

TOMORROW'S TECHNOLOGY TODAY

## The

fechnology behind and the future chead
for VR

Random number
generitor for that winning lothery ficket

NTMH
batiery of the future?

##  <br> P1US

Dof detector EII laser tag base Servo checker

- PIC based fimer
- Simple continuity fester


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DEMO


## Volume 24 No. 5

## $\because$ Features

## The Unreal World of Virtual Reality

Nick Hampshire takes a look at what virtual reality is, the technology behind it, the history of $V R$, its applications, and its future use and development


## Random Number Generator <br> 24

An interesting little project designed
 by John Scott Paterson for an electronic random number generator, ideal for selecting those winning lottery ticket numbers

## Bat Detector



The ultrasonic signals produced by bats are inaudible to the average human, but this project by E . Chicken lowers the frequency so that users can hear the wide variety of different noises produced by bats, an interesting way of passing a summer evening. The article also includes a bat simulator to aid in construction and testing of the bat detector

## Nickel-Metal Hydride (NiMH) Batteries

NiMH battery technology is now one of the prime contenders in the race to provide an economical and practical power storage device for electric vehicles; Douglas Clarkson takes a look at the technology and future uses for MiNH batteries

## Servo Tester and Controller

A project based upon the versatile Parallax BASIC Stamp computer to control pulse-width proportional servos and measure the pulse width of other servo drivers.


## Programmable 3-Dlgit Pocket Timer

This project by Bart Trepak shows how a PIC microcontroller chip can be used to easily solve a particular design problem, and takes a look at programming PIC chips, an ideal starting point for readers thinking of using this versatile microcontroller

## Light Gun Central

In part 3 of ETI's Laser Tag system, Robin Abbott looks at construction of the light gun central. This project has been designed by Robin Abbott and Neil Birtles and is a very sophisticated interactive game for several players that rivals those used commercially

## Regulars

News and event diary 6
PCB foils 70
Open Forum 74

## Touch Test

A project by Terry Balbirnie that will find uses in every home and workshop - a simple go/no-go continuity tester

## Pico Releases PC

 PotentialPico's Virtual Instrumentation enable you to use your computer as a variety of useful test and measurement instruments or as an advanced data logger.

Hardware and software are supplied together as a package - no more worries about incompatibility or complex set-up procedures. Unlike traditional 'plug in' data acquisition cards, they simply plug into the PC's parallel or serial port, making them ideal for use with portable PC's.

## Call for your Guide on 'Virtual Instrumentation'.



## New from Pico TC-08 Thermocouple to PC Converter

 8 channel Thermocouple Amplifier- Connects to your serial port - no power supply required.
- Supplied with PicoLog datalogging software for advanced temperature processing, min/max detection and alarm.
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## TC-08 £ 199

complete with PicoLog, software drivers and connecting cable. A range of thermocouple probes is available.


## SAA-16 Logic Analyser

Pocket sized 16 channel Logic Analyser


AOP-100 virtual Instrument Dual Channel 12 bit resolution


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- Spectrum Analyser - Frequency Meter - Chart Recorder - Data Logger
- Voltmeter

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The ADC-10 gives your computer a single channel of analog input. Simply plug into the parallel port. ADC-10 with PicoScope £49

PicoScope \& PicoLog £59

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ODeration Rel NOVI.
MOTOR NO 2 BARGAIN $110 \times 90 \mathrm{~mm}$. Similar to the above motor but more sultable for mounting vertically (ie tumtable etc). Again you will have towire 2 In series for 240 v use. Bargain price is Jus 14.99 FOR A PAIRII ReI NOV3.

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NEC Electronics has reduced the cost of designing with its 75 X family of microcontrollers by offering a starter kit for only £399. The kit contains everything required to use and evaluate this popular family of 4-bit devices including software, cables and programming board.

The 75 X series of microcontrollers are low cost, low power consumption devices with a wide operating voltage range. The kit is intended for use by small engineering firms, design consultancies in development projects, and by larger firms that wish to evaluate the devices.

In a typical evaluation or development cycle, the user would assemble the source program using the relocatable assembler and then produce a Hex and Symbol file using the linker/Locator. These can be loaded into the simulator for testing and debugging. Once the user is satisfied, the code can be programmed into the target device using the programming board and starter kit programmer software.

The kit includes a 75X relocatable assembler and simulator package for use on an IBM-compatible PC. The full-screen simulator allows execution, single step operation, multiple break points and watching and modifying memory.

Also included in the kit is a programming board, programming adapter, UV erasable 16K LCD micro, power adapter, all necessary cables and a full set of user manuals. The only additional equipment required is a PC and a UV eraser.

For further information call NEC Electronics of Milton Keynes on 01908691133.


Microcontroller starter kit

## New 16bit microcontroller



Mitsubishi Electric is announcing the introduction of the M37710 Group of 16 bit single chip microcontrollers designed for office, business and industrial controller applications requiring high speed processing for large data volumes.

The new product group devices are available in a range of memory options and include Mask ROM, one time PROM and EPROM versions, as well as with low voltage and packaging options, enabling system integrators to select the optimum microcontroller for their specific design requirements.

M37710 Group microcontrollers feature a large 16Mbytes address space, three instruction queue buffers and two data buffers enabling very high speed program execution. The 16 bit parallel CPU is also switchable for 8bit parallel processing. Memory options include 60kbytes ROM/2048 bytes RAM, 32kbytes ROM/1024bytes RAM or ROMless with 2048 bytes of RAM in low voltage or standard voltage devices. Low voltage devices operate at 8 MHz from $2.7 / 5.5 \mathrm{~V}$ supplies and the standard devices operate at 25 MHz from $4.5 / 5.5 \mathrm{~V}$ supplies. Instruction execution time is 160 ns at 25 MHz .

Power dissipation for low voltage versions is 12 mW at $8 \mathrm{MHz} / 3 \mathrm{~V}$ supply, with 95 mW for the standard 5 V versions. Further power savings can be achieved by using the power conserving STP and WIT instructions.

On-chip features include an eight channel 10 bit ADC and two 8bit DACs, eight 16 bit multifunctional timers and two fully independent UART or clock synchronous serial I/Os. The devices also incorporate real time ports for stepper motor control, a 12 bit watchdog timer and a programmable interrupt controller.

For further information contact Mitsubishi Electric UK Ltd of Hatfield on 01707276100.

# PC Temperature Measurement 

Pico's TC-08 is a thermocouple to PC interface. Supplied with Picelog datalogging software it is designed to allow simple yet accurate temperature recording onto a computer. The unit accepts up to 8 thermocouples ( $B_{1} E, J, K, R_{1} S_{1}$ and $T$ types) and connects via the serial port. It requires no power supply.

For type K thermocouples, resolution over the 270C to +1300 C -ange is better than 0.1 C and accuracy better than 0.5 C . Celd junction compensation is carried out within the unit ard linearlsation is within the software.

PicoLog can take samples as fast as one per second and as slow as one per hour, allowing recordings to be made for a few seconds or weeks as required. It offers advanced temperature processing functions including filtering, $\mathrm{min} / \mathrm{maz}$ detection and alarms. Data can be displayed in real time, in either graphical or text format or printed out after cata collection.

TC-08 comes complete with PicoLog, software drivers, and connecting cable for £199. A range of therm.jcouples/probes is also available.

For further delails contact Pice Technology Lted on 01954 211716:


Caretaker Storage Systems of Verwood, Dorset, has developed a unique, space saving, storage system named "The Caretaker". DIY enthusiasts and hobbyists will find "The Caretaker" answers many of their storage problems. It will hold aerosol cans, nuts, bolts, screws, washers, and other rumerous bits and pieces that collect around the workshop.

There are two ways of storing; by using the pots supplied or by saving the standard 454 gram jars found in all kitchens that usually end up in the bin. The system fixes to the side or corner of the garage or workshop and is capable, on the two metre system, of holding up to twelve discs; each disc has nine removable pots, giving a total 108 pots or jars. Easy access is gained by rotating the disc, all of which are adjustable in height. For the person with less space, the free-standing system is the answer. In the forthcoming year a tool disc will be added and various accessories. As a modular system, the hobbyists may build up a system to their own requirement.

Fixing kits, free-standing or two metre fixed. (all zinc plated) Individual discs can be purchased as and when required. All discs come with nine removable pots and one fully adjustable centre bearing.

## Multichannel dynamic signal analysers

Reading based Stra*egic Test has announced a new range of Dynamic Signal Analysers that combines a measurement capability that exceeds many traditional FFT Analysers, with the report generation quality and flexibility offered by a PC.

The DSA Z00s are expandable from 4 to 32 measurement channels and provice a dynamic range in excess of COdB for the most sensitive measurements. Each channel includes both analogue and digital filtering with software selectable signal conditioning for AC, DC, ICP acce erometer and microphone inputs. Two independent signal generators offer a wide range of excitation signals which are preducea using 18 bit cigital to analogue converters. High speed digital signal processors (DSPS) ensure a real-time performance.

The DSA models are complete systems for experimental structural analysis. The multi-channel systems reduce testing time to a minimum by measuring large numbers of FRF functions simultaneously. Nodal analysis is handled conveniently by b Jilt-in third pary Moda software packages.

Sound and acoustic engineers can easily measure the acoustic intensity vector. Further dedicated acoustc functions include narrow band spectral analysis and real-time $1 / 3$ octave analysis, including $A, B$, ard $C$ weighting. Post-processing functions like articulation index and loudness are useful for psycho-ecoustic researsh.

The DSA series Signature software supports order tracking witt 3D order ratio diagrams and multichannel order tracks. Advanced post-processing routines include the ability to create summation diagrams and octeve tracks from the 3D diagrams.

Data can be "time-streamed" to the built-in hard disk, replacing tapə recorders in nany applications. Multi-channel processing capabilities, including order tracking anc octave filtering, enable efficient analysis on this throughput data.


# N:C demonstrates gigabit RAM chip 

At the recent International Solid State Circuits Conference in San Francisco, NEC shocked the electronics world by unveiling the first sample of a new gigabit DRAM chip. This chip is four times the size of the sophisticated DRAM being developed by IBM, Siemens, and Toshiba, and 16 times the size of the largest DRAM on the market today.

However, the chip is a one-off sample, and NEC expects that it will take at least three years and $\$ 1.5$ billion in investment to reach the stage of supplying samples of this massive chip to computer manufacturers. In fact it could be well past the turn of the century before this chip is in commercial production. Long before then we should see the IBM/Siemens 256 Kbit DRAM on the market.

The gigabit DRAM shown by NEC was produced using existing technology to etch lines 0.25 microns wide on a chip that measured a massive $26 \times 36 \mathrm{~mm}$. Over the next few years NEC expect to be able to etch lines as fine as 0.15 micrometers which should allow them to reduce the overall chip size substantially.

It is widely predicted that DRAM chips with this capacity will be one of the key factors in the development of advanced multimedia and virtual reality systems. Fast, low power consumption, and high capacity memory systems are essential components of systems which handle video data as well as conventional computer data.

## New rugged embedded PC

AMC today announced the addition of a powerful new embedded PC called the 5025A - to the company's Micro PC family of rugged industrial computers. The 5025A has been designed to accommodate a wide range of high performance, embedded control applications. With a rich feature set including multiple solid state disks, wide temperature range, small $4.5 \times 4.9$ inch form factor and Windows QNX compatibility, the 5025A is ideal for both general-purpose process control and applications where a user interface or real-time operating system is required.

The 5025A is supplied with either a 386CX or a 486 SLC processor, up to 50 MHz , for use with Windows or real-time operating systems such as QNX. In addition, the 5025A has three solid state disks that can be configured according to customer requirements.

The first solid state disk contains the AT-compatible BIOS with industrial extensions and DOS 6.0 in 512 Kbytes of ROM. The availability of DOS in ROM, or "instant DOS", eliminates uncertainty about how application software will run on the 5025A. QNX or other real-time operating systems can be installed in place of DOS, should the user wish to do so.

The second solid state disk is intended for storage of the application program, and can be configured with either 1 Mbyte of EPROM or 512 Kbytes of flash memory. The third solid state disk is multi-functional and can be used for data conversion tables, multiple language support or other operating systems. This disk can be configured with the customer's choice of up to 512 Kbytes of SRAM, 512 Kbytes of flash memory, or 1 Mbyte of EPROM.

All three of the 5025A's solid state disks look like floppy disks to the user, and all necessary software is provided.

Other features of the 5025A include a built-in flash memory programmer, two 16C550-compatible serial ports with an RS-232/422/485 interface, and LPT1 bi-directional parallel port, 1-8 Mbytes of DRAM, watchdog timer, and keyboard and speaker ports.

For more information contact Advanced Modular Computers Ltd., of Slough on 01753580660.

## Intel unveil new P6 processor

Despite the problems being faced by Intel over the last few months with respect to the Pentium, the company took the oportunity at the recent International Solid State Circuits Conference in San Francisco to release full technical details of the Pentium's successor, a chip codenamed the P6, a processor which they claim will be able to perform over 1700 million instructions per second, making it over twice as fast as the Pentium.
and is the result of over five years of design work. The P6 is being manufactured using the same production techniques as the Pentium but is a much larger chip with over 5.5 million transistors, the Pentium having just 3.1 million. A lot of the extra speed of the P6 is achieved by using a coded software technique known as 'dynamic execution'. This means that when a processor is waiting for a result or for the arrival of data it is able to make a guess about how the program will proceed, and use that guess to jump ahead and continue operation without having to wait for the necessary data or result.
The algorithms which generate the guess have been produced as the result cf careful analysis of tens of thousands of different programs. Their use means that the processor can continue running a program without being held up, indeed it will carry out up to eight speculative branchings before it has to stop and verify the data or calculation result.


## Event Diary

31 March to 17 April The Seventh Edinburgh International Science Festivali; Hots of different events in

9-11 April
15 April
22 April International Marconi Day exhibition station aţ Puckpool Far< Wireless MLseum,
IOW. Tel: 01983567665
14 May Drayton Manor Radio and Computer Rally at Drayton Manor Park, Támworth, Staffs. Tel:0121-443-1189.
20 May Ipswich Computer Show. Willis Corroon Sports and Social Club, The Street, Rushmere St Andrew, Ipswich. Tel 01473272002

If you ar $\overline{\text { organising an event which you would like to have included in this sectior please send full details to: ETl. Nexus Ho.se, Boundary Y/ay, }}$ Hemel Hempstead, Herts -1P2 7ST. Clearly mark your envelope Eveñ: Diary.

## Virtual 



Virtual reality is one of those technology-inspired phrases which, every now and then, explodes onto the unsuspecting world.
One minute it is only to be encountered in some esoteric literature, and the next it is on everyone's lips. Suddenly there are articles about this new development in Sunday papers; popular TV programmes are made about it, and well known television personalities enthuse and bubble about it. So what is virtual reality, why the enthusiasm, and why the explosion in popular interest?

## The birth of virtual reality

That great sixties guru of psychedelia, Timothy Leary, now a confirmed addict to virtual reality, pointed out that most of us have been living in virtual reality since the proliferation of television. We can perhaps go even further back to the invention of radio and the cinema. This is because virtual reality is concerned with using technology to amplify the imagination of the individual.

In the distant past history, legend, knowledge, and ritual were transferred from one individual to another as stories. At first transmitted orally and later in written form. Gaps in the description, both physical and temporal, were filled by the imagination, an imagination that was shared by both the teller and the listener, by the author and the reader.

But imagination can only be shared when both parties have had similar experiences in life, seen and known similar things, similar people, similar places. In the imagination an Englishman
will see a house that is completely different from the house seen in the imagination of a tribesman in central Borneo. This is one of the problems of literature and is difficult to transfer across widely differng cultures.

However, film does not have this problem since it provides the viewer with a great deal more information than is provided by the written word There is no need to imagine the house, since there is a detailed image of it. The world that we see on film may be imaginery, but the task of generating that imagination has larcely been transferred from the viewer to the director, the cameraman, the actors, etc.

Watching a film or TV is therefore a passive act: there is little or no exercise of the viewer's own imagination despite the fact that the imaginary world which is presented to him is probably far more detailed than any world which he might


Virtual reality is set to change the way that we do a great many things. Nick Hampshire takes a look at the technology behind it



## The head mounted display

Sight is our most important sense when it comes to examining the world around us. What we see is a three dimensional, colourful world that exists in every direction in which we look. We can easily create colour images on a standard computer monitor, but the image on such a monitor is two dimensional, there is no stereoscopic depth cueing. Furthermore, the image displayed on the screen is just a small part of the virtual world, it is as if we are looking at that world through a rectangular keyhole. These factors mean that we can not give someone a true sense of immersion in a virtual world using a conventional monitor. What is needed first of all is a display whish will give the user the stereoscopic depth cueing which will allow the user to see the image in 3-D. One way to do this is to use 3-D glasses which have one lens with a blue filter and the other with a red filter. The computer is used to generate two overlapping images on the screen one visible through the red filter and one through the blue. The viewers brain recombines these images to create the impression of a 3-D image.
The problem with this approach is that the image colour and quality is poor although generation of such stereoscopic images is fairly easy and requires no expensive hardware. The other problem is of course that it still confines the user to a 'keyhole' view of the vir.ual world.
The only way to overcome these problems is to use two displays, one for each eye, thereby generating a stereoscopic 3-D image, and mount these displays on the user's head so that as he moves his head the image displayed is changed to correspond to that viewing angle. This type of HMD equipment is the key component of modern immersion virtual reality, since not only do they provide 3-D images and head tracking, but they also block out an extraneous light from the real world and can also be fitted with headphones to give the user direction sensitive sound as wall as sight.
The current generation of commercial HMDs are constructed using colour LCDs. These are directly connected to the computer and behave just like two very small colour monitors, with the software outputting slightly different images to each eye. The light from tre small backlit LCDs is focused into the eyes by means of specially designed optics (design of this optical component is very important if the user is not to suffer from serious eyestrain after using the HMD for a short period).
The LCDs used in HMDs currently have about 180,000 pixels. Since, the display is colour these are grouped in triads of red, green, and blue, which means that the rasolution of the screen is actually only 60,000 pixels. By the end of 1995, however, HMDs should be available with $640 \times 480$ resolution and 32K colours. This is sufficient to generate some very high quality images, particularly when techniques such as pixel merging are used to increase apparent resolution.
Another problem with early HMDs is that the image refresh rate was very low, in some systems as low as three or four frames per second. This meant that all movements were very jerky, and quickly led to the user feeling rather nauseous. The problem here, of course was one of having insufficient computer power to generate images at a high enough rate. With the plummeting price of computer power and new display generation technologies this particular problem is rasidly disappearing, and refresh rates of 20 to 30 frames per second, or even more, are now quite common and overcome both the jerky image and nausea (note that standard movie film uses 24 frames per second to achieve smooth movement).
imagine for himself. The degree of imagination involved has been amplified by bringing together the imaginations of many people.

The degree of imagination may be greater, but there is nothing that the viewer can do to change the course of events in a film, his role is purely passive. The elimination of this passivity by allowing the viewer to add his own imagination to that provided by others, accounts for the popularity of computer games. The film becomes interactive, the viewer becomes part of the plot, he is involved.

