

## TUNFFUU TRITIE



Vol 26 Issue: II IO October I997 $\mathbf{2 2 . 5 0}$

## The Autumn Collection



Programmable Logic is one of the fastest growing areas in the Electronics Industry. This system allows you to both learn about PLDs (Programmable Logic Devices) and to implement them in practical projects. It comes complete with a Programmer (Capable of programming $16 \mathrm{~V} 8,20 \mathrm{~V} 8$ and 22 V 10 devices), a training module, a stand alone training course and a free copy of the industry standard CUPL for Windows, plus a Flash based device that can be reprogrammed 100 s of times.


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Introduction to the AVR book. Written by a Lecturer, this book is the perfect introduction, not only to the AVR microcontroller, but also to microcontrollers in general. Includes Official Software. Only £18.

Training System


## Volume 26 No. 11



## Next lssue 7th November 1997



## Regulars

NewsPCB foilsETI PCB ServiceRound the CornerDigital Signal Processing ..... 13
Now used in modems, amateur radio equipment, high-end sound equipment, and in many of the fastest-developing areas of electronics, DSP is becoming more accessible and certainly more necessary to electronic design.
Fast Fivers - A Tuneful Trifle ..... 41Would you like some light music? You can produce your own With this little light-controliedtone generator, you can make music to fit the mood with a light-dependent resistor.
GCSE Grounding: Sound Switcher55Terry Balbirnie starts a series of adaptable circuits which can be incorporated or adapted forGCSE- and other projects. In this issue: a module to trigger a reaction when a sound ismade.
Alphanumeric Morse Touchkey ..... EIThe Alphanumeric Morse Touchkey is designed to enable beginners learning Morse tobecome familiar with the dot-dash codes and their mythmic patterns without the aid of aninstructor.
The MKII Electronic Auto-Checker ..... 33Tim Parker's original Ell Multi-checker now has a 'voice' to tell you what's going on whenyou are upside-down under an instrument panel, along with improved functions andstraightforward one-pushbutton operation.
Total Harmonic Distortion Meter25Robert Penfold's Total Harmonic Distortion (THD) Meter has a good quality notch filter and anaudio millivoltmeter.
Computer Radio Control for Home Automation Part 2 ..... 15

Dr. Pei An describes the Radio Mains Control System interfaces to control up to 1024 mains outlets via up to 256 radio receivers and a transmitter connected to the Centronics port.



FEATURES:

- Large lco display
- MASIMUM READING 1999 + UNI - SINGLE MANUAL ROTARY SWITCH FOR FUNCTION AND RANGE OPERATION - AUTO POWER OFF (APPROX 15 min ) - DIODE TEST FUNCTION - all ranges overload protected - SUPPLIED WITH TEST PROBES -700V ACCURACY $\pm 0.5 \%$
- AC VOLTAGE: $200 \mathrm{mV} / 2 \mathrm{~V} / 20 \mathrm{~V} / 200 \mathrm{~V} 700 \mathrm{~V}$ - DC CURRENT A: $200 \mu \mathrm{~A} 20 \mathrm{~mA} 200 \mathrm{~mA} 2 \mathrm{~A} 20 \mathrm{~A}$ - AC CURRENT A: $200 \mu \mathrm{~A} 20 \mathrm{~mA} 200 \mathrm{~mA} 2 \mathrm{~A} / 20 \mathrm{~A}$ - RESISTANCE : $200 \Omega / 2 \mathrm{kS} / 200 \mathrm{ks} / 2 \mathrm{M} / 20 \mathrm{M} \Omega$ 200MS

ORDER CODE: CM3900A
PRICE: 2900p


FEATURES:

- TEMPERATURE MEASUREMENT - DIODE \& TRANSISTOR HFE TEST - LaRge lco displar
- HEIGHT 18 mm
- MAXIMUM READING 1999 + UNIT - SINGLE MANUAL ROTARY SWITCH FOR FUNCTION AND RANGE OPERATION - AUTO POWER OFF (APPROX 15 mins ) - DIODE TESWI FUNCTION - ALL RANGES OVERLOAD PROTECTED - SUPPLIED WITH TEST PROBES 1000V ACCURACY $10.5 \%$ - AC VOLTAGE: $200 \mathrm{mV} / 2 \mathrm{~V} / 20 \mathrm{~V} / 200 \mathrm{~V} 700 \mathrm{~V}$ - DC CURRENT 2 mA 20 mAN 200 m AV20A
- AC CURRENT A: 200 mAN 20 A
- RESISTANCE : 200s/2KS2/200ks/2M2/20M 200MR2
- CAPACITANCE: 2nFi20nF/200nF/2 $\mu$ F/2O $\mu \mathrm{F}$

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FEATURES:

- 3.75 LCD DISPLAY WITH DECIMAL POINT
- 33 SEGMENT BARGRAPH DISPLAY
- overrange indication
- ROTARY SWITCH FOR FUNCTION

SELECIION

- AUTO POWER OFF (APPROX 15 mins - DIODE TEST \& CONTINUITY TEST WITH BUZZER
- all ranges overload protected - LOW BATTERY INDICATION - SUPPLIED WITH TEST PROBES - DC VOLTAGE: $320 \mathrm{mV} / 3.2 \mathrm{~V} / 32 \mathrm{~V} / 320 \mathrm{~V} / 600 \mathrm{~V}$ - AC VOLTAGE: $320 \mathrm{mV} / 3.2 \mathrm{~V} / 32 \mathrm{~V} / 320 \mathrm{~V} 600 \mathrm{~V}$ - DC CURREN
- ac CURREN
- AC CURRENT A: $320 \mu \mathrm{~A} / 3200 \mu \mathrm{~A} 32 \mathrm{~mA}$ - RESISTANCE
3.2Mన/32MS: $3202 / 3$ 2Ks/32Ks/320K』

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| :--- | :--- | :--- |
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| :---: | :---: |
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| NETMORK | CODE |
| 9000, 9200 | SATPSU2 |
| NOKIA | Cown |
| SAT 1500 | SATPSU2 |
| PRCE | CODE |
| PRD800, PRD900, PSR800, PSR900 | SATPSU1 |
| MRD920, SS9000, SS9010, SS9200, | SATPSU2 |
| SS9210, SS9220 |  |
| D100, D150, | SATPSU6 |
| MSS100 | SATPSU8 |
| APOLLO, MSS200, MSS300 | SATPSU9 |
| MSS500, MSS1000 | SATPSU10 |
| PHILPS | Conte |
| STU802/05M | SATPSU1 |
| STU801 | SATPSU2 |
| THOMSON | CODE |
| SRS4 | SATPSU2 |
| TOSHIBA | CODE |
| SAT99, TU-SDU200 | SATPSU1 |


| CODE | PRICE | CODE | PRICE | code | Price | CODE | PRICE |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| SATPSU1 | 650p | SATPSU6 | 650p | SATPSU11 | 835p | SATPSU16 | 730p |
| SATPSU2 | $650 p$ | SATPSU7 | 650p | SATPSU12 | 1735p | SATPSU17 | 850p |
| SATPSU3 | 650p | SATPSU8 | 730p | SATPSU13 | 3125p | SATPSU18 | 1175p |
| SATPSU4 | 6500 | SATPSU9 | 900p | SATPSU14 | 3135p | SATPSU19 | 650 p |
| SATPSU5 | 6500 | SATPSU10 | 1230p | SATPSU15 | 77.5p |  |  |



| PACE SWITCH MODE TRANSFORMERS |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| MODELS | CODE | PRMCE |
| PACE9000 | PACE9000 | 800 p |
| PACEPRD800, PRD900 | PRD800 | 550 p |

## SATMETER

THE SATMETER IS A PROFESSIONAL PORTABLE SATELLITE STRNGTH METER DESIGNED FOR THE INSTALLATION AND MAINTENANCE OF SATELLITE TV SYStems. THE SATMETER CAN be USED AS STAND ALONE METER WITH POWERING THE LNB AS WELL AS IN LOOP. THROUGH OPERATION WITH SATELLITE RX POWERING THE LNB.

ACOUSTICAL SIGNAL: ON SIGNAL STRENGTH INPUT IMPEDENENCE: 75 Ohm MAX.INPUT SIGNAL: -10 DBM

LED INDICATOR: VERTICAL/HORIZONTAL POWER AMPLIFIER: 18 DB

FREQUENCY RANGE: 900 TO 2050 MHZ DETECTION RANGE: -60 TO -10 DBM

ORDER CODE: TOOL 22 PRICE: 8500p

| SATELLTTE LNB'S |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| RAKE A MODE 1 | ORP做COPR | Patice | TAKEA MOPat | ORnaricompa | Ratc |
| Cambridge AE23/ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ( 0.8 dB stancard 10.95-1i.70 GMz Goid Range | LNB1 | 2160p | Cambridge AE7 Twin O/P H+V Both Enhanced | LNE7 | 4000p |
| Cambridge AE14 Universal LNB 10.7-11.7/11.7-12.75 GHz | (NB2 | 2500p | Cambridge AE2 Dual O/P H-V Separate Enhanced | LNB8 | 3550p |
| Cambridge AE21/AE5 Single O/P Switching LNB 1.0dB Standard | LNB3 | 2050p | Grundig Super Universal 'Anis' 10.7-12.75 GHz 0.8dB | LNB9 | 2600p |
| Cambridge AE19/AE6 Single O/P Switching LNB 1.0dB Enhanced | LNB4 | 2050p | Grundig Universal 'Anis' 10.7-12.75 GHz 1.0dB | LNE10 | 2250p |
| Cambridge AE23/AE12 0.8dB Enhanced 10.7-11.8GHz Gold Range | LNB5 | 2160p | Cambridge AE1 Twin O/P H+V Both Standard | LNB11 | 4000 p |
| Cambridge AE8 Dual O/P H-V Separate Enhanced | LNB6 | 4000p |  |  |  |


|  |  |  | FUSES |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | TIME LAG |  | OUICK BLOW | (20WMM) |
| CURPENT RATING | ORDER CODE | PRICE | ORDER CODE | PRICE |
| 100mA | FUSE36 | 75p | FUSE37 | 60 P |
| 160mA | FUSE01 | 75p | FUSE17 | 60p |
| 250 mA | FUSE02 | 75p | FUSE18 | 60p |
| 315 mA | FUSE03 | 75p | FUSE19 | 60p |
| 400 mA | FUSE04 | 75p | FUSE20 | 60p |
| 500 mA | FUSE05 | 75p | FUSE21 | 60 p |
| 630mA | FUSE06 | 75p | FUSE22 | 60p |
| 800mA | FUSE07 | 60p | FUSE23 | 60p |
| IA | FUSE08 | 60p | FUSE24 | 60p |
| 1.25A | FUSE09 | 60p | FUSE25 | 60 p |
| 1.6A | FUSE10 | 60p | FUSE26 | 60p |
| 2A | FUSE11 | 50p | FUSE27 | 60p |
| 2.5A | FUSE12 | 50p | FUSE28 | 60p |
| 3.15A | FUSE13 | 55p | FUSE29 | 50p |
| 4A | FUSE14 | 55p | FUSE30 | 50p |
| 5A | FUSE15 | 60p | FUSE31 | 50p |
| 6.3A | FUSE16 | 60p | FUSE32 | 50p |

## NB.

all fuses are made in the uk and fully meet BS4265 \& BS1362 SAFETY STANDARDS AND SHOULD NOT BE COMPARED WITH CHEAP IMPORTED TYPES.

CERAMIC PLUG TOP

| CUMRENTRATING | ORDER CODE | PRICE |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| 3A | FUSE33 | 100 p |
| 5A | FUSE34 | $100 p$ |
| 13 A | FUSE35 | 100 p |

## 20mm CERAMIC TIME LAG

| CUARENTRATING | ORDER CODE | PRICE |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| $6.3 A$ | FUSE38 | 100 p |
| 8 A | FUSE39 | 100 p |
| 10 A | FUSE40 | 100 p |
| 3.15 A | FUSE41 | 85 p |
| 4 A | FUSE42 | 85 p |
| 5A | FUSE43 | 85 p |

## 38 mm CERAMIC TIME LAG

| CURPENT RATMG | ORDER CODE | PRICE |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| $10 A$ | FUSE 48 | $815 P$ |

## 32 mm CERAMIC SLOW BLOW

| CURRENTT RATING | ORDER CODE | PRICE |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| 8 A | FUSE44 | 185 P |
| 10A | FUSE45 | $185 p$ |
| 15 A | FUSE46 | $185 p$ |
| 20A | FUSE47 | 210 p |



## ALL THE ABOVE ITEMS ARE MANUFACTURED BY SERVISOL

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[^0]
# ETI ELECTRONICS <br> TODAY INTERNATIONAL 

## OVERSEAS READERS

To call UK telephone numbers, replace the initial 0 with your local overseas access code plus the digits 44.


Ivex Design International's WinDraft CAD package for Windows will now have the capability to act as a "schematic viewer" and view any size of sheet. The facility applies to all versions, including the 100 pin capacity shareware version.

WinDraft's view mode is analogous to Microsoft's Word 6 viewer, and allows the user to view a document without having to purchase a "full" version of the software. According to lvex, WinDraft V1.26 will give engineers the ability to distribute schematics freely in a standardised

## Update to WinDraft for schematic design

format, including over the Internet.
Features available with V1. 26 include the ability to view any size of sheet created with a licensed copy of WinDraft Schematics; added printing functionality to allow $x$ and $y$ offsets in the print dialog box; user definable attribute fields to include in the Bill of Materials (the user can include information such as the module name, part stock number or any other attribute); an improved Library Editor to allow easier pin mobility when creating or editing parts and changed configuration to speed up use; added default module footprints of hundreds of additional parts to facilitate PCB layout; user-request to view pin numbers on power pins; revised Getting Started Guide which includes netlist information and important PCB layout information; revised on-line Help with up to date
information.
WinDraft is the ideal front end for WinBoard PCB layout software. Prices range from $£ 19.95$ (including VAT) to £350 plus VAT, depending on the pin capacity. Version 1.26 is a free upgrade to existing customers

A free shareware version of both WinDraft and WinBoard can be obtained from the Web at http://www.ivex.com by downloading wdshare.exe and wbshare.exe on the anonymous FTP service. These shareware versions are complete, fully functional programs with an 100pin/pad limitation, and will now view any size of schematic.

For more information contact The PC Solution, 2 a High Road, Leyton, London E15 2BP. Tel 01819261161 Fax 0181 9261160 email: info@The PCSol.Demon.co.uk.

## Shorts

Author Bill Davies has produced a substantial first volume in a series covering all areas of applied robotics,
Practical Robotics. For
information about the contents, price, delivery costs etc. please contact the author at WERD
Technology Inc., Unit 35B,
Suite 155,10520 Yonge St.
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Canada. Information may also
be available from CPIC
Technical Books email
cpic@idirect.com
The Federation of
Electronics Industry has
appointed a new President for 1997-1998, Barry Wood,
chairman and MD of Celab

Ltd., specialists in power conversion for defence telecomms and cable TV Speaking to the FEl annual dinner, Barry Wood said, "Well over 80 percent of the 50,000 companies in the electronics and related industries employ less than 20 people and over 95 percent less than 200 people. Successful partnerships between large and smail enterprises are crucial to the economic success of national and European industry. Without innovative and flexible small firsm the industry will not prosper." IT, electronics and telecommunications is set to represent 10 percent of all

## Yes, There are 5 prizes to win!

But no prizes for spotting that we only-printed one question last month, instead of the three questions needed to enter our RD Research/B2Sprice competition. Technical details: it was right when it left our end of the phone lines, and different when it came out at the other end, burying the all-important questions under the answer coupon.
The three questions are:
Question 1 What is the latest SPICE ENGINE used in B2 Spice V2?
Question 2: Which university developed it?
Question 3: What does SPICE stand for?
The competition is open to purchasers of EII Issue 10 1997 (last month's issue) who are not empolyees of Nexus Special Interest Ltd. or RD Research. Please send your entries on the coupon in Issue 10, or a neat copy of it, to: Spice Competition, ETI Magazine, Nexus Special Interests, Nexus House, Boundary Way, Hemel Hempstead, Herts HP2 7ST. Terms are as published in ETI issue 10 1997, and the final date for entries has been extended to October 30th 1997.

