

# ELECTRONICS & Wireless World

JANUARY 1986 95p

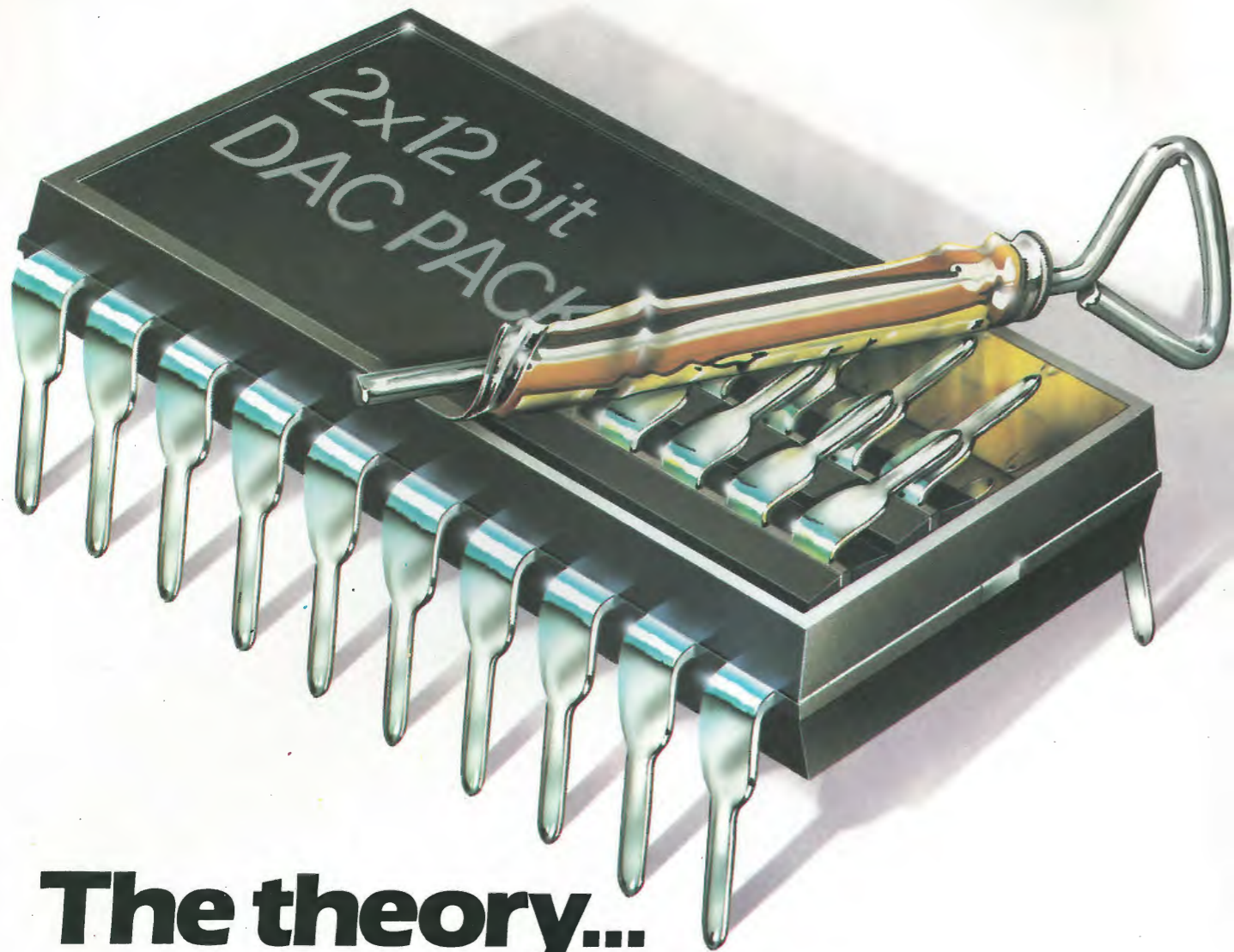


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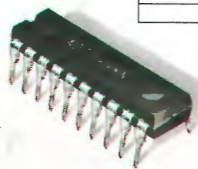
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# ELECTRONICS & Wireless world

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## Von Neumann's elephants

It is fifty years since the publication of Alan Turing's seminal paper, *On computable numbers*, which is generally considered to signal the birth of modern computers. It embodies the system known as Von Neumann's computer architecture, which incorporates sequential programs and can still be recognized in the latest computer devices.

All the major integrated circuit manufacturers have now announced their 32-bit processors. These can access millions of bytes of memory and their operation is measured in 'mips' — millions of instructions per second. As each of the instructions can offer the functions of three or four of the instructions on their predecessors, this makes them even faster. Because they are so fast, they can do several

tasks apparently simultaneously by switching rapidly between them.

All this seems very impressive. But why is there a niggling feeling that they are not as good as they seem? Perhaps it's because they are, in the final analysis, just inflated versions of the earliest processors.

At the same time some (mostly much smaller) manufacturers have been looking at new concepts and several have now come up with reduced-instruction-set computer (r.i.s.c.) processors, which tackle the problem in a very different way. They divide the data up into little packets and attach labels to them: the labels direct them through the chosen processes and reassemble the processed data. No longer do they have to queue up to go through the

mill, however fast it may be; and, as the tasks assign the labels, the computer can do several different things concurrently. Consequently, processes are very fast and efficient. Another difference is that they are designed to run a specific low-level language and do not have to include all the instructions that may be necessary to be universal devices. Most of the high-level languages can be compiled and run on these devices and it is possible to use them exactly as if they were the universal devices of the other manufacturers. They also use very-large-scale integration with a similar complexity in circuitry and occupy much the same area of silicon.

So why should anyone bother with the new r.i.s.c. processors? The reason lies in the future. Many computer

scientists have complained about the built-in limitations of Von Neumann's 'architecture.'

It may be possible to make conventional processors even larger (64-bit devices are already under development) and even faster by reducing the physical size on the silicon chip and/or by using gallium arsenide but the basis on which they are built is now fifty years old. The r.i.s.c. devices point forward to a new technology, a lateral step in the evolution of computer science.

If the early microprocessors can be likened to mice, then the new generation have grown into elephants. The escape from the limitations of Von Neumann's system heralds the 'fifth-generation' computer much more than advances in very-large-scale-integration in silicon or gallium arsenide.

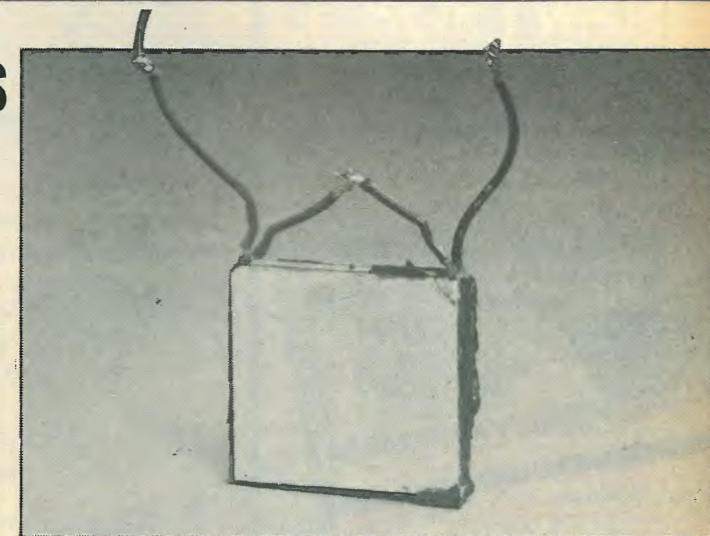
## Thermal semiconductors

A solid-state heat pump is being developed and manufactured in the UK by a US Army general. When Werner von Braun's rockets became too hot he called on a major in the US Army to help provide cooling equipment. The major, now General Laurance Davis, devised an electronic device for cooling the rockets. Since his retirement from the army, he is marketing commercially the device for which he is the patentee. The device is a wafer made up from tiny cubes of crystalline metallic bismuth, doped to provide a semiconductor action. 245 of the cubes are joined in series, alternately P and N-type material, to produce 488 p-n junction diodes. The chain of diodes is sandwiched between two thin layers of a ceramic material to produce a wafer, 50 by 50mm, about 2mm thick. When a direct current is applied across the wafer, one

side gets hot and the other cold. This is a similar action to that found in the Peltier bimetallic junction described in 1840, but that exercise was only of academic interest with a slight temperature difference. With a potential difference across the wafer of 6.5V, the cold side falls rapidly to  $-40^{\circ}\text{C}$  while the hot side rises to  $57.2^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Wafers can be cascaded to produce even greater temperature differences. When the current is reversed, the sides reverse their functions, the hot side becoming cold and vice versa.

Applications are numerous but a few interesting ones have been postulated:

A room heater could be about the size of a telephone, containing nine of the wafers. It should be able to heat an average room area and use 40% less power than conventional methods: An instant ice-cube tray will freeze water in less than a



A hand-made prototype heat-pump semiconductor wafer, consisting of 245 tiny cubes of doped bismuth, it can develop a temperature difference of  $97.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  between its ceramic checks.

minute: other domestic uses include refrigerators, freezers, plate warmers, slow cookers and some of the functions can be combined by using both sides of the wafers: for car heating or cooling the device uses practically no engine power while the conventional car air-conditioner can consume

up to 5bhp. The wafers can also be used for the refrigeration of food in transit, cooling electronic equipment, and in medicine for freezing tissue.

The wafers are still at the development stage. Factories are to be set up in London and the company expects to employ 1000 people.

## IEE and IERE to merge

Members of the Institute of Electrical Engineers and the Institution of Electronic and Radio Engineers are invited to take part in a debate on the proposed merger between the two. The councils of both institutions have welcomed the proposal but the final decision will be taken after special general meetings for each body to be held towards the end of 1986. If approved there would be a transitional period before the final merger which should take place towards the end of 1988.

The merger was the primary recommendation of a special working party composed of senior officers of both institutions. Their report stated that if the two institutions should come together, the new body would speak with greater authority to government, the Engineering Council and other organizations and the public. The combined institution would also have more authority in the international sphere. It would

offer better services and publications to its members; a strengthening and broadening of interests in electronics, communications, and information engineering; a common standard for chartered engineers' status; and a single body to accredit training courses and programmes. The working party was set up at the beginning of 1984 to explore the possibility and recommend terms for a merger between the institutions. The IEE has about 83 000 members and the IERE just over 13 000. 1111 members belong to both bodies.

The joint body will be known as the Institution of Electrical Engineers. The Institution was the first of its type in the world. The 1921 charter would be maintained with its precedence over more recent charters. However, the IEE will broaden its terms of reference to bring in the electronics and communications areas of the specialist members of the IERE.



Monitoring equipment at the Department of Trade's station near Baldock in Hertfordshire, which can cover the spectrum from 10kHz to over 12GHz.

## Radio spectrum guide

For the first time, the Government has made available a list of UK radio frequency allocations. In a 310-page paperback book, the Department of Trade catalogues the bands from 9kHz to 400GHz with their uses both in Britain and abroad.

For each band or sub-band, a table shows the UK assignments alongside a table of the corresponding ITU allocations. The guide describes in detail the band plans for some of the most widely-used radio services — though only for bands occupied by non-government users.

The new publication is one of the fruits of the Merriman committee's pressure for greater openness in radio administration. However, the ministerial instinct for

secrecy has ensured that large tracts of spectrum are labelled with nothing more specific than 'Government'.

Five annexes provide further information on bands available to certain services, including private mobile

radio, private fixed links, low-power systems, radio astronomy and amateur radio.

No regular updates of the guide are planned, though the Department intends to revise it in the event of any major reorganization of the spectrum. Minor alterations (such as the recent

introduction of a 50MHz amateur allocation, which, incidentally, came too late for the present edition) will be covered by amendment sheets.

The guide, United Kingdom Table of Radio Frequency Allocations, is published by Her Majesty's Stationery Office at £12.

## Structured systems aid efficiency

A greater understanding of the requirement of computerized tools for the support and development of data processing systems is provided by SSADM, structured systems analysis and design method. Developed for the Central Computer and Telecommunication Agency, SSADM has been used on nearly 200 projects in government departments and

is finding a wider market in the private sector. It provides a coherent, integrated set of standards, procedures, techniques and tools with the aim of achieving a significant reduction in systems development and maintenance costs.

The Agency is to collaborate with the National Computer Centre in the promotion, development and

support of SSADM by providing jointly Training materials and courses, books and reference manuals, and implementation support for new users. The collaboration should ensure the long-term availability and support for this method of operation and could lead to an integrated project support environment for the system.

## BT challenges

The de-nationalization of British Telecom also removed its monopoly on telecommunications and we have news of three services which are planning to compete with BT. Timeframe International, who are a major information provider on Prestel, are to set up their own public viewdata service. Their database will, they claim, overcome Prestel's shortcomings by eliminating delays in logging-on, and easing the routing to specific pages of information. There will be no page charges and information providers will be able to edit their own pages directly. The capacity of the system will be 17 million pages (Prestel has 1.5 million) and the prices will be "significantly cheaper" than those for Prestel. Telelink magazine who reported the story says that Timeframe will not officially confirm the launch of the database but that they have received undisclosed US backing to investigate such a service and that they have the capability to put it into action.

Telemessages, you will remember, have replaced telegrams in the UK. The message is delivered with the post rather than the old system of sending a boy round as soon as it is received. Microlink are planning to offer a telemessage service with which any micro/modem user can send a message direct from the home/office keyboard which will be delivered by the post the morning after transmission. What is especially significant is that they plan to do it at a fraction of the BT cost.

Comprehensive Communications is a company set up to market BATB approved telephone equipment under its own brandname. Their particular target is the home and small business market through a network of local authorized distributors and high-street shops. They have recruited two top salesmen, Clive Davison and Dennis Woolford, who were formerly senior managers at BT Consumer Products.

## Engineers better off

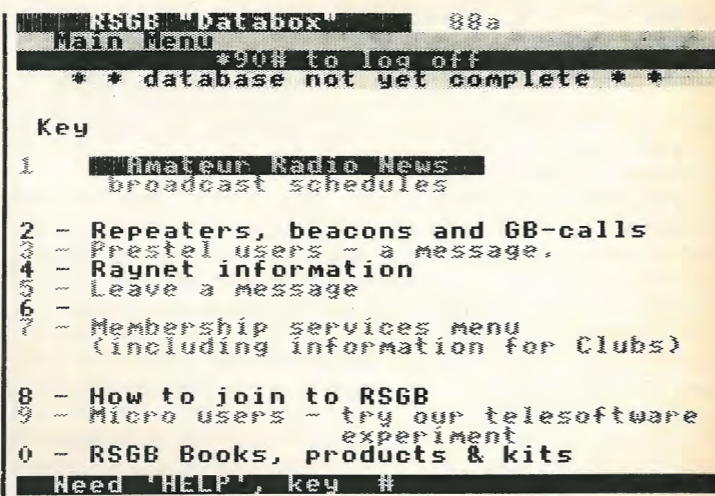
A survey by the Engineering Council has reported that more than 59% of chartered engineers now earn more than £15k, compared with 32% two years ago. The majority of them would happily recommend a career in engineering to young people. The 1985 survey of chartered and technician engineers questioned 28 thousand engineers, selected at random from the Council's register. Dr Kenneth Miller, director-general of the Council, said: "It is pleasing to note that earning have increased at a rate higher than inflation, and also that the level of unemployment is gratifyingly low among chartered and technician engineers — less than 1% at any time during the year."

73% of the chartered engineers were graduates and

their salaries tend to increase throughout their careers, while non-graduate engineers often show no real increase in earnings after their early forties. The highest earning were found in nationalized industries while the lowest were paid to engineers employed in local authorities. However just under half of the engineers surveyed were members of trades unions and over a quarter of these belonged to NALGO.

Supervisory staff and management administrators received the highest incomes; next were those in commercial or consultancy areas. The top paying industries, ranked in order were petroleum and petrochemicals, electricity generation, postal services, telecommunications and broadcasting.

CIRCLE 77 FOR FURTHER DETAILS.



A quick answer to many of the questions most often asked about amateur radio is provided by the Radio Society of Great Britain's new Databox service. The system contains up-to-date news of the amateur world and of the RSGB's activities and it even includes some telesoftware: if you have a Prestel-type terminal, call it on Potters Bar (0707) 52242.

## Don't send the bill, just the data

A joint venture between McDonnell Douglas Information Systems and BT is aimed at cutting the cost of business transactions. The new company, called Edinet, will provide electronic data interchange to give direct computer-to-computer exchange of business documents such as purchase orders, invoices and statements. Documents are coded in such a way as to reconcile differences between

computers and the physical layout of the document. The system has been successful in the USA where more than 200 companies are already connected to the network. The UK company will initially rely on US processing resources and be connected through BT's PSS data network. Potential customers will be encouraged to conform to the international open standards for document interchange as the Edinet service itself conforms.

A computer system designed specifically for training has been developed by Marconi Instruments. Mandarin incorporated a touch-sensitive screen and a mouse and moves from step to step according to the user's response.



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# Satellite TV System

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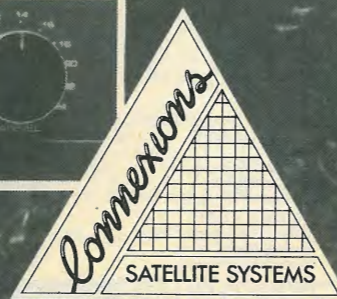
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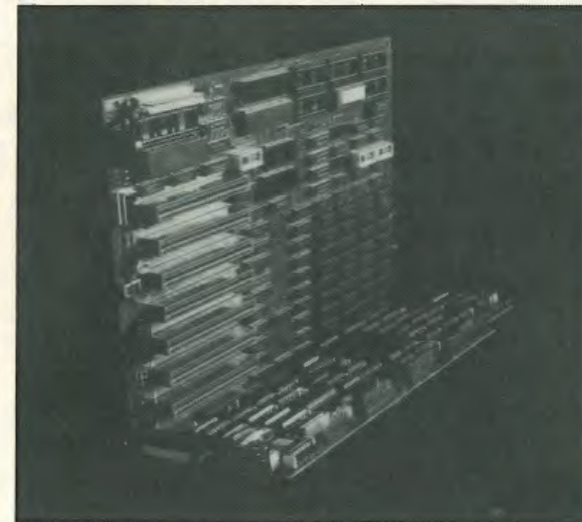
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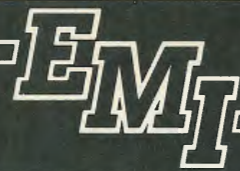
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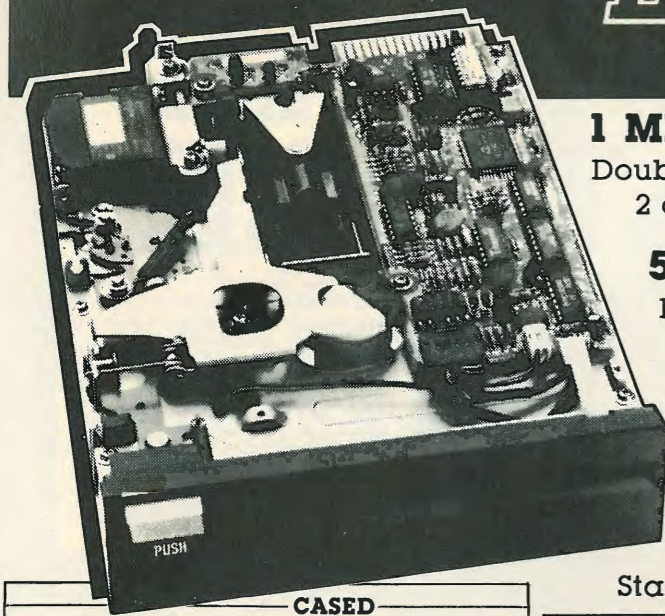
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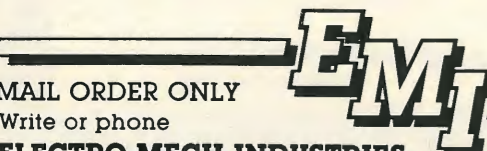
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by Charles E. Cooper

Remotely tunable antennas for frequency-hopping

PIN-diode selection of inductors allows antenna tuning at rates up to about 1000 per second

One of the means by which military communications are rendered secure against enemy eavesdropping is the process of frequency-agility or "hopping", whereby the carrier frequency is repetitively changed at rates of up to a thousand per second, according to some pre-arranged random pattern, between (for example) any of the 7000 channels spaced 25kHz within 225-400MHz.

broadbanded across the u.h.f. band 225/400MHz, within a v.s.w.r. limit usually 2.0:1. They commonly achieve power-efficiency better than 90% which, with the radiation pattern typical of quarter-wave unipoles, is equivalent to about + 2dBI (or 2 dB above the response of a theoretical loss-free isotropic radiator).

The basic v.h.f. band, 116-156MHz is similarly well covered but, as shown in the outline of Fig. 1(B), within housing shell heights of 35 to 40 cm, which has become more or less unacceptable for fast, highly manoeuvrable aircraft. Even within this height, extension to coverage of the full v.h.f. and maritime bands, 100-174MHz, requires that broadbanding techniques be supplemented by some degree of resistive damping, to maintain an acceptable limit of v.s.w.r. The same shell example has also been used to house separate radiating elements for the 100-174 and 225-400MHz bands, usually diplexed for on-



Fig. 2. Housing of antenna in vertical fin of PAH1 helicopter.

The pattern of frequency changes or "hops" can be varied whenever necessary to maintain security and must, of course, be known to and followed by both (or all) terminals of the intended communications chain. The system of hopping can be applicable whether the carrier conveys information by amplitude or frequency modulation, or as logic data.

All elements of the communication system must be able to produce or follow the frequency-agile carrier, including all antennas used for any combination of ground and air paths. Self-evidently, the antenna requirement for frequency-agile capability is most conveniently met by fully broadbanded designs, covering the full frequency range without tuning or other adjustment, in circumstances where acceptable dimensions make this possible.

Figure 1 shows the relative dimensions and form of a representative selection of antenna blade designs for airborne service. All of them are substantially two-dimensional, with cross-sections approximating to various aerodynamic standards. Outlines A and B are typical of various manufacturers' versions of well-proven solid-blade antennas which have been loss-free

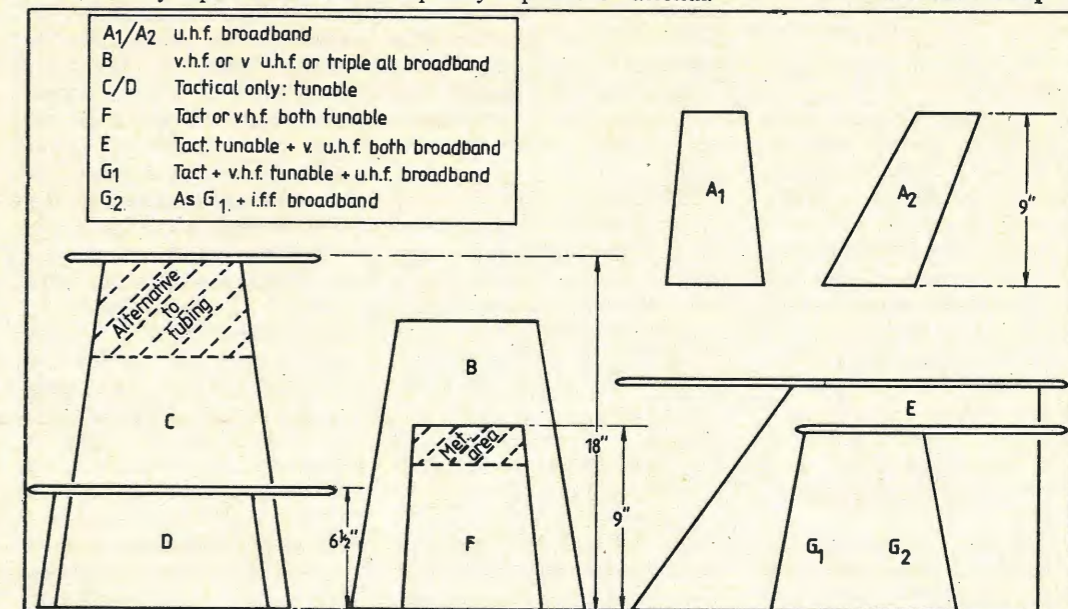


Fig. 1. Selection of blade antenna shapes.

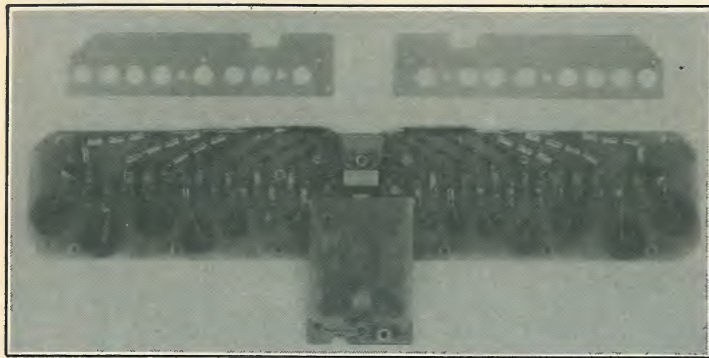


Fig. 3. Tunable dipole assembly to fit inside fin.

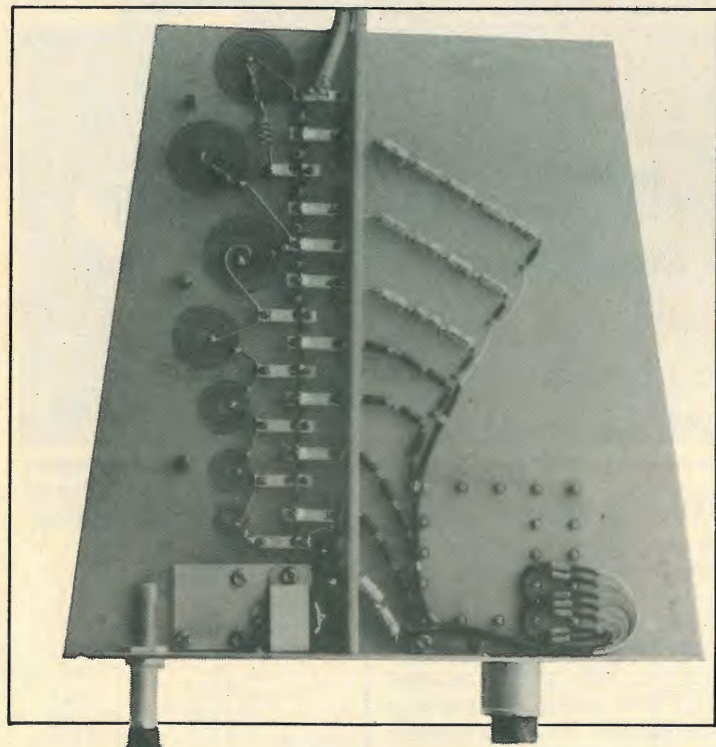


Fig. 4. Printed-circuit tuning assembly.

tor which inserts sufficient resistive loss to maintain v.s.w.r. below about 2.5:1. At 30MHz, the inserted loss reduces radiation capability to about -25 dBI.

It is perhaps a tribute to the sensitivity of current receivers that such abysmal antenna performance has been even moderately acceptable, but inevitable deficiency of communication range has produced demands for considerable improvement. Prior to the advent of frequency-agility, the requirement was met by antenna designs tuned via miniature high-vacuum, high-voltage relays but these were quite unable to cope with "hopping" systems.

Extensive new building of the MBB B0105 helicopter in its PAH1 military version pro-

vided the stimulus for first development of Tactical-v.h.f. antennas tunable for high efficiency, and controlled via PIN diodes for fast retuning. At this time, with only helicopter usage envisaged, the dimensional restrictions were not too severe.

Two variants were first produced: a unipole design housed within a glass fibre shell 46 cm high, as in Fig. 1(C) for fitting externally, and a dipole design in skeleton form to be housed within one of the two vertical stabilizer fins of the PAH1 helicopter. The close-up of the port fin, Fig. 2, shows the tunable dipole detailed in Fig. 3. It is basically a handed-pair of the printed-circuit tuning assembly shown in Fig. 4, used singly in the unipole version, and which is mounted on the cabin roof.

Accordingly, the 30-88 tunable antenna design form has been re-developed into a shell height around 22 cm, of the outlines shown in Fig. 1(F) and

The dipole radiates via metalized areas at top and bottom of the fin, while the unipole version radiates via a short length of metal tubing fixed to the top of the housing shell. A later version substituted an internal plate as the radiator. Altogether, about 800 of these two antennas have been in service on German and Spanish military helicopters, for periods up to three years.

Expressly for fitting underneath an aircraft type having very little ground clearance, the unipole variant shown in Fig. 5 was produced for housing within the 22 cm shell outlined in Fig. 1(D) again covering only the 30-88MHz band. Several skeleton versions of the unipole were produced for suppression within, for example, the fincaps of B.Ae. "Hawk" and Macchi MB329 aircraft.

The basic 30-88MHz tuning assembly was also fitted into externally-mounting shells large enough to house broadband v.h.f. and u.h.f. radiators, either separately fed, or diplexed to a common terminal. The example shown in Fig. 6, to the outline of Fig. 1(E) uses the forward tubing section as 30-88MHz radiator, with the shorter, aft section assisting radiation within the 100-174MHz band. This shell was designed with sufficient strength for service on very high-performance aircraft, but its aerodynamic effects have been considered undesirable except on helicopters or the larger fixed-wing aircraft.

Logistics favours commonality between equipment items fitted to the widest range of aircraft types, requiring that the larger market for helicopter antennas be met within parameters suitable for even the most manoeuvrable of fighter aircraft. This total requirement was at first approached by smaller versions of the triple-band resistive-damped antenna previously mentioned, with "gain" performance inevitably still further reduced to around -35 to -40 dBI at 30MHz, which brought forth many complaints about the limited communication ranges achieved.

Accordingly, the 30-88 tunable antenna design form has been re-developed into a shell height around 22 cm, of the outlines shown in Fig. 1(F) and

1(G). Both of these include tunable coverage of the full v.h.f. and maritime bands, 100-107MHz, with the antenna outlined as 1G1 also including broadband coverage of the u.h.f. band, both or all bands being diplexed to a common terminal. The version shown as 1G2 further includes the IFF band.

