

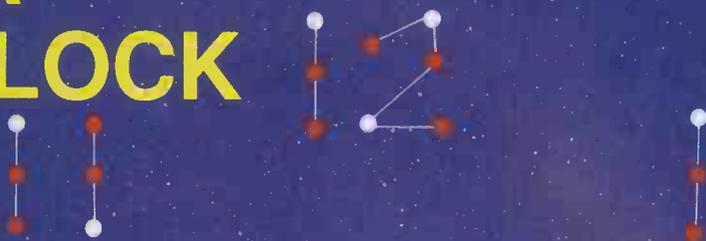
PRACTICAL

FEBRUARY 1989 • £1.25

ELECTRONICS

SCIENCE & TECHNOLOGY

**BUILD A
STAR CLOCK**



**KNOW
ABOUT
CRYSTALS**

**UPDATE
ON HDTV**

**WIN A CAMBRIDGE
ASTRA TV
SATELLITE
DISH!**

THE SCIENCE MAGAZINE FOR SERIOUS
ELECTRONICS AND COMPUTER ENTHUSIASTS

NEW REALISTIC[®]

PORTABLE SCANNING RECEIVER

- Frequency Synthesized - No Crystals To Buy
- 68-88 MHz VHF-Lo
- 108-136 MHz (AM) Aircraft
- 136.005-174 MHz VHF-Hi
- 380-512 MHz UHF
- 806-960 MHz

Realistic Pro-34. Catch all the action on this hand-held programmable scanner. Features extended frequency coverage, including the new 800 MHz band! Scan up to 200 channels in 10 bands or search for new bands. Store frequencies in a special monitor band for one-key transfer to permanent memory. Lock-out key temporarily bypasses unwanted channels.

The Key To Better Listening

Also features large LCD display showing channels and frequencies being scanned, monitored or programmed and has a switchable backlight for night viewing. Squelch control, built-in speaker, 1/8" earphone socket, flexible aerial and belt-clip. Includes BNC jack for adding external aerial.

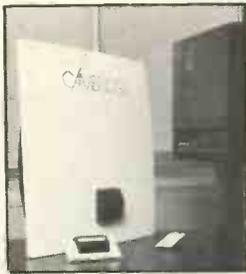
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Over 400 Stores
And Dealers Nationwide
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Tandy, Tandy Centre, Leamore Lane,
Walsall, West Midlands. WS2 7PS



Realistic PRO-34 £249.95.
Cat. No. 20-9135



COMPETITION

WIN AN ASTRA TV DISH! 61

Thirteen types of workshop equipment are listed – say in which order you think they are most important and three of you could each win Cambridge Computer's revolutionary new flat Astra Satellite TV receiving aerial – worth around £180!

CONSTRUCTIONAL PROJECTS

SIDEREAL CLOCK by John Becker 12

When's high noon for Neptune? Is it seven o'clock for Sirius? Can you tick off Tau Cygni at ten? Build this astro-horologic clock and track the universal time for star-treks.

DIGITAL ELECTRONICS – PART SIX by Owen Bishop 35

Climb the logical ladder and on the interfacing steps of knowledge let the Bishop convert you to a better belief in the ways of ADA.



SPECIAL FEATURES

HDTV – THE GREAT SYSTEMS BATTLE by Tom Ivall 19

The quality of viewing is much strained – but technical and economic disputes cloud the scene, and tv manufacturers can't get their acts in sync.

ELECTRONIC RAILWAYS – PART TWO by Neil Harding 24

Automatic train controls signal greater efficiency for transitory traffic, and customised ticketing puts commuters on a faster track to contentment.

ELECTRONICA 88 – MUNICH by John Becker 28

Your Ed takes a flying visit to the World's largest electronic components trade fair and finds that 2k5 exhibitors display confidence in an exciting future.

SEMICONDUCTORS – PART THIRTEEN by Andrew Armstrong ... 42

Cheap and cheerful, to precision and pricy – the range of opamps is enormous and widely differential.

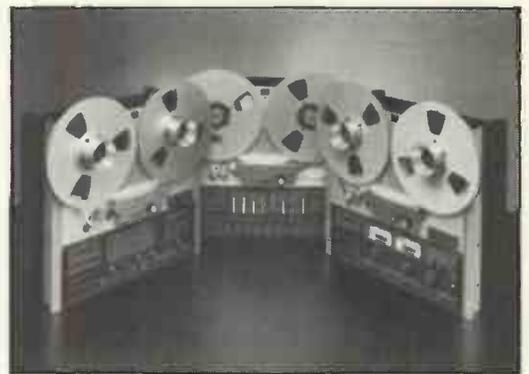
TIME AND FREQUENCY – PART THREE by Anthony H. Smith 49

Place a crystal under stress in a variety of configurations and it becomes an ideal source of precision oscillations.



REGULAR FEATURES

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NEXT MONTH ...

★ IN PARTICULAR ROBERT PENFOLD TELLS YOU HOW TO BUILD A PRECISION CAMERA SHUTTER TIMER ★ AND MICHAEL STRASSEN STEERS A COURSE THROUGH THE AUTOGUIDE SYSTEM ★ AND OF COURSE THERE'LL BE NO SPACE UNFILLED – WE'LL BRING YOU LOTS MORE TIMELY INTEREST WITH OUR REGULAR SERIES OF TOP FEATURES ★

SO START THE COUNTDOWN FOR OUR MARCH 1989 ISSUE ON SALE FROM FRIDAY FEBRUARY 3RD



WHAT'S NEW



We have recently received the following literature:

OK's new electronic production catalogue has 150 pages in full colour format covering pcb assembly equipment, including smd, soldering, desoldering, tools, static control etc. **OK Industries UK Ltd**, Barton Farm Industrial Estate, Chickenhall Lane, Eastleigh, Hants, SO5 5RR. 0703 619841.

The Modern Book Company's computer catalogue contains listings of hundreds of books on computers, computer technology, software languages, artificial intelligence and allied subjects. It is claimed to be the most extensive and up to date list of books on computing available. **The Modern Book Co**, 19-21 Praed Street, London, W2 1NP. 01-402 9176.

Brian Price has 30 years experience of importing Bohm musical instrument diy kits. He has sent a comprehensive colour catalogue of the Bohm range which includes a very large selection of keyboard instruments, drum synths, amps, cassettes, tools, and music-related microprocessor technology. **Brian Price Bohm Organ Studios**, 389 Aspley Lane, Nottingham, NG8 5RR. 0602 296311.

Heinemann Newnes' 1989 complete catalogue of technical books is a good source of information about practically every aspect of technology. **Heinemann Professional Publishing**, Halley Court, Jordan Hill, Oxford, OX2 8EJ. 0865 311366.

STC's full colour 6-page brochure on the Kemet range of surface mounting capacitors will mainly be of interest to PE's professional readers. The Capacitor Group, **STC Electronic Services**, Edinburgh Way, Harlow, Essex, CM20 2DF. 0279 626777.

Flight Electronics 7th Edition 1988-9 colourful catalogue has a wealth of information for those seeking an excellent variety of microprocessor training systems, pc control cards, breadboards and test instruments. **Flight Electronics Ltd**, Flight House, Ascupart Street, Southampton, SO1 1LU. 0703 227721.

Antex are renowned for the excellence of their soldering irons and related equipment. Their new 12 page colour brochure is entitled **Precision Soldering**. In addition to detailing products, the brochure includes a section on how to choose the right soldering iron. Several new products are introduced, including the option of having burn-proof cable on any of their equipment (seems an excellent idea to your Ed whose cables tend to become inartistically pock marked on crowded work benches - about time other tools become burn-resistant too!). **Antex (Electronics) Ltd**, Mayflower House, Plymouth, Devon. 0752 667377.

Mega Electronics are manufacturers and suppliers of equipment, tools and materials for practically all your pcb requirements, including design, processing and production. Their latest colour catalogue will be of interest to anyone involved in any aspect relating to pcbs. It also includes front panel and label production materials. **Mega Electronics Ltd**, The Grip Industrial Estate, Linton, Cambridge, CB11 6NR. 0223 893900.



C And Hear Hear

There are two new additions to the Revox "C" range of professional and industrial tape recorders.

The C274 and C278 are new four and eight channel recorders, the latter on 1/2" tape. In common with the C270 recorder, these new additions are loaded with features that are not available even as options on comparable machines from other manufacturers.

Available as standard:

- Dolby HX-PRO headroom extension
- Seamless gapless punch in punch out
- Integral scrape-flutter idler in head assembly
- Constant tension on both spooling motors
- One hand cueing under full servo control
- Front access to all audio electronics
- Plug in record and replay equalisers for easy speed pair change
- 3 peak led indicators, +6, +9, +12dB

- Adjustable mute to play 50 to 990 msec
- Built in vari-speed, -33% to +50%
- Selectable library wind and record habit
- Optical end of tape sensor
- Fader start circuitry and RS232 control of all machine functions
- Rack mounts as standard

Both machines are available with two speeds which can be field changed between 3 3/4, 7 1/2 and 15 ips and have a built-in time and date generator and reader with search capability, especially useful for the low speed logging versions available at the end of the year, with a choice of any two of 15/32, 15/16 and 1 7/8 ips.

For more information about Studer Revox Equipment please contact: **FWO BAUCH LIMITED**, 49 Theobald Street, Boreham Wood, Herts, WD6 4RZ. Tel: 01-953 0091.

P.S. I was recently shown round their premises - they have some beautiful equipment, and very helpful people.

Ed



New LCD CTV

Following the tremendously successful launch of the pocket sized PTV01 lcd colour television, (three of which featured as the prices in our Jan 1989 issue competition), Ferguson have introduced the PTV02/A.

Having pioneered the UK market with active matrix lcd technology, as distinct from the inferior, lower

resolution passive matrix, Ferguson is again leading the way with larger 3.2 inch active matrix lcd screen on the PTV02/A. This represents the latest in flat screen lcd technology giving a high resolution, high contrast picture.

One-touch auto tuning buttons enable easy channel selection and there are also volume, brightness, colour and contrast controls. The set includes an audio only switch which allows you to listen without a picture, so extending battery life. With this feature, you could for example, watch Rugby live inside the ground at Twickenham whilst using the earphone socket to listen to the tv commentary, and then, at the flick of a switch, turn the tv screen on to watch an exciting replay. **CONTACT**; Anne Waterman, Ferguson Ltd, Great Cambridge Road, Enfield, Middx, EN1 1UL. Tel: 01-363 5353.



Sir Clive's Flat Out

Sir Clive Sinclair is again at the forefront of innovation. His company, Cambridge Computer, has announced that it has entered the satellite broadcasting market. Its new receiver uses a technological breakthrough which will enable Cambridge to sell the 'dish' at a price considerably lower than any current offering, while maintaining high performance and top-quality manufacture.

The 'dish' is in fact a flat square which has a streamlined design. It measures just 60cms across, comes with a tuning unit that sits in the home, and will be available in three versions.

Commenting on the new product Sir Clive Sinclair said: "There is currently a lot of debate and

uncertainty about satellite dishes. The entry of Cambridge's satellite receiver onto the market is significant because it offers a reliable, low-cost answer."

The basic package at £149.95 includes the receiver and tuning unit. For £179.95 Cambridge also supplies a remote control unit for armchair channel changing (It's this dish that's our prize in this month's competition). The top of the range model, which costs only £229.95, includes stereo reception, graphic equalizer, channel selector, remote control and stereo sound output.

The outer casing of the Cambridge receiver is made of highly durable weather-proof plastic. A major benefit of the flat design is that it will not collect snow which can build up and prevent a conventional bowl-shaped system from working.

The receiver is an entirely British design manufactured in the UK, and marketed by Cambridge Computer, whose current product range includes the successful Z88 lightweight portable computer. **CONTACT:** Helen Darbishire, Countrywide Communications (London) Ltd, Bowater House East, 68 Knightsbridge, London SW1X 7LH. Tel: 01-225 0311



Eight Metre Dishes

Two eight metre diameter aerial dishes are now in position for the Independent Broadcasting Authority's (IBA's) satellite up-link, located at Chilworth, Southampton. At the time of going to press, acceptance tests were imminently due to start.

This is an important step in the provision of high power direct-to-home television via satellite, which will start this year. British Satellite Broadcasting hold the franchise to supply three television channels.

Patio Astra Dish

Satellite supplies, the London based home satellite television distributors have moved into manufacturing.

After three years of building up a solid customer base throughout Europe, in the embryo satellite

television market, they are ideally placed to exploit the explosion in the market following the Astra launch.

Their first product is a 60cm Astra compatible antenna. Having been fully tested on the signals from the French satellite, the company are confident that the antenna will be ideal for use throughout mainland Britain.

In its basic form a universal patio or wall fixing bracket is supplied, but can also be supplied with customised mounts.

CONTACT: Dan Hornby, Satellite Supplies Ltd, 234 High Street, London NW10. Tel: 01 961 1346.

PER ARIANE AD ASTRA



This is the Ariane rocket used to launch the Astra Satellite. Photo kindly supplied by Simon Vermeer of the European Space Agency.



COUNTDOWN

If you are organising any event to do with electronics, big or small, drop us a line - we shall be glad to include it here.

Please note: Some events listed here may be trade or restricted category only. Also, we cannot guarantee information accuracy, so check details with the organisers before setting out.

Jan. 25-26. Instrumentation Southampton. Fleming Park, Eastleigh. 0822 614671.

Feb. 7-9. Smartex - Surface Mounting Technology Exhibition. Wembley Exhibition Hall. 01-302 8585.

Feb. 22-23. Instrumentation Harrogate. Harrogate Exhibition Centre. 0822 614671.

Mar. 21-22. Instrumentation Bristol. Crest Hotel, Filton, Bristol. 0822 614671.

Apr. 5-6. Laboratory Science and Technology Show, Kelsey Kerridge, Cambridge. 0799 26699.

Apr. 25-27. British Electronics Week. Olympia. 0799 26699.

May 8-10. Eurobus 89 - German Conference. Munich Sheraton Hotel, Munich. 01-940 4625.

Jun. 5-9. Lasers, Optoelectronics, Microwaves. 9th International Trade Fair and Congress. Munich Fair Centre. 01-948 5166.

Jun. 14-15. Instrumentation Scotland. The Forum, Livingstone. 0822 614671.

Jul. 10-13. EWEC '89. European wind energy conference and exhibition. Scottish Conference and Exhibition Centre, Glasgow. No reference tel. known.

Sep. 4-6. Eurobus 89 - UK Conference. Novotel Hotel, London. 01-940 4625.

Oct. 16-20. Systems, Computers and Communications. 11th International Trade Fair and Congress. Munich Trade Fair Centre. 01-948 5166.

Oct. 24-26. Sensors and Systems - International Transducer Exhibition and Conference. Wembley Conference Centre. 0822 614671.

Nov. 7-11. Productronica. 8th International Trade Fair for Electronics Production. Munich Trade Fair Centre. 01-948 5166.

BTEC CONTINUING EDUCATION CERTIFICATE COURSES. Starting dates Jan 11 and Apr 26 - each course 2 days per week Wed/Fri for 13 weeks. London Electronics College, 20 Penywern Road, London SW5 9SU. 01-373 8721.

THE 'ALADDINS' CAVE OF ELECTRONIC & COMPUTER EQUIPMENT

COLOUR MONITORS

16" Decca, 80 series budget range, colour monitors, features include: PIL tube attractive teak style case, guaranteed 80 column resolution, only seen on monitors costing 3 times our price, ready to connect to a host of computer or video outputs. Manufacturers fully tested surplus, sold in little or hardly used condition with 90 day full RTB guarantee. 1000's Sold to date.
DECCA 80 RGB - TTL + SYNC input for BBC type interface etc. **DECCA 80 COMP 75 1/2** composite video input with integral audio amp & speaker ideal for use with video recorder or TELEBOX ST or any other audio visual use. **Only £99.00 (E)**

HIGH DEFINITION COLOUR

BRAND NEW CENTRONIC 14" monitors in attractive style moulded case featuring hi res Mitsubishi 0.42 dot pitch tube with 669 x 507 pixels, 26MHz bandwidth, Full 90 day guarantee.
 Order as **1004-A2** for TTL + sync RGB for BBC etc **£159.00 (E)**
1003-N1 for IBM PC etc with CGA equiv **£189.00 (E)**
1005-N2 RGB interface for QL 85 columns. **£169.00 (E)**

20" & 22" AV Specials

Superbly made, UK manufacture, PIL tube, all solid state colour monitors, complete with composite video and sound inputs, attractive teak style case, ideal for a host of applications including Schools, Shops, Disco's, Clubs etc. Supplied in EXCELLENT little used condition with 90 day guarantee.
20" Monitor £165.00 (F) **22" Monitor £185.00 (F)**

MONOCHROME

MOTOROLA M1000-100 5" CRT black & white compact chassis monitor measuring only cm 11.6h, 12w, 22d, ideal for CCTV or computer applications. Accepts standard Composite video or individual H & V syncs. Operates from 12v DC at approx 0.8a. Some units may have minor screen marks, but still in very usable condition. Fully tested with 30 day guarantee & full data **Only £29.00 (C)**
Fully cased as above, with attractive moulded, desk standing swivel and tilt case Dim. cm 12h, 14.5w, 26d. £39.00 (C)
JVC type 751-7 5" ultra compact black & white chassis monitor for 12v 0.7a DC operation Dim cm 11h, 14w, 18d. Simple DIY circuit data included to convert data and separate sync input to composite video input. Ideal portable equipment etc. Supplied with full data. Brand New £65.00 (B)
KGM 324 9" Green Screen, Little used fully cased, mains powered high res monitors with standard composite video input. Fully tested and in excellent condition. £49.00 (E)
20" Black & White monitors by AZTEK, COTRON & NATIONAL All solid state, fully cased monitors, ideal for all types of AV or CCTV applications. Units have standard composite video inputs with integral audio amp and speaker. Sold in good, used condition-fully tested with 90 day guarantee. **Only £85.00 (F)**

FLOPPY DRIVE SCOOP

Drives from Only £39.95

A MASSIVE purchase of standard 5.25" disk drives enables us to offer you prime product at all time super low prices. All units unless stated are removed from often BRAND NEW equipment, fully tested and shipped to you with a full 120 day guarantee. All units offered operate from +5 and +12 volts DC, are of standard size and accept the common standard 34 way interface connector.
TANDON TM100-2A IBM compatible 40 track FH double sided Only £39.95 (B)
TANDON TM101-4 FH 80 track double sided Only £49.95 (B)
JAPANESE Half Height double sided drives by Canon, Tec, Toshiba etc. Specify 40 or 80 track Only £75.00 (B)
TEAC FD55-F 40-80 track double sided Half Height Brand New £115.00 (B)

DISK DRIVE ACCESSORIES

34 Way interface cable and connector single **£5.50, Dual £8.50 (A)**
 15.25" DC power cable **£1.75, Fully cased PSU for 2 x 5.25" Drives £19.50 (A)** Chassis PSU for 2 x 8" drives **£39.95 (B)**

8" DISK DRIVES

SUGART 800/801 single sided refurbished £175.00 (E)
SUGART 851 double sided refurbished £260.00 (E)
MITSUBISHI M2894-63 Double sided switcheable Hard or Soft sector BRAND NEW £275.00 (E)
SPECIAL OFFER Dual 8" drives with 2mb capacity in smart case with integral PSU ONLY £499.00 (F)

COMPUTER SYSTEMS

TATUNG PC2000, Big brother of the famous EINSTEIN, the TPC2000 professional 3 piece system comprises: Quality high res GREEN 12" monitor, Sculptured 92 key keyboard and plinth unit containing the Z80A CPU and all control electronics PLUS 2 integral TEAC 5.25" 80 track double sided disk drives. Many other features include Dual 8" IBM format disk drive support, Serial and parallel outputs, full expansion port, 64k ram and ready to run software. Supplied complete with CPM, WORDSTAR, BASIC and accounts package. **BRAND NEW Full 90 day guarantee. Only £299(E)**
 Original price OVER £1400
EQUINOX (IMS) S100 system capable of running either TURBO or standard CPM. Unit features heavy duty box containing a powerful PSU, 12 slot S100 backplane, & dual 8" double sided disk drives. Two individual Z80 cpu boards with 192k of RAM allow the use of multi user software with upto 4 RS232 serial interfaces. Many other features include battery backed real time clock, all IC's socketed etc. Units in good condition and tested prior despatch, no documentation at present, hence price of only £245.00 (F)
S100 PCB's IMS A465 64K dynamic RAM. £55.00 (B) **IMS A930 FDC controller £85.00 (B)**, **IMS A862 CPU & i/o £65.00 (B)**
 SAE for full list of other S100 boards and accessories.

PRINTERS

Bulk purchase brings you incredible savings on a range of printers to suit all applications. Many other 'one off bargains' can be seen at our South London Shop
HAZELTINE ESPRINT Small desktop 100 cps print speed with both RS232 and CENTRONICS interfaces. Full pin addressable graphics and 6 user selectable type fonts. Up to 9.5" single sheet and tractor paper handling. **Brand New Only £199.00 (E)**
CENTRONICS 150 series. A real workhorse for continuous use with tractor feed paper, either in the office, home or factory, desk standing. 150 cps 4 type fonts and choice of interfaces. Supplied **BRAND NEW** Order as:
150-SN up to 9.5" paper handling £185.00 (E)
150-SW up to 14.5" paper handling £225.00 (E)
150-GR up to 14.5" paper plus full graphics £245.00 (E)
 When ordering please specify RS232 or CENTRONICS interface.

Ultra Fast 240 cps NEWBURY DATA NDR 8840 High Speed Printers Only £449 !!

A special purchase from a now defunct Government Dept enables us to offer you this amazing British Made, quality printer at clearance prices. **SAVING YOU OVER £1500 !!** The **NDR8840** features high speed 240 cps print speed with integral, fully adjustable paper tractor, giving exceptional fast paper handling for multi part forms etc. The unit features 10 selectable type fonts giving up to 226 printable characters on a single line. Many other features include Internal electronic vertical and horizontal tabs, Self test, 9 needle head, Up to 15.5" paper, 15 million character ribbon cartridge life and standard RS232 serial interface. Sold in **SUPERB** tested condition with 90 day guarantee. **Only £449.00 (F)**
EPSON model 512 40 column 3.5" wide paper roll feed, high speed matrix (3 lines per second) printer mechanism for incorporation in point of sale terminals, ticket printers, data loggers etc. Unit features bi directional printhead and Integral roll paper feed mech with tear bar. Requires DC volts and simple parallel external drive logic. Complete with data. RFE and tested. **Only £49.95 (C)**
EPSON model 542 Same spec as above model, but designed to be used as a slip or flatbed printer. Ideal as label, card or ticket printer. Supplied fully cased in attractive, small, desk top metal housing. Complete with data. RFE and tested. **Only £55.00 (D)**
PHILIPS P2000 Heavy duty 25 cps bi directional daisy wheel printer. Fully DIABLO, QUME, WORDSTAR compatible. Many features include full width paper - up to 15" paper, host of available daisy wheels, single sheet paper handling, superb quality print. Supplied complete with user manual & 90 day guarantee plus FREE dust cover & daisy wheel. BRAND NEW Only £225.00 (E)

Most of the items in this Advert, plus a whole range of other electronic components and goodies can be seen or purchased at our

** South London Shop **

Located at 215 Whitehorse Lane, London SE25. The shop is on the main 68 bus route and only a few miles from the main A23 and South Circular roads. Open Monday to Saturday from 9 to 5.30, parking is unlimited and browsers are most welcome. Shop callers also save the cost of carriage.

MODEMS

Modems to suit all applications and budgets. Please contact our technical sales staff if you require more information or assistance.

SPECIAL PURCHASE V22 1200 baud MODEMS ONLY £149 !!

MASTER SYSTEMS type 2/12 microprocessor controlled V22 full duplex 1200 baud. This fully BT approved modem employs all the latest features for error free data comms at the staggering speed of 120 characters per second, saving you 75% of your BT phone bills and data connect time !! Add these facts to our low away price and you have a superb buy !! Ultra slim unit measures only 45 mm high with many integral features such as Auto answer, Full LED status indication, RS232 interface, Remote error diagnostics, SYNC or ASYNC use, SPEECH or DATA switching, integral mains PSU, 2 wire connection to BT line etc. Supplied fully tested, EXCELLENT slightly used condition with data and full 120 day guarantee.

LIMITED QUANTITY Only £149 (D)

CONCORD V22 1200 baud as new £330.00 (E)
CONCORD V22 1200-2400 BIS £399.00 (E)
RIMON Ex BT Modem 27 V22 1200 £225.00 (E)
DATel 4800 / RACAL MPS 4800 EX BT modem for 4800 baud sync use. £295.00 (E)
DATel 2412 2780/3780 4 wire modem unit EX BT fully tested. £199.00 (E)
MODEM 20-1 75-1200 BAUD for use with PRESTEL etc EX BT fully tested. £49.00 (E)
TRANSDATA 307A 300 baud acoustic coupler with RS232 I/O Brand New £49.00 (E)
RS232 DATA CABLES 16 ft long 25w D plug to 25 way D socket. Brand New Only £9.95 (A)
 As above but 2 metres long **£4.99 (A)**
 BT plug & cable for new type socket **£2.95 (A)**

RECHARGEABLE BATTERIES

Maintenance free, sealed longlife LEAD ACID
A300 12v 3 Ah £13.95 (A)
A300 6v 3 Ah £9.95 (A)
A300 6-0-6 v 1.8 Ah RFE £5.99 (A)

NICKEL CADMIUM

Quality 12 v 4 Ah cell pack. Originally made for the TECHNICOLOUR video company, this unit contains 10 high quality GE nicad, D type cells, configured in a smart robust moulded case with DC output connector. Dim cm 19.5 x 4.5 x 12.5. Ideal portable equipment etc. **BRAND NEW £24.95 (B)**
12v 17 Ah Ultra rugged, all weather, virtually indestructible refillable NICAD stack by ALCAD. Unit features 10 x individual type XL1.5 cells in wooden crate. Supplied to the MOD and made to deliver exceptionally high output currents & withstand long periods of storage in discharged state. Dim cm 61 x 14 x 22 Cost over £250 Supplied unused & tested complete with instructions. £95.00 (E)
EX EQUIPMENT NICAD cells by GE Removed from equipment and believed in good, but also 'used' condition. 'F' size 7Ah 6 for £8 (B) Also 'D' size 4Ah 4 for £5 (B)

BRAND NEW 85 Mb Disk Drives ONLY £399

End of line purchase enables this brand new unit to be offered at all time super low price. The NEC D2246 8" 80 Mb disk drive features full CPU control and industry standard SMD interface, Ultra high speed data transfer and access times leave the good old ST506 interface standing. Supplied **BRAND NEW** with full manual. **Only £399.00 (E)**
 Dual drive, plug in 135 Mb subsystem for IBM AT unit in case with PSU etc. **£1499.00 (F)**
 Interface cards for upto 4 drives on IBM AT etc available **Brand new at £395.00**

POWER SUPPLIES

All power supplies operate from 220-240 v AC Many other types from 3v to 10kV in stock. Contact sales office for more details.
PLESSEY PL12/2 Fully enclosed 12v DC 2 amp PSU. Regulated and protected. Dim cm 13.5 x 11 x 11. **New £16.95 (B)**
AC-DC Linear PSU outputs of +5v 5.5a, -5v 0.6a, +24v 5a. Fully regulated and short proof. Dim cm 28 x 12.5 x 7. **New £49.50 (C)**
POWER ONE PHC 24v DC 2 amps Linear PSU fully regulated. **New £19.95 (B)**
BOSHERT 13088 switch mode supply ideal disk drives or complete system. +5v 6a, +12.2.5a, -12.0.5a, -5v 0.5a. Dim cm 5.6 x 21 x 10.8. **New £29.95 (B)**
BOSHERT 13090 same as above spec but outputs of +5v 6a, +24v 1.5a, +12v 0.5a, +15v 1a. D. 11 x 20 x 5.5. **RFE Tested £24.95 (B)**
GREENDALE 19AB06 60 Watt switch mode outputs +5v 6a, +12v 1a, -12v 1a, +15v 1a. D. 11 x 20 x 5.5. **RFE Tested £24.95 (B)**
CONVER AC130-3001 High grade VDE spec compact 130 watt switch mode PSU. Outputs give +5v 15a, -5v 1a, +8-12v 6a. Dim 6.5 x 27 x 12.5 Current list price £190. Our price **New £59.95.00 (C)**
FARNELL G6/40A Compact 5v 40 amp switch mode fully enclosed. **New £140.00 (C)**
FARNELL G24 5S Compact 24v 5 amp switch mode fully enclosed. **New £95.00 (C)**

Special Offer EXPERIMENTORS PSU ONLY £16.95 (C)

Made to the highest spec for BT this unit gives several fully protected DC outputs most suited to the Electronics Hobbyist. +5v 2a, +8-12v 1a, +24v 1a and +5v fully floating at 50Vma. Ideal for school labs etc. Quantity discount available. **Fully tested with data RFE = Removed From Equipment**

The AMAZING TELEBOX Converts your monitor into a QUALITY COLOUR TELEVISION

Brand new high quality, fully cased, 7 channel UHF PAL TV tuner system. Unit simply connects to your TV aerial socket and video monitor turning same into a fabulous colour TV. Don't worry if your monitor doesn't have sound, the TELEBOX even has an integral audio amp for driving a speaker plus an auxiliary output for Headphones or Hi Fi system etc. Many other features: LED Status indicator, Smart moulded case, Mains powered. Built to BS safety specs. Many other uses for TV sound or video etc. Supplied **BRAND NEW** with full 1 year guarantee. Carriage code (B)



TV SOUND & VIDEO TUNER ONLY £29.95

TELEBOX ST for monitors with composite video input **£29.95**
 TELEBOX STL as ST-but fitted with integral speaker **£34.95**
 TELEBOX RGB for use with analogue RGB monitors **£59.95**

Colour when used with colour CRT. RGB version NOT suitable for IBM-CLONE type colour monitors. DATA sheet on request. PAL overseas versions CALL.

COOLING FANS

Keep your hot parts COOL and RELIABLE with our range of BRAND NEW cooling fans.
AC FANS Specify 240 or 110 v
3" Fan dim 80 x 80 x 38 £8.50 (B)
3.5" ETRI slimline 92 x 92 x 25 £9.95 (B)
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Prize Drill

Daniel Dalton, from Hook, near Basingstoke in Hampshire, is one of the five winners in the 14-16 year old age group of the 1988 Schools Design Prize competition, organised by the Design Council and sponsored by British Aerospace plc. Daniel was a pupil at Robert May's School, Odiham, when he designed a computer-controlled precision drilling machine for his school.

Daniel has won a prize of £200 and a certificate, and also £200 for his school. The winners were presented with their prizes by John Butcher MP Under-Secretary of State for Education and Science in a recent ceremony at the Design Centre, London.

Current school workshop technology makes drilling large numbers of printed circuit boards very time-consuming. Daniel decided to design a more efficient machine as part of two of his GCSE courses, CDT Design and Realisation, and CDT Technology, and felt he could achieve this using computer technology.

The drill runs on a BBC Master Computer, with a program written in Basic. Machine code is used where Basic is too slow. Daniel used 12 volt dc motors to power the machine; to avoid a gradual build up of error, the terminals of the motors are earthed when switched off. This enables the machine to be accurate to 1/100 of an inch. The computer provides visual confirmation of the status of the machine to the user. There is no comparable machine available presently at a price schools can easily afford.

For further information contact:
Mr A Dee, CDT Department, Robert May's School, West Street, Odiham, Nr Basingstoke, Hants, RG25 1NA.
Tel: 025 671 2700.

POINTS ARISING

PANNING MIXER (Dec 88)
Fig.4 page 14, C15 should have its positive end on the +15V line – the pcb is correct. Fig.6 page 15, the second IC3 should be marked as IC5.

DUAL BEAM SCOPE (Dec 88)
Fig.20 page 27, C15 should be across the +5V lines – the pcb is correct. Page 29, C91 in the parts list should read as C9.

CHIP COUNT!

This month we highlight some recently received information on transputers:

NEW TDS

INMOS has announced that it has commenced shipments of a new version of its Transputer Development System (TDS), the IMS D700D. The TDS is a fully integrated development tool for the production of systems written in Occam. The major new feature of this improved TDS is the Symbolic Network Debugger which will provide the developer with essential network error detection facilities. This enhanced development system is one of the first components of INMOS' strategy to provide transputer users with a wide choice of software development options supporting single users or teams working in a variety of languages.

The IMS D700D provides a fully integrated development system including the INMOS folding editor. This editor allows text to be organised and displayed efficiently in a hierarchical manner which reflects the structure of the application under development. The IMS D700D can be run on transputer add-in boards for the IBM PC XT or AT or the NEC PC-9081, which allows users to design, edit, compile and debug occam applications to run on transputer networks of any size.