## $B^{2}$ Spice \& $B^{2}$ Logic £199

- Design and test analogue and digital circuits quickly and easily
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## Fully integrated and Interactive

Build the circuit on the screen and set up the simulations by choosing options from menus and dialogues. Then run the simulation and view your results.

## Flexible Visuallsationof Results

in $\mathrm{B}^{2}$ Spice results can be displayed in graphs, ables or directly in voltmeters and ammeters. Change from typical to worst case analysis and include the effectsof temperature on components. You can customise everything, right down to the colour of an individual trace so you see just what you need. B̀Spice and $B^{2}$ Logic let you export data to other applications.

## Versatility

A plethora of components include resistors. capacitors, inductors. mutual inductors transformers, controlled sources, bipolar junction transistors, zener diodes, powe MESFETs. JFETs, MOSFETs, votlage regulators. operational amplifiers, optocouplers, voltage comparators, quartz crystals, IBIS I/O buffers and switching matrix connectors and much more All devices and model parameters can be edited to suit your needs. Implement hierarchical circuits in your designs quickly and easily

## No Limits

With $B^{2}$ Spice and $B^{2}$ Logic there is no limit on the number of components in the circuit.

## Models

There are literally thousands of them... The complete Berkeley SPICE model library as well as commercial libraries from manufacturers such as. Motorola, Texas Instruments, Burr-Brown, Maxim, National Semi, APEX Comlinear, AMP, Elantec, Linear Tech, and many more. Included with BSpice is a full model and symbol editing package so you can create. import and edit custom models.

## Commands

$B^{2}$ Spice supports AC frequency sweep. DC operating point. transient analysis, fast founer Nase, sensitivity distortion, Tf small signal transfer.

## SImulation Optlons

Added facility for sub-circuits (macro-models). You can set all simulation options. Allows you to set initial conditions at all nodes Allows you to set initial guess at nodes for simulation.
Allows "not given" state for all values

## Total Control

$\mathrm{B}^{2}$ Spice gives full access to Berkeley SPICE simulation control options. For example you can set global defaults for transistor channel lengths and widths! Plus much more.

## Waveform Analysis

Display and compare multiple response curves in a single graph at the same time. BSpice simulation results can be selectively displayed and analysed graphically and in numerical format as well as exported to other applications. All of $B^{\prime}$ Spice and $B^{2}$ Logic's display capabilities are completely flexible.

## Devices \& Stimulus for Simulation

In $\mathrm{B}^{2}$ Spice sinusoidal, constant. periodic
pulse, exponential. single frequencyFM. AM, DC voltage. AC voltage, VCO, Vce, piecowise linear, exponential, polynomial /arbitrary source. voltage-controlled voltage, voltagecontrolled current, current-controlled voltage current-controlled current. Lossy and ideal transmission line. MESFET uniform RC. current and voltage switches are all available.

## Cross Probing

Cross probing allows you to display waveform results simply by marking pins, wres and devices on the circuit drawing. Monitor results while the simulation is in progress then plot analogue results on linear or $\log$ scales.

## Graphs

in $\mathrm{B}^{-}$Spice analogue traces may be displayed as raw voltages and current values or further processed using arithmetic expressions. functions and Fast Fourier Transforms. High quality graphs let you see just what you need to, clearly and easily You can also display multiple simulations in one graph. Mutiple graphs can then be aligned and compared.

## Data Analysis

Position detection wilth mouse for data paints mport and export data to and from other industry standard SPICE programs. B' Spice supports Polar Smith and Nyquist charts.
Digital Options.
$B^{2}$ Logic is completely flexible. Set up ROM. RAM and PLA to your own requirements. Shrink a whole circuit to a block and use it as a component in a new design. Run the simulations in real time or step by step Customise rise and fall time of all components. Results displayed in a logic analyser or table. Select parts from all major logic families. Create your own custom libraries.

Design engineers need software that produces results they can rely on. Anything less is a liability. $\mathrm{B}^{2}$ Spice \& $\mathrm{B}^{2}$ Logic will give you the accurate results you need fast.

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## Electrical recycling charges up in Yorkshire

Businesses in Yorkshire have been invited to attend two seminars on electronic waste in Hull and Bradford in September as part of a trial collecting project to target the region's share of the 6 million or so pieces of electronic waste discarded annually in the UK. Equipment like computers, printers, telephones, fax machines and monitors contain valuable materials and components which can be collected for reuse and recycling.

The seminars were arranged by Save Waste and Prosper (SWAP) in conjunction with Leeds Environment Business Forum, Bradford Business and Environment Forum and the Humber Resource Efficiency Centre, with attendance by representatives from the Industry Council for Electronics Recycling and the Corporation of London. The main theme was a survey carried out by SWAP which revealed widespread uncertainty in local companies about how to dispose of obsolete electronic and electrical equipment. The 200 Leeds companies surveyed tackled the problem in a variety of ways from long-term storage, donation to schools, selling off to staff and disposal with general waste. Leeds-based collection company Silver Lining Ltd, began a trial collection service in July, to continue till January 1998 in the Leeds, Bradford and

Humber areas. Considerable interest is expected from businesses that do not yet know about the scheme.

Few businesses know that they can pay to have specifically electronic waste removed; some items, such as nicad batteries, should by law be disposed of (by businesses) through specialist commercial waste collection, not via normal rubbish collection.

The seminars are part of a project funded by Cleanaway Ltd. through the Landfill Tax mechanism, which was one of the first to gain support in this way. Support has also come from the Government Office for Yorkshire and Humber.

Businesses that have electronic waste they want collected can contact the organisations listed below - please note that companies will be charged for collection according to the amount and weight of waste.

Paul Twiddy at Business Link Bradford tel. 01274 751399; John Frank at Leeds Environmental Business Forum, tel. 0113 2470000; Terry Lander, Humber Resource Efficiency Centre, tel. 01482228580.

For further information, contact Elaine Kerrell or Rebecca Shannan at Save Waste and Prosper Ltd., tel. 01132438777 fax 01132344222.

## Reclaim and recovery gathers pace in Scotland

A new electronics recycling plant is being opened at the Dumfries site of R Frazier Reclamation, Scotland's Waste, Electrical and Electronic Equipment (WEEE) Recycler. R Frazier Reclamation specialises in the recycling of computers, telecoms and office equipment, including the reclamation of components and parts, and the recycling of materials.

MD Gary Griffiths said, "The purpose-built recycling plant has been designed to process electrical and electronics equipment and related plastics. Sophisticated mechanical separation equipment will reduce electronic parts such as computer boards to small particles, enabling separation of metals from plastics and other materials more effectively than existing processes. The recovered material will them be recycled into new products." He also adds, "R Frazier's asset management approach maximises revenue earning potential as re-used equipment earns more than recycled material."

The company acknowledges openly (not all reclaiming operations do this) that a proportion of waste electronics will be recovered and resold for reuse in its original function.
Product handling by the company is prioritised on the basis of re-use, reclaiming components and materials recycling. Trained operators sort incoming equipment to identify any products that can be sold for re-use. The remainder is
dismantled and reusable components recovered for re-sale. Hazardous parts such as capacitors, VDUs and batteries are safely disposed of. The company states that security-sensitive equipment is guaranteed destruction - a reassurance that may be necessary as companies frequently forget to clean or overwrite company information on hard disks before parting with their obsolete computers. All products will be tracked and clients will receive reports on how and where materials end up.
"This offers clients the opportunity to turn waste management costs into possible revenue in a process offering both commercial and environmental benefits", says Chairman Liam McKenna.

The company is aiming for zero landfill at the end of the process, and reckons that it has already achieved 99 percent recovery on IT products and 97 percent on telecoms products. The company aims to work with organisations to improve the commercial viability of electronic and electrical equipment recycling, rather than have such recyclable material dumped at cost into landfill.

For further details, contact Gary Griffiths or Katie Martin tel. 01387721513.
ELECTRONIC COMPONENTS
Station Road，Cullercoats，
Tyne \＆Wear，NE30 4PQ
Tel：（0191） 2514363
Fax：（0191） 252 2296
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http：／／wwwesr．co．uk


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# Digital Signal Processing 

## Signal processing in a chip, DSP will soon become as ubiquitous as the general purpose microprocessor.

Digital signal processing (DSP) is used in modems, amateur radio equipment, high-end sound equipment, and in many areas where you might not at first expect to find it. Although it is difficult to design a complicated DSP system, the principles on which DSP works are accessible to anyone. It is only the mathematics and coding for complex systems which present a challenge.

Apart from fashion, why should DSP be used in preference to other filtering techniques? There are many reasons, but one of the most important is that DSP can do things that are not achievable with conventional signal processing (see finite impulse response filters below), or that are too expensive or complicated to be practical with other techniques.

A DSP system is controlled by software, so that the same system can be dynamically reconfigured for different functions (for instance, for different modem speeds) or can even be self-adapting. Depending on speed of signal and the speed of the DSP system, the same DSP chip may be able to carry out several functions at once, or perhaps to control a user interface with controls and displays in addition to its real-time signal processing task. For these and other good reasons, DSP is becoming widely used.

Digital signal processing, once the signal is in digital form, requires adders, subtractors, multipliers and dividers. It also needs time delays, which can normally be provided by the use of memory.

## Digitisation

In order to use a digital filtering system, the first requirement is to digitise the signal (unless, as with the data stream from a CD, it has already been digitised). In order to implement a high quality DSP function, the digitisation of the signal must be carried out to a high standard. Otherwise, even if the rest of the system is well designed, the overall performance will be disappointing. Since the aim of this article is to cover DSP itself, I shall cover only the highlights of digitisation.

An analogue signal, which may also be called a continuous time sequence, may be converted into a digital signal or discontinuous time sequence by sampling at regular intervals and assigning a digital value corresponding to the voltage of the signal at the

instant of sampling. This principle is illustrated in figure 1.
In some cases the voltage to be measured will always be positive, in which case a binary representation starting at all zeros for the lowest voltage to be represented to all ones for the highest voltage will be suitable. However, in many cases positive and negative values must be represented, as in an audio signal. There are two major methods of using binary numbers to represent such voltages, offset binary, and twos complement.

Offset binary is straightforward to understand. If 8 bits are used to represent the signal than the zero point is set to 127



Figure 2: Converting a bipolar signal to a unipolar signal
(01111111 in binary, 7F in hexadecimal). A simple way to do this is illustrated in figure 2 . Here a signal with a range of $+/-$ 2.5 V is halved and added to a halved copy of the 2.5 V reference, converting it to a signal having a range from zero to 2.5 V . An inverter converts this to an equivalent positive range, which matches the voltage reference of the analogue to digital converter. This provides offset binary independent of the number of bits.

This can be useful for such things as data logging on a PC, where the data logging program can do the necessary calculations for offset and scaling. It is less useful for real time digital signal processing, where calculations must be done with maximum speed. For this purpose "two's complement" is more useful. This is a means of representing positive and negative values with a single binary sequence, in a manner compatible with binary arithmetic operations, so that if a positive and a negative number are added, the resulting number is correct.

To convert a number to two's complement, invert all the bits and add 1 . This is the same as saying that the most significant bit is the sign bit, with 0 representing positive numbers and 1 representing negative ones. It is also necessary to ignore the carry bit.

Here are some examples of additions:
$\begin{array}{ll}00010110 & (+0010110) \\ 1111101 & (-0000011)\end{array}$
100010011 ( +0010100 ) (Disregard the carry bit, and the sign bit is 0 , meaning positive)

00000011 (+0000011)
11101010 (-0010100)
11101101 (Two's complement for -0010011)
Most analogue to digital converters intended for use in DSP can output data in two's complement mode. Often the converter itself cannot accept negative input voltages, but can use an analogue ground offset of half the reference voltage. In this case a voltage of half the reference is added to the signal in a manner similar to that shown in figure 2 for the offset binary conversion.

## Conversion techniques

There are a number of ways to convert a voltage to a binary number. The fastest is the flash converter, in which, for an eight-bit conversion, 255 comparators are used with a
reference chain and the output is encoded into binary. This principle is illustrated in figure 3 , which shows a two-bit flash converter.

Two bits of binary can have a total of four states: 00, 01, 10,11 . To split an input voltage into four states requires three comparators, with the states being: all comparators off, one on, two on, and all three on. In general, one comparator less than the number of states is needed, so 255 comparators would be needed for an eight-bit conversion. For video encoding, six bit flash converters are sometimes used, with one converter for each of the colour signals (RGB).

The advantage of a flash converter is that it is as fast as a single comparator, faster than any other technique.


Figure 3: the operation of a flash converter
Disadvantages include the large number of comparators needed, and the power dissipation of the resistor chaln. It is normally only considered practical to use integrated flash converters.

Perhaps the most accurate, and slowest, is the dual slope converter, used widely in digital multimeters. However, the majority of converters for medium frequencies (including audio) use a variety of successive approximation technique. The idea is illustrated in figure 4.

The procedure is to start with all bits set to 0 , then set the most significant to 1 (that is, half scale). If the comparator switches, then the most significant bit gives too high a voltage, so it is set to 0 and the next most significant bit is set to 1 . This

process continues until all the bits have been tested. Thus a sixteen-bit conversion takes sixteen comparisons.

Normal digital to analogue converters use a series of resistors, either weighted in the sequence $1,2,4,8$ etc. or the widely used $\mathrm{R}-2 \mathrm{R}$ network.

It is difficult to integrate precision resistors of the quality required for accurate conversion using normal chip fabrication technology. Even for a 12 -bit conversion, the most significant bit resistor must be accurate to one part in 4096. A 16-bit conversion requires an accuracy of one part in 65536 .

Another interesting technique used in some $A$ to $D$ converters is to use capacitors instead of resistors, with analogue switches to sample and integrate the charge. Capacitor errors can be corrected by comparing larger value capacitors in the chain with all the smaller ones, and averaging the errors. Correction figures are stored in registers and used to correct the output for calibrated linearity errors. A detailed discussion of this is beyond the scope of this article, but various semiconductor manufacturers literature explains it in more detail.

It is worth noting that, in order to design a good quality DSP-based system, the analogue signal conditioning must be of an adequate standard. If the noise and offsets of the signal conditioning exceed one least significant bit, then the signal conditioning is probably degrading the overall result significantly.

## Aliasing

When converting an analogue signal to a digital form, it is sampled at fixed times. It must be sampled sufficiently often that the instantaneous signal value has not changed too much since the last sample. Sampling less than once per half cycle of the maximum input frequency causes a particular problem, that of the generation of non-existent lower frequency signals as a result of a beat between the sample rate and the input frequency. This is illustrated in figure 5.

The resulting frequency in this example is in the audible range, and would definitely interfere with the sound of a CD if
this effect were present on the recording. A sampling rate of exactly two samples per cycle is called the Nyquist frequency. This sample rate is the lowest possible one that avoids aliasing.

Clearly, it is better to sample at well above the Nyquist frequency if possible. There are several reasons for this. One is that, to avoid aliasing, the analogue signal must be filtered to remove all frequency components above half the sampling frequency. A higher sampling frequency permits the filter cutoff frequency to be well above the maximum frequency of interest, which improves the phase response in band. This is of interest in audio applications, where the effects of very sharp filters can be heard.

