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7442A 7443A	70p 100p	74393 74490	112p 140p	74LS258A 74LS259	70-p 120-p	74S194 74S195	300p 300p	4511 4512	55p 55p	ICL7650 ICL7660	880p 380p	MG340P	380p 70p	UA/50 UA2240	150	DEVIC	ES	2516+5v 2516-35	- 380p 380p	ULN206	75.p 8 3460 p	74S201 74S289	350p 225p	Freq in MHa	2250
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7450 7451	36p 35o	74LS02 74LS03	24p 24p	74LS280 74LS283	180p 80p	74S241 74S244	400p 600p	4518 4519	48p 32p	LC7130 LC7137	380p 880p	MM8221A NE531	380p 130p	ULN2803 ULN2804	180p 180p	6532 6551	380p	2732 2732A-2	880p 880p	75110 75112	90p 190p		_	3.276 3.5795	150p
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74126	55p	74LS86 74LS90	35p	74LS541 74LS608	100p	4023 4024	30p	22100 22101	350p 700p	18V 12V		7806	80p 45p	7908 7912	60p 80p	16 pin	11p	28 pin		26p	18 pin	43	p 28 p	ain 1	100p
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• West Hyde claims to be the leading supplier of cases and accessories to the UK electronics industry. The company's Spring 1987 catalogue contains 104 A4 pages and lists both metal and plastic enclosures suitable for just about every imaginable application. Case accessories such as handles, knobs, feet and ventilation grilles are included and there are also sections devoted to switches, indicators, tools and component storage systems. West Hyde Developments Ltd, 9-10 Park Street Industrial Estate, Aylesbury, Buckinghamshire HP20 1ET. Tel (0296) 20441.

• GP Electronic Services has acquired a small number of the Symot cassette mechanisms specified for use in last month's Telfax project. The mechanisms are designed for use with endless tape cassettes as explained in the text and GP is offering them for an allinclusive price of £15 while stocks last. Contact GP Electronic Services, 87 Willowtree Avenue, Durham DH1 1DZ.

• From somewhere or other Greenweld Electronics has managed to acquire a stock of the defunct Enterprise 64 computer. There are several hundred of them, all brand new and boxed, and they are being offered at an all-inclusive price of £39.95. For that you get a Z80-based machine with 64K of RAM, 256 colours and onboard word processor. Greenweld Electronics Ltd, 443 Millbrook Road, Southampton SO1 0HX. Tel (0703) 772 501.

 IC Electronics offers a wide range of products by mail-order including components, tools, electrical appliances, records and games. The company's latest catalogue includes an extensive selection of telephones and accessories plus watches, clocks, calculators, car loudspeakers, tape players and many more items. Copies cost 60p (refunded on first order) from IC Electronics Business Centre, PO Box 130, Aberdeen AB9 8QH.

Sage Audio has developed a dual-rail power supply module which is said to offer the smoothest regulated DC output on the market. It is designed for use in pre-amplifiers and offers 200mA at either <u>+</u>12V, <u>+</u>15V, ±18V or ±36V. Sage claims the output noise and ripple level is 1000 times less than obtained from 78/79 series IC regulators and that the unit also offers improved line and load regulation. Prices start at £20 inclusive. Sage Audio, Construction House, Whitley Street, Bingley, West Yorkshire BD16 4JH. Tel (0274) 568 647.



Low-Cost AC Clamp Tester

Clare Instruments has introduced a clamp tester which is claimed to be the cheapest available in the UK.

It measures DC resistance as well as AC voltage and current and costs £32 plus VAT.

Like other clamp testers, the Clare ST 300 uses a current transformer to measure the AC current flowing in a conductor. This removes the need to break into a circuit to make current measurements, simplifying the test procedure and greatly reducing the risks where mains voltages are involved.

In use, the jaws of the tester are simply clamped around the current-carrying conductor. Cables of up to 28mm overall diameter can be accommodated and the current is displayed in five ranges with FSDs from 6A to 300A. AC voltage is measured using a set of plug-in test leads and displayed in three ranges, from 150 to 600V FSD. The fuseprotected resistance range also uses the plug-in leads and has an FSD of 1k0 and a centre-scale value of 30R. Accuracy is $\pm 3\%$ of FSD for voltage and current and $\pm 3\%$ of reading for resistance.

A useful feature is the scale lock which clamps the meter needle in position when operated. This allows readings to be taken in poor light or in awkward positions and the reading preserved for subsequent checking.

The Clare ST 300 measures 196 x 86 x 46mm and comes complete with test leads and 1.5V AA battery in a sturdy carrying case.

Clare Instruments Ltd, Woodsway, Goring-by-Sea, Worthing, West Sussex BN12 4QY. Tel (0903) 502 551.



Many Ways To A Good Connection

Printed circuit board connectors can be made up to any number of ways and colour-coded for identification using a new modular terminal system from Components & Electronics Ltd.

The board-mounting plugs and matching cable sockets are available with two, three or four ways and will slot together to form longer connectors. The plugs have straight or right-angled pins for soldering to a PCB while the sockets are equipped with screw terminals.

A positive latching action prevents accidental disengagement of mated connectors and a series of ridges on one side only provides polarisation. All sizes are available in both red and green versions to allow colour-coding of connector assemblies.

Components and Electronics Ltd, PO Box 88, Haslemere, Surrey GU27 2RF. Tel (0428) 54141.

The Shrinking Compact Disc

Philips and Sony have announced joint plans to develop several new consumer electronics products based on compact disc technology.

With the standard compact disc already well established as an alternative to 12 inch analogue LP's, the two companies have decided to develop a smaller CD which will be able to compete effectively with 7 inch 'single' records.

Single music tracks are already available on standard-sized CDs but reducing the playing time in this way doesn't bring the pro-duction costs down. Existing CD singles are therefore compara-tively expensive.

No standard has been agreed for the new CD single but the initial proposal is that it will be a 3" disc capable of carrying up to 20 minutes of music. New com-pact disc players would handle both sizes of CD while a simple adapter would enable the 3 inch disc to be played on existing equipment.

The two companies are also planning to develop a standard sized compact disc which will carry five minutes of combined music and video. This would complement the larger, longer playing video discs already in use and would prove an ideal medium for pop videos.

The music and video disc would be coloured gold to distinguish it from music-only CDs and the audio track would be replayable on standard compact disc players.

In time, it is anticipated that companies will develop combina-tion optical disc players providing both audio and video outputs of high quality. These would handle all the different sizes of disc now in use or under development.

Amstrad Gets BBC Apology

The BBC has apologised unreservedly after receiving a libel writ from Amstrad.

The action followed the publication of an article in Ariel, the BBC's house magazine, which questioned the safety of Amstrad's PC1512 IBM clone.

Amstrad admits there have been several enquiries about the absence of a mains lead on the 1512 but insists that none is needed. The machine has full BEAB class II certification and can be operated safely without an earth.

Amstrad has accepted the apology and says it will not be pursuing the libel action.

Putting On A Colourful Face

Multi-colour front panels with a professional finish can be

produced quickly and easily using a new process devised by Mega Electronics.

The Gedakop system uses thin aluminium sheets which are precoated with a light-sensitive photoresist. A positive artwork carrying the required panel markings is laid over the aluminium sheet which is then exposed in a light box.

The board is developed with water to leave a positive image of the artwork which will accept colour dyes. The dyes will not attach to the non-image area and any excess or unwanted dye can be removed with a stripping solution.

When complete, the aluminium can be sealed to protect the coloured image against scratching and chemical damage.

Mega supply the pre-coated aluminium in a range of sizes from 250 x 230mm up to 500 x 1000mm and in thicknesses from 0.125 to 30mm. Twenty-nine different dyes are available and they can be mixed to produce an almost infinite range of colours.

An introductory kit consisting of two pre-coated sheets, black dye and stripping solution costs £16 and further dyes can be obtained for £4.50 each. There is also a comprehensive starter kit costing £43 which includes four 160 x 250mm sheets of aluminium in various thicknesses, four different colour dyes, thinner, touchup solution, stripper and various accessories. These prices do not include VAT, and there is a £2 post and packing charge on all orders.

Mega Electronics Ltd, 9 Radwinter Road, Saffron Walden, Essex CB11 3HU. Tel (0799) 21918.

More Jobs In Electronics

41% of employers in the electronics manufactur-ing industry plan to take on more staff during the second quarter of 1987 according to a survey conducted by temporary staff specialist Manpower PLC.

This is slightly higher than the figure for the same period last year (39%) and well up on the 27% recorded during the first quarter of 1987.

The number of employers planning to cut jobs has risen slightly from 11% last quarter to 12% for the next quarter, but this figure is still an improvement on the 15% figure obtained for the same period last year.



Miniature Infra-Red Detector

Rpassive infra-red detector suitable for use in many automation and security applications.

It senses body heat at distances up to 12 metres in an 85° arc and responds by closing a relay. The output could be used to switch on a porch light or an alarm or even to operate an automatic door or other entry control system.

The RP33 detector uses a 24-facet Fresnel lens to give graduated coverage in three vertical planes. This allows the detector to be at its least sensitive near the ground where movements from animals might cause false alarms.

The RP33 is designed for easy installation and its small size (80 x 60 x 40mm) allows it to be hidden in almost any recess. A switchable walk-test facility allows the effective range to be checked during setting-up. Operation is from a 12V supply and full installation instructions are provided.

The RP33 costs £23.95 and is available from Riscomp Ltd, 51 Poppy Road, Princes Risborough, Buckinghamshire HP17 9DB. Tel (08444) 6326.



Boxing Clever With Heatsinks

A new range of heatsinks from Marston-Palmer has an unusual interlocking feature which allows several heatsinks to be connected together to form box structures or large panels.

Known as the Comb-Lok range, the new heatsinks have two lipped grooves on each side, positioned at right angles to each other. When the grove on one extrusion is lined up next to the groove on another, an X-shaped coupling extrusion can be slid into place to lock the heatsinks together. The grooves will also accept caged nuts so that heatsinks can be attached to a panel without being drilled.

Comb-Lok heatsinks are available in ten standard extrusion profiles from 75 x 25mm up to 300 x 40mm and in a range of lengths from 75 to 250mm. Thermal efficiencies range from 3.4° C/W for a 100mm length of 75 x 25mm extrusion down to 0.5° C/W for a 100mm length of 300 x 40mm extrusion.

Marston-Palmer Ltd, Wobaston Road, Fordhouses, Wolverhampton WV10 6QJ. Tel (0902) 783 361. The latest Rapid Electronics catalogue runs to 128 A4 pages and includes a number of new product lines. Cases and test equipment are among the ranges which have been expanded along with tools, PCB drafting aids and etching kits. Copies are available free-of-charge from Rapid Electronics, Hill Farm Industrial Estate, Boxted, Colchester, Essex CY4 5RD. Tel (0206) 272 730.

• Free from Analog Devices is an 8-page booklet called 'Analogue-to-Digital conversion Using Voltage-to-Frequency Converters'. It describes several methods of using a V-F converter in an ADC system and includes notes and circuit diagrams for a 16-bit converter and several other configurations. Copies are available from Analog Devices, Central Avenue, East Moseley, Surrey KT8 0SN. Tel 01-941 0466.

If owning a dog sounds a bit too much like hard work (all those 'walkies' and trying to read copies of ETI with teeth marks) you may prefer to build TK Electronics' microchip mongrel. Better known as kit XK125, it is designed to deter burglars and simulates the sound of any dog from a terrier to an alsatian. The XK125 kit is not included (as far as we can see) in the otherwise quite comprehensive TK catalogue, but a whole range of other products are, including semiconductors, cases, test equipment and all the usual stuff. Plus, of course, kits. TK Electronics, 13 Boston Road, London W7 3SJ. Tel 01-567 8910.

• Law enforcement agencies in America are using a high resolution scanning system to speed up the processing and retrieval of fingerprints. Instead of using a conventional ink and paper approach, suspects' finger prints are scanned electronically and then digitized for storage. The resulting data can be found instantly from among a vast number of other prints, can be compared electronically in a computer with other prints to aid identification and can be sent down the telephone line to other police stations and centres. The system is expected to speed up the processing of suspects.

• Believe it or not, you can now buy calculators and watches which are said to be waterpowered. All they need is to be immersed in water every few months and they will go on working for ages. It all seems too good to be true. If anyone can explain how this works we'd be happy to hear from them. Meanwhile we're trying to obtain a few samples for review.



KAPELLMEISTERS

Vot do you sink you are doingk listening to zose deredful loudshpeckers. Built a pair of ETI's Kapellmeister transmission line units immediately or suffer ze consequences ov der horrid hi-fi for ze rest of your life.

SURFACE MOUNTING

As commercial electronic equipment gets smaller and smaller ET/ takes a look at the surface mounting process while it's still visible.

TELEPHONE ALARM

In these days of high technology there's no need to disturb the neighbours with a lot of bells and sirens when you're being burgled in your absence. Fit an ETI Telephone Alarm and keep in touch.

AND IN THE BLUE CORNER

Everything you always wanted in an electronics mag but were afraid to even hope for. News, diary, Tech Tips, practical projects, fascinating features, readers' ads, and much, much more. Don't miss it.

Don't miss the July issue of ETI

- out 5th June

All the articles listed are in an advanced state of preparation but circumstances beyond our control may prevent publication.





Greenbank Electronics (Dept T6E), 460 New Chester Road, Rock Ferry, Birkenhead Merseyside L42 2AE. Tel: 051-645 3391

DIARY: DI

British Electronics Week — April 28-30th

Olympia Exhibition Centre, London. See February '87 ETI or contact the Evan Steadman Communications Group on (0799) 26699.

Digital Audio Tape Recording — April 30th

The IEE, London. See March '87 ETI or contact the IEE at the address below.

Tool Kits And Sneaky Tricks — May 15th

The IEE, London, 2.00pm. Discussion meeting. Contact the IEE at the address below.

TV Displays: The Next Ten Years — May 20th The IEE, London, 2.00pm. Discussion meeting.

Contact the IEE at the address below.

Computer North — May 27-29th

G-Mex Complex, Manchester. Business computer show. Contact Cahners on 01-891 5051.

UK Telecommunications Networks: Present & Future — June 2-3rd

IEE, London. Conference. Contact the IEE at the address below.

CableSat '87 — June 2-4th

Metropole Hotel, Brighton. Exhibition and conference. Contact Online at the address below.

International ISDN Conference — June 15-18th

London. Conference on the Integrated Services Digital Network. Contact Online at the address below.

Networks '87 — June 16-18th

London. For details contact Online at the address below.

Condition Monitoring For Safety - June 25th

Regent Crest Hotel, London. Seminar and Exhibition. Contact ERA Technology on (0372) 374 151.

Satellite Communication Systems — July 26-31st

University of Surrey. Vacation school organised by the IEE. Contact them at the address below.

Designing For Electromagnetic Compatibility — September 13-18th

University of Sussex. Vacation school organised by the IEE. See address below.

Design Engineering Show — September 15-18th

NEC, Birmingham. Exhibition and conference covering all areas of engineering including electronics and CAD/CAM. Contact Cahners on 01-891 5051.

IDEX '87 — September 21-23rd

Metropole Exhibition Halls, Brighton. See April '87 ETI or contact Nutwood Exhibitions on (04848) 25891.

Automotive Electronics — October 12-15th

The IEE, London. International conference organised by the IEE in conjunction with many other professional bodies. Contact them at the address below.

Radar '87 — October 19-21st

Kensington & Chelsea Town Hall, London. International conference on civil and military systems organised by the IEE and the American IEEE. Contact the IEE at the address below.

International Video & Communications Exhibitions — October 18-21st

Metropole Exhibition Centre, Brighton. Exhibition with seminar programme covering video equipment, services, programme production, etc. Contact Peter Peregrinus Ltd at the IEE address below.

Electronic Displays — November 17-19th

Kensington Exhibition Centre, London. Contact Network Events at the address below.

Interact '87 — November 17-19th

Kensington Exhibition Centre, London. Exhibition and conference covering all aspects of interactive technology including touch screen displays, interactive videos, computer training sustems, etc. Contact Network Events at the address below.

Addresses:

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LETTERS

READ/WRITE



Gno Hope

am sorry to have to report an unfortunate deficiency in your normally exemplary standards of technical nomenclature.

I am referring, of course, to the central, raised part in your 24 Hour Sundial project. Surely it was unnecessary to introduce the ugly neologism 'shadow caster' for a component which has been known for centuries (as anyone with pretensions to a proper education would tell you) by the generally accepted term 'gnomon'.

I have more sympathy with your nameless colleague, though, who in suggesting the helicopter variation obviously had in mind a new meaning for 'tempus fugit'.

Terry Richter Fareham, Hants.

We had gno idea our readers were so gnowledgable in the art of sundial construction. Gnext time we shall gnow better.

Anyway, 'Gnomon' is really meant to describe a shadow caster (there's that awful phrase again) formed like a leantover L shape. The ETI Sundial uses a much more elegant swept curve. (That's our excuse and we're gnot going to budge!).

Hoodwinked

You asked for it. The world is going to pieces (Read/Write March 1987). You could help prevent it by insisting John Linsley Hood presents an up-to-date cassette deck project

With the design of analogue recording circuitry about to become an arcane art, it behoves you to see that everyone has at least a chance of building (not to mention understanding) a cassette deck of the quality with which JLH is normally associated.

I have built a number of his designs, including the ETI 100W MOŠFET amp. I doubt I am alone in according totally with him when he claims it to be the best he has yet heard.

Please, then: a cassette deck which can be connected to such an instrument without fear of committing heresy.

Ivor Colwill

Haywards Heath, Sussex.

Give the man a chance. JLH is already working on an updated MOSFET amp and a new integrated amp for us. Not to mention a couple of other projects too. We promise that as soon as he has finished that little lot we'll try to persuade him of the joys of a truly hi-fi cassette deck. Meanwhile, have patience and make do with current heretical models.

The Right Rate

Referring to your article 'Geiger Ratemeter and Counter' in the February and March 1987 issues of ETI, I think readers should be warned that testing foodstuffs for contamination is not as simple as suggested.

It is not just a matter of applying the probe to, say, a joint of meat and, because there is no count rate increase, assuming all is well. The meat tissues could still be dangerously contaminated with alpha particles which are not detected because they can travel only a very short distance through tissues (less than 1mm).

The official method of testing a carcass is to burn it to ashes and test the ashes with a wide area gas flow type monitor.

Alexander Turner Richmond, Surrey.

Thanks for the information. The ETI Geiger meter project will still find (accurate) uses for many readers in other types of radiation testing.



Virtuous Virtuoso

read with interest the letter from D.W. McDonald in the April issue concerning his desire for a complete set of audio equipment in kit form from John Linsley Hood. His ideas echo plans formulated by Audiokits over the last 15 months.

In a short period we have introduced two preamps, a power amp and an integrated amplifier all of which can be built in standard or 'upgraded' versions. Since ETI published our Virtuoso preamp last year we have received many calls and letters from delighted customers all over the world.

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I can assure Mr. McDonald that Audiokits is doing the things he is seeking and has many other exciting developments in the pipeline.

Graham Nalty, Audiokits Borrowash, Derby.

ETI hopes to publish the Virtuoso Power Amplifier to accompany last year's preamp and also from Graham Nalty, in the near future.

ETI is pleased to receive your letters on any topic—past, present or future. If you want to know something or think we should be told of something, don't hesitate, write in to the ever-open arms of the ETI post room. Write to:

Electronics Today International 1 Golden Square London Wirk 3AB

FEATURE THE TELEPHONE SYSTEM

You may not believe it but the UK telephone system is the best in the world. Keith Brindley explains why.

