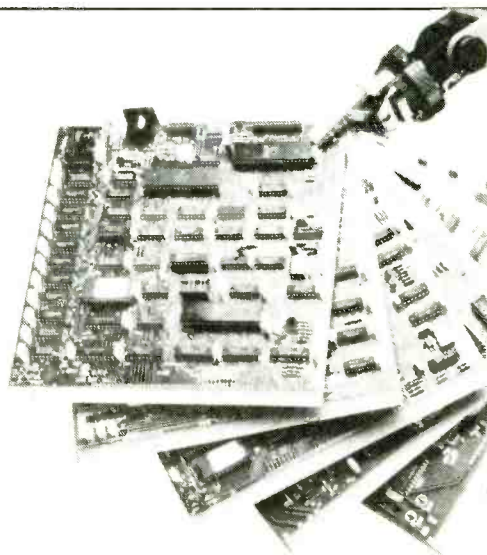


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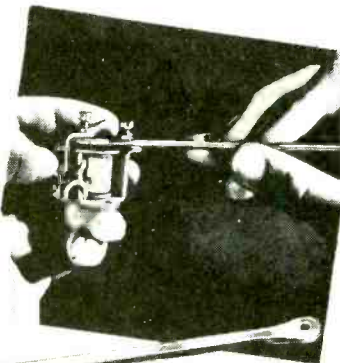
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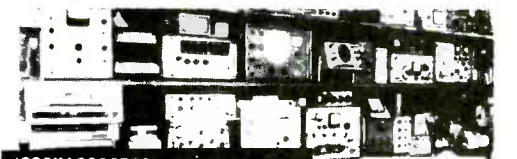
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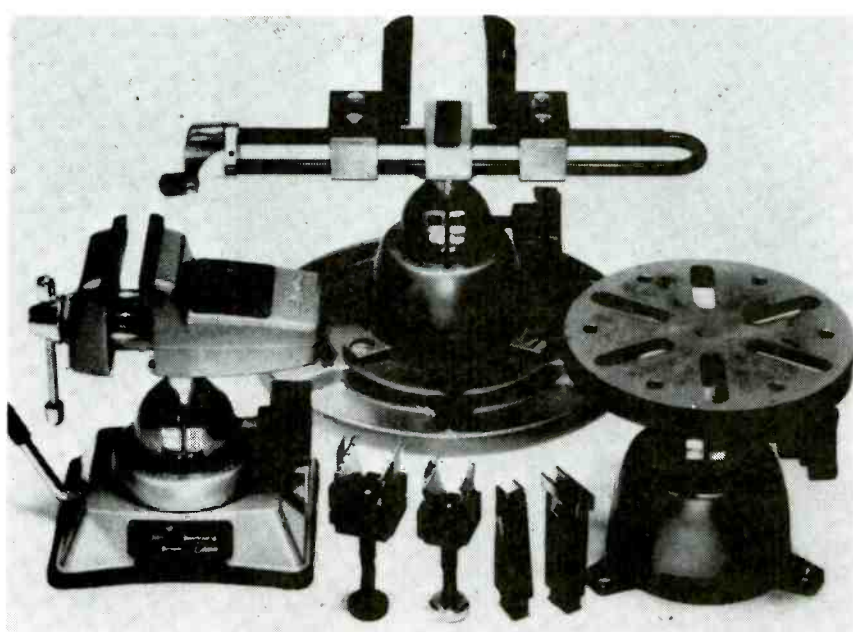
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CIRCLE 69 FOR FURTHER DETAILS.

Radar and television – interchange and spin-off

by R.E. Young,
B.Sc.(Eng.), F.I.E.E.,
M.R.Ae.S.

Continuing the survey of British invention and innovation in electronics, with a look at the benefits of radar and television research.

On February 26th 1935, a response at a range of about eight miles was received from an aircraft flying through 50-metre beamed radiation from the BBC (World) transmitting station at Daventry¹. In less than four months (on June 16th, 1935), the first British radar installation was in operation at Orfordness on the Suffolk coast, providing cover which enabled "... an aircraft to be followed for more than 40 miles".

There is no need to stress the vital nature of these "momentous events of 1935", as A.P. Rowe has called them. They were to continue with, if anything, increased speed. Thus operationally acceptable height measurement and determination of azimuth (bearing) was developed within a matter of months; and by March 13th 1936, the new Bawdsey (Felixstowe) station "... successfully located... an aircraft flying at 1500 feet at a distance of 75 miles".

The achievements had the sure foundations on which the unequalled expansion of British radar was based. Following those already quoted, salient points in this expansion were:

- completion of the first CH (Chain Home) "Floodlight" stations for operational capability by August 1937
- completion of the 20 station chain to cover the entire eastern approaches to Britain before the beginning of World War II on September 3rd 1939
- 'One and a half metre' CHL (Chain Home Low) – rotating beam – stations against low fliers developed, installed and brought into operation by the end of September 1939.

The CHL stations supple-

mented, and worked in conjunction with the main CH stations; and from the beginning of 1940 were joined by a succession of GCI (ground-controlled interception) stations also working on 1½ metres. These were followed rapidly by 'ten-centimetre' wavelength installations embodying the cavity magnetron – radar's master invention.

This impetus was repeated in the other sectors of British radar. Thus the wide range of airborne systems, which gained enormously when the cavity magnetron was introduced, were produced on time scales quite comparable with the remarkable ones already quoted. Similar results were achieved with the various Naval radar systems evolved by ASE (Admiralty Signal Establishment); and with the systems developed by the associated research establishments for the Army and the other services.

An immediate example is afforded by the short-wave transmitting valves developed by HM Signal School (later ASE) and suitable for high power pulse working, and which were employed in the 'Main Chain' stations coming under the aegis of TRE (Telecommunications Research Establishment). Valves for high (peak) power operation at 1½ metres were produced by industry to meet the crucial installation programmes for the CHL and GCI stations.

In a sense the whole country was involved with radar which had become almost a way of life for a significant proportion of its population, both service and civilian; and it may even be said that the United Kingdom had become a national-scale 'cluster' (see Article I in this series, *EW*

March 1985).

This group of propositions may seem extravagant; but illustrations will be used not only to give substance to them, but also because of their importance for today. First of all, only a brief mention has been made of TRE – its work is accurately documented – in 'Science at War' (ref. 1) and by A.P. Rowe (ref. 2); and its unique position in the mainstream of World War II radar development is well known. The full value and extent of this mainstream work can be seen in the account already given of the remarkable project time successes achieved from Daventry and Orfordness onwards. However, it is in connection with the way that 'thinking was kept right' that is of the utmost importance here. This can be seen in its fundamental form with the Daventry test.

The position at Daventry is probably best highlighted by saying that if this experiment had failed or – much more likely – had been misinterpreted, then the appearance of radar in Great Britain could have been delayed indefinitely, certainly beyond the danger point of 1939. That the experiment was successful can be ascribed to two main causes. The first was the technical quality of the equipment itself and correspondingly of the thinking that lay behind it; and the second was the penetration shown in the observation of the displayed signals, and particularly of their analytical interpretation.

It must be remembered that this was a completely new world where even the basic principle of '... getting enough (reflected radio energy) back from the aircraft' was in doubt; and where it

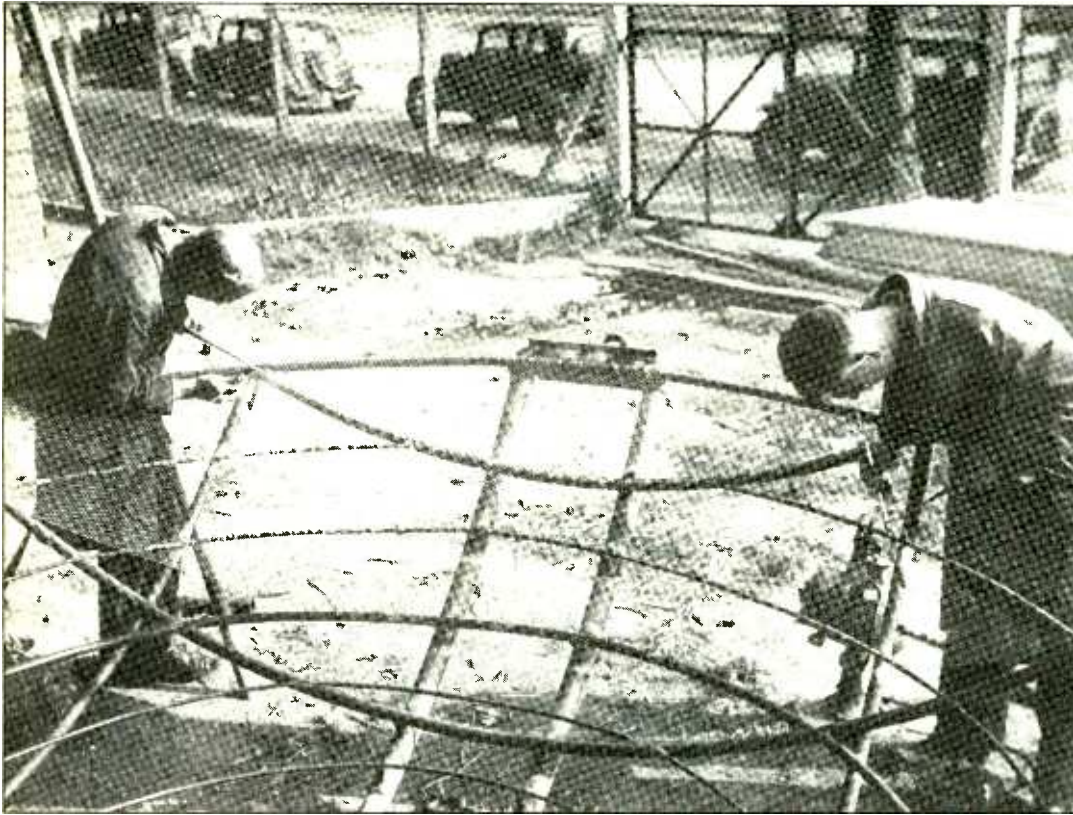


Fig. 1. Paraboloid Aerial Reflector for Television Radio Link under Construction.

might not be possible to anticipate all the unforeseens. That they were anticipated, and all false trails avoided, was to give the solid base for the breakthrough expansion which followed, and represents in many ways the culmination of work which had begun at the Radio Research Station, Slough with Watson Watt as Superintendent. Here, amongst a wide variety of research activities, notably on radio propagation, classical work was carried out on cathode-ray tube measurement and other techniques³.

One aspect of the c.r.t. work is of particular interest in this instance. This was an installation set up to enable two observers, widely separated at the ends of a 550km base line (Slough — Leuchars in Scotland), to determine the direction of arrival of atmospherics by means of cathode-ray direction-finders. A continuous watch was maintained over a selected period, and on "Now" from the 'control' observer passed over the permanent line between the two stations, simultaneous readings of screen trace bearing being 'written down serially' by an assistant at Slough, listening in parallel on the line. The individual atmospheric source 'fix' was then determined from the intersection; and this is probably one of the first examples of a well-engineered operational scheme for such (radio) direction finding. It was typical in that it

embodied many of the basic techniques which were to be adopted for radar, and which incidentally, employed 'filtered' data-reduction methods.