In addition, sampling generates noise power spread evenly over the spectrum. If the sampling rate is higher, the spectrum over which the noise power is spread is greater, so the proportion in the band of interest is less.

A digitisation technique particularly well suited to audio applications is called sigma-delta conversion. The sampling rate


Figure 6: aliasing
is much higher than the Nyquist rate, but the conversion is only one bit. In effect, the one bit says whether the signal went up or down during the preceding sample period. Figure 6 shows the block diagram of a sigma-delta analogue to digital conversion. The loop here acts as a low pass filter for the input signal and a high pass filter for the quantisation noise. This noise shaping suits audio requirements well.

After the one-bit conversion is a decimation filter, which


Figure 7: a sigma-delta converter


Figure 5: an RC filter

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Figure 8: operation of a digital decimation filter
lowers the data rate and increases the accuracy. Figure 7 shows the effect of the decimation filter.

## Simple filters - FIR and IIR

The first point to note is that almost all other filter technologies give an infinite impulse response. This is easily illustrated by the simplest possible low pass filter, using one resistor and one capacitor, as shown in figure 8 . The output voltage from this filter is affected by all previous inputs back to the time it was built, because the charging and discharging of the capacitor is exponential. The voltage on the capacitor approaches its aiming point more and more closely, but never actually reaches it. The exact voltage at any given point on a charge or discharge waveform is affected by the starting voltage, which is itself affected by the starting voltage of previous charge and discharge waveforms.

Equally, a tuned circuit will ring forever, with decreasing amplitude, after being excited with one impulse. So, the defining characteristic of an infinite impulse response filter is that its output is dependent on all the inputs it has ever received, and its output for a given input will persist theoretically to infinity. In real systems, the output will decline to a negligible level after a short time, but this level, though too small to measure, is not zero.

The infinite impulse response of analogue filters is not always brought out in mathematical descriptions. When Laplace transforms are used to analyse the filter response, there is normally an implicit assumption that the starting state of charge of all capacitors is zero, and that the initial inductor current is also zero. A rigorous Laplace transform would have to include the initial conditions of the system being analysed.

By contrast, a transversal filter using surface acoustic wave technology, shown in figure 9 is, apart from any imperfections, a finite impulse response filter. Different parts of the input signal are fed to the output with different amplitudes and delays, and after the input signal ceases, and has passed through the filter, its output is zero except for the effects of stray reflections from the acoustic absorbers.


Figure 9: surface acoustic wave transversal

Figures 10 and 11 show examples of FIR and $\|$ R filters. Note that the FIR filter has no feedback paths, and that the feedback paths are what make the filter infinite impulse response. Signals can be fed round and round the loop, being modified (probably attenuated) each time, but theoretically persisting forever. In practice, of course, the amplitude of the recirculating signal in a practical IIR filter will rapidly fall below one least significant bit.

DSP is often thought of as something only esoteric, but, although the term is not often used in this context, the averaging of a series of readings (to average out the noise) in a microprocessor based control system, is a simple form of digital signal processing.


Figure 10: a simple finite impulse response filter


Figure 11: a simple infinite impulse response filter

## Characteristics of FIR and IIR filters

FIR filters can be linear phase and cannot oscillate. They also need a lot of stages to achieve a sharp cutoff.

IIR filters could oscillate if badly designed, and normally have a non-linear phase response, but a much sharper cut off than a similar order of FIR filter.

## DSP chip major functions

As may already have become apparent, digital signal processing can be carried out on any microprocessor. The basic mathematical functions used - addition, multiplication etc. - are just the same. The reason for having specific chips or whole dedicated chip sets is because the arithmetical functions required involve a great deal of repetitive computation which is usually done in real time. A general-purpose microprocessor, while being capable of performing such 'number crunching', in practice would not be able to provide sufficient signal bandwidth to be useful. To overcome this, the chip designers have taken some of the software functions - such as <br> \title{
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multiplication - and provided a dedicated hardware multiplier that will provide the product of two digital numbers very quickly while the DSP processor is performing another task. The advantages of this are that a multiplication task is performed faster than the processor could do it, but at the expense of cost because the chip includes extra hardware.

On the other hand, it is optimised for the job, and in many cases a cheap dsp chip could perform dsp better than a Pentium.

The techniques of DSP have been around for a considerable time, but have been used much slower than real-time on previous generations of computers. For example, an audio recording could be digitally reprocessed to remove clicks and noise, and a new recording made to a quality more suitable for broadcast. Even if the process took several hours to improve a five-minute recording, the quality of the result was good enough to be worth the effort.

Nowadays, however, the term DSP is used to refer to realtime processing, often on audio or video frequency signals. Instead of the microprocessor carrying out multiplications using successive additions with shifts in between (shift and add), a hardware multiplier is used to do what is otherwise a software function. It is this approach that enables DSP chips to keep up with the real world signals that they are required to process.

Equally, time can be saved in fast Fourier transforms by incorporating a special addressing mode in the DSP chip (bitswapped addressing). This permits samples to be stored in the order in which they occur, and be addressed in the order in which they are required, without doing any extra address calculations.

A major function of DSP chips is to carry out Fourier transforms. The reason is that the Fourier transform is a representation of a waveform in terms of frequency instead of time. In this representation, it is simple to remove a frequency component from the signal to generate a notch, or to make any other modification to the frequency response. To understand this, it is unavoidably necessary to look at the mathematics to a certain extent.

## Fourier transforms

All complex (non-sinusoidal) signals are made up of various component frequencies. Viewing a square wave on an oscilloscope will show an easily recognisable trace, but feeding that same waveform into a spectrum analyser gives a very
different picture indeed. The spectrum analyser, through the use of linear filters (or, if it's more modern, DSP), breaks the square wave up into its component frequencies and displays them as relative amplitudes. It is important to note that they are both giving the same information but in different domains. The oscilloscope shows the signal in the time domain with the horizontal axis representing time as defined by the timebase control. The spectrum analyser displays the signal in the frequency domain where the horizontal axis shows the frequency range over which the instrument is working. But note: the spectrum analyser does not give phase information of the displayed frequencies, which is vital to reconstituting the original signal from the displayed data.

In order to understand how a software program can calculate the frequency spectrum of a signal it is necessary to simplify for a moment by leaving out the effect of the sampling, and by using a repetitive signal such as a square wave. The Fourier transform converts between the time domain and frequency domain according to the following formula:
$X(\omega)=1 / 2 \pi .-\infty{ }^{+\infty} X(t) \cdot e^{-j \omega t} . d t$
Where $X(t)$ is the time waveform; $X((\omega)$ is all the component frequencies that go to make up the time waveform; $1 / 2 \pi \mathrm{~s}$ converts between radians and hertz; e-j $\omega$ t is a phasor representation of both sine and cosine terms represented as a time dependent waveform; and dt is the differentiation of the time waveform ( $X(\mathrm{t})$ ) with respect to time ( t$)$, which extracts the rate of variation of the time waveform in time.

Examining this formula shows that it encompasses minus infinity to plus infinity, which means that it can cover random signals. The square wave, because it is repetitive does not need to solved over this range, only the period over which one complete cycle exists.

If a single frequency is represented by a sine wave and, as described above, the square wave contains many different frequencies, then the formula must describe the shape of the waveform in order to be able to extract the frequency data. Therefore to convert the square wave from a time domain waveform to a composite set of frequencies and phases, we modify the Fourier transform formula as follows:

For a square wave of amplitude $N$ and duration at each level $T$ (that is, the total period 2T), the Fourier series is:
$X(\omega)=1 / 2 \pi_{\cdot 0} \int{ }^{t}(+V) \cdot e^{-j \omega t} \cdot d t+1 / 2 \pi \cdot t \int 2 t(-V) \cdot e^{-j \omega t} \cdot d t$
Where $\int$ indicates integration.
This formula describes the basic shape of the waveform mathematically over the various time periods that go to make up the overall signal, a positive DC level which lasts for $T$ seconds followed by a negative DC level which also lasts for $T$ seconds. In fact any repetitive waveform can be described in this manner and the associated frequency spectrum derived accordingly.

When the data describing the waveform is entered into the formula it was presented in the form "over the time period 0 to $X$, the waveform was a DC level of $+V$ volts", "over the time period $X$ to $Y$ the waveform was a $D C$ level of $-V$ volts". Examining the form of the data entry shows that we have described the shape of the waveform completely in a theoretical manner. In effect we have looked at the waveform outside of time and described how it varies with respect to time. .

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## Discrete transforms

If a dsp processor analyses a waveform it cannot "look ahead" to examine the whole waveform, all it can do is look at the signal level now plus a data array of historical values which describe the shape of the waveform over a specific period. To be able to analyse the signal fully, the dsp must be able to process sufficient sampling points to cover the entire square wave from its start point to the end point. Obviously the more complex a waveform is, the more sampling points are necessary and the larger the number of computations the processor has to cope with. Equally the samples must accurately describe the waveform shape without missing any fast transient edges.

All this applies to repetitive waveforms but not to the more random waves that dsp is really targeting. If a single sentence of speech is considered, there is virtually nothing within it that can obviously be described at repetitive, yet the sentence is rich with fundamental frequencies and associated harmonics, all of which can be extracted and either displayed or mathematically adapted.

Try connecting a microphone to a spectrum analyser and looking over the range 50 Hz to 20 kHz . Speaking into the microphone will show a continually varying display of frequencies. This is an important aspect of the digital processing of a real time signal - the information is not constant as in the square wave analysed above. Thus a modification to the Fourier transform is needed, one that can cope with real world signals with time varying frequency components. The discrete Fourier transform is used to do this, and it works on a range of data samples during a discrete time period that can be used to interpret a portion of the incoming waveform and extract the frequency and phase information. Thus the dsp processor has to extract information from a small time window that contains a limited number of digitised samples of data. The more samples in a given window means a more accurate frequency description equally a bigger window will also increase the accuracy.

The easily understood means to carry out a Fourier transform on a set of sampled data is to generate data points for sinewaves of different frequencies which fit exactly into the length of the sample. The lower frequency limit is where one cycle fills the available space, while the upper limit is either the highest frequency of interest, or when there are only two samples per cycle.

These sinewaves are multiplied by the data samples point by point, and the amplitude of the resulting signal is computed. The same is done with cosine waves. Then, for each frequency computed, there is a sine and a cosine amplitude. This defines the amplitude and the phase, necessary to reconstitute the signal in time from frequency information.

Of course, to be useful the process is continuous, and as soon as one set of sampled data has been computed a further set is processed, to give a time varying set of frequency and phase components, like a spectrum analyser but with the addition of phase information. Often successive sets of data will overlap, to give a better representation of the waveform being processed.

This can be useful if, for example, a very sharp cutoff filter is required. For a lowpass filter, all that is necessary is to ignore frequencies above the cutoff point, then reconstruct the time varying waveform from the sine and cosine components from below the cutoff point. This would appear to be a perfect filter, but it is not because of the finite number of samples in a given window, and because not every frequency component in the

input signal has a whole number of cycles fitting within the set of samples used.

Also, it is fundamental to the principle of a Fourier transform that it is carried out on a waveform that repeats. Clearly speech or music waveforms do not fit this criterion, so that the answer is an approximation to the truth rather than being perfect. One way to improve this situation is to use a windowing function before the Fourier transform. This is effectively a means of scaling the data samples so that the ones at the beginning and end of the sequence are reduced in amplitude relative to the ones at the centre. This artificially makes the samples seem to contain only waves with whole numbers of cycles fitting in the window. Then the data is moved along by one sample and the whole process is carried out again.

This all takes a great deal of processing, and a typical DSP chip might only be able to deal with signals up to a few tens of hertz using the straightforward approach to the Fourier transform. However, looking at the maths carefully, it is discovered that the straightforward approach involves much duplication. An improved numerical technique called the fast Fourier transform has been developed. This reduces the computation to a series of pairs of additions, for which the only difficulty is that they are not done on consecutive addresses. Therefore many DSP chips have a special addressing mode called bit swapped addressing which automatically addresses the correct data points without extra machine samples. The fast Fourier transform is then a rapid and practical means to process signals, and it is widely used.

## Image processing

There are a number of ways to process images so that they can be transmitted in less bandwidth. A widely used technique, typical of the field, is the discrete cosine transform. This analyses blocks of pixels to extract their frequency components, after which the higher frequency parts can be processed to reduce the total bandwidth requirement. There are two major approaches to this: one is simply to ignore high frequency components, perhaps below a certain amplitude. The other is to make use of the fact that the high frequency components are almost always of a lower amplitude than the rest of the signal and assign reduced length bit sequences to them. This is just a sample of what dsp is and can do. As mentioned in a previous editorial, dsp chips are now available to carry out all the functions of television intermediate frequency

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amplifiers, with very good filter response. This has for some years been done using surface acoustic wave devices, but inevitable dsp will take over in an increasing number of television sets.

Digital television will only be practical because of the substantial bandwidth reduction possible due to dsp, thought the actual processing used will be multi-stage and more complex than just a discrete cosine transform.

Another function available from dsp is to correct for unpleasant frequency and phase responses by applying the reverse function. Thus it is possible to cancel the effects of room resonance etc much more accurately with DSP then with a graphic equaliser. It is also possible to do this automatically, so that the correction characteristics can adapt to a dance floor filling up during the evening.

Echo cancellation can be carried out conveniently using DSP. An algorithm analyses the time delay, amplitude, and frequency response of any echo on, for example, a telephone line, and subtracts a suitable signal to cancel the echo. This is important to permit modems to run at higher speeds.

As time goes on, more signal processing previously done by analogue electronics will instead be carried out using DSP. In most respects this will result in improved performance for less cost. The slight downside, which it is wise to try to avoid, is to put too trivial functions into DSP, so that a signal may be digitised, processed, and turned back into analogue, all to do what could be done just as well with one op-amp and four passive components.

DSP is not a panacea, but it is an increasingly important aspect of signal processing, enabling otherwise impossible functions to be carried out cheaply. Like the conventional microprocessor, DSP chips will soon be widely found in consumer electronics.

## In the market

I have selected three examples from major semiconductor manufacturers to give an outline of what is happening in the field. The manufacture of dsp chips is now a widespread field undertaken by many semiconductor companies.

Texas Instruments have introduced a new dsp chip, the TMS320C6x, which is aimed at the digital cellular telephone market - not the handsets but base stations! The high points are the 200 MHz operation, and an architecture called Very Long Instruction Word, which packs up to eight 32-bit instructions into a cycle. The performance is rated at 1600 mips, and it is able to carry out a 1024 point complex fast Fourier transform in 70ns.

The chip includes dual buffered serial ports intended to interface to standard telecommunication systems, and can implement a base station with 30 full GSM channels with a single dsp chip.

Another chip in the Texas range, the TMS320C54x, is used in a well-known range of 33.6 kbps modems designed to be upgradable to 56 kbps .

Analog Devices have recently added a lower cost dsp device to their high-power family, named SHARC (presumably from the Super Harvard Architecture). This is intended for applications such as home theatre, professional audio mixers, office scanners and printers among many others. Harvard architecture machines store code and data in separate memory banks with separate busses to speed access to program and data.


This is no device for the amateur, though. Costing $\$ 49$ in quantity, the chip is supplied in a 240 lead quad flat pack.

The ADMC300 series is aimed at a very different function, that of motor control. By measuring various electrical parameters it is possible to determine the speed of an ac motor, how close it is to stalling, and so on, but to do this without sensors on the motor a dsp chip is needed. The ADMC incorporates five channels of 12 -bit sigma-delta analogue to digital conversion for the necessary measurements, with an interface designed for position encoders for applications requiring this function.