There are two main different switching methods used in wired telecommunications systems. The type used in all analogue public switched telephone systems is called 'circuit switching'. A transmission circuit or channel is set up between the caller and whoever is being called by switching together whatever individual transmission links are required in the system to form the channel. The channel remains set up throughout the call and only ends when one or both users hang up.

For interest the other main type of switching method is message switching. Here each block of communication is sent over the system individually, making its own way from caller to receiver via whatever transmission links are necessary.

Every new block makes its own way and so it is conceivable that many different transmission paths will be used to make up the whole communication. No single channel exists between the two users. A derivative of message switched telecommunications systems is British Telecom's 'Packet Switch Stream' (PSS) used for digital computer data communications.

Large circuit switched systems like the Public Switched Telephone Network (PSTN) must be hierarchical in nature. That is, switching centres (usually called exchanges) must exist at different levels in the system so that a user at one point in the system can call another user by linking together whatever exchanges are necessary to form the circuit.

Figure 1 shows the layout of a hierarchical telephone system where exchanges are layered to allow any two telephones in the system to communicate. The bracketed term after each exchange type is the commonly used name in the UK system. Larger telephone systems, such as the North American system, may use a further layer of exchanges above tertiary exchanges (quaternary trunk exchanges).

Although a hierarchical system with so many interconnections between different levels of exchanges may seem unnecessary, there is a reason why PSTNs are so constructed. If an exchange between two users is busy (fully utilised with no spare lines) as a call is set up, the call is easily redirected around that exchange and on to another.

Being busy is not the only reason why an exchange is unusable, of course, it may be faulty. Alternative routing ensures the PSTN we've considered still keeps working overall. I would venture to suggest this is the very reason why British Telecom's PSTN kept working during the recent BT telephone engineers' strike. It wasn't that faults weren't occuring. It was just that the system is so well designed as to keep working even with the faults.

In terms of numbers, there are something like 21 million or so local lines in the British PSTN and something over 6000 local exchanges. Of the local exchanges, about half are electromechanical 'Strowger' exchanges (you know: click, click, whirr, whirr, clatter, clatter, clatter!). About 2000 are reed relay exchanges which, although electromechanical, are at least



computer-controlled. About 500 are crossbar electromechanical exchanges and (wait for it) *only about* 500 are digital exchanges (and I said this is the best system in the world?).

X Rated

Of the digital exchanges about 150 are small rural exchanges while the remainder (only about 350) are so-called System X exchanges.

System X exchanges are now being commissioned at the rate of about one per week. That sounds pretty impressive until you work out at that rate it will take about 5500 weeks (105 years) to convert the rest of the system! Nevertheless, it's hoped to get rid of all Strowger local exchanges, replacing them with computer-controlled reed relay types at the very least, by 1992. Target for a completely digital PSTN (this includes user's telephones, as well as exchanges) is the year 2014.

In the trunk network, things are proceeding much faster. Of the 55 digital exchanges planned 54 have already been commissioned, so BT's target of a fully digital trunk network by 1988 should easily be met. Finally, to get out of the British PSTN, four digital international trunk exchanges are planned, of which two have been commissioned.

Traffic control

Now it's possible the average reader doesn't think much of the British PSTN! Nevertheless, an awful lot of thought and planning goes into the system which isn't immediately apparent. Even if you do reckon that too many calls don't get through, it's a fact that the actual

probability of call failure due to blocking is very low. If you *do* have serious problems making calls it just may be that your problems lie in your telephone unit, or in your own fingers.

The main aim of any PSTN is to provide an acceptable telephone system at an acceptable price. Obviously, users want a system which works and which doesn't cost the earth. Any PSTN provider must therefore ensure sufficient amounts of exchange equipment are available to keep the probability of call blocking low enough for acceptability — without providing so much equipment that the service is too expensive.

We've used the term probability pretty loosely but it can be (and is) used in its strict mathematical sense to help calculate the amount of equipment required to provide an acceptable yet economic telephone system. If the system is considered as a number of distinctly separate parts as in Fig. 2 then the overall probability of a call being blocked between one user and another is given by:

$$P=1-((1-P_1) (1-P_2) (1-P_3)....(1-P_n))$$

where n is the total number of parts used in the call and P_1,P_2 , etc are the probabilities of calls blocking at each part of the system over which the call is routed. If the probabilities of blocking are very small (which hopefully they are) then this expression simplifies to:

$$P = P_1 + P_2 + P_3 + \dots + P_n$$

This means the overall probability of a call being blocked can be directly broken down into the probabilities of each separate piece of equipment used in the call routing.

Simple enough, but we still need to relate the probabilities of call blockages to the numbers of calls which the system must cater for. Calculating the amount of calls made in a PSTN is an important aspect in planning the system and the usual method of doing it measures telephone usage in terms of *traffic* — the average number of calls over a given period of time.

A Danish mathematician, Agner Erlang, did a significant amount of work in calculating telephone traffic, and his name is used as a dimensionless unit of traffic. So, an average of 100 concurrent calls is known as 100 erlangs of traffic.

If, say, n calls are made during a period of T seconds, and the durations of the calls are h_1 , h_2 , h_3 ,... h_n seconds then the use of the system is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{i=n} h_i$$
 (call-seconds)

The traffic (the amount of calls per unit time) is thus:

$$E = \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} h_i$$
 (erlang)

From this we can calculate what is known as the mean holding time (the average call length) given by:

$$h = \sum_{i=1}^{i=n} h_i$$
n (seconds)

If we refer to the average rate at which new calls appear as a calls per second, then a much more useful



expression for traffic is given by:

E=ah

(erlangs)

Now we can relate traffic with blocking probabilities to calculate the exchange equipment required to maintain an acceptable service. If there are K calls in progress and N pieces of exchange equipment each of which can handle one call then the probability of calls blocking is given by:

$$P = \frac{E^{n} / N!}{\sum_{k=0}^{k=n} E^{k} / k!}$$

which means that we can now calculate the number of pieces of exchange equipment to maintain any desired probability, knowing the traffic which the exchange has to handle.

Fortunately, it's not necessary to work with these expressions every time an exchange is being planned or updated. Once the ideal numbers have been calculated for any desired probability, straightforward look-up tables may be constructed which relate the two. Table 1 gives examples of the numbers of pieces of exchange equipment required to maintain a probability of call blockage of less than 0.01 for a number of different values of traffic.

Terminals and Local Lines

Local lines within the PSTN (lines between the users' premises and the local exchange) are twisted pairs. The

Traffic (in erlangs)	Pieces of exchange equipment
0.1	2 2
0.5	4
1.0	5
5.0	11
10.0	18
50.0	63
100.0	117

Table 1 Number of pieces of exchange equipment required to maintain a probability ofcall blocking less than 0.01 for various levels of traffic.

characteristics of any pair of wires carrying analogue signals are determined by the constants of capacitance, resistance, inductance, and conductance. Further the transmission properties can be represented by a wire pair's characteristic impedance and propagation constant. All constants are related by the complex mathematical expressions:

 $Z_0 = ((R + j\omega L)/(G + j\omega C))^{\frac{1}{2}}$

 $\gamma = ((R+j\omega L)(G+j\omega C)^{\frac{1}{2}})$

where: Z_0 =the characteristic impedance, R=the resistance per unit length, ω =the angular frequency of the applied signal, L=the inductance per unit length, G=the conductance between the two wires per unit length, C=capacitance between the two wires per unit length, and γ =the propagation constant.

These expressions allow us to define the various constants of the wires for any particular frequency. Local lines, with only a few exceptions, use audio frequencies and so their transmission properties are fairly well classified although variations do exist.

Local lines comprise a single twisted pair. This means that incoming and outgoing speech signals are imposed on the same line. At the exchange and at the user's telephone these signals must be separated. If no separation occurred at the telephone, the signal produced by the handset microphone would be fed to the earphone in a process known as 'sidetone'.

However, a small amount of sidetone is desirable, so the user does not feel the system is 'dead'. Figure 3 shows the basis of a typical circuit used in telephones to separate the two directions of signals on the local line while maintaining some sidetone. While some modern telephones use more complicated versions, this shows in principle how signals are split and combined.

In the end

As far as the user is concerned, local lines are terminated inside the user's premises, at a network termination point usually called a 'master' socket. At present, plugging into the master socket is the closest a user may officially get to the local line but it's just possible that this situation may change in the future. For now, it's the network provider's responsibility (that is, British Telecom for the national PSTN, Mercury Communications in the case of its telephone network and the Kingston-upon-Hull Telephone Department in the Hull telephone network) to terminate the local line. However, from 1st of December last year, extension socket wiring may be undertaken by people (including users) other than the network providers.

It's important to note, though, that any extension wiring undertaken by non-network providers *cannot be hard-wired into the master socket*. It can only be plugged in! Figure 4 shows this diagrammatically. It is, in fact, illegal to tamper with a master socket, or extension sockets wired by the service provider, in any way except by plugging in to them.

This means that a user who does not yet have a master socket fitted and who wants to plug in an extension circuit, first must ask the network provider to fit a master





socket — at a fee (BT currently charges £10 & VAT, plus a visit charge of £15 + VAT if no other chargeable work is carried out at the time of conversion).

Toeing The Party Line

Incidentally, if a user has a party line (a line shared with another user) sockets cannot be fitted to the line. This does not mean the user with a party line can't have sockets. The network provider is under an obligation to provide them. In such a case it is up to the network provider to replace the party line with a standard nonparty local line and fit the sockets.

So, if you have been forced to have a party line, and you don't want one, simply ask for sockets to be fitted. It'll cost you the $\pounds 25 + VAT$ conversion charge but it's one way of getting your own back on BT. There's nothing BT can do to make you keep the party line!

Master sockets and extension (technically known as 'secondary') sockets are identical in outward appearance and contain a printed circuit board onto which the socket itself is fastened. Master and extension sockets, in fact, usually contain the same circuit board, but extensions do not have all the components present in the master. Figure 5 shows the basic circuit of the master socket, how the socket is connected to the twisted pair local line and how the network provider will hard-wire connections to any extension which it provides.

Capacitor C1 is known as the 'bell' capacitor. Before the era of sockets this was housed in each telephone. It provides the simple function of isolating the bell inside any telephone connected to the master or extension sockets from the local line, as far as DC is concerned. For the majority of the time the bell is effectively unconnected. When a call is placed to a user and the bell is to ring, the local exchange transmits an AC signal which is passed by the bell capacitor and so rings the bell.

Resistor R1 is known as the 'out-of-service' resistor. This has two main functions. First, if a call is placed, the out-of-service resistor maintains a circuit even if all telephones are unplugged. To the user trying to call, the ringing tone is still heard. Second, if a user is in



and socket connections to a telephone terminal.

communication with another user but wishes to take the call in another room, the telephone may be unplugged and taken to another socket. The out-of-service resistor maintains the circuit and thus holds the line open until the telephone is plugged in again.

Component SP1 is a 'surge arrester' to prevent incoming high voltage peaks on the line from getting to the telephone and outgoing high voltage peaks getting onto the line.

Tinkle, Tinkle, Little Star

Having the bell capacitor present in the master socket gives a number of benefits.

The main one is that extension telephones to be used are merely connected in parallel (via extension sockets). If you did this on a local line terminated without the master socket, all telephones would 'tinkle' when one telephone is dialing out.

The master socket's internal bell capacitor allows a third 'anti-tinkling' connection to be made to each telephone. When one telephone is to be used to dial out, it short-circuits the bell capacitor and tinkling simply cannot occur. A further benefit is that the capacitor is not now needed inside the telephone — helping to reduce telephone cost.

All sockets have six connections, although only three of these are used in standard telephone wiring. You may wish to use the others in baby alarm or intercom type applications, but to do this you'll need to wire extensions with six-core cabling, instead of the standard four-core cabling usually used. Table 2 relates the colour coding of the wires of the cable to the socket connection numbers.

Although it doesn't particularly concern us here, it's interesting to note that above local exchange level in the PSTN hierarchy, single twisted pairs aren't used for transmission. Instead, a four-wire link is used (two wires for one direction of signal, two wires for the other direction) all in a twisted form (twisting is used to minimise interference). Above this in the hierarchy, trunk routes use multiplexed signals (multiplexed in either frequency or time) on four-wire links, coaxial cables, optical fibres, or sometimes microwave radio links.

Dialing out

Having considered the local line and the termination points at the user's premises, it's only right we now look at the signals which are transmitted *along* a local line to and from the master socket. The majority of telephone terminals (the actual devices you make and take calls with) in use in the British PSTN are presently known as loop disconnect signal terminals. This refers to the dialing method the phones use.

Figure 6 shows a typical terminal connected via a local line to the local exchange, together with basic internal circuits within the exchange. The master socket is also shown with its internal bell capacitor.

Although the device used to dial a number is shown as an old-fashioned rotary dial, most modern phone terminals use a push-button dial which provides exactly the same function: the dial breaks the circuit once for every value of each digit dialed. So, if the digit five is dialed, the circuit is broken five times. If digit two is dialed the circuit is broken twice. Slightly misleadingly, if digit zero is dialed, the circuit is broken ten times.



That's why the name 'loop-disconnect signal' is used for this method of dialling.

The circuit is also broken when the telephone handset is replaced on the switch-hook and that's where we'll start the description of operation. With the handset on the switch-hook the circuit is broken and no direct current can flow from the local exchange. As soon as the handset is lifted the circuit is closed, and the speech circuit of the terminal is connected across the local line.

The speech circuit has a fairly low resistance (in the order of 100 ohms) and so direct current flows in the local line via the 50 volt DC power source and speech transformer T1. The current is sensed by the control circuit and is interpreted as a 'call-request' signal. In response to the call-request, the control circuit injects a tone supply corresponding to the dialling tone through the central coil of transformer T1. The tone is thus inserted onto the local line, resulting in the same tone being heard in the earphone at the user's phone terminal.

On hearing the dialling tone the user starts to make the call, dialling the number required digit by digit. The control circuit senses each time the circuit is broken during a digit and counts the breaks to calculate which digit has been dialled. The period of these breaks is not usually too critical — somewhere around 10 breaks per second (normally called 10 pulses per second, or 10pps) is typical. The length of time *between* breaks is important. If, say, a time of greater than about 200ms occurs, the control circuit is able to sense what is interpreted as an 'inter-digit pause' — the circuit senses that one digit has ended and the next is about to start.

When the call is routed through to the receiving telephone terminal, a ringing tone is obtained from the receiving terminal's local exchange. It's interesting to note, though, that the ringing tone is produced, as we'll see soon, by the other user's local exchange and not by the user's phone being rung. So, just because you can hear a ringing tone, it doesn't mean the other phone is actually ringing! There may be a fault between the other user's local exchange and that terminal or the terminal may be unplugged from its socket.

Two other tones may be sent to the calling terminal from the control circuit. Number unobtainable or busy tones may be sent if either of these conditions occur when the call is made.

Socket connection	Wire colour (principal colour first)
1 2 3 4 5 6	green/white blue/white orange/white white/orange white/blue white/green
Table 2 Telephone wire co socket terminal connection	lour coding with reference to telephone

It's For You-hoo

The local exchange also has a great deal to do with signals going to a telephone terminal. When a terminal is to be called, for example, the control circuit at the local exchange first senses if current is flowing in the local line. If it is, then the terminal is in use. That is, the terminal is busy and the call cannot proceed. If not, then the control circuit can ring the terminal's bell by operating a relay whose contracts break the local line from the speech transformer and instead connect them to a bell ringing supply. The bell ringing supply is of an interrupted AC form at a frequency of 17Hz and of 75 volts. The AC ringing signal is passed by the bell capacitor in the user's master socket, causing the terminal bell to ring.

The control circuit senses the bell ringing (if current is flowing, the bell is assumed to be ringing) and injects a ringing tone onto the speech path via the central coil of transformer T1. This informs the user making the call that the called terminal is ringing. As soon as the terminal handset is lifted, however, the control circuit senses the call has been answered and de-energises the ringing relay, re-connecting the local line to the transformer, and so completes the speech channel between the two telephone terminals.

Them Tones, Them Tones...

Although loop-disconnect signalling is currently the most common form of digit signalling in the British PSTN, this is only because most local-exchanges are of Strowger or similar electromechanical types. Newer digital exchanges can cope with other forms of signalling, one being 'dual-tone multi-frequency signalling' (DTMF, for short). DTMF phones are push-button but unlike loopdisconnect types of push-button phones they don't break the circuit to indicate digits. Instead a combination of two tones is transmitted down the local line from the terminal to the local exchange for each digit pressed. The tones are detected at the local exchange and the digit is consequently calculated.

Figure 7 shows the tones standardised by the CCITT for DTMF signalling. Each row and each column of the set of push buttons is allocated a particular tone so that when a button is pressed, the tones corresponding to the row and the column the button is part of, is transmitted down the line.

DTMF signalling allows a considerable increase in the speed with which a call can be set up. In the loopdisconnect system pulses are transmitted at about 10pps, so a typical telephone number of seven digits can take anywhere between about 700ms and 8.4s to transmit between terminal and local exchange. In the two extremes, the number could be any between the shortest possible (1111111), and the longest possible (0000000). Also, the inter-digit pause, typically 200 ms, has to be added to every digit dialled.

Different numbers dialled by the DTMF method, on the other hand, do not affect the time taken for signal transmission. Instead, the time depends largely on the speed with which the user can push the buttons!

Hanging On The Line

There are five basic categories of equipment of interest to the house telephone user which can be plugged into a telephone socket. Any equipment must

be approved by the British Approvals Board for Telecommunications (BABT) and must comply with certain standards and regulations.

To show that equipment is approved and complies with all standards and regulations, any device will carry a 'green circle' approval sticker or label. If no 'green circle' is present, it is illegal to plug the device into your telephone sockets, so beware. The five categories of equipment which can be used on the PSTN are:

• Simple extension telephones. Ordinary, basic phones with no extra features.

• Telephones with loudspeech, monitor, or modem facilities. The type of phone with simple VDU characteristics used for connecting to viewdata services, etc.

- Cordless telephones.
- Telephone answering/recording machines.

• Modems, or non-speech equipment which incorporates a modem.

The important British Standards which relate to all equipment connected to telephone lines are BS6301, BS6305, and BS6317. Any equipment containing a modem

must also comply with BS6320. Any equipment requiring a mains power supply must also comply with BS6484. The plugs used to connect the equipment to a telephone socket must themselves comply with BS6312. These standards are by no means exhaustive but provide a starting point for approvals purposes.

Onwards, Ever Onwards

Recently, unless you lived in the Kingston-upon-Hull district, you could only have a telephone through British Telecom. Since liberalisation — choices have begun to appear. Cellular telephones, for example, provide a means whereby mobile telephone communications independent of BT can be obtained.

Of greatest significance in the long run is the telephone network provided by Mercury Communications. Still in its infancy now, this network will rapidly become a national PSTN service and a real alternative to BT's PSTN.

Initially, at least, home users will be able to connect to the Mercury network via existing local lines and a special Mercury network when making a call. A rental for the BT-owned local line will be due, however, whether or not users actually make calls via the BT PSTN.

The Mercury network itself is digital, so offers greater quality than BT's network. But linking via existing local lines to the Mercury network limits quality to that of the BT analogue local line. Eventually, BT's own network and local lines will be digital and Mercury may offer its own local lines to customers. Whatever happens improved services are on the way.

The problems of waiting for a digital service do not occur for certain users. Existing business telephone users may already be able to access the Mercury network



directly, via cable, fibre optic, or microwave link. Likewise BT can link business users directly into its digital trunk network. So high quality digital telephone communications are already possible.