TRANSPUTING NUCLEAR PSU

CGEE-Alstom, a member of the CGE group of France, has developed an industrial control system based on transputers.

The first system, Controbloc P20, is currently being tested prior to installation in a French nuclear power station by July 1989. The company expects to install similar transputer based systems at two other industrial sites in the near future.

According to CGEE-Alstom, the transputer family has been chosen for its raw processing power and intrinsic communication advantages that allow transputers to be directly linked together to form a powerful parallel processing network.

CHEAPER TRANSPUTERS

A further reduction in Transputer family prices has been announced. These movements, like previous reductions, reflect the progressive decline in unit production costs as volume shipments to customers increase. They will also assist INMOS' strategy of increasing penetration of the volume markets of embedded control, PC sub-systems, workstations and communications markets.

In the 32-bit range for example, the IMS T800 20MHz Transputer has had the price reduced by 30%, giving a 1000-off price of £227, and the IMS T414 20 MHz integer processor is now priced at £126 for 1000-off quantities.

The IMS T222 enhanced version of the T212 16-bit Transputer with 4Kbytes of on-chip sram and faster serial links is now in full production in 17 and 20 MHz versions. The 17 MHz version sells for £48 in 1000-off quantities.

INMOS

Founded in 1978, INMOS supplies advanced semiconductor products for performance driven applications in the US, Japan and Europe. In addition to the transputer product family, INMOS manufactures and markets a range of high performance static rams, colour graphics devices (including the industry-standard device used in the IBM PS/2) and digital signal processors.

Contact: INMOS International, 1000 Aztec West, Almondsbury, Bristol, BS12 4SQ. Tel: 0454 616616.



Active Passive Security

Riscomp have an exciting addition to their range of security products. Known as the CPU 9000 the unit contains all the necessary components of an alarm system in a single compact steel case, which will monitor an area of 500 square feet or more.

Protection of a chosen area is achieved merely by sitting the unit in a convenient position and switching on. In the event of an intrusion within the protected area a penetrating 103dB built-in siren will sound. The unit uses the latest in detection technology incorporating a passive infra-red sensor.

The system operates either from 240V ac or 12V dc with provision for the use of a re-chargeable battery being included, together with the possibility of extending the coverage by the use of additional sensors.

The unit is supplied with two keys, comprehensive instructions, and is fully guaranteed for 12 months.
CONTACT: Riscomp Ltd, 51 Poppy Road, Princes Risborough, Bucks, HP17 9DB. Tel: 084 446326.

Phase-Locked Counting

An updated version of the Model 6002D 1.3 GHz frequency counter is now available from Global Specialities.

The inclusion of a unique phase-lock loop means that low frequencies up to 10kHz can be measured to an accuracy within 0.01Hz in a time of one second.

Two frequency modes are featured, and two inputs respectively accept signals from 5Hz to 100MHz, and 80MHz to 1.3GHz. A 10MHz oven crystal oscillator timebase ensures good temperature stability.

Designed and manufactured in the UK, the counter is enhanced by a completely re-styled front panel with increased use of graphics for simplicity of use. The 6002D is ideally suited for applications such as audio, communications, quality control and data processing.
CONTACT: Global Specialities, 2nd Floor, 2-10 St. Johns Street, Bedford, MK42 0DH.

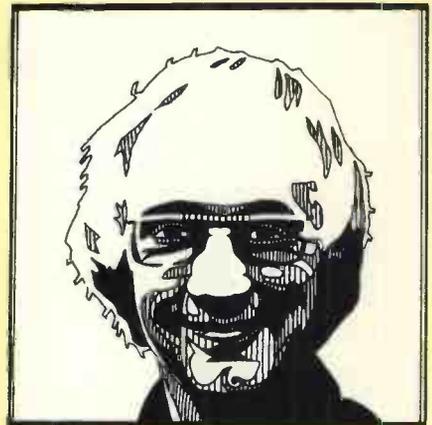
FLAT AERIALS

BY BARRY FOX

Winner of the UK Technology Press Award

ALL MOD CONS, TO VIEW

Once again the satellite broadcasting industry is making promises which some signs say it can't keep



Like the first cuckoo of spring, the promise of a flat aerial for satellite television comes round with the seasons. The latest rash of publicity stems from the announcement, by British Satellite Broadcasting, that it had signed an exclusive deal with a company called Fortel, to sell a "Squarial". The squarial is a 25 centimetre plastic diamond-shaped flat plate aerial for receiving BSB signals when the service launches late in 1989.

BSB unveiled the Squarial at a press conference in London on August 2nd. BSB told the press that the "revolutionary" squarial was "smaller than a conventional dish, easier to install and cheaper" because "a new production process means that they (flat satellite antennae) are now simpler to manufacture, bringing the price down to a level below that for a conventional dish". The aerial, said BSB "had been verified by ERA Consultants who are amongst the foremost antenna experts".

Up against pressing deadlines, most of the journalists present had to run off and write or broadcast stories which enthused over the squarial. So they never had time to find out that what they had seen was in fact a dummy, non-working mock-up.

Wondering why Fortel were not at the press conference, I asked BSB to put me in touch with the company and squarial inventor John Collins. BSB refused. So I pursued ERA Consultants of Leatherhead, who were willing to talk after I reminded them that BSB had put ERA's name on the line as verifiers of the technology. It turned out that although ERA had tested similar types of flat aerial from Fortel, they had not tested the 25 centimetre plastic squarial.

At this point it is worth recapping on how flat aerials work. A conventional dish aerial uses a metal or metalised plastics parabola to focus incoming microwave radiation onto a feed horn and low noise block converter. This amplifies the signal, and down-converts it from db frequencies of around 12GHz to around 1GHz, so that the signal can be routed by conventional coaxial cable to a tv set.

Whereas a dish aerial is a single aerial,

a flat aerial is a combination of many small aerials spread over a flat surface - the more the better. Outputs from all these mini aerials are summed together. Care must be taken to make the path lengths match so that the signals are all in phase and thus add rather than subtract. This is made difficult because the wavelength of the signal is only around 2.5cms.

Because it is impractical to build a frequency converter into each tiny aerial, the signals have to travel at 12GHz across the aerial surface to the summing point. At these frequencies, conventional insulators conduct electricity and lose signal. The military solves the problem by using laminated plastics which are less lossy but cost literally hundreds of pounds per square foot.

The BBC has for years been working on flat aerials, and recently decided to "end direct involvement" because of the high cost of materials needed to make them work anywhere near as efficiently as dish aerials of the same size.

Thanks to ERA, and no thanks to BSB, I finally spoke with inventor John Collins. He told me about his aerial and also why he had not been present at the BSB press conference. Quite simply he had not known that there was going to be one, even though he had been negotiating with BSB through the night and finally signed a deal at 5.30 am that morning.

The clear implication is that if the inventor had known about the mounting pressure of time on BSB, he would have been able to strike a better deal.

John Collins acknowledged that there was no working model yet of the squarial as unveiled by BSB. But he confidently promised demonstrations by Christmas.

The plate, explained Collins, is made from metalised plastics, moulded with resonant cavities. A conductive copper network connects probes in the cavities with a common Inb which Plessey will probably supply. The conductors are mainly suspended in air, to reduce signal loss.

"It is a mechanical achievement built round existing knowledge", says Collins.

"There is nothing new. It's a mechanical approach. We haven't re-invented the wheel".

He is working with GE Plastics of Warrington, subsidiary of GE in the US, on suitable materials for moulding.

"I am confident that we can match the price of a 30cms pressed metal dish", says Collins.

Three weeks later, BSB finally found a tongue to talk. The aerial, they told me, will have 144 separate elements, each with a copper probe. All 144 elements are combined in a copper network which is suspended in air to reduce signal loss through the metalised plastics from which the body of the aerial will be moulded.

It all sounds fine in theory, but engineers are highly dubious about the practice.

"They are promising to sell something which hasn't yet been engineered for production", said one.

Using a suspended strip line will cut down on signal loss, but it raises the question of rigidity. Will the components stay precisely in their intended positions, both during transport and in a high wind on a roof?

And there is a world of difference between producing a few one-off prototypes, and mass producing at cost low enough to let BSB honour its promise of a full satellite receiver system, including tuner, D-MAC chips and de-encryption circuitry, for £250.

Engineers also question the directional characteristics. The smaller an aerial, the wider its beam of reception. Domestic dishes have a beam width of around one degree or two degrees, but a 25cm flat plate will probably pick up signals from around 6 degrees. This is why BSB promises that the squarial will be "far easier to manoeuvre and aim".

This may be good news now, when there are relatively few high power direct broadcasting satellites in orbit, but in the future when there are more satellites operating on the same frequencies within a few degrees of each other, a wide beam

Continued on page 47

PE

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DRIVING TRANSMISSION



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The Queen, in her speech at the opening of Parliament in November said, "A Bill will be brought forward to provide for new systems of route guidance for drivers".

These few words refer to proposed legislation that, if adopted, could have profound significance for vehicle drivers. The route guidance system will comprise a network of data transceiving beacons placed at strategic locations throughout Britain. In essence, they will transmit data to computerised receivers built in to vehicles and give information on the best routes to driver-selected destinations. The system, known as Autoguide, will be run by licensed operators who will be responsible for ensuring that the data is constantly updated to meet changing road and traffic conditions. It is expected that participating drivers will have to pay for access to the coded data, probably by means of a rental or license fee.

A trial scheme is already operating in West London, and it is expected that Autoguide will become commercially available by the early 1990s. Britain is already one of the leading nations in terms of traffic control automation and Autoguide should reinforce our position in this field. We hope to bring a fuller report on the scheme in next month's issue.

At the Munich Electronica 88 exhibition (reviewed on page 28) it was interesting to look for other information on how automation is becoming increasingly vital to the automobile market, both at manufacturing and consumer levels.

Globally, we are growing more aware of environmental considerations so that lower fuel consumption, lower exhaust pollution and improved safety have become significant factors. Electronic control systems are now widely used in road vehicles to achieve these ends. As yet Europe has not fully woken up to these considerations, but exhibitions like Electronica should convince more manufacturers that the technology exists to satisfy increasing public pressure for environmentally safe products - and that it can often be implemented at a reasonable cost.

One interesting fact quoted at the exhibition is that around \$800 of the retail price of a large American car is accounted for by in-built electronics of various sorts. This value is expected to rise to \$1100 by 1991. A further comparison reported that whereas an average American car may have \$44 of chips in it, a Japanese car has \$30 but a European car only has \$17. Though these values are expected to double by 1992 it is possible that US cars may continue to have more electronics due to heavier American legal emphasis on exhaust emissions and fuel consumption, plus the fact that Americans love luxury features such as navigation computers and car phones. Nonetheless, the world car market as whole is expected to become more dependent on electronic control over the next decade, quadrupling its current value to \$60 billion by the end of the century. By then most new cars will be expected to have digital dashboard instrumentation, projected data displays, computer controlled gear changing, intelligent suspension systems, anti-slip and anti-collision systems and numerous other electronic controls via wires or fibre optics.

It's an exciting road ahead.

THE EDITOR

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40	220p	190p	340p
50	235p	200p	390p

D CONNECTORS

No of Ways				
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Solder	60	85	125	170
IDC	175	275	325	-
FEMALE:				
St Pin	100	140	210	380
Ang Pins	160	210	275	440
Solder	90	130	195	290
IDC	195	325	375	-
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2 x 10-way	150p		
2 x 12 way (VIC 20)	150p		350p
2 x 18 way	150p		140p
2 x 23 way (ZX81)	175p		220p
2 x 25 way	225p		220p
2 x 28 way (Spectrum)	200p		
2 x 36 way	250p		
1 x 43 way	260p		
2 x 22 way	190p		
2 x 43-way	395p		
1 x 77 way	400p		500p
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DIN 41612	Plug	Skt
2 x 32 way St Pin	230p	275p
2 x 32 way Ang Pin	275p	325p
3 x 32 way St Pin	260p	300p
3 x 32 way Ang Pin	375p	400p
IDC Skt A + B	400p	
IDC Skt A + C	400p	

For 2 x 32 way please specify spacing (A + B, A + C).

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18 pin	60p	-	20 pin	75p	-
24 pin	100p	150p	24 pin	100p	150p
28 pin	160p	200p	40 pin	200p	225p

ATTENTION

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7400 0.30	74279 0.90	74LS273 1.25	4076 0.65
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74217 1.10	74452 1.00	74LS280 0.90	4249 0.25
74218 1.10	74453 1.00	74LS280 0.90	4

SIDEREAL CLOCK

BY JOHN BECKER

TEMPUS NEED NOT FUGIT WITH A MEAN SUN

The stars and planets go wandering across the celestial night. Do you know when to find them and keep them in your sight? With this sidereal clock on space-watch you'll time their orbits right!

Lately, in the letters pages of PE there has been correspondence about the role of electronics in astronomy. There have also been two main feature articles by professional astronomers who described the roles played by charge coupled devices (Aug. 88), and infra-red detecting arrays (Sep. 88).

The expense of the devices discussed in those two articles is too great for amateur astronomers to consider constructing their own electronic star image enhancers, but there are a few other areas in which the amateur can readily and cheaply assemble electronic aids. One such is a sidereal clock.

SIDEREAL TIME

For the benefit of those who have only a limited knowledge of astronomy, let us first look at what a sidereal clock is, and why it is needed.

Greenwich Mean Time (or GMT), and therefore the local civil time at any place is governed by the motion of the Sun. Roughly speaking, one solar day is the time between two successive passages of the Sun across the north-south line (the meridian) from any place; this usually occurs at around local noon. In fact the real Sun is not a very good timekeeper, because the Earth is tilted on its axis, and its path around the Sun is not perfectly circular. So, there is usually a difference between 'Sun' time and Greenwich Mean Time. For convenience, the real Sun is replaced by a fictitious mean Sun, which travels around the sky at a uniform rate, adjusted so that the real Sun and the mean Sun take exactly the same time to complete one circuit. Normal clocks show mean solar time.

Astronomers are generally not interested in the motion of the Sun, but in the other, more distant, stars visible in the night sky. They need to use a clock whose rate is such that any star will have returned to exactly the same position in the sky after exactly 24 hours have passed according to this clock. Such a clock is known as a sidereal clock, and its time, which is controlled by the apparent motion of the stars, is called sidereal time. Mean solar time is not the same as sidereal time, because during each solar day the Earth moves nearly 1/360 (about one degree) of its orbit around the Sun. So, the Sun progressively moves



against the background stars as seen from the Earth; or vice versa, the stars appear to move with respect to the Sun. The sidereal day, consisting of 24 sidereal hours is the time taken for the Earth to spin once on its axis relative to the stars.

There are 365.2564 mean solar days in a sidereal year, the time taken for the Sun to return to the same place in the sky against the distant stars. It is this odd 0.2564 days that necessitates adding an extra day to the calendar every four years to 'take up the slack' so it speak. A further day is added when the century year is divisible by 400 (eg 2000 AD) to additionally correct for the minor decimal places. During a sidereal year, the Earth spins about 366 1/4 times around its own axis. This means that each sidereal day is slightly shorter than a mean solar day - 24 hours of sidereal time correspond to only 23h 56m 4.091 of mean solar time. So, an astronomer's sidereal clock must gain 3m 55.909s per day (a gain of almost 10 seconds per hour) amounting to one day per year, on clocks keeping mean solar time. GMT and Greenwich Sidereal Time (or GST) agree at one instant every year, at the autumnal equinox on about September 21st or 22nd. Thereafter,

sidereal time runs faster than mean solar time, and at the spring equinox, the difference between them is 12 hours.

If you go outside on a clear, dark night you will see that the stars (and the planets which wander among them) appear to be fixed to the inside of a huge hollow sphere with you at its centre. Astronomers call this the celestial sphere. As the Earth spins on its axis, so the celestial sphere will appear to move, with stars rising in the east and setting in the west. The position of every star on the celestial sphere is fixed by a system of co-ordinates just like the latitude and longitude we use on the Earth. Celestial latitude is called declination (how far a star is north or south of the celestial equator), and celestial longitude is called right ascension. The equivalent of the Greenwich meridian on the celestial sphere is called the First Point of Aries. The Local Sidereal Time (or LST) at any place is the hour of right ascension which lies on the meridian at that time. So, if you know your local sidereal time, you can tell exactly which stars will be visible in the sky, without even venturing outside your front door!

SIDEREAL TIME FORMULA

Constants: A = 0.065709
C = 1.002743

The factor B varies from year to year, as follows:

1989	B = 17.357573
1990	B = 17.373487
1991	B = 17.389402
1992	B = 17.405316

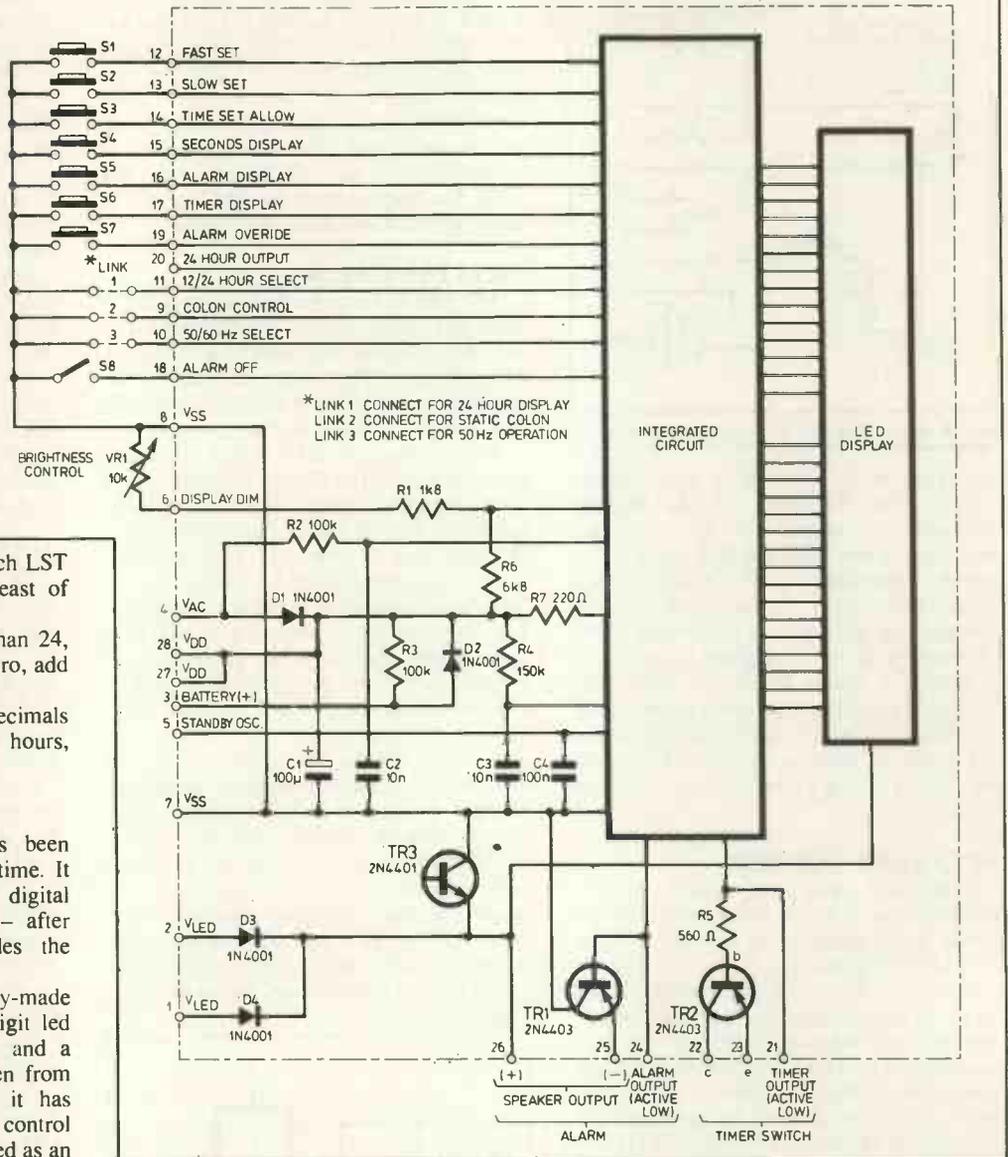
To find the Greenwich Sidereal Time (GST) for any particular Greenwich Mean Time (GMT):

$$GST = (GMT \times C) + (D \times A) - B$$

where D is number of full days passed during the year for the date required, and GMT is given in hours with fractions expressed as a decimal. If GST is greater than 24, then subtract 24. If GST is less than zero, then add 24.

To find your Local Sidereal Time (LST), for any particular Greenwich Sidereal Time (GST), first correct longitude difference in degrees to a difference in time, evaluating L = longitude difference in degrees divided by 15.

Fig.1.
Basic clock module circuit.



For a longitude, west of Greenwich $LST = GST - L$, and for a longitude east of Greenwich, $LST = GST + L$.

Then if derived LST is greater than 24, subtract 24, or if LST is less than zero, add 24.

The value of LST in hours and decimals of hours may then be converted to hours, minutes and seconds.

FACING THE CLOCK

The clock I describe here has been designed to keep track of sidereal time. It may also be used as an ordinary digital clock, though not simultaneously – after switching between the two modes the appropriate time needs to be reset.

The basic clock consists of a ready-made digital clock module with a four-digit readout. It needs a power supply and a 50Hz input clocking signal. As seen from its operational diagram in Fig.1, it has several control inputs and two control outputs. The latter enable it to be used as an alarm, as a timer and as the trigger source for an external timer or control circuit.

There are eight switches associated with the clock module itself, S1-S8, and their use will be described later.

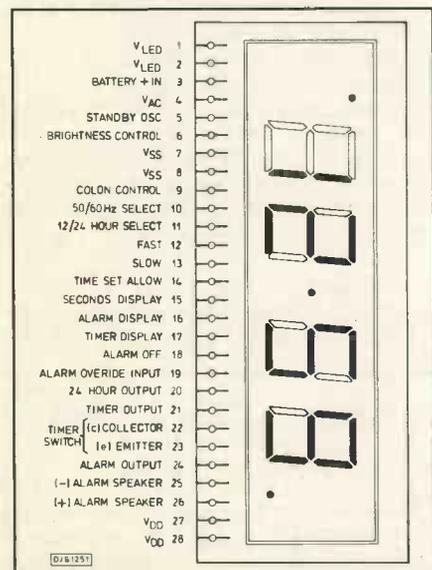


Fig.2. Clock module pinouts

VR1 is used to control the brilliance of the led display, a factor which also governs the total current required by the module. Fig.2 shows the module pinouts.

CONVENTIONAL CLOCK

In its simplest form the module can be used as an ordinary clock powered and supplied with its 50Hz signal direct from the mains supply via a suitable transformer. Fig.3 and Fig.4 show the connections.

The 7.75Vac winding is the source of the 50Hz signal and of the current for driving the module. Referring back to Fig.1, D1 rectifies the ac voltage which is then smoothed by C1. This dc voltage can be tapped at module pins 27 and 28 and used for powering other circuits. The 7.75Vac also goes through R2 and becomes the timing waveform required by the clock. C2 mops up any transients that might appear on the mains power line and undesirably be counted by the clock circuit.

The design of the module allows for the mains frequency to run at either 50Hz or 60Hz. This mode is determined by the status of pin 10. For 50Hz mode, as experienced by the majority of PE readers,

particularly those in Britain, pin 10 is linked to the 0V line. For 60Hz mode, the pin is left unconnected.

The two 3.5Vac transformer secondaries supply the power needed to drive the led display. The voltage is push-pull rectified by D3 and D4, but does not require smoothing.

STANDBY MODE

The module has also been designed with a built-in oscillator which only comes into

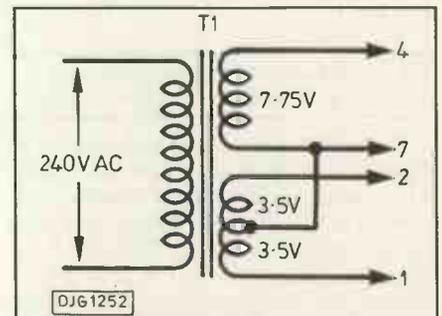


Fig.3. Optional mains supply and control if using clock module as ordinary "Real" time clock.

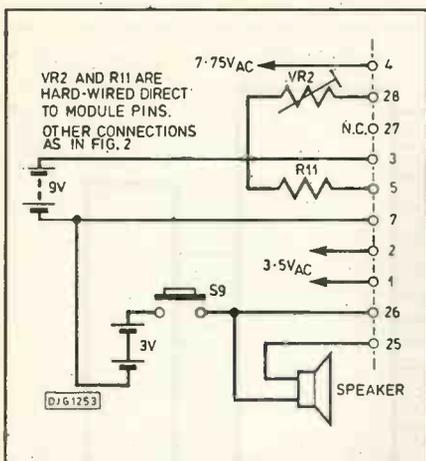


Fig. 4. Wiring for normal mains operation

operation in the event of a mains power failure. The frequency of the standby oscillator is determined by the total resistance across VR2 and R11 in Fig. 4. For standby operation, a 9V battery linked across pins 3 and 7 provides the control voltage, and a 3V battery across pins 7 and 26 supplies the led display voltage via S9.

During a power failure the clock will roughly keep the correct time according to the frequency of the standby oscillator, but the display will not be illuminated. To view the display during a power failure, S9 has to be pressed.

SPEAKER'S CORNER

Note that with the alarm speaker connected as in Fig. 4, the speaker will not sound if the mains is off and can only be heard if S9 is pressed.

For those who, like the author, cannot wake on time without an alarm this wiring method as suggested by the module manufacturers is probably unacceptable. An alternative method is shown in Fig. 5. Two extra diodes are needed, D5 from the 3V battery, and D6 from the junction of D3 and D4. Both can supply current to the speaker. When mains is present the higher voltage from D3 and D4 through D6 will inhibit the supply from the 3V battery through D5. Without a mains supply, the speaker will be powered from the battery via D5.

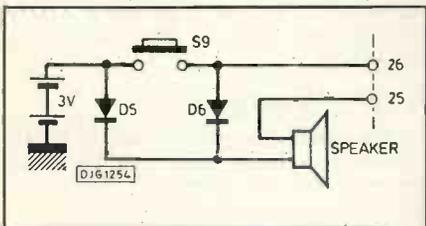


Fig. 5. Alternative wiring for alarm to sound in both mains on and off conditions.

The signal that drives the speaker is an 800Hz pulse-waveform modulated at 2Hz. This signal can be tapped directly from module pin 24, but note that the voltage at this pin will be high when the alarm is not triggered. The speaker may be any between 8 ohms and 16 ohms, or alternatively be replaced by a high impedance audible warning device (awd), so minimising current consumption.

TIME OUT

The timer output from the module's control is available directly at pin 21, or via the interface transistor TR2. This is a pnp transistor with its collector (pin 22) and emitter (pin 23) unconnected. The connections are left to the user, depending on the application. The output at pin 21 is normally high, but will go low once the timer has been started. At the end of the timed period it will revert high again.

CRYSTAL GAZING

The unit so far described is complete in itself and can be used as an ordinary clock for any purpose to which a clock is normally put. The object of this article, though, is to describe a sidereal clock, one that runs faster than is normally acceptable.

Two methods of achieving a fast clock come to mind. The first is to make use of the module's own internal standby oscillator. Fine in theory, bad in practice – the oscillator is unstable. The manufacturer's data sheet quotes a stability of only 20%, and no doubt it is subject to temperature and voltage changes which will help make up this wide tolerance, or should I say intolerance? To be of any practical use, a clock's time keeping should be better than 20%!

A more stable oscillator has to be substituted. Crystal controlled oscillators are the obvious choice and the M706B1 divider chip is designed for use with a 3.2768MHz crystal to produce a precise 50Hz output signal. By substituting the output of this oscillator for the mains frequency we can use the module as an accurate conventional clock in which the power comes, not from the mains, but from a battery.

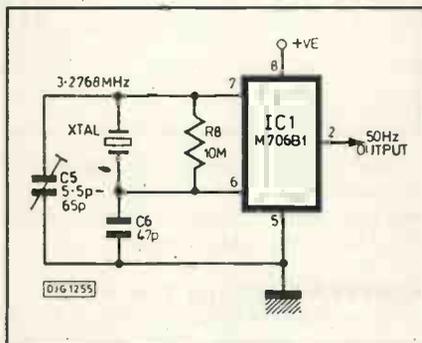


Fig. 6. 50Hz timer circuit

In Fig. 6 the oscillator consists of IC1, the crystal, C5 and C6. The frequency at which the crystal oscillates is very precisely set in manufacture, but even so it has a quoted tolerance, or variation, of 12.5 parts per million across a temperature range of -20° and +70°C. In other words in a million seconds (about 11.5 days), the displayed

time might vary by about 12.5 seconds.

Although a crystal wants to oscillate at its own predetermined frequency, it is possible to slightly vary its rate by changing the capacitance across it. I have been unable to establish from data sheets the variation that can be imposed on a crystal's frequency in this way. It is also too fractional to read on an oscilloscope, but it seems reasonable to suppose that by varying C5 between its 5.5pf and 65pf limits any normal tolerance variation can be corrected to full accuracy.

However, the sidereal clock has to display a count of 24 hours after only 23 hours 56 mins 4.091 seconds. We need a deviation of around 236 seconds – far too wide to achieve with a capacitively modified 3.2768MHz crystal oscillator. The desirable frequency at which the oscillator should run is roughly 3.2858MHz when used with the M706M1 divider chip. I could find no such crystal in my data books.

PULSE ADDING

The solution that appeared most practical was to mimic the leap year principle and add extra pulses at regular intervals so that the clock would show the correctly modified time.

Speeding the clock by 3 mins 56 secs requires an extra 11800 pulses to be added to a clock source basically running at 50Hz. Calculations showed that if I added an extra pulse for every 368 pulses from IC1, and then added a further pulse for every 128 blocks of 368 pulses the result would be near enough the correct answer. Then, within the range of the crystal's correctable frequency variation, the desired accuracy could be finely tuned.

PRACTICAL ADDING

Fig. 7 shows the theoretical block diagram of the pulse adding circuit. In Fig. 8 the basic frequency is taken from IC1 and through the OR gate IC5B. This is primary 50Hz that drives the clock. The 50Hz also goes via S10 to the binary counter IC2, four outputs of which, representing decimal 368, binary 101110000, are ANDed by gate IC3A. At each 368th pulse the output of IC3A goes high, resets IC2 back to zero and a pulse passes through OR gate IC5A to the first of two monostables, IC6A.

The positive-going edge of the pulse triggers IC6A and the output at its pin 7 goes low. After a period set by C8 and R9, the output reverts high, triggering monostable IC6B. Its output at pin 10 steps from low to high, remains so for the time set by C9 and R10, and then returns low. This pulse is also fed through the OR gate IC5B.

The timing sequence can be seen in Fig. 9. IC2 is triggered by a negative-going clock edge, IC3A gates IC2's selected

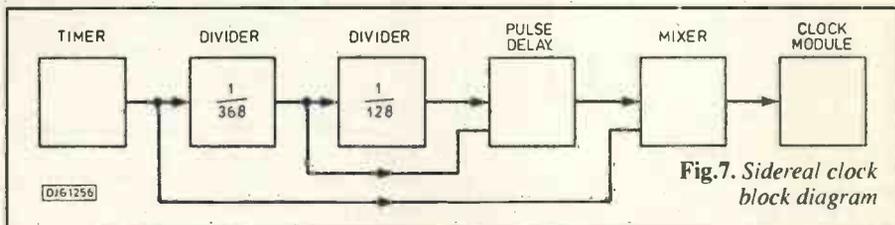


Fig. 7. Sidereal clock block diagram

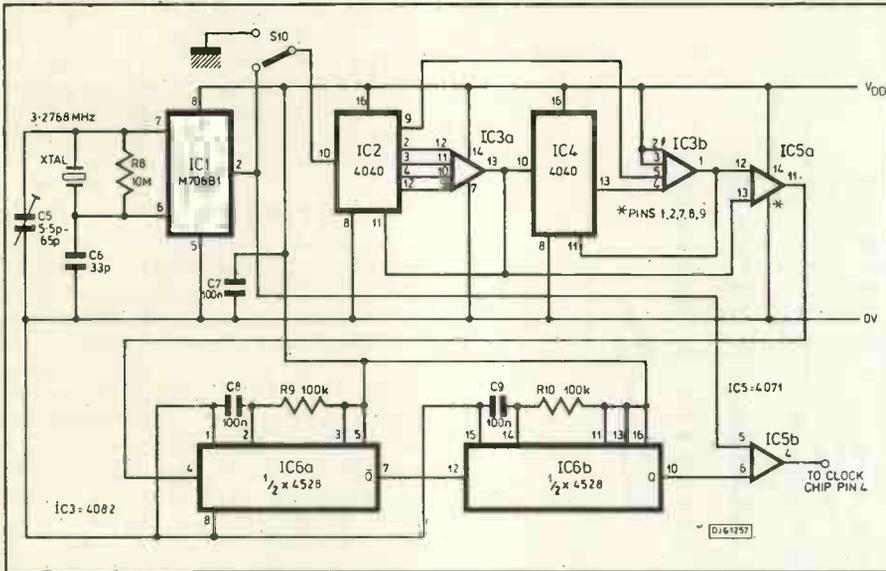


Fig.8. Circuit diagram for the clock generator and pulse adding circuit

outputs, IC6A delays the gated logic change, and IC6B produces a pulse long enough to be recognised by the clock module. The effect is that the extra pulse is slotted in between two clock pulses from IC1.