You may well say that this is fine with respect to fiction, but surely does not apply to, say, a textbook on chemistry. But if you think about it you will realise that it does. Reading about some event, a chemical reaction for example, in a book, or watching a video about it, does not have the same impact on
our memory as actually performing the experiment. In most spheres of human knowledge we learn better by doing something than by simply reading about il or being told about it.

In any learning activity the irıdividual will progress faster and have a better grounding on the subject if the learning process involves practical work. After ail, one would not expect to be operated upon by a surgeon whose only experience of performing the operation was reading about it in a book. And none of us would feel very safe flying in an aeroplane piloted by someone whose knowledge of flying was solely derived from watching films about flying, however detailed those films may have been, and however attentive the viewer.

It was the need to train pilots that led to the technology which has been combined with that of computer games to create what we now call virtual reality systems. The Link flight



## The computer systems behind virtual reality

At the heart of any virtual reality system is a special ultra high speed processor known as a reality engine. It is called a reality engine because it is the hardware used to create the virtual world that the user sees and interacts with. This hardware could be a single top end PC or workstation, a network of interacting computers, or perhaps even a super-computer.
The actual structure of a reality engine's hardware depends on factors such as cost, but the one thing it must have is an enormous amount of processing power. To completely generate a 3-D fully rendered image takes most computers a relatively long time even at fairly low display resolutions, generating the two slightly different images for stereoscopy will double the time.
In virtual reality systems such images will need to be generated in less than one twentieth of a second in order to avoid jerky movement. On top of which the computer will also have to generate the appropriate 3-D sounds and perhaps also drive tactile and force feedback systems. Hence the need for lots of processing power, processing power which must also be applied to accessing and interpreting data input by the user. This data consists of such things as head and hand movement, body position, speech recognition, and hand pressure.
At the moment most immersion virtual reality systems use workstation or mini computers based on powerful RISC processors running under UNIX as the reality engine. Although an increasing number of VR systems are now employing parallel processor architecture's similar to those found on super computers. In some multiprocessor systems the tasks performed by the reality engine are usually broken down into sub tasks with a separate processor allocated to each sub task.
The lack of any standardisation in virtual reality, the multitude of different reality engine systems, input and output devices, sensors, etc. means that the software used has to be written for a specific hardware system. However, a lot of the virtual world construction is done using conventional 3-D CAD software running on workstations, this world building process involves construction of wire frame models which are then rendering them.
Once a virtual world has been created the next step is use of a special VR tool kit and simulation manager to assign characteristics to the virtual world, knowing that a door will open, a handle turn, or a switch will turn the lights off or on. These VR tool kits are hardware specific and also allow the addition of user interaction with the virtual world, plus sound generation, and perhaps speech recognition and synthesis.
VR tool kit software is developing all the time, and some versions are now including sophisticated artificial intelligence techniques. These provide in-built knowledge bases that can provide objects with complex behavioural patterns. A piece of virtual equipment can behave in exactly the same manner as the real thing. Designers of products such as cars and consumer electronics are now turning to such techniques in order to test out designs on users prior to building a physical prototype, thereby cutting costs and shortening the design lead time. Some systems are even going as far as having virtual actors with their own behaviour and personality
simulator was developed to give pilots the feel of actually flying an aeroplane without risking lives and equipment, a concept that was first developed as a camival ride by Edwin Link in 1929.

It is a concept which has now been developed to produce the highly sophisticated flight simulators that accurately copy the performance of particular aircraft, cabin layout, views from the windows, etc. and which are used to train most commercial and military pilots. With the use of hydraulic rams to move the cabin pod of the simulator, and massive amounts of computer power to calculate aircraft behaviour, the 'pilot' can feel almost exactly the same types of sensory experience as he would if he were flying a real aeroplane of the same type as that which is being simulated,

So powerful have such flight simulators become that in the recent Gulf War, pilots were trained for bombing missions on simulators which had been loaded with data that allowed the pilot to see the actual terrain he would be flying over. This allowed the pilots to practice their mission before they actually flew it, a factor which considerably improved the pilot's confidence and ability.

## The development of virtual reality

The technology behind virtual reality has thus been born out of a fusion of the interactive computer game and the physical simulation systems developed to train pilots. This fusion has produced what some people have described as an imagination amplification system, which is infinitely more powerful than anything developed so far. This is because virtual reality has turned the imagination delivery process inside out. Instead of the individual sitting in a real world and looking in upon an imaginary world on a TV screen, or within the pages of a book, the individual becomes completely immersed in an imaginary world which has been created by a computer and with which the individual can interact just as he or she would interact with the real world.
This immersion in a computer-generated virtual world is achieved by giving the individual special interfaces for sight, sound and touch which replace the input he would normally receive from the real world. In such a system, the user's view of this virtual world will change as he moves his body; special sensors are used to detect head and body movement. The data derived from these sensors are then used by the computer to generate the appropriate visual and auditory sensations that are appropriate for his current position. Just as the user can walk and move within this virtual world so he can also interact with that world. He can open and close virtual doors, switch on and use virtual equipment, and even interact with virtual people. In short, anything he can do in the real world, he can (in theory) also do in the virtual world. But, and this is a very important but, he can also do things in a virtual world which it might well be impossible for him to do in
the real world. He could walk on the surface of the Moon, visit the deepest parts of the oceans, develop wings and learn to fly like a bird, roam through the streets of Julius Caesar's Rome on that fateful 15 th of March in 44 BC , or become infinitely small and walk through the labyrinth of neuronal connections which make up the human brain. One can do all these things and more in a virtual world.
Of course virtual reality technology is very much in its infancy. A lot of these things can only be done in theory. We lack the sophisticated software, sensors, output systems, and of course computing power, to generate virtual worlds which look anything like the real world, and to interact with that world with all the subtlety that we interact with the real world. But achieving this is only a matter of time, of refinement and development of existing technology.
If we compare the development of virtual reality to the development of the games played on today's personal computers, then vitual reality is at about the same stage as Nolan
Bushnell's first electronic arcade game, Pong It has taken twenty years to go from Pong to the Pentium-powered PC. With technological development accelerating, virtual reality should reach the PC stage of development by the end of this decade.
However, just as the origin of the PC can be traced back to the mainframe computers of the early 50 s, so virtual reality can be traced back to the early 60s. Indeed virtual reality was probably first conceived in a US patent, number $3,050,870$, which was filed in 1961 by Morton L. Helig for a device known as the Sensorama Stimulator.
This was an apparatus that was designed as an arcade simulator and gave the user the sights, sounds, motion and smell of riding a motorcycle through the streets of Brooklyn (sensations included pot holes and the smell of pizzas cooking). What qualifies Helig's Sensorama as being the first virtual reality device is that it was designed to allow the user to interact with the simulator environment in a way which made the user feel as if he was part of that environment. Of course Helig had no computers to aid him, it was all done using film loops, odour canisters, vibrating seat and controls, etc. which were electromagnetically triggered by data encoded onto a track on the film.
Virtual reality with computer generated virtual environments dates back to about 1965, to work that was done at the University of Utah by Ivan E Sutherland, a man who is now regarded as being one of the world's greatest experts in computer-generated graphics. What he developed was a head-mounted computer graphics display which also tracked the position of the wearer's head, the first head mounted display (HMD). It was used to show a topographical map of the US. (Sutherland's company now builds advanced virtual reality simulators for the US Air Force, including those used to train pilots for the Gulf War).

## Position sensing

A very important component of any immersion virtual reality system is some means of tracking the individual's movements so that he can navigate and interact with the virtual world, and for this reason they are called interaction devices. The most important being the tracking of head and hand movements. Tracking of hand movements is important since in an immersive virtual reality system the user will interact with the virtual world using his hands, he will pick things up, move them, switch things on or off, in fact do virtually anything that he would do with his hands in the real world. The tracking of head movements is of
 course a vital part of the visual interaction process whereby the user of the virtual reality system sees different parts of the virtual world as he moves his head.
In both cases tracking needs to be done in three dimensions since the user is interacting with a 3-D virtual world. To do this we need what is referred to as a 6DOF this stands for 6 Degrees Of Freedom) input device, one for head movements and one for hand movements. In such systems position is measured in terms of $X, Y$, and $Z$ axis, with orientation being expressed in terms of pitch, roll, and yaw.
Tracking of hand movements can be done using a wide variety of different pieces of equipment, ranging from a conventional mouse to a special position sensing glove known as a data glove. However, a mouse, joystick, or trackerball, is only a 2DOF input device, in other words it can only move in the $X$ and $Y$ axis.
For proper 6DOF hand movement data input we need a device which can sense movement in $X, Y$ and $Z$ axis. The most widely used such device is a wand, or flying mouse. These devices contain either an electromagnetic or an ultrasonic position sensor, together with an array of buttons. They are hand held in an upright position and connected to the computer by a cable.
Other types of hand position data input device include the forceball, a GDOF version of the common games joystick, and the data glove. The data glove is probably the most sophisticated of all the devices since besides having 6DOF position sensors it also has sensors which can capture the relative movements of each finger as well as the hand in general. This means that the user of a system equipped with a dataglove can interact with the virtual world in a very realistic manner, one can grasp and hold things just as one would in the real world.
The dataglove works by having strain gauges fastened into the glove at all the main finger joints. The only problem with this technique, and with data gloves in general, is that they need to be tailored for each individual, and also need re-calibrating every time they are used. This is necessary because strain gauges are notoriously susceptible to temperature. For this reason many virtual reality system developers are moving away from the dataglove and towards systems which can emulate the performance of a dataglove in a virtual world.
The head mounted position sensors also have to be 6DOF and on most commercial systems use the same type of position sensing as that employed on the hand held units. However, in some applications the system may need to know something about the users physical position and orientation as opposed to simply knowing the position of his head. these are virtual reality systems where the user can roam about within the virtual world. For these applications more sophisticated position trackers are required.
We have so far only considered the use of position sensors on the head and hand, but they can also be attached to any joint and this type of position sensing data input has been put to good use in producing animations of the human body and face. For example this technique was employed to generate highly realistic movement of the characters in Nintendo's Virtual Fighter. In the TV series Virtually Impossible, the computerised fish Codsby was created by having an actor wear a special headset which monitored all his facial features, the data being then interpreted by the computer and converted into the facial movements of Codsby. These are techniques which are both revolutionising, and creating higher quality film animation.
The type of sensor used in all the systems described above are known as active tracking sensors
since they use an external signal to create the positional data. This means that both electromagnetic and ultrasonic position sensors require transmitters at three axis positions which can then be used to provide positional reference signals for the mobile position sensors. Here electromagnetic systems are lot more reliable than ultrasonic since they are not prone to problems such as signal reflection. Electromagnetic systems can also be used in a larger area so are also ideal for position trackers as well as interaction devices.
In addition to active tracking systems there are also passive tracking systems which are particularly suited to use on HMDs These need no reference transmitters since they use a small video camera connected to a computer to analyse the HMD wearer's position and orientation. This type of system has the advantage that it can be much more compact and used anywhere.
However, all position tracking and interaction systems do suffer from one great drawback which will only be overcome as computer power increases. With insufficient computer power there is a noticeable lag between the user moving and the computer registering the movement, or action, in the virtual world.

## Biomedical uses of VR

Just as flight simulators can be used to train pilots without running any risk to either human life or equipment so virtual reality is starting to be used in the training of doctors in areas such as the teaching of anatomy or surgical practices, training doctors in new techniques, or planning of complex surgery.
The starting point in most of these applications are the two dimensional images generated by CAT (computerised axiall tomography) or MRI (magnetic resonance imaging) scans. Successive scans are used by the computer to build up a three dimensional model of the human body. For training purposes these models can be very detailed (in the US a project is under way to create a very high resolution electronic image of the human body).
With a three dimensional computer model of the human body a virtual reality system can be used to generate stereoscopic images which can, in the case of data derived from an actual patient be used to enable the doctor to perform non invasive diagnosis. In other words actually looking under the patients skin without having to cut them open.
With a standard electronic model of the human body students can be trained using virtual reality in a wide range of areas that would previously have involved either just reading about the subject or dissecting actual cadavers. Such electronic models can alsa be used with virtual reality to train surgeons in new practices. With this type of virtual patient the surgeon can interact with the 'body', cutting, moving, and removing tissue using the standard surgical equipment. They will also be able to monitor all the patient's vital signs, administer anaesthetics, etc.
The interaction of the surgeon with the virtual body is an extremely difficult VR software problem and involves very accurate collision detection between the virtual instruments and the virtual organic model, one can not have a virtual scalpel going into a virtual body without actually cutting it. The system also needs to know how virtual tools behave, after all a scalpel blade will become blunt and will behave differently when blunt to when it is sharp.
Surgeons will also be able to use virtual reality to rehearse very difficult operations before they actually perform them on a patient. Just as the flight simulator reduces the risk of pilots crashing so virtual reality for the surgeon should ensure that many more patients survive complex operations. Virtual reality is also being used by doctors and biologists to help them visualise and understand complex systems such as the neural networks that make up the brain. At the National Institute of Mental Health in the US, researchers are creating a dynamic set of 3D images of the brain: the Brain Visualisation Project or BVR. The sets of images include not just the normal brain, but also functional maps of different mental disease processes such as schizophrenia, Parkinson's, manic depression, etc.
The BVS allows users to enter a virtual reality environment which enables them to wander around the structures of cifferent types of brain, noting quantitative and electrophysiological changes in different structures with ranges of magnification from individual neurones to the whole brain. The data used being based upon the very latest research findings. This means that the BVS is not just a teaching aid but also a means whereby researchers can visualise the effects of recent discoveries upon the perceived model of brain function.

## Virtual Reality and the military


#### Abstract

Because virtual reality has to a large degree developed out of military simulation systems for applications such as pilot training it is hardly surprising that the military have adapted this simulation technology to other applications. Applications which range from training tank crews to complete interactive battlefield simulations. The US military and organisations such as NASA have been, and are, one of the main driving forces behind the development of VR technology. NASA was probably one of the first organisations to realise the potential of VR in training astronauts, and VR is now a regular part of the training schedules for all Shuttle missions, as well as the planning of future missions such as the possible manned trip to Mars. Military interest in VR is more recent and primarily the result of work by the US military through the US Defence Departments Advanced Research Project Agency, or ARPA. This work was primarily embodied in a project called SIMNET, the goal of which was to integrate an on-line network of more than 200 VR systems into a real time virtual environment. These VR systems could simulate a wide range of different types of equipment, tanks, aircraft, various types of vehicles etc. By interacting over the network the personnel using these different VR simulators could interact in a virtual battlefield type environment even though the individuals may be located thousands of miles apart. SIMNET was started in 1988 and has now progressed to a stage where it is in everyday use, today it is called the Close Combat Tactical Trainer, or CCTT, just one of a range of battlefield training virtual reality systems. The CCTT is used in synthetic theatres of war, or STOWs. Currently CCTT technology is supported by the distributed interactive standard, or DIS, which is a protocol for sending data across different types of network to a wide range of different VR simulators. Simulators which are made to resemble as closely as possible actual pieces of military equipment, indeed many soldiers using these simulators say that they have difficulty distinguishing the virtual system from the real system. To date the VR simulations used by the military have only involved the use of different types of equipment, but work is currently going on to develop what is refereed to as the l-Port. This is a means of inserting individual soldiers into the virtual environment so that he will experience immersion in a networked virtual environment that he shares with other soldiers as well as equipment such as tanks. The work involved in creation of the I-Port is very complex and involves the generation of completely natural looking and realistic terrains, natural sounds, and the construction of special interfaces that will provide both tactile and force feedback. This is the kind of system that many commercial VR developers dream about, and it has to be admitted that current military systems are probably ten years ahead of any commercial systems.


## VR training for astronauts

Putting astronauts into space is an extremely expensive and risky operation, and no activity is more expensive or risky than an astronaut EVA, the so called spacewalk. But with the increasing need to repair and maintain equipment like the Hubble Space Telescope, not to mention the impending construction of an international space station, EVAs are becoming a very important part of the astronaut's job.
The only way to limit the risk of such activity is to very carefully plan the EVA and have the astronaut repeatedly rehearse the procedure, step by step, movement by movement, in special simulators over the months before the mission. Simulating movement within the weightlessness of space is not easy. At NASA they use a range of simulators, the oldest of which is the water tank, where neutral buoyancy is used to simulate weightlessness.
However, NASA faced an enormous problem when attempting to repair the Hubble since a full scale model of it and the Shuttle bay were too big to fit into any existing water tank. The telescope rose 44 ft above the bay and on top of this there was the 50 ft space shuttle robot arm. A problem which will be compounded one hundred fold when they start training astronauts to build the space station.

The only solution was to slice the model up into sections and deal with one section at a time, not the best solution. However, at this point virtual reality came to the rescue. A three dimensional computer model of the Hubble and shuttle was built on a Silicon Graphics 310 VGX running virtual reality software.
The astronauts were fitted with data gloves, full colour HMDs, and body position sensors, thus allowing them to interact with the virtual models of both the Hubble and the Shuttle, and of course the robot arm. It proved to be enormously successful in planning the EVA mission, resolving geometry problems relating to astronaut position with respect to the equipment being worked upon, and also in working out the critical communication protocols between the EVA astronauts and the robot arm operator.
The Hubble VR training system was able to generate 58,000 polygons at a very slow 3.5 Hz update rate on a $320 \times 270$ pixel resolution stereoscopic image, the perceived image was thus rather poor and very jerky if the trainee moved too fast. This system has now been updated for current EVA missions and has a much more powerful processor, based upon Silicon Graphics Onyx systems. This means that the update rate is now a more reasonable 20 Hz , and by having the software map textures the number of polygons required to map any image has dropped to about 15,000 . However, the VR system which is being planned for space station training is going to be infinitely more powerful with very high resolution and the ability for several astronauts to interact with each other during VR training. Perhaps most importantly, the VR system will have to be fitted with force feedback. They are also looking at using VR within a water tank to give the astronaut the feeling of weightlessness, but within a VR environment, the ultimate in 'virtual reality immersion'.