Whatever you think of our telephone communications system — it *is* the best in the world. What's more, it can only get even better!



FEATURE HARDWARE **DESIGN CONCEPTS**

Mike Barwise polishes off the design of his pulse generator with a look at the control board and an algorithm to run the whole system.

ow that we have designed the pulse generator itself, the time has come to consider how to program and control it. A simple solution is to use a conventional eight bit microprocessor addressing a bank of storage registers attached to the programming bus of the generator boards.

There is also a need for some kind of convenient user input and display, so that the required information can be passed to the pulse generator in a *convenient* manner. The general circuit schematic is shown in Fig. 1.



Automating Parameter Settings The simplest pulse generator with only one range has no settability problem. There is only one possible setting of the control registers for a given output. Remembering that each generator stage adds a clock cycle to its time on ton of the set modulo and that each collowing stage on top of the set modulo and that each following stage takes a clock cycle to respond to its predecessor's start request, we simply arrange to subtract three from the entered parameter for Delay and one from those for Period and Width to provide perfect settability.

The pulse generator which switches range on Period Delay and Width simultaneously (in other words, with all three parameters always set to the same range) has a slight settability problem. If, as in our design of pulse generator, the adjustment ratio (1:4095) exceeds the range spread (1:10), there are already several alternative setting parameters which could yield the same output (where the ranges overlap).

One solution to automation is always to pick the settings which require the fastest possible range, thus maximising setting resolution. Aside from this, the same calculations apply as to the single range system.

However, we have given ourselves a somewhat greater problem by allowing the Period, Delay and Width to be independently range switched. The additional cycles detailed earlier still have to be added to the timing chain but the question now is how long is each additional cycle.

Once the period, delay and width are set to different ranges, each has a clock cycle of different duration. We must therefore identify the relevant clock for each additional cycle and add *time* rather than *cycles* to our parameter definition.

In practice, the same approach of going for the fastest range possible is still probably the best as it maximises setting resolution. However, the assessment must now be made for each element individually rather than globally for the system.

An outcome of this which may not be immediately apparent is that what you ask for may not be exactly what you get. The pulse génerator may be forced to choose the nearest setting to your selection if it is not able to accomplish the absolute setting.

This should be considered when designing the user input and display handling. Should you ignore discrepancies, thereby providing inaccurate results but boosting user confidence, or do you report setting discrepancies, yielding high reliability but resulting in a less 'user friendly' system?

Direct Control

The third alternative is for all parameters to be directly controlled by the user from the keyboard. This is the most flexible and precise method but demands such a high level of user awareness of the pulse generator mechanism that it is not really practicable. No one but the designer would be able to use the system!

To sum up then, we will be automatically selecting the fastest range possible for each parameter (Period, Delay, Width) and will display (although this is just my preference) the actual parameters used by the system. This means that what you enter at the keyboard and what you get at the output and on the front panel display will sometimes be a little different but the discrepancy is both predictable and documented.

The general algorithm for input to actual conversion is as follows and is shown in Fig. 2.

Starting with pulse width, choose a range, then program the width registers with one less than the required modulo to allow for the stage characteristic. Establish the delay range and modulo, then subtract one from the modulo for the stage characteristic and one for the start cycle. The result is the modulo to be programmed into the delay register. Remember that the real delay will be greater by one width range clock period, due to the Width start cycle.

Finally, establish the Period range and modulo and subtract one cycle for the stage characteristic.

The only parameter which will be subject to discrepancies will therefore be the Delay. Note though that even when the zero Delay option is in use, the start cycle will still cause a minimal delay.

The user display should reflect these small discrepancies, so the user will know what is *actually* happening. The discrepancies will in fact be very small in most cases.

The worst case is when working at the fastest end of three adjacent ranges, such as Width 200 nanoseconds, Delay 2 microseconds, Period 20 microseconds where the delay may depart from ideal by up to 10%. It will, however, be totally stable, precise and repeatable. The same discrepancy will always be present.

This amounts to a limitation on 'settability', rather than precision, and should prove quite acceptable in practice.

Implementation

There are many alternative approaches to the microprocessor control. I have selected my own favourite devices although I'm sure that other people will prefer different solutions and can convincingly argue for them. This is a good area for experimentation as the microprocessor setup is comparatively slow and simple.

I chose my old faithful favourite, the 6502 (the 1MHz version is all you really need here), using a hardware scanned keyboard and a Densitron intelligent LCD display module (available from RS and, of course, Electromail) as user input and output devices.

The keyboard circuit is shown in Fig. 3. A binary counter drives an active low output decoder (least significant two bits) and an eight-to-one multiplexer (most significant three bits).

The decoder outputs form the rows of the key matrix and the multiplexer inputs (pulled high) form the columns. Pressing a key connects a decoder output to a multiplexer input and when the counter gets round to the mutual selection point of the connected input and output, the multiplexer input goes low.

This signal is used to stop the counter and the current count is then passed to a CPU mapped register. A delayed interrupt generator allows for switch bounce before flagging the CPU to read the key code.



Fig. 2 The algorithm for calculating parameters for the pulse and range boards.



Each time the switch bounces, the counter will rescan the matrix and stop at the same key code as before. If the stop signal were simply piped through to the CPU interrupt, although the key code would be valid, it would be read an arbitrary number of times.

The answer is to delay the generation of the interrupt until the key has stopped bouncing. The simplest way to do this is to use a pair of non-retriggerable monostables. The first closure of the key starts the first monostable which then ignores further triggers until it has timed out. If its time period is in the order of 100ms, the key can be guaranteed closed and stable before the period ends.

The trailing edge of the first monostable pulse clocks the counter data into the keyboard interface data register and also starts the second monostable, which generates the CPU interrupt.

No attempt has been made to convert the keyboard output to ASCII. We only need about 20 keys and so the key code can be used as an entry to a ROM based lookup table.



The recommended keys are: **0-9** plus **Delete** and **Enter** for decimal input, **nS**, **uS**, **mS** for input scaling, **P**, **D**, **W**, for period, delay and width and finally **PGM** to halt the generator for reprogramming and **Start** for restarting after programming. The suggested keypad layout is shown in Fig. 4.

The PGM key is not on the scanned matrix. It is in fact the CPU reset button. This is because it is a good idea to turn off the CPU interrupts (thus disabling the keyboard) while the pulse generator is running. Reset is then used to attract the attention of the CPU for reprogramming. The CPU is in fact just idling at all times except while programming.

Display

The display driver is the simplest possible solution. The Densitron display requires an eight bit data byte and a strobe while data is valid (rather like a Centronics printer interface on a microcomputer). There are, however, two internal registers — data and command. As we are only interested in seven bit data (ASCII alphanumerics), I have used the eighth bit as the register select.

This means that commands are sent as straight ASCII and data for display are negated with (bit 7 set). This limits the display versatility a little, but greatly simplifies the interface.

Referring to Fig. 5, data bit 7 (MSB) is grounded at the display, and the display Read/Write pin is strapped to Write. Data 0-6 are supplied from a latch together with the RS (register select) which replaces D7 of the incoming data byte.

Timings are fairly critical as these displays are quite slow. Note the use of a transparent latch (74LS373) rather than an edge triggered register for data storage. This allows us to meet the long data setup time required by the display and still generate the enable strobe directly from the register write signal.

The only remaining unfamiliar element is the pot across pin 3. This is a bias voltage to adjust the display contrast. Anything in the 10K region is about right but a padder resistor could be needed at the top end. For more detail on this and for the actual programming codes, I refer you to the manufacturer's data sheet.

The final point to mention about the display is that it is most easily read from just *below* its normal axis, so clever mounting may be needed.

This more or less wraps up the pulse generator design. I have been less specific about the control end of the unit as I feel this is much more likely to be familiar to you. The real aim has been to guide you through the design process, rather than just run a pulse generator project, but I hope some of you give it a go and build one. It's back to pure concepts next month with a thorough investigation of programmable logic.



CIRCUIT THEORY

Paul Chappell gets into some pretty heavy mathematics to explain the workings of the ·Fourier series.

The Fourier series is no more mysterious or complicated than the Taylor or Maclaurin series expansions which you will remember from your school days. Instead of expressing a function as an infinite polynomial, it is expanded into a series of sine waves.

Figure 1 shows how this works with a square wave. The building begins with a sine wave of the same frequency as the square wave we are trying to make. At point A a smaller sine wave at three times the frequency is added, at point B yet another sine wave at five times the frequency of the original is added.

With each addition the rise becomes steeper, the top becomes flatter and the resulting waveform becomes closer and closer to a square wave. The process continues with addition of 7th harmonic, then 9th, and so on.

The Fourier series has the form:

$$f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx))$$

At the moment this doesn't express any kind of mathematical truth. It's really more like a wish. We hope that, given a function f(x) we can choose values for the coefficients $(a_n \text{ and } b_n)$ to make the two sides of the equation identical, in which case we will have found the Fourier series for f(x).

Whether this can be done for any function or just for some we don't yet know. There clearly are functions for which the expansion *does* hold because we can take the process the opposite way around. If coefficients are selected at random and f(x) is made equal to the result, then f(x) is its own Fourier expansion! (There's no need to choose an infinite number of coefficients. As soon as you get bored, the rest can be set to zero!)

Take another look at the form of the Fourier series. If the summation sign is alien to you, it's just a shorthand way of saying:

 $f(x) = a_0 + a_1 \cos(x) + b_1 \sin(x) + a_2 \cos(2x) + b_2 \sin(2x) + \dots$

Since all the sines and cosines vary about zero, the a_0 is needed to represent the mean level (the DC component if we're thinking about voltages). The reason for having both sines *and* cosines is to give the relative phase of the various components. For instance, adding equal quantities of sin(x) and cos(x) will give a wave 45° out of phase with each.

To find the values of the coefficients it is convenient to make use of a property of sines and cosines known as orthogonality.

Orthogonality

This is the name for a special disappearing trick that sines and cosines perform. If you draw a graph of sin(x) over the interval 0 to 2π (one complete cycle), I think you'll agree that the area above the axis exactly matches the area below. So, if you integrate between these limits, the two areas 'cancel out' and leave you with zero, right? Exactly the same thing applies to a cosine, over the same interval.

Draw a graph of sin(2x) over the interval 0 to 2π (two complete cycles) and the area above matches the area



Fig. 1 Approximating a square wave with one, two and three sine waves.



frequencies will have a mean value of zero (b) The product of two sine waves of the same frequency will have a positive mean value.

below the axis. Integrate and you get zero. How <u>about</u> cos(9x) over the same interval (9 complete cycles)? Integrate, and that vanishes too. Sin(566,344,890x) over the same interval? You guessed it — integrate and it vanishes.

same interval? You guessed it — integrate and it vanishes. Now let's try something else. Take a sine wave, let's say sin(2x), and multiply it by another. Sin(3x), for example. The result of this particular multiplication is shown in Fig. 2a. It's not certain from the drawing but it looks very much as if the two larger areas above the axis match the two larger areas below and similarly with the smaller areas. It looks as if this might disappear when integrated as well!

In fact, this is exactly what happens. It's beginning to seem as if just about any combination of sines and cosines will vanish over 0 to 2π . The exception occurs when two sines or two cosines of the same frequency are multiplied together. Figure 2b illustrates this for $\sin(3x) \times \sin(3x)$. Since the resulting waveform is always positive, integrating will give a positive result.

This can all be summed up as follows:

$\int_{0}^{2\pi} \sin(mx) dx = \int_{0}^{2\pi} \cos(nx) dx = 0$	(for all m, n)
$\int_{0}^{2\pi} \sin(mx) \cos(nx) dx = 0$	(for all m, n)
$\int_{0}^{2\pi} \sin(mx)\sin(nx)dx = \frac{0}{\pi}$ $\int_{0}^{2\pi} \cos(mx)\cos(nx)dx = \frac{0}{\pi}$	(for m≠n) (for m=n) (for m≠n) (for m=n)

where m, n are integers > 0

The results are quite easy to prove. Integrating the product of two functions is a perfect pain but by making use of the identity $\sin(mx)\cos(nx) = \frac{1}{2}(\sin(m+n)x + \sin(m-n)x)$ and similar identities for the product of two sines and of two cosines, the integrations can be performed without much difficulty.

The description 'orthogonal' (perpendicular) may seem an odd one to apply to sine waves. It arises from certain similarities between operations that can be performed on sines and operations that can be performed on vectors — in particular the scaler product of two vectors which vanishes when they are at right angles to each other.

The place where 'sine wave vectors' feel at home is called L_2 . It's an abstract space with an infinite number of dimensions. It's one of a class of abstract spaces known as Hilbert spaces.

Imagine a set of axes, all at right angles to each other, each labelled sin(x), sin(2x), sin(3x), and so on. Now mark out on each axis the Fourier coefficient showing 'how much' of the sine wave of that particular frequency there is in the function of your choice. When you've finished marking out all the axes, you'll be able to place a point in the space which has just those co-ordinates (just like the x and y co-ordinates in the common or garden Cartesian system). So, each function with a Fourier expansion can be represented by a single point in L₂. Clever, eh? It's a fascinating place and we're taking holiday bookings now!

Fishing For Sines

The orthogonality property is not just an incidental

part of Fourier analysis, it's the key to the whole process. In this issue you'll find a circuit which will perform Fourier analysis by orthogonality. It's called a hi-fi power meter but don't be fooled by that!

The input side of the circuit is not needed for this argument. Take the components from the multiplier onwards (Fig. 3). At one input to the multiplier there is the waveform to be analysed. At the other input is a sine wave signal generator. If the signal generator is set to a frequency not present in the 'unknown' waveform, the average output from the integrator will be zero (for the same reason that the mean level of Fig. 2a is zero). If the sine wave exactly matches the frequency of one of the components of the unknown waveform, the output will have a DC component which will register on the meter (Fig. 4).

If you want to try this, start fishing with a low frequency sine wave. Increase the frequency of the bait until you see the meter move, showing that you've caught a sine. The meter will move quite violently, so use a cheap one and set it to centre scale. The movement of the meter will first occur when you are within a few Hz of the fundamental frequency. When you hit it exactly, the movement will stop. The meter reading will depend on the relative phase of the 'unknown' waveform and the bait.

Continue up the scale and you can determine the frequencies of other sine wave components. You know roughly where to look — they will be multiples of the

fundamental. With a square wave as the unknown, you won't find any even multiples. With other waveforms, other harmonics may be missing.

With some slight modifications to the integrator, and by displaying the output on a 'scope instead of a meter, you can determine the relative amounts of each harmonic. Setting the signal generator slightly off frequency will give 'beats' with an amplitude proportional to the 'amounts' of each component. If your signal generator has a sweep function and your scope an external trigger, you're in business with a complete spectrum analyser!

The sine wave and the 'unknown' should each have an amplitude of about 1V. To get satisfactory results on a sweep, the integrator will have to be replaced by a more suitable detector circuit. If you're not sure how to go about it, we hope to publish a complete spectrum analyser based on this principle sometime soon, so watch out for it!

The Fourier Coefficients

Back to the maths again. What needs to be done now is to apply the same process mathematically as we've just done electronically. First of all, a reminder of the form of the Fourier series:

 $f(x) = a_0 + a_1 \cos(x) + b_1 \sin(x) + a_2 \cos(2x) + b_2 \sin(2x) + \dots$

Now the bait. Suppose we want to know how much cos(2x) there is in f(x) (in other words, we want to find the value of a₂). Multiply the whole lot by cos(2x) and integrate from 0 to 2π :

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} f(x) \cos(2x) dx = a_{0} \int_{0}^{2\pi} \cos(2x) dx + dx$$

- $a_1 \int_0^{2\pi} \cos(x) \cos(2x) dx + b_1 \int_0^{2\pi} \sin(x) \cos(2x) dx + b_1 \int_0^{2\pi} \sin(x) \cos(2x) dx$
- $a_2 \int_{0}^{2\pi} \cos(2x) \cos(2x) dx + b_2 \int_{0}^{2\pi} \sin(2x) \cos(2x) dx + b_2 \int_{0}^{2\pi} \sin(2x) \cos(2x) dx dx$



On the right hand side, every single term apart from the one involving cos(2x) will disappear (check it out with the' orthogonality integrals listed earlier). This is quite a relief as it means we don't have to do an infinite number of integrations! We are left with:

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} f(x) \cos(2x) dx = a_2 \int_{0}^{2\pi} \cos(2x) \cos(2x) dx = a_2 \pi$$

So the amount of cos(2x) in f(x) is given by:

$$a_2 = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(x) \cos(2x) dx$$

If you think about the right hand side of this equation for a moment, it's doing exactly the same thing as the



Fig. 4 Fishing for sines in a square wave. (a) Multiplying by the fundamental gives a positive 'output' on integration. (b) Multiplying by the second harmonic gives a wave with equal areas above and below the axis (there is no second harmonic present in a square wave). (c) Multiplying by the third harmonic gives a wave with more area above the axis than below — again, a positive output after integration.

multiplying circuit. If there is no cos(2x) in f(x), then multiplying and integrating will give no 'output' and so the value of a_2 will be zero. If there is some cos(2x)present, the 'output' will be equal (in this case) to the value we will give to a_2 .

The other coefficients are calculated in exactly the same way:

$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(x) \cos(nx) dx$ $b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(x) \sin(nx) dx$

The only term not yet dealt with is a_0 . To get this value, the Fourier series is integrated 'raw' — without multiplying it by anything — giving:

$$\int_{0}^{2\pi} f(x) dx = \int_{0}^{2\pi} a_{0} dx$$

so $a_{0} = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{0}^{2\pi} f(x) dx$

This month's_article has been rather heavy on the maths side. (You noticed?) The most horrifying thing about maths is the thought that someone may put you on the spot and actually ask you to *do* some. It brings back all the examination nightmares: Question 19. Do the most horrible double integral you can think of over an arbitrary surface with knobbly bits on, take away the number you first thought of and express the answer to 12 decimal places. Then keep doing it again 'till you get it right.

If you've forgotten most of the mathematical techniques for grinding out the 'right answers', don't worry. Next month there will be a practical example of how to 'do' a Fourier series. In the privacy of your own home you might find it easier than you think. Besides, if you get it wrong nobody will ever know!

if you get it wrong nobody will ever know! For this month, if you have followed the ideas through, that's the main thing. If you have, we'd like to award you the ETI medal for dedication to your hobby above and beyond the call of duty. The only trouble is, the medal's in Hilbert space and we can't get it out!