Considering the antenna as a heavily top-loaded monopole, a height of 22 cm results in the radiator impedance being capacitive across the 30-88 and 100-174 bands. With practical capacitance and dimensions of the top-loading conductor, it has a capacitance of some 10-15 pF to the airframe ground plane and, at 30MHz, its series-equivalent radiation resistance  $R_r$  will be only a smallish fraction of an ohm. To drive maximum current through  $R_r$ , the reactance  $X_c$  of the radiator capacitance must be balanced or tuned out by equivalent inductive reactance  $X_L$ , requiring some 2 to 2.5  $\mu$ H.

There is no practical and efficient means for varying the radiator capacitance enough to cover the resonant frequency range 30-88MHz and retuning is therefore accomplished principally by changing the value of the series inductance. The means chosen is diode-switched selection from a series-connected group of printed-circuit inductor spirals, having approximately binary-related values and providing setting-steps equal to the value of the smallest inductor. For a required total of, say, 2.4  $\mu$ H individual values will be in the series 1.2, 0.6, 0.3, 0.15 etc.

The original antenna of 46 cm height used six inductors, providing 64 possible combinations, and the bandwidth achieved for each setting varied from about 1.3MHz at 30MHz up to at least 6MHz around 80MHz. Tuning was in 1MHz steps, i.e. with each step covering 40 channels at 25 kHz spacing. In consequence of increasing bandwidth towards 88MHz, band-overlap provided considerable redundancy, needing only some 35 steps out of the 64 possible.

Height reduction to 22cm resulted in a lower value of  $R_r$ , in turn causing bandwidth to fall to about 0.5MHz at 30MHz and hence requiring improved resolution of tuning-setting.

This was done by the addition of a seventh inductor to provide a possible 128 combinations, and by extending tuning into the next decade, that is to steps of 0.1MHz, each now covering only 4 channels at 25MHz spacing. With both the 6 and 7 inductor units, preselection from among excess settings allows for optimization to suit the differing conditions of antenna mounting, particularly of ground-plane area.

With all discrete inductors shorted out-of-circuit, residual strays restricted  $F_{o(max)}$  to 88MHz for the 46cm version, but extended above 100MHz for the 22cm, 7-inductor version. For this latter to be extended up to 174MHz, a small capacitor was added into series with the inductor chain, to produce a second group of tuning-settings from combinations of the 3 or 4 smallest inductors. The additional capacitance is shorted out-of-circuit for operation at frequencies below 100MHz.

Much of the achieved performance is determined by manipulation of the unavoidable "stray" impedances and couplings, and is a reason for placing the larger inductor spirals at the elevated end of the series chain, where their capacitance tends best to supplement that of the radiator.

Switching-selection of the reactors utilizes the PIN diode characteristic of maintaining conductivity when signal-current peaks exceed, even grossly, the direct biasing current, provided that the average of current remains well in the conductive direction. The diode charge-storage must maintain conductivity for well above the period of the lowest operating frequency, in this case 30MHz.

Figure 7 shows the conductance characteristic of a suitable diode (though subject to special selection). Desirable increase of conductivity with increase of forward-bias current has to be offset against heat generation within the diode, with restricted opportunity to disperse this heat. Conversely, inadequate conductivity will represent a source of r.f. loss, which, under transmission power, will be an additional heat source. To whatever extent that the diode is imperfectly conductive, its non-linear characteristic generates har-

monics, which may well be the ultimate deciding factor in setting the bias level. Values of some 50 to 200 milliamps are used, achieving dynamic conductance values of between 1 and 2.5 mho.

In the reverse-biased non-conductive state, some 10-20 volts is adequate to prevent the diode imposing damping losses under small-signal conditions, and also to maintain diode shunt capacitance at an acceptably low and constant value, as shown in Fig. 8. However, with no current flow, the diode has no charge storage, and will conduct throughout any period when transmission power produces voltage peaks which oppose and exceed the d.c. turn-off bias voltage. Current flow during these periods will be small, due to the high impedances, and will augment the bias voltage through storage in the circuit capacitances. As a result, the apparently inadequate turn-off bias does not generate unacceptable levels of harmonic, although this has had to be reconsidered with increased severity of specification.

For the tuning settings which leave only a single inductor in circuit, this inductor and its shunt switching diode(s) will be subject to the full transmission r.f. voltage, as magnified by the circuit Q which results from the combination of L/C ratio, distribution of strays and by the sum of radiation and all other forms of energy loss. Q is highest for the larger inductors and can cause the r.f. to exceed the ultimate breakdown voltage of the diodes.

This voltage is therefore divided between two or more diodes, centre-tapping certain inductors to ensure equal division of voltage across each diode. A decrease in the effectiveness of shorting-out the inductor has to be accepted, since higher-voltage diodes tend also to be of lower conductivity, unless of larger area, in which case they produce a problem of increased shunt-capacitance. Everything is compromise!

Binary selection can result in both sides of a diode being at r.f. potential elevated from ground, and requires that the biasing feed be isolated to r.f. across the full frequency range covered by the antenna. This is accomplished by groups of r.f.

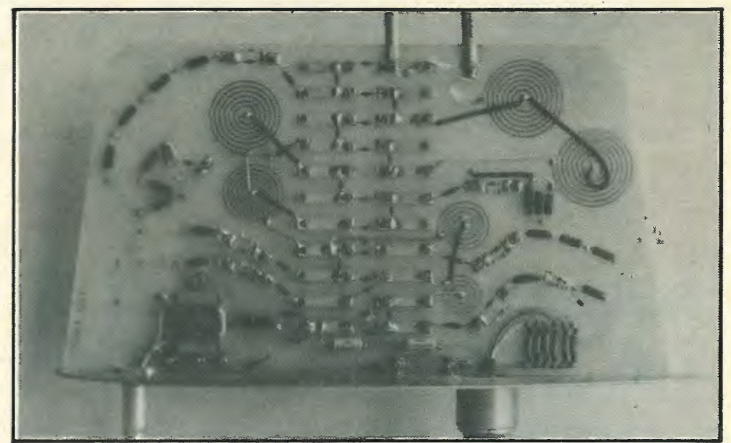


Fig. 5. Unipole version to fit in low-profile shell, covering 30-88 MHz.

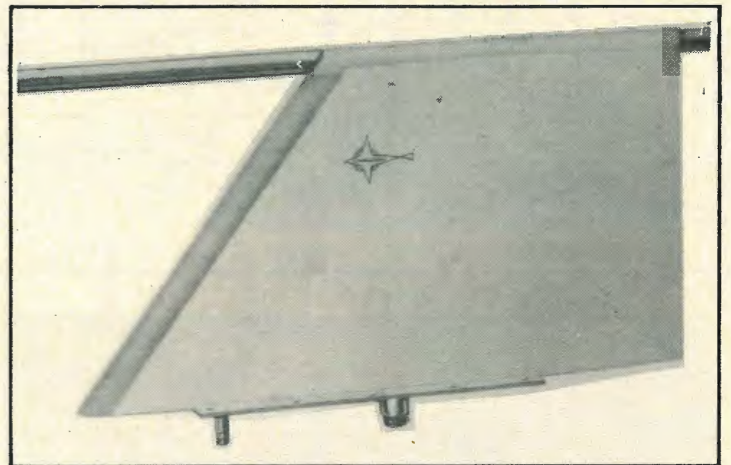


Fig. 6. Broadband u.h.f. and v.h.f. antennas

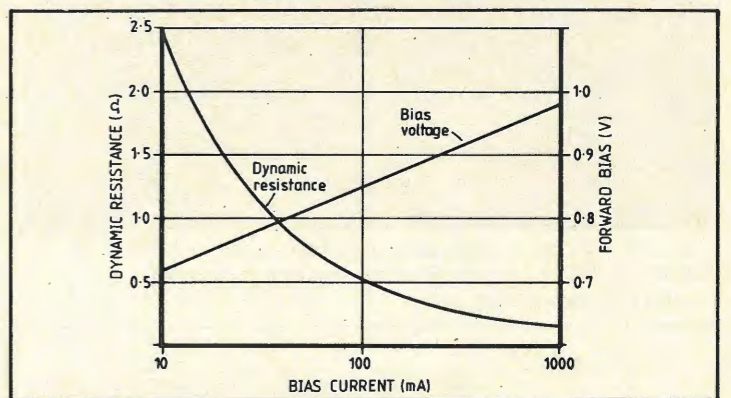


Fig. 7. Conductance characteristic of suitable PIN switching diode.

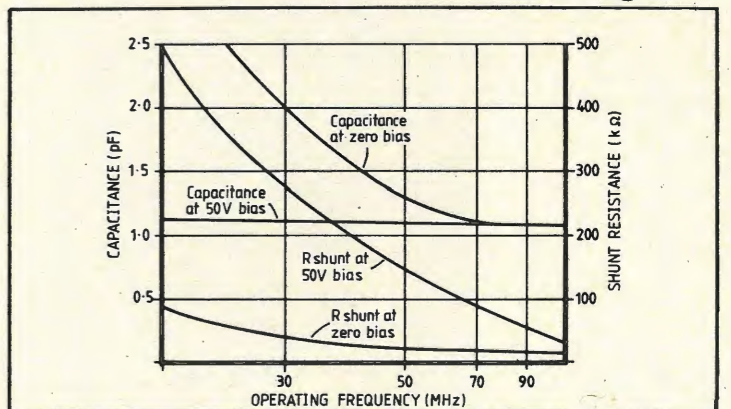


Fig. 8. Capacitance and shunt resistance of diode at varying frequencies, with bias voltage as parameter.

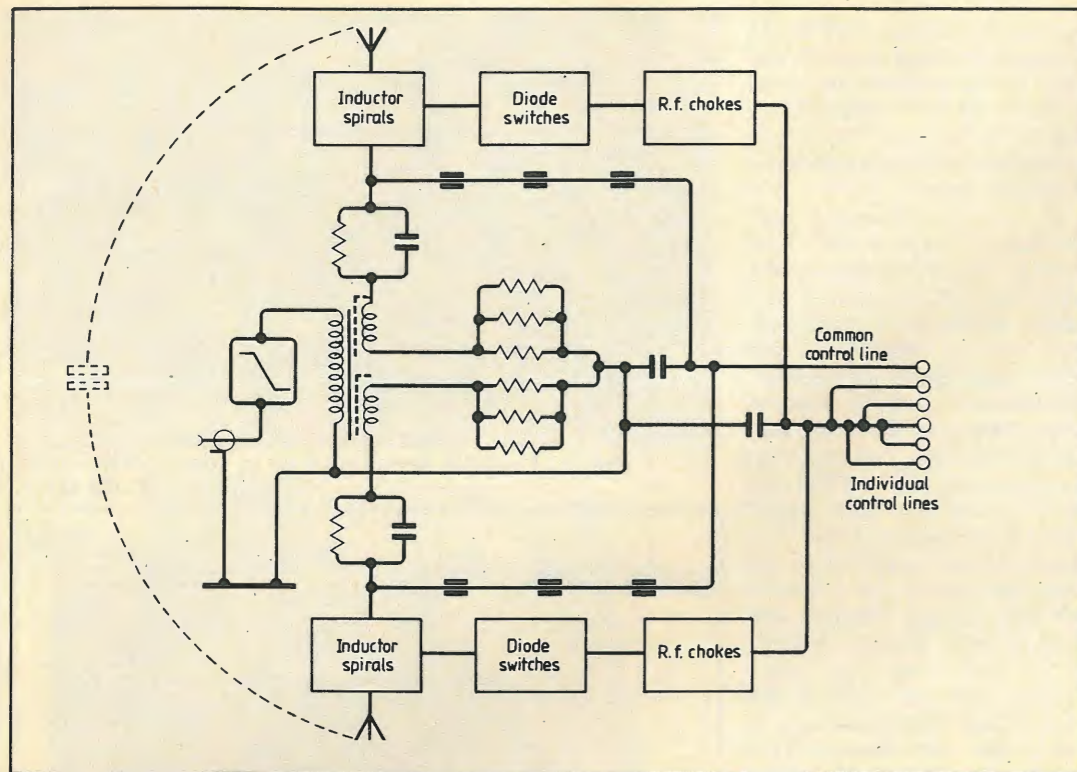


Fig. 9. Basic bias-feed circuit.

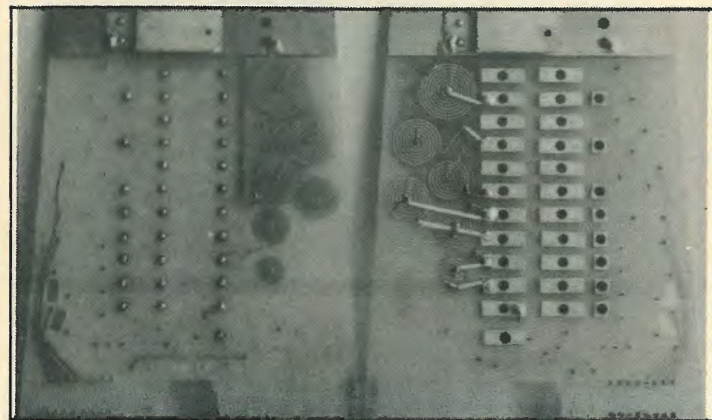


Fig. 10. Partly constructed antenna for 30-88 and 100-174 MHz bands. Metal coating provides radiating capacitance.

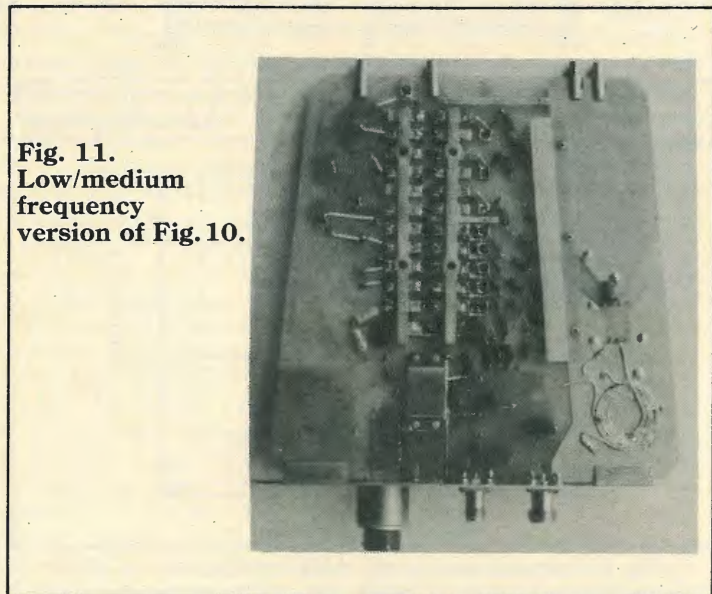


Fig. 11. Low/medium frequency version of Fig. 10.

chokes chosen to have differing self-resonant frequencies, but supplemented (in the reverse-bias state) by use of an isolating diode to feed the inductor-switching diode groups. Figure 9 shows the basic bias-feed circuit, inclusive of a resistor to limit forward-current. The inductor chain provides a common bias-return path, with r.f. and d.c. separated by a further choke group.

Figure 10 shows a partly-constructed tunable antenna covering the low and medium bands 30-88 and 100-174MHz, for housing within the 22cm glass-fibre shell as outlined in Fig. 1(F). The radiating capacitance is provided by silver-coating an area of some 20 square cm on each external face at the top of the shell, with twin inter-connections through the glass-fibre walls to the top of the p.c.b. tuning assembly inside the shell.

Figure 11 shows a similar tuning assembly for the low-medium bands, but with the radiating capacitance provided by a length of stainless-steel tubing moulded on top of the shell, and overlapping it in the aft direction, as outlined in Fig. 1G1/2. Again, twin connections are used for safety. In this design, the p.c.b. is widened sufficiently to accommodate a broadband unipole to one side of the tuning assembly, with u.h.f. radiation assisted by a se-

cond, shorter length of tubing spaced from the first by about 4cm. The two sections of this antenna (low-medium bands and u.h.f. band) are coupled to a common terminal via a diplexing combination of low-pass and high-pass filters.

A variant of this design additionally includes printed-circuitry to form a radiator for the IFF band, 1030-1090MHz: when used, this is coupled via coaxial matching circuitry to a separate terminal. As may be supposed, siting of the various metal areas on or attached to the p.c.b. is critical in avoiding their parasitic tendency to create an unacceptable pattern of radiation within the IFF band.

Figure 12 shows the low-band gain or sensitivity of available designs of both tuned and broadband antenna forms at various heights, all as measured under substantially identical conditions. Comparisons show, for both forms of antenna, the advantage of height, but more particularly, the considerable advantage of the tuned form as against the broadband form of similar height. Advantage is naturally greatest at the 30MHz extreme, but remains important up to at least the top of this low-band. For antennas of severely restricted height, this diminishing advantage of the tuned form nevertheless remains significant across the medium band 100-174MHz.

It should be remembered that, in the air-to-air mode of communication, the antenna advantage shown will be twice applicable, i.e. during transmission from one communication terminal and during reception at the other, and so can be expected to produce very considerable increase of operational range.

Broadbanded or, more factually, resistively-damped antenna designs provide no selectivity in-band, and usually very little out-of-band, unless supplemented by separate filters. Fig. 13 shows the moderate, but still useful orders of selectivity provided in-band by the tunable antennas. This benefit is made relatively important by the poor spectral purity of typical airborne transmitting equipment, and by the signal frequency pre-selection at the associated receiver.

The two 22cm designs both

use a seven-inductor tuning assembly p.c.b., which is double-faced for the three largest inductors, two faces being shown together in Fig. 14. The spirals on opposite faces couple together inductively to provide the required inductance value at best Q, incidentally providing a convenient centre-tap. The other four inductors are printed upon one face only. For six and seven-inductor assemblies shown in Fig. 15, the largest inductor  $L_6$  or  $L_7$  is centre-tapped and switched by eight diodes acting in series across the whole inductor, but bias-fed as four parallel groups each of two series diodes. The smallest inductor  $L_1$  is switched by only two diodes acting in series, but bias-fed in parallel. For the seven-inductor unit, the additional isolating diode in each feed line results in up to three diodes in series for bias-feed purposes, each needing a fairly constant 0.85 volt for turn-on. Allowing for some further voltage drop across the resistance of the inductors, a total of some 3.0 volts is the minimum needed for conduction. The bias source provides 5 volts (or 6.5 volts in later units), allowing the limiter resistors in each feed line to have their values set to produce the bias current chosen for individual lines.

Each diode lead terminates upon one of a series of non-grounded heat-sink plate, with lead lengths cut as short as practicable to minimize both temperature differential plate-to-diode, and the stray inductance which, with all diodes conductive, limits the upper frequency of operation.

Each bias feed line is individually filtered against (principally) transfer of transmission r.f. back into the bias source and its information-decoding circuitry. In current designs, this filtering uses ferrite beads and by-pass capacitors, the values of these latter, in association with the output resistance of the bias source, being the limiting factor in switching speeds for any given decoder characteristics.

Matching must be effected between the usual 50 ohm line and the impedance of the series-tuned radiating circuit. Although  $R_r$  will be a significant part of this impedance, the objective is for maximum transfer between line and circuit,

and matching must therefore be to the total  $R_r$  of  $R_r$  and the various sources of loss resistance  $R_l$ . This latter is principally due to the imperfect conductivity of the diodes when forward-biased and to the losses of the tuning inductors. Power-efficiency of the radiator circuit is then related to the ratio  $R_r$  to  $R_l$ , and is similar, though not identical, for the transmission and reception functions.

The losses  $R_l$  can change appreciably for quite minor changes in frequency setting. Up to about 38MHz, the largest inductor  $L_6$  or  $L_7$  is always in circuit. At 39MHz, it is removed, thereby substituting the resistance of the eight diodes used to short-circuit it, but then bringing into circuit all or most of the five or six smaller inductors, which coincidentally removes the losses of up to 16 diodes. However, the inherent losses of  $L_6$  or  $L_7$  will be considerably lower than for the total of the group  $L_{1-15}$  or  $L_{1-6}$  as producing almost the same inductance value, hence tending to offset the effects of diode losses and so maintain overall losses sensibly constant. Although early designs incorporated diode-switching of the matching ratio, careful manipulation of the balance between different loss-sources has allowed use of only a single matching ratio across the whole of the 30-88MHz band.

Matching is accomplished through a ferrite-cored auto-transformer. Core material found to be most suitable for the 30-88 band becomes appreciably lossy at the upper extreme of the 100-174 band, and might better be substituted by an alternative form of matching, e.g. a capacitor network. However, in trials to date, the advantage was nullified by losses in the additional switching network needed, and the ferrite transformer is currently used for matching across the full bands 30-174MHz.

Switching-bias is provided in a separate unit, powered from the aircraft's 28 volt d.c. line, and which includes the logic or code conversion circuitry. Frequency-setting at the transceiver originates as any of several different serial or parallel data codes, which must be converted to the near-binary code required for antenna con-

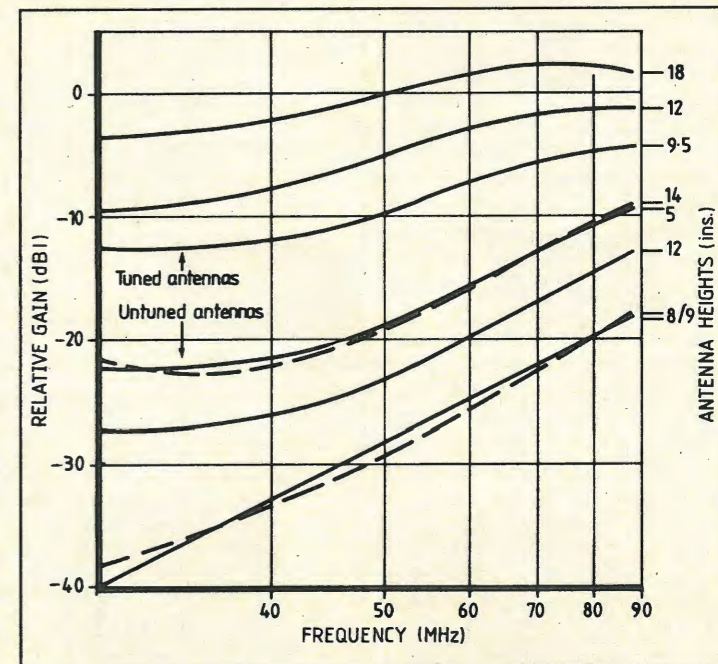


Fig. 12. Gain or sensitivity of tuned and untuned antennas.

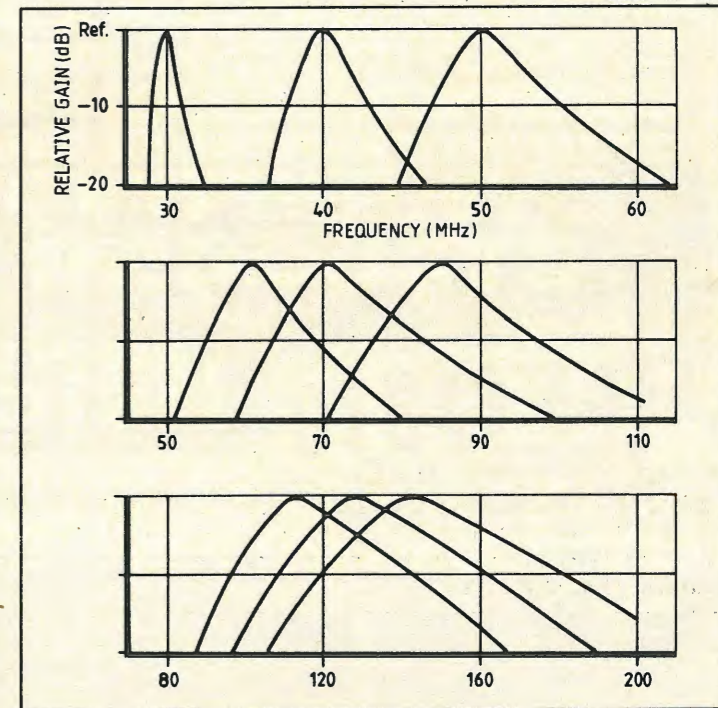


Fig. 13. Some useful selectivity is provided, in-band, by tunable antennas.

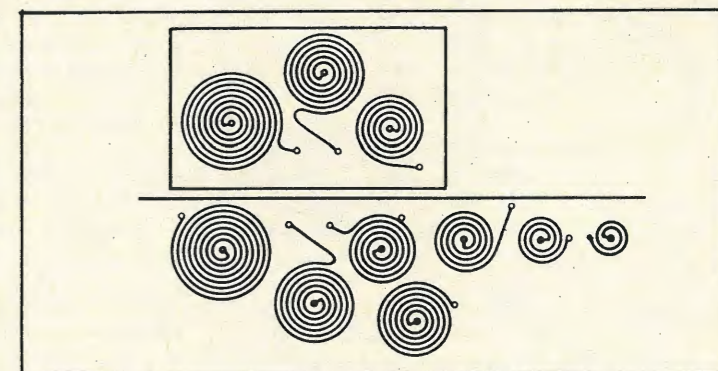


Fig. 14. Inductor printed-board assembly.

trol. In the case of serial-data code, a single line encircling the aircraft carries data for numerous different items of equipment, and the antenna code-converter must include the facility to recognise and act upon only the applicable information. It also includes facilities to avoid loading the data line, even under fault conditions.

In present units, turn-off bias (positive to ground) derives directly from the 28 volt line, after filtering. Turn-on bias derives through a d.c.-to-d.c. converter, providing 5 volts stabilised for up to about 1 ampere current. In later units, both bias outputs are derived through converters, the turn-off supply being increased to about 60 volts (at negligible current) and the turn-on supply increased to 6½ volts, stabilised for up to 1½ amperes. Both these increases are directed at improving either or both of power rating and harmonic generation.

The turn-off bias is permanently applied to the antenna diodes via relatively high-resistance feed paths, and can therefore be over-ridden by turn-on bias applied through low-resistance paths.

All the antenna designs described in this article are already in service in varying quantities, but the basis of tunable design is being extensively developed for further applications, whether frequency-hopping or otherwise, particularly in connection with suppression in to the airframe contours.

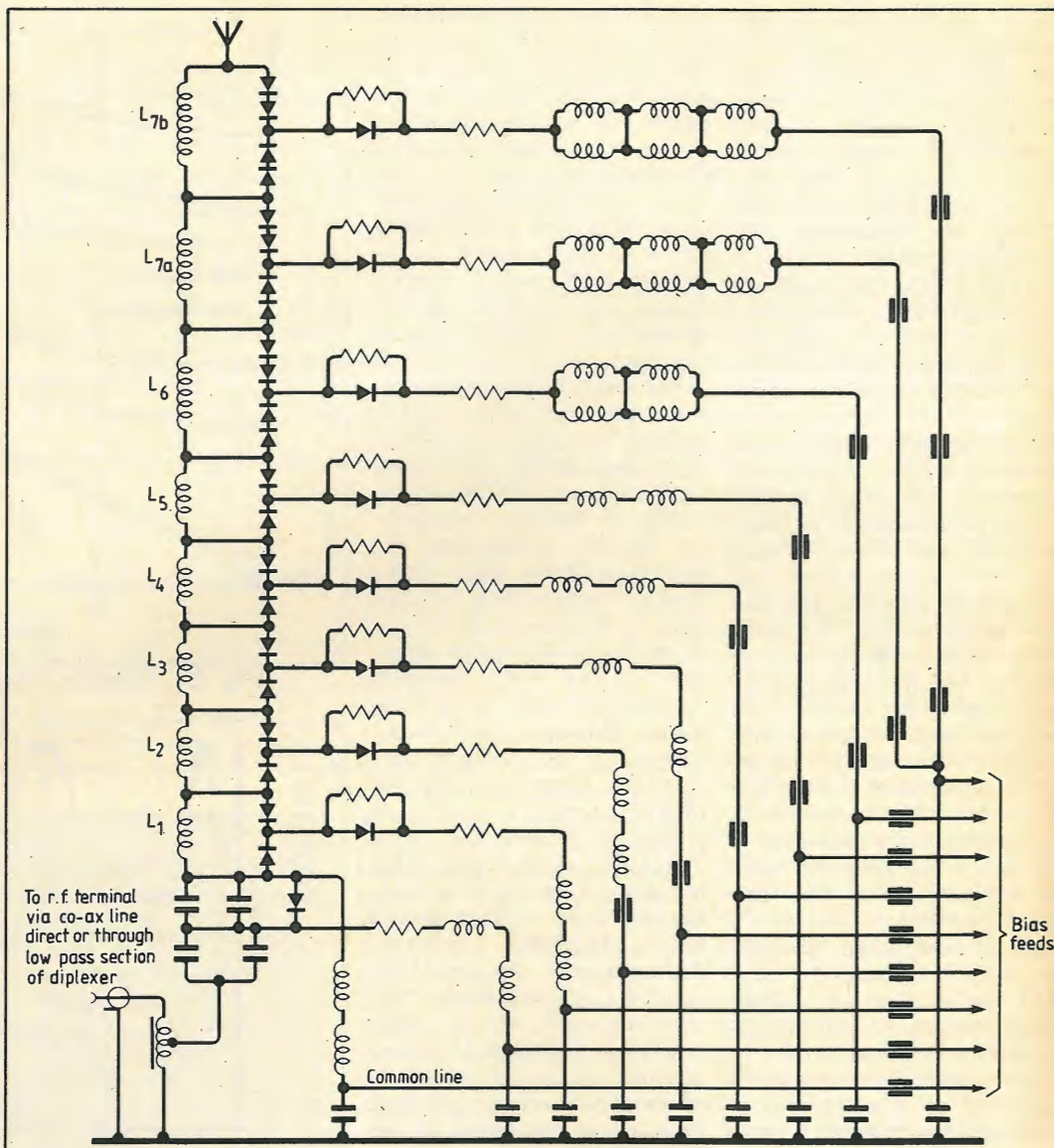


Fig. 15. Circuit of seven-inductor antenna tuning assembly.

## Breaking into print

The Editor always welcomes contributions from readers; and a quick and easy way to send them is via our Beeline computer. But there is no need to bludgeon your way in, like the unsuccessful hacker who showed up (right) in our system log recently.