As indicated — and as will be appreciated — this 'hands-on' process, some of it almost automatic, was to be a feature of the radar expansion of World War II, and was to continue as spin-off after it.

A particularly apposite illustration of how spin-off could develop comes from the early days of operational radar. When the original group of three stations became available, difficulty was found in reconciling the plots of aircraft obtained from the three sites with their different radio (physical) characteristics and variation between observers (cf. the 'base line' atmospherics method). The problems of correlating aircraft tracks and reporting them *quickly* were tackled by setting up 'filter rooms', the first of these being at Bawdsey; and the second — the derivation of corrected plots and their transfer to standard 'grid' form — by the development of a converter. This converter, which became inevitably known as the 'fruit machine', was a digital computer with electromechanical logic based on automatic telephone practice and demanding automatic-exchange type maintenance.

The success of this system and of those who operated it, may be judged by the remark made by Air Marshal Dowding on seeing the converter that "... it would not be long before the scientists replaced the Commander-in-Chief of Fighter Command by a gadget!" (ref. 2). It is valuable to reflect that this remark, possibly with the replacement of 'gadget' by 'gimmick', would be just as likely to be made in similar circumstances today.

Apart from its technical interest, this incident is one further example of experience and know-how built up during World War II still being relevant, and in many respects, up to date at the present time. This can be taken further in the broadening of the statement made in the first article that the basic technology of that time does not have to be rediscovered, i.e. that the very expensive process of clearing the obscure problems that can be expected in the early stages of a project does not have to be carried out, or at least can be greatly reduced. (In an extreme case, as already indicated, these initial problems can be so intractable that this particular line of development has to be abandoned despite its being likely to succeed in the end.

Television — the build up of technology

High technology, defined as 'advanced engineering permeated by electronics' came to the British public "... (with) the inauguration of the television outside-broadcast service in May, 1937 for the Coronation" (ref. 4)

This outside broadcast, outstanding in its success, was even more noteworthy for the organisation and speed of technical achievement which lay behind it. Typical of this speed was the installation of the special low-loss — balanced pair — 'television cable' for video transmission, which was carried out by the Post Office well within a year of its being authorised by the Television Advisory Committee. Active collaboration by the Post Office continued with the development by the BBC of entirely new techniques and equipment to enable video signals to be transmitted over ordinary telephone cable pairs (ref. 5). Facilities provided by the Engineering Department of the PO London Telecommunications Region made it possible to install the repeater equipment

in exchanges with, perhaps, only one route-mile of separation between them.

This solution to the problem of bringing the OB signals to the permanent television cable for onward transmission was much more practicable (and cheaper) than the alternatives of a radio link or a special wideband cable, for the built-up areas being covered. Also by the use of existing telephone cable network, it was possible for circuits to be provided within a matter of a few hours; which was a significant advantage both in terms of engineering and of programme service availability.

This pioneering work, a model of engineering R & D, will be described later in this article mainly with regard to the major advance that it represented in television technology; but also as an illustration of how a 'climate of technical confidence' can be created.

It may be noted that an earlier article by S.H. Padel, concerning the principles underlying this work appeared in *World Radio* for August 12, 1938, i.e. in the same year as a foundation paper by MacNamara and Birkinshaw was published on the London Television Service (*Journal of the IEE* December 1938).

This paper was, in fact, a description of the World's first high-definition television service with its 45MHz transmitter at Alexandra Palace in North London covering the large concentration of population in London itself and in surrounding areas including the Thames Valley. Thus an appreciable number of people in Great Britain were brought into contact with modern — albeit black and white — television some years before the outbreak of World War II in 1939.

Before this, low-bandwidth television had been broadcast to cover much the same region on a service basis. Programmes on the Baird 30-line system were transmitted from the BBC station at Brookman's Park during the early 1930s; and although the results were crude in comparison with those achieved later in the decade, they provided information — obtainable in no other way — on possibilities of applying these low-bandwidth techniques in other fields and working by analogy from them.

As will be seen, these possibilities were indeed taken up much later; examples which will be

described in subsequent articles include the tv-based 'Independent Check' instrumentation of aerospace and suggestions made for crisis control ("big-system" automation and telemetry, in this series).

This question of how and when to take advantage of earlier or analogous work forms part of the final discussion in this article. However, in the meantime, it is possible to throw more light on the 30-line tv case by examining the results that could be obtained under the right conditions.

With the Nipkow disc and modulated neon light source of the receivers that were commercially available, the picture, usually described as being of postage-stamp size, was not really acceptable. On the mirror-drum monitors used in Broadcasting House, London, at the time (programmes from Studio BB), the picture was of elongated postcard size, the line structure — with vertical scanning — was coarse, while the difficulty of synchronising the rotating drum resulted in some wander. Nevertheless, full-length pictures of individuals were quite recognisable, i.e. specific 'data' was being transmitted over a low-bandwidth circuit, while the effects of faulty synchronisation could be assessed.

This was an interim stage to be followed by cathode-ray tube sets produced by enthusiasts within the range of Brookman's Park. The received pictures, although afterglow was present, were of sufficient quality to show, amongst other things, that such systems could be applied successfully to the transmission of the detail required, for example, instrument dial readings. Also this was being done under conditions which it would be difficult to set up now, including that of restricted bandwidth.

Reverting to the BBC system for sending television signals over ordinary telephone cables, one can best illustrate the extent of this achievement by quoting S.N. Watson who has used the words "technical audacity" to describe A.R.A. Rendall's action in putting up this project. Dr Rendall's concept of taking balanced-line working to its ultimate limit, and countering the 'impossibly high' losses of the cable at video frequencies (30dB/km at 2MHz) by specially developed equalisers and amplifiers was soon shown to be highly successful. In its final form the BBC system had pro-

vided four OB line links by September 1938, while this had been expanded to eighty for the next twelve months ending September 1939 (ref. 4).

The equipment is shown schematically in Fig. 2 and, in addition to the video equalisers and amplifiers, included special phantom (rejector) and balanced-to-unbalanced repeating coils; and made possible the transmission of surprisingly high quality pictures over circuits with 2MHz attenuation values lying between 60 and 70dB (refs 4 and 5).

It is worthy of note that this was a 'small team' project, with six engineers as a maximum involved in the R & D work — and that the climate of confidence it generated has, in effect, continued to be of value up to the present time. Thus the basic principles established by the original BBC work provided as a minimum this climate for embarking upon a project in water-supply monitoring which broke new ground. This was a remote control scheme for the East Anglian Water Company with surveillance television signals sent over an 8km length of telephone cable (refs 6 and 7).

Direct interchange between television and radar can be seen in the way in which a technique evolved in the field for adjusting phase equalisation was eventually developed to become a pulse-testing method for use in radar.

One of the main forms of phase distortion encountered with BBC telephone-cable video was once described as 'pseudo-ringing' which appeared as a short duration spurious signal on vertical edges in the picture. Correction of this phase distortion could be carried out most easily when a 'flagpole' type of signal source could be brought into the picture. It was in fact a flagpole at Earl's Court which became more than familiar during pre-transmission testing when it provided the well-defined short video pulse required.

Much later on, these ideas were recalled during the development of a special video display system for a magnetron-based type of radar set. The response to pulses was all-important in this system and it was realised that a simple method of testing this existed in the 'magnetron pulse' monitoring signal which was available to be fed into the video input for viewing on a waveform display. Not only did this enable

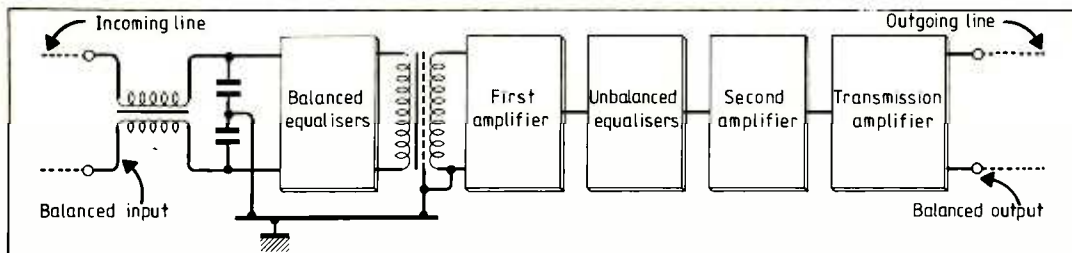


Fig. 2. Video Repeater for Telephone Cable

actual pulse response to be observed, but also provided an indirect method of determining frequency response.

This account is given in some detail to show how the 'innovative know-how' of the original television technique was, as it were, passed on to another area of technology — that of radar. It is relevant to note that this process was continued later with a further transfer to yet another field — telemetry.

Innovative know-how has been adopted to cover that combination of original thinking and informed practical ability which so often is found to lie at the root of successful and economical engineering development. The example chosen to illustrate how smooth transfer from radar to television could be achieved is that of the design and manufacture of a directional aerial system for a television radio link which was being developed for the 4-500MHz band. The production of this aerial system soon turned into a project in its own right. It had become clear that the cost of development by a firm new to the field would be prohibitive. However, it had become equally clear that the techniques evolved for radar (system) working at the same order of frequency could be used as a basis for the television case.

Thus with the paraboloid (dish) reflectors required for the directional aerials it proved possible to evolve a method of construction that was both economical and technically acceptable. Briefly, the primary technical (radio) requirement was for the surface of the dish to be maintained within close tolerances as near as possible to those of an equivalent optical reflector; while for narrow-beam aerials for point-to-point working, it was vital for the dish — and the radiating element in it — to be held rigidly on their line-of-sight axis.

Full recognition must be made of the success achieved in meeting these requirements, particularly the way in which the fitters evolved techniques of their own to keep the reflecting mesh

(chicken wire) surface to the requisite close tolerances on its tubular steel supporting framework. This was of low-cost construction made of standard electrical conduit with a robust secondary framework of high-grade 'steam' tube forming the rigid supporting structure required. As will be gathered from the photograph, brazing was used extensively; an air-acetylene flame being adopted on the basis of radar experience which had shown that a satisfactory joint was made at temperatures which did not cause mechanical distortion. It is perhaps superfluous to note that these craftsmen, with their innovative know-how, came from the pool which has existed for many decades in the 'super cluster' of London and the Thames Valley.

The overall picture

As has been shown, and in terms of the pre-war period up to 1939, development in Britain of both radar and television technology took place on much the same time scale: The fundamental radar equipment was carried out at Daventry in 1935, and 30-line television was being broadcast by the BBC in the early 1930s. The first three CH stations — forming a basic chain — were completed by August 1937, the historic television outside broadcast of the Coronation was made in the BBC high-definition service earlier in that year.

In both of these areas, work was essentially at R & D level during this period and carried out largely with the 'small-team' approach. In 1939 the position changed with unprecedented speed when the full radar expansion was set in motion, and the build-up of resources, both human and material, began. At the same time, the television service was shut down, not to be resumed until the end of the war.

The point to be stressed here was the far-reaching changeover which took the form of bringing-together of many people with diverse technical experience produced a national-scale cluster of

remarkable strength, as noted earlier. (The shut-down of the BBC television service was not all loss in that it released a number of engineers, already familiar with basic techniques, for the radar programme.)

As will have been realised from the examples already given, full advantage was taken of the breadth of experience that had become available, particularly as it affected constructive liaison with industry; and, above all, the various aspects of systems engineering which arise when electronics meets the outside world.