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SN74LS191 0.50 SN74LS395A 0.90 SN74123 0.60 4LS00 0.17 SN74LS192 0.50 SN74LS40 0.18 SN7413 0.40 4LS02 0.18 SN74LS193 0.50 SN74LS42 0.30 SN7414 0.56	LJU1/4A Mini Master 3.05 LM311V LJU1/6A Mini Secondary 2.40 LM319 LJU2/4A Standard Master 3.10 LM32aN	0.35 75112 1.50 HCT245 1.50 75115 1.50 HCT640 0.35 75121 1.10	2.20 40528 2.40 40538 40548
4L503 0.18 SN74L5194A 0.60 SN74L547 0.50 SN74141 0.60 4L504 0.17 SN74L5196 0.60 SN74L548 0.60 SN74147 1.25 L508 0.18 SN74L5197 0.60 SN74L549 0.85 SN74153 0.70	LJU2/6A Standard Secndry 2.45 LM348N LJU3/4A Flush Master 3.05 LM358N LJU3/6A Flush Secndry 2.35 LM36N.1	0.55 75150P 1.30 0.45 75154 1.30 32.768KHz 4 0.80 75154 1.30 32.768KHz	4033B 4056B 0.95 4060B 4.00 4063B
LS09 0.18 SN74LS20 0.18 SN74LS51 0.20 SN74155 0.70 LS10 0.18 SN74LS21 0.18 SN74LS54 0.20 SN74157 0.70 LS107 0.30 SN74LS22 0.18 SN74LS54 0.90 SN74159 1.50	Range of Dual Outlets, Cords, LM381 Connectors available LM3900 LM558	1.70 75160 4.50 1 MHz 0.70 75161 4.00 1.8Hz 1.50 75162 4.50 2 0 MHz	2.65 4066B 2.00 4067B 2.10 4068B
LS109 0.30 SN74LS240 0.60 SN74LS55 0.20 SN74160 0.60 LS11 0.18 SN74LS241 0.55 SN74LS640 1.20 SN74161 0.80 LS112 0.30 SN74LS242 0.55 SN74LS640 1.20 SN74163 0.80	CARD LM710CN PCB R/A EDGE LM711CN SKT Plug Plug Plug LM741	0.90 75172 3.00 2.4576 MHz 0.90 75182 1.00 2.50 MHz 0.50 75188 0.80 3.0 MHz	1.90 4069UB 1.80 4071B 2.10 4072B
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5125 0.30 5N74L5248 0.90 5N74L5668 0.80 5N74174 0.90 5126 0.30 5N74L5248 0.90 5N74L5668 0.80 5N74174 0.90 5126 0.30 5N74L5249 0.90 5N74L5669 0.80 5N74176 0.80	26way 0.98 1:34 1.34 NE556 34way 1.40 1.69 1.69 2.27 SG3524 40way 1.62 1.88 1.88	0.55 75451 0.45 4.00 MHz 1.50 75452 0.45 4.194304 MHz 2.50 75453 0.55 4.433619 MHz	1.20 4077B 1.50 4078B 1.00 4081B
LS132 0.35 SN74LS253 0.60 SN74LS673 5.00 SN74182 0.80 LS133 0.35 SN74LS253 0.60 SN74LS673 5.00 SN74182 0.80 LS133 0.35 SN74LS256 0.80 SN74LS674 5.00 SN74184 1.55	50way 2.08 2.93 2.93 STK431 50way 2.08 2.93 2.93 TA4661A	4.00 75454 0.55 4.9152 MHz 11.00 75490 4.50 6.00 MHz 2.20 75491 0.60 6.144 MHz	1.20 4082B 1.30 4086B 1.30 4089B
LS137 0.70 SN74LS258 0.50 SN74LS884 2.75 SN74190 1.00 LS138 0.30 SN74LS259 0.65 SN74LS884 2.75 SN74190 1.00 LS138 0.30 SN74LS259 0.65 SN74LS885 2.75 SN74191 1.00	36way Plug IDC 4.55 TBA120S 36way Socket IDC 4.55 TBA920	2.75 0.60 1.75 MEMORIES 2.00 2.60 1.75 MEMORIES 7.159 MHz	1.30 4093B 1.50 4094B 1.30 4095B
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LS151 0.30 SN74LS283 0.50 SN74LS78 0.27 SN7438 0.35 LS153 0.50 SN74LS280 0.70 SN74LS83 0.40 SN7440 0.25 LS155 0.40 SN74LS293 0.70 SN74LS85 0.46 SN7440 0.25	Memotech 8.50 10way 1.25 TL07CP Amstrad 8.80 TL07CP TL07CP	0.60 27084-25 1.75 18.432 MHz 0.60 27084-25 8.00 20.0 MHz 1.00 27128-200 3.00 32.00 MHz 0.30 07108-050 0.01	1.50 4510B 1.50 4511B 1.30 4512B
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RIAA EQUALISATION

Even with the advent of CD, analogue records are far from dead. Wilfred Harms explains how to design RIAA networks that will accurately replay your discs.

Radia equalisation is an important feature of any amplifier designed to reproduce music from analogue disc. Suitable circuit designs can be found in any number of published sources.

Unfortunately, the circuits contained in many handbooks, electronics journals and even inside some expensive pieces of audio equipment are often inaccurate. Incorrect designs are often repeated without question and the original requirements are simply forgotten.

This is a pity because it doesn't cost any more to use a resistor and capacitor of the correct value and the results are well worth the extra time and trouble. The purpose of this article is to show why RIAA equalisation is important and how to go about choosing the right filter components when designing disc equalisation networks.

In The Groove

From the earliest days of electrical recording it has been standard practice to modulate record grooves using a constant-velocity recording characteristic and to replay the signal with a velocity-dependent pickup. The maximum velocity is set at a certain value and the amplitude of the signal voltage is varied with frequency so this maximum is always achieved.

The system is illustrated in Fig.1. The maximum velocity is represented by the greatest rate of change of signal voltage, the steepest part of the waveform slope. On a sine-wave this will always occur at the zero-crossing points.

On lower frequency signals, the maximum velocity will be less as the rising edge of the waveform is less steep. If, however, the amplitude of lower-frequency signals is increased, a point will be reached at which the rising edge is as steep at that of a higher frequency signal with lower amplitude. This is the principle on which constant velocity recording works, the maximum velocity remaining constant across the audio band while the amplitude varies according to the signal frequency.

the amplitude varies according to the signal frequency. The main drawback with this system is that bass frequencies require a very large amplitude. The result would be wide groove spacing and correspondingly little recording time on each disc. In addition, the comparatively small amplitude at high signal frequencies would yield a poor signal-to-noise ratio.

To overcome these problems, the basic constant velocity characteristic is modified to a constantamplitude characteristic over certain parts of the frequency range by means of a corrective network.

frequency range by means of a corrective network . In the early days this was done very much at the whim of individual record manufacturers and a number of different replay characteristics grew up side by side. In order to handle the different recording characteristics correctly amplifiers were fitted with a number of switchselectable equalisation networks. For example, the Leak Point One Plus valve preamplifier of the 1950s had no less than four disc replay settings.

The situation was eventually rationalised by agreement. British Standard 1928 (issued in 1955 and reissued without changes in 1965) recommends a recording characteristic similar to that put forward by the Comité Consultatif International des Radiocommunications (CCIR) in Europe and the Recording Industries Association of America (RIAA). The latter term is the one most commonly used today.



Changing Shape

as to give a steeper rising edge.

The RIAA characteristic modifies the basic constantvelocity characteristic to a constant amplitude characteristic at two points in the audio frequency band.

At very low frequencies the constant-velocity characteristic is retained so that the gain does not go on increasing right down to the lowest recorded frequencies. Using a constant-amplitude characteristic here would emphasise turntable rumble and vibration.

At bass frequencies the characteristic changes to constant-amplitude to limit groove pitch before switching back to a constant-velocity characteristic for the middle frequencies. At high frequencies the characteristic again becomes constant amplitude and remains so to the limits of the audio band.

These four distinct regions give the RIAA characteristic its familiar flat-steep-flat-steep shape. The shape is sometimes shown instead as a series of angular lines but these are merely asymptotes to the curves. Provided the recording and replay networks are as near identical as possible, the exact shape of the response does not make a lot of difference. It therefore makes sense to use a series of curves which can easily be

replicated to a high level of accuracy rather than an idealised, sharp-cornered response which could only be approximated with difficulty.

Calculated Curves

The response shape is described in terms of three

curves (flat becoming steep, steep becoming flat and flat becoming steep again) which 'turn over' at frequencies of 50.05Hz, 500.5Hz and 2.115kHz. The slope of the curves is that given by a first order (6dB/octave) filter network comprising one resistor and one capacitor. The RIAA replay characteristic is the exact opposite

The RIAA replay characteristic is the exact opposite of the recording characeristic and is shown in Fig. 2. The complete characteristic can, in theory, be reproduced using three capacitors and three resistors in series and parallel pairs, although this is not necessarily the best way of doing it as we shall see later.

The actual values of the resistors and capacitors used will vary according to the individual circuit configuration, but the CR time constant for each filter curve is determined solely by the turn-over frequency and is therefore fixed. For this reason, it is usual to define the three curves in terms of CR time constants.

The values required must, at the frequency concerned, give CR values which result in C and R having equal impedances. This can be determined from the formula:

CR $\frac{1}{2\pi f}$





Fig. 3 A simple replay equalisation circuit using separate filter networks tor each of the three time constants.



and for the RIAA characteristic gives time constants of 3180, 318 and 75 microseconds. These time constants are, incidentally, the period of one radian of one cycle at the frequency concerned.

Figure 3 shows a simple equalisation network which uses three separate stages to realise the RIAA characteristic. This will work but a much better approach is to merge two of the networks in the way shown in Fig.4.

In practice, all three stages are usually combined into a single network and some examples are shown in Fig.5. All of these circuits give similar results but in each case there will be a degree of interaction between the three time constants and this will affect all four circuit components.

The response curves for an RIAA network are defined in terms of a single reference frequency, 1kHz. Taking the circuit of Fig.4 as an example, the output level from the 318/3180µs section (the network comprising R, R1 and C) will be 11.17% of the input signal level. Similarly, the output from the 75µs section (the network comprising R2 and C1) will be 90.46% of the its input level.

Taking these two together, the final output level from the circuit at 1kHz will be (0.1117 x 0.9046 =) 0.10103 times the input level or 10.103%. Therefore the input or zerofrequency response for the network should be set at (1/0.10103 =) 9.898 times the reference response at 1kHz.



Fig. 5 Some examples of RIM replay networks in which all three time constants are set using a single network.

		VLF	50kHz	150kHz	1kHz	10kHz	30kHz
Accurate RIAA	replay response	19.91	16.95	10.27	' 0	- 13.73	-23.12
Fig.6 response	• • •	19.20	16.07	9.37	0	- 13.51	- 22.89
deviation		0.71	0.68		0	0.22	0.23
Fig.7 response		19.00	15.62	8.70	0	- 12.51	- 21.84
deviation		0.91	1.33	1.57		1.22	1.28
Table 1							

Network Design

Designing a network of the type shown in Figs. 2 and 3 is quite straightforward but the single networks of Fig.4 require a different approach.

For those who want to go into the mathematics of it all, the figure for output level/input level of an RIAA network is given by

$$\frac{(1 + st_2)}{(1 + st_1) (1 + st_3)}$$

where t is the period of the CR time constant and $s = j\omega(\omega)$, of course, is shorthand for $2\pi f$). Taking the circuit of Fig.4a as an example, the output level/input level at a given frequency will be equal to

$$\frac{(1 + sR_2C_2)}{1 + s(R_1C_1 + R_2C_2 + R_1C_2 + s^2R_1R_2C_1C_2)}$$

The two expressions can be equated and the component ratios determined.

Thankfully, there is little need to go through all of this because a full set of data has been available for nearly thirty years. In Wireless World in 1957 W. H. Livvy of EMI Studios presented a set of formulae which allow the ratios between resistor and capacitor values to be determined accurately for different time constants. Two of the networks, he suggested, were suitable for passive de-emphasis but all could be used in feedback circuits because the overall impedance/frequency variations were in accordance with the RIAA requirements.

The data is presented in an even simpler and more readily-useable form in a technical paper written by Peter Baxandall. Entitled 'Pick-Up Equalisation' it appears in the Radio, TV and Audio Technical Reference Book edited by S. W. Amos (Newnes-Butterworth, 1977). Baxandall uses formulae for the component ratios based on the original 1957 data and describes the operation and use of several types of network. The article is just five pages long yet it covers not only the networks but also such questions as where the equalisation should be placed, the problem of inverted feedback, aspects of pick-up response correction and sensitivity and the minimum levels of gain in feedback circuits.

Network Accuracy

If the accuracy of an RIAA network is to be assessed against the published standard it is helpful to be able to calculate the response figures in decibels. The formula for any frequency, f, is

$$10_{tog} = \frac{441.18 (r^2 + 0.2505)}{(100r^4 + 0.2502) (r^2 + 4.503)} dB$$

where r = f/1000. If it is desired to check the characteristic of one network against another, the impedence must first be determined at any frequency and compared with the impedance at 1kHz to give

$$20_{10g} \quad \frac{Z}{Z_{1k0}}$$

Unfortunately, the calculations are far from easy!

Design Misconceptions

Figure 6a shows a type of network which is frequently used, and component values in similar proportions will be found in many RIAA. circuits.

The zero-frequency impedance is 1M1 whilst the impedance at 1kHz is 122k which is too high. The result is a loss in response below 1kHz of up to 1dB.

Here $R_sC_3 = 75\mu s$ and $R_sC_4 = 3300\mu s$ which is acceptable. The error is in the false assumption that R_sC_4 should equal 318 μs . A check with the basic formulae in Fig4(e) shows that $R_sR_s = 11.78$, and to meet this, R_6 must be increased to 1M2 and C_4 reduced to 2n7.

Readers may spot that this network appeared in ETI March 1986 in connection with the free PCB for use as a pre-amplifier with RIAA equalisation. The notation here agrees with the original diagram for recognition.

Figure 6b shows another commonly used RIAA network, and again it is possible to find component values in similar proportions in many other networks. As with the previous circuit, the impedance at 1kHz is high resulting in a loss in response at both lower and higher frequencies. Since $R_sR_3 = 3300$, $R_4C_3 = 330$ and $R_4C_2 = 72.6$ what is wrong?

In this case everything because interaction affects all values. Fig.4(d) requires that $R_sC_3 = 2937\mu s$, $R_4C_2 = 81.2\mu s$ and $R/R_4 = 12.40$ and three components must be changed. If it is desirable to retain the 33k resistor, then suitable values for the others would be $R_2 = 2.7k$, $C_2 = 30n$ and $C_3 = 91n$.

Readers may recognise this network because it appeared in a clever valve pre-amplifier in ETI August 1986, and again the notation agrees with the original. A similar network for use with transistors by the same author appeared in ETI September 1986, and this can be modified in a similar fashion.

Out of interest, I have calculated the deviations from the RIAA standard found in the circuits of Figs. 6 and 7 and these are shown in Table 1.

The noticeable common error in faulty networks is that one of the two larger resistors is ten times the other, a circumstance which cannot arise if it is correctly designed.

The ratios of component values in Fig.4 in terms of time constants ($t_1 = 75\mu s$, $t_2 = 318\mu s$, $t_3 = 3180\mu s$) are those originally given by EMI Studios which have been checked and evaluated to facilitate their use. The theoretical differences appropriate to a feedback circuit are within the normal component tolerances (1% recommended) provided the 1kHz gain exceeds 65.

In conclusion, one must realise that the final design of any RIAA replay network depends upon the equalisation circuit as a whole and particularly upon the impedances associated with it. But perfection cannot be obtained without an understanding of the underlying principles.





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CCTV CAMERAS FROM ONLY £69.50 EACH!

PLUS CARRIAGE & VAT

We are now able to offer CCTV cameras, from as little as £69.50 + VAT and carriage. These cameras have been refurbished to a high standard in our own workshop and come with a standard lens and a 3 month guarantee. They produce a standard composite output of 1volt pp and will work with any video recorder having the video input sockets, digitiser, monitor or with a domestic TV with the addition of a modulator which is available separately. These cameras are powered from the standard 240v AC mains supply. This model employs a vidicon rack and will allow focusing from infinity down to an inch or two.

The standard lens supplied is a 1:1.6f = 16mm non iris TV lens. The lens boss is the standard c mount (1" diameter by 32 thread per inch) and will thus allow a very wide range of camera lenses to be accommodated.

The sensitivity of the cameras is in the order of 110 lux which allows their use in the domestic environment. Pictures can be produced with as little light as 2.5 lux but with a lower signal to noise ratio. Low light versions of this camera are available giving sensitivities of 0.1 lux which is equivalent to half moonlight. Typical cost is approx. £350 + VAT and carriage. Many alternative lenses are available from stock please ask for details. Mounting of these cameras is by standard tripod bush, (1/4" Whitworth bread Ware of these cameras is by standard tripod bush, (1/4" Whitworth Thread). Many of these cameras are available from stock but reconditioned and new. Brand new mini 12 volt camera at only £80 + (VAT & carriage) lens etc.

We are also able to offer servicing facilities for any make of camera/monitor. We also supply camera and monitor tubes for a wide range of models, as well as scanning yokes for a wide range of cameras. Currently on offer is a professional drive board and tube to make a superb 12" professional green paneled tube monitor at £34.50. This would normally cost well over £200. Buy 10 of them and they will only cost you £24.50 each incl. Be sure to ask us to quote for any or your camera/monitor requirements we will never be beaten on price.



Supply: 240V AC or 15-24V DC at 10mA

FLAT ALARM

No, not a warning for punctures. Barry Thurlow's device is a full specification, but compact and cheap security system for a flat or small house.

A solution of the market are aimed at the market are aimed at the industrial market, a fact that is amply reflected in their price. Many commercial alarms also suffer from the problem that they are difficult to set. The user either has to wait for a fixed time to be sure the alarm is set or he is given no indication at all that the device has been successfully 'armed'.

This design attempts to solve this problem at a low cost and provides an alarm bell with all the required features. The prototype has been in use for over a year and has proved both effective and reliable for all this time.

Features

The features offered are summarised as follows:

• LED flash to indicate operation of the timing circuit.

• Audible signals for setting. The warning buzzer sounds when the door is opened to leave the premises and stops immediately the circuit is completed.

• 42 second entry delay giving time to reset the system.

• Siren cancelled after 24 mins.

• Battery backup to prevent disabling by cutting mains.

• Facilities to include both normally open and normally closed type detectors.

The Flat Alarm uses two detector circuits: one of normally closed contacts in series and (optionally) one of normally open contacts in parallel. Either breaking the normally closed circuit or closing the normally open one will activate the alarm.

The detector switches can be any number of a variety of different types. Everything from simple sprung door switches to floor pressure mats and window foil strips are easily available and can be connected to the system.

The switches designed 'for a car courtesy light, operated by the door can provide a useful and cheap source for both door and window detectors.



Above: the complete Flat Alarm with the 12V siren.

Right: the Flat Alarm PCB ready for wiring up in the case.



All wiring to the detector switches can be simple 'bell' cable and should be kept concealed as it runs around doors and windows to discourage tampering. In case a particularly ingenious intruder cuts the mains supply before attempting access, the Flat Alarm has a backup battery power supply. Unlike most alarm systems the Flat Alarm uses no arming switch requiring a mad dash for the front door after it is closed. Instead this system has a simple on/off switch. In the on position ('armed') the detector switch on the front door acts as the alarm set.

Once the door has been opened and then closed (as you

leave) the alarm is armed. An internal buzzer indicates that the alarm is set while the door is open. Any further break in the circuit will trigger the siren (after a 42 second pause for resetting the system for when the 'break-in' is actually you returning).

The siren is also turned off 24 minutes after starting for the sake



The circuit is shown in Fig. 1 and may be considered $\ln a$ number of blocks.

The transformer, T1, D1 and C11 form a simple unregulated 15V supply. This supply is regulated by IC7 to supply 5V to the logic. D4 allows current to be supplied from the battery to power the siren and, if the mains Is off, IC7 as well. R9 provides the charging current for the battery while the mains supply is on.

C4 and C5 are for noise suppression on the trigger inputs.

Three flip-flops IC1a, IC1b and IC2a form an escapement trigger mechanism. When the detector (assumed to be a normally closed switch, across terminals 3 and 4 of the PCB) is opened (the owner opening the door to leave) a rising edge is presented on pin 11 of IC1b. This clocks a high to the output pin 9 which passes through the NAND gate (IC4a) to sound the warning buzzer, BZ1.