The routine is very straightforward. All you need is a terminal and a 300 bit/s V.21 modem: the data word length is seven bits plus an even parity-bit and one stop-bit. Dial the number (01-661 8978 or 01-661 8986), type EWW in capital letters (the address code for *Electronics and Wireless World*), press <return>, wait for the

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+++ STFGO  
and send your message. Sign off with a carriage-return and NNNN, also in capital letters, and make a note of the code number the system returns you — it will help us trace your message if anything goes wrong. Then ring off.

Your message should consist of plain Ascii text and can include lower-case letters as well as upper-case. Make sure that it states clearly at the top who it is for; otherwise it may end up in the *Practical Toadbreeding* office. The text will be printed out on a continuous roll of paper and so you may wish to provide your

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However, the system does support Xon-Xoff flow control. So if you receive our carrier tone but get no response when you type EWW, try wakening the port up by sending control-Q and start again.

```

READ -215- -012- -012- +++ ? ERROR -012- -215- -012-
WRITE CMD:1 -215-
READ -215- -012- -012- +++ ? ERROR -012- -215- -012-
WRITE ! -215-
READ -215- -012- -012- +++ ? ERROR -012- -215- -012-
WRITE STF -215-
READ -215- -012- -012- +++ ? ERROR -012- -215- -012-
WRITE SCF -215-
READ -215- -012- -012- +++ ? ERROR -012- -215- -012-
WRITE START -215- 4
READ -215- -012- -012- +++ ? ERROR -012- -215- -012-
WRITE START -215-
READ -215- -012- -012- +++ ? ERROR -012- -215- -012-
WRITE GO -215-
READ -215- -012- -012- +++ ? ERROR -012- -215- -012-
WRITE PAGE -215-
READ -215- -012- -012- +++ ? ERROR -012- -215- -012-
WRITE HELP -215-
READ -215- -012- -012- +++ ? ERROR -012- -215- -012-
WRITE +++ ? ERROR -215- -215- A1 -215-
READ -215- -012- -012- +++ ? ERROR -012- -215- -012-
WRITE SYSTAT -215-
READ -215- -012- -012- +++ ? ERROR -012- -215- -012-
WRITE SYSTEM ACCESS NUMBER 2 ACCESS DENIED -215-

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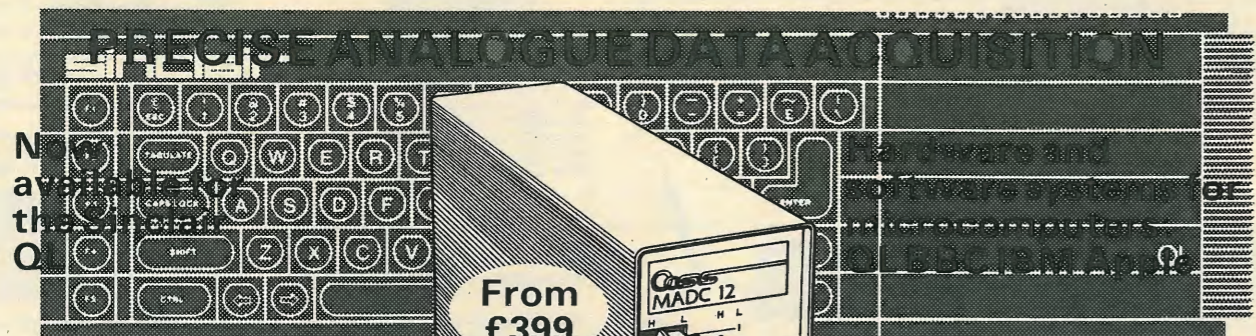
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# Data conversion

## An introduction to analogue-to-digital and digital-to-analogue conversion.

Digital processing power has greatly increased over the past decade. In the latter part of 1985, Immos Intel, Motorola and National Semiconductor all announced new or upgraded processors.

Domestic digital video and audio playback machines are now readily available and digital techniques are used in much of the broadcast chain. On the instrumentation side, digital-storage oscilloscopes are becoming cheaper because of falling i.c. prices, and digital meters are commonplace.

These advances in digital processing are calling for more diversity in the types of converter available - and for lower prices. Faster processors with wide data buses mean the production of more fast, high-resolution converters with microprocessor compatible inputs and outputs. Already there are devices that connect directly to a linear circuit at one end and to a microprocessor bus at the other with little more than address-decoding.

Progress in digital audio and video has led to the design of special purpose converters. These include video converters with 75Ω output and sync. inputs, and fast audio converters with high resolution and low t.h.d. New and improved i.c. manufacturing processes have allowed the production of microprocessors and controllers with on-chip converters, and monolithic digital meter i.c.s with linear inputs and display driver outputs.

Fast and accurate data converters have been available for many years in the form of expensive hybrid devices or circuit boards full of i.c.s. Cheaper monolithic converters have typically had lower accuracy and needed external circuits for buffering, references, data latches, clocking, etc.

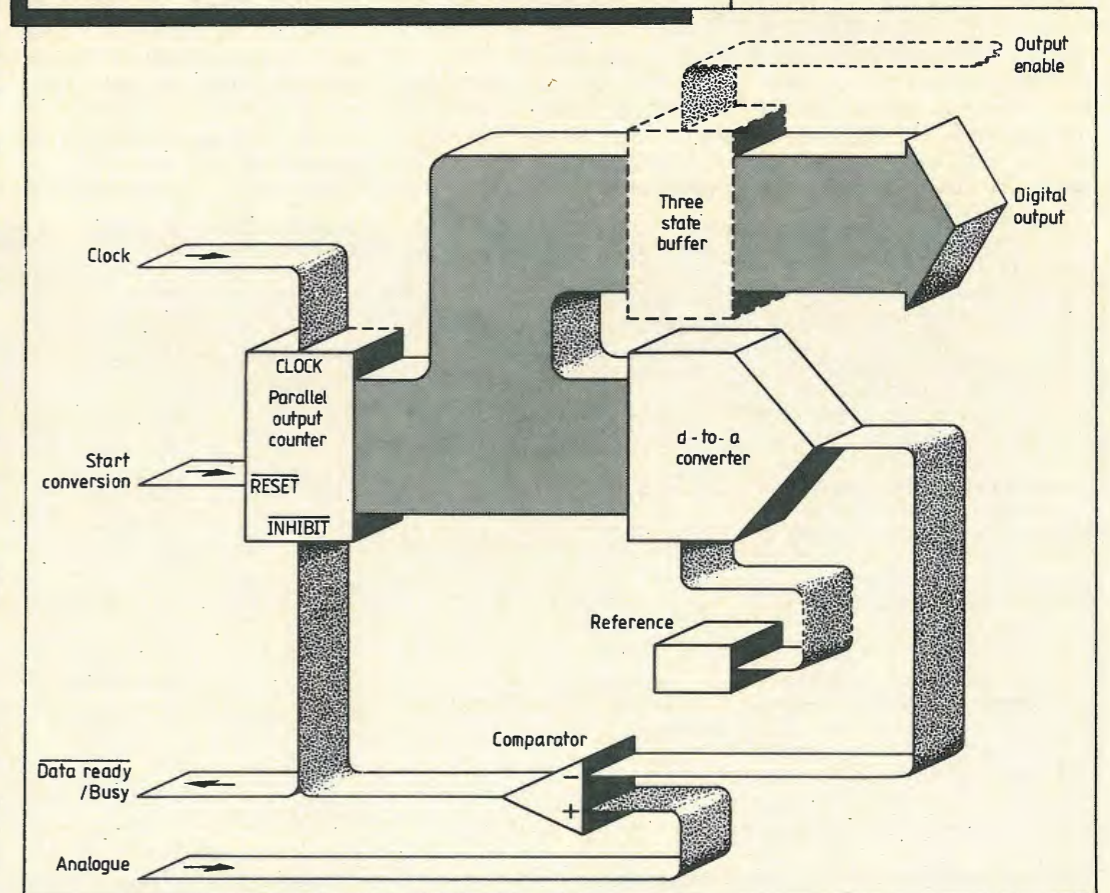
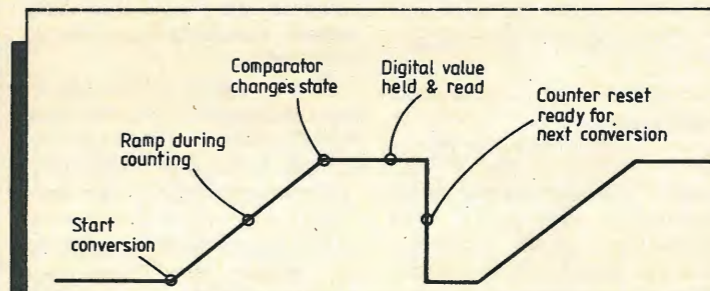
But despite the problems of manufacturing high-speed digital circuits and high-accuracy linear elements on the same

chip, there are now many complete monolithic converters being produced for a few pounds that are equal to or better than older hybrids and modular products. This doesn't mean a decline in hybrid circuit sales though; hybrid manufacturers have simply advanced their products to a point where monolithic devices cannot yet compete.

In the future, we will see many more general-purpose

computers with analogue inputs and outputs, particularly for instrumentation applications. Provided that they are fast enough, such computers could perform every imaginable instrumentation task - waveform analysis and synthesizing, amplification, sensor reading, frequency counting, voltage measurement, etc. - and all with the advantage of digital storage and flexible data processing.

**Simplified ramp-type a-to-d converter. Main elements in most a-to-d converters are a d-to-a converter and comparator. Ramp types are simple and can be as accurate as any other type but conversion time is variable and relatively slow. Even with a relatively low resolution eight-bit converter, it takes 255 clock pulses before the d-to-a converter output is ramped up to the maximum analogue input voltage. Lower input voltages require fewer steps. The waveform is output from the d-to-a converter.**



## D-to-a conversion

Nearly all digital-to-analogue converters work in the same way. A digital value, usually in the form of a parallel binary data word, is presented to a resistor network through a set of switches and a proportional current flows at the network output.

For some applications, a data latch and discrete resistor network suffice. Unless the converter is being used to turn static digital data into analogue form, as it would be if say thumbwheel switches were presenting the data, latching is essential. Many converters now include latching circuits.

Another important point is that current output from the resistor network is relatively high impedance. A buffered voltage output is more useful in most applications and again, many d-to-a converters have on-chip output buffering. Integral current-to-voltage converters increase settling time of the converter though.

Accurate converters need an accurate reference voltage. Often, the converter has an independent built-in reference with its own output, and a separate reference input is available. Normally, the output is connected directly to the converter reference input but, in a multiplying converter, the internal reference output can be disconnected and an external varying reference can be connected to the reference input

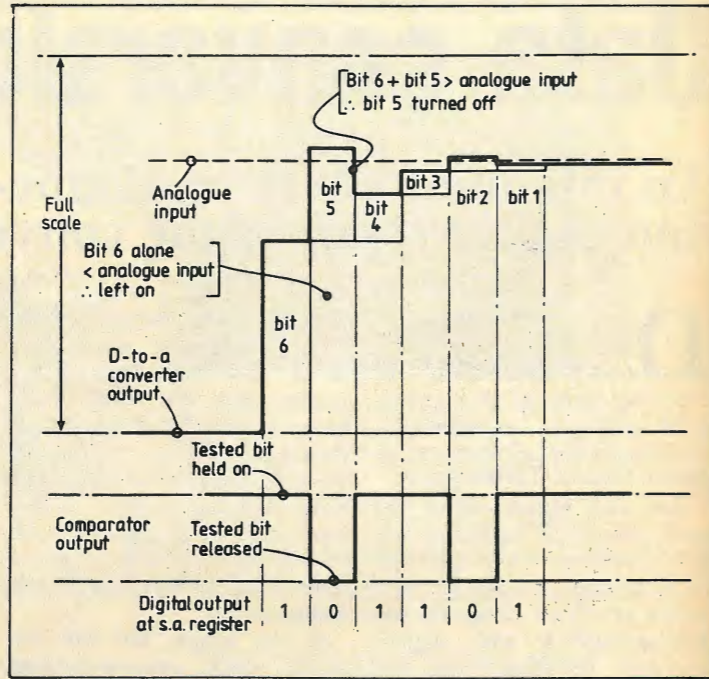
instead.

Multiplying converters allow analogue output to be proportional to the product of the reference and the fractional equivalent of the digital input value, acting as a sort of digital potentiometer. If a number of converters are used together, reference output from one converter may be used to feed others to give good tracking.

Enhancements to the basic d-to-a converter take many forms. Adding sample-and-hold circuits to the output of an accurate d-to-a converter gives multiple channels. There are converters with gated outputs for frequency and time-division multiplexing and there are logarithmic output and multiplexed data input devices for high resolution using narrow data buses. Some converters even include a shift register so that data may be fed in serially. Precisely matched multiple converters on a single chip can also be found.

## A-to-d converters

Many analogue-to-digital converters include a digital-to-analogue converter and comparator. The unknown analogue signal feeds one input of the comparator and analogue output from the d-to-a converter feeds the other. Level of the unknown signal is determined by sending digital values to the d-to-a converter and looking for a change in state at the comparator output. At this



change of state, the digital value at the d-to-a converter output represents the analogue input value.

Where speed is not important, sequentially incrementing digital values starting from zero are sent to the d-to-a converter. If the input voltage is high, hundreds of values may need to be sent to the d-to-a converter before the comparator switches. With an eight bit converter, the number of values sent can be as high as 255 for maximum input voltage. Some a-to-d converters include a counter and are very useful for generating ramp outputs.

For faster applications, a

**Successive approximation used in a-to-d converters speeds up conversion time. Elements of this type of converter are similar to those of a ramp type but the counter is replaced with a successive approximation register. The number of conversion steps required is equal to the number of bits in the data word as this example for six-bit conversion shows.**

## Converter networks

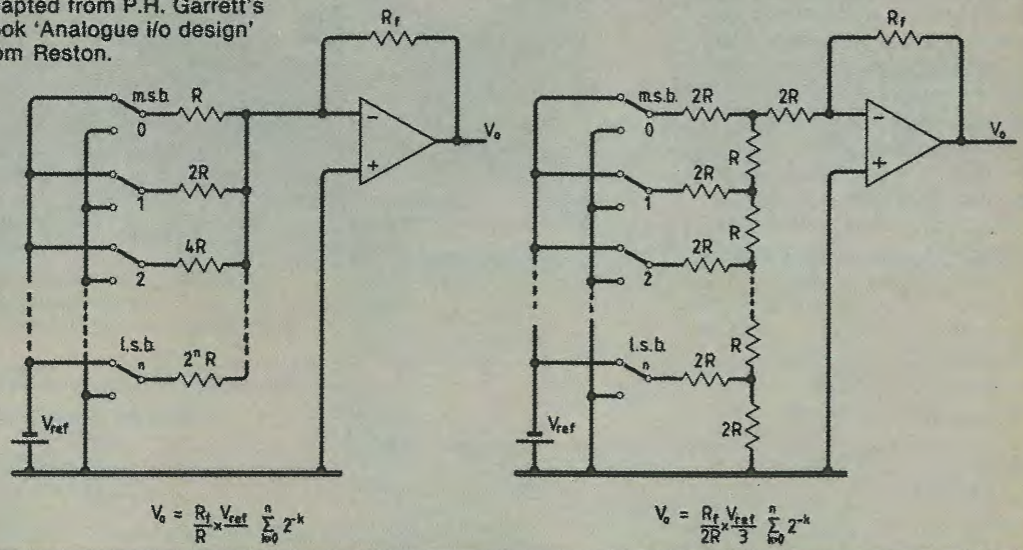
In a weighted-resistor network, current is halved in each bit step toward the l.s.b., by doubling the value of resistance R. Current from each stage is summed to give an analogue output.

This method is simple but not often used because many different resistor values are needed and values become very high as the number of conversion bits increases. With a value of  $R = 1k\Omega$  in a 12bit converter, the l.s.b. resistance value is over  $2M\Omega$ . In a converter using discrete resistors, finding the required values is also a problem.

Only two resistance values are required in the R-2R ladder network, regardless of the number of conversion bits. Current from each stage

output is divided by the ladder network.

These diagrams are adapted from P.H. Garrett's book 'Analogue i/o design' from Reston.



$$V_o = \frac{R_f}{R} \sum_{k=0}^n 2^{-k} V_{ref}$$

$$V_o = \frac{R_f}{2R} \sum_{k=0}^n 2^{-k} V_{ref}$$

little logic is used. The first value sent to the d-to-a converter is half way up the scale, i.e. the most-significant bit only of the d-to-a converter is switched on. Comparator output is checked for a higher or lower indication; if higher, the bit is left on. The next bit is now switched and the same check done, and so on down to the l.s.b.

This technique, successive approximation, reduces the number of steps required to the number of bytes in the word. Again, many converters include successive approximation registers and require only an accurate clock signal. Alternatively the successive approximation can be done in software under computer control.

Tracking converters use comparator output to control whether the counter driving the d-to-a converter counts up or down. As the name implies, output from the d-to-a converter tracks the analogue input so that after an initial count up at switch on, digital output is always true.

Voltage-to-time type a-to-d converters are an alternative for slower applications. With this type of converter, the number of bits of resolution is not dependent on accuracy of a resistor network but on charging of a capacitor. Noise rejection is also inherent provided that sample and hold circuits are not used at the input.

In its simplest form, this type of converter consists of a resistor and capacitor connected to a comparator input, and a counter driven by an accurate frequency clock. A reference voltage is connected to the comparator's second input.

Before the conversion, the capacitor is discharged and the counter reset. At the start of the conversion, unknown input voltage is allowed to charge the capacitor through the resistor and at the same instant the counter is started. When the capacitor voltage reaches the reference threshold, the comparator output switches and clock is stopped. The counter now holds a value representing the time it took to charge the capacitor.

With this crude form of voltage-to-time converter, the voltage representation on the counter is not linearly proportional to the input because of

the capacitor charging curve so interpretation is necessary. Voltage input must also be higher than the reference.

Practical voltage-to-time converters use an op-amp integrator at the input and semiconductor switches. In a dual-slope integrating converter, current proportional to the input voltage charges the integrator capacitor for a fixed number of clock periods. The counter is then set back to zero and used to count the number of clock periods taken to discharge the capacitor to the starting point using an opposite polarity current proportional to the reference. Discharge time is thus directly proportional to the average input signal value.

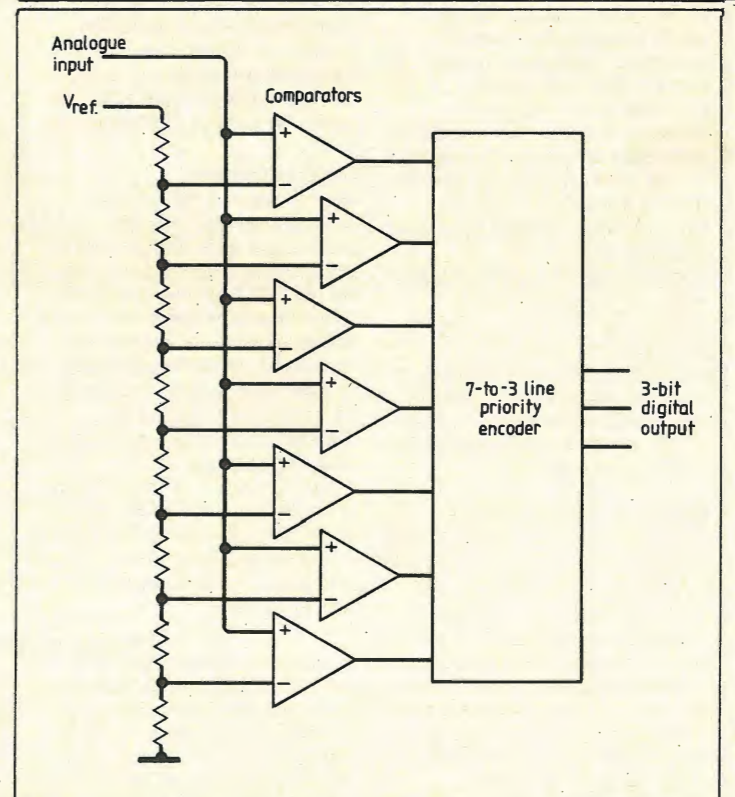
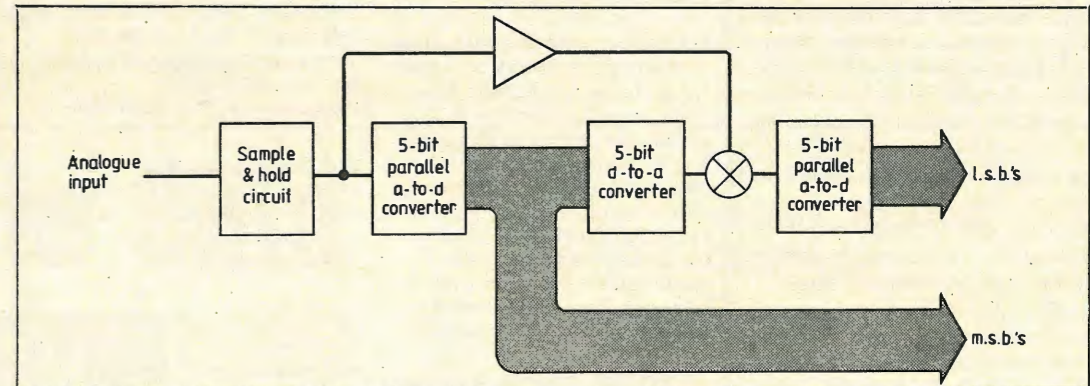
Sometimes a third operation is included to compensate for errors at the integrating amplifier input. Charging the capacitor with zero input gives a drift

error which can be inverted and used as a compensation value to be introduced when integration of the input signal occurs. Such integrating converters are called triple or quad-slope converters.

Fastest a-to-d conversion is obtained by using a resistor network and many comparators. Such converters, referred to as parallel or flash types, are used in video, radar and instrumentation applications.

They are fast because there is only one step in determining the input voltage. But to do so they need  $2^n - 1$  comparators and divider taps, where  $n$  is the number of bits in the digital word, and a proportionally large amount of priority-encoding logic. A compromise is the subranging converter which processes the digital word in two parts.

**Parallel or flash a-to-d conversion is fast but requires many components and complex encoding — as this example for only 3bit conversion shows. As a result, high resolution flash converters become expensive. Most are 6-8bit devices.**



**Subranging converters use two lower resolution parallel a-to-d converters and a d-to-a converter to combine high resolution with speed.**

As with d-to-a converters, a-to-d devices might have a separate input for reference voltage to allow ratiometric conversion. This might be used for example in bridge-circuit type measurements where the internal reference would be replaced by one derived from the reference feeding an arm of the bridge.

Sample and hold circuits can be applied at the input of almost any type of a-to-d converter to give multiple channels.

## Tips for choosing a converter

Cost, accuracy and speed are primary factors in choosing a converter but completeness is also important. Errors such as temperature and long-term drift might need to be considered, as might setting up complexity.

Digital input or output data levels are usually t.t.l. compatible but that does not always mean c-mos compatible. Some fast converters are e.c.l. compatible. Parallel data on higher resolution converters may need to be accessed or presented in two parts. This is the case with say a 12bit converter designed for use on an 8bit data bus. Using such a converter with a 16bit data bus wastes time.

Resolution does not necessarily go hand-in-hand with the number of bits in the data word. Zero, gain, linearity and differential linearity errors all contribute to overall accuracy.

In a d-to-a converter, useful features are an internal reference, input data latches, and output buffering. Many converters can now operate from a single supply rail and give voltage rather than current output.

Because of the number of types available, choosing an a-to-d converter is not so straightforward. In some simple a-to-d converters, a ramp counter is used but it is not accessible so clock pulses need to be counted externally. For other than computer applications, either choose a successive approximation converter or make sure that the counter is accessible.

With the exception of parallel converters, most a-to-d converter need an accurate clock signal. Three-state digital outputs are essential for connection to a microprocessor bus. High input impedance might be required, in which case a c-mos converter is the obvious choice.

## Converter terms

**Band-gap reference.** A reference voltage derived from the predictable base-emitter voltage of a silicon transistor.

**Bipolar.** Sometimes analogue signals that may be either positive or negative need to be processed. Converters for doing this are called bipolar. The term is also used to describe converter i.c.s using bipolar transistors as opposed to, say, mos devices.

**Charge-balancing converter.** This is an integrating a-to-d converter in which charge placed on a capacitor by the analogue input is balanced out in the integrator by pulses of reference current. Balancing of the voltage involves averaging over the measurement period. Charge balancing is also called quantized feedback.

**Conversion rate.** Normally this is the reciprocal of time taken for a converter to make its worst-case conversion to within the specified accuracy but in some high-speed devices, a new conversion starts before the old one has finished (pipelining). Worst-case conversion usually occurs when the converter changes from its highest to lowest value and *vice-versa*.

**Differential linearity.** A change of any one l.s.b. in digital value represents a given change in analogue voltage or current. The difference between this change in practice and the ideal one of full-scale range divided by two to the power of the number of bits in the digital word is referred to as differential non-linearity error. This specification relates to step size, not to errors in the overall curve produced when stepping the converter through all digital values; see integral non-linearity. If any two steps differ by more than 1 l.s.b., the converter could be non-monotonic.

**Dual-slope converter.** For analogue-to-digital conversion, the unknown analogue voltage or current may be converted into a time period using an integrator and reference. This period is represented by the digital value at a clock-pulse counter, which is first used to take a fixed-time sample of input, then to compare the sample with time taken to

discharge the integrating capacitor by an equal amount using an opposite reference current. Clocking and counting may be done within the converter or under computer control. Dual-slope conversion is slow but can be very accurate.

**Flash converter.** As the name implies, these converters are usually fast, converting an analogue value to a digital word in one step. Analogue input feeds many comparators ( $2^n - 1$ , where  $n$  is the number of bits in the digital word), each with a different reference value. All comparators with reference below the analogue input voltage change state (or comparators above the reference depending on construction of the device) and the comparator outputs feed priority-encoding logic to convert to binary or any other desired code. Because they use many comparators and references, flash converters with a large number of output bits are difficult to manufacture and expensive.

**Full-scale range.** For conversion in either direction, f.s.r. is the difference between maximum and minimum analogue values.

**Gain error.** Sometimes called full-scale error, this figure expresses the difference between actual and ideal converter transfer-function slopes. In d-to-a converters, it might be possible to compensate for gain and zero errors in output buffering.

**Integral linearity.** Specifications for integral linearity, which may be expressed as a percentage or as an l.s.b. fraction, give you an idea of how the converter responds over the whole of its range. This error is the maximum deviation between the curve of values produced by stepping a converter through the whole of its range and the ideal curve. A converter with no differential-linearity error may still have an integral-linearity error. Gain and zero errors are not necessarily included in the error figure.

**Integrating converter.** Dual-slope and charge-balancing a-to-d converters fall under this heading, which describes a device in which analogue input is integrated with time.

**Linearity error.** See integral and differential linearity.

**Major transition.** When the most-significant bit of a converter changes to one and all other bits are zero, or *vice-versa*, the event is described as a major transition. Maximum linearity error usually occurs at the major transition, since the m.s.b. has the largest error as a percentage of full scale.

**Monotonicity.** If an increment of any one l.s.b. in a d-to-a converter produces an increase in analogue output, the converter is said to be monotonic. Differential linearity errors exceeding  $\pm 1$  l.s.b. and/or integral-linearity error outside  $\pm 1/2$  l.s.b. may result in non-monotonicity.

**Multiplying converter.** D-to-a converters with a reference voltage input that can be used with a varying reference are referred to as multiplying converters. Output is proportional to the product of the reference and the fractional equivalent of the digital input number.

**Parallel converter.** (See flash a-to-d converter).

**Quad-to-slope conversion.** An integrating converter using two cycles of dual-slope conversion is a quad-slope converter. This technique enhances accuracy. One cycle uses a zero input and the second the analogue input. Errors from the first conversion are subtracted from the first.

**Ramp converter.** In this method of analogue-to-digital conversion, inputs of a comparator are fed by output from a d-to-a converter and the unknown analogue input. Digital values for the d-to-a converter come from a counter driven sequentially by a clock. Output from the d-to-a converter is thus an analogue ramp. When ramp voltage is equal to the analogue input voltage, the comparator changes state and the digital value is read directly from the counter. An enhancement to this method is successive approximation which greatly reduces the number of values presented to the d-to-a converter.

**Ratiometric conversion.** Mainly, a-to-d converters are required to read absolute

values and they do so using a fixed reference. Occasionally, say when a bridge measurement circuit is being used, it is better to apply an external reference. In the case of a bridge measurement circuit, the reference would be derived from the bridge reference to give more accurate results. This is ratiometric conversion.

**Resolution.** For an a-to-d converter, this term is used to express the smallest analogue change that the converter can resolve. For a d-to-a converter, it is the change in output voltage for a one l.s.b. change in input. Resolution is usually given as the number of bits in the digital word. An ideal eight-bit converter for example resolves to  $1/255$  (or  $1/(2^8 - 1)$ ) of the full-scale input or output.

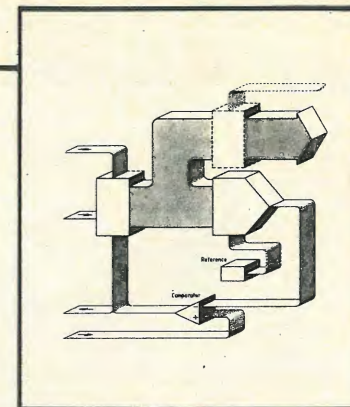
**Settling time.** Usually specified for a change in digital input from all zeros to all ones or *vice-versa*, settling time is the time taken for output of a d-to-a converter to settle within a given tolerance

band after a change in input.

**Subranging converter.** Very fast and accurate analogue-to-digital converters can be made by converting the digital word in two or more parts using flash converters. In a subranging converter, the most-significant part of the output word is digitized then converted to an analogue voltage. This analogue voltage is fed back and subtracted from the input to get the digital value of the least-significant part of the word. Finally, the most and least-significant values are combined. Some converters include correction for the least-significant bit of the most-significant word portion. Using a single flash converter to convert the whole word would be impractical or too expensive because of the number of comparators, ladder resistors and associated priority encoding logic.

**Successive approximation.** This technique reduces

conversion time in analogue-to-digital converters using a resistor-network d-to-a converter and comparator (see ramp converter). Rather than stepping the d-to-a converter through all of its values sequentially to see when the comparator output changes state, the d-to-a converter is first fed with a value equal to half of its full scale by switching the most-significant data bit. Comparator output is checked. If the comparator indicates that the input voltage is higher than half way up the scale, the m.s.b. is left on; if the input is lower, the bit is switched off. The same is done for the next most significant bit and so on until the l.s.b. In this way, for an eight-bit converter say, the analogue input value can be found in eight steps rather than in anywhere up to  $2^8$ . Some monolithic and hybrid converters have successive-approximation circuits on-chip, usually requiring an external clock signal, but successive approximation can be easily carried out by



