Wade G. Holcomb, 185 Lind New Haven, Connecticut 06:

TRY NMR WITH YOUR OLD CW RIG

Using amateur radio equipment to perform nuclear magnetic resonance _experiments

Want to try something new and differ-
building your own experimental
pucker magnetic resonance (NMP) instrument ent with your old CW rig? Consider building your own experimental nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) instrument. With it, you can experience the thrill of sending and receiving radio signals to the protons of hydrogen atoms. As a matter of fact, it's entirely possible to duplicate discoveries made shortly after World War IT with that old CW rig of yours, plus a surplus magnet similar to those

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that formed part of a radar magnetron. Of course, some readjustment will be necessary to get your old rig tuned to the correct frequency. You'll also need an oscilloscope and an automatic keying circuit.

For those who enjoy construction and troubleshooting, this experiment could be the basis of a science fair project using dated ham rig components. Special interests in RF circuits or computer software are very useful in building

Photo A. Magnet with RF tank coil with two tubes of salad oil. Four steel support columns also serve as the return magnetic field circuit. The field is about 731 Gauss.

Photo B. The four-poster magnet is 18 inches on each side. A bottle of salad oil is inserted inside a 3.11 tank circuit. Credit cards can be erased if one is not careful.

your own amateur NMR system. Figure 1 shows a functional block diagram of the major components required to perform amateur NMR.

What is nuclear magnetic resonance?

The hydrogen atom contains one proton at its center. Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) and magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) techniques make use of two magnetic fields-a fixed field and a variable radio frequency (RF) field-in a manner that lets an observer make physical measurements based on the proton's reaction to these fields. This method allows one to study the properties of many common substances using components familiar to radio amateurs.

While information on NMR is mostly accessible to those with training in one of the physical sciences, Reference 1 offers detailed explanations of the fundamentals of NMR using a descriptive, mostly nonmathematical approach. The rapid development of medical MRI systems required that a trained support force be available. This book is often used by institutions to teach support personnel, and is one of several books written to fill this need.

Many atomic nuclei have "spin" and charge. Spin is the atomic equivalent of angular momentum in everyday life. According to quantum theory, a nucleus with spin can only take certain energy levels in a magnetic field. We can visualize the nucleus spinning like a bar magnetic on its axis, producing an associated magnetic field. It is the interaction of this field with external

fields that separates nuclear energy levels and allows NMR to occur. The magnetic moment (current times enclosed area) is sometimes called a nuclear magneton. The hydrogen atom has a 2.79 nuclear magneton value.

A small bottle of salad oil contains a large number of possible radio signal sources (about 6 x 10E+22 per cubic milliliter). Photo A shows two tubes of salad oil inside a tank circuit between the poles of my magnet. In my magnetic field, only about one atom per million atoms is a potential contributor, on a chance basis, to a detectable RF signal following an RF pulse. A huge number of such atoms results in a detectable signal. The strength of the detected signal can be as much as $5 \mu V$.

The duration of the RF keying pulse and its power level must be determined by experimentation to find the correct amount of energy to "flip" protons. Best results are obtained when the flip is 90 degrees from the static field. For instance, it's possible to have too great a pulse duration or power level, which might result in flipping the protons 450 degrees, a complete circle plus 90 degrees. The detectable signal would be similar to the correct amount!

Finding a magnet

Magnets are still available from surplus catalogs. When choosing a magnet, remember that the RF signal frequency's purity is a function of the field's uniformity. The magnet's uniformity is equal in importance to its field strength in procuring good results. Obtaining a uniform field is a never-ending goal for NMR and MRI

Figure 1. Functional block amateur NMR system.

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workers. A tolerance of 5 to 10 parts per million over a volume the size of a golf ball would make a very useful amateur magnet. A change of 1 gauss will mean a change of 4257 Hz in the observed frequency. Moving a metal chair near the magnet can distort the magnetic field and detune your system.