The view has tended to develop over the years in the UK that modern technology is so advanced and is changing so rapidly that each new departure in it is a matter for specialists. Nevertheless it is suggested that although the opportunities for gaining wide-ranging experience in the UK may be more restricted than they were, say, 5-10 years ago; there is still a major requirement for technologists at all levels who know enough of more than one field of engineering to be able to exercise managerial or control over, for example, the interface problems which arise almost as a matter of course with complex systems engineering. An even more important managerial function, perhaps seen at its best in the programme of expansion of British radar, is that of coordinating and directing the R & D work for such complex systems, and in relation to the other organisations working on the project.

This does not mean that specialists have made other than a major contribution to engineering R & D in the United Kingdom. This aspect will be brought out in later articles, as for instance with the intervention and development of the cavity magnetron, and the achievements of British universities.

In conclusion, it is suggested that although the British capability for the management of R & D is far from being lost, more emphasis might be given to the acquisition of all-round engineering capability, and particularly in the electronics context.

One of the main arts in running a complex project is to know when to take advantage of analogous work which one has carried out in the past, even in a separate but associated field; and it is in this fund of experience and again know-how, that much of the hidden strength of the country lies.

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74LS04	0.20
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74LS09	0.22
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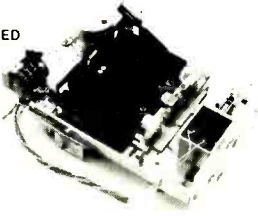
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CIRCLE 17 FOR FURTHER DETAILS.

PREAMPLIFIER DESIGN

I thank Mr Armstrong for his continuing interest in my approach to preamplifier design. I also note that he has not yet seen fit to make any objective measurements with which to back up his claims. While Mr Armstrong seems to think that it is a little insensitive of me to draw attention to this, it is the kind of gross tactic that one must get used to if joining in the rough and tumble of the correspondence columns. Being a professional audio designer, I have my reputation (such as it is) to consider, and people who try to demonstrate that I don't know what I'm doing by quoting myth rather than fact can expect little mercy.

To continue playing Bacon to Mr Armstrong's Aristototele, I append below the test setup for trying to wring distortion out of electrolytic capacitors. The oscillator/distortion analyser used is a Sound Technology 1710A, which still has a reasonable claim to be the state of the art in distortion measurement. The minimum t.h.d. levels measurable across most of the audio bandwidth are of the order of 0.0012% on my example. Starting at 1kHz and an oscillator level of +20dBm (7.75V r.m.s., the largest signal level you could expect to meet in an op-amp audio system) no additional t.h.d. is detectable until the frequency is reduced to 30Hz, when about 0.003% third harmonic is produced. This increases to about 0.05% at 10Hz, the lowest frequency the Sound Tech will provide.

It may appear at this point as if all I have done is prove myself wrong, but this is not so. As I said in my first reply, the use of unbiased electrolytics to pass audio assumes that the voltage across the capacitor in the reverse direction never exceeds about a volt. If it does, then you have a significant signal loss occurring, and you have, accidentally or deliberately, made a high-pass filter of most dubious accuracy due to the wide tolerance of electrolytic capacitors. Not very nice.

This is why in the test set-up distortion occurs at about 30Hz with the values shown; it is at this point that the peak voltage

across the capacitor reaches 1.4V, which appears to be when depolarisation occurs in practice. Naturally distortion results as the capacitor dielectric film starts to come undone. Measurements with different values of R & C confirm that the signal voltage across the capacitor is the crucial factor in the onset of distortion. The moral is simply; don't let your electrolytics experience any significant signal voltages across them in the audio band. Use them as coupling capacitors rather than filter elements.

I must confess that I am still a little unsure about exactly what Mr Armstrong means by dielectric absorption in this context, and so I don't feel I should comment. I hope that he will enlighten me.

I resist the temptation here to go on about undue attention to connectors. While gold-plated or gold-flashed connectors are normally considered to have a higher ultimate reliability, especially in hostile environments, it should be obvious that the audio world, and the wider one of electronics, contains thousands and millions of non-gold contacts working quite happily. The effects of a sudden lapse into rectification would be so audibly dire that it would be immediately obvious. Spending money on gold fittings for the hifi may have an emotional appeal, (it costs so much it *must* be better) but not really a logical one.

Finally, the hoary old argument about what people do to the music before it gets to you, i.e. shove it through electrolytics and non-noble connectors from noon till night-time. Just because arguments are old, it doesn't mean they're wrong. If it was necessary to build mixing-desks and tape machines as if they were satellites then it would be done; but it isn't. The professional audio market is a highly competitive one, and customers want machinery to do the job properly, and no messing with hifi fashions. If Mr Armstrong really wants to worry about a quality bottle-neck he might do worse than consider the analogue tape-machine, still in use in most studios throughout the land.

D.R.G. Self
London E.3.

BAIRD TELEVISION

I was indeed interested on reading in the January 1985 issue, under "Communications Commentary" the paragraph on Swinton and Baird.

I do not know if you are aware that in the *Royal Television Society Journal* over the past year there has been considerable correspondence on whether Baird was the "inventor" of television or not. I joined the Scophony Company in 1930 as the first engineer there to work on the inventions of G.W. Walton. The success of that company was quite considerable, in that in 1935 we were demonstrating high definition optical mechanical pictures on large screen and in 1937 at various cinemas, including the Odeon Theatre in Leicester Square, on an 18ft. screen.

I met Baird many times in those early days and at no time did we feel that his company had anything specific to offer, in that the Nipkov disc was so well-known and the work of Jenkins in America in the early part of the century was also well published; in fact I do have a book published by Jenkins in 1925.

Without wishing to enter into this "who did what" saga, I enclose photocopies of a tv system devised by a Frenchman called Dussauds which apparently was demonstrated in the great Paris Exhibition in 1900. There are one or two technical inaccuracies in the reprint but the whole system is quite feasible and probably did work, not with a complete figure but certainly a head such as Baird demonstrated. The extract comes from a book entitled *Victorian Inventions*. The synchronisation of his system compared to Baird's solid drive shaft is interesting as he used clockwork to drive the Nipkow discs and clockwork mechanism for accurate timekeeping was known and devised in the 17th century — some major town hall clocks built in those early days are still running.

In my many years associated with television in the pre-war days, with radar during the war, and my gas detection company post-war, I have always found that looking

backwards at the inventive genius of people in the latter part of the last century and the early part of this exercises the mind to invent again with all the devices which have become available in those very few years.

Joshua Sieger
Poole
Dorset

LIGHTNING STRIKE

A point might be added to the interesting article in the October issue *Lightning Strike*. Conductors carrying large currents will experience a shearing force at any bends; this can be seen by drawing a vector diagram of the currents at a bend. It is therefore good practice to keep lightning conductors as straight as possible, and make necessary bends very gradual.

J. Schmelzer
Albuquerque
New Mexico
USA

SOE

It was kind of Pat Hawker to mention my name in his "Here & There" column (*E & WW*, Dec., 1984). But I have to report that he has mis-remembered a telephone conversation I had with him last year. Bill Hudson, our first SOE agent in Yugoslavia, landed in Montenegro in 1941. I did not join SOE until May 1943 — and, after a hectic apprenticeship in Cairo, was sent to Tito's G.H.Q. in charge of Signals at our Mission there from December 1943 until May 1945.

Partly in connection with the BBC-tv films on SOE, I was trying to establish just what Hudson's radio problems had been. (Tragically, he was out of contact for many months.) He could remember only that his main set had been called a "MK III"; he did not know where it had originally come from; it was mains only; it was in a stout wooden box; and it weighed around 80-100lb. (Just the job for the mountains of Montenegro, on foot).

Hudson was given this monster by British Intelligence in Malta. Pat Hawker could not confirm precisely what configuration this particular Mk

III would have been in. So G3EUR produced for the BBC, at almost no notice, a "mock-up" of the Mk III in its familiar HRO configuration. This was rushed to Yugoslavia for the BBC's filming — but, as so often happens on these occasions, appeared in the final version of the film only in very long shot, and only for a second or two.

Hudson's radio operator (as I learned only after the war) was Sgt Veljko Dragičević of the Royal Yugoslav Army in Egypt, detailed to accompany two Yugoslav officers sent in by SOE along with Hudson. These two officers were evidently intending to join the Royalist General Mihailović. Hudson had a wider brief — to contact all resistance groups. In the event, they met first the Montenegrin Partisans, who took them on to Tito's GHQ — then in Serbia, at Užice. At this point, Sgt Dragičević, having seen the Partisans in action, volunteered to join them. Hudson (who had a high regard for Dragičević) felt he could not object. Tito — in dire need of both operators and sets — welcomed the new volunteer, but insisted that the Mk. III be returned to Hudson for his onward journey to Mihailović's HQ.

When I arrived at Tito's GHQ in December 1943, Tito's Chief Signals Officer, in charge of a rather effective W/T network covering the whole country, not to mention a link with Moscow, was none other than Major Veljko Dragičević. We became good friends — but ironically no-one in our Mission, or in SOE, then knew that Veljko was in fact one of SOE's most valuable contributions to Tito's successful war effort! Veljko, for his part, never told me his story — thinking, no doubt, that I must certainly have known all about it, but had been too polite to refer to what we might have regarded as his "desertion" from Bill Hudson's mission.

Sadly, Veljko was killed during the German airborne landing on Tito's GHQ in May 1944. Otherwise, he would no doubt have been only too pleased to tell us the full story of Hudson's notorious "MK. III".

By the time I went to Tito's GHQ, G3EUR and his colleagues in SOE were already in production with their classic

"No. 3, Mk. II", or "B 2", "War Station" behind the Pyramids (known as "M E 8") — with its 40 RCA ET 4332s at 250 watts; AR 88s to match; and rhombics galore. So we were no longer dependent on the (for our purposes) altogether less satisfactory Intelligence network and equipment.

Soon after Fitzroy Maclean took over our contacts with Tito, his Mission formally ceased to be a part of SOE. This explains why the BBC decided to bring their SOE film on Yugoslavia to an abrupt end with Maclean's arrival. What the BBC did *not* mention was the fact that all Maclean's communications, and all the apparatus of air supply drops (including the laborious business of drawing up "G 1098" lists of authorised equipment for "Partisan Guerilla Corps, Division, Brigade and GHQ Signal Detachments", and getting the stuff from British and US Signals Depots from all round the Mediterranean) remained the exclusive responsibility of SOE until the end of the war. And it turned out that Army and RAF Signals Units were generally not able to cope effectively with the guerilla-style communications which were required in and around the Adriatic in the closing stages of the war by Marine Commandos and others.

However (with the honourable exception of F2WL's "Secret Warfare", on the French Resistance experience) the remarkable story of SOE Signals continues to elude the historians. As one of them noted at the end of the war, after going through SOE's (still secret) archives, this part of the SOE story "can be told adequately only by technicians, to experts. . .". Yet even Major-General Nalder's magisterial "History of British Army Signals in the Second World War" makes no mention of the crucial role of Royal Signals personnel in SOE — or of SOE's sets, beyond a passing reference to "miniature components" not available to the Army in 1942, although they had proved "very successful in suitcase sets made for special operations".

If any of your readers have any experience of SOE Signals activities, or personalities, in

Cairo, Bari, or the Balkans generally, I should be very glad to hear from them.