computer at the expense of processing time.

**Tracking converter.** This type of converter is similar to the ramp converter but instead of the counter being ramped directly by a clock signal, it is incremented or decremented depending on output from the comparator. Output from the d-to-a converter thus follows the analogue and as a result, digital output from the converter always represents the analogue input. Tracking allows low-frequency signals to be digitized without using a sample-and-hold circuit.

# Trends in data conversion

Data converters currently represent some 23% of linear i.c. sales and growth over the next five years is expected to average 25%. Mark Riley talks about the evolution and future of data conversion in one of the leading companies.

Ten years ago, designers perceived data conversion as an unfortunate by-product of microprocessors and few were capable of applying the technology. Since then, design expertise and technological advances have been combined to produce much simpler and cheaper solutions to the problem of data conversion.

Over ten years ago, the first monolithic 10 bit d-to-a converter heralded the demise of the traditional modular or hybrid approach and gave rise to a range of integrated circuit a-

to-d, d-to-a, v-to-f, f-to-v and synchro-to-digital converters.

Subsequent monolithic product developments have centered on two complementary technologies — bipolar for high speed complete devices and c-mos for medium-speed building block type applications and low-power consumption.

## Bipolar evolution

The first monolithic precision d-to-a converter that required no user trimming used a straightforward  $7\mu\text{m}$  n-well bipolar process but pioneered

the introduction of on-chip laser trimmed thin-film resistors and stable buried references.

Geometry reductions to  $5\mu\text{m}$  and refinements of this fundamental technology have subsequently yielded higher resolution d-to-a converters with features such as output buffers. For example a typical microprocessor interfacing 12 bit device with  $3\mu\text{s}$  conversion time and output buffer is now available in plastic dip packaging for under £10.

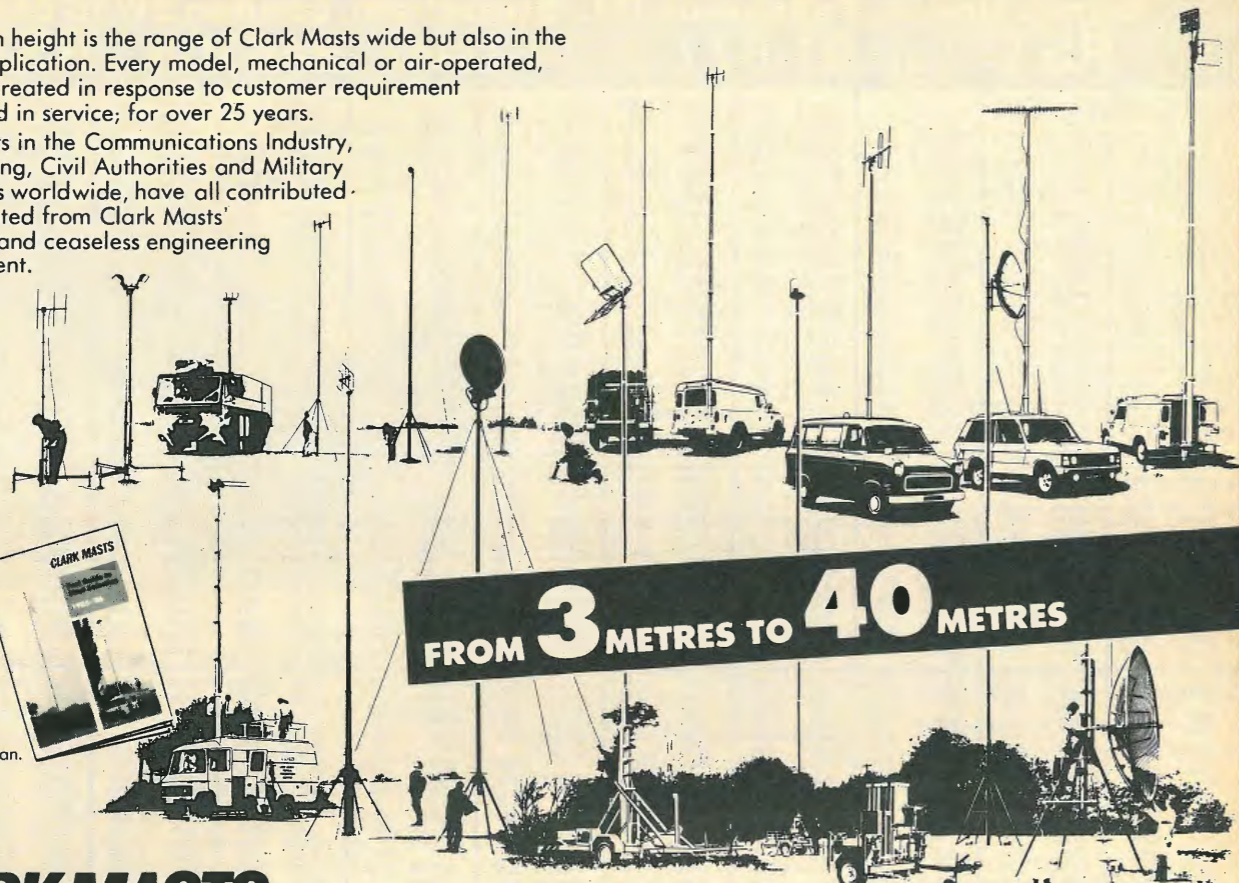
Monolithic precision a-to-d converters using bipolar technology started with the





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# A mathematical rake's progress

by Ivor Catt

Ivor Catt looks back on how he nearly became a maths addict

In my article of last November, I showed that Maxwell's Equations, so long thought to contain the heart and essence of electro magnetism, told us virtually nothing about the subject. Then, in my December article, I discussed the academic mafia's vested interest in knowledge (see panel). Here I try to discover who this group of charlatans\*, the maths pushers, are. How does a young student grow up to become part of the social group who live by mathematical nonsense like Maxwell's Equations, and who conspire to prevent the development of a scientific subject in a proper, physical way?

Concern about this question led me to look back on my own education. What pressures were exerted on me to become a mathematical rake?

My experience indicates that the slide is similar to that of the drug addict — a number of small, apparently innocuous, slips downward, culminating in total separation from reality. As we progress through school and college, we are fed a series of potions, each more heady than the last.

The process started with the calculus. My introduction to it, at the age of 15, was worrying and disorienting. It was part of the great disaster which I thought had overtaken me in my first few months in the sixth form. Whereas I had always been good

at maths, I found the first few months in the sixth form confusing. Even though Sam Richardson was a very good teacher, and I had help from my mother, a brilliant mathematician, at home, I couldn't understand the basis of what we were learning in mathematics, particularly the calculus.

This was a new experience for me. Previously, I had always found maths easy, and scored high marks. Now, suddenly, it was different. This was serious because if I tried to retreat from maths into some other field, all nearby subjects were based on maths anyway. There seemed to be no escape from my new-found inadequacy in mathematics. As the first half-year exams approached I became more and more worried, because still I couldn't grasp the basis of what I was being taught.

The flaw in the calculus package is what I now recognise as the reductionist fallacy a misconception which underlies and undermines western philosophy.\* The error is to think that 'the whole is the sum of the parts', no more; that lots of bits of string are quite as useful as (and the same thing as) a long piece of string. Putting it another way, the problem of discontinuities was ignored. I was right to worry.

A whole array of misleading, damaging concepts slipped in with i, or j as we electrical engineers call it. "Two for the price of one"; if  $a+jb = c+jd$ , then  $a=c$  and  $b=d$ ; so we can do two jobs at once. Pretty, but a delusion, similar to the illusion that we can drive better after drinking, and for the same reason — our vision is blurred.

\*The Shorter Oxford English Dictionary entry for this word is particularly apt:

- Charlatan** 1. A mountebank who descants volubly in the street; esp. an itinerant vendor of drugs, etc. . . .  
2. An empiric who pretends to wonderful knowledge or secrets . . . a quack.

However, if we then look up the entry for Empiric, the whole picture backfires on us.

\*Titus, H.H., Living Issues in Philosophy. American Book Company, 1964, pp.148, 527, 540 etc.

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Hot on the tail of j came that awful array of cons under the appropriate descriptor 'sine'. I shall not develop this theme fully, but only repeat that one FRS went so far as to say that "Physical reality is composed of sine waves". In fact, the sinusoidal wave, which is a camouflaged circle, is

**"How does a young student grow up to become part of the social group who live by mathematical nonsense like Maxwell's Equations, and who conspire to prevent development of a scientific subject in a proper way?"**

Ptolemy's pure, circular epicycles fighting back against Kepler's less pure, more real, ellipse. Kepler, who himself loved the idea of the 'harmony of the spheres', saw a more pure 'equal areas in equal time' rather than a distinctly un-heavenly, earthy,

## Mathematical mafia

The twisting of historical fact in the hands of the academic mafia is beautifully illustrated by the case of the discovery of the electromagnetic theory of light. Obviously, a mathematician would like us to believe that the proposal that light was electromagnetic in nature resulted from subtle manipulations of his electromagnetic equations by Professor Maxwell the mathematician. In fact, Whittaker<sup>1</sup> says that the proposal that light is electromagnetic came from Faraday in 1851, when Maxwell was 20. Now it might be asserted that the vague suggestion by Faraday was confirmed and strengthened by Maxwell's mathematics. However, Chalmers<sup>2</sup> says that there is an error in Maxwell's calculations,

which "led Pierre Duhem to accuse Maxwell of adjusting his calculation so that he could arrive at a theory of light which he [or should we say Faraday?] already had in mind."

The truth appears to be that the idea preceded the maths; the maths was force-fitted onto the idea, like the ugly sister's shoe; and then the mafia claimed the maths generated the idea. The prince was not hoodwinked, and neither should we be. This racket, of forcing mathematical liturgy onto a reluctant discipline, constantly recurs in science, perhaps reaching its most grotesque in so-called 'computer science' courses.

<sup>1</sup> E.T. Whittaker, A History of the Theories of Aether and Electricity. Nelson, 1951, p.194.

<sup>2</sup> Chalmers, A.F., Maxwell and the displacement current, *Physics Education*, vol. 10, 1975, p.45.

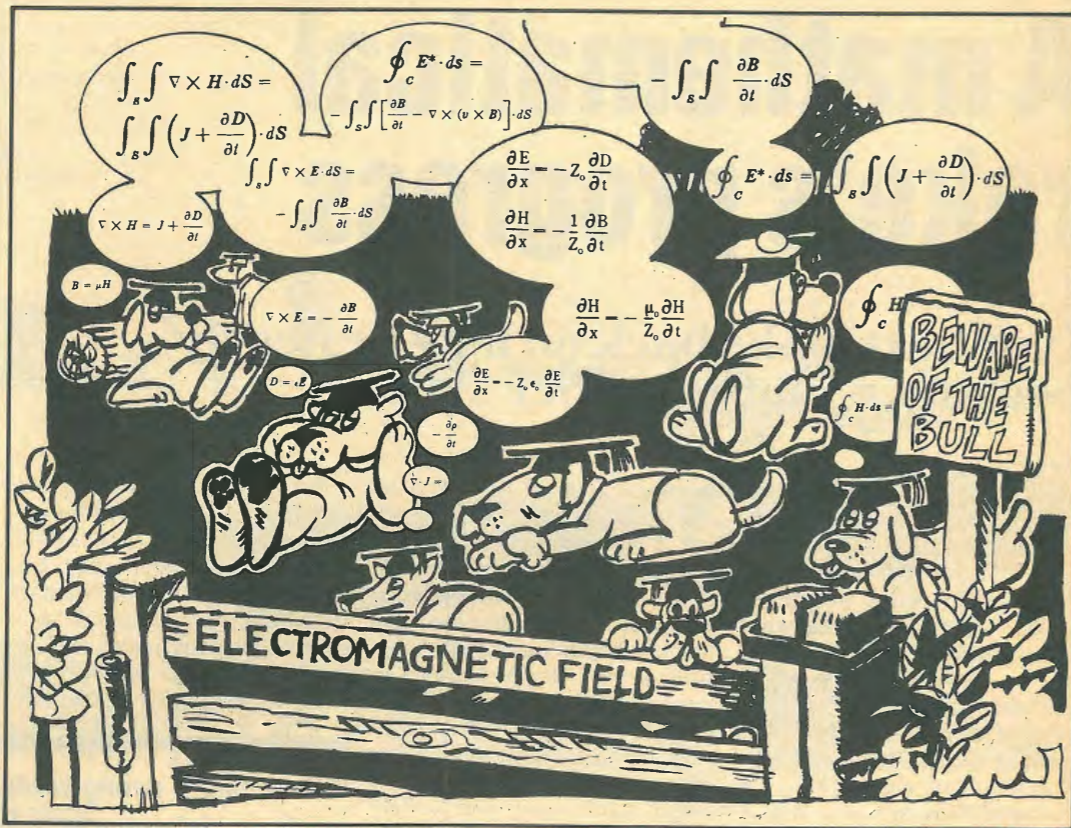
(we would say 'real'), ellipse.

The *Wireless World* July 1981 editorial, 'The decline of the philosophical spirit', contrasts the nineteenth century, when scientists were interested in and capable of distinguishing between the physically real and the mere mathematical construct, and today, when scientists no longer know or care about the difference, and have even developed a philosophy of science which confuses them.\*

An example of the destructive effect of sine is the way in which it suddenly appears, unannounced and without justification, on the second page of a text book discussion of the t.e.m. wave.

In the event, my first half-year exams in the sixth form didn't seem too hard, and I felt that I must have scored over 50%, which would give me a breathing space in which to re-plan my future. To my astonishment, I learned that I had scored 99% and 92%.

However much I might think I didn't understand what was go-



**"There is a similarity between the maths pushers and the drug pushers. Both entice the victim with promises of elysium. Both gradually increase the dose. In both cases, there is nothing at the end of the rainbow."**

ing on in maths, the marks I scored 'proved' otherwise. My high scores told me that I was still good at maths, as I had always been. However, a nagging suspicion remained with me that something was amiss. I doubted whether I could really have misjudged the situation so badly. Today, I believe that I was correctly judging the situation, and it was my exam marks that were wrong. I was being brainwashed into the belief that understanding was unnecessary, even impossible; that success meant the ability to manipulate the symbolism of the subject, not to understand it. I was being encouraged, the initial carrot being high exam marks, to turn the handle of the mathematical barrel organ, and not to ask too many awkward questions.

I seemed to learn my lesson, and later on, when taking A-levels, I gained a State Scholarship in maths although only 17

\*Popper, K. Conjectures and Refutations, R.K.P., 1963, p.100

years old. This was a remarkable achievement, and should have secured my loyalty to the administrators of the mathematical myth. However, I was already questioning the usefulness of some of this maths, particularly the interminable geometry (since dropped) in the Cambridge Open exam, and so at Cambridge I decided to leave my strong subject, maths, and read engineering.\* My background must have made me particularly sceptical. My mother had scooped the lot, gaining the top 'first' in maths in London University, but the payoff to her in benefits in later years proved minimal.

The next piece of blatant brainwashing occurred during my engineering course in Cambridge. We had a lot of thermodynamics, which was very mathematical. One day I asked

\*I love the Heaviside remark; "Whether good mathematicians, when they die, go to Cambridge, I do not know." — Heaviside, O., Electromagnetic Theory, Vol. 3, Dover, 1950. (First published 1903.)

my tutor, Professor Binnie, what practical interpretation I could place upon an equation containing a college of terms involving the three e's — energy, enthalpy and entropy. His answer was that I should not bother to look for a physical interpretation, but should merely regard it as a piece of algebra to be manipulated according to the rules of algebra. I was shocked by this, and I remain shocked today. Had I left maths and taken up engineering for nothing?

Whereas drawing, or draughting, was strong in the Cambridge Engineering Faculty and seemed to occupy a large part of our time, being the only subject you were not allowed to fail, electricity was weak, rating only one lecture a week, or at most two. One suspects that conservative Cambridge of the 1950s hoped that this new-fangled electricity thing would prove to be a flash in the pan, and go away soon. (Gaslight, I have been told, was very pleasant; much softer on the eye than electric light.) I suspect that my later success in electromagnetic theory resulted from the lack of teaching in it that I had sustained while at college.

We did not cover the Laplace Transform, and this set me apart from upstart graduates from red-brick universities, who enjoyed discovering how backward Cam-

bridge was. I was lucky in this omission, because I now feel that transforming is one of the destructive mathematical techniques in engineering that increases the divorce from reality, and which is the legacy to engineers from mathematicians. Whereas to me it is obvious from first principles that to get constant current through a capacitor\* you need a continually increasing voltage, I recently found that for a student of Laplace this is the conclusion of a lengthy piece of complex calculation.

Thus was the stage set for Maxwell's Equations, that phoney apology for electromagnetic theory, which held sway for a century and so befogged the subject.

There is a similarity between the maths pushers and drug pushers. Both entice the victim with promises of Elysium. Both gradually increase the dose. In both cases, there is nothing at the end of the rainbow.

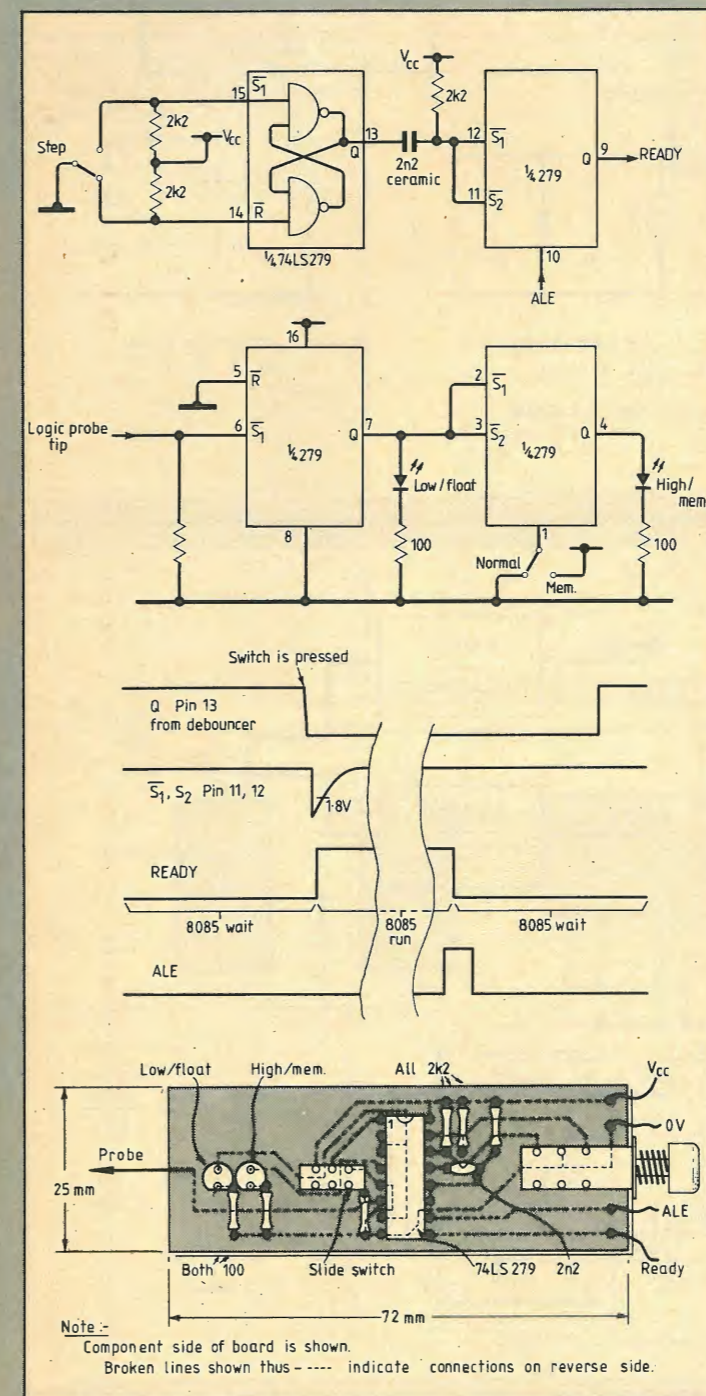
8085 single stepping

I stopped using d-type bistable i.cs in single-step circuits because of their erratic behaviour and the problems that they give with circuit layout. This reliable 8085 single-step circuit uses very few components, yet includes a logic probe which can fast transients. The probe runs from the step-circuit supply to avoid tangled wires.

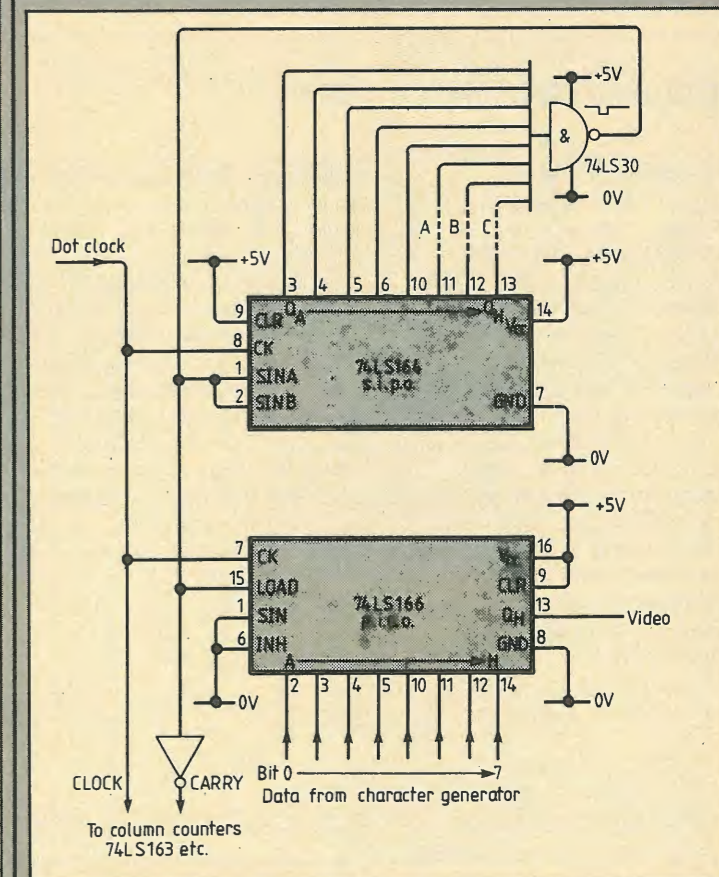
It should be possible to use the unit to step 6800-series processors by connecting the ready-out signal to the 6800 halt pin and ALE-in to the

VMA line. It might also work with 6502 processors with ALE connected to the SYNC pin and ready-out to the 6502 ready line. By injecting a negative pulse at the capacitor, slower automatic test equipment could be stepped. I have not tried these possibilities.

The probe's only disadvantage is that it cannot indicate a floating line. Using mos i.cs will make the unit suitable for other logic levels, but protection in the form of zener diodes will be needed.



**DON'T WASTE GOOD IDEAS** We prefer circuit ideas with neat drawings and widely spaced typescripts, but we would rather have scribbles on "the back of an envelope" than let good ideas be wasted. Submissions are judged on originality or usefulness — not excluding imaginative modifications to existing circuits — so these points should be brought to the fore, preferably in the first sentence.



Character generator dot clocking

Because of the speed of c.r.t. dot clocks it is easy to run into problems if synchronous logic is not used, especially around the parallel-in/serial-out device at load time. Strobe signals for data latches in the pipeline are often needed; delays in counters can drastically reduce the amount of time allowed for these and memory accesses.

This circuit, based on a recurring 'walking zero' principle, uses few i.cs to produce a serial-in/parallel-out shift register circuit providing up to nine consecutive strobe signals. For a six-dot font, links A, B and C are not used. Link A is used for seven dots, links A and B for eight dots and links A, B and C for nine dots.

A character clock for c.r.t. controllers or microprocessors can be produced by connecting the set and reset inputs of a bistable multivibrator to appropriate outputs of the serial-in/parallel-out circuit. J.R. Charlesworth Pickering North Yorkshire

## Enhancing analogue meters

Measuring instruments with pointers are still preferred for many tasks but they are normally only useful for a minimum indication of 1% whereas 0.1% is often desirable. Logarithmic scaling gets round this problem.

A single diode can be used as a logarithmic converter but silicon diodes give a six-decade law, i.e. 1% of full scale corresponds to  $10^{-6}$  of the input required for full scale. Germanium diodes do not generally follow the logarithmic law closely, especially at higher currents.

A diode-resistor network can give the required law and if several diodes are used, variations due to diode characteristics can be minimized. Using the diode network as feedback around a single op-amp as shown in the second diagram gives current output which is accurately proportional to input voltage.

The final circuit uses five cheap unselected diodes in the logarithmic network and one to protect the meter against reverse-polarity input. Low closed-loop gain at high input

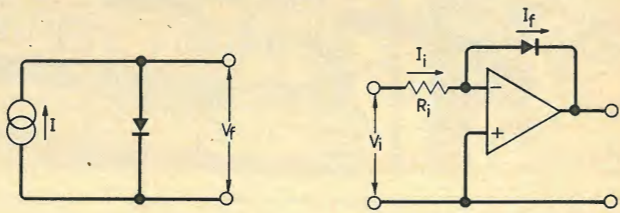
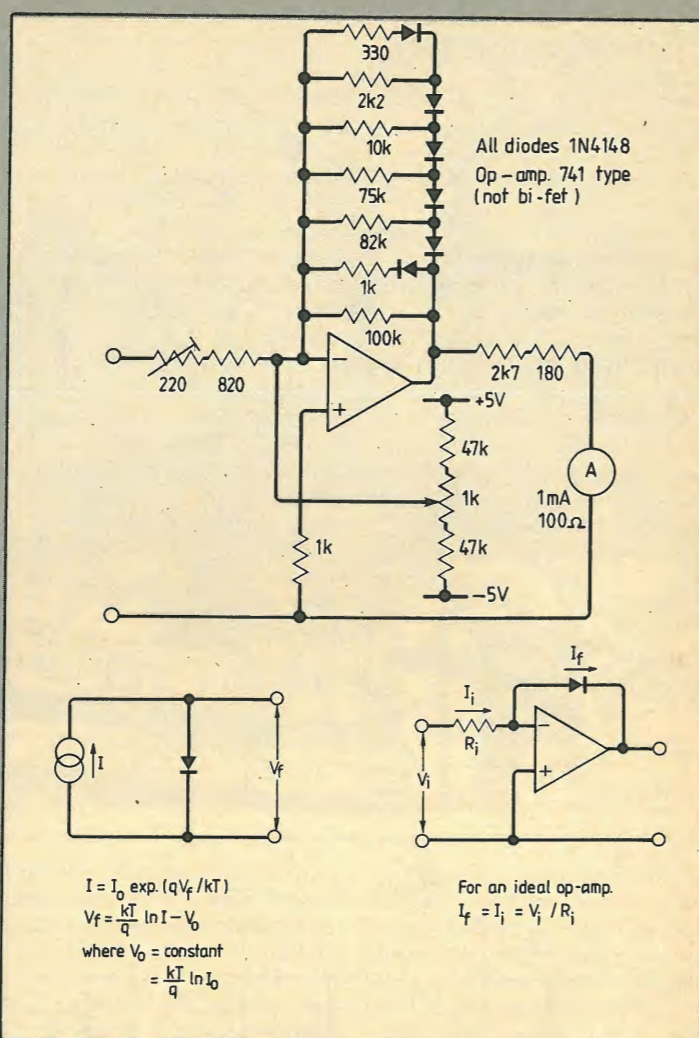
voltages means that the input signal must be applied to the op-amp inverting input.

Up to the point at which the first diode conducts, in this case 10% f.s., the law is linear. Results are

Input (mV)	Deflection (%)
0.3	1
1	3
3	10
10	20
30	40
100	60
300	80
1000	100

Accuracy depends on temperature; if temperature compensation is needed a more complicated circuit using 'catching' diodes referenced to temperature compensated voltages may be used. This circuit was designed for the current meter of a bench power supply. Range switching is not necessary yet current drawn by low-power circuits is easily monitored.

J.M. Woodgate  
J.M. Woodgate and Associates  
Rayleigh



$$I = I_0 \exp(qV_f/KT)$$

$$V_f = \frac{KT}{q} \ln I - V_0$$

where  $V_0 = \text{constant} = \frac{KT}{q} \ln I_0$

$$I_f = I_i = V_i / R_i$$

For an ideal op-amp.

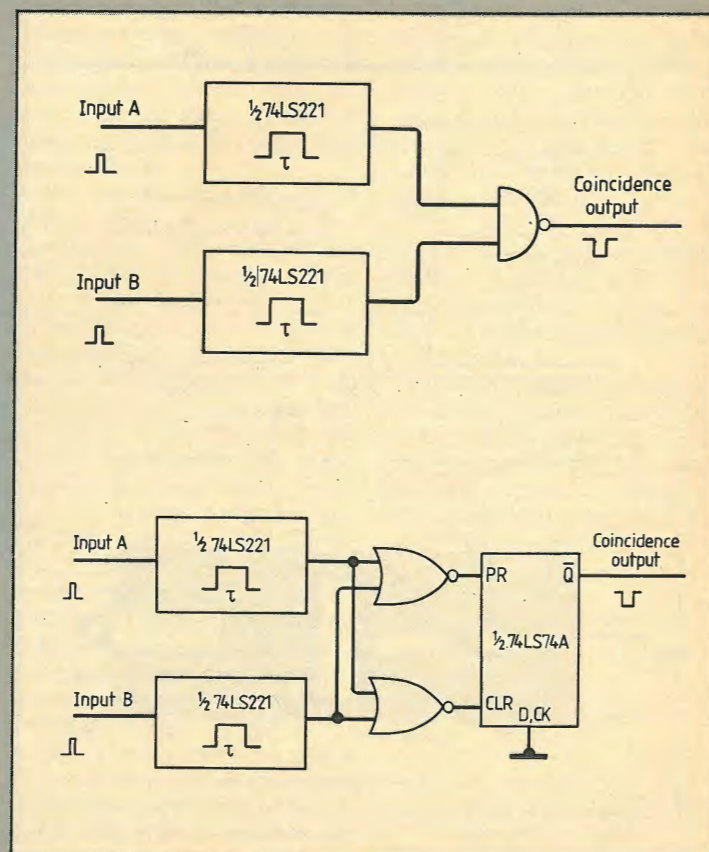
## Improved coincidence circuit

The common way of registering a coincidence between two input pulses is shown in the top diagram. It has the disadvantage that output pulses vary in width, being the duration of the overlap between the two input monostable devices.

If this output is used to drive t.t.l. circuits, erratic operation may occur as the result of the presence of pulses shorter than the specified minimum trigger duration. In particular 74LS123 and 74LS221 monostable i.c.s, when driven

with pulses shorter than 40ns do not trigger but propagate a sharp glitch through to their outputs.

An improved coincidence circuit is shown below. The output pulse is of constant duration,  $\tau$ , the resolving time. If the overlap between the two input monostables is less than 25ns the 74LS74A bistable device will fail to trigger and no output pulse occurs. This, however, happens in a controlled manner with no output glitching.  
John McMillan  
Dept. of Physics  
University of Leeds.



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## Comparator for capacitor sorting

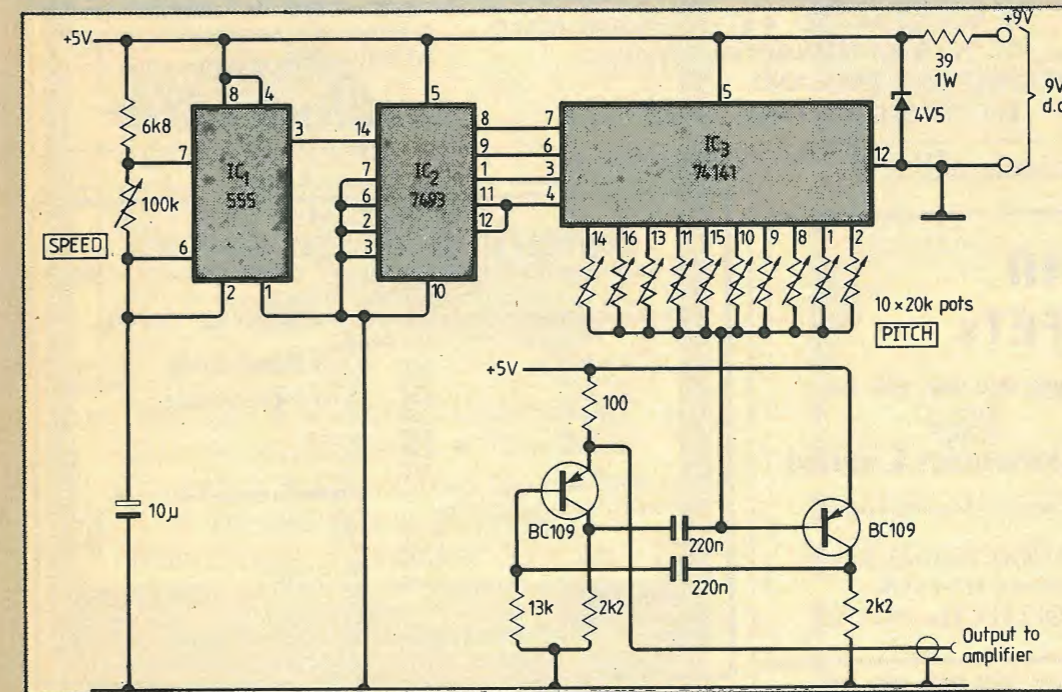
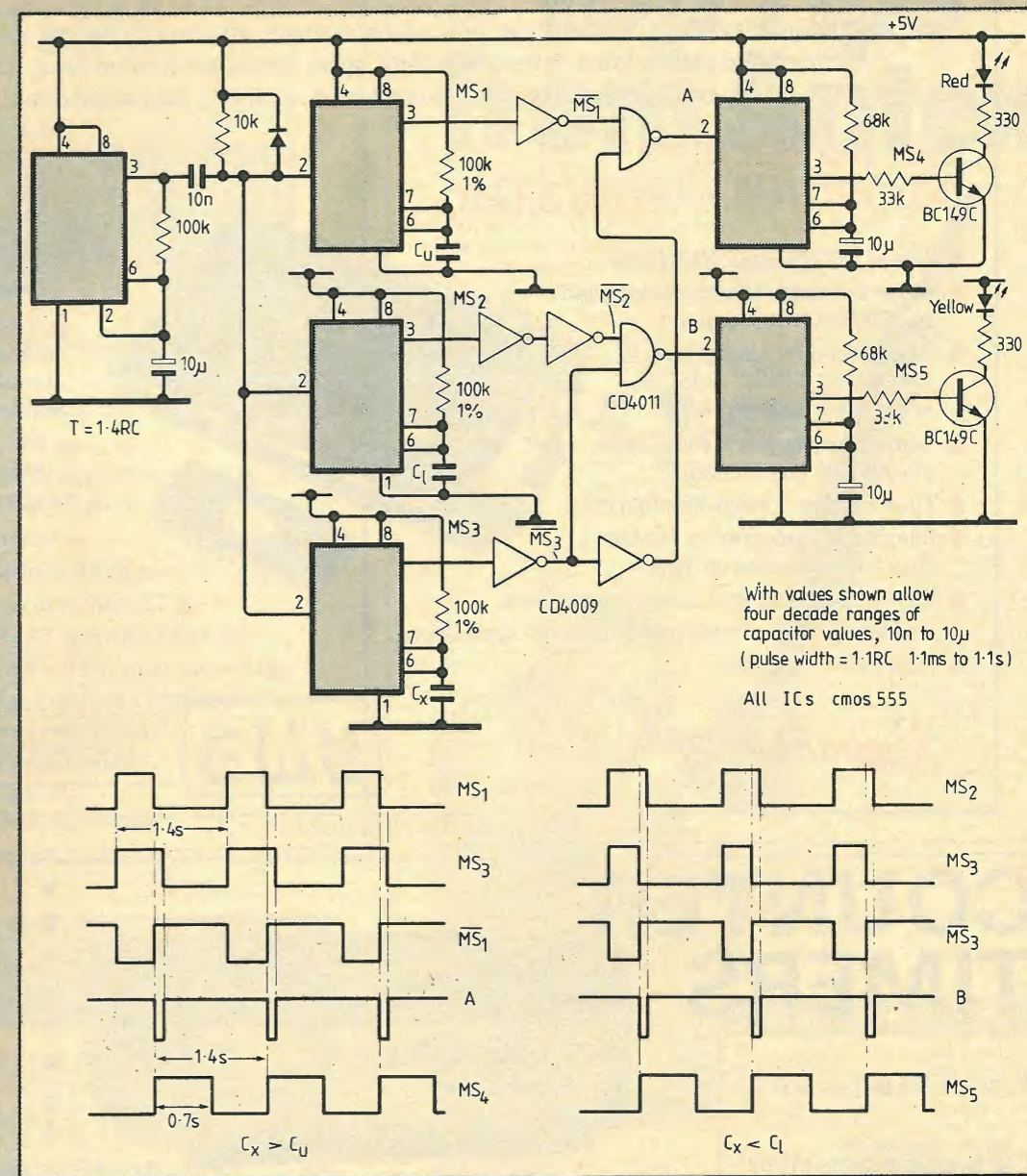
Conventional methods for sorting capacitors use either analogue or digital comparison techniques. This method compares the pulse width proportional to unknown capacitor  $C_x$  with that of two known limit-value capacitances.

An astable multivibrator with 50% duty cycle and 1.4s period triggers three monostable elements representing upper and lower capacitance values  $C_u$  and  $C_l$  and unknown capacitor  $C_x$ .

When pulse  $MS_3$  exceeds  $MS_1$ , the upper monostable i.c. is triggered and its led blinks at round 0.7Hz. When  $MS_3$  is less than  $MS_2$  similar gating triggers blinking of the yellow led. When neither led blinks,  $C_x$  is within limit values set by  $C_u$  and  $C_l$ .

Gate delays are adjusted so that false triggering of the output monostable i.c.s does not occur.

V. B. Kuber  
Nashik Road  
India



## Simple tunes

Speed and pitch are variable on this simple tune generator. The 555 clock drives a binary counter, output of which is decoded. For each step of the clock, potentiometers set pitch by determining frequency of the astable multivibrator.\*  
M.H.S. Bukhari  
Hyderabad  
Pakistan

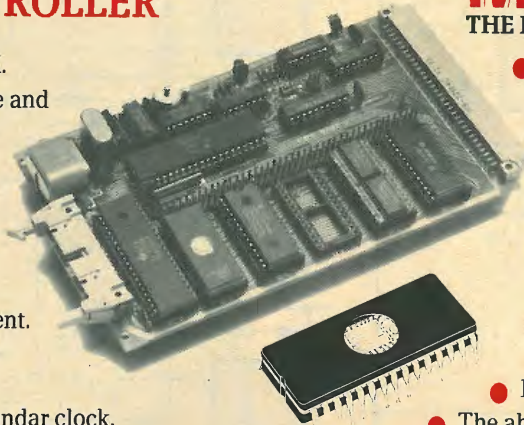
\*Diodes in output lines of the 74141 might stop interaction of the potentiometers. — Ed.

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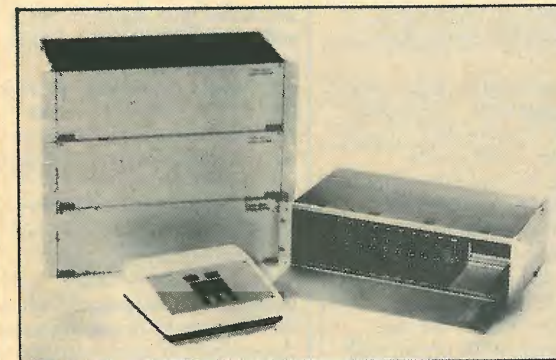
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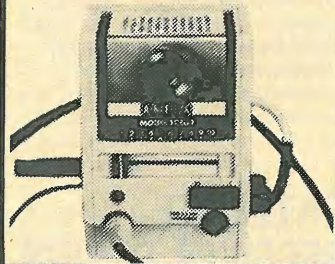
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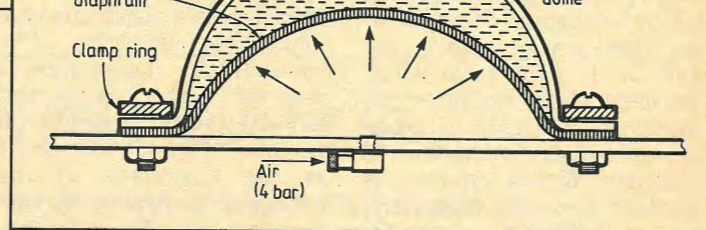
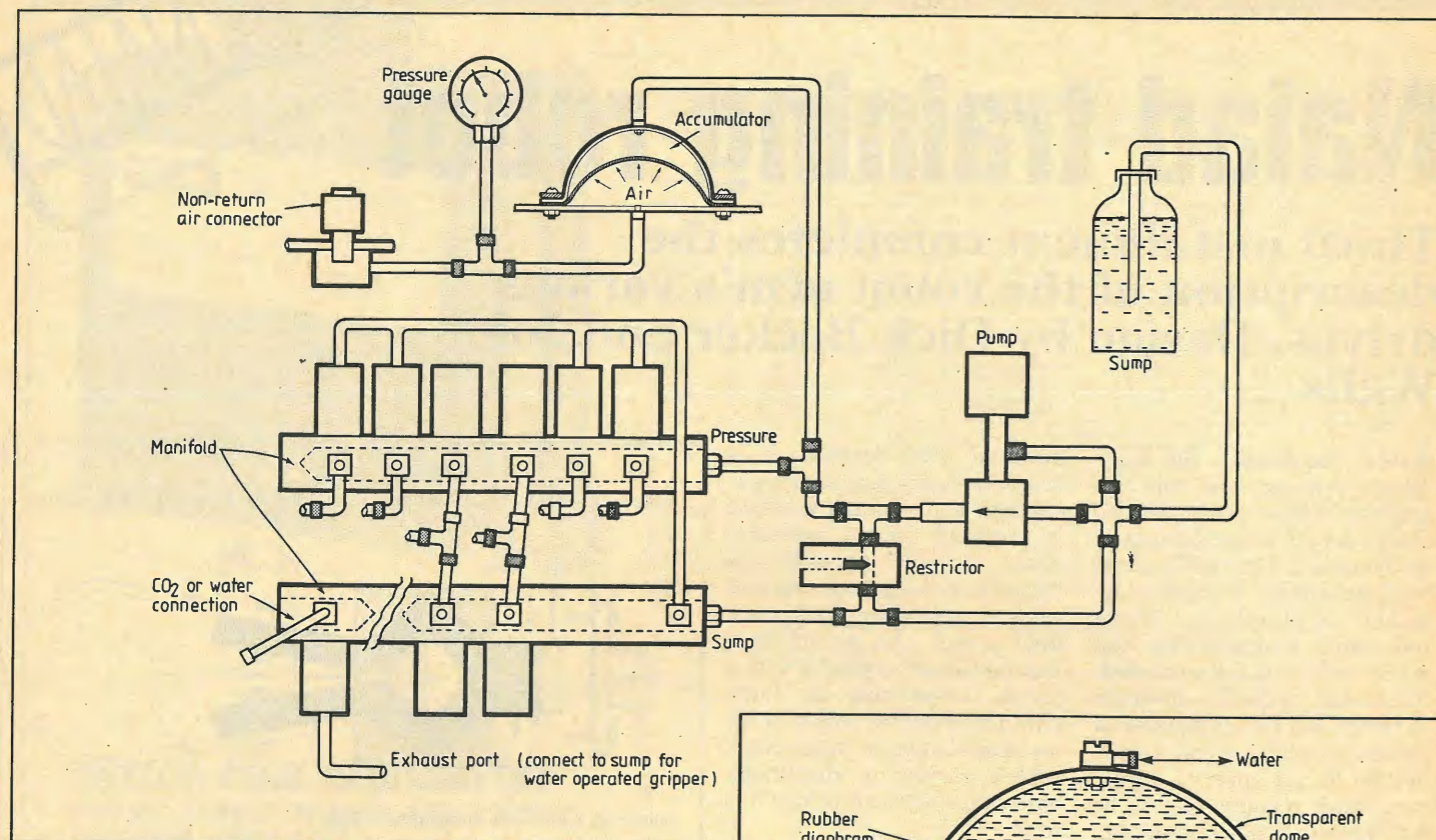


Fig. 18. Hydraulic accumulator is first charged with air at 4 bar (60 psi) forcing diaphragm to take up the shape of the inside of the pressure dome. Water pressure is now applied to the connector in the top of the dome; when it reaches 4 bar, water begins to enter the chamber forcing the diaphragm down. As the diaphragm is forced down air pressure increases. No more water pressure is required to cause a further movement and so on. System stabilizes roughly in the position shown when the pressure in both parts will be about 7 bar. If a flow rate is demanded in excess of the pump capacity, extra flow demanded by the hydraulic system will come from the accumulator.

impedance amplifier so that the voltage measured is linearly dependent upon the angular position of the axis. If linear potentiometers or l.v.d.ts had been fitted to the cylinders then there would be a complicated relationship between their output and the angle of the axis. Also with those methods the voltage-angle relationship is strongly dependent on offset errors, making computation of positions in world coordinates more difficult than it already is on a robot of this versatility.

Whilst the operation of a robot is much easier when there is a built-in servo system, Naiad uses software-servoing of the hydraulics to increase its versatility as an educational tool. With software servoing the solenoids are directly controlled by the computer in response to the instantaneously

measured position, whereas with hardware servoing a robot requires only to have data defining its next position, and this is well illustrated by axis 3, which is the motor driven wrist elevation axis. The servo amplifier for this axis has software-selectable gain so the effect on accuracy and stability on underdamped and overdamped servo systems can be observed.

With the hardware servoing a single line in Basic sends an axis to its next position; software servoing Basic is not fast enough and a machine code routine running in the background is necessary. It's possible to use Basic to give tolerable results if only a single axis is being controlled and this provides another valuable comparison of techniques used in robotics.

To be continued

## Naiad specification

- Axis 0 (waist) Angular movement 180°. Axle centre 101mm above top of base
- Axis 1 (shoulder) Angular movement 90°. Arm length between axle centres 170mm
- Axis 2 (elbow) Angular movement 90°. Arm length between axle centres 190mm
- Axis 3 (wrist elevation) Angular movement 250°
- Axis 4 (wrist rotation) Angular movement 320°
- Axis 5 (gripper) Jaw opening 60mm. Jaw pressure 20 newton. Distance from end of jaws and axis 3 axle 140mm
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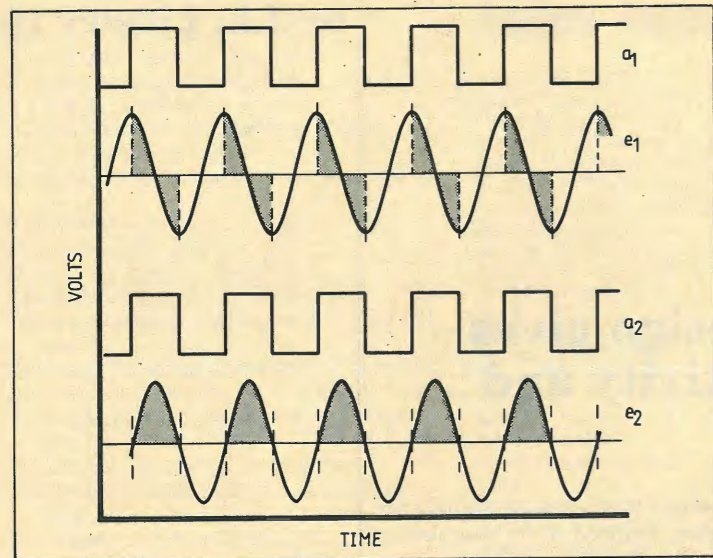


Fig. 2. How the phase difference between oscillator ( $a_1$  and  $a_2$ ) and incoming carrier ( $e_1$  and  $e_2$ ) influences the output voltage (shaded) of the synchronous demodulator of Fig. 1(c). When the input waveforms are in quadrature (top), the net output is zero.

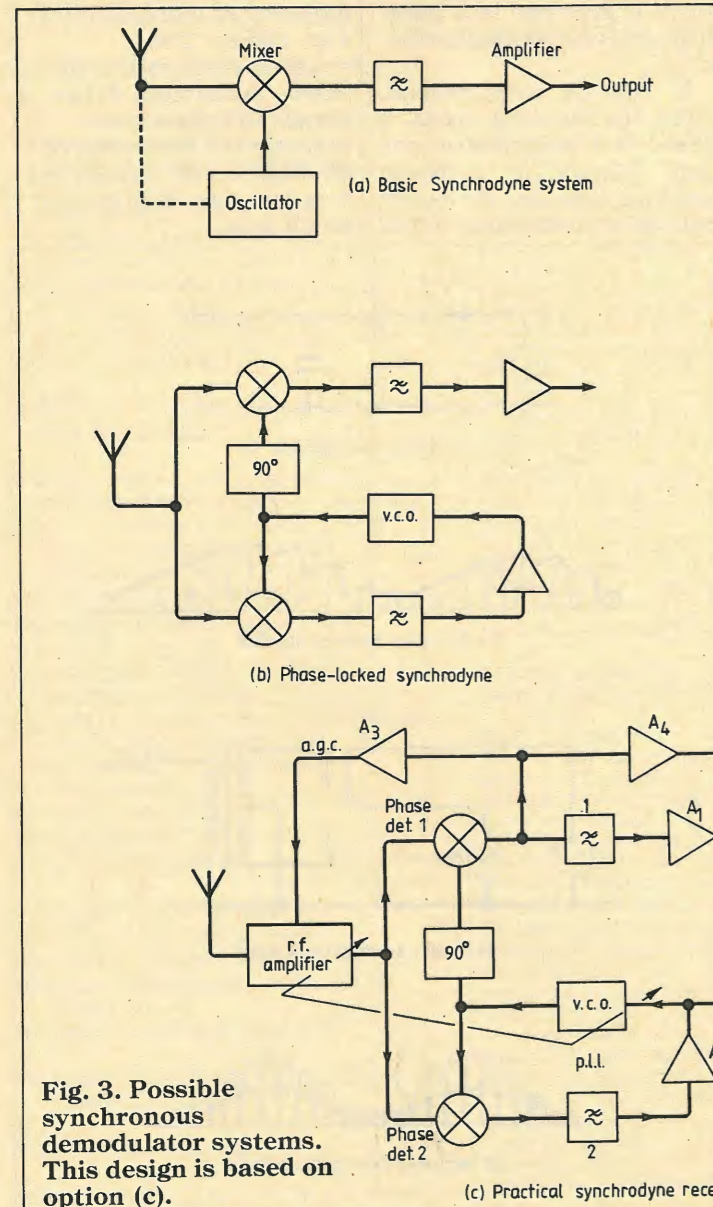


Fig. 3. Possible synchronous demodulator systems. This design is based on option (c).

having a zero beat frequency, leaving just the carrier modulation — the sidebands — as the residual signal. Since the process is simply one of transformation of the carrier frequency down to zero, the system is, in principle, quite linear and the harmonic distortion inherent in any rectifier-based envelope detector can be avoided. I have illustrated the comparative performance, in the case of a high modulation depth, in Fig. 1.