It's even possible to make tests using the Earth's magnetic field at a frequency about 2000 Hz, using audio in place of RF equipment. Perform these tests in your backyard, away from cars or other large metal objects. Several papers appeared during the 1950s

Photo D. Amiga screen shows the real and quadrature of the Hahn echo held RAM memory, this display is the average of 16 echoes. A dual A/D converter board suitable for stereo music will do this nicely.

showing excellent results in measuring small variations in the Earth's magnetic field.2

Simple NMR experiments

The vertical field strength of my 500 pound magnet (see **Photo B)** is about 731 gauss, approximately 1400 times the Earth's magnetic field'at my QTH. This magnet is quite temperature sensitive, almost 1 gauss/degree C. I usually have to readjust my master oscillator to find the hydrogen proton frequency if the room temperature changes. My magnet's field strength increases in cold weather.

Once I find the resonant proton frequency, I measure it within one cycle using a frequency counter. This frequency allows a very accurate method of determining the magnetic field strength. The relationship of frequency to magnetic field strength is given by Larmor's constant:

f—magnetic field in gauss x 4257

In my magnet, the NMR frequency is 3.11 MHz, for a field strength of 0.0731T, (The ST unit of Tesla, T, equals 10,000 gauss.) This is near the amateur 80-meter CW band.

My RF tank circuit looks like an 80-meter final tank coil (see **Photo B).** It's driven by short duration RF pulses at 3.11 MHz. When the RF field is applied, the protons spinning in the plane of the static field rotate out of the plane of the field. When the RF field is turned off, the protons return to the plane of the static field, with two degrees of rotational freedom.

The protons' spins, after the RF pulse is turned off, go through a spiral trajectory-like an orange being peeled from one end to the other--emitting a weak RF signal into the resonant tuned tank circuit. The detected RF signal takes the form of a damped sine wave. This damped wave is called a free induction decay (FID), which can last several seconds in a very uniform field, or perhaps only a few milliseconds in a non-uniform field. I sometimes judge the best spot in my magnet by positioning my sample for the longest FID.

This recovery is described by two time constants, T1 and T2, which can be measured later if the data is stored in computer memory. These two time constants, longitudinal (Tl) and transverse (T2), describe these return spins to the static field, and can indicate the effect of nearby atomic neighbors on the observed hydrogen protons. For instance in pure water, the two time constants are equal to each other, but this isn't so in salad oil or other complex compounds.

System requirements

The amateur radio requirements needed to

26 *Winter* 1996

bounce an RF signal off the earth-moon-earth (EME} are equivalent to those required for listening to the proton's spin (see Figure 1). As you know, these are atransmitter, receiver, antenna, keyer, a low-noise receiver front end, a T/R system, and a display. The keyer in my system is a computer interface board and software. I use a direct conversion receiver.

I use a computer with a timer board to generate a dot and dash pattern to key the transmitter with the two required pulses-a 90-degree dot followed by a 180-degree dash. The dot lasts 100 µS and the dash 200 µS in a typical pattern, with a 25 mS spacing. This is repeated after a 500-mS delay. Several different timing patterns are required to determine the proton spin time constants (Tl and T2). You could try it with a hand key, but you wouldn't get the accuracy you need.

The Hahn echo,³ in **Photos C** and **D**, appearing at 25 mS from my "dot" 90-degree pulse, is captured with a computer analog-to-digital board and stored in computer memory, much as one digitizes a note of music. Later, I use computer software to determine the frequency spectrum (Photo E) of the stored echo by Fast Fourier Transform (FFT}. The spectrum line width helps me determine the magnetic field uniformity at the position of my sample.

History

I.I. Rabi was known to have been a radio amateur, and was photographed at the controls of this "wireless telegraph" station as a teenager, around 1912.4 He's given credit for the general concepts of using two magnetic fields to overcome the field created by the atom's rotating electron, which shields the atomic nucleus. He was awarded an unshared Nobel prize in 1944 for this work, while doing radar development for the war effort. More Nobel awards were presented to others for carrying out advances on this method in the months following the end of World War II using circuits developed by the wartime radar laboratories.⁵⁻⁷ No complete study has been published covering the scientific history of the development of NMR and MRI.