## Touch sense and force feedback

A feature which one will not find on any commercial VR systems, but which is certainly on everyone's wish list is a means of relaying touch sensitivity and muscular force feedback. Ideally, in a virtual woild we need to know how hard we are gripping something or pressing against something; we need to know if a surface is rough or smooth, hot or cold. These are areas where once again military systems development is way ahead of commercial systems development, witness the I-Port project. However, the addition of tactile and force feedback to a VR system is an interesting project for the computer/electronics experimenter. Tactile feedback devices, or tactors as they are known, consist of arrays of very small actuators which can be made to push into the surface of the users fingers. These very small actuators are individually controlled by the computer and can be used to generate simple temporal and spatial patterns as well as a feeling of applied force and surface texture analysis.
The tactors are constructed using shape memory alloys (we will be featuring a lot more about the uses for these alloys in future issues of ETI) and can be made in very small sizes and quite large arrays. The only real problem which we have to overcome in implementing such tactile feedback is the incomplete knowledge we currently have of our own tactile receptors, their sensitivity, bandwidth etc.
As an example of this incomplete knowledge, note that the feeling generated by pressing a sharp point into the skin is often much the same as the feeling generated by extreme cold. This means that there is an ambiguity between our own pressure sensors and our temperature sensors. However, this incomplete state of our knowledge makes experimenting in this area all the more interesting and challenging.
Force feedback tells us how hard we need to exert our muscles in order to perform a particular action, after all action and reaction are equal and opposite. Thus lifting a small light object will generate less force feedback than lifting a large heavy object. The problems with adding force feedback to a VR system is really an engineering challenge and has not been added to commercial systems because of the added complexity and the need to tailor the force feedback system to the individual.
To add force feedback we essentially need to provide the user with some form of robotic exoskeleton. If we push against a heavy virtual object the robotic exoskeleton will push back against us with a force that corresponds to that which we would expect from a real object of that weight.

# Virtual Reality and Health and Safety 

Concern has recently been expressed about the health and safety aspects of total immersion virtual reality, in particular the danger of HMDs triggering epileptic attacks. It is a subject about which most of the manufacturers and designers of virtual reality equipment are all too well aware. The Japanese Government has gone so far as to fund research into this potential problem.
However, designers in both the UK and the US are confident that they can eliminate any risk by careful design of the optics, and the display system. To underline this confidence a company like Virtuality points out that more than 26 million people have used their arcade virtual reality systems and not a single health and safety problem has so far been encountered. Having said that, they are not dismissing the potential for problems and are carefully monitoring all existing users.

Another component of virtual reality, the force feedback device which allows the user to feel computer simulated forces directly via a special type of user interface was developed in 1967 by a team under Frederick Brooks at the University of North Carolina.
In 1969 we have the first use of the term 'artificial reality'. This term was coined by an artist called Myron Krueger who was working on a combination of computer and video technology to generate responsive environments. One of these projects, Glowflow, is probably the first known example of projection virtual reality and consisted of minicomputers, sound synthesisers, and a series of tubes filled with multicoloured phosphorescent liquids which created a dynamic visual effect. This environment was designed to immerse and interact with the participant. Since this period Krueger has become a leading voice in the area of virtual reality, art and aesthetics. Virtual reality has grown from these few simple beginnings. A growth which has been fuelled by the increasingly rapid development of electronics, in particular the microprocessor, and by the realisation of the power and versatility of virtual reality by organisations such as NASA and the US military (see box on military development of VR).

## Immersion in a virtual world

Virtual reality as it is sold to us in the marketplace comes in different flavours, from navigable 3-D graphic displays on an ordinary PC monitor, to systems which utilise special headsets and position sensors to place the user within a virtual world. It is this latter set-up which constitutes real virtual reality for with it, the user becomes immersed in a virtual world. He becomes oblivious to the real world around him the virtual world becomes the real world in which he lives and with which he interacts.

The type of virtual reality which involves the use of 3-D graphics on a conventional monitor with position input from a standard mouse finds uses within applications such as the modelling of buildings and civil engineering structures. Here the computer model is simply being used to replace the physical models that were, and indeed still are, used to show what an as yet unbuilt structure will look like. Such models are simply designed to help planners, customers, and other interested parties to visualise what the finished structure will look like.

One step beyond this are systems which use simple 3-D stereoscopic techniques with a standard monitor to generate images. Unlike the 3-D graphics used in the simplest systems the use of stereoscopic images gives the user a sense of image depth, and thus greater naturainess. These stereoscopic systems could involve the use of colour separation using red
and blue filters (see box on display technology), or they could utilise an optical system that fits over the screen which is displaying two separate images, one for the left eye and one for the right eye.

The problem with such systems is that they limit the user's angle of vision within the virtual world. It is as if one's only view of the world was through a keyhole. Through such a narrow aperture one could not see the world behind one, to the left or right, above or below, however much one moved one's head: a limitation which directly leads us to the next level of virtual reality system, the head mounted display with position tracking.

With a head mounted display, the computer senses which direction one is looking in, and then generates a stereoscopic image on a special display system which fits over the user's head. The image is displayed in front of the user's eyes by means of special optics. With such a system the user is freed from the keyhole image of the virtual world and can, so to speak, enter the virtual world and look all around himself.

In some systems the special optics used to deliver the stereoscopic images cut out any images coming from other sources, but in other systems the optics superimposes the image over the user's view of the real world. This latter technique is familiar to military pilots with head up displays, but is also used in virtual reality systems to produce what is referred to as an augmented reality system. This could be something as simple as a visual system which converted nonvisible radiation, such as infrared, to visible images, or it could be used to provide graphical information about the world.

In this type of augmented reality, visual components are added to the image of the real world. Thus, for example, an engineer attempting to repair a complex piece of equipment could use an augmented reality system to superimpose technical data onto his view of the equipment and thus guide him through the operation.(this type of application is still in the early stages of development but the KARMA project at Columbia University looks promising).

Of course sound is also a very important component of any virtual reality system. This could consist of a descriptive narrative, relevant data tumed into speech form by the computer using voice synthesis, or it could be a set of synthesised sounds belonging to a computer generated virtual world. For simple 3-D and augmented reality systems, sound is usually generated by fairly standard multimedia type audio output hardware and software.

Just as the user can enter a virtual world with the aid of a head mounted display, so he can also enter a world of virtual sounds. This is done by equipping the HMD with special earphones that can output computer-generated sounds which
have position and intensity within the virtual world. A scund might appear to be behind the HMD user, but as he turns his head 180 degrees, the sound source moves round until it is in front of him. Likewise as he gets closer to it gets louder and as he goes further away it gets softer.

With HMDs that shut out the images and sounds of the real world and replace them with naturalistic 3-D images and sounds from a virtual world, the user is said to be immersed in a virtual world, and this type of system is often referred to as an immersion VR system. With the addition of hand position sensors, or even whole body position sensors, it is possible for the individual using an immersion system to interact with the computer generated virtual world in much the same way as he or she would interact with the real world. Indeed the distinction between existing in a real world and existing in a virtual world start to blur.

From here we go to virtual reality systems which have several users, and where the system senses the position and movement of each user within its virtual world. The system then creates virtual images of each user so that virtual users can interact with each other in the virtual world even though they may be physically located many thousands of miles apart. This is a concept which has been taken up by the military (see box) and has considerable potential in a range of other areas such as education, and teleconferencing.

## Into a virtual future

The future for VR technology is exciting. We already have all the basic technologies, it is just a matter of developing them further and reducing the cost so that they can become genuine consumer products. Prices of several key VR system components are already dropping, head mounted displays are now available at under $£ 1,000$ compared with about $£ 4,000$ only a year ago. And, computing power is dropping in price very rapidly thanks to competition amongst the manufacturers of PCs and workstations.

It has been said by several senior figures in the industry that virtual reality is now at a similar stage in its development to personal computing with the ZX81, and that it will reach a par with today's personal computing within about four years. This implies a rapid development process, and it also implies that somewhere during that period a VR standard will develop in much the same way that the IBM PC has developed as a standard.

Standardisation is the key to the proper commercialisation of virtual reality. Without it, the industry will not achieve either the volume of production to drastically cut prices or a large volume of commercial software, virtual worlds etc., let alone
the development of global virtual reality networks along the line of the Internet.

Probably the first true commercial virtual reality systems will be produced by manufacturers of game systems, and we can expect to see the first of these by the end of the year.
However, these early commercial systems will not necessarily be the ones from which standards will arise, but they will give a glimpse of some of the possibilities of virtual reality.

They will encourage the development of commercial VR software, primarily games but some educational material, plus the usual array of 'adult' software. It will also lead to the creation of global VR networks through the development of multiplayer games, in much the same way as multiplayer computer games encouraged a lot of people to use global computer networks. This in tum will generate further pressure towards the creation of a global standard for VR.

Once global VR networks are established, thanks to the infrastructure being built for the information super highway, then we will start to see applications with enormous potential for all of us. Applications such as virtual education systems where anyone in the world could attend virtual lectures by the worlds leading experts. Applications such as telemedicine where doctors could perform surgery on a patient located thousands of miles away. Applications such as virtual tourism which would allow us to visit a holiday destination and see what it is like before we physically go there. We will even see the development of virtual work, an application that will allow the individual to be located thousands of miles away from his or her actual workplace.

The range of potential applications for VR is enormous and will grow even bigger as VR technology improves to the stage where the sounds and images we receive from a virtual world are almost indistinguishable from those we receive in the real world. Not only will visual and sound systems improve, but so will other sensory and feedback systems. The dataglove concept will be expanded to create the data suit that will not only register all our smallest movements, but will also feedback all the sensations which we would expect if the virtual environment was real.

Virtual reality will allow us to do a wide range of things which are currently impossible. As individuals we can go anywhere and do anything in a virtual world, from visiting the deepest oceans to the depths of space. All that is needed is the further development of the technology, the creation of new concepts such as bio-control, and the integration of existing concepts such as artificial intelligence. It is a great challenge and an interesting future.

## CONTACT SOURCES:

There are a lot of companies on both sides of the Atlantic which are now producing virtual reality systems, equipment, and software. The following a just a few of them, this is not a definitive list by any means, but simply those companies which have been involved in providing some of the information used in this piece.

Virtuality Entertainment Ltd
Liquid Image Corporation, 659 Century St , Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada R3HOL9.
Virtual Presence Ltd
Kaiser Opto-Electrics, 2752 Loker Avenue West,
Carlsbad, CA 92008
Fly It Simulators, 3042, Highland Drive, Carlsbad, CA 92008
Superscape Ltd

Tel: 01162-337000
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## (2)

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# The N umbers 

## John Scott Paterson explains how to make a Pocket Random Number Generator to select those winning lottery numbers

1he National Lottery is very much in everyone's minds at the moment, and the other night, I was chatting with friends in the pub abouthow different people select their weekly numbers. Some of them said that they just picked six family birthdays or anniversaries; some chose six house numbers from around their own house, while others picked numbers from bank accounts or PIN numbers. Most said that they stuck to those numbers every week, probably because they would kick themselves if a previous selection came out at later date.
Statisticians tells us that the old technique of using birthdays or anniversaries is not very likely to be successful, as using dates excludes the numbers 32-49 which 1 have noticed, come out quite often in the National Lottery. Similarly, using house numbers can have problems as there are often no odd or even house numbers in any given area.
Because of the many different factors involved in the selection
of the numbers in the lottery, i.e. which machine they use, who loads it, who starts it and how long it takes for the numbers to pop out, it might as well be thought of as complete randomness. OK -students of the Chaos Theory will argue that the position of a ball in space, along with 48 others must be determined by external physical factors and so is not strictly random. If its position isn't random, neither is the possibility of its selection - yawn!, yawn!!. As far as we are concerned as punters, we have no physical control over the lottery machine or the selection of numbers and to this end we can regard the process as being totally random.
This being the case, the best way to select your numbers would seem to be to pick six random numbers every time. This sounds very easy, but because we all use numbers daily for such things as bank PIN numbers, account numbers, telephone numbers etc., we nearly always fall into the trap of using numbers that we are familiar with. I usually spend five pounds on tickets every week and it really does become quite

difficult to select different sets of six numbers even on the same card. I therefore thought of designing a system that produces 'totally random' numbers between 1 and 49 .
The first idea I had was to use a computer to generate a set of six random numbers using the RND function. The program would check if any number generated had already been chosen, and if so, would make a further selection until six numbers had been chosen.
The program was written in OPL on a PSION 3a portable computer and when the program was run and given a seed to start the random function, it seemed to perform well. (Anyone interested in a copy of the program should contact me through the offices of ETI.) However, as everyone knows, computers that generate random numbers are pseudo-random number generators and that at some time, the sequence would repeat. I didn't think this was good enough and decided on a hardware approach to number generation. The design presented here is the result.

## The Basic Principle

The concept is simple enough. We have a counter that continuously cycles through the numbers 1 to 49 and we include a means to stop the count and display it before the process repeats. If the clock frequency is high enough the subject pressing the STOP button will have no idea where in the sequence the counter has reached and the number so chosen will, for all intents and purposes, be random. This was tried first and although it worked well, I still wanted some 'natural' element of randomness to take part in the number selection.

Instead of having a single, high frequency clock to drive the counter, it would be much more random, if the counter was driven by multiple, unpredictable frequency clocks and this is the method used here.

## A Nice Little "ERNIE".

Unlike the huge ERNIE (Electronic Random Number Generating Equipment) computer used to select the premium bond winners, the device described measures $60 \times 100 \times$ 24 mm . It has two, seven segment displays to display the number generated.

Figure 1 shows the main circuit diagram which can be broken down into three distinct sections, Input/Select, Counter and Clock Generation.

## Counter Section.

The counter section is quite simple using two cascaded synchronous BCD counters which drive two BCD-7-Segment Latch-Decoder-Driver chips, type 4511. The two counters are configured as Up counters by connecting pin 10 of each to the +ve supply. Each can be preset with the Units counter being preset to ' 1 ', by setting IC4s parallel load inputs to '0001'. The

Tens counter is preset to ' 0 ', by setting IC3s parallel load inputs to '0000'.

This is done to ensure that a count of ' 00 ' cannot occur as the number ' 0 ' does not appear in the lottery numbers. Also, as we do not want numbers greater than 49 to be generated, we need to reset both counters to the initial state on a count of '50'. This is done by diode AND-ing outputs Q4 and Q1 of counter IC3. Only when both these outputs are high, do the LOAD input pins of both counters go momentarily high, presetting to the initial count of ' 1 '. The counter section is always enabled and clocked and so runs ad infinitum, however the display drivers have two store Inputs which when taken to logic ' 1 ' store the number currently reached by the counter.

## Clock Section.

This is not a regular clock generator as I wanted to have a more natural element of randomness, so I opted for a white noise source. It is easy to build a digital white noise source


Fig. 2. Component layout for the two boards
from a shift register with some gating, but again, the output produced would not be truely random. So, I chose to use the classic Zener noise generator circuit. Here, the base-emitter junction of Tr1 is reversed biassed through R4 which results in Zener breakdown and the production of 'shot noise' due to the random emission of carriers within the $\mathrm{P}-\mathrm{N}$ junction of Tr 1 .

This noise is first amplified by $\operatorname{Tr} 2$, then again by a much larger factor in 1C2 to produce a noise signal which, swinging between the supply rails, is suitable for use as a clock signal for the counter section. The output frequencies are unknown and unpredictable and just the job to add that naturally random element to the design. The output of IC2 is used to clock the counters IC3 and IC4 via pin 15.

## Input/Select

This section detects a keypress and produces the necessary control signals for the counter section. IC1 is half a section of a dual monostable configured as a +ve edge-triggered mono and when $S 1$ is closed, pin 4 of IC1 is at logic ' 0 ' the $Q$ output is at logic ' 0 ' enabling the latches of ICs 5 and 6. The not $Q$ output is at logic ' 1 ' so blanking the two 7 -segment displays.

When S1 is released the monostable is triggered for the period set by R2 and C1. The Q output changes to logic '1' latching the count reached into ICs 5 and 6 . The not $Q$ output changes to logic ' 0 ', switching on the two displays which show the number generated. After the time-out of the monostable, the display blanks (preserving battery power) and the latch is again enabled. Adjusting the values of R2 and C1 will vary the 'On' time of the display to suit.

The whole circuit is powered by a PP3 battery.

## Construction.

To keep the size of the unit down to a minimumr, I decided to build it on two small PCBs measuring approx 54 mm square which are then sandwiched together. One board contains the displays and drivers, and the second contain all other components.

Figure 2 shows the foil layouts for the two PCBs. Note that these are shown as seen 'through the board' and are twice normal size. This has been done for two reasons: first, it is easier to design a PCB from the top, seeing components in their real position relative to each other before connecting them together. Second, when the artwork is photo-reduced onto film, the emulsion ends up on the side which goes against the copper. This reduces side scatter of light in the exposure unit which would tend to reduce the resultant width of tracks prior to etching. This can be crucial when dealing with very thin tracks.

Figure 3 shows the component layouts for the two boards. It is best to consult this when building the project.

Start by building the display board, fitting resistors R9-R22 first, then ICs5 and 6, and finally fit the two displays and Vero pins for the battery connections. Since it is a bit of a squeeze I don't recommend the use of IC sockets in this project.

On the second board, start by fitting the 4 wire links, three of which are under ICs 3 and 4. Then fit the other components in the order, diodes, resistors, transistors, ICs then capacitors. Finally fit the two Vero pins for switch S1.

## Connecting the boards

The easiest way is to perform 12 pieces of insulated wire to the specification as shown in Figure 3. Insert one end of each wire link into one of the boards, then solder in place, cropping off the excess. Then insert the other ends into the second
board and solder and crop as before. Test the unit before folding one board over onto the other.

With a meter, check that there are no direct shorts between the supply rails on each board, if not connect a battery and S1. Each time S1 is pressed and released a number should be generated for about a second. If all is well, fold one board over onto the other placing a small thin sheet of Plasticard $54 \mathrm{~mm} \times 54 \mathrm{~mm}$ in between the boards to stop shorts and fix the boards together using two pieces of stiff wire threaded through the holes at the top. The unit is meant to be a push fit inside the case and this method of construction does away with nuts and bolts and holes in your case etc.

A sub-min slide switch was used as the On-Off switch and this along with a sub-min push switch are fitted into opposite sides of the case lid, AFTER the boards'have been fitted in place. The lid needs a rectangular cut-out $25 \mathrm{~mm} \times 17 \mathrm{~mm}$ above the display which can be done with a punch or a drill and small saw. A piece of red polarising plastic $35 \mathrm{~mm} \times$ 47 mm is cut and superglued onto the top of the case lid; this covers any rough edges you may have had when cutting out your hole.

That completes the Random Number Generator unit and I wish you all good luck with it. I can't guarantee to make you a millionaire, but you never know until you try!
P.S. As yet lhave not given up my day job!


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# BAT SIMULATOR AND BAT SOUND DETECTOR 

This project designed by E. Chicken allows the user to hear the sounds made by bats in flight, and an even simpler unit that electronically simulates bat sounds for testing it.

Bat-watching is a fascinating and interesting adventure, but without a bat sound-detector it can be like watching television without the audio! Whilst sunset is perhaps the best time of day to see and hear bats as they leave their dwelling places for nocturnal activities, there may be times during the hours of darkness when it is not possible to see the bats in flight. Listening to their sound-emissions becomes the only way to detect their presence and follow their flight patterns.

However, without the help of electronics their sounds cannot be heard by humans because the sound-waves they emit are at frequencies very much higher than those audible to human ears. Although a very young ear might respond to perhaps 20 kHz , the average healthy adult person can only
discern sound-waves up to a frequency of about 15 kHz , but even that upper frequency limit decreases with age.

It is therefore feasible that an infant might just be able to hear some impression of sound from say a Serotine bat, believed to use frequencies as low as 20 kHz . As most bat sound-waves are in the supersonic range $30-100 \mathrm{kHz}$ the use of an electronic aid becomes mandatory.