Analog Devices even have a chip (the ADSP-2104) whose applications include use in toys. Other uses include telephone answering machines and music synthesisers. The chip provides 20 mips for $\$ 4.50$ in quantity

Another semiconductor giant, Motorola, has recently released their DSP56300 family, whose features include one instruction per clock cycle, a low power consumption per MIPS, and carefully chosen instruction sets to give enhanced performance per mips. The chip is designed to carry out in one instruction what many chips must do in two.

The chip runs at 81 MHz , but uses an internal phase locked loop frequency multiplier to permit the use of a lower frequency crystal. Applications at which the chip
is aimed include DVD (digital versatile disc), HDTV, and receivers incorporating Dolby AC3, for which Dolby labs have certified it.

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# A Total Harmonic Distortion Meter 

For testing audio amplifiers, Robert Penfold's Total Harmonic Distortion (THD) meter incorporates a good quality notch filter and an audio millivoltmeter

When dealing with audio equipment there are several important parameters that often need to be measured. Most of these, such as frequency response and voltage gain, can be measured using just a sinewave generator and some form of audio millivolt meter. Total harmonic distortion (THD) is slightly more difficult to measure as it also requires a high quality audio notch filter. Furthermore, the quality of the audio signal generator is much more important for distortion measurement than it is for frequency response testing, etc. There is no point in trying to measure 0.1 percent distortion using a signal generator that itself has about 1 percent distortion on its sinewave output signal. Fortunately, most modern signal generators have very low distortion levels, and even some quite low cost units have a distortion figure of only about 0.01 percent at middle audio frequencies. This is more than adequate to measure the THD of all but the highest quality audio equipment. Note, though, that most function generators do not have low distortion output signals and are unsuitable for distortion measurements on all but the cheapest of audio equipment. Sinewave distortion figures of around 0.5 to 2 percent are quite common for this type of equipment.

The THD meter featured here consists of a high quality notch filter and an audio millivolt meter. The filter is tunable from about 100 Hz to 10 kHz in two ranges. The audio millivolt meter has four ranges with full scale values of $1 \mathrm{mV}, 10 \mathrm{mV}, 100 \mathrm{mV}$, and 1 volt rms. These correspond to full scale distortion ievels of 100 percent, 10 percent, 1 percent, and 0.1 percent. A separate signal generator is required, and any good quality Wien type audio generator should suffice.

## THD basics

The two main forms of audio distortion are total harmonic and intermodulation distortion. Intermodulation distortion is where two frequencies are mixed to produce sum and difference frequencies (for example, signals at 1 kHz and 3 kHz would produce new signals at 2 kHz and 4 kHz ). Total harmonic distortion is the more simple form, and it results in the generation of harmonics (multiples of the input frequency). For example, with a 1 kHz test signal the harmonics will be at $2 \mathrm{kHz}, 3 \mathrm{kHz}, 4 \mathrm{kHz}$, etc. This is the type of distortion normally specified in data sheets, amplifier specifications, etc. It is relatively easy to measure, and the block diagram of figure 1 shows the basic arrangement used.

The amplifier under test is fed with a high quality sinewave signal. The salient point here is that a sinewave signal consists of just the fundamental frequency, and has no harmonic content. The signal generator is set to provide the required output level from the



Figure 1: the basic arrangement used for measuring total harmonic distortion

amplifier, and if necessary a dummy load resistor is used at the output of the amplifier. When testing a preamplifier it may not be necessary to include this load resistor, but it will invariably be required when testing power amplifiers. This is due to the fact that power amplifiers provide greatly reduced performance when driving a low impedance load, which is of course the way that they will operate in normal use. Without the dummy load resistor the test will give a highly flattering account of the amplifier's performance.

A variable attenuator at the output of the amplifier enables the signal voltage to be reduced to a convenient reference level. This distortion meter is designed to operate at an input level of 1 volt ms , and the output of the attenuator is switched direct to the input of an audio millivolt meter so that the correct signal voltage can be set. The meter is then switched to monitor the output of the amplifier via a high quality notch filter. The tuning control of the notch filter is carefully adjusted to the test frequency so that the signai from the audio generator is removed. In practice it requires some careful adjustment of tuning and balance controls in order to obtain a really high degree of attenuation, but the fundamental signal can be reduced by about 80 dB . This application requires a very high quality filter as it must provide around 80 dB of attenuation in the notch, but it must provide no significant attenuation at twice the notch frequency or it will significantly reduce any second harmonic component in the signai.

With the fundamental signal removed, all that remains are the harmonics generated by distortion in the amplifier, plus any noise generated by the amplifier. This gives a figure for the noise and distortion of the amplifier, and this is called the distortion factor. The total harmonic distortion is equai to the distortion factor minus the noise level. The noise revel can be determined by disconnecting the signal generator from the input of the amplifier, short-circuiting the amplifier's input, and then measuring the noise using the audio millivolt meter. We are assuming here that the
signal generator is perfect, and that it does not produce any noise or distortion of its own. In reality the noise and distortion from the signai generator will sometimes be a significant factor, and must be determined by initially measuring the direct output from the generator. Where necessary, the noise and distortion level of the signal generator itself can then be deducted from the figure obtained when testing an amplifier.

When you start testing modem audio equipment you soon discover that it is quite common for low cost equipment to have more mains hum on the output signal than general background noise and distortion. In fact the hum level can sometimes be many times higher than the harmonic distortion, resulting in the distortion products being swamped by the hum. In such cases it is only possible to make an accurate assessment of the distortion level if a hum filter is added ahead of the distortion meter circuit. Such a filter should be regarded as an essential item rather than as an optional extra if you intend to test a lot of "budget" audio equipment.

## Circult operation

The circuit diagram for the filter section of the unit appears in figure 2. The filter is based on a Wien network, which is the same type of network that is used as the basis of most high quality audio signal generators. In this case the two sections of the Wien network are fed with anti-phase signals, as shown in the skeleton circuit of figure 3. At a certain frequency there will be zero phase shift through both sections of the network, And precise cancelling of the two signals will result provided the signal levels are accurately balanced. This balancing is achieved by having the gain of the inverting amplifier variable, so that it can be adjusted to precisely match the amplitudes of the two signals. This produces a notch of very high attenuation at the frequency where zero phase shift occurs, but at other frequencies the amount of phase shift is unequal, and little cancelling of the signais occurs.

If we now consider the circuit of figure 2, VR1 is the variable input attenuator. From here the signal is coupled to a buffer amplifier which is based on IC1 and operates in the inverting mode. The signal is then applied to the main filter circuit which has IC2 as the non- inverting buffer stage and IC3 as the inverting mode amplifier. VR3 and VR4 enable the voltage gain of the inverting mode amplifier to the varied, and these two potentiometers respectively act as the fine and course balance controls. The restive elements in the Wien network are R5 plus VR2a, and R10 plus VR2b. VR2 is, of course, the tuning control. S1 enables either C 4 and C 7 , or C 5 and C 8 to be used as the capacitors in the main network. This gives the unit its two tuning


Figure 2: the circuit diagram for the filter section of the THD meter


Figure 3: the basic configuration used in the notch filter. Ra, Rb, Ca and Cb are the Wien network
ranges of approximately 100 Hz to 1 kHZ (C5-C8) and 1 kHz to 10 kHz (C4 and C7). IC4 simply acts as a buffer stage at the output of the filter. Either the direct output of the input attenuator or the filtered signal can be selected using S2.

There is a slight problem with the basic filter circuit in that it provides about 6 dB of attenuation at twice the notch frequency, which means that it would tend to reduce any second harmonic distortion and produce an unrealistically low total harmonic distortion figure. This problem is overcome by introducing some overall negative feedback to the circuit, and this feedback is provided by R11. As one would expect, the negative feedback reduces the voltage gain of the circuit and tends to flatten the frequency response. The reduced voltage gain simply brings the gain down to the required level of unity, and the flattening of the frequency response results in losses at double the notch frequency being reduced to about 1 dB . This level of attenuation is not high enough to significantly affect results and is therefore perfectly acceptable. One slight drawback of using the negative feedback is that it also tends to reduce the amount of attenuation in the notch, but this does not prevent the circuit from achieving some 80 dB or more of attenuation if the tuning and balance controls are carefully adjusted. Anyway, it is a price that has to be paid in order to obtain low levels of attenuation at the frequencies of the harmonics. Figure 4 shows the frequency response of the prototype filter when set for a notch frequency of 1 kilohertz.

Figure 5 shows the circuit diagram for the millivolt meter section of the unit. IC5 is used as a non-inverting buffer stage that provides the circuit with a high input impedance of 500 kilohms. A high input impedance is essential as the millivolt meter circuit will otherwise significantly bad the input attenuator when S 2 is switched to the direct mode. This would give a jump in the input level when S2 was set back to the filter mode. An input impedance of 500 kilohms is more than adequate to ensure that there is no significant change in the signal level when S 2 is operated. The output from IC5 is coupled into a conventional four


Figure 4: the frequency response of the prototype filter when turned to 1 kHz
step attenuator which provides attenuation levels of zero, 20, 40, and 60 dB . The basic sensitivity of the circuit is 1 millivolt ms , and the attenuator therefore provides additional ranges of 10 millivolts, 100 millivolts, and 1 volt rms. These correspond to full scale distortion figures of 0.1 percent, 1 percent, 10 percent, and 100 percent. Having the attenuator in a low impedance part of the circuit enables fairly low values to be used, thus avoiding the need for any frequency compensation capacitors.

IC6 is used as a simple non-inverting amplifier which has a voltage gain of about 40 dB and an input impedance of 470 kilohms. This high input impedance ensures that there is no significant loading on the attenuator and that its accuracy is not impaired. SK2 enables the filtered signal to be monitored using an oscilloscope, or the signal can be monitored via a crystal earphone (but do not connect any other type of headphones or earphone to SK2). Testing the filtered signal "by ear" or using an oscilloscope can be quite revealing as it will show the nature of the noise and distortion signal. If the signal is predominantly mains hum or "hiss" type noise, it will be immediately obvious. The meter only shows you the level of the noise and distortion, with no hint as to its exact nature. You may also find that it is easier to null the fundamental signal "by ear" rather than using the meter as a signal level indicator.

IC7 is used in a conventional full-wave precision rectifier. A passive rectifier circuit based on semiconductor diodes gives inadequate performance due to the non- linearity of the diodes. In the case of ordinary silicon diodes this non-linearity is very severe


Figure 5: the circuit diagram for the audio millivolt meter section
indeed, and a forward voltage of about 0.5 volts or so is needed before any significant current starts to flow. Germanium diodes have much better performance in this respect, but they still provide something well short of good linearity. The standard approach to counteracting this non-linearity is to use the diodes in the negative feedback circuit of an amplifier. The general idea is to have non-linear feedback that counteracts the distortion through the diodes. This distorts the output signal of the amplifier in such a way that it accurately balances the non-linearity of the diodes and gives linear scaling on the meter.

In this precision rectifier circuit diodes D1, D2, D5, and D6 form a conventional bridge rectifier. Germanium diodes are used in the rectifier circuit as their better linearity places less demand on the amplifier, and provides better performance at high frequencies

| Resistors |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| (All 0.6 watt 1 percent metal film) |  |
| R1,5,6,10,15,22 | 10k |
| R2,3,7,8 | 33k |
| R4 | 27k |
| R9 | 12k |
| R11 | 15k |
| R12 | $4 k 7$ |
| R13,14 | 1M |
| R16,24 | 1k |
| R17,23 | 100R |
| R18 | 11R |
| R19,20 | 39k |
| R21 | 470k |
| R25 | 150R |

## Potentiometers

| VR1 | 10k log rotary |
| :--- | :--- |
| VR2 | 100k lin dual gang rotary |
| VR3 | 1 k lin rotary |
| VR4 | 10k lin rotary |
| VR5 | 220R min hor preset |

## Capacitors

C1
C2
C3,6
C4,7 $\quad$ n5 polyester
C5,8 15n polyester
C9 100 ceramic
C10,14 $\quad 10 \mathrm{u} 25 \mathrm{~V}$ radial elect
C11 47 n polyester
C12 2 u 250 V radial elect
C13 $\quad 100 \mathrm{n}$ polyester
C15,16
100 u 16 V radial elect

## Semiconductors

| IC1,2,3,4,5,7 | LF351N |
| :--- | :--- |
| IC6 | NE5534AN |
| D1,2,5,6 | OA91 |
| D3,4 | 1N4148 |

## Miscellaneous

## B1,2 9 volt (PP3 size)

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S2 SPDT min toggle switch
S3 $\quad 12$ way 1 pole rotary with adjustable end-stop
SPST min toggle switch 1 mA moving coil panel meter Phono socket
Instrument case about $246 \times 220 \times 100 \mathrm{~mm}$ printed circuit board, 8 -pin DIL holder control knob, battery connector, wire, solder, etc.
where the open loop gain of the amplifier is relatively low. The meter (ME1) is driven from the output of the rectifier via series resistor R25. D3 and D4 provide overload protection for ME1. IC7 is used in the non-inverting mode, and the rectifier circuit is connected in a negative feedback network which has VR5 and R24 as the other elements. The closed loop voltage gain of the rectifier circuit is controlled via VR5, and this is adjusted to give the circuit the correct sensitivity. The millivolt meter circuit has a -3dB point at about 100 kHz .

The circuit requires a supply voltage of at least 18 voits, and this is provided by two nine volt batteries connected in series. On the face of it a supply potential of 9 volts would be adequate, since the circuit is handling a maximum input level of 1 volt ms (about 2.8 volts peak-to-peak). However, at some points in the filter circuit the signal level is very much higher than this, and the operational amplifiers provide better performance with a higher supply voltage anyway. The current consumption of the circuit is about 12 to 14 milliamps. Two PP3 size batteries are just about adequate to supply this, but it would probably be more economic to use higher capacity batteries if the unit is likely to receive a great deal of use.

A mains power supply unit can be used, but this should have a well smoothed output. Obtaining really good results using a mains power supply can be difficult though, with the general hum and noise level severely compromising results on the one millivolt range of the unit. In many areas the mains supply seems to be contaminated with a fair amount of noise, and it can be difficult to effectively screen sensitive audio circuits from this interference. Also, using a mains power supply unit is likely to introduce problems with hum loops unless you are very careful. Using a battery supply is an easy way of ensuring that a high level of performance is attained.

## Construction

The component overlay for the printed circuit board is provided in figure 6. None of the integrated circuits are static sensitive types, but it is still advisable to fit them in DIL holders. Do not overlook the to link-wires (one just to the right of IC2, and the other above and to the right of IC4). D1, D2, D5, and D6 are all germanium diodes, and as such they are more easily damaged by overheating than silicon types. Take due care when soldering these components to the board, and try to complete each soldered joint reasonably quickly. In other respects construction of the board is perfectly straightforward.

Although the printed circuit board and batteries require only a modest amount of space, it will almost certainly be necessary to use a fairly sizeable case in order to accommodate the controls, sockets, and meter on the front panel. The prototype is housed in a metal and plastic instrument case which has a front panel measuring about 235 mm by 90 mm . This represents about the

minimum size that will comfortably accommodate everything, although a slightly smaller panel will be acceptable if the two sockets are relegated to the rear panel. With sensitive test equipment such as this there is some advantage in using an all metal case which will provide screening of the components and wiring. No significant problems with stray pickup were experienced


Figure 6: the component layout for the printed circuit board
with the prototype equipment, but it is clearly not a good idea to operate the unit close to any likely sources of interference if it is housed in a non-metallic case.