Work in progress

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At present, I'm measuring time constants and doing spectrum analysis of Hahn echoes to measure field purity. This should be easy for amateurs to repeat using almost any computer. I did my first Fast Fourier Transform on an Apple II+ based on an article in *BYTE* for viewing music spectrum. This required writing a 6502 machine language FFT routine. This

Photo E. Frequency spectrum of Hahn echo shown in *Photo D,* found by using computer software. Baseline is 10 kHz wide. Width at the 50 percent amplitude point is about 200 Hz and may be used to judge magnetic field uniformity. Phase spectrum is shown in background.

allowed the Apple to become my first audio spectrum display about 10 years ago. I hope to obtain my first 2-dimensional MRI picture, perhaps an image of a sectional slice through an orange, soon.

I'll have to develop computer software and gradient amplifiers to drive the gradient coils shown in Photo A before this is possible. Complex patterns of gradients and RF pulses are needed to acquire a 2-D image plane, which must then be "decoded" using 2-dimensional spectrum analysis. With the help of Dave Reddy, NlRBJ, I've developed computer software that will perform a double-precision 128 x 128 2-D FFT on a generic 486DX 66-MHz PC clone in about 4 seconds-much faster than the expensive array processors used for these kinds of reconstructions in the recent past.

We've tested this software by reconstructing raw data of a water-bottle phantom originally acquired on a Yale University experimental NMR system. Photo F shows the raw data, which looks like ripples spreading in water, and Photo G depicts the finished magnitude and phase images. Note that the finished images are inverted, and the air bubble at the top of the bottle with its meniscus is shown at the bottom.

Summary

If you 're interested in transmitters, receivers, or computer software, you '11 find the effort required to capture the radio signals emitted by the proton's spin a challenge. Everything I've done can be recreated using common amateur

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Photo F. Raster display of two 64K arrays showing RF data received from an oil sample. MRI images look like holo· grams before the 2-D FFT data reduction. This represents a 128 x 128 x 12 bit array.

Photo G. After a 2-D FFT computer analysis *(Photo* F) shows a cross-sectional slice through the oil sample bottle. These two images now occupy the same memory space as the images in *Photo F.* Process requires 4 seconds on a 486DX 66-MHz computer.

parts, a magnet, and some patience. Amateurs with RF circuit and computer experience are well-equipped to learn about NMR. I had to learn many new terms-like Larmor's Constant, FFT, FID, T1, T2, and many others—before I was comfortable with this new field that uses RF and computer equipment to perform tasks which would have been material for science fiction stories not too many years ago. •

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Fast Fourier for the 6800

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If you're involved with music or speech processing applications with your computer, you've probably wished you could look at the frequency spectrum of your sampled signals. This may not be as difficult as you might guess, because here is a simple, straightforward fast Fourier transform (FFT) subroutine that can do the trick in *just* a few seconds.

A Microhistory of the Fast Fourier Transform

The analysis of waveforms for harmonic content has a long and fascinating history. Bernoulli and Euler developed the mathematics of the transform while experimenting with musical strings in 1728, nearly a hundred years before Jean Baptiste Fourier gave his name to the equations. Interest in prediction of the tides led Lord Kelvin to build a mechanical harmonic synthesizer that inspired the construction of increasingly complex mechanical harmonic analyzing machines. This trend culminated in the Mader-Ott machine of 1931, which is on display at the Smithsonian Institute in Washington DC.

With the growth of the telephone and the communication industry came sampling theory and the discrete Fourier transform. At first, discrete Fourier transforms were hand calculated and tabular forms called "schedules" were soon employed to speed the process. With the development of digital computers in the 1940s this task became somewhat easier to perform. The number of calculations required still made the concept of real time discrete Fourier transforms unlikely even on the ever faster new computers.

Then in the 1960s a number of matrix theory mathematicians, including J W Cooley and J W Tukey, went back to the "schedules" and discovered that a great many of the terms were redundant and could be factored out. The procedure they evolved became known as the fast Fourier transform, which reduces the number of cal· culations to the point that special hardware can be built to perform the transform in real time and display the frequency spectrum continuously on a video display.

The Basic Concepts

A number of books have been published describing the mathematics of the fast Fourier transform in some detail. A tew of these contain sample programs in FOR-TRAN, ALGOL, or BASIC. However, the use of a high level language to perform this computation not only costs a great deal in speed and efficiency, but also obscures the simple binary processes that characterize the algorithm. Since high level languages do not usually support bit manipulation, these processes can become almost as time consuming as the arithmetic.