Unlike most other animals, bats use sound for more than defining territorial boundaries and attracting mates. Bat-sound is used as a very efficient form of sonic-radar to map out obstacles and insects in the bat's flight path. Repetitive short pulses of sound-waves are transmitted by the bat in its direction of flight, and the return-echoes from objects in the line of fire are heard by the bat whose brain converts them into locational data such as distance, direction and size.


Fig.1. Circuit diagram for heterodyne bat-detector


NOTE: STRIPBOARD MAY BE CUT THROUGH AT COUUM 28 FOR STAGKING INTO SMALLER BOX WITH SHORT WRE LINKS BETWEEN HOLES 27 AND 29 ON TRACKS C, D, H, J, K, L, M, N, S


Fig.2. Bat-detector component layout and wiring



Fig.3. Circuit diagram for bat simulator


NOTE: TRANSDUCER LEAD-LENGTH 50 mm MAX


Fig.4. Component layout and wiring for bat simulator

Because there is so much overlapping of frequency-bands used by the several species of bat, the bat sound-detector can only indicate whether the particular sound comes from say a Horseshoe bat at the higher-frequency end of the band (80110 kHz ), or from the lower to middle frequency part of the band $(20-60 \mathrm{kHz})$ used by more than one species.

## Electronics Chat

This unit down-converts the supersonic bat-frequencies such that they fall within the audible range of human hearing, hence to be heard in headphones. It is designed for portability with its own battery, and can be tested at home using the batsimulator without having to await the right conditions for its intended use.

The heterodyne principle is applied in the sound-detector by mixing the bat-signal frequency with another locally generated signal of a slightly different frequency, in a process which replaces the two original frequencies by a third frequency that is the arithmetic difference between them. This difference-frequency signal is an exact replica of the bat sound-signal, but which now falls within the human audiofrequency range. For example, if a 50 kHz bat signal is mixed with a 47 kHz electronically generated signal, a 3 kHz audiofrequency signal is produced which is identical in format to the original bat-signai except that it can now be heard by humans.

It should be noted that the heterodyne process also produces a fourth, but unwanted frequency - i.e. the arithmetic sum (as opposed to difference) of the two original frequencies. This sum-frequency is deliberately suppressed by the circuit design.

A special ultrasonic microphone is used which is sensitive to the sound-frequencies from the bat, but not to those from human activities. The microphone is the 'receive' unit from a pair of ultrasonic transmit/receive transducers such as are used in remote-control systems. These transducers have a sensitivity maximum at about 40 kHz , but are also quite sensitive across the whole ultrasonic frequency range. They are somewhat insensitive to audio-frequency sound-waves, which makes them even more attractive as a sensor for bat-sounds.

Referring to the circuit diagram as given in Figure 1, batsignals from the microphone are amplified in two successive stages by a dual pre-amp IC type LM381. Each amplifying stage has a voltage gain of $\times 220$ determined by the resistor combinations $\mathrm{R} 2 \div \mathrm{R} 1$ and $\mathrm{R} 5 \div \mathrm{R} 4$, to give an overall voltage amplification of almost 50,000.

The possibility of interference with the bat-signal from any voice-frequency signals picked up by the microphone, is further reduced by the high-pass filter formed by C3, R3, C4 in the signal path between the two microphone-amplifier stages IC1a and IC 1 b . This filter allows the bat-frequencies to pass unhindered, but inhibits lower frequencies such as those from human voices and noises produced by handling of the sound-detector housing.

Interference from radio-frequency signals is minimised by the choice of amplifier IC, because the type LM381 is unable to amplify signals at frequencies much higher than those used by bats.

After amplification, the bat-signal is ac-coupled by C6 into one input terminal (pin 1) of the mixer IC2. Resistor R6 is used as a simple form of impedance matching between the IC1b output and IC2 input. IC2 is a double-balanced mixer device type NE602 or the slightly lower cost alternative NE612, which electronically mixes the bat-signal with the signal from a localoscillator whose frequency is only a few kHz different from that of the bat.

IC3 which serves as the local oscillator, is a type 555 timer device configured as a variable-frequency oscillator with a square-wave output voltage. A low-pass filter formed by R14, C15, R15 rounds off the square-wave output from pin 3 of IC3 to feed a pseudo sine-wave into the second input terminal (pin 6) of mixer IC2 via capacitor C7.

The oscillator frequency is given approximately by $f(\mathrm{kHz})=$ $710 / \mathrm{Cr}$ where $\mathrm{C}=\mathrm{C} 14$ in nF and $\mathrm{R}=(\mathrm{R12+RV1)} \mathrm{in} \mathrm{kohm} \mathrm{to}$, provide a frequency swing of about $20-120 \mathrm{kHz}$ which adequately covers the bat frequeno -range. RVI is externaily accessible so allows the frequency to be manually adjusted to be within a few kHz of the bat-signai frequency, for whatever species of bat. In other words, the bat sound-detector is 'tuned' by RV1 for optimum audio-control and calibrated in kHz , or bat-species, or both.

The mixer output signal at the difference-frequiency as determined by adjustment of RV1 actually falls within the audiofrequency range of human hearing, but it needs to be divorced from the unwanted sum-frequency signal before it alone can be amplified and fed to headphone as audible bat-sound. Components R8, C10 and R9 form a low-pass filter between the mixer output and the IC4 audio amplifier input, which allows unhindered passage to the low difference-frequencies whilst blocking the much higher frequencies of the sum-signal.

This filter also provides further protection against interference from unwanted radio-frequency signals such as broadcast.

Amplification of the now filtered audio-signal is provided by IC4, a standard 741 operational amplifier. Resistor combination R11 $\div$ R10 gives the af amplifier a voltage gain of $\times 10$, which is sufficient to produce an acceptable sound level


NOTE: SW2/90kHz optional


Fig.5. Bat simulator housing


Fig.6. Bat detector housing
in headphones from dc, and a stereo-type socket with its two tip-terminals strapped allows the use of either stereo or mono phones.

Power supply-is from a.PP3 9volt battery at a current drain of about 25mA. Whilst the push-button on-otf switch gives some control of battery-life, the use of a high-power type of PP3 battery is advisable.

## Bat-Simulator

This is a separate small portable unit of simplistic design, with its own battery. Current drain from the battery is minimal. The simulator provides a signal with wuich to test/calibrate the bat sound-detector. It uses the 'Iransmit' transducer from the transmit/receive pair mentioned earlier, to radiate a pulsedtrain of ultrasonic waves at bat-frequencies with a sound power-level similar to that from a bat in flight.

Whilst the simulated signal does sound like that from a real bat, the pulse time-duration has been designed to be much longer than normal. This results in a pulsed whistle-tone being heard while adjusting the bat-tuning control RV1 of the bat sound-detector, which helps in the calibration of that control.

A choice of two frequencies is available at the touch of a switch. One at 45 kHz is centred on the $20-60 \mathrm{kHz}$ band used by the Serotine, Brown Long-eared and Pipistrelle bats, and another at 90 kHz centred on the $80-110 \mathrm{kHz}$ band used by the Horseshoe bat. This dual frequency facility is again useful in calibrating the frequency/bat-tuning controll of the sounddetector unit.

The bat-simulator has a transmission-range similar to that of a live bat, so the unit can be placed some 20-30 metres distance from the bat sound-detector to check its sensitivity


## Capacitor <br> - C1 <br> - C2 <br> - C3

In ceramic disc 100 V $2 \mu 2$ electrolytic, 25 V axial lead $100 \mu$ electrolytic, 25 V axial lead

## Semiconductors

- IC1


## Miscellaneous

| - Qty 1 | DIL socket, 14 pin, low profile |
| :---: | :---: |
| - Qty 2 | Switch, ultra-min toggle, SPST |
| - Oty 1 | Box, 75×50x25mm, plastic |
| - Qty 1 | Battery PP3, zinc chloride |
| - Qty 1 | Battery clip, dual miniature |
|  | PP3 |
|  | with leads |
| - Qty 1 | Stripboard 10 strips $\times 20$ |
|  | holes |
|  | offcut from above |
| - Qty 1 | Ulitrasonic transmitter |
|  | transducer |
|  | from pair above |

and directivity.
Figure 3 gives the circuit diagram of the simulator. A dualtimer IC type 556 is configured as two free-running oscillators, the outputs of which combine to produce the pulsed ultrasonic tones. Each of the two oscillators uses a circuit similar to that of the local-oscillator in bat sound-detector unit, except that their frequencles are not variable and no attempt is made to round-off their square-wave shapes.

One oscillates in the ultrasonic frequency region, while the other oscillates at the very low pulse-rate frequency of 8 Hz . The square-wave voltage-output from the low-frequency oscillator is used to switch on and off the ultrasonic oscillator at the rate of eight times per second, so prodúcing an 8 Hz pulsed wave-train in the bat-frequency range.

The ultrasonic oscillator has two frequencies preset at 45 kHz and 90 kHz , and selected by switch SW2. Frequency is determined by C1\&R1 for 45 kHz , or by C1\&R1\&R3 for 90 kHz , using the formua $f(\mathrm{kHz})=710 \div(\mathrm{CxR})$ where C is in nF , and R is in kohm. With switch SW2 open only R1 is in circuit, to give a frequency of $\angle 5 \mathrm{kHz}$. Closing SW2 connects R3 in parallel with R1 hence doubling the frequency to 90 kHz .

However, the $45 / 90 \mathrm{kHz}$ can only function when its 'reset' pin4 is connected to a positive voltage, and the 8 Hz oscillator serves that purpose. The low-requency oscillation is preset at 8 Hz by means of C 2 and R 2 , given by the formula $f(\mathrm{~Hz})=$ $0.71 \div(\mathrm{C} 2 \times \mathrm{R} 2)$ where C 2 is in microfarad and R 2 is in kilohm. The 8 Hz output signal from pin 9 is a square-wave whose amplitude vanes periodically between OV and +9 V . This is connected to the reset terminal pin4 of the ultrasonic oscillator, thereby switching its $45 / 90 \mathrm{kHz}$ oscillations on and off at the rate of 8 times per second.

The resultant pulsating $45 / 90 \mathrm{kHz}$ signal from output pin5 of the ultrasonic oscillator is fed to the 'transmit' transducer of the transmit/receive pair, which acts as a mini-loudspeaker to
radiate a continual string of ultrasonic pulses at 8 per second, hence simulating a bat-signal. The pulses are radiated in a highly directional conical beam from the central aperture of the transducer in very much the same directional pattern as those from a bat. Again, they can not be heard by the human ear, but are fully audible when received by the bat sound-detector.

Because the pulse time-duration of the bat-simulator signal is relatively long compared to that from a real bat, it produces in the bat sound-detector a discernible heterodyne-whistle tone that can be varied to zero-beat by adjustment of battuning control RV1. These zero-beats allow the rotation of RV1 to be calibrated at its 45 kHz and 90 kHz positions, so to identify the bat-sound in the phones as being from either the Serotine, Pipistrelle, Brown Long-eared group of bats, or the Horseshoe species respectively.

## Construction

Copper stripboard of 0.1 inch grid is used for each unit, with the component layout and wiring shown in Figures 2 and 4. The use of stripboard rather than printed-circuit means that these units can be constructed simply and economically.

DIL sockets are used for the ICs, and inter-wiring is simplified by using the given layouts with cuts in the copper tracks as shown. These cuts can be made by hand using a sharp 3 mm drill, or better still by means of proper track-cutting tool. They are not expensive, and really are to be recommended as a long-term investment. All components are horizontally mounted. Wiring is by single-core pvc of different colours such as from a short length of internal telephone cable. The colours help in checking the finished assembly

This type of wiring layout results in a circuit-board a jittle larger than would be the case if point to point wiring were adopted, but the sound-detector board layout allows for it to be cut in two and folded for fitting into a smaller box if required. Referring to Figure 2, the cut would be made at hole column 28, with short wire-links soldered between holes 27 \& 29 on tracks C, D, H, J, K, L, M, N, S.

A 3.5 stereo headphone socket is used with the bat sounddetector to accommodate stereo phones, although of course the sound is not in stereo. As an alternative to being panelmounted, a stereo 3.5 mm line-socket on the free-end of a short flexible cable would save'box-space, but in either case only the two tip-terminals of the socket must be used, with the common-terminal left unconnected. This connects the two earpieces in series.

The bat-simulator does not deally need a box. The frequency switch and transducer could be soldered directly to the board, and for further simplicity the switch and R3 could be omitted, so giving only the 45 kHz signal as used the most bat species. Even the on/off switch çould be dispensed with, by disconneceting the battery when not in use.

A low-cost plastic box with a removable lid makes a suitable housing for either unit, The battery and strip-board whether cut and folded or not, can be fixed securely into place using pieces of plasticine, Blu-Tak, or double-sided adhesive pads.

For the bat-tuning/frequency control RV1 of the sounddetector, a rotary preset potentiometer of the cermet type with a finger-adjustment or dust cover is ideal, being smaller and cheaper than a miniature rotary potentiometer plus knob, and easier to install. It can very simply be inserted into the side wall of the box by drilling three small holes for the pins, and gently bending-over the pins on the inside to hold the control in place. Pointed-nose pliers or tweezers should be used to protect the plastic box when soldering the connecting wires to the potentiometer.

Two small holes in the end face of the sound-detector and/or simulator box allow the transducer pins to be inserted, and again the pins may be bent slightly but carefully on the inside to hold the transducer in place.

The push-button on/off switch for the sound-detector should be mounted on the side panel opposite the bat-tuning control, and positioned for most comfortable thumb-access.

Connecting wires between circuit board and external components should be as short as possible to minimise radiofrequency pick-up.

Box dimensions given in Figures 586 are for guidance only. It is always worth a reconnaissance of the kitchen cupboards before buying a boxl

Before connecting the battery, each finished stripbaord should be carefully checked for correctness of wiring and track-cuttings, and for solder-splashes across the tracks.

## Use of Bat Sound-Detector and Simulator

When the sound-detector battery on/off switch is pressed, a hissing sound will be heard in the headphone. No other sound should be heard even while speaking. To test the sounddetector quickly and easily, rub together one's fingers in front of the receive transducer. The ultrasonic content of the rubbing process should be distinctly audible in the phones, much more pronounced than that heard by the ear without the phones.

A better test is to position the bat-simulator at some 10-20 mêtres distance but within view with the unit switched on and set for 45 kHz , and with the transducer-face pointing towards the sound detector. A strong pulsating/tapping sound should be heard in the phones. By rotating the bat-tune control on the sound detector the tapping should change to a pulsating whistle-tone.

The control should then be adjusted until the musical pitch of the tone decreased towards zero-beatin the phones. The panel should be marked ai the zero-beat position of the control, vith the legend Pipistrelle/45kHz . With the simulator now switched to 90 kHz , the bat-tune control should be reacjuisted for another zero beat of the pulsating tone, and the panel marked Horseshoe $/ 90 \mathrm{kHz}$ at that new position of the control.
The bat-tone control should then be adjusted for maximum aulible signal, and the detector moved in a wide circularsweep to give a sense of the receive-transducer's highly directional properties. Similarly, the detector is kept stationery while an assistant walks about with the simulator, so to observe the directivity and detection-range of the simulator's transmit-transducer.

Now that the sound-detector has been proven and calibrated, it is ready to be tested in eamest. Between sundown and the onset of darkness is the best time to see and hear the bats as they fly towards their night-time feeding areas.

With the bat-tune control set to its mid-position and the onbutton pressed, the detector-transducer is pointed skywards towards the anticipated flight-path of the bats. It should be possible to hear a bat upwards to $20-30 \mathrm{~m}$ distance, when strong tapping sounds will be heard irrespective of the position of the bat-tune control. Once a bat-sound is heard, the battune control is adjusted for best results in the headphones whilst following the bat's line of flight with the transducer. No further adjustment is necessary.

It would of course be possible to tape-record the sounds for later demonstration to family and friends, by fitting a twoway adaptor to the headphone socket and taking a separate lead to the recorder.

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# Nickel Metal Hydride BATTERIES 

NiMH battery technology is now one of the prime contenders in the race to provide an economical and practical power storage device for electric vehicles. Douglas Clarkson takes a look at the technology and future uses for MiNH batteries

Battery technology has a very direct impact on the development of a wide range of equipment, particularly mobile phones and laptop computers. Also, as battery technology advances, so new ranges of electronic and electrical equipment become practical to design and develop. It is perhaps significant that the bulk of the initial production of NiMH batteries has been secured by large multinational companies in the mobile phone sector. This indicates a strong


Figure 1: Basic electrode configuratión of NiMH cell.


Figure 2: Construction of cylindrical NiMH cell. (Courtesy Varta Ltd.)
demand for the emerging product
A proprietary nickel metal hydride battery technology developed and patented by the Ovonic Battery Company (Troy:Michigan) - a subsidiary of Energy Conversion Devices (ECD) is attracting considerable interest as a direct replacement for Nickel Cadmium re-chargeable batteries in a wide range of portable equipment. A range of battery manufacturers are now developing or manufacturing NiMH batteries under licence from ECD. These include Varta Batterie (Germany), Gold Peak (Hong Kong), Matsushita (Japan) and Hitachi Maxell (Japan).

The NiMH battery was initially intended as an 'interim technology' solution for portable and electric vehicle applications. The good progress with the current versions of NiMH battery technology and the prospects for extending the energy density characteristics in Wh/Kg and Wh/l have resulted in NiMH technology being recognised as potentially the best long term rechargeable battery technology available.

Also, the NiMH battery is 'greener' than the NiCd cell. It can be safely recycled or committed to landfill and poses no problems during manufacture.

With NiCd cells, manufacturers have made available a range of product types - standard, high discharge current, high capacity, high temperature and fast charge. It is likely that as the market for NiMH develops, a broader range of application specific types of batteries will become available.

Various independent groups in the former Soviet Union are also developing NiMH batteries. This could help to lower the relatively high price of NiMH batteries from their current levels. ECD has independently granted a licence to Solvux (Russia) for NiMH battery development/production.

## Development Path

When the first commercially available NiMH batteries appeared in 1987, this was only after several decades of development by a range of companies. Initially effort was focused on La:Ni (Lanthanum:Nickel) and Ti:Ni (Titanium:Nickel) systems for the negative electrode material. These compounds suffered, however, from poor ability to absorb hydrogen and were prone to oxidation and corrosion. The solution to this problem which was discovered by the Ovonic Battery Company was to introduce a disordered approach by the development of a range of complex alloys for the La:Ni and the Ti:Ni systems. The 'cocktail' of compounds for each family is indicated in table 1.
$\frac{\text { ELECTRONICS TODAY INTERNATIONAL }}{38}$

## Table 1:

Component elements of La and Ti families of metal hydride alloys for negative electrode.