Use a front panel layout that will make the unit reasonably straightforward to use, but also use one that will avoid too many long collecting wires, especially in the millivolt meter section of the unit. I used phono input and output sockets, but it is acceptable to use BNC sockets or any other type that will fit in better with your other equipment. Mounting the meter on the front panel can be slightly awkward as it requires a large circular cut-out which is 38 millimetres in diameter for a standard 60 by 45 millimetre panel meter. This can either be cut using a special hole cutting tool, or using something like a coping saw or an Abrafile. Once the large cut-out has been made the meter itself can be used as a sort of template to help locate the positions of the four small mounting holes. These are for the four threaded mounting rods that are built into the meter. These rods require three millimetre diameter mounting holes.

A substantial amount of hard wiring is required, and details of this wiring are provided in figure 7 (which should be used in conjunction with figure 6). Resistors R15 to R18 are mounted on S3, which helps to avoid problems caused by stray capacitance in the wiring. S 3 is a standard 12 way 1 pole rotary switch having an adjustable and-stop, and in this case it is obviously set for four way operation. Fitting the resistors on the switch should be very easy provided the ends of the leadout wires and the tags of the switch are tinned with solder first. The rest of the wining is perfectly straightforward, but with so much hard wiring it is obviously necessary to proceed carefully and to check everything very thoroughly once the wiring has been completed.

The 0-1 scaling of the meter is correct for the 1 percent range, and it is not difficult to convert readings into the corresponding distortion figures on the other ranges. Consequently, it is probably not worthwhile bothering with any recalibration of the meter's scale. If you should decide to do this, the front of the meter simply unclips, and removing two small screws then enables the scale plate to be slid clear of the meter movement. Rub-on transfers can then be used to add further numbers to the meter's scale, after which the meter is reassembled. Moving coil meter movements are very delicate mechanisms, and great care must be taken or the meter could be irreparably damaged.

## Calibration and use

The millivolt meter must be calibrated before the unit can the be used in earnest. In order to do this the unit must be fed with an audio sinewave signal having an amplitude of 1 volt ms . Most ready-made audio signal generators have accurately calibrated output attenuators that make it easy to set the required output level. This feature is absent on most home constructed generators, and with these it will be necessary to measure the output level so that it can be set with a fair degree of accuracy. Most multimeters can measure a potential of 1 volt ms with moderate accuracy, but note that many multimeters (especially the digital variety) have very restricted bandwidths and will only give accurate results if the signal generator is set at a frequency of no more than a few hundred hert. Fortunately, any error in the calibration will not impair the accuracy of results, it will simply mean that the unit is operating at a signal level which is not precisely 1 volt ms .

Start with VR5 at a roughly middle setting, and VR1 set in a fully clockwise direction. S2 should be set so that the millivolt meter is fed direct from the wiper of VR1, and S3 is set to the 1 volt position. With a suitable test signal applied to SK1,VR5 Is then adjusted to provide a full scale reading on the meter. The unit is then ready for use.


Figure 7: the hard wiring (use in conjunction with figure 6)

Before making any meaningtul distortion measurements it is necessary to determine the distortion level of the signal generator you will be using. This is basically just a matter of making a normal distortion measurement, but the input of the distortion meter is fed direct from the signal generator rather than via an amplifier. The distortion performance of signal generators often varies quite significantly with changes in the output frequency, and it is therefore advisable to check the distortion figure of the generator at 100 hertz, 1 kilohertz, and 10 kilohertz. In each case it is a matter of first setting the signal generator to the correct output frequency, switching S2 to the direct mode, and setting S3 to the one volt range. VR1 and the output level controls of the generator are then adjusted to produce a full scale reading on the meter.

With S2 switched to the filter setting, the tuning and balance controls of the distortion meter are carefully adjusted to produce the lowest possible reading from the meter. The millivolt meter should be set for progressively higher sensitivities as the signal level is reduced.

There is no well defined distortion level at which the audio generator becomes unusable. A distortion level of 0.1 percent may be perfectly acceptable if you will only be testing low and medium fidelity equipment, but it will be of little use for testing "state of the art" hi-fi equipment having distortion levels of around 0.01 percent. The lower the distortion factor of your audio generator, the greater the scope of the distortion meter.

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# MKII Electronic Auto-Checker 


#### Abstract

Tim Parker has updated the original multi-purpose Multi-checker to be a new, improved audible/visible low voltage tester, with a special relevance to cars


Regular readers will remember the Multi-checker from the August 1995 issue of ETI. Excellent piece of handy test gear though it was, it only had a visual indicator, lacking any audible feedback to the user. This made testing for voltages in awkward places a little difficult, since the user had to be able to actually see the tester in order to check the states of the two LEDs. The scenario which immediately comes to mind will be recognised by anyone who has tried to find a supply line, or install even the simplest pieces of equipment anywhere near the dashboard of a motor vehicle: lying on your back in either the driver's or the front passenger footwell, with your feet and lower leg portions either on, or up the back of the seat! As if that wasn't uncomfortable enough, if it's the drivers side, you also have the added pain in the neck - literally - from the control pedals folding up your skin like a baker kneading dough!

Once you have managed to get into this position, you then have to start the testing, prodding around with the test leads in the hopes of finding a 'live' wire, only to discover you cannot see the test equipment without inducing excruciating cramp in your neck or your stomach, or both. By this time you are in no position to manoeuvre your body to ease the pain.

To overcome this problem, and also in response to numerous requests from constructors for some form of audible indication, the original Multi-checker has now acquired a 'voice' - well, a buzzer at least. The overall operation of the original tester has also been made much simpler, converted from a (slightly tedious) three position slide switch, to a simple, one-press pushbutton operation. Given the above scenario, and because the majority of enquiries related to motor vehicle work, the new tester is known as the Auto-Checker.

As a reminder, figure 1 shows the circuit diagram of the original Multi-checker. This has two basic modes or functions: a voltage finder with polarity indicator, and a
continuity/component tester. We won't ponder on the original circuit for long, because it was explained fully in the earlier issue of ETI, but a brief recap of how it works, using the new circuit in figure 2, will benefit new readers. We should point out that the Auto-Checker is not aimed solely at motor vehicles; it should satisfy the majority of basic 'good/no good' testing requirements for a range of low-volt electrical and electronic

components, where just a simple indication of whether or not a device is working will do, or whether a low voltage connection has a potential on it or not.

The Auto-Checker uses two LEDs and a piezo buzzer to indicate the status of its two test points, to which a pair of test leads can be attached if required. A third LED is provided to warn you that the internal battery is being used, and serves as a reminder to switch off the tester afterwards. The test pads shown in figure 1, and which were fitted to the front of the original unit have been removed, because it was possible for either or both these to come into contact with (earthed) metal body parts during testing and, since they were connected directly to the test probe sockets, this was perhaps an undesirable situation with respect to motor vehicle testing, whereby a test pad in contact with the chassis of the vehicle might just happen to be the one corresponding to the particular test probe you have connected to the 'live' wire!

Note: This equipment is not for use on mains voltages.


Figure 1: the original Multi-Checker circuit diagram from ETI August 1995


Figure 2: The Auto-checker circuit diagram

## Auto-Checker Modes

Mode 1 is a simple, low voltage indicator with an input level of up to about 25 volts. This is the default mode when the pushbutton is 'out', and the internal battery is on standby for the buzzer only. The test leads are not polarised, but are simply labelled ' $A$ ' and ' $B$ ', and you don't even have to worry about which way round to connect them to your circuit, since the Auto-Checker will light the LED(s) and sound the buzzer when a voltage is detected. The states of
the LEDs and the type of sound from the buzzer indicate whether that voltage is $A C, D C$, or pulsing (on/off) DC up to about 20 Hz . Furthermore, the Auto-Checker provides polarity indication for DC voltages, by showing which of the two test probes is connected to the positive terminal - ideal if you're looking for power when installing in-car accessories.

Mode 2 is enabled by depressing the pushbutton to the 'in' position. The Auto-Checker now becomes a simple
audible/visual continuity tester, giving good or bad indication of fuses, light bulbs, switch contacts, transformer windings, speaker coils and heating elements, etc. - in fact, anything which has a relatively, low resistance. This mode also provides a very useful facility for 'good/no good' testing of diodes and LEDs. By connecting them either way round across the test probes, the Auto-Checker will show which of the two probes is connected to the cathode of the device. Furthermore, if a good LED is being tested, not only will the cathode be identified, but it will also light up in a flashing manner, giving visual confirmation that it does actually work.

## The circuit

With SW1 in position 1 (out), R5 is connected in series with the test points and LEDs 2 and 3 . With a low voltage DC potential applied to the test points, the buzzer will sound and one of the LEDs will light, which also indicates the polarity of the voltage. If test point ' $A$ ' is connected to the positive connection then LED2 will light up. If the positive is on test point ' $B$ ' then LED3 will light up. If the voltage is pulsing at a frequency below about 20 Hz , then the buzzer will pulse at the same rate, and either LED2. or LED3 will flash at this frequency, depending on which test point is connected to the pulsing line. At frequencies above 20 Hz it will be difficult to detect the flashing and buzzer pulsing, which may give the (wrong) impression that the voltage is constant.

With a low voltage AC input, the buzzer sounds continuously and both LEDs light up, but each one on opposite half cycles of the input signal. Again, frequencies below about 20 Hz should produce a noticeable pulsing. How apparent this is depends on the rise and fall times of the input waveform, a sinewave input will produce less flashing effect than a squarewave input, for instance.


Pressing SW1 (in) connects R4 and R6 in series with the test leads and the LEDs, and power is applied to IC1. D1 protects against reverse polarity, just in case the battery makes reverse contact with its connector clip when being replaced while SW1 is depressed. C1 and C2 provide supply rail decoupling and LED1 serves as a power on indicator, this helps to remind you to turn it off.

IC1, R2 and C3 form a low frequency squarewave oscillator with complimentary outputs on pins 10 and 11, which are connected in series with the test points, LEDs and current limiting resistors R4 and R6. With pin 10 high, and continuity or a low resistance across the test points - such as a good fuse or light bulb, current flowing through the load across the test points will light up LED3. With pin 11 high, LED2 will light up.

## The buzzer circuit

Many constructors of the original Multi-checker attempted to connect a buzzer driver circuit of their own, usually by driving the base of a transistor from one of the test points via a suitable resistor (which, initially, seems the logical way to do it), only to discover it was not possible using a simple transistor switch, due to the fact that the test point terminals were bi-directional, and they also cannot have a current path to OV . When they did manage to get it to work in a fashion, it would only respond to unipolar signals, and wouldn't work in the voltage test mode at all unless the buzzer was tied permanently to the positive supply rail. This was fine until they touched the test point terminal with just their fingers, which produced sufficient base drive to turn on the transistor and sound the buzzer, even with the Multichecker turned off!

## Bridge rectifier

In reply to all those who questioned the possibility of adding a buzzer, here's how it's done. The answer is to detect current flowing in either direction through either of the two status LEDs. This is achieved by connecting the AC input of a bridge rectifier - formed by D2 to D5 - across the LEDs themselves, and making use of the unipolar output from the bridge. Simple as this may seem in theory, it's a little more difficult to put into practice, because the voltage drop across an LED and the voltage losses through a bridge rectifier are pretty similar, the overall result being not enough usable voltage at the output of the bridge rectifier. To overcome this, D6 and D7 have been added in series with each LED to increase the amount of voltage drop across them.

On its own, the bridge rectifier hasn't overcome the problem of having a current path to OV . For this, an optoisolator with NPN transistor output is used - OP1. Only C4 and the internal LED of the opto-isolator are connected across the output of the bridge rectifier, which eliminates any current flow to OV . The voltage drop across either LED can now be used to drive the LED of the opto-isolator. The transistor output from this, together with Q1 forms a darlington driver which is used to turn on the buzzer. By connecting the positive lead of the buzzer permanently to the internal battery's positive supply rail, the buzzer will sound whenever either of the test LEDs light up, which means the buzzer is functional in both voltage finder and continuity modes. To ensure negligible drain on the battery, R3 keeps Q1 turned off in the event of no input signal, and also prevents instability which is always present in open base high gain darlington driver circuits such as this.


Figure 3: the component layout of the Auto-checker

## Construction

Compared to the original multi-checker, the overall construction of the Auto-Checker has been made much simpler. So much so, that everything is mounted on the board, which in turn is held in place by the test sockets and a double sided self adhesive foam pad. The PCB component layout is shown in figure 3. The first items to solder in place should be the solder tags supplied with the 4 mm test sockets, since these are soldered to the underside of the PCB, and are used to hold the board in


Figure 4: the layout inside the case
place. Also, they are not accessible with the board in place. Only solder about 3 mm of the tag to the $A$ and $B$ copper pads, leaving sufficient to bend and form the remainder of the tag to facilitate the final mounting position of the board. Solder all components except the LEDs in a low-to-high profile sequence, taking care with the orientation of all the polarised ones - capacitors, diodes, ics etc. - and don't forget the leads from the battery clip.

In order to make fitting the LEDs easier, it is best to crop the leads to the correct length prior to soldering them in


place, otherwise you will have to keep re-soldering them at different heights until you get them right. To do this, turn each one upside down and place the top face of the LED on the inside bottom of the case as shown in the diagram, then crop the leads level with the outer edge of the case. These can now be soldered into the PCB with about 1 mm of lead protruding through to the copper side of the board, and they should be at the correct height when the PCB is finally secured in place. Note that the LEDs all face in different directions, so take care with their polarities. They won't be damaged if they are soldered the wrong way round, they just won't light up. However, if you also get one of the diodes back-to-front, then you will have the oddest results displayed when using the tester, so please pay take great care with the orientation of them all.

The front panel suggestion in figure 6 can be used as a drilling template for the three LED hole positions to ease the process of ensuring the various holes needed in the lid of the case are lined up relative to the component positions on the PCB. Only the rounded top face of the LEDs should . protrude through the case, with none of the body showing, so drill undersized holes for them, and taper the insides to provide a tight fit, allowing for about 1 mm of the LEDs showing externally. The shorter body length of the 3 mm power on LED (LED1) means that most of it is taken up by the thickness of the case lid, so the hole diameter for this one can be full size. For a louder buzzer sound, drill a hole in the lid of the case somewhere above it. Drill two holes in the end of the case to accept 4 mm test sockets, and a final hole in the side of the case for the switch button.


Figure 7: the pattern for the Auto-Checker front panel. Our original is white on black

## Enclosure

The new Auto-Checker is designed to fit the same pocket sized plastic case as the original Multi-checker. Prior to final installation, it's a good idea to power up and test the board for correct operation by connecting test pieces across the solder tags. Once you're satisfied everything is operational, the board can becured in place according to the details shown in figure 5.

The inset of figure 5 shows how the 4 mm test sockets would normally be used, particularly in the case of metal enclosures, whereby the insulating bush is inserted from the outside of the case, so as to isolate the socket from any other metal parts. For our purposes, not only because we're using a plastic case, but also to increase the testing area so that fuses and the like can be tested directly on the unit without inserting the test probes, the metal washer is used
on the outside of the case, and the two bushes are both slotted onto the shaft of the socket from the inside of the case. This forces the solder tag to be slightly further away from the edge of the case to where it would normally sit, which benefits us by preventing the PCB being too close to the test socket, where it might be more awkward to finally secure it in place, especially if the solder tags are a touch on the short side.