The rising edge on IC2a pin 3 only serves to keep IC2a in the same state since the level on Its input (pin 2) at the clock time was a low.

When the detector is closed (the owner leaving) a rising edge is presented on IC1a pin 3. This clocks the high on its input to the inverted output (pin 6) as a low. This sets the output of the NAND gate to high, silencing the buzzer.

HOW IT WORKS

If the detector is open again (the owner returning or a burglar entering) a rising edge on pin 3 (IC2a) clocks the signal at its input(now high) to the outputs. The resultant low on IC2a pin 6 enables the counting for the entry delay and the auto shut off after 24 minutes.

timing The basic for the alarm comes from IC3. This ls а and R-C oscillator free running 12 stage counter configured to provide pulses stream of а approximately 100ms in width at a rate of about one every six seconds.

The correctness of the timing pulses may be checked by viewing LED1 which pulses on in time.

The six second pulses are counted by an eight stage counter, IC6. The outputs of IC6 are decoded by the NOR gate ICS. Outputs A,B,C from the counter are not connected to the NOR gate and so the first seven pulses counted have no effect on the output. These seven pulses, amounting to some 42 seconds, con-stitute the entry delay.

If the reset switch is pressed within this time delay no further action will take place. Outputs D,E,F,G,H of the counter

are decoded by the NOR gate so that any count between 8 and 255 will produce an output. This Is the time for which the siren will sound.

After 255 counts (around 24 minutes) the output pin 6 of the NOR gate will become high. This silences the siren and clocks the flip-flop IC2b producing a reset signal on IC2b pin 9. This sets the circuit back to its initial condition.

The signal from IC5 pin 6 is amplified by the transistor circuit comprising Q1 to Q4 to provide about 500mA for the siren. To activate the siren the voltage IC5 pin 6 is taken low. Diodes D3 and D4 provide an offset to allow for the offset of the logic low signal from the gate Q1 will be switched off and current will now flow through R11 into the base of Q4 about 1mA is provided which keeps Q4 saturated whilst drawing about 10mA through R12 and 10mA from the base of Q2 via R15, The base current In Q2 keeps it saturated whilst providing. a base current for Q3 of 40mA. The. switching gain of Q3 is greater than 20. and so it will be held in saturation for a siren current of 500mA.

C8 is provided to start up the siren slowly and should be omitted if a bell is used instead of the recommended siren.

of the neighbours and in accordance with the recommendations of the noise abatement society. If the recommended electronic siren is used this feature will be much appreciated!

Construction

All the ICs and discrete components are mounted on the PCB.' The warning buzzer, transformer and battery are mounted in the case with flying leads to the PCB. Connection to the detector circuits, siren and reset switch is also by flying lead although the constructor may wish to fit a terminal block to make connection more convenient.

Connections to the PCB are as follows:

- 1 warning buzzer negative.
- 2
- warning buzzer positive. detector circuit for normally 3/4 closed type detectors. siren positive.
- 7
- 8 siren negative.
- 9
- battery positive. battery negative. 10
- 11/12 transformer secondary.
- 13/14 detector circuit for normally open detectors.

The PCB is designed to be mounted on pillars facing the front panel of the case. In this position the LED may be made to show through the front panel by

extending its leads. To mark the case for drilling place the blank PCB on the front of the case with the component side facing upward. Use a pin to mark

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Ρ

RESISTORS (all specified)	4W, 5% unless		74LS393 7805
R1 4 5 12 15	1k0	014	BC108
R2.11	10k	$\tilde{O}_2^{1/4}$	BC179 or BC478
P3	220k	03	TIP41A
PG	560P	LED1	Red 0 2in LED
D7	220P		1N4001
	47L	D1,4	1114001
RO DO	4/K	D2,3	1194140
K9			
K1U	100K	MISCELLA	NEOUS
R13	280R 1/2W	B1	12V 1.2amp-hour
R14	100R		lead-acid battery
		BZ1	High power piezo
CAPACITORS			buzzer
C1,3,4,6,9,10,1	2 10n	BZ2	12V siren
C2	470n	FS1	2A fuse and PCB-
C5	4u7 16V tantalum		mount holder
C7,11	100u 25V axial	SW1	SPST push to break
,	electrolytic	5	switch
C8	1u0 25V axial	SW2	SPST switch
	electrolytic	`T1	12V mains
	•		transformer
SEMICONDUC	TORS		
IC1,2	74LS74	PCB: NO a	nd NC detectors; connecting
1C3	ZN1034	wire: 10-wa	v terminal block: TO66 heat-
1C4	74LS132	sink: case:	20mm PCB standoffs: nuts.
IC5	74LS260	bolts and v	vashers.
-			



through the four corner holes and through the two holes for LED1. Drill the corner holes with a 3mm drill centering the drill on the pin marks. Drill the hole for the LED using a 5.5mm drill. Centre the drill halfway between the two pin marks for LED1. When fitting the LED in, place an 18mm long sleeve over each of its leads to obtain the correct height. The PCB is mounted 22mm from the panel by the use of 20mm standoffs and locking washers.

Installation

The burglar alarm may be used with a combination of normally open contact detectors and normally closed contact detectors by connection to the appropriate pin pairs on the PCB. If no normally closed contact detectors are fitted, pins 4 and 3 should be joined together with a wire. If only normally closed type detectors are used, pins 13 and 14 are left unconnected.

It is often a requirement to wire alarm detectors in zones. For example, if the lower doors and windows of a house are to be alarmed but the upstairs windows are to be left open, provision must be made to bypass the sensors in groups. For normally closed contact detectors, the detectors are wired in series and the bypass switch must be in parallel with the group. For normally open contact detectors, the detectors are wired in parallel and the bypass switch is placed in series with the group (see Fig. 3).

Note that no reverse voltage protection is provided for the siren output on the PCB. If you use an inductive sounder (such as a bell) it is advisable to fit a protection diode across the PCB terminals 7 and 8, with the anode connected to terminal 7.

Testing

First double check that all the components are correctly mounted. Check particularly for the polarity of the diodes and capacitors and for the orientation of the ICs. When this is done connect the transformer and power up the circuit.

Using a meter check the voltage on the power pins of the ICs. Pin 14 of IC1, IC2, IC4, IC5, IC6 and pin 4 of IC3 should be at +5V. Switch off and connect the battery taking care to get the polarity correct.

Connect the siren, warning buzzer, reset switch, and a sample detector. Use a normally closed type. Reset the circuit by



closing the reset switch. Open the reset switch with the detector contacts closed. Check that the LED is pulsed about once every six seconds. Open the detector contacts and the warning buzzer should sound. Close the detector contacts. The warning buzzer should be silenced.

Wait 60 seconds to be sure that the alarm is armed and that the trigger has not been incorrectly activated. Nothing should happen. Open the detector contacts again and wait. After about 42 seconds the siren should go off.

If using the recommended siren this will be extremely loud so for testing it is advised that a pillow be placed over the siren to avoid ear damage!

After a further 24 minutes or so the siren should be silenced. If the detector is now closed and opened the warning buzzer will sound. This would indicate to the returning owner that the alarm has sounded and timed out while he was away. However this might only indicate that a window had been blowing in the wind and causing false alarms.

If the timings are not right check the components around IC3 for their correct values and positions.

If the siren does not sound or is weak although the warning buzzer worked as expected you may have a flat battery and this and the charging circuitry should be checked.

BUYLINES

The high power piezo buzzer is available from Maplin (number FK84F) as are the lead-acid battery (number YJ69A) and the siren (number XG14Q). The siren is supplied in its own waterproof case.

The box for the main PCB is not critical and can be any suitable case which is able to contain the PCB, battery and test and reset switches and can be

hidden discretely near the door. The PCB and the front panel label' shown on the prototype are available from the author for £9.95 and £4.45 respectively, plus 50p post and packing. Orders should be sent to B.J. Thurlow, 3 Broadway House, Bromley Road, Downham, BR1 4PA.

Project	Month	Year	Page	Project	Month	Year	Page
Metal locator, induction balance	Feb	1977	33	Ultrasonic switch	Feb	1978	62
Metal locator, induction balance	Feb	1978	32	Utiliboard breadboarding system	Nov	1975	58
Micro Light intercom	May	1986	28	Variable hysteresis Schmitt trigger			
Micro Light Intercom Errata	Mar	1987	63	(Free PCB design competition)	Oct	1986	26
Microwave oven leakage detector	Nov	1979	85	Vertical speed indicator (Vario) part 1	Apr	1984	19
Microwave oven leakage detector Errata	Dec	1979	13	Vertical speed indicator part 2	May	1984	57
Mini-drill speed controller	Jun	1981	89	Vertical speed indicator errata	Dec	1984	71
Motor speed controller	Jul	1979	47	VLF cave com system part 1	Jun	1986	38
Motor speed controller Errata	Nov	1979	13	VLF cave com system part 2	Jul	1986	50
Motor speed controller Errata	Dec	1979	13	Vogonoff mains failure alarm	Nov	1984	66
Musical doorbell	Dec	1980	60	Watchdog power saver	Oct	1977	10
NiCad battery charger	May	1974	52	Wind speed indicator	Apr	1979	85
NiCad charger	Aug	1979	29				
Nicau charger/regenerator	Sep	1903	12	MODEL CONTROL			
Optical communications circuite	lun	1901	68				
Optical communications circuits	Juli	1970	00	EM radio control	Oct	1080	15
Minder) (free PCB project)	Mar	1986	33	FM radio control errata	Dec	1980	13
Panel meter digital	Aun	1986	41	Model train controller	Nov	1976	16
Panel meter, I CD	Mar	1978	26	Motor speed controller	Jul	1979	47
Perpetual pendulum	Nov	1984	77	Motor speed controller errata	Nov	1979	13
Pest control (Allez Cat)	Feb	1982	89	Motor speed controller errata	Dec	1979	13
Polystyrene cutter	Jul	1982	73	Radio control servo failsafe	Apr	1980	29
Portable induction loop	Jul	1983	52	Radio control servo failsafe	Aug	1983	61
Power supply, switch mode part 1	Jun	1983	35	Radio control system part 1	May	1979	61
Power supply, switch mode part 2	Jul	1983	83	Radio control system part 2	Jun	1979	87
Programmable logic evaluation board	Mar	1986	37	Radio control system errata	Aug	1979	13
Proximity switch	Oct	1978	75	Servo tester	May	1980	52
Radiation monitor (Geiger counter) part 1	Feb	1987	35	Slot car controller	May	1982	79
Radiation monitor (Geiger counter) part 2	Mar	1987	39	The Beast model train controller part 1	Nov	1979	42
Rain alarm	Apr	1978	62	The Beast model train controller part 2	Dec	1979	86
Rain alarm	Dec	1979	35	The Beast model train controller errata	Feb	1980	17
Reaction timer (Alcohometer)	Dec	1981	79	White line follower	Apr	1978	23
Regulator, switch mode, 5V, 1A	Nov	1985	40				
Remote-controlled power switch	May	1981	90	MOTORING			
Remote control, FM mains	Oct	1981	56				
Schmitt trigger with variable hysteresis							
(Free PCB Design Competition)	Oct	1986	26	Accurate voltage monitor	Apr	1982	23
Scoreboard, large-digit	May	1985	43	Alarm alarm	Jul	1977	29
Soil moisture indicator	Aug	1977	19	Arconometer	Dec	1981	79
Soil moisture indicator	Sep	1977	0 67	Antenna extender	Jun	1901	10
Soldering iron controller	Jui Mov	1979	24	Anti-their duto diann	Jan	1974	55
Stathoscope for engineers	Mar	1901	63	Automatic battery charger	Anr	1080	30
Super selective music filter	Δnr	1984	39	Automatic car theft alarm	Δμα	1900	50
Switch mode power supply part 1	Jun	1983	35	Autowipe	Jan	1986	50
Switch mode power supply part 2	Jul	1983	83	Battery charger	Nov	1973	64
Switching regulator, 5V, 1A	Nov	1985	40	Battery charger, smart	Jul	1981	85
Switching regulator, 5V, 10A	Apr	1976	55	Battery indicator	Jul	1979	92
Tape/slide synchroniser	Jun	1972	48	Bodywork checker	Dec	1981	54
Tape/slide synchroniser	Feb	1979	27	Brake light warning	Oct	1972	44
Telephone bell extender	Oct	1978	65	Breakdown beacon	Sep	1976	52
Telephone bell shifter/extender	Nov	1981	78	Car alarm	Mar	1975	24
Telephone call meter (Buzby Meter)	Apr	1985	34	Car alarm errata	Jul	1975	68
Telephone call meter, intelligent part 1	Aug	1986	36	Car alarm	Dec	1978	16
Telephone call meter, intelligent part 2	Oct	1986	53	Car alarm	Nov	1981	94
Telephone call meter, intelligent part 3	Nov	1986	53	Car alarm	Oct	1983	66
Telephone call meter, intelligent part 4	Dec	1986	54	Car alarm errata	Nov	1983	96
Telephone call meter, intelligent errata	Mar	1987	63	Caravan lights checker (Reader's Design)	Apr	1981	100
Torch finder	Jul	1978	31	Car immobilise	May	1979	89
Touch switch	May	1976	14	Car security device	Apr	1980	50
Touch switch	Dec	1979	93	Combined tacho-dwell	Jan	1987	62
Touch switch (Free DCD areiget)	Jan	1980	11	Courtesy light extender	Feb	1975	51
Touch switch (Free PCB project)	Uct	1982	30	Courtesy light extender errata	Apr	1975	/1
Touch switch, TTL-level	Anr	1006	40	Digital tachometer	Jan	1979	23
(Fiee PCB project)	Арг	1900	42	Electronic ignition	Sep	1973	30
(Free PCP Design Competition)	Oct	1096	26	Electronic ignition evetem part 1	Apr	1970	41
Troplograph VI F cave com system port 1	lun	1000	20	Electronic ignition system part 2	May	1075	1U 10
Troglograph VLF cave com system part 1	Jun	1900	30 50	Electronic ignition system part 2	Iviay	1975	23
Two battery savers	May	1072	30	Engineer's Stathoscope	Mar	10,21	63
Twonky - MPII musical box	Feh	1970	79	Flin-flon flasher	Anr	1975	۵3 42
Two-tone door bell (short circuit)	Feb	1977	50	Fuel gauge	Jan	1983	46
Typewriter interface	Oct	1983	21	Fuel level monitor	Sen	1979	53
Typewriter interface errata	Mar	1984	25	Headlight delay	Mar	1979	27
Typewriter interface for the BBC	Aug	1985	41	Headlight reminder	Dec	1972	48
UFO detector	Jul	1978	63	Headlight reminder	Mar	1975	34
				-			

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Ignition timing light	Sep	1974	18	Drum synthesiser (Cymbal Synth) errata	Jun	1986	55
LED tachometer	Jan	1981	49	Drum synthesiser, ETI Staccato	Jun	1980	84
Light activated tachometer	Feb	1979	50	Drum synthesiser, ETI Staccato errata	Aug	1980	13
Light wand	Mar	1982	73	Drum synthesiser, midi	May	1984	62
Meter beater	Feb	1975	28	Drum synthesiser, midi errata	Aug	1984	66
Over speed alarm	Sep	1979	79 20	Drum synthesiser, mini	NOV	1983	30
Parking meter timer	Jan	1982	29 33	Drum synthesiser, mini errata	Apr Oct	1984	0Z 18
Revealer - body filler detector	Aun	1973	58	Electronic bongos (Short Circuit)	Aug	1904	24
Rev monitor/counter	Dec	1977	37	Flanger / chorus unit	Jan	1984	33
Screen heater controller	Sep	1979	89	Flanger, The Better	Jan	1987	47
Smart battery charger	Jul	1981	85	Flanger, The Better errata	Mar	1987	63
Tacho / dwell, combined	Jan	1987	62	Fuzz box (Short Circuit)	Apr	1977	48
Tachometer	Jul	1977	32	Fuzz / sustain box	Oct	1980	53
Tachometer errata	Sep	1977	8	Fuzz / sustain box errata	Sep	1982	57
Tachometer, digital	Jan	1979	23	Guitar attack delay unit	Jun	1973	30
Tachometer, light	reb Doc	1979	00 18	Guitar effects unit errata	Apr	1979	9/
Trafficator flasher	May	1974	46	Guitar note expander	Anr	1981	95
Turn indicator canceller	Apr	1973	70	Guitar tuner	Jan	1982	41
Warning indicator monitoring System	Sep	1979	23	Guitar tuner errata	Mar	1982	9
Wiper delay, automatic	Jan	1986	50	Guitar tuner errata	May	1982	11
				Gunshot sound effect	May	1982	89
MUSIC AND FEFECTS				Hand-clap synthesiser	Aug	1981	68
				Metronome, accentuated	Feb	1978	17
		1001		Metronome, accentuated beat	Jun	1979	21
1024-note composer (synthesiser sequencer)	May	1981	36	Metronome and beat counter (ETI Rhythm ROM)	Nov	1985	33
Accentuated metronome	FeD	1978	1/ 21	Metronome and beat counter errata	Jun	1980	00 17
Accentuated beat metronome	June	1979	21	Metronome (Free PCB project)	Nov	1972	47 56
Activator errata	Jul	1986	56	Metronome (Short Circuit)	May	1977	39
Audio phaser	Dec	1976	29	Midi drum synth	May	1984	62
Audio visual metronome	Nov	1972	47	Errata	Aug	1984	66
Auto chord rhythm generator part 1	Nov	1978	56	MIDI-to-CV converter	Jun	1986	29
Auto chord rhythm generator part 2	Dec	1978	80	Mini drum synthesiser	Nov	1983	36
Better Flanger, the	Jan	1987	47	Mini drum synthesiser errata	Apr	1984	62
Better Flanger errata	Mar	1987	63	Mini Synth (complex sound generator)	Oct	1978	17
Black hole chorales	May	1980	90	Multi-option siren	Jan	1981	22
Black Hole Chorales errala	Sep	1900	50	Musical DOX Music box MPLL (ETL Twonky)	Apr Fob	1901	50 70
Bongo box	Dec	1986	43	Music box, MFO (ETT WORKy) Music board for the 7X81 part 1	Anr	1983	16
Bongos, electronic	Aua	1977	24	Music board for the ZX81 part 2	Mav	1983	54
CCD delay line effects board, ETI Sonneti	Apr	1985	57	Music board for the ZX81 errata	Jun	1983	15
CCD phaser	May	1978	57	Music processor	Nov	1981	38
CCD phaser errata	Jul	1978	7	Music processor errata	May	1982	11
Chorus / flanger	Jan	1984	33	New sound for your guitar	Jun	1973	30
Chorus unit	Nov	1985	48	Noise gate	Jul	1985	38
Chorus unit errata	Jun	1986	55	Noise generator	Dec	1979	67
Chorus unit (ETI Black Hole) Chorus unit (ETI Black Hole) errata	Ividy Son	1900	92 11	Organ ETI Victory part 1	Dec Feb	1900	40 10
Combo amplifier ETI Sonneti	Mar	1985	22	Organ, ETI Victory part 2	Mar	1983	36
Combo amplifier errata	Jul	1985	27	Organ, ETI Victory part 3	Apr	1983	56
Complex sound generator (Mini Synth)	Oct	1978	17	Organ, ETI Victory part 4	May	1983	67
Compression gate, direct inject	Dec	1985	46	Organ, touch	Dec	1976	41
CV adaptor for MIDI controllers	Jun	1986	29	Phaser	Dec	1976	29
Cymbal synth	Nov	1985	58	Phaser, CCD	May	1978	57
Cymbal synth errata	Jun	1986	55	Phaser / explosion sound effect	May	1982	63
Delay line, CCD	Apr	1985	5/	Phase / Waa unit	Jun	1981	24
Delay line, digital part 1 Delay line, digital part 2	Dec	1984	10 62	Playmate guitar effects amplifier part 1	Aug	1982	28 16
Delay line, digital part 2 Delay line, digital part 3	Jan Feh	1965	02 24	Polyphonic keyboard controller	Jul	1902	36
Delay line, digital part o	Aua	1985	62	Reverberation unit, solid state	Apr	1982	101
Digital sound sampler part 1	Nov	1985	63	Reverberation unit, spring line	Dec	1974	46
Digital sound sampler part 2	Jan	1986	47	Reverberation unit, spring line	Oct	1984	18
Digital sound sampler part 3	Feb	1986	42	Rhythm Chip, the (ETI Rhythm ROM)	Nov	1985	33
Digital sound sampler part 4	Mar	1986	44	Rhythm Chip, the (ETI Rhythm ROM) errata	Jun	1986	55
Digital sound sampler part 5	Jun	1986	48	Sequencer for Spectrum (ETI Spec Drum)	Dec	1985	41
Digital sound sampler part 6	Jul	1986	44	Simple echo unit (ETI Ezeko)	Oct	1985	18
Digital VCO	Mar	1985	16 27	Sonneti combo amplifier	Mar	1985	22
Digital VUU errata	JUI	1985	21 16	Sonneti CCD delay line offecte beard	JUI	1985	27
Direct inject compression gate	Sen	1900	40 43	Somer out utility line enects build a	Αμα	1900	36
Drum machine	Anr	1981	75	Sorcerer string synthesiser part 7	Sen	1985	48
Drum sequencer for the Spectrum	Dec	1985	41	Sorcerer string synthesiser part 3	Oct	1985	32
Drum synthesiser for the				Sound bender (ring modulator)	Oct	1981	88
Commodore 64 (Bongo Box)	Dec	1986	43	Sound effects 1: bomb drop	Apr	1982	50
Drum synthesiser (Cymbal Synth)	Nov	1985	58	Sound effects 2: steam train and whistle	Apr	1982	118