LaNi Family<br>La:Lanthanum<br>Ce:Cerium<br>Pr:Praeseodymium<br>Nd:Neodymium<br>Ni:Nickel<br>Co:Cobalt<br>Mn :Manganese<br>Al:Aluminium

TiNi Family
V:Vanadium
Ti:Titanium
Zr:Zirconium Ni:Nickel
Cr:Chromium
Co:Cobalt
Mn:Manganese
Al:Aluminium
Fe:Iron

While previously the mix of metal was derived from a mixture of naturally occurring rare earth elements that can include $\mathrm{Ce}, \mathrm{La}$ and Nd these form of alloys tended to degrade in performance relatively rapidly. This type of materials is commonly referred to as 'mischmetal'. Using a so called 'disordered' materials approach, the alloy compositions have
been configured to optimise performance.
The multicomponent, multiphase materials used favour the creation of compositional and structural disorder which increases the number of chemically active sites - leading to increased hydrogen bonding possibilities.

The complex chemistry of the multicomponent multiphase hydride alloys can be configured to produce specific battery characteristics. The series of elements $\mathrm{Mg}, \mathrm{Ti}, \mathrm{V}, \mathrm{Zr}, \mathrm{Nb}$ and La are associated with increasing the number of hydrogen atoms stored per metal atom. The strength of the metalhydrogen bond is influenced by the elements $\mathrm{V}, \mathrm{Mn}$ and Zr . Catalytic properties which ensure adequate charge and discharge reaction rates and gas re-combination are provided in turn by $\mathrm{Al}, \mathrm{Mn}, \mathrm{Co}, \mathrm{Fe}$ and Ni . A range of desirable surface properties such as oxidation and corrosion resistance, improved porosity and electron and ionic conductivities are imparted by the elements $\mathrm{Cr}, \mathrm{Mo}$ and W .

Key factors in the manufacture of such complex 'cocktail' alloys are the purity of the component metals and the accuracy with which the various metals are mixed and fabricated. The elements which play a catalytic role will have a critical effect on battery function.

Thus by adjusting the relative composition of the alloy, batteries with specific performance features such as high charge rates or good charge holding function can be configured.


Figure 3: Life expectancy of standard NiMH cell oor 0.25 CA charge and 0.25 CA discharge conditions. (Courtesy Varta Lid.)


Figure 4 : Discharge curve of Varta AA cells compared with conventional NiSd AA cell. (Courtesy Varta Ltd.)


Figure 6: Discharge characteristics as a function of discharge rate. (Courtesy Varta Ltd.)

Figure 5: Typical charging characteristics of individual cell voltage as a function of charge input showing relative performance of NiMH and NiCd cells for a charge rate of 1 CA. (Courtesy Varta Lid.)

The first generation of NiMH cells at AA size, for example, had a nominal capacity of 1000 mAh , a specific energy of 56 $\mathrm{Wh} / \mathrm{Kg}$ and energy density of $180 \mathrm{~Wh} / 1$. Recent advanced types such as 'Gold Peak' cells provide a capacity of up to 1500 mAh , a specific energy of around $80 \mathrm{~Wh} / \mathrm{Kg}$ and an energy density of around $250 \mathrm{~Wh} / 1$.

## Battery Construction

Figure 1 indicates the basic configuration of the NiMH cell. The positive electrode consists of mainly NiOOH in the charged state and $\mathrm{Ni}(\mathrm{OH}) 2$ in the discharged state. The negative electrode consists mainly of Metal in the discharged state and Metal-Hydride in charged state.

The charging process therefore transfers hydrogen from the Nickel positive electrode to the metal negative electrode. The electrolyte used is KOH, Potassium Hydroxide. In the conventional NiCd cell, the negative electrode is formed from Cadmium. Up to $20 \%$ of the weight of typical NiCd cells is accounted for by Cadmium content.

In prismatic cells of square or rectangular cross section, the electrodes are layered as flat plates interspaced by separator sheets.

In order to protect the cell from oxygen which is released at the end of charging and to protect against end of discharge, the negative cell is over dimensioned. It is therefore the net size of the positive electrode which determines the cell capacity.

Figure 2 indicates the typical structure of a cylindrical NiMH cell. The separator material which is impregnated with electrolyte is a synthetic non-woven material. While the cell will operate over most of its cycle without build up of pressure, a resealable vent is typically included under the positive terminal.


Figure 7: Relative capacity of Ovonic NiMH AA cells and primary alkaline AA cells. The NiMH cells are able to deliver higher capacity at discharge levels above around 200 mA .

## Battery Characteristics

NiMH batteries have broadly similar characteristics to NiCd batteries in terms of their charge/discharge performance. The various terms such as nominal capacity and available capacity are carefully defined within a wider framework of definitions. A range of parameters for first generation types are referenced.

The nominal capacity ( $C$ ) in Ah denotes the minimum amount of capacity which can be withdrawn in 5 hours when discharging at the nominal rate (defined as 0.2 CA ). The end of discharge voltage is defined as 1.0 V . Thus for a 1000 mAh capacity, the nominal discharge rate will be $0.2 \mathrm{CA}=200 \mathrm{~mA}$. The discharge capacity decreases with increased discharge current.

The standard charge current for 1000 mAh capacity NiMH cells is usually 0.1 CA which is applied over a period of $15-16$ hours: The maximum recommended charge time at this charge rate is 100 hours. Higher currents can be used though this can reduce battery life through development of elevated temperatures.

The life expectancy of NiMH batteries is a critical factor in assessing a battery technology. Figure 3 indicates the discharge capacity of 1000 mAh cells as a function of number of charge/discharge cycles for standard NiMH cells at 0.25 CA charge and 0.25 CA discharge conditions.

Charging at accelerated rates is 0.3 CA is possible. It is advised that temperature cut off devices or time limitation of 5
hours are utilised if currents of eg 0.3 CA are used. Fast charge at constant current of 0.5 CA to 1 CA requires charge termination primarily due to temperature cut out and monitoring of rates of rise of cell temperature. In this mode, software can predict temperature end points during charge phases and so provide an added element of protection.

Standard NiCd cells provide nominal charging rates of 0.3 CA - so the 1000 mAh NiMH cells are slower to charge. Some fast charge NiCd types provide charge rates of at least 2 CA.

Trickle charge levels with standard NiMH are typically in the region 0.03 CA to 0.5 CA , which for a 1000 mAh cell equates to between 30 mA and 50 mA .

The nominal voltage of NiMH cells is 1.2 V . Figure 4 indicates the discharge curve of Varta AA cells compared with equivalent NiCd cells. The NiMH discharge characteristic maintains a more uniform output voltage over the discharge process.

## Charging Characteristics

During the charging cycle up to around $75 \%$ of capacity has been reached, the cell voltage increases to around 1.43 V due to the planned electrochemistry of the cell. Between $75 \%$ and $100 \%$ the generation of oxygen at the positive plate results in a steeper rise of cell voltage. After $100 \%$ of cell capacity has been reached, subsequent self heating of the cell results in a decrease in cell voltage. This is due to the cell's negative temperature coefficient.

Figure 5 indicates the typical charging characteristics of individual cell voltage as a function of charge input, showing the relative performance of NiMH and NiCd for a charge rate of 1 CA where temperature effects above full charge have a significant effect on cell voltage.

During cell discharge, the rated discharge capacity is achieved at the nominal cell discharge rate 0.2 CA. For discharge at higher currents, the discharge capacity is reduced as indicated in figure 6. Thus at around 3 CA, only $80 \%$ of the discharge capacity is available and the cell voltage is considerably reduced.

The higher capacity NiMH cells now available can actually provide higher capacity at high discharges than high performance alkaline cells as indicated in figure 7. When
making comparisons of cell capacity, it is essential to relate this to rates of current discharge.

The discharge capacity of the NiMH cell with temperature behaves in a similar way to that of the NiCd cell for discharge currents around 1 CA as indicated in figure 8 . There is slightly improved performance at lower discharge rates. At 0.2 CA, for example, the discharge capacity is reduced to around $95 \%$ at 20 C .

## Temperature Characteristics

While NiCd and NiMH batteries can be used over a wider range of permissible temperatures, table 2 indicates some typical recommended temperature ranges for charge, discharge and storage.

Thus, NiMH can be charged on a broader range of temperature, both at low and high ranges. NiMH can be discharged at higher temperatures. In storage, NiMH can be stored at lower temperatures but at slightly lower upper temperatures compared with NiCd. It is more than likely that the temperature tolerance of NiMH batteries in electric vehicle applications will be a critical factor in electric vehicle developments.

| NiCd <br> (standard) +10 to +35 -20 to +45 | 0 to 45 |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| NiCd +10 to +40 | 20 to +45 | 0 to 45 |
| (high temp) |  |  |
|  |  |  |
| NiMH 0 to +45 | -20 to +60 | -20 to +35 |



Figure 8: Discharge capacity as a function of temperature for NiMH cells


Figure 10: Dashed line: range of 'Impact' type EV with NiMH batteries as a function of specific energy of the batteries. Solid line: Mass of battery for equivale tt range capacity of 250 miles for 'Impact' type car as a function of specific energy of batteries

## Future Developments of NiMH Cells

While other well established battery technologies such as Zinc Carbon (AA capacity 1100 mAh ), Alkaline Manganese (AA capacity 2300 mAh ) and standard NiCd (AA capacity 700 mAh ) have remained relatively static in their nominal capacity, researchers are confident that there exists considerable potential for significant extension of the NiMH capacity. Second generation AA NiMH capacity batteries are already available with AA capacity of 1500 mAh . It is anticipated by researchers at the Ovonic Battery Company developing thin film fabrication techniques that specific energy densities of $120 \mathrm{~Wh} / \mathrm{kg}$ are achievable - suggesting that NiMH AA capacity of 2250 mAh could be commercially available in a few years. This is approaching three times the capacity of standard NiCd cells.

Already advanced battery materials and configurations are being considered which have the potential for storage of 500 Wh/kg. This capacity in an AA cell would be in the region of 9000 mAh . There are clearly some interesting times in store.

## Use in Electric Vehicles

The Ovonic battery Company has produced and tested a range of NiMH batteries for use in electric vehicles. 1.2 kWh ( $12 \vee 100 \mathrm{Ah}$ ) modules have been used to construct battery units between $10-30 \mathrm{kWH}$. This corresponds approximately to a battery mass of 125 kg to 375 kg for an energy density of $80 \mathrm{~Wh} / \mathrm{kg}$.

The pioneering 'Impact' vehicle being developed by General Motors (figure 9) uses advanced engineering design to achieve high energy efficiency. Using state-of-the-art lead acid batteries providing 16.7 kWh , a range of between 70 to 100 miles of urban driving can be attained. A set of NiMH batteries of the same weight ( 490 kg ) could be used to propel the impact between 200 to 292 miles and provide 39 kWh of energy storage. The NiMH battery is able to utilise a greater percentage of its stored capacity compared with a lead acid type.

Assuming a conservative total of 500 charge cycles could be achieved, a total battery life of 100,000 miles for NiMH EV batteries should be possible. Currently, the lead acid batteries. used with the Impact would have to be replaced every 20,000 miles. With development of energy densities of $120 \mathrm{~Wh} / \mathrm{kg}$, this would allow the range of such a vehicle to be increased to 375 miles for the same battery weight or the battery weight being reduced to around 320 kg for a range of 250 miles.

There is clearly scope for progressively reducing the size and volume of electric vehicle NiMH batteries but providing a standard range of around 250 miles.

Figure 10 (dashed line) outlines some details of range as a function of specific energies of NiMH batteries. A sensible upper limit for a town type electric vehicle would probably, however, be 300 miles.

The solid curved line in figure 10 indicates the battery weight equivalent to a range of 250 miles for an 'Impact' type car. At present, the battery weight is a significant percentage of the weight of an electric vehicle. It is likely, however, that the percentage will gradually fall as NiMH battery technology attains higher values of specific energy.

As ever, it is the economics of the electric vehicle which still dominates the present and future. It is estimated that the cost for an average electric car of NiMH batteries in large volume production will be around $\$ 4,500$ based on a cost of around $\$ 200$ per kWh . Figure 11 indicates estimated costs for a range of vehicle capacities in kWh as a function
of cost per kWh.
Where small cars in the USA sell for around $\$ 9,000$, electric vehicles will come into their own where the cost of the battery is around $\$ 2,000$. The radical new technology of the electric vehicle, however, does present some deeper issues. Is it likely, for example, that such vehicles should be easier to manufacture and require a reduced labour force? Also, when in use, are they likely to require reduced maintenance compared with a conventionally powered vehicle?

There is also the aspect of the cost of the electricity against the cost of fuel. In the UK, the cost of petrol for a vehicle with 50 mpg petrol consumption which has travelled 100,000 miles is $£ 5,000$. The equivalent cost of electricity based on 39 kWh being equivalent to 250 miles of travel is around $£ 1,100$ - giving a ratio of costs of petrol/electricity of around 4.6. In the USA the ratio of costs of petrol/electricity is around 6 though petrol and electricity are both less expensive.

Based on such simple economics, there is every indication that even for a battery costing $£ 5,000$ initially, the additional outlay will be recovered through time with reduced running costs using electricity. The high initial cost of the battery may be a red herring.

## Summary

The drive towards development of higher energy capacity batteries for a range of technologies is certainly underway. At present, the NiMH rechargable battery looks like the front runner although a range of parallel technologies are also being researched. While this will bring benefits to users of a wide range of portable electric and electronic equipment, it is likely to have most impact in the development of efficient and cost-effective electric vehicles and possibly also in applications to store energy from photovoltaic systems.

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## Making <br> Control pulse-width proportional servos and measure the pulse width of other servo drivers with this project based on the versatile Parallax BASIC <br> work for you

 Stamp computerServos of the sort used in radio-controlled aircraft are finding new applications in home and industrial automation, movie and theme-park special effects, and test equipment. They simplify the job of moving objects in the real world by eliminating much of the mechanical design. For a given signal input, you get a predictable amount of motion as an output.
Figure 1 shows a typical servo. The three wires are +5 volts, ground, and signal. The output shaft accepts a wide variety of prefabricated disks and levers. It is driven by a geared-down motor and rotates through 90 to 180 degrees. Most servos can rotate 90 degrees in less than a half second.
Torque, a measure of the servo's ability to overcome mechanical resistance (or lift weight, pull springs, push levers, amount of motion as an output
etc.), ranges from 20 to more than 100 inch-ounces. To make a servo move, connect it to a 5 -volt power supply capable of delivering an ampere or more of peak current, and supply a positioning signal. The signal is generally a 5 -volt, positive-going pulse between 1 and 2 milliseconds ( ms ) long, repeated about 50 times per second.
The width of the pulse determines the position of the servo. Since servos travel can vary, there is not a definite correspondence between a given pulse width and a particular servo angle, but most servos will move to the centre of their travel when receiving $1.5-\mathrm{ms}$ pulses.
Servos are closedrloop devices. This means that they are constantly comparing their commanded position (proportional to the pulse width) to their actual position (proportional to the resistance of a potentiometer mechanically linked to the shaft). If there is more than a small difference between the two, the servo's electronics will turn on the motor to eliminate the error. In addition to moving in response to changing input signals, this active error correction means that servos will resist mechanical forces that try to move them away from a commanded position. When the servo is unpowered or not receiving positioning pulses, you can easily turn the output shaft by hand. When the servo is powered and receiving signals, it won't budge from its position.



## Application

Driving servos with the BASIC Stamp is simplicity itself. The instruction pulse out pin, time generates a pulse in 10microsecond units, so the following code fragment would command a servo to its centered position and hold it there:
servo:
pulse out 0,150
pause 20
goto servo

The $20-\mathrm{ms}$ pause ensures that the program sends the pulse at the standard 50 pulse-per-second rate.

The program listing is a diagnostic tool for working with servos. It has two modes, pulse measurement and pulse generation. Given an input servo signal, such as from a radiocontrol transmitter/receiver, it displays the pulse width on a liquid-crystal display (LCD). A display of

Pulse Width: 150
indicates a $1.5-\mathrm{ms}$ pulse. Push the button to toggle functions, and the circuit suipplies a signal that cycles between 1 and 2 ms . Both the pulse input and output functions are limited to a resolution of $10 \mu \mathrm{~s}$. For most servos, this equates to a resolution of better than 1 degree of rotation.

The program is straightforward Stamp BASIC, but it does take adväntage of a couple of the language's handy features. The first of these is the EEPROM directive. EEPROM address, data allows you to stuff tables of data or text strings into EEPROM memory. This takes no additional program time, and only uses the amount of storage required for the data.

After the symbols, the first thing that the listing does is tuck a couple of text strings into the bottom of the EEPROM. When the program later needs to display status messages, it loads the text strings from EEPROM.

The other feature of the Stamp's BASIC that the program exploits is the ability to use compound expressions in a LET assignment. The routine BCD (for binary-coded decimal) converts one byte of data into three ASCII characters representing values from 0 (represented as ' 000 ') to 255.

To do this, BCD performs a series of divisions on the byte and on the remainders of divisions. For example, when it has established how many hundreds are in the byte value, it adds 48, the ASCII offset for zero. Take a look at the listing. The division () and remainder (/) calculations happen before 48 is added.

Unlike larger BASICs which have a precedence of operators
(e.g., multiplication is always before addition), the Stamp does its math from left to right. You cannot use parentheses to alter the order, either.

If you're unsure of the outcome of a calculation, use the debug directive to look at a trial run, like so:

```
let BCDin = 200
let huns = BCDin/100+48
debug huns
```

When you download the program to the Stamp, a window will appear on your computer screen showing the value assigned to the variable huns (50). If you change the second line to
let huns $=48+\mathrm{BCDin} / 100$
you'll get a very different result (2).
By the way, you don't have to use let, but it will earn you Brownie points with serious computer-science types. Most languages other than BASIC make a clear distinction between equals as in:
huns $=$ BCDin/100 48
and
if $\mathrm{BCDin}=100$ then..

## Program listing:

, PROGRAM: Servo.bas
" The Stamp works as a servo test bench. It provides reliable servo
signals for testing, and measures the pulse width of external
, servo signals.


Initialize the LCD in accordance with Hitachi's
'instructions

- for 4 -bit interface.
i_LCD: let pins $=800000011^{\circ}$ Set to 8 -bit operation.
pulsout E. 1 , Send above data three times
pause 10 , to initialize LCD.