## In use - voltage mode

This mode is used to locate or detect low voltages between about 3 and 30 volts, and is selected when the mode switch is in the out position. This mode can be used without an internal battery fitted to the Auto-Checker, and the status LEDs will function normally, but no sound will be produced

| A | B | BLEEPER | POSSIBLE DIAGNOSIS |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| OFF | OFF | NO SOUND | NO VOLTAGE POTENTIAL ACROSS A AND B. ALSO OCCURS IF BOTH LEADS CONNECTED TO THE SAME POSITIVE OR NEGATIVE VOLTAGE |
| ON | OFF | CONSTANT | DC VOLTAGE PRESENT. POSITIVE ON A, NEGATIVE ON B |
| OFF | ON | CONSTANT | DC VOLTAGE PRESENT. POSITIVE ON B, NEGATIVE ON A |
| ON | ON | CONSTANT | AC VOLTAGE PRESENT AT 20 Hz OR GREATER FREQUENCY* |
| FLASHING | OFF | PULSING | PULSING DC VOLTAGE PRESENT. POSITIVE PULSES ON A* |
| OFF | FLASHING | PULSING | PULSING DC VOLTAGE PRESENT. POSITIVE PULSES ON B* |
| FLASHING | FLASHING | CONSTANT OR PULSING | AC VOLTAGE PRESENT AT 20 Hz OR LOWER FREQUENCY* |
| *PULSES FASTER THAN ABOUT 2OHz (20 TIMES PER SECOND) MAY APPEAR ON THE STATUS LEDs AS A CONSTANT AC OR DC VOLTAGE. THIS IS NOT A FAULT, THE HUMAN EYE CANNOT EASILY DETECT LIGHT PULSES WHICH TURN ON AND OFF at rates much faster than this. The bleeper may also produce either a warbled or constant note. |  |  |  |

Table 1
DC VOLTAGE. THIS IS NOT A FAULT, THE HUMAN EYE CANNOT EASILY DETECT LIGHT PULSES WHICH TURN ON AND OFF AT RATES MUCH FASTER THAN THIS. THE BLEEPER MAY ALSO PRODUCE EITHER A WARBLED OR CONSTANT NOTE.

|  | BLEEPER SOUND AND LED STATUS IN CONTINUITY MODE (MODE SELECT SWITCH IN - POWER LED ON) |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | A | B | BLEEPER | POSSIBLE DIAGNOSIS |
|  | OFF | OFF | NO SOUND | BAD CONNECTION - OPEN CIRCUIT, SWITCH CONTACTS OPEN, BLOWN FUSE OR LAMP, OR HIGH RESISTANCE (> 47 KILOHMS) |
|  | FLASHING BRIGHTLY | FLASHING BRIGHTLY | CONSTANT | GOOD CONNECTION - SHORT CIRCUIT, SWITCH CONTACTS CLOSED, FUSE OR LAMP OK, OR A LOW RESISTANCE (< 1 KILOHM) |
|  | FLASHING BUT DIMLY | FLASHING BUT DIMLY | CONSTANT (MAYBE POOR) | POOR CONNECTION - RESISTANCE GREATER THAN 10 KILOHMS, OR LOW INTERNAL BATTERY VOLTAGE - CHECK/REPLACE BATTERY |
|  | $\begin{array}{ll} \text { CAUTION } \\ 1 & \text { ALWAY } \\ 2 & \text { DON } \\ 3 & \text { REMEM } \end{array}$ | S DISCONNE <br> OT ATTEMPT MBER TO RETU | AND ISOLATE ANY CHECK FOR VO N THE SWITCH T | T ITEM BEFORE TESTING. DO NOT CARRY OUT IN SITU' TESTING ES WHEN THE AUTO-CHECKER IS SET TO CONTINUITY MODE OUT POSITION AFTER USE TO CONSERVE THE INTERNAL BATTERY POWER |


| COMPONENT | DESCRIPTION OF MULTI-CHECKER STATUS |
| :---: | :---: |
| DIODE OR $>10 \mathrm{~V}$ ZENER DIODE | FLASHING A OR B (BUT NOT BOTH). PULSED BLEEPER TONE. WHICHEVER STATUS LED IS FLASHING DENOTES THE CATHODE OF THE DIODE UNDER TEST. |
| SINGLE (ONE) COLOUR LED | FLASHING A OR B (BUT NOT BOTH). LED UNDER TEST FLASHING AT SAME RATE. PULSED BLEEPER TONE. WHICHEVER STATUS LED IS FLASHING DENOTES THE CATHODE OF THE LED UNDER TEST |
| BI AND TRI COLOUR LED | FLASHNG A AND B. ALTERNATING COLOURS OF LED UNDER TEST. CONSTANT BLEEPER TONE. THE CATHODE IS IDENTIFIED BY THE STATUS LED WHICH FLASHES WHEN THE TEST LED IS RED |
| TRANSISTOR (NPN) | FLASHNG A OR B (BUT NOT BOTH). PULSED BLEEPER TONE. THE BASE TERMINAL OF THE NPN TRANSISTOR IS IDENTIFIED BY THE STATUS LED WHICH DOES NOT FLASH |
| TRANSISTOR (PNP) | FLASHING A OR B (BUT NOT BOTH). PULSED BLEEPER TONE. THE BASE TERMINAL OF THE PNP TRANSISTOR IS IDENTIFIED BY THE STATUS LED WHICH DOES FLASH |
| REMEMBER TO RETURN THE SWITCH TO THE OUT(OFF) POSITION AFTER USE TO CONSERVE THE INTERNAL BATTERY POWER |  |

Table 3
by the bleeper. The conditions given in both Table 1 and Table 2 assume there is a battery fitted. For testing purposes, the test leads, although red and black, can be fitted and used either way round, since the test sockets are not polarised.

## In use - continuity mode

This is selected when the mode switch is in the 'in' position and the power indicator is lit. This mode can be used for testing fuses, lamps, coils, switch contacts, diodes and other electronic components.

## Component testing

When testing electronic components on the AutoChecker, in all cases they may be connected any way round across the test leads. Transistors are tested two legs at a time and may require up to three configurations before the base terminal is identified. The 'good' states of the two status LEDs are given in Table 3. Any conditions other than these states could represent a possible fault, which should be investigated further.

Finally, a word of caution. The Auto-Checker makes an ideal piece of tackle to have around the home, garage, workshop or in the tool box, and when used for its intended purposes should provide many years of trouble-free use, as long as it is not abused. When checking for voltages, make sure that you have selected mode 1 (switch in the out position) prior to starting, otherwise permanent damage to IC1 could result if the continuity mode is selected with top much voltage applied to the inputs.

A complete kit of parts which includes the case, PCB, and a pair of test leads and probes (* battery not included) is available from the author by mail order only from:

DTE Microsystems, 112 Shobnall Road, Burton-onTrent, Staffs DE14 2BB, UK Tel 01283542229

The price for the complete kit of parts is $£ 17.93$ The PCB is also available separately at $£ 5.30$. (It is included in the kit).
Please.add postage \& packing (per order): $£ 2.00$ for the UK, £ 4.00 elsewhere.

Please make Cheques/postal orders payable to 'DTE Microsystems'. If lordering from overseas, payment must be in Pounds Sterling ( $\mathcal{E}$ ) and cheques must be drawn on a British bank. Goods will normally be dispatched within five working days from receipt of order (subject to availability and cheque clearance), but please allow up to 28 days for delivery.

DO NOT under any circumstances, or for any reason whatsoever, subject the Auto-Checker to mains voltage potentials. This piece of equipment is not designed for mains voltage purposes and any such misuse would be extremely dangerous and could prove fatal.


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# Adaptable, affordable - handy circuits for around £5. By Owen Bishop 

6. A tuneful trifle

Would you like some light music? You can produce your own with this light-controlled tone generator. This is a toy for budding young musicians in which the pitch of the note depends on the amount of light falling on the instrument. The light sensor is a lightdependent resistor (LDR) which consists of a block of semiconductor material, often cadmium sulphide. Because of this, the LDR is sometimes known as a cadmium sulphide cell (CSC). It is also known as a photoconductive cell (PCC).

The principle of the LDR/CSC/PCC is that, when the material is exposed to light, the energy of the light causes free charge carriers to be produced. The more light, the more charge carriers. And the more charge carriers, the less the electrical resistance of the material.
The LDR has a pair of electrodes deposited on its exposed surface and, as the light level increases, the amount of current flowing from one electrode to the other increases roughly in proportion. In this circuit the LDR forms half of a potential divider network, with R1 as the other resistor. As light increases, the resistance of LDR1 becomes smaller in

proportion to that of R1, which is fixed at 15 kilohms. As a result, the voltage across LOR1 is reduced in proportion to that across R1. Since the total voltage across the pair is fixed at 9 V , the voltage at the junction of LDR1 and R1 must increase. By varying the amount of light falling on LDR1 we can vary the voltage at pin 9 of IC1.

IC1 is actually a phase-locked loop ic, but we are using only a part of it, the voltage-controlled oscillator (VCO). Now, that's enough TLAs! (Three-letter abbreviations.) The higher the voltage applied to pin 9 the higher the frequency of the tone produced. Frequency also depends on the values of C1 and R2, higher values giving lower tones. The frequency produced when the input voltage is half the supply ( 4.5 V in this case) is $f=1 /(C 1 \times R 2)$. Resistor R3 also affects the frequency by producing an offset which determines the lowest and highest frequencies produced as the voltage is swept from $0 V$ to 9 V . R3 should be greater than R2, and the bigger R3 the bigger the range of tones. The capacitor and resistor values given in figure are suitable for producing a useful range of audio frequencies.

The output from IC1 appears at pin 4 and this is fed through R4 to Q1, which amplifies the signal and causes sound to be emitted from the loudspeaker, LS1.


Figure 1: the circuit of the Tuneful Trifle

## Construction

Although the circuit could be housed in an opaque box with a hole cut to allow light to reach LDR1, we decided to build it in a transparent box with the circuit totally enclosed. Only the push-button S1 is accessible when the lid of the box is screwed down. Drill a hole in one end of the box (figure 3) to take the pushbutton. Drill several small holes in the box in the region where the speaker is to be mounted.

The circuit is assembled on a piece of stripboard (figure 2). Note that the strips are cut across at D8, E5, B13 to J13 and C17. There are blobs of solder joining adjacent strips at AI5/B15 and J12/K12. There are many different types of LDR suitable for this proiect. You can use the popular ORPI2 or one of the less expensive LDRs which have a resistance of a few tens of kilohms in normal indoor

daylight levels. If in doubt, measure the voltage at pin 9 when the circuit is assembled and the power is on. It should be around 4.5 V when the LDR is partly shaded. If it tends to be much lower of higher, substitute a higher or lower resistor for R1. Similarly, when you test the operation of the circuit you may decide that the notes are too low-pitched (perhaps even separating out to a rapid series of 'ticks') or too high-pitched. If so, alter the value of R2. You can increase R3 to obtain a wider range of pitch.

It is easier to connect the off-board items to the board before mounting everything inside the box. The circuit is powered by a 9V PP3 battery which can be fixed to the lower side of the box by a piece of doublesided adhesive tape or a 'Sticky Fixer' (figure 3). We wanted to mount the circuit board just below the upper

surface of the box and found that it is sufficiently secure to attach it using double-sided tape applied to the upper surface of IC1. The loudspeaker is glued in position using clear adhesive (Uhu, for example) applied to its rim.

## Playtime

The circuit is silent when S1 is not pressed, and uses no current. Press S 1 to produce a note, but first position your hand so as to shade LDR1 to a greater or lesser extent. The more shading, the lower the pitch. Pressing and releasing the button for each position of your shading hand gives distinct notes. Or you can hold the button down as you vary the shading to obtain what musicians term a glissando effect. Waggling your fingers gives vibrato. Take it away, Maesto!


## Resistors

All $0.25 \mathrm{~W}, 5$ percent or better.

| rtR1 | $15 k$ |
| :---: | :--- |
| R2 | $27 k$ |
| R3 | $100 k$ |
| R4 | $390 R$ |

## Capacitor

C1 $\quad 100 \mathrm{nF}$ polyester layer

## Semiconductors

| LDR1 | Light-dependent resistor (see text) |
| :--- | :--- |
| Q1 | BC548 npn transistor (or similar) |
| IC1 | CMOS 4046 phase-locked loop |

## Miscellaneous

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { S1 Push-to-make push-button } \\
& \text { LS1 Miniature loudspeaker, } 64 \text { ohm coil } \\
& \text { Stripboard } 27 \mathrm{~mm} \times 60 \mathrm{~mm} \text { ( } 10 \text { strips } \times 23 \text { holes); } 1 \\
& \text { mm terminal pins ( } 3 \text { off); } 16 \text {-pin dil socket; PP3 } \\
& \text { battery clip; small plastic enclosure, preferably } \\
& \text { transparent. }
\end{aligned}
$$



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## 1024 mains outlets can be computer-controlled by Dr. Pei An's home automation interfaces. Part 2 describes the mains control modules

Ihe article describes a radio digital data control system which can be used for home automation applications. The complete system consists of one radio transmitters and 256 receivers with different addresses. The transmitter is connected to the Centronics port of a computer, and four bits of data issued by the computer can be transmitted to any one of the receivers. One of the four bits is used to control the ON/OFF of the mains of a socket. So a total of 1024 mains sockets can be controlled by one computer. The transmitting distance is about 50 meters in buildings and 200 meters in open fields. The system is illustrated in figure 1 .

In the first part of this series, ETI issue 3 1997, I described how to construct radio transmitter and receiver modules and how to write a Turbo Pascal 6 software driver. In this article, I will
show how to use the modules in a remote mains control application. I will also present a Windows Visual Basic software driver for the system.

## A summary of the 418 MHz radio transmitter and receiver

Inside the transmitter, an encoder (HT-12E) converts a 12-bit parallel data into a serial encoded data. The 12 bits are supplied to the HT-12E by a computer via the Centronics port. The first 8 bits of the data represent an address and the other 4 bits are the data to be sent. The encoded serial data modulates a 418 MHz radio frequency signal using an FM modulation scheme. The radio frequency signal is then transmitted to the surroundings. The modulation is facilitated by an FM radio transmitter, TMX-$418-\mathrm{A}$. The assembly of the module is shown in figure 2.


Figure 2: the component layout of the radio transmitter (see ETI issue 3, 1997)
decoder ignores the data. As an 8-bit binary data has 256 possible combinations, the maximum number of receiver's address is 256 . The assembly of the module is shown in figure 3.

The transmitter is type-approved to the Radiocommunications Authority specification MPT 1340 in the UK. This avoids the need to submit the final project for approval.

## The radio mains control system

The radio transmitter unit
The radio transmitter module is housed in a plastic box. The assembled unit has a 36-way female Centronics-type connector, an LED indicator, a power switch and a power socket. The antenna is a whip type, the total length of which is 160 mm . Figure 4 shows the cutting of the box. Figure 5 shows the assembly of the radio transmitter unit.

The mains controller unit
The circuit diagram of the mains controller unit is given in figure 6. Euro chassis plugs and sockets are used for the mains input and the controlled mains output. The incoming 240 V is converted into 12 V AC by T 1 , which is a mains transformer with an internal fuse. The AC voltage is rectified by BR1 and smoothed by C1. It is then fed into the 7812 voltage regulator where $\mathrm{a}+12 \mathrm{~V} \mathrm{DC}$ is produced. This is the supply voltage for other circuits. The radio receiver module is mounted on the controller PCB board. One of the outputs of the module is connected to J 6 . This signal is amplified by Q 1 and it controls the on/off of the relay. SW1 is used to select the automatic mode and override mode. In the automatic mode, the mains controller is controlled remotely by the computer. In the override mode, the relay is permanently energised. Two LEDs indicate the power on and off.

Important note: This project involves mains voltage. Constructors should be very careful in constructing it, in testing it and in using it in practice. Seek assistance if you are not experienced in constructing with mains voltages.

Inside a receiver, the radio signal picked up by the antenna is demodulated by an FM radio receiver module, SILRX-418A. The demodulated serial data is fed into the serial-to-parallel decoder (HT-12D), which converts the serial data back to the parallel data. The address bits are compared with the pre-set address of the decoder. If they match, the 4-bit data is latched to the outputs. If the address does not match, the


Figure 4: cutting details of the box for the transmitter


Figure 5: assembly of the radio transmitter unit in a box
be high to stop transmission. Transmit (P_address,flag:integer):integer starts (flag=1) or stops (flag=0) the transmission of the encoded data. DLLs are generated by MAKE or BUILD functions in the COMPILE pulldown manual in the editor. They are executable files, but they cannot be run on their own.