H.W. King
Oban
Argyll

ELECTROMAGNETIC ENERGY TRANSFER

I would like to reply to letters in the January issue following my article in September and October of 1984.

I regret that I cannot comment on P.J. Ratcliffe, since I see no reason for mixing e-m and entropy. Have they been mixed up together before, I wonder?

Ouida Dogg (sic) compares Galileo's travails with mine. Certainly the scandalous, unprofessional behaviour of the Establishment (in my case officials of the I.E.E., Inst. Phys. etc.) closely parallels that of the Church in Galileo's case, except that the Church and its supporters at least bothered to supply some philosophical justification for what they did to Galileo. Disclosure of my research has been delayed for more than ten expensive years. There is no point in giving names, because every single member of the scientific establishment behaved irresponsibly in my case. As Oliver Heaviside wrote:

"If you have got anything new, in substance or in method, and want to propagate it rapidly, you need not expect anything but hindrance from the old practitioner — even though he sat at the feet of Faraday. Beetles could do that. . . But only give him plenty of rope, and when [as now in my case] the new views have become fashionably current, he may find it worth his while to adopt them, though, perhaps, in somewhat sneaking manner, not unmixed with bluster, and make believe he knew all about it when he was a little boy!" — See I. Catt et al., *Digital Electronic Design* vol 2, p323, pub. C.A.M. Publishing.
Ivor Catt
St. Albans
Herts.

The NPL definition of the ampere is bad science purely because of the difficulty in getting infinitely long

conductors. If we are to imagine them as the definition requires, we must make sure that they are a fair extrapolation of the finite shorted line. Chris Parton (December, 1984) gets into a tangle as he unwinds his reels of wire to infinity because he assumes they are initially quiescent. Why not extend the forward and backward wave system of the finite case to infinity along with the conductors? If you must speculate how this could be set up in a finite time from a quiescent state, why not allow a distributed e.m.f. instead of applying it at one point?

On the subject of transmission lines, Ivor Catt, who provoked this discussion, should get his car seen to if, as he says, it suffers from an energy dance at the speed of light. Wot no dielectric insulation? I hate to think what reflections will build up when the conductors touch.

Finally I was intrigued to learn from Mr O'Reilly that open lines are 'always terminated by free space with an approximate impedance of 377 ohms'. This should be of considerable interest to transmitter designers, especially at e.l.f., where they have great difficulty in getting anything radiated at all. But now all they have to do is install a 377 ohm feeder to the outside where it is cut off cleanly. The r.f. will run up the line and obligingly launch itself into free space unhampered by any aerial. Since this effect is independent of frequency, or even geometry, it must be explanation of another phenomenon which has always puzzled me: the fact that my batteries always go flat during storage. Obviously they are being shunted by free space. It would also explain the well-known standby consumption of mains sockets, amounting to 153 watts, if they are not properly switched off at the wall, a fact well appreciated by builders in these energy conscious days, when it comes to specifying the number of sockets in a room. This effect was, in fact, first brought to public attention by James Thurber, whose aunt lived in dread of electricity leaking out and getting around the house.
D.H. Potter
Axminster
Devon

Vehicle location in mines and metros

by D.J.R. Martin
BSc, PhD,
FInstP, FIERE

Leaky-feeder systems providing radio communication for mines and underground railways may be simply adapted to indicate positions of trains and other vehicles

Underground environments such as mines and tunnels commonly present two requirements with regard to the men and vehicles that may be travelling within them. In the first place there is usually a communication requirement: miners may need to keep in touch with a surface base either simply for their own safety or so that they may be diverted to attend to problems where their particular skills are urgently required; vehicles in the same mines, often manriding trains carrying over a hundred men, may need continuous radio contact to comply with safety regulations.

Secondly, there is an increasing need for a close automatic check on the movements of those same vehicles and perhaps even of individuals. In mining, where track circuit signalling is rarely used, the position of a locomotive can be in serious and dangerous doubt to a central dispatcher; and given the nature of a mine it is not unknown for the driver himself to be insufficiently certain or even confused. In the corresponding metro case, modern signalling methods remove all dangerous uncertainties; and yet there is also evidence of a need for an independent and perhaps closer check on the situation, or even of a less expensive method.

In the underground world, mobile communication is almost entirely through leaky-feeder propagation of v.h.f. radio signals, to overcome the severe limitations on natural propagation in such conditions. As its name implies, a leaky feeder is a type of transmission line that has deliberately been made to be imperfect, so that the internal

field extends for a distance of a wavelength or more outside the feeder itself and so allows communication with mobiles in the vicinity; a very common type is a coaxial cable in which the outer braided screen has been applied with a loose weave. Repeater amplifiers are inserted in the feeder to restore the losses periodically. This is the basis of the communication systems with which most mines and metro systems are now equipped^{1, 2}.

But, because of the propagation difficulties, the use of radar as generally known is impracticable in these circumstances, and the same consideration has precluded the development of any form of radio direction finding or distance measurement. As the need for position monitoring by radio means has become apparent, therefore, proposed solutions have centred on the installation of wayside beacons or interrogators operating in similar manner to the 'bus beacons' in increasing use. Such systems, of course, give a very precise indication of the passing of the beacon, but the information still has usually to be relayed to a central control point; this can be done by a normal leaky-feeder radiocommunication link from the vehicle or by fixed lines from the wayside points. The devices may be considered expensive, and perhaps a maintenance liability, where fairly close or frequent updates on the position are required. There is also the factor that if the position information is lost it cannot be retrieved until the vehicle next passes a wayside point.

The proposal to be described allows the position of the vehicle or personal set to be established

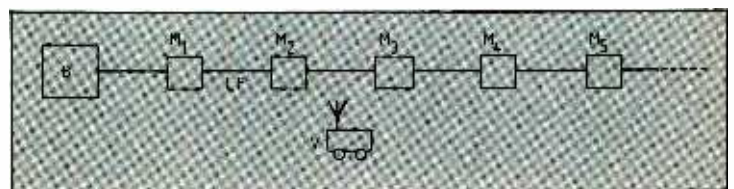
purely by reference to the signals being transmitted through the leaky-feeder system itself. There are no wayside beacons or interrogators to be installed, and the position can be redetermined at any time if stored information is lost.

New location principle

The basis of the location principle is that a radio signal being transmitted from base to a mobile or personal set (or in the opposite direction) can be systematically modified during its passage through the leaky-feeder system in such a way that the location of the mobile set can be deduced from the total extent of the modification observed in the received signal.

The operation may be followed by reference to Fig. 1, which is adapted from the formal patent specification³. Here, B is the fixed base station in communication with a mobile station V through the leakage fields of the feeder LF. The necessary modification to the signal is effected through special 'marker devices' interposed in series with the feeder at suitable intervals and denoted by M1, M2, M3, and so on. Such markers may or may not, as appropriate, be integral with any repeaters that may be present in the system. The modification imparted to the signal may take a number of forms, for

Fig. 1. Leaky-feeder system with position markers



example amplitude or phase modulation, but the simplest is probably the introduction of a short interruption or 'notch' in the radio-frequency carrier. Such a simple form of modification is probably not easily removable or reversible by a subsequent marker device, and so in this case the method of determining position amounts to counting the total number of separate notches imparted to the signal as finally received. The position-determining operation is initiated by either the base or mobile station, in introducing the first notch into its own transmission; each marker detecting such notch or series of notches then adds its own contribution to the series.

The marker device might take the simple form shown in Fig. 2, in which INPUT denotes the connection to the incoming leaky feeder from the direction of the base station or preceding marker and OUTPUT denotes the connection to the outgoing leaky feeder and any further markers.

The incoming r.f. signal is rectified by capacitor C_1 , diode D_1 and resistor R_1 and then smoothed by choke RFC_1 and capacitor C_2 to produce a steady direct voltage across C_2 . Interruptions in the incoming signal cause corresponding interruptions in this voltage and the resulting pulses are passed through the differentiating circuit comprising C_3 and R_2 to the counter circuit IC_1 , which determines when the final pulse in a series has been received, and thereupon passes a signal to the timing circuit IC_2 .

This in turn initiates the required further interruption in the outgoing signal path, setting its interval and duration. In Fig. 2 this has been shown as though by a mechanical relay RL , though in practice a PIN diode or other solid-state method would prob-

ably be used.

Where the signal being coded is originating at a mobile transmitter the arrangement requires some elaboration. In the first place, the signal level in the feeder will be far lower and there will certainly be need for some amplification in advance of the notch detection circuits. But more fundamentally, the number of notches in the incoming signal will no longer be fixed, being itself already dependent on the location of the mobile rather than as before on the position of the marker in the chain, and so a simple counter cannot indicate when the last notch has been received. This can be decided instead by arranging that the additional notch applied by each marker is initially of smaller width than the rest. This will identify it to the following marker within the time duration of a normal notch, whereupon it can be extended to the normal width before addition of the new narrow notch.

In practice, leaky feeder systems more than about a kilometre in length normally incorporate repeaters in the line to compensate for losses. These are usually line-powered.

As shown in Fig. 2, the relay contact RL_1 (or its equivalent solid-state device) will interrupt not only the r.f. signal but also any line-fed d.c. supply. It may be necessary to provide a d.c. bypass in some system arrangements: but in fact the situation as shown can lead to an attractively simplified system, for the sensing may be carried out on the d.c. supply instead of on the r.f. signal. This does presume that it is the base-station carrier that is being coded, and that the system is powered from a single d.c. supply at the base-station transmitter; and to maintain uniformity between the markers it becomes necessary to replace the initiating

interruption of the carrier by an interruption of the d.c. supply.

Two-stage coding

If the number of markers in a system is large, either because of the length of the system or because a high resolution of position is being sought, a disadvantage may arise in the resulting long series of notches taking an unacceptable time — perhaps several seconds — for the location process, especially if the frequency of interruptions is limited by bandwidth considerations of the signal. In such cases it is possible to carry out the location process in two stages, with consequent reduction in the total number of interruptions involved.

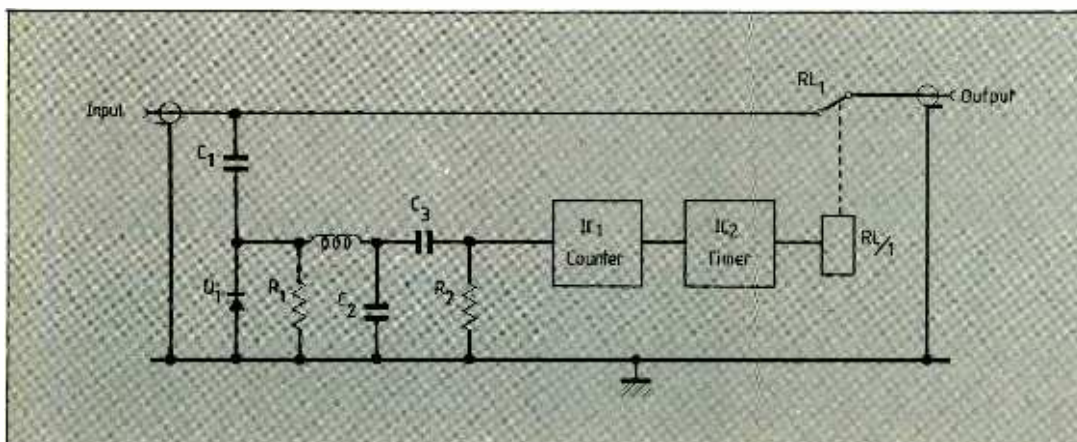
For example, suppose that a particular system requires the use of 99 markers. In the simple scheme described this would result finally in a series of 100 interruptions, to be counted for any vehicle in the final section. In the improved variation only every 10th marker will respond to a series of fewer than 10 interruptions and add its further interruption; the intervening markers will respond only to trains of notches exceeding 10. Thus, on this interrogation the number of notches received by the mobile will denote only the decade in which it is located. This information is then relayed to the base station, which thereupon initiates a further series of interruptions.