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pulsout E,1
pulsout E, 1
let pins $=800000010$. Set to 4 -bit operation. pulsout E,1 ' Send above data three times.
pulsout E, 1
pulsout E, 1
let char = 12
gosub wr_LCD
let char $=6$
gosub wr_LCD
high RS
mPulse:
output 3
gosub clear
for $i=11$ to 23 read i, char gosub wr_LCD
next
pulsin 7, 1, BCDin
gosub BCD
pause 500
input 3
button 3 , Check button; cycle if down.
goto mPulse
Write the ASCII character in b3 to LCD.
wr_LCD: let pins = pins \& 800010000
let $\mathrm{b} 2=$ char/16 $\quad$ Put high nibble of b3 into b2.
let pins $=$ pins $\mid \mathrm{b} 2$. $O$ the contents of b 2 into pins.
pulsout E, 1 Blip enable pin.
let $\mathrm{b} 2=$ char \& 800001111 . Put low nibble of b3 into b2
let pins $=$ pins $\& 800010000$, Clear 4 -bit data bus.
let pins $=$ pins | b2 1 OR the contents of b2 into pins.
pulsout E, 1 ' Blip enable.
return
clear
low RS
Change to instruction register.
let char = 1 . Clear display.
gosub wr_LCD . Write instruction to LCD.
high RS ' Put RS back in character mode.
return
Routine to convert a byte into three ASCII digits for display
on the LCD. ASCII 48 is zero, so it calculates hundreds, tens
and ones, and adds 48 to each for display on the LCD.
$B C D$ :
let huns $=$ BCDin $/ 100+48$ "How many hundreds?
let tens $=\mathrm{BCDin} / / 100$, Remainder of $\# / 100=$ tenstones.
let ones $=$ tens $/ / 10+48$. Remainder of (tenstones.) $/ 10=$ ones.
let tens $=$ tens $/ 10+48$. How many tens?
let char= huns , Display three calculated digits.
gosub wr_LCD
let char = tens
gosub wr_LCD
let char = ones
gosub wr_LCD
return
Routine to cycle a servo back and forth between 0 and 90 degrees.
Servo moves slowly in one direction (because of $20-\mathrm{ms}$ delay between
changes in pulse width) and quickly in the other. Helps diagnose
stuck servos, dirty feedback pots, etc.
cycle: output 3
gosub clear
for $i=0$ to 9 . Get "Cycling..." string and read i, char , display it on LCD.
gosub wr_LCD
next i
reseti:
cyloop:
let $i=100 \quad, 1 \mathrm{~ms}$ pulse width.
pulsout 6.i . Send servo pulse.
pause 20 , Wait $1 / 50$ th second.
let $i=i+2$
if i > 200 then reseti Swing servo back to start position.
input 3
Check the button; change function if
button 3,1,255, 10, buttn, 1, mPulse
goto cyloop ' Otherwise, keep cycling.

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# TOUCH TEST 

## A simple go/no-go continuity tester by Terry Balbirnie

$T$his single-point continuity tester will be found useful for checking many electrical devices found around the house. Such items include fuses, switches, light bulbs, plugs and sockets, audio connectors and lengths of wire. In general electronics work, it can be used to test transformer windings for continuity and to perform a basic check on diodes and transistors. The amateur car mechanic will find it handy for

identifying breaks in bulbs, fuses, motor windings, ignitioncomponents, heated rear windscreens and pieces of wire.

## On the other hand

In use, Touch Test is held in one hand and one end or terminal of the component to be tested held or touched by the other. The test probe on the unit is then applied to the other end of the component (see photographs). If there is a finite resistance, the buzzer emits a bleep. If the resistance of the test item is. infinite (open circuit), the buzzer will remain silent. Deaf readers could easily substitute an LED for the buzzer and the method for doing this is described later. The single-point operation is made possible because the circuit operates through the user's body resistance which exists between one hand and the other through the metal case.
There is no conventional on-off switch fitted to this circuit. Instead, there is an internal mercury-loaded vibration sensor of the type used in certain intruder alarms. Thus, when Touch Test is picked up for use, there will be sufficient vibration to allow a capacitor to charge and provide a supply for tests to be made. When the device is put down, no current is drawn. By avoiding an on-off switch, there is no possibility of leaving the circuit switched on and so drain the battery accidentally. It also ensures that the minimum current is required in the course of use. The power supply consists of a miniature 6 V camera-type battery although it would be possible to use a 9V PP3 unit if a slightly larger case was used. In occasional use it is thought that the battery will last almost as long as its shelf life. It would not be a good idea to store the device in a drawer or similar place where there would be unnecessary movement and a consequent drain on the battery.

## Circuit description

The complete circuit for the Touch Test is shown in Figure 1. When moved from its rest position, vibration switch, S1, operates randomly. This allows a series of current pulses to flow to capacitor C3 through resistor, R4. The capacitor charges to virtually full supply voltage in a second or two and this provides a smooth supply for the rest of the circuit. Resistor, R4, limits the charging current to prevent possible damage to the switch.

Integrated circuit timer, IC1, together with external components, form a monostable. Thus, when triggered by a low pulse applied to the trigger input (pin 2), the output (pin 3) will go high for a certain time then revert to its original low state. While high, current will flow to the solid-state buzzer WD1 which will emit a bleep. The time period is set by the values of fixed resistor, R3, connected to IC1 pins 6 and 7 and capacitor, C 2 . With the values specified, this will be about 0.2 seconds and since this timing is not thought to be particularly critical, no adjustment is provided. For a longer timing. R3 could be increased in value and vice-versa.

## Coupling

The low triggering pulse referred to above, is applied to IC1 pin 2 through the user's body resistance $R \times$ and the resistance of the component under test. This comes about because the metal case of the finished device is connected to supply negative and is held in one hand. The other hand makes contact with one terminal of the component and the test probe makes contact with the other one.

The value of body resistance will depend on the area of contact made between the various parts and the hands. It is also affected by the tightness of the grip and the dampness and salt content of the skin. It will also depend to some extent on the individual making the test. Using a mains plug fuse as an "average" test component, measurements made under actual conditions showed a typical value of 100 kW . This body resistance plus the resistance of the component appear in series and form the lower arm of a potential divider. The upper one consists of fixed resistor, R1. This arrangement is
connected across the nominal 6 V supply appearing across capacitor, C3. The voltage across the lower arm of the potential divider is applied to the left-hand side of capacitor C1 and during a test will be a small fraction of that of the supply. Since it will be less than the required criterion of one-third supply voltage (this figure is "built into"' IC1) it will be sufficiently low to trigger the i.c. and its state is transferred briefly to pin 2 via C7.

The reason for using "a.c. coupling"' (that is, via a capacitor instead of being applied direct) is so that only one brief trigger pulse will be delivered, even if the test probe is applied continuously to the component. If direct triggering were used, a continuous trigger pulse would be given and the buzzer would sound constantly. This would be unnecessary and would waste the battery. With the probe removed from the component under test, capacitor C1 discharges rapidly through fixed resistors R1 and R2. Resistor R2 keeps IC1 pin 2 high in the absence of a trigger pulse and this prevents false operation. If there is an open circuit between the probe and supply negative line, the triggering criterion will not be met (that is, IC1 pin 2 will remain high) and the buzzer will be silent.

## Construction

Note that this project must be built in a metal box. This is because it relies on conduction between the hand holding it and the case.

Construction of the Touch Test circuit is based on a singlesided printed circuit board (PCB). Figure 2 shows the topside details (parts placement diagram).

Drill the two mounting holes in the PCB in the positions indicated and solder the on-board components into position. Begin with the i.c. socket and follow with the resistors (all mounted vertically) and capacitors. Do not insert the i.c. into its socket yet. Note that capacitor C3 and the audible warning device, WD1, are polarity-sensitive so must be connected with the correct orientation. In the case of WD1, the polarity is marked on the underside.

The connections to the vibration switch are made between the centre pin and metal body. Do not attempt to make a


soldered connection direct to the side. Instead, twist a piece of bare connecting wire tightly around it and apply a little solder where it meets the body. Alternatively, make the connection using a small spring clip - a short piece of wire should be soldered to this before it is clipped on to the switch. Whichever method is used, solder the centre pin and the end of the wire to the points indicated on the circuit panel. Solder 6 cm pieces of light-duty stranded connecting wire to the points labelled '"probe", "B1+" and "B1-". Insert IC1 into its socket observing the orientation. Since this is a CMOS device, it is theoretically possible to damage it by static charge which might exist on the body. It would therefore be a good idea to touch something which is earthed - such as a water tap before handling its pins.

Readers who wish to use an LED in place of the buzzer should do so in the following way. The LED should be mounted on the case using a fixing clip. Alternatively, an LED indicator could be used and this would give a better appearance. The end wires are connected via short pieces of stranded wire to the pads on the PCB normally used for the buzzer (labelled WD1 + and -). It is essential to include a 390 W fixed resistor in series with the LED to limit the current to a safe working value. This may be placed in-line at the LED end or at the PCB and in either lead. Note that the LED is polaritysensitive and should be connected in the correct sense - the shorter lead is the negative one.

## A good tip

Drill holes in the base of the box to correspond with those in the circuit panel. Drill a hole also for the 3.5 mm mono jack plug which will be used as the probe. Other types of probe could be used but must be electrically isolated from the case. It will probably not be found necessary to provide holes for the

sound to pass through. If tests show that the buzzer is not loud enough, holes may easily be drilled in the top section above WD1 position at the end of construction.

Attach the internal components as shown in the photograph. The circuit board should be mounted on short plastic stand-off insulators or plastic washers so that the copper track side remains a few millimetres clear of the metalwork. A piece of cardboard could be placed underneath as an additional precaution. Using the specified box, the circuit board will need to be manoeuvred between the flanges but this is possible providing it is no more than 68 mm long. If necessary, the flanges could be cut off or filed down to provide more clearance.

## Threaded ring

Refer to Figure 3 and complete the internal wiring. The connection between the battery negative terminal, the "batt -" wire leading from the circuit panel and the case is conveniently made using the outer (sleeve) connection on the jack plug. However, some jack plugs have totally isolated terminals - that is, the sleeve connection will not end up connected to the metalwork. In this case, a separate connection will need to be made using a solder tag and a small fixing. The tip connection of the jack plug is soldered to the wire leading from the circuit panel "probe" position. The plastic top of the jack plug is cut down to make a threaded ring about 5 mm long. This is then used to secure the body in the hole.

The connections to the battery may be made by soldering them quickly into position. It should then be secured to the base of the box - in the prototype unit this was done by means of an adhesive fixing pad. The battery will only need to be replaced infrequently so soldering is an acceptable method for connecting it. Do not be surprised if the buzzer gives the occasional bleep during this work. Stick plastic feet on to the base of the box to prevent scratching the work surface.

Testing is simply a matter of checking for correct operation. Lift the device from the table top - again, sometimes the buzzer gives a single bleep and this is of no consequence. Hold the case in one hand and any small metallic object in the other. Now touch the tip of the probe with the object. The buzzer should bleep. If this test works, try a few other items such as fuses and filament bulbs. You may need to shake the unit slightly after a few tests to maintain the supply. Note that the test works best when sudden metallic contact is made with the probe - this provides efficient a.c. coupling. Simply touching the probe with a finger will not necessarily produce a bleep since the contact is not sudden enough. Under very dry conditions it may be necessary to moisten the finger holding the test object. This was never found to be needed in the prototype with any of the objects tested.

## Component testing

Most of the time, Touch Test will be used for checking components which conduct in both directions such as fuses and filament bulbs. However, it may be used to provide a basic test on certain polarity-sensitive devices used in electronics. Diodes should conduct when the anode end is touched on the probe with the cathode held between the fingers - but not the other way round. Note that this test will probably fail to work with light-emitting diodes. Transistors may be regarded as two diodes back to back with the base common to both. With an npn transistor, the buzzer should sound when the base is touched on the probe with either of the other leads (emitter or collector) held between the fingers.

If the base is held, there should be no conduction when either emitter or collector is touched on the probe. If the transistor is a pnp type, the effect is opposite - that is, it should conduct when the base is held between the fingers and either of the other pins is touched on the probe.

A very low value capacitor will cause one bleep when tested. It will now be fully charged and will not cause a further bleep until discharged again. A higher value capacitor (up to, say, 1 mF ) will cause further bleeps when the probe is reapplied but eventually, this too will become fully charged. Tests on electrolytic capacitors and resistors are not meaningful. The polarity of some button cells is not immediately obvious - the probe will quickly determine the negative one.

If all is well, Touch Test may be put into permanent service. Do not store the device where it will experience movement such as in a frequently-used drawer or in the car. This would run the battery down needlessly.


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This project by Bart Trepak shows how a PIC microcontroller chip can be used to easily solve a particular design problem.

Ask any electronics engineer to design a timer and the first thing he will think of is almost certainly a 555 ic. Tell him that a time delay of over half an hour is required and he will probably change his mind and choose a chip such as the ZN1034E to enable more reasonable values of capacitor and resistor to be used. Add the requirement that the time is to be variable in one minute intervals and he will change the design to use CMOS counters, thereby avoiding the need to calibrate
potentiometers and enabling the required time delay to be set using switches.

To save on extra decoding chips the time delay would, of course, need to be set in binary. But if you now tell him that the timer is for your grandmother then he will probably decide that BCD switches and counters would be the answer. That is until he comes to look at the cost of the project and realises that these would cost more than the rest of the electronics put together.


Fig.1. Circuit diagram for PIC based timer


Fig.3. Clrcuit diagram from relay output

At this stage he may think of using a display instead, but the thought of wiring all these chips would probably lead him to suggest that you go and buy a commercial timer. Not a bad idea! Many countdown timers are available which sound a buzzer or even play a tune at the end of the timing cycle. However, if a relay output is required, for say charging NiCad batteries, then there is a problem. Timers of this kind seem to be rather thin on the ground unless you have a very deep pocket.

This chain of reasoning led me to design a 3 digit timer with an LED display which could be easily set to switch a relay on for a time of up to 9 hours 59 minutes without having to fiddle about with dil switches. While trying to think in binary and having done the sums, the obvious answer was to replace all these chips with a micro-controller, bringing the cost down to more reasonable level.

A PIC16C54 microcontroller was pressed into service and soon the project began to grow with more and more features being added as I thought of them, ending up with a device which could count up or down in two ranges to 9 hours 59 minutes or 9 minutes 59 seconds, switch a relay, pause, sound a buzzer and do everything except play a tune.

While working on this, it occurred to me that in many circumstances a simpler timer would suffice. A relay output, for instance, would serve no useful purpose if the timer were required to remind you that it was time to return to your car and put some more money into the parking meter or that you
were to ring someone back in ten minutes. The timer would still need to be easily set but preset times of say one or two hours in fifteen minute intervals would not be good enough.

Although accuracy is not of prime importance for such applications it was decided to use a crystal as a timebase. Since this device only costs about 20p there would not be a great saving to be made by using an RC oscillator and it would save having to calibrate the finished unit. Battery operation however, would be a must and since the microprocessor is a CMOS device, low current consumption could be guaranteed, especially if the device were "put to sleep" at the end of a timing sequence.

The PIC processor has an instruction (called - not suprisingly - SLEEP) which, when excecuted, stops all operations, by disabling the clock oscillator. In this state the processor draws a mere 0.6uA which means that a battery would last for virtually its shelf life. To "wake up" the microcontroller, the device needs to be reset and there is even a special bit in the STATUS register which is cleared to zero if the device wakes up when it was in the sleep mode but is set to one if the reset occurred at power up so that the two states can be differentiated if this is required.

The problems start, however, when the actual time setting is considered. In the original mains powered timer, push buttons were used to set the time. This was not a problem as the LEDs were also used to display the time set but even miniature LED displays would require an appreciable current
making them unsuitable for a battery powered timer.
Commercial timers use Liquid Crystal Displays to get around this problem but these tend to be expensive unless bought in production quantities and because they are dificult to multiplex, they require the use of many more I/O lines to drive them than the PIC has, since each segment would require its own line. For use as a parking timer, the LCD has another disadvantage in that it does not generate light and is therefore virtualy impossible to see in poor light. Anyone who has tried to read the time from his digital watch under street lighting conditions will know what I mean.

This can be a problem in winter when it can be quite dark even at 4.00 pm in London (or even earlier if you live further north) while traffic wardens still ply their trade until 6.00 pm or even later. As if this were not reason enough for not using them, LCDs also require an AC drive voltage to avoid damaging the display and, much as I enjoy writing programmes, I did not relish the prospect of doing this.

## 3 digit timer without a display

The solution chosen turned out to cost much less than an LCD and use no current - simply by not having a display at all! After all, the display is only required to set the time and is more or less redundant after that because we are only interested in being alerted when the set period has elapsed and this is best done by a buzzer. It may be desirable to know how much time there is left and, for this reason, the unit has been designed to give a warning when there is ten minutes left so that the user can begin to make his way back to the car. For periods of less than 10 minutes, no warning is given.

By now many readers will be turning to the front cover to check if this is not the April issue of ETI, for what has been described so far is a pushbutton programmable 3-digit timer with no display and no apparent way of seeing what time has been set! The answer is quite simple and relies on the way the pushbuttons operate and a piezo buzzer.

The original timer used three buttons to set the hours, tens of minutes and minutes and these buttons have been retained. Each push button, when pressed, increments the relevent digit by one and there is no overflow from one digit to the next, so to set a time of, say, one hour and fifty three minutes, the hours button would be pressed once, the tens of minutes button five times and the minutes three times, assuming all the digits were at zero to begin with.

To aid in this process, the microcontroller has been programmed to generate a short low, medium or high frequency tone each time the hours, tens of minutes or minutes digit is incremented respectively, and two short bleeps of that frequency when that digit is set to zero. It is therefore a simple matter to set the required time by counting the bleeps for each digit making this perhaps the only programmable pocket timer which can also be programmed in the pocket! It also makes the device useful for the blind or partially sighted (hopefully not as a parking timer) or for use in a darkroom where the difficulty of reading an LCD display could present a problem. It could also be used as a kitchen timer.

The original LED timer also had two further pushbuttons and these have been retained although their functions have been changed. Since this timer will mostly be used for timing long periods of hours and minutes, it was not considered worthwhile to retain the MODE button to select between hours/minutes and minutes/seconds mode and although this possibility has been retained, this is set using a different method.

The function of the mode button has therefore been changed to RESET and pressing this will reset all the digits to zero. As a check, the buzzer sounds the tone for each digit in turn. Because one is unlikely to want to stop or pause a parking timer (traffic wardens, like time and tides, wait for no man) the function of the START/STOP button has also been modified to START only so that the timing sequence, once started, cannot be stopped except by pressing the RESET in which case all the digits will also be reset to zero.

The PCB has been made small and even when powered by AA cells the whole circuit will fit into a box measuring only $65 \times 50 \times 30 \mathrm{~mm}$. No box has been suggested as much will depend on the batteries, pushbuttons and buzzer used but there are plenty of plastic boxes available to choose from.

## Circuit description

The full circuit diagram is shown in Fig 1 and, as can be seen, consists of very few components with the microcontroller performing all the functions, from reading the switches, generating the tones and flashing the LED to indicate that it is timing. The time base and the clock for the microcontroller is provided by the 32.768 kHz watch crystal XTAL1.

Resistor R2 and capacitor C5 provide the power on reset delay with the values carefully chosen in conjunction with R3 to R7. The processor begins operation when the voltage on the MCLR pin is logic 1 , while a logic 0 or low voltage generates a reset. When the battery is first connected, this pin will be low until the capacitor C5 has charged via R2 to a suitable level thus providing the initial reset. The LED is a dualfunction indicator which lights when the processor is "awake" as during programming and flashes at 1 Hz during timing to show that the circuit is working. During the "sleep" mode, the LED remains off.