Listing one. WHDLL.PAS
library radio_mains_controller; \{Window DLL for the Smart Radio Mains Control System designed by Dr. Pei An, 4/5/97)
\{74LS164 latches the data sent serially by the computer's Printer port.
DB0, DB1, DB2 and DB3 are loaded with address $A 0, A 1, A 2$ and $A 3$
DB4, DB5, DB6 and DB7 are loaded with data D0, D1, D2 and D3)

Figure 7 shows the assembly of the PCB board of the unit. The PCB board is fixed inside a plastic box. The cutting of the box is shown in figure 8 and the assembly of the unit is shown in figure 9 .

## The software driver

The Turbo Pascal 6 program which was listed in the previous article can be used to control the main switches.

In this article, a Windows Visual Basic software driver is described. Visual Basic allows users to develop user friendly graphic interfaces in Windows environment with ease. Although it offers a wide range of program supports for user interfaces, Visual Basic does not provide functions for direct I/O access and memory access. Dynamic link libraries (DLLs) are used to supply Visual Basic programs with functions. DLLs can be easily written using other Windows programming languages such as Turbo Pascal for Windows, Windows C, etc.,

The first program list is the DLLs for the radio mains control system written in Turbo Pascal for Windows. It contains several functions. Three of them which are related to the hardware control are explained below: Centronic(x:integer), integer is a function. Centronic(0) returns the number of number af Centronics ports installed on your PC. Centronic(1) returns the port address of LPT1 and Centronic(2) returns the address of LPT2, etc. send_data (P_address, address, data :integer) :integer sends the address and data to the 74LS164 shift register. The Centronics address should be supplied. When sending the address and data, the Transmit Enable (-TE) must


The assembly of the radio control mains unit in its box

```
uses
    wincrt, windos;
var
    address,i,j,swaddress,sdata:integer;
    delaytime,lighttime:real;
    dummy,P_address:integer;
    input_char:char;
Function Centronic(x:integer):integer; export;
(*) $000:$0408 holds the printer base address for
LPT1
        $000:$040A holds the printer base address for
LPT2
        $000:$040C holds the printer base address for
LPT3
        $000:$040e holds the printer base address for
LPT4
        $000:$0411 number of parallel interfaces in
binary format *)
var
            number_of_LPT, LPT1, LPT2, LPT3, LPT4 :integer;
begin
    number_of_LPT:=mem[$40:$11]; (* read number of
parallel ports *)
    number_of_LPT:=(number_of_lpt and (128+64)) shr
6;
        lpt1:=0; lpt2:=0; lpt3:=0; lpt4:=0;
        LPT1:=memw[$40:$08];(* Memory read procedure *)
        LPT2:=memw [$40:$0A];
        LPT3:=memw [$40:$0C];
        LPT 4 :=mernw [$40:$0E];
        case x of
            0: centronic:=number_of_LPT;
            1: centronic:=lpt1;
            2: centronic:=1pt2;
            3: centronic:=lpt3;
            4: centronic:=lpt4
        end;
end;
procedure delay;
var
    ij:integer;
begin
    for ij:=1 to }10000\mathrm{ do ij:=ij;
end;
Function bit_weight(bit:integer):integer; export;
var
    i,dummy:integer;
begin
        if bit=1 then bit_weight:=1
        else begin
            dummy:=1;
            for i:=1 to bit-1 do dummy:=2*dummy;
```



Figure 6: circuit diagram of the a mains controller unit

Figure 7: the component layout of the mains controller



Figure 8: cutting details of the box for a mains controller


Figure 9: assembly of the mains control unit, showing a radio receiver board (ETI issue 3 1997) mounted on the PCB

```
    bit_weight:=dummy;
    end;
end;
Function
send_data (P_address,address, data:integer) : integer;
export; (Send the address to the 74LS164 shift
register}
{When sending the address, the Transmit Enable (-TE)
must be high to stop transmit}
{During loading, (1) DBO is loaded with the data
sw[i].
    (2) DB1 (CLOCK) is made from low-
to-high-then-low
    (3) DB2 (-transmit enable) is kept
high all the time}
var
    sw:array[1..12] pf byte;
begin
    for i:=8 downto 1 do
    begin
        sw[i]:=0;
        if address>=Bit_weight(i) then begin
            address:=address-bit_weight (i);
            sw[i]:=1;
                end;
```

end;

```
for i:=4 downto 1 do begin
    sw[8+i]:=0;
    if data>=bit_weight(i) then begin
        data:=data-bit_weight(i);
        sw[8+i]:=1;
        end;
    end;
```

(loading address and data into the 74LS164
registers
for $i:=12$ downto 1 do
begin
port[P_address]:=sw[i]+4; $[\mathrm{DB} 0=\mathrm{sw}[i], \mathrm{DB} 1=0$,
$\mathrm{DB} 2=-\mathrm{TE}=1\}$
delay; \{a delay\}
port[P_address]: $=\mathrm{sw}[i]+2+4 ;\{\mathrm{DBO}=\mathrm{sw}[i]$,
$\mathrm{DB} 1=1$ (loading into register), $\mathrm{DB} 2=-\mathrm{TE}=1$ \}
delay; \{a delay for loading the bit\}
port[P_address]:=sw[i]+4; \{DB0=sw[i], DB1=0,
$\mathrm{DB} 2=-\mathrm{TE}=1\}$
end;
end;
Function
transmit(P_address, flag:integer): integer; export;
(Start or quit the encoded data transmitting


The radio transmitter unit in the box

```
'Bit_weight index 2,
send_data
transmit
{*******************Main
Program***********************}
begin
end.
```

The graphic interface of the Visual Basic software driver is shown in figure 10. The program first reports the number of LPTs installed on your PC, then it asks users to select an LPT port to be used. Next the control panel appears on the screen. Users need to input the address of the mains switch and the data to be sent. If DO of the radio receiver module is used to control the mains switch, input 1. Then users need to input the period of ON and the period of OFF of the mains switch. Clicking the Start button using the mouse starts the remote control. Clicking the Stop button any time will terminate the remote control.

The complete VB3 program listing is shown in listing 2. The VB program is very simple, but it shows the basics in Visual Basic programming. At the beginning of the program, declare functions declare four DLL functions. All the functions can be called elsewhere within the VB3 program.

Declare Function Centronic Lib "c:\projectVhomelwhdll.dil" (ByVal X As Integer) As Integer

Declare Function Bit_weight Lib "c:\project\homelwhdll.dill" (ByVal X As Integer) As Integer

Declare Function send_data Lib "c:\project Vhomelwhdll.dIl" (ByVal P_address As Integer, ByVal address As Integer, ByVal datax As Integer) As Integer

Declare Function transmit Lib "c:\projecthomelwhdll.dIl|" (ByVal P_address As.Integer, ByVal flag As Integer) As Integer

It should be pointed out that the dynamic link library, WHDLL.DLL, should be stored in the directory c:\project\home. Using the Windows DLLs provided, uses can write more sophisticated and more adventurous software for controlling the mains controllers.

## Listing two WINHOME

```
Declare Function Centronic Lib
"c:\project\home\whdll.dll" (ByVal X As Integer) As
Integer
Declare Function Bit_weight Lib
"c:\project\home\whdll.dll" (ByVal X As Integer) As
Integer
Declare Function send_data Lib
"c:\project\home\whdll.dll" (ByVal P_address As
Integer, ByVal address As Integer, ByVal datax As
Integer) As Integer
Declare Function transmit Lib
"c:\project\home\whdll.dll" (ByVal P_address As
Integer, ByVal flag As Integer) As Integer
Dim address, datax, Onstatus, centronic_addxess As
Integer
Dim ontime, offtime As Integer
Sub Commandl_Click ()
    'assign variables
    address = Val(textl.Text) 'address of the mains
controller
    datax = Val(text2.Text) data sent to the mains
controller
    ontime = Val(text3.Text) * 1000'period of ON
    offtime = Val(text4.Text) * 1000'period of OFF
    timerl.Interval = ontime
    timerl. Enabled = True
    Onstatus = 1
```


## End Sub

Sub Commandi_MouseMove (Button As Integer, Shift As Integer, X As Single, Y As Single)
label9. Caption $=$ "Start the automatic control"
End Sub
Sub Command2_Click ()
timer1.Enabled $=$ flase
End Sub
Sub Command2_MouseMove (Button As Integer, Shift As Integer, $X$ As Single, $Y$ As Single)
label9. Caption = "Stop the automatic control"
End Sub
Sub Command3_Click ()
End
End Sub
Sub Command3_MouseMove (Button As Integer, Shift As Integer, $X$ As Single, $Y$ As Single)
label9. Caption $=$ "Quit the program"
End Sub
Sub Form_Load ()
dununy $=$ MsgBox(Str (Centronic $(0)-1) \&$ " Centronic ports are installed on your PC. Their base addresses are: " \& Format\$(Centronic(1), "\#\#\#") \& " \& Format (Centronic(2), "\#\#\#") \& " " \&c
Format (Centronic (3), "\#\#\#") \& " "\&
Format\$(Centronic(4), "\#\#\#") \& "Decimal", 48,
"Centronic ports on your PC")
Centroic_number = Val(InputBox\$("Input 1, 2, 3 or 4 to select a Centroic port (Centroic) for the Mini-Lab Data Logger/ Controller". "Select Centroic ports"))
centronic_address $=$ Centronic (Centroic_number)
centronic_address $=632$
timer1.Enabled = False
End Sub
Sub Label9_MouseMove (Button As Integer, Shift As Integer, X As Single, Y As Single)
label9. Caption $=$ "On-line help window"
End Sub
Sub Textl MouseMove (Button As Integer, Shift As Integer, X As Single, Y As Single)
label9. Caption $=$ "Input address of controller, 0 to $255^{\prime \prime}$
End Sub
Sub Text2_MouseMove (Button As Integer, Shift As Integer, X As Single, Y As Single)
label9. Caption $=$ "Input the 4 -bit data $1,2,4$ or 8"
End Sub
Sub Text3_MouseMove (Button As Integer. Shift As Integer, $X$ As Single, $Y$ As Single)
label9. Caption $=$ "Input the $0 N$ period in second" End Sub

Sub Text4_MouseMove (Button As Integer, Shift As Integer, X As Single, Y As Single)
label9. Caption $=$ "Input the OFF period in second" End Sub

Sub Timer1_Timer ()
If Onstatus $=1$ Then
timer1. Enabled = flase
dummy $=$ transmit (centronic_address, 0 )
dummy = send_data(centronic_address, address,
datax)
dummy $=$ transmit (centronic_address, 1)
For $i=1$ To 100000
$i=i$
Next i
Onstatus $=0$
timerl. Interval $=$ offtime

```
    timerl. Enabled \(=\) True
Else
    timerl. Enabled \(=\) flase
    dummy \(=\) transmit (centronic_address, 0 )
    dummy \(=\) send_data (centronic_address, address, 0 )
    dumury \(=\) transmit (centronic_address, 1)
    For \(i=1\) To 100000
        \(i=i\)
    Next i
    Onstatus = 1
    timer1. Interval = ontime
    timerl. Enabled \(=\) True
End If
End Sub
```


## Final words

A number of mains switches can form a mains control network which is fully controlled by one computer. To make a good control of mains, you need a good software driver. As the radio transmitter is connected to the printer port, any type of computer can be used. Have you ever thought about using your Mac, your Amiga or your Psion organiser to control such a radio mains control system? Here imagination is unlimited.

## Components

The parts lists for the radio transmitter and receiver modules were given in Part 1 of this series (ETI Volume 26 Issue 3).

## Part 1

For anyone who missed Issue 3 this year, Back issues of ETI are available for $£ 3.05$ each from Nexus Subscription Services, EII, Tower House, Sovereign Park, Lathkill Street, Market Harborough, Leicestershire LE16 9EF. Backissue enquiries 01858435322 . Please make cheques payable to Nexus Special Interest,

## Technical support

Constructors should be able to obtain most of the components from Maplin or Electromail. The VB3 software driver (source code and EXE files) and DLLs are available at a price of $£ 15.00$ UK from me. The PCB boards for a pair of radio transmitter and receiver module is $£ 12.00$. The PंCB board for the mains switch is $£ 8.00$. The mains transformer is avialable for $£ 3.90$. I also have a limited number of kits which put everything together in a package. Please direct your enquiry to Dr. Pei An, 11 Sandpiper Driver, Stockport, SK3 8UL UK. My telephone and answer phone number is 01614779583 and my e-mail is PAN@FS1.ENG.MAN.AC.UK


Figure 10: a Visual Basic control panel for testing the radio mains control system
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# Sound Switcher 

 Circuit
## Terry Balbirnie starts a series of adaptable circuits for GCSE- and similar-level projects with a module to trigger a reaction when a sound it made.

Bvery so often during your school or college course in Electronics or Technology, you will be asked to undertake a project. Some teachers and lecturers give a fairly specific idea of what the finished device should do and what components it should contain. Some examinations boards require you to make a project with a specification set by them. However, for midcourse assessments and for many other examinations you will have to work on a project of your own choice.

## Making a start

So, where do you begin? It is always best if the project reflects some specific interest which you have, such an another hobby or voluntary activity. It may be related to some other person such as an aid for the disabled, a child's toy and so on. This type of personal interest will show through when you come to write up your report. Also, since the finished device will probably be given back to you at the end of the course or module, you will have something else useful for your hard work!

Over the coming months (although not every month), we shall provide some basic projects which cater for a variety of interests. You will be able to use a circuit as it stands or modify it for the purpose you have in mind. All the designs will be fairly basic so no one should have too much trouble understanding how their chosen circuit works or how to construct it. Any modifications and experimental work is left up to you. The designs are open-ended, so that there will be plenty to make the more able student think - in fact, there are one or two
slightly off-beat features built into each one for this very purpose. The end product in each case will be a circuit panel which "does something".

All the devices are given in the form of a circuit diagram and a stripboard (Veroboard) layout. This will be useful for anyone who does not have the facility for making actual PCBs. Also, the "in-line" stripboard arrangement more resembles the circuit diagram than a true PCB and is more easily followed by some people. Of course, some students will wish to translate the circuit diagram into true PCB form.

## Down, Rover

This month we shall look at a sound-operated switch which may be used to operate a toy - such as a cardboard dog which jumps out of a kennel when you whistle. It could also be used for environmental studies work where a light is meant to come on when the sound reaches a certain level. Another idea would be to use it to trigger a photographic flash gun. By setting up the camera in darkness with the shutter open, a photograph would be taken of anything that made a sound. Anyone want to try Ghost Busting?

The circuit terminates in a relay output so that it may be used to operate a wide variety of devices, including other electronic circuits, by means of a separate battery. For high-powered lamps, motors and solenoids it will be necessary to upgrade the relay to an appropriate heavyduty type. Another idea would be to use the relay on the PCB to operate the coil of the up-rated one "piggy back" fashion.


## Sound circuit

The circuit for the sound switch is shown in figure 1. Power is obtained from a 9V PP9 battery or six "M" size cells in a suitable holder. A PP3 battery is not really up to the job. Diode DI allows current to pass and charge up capacitor C4 which then gives a supply for most of the circuit. The capacitor provides a reserve of charge and helps to promote stable operation. The relay coil is powered direct - that is, before DI and C 4 . Its power supply needs no special treatment.

Microphone MIC1, picks up the

sound and converts it into electrical signals. These take the form of very weak ac which changes in frequency and amplitude to represent the sound being received. The type of microphone specified contains a FET (field effect transistor) pre-amplifier which boosts the signal given at the output. Resistor R1 provides the supply to the pre-amplifier from the positive line. Note that the pre-amplifier supply input and the signal output are the same pin.