However, there are snags which are sufficiently daunting to prevent this otherwise excellent system from being widely adopted.

**Snags**

In the case of the synchrodyne, the major problem is the piercing whistle which occurs as the station is tuned in, or detuned, because of the a.f. beat note between the local oscillator and the incoming carrier. Since this has an amplitude equivalent to 100% modulation, it is substantially louder than the modulation on the signal itself when correctly tuned it.

This problem is avoided in the homodyne, since the reference oscillator signal is derived from the incoming carrier itself. However, the principal advantage of the synchrodyne, as conceived by Tucker<sup>5,6,7</sup> its inventor, is that since an adjacent signal will produce beat frequencies which are higher than that of the wanted one by the difference in the carrier frequencies, the required selectivity can be obtained by post-demodulator a.f. filtering.

The conventional homodyne,

in which the carrier of the incoming signal is demodulated simply by amplitude limiting, cannot offer this advantage of post-detector selectivity, since any incoming carrier will be treated equally. If pre-detector selectivity has not given adequate carrier discrimination, post-detector a.f. bandwidth curtailment cannot do so either.

If the circuit is a superhet, in which the i.f. frequency is fixed and predetermined, the required carrier isolation can be attained by a very narrow bandwidth circuit, such as a simple crystal filter. But this has the snag that small adjustments in tuning will lead to large changes in the relative phase of the recovered carrier, with consequent large changes in demodulator sensitivity.

This effect arises for the reasons which I have shown graphically in Fig. 2, with reference to the simple synchronous demodulator of Fig. 1c. If the relative phase of the incoming carrier and the switching waveform are at quadrature, the averaged d.c. output in any one limb of the demodulator (illustrated by the cross-hatched portion in the drawing) will be zero. Since this will be true for a carrier of any amplitude, provided that it is symmetrical, it follows that changes in the amplitude of the carrier (for example, produced by amplitude modulation) will have no effect on the output. Therefore the modulation will not be recovered.

For full recovery of the modulation envelope, it is essential that the switching waveform shall be accurately synchronized in phase with the incoming carrier. This is in addition to the requirement, for whistle avoidance, that it should be in frequency synchronism, which presents some difficulties.

In the case of single-sideband, suppressed carrier amateur radio reception, neither frequency nor phase synchronization are so critically important, and synchrodyne systems, with stable, free-running local oscillators have been more widely adopted. They are usually referred to as direct-conversion receivers.

**Synchrodyne receivers**

The simplest functional synchrodyne system of the type proposed by Tucker<sup>4</sup> is as

shown in Fig. 3a. In this, no specific aerial tuning is employed, and the signal which is selected is simply that which is in synchronism with the oscillator. Frequency and phase synchronism are achieved by injecting a small amount of the incoming aerial signal into the oscillator circuit, to induce it to pull into lock.

While such a system can work, especially when there is a strong local station, it is difficult to get the local oscillator frequency sufficiently stable.

A much better system is that shown in Fig. 3b, in which two mixers are employed: one to demodulate the incoming signal and one to operate a separate phase-locked loop system controlling the frequency and phase of the reference oscillator. This is a well-known technique, and practical examples have been described by Leopold<sup>8</sup> and Warsham<sup>9</sup>.

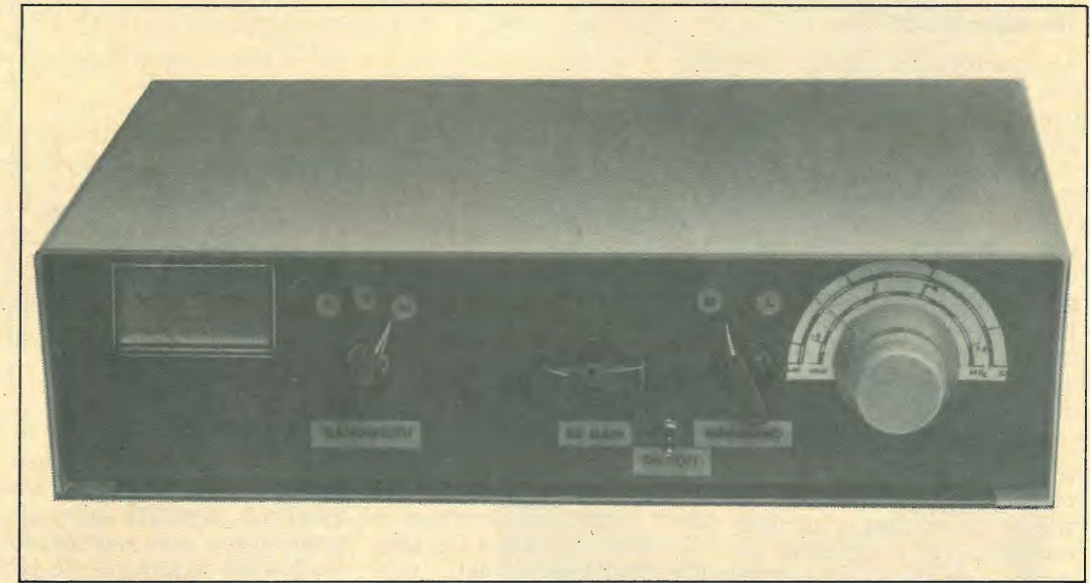
Since the operation of the phase-locked loop (p.l.l.), for reasons which will be discussed later, is such as to force the controlled oscillator into synchronism at quadrature to the phase of the incoming carrier, a 90° phase-shift network or its equivalent must be interposed between the output of the local oscillator and the signal-demodulating mixer.

With some elaboration, this kind of system will form the basis for a practical synchrodyne receiver, which could be used domestically without any undue difficulty in operation. Such a system is shown in outline in Fig. 3c.

**A practical synchrodyne**

As I have mentioned, there are a number of practical problems inherent in the synchrodyne system which must be remedied before such a receiver can be considered a usable alternative to the conventional superhet. Of these, the two most intractable (in the case of a simple direct-conversion system without pre-tuned r.f. stages) are those associated with the cross-modulation of the mixer system, and those associated with spurious signal reception due to oscillator harmonics or the inevitable nonlinearities in the mixer.

A pre-tuned r.f. stage is of great benefit in both of these cases. Firstly, it allows some form of automatic gain control,



John Linsley Hood's phase-locked synchrodyne a.m. receiver covers both long and medium wave bands, giving low distortion, low noise, adjustable selectivity and whistle-free tuning. A kit of parts will be available from Hart Electronics.

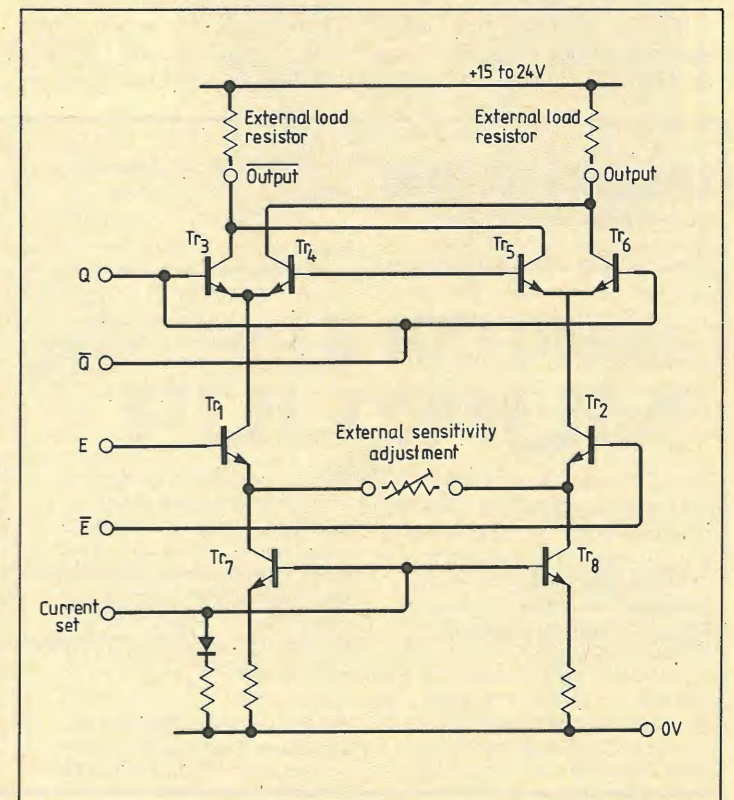
Fig. 4. Balanced modulator-demodulator of the 1496-1596 i.c. family.

to prevent the signal level reaching the mixer from exceeding the level at which excessive cross-modulation occurs (typically in the range 30mV to several volts, depending on mixer type<sup>10</sup>). Secondly, it will provide enough selectivity to avoid spurious signals due to signal or oscillator harmonics.

Also, because some degree of r.f. gain reduces the need for high post-demodulator a.f. gain, the problems of aerial-sourced earth-loop mains hum and tuned-circuit microphony are greatly reduced.

Since the output of the signal demodulator will contain a d.c. component, this can, with suitable amplification, be used as a highly specific source of automatic gain control (a.g.c.) voltage, and also as a control voltage for a signal muting circuit to suppress a.f. output when the receiver is not on tune. This will remove the unpleasant whistle characteristic of a synchrodyne receiver when it approaches or leaves the point of synchronization with the incoming signal.

The practical benefits of such a receiver are considerable. They include, in addition to freedom from whistles and easy adjustment of the adjacent channel selectivity to suit listening conditions, a very low distortion demodulated a.f. signal and a very clean low-noise background. This arises because, in contrast to the diode envelope-demodulator which will demodulate any signal presented to it (including wide band noise), the synchronous detector will





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# Polyphonic keyboard

## — part 5

by D. J. Greaves  
 B.A.

Hardware details of Digipoly's two processors are presented in this final article.

The t.t.l. processor is clocked by a 10MHz Hartley oscillator using  $Tr_6$  as the active component (December issue circuit). Output at 10MHz is converted to a squarewave using the self-biasing stage around  $Tr_5$  and then divided by two by  $IC_{36b}$  to give the operating frequency of 5MHz. This signal clocks the instruction address counter made from  $IC_{2,10}$ , as shown in October on the t.t.l. processor circuit.

Microcode for the processor is stored in  $IC_3$ , a bipolar programmable read-only memory (prom) from the MMI or Signetics 63xx series. The 6349 is organized as 512 locations of eight-bit bytes and has an access time of about 55ns; any non-volatile memory device with an access time of less than 150ns could be substituted.

Each op-code from the prom is latched in  $IC_4$  while it is being executed. The four most-significant bits drive four-to-sixteen-line decoder  $IC_5$ , outputs of which select the operation.

Least-significant bits feed the data selector  $IC_{12}$  to provide a page-select address for the processor's memory device,  $IC_6$ . Being n-mos, memory  $IC_6$  is the slowest element in the t.t.l. processor and limits operating speed to 5MHz. Access time of this 2K-by-8bit static memory is 100ns. As can be seen from Table 1, which shows address allocations for  $IC_6$ , not all the memory locations are used.

The two 74LS181 four-bit arithmetic logic i.cs form the arithmetic unit. Accumulator output register  $IC_{17}$  has its outputs permanently enabled in order to drive the A-bus. Together with the D-bus, the A-bus feeds into the a.l.u. where the two eight-bit

numbers are combined to produce a new value for the accumulator.

Values for the D-bus are supplied from memory. The type of combination performed by the a.l.u. depends on the control number fed into the a.l.u. on pins three to six.

Arithmetic instructions in the t.t.l.-processor instruction set are ordered so that the a.l.u. control number can be derived directly from each op-code bit pattern.

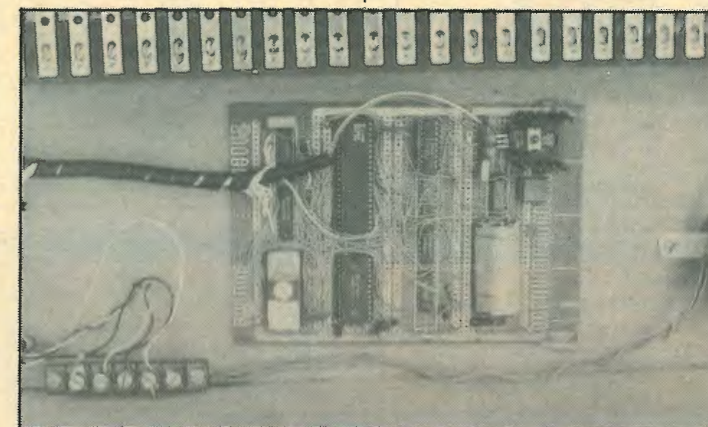
Bistable device  $IC_{34}$  is a one-bit latch containing the carry bit. It is updated only as a result of an ADD instruction and its contents are fed into the a.l.u. through  $IC_{33c,21d}$  during an analogue-to-digital conversion instruction.

For store operations,  $IC_{16}$  is enabled to feed the accumulator value onto the D-bus so that the memory can be updated. Some store operations feed the output ports in an addressing mode decoded by  $IC_{35c}$ . One of two output ports is selected by  $IC_{24}$ .

Data for the output analogue converter is latched in  $IC_{15}$  in two's complement form. Since the digital-to-analogue converter expects unsigned numbers on its inputs,  $IC_{26c}$  adds 128 to the number which offsets the zero value to the middle of the converter's voltage range.

Addressing modes are decoded by random logic and determine what feeds the address inputs to the memory. Four-bit V-register  $IC_{22}$  is gated onto  $A_{0,3}$  by  $IC_{13}$  if indexed addressing is required for V instructions.

Zeros are fed onto the low address bits by  $IC_1$  and  $IC_{11}$  feeds zeros onto the high address bits if indexing is not required. If accumulator indexing is required, buffer  $IC_{18}$  is enabled to gate the A-bus onto  $A_{0,7}$ .



Input to the t.t.l. processor occurs during the HOST instruction under control of the 8088 processor. The 8088 processor has an i/o bus called the Q-bus which feeds three register ports in the t.t.l. processor. Latches and operations of these three ports are shown on Table 2.

Writing data to port 14 also sets two-bit shift register  $IC_9$  to all ones. Clocking of the shift register takes places at the end of each HOST instruction; if the output bit is one, data from  $IC_{14}$  is written into the t.t.l. processor memory.

**8088 microprocessor board also contains an 8K eprom, 2Kbyte ram, an 8284 clock generator and crystal, NiCd battery for data retention, various support chips and an extra reset switch.**

### Feature summary

Digipoly is an eight-note polyphonic digital musical instrument with a five-octave keyboard transposable over a nine-octave useful range. It includes

- Comprehensive envelope generator controls
- Vibrato and tremolo control
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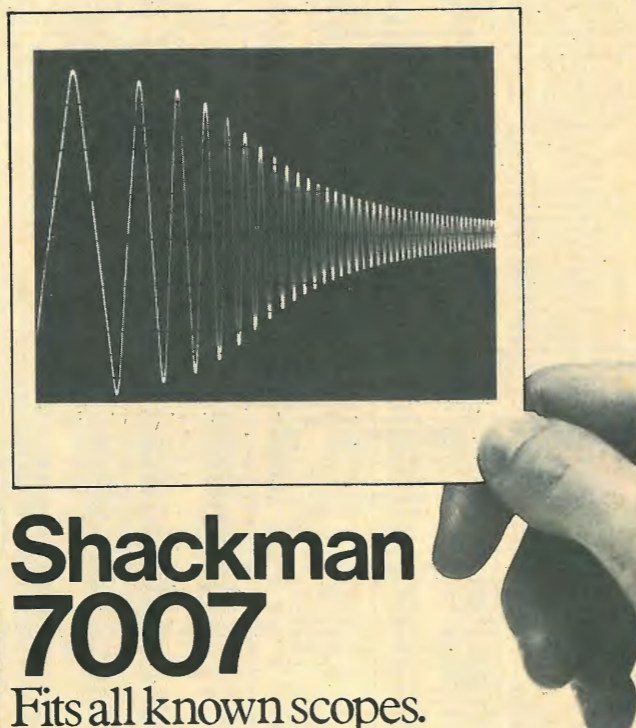
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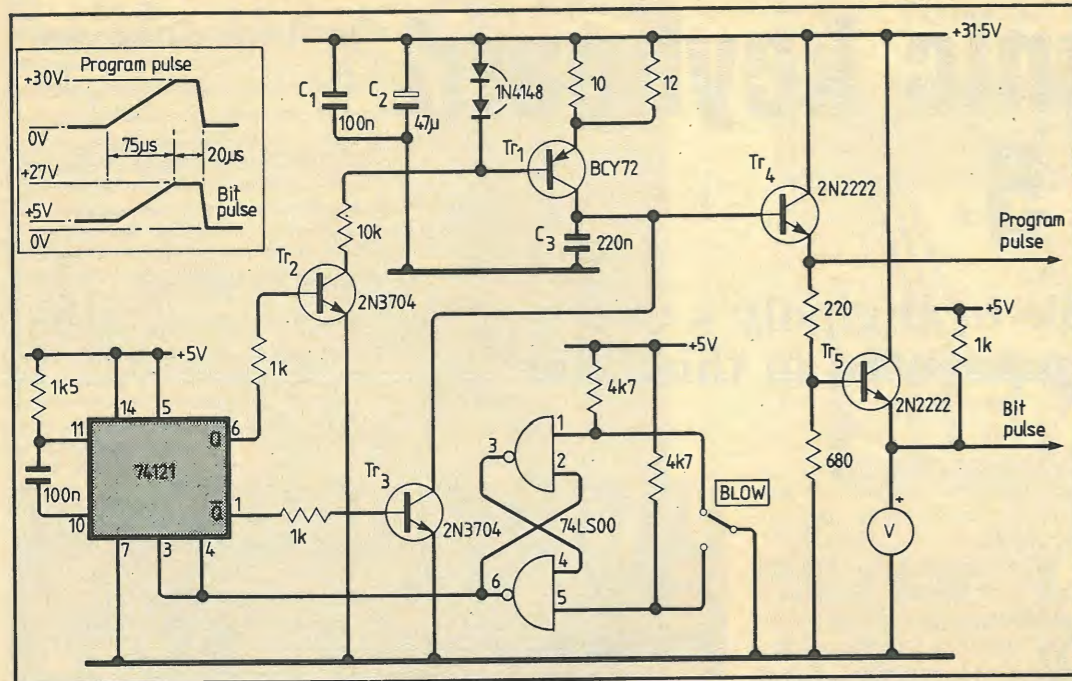
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# POLYPHONIC KEYBOARD



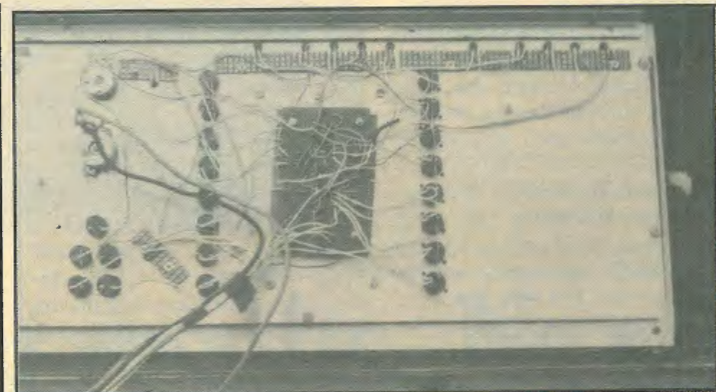
Microcode for the high-speed t.t.l. processor is contained in a 63xx-series programmable rom (Monolithic Memories, Farnborough). This circuit, published on page 39 in the April 1985 issue of *Electronic Engineering* is for programming such roms. There are one or two minor errors in the previously published circuit.

The 6349 prom may be programmed manually by addressing a byte then using this circuit to program all bits that must be zero. The program pulse is fed to the chip-enable input, pin 15, and the bit pulse to the output pin.

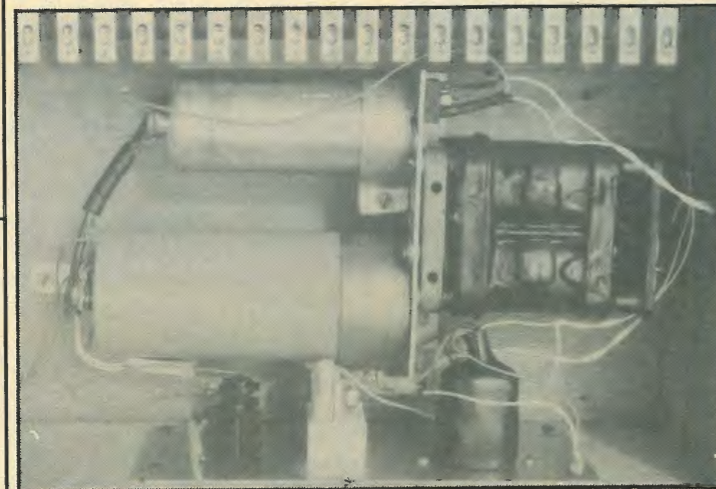
**Table 1. Memory use in the t.t.l. processor**

Address	Array
000-00F	low-order osc. phases
080-08F	high-order osc. phases
100-10F	low-order frequency values
180-18F	high-order frequency values
200-20F	volume values
400-4FF	table of squares
500-5FF	waveform table
600	E <sub>0</sub> register
680	E <sub>1</sub> register
700	E <sub>2</sub> register
780	E <sub>3</sub> register

Note: the first five arrays are indexed using the V register; the two tables are indexed using the accumulator.



Back view of Digipoly's front panel showing the knobs leds and switches. Four interface devices IC<sub>47,48,49,63</sub> are mounted on their own board, with led current-limiting resistors and the Q-bus terminating pull-up resistors.



Digipoly power supply provides 8V and -8V unregulated. Up to 2.5A is required from the positive supply to drive the 5V logic.

Presence of the shift register causes the data to be written twice on successive HOST instructions. The second writing ensures that the correct data is written to the t.t.l. processor memory when the HOST instruction is executing at the time that the 8088 writes to IC<sub>14</sub>.

For speed, and since the IN-CV instruction does not need access to the memory, INVC and HOST instructions are performed together using the same op-code. This is simply a matter of wiring outputs of IC<sub>5</sub>.

The LOOP instruction causes the address counter to load a zero value on the next instruction. Since there is a one instruction delay through the prom and IC<sub>4</sub>, the instruction after LOOP is always executed before control resumes at the start of the microcode. If needed, an accumulator indexed branch could be added by simply feeding the A-bus to pins three to six of IC<sub>2,10</sub>.

## 8088 processor hardware

The 8088 microprocessor is mounted on a separate board with ten other i.cs, forming a self-contained microcomputer module. This module is connected to the rest of Digipoly through a single 25-pin connector carrying address/data lines for the 16 ports, signals for reset, busy and interrupt and an 8V supply line. This is a general-purpose computer board; I have used the same circuit in other applications.

Clock generator IC<sub>50</sub> is an Intel 8284 device. It divides a 14.7486MHz crystal frequency by three to obtain the two-to-one duty cycle required by the 8088 processor. Power-on reset and wait-state circuits are also provided by the 8284, although wait states are not used in this design.

Component IC<sub>52</sub> provides the 8088 processor with 2Kbyte of ram. This static ram is an HMM6116LP-3 c-mos device requiring only about 4µA of current in standby mode. It is practical to run the memory from a small NiCd battery for long periods; when Digipoly is switched on, the battery charges automatically from the 5V supply.

Supply-pin 24 of the ram is connected to the 5V supply but the ground pin is connected to

ground through Tr<sub>8</sub>. When the board is powered Tr<sub>8</sub> is switched fully on, bringing the main and i.c. grounds to within 50mV of each other. This figure is too small to affect logic switching. When power is removed however, Tr<sub>8</sub> turns off, causing the ram ground pin to move to -4.8V relative to the main ground.

Put another way, all ram control signals move to +4.8V, or logic one. Since the ram control pins are active when at logic zero, this disables the ram, putting it into low-power mode. When Tr<sub>8</sub> is off, its collector-base diode becomes forward biased so Tr<sub>7</sub> is needed to stop the battery being discharged through the base of Tr<sub>8</sub>.

Input and output to the 8088 is performed through the Q-bus. This bus is a set of eight lines running through the whole instrument. Associated with the Q-bus is the MD-bus consisting of four lines for selecting one of the 16 i/o ports that the 8088 can address.

Both the MD-bus and the transceiver buffering the bus, IC<sub>56</sub>, are set up before master strobe line GO is pulsed low. This gives time for written data to propagate and settle. On input cycles, the data is returned to the 8088 before the trailing edge of the GO pulse. This pulse is always about 350ns long.

On arriving at the board, the active-low interrupt-request signal is inverted and fed to the 8088 maskable-interrupt input. The non-maskable input is not used. In response to an interrupt, the 8088 strobes INTA low twice at pin 24. The first strobe is a dummy one and the second reads an interrupt vector from the processor data bus. Eight diodes provide the vector by grounding each line during the acknowledge cycle, producing a zero value. Hence only vector zero is used and this sets software to read a serial byte from the Midi-in port.

## Performance

Figure 6a in the September issue shows the Digipoly output spectrum when synthesizing a single 1kHz sine wave. The noise floor is at -65dB relative to the single note. This is virtually all sampling noise which disappears when no notes are pressed since d-to-a converter

25-pin connectors Two connectors, both D-types, link the main t.t.l. processor to the front panel and 8088 card.

Pin	8088-board	Control panel
1	n.c.	5V
2	8V unstab.	n.c.
3	strobe, atc. low	read control buttons
4	ground	knob voltage
5	n.c.	pitch-bend voltage
6	MD <sub>0</sub>	read buttons 1-8
7	MD <sub>1</sub>	read buttons 9-16
8	MD <sub>2</sub>	write to leds
9	MD <sub>3</sub>	n.c.
10	Q <sub>7</sub>	Q <sub>7</sub>
11	Q <sub>6</sub>	Q <sub>6</sub>
12	Q <sub>5</sub>	Q <sub>5</sub>
13	Q <sub>4</sub>	Q <sub>4</sub>
14	ground	ground
15	ground	audio ground
16	BUSY	audio out
17	reset switch	reset switch
18	ground	ground
19	INT	n.c.
20	n.c.	n.c.
21	n.c.	n.c.
22	Q <sub>3</sub>	Q <sub>3</sub>
23	Q <sub>2</sub>	Q <sub>2</sub>
24	Q <sub>1</sub>	Q <sub>1</sub>
25	Q <sub>0</sub>	Q <sub>0</sub>

**Table 2. Port data latches**

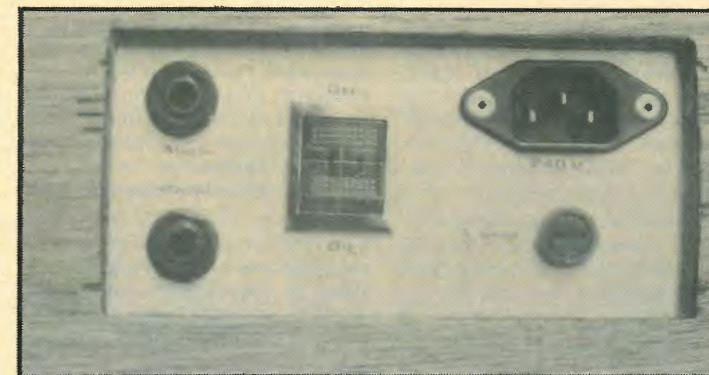
IC	Port	Operation
28	12	select type of memory to be modified
25	13	memory offset of type defined above
14	14	data to be stored

output is constant d.c.

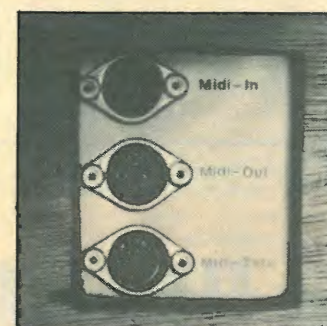
Sampling noise can be heard quite clearly if Digipoly is connected into a high-quality amplifier and loudspeakers. This means that a further low-pass filter, for example on a mixing desk, has to be added before the sine wave voice can be used for quiet solo work. For all other voices there is no problem with output signal-to-noise ratio.

Owing to the note-generation technique, synthesis of high-frequency complex waveforms above about 1kHz is not good. Using higher frequencies, non-consecutive samples from the waveform table are taken with gaps of several samples. This causes small features in the waveform to become aliased, thus introducing the characteristically unmusical spurious frequencies into the sound. Remember though, that the true harmonics that these small features are supposed to add to the sound would be out of the audio spectrum and the desired sound can be achieved by using a simpler waveform.

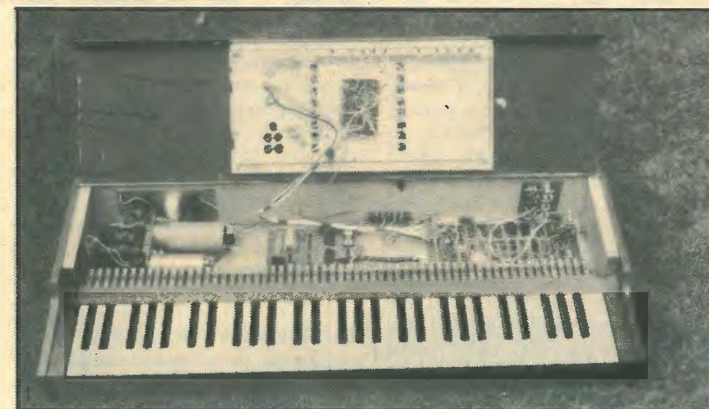
Figure 6(b) in the September issue shows intermodulation product measured when two sine waves are produced by



Digipoly back panel provides an illuminated on/off power switch and access to the mains fuse. A BS4491 connector is provided for 240V a.c. input and 6mm jacks connect the sustain-pedal switch and the audio output.



Midi standard calls for three connections; Midi-in receives data which is automatically echoed on Midi-through. Midi-out leads to other devices under Digipoly control.



General view of Digipoly interior. The power supply is at the left, 8088 processor central and t.t.l. processor right.







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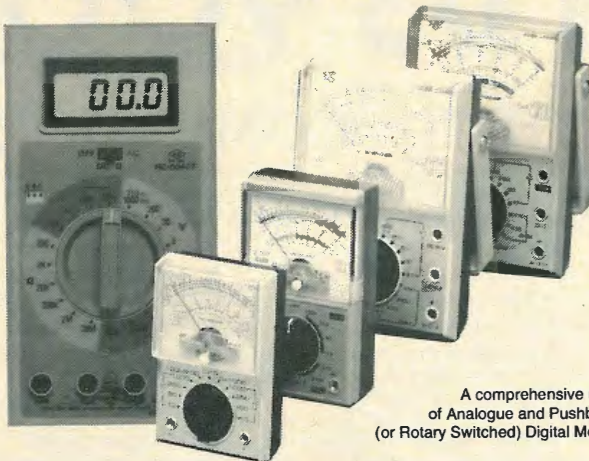
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# 68000 board-4

by R.F. Coates

## With the board now working and talking to the terminal Bob Coates turns to his Kaybug monitor software.

The monitor has been made as friendly as possible. It prompts the user for the next entry line where necessary and gives a 'help' listing which shows all the available commands with a brief description of each. Even the occasional user should not need to refer to the full description having once studied it.

A total of 38 different commands is available, each one invoked by a simple two-letter code. Any further information required is prompted for. The commands allow listing of memory blocks, altering memory, loading object code from host, setting breakpoints, altering register contents, running programs, single-step tracing through programs and so on.

The monitor accepts either upper or lower-case letters. Printing on the terminal screen is formatted to suit 80-column terminals but a command allows an alternative 40-column format.

There is a collection of system calls (sub-routines) which a user's program may call upon. Most are concerned with reading the keyboard and writing to the terminal screen, but others include b.c.d. to binary conversions and a 32-bit divide.

Unless otherwise stated, addresses and values entered are eight-digit hex numbers. The last eight are taken if more than eight are entered and leading zeroes are inserted if there are fewer than eight. Addresses must begin on word boundaries (even addresses).

### The command set

**An** - examine/alter address register: the value in any of the target program's processor registers may be examined and altered if required. This command applies to the address

registers  $a_0$  to  $a_6$  ( $a_7$  is the stack pointer).

The command is invoked by keying the letter A followed by the appropriate number from 0 to 6. The current contents are then displayed (zero after a reset). The user is asked to enter either a new value followed by <cr> or just <cr> to leave the contents unaltered.

**AE** - Ascii entry: if text strings are to be included in your program, this command allows them to be entered more easily than is possible with the MO command.

It asks for the starting address and then waits for Ascii characters to be entered. It stores them as a string of bytes in memory. All Ascii characters and control codes are stored, apart from the break/hold characters and the following - Backspace: does not store but backs spaces the memory pointer and terminal cursor to allow corrections to be made.

**Control-C:** stores 'carriage return' with bit 7 set ( $8D_{16}$ ).  
**Control-L:** stores 'line feed' with bit 7 set ( $8A_{16}$ ).  
**Control-N:** stores null (00), the terminator required by pdata1/pdatam. Displays as \0.

The terminator control code set by ST is used to exit the AE command, the address following the end of the string being displayed.

**AS** - line-by-line assembler: This is an optional extension to the monitor.

It accepts assembler source code a line at a time, assembles it and stores the resulting object code in memory.

When this command is invoked, the display shows the default starting address which is 400400<sub>16</sub>. If a different address is required, the new address may be entered in hex, preceded by a dollar sign.

### Kaycomp specification

Processor	Motorola MC68000 or MC68010
Data bus	16 bits
Clock speed	Up to 10MHz
Eprom	Up to 128K-bytes
Ram	Up to 64K-bytes
Serial i/o	Two RS232 ports, 75 to 19200 bit/s
Parallel i/o	26 i/o; six input; six output
External bus	G64-bus (peripherals)
Dimensions	233.4mm x 160mm (double Eurocard)

Power	+5V at 0.7A, +12V and -12V at 30mA
-------	------------------------------------

Firmware	Comprehensive monitor Line-by-line assembler
Cost	Bare board: £18.90; with eproms and monitor, £34.40; with assembler too, £48.40; from Magenta Electronics, 135 Hunter Street, Burton-on-Trent, Staffordshire DE14 2ST. All prices include v.a.t. Postage costs 60p extra.

Each assembler source line should be terminated by a carriage return, e.g.