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Sound effects 3: phaser/explosion	May	1982	63
Sound effects 4: gunshot	May	1982	89
Sound sampler, digital part 1	Nov	1985	63
Sound sampler, digital part 2	Jan	1986	47
Sound sampler, digital part 3	Feb	1980	4Z 11
Sound sampler, digital part 5	.lun	1986	44
Sound sampler, digital part 6	Jul	1986	44
Spec Drum sequencer	Dec	1985	41
Steam train and whistle sound effect	Apr	1982	118
String Thing (Transcendent DPX) part 1	Aug	1979	18
String Thing (Transcendent DPX) part 2	Sep	1979	62
String Thing (Transcendent DPX) part 3	UCt	1979	35 64
Sustain fuzz box	Oct	1980	53
Sustain fuzz box errata	Sep	1982	57
Synthesiser, ETI 3600 part 1	May	1975	42
Synthesiser, ETI 3600 part 2	Jun	1975	32
Synthesiser, ETI 3600 part 3	Jul	1975	54
Synthesiser, ETI 3600 part 4	Uct	1975	41
Synthesiser, ETI 4600 part 1	Jan	1970	04 20
Synthesiser, ETI 4600 part 2	Feb	1974	20
Synthesiser, ETI 4600 part 3	Mar	1974	40
Synthesiser, ETI 4600 part 4	Apr	1974	44
Synthesiser, ETI 4600 part 5	May	1974	54
Synthesiser, ETI 4600 part 6	Jun	1974	24
Synthesiser, ETI 4600 part 7	Jul	1974	52
Synthesiser, ETI 4600 part 8	Aug	1974	58 49
Synthesiser, En 4000 part 9	Δun	1974	40 68
Synthesiser, polyphonic part 1	Dec	1980	87
Synthesiser, polyphonic part 2	Jan	1981	77
Synthesiser, polyphonic part 3	Feb	1981	32
Synthesiser, polyphonic part 4	Mar	1981	27
Synthesiser, Project 80 - Dual VCA	Aug	1980	78 70
Synthesiser, Project 80 - monitor amplifier	Anr	1900	79 50
Synthesiser, Project 80 - PSU, VCO and VCLFO	Feb	1980	62
Errata	Mar	1980	15
Synthesiser, Project 80 - VC envelope shaper	Jul	1980	88
Synthesiser, Project 80 - VC envelope shaper	Sep	1980	93
Synthesiser, Project 80 - VCF	Mar	1980	20
Synthesiser, Project 80 - VC state variable filter	Jul	1980	84
Synthesiser sequencer	May	1981	36
Synthesiser, string (ETI Sorcerer) part 1	Aug	1985	36
Synthesiser, string (ETI Sorcerer) part 2	Sep	1985	48
Synthesiser, string (ETI Sorcerer) part 3	Oct	1985	32
Synthesiser, Transcendent 2000 part 1	Jul	1978	38
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Touch organ	Dec	1976	41
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Transcendent DPX string synthesiser part 2	Sep	1979	62
Transcendent DPX string synthesiser part 3	Oct	1979	35
Transcendent DPX string synthesiser part 4	Nov	1979	64
Transcendent Poly Synth part 1	Dec	1980	8/ 77
Transcendent Poly Synth part 3	Feb	1981	32
Transcendent Poly Synth part 4	Mar	1981	27
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Twonky-MPU musical box	Feb	1979	79
Victory organ part 1	Feb	1983	19
Victory organ part 2	IVIar Apr	1983	30 56
Victory organ part 4	лрі Мау	1983	67
Vocoder part 1	Sep	1980	58
Vocoder part 2	Oct	1980	40
Vocoder errata	Apr	1981	8
Voltage controlled digital oscillator	Mar	1985	16
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Project

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Exposure meter	Feb	1976	46
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Flash sequencer errata	Aug	1983	70
Flash trigger	Dec	1979	97
Flash trigger	Oct	1980	30
Flash trigger	Jul	1983	70
Photographic process timer	Aug	1972	38
Photo process controller	Feb	1987	41
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Printimer - 1 ¹ / ₂ - 3 minute timer	Nov	1974	44
Printimer - 1 ¹ / ₂ - 3 minute timer errata	Dec	1974	71
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80 metre direct conversion receiver part 2	Jun	1986	44			
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Air band converter	Dec	1979	76			
AM/FM radio	Nov	1984	21			
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Chipmunk FM / AM radio	Jun	1978	79			
Chipmunk FM / AM radio errata	Jul	1978	7			
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Digital radio dial	Jan	1979	49			
FM stereo tuner part 1	Feb 198	Feb 1987 46				
FM stereo tuner part 2	Mar	1987	34			
Headphone radio, AM	Aug	1976	34			
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Marker generator	May	1976	25			
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RF power meter	Oct	1978	30			
Speech compressor	Oct	1979	47			
Star Trek radio	May	1978	62			
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Two metre power amplifier	Sep	1976	19			
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Digital PWM interface for the robot motor controller	Jun	1982	66
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PROJECT **MIDI MASTER KEYBOARD**

John Yau continues his MIDI keyboard with a description of the all-important CPU board and the front panel.

aving put the keyboard together, the major part of the MIDI Master Keyboard should be assembled - the controlling CPU and its associated electronics.

The CPU is a 6502A microprocessor and it looks after the entire keyboard (Fig. 1). The majority of the circuitry is on two boards - the CPU board and the Front Panel board. The latter is largely a base for all the front panel switches and displays. The CPU board is the most complex board and is a double sided PCB.

The MIDI Master Keyboard is implemented in a simple 6502 memory map (Fig. 2). All the interfaces for the keyboard itself, the front panel, the MIDI interfaces and so on are mapped into specific location in the memory map and the whole system controlled by a monitor program in ROM.

Construction

The CPU board is the most complex board as far as



Fig. 1 The block diagram of the ETI MIDI Master Keyboard.

component count is concerned and with the added fact that it is double sided, it demands much care and attention if it is to be assembled correctly.

The first task is to insert and







Figure 3 shows the circuit diagram for the CPU board. C3, R16 and D1 form a simple power up reset circuit that is used by the 6502A and also the 6522A VIA. IC1a and IC1b form a 4MHz crystal oscillator. IC2a divides the latter signal by two to form the 2MHz clock for the 6502A. Further division of the 2MHz clock signal is performed by flip flops IC2b and IC3a to obtain the 31.125kHz clock signal used by IC4, the 68B50 ACIA.

Address decoding for the CPU is performed by IC9, IC10, IC11 and IC12. The address decoding enables all the peripheral devices to be memory mapped within the 6502A's address space.

The monitor program for the processor resides permanently in EPROM, the device used being a 16K 27128 EPROM (IC17). A 6116 2K CMOS RAM chip provides the required RAM workspace. Since the size of the monitor program is only about 2.5K of 6502 code, using a 16K EPROM may seem a bit of an overkill. However, the larger EPROM was chosen to give scope for expansion (such as storage of voice dumps for particular synthesisers) and also because of the relatively small price difference when compared to smaller devices.

6522A VIA Functions

IC18 is a 2MHz version of the 6522 Versatile Interface Adaptor (VIA), the 6522A. The device takes up 16 locations in the 6502's memory address space and these are accessed when using the device's dual 8-bit ports and on-board timer. The 6522A is configured to perform two functions.

Scanning of the data entry and function push button key-pad is achieved by the two I/O ports. The 6522A's timer is responsible for generating the clock signal which interrupts the 6502A processor every 2ms. Virtually all the system software is interrupt driven, due to the demands of scanning the keyboard at the precise time intervals required for the key velocity sensing.

8255 PIA Functions

IC19 is an 8255 Peripheral Interface Adaptor (PIA) interfaced to the 6502A through four memory mapped locations. These addresses are the 8255's three 8 bit I/O ports and its control register.

The RD and WR signals for the device are derived from the 6502A's Phi-2 clock and R/W lines using IC1c, IC8a and IC8b. In use, the PIA is configured simply as three 8 bit output ports which are used to drive the LED displays of the MIDI keyboard.

solder all the through-pins. Refer to the component layout diagram (Fig. 6) and use double sided veropins. Make sure that *both* sides are soldered. Making doubly sure that the through-pins are correctly soldered will save a lot of time and frustration later on. It

The Keyboard

The multiplexer circuitry for the key scan hardware was described last month. In order to maximise speed and efficiency in the key scanning each key address is made to appear as a direct memory location in the 6502's address space (from 0800H to 0847H). The timing diagram for accessing the state of each key is shown in Fig. 5.

Two successive memory read cycles are required, the first being a dummy read that causes the address of the key to be latched at IC6, a 74LS373 octal latch. As there are only 72 keys to be addressed the most significant bit of the latched address will always be zero.

By the time the following read cycle occurs the two bit word describing the state of the key will be valid at the inputs of IC15, a 74LS244 tri-state octal latch whose output is connected to the processor data bus. It is necessary to latch the key address rather than to engage in a single read cycle because the CMOS multiplexer device outputs are unable to settle within the maximum 310ns access time of a single 6502A read cycle.

The MIDI Interface

Transmission of MIDI messages is achieved by IC4, a 68B50 Asynchronous Communications Interface Adaptor (ACIA). Note the device has to be a 'B' version in order to be compatible with the 2MHz 6502A. Only two memorymapped locations are required for full communication with the device.

When a single byte of MIDI data is to be transmitted it is simply written to the 68850's transmit data register by the 6502 processor. The 6502 can then resume its other tasks whilst the ACIA has the job of converting the parallel data to a serial output of one start bit, eight data bits and one stop bit at a baud rate of 31.125K — the standard MIDI data configuration.

Inverters IC5a, b and c are of the open collector type and are used to form the current loop required for the serial link with an external MIDI device. Both MIDI OUTs are identical, the dual output may be useful in avoiding having a large number of MIDI devices being daisychained from a single MIDI OUT. Using two MIDI OUTs in a star configuration, as was shown last month, greatly reduces the inherent delays in MIDI data propagating itself through the MIDI devices.

The receiver part of the ACIA is not used, since the keyboard does not make any use of the received MIDI data.

only takes one side of a throughpin to be overlooked for the board to malfunction.

Solder in all the IC sockets next. Some of the tracks between the IC pins on the PCB are rather fine, so be careful not to accidentally bridge any of them



with solder when mounting the IC sockets.

Next, solder in the multi-way connectors. Ensure their orientation is correct and keep the contact with the soldering iron to a minimum, so as not to soften the plastic and bend the pins.

The other components can then be mounted, starting off with the resistors, followed by the capacitors, diode and presets. Make sure that the orientation is correct for the electrolytics and diode. Note that a few of the components require their leads to be soldered to the PCB on *both* sides.

Finally, insert all the integrated circuits and, as always, ensure correct orientation. Finish off by cleaning the board with flux remover and check thoroughly for any shorts which may be caused by stray blobs of solder.

Front Panel Board Assembly

The front panel PCB holds the display driver and display circuitry as well as functioning as a mounting base for the bank of push buttons.

First of all, solder in the links as shown in the layout diagram (Fig. 7). Follow this with the resistors, diodes and IC sockets, making sure the diodes are correctly orientated.

The dual 7 segment display plugs into a 24 pin DIL IC socket mounted on the PCB. Since the display device package only has 18 pins be sure that it is plugged into the socket correctly. It should occupy the leftmost position when the PCB is viewed from the component side.

The next components to be added should be the push buttons. To achieve best alignment





HOW IT WORKS FRONT PANEL

Figure 4 shows the circuit of the front panel board and the joystick control section of the CPU board.

Scanning of the push button key-pad is achieved by the diode matrix circuit comprising D2-30, SW1-29 and R57-64. Port A of the 6522A VIA is configured to be an input port, and the low nibble of port B is configured for output. By reading the value of the data presented at port A, whilst one of the switch matrix rows is pulled low (strobed) by the relevant bit in port B, the state of all the switches in that row can be examined.

For example, if the binary number 11111101 was placed in port B, the second row of the switch matrix strobed and the value of data from port A were say 11110111, then it can be deduced that the numeric button 4' was being pressed.

Such circuits are commonly found in 'QWERTY' keyboards, but there are problems using this type of circuit for scanning the music keyboard as well. Full polyphonic scanning of the keyboard is awkward to achieve and the large number of diodes required would be undesirable.

The 8255 PIA on the CPU board drives the LED displays on the front panel. Port A data goes to the two 74LS47 seven segment display driver devices (IC22 and 23) on the front panel PCB, which in turn drives the dual digit display on the same board. Ports B and C drive the single LED displays via inverter buffers IC24 and 25, a pair of 7405s. To light up a LED, logic one has to appear at the relevant bit. The inverter then sinks the current required to illuminate the LED.

HOW IT WORKS - JOYSTICKS

Joystick Interface

The joystick interface has the task of enabling the 6502A processor to digitally read the positions of two joysticks. Both mechanical assemblies of the joysticks have 5k linear rotary potentiometers coupled to the joystick lever pivot points. The joystick assembly intended for the pitch bend has a self centering lever whilst the modulation joystick is of the ratchet type.

Since the full travel of the joystick assembly is only about 20% of the full potentiometer track there are added complications if we are to ensure that the maximum deviation of the joystick position will correspond to the maximum digitised value of 255 from IC13 (a ZN448 8-bit A/D converter).

The ZN448 is configured to use its own internal voltage reference of 2.5V. This voltage reference is also fed to the top end of the joystick potentiometer tracks. If the minimum joystick deviation corresponds to an output of 0V at the wiper then at the other extreme position the output voltage will be approximately 20% of the reference voltage — about 0.5V.

To utilise the full dynamic range of the A/D converter an input voltage of 2.5V is required when the joystick is at full travel. This is achieved by amplifying the wiper voltages before they are presented to the input of the A/D converter. IC20a and IC20b form two non-inverting voltage amplifiers with gains that can be fine adjusted by preset trimmers RV1 and RV2.

When the pitch bend joystick potentiometer on the prototype master keyboard was set to give a 0-0.5V range at the wiper it was found the neutral position did not correspond to the expected voltage of 0.25V, resulting in a slightly assymmetric deviation of voltages when moved from the centre to the extremes of travel. This is because

the potentiometer track is not completely linear throughout the whole of its span. In order to minimise this non-linearity it was necessary to move the working part of the potentiometer track to roughly its middle region. In such a set-up the wiper voltage is in the range 1.0-1.5V when the joystick is at its lowest extreme of travel. The latter displacement voltage must be cancelled out so that the correct range of 0-2.5V appears at the A/D converter input. This is achieved by imposing a DC offset at pin 6 of IC20b, resulting in a voltage subtraction of approximately 1.2V at the output of the op-amp.

iC14 is a 4051 used as a two input analogue multiplexer. PC7 from IC19, the 8255 PIA, selects one of the two joystick voltages to be presented to the input of the A/D converter (pin 6). The A/D converter appears to the 6502A processor simply as a single memory mapped location (0B00H). Writing to 0B00H initiates a conversion start and after the conversion time span has elapsed (approx. 10us) the data can be read from the same location.

For a given joystick position the data read from the A/D converter should always be exactly the same in the ideal case. This would allow the software to transmit the relevant MIDI information only when the joystick position has just changed. However, in reality the least significant bit can fluctuate in successive readings for certain joystick positions due to the limited resolution of the A/D converter. A solution to this problem is to collect successive sample readings and take the average, thereby greatly reducing any occasional perturbations in the data. The software fix was found to be quite effective, although it effectively resulted in a reduction in the rate at which the joystick positions were scanned.



of the push button bank, the switches should be soldered to the PCB fully assembled, complete with the key cap tops. Solder the push buttons one by one, making sure the positioning is straight and square.

There are three wiring harnesses which span from the front panel board to the CPU PCB. Each harness should be soldered directly onto the relevant pins and terminated with a female multi-way PCB connector. As with the keyswitch PCBs, the wiring has to be directly soldered onto the front panel PCB (rather than using multi-way connectors) due to lack of clearance when the board is mounted in position in the keyboard cabinet.

Follow the component layout diagrams of both the front panel board and the CPU board to ensure correct connector orientation. Cable length should be such that the wiring reaches the CPU board easily from the front panel board when the two boards are in their final mounting positions within the keyboard cabinet.

After plugging in the ICs, all that remains is the wiring of the two harnesses for the LEDs. Wiring should be direct to the board or via veropins. Be careful with the LEDs' orientation as it's very easy to get one of them wrong (see Fig. 7). Use solid insulated wire for the anode connection to give the LEDs a more definite mounting base and position the LEDs with the final front panel positions in mind (see Fig. 9).

That completes the construction of the CPU and front panel boards. Next month we shall look at the power supply board and wire up all the boards together. We shall also see what kind of cabinet is best suited to the MIDI Master Keyboard.







PARTS LIST - FRONT PANEL

RESISTORS R29-42, 45-56 R43 44	330R 140	LED8, 11 LED12	Yellow LED Double digit 7 segment display
R57-64	33k		(common cathode)
CAPACITORS		MISCELLANEOU	s
C18	220u 16V electrolytic	PL2,4	12 way PCB connector
	1	PL3	8 way PCB
SEMICONDUCT	ORS		connector
IC22, 23 IC24, 25	74LS47 7405	SW1-24, 28, 29	Push button switch
D2-30	1N4148	SW25-28	Foot switch
LED1	Amber LED	SK9-11	¼in jack socket
LED2, 5-7, 9	Red LED	PCB; IC sockets;	PCB through pins; nuts
LED3, 4, 10	Green LED	and bolts.	