The signals, which are still very weak, are passed from the output via capacitor, C1, to the base of transistor, Q1. This amplifies them further. Resistors R2 and R3 provide bias with some negative feedback so that the transistor is partially turned on. It is then found that about one half of battery voltage appears across the collector resistor R3. The other half exists between Q1 collector and emitter. These points could be checked using a voltmeter at the end.

Capacitor C 1 allows the ac signal to flow from the microphone output to Q1 base while blocking the standing dc voltage which exists there. This would otherwise upset the bias of Q1 because the two voltages would be different.

When sound is received by the microphone, the steady voltage existing between QI collector and emitter will rise and fall in sympathy. Whistling at a distance of 1 m from the microphone in the prototype unit provided a 1 V change approximately. At the end of construction and particularly if the unit fails to work, this could be checked using an oscilloscope. Preset potentiometer RV1 behaves as a potential divider and scales down the voltage between Q1 collector and emitter. This will be used as a sensitivity control and the way in which it works will be expiained presently.

## Voltage comparator

The next section of the circuit is a voltage comparator and is based on operational amplifier (op-amp), IC1. The rule is this: if the voltage applied to the non-inverting input (pin 3) exceeds that at the inverting one (pin 2) then the output, pin 6, will be high otherwise it will be low. Pin 2 receives a fixed voltage equal to about one-quarter that of the supply due to the potential divider action of resistors R4 and R5. RV1 will be adjusted so that the voltage applied to pin 3 is slightly less than that at pin 2 . Since there is about one-half of supply voltage existing across the outer terminals of RV1, the balance point will be found at about the mid-point of the track. With the voltage at pin 3 being less than that at pin 2, the op-amp output, pin 6, will be low and LED1 off. The LED will be used as an aid to setting-up RV1 correctly at the end. Resistor R7 limits its operating current to 12 mA approximately. When sound is detected, the rising parts of the waveform appearing at Q1 collector will be reflected in a rising voltage at IC1 pin 3 and, if is loud enough, will rise above the voltage at pin 2 on the peaks. Pin 6 will therefore go high and low as the wave rises and falls. This is passed on to the next section of the circuit which is a monostable based on the 7555 timer, IC2. Resistor R6 applies a little positive feedback to the system and this sharpens the switching action.

## Good timing

When the first low pulse is received at IC2 trigger input, pin 2, the output (pin 3) will go high for a certain time then revert to low. The time during which it does this depends on the values of capacitor C3, fixed resistor, R9 and preset variable, RV2. With the specified components, the timing will lie between 1 second and 10 seconds approximately with RV2 providing the adjustment. The timing could be increased by raising the value of C 3 in proportion and vice versa and this could be the subject of experiment at the end. In the absence of sound, the


Figure 1: the circuit of the Sound Switch

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trigger input, pin 2, is kept high through resistor R8 and this prevents possible false operation. Note that if sound continues to be picked up, IC2 will receive repeated triggering pulses and the output will remain high.

If the unit needs to be more sensitive, you will need to adjust RVI so that the standing voltage at ICl pin 3 is only slightly less than that at pin 2 . The monostable will then be triggered with only a very small sound.

With the monostable output high, current flows through resistor R10 to the base of transistor Q2. This turns it on and collector current flows through the coil of relay, RLA1. The "make" contacts of this component then act as a switch for any device requiring less than 2A which is the maximum current rating of the contacts. Diode D2 allows the high-voltage reverse pulse which appears across the coil when it switches off to be bypassed. This prevents possible damage to other semiconductor components in the circuit. The external device must be powered using a separate battery - do not try to use the battery which is used to operate the circuit. If you did, the sudden increase in current would cause a dip in the supply voltage. This would probably interfere with correct operation of the main section.

## Construction

Note that an electret microphone insert is used for this project. This is the working part of the microphone without the case, lead, etc. This is much cheaper than a complete microphone. Some microphone inserts have pads on the base and other have short end wires. On the whole, wires are more convenient. If the microphore used is of the "pad" type, small bare wire "stalks" will need to be soldered to them before proceeding. Some microphones are of the three-wire type but the two-wire variety is used here.
transistors, microphone insert and capacitors $\mathrm{C} 1, \mathrm{C} 3$ and C 4 the correct way round. Look at the underside of the microphone - the pad which connects to the case is soldered to the OV line. Solder PP9-type battery connectors or as required to the " +9 V " and " 0 V " tracks as indicated. Solder wires to the relay contact tracks. Adjust RV1 to about midtrack position and RV2 fully clockwise (as viewed from 1C2 position) which will give minimum timing. Insert the ic taking care over the orientation. Both of them are CMOS components and could be damaged by static charge which might exist on the body. Earth yourself by touching the bare metal of a water tap first.

## Testing

It is necessary to test the circuit in a quiet room! Connect up the battery. The circuit generally self-triggers on powering-up and the relay will probably be heard to operate. It will then click off again after about one second. Adjust RV1 until the LED is off. Clap your hands near the microphone. The LED should come on momentarily and the relay should click on and off again. If this does not work, adjust RV1 a little and try again. Try increasing the sensitivity noting that if RV1 is set too finely, the circuit will go unstable and the LED will flash on and off repeatedly. The circuit will work if the LED is normally just on instead of just off. However, this tends to be a less stable arrangement.

## Ideas for experiments

This circuit must not be used to operate mains appliances. It is not designed to control mains and would be extremely dangerous. The relay "break" (normally closed) contacts could be used to switch an item off during the monostable timing period although this is probably less useful than switching it


Figure 2: the stripboard layout for the Sound Switch module

The topside stripboard layout (component side view) for the Sound Switch is shown in figure 2. Note that there are a large number of track breaks and several inter-strip links needed. Make the track breaks first using a proper spot face cutter. Most causes of malfunction are due to strips not being broken completely, a break or "bridge" being left out, a break in the wrong place or a small blob of solder or sliver of copper bridging adjacent tracks. Some of these are invisible to the naked eye. You have been warned! Make the inter-strip links and follow by soldering the ic sockets in position, and then all the remaining components. Take care to mount the
on. For more sensitive operation, the supply voltage might need to be stabilised. Set the monostable time period as required. If necessary use an alternative value for C 3 .

A small motor at the output could be used to make something turn or move, possibly for a toy. A solenoid could give a pushing or pulling effect to make "Rover" jump out of his kennel. Motors require a much higher current than their running value while they speed up. Also, other components such as solenoids and filament lamps require more current at the instant of switching on. All this must be taken into account when choosing a suitable relay.


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# Touchkey 

Roy Bebbington's dot-dash tone touchpad can be used for Morse or for music.

TIhe Alphanumeric Morse Touchkey is designed to enable beginners learning Morse to become familiar with the dot-dash codes and their rhythmic patterns without the aid of an instructor. The touchpad consists of a metallic baseplate covered by a plastic overlay template with hole patterns representing the alphanumeric Morse characters. These characters can be sounded and visually displayed by drawing a finger across them at an even speed. As experience grows, students can graduate to a finger-tapping proficiency pad, to emulate the movement of a Morse key.

Merely looking at a list of dots and dashes and learning it off by heart, or by head as the Dutch say, is not the way to learn Morse. While it is comparatively easy to make a mental translation from the code to alphanumeric characters at slow speeds, in a 12 wpm test there simply isn't the time for this! With characters arriving in quick succession, each must be identified by its unique sound pattern. The touchpad method ensures that even beginners can immediately send and hear characters that are formed correctly. This would appear to have wide appeal for radio amateurs, sea cadets, scouts and sailing clubs where a knowledge of Morse code is required. With two of these pads linked to a common circuit, students would be able to send and receive rhythmically correct

messages at a very early learning stage. And talking of 'rhythmical', music students could also benefit from a suitable plastic overlay to bone up on a few basic rhythms or to sort out a few awkward syncopated bars - always a problem for beginners.

For compactness, characters that are mirror images (for example, N is the same as A in reverse) have been combined. For instance, B is sounded by a left to right movement, and the same hole pattern sounds a $V$ by a right to left movement.

The circuit and PBD uses two 555 timer ICs. Alternatively, these could be replaced by one 556. (This would require a different PCB or stripboard layout, which we leave to the reader's ingenuity.) There are two simple stages:
-A finger touch switch operating the first 555 in monostable mode, which triggers a tone generator formed by the second 555 in astable mode.
-A LED indicator and a loudspeaker provide visual and audible output.

## The circuit

In the circuit (figure 1), IC 1 acts in the monostable mode as a touch switch. It is preferable to mount IC1 in an ic socket. When pin 2 and the 0 V rail are bridged by a resistance; the body resistance in this application, a negative-going trigger pulse is applied to IC1 that turns off an internal transistor that is normally short-circuiting pin 7 to the OV rail. This allows capacitor C1 to charge via R1, consequently, a positive-going output pulse is produced on pin 3. Light-emitting diode DI with its current-limiting resistor R2 provides a visual indication of the applied input signal. R3 feeds these long and short positivegoing pulses that represent the alphanumeric characters to pin 7 of 1 C 2 . C3 repeatedly charges via R3 and R4, and discharges via R4, oscillating at a frequency dependent on the RC values.

Frequency $=1.44 /(\mathrm{R} 3+2 \mathrm{R} 4) \mathrm{C} 3$
Rectangular pulses on pin 3 practice an audible output at a frequency of approximately 1 kHz in LS1. Variable resistor RVI


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Figure 2: the baseplate and touchpad overlay
provides a series volume control to mute the loudspeaker if only visual signalling is required. A potentiometer with a switch could replace the separate on/off switch.

## Construction

The prototype was built on a small piece of 0.1 in stripboard, but a suitable layout for a printed circuit board using two 555 s is given in figure 5 . Alternatively, a composite PCB could be made to include both the layout of the characters and the circuit.

A generous A4-sized baseplate is preferable to prevent fingers bridging the small spaces between the dots, and in the overlay, which would result in continuous sounds. Alternatively, a metal paper-clip held between the fingers can serve as a useful stylus.

The baseplate can be a sheet of polished aluminium or baking foil glued to thick card or plastic. Cut the holes in the plastic overlay with a sharp knife and tape or glue it to the metallic base. Use rub-down lettering for the alphanumeric characters or print them on the plastic overlay. A suggested layout for the plastic overlay is shown in figure 3.

The baseplate can either be free-standing or form the upper-side of the case that houses the circuit. Otherwise, you can house the loudspeaker and battery in a small case wired up to the baseplate, or even leave the loudspeaker "adrift" and the battery tacked to the baseplate with a battery holder or some double-sided tape. The left thumb touchpad can be an isolated part of the baseplate or a separate contact somewhere convenient on the case.

## Musical coda

A suitable plastic overlay for sounding basic music rhythms is given in figure 4. Any other problematic rhythmic figures could also be stencilled on to a plastic overlay. However, a better solution for a teaching aid could be made up by mounting pieces of copper clad board into a multiway


Figure 4: a musical riythm simulator

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Figure 3: musical rhythm overlay
socket as shown in the musical rhythm simulator of figure 5 , using it to activate the touch circuit of figure 1. All pins of the socket must be soldered together and taken to the OV rail. Several pieces of copper board board are needed for each type of note; quaver, crochet, etc., the widths of these depending upon the particular note values. As indicated in the diagrams, the physical widths of the notes correspond with their relative time duration; ie a crochet has a duration

## Resistors

| R1 | $68 k$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| R2 | $1 k$ |
| R3 | $68 k$ |
| R4 | $18 k$ |

## Potentiometers

## RVI <br> 5k $\log$ (see text)

Capacitors

| C1,C2 | 10 nF |
| :--- | :--- |
| C3 | 20 nF |
| C4 | 4.7 u 10 V elect |
| C5 | 47 u 10 V elect |

## Semiconductors

| IC1 | 555 timer |
| :--- | :--- |
| IC2 | 555 timer |

DI LED

## Miscellaneous

LSI 8R miniature
Switch spst (on/off)
\$W battery with clip, touchpad base and overlay, connecting wire, solder, etc.
of two quavers, so is twice as wide as a quaver. A minim is equal to two crochets, so is twice as wide, and similarly, a semibreve is twice as wide as at minim.

The copper clad side is deleted for the notes; the reverse side (or a piece of plain board) could be selected for an equivalent rest. Slightly space the notes in the socket to allow them to sound separately; butt any pieces together that need to sound continuously (ie as tied notes).


Figure 5: the component layout

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# Around the orner 

$T$alking of chucking old computers in skips - this is no longer the politically correct thing to do, now that the European Commission is close to publishing a draft directive on ways to recycle Europe's rocketing quantities of waste electrical and electronic equipment (WEEE for short).

You may profoundly wish to hear that your younger brother/sister/offspring's double-audio-power-blast CD-rom multimedia games PC is on its way to a landfill somewhere, but this won't be on the cards for much longer. It's more likely that the new waste directive will eat it up and spit it out as a refurbished, recycled, lowercost, not-so-neat but just-as-loud games PC - two for the price of one! Whoopeee!

More seriously, there has been concern for some time about the future pollution potential of the increasingly large quantities of plastics, batteries, electronic components and solder and other heavy metal products being discarded as they fall out of use. Behind this concern is the wider one of waste disposal as a whole. Currently only a few materiais (such as aluminium, a genuinely valuable recycling product) can be recycled with real cost-effectiveness, but landfills and other waste sites are filling up ever-faster, and local waste collection services in the UK are more and more strained. (Some people blame it on Wheelie bins tempting us to throw more in them, and others on Government spending cuts tendering out refuse collection to the lowest bidder.) And looking at the longer term, recycling is a habit that it would be good for all of us to get into, even though common materials like glass and paper are borderline in cost terms at the moment.

Once retrieval and recycling of used-up electronics becomes general, someone will have to pay for it, and it is expected that various parts of the electronics industry will pay a levy towards recycling, or arrange recycling themselves.

Already as we saw in the news pages of this issue of ETI, and the previous one, organisations with a track record in recycling electronics, or running pilot schemes, are on the move all over the UK. This will no doubt be a growth area for a while.

Some waste managers are inclined towards dismantling, separating materials and recycling as salvage, and some towards refurbishing and moving equipment (especially computers) into the second-user market, depending how viable they are. Properly organised, businesses updating quantities of equipment should be able to get a reasonable price for their old machines, while others will have to pay to get their junk removed.

Already businesses with rechargeable batteries to discard are expected to pay for removal, usually without even the option of delivering the waste themselves to collection points. It is high time the controlled collection of used batteries containing cadmium or lead was made easy, and mandatory, for everyone, including households.

As far as genuine "recycling" goes, talking to electronics constructors is preaching to the converted. Computer out of date? Cannibalise some parts, swap something with something else, add a couple of cards (wrestling with the compatibility problems - but so do people buying all-new systems) and an upgraded hard disk, and you have a-new computer, with not a lot left over but a handful of screws and tags and a superannuated disk module which a mate somewhere could probably use. Dead móbile phone? There should be a card for it ... Walkman? Fit a new motor and give it to the kids. Radio? No-one ever gives up on a radio. TV? Fred's experimenting with one of those whole-wall display drivers in his garage ... and ther there's the spare parts box.

It look as though industry will soon be doing all this on a Europe-wide scale.

## Next Month...

Volume 26 no. 12 of Electronics Today International will be in your newsagent on 7 thth November 1997 ... Mike Bedford will be looking at new electronic products that can stand tough treatment ..., Ray Haigh has designed a dedicated classic medium wave receiver with high-sensitivity and reception to please the discerning ear ...
Robert Penfold has been working on an Infra-red remote controller ... all the regulars, and more.
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