```
moveq #10,d3<cr>
```

After the terminating carriage return, the line is assembled, object code stored in memory and the line displayed as follows,

```
400400 760A moveq 10#,d3 400402
```

indicating the address, the object code produced and the original input line.

Lastly the address is incremented and displayed on the following line to await the next entry.

All standard Motorola instruction mnemonics are accepted as well as the five pseudos \$nnnnn, data, ascii, asciz and end.

\$nnnnn alters the working address to nnnnn. The address entered must be even.

data allows bytes of data to be entered, e.g.

```
data 0,1,$10,32
```

will enter hex bytes 00, 01, 10, 20 into memory.

ascii allows Ascii text strings to be entered. The pseudo ascii must be followed by one space. All keys entered, up to the terminating <cr>, are then stored in memory as Ascii characters.

asciz: as ascii but also appends a null byte to the string, as required as terminator by pdata1. Note that if an odd number of bytes are entered with the data, ascii or asciz pseudos, then if an instruction mnemonic follows, its code will automatically be aligned on the next word boundary.

end terminates the assembler command and returns the monitor prompt. The <del> key will also abort the assembler, as with other commands.

Instructions for the 68000 can be specified as one of three sizes: byte (.b), word (.w) or long-word (.l). The required

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size specification is appended to the mnemonic, e.g.  
eor.b d3, (a6)

If no size is specified then 'word' is assumed.

Some instructions allow only one size. In such cases, no size may be specified.

Most of the addressing modes are as standard Motorola assembler format, but some variations should be noted (see box, right).

Since the assembler works line-by-line it has no way of resolving labels. Branch destinations must therefore be entered either as an absolute address,

```
bra $400426
```

or as a p.c. relative displacement,

```
bra * + 26
```

(branch forward 26 bytes)

The displacement may be either short (8 bits) or long (16 bits) and is specified by appending .s or .l to the mnemonic. If no size is specified, .l is assumed:

```
bra.s $400426
```

(one-word instruction) or

```
bra.l $400426
```

(two-word instruction).

**Bn** — breakpoint display/set: up to four separate breakpoints may be set within a program, B1, B2, B3 and B4. If, say, B1 is entered, the terminal displays the address where this breakpoint is set. The user may either hit just <cr> to leave the breakpoint set at the current address; or else enter a new address where the breakpoint is to be set, removing any old breakpoint that may be set. If an address of zero is entered then no new breakpoint is set, just the old one removed.

**CM** — compare two blocks of memory: this command compares two blocks of memory and prints any differences between them. It asks for three addresses to be entered: the start address of the first block, the end address of the first block and the start address of the second block. It then compares the memory blocks byte-by-byte and prints a list of addresses (first block address given) where bytes do not match.

**CN** — continue execution after break: when a breakpoint is set at a particular address in ram with the *Bn* command, the original instruction at that address is saved and replaced by a

**Addressing mode details**

**Indexed**

The size subscript for the indexing register is optional, 'word' being the default.

**Absolute word/long**

This may be entered either as an absolute address or as a displacement from the current address. It must be suffixed with wither .w or .l to indicate absolute word or absolute long modes. So

```
400400 clr $400420.l and 400400 clr *$20.l
```

are equivalent instructions (\*means current program counter contents).

**P.c. relative, indexed**

The format of these is similar to 'register indirect with displacement' and 'indexed', but with 'pc' replacing the register. The interpretation of the displacement is different though:

```
movea 10(pc), a6
```

means the displacement will be the relative offset between address 10 and the current address.

```
movea * + 10(pc), a6
```

means the displacement will be the relative offset between the current address + 10 and the current address: in other words, 10.

In the case of the line ...