Additionally, each pulse from IC3B, representing a block of 368 clock pulses, triggers the counter IC4. Its output pin 13 goes high every 128th pulse (binary 10000000) and passes to the AND gate IC3B. If this output were to immediately trigger IC6A via IC5A, then the pulse would coincide with that from the first counter. A delay of one fiftieth of a second is thus introduced by enabling the gate IC3B on the first pulse from IC2 following reset, ie from pin 9, the Q1 output. Inputs 2 and 3 of IC3B are basically unused and so are tied high to Vdd. When IC3B opens, its output resets IC4, and the pulse triggers IC6A. Thus the required extra pulses are repeatedly added to the basic 50Hz.

For use as an ordinary clock, the additional pulses are inhibited by switching the input to IC2 to ground.

BATTERY POWERED

As a sidereal clock, the unit will probably be used away from a mains power supply. Consequently, it has been designed principally as a battery operated unit, but with the option to plug in a battery eliminator (mains adapter) if required.

In Fig.10 the clock pulses are brought to pin 4 of the module. The primary battery power of 9V is brought to pin 3. The 3V battery for the led display is brought via S9 into D3 at pin 2. In this configuration S9 is made a toggle switch so that the display can be left illuminated for brief periods of time, leaving hands free to do other things while watching the clock. To avoid unnecessary depletion of the 3V battery, S9 should only be switched on when really needed.

The speaker or awd is connected direct to the 3V battery so that the alarm can sound even if the display is switched off. The internal oscillator components VR2 and R11 are not required and so are omitted.

EXTERNAL SUPPLY

An external 9V battery, or 9V battery eliminator can be connected via the power input socket. C10 smooths the input voltage which is directed first to the module via D7. Provided the external voltage supply is slightly greater than that from the internal battery the module will take its supply from the external connection. To keep within the module's limits, the external supply must not exceed 12Vdc.

The external supply is additionally fed to the regulator chip IC7. This drops the input to 5V and is taken to D4 via pin 1. The module will accept led display voltages up to 6V, so the 5V at pin 1 is quite

satisfactory. Since the regulated 5V is greater than the 3V battery supply, the leds will be powered from the external source, maximising battery life. S9 will not turn off the display when under external voltage control.

CURRENT AFFAIRS

The module circuit draws about 3.5mA and the timing interface takes a further 1mA. The led display can be current-thirsty - the data sheet states 315mA at full brightness, though on my unit I measured only 180mA max, and a minimum of 60mA. Consequently, the 3V battery will be depleted faster than the 9V one, so the use of an external supply is more desirable for display illumination than for clock control.

OTHER OPTIONS

Three connections not so far mentioned are those marked colon control, 12-24 hour select and 24 hour output, pins 9, 11 and 20 respectively. Pin 9 left unconnected allows the colon between the hours and minutes digits to flash at 1Hz. Linking pin 9 to 0V causes the colon to remain static. With pin 11 taken to 0V the clock counts on a 24 hour display basis, but left unconnected will display only up to 12 hours before recycling from zero. Astronomers always use a 24-hour clock.

When in the 12 hour mode the led in the top left hand corner of the display will light indicating pm time.

The 24 hour output produces a square wave having a 12 hour mark-space ratio - 12 hours on followed by 12 hours off. It could be used to drive other circuitry for counting days, or feeding into calendar logic circuitry.

ASSEMBLY

The layout and function connection points of the ready-built clock module were shown in Fig.2. Fig.11 shows the interface pcb layout, and a control wiring diagram is in Fig.12.

The push button pad for S1-S7 is a 3 x 4 miniature telephone-type of which five buttons remain unused. It could be replaced by a set of individual push switches if preferred, but probably not so cheaply.

The pcb, clock module, keypad, awd, controls and the interface pcb are all mounted on the lid of a plastic box measuring 60 x 110 x 190 mm. The width is just sufficient to permit the display bezel to

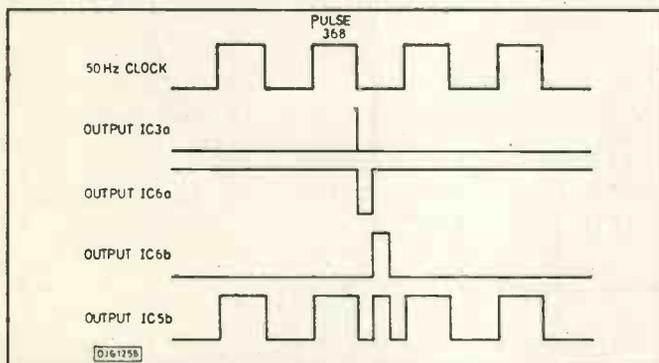
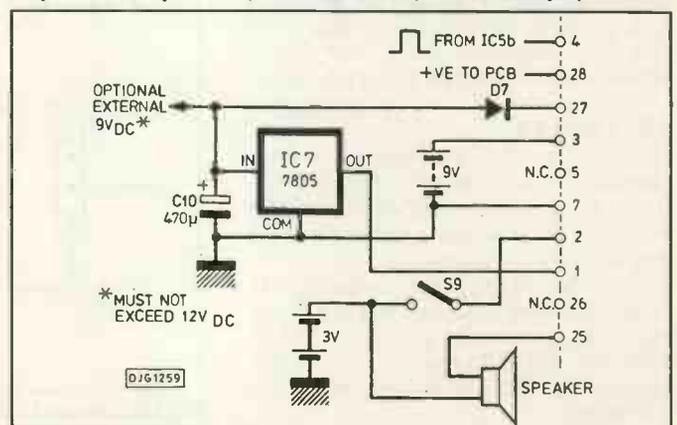


Fig.9. (above) Timing diagram for pulse adding
Fig.10. (right) Connections for battery-only version



SIDEREAL CLOCK

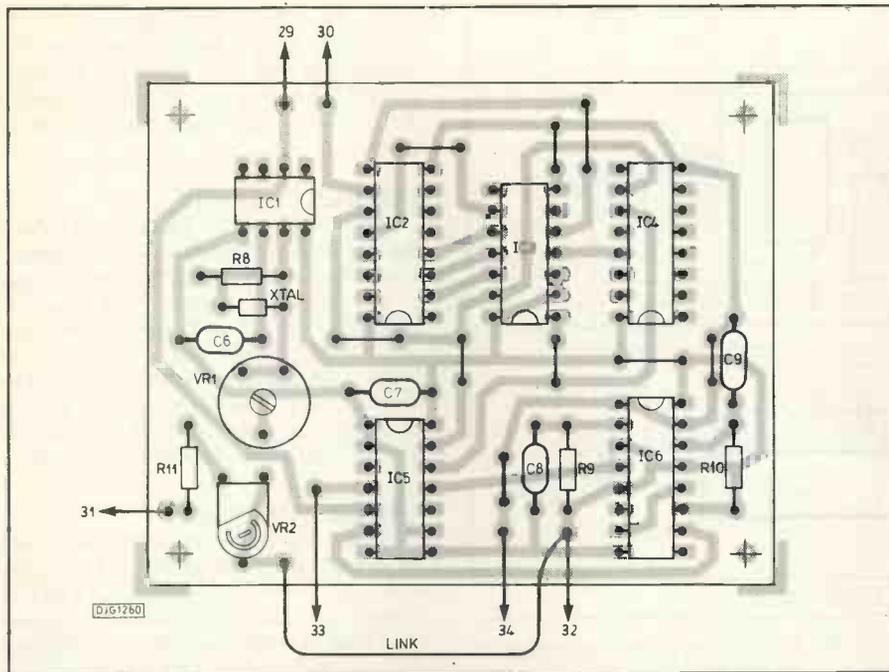


Fig.11. PCB layout for the interface circuit

fit across horizontally. The apertures for the keypad and the display were made by drilling a series of holes around the marked perimeters and then carefully smoothing the edges with a file.

Wires should be connected to the clock module prior to mounting it in the lid. Draw them together into a neat harness, and cut to suitable lengths. Then connect up the keypad, mount it in the lid and connect up the toggle switches, brilliance pot and the awd. The awd I used had a plastic face which I glued to the back of the lid behind a small hole to allow the sound through.

The interface pcb is mounted last. Using sticky-footed mounting pillars it straddles the back of the keypad with the pillars adhering to the back of the lid. Connections can then be made to its designated points.

The external battery input socket was mounted on the side of the box, and the holder for the 3V battery mounted on its inner base. I used two R14S 1.5V type batteries in a four-battery holder, wiring an extra lead to the spring that would normally interconnect two sets of two batteries. For the internal 9V supply a PP7 fits in easily, but there is insufficient space for a PP9. I could not locate a PP7 holder so simply wedged the battery between the 3V holder and the end of the box. The position of S8 and S10 helped to locate the battery centrally across the box with the lid closed.

SETTING-UP

The wipers of the variable trimmer capacitor C5 are visible through its body. Adjust C5 so that they are wide open. This minimises the capacitance and increases the oscillator rate to maximum.

Once the 9V battery is connected the clock will start counting and when the display is powered up it will be seen to flash on and off until S1 is pressed momentarily. The desired time display can now be set.

To establish the accuracy of the oscillator set up first in normal time mode so that any deviation is more readily checkable. Press down the time set allow switch S3 (the star on the keypad) and hold it down while pressing the fast set switch S1 (button 1 on keypad). The minutes will cycle through on the display, with the hours changing as appropriate. When the time is roughly set release S1, but keep S3 pressed, and press S2 (keypad number 2) to finely set the minutes at the slow rate, this also resets the seconds to zero. Pressing S4 causes the seconds to be displayed (for some odd

reason the manufacturers intentionally blank the left hand digit of the minutes display in this mode). Once you've got the hang of it, pressing the relevant switches can be synchronised to the correct time from the telephone or radio. Incidentally, you can only cycle the count upwards.

ALARM PROCEDURE

Setting the alarm follows a similar procedure except that the alarm display (S5, pad 5) needs to be pressed instead of S3. The alarm will sound at the time set and will then remain potentially active for one hour. Briefly pressing the alarm override switch S7 (the hash symbol on the pad) will silence the alarm for eight minutes, after which it will resound. This can be done as many times during the hour allowed as your laziness prefers. At the end of the hour the alarm becomes inactive and you can go back to sleep. If you're really tired switching S8, the alarm off switch, upwards at any time totally stops it disturbing you.

The led in the bottom right of the display illuminates when the alarm is enabled.

TIMER CONTROL

The timer can be displayed by pressing S6 (pad 6). It will normally show 59 minutes. This is the maximum period that can be timed. Pressing S1 or S2 simultaneously will reduce the timer count display. When setting, if it passes zero it will recommence at 59. The timer is activated when the time display switch is pressed, and also when the alarm is triggered. Disabling the alarm resets the timer to 59 minutes. If allowed to count down, the time will otherwise turn off its output at zero. (Via a relay this output could activate the coffee making equipment, for example).

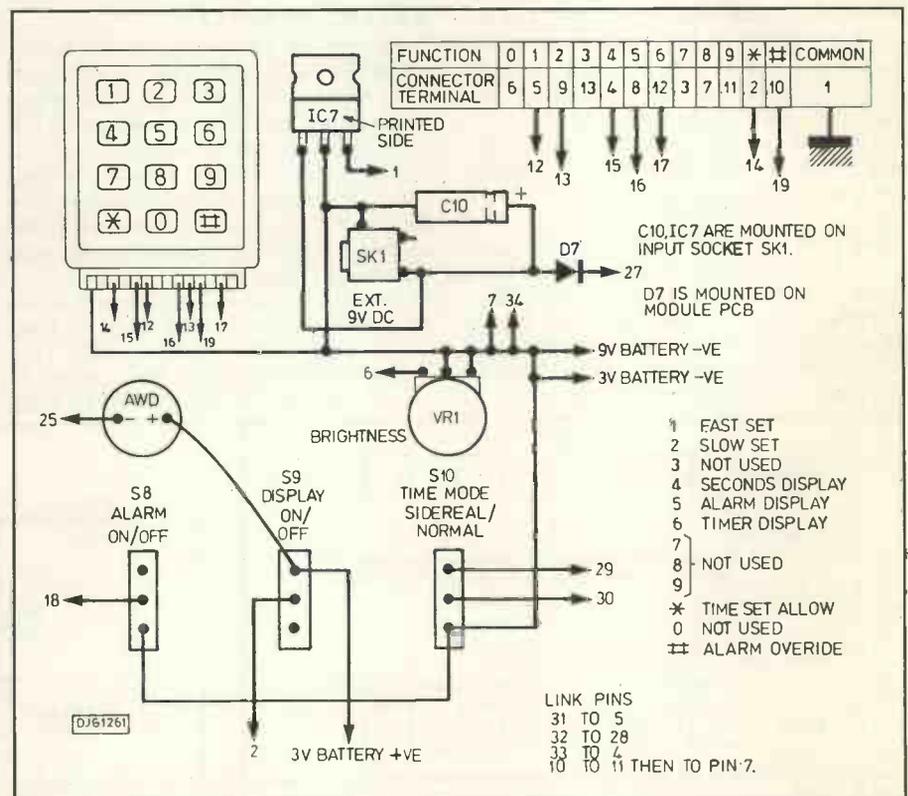


Fig.12. Interwiring details

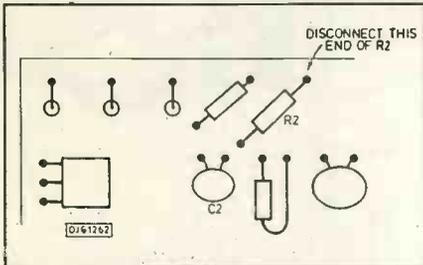


Fig. 13. Position of R2 and C2 on clock module

FINE TUNING

Having accurately set the current time, leave the clock running for a day or two and keep track of the deviation. Then adjust C5 so that the wipers are fully closed, providing maximum capacitance and minimal output rate. Again reset the clock to accurate current time and run for a similar period. From observations of the two extreme deviations, the wiper can then be more accurately set for precise timing keeping.

Once you're satisfied with the clock's basic accuracy then switch over to sidereal mode and set the current sidereal time. This can be established either from the formula given above, or from astronomical charts.

It is just possible that the tolerance of C2 on the module may cause the short extra pulses from the interface to be inadequately registered. If sidereal time appears to be significantly slower than required, remove C2 (Fig. 13) to eliminate its suppressive action.

MAINS POWERED SIDEREAL

Fig. 14 shows how the clock can be connected for mains operation while still using the sidereal interface pcb. In this case the transformer supplies all the power, but the clocking waveform comes from the interface. To remove the influence of the 50Hz mains pulses, R2 must have the end connected to pin 4 extracted from the module - Fig. 13 shows the location. The interface clock is then connected to the

loose end of R2. Take care when desoldering R2 from the module. The awd may be connected as shown in Fig. 14 or as in Fig. 5. Standby oscillator components VR2 and R11 are connected as shown on the pcb layout.

STANDBY OSCILLATOR ADJUSTMENT

If the standby oscillator circuit is used it has to have its rate adjusted by VR2. With batteries in circuit, switch off the mains supply. The display colon should continue flashing as the internal oscillator takes over. Adjust VR2 until the colon flash rate appears to be once per second - counting the flashes over a minute or so should assist in this. Alternatively, use a scope to monitor module pin 5 and adjust VR2 until the observed ramp is set to 20Hz. Yes, I mean 20Hz and not 50Hz - the module's internal circuit responds slightly differently in this mode.

Note that the module's data sheet states that a 4M7 preset should be used as the variable control. Since these are hard to find, make VR2 a 1M preset, and then amend R11 from 4M7 downwards until VR2 can adjust the time within the desired range. I found that a total resistance across R11 and VR2 of 2M was adequate. These components must be hard wired to the module if the interface pcb is not used.

OUTER SPACE

Finally, Figs. 15-17 show how the clock module can be interfaced to the outside world. No pcb layout or constructional details are offered for these auxiliary circuits which can be constructed on Veroboard or similar. Note that the module's output transistors have the following characteristics - $V_{ce0} = V_{ce} = 45V$, $I_c = 100mA$.

May you know your star time as accurately as Captain Kirk, Mr Spock and Dr John Mason. To the latter, of *Astronomy Now* magazine, my thanks for his advice and help on this project. **PE**

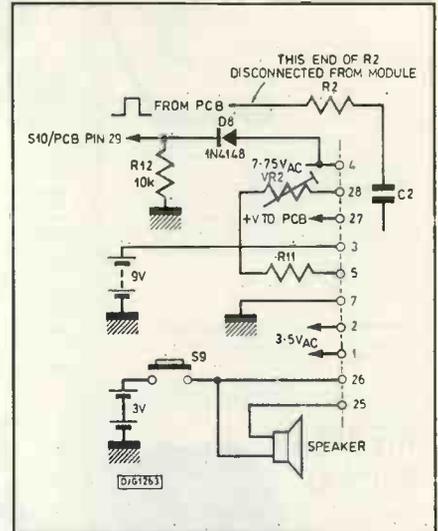


Fig. 14. Wiring for mains operation of sidereal interface and clock module.

COMPONENTS

RESISTORS

- R8 10M
- R9, R10 100k (2 off)
- R11 1M (see text)
- All 1/4 W 5% carbon

CAPACITORS

- C5 5.5p/65p trimmer
- C6 33p polystyrene
- C7-C9 100n polyester (3 off)

SEMICONDUCTORS

- IC1 M706BI
- IC2, IC4 4040 (2 off)
- IC3 4082
- IC5 4071
- IC6 4528

POTENTIOMETER

- VR1 10k log rotary
- VR2 4M7 preset (see text)

SWITCHES

- S1-S7 Min 3x4 keypad (1 off - see text)
- S8-S10 SPDT min toggle (3 off)

MISCELLANEOUS

Clock module type RS 307-402, Phonosonics PCB 295A, 8-pin ic skt, 14-pin ic skt (2 off), 16-pin ic skt (3 off), 3.2768MHz crystal, 8ohm speaker (or awd - see text), knob, box to suit.

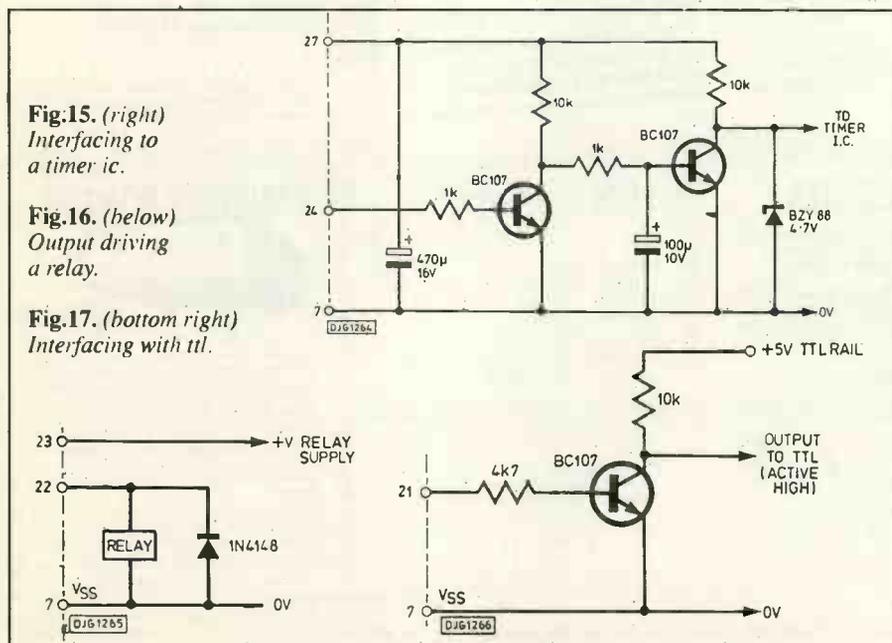


Fig. 15. (right) Interfacing to a timer ic.

Fig. 16. (below) Output driving a relay.

Fig. 17. (bottom right) Interfacing with ttl.



Just for interest - one of the transparent celestial globes in the Munich Science Museum

POWER CONDITIONER

FEATURED IN ETI
JANUARY 1988

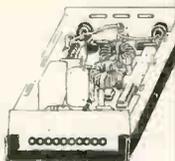
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The massive filter section contains thirteen capacitors and two current balanced inductors, together with a bank of six VDRs. To remove every last trace of impulsive and RF interference. A ten LED logarithmic display gives a second by second indication of the amount of interference removed.

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PARTS SET £28.50 + VAT

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The ultimate in lighting effects for your Lamborghini, Maserati, BMW (or any other car, for that matter). Picture this: eight powerful lights in line along the front and eight along the rear. You flick a switch on the dashboard control box and a point of light moves lazily from left to right leaving a comet's tail behind it. Flip the switch again and the point of light becomes a bar, bouncing backwards and forwards along the row. Press again and try one of the other 'six patterns'. An LED display on the control box lets you see what the main lights are doing.

The Knight Raider can be fitted to any car (it makes an excellent fog light!) or with low powered bulbs it can turn any child's pedal car or bicycle into a spectacular TV-age toy!

The parts set consists of box, PCB and components for control, PCB and components for sequence board, and full instructions

Lamps not included

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L165V Power Amplifier IC, with data and circuits £3.90 - VAT
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Measures Hi-Fi output power up to 100W
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FEATURED IN ETI
AUGUST 1988

There's nothing quite so encouraging as having a quantifiable result to show for your training efforts. If you are not particularly fit, your resting heart rate will be around 80 beats per minute. As your jogging, aerobics or sport strengthens your heart, the rate will drop dramatically - possibly to 60bpm or less. With the S101, you can watch your progress daily by day.

Breathing is important too. How efficiently do you take up oxygen? How quickly do you recover from oxygen debt after strenuous activity? The S101 will let you know.

The approved parts set consists of case 3 printed circuit boards, all components including 17 ICs, quartz crystal 75 transistors, resistors, diodes and capacitors, LCD, switches, plugs, sockets, electrodes and full instructions for construction and use.

PARTS SET £33.80 + VAT

Some parts are available separately. Please send SAE for lists or SAE + £2 for lists, circuits, construction details and training plan (free with parts set).



THE DREAM MACHINE

FEATURED IN ETI
DECEMBER 1987



Adjust the controls to suit your mood and let the gentle, relaxing sound drift over you. At first you might hear soft rain, sea surf, or the wind through distant trees. Almost hypnotic, the sound draws you irresistibly into a peaceful, refreshing sleep.

For many, the thought of waking refreshed and alert from perhaps the first truly restful sleep in years is exciting enough in itself. For more adventurous souls there are strange and mysterious dream experiences waiting. Take lucid dreams, for instance. Imagine being in control of your dreams and able to change them at will to act out your wishes and fantasies. With the Dream Machine it's easy!

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Ben Swastand's best seller GROW RICH WHILE YOU SLEEP is now in stock. £2.95 (NO VAT)

THE MISTRAL AIR IONISER

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READY-BUILT MISTRAL

The Mistral Ioniser (and most of our other projects) can now be supplied built, tested and ready to go. For details, please contact Peter Leah at P.L. Electronics, 8 Woburn Road, Eastville, Bristol BS5 6TT. Tel: 0272 522703. Evenings Only

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Essential for removing grease and flux residues from the Mistral PCB to achieve peak performance. Applicator brush supplied.

ION FAN £9.80 + VAT

An almost silent piezo-electric fan, mains operated, to pump ions away from the emitter and into the room. Increases the effectiveness of any ioniser by five times!

TV BOOSTER

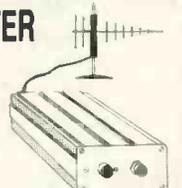
Good TV pictures from poor aerials is what this project is all about. Keith Brindley's Aerial Booster gives a massive 23dB gain to ensure good viewing for campers and caravaners from indoor aerials, or wherever it's properly positioned high-gain antenna is not practical.

Based on the OM335 hybrid amplifier, the booster has specifications to rival the best 'wideband' operation from 10MHz to 1.4 GHz, mid-band gain of up to 26dB and a wide supply range of 9V to 28V (it will run from car batteries for campers, dry batteries for campers, or a mains 'battery eliminator' in the home). No special UHF construction skills are needed - the project could be made by a careful beginner.

There are two parts sets for the project. AA1 contains the printed circuit board, OM335 hybrid amplifier, components and instructions. AA2 is the optional case set - rugged screened box, front and rear panels, waterproofing gaskets, feet, sockets and hardware.

AA1 PARTS SET £12.80 + VAT

AA2 PARTS SET £4.80 + VAT



POWERFUL AIR IONISER

FEATURED IN ETI
JULY 1986

Ions have been described as 'vitamins of the air' by the health magazines, and have been credited with everything from curing hay fever and asthma to improving concentration and putting an end to insomnia. Although some of the claims may be exaggerated, there is no doubt that ionised air is much cleaner and purer, and seems much more invigorating than 'dead air'.

The DIRECT ION ioniser caused a great deal of excitement when it appeared as a constructional project in ETI. At last - an ioniser that was comparable with (better than?) commercial products was reliable, good to build... and fun! Apart from the serious applications, some of the suggested experiments were outrageous!

We can supply a matched set of parts, fully approved by the designer, to build this unique project. The set includes a roller tinned printed circuit board, 66 components, case, mains lead, and even the parts for the tester. According to one customer, the set costs about a third of the price of the individual components. What more can we say?

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Be safe from intruders with our Burglar Buster alarm system! It has all the features you'd expect from a high-tech alarm: entry and exit delay, anti-lamp loop, delay warning and control-box protection.

The parts set includes all four PCBs and all components to go on them. Other parts (case, switches, etc.) are available separately, if you haven't got anything suitable in your spares box. Set contains 4 PCBs, ICs, transistors, relays, capacitors, resistors, diodes, regulator, piezo sounder and full instructions.

BB1 PARTS SET £12.80 + VAT

LEDs

Green rectangular LEDs for bar-graph displays.

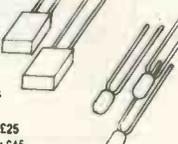
50 for £3.50 500 for £25

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Assorted 3mm LED's: red, green, yellow and orange.

25 of each (100 LED's) for £6.80



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FEATURED IN ETI
AUGUST 1987

The most astonishing project ever to have appeared in an electronics magazine. Similar in principle to a medical EEG machine, this project allows you to hear the characteristic rhythms of your own mind! The alpha, beta and theta forms can be selected for study and the three articles give masses of information on their interpretation and powers.

In conjunction with Dr. Lewis's Alpha Plan, the monitor can be used to overcome shyness, to help you feel confident in stressful situations, and to train yourself to excel at things you're 'no good at'.

Our approved parts set contains case, two PCBs, screening can for bio-amplifier, all components (including three PMI precision amplifiers), leads, brass electrodes and full instructions.

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HDTV - THE GREAT SYSTEMS BATTLE

BY TOM IVALL

405 → 625 → 1125 → ?

High definition television demands a great leap forwards in signal processing at all stages. And the moving forwards of several billion armchairs. . . closer to the screen.

Two parts of the Western world are engaged in a battle over high-definition television (hdtv). The dispute - partly technical and partly economic - is about what television standard should be adopted internationally for hdtv studio production. Many readers will know that a television standard is the set of figures and other data which gives an exact specification of the generated picture and sound - number of scanning lines, field frequency, synchronizing, colour and sound signals, and so on. Inevitably, choosing a particular standard leads to a particular system of hardware and software.

Why do we actually want a single, world-wide production standard? In broadcasting it would simplify and encourage the exchange of hdtv programmes between different countries. It would also encourage programme sales and international programme co-productions. No complex and expensive standards converters would be needed for conversion between different hdtv systems and the possibility of picture quality degradation from this process would be avoided. In non-broadcasting hdtv productions, such as for electronic cinematography and tape programmes for home video players, there would be a similar simplification, encouragement to sales and reduction of equipment costs.

The Americas and Japan favour an hdtv production standard which is already well entrenched. After almost twenty years of engineering development it has become the basis of an excellent working system. Using 1125 lines and 60 fields per second, it was originated by Nippon Hoso Kyokai (NHK), the Japanese broadcasting corporation, and has been adopted by Sony as a standard for manufacturing video, electronic cinematography and broadcasting equipment.

But a group of West European countries finds this standard unacceptable as a candidate for world-wide use. They object to it on two counts. One is the simple fact that a field rate of 60 Hz has been chosen. This is the mains frequency, and existing tv field rate, throughout the Americas and part of Japan. Television in

Europe uses a 50 Hz field rate, similarly based on the local mains frequency. A difference between the picture generation field rate and the local mains frequency can cause problems in studio production equipment.

More important, though, is the second European objection. This arises from a fundamental difference of approach. The NHK/Sony standard is 'revolutionary' because it is completely new and not compatible with existing tv sets - in any part of the world. In other words, hdtv pictures broadcast on this 1125-line standard, while providing high-definition pictures for new hdtv sets, could not also be received and displayed as ordinary pictures on existing sets. A similar problem would occur with video tape players.

What the European countries want is an 'evolutionary' approach to hdtv. For broadcasting purposes this starts from the other end - from the existing environment of millions of tv sets already installed in European homes and working on 625 lines with the PAL or SECAM colour systems. These millions of tv sets are not only a huge public investment in domestic equipment which should be utilised instead of ignored. In a compatible system they would provide an immediate audience for the first hdtv programmes - before new hdtv receivers became generally available - and thus give a commercial incentive to programme companies to produce material for this new medium.

DECISION DEFERRED

The dispute, however, is of much wider concern than the interests of the two groups mentioned above. It affects all countries in the world, because attempts to establish viable standards for broadcast engineering are normally made by international agreement through the CCIR (International Radio Consultative Committee). This permanent organisation, based in Geneva, is an organ of the ITU (International Telecommunication Union) which itself is a specialised agency of the United Nations.

In fact the CCIR is already deeply involved in the hdtv dispute. An impor-

tant meeting held in Dubrovnik in 1986 tried to get an agreement on a world-wide hdtv production standard. But it failed. Only the NHK/Sony 1125-line standard was proposed, and this was supported by the USA, Japan, Canada, Brazil and Chile. The European delegates objected to it for the reasons explained above. So the meeting ended in stalemate and the CCIR decided to defer its decision on an international hdtv standard until the next equivalent meeting - a Plenary Assembly - is held in 1990.

Even before the Dubrovnik meeting there had been discussions between like-minded European broadcasters, equipment makers and government officials on the possibility of establishing an alternative hdtv production standard. The effect of the meeting was to turn these thoughts into action. Immediately afterwards, four European companies with interests in tv broadcasting equipment and receivers got together to formulate a definite proposal for an alternative standard and the development of equipment to demonstrate it. These were Bosch of West Germany, Philips of Holland, Thomson of France and Thorn-EMI of the UK.

To get backing and financial support, the proposal was put to a June 1986 conference of EEC and EFTA ministers concerned with the Eureka scheme that was founded in 1985 for international co-operation on advanced technology. It was accepted by the Eureka ministers and given the project number EU95. A first meeting of the new hdtv consortium was held in October 1986 and included government officials from the principal countries concerned, France, Germany, Netherlands and the UK. Later, Belgium, Italy, Sweden and Switzerland joined as secondary participants.

The extremely urgent research and development effort needed to catch up with the formidable NHK/Sony engineering achievement in their system is coming from eleven European teams in different countries. These are covering fundamentals and psycho-physics, production standards and conversions, studio equipment, transmission, encoding and

decoding, display standards, receivers, home video recorders and players, programme material, bit-rate reduction, and overall co-ordination.

Out of all this has come an alternative proposal for a single, world hdtv production standard, with 1152 lines and 50 Hz field rate. The first practical step has been to demonstrate a Eureka working system - at Brighton in September 1988 - though this used an interim standard of 1250 lines because of the simplicity of converting to existing 625-line pictures (just dividing by two).