FLAME SIMULATOR

Pretend arsonist Gary Hynes puts realism into electric fires, candle bulbs, and other pseudo-flames with this ingenious device.

There are many household appliances which require a simulated flickering flame. 'Olde' pseudo-candle lights (such as 'carriage' lamps) and many electric fires simulate flames either with bulbs using thermal cutout filaments (effectively glassencapsulated car flasher units!) or by mechanical means consisting of complicated motorised reflectors.

The problems with both of the methods are twofold. First, these methods of flame simulation are unreliable. The mechanical means often jam and the reflectors soon lose their gleam inside an electric fire. The flicker filaments soon over-flick and die.

These flame simulators also suffer from a severe lack of realism! Both produce a pretty regular flicker — quite unlike a real flame.

This device is the all-electronic solution to these problems. The unit uses an ordinary mains bulb of 60W or less and flickers it in an apparently totally random manner. In between the flickers the bulb is still lit dimly and this also helps to more realistically imitate a flame's light dance.

Operation

A simplified block diagram of the circuit is shown in Fig. 1. The circuit is based around a pseudo random sequence generator (PRSG) which generates an apparently random sequence of bits (ones and zeros) at the speed of the clock oscillator.

The sequence is in fact not truly random. It actually follows a continually repeated set pattern. However, if the sequence is made long enough the repetition cannot be noticed and appears as random as a flame. The PRSG is formed by a

The PRSG is formed by a 20-stage shift register. Outputs from the 17th and 20th stages are

fed to the inputs of an exclusive OR gate and the output from this is fed back to the input of the first stage.

The feedback connections are critical if the maximum sequence length is to be achieved. This is known as the maximal length.

The calculations for finding the



Fig. 1 Simplified block diagram of the flame simulator.

The circuit diagram of the flame simulator is shown in Fig. 2. The mains voltage is stepped down by transformer T1 to 6V AC, full wave rectified by diodes D1,2 and smoothed by capacitor C1 to provide a DC supply of about 7V to power the circuit.

HOW IT

Note that the 0V line is connected directly to the neutral of the mains. LED3 is connected across the supply to indicate the unit is on.

The 20 stage shift register is formed by two ICs. IC1 is a 4006 shift register that provides the first 18 stages while IC2 is a 4013 flip flop providing the 19th and 20th stages. The set and reset inputs are disabled by connecting them to 0V.

The outputs from the 17th and 20th are exclusive ORed by IC3a and its output is fed back to the data input of the first stage via coupling capacitor C5.

R7 and C5 prevent the possibility of the PRSG 'hanging up' permanently in the all-zero state. If this happens C5 will begin to charge through R7 until evenconnections necessary for maximal length are complicated and beyond the scope of this article. What's more they are usually avoided anyway, by repetitive interactive calculations giving a look up table.

The output from the EXOR gate is fed to the gate of a thyristor. During the negative half cycle of the mains the thyristor is turned off and the diode conducts, lighting the lamp dimly.

conducts, lighting the lamp dimly. If the thyristor receives a one on its gate from the PRSG during the positive half cycle then it will conduct, lighting the lamp more brightly. When a zero is received the thyristor turns off during the positive half cycle and the lamp remains dimly lit.

The resultant effect is a lamp that flickers in a random manner. The flicker rate may be adjusted to give the most realistic flicker for the application by changing the oscillator frequency clocking the shift register. **WORKS**

tually a logic one is fed to the input of the first stage restarting the sequence.

A variable frequency oscillator, adjustable from 200Hz to 2kHz, is formed by EXOR gates IC3c and IC3d, C3,4 and RV1 connected in the well known CMOS oscillator configuration. Because IC1 is clocked on a negative edge and IC2 on a positive edge the clock to IC1 has to be inverted by IC3b.

The output from IC3a is a random sequence of high and low logic levels. These are fed to the gate of thyristor SCR1 via R3,4. In between 'on' flickers the lamp is kept glowing dimly by diode D4 which conducts during the negative cycle of the mains.

['] If during the positive cycle the gate of SCR1 receives a high level from the output of IC3a then SCR1 will conduct lighting the lamp brightly.

R2 and C2 form a snubber suppression circuit which controls the maximum rate of change of voltage and the peak voltage across SCR1.



Construction

The component overlay is shown in Fig. 3. All the components except for the LED are mounted on the single PCB. This is divided by the transformer into two halves — one the mains voltage 240V section and the other the control circuit. However, the entire board is connected directly to the mains input and should not be handled when the unit is plugged in.

Begin by connecting the DIL sockets. Then mount the resistors, capacitors, diodes, the preset, the thyristor, suppressor, transformer and fuse clips. The ICs should be inserted last of all. As these are CMOS devices, normal anti-static precautions should be observed.

The prototype was mounted in a plastic case measuring 150 x 80 x 50mm. If a metal case is used it must be properly earthed. Care should also be taken to ensure the mains is connected the right way round.

Mains input is from an ordinary three-pin plug and the output is connected to a suitable holder for the lamp to be used. Cables in and out of the unit should pass through grommets.

Testing

Connect a lamp to the output and the unit to the mains and switch on. If all is well the LED should light and the lamp will begin to flicker.

If this does not happen switch off, unplug the unit from the mains and check for errors. The flicker rate should be adjustable by the preset RV1. This should be adjusted when the unit is unplugged or with an isolated tool (and with care!).





PARTS LIST

RESISTORS	all ¼W, 5%
R1	560R
R2	100R (see text)
R3	6k8
R4	1k0
R5	10k
R6,7	1M0
RV1	100k horizontal preset
CAPACITOR	5
C1	680u 16V electrolytic
C2	100n (see text)
C3	22n polyester
C4	3p3 cerámic
C5	1u0 16V tantalum
SEMICOND	UCTORS
IC1	4006
IC2	4013
IC3	4070
SCR1	C106D thyristor
LED1	Red LED
D1,2	1N4001
D3	1N4007
MISCELLAN	EOUS
T1	6-0-6V mains transformer
C2,R3	contact suppressor
PCB; case; 50 sockets; 3 am	00mA fuse and fuse clips; IC p mains cable; lamp socket.

BUYLINES

All the components are easily available from the usual suppliers. The case used is not critical and will depend on the application of the circuit. The mains transformer is available from Maplin (type number WBOOA) as are R2 and C3 - the encapsulated snubber circuit (type number YR90X).





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HI-FI POWER METER

Paul Chappell builds the ultimate power meter that puts all others to shame and is the definitive upgrade for top-flight Hi-Fi.

ast month I described the three kinds of power associated with electronic circuits — apparent power, real power and reactive power. I also offered a few thoughts on deriving signals to drive the meter without disturbing the signal from the amplifier.

The method eventually chosen was to detect the magnetic flux around one of the speaker leads by means of a ferrite toroid wound with a suitable pickup coil. The result is this month's project — a power meter for top flight hifi equipment.

The Circuit

The final circuit of the power meter is shown in Fig. 1. I say final because it passed through a

HOW IT WORKS

The amplifier current is sensed by current transformer T1 and the voltage by C4 and C5. The sensing arrangement has a number of advantages. The primary concern is to not disturb the signal from amplifier to speaker in any way. The second is that the power meter should not be influenced by the DC voltage levels of the amplifier output — a failing of most other power meters. The use of a transformer and capacitors gives complete isolation.

The voltage is processed by an instrumentation amplifier consisting of IC3a, b and c. This arrangement gives the same input resistance on each lead, rejects voltages common to both and amplifies the difference. RV2 trims the circuit for best common mode rejection.

The multiplier, IC2, has been described in detail in the text. Its output currents are processed by IC4a to give a single ended voltage output centred on 0V. Power consumed by the load causes the mean voltage level at the output of IC4a to fall, drawing current from RV4 and R26.

This current is applied to the meter via R27, which allows the output of IC4b to operate at a higher voltage level than would be possible if the meter was connected directly across the IC.

In combination with D1, R27 also limits the maximum reverse current that can be applied to the meter under fault conditions.



number of stages of development before reaching its present form.

To derive a signal which is a true reflection of the amplifier's current output, the toroid coil must be terminated by an extremely small resistance. Experiment showed that a few ohms would introduce significant phase shift in the current signal. Since a 3° shift between the voltage and current signals will result in a multiplier error of 5%, the phase is quite critical. To meet the performance criteria I set myself for this project, the resistance had to be one ohm or less.

less. There is no reason why a physical resistor of small value shouldn't be connected across the coil. The current signal can then be detected as a voltage across the resistor and amplified to a usable level. This is the approach taken in the circuit of Fig. 1, and it gives excellent results.

It must be said, however, that this approach is not ideal. As far as the coil is conc rned, R1 should be as small as possible but to achieve a good clean signal with the minimum of noise, R1 should be fairly large. This conflict means that the choice of value for R1 is something of a compromise.

An attractive idea would be to feed the coil into some kind of electronic circuit which would maintain both ends of the secondary at the same voltage and sense the current directly. A great deal of effort was expended in trying to achieve this and anyone faced with a similar problem may be interested to know what not to try.

Currant Sauce

Having a requirement for a current amplifier, or a current to voltage converter, of fairly exacting specifications brings home the lack of ICs designed to process currents rather than voltages and the grossly inadequate performance of the few that do exist. It soon became clear that the matching would have to be achieved with the common or garden VCVS op-amps.

A current summing junction can be made without difficulty — Fig. 3a shows the general idea. The positive input of the op-amp is grounded, the negative input is held at 0V by the action of the feedback resistor. The secondary of the transformer 'sees' a short circuit and the output voltage is proportional to the current



through R and therefore to the current through the transformer. It seems perfect.

The killer here is the op-amp's offset voltage. In an attempt to maintain its inputs a few mV apart via the very small resistance of the coil, most of the amplifier's output current capability can easily be used up and a large voltage offset will be generated across R.

Offset trimming can reduce the problem to managable proportions but the DC stability would get very little help from the feedback loop and so offset drift with time and temperature would make the circuit totally unreliable. Introducing a capacitor in series with the transformer is out of the question because of the phase shift and resonance peak that would be introduced.

The underlying characteristics of the circuit are so close to ideal



that it seemed to be well worth the effort of trying to get around the offset problem. The circuit of Fig. 3b gave quite encouraging results. In this the offset is cancelled by maintaining the mean level of the output at zero using a second op-amp. The compromise between settling time and low frequency phase shift was on the borderline of acceptability and it seems likely that replacing the integrator with a second order low pass filter would give a viable circuit. However, concern with phase, even below 20Hz or so, led

to an alternative solution.

Although an op-amp will have difficulty in cancelling an offset of a few mV, it might more easily cope with a few uV. Op-amps with input voltage offsets of the order of a few uV do exist but you'll need a second mortgage to be able to afford one. However, there are some reasonably priced amplifiers which include an internal auto-zeroing circuit.

Such amplifiers vary in detail from device to device but the essence of their operation is that the signal is processed by one amplifier whilst a second amplifier alternately cancels its own offset and the offset of the main amplifier, switching at a rate of 1kHz or so.

Unlike the circuit of Fig. 3, the offset is sensed at the input rather than the output and some fiendishly clever circuitry prevents the input signal from being



mistaken for an offset (at least it does in the Intersil ICL7650 but since the data book does not include the circuit of the IC, I can't be more specific about its operation).

A circuit based on the ICI7650 gave good results but was very sensitive to component values and lacked the solid and reliable 'feel' that a good circuit ought to have (or so John Bird tells me). On balance the circuit of Fig. 1 gave the best and most reliable results, and so was chosen for the final version.

Go Forth and Multiply

Togive a power reading, the voltage and current signals have to be multiplied together. There are several ways to achieve this. One possibility would be to use a pair of log-law amplifiers, sum the outputs, then apply the result to an anti-log circuit.

This would give single quadrant multiplication and with a bit of clever switching this could no doubt be extended to a full four quadrant multiplier. However, the thought of the half dozen or so critical adjustments is enough to make anyone shudder, let alone the complexity of the resulting circuit!

Most ETI readers will be aware that transconductance amplifier ICs will multiply after a fashion and they are commonly used for this purpose (see the power meter in ETI March 1984, for example). Better results can be achieved with the various special purpose multiplier ICs. The Intersil ICL8013, the Motorola MC1494/5 and 1594/5, the Analog Devices AD531/2/3/4 are some examples.

These devices are split into two main groups — most use techniques similar to the transconductance amplifiers, while a few are based on a translinear cell as shown in Fig. 4. If the transistors are perfectly matched, the relationship $I_1 \times I_2 = I_2 \times I_3$ holds between the collector currents of the four transistors, giving the basis for both multiplication and division. The matching requirement means that it is not practical to build an accurate multiplier from discrete components (unless you are prepared to sort and test a bag of 1000 transistors!) but in an IC linearity of 1% or better can be achieved without difficulty.

The multiplier chosen for this project was a Silicon General SG1495, which is a transconductance type. With careful choice of components it has very good linearity. It is also readily available and not too expensive. The main rival was the ICL8013, which is easier to use and requires fewer external components (IC4a and its associated resistors in Fig. 1 would not be needed, for instance), but the superior high frequency performance of the SG1495 tipped the balance in its favour.

Figure 5 shows a simplified version of the internal circuit of the SG1495. This circuit is the basis of almost all transconductance multipliers and



almost certainly used in the AD534 and similar devices.

provides an XxY output at pins 2 and 14.

Construction

Winding the toroidal transformers is the most time consuming part of the construction, but it's worth taking some time over it. Cut off about 8ft of 0.1mm enamelled wire and tack one end to the core with a little superglue, leaving a tail of two or three inches for connecting to the PCB. The first 99 turns out of the

The first 99 turns out of the 100 total are the worst. You'll have to feed the entire length of wire through the toroid, being careful not to get kinks in it, and not to wear away the enamel by scraping it on the core. Patience!

Wind as evenly as possible around the core with no lumps of wire in one spot and bald patches in another. Bring the coil to an end with another tail of two inches or so, about 5mm from the first. Hold it in place with another spot of Superglue.

Solder one end of the primary (0.4mm enamelled wire) to the PCB at point A. Thread it through the centre of the toroid and then through hole B, smoothing it / down so that it forms a neat and fairly tight loop over the top of the secondary winding. Solder the ends to the PCB.

Thread the secondary connections through holes C and D and solder in place. The toroid should be held quite firmly in place by these connections. If not, another dob of Superglue will do the trick.

The preset pot positions on the PCB allow for either carbon skeleton presets or open cermets to be used in the outer holes, or enclosed cermets in the inner holes. I would recommend the enclosed cermets, but if the bank balance won't stretch that far, carbon types will do. (You can always 'upgrade' them later!).

The transformer is held in place on the PCB by its pins. For domestic use this should be all the support it needs, but if you intend to hump the meter around for use with PA or group gear, I would advise giving it extra anchoring with four N0.6 x %" self-tapping screws, which fit into the corners of its case. You may also like to fix the smoothing capacitors firmly with some double sided adhesive pads.

Details of front panel arrangement are for you to choose. You can follow our layout



PARTS LIST RESISTORS (all 1/4W 5% carbon film unless specified) R1.101 0R22 metal film R2,102 470R metal film R3,103 470R R4,104 47k 1% metal film 24k 1% metal R5,105 film R6,8,106,108 470k R7,9,107,109 22k 180k R10.110 R11-15,111-115 47k R16,116 39k R17, 18, 19, 117, 118, 119 3k3 R20,21,25,120,121,125 10k R22,23,26,120,123,126 2k2 R24,124 2k0 R27,127 8k2 R28.128 4k7 Choose to suit R29.30 backlighting RV1,2,101,102 10k horiz. preset RV3,103 , 500R horiz. preset RV4,104 5k horiz. preset CAPACITORS C1,3,101,103 10n ceramic C2,102 4p7 ceramic C4,5,104,105 470n 100V AC polycarbonate C6,7,11,12,106,107 10u 16V tantalum 470u 16V C8,108 electrolytic C9,10 2200u 25V electrolytic SEMICONDUCTORS NE531 IC1,101 IC2,102 SG1495 **TL074** IC3,103 NE5532 IC4,10,4 IC5 7812 IC6 7912 **D**1 1N4148 **DIL bridge B**R2,1 rectifier Miscellaneous 1mA FSD meter movement M1,101 SW1/101 4 pole 2 way switch T1,101 see text **T2 PCB** mounting mains transformer 6VA 0-15,0-15 from the photograph, or alter it to

from the photograph, or alter it to suit yourself. A suggested layout for the internal wiring is shown in Fig.7. If you don't follow it exactly, there are a few things to bear in mind.

Keep the mains wiring as far away as possible from the sensitive parts of the PCB (the toroids and IC1). Keep the range switch connections as short as possible. Don't foret to fit a fuse and a good earth connection to the case.

Use the best meters you can afford for the project — they are the main limiting factor in the



Fig. 6 Component overlay for the power meter.

accuracy. The ones we used were from Electromail, and with all the accessories they cost about £30 each.

There is no need to follow our example. Any 1mA meter movement will do but to use a £5 'budget' movement would be spoiling the ship for a ha'porth of tar.

If the meters you use have provision for back lighting, a supply for this purpose is available on the power supply section of the PCB. The resistor values you need will depend on

BUYLINES

The parts for this project are almost all obtainable from Electromail. The transformer is stock No. 208-282. The case we used was a Centurion instrument case, type DX5, from Cirkit. The toroid is the only part likely to cause problems. Cirkit should be able to help here. The PCB is available from the Ell PCB Service.

the choice of bulb, but I'm sure I don't have to tell ETI readers how to wire up a light!

Setting up

Before turning on the meter set RV1 (RV101) and RV2 (RV102) to mid position, RV3 (RV103) to minimum resistance and RV4 (RV104) to maximum. Disconnect both meters and turn on the power. With your multimeter on the 10mA range, check that both meter outputs are giving less than 1mA. If it won't go low enough, turn off the power and check the circuit thoroughly.

Adjust RV3 to give a zero current reading. Set your multimeter to the 1mA range, connect up your amplifier and loudspeaker and check the reading rises as you turn up the volume.

Disconnect the loudspeaker but leave your amplifier connected. Set your multimeter to a sensitive current range (100uA or less). Set RV3 to give a reading roughly in the centre of the meter scale. Turn up the volume control on your amplifier watch for any movement in the meter needle. RV1 must be set so that with no speaker connected, the output remains constant regardless of the volume setting on your amplifier.

With RV1 at one end of the scale the meter will move in one direction as the volume increases. At the other end of the scale the meter will move in the opposite direction. Somewhere in the middle, it won't move at all.

Each time you try a new setting for RV1, adjust RV3 to bring the meter needle back to centre scale and turn the amplifier volume up and down. When you find the position where the meter needle does not move, you've found the correct setting for RV1.

Having set RV1, adjust RV3 to give a meter reading of zero with your amplifier disconnected. Connect up the power meter's own meter movements. Connect a 10 ohm resistor across the output of the power meter. I would



suggest using the 17 watt ceramic resistors available from Electromail — a pack of 5 costs around £1.50. Use a series/parallel arrangement of four 10R resistors to give a 10R resistor which can handle 68W.

Connect a sine wave oscillator or signal generator to the 'Aux' input of your amplifier. A suitable sine wave oscillator was given in last month's article. Connect your multimeter across the resistor on at least a 20V AC voltage range and turn up the amplifier's volume control until it reads 20V. At this point you can set the meter to read 40W on the 50W range by adjusting RV4.