```
lea string, a6
```

(which loads a6 with the relative address of label 'string' at assembled address of \$40043C<sub>16</sub>, the line would be entered as lea \$40043c(pc), a6

Trap instruction with vector number 15 to 12 for B1 to B4 respectively.

When this instruction is executed the processor jumps back into the monitor, first displaying the current status of all the registers. If it is now desired to resume execution from this point, the *CN* command will re-start the program by re-inserting the original instruction at the breakpoint address and running that instruction. Thus the breakpoint is automatically cancelled by this command.

**CV** — convert between hex and decimal: this useful programming aid will convert numbers from hexadecimal to decimal and vice-versa.

To enter a number in hexadecimal form, prefix it with the letter X. The largest number that may be converted is 99999999 or its hexadecimal equivalent.

**Dn** — examine/alter data registers: this is exactly the same as *An*, but works on data registers d<sub>0</sub> to d<sub>7</sub>.

**FI** — fill block of memory with word. The start and end address of the memory block are requested first, then the value of the data word (up to four hex digits). The memory block is then filled with this word.

No checks are performed to see whether the data has been stored correctly.

**GO** — go and execute target program: this is the command to start running your target program. It asks for the start address of your program, then sets all the processor registers to the target values (as shown by *RD*). It then loads the program counter with the entered address, transferring control to your program, in which it will remain until a breakpoint, say, returns it to the monitor.

**HE** — help: gives a brief description of all commands.

**LH** — Load S file from the host into memory: this is used to download an object-code file created by a host computer's assembler or compiler into the Kaycomp's ram area ready for running. The host system must be capable of outputting the object file in the standard Motorola S2 Ascii format.

The *LH* command is very similar to the *TM* command, the Kaycomp going 'transparent' and the terminal being able to talk to the host computer. In addition, though, it looks at the information coming back from the host for data in S file format, which contains Ascii encoded object code plus address and checksum information. If it finds this, it will decode it and store it at the designated address in memory.

If an error occurs during loading — if a byte is not stored correctly or if there is a

checksum error — then the message