Apart from these two heavy-weights in the international contest there are also several other standards and systems claiming the world's attention. For example, in the USA both North American Philips and the David Sarnoff Research Center have developed systems using 1050 lines and 60Hz field rate designed to be compatible with the existing 525-line NTSC system in the USA and elsewhere. (Note that 1050 is a simple multiple of 525.) These systems are aimed at the big American broadcasters like NBC and CBS. Since there are about eight different system proposals in the USA alone it's obvious that there has to be a shake-out some time in the future.

The supporters of the NHK/Sony system and others using 60 Hz field rates point out that field repetition at 60 Hz results in less large-area flicker on the display screen than repetition at 50 Hz. This is perfectly true, because large-area flicker is dependent on screen brightness and field frequency. The supporters of 50 Hz hdtv are proposing to deal with this problem by using an extra sub-system in just the receiver which will double the display field rate to 100 Hz.

Each 50 Hz field is stored in a dram semiconductor memory and read out twice at double the original speed. As a result the line scanning frequency is doubled as well. Already Siemens, in a joint venture with Philips, has developed and put on the market a complete set of chips to provide this extra processing for new designs of conventional tv sets.

In conventional broadcast television the studio production standard has traditionally been the standard which is transmitted and displayed on the receiver screen. But standards converters - changing from 525 lines to 625 lines or vice versa - have already shown that you can produce programmes on one standard and transmit (and display) them on another. Now that digital signal processing has been made easier and cheaper by integrated circuits, it is possible for all three standards - production, transmission and display - to be different from each other.

In hdtv this facility could well come into full play. For example, if a single

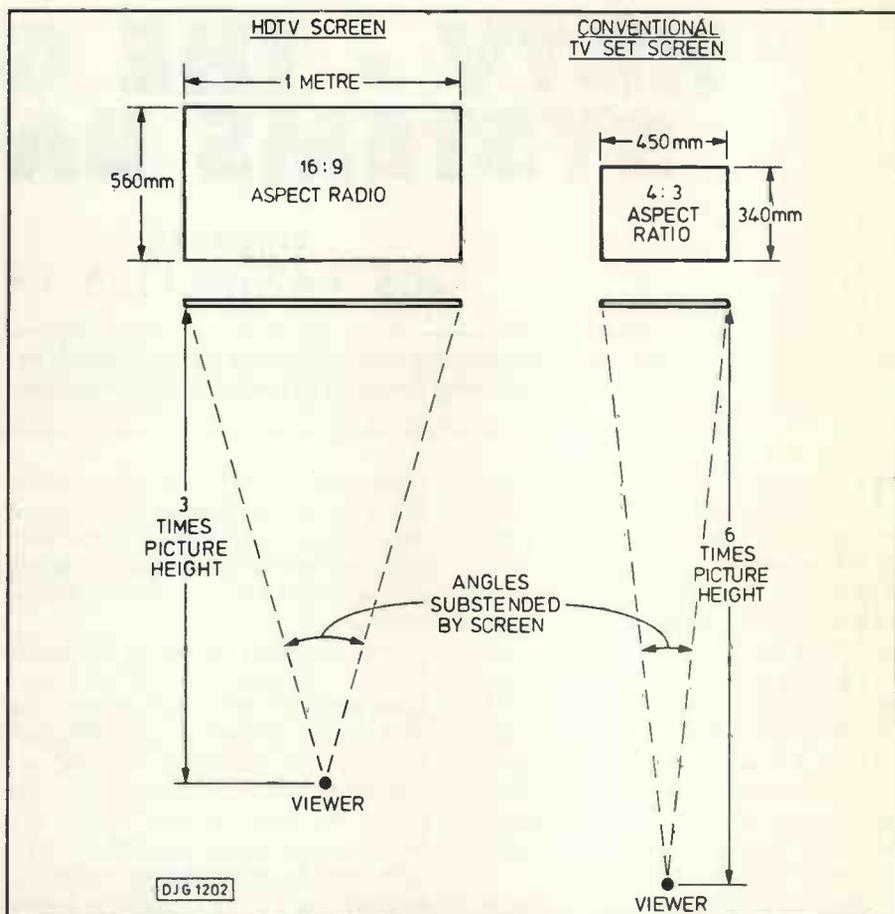


Fig.1. Compared with the conventional tv set, hdtv has a larger and wider screen, which is viewed from a shorter distance. Dimensions shown are purely an example, not standardised.

world-wide production standard is finally agreed on, this could be converted to different regional hdtv transmission standards, as considered desirable by the countries concerned. Then, at the receiver, the display standard could be different again - say for the purpose of reducing large-area flicker as discussed above.

WHAT DOES HDTV MEAN?

In talking about hdtv we should really be calling it *higher-definition* tv in a relative sense. The fact is, improvements in definition have been going on all the time. Looking back over technical history, we see that the earliest experimental tv broadcasts in the UK used 30-(vertical)-line pictures. From there, the number of horizontal lines, and hence the vertical picture information available to the viewer, progressed through 150, 180 to 240 lines in various experimental systems. So when the BBC started up its 405-line tv service in 1936, everyone felt quite justified at that point in describing it as high-definition television.

But this, of course, was not the ultimate. The French jumped right up to 819 lines. Then, eventually, all the world settled down to either 625 or 525 lines. By this time everyone began to realise that the term 'high definition' was getting

rather meaningless because it was all relative. Indeed in the UK there was considerable technical discussion on whether the new 625-line pictures really were better in quality than the 405-line ones.

In one sense the arrival of colour tv (in the USA in 1953) was a very big step forward in definition. It added visual information in a way that was immediately obvious in its sensory-aesthetic appeal and enhancement of the illusion of reality. As colour is now almost universal in tv broadcasting it is an important technical factor in deciding what can be achieved in the next step forward in higher definition.

But of course the term 'definition' is not simply the number of lines used in the scanning system. In general it means the accuracy with which the optical image entering the camera lens is defined on the viewer's screen at home. Another general way of considering it is the effectiveness with which the illusion of reality is created on that screen. Other factors could be the 'transparency' of the system or the pleasure a person gets from the viewing experience.

Such general criteria depend on a number of engineering parameters. (Fig.1.) Perhaps the most difficult one to achieve is the fineness of picture detail conveyed

to the viewer, or optical resolution. A conventional colour tv set provides a resolution of about 110,000 pixels (picture elements) over its total screen area. If this number of pixels were simply spread over a larger screen, of the size envisaged for hdtv, obviously the blown-up picture would have a relatively coarse grain and the 625 lines would be very visible.

So, with a larger screen, first of all we need more pixels simply to fill the screen area at a given fineness of resolution and more lines to reduce the visibility of the line structure. And secondly, if we are aiming at a higher picture quality we will probably need even more pixels and lines to achieve the desired extra resolution.

However, what level of picture detail the tv screen displays and what level of detail the viewer can actually see are two different things. It's all a matter of human visual acuity in distinguishing closely spaced points or lines - the limit being about 1 minute of arc. If the viewer is too far away from the screen, he/she will not see the amount of detail that is actually displayed. If the viewer is too near, the screen will not provide the amount of detail which he/she is capable of seeing at that distance. So obviously any engineering decision on the number of pixels and lines must take into account the distance of the viewer from a given size of screen.

SYSTEM ENGINEERING

But all these considerations must be brought down to exact engineering specifications. The question is, what are they?

First of all, it's not technically feasible to get a noticeably higher definition on existing transmission standards and television sets. The broadcasters already transmit higher quality pictures than the average set can reproduce. If they pushed up the level of broadcast definition the existing sets wouldn't show any difference. If the sets were technically improved to match it, there would be a

marginal increase in perceived picture quality - but at a very high cost. Judging from one or two manufacturers' ventures in the past, the price of the set would have to be doubled or trebled.

Substantially higher definition can only be obtained by using a different production standard, with appropriate transmission and display standards. Fortunately, all broadcasters throughout the world seem to agree that a large improvement in picture quality must be achieved to justify the effort and cost of developing hdtv. The present thinking is that, relative to conventional television, hdtv should have twice the vertical and horizontal resolution - that is, twice the ability to convey picture detail in those directions. The luminance and colour information should be transmitted separately and the colour rendition should be improved.

Also, the pictures should have a wider aspect ratio (the ratio of width to height). Here everyone seems to agree that a 16:9 aspect ratio is desirable. At a given distance from the screen, a wider picture than in conventional (4:3) television sets makes the viewer feel more involved with the programme material, possibly because there has to be more movement of the eyes to take in all the picture content. There seems to be general accord here that a viewing distance of three times the picture height is optimum, as against the typical six times of conventional tv viewing (Fig.1).

Ideally the wider display should have a larger screen area, of about 0.8 square metre. At present large screen areas are being obtained mainly by projection tv equipment. But in the future it's possible that the liquid-crystal flat-panel type of display (see Barry Fox's *Leading Edge* column in the August 1988 issue) could well provide the answer for hdtv.

Finally, most of the experts involved say that hdtv should have multi-channel, high-fidelity sound.

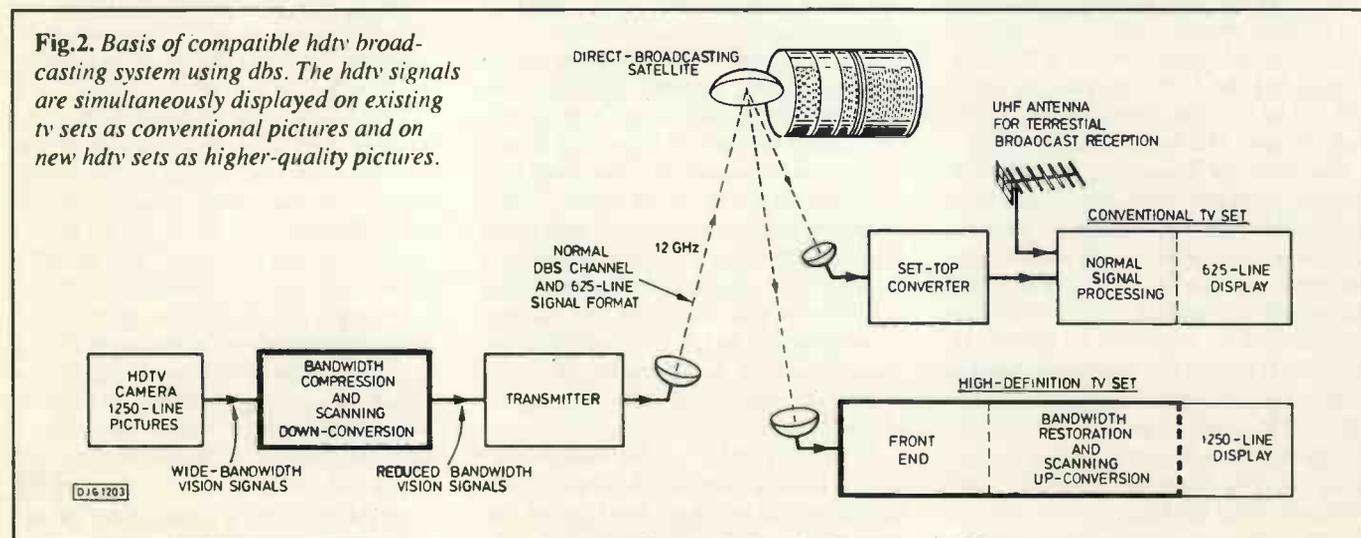
BROADCASTING CHANNELS

For broadcasting - as distinct from making hdtv video programmes - a rather big technical problem is where to find the necessary frequency channels to transmit the signals. At present the only promise of new frequency channels becoming available is through direct broadcasting by satellite (dbs). Here the planned channels are approximately three times as wide (in MHz) as the channels used in terrestrial broadcasting. This extra bandwidth is essential for hdtv because the higher accuracy, or resolutions of the picture requires a higher rate of information transmission.

So, as things stand at present, the coming of broadcast hdtv depends on the coming of dbs. There are satellite broadcasting allocations at 12GHz, 23GHz, 42GHz and 85GHz. The 12 GHz allocation is available for all regions of the world and is planned for transmissions in 24 MHz or 27 MHz wide channels. It will allow basebands of up to 11 MHz wide. The UK's first dbs transmissions in 1989 will be at 12 GHz. So as hdtv production standards require initial vision bandwidths in the region of 30 to 60 MHz (depending on whether the scanning is interlaced or not), a great deal of bandwidth compression will be necessary for transmission in these rf channels.

More attractive is the higher bandwidth available at 22.5 to 23 GHz. This 500 MHz wide frequency allocation, though, is only available for the Americas, Asia and Australasia, not for Europe and Africa. So there would have to be a new international agreement to allow it to be used world-wide. In the 42 and 85 GHz allocations, rain attenuation to signals is a serious problem, and much more development would be needed to make these two bands suitable for hdtv.

Most hopeful is the feasibility of turning the 22.5 - 23 GHz band into a world-wide allocation, and this has recently been considered at an ITU conference in Geneva.



HOW DOES IT WORK?

The essence of the latest experimental hdtv broadcasting systems is digital signal processing. In the complete chain from studio to home only three parts work by traditional analogue electronics: the picture source (eg tv camera); the radio frequency sections of the broadcast transmitter and domestic receiver; and the display device in the home (eg direct-view cathode-ray tube or projection system). The vision and sound signals that pass between these areas are converted into digital form and processed as data in computer-like equipment.

Why is this digital processing necessary? It's largely because of the need for compatibility as discussed above. Fig.2 shows the essentials of a proposed compatible hdtv system working through a dbS channel. The hdtv standard uses 1250 lines, while the existing conventional tv standard, for both dbS and terrestrial transmissions, is 625 lines. Because the conventional tv set must receive its normal signal, this must be transmitted in the normal 625-line signal format and within the normal dbS channel bandwidth. Consequently the vision signal generated by the hdtv camera or other source must be 'squeezed down' to fit these broadcasting requirements.

First, the hdtv camera produces a vision signal of much wider bandwidth than that from a conventional camera - about four times wider. But the existing dbS channel is really only intended for sending standard 625-line pictures (525-line in the Americas). It has an rf bandwidth of 27 MHz (24 MHz in the Americas) but, because frequency modulation is used, will carry a tv baseband signal of substantially less bandwidth - up to about 11 MHz. So the wideband hdtv vision signal has to be compressed into a relatively narrow-band transmission channel. This entails a signal processing technique called bandwidth compression at the transmitting end.

Secondly, the hdtv camera is generating a 1250-line picture while the existing tv sets need a 625-line picture. So at the transmitting end the 1250-line scanning structure has to be down-converted into a 625-line structure. This is called line shuffling.

But both the bandwidth compression and the scanning down-conversion have to be done in such a way that the hdtv set will receive all the necessary signal information to reconstruct a 1250-line, wide-bandwidth hdtv picture from the 625-line transmission in a normal rf bandwidth channel. It must also be done in such a way that the picture received on the existing tv sets is not impaired in any way: this should have the same quality as pictures received from conventional (non-hdtv) television stations.

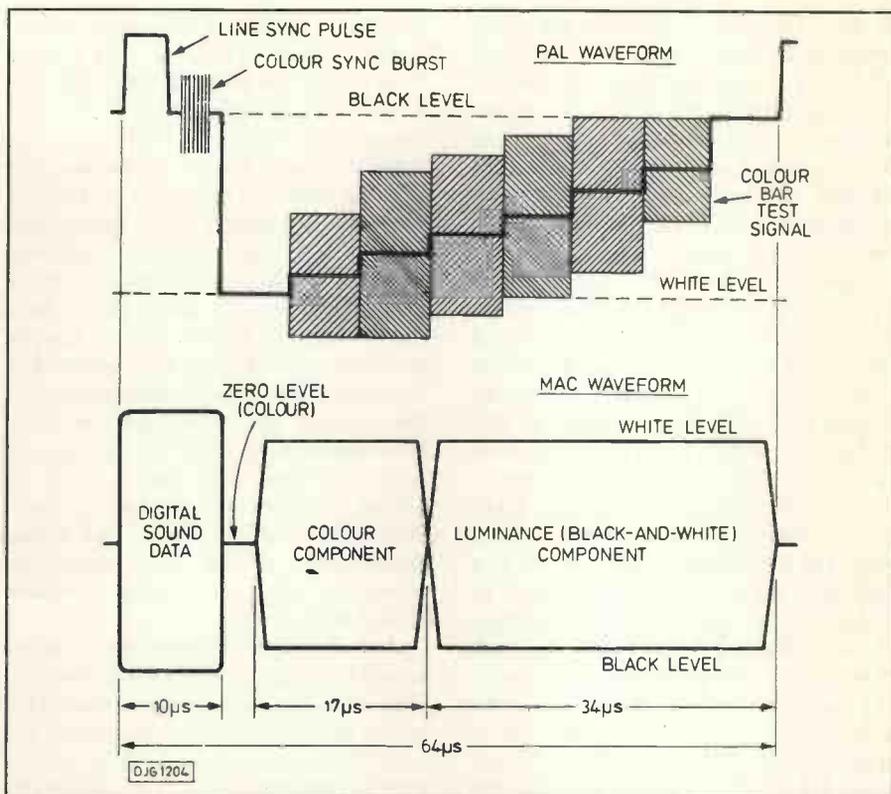


Fig.3 MAC tv signal format, as intended for dbS delivery of hdtv signals in Europe, compared with standard PAL signal format. Each waveform shown is transmitted in a single tv line (625-line system). MAC gives better quality pictures than PAL by transmitting luminance and colour components at different times (sequentially), thus avoiding PAL patterning effects due to simultaneous transmission of colour components on a subcarrier. MAC also transmits high quality digital sound.

In Fig.2 the signal processors needed at the transmitting and receiving ends are shown by heavy-line boxes. To meet all the compatibility requirements mentioned above, the processes required for bandwidth compression and line shuffling have to be extremely complex. Another process not shown in Fig.2 but used in some systems is time compression of vision signals at the transmitter and the reverse time expansion at the receiver. None of these techniques, which often use storage, could be achieved by analogue electronic circuitry, and digital signal processing is the only practical answer.

There is, however, a secondary reason for taking this approach. Digital video recording and digital signal transmission are already beginning to appear in broadcasting studio equipment. The basic reasons are that digital techniques offer greater accuracy and stability, with much better signal-to-noise ratios than analogue methods can provide in vision signal transmission and processing. An international standard has been established for digital encoding and decoding of vision signals in component form (luminance and colour components).

At the same time we see digital techniques coming into the domestic tv set. Several digital sets have been put on the

market. So it makes good sense for hdtv to build on the advantages already proved with digital techniques in studios and receivers and to utilise the hardware already available.

As shown in Fig.2, the conventional 625-line tv set only needs a set-top converter to allow it to work from the 12 GHz satellite broadcasts. This unit converts the 12 GHz signal down to the normal uhf antenna input needed by the tv set. It also changes the dbS transmission signal format (the MAC format - explained later - has been chosen for Europe) into the conventional PAL or SECAM signals as used in terrestrial tv broadcasting. Fig.3 shows the difference between the two formats.

Thus the 625-line set displays the hdtv pictures as if they originated from the existing terrestrial or (soon to come) satellite broadcasting systems. Apart from programme content, the viewer is not aware of any difference. But the high-definition tv set is completely different. It is designed specifically to receive and display the full vision information carried in the hdtv transmissions. It includes a digital processing section (heavy-line box), which performs roughly the reverse functions to those at the transmitting end (heavy-line box).

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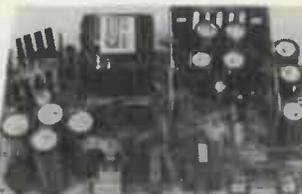
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THE ELECTRONIC RAILWAY

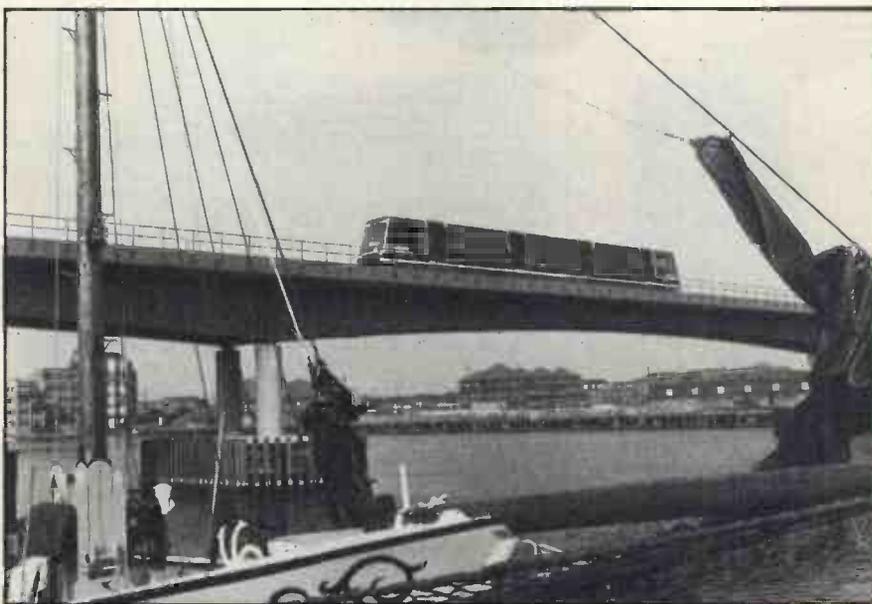
PART TWO BY NEIL HARDING

DIGITAL CUSTOMISING

Not only signalling is becoming automated, so too are the trains, the tickets and the training

Let's now consider the actual signalling control centre. A signalman operates push buttons or switches which, linked to a signalling interlocking, allow the integrity of the system to operate signal routes and hence permit the passage of trains through a signalling section. The link between the switch circuits and the main interlocking has previously been via hundreds of direct wires. However, we can dispose of the direct wires and replace them with just a couple of wires, resulting in worthwhile cost saving. This can be achieved by putting a time division multiplex (tdm) remote control system right up behind the panel and scanning the buttons and switches. The information from the computer is then transmitted to the main or remote interlockings. Additionally, an indication system is sent via the tdm from the interlocking to the control centre's computer on the panel enabling the current state of signals, points and signal routes to be displayed on the main signalling console.

An extension to the above is where the whole signalling console is replaced by visual display units. In many places this is now the means being used to indicate signalling functions. The signalman observes a vdu which is capable of displaying the signalling layout for the whole of the control area, a portion at a time. He can then operate the signalling system by using a keyboard which is linked to the computer as before. Similarly, indications of the signalling system are returned to the panel computer, which then continually updates the indications as the signalling status alters.



London Docklands Light Railway — a driverless automatic train system

TRACKSIDE SIGNALLING

For many years the main form of trackside signal used, throughout the world's railways, has been the coded light signal whereby different coloured lights, or a series of lights, are displayed to train drivers and have specific meanings. In some areas a "speed signalling" system may be employed, where the aspects displayed are interpreted as a specific maximum permitted speed for the signal section. In other areas a "route signalling" system may be employed, which advises the train driver of the signal route status in advance.

The coloured light signal is a proven system of controlling trains, but unfortunately it is not infallible. A driver may forget what aspect was displayed at the signal he has passed or he may even miss the signal completely. The result can be disastrous. Hence the implementation in some areas of an "automatic train control" system. Here, signalling information such as aspect being displayed, gradient of line, speed of line, etc, is encoded into a form which is then transmitted from a trackside transponder to a receiver on the train. The receiver passes this data, along with other information from the train itself, such as speed, braking characteristics, etc, to a processing computer. The train's desired maximum speed is then circulated and on the driver's panel. As long as the driver maintains the train's speed within this limit, then all is well. Should the speed exceed the limit then the automatic train control system will bring the train's speed down to the required limit or, in emergency, stop the train completely.

An extension to this is, of course, to have completely automatic train operation without using drivers or trackside signals. Although extremely expensive to implement on a main line railway, it is

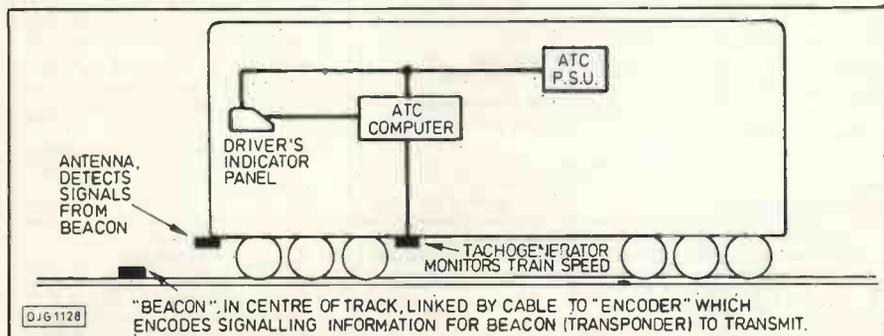
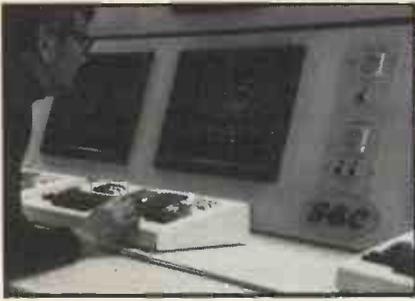


Fig.5 Automatic train control system widely used in Sweden, Finland and parts of Australia, though not in Britain



Automatic train control work station at London Docklands Light Railway Operating Centre

ideal to be used on light railway schemes and, indeed some new light railways are operating in this manner.

SERVICING IMPROVEMENTS

The railway passenger or freight customer may not always be aware of the efforts being made by the railway administration to improve the services offered to him. Indeed, it is generally only when there is what the customer sees as a "negative" change that he actually notices, say when the ticket price or freight tariff is increased. Ironically, there are many changes which do take place which have the effect of preventing such "negative" actions by actually increasing the efficiency behind the scenes of the services offered and thus permitting the standards, which the end-users expect, to be maintained.

There are many such changes which have taken place as a direct result of the introduction of electronic or computer technology into the railway industry and these may create greater efficiencies. On other occasions, new benefits are often given to the customer, such as improved passenger information systems, which are provided only at the expense of the railway administration. Other technologies introduced may be more indirect, such as train driver's aids, etc. Let us look at some of the systems introduced in recent years directly or indirectly benefitting the customer, whether passenger or freight client, through savings in costs for the railway.

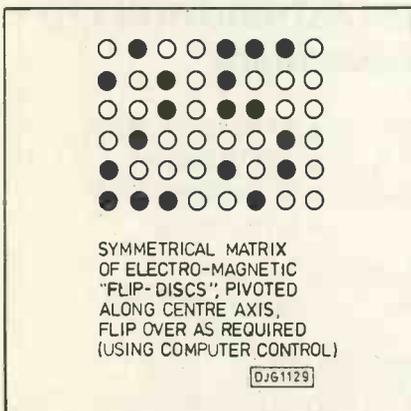


Fig.6 Flip-disc indicator system

NOTICEABLE IMPROVEMENTS

Passenger information systems have undergone quite considerable changes in recent years. At one time any information which the railway authority wished to impart to passengers would be simply written up on a blackboard and/or verbal announcements given by the railway staff on the platform or concourse. Now, generally, the blackboard has gone, to be replaced by computer operated indicators, like the "split-flap" or "Solari" indicator. This has up to 80-way flaps which contain pre-determined legends allowing a multitude of information to be displayed, albeit limited.

Another system in use incorporates two-colour discs, generally black on one side and fluorescent yellow on the other, organised in a matrix in such a way as to allow any required characters to be displayed, simply by "flipping" the necessary discs. This system is more versatile in that a wider range of messages can be displayed. A further development of this idea is the use of leds instead of the flip-discs. Liquid crystal displays are also being introduced.

Both of these systems are operated by computers, with information being entered by the station staff via a keyboard. The lcd systems can usually have certain parts of the displayed messages either highlighted or flashed as required. The systems can also be linked to timetable data and, in conjunction with the train describer system, give passengers a true report of the current train information.

DIGITAL PA SYSTEMS

Public address systems have similarly undergone changes in recent years. Originally all announcements were spontaneous, being made as and when required by the announcer. Following on from this, pre-recorded tape messages were often used. These days the messages are digitally recorded using sophisticated electronic techniques and these are also linked to the timetable and train describer computers, in order to give accurate, automatic announcements at exactly the right time. Moreover, these digitally recorded systems are virtually maintenance free and therefore produce considerable savings for the railway concerned.

CASHLESS TICKETS

Currently, the passenger is able to pay for a ticket by one of several methods. Cash is still accepted, but its future in the "cashless society" is looking very dubious! Credit cards can now be inserted by the passenger into machines similar to "automatic teller machines". Once a personal identification number has been entered, as well as other information such as destination, class, etc, this computerised machine then issues the ticket to the passenger, automatically deduct-



Split flaps and tv display units at London Victoria Station

ing its cost from the passenger's bank or credit card account. Of course, the computer also carries out one or two other checks at the same time, the most obvious one being the interrogation of the card's details, comparing them against a list of stolen or otherwise invalid cards. Thus some degree of integrity is introduced into the computerised system to help prevent fraud.



Automatic ticket issuing machine at London Victoria

Similarly, the booking office in a modern railway system has the use of a computerised machine which, upon entering the details of a passenger's requirements, automatically prints and issues the ticket and advises the cost. All these machines are linked to a central computer and thus updating of information, such as fare tariffs, can be carried out easily and simultaneously for all the stations on the system.

The system has also been extended to allow the use of portable ticket machines



London underground automatic ticket issuing machine

on board trains by conductor/guards. These portable machines store a smaller number of ticket details such as only those required for the particular area in which the train runs, together with details of tickets and fares to major destinations within the overall railway network. At the end of the day's work, these machines are plugged in to the main-frame computer so that the day's revenue, ticket sale details, etc, can be recorded. In addition, the portable devices store details of stolen season tickets so that instant checks can be made to see if fraudulent use of a ticket is being attempted.

RESERVATIONS

Many modern railways now use computerised seat reservation systems. Here the customer obtains a guaranteed seat reservation, subject to availability, to meet his exact requirements for a journey. Items to be selected include type of class, destination, smoking or non-smoking, etc. In addition it is usually possible to book sleeping car reservations on the same system. Previously, only a small number of trains would have been permitted to carry reserved seats, as it was not practical for more than one station to carry the details of a particular train's seating arrangements as double-booking of seats could result. The alternative, of course, would be to allow several stations to have an allocation of seats each for any particular train. This, though, often would result in one station using up its complete allocation while another used up none, with the resultant imbalance being very inefficient, losing much revenue for the railway. However, using the computerised system, each station linked to the computer has the ability to book seats on any train with the knowledge that no double-booking can take place. A greatly extended set of services can thus be offered to the customer.

FREIGHT TRANSPORT

In the freight transportation section of the railways, computers are in use which contain the details of all the freight vehicles used by the railway administration

(including those vehicles which may be temporarily out of service due to repair, maintenance, etc) as well as all the details of freight installations which can possibly be served by them. At each installation, the details of all the vehicles which are at present at that location will be recorded within the computer. When the freight controller is preparing to despatch a train, all the details of the train's consist, load destination, etc, are entered into the system and, when the train actually departs, that information is also entered. The result is that, at any time, an enquiry can be made to the system from any freight depot to determine the exact location of any particular vehicle, whether at a freight installation or on route to one, together with its various details. Similarly a freight yard controller may want to determine the details of all vehicles and loads currently within his jurisdiction or, alternatively, on their way to the yard. Thus, overall, a very accurate picture of the freight scene can be portrayed, with maximum use being made of all the vehicles and freight depots used by the railway administration.

LASER TRACKING

In the civil engineering field, lasers are now being extensively used in a variety of different functions. As well as being used in survey work as the modern day version of the surveyor's theodolite, lasers are now used when constructing bridges or other large structures in order to accurately align connecting sections. Similarly, when carrying out track-laying, the use of lasers permits new track to be laid accurately to exact pre-determined requirements.

TRAINING

As with all training schemes, the training of personnel to drive trains is a very expensive exercise, which returns no income at all to the railway authority. The cost of the in-class teaching portion is perhaps insignificant compared to the much greater costs of actually taking a locomotive on to the running line purely for teaching purposes. Because of this

some railways have now purchased "driver's simulators" and which are similar in principle to the flight simulators used by airlines to train pilots. These railway simulators permit the trainee drivers to be put through a very extensive training programme in such a way that driving techniques can be adapted to allow the optimum performance from the driver. When the driver does eventually take a train onto the running line, it can then be driven in the most efficient manner possible, thus giving maximum savings to the railway authority.

This concludes our brief insight into the fascinating world of the modern-day railway industry. I hope that you are now a little more aware of the technologies which are in use to keep the world's trains running efficiently and safely.

PE

The London Docklands Light Railway photos were kindly supplied by GEC-General Signalling Ltd.