If you are lucky enough to have a meter with an accurate AC current range, you can connect it in series with the 10 ohm resistor and, with the amplifier volume control in the same position, make a current reading (Don't burn your fingers on the resistors!). Multiplying the current you get by the 20V you set will give you a power reading independent of the accuracy of the resistor value. Set the power meter to the result of your calculation via RV4.

Only one calibration is necessary. The meter should now read correctly on both power settings. If you are keen to check, you can make readings at other power levels and make sure that the power meter agrees. Either multiply the RMS voltage and current readings together, or square the voltage reading and divide by ten (for a ten ohm resistor).

You'll notice I haven't said anything about setting RV2. This makes very little difference to the readings, and should be left at the centre of its travel. If you are a perfectionist and have a signal generator and oscilloscope, you can set it up (before making any of the other settings) like this.

Short together the speaker connections on one channel, then connect your signal generator between these connections and the PCB ground. Connect your oscilloscope to display the output from pin 14 of IC3 and adjust RV2 for the minimum output. Then do the same for the other channel.

If you would like to check that the meter does indeed reject the reactive component of the power, you can try running it with a capacitor across the output. A quick search around with your 'scope will show that voltage and current signals are present in the power meter circuit, but the meters move not a jot.



OPEN CHANNEL

ong ago the term was VANs (value added networks). These were communications-based networks connected to the existing public telephone network which could be accessed by individuals or organisations and which added value to the network. In other words, any network which a user can dial into through the PSTN videoconferencing, teletex (not teletext that is), certain viewdata networks and electronic mail services, and so on.

Because the term didn't appear to be including data networks and maybe for a few other reasons, too, the Department of Trade and Industry have started to call such networks VADs — valued added and data services. The DTI policy since renaming these networks has also been to broaden the categories of services which are included under the banner, such that any bureau holding a database of any description which can be remotely accessed over the PSTN is now classed as a VAD.

Under the old VAN title, it was often taken that the network must be accessible with the user's own data equipment. But the VAD title no longer assumes this. In fact, even good old TIM, the speaking clock (a database by any other name?) is now a VAD.

A special programme, recently launched by the DTI to promote VADs is a good source of information for prospective users. Contact: DTI, Information Technology Division, 29 Bressenden Place, London SW1E 5DT.

The Number Game

At one stage, it was thought that users dialing into or out of Mercury Communications telephone network, which is rapidly being constructed to compete with BT's PSTN, would have to dial a prefixed number before the actual telephone terminal number.

If a Mercury user in London wanted to call a BT user also in London, the Mercury user would have to dial the London prefix (01), then the BT user's normal seven digit number. This has all changed.

Mercury has always fought against a prefix, on the grounds that a user's telephone number is the property of the user - not the service provider.

The fight has now paid off. A recent agreement between BT and Mercury gives Mercury users numbers of the same form as BT

users. The other telephone network service providers, on the other hand (Vodofone and Cellnet) have no such agreement and their users are still lumbered with required prefixes (or is it prefices?).

All In the Exchange

Many moons ago, I reported on a new type of telephone exchange connection which could effectively decimate small to medium users' telecommunications bill. It was to be called Centrex.

Generally, exchange connections at present are through private automatic branch exchanges (PABXs). With a PABX, a company has an internal telephone network, with a number of extension terminals but only a restricted number of exchange lines. The number of extensions and the number of exchange lines depends directly on the PABX used. To dial another extension, a user simply dials the extension user. Dialling out onto the PSTN, however, is a matter of dialling a prefix number (typically, 9) to get 'an outside line', then dialling the required telephone number. Users can either buy or rent the PABX equipment.

With Centrex, on the other hand, no PABX equipment is required. Instead, part of the local exchange becomes allocated to the user as a quasi-PABX. This means that all 'internal' calls as well as those dialled out are actually made through the local exchange. This, in turn, means that a greater number of exchange lines are required, but generally costs will be down.

Centrex also has the advantage of flexibility. Some services which cannot be included through a PABX (or which can only be included if the PABX is highly specialised) can easily be incorporated via Centrex. Furthermore, the addition of extra extensions or facilities (say, if the user's company is growing) can be incorporated without delay or the need to exchange obsolete equipment.

Although commonplace in (guess where!) North America, it's taken a bit of time to reach the UK. However, it's looks as though Centrex is on its way here at last. Users should be on the look out for Centrex services (probably launched in the City of London) by the start of next year.

PLAYBACK



The imminent arrival of DAT (digital audio tape) on the consumer market has record companies worried. They believe that DAT will encourage home copying on such a scale that record, cassette and CD sales will slump. There are reports of an effective 'spoiler' system, which protects copyright recordings with a signal in the audio band.

Such a signal could not be (illegally) filtered without damaging the audio quality but it is claimed not to affect the sound otherwise. An audio signal which can neither be heard nor filtered seems a remarkable thing.

This and DAT

DAT is a system for recording sound to 16-bit accuracy on a small format tape cassette, using a rotating, helically scanning head. Playing time could exceed two hours, as against 70 minutes on a Compact Disc. However, players are likely to cost around £800 and may not be available for one or two years yet.

The market penetration of CD is so far only around 5%. A representative of the British Phonographic Institute (BPI) tells me this is because most people will happily listen to poor quality sound — a factor which also allows bootleggers and home recording to flourish. But, she said later, DAT, with its CD-like quality, will encourage a boom in home taping.

Home taping, says the BPI, is far more of a problem than bootlegging (unlicensed copying of recordings for resale). The record industry believes that six times more music is copied in the home that is actually bought. 81 million blank cassettes were imported last year. Many of these are used for computing and for copying speech and noncopyright music but the record industry knows that people are taping records at home because they admit it. It would like them to stop.

The industry has an important point in its favour. Its expenses are vast. An enormous amount of money is needed to sponsor, develop, record, promote and market the artistes who bring in the capital. It the customers steal the product without paying for it, one day there will be no industry and no product. Everybody loses.

The record industry has pressed for a levy on blank tape



to cover lost royalties. This has not happened yet but legislation is under consideration in the UK, the USA and in the European Parliament.

DAT worries them even more than this. They want to forbid the manufacture or import of DAT recorders unless these incorporate a circuit inside the main LSI chip which will search for a special signal in new copyright material, and switch off the recording.

DAT manufacturers say that they will use a different sampling rate from CD, so that direct digital recording will not be possible. The signal will have to be converted to analogue and back. In this case, any spoiler using signals outside the audio range can be thwarted by filtering out the signals.

The spoiler system invented by CBS works by cutting a notch out of the audio spectrum at a frequency above the top fundamental of most instruments. The notch is switched in and out in a pattern that the recorder recognises.

Already, there is a bizarre rumour that non-protected recordings will be made available, at a much higher price.

The record companies are also worried that even if DAT is 'spoilt' it will split the market away from their investment in CD. This is not a problem for the Japanese because CD has already peaked there. Their manufacturers need DAT as the next boom item.

Myopia

Trying to raise market share by restricting access to new media strikes me as a short sighted view. I doubt that there is a one-to-one relationship between records casually copied and lost sales. Buyers have only so much money to spend and most would rather choose a properly packaged piece of vinyl for essential musical purchases, only making-do for non-essentials. If the going gets tight, they are likely to decide that they can do without.

The record companies have principle on their side but there does seem to be a place for allowing customers to copy their purchases for private use, if only to maintain a degree of goodwill towards the music business in general. If a consumer industry wages war on the consumer both sides are likely to lose. DAT will lead to MAD.

ALF'S PUZZLE

KEYNOTES



The news that Alf was leaving came as a shock to all of us. Things just won't be the same around the ETI offices without his coffee stains on our circuit diagrams and his half baked ideas to keep us all amused. 'Never mind, Alf,' we told him. 'One day next week we'll have a surprise party for you.'

That very afternoon, John Bird came across Alf looking utterly miserable. 'Cheer up, old chap,' said John. 'You can always change your mind, you know.'

'It's not the thought of leaving that's upset me', moaned Alf. 'It's just that I've worked out that there won't be a party for me.'

'What makes you think that?' asked John. We've told you we're going to arrange one for next week but we can't tell you the day or it won't be a surprise.'

'That's just it,' said Alf. 'If it's got to be a surprise, I can't have a party at all. If you arrange it for Friday it won't be a surprise because on Thursday I'll know that it must be tomorrow. But if you arrange it for Thursday, it won't be a surprise because on Wednesday I'll know that it can't be on Friday, and so I'll be expecting it on Thursday. But since it won't be a surprise if it happens on Thursday or Friday, on Tuesday I'll know it's got to be on Wednesday, so that won't be a surprise either. The same applies to Tuesday, so I'm expecting the party on Monday. But then if it is on Monday that won't be a surprise either, so I can't have a surprise party at all.'

'I dare say you're right,' said John.

Alf's party was on Thursday, and since he wasn't expecting one at all, he was surprised!

April's Puzzle

If you followed the reasoning behind the April issue puzzle, I'm sure you have had not the slightest difficulty in spotting the fallacy. If you complete the loop in Fig. 1a (reproduced from last month), the distortion is actually halved, not reduced to zero (Fig. 1b). It seems that we are still getting something for nothing - half the distortion without loss of gain. Is this an improvement on negative feed back or just another illusion? (The reduction in distortion is real enough, but is the apparent advantage over NFB genuine?) I'll leave you to work out that one for yourselves.

In case you think the bizarre conclusions are a result of Alf's 'muddling', here's a little sleight of hand without the controversial imaginary input. First of all, take Alf's circuit and decide what you'd like the output to be. Let's say a sine wave. We don't know what the input is at the moment, so we'll just call it v(t). Fig.1c shows that Alf's circuit will feed an input of 2v(t)-sin(wt) to the input of the amplifier (I've made it unity gain and got rid of the resistors for clarity - you can put them in if you like).

If we feed the output back to the input we now know what v(t) is: it's sin(wt). The input to the amplifier is now 2sin(wt) - sin(wt)= sin(wt), giving an output of sin(wt) which is fed back to give an input of sin(wt), which produces an output of sin(wt).

OK, so there's nothing special about a sine wave generator, but I chose the sine wave completely at random. A lucky choice? Try it with a square wave, or anything else you choose — it will sustain any waveform whatsoever! The ETI universal function generator will not appear as a project, for reasons I'll leave you to work out for yourselves.





Frederick the Great, King of Prussia, was a busy man well known for his success in military defence strategy and international politics. Despite these obviously taxing commitments he was also a highly competent and active musician with a keen interest in any new music technology.

When a brand new synth known as the Piano-Forte came on the market, King Fred bought one immediately and was so enthralled by its sound synthesis capabilities that over the following years he purchased no less than 14 more in order to stay abreast of endless design updates.

Piano's soon became all the rage in Europe. Even J.S. Bach dropped in at the palace one evening to try them out. The rest, as they say, is history.

The piano has either two or three oscillators per note, a velocity-sensitive keyboard and a single (preset) output filter. Timbre is essentially fixed, envelope control limited, recalibration is required frequently, transportation is impractical and MIDI retrofits are unavailable.

It is therefore rather interesting to note that the machine is still widely acclaimed to be the best keyboard around and remains in production today, even in Japan.

It has to be said that there is more to the popularity of the piano than mere conservativism or nostalgia — beyond any shadow of a doubt its sound has a subtle and elusive quality that seems to defeat the best electronic instruments altogether.

Unnatural Practices

It is often argued that electronic instruments are unnatural. All musical instruments are contrived artifacts which at their time of development represented high technology.

It is normal for any new type of instrument to have its own characteristic sound and certainly this has always been true of synths. A synth sound is almost invariably recognisable as such and certainly not displeasing when used with creative imagination in an appropriate musical context.

The saxophone, electric guitar and synth have all been initially blamed of sounding unnatural, before being granted a grudging acceptance into the world of purists and stuck-in-the-muds. But the story does not quite finish there.

Over the course of time public familiarity with electronic music has led to the use of the word electronic as an appropriate adjective to describe any sound that is monotonous and lifeless or machine-like. This sentiment is very widespread, and cannot be attributed entirely to unimaginative use of the instrument as has often been argued.

Good Character

Descriptions like *soul, character* and *expression* do no more than hint vaguely at the exact technical nature of the problem, even though their subjective meaning is intuitively quite clear. The best that we can do at the current time is to treat the output signal with chorus and reverberation effects in order to obscure its intrinsic deficiencies.

This state of affairs is indeed a poor show for a machine that originally held forward the promise of being able to synthesise any given sound.

Synthesis techniques are frequently pigeon-holed into three categories — subtractive, additive and contrived. Contrived techniques are pragmatically defined as those which do not fit in either of the other two groups and include methods such as FM, waveshaping and discrete summation formulae. However, there are not yet any popular techniques in any of the three categories which are capable of accurately modelling acoustic instruments in practice.

A possible exception is additive synthesis — the sledge hammer method of painstakingly building up a sound out of individual sine waves, each with its own intricate frequency and amplitude time envelopes. However, many acoustic instruments can only be satisfactorily imitated by specifying upwards of a hundred of such components, rendering additive synthesis as laborious to the musician as it is demanding of the hardware.

So what synthesis technique do acoustic instruments themselves use? Partial differential equations which 'acousticians' have not yet done enough work on.

Far from coming to maturity, music synthesis is merely leaving its infancy

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	OutputF
E8402-8	Modular Pre-amp Headphone
	Amp F
E8404-2	Mains Remote control Receiver
	F
E8405-1	Auto Light Switch F
E8405-2	ZX81 EPROM Programmer N
E8405-3	Mains Remote Control
	Transmitter H
E8405-4	Centronics Interface F
E8405-6	Drum Synth F
E8406-1	Oric EPROM Board O
E8406-2	Spectrum Joystick E
E8406-3	Audio Design RIAA Stage G
E8406-4	AD Buffer/Filter/Tone H
E8406-5	AD Headphone Amp F
E8406-6	AD Preamp PSU K
E8406-7	AD Power Amp H
E8406-8	AD Power Amp PSUJ
E8406-9	AD Stereo Power Meter F
E8406-10	AD Input ClampC
E8407-1	Warlock Alarm M
E8408-2	EPROM Emulator N
E8408-3	Infrared Alarm Transmitter E
E8408-4	Infrared Alarm Receiver F
E8409-1	EX42 Keyboard Interface F
E8409-2	Banshee Siren Unit F
E8410-1	Echo Unit F

E8410-2	Digital Cassette DeckN
E8410-3	Disco Party StrobeH
E8411-5	Video Vandal (3boards) N
E8411-6	Temperature Controller D
E8411-7	Mains Failure Alarm D
E8411-8	Knite Light D
E8411-9	Stage Lighting Interface F
E8411-10	Perpetual PendulumE
E8412-1	Spectrum Centronics Interface
	·
E8412-4	Active - 8 Protection Unit F
E8412-5	Active - 8 Crossover F
E8412-6	Active - 8 LF EQ F
E8412-7	Active - 8 Equaliser F
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E8502-2	Data LoggerJ
E8503-1	Combo Preamplifier F
E8503-2	THD Meter mV & oscillator
	bds (2 boards)K
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F0(07)	(Stereo)G
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	Elamo Simulator
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Digital Audio Selector (November/December 1986 and January 1987)

In Fig. 5 (December 1986) the resistors shown as R14 and R114 should be R19 and R119. This error is continued in the discussion of gain setting in the January 1987 issue.

The DG507A IC used in the prototype came from Farnell Electronic Components of Leeds, Tel: (0532) 636 311 Farnell normally deals only with trade customers but private orders are sometimes handled at the company's discretion. Trilogic of 29 Holm Lane, Bradford BD4 OQA, Tel: (0274) 684 289 will obtain any Farnell component to order on payment of a 25% handling charge. The Farnell order code is simply the full device number DG507ACJ.

Biofeedback Monitor (December 1986)

The capacitor C4 is shown the wrong way around in the component overlay diagram (Fig. 4).

The Intelligent Call Meter (December 1986)

The hex dump listing of the ROM for this project (Table 3) was badly printed. The byte at location BF should read ?F.

The Better Flanger January 1 1987)

In the circuit diagram (Fig. 2) D1 is not labeled. This is connected to Q1. In the component overlay (Fig. 5) several components are missing. A link should connect the two pads to the left of C1. Q1 is situated next to D1 and connection point P4 is situated between R16 and R33. In addition, the positions of R16 and C11 should be swapped.

Photo Process Controller (February 1987)

In the circuit diagram (Fig.2) the cathodes of diodes D3,5 are shown connected to OV. They should connect to the junction of R16,17,18. In the overlay diagrams (Figs. 3 and 5) the flying leads are numbered incorrectly. Leads 7, 8, 9 and 10 at the top of Fig. 3 should be numbered 16-19. In Fig. 5 leads 6 and 8 from the top of R13 should be numbered 16 and 17. Numbers 9 and 10 from Q1 and Q2should be 18 and 19. In addition the leads 11 and 'A' should be swapped.

Capacitometer (March 1987)

The circuit diagram (Fig. 1) should show pin 1 of IC1 connected to OV. The zener diode (ZD1) should be connected between the junction of R10/R11 and OV. The PCB foil is correct.

BBC Micro MIDI Interface (April 1987)

IC7 and IC8 (the 6N139 opto-isolator ICs) are missing from the parts list. In the Buylines section it is incorrectly said that these are available from Electromail as part 302-126. The isolator is available from Maplin as part number RA59P. Resistors R8.9 are missing from the overlay diagram (Fig. 4). These are located in the two pairs of pads below IC6. There should also be no OV connection to the MIDI IN sockets, only to the OUT sockets (pin 2 so as to prevent earth loops.

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BC182B BC183 BC183B BC212 BC212 BC212B BC213B BC213B BC213B BC214 BC327 BC337 BC548 BCY70 BCY71 BD131	12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 12 1	OPTO ISOLATORS TILTIL111 transistor o/p TIL 113 Darlington o/p 3021 Triac driver LEDS T1% 5mm	5 110 120 150	14/0 35V 14/F 35V 2.2uF 35V 4.7uF 35V Ceramic 220pF 500V 470pF 500V 1000pF 100V 2200pF 100V 4700pF 100V	10 15 20 6 6 6 6	S F Hori Vert	KELETO PRESETS zontal ical	N 5 19 19
BD132 BD135 BD136 BF258 BFX85 BFX85 BFX50 BFY51 BFY52 TIP31 TIP31A	60 34 35 60 40 40 37 37 39 42 48	Red Yellow Green Super bright t1% 5mm Red	18 18 18 35 ES	741 18 555 30 556 65 LM301 28	LINE NE5532 NE5534 ZN414 ZN416	ARIC 120 80 90 160	LM308 TL081	70 50
TIP31B TIP31C TIP32A TIP32C TIP33A TIP41A TIP42A TIP3055 TIP2955 ZTX300 ZTX500 2N3053 2N3054 2N3054	56 54 42 100 63 55 76 17 17 60 160	BZY88C 500m W 4V7 10V 12V BZX55C 500m W 24V BZX85C 1.3 Watt 4V7 10V 12V 24V	10 10 10 20 20 20 20	B.T. API B.T. Statesman with B.T. Viscount with las B.T. cordless Freeway base paging,	PROVEI last number redia st number redia	J TEL Jial Sto Bro Mar I Beig Rec Whi courity code	EPHONI ne 31.26 wn 31.26 Grey 31.26 ge 26.04 Grey 26.04 Grey 26.04 ite 26.04 wd, last number re	ES dial with
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Due to lack of space the foil for the front panel board from the MIDI Master Keyboard has been held over until next month.



The foil for the budget power meter which was incorrectly given half full size last month.



The Flat Alarm foil pattern.



The topside foil for the MIDI Master Keyboard CPU board.



The solder side foil for the MIDI Master Keyboard CPU board.



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