This new initiation, however, consists of sending not just a single notch but a series of notches corresponding to the number 10 decremented by the number of notches previously counted. As before, every 10th marker will respond by incrementing the number of notches by one. But when the number of notches reaches 10 every subsequent marker will respond. This transition will occur when the previously determined decade is reached. Thus, the number of notches then received in excess of 10 will denote the number of the section within the decade.

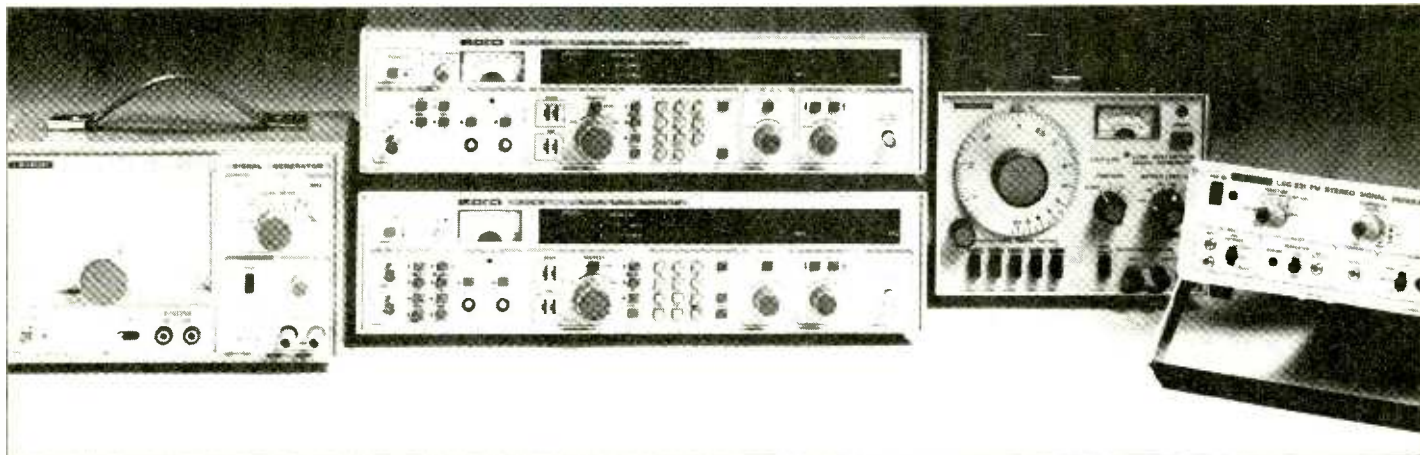
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Fig. 2. Skeleton diagram of position marker



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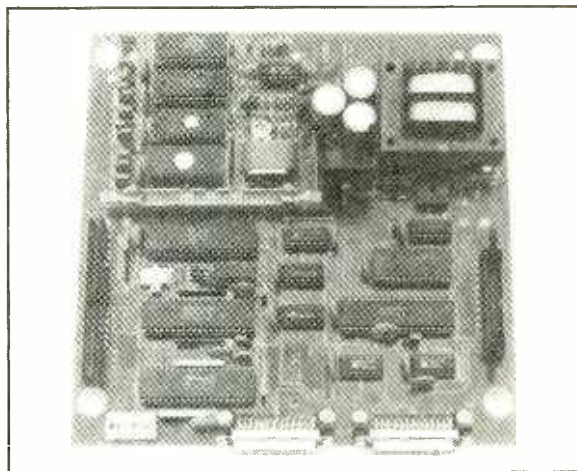
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CIRCLE 36 FOR FURTHER DETAILS.

The new logic symbols - 2

by Ian Kampel,
M.I.E.R.E

Since manufacturers' data sheets are already changing gradually to the new standard and more and more of the larger companies will comply, everyone concerned with digital electronics will sooner or later have to come to terms with the new standard.

The reader is here reminded of one important point explained last month. If polarity indicators (triangularly shaped qualifying symbols on inputs and outputs) are employed in a diagram, this means that voltage levels (i.e. high or low) are known for given logic states, so making logic convention irrelevant. (A polarity indicator on an input or output serves to indicate that a low level external to the element corresponds to an internal logic 1-state.) If negation symbols are used on any inputs or outputs, then no polarity indicators should appear on any inputs or outputs, and it is also necessary to define the logic convention (i.e. positive or negative). Since only pure logic is represented internally within a binary logic element, only negation symbols may be used to signify inversion, for here polarity indicators have no place.

In this article a mixture of positive logic convention and usage of polarity indicator diagrams will be found: a positive logic convention may be assumed if polarity indicators are not present.

Dependency notation

The dependency notation allows the relationship between inputs, outputs, or inputs and outputs to be defined without the need for showing all the elements and interconnections involved. The aim is to supplement qualifying symbols (symbols associated with inputs and outputs) in complex elements, not to replace simple elements in their own right. For use of the dependency notation in simple elements makes them more complex, whereas their use in inherently complex symbols provides a sim-

plification. (The logic of this apparent enigma will become clearer later on.)

In order to simplify the following text, the abbreviation 'I/O' is used to represent the phrases: 'input or output' or 'inputs or outputs'.

The dependency notation is accomplished by:

- Labelling the I/O affecting other I/O with a particular symbol denoting the relationship involved followed by an identifying number;
- Labelling each I/O affected by that affecting I/O with that same number. Where the affected I/O already has a label denoting its function this label is prefixed by the dependency notation number.

And, or, negation and interconnection dependency

The label 'G' is used to denote an And dependency. Figure 9 demonstrates this, where the dotted lines on the binary logic element signify that only a portion of a complex element is under consideration. The '1' number label shows a relationship between all of the inputs shown. The 'G' label associated with input b signifies that this input has an And relationship with other I/O having an identical number ('1' in this case). Thus there is a straightforward And relationship between inputs a and b as the equivalent logic diagram alongside shows; in the case of input c, the bar over the label '1' signifies an inversion (i.e. is Anded with the inverse of b).

Figure 10 shows G dependency between an output and an input; output b is Anded with input a (remember we are only consider-

ing a part of a more complex symbol). It should always be borne in mind that these internal labels refer to internal logic states; therefore, if there had been an external negation symbol on the output of this symbol — as depicted in Fig. 11 — then it is the internal condition which is Anded with the input, as shown in the equivalent logic diagram, not the inverted external condition. Note that a '1' is used as the general qualifying symbol for a negating (i.e. inverting) element.

A dynamic input is signified by the familiar 'notch' qualifying symbol as shown for input b in part (a) of Fig. 12. The equivalent logic diagram in part (b) of the figure serves to make the point that only input b is a dynamic input in this case: it does not mean that inputs a and b are Anded prior to a dynamic input to the main element; thus a and b in part (a) of the figure are not equivalent to the logic diagram shown in part (c) of the figure. Two (or more) affecting inputs with the same dependency letter and number stand in an Or relationship to one another, as shown in Fig. 13.

The label 'V' is used to denote a conventional Or dependency, as depicted in Fig. 14. In this case, output b is Ored with output a internally, therefore not affecting output a itself, as shown in the equivalent logic diagram.

The label 'N' is used to indicate negate (or exclusive-Or) dependency, as shown in Fig. 15.

Interconnections are simplified in complex elements by use of Z-dependency. The 'Z' label signifies interconnection; thus, the internal state of the output of the element shown in Fig. 16 is interconnected to the shown effective

input by nature of the Z-dependency. Note once again how this does not affect the output at a.

Set/reset dependency

Set/reset dependency (S/R) is not so easily shown in brief, so we must suffice here to show one example only. Figure 17 depicts an SR bistable (or latch) which has reset (R) overrides on both outputs. As the truth table shows, the logic 1-state at the a input has no effect when a logic 1-state also exists at the b input. (NB. 'nc' in the truth table signifies 'no change'.)

EN inputs and EN dependency

The label 'EN' signifies an enable. Thus the input shown in part (a) of Fig. 18 is an enabling input affecting all outputs. The inverted triangular qualifying symbol shown against the outputs signifies a three-state output. If the enable only affects certain I/O then EN dependency notation is called for, as shown in part (b) of the figure. In the latter case, input a affects input c and outputs d and e, whilst input b only affects output f.

Mode dependency

Mode (M) dependency is one of the more complicated relationships, and an example of this is given in Fig. 19. In such situations, the effect of an affecting I/O on an affected I/O is summarised below, where separate segments of a label are separately considered when separated by oblique strokes:

- If the affecting I/O is at a 1-state then affected I/O are enabled;
- If the affecting I/O is at a 0-state then affected I/O are disabled; sets of labels containing the appropriate dependency number should be ignored.

Figure 19 illustrates various points in connection with mode dependency, and also introduces a labelling method used for indicating a range of dependency numbers, i.e. 0/3 in this example for the M (mode) input. The fractional form of representation indicates modes ranging from 0 to 3; thus the dependency numbers 0, 1, 2 and 3 within such an element must be reserved for mode dependency use.

The bracket around inputs a and b to the element signifies binary grouping. The associated labels of '0' and '1' simply signify bit significance in this instance (they are not dependency num-

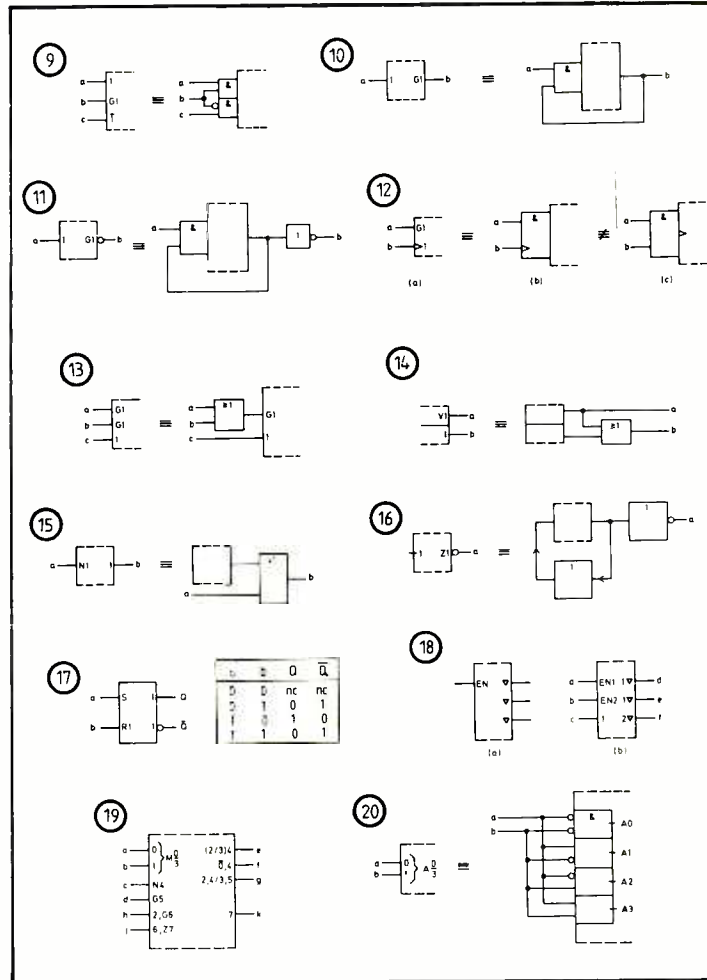


Fig.9. G dependency between inputs

Fig.10. G dependency between output and input

Fig.11. G dependency between output and input, showing that it is the internal state of the output which is Anded.