Clearly, assembly language programming of the fast Fourier transform offers many advantages, but the literature seluom provides any examples of assembly level code to illustrate how the equations are implemented. Thus the program described in this article may well be the reinvention of someone else's "wheel "

The details of the inner workings of the fast Fourier transforms are left to the technical references, but the basic concepts are not . difficult to grasp. The transform involves complex products which behave in the manner of the coordinates of a rotating vector. When this vector is at angles which are multiples of 90 degrees, the sine and co- sine terms of the equations become $+1$, 0, or -1 . Since terms containing these values do not require computed multiplication, the arithmetic becomes very simple. Other terms cancel each other out in order to simplify the equations at other angles. By factoring these terms our of the transform, many unnecessary calculations may be eliminated.

The input data may be thought of a> elements of an input matrix which will be multiplied by a transform matrix. The product is a matrix containing the transformed data. The redundant elements may be factored out of the transform matrix, converting it to the product of a number of simpler transforms. For an input array of 256 points, a discrete Fourier transform would require 256 by 256 complex products or 262, 144 binary multiplications. The fast Fourier transform reduces this to eight simpler trans-

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Figure 7: Fast Fourier transform of a square wave using the author's technique. The real (or sine) part of the transform is shown in (a). The imaginary (or cosine) part of the transform is shown in (b). The resulting transform is at (c). The resulting transform values are normally found by taking the square root of the sum of the squares of the cosine and sine elements. In order to save computational time, however, the author takes the sum of the absolute values of the terms, which introduces slight errors into the relative magnitudes of the components.

forms and ultimately requires 8 by 2 by 256 complex products, or 16,384 binary multiplications (l/16 the number of previous multiplications). Even greater savings are realized as the number of points increases.

Each of the simplified transforms oper-*\:;,* ates on the data in pairs of complex points. The real and imaginary parts of a pair are transformed and the new values placed back in the array so that the transform is performed "in place." The algorithm then moves on to the next pair until all pairs have been transformed. The process is repeated for each of the eight stages of our 256 point transform, but on each pass the distance between pairs is changed.

On the first pass, adjacent points are paired. After completing a pair the algorithm skips down to the next. In a sense, the data has been split into 128 adjacent 2 point transforms. These 128 groups are known as

cells. On each subsequent pass the distance between elements of the pair is doubled. In the second pass there are 64 cells, each four elements wide. On the final pass there is only one cell containing all 256 elements.

This process of forming pairs and cells causes the elements of the array to become scrambled. On the final pass the data is completely mixed up and must be sorted out before it can be used. The way it is scrambled is very interesting, though. If each element is assigned a binary number that represents its location in the array, the scrambled data makes it appear that the computer has read this binary address backwards. It is as if the binary word were swapped end for end so the most significant bit (MSB) appears where the least significant bit (LSB) should be.

This rearrangement of the data may be corrected by swapping each data point with its bit reverse addressed mate. The procedure *Listing* r:~ *Routine in 6800 assembly language to perform* u *256 point fast Fourier transform.*

is called "bit swapping" and may be performed either at the end of the fast Fourier transform or before it is begun. The pretransform swap is more convenient because less points need be swapped and because the vector rotation within each cell is simpler. In the posttransform version the vector angles would also have to be bit swapped.

Implementation

Now that we have looked at the concept, let us look at how it can be implemented. The algorithm has been written as a subroutine (see listing 1) to be called by a signal gathering and display program. It assumes that this program has stored some time dependent data in 2's complement form and that a 256 byte sample of this is to be transformed to the frequency domain.

The fast Fourier transform subroutine begins with an address lookup table for the data areas. This table makes the reassignment of these areas very simple. The INPUT data area may be anywhere in memory, but the SINE, REAL, and !MAG arrays must be at address page boundaries (ie: at hexadecimal XX00), and REAL and IMAG must be in adjacent pages forming a continuous 512 byte block. These restrictions greatly simpli· fy address calculation within the program. SINE is the address of a 256 byte sine and cosine lookup table which must be loaded in with the transform subroutine.