Following a reset pulse, the circuit "wakes up", switching on the LED and setting port B output 5 to a logic low or 0 volts and lines B 0 to B 4 as inputs. An internal timer is also started and if this times out before another key is pressed or the timer has been put into the timing mode, the circuit will shut down switching the LED off and cancelling any time set. This remains the condition when the processor excecutes a SLEEP instruction and switches off its oscillator to enter its low power mode. In addition, all the I/O pins retain their status (i.e. input or output) and maintain the logic level (high or low) which they had when the SLEEP instruction was excecuted and the


Fig.4. PCB component overlay for timer
programme is written so that port B pin 5 is at logic 0 or 0 volts when this happens.

Once the circuit is in the "sleep" mode, any depression of a key will cause C 5 to rapidly discharge through one of the resistors R3 to R7 and port B5, causing the MCLR pin to go low and the circuit to "wake" up again when the key is released. The first instruction that the microcontroller excecutes is to take port B5 high preventing C5 discharging (even if the key continues to be depressed) thus allowing the circuit to continue operating. In operation, the keys are scanned by taking port B5 low and checking which, if any, of the inputs B0 to B4 are low and setting B5 high again whether or not an input is detected. This takes such a short time that C5 does not have time to discharge via the resistors R3 to R7 so that the processor is not reset again when a key is pressed, allowing operation to continue.

Each key depression generates a different frequency tone on output port A1 which is reproduced by the piezo sounder BZ1. Note that this is just a piezo element and not one with an internal oscillator which would be unsuitable for this circuit. Pressing S1 causes a relatively high frequency to be heard for each depression and increments the units (of minutes) counter. Following a reset or a depression of the RESET button S4, all counters are set to zero so pressing S1 three times will set the counter to three while pressing it ten times will set it back to zero again which would be indicated by two beeps instead of the usual one generated when the switch is depressed.

Switches S2 and S3 operate in the same way except that the tones which are generated have a lower frequency and they set the tens (of minutes) and hours counters respectively. The counters are separate and no overflow occurs from one digit to the next during setting so that if you make a mistake and press a button three times when you only meant to press it twice, simply keep pressing it until you hear two bleeps and then press it twice. Since the tens of minutes counter only counts to 5 , before reaching zero again, two bleeps will occur after six depressions of S2.

As mentioned, the RESET button S4 resets all the digits to zero and generates each tone in turn. It also stops the timer and resets it if it is in the timing mode. The final switch S 5 is the RUN button and is used to start the timer when you have set a time. Depressing this switch will causes the LED to start flashing at 1 Hz to indicate that timing is in progress. It also disables the internal timer to prevent the unit from powering down. In this mode, all the other switches are disabled so that the set time cannot be altered and only the RESET switch is scanned.

If the RUN button is pressed before a time has been set, or the time set is zero, an error signal consiting of three bleeps is sounded and the LED flashes once and remains on until further entries are made or the unit powers down. At the end of the timed period, assuming that it has not been terminated by pressing the RESET, the circuit will generate three groups of five bleeps and the LED stops flashing to indicate this to the user. Since in this state the counters will be at zero, a new time must be entered if another timing run is required or the circuit simply left until it goes to sleep when the internal timer counts out.

The circuit will operate from any voltage in the range of 3 to 5 Volts so that two or three AA or even AAA cells would be ideal. Since the circuit draws so little current, it is not worth using rechargeable NiCad types but, if you decide to, bear in mind that since the voltage of these is lower, a 3 cell battery holder should be fitted.


## Construction

The circuit is best built on a printed circuit board as this will make for the smallest sized unit which is important if you don't want to to have pockets bulging with electronics. No special precautions need be taken but remember that the chip is a CMOS device so it is best to mount this in an 18-pin dual inline socket and double check that it has been inserted in the correct way around when the rest of the assembly is finished. The only other polarity sensitive components are the LED and the electrolytic capacitors.

There are no details given for mounting the circuit in a box as much will depend on the particular box chosen to house the project. This will obviously need to be large enough to fit both the unit and the battery holders and again these are available in various styles housing one, two or three batteries. The printed circuit board has been designed so that it occupies the same space as three single AA size holders, enabling these to be mounted on the track side of the board thereby minimising the amount of space required. Alternatively, a single 3 V button cell would probably suffice as the current drain, even during operation, is still very small. This would make the unit even slimmer.

The switches used on in the prototype may also be changed for panel mounted components if preffered, which could also serve to secure the module to the box. With so many possibilites, these details are best left to the ingenuity of the reader.

## Testing

The circuit has so few components that mistakes are very unlikely to occur and any non-operation of the circuit will, almost certainly, be due to poor soldering. However, even if the circuit appears to be working and making all the right noises at the expected times, it would still be useful to be able to check that the timing is correct. After all, you could find out the hard way by paying a hefty parking fine!

To check the timing even over one hour would not be very convenient - unless you enjoy watching an LED flash for one hour - so a test mode has been programmed into the chip. This changes the timer into a minutes/seconds timer so that the operation of the timer is identical in all respects except that it runs faster. This mode is selected by depressing S1 and keeping it depressed while the unit is powered up fie. when the battery is being connected). Provided that a time is set and the unit put into the RUN mode before the internal timer times out and the timer switches off, the unit will count at the faster rate enabling it to be checked in a reasonable time. Once the


## Programming PIC chips

If you want to programme your own PIC chips, a good idea if you intend making use of this versatile chip, then you will need to either buy or make a PIC programmer. There are a wide range of PIC programmers on the market at prices ranging from about $£ 70$ to several hundred. Alternatively, readers could wait until next month's ETI when we will be publishing a project to build a PIC programmer.

Most of these programmers are designed to interface to a PC, with the PIC code being written, assembled, and debugged using a simulator, on the PC, and then the actual object code being downloaded into the PIC programmer and blown into the PROM or EPROM on the chip. If you got last month's ETI then you will already have a copy of the PIC assembler and simulator programmes for running on a PC; they were contained as part of the code on the cover disk.

A typical example of a low cost PIC programmer is the PIC16Cxx from Parallax. This is just a small PCB with all the appropriate electronics plus ZIF sockets to take the popular PIC 16C5x, 16C64/74, 16C71, and 16C84 series microcontroller chips. Included in the programmer package is an assembler, simulator, cables to connect to a PC and documentation. All the software runs on a standard PC AT or compatible with parallel port, 3.5 inch disk drive and DOS 2.0+. To get the system running you will also need a 12-24VAC power supply.

With this simple little programmer system, one can easiliy write software for, and programme, most of the 18 and 28 pin PIC chips, and with the addition of an optional extra extender socket all 40 pin devices. Since PIC chips are available in both OTP and reprogrammable versions a standard EPROM eraser is an useful additional purchase.

Included with the Parallax PIC programmer is a collection of useful application notes and PIC data sheets. The application notes cover such areas as driving LCDs, sending/receiving serial data, using DRAMs, and reading rotary encoders. Any software can be be debugged by running it on the PC based simulator programme prior to programming a chip.

The Parallax PIC 16Cxx Programmer is available from Milford Instruments, priced $£ 89$ (inclusive of VAT and shipping). Milford Instruments can be contacted at Milford House, 120, High Street, South Milford, Leeds LS25 5AQ. or Tel: 01977683665.
unit is allowed to go to sleep however, this mode will be reset and all subsequent timing runs will be in the hours/minutes mode.

If the timer is required for timing shorter intervals up to 9 minutes 59 seconds, then this mode can be selected by pressing S2 during the power up period. If this is done, the condition will be permanent (until the battery is disconnected) and will not be affected by the timer entering the sleep mode. To differentiate this from the hours/minutes mode, the programme has been modified to produce a short high tone when the RUN button is pressed.

To reassure the user that the device is timing (for those who don't trust or cannot see the LED) the programme can be modified to produce a "ticking" sound by pressing S3 during the power up period.

Finally, although it is not used in this application, the output port A1 has been programmed to go to a logic 1 (i.e. supply voltage) during a timing period, enabling a relay to be connected to the circuit if required. A suitable circuit is shown for this in Fig 3. By using a relay with change-over contacts, an item of equipment could be switched on or switched off for the duration of the timed period. For this application a battery supply would probably not be very practical due to the large current consumption of the relay so a mains supply is necessary. The supply voltage should be chosen to suit the relay and the supply for the microcontroller derived from this using a zener diode as shown.

This would enable the chip to be used and perhaps built into other pieces of equipment such as multimeters or radios to prevent batteries from running down. In this case, a relay would not be required and the equipment switched by an external transistor.

## Software overview

There are many ways of writing a program to perform the function of this timer and this is one of them. The program listing for this is shown and is best understood by studying it in conjunction with the accompanying simplified flowchart for the timer.

After initial power-up, the INITIALISE routine is executed which checks if the timer has been woken from the SLEEP mode or not. This is done by checking the PD (power down) bit in the STATUS register and setting up the registers and reading the keys as required. The keys are then scanned by the SCAN routine which detects if any keys are pressed and carries out the required function such as incrementing the hours or minutes registers. It also calls the appropriate BEEP routine to generate the required tone.

The tones are generated by the subroutine beginning at the label BP1 which decrements a counter (CTR2) and complements port B6 when it reaches zero. The counter is reloaded and the sequence repeated which results in a square wave appearing at the output pin. The number that is loaded determines the delay and hence the frequency which is generated.

Another counter (CTR1) is used to count the number of cycles generated so that each tone lasts for approximately the same period of time which of course means that a different number of cycles of each frequency must be generated. These counters are loaded at the lables BEEP, BEEPL, BEEPM and BEEPH and different frequencies and durations will result depending on which point the subroutine is entered. NOBEEP is basically a delay routine which, although executing the beep program, does not generate a tone because B 6 is designated
as an input.
Only the first key closure detected is acted upon and no further action is taken until the pressed key is released. This, together with a delay caused by generating the beep, prevents key bounce from upsetting the operation. If the timer is not in the timing mode (i.e. FLAG register bit 1 cleared) then the time-out delay timer is decremented and if it is not zero, the SCAN routine is excecuted again resetting the time-out delay if a key is pressed. Once the time-out timer reaches zero, the SLEEP instruction is excecuted and the unit shuts down until a key is pressed to wake it up again.

If the unit is in the timing mode, the time-out timer is disabled and the program tests the RTCC register which is incremented by the internal crystal oscillator until it overflows to zero which occurs every 0.5 seconds. Because the PIC16C54 does not support interrupts, the RTCC register must be tested continuously for zero to ensure that this state is not missed. When a zero is detected, the LED flashes and is further counted in the Time Base Counter (TBCTR) to decrement the seconds, minutes and hours counters.

The TBCTR is loaded from the Time Base Register which is initially loaded with 2 (decimal) if the unit is in the minutes/seconds mode, and 120 if it is in the hours/minutes mode. This is then used to decrement the main counters which count in Binary Coded Decimal (BCD), hence the BCDADJ routine.

If these counters have not reached zero, the SCAN routine is called again and the process repeats. This happens until either the reset switch is pressed or the counters reach zero when the sounder sounds five bleeps and the timing flag is reset. The SCAN routine is now excecuted and the program continues on the right hand branch of the flow chart until the time-out timer times out and the device goes to sleep or the timing mode is re-entered.


The general purpose registers used in the program are defined at the beginning of the listing using the "equ" statements and eleven of the available 25 registers are utilised. The special function registers such as the program counter, status register etc. are defined in the "PIC.H" file which is called using the INCLUDE statement. This is simply a file consisting of a list of "equ" statements defining these registers and saves having to type out the list each time when developing new applications.

The "ORG" statement at the end of the listing tells the assembler to start the assembly from address 1FF hex as this is the value of the program counter when the PIC16C54 is reset so that the first instruction to be excecuted is at location 000 which is "goto START".

## Pocket timer software

;This program is for a count down timer which counts in mins/hrs or
; sec/mins if switch $S 2$ is pressed during the power up sequence.

```
;S1, S2 & S3 set UNITS TENS and HOURS counters
without any overflow
; from one digit to the next. When the START switch
                                    S5 is pressed the
; counter counts down to zero and activates the
    sounder. S4 RESETs the
;counters to zero. The timebase is derived from a
                32.768kHz crystal.
;Switches connected between B0-B4 & B5, sounder -
                                    B6, LED - A2/A3,
;A1 - relay o/p if used.
FLAG equ 07h ; Flag register
HSCTR equ 08h ; Half Second CounTeR - counts down
                                    from 64 to provide
    ; 0.5 sec timebase
TBCTR equ 09h ; TimeBase CounTeR - counts down
                                    from 2 for 1sec or 120
    ; for 1min timebase
TBREG equ OAh ; TimeBase REGgister for reloading
                                    TimeBase CounTeR
TMCTR1 equ 0Bh ; TiMer CounTeR 1 - holds tens and
                                    units time which is
    ; decremented as count progresses
TMCTR2 equ 0Ch ; TiMer CounTeR 2 - holds hundred
                                    time which is
    ; decremented as count progresses
CTREG2 equ ODh ; CTREG2 register stores frequency
                                    for BEEP
CTR1 equ OEh ; counter used for BEEP
CTR2 equ OFh ; counter used for BEEP
DLY equ 10h ; counter used in DELAY routine
DLY1 equ 11h ; counter used in DELAY routine
LIST P=16C54;f=inhx16
INCLUDE "PIC.H"
goto START
; *****SCAN KEYBOARD
SCAN moviw 9Fh ; ie 1001 1111
    tris PORTB
mOVwf PORTB
btfss PORTB,2
goto RESET
btfsc FLAG,1
goto SCNEND
btfss PORTB,
goto RUN : S5 pressed
                                    * RUN
btfss PORTB,1 ; test B1
goto SET_UT ; S1 pressed *SET UNITS
btfss PORTB,3 ; test B3
goto SET_TN ; S2 pressed *SET TENS
```



| goto BPLOAD | ; CTR1 not zero ie. not all cycles done | movwf RTCC <br> TIME3 movf TBREG, $W$ | ; load RTCC with 240 dec <br> ; load TBREG into w |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bcf PORTB, 6 | ; switch B6 low | movwf TBCTR | ; load TBCTR with 120 dec |
| movlw 9Fh | ; ie 10011111 | TIME2 call SCAN |  |
| tris PORTB | ; restore $\mathrm{B6}$ to 0/p if it | btfss flag, 1 |  |
|  | was made an i/p | goto ENDTM | ; FLAG 1 clear - end |
| retlw 00 |  | timing |  |
| ; |  | TIME1 movf RTCC, w |  |
| START nop | ; *INITIALISE ROUTINE | btfiss STATUS, 2 | ; skip if RTCC $=0$ |
| INTLSE movlw 9Fh | ; ie. 1001 | goto TIME1 | ; RTCC is not zero |
|  | 1111 |  | check RTCC again |
| tris PORTB | ; make PORTB i/p except | movlw . 240 | ; RTCC=zero |
|  | B5 \& B6 | movwf RTCC | ; reload RTCC with 240 |
| ; |  |  | dec |
| btfsc STATUS,3 | ; if bit 3 is set (PD | movlw OCh | ; ie 00001100 |
|  | bit) | xorwf PORTA, same | ; FLASH LED at 0.5 Hz |
| clrf FLAG | ; clear FLAG registez if | movlw 40h | ; ie 01000000 |
|  | power on reset | btfsc flag, 2 |  |
| ; |  | xorwf PORTB, same | ; if FLAG, 2 (tick enable) |
| movlw 00h | ; ie 00000000 |  | set |
| tris PORTA | ; make PORTA o/p | decfsz TBCTR |  |
| movwf PORTA | ; load all | goto TIME2 | TBCTR not zero - SCAN |
| movwf TMCTR1 | ; these |  | keys |
| movwf TMCTR2 | ; registers with zero | movf TBREG, $w$ |  |
| btfss STATUS, 3 | ; test PD bit to see if | movwf TBCTR | ; reload Time Base |
| reset or wake up |  |  | Counter |
| bcf FLAG, 3 | ; wake-up - clear TEST | decfsz TMCTR1,same |  |
| mode |  | goto XX |  |
| movlw 07h |  | goto FINISH |  |
| option | ; set option with | XX movf TMCTR1,w |  |
|  | prescaler /256 internal | xorlw 10h |  |
| movlw OCh | ; ie 00001100 | btfsc STATUS,2 | ; test if count $=10$ |
| xorwf PORTA, same | ; compliment LED | goto XY | ; see if TMCTR2 $=0$ |
| ; |  | movf TYCTR1,w |  |
| movlw 9Fh | ; ie 10011111 - B5 and | xorlw 0FFh |  |
|  | B6 low | btfss STATUS,2 | ; has TMCTR1 overrun to |
| btfss PORTB, 1 |  |  | OFFh? |
| bsf FLAG, 3 | ; S1 key pressed - select TEST mode | goto BCDADJ | ; no - check if units have overrun to Fh |
| btfss PORTB. 3 |  | decf TMCTR2, same | ; no - decrement TMCTR2 |
| bsf FLAG, 4 | ; S2 key pressed - select | movlw 59h |  |
|  | MIN/SEC mode | movwf TMCTR1 | ; change next two digits |
| btfss PORTB. 4 |  |  | to 59 |
| bsf FLAG, 2 | ; S3 key pressed - select | goto PROG |  |
|  | TICKING mode | ; |  |
| ; |  | XY movf TMCTR2,same | ; yes |
| Xmovlw OBFh | ; ie 10111111 | btfsc STATUS, 2 | ; is TMCTR2 $=0$ |
| movwf PORTB | ; make B6 low and B5 high | call BEEP | ; yes - 10 to go - BLEEP |
| movlw . 120 |  | ; |  |
| btfsc FLAG, 3 |  | BCDADJ movf TMCTR1,w | ; this adjusts the BCD |
| movlw . 2 | ; move 2 into w if S 1 was pressed | andlw OFh | ; ie count 00001111 - mask out |
| btfsc FLAG, 4 |  |  | units |
| movlw. 2 | ; move 2 into $w$ if $S 2$ was pressed | xorlw 0Fh. <br> btfss status, 2 | ; compare to 00001111 <br> ; are units=F |
| movwf TBREG | ; load TimeBase REGister | goto PROG | ; no |
|  | with 120 dec . | movlw . 6 | ; yes - Subtract |
| movlw . 20 |  | subwf TMCTR1, same | ; subtract 6 (dec) from |
| movwf DLY | ; | TMCTR1 |  |
| movlw 0FFh | ; | goto PROG |  |
| PROG1 movwf DLY1 |  | ; |  |
| PROG call SCAN | ; | FINISH movf TMCTR2, same | ; test if |
| ENDTM btfsc flag, 1 |  | btfss STATUS,2 | TMCTR2 is zero |
| goto TIME | ; RUN Mode - do not go to sleep | goto XX <br> bcf FLAG, 1 | ; no <br> ; yes - sound alarm |
| decfsz DLY1 | ; | bcf PORTA, 1 | ; switch off relay o/p |
| goto PROG | ; | call Beep |  |
| decfsz DLY |  | call NOBEEP |  |
| goto PROG1 |  | call BEEP |  |
| btfsc FLAG, 1 |  | call NOBEEP |  |
| goto TIME | ; RUN Mode - do not go to | call BEEP |  |
|  | sleep | call NOBEEP |  |
| movlw OCh | ; ie 00001100 | call BEEP |  |
| xorwf PORTA, same | ; switch off LED \& relay | call NOBEEP |  |
|  | - no keys pressed | call BEEP |  |
| movlw 9Fh | ; ie. 10011111 | goto ENDTM |  |
| tris PORTB | ; make PORTB i/p except B5 \& B6 | $\text { ORG } 1 \mathrm{FFh}$ |  |
| movwf PORTB | ; switch off B5 \& B6 | ; |  |
| sleep |  | END |  |
| ; TIME movlw . 240 |  |  |  |

This third part of the light gun project covers the central renewal station. The station provides the capability to organise different game types, to adjust the length of the games and to automatically provide scores for individual players and for the teams. It also allows light guns to be programmed with their Identities which are stored in EEPROM in the light gun microcontroller

he central renewal station consists of two pieces of equipment: the central and the external display. The central provides the processing capability for the game and has a keyboard and LCD display for game control and reporting. It
also has a serial port which drives either the external display or a printer

The external display is optional; it is a $3^{\prime \prime}$, four-digit, sevensegment display (or even larger if you can afford it). It can be mounted up to 5 metres from the central and can be fixed to any convenient tree, lamppost, gutter etc. using the strap attached to its case, preferably as high up as possible so that it can be easily seen. During the game it displays either the passing time or the Identity of secret agents or warriors in certain game types. At the end of the game it displays all the
users' Identities, their overall score and their position. The LCD display on the central duplicates this information, but it is very hard to see when 16 players are crowding round trying to see their end of game scores! Two displays may be driven mounted in separate locations

The extemal display may also be used for displaying numbers and text for any equipment such as a PC. It will be described in the final part of the project.