Fig.12. G dependency with dynamic input.

Fig.13. Identical affecting inputs are in Or relationship.

Fig.14. V dependency between two outputs.

Fig.15. N (negate) or XOr dependency.

Fig.16. Z (interconnection) dependency.

Fig.17. S (set) and R(reset) dependency.

Fig.18. Examples of (a) EN input and (b) EN dependency.

Fig.19. M (mode) dependency.

Fig.20. A (address) dependency.

bers); thus the '0' on input a indicates that this is the least-significant bit of the binary grouping, the '1' on input b signifies the next bit significance (and so on with '2', '3', etc, as necessary in cases where there is a larger binary grouping). From this we may assume the following mode identities in accordance with inputs a and b:

INPUTS	RESULTANT
a b	MODE
0 0	0
0 1	1
1 0	2

Input modes are therefore dependent upon the binary input on a and b. Outputs e, f and g are mode affected outputs since they contain labels in the range 0-3. Let us consider each of these outputs in turn.

Output e has a mode dependency in modes 2 and 3, and in these modes, the label set specifies negation (XOr) dependency when input c is at a 1-state due to the N4 association; in all other modes output e stands at its normally defined state as if it had no labels.

Output f also has a negation

dependency when the mode dependency is operative since this is also dependent upon the N4 affecting input c; when the mode dependency is not operative the output stands at its normally defined state as if it had no labels. Mode dependency exists in the 0 mode, which is equivalent to specifying (1/2/3)4 in the label, i.e. mode dependency exists in all cases except Mode 0, giving an effect in Modes 1, 2 and 3.

Output g has a negation dependency with input c in Mode 2 and an And dependency with input d in Mode 3; in all other modes the output stands at its normally defined state as if it had no labels.

Input h is the only affected input with mode dependency. This input only has an effect on the element in Mode 2, and Mode 2 effectively enables the And relationship specified by G6 between inputs h and j. Another point to note is the commas in the qualifying symbols for inputs h and j. Where commas exist, it implies that the dependency relationships indicated should be applied in the indicated order where each relationship is separ-

Fig.21. Common-control box in use.

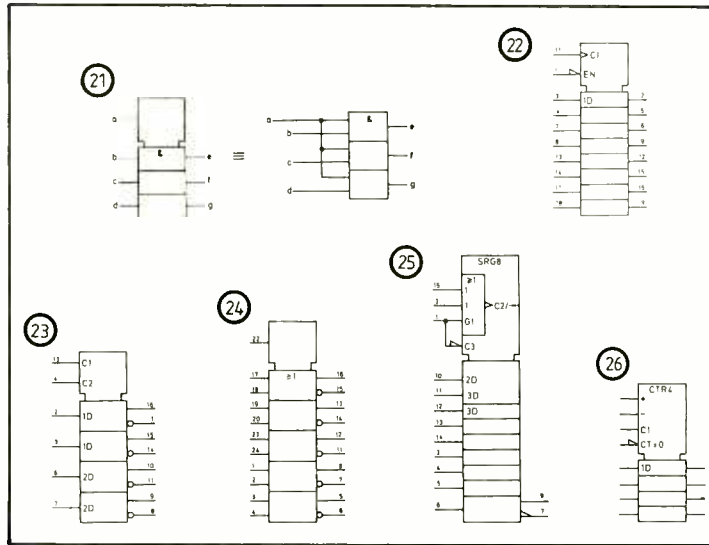
Fig.22. Octal flip-flop with common enable (74LS377)

Fig.23. 4-bit bistable latch (7475)

Fig.24. Quint Or with one common input and complementary outputs.

Fig.25. 8-bit shift register with parallel load facility (74165)

Fig.26. 4-stage bidirectional counter with parallel loading and common reset.



ated by a comma. Thus input h has no effect until Mode 2 is true, after which G6 becomes valid when input h is true, to be Anded with input j, so making the interconnection dependency valid when j is also true; all this — and only all this, results in a 1-state being output at k. Thus the label '6' associates h and j, and the label '7' associates j and k.

Address dependency

Address (A) dependency is relatively easy to understand if mode dependency is understood, for there can be many similarities, as may be seen from Fig. 20. Binary grouping is indicated by the bracket on the inputs, and the fractional qualifying symbol indicates the range 0-3 as it did in the previous example. This time the letter 'A' signifies address dependency within the given range. All this equates to four independent A labels (A0, A1, A2 and A3), as shown in the equivalent logic diagram. A different device might have four separate input lines to achieve the same effect, and in such a case, the input lines would be separately labelled as A0, A1, A2 and A3 respectively.

Shift registers and counters

The previous part of this article indicated how a number of identical elements can be represented in the form of an array. In these early examples there was no inter-relationship between the elements, but if such exists, this is most easily represented by the use of the common control box. This is the 'robot-head' appendage on top of the example array shown in Fig. 21. Any I/O associated with the common control box has an effect on several or all

of the elements in the associated array. Input a in Fig. 21, for example, is a common And input to all the elements, as shown in the equivalent logic diagram.

Figure 22 depicts an octal flip-flop with a common enable (EN) input on pin 1 (active when low), and a common dynamic clock input on pin 11. I have intentionally economised by not previously introducing one further dependency input: control (C) dependency, to be seen on the clock input in this case. When an affecting control input is at its internal 1-state then the affected inputs have their normally defined effect on the function of the element. In this case, it may be seen that this facility is used to signify a clocking effect on a D-type input on pin 3. The similar lower elements in the array are also labelled '1D' by implication (see Part 1). Thus input data may be clocked into all eight-bits of the register on the positive-going clock edge at pin 11, providing that the input at pin 1 is low.

A variation on this theme is shown in Fig. 23. In this case, four D-type latches are shown, the upper pair controlled by the input on pin 13, and the lower pair by the input on pin 4. (Note that true and false outputs are shown for each element in this example).

Figure 24 depicts a quint Or array with one common input on pin 22, and complementary outputs.

The common control box

Shift registers and counters are clearly prime examples of binary logic elements which can be efficiently represented by using the common control box. The general qualifying symbols of 'SRG'

and 'CTR' signify shift register and counter respectively.

Figure 25 is an 8-bit shift register; this is immediately signified by the 'SRG8' general qualifying symbol within the common control box. The particular device here represented has a parallel (or 'broadside') load facility (the 74165 device). Parallel loading is achieved by taking the input on pin 1 low: in this case, control dependency C3 enables inputs on pins 11 to 14 and 3 to 6. For shifting to occur, C3 must be false, therefore the input on pin 1 must be high (this is the SHIFT/LOAD input). A high on pin 1 makes G1 true, and this combined with either pin 15 or pin 2 high establishes the required conditions for shifting. When this condition occurs, the dynamic input C2 is satisfied to give a right shift (indicated by the right pointing arrow); this corresponds to a top-to-bottom shift with respect to the symbol. Note that the input on pin 10 is a serial input enabled only when shifting. Note also the complementary outputs on the bottom (right-hand) stage.

Figure 26 depicts a 4-stage binary counter, as signified by the 'CTR4' general qualifying symbol. This has separate count up (+) and count down (-) clock inputs to the common control box, a parallel loading facility controlled by the C1 input, and a common reset (CT=0 signifies count=0).

Conclusion

That concludes this brief look at some of the more complex aspects of the new logic symbols.

Next month I conclude this series with a look at the practical application of the new logic symbols and illustrate how they may be applied to give different levels of detail according to needs.

Acknowledgements

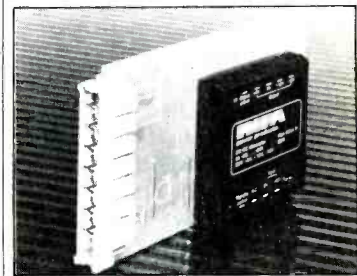
The author is greatly indebted to the following:

Mr. D.B.J. Hicks of the British Standards Institution, Messrs. C.J. Stanford and L. van Rooij, General Secretary and Deputy General Secretary of the International Electrotechnical Commission, for their invaluable assistance in the research work for my book, Mr. N. Warnock-Smith of Butterworth Scientific Ltd., for his kind co-operation in the use of illustrations from my book for this article, and Mrs. J. Molyneux, who penned the excellent illustrations.



Single-chip data acquisition

An eight-channel analogue multiplexer, a sample-and-hold circuit and an eight-bit a-to-d converter are all combined into a single chip from Siliconix. The chip gas at 14kHz data rate making it suitable for voice grade communication digitizing. It has a low power consumption of 5mW and may be used in battery-operated equipment. Claimed to have a maximum linearity error of 0.5 l.s.b, the 81520 is safe to use in feedback and control systems. Input voltage range is 3 to 5.5V and it is housed in a 28-pin plastic or ceramic d.i.l. package. Available from Dage (GB) Ltd, Eurosem Division, Rabans Lane, Aylesbury, Bucks HR19 3RG. EWW213



Eprom emulator

8K and 16K eproms may now be emulated for the development of target systems in conjunction with an Acorn/BBC micro. It allows the computer to share a block of memory with a target system. The unit is a p.c.b. with 16K of c.mos ram and a battery back-up. One 28-way connector fits into a 'sideways' rom socket on the computer while another plugs into the rom socket of the target. As a bonus the emulator may be loaded with rom software and used as a sideways ram by the computer. It comes with software to allow for the easy loading and editing of the emulator memory from disc. The software is in fact provided loaded into the emulators memory and may be saved to disc by the user. £95 for the 8K version or £119 for 16K. Benwick Electronics, 5 Church Street, Wimblington, March, Cambs PE15 0E8. EWW214

Touch-screen sensor

Computers can be used by the youngest children and the handicapped if the input is not confined to the keyboard. One demonstration of this is the Touchtech 501, an add-on device tailored to fit Microvitec colour monitors. It detects the interruptions in infra-red beams along x and y coordinates and can therefore sense the position of any stylus or finger pointed

at the screen and can be used with menu software to enable easy access to the computer. The first software package has been produced by the Government's Microelectronics in Education programme and demonstrates the capabilities of the system. It works specifically with the Acorn/BBC micro plugging into the RS423 serial interface. It has its own on-

board processor to decode the i.r. beam pattern and transmits to the host computer at 9600bit/s. Versions for other computers are due later in the year. The device is being marketed first in the educational sector and is expected to sell for about £210 which Microvitec claim is a fraction of the cost of other touch screen devices. Microvitec plc, Futures Way, Bolling Road, Bradford, W Yorks BD4 7TU. EWW207