The first instruction of the subroutine clears the variable SCLFCT which keeps track of the number of times the data nas to be scaled to prevent overflow. The !MAG array is then cleared and at MOVE the IN-PUT data is copied into REAL, where the transform will take place. The data is then prescrambled to put it in bit reverse crder. for the transform process. The bit reversed address is calculated by rotating the least significant bit of the address into the carry and rotating the reversed address out in the opposite direction. The new address is compared with the first address to prevent swapping the data back to the original order, then the two array elements are exchanged.

Once the swapping is complete, the data is ready to be transformed. The fast Fourier transform is performed in eight separate passes; before each pass begins, the data is tested by SCALE to prevent any overflow. For the first pass there are 128 cells formed by adjacent pairs of data. In this pass the vector angle steps in multiples of 180 degrees. This means that all the sine terms are 0 and the cosine terms are either $+1$ or -1 . Also there is no data yet in the !MAG array. The general equations thus become greatly simplified and the pass is reduced to addition and subtraction among elements of the

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Listing 1, continued:

00073 START OF TRANSFORM 00074 a
Azərbaycak əkrak 00075 0200 ORG \$0200 00076 0200 20 08 **BRA START** JUMP AROUND PARAMETERS 00077 ****************************** 80078 ADDRESS LOOK-UP TABLE ** 88879 $**$ FOR DATA AREAS sk sk 00080 ****** **************** skakak 00081 0202 0800 INPD FDB **INPUT** SET UP DATA AREAS 00082 0204 0500 **REAL** FDB REALT IMAGT 00083 0206 0600 **TMAG** FDB 00084 0208 0400 SINE FDB **SINET** 00085 **** okskab **************** 00086 **Alak** 00087 020A 7F 002F **START** CLR **SCLFCT** NOTHING SCALED YET 00088 $**$ 00089 ******************************** .
** INPUT DATA SET-UP 00090 ** 00091 ****************************** 00092 0200 FE 0206 **IMAG** CLEAR LDX CLEAR OUT IMAG SET UP COUNTER B0093 0210 5F $CLR - B$ 00094 0211 6F 00 CLR1 **CLR** 0, X CLEAR MEMORY 00095 0213 08 -INX DEC B 00096 0214 58 00097 0215 26 FR CLR1 **BNE** 00098 0217 FE 0202 MOVE **LDX INPD** SET UP POINTERS 00099 0218 DF 20 **STX** RLPT1 00100 021C FE 0204 LDX REAL 00101 021F DF **STX** RLPT2 22 MOVE INPUT DATA 00102 0221 DE 20 MOV1 LDX RLPT1 00103 0223 A6 00 LDR A 0. X TO "REAL" ARRAY 00104 0225 03 INX 00105 0226 DF 20 RLPT1 **STX** 00106 0228 DE 22 LDX RLPT2 00107 022A A7 STA R 0.8 -00 RLPT2+1 00108 022C 7C 0023 **INC** 00109 022F 26 F0 **BNE** MOV1 TEST PAGE OVERFLOW 00110 ****************************** 00111 PRE-TRANSFORM BIT SWAP ** 00112 ****************************** 00113 0231 FE 0204 SET UP DATA POINTERS LDX REAL 00114 0234 DF 20 RLPT1 **STX** RLPT2 00115 0236 DF 22 **STX** 00116 0230 C6 08 'BÎTREY LDA B #8 SET BIT COUNTER 00117 023A 96 21 LDA A **RLPT1+1** GET POINTER 1 REVERSE BIT ORDER 00118 023C 46 ROR A BRV1 RLPT2+1 00119 023D 79 0023 **ROL** FOR SECOND POINTER 00120 0240 5A DEC B COUNT BITS 00121 0241 26 F9 BRV1 **BNE RLPT2+1** GET REVERSED BYTE 00122 0243 96 23 LDA R 00123 0245 91 21 CMP R **RLPT1+1** COMPARE WITH #1 00124 0247 25 0E **BCS** SWP1 BRANCH IF ALREADY SWAPPED 00125 0249 DE 20 **SMHF** LDX RLPT1 GET POINTER 1 00126 024B B6 00 LDA A 0. X GET VAL 1 g S 00127 024D DE 22 LDX RLPT2 GET POINTER 2 00128 024F E6 00; LDA B 0. X GET VAL 2 ÷. 00129 0251 A7 00 0, X REPLACE WITH VAL 1 STA R 国語 00130 0253 DE 20 RLPT1 GET FIRST POINTER LDX 00131 0255 E7 00 COMPLETE SWRP STA B $a \times$ DO NEXT POINT PAIR 00132 0257 7C 0021 SWP1 TNC **RLPT1+1** 00133 025A 26 DC **BNE BITREV** UNLESS ALL ARE DONE 00134 ******* *************** **** $\langle \Phi_{\alpha\beta\beta} \rangle_{\alpha\beta\beta}$ 00135 **FFT** FIRST PASS $+1$ 米米 00136 SINCE IN PASS 1 ALL ANGLES 00137 宋州 $***$ ARE MULTIPLES OF 180 DEG. 00138 冰水 ** THERE ARE NO PRODUCT TERMS. 88139 ิ≭≉ ×. AND NO IMAGINARY TERMS YET 00140 ° dest $+1$ ŧ. HENCE A FAST VERSION OF PASS 1 ** 00141 ** $\sigma_{\rm c}$ 88142 SCALE IF ANY OVER-RANGE DATA 00143 025C BD 0333 PASS1 JSR **SCALE**