Track Trends

In its 1988 Annual Review, British Rail's Research Division highlights the range of research carried out in the engineering and scientific fields during the last 12 months.

Research projects approaching fruition include installation of integrated electronic control centres (IECCs) at London's Liverpool Street, Newcastle on Tyne and Glasgow, combining solid state interlocking with automated regulation and route setting, together with high resolution visual display units.

An automatic vehicle identification system for 'merry-go-round' coal traffic is planned to be operational by 1991, following the success of a pilot scheme.

Quality of service to customers is set to improve with a computer-based timetable enquiry system now being installed at 24 telephone enquiry bureaux in Network SouthEast, including BR's largest at Waterloo with 53 answering positions.

Many other research projects are highlighted in the Research Review 1988 copies of which may be obtained from the Public Affairs Manager, Research Division, Railway Technical Centre, Derby. Tel: 0332 386695.



ANGLIAN ROLL-OUT

The first of Network SouthEast's brand new Class 321 'Anglia Electric' trains has been rolled out at British Rail Engineering's York manufacturing works in a special ceremony.

A fleet of 46 four-car Anglia Electric trains is on order from BREL under a contract worth more than £62 million. From early 1989 they enter service on Network's busy Liverpool Street to Cambridge and Southend Victoria lines. Delivery is expected to be completed in Summer 1989.

The main features of the new 100mph trains, which will provide more than 14,000 extra seats, are First and Standard Class seating in Network's bright and attractive colours, two toilets, facilities for disabled people, public address equipment and wall murals depicting local scenes and landmarks.

Network SouthEast's Director Chris Green congratulated BREL's York team for achieving the "seemingly impossible task" of completing the first Class 321 some 6 weeks ahead of target.

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ELECTRONICA 88 - MUNICH

BY JOHN BECKER

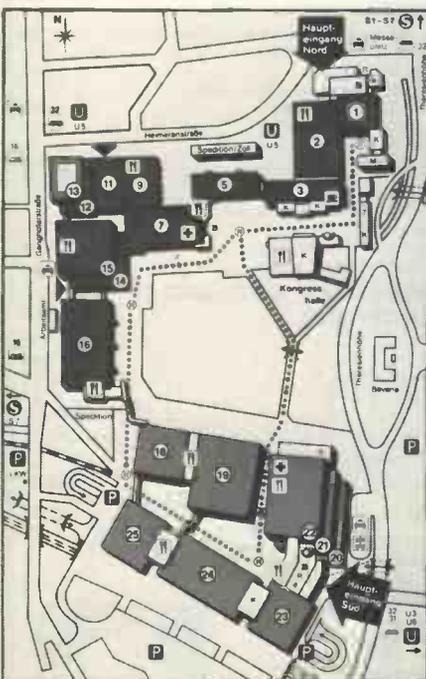
The World's largest trade fair for electronic components and assemblies took place at Munich between the 8th and 12th of November 1988. What an amazing exhibition it was. . .

Manufacturers from both major and minor industrial nations from around the globe were at Electronica 88 in force displaying the latest in electronic high technology.

Irrespective of nationality, all exhibitors had one objective - to make their products better known to potential buyers. An exhibition of this calibre is where major decisions are made that determine the nature of tomorrow's equipment - from industrial control automation and military defense systems to consumer goods. It was a show no-one with a significant interest in electronics could afford to miss, but even for those with no direct use for hi-tech components, the technology on display will ultimately have an impact.

DEPARTURE

Friday the 11th thus saw me at crack of dawn taking the first flight from Gatwick down to Munich. First, though, there was an ironic and unscheduled display of some of the problems yet to be solved by electronic systems - the main computer at Heathrow



Munich Messegelände Exhibition complex

took a break from duty and was out of action for an hour. This affected flights not only at Heathrow, but also at Gatwick, resulting in our flight waiting at the take-off point with engines shut down for over half an hour.

Even so, I was still at the exhibition in reasonable time and made myself known at its Press Office. Though I've previously been to Munich, I've not had the opportunity to visit the Messegelände Exhibition Centre before, but the full extent of it soon became apparent.

FACTS AND FIGURES

The Centre consists of 25 halls set on three sides of a square enclosing an area of semi-parkland. The perimeter around the complex is probably in the region of three to four kilometres.

All the halls were in use for the exhibition and associated conferences and the space available had been fully booked several months before the official deadline. There were approximately 2500 exhibitors from 37 countries.

This level of participation shows that the semiconductor industry in particular is recovering well from the recent slump. Indeed various forecasts predict that, assuming developments on the world economic scene remain stable, there is every reason for optimism. Some forecasters believe that by the turn of the century the international semiconductor market will increase in volume to 160 billion dollars - an increase of five times from that of 1987. European chip manufacturers, although regarded as somewhat conservative in their investments, are likely to see a growth of about 23 per cent annually, achieving a market volume of 11 billion dollars by the much-talked-about date of 1992. Regrettably, though, European manufacturers are unlikely to be in a position to cover European demand for chips, though they are making efforts to reverse the current situation in which around 60 per cent of demand is satisfied by US and Japanese suppliers.

The exhibition confirmed (as if confirmation were necessary!) that no industry, however remote from electronics, can afford to

ignore microelectronics. Increasingly, this applies to the motor industry, mechanical and electrical engineering, precision mechanics and optics, as well as to office automation, data processing and consumer products.

MICROPROCESSORS AND MEMORIES

Those of you who consider controlling a DIY mechanical or electronic device will probably think of using a microprocessor, associated interfaces and data storage chips. The exhibition showed that techniques of this type are likely to be in demand for the foreseeable future and many manufacturers had products related to this multi-chip approach, though as we shall see in a moment, more sophisticated techniques have taken a firm hold.

On the memory scene faster, smaller, greater capacity chips were in abundance. One megabit rams are commonplace (or would be if supply could keep up with demand!) and already 4-megabit rams and eeproms are in the advanced development stages. Some Japanese manufacturers are also working on 16-megabit rams but an enormous investment is required in the development of memory devices that need innumerable uniform structures measuring less than one-thousandth of a millimetre. Remember that increased memory capacity within a single device is usually only beneficial if it can be accessed quickly, and that can only be achieved when the distance the signal has to travel is small. However, European manufacturers, in joint effort under JESSI (Joint European Submicron Silicon) expect to surpass 16-megabit



Interior of one of the halls



International components for all disciplines

capacity by introducing a 64-Mbit dram by the mid 1990s. These will be capable of storing over 4000 typewritten pages (around 8.4 million characters), and will be barely any larger than an average finger nail. Inevitably I wonder how soon these will replace hard disks in many computers.

RISC

RISC processors are rapidly becoming a dominant force. These benefit from a much smaller set of instruction commands, so reducing the overall circuit size, permitting more functions to be included, and increasing the access speed. In simple terms, their instruction sets include only the most commonly used commands - in the region of 20 per cent of those available in more conventional processors. Typically, risc processors can consist of single chips capable of performing over 100,000 functions enabling computers to process up to 17 million instructions per second. In addition to increasing computer speeds, risc chips have many applications ranging from graphics generation and robotic control to language recognition.



ASICS increasingly important

ASICS

Many manufacturers were obviously well aware of the importance of user-programmable logic elements including gate arrays and plds (programmable logic devices) and other devices in the asic family (application specific ics).

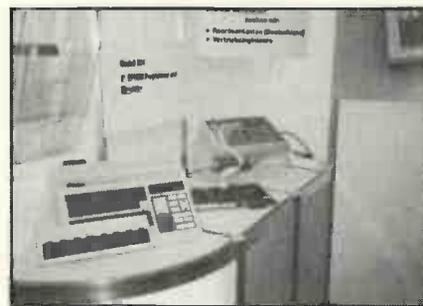
Although asics have been in existence since the mid-sixties they have become increasingly important over the last few years. In a nut-shell, they basically allow chips to be tailored to the desired task. Whereas previously a logic system might be made up of numerous individual off-the-shelf devices, asics can be programmed to perform the same task within a single chip. This technique provides for lower manufacturing costs, reduced power consumption, more compact system size

and increased functionality. The applications for asics are countless though most are currently used in telecommunications, the automobile industry, and, inevitably, in military applications. It is hardly surprising that a very wide range of asic-type devices were in strong evidence.

A few examples of computer aided electronic automation design systems were also on display.



Typical CAD system



Eprom simulators

OTHER PROGRAMMABLES

Improvements to conventional programmable devices continue to be made. New eproms with faster programming speeds and lower programming voltages; eeproms with increased life-cycle expectancy; and new breeds of non-volatile memory devices that retain data without applied power or burn-in programming pulses.

TRANSPUTERS

Surprisingly, though there was some evidence of transputer-orientated systems, I saw less than I had expected. Parallel processing devices of this nature must surely become more commonplace soon - much greater processing speed can be achieved if several computations can be carried out simultaneously rather than consecutively.



INMOS transputer stand

CONVERTERS

With the increased speed of microprocessors and the like, real-world interfaces need



Strong emphasis on optoelectronics

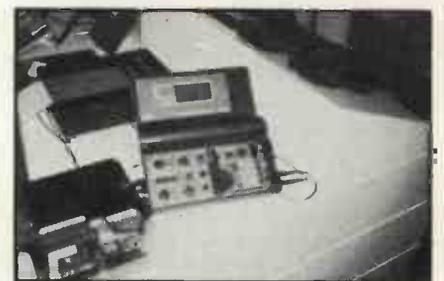
to keep pace by also being upgraded. Analogue to digital converters for example were in abundance, some of them having 18-bit resolution, others having scanning rates as high as two gigahertz.

ECL & GAAS

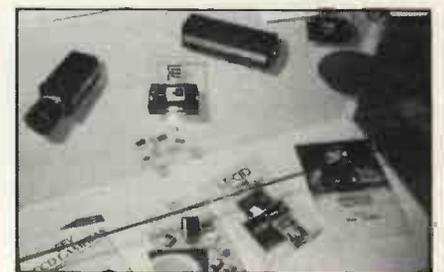
MOS and modern ttl chips are likely to remain with us for the foreseeable future, but chip manufacturers were obviously aware of the importance of the more recently introduced bipolar ecl and gallium arsenide ics. Though both products are capable of extremely high processing speeds, it appears that ecl is more in favour at present. Gallium arsenide devices are currently hampered by high production costs and low output yield.

OPTOELECTRONICS

Optoelectronic devices were well represented. This technology is vital to office automation, telecommunications and so forth, and no doubt will be even more heavily emphasised at the "Lasers, Optoelectronics, Microwaves" exhibition to be held in Munich during June 5th to 9th 1989. Many aspects of this technology were on display, including simple leds, cathode ray tubes, fibreoptic networks and lcds. I was especially impressed by the use to which lcds were put - from computer screens and message displays, to solid state oscilloscope readouts. There were also several examples of colour lcd displays.



LCD scopes on display



CCD products

New versions of ccd light detectors were on show, and various forms of infra-red detector. I was highly amused by the exhibitor of an infrared camera used for detecting body heat from persons trapped in collapsed buildings. Seeing me photograph the camera in its display case, he enthusiastically removed the camera and had a young fraulein member of staff demonstrate it so that I could take a more interesting photograph. Such kind helpfulness!



Heat detecting camera proudly displayed

POWER SEMICONDUCTORS

It was obvious that power semiconductors are gaining in significance and capabilities. Automation of mechanical control systems is one area where power semiconductors, including diodes, thyristors, triacs, bipolar transistors and power mosfets, will greatly enhance performance and reliability, and reduce production costs.



PCBs well represented

PCBS

Printed circuit technology was naturally well represented and some of the pcbs on display were mind-boggling examples of manufacturing and design sophistication. There was one board that I thought so impressive that I asked the exhibitor if I might photograph it - the full meaning of his reply was beyond my knowledge of German, but I gathered that on no account would he run the risk of my copying his board from a photograph! What a contrast to the ir-camera man.

Some of the multi-layer pcbs on display could never have their sophistication shown in a single photo - even a double-sided board is difficult, let alone one having 16 layers of tracking. Typically, multilayer pcbs can have conductor widths of less than 150 microns, and through-plated holes of only 0.3mm diameter. Flexible pcbs are now well established and there were numerous examples of those that could be bent to fit a particular enclosure shape, or which



SMD capacitors

could be subjected to constant flexing in moving systems without damage to the tracks.

SMT

Surface mounting technology in principle should allow pcbs to become smaller since smds themselves are smaller and do not require holes to be drilled in pcbs. Two things were obvious on this score, first that the pcbs on display simply had far more components on them when smds were used. Secondly, despite the earlier expectations that smds would in many instances replace normal through-hole mounting components, industry appears reluctant to make the change in manufacturing techniques.

There were smds on display, but by no means in the quantities I would have expected. I gather that only about five per cent of pcb assemblies use nothing-but smds, most other boards still use conventional wired-ended components, either intermixed with smds, or on their own. Nonetheless it is inconceivable that smt will remain under-used and there seems no doubt that more manufacturers will soon recognise its advantages, even though it is currently more expensive and requires highly sophisticated design and assembly equipment.



Robotic PCB assembly

ASSEMBLY

I had hoped that there would be examples of pcb manufacturing and assembly equipment on display, but as I progressed from hall to hall it became increasingly obvious that equipment of that size would have been out of place in a components exhibition. Apart from one robot impressing an audience by inserting ics into a pcb I saw little else that was directly related to automatic assembly. There were, though, examples of computer-aided pcb design, and also many varieties of eeprom programmers.



Automatic IC tester

TESTING

With increased circuit speeds and precision comes the need for ever faster and more sophisticated test equipment. Different types of test equipment were on show that enable automatic post-assembly checking to be carried out to pcb mounted circuitry. Equipment ranged in capabilities from checking analogue and digital circuits as separate entities, to full testing of combined analogue and digital circuits. Some sophisticated equipment was also capable of learning from a correctly working circuit what responses it should look for in other similar assemblies.



Oscilloscope with printout. An LCD scope is seen to the right

Many oscilloscopes were on display, from the conventional analogue, to multiple-storage digital types, with maximum display rates ranging from 1MHz to 100MHz and beyond. Liquid crystal display scopes were also in evidence, though as yet the screens remain on the small size. There were signal generators galore, spectrum analysers with ranges up to 5GHz, and scores of power supplies with practically every output option conceivable. There were more varieties of digital multimeter than I would have cared to count, many of them appealing to aesthetics as much as functionality by being made in different colours. Much of the test equipment was capable of being plugged into a computer for storage and analysis procedures. Many items also had in-built printers for paper printouts of the data.



Multimeters galore



Customised test bench

QUALITY CONTROL

A fair proportion of the show was to do with automatic quality control. Quality control these days is rarely a visual task, especially when it comes to electronics manufacturing. With components containing thousands or even millions of interconnected elements computer aided quality assurance (caq) is essential if a company is to remain competitive.

CAQ is implemented at strategic stages of component manufacture so keeping final rejects to minimum. I have previously commented in PE that component failure is now extremely rare. This is due to manufacturers ensuring that their inspection techniques minimise the risk of in-service failure. It was obvious at the show that manufacturers place great emphasis on quality planning and control and that end-users should have confidence in manufacturing inspection

processes. Naturally, product price will depend on the degree of acceptable failure rate and this may be specified by the customer. But even zero-defect consignments may be ordered by equipment manufacturers who are totally dependent upon fully automated assembly lines in which any component failure could be financially problematic.

CONCLUSION

This show at Munich probably ranks as the most incredible exhibition on a single main technology that I have had to pleasure and interest to visit. It was extremely well organised, spaciouly and comfortably laid out, and was highly informative. I am conscious that there were other aspects that I have not mentioned here, but a single day was insufficient to examine everything from 2500 exhibitors. Nor was there time, for example, to sit in on any of the conferences that were running concurrently with the exhibition. I could quite happily have spent the whole week there and still found more to study.

Shows like Electronica give reality to the world of developing electronic sophistication in a way that cannot be achieved by browsing through floods of press releases and trade magazines. The exhibition will take place again at Munich in two years time - I can hardly wait.

PE

EXHIBITORS			
Argentina	1	Ireland	25
Australia	2	Israel	18
Austria	23	Italy	82
Belgium	17	Japan	83
Brazil	1	Korea	11
Canada	19	Liechtenstein	1
China	1	Mexico	1
Czechoslovakia	1	Monaco	1
Denmark	15	Netherlands	26
Finland	12	Norway	4
France	112	Singapore	12
East Germany	2	South Africa	1
West Germany	1243	Spain	24
Greece	2	Sweden	14
Great Britain	174	Switzerland	91
Hong Kong	11	Taiwan	56
Hungary	5	USA	394
India	1	USSR	1
		Yugoslavia	1



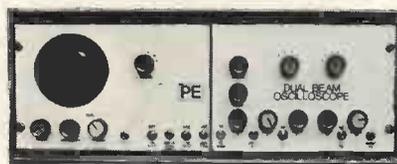
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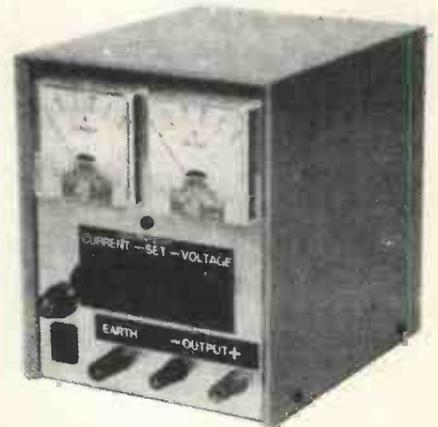
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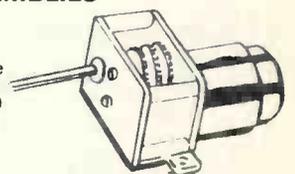
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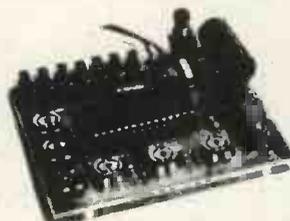
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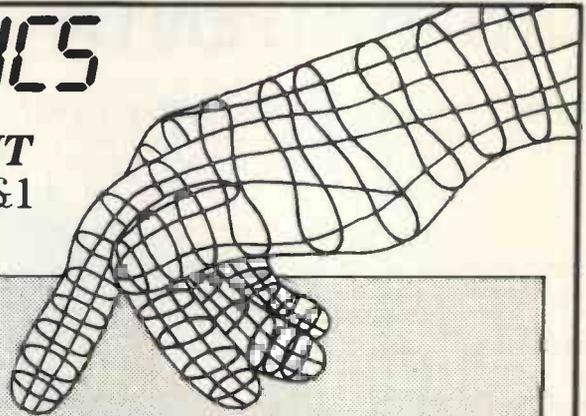
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DIGITAL ELECTRONICS

BY OWEN BISHOP

PART 6 – CONVERTERS

Ha! Digital-to-analogue converters and analogue-to-digital converters are another class of devices without which electronics would be ineffectual. By converting smooth signals to pulses or steps, the machine can "see" the outside world.

This month we continue the theme of *interfacing*. Let's think up some improvements on last month's temperature-sensitive interface, the one which uses a thermistor as sensor. When the temperature is high, the interface gives a low level output. When the temperature is low, it gives a high level output. This is a typical *binary* interface. It understands only *two* input conditions – high temperature or low temperature. It has only *two* output states – logic high and logic low. We decide where the threshold between high and low temperature is set, by adjusting a variable resistor in the interface.

Now we take it a stage further. Suppose we want the interface to respond to four different levels of temperature. It would have four different output states, one to correspond to each level. The easiest way of getting four different possible output states is to have two binary outputs. To put it another way, we have an output of two binary digits – *two bits*.

Let's see how we are getting on with our design (Fig. 1). The system shows a sensor (a thermistor, R1) and resistor, R2, arranged just as in last month's interface. As temperature increases, the resistance of R1 decreases and the voltage V_{in} rises. V_{in} is fed to three *comparators*, represented in the figure by three triangles. Each could be built from an opamp. They normally have a high output, but are triggered to give a low output when the voltage at their '-' input is greater than the voltage at their '+' input. Their '+' inputs are connected to a chain of resistors which give a range of threshold voltages from V_1 up to V_3 . These are the three voltage levels at which the circuit is to change state. They correspond to the three temperature levels we want the circuit to respond to.

When temperature is very low, V_{in} is lower than all the voltages V_1 to V_3 . The outputs from the comparators are all high (111). As temperature rises and V_{in} rises past the first threshold V_1 , the lower comparator is triggered. The outputs are now 011 (reading from the bottom of the diagram upward). As temperature continues to rise and V_{in} rises past the second threshold, the outputs become 001. If

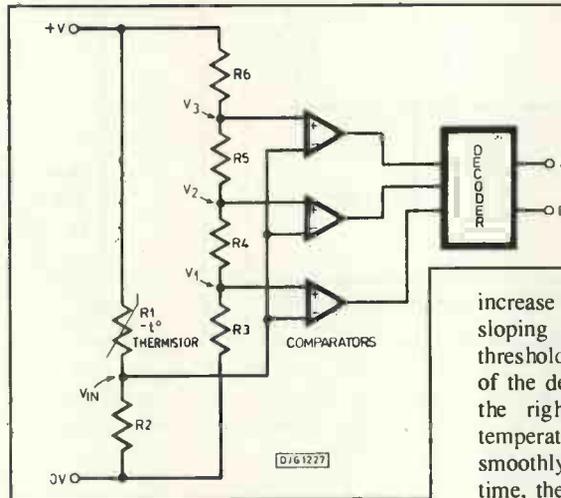


Fig.1.
Analogue to digital converter using "Flash" encoding

increase of V_{in} as shown by the upward-sloping curve. As V_{in} passes the three threshold values V_1 , V_2 and V_3 , the output of the decoder changes state, as shown on the right of the diagram. Note that temperature, resistance and V_{in} change smoothly from low to high. At the same time, the output of the decoder changes in four distinct steps, from 00 to 01 to 10 to 11.

There is an essential point about this circuit that we have not thought about so far. Electronic circuits do not respond to temperature as such. The thing that makes it work is the change in resistance of R1. In general, circuits respond only to things that mean something to them, such as voltage, resistance, or current. What we have done is to use a component (the thermistor) in which the change in outside temperature brings about a change in resistance. We design the circuit so that the change in resistance results in a corresponding change in V_{in} .

To describe the connection between temperature and resistance, we use a word that means 'similar or corresponding'. This word is *analogous*. We say that the resistance of the thermistor is *analogous* to the temperature. Or, to put it in slightly different words, we say that the resistance is an *analogue* of temperature. The circuit responds not to temperature itself but to an analogue of temperature. But, since the analogue behaves in a way that is similar to the way temperature behaves, it is the same as if the circuit was really responding to temperature. It's true that the analogy is not perfect – resistance goes down as temperature goes up – but that is something we can take care of in the circuit design. We have done so here. The voltage V_{in} is

temperature continues rising the outputs finally become 000.

The sequence of outputs could be used as it stands, but it is usually more convenient to change it into a proper binary sequence. Instead of 111, 011, 001, 000, we would prefer 00, 01, 10, 11. The output from the comparators goes to a decoder circuit that gives the required binary outputs. Try your design skills on working out how to build this decoder from NAND and/or NOR gates (one solution is given at the end).

Fig. 2 summarises the changes that occur with changing temperature. As temperature increases, the resistance of the thermistor decreases, as shown by the downward-sloping curve. The result of this is a steady

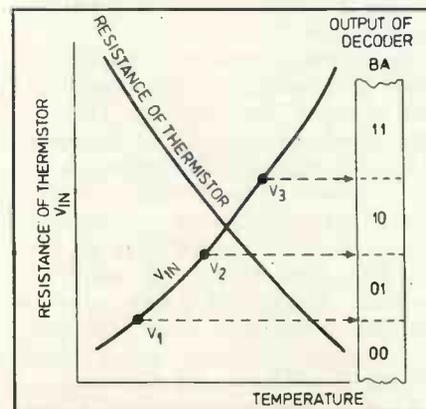


Fig.2. Analogue and digital quantities

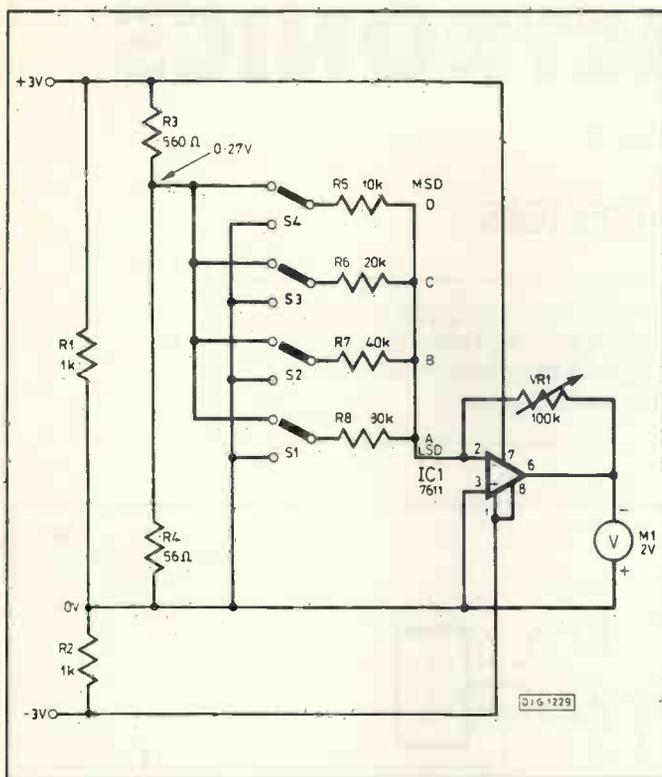
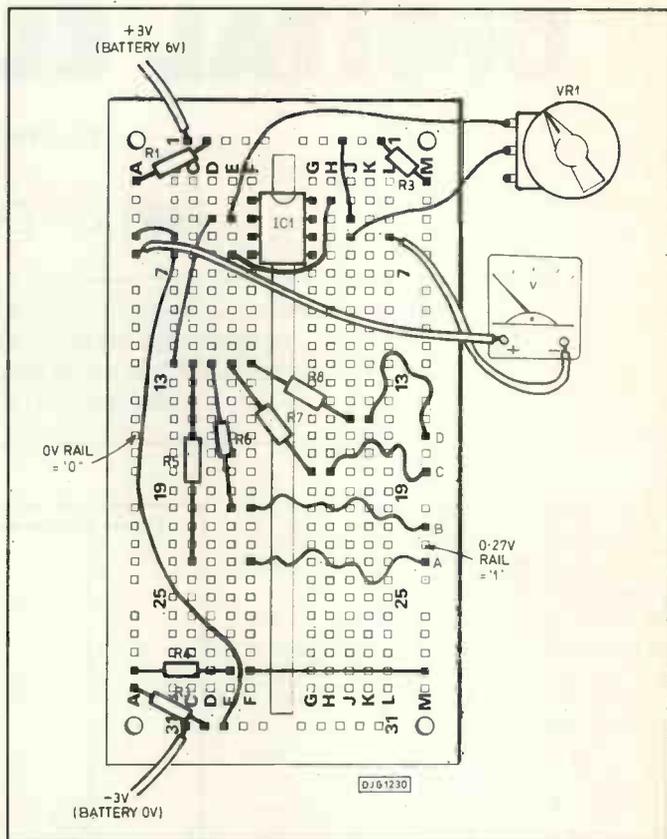


Fig.3. (above) Digital to analogue converter using opamp summer.
Fig.4. (right) Breadboard version of Fig.3.



also an analogue of temperature, and moreover increases with increasing temperature.

When we get to the decoder and output stages of the circuit we are no longer dealing with an analogue of temperature. The outputs of the comparators do not smoothly change as temperature changes. They flip abruptly from one state to another as thresholds are crossed. The binary output is incremented in distinct steps. This is a digital output. So the circuit is an analogue-to-digital converter.

A/D CONVERTERS

The conversion of analogue quantities to digital quantities is something we often need in practical applications of electronics. A digital thermometer (one that has a digital read-out) responds to temperature. It can only do that by generating an analogue to the temperature, ie V_{in} . The display is driven by logic, which is digital so, somewhere along the line, there must be an a/d converter.

The circuit of Fig. 1, suitably extended by having more comparators and a decoder to give, say, an 8-bit output, could be used as the basis of a digital thermometer. This type of a/d converter has the advantage that it works fast. The delays in the comparators and decoders are only a few nanoseconds. For this reason, this type of a/d converter is known as a flash converter. You can buy the complete circuit in a single ic but it is expensive. We would not normally want to use a flash converter in a digital thermometer as we can afford to wait a few microseconds for the conversion. But, in a circuit that is converting analogue

tv signals into digital signals very high speed is essential. Flash converters are ideal for video and audio digitising applications.

D/A CONVERTERS

Before we go on to try out some practical examples of a/d converters, let us look at the reverse conversion, digital to analogue. For example, we may want to control the speed of a motor in the arm of a robot. The robot is controlled by a micro-computer or a keyboard so the input to the robot is digital. Electronic circuits are not directly able to control speed (they can't put a foot on the brakes!). Instead the circuit produces something that circuits know all about - a voltage. This voltage, which we refer to as V_{out} is an analogue of the speed. The speed of the motor is proportional to V_{out} . Voltage can also be an analogue of other quantities such as the brightness of a lamp, the loudness of a sound or the strength of a magnetic field, depending on the application.

Fig. 3 shows a circuit for a d/a converter based on an opamp ic. This is an easily-built converter that could be ideal for robotics and other applications. The opamp is wired as a summer. The operation of the circuit depends on the fact that, if we feed several currents toward the (-) input of an opamp, the output current (from pin 6 in Fig. 3) is proportional to the sum of the currents. Actually the output current is inversely proportional, since what really happens is that the currents flowing through R5, R6, R7 and R8, toward the (-) input do not actually flow into the input. Indeed, since the input presents a resistance of 10^2

ohms, it is hard for any appreciable current to enter. Instead, the currents flow on through VR1 and into the output terminal of the opamp. The output voltage therefore must be negative. Note that the voltmeter is connected to measure negative voltages.

The next thing to notice is that the currents are weighted. If S1 is closed, current flows through an 80k resistor. The potential at the (-) input is 0V, while the potential at the junction of R3 and R4 is 0.27V. Thus the voltage across R8 is 0.27V, and the current through it is $3.4\mu A$. R7 has a resistance of 40k, half that of R8. So, if S2 is closed, the current through R7 is double that through R8, $6.8\mu A$. Let us see what happens if S1 and S2 are closed in all possible combinations:

The circuit is converting a digital quantity (opening or closing of switches) to an analogue quantity (current entering output). This analogue also appears as the negative output voltage required to draw the current into the output. It is an analogue of the speed of the motor to be controlled by the circuit.

The table shows only two bits of the conversion, but the same principle applies to the other switches (S3, S4). The switches correspond to four digits of a binary number. S4 is the most significant digit (msd). It lets current flow through R5, which is the smallest resistor, so passes the largest (most significant) current. S1 is the least significant digit (lsd) since it controls the least current. By switching all combinations of the four switches, we can produce an analogue voltage corresponding to the sixteen binary numbers 0000 to 1111. In the circuit the digital input is produced

by mechanical switches but we could use high and low outputs from logic gates, fed through the weighting resistors. So the circuit can convert either manual (eg keyboard, or a binary switch) or logical (eg from a microcomputer) inputs to an analogue voltage. You can have more bits by putting more switches and resistors into the circuit (160k, 320k, and so on).

Trial 1

D/A converter using op amp summer

Get the feeling of how this converter works by trying it out on a breadboard (Fig. 4). The circuit works with a 6V battery. R1 and R2 split the voltage to give the 0V line. From now on we refer to the battery 6V as +3V, taking all our measurements with reference to the new 0V line. We use this particular cmos opamp, the 7611, because it works on low voltages and because its output is able to swing fully between +3V and -3V. We also use a pair of resistors (R3 and R4) to produce as reference voltage of 0.27V. The circuit does not actually include switches; just push the flying leads into the right-hand socket strip (0.27V rail) for 'on' or '1' and push it into the left-hand strip (0V rail) for off or '0'.

The precision of this circuit depends on the resistors having exactly their stated values. Even if you use 1% tolerance resistors, there is still an appreciable error. For the purpose of this demonstration (and indeed for many applications) there is no need to worry about high precision. Ordinary 5% resistors will do. If you do not have the required values, make them up by using two resistors in series. For 40k, you can use 39k and 1k in series. An 82k resistor is near enough for R8.

Start with all leads plugged into '1'. This corresponds with an input of 1111, or 15 decimal. The meter reading may have any value to start with. Adjust VR1 until the reading is exactly 1.5V. This sets the scaling of the converter so that a binary input 1111 (decimal 15) produces an analogue output of 1.5V. We expect that a binary input of, say, 1001 (decimal 9) will produce an output of 0.9V. Try it! Experiment with various combinations of inputs and confirm that the analogue output varies accordingly.