Low-cost disc drives

After considerable investment and research work, Servicon Dynamics have managed to cut the price of 3" disc drives to very low prices. A single-sided double density is £129.95 and a double headed drive is £199. Both have the same capacity as a 3" disc may be flipped over and both sides used, but the single headed drive can only

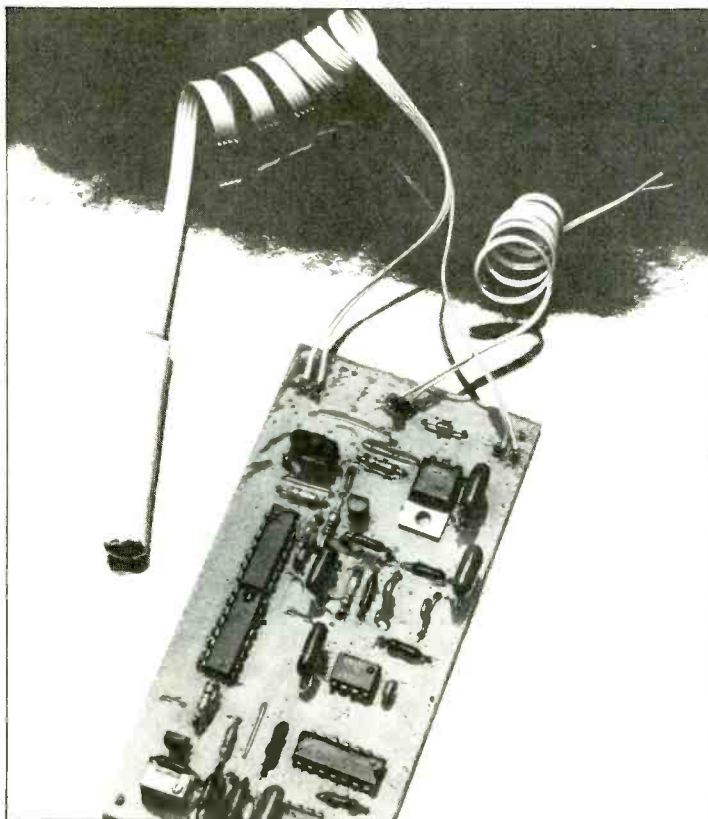
access one side at a time while the two record/replay head have access to the full 400K formatted disc capacity. The units are direct replacements for 5 1/2" drives and are supplied with cables and a manual suitable for use with the Acorn/BBC micro. The same company has produced a BBC d.f.s. which is compatible with

second processors, has auto density/tracking capability, includes a formatter on rom and is claimed to be fully Acorn compatible. They have also announced a disc drive for the Sinclair Spectrum which will be available soon, which have 128K of storage with expansion up to 256K, will incorporate an RS423 interface and will cost under £100. The Crescent range of disc drives is marketed by Servicon Dynamics Ltd, 186 Cirencester Road, Charlton Kings, Cheltenham, Glos GL53 8DZ. EWW216



Fluxgate sensor

Readers may remember a WW project of a fluxgate compass in October, 1982. Now Medical Magnetics have produced a similar system for the detection and measurement of magnetic fields. The complete system consists of a fluxgate transducer element which is sensitive to magnetic fields. It produces a signal voltage at its output terminals when the longitudinal axis is aligned with an ambient magnetic field vector. The output follows a cosine law when the transducer is moved out of alignment with the field. The associated electronics on a small p.c.b. generate a drive signal for the transducer element and processes the output signal. The sensitivity of the transducer is better than 65nT for an output of 1mV. This is to be compared with the ambient magnetic field in the UK of about 20,000nT. This refers to system SA2. SA1 with a longer transducer is even more sensitive at 15nT/mV. Unlike the Hall-effect device, the fluxgate sensor is highly directional and largely independent of ambient



temperature. This makes it very suitable for compass applications and for low field-strength magnetic surveys. The low cost of the system (£45

inclusive) makes it available for use in educational work. Medical Magnetics, 19 Norwood Drive, Chester, Cheshire. EWW218

Storage module for oscilloscopes

An add-on digital storage module is designed to capture analogue signals at speeds of up to 10M samples/second. Stored as a 1024 by 6bit data stream the waveform can be displayed

on a standard oscilloscope. The 81000 has 12 input sampling frequencies to capture events as fast as 100ns or as slow as 0.5s. It also has selectable

input and output voltage ranges. Sumatron Ltd, Hamilton House, 39 Kings Road, Haslemere, Surrey GU27 2QA. EWW215



Hard disc controller

A controller for Winchester discs is incorporated in a kit which also includes data handling components. These Intel devices are the iSBC 215, a generic Winchester controller capable of supporting two 5.25in disc drives and make use of Seagate ST412 standard interface. Also included is the iSBC 213 Data separator kit which can handle data transfer at 5Mbit/s, using m.f.m. A scrambler card matches the controller pin-out with the ST412 interface. The controller is interfaced to the host processor through Multibus memory and can address directly 16Mbytes of system memory. The kit includes enough on-board ram to buffer one full data sector and the system uses this buffer in all data transfers. On-board diagnostics and error checking are provided and an erroneous data burst up to 32 bits long can be detected. The controller has bus connectors for expansion and may be connected to a flexible controller or tape streamer for backup. Available from Rapid Recall Ltd, Denmark Street, High Wycombe, Bucks HP11 2ER. EWW211

Card mounted converters

The very small size of the Rifa PKA range of d.c./d.c. converters is made possible by having a switching rate of 300kHz. They feature short-circuit protection, soft start, transient protection and low r.f.i., an efficiency of 80% and an m.t.b.f. of 200 years, though how this can be measured is beyond us. Campbell Collins are now mounting them on Eurocards and so provide more flexibility by permitting the voltage adjustment to be mounted on the board. A number of combinations of output voltage are available, from 5V, 12V, $\pm 12V$ and $\pm 15V$; the units are rated at 30W and if high power is required the units may be connected in parallel. Campbell Collins Ltd, 162 High Street, Stevenage, Herts. EWW219

New Forth Microcard system

The Essex Forth Microcard measures only 10cm x 8cm but it is equipped to take on ambitious control tasks using the powerful FORTH Programming Language.

You can use the Essex Forthwriter disk to turn a BBC 'B' computer into a flexible workstation during program development but from then on the Microcard stands on its own.

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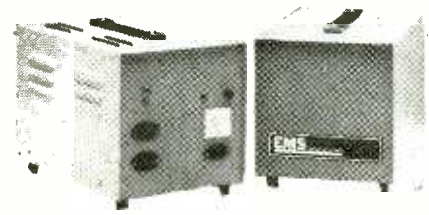


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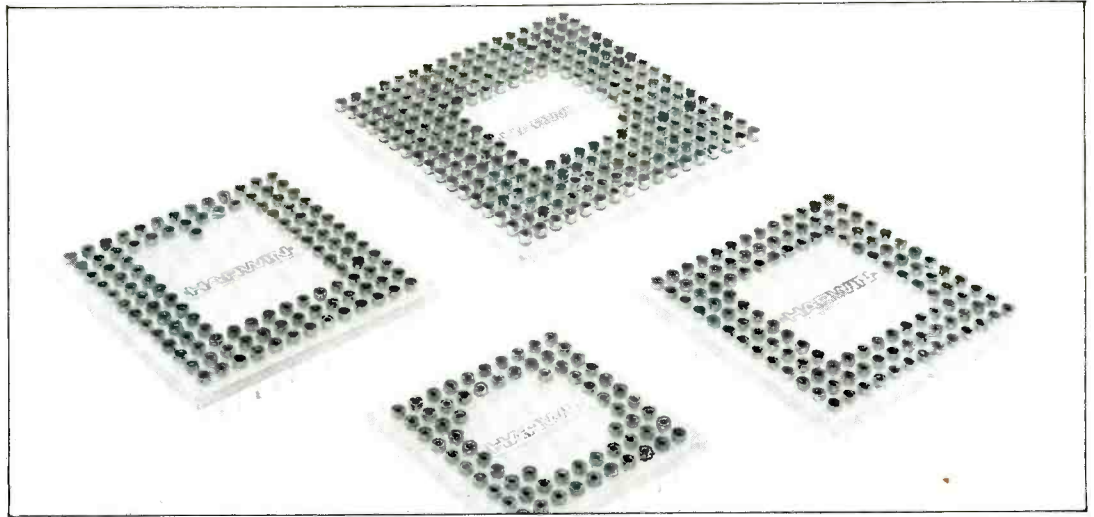


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It is now possible for Harwin to make pin grid array sockets to a customer's specification for little extra cost than producing standard d.i.l. configurations. The company has produced for specific customers 97 and 117-way sockets. They feature low insertion force: it is easy to remove the i.cs, and they are therefore suitable for testing components. Harwin Engineers 8A, Fitzherbert Road, Farlington, Portsmouth, Hants PO6 1RT. EWW222



Rotary switches

Binary-coded decimal or hexadecimal outputs are available from a range of miniature rotary switches. They come in a flat format for screwdriver operation, with knobs for manual control and/or with indicators. The switches are said to be highly reliable with hard gold plated on nickel for the contacts. They are

sealed against flux, solder or dust. The pins are arranged in d.i.l. formation for p.c.b. mounting. Maximum contact ratings are 30V switched but 100V can be tolerated when not switching. Maximum switched current is 125mA. Barlec-Richfield Ltd, Foundry Lane, Horsham, W Sussex RH13 5PX. EWW212

Farad capacitors

As electronic apprentices we were taught that the Farad was an unmanageable quantity. Picofarads were o.k. but one Farad would need a capacitor as large as a large block of flats. Not so. National Panasonic have produced Gold Cap electrolytics with up to 3.5F capacitance which are no bigger than ordinary capacitors and may be used instead of battery back-up to preserve the

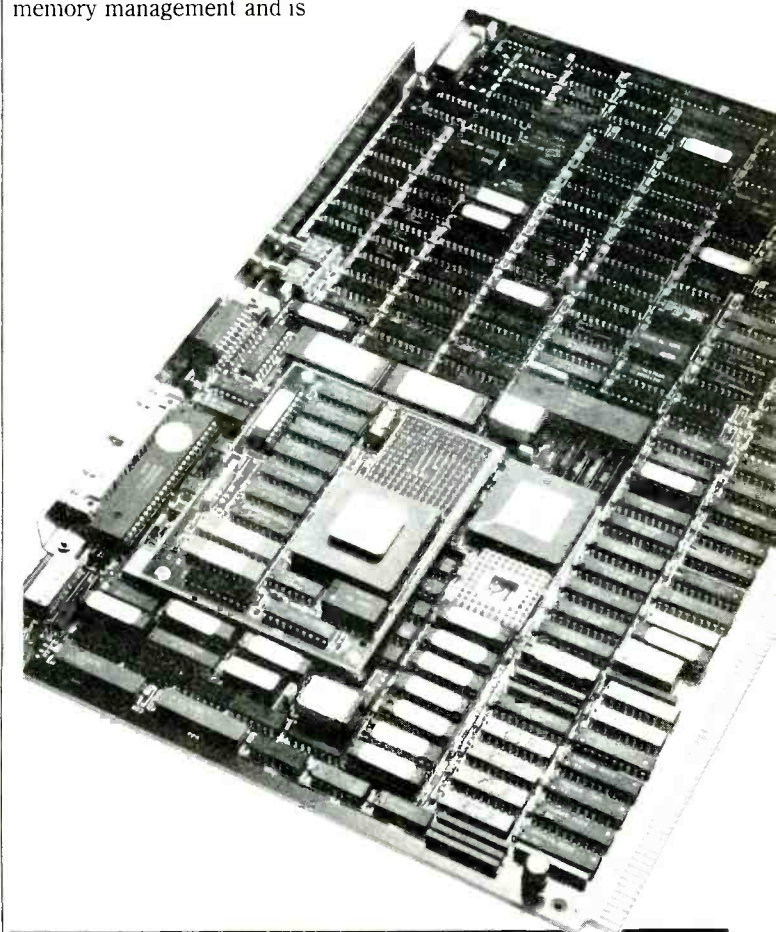
contents of c.mos and n.mos memories during power-downs. Taking its power from the 5V d.c. rail, a 3.3F capacitor will take some 500 hours to discharge into a 1Mohm load and is claimed to have extremely low self-discharge characteristics. Available through Ajax Electronics, Wessex Road, Bourne End, Bucks SL8 5DT. EWW210

32-Bit development system

An evaluation package to aid designers considering the implementation of Motorola's 68020 32-bit processor has been introduced. Benchmark 20, as it is known, consists of a single-board computer based on the processor, with 1Mbyte of d.ram, a four-slot VERSAbus chassis with power supply and built-in firmware to allow benchmarking and code debugging.