REAL array. Considerable time is saved by making this pass separate and bypassing the unneeded table lookup and multiply routines.

Once this pass is completed, the arithmetic gets much more complex. The remaining seven passes are performed by a general fast Fourier transform algorithm. It begins at FPASS by setting up 64 cells of four elements with the pairs separated by two units. The vector angle is set to increment by 90 degrees by setting DELTA to 64. At NPASS the pointers are set up for the first cell and the pass then begins with a sine and cosine table lookup. The complex data pair is then processed using the standard fast Fourier transform equations:

> $TR =$ RN $COS(w)$ + IN $SIN(w)$ $T =$ IN $COS(w)$ - RN $SIN(w)$

 $RM' = RM + TR$ $RN = RM - TR$ $|M' = |M + T|$ $IN' = IM - TI$

After each pair has been transformed the. angle is incremented by DELTA and the next pair processed. When all pairs in a cell have been transformed the routine moves down to the next cell and returns to NCELL. to continue the process. When the last cell has been done, CELCT becomes 0 and the pass is complete.

At the end of each pass the number of cells and the angle increment are divided in half and the pair separation and number of pairs per cell are doubled. The whole process is then repeated by branching to NPASS until the end of the last pass when the number of cells becomes 0. The routine then branches to DONE and returns to the calling program.

The SCALE subroutine is used to anticipate and prevent overflow of the 8 bit data. It is called before each pass and begins by testing the value of each data point. If any point exceeds the range of -64 to $+64$ the subroutine branches to SCL4 where the entire array is scaled down by a factor of 2. The variable SCLFCT is incremented to indicate the total number of times the data has been scaled.

The multiply routine has been placed at the end of the program to make substitution of other versions easy. The original program was written for a hardware multiplier similar to the device described by Bryant and Swasdee in April 1978 BYTE, page 28. To eliminate the need for such exotic hardware, a software multiply routine has been substituted with some increase in transform time. After the multiplication is completed

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[~]*Listing 7, continued:*

the data must be scaled up by a factor of 2. This is because the sine and cosine terms represent fractional binary values. The least significant bit is shifted in from the lower byte to preserve accuracy.

Analyzing the Results

After working with all this mathematics and software, what do you end up with? We started with a 256 point time domain sample in REAL. The fast Fourier transform converts this to a frequency domain sample corresponding to the spectrum of the input. The first element of each array represents the DC component of the input. The next element represents the sine wave with period equal to the duration of the input sample. Each remaining element depicts a multiple of this frequency until the middle of the
RS array is reached, representing 128 cycles per array is reached, representing 128 cycles per period. The remainder of the array is sym-

metrical to the first 128 points.
Each element in the REAL and !MAG quency component of the input sample. But why do we end up with two arrays, and what do the cosine terms of REAL and the sine terms of IMAG really mean to us? Usu-
ally this information is described in terms of often the phase information is of little interest. The cosine and sine terms represent the X and Y components of a vector with length and angle equal to the amplitude and phase terms that we are after. All we have to do is find the length of the vector from the square root of the sum of squares of the cosine and sine terms.