VOLTS AND LADDERS

Another type of d/a converter is based on the 'ladder' circuit of Fig. 5. Since the resistors are of only two values, one set

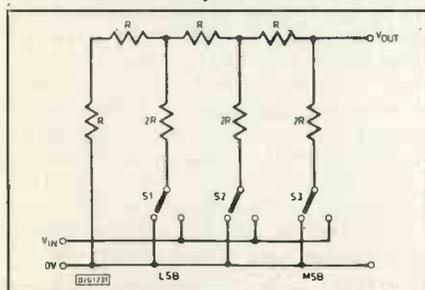


Fig. 5. R-2R ladder

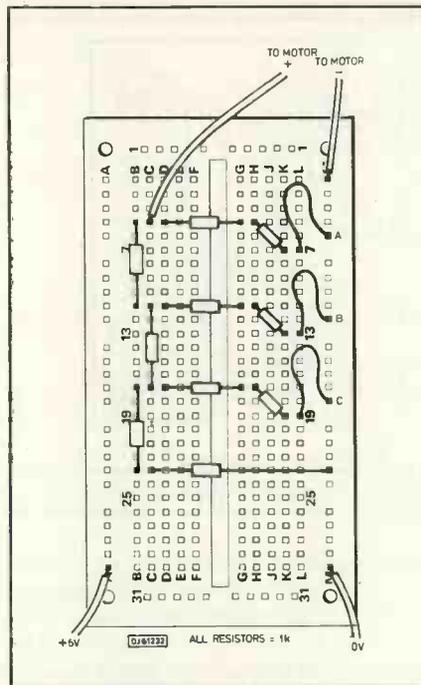


Fig. 6. A breadboard R-2R ladder

having twice the resistance of the other set, this is known as a R-2R ladder. It does not matter what the value exact of R is provided that the '2R' resistors have precisely twice the resistance of the 'R' set. In most converters the ladder is eight stages long, which gives a complicated resistor network. Rather than try to sort out how it works, wire it up on the breadboard and discover what it does.

Trial 2

The R-2R ladder

In the bread-board version (Fig. 6), you can use any value resistors you like, provided that they all have the same resistance. We have used two resistors in series to obtain the 2R set. In the diagram, leads A, B and C are plugged into the 0V line. This corresponds to input 000. Obviously, since there is no connection to the +6V line, the meter reads '0V'. Now plug one or more of the leads into the +6V line and read the meter. Try various combinations of input - in fact try all eight possible combinations from 000 to 111. In what way does the analogue output correspond with the digital input? (Answer at the end).

D/A CONVERTER IC

The ZN428E is one of many D/A converters based on the R-2R ladder (Fig. 7). It has an 8-bit input. When the ENABLE input is made low, data on the input terminals is transferred to the latches. The output from each latch is used to control eight solid-state switches. These connect the 'rungs' of the R-2R ladder either to 0V or to a fixed voltage, just as in our breadboarded version of Fig. 6. The main difference is that the voltage is an accurately stabilised reference voltage V_{REF} of 2.5V. The chip has its own in-built circuit for producing the reference voltage, needing only the external capacitor C1 to hold it steady. This is available from pin 7 (V_{OUT} , see Fig. 8). Although it is possible to use an external reference voltage, and feed this to V_{IN} at pin 7, we are using the internal reference by connecting pins 7 and 8 together.

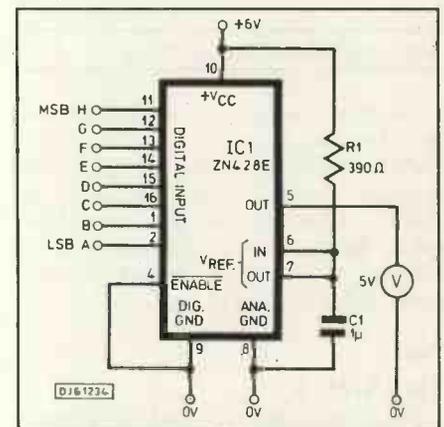


Fig. 8. Digital to analogue converter ic.

The ic has an 8-bit digital input which can be controlled by switching or by using the outputs of logic gates. As the input is incremented from 00000000 to 11111111, the output voltage increases from 0V to V_{REF} , in 256 steps of just under 10mV each. The output voltage is accurate if only a small current is drawn. The R-2R ladder acts as a 4k resistance so that if, for example, you need to draw a current of 100µA from the output, the maximum voltage is less than V_{REF} by $0.0001 \times 4000 = 0.4V$. This is a relatively small drop but, if larger currents are drawn the drop is greater. In such cases it is necessary to feed the output to an amplifier, to act as a buffer.

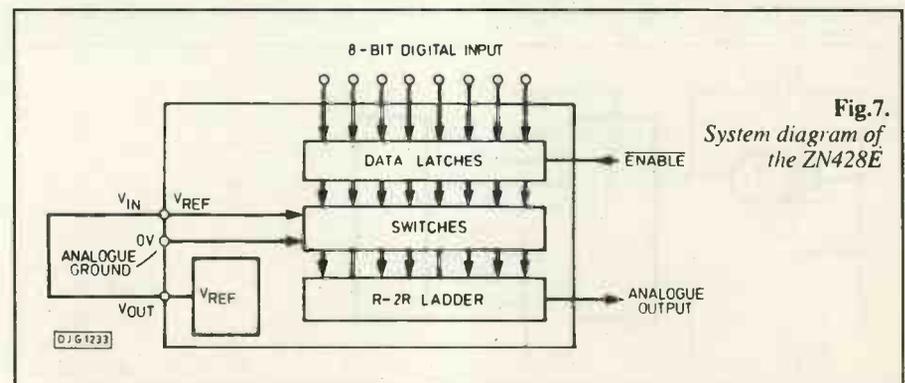


Fig. 7. System diagram of the ZN428E

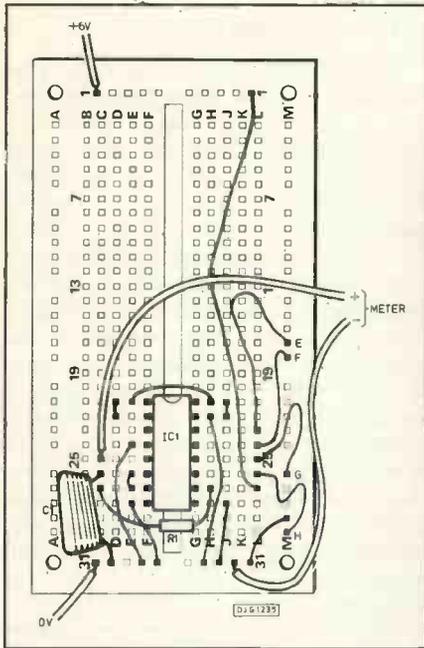


Fig. 9. Breadboard version of Fig. 8.

There are two ground connections, one for connection to the 0V rail of the digital circuits, the other for the 0V rail of the analogue circuits. There can be up to 200mV difference between these rails. Often the 0V rail is common to both sections of the circuit, so both pins are connected to the same 0V rail.

Trial 3

The ZN428E ic

Fig. 8 shows the circuit and Fig. 9 shows how to breadboard it. To simplify the trial, the four least significant input bits, A to D, are wired to 0V. We use only the four most significant bits, E to H. Fig. 9 shows all inputs connected to the 0V rail, to give an input of 00000000. Try moving one or more of the flying leads to the +6V rail at the top of the board. This gives you digital inputs from 00010000 (decimal 32) to 11110000 (decimal 240) in steps of 32. Read the corresponding analogue output on the meter.

When you have seen the converter in action, try the effect of presenting it with the output from a 4-bit counter, as in Fig. 10. The counter is driven by an astable based on a Schmitt trigger gate. This is a useful astable circuit that has many applications in other circuits. To vary its

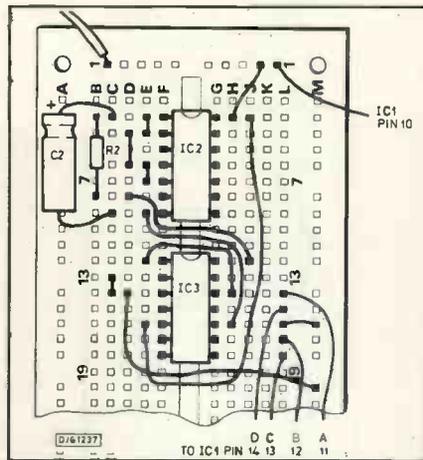


Fig. 11. Completing the circuit of Fig. 10.

rate of oscillation, you can alter C1, but not R2. Here we have it running fairly slowly so that we can observe the action of the converter as the count increases. The counter (IC3) produces an output running from 0000 to 1111, then resets to 0000 and repeats, indefinitely. Outputs A to D of the counter are fed to the most significant inputs (E to H) of the converter. This is equivalent to providing an input of 0 to 240 in steps of 32, the same as you have just done manually. Fig. 11 shows what to add to the breadboard circuit of Fig. 9 to complete the circuit of Fig. 10.

Switch on the power and watch the needle of the voltmeter. Look closely. At first glance it seems to move slowly and smoothly from 0V up to about 2.5V, then return rapidly to 0V and repeat. In fact, it is moving up in 16 distinct and slightly jerky steps.

Although the output from a d/a converter is supposed to be an analogue and therefore is supposed to vary smoothly over its range, it does in fact vary in steps. In this circuit we have made the steps big enough to be noticeable on the meter. If this output is connected to a motor, the motor runs at one of 16 different speeds (including 'stop'). Probably this is good enough for the purpose. If not, we can obtain a much smoother action by using the less significant bits. You could wire up an 8-bit counter (take the D output from IC3 and feed it to A_{IN} input of a second counter ic). Use it to provide an 8-bit to IC1. Then V_{out} varies from 0 to 2.5V in 256 steps instead of only 16 steps. The difference between

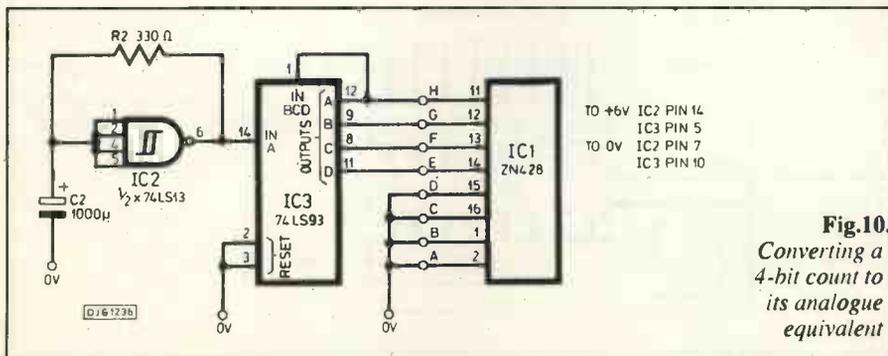


Fig. 10. Converting a 4-bit count to its analogue equivalent

one step and the next is less than 10mV, which is imperceptible on the meter. This is how a stepping output voltage may be made close enough in practice to a true, smoothly-ranging analogue voltage.

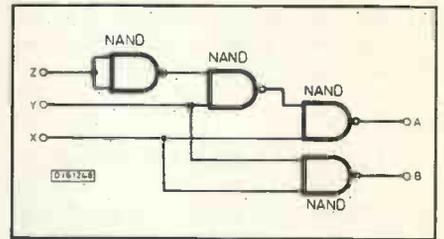


Fig. 12. Decoder circuit for the converter of Fig. 1.

Answers to questions

Decoder: The input from the comparators is ZYX, reading from the bottom comparator up. The truth table for input ZYX and output BA is:

Input	Output
Z Y X	B A
1 1 1	0 0
0 1 1	0 1
0 0 1	1 0
0 0 0	1 1

These are the only four input combinations that we need consider, as the other four combinations of X, Y and Z can not occur in this circuit. Our first 'solution' required seven gates, but we gradually reduced it to four (Fig. 12). Since all of these are NAND gates, the decoder can be constructed from a single 7400, or 4011 ic. Can any reader solve it in three gates? (Note: EXOR gates not allowed!)

R-2R ladder: V_{out} increases in proportion to the binary input (with a certain amount of error due to variation between nominally equal resistors).

Space in this month's issue prevented completion of this part of Digital Electronics - the remainder will be published next month. **PF**

HIGH POWERED

Blackheath Common in London is a traditional kite flying locality. Driving across it a few weeks ago I noticed that, as usual, children were enjoying the thrills of getting kites even higher. I also noticed the darkening storm clouds looming from the West. Did the kids not realise the dangers of being struck by lightning?

I was reminded of Benjamin Franklin, probably the best known of all kite flyers, and whose experiments have become legend. It was in June 1752 that he confirmed that electricity could be conducted from a thunder cloud down the line of a high flying kite. As the storm approached his kite, he first noticed loose threads on the hemp string beginning to stand erect and avoid one another. On closing a switch between the string and his apparatus he then observed "a very evident spark". He was fortunate and lived to tell the tale.

Other experimenters followed Franklin's investigations, some of them drawing sparks as much as ten feet long. Not surprisingly, some experimenters also died from being struck by lightning. **Ed.**

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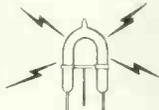
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90V 20A TRANSFORMER 'C' Core construction so quite easy to adapt for other outputs-tapped mains input. Only £25 but very heavy so please add £5 if not collecting. Order Ref. 25P4.

SWITCH AC LOADS WITH YOUR COMPUTER This is easy and reliable if you use our solid state relay. This has no moving parts, has high input resistance and acts as a noise barrier and provides 4kV isolation between logic terminals. The turn-on voltage is not critical, anything between 3 and 30V, internal resistance is about 1k ohm. AC loads up to 10A can be switched. Price is £2 each. Ref. 2P183.

METAL PROJECT BOX ideal size for battery charger, power supply etc.; sprayed grey, size 8in x 4 1/2in x 4in high, ends are louvred for ventilation other sides are flat and unlined. Order Ref. 2P191. Price £1.

BIG SMOOTHING CAPACITOR. Sprague powerlytic 39,000uF at 50V. £3. Our ref. 3P41.

4-CORE FLEX CABLE. Cores separately insulated and grey PVC covered overall. Each copper core size 7/0.2mm. Ideal for long telephone runs or similar applications even at mains voltage. 20 metres £2. Our ref. 2P196 or 100 metres coil £8. Order ref. 8P19.

6-CORE FLEX CABLE. Description same as the 4-core above. Price 15 metres for £2. Our ref. 2P197 or 100 metres £9. Order ref. 9P1.

TWIN GANG TUNING CAPACITOR. Each section is .0005uF with trimmers and good length 1/4in spindle. Old but unused and in very good condition. £1 each. Our ref. BD630.

13A PLUGS Good British make complete with fuse, parcel of 5 for £2. Order ref. 2P185.

13A ADAPTERS Takes 2 13A plus, packet of 3 for £2. Order ref. 2P187.

28V-0-20V Mains transformers 2 1/2 amp (100 watt) loading, tapped primary. 200-245 upright mountings £4. Order ref. 4P24.

BURGLAR ALARM BELL - 8" gong OK for outside use if protected from rain. 12V battery operated. Price £8. Ref. 8P2.

24 HOUR TIME SWITCH - 16A changeover contacts, up to 6 on/off per day. Nicely cased, intended for wall mounting. Price £8. Ref. 8P6.

CAPACITOR BARGAIN - axial ended, 4700uF at 25V. Jap made, normally 50p each, you get 4 for £1. Our ref. 613.

SPRING LOADED TEST PRODS - Heavy duty, made by the famous Bugin company, very good quality. Price 4 for £1. Ref. BD597.

ASTEC P.S.U. - Switch mode type. Input set for +230V. Output 3.5 amps at +5V, 1.5 amps at +12V, and 3 amps at +5V. Should be OK for floppy disc drives. Regular price £30. Our price only £10. Ref. 10T34. Brand new and unused.

APPLIANCE THERMOSTATS - Spindle adjust type suitable for convector heaters or similar. Price 2 for £1. Ref. BD582.

3-CORE FLEX BARGAIN No. 1 - Core size 1.25mm so suitable for long extension leads carrying up to 13 amps, or short leads up to 10 amps. 15mm for £2. Ref. 2P190.

3-CORE FLEX BARGAIN No. 2 - Core size 1.25mm so suitable for long extension leads carrying up to 13 amps, or short leads up to 25A. 10m for £2. Ref. 2P190.

ALPHA-NUMERIC KEYBOARD - This keyboard has 73 keys giving trouble free life and no contact bounce. The keys are arranged in two main pad, board size is approx. 13" x 4" - brand new but offered at only a fraction of its cost, namely £3 plus £1 post. Ref. 3P27.

WIRE BARGAIN - 500 metres 0.7mm solid copper tinned and p.v.c. covered. Only £3 plus £1 post. Ref. 3P31 - that's well under 1p per metre, and this wire is ideal for push on connections.

INTERRUPTED BEAM KIT - This kit enables you to make a switch that will trigger when a steady beam of infra-red or ordinary light is broken. Main components - relay, photo transistor, resistors and caps, etc. Circuit diagram but no case. Price £2. Ref. 2P15.

1/4TH HORSEPOWER 12 VOLT MOTOR Made by Smiths, the body length of this is approximately 3in, the diameter 3in and the spindle 1/4th of an inch diameter. It has a centre flange for fixing or can be fixed from the end by means of 2 nuts. A very powerful little motor which revs at 3,000 rpm. We have a large quantity of them so if you have any projects in mind then you could rely on supplies for at least two years. Price £6. Our ref 6P1, discount for quantities of 10 or more.

READERS' LETTERS

TRACING THE YEARS

Dear Ed,

After defecting from regular subscription to PE for many years, the appearance of your interesting series 'Dual Beam Oscilloscope' has brought me back to the fold, so to speak.

Like you, E.N. Bradley's 'The Oscilloscope Book' (five shillings well spent!) did a lot for my interest in electronics and as a result of my experimenting with oscilloscope circuitry and other pieces of equipment, I was able to progress from my original career in domestic radio and tv servicing to a more progressive one in industrial electronics, always with a bias towards test equipment and testing methods. Now that I have retired, electronics is my main hobby and my soldering iron is rarely cold!

Many thanks for the present nature of PE, with just the right mixture of articles and projects for my taste and interests.

Geoffrey T. Edwards,
Weymouth, Dorset.

May neither of our irons ever remain cold or our screens long stay dark - there're just too many exciting circuits to explore.

Ed

NO SCOPE

Dear Sir

I wasted my money buying your December 88 issue as the oscilloscope project does not go up to 10MHz.

L.H. Singleton, Llanelli.

The intention of this project is to provide early electronic starters with a simple and cheap visual display of what is occurring on the types of circuit they are most likely to encounter in the days before their knowledge and interest progresses to more sophisticated requirements.

Most beginners will probably only be concerned with audio frequencies up to about 20kHz and logic signals up to about 1MHz. This project satisfies that requirement, being capable of displaying frequencies beyond 1MHz as discussed within the article. It also satisfies the low price aspect in that it should cost in the region of only £100 to build.

If greater sophistication had been designed in the price would have risen significantly, in which event there would have been little cost benefit from building one's own instrument when ready-made equipment would fall into a similar price bracket.

To those who are advanced constructors I unhesitatingly recommend that a ready-made scope should be bought, but to be prepared to spend at least £350 on a dual beam instrument that will satisfy their needs for many years to come.

For beginners, the published project will give a good insight into what occurs in circuits, thereby hopefully encouraging them to become far more interested, at which time it then becomes worthwhile spending a lot more money on more advanced equipment. It is pointless for a beginner to spend a lot of money on equipment until such time as he or she is convinced that electronics is the interest which they wish to pursue.

From the letters we have received from many readers we know that we have made the correct decision in publishing a low cost elementary scope. The feedback from the companies supplying the various parts for the project also confirms that many readers are building the project, and that they are pleased to be given the opportunity to do so.

As a final point, I must comment that before spending money on anything, whether it is a piece of equipment, or a magazine, it is prudent to establish whether it is what you want before you buy it.

Ed

LOLLYSCOPE

Dear Ed

A long time ago I was given a tube that seems to have nearly the same specs as the one you use in your dual beam scope. I've always wanted a scope, but didn't know how to set about using the tube I've got. And the cheapest built scope I could find was nearly two hundred pounds, which I haven't got to spend, and anyway it only had one beam. Thank you for showing me how to build one cheaply.

Justin Carrerras, Canterbury,
Kent

PRIME VIEWING

Dear Ed

Thanks to PE for being the magazine to publish an interesting article on building an oscilloscope. I have long been puzzled about what signals really look like as they pass through circuits. Now I shall be able to have a look without spending a fortune on commercial equipment.

Michael Davis, Wragby, Lincs

EFFECTIVE SCREENING

Dear John,

My interest is in building musical effects units for use with my guitar. Until now I've just had to 'play things by ear (ha ha)' when coming up with different circuit variations. With your simple scope I shall be able to look at different waveforms, see their phase relationships, and measure things like echo and reverb delays.

Bernard Bartolph, Hitchin,
Herts.

TRACK TRACING

Dear John

I like buying old amplifiers and repairing them but I have had to do this using signal tracers to follow the signal. After a long while of having noises filling my ears as I probe in different places I get a real headache! I'm glad you've done a visual signal tracing piece of test gear so that I can listen to my Walkman while mending amps.

Rob Anderson, Belfast.

DIGISCOPE

Dear Ed

I am following Owen Bishop's digital electronics series and use a meter to look at logic levels. Now I am building your scope so that I can look at logic levels in more than one place. This will be cheaper and more interesting than having several meters.

Peter Henshaw, Solihull.

MICROSCOPE

Dear Ed,

I've got a Commodore 64 computer and enjoy using it to control some of the circuits published in PE. But in the early stages of testing some of these projects I've been hampered by not being able to use a meter to monitor some of the faster signals from the computer. Using your dual beam scope with its sync input as well I shall be able to tap into three input-output lines at the same time.

Brian T. Williams, Salisbury,
Wilts

TELLY-SCOPE

Dear Ed,

Your dual beam scope design is very welcome, but I think that many would be builders may be deterred by the cost of the 'inexpensive' 7cm tube. Could you not have used a low cost monochrome tv receiver tube?

J.E.Houghton, Goole, North
Humberside.

Before commencing the design of the scope I hunted round for a source of low cost tubes but found that the lowest cost current production tube was about £75. Subsequently, I was put in touch with Langrex Supplies who had good stocks of a tube which is no longer being manufactured and which they were prepared to make available to PE readers at around half the price of the other tube. Had it not been for Langrex's comparatively low-priced stock it is unlikely that I would have pursued the project.

Certainly I considered using tv and computer monitor tubes, including the idea that existing drive circuitry could be modified to suit scope requirements. I rejected the idea since the project was aimed at early beginners who, I felt, might be unprepared to tackle projects involving the very high voltages required. Additionally, I considered using lcd screens, but as yet the cost of these screens and the associated circuitry is still too high, though undoubtedly that situation should change in the near future.

Ed

PERRYSCOPE

Dear John

If only you had published this scope some years ago I could have tuned all the oscillators and filters in my home-made organ much more easily. I've never really been happy with the trial and error adjustments I made - with your scope I shall be able to tune in properly. PE is music to my eyes and ears in more ways than one.

Chris Perry, Renfrew, Scotland.

These are just a selection of the letters and phone calls received about the scope articles. It's also obvious from phone calls that, contrary to my above opinion about using tv tubes, there are probably many readers who are using them in conjunction with modifications they are making to the published circuits. Another caller told me he is updating his very old valve driven scope by installing the PE circuits. It seems like we've hit the jackpot with this project!

Ed

SEMICONDUCTORS

BY ANDREW ARMSTRONG

PART 13 – OPERATIONAL AMPLIFIERS

Designing an opamp circuit appears simple. But how do the offset current and voltage, slew rate, and noise level affect the performance?

The term opamp is widely used to describe anything from a standard 741 to a high precision instrumentation amplifier costing tens of hundreds of pounds. In the days before cheap ic opamps were available, the term opamp referred to an instrumentation quality amplifier made using valves or later discrete transistors, and used in applications such as analogue computers or measuring instruments. With the advent of cheap and cheerful ic differential amplifiers, the term opamp has been downgraded to refer to any differential input ic amplifier, while the precision types are often referred to as "instrumentation amplifiers".

The majority of opamps sold are used in general signal processing and amplifying applications. In these applications the qualities needed from an instrumentation amplifier are largely irrelevant, but some other aspects of performance become important. In order to understand what matters in a given application, a good understanding of what an opamp does and approximately how it does it is helpful.

PERFECTION

Even before considering the snags, however, we shall approach an understanding of opamps by considering how a perfect one would perform. The real limitations of performance imposed by the laws of physics (Ye canna break...) will then be thrown into stark relief, and ways to minimise the effect of the limitations will follow on logically.

Fig. 121 shows a perfect opamp with its inputs connected to 0V. In this condition the output is also at 0V. If a variable voltage is connected to one input, as shown in Fig. 122, then the output takes up a voltage equal to the difference in voltage between the two inputs multiplied by the voltage gain of the opamp. Mathematically this is expressed as $V_{out} = A_v \times (V^+ - V^-)$. Our perfect amplifier does not have infinite gain as some people might imagine, because this is difficult to deal with in equations. This opamp is so perfect that even the maths is easy, so it has a gain which is arbitrarily high, always sufficient for the application.

For the purposes of this thought

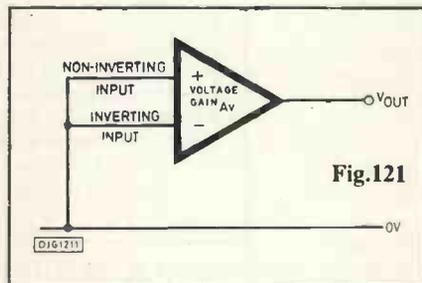


Fig. 121

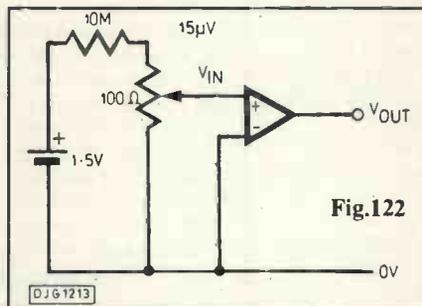


Fig. 122

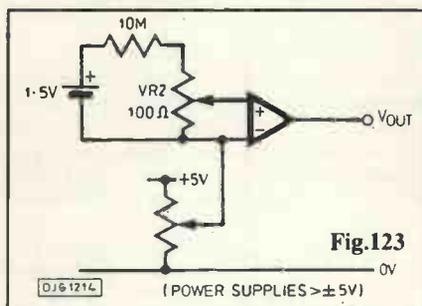


Fig. 123

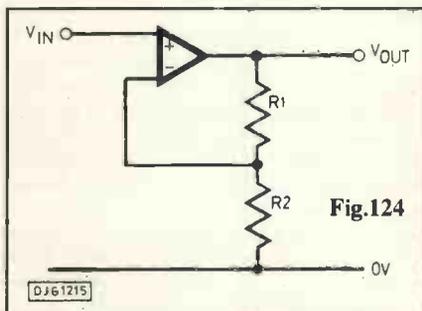


Fig. 124

experiment a gain of 1,000,000 is suitable. If an input of 1µV is applied, then an output of 1V will result. A sinewave input of amplitude 1µV would produce an output

sinewave of amplitude 1V.

Fig. 123 shows yet another test circuit. In this circuit, varying VR1 produces no change in the output voltage, while VR2 varies the output voltage in the ratio given above, 1,000,000:1. VR1 has no effect because, as stated above, the output voltage depends only on the voltage difference between the inputs.

An arbitrarily high gain may be a good characteristic for an opamp ic, but it is not always what is needed for an application circuit. Fig. 124 shows the circuit of a dc amplifier which has a well-defined and finite gain. The gain is set by the ratio of resistors R1 and R2, and by the inherent gain of the device. It may not be intuitively obvious why this circuit works, though it is a widely used building block for larger application circuits. It works in the form shown because a very small difference in voltage between the two input terminals produces a large change in the output in such a direction as to bring the voltage on the inverting input closer to that on the non-inverting input.

To take an example, assume that the gain of the device is 1,000,000 and that R1 has a value of 9k and R2 has a value of 1k. If an input voltage of 1V is applied, then the amplifier's output will rise until the voltage on the inverting input is almost equal to the input voltage (the difference in voltages being due to the finite gain of the opamp). If we imagine for a moment that this difference is zero, then we have 1V across R2. By using simple potential divider theory, we can see that there must be 9V across R1 and thus that the output is at 10V.

In practice, of course, the opamp needs a difference in voltage between the input terminals to maintain its output, and with a gain of 1,000,000 the required difference is 10µV. Applying potential divider law again shows that the output must be 100µV low. A 100µV error on a 10V signal would normally be considered too small to matter, so that one normally assumes that the gain of the circuit is actually set by R1 and R2 and nothing else. Our perfect opamp always has enough gain to make this true, regardless of the application, but when using real opamps the finite gain available does constrain the possible applications.

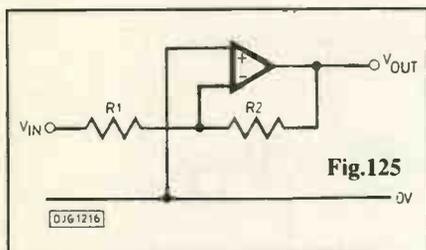


Fig.125

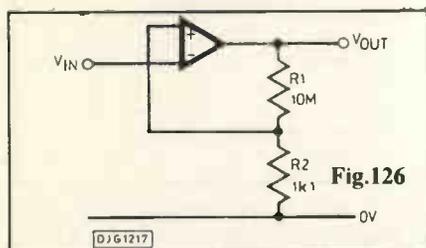


Fig.126

NEGATIVE GAIN

In the circuit of Fig. 124, the output is of the same polarity as the input, and the gain is $(R1 + R2)/R2$. In the circuit of Fig. 125 the output is of the opposite polarity to the input, and the gain is simply $R2/R1$. As with the circuit of Fig. 124, the feedback connection of the opamp is such as to allow it to attempt to keep the voltages on its input terminals the same. This means that, because the non-inverting input is connected to 0V, the opamp will attempt to maintain the inverting input as 0V. If an input voltage is applied, and the inverting input remains at 0V, then a current of $V_{in}/R1$ will flow in $R1$; because it has nowhere else to go, this current must also flow in $R2$. Therefore, the output voltage must be such as to cause this particular current to flow in $R2$. Given that the left hand end of $R2$ is at 0V, and given the direction of the current, the output voltage has got to be negative and has got to have the same ratio of voltage to resistance as $V_{in}/R1$. The same argument about the finite gain of the opamp applies to this circuit, of course.

The preceding two circuits have both used the opamp as a signal amplifier. There

is another function which it can perform for which it is equally apt, that of a comparator. If the opamp is used with no feedback resistors at all, it almost works as a comparator anyway, because only a very modest input signal is required to drive the output to the power supply voltage, positive or negative. There is a small linear region which is undesirable in a comparator, and the circuit of Fig. 126 is designed to eliminate the linear region and replace it with a region of hysteresis. The transfer

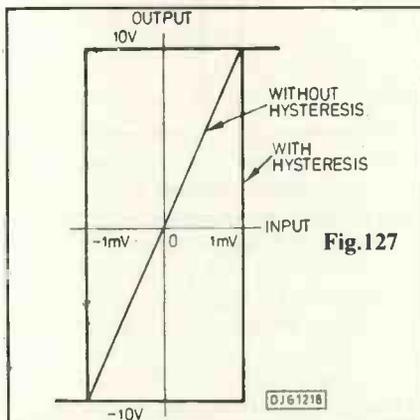


Fig.127

characteristic of this is shown in Fig. 127. This is how it works: let us assume that the output is capable of reaching a maximum of $\pm 10V$, and that initially the input is at 0V and the output is at $+10V$. With the resistor values given, the non-inverting input will be at 1mV, and will remain in this condition unless the input voltage is raised above 1mV. As soon as the input voltage exceeds 1mV, the output voltage will fall. As it falls, it increases the difference between the two input voltages, thus reinforcing the fall in output voltage. The output falls to $-10V$, where it remains, until and unless the input voltage goes below $-1mV$. In this example, it is assumed that the gain of the opamp is so high that an infinitesimal difference in input voltages is sufficient to hold the output at one extreme or the other. A real opamp with limited gain would begin to switch a little before the input voltage reached $+1mV$ or $-1mV$.

Comparator circuits often use much more than 1mV hysteresis. Such a low level would be used only in a precision circuit, where the hysteresis adds to any error in the switching point. In this sort of application, the hysteresis would be chosen to be just sufficient to ensure clean switching.