The system includes paged memory management and is

fully compatible with Motorola's VERSAmodule system, allowing simple implementation of user target systems. It is designed for use with such software development hosts as the VME/10 or EXORmacs and has full capability of data transfer between these systems. New-Tek Distribution, Beadle Trading Estate, Ditton Walk, Cambridge CB5 8QD. EWW220



16-bit micro for education

A 16-bit microcomputer designed specifically to meet the needs of science and education has been launched by Research Machines Ltd. The RM Nimbus is built around the Intel 80186 8MHz processor and is claimed to be three times as fast as an IBM PC, or roughly the same speed as the IBM PC AT, and yet costs 20% less than a PC or about half the price of an AT, for an equivalent configuration.

The Nimbus computer is supplied in a number of versions with varying amounts of memory, number of disc drives, and network facilities but they all include the MS-DOS operating system, a minimum of 192K memory (including 64K for graphics) high resolution colour graphics, Piconet network and a full range of i/o ports. The range starts with the Nimbus PC1 which has one 3½-in. floppy disc drive for £945. At the top of the range is the Nimbus X10 with one floppy disc drive and a 10Mbit hard disc for £2076. There is also a network server model with a wide selection of packaged software, two floppy drives and MS-NET software for use

with the network interface; this is the SPCN2 which costs £2508 to Further and Higher Educational establishments, £400 less to schools. A terminal model, TN, for use with the network has no discs, 320K of ram and costs £898 to F. and H.E. colleges with a £153 reduction to schools.

Optional extras include a floating-point mathematical processor, external 5½-in disc drive for using proprietary software for other MS-DOS computers, memory can be extended to 1Mbyte. Standard features on all models include printer interface, mouse or joystick interface, two rom cartridge sockets, a softkey socket, music and voice output and power rails together with the built-in network interface.

Every model has four expansion sockets inside the casing and any model can be upgraded to the level of other models in the range with additional disc drives, including hard disc. The computer has an emphasis on its graphics capabilities and RML have designed their own v.l.s.i. graphic processor which, according to Mike Fischer, the Managing Director, has been optimised for the emerging software which combines text graphics multiple fonts of typeface and mouse interfacing,



all with colour. "By designing our own graphics processing chip, we have been able to achieve five to twenty times the graphics speed of competitive systems at a lower cost."

He also explained that with computer literacy starting younger, there is a growing need for more sophisticated computer power in the secondary school in

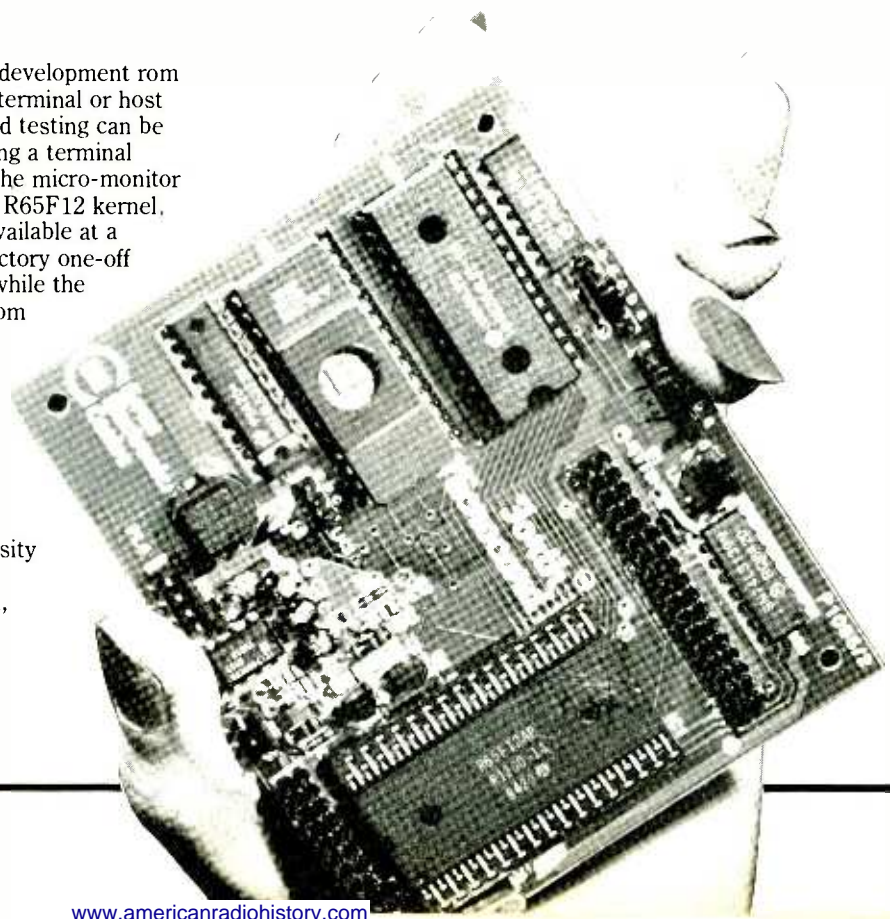
administration, business studies and in computer-aided design. The company will continue to manufacture and support the 380Z and 480Z 8-bit computers and have further plans for software and peripheral development for these. Research Machines Ltd, Mill Street, Oxford OX2 0BW. EWW205

Forth in control

Although known to us for their Tiny Basic control boards, Essex Electronic Centre have now produced a Forth micro-control card. Measuring only 80 by 100mm, the board is built around the Rockwell R65F12 single-chip microcomputer which incorporates a 4K Forth kernel. The board may be connected to any RS232C-compatible terminal to provide a Forth computer. The full capability of the processor is utilized to provide 40 input/output lines through ribbon-cable connectors and there are two 28-pin sockets for the provision of ram and/or eprom. An autostart feature makes it easy to use the system in process control and instrumentation applications.

The Essex Forth Microcard can function as its own development system when used in conjunction with the

Rockwell RF1 development rom and an RS232 terminal or host computer. Field testing can be carried out using a terminal together with the micro-monitor resident in the R65F12 kernel. The board is available at a special introductory one-off price of £119 while the development rom which, of course, may be re-used for further applications, costs £75.37. Essex Electronics Centre, University of Essex, Wivenhoe Park, Colchester CO4 3SQ. EWW206



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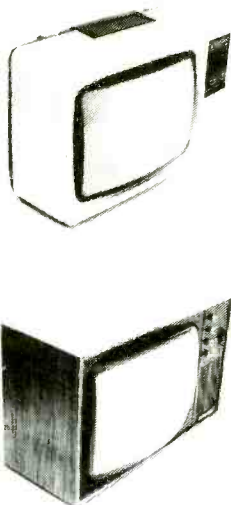
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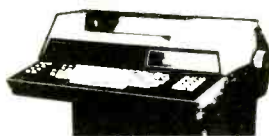
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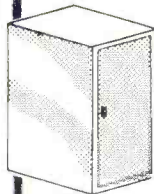
A Major manufacturer's over production and a bulk buy special enables us to offer this BRAND NEW TRANSDATA 307A ultra compact, BT APPROVED, 300 baud full duplex acoustic modem at a fraction of manufacturer's list price. The unit operates on the standard CCITT V21 frequencies with RS232 interface via 25 way 'D' skt. Combine the adjustable cup system, which fits almost any phone with the benefit of "No jacks or phone cables" and a light weight of only 1.2 Kg and you have a truly portable modem!! Supplied complete with data, 90 day guarantee and ready to use.

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ELECTRONICS & Wireless world

EDITORIAL FEATURES 1985

ISSUE DATE	PUBLICATION DATE	FEATURE
May. 1985	April. 19th	Power Supplies
July. 1985	June. 21st	VDU's
Sept. 1985	Aug. 16th	Communication Receivers

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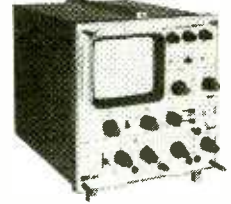
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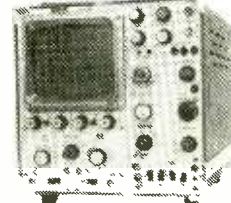
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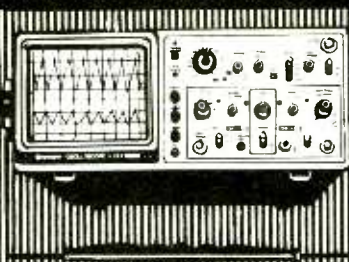
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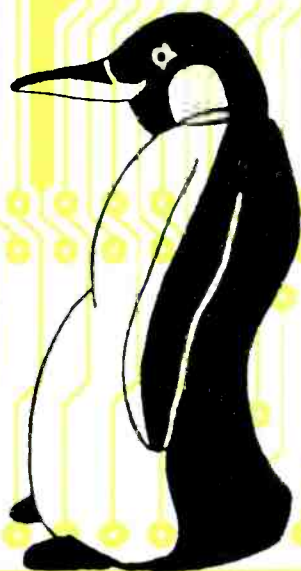
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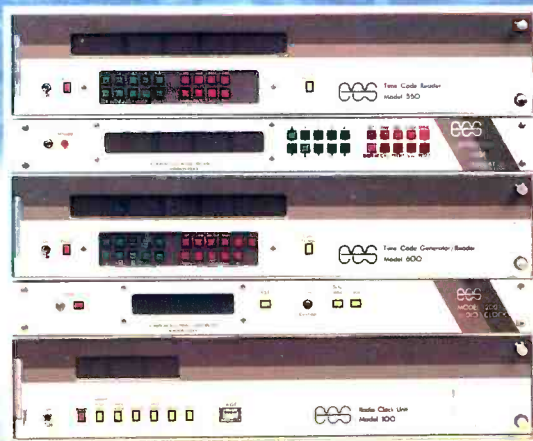
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