The only problem is that this calculation requires almost as much time as the trans-. form, due to the square root. If we bypass the root and display the sum of squares (the power spectrum) we miss most of the detail of the lesser components. I have found that the highly unmathematical solution of displaying the sum of the absolute values is fairly satisfactory, although it introduces some error in the relative amplitude of peaks. This value is then sent to a digital to analog converter for display on an oscilloscope.

Putting the Fast Fourier Transform to Work

This program has a number of interesting applications for speech recognition, image processing, and the synthesis of musical instruments. A recent issue of The Computer *Music journal* even describes a program for transcribing recordings back into sheet music (see bibliography, page 118).

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Listing 1, continued:

. To get meaningful information from the transform, the input data must be sampled judiciously. While this program in theory is •capable of analyzing 128 harmonics of a given sample, this is only true when the input represents exactly one complete cycle of the waveform being analyzed. Most data just doesn't come packaged that way.

To accurately measure the pitch of a sound you must sample many cycles. To analyze harmonics you want to sample few. The best result for real data will always be a compromise between range (bandwidth) and resolution. Both can be increased only by analyzing more points, which takes more time.

After experimenting with one sample at a time you will probably want to try continuous analysis. The input data pointer at hexa· decimal address 0202 can be moved through an input buffer by the program that calls the transform. At roughly three seconds per transform, the data cannot suitably be ana· lyzed in real time. A sample of a few seconds of data can be continuously analyzed and the changes slowly displayed. This is proba· bly most easily accomplished by transferring the "sum of absolute value" data to a dis· play buffer which is then scanned by an interrupt driven display program.

Bigger, Better, and Faster

Like most software, this program exists
to be rewritten. No attempt was made to op-
timize execution speed. Preliminary experi-
ments with an MMI-67558 hardware multi-
plier took slightly under one second. This
relatively and out of the multiplier. Perhaps it can be streamlined to the extent that a continuous display can be created. I plan to try a version for the 6502 microprocessor with hope of adding still more speed.

The algorithm is simple enough so that . conversion should be easy. Enterprising 8080 and Z-80 enthusiasts shouldn't have too much trouble adapting the principles to their computers, either. Conversion to double precision or 512 to 1024 points should also be possible, although the present addressing scheme would have to be aban-
doned.

I hope this program will provide you with a tool that will be a lot of fun to play with. Please write and tell me what uses you find ~: ,~or it and any improvements you would like , . .o suggest.

Continued on page 118

Listing 7, continued:

Continued from page 117

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Listing 2: The object code listing in hexadecimal format of the assembly language program given in listing 1. This listing can be used to manually enter the program or as a confirmation copy for the PAPERBYTEtm bar code representation given in figure 2. The format used for this listing is a 2 byte address field, followed by up to 16 bytes of data, with a 1 byte check digit at the end of each line. Note that the data in hexadecimal locations 0400 to 04FF constitute the sine and cosine lookup table which must be loaded with the transform subroutine.

Figure 2: PAPERBYTEtm bar code version of listing bar code version of fisting
2. For details on how to
read bar codes, see Bar
Code Loader, a PAPER-
BYTEtm book by Ken
Budnick.

 $\frac{0}{3}$ $\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{array}$ Ω

 $\frac{3}{6}$

 $\frac{0}{3}$

 $\frac{3}{8}$

 $\boldsymbol{0}$

 $\frac{3}{9}$

 $\boldsymbol{0}$ θ

 \mathfrak{D}

 $\overline{\mathbf{3}}$ 3

 Ω $\frac{0}{2}$ $\frac{0}{2}$ θ

2

 Ω Ω

119

 $\bf{0}$ $\frac{0}{3}$ $\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{array}$ $\boldsymbol{0}$ $\bf{0}$ $\frac{3}{6}$ $\frac{3}{7}$ $\frac{3}{8}$

 $\frac{3}{3}$

 $\overline{2}$

 $\overline{0}$ θ

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 θ

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 $\ddot{\mathbf{0}}$

2

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