```
*** LOAD ERROR ***
```

will appear and the command will be aborted.

If the S file is loaded in correctly, the end-of-file marker will cause the command to exit without error. Alternatively, an exit from the command can be forced with <control-T> or whatever the terminator has been set to by the *ST*.

If a breakpoint is set in memory at a point where *LH* loads new data, then the breakpoint is cancelled.

The procedure then for using this command is first, key *LH*; key in the host system's command for dumping an object file in S format; then wait until the file is loaded (it is displayed as it is received).

**LT** — Load S file from terminal: this is the same as *LH* except that it receives the S format file from the terminal rather than the host port.

After this command has been entered, the computer being used as terminal must exit terminal mode and be made to download the S file.

**LW** — locate data word in memory: this will search for a particular data word in a memory block.

It asks for memory block start and end addresses and then for the four-digit hex data word to be located. It will then print a list of all addresses in the block where the data word is found.

**MO** — memory open/modify: this command allows you to examine and modify memory a word at a time.

It first asks for the address where you wish to start. It then displays that address and its current contents.

The user may choose to alter the contents by entering a new four-digit hex value.

The line should be terminated by one of the following keys:

(a) <space> will cause the new data word, if entered, to be stored in memory. The command will then step on to the next memory word.

(b) <^> (upward arrow on some terminals) causes data to be stored and then the previous word opened.

(c) <cr> causes the data to be stored and the command exited.

If a new data word is stored, a check is made to ensure that it is stored correctly (i.e. addressed to ram and not to eeprom).

If it has not been stored, \*\*\* NO CHANGE \*\*\* is displayed and the command exited.

**MV** — move memory block: allows a block of memory to be moved up or down in memory by as small or large a shift as required.

It asks for the start and end address of the memory block to be moved and then the new start address it is to take. No checks are performed to see whether the bytes moved are correctly stored.

**PR** — Print memory block: prints on the screen the contents of the specified block of memory.

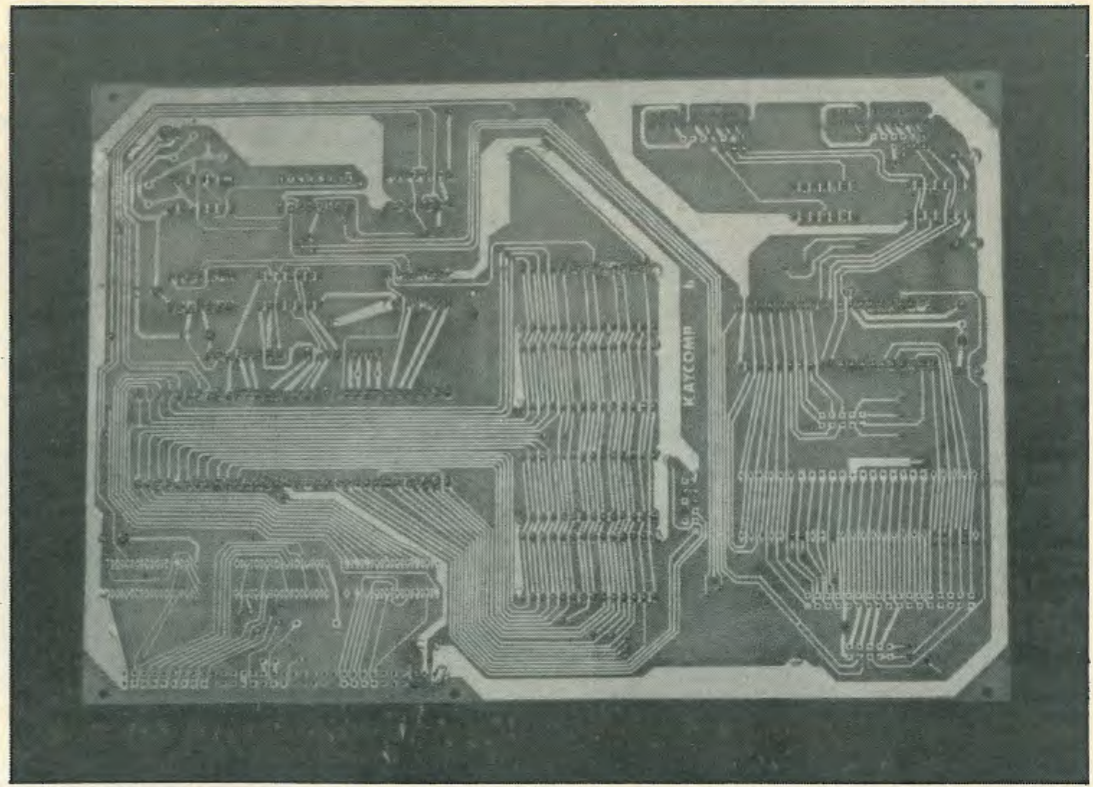
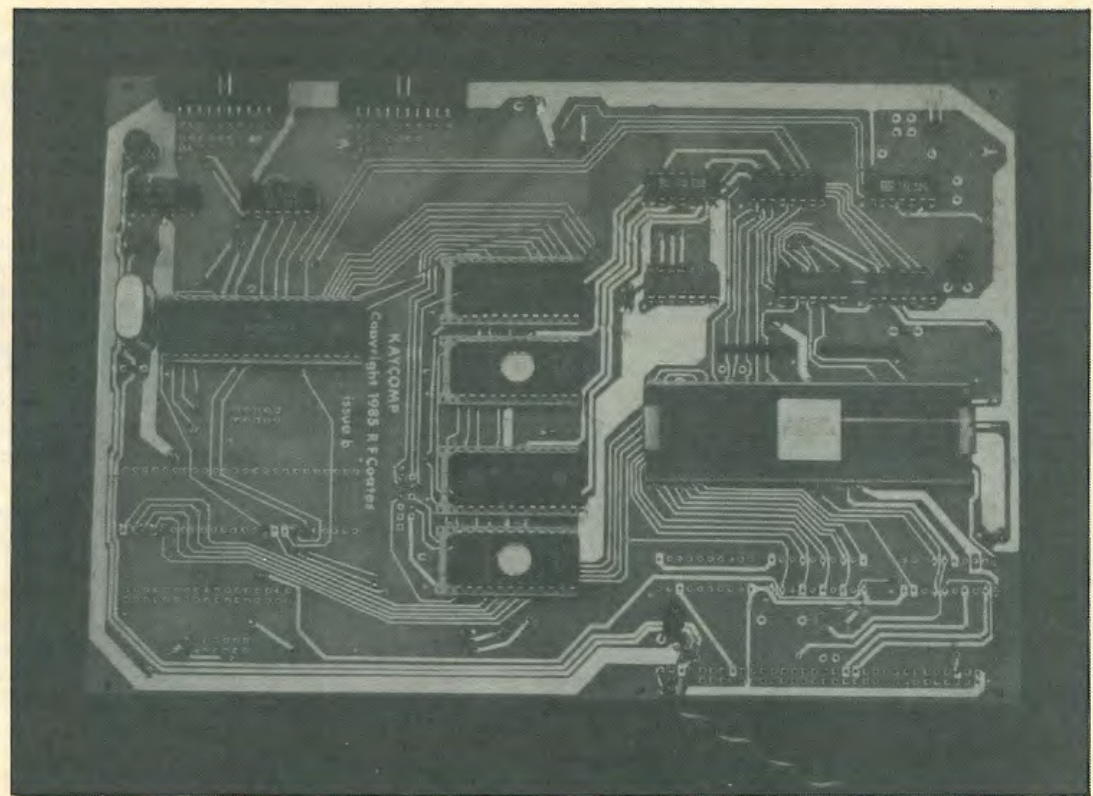
It asks for the start and end addresses of the data block (which need not be at word boundaries as the start address is rounded down to the start of a 16-byte block and the end address rounded up). In asking, it displays the value last used and re-uses it if you hit just <cr>.

The data is formatted into word-sized groups. Eight words are displayed to a line in the 80-column mode (see *TC*), four words per line in 40-column mode. On the right of each line is displayed the Ascii equivalent character of each byte in the line (a dot if there is none).

Control-S and control-Q may be used to control the output, <del> to abort it.

**RD** — Display target program's registers: this command is called automatically when a breakpoint is encountered. It shows the contents of all the 68000's registers. The values displayed are those which the registers will contain if a program is started using *GO* or re-started using *CN*.

With the exception of the status register (SR), all are 32-bit registers and are displayed as eight-digit hex numbers. 'A7' refers to the supervisor stack pointer, as Kaycomp always operates in supervisor mode to allow the user unhindered access to all instructions except when a user's program switches the processor to the user mode.



The status register is only 16 bits in size. If it were displayed as four hex digits, some mental agility would be needed to discover the state of each individual bit. The status register is therefore displayed as 16 individual bits: a 1 indicating bit set, 0 bit clear. Each allocated bit is labelled by a legend above.

The program counter (PC) is

the address where the breakpoint trap instruction was encountered.

**SR** — examine/alter status register: equivalent to *An* but operating on the status register. It accepts and displays a four-digit hex value; so the particular bit pattern required must be converted to hex before being entered.

**Correction:** in the December article, the ninth line on page 38 should begin, "If power is *not* derived..."

**ST** — *set terminator*. The **LH**, **LT** and **TM** commands may, by default, be terminated by keying <control-T>. However, this particular character may have some function on the host computer you happen to be using and so there might be no way to send this code through from terminal to host.

To overcome this problem, the command **ST** allows the terminator to be changed to some other control code. This may be any Ascii control code (00 to 1F<sub>16</sub>) other than carriage-return (0D<sub>16</sub>).

**TC** — *toggle column mode*. The displays associated with some commands assume that an 80-column terminal is being used and make full use of the screen width available.

This presents a problem where the terminal has fewer than 80 columns, for instance, a home computer with only 40 columns. But the command **TC**

causes 40-column print formatting to be used in all subsequent operations. Entering **TC** again will switch back to 80-column mode.

**TR** — *trace target program*: when your program does not work and you cannot find where it is going wrong, it can be helpful to step through it one instruction at a time.

**TR** allows this by executing the target program and after each instruction displaying the register contents as with **RD**. It will continue this until a breakpoint is hit or control is passed back to the monitor, but control-S can be used to suspend execution and display.

**TR** asks first for the address where tracing is to be started; then for the address where the program is to be started from.

The two addresses may be the same, but are prompted for separately, so that the trace

display may be started after code which is known to be working and where tracing is not required.

Note that if the addresses are different the processor still single-step traces from the very start; but the display being only when the trace start address is encountered. Up to that point, therefore, the program will run considerably faster as there is no display taking place, but it will not run at full speed.

**TM** — *transparent mode*. A host computer may be connected to Port B and used for storing programs on its storage medium and assembling them. This command makes a transparent connection between the terminal and host allowing the terminal to work the host directly.

Control-S, control-Q and <del> are not intercepted but passed on to the host. The only character not transferred is the

terminator, normally control-T, unless altered by **ST**.

**WB** — *write bytes to a memory location*. The **MO** command works fine for altering memory but is inconvenient when you wish to talk to peripheral devices, such as the P/I/T or a d-to-a converter. But **WB** allows bytes to be written to any address, odd or even. It does not advance the address neither does it read back the data to check that the data stored correctly. D-to-a converters, for instance, normally cannot be read, only written to: so checking would serve no purpose.

The command asks first for the address of the byte to be operated on, then waits on a new line for successive pairs of hex digits to be entered. Each byte is stored at the chosen address.

The command is exited by <cr> or <del>.

*To be continued*

# Rtty analyst

## Using a computer to analyse radio teleprinter signals, automatically scanning, searching, detecting and translating messages

**I**ndly twiddling the tuning dial of your communications receiver readily demonstrates that the airwaves are dominated not by human speech but by a great variety of coded signals.

### Binary sequential codes

Apart from a single exception ('Piccolo') these signals can all be described as "binary serial codes" (b.s.cs) a pretentious phrase which is simply explained. It means that the signals consist of two elements only which may be on/off, or 0/1, or high/low, or short/long: and that these two elements are strung together in a continuous sequence. The nature of the two elements, and the ways they may be strung out are determined by coding rules: two typical such sets of rules (for r.t.t.y. and Morse) are illustrated in Figs. 1 and 2. In general, b.s.c. is such an effective means of communication that it is by no means limited to radio: telephone network messages are becoming increasingly b.s.c. in type, whether in the form of Prestel or many other systems.

Returning to radio, most b.s.cs encountered are some form of r.t.t.y, closely followed in popularity by high-speed Morse and the 'TOR' family of codes. Indeed the prevalence of r.t.t.y. has triggered a surge of amateur interests, the ready availability of r.t.t.y. decoder units and computer software to translate and display signals visually, but there is a snag!

The very efficiency of b.s.c. has spawned not only many types of code, but also a bewildering variety within each type — and this is especially true of r.t.t.y. Nor does the tale end here: further variations are found even within a variety — arising from the fact that

transmission media and equipment distort or even violate the strict rules of coding. Some system of classification is needed to tidy the subject up: here a biological analogy can be of help. Just as living creatures are classified by genus, species and varieties, so too can b.s.cs.

The major groups of codes (r.t.t.y. Morse, AMTOR etc.) can be thought of as genera. Within each genus, many different species are to be found — Fig. 3 shows some of the species of r.t.t.y. Again, within each species, we can observe varieties — of which Fig. 4 provides some examples.

At first hearing it can be very hard to distinguish one genus from another (let alone identify the species and variety) — though long practice can help. Computer software designed for one genus will often display messages, even when fed with another: messages which are, needless to say, completely spurious. It is as if one were to attempt to translate an Arabic text by resorting to the rules of Chinese grammar! The result is much time fruitlessly wasted in trying to make sense of 'foreign' genera, or in stepping through all possible permutations of species, until something of significance appears — which may never transpire if the message is encrypted! Not only is this a horrible waste of time, but it is a formidable obstacle to programmed search operations which the alliance between home computers and amateur radio is making increasingly practical (see *Practical Wireless*, August/September, 1985).

What is clearly needed is a method of analysing any b.s.c., and supplying the user with precise information as to genus, species and variety and also maybe type of message content. Though this may appear a

tall order, something very close to it may be achieved by exploiting the technique of spectral analysis. How this technique is able to identify true r.t.t.y., and also sort out its species and variety is the subject of the present article. However, the selfsame technique can be applied to any b.s.c. — and is by no means limited only to radio signals — enabling many other exotic fauna of the communications jungle to be detected, identified, classified, and in some cases even deciphered.

by Ronald Alpiar



Mr Alpiar was educated at Merchant Taylors' School, and Pembroke College, Cambridge, where he read mathematics and Ely Theological College, where he gained a diploma in theology and was ordained as a Anglican priest. There followed 25 years of work in research departments of universities and institutes in England and Switzerland, Mr Alpiar's interests being high-energy physics, reactor physics and computer applications. He retired early in 1980 to pursue his interests at leisure.

## GRUNDIG AND ELECTRONIC BROKERS

Grundig AG, well known in the UK as a manufacturer of domestic electronic equipment, also possesses a reputation for test and measurement instruments. In a recent move to obtain better penetration of the UK market for t. and m., the company has appointed Electronic Brokers as exclusive UK distributors of, initially, eight instruments from the Grundig range. Instruments covered by the agreement include oscilloscopes, video pattern generators and an automatic field-strength meter.

Top of the oscilloscope range is the M053, a 50 MHz dual-channel instrument with what Grundig call a 'user-friendly' time-base control, which automatically sets the time-base speed to suit the signal and displays the time-setting digitally. It offers all the usual X and Y deflection facilities of an instrument in this class, with the difference that the delayed B time-base is separately triggered.

ME90 is a microprocessor-controlled test receiver/field-strength meter covering from long-wave radio frequencies to

862 MHz television. The receiver can store 100 channel frequencies, which are push-button selected, and will carry out automatic level measurement with error correction. Frequency, channel and level are indicated digitally and printed out with time and date. By programming the print operation, the instrument can be left unattended.

Grundig and the Philips company co-operate closely, Philips having a 31.6% holding in the German company. The general manager and financial controllers are from Philips, but report to the Grundig board. Grundig is still in competition with Philips.

Grundig instruments now handled by Electronic Brokers include the M053 oscilloscope and ME90 intelligent field-strength tester.



Fig. 1 Coding rules for Morse

1. There are two elements — signal and space (or no-signal).
2. There are two types of signal, the dot and the dash.
3. All dots are of exactly the same duration.
4. The length of the dash is exactly three dots.
5. Characters consist of sequences of up to six signals, as laid down in the Morse Code table.
6. Between each signal within a character, a space (or no-signal) equal to the length of a dot is inserted.
7. A space equal in length to three dots is inserted between characters.
8. Words consist of sequences of characters, as laid down in natural or formal languages.
9. A space equal in length to seven dots is interposed between words.

Fig. 2 Coding rules for r.t.t.y.

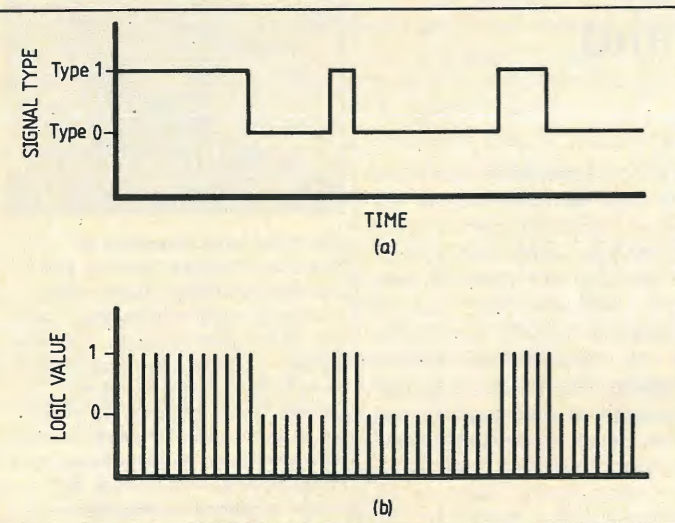
1. There are two elements — the mark and the space
2. All spaces are of the same length or duration
3. There are two types of mark, lasting exactly 1 or 1.5 times the length of a space
4. A character consists of a sequence of exactly five elements strung together, as laid down in the Baudot Table or elsewhere.
5. Within any character the length of the mark is exactly the length of the space.
6. A space precedes the five elements of each character
7. A 1.5-length mark follows the five elements of each character: this is the End-of-Character signal — EoC.

Fig. 3 Species of r.t.t.y.

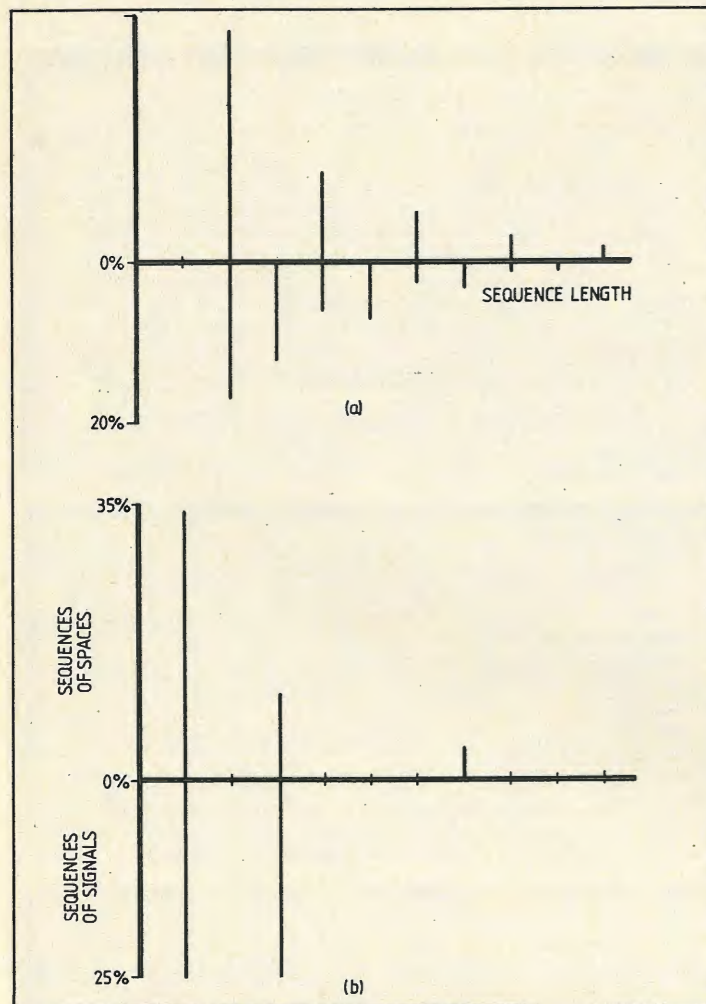
Frequency shift	170, 425, 850, 900Hz or non-standard
Speed	45.45, 50, 75, 100 baud or non-standard
Polarity	normal, reverse

**Fig. 4 Variations within species of r.t.t.y.**

**Bias distortion** mark and space of slightly unequal length  
**EoC variation** End-of-Character mark length not exactly 1.5 times space length  
**Scatter** Lengths of marks and spaces scattered around correct lengths



**Fig. 5** Signal type against time at (a), while (b) shows the same as 'seen' by a computer.



**Fig. 6** At (a), the sequence-length spectrum of random r.t.t.y., with that of random Morse at (b).

**Sequence-length spectra**

Since a b.s.c. contains only two types of signal strung together, we can plot signal type against time as in Fig. 5(a). In practice, a demodulator or other hardware is interposed to differentiate between the two types of signal, and to translate them into low or high voltage levels. The computer in turn "sees" these as 0 or 1 logic levels. Moreover, being a digital device, the computer is unable to sample signal levels continuously, but only at finite regular intervals. The result, as far as the computer is concerned, is shown in Fig. 5(b).

We define a sequence as a period of time over which the signal type is constant, and its length is simply that time period. As seen by the computer all sequence lengths are integers (related to time by the sampling rate), and there are two types of sequence corresponding to the two types of signal.

Individual sequence lengths are determined by coding rules and the particular character being transmitted. But something very interesting happens if we take a large sample, and plot percentages of occurrences of sequences of a given length against that length. It turns out that the resulting spectrum is practically independent of the message being transmitted, but highly characteristic of the b.s.c. genus, species and variety. It is almost as if each b.s.c. had its own uniquely identifiable fingerprint no matter what message it was carrying!

Figures 6(a) and 6(b) illustrate the characteristic spectra of r.t.t.y. and Morse. The two types of sequence are distinguished by being plotted above and below the horizontal sequence-length axis respectively. They were obtained by generating messages consisting of random sequences of characters, and then analysing the resulting sequence lengths. But precisely what features of, say, Fig. 6(a) characterise it as an r.t.t.y. spectrum — and why?

To understand the answers, it is helpful first to define the idea of a b.s.c. time unit — t.u. for short. In the case of r.t.t.y. this is simply the length of time occupied by a single space (or mark — being of the same length). Of course, this varies

according to the transmission speed. At the slowest speed of 45.45 baud, 1 t.u. = 22 milliseconds: whilst at the normally highest speed of 100 baud, 1 t.u. is only 13.4 ms.

According to the r.t.t.y. coding rules, 1,2,3,4 or 5 spaces can be strung together — no other space lengths can legally occur. You can't have six spaces since this would imply one start space followed by five data spaces — and five spaces is not a legal character in r.t.t.y. Thus the sequence length spectrum will contain spectral lines for sequences of spaces at 1,2,3,4 and 5 t.us — 5 and only 5 space lines.

On the other hand marks can be strung together 1,2,3 or 4 at a time (5 marks would have to be followed by the 1.5 t.u. EoC signal). If a sequence of marks is followed by a stop we also get mark lengths of 1.5, 2.5 ... 6.5 t.us. Altogether this gives us 10 and only 10 mark lines in the sequence length spectrum. Of course, if the polarity of the r.t.t.y. transmission is reverse polarity, we simply interchange mark and space in the above analysis.

On the other hand, the sequence length spectrum for Morse (Fig. 6(b)) has lines at only 1,3 and 7 t.us: the explanation of this, in terms of the Morse coding rules, is left as an exercise for the reader!

So far, we have considered only the positions of the spectral lines: what about their heights — i.e. the relative percentages of sequences of various t.u. lengths? Normally this is a matter of lesser consequence, since it is the spacing of the lines which characterise the r.t.t.y. speed and polarity. However, there is a snag. Random messages give spectral line heights as in Fig. 6(a) — and messages in ordinary language give line heights which are scarcely distinguishable from random messages. However, messages consisting of a strictly limited set of characters will produce severe distortions of line height. Consider for example a message restricted to the two characters R and Y (either as RYRYRY ... or in a random sequence). The codes for R and Y are 01010 and 10101 respectively. This gives only the following spectral lines:

space: 1, 2 t.us

mark: 1, 1.5, 2.5 t.us

Thus, restricted messages can distort the heights of spectral lines even to the extent of eliminating them. When testing a sequence-length spectrum, it is therefore essential to take into account the possibility that some of the normally expected spectral lines may be absent. Of course, this is most severe in the case of what one might call pathological messages. But even a transmission restricted to digits only will leave its imprint on the sequence-length spectrum: the lines at 4.5, 5.5 and 6.5 t.us disappear, and those at 3 t.us characteristically inverted in their mark and space frequencies.

To summarize, the positions of lines in the sequence-length spectrum provide evidence for genuine r.t.t.y., its speed and polarity, whilst the heights of lines supply clues as to the nature of the message.

**Real spectra**

So far, we have considered only an ideal world, in which r.t.t.y. coding rules are strictly observed, and no transmission medium distortion mars the message. In the real world, alas, these assumptions are very far from true. What kind of distortion of the ideal sequence-length spectra can we expect to observe in practice?

The commonest r.t.t.y. variations contain bias distortion, and EoC (end-of-character) variation (see Fig. 4). Typically the mark may be up to 20% longer than the space, and the EoC may vary from 1.25 to 1.75 space length. The effects of these are to shift spectral lines slightly away from their correct positions. Further, individual marks and spaces may vary slightly in length, and transmission speeds may 'wow' or 'flutter'. The result is to smear sharp spectral lines into a cluster of peaks and troughs. The presence of noise will cut sequences up into smaller fragments: the characteristic debris of pathologically short sequences will be deposited as 'grass mowings' at the extreme left of the spectrum. Finally discrete sampling results in sequence length measurements whose significance depends on the sampling rate. The upshot of all this is that instead of the clean lines of Fig. 6(a), we are

more likely to encounter something like Fig. 7.

If the distortion is so severe as to produce ambiguity (e.g. inability to decide whether a received sequence is a mark or an EoC signal) then it will be difficult to interpret it correctly. However, short of this, and provided we take a sufficiently large sample, mathematical methods can usually detect underlying r.t.t.y. in even a shockingly dirty spectrum, identifying the species, and giving useful information about the variety. The latter is not without value, since r.t.t.y. abnormality is often characteristic of the type of transmitting equipment, and the care exercised in its adjustment. In some cases one can even identify stations by their tell-tale pécadillos — rather like the modus operandi of a criminal! In all his experience the author has only come across one station transmitting r.t.t.y. as perfect as his analysis could detect (from Warsaw at 13.793 MHz).

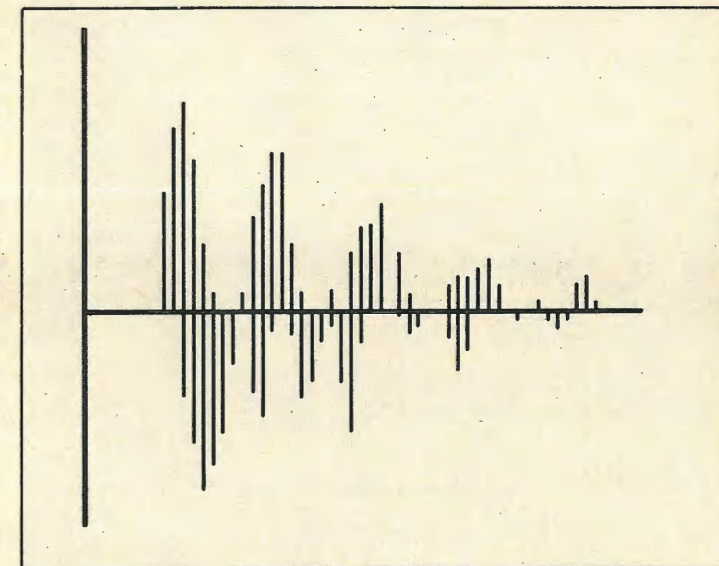
**Programming methods**

By exploiting the characteristics of r.t.t.y. described above, and in conjunction with computer-controlled receiver frequency tuning (see author's articles *Practical Wireless* August/September, 1985) we can set up a completely automatic system of scanning frequencies for the presence of r.t.t.y. and issuing reports on frequency, r.t.t.y. species/variation, time of day, sample of received text, and even some simple textual analysis. Given an on-line printer the program can proceed automatically and unattended. At the end of a session all the user need do is to glance at the printed reports, and single out interesting transmissions deserving further investigation.

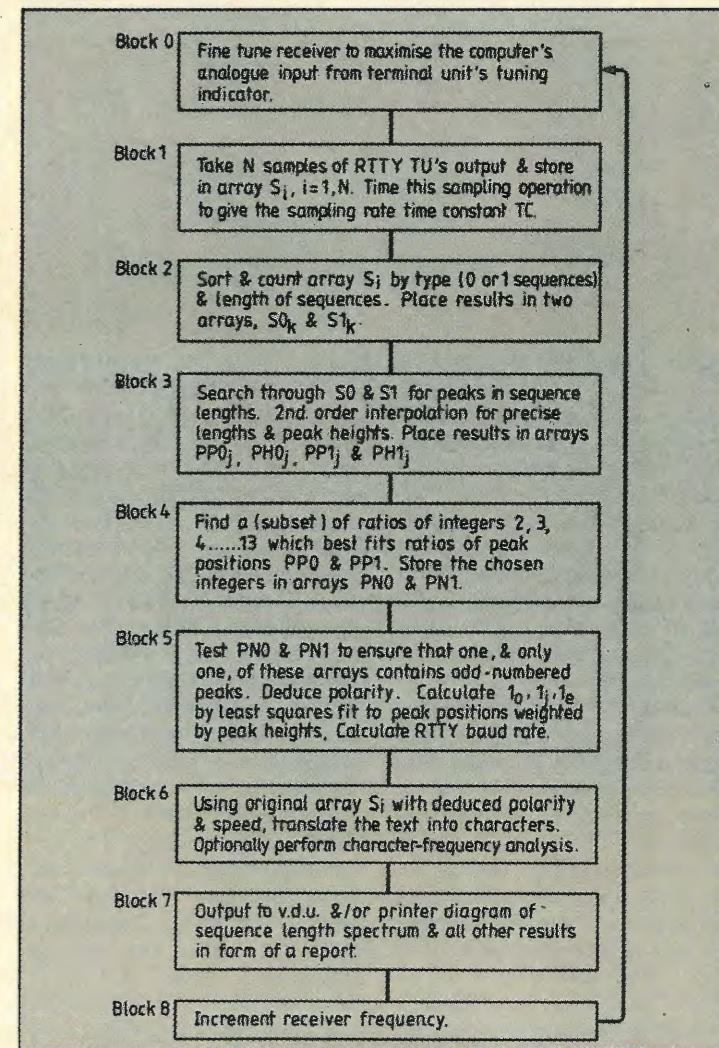
Rather than listing and describing the author's program line-by-line, it may be more helpful to explain the mathematical and programming principles involved. Armed with these any reasonably competent programmer should have little difficulty (but much fun!) in writing his own program. The computer should at least be capable of receiving the t.t.l. output signal levels from the r.t.t.y. decoder into a user

port: this will enable reports to be issued on the basis of manual tuning. In order to enable automatic tuning the computer should have an additional

analogue input port. The overall flow diagram of the r.t.t.y. Analyst is shown in Fig. 8, and consists of Blocks 0-8, as explained in turn below.



**Fig. 7** Sequence-length spectrum in practice, when signal distorted by transmission medium.

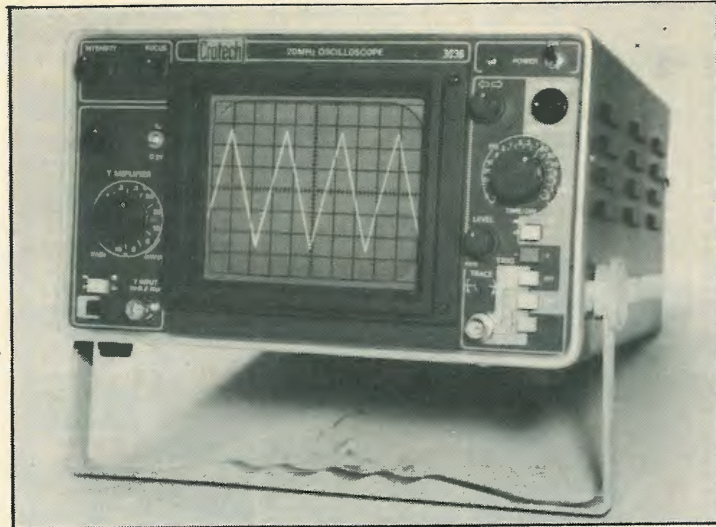


**Flow diagram of r.t.t.y. analyst.**









### Single-trace oscilloscopes

Two new oscilloscopes from Crotech offer the same performance but with different sized screens. 3031 has a 9.5cm c.r.t. and 3036 a 13cm tube. They have a 20MHz vertical bandwidth and 2mV/div. maximum signal deflection coefficient to enable the capture of high-frequency, low-level signals. Timebases are specified from 40ns to 0.2s/div with triggering to over 25MHz in both auto and level modes.

Crotech component tester which allows in or out-circuit testing of active and passive components and extends the use of these oscilloscopes beyond the capabilities of other instruments. Stable operation under adverse mains fluctuation is assured as all supply lines, even e.h.t., are regulated. Crotech Instruments Ltd, 2 Stephenson Road, St. Ives, Huntingdon, Cambs PE17 4WJ.

These are combined with the

EWW 215

### Tandata workstation

From the modem-maker Tandata emerges an executive workstation, to rival the much-publicised Merlin Tonto and ICL One-Per-Desk. It is British-designed and built and it has some interesting technical features.

To spare the busy executive the tasks of formatting discs, loading them, interpreting the inevitable error-messages and putting them away again, the Tandata P.A. has no magnetic storage at all.

Operating software is all in rom — 128K expandable to 224K — and it passes effortlessly the acid test of user-friendliness by never driving you to look at the manual. Everything is menu-driven: a desk-diary, an address and telephone book, a calculator, a filing system, a text-processor and two-way electronic mail system. Information can be switched instantly from one option into another — for example, a telephone number can be picked out of the address-book and dialled automatically by the built-in loudspeaking telephone.

For data storage, the standard model has 64K of battery-backed cmos ram, expandable to 768K. A compaction feature enables text to be compressed to half its original size. Coloured Prestel graphics pages shrink to about 60%.

The main processor is a 16-bit 80C88, aided by a cmos derivative of the 8-bit 6502 to handle the i/o. The operating system is hidden from the user, but has a multi-tasking Unix-like structure.

The P.A. comes with a colour monitor suitable for 40 or 80-column use; but it has also an l.c.d. screen which enables it to be operated away from base for up to four hours on a built-in rechargeable battery. There is a full range of interfaces, including RS232, i/o expansion bus, printer, cassette, Scart and u.h.f. tv connectors. Prices start at £999. Tandata Marketing Ltd, Albert Road North, Malvern, Worcestershire WR14 2TL. EWW 217



### IEE488 bus controller

Busbox is a simple controller/analyser which can be used in the setting-up and maintaining of IEE488 instrumentation bus systems. The box includes a set of leds which indicate the status of the lines. These are associated with a set of switches which can enable the lines to be forced to a low (or 1) state. The handshake lines are

controlled by three-position switches and a pair of pushbuttons which enable Busbox to talk or listen to any device connected to the bus. It operates on 9V supply using an external power supply or internal battery. £99.50 from Peter Levesley Consultancy, 67 Birmingham Road, Aldridge, Walsall, W. Midlands WS9 0AJ. EWW 207

### Disc-drive analyser

Combining the functions of a digital storage oscilloscope and a logic analyser, the Nicolet Disc Jockey is an instrument for testing disc drives. A number of built-in test routines may be run to give an accurate assessment of the head alignment, index pulse timing, and rotation speed. A typical inspection test takes about 2min. For design and manufacturing engineers, the instrument offers the option of complete annotation of amplitudes, timing, lobe ratios, and read/write errors and can even offer a prediction as to the long-term reliability of the drive through a 'read window margin' test. A particular feature of the machine is that all the tests are carried out using a graphical display with



preset limits superimposed on the actual performance of the drive under test. The instrument automatically checks whether that performance is within the limits and gives a pass/fail verdict for each test. £7950 from Nicolet Instrument Ltd, Budbrooke Road, Warwick CV34 5XH. EWW 214

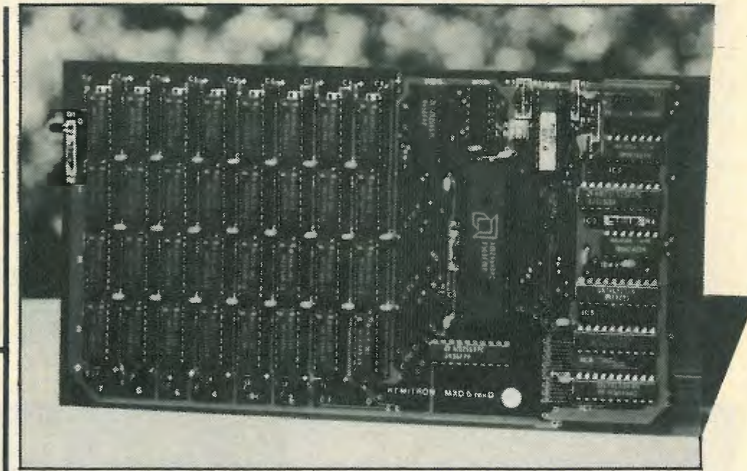
### Versatile printer

The latest near-letter-quality (n.l.q.) printer from Epson has a special interface cartridge which enables it to be used with Atari, Apple IIc, and IBM computers. Users of these computers had a limited choice of compatible printers. The GX-80 is an alternative to the LX-80 n.l.q. printer. By providing the printer interface cartridge (p.i.c. for £50 extra), the printer may be used

with a wide variety of computers with different interface standards.

The printer comes with friction feed (like a typewriter) and can be fitted optionally with a tractor feed and a sheet feeder for multiple copies.

It is provided with a wide selection of print fonts and costs £248. Epson (UK) Ltd, Dorland House, 388 High Road, Wembley, Middlesex HA9 6UH. EWW 212



### Ram-disc for CP/M

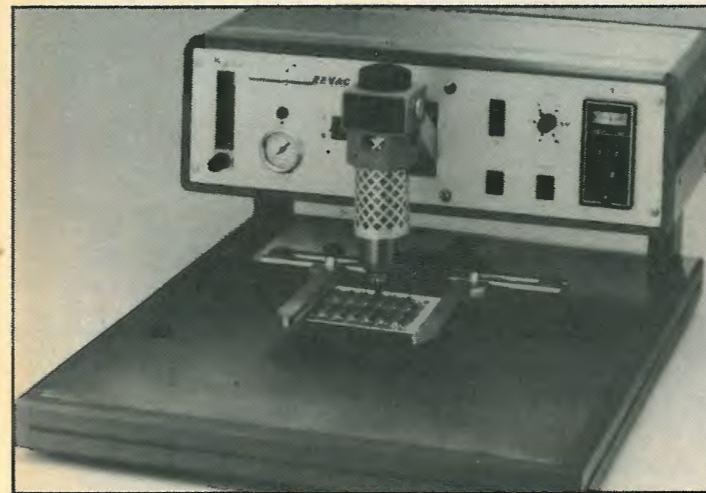
To speed up data acquisition on a computer, Kemitron have produced a 256K ram card which behaves as if it were a floppy disc. Data can be stored in random access disc files at a rate of up to 18.5Kbytes/s compared with 2Kbyte/s on a floppy drive. Cards may be added to give a capacity of up to 1Mbyte. Data so captured

can be transferred to floppy disc for more permanent storage. The ram disc is compatible with the Kemitron range of industrial and scientific computers which use the Z80A processor in a CP/M operating environment. Kemitron Ltd, Hawarden Industrial Park, Manor Lane, Deeside, Clwyd CH5 3PP. EWW 216

### Desoldering s.m.ds

Zevac DRS-21 is a re-work tool that is designed to desolder and resolder surface-mounted devices on p.c.bs or ceramic substrates. It uses nitrogen gas for heat transfer to give maximum protection to the p.c.b. and components. The gas jets direct heated nitrogen through an interchangeable nozzle to the

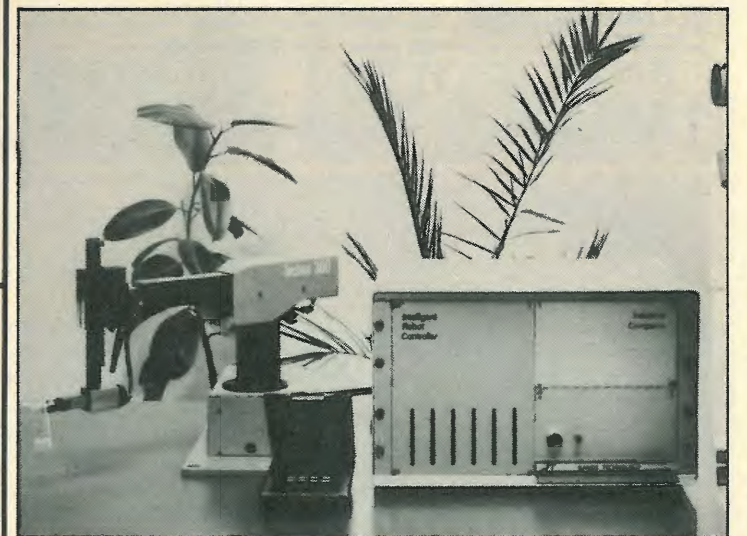
contact area of the selected s.m.d., positioned using a stereoscopic microscope. The station has a sliding x-y table to position the component and controls for temperature, gas-flow and cycle time. Tony Chapman Electronics Ltd, Electron House, Hemnall Street, Epping, Essex CM16 4LS. EWW 209



### Automatic pattern maker

Template is a system from Dighurst which can automatically follow the outline of an object with a tv camera and display it on a screen. It is used in conjunction with AutoCad software on the IBM-PC. The user "edits" the image and the software will provide a vectorized sequence so that the pattern can be reproduced automatically by sewing,

engraving or cutting machines. One application has been the preparation of plastic signs for hotels and the like where the artwork for the proposed sign is captured and fed into AutoCad. This can produce a cutting sequence in a very short time. Dighurst Ltd, Leaden Hill, Orwell, Royston, Herts SG8 5QH. EWW 205



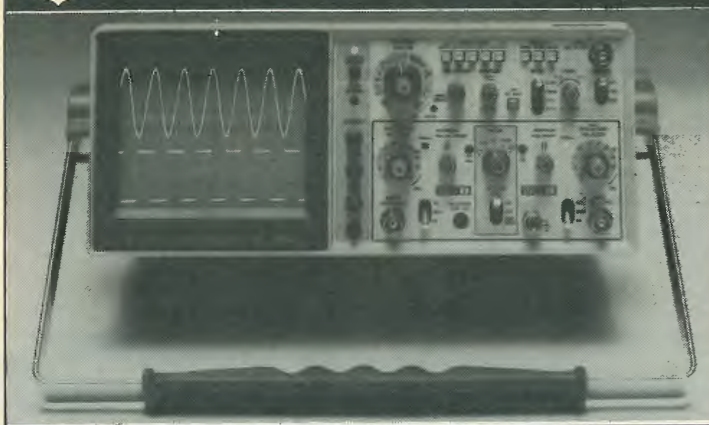
### Robot controller

Up to eight stepper motors can be controlled simultaneously with the robot controller from Sands Technology. Servo systems are being planned. The system controls speed and acceleration of multiple joints with selectable joint interpolation and full cartesian transformations. The program is contained within a 32K battery-backed ram and is based on the resident firmware of Roboforth II control language which provides named places and procedures, motion sub-routines, searching, and many other routines. The language has over 200 commands but, it is claimed, is easy to use and is being increasingly adopted

by robot manufacturers. It is available separately as a software package. With additional plug-in cards, the system will interface with and control other machinery, measurement transducers, etc. and communicate with a mainframe computer. Without the motion control cards, the system may be used as an industrial microsystem and cost less than £1500 including the terminal. As a robot controller, prices vary according to requirements but in a typical application would be about £2,500. Sands Technology, 22 Cheddars Lane, Cambridge CB5 8LD. EWW 213



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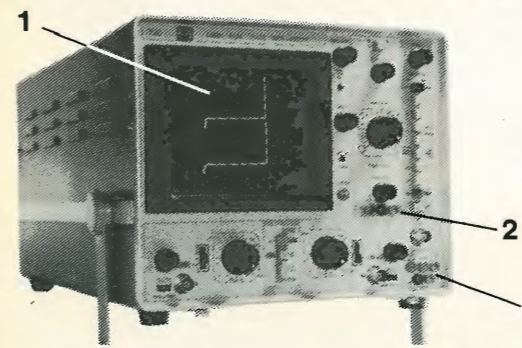
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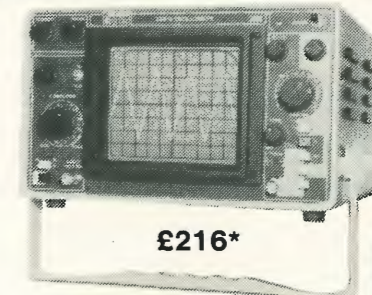
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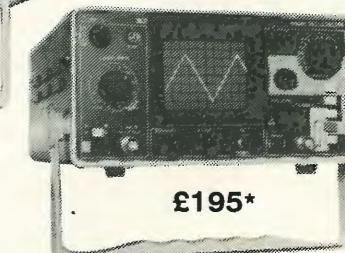
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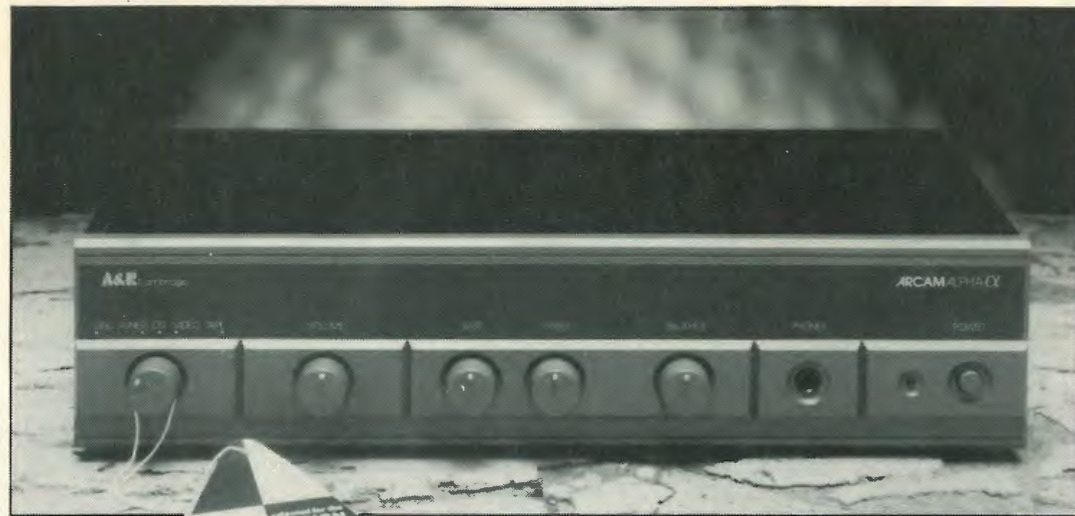
3031 - 95mm CRT



£195\*

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CIRCLE 42 FOR FURTHER DETAILS.



### Design-award amplifier

Arcam Alpha is a low-cost (£130) 30W amplifier which has the distinction of being the first integrated amplifier to be selected for the Design Centre, London. Using many cost-cutting manufacturing techniques, A&R Cambridge claim to have maintained a high quality of performance. It was designed in collaboration with a design consultancy, Cambridge Industrial Design. A stereo tuner at a similar price is to follow. A&R Cambridge Ltd, Denny Industrial Centre, Waterbeach, Cambridge CB5 9PB. EWW 206

### Prom-pals

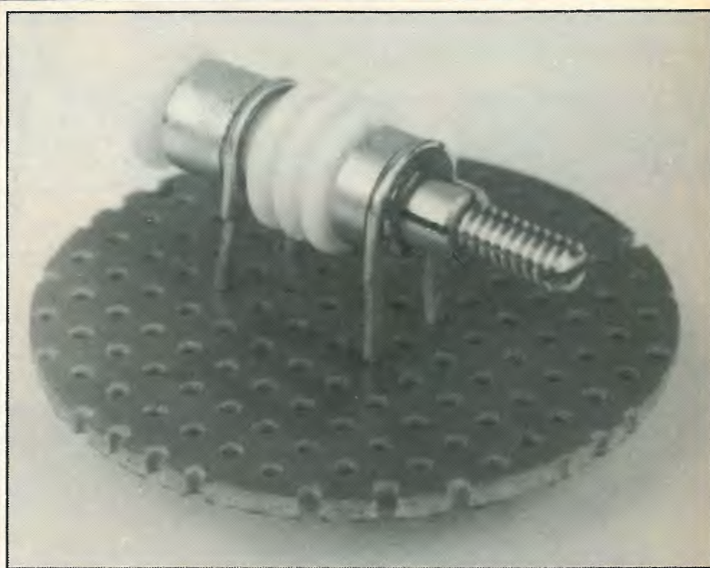
Using fused programmable roms, National have produced a family of programmable array logic chips in a 24-pin package, the series 24A, with up to 20 input lines. The four additional pins over previous similar devices enable more complex functions to be implemented. Examples are 8-bit parallel-in parallel-out counters and shift registers and 16-line to 1-line multiplexers. The devices may be programmed on conventional low-cost prom

programmers. Once the pal is programmed and verified, two additional fuses may be blown to defeat further verification. This gives the user a proprietary circuit which is very difficult to copy. Typically the devices would replace five t.t.l. chips. They make it easier to design boards and save board space and they are easy to program. National Semiconductor (UK) Ltd, 301 Harpur Centre, Horn Lane, Bedford MK40 1TR. EWW 210

### Prototyping STE-bus

A bus interface is already fitted to SPC1 Eurocard from Dage but two-thirds of the board is left free for prototyping circuitry. The board is designed for slave i/o applications, and provides selectable address, delay and write timing. Eight chip-select lines and

16 addresses are available which can be used in various ways as required. The standard board has p.t.h. in the prototyping area on a 0.1in pitch. Dage (GB) Ltd, Eurosem Division, Rabans Lane, Aylesbury, Bucks HP19 3RG. EWW 208



### High-voltage trimmer capacitor

This trimmer can withstand voltages of 10kV and has a capacitance from 0.5pF with a swing of 3pF. The main components are manufactured from turned p.t.f.e. to give it a diameter of 8mm and a maximum length, at lowest capacitance, of

25mm. Designed to withstand the high r.f. currents used in transceiver equipment, the trimmer is manufactured by Jackson Brothers (London) Ltd, Kingsway, Waddon, Croydon CR9 4DG. EWW 220 on reply card.

### Driving circuit for laser leds

An 8-pin integrated circuit may be used to control the output of laser diodes. It offers temperature compensation on/off control as well as light intensity, and protects the diodes from poorly regulated power supplies. With a maximum output current of

170mA, the circuit is suitable for use with the Sharp range of semiconductor lasers. The diodes and the IR3C01 driver circuit are available from Hero Electronics Ltd, Dunstable Street, Amptill, Beds MK45 2JS. EWW 205 on reply card.

### Circuit analysis by computer

Jack 17 is software for use with an Apricot computer that has the ability to write and solve the complex equations associated with linear circuits. It is possible to input most of the components directly from a circuit diagram. The program will give a.c. gain

and phase response for a specified frequency in a few seconds. Typical applications include filters, amplifiers, matching circuits and attenuators. SpaceHeights Ltd, 6 Prospect Place, Chapelhay, Weymouth, Dorset DT4 8JY. EWW 211

### Real time graphs

The Asyst software package enables the IBM PC/XT/AT to monitor, control and analyse data from experiments and production processes, and produce a fast graphical display as it happens. Using the full capabilities of the 8087/80287 co-processor, it is claimed to give the PC the speed and power of a scientific minicomputer, but at a fraction of the cost.

Designed for scientists and engineers, Asyst is said to combine the best features of Fortran, Basic, Pascal, APL, Forth and C, in an integrated package.

The package consists of three modules: (1) system/graphics/statistics, with editor and help utilities, multiple graphics windows, automatic graph plotting, array editing and a full mathematical function set; (2) analysis, which reduces, manipulates and analyses data: polynomial mathematics and evaluation, vectors and matrices, simultaneous equations; least-squares approximation, data smoothing, integration, peak detection, fast Fourier transforms; (3) data acquisition, giving powerful foreground/background capabilities for analogue and digital i/o, with real-time synchronization, buffered acquisition and triggering, using the Keithley DAS500 data acquisition system.

From Keithley Instruments Ltd, 1 Boulton Road, Reading, Berkshire RG2 0NL. EWW 224 on reply card.



### System tester for micros

A trouble-shooting instrument for microprocessor-based systems is claimed to be easier to use than a logic analyser and, unlike signature analysers, can be used on a completely unserviceable unit. Polar Electronics' B2000A is connected to the unit under test in place of the processor and takes command of the address, data and control lines. It then generates the signals to test rom, ram and i/o ports. Results are reported on the

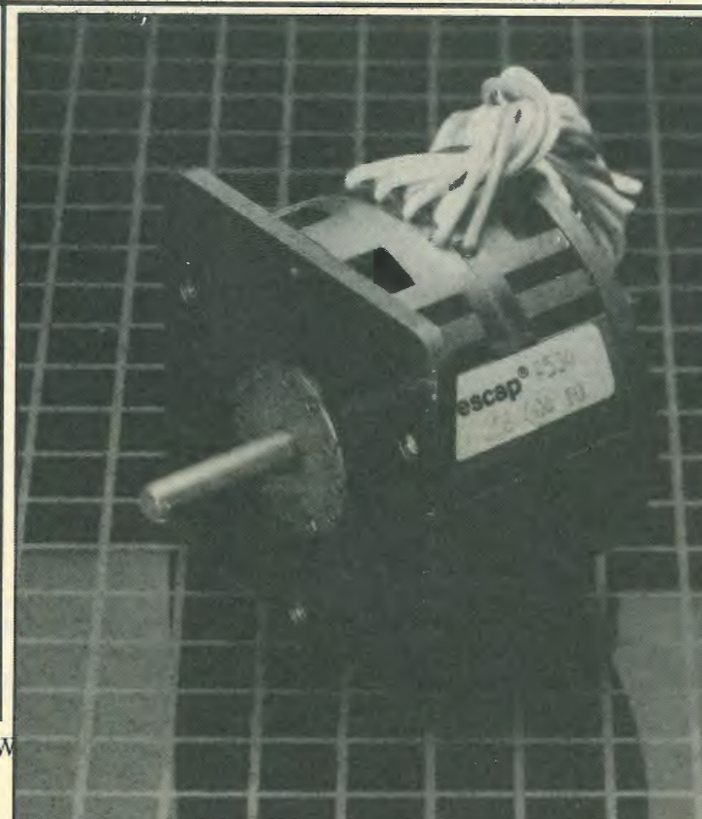
built-in ticket printer. Thirteen pre-programmed tests are available including rom checksum, ram and i/o write and read, disassemble and search. Of particular value is a test for short circuits which will check any line on the address or data bus with the supply line, ground or any other line. A 'loop' facility enables a test to be repeated continually to allow an oscilloscope to be used to trace a signal path. Tests are

stored in non-volatile memory for later use. B2000A is connected to the system under test through a 'personality' pod which configures the instrument to the specific processor. Pods are available for the Z80, 1802, 6800, 6802, 6809, 8080 and one specifically for the BBC micro. It costs £695 and is available through Antron. Electronics Ltd, 39 Kings Road, Haslemere, Surrey GU27 2QA. EWW 221 on reply card.



### Miniature surface-mounting leds

A series of micro-miniature indicator lamps has been produced measuring 3 by 1.2 by 1mm deep (excluding splayed contacts), designed for direct surface mounting on a p.c.b. The LTL-907 series comes in four versions: red, green, orange and a combined orange/green bi-coloured l.e.d. Each has a luminous intensity of 1.2mcd, measured with a 20mA test current, and a viewing angle of 120°. Information from Selectronic Ltd, The Old Stables, Market Square, Witney, Oxon OX8 6AL. EWW 222 on reply card.



### Microstepper motor

A new family of two-phase stepper motors from Portescap is designed to give 800 steps per revolution. This is made possible by increasing the number of poles in the axially magnetized armature disc, and the P530 series offers 100 steps/rev. This is further increased by the phasing of the energizing currents, dividing each step into eight stable microsteps each with an angular displacement of 0.45°.

Three models offer a peak holding torque of 170mNm with only one phase energized and a detent torque of 4mNm, together with a nominal phase current of 0.4 to 3.7A. Portescap UK Ltd, 204 Elgar Road, Reading, Berks RG2 0DD. EWW 223 on reply card.





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# Appointments

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Applications stating age, qualifications and full experience, together with the names and addresses of two referees, should be addressed to: Mr. S. Stainthorpe, Department of Physiology, Worsley Medical and Dental Building, University of Leeds, LS2 9NQ.

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EWV/12/85

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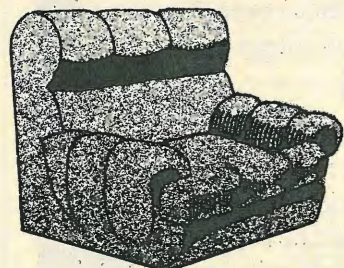
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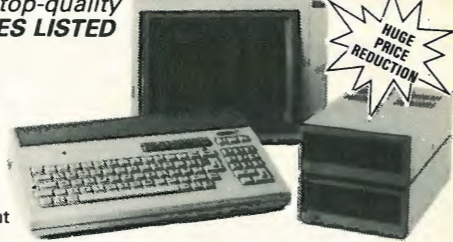




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# ELECTRONICS & Wireless world

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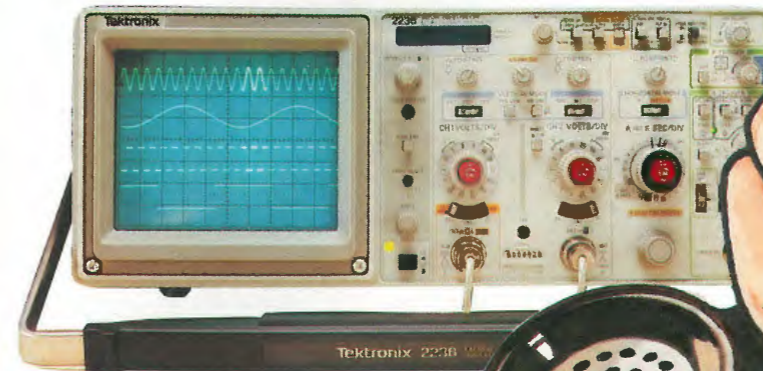
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