PRACTICAL OPAMPS

Real opamps deviate from the ideal in many ways. There is normally a choice as to which types of imperfection are minimised, and which suffer as a consequence. For example, it is unusual to find a very fast opamp with low dc offset and low bias current. On the other hand, some ultra low offset devices are available, but they tend to be slow. To start with we shall look at the limitations on performance which matter in most applications.

So far we have assumed that, when an input voltage current is applied to an opamp, no current flows into the input. In practice, some input current must flow. Table 9 shows a comparison of the main characteristics of some common opamps. From this you can see that the bias current of simple bipolar opamps fall in the range of 40nA to 1μA. J-fet opamps have much lower bias currents, and CMOS devices have even lower bias current requirements. If too high a resistance dc path to a bias voltage is present, the bias current in an opamp may give rise to significant voltage error on the inputs.

This is particularly so if a different value of dc resistance is used on each input. For example, if a difference in dc resistance of 560k is used with a 5532 bipolar opamp, then the difference in voltage between the two inputs due to this resistance could be of the order of half a volt. This input offset would be multiplied by the dc gain of the stage, and could result in output saturation.

Where significant dc resistance to bias point is required in a bipolar opamp application, it is normal to attempt to equalise the resistance to each input. This is not always easy, as will be clear in some of the later application circuits, but it is a

TABLE 9

Device	Input Offset Voltage mV	Input Bias Current nA	Input Offset Current nA	Voltage Gain Min. Volts/V	Bandwidth @ Voltage Gain = 1 MHz	Operating Power Supply* Voltage		Common Mode Range	Slew Rate V/μs	Remarks
						Min	Max			
741		6	1500	500	25k	1		± 3 ± 22	± 12	0.5
LM358	7.5	500	150	15k	1	± 1.5 ± 15		$V+$ -15	Not Specified	Dual
LF351	10	0.2	0.1	25k	4	- ± 18		-	13	Bifet
LF356	13	8	2	15k	5	± 5 ± 18		± 16	15	Bifet
5532	5	1000	200	15k	100kHz	± 3 ± 20		± 12	9	Dual
OP07 (PMI)	75μV	± 3	2.8	200k	0.4	± 3 ± 18		± 13	0.1	Low Noise
RC4558 (TEXAS)	6	800	300	30k	3(Typ)	- ± 15		± 12	1.3	

*NOTE: Absolute maximum power supply voltage is greater than maximum operating supply voltage.

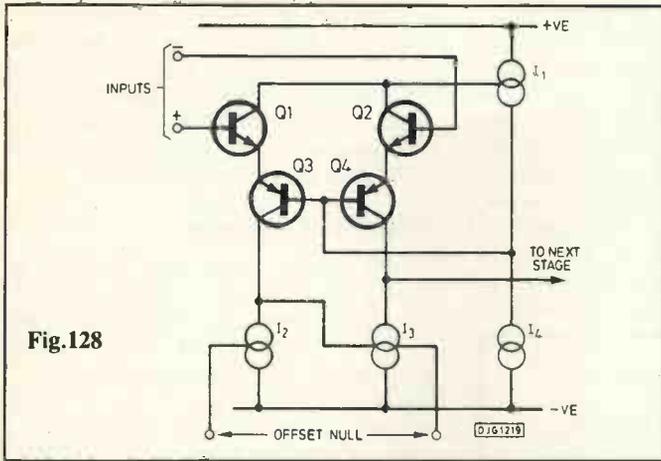


Fig.128

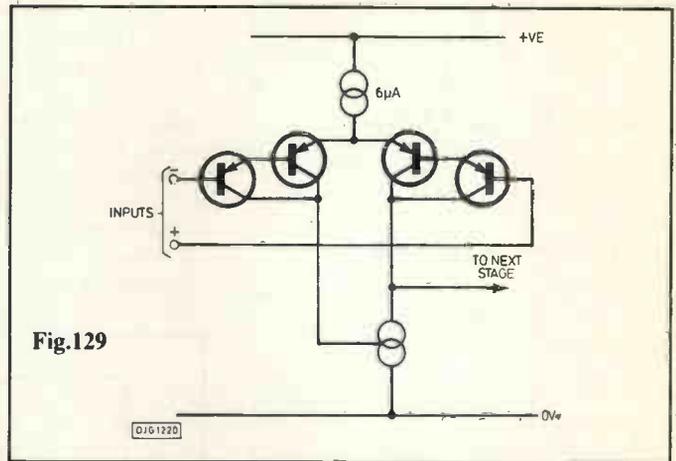


Fig.129

worthwhile aim. The problem of bias current does not stop here, however. The bias current drawn by each input is not the same, due to the normal effects of tolerance. The difference in bias current is referred to as the input offset current. Whatever voltage would appear across the dc input resistance were this current to flow in it, is the maximum amount of dc offset voltage which can be generated by the input offset current. Opamp tolerance will determine the extent of the actual offset, as well as its polarity, in any given circuit.

Even in situations where the dc resistance is low, and the bias current can be ignored, there is the input offset voltage to worry about. As one might deduce from the law of the conservation of misery, the opamps with the lowest input bias and offset currents generally have the highest input offset voltages. This is because the lowest bias current opamps normally achieve their low bias current by using fets as input transistors, and there is more tolerance on the pinch-off voltage of fets than there is on the V_e of junction transistors. This point is illustrated by the figures in Table 9.

Typical opamp input stages are shown in Figs. 128, 129 and 130. The stage is a variation on the theme of the long tailed pair, with Q3 and Q4 forming the long tailed pair, and the signal being fed onto the emitters of the pair via Q1 and Q2. The total current flowing in the input stage controls current source I1, which is responsible for biasing Q3 and Q4 with a current bias. This feature stabilised the dc operating point of the circuit.

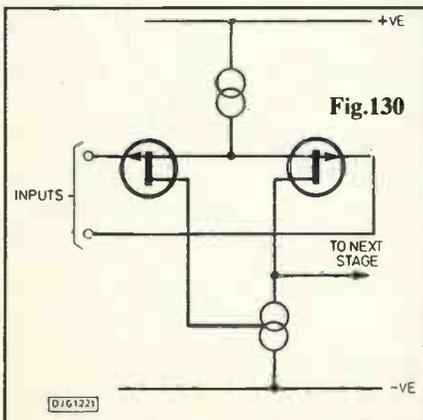


Fig.130

The input offsets may be nulled out by finely balancing the currents I2 and I3, for which terminals are provided. Additionally, I3 is controlled by the current in Q3, with I3 mirroring the changes in Q3's collector current. In this way, extra common mode rejection and extra input gain is provided. If the current sources are balanced, any increase in the collector currents of Q3 and Q4 together will cancel at the output of Q4 because I3 will sink as much extra current as Q3 sources. If Q4 sources the same amount of extra current, the net effect on the output to the next stage is zero. Similar reasoning shows that differential signals have an additive rather than a cancelling effect.

The input voltage of this type of opamp must not swing too close to the negative power supply rail, or else there will not be enough voltage across Q3 and Q4, and I2 and I3 to make them work correctly. The input voltage must not go too near to the positive supply either, or it will exceed the range of bias voltage which can be applied to the bases of Q3 and Q4.

Fig. 129 shows an opamp input circuit which can function with a common mode input voltage range down to the negative supply voltage. This type of circuitry is typical of LM324 and LM358 types of device, and is largely self explanatory.

The circuit in Fig. 30 shows a junction fet input stage of the type used in LF351 bifet opamps. This is also largely self explanatory. Inspection of the circuit shows that differences in the operating voltages of the two input fets translate directly in to input offset voltage. This works acceptably because the input fets are almost identical, as a result of being made on the same substrate.

FREQUENCY RESPONSE

So far we have considered dc amplification. Perhaps the majority of opamp applications are for ac amplification. For most amateur projects, amplification over the audio frequency range is needed. Fig. 131 shows the frequency and phase response of a typical opamp. The gain of the device has fallen substantially at frequencies above a few tens of hertz. If an opamp is to be chosen for an audio application, one of the selection criteria must be that its open loop gain is much higher than the required circuit gain at the maximum audio frequency to be used.

If the opamp's gain is inadequate, two problems will be apparent. First of all, the gain of the circuit will be lower than intended at the high frequency end. Secondly, distortion of high frequency signals will become significant. This is

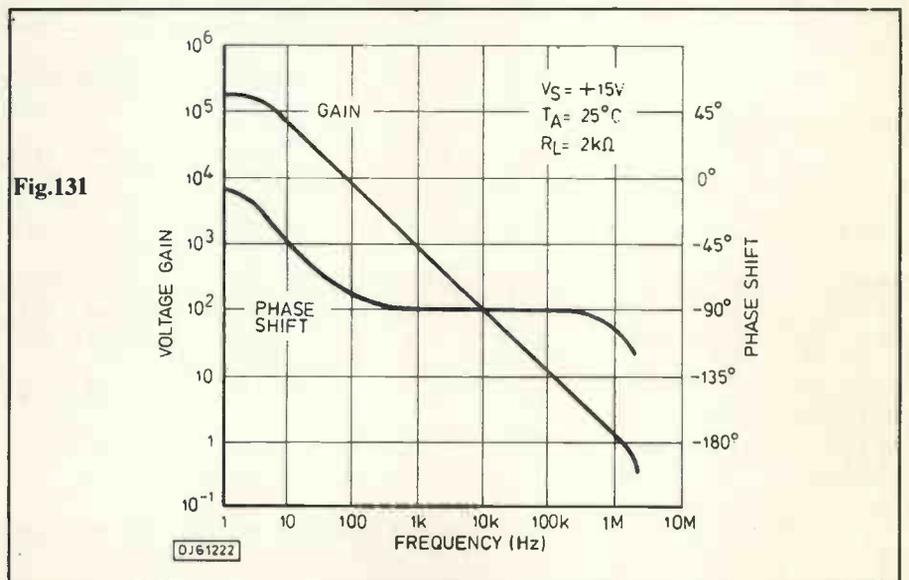
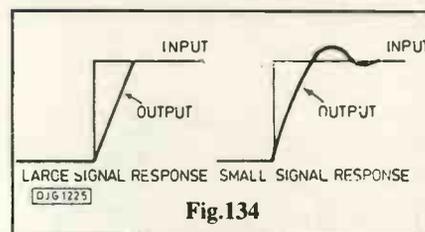
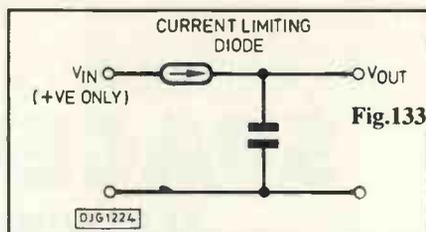
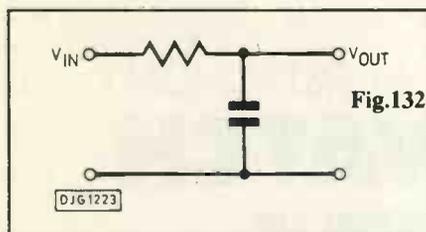


Fig.131



because the transfer characteristic of an opamp is not linear. It is only with the addition of substantial amounts of negative feedback that a circuit can be made to perform linearly. For both of these reasons, selection of an opamp to provide adequate gain at the maximum intended operating frequency is important.

Even if the opamp has sufficient gain at the intended operating frequency, it may not have a high enough slew rate to provide enough output voltage at the required frequency. Slew rate limitation is different from frequency response limitation, in that it is literally a limit on the rate of change of voltage on the output of the opamp. Simple frequency response limitation may result from single or multiple time constants operating linearly, such as the simple r/c circuit shown in Fig. 132. Though this circuit attenuates high frequencies, there is no absolute limit on the rate of change of the voltage on the capacitor — to get a specified rate of change of output voltage, it is simply necessary to provide a big enough input signal. The circuit of Fig. 133, on the other hand, has an absolute limit of the rate of change of output voltage. No matter how much voltage you feed in (short of damaging the circuit) the constant current device will not permit more than its specified current to flow. Therefore, the rate of change of voltage on the capacitor cannot exceed i/c. There effects are illustrated in Fig. 134, where the large signal response of an opamp shows an absolute limit on the rate of change of output voltage. The small signal response, on the other hand, shows the effects of linear time constants, caused by capacitances within the chip. The output slew rate limit is not reached because the amplitude of the output is small.

As well as specifying the frequency response and slew rate, some opamp data sheets also specify power bandwidth. This is the bandwidth at which useful power can be extracted from the amplifier, and is often much narrower than the bandwidth at which useful small signal gain can be extracted.

INTERFERENCE REJECTION

One characteristic of opamps mentioned earlier is common mode rejection. The meaning of this term is not that opamps should amplify only the difference in voltage between inverting and non-inverting inputs. Common mode signals, that is, those which are applied identically to both inputs, should result in no output. In practice, minor differences in response between the two inputs will result in common mode signals getting through to some extent. The higher the frequency of the common mode signal, the less it will be rejected, because different phase shifts between the two inputs will become more apparent.

Generally, however, the common mode rejection ratio (quoted in decibels) of the opamp itself, is normally much better than that of the circuit in which it is used, as we will see when we come to application circuits. The same cannot always be said of the power supply rejection ratio. Opamps are designed to function irrespective of ripple, noise, etc, on the power supply. It is certainly the case that, so long as the signal on the output does not get too close to the supply rails, and that the supplies remain adequate for correct functioning, slow variations in power supply voltage have negligible effect upon the functioning of an opamp. However, rapid variations are not so strongly rejected by the opamp, because some of its internal circuitry is quite slow.

As a result of this, high frequency noise on the power supply can adversely affect the operation of circuitry. This can become significant in precision instrumentation, or low noise audio applications.

That's enough theory for one month. In the next part, I will cover some practical opamp circuits. **PE**

BEWARE BATTERIES

There are some things in life that we tend to take for granted. When buying 9V batteries, how many people wonder if the contents are intact?

Recently, I bought a PP7 and on getting home found that it looked a bit dusty. Even though the flap was in place I became doubtful and took a voltage reading. The meter showed 9.5V, which I felt to be acceptable, until I plugged the battery into the apparatus. Down went the meter to 8.7V, and continued to fall as I watched. The circuit draws only 4.5mA, and there's no way a new battery should notice current that small.

Back at the shop I spoke to the manager. Checking the remaining stock, they all looked equally dusty, so I asked for my money back. He knows I'm 'something to do with electronics', and he obliged, apologetically.

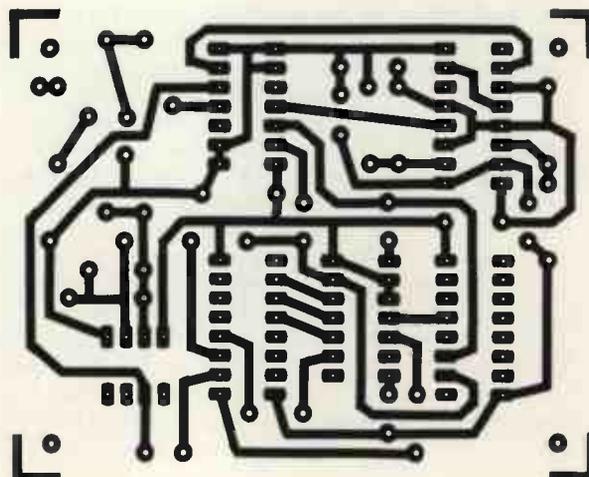
Turning to leave, I noticed him put the battery back on the shelf. "But it's as good as dead", I said, "and the rest of the batch, too, probably".

"I know", he replies, "but head office won't let me order new stock until the end of next month".

I have no way of knowing if another purchaser will unwittingly buy from that batch, but I left feeling very disturbed. Few of the shop's customers will think of checking newly bought batteries, or even have a meter to do so. Ed.

PCB TRACK PATTERN

THIS IS THE PRINTED CIRCUIT BOARD TRACK PATTERN FOR THE SIDEREAL CLOCK INTERFACE CIRCUIT. WHEN COPYING THE LAYOUT ENSURE THAT THE SPACING BETWEEN IC PIN HOLES IS PRECISELY 0.1 INCHES





The sale of Herstonceux Castle has been completed. Instead of going to a buyer who aimed to turn it into a science centre, preserving the telescopes for astronomical use, it has been sold to a developer who apparently means to convert it into an hotel. What will happen to the telescopes, the library, the archives and other items remains to be seen. At any rate, the Royal Greenwich Observatory will finally move out by the spring of 1990, and a chapter in the history of British astronomy will be closed – to the profound regret of virtually the entire astronomical community all over the world. Meanwhile, the foundation stone of the new building at Cambridge has been laid by Mr Jenkins, a junior Minister. Henceforth the RGO will be to all intents and purposes an office block; we can only hope that it will retain its separate identity, at least for the moment.

OUR REGULAR LOOK AT ASTRONOMY **SPACEWATCH**

BY DR PATRICK MOORE CBE

A HERCULEAN PROBLEM

Phobos I has been abandoned, but Phobos II is still healthy, Mercury may be an iron core wearing a borrowed mantle: particles from Hercules X-1 have been found, but the mystery remains.

At the time when I write these words (November 1988) the Russian probe Phobos 2 is still on its way to Mars, and should reach the vicinity of the Red Planet in the near future. All attempts to re-contact its twin, Phobos 1, have been abandoned; this is a failure which must be put down to human error – a faulty command was not overridden by the computer. Luckily it is Phobos 2 which carries the 'hopper' which will bound around the surface of the tiny Martian satellite, so that all is not lost. Voyager 2, en route for Neptune, is apparently in good order, and ready for its final and most demanding task. We will hope for success; if it fails, then we may have a long wait before finding out much more about the outermost giant planet.

A new theory of the origin of Mercury has been proposed by American scientists. Mercury is very dense, with a large, iron-

rich core and a detectable magnetic field; it is now suggested that in its early stages it suffered collision with a 'protoplanet' about one-sixth of the mass of the proto-Mercury, so that the silicate mantle was stripped off and the iron core left. The present mantle would have been collected later. Whether this is correct or not remains to be seen, but it would certainly explain why Mercury is so much denser than Venus or, for that matter, Mars.

The Quadrantid meteors should be well seen this year, on January 3-4. This shower has a short, sharp maximum, and is not associated with any known comet. It now seems that the perihelion distance of the swarm is steadily increasing, and in 500 years or so will no longer intersect the orbit of the Earth, so that so far as we are concerned the Quadrantid shower will have a limited life.

The Sky This Month

The brilliant display of planets is now subsiding to some extent. Mercury is technically an evening object in the early part of the month, but is not likely to be seen after the first week; Saturn is out of view altogether; and though Mars is still prominent after dark, it is now fading quickly, and by the end of the month its apparent diameter will be down to below 8 seconds of arcs as against well over 20 seconds in the late summer, when the planet was almost as close to us as it can ever be.

That leaves the two most brilliant planets, Venus and Jupiter. Even Venus is past its best for the moment; it is still in the dawn sky, but by the end of January it is running into the morning light, and since the phase is over 90 per cent virtually nothing will be seen on its disk. Jupiter restores the balance to some extent; it remains in Taurus, almost stationary in the area of Aldebaran and the Pleiades cluster. This is a good time to look for the Galilean satellites, which are bright enough to be seen with any small telescope or even good binoculars.

We now know that the Galileans are fascinating worlds. Ganymede and Callisto are icy and cratered, Europa icy and smooth, and Io red and volcanic. Io's sulphur volcanoes are unlike anything else known to us, and have no doubt been in eruption ever since the early days of the Solar System. It is interesting to look at Io through a telescope and note its colour. Reports over past years have been variable - I remember that years ago (around 1955),

long before the Space Age, I even wrote a paper about it, pointing out that the descriptions given by different observers did not agree at all well. Generally speaking I see Io as white, or no more than slightly 'off-white'; others may not agree.

Orion now dominates the evening sky, and will continue to do so until the spring. With its brilliant leaders, the red Betelgeuse and the white Rigel, it cannot be mistaken. It is associated with its brilliant retinue – and this a good time to see Sirius, the Dog-Star, which is much the most brilliant star in the sky (though it cannot rival the brightest planets). Sirius is pure white, though ancient observers called it red; it is unlikely that there has been any real change, either in Sirius itself or in its faint, super-dense companion, but an element of mystery remains. Of course, it is the supreme "twinkler" of the sky, partly because of its brilliance and partly because as seen from Britain it is never very high up. Not far from it, in the same binocular field with the fourth-magnitude, orange star Nu2 is a fine open cluster, Messier 41, which is visible with the naked eye and can be resolved with high-power binoculars.

Capella is now almost at the zenith, which means that Vega skirts the northern horizon and will probably not be seen at all. Ursa Major is in the north-east; Pegasus has almost vanished in the west, and Leo, the Lion, is coming into view in the east. This is a good time to scan the Milky Way, which can be followed across the sky from Cygnus in the north down to Canis Major in the south.

THE PROBLEM OF HERCULES X-1

Of all the X-ray sources in the sky, one of the most interesting is Hercules X-1, which can be detected optically as well as in gamma-rays and X-rays. Its emission varies in three ways; a fast pulsation (1.2378 seconds), a slower intensity change (1.7 days) and a longer on-off cycle (35 days). Apparently the system consists of a small, very dense neutron star orbiting around a Main Sequence star rather larger than the Sun; the neutron star accumulates an accretion disk by pulling material away from its companion. Material in the disk falls on to the neutron star, hitting the surface at high speed and generating an X-ray beam which

rotates with the neutron star and producing the fast pulsation. The neutron star orbits its companion in 1.7 days, and the disk of material oscillates, hiding the neutron star in the 35-day cycle.

Scientists, both British and American, have now looked for cascades of light rays and sub-atomic particles produced by the high-energy radiation crashing into our upper air. The light has been detected by using an array of 64 instruments spread over an area 100 x 100 metres in the mountains near Los Alamos, New Mexico; the particles – mainly muons – have been detected from an underground laboratory actually built for a different investigation. The light and the muons arrive at the same

time, and agree with the fast pulsation period closely – but not quite; the period is 2/1000 second shorter. It may be that while the X-rays come from the surface of the neutron star, the higher energy radiation comes from a region beyond. There are, also, more muons than would be expected relative to the light emission. The energy of these particles is higher than anything which has been produced in the laboratory, and at present the reason is unclear.

Certainly Hercules X-1 has presented us with many problems. It is 15,000 light-years away, so that at all events it must be a remarkably powerful source of radiation over much of the electromagnetic spectrum!

PE

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LEADING EDGE

Continued from page 8

width aerial could well suffer from interference.

A flat aerial is also likely to have spurious side lobes. It will pick up signal from quite different directions, well outside the nominal beam width. Again this could give problems if the side lobes happen to point in the direction of a high power broadcasting satellite.

Or the side lobes may be looking at the ground. This matters, because the earth is at relatively high temperature and effectively "glowing" with random noise radiation. This noise will degrade the picture signal, however efficient the Inb is at amplifying and frequency down converting the dbs signal. So the received picture signal may be worse than expected.

For receiving analogue tv pictures, it is dangerous policy to regard high powered transmitters in the sky as a way of reducing dish size to 30cms or even less, especially as the orbital slots get more and more crowded in the future.

Instead of going for smaller aerials, it is better to use the high power available from a direct broadcast satellite to guar-

antee good pictures even on rainy days from a slightly larger dish.

The small plate aerial will eventually come into its own for receiving digital radio. Because the signal is digital, the receiver can much more easily reject noise and interference from other satellites.

BSB's rival in the satellite race, Astra, has a "dish farm" at its Luxemburg base, where all types and sizes of aerial are tested.

A flat aerial was launched in a blaze of publicity at a satellite exhibition in Britain over a year ago, by US company Comsat. But it has never appeared. In Japan several companies, including Sony, sell flat plate aerials but they are relatively large and cost around £300, which is more than the price peg for the complete BSB system.

In America the satellite industry has grown very wary of claims for low cost flat aerials. Recently more than 350 satellite dealers in Colorado paid cash deposits of up to \$2,500 each to one manufacturer for flat aerials which arrived late, cost more than promised and did not perform as well as claimed. Another manufacturer took deposits of

\$5,000 and has never delivered even a prototype.

Although BSB won publicity with its dramatic unveiling of the Squarial the dish-versus-plate debate could well soon become academic. The Astra satellite was launched in December and if all goes well it will be broadcasting several channels of entertainment, in the conventional PAL tv system without any scrambling, before the end of the year. All the major electronics companies are promising Astra dish receiver systems.

BSB is not due for launch until next autumn and it will be broadcasting encrypted programmes in the new MAC transmission system. Although the MAC system can give clearer pictures than PAL, this is of little consequence to a public which is generally content to watch poor pictures on maladjusted sets. The most important advantage of MAC is that it lays the ground work for a future of high definition television.

Since receiving this report from Barry, Sir Clive Sinclair has produced his new 60cm flat antenna, which is the prize in this month's competition – see page 61. Ed

PE

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TIME AND FREQUENCY MEASUREMENT

BY ANTHONY H. SMITH, BSc.

PART THREE: THE QUARTZ CRYSTAL TIMEBASE

"A person with one watch knows what time it is; a person with two watches is never sure." – Proverb.

When measuring any physical quantity, the precision of the measurement is ultimately dictated by the accuracy and stability of the reference quantity or "standard" with which we compare the unknown quantity. In the universal counter timer (uct) this standard is actually the timebase oscillator, and all frequency and time measurements are made by electronically comparing the input signal with the timebase frequency.

Frequency standards fall into two basic categories – "primary" standards and "secondary" standards. Primary standards are effectively "absolute" standards in that they require no other reference for calibration. Two primary standards in common use are the caesium beam resonator and the hydrogen maser. These standards produce an output frequency which is solely determined by the quantum effects associated with atomic energy level changes. As might be expected, both of these standards are extremely accurate. For example, the caesium resonator in laboratory conditions can achieve accuracies as high as part 1 in 10^{13} , equivalent to a gain or loss of only nine nanoseconds per day. It is this kind of precision which makes it possible to be 1000 times more accurate when measuring time and frequency than in the measurement of any other physical quantity.

Secondary frequency standards such as the rubidium vapour resonator and the quartz crystal oscillator differ from primary standards in that they are not self-calibrating: once constructed, a secondary standard must be compared with a caesium resonator or some other primary standard in order to set its frequency exactly.

Obviously, it seems desirable that we should use a primary standard as the timebase oscillator in a counter-timer, and, as we shall see in part four, taking advantage of the remarkable precision and stability of the caesium resonator is not too difficult.

However, just about every commercially available uct incorporates a secondary standard as its reference frequency, and almost invariably this takes the form of a quartz crystal oscillator. The popularity of the quartz oscillator is due in no small part to its simplicity, its reliability, its accuracy, and also the fact that it is relatively inexpensive.

Nevertheless, the quartz crystal does not

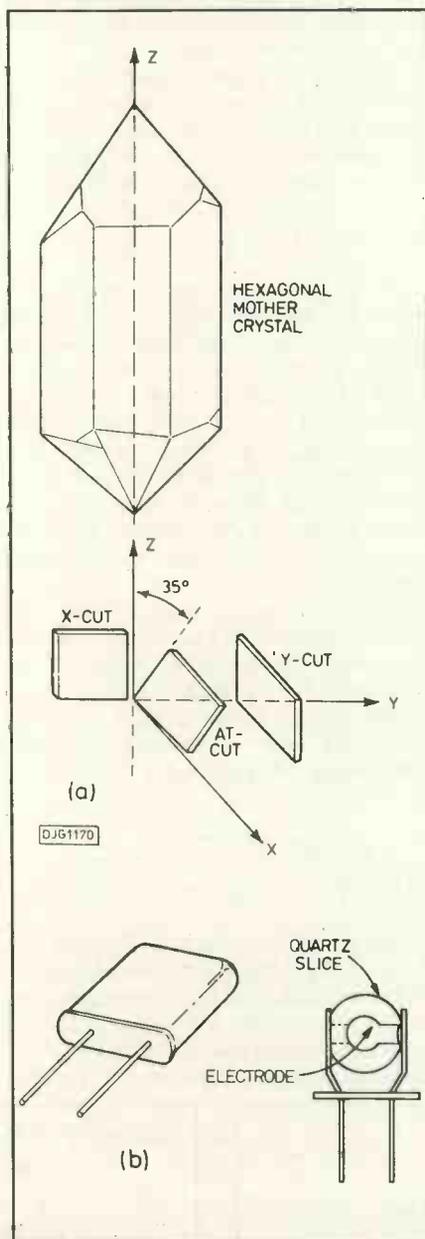


Fig.1(A) Various cuts from the synthetic crystal. (B) Mounted crystal and enclosure.

possess magical qualities, and is subject to a variety of factors which limit its effectiveness.

Consider, for example, two 8-digit ucts used to make frequency measurements; the fact that we have eight digits gives us confidence that our measurements will be

accurate to at least 1 part in 10^8 . However, there is the possibility that the instruments may give different readings when measuring the same frequency: provided the ucts are performing correctly, this implies that one or both of the quartz timebase oscillators has deviated from its initial calibration frequency due to the influence of one or more electrical or environmental effects.

Consequently, it is in our interests to understand the nature and operation of the quartz resonator in order to be able to compensate for, or even eliminate, those mechanisms responsible for inaccurate behaviour.

ABUNDANT BEGINNINGS

There are almost 3000 known minerals and of these quartz is unique in that it is the most abundant, and also provides all the properties required of a frequency control material. However, naturally occurring crystals are unsuitable for immediate use due to the presence of defects and impurities.

Consequently, raw quartz, usually shipped in from Brazil, is processed using a hydrothermal method where it is dissolved at very high temperatures and pressures in a special vessel known as an "autoclave". This method produces very pure, "synthetic" crystals having the hexagonal shape shown in Fig. 1a.

Small slices of quartz are then cut from the mother crystal and are mounted in glass or metallic enclosures (Fig. 1b).

The actual "cut" of the slice relative to the crystal axes is particularly important since it determines the Q-factor and temperature coefficient of the crystal. For example, the X- and Y-cuts both exhibit large temperature coefficients, whereas the frequency of the popular AT-cut crystal varies only slightly with changes in temperature.

The actual resonant frequency of the crystal is determined mainly by its thickness. The precision used in controlling the slice thickness dictates how close the resonant frequency is to its nominal value. Gold-plating is sometimes used in critical applications to "fine-tune" the crystal frequency; a layer just one atom thick can change the frequency by as much as 2 parts in 10^7 . For AT-cut crystals, the nominal frequency can range from a few hundred

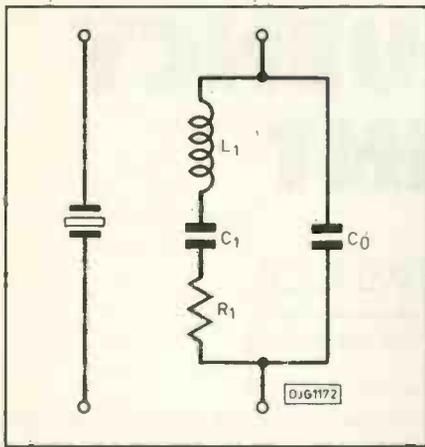


Fig. 2. Quartz crystal symbol and equivalent circuit.

kilohertz up to around 200MHz; 10MHz is a popular choice for use in uct timebase oscillators.

THE PIEZOELECTRIC EFFECT

Several types of crystals, particularly quartz, exhibit a property known as the piezoelectric effect whereby a mechanical stress applied to the crystal generates a directionally related electric field; conversely, an electric field applied across the crystal produces a directional force within the crystal lattice. Thus, applying an alternating voltage across the crystal causes it to vibrate; this, in turn, generates an alternating electric field, and provided the frequency of the applied voltage is close to the mechanical resonance of the crystal, the generated field will be considerably enhanced, thus stabilising the frequency of the applied signal.

It is the particularly high Q-factor of the mechanical resonance which gives quartz its attractive frequency selective properties. Electrically, the crystal behaves as an LCR tuned circuit and can be represented by the equivalent circuit shown in Fig. 2.

L_1 is a function of the quartz mass, C_1 is determined by the crystal stiffness, and R_1 represents the frictional losses of the crystal and its mounting arrangement. C_0 represents the shunt capacitance of the crystal electrodes and the holder capacitance.

Generally, L_1 is large and C_1 and R_1 are very small in good-quality crystals; for a

2MHz crystal, $L_1=520\text{mH}$, $C_1=0.012\text{pF}$ and $R_1=100\Omega$ are typical values leading to a Q-factor (given by $Q = 2\pi fL_1/R_1$) in excess of 65,000!