If a printer is used, then it will print out score sheets with information for each player and for the teams at the end of the game.

## Description of the central

The central is constructed in a small plastic case. At the front of the case is a 2 line $\times 20$ character LCD display. On top of


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the case is a 20 key touch-sensitive keyboard. The keyboard allows the user to enter numbers or characters. On either side of the case, there are green and red LEDs which flash to indicate operation of the central. There are also two $3.5^{\prime \prime}$ jack sockets which are used to connect to the coiled cables which are used to renew the guns.

On the back of the case are two power sockets for connection of a $12 v$ supply, and to power the external display. There is also a 9-pin RS232 socket for connection of the external display, or a printer. There are two phono sockets for communicating with the bases, and a reset button.

The central operates from an external 12 V supply. We used a sealed Lead acid battery. Power consumption is about 150 mA for the central and about 250 mA if the external display is used, so a small 2Ah battery is sufficient to power the base for a good number of games; alternatively a small mains driven supply can be used.

## Operation of the central

When power is first applied to the central, or when the reset button is pressed, the display will show the copyright message. Pressing any key will enable the game selection menu. There are six game types:

1. Light 6-20
2. Warrior 4-20
3. Indy 20-50
4. Highlander 10-50
5. Special Agent
6. Light 10-50

The detailed operation of each game is described below. The name of the game shows the game type and the number of lives and shots on each renewal. For example, Indy 20-50 offers players 20 lives and 50 shots each time that they renew. To select the game type, the up and down arrow moves between game types and the enter key selects the game.

The next prompt will request the game time in minutes and this must be entered between 1 and 99. The display will show the default game time; however, the delete key and the number keys may be used to select a new game time. We usually found 15 minute games to be about right; however, games such as Highlander, which do not allow players to renew during the game, should be much shorter. The enter key selects the game time.

Now the players may renew to start the game. At this point the red and green LEDs on the side of the case will be flashing. Each player inserts the renewal plug into the light gun front case, the gun LEDs will flash in sequence, steady, and then the renewal plug may be removed. Players are advised to go to their bases for a team game, or to scatter across the playing field before the game starts. During this period the ID of the last player to renew is displayed on the LCD display. This is especially useful during development to check that the gun IDs have been programmed properly.

When all players are renewed, the game can be started by pressing any key. All game types except the Highlander type allow players to renew during the game, even if they didn't renew during the renewal period before the game started.

During the game, the LCD display on the central displays


Fig.4. Serial protocols

the following information:

1. Game time remaining in minutes and seconds
2. Red team Score (team games only)
3. Green team Score (team games only)
4. Identity of last player to renew
5. Identity of the last player to hit a base
6. Identity of warriors or secret agents.

An example of the screen format is shown below:

```
08:24 R:100 G:-75
R4 WR7G3 BASE : R6
```

This example shows that the remaining game time is 8 minutes 24 seconds, that the red team have scored 100 points, whilst the green team have -75 points. The last player to renew was Red 4, and the current warriors are Red 7 and Green 3. Finally, the last player to hit a base was player Red 6.

At the end of the game all the guns will "die" simultaneously - all the LEDs on the guns and packs will go out. One of the more impressive features of a night game is to see a field full of red and green lights all extinguish within
about one second of each other at the game end At this point the guns must be renewed one last time to get the final count of lives for each player. During this period the central will display the IDs of all the users who need to finally renew; however, if players are in a hurry then the enter key may be pressed to display scores directly.

Scores are shown on the external display and the LCD display. The LCD display has the following format fshown as an example) :

```
R1 R:1200 G:-12
290 3 (B2 L27/6)
```

This shows that player Red 1 scored 290 points and came 3rd on his team. The red team scored 1200 points, whilst the green team scored -12 points (the red team wonl). Player Red 1 hit the opposition's base (green) twice, lost 27 lives during the game, and renewed 6 times.
The display will change every 4 seconds to show all the players in the game.
If an external display is in use it will display the player scores as well. For the first two seconds it will show the ID and the position of the player. Thus:

## R1 3

Showing that Red one came third. For the next two second period it will display the score of the player :

290
It is much easier for all players to see their scores if an external display is used strapped 10 feet up a tree than to crowd round the small 2 -line display on the central!
To start again (at the end of the game, or at any time during the game) then the reset button is pressed at the back of the case.
Figure 1 shows the operation of the base.

## Printer

If a printer is in use it will print a score sheet for each team at the end of the game.

## Game types

The game types are as follows:
Light 6-20, Light 10-50
This is a team game, each team has to defend its own base against attack, whilst trying to trigger the oppositions base.


Fig.7. Circuit diagram of main processor


## Warriors

This is also a team game with each team having its own base. At any time, only one player (the "warrior") from either team is able to hit the opposition's base. The two warriors are chosen at random, and their IDs are shown on the central and the external display. The warriors must renew, at which point all the gun lights will flash in sequence, the warrior is then able to hit the opposition's base. The warrior only needs to be hit once to return to normal operation where the base cannot be hit. The warrior IDs change every 60 seconds, or whenever a warrior renews.

## Secret Agents

In this game type there are also two teams. However, one player from each team (whose ID is displayed on the central and the extemal display) swaps teams throughout the game and acts with the other team to attack his own colour. This game is most effective at night because all players look similar and the secret agent has the same colour pack LEDs as the team that he is trying to attack. The secret agents should make themselves known to the team for which they are playing, although the game is open to bluff and double bluff.

## Indy

This is an independent game where bases may be used, or disconnected. All players attack each other regardless of colour, and attempt to hit the bases if connected.

## Highlander

This is an independent game where bases are disconnected and ignored by the central. All players renew at the start of the game, and are then not able to renew once all lives are used up. The winner is the player who remains having finished off all the other players. This is the only game type where late entrants are not able to renew after the game has started.

## Scoring

As it is not possible to tell which player has hit a pack then the scoring is dependant on the number of lives lost, the number of renewals, the team score, and the number of base hits achieved by a player. As a result scoring is quite complex.

The team scores in team games are made up as follows :

- Each life lost, or a renewal by, a player scores 10 points for the other team, and loses 5 points for his own team.
- Each base hit scores 50 points for the team which hit the base, and loses 25 points for the team which owns the base.

Individual scores for team games are made up as follows:
Score=(Base Hits)*100+
(Team Score)/(Number of
players on team)
-(Player's Lives+Recharges)/(Total Lives+Renews for team)*(Score other team)

Thus, the player's score is made up from the average score per player on the team, plus 100 points for each base hit achieved by the player, minus the contribution that the player made to the other team's score. Negative scores are quite possible! Player positions are shown relative to the rest of their team.
Individual scores in individual games are made up as follows:
Score $=(($ (Max.lives for any player $)+($ Min. lives lost by any player)/2-player lives)*10
$+($ Base Hits )*100
Thus the score is made up from the number of lives lost
relative to other players, plus 100 points for each base hit achieved by the player. Player positions are shown relative to all other players regardless of colour.

In reality, different games have different scores for hitting a base or losing lives. For example, individual players gain 200 points for hitting a base in the warrior game because it is so much harder to hit the base in this game. Details of the full scoring table are supplied with the EPROM holding the control program for the central.

## Programming and Configuration

The central holds information about its configuration in battery backed RAM. To enter the configuration menu, the key ' $C$ ' is pressed when the copyright message is being displayed. To enter ' $C$ ' the left shift key must be pressed followed by the ' $C$ ' key. The central will then prompt for a "password". The password is 19B6, and cannot be changed. It is intended to prevent accidental changing of configuration, or reprogramming of a gun ID.

The central then offers the choice of programming gun IDs or changing configuration. Configuration change is used to inform the central of whether a printer or external display is connected, and allows the user to change the team names from RED and GREEN to "HEROES" and "JUMPERS" or whatever is selected by team captains each time a game starts.

The gun ID menu requests that the user enter a new gun ID such as RA or G7. When the gun is renewed then it will be programmed with the new ID, the central confirms that the gun has been programmed successfully and then offers further programming.

## Communicating with guns

The protocol used to communicate between the guns and the central is shown in detail here for those who wish to experiment with altemative implementations. (For instance, we seriously considered using an IBM PC as a central, but total non-portability prevented us, however notebook style computers which can take expansion cards may be utilised.)

Figure 3 shows the circuit of the central and the guns in simplified form. The diagram shows two guns renewing simultaneously, although normally there will only be one gun at a time. The tip line drives the gun directly and is used by the central to transmit a renewal packet to both guns simultaneously. The ring line is driven by the gun into the central. The central can force this line high by pulling the base



Fig.5. Message from gun to central
of TR1 low. Remember that the PIC can make any of its port pins outputs or inputs and note that the gun can provide a resistive drive by driving serr, and can then monitor sern, or can provide a low impedance drive by driving sem.

The serial protocol operating from the guns is a simple bus protocol. A gun wishing to transmit requests transmission, waits for acknowledgement from the central, and then transmits. The transmission request is seen by the other gun as a denial for its own transmission, and it waits until the first gun has finished before requesting its own transmission.

The central only transmits on the tip line once every $1 / 8$ th of a second, and so this line is normally held at a low level ground (Vdd). The gun uses this low level to infer that it has been plugged in to the central.

The serial protocol is illustrated in figure 4. The ring line is normally pulled high by R15. The gun requests transmission by pulling serr low and monitoring serh. However, if the ring line (monitored on serh) is already low, then the gun waits until it is high for a period of 20 mS before it attempts to request transmission. This will occur if another gun is requesting transmission.

When the central is ready to receive a transmission, it forces the ring line high for 1 mS by pulling TR1 base low, the drive from TR1 is of much lower impedance than R12 so that the ring line goes high. When the gun sees this high state on serh it turns off the drive on serr and drives serh high for 2 mS so that the central has time to release the drive to TR1. After this time the gun starts a serial transmission with a low start bit followed by the bits it wishes to transmit at a 1 mS rate per bit. After transmission, the gun returns serr and serh to a high impedance state and the ring line is pulled high by R15 once again ready for another gun transmission.

Should both guns attempt to transmit simultaneously then this will be detected by serr, and both guns wait a random time which is between 20 ms and 21 mS before trying again - the gun which chose the shorter time will "win". This is a crude form of the CSMA protocol used on local area networks.

For transmission from the central to the guns the protocol is much simper. There is no request and acknowledgement, the gun simply repeats the same message every $1 / 8$ th of a second. The
tip line is normally low, the start bit is high, followed by 8 bits and a low stop bit. This is also shown in figure 4. Each bit is 100us long.

## Note on bit times

The protocol was designed to work with PICs with 4 MHz clocks. In practice, due to the slightly higher frequency clock used, the serial bit times are actually 954uS instead of 1 mS for the transmission from the guns to the central, and 95uS from the central to the guns.

## Packet Format

Renewal of a gun operates in two phases. The first action is taken by the gun which attempts to transmit a message to the central informing it of the number of lives the user has left, and the user's ID. This enables the central to count the total number of lives used, and to count the number of renewals taken by each player. The format of the message which is 16 bits long is shown in figure 5 . The inverse user ID must match the user ID for the message to be accepted, this is intended to provide a simple check against spurious messages sent when the renewal lead is inserted into or removed from the gun. Red IDs have the top bit of the ID set to 0 , green IDs have the top bit set to 1 .

The renewal packet from the central to the gun consists of 10 bytes and is shown in figure 6. Renewal of the gun is only complete when the gun sees its own ID in the bytes MRC or MRCBUT1 in the renewal packet. This is an acknowledgement from the central to the gun. The checksum byte is the 8 bit remainder from the sum of all the bytes from byte 2 to byte 9 , and is used by the gun to check that the received packet is valid.

## Next Month...

we will continue with a look at the processor board, its construction and software.

| Byte | Name | Value (Hex) | Notes |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Start flag | AA | Always has the value AA, shows start of packet |
| 2 | Type | 00-01 | 00 for a renewal packet <br> 01 to program the gun ID <br> For ID packets bytes 4 to 9 are set to 00 |
| 3 | Shots | 00-FF | Number of shots per life <br> For an ID packet this the ID of the gun to program <br> For ID packets bytes 4 to 9 are set to 00 |
| 4 | Timelo | 00-FF | Lower byte of game time left in seconds |
| 5 | Timehi | 00-FF | Upper byte of game time left in seconds |
| 6 | Game type | 00-07 | Type 0 is normal <br> Type 1 is warriors All other types are spare |
| 7 | Lives | 00-7F | Number of lives for user Note numbers greater than $1 F(\mathrm{Hex})$ are used only for special purposes, as the number of lives transmitted from the gun to the central is limited to 5 bits |
| 8 | MRC | 00-9F | ID of the most recently renewed user used to acknowledge the gun <br> Blt 7 if set shows that this user is a warrior |
| 9 | MRCBUT1 | 00-9F | As MRC for the most recently renewed user but one |
| 10 | Checksum | 00-FF | 8 bit checksum - lower 8 bits of the additive sum of bytes 2 to 9 (does not include start flag) |

Fig.6. Renewal packet from central to guns


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# Open Forum 

 II the great developments in what we loosely call media technology have brought in their wake massive cultural changes. Waves of cultural change which wash across the years and erode the very foundations of the society in which we live. As a result some old institutions have crumbled, but at the same time new ones are arising and pointing the way to the future.Cinema, radio, television, telephones, personal computers, and the information superhighway have shrunk the world. It seems today that nowhere is 'lost', remote or inaccessible. No culture, no social system, no political dogma or religious creed can hide from the influence of 'mass communications' But although we may be losing some of the world's cultural diversity, we are at the same time building a world where the dogmas and intolerance born of ignorance are hopefully a thing of the past. Dictators and fanatics can not exist in a world where the free flow of information means that their lies and evil doings are exposed for all to see. It is not surprising therefore that the governments of some more intolerant states have attempted, usually with little success, to control the technology which allows this free movement of information. Or that some fanatical sects have sought to hound, using every possible legal or illegal means, ex members who are using information technology to tell the world about the dangers of these self same fanatics.
This is of course Marshall McLuhan's 'Global Village', but in spite of all its enormous benefits it is a global village with a major flaw. The information technology has separated us from experiencing the world, it has denatured our vision of the world. It is a vision in which we as individuals have no control.
Given information from a multitude of media sources we have the ability to cast out our own politicians, and in limited areas change the way that our society is run. But although we might witness famine, poverty, ignorance, and disease in other parts of the world on our TV screens there is little we can do apart from give a donation to some aid charity. Similarly we may witness the adrenalin pumping excitement of flying a supersonic jet, or being part of a military operation but solely from the standpoint of an uninvolved observer, we can not share the adrenalin rush.
The result is in many cases frustration, but frustration soon gives way to either inertia or antisocial anger. This is where the danger sets in, for we look at what is happening in the
world, a world about which we have information from every remote corner, and finding ourselves uninvolved simply shrug our shoulders and turn to other things. Society becomes alienated and divided, with increasing numbers losing themselves in drink, drugs, and mindless violence. For without activity, the ability to physically take control, we have lost the world, activity for mankind is everything.
Enter virtual reality, telepresence and teleoperator technologies, the latest in media technology, and the first to offer the user the potential to be in control, to interact with real and imaginary worlds. A technology which does not narrow the human spirit, but instead frees it and perhaps even amplifies it. This means that virtual reality offers us a way in which everyone can participate, either for their own benefit or for the benefit of others. It offers us a way to reduce the dangerous elements of human nature, such as aggression, by letting the individual work them out in a virtual world. This technology allows the positive side of human nature to be emphasised. Doctors will be able to remotely operate on patients thousands of miles away, teachers will be able to take classes of students who are scattered across the globe, and the disabled, or those living in remote districts, will be able $t 0$ work normally in a virtual workplace. Virtual reality will be commercialised as a new entertainment medium, but we must not allow this to obscure its potential. No more than we must allow television to be conceived of as a purveyor of game shows and soap operas, as opposed to documentaries and educational programmes
However, if virtual reality is to achieve this potential there is an enormous amount of work which needs to be done in developing and exploiting the technology. Already in the US literally hundreds of small companies are springing up to exploit new VR ideas, a pattern which to a limited degree is being copied in the UK. The virtual reality market is wide open, we have yet to see the Microsoft, Compaq, or Apple of the VR market. We have yet to see the new billionairs of VR. Virtual reality has enormous potential, it already has individuals with visions of a VR future. It is a future which can not be extrapolated by looking at the past, technology is opening up uncharted territory. We must now remember that the past is simply history, no more and no less, the future is where we are destined to spend the rest of our lives. It is up to us what kind of future we make for ourselves.

## Next Month...

In the June 1995 issue of ETI we will continue our laser tag game project, Robin Abbott will conclude the construction of the light gun central. We will also look at another of Richard Grodzik's add-on boards for his 80188 single board computer project, a 4 channel touch switch. Plus a bicycle loop alarm from Terry Balbyrnie, and Dave Bradshaw takes a look al building simple switch regulators
We continue our new series of projects built around the Parallax Stamp computer with a look at building a remote analogue signal measurement system that will connect to your PC. We will also be continuing our series of projects using the PIC microcontroller. Plus a project to build your own PIC programmer (can be used with the development software in April ETI's tree disk)
The main feature will delve into the technology behind, and the amazing uses for, shape memory metals. PC Clinic will have a new Q \& A look.

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