Because of the high Q-factor, the reactance of the crystal changes dramatically around the resonant frequency as shown in Fig. 3

At low frequencies, the reactance of L_1 is relatively small and the crystal appears capacitive. However, at a frequency f_s the $L_1C_1R_1$ branch is *series resonant*, where $\omega_s L_1 = 1/\omega_s C_1$. Thus: $f_s = 1/2\pi\sqrt{L_1 C_1}$.

At this frequency, the reactance of C_0 is much larger than R_1 , and so the crystal impedance is essentially just the resistance of R_1 which is very small.

At a slightly higher frequency known as the *parallel resonant frequency*, f_p , the effective reactance of the series branch has the same magnitude as the reactance of C_0 : $(\omega p L_1 - 1/\omega p C_1) = 1/\omega p C_0$, and so:

$$f_p = \frac{1}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{1}{L_1} \left(\frac{1}{C_1} + \frac{1}{C_0} \right)}$$

At f_p , the crystal again appears purely resistive, but this time it presents an extremely large resistance across its terminals. For, say, a 2MHz crystal, $C_1=0.012\text{pF}$ and $C_0=4\text{pF}$ are typical values, and so $1/C_1 \gg 1/C_0$. Thus, ignoring $1/C_0$, we see that the expression for f_p reduces to that for f_s , and so the series resonant frequency is approximately equal to the parallel resonant frequency (sometimes called the "anti-resonant frequency").

However, when dealing with the accuracy required of a uct crystal timebase, this rough approximation is simply not acceptable. For example, consider a crystal which has a series resonant frequency $f_s=10\text{MHz}$, and $C_1=0.024\text{pF}$, $C_0=6.0\text{pF}$. Rearranging our expressions for f_s and f_p we find that:

$$f_p = f_s \sqrt{1 + C_1/C_0}, \text{ and so } f_p = 10^7 \sqrt{(1 + 0.024/6)} = 10.019980 \text{ MHz.}$$

We see that f_p is almost 0.2% higher than f_s ; at first sight this doesn't seem too large a difference. But, we must remember that our 8-digit uct requires a timebase frequency accurate to better than 1 part in 10^8 . If the timebase is only accurate to, say, 1 part in

10^7 , then the least significant digit (lsd) will be meaningless. Similarly, an accuracy of just 1 part in 10^6 means that the lsd and the next significant digit will both be meaningless, and so on. Generally speaking, the timebase accuracy must be better than 1 part in 10^n , where n is the number of digits in the display. In light of this requirement, a frequency deviation of 0.2% is *huge*, and in fact it constitutes a difference of 200,000 parts in 10^6 !

This example illustrates an important consideration when designing any crystal oscillator, namely that a crystal with a nominal frequency stamped on its can will be resonant at *two* frequencies, one of which will be very close to the nominal value, whereas the other - as we have seen above - may differ considerably from it. Note, also, that the nominal value is not necessarily the series resonant frequency, and in fact for most crystals designed to operate below 20MHz, the specified value usually refers to the parallel resonant frequency.

OSCILLATOR OPERATION

It is the crystal's exceptionally high Q-factor which provides much greater frequency stability than can be obtained using discrete inductors and capacitors, and Q's in excess of 10^6 can be obtained using exacting manufacturing techniques.

However, a high Q alone is by no means sufficient to guarantee stable operation at the desired frequency, and a variety of other factors must be accommodated before we can have any confidence in the oscillator accuracy.

All crystals are cut to resonate at a specified frequency under a given set of operating conditions, such as temperature, drive level, load capacitance, etc. For example, a 10MHz crystal might be cut to be parallel resonant when the external capacitance across its terminals is 32pF. Consequently, not only must we ensure that the crystal is used in a parallel-mode oscillator, but also that the capacitive loading of the crystal is as close as possible to 32pF.

Even with all the operating conditions just right, it is unlikely that the crystal will oscillate at exactly the nominal frequency, because crystals, like all other components,

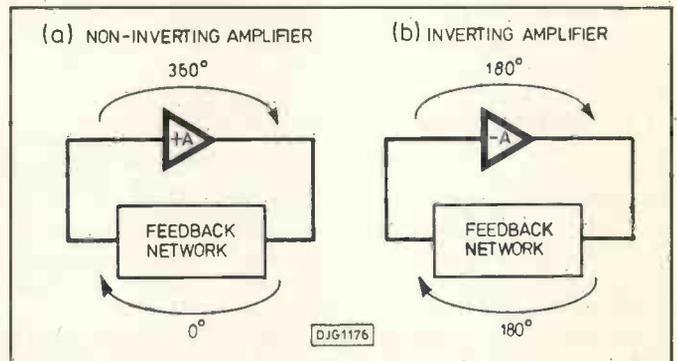
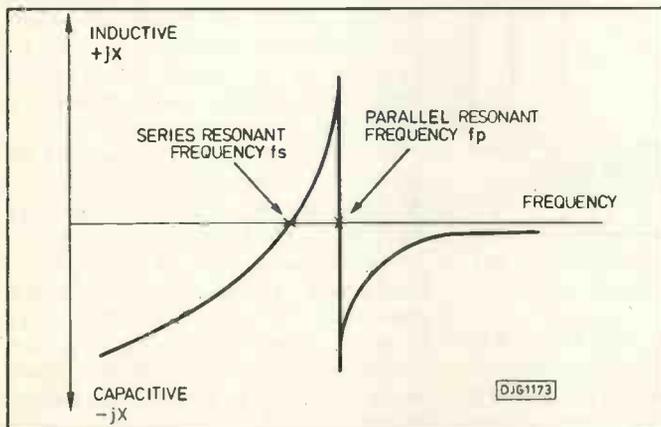


Fig. 3. (Left) Crystal impedance as a function of frequency. Fig. 4. (Above) Practical oscillator configurations

can only be manufactured within certain tolerance limits. Most manufacturers use precision saws or even laser cutting techniques to cut each crystal slice, and X-ray crystallographic techniques are often employed to determine the exact angle of cut. Nevertheless, some deviation from the nominal frequency will always remain.

For example, a nominal 10MHz crystal with a frequency tolerance of ± 20 ppm (parts per million) could resonate at any frequency from 9,999,800Hz to 10,000,200Hz; consequently, all timebase oscillators must have some means of fine adjustment to allow precise calibration of the output frequency.

In practice, all oscillators fall into two groups depending on whether they incorporate a non-inverting amplifier or an inverting type - see Fig. 4.

For any design to sustain oscillations, the loop gain must be greater than unity to make up for losses around the circuit, and the loop phase shift must be zero.

Thus, for the configuration of Fig. 4a, the feedback network must provide zero phase shift at the operating frequency. Consequently, a crystal can be used as the feedback network since it exhibits zero phase shift at its series resonant frequency f_s . The operating frequency can be changed slightly by inserting a capacitor, equal to the specified load capacitance, in series with the crystal. This has the effect of "pulling" the series resonant frequency up towards the parallel resonant frequency, and by making the capacitor a trimmer we have a convenient means of tuning out the crystal tolerance while still maintaining a very high Q-factor.

For the configuration of Fig. 4b, the feedback network is required to provide a 180° phase inversion; a suitable arrangement is shown conceptually in Fig. 5 which represents a Pierce or Colpitts oscillator. For 180° phase shift the network requires that the sum of the two capacitive reactances cancels the inductive reactance.

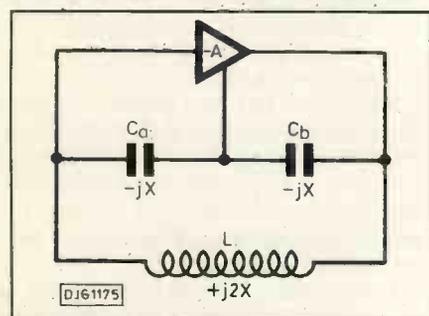
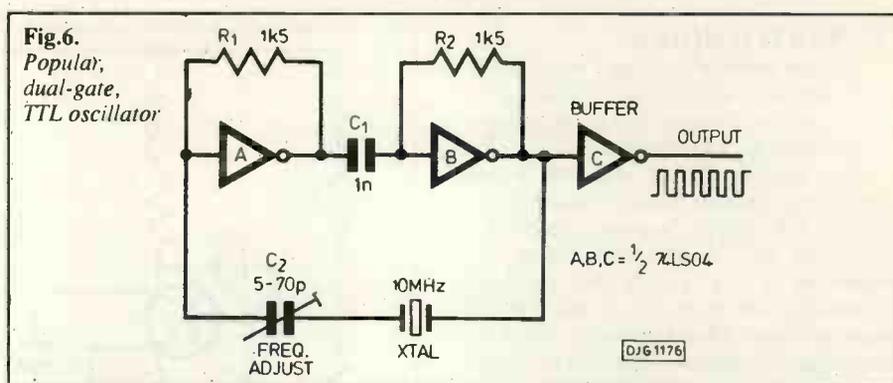


Fig. 5. Pierce or Colpitts oscillator.

Now, referring again to Fig. 3, we see that the crystal impedance is inductive over the frequency range f_s to f_p . Thus, we can substitute the crystal for the inductive reactance of Fig. 5, and provided the total capacitance (including C_a , C_b and any strays) presented to the crystal equals its specified load capacitance, the circuit will oscillate at the required frequency. By making C_a or C_b a trimmer, we can again



fine-tune the output frequency.

Fig. 5 can easily be adapted to represent a Hartley or Miller oscillator, and indeed there is a variety of oscillator configurations which can be designed using a crystal as the frequency selective element. Beware, however, that not all configurations are suitable as timebase oscillators, and incorporating a crystal into a poor design can actually reduce the Q-factor and thus degrade frequency stability.

TYPICAL DESIGNS

Fig. 6 shows a much-used TTL oscillator, popular, no doubt, because many digital systems have several spare inverters or gates which can be pressed into service as the active elements.

Inverters A and B are biased into the linear region by R_1 and R_2 , and constitute an overall non-inverting amplifier; C_1 merely provides ac coupling. The feedback network comprises the series resonant crystal in series with trimmer C_2 .

An advantage of the circuit is that the output is rectangular, not a sine wave, and so it can drive directly the digital circuitry of the uct. Unfortunately, the design has several major disadvantages. Firstly, the inverters (which were never really intended as linear amplifiers) can introduce a lagging phase shift (particularly troublesome at high frequencies) in addition to the required 360° . Consequently, trimmer C_2 must be made relatively large in order to compensate for the unwanted phase shift, as well as being necessary to tune out the crystal tolerance. Even with C_2 adjusted to cancel the phase lag, the presence of the

non-linear active stages within the inverters means the lag may vary over the operating cycle, resulting in poor short-term frequency stability, or "jitter".

DRIVE LEVEL

A second disadvantage is that the high gain of the inverters often causes the crystal to be operated at an excessively high "drive level".

The drive level of the crystal refers to the power dissipated within it. With too little drive, the crystal receives insufficient energy to sustain resonant vibrations, and the circuit simply fails to oscillate.

Too much drive, however, may lead to excitation of spurious crystal modes, causing extreme frequency shift. Even when operating at the correct resonant mode, the heating effect caused by excessive power dissipation can lead to serious, but reversible, frequency shifts. Eventually, however, the excessive drive can fracture the crystal causing an irreversible change in frequency.

Obviously, then, we should not exceed the maximum drive level specified for a particular crystal (values range from a few microwatts below 100kHz to about 10mW in the 20MHz region), and precision oscillator designs usually hold the drive level constant at a value well below the maximum rating by means of an agc (automatic gain control) circuit. The need for a constant drive is important, since a change of just 10 microwatts can cause a frequency deviation of 1 part in 10^8 - large enough to distort the value of the lsd of an 8-digit uct.

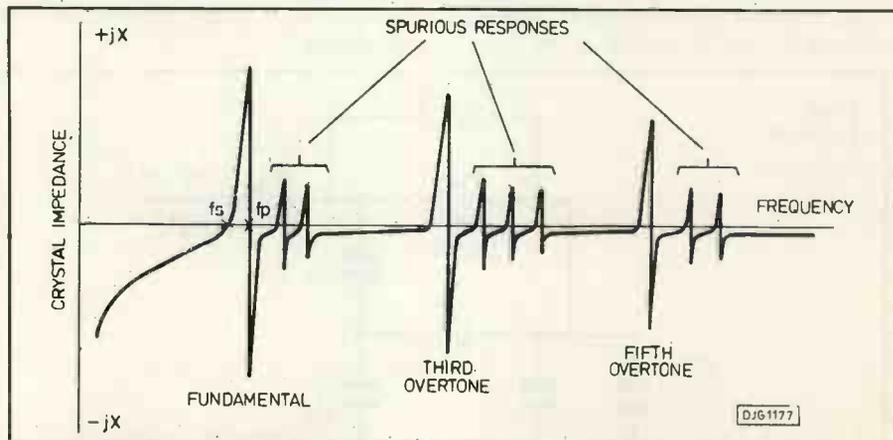


Fig. 7. Quartz crystal overtone response.

UNWANTED MODES

Another problem associated with the TTL oscillator (and several other oscillators for that matter), is the possibility of oscillation at an unwanted resonant frequency.

We saw in Fig. 3 that the crystal impedance becomes purely resistive at the series and parallel resonant frequencies: these are the "fundamental" frequencies. However, if we extend the frequency response as shown in Fig. 7, we find that there are many other frequencies where the impedance becomes resistive, and the crystal can resonate at any of these points.

Several of these frequencies known as "overtones" are beneficial. Since the frequency of the crystal is inversely proportional to its thickness, it follows that very high frequencies require extremely thin crystal slices which are fragile and prone to damage.

An alternative, however, is to operate a relatively thick crystal at an overtone frequency, this being an approximate multiple of the fundamental frequency. Generally, third overtone crystals are used from 20 to 60MHz, and fifth overtones from 60 to 125MHz.

In addition to overtones, there are several spurious resonant frequencies, and unless carefully designed the oscillator may lock onto one of these spuri and oscillate at a frequency several hundred kilohertz different from the required value.

In order to avoid spurious oscillation, an LC tuned circuit resonant at the required frequency can be incorporated into the oscillator at a suitable point. For example, in the TTL design, C_1 can be replaced by a series LC branch resonant at 10MHz.

Note that inverter C of Fig. 6 is used to buffer the oscillator from the load. This is important in any oscillator design, since changes in the load can cause significant frequency drift. Consequently, buffering the output timebase output is essential, since the load (ie, the number of logic devices being clocked) can vary considerably depending on the particular function selected.

CMOS PIERCE OSCILLATOR

An improvement on the dual gate oscillator is shown in Fig. 8, which depicts a Pierce oscillator (compare Fig. 5) using the high-speed CMOS inverter A as the active

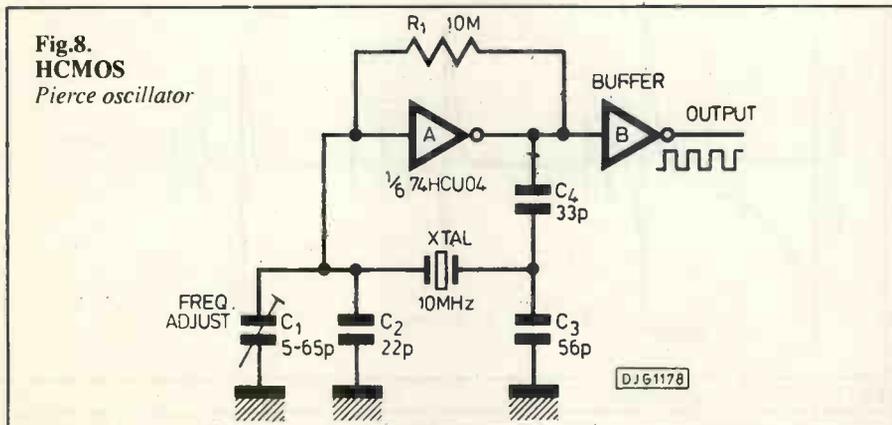


Fig. 8.
HCMOS
Pierce oscillator

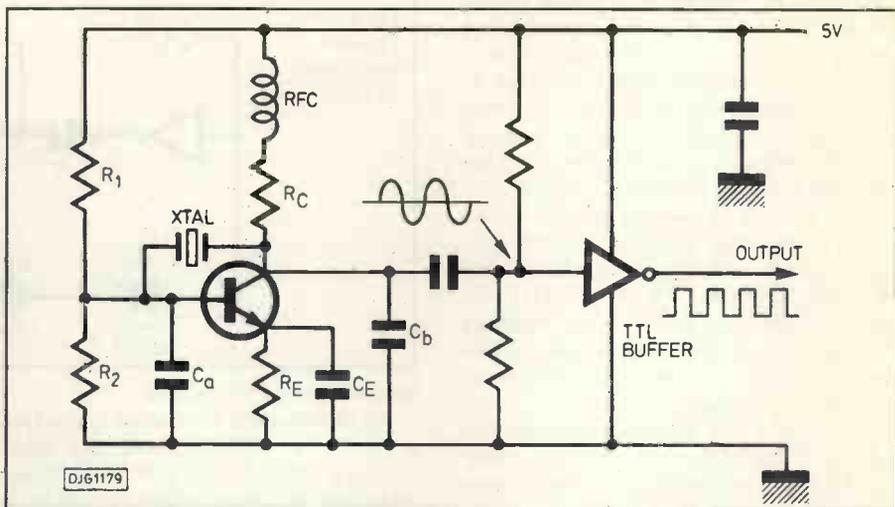


Fig. 9. Discrete Pierce crystal oscillator

device. This inverter provides the required gain and 180° phase shift, while the π -network comprising C_3 , the crystal, and C_1 in parallel with C_2 , provides the remaining 180° shift. C_4 is used simply to match the inverter output impedance to the total load, and R_1 provides dc bias for the inverter.

The 74HCU04 inverter is well suited to the application because its high input impedance does not load the π -network. Also, unlike its buffered counterpart the 74HC04, it contains only one active stage which results in better linearity and improved phase stability. Furthermore, the single stage means lower gain, thus reducing the likelihood of excessive crystal drive.

A particularly important feature of any timebase oscillator is its stability in response to supply voltage changes. For a prototype of the Pierce oscillator in Fig. 8, the frequency was found to change by only 23 parts in 10^8 when the 5V supply was varied by $\pm 1\%$: bearing in mind the simplicity of the circuit, this is a particularly good figure of merit.

Netheless, a deviation of 23 parts in 10^8 will cause an unacceptable error in the two least significant digits of the 8-digit output, and it goes without saying that good supply regulation is essential.

OPTIMISING PERFORMANCE

For more demanding applications, the circuit of Fig. 9 usually provides improved performance.

The oscillator is a Pierce type (compare again Fig. 5) with the bjt as the active device. Using a discrete transistor instead of a logic gate allows much more control over circuit parameters – particularly gain and drive level – such that the designer can optimise the overall oscillator performance.

Also, using a single bjt reduces unwanted phase shifts, and the improved linearity minimises jitter. The presence of the rf choke is not essential, but does reduce the likelihood of spurious oscillations. Note, also, how bias resistors R_1 and R_2 do not shunt the crystal: in any design, unnecessary loading of the crystal should be avoided since it reduces the Q-factor, thus degrading frequency stability.

The TTL buffer is required to provide a rectangular output and to isolate the oscillator from the load.

OFF-THE-SHELF TIMEBASE

Nowadays, a variety of manufacturers offer complete crystal oscillators housed in a 14-pin dil metal-can package. These devices usually run off a 5V supply and are convenient in that they provide a direct output and require no external components – the crystal and all oscillator electronics are housed within the can.

Furthermore, they have the advantage that all salient parameters – such as frequency tolerance, temperature characteristic, aging rate, etc – are specified within guaranteed limits. Thus, the designer is offered a ready-made timebase which operates at a defined level of accuracy.

Unfortunately, these products are not a panacea for all oscillator problems, since the quality can vary considerably from one manufacturer to another. Many of the oscillator designs suffer from the kind of problems discussed previously, and mechanical shortcomings, such as stressed wire bonds, can result in poor reliability.

Consequently, as with quartz crystals themselves, it is important to deal with a reputable manufacturer who will guarantee reliable operation under the stated conditions.

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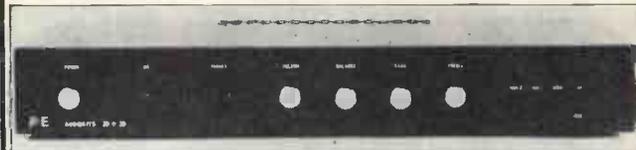
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MORE LETTERS

STAR TRACK

Dear Ed,

As an amateur astronomer with an interest in electronics I was drawn to the front cover of your September edition with its picture of a ccd and telescope. I had not brought your magazine for several years and was pleased to note the astronomy orientated articles.

Regarding Mr Trice's letter in the same issue I was surprised that you appeared to believe a variable speed drive unit beyond the capabilities of amateurs. Like Mr Trice, I have little experience of circuit design but I'm sure your good selves would be able to come up with something. Indeed your October 1970 (yes, 1970!) edition contained a design for just such a unit (though minus joystick control). This could probably be easily updated. Also *Sky and Telescope* magazine of May 84

ran an article called 'Drive Correcting with a Joystick' which might also interest Mr Trice and others.

Keep up the good work.
Brian Stirland, Hucknall

Ah! you seem to have misread my reply - it's not the capabilities that were questioned, its the expense of doing the job as satisfactorily as John Mason (editor of our sister magazine Astronomy Now) feels it should be done. I also asked readers to offer me suitable astronomy-related circuits.

I have looked at the 1970 article, and I feel that although it was no doubt a good circuit for its time, it might be regarded as having deficiencies in this higher-tech age. For example, it cannot be computer controlled, it operates in one plane only, and is likely to suffer from speed changes with temperature variations, even though a simple compensatory circuit has been

included. I cannot comment on the S and T circuit as I haven't seen it.

We will be pleased to supply photocopies of the PE 'Telescope Tracker' article of Oct 70 to anyone interested - at the normal rates of £1 to UK readers, £1.50 to overseas, including post. Local libraries may be able to get copies of the S and T article for anyone interested.

Incidentally, I briefly lived in Hucknall during the 1950s and still remember the amazing sight of the Flying Bedstead being tested by Rolls Royce - experiments that resulted in jump-jet aircraft like the Harrier.

Ed.

electromagnetic waves from their structure if suitably excited.'

My thanks to E&WW and all readers who sent me copies of this article.

Ed

IF AND RF CHIPS

Dear Ed,

Eric Cook in his letter published in PE Sept 88 asked for information on SL612 and SL613 if and rf opamps. Their equivalents SL1612 and SL1613 are available from Cirkit, 53 Burrfields Road, Portsmouth, Hants, PO3 5EB.

Anonymous Caller

FRUITY TV

Dear Ed,

Mr Osibo (Letters PE Dec 88) was right! Electronics and Wireless World published an article about tv reception with a papaya tree as the antenna in July 1984.

Gerald Bettridge, Eton College Science Dept

So they did! It's a complex argument but to quote E&WW '... studies reveal that certain geometrically-shaped vegetation, due to water and chlorophyll content vis-a-vis their dynamic complex dielectric properties can sustain, propagate and radiate

CIRCUIT SUGGESTIONS

Dear Ed,

How about publishing a series on model railway control by radio?
H.A. Nichol, Braintree, Essex

I would like you to publish an article on 35MHz to model aeroplane radio control systems.

S.P. Croft, Cumbria.

I should be delighted to publish circuits for both ideas if anyone offers me interesting articles on them.

Ed

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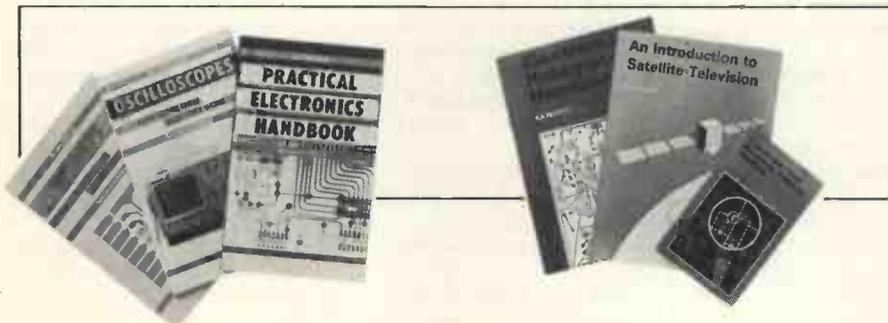
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TECHNOLOGICAL HUBRIS

BY TOM IVALL

WE CAN DO ANYTHING....

... even blow ourselves up with our own fail-safe devices. The torpedo won't turn round? Never mind - we'll turn the ship. We could do anything - if we knew what we were doing.

"Technology is not the problem - we can do anything", said the eminent head of an international satellite organisation at a conference I attended recently. He was actually pointing out that the major difficulties in setting up new communications satellite systems are now institutional or political rather than technological. In other words, human wishes, intentions, ideals, ambitions etc, are now the real heart of the problems that have to be dealt with. But I couldn't help feeling that the throwaway remark "Technology ... can do anything" was typical of an attitude which is very prevalent in electronics these days.

The context in which it was spoken was telecommunications. Here it's very easy to be confident about the powers of the technology, because the electronics is only required to do a job for which it is extremely well adapted - transmitting and processing information - and nothing more than that. But when the electronics is part of a larger process - say mechanical position control in aircraft or factory control systems, or stimulation of nerve fibres inside the human body - it's a very different story.

Here the electronic information processing is more subservient and very much under pressure from the conditions imposed by the physical system and its environment. For example, electronic implants inside the human body have to work reliably while permanently immersed in a warm saline solution - the natural body fluids. Can you imagine anything much worse as an environment for electrical apparatus!

What I have called technological hubris, to borrow a Greek word meaning insolent pride or security, has been greatly encouraged by the software revolution. Ever since Alan Turing showed that a computing machine can be specified completely in terms of its actions, which can be described as a set of rules of operation and in turn represented by symbols standing for both the numbers and the instructions for operation on them, we have soared gloriously above the limitations of mere phys-

ical materials. There is no metal, plastic, semiconductor material etc, to wear out, get broken, or become corroded or chemically decomposed. Software is totally reliable in the non-physical sense that it continues to provide exactly the same function for ten, a hundred, a thousand, a million years after it was designed. Nothing can go wrong with it, any more than the rules of logic can show signs of wear after many centuries of use.

If we have a problem to be solved and can break down the solution into a series of procedural steps we call the result - after the 9th century Arabic mathematician Abu Jafar Mohammed, whose nickname was Al-Kharizmi - an algorithm. In turn an algorithm can be implemented on a real machine as a set of instructions, or program. Nowadays the machine is likely to consist of electronic logic devices in the form of digital integrated circuits. But, as the philosopher John Searle recently remarked, it could just as well be made of old beer cans for all that this matters to the program as such.

However, we normally want to use the software for some practical purpose so old beer cans are not quite the thing. It's when we start applying the inviolable logic and reliability of the software to the messy and unpredictable characteristics of the real world - which include human failings - that we run into difficulties.

For example, a safety system was designed to prevent a torpedo from accidentally turning round in mid course and heading back to destroy the warship which launched it. This system worked by detecting that the torpedo had turned through 180° and then detonating it before it could get back to the launching ship. Unfortunately, in a test of the system, the second time a torpedo was launched, with a live warhead, the driving motor failed and left the live torpedo still sitting in the launching tube. The ship's captain decided to abandon the testing and return to port. But he had forgotten the safety system. When the ship turned round to go back home the torpedo exploded in the tube.

There have been many other 'own goals'

in the systems engineering world, some with disastrous consequences. One remembers nuclear power accidents and the shooting down of civilian airliners. These should be enough to restrain overconfidence in systems design, which in my view is a result of intellectual arrogance fostered by a mistaken reliance on the perfection of software.

And the business of implementing the software in hardware is not all that straightforward either. When the Royal Signals and Radar Establishment did an investigation of commercial microprocessor chips they discovered that the devices can be so complicated that even experienced designers can misunderstand some aspects of their behaviour. RSRE also found that many of these products have design errors at the silicon level, while the handbooks describe the operation codes in a way that is sometimes ambiguous and at worst gives totally wrong information.

I see that the first students have recently completed a new course in Software Engineering jointly established by the IEE and the National Computing Centre. Many colleges and training organisations are now interested in running it. Apparently the IEE/NCC certificate qualifies the students "to act as full contributing members of a software engineering development team." I'm sure these students are too intelligent to confuse software engineering with engineering in the broader, traditional sense, which always requires a wide experience and a canny awareness of the many traps that the world can set to make fools or victims of us. But their future bosses, preoccupied with other concerns, may not prove to be so clear in their minds and could make the mistake of giving them too much responsibility.

One doesn't want to make a practice of seeking out errors and disasters but we can certainly learn from them. So let's hope that a sufficiently large dossier of computer 'crashes' and other empirical knowledge of this kind will soon be amassed to act as an ever-present warning. As an older tradition taught, hubris is always followed by Nemesis. PE

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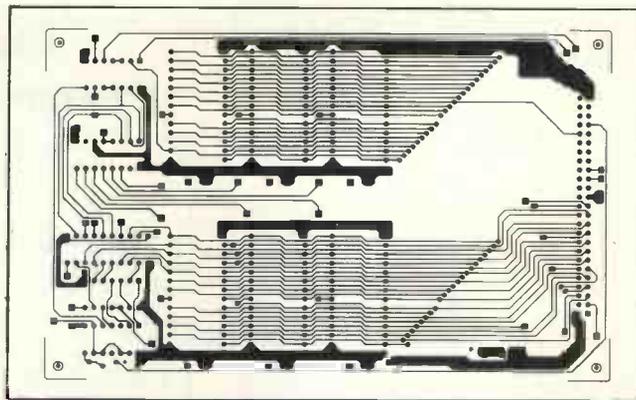
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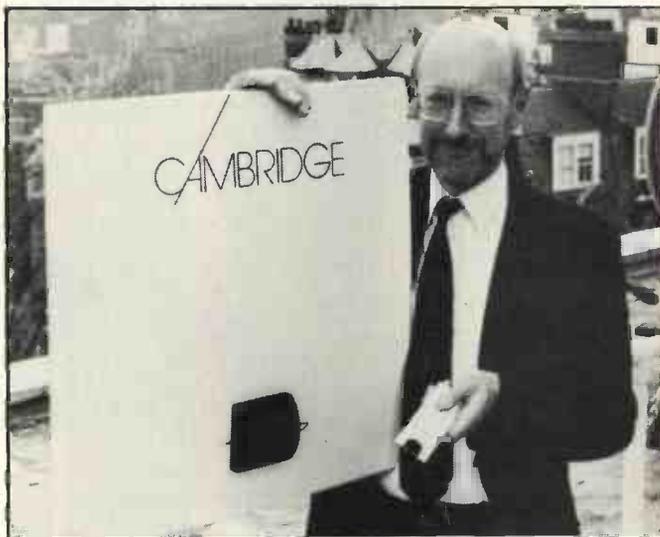
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THE EDITOR'S DECISION IS FINAL!

Send the entry form to : *Practical Electronics Aerial Competition, Intra House, 193 Uxbridge Road, London W12 9RA.*



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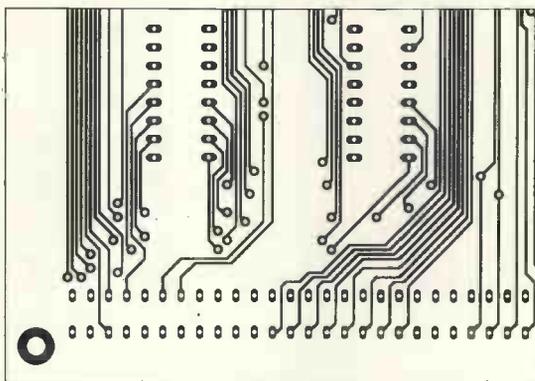
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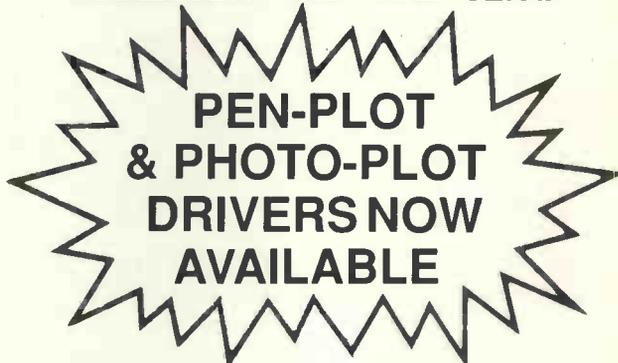
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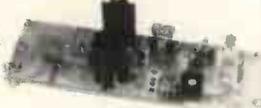
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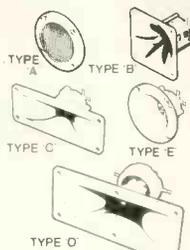
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